

European Network Indicators of Social Quality
- ENIQ -

“Social Quality”
The Hungarian National Report

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Preface

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

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

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

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

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Contents

1	Introduction	1
2	Socio-economic Security.....	3
2.1	Introduction	3
2.2	Financial resources	3
2.3	Housing securities and housing conditions	7
2.4	Health and care	9
2.5	Employment securities and working conditions.....	13
2.6	Educational securities and quality of education	16
3	Social Inclusion	19
3.1	Introduction	19
3.2	Citizenship rights	19
3.3	Labour market	25
3.4	Services	26
3.5	Social networks	32
4	Social Cohesion	35
4.1	Introduction	35
4.2	Trust.....	35
4.3	Other integrative norms and values	36
4.4	Social networks	39
4.5	Identity	40
5	Social Empowerment	43
5.1	Introduction	43
5.2	Knowledge base	43
5.3	Labour market	48
5.4	Openness and supportiveness of institutions.....	51
5.5	Public space	53
5.6	Personal relationships	54
6	Social Quality Initiatives	57
7	Conclusion	65
	References	69
	Annex Social Quality Indicators	77
	Statistical Annex	83
	Socio-economic Security	85
	Social Inclusion	97
	Social Cohesion	104
	Social Empowerment	118
	Annex Collective data	127
	Annex Social Quality theory.....	153

List of Tables

Socio-economic Security

Table 1	Proportion of household income spent on food, housing maintenance, clothing, health, and transport (%)	85
Table 2	At-risk-of-poverty rate according to employment status, 2003	85
Table 3	At-risk-of-poverty rate in households with children, 2003.....	85
Table 4	Workless household living under poverty threshold according to household type, 2002 (%)	86
Table 5	At-risk-of-poverty rate before and after transfers, 2003	86
Table 6	Dwelling distribution (%)	86
Table 7	At-risk-of-poverty rate by tenure status, 2003	86
Table 8	Proportion of households consisting of two or more families (%).....	87
Table 9	Indicators of housing density	87
Table 10	Proportion of crowded dwellings (%)	87
Table 11	Proportion of over-crowded dwellings according to size of settlement (%).....	88
Table 12	Proportion of sub-standard dwellings according to country-region, 2003 (%).....	88
Table 13	Number of individuals affected by criminal offences per 100 000 inhabitants	88
Table 14	Perception concerning the safety of the neighbourhood (%)	89
Table 15	Proportion of households living in unhealthy surroundings (%)	89
Table 16	Number of medical doctors per 10 000 inhabitants	89
Table 17	Changes in the number of the hospital beds per 10 000 inhabitants (1990=100%)	89
Table 18.1	Proximity to hospital according to income level, 2002.....	89
Table 18.2	Proximity to general practitioner's surgery according to income level, 2002	90
Table 19	Life expectancy at birth.....	90
Table 20	Proportion of individuals aged 15-64 with serious sickness in 2000 (%)	90
Table 21	Proportion of individuals with long-term illnesses according to income situation, 2002 (%)	90
Table 22	Proportion of individuals regards their own health status bad (%)	91
Table 23	Indicators on infants' nurseries.....	91
Table 24	Proportion of children aged 3-6 enrolling nursery school and kindergarden(%)	91
Table 25	Indicators on family and child care allowances (%).....	91
Table 26	Proportion of elderly (aged 60 and over) receiving home-care service (%).....	92
Table 27	Time spent on unpaid childcare in an average day (minutes), 2000.....	92
Table 28	Proportion of employees with temporary contract (%)	92
Table 29	Socio-economic composition of employees with different job contracts in 2000 (%)....	92
Table 30	Job mobility rate, 2003 (%).....	93
Table 31	Proportion of employees leaving their last job involuntary (%).....	93
Table 32	Options concerning return to the labour market after maternity leave (% of females in maternity leave)	93
Table 33	Proportion of employees in part-time work (%)	94
Table 34	Number of hours employees typically work a week	94
Table 35	Incidence of work accidents.....	95
Table 36	Highest education of population aged 15-64, 2001 (%)	95
Table 37	Early school leavers, 2003 (%).....	95
Table 38	Labour market exclusion in young population (%)	96

Table 39	Proportion of young individuals (aged 15-29) experienced labour market exclusion according to education (%).....	96
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Social Cohesion

Table 1	Proportion of individuals (with election rights) voted in elections (%)	97
Table 2	Proportion of individuals experiencing any kind of discrimination (%)	97
Table 3	Women's pay as a proportion of men's in different occupations (%)	97
Table 4	Women's participation in the general elections as candidates and elected representatives (%).....	98
Table 5	Women's participation in the local elections as elected mayors and elected representatives (%).....	98
Table 6	Proportion of women in high managerial and high professional occupations (%).....	98
Table 7	Proportion of Roma in high and medium managerial as well as in high professional occupations (%)	98
Table 8	Proportion of long-term unemployed among all unemployed (%)	98
Table 9	Proportion of those who <i>does not</i> attend medical doctor in the case of health problems, 2000 (%) (individuals aged 15-84).....	99
Table 10	Some estimates on the number of homeless in Hungary.....	99
Table 11	Proportion of individuals in full time education at different ages (%).....	100
Table 12	Proportion of individuals with secondary school diploma continuing their education at tertiary level by parents' education (%)	100
Table 13	Proportion of all and poor households receiving mean-tested social transfers, 2001 (%)	100
Table 14	Data on long-term residential social institutions and clubs for the aged population, 1993=100%.....	100
Table 15	Main data on family assistance services	101
Table 16	Number of adults who live in homes for the disabled.....	101
Table 17	Proportion of households having credits and savings (%)	101
Table 18	Number of cultural facilities per 100 inhabitants.....	101
Table 19	"Do you regularly attend theatre, museum, or concerts?" – by household income level.....	102
Table 20	Proportion of individuals <i>not having</i> friend; (persons aged 18-x) (%)	102
Table 21	'How often do you meet your friends?'; (persons aged 18-x) (%)	102
Table 22	Time spent alone on an average day (minutes)	102
Table 23	Time per day spent on socialising in different countries (minutes)	102
Table 24	Time spent on socialising with family in an average day, 2000(minutes)	103
Table 25	Proportion of individuals receiving family assistance in the preceding year of the survey, 2002 (%).....	103
Table 26	Proportion of households receiving and giving inter-household assistance by income level (%)	103

Social Inclusion

Table 1	Proportion of the population who thinks that most people can be trusted, 2002.....	104
Table 2	Proportion of the population who thinks that most people can be trusted by education level in Hungary, 2002	104
Table 3	Trust in different institutions in European countries 2002/2003	105

Table 4	Trust in different institutions in Hungary, 2002	105
Table 5	Trust in Hungarian country's parliament by education level, 2002.....	106
Table 6	Trust in legal system by educational level in Hungary 2002	106
Table 7	Trust in the Police by age groups in Hungary, 2002	106
Table 8	Trust in politicians by educational level n Hungary, 2002	106
Table 9	Number of Hungarian cases being referred to European Court of Human Right.....	107
Table 10	Proportion of the population for whom work, family, friends, leisure time, politics is quite or very important in its live in different countries	107
Table 11	Proportion of the population for whom work, family, friends, leisure time, politics is quite or very important in its live in Hungary	107
Table 12	Volunteer work and informal help among persons aged 20-74	108
Table 13	Data about Blood donation in Hungary.....	108
Table 14	Proportion of different opinions according to the inclusion of immigrants in different countries, 2000	109
Table 15	Proportion of different opinions in connection with the cultural identity of immigrants in different countries	110
Table 16	Tolerance of other people's self-identity, beliefs, behaviour and lifestyle preferences	111
Table 17	Proportion of respondents who would not like to live in a dwelling where neighbours belong to the following social groups.....	112
Table 18	Proportion of beliefs of causes of poverty in different countries.....	112
Table 19	Proportion of respondents who think that would actually do something practical for the people in their community/neighbourhood in Hungary	113
Table 20	Total time spent on domestic work by persons aged 20 to 74, 2000	113
Table 21	Childcare among parents living as couple with children aged up to 6	114
Table 22	Proportion of people membered of non-governmental organizations (NGO's) in different countries, 2002/2003	115
Table 23	Proportion of households with children by grandparents help.....	115
Table 24	Proportion of households with children by the form of grandparents help	115
Table 25	Frequency of contact with friends by gender, 2001	116
Table 26	Frequency of contact with friends by age-groups, 2001.....	116
Table 27	Frequency of contact with friends by education level, 2001	116
Table 28	Proportion of respondents according to the since of national pride	116
Table 29	Proportion of people by self-identification in different countries, 2003.....	117
Table 30	Proportion of people by attachement to different geographical areas in different countries	117
Table 31	Proportion of people by attachement to different geographical areas in Hungary	117

Social Empowerment

Table 1	Percentage of population illiterate	118
Table 2	Competence poverty: proportion of educationally „poor” individuals in different countries based on literacy competences	118
Table 3	Proportion of Internet users in Hungary, 2003	118
Table 4	Digital gap in Hungary (2001-2003) and in the European Union (2002)	119
Table 5	'How often do you use the Internet?' – according to purposes of usage, 2003	119
Table 6	Internet use in different European countries (% of individuals aged 14 and over).....	119

Table 7	Rate of television subscription and average weekly broadcast time in non-commercial television channels	120
Table 8	Availability of free advocacy and guidance centres.....	120
Table 9	Trade union membership by age and sex, 2001	120
Table 10	Proportion of persons aged 25-64 studied any time in an average day, 1986 and 2000	121
Table 11.1	Distribution of companies and enterprises provide vocational training in candidate countries, 1999 (%).....	121
Table 11.2	Distribution of companies and enterprises provide vocational training in several European countries, 1999 (%).....	121
Table 12	The number and distribution of those enrolled in training outside the school system by the form of economic management of the training institution.....	122
Table 13	Reasons for working shorter hours, 1996-2000 (%).....	122
Table 14	The breakdown of households by the reception of various forms of social help, 2001	123
Table 15	Financial support offered to non-governmental organizations by citizens as 1% of their tax, 1997–2003.....	123
Table 16	Number of non-governmental organizations supported by citizens, 1997–2003	123
Table 17	Budgetary expenditures on culture	123
Table 18	Creative cultural communities and evenings with entertainment programme	124
Table 19	Proportion of persons participated in different cultural events in the preceding 12 months of the survey, 2000 %	124
Table 20	Time spend on different spare time activities in 13 European countries, 1999–2001 (perc).....	125
Table 21	Proportion of persons those are able to take a seat in the kitchen by household size, %	125

1 Introduction

In all modern societies, there is a growing uncertainty concerning the outcome of different individual choices. In a “runaway world” (Giddens, 1999), structural conditions and social norms provide less and less support or guidelines for taking decisions. As a result of this, individuals face increasing uncertainties in their everyday life. One may add here that political and economic changes in a society always result in an increase in uncertainty, because people have to adapt to new circumstances. In Hungary, social and economic conditions dramatically changed after the regime-transformation in 1990. This means that the ability of adjustment to new conditions has become one of the most – if not the most – important factor in the process of diminishing of risk and enhancing life chances. After the political and economic transition, social strains were growing in Hungary. Families were no longer stable, divorce rates have increased while marriages and birth rates have declined sharply. The declining employment rate, shrinking fiscal revenues and transfers have caused increased inequality. For diminishing risks and enhancing life chances it is required to understand and explain increasing socio-economic insecurity and general deterioration of social quality. Due to the EU enlargement Hungary faces an additional “transition”, when the ability of adjustment will be just as important as it was in the beginning of the 1990s.

As people change their behaviour in order to overcome the new difficulties that they face, old solutions for old problems lose their relevance. The main feature of Hungarian case is that the planned economic system dominated by state ownership collapsed, and subsequently a market economy emerged that was dominated by private ownership. A specialty of this development has been that the Western market economies, which could in principle provide an example and a sense of direction as to where the new democracies might wish to go, had to undergo significant changes in the last decades as well. This meant that if a post-communist country like Hungary after decades of delay caused by the communist system tried to catch up with the developed democracies, this catching-up modernization process had in actual fact to follow a moving target. This is a highly “reflexive” (Beck, 1994) form of modernization in which people have to continuously re-evaluate their positions, possibilities as well as the consequences of their decisions.

In this report we try to outline the most important elements of social quality in the conditional factors of socio-economic security, social inclusion, social cohesion as well as social empowerment in Hungary. Following the general framework, we use the common domains, sub-domains and indicators to investigate the processes in these areas. However – in order to give a more thorough picture of Hungarian situation – in some cases additional indicators will be applied. As it was referred to above, Hungary went through a large transformation in the last decade, which makes it inevitable to examine trends since the beginning of 1990s, instead of 1999 (as it is in general framework). It is also obvious from previous research that the transformation process “hits” the various population groups differently, thus, it is straightforward that indicators used in this report should be disaggregated by socio-

economic status, educational attainment, age and gender, as well as – if it is possible – by geographical regions.

Different studies, research reports and – in some cases – micro data-sets will be used in this work. To ensure the comparability of our results we used data from European surveys in all cases where it was possible. Among surveys and statistical background applied here the following should be mentioned: Household Budget Survey, Labour Force Survey, Time Use Survey, the Research programme of “Family in Transition”, ISSP survey, European Social Survey, Eurobarometer and Hungarian Census. We also use reports of international organizations, such as UNICEF, UNDP, and OECD.

The report is divided into six sections. Section 1 highlights findings that are fundamental in the field of socio-economic security. Section 2 outlines the features in the conditional factors of social inclusion; Section 3 focuses on domains and indicators of social cohesion; Section 4 points out issues and trends in the conditional factor of social empowerment in Hungary. In Section 5 we introduce several national, regional, or local initiatives on the four conditional factors of social quality. Finally, Section 6 summarises and discusses the main findings of our report in the viewpoint in national policy as well as European agenda.

2 Socio-economic Security

2.1 Introduction

Hungary experienced a sharp increase in socio-economic insecurity in the last decade. Between 1990 and 2001 the rate of relative poverty increased by half from 10 to 15 per cent of the population. By now it is well-demonstrated in the research that there exists a group of poor people experiencing multiple deprivation (*Spéder, 2002*). Given their very low skill level, they are unable to (re)integrate into the labour market, thus their participation into the mainstream society means great challenges. At the same time, the failure to reintegrate them poses the threat of dual society in which ones are trapped in long-term socio-economic insecurity and unable to share the benefits of economic and social development (*Ferge et al., 2003*).

According to numerous studies in the field (e.g. *Kertesi and Köllő, 2002*), the greatest “losers” of the last decade’s transition in Hungary were the poor-educated households: their relative income position has declined at most. On the other hand, the greatest “winners” were young people with tertiary education, whose financial status has improved substantially in the 1990s. Labour market chances are also salient factors of the risk of becoming poor. The poverty rate is greater in those families where the head of household is either unemployed or non-retired inactive, as opposed to families with an employed head. In the latter category – including household with one or more disable members – proportion of poor is far below the average. In sum, skill level and employment possibilities seem to be the most important determinants of social standing in Hungary, thus in this section particular emphasizes are put on the role of these factors in shaping socio-economic (in)security.

2.2 Financial resources

2.2.1 Income security, income sufficiency

Generally, measuring income security and income sufficiency there are two approaches: applying absolute and relative poverty indicators. As for the latter ones are concerned, Hungarian household income surveys reveal that the proportion of those living on a daily income less than 4.3 USD was about 10 per cent in the early nineties. The poverty rate steadily increased during the economic recession, reaching its peak in 1996 with 18 per cent of poor. From then on its value decreased continuously, and by the end of the decade only 6 per cent of the population belonged to the poor. It should be noted that this decrease in the poverty rate also reflects the substantial decline in the local currency value of the poverty line in the second half of the nineties.

Proportion of household income spent on food and overheads can be a useful indicator for measuring income sufficiency. Hungarian Household Budget survey showed that in 2000 the per capita monthly current consumption expenditure of households belonging to the lowest decile was by 2% higher than

in 1997, while that of households in the highest decile by 16%. In 2000 the per capita monthly expenditure on food of households was about 6-7% higher than in mid-nineties. Money spent on food kept falling in real terms up to 1997, then, following the rapid increase in volume in 1998-1999, and it levelled off after the end of the decade. The disparity in the current consumption expenditure of upper and lower income deciles grew. Everyday costs of households in the low income deciles – food and overhead costs – were higher than the average (64%). This share is below the average in the high income group (44%). However, the actual differences manifest themselves in quality rather than in quantity. In the last years of the nineties, households in the lowest deciles significantly increased their meat, vegetable and fruit consumption, but still lagged considerably behind the level of the higher income households. Out of them families without any employed person and with three or more children lived under the hardest circumstances. Nearly 300 thousand children live in this group, 13% of the child population.

A notable increase in household income inequalities occurred between the late 1980s and early 1990s. After a short period of stagnation, the Gini coefficient began to rise at the second half of the decade, reaching a maximum rate of 34 %, and after 1998 it was levelled off at 33%. Despite the significant increase in market income dispersion, total household incomes (including public social transfers and social insurance benefits) display a lower level of inequality. This is due to the inequality reducing effect of social policy (Szivós and Tóth, 1998). As for the trend in relative poverty rate is concerned, the value of the most popular measure of it – the ratio of those having income lower than 60 per cent of the median income – was 11 per cent at the beginning of the 1990s, and after 1995 the figure fluctuates around 13 per cent.

Individuals' education appears to exert the largest impact on the distribution of and the changes in income inequalities in Hungary. According to a recent study (Tóth, 2003), in 1987 only 8 per cent of the total household income inequalities was explained by household head's educational attainment; by 2001 this figure has risen to 27 per cent. It is also apparent that the role of employment increased remarkably in the first half of the 1990s, with the poverty risk almost doubling for those living in households without any employed member.

A study (Bukodi and Róbert, 2003) revealed that – similarly to other European countries – non-employment comes in couple in Hungary, in other words, there is a trend toward polarisation of households. Due to the high marriage homogamy and huge regional differences in employment opportunities, an increasing proportion of households have become “work-poor” without any member in paid employment, and another group of them has become “work-rich” where all adult members have a secure job. In the former category, the risk of becoming poor is extremely high, and the chance to get above poverty line is very low.

Following the change of regime, significant and increasing regional inequalities developed on the labour market. On the one hand, some regions were heavily affected by the decline socialist heavy industry, and on the other hand, foreign capital investments flowed to the regions that could supply

more educated population and were located closer to the main western trade routes. The regions around Budapest and western Hungarian cities with large proportion of skilled workers were the most attractive.

In Hungary – similarly to other Central European societies – the problem of “working poor” should also be discussed. For households where the head is in waged-employment the risk of poverty almost 80 per cent of the average – compared to 69 per cent in EU (*Klugman et al.*, 2002). It means that in transitional countries for many people work does not help to pull out of poverty because work is poorly paid, or there are not enough members of the household in paid employment, or both. While in EU-15 one earner in the household is sufficient to reduce the poverty risk to below average, this is not the case in post-socialist countries. The most important reason of it is that these societies are characterized by widespread low pay. In addition, in the last decade there was sharp increase in earning differences among those who do have paid employment in transition countries. Changes in the Gini-coefficients for earnings are larger than that of household income even in countries where overall income inequalities has risen modestly (*UNICEF*, 2001).

In Hungary the distribution of earnings has widened at both extremes of distribution. The incidence of low pay – measured by monthly earnings below two-thirds of the median of full-time employees – was 22 per cent in 1999, and it exceeds substantially the OECD average 14 per cent. As for temporal changes are concerned, for men there was an increase in the proportion of low paid workers in 1990s; for women there was no real variation in this respect. One obvious consequence of the widespread occurrence of low pay is the relatively high degree of poverty among working families.

It is straightforward that there is a strong relationship between poverty and individuals' life-cycle. In western countries children and old-age people have particularly higher risk of living in poor material circumstances – compared to mid-age individuals. In transitional countries the pattern is somewhat different: for elderly the poverty risk is lower than the average (*Klugman et al.*, 2002). In Hungary, although the income situation of elderly also deteriorated in the nineties, it did so to a less degree than among active people. In the population aged 60 and over, the ratio of individuals living on incomes lower than half of the median fluctuated around 3 per cent in the 1990s. However, among elderly, those living alone and/or small villages are particularly exposed to becoming poor.

As for the income situation of families with children is concerned, research shows that they carry a high poverty risk. In 1991 the ratio of children aged 0-2 living in households with incomes lower than the poverty threshold was 7 per cent in Hungary, while by the Millennium that figures had climbed to 17 per cent. At the beginning of the new century, the ratio of the poor was exceptionally high among families with three or more children as well as among single parent families; and the risk of becoming poor has significantly increased over the past ten years in these groups (*UNDP*, 2004).

In the situation outlined above the role of social transfers can be very important. When individuals are not able to enhance their life chances (create opportunities or improve capabilities) and diminish their

risks, social help could increase their security. Hungary's social protection system consists of social assistance programs and labour-related social insurance benefits such as pensions and unemployment benefits. The basic elements of the social safety net are pensions, public health care, unemployment benefits, family support and social assistance. In general, the central government is responsible for universal benefits, while local governments for means-tested benefits. In addition, local governments are free to launch social assistance benefits.

The Hungarian social security system as a whole is structured to be broad and flexible, and it provides benefits for different life situations and different individual needs. About 90 per cent of the households among the poor (which is the lowest income third of the population) receive social transfer benefits (*Ferge et al.*, 2003). It should also be underlined that the amount of social benefits paid is low. Consequently, payment of the various forms of social insurance, allowance, and assistance do not significantly improve the situation of most poor households. In fact, even with the addition of these benefits, their income remains below the 'socially acceptable minimum' as calculated by the Central Statistical Office (*Ferge et al.*, 2003).

Family-benefit system is traditionally well-developed in Hungary (see about later); the question is whether changes in the effectiveness of it in the nineties reduce the child poverty or not. As it was mentioned above, in the last decade there was a relative worsening of the income position of families with children in Hungary, and this trend was accompanied by an increase level of targeting by attempts to exclude higher income households from the benefit system. A study emphasises that family benefits contributed to reduce significantly child poverty in Hungary; however, the pace of this reduction decreased between the first and the second half of the 1990s (*Förster and Tóth*, 2001).

As for the unemployment compensations are concerned, different measures are available in Hungary. The unemployment insurance (UI) is available for a limited period. The maximum benefit is 65 per cent of the average income for the past 4 years spent in employment. The maximum of UI duration was gradually reduced from the initial 2 years to 9 months, as unemployment increased in the early 1990s. Hungary provides unemployment assistance (UA) to those whose eligibility for UI has expired. This long-term unemployment benefit is offered to those having a per capita household income below 80 per cent of the minimum old-age pension. This assistance was of unlimited duration until 1995, when a 2-year limit to entitlement was introduced.

The share of unemployed individuals receiving unemployment compensation of any kind has always been above 70 percent since 1991, though it has been slightly declining in the past few years. Since 1994 the number of those receiving UI has fallen, while the number of those obtaining UA has grown. In 1995 only half of the registered unemployed received UI compared to figures of 75-80 percent in 1991 (*Micklewright and Nagy*, 1999).

As research quoted by *Commander et al.* (1995) indicates, the benefit / wage ratio used to be rather high for low-income workers in the beginning of the 1990s, resulting in low inclination for job search.

But the average amount of unemployment benefit has decreased steadily relative to the average earnings in the second part of the decade. In 1999, the ratio of average unemployment benefit to average gross earnings was almost 30 percent (*Laky, 2000*). As a result of this decline combined with the recent increase of minimum wage, the difference between the minimum wage and unemployment compensation has been increasing.

2.3 Housing securities and housing conditions¹

In the nineties two main processes directed the transformation of the Hungarian housing system: the very liberal housing privatisation policy and the re-arrangement of the municipal system. The first ten years of transition must be characterised primarily by the 'give-away privatisation' of the former public housing stock to sitting tenants. As a consequence, the share of public housing dramatically declined. At the same time social polarisation, processes of social segregation and social exclusion became more and more evident. Due to the radical re-arrangement of the roles and duties of central and local governments (i.e. decentralisation) these two levels appeared as new independent agents and stakeholders in the housing market. Hungarian housing provision is as follows: 88% owner occupation; 3% private rental; 4% social rental and 5% others.

The extremely high share of owner-occupation is probably the greatest structural tension within the Hungarian housing sector exacerbated by the limitless housing privatisation since 1991. About half of the owner-occupied dwellings are found in the form of single-family houses, the others are in multi-apartment buildings. Private rentals represents a very small part of the whole stock, but it is presumably slightly higher as renting out privately owned flats is a part of the hidden (or informal) economy mainly for taxation reasons. Public rental flats owned by the local governments are actually the residue of what had been an extensive state housing sector before the transition (today only 4% of the total stock).

Hungarian housing policy has changed considerably several times, both in goals and practice, in the post-1945 period. Until 1960 the presence and role of the state in the housing market increased continuously due to aggressive nationalisation: this process started with the step-by-step nationalisation of tenement blocks between 1947 and 1953. A new phase of housing policy was started in 1960, with the so-called 'Fifteen Year Housing Development Plan' which was intended to satisfy housing needs in full. The late 1960s and 1970s were the 'golden age' of communist housing policy. During this period the egalitarianism was fostered by the redistribution of the housing stock among the poor. Between 1960 and the early 1980s the role of the state still remained dominant, mainly due to large-scale housing construction programmes. However, the whole housing market went through a gradual liberalisation and private forms of housing were accepted, or even supported by the regime, which was unique among the communist countries.

¹ This subsection heavily rests on the results of the NEHOM (2002) project financed by European Union.

Compared to other East European countries, the so-called 'private housing sector' as well as the market for privately owned real estates survived even the hardest period of the command economy. It has always played an important role in the Hungarian housing market, even in urban areas. Therefore, the Hungarian way of the transformation of the housing system after 1989 has got certain peculiarities. From the early 1980s, mainly due to economic recession, the state started a slow withdrawal from the housing market which was accelerated by the political changes of 1989-1990. A fundamental aspect of the transition was the radical re-arrangement of the roles and duties of central and local governments. Until 1990 housing in general, and social housing construction and finance in particular, were the responsibility of the central state (i.e. government), whereas the allocation of dwellings and maintenance of public housing remained the task of local councils. In 1990, as part of the democratic reform of the public administration system, local housing property was transferred to the newly formed municipalities, who also had to elaborate and implement their own housing policies. The first ten years of transition could be characterised mainly by privatisation of the former state housing stock. In 1990 22 per cent of the dwelling stock in Hungary was state-owned, by January 2002 this ratio had dropped to 4,3 per cent. The privatisation of state housing in Hungary meant a 'give-away privatisation' to sitting tenants – as it was mentioned above. This practice, in addition to no restrictions on re-sale of the dwellings, made privatisation of public dwellings very attractive for residents and meant that some public dwellings especially in an attractive green environment or with an inner-city location could be re-sold at prices many times what had initially been paid at the privatisation. Tenants living in the residual public stock are now predominantly households with multiple disadvantages e.g. no regular income, disabled, families with many children, Roma /gypsy families. Therefore, serious social problems are attached to the remaining public dwelling stock, which has basically two types: 1) inner-city tenement blocks, built at the turn of the century; and 2) high-rise housing estates, built during communism.

One of the best indicators of general housing condition is the proportion of over-crowded dwellings. In this respect there are huge differences according to size of settlement in Hungary. Inhabitants of the capital (Budapest) are in the most favourable situation: in here only 4 per cent of the flats are too small compared to the number of their tenants. However, in small villages this share is above 7 per cent. In 1999 13 per cent of dwellings did not possess basic amenities (pipe water, gas, WC). However, during the last decade there was a substantial improvement in this respect in Hungary, especially in small towns or in villages. In the early nineties 43 per cent of dwellings in villages did not have pipe water system, but at the end of 1990s this share was only 20 per cent. Similar trend can be observed in the case of other amenities. As a result of these processes the proportion of the dwellings under the national quality standard dropped to 14 per cent by 2003.

As a recent *UNDP report* (2004) underlines, there was a significant progress during the nineties towards to ensure the environmentally sustainable development in Hungary. Between 1992 and 2002, the ratio of households in small villages without running water dropped from 30 to 12 per cent. The proportion of households connected to the waste collection system also increased substantially, especially in small settlements. With environmental pollution, economic restructuring during the

nineties brought a significant decrease in heavily polluting industries, and as a result, pollution levels decreased significantly.

In spite of these favourable processes, a quite large part of Hungarian population lives in unhealthy surrounding; it is particularly true for Budapest. In the capital, 54 per cent of households claim that they live in a dusty neighbourhood; 43 per cent of them complain about the air pollution, and 17 per cent of about polluted surrounding. It is obvious that in villages these proportions are lower, but even in these settlements more than 30 per cent of families live in dusty environment.

2.4 Health and care

2.4.1 Health services and health status

It is straightforward that the poor health status may lead to extreme difficulties in finding a job, which results in huge deterioration in socio-economic position. From this point of view, health status is one of the other resources, which essentially defines the chance of diminishing risks and enhancing life chances. After the communist rule, Hungary transformed its healthcare system from centralised state control to a more decentralised model. Contracts between local governments and providers have replaced direct ownership, and privatisation within healthcare has grown since 1989. Influenced by both the French and German healthcare systems, funding is now predominantly through social insurance.

Hungary's healthcare system is financed through the Health Insurance Fund (HIF), which is primarily responsible for recurrent health care costs. The HIF collects premiums at the national level and allocates funds to 20 county branches, which in turn enter into contracts with health care providers. Although the owners of health care provider organisations (usually local governments) are responsible for capital costs, in practice this usually takes the form of grants from the national budget. The HIF is also under-financed, and the state government is obliged to cover its deficit. The result is a mix of tax and social insurance-based funds responsible for financing Hungary's system (*Gaál et al.*, 1999).

In recent years the focus of the health care system has been shifted to primary care. Patients are encouraged by the government to seek referral from a GP to limit access to expensive healthcare measures, although in many cases they can go directly to a specialist if they wish. While GPs are meant to be involved in preventative medicine and education, their role continues to be a prescription and referral service (*Orosz and Burns*, 2000).

In Hungary's current system, most healthcare provision is operated by the local governments. Municipalities own primary care and outpatient clinics, and municipal hospitals provide secondary care. County governments run county hospitals that provide secondary and tertiary care. Some private, church owned hospitals exist, but most still operate under HIF financing. Most pharmacies are privatised, but the overall role of the private sector continues to be minimal (*Gaál et al.*, 1999).

In common with many post-socialist countries, Hungary's healthcare system has been plagued by over-provision, over-supply of resources (including doctors) and duplication of services. Reforms focused on limiting the number of hospital beds, but failed to cut costs significantly because hospital infrastructure (including personnel and number of facilities) remained unchanged. In contrast to the over-supply of doctors, there is an under-supply of nurses. This results in doctors performing the duties of nurses - an ineffective misuse of resources (*Orosz and Burns, 2000*).

Within the EU-15, 45 per cent of those in the lowest income quartile and 60 per cent of those in the highest quartile have easy access to hospitals within 20 minutes (*EFILWC, 2004*). Thus people with lower income have worse access to hospitals. In the new EU members, the income gap is much larger — with a difference of 26 percentage points on average. The difference between top and bottom income groups is particularly large in Hungary (more than 30 percentage points), indicating that a significant share of people lack the proper hospital care. Rural – urban differences are another important dimension of inequality in health care access. In the new member states (and candidate countries), the rural–urban gap is just as important as the income gap. Whereas only about 5 per cent of the citizens living in cities need more than one hour to get to a hospital, about one-fifth of the population in the countryside needs this amount of time. Hungary reports the most severe problems of hospital supply in rural area. Within the EU-15, proximity to a doctor's surgery is not related to income. In the post-socialist countries the income gap is usually higher, reaching 10 percentage points on average. The situation of Hungary in this respect is even worse: 66 per cent of adult population in the lowest quartile cannot reach the GP's surgery within 20 minutes.

It is straightforward in some respect that the poor level of health services results in poor health status; and poor health status may lead to extreme difficulties in (re)integration into labour market resulting in huge deterioration in socio-economic position. Although in the last decade the life expectancy at birth has increased gradually for both sexes in Hungary, it is much lower than in EU-15, and lower than in most new member states. As for the self-reported morbidity is concerned, 14 per cent of individuals aged 15-64 suffered in a serious sickness in 2000. There were not significant differences between males and females in this respect. However, there is a strong relationship between employment status and the incidence of sickness. Only 8 per cent of employed men reported that he had a serious illness, but for non-employed males – aged 15-64 – this share was substantially higher, 27 per cent.

The prevalence of long-term illness varies with income level in all European countries (*EFILWC, 2004*). Social inequalities are somewhat more marked in the new EU-members. In the EU-15 the difference between the highest and the lowest income groups is 10 percentage points. On aggregate, the prevalence of long-term illness grows monotonously as income declines in both parts of Europe. As for Hungary is concerned, almost half of the individuals in the lowest income quartile suffer in long-term illness, this share is only 17 per cent in the highest income quartile. It means that the differential role of financial situation is the largest in Hungary in EU. However, a substantive interpretation of these findings is difficult because the available data tell us little about the mechanisms which link income to long term illness. The causal order of the two variables remains unclear. Hence we do not

know if people with lower incomes are more exposed to have long-standing illnesses or if people with long-standing illnesses are more likely to have low incomes. A crucial question with respect to socio-economic security is to what extent long-term illness is concentrated among the poorer strata if we control for age, gender and employment status.

Taking the subjective judgements into account, there is a significant improvement in individuals' health status in Hungary. In 1994 32 per cent of males aged 60-64 regarded their own health status poor or very poor; by 2002 this proportion has declined to about 20 per cent. Similar trend can be detected for all other age groups and for females. However, in European context this share should be regarded even very high.

2.4.2 Care services

Under the state socialism, occupational welfare was the key source of care service entitlement in Hungary. Work was not only moral obligation but essential welfare passport. Social security was managed by trade unions, health care as well as child care was available also at work. Welfare institutions provided by firms still exist, however, it has reduced and has become more uneven. Employers' capacities to provide care has become more unequal, and differences in provisions between different employees within firms is growing (*Pascall and Manning, 2000*).

With municipal kindergarten enrolment, it has slightly increased in last years. In the early 1990s, 87 per cent of children aged 3-6 enrolled in kindergarten, and this share has climbed up to 92 per cent by the end of the decade. This fact can make it easier for women to take a job after maternity leave. The question is whether it is an "enough help" for females aiming at returning paid employment after child-birth (see about that later).

As it was posed earlier, Hungarian family transfer system can be regarded well-developed. Family and child benefits in Hungary include child-care benefits, child-raising benefits (family allowance and schooling allowance), maternity benefits (pregnancy benefit, one-time birth allowance, and sickness benefit for the term of caring for a sick child), and other benefits (e.g. child protection benefit). (While the family allowance and child protection benefits are considered the income of the child, the rest are considered the income of parents caring full time for their children.)

Child-care fee (GYED) is an insurance-based benefit, available for the first two years of a child's life to those parents who have paid social security contributions for at least 180 days in the last 2 years prior to the birth. The benefit is equal to 70 percent of the parent previous wages (but no more than twice the minimum wage) and can be paid to either parent who takes care of the child full-time. Child-care aid (GYES) is currently a universal support, first introduced in 1967 as an insurance-related benefit. It is available for those parents who do not qualify for GYED (who has less than 2 years of insurance payment) for the first three years of a child's life and equivalent to the minimum old-age pension. During the period of entitlement the parent is not allowed to be in employment until the age of 1.5 of

the child. After that time, the recipient is permitted to work part-time or even full-time if he/she works at home. Child-raising support (GYET), introduced in 1993, was designed to serve the interests of families with three or more children in their own households, as long as the youngest child is aged 3-8. The monthly amount of benefit, irrespective of the number of children raised, is equal to the minimum pension. Parents receiving child-raising support can work part-time. Full-time employment is allowed only if the parent works at home.

Despite the decline in the number of births, the number of women receiving childcare benefits of any kind kept rising every year. The Labour Account registered nearly 250 thousand (mainly mothers) recipients (27% of the females' inactive population of working age) in 1999. The bulk of them received child-care fee (GYED) or child-care aid (GYES), while the rest obtained child-raising support (GYET).

The family allowance is currently a universal benefit paid for children until the age of 6. Recently it has accounted for the largest share of family and child benefits. After the age of 6, eligibility to family allowance expires and is replaced by the schooling allowance. This is also universal (payable until the age of 16, or 20 for those studying full-time). It is supplemented by the child protection benefit in the case of low-income families (families with net per capita monthly income below the minimum old-age pension).

Moving to the field of care for elderly, due to the ageing population, there is a growing need for old age homes. Currently nursing homes care for approximately 60,000 persons, i.e. less than 1 percent of the population. Nursing homes are controlled by municipalities and operate partially on central government funding (capitation payment) and on co-payment by the elderly and/or their families. Basic services, including medical treatment, are provided for a nominal fee based on the individual's monthly pension. Special needs, like private rooms, are provided for an additional charge. As the capacity of the state-run nursing homes does not meet the requirements, privately built and managed nursing homes are being established. The owners are typically charity organizations, foundations, and private companies. These institutions provide higher quality services on cost-recovery basis with limited or no government support. Some municipalities run "day-care" institutions, where the elderly spend as much time as they wish during the day for a nominal fee. They are provided with basic services, however they return home for the night. Also many municipalities have social assistants on staff who provide "visit for social care" for the needy (deliver meals, shopping, etc). The general trend in care policy leads towards mobile care services to enable elderly people to stay in their familiar surroundings as long as possible. Thus, the percentage of people aged over 60 receiving home help seems to be a useful indicator to measure paid care services. In 2002 it was about 7 per cent in Hungary, which should be considered relatively low.

While the need for formal caring is rising all over Europe the role of the family in care provisions cannot be questioned. The most useful data sources for investigating unpaid care work are time use studies. According to a very recent Hungarian survey – it was conducted in 2000 –, women spent much more time (31 minutes on an average day) on unpaid child care than men (14 minutes). Of

course, for females with small children this time investment is much larger, than for their counterparts without child. In European perspective Hungarian women spend the most time on housing tasks and child-care duties. It is a particularly crucial problem for employed females for whom this double burden may lead to serious deteriorations in their life-style and life satisfaction.

2.5 Employment securities and working conditions

'Risk society' theorists tend to speak about a generally increasing instability of modern life (*Beck*, 1992). But it appears that the spread of the different forms of flexible employment result in a relative increase in social inequalities as risks do not affect workers in the same way (*Breen*, 1997). In fact, employers try to shift their market risks increasingly back to those groups of employees who are less capable and have fewer credentials like young job seekers, migrants, or members of ethnic minorities. But some groups that profited from the spread of long-term labor contracts during the period of the economic growth, such as routine non-manual employees, lower grade technicians, and supervisors of manual workers also experience a decline in job security. Furthermore, certain indicators of employment relations typical for the working class, like poor promotion prospects and a higher risk of unemployment, etc., tend to be applied to the specific non-manual, intermediate occupations (*Rubery*, 1996).

The dual labor market was an existing phenomenon in Hungary even under socialism (*Galasi* and *Sziráczki*, 1985). But a segmented labor market in the sense that employees in the primary segment enjoy stable careers and those in the secondary segment suffer from employment instabilities (*Carroll* and *Mayer*, 1986) has become more apparent in the 1990s. In the last decade, the Hungarian Labor Force Surveys have registered albeit small, but slightly increasing numbers of temporary workers. There is evidence that mainly those who are not in regular employment and performing seasonal work declared themselves as temporary workers in the surveys (*Laky*, 2001).

In the nineties the informal economy in transition countries has increasingly become the focus of both policy and academic research. This is the result of a growing concern with corruption, tax evasion and crime as well as with an increase in poverty and inequality. Given this wide spectrum of concerns, studies have used a variety of definitions of the informal sector depending on the question they are addressing. Moreover, the term 'informal sector' has been used interchangeably with 'hidden', 'underground', 'second' or 'shadow' economy. *Sik* (1992) adopt 'second economy' definitions to describe the informal sector in Hungary, and uses the lack of regulation as the main defining criterion. Similarly, *Commander* and *Tolstopiatenko* (1997) argue that the transition economy can be divided into two sectors: the informal sector, which is comprised of private activities that are largely untaxed, and the formal sector, comprised of state activities (including privatised state enterprises) that face a set of payroll taxes. Moreover, they suggest that all part-time work can be considered informal, or 'undeclared', and all full-time work is formal and subject to payroll tax. *Lackó* (2000) suggests another

approach to measure the extent of informal sector in transition economies. She argues that household electricity consumption provides the best measure of the informal economy, as it permits the isolation of the structural changes during transition that may be responsible for part of the increase in overall electricity consumption. She adopts a definition of the 'underground' economy, which includes 'activities that are assumed to be measured but escape official registration or measurement' (Lackó 2000, p.119). According to her estimates the extent of hidden economy was about 20 per cent in Hungary in the second half of the nineties; and it was substantially lower than in 1992-93, right after the transformation of the regime.

The public and the private sectors also provide a particular cleavage for insecure employment. The new private economy works more rationally than the remaining state economy with respect to employment, so the safety of lifetime jobs persisted only in the public sector. However, only insiders are protected in the public sphere. While the private sector is more selective on an economic basis, there are strong administrative budget constraints within public employment. New public job openings are scarce and, consequently, fixed-term, insecure employment is more frequent for outsiders who try to gain access to employment there.

A widespread indicator of employment insecurity is the proportion of fixed-term contracts in the labour market. With regard to it, there are various statistical figures in Hungary. According to Laky (2001), 17 percent of active employees worked under a fixed-term contract in 2000. However, the Labour Force Survey claims that only 7,5 percent of the employees had fixed-term contract even now. Among the individuals with fixed-term jobs, about every second has a 3 to 12 month long contract, while about one third of them has shorter contract (Vukovich, 2000). Gender differences are not marked; the proportion of workers with fixed-term contracts is about 6 to 7 percent of the employees for both sexes. However, the age differences are greater. Individuals in fixed-term jobs are over-represented among young people. With the socio-economic composition of fixed-term employees, 20 percent of them belong to unskilled workers.

According to Sik and Nagy (2002), – all in all – about one third of workers have a "flexible" job contract in Hungary. This group comprises people working without written contract (11 per cent), self-employed without subordinates (9 per cent), and individuals with fixed-term contract (7 per cent). The rest is a mixture of various forms of flexible contracts, such as temporary or casual jobs.

One of the most often posed questions with regard to "flexible" jobs whether these kinds of positions constitute stepping-stones to secure employment or they mean a way to unemployment and – as a result of it – to poor socio-economic status. There is no one clear answer to this question, because in different societal contexts it may be a step to the secure labour market career, but in other circumstances it may represent a road to unemployment. According to a current OECD-report (2002), the majority of "flexible" jobs are filled by younger and less educated employees; and these jobs appear to be less paid than permanent ones, and sometimes give less access to sick leave, paid vacancies, and so on. About one-fourth of temporary employees become unemployed – of course, it

depends on the country investigated –, while the majority of them remains in “flexible” jobs. The likelihood of mobility into permanent jobs is the lowest for individuals with small amount of human capital.

Involuntary job mobility can also be regarded as a good indicator of employment security. As for the job mobility rate is concerned, it is steadily 6-7 per cent in Hungary; in other words, this share of employees change a job in a year. With regard to the proportion of employees leaving their last job involuntarily, it had been declining in the nineties. In 1992 73 per cent of all the unemployed persons became non-employed because they were dismissed from their company or their employer bankrupted; but in 2000 this proportion was only 56 per cent. The relatively large share of this group in the early nineties was due to the economic transformation process occurred in Hungary. According to a study on labour market career mobility in Hungary in 1990s, the period after system transformation can be divided into two parts (*Bukodi and Róbert, 2002*). The first period up to the 1993 can be characterised by more turbulence in the labour market compared to the second after this date. In the first period, any type of job mobility was frequent, but the occurrence of status loss or ‘forced’ mobility was higher. In the second part of the period the likelihood of employment career movements declined significantly, and ‘unforced’ mobility got a larger emphasise.

It is straightforward that the number of small children affects women’s employment opportunities. In Hungary, in spite of different welfare measures survived the socialist times, females with small children – in particular after maternity leave – have higher risks to become inactive, or if she managed to keep her job, the probability of (temporal) status loss is quite high (*Bukodi and Róbert, 2003*). Especially private firms may reduce their demand for women’s labour, if they have small children. This pattern can be captured by recent data on labour market opportunities of women with small children: 33 per cent of them claim that their previous employer is reluctant to employ them again after their maternity leave (*Frey, 2002*).

For women balancing between work and family responsibilities one of the most obvious solutions is to take a part-time job. However, part-time work may mean different things to different people: for someone it means an advantageous work schedule which gives opportunities to supplement family income or/and which helps to maintain ties to the labour market. But, for others – who are unable to get full-time work – it is a “forced” employment status. In addition, part-time employment is an enormously varied phenomenon in Europe. In post-socialist countries only a small part of women work in part-time jobs – even in the nineties. There may be several reasons for that: In these countries the public sector has no policy to give part-time employment for women, and the private sector avoids creating part-time jobs because it increases their transaction costs. Private employers may feel that part-time jobs are too expensive for them, because of equal security given to these kinds of jobs as to full time jobs, but without the same amount of time invested in part-time employees. And, – due to the relatively low wage level – two “full-time” earnings are needed for most of the families to ensure the appropriate living conditions.

The incidence of part-time work in Hungary is very low compared to the EU countries. In 1999, the EU average for part-time employment was 16.4 per cent. Surveys carried out by the Labour Research Institute among enterprises (including legal entities only) present data on part-time employment on a regular basis. According to the 1997 survey, the proportion of employees working shorter hours was around 2.1 per cent of total employment, with 1.8 per cent part-time workers among them. In 2000, the share of those working less than the usual hours went up to 2.8 per cent, including 2 per cent part-time employees (Laky 2001). Labour Force Surveys data – following the ILO recommendations – indicate somewhat higher shares of part-time employment. Part-time work in 2003 accounted for 4.3 per cent of total employment, less than one-quarter of the EU average. According to the last census, the share of part-time employment is somewhat higher, and – of course – a huge gender difference is captured. In 2001 almost 9 per cent of employed females worked in part-time jobs, and this proportion was only 2.8 per cent for employed men. There are marked differences in the incidence of part-time work by occupational classes: it is over-represented at the two extremes of the hierarchy (among females in professional and unskilled jobs).

According to a study referred to above (Sik and Nagy, 2002), there are sharp differences between males and females concerning the incidence of working time flexibility. While part-time work is more frequent among women, all other types of temporal flexibility are over-represented among males. Some form of irregular working schedules (part-time work, irregular and evening shifts) are more widespread in the youngest and in the oldest cohorts, indicating that those in the weakest position in the labour market are more likely to have temporally flexible jobs.

2.6 Educational securities and quality of education

Educational related costs amounted to about 5 per cent of all annual expenditures of the households (UNDP, HCSO, 2001). The order of magnitude of education expenses was similar to health and personal hygiene spending and somewhat less than expenditures on clothing and about one quarter of what spent on housing by household. Expenditures on the schooling of children are basically determined by the financial situation of the household. In poorer families a larger share (6 per cent) of total expenses was made up by costs of schooling than in better-off families (less than 4 per cent). This signifies that poorer families have to spend much on the education of their children (going on to further education or being trained in a profession) compared to their financial situation, sometimes even at the detriment of meeting their needs. Making these sacrifices, nevertheless, they can afford only a lower level of spending than better-off households.

It is straightforward that changes in the nature of work and technological developments have impact on the employment structures and the type of labour required. To compete internationally, and to attain the high level of productivity, firms require highly skilled employees. The increase in the demand for highly skilled labour can be investigated from various perspectives. Unemployment rates are higher and have increased at a faster pace for individuals with low education. It means that people without

any qualification are forced to face the negative consequences of structural changes in the labour market: The number of jobs for them has decreased, and the likelihood of getting unemployed or inactive has increased (*OECD, 2000a*). But, the relative labour market (dis)advantages connected to the various levels of qualification indicate significant differences between countries. For instance, in 1996, the thematic review by the OECD's Education Committee on 14 participating countries has found that Hungary is one of the four OECD countries, where the gap in the labour market outcomes between the highly educated and the poorly qualified is the greatest (*OECD, 2000b:34*).

In consequence of the historical development of the Hungarian educational system, following a German model, two basic features can be mentioned that seem to survive the regime transformation. First, tracking continues to be characteristic with a general and a vocational path both at the secondary and at the tertiary level. Second, vocational training plays a dominating role with combining abstract knowledge and job-related skills, practical work experiences – though there is an increase in the proportion of individuals enrolling general education. In principle, this system provided a relatively smooth transition from school to work under the planned economy of socialism. The highly standardised acquisition of qualifications through recognised certificates served as a good indication of skills and knowledge of the potential employees for the employers. This advantage may turn out to be more a disadvantage in the market system because the close relationship between vocational certificates and occupational opportunities may result in a high degree of rigidity for labour market entry and for further career opportunities.

In the last decades, there was an educational expansion both at secondary – particularly at vocational secondary – and at tertiary – especially college – level in Hungary. First of all, it should be emphasised that individuals increasingly acquire higher skill levels. The relative proportion of those without any qualification has been declining over time. On the other hand, proportion of graduates from lower secondary school with vocational training has been rising. Females' educational attainment has increased faster. It is supported by the fact that the proportion of females with university or college degree has increased more than for males; in 1973 only 3 per cent of women aged 25-64 belonged to this group, in 2000 already 16 per cent. All in all, according to the last census (in 2001) the share of employed with tertiary school diploma was higher for women (20 per cent) than men (17 per cent).

As for the share of early school leavers is concerned, it accounts for 11-12 per cent in Hungary, and it is somewhat lower than in EU-15. However, according to *Allmandinger and Leibfried (2003)* an alternative way to assess educational poverty is measuring the lack of basic competences among students as well as adults. In this respect PISA may be an excellent data-source, which is about competences are required in modern societies to lead a satisfying life in economic and personal respect, and to participate actively in social and political life. In their paper *Allmandinger and Leibfried* construct the four world of competence distribution based on the patterns how competence poverty and plenty are combined in each country. In some countries – like in Germany - educational poverty and plenty go hand in hand. There are few countries (e.g. Spain), which know neither the competence poverty nor plenty. Other countries are situated between the two extremes: they may know only

absolute plenty and not the poverty (e.g. Finland, Denmark, Sweden), and they may experience only poverty not the plenty. Hungary belongs to the latter category, which indicate that – in spite of the relatively low share of early school leavers – in terms of skills and competences our country is lagging behind most of the EU-15 countries.

Of course, one of the most important returns to education is the employment entry and a good job. In Hungary 8-13 per cent of young people experience employment exclusion; part of them are unable to enter into the labour market after school completion, another share of them are long-term unemployed. In employment chances (and risks) there are striking schooling differences: 25 per cent of young men (and 40 per cent of women) without compulsory education cannot find a job; for higher educated people the risk of labour market exclusion is much lower.

Concerning the transition from school to work in Hungary, a recent analysis (*Róbert and Bukodi, 2002*) underlines that young people tried to remain in the school system as long as possible, an endeavour that was supported by the educational policy of the different governments in the 1990s. Although today's young cohorts have a higher educational level than all previous cohorts, in particular women still had more chances to find a precarious job in the unskilled service or worker class at the beginning of their occupational career. Flexibility of the labour market increased in the 1990s, with the result that more and more young job seekers could enter the labour force only through involuntary self-employment. In the light of the privatization of the market, this phenomenon is sometimes evaluated positively. However, it is also the case that young people – and not just the lower educated among them - have higher odds of finding only fixed-term or other precarious jobs. In order to reduce such a risky labour market entry, more and more young people start to work already while still attending school. Data clearly show that if they start to search for a job only after completing school, and if they fail to find one, then their longer search period decreases the probability of ever entering the labour force.

3 Social Inclusion

3.1 Introduction

In Hungary instead of social inclusion the concept of social exclusion is more popular and widely used. Its dimensions and domains are defined in different ways, and indicators or measures used to characterise them are even more varied. The possible dimensions may be the following: access to production (e.g. labour market), access to different forms of consumption, political engagement and social interaction. However, the Hungarian Central Statistical Office operationalize the concept as cumulative deprivation, which means that it is defined as income poverty accompanied by housing, consumption poverty and poverty in consumer durables.

In this report the focus is on the other side of the coin, namely on the process of social inclusion, and the simple cumulative deprivation approach is challenged. In line with social quality concept, in this chapter the focal point is on the access to and level of integration in social relations.

3.2 Citizenship rights

3.2.1 Constitutional / political rights

The most important issues to be addressed here are voting rights and participation in elections, especially in local level. The principles of local government are stipulated by the Hungarian Constitution. Eligible voters of communities, cities, the capital and its districts and counties have the right to local self-government —the autonomous and democratic management of and decision making on local public affairs in the interest of the resident population. Eligible voters exercise their right to self-government by means of an elected body of representatives and by local referendum.

The significant body of local government are the board of representatives and the mayor, both of which are elected by voters of the community. Procedures for local elections are regulated by Act No. LXIV of 1994 on the Election of Local Representatives and Mayors. Suffrage is universal and equal, and voting is direct by secret ballot. All Hungarian citizens aged 18 and over who are permanent residents of a particular municipality have the right to vote and to stand in local elections. Those who are not Hungarian citizens but have permanently settled in Hungary also have the right to vote. Now the members of the county assembly also are elected directly. There are two constituencies in each county: one for settlements with less than ten thousand inhabitants and the other for those with more than ten thousand inhabitants. Voters who are residents of cities with county rights do not have the right to vote for county assembly representatives. The number of members of each assembly is fixed by legislation. Mayors of all municipalities and the general mayor of Budapest are elected directly by voters. Before 1994, in municipalities with more than ten thousand inhabitants, the mayor was elected

by the body of representatives, while in settlements of ten thousand or less inhabitants, the mayor was elected directly by voters.

General voting existed in Hungary even under the Communist times – despite of the fact that the country had only one party. Still, MPs were elected in every 4 years – even if there was just one candidate for a given seat or if there were two candidates (in the 1980s), both representing the official political line. Before 1990 participation in the elections was obligatory, registered people had no other option but vote. This resulted in a proportion of about 95 per cent or even higher for taking part in the elections. Thus, we provide information on participation for the last four ‘free’, multiparty elections.

One can see that the proportions are not high and we interpret this that many people were happier to live with the right of not voting (participation was not mandatory) than with the possibility of voting for other parties than the communists. Voting history is short in Hungary and one cannot speak of any trend in participation so far – at least for general parliamentary elections. Political scientists expected a decline in the trend and they were surprised to see the increase for 2002 (70 per cent); they explained this with a wish for a strong ‘protest’ voting. Participation at local elections (for local governmental bodies, mayor) has always been lower but here we can observe a slight increasing trend. It seems that local politics is getting closer to ordinary people in Hungary.

3.2.2 Social rights

The predecessor of the current Hungarian public pension system, established in 1929 as a funded plan, collapsed during World War II. After the war it was re-designed, and by the 1980s it reached a high level of maturation with near-universal coverage, generous replacement rates (over 60 percent) and low retirement age (55 for women, 60 for men) (*Gál and Tarcali, 2003*). It succeeded in protecting the old from poverty through the transformational crisis in the 1990s. While pensions lost value relative to wages, and while real pensions decreased substantially, other sources of income for the inactive declined much faster. Consequently, the relative income status of pensioners improved significantly during the 1990s. This made the pension system very attractive for older workers: the actual retirement age dropped due to early retirement and the loss of control over disability retirement. The rapid growth of coverage in a shrinking economy diminished the range of pensions creating further disincentives to work. The administration of pensions also proved successful. While most firms changed ownership in the process of mass privatization, and the number of companies exploded, the pension agencies managed to collect and redistribute a significant part of GDP even though with declining efficiency. Indeed the system proved to be too successful in some sense. Being the only institutional system settled and at the reach of policymakers, it absorbed a disproportionate part of the labour market crisis of the early transition years. It offered an escape route to hundred thousands of workers from the labour market who cannot be re-integrated into the labour market any longer. This undermined the long term stability of the system and induced an extensive reform in 1998 (*Gál and Tarcali, 2003*).

A comprehensive reform package was passed in 1997 and came into effect on January 1, 1998. The private pension law established a new pre-funded contribution type of system (the second pillar) managed by private companies. Fund membership was made optional for those who had earned pension rights in the old system but mandatory for new entrants to the labour market. The option was left open for 20 months. Voluntary switchers were allowed to return their full contributions to the social security. The second pillar covers only longevity risk. Fund members who get disabled can return to the first pillar by returning their savings to the social security. By this, they can fully re-cover their eligibility in the first pillar. Alternatively, they can also leave their savings in the fund. In this case, however, social security pays only 75 per cent of what would have been paid otherwise as disability pension.

The social security pension law enacted reforms in the first pillar (public pension). It changed several elements of the old-age entry pension formula. Rules of the survivors' benefits also changed. In addition to the own right pension, a widow has also been eligible for the widow benefit since 1998 which is 20 per cent of the pension of the deceased spouse. The law also confirmed the raising of retirement age legislated but suspended before. According to the new rules, the retirement age for men was raised from 60 to 61 in 1998 and to 62 in 2000, whereas for women it was raised by one year every second year and will reach 62 in 2009.

According to a recent survey (Ferge et al., 2003) poor people in general do not have a clear picture of the pension system or the mechanisms of retirement. The majority of them expect to receive old-age pension in the future while only about half of them pay contributions or know about this payment. For instance, 19 percent of working poor people thinks that nobody pays any contribution for them (this happens if someone works illegally, but this should not be true in all other cases), and only 13 percent believe that the contribution is paid both by themselves and their employer. Also in this survey respondents were asked in a separate question whether they had pension insurance. Their answers are more or less similar to those made on the payment of contributions. Most of the active earners and child-care grant recipients are insured, while the unemployed and other inactives seem to have a very precarious future. Among the unemployed poor households, the uninsured segment is very large: over 20 per cent. Occupation (or education) makes a difference among working people; for instance, there is a significant difference between the skilled and the unskilled workers. Another important finding is that almost 40 per cent of the self-employed (or own account workers) are inadequately insured.

3.2.3 Civil rights

Experiencing discrimination is an important indicator for this sub-domain what we approach from two aspects. First, we provide information on the proportion of those who feel that they were discriminated by some way. Second, we computed a concrete measure for those who were discriminated in a concrete field, namely in paying differently for the same (similar kind of) work activities.

Our first indicator comes from survey data (ESS) and displays the proportion of discriminated persons, disregarding the concrete field or event of discrimination (about what the survey does not provide information). The survey was carried out on a sample of randomly selected respondents who were expected to represent the national population aged over 14 all over the country. In Hungary, about 5 per cent of this population claimed that they have experienced any kind of discrimination in their life. It is hard to tell whether this proportion is higher or low, (we would say it is rather low). Two facts should be taken into account when interpreting this result: respondents could decide themselves if they judge an action against them as a discriminative one or not; this decision is influenced by the general climate for civil rights in a country, i.e. how sensitive people are for the facts if they are discriminated. We believe that the communist ideology before 1990 was not very helpful for developing such sensitivity in Hungary. Consequently, we believe that Western respondents would consider some actions as discrimination, while this is not the case in Hungary. It means that the general mean (5%) for experiencing discrimination may be under-estimated. Gender discrimination seems to be an issue, which is not more frequent than average discrimination. Finally our data indicate that discrimination increases from the older to the younger age groups; i.e. younger people suffer from more discrimination than older ones. We have to be cautious with this result just because of the fact mentioned above: younger people can be more sensitive or more self-confident than older ones just because they were socialized in the more democratic post-communist era. Consequently we are not sure that younger people meet really more discrimination in Hungary than older ones.

It seems that persons belonging to a minority group suffered from discrimination to an exceptionally high degree. We believe that these answers came from respondents belonging to the group of gypsies. Discrimination against them (e.g. they have difficulties to find employment or they are paid less for the same work) is quite regular in Hungary and is discussed in the media frequently.

Other studies – conducted by different bodies - have also consistently indicated that Roma continue to experience widespread discrimination in education, employment, the criminal justice system and access to public services (*OSI, 2001*). The well-documented practice of placing Roma children into separate schools for the mentally handicapped and/or segregating them into classes with inferior curricula and lower teaching standards ultimately contributes to high levels of unemployment and dependence upon local authorities for the distribution of welfare and other forms of social protection. Roma experience discrimination: approximately 48 per cent of complaints submitted to the ethnic Ombudsman in 2000 were filed by Roma against local governments (*OSI, 2001*).

In fact, it is a bit surprising that women do not complain more about discrimination, while it is quite common experience in Hungary that they earn less in the same (similar) occupations in comparison to men. We made a calculation for this based on data on earnings from the main job as provided by the Hungarian Labour Office. Information was not available on the level of concrete jobs but only for major occupational groups. Indeed, it seems that women are discriminated in this sense – though we are not able to control for the exact gender differences in the distribution of the concrete activities within these broad categories.

In the first years after system transformation, differences between males and females earnings declined significantly. Data suggest that the earning gap dropped by half between 1989 and 1992; but there were no substantial changes after that: the raw gap was stabilised around 20 per cent (Köllő, 2002). However, investigating gender pay gap in different sub-groups, important differences can be captured (Kertesi and Köllő, 1996). First, a drop in gender wage-gap primarily occurred in the traditional low-paid sectors (farming, food processing, construction, health care), and among middle aged employees. Second, there was an increase in gender pay-gap for occupations requiring higher education. Third, due to the drops in wages in regions of high unemployment, which hit females harder than males, in these regions earning differences has increased in the first few years of transformation.

The pay gap for unqualified women continued to decline after 1995. Following 1992, earnings for middle-educated females grew slower than they did for females with only primary education. In this category, however, males' wages grew even more slowly, and the result was a nearly 10 per cent drop in the earnings gap. As for the tertiary school graduates are concerned, the gap increased somewhat in the first half of the 1990s, then it became significantly wider in 1995-98 (Köllő, 2002).

3.2.4 Economic and political network

As for women's political rights concerned, their participation rate in Parliament and in local governments can be considered crucial indicators. In 1980 almost one-third of the MPs were women; however, in the first election following the change of regime women's rate in Parliament dropped drastically (to 7 per cent). The results of the second general elections showed an emerging tendency that did not continue later. Over the elections women were at a disadvantage positions already at the start, because only a small proportion of the candidates were women, though the continuous increase of their rate is a favourable tendency. In the elections their disadvantages was growing: their chances of being elected were worse than that of their male counterparts. The low rate of women in Parliament is brought about decisively by voters. In the nineties the rate of females elected directly in the elections was only about 3-9 per cent. In most cases voters' assumption is rooted in the insight that a representative's mandate requiring lots of time and energy can be better experienced by men whose household tasks and child-rearing burdens are less.

In consistency with the international experience, local governments gave females more chances to undertake a public role. Both among candidates and elected members of the municipalities women's participation increased in the nineties. In smaller settlements women got in local governments more seats than in larger cities. Here also the so-called pyramid-principle is in play: on the top positions women have worse chances than in lower posts (CEDEW, 2000).

In the past Hungarian women seemed to be located in a considerably narrow range of occupations, especially in routine clerical, unskilled and agricultural jobs. However, there is a uniform turn away from the unskilled jobs in productive branches into the jobs that require higher qualification in service

and administrative sectors. Comparison of the data from 1973 and 2000 shows a growth of 6 percentage points in women's proportion in higher professional and managerial occupations, while the proportion of females in unskilled jobs have declined from 55 per cent to 30 per cent during this period.

The Constitution of the Republic of Hungary protects the interests of national and ethnic minorities by granting them the right to collective participation in public life, including the establishment of their own self-governments at the local and national levels. Such rights are reinforced by several parliamentary acts regulating national and ethnic minority rights. Each national and ethnic minority group has the right to form its own local self-government in the settlement in which it resides. National and ethnic minority self-government may be organized by three methods on the local level and by one method on the national level (*Temesi*, 2002). Each minority group may establish settlement governments in villages, cities and the districts of Budapest directly or indirectly. In the capital, local minority government may be established directly. A municipal government may declare itself a minority government if more than half of its elected representatives are of a certain national or ethnic minority. If more than thirty per cent of the local representatives are of the same minority, they indirectly may form a local minority government comprised of at least three members. A minority group may form only one local minority government established either directly or indirectly. Regardless, the functions and powers of local minority governments are the same as those of local governments. The office of the representative body of local government is obligated to assist the activities of local minority governments under conditions regulated by its statutes. In making decisions concerning issues such as education, local traditions and culture, and language use, the local government must obtain agreement with the local minority government of the concerned ethnic group. In addition to the right to elect national and ethnic self-governments, each minority group may elect a speaker. The speaker is the candidate of the national or ethnic minority group who received the highest number of votes in general local elections. If he or she is not elected to the representative body, he or she has the right to participate in its sessions.

In addition to minority self-governments, Hungary has established an independent institution to monitor the implementation of minority rights and investigate complaints of violations – the Parliamentary Commissioner on the Rights of National and Ethnic Minorities (the Ombudsman). An active non-governmental sector, including minority and human rights organisations frequently challenges discrimination.

It would be very important for Roma population – in order to being able to influence political decisions – to have an own, relatively large high professional and managerial stratum. However now it is not the case. According to the data of last census only 0.2 per cent of Roma belongs to elite class of the society (for non-Roma this share is about 5 per cent).

3.3 Labour market

3.3.1 Access to paid employment

Labour force participation is a highly important indicator with a special relevance in Hungary. One has to take into account that Hungary under communism was characterised by full employment, complete access to paid work. Consequently our time series is not very long again as unemployment was not present before 1990. We provide two indicators for missing access to employment and they are the long-term (= more than 12 months) and the very long-term (= more than 24 months) unemployment. Our data indicate quite large proportions for long-term unemployment within the whole unemployed population. (Obviously, the second indicator is not present for 1992 yet and it cannot be large for the first indicator either when unemployment histories do not go back longer time than 2 years.) However, for the later points in time almost half of the unemployed spent a period between 1 and 2 years out of the labour force, and about every fourth unemployed could not return to work for longer time than 2 years. These proportions drop somewhat for the very recent times in 2003: 40 and 20 per cent.

Leaving the unemployment system can happen in various ways. Previous research revealed that the probability of getting a job falls with age (though not linearly) and those with higher qualifications are more likely to return to the labour market (*Micklewright and Nagy, 1994; Galasi and Nagy, 1999*). Training was also an option for younger and more educated unemployed. Entry into subsidized work did not seem to be affected by individual characteristics, while transition to self-employment implied low hazards. Public work was a typical exit in less developed regions of the country that had a high unemployment rate. The local unemployment rate in general had a strong negative effect on re-employment. However, the most likely way to leave the unemployment register is that the entitlement expires without finding any job or joining any program (*Micklewright and Nagy, 1999*). It is also typical that unemployed people (re)-enter the labour market in short-term, unsecured jobs and return to unemployment soon after. About 60 per cent of males registered as UI recipients in 2000 had been unemployed at least once before in the nineties (*Klugman et al., 2002*). According to *Bukodi and Róbert (2002)*, men with more unemployment experience have significantly more risk to be pushed out of the work force (again) than males without it. This result calls attention to an important feature of the Hungarian labour market of the nineties: many people were forced to swing between employment periods and unemployment episodes that were likely short-term.

The Labour Force Survey usually provides data on the reasons for shorter working hours. In 2002, 5.3 percent of the employed (not including those working flexible hours) worked less than 40 hours per week. It is important to note, however, that this segment is not identical with part-timers. Almost half of those working shorter hours hold a job in which the regular working time is less than 40 hours. Only the other half can be considered as voluntary or involuntary part-time workers. One in five respondents indicated that they did not intend to work full-time. The share of those working shorter hours because either they could find no full-time work or could not be employed full-time (for the lack of work assignment) was 14.5 per cent in 2002 (*Laky, 2003*).

From the viewpoint of the employers' interests in Hungary they are keener to offer jobs to people on the basis of such contracts when job seekers will not be officially employed but are required to provide a bill for their work. This makes possible for the employer to save the social security costs they ought to pay after a regular employment. Consequently, these employees are forced to be self-employed because they can have access to paid work only as own-account workers, so this is a kind of involuntary self-employment. The proportion of self-employed without subordinates in Hungary is quite large, as much as about 10 per cent of the total labour force according to the last census. Of course, it is difficult to tell again whether the concrete decisions on being an own-account worker are voluntary or involuntary.

3.4 Services

3.4.1 Access to health services

In Hungary health coverage is universal and provides access to all ambulatory and hospital health care. All citizens are covered, regardless of employment status, with the government paying contributions for groups such as the unemployed and pensioners. Health insurance contributions are collected from employees as well as from employers who pay 15 per cent of the employee's gross salary plus a so-called 'healthcare contribution'. The population also pays local and national income tax, which helps to finance the investment costs of health care. Patients make co-payments on certain services, including pharmaceuticals, dental care and rehabilitation. These out-of-pocket payments have increased substantially since 1990, and currently contribute about 18 per cent to health care financing (Gaál, 2002).

Actual access to health services can be approached in different ways. Here we do not deal with the kind of 'physical' access based on the regional distance, i.e. how far somebody lives geographically from health institutions. This is discussed in the part of our paper on socio-economic security (SES), which represents another quadrant. For social inclusion, however, it is important how much access somebody has to health services based on their own willingness for using the existing opportunities. Based on survey data we developed an indicator, which describes whether somebody decides not to see a medical doctor in the case of health problems even if he or she could go to a health institution. This indicator refers to social inclusion in the sense that some people exclude themselves from using health services in need. Exact reasons for this behaviour (e.g. they do not have time or they do not trust in medical doctors) are not known but the indicator is meaningful anyway and we can have hypotheses for explanation.

One can see nearly every tenth adult Hungarian belongs to this group who occupy a disadvantaged position for social inclusion in this respect. Looking behind this mean value we can try to tell more about the phenomenon. Not visiting a medical doctor in case of health problems is more frequent for those who are in labour force, so it is possible that they have no time, they do not want to be absent

from work. Unemployed people are similarly over-represented but we think of another background reason for them, namely being sick can decrease their chances to find a job. Other inactive people represent a heterogeneous group, but many of them are young mothers with small children. Again they may have no time or they may miss somebody who can take care of the child while they visit the doctor. It is obvious that retired or disabled people are under-represented for this indicator. Finally, it seems that income matters in the sense that people with lower income tend to exclude themselves from health services with higher probability.

According to *Ferge et al. (2003)*, the problem of poverty does not seem to prevent access to medical treatment, or at least it seldom does. However, the implementation of the prescribed treatment seems to be affected. In the referred study it was asked whether an occasional income deficiency (for instance, at end of the month) affected drug expenditures, and another question was posed whether the family could buy all the prescribed drugs. Half of the poor households declared that they did not have difficulty in either cases, one fifth claimed that both problems occur, and the others had one or the other problem. The households where the impact is greater than average are those with fewer working members, where there are pensioners, where per capita income falls below the sample average, and particularly the Roma families.

3.4.2 Access to housing

Homelessness seems a new phenomenon appeared around the change of the regime in 1989. To understand homelessness in Hungary, it is necessary to discuss briefly the basics of the socialist housing model (*Hegedűs and Tosics, 1996*). The new housing system introduced after the take over of the socialist-communist parties at the end of the 1940s, was part of the system of planned economy. The income of people was strictly controlled and the cost of housing was not included in their salaries, as it was considered as a state service, provided free to the citizens. There was also direct control introduced on the consumption side: one family could only have one flat to avoid the “over-consumption” of housing and in order to eliminate the private rental sector. Up to the end of the 1980s, there was virtually no problem in Hungary with paying rents, mortgages, utility fees, as these were fixed at a nominal level and even low-income people could afford them. From the 1970s on, the output of new state-financed construction of housing was increased. As a result, the housing situation improved and more and more people have had access to some form of housing. Those who did not, had to live with their parents, sub-let a room in a flat from someone, or live in the workers hostels of their employer. Homelessness was considered as a criminal activity: people living on the street were collected by the police and sent to prison or health care institutions. Only one ‘night shelter’ for 16 people was being operated during the socialist (*Erdősi et al., 2003*).

In the middle of 1980s *Utasi (1987)* published the first study focusing on homelessness in Hungary, in which the researchers made about 100 in depth interviews with different aged homeless people. The author used the term of homelessness in the broader sense (including not only the rough sleepers, but all other groups who did not have permanent housing) and estimated their number not to be more than 30-60 thousand on the country level. This study very explicitly demonstrated that some groups of

vulnerable people existed. There were thousands of men and women in the situation of homelessness during the final years of socialism, who could later become one of the basic groups of (rough sleeper) the homeless population after in 1989.

In 1990 the number of 'effective homeless' was estimated around 10-15 thousand people and those number who were at risk of becoming 'effective homeless' could be around 300-400 thousand people by the experts of the new governmental department for managing homeless problem (*Iványi, 1998*). At that time *Győri (1990)* described the following main groups of homeless people based on the experiences of social workers: young who escaped from their families, children and young who escaped from the system of state orphanage or becoming age 18 left the system, young and middle aged drug users, alcoholics, people who are psychical and somatic ill, disabled people, old age, demented hobos, former prisoners, criminals, casual labourers, former commuters, former dwellers of workers' hostels, unemployed, divorced, evicted. With the collapse of the socialist economy many people suddenly lost their jobs and the workers hostels were also closed down. At the same time in the housing sector market mechanisms were introduced - as it was outlined in SES.

As a result, a substantial portion of society suddenly faced payment difficulties and got into arrears. In the first half of the 1990s these people were still protected directly by the political unacceptedness of eviction. The political rationale was the idea that at least the security of living somewhere should be maintained, even if the security of employment, stable income, etc. disappeared.

However, from the second half of the 1990s the housing policy became more and more market-orientated, without the introduction of comprehensive systems to protect the poor. The responsibility for housing was transferred to the local governments, without giving them appropriate financial means from the central budget to enable them to set up a social safety net. In Hungary the protection of families in arrears has been gradually diminishing as local governments and privatised utility companies started to collect their rents and fees more efficiently and also started eviction procedures against families in arrears. All these factors threaten with a huge increase of homeless people, as there are no or only very weak and limited social and political mechanisms developed to protect people, who are being evicted, from becoming homeless (*Erdősi et al., 2003*).

According to the main conclusion of NEHOM (2002) project, there are two possible approaches available for combating recent trends in social exclusion in housing market: a new social housing programme initiated by the national government, and involvement and action by local governments based on their own capacity. Local governmental interventions against social exclusion focus on maintenance and allocation of the social housing stock, allocation of social allowances for the most needy and support for needy families to purchase their own flat. In 2000 the housing policy of Hungary entered a new phase of development through which a stronger co-operation and interaction between the public and private (both domestic and foreign) sectors became possible. The new social housing programme was initiated and launched by the Hungarian government. In the framework of the programme, municipalities can apply for state funding in order to raise the number of disposable rental

units in the following ways: 1) they can build new flats; 2.) they can renovate old tenancies; and 3.) they can also buy dwellings in the free market and then renovate them for rental purposes, or convert non-residential buildings into tenement blocks.

At present the activity of local municipalities related to the social housing sector concentrates mainly in three fields: 1) Maintenance and allocation of the social (i.e. public rental) housing stock. This housing stock basically comprises the old tenancies. In most cases the municipalities can not re-allocate rentals except when they are empty. In 2000, a new measure was introduced to strengthen the ownership rights of Hungarian municipalities by making it possible to evict tenants in the case of missing payments or illegal occupancy. 2) Allocation of social allowances (such as flat maintenance benefits) for the needy: the main source of the social benefits is the central state budget, but it is supplemented from the municipalities' own resources. Municipalities enjoy a high level of independence in formulating their own regulations referring to the conditions of granting housing allowances. 3) Support for needy families to purchase their own flat: To a very limited extent, municipalities also allocate subsidies or loans enabling young families or those with children to buy a new dwelling in the market.

3.4.3 Access to education

Access to education is one of the most important indicators for social inclusion. We provide two indicators for this sub-domain: a 'descriptive' one, which displays general participation in secondary and tertiary education as well as a more 'causal' one where access to tertiary education is investigated in the light of the family background.

Our first indicator reveals an increasing access to education in Hungary and this is in line with the tendencies of educational expansion all over the world. From a historical perspective, three waves of educational expansion took place in Hungary, first in the 1930s in the period between the two World Wars; second in the 1950s when the communist took over the country; and third in the 1990s after the collapse of communism. Two main features of the increase of access to education can be emphasized: the gender gap in educational attainment declined and, in fact, women were getting better educated than men (*Róbert*, 1991); first the educational expansion was more marked for secondary schooling but later it became stronger for tertiary education.

The indicators we present here refer to the more recent period of late socialism and after 1990. For participation we provide two pieces of information: being in education at the age of 16 means for most cases that somebody attends secondary school; being in education at the age of 20 means for most cases that somebody attends tertiary education. Secondary education was available for the majority of youngsters already under socialism (80% in 1991) but we can observe a moderate increase up to 92 per cent by 2002. Access to tertiary education indicates a huge contrast in comparison to secondary education. Tertiary education was highly selective under socialism, only a minority could continue the studies after secondary school. Students were required to have a final exam from secondary

education and they had to pass an entrance exam (in most cases both written and oral one) as well. Following the logic of a planned economy, Ministry of Education prescribed the number of students who could enter the different faculties of universities and colleges and could study there without any tuition fee. In 1991 only 14 per cent of a cohort studied at age 20, but the gates of colleges and universities opened up in the 1990s. The basic law did not change, the Ministry of Education keep on determining the available 'places' in tertiary education but the system became more flexible. Thus, access to tertiary education increased by about 2 and half times within one decade, up to 38 per cent. Very recently the pace of educational expansion declined.

The next indicator displays the chances for access to tertiary education for different groups of youngsters completed secondary education but come from different families. We have seen before a significant expansion for tertiary education but obviously this did not help for those young people whose parents were low educated. For parents' education, proportions for the 'uncompleted primary' category are very stable, less than 20 per cent continued the studies even if more students entered tertiary education. There is a very moderate increase for the 'primary' category between 1995 and 2000, and a bit larger increase for the 'vocational' category between 1984 and 1995. The 'winners' of the educational expansion are those students whose parents have at least secondary school diploma. The access to tertiary education increased a lot for them between 1995 and 2000. This indicator proves clearly – what we know from other research on educational inequalities (*Bukodi, 1999. Róbert, 2003*), too – that access to education is highly dependent on social origin in Hungary – even in the time of rapid expansion.

3.4.4 Access to social care and social transfer

In this sub-domain we will pay special attention for social assistance in kind of elderly people, families that are in crisis and disabled individuals, on the other hand we will emphasize the importance of access to social transfer as well.

There are three main institutional forms of social care for elderly people in Hungary. *Club for elderly* provides day care for elderly people who are in need of social and mental support, but are partially capable of looking after themselves. Actually, the *social catering*, which involves provision of at least one hot meal daily for persons who are permanently or temporary unable to provide this for themselves or their dependants, is mostly utilized by elderly people. *Domestic care* provides for people who are unable to look after themselves in their own homes from their own resources. In 2003 about 44 thousand persons were supplied by these institutions, which is 47 per cent growth compared with 1993. The number of these kinds of institutions has increased by 70 per cent for 1993.

Family assistance services are benefit for persons or families that are endangered or in crisis owing to social or mental health problems, provided for the purpose of sustaining their ability to cope, eliminating the causes that lead to such situations, and resolving crisis situations. In 1998 the number of family care institutions was 462, while in 2003 it reached the 777. At the same time the number of

individuals asking for help has increased by 60 thousand for 1998. More than 20 per cent of them had financial problems and about a same share of them asked assistance in official matter.

Disabled people's homes admit persons who can only be provided, educated, trained and employed within institutions. For 1993, the number of individuals receiving assistance has increased by 5 thousand. In 2003 more than 13 thousand individuals lived in this kind of institutions.

Apart from access to assistance in kind, the access to social benefit system is an other fundamental factor of social care. Numerous studies emphasize that it is not easy to measure with a composite indicator the access to social benefit system. One of the most "natural" indicator is the proportion of household receiving any mean-tested social transfers among families living under poverty threshold. This share accounted for about 60 per cent in 2001 according to Hungarian Household Budget Survey, which is in line with *Ferge's* result: in her survey on social exclusion, over 60 per cent of poor household received one or more types of means-tested benefits in 2002 (*Ferge et al.*, 2003). According to this survey, the role of such transfers is large in Hungary, but particularly so in the life of the poor. In a national sample, only 16 per cent, but in the sample on poor population 25 per cent of the households rely solely on transfer incomes. The ratio of those living exclusively from social transfers is extremely high (almost three times the average) among single persons in the worst income situation; it is relatively high among those having no children; and almost double of the average among Roma.

3.4.5 Access to financial services

We approach access to financial services by two financial options: having savings in some form and having any type of credit. Information on this we take from a recent survey where respondents were asked whether they have savings or credit or have not. Based on the simple combinations of the answers, we have computed an indicator with four categories. This typology reveals that nearly one-third of the Hungarian households have no access to financial services – at least as defined here. The majority (about 60%) of the Hungarian households have some savings but having some credit is less typical, it occurs only for one-fourth of the households.

The income level in the household has obvious relationship with savings and credit. Not surprisingly, households, which belong to the lowest income quintile, seem to have less access to financial services, more than one-third of them have neither savings nor credit. At the same time more well to do households in the highest income quintile are over-represented for having both savings and credits. One could expect a very simple link between level of income and access to financial services, namely that rich households have savings and poor households have credit. Though a large proportion (22%) of the poor households has only credits, the relationship is more complex. In fact, poor households have no savings but these households are also less eligible for credit. Rich households can benefit from credit while they have also savings.

3.4.6 Access to public transport

According to employment studies there are important differences in labour market chances and risks within micro-regions. Villages and small towns lag behind larger cities in terms of physical infrastructure, like in the extent and density of public transport. Many small settlements are isolated from urban labour market due to the lack of proper public transport, and have very high of unemployment for this reason (*Kertesi and Köllő, 2000*). Without developing local public transport system in small villages and in the most depressed micro-regions it is impossible to increase the odds of labour market re-integration of inhabitants of these settlements.

3.4.7 Access to cultural services

A set of indicators refers to cultural participation, visiting theatres, museums or cinemas. Cultural institutions were subsidized in Hungary under communism, tickets were cheap but this situation has changed after 1990. On the one hand, participation in high culture became more expensive, and, on the other hand, real wages decreased sharply in Hungary, especially in the first years of the 1990s. Consequently we see a drop for all of the three indicators between 1990 and 1995. Later, theatre attendances stabilized, while for museum and cinema attendances reveal even a slight return in the trend, an increase between 1995 and 2000/2002.

We tested how the level of the household income affects access to cultural services. Statistical data from a recent survey reveals that, on average, only a minority of Hungarians (13%) attends regularly theatres, museums or concerts. The difference by level of income is significant but the percentage for regular access to these services is not very high for those living in more well to do households. At the same time missing financial means is not the main cause for low access to high culture, though this reason appears more frequently for those living in households with low level of income. Members of these households mention quite commonly that they are not interested in participating in high culture. It is believable if we assume that level of education is also low in these poor households or these households involve old people who are usually less interested in outdoor cultural activities. In fact, the most frequent reasoning is not specified but the category for 'other reasons' does not seem to be affected by income differences either.

3.5 Social networks

3.5.1 Friendship and family

Albert and Dávid (1999) indicated that for a large number of people interpersonal relations shrank in recent years. This is reflected in the following phenomena: the drop of the average number of friends; the increase in the number of individuals without any friend; the increase the number of individuals outside inter-households exchanges.

Those households that became poor in terms of their supportive relations typically had one or two members, an older head of household, mid-level income and low-level education. All in all, the shrinkage of human relations is the most dramatic among individuals in disadvantage social positions.

In social quality perspective duration-type data have a particular importance. In this respect, indicators from time use studies can be useful. The overall socializing time occupies 20-25 per cent of free time in most European countries. However, in Hungary this share is smaller, and individuals aged 15-84 spent only 51 minutes on an average day on socializing in 2000 compared to 81 minutes in Denmark and 70 minutes in Sweden. Another important indicator is the time amount spent alone per day. The Hungarian time use survey shows that in 2000 individuals spent more time alone than in 1986 (*Altorjai et al., 2004*). This trend is particularly emphasised for women. It indicates that more and more people experience the every-day's loneliness, which can be traced back to changing demographic and family composition as well as to the common trend of isolation.

In economic crisis situation reciprocal exchanges among households is of great importance in Hungary (*Sik, 1988a*). Moreover, in the decades of communism the role of households and inter-household networks as the basic units of the informal economy has been reinforced (*Sik, 1988b*). According to different surveys on this topic, inter-household exchange appears to be more likely among better-off households with more economic and social resources in Hungary. The general conclusion of these studies is that the overall inter-household exchange is more likely to be a supplement to other sources of marital support than a replacement. In addition, the widespread incidence of non-monetary exchanges among Hungarian households is motivated by reciprocal norms which objective is to maintain and strengthen local social networks – mostly in rural areas (*Brown, 2001*).

4 Social Cohesion

4.1 Introduction

There is a consensus among social scientists upon the general importance of social trust. High levels of trust in a society contribute to economic growth and efficiency in market economics; provision of public goods; social integration; co-operation and harmony; personal life satisfaction; democratic stability; and even good health and longevity. Social trust is a core component of social capital (*Delhey and Newton, 2003*). According to survey research, Eastern and Central European countries are considered low trust societies; however, in these countries personal social networks are particularly important. In this chapter we outline the special characteristics of social cohesion in Hungary.

4.2 Trust

4.2.1 Generalised trust

There are two dominant lines of research concerning trust. According to the first approach (individual theories), trust is an individual property, which is learned in early *childhood* and tends to persist even in later life-phases. In accordance with another view, trust is a personal property, the product of *adult life experiences*: those who have been treated kindly and generously by life are more trusted than those who suffer from poverty and other difficulties (see *Delhey and Newton, 2003*). According to the second approach, trust is a property of a society, rather than of individuals (societal theories). From this point of view, responses to the question on trust “*Generally speaking, would you say that most people can be trusted or that you can't be too careful in dealing with people?*” tell us less about personality of individuals rather than about how they estimate the trustworthiness of the society around them (*Delhey and Newton, 2003*). While the trust scores² in Hungary, Poland, Slovenia and Greece disperse between 3,6-4,0, in Sweden, Netherlands and Denmark these are around 6,0. This appears to confirm the societal theory approach about social trust, namely that wealthier nations, and those with greater income equalities, have higher levels of social trust than poorer and less egalitarian countries. At the same time, investigating the Hungarian scores it is a fact that distrust is more common among losers – those with little education, low income, and low status and are unsatisfied with their life – than those with higher education level and income.

4.2.2 Specific trust

Of the components of the democratic institution system, Hungarians have the lowest level of trust towards politicians. Thirty per cent of the respondents were mistrustful and within this proportion 11 per cent claim that they do not rely on politicians at all. While 5-5 per cent of all Hungarians credit the

² The trust scores of different the countries show the means in a 0-10 scale, where 0 means the distrust and 10 means the trustfulness.

country's parliament and legislative system, 6 per cent of them trust the police, for politicians this proportion was less than 2 per cent.

The social-demographic factors hardly influence the extent of trust in the country's parliament. It is worth emphasizing that women, elderly people and those with lower education level are the most mistrustful; while men and individuals with higher education have higher trust in the country's parliament. We could not find any gender and age variations concerning the judgement of legal system, but education makes differences: higher schooling level usually mean higher degrees of trust. Regarding the judgement of the police, younger generation are more dismissive than elderly people. While only 4 per cent of Hungarians aged 15-39 trust the police entirely, this proportion reaches 10 per cent among people aged more than 60 years old. We can find some educational variations in the judgement of politicians as well: people with less education have lower trust in politicians than persons with higher education level.

According to an international comparative research, Scandinavian countries – Denmark, Finland and Sweden – are the most trustful in democratic institutions, while post-communist countries such as Poland, Czech Republic and Slovenia have less trust in these institutions. Hungary seems to be close to the European average. It is worth mentioning that in each country politicians are the less trusted, especially in Poland and Portugal. In countries investigated people rely on the police at most extent, except in Hungary.

To investigate the importance of different sphere of everyday life could predict the confidence, pessimism and cynism about the possibilities for social and political co-operation, which are the elements of social trust. According to survey data, the importance of work in everyday life is relatively low in Hungary. While in Italy, Slovenia, Spain and France 95 per cent of respondents consider work as an important or very important element of everyday life, in Hungary this share is smaller, 89 per cent. The Hungarian view on it is close to people's opinion in Finland, Denmark and Netherlands. In all countries investigated the family seems to be the most important sphere of the human life. Friends and free time have relatively low importance in Hungary, and politics was mentioned only by 18 per cent of respondents as an important thing.

4.3 Other integrative norms and values

4.3.1 Altruism

One of the most useful indicators of altruism can be obtained from time use studies. According to a very recent publication (*EUROSTAT*, 2004), comparing women and men aged 20-74, the total time spent on volunteer work and informal help is slightly higher for men in most of the countries. In Finland, Sweden and Norway, the time is the same for women and men, whereas in the United Kingdom women spend more time on these tasks. In Hungary women spend 8 minutes in an average day on volunteer work, while men spend a little bit more, 13 minutes. Among the countries

investigated in this survey, Hungary has the smallest proportion of those spent some time on volunteer work on an average day.

One of the most important tasks of Red Cross is the persistent maintenance of blood donation. In every year 90-95 institutional and getting off blood donation was organised in 125-128 companies, institutions and towns in Hungary. The number of donors of blood decrease every year. The main cause of this phenomenon are ageing and decreasing number of younger donors of blood.

3.2.2 Tolerance

According to the European Values Survey 1999/2000, the proportion of respondents who would make anyone enter the country to work purpose is the lowest in Hungary and Czech Republic. Among the investigated countries, in Finland, Portugal and Sweden more than 10 per cent of respondents think that for work purpose government should let anyone to come to the country who wants to do it. This proportion reaches 20 per cent in Spain. At the same time more than 26 per cent of Hungarians believe that government should prohibit foreign people entering the country, which is much higher than in the other investigated countries.

According to TARKI Social Research Centre Inc., in 2002 4,7 per cent of respondents agreed with the statement that *"Hungary should let all immigrants in the country"*, 32 per cent of them said that *"Hungary should not be allowed to let any immigrants in"* and 56 per cent claimed that some immigrants are allowed to come into the country. According to the survey, people in Hungary tend to define the question of immigrants as a "zero-sum" game. Hungarians with less schooling and low income are against the inclusion of immigrants. They are not satisfied with the activity of the government, which seems to be a strong factor in the prediction of attitudes against immigrants. People with higher schooling and better income tend to be much more open regarding the inclusion of immigrants. (Bernát, 2002)

The European Values Survey asked a question concerning pluralism and multiculturalism as well. The researchers were curious what people thought, whether immigrants should maintain their customs and traditions or it would have been better for the society if immigrants did not maintain their traditions but took over the customs of the country. The large share of respondents in the most investigated countries think that it is better if immigrants to take over the custom of the country and leave behind their traditions - except in Greece, Ireland, Spain and Italy, where people are more likely to think that immigrants should maintain their variant customs. Hungary takes part in the first country group: more than 66 per cent of respondents claim that immigrants should take over the traditions of the country instead of maintaining their diverse customs.

According to the responses to the question *"Please tell me for each of the following statements whether you think it can always be justified, never be justified, or something in between, using the cards 1-never and 10-always"*, Hungarians absolutely distance themselves from homosexuality and suicide. While the Polish score was 2,9, the Czech was 5,47, the Dutch value was 7,8 and the Swedish was 7,65 on the scale of ten, Hungarians gave 1,45 regarding the acceptance of

homosexuality. In the matter of suicide, Hungarians marked 1,56, while Netherlands had 4,34, Denmark 3,07, Czech Republic 2,90 and Slovenia 3,54.

According to the European Values Survey, Hungarians are the most dismissive in connection with other people's self identity, beliefs, and behaviour and lifestyle preferences. Taking into account the answers on the question "*Could you please sort out any that you would not like to have as neighbours?*", Hungarians show the greatest intolerance toward all social groups listed here. More than 90 per cent of Hungarians would not like to live in a neighbourhood of heavy drinkers and drug addicts. In case of Czech Republic and Poland these proportions were around 75 per cent. While 88 per cent of Hungarians would not like to live in a dwelling where neighbours are people with criminal record, this proportion was only 64 per cent in the Czech Republic and 33 per cent in Netherlands. 52 per cent of Hungarians would not like to live in a neighbourhood of people of a different race, while only 5,5 per cent of Dutch people would feel uncomfortable themselves in this situation.

4.3.2 Social contract

Social justice, as an integrative norm and value, is undoubtedly the substance of social cohesion. In this respect indicators aiming at capturing individuals' opinion on the possible causes of poverty or socio-economic insecurity may have a particular importance. The European Values Survey revealed a mixed picture on it in Hungary. Almost third (38 per cent) of respondents cited '*injustice in our society*' and 28% identified '*laziness and lack of will power*' as a reason. '*Bad luck*' was seen as a possible cause of poverty by 13 per cent; '*part of the modern progress*' by 19 per cent of respondents. All in all, in post-socialist countries the most frequently cited reasons for socio-economic insecurity were external and structural ones, rather than internal and personal causes. The over-emphasise of these kinds of causes in Hungary may prognosticate that people expect resolution from government and social policy actions in reference to winding-up poverty.

The European Values Survey also posed a question concerning the willingness to actually do something to improve life conditions of different social groups. 11 per cent of Hungarians would be absolutely prepared to help people in their neighbourhood, and 14 per cent of respondents would give help to sick and disabled people. In everyday life 90 per cent of individuals would be absolutely prepared to help their immediate family, which exceeds the value of all countries examined in this survey.

In Hungary 1,5 per cent, in Poland 3 per cent and in Slovenia 5 per cent of respondents think that they would help immigrants with no hesitation. In Sweden this rate was more than 10 per cent according to the data of European Values Survey. Central Eastern European countries are common in the relatively higher proportion of respondents claiming not being prepared to actually do something to improve immigrants' life conditions compared to Western European countries. This result may confirm the previously mentioned attitudes against the inclusion of immigrants in Hungary.

The Community Framework Strategy on Gender Equality (2001-2005) emphasises the importance of equal participation and representation of all women and men in the economy, in decision-making, and in social, cultural and civil life. To investigate this problem in everyday life, again the time use survey is of particular importance (*Eurostat*, 2004).

Women do 60-66 per cent of all domestic work in the countries included in the comparative time use research. Women invest the most time in these kinds of duties in Estonia, Hungary and Slovenia; around five hours per day. Less than four hours is spent on domestic work by women in Sweden, Norway and Finland. Men's share is the highest in Sweden, however, men in Estonia, Slovenia, Hungary and Belgium spend more time per day on domestic tasks than their counterparts in the rest of the countries. Women's and men's shares of domestic work are more equal in Sweden. A gender difference is also observed in the proportions of persons who do any domestic work on an average day. Almost all women, but slightly fewer men do some domestic work; in addition, domestic activities are gender segregated: women do housework and caring; men do maintenance and repair work. With women, food preparation is the most time-consuming activity, especially in Hungary, Slovenia and Estonia. Looking at parents with small children, the longest total time spent on childcare activities is reported in Hungary. Mothers spend two to two-and-a-half hours on these duties on an average day, and fathers around an hour. It is likely that country variations are partly explained by differences in the systems for the provision of childcare services (see more about this in chapter on SES and social inclusion).

4.4 Social networks

Hungary has two sources concerning the number of non-governmental organisations and population share in these institutions. One of them is the Time-Use Survey database collected by Hungarian Central Statistical Office in 2000. According to this survey 27 per cent of all respondents claimed that they were members of any organisations. According to the European Social Survey – which was conducted in 2002 in an international comparative framework – this share was about 25 per cent. Based on the former research people aged more than 40 and with at least secondary education are more likely to be a member of a non-governmental organisation. Differences between countries are striking: in the Netherlands, Sweden and Denmark 80 per cent of men are members in some kind of non-governmental organisation, this proportion in Poland is only 18 per cent, in Greece 25 per cent, in Hungary 25 per cent – as it was reported before.

Personal social networks were extremely important in the Communist systems of East and Central Europe. People in these countries have built strong private and unofficial contacts among each other – with those who could help them to resolve daily problems. Informal economy was built on these relationships, because people in the region know whom they trust, and trust those whom they know (*Delhey and Newton* 2003).

In job seeking, or when looking for solution for various life management questions people tend to apply to kinship or friends for advice or any kind of help. After the system-transition – similarly to communist time – Hungarian household economy needed female labour because two earnings has been required to survive the everyday life. Due to this situation, to conciliate work and family needs a special institutional background – for example, opening hours fit more the different work schedules, or extensive family network. The majority of asked employed women in the “Family in transition” research (HCSO, 2001) claimed that it was the grandparents’ help that had made it possible for them to reintegrate to the labour market. Although, living of several generations together is less frequent in Hungary recently, help from the family, primarily from grandparents, remains important for households with children. Grandparents help mostly in families where children are young. Support from grandparents explicitly increases the difference of families with children in terms of their financial situation. While 60 per cent of households, which are able to make savings, are helped by grandparents only 45 per cent of households whose income do not cover costs receive grandparents help. The most frequent form of grandparents help is in-kind support, primarily food. The second and the third most important ones are daily physical help and financial support. There is a massive difference by the age of the children as well. Households with younger than school-age children mentioned food support the first and physical help the second most frequent forms of grandparents’ help. At the same time, households with children in upper primary grades reported the most taking care of children during school holidays. This remains equally important in households with children in secondary education, while food and financial support tend to become the most important again.

It is worth to estimate the intensity of social networks by the proportion of frequency contact with friends. The proportion of every day contacts are higher among women than men, but the once a week and few times a week frequency are higher among men than women. People aged 18-39 are the most rife with friends: among them the share of every day contacts is 35 per cent, but it is similarly high (33 per cent) in old generations. Among individuals aged 40-59 the proportion of weekly and monthly encounters is higher than in the other age groups. 42 per cent of people with primary education keep up relationship with their friends every day, while only 20 per cent of respondents with secondary degree and 15 per cent with tertiary do the same. The weekly encounters with friends is typical for secondary-educated persons, while individuals with tertiary diploma encounter their friend rarest.

4.5 Identity

According to the European Values Survey 1999/2000, – in Central Europe – Polish people are the most proud of their nationality, 72 per cent of all them gave the answer „*very proud*” and almost 26 per cent think that it is a quite proud thing to be Polish. Hungary and Slovenia had a very similar distribution in this respect: in both countries roughly half of all citizens were very proud of their nationality and further 35-38 per cent marked the „*quite proud*” category. In Hungary a little bit more than 2 per cent of all respondents cited the „*not proud at all*” answer.

In 2003 autumn, Eurobarometer asked respondents of the Candidate Countries to choose among the following possibilities: in the near future they will consider themselves as 1) nationality only, 2) nationality and European 3) European and nationality, or 4) European only. According to these data, each candidate country excluding Hungarians identified themselves as European rather than just their own nationality. This means that the percentage of those respondents who marked that they identify themselves as „Nationality and European”, „European and Nationality”, „European only” exceeded the percentage of those who identified themselves only by their nationality. In all investigated countries there were few respondents only who considered themselves exclusively European (from 1% in Hungary and Bulgaria to 5 per cent in Slovakia and Romania).

According to the European Values Survey, the attachment to locality or hometown is particularly typical of Hungarian and Polish people. While 67 per cent of Hungarians and 63 per cent of Polish identified themselves as a person who first of all belongs to their locality or town where they live, only 50 per cent of Czech and 47 per cent of Bulgarian respondents cited this category. Hungarians at the second place marked the region and the country as a geographical unit to where they feel belonging.

5 Social Empowerment

5.1 Introduction

Social empowerment deals with conditions for increasing freedom and capabilities of people to act. Powerlessness is embedded in the nature of institutional relations, which are pre-conditional factors of actions to participate in, negotiate with, power over, power to and power from in different fields of life. Social empowerment in Hungary is built upon the idea that – next to the ability of adjustment – could be the most important factor in the process of enhancing life chances and diminishing risks. However, in many cases there are no data available for the indicators and we have to use qualitative descriptions or policy examples for illustrating them.

5.2 Knowledge base

5.2.1 Application of knowledge

A focal hypothesis in stratification research refers to the crucial role of education in the process of social mobility. Analysts of social mobility investigate the impact of family background in the status attainment process and formulate the hypothesis that social origin tends to influence social status to less extent as societies are getting modernized, while education plays a growing role in achieved status (cf. *Treiman*, 1970). This trend is in accordance with an increasing meritocracy, when achievement replaces ascription in status attainment. International comparative research found this hypothesis especially valid for the previous socialist countries (*Simkus*, 1981). In planned economies, young people's educational attainment was centrally settled in line with the expected requests of the economy. Consequently, the statistical link between the level of education and the labour market position was rather strong in Hungary as well. In a historical perspective from the beginning of the 20th century until the collapse of communism, education is an increasingly important determinant of occupation. However, from the 1980s and after the fall of the socialist regime, there is a decline and a slight return in this tendency as educational expansion increases and the labour market is getting more open in Hungary (*Luijkx et al.* 2002). Moreover, higher level of education increases the opportunities for career mobility during the life course, while missing human capital is one the main causes for career failures (e.g. unemployment or downward mobility) in the labour market (*Luijkx et al.* 1998. *Bukodi, Róbert*, 2002).

5.2.2 Availability of information

Changes in the educational system and the ever increasing number of those involved in various forms of educational institutions undoubtedly contributed to the perpetual decline of illiteracy rates.

As it was mentioned in SES chapter, educational poverty can also be measured through lack of competences using data from PISA or Adult Literacy Surveys. These surveys pay most attention to literacy and conceive it to be the strategic parameter which determines all other factors. On the basis of studies using competence data (e.g. *Allmendinger, Leibfried, 2003*), educational poverty can be defined by the lowest competence level (of five using by these surveys), which corresponds to functional illiteracy. If one does not attain level 1, he/she can be regarded educationally poor. Individuals belonging to this group are not necessarily illiterate, but their elementary reading capabilities do not help them to survive in practical context of everyday life. In this respect Hungary's situation is relatively bad in European context: 23 per cent of students aged 15 belongs to the educationally poor (the share of them is less than 15 per cent in Austria, Sweden or Finland). As far as adult population is concerned, the incidence of competence poverty is even higher: 33 per cent of Hungarians aged 16-65 have serious problems concerning their reading capabilities.

After the transition the adaptation, skills and competences became an even stronger factor in enhancing life chances. To be well-informed means to have increased potential of adaptation. From the late-1980s the Internet has become one of the most important information sources; and in order to use it appropriately, one has to have certain skills and knowledge. Information and communication technology literacy (ICT-literacy) skills are essential requirements for everyone who, both as an individual and as a member of a democratic society, wants to be prepared for the challenges of the digital age.

Besides the skills and knowledge aspect, which could be considered as a cognitive condition of information-richness, physical access to the Internet plays a crucial role (*DiMaggio and Hargittai, 2001; Hargittai, 2002*). According to the World Internet Project 2003 database 25 per cent of Hungarians can access the Internet. However, the proportion of those who go online at least once a month is only 22 per cent. Last year 41 per cent of Internet users had access at home. This proportion represents 10,3 per cent of the population above 14. This means that among the possible places of access home became the first, pushing school and workplace to the second and third paces, respectively.

According to an international comparative research the Hungarian information culture is rather premature. It is worth mentioning that Hungary is one of the countries - after Greece - where the proportion of Internet non-users is the highest. While 80 per cent of the population above 14 has no access to the Internet in Hungary, in Denmark 35, Sweden 28, in Austria and Netherlands 22 per cent go online at least once a day.

Recent information society policies pay much attention to the threat of "digital divide". The digital divide marks "the gap between individuals, households, businesses and geographic areas at different socio-economic levels with regard both to their opportunities to access information and communication technologies (ICTs) and to their use of the internet for a wide variety of activities." (*OECD, 2001*) *Selhofer and Hüsing* have produced an index which describes the percentage of internet and

computer users (total users “at home”) at the risk groups (women, low education, people aged 50 and older and low income status) as a ratio of the percentage of users in the total population. The overall Divide Index is calculated as the mean of the four indices of the risk groups (See *Selhofer and Hüsing, 2002*). The Hungarian overall Digital Divide Index has been decreasing slightly since 2001, however it is still higher than the European Union average. Young and highly educated people have greater chance to take part in the Information Society than the elderly or people with lower education level. As far as the involvement in the Information Society is concerned, the rule of income status is a stronger factor in the European Union than in Hungary.

Media

Based on the Hungarian WIP 2003 data, sending and receiving e-mails and searching for information, playing online games, and browsing for fun are the most popular uses of the Internet; online news consumption and participating in chat sessions are relatively typical activities, too. All main newspapers (broadsheets and tabloids) have launched their online versions and significant online content providers have also appeared. In February 2002, the two most visited websites were *Origo.hu* and *Index.hu* with more than 11 million page impressions per week. (*Kiss, 2004*).

The Hungarian government has established the Közháló (PublicNet) project that aims to merge various network segments of public access under the co-ordination of the Ministry of Informatics. Another objective is to create 2004 eMagyarország (eHungary) points by the end of 2004. ‘eMagyarország points’ are public access points providing services in a franchise-like system and is planned cover the entire area of the country. The Közháló project will revive the telecottage programme which was at first a local initiative and later became a national association. So far 500 telecottages are established in Hungary, and further 500 are under construction, mainly in regions with poorly developed infrastructure and economy. Telecottages are usually produced and operated by civil society organizations. Working telecottages provide nearly 60 different types of local services (education, cultural, social, medical and other) and 2 million village dwellers can access modern telecommunication and information technologies. (see The Hungarian Information Society on the Eve of the Accession to the European Union: snapshot and strategic objectives.)

Like in other countries, the importance of press media falls behind that of television. The circulation is decreasing while people spend more and more time with television set switched on. The communist government did not dare to pass a broadcasting law and imposed a moratorium of frequency allocation instead. The media market started in 1988 and after a long march the broadcasting law was registered as Act I of 1996 on Radio and television (after the Broadcasting Act of 1996). From the beginning of 90s new independent television channels were introduced in Hungary. In this situation a lot of subscriber has bought different kind of subscribing packages. The two national commercial channels (TV2 and RTL Klub) combined had almost 60 percent audience market share in 2003 and an even higher share, 90 percent of the advertising market. This shows that the commercial television has conquered the media scene. Their programmes favour mainstream commercial values and

consumer culture (Gálik, 2004). Beyond *m1*, the public television has two more channels (*m2*, *Duna TV*), they broadcast via satellite. The latter is supposed to shape its programme taking into account the Hungarians living outside Hungary. The first channel broadcasts the domestic minorities' and the religious programmes, while the second replays several programmes of the first. The law compels the cable companies to put the public television programmes into their packages. Without that regulation, two of the three public channels could not be seen by most of the Hungarian audience because just a few households have satellite receiver (Kiss, 2004).

There are several cable companies in Hungary but their economic strength varies greatly. The satellite and cable distribution is accessible more than 1,5 million households, the subscription packages are exceeding in number 950. It is worth to mention the 4 biggest commercial suppliers are the UPC Hungary, EMKTV Kft, Matávkábel Kft and Fibernet Kft. In the middle of February 2002, more than half of the 170 cable networks of the country belonged to three companies: *UPC* (30), *Matáv* (21) and *Fibernet* (48). Since 2000, the customers have raised a huge number of complaints against the cable companies (the 90 per cent of the complaints is against *UPC* and *Matáv*) because of the high prices and the frequent changes in the assortment. In the beginning of December 2001, one could watch 24 television programmes in Hungarian language. Most of them are the dubbed or subtitled versions of foreign channels: *HBO*, *National Geographic Channel*, *Animal Planet*, *Discovery*, *Eurosport* etc. (Kiss, 2004).

Five radio channels have national broadcasting possibilities in Hungary. Three of them belong to the public radio (*Magyar Rádió*). The public radio has three channels, but the audience data are favourable for neither of them. Only the news magazine programmes of the first (*Kossuth Rádió*) have high shares in the audience otherwise the public channels are not listened to widely. It is true particularly in the case of the third channel (*Bartók Rádió*), which broadcasts classical music and literature programmes only and its share is always below one per cent. The second channel (*Petőfi Rádió*) tries to meet the challenge of the commercial music radios - with not too much success. There are other two radio channels have national broadcasting possibilities, the *Danubius* and *Sláger*, which are private radios. Two more companies, *Juventus* and *Radio 1*, actually reaches more than the half of the territory of Hungary, but via a network of radios; consequently they are in fierce competition with the former causing much trouble to them in obtaining enough advertising earnings. In the beginning of March 2002, 25 regional radio channels worked in Hungary, nine of them being the regional stations of the public radio. The number of the local radios reached 64, some of them belonging to the network of national or regional companies (Kiss, 2004).

After years of more or less same financial conditions, the public radio was in deficit in 2001, because both the advertising revenues and the subscription incomes were far below the expected and the selling of a whole frequency as well as the staff reduction were not enough to turn the tide (Kiss, 2004).

It is worth to mention some smaller commercial channels, such as *Klubrádió*, which has recently modified its profile and launched very serious programmes on politics and social questions. *Rádió C*, a special channel for the Hungarian Gypsy has been launched recently in the region of Budapest; several Hungarian non-Roma media celebrities help the channel as anchorpersons. *Pannon Rádió* is considered to be extreme rightist. The National Radio and Television Commission has also punished the channel because of its programmes' anti minority biases. A great part of the Hungarian musicians tried to boycott the channel by forbidding the use of their songs in its programmes. The genre of talk radio is still unfamiliar in Hungary; one can find some shorter programmes on different channels that remind something like talk radio (Kiss, 2004)..

The press media played an important role during the transitional period since they made it possible for the new democratic political forces to make themselves known by the public and the journalists wrote extensively about the Western ideas and democratic institutions. This process, with the media, the journalists and the intelligentsia preparing both the public generally and the communist elite particularly to the transition, concluded in the fairly benign political system change between 1988 and 1990.

In Hungary, there are 36 daily newspapers. The country has 12 national daily newspapers and 24 regional and smaller urban ones. As for the regional papers with considerable circulation, there is a daily newspaper in each of the nineteen counties but the one around Budapest. Of the 12 national daily titles, 4 are quality political papers, 3 are economic ones, 4 are tabloids, and 1 is about sports. There are several free of charge daily papers. One of them is *Metro*, the Hungarian version of the Scandinavian paper. It has a circulation of 327 thousand which is not much less than the circulation of all the national quality newspapers. Its publication used to be concentrating on Budapest and the surrounding of the capital, but since April 2001, it can be found in the county centres as well. *Népszabadság* is one of the most important daily in Hungary with a circulation of about 211 thousand. The second ones is *Magyar Nemzet* with a bit less than the half of the former. Both papers have its own political character: the former is close to the socialists while the latter to the conservatives (Kiss, 2004).

5.2.3 User friendliness of information

Language is not only a tool for communication and knowledge but also a fundamental attribute of cultural identity and empowerment, both for the individual and the group. Respect for the languages of persons belonging to different linguistic communities therefore is essential to peaceful cohabitation. This applies both to majority groups, to minorities (whether traditionally resident in a country or more recent migrants) and to indigenous peoples. (UNESCO — Education in multilingual worlds.) Hungarian minorities have some television programmes within the programme structure of the public service channels, particularly in Duna TV.

The number of free advocacy institutions and guidance centres have increased continuously in the second half of 1990s (from 462 to 805), but in 2003 some decreasing is recognisable. In 1998 more than 246 thousand patients asked advice from these institutions, while in 2003 more than 300 thousand persons used these services. More than 20 per cent of the cases are related to financial problems of the household. A similar proportion of families ask help to manage their official affairs.

5.3 Labour market

5.3.1 Control over employment contract

In the early 1990s compulsory trade union membership was abolished and new independent trade unions were introduced in Hungary. The partly reformed former union confederation managed to keep its dominance in the multi-union structure, while the newly emerged independent unions failed to recruit a sizeable membership. The overall rate of unionization declined substantially during the last decade. Different factors have contributed to the marginalization of trade unions in Hungary: For instance, mass unemployment due to the collapse of large state companies, and then the rise of self-employment, as well as, the expansion of informal employment (*Bukodi, Róbert 2004*).

Until 2001, the Labour Force Survey did not include questions concerning unionization. According to the data of the latest survey, 19.7 per cent of the population aged 15-64 indicated that they were union members. Unionization among women (22.4%) was somewhat higher than among men (17.3%). This is due to the fact that female employment tends to concentrate in the traditionally unionized sectors, such as health and social work. The age composition of union members shows that union membership is the most widespread among older people. Non-manual employees are more likely to be members of unions than manual workers.

According to the report of European industrial relations observatory on-line on collective bargaining from the Hungarian Ministry of Employment and Labour, the proportion of employees covered by collective agreements fell by 5 percentage points from 2001 to 2002. In terms of the content of bargaining, many agreements concluded in 2002 included new provisions on flexible working hours, including the annualisation of working time. The scope of wage agreements further narrowed, especially in relation to enterprise-level minimum wages and wage rates. On the other hand, according to the MSZOSZ trade union confederation, enterprise-level wage agreements for 2003, where they were reached, were generally in line with a national tripartite recommendation on pay increases.

According to a report by the Ministry of Employment and Labour - which maintains the statistical database on collective agreements - in 2002 about 1 million employees were covered by sectorial and company agreements in Hungary. According to the Labour Force Survey, the number of active employees is about 3.2 million, of whom about 2.5 million work in companies and public institutions employing more than five people. Based on the latter figure, 39.6% of employees were covered by collective agreements in 2002, which means a 5 percentage point drop in comparison with the previous year when 44.9% of employees were covered in the same segment of the economy.

However, if one includes those covered by the extension of collective agreements, a further 46,000 employees were included in 2001 and a further 38,000 in 2002, with the result that the overall coverage rate was 46.7% in 2001 and 41.1% in 2002. In absolute terms, however, while employment in Hungary grew by 70,000 during 2002, the number of employees covered by collective agreements decreased by 110,000, including those covered by extended agreements.

As far as private sector is concerned, collective agreements are usually concluded at large enterprises, while the small and medium-sized enterprise (SME) sector is largely unregulated by them. Workplace-level agreements are less common in the public sector, where most issues concerning terms and conditions of employment are regulated by law. The coverage rates of workplace agreements in the private and public sector in 2002 were 39% and 33%, respectively. In sectorial terms, the highest overall coverage rates were reported in the energy, water supply and sewage sector (almost 100%), transportation, telecommunications, postal services (78%) and in health care and social services (70%). Less regulated by collective agreements were the public administration (9%), construction (12%) and private services (21%) (*EFIWLC*).

5.3.2 Prospects of job mobility

In addition to formal training, the other aspect of investments in human capital is the life-long learning, namely participating in the different forms of training after completing initial education. Compared to Western European countries, in Hungary much smaller share of people obtain some kind of skill outside of initial education (*OECD*, 1999). Partly, it is a consequence of the nature of Hungarian educational system, where vocational training is embedded in the initial curricula. But on the other hand, the lack of further investment in training and knowledge may lead to higher unemployment risk and to lower chance of getting a high-rewarding job.

However, according to time-use data, there was a slight increase in the last decade in the proportion of individuals aged 25-64 spending time on studying. But, there are significant differences in the training incentives according to employment status and initial educational attainment. In 2000 3.3 per cent of working people spent any time on studying on an average day. People who are not employed are less likely to invest in their training: only 1.2 per cent of them deals with investing in human capital on an average day. The incidence of studying is somewhat higher for women – irrespective of their employment status. Those with less initial education appear to lack incentives or opportunities to acquire more in later life, which may increase their risk of labour market exclusion. This problem is particularly relevant for individuals with only primary and basic vocational education: for them the proportion of those spending any time on studying on an average day had decreased between 1986 and 2000 for both sexes.

According to an international research carried out by the Hungarian Central Statistical Office and Eurostat in 1999, 40 per cent of companies provided vocational training for their workers in Candidate Countries. In the Czech Republic the proportion of companies that provide trainings for their employees reached 70 per cent, while in Hungary it was 37 per cent and in Romania it hardly

exceeded 10 per cent. While 80 per cent of big companies organize internal or external vocational trainings, only 32 per cent of companies of smaller size provided courses for their employees in 1999. There is a significant excursion of internal courses among companies with different sizes providing vocational trainings. Big companies of stable market position – especially, multinationals – regularly organize refresher courses for their employees. Medium-sized organizations usually hold refresher courses when coming out with new products and services. Two-thirds of the enterprises in Hungary, mainly small-sized companies, have no professional training whatsoever of their own. However, they pay a compulsory contribution to the state fund of professional training, which is 1,5 per cent of wages before taxation. (Background paper of Hungary at Employment Week 2004)

Besides the size of companies, the economic branch is another determining factor regarding the investment to human resources development. In the European Union countries, such as new member countries, companies working in financial services provide mostly refresher courses for their employees. 50 per cent of economic service enterprises invest on human resources development activities, while industrial organizations in at much lower rate provide vocational training for their workers.

As for the incidence of job mobility is concerned, a recent study indicates that working in producer services (finance, insurance, communication, etc.) increases the likelihood of job mobility, particularly that of upward shifts (*Bukodi, Róbert, 2002*). However, individuals working in personal and domestic services have the lowest chance of upward occupational mobility. This result indicates that expanding sectors – like for instance financial services – opened the “window of opportunities” for career developments, especially for people who are familiar with the new technologies and who possess the necessary amount of human resources. At the same time, working in these sectors protected from downward mobility.

5.3.3 Reconciliation of work and family life

One of the most important aims of the survey of „Family in Transition” (*HCSO, 2001*) was to learn what forms of help serve the best to coordinate the two kinds of duty, namely family and work. The survey asked respondents to select the three most important options from the list below:

- opening hours of nurseries, kindergartens and day-care services that better fit the working schedules of parents
- better transportation to get to school (adjusted time table, school bus)
- ensuring school meals
- opening hours in the area of services that better fit the working time
- regular or occasional organised help in household work
- more opportunities for part time employment
- opportunity to have more flexible working hours.

Respondents ranked flexible working hours first, and part time employment second, and hours of child-care institutions that better fit working schedules third. This is ranking of factors that directly help parents to combine the two duties namely, work and family.

In families which had risen or currently raising children, the three most important help were the flexible working hours, the adjusted hours in institutions for children and the part time employment. The option of adjusted hours in institutions for children was the most important help among the childless households as well. There was no important difference found in the priority order of the forms of help neither by the education nor the head of the household or by the type of settlement where the household lived. There is, however, a certain connection between the preferred forms of help and the financial situation of the household. This connection manifests itself in that households that have financial problems tend to mention the school meals more frequently than the average. At the same time, for families with better financial situation the flexible working hours seem to be more important than for the other households (HCSO, 2001).

It is observed that multiple disadvantaged households do not list flexible working hours among the first three priorities. For them school meals are the first, mentioned almost twice as frequently as the average. It appears right to assume that for these families the mere existence of the possibility of having meals at school is just as important as its being free of charge, also, opening hours of institutions for children better adjusted to parents needs is especially important for most of these parents do so low qualification jobs that usually involve two-shift or irregular schedules (HCSO, 2001).

5.4 Opennes and supportiveness of institutions

5.4.1 Openness and supportiveness of political system

In Hungary the Act on Local Governments regulates three main forms of direct democracy: local referendum, local public initiative and public hearing (Temesi, 2002). Participants in local referendums and public initiatives are those who have the right to vote in municipal elections. The representative body of the local government calls local referendums. A local referendum can be initiated by at least one-quarter of the local representatives, by a committee of the representative body, by the executive body of a local civil organization or by ten to twenty-five per cent of the electorate. The Act on Local Governments regulates the conditions under which local referendums can be held. The body of representatives is obligated to call local referendums on initiatives to unite or separate settlements, establish new communities, and establish or separate joint representative bodies and other matters determined by the statutes of the local government. Referendums cannot be called on decisions concerning the local government budget; local taxes and rates; organizational, personal and operational matters; or the declaration of dissolution of the representative body. If a referendum is unsuccessful, the body of representatives is entitled to make a decision on the issue put forward. Another local referendum on the same issue may not be called within one year. In settlements with less than five hundred inhabitants, local referendums may be conducted through village meetings of the local authority with the understanding that the outcome is considered a decision by referendum if more than half of the voters are present at the meeting.

Public initiatives serve to bring local matters before the body of representatives that fall within its competence. They must be submitted to the mayor. The number of voters necessary for a public initiative to be successful is determined by the statutes of the local authority. The representative body is obligated to hold a debate on the public initiative. The final form of direct democracy is public hearing, which must be held at least once annually by the body of representatives. The time and place of a public hearing must be announced in advance. Citizens and representatives of local interest organizations have the right to participate in it, and make proposals during such hearings.

5.4.2 Openness of economic system and organisations

The notion of social partnership has a long and rich history in Europe. It refers to joint meetings of employers and employee representatives to promote economic stability and growth, as well as improvement of living and working conditions. Various employee representatives often have different responsibilities and district rights. For example, in some countries, work councils act as the representative bodies for employees, while in others, union representatives serve this function. (*Hewitt International Report, 2003*)

In Hungary every workplace employing more than 50 workers should elect a Work Council. The number of Council members depends on the size of the enterprise: From three persons to 13. A validly elected Works Council has power in protecting all employees, union members and non union-members alike, working at the same enterprise (Szakáts, 2003). One of the important rights provides for co-decision with the employer when is obligated to seek the Council's opinion according to the following issues:

- any plan affecting a sizeable group of employees regarding restructuring, privatisation and modernisation of the enterprise;
- personnel record system;
- any plans for trade training, promoting employment and pensions for concession workers;
- rehabilitation of employees with reduced working capacity;
- annual holiday plans;
- introduction of new working methods and output requirements;
- plans of work rules affecting employees' essential interests; and
- competitions promising material or moral reward.

The employer is bound when the Council demands it to supply information on: all fundamental issues affecting the employer's economic situation a minimum of six monthly intervals; plans of essential modification of business activities and investments; and wage trends, characteristics of tasks performed, and conditions and use of working time, in every half year.

In Hungary, it is possible that both unions and councils exist in the same workplace. In this case unions have more rights than councils regarding control workplace-specific issues, such as hours of work, overtime, training, promotion and others.

5.5 Public space

5.5.1 Support for collective action

Citizens help non-governmental and non-profit organisations not only with their voluntary work, but also with their financial support (mostly as 1 per cent of their yearly taxation). Hungarians in 1997 had a possibility to offer their 1 per cent of tax to various kinds of non-governmental organisations for the first time. From 2001 every tax-payer could decide to support churches, budget estimates or any kind of non-governmental organisation. The amount of money offered to these organisations gets higher each year. In 1997 sixteen organisations got 2 thousand million Forints, while last year 22 thousand organisations got 6,2 thousand million Forints from citizens.

In Hungary, as in other European countries, before organising a strike consultation with the Police about the exact time and place is needed. Between 1 January 1989 and 31 December 2001 344 direct actions occurred, out of which 152 were strikes, 92 demonstrations, and others were signature collections or petitions. Overall 1,5 million employees took part on stoppages, with only 8,4 hours per striker. This leaves us only with 39 minutes per strikers per year.

5.5.2 Cultural enrichment

Cultural capital is an important factor in Hungary from the perspective of social differentiation. Sociological research focusing on the social inequalities in the Hungarian society, in the 1980s found that the cultural dimension could explain differences among people at most (*Kolosi*, 1984. 1988). In fact, under the socialist era, cultural differentiation in Hungary was stronger than other kinds of inequalities, e.g. financial or regional ones. Obviously a communist society has made efforts to decrease social differentiation. In respect of cultural enrichment, the slogan sounded that the 'cultural monopoly' of the former ruling classes should be broken and the cultural level of the working class should be increased. This goal was in accordance with other political attempts, e.g. when communists tried to confiscate the material basis of capitalism and to reduce the financial inequalities among social groups. Sociological research revealed that this second goal for the eliminating financial differences was much more successful. Money or material ownership could have been taken away easier by the political regime than elements of cultural enrichment which embodied in life style and consumption behavior. The research mentioned above showed that leisure time activities, housing conditions, consumption patterns were less determined by financial differences, which were low under socialism, than by cultural differences, which survived any political efforts to reduce them.

After the collapse of socialism, sociologists expected a change for the domination of cultural enrichment in Hungary. This assumption was based on the fact that material inequalities should get stronger role in social differentiation, life style and consumption patterns under the conditions of the emerging new capitalism. This second belief turned out to be true, social inequalities have emerged in Hungary in the 1990 and it was strongly connected to the rising financial differences. However, the

decline of importance of cultural enrichment was only relative to the financial inequalities. In absolute sense, life style or consumption differences continued to be dependent on cultural enrichment. Recent sociological research revealed that cultural enrichment is a strong predictor of belonging to the elite or to the upper class in Hungary, while missing cultural capital can easily lead to social isolation and to becoming excluded in Hungary. Middle class, however, can be characterized by a specific contradiction, there is cultural middle class involving low-grade professionals and clerical workers and there is a material middle class including small proprietors and self-employed.

5.6 Personal relationships

5.6.1 Provision of services supporting physical and social independence

The European Union recognises and respects the right of persons with disabilities to benefit from measures designed to ensure their independence, social and occupational integration and participation in the life of the community. (See Charter of fundamental rights of the European Union 2000/c 364/01) The right to equal treatment and prohibition of negative discrimination are two of the most important priorities of the Hungarian Government. With this design a special government body was set up in May 2003, the so called Government Office for Equal Opportunities. In this section we will pay more attention on provision services supporting disabled people's participation in the education system, labour market and public transport.

According to the "Family in transition" survey (HCSO, 2001), schooling of physically and/or mentally disabled children is a big problem for families. Especially if the given settlement they live at does not have a special school (or class within the school). In relation with the education of disabled pupils, the greatest current challenge of education policy is to "guide back" and integrate mentally – primarily slightly – disabled children in the regular education system. However, except for a supportive legislation, in Hungary the physical, technical and personal preconditions are missing. School buildings lack technology and education tools that would make schools usable for disabled persons. In the academic year 2001-2002, less than one fifth of disabled children were educated in an integrated way in regular schools and classes in primary education and only 5% in secondary education. To create a more equitable education environment for those groups of pupils who need special education, a series of education policy tools need reconsideration: the legal regulation of education, the way of financing, the evaluation system, the system of schools as well as the cooperation with other service systems.

In 2004 11 million Euros is available for supporting the training of adults and disabled adults with low education level. This amount of money provides further training possibilities to at least 31 thousand people. In the framework of the HRDOP measure 'Improving the employability of Disadvantaged people, including the Roma', support services, which – adjusted to the needs and possibilities of disabled people provide assistance in finding a job, integration at the workplace, and furthermore in meeting the special infrastructural conditions necessary for training and employing disabled people.

To facilitate the usage of public transport by disabled people the Budapest Transport Limited makes serious efforts to ensure equal access to mass transportation for the disabled. In addition to IK 412 buses running on several routes in the capital, from 17 September 2001 the company's door-to-door service, that is, buses in taxi-like service, also helps travelling from one point of the city to the other.

5.6.2 Support for social interaction

There is considerable evidence that housing conditions do affect health status. Nevertheless, recent researches define the notion of “healthy housing” as something that covers the provision of functional and adequate physical, social and mental conditions for health, safety, hygiene, comforts and privacy. From this point of view an adequate shelter has to support the required milieu of social interactions.

According to the recent Time Use Survey, socialising and spare time activities with other family members takes part mainly in the living room; however, in villages these activities mostly happen in the kitchen. It is possible to examine the conditions that facilitate socialising among family members and guests by the extent of seating-capacity of the dwelling. In kitchen 5, in the rooms 6 persons could take a seat in average. While in villages kitchens are more proper to have more people, in cities rooms are the most appropriate areas for this purpose. All in all, during the last 15 years – due to the increasing dwelling size and changes in the cultural tastes, etc. – Hungarian dwellings have become more appropriate places for social interactions than they used to be in the communist time.

6 Social Quality Initiatives

Hungary joined the EU open coordination process in 2002 in the area of combating against social exclusion. The first step of the process was the drafting of the "Joint Inclusion Memorandum" (JIM), which was signed by the Hungarian Government and the EU Commission in December 2003. The JIM contains the main risk factors and challenges in the area of poverty and social exclusion in Hungary such as the main policy measures and tools that are available. After the signature of the JIM Hungary has begun the preparation of its first National Action Plan on social inclusion (NAP/incl) by the Ministry of Health, Social and Family Affairs as main co-ordinator. The NAP provides a strategic approach of the fight against social exclusion and contain those policy measures Hungary is intending to elaborate between 2004-2006 in this area.

Support to the development of access to work

The most important institution of the implementation of the Hungarian employment policy is the Public Employment Service (PES). It consists of the Employment Bureau, the Labour Centres in Budapest and in the 19 counties and 174 local branch offices, as well as the 9 Regional Labour Development and Training Centres. A Labour Market Fund, made up on contributions by employers and employees, provides the finances for active labour market measures and PES operations. The modernisation of PES is going to take place between 2004-2006 financed by the Human Resource Development Operational Programme (HRD OP) of the European Social Fund (ESF). The measure promotes more targeted services aiming to facilitating employability and more efficient services for people seeking a job. (NAP/incl)

The most important objectives of the Hungarian employment policies are to increase the employment rate and to integrate the unemployed and inactive into labour market by *active labour market programmes*. The main targets of these programs

- 1) to promote the (re)integration of disadvantaged social groups to the labour market, such as disabled people and roma population or long-term unemployed persons
- 2) to support markatable trainings, adult education programmes and lifelong learning
- 3) to support the employment of women and finding ways to reconciliation of work and family.

Promote the integration and reintegration of disadvantaged social groups to the labour market

In recent years the government has made considerable efforts to create new jobs and to support small and medium size enterprises to increase employment. The Operative Programme for Economic Competitiveness of the National Development Plan is supporting industry and the service sector as areas of priority for investment promotion, for they are significant contributors to job creation.

Public employment programmes are designed for the employment of the most marginal groups of society with the aim to assist unemployed individuals to return to the labour market. Within the confines of *public employment programmes* participants are involved in different tasks of the

maintenance of communal institutions, implementation of small district or regional objectives. When offering these jobs, priority is given to people who have been unemployed on long term, primarily to Roma. Each year the Ministry of Employment and Labour accepts bids for public work projects that offer temporary work to people in disadvantaged position, and this includes the 2004-2006 period as well.

The *EQUAL* programme also supports lifelong learning and sets priorities for evolving inclusive workplace practice starting in 2004. The programmes will focus particularly on Roma, people with low educational levels, elderly working people, and people with disabilities, and involves training in order to improve their employability. To this aim the programmes include developing basic skills and expanding knowledge through the use of new technologies and procedures, and information and communication technologies. (NAP/incl)

The labour market participation of people with disability is very low: according to the HCSO, in 2002 among the population with long-term health problems, of the 656 thousand working age people fewer than 95 thousand were present on the labour market and among them less than 1/5 were employed in special jobs. The majority of the disabled people subsist on disability pension or allowance. Therefore, it is an important task to move in order to ensure equal opportunities for people with disabilities on the labour market. In addition, in the framework of the HRDOP 'Improving the employability of disadvantaged people, including the Roma' has launched a programme supports services, which adjusted the needs and possibilities of disabled people provide assistance to find a job, integration at the workplace and furthermore in meeting the special infrastructural conditions necessary for training and employing disabled people. Approximately 40 million Euros will be available in the period of 2004-2006, but only one part of this earmarked to supporting disabled people. (NAP/incl)

The Public Employment Service gives priority to providing labour market services to disabled people. Furthermore, there are *rehabilitation group teams* working in each Labour Centres to help disabled people find jobs. At present there are *Rehabilitation Information Centres (RIC)* in operation at 16 Labour Centres offering comprehensive services and in 2004 a further 4 RICs will be established. (NAP/incl)

The government therefore offers various incentives (tax concessions, supports in job creation) to employ disabled people. In the case of enterprises employing more than twenty people – including the budget financed and non-profit organizations – the law prescribes a quota that at least five per cent of statistical staff should be persons with disability. If this quota is not realized the organisation has to pay contribution for Labour Market Fund to be used for rehabilitation purposes. Organizations with less than twenty employees may receive tax benefit if they employ people with disabilities. If enterprises employ disabled people in ratio above the quota, they can make use of wages subsidies. (Equal opportunities - Hungary at Employment Week 2004)

According to estimates, the Roma population numbers between 450 000 and 600 000 people. The Roma population constitutes the most vulnerable group in terms of social exclusion. Their labour market situation is considerably worse than that of the majority of society. The primary labour market offers hardly pay-earning occupation for the uneducated and unskilled Roma, and they are also disadvantaged when they want to take up ad-hoc work. In 2004 the Government Program on Promoting the Social Inclusion of the Roma Population was launched. The programme sets out the implementation of comprehensive action to combat the social exclusion of Roma population by the co-operation of the Roma and non-Roma population. In 2004 the Ministry earmarks 5,8 million Euros for this purpose. It is worth to mention the Public Works Programme which ensure temporary employment for unemployed and disadvantaged people. In 2004 12-13 thousand people was employed by the public works programme. Another institution which plays an important role according to the reintegration of Roma population into the labour market is the mains of labour centres. In their annual work plan, they draw up special work plan in order to facilitate Roma integration. In 2002 17 programmes were launched for supporting unemployed Roma people. In 2004 the PHARE programme of '*Combating Exclusion from the World of Labour*' facilitate the (re)integration of Roma people to the labour market as well. The total budget of the programme is 28,8 million Euros in 2004. (Equal opportunities - Hungary at Employment Week 2004)

Support marketable trainings, adult education programmes and lifelong learning

The Government attributes prime importance to the popularization and extension of *adult training*. Thanks to these priorities in 2002-2003 tenders were invited for the propagation of Prior Learning Assessment (PLA), such as the elaboration of e-learning programmes and the development of adult training career guidance system. For the propagation of lifelong learning a multi-channel source-system was elaborated: (1) the state budget with (2) employment part of Labour Market Fund and (3) obligatory financial contribution of economic organizations to professional trainings. The Law on Adult Training has created the possibility of normative support, a Government decree regulates the conditions of participation and the annual budget law defines the support fund. The budget allocated for this purpose EUR 1.8 million in 2003 and EUR 11.2 million in 2004. The former sum assisted the training of 5 300 people, while the latter will serve 30 000. Participants in accredited trainings can written off about 30 per cent of the training costs from their personal tax, which is also an indirect budget contribution to training. (Lifelong learning in Hungary - Hungary at Employment Week 2004)

It is worth to mention the development of e-learning programmes to increase the accessibility of learning possibilities at home with the help of modern means of informatics. E-learning provides new possibilities of refreshment and self-trainings in the narrow sense of word of professional training. In 2003 the development facilitated the elaboration of 25 professional training programmes and modules, which also serve model formation. (E.g., Carpenter, Energy specialist, Electronic mechanic, Tourist manager, Managing secretary, Financial and public accountant,... etc) (Lifelong learning in Hungary - Hungary at Employment Week 2004)

In 2004 11 million Euros is available for supporting trainings of adults and adults with disabilities with low education level. This amount of money assists the training for 30 thousand people.

Support the employment of women and finding ways to reconciliation of work and family

The third social group which is threatened by labour market exclusion is women. In Hungary, one-third of the households have under-age children, and 40 per cent have dependent individuals requiring day care or having long-terms illness. These family obligations are mainly undertaken by women. To facilitate the reconciliation of work and family life involves family supports, accessible and acceptable quality childcare, adequate care services for adult dependents, and forms of work organisation and employment that are better adjusted to family responsibilities, primarily the expansion of part-time work.

From 2002 a PHARE programme has begun in called "Creating Equal Opportunity on the Labour Market" is intended to assist women over 40 who are inactive but want to return to the labour market after caring for children or other family members. The programme support projects including pilot projects and organisations offering services to job-seekers and business-starters. (NAP/incl)

In addition to supporting employers, women need *services and training*. Several programmes are being started up in 2004 to improve the employability of women facing disadvantages in the labour market for various reasons. Within the framework of the Human Resource Development Operational Programme (HRD OP) measure called *Promoting the participation of women in the labour market*, significant resources will be made available in 2004-2006 to support alternative employment services and the start-up of business enterprises that will (re)integrate women into the labour market. (NAP/incl)

The *Family Friendly Workplace* award is being issued in 2004 for the fifth time. It involves presenting practice regarding work time, extension training maintaining contacts with parents on temporary leave, and the operation of their childcare facilities. Winners are entitled to use the emblem "Family-Friendly Workplace" for the next year. (NAP/incl)

The institutional background plays an especially important role of the process of reintegration to the labour market. The extent of day-care institutions and the access of institutional care system are the conditional factors of the labour market reintegration of women. Beside the expansion of child care system it necessary to develop the care provision on a family and community basis, and to expand services that care for and nurse the elderly as well.

Improving day-care facilities for children will be a priority for 2004-2006. As of January 1, 2005, every settlement with over 10,000 population will be mandated to operate a crèche. In smaller settlements a "family day-care facility" can be an alternative to the crèche. Since 2003, this form of day-care has received state capitation grant. The goal is to *increase day-care facilities for children under the age of 3 by 10% by 2007*. In order to guarantee the sustainability of the crèche, from 2005 the state

capitation grant will be increased by 25%, and in settlements with less than 10,000 inhabitants the state capitation grant for family day-care service will be increased by 50%. (NAP/incl)

Investment in people and acquiring information skills

Just like in many countries Hungary has met as well with the challenges of digital age. The appropriate knowledge and skills are essential requirements for everyone who, wants to be prepared for the challenges of the digital age. The younger generations in Hungary are ahead of other age groups in learning information technology. In 1996 the Hungarian Government has launched the Sulinet (SchoolNet) programme, which has started to develop the infrastructure background for primary and secondary school students to acquire the essential knowledge of Internet and computer management. At the beginning of 2003 85 per cent of the educational institutions had some kind of internet connection. The Ministry of Education, Ministry of Employment and Labour and the Ministry of Informatics and Communications has introduced and launched the Sulinet Express programme in January 2003. One aspect of the programme is to support the computer purchase of teachers and families with children. Teachers, pupils, students and their parents who take part in accredited adult training can have a HUF 60 000 tax deduction towards their computer purchase, hire or lease a computer, a computer assembly or hardware from a company taking part in the programme. Sulinet products are available at 1 800 places in the country, and by mid December 2003 the turnover of Sulinet Express has reached HUF 10 billion. Within the frames of the Közháló (PublicNet) programme, from 2003 the 5000 terminal points of the Sulinet Programme are to be developed further. A new project was launched in 2003, which is supposed to introduce computers in kindergartens. (The Hungarian Information Society on the Eve of the Accession to the European Union: snapshot and strategic objectives)

Assisting disabled people to lead an independent life

The Act on Rights and Equal Opportunities of Disabled People adopted in 1999 identified the rights and defined the instruments to enforce them. It regulates the rehabilitation of disabled persons (environment, communication, transport, support service and instrumental aid) and gives equal opportunities to them. The National Programme for Persons with Disabilities was introduced intended to implement the new legislation. (JIM) The program is being implemented between 2000 and 2010. It defines the most important development trends in the areas of physical and informational accessibility, as well as access to transportation, healthcare, education, employment, sports, culture, recreation and social care. The goal is to establish the preconditions for equal opportunities, social integration and independent life.

Within the framework of National Equal Opportunity Programme one of the most important tasks is to make public buildings accessible to disabled persons. As part of a programme being implemented with PHARE support, 150 schools and sport centers will be made accessible to disabled persons by 2005. A model programme was started in Baranya and Jász-nagykun-Szolnok counties in 2004. The aim of these programmes is to enable disabled access to public outdoor spaces through public work schemes. In coming years this programme will be extended to other counties as well.

In 2002 such a sum as the previous year, 200 million HUF and budgetary support was made available in order to provide equal opportunities for disabled people in the field of transport and to support programmes of public transport companies. The Ministry of Economy and Transport suggested further developing the programme and providing support for local authorities as well. (JIM)

To assure access to information for people with hearing impairment, regional sign-language interpreting services have been established. They are in close contact with the welfare, healthcare, educational and employment institutions and provide translation, interpreting and note-taking assistance. In coming years it is need to develop this service as well. (NAP/incl)

Support the integrated education

The issue of integrated education system emerges mainly in connection with the roma and the disabled pupils. According to the National Action Plan in 2004 in Hungary, the proportion of children with special educational needs (learning disabilities) is 5.3% while in the European Union is only 2.5-3%. The other significant problem is the overrepresentation of Roma children. Nearly 20% of Roma students are qualified as having special educational needs, while the rate for non-Roma students is only 2%. It often happens that children are redirected to special-needs schools simply because their social circumstances are poor and as a result they are not yet mature enough for school. To reduce the number of children unnecessarily labelled as disabled the Act on Public Education established a new term 'children with special educational needs' from January 2003. Between 2004-2006 the measure called 'Ensuring equal opportunities for disadvantaged pupils in education' will finance programmes to promote educational integration and the provision of other local services for children in special educational needs with the help of special regional methodological education centres.

Homeless people

Hungary has had to look for answers to the problem of homelessness again since 1989-1990. Services to homeless people have been regulated by law since 1993. There are only estimates regarding the number of homeless people in Hungary but it is believed they are between 35 000 and 40 000. Homeless shelters provide approximately 6 200 beds at the end of 2002. These capacities can cover only a proportion of needs and there are also too few programmes in prevention and re-integration. In the years to come, it is need to expand the governmental and non-governmental initiatives to caring for the homeless and reducing the number of people living on the streets. (NAP/incl)

The street social work has to be advanced which involves the evolving and advancing the operation conditions for street social work both in the countryside and in Budapest and to maintain *regional dispatcher* centres. The supported *re-integration programmes* for homeless persons will be focused primarily on job finding and on creating opportunities for independent living. One pillar of independent living is maintaining a home and to do this, the programme to increase accommodations outside of institutions will continue. (NAP/incl)

A legislative amendment in 2004 has targeted the establishment of *six regional and four Budapest health centres* which are to provide emergency care, monitoring, and nursing to back up street social work.

Promoting to reduce the regional inequalities

The economic, employment, infrastructural, social and health inequalities between the various regions of Hungary are significant. The eastern and south-western parts of the country there are few job opportunity and beside the high unemployment rate, there is a high rate of economically inactive persons such as persons working in the grey economy. These parts of the country contain many tiny settlements with large numbers of Roma population. As a result, inequalities in living conditions are significant as well. (NAP/incl)

Between 2004 and 2006 a significant amount of Structural Fund resources will be devoted to regional development coordinated by the Operational Programme for Regional Development. Some 75% of these resources will be used in the four most disadvantageous regions in Hungary (Northern Great Plain, Northern Hungary, Southern Great Plain, and Southern Transdanubia). A measure called "*Developing the accessibility of the regions and micro-regions lagging behind*" calls for developing roads and public transport to increase the mobility of labour and access to public services. The target groups of the employment component are people who are disadvantaged in accessing the labour market and are economically inactive or long-term unemployed. This programme will include *10,000-14,000 people a year*. (NAP/incl)

As of 2004, *regional development model programmes* coordinated by the Government Office of Equal Opportunity will get underway. A complex development starts in a region called Cserehát, a region where there is a serious exclusion. There is a high concentration of people with multiple disadvantages and urban and rural areas are becoming ghettos. The goals of the programme are cooperation along the border region, advancing the transportation system, increasing opportunities for employment and income, advancing the human resources of the region, assuring education opportunities for the youngest generation, promoting improved access to healthcare services and participation in information society. (NAP/incl)

Supporting NGOs

The number of NGOs' has developed since the political system changed in 1989/1999 and at present there are about 60,000 NGOs in Hungary. The Central Statistics Office reports that 47,000 of them are actually operative.

While the state contribution is 40%-60% in the European Union countries, they are under 30% in Hungary. This is why separate funding such as the National Civil Fund Programme is important, since it provides effective means of assisting civil society in its operations. The basic principle of the National Civil Programme is to provide matching funds from the central budget. The goal of the Programme is to support the operation of NGOs that can take over tasks currently conducted by the state and to

ensure equal opportunities for NGOs operating in disadvantaged regions. Since 1996 it has been possible for taxpayers to earmark 1% of their personal income tax to be given to the NGO of their choice. In 2003, 34% of taxpayers took advantage of this opportunity and directed their 1%-s to nearly 22,000 NGOs. (NAP/incl)

7 Conclusion

In this report we tried to outline the most important elements of social quality in the component of socio-economic security, social inclusion, social cohesion as well as social empowerment in Hungary. The collapse of communism in 1989-90 has forced Hungary as well as other CEE countries to reconstruct completely their political, economic and cultural identity. The overlapping phases of these changes have resulted in debate about the process which has become known as „the transition” and Europeanization or globalization. (*Manning, 2004*)

While we were elaborating this report we realised that the permanently „moving targets” after the collapse of communism enforce a persistent adaptation on individuals. Moreover, from the social quality perspective we would like to continue and use the notion of revaluation as well. In the process of revaluation individuals do more than only adapt themselves to the changing circumstances. The notion of revaluation includes one of the elements of the subject matters of the social quality approach, which is the reciprocal relationships between processes of self-realisation of individuals as social beings. In the process of revaluation individuals try to adjust to changing structural conditions on the one hand, and on the other hand, the process of self-realisation happens among new structural conditions where everybody has a “new” place. From this dynamic approach, we would like to point at some structural differences of transitional countries compared with western countries and describe the Hungarian social quality from 1990 at the same time.

First of all, it is important to make the relationship clear between poverty and the individuals’ life-cycle. While in western countries children and elderly have significantly higher risk of living in poor material circumstances compared to middle aged individuals, in transitional countries the pattern is different, because the poverty risk for the elderly is lower than that for the average (*Klugman et al., 2002*). In Hungary, although the income situation of the elderly also deteriorated in the nineties, it did so to a less degree than among active people. It means that in transitional countries for many people work does not help to pull them out of poverty because work is badly paid, or there are not enough members of the household in paid employment, or both. While in EU-15 one earner in the household is sufficient to reduce the poverty risk to below average, this is not the case in post-socialist countries. The most important reason for it is that these societies are characterized by widespread low pay. In addition, there was a sharp increase in earning differences among those who do have paid employment in the last decade. The Gini-coefficients for earnings are larger than that of household income even in countries where overall income inequalities have risen modestly (*UNICEF, 2001*). It is straightforward that maximizing the active members of the households has become an important strategy among Hungarian families. That is why Hungarian households have become “two-earner households” where the labour market participation of mothers is essential to prevent impoverishment.

It is obvious that the number of small children affects women’s employment opportunities. In Hungary, although different welfare measures have survived the socialist times, females with small children in

particular after maternity leave have higher risks to become inactive. Even if they have managed to keep their jobs, the probability of (temporal) status loss is quite high (*Bukodi and Róbert, 2004*). For women balancing between work and family responsibilities one of the most obvious solutions is to take a part-time job. However, part-time work may mean different things to different people. For some people it means an advantageous work schedule which gives opportunities to reconcile the work and family duties besides the supplement of family income and which helps to maintain ties to the labour market. But, for others – who are unable to get full-time work – it is a “forced” employment status. What is more, the phenomenon of part-time employment is different in each person’s case but it has different meaning among European countries as well. In post-socialist countries only a small part of women worked in part-time jobs in the nineties. There may be several reasons for that. However, by now it is well demonstrated that mother’s would like to have more opportunities for part time employment, but the public sector has no policy to satisfy this demand. Moreover, the private sector avoids creating part-time jobs because it increases its transaction costs. Private employers may feel that part-time jobs are too expensive for them, because of equal security being given to these kinds of jobs as to full time jobs, but without the same amount of time being invested by part-time employees. Explaining the low share of part time work in Hungary, it is not a negligible factor that, – due to the relatively low wage level – two “full-time” earnings are needed for most of the families to ensure appropriate living conditions.

To help mothers reintegration to the labour market structural conditions play important roles. With municipal kindergarten enrollment, it has slightly increased in recent years. This institution can make it easier for women to take a job after maternity leave. The question is whether it is “enough help” for females aiming at returning to paid employment after child-birth. Besides the hours of child-care institutions and other services that better fit working schedules, the other factors that help parents to combine the work and family are school buses and school meals, and the better transportation to get to school.

Another essential factor to conciliate work and family besides the special institutional background is the extensive family network. The majority of asked employed women claimed that it was the grandparents’ help that had made it possible for them to reintegrate to the labour market. Although, different generations are less likely to live together in Hungary than they used to, help from the family, primarily from grandparents, remains important for households with children to conciliate work and family.

For the (re)integration into the labour market it is essential to have the adequate skills and knowledge. Besides formal training, the other aspect of investment in human capital is the life-long learning. In Hungary much smaller number of people participate in the different forms of training after completing initial education compared to Western European countries. (*OECD, 1999*). Partly, it is a consequence of the nature of the Hungarian educational system, where vocational training is embedded in the initial curricula. On the other hand, the lack of further investment in training and knowledge may lead to

higher unemployment risk and to lower chance of reintegration to the labour market as well as to lower chance of getting a high-rewarding job.

Apart from educational level, health status plays an other fundamental role in labour market (re)integration. It is straightforward that the poor health status may lead to extreme difficulties in finding a job, which results in huge deterioration in socio-economic position. In 2004 several policy programmes have been launched to support the training of adults and disabled adults with low education level. The aims of these projects are to support services, which are adjusted to the needs and possibilities of disabled people, to provide assistance in finding a job in the integration at the workplace, and furthermore in meeting the special infrastructural conditions necessary for training and employing disabled people.

According to the report it is well established to speak about the “losers” and the „winners” of the last decade’s transition in Hungary. „Losers” were the poor-educated households with low financial status where the head of the household was either unemployed or non-retired inactive. The greatest “winners” were young people with tertiary education, whose financial status improved substantially in the 1990s. On the whole, skill level and employment possibilities seem to be the most important factors of social standing in Hungary. Numerous studies emphasize the end of the process of „social paternoster”, which pictures the redefining process of individuals among the new conditions after the transition. By now it is well-demonstrated that there exists a group of poor people who experience multiple deprivations. Due to their very low skill level, they are unable to (re)integrate into the labour market, thus their participation in the mainstream society means great challenges. At the same time, the failure to reintegrate them raises the threaten of dual society in which some are trapped in long-term socio-economic insecurity and unable to share the benefits of economic and social development (Ferge et al., 2003). To prevent and handle the deprivational spiral it is needed to develop an adequate social policy programme. The dilemma of the development path in social matters merits more attention, because the unrestrained market may cause not only a dual society within countries but also intensify the welfare gap between the old and the new member states in the European Union.

The process of self-revaluation of individuals happens under the changed conditions. According to the Theoretical State of Affairs carried out by EFSQ (21 June 2002) the methodological triangle of the social quality approach is composed of constitutional factors, objective conditional factors and subjective conditional factors that is profiles. The form of profiles is made up of the role of life scripts, the biographical story of the acting individual subject. In Hungary and in the other transitional countries the persistent self-revaluation is an energy-consuming process, where individuals tend to define the assignment of resources as a „zero-sum” game. The issues of the social cohesion chapter underpin this theory by a lot of examples, such as the issue of the inclusion of immigrants. According to various researches people in Hungary with higher schooling and better income tend to be much more open regarding the inclusion of immigrants and whereas Hungarians with less schooling and low income are against the inclusion of them.

Another characteristic of transitional countries including Hungary is the dissimilar nature of integrative norms and values. From this point of view, indicators aiming at capturing individuals' opinion on the possible causes of poverty or socio-economic insecurity may have a particular importance. The European Values Survey revealed a mixed picture in Hungary. To summarize, in post-socialist countries the most frequently cited reasons for socio-economic insecurity were external and structural ones, rather than internal and personal causes. The over-emphasise of these kinds of causes in Hungary may prognosticate that people expect resolution from government and social policy actions in reference to winding-up poverty. However in the 90's the number of various mutual benefit societies and NGO's are increased, the state remained the most important doer in the reference to winding-up poverty. In addition, the growing interest in politics towards poverty and social inclusion tends to verify these expectations.

The nature of personal social networks is very different from the Western European pattern. In the Communist systems of Central and Eastern Europe, informal economy was built on personal relationships. People have maintained strong private and unofficial contacts among each other with those who can help them to resolve daily problems, because people in the region know whom they trust, and they trust those whom they know (*Delhey and Newton 2003*). In Hungary after the system transition – similar to communist time – the personal social networks are less extensive but the bands are stronger compared with the Western European countries.

In the Initiatives chapter, the „cognitive Europeanization” does not mean direct impacts but rather indirect changes in the way social issues are handled and discussed (*Lendvai, 2004*). Through enlargement the EU exported social-policy ideas and attitudes to Hungary in a number of initiatives. The Join Inclusion Memorandum or the different action plans are important tasks also in Hungary as well where the new approaches show where there has been no serious government poverty strategy. It is important to realise that the European impact on the social matter has increased over in recent years, and its main results are the growing political interest in poverty and social inclusion, and the widening practice of civil society and social dialogue (*Ferge and Juhász, 2004*) Through enlargement the EU, the non-governmental organizations and the various mutual benefit societies may play an even more important role in the development of Hungarian social quality.

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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
	Care services	13. Average response time of medical ambulance
Work	Employment security	14. Average number of hours spent on care differentiated by paid and unpaid
		15. Length of notice before employer can change terms and conditions of labour relation/contract
		16. Length of notice before termination of labour contract
	Working conditions	17. proportion employed workforce with temporary, non permanent, job contract
		18. Proportion of workforce that is illegal
		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
Education	Security of education	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)
	Quality 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
		24. Proportion of students who, within a year of leaving school with or without certificate, are able to find employment

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

Indicators of Social Cohesion

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

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

Indicators of Social Inclusion

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

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

Indicators of Social Empowerment

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

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

Statistical Annex

Socio-economic Security

Domain: Income

Sub-domain: income sufficiency

Table 1 Proportion of household income spent on food, housing maintenance, clothing, health, and transport (%)

Income level	Food		Clothing		Health		Transport, communication	
	1993	2002	1993	2002	1993	2002	1993	2002
1 st deciles	40,4	35,8	7,2	6,0	3,5	5,4	9,1	10,9
10 th deciles	26,1	21,3	7,7	5,5	3,9	5,3	19,5	21,4
Mean	33,8	28,8	7,5	5,6	3,8	6,2	13,1	16,5

Source: Hungarian Household Budget Surveys

Sub-domain: income security

Table 2 At-risk-of-poverty rate according to employment status, 2003

	Employee	Self-employed	Unemployed	Retired	Other inactive	Mean
Males	7,3	4,0	43,5	9,1	18,0	12,3
Females	4,2	3,5	40,0	12,3	21,3	14,1
Mean	5,9	3,9	41,9	11,0	19,9	13,2

Note: Poverty threshold: 60% of median household income

Source: TARKI Household Monitor Survey, 2003

Table 3 At-risk-of-poverty rate in households with children, 2003

	Lone parent	Couple, 1 child	Couple, 2 children	Couple, 3+ children
Rate	37,4	10,8	10,3	30,4

Note: Poverty threshold: 60% of median household income

Source: TARKI Household Monitor Survey, 2003

Table 4 Workless household living under poverty threshold according to household type, 2002 (%)

Type of household	% of workless household	% of workless household living under poverty threshold
One-person household	79,7	6,0
Household:		
without dependent child	59,7	6,0
with 1 child	11,2	40,5
with 2 children	7,0	46,2
with 3 or more children	22,3	65,6
Total	36,8	33,0

Note: Poverty threshold: 60% of median household income

Source: Hungarian Household Budget Survey

Table 5 At-risk-of-poverty rate before and after transfers, 2003

	At-risk-of-poverty rate
Before any transfers	38,5
Including pensions	23,0
After all transfers	13,2

Note: Poverty threshold: 60% of median household income

Source: TARKI Household Monitor Survey, 2003

Domain: Housing

Sub-domain: housing security

Table 6 Dwelling distribution (%)

	Ownership	Private rent	Municipal rent	Other	Total
1990	73,6	3,4	19,0	4,0	100,0
2003	87,9	2,5	3,9	5,5	100,0

Source: Census, 1990; General Dwelling Survey, 2003 (HCSO)

Table 7 At-risk-of-poverty rate by tenure status, 2003

	At-risk-of-poverty rate
Owner	11,9
Tenant (private and municipal)	20,6

Note: Poverty threshold: 60% of median household income

Source: TARKI Household Monitor Survey, 2003

Table 8 Proportion of households consisting of two or more families (%)

	%
1970	5,5
1980	4,2
1990	2,6
2001	3,2

Source: Census

Sub-domain: housing conditions

Table 9 Indicators of housing density

	Number of square meters per a household member	Number of rooms per a household member
1999	28	0,96
2003	30	1,02

Source: General Dwelling Surveys (HCSO)

Table 10 Proportion of crowded dwellings (%)

	%
1980	32,3
1984	22,4
1990	16,9
1996	15,2
1999	13,5
2003	7,7

Note: crowded dwelling: number of household members per room exceeds 1 (EUROSTAT definition).

Source: Census, 1980, 1990, 2001;

Micro-census, 1984, 1996;

General Dwelling Survey, 1999, 2003

Table 11 Proportion of over-crowded dwellings according to size of settlement (%)

Size of settlement (number of inhabitants)	%
Budapest	4,4
100 000 and more	4,2
50 000 – 99 999	4,1
20 000 – 49 999	5,2
10 000 – 19 999	5,7
5 000 – 9 999	6,4
2 000 – 4 999	6,3
1 000 – 1 999	6,6
500 – 999	7,0
200 – 499	7,5
Less than 200	7,3
Total	5,4

Note: overcrowded dwelling: number of household members per room exceeds 2.

Source: Census, 2001

Table 12 Proportion of sub-standard dwellings according to country-region, 2003 (%)

Country-region	%
Central	10,0
Central-Transdanubia	10,4
Western-Transdanubia	9,8
Southern-Transdanubia	13,8
Northern Hungary	18,6
Northern Great Plain	18,1
Southern Great Plain	21,4
Total	14,1

Note: Sub-standard dwelling: dwelling without WC, bathroom or shower, piped-water,

Source: General Dwelling Survey, 2003

Sub-domain: environmental conditions

Table 13 Number of individuals affected by criminal offences per 100 000 inhabitants

	Males	Females
1990	2817	1199
1995	4640	1938
2000	3566	1689
2002	3226	1605

Source: Hungarian Statistical Yearbook

Table 14 Perception concerning the safety of the neighbourhood (%)

	%
Very safe	7,5
Rather safe	59,2
Rather not safe	25,9
Not at all	4,8
Other answer	2,7
Total	100,0

Source: European Social Survey, 2002

Table 15 Proportion of households living in unhealthy surroundings (%)

	Budapest	County seat	other town	village
dust	53,9	50,1	37,3	31,1
air-pollution	42,8	31,9	20,3	14,4
polluted surrounding	17,4	13,4	5,9	4,8

Source: Dwelling Survey, 1999 (HCSO)

Domain: Health

Sub-domain: health services

Table 16 Number of medical doctors per 10 000 inhabitants

	Rate	1990=100%
1990	31,70	100,0
1995	33,53	105,8
2000	35,54	112,1
2002	36,80	116,1

Source: Yearbook on Health Statistics

Table 17 Changes in the number of the hospital beds per 10 000 inhabitants (1990=100%)

	%
1990	100,0
1995	89,4
2000	81,9
2002	79,0

Source: Yearbook on Health Statistics

Table 18.1 Proximity to hospital according to income level, 2002

Income level	Hungary	EU-15
Lowest quartile	16,0	44,9
Highest quartile	46,8	60,4
Mean	31,4	52,8

Note: Proximity: % of individuals having access to a hospital in less than 20 minutes

Source: European Foundation for the improvement of working and living conditions:
Health and care in an enlarged Europe

Table 18.2 Proximity to general practitioner's surgery according to income level, 2002

Income level	Hungary	EU-15
Lowest quartile	66,5	83,3
Highest quartile	81,9	86,0
Mean	74,3	84,7

Note: Proximity: % of individuals having access to the surgery in less than 20 minutes

Source: European Foundation for the improvement of working and living conditions:
Health and care in an enlarged Europe

Sub-domain: health status

Table 19 Life expectancy at birth

	Male	Female
1990	65.13	73.71
1991	65.02	73.83
1992	64.55	73.73
1993	64.55	73.73
1994	64.84	74.23
1995	65.25	74.50
1996	66.06	74.70
1997	66.35	75.08
1998	66.14	75.18
1999	66.32	75.13
2000	67.11	75.59
2001	68.15	76.46
2002	68,26	76,56

Source: Demographic Yearbooks

Table 20 Proportion of individuals aged 15-64 with serious sickness in 2000 (%)

	% of individuals with serious sickness		% of individuals who are limited in everyday activities by their serious sickness	
	Males	Females	Males	Females
In labour force	7.7	7.1	1.0	1.4
Not in labour force	26.6	23.4	7.2	6.7
Total	14.4	14.8	3.2	3.9

Source: Way of Life and Time Use Survey, 2000

Table 21 Proportion of individuals with long-term illnesses according to income situation, 2002 (%)

	Lowest income quartile	Highest income quartile	Mean
Hungary	48,8	17,5	33,4
EU-15	24,8	15,1	19,3

Source: European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions (2004): Health and care in an enlarged Europe.

Quality of Life in Europe. Dublin.

Table 22 Proportion of individuals regards their own health status bad (%)

Health status	%
Bad	14,4
Very bad	4,3

Source: European Social Survey, 2002

Domain: care

Sub-domain: paid care services

Table 23 Indicators on infants' nurseries

	Number of infants' nurseries		Number of space per 100 infant aged 0-3	
	number	1990=100%	number	1990=100%
1990	1003	100,0	13,7	100,0
1998	565	56,3	8,8	64,2
1999	549	54,7	8,8	64,2
2000	532	53,0	8,7	63,5
2001	532	53,0	8,6	62,8
2002	523	52,1	8,4	61,3
2003	515	51,3	8,3	60,6

Source: Statistical Yearbook on Social Care

Table 24 Proportion of children aged 3-6 enrolling nursery school and kindergarden(%)

	%
1990	82,1
1998	85,1
1999	85,9
2000	86,2
2001	86,4
2002	87,8

Source: Hungarian Statistical Yearbook

Table 25 Indicators on family and child care allowances (%)

	Family allowance as % of persons aged 0-18	Child-care aid as % of females aged 15-49	Child-care fee as % of females aged 15-49
1990	91,0	3,7	6,1
2000	96,1	7,5	2,1
2003	99,4	6,8	3,1

Source: Yearbook on Social Cares and Services

Table 26 Proportion of elderly (aged 60 and over) receiving home-care service (%)

	General home-care service	Paid catering
1990	4,3	4,6
1995	2,2	5,3
2000	1,9	4,7
2002	2,0	4,9

Source: Yearbook on Social Cares and Services

Sub-domain: unpaid care services

Table 27 Time spent on unpaid childcare in an average day (minutes), 2000

	Males	Females
Single, no children	2,6	6,8
Couple, no children	6,5	11,3
Couple, children aged 0-6	70,9	175,8
Couple, children aged 7-17	20,7	39,7
Single with children	..	76,5
Total	13,8	30,8

Source: Time Use Survey, 2000

Domain: employment

Sub-domain: employment security

Table 28 Proportion of employees with temporary contract (%)

	15-24	25-29	30-39	40-49	50-	Total
1997	11,7	7,1	5,4	4,6	7,4	6,6
1998	11,8	7,3	5,6	4,3	6,7	6,6
1999	10,8	7,5	5,7	4,0	5,2	6,1
2000	13,6	8,0	6,7	4,9	5,5	7,1
2001	14,9	8,0	7,3	5,6	5,3	7,5
2002	14,7	8,0	7,2	5,4	5,3	7,3
2003	16,4	9,5	6,9	5,7	5,1	7,5

Source: Hungarian Labour Force Survey

Table 29 Socio-economic composition of employees with different job contracts in 2000 (%)

	Permanent job	Fixed-term contract
Service class	29.2	21.7
Routine non-manuals	9.1	10.0
Self-employed	10.6	5.0
Skilled workers	21.9	22.9
Unskilled workers	29.2	40.5
Total	100.0	100.0

Source: Way of Life and Time Use Survey, 2000

Table 30 Job mobility rate, 2003 (%)

	%
Age	
15–24	14,3
25–29	10,5
30–39	7,3
40–49	5,5
50– x	3,6
Education	
Primary	8,5
Vocational school	8,6
Secondary school	6,2
Tertiary diploma	5,0
Total	7,1

Note: Job mobility rate: % of employees changing job in the preceding year of the survey.

Source: Hungarian Labour Force Survey

Table 31 Proportion of employees leaving their last job involuntary (%)

	%
1992	73.46
1993	71.61
1994	68.54
1995	67.44
1996	64.98
1997	60.41
1998	59.44
1999	56.91
2000	55.98
2001	55.70
2002	54.10

Source: Hungarian Labour Force Surveys

Table 32 Options concerning return to the labour market after maternity leave (% of females in maternity leave)

	1993	2002
Previous employer does not exist any more	9	12
Previous employer does not want to employ her after maternity leave	34	33
Does not want to return to her previous employer	7	10
Does want to return to her previous employer	50	45

Source: HCSO (2003)

Sub-domain: employment and working conditions

Table 33 Proportion of employees in part-time work (%)

	1995	2003
Gender		
Male	2,0	2,6
Female	4,6	5,9
Age		
15–24	2,5	3,1
25–29	2,7	3,1
30–39	2,2	3,4
40–49	2,0	3,2
50– x	8,1	7,6
Education		
Primary	4,8	7,2
Vocational school	1,9	3,2
Secondary school	2,7	4,0
Tertiary diploma	4,1	3,7
Total	3,2	4,2

Source: Hungarian Labour Force Surveys

Table 34 Number of hours employees typically work a week

	1995	2003
Gender		
Male	41,3	40,4
Female	36,6	36,4
Age		
15–24	38,9	39,1
25–29	39,8	38,9
30–39	39,7	38,9
40–49	39,7	38,8
50– x	37,1	37,3
Education		
Primary	38,2	37,6
Vocational school	40,6	39,6
Secondary school	39,5	38,6
Tertiary diploma	37,6	37,3
Total	39,2	38,5

Source: Hungarian Labour Force Surveys

Table 35 Incidence of work accidents

	Accidents at work		Fatal accidents	
	Number	Per 1000 manual workers	Number	Per 1000 manual workers
1990	88684	35,6	428	17,2
1997	28896	20,9	149	10,8
2000	28220	18	153	9,8

Source: Hungarian Statistical Yearbooks

Domain: education

Sub-domain: educational security

Table 36 Highest education of population aged 15-64, 2001 (%)

Age	Un-completed primary	Primary	Vocational school	Secondary school	Tertiary school	Total
15–19	6,3	68,8	9,4	15,6	–	100,0
20–24	2,1	18,5	28,5	45,3	5,6	100,0
25–29	2,1	20,3	32,7	30,2	14,8	100,0
30–39	2,3	21,2	31,8	29,1	15,7	100,0
40–49	2,8	27,6	27,3	27,8	14,6	100,0
50–59	4,7	38,7	14,9	27,6	14,1	100,0
60–64	13,3	57,4	0,1	19,7	9,5	100,0
Total	4,0	32,8	22,7	28,5	11,9	100,0

Source: Census, 2001

Table 37 Early school leavers, 2003 (%)

	Male	Female
EU15	20,3	15,9
Hungary	12,4	11,1

Note: early school leavers: persons aged 18-24 with only primary education and not in formal and non-formal schools.

Source: Hungarian Labour Force Surveys

Sub-domain: quality of education (return to education)

Table 38 Labour market exclusion in young population (%)

	15–19	20–24	25–29
Males			
% of individuals exp. employment exclusion	8,7	12,0	7,8
Long-term unemployed	0,3	2,5	4,1
Not in school/not in work	8,4	9,5	3,7
Females			
% of individuals exp. employment exclusion	8,4	13,2	8,8
Long-term unemployed	0,2	1,2	2,4
Not in school/not in work	8,2	11,9	6,4

Source: Census, 2001

Table 39 Proportion of young individuals (aged 15-29) experienced labour market exclusion according to education (%)

	Un-completed primary	Primary	Vocational	Secondary	Tertiary
Males	24,9	11,0	9,1	7,0	5,4
Females	39,5	11,9	9,0	7,6	6,8

Source: Census, 2001

Social Inclusion

Domain: Rights

Sub-domain: political rights

Table 1 Proportion of individuals (with election rights) voted in elections (%)

Year	General election	Local election
1990	65,1	40,2
1994	68,9	43,4
1998	56,3	45,7
2002	70,5	51,1

Source: www.valasztas.hu

Sub-domain: civil rights

Table 2 Proportion of individuals experiencing any kind of discrimination (%)

	%
% of individuals experiencing discrimination	5,1
% of individuals belonging to a minority group experiencing discrimination	34,1
% of females experiencing discrimination	5,2
% of individuals aged 14-29 experiencing discrimination	5,9
% of individuals aged 30-49 experiencing discrimination	5,4
% of individuals aged 50-69 experiencing discrimination	5,3
% of individuals aged 70-x experiencing discrimination	2,4

Source: European Social Survey, 2002

Table 3 Women's pay as a proportion of men's in different occupations (%)

Occupation	1995	2002
Managers	85	80
Professionals	80	70
Intermediate professionals	81	77
Service and sales occupations	75	82
Unskilled workers	80	90
Total	81	86

Source: Hungarian Labour Force Survey

Sub-domain: economic and political network

Table 4 Women's participation in the general elections as candidates and elected representatives (%)

Year	Candidates	Elected representatives
1990	8,5	7,0
1994	10,0	11,2
1998	14,2	8,5
2002	14,0	9,2

Source: CEDEW (2000)

Table 5 Women's participation in the local elections as elected mayors and elected representatives (%)

Year	Elected mayors	Elected representatives
1990	10,8	15,6
1994	10,4	20,2
1998	12,7	24,0

Source: CEDEW (2000)

Table 6 Proportion of women in high managerial and high professional occupations (%)

	1973	1983	1992	2000
Women	2,3	6,0	5,6	8,1
Men	5,5	10,6	10,0	11,2

Source: Social Mobility Surveys, 1973-1992; Way of Life Survey, 2000

Table 7 Proportion of Roma in high and medium managerial as well as in high professional occupations (%)

	Roma	Others
Male	0,3	6,2
Female	0,2	3,9

Source: Census, 2001

Domain: Access to services

Sub-domain: access to paid employment

Table 8 Proportion of long-term unemployed among all unemployed (%)

Year	Long-term unemployment	Very long term unemployment
1992	20,4	–
1995	49,2	25,3
2000	48,9	23,8
2003	41,0	20,5

Source: Hungarian Labour Force Survey

Sub-domain: access to health services

Table 9 Proportion of those who *does not* attend medical doctor in the case of health problems, 2000 (%) (individuals aged 15-84)

	%
Employment status	
Employed	17,5
Unemployed	17,3
Retired	4,6
Disabled	2,9
Other inactive	15,5
Income status	
1 st quintile	12,8
5 th quintile	9,6
Total	9,9

Source: Way of Life and Time Use Survey, 2000

Sub-domain: access to housing

Table 10 Some estimates on the number of homeless in Hungary

	Estimated numbers of homelessness in Budapest	Estimated numbers of homelessness in Hungary	Definition	Method
1980		30 thousand	'effective homeless'	Estimation based on Census data 1980
1987		30-60 thousand	Homeless(=hobos) in broader sense	No information
1990		10-15 thousand	'effective homeless'	No information
1990		3-400 thousand	People at risk of becoming 'effective homeless'	No information
1999	8-10 thousand		homeless	Statistical estimation
1999	7-8 thousand / 3,2-3,5 thousand		Potential need for services in winter / potential need for shelter point in time	No information
2001	7-10 thousand	Double of data in Budapest	homeless	No information
2002		25-30 thousand	homeless	No information

Source: Erdősi et al., 2003

Sub-domain: access to education

Table 11 Proportion of individuals in full time education at different ages (%)

Year	At the age of 16	At the age of 20
1991	80,3	14,3
1995	86,7	20,0
2000	89,0	38,0
2002	91,8	40,6

Source: Hungarian Educational and Demographic database

Table 12 Proportion of individuals with secondary school diploma continuing their education at tertiary level by parents' education (%)

Parents' education	1984	1995	2000
Uncompleted primary	19,1	19,2	19,8
Primary	21,5	21,8	24,2
Vocational school	21,5	29,2	30,9
Secondary school	33,7	37,1	48,8
Tertiary diploma	56,4	58,6	66,7

Source: General Youth Survey, 1984, 1995, 2000

Sub-domain: access to social transfers and social care

Table 13 Proportion of all and poor households receiving mean-tested social transfers, 2001 (%)

	All households	Poor households
No transfers	84,0	58,0
Only 1 type of transfers	12,0	29,3
More types of transfers	4,0	12,7
Total	100,0	100,0

Note: poor households: households under poverty threshold (60% of medium household income)

Source: Hungarian Household Budget Survey

Table 14 Data on long-term residential social institutions and clubs for the aged population, 1993=100%

Year	Number of persons, 1993=100%	Number of institutions, 1993=100%
1993	100,0	100,0
1994	103,3	103,9
1995	107,7	112,6
1996	113,2	120,3
1997	118,9	129,1
1998	123,8	135,4
1999	126,3	140,0
2000	132,1	146,5
2001	137,9	155,7
2002	141,5	162,0
2003	147,1	169,9

Source: Hungarian Statistical Office

Table 15 Main data on family assistance services

	Number of institutions	Number of recipients (thousand)	Number of full-time employed persons
1998	462	246,4	2142
1999	558	286,4	2294
2000	660	273,9	2291
2001	776	290,4	2820
2002	805	310,4	2455
2003	777	307,3	2587

Source: Hungarian Statistical Office

Table 16 Number of adults who live in homes for the disabled

Year	Number of persons	1993=100%
1993	8070	100,0
1994	8655	107,2
1995	10228	126,7
1996	10863	134,6
1997	10499	130,1
1998	11084	137,3
1999	11060	137,1
2000	11778	145,9
2001	12674	157,1
2002	12943	160,4
2003	13418	166,3

Source: Hungarian Statistical Office

Sub-domain: access to financial services

Table 17 Proportion of households having credits and savings (%)

Household income level	No credit, no saving	Only saving	Only credit	Both credit and saving
1 st quintile	36,9	26,2	22,3	14,5
5 th quintile	15,8	58,7	2,3	23,3
Total	29,5	43,6	10,4	16,6

Source: TÁRKI (2002)

Sub-domain: access to cultural services

Table 18 Number of cultural facilities per 100 inhabitants

	Theatre attendances per 100 inhabitants	Museum attendances per 100 inhabitants	Cinema attendances per 100 inhabitants
1990	55,4	132,7	349,4
1995	44,3	88,6	137,3
2000	43,5	98,7	142,6
2002	45,6	96,2	150,4

Source: Hungarian Statistical Yearbook

Table 19 “Do you regularly attend theatre, museum, or concerts?” – by household income level

	Yes	No, because			Total
		he/she has no money for that	it is unimportant for him/her	for other reasons	
1 st quintile	4,2	28,9	22,7	44,3	100,0
5 th quintile	28,8	11,7	11,7	47,8	100,0
Total	13,1	22,4	17,1	47,4	100,0

Source: Hungarian Demographic Survey, 2002

Domain: Communities, family

Sub-domain: friendship

Table 20 Proportion of individuals *not having* friend; (persons aged 18-x) (%)

	1993	1997	2001
Males	14	21	34
Females	25	35	43

Source: International Social Survey Program

Table 21 ‘How often do you meet your friends?’; (persons aged 18-x) (%)

	Every day	Every week	Every month	Rare
Males	31,1	47,4	15,6	6,9
Females	33,6	38,6	19,4	8,4

Source: International Social Survey Program, 2001

Table 22 Time spent alone on an average day (minutes)

	1986		2000	
	weekday	weekend	weekday	weekend
male	375,64	389,01	515,08	524,08
female	470,68	481,97	614,02	620,67

Source: Time Use Survey, 1986, 2000

Table 23 Time per day spent on socialising in different countries (minutes)

Country	%
Belgium	62
Denmark	81
France	55
Finland	64
Sweden	70
UK	67
Estonia	50
Hungary	51
Slovenia	69

Source: EUROSTAT (2003)

Sub-domain: family

Table 24 Time spent on socialising with family in an average day, 2000(minutes)

Age	Males	Females
15-24	18,3	20,4
25-44	19,7	17,8
45-64	17,3	18,7
65-84	22,7	19,0
Total	19,5	18,3

Source: Way of Life and Time Use Survey, 2000

Table 25 Proportion of individuals receiving family assistance in the preceding year of the survey, 2002 (%)

Age	Monetary assistance	Non-monetary assistance
18-29	42,0	34,7
30-39	34,0	43,7
40-49	20,2	26,3
50-59	12,7	25,5
60-69	8,5	29,4
70-75	10,5	42,9
Total	24,3	32,8

Source: Hungarian Demographic Survey, 2002

Table 26 Proportion of households receiving and giving inter-household assistance by income level (%)

	1999		2002	
	1st decile (bottom)	10th decile (top)	1st decile (bottom)	10th decile (top)
Household receiving any assistance	55,5	57,7	60,6	72,7
Household giving any assistance	58,3	84,3	46,6	76,2

Source: HCSO (2004)

Social Cohesion

Domain: Trust

Sub-domain: Generalised trust

Table 1 Proportion of the population who thinks that most people can be trusted, 2002

Country	You cannot be too careful												Most people can be trusted	Unknown	Total	Mean
Hungary	9,3	7,0	10,7	12,5	11,6	25,2	7,7	7,6	4,6	1,4	1,9	0,5	100	4,08		
Austria	5,8	3,5	6,0	9,1	10,3	22,0	10,7	15,0	10,2	3,3	3,5	0,6	100	5,07		
Belgium	7,1	3,9	6,8	9,9	10,1	21,7	11,9	17,1	8,6	1,1	1,3	0,9	100	4,81		
Czech Republic	6,4	6,8	12,2	13,0	11,2	21,1	8,4	9,4	7,0	2,2	1,1	1,0	100	4,25		
Germany	7,0	2,8	7,4	13,4	11,8	23,1	10,1	13,5	7,2	1,9	1,6	0,4	100	4,61		
Greece	12,5	11,6	10,7	16,5	12,3	15	6,4	5,8	5,7	2,3	1,0	0,1	100	3,64		
Ireland	4,2	3,9	6,1	8,2	7,7	18,5	11,9	14,8	15,4	5,3	3,3	1,4	100	5,46		
Denmark	0,7	0,7	1,3	3,5	3,7	15,5	7,4	16,2	31,1	11,6	7,8	1,0	100	6,99		
Spain	4,0	3,8	8,7	11,8	10,2	19,4	14,1	14,7	9,1	1,9	1,1	2,3	100	4,86		
Finland	1,3	0,9	1,9	4,4	6,6	14,2	11,6	25,0	24,9	6,7	2,7	0,1	100	6,46		
United Kingdom	4,8	2,3	5,0	11,0	11,4	23,0	13,8	17,0	8,7	1,4	1,4	0,1	100	5,05		
Italy	7,5	5,3	7,8	12,4	8,4	26,0	11,7	11,6	6,0	1,7	1,5	0,2	100	4,54		
Netherlands	2,9	1,9	3,1	7,4	7,4	19,0	16,2	23,0	14,3	3,1	1,5	0	100	5,71		
Poland	11,2	8,6	11,8	16,0	11,3	22,2	6,6	6,1	3,5	0,9	1,2	1,2	100	3,72		
Portugal	7,7	5,0	10,8	17,5	12,5	21,4	8,9	7,6	4,3	1,5	2,4	0,3	100	4,00		
Sweden	1,7	1,6	3,1	8,1	6,9	17,4	9,3	19,7	23,3	5,7	2,9	0,9	100	6,09		
Slovenia	11,8	7,9	9,7	13,9	9,8	22,3	6,5	8,8	5,5	1,3	2,0	1,2	100	3,98		

Source: European Social Survey (ESS) 2002.

Remarks: 0-10 scale

Table 2 Proportion of the population who thinks that most people can be trusted by education level in Hungary, 2002

	You cannot be too careful												Most people can be trusted	Total	Score
primary school	11,8	9,8	13,5	11,5	10,2	24,4	8,2	5,5	2,4	0,5	2,4	100	3,68		
secondary school	9,4	6,2	10,8	13,1	11,7	27,0	6,1	7,4	4,8	1,6	1,8	100	4,08		
higher education	4,4	4,0	5,5	12,8	14,2	21,3	12,0	12,8	8,8	2,2	1,5	100	4,86		
Mean	9,3	7,0	10,7	12,5	11,6	25,2	7,7	7,6	4,6	1,4	1,9	..	4,08		

Source: European Social Survey (ESS) 2002.

Remarks: 0-10 scale

Sub-domain: Specific trust

Table 3 Trust in different institutions in European countries 2002/2003

	Trust in country's parliament	Legal system	Police	Politicians	European Parliament
Austria	5,1	6,08	6,44	3,52	4,22
Belgium	4,99	4,39	5,64	4,28	4,88
Czech Republic	3,62	3,81	4,98	3,22	4,65
Germany	4,47	5,73	6,73	3,5	4,46
Denmark	6,18	7,13	7,9	5,47	4,84
Spain	4,83	4,31	5,43	3,37	4,80
Finland	5,79	6,75	7,95	4,78	4,88
United Kingdom	4,68	5,03	6,04	3,79	3,61
Greece	4,83	6,27	6,43	3,46	5,69
Hungary	5,00	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
Poland	3,48	3,68	4,95	2,72	4,77
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.

Table 4 Trust in different institutions in Hungary, 2002

	No trust at all										Complete trust	Unknown	Total
Country's parliament	7,5	4	6,2	10,4	7,2	25,5	9,3	8,3	9,8	2,7	5,3	3,8	100
Legal system	5,2	4,9	6,7	9,4	9,4	21,9	8,1	9,9	11,1	3,7	4,6	5,1	100
Police	7	5,1	9	10,9	9,5	19,5	8,9	10	9,1	3,6	5,5	1,9	100
Politicians	10,8	5,9	12,6	13,9	10,8	22,3	8,3	5	4,2	1	1,6	3,6	100

Source: European Social Survey 2002.

Remarks: 0-10 scale

Table 5 Trust in Hungarian country's parliament by education level, 2002

	No trust at all										Complete trust		Unknown	Total
Primary education	9,3	5	6,2	10,1	6	28,3	7,8	7,2	8	2	5,5	4,6	100	
Secondary education	4,8	2,8	7,1	10,8	9,3	23,2	10,1	9,3	12,9	2,9	4,2	2,6	100	
Higher education	4,2	1,4	4,4	10,8	8,6	16,7	15,3	11,6	12,8	5,9	6,6	1,7	100	
Total	7,5	4	6,2	10,4	7,2	25,5	9,3	8,3	9,8	2,7	5,3	3,8	100	

Source: European Social Survey 2002.

Table 6 Trust in legal system by educational level in Hungary 2002

	No trust at all										Complete trust		Unknown	Total
Primary education	6,2	5,6	6,6	9,1	9	24,1	7,3	7,6	8,9	3,5	4,9	7,2	100	
Secondary education	3,7	4,3	7	10,1	9,9	19,9	8,9	12,3	14,9	2,8	3,7	2,5	100	
Higher education	3,5	2,5	6,6	9	10,7	14,3	10,8	16,6	14,2	7,1	4,7	0	100	
Total	5,2	4,9	6,7	9,4	9,4	21,9	8,1	9,9	11,1	3,7	4,6	5,1	100	

Source: European Social Survey 2002.

Table 7 Trust in the Police by age groups in Hungary, 2002

	No trust at all										Complete trust		Unknown	Total
15–39 years old	8,0	5,3	8,6	10,8	12,2	17,2	9,3	11,8	7,9	4,0	3,9	0,9	100	
40–59 years old	6,9	5,3	10,2	12,7	8,4	20,3	9,6	7,6	10,0	2,9	4,6	1,4	100	
60–X years old	5,7	4,2	7,9	8,6	6,7	21,9	6,9	10,3	10,1	3,9	9,6	4,2	100	
Total	7,1	5,1	9,0	10,9	9,6	19,4	8,9	10,0	9,2	3,6	5,5	1,8	100	

Source: European Social Survey 2002.

Table 8 Trust in politicians by educational level in Hungary, 2002

	No trust at all										Complete trust		Unknown	Total
Primary education	12,1	6,8	13,3	12,2	10,1	21,9	7,5	3,8	4,7	0,8	2,1	4,7	100	
Secondary education	9,8	4,9	11,7	15,2	11,1	22,1	9,4	6,7	3,6	1,5	1,2	2,8	100	
Higher education	5,9	3,2	10,8	19,4	13,7	25,7	10,1	7,3	2,9	0,7	0	0,3	100	
Total	10,8	5,9	12,6	13,9	10,8	22,3	8,3	5	4,2	1	1,6	3,6	100	

Source: European Social Survey 2002.

Table 9 Number of Hungarian cases being referred to European Court of Human Right

	1999	2000	2001
Provisional files opened	229	358	350
Applications registered	94	162	173
Applications declared inadmissible or struck off	53	67	86
Applications referred to Government for observations	1	12	12
Applications declared admissible	1	1	2

Source: European Court of Human Rights, Survey of Activities 2001. Information document issued by the Registrar of the European Court of Human Rights

Table 10 Proportion of the population for whom work, family, friends, leisure time, politics is quite or very important in its live in different countries (those two answer categories are taken together)

	work	family	friends	leisure time	politics	religion
France	94,8	98,2	94,4	88,1	35,4	36,9
Great Britain	78,6	98,8	96,6	92,5	34,3	37,4
Germany	82,7	96,9	94,5	83,2	39,5	35,0
Austria	92,8	98,4	90,4	86,2	41,4	53,8
Italy	95,0	98,6	89,8	81,2	33,8	72,1
Spain	94,6	98,9	86,6	80,9	19,3	42,0
Portugal	95,1	98,7	87,9	83,7	27,1	75,5
Greece	87,2	99,1	85,5	76,9	34,9	79,7
Belgium	92,8	97,6	89,1	86,2	33,1	47,6
Netherlands	86,5	92,7	96,3	94,0	57,7	39,8
Luxembourg	92,3	98,3	92,3	89,4	41,2	45,1
Denmark	85,0	98,3	94,2	88,9	41,6	27,1
Sweden	91,1	97,9	97,6	93,9	55,0	35,0
Finland	89,2	96,2	95,2	90,0	19,8	45,1
Ireland	84,7	98,5	97,3	86,9	32,1	70,7
Hungary	88,7	97,8	82,3	79,7	18,2	42,3
Slovenia	95,8	97,2	88,3	79,7	14,5	36,6

European Values Study: A third Wave (question 1)

Table 11 Proportion of the population for whom work, family, friends, leisure time, politics is quite or very important in its live in Hungary (those two answer categories are taken together)

	Hungary			
	very	rather	not	not at all
Work	56,8	31,9	7,8	3,5
Family	88,7	9,1	1,4	0,8
Friends	33,8	48,5	15,7	2
Leisure time	31,4	48,3	16,8	3,5
Politics	5,2	13	41,8	39,9
Religion	19,8	22,5	30,7	27,1

Source: European Values Survey 1999/2000, Q1

Domain: Other integrative norms and values

Sub-domain: Altruism

Table 12 Volunteer work and informal help among persons aged 20-74 (in hours and minutes a day)

	BE	DE	EE	FR	HU	SI	FI	SE	UK	NO
Volunteer work and help among women aged 20-74	0:10	0:15	0:13	0:14	0:08	0:06	0:16	0:12	0:14	0:10
Volunteer work and help among men aged 20-74	0:11	0:17	0:17	0:18	0:13	0:11	0:16	0:12	0:10	0:10

Source: How Europeans spend their time everyday life of women and men – Luxembourg: Office for official publications of the European Communities, 2004.

Note: Volunteer work is work for an organisation or work directed to people via an organisation. It is done free of charge or for a minor fee. Informal help to other households is direct help given by persons not arranged by any organisation. This help is recorded only when mentioned in the diary that it was done for another household. Some help was not reported because it was given simultaneously with work for own household.

Remarks: BE-Belgium, DE-Germany, EE-Estonia, FR-France, HU-Hungary, SI-Slovenia, FI-Finland, SE-Sweden, UK-United Kingdom, NO-Norway.

Table 13 Data about Blood donation in Hungary

Year	Proposed headcount	Donors of blood	New donors
2000	7000	7042	1121
2001	7000	6947	1099
2002	7000	6698	955
2003	7000	6581	886

Source: <http://www.sopronnet.hu/civil/voroskereszt/beszam.htm>

Sub-domain: Tolerance

Table 14 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
Hungary	2,0	12,0	59,1	26,8
Austria	4,8	51,6	39,1	4,5
Belgium	7,4	33,5	50,5	8,6
Czech Republic	2,9	30,4	59,6	7,2
Germany	4,5	32,6	56,0	7,0
Greece	3,5	40,9	41,0	14,6
Ireland	8,3	46,7	42,1	2,9
Denmark	7,4	23,8	66,1	2,7
Spain	19,1	56,2	22,4	2,3
Finland	10,4	34,7	51,9	3,0
United Kingdom	4,3	34,1	48,5	13,1
Italy	9,7	47,4	38,3	4,6
Netherlands	3,9	35,9	55,6	4,7
Poland	6,2	18,5	61,7	13,7
Portugal	11,5	61,4	23,2	3,9
Sweden	16,3	54,4	28,7	0,5
Slovenia	4,6	48,1	38,9	8,4

Source: European Values Survey 1999/2000, Q74

Remarks: The survey question was the following: How about people from less developed countries coming here to work. Which one of the following do you think the government should do?

Table 15 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
Hungary	33,4	66,6
Austria	18,4	81,6
Belgium	28,1	71,9
Czech Republic	31,0	69,0
Germany	23,8	76,2
Greece	68,7	31,3
Ireland	56,7	43,3
Denmark	23,4	76,6
Spain	52,0	48,0
Finland	32,0	68,0
United Kingdom	44,7	55,3
Italy	59,7	40,3
Netherlands	29,1	70,9
Poland	47,6	52,4
Portugal	48,9	51,1
Sweden	36,0	64,0
Slovenia	30,8	69,2

Source: European Values Survey 1999/2000, Q75

Remarks: The survey question was the following: Which of these statements is the nearest to your opinion?

Table 16 Tolerance of other people's self-identity, beliefs, behaviour and lifestyle preferences

	Hungarian mean	Total mean
Claiming state benefits which you are not entitled to	1,7	2,28
Cheating on tax if you have the chance	2,12	2,63
Taking and driving away a car belonging to someone else (joyriding)	1,14	1,41
Taking the drug marihuana or hashish	1,26	1,83
Lying in your own interest	2,53	2,85
Married men/women having an affair	2,1	2,56
Someone accepting a bribe in the course of their duties	2,67	1,82
Homosexuality	1,45	4,3
Abortion	3,92	4,58
Divorce	4,5	5,51
Euthanasia (terminating the life of the incurably sick)	3,83	4,82
Suicide	1,56	2,63
Throwing away litter in a public place	1,72	1,88
Driving under the influence of alcohol	1,16	1,54
Paying cash for services to avoid taxes	2,62	3,25
Having casual sex	2,74	3,15
Smoking in public buildings	2,85	3,51
Speeding over the limit in built-up areas	1,98	2,33

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

Remark: The survey question was the following: Please tell me for each of the following statements whether you think it can always be justified, never is justified, or something in between, using this card. (1= never, 10=always)

Total mean contains the following country scores: France, Great Britain, Germany, Austria, Italy, Spain, Portugal, Greece, Malta, Belgium, Netherlands, Luxembourg, Denmark, Sweden, Finland, Iceland, Ireland, Northern Ireland, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Czech Republic, Slovakia, Hungary, Romania, Bulgaria, Slovenia, Croatia, Belarus, Ukraine, and Russia.

Table 17 Proportion of respondents who would not like to live in a dwelling where neighbours belong to the following social groups

	Hungary	Czech Republic	Poland	Netherlands	Total
People with a criminal record	88,5	63,9	67,9	33,0	50,9
People of a different race	52,0	9,9	17,3	5,5	12,8
Left wing extremists	65,3	30,9	17,6	48,9	32,1
Heavy drinkers	91,3	75,5	77,6	56,6	59,9
Right wing extremists	68,0	28,9	15,3	68,0	36,8
People with large families	21,3	8,6	11,0	6,7	9,4
Emotionally unstable people	62,8	18,8	58,4	25,8	35,4
Muslims	60,3	15,2	23,8	11,8	19,7
Immigrants/foreign workers	62,0	19,4	23,6	5,3	15,9
People who have AIDS	77,8	20,6	43,7	7,8	30,9
Drug addicts	91,5	73,3	68,8	73,0	68,2
Homosexuals	84,4	19,7	55,3	6,4	35,1
Jews	44,4	4,4	25,1	1,9	12,1
Gypsies	68,6	39,9	38,7	19,7	40,2

Source: European Values Survey 1999/2000, Q7

Remark: The survey question was the following: On this list are various groups of people. Could you please sort out any that you would not like to have as neighbours? Total mean contains the following country scores: France, Great Britain, Germany, Austria, Italy, Spain, Portugal, Greece, Malta, Belgium, Netherlands, Luxembourg, Denmark, Sweden, Finland, Iceland, Ireland, Northern Ireland, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Czech Republic, Slovakia, Hungary, Romania, Bulgaria, Slovenia, Croatia, Belarus, Ukraine, and Russia.

Sub-domain: Social contract

Table 18 Proportion of beliefs of causes of poverty in different countries

		Unlucky	Laziness or lack of willpower	Injustice in society	Part of the modern progress	None of these
Hungary	first	13,0	27,6	37,7	18,8	2,9
	second	24,3	22,3	28,0	23,1	2,4
Czech Republic	first	15,6	43,0	18,7	17,6	5,1
	second	27,3	26,5	16,9	22,9	6,4
Poland	first	5,8	22,6	50,4	19,4	1,8
	second	20,6	21,4	24,6	31,6	1,8
Slovenia	first	10,4	33,2	35,4	17,3	3,7
	second	13,5	24,4	28,1	27,3	6,6
Netherlands	first	32,8	14,3	25,8	17,5	9,7
	second	31,9	17,3	26,1	18,6	6,0

Source: European Values Study: A third Wave Q11&12

Remark: The survey question was the following: Why are there people in this country who live in need? Here are four possible reasons. Which one reason do you consider to be most important? And which reason do you consider being the second most important?

Table 19 Proportion of respondents who think that would actually do something practical for the people in their community/neighbourhood in Hungary

	Absolutely yes	Yes	Maybe yes/maybe no	No	Absolutely no
your immediate family	90,1	7,8	1,5	0,2	0,4
people in your neighbourhood/community	8,5	44,4	35,5	6,2	5,4
elderly people in your country	10,8	46,6	31,6	6,7	4,4
immigrants in your country	1,5	6,1	29,2	35,7	27,4
sick and disabled people in your country	13,8	45,7	28,3	7,4	6,0

Source: European Values Study: A third Wave (Q81)

The survey question was the following: Would you be prepared to actually do something to improve the conditions of: your immediate family, people in your neighbourhood/community, etc...?

Table 20 Total time spent on domestic work by persons aged 20 to 74, 2000

	BE	DE	EE	FR	HU	SI	FI	SE	UK	NO
	Hours and minutes per day									
Total	3:36	3:17	4:01	3:28	3:51	3:50	3:08	3:06	3:18	3:04
Women	4:32	4:11	5:02	4:30	4:57	4:57	3:56	3:42	4:15	3:47
Men	2:38	2:21	2:48	2:21	2:39	2:39	2:16	2:29	2:18	2:22
	Share of total time spent by women and by men									
Women	64	64	66	65	65	65	63	60	65	62
Men	37	36	36	34	35	35	37	40	35	38
	Proportion people who spent any time on the activity, % per day									
Total	94	92	93	89	92	90	94	95	93	95
Women	97	97	98	97	97	97	98	98	97	98
Men	90	88	87	81	86	82	90	92	88	93

Source: How Europeans spend their time everyday life of women and men – Luxembourg: Office for official publications of the European Communities, 2004.

Note: Domestic work comprises work done for own household. The most important categories are food management, care for textiles, cleaning and household upkeep, gardening, repairs, shopping and childcare.

Table 21 Childcare among parents living as couple with children aged up to 6

	BE	DE	EE	FR	HU	SI	FI	SE	UK	NO
All parents living as couple	Hours and minutes per day									
Total	1:21	1:39	1:46	1:19	2:03	1:39	1:50	1:39	1:41	1:44
Women	1:54	2:18	2:39	1:57	2:56	2:23	2:34	2:10	2:22	2:17
Men	0:51	0:59	0:50	0:40	1:11	0:56	1:03	1:07	1:00	1:13
	Share of total time spent by women and by men, %									
Women	69	70	76	75	71	72	71	66	70	65
Men	31	30	24	25	29	28	29	34	30	35
	Proportion of people who spent any time on the activity, % per day									
Total	82	84	77	73	82	77	84	88	82	89
Women	94	95	93	91	94	91	96	96	94	97
Men	70	73	59	55	69	62	72	79	70	80
Employed parents living as couple	Hours and minutes per day									
Women	1:40	1:44	1:40	1:41	1:58	2:16	2:02	2:08	2:08	2:11
Men	0:50	0:57	0:50	0:37	1:09	0:55	1:01	1:07	0:58	1:12

Source: How Europeans spend their time everyday life of women and men – Luxembourg: Office for official publications of the European Communities, 2004.

Note: Childcare includes of active care given to a child living in own household. In addition to physical care, teaching, reading, playing and talking with a child, accompanying a child to a doctor, visiting the school, and so on, are also included. Going together to the cinema, watching television with a child, and so on, are excluded. Only parents living as a couple are included. Childcare as a simultaneous activity, for example, while preparing food, is not included.

Domain: Social networks

Sub-domain: Networks

Table 22 Proportion of people membered of non-governmental organizations (NGO's) in different countries, 2002/2003

	Male	Female
Austria	77,4	65,9
Belgium	65,1	57,1
Germany	72	61,7
Denmark	80,3	78,8
Spain	36,7	29,5
Finland	64,6	57,2
United Kingdom	71,4	62
Greece	24,8	16,4
Hungary	27,9	17,7
Ireland	68,6	59,3
Italy	37	24,9
Netherlands	84,4	77,4
Poland	17,6	13,8
Portugal	31,1	18,6
Sweden	82,8	78,8
Slovenia	51,3	33,3

Source: European Social Survey 2002/2003.

Table 23 Proportion of households with children by grandparents help

Help	In the household there are only children in the lower primary grades	Some of the children are in the upper grades	Some of the children are in secondary education	Total
Does not get help	34,0	49,8	59,8	46,5
Gets help	66,0	50,2	40,2	53,2
Total	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0

Source: Family in transition – HCSO, 2001

Table 24 Proportion of households with children by the form of grandparents help

Form of help	In the household there are only children in the lower primary grades	Some of the children are in the upper grades	Some of the children are in secondary education	Total
Daily physical help	23,0	19,5	15,7	20,5
Physical help several times a week	16,6	12,2	11,0	14,2
Taking care of children occasionally, during holidays	13,1	25,4	16,2	16,7
Food support	26,9	24,0	30,7	27,1
Financial support	19,4	18,1	24,8	20,3
Other kind of help	1,0	0,8	1,6	1,2
Total	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0

Source: Family in transition – HCSO, 2001

Table 25 Frequency of contact with friends by gender, 2001

	They are living together	Every day	A few times a week	Once a week	Once a month	Yearly or more rarely	Total
Male	0,9	29,2	28,2	19,2	15,6	6,9	100
Female	1,7	31,9	22,1	16,5	19,4	8,4	100
Total	1,3	30,7	25	17,8	17,6	7,6	100

Source: International Social Survey Programme (ISSP) 2001.

Table 26 Frequency of contact with friends by age-groups, 2001

	Every day	A few times a week	Once a week	Once a month	Yearly or more rarely
18–39 age group	35,2	28,3	16,4	15,4	4,7
40–59	27,3	22,7	20,6	20,9	8,5
60-	33,3	21,7	15,7	16,4	12,9

Source: International Social Survey Programme (ISSP) 2001.

Table 27 Frequency of contact with friends by education level, 2001

	Every day	A few times a week	Once a week	Once a month	Yearly or more rarely
Primary education	42,1	24,7	15,3	12,4	5,5
secondary	20	27	20,1	22,6	10,3
tertiary	14,6	21,9	23,5	28,8	11,2

Source: International Social Survey Programme (ISSP) 2001.

Domain: Identity

Sub-domain: National/European identity

Table 28 Proportion of respondents according to the since of national pride

	Hungary	Czech Republic	Poland	Slovenia	Bulgaria
Very proud	50,9	26,2	71,6	55,7	34,3
Quite proud	38,4	54,7	25,9	34,9	34,7
Not very proud	8,5	17,2	2,1	7,4	25,6
Not at all proud	2,3	2,0	0,4	2,0	5,4

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

Table 29 Proportion of people by self-identification in different countries, 2003

	Nationality	Nationality and European	European and Nationality	European
Hungary	51	44	3	1
Czech Republic	40	41	6	4
Poland	32	51	10	3
Slovenia	31	60	3	2
Bulgaria	42	40	5	1
EU15	40	47	7	3

Source: Eurobarometer EB60 – CC-EB 2003. 4 – (Candidate Countries) Comparative highlights.

Sub-domain: Regional/community/local identity

Table 30 Proportion of people by attachment to different geographical areas in different countries

	Hungary	Czech Republic	Poland	Slovenia	Bulgaria
Locality or town where you live	67,3	42,9	62,7	52,8	47,0
Region of country where you live	6,3	13,7	15,0	8,7	4,7
Your country as a whole	20,1	35,5	19,1	32,1	41,0
Europe	2,0	2,7	2,3	2,4	3,8
The world as a whole	4,3	5,3	0,9	3,9	3,5

Source: European Values Study: A third Wave Q67

The survey question was the following: Which of these geographical groups would you say you belong to first of all?

Table 31 Proportion of people by attachment to different geographical areas in Hungary

	First of all	Next	Least of all
Locality or town where you live	67,3	16,2	6,3
Region of country where you live	6,3	38,8	3,1
Your country as a whole	20,1	36,4	11,1
Europe	2,0	6,1	12,9
The world as a whole	4,3	2,5	66,6

Source: European Values Study: A third Wave Q67

The survey question was the following: Which of these geographical groups would you say you belong to first of all?

Social Empowerment

Domain: Knowledge base

Sub-domain: Availability of information

Table 1 Percentage of population illiterate

	1998	2000	2003
Female	0,9	0,8	0,7
Male	0,6	0,5	0,5
Total	0,7	0,7	0,6

Source: ILO: 2003-2004 Key Indicators of the Labour Market (Geneva, 2003) <http://www.ilo.org/kilm>

Notes: The data from 1995-2001 are UNESCO literacy estimates as assessed in February 2000, based on statistics collected during national population census.

Table 2 Competence poverty: proportion of educationally „poor” individuals in different countries based on literacy competences

Country	Students aged 15	Population aged 16-65
Portugal	26,3	49,1
Greece	24,4	-
Poland	23,3	45,4
Hungary	22,7	32,9
Germany	22,6	9,0
Belgium	19,0	15,3
Italy	18,9	-
Denmark	17,9	7,8
Czech Republic	17,5	14,3
France	15,2	-
Austria	14,6	-
UK	12,8	23,3
Sweden	12,6	6,2
Ireland	11,0	25,3
Finland	6,9	12,6

Source: PISA2000; Adult Literacy Survey, 1994-98

Table 3 Proportion of Internet users in Hungary, 2003

	Overall internet users	Use internet at least once a month	Use internet at least once a week
14 and older	25	22	19
15 and older	25	21	19
18 and older	22	19	17

Source: Hungarian Report of World Internet Project 2003

Table 4 Digital gap in Hungary (2001-2003) and in the European Union (2002)

	Hungary			European Union
	2001	2002	2003	2002
Digital Divide Index (DIDIX)	34	42	46	53
Income	8	45	50	44
Education	5	7	12	27
Age	32	32	34	53
Gender	89	86	88	87

Source: The Hungarian Information Society on the Eve of the Accession to the European Union.

Note: Values of the SIBIS Digital Gap Index and its components. The values can vary between 0 and 100. The lower the value of the the wider the digital gap. For the detailed construction of the index, see Hüsing and Selhofer, 2002.

Table 5 'How often do you use the Internet?' – according to purposes of usage, 2003

	Often	Sometimes	Never
Getting/sending e-mails	56	19	24
Searching information according to work	48	17	34
Entertainment, games	40	27	33
Searching information according to study	34	22	44
Administration	33	31	37
Reading newspaper on-line	25	25	51
Searching information according to various products	24	38	38
Chatting	24	24	52
Forum	20	18	61
Searching information according to health issues	9	24	67
Banking	5	6	89

Source: Hungarian Report of World Internet Project 2003

Table 6 Internet use in different European countries (% of individuals aged 14 and over)

Country	Never use	Everyday use
Austria	42,3	21,7
Belgium	56,3	18,1
Czech Republic	69,1	7,9
Denmark	37,7	35,1
Spain	75,1	9,3
Finland	43,9	18,8
UK	51,4	17,7
Greece	86,6	4,2
Hungary	80,4	5,7
Ireland	58,3	13,0
Italy	69,8	9,9
Netherlands	40,7	21,7
Poland	77,5	6,6
Portugal	69,9	14,8
Sweden	33,0	27,8
Slovenia	64,1	10,6

Source: European Social Survey, 2002/2003

Table 7 Rate of television subscription and average weekly broadcast time in non-commercial television channels

Year	Subscriptions per 1000 inhabitants	Average weekly broadcast time (hours) a)
1990	283	151
1993	274	219
1995	261	217
1997	256	367
1999	267	402

Source: Cultural conditions in the nineties, HCSO, Budapest, 2001

Note: a) state owned television channels (TV1 and 2), from 1996 with broadcast time of a Duna Television.

Sub-domain: User friendliness of information

Table 8 Availability of free advocacy and guidance centres

	Advocacy and guidance centres		
	Number of centres	Number of patients (thousand)	Number of employed in the centres*
1998	462	246,4	2142
1999	558	286,4	2294
2000	660	273,9	2291
2001	776	290,4	2820
2002	805	310,4	2455
2003	777	307,3	2587

Source:

* Calculated to number of full time employed.

Domain: Labour market

Sub-domain: Control over employment contract

Table 9 Trade union membership by age and sex, 2001

	Employees in trade unions %		
	Men	Women	Total
15-19	3,2	2,0	2,7
20-24	6,6	9,7	7,9
25-29	10,4	15,9	12,7
30-39	18,4	22,2	20,1
40-54	22,2	27,3	24,9
55-59	26,2	28,8	27,1
60-74	25,0	19,4	22,8
Total	17,3	22,4	19,7
Of which working age*	17,3	22,3	19,7

Source: LFS in Lakatos 2001.

* Men aged 15-64, Women aged 15-57

Sub-domain: Prospects of job mobility

Table 10 Proportion of persons aged 25-64 studied any time in an average day, 1986 and 2000

	1986	2000
Mean	2,0	2,6
Employment status		
Employed	2,7	3,3
Non employed	0,6	1,2
Education level		
Primary education	0,6	0,3
Vocational school	1,8	1,3
Secondary school	3,9	3,8
Higher education	6,5	7,2

Source: Time Use Surveys

Table 11.1 Distribution of companies and enterprises provide vocational training in candidate countries, 1999 (%)

Branch	Czech Republic	Estonia	Slovenia	Poland	Latvia	Lithuania	Hungary
Industry	70	60	53	35	53	41	34
Commerce	63	60	30	33	51	39	39
Finanacial services	89	89	66	61	84	69	79
Economic services	77	70	60	55	60	54	48
Other public and personal services	70	49	69	46	60	42	35
Other	67	66	46	43	51	45	31

Source: EUROSTAT (2002): First survey of continuing vocational training in enterprises in candidate countries. Statistics in focus. Theme 3: Population and social conditions. 2002/2.

Table 11.2 Distribution of companies and enterprises provide vocational training in several European countries, 1999 (%)

Branch	DM	S	NL	F	D	B	ES	P
Industry	95	90	90	77	73	68	38	19
Commerce	100	94	87	85	83	72	41	24
Finanacial services	100	100	97	100	100	100	74	67
Economic services	98	90	90	86	87	86	41	43
Other public and personal services	100	100	88	93	89	75	33	29
Other	91	84	86	79	65	63	29	18

Source: EUROSTAT (2002): Continuing vocational training in enterprises in the European Union and Norway Statistics in focus. Theme 3: Population and social conditions. 2002/3.

Remarks: DM-Denmark, S-Sweden, NL-Netherlands, F-France, D-Germany, B-Belgium, ES-Spain, P-Portugal

Table 12 The number and distribution of those enrolled in training outside the school system by the form of economic management of the training institution

Enrolled	1996		1998		2000		2002	
	Number of persons	%	Number of persons	%	Number of persons	%	Number of persons	%
Enterprises	58138	55,5	57462	55,4	84847	58,8	88580	59,3
Budget organization and its institutions	10396	36,8	34426	33,2	40600	28,1	41173	27,5
Non-profit organization	5848	5,6	8808	8,5	12771	8,8	13416	9,0
Institutions with other form of economic management	2217	2,1	2979	2,9	6124	4,2	6304	4,2
Total	104731	100	103675	100	144342	100	149473	100

Source: Lifelong learning – Hungary at Employment Week 2004.

Sub domain: Reconciliation of work and family life

Table 13 Reasons for working shorter hours, 1996-2000 (%)

Reasons	1996			1999			2000		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
As a percentage of total employment	3,0	8,9	5,6	3,4	9,5	6,1	3,0	9,0	5,7
Jobs with regular working time less than 40	39,6	48,8	46,1	38,7	45,4	43,4	41,3	45,1	44,0
Full-employment is not possible lack of work assignment	19,0	17,0	17,6	16,6	15,1	15,5	13,8	13,3	13,4
Employee prefers part-time employment	17,0	17,2	17,1	15,7	20,7	19,2	16,5	20,4	19,3
For health status	7,7	3,8	5,0	13,0	5,7	7,9	13,7	7,5	9,3
Employee attends school/training	-	-	-	2,4	3,4	2,2	2,8	2,2	2,3
Other reasons	16,6	13,3	14,3	13,6	11,1	11,9	11,9	11,5	11,6
Total	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0

Source: LFS in Frey, 2001

Table 14 The breakdown of households by the reception of various forms of social help, 2001

Forms of help	Childless	Had raised children	Currently raising children	Total
Adjusted hours in institutions for children	19,1	17,9	17,3	17,7
School bus	7,9	8,7	9,7	9,1
School meals	14,5	14,0	11,6	12,9
Adjusted opening hours in services	11,7	13,2	13,6	13,2
Organised household help	3,7	3,9	4,4	4,1
Part time employment	16,8	17,8	19,5	18,5
Flexible working hours	18,5	20,1	20,9	20,3
Other solution	0,7	0,8	1,3	1,0
No option	7,0	3,6	1,6	3,1
Total	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0

Source: Family in Transition 2001, HCSO

Domain: Public space

Sub-domain: Support for collective action

Table 15 Financial support offered to non-governmental organizations by citizens as 1% of their tax, 1997–2003

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Thousand million Ft	2	2,5	3	3,7	4,3	5,2	6,2

Source: APEH, 2004.

Table 16 Number of non-governmental organizations supported by citizens, 1997–2003

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Number of organisations	15949	16824	17865	18238	18489	20178	21904

Source: APEH, 2004.

Sub-domain: Cultural enrichment

Table 17 Budgetary expenditures on culture

Year	Cultural services total	% of GDP
1990	28 381	1,36
1991	32 043	1,29
1992	44 723	1,52
1993	57 004	1,61
1994	68 025	1,56
1995	79 370	1,41
1996	77 939	1,13
1997	60 738	0,71
1998	69 928	0,69
1999	76 675	0,67

Source: Cultural conditions in the nineties, HCSO, Budapest, 2001

Table 18 Creative cultural communities and evenings with entertainment programme

Year	Creative cultural communities		Entertainment programme		Per 1000 inhabitants	
	Numbers	Members	Number	Participants, thousands	Members	Participants
1990	8 203	176 786	23 973	5 012	17	484
1991	5 926	128 129	25 474	5 211	12	504
1992	5 629	127 298	24 797	5 044	13	489
1993	5 423	127 020	27 978	5 131	13	499
1994	5 740	138 135	24 136	5 410	14	528
1995	5 298	116 518	25 012	5 232	12	512
1996	6 612	108 751	25 017	5 790	11	569
1997	5 382	113 586	23 747	6 116	11	603
1998	6 055	132 274	23 747	6 116	13	606
1999	5 737	131 234	26 195	6 349	13	632

Source: Cultural conditions in the nineties, HCSO, Budapest, 2001

Table 19 Proportion of persons participated in different cultural events in the preceding 12 months of the survey, 2000 %

	Theatre	Museum	Concert	Cinema	Restaurant bar
Sex					
Male	11,6	10,7	3,3	9,2	15,3
Female	13,5	12,4	4,0	9,1	11,9
Age groups					
15–29	21,1	20,7	5,4	28,0	24,8
30–39	12,5	11,9	3,7	13,6	20,2
40–49	13,1	10,3	3,8	7,7	15,3
50–59	10,2	8,6	3,8	3,9	11,8
60–69	6,1	6,1	1,6	1,7	6,4
70– x	3,7	4,1	1,1	0,7	3,0
Education level					
Primary education	6,3	6,9	1,4	5,5	6,7
Vocational school	6,6	6,1	0,9	7,5	16,6
Secondary school	19,8	17,8	5,3	14,3	18,6
Tertiary education	35,5	33,8	14,3	16,2	23,6
Mean	12,6	11,6	3,6	9,1	13,3

Source: Time-Use Survey

Table 20 Time spend on different spare time activities in 13 European countries, 1999–2001 (perc)

Country	Socialising, entertainment and culture	Televisions and videos	Other media	Resting, sports and hobbies, games and other free time	Free time total	Proportion of total free time in the day (%)
Belgium	62	138	39	73	312	22
Denmark	81	107	30	50	268	19
United Kingdom	67	145	32	66	310	22
Finland	64	136	58	83	341	24
France	55	127	29	53	264	18
Netherlands	147	120	0	84	351	24
Norway	122	117	44	78	361	25
Portugal	57	116	13	39	225	16
Sweden	70	113	43	80	306	21
Éstonia	45	144	51	57	297	21
Slovenia	69	121	31	86	307	21
Hungary	51	164	29	56	300	21

Source: Time use at different stages of life, results from 13 European countries. Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, 2003.

Table 21 Proportion of persons those are able to take a seat in the kitchen by household size, %

Household size	Number of persons who are able to take a seat around a table				
	1-2 persons	3-4 persons	5-6 persons	7 or more persons	Total
1978					
1 persons	65	21	3	11	100
2	66	22	5	8	100
3	64	17	8	10	100
4	67	21	5	7	100
5 and more	39	45	8	8	100
Total	62	23	9	6	100
2000					
1 person	16	52	22	9	100
2	9	42	32	18	100
3	3	43	33	21	100
4	1	34	36	28	100
5 and more	2	13	48	37	100
Total	7	40	32	20	100

Source: Dwelling culture, time spend in shelter. HCSO, 2002

Annex Collective data

1. Socio-economic security

Domain: Financial resources

Sub-domain: Income security

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

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

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

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

Source: Eurostat; free data, social cohesion

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

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

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

Source: Eurostat; free data, social cohesion

Domain: Housing and environment

Sub-domain: Housing conditions

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

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

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

Source: Eurostat 2003, Living conditions in Europe

Domain: Health and care

Sub-Domain: Health services

11. Number of medical doctors per 100.000 inhabitants

Number of practitioners per 100 000 inhabitants

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

Source: Eurostat, Yearbook 2003

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

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

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

Source: Eurobarometer 52.1

Domain: Work

Sub-domain: Employment security

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

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

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

Source: Eurostat; Statistics in Focus

Sub-domain: Working conditions

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

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

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

Source: Eurostat; Statistics in Focus

Evolution of the accidents at work, 1998 = 100

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

p) provisional value

b) break in series

Source: Eurostat, free data, employment

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

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

Source: Eurostat 2003; Living conditions in Europe

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

Hours worked per week of full time employment

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

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

Domain: Education

Sub-domain: Security of education

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

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

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

p) provisional value

b) break in series

Source: Eurostat SC053 IV.5.1

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

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

p) provisional value

b) break in series

Source: Eurostat SC053 IV.5.1-2

2. Social cohesion

Domain: Trust

Sub-domain: Generalised trust

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Source: European Social Survey (ESS) 2002

Sub-domain: Specific trust

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

Trust in different institutions in European countries 2002/2003

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

Source: European Social Survey 2002.

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

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

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

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

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

Domain: Other integrative norms and values

Sub-domain: Altruism

29. Volunteering: number of hours per week

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

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

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

30. Blood donation

Blood donation (%), 2002

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

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

Sub-domain: Tolerance

31. Views on immigration, pluralism and multiculturalism

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

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

Source: European Values Survey 1999/2000, Q74

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

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

Source: European Values Survey 1999/2000, Q75

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

Typology of people according to their attitudes towards minorities

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

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

Source: Eurobarometer 2000 survey

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

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

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

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

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

Sub-domain: Social contract

33. Beliefs on causes of poverty: individual or structural

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

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

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

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

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

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

Source: European Social Survey 2002/2003

Proportion of population which belongs to....

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

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

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

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

40. Frequency of contact with friends and colleagues

Frequency of spending time with friends

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

Source: European Social Survey (Q6A)

Frequency of spending time with colleagues

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

Source: European Social Survey (Q6B)

Domain: Identity

Sub-domain: National / European pride

41. Sense of national pride

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

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

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

Sense of national pride

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

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

Sub-domain: Regional / community / local identity

43. Sense of regional / community / local identity

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

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

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

3. Social inclusion

Domain: Citizenship rights

Sub-domain: Constitutional / political rights

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

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

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

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

Sub-domain: Social rights

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

Gender pay gap

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

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

Source: Eurostat; free data, employment

Earnings of men and women

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

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

Note: The share refers to full-time earnings.

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

Sub-domain: Economic and political networks

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

Proportion of women in national governments and parliaments, 2001

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

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

Domain: Labour market

Sub-domain: Access to paid employment

53. Long-term unemployment (12+ months)

Total long-term unemployment

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

Source: Eurostat;; free data, social cohesion

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

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

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

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

Source: Eurostat; free data, social cohesion

Domain: Social networks

Sub-domain: Neighbourhood participation

67. Proportion in regular contact with neighbours

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

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

Source: Eurostat 2003, Living conditions in Europe

Sub-domain: Friendships

68. Proportion in regular contact with friends

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

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

Source: Eurostat 2003, Living conditions in Europe

4. Social Empowerment

Domain: Knowledge base

Sub-domain: Availability of information

73. Per cent of population literate and numerate

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

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

Source: PISA2000; Adult Literacy Survey, 1994-98

75. Access to internet

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

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

Source: European Social Survey, 2002/2003

Domain: Labour market

Sub-domain: Prospects of job mobility

80. % of employed labour force receiving work based training

Continuing vocational training (CVT) in enterprises (1999)

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

Source: Eurostat 2003, Living conditions in Europe

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

Branch	B	D	E	HU	NL	P	SL	FIN	S
Industry	68	73	38	34	90	19	53	77	90
Commerce	72	83	41	39	87	24	30	85	94
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

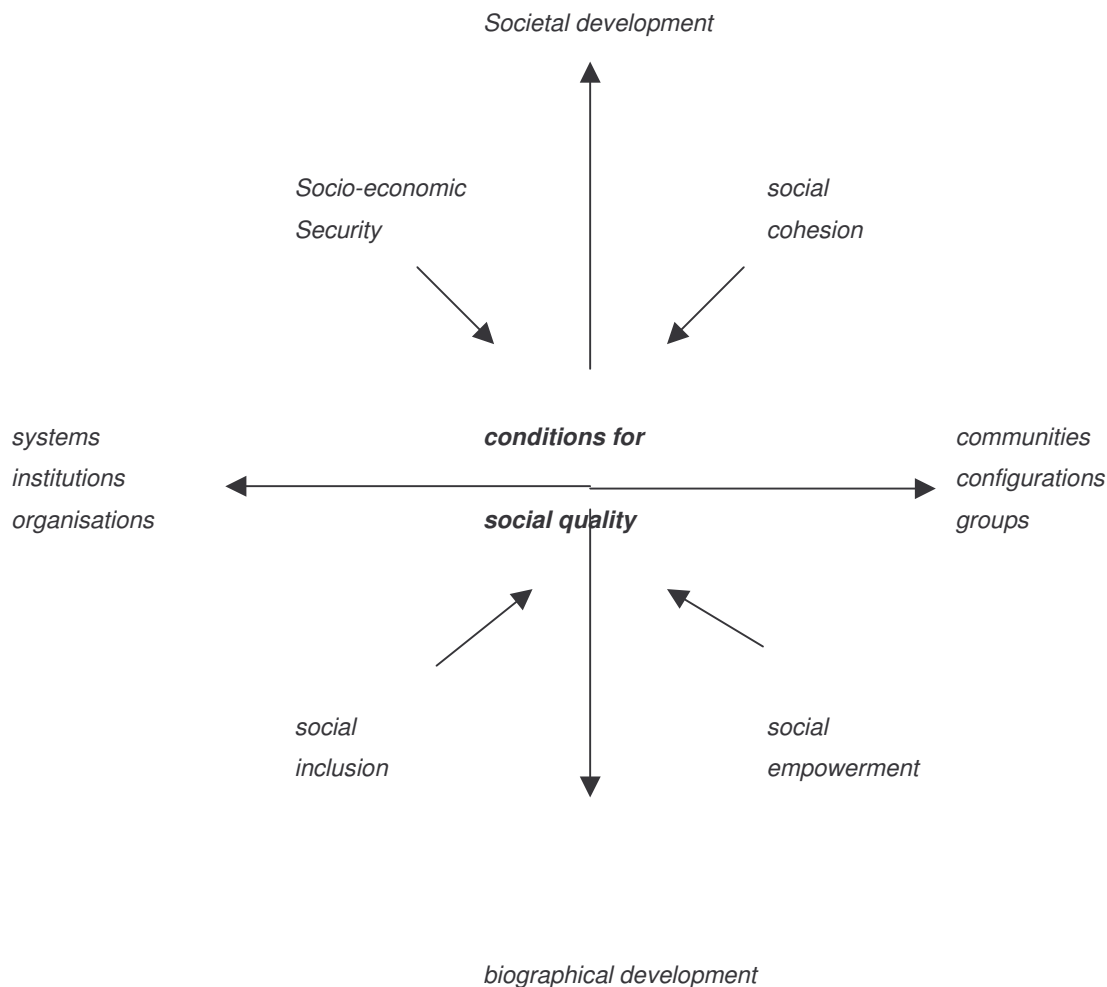
A fundamental problem of any comprehensive theoretical approach is to grasp the structural and dialectical interdependence of what Emile Durkheim called 'social facts'. The reason for mentioning Durkheim here is that in his definition of 'social facts' he explicitly showed the supposed independence of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

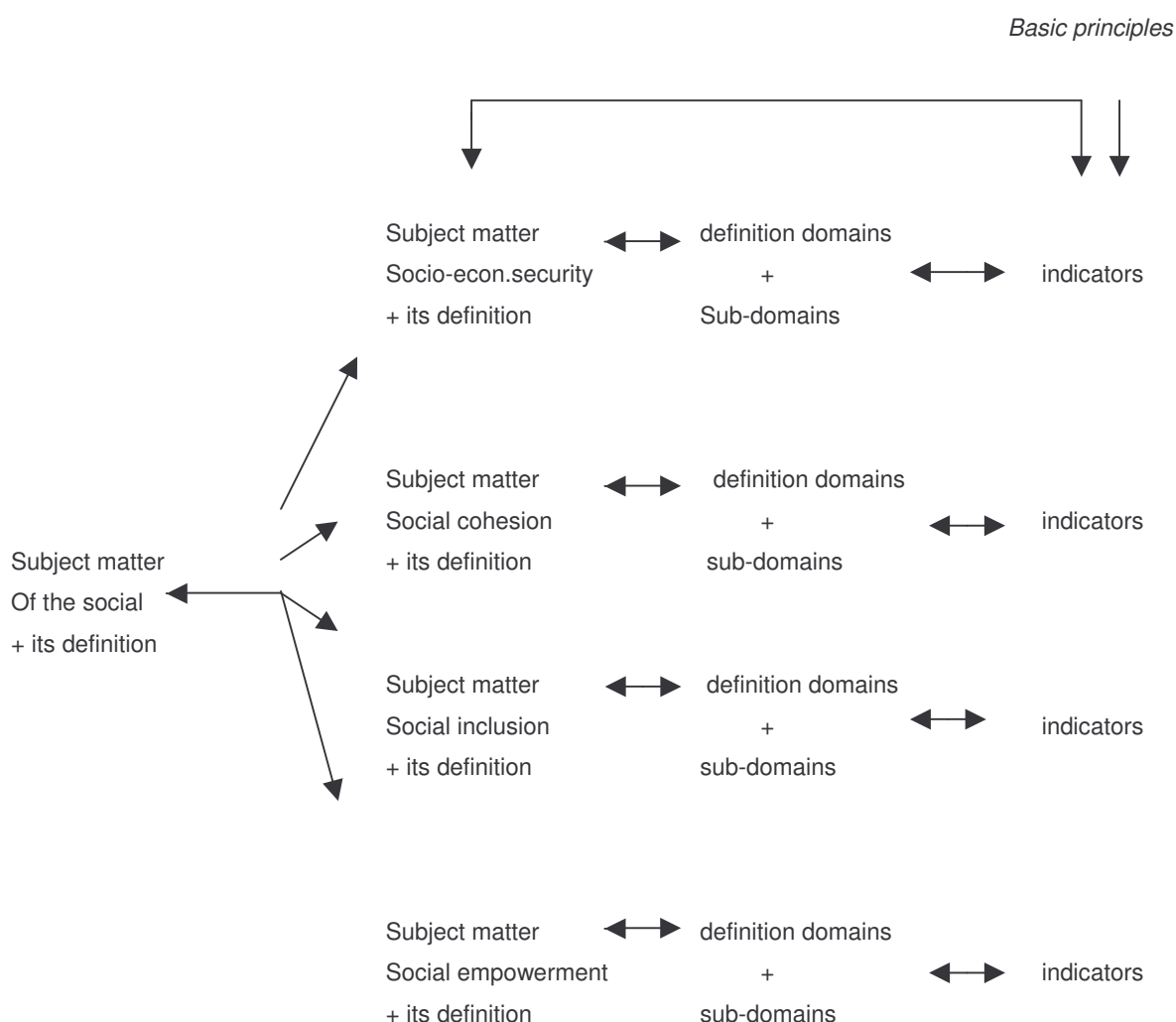
This theme is presented for the first time in the Foundation's second book of January 2001 and will be elaborated in the Foundation's third book. The relationship between the constitutional factors and the conditional factors – theoretically and practically – will be analysed. For the European Network 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

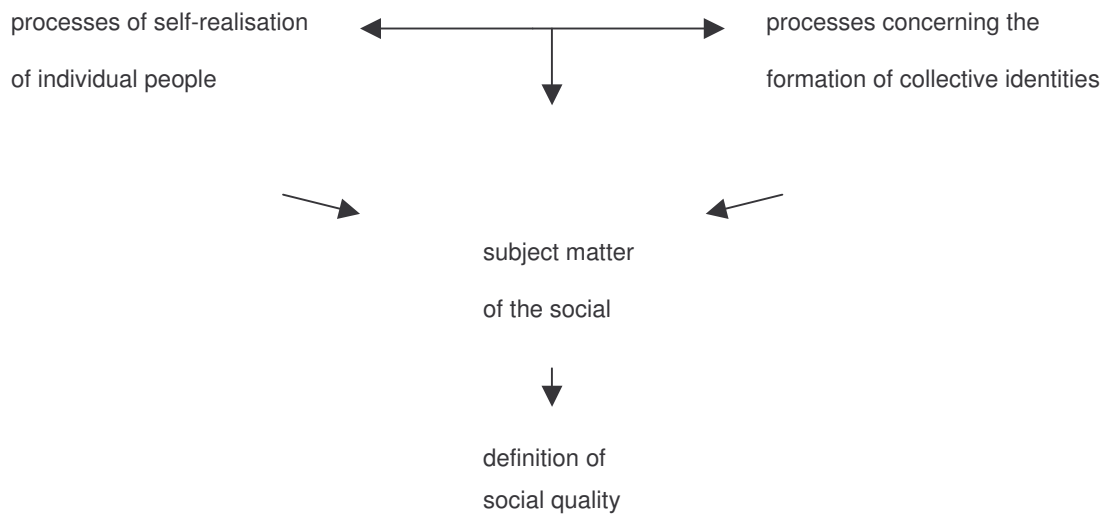


4.2 The definitions of the four conditional factors

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.