

European Network Indicators of Social Quality  
- ENIQ -

“Social Quality”  
The French National Report

by  
Frédéric Salladarré  
& Prof. dr Denis Bouget

University of Nantes  
Maison des Sc. De l'Homme Ange Guepin

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## *European Foundation on Social Quality*

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### ***European Foundation on Social Quality***

*Felix Meritis Building*

*Keizersgracht 324*

*1016 EZ Amsterdam*

*Ph: +31 20 626 2321*

*Fax: +31 20 624 9368*

*Email: [EFSQ@felix.meritis.nl](mailto:EFSQ@felix.meritis.nl)*

*Website: [www.socialquality.org](http://www.socialquality.org)*



## **Preface**

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

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

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

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

Alan Walker, Chair of ENIQ

Laurent van der Maesen, Co-ordinator of ENIQ



## Participants

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





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# 1 Introduction

Due to the French ideology of social progress being deeply rooted in France, until the mid 70s, many authors had believed that poverty would disappear under the pressure of economic growth, the development of education and of social security, etc. In other words, this meant having a strong belief in the relationship between economic growth in society and the social spheres (education, social protection, life expectancy, etc.). However, in the sixties, a growing criticism of this relationship prompted an enlargement in the empirical analysis. In 1969, J. Delors very successfully proposed his idea of social indicators because the economic and monetary dimensions of economic growth failed to correctly assess the improvement in social life (demography, housing, etc.). Since then, there have been many attempts to produce social indicators in a great deal of areas, often in observatories (housing, consumption, etc.). However, for various reasons such attempts have come to nothing, mainly due to methodological and political reasons. The social indicators in France were not based on any theoretical corpus (for instance social capital). As a result, they were tenuously based on a weak consensus between the researchers or between the representatives of social institutions, etc. The lack of scientific basis facilitated the variation of political or governmental involvement in creating a consistent set of social indicators. In addition, the political will was fragmented and varied in accordance with public opinion. Consequently, they were discontinued and it was quite impossible to set a consistent long-term trend.

Today, there is a visible renewal of social indicators occurring under several social changes and pressures:

- The extension and the development of international comparisons between countries (at least some of the developed ones) foster new demands for social indicators,
- The need to enlarge the criteria of convergence, the Maastricht criteria, which are only economic and monetarist indicators, void of any social dimension,
- The creation of indicators of sustainable development; these indicators comprise a wide set of statistics on environment,
- the clear divergence between the economic trend (per capita GDP) and many social indicators (the measurement of economic welfare, a genuine progress indicator, the index of economic well-being, etc.) In short, this means that the development of social welfare is not automatically correlated, for example, with the GDP (Sharpe A.);
- a renewal of the theoretical approaches of social welfare (i.e., capabilities in Sen, difference principle in Rawls, social capital in Putnam, spheres of justice in Walzer, and social quality);
- a new demand for social indicators for communication, information (reporting) and public debate (Perret, 2002).

In this report we do not repeat the framework of the social indicators on social quality which is described and appraised in the general report. Just like the European Union or OECD, over the last three decades, INSEE (*Institut national de la statistique et des études économiques*) has produced certain publications which provide a wide range of statistics to describe the situation of the country. However, this publication does not just follow on from the previous ones. As a result, it is difficult to

obtain a clear picture of the problem (see the report of *Observatoire national de la pauvreté et de l'exclusion sociale, 2003-2004*). At the present time, the most famous analysis of social indicators is the BIP-40.

The objective of this study is to establish a set of indicators capable of forming the empirical basis of the concept of *social quality* for European citizens. Social quality is defined as the extent to which citizens are able to participate in the social and economic life of their communities under conditions which enhance their well-being and individual potential (Beck, 2001, p.6). Social quality contains four conditional factors, i.e. socio-economic security, social integration, social cohesion and empowerment. This conceptual frame is detailed in several books (Beck W. et al, 1997, 2000).

Whatever the criticism against this concept and its empirical content (Bouget, 2000), this is a serious attempt to engineer social indicators based on a conceptual approach. The set of relevant indicators should cover the relevant information required to understand and explain the social quality of life. The subject matter of the four conditional factors is intrinsically related by the same dialectic between self-realisation and the formation of collective identities.

Financial resources mirror the possibilities or the actual access to market and thus economic security. The ideas of deprivation and lack of resources are the basic components of the concept of poverty. Access to paid employment is the first pillar (social protection can be seen as the second) which provides the possibility for people to avoid poverty. Nevertheless, exclusion from the labour market (therefore the goods and services market) is not uniquely due to unemployment. Working conditions can be a yardstick of the different degrees of integration in, or exclusion from the labour market. Precariousness in the working conditions is also at the root of exclusion, i.e., low wages, low social protection, bad health, environment, etc.

Furthermore, the limitations surrounding monetary indicator means using indicators that contain a multi-dimensional disadvantage. Firstly, they are no more than proxies and, sometimes, bad proxies at that. Income sufficiency measures the capacity to get goods and services onto the market, but does not assure that the person or household uses the resources when buying them (CESIS, 1997, p.5). Secondly, poverty is characterised by aspects that cannot be translated into monetary terms. Psychological, social or cultural aspects can be used to qualify poverty (for instance, the lack of resources experienced by some people). Thus, poverty can be understood as an exclusion from the basic social system.

Social quality can be identified not only through objective aspects of peoples' lives but also by their values. Subjective effects (the cause or consequence of exclusion processes) lead to a vision of a breakdown in the representations attached to society. The feeling of identity is linked to the sense of belonging to society (e.g., the impact of unemployment or migration.). Social integration and social cohesion imply the feeling of belonging (to the family, group, community or society) and the fulfilment of citizenship. The individuals, groups or areas which are affected by social exclusion are faced with a breakdown in the representations attached to these activities and which were an important element of social identification and integration (i.e., identity, social visibility, self-esteem, basic abilities, interests and motivation, emotional stability and future prospects). People are supposed to be included within social, economic institutions such as the labour market, political systems and community organisations in order to realise their potential.

Problems are not only centred on individuals. A population can be deprived due to the fact that the spatial context in which they live lacks suppliers of public and private goods and services (e.g., deprived areas, historical centres, depressed industrial zones, accessibility to transport and communication). The multi-dimensional notion of poverty also emphasises the individual and household in its spatial dimension. The latter notion constitutes complementary analysis to the individual and household approach (the importance of poor areas for instance such as the exclusion of smaller social systems).

The lack of access to society's institutions and the non-use of civil, social and political rights can be one of the most relevant problems for certain groups. The difficulty or impossibility of participating in society is a factor of exclusion from the overall society, in other words, political or associative participation, an inability to communicate in the official language (integration in smaller groups; e.g., ethnic ones), and the importance of recognising citizenship. Real access to basic institutions and the real use of rights must be assessed. If people are empowered, they will be able to fully participate, especially in the face of rapid socio-economic change. Empowerment enables people to control their own lives and to take advantage of opportunities.

Starting with a theoretical framework, a set of indicators concerning social quality of life will be established according to two opposite dimensions, either a negative dimension (the measurement of social vulnerability, etc.) or a positive dimension (social participation, etc.).

Before analysing the four social quality conditional factors, two points will be presented. Firstly, the general social and economic situation will be described through two features which are particularly outstanding in the French case: firstly, unemployment and flexibility (in a negative sense comprising working poor, involuntary part-time workers, etc.). Secondly, we will present a synthetic index created by French researchers which aims to show the extent of inequality in different realms of social life.

### **The general French situation**

To describe the French situation, two main dimensions will be explored. Firstly, we will analyse one of our major social vulnerabilities, i.e., unemployment. Secondly, we will describe two related elements, i.e., flexibility and poverty.

### **Unemployment**

Since the 1980s, France has experienced high unemployment rates. This rate continually increased from less than 4% in 1975 to 9.8% in 2004, with a cycle which is clearly linked to the general economic cycle. Certain subgroups are more sensitive to unemployment, like women and young people. However, the long-term trend of unemployment shows that the French crisis has produced a new group, i.e., the unskilled.

The neo-liberal point of view is to attribute the French unemployment situation to the excess of rigidities in the labour market. French institutions have been reformed especially through social contribution exemptions, retraining programmes for the more fragile section of the population and early retirement. A process of successive steps of restrictions in the eligibility criteria for unemployment benefit was implemented during the 1980s and 1990s. At this time, the State tried to foster collective bargaining. Nowadays, increasing unemployment is due to growing female

participation and demographic change compared to the employment level growth in the labour market. French unemployment is characterised by a rather high average duration which also increases as employees get older. Long term unemployment (at least 12 months) is experienced by about one third of the unemployed.

The globalisation process and the changing domestic labour market conditions have increased all present social risks and vulnerabilities for some groups (the poorly educated and lone mothers with precarious jobs). In France, economic recession has combined precariousness with unemployment. Jobs are gradually more precarious (see the Precariousness Index). In 2002, part-time employees accounted for 16.2% of the employees. In 2000, a reduction in working time was implemented. The legal duration of work was shortened from 39 to 35 hours a week, a policy opposed by the present conservative government. Furthermore, transitory public jobs were created for the young in order to create activities.

### **Social protection**

The French welfare system was created in 1945. It is based on the principle of compulsory social insurance schemes covering social risks (pensions, family benefits, unemployment benefit and health services). Most of the cash benefits are income-related and proportioned in accordance with earnings (pensions, unemployment benefits and daily sickness benefits). However, family benefits and health services are not concerned by this rule.

The French system of social protection is classified as "Bismarkian" and corporatist-conservative (Esping Anderson, 1990). This has meant that the efficiency of social protection was based on labour, especially on full employment. Full employment meant that all people, the employed and the members of their families were entitled to full social rights. However, since the eighties, this system has gradually failed under the pressure of the economic crises or recessions. Consequently, new concerns have become focused on the most in need (the creation of a new minimum income, called *Revenu minimum d'insertion*, RMI and many social policies against social exclusion).

### **Flexibility and poverty**

As the rapidly changing structure and composition of the labour markets are calling for more flexibility, this could mean compromising on the protection of workers' incomes, rights and working conditions, especially in the case of women. The growth in part-time and temporary work, fixed term contracts and self-employment has gradually "outdated" the traditional social welfare system, largely based on full time employment. New concepts such as "flexicurity" (Oorshot, 2002; Wilthagen, 2002) means that the previous system which had been created over a long period of steady economic growth, has become too rigid and inefficient. Flexicurity is supposed to reconcile the necessary protection of workers and the necessary flexibility of the firms and the business. Each country tries to find a reconciliation between those two apparent oppositions or the fundamental contradictions of the capitalist society. Ughetto and Bouget have pointed to the impossible compromise in France. On the other hand, Iversen and Wren claim that there is a trilemma between growth, equity and budgetary constraints; Zeitlin and Trubeck (2003: 4) stress the fact that as regards the 'new economy, ready-made responses are unsatisfactory in an uncertain and rapidly changing socio-economic environment. Whatever the



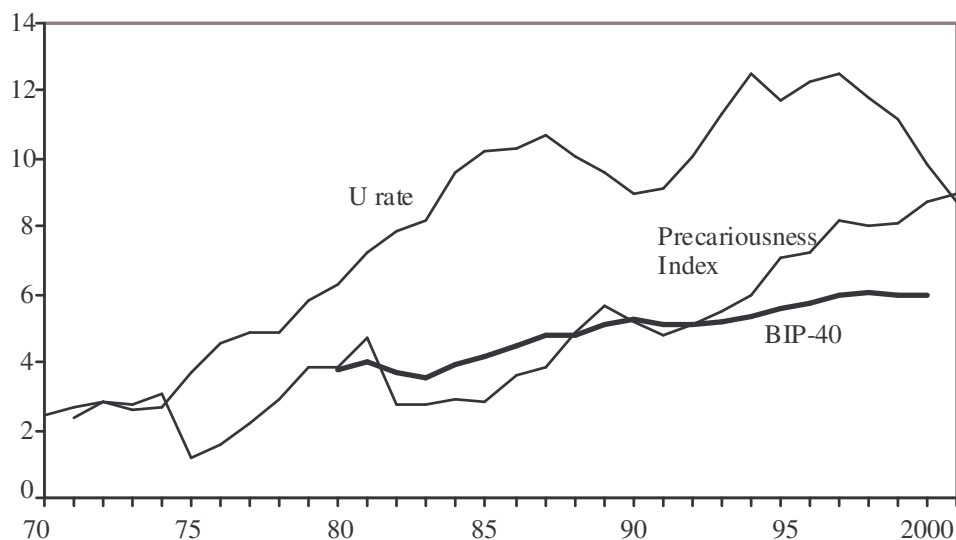
numerous explanations of the socio-economic situation, we can note that many reforms or new proposals have been made i.e; the open method of co-ordination at the European level, regional employment pacts, recalibration, 'good practices', benchmarking, cross fertilisation or hybridisation, reconciliation between work and family, new governance, etc. The supposed common challenges in the developed countries have not led to a common response. Today, the possible convergent trend between societies is also embedded in many new divergent responses or traditionally factors summarised in the notion of path dependency.

In France the measurement of social quality has to include all these transformations, in a highly unequal country (Dell, 2003).

A network of researchers (RAI), trade unions and social organisations (an organisation for the right to housing and the unemployed) has established a new synthetic index (Bip-40) which shows the extent of inequalities in different areas of social life and their long term trends. This index has been constructed on a similar methodology to the human development indicator (HDI). This barometer lists more than 60 statistical series concerning 6 areas of social and economic life: employment and work conditions; income and poverty; health; education; housing and justice. According to this approach, inequalities and poverty have increased in France from 1983 to 2004. Bip-40 has shown a generalised deterioration in the French social situation from 1983 to 2000, levelling off around 1990, but worsening from 1992 to 1999. In 2000 and 2001, the barometer decreased and this bore the sign of being a better situation (unemployment was decreasing, universal health coverage was being implemented and justice was being reformed). Nevertheless, since 2002, the generalised synthetic index has increased: inequality and poverty has once again surged in French society.

The trend of BIP 40 confirms certain other national or international studies on social indicators: the divergence between the economic development and the social welfare trend in the nineties. Despite the increase in per capita GDP in the nineties, indicators of social welfare have declined. We can also note the long term relationship between the unemployment rate and the precariousness rate (part-time, under-employment and percentage of women in part time work). Furthermore, despite a decreasing rate of unemployment since the mid nineties, we can note ever growing precariousness (Figure 1-1)! This means that very far reaching changes in the rules of the labour market (employment, occupational status, wages, time of work, health at work, etc..) rule out any general improvement in social welfare when unemployment decreases. This also means that the measurement of social welfare has to include new dimensions.

Figure 1-1 Unemployment rate, Precariousness index and BIP-40 index



Source: I.N.S.E.E.

U rate: Unemployment rate

Note: The Precariousness Index is a synthetic index which contains the proportion of women employed in part-time jobs related to part-time workers, the proportion of temp workers in employed population, the proportion of fixed-term contracts in the employed population, the proportion of involuntary part-time workers in the working population and the proportion of part-time workers in the working population.

## **2 Socio-economic Security**

### **2.1 Introduction**

In France, socio-economic security comprises two dimensions, general socio-economic security on the one hand, and specific socio-economic security in favour of the most in need, poor people, frail people, etc.

Society simultaneously creates uncertainty and security. Security means both a protection against a section a wide range of risks, financial risks, occupational risks, life risks, and the possibility of accepting and braving other risks. Both are continually in process.

In some cases, a developed society is described as a risky one. However, it is probably impossible to classify societies according to this unique concept and scale. Risk is a notion which combines objective dimensions and subjective ones. This means that we think that we live in a risky society because we feel it as such. The knowledge of the risks gradually develops in accordance with a mixture of scientific discoveries and beliefs on the future, in other words, on a society which refuses fatality. Economic development has done away with the risk of hunger in the rich countries but failed to eradicate poverty. Socio-economic development has successfully come to grips with contagious diseases but failed to eliminate all of them, etc. Biological discoveries and their implementation in the food industry has created new types of risks (obesity for instance).

In this chapter we describe several types of social indicator pertaining to household safety in France. These take into account the difference between the facts, the events and the feelings which can be totally different and, sometimes contradictory. For instance, a perfectly selfish person can claim in a poll that he or she would like to live in a totally altruistic society. Socio-economic security indicators are often very sensitive to this difference between the facts and public opinion.

In addition, it is necessary to distinguish the behaviour between different groups of population. Taylor Gooby (2001, p.210) have highlighted this difference between working class people and the middle and upper classes. The impact of the contingencies of social life explains that working class people express concern about the paths open to them in a risk-filled society and express a high demand for the social welfare system.

### **2.2 Financial resources**

Resources can take the form of cash income, income in kind and public services (health or education are partially or totally protected from the market). An inability to participate in the consumer market is a key factor of poverty.

## 2.2.1 Income sufficiency

As a rule, minimum income is the assessment of income sufficiency. The absolute income differences spark differences in the consumption budget of households. This paragraph describes the budgetary coefficients of different consumer expenditure.

Necessary income is a component which demonstrates how expenditures are distributed among different goods and services according to income level. Specific focus will be operating on the weight of household expenditures in the household budget.

**Table 2.1 Household budgetary coefficients in 2001 (%)**

Average income per Consumption unit, euros	0 - 9,444	9,445 - 12,664	12,665 - 16,278	16,279 - 22,607	>22607	Total
Food at home	19.1	17.1	15.8	13.8	10.7	14.2
Food outside home	3.5	3.7	4.0	4.5	4.7	4.2
Cloth	5.6	5.1	5.0	5.0	5.0	5.1
Housing	24.1	21.0	18.4	15.9	14.6	17.5
Health	3.7	4.1	3.7	3.4	3.0	3.4
Transprt, telecom	13.4	14.5	15.5	16.4	12.7	14.4
Culture and leisure	6.0	6.9	6.4	6.4	6.8	6.5
Other goods and services**	9.7	9.3	9.2	9.1	8.2	8.9
Miscellaneous***	14.9	18.3	21.9	25.5	34.3	25.8
Total	15,650	22,219	27,066	34,579	50,301	29,963

\*\*Other goods and services include aesthetic care, insurances, financial services. \*\*\*Other items include taxes, reimbursement, tobacco, education, heavy work in houses (renovation/repair), cash donations

Source: Cérani N. et Camus M, 2004, 'Le budget des familles en 2001', *Insee résultat*, n°29, April, p.20-21

As they are very well known (Engel coefficients), several types of consumption (clothes, health and transport) are not clearly related to income level. Proportionally, low income households spend proportionally twice more on food than high income households. They spend 24 % of their income on housing and this proportion is only 14.6% for the high income households (Table 2.1). A significant difference also concerns the “other categories”, for which the budgetary coefficient in the high income households doubles that of the low income. Nevertheless, budgetary coefficients do not allow us to take quality and characteristics into account (Ponthieux, 2002). Furthermore, women encounter more problems than men in paying for food. The population under 25 years old and the population aged up to 55 years old are less concerned by these kinds of difficulties (Gallie, 2002, p.34).

**Table 2.2 Percentage of household income spent on housing (%)**

	Rent/income		(Rent – housing allowance)	
	1988	2002	1988	2002
Low income households*	29.0	40.1	12.9	16.1
social sector	26.6	33.4	7.6	10.0
private sector	31.7	50.8	19.0	25.7
Modest households**	19.2	24.9	11.4	16.7
Other households	13.7	16.9	12.9	16.1
Total households which rent housing	15.1	19.7	12.7	16.2

\*Low income households: income below 50% of the median income; \*\*Modest households: households with standards of living (equivalised income) under the third decile

Source: Driant, 2004

Since the early nineties, housing expenditure has become the highest expenditure in France. Today, it is becoming a serious problem because of a permanent price increase and the growing risk of homelessness. Low income households spend 40% of their incomes on their accommodation compared to almost 20% for total households which rent their housing (Table 2.2). From 50% of the income in the private sector for 2002, the proportion decreases to 25.7% if we take into account the amount of allowance they received. The housing allowance effect is higher in low income household budgets but, the effect of the constant price increase in accommodation today leads to a new type of social exclusion, especially in the case of young people.

The proportion of income allocated to housing increased throughout the whole population between 1998 and 2002 (even when considering the social housing services). The price of housing is now increasing twice as fast as the general consumer price index. It can be stated that a part of the process of poverty today originates from this new process.

### 2.2.2 Income security

Biographical events, such as unemployment or disability, can affect one's capacity to work and to earn money in the life cycle. Poverty is a dynamic situation, especially if family or individual incomes are highly volatile. Cohort analysis provides some information on the dynamics of poverty.

As a rule, employment and family are economically favourable events but, unemployment and social isolation are unfavourable (Duncan, 1993). In France, Zoyem (2002) has provided a lot of information on entry into and exit from poverty.

Young people are a mobile population. Young people are a group with a high entry and exit probability. The probability of exiting from poverty decreases according to the age while the probability of entering poverty remains stable.

Large family or single mothers with dependent children are two situations in which the probability of entering and exiting from poverty is the highest. A child's departure is catastrophic for a proportion of single adults while the departure of a child in a couple family improves the income situation of the family.

The probability of exiting from poverty increases with the number of working months whereas the risk of entering poverty increases when the number of working months decreases. This phenomenon is particularly marked for single adult households (20% become poor when the number of working hours decreases and it is four times those who constantly work) (Table 2.3). For couples, child births increase the risk of entering poverty, but do not modify the probability of departure from poverty.

**Table 2.3 Poverty entry-exit flow (1994-1998)**

	Average of real income variation of poor people	Percent. of households exiting from poverty	Percent of households entering poverty
<b>Total</b>	23	32	6
Head of household age			
17-24 years old	40	44	10
25-29 years old	33	43	6
30-39 years old	20	32	6
40-49 years old	20	31	7
50 years old and more	20	25	6
Household members			
Couple without dependent children	33	40	3
Couple with one dependent child	25	33	5
Couple with two dependent children	24	37	6
Couple with three dependent children	13	24	12
Single man with/without children	24	32	7
Single woman without dependent children	33	37	6
Single woman with dependent children	20	27	11
Number of months worked during the last 24 months			
Couple: less than 12 months	16	18	23
Couple: 12 months	16	31	11
Couple: 13 to 23 months	32	49	6
Couple: 24 months	34	42	3
Single adult: less than 12 months	22	27	20
Single adult: 12 months	31	45	4
Changes in number of months of work			
Couple: number of months of work increases	33	43	6
Couple: number of months of work decreases	9	21	10
Couple: constant number of months of work	20	30	5
Single adult: number of months of work increases	42	45	11
Single adult: number of months of work decreases	13	26	22
Single adult: constant number of months of work	17	25	5
Family events			
Couple: child birth	36	30	8
Couple: child departure	23	37	7
Couple: no changes	21	32	6
Single adult: child departure	22	35	14
Single adult: no changes	24	31	8

Source: Zoyem, 2002, p.11

### 2.2.3 Poverty before and after entitlement transfers

The efficiency of the income transfers (social security system and taxation) is often assessed by certain indicators which are known as the Beckerman target efficiency measures. A comparison of the number of people on low incomes before social benefits other than pensions and after social benefits

illustrates the redistributive effect of such benefits. The poverty rate before social transfers shows the percentage of the population with an income per consumption unit before social transfers below the poverty line (60% of the median income). Around 24% per cent of French citizens had an equivalised income lower than 60% of the national median income in 2001 (excluding pensions, Table 2.4). Social benefits reduce the percentage of potentially poor people, i.e., the share of persons with a disposable income per consumption unit below the poverty threshold was 14% in 2001. France is approximately situated at the European level. In fact, France ranked 13<sup>th</sup> before transfers and 9<sup>th</sup> after transfers.

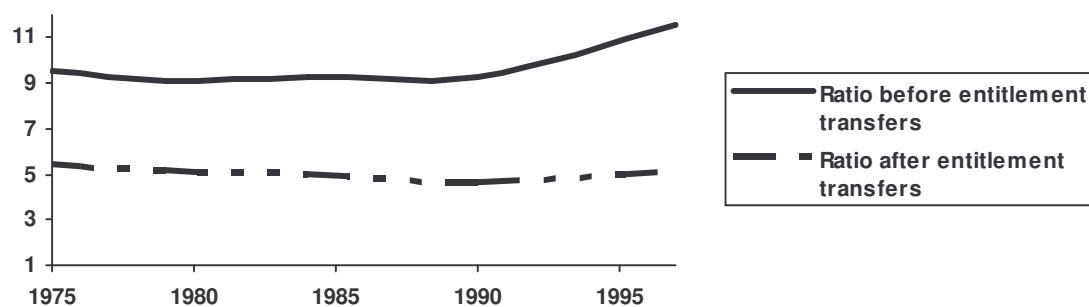
**Table 2.4 The impact of social transfers (excluding pensions) on the risk-of-poverty rate before transfers**

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
<b>EU-15</b>							
Poverty rate before redistribution	26	25	25	24	24	23	24
Poverty rate after redistribution	17	16	16	15	15	15	15
<b>France</b>							
Poverty rate before redistribution	26	26	26	25	24	24	24
Poverty rate after redistribution	15	15	15	15	15	16	15

Source: Eurostat, 2004c

Nevertheless, the income below the poverty line does not show how severe poverty is (the poverty gap). In 1999, half of the people living in a low income household in the EU/France had an equivalised household income that was more than 22% below the French average poverty income.

**Figure 2.1 Inter-decile ratio before and after entitlement transfers (mean income)**



The interdecile ratio is defined as the D9 / D1 ratio. Figure 2.1 clearly shows several phenomena:

- the increase of income inequality throughout the nineties ; this is provided mainly by the increasing precariousness among the poorest and by the increase in the financial incomes among the richest;
- the high impact of social protection and taxation on inequality;
- the growing efficiency of the social policies to reduce poverty in the nineties which results from the creation of the minimum income and several other reforms to better protect the poorest against the vicissitudes of the changing economy.

However, we have to remember that income inequality in France is higher than in many other EU countries (15 countries);

International comparisons are not easy to make because of demographic differences between countries.

## 2.3 Housing and environment

For the last fifteen years, the growth in various forms of poverty and vulnerability has made access to housing and help to remain within it a prerequisite. Guaranteeing the right to a home has become a prior government objective. Housing is now considered to be a national fundamental right. An Act of 6 July 1989 recognized the right to housing as a "basic right" and that of 31 May 1990 expressly stipulated that "guaranteeing the right to housing is a duty for the whole nation in the name of solidarity". This means both housing security and an improvement in housing conditions. It also includes an improvement in the environment security.

### 2.3.1 Housing security

Several social policies, social and civil rights are helping to ease the problem of housing insecurity.

- In the 90s, the setting up at local level of Housing Solidarity Funds (FSL - *Fonds de solidarité logement*), with matched funding from central government and the *départements* (second local government tier). FSL provides supporting measures (financial assistance, social assistance for the family, for instance). FSL was set up in 1990 and helped 1.5 million households in difficulty in 2000 (500,000 of them since the coming into force of the 1998 Act combating the various forms of social exclusion).

- the national regulation system considers that housing expulsion must be limited to unfair and insincere people. Furthermore, expulsion is forbidden for a family during the winter months.

- In the social housing sector, before initiating court proceedings to recover rent arrears, the local authorities submit the case to the departmental housing benefit section or the family benefits fund in order to find ways of settling the rent arrears.

- Two months will have elapsed after the order before the courts can give a ruling. The bailiff responsible for informing the tenant of his court order must also notify the *Préfet* who is responsible for ordering a welfare investigation with the relevant bodies.

Despite the quality of those policies or legal decisions, a social inquiry in 1996 showed that 325 000 people did not pay for at least two months, (5 to 6% of people in the social sector and 2% in private sector).

In 1999, 38,644 home expulsion orders led to 4,866 interventions by the police.

Furthermore, demonstrations by new social movements have succeeded in preventing expulsions.

### 2.3.2 Hidden families

In 2001, it appeared that about 100,000 people were living with family members or friends because they have no other solution. We can add about another 500,000 to this figure if we include those living provisionally in hotels.



### 2.3.3 Housing conditions

In the social sector, the average number of square meters per person was about 15 square meters for large families against approximately 23 square meters for the other low income families in 2002 (Annex, A.2.3.2). As in many developed countries, France experienced a general improvement in housing conditions (i.e., surface area, the number of rooms and comfort). 2.6% of French households were not in a comfortable situation in 2002 compared to about 10% in 1988 and approximately 40% in 1973 (Table 2.5).

**Table 2.5 Households without basic functioning amenities (%)**

	1973	1984	1992	2002
Proportion of uncomfortable households*	39.0	15.0	6.2	2.6
Without running water	3.4	0.4	0.2	0.1
Only running water	22.9	7.5	2.8	0.8
Running water and toilets without bathroom nor shower	8.7	4.4	2.0	0.8
bathroom or shower without toilet	4.0	2.7	1.2	0.9
Toilet and bathroom or shower without heating system	11.6	8.6	7.0	3.3

\* Households without bathroom and toilet

Source: Insee, 2003b, p.12

However, this trend hides another process of deprivation which worsens the other factors of poverty and social exclusion. About 15% of low income households (60% of median income) lived in overpopulated housing in 2002 compared to 7% of total households (Table 2.5). Overpopulation is based on the number of rooms per person, i.e., a living room, one bedroom for the head of household (reference person or couple), a room for two children under 7 years old and one room for each person/couple different from the head of household. There was a slight dip in overpopulation for low income households between 1988 and 2002.

**Table 2.6 Overcrowded households by income group (1999, %)**

	EU	France
All households	10	7
Low income households*	16	15

Note: Low income households\*: household income < 60% median income

Source: Eurostat, 2004, p.90

Low income households are more affected by lack of amenities (no bathroom/shower and toilet) than the others: 7% of low income households were not comfortable in 2002 (Driant, 2004). The quality of comfort in housing has constantly improved: in 1988, 24% of housing among the poor was not comfortable. In 2002, this proportion decreased to 7% (Driant, 2004).

Large families with low income have difficulty in finding housing to match their needs. Among social sector housings, low income couples with at least two children account for 50% of total couples,

compared to 16% for the rich families (seven superior deciles). This is the principal factor explaining the overpopulation in the social sector (Driant, 2004).

Social exclusion in urban areas is the cumulative result of several factors: the rural exodus which has created a constantly high demand for new housing over several decades; a modernist logic in architecture founded on functionalism and the separation of economic and social functions (Le Corbusier); an explicit zoning policy of urban space; the poor quality of the environment or in public housing [*habitat à loyer modéré*, HLM]; the impact of unemployment on incomes and the inability of families to pay the rent; changes in immigration which have increasingly entailed the immigration of families rather than of workers; an increase in isolation and loneliness; an increase in violence, illegal peddling and delinquency. In urban areas, the housing policy in the sixties focused on the construction of large blocks of flats [*Habitat à loyer modéré*, HLM] and caused a social concentration of poor and excluded people in such suburbs. This housing policy reinforced social exclusion by a spatial dimension which largely explains the current spatial or zoning policies: urban policy, educational zoning, local economic development, public services maintenance or development, rebuilding, renovation of flats, and last but not least, transport policy to lessen the isolation of deprived suburbs. For several decades, we have noted a narrowing of the housing market. The creation of new flats or houses is insufficient and leads to an over-demand and a rapid hike in the rental prices. Since 1987, the rental prices have increased faster than the general index of consumer prices (+30% higher than general consumption) between 1987 and 2002. The second factor is the increasing difficulty in buying a house because of the general economic recession, despite a low rate of interest. Certain specific factors curb access to housing for the poor. These difficulties prevent a larger section of population living in "social housing" from moving out of it and this slows down the rotation or the turn over. Consequently, the access of poor people to social housing is blocked by this rigidity.

Another factor has created an increase in the homeless people. For the sake of improving housing quality (comfort), a section of the poor quality housing (cheap hotels for instance) has been destroyed during the last two decades. Yet this housing renewal has triggered a steep rise in prices and has become an extra factor in poverty and homelessness.

All those phenomena can explain the vindication of the new social movements, especially for housing.

### **2.3.4 Environmental conditions (social and natural)**

Two different types of environment are studied here, social environment (security/insecurity in daily life), and natural environment (pollution, etc.).

France has witnessed an increase in violence. Such is the common view about the development of violence in France. However, we have to make a distinction between objective violence (e.g., murder) and subjective violence or the feeling of violence. From a historical point of view, it is obvious that the different types of violence have decreased in France since the 18<sup>th</sup> Century (Chesnais, 1981).

During recent years, about 20% of people or someone among their close friends and family have been the victim of a burglary at home; a similar percentage of people say that they suffered from a car theft (Table 1.7). Victims live more frequently and in the cities especially in Paris and its suburbs. 15% of people or their close friends and family have been mugged during recent years.

However, for some decades violence has seemed to increase the feeling of insecurity faster than real violence. The mean delinquent age is becoming lower with time. French people are feeling less and less secure (an increase in insurance policies due to criminality/delinquency) (Dubois Fresney, 2002). On the other hand, people who feel insecure are not the most vulnerable to aggressions. This feeling is positively related to the death penalty and immigrant rejection. The media tends to stigmatize certain urban areas or social or ethnic groups as “dangerous” (Dubois Fresney, 2002).

**Table 2.7 Victims of violence in 2001 (%)**

	Positive answers
Burglary	21
Car theft	20
Street theft	17
Physical mugging	15
Racketeering	8

Source: Dubois Fresney, 2002, p.65

The meaning of criminality and violence in society is very difficult to analyse. We generally consider a relationship between economic conditions, unemployment, inequality and social protection. In France we clearly note a transfer from socioeconomic security through social protection to an increasing police protection.

Noise is the main physical pollution in cities. In 2001, 25% of households in cities considered that in their neighbourhood there was often noise pollution at home. Noise pollution at home was more frequent for first deciles households. 11% of city households deemed that in their district air pollution was very high in 2001, against 14% of households who considered that air pollution was moderately inconvenient and against 75% for whom it was not at all inconvenient.

## 2.4 Health and care

The French health care system is a very complicated one largely based on the principle of social contributions on earnings (Bismarckian system) and on a 'liberal' care system of providers. Until the late 20<sup>th</sup> Century, this system entailed two main types of exclusion, a selectivity effect on the one hand, a marketisation effect on the other hand. The selectivity effect comprises:

- the fragmentation of financing among a lot of different *régimes* (the occupational selectivity effect) of social contributions;
- the exclusion of non-contributors from the *régimes* (the assistance selectivity effect) which compelled them to request benefits in the assistance sector;
- several mechanisms operated by local social assistance which used to reinforce incentive effect:, needs testing, income testing, the subsidiarity principle against every other financing source, especially family solidarity, food requirement *obligation alimentaire*] (the subsidiarity effect).

The other dimension of non-universality is linked to the market orientation of some of the health sector:

- the fee-for-service system of the health service;
- the payment of medical services by patients; everybody was compelled to pay for the visit to the doctor; today, it is possible to avoid this payment;
- the supplement of a national contractual tariff which is not reimbursed by any social insurance ("secteur II");
- Co-payment which depends on medical criteria. Co-payment in France is the highest in European countries. When co-payment is sometimes very high, more and more people have a supplementary insurance organised by mutual insurance societies, called *Mutuelles*, which is not compulsory. However we can note a drop in subscriptions because of the difficulties for more and more families to pay the co-payment;
- a non reimbursed hospital accommodation tariff [*forfait journalier*] to pay and several medical services which are very poorly reimbursed (glasses, dental and hearing aids).

#### 2.4.1 Security of health provisions

The gradual implementation and extension of the social security in France is described in Table 2.8, with an increase in the role of Social security system and a decrease in personal financing (mainly the co-payment). The involvement of the *Mutuelles* remains marginal and stable. The financing role of the State is becoming more and more marginal.

**Table 2.8 Health expenses according to the source of financing (%)**

Paid by	1960	1980	2000
Social Security	53.2	78.2	75.4
State	9.2	3.0	1.1
mutual benefit society	5.2	5.1	7.4
Patient and private insurances	32.4	13.8	16.1

Source: *Alternatives Economiques*, n°58, 4<sup>e</sup> trimestre 2003, p.26

Patients have a free choice of provider. In practice, there are certain limitations to this principle due to problems with geographical accessibility in rural or suburban areas.

Since the creation of the *Couverture médicale universelle* (CMU), [Universal Health Coverage], in January 2000, the population with no public health insurance has been entitled to this benefit (1,000,000 recipients) on the basis of legal residence in France. However, it is not really a universal scheme because it is a means-tested system (Palier, 2002). The total cost of health care is funded by CMU without any co-payment. This system co-exists with the ordinary scheme of health insurance. In 2000, 86% of the population had additional and complementary voluntary health insurance coverage. The introduction of CMU in 2000 provides free complementary health insurance coverage for poor people and it brings the proportion of the population covered by complementary health insurance to over 90%.

## 2.4.2 Health services

In 2001, there were 329 practitioners for 100,000 inhabitants (615 people per general practitioner), lower than the European mean (37.5 against 32.8 in 1999). From 1991, the number of practitioners has continued to increase but without any convergence trend.

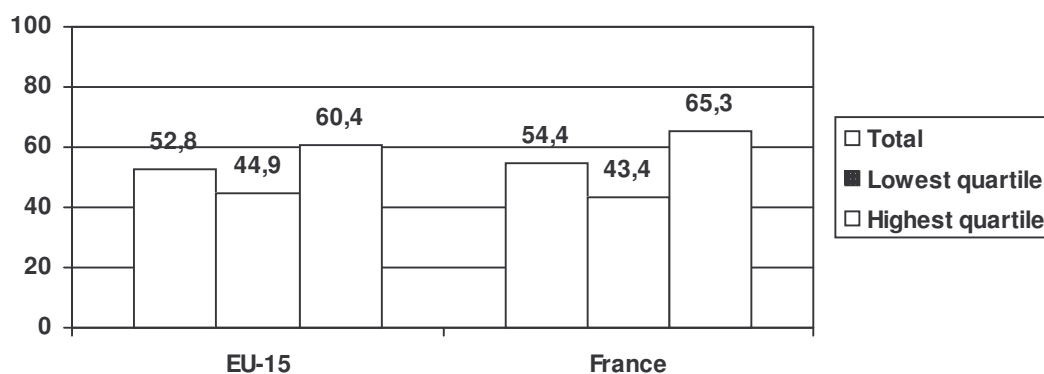
**Table 2.9 Number of general practitioners per 100,000 inhabitants**

	1991	1999	2000
EU-15	316	375	-
France	309	328	329

Source: Eurostat, 2003b, p.102

Despite the relatively lower number of practitioners in France, the access and proximity to health care facilities, an important element in individual security seems better in France than in Europe. Poor people have less access to hospitals less than 20 minutes' away. In each case, around 60% of highest incomes have easy access compared to approximately 44% for lowest incomes households (Figure 2.2). Easy access to primary health care (less than 20 minutes away) is provided for 85% of the residents in the EU-15. 87.8% of French people have easy access to general practitioner's surgery in 2002. A difference of 1.7 points separates those with higher income from those with lower income which is close to the EU-15 average (EFIWLC, 2002, p.33).

**Figure 2.2 Proximity to hospitals by income (% having access to a hospital in less than 20 minutes by quartiles of household-equivalence income) in 2002**



Source: EFIWLC, 2003, p.28

## 2.4.3 Care services

In France, the data on paid and unpaid care are not known.

## **2.5 Work**

### **2.5.1 Employment security**

#### **The labour contract**

A permanent contract is defined for an unlimited period. The employee may be required to work for a trial period (from one to six months). The trial period cannot be extended (except as stipulated in the terms of the contract). An employee can resign at any moment without giving a reason. There are no specific legal requirements concerning notice but employees may need to comply with time limits specified by custom, collective agreements or company agreements. The decision to stop a permanent contract may be taken by the employee (resignation, retirement) or by the employer (dismissal, compulsory retirement).

In the event of resignation, the employee does not have to give a reason but he usually has to give notice: a period of time between announcing the resignation and the actual end of the contract. It is important to note that resignation, unlike dismissal or the end of a contract, does not entitle the employee to unemployment benefit except in certain cases (marriage, moving house, etc.). When an employee resigns, holiday and other entitlements such as loyalty bonuses, 13<sup>th</sup> month bonuses and profit-sharing will be paid on the basis of the time worked.

There are two cases in which an employer can dismiss an employee: for real and personal reasons (the employee is guilty of professional misconduct, quits his job, is absent without justification, etc.) or for economic reasons. Redundancy may affect one or more people. Employees are usually given some form of assistance to help them to find a new job. All employees who have permanent contracts and have worked for at least two years in the company are entitled to a redundancy payment (1/10<sup>th</sup> of the monthly salary for each year of employment in the company).

In the case of a fixed-term contract, the end of the contract is officially known. The contract is drawn up for a temporary period in order to replace an absent employee, seasonal work, occasional work. A fixed-term contract can last for a maximum of 18 months (24 months in some cases). The employee is entitled to the same rights, both individual and collective, as other company employees. The employee receives an end of contract payment: (at least 6% of the total gross pay and a payment in lieu of holiday entitlement that the employee was unable to take). The employer can propose a permanent contract when the fixed-term contract expires. The temporary employment contract is similar to the fixed-term contract. It is used to carry out a specific task, or assignment for a certain period of time. The temporary worker is employed by an agency which has a contract with the employer. A contract cannot exceed 18 months for the same assignment (24 months in some cases).

## Non permanent job contracts

**Table 2.10 Percentage of employees with a fixed term contract by sex, 2002**

	EU	France
Men	12	12
Women	14	16

Source: Eurostat, 2004, p.46

### Illegal Work

Illegal work is not really known. In 2002, 20,000 employees were concerned with and it represents 8,500 employers.

## 2.5.2 Working conditions

### Accidents at work

In 2000, around 5% of French workers were victims of industrial injuries or accidents at work (resulting in more than three days absence) (Table 2.11). There were about 7 fatal accidents at work per 100,000 employed persons. The rates of fatal and non-fatal accidents at work have decreased since 1996.

Working experience increases and risk behaviour decreases with age. For non-fatal accidents at work the incidence rate was twice as high among the 18-24 years old as workers over 45 years old in 2000. Conversely, non fatal accidents at work occurred more frequently among those aged 45 years than among those aged 18-24 years.

**Table 2.11 Fatal and non fatal Work accidents 2000**

	EU	France
<b>Work accidents with more than three days absence (per 100,000 persons)</b>		
Total	4,016	5,030
Age group under 25	5,653	8,573
Age group 45 and over	3,446	4,090
<b>Fatal work accidents (per 100,000 employed persons)</b>		
Total	5	6
Age group under 25	3	4
Age group 45 and over	7	10

Source: Eurostat, 2004, p.104 and 118

The accident incidence rate at work varies among the different economic activities. The highest rate, in the building industry is twice the average rate (Annex A.2.5.5).

### Number of hours a full-time employee typically works a week.

A French move from the 39-hour week to the 35-hour week was launched by two Acts in 1998 and 2000. The real effect of this legal work time has been only a 10% decrease in the average. In

September 2000, out of 12.5 million full-time employees were falling within the scope of the two Acts (i.e. not including civil servants, local government officers and employees of public corporations), The introduction of the 35-hour week is confirming a trade-off temporarily oriented people towards more leisure time rather than higher wages.

In France, full time employees worked an average of 40.7 hours per week in 2003. Since 1996 the working time per week has been decreasing and, today, the French working week is lower than the European average.

## 2.6 Education

Around 13 million pupils and students attend school and university in France. The system is a unified one, whose present general structure (primary schools, *collèges* for pupils 11-14 years old, *lycées* for pupils 15-18 years old, university or *grandes écoles* for students) has been inspired by Republican ideology. The school is compulsory until 16 years old, which means that all the pupils attend primary school and *collège*. After that, they can move onto a general, technical or vocational "lycée" or general "lycée" and the final exam is the general/ professional *baccalauréat*. This 'public' system is free of charge, and takes in 60% of all youths.

### 2.6.1 Security of education

In France, education and the diploma, especially the *Baccalauréat*, is deemed as an important dimension of socio-economic security. In short, it serves as a protection from unemployment and from poverty.

The proportion of youngsters leaving school without any official qualifications (i.e. without having at least reached the final year of a short vocational training course) dropped from around 33% in the 1960s to under 15% in the 1990s. In 2002, around 85% of the younger generation had completed at least upper secondary education (Table 2.12); 13.5% of 18-24 year-olds had left the education system without completing a qualification beyond lower secondary schooling compared to almost 20% for European Union (15 countries). Every year 60,000 young people leave the educational system without any qualification (on around 750 000 young people). They encounter many difficulties in getting into professional activities.

Several reforms have sought to improve the quality of school: an extension in compulsory schooling, an increase in the enrolment and pass rates at secondary school and at university.

**Table 2.12 Early school-leavers (not in further or occupational training), 2001**

	France	EU 15
Men	15.0	21.9
Women	12.0	16.8
Total	13.5	19.4

Source: Eurostat, 2003c, p.175



Even if female pupils succeed better than the males at school (Table 1.12, Baudelot and Establet, 1998), they have more difficulties in entering the labour market and in being hired by private firms. The same 'disqualification' also works against the young immigrants from former French colonies, or from European Eastern countries, for instance.

Another fragmentation of the French institution of education after the *Baccalauréat* is the dual system in upper education, i.e., "*Universités*" on the one hand and "*Grandes Ecoles*" (around 5% of the population of students) on the other hand. The private and public *Grandes écoles* are working on principles of selective entrance and are often considered as the elitist part of the system. The bulk of the people in top jobs in both the engineering fields and the professions have diplomas from a "*grande école*" or have successfully completed an upper graduate diploma.

The entrance to university is non selective and obeys a general principle of Republican equality.

Tuition fees at university and in the public *Grandes Écoles*, are not expensive and cost 300-400 euros (less than 1/50 of annual net mean wage), including student social security contributions for health care. Furthermore, a system of means-tested scholarship helps 30% of the students at university: 11% of students are workers' children and they account for 23% of scholarship beneficiaries.

Simultaneously, recent studies on poverty point to a hidden social problem, i.e., poverty among the students in France (Grignon, 2003) which is becoming visible through specific demands for assistance and the development of working students which often leads to the failure in their exams.

The exclusion from education, which means the absence of any diploma, means a high risk of future economic difficulties. We can say that the current development of new technologies and the national and European ideology of a knowledge-based society fuel the idea of a life failure when the youth cannot pass any exam at school.

According to Lescure and L'Horty (1994), since the early 80s, the French economic trend has led to a selectivist effect of unemployment on the low skilled. Simultaneously, there is a growing agreement among economists and politicians to consider that low skill unemployment is due to exorbitant low-skilled labour costs. However, another argument is to state that, on a labour market where conditions work against workers, low skilled people are unemployed mainly because employers can choose to hire people with higher skills (paid at a low wage). Certain other economists stress the negative consequences which would appear by lowering labour costs, i.e., if labour becomes less expensive compared to capital, incentives for modernisation will decrease. In all likelihood, low skill unemployment has to be interpreted as a product of both structural changes in work organisation (the shift towards quality in the products implies a shift towards autonomy, improved skills, etc.) and the human-resource policies of firms (preferring 'over-skilling'). Both help to generate 'exclusion unemployment' (Wuhl, 1992). This provides a relevant understanding of the protective role played by academic qualifications: on the one hand, having a further qualification is a relative protection against unemployment and explains why young people have put off entrance into the labour market; but, on the other hand, the effectiveness of the protection of a specific qualification is falling because, as it becomes more widespread, it loses its relative impetus.

Almost 30% of unqualified French people are unemployed. In 2002, youth unemployment (15-24 years old) was about 20%, more than twice the average rate of unemployment. However, it can be noted that the difference remains stable in time, whatever the business cycle. Therefore, we can say that it is

a structural problem in French society. However, 45% of people who left school 1 to 4 years ago with no diploma were unemployed in 2002 compared to 10.6% of people with a tertiary education. We must insist on this difference which highlights the growing difficulty of labour market entrance for the unskilled. Several occupational training policies have been created and enhanced in employment policies but the efficiency of these policies is not obvious (Table 1.13) when we compare the decrease in the unemployment rate between 1997 and 2002 among the tertiary education population (from 17.1 to 10.6%) and the decrease among the unqualified population (from 50.9 to 45%).

The aim of continuing education, vital for what is now known as life-long learning, was originally to provide a second chance, attenuating or correcting the legacy of an inadequate basic education, but it hardly fulfils this role. At the same time, the idea that experience in a trade is as valid as a qualification obtained at school or in higher education is gaining ground. Yet the rules for validating vocational achievements, brought in by the 1985 and 1993 Acts, still come up against serious obstacles. In 1998, only 12,000 people managed to validate the achievements of their experience, principally in university education.

**Table 2.13 Unemployment rate of school leavers according to their diplomas (%)**

	Leave school from				Total population	
	1 to 4 years		5 to 10 years		1997	2002
	1997	2002	1997	2002		
Tertiary education	17.1	10.6	7.8	5.3	7.7	5.5
Secondary education	26.9	15.6	11.0	7.9	11.4	8.1
PLC*/G.C.E./O-levels/VTC**	32.3	24.2	16.4	14.2	11.4	8.4
No diploma	50.9	45.0	32.0	28.9	17.5	14.1
<b>Total</b>	26.8	18.1	15.0	10.5	12.3	8.9

\*PLC: Primary leaving certificate

\*\*VTC: Vocational training certificate

Source: Insee, 2003d, p.193

## **3 Social Cohesion**

### **3.1 Introduction**

Delimited by the nation and social State, norms and shared values by individuals are in permanent inter-relation with social infrastructures and the societal institutions. "Social Cohesion concerns the processes that create, defend or demolish social network and the social infrastructures underpinning these networks. An adequate level of social cohesion is one which enables citizens "to exist as real human subjects, as social being" (Beck., 1997, p.284). It is a dynamic and evolving process. Social cohesion operates at micro level (personal network composed by family, friends, colleagues, and neighbours) and at a macro level (institutions). Collective values (society life conception, attachment to democracy) are distinct from private values (family ideal, religious choices) without strict separation. How is it possible, when values are recognised as a driving force, to characterize and evaluate social cohesion assumed to be shared values and norms interlinked between micro and macro levels? How have values evolved over recent years? Do the changes in values come from a period effect (which affects all cohorts) or from cohorts' renewal? (changes come from new cohorts).

Trust in other people or in a particular institution, other integrative norms and values, social network and identity will be analysed for the French case within a general and global trend in the developed societies: extension in the individualisation of values (the importance of personal development, individual autonomy in relation with institutions and networks).

Social cohesion concept is built on the idea that social relations, shared norms and values and trust facilitate co-ordination and co-operation between individuals or groups. Sociability and social participation, norms, shared values and trust are considered as a stock of capital at the region, and even country level, and to raise it as a unique principle able to explain multiple economic and social phenomena. In this way, social cohesion is based on the strength or weakness of social relations, through the interactions between integrative norms and values, collective identities, and trust' (Berman, 2003, p.19). Social cohesion also depends on the common values in society and the different ways of solving conflicts in society, interpersonal conflicts and conflicts between social groups (employers / employees, young / aged, rural /urban, gender, etc.).

Some dimensions of social cohesion are studied here: trust, integration of norms, social networks and identity.

### **3.2 Trust**

Trust in other people, which underpins all private, social and public life, is evolving in different ways. The level of trust is identified by several factors affecting it: tolerance, permissiveness, altruism and confidence in institutions. The sense of belonging to a community appears to be similar from country to country but trust, selectiveness and permissiveness greatly vary. France appears as a permissive country with an exceptionally low level of trust. There is a positive correlation between the level of trust and the degree to which people are active in voluntary organisation (Galland, 2002), although, the

correlation between trust and sociability is not obvious. In France, for instance, there is a low level of trust and medium participation in voluntary organisations, but a lot of socialising with friends.

### 3.2.1 Generalised trust

#### Extent to which most people can be trusted

According to empirical studies, French people appear pessimistic towards their society. Their spontaneous trust level was one of the lowest in Europe in 1999. This rate remained constant between 1981 and 1999: just over 20 per cent compared to a European average greater than 30 per cent in 1999 (Table 3.1). Age and educational level are determining variables which differentiate behaviours concerning other people relationships. The young are more tolerant and indifferent than the elderly who are more distrustful and more concerned by other people's fate. People living in rural areas, heads of firms, farmers and housewives trust less than others social groups.

French people seem untrusting of uncontrolled social relationships: institutions (social group) or previous acquaintances (intermediated meeting) appear as prerequisite. From this point of view, society can be seen as a set of micro-societies which are connected by institutional or interpersonal networks (Bréchon, 2000).

The bulk of French people (61.9%) deem that people should stick to their own affairs and not show too much interest in what others say or do which is higher than the European average of 50.7 per cent (Annex A.3.2.1).

**Table 3.1 Interpersonal trust (1999, %)**

	Most people can be trusted	Cannot be too careful
France	22.2	77.8
Total Europe	30.5	69.5

Source: Halman L., 2001, p.44, EVS

### 3.2.2 Specific trust

#### Trust in several institutions

Specific trust relates to societal and civic institutions. The first group comprises the social and education institutions. It is obvious that in periods of an economic uncertainty, the behaviour a high demand for social benefits also leads to a strong trust in social institutions simultaneously to reduce poverty or unemployment but also to reduce the life uncertainty. The second group comprises institutions of security (police and army) (Table 3.2, Annex 3.2.3). The third group gathers some more heterogeneous institutions: UN, the European Union, major companies, the justice system, the church. The justice system in France remains linked to a picture of anti-Saint Yves, to the idea of an unfair justice. The medium trust in church in France is the combined result of an extension in secularity and the creation of substitutive institutions (for instance social institutions in place of charity). The fourth group which represents the lowest trust contains the Parliament, the trade unions and the press. The low trust in Parliament is the result of a very low trust in politicians because there is often a large gap

between the promises and their implementation. The low trust in trade union has to be correlated to the weakest trade union rate of France among the developed countries. Finally, the weak trust in the media is also a characteristic of French people and probably the consequence of the principle a total press freedom. This principle also means that information cannot be very perceived as a right one. The information of events on internet is a recent example.

In countries where the spontaneous trust is high, spontaneous and institutional trust are intermingled. But in France where interpersonal trust is lower than in many other countries, an important level of institutional trust is not sufficient to encourage interpersonal trust (Galland O., 1999). A positive relation between institutional trust and interpersonal trust concerns institutions which symbolize social life (Annex 3.2.4).

**Table 3.2 Trust in institution**

	A great deal	Quite a lot	Not very much	None at all
Health care system	18.2	59.2	17.7	4.9
The armed forces	15.5	47.5	21.0	2.7
The social security system	13.5	53.4	23.7	9.4
The education system	13.2	55.2	24.8	6.8
The police	13.1	53.1	23.2	10.6
The church	11.4	34.3	24.6	29.7
UNO	9.2	44.7	29.9	16.2
The European Union	6.5	42.0	34.7	16.9
The justice system	5.3	40.5	34.7	19.5
Major companies	4.6	43.0	36.3	16.0
Trade unions	4.1	30.6	40.6	24.6
Parliament	2.9	37.7	36.0	23.4
The press	2.4	33.2	41.3	23.0

Source: Halman L., 2001, p.185-199, EVS

### Number of cases being referred to European Court of law

Today, social cohesion contains the European dimension. The Treaty of Amsterdam had enshrined the European Union as an area of freedom, security and justice where free movement of the people is legally guaranteed. Furthermore, fundamental rights are guaranteed to European citizens. Cross-border inter-personal relationships (marriages, divorce, and adoption) are extending in the European Union (Flash EB n°155, p.5). A mutual recognition involves inter-personal relations of a civil nature (civil conflicts between individuals).

A social indicator of this European dimension is the citizen's view on the mutual recognition by national courts of judicial decisions. In Europe, 89 per cent of citizens agree that judicial decisions in civil and family matters should be recognised everywhere. A very large majority of people held the same point of view in France (92%) in 2003 (Table 3.3). In the same way, 90 per cent of respondents, at European Union level, agreed with the proposition that a defendant should have the same defence rights in all Member States in 2003. French people largely agreed to this proposition with 93 per cent of people favourable in 2003 (Table 3.4).

**Table 3.3 Judicial decisions in civil and family matters (2003, %)**

Judicial decisions in civil and family matters, such as divorce, child custody or inheritance, should be recognised throughout the European Union	Total agree	Total disagree	DK&NA
EU-15	89	8	3
France	92	6	2

Source: EB Flash n°155, 2004, p.4

**Table 3.4 European rights of defence (2003, %)**

An accused should have the same defence rights in all the European Union Member States	Total agree	Total disagree	DK&NA
EU-15	90	8	2
France	93	6	1

Source: EB Flash n°155, 2004, p.8

Historically, fundamental rights were implemented within national institutions and the State. The Europeanisation and the process of openness toward the other European countries show differences in the meaning of fundamental rights and in their implementation. Therefore a gap between the idea of universal rights on the one hand and the unequal implementation in the European countries creates a contradiction which is expected to be solved at the European level. Consequently, a very high proportion of people are in favour of a transfer towards the European institutions which are considered less unfair than the national one.

However, this general wish of equality throughout Europe is always combined to the will of a conservative behaviour to keep local or national characteristics. Therefore, another indicator of social cohesion faced to Europe would be the quality of implementation of European directives in the different countries.

### **Importance of family, friends, leisure, politics**

#### *Importance of family*

French people, as everywhere in Europe are characterised by a strong attachment to their family. It is by far the most important element of social life, followed by work and friends. 90 per cent of people felt concerned about the living condition of their immediate family in 1999. However, for three decades, we note a divergent trend between the reality and the individual wishes. On the one hand we note in France, as in many other countries, an increasing flexibility of family (Lewis J., 2001) and a trend toward a separation of marriage and parenthood (non-married couples, children born out of wedlock), old couples, re-marriage of divorced people, same sex marriage).

On the other hand, as the flexibility of family is gradually increasing, a desire to increase the attachment to family life is high and develops with age (except for the older generation). For instance, marriage (Bréchon, 2000) was looked upon as an outdated institution for 36 per cent of French people in 1990 compared to 20 per cent for Europe in 1999 (Annex 3.2.7). Between 1981 and 1999, the 18-25 generation gained 10 per cent in their desire for attachment to family life: they were 78 per cent in

agreeing in 1990 and 88 per cent in 1999 (Annex 3.2.6). Marital fidelity as a condition of marital success was a growing value for the 18-25 generation in 1999 (gap has disappeared for this variable between generations) (Halman, 2001). As Jane Lewis (2001, p.28) says: '*one of the most suggestive trends in recent empirical work has been the idea that while at the demographic level families and family building are becoming ever more diverse, there is a convergence in terms of the negotiated nature of commitment and responsibility*'.

**Table 3.5 Value degree of institutions and networks (1999, %)**

	very	quite	not	Not at all	Do not know
Family	88	11	1	0	0
Work	69	26	3	2	0
Friends and acquaintances	50	45	5	0	0
Leisure time	37	51	11	1	0
politics	8	27	35	29	1
religion	11	26	33	30	1

Source: Bréchon P., 2000, p.251, EVS

#### *Importance of friends*

French people are very and increasingly attached to their friends and acquaintances. Compared to 1990 results, friendship is a growing value at all ages (except for seniors). Half of people declared that it was a very important thing in their life in 1999 compared to 40% in 1990 (Bréchon, 2000).

Half of French people aged 18-35 quoted their friends as being better able to characterize them (Houseaux, 2003). This proportion increased to 60 per cent for students. Generally, when age increases, friends are less quoted (Houseaux F., 2003).

#### *Importance of leisure*

Historically, the economic and social development has been combined to the reduction of work time. In France, several labour laws defined the work time which remained 40-hour week for several decades, until 1980. The introduction of the 35-hour week started in 1997 confirmed a trade-off temporarily oriented towards more leisure time rather than higher wages in French society. 88 per cent of French people considered that leisure time was very or quite important in their life in 1999, against 11 per cent who judged that leisure time was not important (Table 3.5). French people appeared less inclined than the other Europeans in considering the primacy of work (Table 3.6).

The primacy of work depends on age. The elderly agree to the primacy of work principle. Primacy of work principle decreases as educational level increases. A large difference was evident as well between paid employment and unpaid employment categories: the unpaid employment categories (45%) agree more frequently with the primacy of work than the paid employment population (22%).

**Table 3.6 Work as a fundamental value (1999, %)**

	Agree strongly	agree	Agree nor disagree	disagree	Disagree strongly
France	14.4	19.7	18.7	24.1	23.1
Total Europe	15.9	31.3	19.3	26.2	7.3

Source: Halman L., 2001, p.66, EVS

### *Importance of politics*

European Values Survey highlights the general decline of interest in politics and in election turnout, especially among young people; 64 per cent of French people (1999), considered that politics was not or not an important value against one third who think that politics is very or quite important (Table 3.5). However, people are interested in politics: almost 60 per cent of people read or listen politics every day on the news or on the radio or in the daily paper (Annex A.3.1.9); 64 per cent of people speak sometimes or often about politics with their friends (Annex A.3.2.10). Furthermore, there is a rise in new forms of political activity based on protest (Annex A.3.2.13 and A.3.2.14).

Two components can emerge with politics: politicisation, political participation (political tendencies may be added). Politicisation, (i.e. the degree of familiarity with the political world) is low in France compared to the European Union and concerned more young people: 46 per cent of the 18-26 year old in 1999 never spoke about politics with their friends against 39 per cent of 18-26 year olds in 1990 (Bréchon, 2000). Politicisation is stronger for men, for the retired (generation effect). It increases in accordance to income and to upper socio-economic group. Politicisation is positively linked to a generalised trust degree (most people can be trusted or that you can't be too careful in dealing with people).

Political participation decreased during 90s. Abstention is intermittent and depends on the political stakes. People vote if they perceive their action to be worth it (Subileau, 1993). Voting is seen more as a duty for the 50 year olds and over, thus contrasting with younger people who considered it rather as a right. Individualisation of electoral behaviour concerns all generations born after the 50s.

### *Respecting parents and parents' duty to children*

Almost 75 per cent of people agree with the fact that one must always love and respect our parents. It is a little bit higher than the European average (71.7% in 1999) (Table 3.7). Since 1981, this point of view has slightly decreased (Bréchon, 2000).

Parent/children relationships concerning parents' duty to children have changed: a growing percentage of people in 1981, 71 per cent of people think that a Parent's duty is to do their best for their children even at the expense of their own well-being (from 71 per cent in 1971 to 75 per cent in 1999, Bréchon, 2000, p.55). Approximately 16 per cent of people consider that parents should have a life of their own and should not be asked to sacrifice their own well-being for the sake of their children (Table 3.8).

Parents' duty to children depends on the manner in which parents see their role. Parent's values are a determining concerning child education. Some qualities which children will be encouraged to learn at home define at least partially educational schemes perceived by parents. Relational skill attainments are a parental objective which has dramatically increased. Of the 11 qualities that parents should encourage in their children, the most widely approved were tolerance and respect for others, followed by a sense of one's responsibilities and good manners (Annex A.3.2.15). The fourth quality is obedience, independence, imagination and religious faith. The latter is encouraged to be learnt at home for 7 per cent of French respondents. Thriftiness and a money saving spirit decreased strongly between 1981 and 1999. Relational qualities were by far the most important for parents: tolerance and respect which is the first quality encouraged (85% in 1999 against 78% in 1990); responsibility (73% in



1999), good manners (69% in 1999) and hard work (50% in 1999) are respectively ranked second, third and fourth (Annex A.3.2.15). Herpin N. (2002) stresses the rise of individualism, linked to young people's greater independence. Economic problems especially unemployment can be seen as an important parental concern and worry. It is what Duru-Bellat (1996) named 'school concern'.

**Table 3.7 Agreement with the respect and family love (1999, %)**

	Regardless of the qualities and faults are of ones parents, one must always love and respect them	One does not have the duty to respect and love parents who have not earned it by their behaviour and attitudes
France	74.7	25.3
Total Europe	71.7	28.3

Source: Halman L., 2001, p.143, EVS

**Table 3.8 Agreement with parents' duty (1999, %)**

	Parent's duty is to do their best for their children even at the expense of their own well-being	Parents should have a life of their own and should not be asked to sacrifice their own well-being for the sake of their children	Neither
France	75.1	16.1	8.8
Total Europe	68.8	20.8	10.4

Source: Halman L., 2001, p.144, EVS

### 3.3 Other integrative norms and values

#### 3.3.1 Altruism

Nearly one quarter of French people spent time helping the poor and socially excluded people during the last 12 months (EB 52.1, 2004, p.126). In 1999, 60 per cent of European people and 57% of French people gave money or goods to poor or socially excluded people during the last 12 months. Among these European or French people, 18% gave money or goods at least once a month during the last 12 months (EB52.1, 2000, p.124).

#### **Volunteering: number of hours per week**

The proportion of French people that belong to clubs or associations is about 36% (Table 3.9); according to Insee, participation was 33.6% in 1998-1999, (Annex A.3.3.1). 54 per cent of people spend no time in clubs or voluntary associations. Participation decreased in the traditional or militant organisations (trade unions, political parties, youth work and religious or church organisations) between 1981 and 1999 (Bréchon, 2000). Participation in other activities such as sports and recreation and charitable organisation stayed stable.

In 1998, 27.5 per cent of participants held responsible posts in their organisation or sport club and half of the participants had a regular activity. But for the "PTA" Parent, Teacher Association, participants

who held responsible positions were 35 per cent and this part was 37 per cent for political or trade unions (Annex 3.3.1). Among the people who had responsible positions, 60% participated at least once a week but, one sixth participated less than once a month (especially in the case of PTAs and political organisation for which respectively 90% and 75% of people participated less than once a month). Gender inequality was more pronounced concerning responsibilities in organisations or clubs than participation (only in pupil's parent organisations, women are responsible in the proportion of their representation). Moreover, the women leaders had difficulty in reaching the top of the organisation. The probability of becoming a leader increased for the 35-55 years olds: to be chosen by other members and to assume responsibilities, takes time. Responsibility increases with education level. Leaders more often found to be married and employed.

**Table 3.9 Frequency of participation in clubs or associations, 1999 (%)**

	Every week	Once twice a month	Few times a year	Not at all
France	20.6	12.9	12.8	53.7
Total Europe	18.3	14.8	14.9	52.0

Halman L., 2001, p.33, EVS

### Blood donation

In 2002, 31 per cent of European people and 38 per cent of French people donated their blood (Table 3.10). Men, managers, self-employed, high educated and people aged between 40 and 54 years donate more frequently their blood at the European level. In 2002, the idea that "blood donation should be authorized during work time" was valid for 43 per cent of European respondents and for 48 per cent of French respondents (EB 58.2, 2003, p.4).

An interesting question in the survey concerns how donation is seen. 79 per cent of European people considered that this altruistic behaviour must be free of charge: 21 per cent of respondents did not expect costs due to blood donation to be reimbursed in 2002 (EB 58.2, 2003, p.5). At the European level, one quarter of people did not want to receive anything.

**Table 3.10 Blood donation (%), 2002**

	EU-15	France
Positive answer	31	38

Source: EB 58.2, 2003, p.2

However, this evaluation of blood donation must be questioned because according to the French statistics around 3% of the population is a donator.

## 3.3.2 Tolerance

### Views on immigration, pluralism and multiculturalism

In 1999, 4 310 000 immigrants lived in France, i.e. 7.3% of the population. This proportion has not changed since 1975. Geographical origins are diversified. Immigrants live particularly in the big cities,

in Paris and its suburbs. However, we need to add the unknown number of French people who were born in migrants families.

In 1999, more than one third of French people disagreed with the fact that employers should give priority to French people over immigrants, when jobs were scarce in 1999 (Annex A.3.3.4). But half of the population considered that strict limits on the number of foreigners must be made by the Government (Table 3.11). Approximately 10% thought that the Government should prohibit people coming here. 42% of European people esteemed that for the best interests of society, it would be better if immigrants maintained their distinct customs and traditions but only 27% among the French people (Table 3.12). This difference can be explained by the ideology of equality which is very strong in the concept of Republican citizenship. It means that social promotion has to obey a unique societal model and a general process of homogenisation, especially through school, the school of the Republic, not only against the cultural differences between nations but also against the regional differences (Bretons, Alsacians, etc.).

In 1990, 61 per cent of people asserted that they agreed with the fact that employers should give priority to French people over immigrants, when jobs were scarce, compared to 54% in 1999. Post-electoral inquiries show an increase of xenophobia from 1988 to 1995 followed by a decrease in 1998. Nevertheless, a 1999 study showed a growth in racism and anti-semitism (*Commission nationale consultative des droits de l'homme*, 2000). In this study, 64 per cent of respondents said that there are too many Arabs in France, this figure shows an increase by 12 per cent compared to 1998.

The Likert scale takes account of positive answers or proposals concerning immigrants: immigrants can come when jobs are available; it is better if immigrants maintain their distinct customs and traditions; desire to really do something to improve immigrants living conditions; feeling about the immigrants living conditions. 42% of people gave no positive answers about immigrants, 26% gave one, 16% gave two, 10% gave three and 6% gave four.

The education level plays an important role in favour of immigrants: young people are more educated, thus they are more in favour of immigrants. Income and social status are positively linked to favourable attitudes about immigrants. Favourable attitudes about immigrants were 15% in farmer households, 28% in worker households, 37% in employed households and 47% in executive households. The relation to politics is higher than the education level. Among those who were not politicised or active in politics, the attitude in favour of immigrants was low whatever the education level. Among the politicised and those active in politics, favourable attitudes about immigrants changed with educational level (46% of positive attitudes among low educated people and 62% among high educated) (Bréchon, 2000).

A general behaviour of multicultural reluctance combines nationalism in politics, attitude against Europe, few or no participation in associations or clubs.

**Table 3.11 Immigration acceptance from less developed countries (1999, %)**

	Anyone come who wants to	Come when jobs available	Strict limits on the number of foreigners	Prohibit people coming here
France	5.6	33.7	50.3	10.4
Total Europe	7.6	38.5	43.7	10.2

Source: Halman L., 2001, p.259, EVS

**Table 3.12 Immigration and customs**

For the greater good of society it is better if immigrants maintain their distinct customs and traditions (1999, %)	%
France	26.8
Europe total	41.9

Source: Halman L., 2001, p.261, EVS

### **Tolerance towards other's different self-identity, beliefs, behaviour and lifestyles**

French society tends to reject traditional social constraints.

As everywhere in Europe, liberal attitudes are increasing as regards to individual freedom (personal lifestyle decisions) provided that this does not undermine the proper functioning of society (i.e. does not reduce the freedom of other people). The picture revealed by the EVS seems less clearcut than at the beginning of the decade, and other trends are appearing alongside a continuing shift towards greater freedom (Schweisguth, 2002). For instance, the values of marital fidelity and good citizenship and the wish for greater respect for public order and for those in authority are enhanced. It seems that a generational change has not brought greater liberalism but rather a return to more traditional values. Divorce and abortion condemnation weakened strongly with the "baby boom" generation. In 1999, these people were between 45 and 53 years old and their point of view remains more liberal compared to older generation. These liberal values tend to be a majority since after the 'baby boom', generations are more and more liberal (Annex A.3.3.9). Divorce, euthanasia, abortion and homosexuality are the four things which have scored more than five (Table 3.13). French society appears globally more liberal or permissive than Europe (in each case except three, the French score is higher than the European one): in this latter, only divorce scores more than five.



2000, p. 159). In every cohort from 1981 to 1999, we note a decrease in percentage of those defending traditional moral positions. Change is more influent amongst the older generation, as they have been influenced by the younger generations. If French people reject social and moral constraints, recent changes have engendered a renewal of some traditional values like order and discipline. A question about the school role shows this tendency is changing: school should promote discipline and common sense or awaken a child's intelligence. In 1999, 63% of people considered that school should promote discipline and common sense. Perhaps, people reacted to an increase of violence in France (which was largely diffused by the media) (Bréchon, 2000).

### **3.3.3 Social contract**

#### **Beliefs on causes of poverty**

It is very difficult to define an univocal poverty definition. Poverty appears as a socially determined type: category built by collective experience from which everybody understands reality. Poverty is a form defined by shared values which justify the possibility of reality pre-understanding (Simmel, 1997). This form is well delimited by institutional outlines containing some predicates.

Beliefs on causes of poverty can be observed as coming from individual causes or social causes. In the EVS, social causes are evoked more by French people compared to European people. In 1999, 71.2 per cent of French people considered that social factors explain why some people live in need (44.3% for injustice in society and 26.9% for part of modern progress) (Table 3-14). Individual causes are claimed by around one quarter of French people; 11% evoked laziness or a lack of willpower, 14.4% for who people in need are unlucky. However, we note that French people gradually think that poverty is due to individual causes.

In another study on the same item (Eurobarometer 56.1 data), in 2001, 59% of French people deemed that poverty comes from social causes (39.9% consider that it is due to injustice; 19.1% consider that it is inevitable). Individual causes were evoked by 32% of French people (half bad luck, half laziness). Laziness as a reason decreased from 1989 to 1993 following worsened economic conditions. This individual cause increased from 1993 to 2001, a period of economic growth in France. Conversely, the social injustice has been a declining answer throughout the period. Studies have shown that unemployment is a good forward-looking indicator of interpretations on causes of poverty. Most current points of view about the causes of poverty are that people become poor after unfortunate events (Gallie D., 2002, p.16).

In another study, people could choose between answering bad luck or laziness. In 1999, 55 per cent of French people deemed that the causes on poverty came from bad luck, against 28% for who a lack of willpower was evoked. Individual causes (lack of willpower in this case) were evoked more frequently by old people. 64% of youths aged less than 25 years explained poverty by a lack of luck compared to 50% of people aged 65 years and more (Olm, 2000, p.27).

**Table 3.14 Beliefs on causes of poverty (1999, %)**

Which one reason do you consider to be most important?	Bad Luck	Laziness or a lack of will-power	Total individual causes	Injustice in society	Part of modern progress	Total social causes	None
France	14.4	11.4	25.8	44.3	26.9	71.2	3.0
Total Europe	15.5	24.1	39.6	33.9	22.8	56.7	3.7

Source: Halman L., 2001, p.47, EVS

which reason do you consider to be the second most important?	Bad Luck	Laziness or a lack of will-power	Total individual causes	Injustice in society	Part of modern progress	Total social causes	None
France	21.0	16.6	37.6	26.2	32.7	58.9	3.5
Total Europe	21.8	21.6	43.4	26.0	25.2	51.2	5.4

Source: Halman L., 2001, p.48, EVS

### Willingness to pay more taxes

Willingness to pay more taxes if people were sure that it would improve the situation of the poor can be seen as reflecting civic sense and social justice. According to the Eurobarometer data, more than 40 per cent of French people agreed with this proposal in 2001 (Gallie, 2002, p.121). Poor people (inferior to the first quartile) who agreed with the proposal were 35 per cent which is less than the whole population. This may be due to the fact that, in France, half of the households do not pay any income tax; consequently, low income people do not pay any income tax in France.

In 1999, 66 per cent of people felt concerned about the living conditions of the elderly in their country (Table 3.15) and they were 58 per cent to say that they agreed to really do something to improve elderly living conditions. The two most important reasons evoked to help the elderly: Because people sympathize with them (76 %) and because it is in the interest of society (65%) (Annex A.3.3.12).

Willingness to actually do something practical for the people in your community/neighbourhood Solidarity for other people mainly is mainly focused to the immediate family (95% of positive answers), sick and disabled people (61%), elderly people (58%), neighbourhood (48%) (Table 3.15).

**Table 3.15 Willingness to do something for others (1999, %)**

Do you agree to really do something to improve the living conditions of?	Yes, certainly	Yes, probably	May be	Probably no	Certainly no	Do not know
Your immediate family	80	15	4	1	1	0
Your neighbourhood	12	36	40	8	4	0
Elderly people in your country	17	41	32	8	2	1
Immigrants in your country	6	19	36	19	18	2
Sick and disabled people in your country	20	41	30	6	2	1

Source: Bréchon P., 2000, p.271, EVS

### Sharing household tasks between men and women

Comparative studies of the gender distribution of use of time (professional, domestic, and parental) show the differences within the family work distribution. Even if there have been some changes in

recent years, the division of tasks still witnesses a strong gender bias, with women still spending more time than men on domestic activities and parenting (Table 3.16). Variables influencing a more egalitarian allocation of tasks depend on an employment policy throughout the life cycle (for instance, "negotiated flexibility", women employment rate), presence of pre-school children (i.e. under 3 years old), presence of parental leave and education level. The presence of a new child in the family very upsets the balance the couple had previously established between the distribution of time they each spent at work and at home, with women reducing the former as the number of small children in the family goes up, whereas, if anything, men work longer hours (Anxo, 2003).

A large section (80%) of the French people considers that the husband and wife should contribute to household income, which is largely different from the EU average (Annex A.3.3.13). Near 84 per cent of people thought that having a job is the best way for a woman to be an independent person (Annex 3.A.3.3.15). But 22 per cent of people said that men have more right to work than women if jobs are scarce (Annex 3.A.3.3.14).

**Table 3.16 Monthly division of tasks**

	Professional time		Domestic time		Care to others time		Total	
	Duration	Women part	Duration	Women part	Duration	Women part	Duration	Women part
1986	55h03	33%	44h49	74%	7h52	74%	108h50	53.4%
1998	53h45	36%	43h44	68%	7h25	69%	106h15	51.6%

Source: Anxo, 2003, p.36

## 3.4 Social Networks

### 3.4.1 Networks

#### Membership (active or inactive) of political, voluntary or charitable organisation

In France, the 1901 Act has created a new type of legal organisation, the "association 1901". In this sector, the number employed (fulltime equivalent) is superior to 800 000. Sport clubs and cultural organisations are by far the most highly represented (more than 70% of all participants in associations). Among members of associations, 20% belong to two different associations and 10% belong to three or more organisations. The participation is oriented towards individual blooming (Hatchuel, 1999).

The proportion of membership to organisations or sport clubs increases with education and income. Men are more frequently members of organisations or sport clubs than women (especially in sport clubs and in cultural and political organisations). But women belong more frequently to Parent Teacher Associations, humanitarian and religious organisations than men. Members live more frequently in rural areas or in towns, in the west and east of France (Annex A.3.4.1). Amongst employed people, civil servants and part-time workers belong most frequently to associations or sport clubs. In the household context, participation of the adults increases according to the child age child age but remains insensitive to the number of children in the family. The membership of organisations or sport clubs seems to be strongly linked to other sociable activities, like providing informal services or inviting



somebody home (Prouteau, 2003). The impulse effect is present amongst people living in couples to be a member as well as parent's participation encourages children living in the same household to participate.

Elective sociability public (friends and acquaintances) and associative participation do not completely go with each other, but some links seem to be there. Age is the most significant variable with a negative relation between the meeting friends frequency and associative participation. Young people meet more frequently their friends than other age groups but, their associative participation rate is lower than average. Education level and participation rate are positively linked (low educational levels have a depressive effect on meetings and more intensely on the associative participation rate).

### Support received from family, neighbours and friends

Approximately 48 per cent of people (at least 15 years old) have provided informal favours to other households (Table A.3.4.4). Shopping and child care are the most frequent kind of services. Women provide more often these informal support. Probability to help increases with age, from 35 to 65 years old. Married people have a higher propensity to provide favours (They have a greater social network than other people). In the family, the child presence has a dissuasive effect (perhaps time becomes more constrained). Propensity to provide support to the others increases with education level. Informal help is more frequent if a household's income is around the average of the distribution. Informal help is largely gendered: cooking, shopping and homework are activities assumed principally by women whereas men frequently provide more transport, gardening and do-it-yourself (odd jobs). Child care is more frequent for people aged 55-64 years. Young people frequently offer more cooking and pets care. Inactive people and farmers tend to provide favours to the others more frequently than the other social groups.

**Table 3.17 Informal favours done to other households (during the 4 last weeks) 1998/99**

	Participation rate (%)	Times number
<b>Informal volunteering</b>		
Total	48.1	10.2
To family	32.1	10.6
To friends	22.6	6.7
<b>Informal volunteering type</b>		
Shopping	19.5	4.2
Homework	6.3	4.4
Cooking	6.5	6.7
Gardening	5.6	4.3
Odd jobs; 'Do it yourself' (DIY)	11.0	3.7
Child care	6.7	8.8
Adult care	16.1	6.7
Animal care	6.3	8.7
Transport/removing	8.0	2.9
Others	6.2	4.8

19.5% of population aged 15 years and more has done some shopping for another household during the last four weeks. These people have done this service 4.2 times on average during the period.

Source: Prouteau and Wolff, 2003, p.9

A reciprocal relation exists: when a household has been helped, it tends to do informal services to the others. Students tend to help more frequently their friends (Prouteau, 2003).

Informal services are frequent (32%) among the relatives (family) but, non akin household services are not negligible (20% of people) (Annex A.3.4.4). Informal services are mainly provided to relatives/akin households by women. The type of help given concerns more frequently tasks that women usually do in their own household (homework, ironing, cooking). Informal help to non akin households like friends, acquaintances, colleagues and neighbours is not gendered. The reason comes from the type of support which is done to non akin household (odds jobs, DIY). Women employment increase, divorce and single parent families rise as well as a life expectancy increase have consequently increased informal favours.

Informal help to friends, neighbours and colleagues is done more by younger people. There is a “pivot generation” (Attias-Donfut, 1995), that is the 30-40 year population which tends to help others more frequently than the other generations (a high density of networks). The informal help by the aged people (at least 65 years old) is lower than by the other households. Informal favours done to friends, neighbours and colleagues looks like volunteering in organisations or club sports. Informal volunteer is done two or three times per week (to akin households and non akin households). Help frequency is more important for family (one or two times to non akin households). Informal help to friends, neighbours and colleagues is inversely related to income: it seems that the amount of help depends on the available time and the cost for non akin households. If the work time is reduced during the year, informal volunteering tends to increase (but causality is not clear, Prouteau, 2003).

### **Frequency of contacts with friends and colleagues**

Frequency of contacts with friends is linked to the number of friends (indicator 28) (Houseaux, 2003). In this way, network can be linked to specific trust. Friendship is an elective sociability form which has generally the specificity to be deinstitutionalised. In spite of a lack of spontaneous trust, French people seem to have a high level of contacts with friends. Approximately 90% of French people spent time with their friends at least once or twice a month compared to around 80% for European average in 1999 (Table 3.18). Two thirds of people spend time with friends every week. In relation with interpersonal trust level, the number of contacts with friends raises some questions. We do not know if the category “friend” represents a closed set (contact always with the same friends and then social network is closed) or not (new meetings which can be intermediated or not by other friends: social network is opened).

Meeting frequency depends on social variables; Age, family composition (couple/single) and education level induce the most important disparities. Meeting intensity increases with education level and the isolation. It decreases with as age increases (Houseaux, 2003).

Some institutionalised form of sociability like contact with colleagues or contact at a church, a mosque or a synagogue could be analysed. In 1999, almost half of the people spent no time with their colleagues at work one of the highest proportions in Europe (Table 3.19). Only 12.5% of people spent time with their colleagues every week, lower percentage than the European average. France is at the bottom of this kind of sociability. Religious institutions are also a type of sociability: 5% of French

people had contact every week at a church, a mosque or a synagogue in 1999. 20% of people had contact every week in organisations or sport clubs in 1999.

Between 1983 and 1997, sociability level decreased. During these 15 years, contact frequency with colleagues (out of work) decreased by 12%, 17% with friends and 26% with merchants/shopkeepers. Contacts with neighbours and kinship decreased (7% between 1983 and 1997) (Blanpain, 1998). The close family network has resisted more than kinship: this movement towards the core of the family could be the consequence of a geographical dispersal due to an increasing geographical mobility (Blanpain, 1998). The decline of contacts with friends could be due to an extending isolation in work relations (20% of best friends are work related).

Here again, we note a gap between the quality of the real networking, the relationships between French people, and the feeling of relationship. Although French people spend time with their friends (near 60 per cent do it every week) and have a medium participation rate in associative groups (around 37 per cent of the population is member of a least one social group), they claim that they are reluctant to spontaneous relationships with others because of a low trust in other people (only 20 per cent of French people consider that most people can be trusted).

**Table 3.18 Frequency of contact with friends in 1999 (%)**

	Every week	Once twice a month	Few times a year	Not at all
France	58.5	28.0	11.0	2.5
Europe Total	53.7	27.5	14.3	4.6

Source: Halman L., 2001, p.33, EVS

**Table 3.19 Frequency of contact with colleagues (out of work) in 1999 (%)**

	Every week	Once twice a month	Few times a year	Not at all
France	12.5	18.7	24.0	44.7
Europe Total	18.1	22.8	27.8	31.3

Source: Halman L., 2001, p.34, EVS

## 3.5 Identity

### 3.5.1 National / European identity

According to EVS, nearly 90% of people were very or quite proud to be a French citizen (Table 3.20). Almost 40% of people were very proud to be a French citizen which is very close to the European average (41.7%). A very weak minority was not proud at all to be a French citizen (3.7%).

**Table 3.20 Feeling of national pride, 1999 (%)**

How proud are you to be a French citizen?	Very proud	Quite proud	Not very proud	Not at all proud
France	39.7	49.6	7.0	3.7
Total Europe	41.7	41.5	12.7	4.1

Source: Halman L., 2001, p.256, EVS

### Identification with national symbols and European symbols

Nearly one in two EU citizens and French citizens said that, the European Union meant freedom to travel in 2002 (EB 59, 2003, p.56), after that, the single European currency (40%), and cultural diversity (34%). Only 12 per cent of people thought that the EU would mean a loss of cultural entity (EB 59, 2003, p.57).

Half of European people were in favour of the single European currency in 1997 but, opponents represented more than a third of people. In France, nearly 60 per cent of people were in favour of the single currency (EB 48, 1998). It appears that economic conditions are determinant for this particular symbol.

However, this feeling is not very strong because near 60 per cent of European and French people did not feel at least 'very attached' to the single European currency (Annex A.3.5.1). But, simultaneously, a feeling of European belonging has increased during the three last years (Annex A.3.5.3).

## 3.5.2 Regional/community/local identity

### Feeling of regional/ community/ local identity

The feeling of territorial belonging, leads to a geographical interlocking logic of areas (in EVS, Eurobarometer results are quite different results when choices are not constrained, see Annex A.3.5.2). Table 3.21 shows the striking difference between two groups of tiers: on the one hand a local, regional and national strong identification, and on the other hand, a weak European and global identification. The weak European identification is lower than the European average, but feeling of belonging to the world as a whole is more frequent in France than in Europe.

Results could be understood as a refusal towards globalisation and a withdrawal into a local identity but, proportions have not changed for 20 years in France. An opposition between global and local identity does not depend on the demographic or the social situation of people. But it depends on the education level and the degree of urbanization. A sense of world/European identity increases with the education level. As the town is smaller, the horizon appears more limited. Ideological and political orientations (religious and subjective social classes) have a little influence on this opposition (Bréchon, 2000).

**Tables 3.21 European/ national/ regional/ local identity feeling (1999, %)**

Which of these geographical groups would you say you belong to first of all?	Locality or town	Region	Country as a whole	Europe world as a whole	World as a whole
France	43.7	12.1	28.5	4.3	11.4
Total Europe	49.3	13.3	27.7	3.2	6.5

Source: Halman L., 2001, p.252, EVS

And the next?	Locality or town	Region	Country as a whole	Europe world as a whole	World as a whole
France	20.0	38.4	24.0	13.1	4.6
Total Europe	20.4	35.0	31.6	8.5	4.5

Source: Halman L., 2001, p.253, EVS

And which do you belong to least of all?	Locality or town	Region	Country as a whole	Europe world as a whole	World as a whole
France	9.8	8.8	9.9	18.0	53.6
Total Europe	8.6	8.9	12.6	16.9	53.1

Source: Halman, 2001, p.254, EVS

### 3.5.3 Interpersonal identity

#### Sense of belonging to family and kinship network

Approximately 90 per cent of people were concerned about the living conditions of their immediate family in 1999 (Table 3.22). Among them, 70 per cent felt very much concerned. Furthermore, more than 90 per cent of people said that it was a good thing to attach a great value to family life (Annex A.3.4.3). It is a growing value for young people: there were 78% who agreed to this proposal in 1981 and 88% in 1999.

To the question: "How would you best define yourself?" 86% of French people quoted their family as the best way to characterize them. When different answers are ranked, family has the first place for 76% of people (Houseaux, 2003). Choosing family depends on marital status, gender and age. Women stated more often family than men did. Living as a couple strengthens this effect as well as having children. Age influence is sensitive only for those aged 45 years and over who never had children: they stated less family. But among people without a spouse or children, more than 60% stated their family to define them.

Thanks to the EVS, it is possible to draw up a list of the factors that French people believe to be the ground to a stable partnership. Top of the list is good interpersonal communication, followed by doing things together, material considerations and, at the bottom of the list, opinions about same-sex partnerships. This pattern could be labelled as post materialist: age, gender and socio-economic class do not really influence the opinion. Conjugal values have not changed over the last 20 years (Herpin, 2002). Religion still appears to have a strong influence on private life and family cohesion. Traditional values concern the elderly, rural inhabitants, with a strong religious belief and conservative choices in politics.

Links between parents and children are the most important types of partnership. Family meetings happen at least once time per month. But their frequency decreases with age. On average, people meet different family members at least once a month (Crenner, 1998). Grand parents meet on average their children twice more than their grandchildren. Meeting frequency seems to be growing with direct filiations. Family sociability is concentrated around a nucleus of people (limited/restricted family). Family network members live rarely far away (distance is under 20 km for half of them), and distance has a weak impact on the meeting frequency.

**Table 3.22 Feeling an attachment to family (1999, %)**

To what extent do you feel concerned about the living conditions of ...?	Very much	much	To a certain extent	Not so much	Not at all	Do not know
Your immediate family	69	19	8	2	1	1

Source: Bréchon, 2000, p.270, EVS

### 3.6 Conclusion

The evolution of values comes from a reconstruction/recomposition of what has been integrated before. There is no inescapable evolutionism (Mendras, 1988). Two main trends emerge concerning French people values. Firstly, the rise of post-materialism: once material needs are met and there is a sense of security, people start to challenge traditional moral positions and instead emphasise aspirations such as self-expression or community participation (Annex A.3.6.1). This trend was very marked in France during the three decades of post-war prosperity. People today aspire to satisfy both their material needs and their post-materialist concerns (Inglehart, 1990).

Secondly, people gradually want to decide for themselves what is good and bad (Annex A.3.6.1), rather than allowing their opinions and behaviour to be determined by some higher authority (religion for instance). This trend has been growing for a long time, but it is quite distinct from selfish individualism that rejects any social norms or sense of belonging to a community (Bréchon, 2002).

## **4 Social Inclusion**

### **4.1 Introduction**

Social inclusion is defined as the degree to which individuals are and feel integrated in the different relationships, organisations and structures which constitute everyday life. It is related to any lack of primary goods in daily life. Social Inclusion regards participation in employment and access to resources, housing quality and availability, participation in education, social networks, and access to health care. Social inclusion for individuals can be seen as the means and possibilities to participate in economic, political, social and cultural systems and institutions. Inability to participate in some of the main social life components can induce a fully or partially distance feeling of various social subsystems (Mendras, 1997). "If social exclusion is the denial (or non realisation) of different dimensions of citizenship then the other side of the coin, social inclusion, is the degree to which such citizenship is realised" (Walker, 2003, p.8). It presumes rights for all, otherwise it will provoke a sensation of non citizenship.

Our task will be to measure the various risk factors which can create a non achievement of social inclusion in France. Special attention must be given to this concept especially concerning his multi-dimensional nature and the idea that social life cannot be understood by reference to a single subsystem (Walker, 2003, p.5). For instance, if the family unit weakens itself, akin relations get stronger. Increasing individualism means the strengthening of every kind of social link and the multiplication of social networks (Granovetter, 1973; Mendras, 1997). But, some social risk of non inclusion can be defined by long-term unemployment, living long-term on low income, poor qualifications and leaving school early; growing up in a family vulnerable to social exclusion, disability, living in an deprived area, precarious housing and homelessness, risk of racial discrimination.

Social inclusion will be defined through four domains. First, citizenship rights will be analysed in its political, social, civil and economic dimension. The second domain will analyse the labour market and especially the access to paid employment. Thirdly, this domain will be devoted to the services (health, housing, education, social care, financial, transport and civic services). Fourth, social networks will be analysed at neighbourhood, friendship and family level.

### **4.2 Citizenship rights**

#### **4.2.1 Constitutional / Political rights**

##### **Citizenship, right to vote in local elections**

In 2001, around 94% of residents held French citizenship. Among the residents without citizenship, 2% of them originated from other EU countries and 3.6% from non EU countries (Table 4.1).

**Table 4.1 Non-nationals as a percentage of the total population**

	EU-15	France
1990, total	4.1	6.3
2001, total	5.4	5.6
Other EU nationals	1.6	2.0
Non EU nationals	3.8	3.6

Source: Living conditions in Europe, Eurostat, Migration statistics, 2003, p.12

Only the French nationals can vote at the national level (national assembly, President of the Republic). The vote of the members of the *Sénat* is an indirect vote.

France is divided into three 'local' governmental tiers: region, *département* (more or less a county) and municipality. EU citizens can vote and can be elected in France in municipality elections. They cannot be the mayor. The non-EU citizens cannot vote at the local level.

In the French political system, electors have to be at least 18 years old, French nationality except for the Municipal and European Parliament elections, where they must be on the electoral role. They have to possess their full civic rights. Since 2001, French citizens and residents who are nationals of other European Union states may elect municipal aldermen for a six-year term by direct universal suffrage; the aldermen then elect the mayor. Regional and municipal elections are based on a mix principle of proportional representation and a majority one.

In 2001, 28.4 per cent of registered electors did not vote in the Local (municipality) elections at the first ballot. Almost 80 per cent of registered electors voted at the second ballot. However, the abstention rate is higher in the large towns than in rural municipalities. Here we have to not a French specificity: France comprises 35,600 communes, with a large majority of small municipalities.

The abstention rate is lower in the municipal elections compared to regional and county's elections. As well as a feeling of belonging, it seems that people feel more concerned by the elections which are nearest to them. However we note a long-term trend of growing abstention (Figure 4.1).

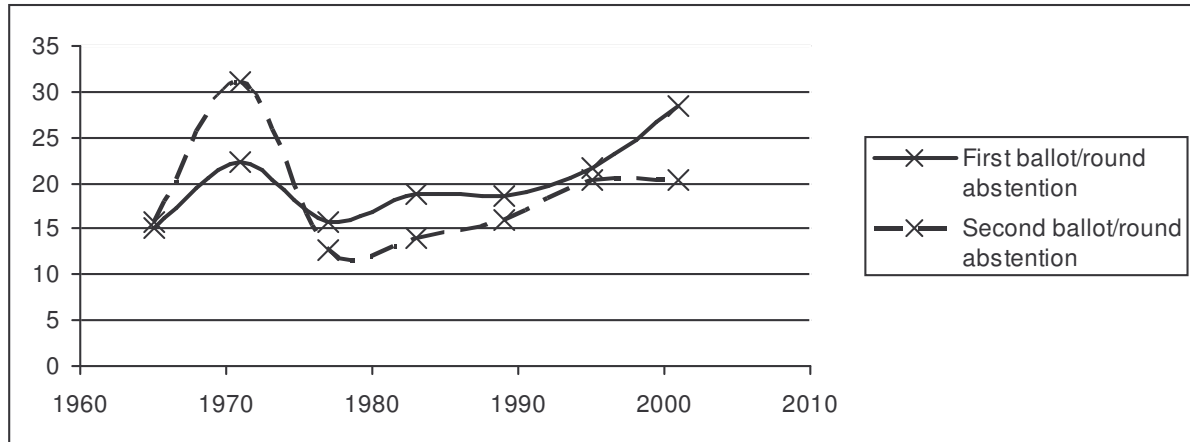
**Table 4.2 Town/municipal/local election abstention (% of registered electors)**

	1965	2001
First ballot/round abstention	15.2	28.4
Second ballot/round abstention	15.7	20.3

Source: Bréchon, 2004



Figure 4.1 Local election abstention (% of registered electors)



Source: Bréchon, 2004

## 4.2.2 Social rights

### Right to a public pension

France is characterised by a Bismarckian principle of social welfare system, based on the worker status who is socially insured. The central pillar is a contributive system of all the employees in the firms and the public sector. The system is very fragmented according to the different economic sector. However we note a process of harmonisation in the private sector between the different economic branches and between the private and the public sector.

In the private sector, the full pension needs a working period of 40 years (42 years in 2008). The pensioner has to be at least 60 years old. The pension is around 50 per cent of the previous wage (an average wage during the best 25 years).

The retirement system [*Assurance vieillesse*] provides a minimal pension to any person who has worked for 40 years (85% of men and 37% of women, Table 4.4). Each year, it distributes what has been collected among active people. The general rule is that you can retire from the age of 60 and you must have retired by the age 65, as long as you have worked 40 (now) to 41 in 2006 then 42 (in 2008) years.

Another pillar comprises the supplementary pensions. Today they are compulsory in the private sector and often managed by the *mutuelles*. The supplementary pensions can increase the pension from 50% to 85% of the previous wage. However the final result is very diversified. It depends on the type of firms and *mutuelles*. Corporate plans or personal plans depending on the company which can be added.

The third pillar is the minimum income as a public assistance for poor people who have not any rights to any other scheme pensions rights. People have to obey several eligibility criteria: age (at least 60 years old), nationality (French one), residence and, of course, income level (income less than a threshold). It works as a negative income tax (100%). In 2004, the minimum income for old people amounts around 670 euros for a single person, that is 70% higher than the amount of RMI. In 2002,

588.7 thousand people (9.4 per cent of the aged over 60) benefited from this elderly minimum income (Table 4.4).

Finally the system is characterised by many different schemes: for instance, people can retire as early as 55 (public transport) or even 50 (for instance bus or train drivers, miners) and many early retirement public programs have been established. The result is a large inequality among the pensioners between the types of occupations, between the economic sectors, between the public and the private sector and between men and women (Table 4.3).

**Table 4.3 Percentage of full pensioners (2001)**

	Women	Men
65-69 years old	39.2	85.4
70-74 years old	38.1	86.8
75-79 years old	37.1	85.4
80-84 years old	33.5	85.1
85 years old and more	29.8	74.8
<b>Total</b>	<b>36.7</b>	<b>85.2</b>

Note: 'reversion' pensions are excluded.

Source: Insee, 2004

**Table 4.4 Elderly minimum recipients (2002)**

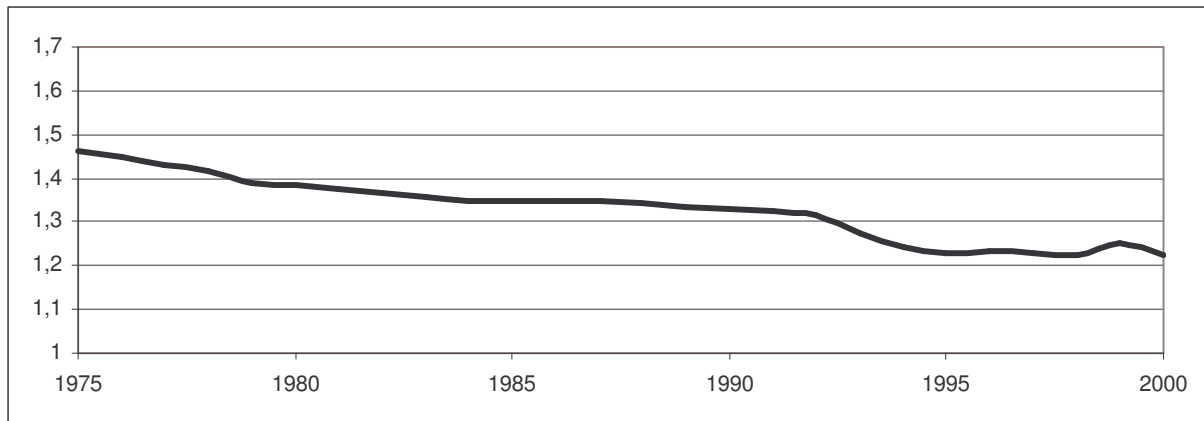
	Women		Men		Proportion of recipients in the population >60	
	in thousands	%	in thousands	%	Women	Men
60-64 years old	27.6	7.5	30.1	13.6	2.1	2.4
65-69 years old	45.9	12.5	50.0	22.6	3.3	4.1
70-74 years old	54.7	14.9	48.0	21.7	3.9	4.4
75-79 years old	63.6	17.3	43.4	19.6	5.1	5.2
80-84 years old	62.1	16.9	26.8	12.1	6.9	5.2
85-89 years old	49.2	13.4	13.3	6.0	11.2	7.0
90 years old and more	64.3	17.5	9.7	4.4	17.8	8.7
<b>Total</b>	<b>367.4</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>221.3</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>5.2</b>	<b>4.2</b>

Source: Insee, 2004

### Women's pay as a proportion of men's

According to Eurostat, the gender pay gap was 16 per cent for EU-15 and 14 per cent for France in 2001 (Eurostat 2003b, p.162). The gender pay gap is defined by the difference between the 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 (people who work at least 15 hours per week). Women's average wage represented 86 per cent of the man average in 2001.

**Figure 4.2 Gender pay ratio (men's wages divided by women's wages)**



Source: Insee, 2000

Women and men in employment show important differences with respect to their personal and job characteristics (labour market participation, the sector and occupational employment structures as well as job status, job type and career progression). The differences in pay are particularly high among older workers, the high skilled and those employed with supervisory job status. In 2000, the gender pay gap was close to 25 per cent for managers and executives and nearly 9 per cent for employees (Insee, 2003, p.41). They also varied between the different economic sectors and different occupations. In 2000, annual gross earnings of women was 64 per cent of the men's ones in the financial intermediation (Table 4.5). However, we note that the inequality is lower in France than in the European union, whatever the type of economic sector.

**Table 4-5 Earnings of men and women**

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

	EU-15	France
Industry and services	75	82
Industry	77	84
Mining and quarrying	75	92
Manufacturing	75	79
Electricity, gas and water supply	78	83
Construction	88	100
Trade and repairs	72	77
Hotels and restaurants	79	85
Transport	84	90
Financial intermediation	62	64
Real estate	70	72

Note: The share refers to full-time earnings.

Source: Eurostat, 2003, p.60

Women are furthermore more frequent in non-standard employment such as fixed-term contracts and part-time work. Men are thus not only more concentrated in higher paid sectors and occupations but, within these sectors and occupations they are also more likely than women to hold supervisory

responsibilities. The male and female workforce composition related to the sector of employment and the occupational category contributes significantly to the gender gap. Such compositional differences can be due to various forms of indirect discrimination such as traditions and social norms and constraints on choices related to education and labour market participation.

### The gender gap among the retirees

The system of social insurance in France leads to continue the active inequality to the period of retirement. Gender differences among pensions are often higher than among the employees. In 2001, the gender gap was about 35 per cent for people's pensions, aged 65 and over, having completed their careers (Insee, 2004, p.176). The French pensions system maintains to a certain extent the differences of the previous economic life.

## 4.2.3 Civil rights

### Right to free legal advice

Free legal advice was instituted in 1851 as a social assistance to the poor: 'the legal assistance'. The 1972 Act broke with this assistance system and recognized a right to free legal advice relating to an income threshold. The 1991 Act creates judicial aid, corresponding to 'jurisdictional help' taking into account the household resources. The 2002 Act released the eligibility criterion of jurisdictional help. Sometimes, the incident gravity can give a jurisdictional help which is not means tested. Jurisdictional help is valid for all jurisdictions. The barrister, the consultant, etc. is freely chosen by individual. The state contribution is linked to income according to a schedule (Table 4.6). If the situation is deemed worthy of interest in the sight of the suit, the state can finance all the cost without taking into account the resources. Furthermore, each département defines its own policy of right to access and help eligibility rules.

Free legal advice gives information on the extent of rights and duties. Free information includes help in establishing legal documents.

**Table 4.6 State trial cost contribution according to income level (euros, 2003)**

Monthly resources	< 830	831 - 868	869 - 915	916 - 981	982 - 1056	1057 - 1151	1152 - 1244
State contribution	100%	85%	70%	55%	40%	25%	15%

The two first additional persons in the households increase the contribution: € 149 and € 94 for each additional person.

Source: *Ministère de la justice*, January 2004 (Act no 91-647, 10 July 1991)

### Discrimination

Before the 1970s, discrimination was ignored by the legal system in France. The first law on discrimination came into force in 1972. Origin, sex, customs, family situation, physical appearance, sexual orientation and age are now recognised as discrimination grounds.

Discrimination can be experienced in different areas, like seeking work or training, promotion at work, seeking accommodation or housing, and public services. At the European level (EU-15), 3% of people responded that they had experienced discrimination on grounds of race or ethnicity in 2001, 5 per cent in the French case (EB 57.0, 2002, p.8). But the figure must be cautiously interpreted. The survey excludes non-EU citizens and some people will not admit that they have experienced discrimination. In 2001, 22 per cent of European people and 28 per cent of French people had experienced discrimination on the grounds of race or ethnicity (EB, 2002, p.10).

At the European level, people thought discrimination against applicants with learning difficulties or mental illness; physical disabilities; older applicants: people over 50 years; ethnic minorities was, at least, 'usually wrong'. In 2001, the European average was 82 per cent and the French one was 85 percent. However, they were pessimistic about the views of their fellow citizens, whom they felt would be more likely than themselves to approve of discrimination (68 per cent in Europe and 72 per cent in France) (EB 57.0, 2002, p.11-12). Across Europe, young, people with higher education and women, were more likely to oppose to discrimination, older male manual workers with little education were less likely.

Despite the ideal of democracy in the Western European countries, it seems that the 'judicial arsenal' of laws on equity and legal equality of citizens has been either insufficient or badly implemented. In France, the principle of procedural equality is a common value which was analyzed in the report of the *Conseil d'Etat*, in 1996. This formal equality could be a steadfast doctrine to combat discrimination in France. However, we have to note that in many fields the state did not make efficient use of the law to fight discrimination. Furthermore, the constant criticism against the state and the double process of supranationality and decentralization has weakened its legitimacy in this field. As a consequence, a new social movement against racism grew in many European countries. In France, the most popular was SOS-Racism. These movements fuelled the second wave in new social movements. In France, for instance, we consider that the anti-racist movement in the eighties and nineties was one of the most extensive social movements. It is difficult to know whether the movement against racism through the associations is a compensation for the procrastination of the state, its inability to impose non-discriminatory rules or the historical result of the increasing awareness. Unfortunately, we experience a simultaneous growing process of racist events (against the Jews and the Muslims) on the one hand, and a development of antiracist actions through the law and the activity of NGOs against racism on the other hand.

#### **4.2.4 Economic and Political Networks**

##### **Ethnic minority groups in higher socio-economic groups**

In France, statistics on the ethnic groups are forbidden in the name of equality because this type of classification can fuel the social stigmatisation against them. However, we have some information on the immigrants (national or non-national people who are born in foreign countries).

In 1999, immigrants represented 8.1% per cent of the labour force; 10.1 per cent of immigrants were executive or managerial jobs, compared to 13.5 per cent of the total active people (Table 4.7).

They are more frequent among the workers. They held more frequently part-time or temporary jobs. The wage level of immigrants is lower than the average income but, there is no negative relation to the monthly wage among the same jobs. At the same age, sex and diploma, immigrants were more frequently unemployed (Thave, 2000).

**Table 4.7 Socio economic groups of immigrants (%)**

	Spain	Italy	Portugal	Algeria	Morocco	Other countries from Africa	Immigrants	France (including immigrants)
Farmer	1.6	0.3	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.7	2.9
Self-employed	10.1	14.2	6.3	8.9	6.6	4.2	8.4	6.9
Executive, manager	7.7	10.2	1.1	7.5	8.3	8.1	10.1	13.5
Qualified employed	15.2	15.6	7.4	10.1	7.4	11.5	11.6	21.1
Employee	27.1	22.1	31.4	24.8	19.5	36.5	25.1	28.9
Worker	38.3	37.7	53.6	48.7	58.2	39.8	44.1	26.3
skilled	24.2	24.1	34.8	27.1	27.2	18.3	25.1	17.2
unskilled	14.1	13.6	18.8	21.5	31.0	21.5	19.1	9.2
<b>Total</b>	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Thave S., 2000

Finally, the discrimination is more intensive at the entrance of the labour market than on the salary.

### **Women elected or appointed to parliament, boards of companies and foundations**

A balanced participation of men and women in decision making is a key element in achieving gender equality. There is an important and persisting imbalance in France concerning the participation of women and men at decision making level in politics, management, trade unions, universities, civil society and in the legal system. However, we have to detail the situation according to the type of organisation.

French women in national parliaments were only 10 per cent in spring 2001. This ratio is the lowest in Europe (Eurostat, 2003c, p. 158). Women's representation in the European Parliaments was 40% in June 1999 whereas the percentage of seats occupied by women was 30%. In 12 Member States the participation rates of women are higher at national government level than in the national Parliaments. The difference is particularly striking in France, with 10% of women in the Assembly and 29% of women in the national government (Eurostat, 2003c, p. 158).

Despite progress in recent years, women still have particular difficulties to enter managerial and supervisory positions: in 2000, less than 6 of all women in employment occupied managerial posts compared with 11 per cent of all men in employment (Eurostat, 2002b, p.76). Women's managerial positions are less underrepresented in the public sector. In 2000, 13.7 per cent of managerial posts were occupied by women in the public sector and less than 5 per cent of all *Préfets* (The local representative of the state in the regions and the *départements*), were women (Table 4.8). But in the education field, 24 per cent of regional educational directors were occupied by women. The inequality

in the private sector gives a similar picture, especially in large firms where only 8 per cent of company managers (more than 50 employees) were women in 2000 and almost one quarter of executive positions were occupied by women (Table 4.9).

**Table 4.8 Proportion of women occupying managerial posts in the public sector (2000, %)**

	Women's proportion
Central administrative director	17.6
Ambassador	7.3
<i>Préfets</i>	4.9
Director of education	24.1
Other jobs (health, justice, etc.)	13.9
<b>Total</b>	<b>13.7</b>

Source: Insee, France, Portrait social 2002/2003, p.209

**Table 4.9 Proportion of women occupying managerial posts in the private sector (2000, %)**

	Women's proportion
Company manager (more than 50 employees)	8.0
Company manager (10 to 50 employees)	16.9
Executives	24.0

Source: Insee, Portrait social 2002/2003, p.209

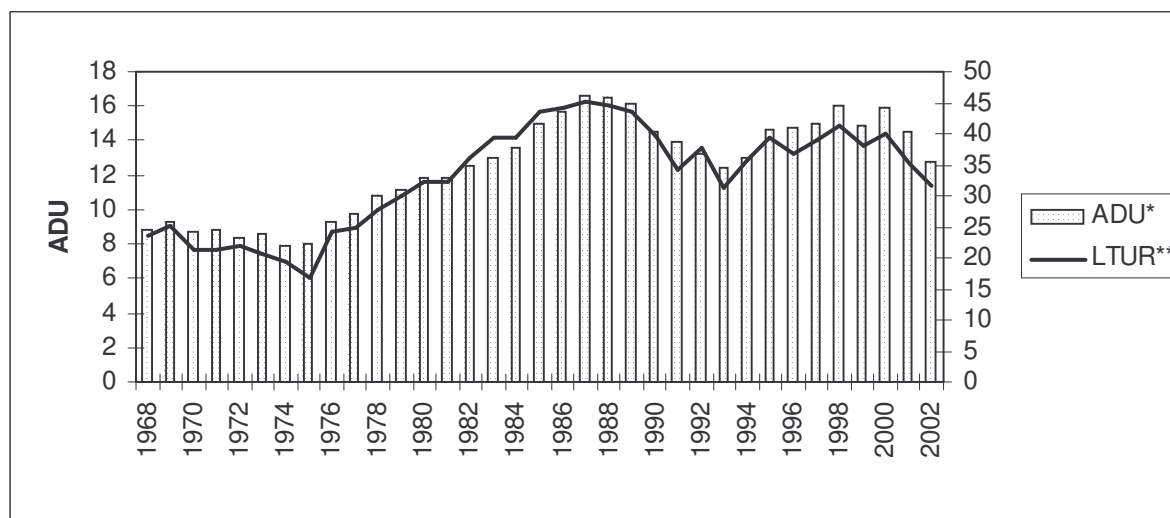
## 4.3 Labour market

### 4.3.1 Access to paid employment

#### Long-term unemployment

In 2003, the long-term unemployed (12 months and more) represented 3.4 per cent of the French total population active, which was the same rate as the EU-15 one (3.3%) (Eurostat, 2004). In 2002, the long-term unemployed amounts to 32 per cent of unemployed people (Insee, 2002). From the mid-70s, long-term unemployment increased strongly, especially at the end of 80s when around 45 per cent of unemployed were long-term unemployed. Long-term unemployment increases with age (around 13-17 per cent for 15-24 years old, 30-35% for 25-49 years old and 50-55% for 50 years and more) (*Insee Première*, n°857, July 2002). Women are slightly more long-term unemployed than men. Average duration of unemployment was about 13 months in 2002 (*Insee Première*, n°857, July 2002). The women's figure was slightly superior to men. (13.4 months against 12.2 months). Among the long-term unemployed people, the average length of time was around 35 months. The average length of time of long-term unemployed people increases with long-term unemployment. When the long-term unemployed number is high, their average length of time tends to increase.

**Figure 4.3 Long-term unemployment share of total unemployment (LTUR, %) and average length of time of long-term unemployed (ADU, months)**



Source: Insee, 2002

#### Involuntary part-time or temporary unemployment

One of the most important changes at European level over the last 10 years was the growing diversification of working-time schedules. For instance, part-time work has become increasingly commonplace in France. In 2002, around 16% of the total French working population worked part-time compared to approximately 13% in 1992 (EFILWC, 2003b). French and European part-time employment are very similar: there is a prevalence of women in part-time employment (Annex A.4.3.5). Furthermore, part-time work has increased more among women than men. The proportion in France is lower than the European average (Table 4.10).

**Table 4.10 Hours worked per week of part-time employment**

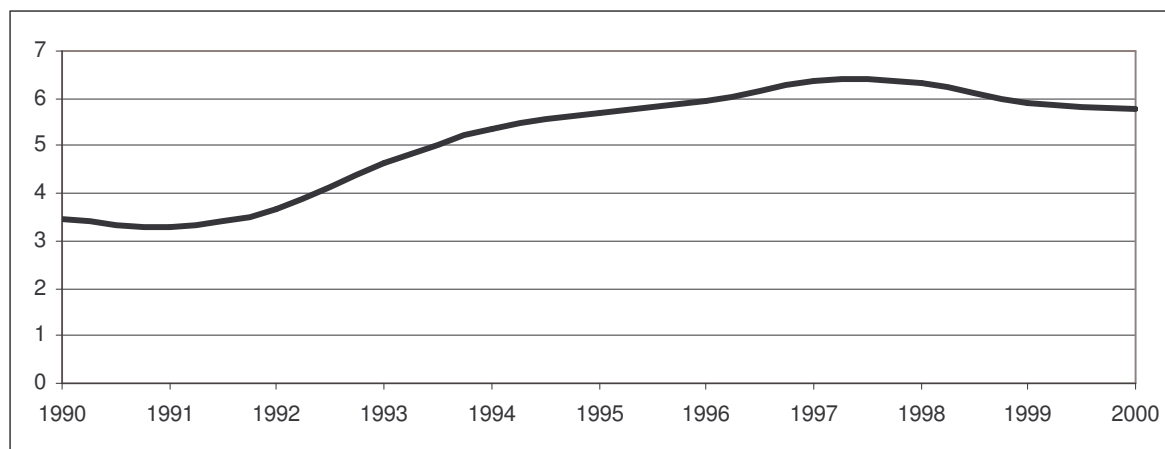
	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
France	22.7	22.6	22.9	22.9	23.1	23.3	23.1	23.4
EU (15 countries)	19.7	19.6	19.5	19.5	19.6	19.7	19.6	:

Source: Eurostat, 2004

Part-time employment has been publicly praised as a tool for promoting reconciliation between working and family life on the one hand, and market flexibility and for responding to international competition and fluctuations in demand on the other hand. However, part-time work is largely associated with several negative working conditions, such as fewer opportunities for training and career progression, weaker job tenure, lower salary level and social protection benefits (EFILWC, 2003b). Working conditions of part-time workers are strongly related to the fact that their decision to work part-time may be either imposed by the employer or freely decided. Voluntary part-time workers seem to have better employment conditions in terms of higher degrees of autonomy at work, better salary conditions and more social working time (Bué, 2002; Galtier, 1999).



**Figure 4.4 Involuntary part-time work as a % of total working population (%)**



Source: Insee, 2001

Involuntary part-time work is analysed as a kind of underemployment by ILO since it comprises people who work less than they would like to. In the French case, from 1990 to 2000, an increasing proportion of people were in this situation (Figure 4.4). In 2002, 24% of French part-time workers were in this situation involuntarily and would have preferred to work full time. Men found themselves more frequently in this negative working condition than women. One third of men compared to approximately 22% of women. These percentages are higher than in the European Union (14.1 %).

**Table 4.11 Involuntary part-time work as a % of total part-time employment, by gender, 2002**

	Men	Women	Total
France	33.0	22.3	24.1
Total European Union	19.0	12.8	14.1

Source: EFILWC, 2003, p.9

## 4.4 Services

### 4.4.1 Health services

#### Entitlement to and using primary health care

According to the traditional French social welfare system, a Bismarckian one, the access to the health services was depending on the socially insured status (the workers and the members of the family). Consequently, a social exclusion was focused on the groups who were not insured. Today, all legal residents in France are covered by the public health insurance. The *Couverture médicale universelle* (CMU) [Universal Health Coverage], (cf. indicator n°10), and the *Aide médicale de l'Etat* (AME) [State medical help] came into force in January 2000. CMU extends the access to the poorest section of the population and AME guarantees complete health care coverage for the non-nationals. Poor foreign residents can benefit from universal health coverage according to their income level (free

supplementary health insurance coverage). Foreign residents are entitled to public coverage on the basis of legal residence in France. People choose the medical place they wish to use.

## **4.4.2 Housing**

### **Proportion of homeless**

The precise number of homeless people is unknown. The National Statistics Institute (Insee) approximately evaluates 90 000 people who use asocial lodging or receive free hot meals, around 0.15 per cent of people (Annex A.4.4.1). When we add people living in an urgent situation (in a hotel, in an unfit place such as a squat or a shelter, around 500 000 people are concerned by this situation. When we take into account people living in uncomfortable households (without shower/bath or toilet) and those living in overpopulated households (with deduction), more than three million people suffer from housing problems, around 5 per cent of the population.

Approximately 14 per cent of homeless are couples and 67 per cent of them lived alone. Men are more often isolated than women. In 2000, 36 per cent of the homeless were aged 18-19 years and 29 per cent were foreigners. Men living alone often lived in unfit places (shelter, street) (Annex A.4.4.2). Women lived more often in social housing. Young people and the foreigners are also over-represented among the total homeless people.

### **Average waiting time for social housing**

In 1996, 855 000 households made a request for accommodation in the social sector. Half of them were coming from people already living in the social sector. On average 40 per cent of those people obtained accommodation during the three months following their request and 75 per cent during the six months (Chafi, 2001, p.33). 15 per cent of the requests were either unsuccessful, given up, or rejected even though people were normal claimants.

Among immigrants, only 58 per cent obtained accommodation during the six months following their request and 42 per cent of immigrants people waited at least one year before obtaining accommodation in the social sector in 1996 (Chafi, 2001, p.33). The average waiting time is growing as the family size decreases: immigrant households holding five or more people obtained on average social housing quicker than immigrant smaller sized households. 27 per cent of immigrant households were excluded despite they were normal claimants.

## **4.4.3 Education**

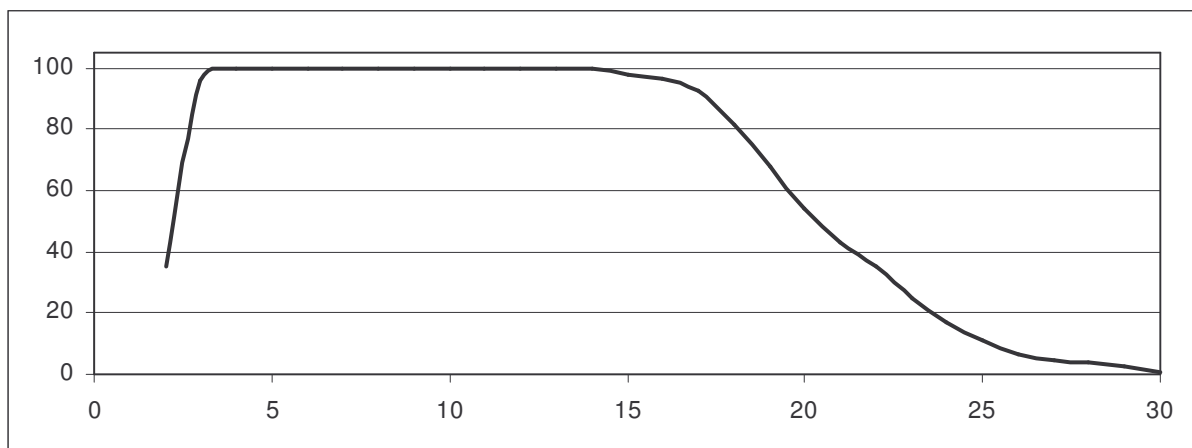
### **School enrolment rate and education participation rate**

Concerning school enrolment, three major phases can be distinguished in the French education system development. From 1880 to 1940, the primary school system was implemented and spread out over France (primary school was instituted in 1885 everywhere in France, and still remains based on the three major principles: free compulsory and Republican school). From 1950 to 1975, the unique secondary school first stage was implemented (secondary school from 11 to 15 years old). In 1975, 90 per cent of workers' children attended school up to 15 years old, against 58 per cent 10 years before.

During the 80s, a 'democratisation' of the secondary school second stage was implemented (it could be technical, vocational or general). The objective was that the *baccalauréat* attainment rate became 80 per cent of young people.

School enrolment rates are at a maximum from three years old to 12 years old (Insee, 2002, *Annuaire statistique de la France*, p.363). At 18 years old, the rate falls to approximately 80 per cent and one year later to 70 per cent. School enrolment rate is estimated at 55 per cent for people aged 20. The European and French profiles are very similar concerning the level of school enrolment. In Europe as well as in France, women participation rates are higher compared to men.

**Figure 4.5 School enrolment rates according to age (year birth is 1999)**



Source: I.N.S.E.E., *Annuaire statistique de la France*, Edition 2002, p.363

Today, around 70% of young people in secondary 'public' schools (schools which are directly run by the ministry of education) attain the class of *Baccalauréat*. In 2000, 30% of *bacheliers* passed a technological *baccalauréat*, 18% a vocational *baccalauréat* and 52% a "general series" *baccalauréat*.

In France, 15.6 per cent of the French non-student population had a high education level (over the *baccalauréat*). This rate is very sensitive to a generational effect: 31.8 per cent of people aged 25-29 had a higher education level (Insee 2002, *Annuaire statistique de la France*, 2002, p.55).

Despite the principle of equality at school which is often claimed in the name of the Republican values in France, the system produces and reproduces large inequalities. Inequality has moved towards the high education level. Spatial inequalities have increased in certain urban areas. Positive discrimination systems, called *Zones d'éducation prioritaire* (ZEP) [priority education area] with supplementary resources have been implemented. All things being equal (especially social conditions), pupils in ZEP increase their odds of being in the second stage of secondary education to 11.7% (*Alternatives économiques*, 2002, 4<sup>e</sup> trimestre, p.39). Democratisation of secondary education as a result, during the 60s, the high educated population trebled. From 1980 to 1995, the general average level had strongly increased and the proportion of students leaving school without a diploma had decreased. But this decrease stopped in 1995.

#### 4.4.4 Social Care

##### People in need of care services

In France, care services are provided by very diverse institutions, notional and local institutions, social security institutions, associations, etc. Consequently, it is impossible to obtain a simple and synthetic indicator. Furthermore, statistics give some information on the recipients and not the people in need of.

Comparable statistics suggest that about 0.2 per cent of the population under 65 years in France (compared to 0.3-0.4% in all the Nordic countries) were living in institutions or in service housing for people with impairment (sheltered housing, service flats or collective housing) at the turn of the century (NOSOSCO, 2003, Table 7.17; Brouard, 2004, Table 5.1).

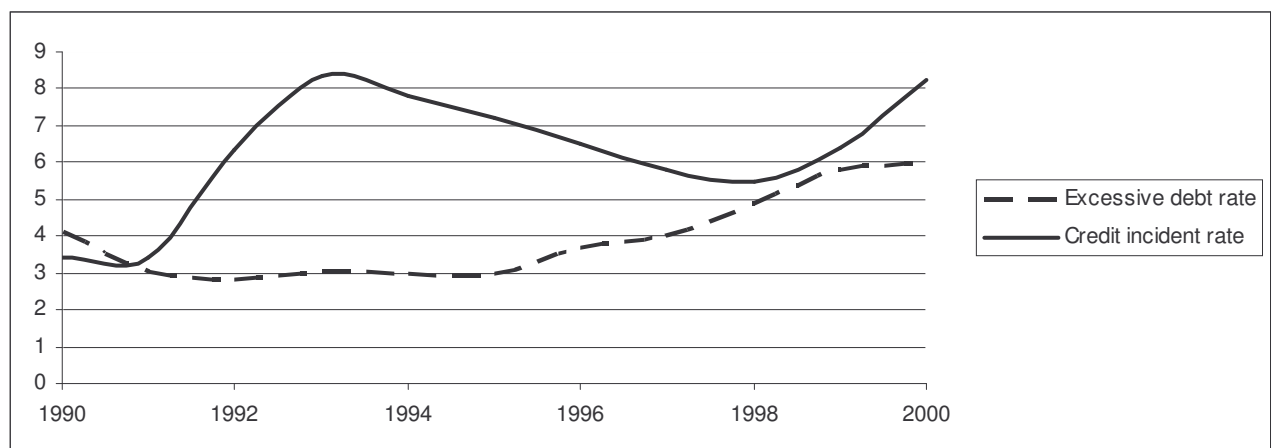
About 4 per cent of the population of expected working age are recipients of disability benefit. The Nordic countries were, however, together with the Netherlands, the Western European countries with the highest rate of beneficiaries, with Norway (9%) as the highest and Finland (7%) as the lowest scoring country. The percentage of beneficiaries in the UK was around 6 per cent (OECD, 2003, Chart 3, p. 13; Gould, 2003). The number of recipients increased in all countries except Finland where it decreased during the 1990s (NOSOSCO, 2003, Table 7.14; Gould, 2003; National Statistics, 2002, p. 125, 164; Brouard 2004, p. 45, figure 2).

#### 4.4.5 Financial service

##### Denied credit

The bankruptcy procedure for individuals and families was installed in France with the Neiertz Act, in December 1989. The central cheque database centralises information about bad cheques, and the national database on household credit repayment incidents. In 2003, around 2.6 million people were registered as problematic.

Figure 4.6 Excessive debt rate and credit incident rate (%)



Source: Banque de France, 2001

### Access to financial assistance/advice in case of need

People requiring the debt commission increased from 142,000 in 1999 to 165,500 in 2003. 94 per cent of them had at least one bank credit. Specific attention has been taken to improve the management of passive debts (debts due to unemployment, health problems, death of a spouse, etc.).

Throughout the nineties, the passive debt increased, from 37 per cent in 1990 to 64 per cent in 2001 (*Banque de France*, 2004). In 2001, unemployment, divorce and illness were the three major factor of passive debt. In 2001, single parent families represented nearly 58 per cent of debtor households, compared to 28 per cent in 1990.

The right to a bank account: the law states that anyone is entitled to open a bank account. People whose applications to open accounts are refused may take their case to the Bank of France which will help them open an account. Almost 6,000 people used this procedure in 1999.

**Table 4.12 Proportion of people unable to meet financial commitments**

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Total	4	3	2	3	2

Source: Insee, *Indicateurs de niveau de vie*, Insee, Résultats, p.35-37

## 4.4.6 Transport

### Access to public transport system

In 2000, in France, 20 per cent of people used public transport to commute; in Paris, the proportion is 60 per cent (Annex A.4.4.14). A large majority of users are women and young people. The proportion of people is U-shaped according to the income level. Around one fifth of managers used public transport to commute in 2000, approximately one sixth of employees and 10% of workers.

In 2000, 21 per cent of people lived far from a bus-stop (less than 10 minutes on foot) (Annex A.4.4.17). In contrast, 48 per cent of people lived near to several bus-stops and 31 per cent near to one bus-stop (Niel, 1998). The proportion of people without a bus-stop near their home increased to 46 per cent in rural surroundings. In 2000, 22 per cent of people living near a bus-stop used it; only 9 per cent of public transport users who did not live near a bus-stop (Annex 4.4.17).

Around 70 per cent of people not living near a bus-stop used their private car to commute, contrasting with only 57 per cent of people with a bus-stop close to their home.

Around 60% of people who had a job used a private car. Workers used more often their car to commute than managers (74% against 69%) in 2000. Approximately one sixth of employees used public transport against 3% of self-employed. Around 80% of people who went out in the evening used a private car. Public transport was used by approximately 5% of people who had an evening out.

'Private car or walking is faster' corresponded to the first reason invoked to explain why people did not use public transport to commute (23% of people), followed by the fact that there was no public transport in place to take them to their workplace (21%) (Annex A.4.4.19).

### **Public transport system and road density**

French public transport owns 62 200 coaches (traffic between towns) and 20 000 buses. In order to serve a maximum of people, at different levels (towns, *départements* and regions), an urban travelling programme has been defined.

Each year, coaches transport approximately one million people. Half of the national population is served and nearly 80 per cent of the territory. In urban areas, buses serve each year around three million travellers of which one million are Parisians (*Ministère des transports*, 2004).

## **4.4.7 Civic / Cultural Services**

### **Public sport facilities**

In 2000, 172 631 associative clubs existed in France (Insee, 2003b, p.335). They are the main part of NGOs in France. In 2001, approximately 65 per cent of people lived near sport facilities. Among them, around 40 per cent did sport and 33.2 per cent used the sport facilities situated in their area/quarter (Insee, *Portrait social 2002/2003*, p.136). In 2000, 13 per cent of French people thought that swimming pools or sports facilities were lacking in their area (Dumartin S. Taché C., 2001, p.44).

### **Public and private civic and cultural facilities**

In 2001, around 60 per cent of people lived near cultural facilities (e.g. cinema, theatre). Almost 65 per cent of them went to cultural facilities and 11.6 per cent went more frequently to cultural facilities in their area (Insee, *France Portrait social 2002/2003*, p.136). In 2000, only 9 per cent of people thought that cultural activities were lacking (Dumartin S. and Taché C., 2001, p.44).

In 1999, France owned 2795 public libraries where 6,583 thousands of people borrowed books (Insee, 2003b, p.305). In 1999, 153.6 millions of spectators watched one of the 525 film distributed in 4,979 cinema's room (Insee, 2003b, p.308).

**Table 4.13 Theatrical activities**

	1990-1991	1999-2000
<b>Opera of Paris</b>		
Performances	322	432
Audience	534	775
<b>National theatre</b>		
Performances	1,617	1,744
Audience	778	602
<b>National stage</b>		
Performances	23,047	-
Audience	2,114,000	-
<b>National dramatic centres</b>		
Performances	7,167	8,481
Audience	2,086,000	1,652,000
<b>Parisian private theatre</b>		
Performances	11,501	11,332
Audience	3,093,000	2,770,000

Source: Insee, 2003b, Annuaire statistique de la France, p.309

## 4.5 Social Networks

### Neighbourhood participation

In 2000, 60 per cent of French people (older than 15) talked to a neighbour at least once a week. Near half of people aged 25-39 had less than one contact with a neighbour during the week preceding the survey. Isolation in neighbourhoods appears to decrease with age except for the youngest age group. Neighbourhood relationships were the most important for the around 65 years old in 1997 (Blanpain, 1998). For elderly people, with total sociability decrease, neighbourhood relations hold a greater importance in the total sociability. More than one sixth of interlocutors had an elderly neighbour, compared one tenth for those aged 30-35 years (Blanpain, 1998).

In 1997, the average number of contacts with anybody (family, occupation, friend) was around 8.5 per week. 60 per cent of French people (older than 15) talked to anybody at least 5 persons a week. Isolation is defined as a number of contacts less than half the average. It means that the intensity of isolation is calculated as the proportion of people with less than 5 contacts per week (similarity with the definition of poverty in EU). According to this definition, the probability of isolation is around 40%. It seems that there is no significant difference between the social or demographic groups: there is no gender effect; the level of education does not change the probability of isolation (Mazureau L., 2001, p.330).

**Table 4.14 Number of contacts per week**

Number of contacts	Percentage	Number of contacts among friends	Percentage
0	0.8	0	39.5
1	10.6	1	15.1
2	10.1	2	13.0
3	9.6	3	9.6
4	9.0	4	8.0
5	8.3	5	9.4
6	7.5	6	1.5
7	6.7	7	1.1
8	5.9	8	0.8
9	5.2	9	0.7
10	4.5	10 or over	19,2
11	3.8		
12 or over	18.0		
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Mazureau L., 2001.

**Table 4.15 Proportion of socially isolated people (%)**

Isolation in the neighbourhood		
Age	1997	2000
15-24 years old	44	45
25-39 years old	46	48
40-49 years old	41	42
50-64 years old	34	35
65 years old and +	29	29
<b>Total</b>	<b>39</b>	<b>40</b>

Source: Insee, 2002b, p.201

### Friendships

In 1997, the average number of contacts was 2.1 friends per week. Some socio-economic factors increase the sociability: family with children, high level of education, income, size of the firm, large town, the housing comfort, involvement in NGOs. In 2000, 18% of the population (older than 15) had less than one contact with a friend by week (Table 4.14). French people reported high level of face-to-face interaction with friends, especially young people for who only 3 per cent of those aged 15-24 were isolated from friends. In EVS, nearly 54 per cent of EU people spend time with friends every week and 58.5 per cent of French people too. Friendship isolation, also meeting frequency, is related to social characteristics. The most important differences are induced by age, family composition (couple/single) and education level. The meeting intensity increases with education level and the fact of not living in a couple (Houseaux, 2003).



**Table 4.16 Proportion of socially isolated people (%)**

Isolation in friendship		
Age	1997	2000
15-24 years old	5	3
25-39 years old	16	11
40-49 years old	23	20
50-64 years old	27	25
65 years old and +	33	32
Total	21	18*

\*Note: In 2000, 18% of the population (>15) have no contact with a friend during one week.

Source: Insee, 2002b, p.201

### **Family life; Proportion feeling lonely/isolated**

Social isolation concerns people having a small number of contacts with the others. Elderly and socially disadvantaged people (low income and low education level) are concerned with isolation (Pan Ké Shon, 2003). In 2002, 11 per cent of French questioned felt socially isolated. This figure depends on the conventional threshold: people with at most 4 private contacts with other people during one week. Living in a couple and childbirth increased sociability centred to close family. Women had more social relations than men especially among young people (family, friends, and neighbour) except with colleagues.

Unemployed people have a lower level sociability due to the decrease of work relations increased by familial relations decrease. Friend relations increase but do not compensate. Women suffer principally from this social relations decrease (familial relations do not change when a women is unemployed).

On the contrary, people with a lower sociability are more easily affected by unemployment (Blanpain, 1998). Interlocutor number increases with the household income level.

A large portion of the elderly are not only socially isolated, but they often live alone. The probability of being isolated increases with a low income level, low education level, live in city or with people saying that "they have difficulties in getting back on their feet from a difficult situation". People with non-national origins are more frequently concerned by this feeling.

Amongst the socially isolated people, 40 per cent feel bored or lonely compared to 10 per cent of the total population. A feeling of loneliness and/or boredom increases with the fact of being a woman, young, low educated and unemployed (Pan Ké shon, 2003).

**Table 4.17 Relationship isolation and feeling of loneliness (% of population)**

	Relationship isolation	Feeling of Loneliness
<b>Sex</b>		
Men	22.9	11.0
Women	25.6	6.9
<b>Composition of households</b>		
Persons living alone:		
Widow(er)	35.5	29.3
divorced	25.9	24.9
unmarried	13.2	15.4
Single parent families	29.8	18.2
Children of single parent families	31.4	9.0
Couple	23.3	5.8
Children of couple	25.6	12.1

Source: INSEE, Données sociales 2002, p. 592 (EPCV, « Relation de la vie quotidienne et isolement », May 1997, Insee)

#### Duration of contact with relatives

In 1999, the duration of contact with relatives (cohabiting and non-cohabiting) was about one hour per day for the total population. Sociability time was less for the labour force. The duration of contact decreased between 1986 and 1999 (Table 4.18). A study confirmed this weakening of social relations in work surroundings and in the private sphere. The number of people having a conversation during the week with their family (close or not) decreased from around 80 per cent in 1983 to approximately 75 per cent in 1997 (Blanpain, 1998). Family and neighbourhood relations resists better to this weakening than the other social relations (colleagues, friends, services relation and other kind of relations). Growing individualism, changing work conditions (part-time work, fixed term contracts and high unemployment are not favourable to social relations) and mass distribution increase at the expense of merchant and small shopowners can be invoked.

**Table 4.18 An average day (in hours and minutes per day)**

	Men		Women		Total labour force		Total population	
	Working population 1999	Non-working population 1999	Working population 1999	Non-working population 1999	1986	1999	1986	1999
Sociability time (without meals)	0h47	1h10	0h43	1h04	0h49	0h45	0h58	0h56

Source: Insee, *Annuaire statistique de la France*, Edition 2002, Table D.01-9

#### Informal (non-monetary) assistance received by different types of families

75% of people say that they help their family, en fact, the close family, members with whom we live (in 1997, almost 70% of individuals helped at least once their parents and 66% of parents helped their children after they left the parental household) (Crenner, 1999). The nature of help depended on family ties: children becoming parents and needing child care. Moral support is the most important

help provided in the family network, followed by shopping, gardening and odds jobs (Table 4.19). The nature of the help depends on age: children need school help. Parents, uncles/aunts and grandparents more often helped to do current tasks.

The virtual help index tends to answer the following question: is it possible to rely on someone in case of difficulty? It is composed of three situations: do you feel depressed? ; do you need help finding a job for you or someone else in your family? ; do you need money to pay a bill or something else? In 1996, more than 40 per cent of French questioned positively answered to these three situations and, in 2001, the figure was higher than 50 per cent of people (Gallie, 2002, p.40). Women can benefit more often from this kind of support. Virtual help decreases with age (family network decreases, social habit to help young people). Unemployed and inactive people have a lower probability of being supported than working people. Family help has grown as a result of an increasing participation of women in employment, increasing divorces and single-parent families and an increasing life expectancy

**Table 4.19 Nature of help according to family ties (1997, %)**

	Parents	Children	Grand-children	Brother/Sister	Uncle/Aunt	Nephews	Cousins	Grand-parents	Total
Moral support	23	18	20	26	31	25	34	26	24
Shopping	26	12	10	15	21	13	11	34	18
Gardening / odd jobs; DIY	13	10	2	12	11	4	10	12	11
Cash donation	5	16	31	6	5	19	7	4	10
Administrative procedures	13	6	2	8	12	6	8	8	9
Homework	10	7	7	4	6	3	3	13	7
Child care	1	12	12	10	7	11	8	-	7
Car lending (prêt)	4	9	2	7	3	4	4	-	6
Cash loan	2	6	2	6	1	3	2	-	4
school help	-	2	8	2	-	8	8	-	2
others	3	2	4	4	3	4	5	3	3
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Crenner, 1999

## 4.6 Conclusion

Social inclusion is defined as a multi-dimensional process, in which various forms of exclusion are combined (participation in decision making and political processes, access to employment and material resources, and integration to common cultural processes). Eurostat has defined an indicator which tries to measure the chances of participating in social life (dissatisfaction with social life is reported in this variable). Participation is seen in a general sense which encompasses political participation as a right to vote, being a member of a political party or generally to influence the shaping of public opinion (also refers to voluntary membership and involvement in organisations such as trade

unions, action groups and even sports clubs; the chance to take advantage of cultural opportunities and to contact other people and foster social networks).

In Europe as in France, 6-7 per cent of the population complained that their social life was unsatisfactory and that they felt to be alone in 2001 (Table 4.20). Unemployment reduced opportunities to participate in social life (18%). Limited opportunities prevailed in the low income group (polarisation is equal to four) and were very high among the multiple deprived especially in France.

**Table 4.20 Limited opportunities to participate in social life, % of population and ratio (2001)**

	Total	Unemployed	Polarisation employed/ unemployed	Low income	Polarisation high/low income	Multiple deprivation
EU-15	7	18	3.6	16	4	26
France	6	18	3.6	17	17	36

Source: Eurostat, 2002c, p.43

## 5 Social Empowerment

### 5.1 Introduction

“The aim of empowerment in the perspective of Social Quality is to enhance the participation of people to enable them to balance their personal development and coordination with their immediate social and physical environment and the more distant social and physical environment” (Herrman, 2003, p.16). Empowerment means to enable people to control the personal, communal and social environment to foster their own development. Empowerment is directly linked to individual rights. But, it must be considered as a social process rather than an individual capacity. In this way, empowerment concerns not only individuals’ capacities or skills, but also the opportunities that a social system and its institutions can offer them. Therefore, it considers the link between the individuals and the society with a structural and processing dimension. Empowerment is at the same time a conditional and a resulting factor, when linked with the other domains (Herrman, 2003, p.4).

At the micro-level and at the other levels (social-personal relations and access to societal mechanisms), how does the empowerment concept, through the social system, help individuals to achieve self-actualisation and full citizenship? How do institutions enable individuals to control their personal, communal and social environment whilst improving their own development and working towards their full potential?

Empowerment as a social process is defined using five domains. Firstly, we will look at how social mobility is knowledge-based in France, followed by the links between information and people in different areas of social life. Secondly, the labour market institutions and their control over employment contracts will be described and mobility possibilities that can be offered to people. The third domain will try to measure how institutions are opened to people and how they support people through political and economic systems. The fourth point will be an analysis of the relationship between the public space and personal initiatives. The fifth domain will be devoted to a description of how public institutions facilitate/influence personal relationships.

### 5.2 Knowledge base

#### 5.2.1 Application of knowledge

##### **Knowledge-based social mobility (formal qualifications)**

Relation between educational level and socio-economic group (based on income)

After leaving education young people generally enter the labour market and start their working life (around 90 per cent). In France, unemployment has reached a particularly high level among young people. School-leavers often find themselves in jobs that do not match their educational qualifications very well. Eurostat’s survey tries to measure the “job mismatch” as a discrepancy between the school leaver’s current occupation and the field of education attended in his initial education. Individuals

working outside their field of education are treated as school leavers with non-matching jobs (Eurostat, 2003a, Part II).

In 2000, approximately 35 per cent of French school-leavers worked in a job under their field of qualification (Eurostat, 2003a, Part II, p.2). In most European countries, women who left school were more likely to be employed in non-matching jobs than men. But, the gender difference was quite modest. In the French case, men worked a little more often in a job that was not directly related to their field of education. In 2000, among European and French school leavers with upper secondary education (ISCED 3-4) at the most, approximately 40 per cent witnessed a job mismatch. At the highest educational level (ISCED 5-6), approximately 30 per cent of European and French school leavers had a job mismatch. The incidence of job mismatch differs between fields of education. School leavers who attended a programme in the humanities/arts (62%), agriculture (61%) or sciences (53%) are most likely to be employed outside their field of education (Eurostat, 2003a, Part II, p5). Other fields of education seem to specifically prepare students for a few particular job such as health/welfare (16% of job mismatch), engineering, manufacturing and construction (28%) social sciences, business, law (31%), education (32%), services (37%). The occupational status of the current job is used as a proxy for wages in estimating the effect of a job mismatch (Eurostat, 2003a, Part II, p.4). In France, for school leavers with a non-matching job, the average occupational status is 5 points lower than for those who have a matching job.

### **Socio-economic group of parents**

The only very mobile group is employed people. Their social mobility seems to be increasing with time. Farmers' children often become workers and self-employed children often become employed. Social mobility is globally ascending and linked with unskilled job disappearance especially in the industrial sector. Women's social mobility is higher than men's social mobility. Structural mobility towards the tertiary sector explains this high women mobility. Structural mobility represented 35 per cent of all social mobility in 1993 (Table 5.1). Education plays an important role, logically associated with production system evolution.

According to Bourdieu (1970), school is a factor of social reproduction. The family and social environment contribute to this reproduction because some advantaged children accumulate cultural capitals that are valued by school according to selection mechanism. But, for Boudon (1973), social reproduction is explained by a dominance phenomenon resulting from rational behaviour. The best socio-economic positions are held by socially well-off children. A marginal achievement is subjectively deemed more costly by those socially disadvantaged, compared to the socially advantaged people. Furthermore, socially disadvantaged people under estimate the advantages of this marginal education achievement.

**Table 5.1 Social mobility table in terms of destiny, 1977, 1985, and 1993**

Father's SEG*	Son's SEG					Total
	Farmer	Self employed	Manager, executive	Employee	Worker	
Farmer	33,8	8,9	5	6,7	33,6	100
	33,3	9,8	5	7,4	33,7	100
	24,6	7,7	10,3	8	34,9	100
Self employed	2	29	19,6	7,2	23	100
	1,6	30,2	20,2	7,8	19,6	100
	1,6	29,6	21,7	6,7	20,1	100
Manager, executive	0,5	9,2	59,8	6	3,8	100
	1,4	10,3	57,8	4,1	4,8	100
	0,5	10,7	52,9	8,4	6,8	100
Employee	0,3	9,7	22,9	13,9	21,5	100
	0,8	8,6	21,6	15	23	100
	0,2	7,4	22,2	11	27	100
Worker	1,4	9,8	7,7	10,2	48,9	100
	1,3	9	7,4	9,6	51,7	100
	0,8	8,7	9,8	10,7	45,7	100

Note: active and retired people aged 40 to 59

Source: Insee, 1996

## 5.2.2 Availability of information

### Non-education trap

The high increase in the number of successful students must not mask the persistence of a "hard core" of children who fail at school, with the failure often coming to light in their first years at school. These early difficulties were highlighted during a detailed investigation carried out in 1997 with children in the first year of secondary education (11 years old): 15% were bad readers and 4% were nearly illiterate. Most of these children will find it hard to overcome this handicap.

According to the French demographic national institute (INED), the illiteracy rate was around 4 per cent of people in 1996 (Table 5.2). This illustrates a high drop compared to 1986 where the rate was superior to 9 per cent. According to U.N.E.S.C.O., the French illiteracy rate is under 5% of the population. Those pupils aged 11 who suffered from literacy problems reached 8.5 per cent in 1996. Numeracy problems concerned 25 per cent of these pupils. In the reading tests carried out during the days of the introduction to the military service (attendance was compulsory for all French young people after the end of conscription), an average of 6.5 per cent of young people found it very difficult to read a text (Annex A.5.1.1). This is why the law states that "the fight against illiteracy is a national priority. All the public services shall contribute in a coordinated way to the fight against illiteracy in their respective fields of action". It has been decided to set up a public interest grouping which will be responsible for coordinating and assessing policy to combat illiteracy.

Promoting children's education: the Ministry of Education has introduced schemes to try to prevent young people from being excluded from school or suffering from social marginalization: young people who have failed at school and whose behaviour has started to become disruptive can be kept within or re-integrated into the education system through the classes "special needs" and internet "extras" (special classes and schools for children with problems). *Collège* grants (*collèges* cater for pupils aged

approximately 11-15 years) were also re-introduced at the beginning of the 1998-1999 academic year for the least advantaged families.

**Table 5.2 Illiteracy rate (%)**

	1986	1993	1996
Percentage of the population with literacy problems	9.1	5.4	4.0

Source: Insee, *Population, n°2*, 1999, Ined, p.271

Another international survey gives different results which are more comparable

**Table 5.3 Illiteracy rate (%)**

Educationally „poor” individuals in different countries based on literacy competences	B	D	EL	F	IRL	I	HU	P	FIN	S	UK
Pupils 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

### Availability of free media

#### *French newspapers: towards a duopole*

Some journalists and editorial writers worry about the French media concentration and the plurality of ideas. From 2004, the French press has almost become a duopole. Dassault, mayor (right-wing) from Corbeil-Essonnes and president of a large aeronautical firm (contracting with the State in public transaction), had bought in 2004 the Socpresse which encompasses around 80 daily/weekly newspapers and magazines in Belgium and France, along with minor radio and television interests (of which Figaro, Le Dauphiné libéré and some regional newspapers, 20% of French newspaper circulation/ 20% of press market). With EADS where we find Lagardère (the leading group: 50% of press market). Today, the French newspaper publishing is now dominated by two aerospace giants - Dassault and Lagardère. *Le Monde* is asking "Is France returning to the bad old days [before the 1939-45 War] when newspapers were the dancing girls of billionaires?"

#### *“Reporters Without Borders” and their worldwide press freedom index*

In October 2002, “Reporters Without Borders” published the first worldwide press freedom index. This first worldwide index of freedom of the press shows some surprises for the Western democracies. The final list includes 139 countries. Globally, the top end of the list shows that rich countries have no monopoly of press freedom (with some exceptions). In 2002, France, in 11th place overall, came only 8th among EU countries because of several disturbing measures endangering the protection of journalists' sources and because of police interrogation of a number of journalists in recent months. In 2003, France was situated in 26<sup>th</sup> place.

The reasons for this drop are diversified. Some abuses by the police were notified. Reporters are arrested more and more often and ill-treated by the police, especially during marches and



demonstrations. Reporter's material is confiscated more and more frequently. Relating to the Middle East conflict, a communitarian radio was attacked in Marseille. Furthermore, the French legislation concerning the press is deemed archaic compared to other European countries. Reporters are gradually considered as legal aid (today any police officer can demand information from reporters).

### **Internet Access**

In 2004, there were more than 2,500 public spaces with internet access. Around two million euros have been used to promote this internet democratisation policy. The objectives were to insure public and free access to the internet for everybody and everywhere. Different programmes have been implemented.

Access to the internet programme by the Ministry of Art and Culture was launched in 1998.

"Multimedia culture space" supports creation of free internet access in cultural and socio-cultural structures. The objective is to initiate people to the internet through cultural and artistic content.

People can benefit from training or advice or can have free use of the internet. They can be found in public libraries, cultural centres, and youth clubs.

Ministry for sport and young people launched an internet access programme too in 2000. More than 600 public spaces have been distributed around the country especially at the heart the youth information network. Young people can freely take advantage of this initiation with their monitors or use the internet for personal use. Another new action was set up by the Ministry of Employment in 2003. Public spaces equipped with multimedia and internet systems offer distance training. The objective is to create an exchange of services/competencies using different networks.

## **5.2.3 The user friendliness of information**

### **Supply of information in multiple languages in the social services**

The idea of integration is highly instituted in France. It includes the French language. Non French-speaking people can have access to French courses. Compared to other European countries, very little information is delivered in multiple languages on social services, except for deaf and blind people.

A global public employment network has been set up in France due to closer co-operation between the national employment agency and the French International Migration Office. In international job centres, applicants for jobs abroad can find relevant advertisements, literature, support and administrative assistance. Individual discussion in the person's native language evaluates their needs (opening of social rights, level in French/linguistic outcome, health/medical visit, housing conditions). French courses are available for non-native French speakers. (*Ministère de l'emploi*, 2004).

From 1970, several specific measures have been created to favour the schooling of new comers. For young people Initiation classes for non French-speaking pupils were created. Native culture and language teaching was implemented in the 70s. In 1975, information centres for immigrants children were created. People aged 16 and more can benefit from vocational training and French courses. From 1991, deaf people have the right to choose between bilingual communication (using signs to communicate and French) and oral communication. Schools and the university have to obey this social right.

### Availability of free advocacy, advice and guidance centres

Qualitative information is developed in the indicator n°49 (Social inclusion).

In 2002, France counted 689 000 jurisdictional help admissions/admittances (and 76 000 rejects) with 52 per cent of civil procedures, 42 per cent of penal procedures and 6 per cent of administrative procedures (Bodet, 2003). Jurisdictional help concerned more often men (56 per cent of admissions/admittances), but women were represented more in civil procedures (60%) and particularly in family procedures (69%). Jurisdictional help is in 86.8 per cent of the total cases (Table 5.4).

**Table 5.4 jurisdictional help admissions / admittance**

	1999	2000	2001	2002
Civil	398,255	381,694	358,195	357,362
Penal	281,943	286,924	266,540	290,385
Administrative	6,161	6,257	7,365	7,580
Foreigners*	18,048	23,741	25,409	31,136
Others**	243	163	316	2,174
<b>Total</b>	<b>704,650</b>	<b>698,779</b>	<b>657,816</b>	<b>688,637</b>

\*Escorted back to the border; \*\*Special procedures concerning pensions

Source: Bodet, 2003.

Each person involved in a trial must understand what is being said. It is a legal requirement. In court, if the people subjected to trial do not speak French, then one or several translators have to translate what is said during the trial.

## 5.3 Labour market

### 5.3.1 Control over employment contract

#### Trade-union

According to the French labour law, it is forbidden to discriminate any member of trade unions or any employee in any union activity concerning hiring, organisation and distribution of work/job, further training, wage level, work condition, and holidays.

In 1948, the tripartition of French trade-unionism rediscovered its international foundation and political background (communist, reformist, catholic). Today, the three main trade unions are the CGT (communist oriented), the CFDT (reform-oriented) and FO. In 1993, trade unions density was the lowest in Europe, 9.5%, with a huge inequality between the private and the public sectors, 3.4% in private sector and 19.2% in public sector (Eddinghaus B. and Visser J., 2000, p.272). Union membership has dropped sharply in France and in most other continental European countries, especially among the youngest age groups. The unions have great difficulty recruiting new entrants in the labour market, but remain fairly adept at retaining the older members. This is, of course, something that will be questionable in the future, not only for the unions, but also for the position of the social partners.

Although the number of employees who are members of an union is small (around 10%), unions have a lot of competencies in industrial relations and in the management of the social security system. Each company (above 10 employees) must have at least one union representative and (above 50 employees) a work council which must be consulted on any important issue concerning the company. Labour contracts must be signed with one or more of the union representatives, which means, practically, one or more of the largest national unions. The French social welfare system is known as a Bismarckian one. Its management is based on the paritarism which means a participation of social partners (unions and trade unions).

### Collective agreement

In addition to the French Codified collection of Employment Law provisions [*Code du Travail*] there are often also additional provisions set out in collective bargaining agreements, known in French as *Conventions Collectives du Travail*.

Collective bargaining agreements may be applicable nationally, throughout the entire French territory, or sometimes only at a very local level. In general terms, collective bargaining agreements relate to a specific sector of industry or commerce and tend to set out in much greater detail the scope of the relationship between employer and employee. The terms reflect the fruit of local or national negotiation between bodies representing the employers and those representatives of the employees. Collective bargaining agreements are used as a very general rule in litigation before the specialised *Conseils de Prud'hommes* [French Labour Courts].

However, the collective bargaining agreements are in many cases binding upon employers who took no part in any collective bargaining nor were members of any employers' representative grouping which was party to the negotiations, where a conflict of interpretation exists between the statutory text viz. the French codified collection of employment law provisions and that of the collective bargaining agreement, then the provisions, which are most favourable to the employee, are likely to prevail

**Table 5.5 Proportion of workplaces covered by collective agreement in private sector**

	1980	1990	1994	2001
Coverage rate	85	92	95	90-95

Source: OCDE Employment Outlook, July 1997, Table 3.3; EIRO pour 2001

## 5.3.2 Prospects of job mobility

### Occupational training

The current continuing vocational training system was launched at the beginning of the 1970s (social advancement and cultural enrichment were one of the objectives of the 1971 law besides economic efficacy). It involves the central government as well as local public institutions, public and private schools, the business sector, trade associations, trade-unions and representatives of family organisations. The originality of the French continuing vocational training system rests with the important role played by collective bargaining agreements. In addition, its general structure provides a wide range of possibilities for obtaining training according to the status of the individuals. Considering

the status and the specific training problems faced by individuals, social partners and the government have created and implemented different measures: alternation training contracts; an individual training leave benefit; re-training agreements, etc.

The central governments vote the laws in. However, today, the regional governments have the responsibility of implementing vocational training. They have to conceive and to implement their own training policy, especially in continuing vocational training. The policy of the central government is focused to the unemployed and precarious populations (the disabled, some unskilled groups, etc.). A national co-ordinating committee has been created in order to facilitate the development of consistent regional programmes: the committee for the co-ordination of regional apprenticeship and vocational training programmes.

**Table 5.6 Proportion of population in continuing education in 1999/2000 (further training)**

	Private sector	Public sector	Total
<b>Further training (law of 1971)</b>	20.0	27.7	22.1
Alternation further training	0.4	-	0.3
Further training leave	0.3	0.1	0.3
Stage, seminary, conference	19.4	27.5	21.6
<b>Other further training</b>	9.3	8.2	9.0
Other further training at work	8.9	7.7	8.5
Self-training	0.6	0.5	0.6
<b>Total</b>	27.3	33.9	29.1

Source: Goux, 2001

Continuing vocational training is designed for people who are entering or who are already part of the active work force. It aims at: facilitating their adaptation to technological developments or to new working conditions; maintaining or improving their professional qualifications; improving their chances of social and professional promotion. In 1999, nearly 30 per cent of the employed labour force had received a work based training (6 million people, over 3 hours), against 19 per cent seven years earlier (Table 5.6). However, it is characterised by a deep inequality between the private and public sectors, between large and small companies, between the unskilled and the educated population. In the private sector, this proportion was lower (27.3 per cent of employed labour force) compared to the public sector (near 34 per cent of employed people). People working in large companies (more than 500 employees) receive three times more work based training than those in firms counting less than 10 employees. Further training depends on the socio-economic group: highly educated people receive work-based training more often (Annex A.5.3.3). In 1999/2000, more than 25 per cent of further training concerned computer science and information technologies (Table 5.7). The other items are described in the table.

**Table 5.7 Further training according to their speciality (private sector)**

	1999/2000	1992/1993
Computer science, IT, office automation, secretary's office	25.3	22.0
Industrial technique/engineering ("technique industrielle")	14.2	15.8
Hygiene and safety, first aid and work conditions	10.5	4.7
Human resources, communication	10.4	11.5
Marketing, sales, market and product knowledge	8.9	9.3
Management, economy, study law	7.9	9.7
Socio-medical training	5.9	5.0
Teaching training	4.2	5.5
General training	3.9	3.1
Languages	2.6	3.9
Others	6.3	9.5
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Goux, 2001

### Labour force availing of publicly provided training (not only skill based)

In 2000, further training represented nearly 17.9% of labour force. The percentage of the labour force availing to publicly provided training was at approximately 2.7 per cent. If the non-profit sector is added to the public sector, the ratio is about 8.9 per cent of the labour force.

In 2001, the nation spent 22 billion euros on work-based training which represented approximately 1.5 per cent of GDP. The state spent (including the regions) 10.2 billion euros. Concerning further training, it is difficult to distinguish between public and private training, because nearly one third of all work-based training is provided by the private non-profit sector (associations). This latter is financed at the same time by the state, by the regions and by firms.

**Table 5.8 Further training organisms (2000, %)**

	Organisms	Trainees number	Hours-trainees number
Public sector	6	15	22
Private (non profit) sector	31	35	32
Private sector	31	40	37
Individuals	32	10	9
<b>Total</b>	<b>7 485 (number)</b>	<b>4 625 (thousands)</b>	<b>382 309 (thousands)</b>

Source: Flachaire, 2003, p.3

In 2000, 14.1 per cent of training concerned a certain discipline, nearly 10 per cent in the industrial sector, around 60 per cent for services and 16.5 per cent for personal development (Table 5.8). Considering the most diffused specialities (59% of total), computer skills and information technologies are the most common, followed by the insertion capacities training, office's automation, transport and handling, general knowledge, trading, health, relational capacities and foreign and regional languages (Flachaire, 2003, p.6).

### Labour force participating in any "back to work scheme"

The *Agence nationale pour l'emploi* (ANPE) [National Employment Agency], set up in 1967, has the task of improving the match between the job seekers to vacancies. Since 1990, it has been involved in a

policy driving to modernise and introduce new services. The objectives of this process are personalisation and flexibility. The framework of these new services is based on the selection on a person's ability to do a particular job and not on selection criteria (for instance on qualifications, experience). This system tries to enhance a greater diversity in women's employment. Since 1990, three agreements have been signed with the State. News services are targeted by the French National Action for Employment Plan to reduce long-term unemployment and to prevent social exclusion. From July 2001, the *Plan de retour à l'emploi* (PARE) [French Back to Work Aid Scheme] has reinforced this idea of individual monitoring and contractual commitment by extending it to all those registered unemployed after having worked four out of the previous eighteen months. Long-term unemployment is one of the main determinant of marginalization since the "desocializing" effect which it has on its victims makes it increasingly difficult for them to return to work. Under the National Employment Agency, "New Start" programme, help with seeking and preparing for work is provided on a personal basis for people who have not worked for a long time. Young people under 25 who have been unemployed for over 12 months, adults who have been registered unemployed for over 24 months and people living solely on income support are eligible for this programme. Various kinds of help are offered: jobseeker's help, including guidance and help in finding a job; a personalized jobseeker mentoring service, led by the same counsellor for a period of three months, which can be repeated, with at least two interviews per month; access to training, where necessary including personalized help in drawing up a training plan; personalized mentoring including welfare support, for people in the most difficult situations whose social, family and health problems further complicate their return to work. Approximately 5 per cent of the labour force (1,400,000 people) have benefited from the "New Start" programme over the last two years, 54% of them under the policy to combat marginalization. In the year between September 1999 and September 2000 long-term unemployment fell by 23.1%.

### **5.3.3 Reconciliation of work and family life**

#### **Work/family life balance policies**

The 35-hour law (in reality it is a 1,600 hours a year law), established in 1999, redefined working time regulations for a large section of employees. Against a background of high unemployment its main objective was to create employment. However, at another level, the French adoption of a 35-hour working week was also part of the search for a better work- life balance. A flexible working schedule has been implemented: the 35 working hours are calculated on a yearly-basis. In 2004, nearly 75 per cent of employees in full-time jobs worked between 35 and less than 36 hours per week (DARES, 2004, p.1).

**Table 5.9 Combining paid and unpaid work: Breakdown according to working schedules (%)**

Has the reduction of working time made it easier than before?	Yes	No	Total
Among employees with atypical working hours	50	50	100
Among employees who do not have atypical working hours	64	36	100
Total	58	42	100

Source: Fagnani, 2002.

From a representative sample of working parents with at least one child under 6 years, almost six out of ten parents working in a firm or establishment which had already adopted the reform considered that reduced working hours had made it easier to combine paid work and family life (Annex A-5-2-5). They reported that they had spent more time with their children since the reduction of working time. But, working atypical hours (early in the morning, late in the evening or at night), when obtaining childcare is more difficult, which considerably reduces the probability of obtaining a positive answer. Furthermore, the gender division of domestic labour and childcare had not changed, partly because the 35 hours can be averaged over the year, so people can still work very long days which can make it difficult to meet family obligations (Fagnani, 2002). The choice of a large majority of employees has been to turn the reduction of daily worked hours into extra WE or yearly holiday days than a daily reduction.

The probability of positive answers appears to be related to the fact that those running companies take account the fact that employees have one or more dependent children and the fact that people work in the public sector (Annex A.5.3.6). The different ways in which the new working time law has been introduced has also contributed towards the individualisation and fragmentation of work schedules. Working time schedules in specific workplaces has remained a crucial determinant of well being, with employees in firms where working hours were negotiated rather than imposed expressing a greater satisfaction (Fagnani, 2002). The study shows that the way in which the law has been implemented, reinforced inequality and segmentation between those protected or privileged and those primary sector workers generally in the public sector or large companies, and other workers (Annex A.5.3.7).

## 5.4 Supportiveness of institutions

### 5.4.1 Openness and supportiveness of political system

#### Processes of consultation and direct democracy

French electors vote not only to choose their representatives at local (municipality, *département*), regional or national level, but also in some rare referenda. The President of the Republic may submit a bill or major decision to them for approval in a referendum. This has happened twice in the past ten years: the first, on 6 November 1988, on the status of New Caledonia, and the second, on 20 September 1992, about the ratification of the European Union Treaty. A reform of the Constitution in August 1995 broadened the scope of referenda to include bills on "reforms relating to the economic or

social policy of the Nation and to the public services contributing there to". In the future, European Constitution adoption will be decided through a referendum.

The non-EU nationals who live in France cannot participate in any national elections, even in local ones.

## 5.4.2 Openness of economic system

### Instances of public involvement in major economic decision making

Lay offs and redundancies in France - dismissals on economic grounds

The legal relationship between an employer and an employee in France is very formal and highly regulated and the majority of direct and indirect legislation is held, by most lawyers, to lean in favour of a protection of the interests of the employee rather than the employer. Employment in France is not 'at will' and thus dismissals may only come about on demonstrably and limited objective grounds, which must be brought to the attention of the employee in writing. Dismissals are subject to stringent, and often bureaucratic, procedural statutory constraints. Redundancies, or lay-offs on economic grounds, are subject to separate and complex procedural and substantive constraints particularly in the case of multiple dismissals.

Legislative changes in 2002 mean that French Law is fast moving towards a situation where in essence the French entity (as opposed to the group to which it may belong) must be in a sufficiently severe economic situation to justify laying off staff or making them redundant. There are a number of French State Agencies that have a statutory right to be advised of, and in some cases to authorise, proposed dismissals by private sector employers. In large companies, redundancies are negotiated with the trade unions in order to reduce the number of employees who will become totally unemployed through the use of pre-retirement, occupational training, etc.).

Furthermore, an employee to start litigation against his (ex)employer before the *Conseils de Prud'hommes* [separate Labour Courts] which are generally made up of lay judges elected from the employer/employee organisations.

## 5.4.3 Openness of organisations

### Organisations/institutions with work councils

A *Comité d'entreprise* [joint committee] is legally required for companies with over 50 employees (1.4% of French companies).

Its members are elected among candidates proposed by the unions. This work council manages the various benefits from the company; all of them offer services such as tickets at reduced price for theatres, sport events etc., summer camps for children, cheap trips and cruises, retirement homes, and sometimes more. At *Electricité de France*, the largest utility in the world (state-owned), the work council receives 1% of the electricity bills; in 2004, it employs around 3,600 people



## 5.5 Public space

### 5.5.1 Support for collective action

National & local public budget for voluntary, non-profit citizenship initiatives

The relative weakness of the French associative movement in comparison with other European countries has often been noted (Salamon et al., 1999). It is generally explained by the dual influence of a Catholic culture and a centralised State. They have competed for control of civil society for centuries leaving little room for citizen initiative. The State stages a constant battle against any form of intermediary structure likely to fragment society and stand between central authority and private citizens. The 1901 Law on Associations ended the obligation to obtain dispensation from the Ministry of police before creating an association but initiated the obligation to register at a *Prefecture* [State representative in regions and *départements*] to acquire legal status and capacity.

The associative sector in France represents 3.7 per cent of GDP (47 billion euros) (CNVA, 2002) of which 55 per cent is financed by the State, leaving the percentage of the public budget that is reserved for voluntary groups at around 2 per cent. Conversely to a general idea of substitution, the sector has grown with the Welfare State, although there have been noticeable changes in the nature of its evolution. The dynamism of associative creation has shifted from the traditional sectors of quasi public-service and sectoral corporate interests to new emerging activities more in tune with the needs and desires of citizens today (sports, cultural organisation, personal development in cultural and leisure activities, the promotion of civil and social rights, and an active solidarity with the disadvantaged).

#### **Marches and demonstrations (held and banned)**

Demonstration concerns public and collective freedom, so it is constitutionally authorised. In practice, marches and demonstrations are authorised in France if declared to the prefecture at least three days before. The only case of interdiction concerns demonstration representing a serious danger for public order. In this latter case, a demonstrator can refer to the Council of State.

Throughout the eighties and the nineties, the unemployed also launched sporadic demonstrations, especially against the local branches of the ASSEDICs, the funding body in charge of awarding contributory unemployment benefits. Furthermore, we can note a claim convergence with other voices and protest movements which sprang up within the voluntary sector and the charitable institutions focused on volunteer work for the poor and excluded people. Besides a renewal of volunteer work for the poor (for instance, restaurants for the poor), these new movements included a protest dimension against the public bodies in the name of fundamental social rights in favour of the 'have-nots' (people not having a job, education, a flat or a house, an identity card, and so on). For instance, the movement *Droit au logement* [Right to housing] carried out tough actions such as occupying empty flats, in favour of housing for the poor. Other popular movements helped immigrants to obtain a French identity card through wide demonstrations against the government. Finally, new sweeping trade unions, 'coordinations', that is, spontaneous protest groups born out of local demonstrations in firms, movements by the unemployed and new charitable and protest institutions gradually created a 'new

social movement' in France which often broke away from the other traditional social institutions and trade unions. French social movements are often linked to a more international phenomenon, especially against racism (In France, the most popular was SOS-Racism), and the defense of environment.

According to the European Value Survey, 12 per cent of those questioned had participated in unofficial strikes in 1999 (Table 5.10).

**Table 5.10 Different types of collective action (1999, in %)**

	already done	Could do	Would never do	Do not know
Signing a petition	67	22	10	1
joining a boycott	12	40	40	8
Attending to lawful demonstrations	39	33	25	3
Joining unofficial strikes	12	29	52	7
Occupying buildings or factories	8	32	52	7

Source: Bréchon, 2000, p.262, EVS

## 5.5.2 Cultural enrichment

### Local and national budget for cultural activities

The Ministry of Culture's budget for 2000 was 2.45 billion euros which represented 0.98% of the national budget. The financing of cultural activities costs some 11.43 billion euros, half provided by the State and half by local authorities. In 2001, cultural activities represented (Table 5.11) nearly 7 per cent of a town's budget. The Table A.5.5.2 shows the existing disparities concerning regions: on average, 3 per cent of the regional budget was used for cultural activities in 1996.

**Table 5.11 Local and regional expenditures for culture (2001)**

	Milliards of euros	% of budget (Sum of town and region)
Town	5.2	3.9 (6.7% of town's budget)

Source: *Alternatives Economiques*, Hors série n°58, 4<sup>e</sup> trimestre 2003, P.23

### Self-organised cultural groups and events

In 2001, the associative sector (880 000 'active' associative groups) in France represented almost 5 per cent of total employment (about 1 650 000 persons and 24 per cent of them worked in cultural associations). The number of cultural groups was 337 000 in 2001 which represented 38 per cent of all associations (Cresal, 2001, p.28). Cultural groups received 20 per cent of the associative budget (1901 law). Volunteers amounted to 211 300 in cultural groups (the total associative volunteers was 716 000 in this study).

France is the home of some 11,300 dramatic artists and dancers, 16,200 musicians and singers, 250 music, opera and dance festivals, 8,700 variety performers; etc. In addition, amateur performers are increasing in number as teaching in these fields has grown apace (more than 4,300 institutions specialize in music).

Every year, some 50,000 performances put on by the national theatres, national drama centres, other subsidized playhouses and private theatres attract an audience of eight million. In addition to the great theatres in Paris, its suburbs, in smaller cities and at world-renowned festivals such as Avignon, over a thousand independent theatre companies have sprung up.

Around 1,200 museums attract around twelve million visitors each year. The Louvre, Versailles and the Musée d'Orsay alone welcome nearly 15 million people annually. Most cities outside Paris have at least one museum. In addition, more than 1,500 monuments are open to the public (eight million visitors a year), with the Eiffel Tower the most popular attraction with 6 million visitors a year.

Moreover, some 38,000 buildings are classified as historic monuments and as such are protected by the Ministry of Culture.

### **Forms of personal enrichment on a regular basis**

In 2003, on average, households spent more than 7 per cent of their budget, on culture, leisure activities, sports and games (Insee, 2004, p.11). Urban young people with a high education level are the main users or consumers of cultural activities. In spite of the high amount of time at work compared to the other socio-economic groups, managers and executives are the main cultural activity consumers (40 per cent of cultural activities, Duboys Fresney, 2002). Studies show that cultural consumption remains at the French population level/scale: elitist and cumulative (*'cultural activities and consumption remain elitist, for a minority'*, Donnat O., 1999).

Cinema consumption remained stable between 1999 and 2002. In 2002, nearly half of those French questioned did not go to the cinema, while one third went to this cultural activity less than once a month and 5 per cent at least three times a month (Dumartin S. et Febvre M., 2003, *Loisirs*). Cinema frequenting does not seem to be related to gender: men and women have the same pattern of consumption. Overall cinema frequenting appears to decrease with age: in 2002, while 30 per cent of people aged 15-30 years went to the cinema once or twice a month, 9 per cent of people aged 50-59 years did the same (Dumartin S. et Febvre M., 2003, *Loisirs*). In 2002, 15 per cent of those questioned went at least three or eleven times a year to a concert or to the theatre, whilst 70 per cent did not go to this cultural activity and 15 per cent went to a concert or to the theatre once or twice a year (Dumartin S. et Febvre M., 2003, *Loisirs*). The number of people who went to a concert or to the theatre seems to decrease with age. In 2002, more than half of the population did not go to a museum, an art gallery or an ancient monument, compared to 20 per cent of those questioned who went to these cultural activities at least three times a year. Only from 70-79 age groups, does age appear to enforce a depressing effect on this cultural consumption.

**Table 5.12 People who participated to the following cultural activities during the 12 last months (%)**

		1999	2002
cinema	Never	49	48
	Less than once time a month	34	34
	1 to 2 times a month	13	14
	At least 3 times a month	4	4
Concert or theatre	Never	73	68
	1 to 2 times a year	14	16
	3 to 11 times a year	10	12
	At least 1 times a month	3	4
Museum, art gallery or ancient monument	Never	56	53
	1 to 2 times a year	21	20
	3 to 11 times a year	18	21
	At least 1 times a month	5	6

Source. Dumartin S. et Febvre M., 2003, Loisirs culturels 1999-2002, Indicateurs sociaux annuels, *Insee Résultats*, n°26, p.21, 23, 24

## 5.6 Personal relationships

### 5.6.1 Provision of services supporting physical and social independence

#### National and local budgets devoted to disabled people

The French disability policy has with few exceptions and similar to other parts of their social policy, been of a regulatory kind; i.e., measures by public authorities to influence the behaviour of others and mainly non-governmental actors. There have been measures that should give actors in the market incentives to choose certain action patterns, impose obligations on market actors not to discriminate between demanders or suppliers of goods and services, and draw out requirements for products and the production process. This has influenced the opportunities for participation in the labour market, education, transport and other sectors of society for those people with impairments.

On average in 1991-2000, France spent 1.69 per cent of GDP for disability policies (Eurostat, 2003b, Table C1.3.2). The average expenditure on disability pensions and early retirement benefits due to a reduced capacity to work as a percentage of the total social benefits expenditure in 1991-2000 was 3.1 per cent (Eurostat, 2003b). During the 90s, the proportion of the total expenses decreased in France. The expenditures on the particular labour market measures for people with impairments as a percentage of the GDP in 2001 represented 0.09 per cent in France (Eurostat, 2003c). The average spending on goods and services related to a disability in 1991-2000 represented 0.4 per cent of GDP (Eurostat, 2003b).

## 5.6.2 Personal support services

### Pre- and-post-school child care

In France, scholarship can begin at 2 years old. However, often because of a shortage of classroom and teachers, the entrance age is 3 years old. Consequently, the comparison with other countries has to take into account this French specificity. Pre and post-school child care services are offered in a vast majority of schools (scholarship can begin at 2 years). It depends on the town council's decision. On average, the school is opened at eight o'clock in the morning and closed at six o'clock in the evening, in order to welcome and look after the children.

In 2001, France counted 286 435 places on child care of which 225 850 places in collective care and 60 585 places in familial care. In 2002, 55 per cent of children aged less than 7 used regularly formal care during the week (Table 5.13).

**Table 5.13 Total number of places for children on care services (under 6 years, 2001)**

	Places
Collective care	225 850
Familial care (registered child)	60 585
Kindergarten (2-5 years old)	2,100,000

Source: Insee, 2003, p.180

In France, more than 85 per cent of families with a non-schooling child have mothers who work and resort to external child care. Friends and family play an important role, but most parents do not use free child care. The income level (high income households resort more frequently to non free child care) and household composition (another adult in the household favours intra-household child care) appears to be the two determining factors.

In 1998, 19 per cent of families resorted to informal and free child care. 67 per cent of families used one or several forms of child care. A Nanny (with formal qualifications) is the most widespread kind of child care. The average length of time of child care is about 30 hours a week (more than 40 hours for one third of families). Formal and paid child care is more frequent when the mother is a manager or executive.

## 5.6.3 Support for social interaction

Extent of inclusiveness of housing and environmental design (e.g. meeting place, lighting, layout)

In 2000, 6% of people thought that meeting places were lacking in their town and for 4 per cent, felt that community activity information was lacking. People living in Paris and its suburbs seemed more informed than the others.

There is no information on the average number of meeting places, community centre per city. To participate in social life, residents have access to the town council where they have the opportunity to ask questions. It is possible for each person aged at least 18 years to become a town councillor.

Any infrastructural project must be the object of public information. There are lots of social groups concerned about the environment, when an infrastructural project begins they can influence town councillors on their decision with petition, for instance.

**Table 5.14 People feeling that the community is lacking certain facilities (3 answers are possible) (2000, %)**

	Men	Women	Total
Activity for young people	17	17	17
Business	18	22	20
Swimming pools or sports facilities	13	12	12
Car park	14	12	13
Public transport	10	13	12
Cultural places	9	10	9
Green spaces	8	10	9
Meeting places	6	6	6
Communal activity information	4	4	4
Schools	2	3	3
Nothing lacks	39	36	37

Source: Dumartin S. et Taché C., 2001, *Mode de transport utilisés par les ménages*, Insee, p.44

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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)
		82. % Of labour force participating in any "back to work scheme"
Openness and supportiveness of institutions	Reconciliation of work and family life (work/ life balance)	83. % Of organisations operating work life balance policies.
		84. % Of employed labour force actually making use of work/life balance measures (see indicator above)
	Openness and supportiveness of political system	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).
Cultural enrichment		90. Proportion of local and national budget allocated to all cultural activities
	91. Number of self-organised cultural groups and events	
	92. Proportion of people experiencing different forms of personal enrichment on a regular basis	
Personal relationships	Provision of services supporting physical and social independence	93. percentage of national and local budgets devoted to disabled people (physical and mental)
		94. Level of pre-and-post-school child care
	Support for social interaction	95. Extent of inclusiveness of housing and environmental design (e.g. meeting places, lighting, layout)

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

## **Statistical Annex**





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## 2 Socio-economic Security

### 2.2 Financial resources

#### 2.2.1 Income sufficiency

**Table A.2.2.1 Consumption deprivation due to household's resources (1997, %)**

	EU-10	France
Meat one day out of two	4.5	4.4
New clothes (buy second hand)	12.7	8.6
Sufficient temperature in household	13.2	5.9
To invite friends or family one time per month	13.3	10.0
Go away on holiday one week per year	28.5	31.6

Source: Ponthieux, 2002, ECHP wave 4, 1997

**Table A.2.2.2 Deprivation composition (1997, %)**

	Consumption	Of which holiday	Durable/lasting goods	Housing
France	46.3	24.2	23.4	30.3
EU-10	45.8	18.1	31.2	22.9

Source: Ponthieux, 2002, ECHP wave 4, 1997

## 2.2.2 Income security

**Table A.2.2.3 At risk of poverty rate (60% of median equivalised income), 1998**

	France	EU 15
Total	18	18
Males	18	17
Females	17	19
Children below 16	22	24
16-24	28	233
25-49	13	14
50-64	15	14
65+	18	20
Employed, excluding self-employed	8	7
Self-employed	20	16
Unemployed	40	38
Retired	16	18
Other economically inactive	31	27
1 adult without dependent children	22	25
- Male	22	20
- Female	22	27
2 adults without dependent children		
- both younger than 65	11	9
- at least one aged 65 or more	13	16
3 or more adults without dependent children	9	9
Single-parent with dependent children	31	35
2 adults with dependent children		
- 1 child	11	11
- 2 child	8	13
- 3 or more children	40	41
3 or more adults with dependent children	33	22

Source: Eurostat, 2003c, p.188



**Table A.2.2.4 Poverty entry-exit flow (1994-1998)**

	Equivalent income average of poor households	% of households exiting poverty	% of households entering in poverty
<b>Total</b>	23	32	6
<b>Head of household age</b>			
17-24 years old	40	44	10
25-29 years old	33	43	6
30-39 years old	20	32	6
40-49 years old	20	31	7
50 years old and more	20	25	6
<b>Household composition</b>			
Couple without dependent children	33	40	3
Couple with one dependent child	25	33	5
Couple with two dependent children	24	37	6
Couple with three dependent children	13	24	12
Single man with/without children	24	32	7
Single woman without dependent children	33	37	6
Single woman with dependent children	20	27	11
<b>Number of months worked during the 12 last months</b>			
Couple: less than 12 months	16	18	23
Couple: 12 months	16	31	11
Couple: 13 to 23 months	32	49	6
Couple: 24 months	34	42	3
Single adult: less than 12 months	22	27	20
Single adult: 12 months	31	45	4
<b>Number of months worked evolution</b>			
Couple: number of months worked increases	33	43	6
Couple: number of months worked decreases	9	21	10
Couple: constant number of months worked	20	30	5
Single adult: number of months worked increases	42	45	11
Single adult: number of months worked decreases	13	26	22
Single adult: constant number of months worked	17	25	5
<b>Familial events</b>			
Couple: child birth	36	30	8
Couple: child departure	23	37	7
Couple: no changes	21	32	6
Single adult: child departure	22	35	14
Single adult: no changes	24	31	8

Source: Zoyem, 2002, p.11

**Table A.2.2.5 Income level variation decomposition of poverty entry households (1994-1998)**

	income	Unemploy ment allowance	Other allowance s	Others (negative taxes...)	Consumpt ion unit number	Total variation
Familial events:						
- Couple: child birth	-20	-4	6	1	-11	-27
- Couple: child departure	-22	-3	-13	-3	12	-29
- Couple: no changes	-19	-2	-5	-1	-1	-28
- Single adult: child departure	-29	-1	-5	-9	16	-29
- Single adult: no changes	-16	-3	-6	-4	-1	-29
Total	-18	-2	-5	-2	-1	-28

Source: Zoyem, 2002, p.26

**Table A.2.2.6 Poor people in long term period of crisis (%) (threshold 60% median income per household composition)**

From 1994 to ...	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
No poverty	86.9	81.4	77.8	74.8	68.6
One year of poverty at least from 1994 to 1998 of which :	13.1	18.6	22.2	25.2	31.4
1 year	13.1	10.6	9.9	10.8	13.5
2 years		8.1	6.1	5.3	5.6
3 years			6.2	4.3	4.3
4 years				4.8	3.7
5 years					4.3
Total	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Zoyem, 2002, p.4

**Table A.2.2.7 Inter-decile ratio before and after entitlement transfers (mean income)**

	1975	1979	1984	1990	1997
Ratio before entitlement transfers	9.5	9.1	9.3	9.3	11.6
Ratio after entitlement transfers	5.4	5.1	5.0	4.6	5.1

Source: Duboys Fresney, 2002, p.55

**Table A.2.2.8 Forms of income support (2002)**

	Amount (per month)			Condition			
Young child allowance	40 months	≈ 156.31 per child		annual income < ≈ 17 318, for one child annual income < ≈ 20 782 for two children annual income < ≈ 24 938 for three children			
Child adoption allowance	21 months	156.31 € per child		annual income < ≈ 17 318 for one child annual income < ≈ 20 782 for two children If annual income is inferior to 24 938 € for three children			
Child minder allowance		Case 1	Case 2	Case 3	Case 1: If annual income is inferior to	Case 2: If annual income is inferior to	Case 3: If annual income is superior to
	less than 3 years old Child	199.73	157.97	130.90	1 child	12,912	17,754
	3 to 6 years old Child	99.91	78.99	65.46	2 children	15,892	21,852
					3 children and more	2 980 per child	4 098 per child
Child minder allowance (at home)	Minimum ≈ 516 per year						
	less than 3 years old Child	1,548 per year		If annual income < ≈ 34 744			
	3 to 6 years old Child	1,032 per year					
Family allowance	2 children	108.86		None			
	3 children	248.33					
	Per additional child	139.47					
	11 to 16 years old child	30.62					
	More than 16 years old child	54.43					
Additional family allowance	3 children and one of the children is less than 3 years old	141.68			If annual income (one wage per household) is less than	If annual income (two wages per household) is inferior to	
				3 children	24,938	30,506	
				4 children	29,094	34,662	
				Per additional child	4,156	4,156	
Parental leave	2 children and one of the children is less than 3 years old	484.97		1 year (twice renewable) with medical certificate			
	Single parent:	945.27		4 months (twice renewable) with medical certificate			
	Couple:	796.01					

(continuation)

	Amount (per month)		Condition	
New school year allowance	6 to 19 years old child	249.07		If annual income is inferior to
			1 child	16,140
			2 children	19,865
			3 children	23,590
			Per additional child	3,725
Single parent allowance	≈683.75 resources		Resources amount	
	Per additional child	170.94		
Special education allowance	109.40 per child and according to category (82.05 to 916.32 )		Handicapped child (50 to 80%)	
Handicapped person allowance	569.38		Handicapped child or adult (50 to 80%)	
			If annual income is less than	6,847.10 For an unmarried person
				13,694.20 For a Couple
				10,270.65 For an unmarried person with 1 child
				17,117.75 For a Couple with 1 child
Additional disability allowance	91.10		Handicapped adult (50-80%) who lives at home	
Guarantee minimum income		Single person	Couple	- to be > 25 years old
				- to be unemployed and without resources
	Without children	405.62	608.43	
	1 child	608.43	730.12	
	2 children	730.12	851.81	
	Per additional child	162.25	162.25	
Job access income	150		- to be < 25 years old - to be unemployed and without resources - to have social difficulties	
elderly minimum allowance (2000)	Single person: 545 Couple: 978		- to be > 60 years old	
Lodging allowance	Average amount per family: 177.4		- Means tested	

Source: Caisse des Allocations Familiales, 2003

**Table A.2.2.9 Social minimum beneficiaries (Thousands)**

	1990	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Guarantee minimum income	422.1	840.8	903.1	956.6	993.3	1,017.8	965.2
Single parent allowance	131.0	148.0	149.1	150.9	150.2	155.2	156.8
Handicapped person allowance	519.0	593.5	609.6	627.7	647.0	671.3	689.0
Additional disability allowance	131.7	103.4	101.2	100.7	100.7	100.2	99.0
Solidarity allowance	336.1	485.8	513.0	480.1	482.0	470.8	429.7
Social integration allowance	123.6	18.4	15.1	16.1	21.4	26.7	32.1
Additional elderly allowance	1,182.9	908.8	861.3	805.1	760.3	727.5	700.0
Widow's benefit	16.0	16.2	17.0	18.2	19.6	20.0	19.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>2,862.4</b>	<b>3,115.0</b>	<b>3,169.3</b>	<b>3,155.4</b>	<b>3,174.5</b>	<b>3,189.5</b>	<b>3,090.8</b>

Source: Insee, 2003a, p. 208

## 2.3 Housing and environment

### 2.3.1 Housing security

**Table A.2.3.1 Households housing conditions // Overpopulation\*\*\* rate (%)**

	1988				2002			
	Low income house holds*	Modest house holds**	Other house holds	Total	Low income house holds	Modest house holds**	Other house holds	Total
Under population	52.4	56.8	72.7	67.9	47.8	62.2	78.3	72.4
Normal conditions	27.0	28.5	20.5	22.6	32.5	26.7	17.7	20.8
Moderate overpopulation	14.6	10.9	5.8	7.6	14.8	8.8	3.5	5.6
Important overpopulation	6.0	3.8	1.0	1.9	5.0	2.3	0.5	1.2
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>

\*Low income households: income below 50% of the median income

\*\*Modest households: Households with a standard of living under the third decile

Source: Driant, 2004

**Table A.2.3.2 Social sector overpopulation according to income level in 2002**

	Proportion of housing with more than 3 rooms	Average number of square meter by persons	Room number by person
<b>Low income households (more than 4 people)*</b>	84.7	14.8	0.7
<b>Low income households</b>	47.9	23.2	1.1
<b>Ménages modestes**</b>	43.6	25.2	1.2
<b>Other households</b>	38.8	31.1	1.4
<b>Total households (social sector)</b>	42.0	27.4	1.3

\*Low income households: income below 50% of the median income; \*\*Modest households: Households which have standard of living under the third decile

Source: Driant, 2004

## 2.3.2 Housing conditions

**Table A.2.3.3 Percentage of households lacking at least one of the three basic amenities by income group (1999, %)**

	E-U	France
All households	21	11
Low income households*	35	24

Note: The three basic amenities are bath/shower, indoor flushing and hot running water; Low income households\*: household income less than 60% compared to median actual current income

Source: Eurostat, 2004, p.90

**Table A.2.3.4 Households without functioning basic amenities (1997, %)**

	EU-10	France
Households without shower nor bath	2.5	3.6
Household without toilets	1.9	2.8
Household without hot running water	3.2	2.0
Household without adequate heating system	8.7	10.9
Delapidated/timeworn household	5.4	7.0
Too small household	14.5	13.4

Source: Ponthieux, 2002, ECHP wave 4

**Table A.2.3.5 Several evolutions of living circumstances**

	1970	1973	1978	1984	1988	1992	1996
Average floor space per person (m2)	22	25	27	31	33	34	35
Overpopulation rate* (% of households)	29.3	21.7	17.1	12.8	11.8	10.9	10.4

\*Households without a living room and less than one room per person (except for under seven year old children).

Source: I.N.S.E.E., *Alternatives économiques*, hors série, n°54, quatrième trimestre 2002, p.25

### 2.3.3 Environmental conditions

**Table A.2.3.6 Pollution rate in the cities in 2001**

	Total households	First decile households
Noise pollution at home		
often	25	32
Sometimes	24	25
rarely or never	51	43
Air pollution		
very	11	14
moderately	14	12
not at all	75	74
vandalism events		
often	17	26
sometimes	22	20
rarely or never	57	49
do not know	4	5

Source : Rizk, 2003

**Table A.2.3.7 Persons who (sometimes) fear the evening when they are alone in their district (%)**

	1998	1999	2000
<i>Sex</i>			
Men	2	3	3
Woman	8	8	9
<i>Age</i>			
Less than 30 years old	7	9	9
30-39 years old	6	7	7
40-49 years old	5	6	5
50-59 years old	5	5	6
60-69 years old	4	3	4
70-79 years old	2	2	2
80 years old and more	0	2	1
<i>Households according to town size</i>			
..Rural surrounding	3	4	3
..Town (less than 20 000 inhabitants)	4	4	4
..City (20 000 to 100 000 inhabitants)	6	6	5
..City (more than 100 000 inhabitants)	6	7	8
..Paris and suburbs	7	7	8
..Paris	9	12	12
Total	5	6	6

Source: Insee, 2001, p.61-63

**Table A.2.3.8 Households which have been victims of a burglary during the two last years (%)**

	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
<i>Age</i>					
Less than 30 years old	4	3	2	2	3
30-39 years old	3	4	3	3	3
40-49 years old	5	4	4	2	3
50-59 years old	4	4	4	3	3
60-69 years old	3	3	3	4	2
70-79 years old	3	3	2	3	2
80 years old and more	5	3	2	3	3
<i>Households composition</i>					
..Persons living alone	3	4	3	2	3
..Couple without children	4	3	3	4	2
..Couple with one child	3	4	3	3	2
Couple with two children	3	4	4	3	4
Couple with three children, and more	4	4	4	3	2
..Single parent families	3	4	3	2	2
..Other cases	2	3	1	2	5
<i>Households according to town size</i>					
..Rural surrounding	2	2	2	2	1
Town (less than 20 000 inhabitants)	2	3	2	2	1
..City (20 000 to 100 000 inhabitants)	5	4	3	2	2
..City (more than 100 000 inhabitants)	5	4	4	3	3
..Paris and its suburbs	5	5	5	5	5
..Paris	5	5	3	2	6
<i>Households location by region</i>					
..Paris and its suburbs	4	5	5	4	5
..Centre	4	2	3	2	2
..North	5	5	4	4	3
..East	2	4	2	1	2
..West	2	2	2	1	2
..South-West	4	3	3	2	2
..Centre-East	2	2	4	3	2
..Mediterranean	5	6	4	4	3
<i>Households income by quartiles</i>					
..first quartile	3	3	3	2	2
..second quartile	2	2	2	3	3
..third quartile	4	4	3	2	3
..fourth quartile	5	5	5	3	4
<b>Total</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>3</b>

Source: Insee, 2001, p.35-37

**Table A.2.3.9 Place where acts of violence occurred (%)**

	1997	1998	1999	2000
In the street, public place	48	54	48	53
At workplace	13	13	12	19
At home	12	10	7	4
In public transport	8	7	8	6
In parking	7	5	6	3
Elsewhere	12	11	19	15
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Dumartin, 2001b, p.43



**Table A.2.3.10 Quality of household environment (1996, %)**

	Complains of noise <sup>1</sup>	Complains of pollution <sup>2</sup>	Vandalism <sup>3,4</sup>	Cat theft or break-in <sup>3,5</sup>	Burglary <sup>3</sup>	Households reporting more than one complaint <sup>6</sup>	Households reporting no complaint in list
<i>Type of urban unit</i>							
Rural town or city	23	14	16	7	2	9	57
Large town or city (excluding Paris area)	43	18	36	17	4	27	32
Paris-area town or city (excluding Paris itself)	55	19	46	25	5	38	19
Paris	56	26	44	25	5	42	19
<i>Age of reference person</i>							
Under 30 years	53	16	36	24	4	33	25
30-50 years	44	19	36	20	4	28	31
over 50 years	34	17	29	9	3	19	43
<i>Income bracket</i>							
Below first quartile	38	20	34	12	3	22	39
1 <sup>st</sup> -3 <sup>rd</sup> quartile	40	16	32	15	3	24	37
Above 3 <sup>rd</sup> quartile	42	17	34	20	5	27	32
Total	40	18	33	16	4	24	36

Reading: In rural areas, 23% of households complain about noise, compared with 40% of all households.

1. A noise complaint may be caused by traffic, an airport, a railroad, passers-by, and stores in the vicinity of the dwelling, neighbours, or another source outside the home

2. Households who would be inconvenienced by opening windows in at least one room of their dwelling.

3. In 1994 and 1995

4. Entirely gratuitous defacement or destruction of public property or public areas in building, such as entrance halls or parking garages

5. Percentages are calculated only on total of households owning cars.

6. Households who complain of pollution source (noise or other) directly linked to their environment and who are exposed to at least one safety problem (vandalism, car theft or break-in, or burglary)

Source: Crenner, 1996

## 2.4 Health and care

### 2.4.1 Security of health provisions

**Table A.2.4.1 Proportion of people covered by voluntary health insurance by income in 2000**

Income per CU (euros)	Proportion of people covered by voluntary health insurance	Proportion of people covered by voluntary health insurance by their firm	Health care renouncement
< 534	51.1	61.8	23.9
534 - 686	73.9	52.1	22.8
686 - 838	84.0	55.0	21.5
838 - 991	91.8	58.0	18.5
991 - 1296	92.6	63.2	15.5
>1296	95.7	72.2	10.9

In 2000, first decile is  $\approx$  650 per CU, second is  $\approx$  800 per CU, third is  $\approx$  920, fourth is  $\approx$  1040 per CU

Source: *Alternatives Economiques*, Hors série, n°58, trimestre 4, 2003, p.27

**Table A.2.4.2 Proportion of persons unable to obtain medical treatment for financial reasons in 2000 (%)**

	during their whole life	during the last 12 months
Dental cares	17	9
Glasses, lenses	6	4
Medical examination	7	4
Other	4	2
Total	24	15

Source: Auvray, 2002, p.147

**Table A.2.4.3 Adopted attitude of persons who are unable to obtain medical treatment for financial reasons in 2000 (%)**

	Renounce care	Defer the care	Do not know
Dental cares	10	88	2
Prosthesis dentures, orthodontics	13	85	2
Glasses, lenses	3	95	2
General practitioners cares	38	61	1
Specialist practitioners cares	12	87	1
Radiograph, X-ray photograph	14	86	0

Source: Auvray, 2002, p.151

## 2.4.3 Care services

**Table A.2.4.4 Average time (in hours and minutes by day)**

	Men		Women		Total labour force		Total population	
	Working population 1999	Non-working population 1999	Working population 1999	Non-working population 1999	1986	1999	1986	1999
Average time spent on care for children or adults	0h11	0h06	0h27	0h26	0h16	0h18	0h19	0h18

Source: Insee, 2003a, Tableau D.01-9

**Table A.2.4.5 Proximity to hospitals by income (% having access to a hospital in less than 20 minutes by quartiles of household-equivalence income) in 2002**

	Total	Lowest quartile	Highest quartile	Difference in percentage points
EU-15	52,8	44,9	60,4	15,5
France	54,4	43,4	65,3	21,9

Source: EFIWLC, 2003, p.28

## 2.5 Work

### 2.5.1 Employment security

**Table A.2.5.1 Redundancy\***

Notice allowance	Only if employer dispenses worker, this allowance corresponds with normal wage rate
Paid holidays allowance	Allowance is proportional with length of service
Redundancy allowance	10% of the average of the three last monthly wages per year of work (and 1/15 of monthly wage per year of work if the length of service is superior to 10 years)

\*Each worker receives a conversion agreement and has a priority to take a new job during one year.

Source: Ministère du travail, 2004

**Table A.2.5.2 Illegal work condemnations (1999)**

	Hidden work	U. allowance fraud	Illegal employment of foreigners	Free work	Other	Total
Number	7070	576	141	132	626	8 545
Percentage	82	7	2	2	7	100

Source : DIRRES, 2002, p.9

## 2.5.2 Working conditions

**Table A.2.5.3 Forms of leave**

Type of leave		Duration	Replacement rate
Pregnancy	First or second birth	16 weeks	100%
	Third birth	24 weeks	100%
	Birth of twins	34 weeks	100%
Birth leave (for fathers)		3 days	100%
Paternal leave		11 days	100%
Child's adoption	One child	10 weeks	100%
	More than 2 children	22 weeks	100%
Marriage	Salaried employee	4 days	100%
	children	1 day	100%
Death	Husband/wife	2 days	100%
	Child	2 days	100%
	Father/mother	1 day	100%
Child care	Parental leave 1	3 days per year	0%
	Parental leave 2	15 days per year	Allowances amount depends on duration
	Parental leave 3	4 months (twice renewable)	Allowances amount depends on duration (see table n °5.1)
	Parental leave 4	1 year (twice renewable)	Allowances amount depends on duration (see A-2-1-8)
Parental leave		3 months	Allowances amount depends on duration

Source: Ministère du travail, 2004

**Table A.2.5.4 Other measures**

Description	Terms and conditions
Right to a professional training	For individual having raised at least 2 children.
Saving account of time	Increase of duration of period during which the employee can use up the holidays accrued if in charge of child or older parent
Holiday	Rota for holiday leave to take into account family situation
Postbirth leave	Resignation without notice period in order to raise one's child

Source: Ministère du travail, 2004

**Table A.2.5.5 Frequency and gravity of work injuries according to category of work**

	Frequency rate*					Fatal accidents**				
	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Building industry	64	59	59	59	58	3.05	2.85	2.87	2.91	2.85
Wood industry	52	51	50	52	53	1.74	1.71	1.70	1.74	1.79
Stone industry	39	37	36	37	36	1.56	1.53	1.45	1.50	1.52
Transports and handling	41	40	42	40	40	1.88	1.82	1.95	1.91	1.93
Food industry	34	33	34	34	33	1.13	1.09	1.15	1.17	1.18
Rubber industry	32	30	30	31	32	1.03	1.01	0.96	1.04	1.09
Metallurgical industry	27	27	26	26	27	0.86	0.85	0.85	0.87	0.90
Textile industry	26	25	25	27	28	0.88	0.86	0.85	0.96	1.02
Total	25	24	25	25	24	0.90	0.94	0.97	0.98	0.98

\* Frequency rate = (accidents with cessation number / worked hours number) × 1 000 000

\*\* Gravity rate = (lost days number / worked hours number) × 1 000

Source: Insee, 2003a, p.155

**Table A.2.5.6 Employment injuries: Accidents at work**

	Non-fatal accidents (in thousands)		Fatal accidents	
	1999	2000	1999	2000
At work	1 362	1 355	720	655
Metallurgical industry	205.5	201.3	70	59
Building industry	190.7	192.8	162	169
Food industry	196.4	193.8	55	42
Transports and handling	92.0	92.3	123	122
Trade	81.0	80.4	51	50
Inter professional	460.4	460.5	182	150
Accidents on the way to work	137	130.6	662	559
Total	1 499	1 285	1 382	1 214

Source: Insee, 2003c, p.61

**Table A.2.5.7 Occupational diseases and their average duration**

	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990
OD*	4,095	3,834	4,101	4,395	5,114	5,018	4,611	4,085	3,531	3,972	4,032	4,417
AD**	28.2	28.1	29.1	29.4	30.1	31.1	29.9	31.9	33.2	34.2	35.1	34.9

	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
OD*	5,080	6,533	6,598	7,533	8,534	9,893	11,587	13,419	13,419	13,419	13,419
AD**	36.3	37.6	38.1	38.2	38.7	38.6	38.9	39.8	39.8	39.8	39.8

\* Occupational diseases

\*\* Average duration of the occupational diseases (in days)

Source: C.N.A.M.T.S., www.cerc-association.org

The index shows the trend of the incidence rate of serious accidents at in comparison to 2000 (100). The incidence rate: number of accidents at work with more than 3 days of absence that occurred during the year divided by the number of the employed (x100). Accidents at work exclude accidents on the way to or from work.

**Table A.2.5.8 Evolution of the serious accidents at work, 1998 (= 100)**

	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
France	112	104	101	101	100	101	102	98
EU-15	111	104	103	100	100	100	98	94 (p)

(p) provisional values

Source : Eurostat, 2004b, p.116

The index shows the evolution of the incidence rate of fatal accidents at in comparison to 2000 (100). Fatal road traffic accidents and the other transport accidents in the course of work are also excluded.

**Table A.2.5.9 Evolution of the fatal accidents at work, 1998 (= 100)**

	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
France	108	88	90	103	100	85	85	79
EU-15	115	109	106	100	100	85	82	79 (p)

(p) provisional values

Source : Eurostat, 2004b, p.116

**Table A.2.5.10 Hours worked per week of full time employment\***

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
France	41.3	41.4	41.4	41.3	41.2	41.1	41.0	40.9	40.2	39.6	38.9	40.7
EU-15	-	-	-	-	42.1	42.1	42.1	41.9	41.7	41.6	41.4	:

\*The average number of hours covers all hours including extra hour, either paid or unpaid. the travel time between the home and the work place and the main meal breaks are excluded.

Source: Eurostat, 2004c

## 2.6 Education

### 2.6.1 Security of education

**Table A.2.6.1 Scholarships amount according to family or student resources (euros)**

	Level 0	Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4	Level 5
Annual resources according to social/personal characteristics	18,620 to 53,770	15,770 to 45,560	12,750 to 36,810	11,260 to 32,560	9,790 to 28,330	8,490 to 24,490
Annual scholarship amount	0	1,296	1,953	2,502	3,051	3,554

Source: Centre National des Œuvres Universitaires et Scolaires (CNOUS), 2004

## 2.6.2 Quality of education

**Table A.2.6.2 Participation in education and training (2002)**

	EU-15	France
Age at which compulsory education ends	-	16
Participation rates by ages, 2000/2001		
16	93	97
17	84	92
18	74	80
19	59	66
20	48	52
Participation rates (16-18 year old) by sex, 2000/2001		
Males	82	89
Females	85	91

Source : Eurostat, 2004, p.30





## 3 Social cohesion

### 3.2 Trust

#### 3.2.1 Generalised trust

**Table A.3.2.1 Interest in what others say or do (1999, %)**

People should stick to their own business and not show too much interest in what others say or do.

	Agree strongly	agree	Agree nor disagree	disagree	Disagree strongly
France	33.7	28.2	19.2	11.6	7.3
Total Europe	18.9	31.8	22.1	22.0	5.2

Source: Halman L., 2001, p.268, EVS

**Table A.3.2.2 According to you, how many of your compatriots do the followings? (1999, %)**

	Almost all	Many	Some	Almost none	Do not know
Claiming benefits which you are not entitled to	5	31	53	7	4
Cheating on tax if you have the chance	7	31	53	6	4
Throwing away litter in a public place	5	39	45	8	2
Going over the speed limit in built-up places	10	53	33	2	2
Driving under the influence of alcohol	4	45	47	3	1

Source: Bréchon P., 2000, *Les valeurs des Français*, Armand Colin, p.268 ; The European Values Study : A third Wave

#### 3.2.2 Specific trust

**Table A.3.2.3 Trust in institutions (2003, %)**

Do you trust the following institutions?

	Trust	Do not trust	Do not know
Radio	66	30	4
N.G.O.	62	27	11
Armed forces	61	31	9
Press	58	38	4
Police	55	41	4
television	49	47	4
U.N.O.	40	45	15
Justice	39	56	5
Trade unions	36	54	10
Religious institutions	34	52	14
Parliament	33	55	12
Government	30	64	6
Firms	30	61	9
Political parties	12	82	6

Source : Eurobarometer 60.1 National Report France, Autumn 2003, p.8

**Table A.3.2.4 Correlation between institutional trust and interpersonal trust**

Trust in ...	Interpersonal trust		
	1981	1990	1999
Church	ns	ns	ns
army	–	ns	–
educational system	ns	ns	+
press	+	+	+
trade unions	ns	+	ns
police	–	ns	+
parliament	+	+	+
administration	ns	ns	+
social security		ns	+
Europe		+	ns
UNO			+
Justice			ns

+ or – significant at 1%

ns: not significant

Source: Bréchon P., 2000, p.44, EVS

**Table A.3.2.5 Trust in army and police from 1981 to 1999 (%)**

	1981	1990	1999
Trust in army	66	67	67
Trust in police	57	56	63

Source: Bréchon P., 2000, p.172, EVS

**Table A.3.2.6 Attachment to family life (%)**

Do you agree with the following statement: it is a good thing to attach more importance to family life.

	1981	1990	1999
18-26 years old	78	81	88
27-35 years old	83	91	90
36-44 years old	90	87	90
45-53 years old	91	91	91
54-62 years old	94	93	92
63-71 years old	96	94	97
older than 71	94	96	94
Total	86	89	91

Source: Bréchon P., 2000, p.53, EVS

**Table A.3.2.7 Marriage (1999, %)**

Do you agree or disagree with the following statement? Marriage is an outdated institution?

	France	Total Europe
agree	36.3	19.2
disagree	63.7	80.8

Halman L., 2001, p.129, EVS

**Table A.3.2.8 Work and leisure (1999, %)**

Do you agree or disagree with the following statements? Work should always come first, even if it means less spare time

	agree	Disagree	Agree nor disagree
<i>Age</i>			
18-24 years old	23	60	17
25-34 years old	20	61	19
35-44 years old	22	60	18
45-54 years old	28	54	18
55-64 years old	52	28	20
older than 65	60	20	20
<i>SEG*</i>			
Boss, head, executives, manager	35	44	21
Technician	25	55	20
Employee	33	48	19
Skilled worker	41	41	18
Without skill	32	51	17
<i>Status</i>			2
Paid employment	22	57	1
Without paid employment	45	37	18
<i>Educational level</i>			
Low	57	24	19
Medium	35	46	19
High	20	60	20
<b>Total</b>	<b>34</b>	<b>47</b>	<b>19</b>

SEG\*: actual job or practised in the past

Source: Bréchon P., 2000, p.87, EVS

**Table A.3.2.9 Do you follow politics? (1999, %)**

How often do you follow politics in the news on television or on the radio or in the daily paper?

	Every day	Several times a week	Once or twice a week	Less often	Never
France	57.6	14.8	9.1	9.7	8.8
Total Europe	50.5	19.2	11.5	12.8	6.0

Source: Halman L., 2001, p.266, EVS

**Table A.3.2.10: Politics and friends in 1999 (%)**

How do you talk about politics with your friends? Do you speak "fairly/often", "sometimes" or "never" politics with your friends?

	%
Often	11
Sometimes	53
Never	35
Do not know	0

Source : Bréchon P., 2000, p.251, EVS

**Table A.3.2.11: Democracy satisfaction (1999, %)**

On the whole are you very satisfied, fairly satisfied, not very satisfied or not at all satisfied with the way democracy is developing in your country? (1999)

	very satisfied	satisfied	not very satisfied	Not all that satisfied
France	4.4	45.0	39.3	11.3
Total Europe	4.5	41.5	39.3	14.7

Source: Halman L., 2001, p.203, EVS

**Table A.3.2.12 Democracy functioning**

Do you 'completely agree', 'just about agree', 'rather not agree', 'not agree at all' with the following proposals? (1999)

	Com- pletely agree	Just about agree	rather not agree	not agree at all	Do not know
Democracy has some problems but, it's better than any other form of government	58	30	5	1	7
In democracy, the economic system runs badly	10	33	33	11	13
Democracies are indecisive and there is too much squabbling	24	43	17	7	10
Democracies aren't good at maintaining order	16	33	28	13	10

Source : Bréchon P., 2000, *Les valeurs des Français*, Armand Colin, p.265 ; The European Values Study : A third Wave

**Table A.3.2.13: Political action**

I'm going to read out some different forms of political action that people can take, and I'd like you to tell me, for each one, whether you have actually done any of these things, whether you might do it or would never do it, under any circumstances, (1999, in %)?

	already done	Could do	Would never do	Do not know
Signing a petition	67	22	10	1
joining a boycott	12	40	40	8
Attending lawful demonstrations	39	33	25	3
Joining unofficial strikes	12	29	52	7
Occupying buildings or factories	8	32	52	7

Source : Bréchon P., 2000, p.262, EVS

**Table A.3.2.14: Protesting participation from 1981 to 1999 (%)**

Participation in a collective action	1981	1990	1999
None	50	43	28
One	27	25	33
Two	12	18	21
Three or more	12	14	18

Source: Bréchon P., 2000, p.113, EVS

**Table A.3.2.15: Encouraged qualities to children**

Here is a list of qualities which children can be encouraged to learn at home. Which, if any do you consider to be especially important?

	Rank 1981	Rank 1999	1990 (%)	1999 (%)
Religious faith	11 <sup>th</sup>	11 <sup>th</sup>	13%	7%
Imagination	10 <sup>th</sup>	10 <sup>th</sup>	23%	18%
Independence	7 <sup>th</sup> ex	9 <sup>th</sup>	27%	30%
Obedience	7 <sup>th</sup> ex	8 <sup>th</sup>	-	36%
Determination, perseverance	7 <sup>th</sup> ex	6 <sup>th</sup>	39%	40%
Good manners	6 <sup>th</sup>	3 <sup>d</sup>	53%	69%
Generosity	5 <sup>th</sup>	5 <sup>th</sup>	40%	41%
Hard work	4 <sup>th</sup>	4 <sup>th</sup>	53%	50%
Responsibility	3 <sup>d</sup>	2 <sup>d</sup>	72%	73%
Thrift and saving money	2 <sup>d</sup>	7 <sup>th</sup>	36%	37%
Tolerance and respect	1 <sup>st</sup>	1 <sup>st</sup>	78%	85%

Several answers are possible

Source : Bréchon P., 2000, p.56, EVS

### 3.3 Other integrative norms and values

#### 3.3.1 Altruism

**Table A.3.3.1 Social group involvement (persons above 15 years old) (%)**

	Participation in 1998
<i>Participation in an organisation or a club</i>	
Number of members (thousands)	15,860
Number of non members (thousands)	32,350
Participation rate	33.6
<i>Involvement degree</i>	
responsibilities	27.5
regular Involvement	53.0
irregular Involvement	11.8
no participation	7.7
<i>Group social type</i>	
pupils parents	4.2
sports, cultural	72.6
humanitarian, religious	14.6
political, trade unions	8.6
<i>Participation intensity</i>	
Several times a week	31.2
Once a week	27.3
From once to three times a month	25.4
Less than once a month	16.1

Source: Prouteau and Wolff, 2002, p.60

**Table A.3.3.2 Voluntary work**

A: Which, if any, do you belong to? B: Which, if any, are you currently doing unpaid voluntary work for?

	A		B	
	France	Europe	France	Europe
Sports or recreation	16.4	15.6	8.7	6.6
Education, arts, music or cultural activities	7.8	9.6	4.8	4.8
Other groups	6.9	5.8	6.1	3.5
Social welfare services for elderly, handicapped or deprived people	5.6	6.1	4.1	3.9
Religious or church organisations	4.3	14.0	3.2	5.8
Trade unions	4.0	16.7	1.4	2.8
Professional associations	3.1	5.3	1.3	1.9
Voluntary organisations concerned with health	2.5	3.5	1.5	2.3
Local community action on issues like poverty, employment, housing, racial equality	2.3	3.0	1.5	2.0
Conservation, the environment, ecology, animal rights	2.2	4.8	0.9	1.9
Political parties or groups	2.0	4.3	0.7	1.9
Youth work (e.g. scouts, guides, youth clubs etc.)	2.0	3.8	1.5	2.9
Third world development or human rights	1.4	3.1	0.7	1.3
Peace movements	0.5	1.0	0.3	0.7
Women's groups	0.4	2.5	0.1	1.3

Source: Halman L., 2001, p.18-32, EVS

**Table A.3.3.3 Blood donation in 1998**

Number of new donors	273,169
Number of registered known donors	913,246
Total number of donors	1 186,415
% of donors in total population	1.97
Number of donations (% of inhabitants)	4.27

Source: Les indicateurs régionaux et départementaux d'activité transfusionnelle, de sécurité transfusionnelle et d'hémovigilance, cahier statistique, Ministère du travail et des affaires sociales, 1998, p.7

### 3.3.2 Tolerance

**Table A.3.3.4 Immigration and work (1999, %)**

Do you agree or disagree with the following statements? When jobs are scarce, employers should give priority to French people over immigrants

	Agree	Disagree	Neither
France	54.0	36.0	9.9
Europe total	68.1	23.5	8.4

Source: Halman L., 2001, p.69, EVS

**Table A.3.3.5 Feeling about others living conditions (1999, %)**

To what extent do you feel concerned about the living conditions of: (1999, %)

	Very much	much	To a certain extent	Not so much	Not at all	Do not know
Immigrants in your country	8	19	34	21	18	1

Source: Bréchon P., 2000, p.270, EVS

**Table A.3.3.6 Desire to improve living conditions (1999, %)**

Are you ready/Do you agree to really do something to improve the living conditions of?

	Yes, certainly	Yes, probably	May be	Probably no	Certainly no	Do not know
Immigrants in your country	6	19	36	19	18	2

Source: Bréchon P., 2000, p.271, EVS

**Table A.3.3.7 Reasons to help immigrants (1999, %)**

There can be several reasons to do something to help immigrants in your country. Please tell me for each reason I am going to read out, if they apply to you or not (1999, %).

	Very much	much	To a certain extent	Not so much	Not at all	Do not know
Because you feel you have a moral duty to help	26	35	25	10	3	1
Because you sympathize with them	18	34	35	10	3	1
Because it is in the interest of society	27	34	26	8	4	1
Because it is in your own interest	12	18	24	22	23	2
To do something in return	15	15	26	19	23	1

Source: Bréchon P., 2000, p.271, EVS

**Table A.3.3.8 Tolerance and neighbourhood, 1999 (%)**

On this list are various groups of people. Could you please pick out any that you would not like to have as neighbours?

	France	Total Europe
Drug addicts	47.8	68.2
Heavy drinkers	46.9	59.9
Right wing extremists	43.1	36.8
Gypsies	39.8	40.2
Left wing extremists	25.3	32.1
Emotionally unstable people	22.4	35.4
Criminal record	21.2	50.9
Muslims	16.0	19.7
Homosexuals	15.6	35.1
Immigrants + foreign workers	12.0	15.9
Large families	9.5	9.4
Different race	8.9	12.8
People who have AIDS	8.5	30.9
Jews	5.8	12.1

Source: Halman L., 2001, p.37-43, EVS

**Table A.3.3.9 Trend of point of views (%)**

	1981	1990	1999
Against homosexuality	62	52	32
Against Euthanasia (end of life)	41	35	22
Against Divorce	28	23	15
Against Abortion	36	33	25
Against Suicide	59	53	48

Source : Bréchon P., 2000, p.160, EVS

### 3.3.3 Social contract

**Table A.3.3.10 Point of view on guaranteed income (1999, %)**

	France
Very in favour of	31
quite in favour of	46
<i>Total</i>	77
not very in favour of	14
Totally against	7
<i>Total</i>	21
Do not know	2
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>

Source : Olm, 2000, p.31

**Table A.3.3.11 What is your point of view about helping poor people? (1999)**

	France (%)
They are able to live due to this help	64
With help, they lose their sense of responsibility	27
Do not know	9

Source : Olm C., 2000, p.33

In 1999, 64% of French people deemed that the government's help is a mean to live. On the other hand, 27% of people thought that help provokes a loss of the sense of responsibility. In 2000, 77 per cent of respondents were favourable to a guaranteed minimum income

The point of view about the minimum guaranteed income depends on socio-economic groups. The more the family is well-off, the more it is in favour of a guaranteed income. Applicant/beneficiaries are the group the most in favour. Concerning helped people who have insufficient incomes, one third is not in favour, because of individual responsibility: for instance, a guaranteed income has a disincentive effect (importance of responsibility).



**Table A.3.3.12 Reasons to help elderly people (1999, %)**

Among those who said that they « certainly » or « probably » agree to really do something to improve elderly living conditions: what are the reasons (answer is selected in the following list)?

	Really	Rather	In a certain extent	Not so much	Not at all	Do not know
Because you feel you have a moral duty to help	4	35	15	3	2	0
Because you sympathize with them	33	43	19	4	1	0
Because it is in the interest of society	31	34	21	10	4	1
Because it is in your own interest	18	23	19	23	17	0
To do something in return	26	28	21	14	10	0

Source: Bréchon P., 2000, p.271, EVS

**Table A.3.3.13 Both the husband and wife should contribute to household income (1999, %)**

	Agree strongly	Agree	disagree	Disagree strongly
France	44.7	36.6	13.6	5.1
Total Europe	33	47.2	16.6	3.2

Source : Halman L., 2001, p.138, EVS

**Table A.3.3.14 Men have more right to work than women if work is scarce (1999, %)**

	Agree	disagree	Neither	Do not know
France	22	68	9	1

Source : Bréchon P., 2000, *Les valeurs des Français*, Armand Colin, p.263 ; The European Values Study : A third Wave

**Table A.3.3.15 Having a job is the best way for a woman to be independent (1999, %)**

	Agree strongly	Agree	disagree	Disagree strongly
France	51.0	32.6	10.0	6.4
Total Europe	27.7	46.8	21.5	4.0

Halman L., 2000, *The European Values Study: A third Wave*, EVS, WORC, Tilburg University, p.137

**Table A.3.3.16 A working mother can establish just as warm and secure a relationship with her children as a mother who does not work (1999, %)**

	Agree strongly	Agree	disagree	Disagree strongly
France	51.1	26.2	14.5	8.2
Total Europe	33.9	42.7	19.7	3.8

Source : Halman L., 2001, p.133, EVS

### 3.4 Social Networks

Table A.3.4.1 Organisation participation according to individual factors (1998/99)

	Participation rate
<i>Sex</i>	
Men	38.0
Women	29.6
<i>Age</i>	
Less than 25 years old	35.4
25-34 years old	29.5
35-44 years old	35.9
45-54 years old	30.8
55-64 years old	37.1
65 years old and more	33.9
<i>Households composition</i>	
..Persons living alone	34.3
..Married person	33.8
..Widowed person	31.2
Divorced person	31.5
<i>Children in households</i>	
No children	34.9
One child	29.2
Two children	34.7
Three children and more	34.7
<i>Diploma</i>	
No diploma	22.8
G.C.E. O-levels	29.1
Vocational training certificate	33.0
G.C.E. A-levels	38.3
Superior to A level	48.8
<i>Socio-economic groups</i>	
Farmer	39.1
Self-employed	33.8
Executive	48.3
Employed	29.1
Worker	26.2
Inactive	32.5
<i>Household monthly income (euros)</i>	
Less than 1 067	27.7
From 1 067 to 1 524	28.9
From 1 524 to 2 134	31.7
From 2 134 to 3 201	37.8
More than 3 201	42.8
<i>Housing</i>	
Rented accommodation	36.7
owner	28.7
<i>City/town size</i>	
..Rural surrounding	36.2
..Town (less than 20 000 inhabitants)	35.4
..City (20 000 to 100 000 inhabitants)	30.6
..City (more than 100 000 inhabitants)	32.3
Total	33.6

Source: Prouteau and Wolff, 2002, p.80

**Table A.3.4.2 Organisations or sport club participation and the degree of involvement (1998/99)**

	Regular participation		Responsibilities	
	Coefficient	Student t	Coefficient	Student t
<i>Constant</i>	1.112	4.39	-1.001	-3.28
<i>Sex</i>				
Men	Reference		Reference	
Women	0.151*	1.76	-0.464***	-4.77
<i>Age</i>				
Less than 25 years old	Reference		Reference	
25-34 years old	-0.497**	-2.76	0.120	0.55
35-44 years old	-0.596***	-3.20	0.497**	2.27
45-54 years old	-0.541***	-2.65	0.544**	2.29
55-64 years old	-0.651***	-2.94	0.333	1.29
65 years old and more	-0.531**	-2.30	0.134	0.49
<i>Households composition</i>				
..Persons living alone	-0.142	-1.13	-0.278**	-1.99
..Married person	Reference		Reference	
..Widowed person	-0.120	-0.77	-0.366*	-1.86
Divorced person	-0.008	-0.05	-0.223	-1.19
<i>Children in households</i>				
No children	Reference		Reference	
One child	-0.230*	-1.94	-0.196	-1.49
Two children	0.220	1.63	0.199	1.34
Three children and more	0.142	0.93	0.181	1.06
<i>Diploma</i>				
No diploma	Reference		Reference	
G.C.E. O-levels	0.075	0.54	0.549***	3.17
Vocational training certificate	0.311**	2.42	0.939***	5.93
G.C.E. A-levels	0.102	0.68	0.903***	4.98
Superior to A level	0.096	0.54	0.894***	4.27
<i>Socio-economic groups</i>				
Farmer	-0.819***	-3.97	-0.667***	-2.78
Self-employed	-0.327	-1.57	-0.164	-0.71
Executive	-0.295	-1.61	-0.138	-0.67
Employed	-0.274*	-1.88	-0.139	-0.81
Worker	-0.325**	-2.12	-0.256	-1.43
Inactive	Reference		Reference	
<i>Household monthly income</i>				
Less than 1 067	Reference		Reference	
From 1 067 to 1 524	0.238*	1.76	0.334**	2.04
From 1 524 to 2 134	0.275**	1.99	0.419**	2.56
From 2 134 to 3 201	0.417***	2.92	0.477***	2.84
More than 3 201	-0.044	-0.27	0.003	0.01
<i>Housing</i>				
Rented accommodation	0.064	0.67	0.208*	1.91
owner	Reference		Reference	
<i>City/town size</i>				
..Rural surrounding	0.353***	3.22	0.581***	4.82
..Town (less than 20 000 inhabitants)	0.261**	2.31	0.347***	2.74
..City (20 000 to 100 000 inhabitants)	0.248*	1.94	0.313**	2.17
..City (more than 100 000 inhabitants)	Reference		Reference	

Multinomial logit model; reference: irregular participation and member without participation. \*\*\*significant at 1% threshold; \*\* significant at 5% threshold; \* significant at 10% threshold

Source: Prouteau and Wolff, 2002, p.64

**Table A.3.4.3 Organisation participation according to individual factors (1998/99)**

	Pupils parent		Humanitarian-religious		Political-trade unions	
	Coefficient	Student t	Coef.	Student t	Coeff.	Student t
<i>Constant</i>	-9.113	-10.36	-2.648	-9.10	-3.061	-7.34
<i>Sex</i>						
Men	Reference		Reference		Reference	
Women	1.227***	6.92	-0.523***	5.56	-0.667***	-5.41
<i>Age</i>						
Less than 25 years old	Reference		Reference		Reference	
25-34 years old	3.668***	5.76	0.462**	2.21	1.080***	3.16
35-44 years old	3.479***	5.45	0.805***	3.92	1.487***	4.38
45-54 years old	3.398***	5.18	1.040***	4.60	1.520***	4.30
55-64 years old	2.722***	3.52	1.626***	6.70	1.396***	3.71
65 years old and more	2.134**	2.13	1.610***	6.35	0.881**	2.22
<i>Households composition</i>						
..Persons living alone	-0.091	-0.41	-0.255*	1.82	-0.257	-1.50
..Married person	Reference		Reference		Reference	
..Widowed person	-0.892	-1.18	-0.044	-0.28	-0.224	-0.81
Divorced person	0.017	-0.05	-0.045	-0.25	0.363*	-1.87
<i>Children in households</i>						
No children	Reference		Reference		Reference	
One child	2.904***	6.32	0.068	0.49	0.020	0.13
Two children	3.338***	7.22	0.175	1.14	-0.182	-1.05
Three children and more	3.847***	8.13	0.929***	5.82	-0.104	-0.49
<i>Diploma</i>						
No diploma	Reference		Reference		Reference	
G.C.E. O-levels	-0.710*	-1.66	0.147	0.95	-0.106	-0.48
Vocational training certificate	-0.223	-0.84	0.075	0.50	0.035	0.18
G.C.E. A-levels	-0.161	-0.53	0.387**	2.30	0.326	1.46
Superior to A level	-0.120	-0.33	0.556***	2.80	0.247	0.99
<i>Socio-economic groups</i>						
Farmer	0.259	0.54	-0.521**	-2.13	1.090***	3.53
Self-employed	-0.572	-1.10	-0.490**	-2.07	0.795***	2.78
Executive	0.700**	2.10	-0.013	-0.07	0.500*	1.81
Employed	0.344	1.41	-0.061	-0.42	0.466	1.86
Worker	-0.027	-0.09	-0.107	-0.66	0.167	0.63
Inactive	Reference		Reference		Reference	
<i>Household monthly income</i>						
Less than 1 067€	Reference		Reference		Reference	
From 1067 to 1 524€	0.331	0.89	-0.130	-0.90	-0.481	-2.28
From 1 524 to 2 134€	-0.198	-0.56	-0.252*	-1.70	-0.332*	-1.65
From 2 134 to 3 201€	-0.158	-0.44	-0.616***	-3.89	0.335*	-1.65
More than 3 201€	-0.590	-1.49	-0.593***	-3.27	0.104	-0.46
<i>Housing</i>						
Rented accommodation	0.041	0.23	-0.092	0.88	-0.176	-1.35
owner	Reference		Reference		Reference	
<i>City/town size</i>						
..Rural surrounding	0.096	0.49	-0.395***	-3.43	-0.218	-1.47
..Town < 20 000 inhabitants)	0.142	0.68	-0.343***	-2.83	-0.066	-0.43
..City (20 000-100 000)	0.344	1.44	-0.482***	-3.22	0.119	0.73
..City (>100 000 inhabitants)	Reference		Reference		Reference	

Multinomial logit model; reference corresponds to the members of clubs or organisations. \*\*\*significant at 1% threshold; \*\* significant at 5% threshold; \* significant at 10% threshold

Source: Prouteau and Wolff., 2002, p.63

**Table A.3.4.4 Informal favours given to akin or non akin households (during the 4 last weeks)**

	Akin households	Non akin households	Total
Shopping	63.1	36.9	100
Homework	79.8	20.2	100
Cooking	71.1	28.9	100
Gardening	67.2	32.8	100
Bricolage/ odd jobs; DIY	61.6	38.4	100
Child care	68.9	31.1	100
Adult care	70.9	29.1	100
Animal care	63.8	36.2	100
Transport/ remove	45.3	54.7	100
Others	41.0	59.0	100

Source : Prouteau and Wolff, 2003, p.14

#### Family help (indicator 39/71)

In Social Inclusion: 75% of people say that they help their family. Favours principally regarding the close family. Favours principally regarding those with whom we live (in 1997, almost 70% of individuals helped at least once their parents and 66% of parents helped their children after they left the parental household) (Crenner, 1999). The nature of help depended on family ties: children becoming parents therefore needing child care. Financial help is principally downward in the family. Moral support is the most important familial help. Moral support is the most important help provided in the family network (table n°A.36).

Virtual help index tends to answer the following question: is it possible to rely on someone in case of difficulty? It is composed of three situations: do you feel depressed?; do you need help finding a job for you or someone else in your family?; do you need money to pay a bill or something else? In 1996, more than 40 per cent of French respondents positively answered to these three situations and, in 2001, the figure was superior to 50 per cent of people (Gallie, 2002, p.40). Women can benefit more frequently to this kind of support. Virtual help decreases with age (family network decreases).

Unemployed and inactive people have a lower probability of being supported than working people.

**Table A.3.4.5 Nature of help according to family ties (1997, %)**

	parents	children	Grand children	Brother/ sister	Uncle/ aunt	nephew	cousins	Grand parents	Total
Moral support	23	18	20	26	31	25	34		24
Shopping	26	12	10	15	21	13	11	34	18
Gardening / odd jobs; DIY	13	10	2	12	11	4	10	12	11
Cash donation	5	16	31	6	5	19	7	4	10
Administrative help	13	6	2	8	12	6	8	8	9
Homework	10	7	7	4	6	3	3	13	7
Child care	1	12	12	10	7	11	8	-	7
Car lending	4	9	2	7	3	4	4	-	6
Cash loan	2	6	2	6	1	3	2	-	4
school help	-	2	8	2	-	8	8	-	2
others	3	2	4	4	3	4	5	3	3
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source : Crenner, 1999

**Table A.3.4.6 Level of contact in religious institution and in organisations in 1999 (%)**

	Every week	Once twice a month	Few times a year	Not at all	Do not know/ without answer
Contact at church, mosque or synagogue	5	3	9	76	7
Contact with people belonging to an organisation (sport, cultural...)	20	13	13	51	4

Source: Bréchon P., 2001, p.252, EVS

## 3.5 Identity

### 3.5.1 National / European identity

**Table A.3.5.1 Euro attachment**

Do you personally feel very attached, fairly attached, not very attached or not at all attached to the single European currency, that is the euro? (2001, %)

	Very attached (4.0)	Fairly attached (3.0)	Not very attached (2.0)	Not at all attached (1.0)	Do not know	Average
France	6.9	31.6	28.5	29.8	3.2	2.16
EU-13	8.0	32.4	31.4	23.4	4.8	2.26

Source: EB 57.1, 2002, p.260, EVS

### 3.5.2 Regional / community / local identity

**Table A.3.5.2 Sense of belonging (%) in 2003**

Do you feel attached to?	very attached	Rather attached	Not very attached	Not attached at all
Country	50	43	6	1
City/town/village	46	37	13	4
Regional	45	40	12	3
European Union	14	42	29	12

Source : EB 60.1, 2003, p.13

**Table A.3.5.3 European sense of belonging (%)**

	2001	2002	2003
Very attached	12	13	14
Rather attached	34	40	42

Source : EB 60.1, 2003, p.13

### 3.5.3 Interpersonal identity

**Table A.3.5.4 Attachment to family life (%)**

Do you agree with the following statement?: it is a good thing to attach more importance to family life.

	1981	1990	1999
18-26 years old	78	81	88
27-35 years old	83	91	90
36-44 years old	90	87	90
45-53 years old	91	91	91
54-62 years old	94	93	92
63-71 years old	96	94	97
older than 71	94	96	94
Total	86	89	91

Source : Bréchon P., 2000, p.53, EVS

### 3.6 Conclusion

**Table A.3.6.1 Desired changes (1999, %)**

Here is a list of various changes in our way of life that might take place in the near future. Please tell me for each one, if it were to happen whether you think it would be good thing, a bad thing, or don't you mind.

	Good	Bad	don't mind	Do not know
Less emphasis on money and material possessions	70	12	16	2
Decrease in importance of work in our lives	64	17	17	3
More emphasis on the development of technology	57	17	23	4
Greater emphasis on the development of the individual	86	2	11	1
Greater respect for authority	67	9	20	3
More emphasis on family life	91	1	8	1
A simple and more natural lifestyle	92	1	6	1
More power to local authorities	49	14	31	7

Source: Bréchon P., 2000, *Les valeurs des Français*, Armand Colin, p.264 ; The European Values Study : A third Wave





## 4 Social inclusion

### 4.2 Citizenship rights (Ma)

#### 4.2.1 Constitutional/Political rights

**Table A.4.2.1 Abstention rate to regional elections of 1998 according to age, town size and educational level (%)**

	2000
<i>Age</i>	
18-24 years old	44
25-34 years old	43
35-44 years old	30
45-54 years old	22
55-64 years old	18
65-74 years old	15
75 years old and more	20
<i>According to town size</i>	
..Town (under 2 000 inhabitants)	23
..Town (under 20 000 inhabitants)	27
..City (20 000 to 100 000 inhabitants)	30
City (more than 100 000 inhabitants)	31
..Paris and its suburbs	37
<i>According to educational level</i>	
Primary leaving certificate	24
G.C.E. O-levels	29
Vocational training certificate	31
G.C.E. A-levels	32
Superior to A level	29
Total	42

Source: Dubois Fresney, 2002, p.113

#### 4.2.2 Social rights

**Table A.4.2.2 Women's average wage as a proportion of men's (%) (full-time jobs)**

	1975	1983	1991	1995	2000
ratio	0.68	0.74	0.75	0.81	0.82

Source : *Alternatives économiques*, 4<sup>e</sup> trimestre 2002, 'les chiffres de l'économie', p.15

**Table A.4.2.3 Women and men annual average wage by socio-economic groups in 2000 (full-time job)**

	annual average wage		(M-W)/M in %
	Men	Women	
Manager, executive self-employed	41,940	31,690	24.4
Qualified employed	22,380	19,290	13.8
Employee	15 770	14,420	8.6
Workman	15,390	12,540	18.5
<i>Total</i>	21,520	17,550	18.4
1 <sup>st</sup> décile (D1)	11,870	10,870	8.4
5 <sup>th</sup> décile (median)	17,840	15,580	12.7
9 <sup>th</sup> décile (D9)	37,720	28,000	25.8
95 <sup>th</sup> décile (C95)	50,260	34,760	30.8
<i>D9/D1</i>	3.2	2.6	-

Source : Portrait social 2002/2003, Insee, p.41

Women's and men's wage interdecile ratio shows that women's wages distribution is more egalitarian (10% of higher women's wages are at least 2.6 times superior to 10% lower women's wages, compared with 3.2 for men).

**Table A.4.2.4 Monthly average amount of pension (euros) in 2001**

	65 years old and more
<i>Women</i>	
All careers	606
Completed career	950
<i>Men</i>	
All carrier	1,372
Completed carrier	1,453
<i>Difference in % (W-H)/H</i>	
All careers	-55.8
Completed career	-34.6

Source: Regard sur la parité? Edition 2004; Ministère des affaires sociales, du travail et de la solidarité, Drees, 2001

### 4.2.3 Civil rights

Discrimination concerns equal access to paid employment to men and women. In 1999, 22 per cent of French people agreed with the following proposal: When jobs are scarce, men have more right to a job than women (table n° Halman, 2001, p.69). This figure appears lower than the European average.

Concerning immigration, employers should give priority to French people over immigrants, when jobs are scarce for 54 per cent of respondents which lower than European average (near 70%).

**Table A.4.2.5 Do you agree or disagree with the following statements?**

When jobs are scarce, men have more right to a job than women

	Agree	Disagree	Neither
France	21.8	68.3	9.9
Europe total	24.0	64.6	11.3

Halman L., 2001, *The European Values Study: A third Wave*, EVS, WORC, Tilburg University, p.69

**Table A.4.2.6 Do you agree or disagree with the following statements?**

When jobs are scarce, employers should give priority to French people over immigrants

	Agree	Disagree	Neither
France	54.0	36.0	9.9
Europe total	68.1	23.5	8.4

Halman L., 2000, *The European Values Study: A third Wave*, EVS, WORC, Tilburg University, p.69

## 4.2.4 Economic and Political Networks

**Table A.4.2.7 Women in regional Councils, 1999**

	France	EU 15
Number of regions	22	143
Numbers of members	1693	9840
Number of female members	437	2896
Percentage of female members	25.8	29.4

Source: Statistical portraits data, Eurostat, 2003, p.190

**Table A.4.2.8 Female share in national councils, 2001**

	Percentage
France	10
EU 15	23

Source: Statistical portraits data, Eurostat, 2003, p.175

**Table A.4.2.9 Percentage of women in the national government (2001)**

	Percentage
France	29
EU 15	40

Source: Statistical portraits data, Eurostat, 2003, p.158

## 4.3 Labour market

**Table A.4.3.1 Long-term unemployment indicators (%), 2001**

	EU	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
Long-term U rate	3.1	3.2	0.8	3.8	5.4	3.9	3.0	1.2	5.8	0.6	0.6	0.9	1.5	2.5	1.0	1.3
Very long-term U rate	2.0	2.2	0.3	2.5	3.1	2.3	1.7	0.7	4.3	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.8	1.4	-	0.7
Long-term U / total U	42	48	19	49	51	36	35	32	61	27	25	23	37	27	20	25

Note : The share refers to full-time earnings.

Source : « Living conditions in Europe », Eurostat, 2003, p.72

**Table A.4.3.2 Long-term unemployment indicators (%), 2001**

	E-U	France
Long-term unemployment (over 12 months) rate	3.1	3.0
Very long-term unemployment (over 24 months) rate	2.0	1.7
Long-term unemployment share of total unemployment	42.5	35.3

Note : The share refers to full-time earnings.

Source : « Living conditions in Europe », Eurostat, 2003, p.72

**Table A.4.3.3 Long-term unemployment rates\* (in %)**

	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Average duration of unemployment (months)	16.0	14.9	15.9	14.5	12.8
Men	15.5	14.4	15.4	14.7	12.2
Women	16.4	15.2	16.3	14.3	13.4
Long-term unemployment rate (%)	41.2	38.2	40.1	35.3	31.7
<i>Men</i>	40.2	37.1	38.9	35.0	30.2
15-24 years old	21.4	17.9	18.4	15.5	13.4
25-49 years old	40.5	37.4	38.6	34.4	29.7
50 years old and +	60.3	59.8	62.7	62.5	53.1
<i>Women</i>	42.1	39.2	41.2	35.6	33.1
15-24 years old	20.1	20.3	20.2	15.6	17.8
25-49 years old	43.8	39.9	41.7	35.6	32.3
50 years old and +	61.7	58.3	61.4	58.3	53.9

\*The unemployment rates are measured on I.L.O. basis. \*\* proportion of unemployment which is unemployed since at least one year.

Source: Insee première, Enquête sur l'emploi de mars 2002, *Insee Première*, n°857, July 2002

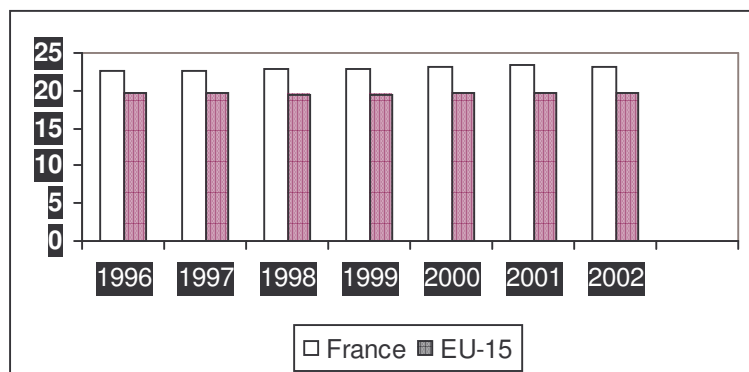
**Table A.4.3.4 Atypical work**

	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Total labour force (thousand):	22,022	22,344	22,492	22,430	25,486	25,686	25,851	26,044	26,283
Employed labour force	12,396	12,551	12,611	12,552	22,479	22,672	23,261	23,759	23,942
Unemployment	9,626	9,793	9,881	9,878	3,007	3,014	2,590	2,285	2,341
Proportion of part-time employees (%)	14.7	15.5	15.8	16.6	17.1	17.2	16.9	16.4	16.2
Men	4.5	5.0	5.2	5.4	5.6	5.5	5.4	5.0	5.1
Women	27.8	28.9	29.5	30.9	31.6	31.6	31.0	30.4	29.7
Proportion of employees in precarious work*	4.3	5.3	5.4	6.0	6.6	6.6	7.3	7.2	6.6
Average duration of labour (hours per week)									
Full-time work	39.9	39.9	39.9	39.8	39.7	39.6	38.9	38.3	37.7
Part-time work	22.4	22.6	22.7	22.6	22.9	22.9	23.1	23.3	23.0

\* Proportion of employees in precarious work in % = (interim worker + CDD+ subsidized contracts)/ Employed labour force

Source: Aerts, 2002

Figure A.4.3.1 Hours worked per week of part-time employment between 1996 and 2002



Source: Eurostat, 2004

Table A.4.3.5 Percentage of persons in employment working part-time, by sex, 2002

	EU	France
Men	7	5
Women	33	30

The classification by part-time or full-time job depends on a direct question in the labour force survey.

Source : Eurostat, 2003, p.46

## 4.4 Services

### 4.4.2 Housing

Table A.4.4.1 Living circumstances of homeless people in 2000 (%)

	Lives in couple	Lives alone*	Lives with child	Men	18-19 years old	More than 50 years old	Foreigner
Homeless people who use social services							
Total homeless population	14	67	24	67	36	16	29
Staying in a place unfit to live (street, shelter...)	2	88	0	93	22	22	26
Homeless people taken in							
Hotel	18	68	21	61	51	8	25
Social housing	28	42	45	43	42	10	29
Room or dormitory in collective structures							
With departure in the morning	6	88	4	90	32	20	42
Without departure in the morning	5	79	15	68	32	20	24
Total population	59	19	38	47	23	40	8

\*can live in community

Exact number of homeless people is unknown. I.N.S.E.E. counts 90 000 people who have the benefits of social lodging or free hot meals. The survey contains 4 109 beneficiaries.

Source: I.N.S.E.E., « Qui sont les sans-domicile usagers de ces services », *INSEE Première*, n°824, January '02

**Table A.4.4.2 People with housing problem (estimation, 2001)**

	Households	Number of people
homeless people		86,500
People "near to housing"		about 200,000
of which live in hotel room (as principal housing)		50,000
of which live in a place unfitted (squat, shelter...)		41,000
of which live with family or friends in case of emergency		100,000
People in temporary housing conditions	355,000	About 500,000
People living in uncomfortable households (without shower/bath or toilet)	769,000	1 300,000
Critical overpopulation situation	374,000	1,300,000
Total		3 386,000
Deduction		- 240,000
Number of people with housing problems		3 146,500

Source : Rapport 2004 sur l'état du mal-logement, Fondation Abbé Pierre ; Chiffres : Enquête logement, Enquête Insee SDF 2001, Rapport du Sénat n°22.

**Table A.4.4.3 Homeless people characteristics (2000, %)**

	Total homeless population	Total population
lives in couple	14	59
lives alone*	67	19
lives with a child	24	38
Men	67	47
18-19 years old	36	23
More than 50 years old	16	40
foreigner	29	8

Source: I.N.S.E.E., « Qui sont les sans-domicile usagers de ces services », *INSEE Première*, n°824, janvier 2002

Temporary accommodation centres are set up by different types of organisations: municipal authorities, local community welfare centres, and private associations. Overnight shelters, emergency shelters, social welfare shelters and residential unit for expectant mothers are provided.

Overnight shelters are provided for individuals who live alone. People have to arrive before 5 pm and leave the centre the following morning. Accommodation is free of charge. The evening meal is generally provided.

Temporary shelter are provided for people in need (alone or not) while a solution is being found. The duration is a few days, sometimes a few weeks. Depending on the type of centre, admissions may be handled by the centre directly or through a social welfare organisation. The centres are always free. Social welfare shelters also provide ongoing support from social workers and help finding a job or a training course. Admission is through a social welfare organisation. The duration of stay can be several months. The centres accept people on their own and couples, with or without children.

Residential units for pregnant mothers provide accommodation until the birth of the child. Most units can also continue to provide accommodation after the birth for varying lengths of time, though not usually beyond the child's 3rd birthday. Accommodation may be free of charge depending on the person's situation.

Alongside prevention measures, action needs to be taken to deal with the extreme situations of the homeless and destitute. Several measures have been implemented to deal with these cases of social emergency:

*A departmental "social watch":*

Each department has to have one of these schemes, operating twenty-four hours a day, in order to provide information and guidance for people in distress. All departments already have a "115" telephone line for help for the homeless. The 115 line can be run as part of a special reception service co-ordinating all the players and therefore able to assess actual needs. The CHRS (*centres d'hébergement et de réinsertion* - accommodation and social re-integration centres) play a key role in these schemes. These establishments do not all provide accommodation, but can give guidance and, if necessary, help people reintegrate into society. Since 1997, 1,690 new beds have been created, making it possible to set up 19 help and guidance services. 92 of these centres are now able to take in families and not just single people.

The CASU (*commissions de l'action sociale d'urgence* - emergency social action commissions): these were set up in all departments at the beginning of 1999. Their purpose is to put people asking for assistance in contact with the requisite person so that they can explain all their problems without having to approach a whole range of people, to ensure that the applicant receives a comprehensive service at the earliest possible opportunity and to find solutions to emergencies efficiently and in a way which respects people's dignity. A departmental charter supported by most of the partners concerned has been drawn up in most departments. These charters lay down methods and rules for the co-ordination of the various participating bodies

### 4.4.3 Education

**Table A.4.4.4 Evolution of Schooling expectancy (in years)**

	1986-1987	1996-1997	1997-1998	1998-1999	1999-2002
Total	17.3	19.0	19.0	19.0	19.0
Boys	17.2	18.8	18.8	18.8	18.7
Girls	17.3	19.2	19.2	19.2	19.1
From 13 years old	7.0	8.7	8.6	8.6	8.6

Source: Insee, *portrait social 2001/2002*, Références, p.175

**Table A.4.4.5 Participation in education and training**

	EU 15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	NO
Age at which compulsory education ends																		
Age	18	16	19	15	16	16	15	15	15	17	15	15	16	16	16	16	16	16
Participation rates by ages, 2000/2001																		
16	93	98	90	100	92	94	97	93	81	84	99	92	81	96	97	86	91	94
17	84	100	86	94	68	80	92	81	75	80	89	89	74	94	97	74	78	93
18	74	85	80	83	69	70	80	79	69	72	77	69	66	88	95	55	68	86
19	59	73	66	64	71	60	66	51	47	52	64	43	56	48	43	52	64	54
20	48	63	49	48	54	54	52	44	36	30	58	30	47	48	46	47	49	46
Participation rates (16-18 year olds) by sex, 2000/2001																		
Males	82	92	84	93	71	77	89	77	72	76	89	85	70	92	94	69	76	90
Females	85	97	87	93	80	85	91	93	78	82	88	82	77	94	99	74	81	92

Source : « Living conditions in Europe », Eurostat, Migration statistics, 2003, p.30

**Table A.4.4.6a Population and education in 1999**

Age	TOTAL	Students		Non Student					
		Number	%	No diploma	Primary leaving certificate	G.C.E O-levels	Vocational training certificate	G.C.E. A-levels	> A-level
Total	48,071	5,426	11,3	8,511	7,369	3,467	10,592	5,201	7,502
15-19	3,932	3,552	90,3	168	13	89	95	13	2
20-24	3,712	1,589	42,8	336	25	180	676	554	351
25-29	4,178	245	5,9	524	55	217	1,047	762	1,328
30-39	8,578	41	0,5	1,344	238	653	2,911	1,223	2,168
40-59	15,193	0	0,0	2,430	2,488	1,351	4,320	1,817	2,787
≥ 60	12,478	0	0,0	3,710	4,551	978	1,543	832	865

Source : I.N.S.E.E., *Annuaire statistique de la France*, Edition 2002,p55

**Table A.4.4.6b Population and education in 1999 (%)**

Age	Total	Students		Non Students				
		No diploma	Primary leaving certificate	G.C.E O-levels	Vocational training certificate	G.C.E. A-levels	> A-level	
Total	100	11.3	17.7	15.4	7.2	22.0	10.8	15.6
15-19	100	90.3	4.4	0.31	2.2	2.4	0.33	0.06
20-24	100	42.8	9.0	0.7	4.8	18.2	15.0	9.5
25-29	100	5.9	12.5	1.3	5.2	25.1	18.2	31.8
30-39	100	0.5	15.7	2.8	7.6	33.9	14.2	25.3
40-59	100	0.0	16.0	16.4	8.9	28.4	12.0	18.3
≥ 60	100	0.0	29.7	36.5	7.8	12.4	6.7	6.9

Source : I.N.S.E.E., *Annuaire statistique de la France*, Edition 2002,p55



**Table A.4.4.7 School leavers without diploma (%)**

	1985	1990	1995	2000
ratio	15.3	12.7	7.9	7.8

Source : *Alternatives économiques*, 4<sup>e</sup> trimestre 2002, les chiffres de l'économie, p.39

#### 4.4.5 Financial service

**Table A.4.4.8 Excessive debt rate and credit incident rate (%)**

	90	91	92	93	94	95	96	97	98	99	2000
Excessive debt rate	4.11	3.06	2.84	3.02	2.97	3.00	3.68	4.00	4.86	5.81	5.98
Excessive debt rate	3.40	3.40	6.33	8.35	7.83	7.19	6.49	5.79	5.45	6.38	8.24

Source: Banque de France, 2001

**Table A.4.4.9 Household debt**

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995
Total of household debt* (thousands)	90.1	68.0	63.8	68.8	68,8	70.1
Total of households (in thousands)	21,962	22,213	22,489	22,773	23,063	23,366
Debt rates (%)**	0.411	0.306	0.284	0.302	0.297	0.300

(continued)

	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Total of household debt* (thousands)	86.9	95.7	117.1	142.2	148.4
Total of households (in thousands)	23,654	23,927	24,199	24,482	24,807
Debt rates (%)**	0.368	0.400	0.486	0.581	0.598

\*Households having a current repayment superior to 60% of their income. \*\* Total of household debt / total of households

Source: Insee, 2001 and Banque de France, 2001

**Table A.4.4.10 Proportion of households with a current repayment higher than 33% of their income (%)**

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
<i>Age</i>					
Less than 30 years old	2	3	2	2	3
30-39 years old	8	8	5	8	5
40-49 years old	9	10	6	5	6
50-59 years old	5	6	4	3	4
60-69 years old	3	2	1	1	1
70-79 years old	1	0	1	1	1
80 years old and more	0	0	0	1	0
<i>Households composition</i>					
..Persons living alone	2	2	2	3	3
..Couple without children	4	3	2	2	2
..Couple with one child	7	6	4	6	4
..Couple with two children	9	9	8	6	6
..Couple with three children, and more	12	15	7	8	8
..Single parent families	6	6	3	4	5
..Others cases	3	3	1	5	0
<i>Households according to town size</i>					
..Rural surrounding	8	7	4	5	5
..Town (less than 20 000 inhabitants)	4	6	4	5	3
..City (20 000 to 100 000 inhabitants)	5	5	2	3	4
..City (more than 100 000 inhabitants)	4	3	2	3	3
..Paris and its suburbs	5	5	3	2	3
..Paris	3	3	3	2	2
<i>Households location by region</i>					
..Paris and its suburbs	5	5	3	3	3
..Centre	6	5	3	4	4
..North	4	7	5	4	4
..East	6	7	4	5	3
..West	5	5	4	5	4
..South-West	5	3	2	4	5
..Centre-East	4	5	2	3	3
..Mediterranean	4	5	4	3	4
<i>Households income by quartiles</i>					
..first quartile	6	6	4	3	4
..second quartile	6	6	4	5	4
..third quartile	4	4	3	4	3
..fourth quartile	5	5	3	3	3
<b>Total</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>3</b>

Source: Insee, *Indicateurs de niveau de vie* (indicateurs sociaux annuels de 1996 à 2001), INSEE Résultats, enquête permanente sur les conditions de vie des ménages, p.14, 15 and 16

**Table A.4.4.11 Households in which one person often has a bank overdraft (at least once per month) (%)**

	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
<i>Age</i>						
Less than 30 years old	9	11	12	11	15	12
30-39 years old	11	13	11	12	13	14
40-49 years old	8	9	10	10	12	13
50-59 years old	5	7	6	7	8	6
60-69 years old	2	1	2	3	3	2
70-79 years old	1	1	1	1	1	1
80 years old and more	1	0	0	0	0	0
<i>Households composition</i>						
..Persons living alone	5	5	6	6	7	6
..Couple without children	3	4	4	4	5	5
..Couple with one child	7	9	6	7	9	10
..Couple with two children	9	10	10	11	13	10
..Couple with three children, and more	11	13	13	13	13	14
..Single parent families	13	12	11	13	13	12
..Others cases	8	8	11	5	11	8
<i>Households according to town size</i>						
..Rural surrounding	5	5	5	7	6	6
..Town (less than 20 000 inhabitants)	6	8	7	6	9	9
..City (20 000 to 100 000 inhabitants)	6	7	7	5	8	8
..City (more than 100 000 inhabitants)	7	7	8	8	10	8
..Paris and its suburbs	7	8	6	7	9	9
..Paris	7	8	12	13	8	8
<i>Households location by region</i>						
..Paris and its suburbs	7	8	8	8	9	9
..Centre	6	7	5	5	7	8
..North	4	8	7	6	10	5
..East	6	7	8	8	9	10
..West	7	8	7	9	9	9
..South-West	4	5	5	8	6	5
..Centre-East	9	7	9	7	11	7
..Mediterranean	5	5	7	6	8	7
<i>Households income by quartiles</i>						
..first quartile	9	11	9	9	11	9
..second quartile	5	7	7	7	8	9
..third quartile	6	6	6	7	8	7
..fourth quartile	5	5	6	6	7	6
<b>Total</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>8</b>

Source: Insee, *Indicateurs de niveau de vie* (indicateurs sociaux annuels de 1996 à 2001), INSEE Résultats, enquête permanente sur les conditions de vie des ménages, p.17, 18 and 19

**Table A.4.4.12 Households which have used one part of their savings during the 12 last months (%)**

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
<i>Age</i>					
Less than 30 years old	20	20	18	24	24
30-39 years old	23	17	21	21	21
40-49 years old	22	21	21	25	24
50-59 years old	26	26	24	21	22
60-69 years old	23	22	21	25	23
70-79 years old	19	20	19	19	19
80 years old and more	16	16	13	14	18
<i>Households composition</i>					
..Persons living alone	21	20	21	23	23
..Couple without children	21	19	18	20	19
..Couple with one child	26	24	21	20	23
Couple with two children	23	19	22	23	23
Couple with three children, and more	22	21	20	25	21
..Single parent families	22	23	25	27	27
..Others cases	18	21	25	21	17
<i>Households according to town size</i>					
..Rural surrounding	24	21	22	23	23
..Town (less than 20 000 inhabitants)	23	21	18	21	24
..City (20 000 to 100 000 inhabitants)	20	21	22	19	21
..City (more than 100 000 inhabitants)	22	20	20	24	23
..Paris and its suburbs	20	19	20	21	17
..Paris	20	22	19	21	21
<i>Households location by region</i>					
..Paris and its suburbs	20	20	20	21	18
..Centre	19	21	21	20	23
..North	22	18	22	25	17
..East	25	22	18	20	22
..West	22	24	20	22	24
..South-West	26	22	19	23	24
..Centre-East	23	18	22	24	23
..Mediterranean	24	18	22	23	24
<i>Households income by quartiles</i>					
..first quartile	27	24	25	25	30
..second quartile	24	23	21	25	21
..third quartile	21	19	21	21	22
..fourth quartile	17	16	15	16	15
<b>Total</b>	<b>22</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>22</b>	<b>22</b>

Source: Insee, *Indicateurs de niveau de vie* (indicateurs sociaux annuels de 1996 à 2001), INSEE Résultats, enquête permanente sur les conditions de vie des ménages, p.26, 27 and 28

**Table A.4.4.13 Households which could not pay in time their outgoings (maintenances, expenses) on several times during the 12 last months (for financial reasons) (%)**

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
<i>Age</i>					
Less than 30 years old	5	5	3	5	4
30-39 years old	6	4	3	4	4
40-49 years old	5	4	4	4	4
50-59 years old	3	3	2	2	2
60-69 years old	1	2	2	1	1
70-79 years old	1	0	1	0	0
80 years old and more	1	0	0	0	0
<i>Households composition</i>					
..Persons living alone	4	3	2	3	2
..Couple without children	1	1	1	1	2
..Couple with one child	3	2	2	2	2
Couple with two children	4	2	2	3	2
Couple with three children, and more	8	6	4	3	4
..Single parent families	6	7	7	7	6
..Others cases	2	3	0	0	1
<i>Households according to town size</i>					
..Rural surrounding	1	1	0	1	1
..Town (less than 20 000 inhabitants)	3	2	2	3	3
..City (20 000 to 100 000 inhabitants)	5	4	3	4	4
..City (more than 100 000 inhabitants)	4	4	3	3	3
..Paris and its suburbs	5	5	3	3	3
..Paris	5	3	5	3	1
<i>Households location by region</i>					
..Paris and its suburbs	5	4	3	3	3
..Centre	3	1	2	2	2
..North	4	3	3	2	2
..East	3	3	1	2	2
..West	3	3	2	2	2
..South-West	2	2	1	2	3
..Centre-East	4	3	2	3	2
..Mediterranean	5	3	3	3	3
<i>Households income by quartiles</i>					
..first quartile	9	7	6	6	5
..second quartile	3	2	2	2	2
..third quartile	1	1	1	1	1
..fourth quartile	0	0	1	0	1
<b>Total</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>2</b>

Source: Insee, *Indicateurs de niveau de vie* (indicateurs sociaux annuels de 1996 à 2001), INSEE Résultats, enquête permanente sur les conditions de vie des ménages, p.35, 36 and 37

## 4.4.6 Transport

**Table A.4.4.14 People using public transport to go at workplace (%)**

	1998	1999	2000
<i>Sex</i>			
Men	16	15	17
Women	23	23	24
<i>Age</i>			
Less than 30 years old	35	31	34
30-39 years old	12	10	13
40-49 years old	9	12	11
50-59 years old	11	14	11
60 years old and more	11	9	15
<i>Households according to town size</i>			
..Rural surrounding	13	11	11
..Small town	13	10	11
..Town	12	10	11
..City	18	18	17
..Paris and its suburbs	36	39	44
..Paris	54	57	58
<i>Households location by region</i>			
..Paris and its suburbs	38	40	43
..Centre	14	11	12
..North	20	17	17
..East	15	13	14
..West	14	14	13
..South-West	11	9	10
..Centre-East	15	12	14
..Mediterranean	14	14	11
<i>Households income by quartiles</i>			
..first quartile	24	25	24
..second quartile	18	16	18
..third quartile	18	15	17
..fourth quartile	18	20	20
<b>Total</b>	<b>19</b>	<b>19</b>	<b>20</b>

Source: Dumartin S. et Taché C., 2001, *Mode de transport utilisés par les ménages*, Insee, p. 32-34

**Table A.4.4.15 Mode of transport usually used to go at workplace (%)**

	Private car	By bike	Walk	Public transport	It depends	Work at home	Total
<i>Sex</i>							
Men	67	2	8	17	1	5	100
Women	57	1	11	24	1	6	100
<i>Age</i>							
Less than 30 years old	49	2	13	34	1	1	100
30-39 years old	72	2	7	13	1	5	100
40-49 years old	71	2	9	11	1	6	100
50-59 years old	68	2	8	11	1	10	100
60 years old and more	47	0	11	15	0	27	100
<i>Households according to town size</i>							
..Rural surrounding	72	1	6	11	1	9	100
..Small town	71	3	9	11	1	5	100
..Town	69	2	13	11	1	4	100
..City	64	3	12	17	1	3	100
..Paris and its suburbs	40	1	11	44	2	2	100
..Paris	25	2	11	58	1	3	100
<i>Households income by quartiles</i>							
..first quartile	49	2	16	24	1	8	100
..second quartile	64	2	10	18	1	5	100
..third quartile	67	2	9	17	1	4	100
..fourth quartile	67	2	6	20	1	4	100
<b>Total</b>	<b>62</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Dumartin S. et Taché C., 2001, *Mode de transport utilisés par les ménages*, Insee, p. 31

**Table A.4.4.16 Type of transport usually used to evening out (%)**

	Private car	Walk	Public transport	It depends	total
<i>Sex</i>					
Men	79	13	5	3	100
Women	78	13	6	3	100
<i>Age</i>					
Less than 30 years old	71	17	8	4	100
30-39 years old	82	11	5	2	100
40-49 years old	84	10	4	2	100
50-59 years old	84	9	4	3	100
60 years old and more	77	16	4	3	100
<i>Households according to town size</i>					
..Rural surrounding	88	11	0	1	100
..Small town	78	18	1	3	100
..Town	83	13	1	3	100
..City	79	13	5	3	100
..Paris and its suburbs	69	11	16	4	100
..Paris	42	15	36	7	100
<i>Households income by quartiles</i>					
..first quartile	67	23	6	4	100
..second quartile	82	12	4	2	100
..third quartile	81	12	4	3	100
..fourth quartile	83	8	6	3	100
<b>Total</b>	<b>79</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Dumartin S. et Taché C., 2001, *Mode de transport utilisés par les ménages*, Insee, p. 36

**Table A.4.4.17 People using public transport (%)**

	Bus stop near home (less than 10 mn)	Without bus stop near home (less than 10 mn)	total
<i>Households according to town size</i>			
..Rural surrounding	13	10	11
..Small town	12	9	11
..Town	12	5	11
..City	17	13	17
..Paris and its suburbs	44	33	44
..Paris	58	0	58
Total	22	9	20

Source: Dumartin S. et Taché C., 2001, *Mode de transport utilisés par les ménages*, Insee, p. 34

**Table A.4.4.18 Mode of transport used to go to workplace (%)**

	Private car	By bike	Walk	Public transport	It depends	Work at home	total
Bus stop near home (less than 10 mn)	60	2	11	22	1	4	100
Without bus stop near home (less than 10 mn)	73	1	6	9	1	10	100
Total	62	2	10	20	1	5	100

Source: Dumartin S. et Taché C., 2001, *Mode de transport utilisés par les ménages*, Insee, p. 31

**Table A.4.4.19 Reasons why people do not use public transport to go at workplace (%)**

	1998	1999	2000
Private car or walk is faster	29	23	23
Public transport don't go at workplace	23	21	21
Work hours don't connect with public transport/don't correspond to	17	14	14
Private car is more comfortable	3	3	3
Lack of security	1	1	1
No public transport at proximity	15	22	21
Workplace is beside home	-	10	11
Others	12	6	6
Total	19	19	20

Source: Dumartin S. et Taché C., 2001, *Mode de transport utilisés par les ménages*, Insee, p. 40

**Table A.4.4.20 Reasons why people do not use public transport to go to workplace according to town size (%)**

	Rural surround -ding	Small town	Town	City	Paris and its suburbs	Paris	Total
Private car or walk is faster	9	13	19	37	44	33	23
Public transport don't go at workplace	21	29	24	19	12	14	21
Mismatch between work hours and public transport	11	13	25	17	9	8	14
Private car is more comfortable	1	1	2	4	4	7	3
Lack of security	0	1	0	1	1	3	1
No public transport at proximity	49	28	14	2	1	3	21
Workplace is beside home	6	10	10	12	19	22	11
Others	3	5	6	8	10	10	6
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Dumartin S. et Taché C., 2001, *Mode de transport utilisés par les ménages*, Insee, p. 40



**Table A.4.4.21 People thinking that public transport lacks in their area (%)**

	1997	1998	1999	2000
<i>Sex</i>				
Men	11	10	9	10
Women	14	14	12	13
<i>Age</i>				
Less than 30 years old	12	11	10	11
30-39 years old	11	11	9	12
40-49 years old	15	14	12	14
50-59 years old	12	14	11	11
60-69 years old	13	13	10	11
70-79 years old	16	13	10	11
80 years old and more	9	12	10	9
<i>Households according to town size</i>				
..Rural surrounding	20	18	17	18
..Small town	16	17	12	13
..Town	9	8	7	9
..City	9	8	6	8
..Paris and its suburbs	9	11	11	9
..Paris	2	5	4	5
<i>Households income by quartiles</i>				
..first quartile	12	12	10	11
..second quartile	13	12	11	12
..third quartile	12	12	11	12
..fourth quartile	12	13	11	11
<b>Total</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>12</b>

Source: Dumartin S. et Taché C., 2001, *Mode de transport utilisés par les ménages*, Insee, p.45-46

**Table A.4.4.21 Place where acts of violence occurred (%)**

	1997	1998	1999	2000
In the street, public place	48	54	48	53
At workplace	13	13	12	19
At home	12	10	7	4
<i>In public transport</i>	<i>8</i>	<i>7</i>	<i>8</i>	<i>6</i>
In parking	7	5	6	3
Elsewhere	12	11	19	15
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Dumartin S. et Taché C., 2001, *Mode de transport utilisés par les ménages*, Insee, p.43

**Table A.4.4.22 People thinking that community facilities lacks (3 answers are possible) (%)**

	Men	Women	Total
Activity for young people	17	17	17
Business	18	22	20
Swimming pools or sports facilities	13	12	12
Car park	14	12	13
Public transport	10	13	12
Cultural places	9	10	9
Green spaces	8	10	9
Meeting places	6	6	6
Communal activity information	4	4	4
Schools	2	3	3
Nothing lacks	39	36	37

Source: Dumartin S. et Taché C., 2001, *Mode de transport utilisés par les ménages*, Insee, p.44

**Table A.4.4.23 People thinking that community facilities lacks according to town size (3 answers are possible) (%)**

	Rural surroun- -ding	Small town	Town	City	Paris and its suburbs	Paris	Total
Activity for young people	21	16	17	17	14	6	17
Business	32	15	12	14	22	14	20
Swimming pools or sports facilities	15	15	7	13	8	12	12
Car park	5	11	16	18	17	35	13
Public transport	18	13	9	8	9	5	12
Cultural places	9	9	7	10	11	10	9
Green spaces	3	7	9	13	11	18	9
Meeting places	7	5	7	7	6	6	6
Communal activity information	4	3	5	5	2	7	4
Schools	5	2	1	2	2	1	3
Nothing lacks	35	41	42	38	36	30	37

Source: Dumartin S. et Taché C., 2001, *Mode de transport utilisés par les ménages*, Insee, p.44

**Table A.4.4.24 Road network size (km)**

	1996	1997	1998	1999
Motorway	8,596	8,864	9,303	9,626
Main road	26,881	26,856	26,584	26,298
Secondary road	360,100	358,380	358,580	359,090
District road	569,000	579,370	585,900	589,910
Total	964,577	973,470	980,370	984,924b

Source: I.N.S.E.E., *Annuaire statistique de la France*, Edition 2002, p.766

**Table A.4.4.25 Number of vehicles on the roads (Thousands)**

	1985	1990	1995	1999	2000
Cars	21,090	23,550	25,100	27,480	28,060
Bus	64	70	79	80	80
Lorries and vans	3,779	4,670	4,926	5,320	5,456
Tractors	137	170	190	210	217

Source: Insee, 2001b

## 4.5 Social Networks

### 4.5.1 Neighbourhood participation

**Table A.4.5.1 Friendship**

I'm going to ask how often you do certain things: Spend time with friends

	Every week	Once twice a month	Few times a year	Not at all
France	58.5	28.0	11.0	2.5
Europe Total	53.7	27.5	14.3	4.6

Halman L., 2000, *The European Values Study: A third Wave*, EVS, WORC, Tilburg University, p.33

**Table A.4.5.2 colleagues**

I'm going to ask how often you do certain things: Spend time with colleagues

	Every week	Once twice a month	Few times a year	Not at all
%	12.5	18.7	24.0	44.7
Europe Total	18.1	22.8	27.8	31.3

Halman L., 2000, *The European Values Study: A third Wave*, EVS, WORC, Tilburg University, p.33

**Table A.4.5.3 Informal (non-monetary) assistance received by different types of family**

	Parents	Children	Grand children	Brother/ sister	Uncle/ tante	nephews	cousins	Grand parents	Total
Moral help	23	18	20	26	31	25	34	26	24
Shopping	26	12	10	15	21	13	11	34	18
Gardening	13	10	2	12	11	4	10	12	11
Money help	5	16	31	6	5	19	7	4	10
Administrative help	13	6	2	8	12	6	8	8	9
Homework	10	7	7	4	6	3	3	13	7
Children care	1	12	12	10	7	11	8	-	7
Car renting	4	9	2	7	3	4	4	-	6
Money borrow	2	6	2	6	1	3	2	-	4
Education help	-	2	8	2	-	8	8	-	2
Others	3	2	4	4	3	4	5	3	3

Crenner, 1999, « Famille, je vous aide », *Insee première*, n°631, février, PCV

**Table A.4.5.4 Average number of contacts per week**

	Number of interlocutors			Distribution of interlocutors		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Relatives	2.1	2.5	2.3	25.6	27.6	26.7
Friends	2.1	2.1	2.1	25.4	23.7	24.4
Neighbour	0.9	1.0	1.0	11.0	11.5	11.3
Colleagues	1.5	1.3	1.4	18.2	14.5	16.2
Others	1.8	2.3	2.0	19.8	22.7	21.4
<b>Total</b>	<b>8.4</b>	<b>9.2</b>	<b>8.8</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Blanpain, 1998

**Table A.4.5.5 Percentage of the population aged 16 and over meeting people (at home or elsewhere), 1999**

	EU	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
At least once a week	81	78	80	-	90	92	66	97	81	-	85	72	74	80	-	87
Once or twice a month	14	18	18	-	9	6	26	3	13	-	13	23	16	17	-	10
< once, or never	5	4	2	-	2	2	8	1	6	-	2	5	9	4	-	3

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

## 5 Social Empowerment

### 5.2 Knowledge base

#### 5.2.2 Availability of information

**Table A.5.2.1 Percentage of first formers (11 years old) having problems**

	1996
with literacy	8.5%
with numeracy	25.0%

Source: Ministère de l'éducation nationale in [www.educ.gouv.fr](http://www.educ.gouv.fr)

**Table A.5.2.2 Percentage of young (17 years old) having problems with literacy**

	2000/2001
Very important difficulty	6.5%
Difficulty	5.1%
Without difficulty	88.4%

Source: Ministère de l'éducation nationale in [www.educ.gouv.fr](http://www.educ.gouv.fr)

#### 5.2.3 User friendliness of information

**Table A.5.2.3 Granted jurisdictional help rate (2002)**

	granted jurisdictional help number	Total jurisdictional help		Partial jurisdictional help	
		Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Civil	357,362	282,396	79.0	74,966	21.0
Penal	290,385	275,256	94.8	15,129	5.2
Administrative	12,220	11,279	92.3	941	7.7
Foreigners	28,670	28,630	99.9	40	0.1
<b>Total</b>	<b>688,637</b>	<b>597,561</b>	<b>86.8</b>	<b>91,076</b>	<b>13.2</b>

Source: Bodet, 2003

## 5.3 Labour market

### 5.3.2 Prospects of job mobility

**Table A.5.3.1 Entitlement to work based training**

Type of training	Conditions
Further training individual leave	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Further training duration: 1 year (maximum) or 1 200 hours of work (equivalent)</li> <li>- Employed worker needs a length of service superior to 2 years</li> <li>- Income during further training is between 80 and 100% of original income</li> </ul>
Economic and social further training	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Further training duration: between 2 and 18 days</li> <li>- It concerns all employed workers, with all length of service</li> <li>- Income represents 0.008% of wage bill</li> </ul>

Source: Ministère de l'emploi, 2004

**Table A.5.3.2 Continuing vocational training (CVT) in enterprises (1999)**

	EU 15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	NO
Percentage of enterprises	62	70	96	75	18	36	76	79	24	71	88	72	22	82	91	87	86
Percentage of employees in 'training' enterprises	88	88	99	92	56	64	93	92	56	87	96	90	52	95	98	97	94
Percentage of participants in CVT courses	40	41	53	32	15	25	46	41	26	36	41	31	17	50	61	49	48
Hours in CVT courses per employee (all enterprises)	12	13	22	9	6	11	17	17	8	14	15	9	7	18	18	13	16
Hours in CVT courses per participant	31	31	41	27	39	42	36	40	32	39	37	29	38	36	31	26	33

Source: « Living conditions in Europe », Eurostat, 2003, p.38

**Table A.5.3.3 Further training rate**

	further training rate	
	1999/2000	1992/1993
<i>Diploma</i>		
Degree and more	43.9	27.7
Diploma taken two years after A-levels	42.1	30.0
G.C.E. A-levels	36.1	27.2
Vocational training certificate	26.8	17.9
G.C.E. O-levels	26.2	22.3
No diploma or primary leaving certificate	14.9	8.7
<i>Experience</i>		
Experience inferior to 6 years	30.1	16.3
Experience between 6 and 10 years		
And length of service inferior to 3 years	25.7	15.2
And length of service between 3 and 5 years	39.1	19.9
And length of service superior to 5 years	40.1	24.9
Experience between 11 and 20 years		
And length of service inferior to 5 years	22.1	18.8
And length of service between 5 and 10 years	35.7	23.4
And length of service superior to 10 years	39.7	25.4
Experience between 21 and 30 years		
And length of service inferior to 5 years	19.3	21.7
And length of service between 5 and 10 years	25.5	12.2
And length of service superior to 10 years	37.9	23.2
Experience superior to 30 years		
And length of service inferior to 10 years	15.3	14.2
And length of service superior to 10 years	26.9	8.1
<i>Work duration</i>		
Full-time	31.4	20.6
Part-time	19.0	9.2
<i>Sex</i>		
Men	29.6	19.8
Women	28.4	17.4
<b>Total</b>	<b>29.1</b>	<b>18.7</b>

Source: Goux, 2001, *I.N.S.E.E. Première*, La formation en entreprise continue de se développer, n°759, février 2001

#### *Training recipients*

Employees from the private sector, employees from the public-sector, self-employed workers and job seekers benefit from training measures based on their status.

#### *Private-Sector Employees*

Wherever they work, employees can benefit from continuing vocational training during the course of their career. Leave for training can be taken within the framework of the company training plan. The plan involves all of the training activities under the responsibility of the employer. The employee undergoing training is on a professional assignment. He or she is paid by the firm. The recognised individual right for all employees to pursue training of their choice during their working hours is ensured by the Individual Training Leave benefit (CIF). In some sectors, the training-time credit meets both employee and employer training needs.

### *Public sector employees*

Public sector employees can benefit from training either through a training plan implemented by the administration or within the framework of a training leave. The training plan includes all training possibilities offered by the administration to its employees. The employee is considered to be on duty during the training period. His or her salary is maintained. The training leave is an individual right that allows employees to receive the training of his or her choice during working hours. The employee on leave is paid.

### *Self-employed workers*

Self-employed workers (farmers, tradesmen - "craftsmen" - , shop-owners, professionals and other self-employed workers) can also have access to training. They have to participate financially to their training by paying a contribution to a fund collecting body.

### *Job seekers*

All job seekers can, under certain conditions, receive a subsidised training. For young people from the age of 16 through the age of 25, training can be obtained within the framework of special work contracts financed both by the firm, the state and the regions: alternating training contracts. For unemployed adults, training can be obtained: within the framework of a special training contract, designed for those who are encountering difficulties finding employment; as part of training sessions funded by the central or regional governments. The skills audit leave enables workers or job seekers to review their personal and professional skills and build an individual training and professional plan. The company-access training course is designed for job seekers likely to fulfil the employment offer after receiving additional training. It is implemented by the National Employment Agency (ANPE); the re-training agreement is a placement assistance for employees made redundant for economic reasons.

**Table A.5.3.4 Further training (2000, %)**

	Trainee	Hours-trainee
Discipline	14.1	15.2
Production, industry	9.9	15.5
Services	58.1	49.5
Personal development	16.5	18.6
Other	1.4	1.2
Total	100	100

Source: Flachaire, 2003, p.6

### *Validation of vocational skills*

The law on the validation of vocational skills achieved DAVA (Dispositifs académiques de validation des acquis, Educational district systems for the validation of skills) has implemented actions based on three words - information, reception and support. These terms describe the initial stages in the process, the final stage being the phase of actual validation by a board of examiners. The counsellor seeks an initial cohesion between the activities described and the references of the diplomas that may



be targeted. When the qualification choice has been made, the applicant has an interview with an expert with specialised in that domain. This is the stage described in the law, as “chaperoning”.

### *Unemployment*

Jobseekers can take advantage of the AFPA vocational training courses. Support, which used to be left to the family or associations, has now become an integral part of AFPA’s work. Pre-integration leaders have been trained in the use of a more open form of instruction. Psycho-pedagogical monitoring has become organised. People no longer work as “warders” for agencies that provide board and lodging in addition to training; they have become leaders, teaching others how to live in groups. Employment resource centres have been set up. A range of services leading to a synergy between agents, from housing the training and including remuneration, the canteen etc. Each player must be capable of handing over to the appropriate contact at the right time, while remaining the trainee’s main contact. This work gives rise to the drafting of a set of support benchmarks.

### *Young people*

Since 1997, the “mission locale” (an agency specialising in assistance for young people under 25 years old in difficulty) has been involved in the promotion and implementation of sponsorship for young people who are far-removed from the job market. This experience has made it possible to design, draft and perfect a basic methodology, tools for support and a networked approach. A team working specifically with the “sponsorship unit” has been set up to consolidate the system, increase the number of young people being sponsored and diversify the networks of sponsors. The spread of the programme in order to benefit young people with the greatest difficulties and the involvement of a larger number of volunteer sponsors in the construction of an integration process is changing the functions of the support-consultant.

### *Parental leave*

In a context where the unemployment rate is higher for women than for men, problems have arisen when entitlement to parental leave or the Parental Education and Upbringing Allowance comes to an end. Consequently, the Conference on the Family of 7 July 1999 decided to offer personalized help to women returning to work after a period of maternity leave: this measure came into force at the beginning of 2000.

The Conference on the Family of 15 June 2000 then decided to introduce a Return-to-Work Incentive for women. This measure came into force on 15 July 2000. It takes the form of a payment of FF 2000-3000 from the national employment agency (ANPE) when a women returns to a job, sets up a business or enters training. Women with at least one child aged under six who were themselves caring for that child/children and whose pay does not exceed FF 8,500 per month are eligible for this temporary benefit. Women job seekers not entitled to unemployment benefit, including women in receipt of minimum welfare benefits i.e. RMI (2), single parent allowance, or widow's allowance, and women in receipt of the Specific Solidarity Allowance (ASS - allocation de solidarité spécifique) (4) or Integration Allowance (allocation d'insertion) are also entitled to this benefit.

The Parental Education and Upbringing Allowance can also be temporarily maintained after returning to work. In an attempt to make it easier to return to work by reducing the amount of time spent away from the labour market, this allowance can be combined with income from work for a period of two months between the child's eighteenth and thirtieth month.

### 5.3.3 Reconciliation of work and family life (work/life balance)

**Table A.5.3.5 Has the reduction of working time made it easier than before?**

Breakdown according to the question "have you your working hours been imposed, chosen by you or negotiated?" (%)

	Imposed	Chosen by you	Negotiated	Other
Have atypical working hours	50.6	50	66.2	67.5
Don't have atypical working hours	49.4	36	33.8	32.5
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
100.0	49.6	11.7	32.8	5.8

Source: Fagnani, 2002

**Table A.5.3.6 has the reduction of working time made it easier than before?**

Differences between the public sector and the private sector (%)

	Yes	No	Total
Public sector	67.7	32.3	100
Private sector	55.2	44.8	100

Source: Fagnani, 2002

**Table A.5.3.7 Daily life changes according to gender and socio-economic group (%)**

Sex	Socio-economic group	Daily life		
		Improvement	Degradation	Without change
Men	Executives, managers	64,9	6,7	28,4
	Skilled employee	57,1	13,4	29,3
	Skilled worker	56,5	14,3	29,2
	Unskilled worker	57,2	15,4	27,4
	Total	58,4	12,7	28,9
Women	Executives, managers	72,5	8,0	19,5
	Skilled employee	73,3	7,4	19,3
	Skilled worker	60,4	14,4	25,6
	Unskilled worker	40,2	20,4	39,5
	Total	61,0	13,0	26,0
Total		59,2	12,8	28,0

Source : R. Estrade M.-A., Méda D. et Orain R., 2001

**Table A.5.3.8 Has the reduction of working time made it easier than before? Breakdown according to the mark given to the employer (%)**

In your opinion, does your employer or your immediate superior or do those running your company take into account the fact that you have one or more dependent children very well or not at all?

	Yes	No	Total
Not at all and slightly	43	57	100
Moderately	57	43	100
Quite a bit and extremely	76	24	100
Total	58	42	100

Source: Fagnani, 2002

## 5.5 Public space

### 5.5.1 support for collective action

**Table A.5.5.1 Protesting participation from 1981 to 1999 (%)**

Already done actions	1981	1990	1999
None	50	43	28
One	27	25	33
Two	12	18	21
Three or more	12	14	18

Source: Bréchon, 2000, p.113, EVS

## 5.5.2 Cultural enrichment

**Table A.5.5.2 Regional expenditure for culture (% of regional budget, 1996)**

Proportion	Region
More than 3.5%	Nord-pas-de-Calais
	Alsace
	Provence Alpes Côte d'Azur
From 2.7 to 3.5%	Limousin
	Auvergne
	Languedoc Roussillon
	Midi-pyrénées
	Aquitaine
	Corse
	Bretagne
	Pays de la Loire
	Champagne Ardenne
	Lorraine
From 2 to 2.7%	Poitou-Charentes
	Basse Normandie
Less than 2%	Haute Normandie
	Centre
	Ile de France
	Picardie
	Franche comté
	Bourgogne
	Rhône Alpes

Source : Duboys Fresney, 2002, p.145

### *Number of self-organised cultural groups and events*

In the 20th Century, the associative sector increased considerably following the legal recognition of the freedom of association in 1901. From 1901 to 1960 the growth was relatively moderate: annual registration of new associations rose to an average rate of 1.8 percent per year. Two main sources of inspiration can be identified: social Catholicism (its influence is particularly noticeable in health and social charities and services) and ideas of the secular Left which influenced the creation of many new associations under the auspices of the Popular Front, particularly educational youth movements and popular tourist associations. Since the 1960s, there has been a rapid increase in the number of new associations: 4 percent a year between 1960-1970, 5 percent between 1970 and 1980, and 5.5 percent since then. In the last 25 years, nearly a million new associations have been registered.

It is possible to distinguish among three categories of associations. Firstly, some associative groups offer services and organize collective activities of a public service nature for large segments of the population (the social service and health associations where the catholic heritage is most noticeable and the socio-cultural associations are in charge of numerous services and activities destined both to general and specific publics such as the vast sector of "national education", sports clubs, "relief

tourism” and associative “private” schools). Secondly, the associative groups that represent, promote and/or defend the sectorial interests of members (parents, home owners, tenants, land owners, professionals, labour unions, veterans, employers and trade associations and hunting and fishing associations represent 10 to 20 per cent of the associative movement). Thirdly, the associative groups formed to defend a policy orientation or a cause (this category covers an equally diversified group of associations: environmental, women’s and other civil and social rights; local economic and social development; employment, national and international humanitarian movements; religious associations, political discussion clubs and “learned societies”).

**Table A.5.5.3 Public library**

	1990	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Number of public libraries	1614	2315	2486	2544	2656	2795
Number of books per 100 inhabitants	228	270	270	277	292	305
Lending books (thousands)	4605	6251	6449	6545	6641	6583

Source : Annuaire statistique de la France, Insee, 2002 p.305

**Table A.5.5.4 People who went to the cinema during the 12 last months (%)**

		Years			
		1999	2000	2001	2002
Men	Never	49	49	50	46
	Less than once time a month	34	32	31	34
	1 to 2 times a month	13	15	14	15
	At least 3 times a month	4	4	5	5
Women	Never	49	50	47	48
	Less than once time a month	34	33	35	34
	1 to 2 times a month	13	13	14	14
	At least 3 times a month	4	4	4	4
Total	Never	49	49	48	48
	Less than once time a month	34	33	33	34
	1 to 2 times a month	13	14	14	14
	At least 3 times a month	4	4	5	4

Source. Dumartin S. et Febvre M., 2003, Loisirs culturels 1999-2002, Indicateurs sociaux annuels, *Insee Résultats*, n°26, p.21

**Table A.5.5.5 People who went to the cinema during the 12 last months by age (%)**

		Years			
		1999	2000	2001	2002
Less than 30 years old	Never	17	15	16	16
	Less than once time a month	45	44	43	43
	1 to 2 times a month	29	32	31	30
	At least 3 times a month	9	9	10	11
30-39 ans	Never	44	44	40	37
	Less than once time a month	43	40	43	45
	1 to 2 times a month	10	13	13	14
	At least 3 times a month	3	3	4	4
40-49 years old	Never	46	49	46	48
	Less than once time a month	40	37	39	39
	1 to 2 times a month	11	11	11	11
	At least 3 times a month	3	3	4	2
50-59 years old	Never	62	61	62	59
	Less than once time a month	29	30	26	30
	1 to 2 times a month	7	8	9	9
	At least 3 times a month	2	1	3	2
60-69 years old	Never	71	73	69	67
	Less than once time a month	23	22	23	24
	1 to 2 times a month	4	4	6	7
	At least 3 times a month	2	1	2	2
70-79 years old	Never	83	84	78	80
	Less than once time a month	13	12	16	16
	1 to 2 times a month	2	2	4	3
	At least 3 times a month	2	2	2	1
80 years old and more	Never	91	90	91	92
	Less than once time a month	6	7	7	6
	1 to 2 times a month	2	2	1	2
	At least 3 times a month	0	1	1	1
Total	Never	49	49	48	48
	1 to 2 times a year	34	33	33	34
	3 to 11 times a year	13	14	14	14
	At least 1 times a month	4	4	5	4

Source. Dumartin S. et Febvre M., 2003, Loisirs culturels 1999-2002, Indicateurs sociaux annuels, *Insee Résultats*, n°26, p.20

**Table A.5.5.6 People who went to concerts or theatre during the 12 last months, by sex (%)**

		Years			
		1999	2000	2001	2002
Less than 30 years old	Never	66	61	61	60
	1 to 2 times a year	17	18	20	19
	3 to 11 times a year	13	16	14	15
	At least 1 times a month	4	5	5	6
30-39 ans	Never	73	74	68	65
	1 to 2 times a year	15	14	19	18
	3 to 11 times a year	9	9	10	13
	At least 1 times a month	3	3	3	4
40-49 years old	Never	72	70	70	69
	1 to 2 times a year	15	15	17	15
	3 to 11 times a year	10	11	10	13
	At least 1 times a month	3	4	3	3
50-59 years old	Never	72	69	67	69
	1 to 2 times a year	14	16	16	17
	3 to 11 times a year	12	13	13	10
	At least 1 times a month	2	2	4	4
60-69 years old	Never	77	73	69	70
	1 to 2 times a year	12	14	14	15
	3 to 11 times a year	9	11	15	12
	At least 1 times a month	2	2	2	3
70-79 years old	Never	85	79	79	81
	1 to 2 times a year	9	12	10	10
	3 to 11 times a year	4	8	9	8
	At least 1 times a month	2	1	2	1
80 years old and more	Never	95	94	90	90
	1 to 2 times a year	3	3	6	6
	3 to 11 times a year	2	2	3	3
	At least 1 times a month	0	1	1	1
Total	Never	73	71	69	68
	1 to 2 times a year	14	15	16	16
	3 to 11 times a year	10	11	12	12
	At least 1 times a month	3	3	3	4

Source. Dumartin S. et Febvre M., 2003, Loisirs culturels 1999-2002, Indicateurs sociaux annuels, *Insee Résultats*, n°26, p.22

**Table A.5.5.7 People who went to museum, art gallery or ancient monument during the 12 last months by sex (%)**

		Years			
		1999	2000	2001	2002
Men	Never	58	56	55	54
	1 to 2 times a year	21	21	20	20
	3 to 11 times a year	16	18	19	20
	At least 1 times a month	5	5	6	6
Women	Never	55	55	53	52
	1 to 2 times a year	21	19	19	20
	3 to 11 times a year	19	19	22	22
	At least 1 times a month	5	7	6	6
Total	Never	56	55	55	53
	1 to 2 times a year	21	20	19	20
	3 to 11 times a year	18	19	20	21
	At least 1 times a month	5	6	6	6

Source. Dumartin S. et Febvre M., 2003, Loisirs culturels 1999-2002, Indicateurs sociaux annuels, *Insee Résultats*, n°26, p.25

**Table A.5.5.8 People who went to concerts or theatre during the 12 last months by sex (%)**

		Years			
		1999	2000	2001	2002
Men	Never	75	72	70	70
	1 to 2 times a year	14	14	16	15
	3 to 11 times a year	8	11	10	11
	At least 1 times a month	3	3	4	4
Women	Never	72	70	68	67
	1 to 2 times a year	14	15	16	17
	3 to 11 times a year	11	12	13	12
	At least 1 times a month	3	3	3	4
Total	Never	73	71	69	68
	1 to 2 times a year	14	15	16	16
	3 to 11 times a year	10	11	12	12
	At least 1 times a month	3	3	3	4

Source. Dumartin S. et Febvre M., 2003, Loisirs culturels 1999-2002, Indicateurs sociaux annuels, *Insee Résultats*, n°26, p.23

**Table A.5.5.9 People who went to museum, art gallery or ancient monument during the 12 last months by age (%)**

		Years			
		1999	2000	2001	2002
Less than 30 years old	Never	54	55	55	51
	1 to 2 times a year	24	21	20	22
	3 to 11 times a year	17	19	20	21
	At least 1 times a month	5	5	5	6
30-39 ans	Never	56	52	49	52
	1 to 2 times a year	21	26	22	20
	3 to 11 times a year	19	18	23	22
	At least 1 times a month	4	4	6	7
40-49 years old	Never	51	52	49	50
	1 to 2 times a year	23	21	20	21
	3 to 11 times a year	20	21	24	23
	At least 1 times a month	6	6	7	6
50-59 years old	Never	52	52	51	47
	1 to 2 times a year	20	19	20	23
	3 to 11 times a year	22	21	20	23
	At least 1 times a month	6	8	9	7
60-69 years old	Never	56	54	52	50
	1 to 2 times a year	21	17	20	18
	3 to 11 times a year	17	22	20	24
	At least 1 times a month	6	7	8	8
70-79 years old	Never	68	65	67	69
	1 to 2 times a year	17	16	13	13
	3 to 11 times a year	11	14	15	14
	At least 1 times a month	4	5	5	4
80 years old and more	Never	87	82	84	83
	1 to 2 times a year	7	9	7	9
	3 to 11 times a year	4	6	7	7
	At least 1 times a month	2	3	2	1
Total	Never	56	55	55	53
	1 to 2 times a year	21	20	19	20
	3 to 11 times a year	18	19	20	21
	At least 1 times a month	5	6	6	6

Source. Dumartin S. et Febvre M., 2003, Loisirs culturels 1999-2002, Indicateurs sociaux annuels, *Insee Résultats*, n°26, p.24



## 5.6 Personal relationships

### 5.6.2 Personal support services

**Table A.5.6.1 Kind of child care used by families with young children in 1998 (%)**

	Households with at least one non schooling child (under three years old)	Households where children are at school		
		With at least one child under 6 years old	Without child under 6 years old	Total
Only free child care	33.4	45.6	69.0	60.3
Of which :				
-by household member	14.1	21.3	44.9	36.1
-by friends or acquaintance	13.9	15.6	18.3	17.3
-by household member, friends and acquaintance	5.4	8.7	5.8	6.9
Only one child care	52.7	40.4	24.0	30.1
Of which :				
- nurse	34.3	-	-	-
- child minder at home	5.2	-	-	-
- day nursery/crèche	13.2	-	-	-
- care by employed person	-	24.6	10.4	15.7
- leisure centre, study	-	15.8	13.6	14.4
Several kind of care	13.9	14.0	7.0	9.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100

\*Households with one or several child aged under 11 whose mother works

Source: Guillot O., 2002, p.216,

**Table A.5.6.2 Percentage of the population whose daily activities include looking after children without pay, 1999**

	EU	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
Men	19	22	27	24	10	12	14	17	18	-	31	16	8	23	-	21
Women	31	37	32	30	32	29	24	36	38	-	40	33	28	31	-	30

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

**Table A.5.6.3 Percentage of the population whose daily caring activities (either looking after children or adults) prevent them from undertaking the amount of paid work they would otherwise do, 1999**

	EU	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
Men	4	8	12	-	7	7	1	6	5	-	4	2	1	5	-	-
Women	27	23	21	-	29	35	20	42	21	-	50	44	23	14	-	-

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

### 5.6.3 Support for social interaction

**Table A.5.6.4 People thinking that community facilities lacks according to town size (3 answers are possible) (%)**

	Rural surround- ing	Small town	Town	City	Paris and its suburbs	Paris	Total
Activity for young people	21	16	17	17	14	6	17
Business	32	15	12	14	22	14	20
Swimming pools or sports facilities	15	15	7	13	8	12	12
Car park	5	11	16	18	17	35	13
Public transport	18	13	9	8	9	5	12
Cultural places	9	9	7	10	11	10	9
Green spaces	3	7	9	13	11	18	9
Meeting places	7	5	7	7	6	6	6
Communal activity information	4	3	5	5	2	7	4
Schools	5	2	1	2	2	1	3
Nothing lacks	35	41	42	38	36	30	37

Source: Dumartin S. et Taché C., 2001, *Mode de transport utilisés par les ménages*, Insee, p.44

## **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 acces to a hosptial 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**

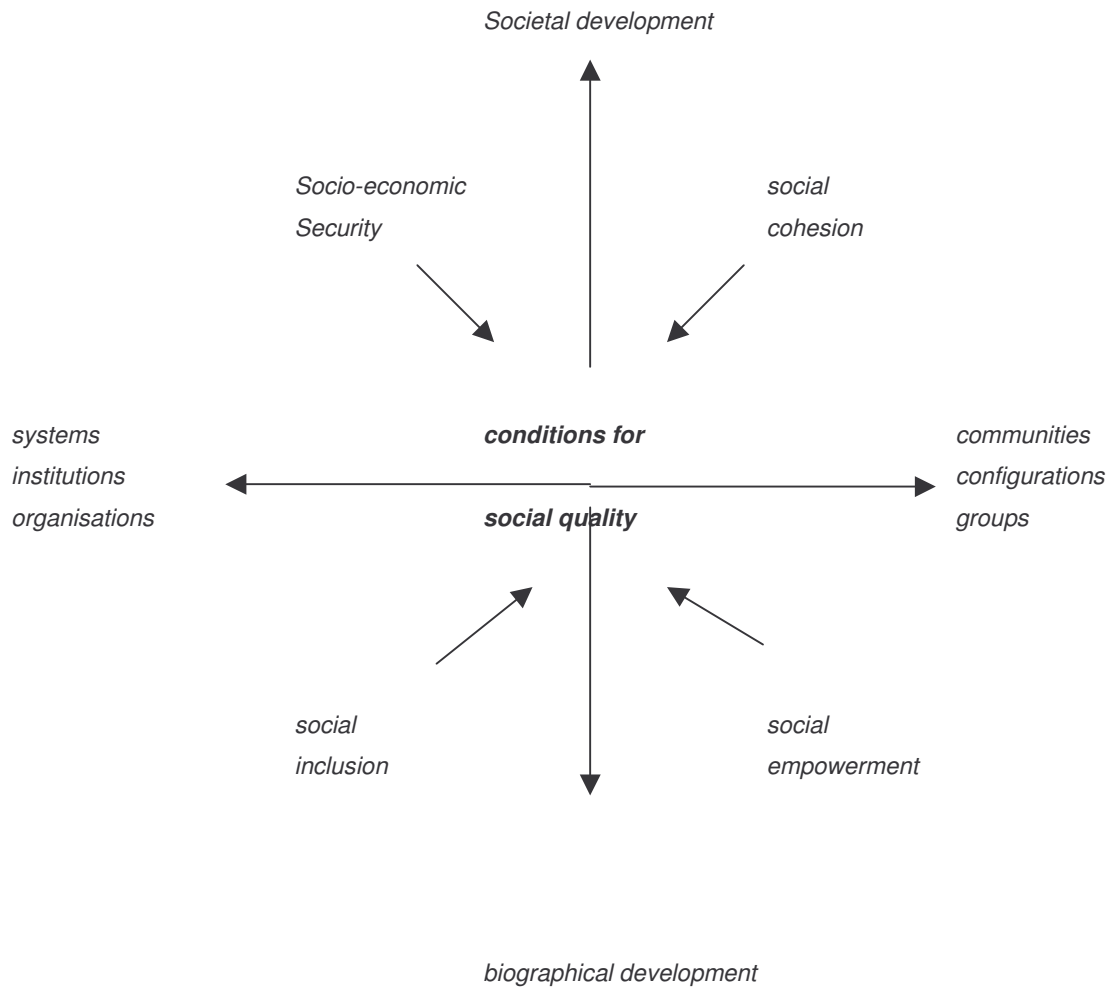
A fundamental problem of any comprehensive theoretical approach is to grasp the structural and dialectical interdependence of what Emile Durkheim called 'social facts'. The reason for mentioning Durkheim here is that in his definition of 'social facts' he explicitly showed the supposed independence of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

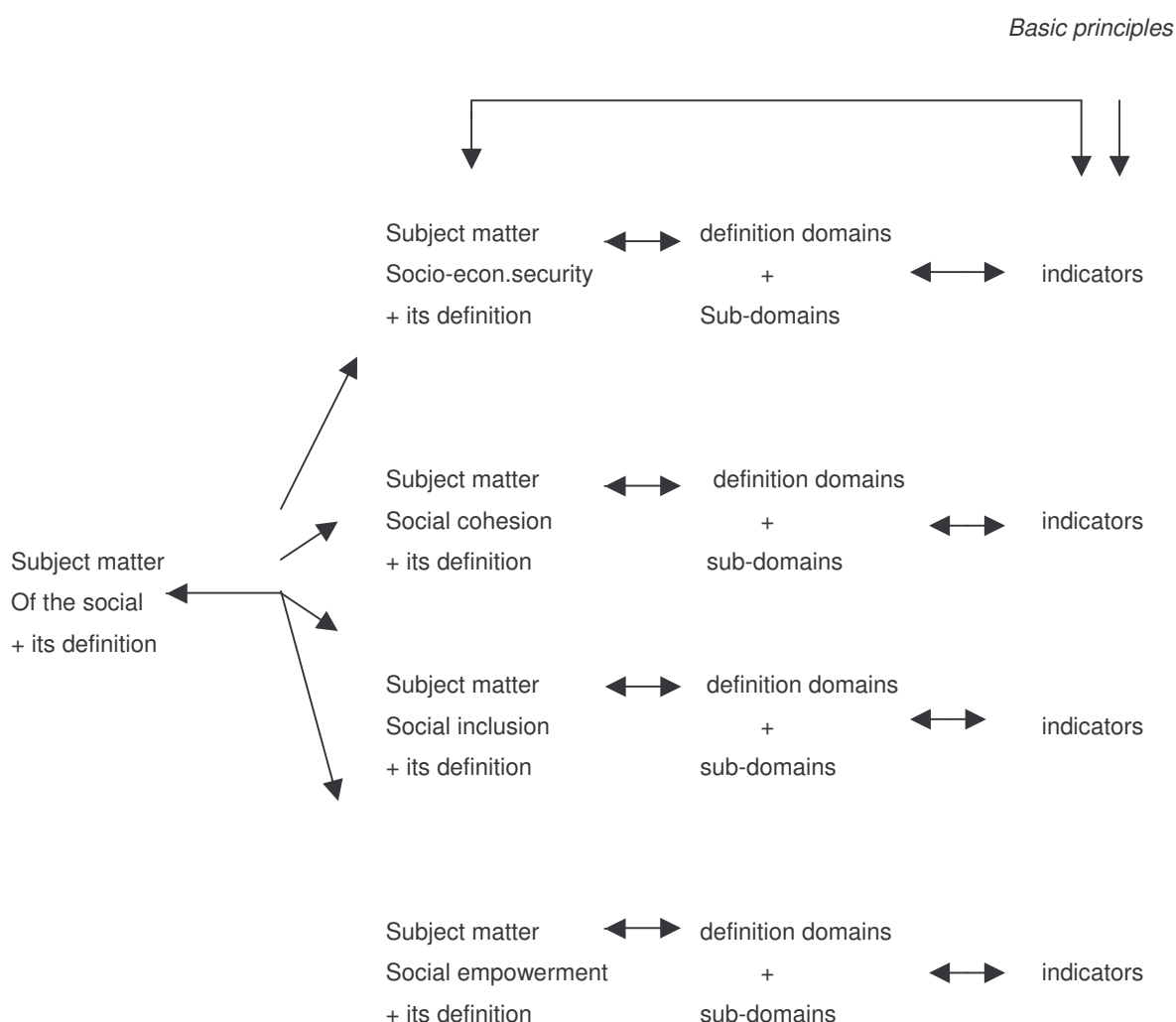
This theme is presented for the first time in the Foundation's second book of January 2001 and will be elaborated in the Foundation's third book. The relationship between the constitutional factors and the conditional factors – theoretically and practically – will be analysed. For the European Network 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



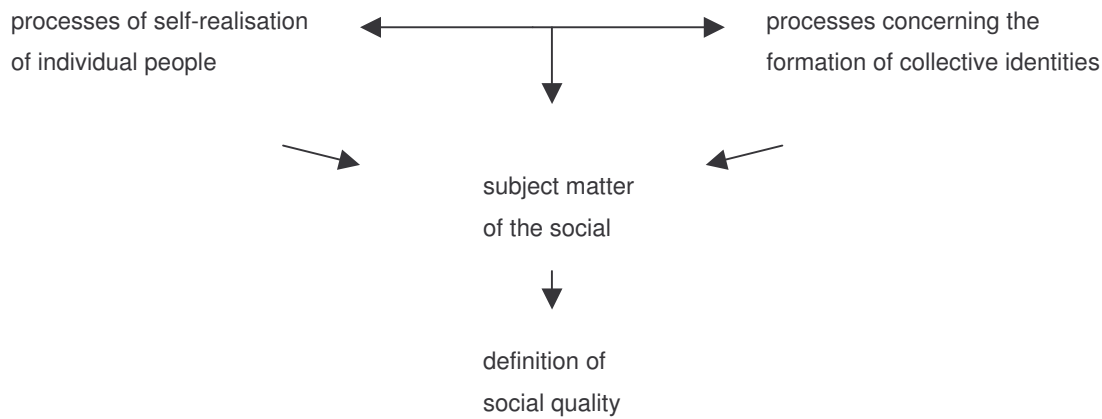
## 4.2 The definitions of the four conditional factors

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.