

European Network Indicators of Social Quality  
- ENIQ -

“Social Quality”  
The ICSW Report

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## *European Foundation on Social Quality*

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## **Preface**

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

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

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

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

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# 1 Introduction

## 1.1 The idea and the purpose of this report

The purpose of this report is to give an overview and discuss the European Network on Indicators of Social Quality -project (ENIQ-Project), as well as the exchange of thoughts on social policy that has been going on in the framework of the project. In this report, the discussion is based on the role and mission of the International Council for Social Welfare (ICSW). From the view-point of the ICSW, important results of the project to be evaluated include the following.

How do especially this project and its outcomes promote or help to promote

- 1) social and economic development in which the aim is to reduce poverty, hardship, and vulnerability especially amongst disadvantaged people,
- 2) recognition and protection of fundamental (social) rights like the rights to food, shelter, education, health-care, and security and
- 3) the creation of policies that pay sufficient attention to the balance between social and economic goals and to cultural diversity.

These three points-of-view represent also the mission of the ICSW. The central question that this report aims at answering is how especially the view-point and the indicators of social quality can help us to promote the goals mentioned above. In order to evaluate this successfully, the point-of-view of social quality must be connected with the context of political development in a larger scale. It is also important to bring up the wider context generally related to indicator-based research as well as the special characteristics of the indicators of social quality in comparison with the earlier approaches. The validity, functional value, and reliability of the view-point and especially the indicators of social quality are particularly essential to the ICSW, too. In this connection, it is therefore also necessary to discuss the indicators of social quality in that sense.

The view-point of the ICSW in this article is also practical and clearly connected with practical social policy issues especially at European level.

The ENIQ project is particularly important to the European Region of the ICSW, because it has been decided that the programme of this region will concentrate on social rights and social cohesion questions. In the indicators of social quality, these themes are fairly central and extensively described. The view-point of the ICSW to social cohesion is broad, and so is the one of the theory and indicators of social quality. Thus it is useful to the ICSW to include the point-of-view of social quality in the discussion concerning social rights and social cohesion. More generally speaking the ICSW and the ENIQ Project have a common goal. This goal is to include the social and citizens' point-of-view (comp. The Amsterdam declaration) into the agenda.

According to the EFSQ, "The social will come into being ('verwirklicht') thanks to the outcomes of reciprocal relationships (dialectic) 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. This theme is presented in the Foundation's second book, Chapter-17. The definition of social quality is based on 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 potential."<sup>1</sup> Obviously the definition of social quality is very much resembling the ICSW's practical targets, as you can see later in subsection "ENIQ and the role of ICSW" of this chapter.

As a result of the ENIQ Project, four conditional factors of social quality have been elaborated: socio-economic security, social cohesion, inclusion, and empowerment. All these can be further divided into domains and subdomains. (See figure above and annex.) Concretely, the use of the three ICSW's view-points mentioned above means an evaluation of how much and in which ways attention has been paid to basic social rights, possibilities of reducing poverty, the situation of people living in the most difficult positions, and the balance between social and economic goals in all these parts of the project.

**Figure 1. The domains of the conditional factors in social quality.<sup>2</sup>**

Conditional factors	Domains
Socio-economic Security	Financial resources
	Housing and environment
	Health and care
	Work
	Education
Social Cohesion	Trust
	Other integrative norms and values
	Social networks
Social Inclusion	Identity
	Citizenship rights
	Labour market
	Services (public and private)
Social Empowerment	Social networks
	Knowledge base
	Labour market
	Supportiveness of institutions
	Public space
	Personal relations

This report is divided into six chapters. The next chapter contains a general over-view of the ENIQ Project as a whole and on the concept of social quality from the view-point of the ICSW. In chapter 3, there is a discussion on the connections of social indicators and the ENIQ Project with the EU Politics and the points of emphasis in the social policies of the Union. In chapter 4, social indicators and the problematic issues relating to them are described on a general level in connection with the indicators of social quality. In that chapter, the emphasis is on the methodology of indicator-based research. The

<sup>1</sup> See for instance A Frame of Reference. EFSQ (2004). [Http://www.socialquality.org](http://www.socialquality.org)

<sup>2</sup> See for instance A Frame of Reference. EFSQ (2004). [Http://www.socialquality.org](http://www.socialquality.org)

aim is to estimate whether the indicators of social quality generally meet the criteria for good indicators. In chapter 5, the indicators of social cohesion are discussed on the basis of the Lisbon Strategy and compared with the indicators of social quality. In the last chapter, the indicators of social quality and their importance are estimated in relation to the attempts to decrease poverty, exclusion, and other factors leading to disadvantaged conditions.

The next two sub-sections contain a general overview of The European Foundation on Social Quality, the ENIQ Project, and the role of The ICSW in a project like this.

## **1.2 EFSQ and ENIQ<sup>3</sup>**

The European Foundation on Social Quality was established during the Dutch Presidency of the European Union in June 1997. On June 10th, 1997 at a public ceremony in Amsterdam a group of European social scientists made a solemn Declaration on the future of the European Union. The promoters of the Declaration are committed to the European Union, but fear that too much emphasis on Economic Monetary union will lead to a downgrading of the other, social half of the European approach and, with it, a loss of legitimacy for the Union. The intention behind the Amsterdam Declaration is to remind policy-makers and citizens about the unique nature of the Western European approach of development, which comprises both economic growth and competitiveness and social justice. Ever since about 1000 academics all over Europe have given their support to the Declaration and the Foundation has grown to become a considerable network of academics who feel committed to a social Europe.

In 2001 the EFSQ started the European Network on Indicators Social Quality (Eniq) funded by the EU's Fifth Framework Programme running from 2001 to 2004. The Network consists of fourteen countries: Belgium, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Netherlands, Portugal, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, United Kingdom, and two international partners: the International Council on Social Welfare (ICSW) and the European Anti-Poverty Network (EAPN). Having created a theoretical platform for the development of social quality the next, and current, phase of the work of the EFSQ has tried to operationalise the concept as a useful tool for policymakers, practitioners and citizens. Any index of social quality must be multidimensional and, in particular, it is necessary to derive indicators for the four conditional factors of social quality. This has raised substantial methodological problems, but there is already a growing body of work on social indicators.

Objectives of the project The concept of social quality has been developed and theorised by scientists working with the European Foundation on Social Quality (EFSQ). The concept has been adopted by the European Commission (DG V) and several Member States. The aim of this network is to progress the pioneering work of the EFSQ by operationalising the concept in the different Member States.

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<sup>3</sup> <http://www.socialquality.org/index.htm>

Specifically its scientific aims are (were) to: develop a robust set of indicators for the different dimensions of social quality, create benchmarks of social quality, and stimulate national and regional groups of scientists to focus on this topic. Its policy aims are to respond to the EU's objective to create a new interrelationship between economic, social and cultural policies. This will be elaborated from the perspective of human subjects as social beings in order to contribute to the discourse of citizenship in the Europe of the near future.

The European thematic network comprises a multi-disciplinary team of economists, lawyers, social policy experts, sociologists and political scientists. It functioned as an instrument for communication between these experts from all over Europe and the members of their own national networks in order to:

Analyse recent scientific research in different methodological traditions concerning social indicators;  
Build on the substantial existing theoretical and practical work of the EFSQ to create an agreed set of indicators of social quality that respects heterogeneity within the Member States (and regions, localities);

Conduct a comparative analysis of social quality in the EU using these indicators;

Develop benchmarks for social quality based on this comparative analysis;

Stimulate a dialogue on social quality and its indicators at national and regional levels within the Member States;

Identify the necessary data requirements for primary analyses regarding social quality;

Contribute to evidence-based policy developments at EU and Member State levels by actively disseminating the outcomes of the network and of its national partners.

According to the ENIQ-project description, this process of communication within the proposed European and national networks of experts implies: (i) regular meetings of the European network and a continuous email exchange of ideas and methods, (ii) preparation of documentation for meetings, (iii) development of communication methods for collaboration with a complex system of national networks in order to develop international cooperation, (iv) syntheses of national reports and preparation of project reports, (v) communication and dissemination of results at EU level, as well at the level of the Member States, (vi) preparation of data for electronic access by researchers and policy makers.<sup>4</sup>

### **1.3 ENIQ and the role of the ICSW**

The International Council on Social Welfare (ICSW), European region is one of the actors in the ENIQ Project, where it functions in co-operation with the academic actors involved. However, the role of the ICSW differs from the roles of the academic or university actors of the project, because the basic mission or purpose of the ICSW is different. The academic actors of the project have developed and

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<sup>4</sup> <http://www.socialquality.org/index.htm>

formulated the theory of social quality and looked for indicators that are applicable to it. In the project, the ICSW has represented NGOs in general and brought up the view-point of its own task. However, the deepened theoretical understanding of social quality and a successful choice of indicators are also very important to the ICSW. After all, they do determine how useful the image received through the concept of social quality is in developing European welfare. The theory and indicators of social quality may also define which questions or problems will be primarily raised to the agenda when discussing citizens' welfare or its defects in European societies.

Understanding the theory and having indicators that really work are the key elements that define how the picture of welfare formed through social quality can be utilised at the arenas of the ICSW and more generally in the discussion on social Europe.

The ICSW was founded in 1928 to promote the social development of the world and the implementation of the social rights of citizens and to decrease poverty and unequal treatment of people on the global level. The ICSW has been divided into ten regions. In the ENIQ Project, the actors come from the European Region of the ICSW.

The membership consists of 60 national committees and 20 international organisations. The ICSW has an highest level consultative status in ECOSOC, FAO, ILO, UNICEF, UNESCO, WHO and in many regional intergovernmental organisations like the Council of Europe. It also has UN presentation in New York and Geneva. For its membership, it provides an arena where different actors can exchange thoughts and experiences on social development on global, continental, and national levels. They can also plan and implement measures in order to influence the development by the means of social policy. In a way, the ICSW is thus an umbrella organisation of social policy. Under this umbrella there are different actor, all of which have their own view-points on welfare. On one hand the ICSW is in this sense a discussion forum. On the other hand, however, it also tries to influence the society according to its mission. In the ICSW, there are different actors with different opinions. A unified view-point to welfare is looked for by continuous discussion, so that for instance the mission of the ICSW could be implemented.

The ICSW has considered it important to be involved in a research-oriented project like this, although it is not directly functionally concerned with the scientific and theoretical sides of the project. The ICSW functions in fields that are different from the ones of the researchers world. Yet it is important to both of these partners to create dialogue and interaction between these two fields of work. In order to achieve results for instance in the spirit of the Amsterdam Declaration, researchers, NGOs, and those who implement the projects (NGOs belong partly to this group, too.) have to walk hand in hand. Otherwise there is the risk that the information produced by research will be ignored and the results are not utilised.

To promote its social policy goals the ICSW organises international conferences, regional symposiums, national seminars and meetings for various kinds of experts. With the aid of different

types of publications and initiatives it spreads information that is relevant to its work and tries to influence decision-makers. It also participates in national and international activities connected with social policy. In this sense, being involved in the ENIQ Project has fitted naturally into the role of the ICSW, even though the project itself has so far been fairly scientific and academic, as it has to be because of its actual purpose. Yet when the work has progressed and become more concrete it has been possible to see clearer connections between the practices of social policy and the benefits that can be achieved through an approach based on the theory and indicators of social quality. The extensive and theoretically well-grounded view-point of social quality to welfare is more sensitive to the structures and structural processes of society than the mere empirical (administrative) indicator view-point.

ICSW European Region as a part of a global organisation follows the principles of the whole organisation taking into consideration specialities of Europe. It offers its members a possibility to create networks in social policy area and provide an arena for debate and dialogue between theory and practice. Participation in the ENIQ Project both in the meetings of assistants and the meetings of professors has served among other things this purpose.

One task of ICSW European region is also to react quickly to changes and to ensuing problems in Europe, but also opens an discussion on future social policy issues. In Europe today such needs and changes are particularly strongly connected with the development of the EU, its social issues, and the development of social policy. The ENIQ project seems to create good material for the discussion concerning the social policy of the EU and its development, especially the issues connected with measuring and evaluating welfare. This will be discussed further and concretely in chapter 5 (social cohesion).

ICSW European Region seeks to stimulate and initiate debates on social issues to influence on decision making processes to ensure that policies we pursue enable people to take their full place in society. In this sense, the theory and indicators of social quality can help us to recognise problems that are connected with people's welfare in the European Union and prevent individuals from finding and achieving their full place in society. Recognising these problems also makes it possible to direct the political discussion and thus to look for measures to abolish defects existing in social quality.

ICSW european region also introduces relevant information and innovative ideas into social policy development in Europe and supports its National Committees in their work. The theory of social quality is absolutely a new and innovative way of approaching welfare and of producing such data on it that is relevant to the goals of the ICSW. Providing information on the theory and indicators of social quality and on the picture they give of the welfare of citizens in European societies is therefore naturally connected with the work of the ICSW on its different levels.



## **2 A general overview of the ENIQ project from the view-point of the ICSW**

### **2.1 The ENIQ network**

The aim of the EFSQ and the ENIQ Network to bring the social view-point and dimension up in the European discussion is essential. It is extremely important that the EFSQ and ENIQ has taken the task of looking for opportunities to raise the view-points of social aspects and of citizens' welfare in the EU process, which otherwise concentrates so strongly on the economy. This goal is quite the same as what the ICSW has in its own work. The methods are, however, different: they usually differ between actors of the worlds of research and of non-governmental organisations. However, it is important to see the common goal which is based on the values defined in Amsterdam Declaration. The data produced by researchers and research networks cannot and must not be ignored on any level of society.

The development work of the concept and the criteria of social quality has been done at the ENIQ Network co-ordinated by the EFSQ. The network-based task has been performed by the means of traditional scientific approaches (for example publications, articles), meetings between professors and assistant researchers, e-mail discussions, and the internet site created for the network. The development of the indicators has mainly been an academic and scientific process. Thus the civic society has been represented in the ENIQ Project primarily by its set of values (the Amsterdam Declaration) and by the connections between non-governmental organisations and the actors functioning in the national and scientific networks of the project. From the view-point of an organisation like the ICSW, which represents many non-governmental organisations, the academic and scientific nature of the project can be seen as a risk: such a project may lack real contact with the situation of people living in the most difficult conditions. In that case, the academic method and the definition of concepts may become values in themselves, just as the growth of the economy may become a goal of its own with no further purpose. However, this does not seem to have happened in the ENIQ project in which the theory and indicators of social quality have been developed. By the side of developing the theory, the empirical applications for measuring social quality have been improved all the time by choosing appropriate indicators. The project has been of both theoretical and empirical nature, and its roots are in the idea of social quality in Europe.

The network-based methods have created opportunities for quite a lively dialogue. This dialogue has existed on many levels, both inside and between the national workgroups as well as among the professors and assistant researchers involved. The network has functioned both vertically (on the national level and on the EU level) and horizontally (nationally and internationally). In addition to this, there has been the dialogue between actors representing the scientific community and other ones representing the NGOs. This dialogue has been lively and sometimes very critical. It has been essential that the process has not been based on any actors authority: different views have been

heard and accepted.

Even though the goal has been to create a new definition for welfare, different opinions have been respected in the process, and an open dialogue has been one of the further aims. In this sense, the network-based method can be considered successful, although it has been very challenging partly due to the different cultural backgrounds of actors. Even inside Europe, there are somewhat different notions of what welfare is or should be, how it concretely comes up, and how it should be evaluated.

In the different stages of the ENIQ Project, these cultural differences have come up on the empirical level the micro level of choosing and creating the practical indicators. They have also existed on the macro level the theoretical discussion. They have become visible as different views and models of the philosophy of welfare or as different paradigms of research based on local cultures. In a way we might say that the ENIQ Project has attempted to bring different cultures of welfare under the common umbrella of social quality.

In comparison with several earlier indicator projects, a network- based process like the ENIQ and the concrete indicators created by it have some advantages. In ENIQ, the theory and indicators have not been chosen and developed primarily on the basis of the information needs of authorities or other members of administrative staff. The choice and development work of indicators have been done at a scientific community in discussion that has been open to all directions - also outside the actual academic circle. Thus the choice of indicators has not been strongly connected with political interests. Instead the researchers have tried to choose the indicators so that they would be in the best possible harmony with the theory of social quality.

## **2.2 Social Quality as a concept describing welfare**

There has been a wish to make a difference between the concepts of social quality and quality of life. Inside the classical definition of the Quality of Life concept, there are many traditions of welfare-related research, for instance the Scandinavian approach that concentrates on the objective conditions of living and the American one that emphasises the subjective welfare of people. The concept of quality has been utilised in very different sectors of society: in defining the quality of services, life, society, or as in this project in the definition of social quality, etc. The purpose of the concept of social quality is to combine the concepts of quality of life and quality of society. Social quality has been defined theoretically with the aid of the theory of the social. (see for example one definition in Chapter 1.) Thus the social quality approach can be thought of as a more extensive way of understanding welfare than the traditional quality of life approaches. The traditional quality of life paradigm presupposes the existence of certain social structures and relationships and thus prevents the critical analysis of these factors.<sup>5</sup> This is an important defect, if the purpose is not only to measure but to change the position of

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<sup>5</sup> European Foundation on Social Quality. 'Social Quality and Its Four component's. Discussion Paper' (2003).

people who have been excluded from the society, and if the idea is to achieve this change by understanding the existing structures and the problems they cause and finally by changing these structures and solving the problems.

The ICSW does not have one unified view of welfare. A conference which is to be held next summer will discuss for example the concept of welfare under the title *The Future European Model*. The ICSW is trying to stimulate discussion on the concept of welfare and to be included as a pioneer in the discussion concerning the social model of Europe. The theory of social quality and particularly the picture of welfare in different countries produced through the indicators of social quality may provide good material for such work.



## **3 Social indicators and the social policy in the EU**

### **3.1 Social Europe**

Developing the theory and indicators of social quality is connected both with the development of social policy in The European Union and more widely with the wish of the civic society to have more attention paid to social issues together with the economic ones. Raising social issues and social policy to an equal position with economic questions and policy has also achieved an official role in the EU politics.

It has required quite a long process to develop social questions into an independent theme of discussion. Especially at the first stages of the development of the EU, social policy was only considered to have instrumental value for achieving other goals, mainly economic ones. Social policy had mainly task of supporting free movement of labour. Yet even 30 years ago, in 1974, the Report on the Development of the Social Situation in the Community 1973 (European Commission, 1974) defined the following goal on page 9: "setting out in a purposeful way the initial practical steps on the road towards the ultimate goal of European Social Union". On the concrete level, this goal has progressed fairly slowly until the last few years.<sup>6</sup>

The role of social policy in the EU discussion started to grow together with other sectors of policy only by the year 2000 in connection with the so-called strategy of growth defined in Lisbon.

In Lisbon in March 2000, The European Commission created a strategy of change for the EU. According to the city of its creation, this document was named The Lisbon Strategy. It is a common vision on the direction in which the economies and societies of the member- states of the EU should be developed during the next ten years. The Lisbon Strategy is an attempt to combine the social and economic dimensions of the EU policy in a new way.

In Lisbon employment, economy and social cohesion were connected to form a long-term strategy. The aim of this was to make social policy an essential part of the economic thinking and structural reform programme in Europe. With the decisions made in Lisbon, the social policy of the union was transferred from legislative measures and strict division of the power to act more towards political guidance provided by the summits and the Commission of the EU.

The core aims of the Lisbon Strategy are to improve the competitiveness, to try to achieve full employment, and to strengthen social cohesion. A further goal is to combine dynamic economic thinking and social structural change with stable economic development. One of the key sections in the Lisbon Strategy is therefore the European Employment Strategy. In Stockholm, the European Commission decided to supplement the social and economic dimensions by including the

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<sup>6</sup> See for instance Atkinson, Tony (2002). Social Science and Social Europe. 13th ESRC Annual Lecture <http://www.nuff.ox.ac.uk/users/atkinson/>

environmental one. It is meant to support the strategy of sustainable development in the EU.<sup>7</sup> The aim was to develop a better balance between economic, social and employment dimensions in the EU. The open method of coordination was a new tool for this. It is also a mechanism which gives an opportunity for co-operation at EU-level also in such areas where the EU has no competencies.

Unlike in the financial policy, actual decision-making in social policy has not been transferred to the EU level. As a mechanism of direction, there is a so-called open method of co-ordination, which will be further discussed later in this report. The question is of political commitment without a legislative duty.<sup>8</sup>

The Lisbon Strategy is a process that will continue until the year 2010. The EU summits held in every spring are follow-up meetings for the ten-year strategy of the Union. In these meetings, the achievements of the year are listed, and the progress is specified. The purpose is to carry the strategy out through the method of open co-ordination. Therefore the division of tasks and the follow-up connected with applying this mechanism are also defined at the summits.<sup>9</sup>

Even before the Lisbon strategy was published, civic organisations had paid serious attention to the importance of considering social questions together with economic ones. The Amsterdam Declaration (1997) is bringing the Social Point-of-view up Together with the Economic One. The original ideas of the ENIQ Project can be traced back to the so-called Amsterdam Declaration (The Amsterdam Declaration on the Social Quality of Europe). The ICSW has been involved in creating this declaration and shares its values. In the declaration, much attention was paid to the fact that economic growth in itself is not enough to be the main goal of the EU. A view-point of social quality is also needed in order to implement the requirements of equality and of everybody has right to live a life with human dignity.

In the declaration, some basic conditions for social quality were defined: sufficient income for subsistence, food, housing, clothing, access to education, equality, etc.<sup>10</sup> These values are mainly the same as the ones explicitly defined as the goals of the ICSW. It is useful to consider the concept and the criteria of social quality if these considerations raise discussion on the values that should be the aims of the economic growth.

As we all know, the goals and values of the European Union include balanced growth of the economic and a very competitive social economy based on the free market in order to achieve, among other things, social progress. The Union has also stated that one of its tasks in social policy is to prevent

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<sup>7</sup> See for instance: [http://europa.eu.int/comm/lisbon\\_strategy/intro\\_en.html](http://europa.eu.int/comm/lisbon_strategy/intro_en.html)

<sup>8</sup> Saari, Juho (2002) (ed.) 'Euroopan Sosiaalinen malli. Sosiaalipoliittinen näkökulma Euroopan integraatioon.' (European Social Model. A Social political View-point to European Integration). Sosiaali- ja terveysturvan keskusliitto ry, Helsinki. p.15-20.

<sup>9</sup> See reference 6.

<sup>10</sup> See for instance Beck & al.' Social Quality. A Vision for Europe' (2001). Kluwer Law, Amsterdam, pp. 385-386.

social exclusion.<sup>11</sup>

The growth of the economy should not be a goal in itself: its aim should be people welfare or as for instance Alfredo Bruto da Costa calls it social quality.<sup>12</sup> In the EU, the concepts of a social economy based on the free market and of social progress have been built into the goal of economic growth. The use of these concepts requires real consideration of their contents. For example, what does the term social mean in connection with an economy based on the free market? Criteria must also be created in order to define when the social view-point is being implemented. Thus the theory and the indicators of social quality can function as a considerable criterion for what social might mean in connection with the market-based European economy.

### 3.2 Indicators and an open method of coordination

According to the principle of subsidiarity, social policy is at the responsibility of each member-state. This means simply that the countries can choose the ways in which they carry out their own social policy. Some countries may, for example, base it more strongly on transfers of income, whereas others have a more family-centred approach. The states cannot, however, define the goals of their social policies alone. The method of open co-ordination is a means of directing them and supporting mutual learning and exchange of experience at EU-goals. The member states agree of common goals, which are realised in national action plans (NAPS) in member states. The commission has a role in building joint reports and in following the processes.

The open method of co-ordination includes the use of information based on indicators. In this method, common recommendation goals are set for the EU. If needed, the comparison of best practices is specified with the aid of qualitative and quantitative indicators and of benchmarking criteria. National action plans are created. The development is followed up by benchmarking and other means on the basis of learning from each other.<sup>13</sup>

Instruments are needed in order to measure and evaluate whether the goals of social policy have been achieved and whether the measures taken on the national level have promoted them. These instruments include various kinds of social indicators, such as the indicators of social quality developed during the ENIQ project. The information received with the aid of these indicators may also help citizens and non-governmental organisations to direct the attention of the political system of decision-making to the existing problems. The theory of social quality and the indicators measuring social quality could also function as independent tools for the method of open co-ordination. A

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<sup>11</sup> The proposal of the European Convention on the European Constitution, chapter 1, section 3

<sup>12</sup> Beck, Wolfgang & van der Maesen, Laurent J.G., & Walker, Alan (1997) 'The Social Quality of Europe.' Kluwer Law, Netherlands. P.3; da Costa, Alfredo Bruto, 'Social Policy and Competitiveness' in Beck, Wolfgang & van der Maesen, Laurent J.G., & Walker, Alan (1997) 'The Social Quality of Europe' Kluwer Law, Netherlands., p.97

<sup>13</sup> European Council 2000, Kari, Matti (2000) 'Uusi sosiaalisen suojelun prosessi Euroopan unionissa'. Yhteiskuntapolitiikka 65:6, pp. 546-549; Kari, Matti (2002) 'EU:n sosiaalisen suojelun prosessi etenee' Yhteiskuntapolitiikka 62:8, pp. 78-81

particularly good thing about them is that they have not been developed directly on the basis of administrative needs. Thus they provide a fairly extensive image of welfare.

The purpose of the indicators of social quality is to measure social quality, for which the definition has been created through scientific and theoretical discussion. Thus the concept of social quality can be used both in evaluating the achievement of political goals and in evaluating the goals themselves. Even if certain goals of social policy were achieved and some single indicators proved this, the situation may look different in the total context of social quality. If for example unemployment decreased, but the income of the employed people would not rise beyond the level of minimal subsistence, this could not mean an improvement of social quality. A single indicator - in this case unemployment - would show positive development, but the situation as a whole would not have improved from the view-point of social quality. In this sense, the indicators of social quality can help us to evaluate both the goals set and the methods used in attempts to achieve these goals. For citizens and NGOs these indicators provide a good instrument for assessing the policy practised.

The openness of the open method of co-ordination includes different aspects. First of all, it must be based on transparency. Moreover, it must be open in the sense that different social groups and levels of administration can participate in it and influence upon its goals and contents.<sup>14</sup> This is also a challenge to the development and use of various kinds of social indicators. The development, use, and interpretation of indicators must be transparent as well. The indicators can be seen as a central part of the open method of co-ordination. Thus they are of essential importance in practising and developing social policy in the European Union. Various NGO actors must therefore be involved in developing them, making them known to people, and evaluating them thoroughly. By the choice of indicators, it is possible to affect on the questions of which social problems and which groups' situations will get attention. What kind of indicators are chosen for example to describe social quality? This is not merely a scientific question but also a political one.

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<sup>14</sup> See for instance J. Pakaslahti, 'Euroopan Sosiaalisen mallin historia, nykyhetki ja tulevaisuus' (The Finnish Federation of Social Welfare and Health, 2002), p. 58



## **4 Social indicators and the Social Quality indicators**

In order to be able to answer questions on how the social quality approach can improve the situations of people living in the most difficult positions, promote the achievement of basic social rights, and help us to raise social and cultural aims to be considered together with economic ones, it is necessary to study the backgrounds, limits, and possibilities of indicator-based research in general. In this connection, it is important to discuss especially the indicators of social quality in relation to these factors.

### **4.1 Background and Background Hypotheses of Social Indicators**

The picture of welfare formed through the concept of social quality is based on social indicators. In themselves, social indicators are an old invention. In the 1950's, the United Nations started to develop statistical work on population and social issues. The first definitions and criteria for indicators were created in those days. The first wave of welfare indicators was experienced in the 1970's. This wave was, however, stopped - among other things - by the lack of theoretical basis and by the political development that did not favour a holistic national policy of welfare.<sup>15</sup> In this sense, the approach based on the indicators of social quality is much more likely to remain vivid than the indicator approaches of the 1970's: indicators of social quality are based on fairly comprehensive theoretical work and on the creation of a theory. It must, however, be stated that the theory of social quality and its operational form are not completely ready yet. They are developed and reshaped all the time and require assessment and corrections.

The indicator wave of the 1970's also brought up several competing holistic ideas that decayed gradually, too. Even now, new indicator packages based on different views have come up, and other ones are evolving. Thus there is a risk of ending up in some kind of a "jungle of indicators".<sup>16</sup> The indicators of social quality are one part of this jungle. Yet the social quality approach has some advantages in comparison with many other indicator approaches, especially with the loose and laxly theory-based ones, even though it also has some points that make it difficult to apply.

A second wave of indicators seems to have started in the 1990's. Among other things, the development of the indicators of social quality can be seen as part of this wave. The political and economic integration in Europe has influenced upon the needs of information. Generally speaking, the indicator wave of the 1990's is connected with the changes of practices in administration and the policy of welfare. Indicators are needed as a means of direction. It has also often been wished that they could help people to understand the growing flood of research and information and to make it

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<sup>15</sup> H. Sauli & J. Sempura, 'Auttaako indikaattoriaalto tietotulvassa' (Hyvinvointikatsaus, Statistics Finland, 2004), p.6-11

<sup>16</sup> Ibid

more concise.<sup>17</sup> The existing or possible connections of the indicators of social quality with the development of the European Union were further discussed in previous chapter of this report.

The emphasis and concentration of political attention to the creation of various kinds of indicators and indicator packages may cause a situation in which much of the energy will be directed to the development of the indicator system. Such a situation has been described by the concept of "analysis paralysis" (see for instance Sihto 2004, 33 in "Hyvinvointikatsaus 1/2004"). It includes a risk that people may not necessarily have resources to use the results of following up the indicators in making decisions: indicators themselves become the main goal. It must therefore be remembered that indicators are just one way of following up the policy.

On a general level, the basic idea of indicators is to filter and concentrate the flood of information so that it includes only a few basic facts that are considered important in order to evaluate policy and the success of promoting its goals.<sup>18</sup> The purpose of utilising the indicators of social quality is to find information that is relevant to the theoretical construction of social quality. In itself, the indicator approach is not based on the political goals set by different countries. Yet if "social quality" is named as one of the political goals, indicators can be used in evaluating how well it has been achieved. At least in this stage, however, it is still fairly difficult to concentrate the flood of information on a few basic facts: the theory of social quality is rather extensive and requires numerous indicators. The more indicators there are, the more difficult it is to concentrate and utilise the information.<sup>19</sup> Concentrating data on some basic facts is also somewhat problematic, especially if the purpose is to create an image of small and marginal groups of people with great defects of welfare. In this sense, the basic idea of social quality, in which welfare is thought to have plenty of dimensions, is positive. Yet it may be challenging to keep in mind the situation as a whole.

Generally speaking, there are some assumptions connected with data produced by the indicator-based research method. First of all, producing data with the aid of indicators is based on the idea that phenomena can be measured and described in measurable forms. This includes certain basic problems of quantitative research, which will be further discussed in next subsection of this chapter. Secondly, it is expected that complex social changes can be described in a concise form with the aid of indicators. A third aspect is that indicator-based data also includes the notion that the world can be controlled. It is believed that certain measures have certain consequences, and that the success of these measures can be evaluated through the indicators.<sup>20</sup>

This political use of indicators contains risks, which also concern the indicators of social quality. There may be the risk of developing a policy in which only certain types of measures are taken - measures

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<sup>17</sup> Ibid.

<sup>18</sup> Ibid.

<sup>19</sup> Ibid.

<sup>20</sup> Ibid.

that have strongly predictable consequences, which can then be evaluated afterwards.<sup>21</sup>

Generally, the problem with the indicator-based approaches is that the interpretation of indicators is difficult and requires expertise.<sup>22</sup> Also the interpretation of indicators of social quality requires knowledge: familiarity with the social phenomena that the indicators are expected to describe. Even if the purpose is to present social quality in the form of simple numbers, it is hard to comprehend the meaning of these numbers without understanding the theory of social quality. Even more expertise is needed, if we wish to go one step further from mere interpretation - to critical evaluation. Critical analysis of the picture of welfare created through the indicators of social quality also demands deep understanding of the hypotheses at the background of the theory of social quality. This is of course problematic and may cause a situation in which the indicators will not - despite their many advantages - make an extensive breakthrough on different levels.

One risk of indicator packages is thought to be the danger that the number of indicators continues to increase, and that the packages thus finally grow so extensive that it is hard to keep them in control. If this happened, the indicators would lose their power to simplify and concentrate data.<sup>23</sup> The number of the indicators of social quality is fairly large. There are almost 100 of them, which undeniably makes them hard to control. It is rather difficult to concentrate data with such a number of indicators, even if the picture achieved of the situation as a whole were quite inclusive and theoretically well founded. It is also possible to approach the indicator package of social quality conceptually by dividing it into four different main packages, which are called conditional factors of the theory of social quality. By dividing the analysis of social quality into these four parts (socio-economic security, social cohesion, social inclusion, social empowerment), it is easier to understand the theory as a whole. In each conditional factor, the average number of indicators will probably remain less than 20.

A threat may be involved in changing the contents of indicator packages<sup>24</sup>. comparability with former years and possibly even with the package as a whole may suffer. The great number of the indicators of social quality may be a factor that will make this risk particularly clear. Indicators must be updated, and missing information must be supplemented with the aid of some other indicators. It must, however, be remembered that this weakens the comparability and may also otherwise change the image as a whole.

There has been structural criticism against the indicator-based work. Developing indicator packages may be rewarding in relation to funding and the final results. Yet there may not be sufficient interest or resources to keep the package up afterwards. If the up-keep stage fails, this will lead to the outdated

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<sup>21</sup> Ibid.

<sup>22</sup> Ibid.

<sup>23</sup> Ibid.

<sup>24</sup> Ibid.

of the data, and the users will then reject the source.<sup>25</sup> Many years of time and a lot of resources have been spent on developing and choosing the theory and indicators of social quality. Thus it would be important to make sure that this work is not wasted because of not having resources to update the view-point and indicators of social quality. On the European level, ENIQ is an exceptionally extensive and theoretically well founded indicator project. Its roots and starting points (for instance the Amsterdam Declaration) also go back to the civic society. Thus it has originally a stronger support-base than the technocratic indicator packages that are mainly based only on political and administrative goals. Therefore it may have better chances to challenge the present discourse that so strongly emphasises economy and technology.

## **4.2 General Methodological Notes**

At the background of indicator-based research, there are certain ideas of what information is like. All statistical and quantitative approaches share the notion that phenomena can be measured. Thus only measurable things can be perceived as reality. Indicator-based data is also connected with the idea that it is possible to describe changes of complex phenomena by using only a few concise statistical figures.<sup>26</sup> These starting points concern the indicators of social quality as well.

Research based on the indicators of social quality is basically quantitative in nature. Thus it contains the same basic problems that are connected with the other types of quantitative research. When we speak about the concept of social quality, the word quality does not refer to the qualitative methods of collecting data. Instead, the question is of the qualitative choice of qualitative, indicator-based material and of the qualitative interpretation of the picture created by the chosen indicators. Traditional survey studies based on quantitative data are usually unable to describe the situations of people living in the most difficult positions. This is simply because those who often live in the most disadvantaged conditions cannot be reached and interviewed in ordinary survey studies. For instance homelessness, serious psychiatric problems, and intoxicant abuse prevent the people concerned from participating in such studies or at least make it hard to reach these persons and thus to include their cases in the research data. Therefore the observations based on survey-data often create a picture of welfare that is better than the real situation. It is often found that the strong points of quantitative research include the facts that the results can be generalised, and that an image is achieved of how wide-spread the observed phenomenon is. However, when we speak for example of homelessness or intoxicant abuse, it is difficult to understand these phenomena on the basis of quantitative data collected in survey-studies. It is therefore complicated to find out how wide-spread these phenomena really are.

Finding out about the typicalness of some phenomena is also made more difficult by the fact that people are usually unwilling to admit the existence of certain problems when answering

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<sup>25</sup> Ibid.

<sup>26</sup> H. Sauli & J. Simpura, 'Auttaako indikaattoriaalto tietotulvassa' (Hyvinvointikatsaus, Statistics Finland, 2004), p.6-11

questionnaires. This, too, provides an over-optimistic image of welfare. A further problem often connected with describing welfare on the basis of quantitative data is the over-emphasis of the average. Average-based observations cover the intensity of the extreme ends of the scales in measuring different phenomena. For instance, a society where one fifth of the population are extremely poor, and another fifth are extremely rich, may reach the same average of affluence as a society with a more equal division of income. This example is rough and simple, but it shows how the logic of average-based observations may provide a picture of welfare that is not really comparable with the situation in other societies. Generally speaking, the problem with average-based observations is that they may accept the existence and intensity of a certain problem in a hidden way: it simply cannot be seen because of the method used. A further problem with average-based observations is connected with data that is not based on samples of the population. Register-based collections of data are often fairly extensive and may provide a better image of welfare than sample-based studies. Yet the ways in which data has been collected to a register may also influence upon the picture of welfare received with the aid of the register in question. A typical characteristic of register-data is that it has usually been collected by authorities, for instance in connection with providing certain services. The situation of those who - voluntarily or involuntarily - have not received the services does therefore not come up in the register.

At this stage of the project, we could say that one problem is the domination of the existing data. The difficulty with ready-made material is that it has been collected for slightly different use and based on different existing needs. Thus it may remain secondary to think of what sort of data and what kinds of indicators would best support the creation of an image based on social quality. This also concerns indicators describing poverty and disadvantaged people.

Partly, the existing collections of data, such as ECHP (European Community Household Panel), provide fairly good variables and indicators in all European countries. ECHP is a pretty good collection of data for indicator-based studies: the data has been collected so that it fits well into the measuring of change. Another advantage with the ECHP is that it covers a fairly wide range of themes. The problem with nationally collected samples of data is that they are not necessarily comparable with each other. Another problem may also be the simultaneous use of several different sources of data. Tony Atkinson says:

"But if we are concerned with the overlap of deprivations for an individual household, then we must measure all dimensions in the same survey - or be able to link micro-data to another source with the relevant information."<sup>27</sup>

A good thing about using older sources of data is that it is economical. This has been considered

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<sup>27</sup> Atkinson, Tony (2002). Social Science and Social Europe. 13th ESRC Annual Lecture  
<http://www.nuff.ox.ac.uk/users/atkinson/>

important in the project of social quality<sup>28</sup> and for instance in the argumentation created by the Committee for Social Protection for choosing indicators to describe poverty and disadvantaged situations. It would require remarkable resources to collect completely new data throughout the whole Europe. Thus it is good - particularly at this stage of the project - to get a picture of how well the theory of social quality generally works in practice in an operational form.

Sources of data that have been created in different ways also provide different images of welfare. A piece of research called "A Study on the effects of using interview versus register data in income distribution analysis with an application to the Finnish ECHP survey" was made in connection with the Chintex Project (The Change from Input Harmonisation to Ex-post Harmonisation in National Samples of the European Community Household- Panel Implications on Data Quality). It showed that it is difficult to compare the results of studies on the division of income if one study is based on register data and another one on interviews. This also concerns the ECHP data. In their conclusions, the members of the research team of the Chintex project state: "It is obvious that the method of data collection will affect the picture we get of inequality and poverty. Interview data will tend to indicate higher inequality and poverty.". The researchers thus suggest: "In order to achieve output harmonisation, we need to study in greater detail how the differences in the results we get depend on, among other things, the composition of income packages and the rules governing the registering of incomes."<sup>29</sup>

Another thing that brings limitations to the image of welfare produced with the aid of social quality is the lack of indicators. Central defects exist for instance in indicators describing homelessness. At the moment, most member states of the European Union do not regularly collect or publish data on homelessness. In addition to the fact that there are still defects in collecting the data, there are also problems with what the concept of homelessness really means. In the conclusion of a report of FEANTSA (The European Federation of National Organisations Working with the Homelessness) the problem is stated as follows:

"The ability to derive common indicators on homelessness across Europe is still some way off and relies on a common understanding in the policy discourse of the nature and meaning of homelessness."<sup>30</sup>

Housing, the right to it, has to be considered one of the primary social rights. It is obvious that if a person has no place to live in at all or has to live in a dormitory for the homeless for long periods he/she suffers from the serious lack of social quality. Despite the ambiguity of the concept of homelessness, homelessness is one of the indicators of social quality. In itself this makes the image of

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<sup>28</sup> see for example D. Bouget 'The Empirical and Policy Relevance of Social Quality' in Beck & al.' Social Quality. A Vision for Europe' (2001). Kluwer Law, Amsterdam, p, 112

<sup>29</sup> L. Nordberg & I. Penttilä & S..Sandström 'A study on the effects of using interview versus register data in income distribution analysis with an application to the Finnish ECHP-survey in 1996' Working Paper 1 (CHINTEX, 2001)

<sup>30</sup> FEANTSA 'Review on Statistics on Homelessness in Europe' Bill Edgar, Joe Doherty, Henk Meert, (2003), p.25

welfare produced with the aid of social quality more inclusive than for instance the one created with the indicators chosen by the Committee for Social Protection (2001) to describe poverty and social exclusion. When discussing the indicators of social quality, attention should, however, be paid to the definition of homelessness. As FEANTSA puts it: "Existing (hidden) homeless should be visible to policy makers and service providers. This means having an understanding and measurement of homelessness which goes beyond 'rough sleeping' to include the situation of people who live in insecure housing, are forced to move constantly between inadequate housing situations and those who are forced to live in housing which is unfit for habitation by commonly accepted norms. The FEANTSA definition of homelessness attempts to reflect these situations."<sup>31</sup>

The image of welfare formed through the indicators of social quality is based on both sample and register types of data, on both national and EU-level sources of material, and on the deficiencies of all these data collections. Therefore the points described above must be kept in mind when evaluating the social quality existing in different European societies. The picture of welfare in European societies created on the basis of the choices connected with collecting the data and with the research methodology described above may be over-optimistic and show the problems as smaller than they really are.

### 4.3 Criteria for good indicators and the indicators of Social Quality

It is possible to set different types of criteria for good indicators. In 1999, a high-level workgroup was founded in the EU to discuss the issues of social policy. Soon it was made a permanent committee and named the Committee for Social Protection. Its tasks are to follow the position of the social field and the development of the policy of social protection in the member-states and communities, to promote the exchange of information, experience, and good practices between the member-states and the Commission, to make reports, to give statements, or to perform other tasks in its power.<sup>32</sup> The committee consists of representatives of the Commission and of the Ministries for Social Affairs in the member-countries. It works on issues connected with health, pensions, and social exclusion.<sup>33</sup>

The European Committee for Social Protection describes the methodological principles of the indicators connected with poverty and social exclusion. These principles also apply for evaluating the indicators of social quality. These kind of criterias are defined in the second book published by the EFSQ.<sup>34</sup> Partly the criteria of social quality are general and overlap with the criteria of the Committee for Social Protection mentioned above. Next we shall discuss these methodological principles one by

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<sup>31</sup> Ibid., 23

<sup>32</sup> The Niz treaty, article 144

<sup>33</sup> J. Pakaslahti (2002) 'Euroopan Sosiaalisen mallin historia, nykyhetki ja tulevaisuus' in the book J. Saari, (ed.): Euroopan Sosiaalinen malli. Sosiaalipoliittinen näkökulma Euroopan integraatioon' (Sosiaali- ja terveysturvan keskusliitto ry, Helsinki). pp.56-57

<sup>34</sup> EFSQ

one and see how they are implemented in the indicators of social quality.

*An indicator should bring up the core of the problem described, and it should have a clear and accepted normative interpretation.* The indicators of social quality are connected with the situation as a whole through the theory of social quality, which also aims at providing an unambiguous interpretation for each indicator. However, the theory of social quality itself forms a challenging unity that has no clear normative interpretation yet.

This also applies to some individual indicators and especially their possibly different interpretations in different societies. The indicators connected with poverty, disadvantaged situations, and exclusion have partly been stabilised (see appendix, Socio-economic security component, table 1).

Deciding to use 60% of the median income as the limit for poverty follows the definition used in the EU but not the one in traditional poverty research. The picture provided by social quality on poverty, exclusion, and other disadvantaged situations remains narrow in comparison for example with the one received through traditional research on poverty. Most problems may be connected with the empowerment component of social quality - the component that is most dependent on national sources of data (see appendix Empowerment component, table 4). Social cohesion is discussed further in chapter 5 of this report.

*An indicator should be stable and statistically valid.* Questions connected with the statistical validity of indicators have already been discussed above to some extent. Together with the statistical validity, attention should also be paid to the question how well the picture produced with the aid of the data includes the people who are not listed in different registers. This should be noted at least in the conclusions drawn on the basis of the indicators. In this sense, statistical validity is not enough from the ICSW point-of-view. An indicator must also be really valid in relation to the phenomenon measured. A great number of indicators, such as this "package", include ones that are not statistically quite stable. This also affects the stability of the whole indicator package and thus the image of social quality formed through the interpretation of the indicators.

*An indicator should be sensitive to react to political measures and still not be in danger of being manipulated.* The usability of the indicators of social quality is defined through this principle. If the indicators cannot show the effects of political measures, their usability is more limited. Most of the chosen indicators are fairly sensitive. The challenge consists of the questions who collects the information, and how it is done. The data should be updated quickly enough in order for it to describe the effects of the measures taken and to be able to function as a means for influence and for pointing out existing problems. At this stage, especially in connection with such a large indicator package as the one based on social quality, it is to some extent necessary to use old data. Moreover, it is not enough to collect the data. If the purpose is to recognise social problems and react to them as soon as possible, the data should also be interpreted rather quickly. Manipulation or the risk of it is mainly connected with the question how the contents of social quality are defined in each case on the basis of



the chosen or available indicators.

*An indicator should be measurable in a sufficiently comparable way in different member-states. It should also be comparable and usable together with internationally applied standards.* In the cases of most indicators of social quality, the data needed can be collected in most member-countries of The EU. With some indicators, however, the problem may be that the data received through an indicator may not measure the phenomenon it should describe equally in all the countries involved. If for instance the percentage of people who vote is used in measuring social cohesion in countries like Belgium, where voting is compulsory, this will lead to the formation of an image that is wrong in comparison with countries where there are no sanctions for people who do not vote. In this sense, many of the indicators can be interpreted differently in different cultures.

Dissimilarities in social and legislative systems may also make it difficult to understand and interpret the indicators in unified ways. What measures a certain phenomenon in one country may not necessarily measure the same thing in another one. These factors have, however, been discussed during the project, and the aim has been to pay attention to them when choosing the indicators.

International comparability directed outside the EU is a wider and more complicated question. Differences in statistical systems, ways of collecting the data, and in the political systems themselves make this more difficult. Yet we can consider it an important and worthwhile goal to achieve international comparability also outside the EU. Economic policy, which dominates so strongly in the politics of the EU, gets its indicators and points of comparison from among its economic competitors: it uses for example the indicators describing the economy, growth, and competitiveness in Japan and the USA. In order to make it possible to reduce the dominance of economic indicators and to bring social indicators up together with them, we need indicators through which we can compare not only the economies of different societies but also the social quality - or the quality of people's lives in a wide sense - in different market areas. Thus it will be possible to study the "social price" of economic growth and relate it and the inner logic of this growth to the question how the economic growth benefits people's welfare, particularly the welfare of those living in the most difficult situations. It has been stated that the ethical quality or the level of justice existing in a society can be measured by asking how this society treats people living in the most disadvantaged conditions. Thus the expected self-sufficient values of the economic growth and international economic competitiveness could be challenged by comparable indicators of social quality.

*An indicator should be controllable and up-to-date. In itself, it is not essential how up-to-date certain individual indicators are.* The choices of indicators are made on the basis of the theory of social quality and of the aim of creating an image of social quality as a whole. Certain stability of both individual indicators and the whole indicator package is important, because it decreases the risks of political manipulation and of getting stuck with momentarily current issues. This makes it possible to preserve the picture of the situation as a whole. Individual indicators are, however, always controllable through the theory of social quality. There are defects in updating the indicators, if this is understood to mean

the availability of data that is as new as possible. Yet these defects are connected with general schedule problems of collecting and receiving statistical data from authorities on both national and international levels. This is a typical problem connected with statistical research: sources of data tend to be at least two or three years old and may therefore no longer necessarily describe the current situation.

*Measuring an indicator should not cause too heavy a burden to the member- states, companies, or citizens of the Union.* At this stage, the indicators of social quality are based on existing sources of data. Thus they cannot cause any special burden. It can be considered reasonable to utilise the collected data more efficiently than before and to use it for new purposes. However, the use of data sources collected for other purposes in the indicators of social quality may lead to compromises, in which the theory of social quality is modified according to the empirical reality measured earlier. The danger is that the picture of social quality will be narrowed only to include things that have been measured. In that case, we may ask what additional value the indicators of social quality possess if they are based on existing sources of data. In the future, we should perhaps consider the possibility of collecting internationally comparable data based on the particular view-point of social quality. One example of such a work form is a project connected with indicators of the quality of life, which is going on in Ireland. In this project, data has been collected in different EU countries for the special purpose of measuring the quality of life. Collecting data in this way does not cause huge costs, and almost no burden is inflicted upon households. In the project in question the sample studied has consisted of 1000 households in each country of The EU. With a survey- type system of collecting data like this, it is possible to get close to people's own experiences and to try to make sure that the data received is in the right context, and that the interviewees can understand it in a unified way.

*Different sectors should be equally represented in an indicator package. Indicators should be consistent in relation to each other.* The emphasis of each individual indicator should be appropriate in comparison with the other ones. It is likely that the emphasis of different sectors can be certified through the theory of social quality. The indicator package of social quality is also exceptionally large and inclusive. However, the emphasis of different sectors is difficult to control when the number of indicators is as large as it is in the case of the chosen indicators of social quality. Yet it is somewhat easier to control the emphasis of individual indicators inside the different components of social quality. During the project, attention has been paid to the consistency of the indicators, but the large indicator package is still challenging.

*An indicator package should be comprehensible to as many citizens of The European Union as possible.* From the view-point of the social quality approach as a whole and of the indicators connected with it, this is one of the greatest challenges. The theory of social quality is fairly complicated. The interpretation of some individual indicators is also a challenging task even for the experts of the field. In themselves, individual indicators are rather clear. Yet it will certainly be a demanding task to make them widely comprehensible in the context of social quality. However, we may ask how many citizens in the EU can explain for example the contents and formation of the GDP

indicator, even though it is one of the most widely used economic indicators.



## 5 Social Cohesion

### 5.1 Different definitions of social cohesion

In Lisbon, the European Commission decided to follow up the progress of the strategy of growth through structural indicators. The emphasis in these indicators is, however, fairly strongly in economic and technological issues. There is only one indicator to measure the goal of social cohesion. This indicator has been defined as a relative percentage of the poor: households have been labelled as poor if their usable income per each consumption unit is 60% or less of the usable income of a median household. The choice of setting the borderline of poverty to 60% and not for instance 50% of the median income has an influence on the number of the poor and on the socio-economic structure of the resulting group. This is a great statistical change and different from the typical way of measuring poverty. Among other things, it has made the population of the Nordic Countries to seem relatively poorer than before in comparison with people living in the other countries of the EU.<sup>35</sup>

At the meeting of the European Council in Barcelona, a separate goal indicator concerning poverty was suggested in connection with a general over-view. According to this indicator, the poverty in the EU, according to the 60% definition described above, should be cut into a half. This would mean that the percentage of the poor would decrease into 8% of the population by the year 2010. Yet the committee of social protection stated that it is not meaningful to set a detailed quantitative goal because of the many dimensions of exclusion, the problems of measuring poverty, and the lack of up-dated poverty indicators.

Also these measuring problems and the lack of updated indicators of poverty affect the picture achieved of poverty and exclusion through social quality. Despite this, there is also the goal called "social quality" simultaneously existing inside the concept of the same name. When using the concept of social quality, the problem of setting detailed quantitative goals does not come up so strongly: attention has been paid to the multiple dimensions of exclusion, which have also been built into the theory and indicators of social quality.

However, it was decided at the meeting of the European Council in Lisbon that social cohesion will be observed with the aid of the following six indicators:<sup>36</sup>

1. the division of income
2. poverty rate before and after transfers of income
3. the continuation of poverty

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<sup>35</sup> J. Saari(2002) (ed.) 'Euroopan Sosiaalinen malli. Sosiaalipoliittinen näkökulma Euroopan integraatioon' (Sosiaali- ja terveysturvan keskusliitto ry, Helsinki), pp.15-24

<sup>36</sup> See for instance J. Saari(2002) (ed.) 'Euroopan Sosiaalinen malli. Sosiaalipoliittinen näkökulma Euroopan integraatioon' (Sosiaali- ja terveysturvan keskusliitto ry, Helsinki), pp.15-24 ; [http://europa.eu.int/comm/lisbon\\_strategy/intro\\_en.html](http://europa.eu.int/comm/lisbon_strategy/intro_en.html); <http://www.stakes.info/euso/Indikaattorit.htm#Ensisijaisiksi%20sosiaali-indikaattoreiksi>

4. regional cohesion
5. people who drop out of the school system early without further training or education
6. the long-term unemployed.

These indicators measure the social dimension. The problem is, however, that they have not been given an equally strong position with for example the first listed ones that describe economy and that have comparison points in Japan and The United States.

The indicators of social cohesion mentioned above are different from the cohesion defined through social quality. In the discussion on social cohesion, this may partly cause conceptual ambiguity. Indicators chosen through the theory of social quality describe people's trust in society, institutions, and each other as well as their altruism, tolerance towards other people and different choices in life, social agreement, networks, and identities. In the preliminary suggestion for indicators provided by the European Council in Lisbon, only regional cohesion equals the view-point of social quality in relation to social cohesion. In the definitions of social quality, the "cohesion indicators" created by the European Commission in Lisbon have mainly been thought to measure socio-economic security.

Some basic issues can be noted, when comparing the indicators of social quality with the ones preliminarily created by the European Council in Lisbon. First of all in the Lisbon indicators, attention is paid almost exclusively to the description of material welfare. Thus the picture gained centres around poverty. Secondly, social cohesion emphasises the importance of work and education as a factor that creates cohesion in society. According to this view, a remarkable number of Europeans are outside social cohesion. Attention is thus paid only to the efficiency of the labour market and the transfers of income. Such indicators of cohesion describe the abilities of different societies to guarantee the equal division of income, to integrate people into educational systems, and to create jobs rather than social cohesion. In this sense, the indicators of social quality provide a much more extensive image of welfare. Welfare and particularly social cohesion cannot only mean efficient transfers of income, education, jobs, and absence of poverty.

As mentioned above, the structural indicators set by the European Commission in Lisbon describe welfare with a strong emphasis on economy, employment, and technology. Together with these structural indicators, it is necessary to create and use other indicators that measure people's welfare more closely and are not based on the single background assumption that only economic growth can create welfare. Such indicators that describe society and welfare more widely are needed to produce a challenge to the discussion - to ask certain questions: "Where will it lead to if the market is seen as a self-sufficient value, and if economic growth is all the time thought of as the main goal?" "What is the real goal: people's welfare or economic growth?" The image of welfare created by the indicators of social quality may function as a factor that awakens discussion.

## **5.2 ICSW and social cohesion**

The ICSW Europe has set up a series of expert meetings on the two priorities in its working programme: social rights and social cohesion. The outcomes of the expert meetings will be used also as inputs for the Regional Conference on the Future of the European Social Model in June 2005 in Lucerne, Switzerland. The first expert meeting in Budapest, organised by ICSW Germany, dealt with the issue of social rights. The second meeting in Bratislava, organised by ICSW Norway and Israel, focused on especially on migration. The third meeting which was held in the end of year 2004 in the Netherlands, was on social cohesion and social responsibilities. The results of this expert meeting as well as the ENIQ-project are an important part of discussions in the Lucerne conference on Future European Social Model.

Along ICSW social cohesion is a complex concept to implement in effective strategies. The concept needs to be elaborated in more concrete terms. In European debates we find – in different words – two main perspectives on cohesion. Firstly, cohesion refers to how people connect to each other, how people behave and how they participate in society. In this perspective we are discussing integration, quality of life in local communities, and problems with criminality and opting-out behaviour. Secondly, cohesion and participation ask people to be self supporting and to meet the demands of full citizenship. We expect them to care for their own income, labour, family and wellbeing, and to participate fully in society. For those who have a serious impairment we have supportive provisions to give them access to the so called level playing field. The strategy aims to include as many citizens as possible into the labour market, the public life, and society as a whole. Some people are too seriously impaired and need a permanent care system.

Social cohesion strategies aim at integration, decent behaviour, participation, self support and citizenship, and a care system for those who really need long-term or permanent care. It is recognised in EU policies that social cohesion is an important factor for national and local economies. People and business prefer to establish themselves in a safe and stimulating environment.

Most people agree that social cohesion is important but who is responsible for cohesion? Most documents and debates state that all actors are responsible: authorities, civil society, for-profit sector and citizens. However it is quite unclear who is responsible for what and to what extent. And even unclear is which strategies are needed and can be implemented successfully. In most EU states there is a tendency on the national level to withdraw to a large extent from social cohesion issues, leaving it to the local authorities. Social issues are by definition related to the concrete context in which people live and they ask for tailor-made approaches. Local authorities develop various strategies but are very much hampered by national regulations, strong sectors such as education, health, police, and fragmentation. It is highly relevant to see how national devolution strategies and local integration strategies are dependent on each other and how in the different EU member states different strategies have been developed to find a balance between national and local responsibilities.

A second debate focuses on the extent to which the authorities are responsible for issues like self-

support, participation and quality of life. Are they supposed to create a supporting infrastructure of local provisions, charters and facilities? What are the possibilities for local authorities, to promote participation and integration, to establish a level playing field and to provide a care system?

Civil society is high on the agenda of the European Union and its member states. However, we are lacking a clear definition of civil society and it is often very unclear what in reality is expected from associations, foundations, clubs, churches and all kind of interest groups and grassroots movements. Social responsibilities are not defined and it is debatable if civil society organisations can be asked to take over responsibilities for welfare, care, integration and participation. So what exactly is their role and what can we expect and ask from them?

Corporate social responsibility is a catch word among modern managers. Big enterprises are developing strategies to involve themselves in social issues, quite often related to the local communities. For them it is important that there is a good and sustainable social climate. Too what extent can local communities expect or even oblige business to take their responsibility?

Related to the social rights strategy is the debate on social duties and responsibilities of citizens. Many policy makers have stated that social rights are to some extent dependent on social responsibilities. If citizens do not take their responsibility to find a job, to attend lessons, to look after their relatives, they are not entitled to social assistance, to the care system and to all kinds of social services. It is said that in overemphasising the rights of citizens we are changing our social systems into a legal framework, based on legal considerations instead of on commitment and a sense of responsibility. On the other hand emphasising responsibilities too much creates a rather insecure world for people who are dependent on social services.



## 6 Social Quality approach and reducing poverty, hardship and vulnerability

### 6.1 Poverty as a phenomenon and a concept

The indicators of social quality are one way of approaching poverty and disadvantaged situations existing in the EU and its member states. The question is how concretely the indicators can describe these phenomena. It would be essential to achieve further understanding of these phenomena with the aid of social indicators. Thus the indicators could help decision-makers and for instance the NGOs connected with the political system of decision-making to direct their attention to the existing problems. Thus the question is of an indirect influence upon the phenomena analysed.

According to one definition or statistic criterion (50% of the median income), there are about 68 million poor people in Europe (ref.). The question is of an extensive phenomenon connected with people's welfare. It cannot be ignored.

Generally, poverty is understood as a restriction of social functional capacity caused by the lack of economic resources. This means that the person in question is incapable of living in a way that is dominant in his/her society (for instance Townsend, 1979).<sup>37</sup> As a phenomenon, poverty no longer comes up merely in its absolute form (e.g. lack of food or housing). It is connected with the surrounding society and the standard of living and quality of life typically achieved in it. Thus the question is of relative poverty, which has mainly to do with qualitative factors related to people's welfare. Poverty is thus a more extensive phenomenon than the mere lack of economic resources. It is not only connected with the possibilities of an individual to satisfy his/her basic needs (in the sense introduced by Abraham Maslow) but also with his/her opportunities to live in a way that fills certain qualitative requirements existing in the society. In this sense, the theory of social quality and the indicators developed on the basis of it may achieve wider understanding of poverty as a phenomenon and thus be more useful in describing this phenomenon and its effects on various aspects of the quality of life than the traditional poverty indicators. Therefore it will be interesting to see what the image of poverty produced by the indicators of social quality will be like in comparison with earlier studies of this field. In the research on poverty, there have been many quite different approaches, which have often created somewhat different ideas of poverty - either of its quantity or its quality.

Pete Alcock<sup>38</sup> (1993, 3) claims that there is not one single scientifically accepted way of defining poverty: poverty is necessarily a political concept and thus always a source of dispute. It may be argued that this also applies to the picture of poverty produced by the indicators based on the theory of social quality. It is not enough to consider what poverty is according to the image created through

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<sup>37</sup> See for instance P. Townsend 'Poverty in United Kingdom' (Penguin, Harmondsworth, 1997).

<sup>38</sup> P. Alcock 'Understanding Poverty' (MacMillan, London 1993), p. 3

these indicators. Additionally we must keep in mind and think of who defines what the concepts of poverty, welfare, or a quality of life really mean.

There are many methodical approaches used in poverty research. As it was stated above, they produce different images of where poverty exists or does not exist. Partly, different studies also label different groups of people as poor.<sup>39</sup> Yet there are connections between these approaches and the indicators of social quality. In a sense, there is also the question whether these approaches could be utilised more in the components of social quality, especially in the socio-economic security component.

## 6.2 The approach of the Social Quality indicators

Through the sub-domains of income sufficiency and income security in the domain of financial security, the theory and indicators of social quality may become useful in studying what kinds of results each system produces. Here the analysis mainly concerns the levels of a family and an individual. (Keeping them apart is also important - family-based versus Scandinavian models of the welfare state). It would be possible to produce material for a discussion on what kind of a system produces the best results in preventing poverty and exclusion.

In the approach based on the indicators of social quality, the strong point seems to be that it combines many existing approaches and is able to distinguish the macro-level and the micro-level from each other. The weakness would seem to be that the social quality indicators approach to poverty indirectly and through large sources of statistic data such as registers or other macro-level statistics. None of the indicators uses a direct and subjective method, such as asking some people directly whether it is really hard for their families to cope with the present income.<sup>40</sup> Moreover, indirect methods of measuring poverty lack a consensus of defining poverty, in which it would be estimated on the basis of the opinions of the population what would be a standard under which people could be labelled as poor.<sup>41</sup> In a way, this could provide a key for avoiding the political-administrative nature of interpreting the content criteria (indicators) of quality: the question of which percentage should be defined as indicating poverty in each indicator.

Poverty is most explicitly defined in the socio-economic security component and its domains, especially in the income security sub-domain of the financial resources component. This income security sub-domain is measured how do certain biographical events affect the risk of poverty on household level. These biographical events are: health vs. illness /disability, employment vs.

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<sup>39</sup> O. Kangas & V. Ritakallio (1998) 'Different methods - Different results: approaches to multidimensional poverty' in H-J Andress (ed.) 'Empirical Poverty Studies'. (Ashgate 1998), pp. 167-203.

<sup>40</sup> See for instance O. Kangas & V. Ritakallio (1998) 'Different methods - Different results: approaches to multidimensional poverty' in H-J Andress (ed.) 'Empirical Poverty Studies'. (Ashgate 1998), pp. 167-203.

<sup>41</sup> See for instance A.J. Hagenaars 'The Perception of Poverty' (Elsevier Science Publications, Amsterdam, 1986).

unemployment, employment vs. retirement, dual parent vs. single parent family and child birth. This approach follows the lines of the traditional research on poverty. Its results are also fairly easy and unambiguous to interpret. In analysing the results provided by this indicator it is, however, necessary to keep in mind the differences between the Scandinavian and the more family-based models of welfare.

Another approach to income security is based on the view-point called "proportion of total population living in households receiving entitlement transfers that allow them to live in the EU poverty level". This approach is based on the EU poverty limit, which is defined as 60% of the median income on the national level. As we mentioned above, this analysis is based on a political and administrative point-of-view and provides a picture of poverty that differs to some extent from the one created by the 50% limit traditionally used in poverty research. However, this analysis is supplemented by observing the situation of each household before and after entitlement transfers, which makes it particularly interesting in relation to comparisons between different systems of entitlement transfers. Yet a weak point may be found in the possible problems of estimating the effects of entitlement transfers achieved for instance through the taxation system and through various kinds of tax reductions, which are not seen directly as parts of social security.

Poverty is also studied in relation to income sufficiency. Here the indicator is what percentage of its income each household spends on food, housing, clothing, and health-care. In connection with this indicator, separate analyses are made on the situations in the lower and median household incomes. Some problems may be caused by the difficulty of distinguishing between the insufficiency of income and choices based on different cultures and life-styles.

These three indicators (see appendix, table 1, indicators 1-3) mainly form the explicit view- point of social quality to poverty. In this connection, these indicators certainly suffice to provide a good general overview of poverty. Yet they do not abolish the need for deeper and more inclusive analyses of it in other connections.

The image of poverty created through social quality can, however, be specified if we look at indicators that describe poverty implicitly and keep in mind that multiple factors that cause disadvantaged conditions are connected with poverty. Disadvantaged conditions and people living in the most difficult positions are also recognised more widely through some indicators of social inclusion and of the socio-economic security component.

At the "housing and environment" domain of the socio-economic security component - or more precisely at its sub-domains "housing security" and "housing conditions" - attention is paid to the security of housing. As we mentioned earlier in section 4.2, there are many problems connected with the concept and measuring of homelessness. On the EU level, finding a comparable indicator forms an additional difficulty. In the social quality approach, attention is also paid to the security of housing (the indicator called "proportion of people who have no certainty of keeping their home"). In itself this is

important, too. In connection with housing issues, there has also been an emphasis on housing conditions. In this analysis, the indicators include the number of square-meters per person and the technical defects of the flat.

It is particularly important to the ICSW that the number of homeless people has been included in the analysis despite the methodological problems connected with it. Homelessness can be seen as a factor that causes disadvantaged conditions and as one of the most serious problems in people's lives. At the component of social inclusion, estimations of the number of homeless people are based on material created by FEANTSA (see Appendix, table 3, indicator 56). Also the queues for housing based on social security have been studied in connection with social inclusion (indicator 57).

In the indicator package of social quality, other indicators that explicitly describe disadvantaged situations (and to some extent implicitly poverty, because disadvantage factors tend to pile up) include indicators related to health-care. At the "security of health provisions" domain, the indicator describes the proportion of people who have a compulsory or voluntary insurance for health-care and the inclusiveness of these insurance arrangements (see Appendix, table 1, indicator 10). The number of people outside such an insurance or of persons entitled only to deficient or partial health-care tell us very much about disadvantaged conditions, if the indicator is able to describe these phenomena concretely. Due to the lack of appropriate data, it has been necessary to resort to qualitative descriptions in connection with this indicator. Quite inclusive attention has also been paid to the accessibility of health-care services (see Appendix, table 1, indicators 11-13).

Employment is one of the most important factors in building up the welfare of individuals and thus also of preventing poverty. The employment related indicators of the "employment security" domain describe the stability of jobs and the security of employment (see Appendix, table 1, indicators 15-18). Moreover, the "labour market" sub-domain of the social inclusion component discusses long-term unemployment (more than 12 months) and part-time jobs not chosen voluntarily (see Appendix, table 3, indicators 53-54).

An analysis based on the theory of social quality does not only provide a picture of poverty or of the number of poor people. It also includes extensive observation of factors that are known to cause poverty or exclusion as well as description of how wide-spread these factors are. These extensive observations are made with the aid of the different components of social quality (also other than the socio-economic security component) and their indicators. Moreover, the components and their indicators, for instance the empowerment-component, make it possible to study the change factors which enable us not only to measure poverty but also to estimate what chances the individual has for changing his/her situation in the existing social conditions.

We can say that the goal and the benefit of the concept and the indicators of social quality is that with the aid of the indicators it is possible to make poverty, exclusion, and the risk factors causing

exclusion visible. Moreover, when information on poverty and exclusion is achieved through an indicator-project on the national levels, it may be possible at some point to produce comparable data, which can be analysed in relation to a large context (the European Union). At least in theory, it would thus be possible to measure and compare the efficiency of different citizens' welfare policies. Such research has already been done on national levels and on the level of Europe. Yet it has mainly concentrated on studies made with the aid of transfers of income, the equality in the division of income, and of different definitions of poverty. A modest expectation is that utilising the concept of social quality may lead to a more extensive analysis on poverty, exclusion, and the risk factors causing these problems than the research based on the traditional indicators of poverty.



## **7 Conclusion**

From the view-point of the ICSW, different approaches that increase the visibility of poverty, disadvantaged conditions, and the implementation of basic social rights are extremely important. The theory and indicators of social quality provide an interesting point-of-view to these issues. With the aid of social quality, it is possible to pay attention to welfare and to the factors constructing it as a whole. Poverty and disadvantaged situations are almost always consequences of structural problems existing in society. With the aid of the theory and indicators of social quality, we can see the problems more clearly as parts of the whole. Individual measures meant to ease the lives of people living in the most difficult conditions may not necessarily help very much. There is a need for a wider and clearer view-point of welfare. The question is of a choice between marginal social policy to relieve problems and a much more universal preventative one. Solving individual problems like poverty or homelessness requires inclusive knowledge of the conditions existing in the society as a whole. In this sense, the image created through the indicators of social quality is fairly good at raising discussion on the direction into which the European social policy should be developed.

There are many general and methodological problems connected with the development, use, and interpretation of social indicators. This also applies to the indicators of social quality. These problems related to the starting points of the indicators must be kept in mind when interpreting the picture that the indicators provide about people's welfare. The quantitative research orientation always describes only parts of the phenomenon studied: the indicators can never create a complete image. Moreover, the indicators themselves and the processes of choosing and interpreting them are always at risk of being politically affected.

The picture of welfare created through social indicators is developed and made more extensive and inclusive all the time. The indicators of social quality are a good example of this. The indicator package of social quality is a fairly large unity of social indicators with different types of contents. This fact includes both its strong points and its weaknesses. The great number of indicators guarantees an opportunity to a wide recognition of whether various types of basic social rights are implemented or not. A weakness or challenge may be caused by the problem of how to make the theory of social quality and the background assumptions of a large number of indicators widely comprehensible. Such comprehension will be necessary in order to interpret the results achieved through the indicators. Generally speaking, the basic idea of indicators is to compress a lot of data into a concise form that is easy to interpret. The indicator package formed through the theory of social quality is very large. This makes it fairly challenging for its users to interpret. However, as we mentioned above, the indicators of social quality provide a very inclusive picture of welfare.

There are many indicator projects that are relevant in relation to social policy going on in Europe today. Each one of them has its own special characteristics and strong points. Yet the different projects partly resort concretely to the same individual indicators due to the accessibility of ready-

made data. Strong theoretical background work is one of the special characteristics of the indicators of social quality. However, at least at this stage, the picture of welfare created through social quality is based on existing data. Indicators have been seen as important instruments for following up and steering the consequences of political measures. They direct the attention of the political system of decision-making to the existing problems. Also non-governmental organisations benefit of indicators when trying to influence in order to decrease poverty and other causes of disadvantaged conditions. The indicators of social quality and the picture they provide of social quality as a whole help us to direct attention widely, not only to individual problems or defects but also to structural issues. Thus they can promote the development of long-term social policy, in which problems can be seen more clearly as parts of the whole situation, and in which it is possible to find solutions even to individual problems through the whole unity. Thus this may help to create policy in which attention is paid to social, economic, and cultural points all together.



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## **Annex Social Quality indicators**



**Indicators of Socio-economic Security**

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

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

**Indicators of Social Cohesion**

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

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

**Indicators of Social Inclusion**

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

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

**Indicators of Social Empowerment**

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

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



## **Annex Collective data**



## 1. Socio-economic security

### Domain: Financial resources

### Sub-domain: Income security

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

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

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

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

Source: Eurostat; free data, social cohesion

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

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

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

Source: Eurostat; free data, social cohesion

**Domain: Housing and environment**

**Sub-domain: Housing conditions**

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

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

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

Source: Eurostat 2003, Living conditions in Europe

**Domain: Health and care**

**Sub-Domain: Health services**

**11. Number of medical doctors per 100.000 inhabitants**

**Number of practitioners per 100 000 inhabitants**

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

Source: Eurostat, Yearbook 2003

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

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

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

Source: Eurobarometer 52.1

**Domain: Work**

**Sub-domain: Employment security**

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

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

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

Source: Eurostat; Statistics in Focus

## Sub-domain: Working conditions

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

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

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

Source: Eurostat; Statistics in Focus

### Evolution of the accidents at work, 1998 = 100

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

p) provisional value

b) break in series

Source: Eurostat, free data, employment

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

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

Source: Eurostat 2003; Living conditions in Europe

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

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

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

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



**Domain: Education**

**Sub-domain: Security of education**

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

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

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

p) provisional value

b) break in series

Source: Eurostat SC053 IV.5.1

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

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

p) provisional value

b) break in series

Source: Eurostat SC053 IV.5.1-2

## 2. Social cohesion

### Domain: Trust

#### Sub-domain: Generalised trust

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Source: European Social Survey (ESS) 2002

#### Sub-domain: Specific trust

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

###### Trust in different institutions in European countries 2002/2003

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

Source: European Social Survey 2002.

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

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

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

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

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

## Domain: Other integrative norms and values

### Sub-domain: Altruism

#### 29. Volunteering: number of hours per week

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

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

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

#### 30. Blood donation

Blood donation (%), 2002

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

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

## Sub-domain: Tolerance

### 31. Views on immigration, pluralism and multiculturalism

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

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

Source: European Values Survey 1999/2000, Q74

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

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

Source: European Values Survey 1999/2000, Q75

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

#### Typology of people according to their attitudes towards minorities

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

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

Source: Eurobarometer 2000 survey

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

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

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

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

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

## Sub-domain: Social contract

### 33. Beliefs on causes of poverty: individual or structural

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

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

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

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

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

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

Source: European Social Survey 2002/2003



**Proportion of population which belongs to....**

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

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

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

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

## 40. Frequency of contact with friends and colleagues

### Frequency of spending time with friends

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

Source: European Social Survey (Q6A)

### Frequency of spending time with colleagues

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

Source: European Social Survey (Q6B)

## Domain: Identity

### Sub-domain: National / European pride

#### 41. Sense of national pride

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

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

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

##### Sense of national pride

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

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

**Sub-domain: Regional / community / local identity**

**43. Sense of regional / community / local identity**

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

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

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

### 3. Social inclusion

#### Domain: Citizenship rights

#### Sub-domain: Constitutional / political rights

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

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

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

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

#### Sub-domain: Social rights

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

##### Gender pay gap

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

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

Source: Eurostat; free data, employment

### Earnings of men and women

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

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

Note: The share refers to full-time earnings.

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

## Sub-domain: Economic and political networks

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

#### Proportion of women in national governments and parliaments, 2001

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

Source: Europäische datanbank Frauen in Führungspositionen ([www.db-decision.de](http://www.db-decision.de))

**Domain: Labour market**

**Sub-domain: Access to paid employment**

**53. Long-term unemployment (12+ months)**

**Total long-term unemployment**

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

Source: Eurostat; free data, social cohesion

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

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

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

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

Source: Eurostat; free data, social cohesion

**Domain: Social networks**

**Sub-domain: Neighbourhood participation**

**67. Proportion in regular contact with neighbours**

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

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

Source: Eurostat 2003, Living conditions in Europe

**Sub-domain: Friendships**

**68. Proportion in regular contact with friends**

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

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

Source: Eurostat 2003, Living conditions in Europe

## 4. Social Empowerment

### Domain: Knowledge base

#### Sub-domain: Availability of information

##### 73. Per cent of population literate and numerate

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

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

Source: PISA2000; Adult Literacy Survey, 1994-98

##### 75. Access to internet

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

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

Source: European Social Survey, 2002/2003

### Domain: Labour market

#### Sub-domain: Prospects of job mobility

##### 80. % of employed labour force receiving work based training

**Continuing vocational training (CVT) in enterprises (1999)**

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

Source: Eurostat 2003, Living conditions in Europe



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

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

Source: Eurostat 2002, Statistics in Focus



## **Annex Social Quality theory**



## 1 Introduction

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

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

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

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

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

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

### 2.1 The Foundation's second book as point of departure

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

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

## **2.2 The challenge of the Network Indicators**

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

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

### **3 Some aspects of the theory and its indicators**

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

#### **3.1 The reciprocity between structure and action**

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

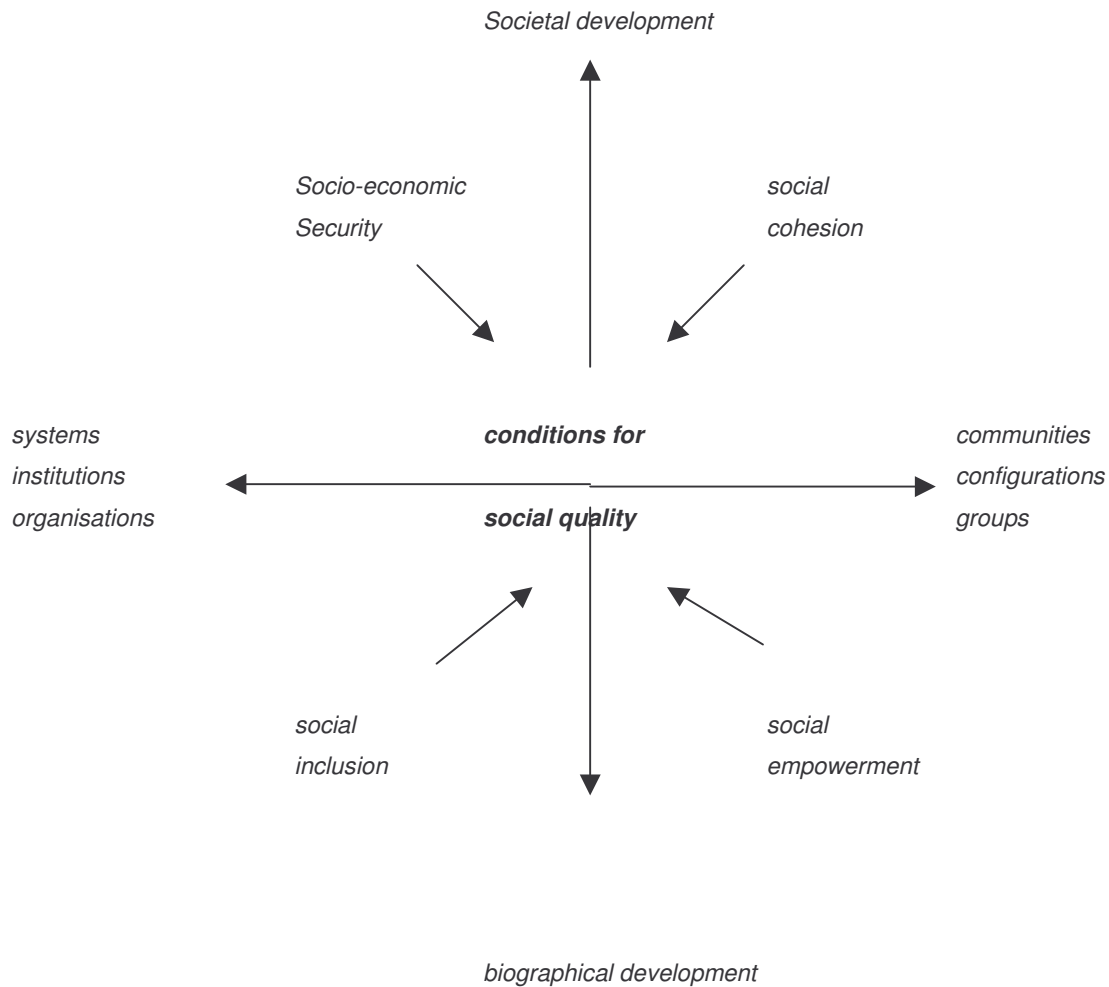
The social quality approach tries to resolve the actual tension behind action and structure in a dialectical way. Social science is by definition a theory of action (this is not the same as the so-called 'action theory'), as the social cannot be imagined without actions or interventions by individual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

#### **3.2 The four conditional factors**

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



Figure-1 The quadrangle of the conditional factors



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

### 3.3 A referral to the four constitutional factors

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

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

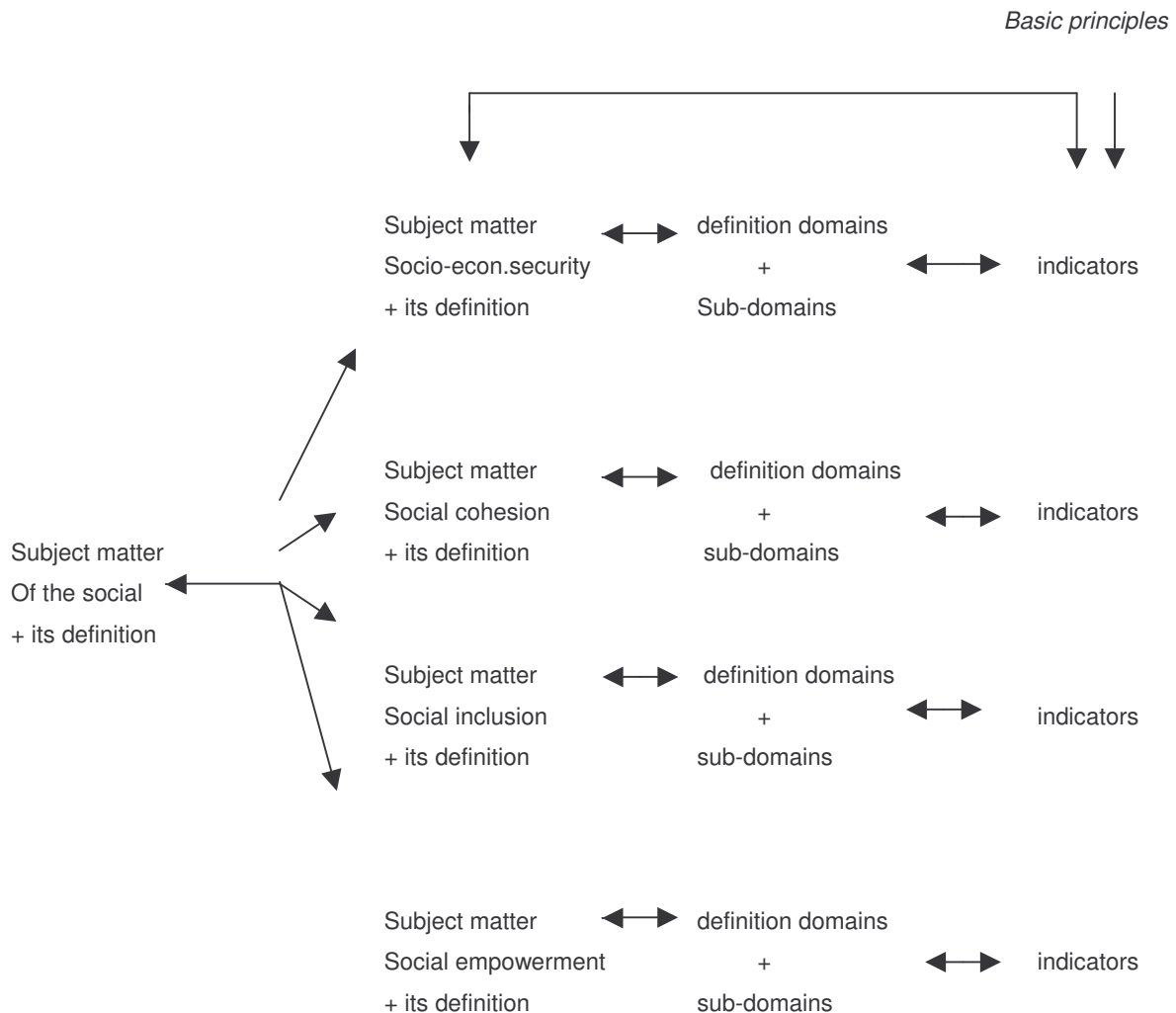
This theme is presented for the first time in the Foundation's second book of January 2001 and will be elaborated in the Foundation's third book. The relationship between the constitutional factors and the conditional factors – theoretically and practically – will be analysed. For the European Network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

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

### **4.1 The steps made by the network**

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

Figure-2 Determination of related concepts

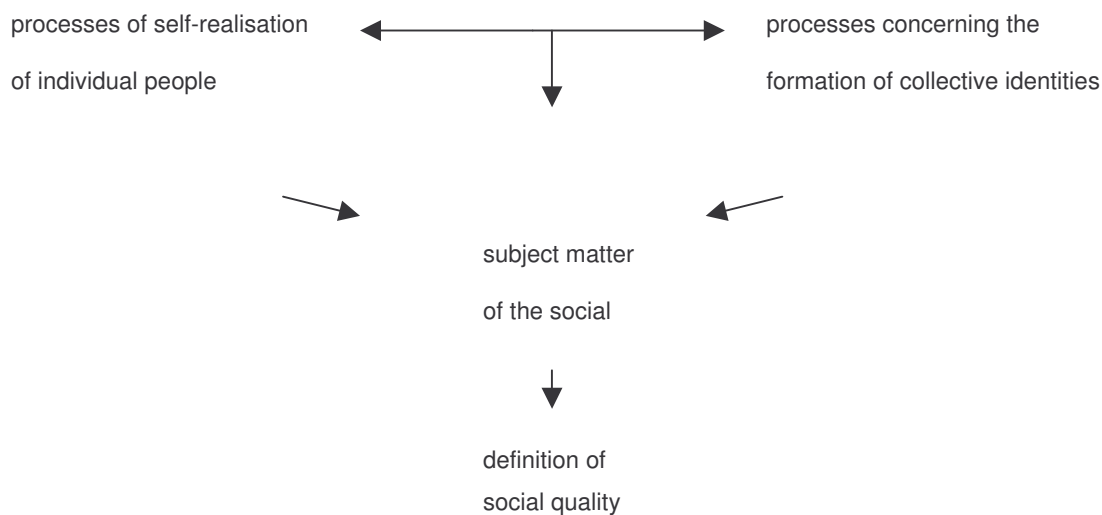


## 4.2 The definitions of the four conditional factors

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

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

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



The herewith related definitions of the four conditional factors are:

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

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

## **5 Conclusions**

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

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