

European Network Indicators of Social Quality
- ENIQ -

“Social Quality”
The Irish National Report

by
Prof. dr Séamus O'Cinneide, Jean Cushen
& Fearghas O'Gabhan

University of Ireland
Centre for Applied Social Studies

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European Foundation on Social Quality

Felix Meritis Building

Keizersgracht 324

1016 EZ Amsterdam

Ph: +31 20 626 2321

Fax: +31 20 624 9368

Email: EFSQ@felix.meritis.nl

Website: www.socialquality.org

Preface

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

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

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

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

Alan Walker, Chair of ENIQ

Laurent van der Maesen, Co-ordinator of ENIQ

Participants

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

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1 Introduction

Social Quality, as a concept, describes 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. This measure incorporates analysis of a broad range of Macro, Meso and Micro indicators designed to capture policy output and effect rather than simply input and objectives. Rather than simply analysing outputs under policy headings, such as housing and health, such a measure enables an understanding of the broader impact of policies on both the individual and society to emerge.

Those indicators encompassed by social quality are grouped under four conditional factors, namely:

- Socio-economic Security
- Social Cohesion
- Social Inclusion
- Social Empowerment

The ENIQ project seeks to elaborate upon the range of indicators for measuring the nature, extent, or degree of the four conditional factors and their interrelationship. Two essential tensions which impact on the four conditional factors are to be interpreted as fields of action, namely societal processes versus biographies (or biographical processes) and systems, institutions and organisations versus communities, groups and families.

Ireland has witnessed such change over the past two decades that commentators speak of the country having 'reinvented itself' (NESC 1999: 21). The fifteen year period, 1987-2002, of rapid economic growth and unprecedented job has caused Ireland to become known as the 'Celtic Tiger'. Diverging accounts have emerged to explain and qualify the distinctive aspects of this phenomenon and the relationship between economic growth and social well-being.

The pre-dominant tendency is to focus on the economic aspects of Ireland's apparent success. High productivity, cost competitiveness, wage restraint and curbs on public spending are identified as key factors underpinning that success (Barry 1999; Leddin and Walsh 1997; Bradley 2000; Fitzgerald 2000). Certainly, Ireland has now achieved a standard of living comparable to that enjoyed among the wealthiest of EU economies but this has been accompanied by a significant rise in the cost of living.

A second account argues that Ireland's economic success is the result of the model of economic and social governance that has emerged, namely social partnership¹ (Laffan and Ó Donnell 1998: 165). In this reading it is the institutions of the state rather than the market which play the central role in mediating economic development, in particular translating economic success into social success (Ó Donnell 2000; Ó Riain and Ó Connell 2000; Ó Riain 2004).

¹ Social partnership is the process whereby the social partners (the Irish Government, the business sector, the farming sector, the trade unions and the Community and Voluntary sector) negotiate economic and social policy-making.

A third approach emphasises the inequitable social impact of economic growth, in particular the enrichment of a small elite and relatively worse off position of the majority, (Allen 1999, 2000); the reliance on multinational capital, the growth in low-paid service jobs and the state's favouring of the rich through its fiscal policies (Ó Hearn 1998); and, that economic success correlates with social failure (Kirby 2000, 2002).

Finally, social partnership has been criticised for concentrating political power in the hands of small elites and organised interests (Ó Cinneide 1998; Kirby 2002). Policy has become subsumed into the negotiation of national pay agreements, 'made around committee tables behind closed doors (Ó Cinneide 1998: 46).

What new perspective is offered using the Social Quality framework?

2 Socio-economic security

2.1 Introduction

Socio-economic security is defined for the purpose of this study as the extent to which individuals have sufficient resources over time. Ireland's recent economic growth has contributed to higher living standards accompanied by a significant rise in the cost of living. There is a growing body of evidence indicating increased inequities within Irish society. The results for the socio-economic security domains show certain vulnerable groups to be experiencing consistent and real disadvantage.

2.2 Financial resources

2.2.1 Income sufficiency

1. Part of household income spent on health, clothing, food and housing (in the lower and median household incomes)

The most comprehensive data on household expenditure was gathered in Annual Household Budget Survey, 1999-2000, compiled by the Central Statistics Office (CSO).

Table 1.0 % Household Expenditures by Income Deciles

	1st Decile	2nd	3rd	4th	5th
Health	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
Clothing & Footwear	4	4	5	5	6
Food	29	29	27	25	23
Housing	9	9	11	10	10
Other	58	58	58	60	61

Source: Annual Household Budget Survey, 1999-2000, CSO

Estimated average weekly expenditure in 1999-2000 was €577.72, an increase of 46% from similar data gathered in 1994. Lower income households are characterised by higher levels of expenditure on food. The rural-urban differential is not broken out by income category but a general finding of the survey was that urban households spent 19% more per week than rural. Dublin has the highest average weekly expenditure €684.06 with the southeast having the lowest €488.62. Over 38 % of pensioners reside in households positioned within the lowest two income deciles.

2.2.2 Income security

2. How do certain biographical events affect the risk of poverty on a household level?

Ireland has used a consistent poverty indicator to identify those at risk of poverty and experiencing basic deprivation. Consistent poverty² has been falling steadily from 15.1% in 1994 to 5.2% in 2001, attributed to rising employment and the impact of a flat rate social welfare system. However, in the same period relative income poverty has increased from 15.6% to 22.1%. Relative income poverty in this context refers to the proportion of the population falling below 60% of median income. The Economic and Social Research Institute (ESRI) first presented data on the risk of poverty at the household level 1986-1987, after which reporting switched to risk at the individual level.

The first two tables below shows the risk at the household level by occupation and welfare status:

Table 2.0 The risk of household falling below 60% relative income poverty line

Labour Force Status of Household Reference Person	1997	1998
Ill/Disabled	79.0	80.4
Unemployed	71.0	72.1
Home Duties	67.2	69.3
Retired	45.4	42.0
Farmer	31.6	35.1
Self Employed	23.4	23.3
Employee	8.3	6.7
All	34.2	33.2

Source: ESRI Living in Ireland Survey, 1997, 1998

Table 2.1 Proportion of persons in receipt of Specific Welfare Benefits / Assistance in Households Below 60% of Median Income

Welfare Benefit / Assistance	1997	1998	2000	2001
Illness / Disability	25.4	38.5	48.4	49.4
Unemployment Benefit / Assistance	30.6	44.8	40.5	43.1
Lone Parent's Allowance	38.4	36.9	42.7	39.7
Old Age Pension	19.2	30.7	42.9	49.0

Source: ESRI Living in Ireland Survey, 1997, 1998, 2000, 2001

² Consistent poverty refers to

The table below shows the risk at the individual level:

Table 2.2 % of Persons at risk of falling below 60% of median income

Labour Force Status	1998	2000	2001
Unemployed	58.8	57.1	44.7
Ill/Disabled	54.5	52.2	66.5
Lone Parents	44.9	46.5	42.9
Home Duties	46.8	44.3	46.9
Elderly	32.9	38.4	44.1
Retired	18.4	30.3	36.9
Farmer	23.9	24.1	23.0
Children	22.6	23.7	23.4
Self Employed	16.4	17.9	14.3
Employee	2.6	6.5	8.1
All	19.8	20.9	21.9
Women	19.8	20.9	21.9
Men	15.9	17.3	19.4

Source: ESRI Living in Ireland Survey, 1998, 2000, 2001

Under the Irish system payments are not exclusively tied to previous income, preventing an exact percentage assessment of how biographical events impact upon household incomes. In most cases a scale of payment exists, linked to past contributions. The objective of the flat rate system is to reduce consistent poverty and raise low-income thresholds. A number of “free schemes” exist to support transfers targeted towards specific biographical events, such as free heat, electricity, TV license, telephone rental, medical care, and public travel.

3. Proportion of total population living in households receiving entitlement transfers that allow them to live above the EU poverty level.

Factors such as job creation, back to work and education schemes, and amendments to eligibility criteria have reduced slightly dependency on social welfare transfers, from 11% in 1999 to 9% in 2001.

The table below shows the impact of social transfers upon those at-risk-of poverty:

Table 3.0 % of population at risk-of-poverty before and after social transfers

1999			2000			2001		
% Dependent			% Dependent			% Dependent		
Before	After		Before	After		Before	After	
11	30	19	11	31	20	9	30	21

Source: Eurostat

The tables below show the impact of social transfers upon those at-risk-of poverty broken down by gender:

Table 3.1 % of population at risk-of-poverty before and after social transfers : Females

1999			2000			2001		
%	Before	After	%	Before	After	%	Before	After
Dependent	32	20	Dependent	33	21	Dependent	32	23
12			12			9		

Source: Eurostat

Table 3.2 % of population at risk-of-poverty before and after social transfers : Males

1999			2000			2001		
%	Before	After	%	Before	After	%	Before	After
Dependent	28	17	Dependent	29	19	Dependent	29	20
11			10			9		

Source: Eurostat

2.3 Housing and environment

2.3.1 Housing security

4. Proportion of people who have certainty of keeping their home

Two competing sets of figures are offered, first by the Irish Ciuncil for Social Housing (2001) and second the CSO (2003):

- Owner occupied: ICSH 80%; CSO 78%
- Local Authority housing: ICSH 9%; CSO 3%
- Voluntary and Co-operative housing: ICSH %; CSO 1%
- Private rented sector: ICSH 9%; CSO 17%

It is important to point out that the first category, 'owner occupied', is made up of both those who own their property outright and those others who are still purchasing their property through mortgages and other loans. The level of outright home ownership increases with age and income; purchase from local authorities is most common amongst the older age groups. Security of tenure for owners is provided for in Irish law, however, concerns exist about the level of debt first time buyers carry to cope with house price inflation. Demand for housing has greatly outweighed supply. The Economist magazine (2004) estimates house prices increased 181% between 1997 and 2004.

It is estimated that 48, 413 households are on the waiting list for Local Authority housing and 85% of these have an annual household income of less than €15,000 (Focus Ireland). A limited voluntary housing sector has emerged, providing for low-income families and vulnerable groups with special needs. Private rented accommodation is poorly regulated and viewed as an insecure, short term

housing option. In 1982 rent controls were found to be contravene the Irish Constitution. The boom in house prices has resulted in a comparable boom in the value and extent of the private rented sector.

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

No specific data exists.

2.3.2 Housing conditions

6. Number of square meters per household member.

Data is not gathered in Ireland for the number of square meters per household member, rather overcrowding is measured by the number of persons per room. The data indicates that the average household size in Ireland is decreasing and that typically overcrowding is not problematic.

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

The table below offers a comparison between Ireland and the EU-15 average:

Table 4.0 % of household lacking at least one of the three basic amenities by income group, 1999

	Ireland	EU-15
All households	16	21
Household income less than 60% compared to median actual current income	33	35

Source: Living Conditions in Europe, 2003, Eurostat

The second table offers data from the Census of Population:

Table 4.1 % of households with and without amenities, 2002

	% of households living with	% of households living without
Water	99.65%	0.35%
Sanitation	99.44%	0.56%
Heating	86.77%	13.23%

Source: Census of Population, 2002, CSO

The third table provides data on access to water, sewage and gas amenities broken out by region:

Table 4.2 % of households with mains water, sewage and gas, 2001-2002

	Dublin City & County	BMW ³ Urban, 5K+	Other Urban, 5K+	Rural BMW, <5K	Other Rural, <5K
Mains Water	99	99	99	51	62
Mains Sewage	98	96	97	22	34
Mains Gas	69	7	38	1	6

Source: Irish Survey of Housing Quality, 2001-2002, ESRI

The data reveals a clear disparity between rural or urban location and region. Use of private sewage disposal is almost exclusively confined to rural households and a great proportion of these use private well or group schemes for water. Connection to the mains electricity supply is virtually universal but provision of natural gas is mainly confined to Dublin and, to a lesser extent, urban areas outside the Border, Midlands and Western region.

2.3.3 Environmental conditions (social and natural)

8. People affected by criminal offences per 10,000 inhabitants.

The worldwide organisation Victim Support estimates, based on referrals to their service, that in 1999 some 7,714 people were victims of crime, an increase of thirty-five per cent on the previous year. Just under fifty per cent of the cases were related to residential burglary. An analysis by age shows that twenty per cent of victims in the 21-29 years old category, twenty-seven per cent in the 30-44 years category and twenty-eight per cent in the 45-59 years category. In 2000, nearly 8,000 people were referred to the service giving an estimate of 20:10,000. Recorded crime in Ireland, apart from murder, fell between 1995 to 2000; 'contributory factors cited as possible explanations for the increase in the murder rates, include the rise in alcohol consumption, dissatisfaction among those left behind by the Celtic Tiger, demographic changes and the rise in gangland feuding' (Ó Donnell, 2002). A survey by An Garda Síochána⁴ in 2002 revealed that a quarter of people felt unsafe walking in their neighbourhoods after dark. Forty-four per cent of the respondents said they felt less safe than six years previously and the same number also said that crime was rising in their areas. Eighty-four per cent of the respondents believed that crime was rising in Ireland as a whole.

9. Proportion living in households that are situated in neighbourhoods with above average pollution rate (water, air and noise).

No specific data relating to neighbourhoods is available. However, the following may be said of the rights of citizens with regard to water, air and noise pollution:

³ BMW refers to the Border Midlands Western Region, so designated due the area's continued requirement for EU investment.

⁴ The Irish police service, the literal translation being 'guardians of the peace'.

Noise Pollution

The law in Ireland governing the area of noise pollution is ([Section 108](#)) of the [Environmental Protection Agency Act, 1992](#) and the Environmental Protection Agency Act (Noise) Regulations, 1994 ([SI No. 179 of 1994](#)). Local Authorities have the power to investigate complaints about noise and have specialist equipment that measure levels of sound. While the law does not specifically mention an exact level or standard of noise that is illegal, it is clear that where neighbourhood noise is affecting the quality of life of a citizen they have a right to complain.

Air Pollution

The Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) has overall responsibility for the co-ordination of ambient air quality monitoring in accordance with EU Directives. The EPA Annual Report, 2004 states serious outdoor air quality problems do not exist in Ireland. Road traffic emissions are the primary threat to air quality. The number of vehicles registered in Ireland increased by 68% between 1990 and 2001 and this contributed half of the 9% rise in Ireland's nitrogen oxide emissions (EPA, 2002) between 1995 and 2000, bringing them up to 125,000 tonnes a year. Much of the balance came from power stations. Increased traffic also led to an increase in particulate emissions; the air in parts of Dublin exceeded EU guidelines in this regard 76 times in 2000. Emissions of solvents and benzene need to be reduced by 37,000 tonnes from the 87,000 tonnes released in 2001 to comply with EU directives ([Ó Neill, 2003](#)). Ireland is now one of the three worst emitters of sulphur dioxide in the EU and greenhouse emissions are amongst the worst in the world.

Water Pollution

EPA tests on the quality of Irish drinking water undertaken between 2000 – 2002 reveal 97.4% of public water schemes (91.9% of Irish households) were satisfactory and 95.5% of group schemes (8.1% of Irish households) were satisfactory. Group schemes mainly supply rural households. The EPA recently published a national overview of water quality Water Quality in Ireland 1998–2000 and for the first time since national monitoring began in 1971 an overall improvement in water quality was noted:

It is estimated that, in the 1998–2000 period, 70 per cent of the total river channel surveyed (13,200 kilometres) was in a satisfactory quality condition, 17 per cent was slightly polluted, 12 per cent was moderately polluted and 1 per cent seriously polluted. Data up to 2002 indicate a reduction in serious pollution in Irish rivers.

The position regarding lakes is better, with 85 per cent of those surveyed showing a satisfactory condition, but eutrophication is again reported in many of the larger lakes

The international environmental protection network Friends of the Earth has the following to say: 'Ireland has the highest number of European complaints per head of population on environmental issues; Ireland is the most car dependent country in the world, with carbon dioxide emissions increasing by 124% between 1990 and 2002; greenhouse gas emissions will exceed Kyoto limits by almost 40% in 2010; some 25 fish species are in decline and 18 native wild bird species are endangered; widespread illegal dumping; government subsidies for aviation are causing major

environmental damage; GM crops have failed to reduce pesticide use; two new peat stations planned will burn about 1,500 hectares of peatlands every year for the next 15 years; only 5.6% of household waste was diverted from landfill in 2001; per capita production of household waste increased by 17% between 1998 and 2001'.

The issue of waste management in Ireland continues to be controversial. The Government and Local Authorities have attempted to limit landfill through a combination of newly introduced domestic waste collection charges and recycling initiatives. A further controversy is generated by private sector proposals to incinerate waste, a move greatly resisted by the locals communities living around suggested sites.

2.4 Health and care

2.4.1 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).

Approximately twenty-six per cent of the population is without health coverage, relying instead on public health services. Those covered by private health insurance typically move through waiting lists faster than those without. The Quarterly National Household Survey, 2001, found just less than half of the sample to be covered by private health insurance. Four categories of entitlement to medical care exist in the Irish health system:

Entitlement to health services on basis of means test (Medical Card)

Approximately a quarter of the population are in category 1 and are entitled to a full range of services including general practitioner services, prescribed drugs and medicines, all in-patient public hospital services in public wards including consultants services, all out-patient public hospital services including consultants services, dental, ophthalmic and aural services and appliances and a maternity and infant care service. All persons aged 70 years and over are entitled to a Medical Card irrespective of income and covers the applicant only, and not dependents.

Entitlement to health services on basis of PRSI

The PRSI contribution, normally payable by employer and employee, is a percentage of the employee's reckonable earnings (i.e. gross pay less superannuation and Permanent Health Insurance contributions, deducted under a net pay arrangement by the employer, which are allowable for income tax purposes). The PRSI contribution is made up of Social Insurance and the Health Contribution, with the latter going to the Department of Health and Children to help fund the health services. In general, PRSI contribution classes are decided by the nature of the employment and the amount of the employee's gross reckonable earnings. Entitlements include optical and dental benefits in addition to Maternity Benefit, Invalidity Pension, Treatment Benefit and Occupational Injuries Benefit

Entitlement to health services regardless of income

Everyone is entitled to public in-patient and out-patient services regardless of income. There is universal entitlement to a bed in a public ward and consultation services and to out-patient services in a public hospital provided you opt for public health care. There may be certain charges for some groups of people using these services. Where the patient avails of private treatment then the full price for the services provided will have to be paid by the patient and/or a health insurance company.

Entitlement to private health care (Voluntary Health Insurance, BUPA)

The private health insurance market is provided for by two companies. The major function of the VHI is to provide insurance against treatment and maintenance costs in private and semi-private wards of public hospitals and in nursing homes and private hospitals. BUPA Ireland provides cover for semi-private or private accommodation in most hospitals. Almost half of the population hold private medical insurance.

[*For a further description of public and private health see Indicator 55]

A report by the ESRI in 2001, Perceptions of the Quality of the Health Care in the Public and Private Sectors in Ireland, examined the health status of the adult population:

Table 5.0 Distribution of total population by various factors

Total Population		100	15 (% with a health problem)
Economic Status	Full-Time Employed	47	8
	Part-Time Employed	8	12
	Unemployed	4	30
	Retired	9	31
	Training/Education Domestic Duties	10	2
		20	2
	Ill/Disabled	2	48
Education	Primary Education	32	26
	Junior Certificate	23	13
	Leaving Certificate	28	8
	Third Level Etc	17	6
Household Net Weekly Income	Under €254	23	31
	€254 to €424	29	14
	€425 to €570	25	8
	€570 and over	23	7
Social Group	S/e or Farmer	22	13
	Professional / Managerial	18	6
	Other Non-Manual	15	14
	Skilled Manual	24	14
	Unskilled Manual	20	26
Demographics	Male	49	14
	Female	51	16
	Under 30	31	4
	Age 30-49	33	12
	Age 50-64	21	24
	Age 65+	15	32

Source: Perceptions of the Quality of the Health Care in the Public and Private Sectors in Ireland, 2001, ESRI

The incidence of health problems is only slightly higher among females than males. However, health problems do increase dramatically with age. Those living in Dublin are more likely to have a health problem than the rest of the country. There is also a link between household income, with more in the lower quartiles experiencing more health problems than those in the higher earnings bracket.

2.4.2 Health services

11. Number of medical doctors per 10,000 inhabitants

Two sets of data may be examined, one at the EU level the table below shows below average coverage in Ireland:

Table 6.0 Number of practitioners per 10 000 inhabitants

	Ireland	EU15
1999	22.7	37.5
2000	25.0	-
2001	-	-

Source: Yearbook 2003, Eurostat

12. Average distance to hospital in minutes

The European Foundation for the Improvement of Working and Living Conditions provides data based on the Eurobarometer. The question was asked:

“If you had to go to the nearest hospital from home, how long would it take you? Less than 20 min, 20-25 min, on hour or more.”

This data was broken out into quartiles of household income:

Table 7.0 Distance from hospital, by income group

	Ireland	EU15
Lowest quartile	40.5	44.9
Highest quartile	48.7	60.4
Total	44.6	52.8

Source: ‘Health Care in an Enlarged Europe’, European Foundation for the Improvement of Working and Living Conditions

13. Average response time of medical ambulance

No data exists. There is no explicit right to an ambulance service. In general, people who do not have [medical cards](#) may be charged for the service. There are also a number of private ambulance services which must be paid for.

2.4.3 Care services

14. Number of hours spent on care per 10,000 citizens, differentiated by paid and unpaid

There is a strong tradition of informal care in Ireland. The Government provides social insurance Carers' Benefit for a period of 15 months to those who meet the contribution requirements. When data relating to unpaid care was first gathered by the Census of Population it revealed that women on average contribute significantly more hours than men (CSO 2002). In July 2002, 450 people were claiming this benefit, 96% of whom were female (Dept. of Social & Family Affairs, 2002). This figure however does not reflect the actual number of carers as availing of this benefit eliminates entitlement to other social welfare allowances and some may lack the required number of contributions.

There are no comprehensive registers of informal carers in Ireland. The CSO conducted a pilot study in 1999 which estimated that per week:

- 35,000 people provide more than 50 hours unpaid personal care
- 17,000 people provide unpaid personal care for 20-49 hours
- 79,000 provide unpaid personal care for 1-19 hours

2.5 Work

2.5.1 Employment security

15. Length of notice before employer can change terms and conditions of labour relations/contract

The Terms of Employment (Information) Act, 1994 states that an employer must provide employees with notice of changes to terms and conditions no later than one month before the change comes into effect. An employee can then decide whether they choose to accept these changes; in some cases employees may apply to be compensated for any changes to terms and conditions. This Act implements EU Council Directive 91/533/EEC on an employer's obligation to inform employees of the conditions applicable to the contract or employment relationship.

16. Length of notice before termination of labour contract

The Minimum Notice and Terms of Employment Acts 1973 – 2001 applies to all employees who have worked continuously for the same employer for 13 weeks. The notice requirements are based on length of service, namely:

- 13 weeks to 2 years, 1 week
- 2 years to 5 years, 2 weeks
- 5 years to 10 years, 4 weeks
- 10 years to 15 years, 6 weeks
- 15+ years, 8 weeks

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

The following data is taken from the Eurostat Labour Force Survey:

Table 8.0 Proportion of employees with a contract of limited duration

	Ireland All	Females	Males	EU-15	Females	Males
1999	9.4	12.1	7.1	13.2	14.2	12.4
2000	4.6	5.8	3.6	13.4	14.5	12.5
2001	3.7	4.5	n/a	13.4	14.5	n/a
2002	5.3	6.3	4.5	13.1	14.3	12.1

Source: Labour Force Surveys, Eurostat

Ireland falls below the EU-15 average for the proportion of its labour force employed on a fixed term basis. Legislation has recently been implemented requiring equal treatment for employees on a fixed term contract and those on a permanent contract. This Act implements the EU Directive on fixed term workers (Directive 1999/70/EC) and incorporates all aspects of the employment contract from compensation and benefits to training and development. There is no formal data gathered on fixed term employees in Ireland.

18. Proportion of workforce that is illegal

No data exists.

2.5.2 Working conditions

19. Number of employees that reduced working time because of interruption (parental Leave, medical assistance of relative palliative leave) as a proportion of the employees who are entitled to take these kinds of time reductions.

Data is not available in this form. Indicators 83 and 84 provide data on flexible working arrangements.

20. Number of accidents (fatal / non fatal) at work per 100,000 employed persons

The data was assembled using the number in receipt of occupational injury benefit:

Table 9.0 Breakdown of fatal/non-fatal accidents per 100,000 employed persons

	Fatal	Non Fatal
1999	3.5	960
2000	3.5	970
2001	3	920

Source: Health and Safety Authority, Ireland

This measure is viewed as the best available trend indicator as not all injuries are reported to the Health and Safety Authority. The number of claims paid is likely to be less than the actual number of work-related injuries since not all workers are covered by social insurance. For claims to be allowed the absence must last at least 4 days and applicants must apply with a medical certificate within 21

days of becoming injured. The most common non-fatal incident types reported to the Authority for all sectors were injuries involving handling, lifting and carrying (34%) and slips, trips and falls on the level (26%). These categories alone accounted for 60% of all reported injuries.

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

The table below shows the Irish working week becoming shorter than the EU-15 average:

Table 10.0 Number of hours worked per week of full-time employment

	Ireland	EU-15
1999	42.1	41.9
2000	41.9	41.7
2001	41.5	41.6

Source: People In The Labour Market, Eurostat

2.6 Education

2.6.1 Security of education

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

Data for Ireland first appeared in 2002. The table below offers a comparison between Ireland and the EU-15 average for 2002-2003:

Table 11.0 Early school leavers as % of population aged 18-24

	Ireland	EU-15
2002	14.7	18.5
2003	12.1	18.0

Source: SC053 IV.5.1, Eurostat

The second table below breaks down the level of attainment for 1996-1999:

Table 11.1 Qualification levels of school leavers, 1996-1999 (%)

	No Qualifications	Junior Certificate	Leaving Certificate
1996	4.0	15.2	80.8
1997	3.7	16.3	80.0
1998	3.5	15.5	81.0
1999	3.2	15.3	81.6

Source: McCoy, S. and Williams, J. (2000) Annual School Leavers' Survey of 1997/1999, ESRI

Educational disadvantage is closely linked to poverty (Smyth & Hannon, 2000). Early school leaving amongst the Traveller community⁵ is profoundly high (see Indicator 58). In data collated by Eurostat Ireland falls below the EU-15 average. The incidence of males leaving without qualification is significantly higher than females; within the data for 2002 female early school leavers rate at 10.8% compared to males at 18.5%. It is to be noted that this data is for 'early school leavers' with lower secondary education; the compulsory level of schooling in Ireland extends only to the lower reaches of the secondary system and therefore the Eurostat data does not fully reflect the Irish position.

23. Study fees as a proportion of national mean net wage

This data does not exist.

2.6.2 Quality of education

24. Proportion of students who, within a year of leaving school with or without a certificate are able to find employment.

Unemployment rates amongst early school leavers have fallen in a buoyant economy as employers become more willing to train and skill those without formal qualifications. The data below is from a study of Irish graduates:

Table 12.0 Percentage number of graduates securing employment within a year, 1998

Without certificate	56.5
Junior Certificate	79.6
Leaving Certificate	91.6

Source: Gash V. and O'Connell P. (2000) The Irish Graduate Labour Market: A six year follow-up survey of third level graduates from 1992, ESRI

⁵ The Traveller community is an indigenous nomadic group in Ireland who currently are seeking the granting of 'ethnic group' status at the EU level (see Indicators 50, 51, 57, 58)

3 Social Cohesion

3.1 Introduction

Analysis of this conditional factor shows Ireland to be characterised by good social cohesiveness, reflected in high levels of trust and the importance of social and familial networks and in the delivery of informal care. However, as more people enter the labour market on a full time basis they are less capable of providing informal care and contributing to social development. Increased pressure is placed on weak spots in the Irish system, e.g. in health, education, child-care and transport. Rising house prices weaken the strength of local networks as many can not afford to purchase houses close to the parental home, thus inhibiting the ability for families to provide informal care and support to family members. Increased commuting distances inhibit local cohesiveness as individuals have less time to develop relationships with neighbours.

3.2 Trust

3.2.1 Generalised trust

25. Extent to which most people can be trusted

The European Values Survey (EVS), 1999/2000, asked respondents a question on trust, providing a choice of two responses – ‘most people can be trusted’ and ‘cannot be too careful’. The table below presents the results for those who expressed trust:

Table 13.0 Extent to which people can be trusted

%	Ireland	EU-15
Most people can be trusted	35.2	37.0

Source: EVS 1999/2000, Q. 8

3.2.2 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.

While Irish respondents record higher levels of institutional trust than their EU-15 counterparts as a whole it is important to acknowledge decreasing levels of institutional trust in Ireland over time. In the past Irish ‘social institutions have been highly authoritarian’ and while it can be argued that ‘most remain substantially so today’ (Schmitt, 1973) a series of scandals involving the institutions of Church and State have led to reduced trust and loyalty. Data is presented from two sources, the Eurobarometer (EB) and the European Values Survey (EVS). The EVS, 1999/2000 asked respondents to indicate their level of trust in various institutions, providing a choice between four responses – ‘a great deal’, ‘quite a lot’, ‘not very much’ and ‘none at all’.

The table below presents combined positive and combined negative responses to the question of trust in the 'Parliament':

Table 14.0 Trust in parliament

	Ireland	EU-15
'A great deal' and 'quite a lot'	31.1	42.8
'Not very much' and 'none at all'	68.8	57.3

Source: EVS 1999/2000 Q. 57/8

In the EB 56, 2001 report Irish respondents as a whole record a seventy-eight per cent trust rate in the Armed Forces, eight points than higher compared to EU respondents as a whole. Such high levels of trust contrast with the results of the EVS, 1999/2000. The table below presents combined positive and combined negatives responses to the question of trust in the armed forces:

Table 14.1 Trust in the armed forces

	Ireland	EU-15
'A great deal' and 'quite a lot'	58.8	57.4
'Not very much' and 'none at all'	41.1	42.6

Source: EVS 1999/2000 Q. 57/8

A question on trust in the legal system caused nearly half of the Irish respondents to answer in the negative, presenting a similar picture when compared to EU respondents as a whole:

Table 14.2 Trust in the legal system

	Ireland	EU-15
'A great deal' and 'quite a lot'	54.5	52.3
'Not very much' and 'none at all'	45.5	47.7

Source: EVS 1999/2000 Q. 57/8

Irish respondents indicated a low level of trust in the media; the table below presents combined positive and combined negative responses:

Table 14.3 Trust in the media

	Ireland	EU-15
'A great deal' and 'quite a lot'	34.8	37.6
'Not very much' and 'none at all'	65.3	62.5

Source: EVS 1999/2000 Q. 57/8

On the same question of trust in the media, the EB 56, 2001 report paints a more nuanced picture: Irish respondents indicate high levels of trust for radio (77%) and television (76%), fifteen points and fourteen points respectively above that of EU respondents as a whole; Irish respondents registered a more modest level of trust of the press (52%), six points above their EU counterparts.

When the question was asked of the trade unions Irish respondents to the EVS, 1999/2000 indicated more distrust than not, as can be seen from the table below:

Table 14.4 Trust in trade unions

	Ireland	EU-15
'A great deal' and 'quite a lot'	46.3	39.0
'Not very much' and 'none at all'	53.6	60.9

Source: EVS 1999/2000 Q. 57/8

In the EB 56, 2001 report An Garda Síochána scored a trust rate of seventy per cent; in the EVS Irish respondents indicated even higher levels of trust in their policing service. The table below presents combined figures:

Table 14.5 Trust in the police

	Ireland	EU-15
'A great deal' and 'quite a lot'	83.6	69.1
'Not very much' and 'none at all'	16.4	31.6

Source: EVS 1999/2000 Q. 57/8

In respect of religious institutions Irish respondents reflected the changing fortunes of the established churches. The table below sets out the combined responses:

Table 14.6 Trust in The Church

	Ireland	EU-15
'A great deal' and 'quite a lot'	52.2	50.7
'Not very much' and 'none at all'	47.8	49.3

Source: EVS 1999/2000 Q. 57/8 D

When asked of the civil service Irish respondents to the EVS, 1999/2000 indicated higher levels of trust when compared to EU respondents as a whole, as can be seen from the table below:

Table 14.7 Trust in the Civil Service

	Ireland	EU-15
'A great deal' and 'quite a lot'	59.3	45.0
'Not very much' and 'none at all'	40.7	55.0

Source: EVS 1999/2000 Q. 57/8

The EB 56 indicates that trust in the civil service is at its highest in Austria (65%), followed by Ireland (61%).

Finally, while the EB 56 report addresses the question of trust in major companies, data is not presented for Ireland.

Table 14.8 Irish trust in several institutions

Trust in	Below Average	Approximately Average	Above Average
Elected Representatives	√		
Armed Forces			√
Legal System		√	
Media			√
Trade Unions			√
Police			√
Religious		√	
Civil Service			√
Major Companies	No data		

Source: Eurobarometer 56

27. Number of cases being referred to European Court of Law [taken to mean both the European Court of Human Rights and the European Courts of Justice and First Instance].

While the number of files emanating from Ireland and opened during 1999-2001 is as high as 154, the number of applications declared admissible numbered 6 and there were 3 judgements for that same period (ECHR, 1999-2003).

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

The importance of personal contacts and family ties in Irish society is evidenced in the results of the EVS, 1999/2000. Respondents were asked to rate the importance of 'family', 'friends and acquaintances', and 'leisure time', with a choice between four response being provided.

Table 15.0 Importance of family

	Ireland	EU-15
'Very' and 'quite'	98.9	1.1
'Not' and 'none at all'	97.9	2.1

Source: EVS 1999/2000 Q. 1B

Table 15.1 Importance of friends and acquaintances

	Ireland	EU-15
'Very' and 'quite'	97.3	92.8
'Not' and 'none at all'	2.7	7.2

Source: EVS 1999/2000 Q. 1C

Table 15.2 Importance of leisure time

	Ireland	EU-15
'Very' and 'quite'	86.9	86.8
'Not' and 'none at all'	13.1	13.2

Source: EVS 1999/2000 Q. 1D

The EVS, 1999/2000 invited respondents to rate the importance of 'politics':

Table 15.3 Importance of politics

	Ireland	EU-15
'Very' and 'quite'	32.1	36.4
'Not' and 'none at all'	67.9	64.2

Source: EVS 1999/2000 Q. 1E

The EVS, 1999/2000 asked two questions on parents and children. The first question, pertaining to parental respect, is set out below, as are the responses:

"Which of the two statements do you tend to agree with?"

A) Regardless of what the qualities and faults are of ones parents, one must always love and respect them

B) One does not have the duty to respect and love ones parents who have not earned it by their behaviour and attitudes'

Table 15.4 Parental respect

	Ireland	EU-15
A	70.9	64.3
B	29.1	35.7

Source: EVS 1999/2000 Q. 47

The second question asked pertained to parent's duty to their children, with three a choice between three responses:

"Which of the following statements best describes your views about parents' responsibilities to their children?"

A) Parents' duty is to do their best for their children even at the expense of their own well-being

B) Parents have a life of their own and should not be asked to sacrifice their own well-being for the sake of their children

C) Neither'

Table 15.5 Parent's duty to children

	Ireland	EU-15
A	76.3	71.5
B	12.6	18.7
C	11.2	10.0

Source: EVS 1999/2000 Q. 48

Ireland places higher than average importance of friends, leisure time, and the family. The importance of politics is less than the average when compared to EU-15 respondents as a whole.

Table 15.6 Importance of family, friends, leisure time and politics

	Below Average	Approximately Average	Above Average
Family		√	
Friends			√
Leisure Time		√	
Politics	√		

Source: European Values Survey, 1999/2000

3.3 Other integrative norms and values

3.3.1 Altruism

29. Volunteering: number of hours per week

The EVS, 1999/2000 asked the question, 'How often do you spend time in clubs and voluntary associations', with a choice of four responses:

Table 16.0 Time spent in voluntary clubs and associations

	Ireland	EU-15
Every week	29.4	23.9
Once, twice a month	20.2	17.3
Few times a year	15.7	15.0
Not at all	34.7	43.8

Source: EVS 1999/2000, Q. 6 D

The most popular areas of interest for Irish volunteers are sports and recreational, church organisations, and youth work. The history of voluntary activity in Ireland has been influenced both by a lack of resources available to the Irish State in its early years and the pre-eminence of the Catholic principle of subsidiarity. The role of trade unions in Ireland in the development of social service provision has been limited compared to other European countries (Curry 2003: 10).

30. Blood donation

The EB 58.2 report provides data for the percentage of respondents who have donated blood in the previous year; 32% of Irish respondents indicated they had donated blood, compared with 31% of EU respondents as a whole. The Irish Blood Transfusions Boards has provided the following breakdown of Irish donors by gender and age:

Table 17.0 Breakdown of Irish blood donors by gender and age, 2001

Male	Female	18-24	25-34	35-40	41-50	50+
56	43	14	25	18	26	14

Source: Irish Blood Transfusions Board, 2001

3.3.2 Tolerance

31. Views on immigration, pluralism and multiculturalism

Large scale immigration is a new experience for Irish people, having been forced to emigrate themselves in large numbers due to poor economic conditions and political upheaval. The Traveller community is a small but indigenous ethnic minority while Chinese and other immigrants have been coming to Ireland for several decades. Sectarianism is a particular issue in the north of the island with policy implications for the whole of Ireland in light of the developing Irish Peace Process and Good Friday Agreement, 1994, envisaging as they do a new and positive relationship between all of the peoples of the island.

The issues of immigration and asylum-seeking figure largely in media and social policy debate. The EVS, 1999/2000 asked the following question of respondents, providing a choice between five responses:

Question asked, "How about people from less developed countries coming here to work. Which one of the following do you think the government should do?" [see response options in table below]

Table 18.0 Views on immigration from less developed countries

	Ireland	EU-15
Anyone who wants to come	8.3	8.3
Come when jobs available	46.7	42.1
Strict limits on the number of foreigners	42.1	44.0
Prohibit people coming here	2.9	5.6

Source: EVS 1999/2000, Q. 74

The EVS, 1999/2000 also asked a question on integration and interculturalism:

Question asked, 'Which of these statements is the nearest to your opinion?

A) For the greater good of society it is better if immigrants maintain their distinct customs and traditions

B) For the greater good of society it is better if immigrants do not maintain their distinct customs and traditions but take over the customs of the country"

Table 18.1 Views on interculturalism

	Ireland	EU-15
A	56.7	41.7
B	43.3	58.8

Source: EVS 1999/2000, Q. 75

The Eurobarometer opinion poll, 'Towards Minority Groups in Europe', asked respondents a series of questions on minority groups and a multicultural society (Thalhammer, 2000). The question asked regarding minorities provided respondents with a choice between five options, as set out in the table below:

Table 18.2 Attitudes towards minority groups

	Ireland	EU-15
Intolerant	13	14
Ambivalent	21	25
Passively tolerant	50	39
Actively tolerant	15	21

Source: Towards Minority Groups in Europe, EB, 2000 (Thalhammer et al)

The question asked regarding a multi-racial/religious/cultural society is as follows - 'It is a good thing for any society to be made up of people from different races, religions and cultures'. Respondents were asked to choose between three options – 'tend to agree', 'tend to disagree' and 'don't know' – and the imputed responses are set out in the table below:

Table 18.3 Attitudes towards a multicultural society

	Ireland	EU-15
Tend to agree	71	70
Tend to disagree	29	30

Source: Towards Minority Groups in Europe, EB, 2000 (Thalhammer et al)

On the issues of diversity as strength, respondents were asked the following question - 'A country's diversity in terms of race, religion and culture adds to its strength'. Respondents were provided with the same three responses as above and the imputed values are presented below:

Table 18.4 Diversity strengthens a society

	Ireland	EU-15
Tend to agree	60	56
Tend to disagree	40	44

Source: Towards Minority Groups in Europe, EB, 2000 (Thalhammer et al)

The data presented above would indicate that Ireland's views on immigration are about average and the country is relatively welcoming and tolerant of other cultures. Immigration into Ireland has increased substantially since this data was gathered; anecdotal evidence and media coverage does suggest that racism and intolerance are rising. The Irish Government held a referendum in 2004 requesting voters to deny citizenship to children born in Ireland where the parents are not Irish citizens. The passing of the referendum by a large majority, approximately 80%, is taken by some to be a strong indicator that Irish citizens wish to restrict immigration. More recently, the Irish Government has embarked on a policy of deportations for failed asylum seekers, in line with their EU counterparts.

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

The EVS, 1999/2000 asked a question of respondents in which a list of disparate groups were presented, as follows:

'On this list are various groups of people. Could you please sort out any that you would not like to have as neighbours?'⁶

- Criminal record; Different race; Left-wing extremists; Heavy drinker; Large families; Right-wing extremists; Muslims; Emotionally unstable people; Immigrants and foreign workers; Drug addicts; Homosexuals; Jews; Gypsies; and, People who have AIDS

The table below sets out the responses for selected groups considered to be covered by the broad brush of 'self-identity, beliefs, behaviour and lifestyle':

Table 19.0 Who you would NOT like as your neighbour

	Ireland	EU-15
Different race	12.1	9.9
Left wing extremists	33.5	30.3
Heavy drinker	36.3	44.3
Right wing extremists	32.3	39.7
Muslim	13.6	15.2
Drug addicts	66.1	59.0
Homosexuals	26.9	20.7
Jews	10.9	9.1
Gypsies	24.8	33.6

Source: EVS 1999/2000, Q. 7

The results for this question are curious: Irish respondents, when compared to EU respondents as a whole, display above average tolerance for drug addicts (+7.1) but not so for heavy drinkers (-8.0); both rightwing extremism (+7.4) and left-wing extremism (+3.2) are tolerated above the EU-15 average; there is a greater expressed tolerance for Jews (+1.8) as opposed to Muslims (-1.6); tolerance for homosexuals (+6.2) is above average, whereas gypsies (-8.8) is notably below.

3.3.3 Social contract

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

To address the question of beliefs on the causes of poverty data from two sources is examined. The EVS 1999/2000 asked respondents a question in two parts:

'Why are there people in this country who live in need? Here are four possible reasons. Which one do you consider to be the most important?

'And which reason do you consider to be the second most important?'

⁶ Groups not considered from EVS, 'Criminal record', 'Large families', 'Emotionally unstable people', 'Immigrants and foreign workers', 'People who have AIDS'

Response to both parts are amalgamated in the table below, and the four possible reasons suggested are grouped under the headings of individual and structural. The table also reports the results of the EB 56.1 report, 'Poverty and Social Devaluation'; the question asked respondents to consider 'perceived causes of poverty', choosing from four options.

Table 20.0 Beliefs on the causes of poverty

	Ireland		EU-15	
	EVS	EB	EVS	EB
Individual				
Unlucky	24.2	22.8	21.4	17.5
Laziness/lack of willpower	20.1	17.9	21.1	17.6
Structural				
Injustice of society	27.8	22.9	28.9	31.4
Part modern progress/inevitability	24.2	19.7	24.1	21.9
None of these	3.8	8.4	4.8	5.8

Source: EVS 1999/2000, Q. 11

Data from the Eurobarometer, Poverty and Social Devaluation in Europe (EB 2001), indicates that the understanding of laziness as an explanation for poverty has changed over time in Ireland. With the economic success from the 1990s on the laziness explanation has gained in favour and the unfairness explanation has reduced. This would seem to suggest that Irish people believe that everyone has had a fair chance to benefit from the recent boom. The preferences expressed by Irish respondents are broadly in line with those of EU respondents as a whole.

34. Willingness to pay more taxes if you were sure that it would improve the situation of the poor.

The Eurobarometer asked whether people would be prepared to pay more taxes if they were certain it would be used to improve the situation of the poor. The data is presented in a report for the European Commission entitled 'Social Precarity and Social Integration' (EEIG 2002). For the whole population just over 50% of Irish people indicated solidaristic attitudes. When the question was asked of the lowest incomes (low first quartile) just over 40% indicated positively.

35. Intergenerational: willingness to pay 1% more taxes if you were sure that it would improve the situation of elderly people in your country.

Eurobarometer 56.1, 2001----- asked whether people feel current pension levels should be maintained, even if it means raising tax or contributions. The data is presented in The Future of Pension Systems (EEIG 2001); Ireland (75%) scored above the EU-15 average (68%).

Within the EVS 1999/2000 no specific data exists on tax policies. However, attitudes towards the elderly are measured by the question below:

'To what extent do you feel concerned about the living conditions of elderly people in your country?'

Table 21.0 Concern for the living conditions of the elderly

	Ireland	EU-15
Very much & Much	40.3	31.8
To a certain extent	15.6	28.0
Not so much	3.1	6.7
Not at all	0.8	1.8

Source: EVS, 1999/2000, Q. 80A

A further question was asked - 'Would you be prepared to actually do something to improve the conditions of elderly people in your country?'

Table 21.1 Prepared to do something to improve living conditions of the elderly

	Ireland	EU-15
Absolutely	29.0	14.5
Yes	51.5	46.1
Maybe Yes/No	17.6	28.9
No	1.7	7.8
Absolutely no	0.2	2.6

Source: EVS, 1999/2000, Q. 81C

The results indicate Irish people generally perceive the elderly population to be worse off compared to EU respondents as a whole. Irish respondents similarly are more prepared to do something to help improve living conditions; approximately 75% would be willing to increase their financial contributions towards the maintenance of pensions via taxes or direct contributions.

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 forms (fax, municipal, etc).

The EVS 1999/2000 asked respondents, "...are you prepared to actually do something to improve the conditions of people in your neighbourhood/community?" the response are set out below:

Table 22.0 Prepared to do something to improve living conditions in your neighbourhood/community

	Ireland	EU-15
Absolutely	20.5	10.3
Yes	51.9	39.9
Maybe Yes/No	24.1	36.1
No	3.4	10.4
Absolutely no	0.5	3.3

Source: EVS, 1999/2000, Q. 81B

A further questions asks “are you prepared to actually do something to improve the conditions of sick and disabled people in your country?”, to which the response are set out below:

Table 22.1 Prepared to do something to improve living conditions of disabled people living in your country

	Ireland	EU-15
Absolutely	31.5	17.2
Yes	50.0	46.3
Maybe Yes/No	16.4	26.5
No	1.9	7.2
Absolutely no	0.3	2.8

Source: EVS, 1999/2000, Q. 81E

Data in both of the above tables suggests Irish respondents are more prepared than EU respondents as a whole to do something to improve the living conditions of vulnerable groups and their neighbours.

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?

No data available.

3.4 Social networks

3.4.1 Networks

38. Membership (active or inactive) of political, voluntary, charitable organizations or sports clubs.

The EVS 1999/2000 asked respondents to indicate from a supplied list, “Which if any do you belong to?” The responses are set out below:

Table 23.0 Membership of associations and voluntary organizations

	Ireland	EU-15
Elderly, handicapped or deprived people	5.9	8.8
Religious/church org.s	16.2	19.3
Education, arts, music, cultural activities	10.1	14.2
Trade unions	10.1	17.2
Political parties/groups	4.4	5.2
Local community issues (poverty, employment, housing, racial equality)	5.6	3.9
Third world development/ human rights	2.4	5.7
Conservation (environment, ecology, animal rights)	2.8	7.9
Professional associations	7.7	6.9
Youth work (scouts, guides, youth clubs, etc)	7.1	5.0
Sports/recreation	27.6	21.5
Women's groups	2.6	3.2
Peace movements	1.7	1.2
Voluntary organisations concerned with health	4.1	5.0
Other groups	5.4	8.1

Source: EVS, 1999/2000, Q. 5 A –O

The data suggests Irish people less likely to become a member of an organisation than is average for the EU-15 as a whole. However, voluntarism in Ireland often takes place informally; the most popular groups are sporting, youth services, and local community and Church-based issues.

39. Support received from family and friends.

At the EU level data is gathered by the European Community Household Panel (ECHP). Nationally, data has been gathered by the Census of Population, 2002. The data from the census pertains to the population 15 years and over, classified by gender:

Table 24.0 Care-giving in Ireland, 2002

	Male	Female
% Total Population	49.3	50.7
% Carers of Total Population	3.8	5.8
% Breakdown of Total Carers	1.9	3.0
% Providing 1-14 Hours Care a week	41.2	58.8
% Providing 15-28 Hours Care a week	38.0	62.0
% Providing 1-14 Hours Care a week	39.5	60.5
% Providing 43 or more Hours Care a week	33.3	66.7

Source: Census of Population, 2002, CSO

The table below presents data from the ECHP – ‘looking after children’ and ‘people other than children’ without pay:

Table 24.0 Unpaid care provided by the adult population (16yrs+), 2002

	Ireland	EU-15
Children		
Male	17	2
Female	36	6
People other than children ⁷		
Male	9	5
Female	31	6

Source: ECHP, 2002, Eurostat [user’s database version]

The following data is also from the ECHP, 2002, but relates to the balance between caring and other work:

Table 24.1 % of population whose daily care duties for children or adults prevent them undertaking the amount of paid work they would otherwise do, 2002

	Ireland	EU-15
Male	6	4
Female	42	27

Source: ECHP, 2002, Eurostat [user’s database version]

40. Frequency of contacts with friend and colleagues.

The EVS presents data from the question, ‘How often do you do certain things’, under two headings:

Table 25.0 Frequency of time spent with family and friends

	Ireland	EU-15
Spend time with friends		
Every week	72.1	62.5
Once, twice a month	21.1	25.3
Few times a year	5.3	9.7
Not at all	1.6	2.5
Spend time with colleagues		
Every week	25.0	18.5
Once, twice a month	27.5	23.9
Few times a year	20.4	27.9
Not at all	27.0	29.7

Source: EVS, 1999/2000, Q. 6 A, B

The data suggests that Irish people tend to spend time with family and friends more often than the EU-15 average, consistent with the importance placed on close social networks (see Indicator 28).

⁷ Providing care to sick, disabled or frail adults.

3.5 Identity

3.5.1 National/European identity

41. Sense of national pride.

Eurobarometer surveys have asked about national pride, the data from which is presented in the table below:

Table 26.0 National pride, 1999-2001

	Ireland		EU-15	
	Very & Fairly proud	Not very & Not at all	Very & Fairly proud	Not very & Not at all
Oct-Nov 1999	96	2	83	13
April- May 2000	98	2	83	12
Nov-Dec 2000	97	2	83	14
Oct-Nov 2001	97	2	84	12

Source: EB 52, 53, 54, 56

The EVS, 1999/2000 asks, 'How proud are you to be an Irish citizen?', with four response categories:

Table 26.1 National pride, 1999/2000

	Ireland	EU-15
Very Proud	71.8	45.7
Quite Proud	26.2	42.0
Not Very Proud	1.7	9.5
Not At All Proud	0.3	2.8

Source: EVS, 1999/2000, Q. 71

The data from both sources suggests a strong sense of national pride amongst Irish people, significantly above the EU-15 average.

42. Identification with national and European symbols.

The Eurobarometer has asked respondents about their knowledge of the EU flag; the table below sets out the responses to this question:

Table 27.0 Knowledge of the EU flag, 2002

	Ireland	EU-15
Have seen it	86	89
Know that the symbol is related to the EU	82	76
Identify with this flag	61	44

Source: EB 58.1, 2002

The data suggests high levels of visibility and knowledge of the flag amongst Irish. That high level reduces when respondents are asked whether they identify with the EU flag but again Ireland scores well for this question.

3.5.2 Regional/Community/Local identity

43. Sense of regional / community / local identity

Data is provided by two sources, the EVS 1999/2000 and the EB 54 report. The table below suggests that in Ireland identification with the local is strong.

Table 28.0 Attachment to country, town/village, and region, 2000

	Ireland	EU 15
Country	-	89
Town / village	90	85
Region	91	83

Source: EB 54, Release April 2001, Fieldwork Nov- Dec. 2000

On the question of belonging, the EVS 1999/2000 asked respondents - 'Which of these geographical groups would you say you belong to first of all?'

Table 28.1 Sense of belonging, 1999/2000

	Ireland	EU 15
Locality or town	56.6	47.5
Region of country	15.8	15.9
Country as a whole	24.0	26.8

Source: EVS 1999/2000. Q. 67

3.5.3 Interpersonal identity

44 Sense of belonging to family and kinship network

The data in the first two tables below suggests Irish people place a higher importance on social networks than Europeans as a whole. Combined positive and negative responses are set out below:

Table 29.0 Importance of Family, 1999/2000

	Ireland	EU 15
Very & Quite	98.9	1.1
Not & Not at all	97.6	2.4

Source: EVS 1999/2000, Q. 1B

The same approach is taken with questions asking about the ‘importance of friends and acquaintances’ and ‘regular contact’ with same:

Table 29.1 Importance of Friends & Acquaintances, 1999/2000

	Ireland	EU 15
Very & Quite	97.3	2.7
Not & Not at all	88.3	11.7

Source: EVS 1999/2000, Q. 1C

Table 29.2 Regularity of contact with friends and acquaintances

	Ireland	EU 15
Every week	72.1	53.7
Once/twice a month	21.1	27.5
Few times a year	5.3	14.3
Not at all	1.6	4.6

Source: EVS 1999/2000, Q 6A

A further question in the EVS 1999/2000 addresses regularity of contact with clubs and associations:

Table 29.3 Regularity of contact Clubs and Associations,

	Ireland	EU 15
Every week	29.4	18.3
Once/twice a month	20.2	14.8
Few times a year	15.7	14.9
Not at all	34.7	52.0

Source: EVS 1999/2000, Q 6D

4 Social Inclusion

4.1 Introduction

Analysing this conditional factor provides further evidence of inequity. The indicators capture worrying levels of discrimination towards the Irish Traveller Community and some immigrants, high poverty levels amongst the elderly, the under representation of women in business and politics, and a significant gender pay gap. A high importance is placed on family, friends and informal social networks but the formal institutional mechanisms which impact on inclusion are not protecting those groups most at risk of exclusion. Ireland has recently undergone significant economic development, leading to a widening gap between rich and poor.

4.2 Citizenship rights

4.2.1 Constitutional/ political rights

45. Proportion of residents with citizenship

The table below provides data on the percentage of the Irish population who are non-nationals, inferring a high rate of citizenship – over 95% up to and including 2001:

Table 29.0 Non-nationals as a % of total population

	Ireland	EU-15
Total 1990	2.3	4.1
Total 2001	4.1	5.4
Other EU nationals, 2001	2.7	1.6
Non-EU nationals, 2001	1.4	3.8

Source: Living Conditions in Ireland in Europe, 1998-2002, Eurostat

Migration into Ireland has increased considerably in the past decade, coinciding with a period of strong economic growth. This has contributed to an almost eighty per cent increase between 1990 and 2001, in the proportion of non-nationals living in the country. The proportion of non-nationals living in Ireland continues to be below average for the EU-15 as a whole, although the gap is closing.

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

All residents over the age of eighteen are entitled to vote in local elections, once registered. The only group denied the right by law is the prison population. The average number of persons in custody for 2001 was 3,112; the rate of imprisonment per 100,000 of population is 86. The numbers exercising their right to vote in local elections has been in decline in Ireland, up to the most recent poll.

An increased turnout in 2004 has been attributed to a constitutional referendum on citizenship rights, the Local Elections and the EU Parliament elections all being held on the same day.

- Voter Turnout 1999 – 51.0%
- Voter Turnout 2004 – 59.6%

4.2.2 Social rights

47. Proportion with right to a public pension (i.e. a pension organised or regulated by the government)

Pension entitlement is not universal and payments are linked to either contribution history or a means test. The CSO Annual Household Budget Survey, 1999-2000 revealed that over 38% of pensioners now reside in households in the bottom two income deciles, compared with 30% five years earlier. For a description of the schemes that operate see Indicator 2, Employment to Retirement.

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

Several competing studies exist, with some variation in methodology:

In the Eurostat (Winqvist) study the Gender Pay Gap is given as the difference between the average gross hourly earnings of male paid employees and of female paid employees as a percentage of average gross hourly earnings of male paid employees. The population consists of all paid employees aged 16-64 years that are 'at work 15+ hours a week'.

Table 30.0 Gender Pay Gap

	Ireland	EU-15
1999	22	15
2000	19	16
2001	17	16

Source: Eurostat (Winqvist)

According to the OECD the median female full-time hourly wages in Ireland are nineteen per cent below those of males (OECD 2002c). The standard way of measuring the gender wage gap is to use the percentage ratio of female to male earnings, and the closer this ratio is to one hundred per cent the smaller the gender wage gap.

The Irish Central Statistics Office estimates the gap to be at fifteen per cent (2001).

As with other EU countries, Ireland has not managed to significantly impact on the gender pay gap. The study by Winqvist shows Ireland recording a much wider pay gap than the EU-15 average up to the year 2000; the data for 2001, however, shows that gap itself to be reducing.

4.2.3 Civil rights

49. Proportion with right to free legal advice

The provisions for legal aid take account of civil and criminal cases, as follows:

Civil Legal Aid and Advice

Legal aid and/or legal advice are granted to those who pass both a means test and merits test (SI 273/1996 Civil Legal Aid Regulations 1996, SI 8/2002 Civil Legal Aid Regulations 2002). Some contribution must be made to the overall costs of the proceedings. The merits test ensures that the case is a legitimate one and that a reasonable person would take the case and would be advised to take the case. The Legal Aid Board means test estimates the applicant's disposable income.

The Board operates a dedicated service known as the Refugee Legal Service (RLS) to provide legal advice and assistance to asylum seekers at all stages of the asylum process. Legal aid is available to non citizens under a Council of Europe resolution of 1976 on granting legal aid to citizens of other Council of Europe member states who are habitually resident and to help those trying to enforce various international conventions concerning the custody of children. Anyone needing legal aid to invoke these conventions is exempted from the normal means and merits tests.

Criminal Legal Aid

Almost all criminal cases commence in the District Court and usually an application will be made at that stage to the District Judge for legal aid. Legal aid will be granted if means are not enough to enable the applicant to obtain legal aid from their own resources and/or the serious nature of the offence or exceptional circumstances make it essential in the interests of justice that the applicant should have legal aid in the preparation and conduct of their defense and any appeal against conviction.

Some matters that are not eligible may be covered under a special scheme known as the Attorney General's Scheme. Criminal cases that will not be granted legal aid include:

Matters that are not considered by the District Judge to be sufficiently serious

Extradition proceedings

Most Judicial Review proceedings

Unless the charge is murder or the case is of exceptional difficulty, a legal aid certificate will not cover the fees of a barrister either at the District Court stage or at the appeal stage of a case. If the case is one that is to be heard by a judge and jury (i.e., trial on indictment), the legal aid will cover the cost of solicitor and barrister.

The distribution of legal aid centres is uneven and part-time centres may only be open one or two days a month. If you could get the help you need from some other source without undue hardship to

yourself or your dependants, the service may be refused, however no specific means test exists. It is under great strain and there can be long delays. However, urgent cases are given priority

The Refugee Legal Service has increased its caseload dramatically from 1999 to 2001 – a 111% increase 2000 and a 32% in 2001 on the previous years.

50. Proportion experiencing discrimination

Several studies and sources of information exist in this area are detailed below:

Amnesty International conducted research examining the opinions of black and ethnic minorities within Ireland. The first table below records high levels of discrimination in all categories:

Table 31.0 Have you ever experienced racism or discrimination?

	% Answering Yes
Irish Traveller	78.6
Black Irish	88.6
European	80.7
Black African	81.8
North African	72.7
South Asian	52.9
SE Asian	79.3
Others	61.5

Source: Racism in Ireland, 2001, Amnesty International

The Irish Equality Authority was established in 1998 to deal with discrimination complaints, on nine grounds (age, disability, gender, family status, marital status, race, religion, sexual orientation, and membership of the Traveller Community), and in the areas of employment and equal status (Employment Equality Act, 1998, Equal Status Act, 2000). The Authority provides representation in cases deemed suitable. The table below offers data on the total number of cases dealt with across the nine grounds:

Table 31.4 Cases of alleged discrimination upheld by the Equality Authority

	Employment		Status		Total as a %	
	2001	2003	2001	2003	2001	2003
Age	35	50	57	70	9.9	8.87
Disability	49	90	45	138	10.2	16.85
Gender	104	164	29	55	17.96	16.18
Family Status	2	7	12	17	1.3	1.77
Marital Status	5	6	4	13	0.925	1.4
Race	58	166	33	80	9	18.18
Religion	4	4	5	15	1	1.4
Sexual Orientation	15	14	18	25	3.7	2.88
Traveller Community	6	9	435	327	41.75	24.8
Mixed (New Category 2001)	22	51	23	52	4.16	7.61

Source: Equality Authority Annual Report, 2001, 2003

The Equality Tribunal was set up in 1998 to investigate and mediate complaints of unlawful discrimination on any of the nine grounds. The jurisdiction of the Tribunal has been recently changed to exclude premises licensed to sell alcohol; jurisdiction has been granted to the District Court. Cases against such premises had largely been taken by members of the Traveller community and mainly associated with refusal of service.

The Eurobarometer measures discrimination on five grounds:

Table 34.5 Percentage reporting experiences of discrimination

	Ireland	EU 15
Racial/ethnic origin	1	3
Religion/beliefs	1	2
Disability	-	2
Age	-	5
Sexual Orientation	-	1

Source: EB 57.0, Discrimination in Europe

A number of reports have highlighted the marginalised living conditions of sections of the Traveller Community in Ireland. The report of The Irish National Coordinating Committee for the European Year Against Racism summarised these views as follows:

'Travellers are widely acknowledged as one of the most marginalised and disadvantaged groups in Irish society. Travellers fare poorly on almost every ever indicator used to measure disadvantage: unemployment, poverty, social exclusion, health status, infant mortality, life expectancy, illiteracy, education and training levels, access to decision making and political representation, gender equality, access to credit, accommodation and living conditions' (1998:2).

More recent reports confirm that little has changed in the interim (Weafer 2001).

4.2.4 Economic and political networks

51. Proportion of ethnic minority groups elected or appointed to parliament, boards of private companies and foundations

In line with Ireland's relatively new experience vis-à-vis ethnic minority groups there is little or no data for this indicator. It may be said, in line with the above comments of Weafer (2001), that Irish Travellers are typically under-represented in such positions and in many cases have no representation at all. Some small numbers of the Traveller Community have been elected at the local government level. In the local elections of 2004, two Nigerian nationals were elected to town councils, one each in Portlaoise and Ennis. In 1992 South African born Indian, Dr. Moojajee Bhamjee, was elected to the national parliament.

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

The data in the first table indicates a significant imbalance in representation in local government:

Table 35.0 Percentage of Councillors by Gender, 2002

	City		County	
	Female	Male	Female	Male
Ireland	18	82	15	85

Source: NDP Gender Equality Unit, Dept. of Justice, Equality and Law Reform

The data confirms women's under-representation politically, particularly in the lower house of parliament when compared to the EU-15 average:

Table 35.1 Percentage of Women in Parliament

	1999			2000			2001		
	Lower House	Upper House	Total	Lower House	Upper House	Total	Lower House	Upper House	Total
Ireland	12.7	18.3	14.6	13.3	18.3	14.6	12.7	18.3	14.2
EU 15	22.3	11.3	18.6	22.7	15.0	20.6	22.5	15.1	20.5

Source: NDP Gender Equality Unit, Dept. of Justice, Equality and Law Reform

The data below gives evidence of a recently emerging trend in Irish politics where women are afforded more opportunities for high profile though not necessarily high power political positions:

Table 35.2 Percentage of Women in the European Parliament

	Ireland	EU-15
1999	33.3	29.9
2004	38.5	23.4

Source: European Parliament

Members of Regional Authorities are both elected and nominated:

Table 35.3 Percentage of Regional Authority/Assembly members by Gender, 2002

	Ireland	South & East	BMW Region
Female	12.86	17.07	6.9
Male	87.14	82.93	93.1

Source: S+E / BMW Regional Authorities

The data shows marginally higher representation for women in business leadership positions compared with national politics:

Table 35.4 Percentage of Business Proprietors and Managers by Gender, 1999

	Ireland	South & East	BMW Region
Female	23.6	22.9	26.3
Male	76.4	77.1	73.7

Source: CSO

The table below shows women to be considerably less represented at this high level:

Table 35.5 Percentage of CEO's of large private sector firms by Gender, 2002

	Ireland
Female	2
Male	98

Source: Business and Finance Magazine, 2002

Despite progress being made in the area of equality of opportunity and outcome Irish women continue to be significantly under-represented in political and business leadership positions. The level of representation at the local government level, widely regarded as the testing ground for future politicians at the national level, is particularly poor and common to urban and rural councils. At the national level representation continues to be below the EU-15 average, except that is in the upper house, An Seanad Éireann, where there is a much less concentration of political power. Interestingly, the representation of Irish women at the European Parliament is increasing and above average for the EU. This however can be attributed to a view amongst political parties in Ireland that women candidates perform better than their male counterparts at this level. A similar trend has emerged with regard to the presidential elections; both the current and past Presidents are female.

The under representation of women continues in the Regional Authorities and in business. In the case of the former the Border Midlands West (BMW) region scores a considerably lower rate.

4.3 Labour force

4.3.1 Access to paid employment

53. Long-term unemployment (12+ months)

The data presented below shows a significant and steady decline in the rate of long-term unemployment for Ireland:

Table 36.0 Percentage of Long-term Unemployment, 1996-2003

	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Ireland	7.0	5.6	3.9	2.4	1.6	1.2	1.3	1.5
EU 15	4.9	4.9	4.4	4.0	3.5	3.1	3.1	3.3

Source: Eurostat (Persenaire, 2003)

A gender analysis shows that long-term unemployment is falling amongst both sexes, although marginally faster for women:

Table 36.1 Percentage of Male Long-term Unemployment, 1996-2003

	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Ireland	7.5	6.3	4.6	3.0	2.0	1.6	1.7
EU 15	4.2	4.2	3.7	3.3	2.9	2.7	2.7

Source: Eurostat (Persenaire, 2003)

Table 36.2 Percentage of Female Long-term Unemployment, 1996-2003

	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Ireland	6.1	4.6	2.8	1.6	1.0	0.8	0.7
EU 15	5.9	5.8	5.4	4.7	4.2	3.7	3.6

Source: Eurostat (Persenaire, 2003)

The following two tables show the rate of long-term unemployment falling as a share of the total active population and as a share of total unemployment:

Table 36.3 Percentage of Long-term Unemployment as share of Total Active Population, 1996-2002

	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Ireland	6.0	3.9	2.6	1.6	1.2	1.3	-
EU 15	4.9	4.4	4.0	3.5	3.1	3.1	-

Source: Eurostat – EU Labour Force Survey, 2002

Table 36.4 Percentage of Long-term Unemployment as share of Total Unemployment, 1996-2002

	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Ireland	59.5	57.0	-	44.3	37.6	33.1	29.3
EU 15	48.6	49.1	-	46.1	-	-	44.0

Source: Eurostat – EU Labour Force Survey, 2002

The rate of long-term unemployed has fallen by roughly eighty per cent for the period 1996-2001. The rate of male long-term unemployment fell by seventy-nine per cent, while the female rate fell by eighty-nine per cent. This significant difference can be accounted for by the increase in service type jobs and is further evidence of the increased participation of women in the Irish labour force.

54. Involuntary part-time or temporary unemployment

The data shows below EU-15 average numbers of Irish workers with a temporary contract:

Table 37.0 Proportion employees with a contract of limited duration, by gender

	Ireland	Females	Males	EU-15	Females	Males
1999	9.4	12.1	7.1	13.2	14.2	12.4
2000	4.6	5.8	3.6	13.4	14.5	12.5
2001	3.7	4.5	n/a	13.4	14.5	n/a

Source: Eurostat Labour Force Survey, 2002

The data below reveals a varied picture according to gender and considering averages for the EU-15:

Table 37.1 Involuntary part-time work as a % of total part-time employment, by gender 2002

	Ireland	EU-15
Females	9.5	19.0
Males	27.9	12.8
Total	13.7	14.1

Source: Labour Force Survey, 2002, Eurostat

On average Ireland's involuntary part-time workforce is similar, in proportion of total Labour Force, to the EU-15 average. However the incidence of male workers in involuntary part-time employment is above average. The rights of part-time employees in Ireland are protected in law through the [Protection of Employees \(Part Time Work\) Act, 2001](#). This Act gives effect to the EU Directive 97/81/EC of December 1997. This Act ensures that entitlements and benefits afforded to full-time employees are applied to part-time employees on a pro rata basis.

The data relating to fixed term contracts does not state the extent to which the situation is voluntary or otherwise. Generally speaking Ireland falls below the EU-15 average for the proportion of the labour force employed on a fixed term basis. Legislation has recently been implemented requiring organisations to treat employees on a fixed term contract on an equal basis to those on a permanent contract. This act implements the EU Directive on fixed term workers (Directive 1999/70/EC) and incorporates all aspects of the employment contract from compensation and benefits to training and development. There is no formal data gathered on fixed term employees in Ireland.

4.4 Services

4.4.1 Health services

55. Proportions with entitlement to and using public primary health care

Four categories of entitlement to medical care exist in the Irish health system (see Indicator 10). Servicing both public and private hospitals with common resources has led to inequity in the system whereby those with private insurance experience a shorter waiting time than those receiving public care. In the 1970s the proportion of the population covered by medical cards was just below forty per cent, now it is twenty-eight and a half per cent. In the first quarter of 2004, fifty-six per cent of all the health related case studies reported by Citizens Information Centres (CICs) concerned medical cards. Until recently, anyone whose only income was a social welfare payment would qualify for a medical card. This is no longer the case. While social welfare payments have increased in recent years, the corresponding medical card income guidelines have not kept pace. This means that some of the people who would have qualified for a medical card in the past no longer qualify now.

4.4.2 Housing

56. Proportion homeless, sleeping rough

The homeless population is notoriously mobile, invisible, and, from a research perspective, difficult to identify. The official count carried out by the Department of the Environment over a one week period in March 1999 is based on returns sent by each local authority area and recorded 5,234 homeless people throughout the country, an increase of over one hundred per cent on the previous assessment in 1996. The majority (2,900) were counted in the Dublin Region. Many local authorities failed to report any homeless persons in their area.

The Simon Community, a campaigning movement, estimates that about 10,000 people experience homelessness each year. This figure is based on a number of factors, the Simon Community assists about 3,000 people around the country annually. Simon is just one agency and there are several other voluntary providers that also work with homeless people. The visible evidence of people on the streets, backed up by increased demand for services such as shelter and food, is that over the past 4-5 years homelessness has increased by perhaps a third to a half. This coincides with the increase in house prices and corresponding rise in rents.

However, if the definition of homelessness was expanded to include all those on the local authority housing lists, as argued by Fahey and Watson (1995), this number would increase significantly. In October 1999, over 50,000 persons were on the local authority waiting lists. In addition to the very real difficulties associated with homelessness in itself, it is also clear that homelessness is associated with many other indicators of poverty and marginalisation, such as unemployment, alcoholism, drug addiction, a prison record, psychiatric and physical health problems (O'Sullivan 1996; McKeown 1999; Harvey 1999).

With regard to the Traveller Community it has been estimated 1,200 families living by the roadside, without basic amenities (Task Force on the Travelling Community, 1995)

57. Average waiting time for social housing

The table below shows waiting times for Local Authority housing:

Table 38.0 Length of time spent on public housing waiting lists

	First time	<than 1 year	Between 1- 2 years	Between 2- 3 years	Between 3- 4 years	>than 4 years	Total
Total	7764	10819	10788	6833	4816	7393	48413

Source: Department of Environment, 1999

The issue of affordable social housing is contentious in Ireland, with the recent upsurge in house prices exacerbating the problem. On the one hand local authorities are seeking to withdraw from the provision of housing while on the other the State has imposed a quota (20%) for social housing as part of newly approved private housing projects. Little progress has been made on this initiative, with the Local Authorities citing a lack of clarity with regard to the operation of the quota and with the building and renting sectors offering their own resistance.

A situation has developed over the past decades whereby those in receipt of social welfare payments were paid a rent supplement by the local health board rather than the local authority. The responsibility for paying the rent supplement is now being contested by the relevant government departments. In addition the limit for which one can claim for rent supplement has been reduced below market values for private rented accommodation and serious restrictions have been placed on first time claimants. Such moves affect the worst off in society and threaten to exacerbate the homeless problem.

4.4.3 Education

58. School participation rates and higher education participation rates

The table below shows participation rates for most ages to be below the EU-15 average, except when females are considered on their own:

Table 39.0 Participation rates by age 2000/01 (Data n/a for ISCED levels 5-6)

	16 yrs	17 yrs	18 yrs	19 yrs	20 yrs	Male (16-18)	Female (16-18)
Ireland	93	81	79	51	44	77	93
EU 15	93	84	74	59	48	82	85

Source: Eurostat – UOE (Unesco, OECD and Eurostat)

The tables below show above average increases in the number of students in higher education, particularly for females:

Table 39.1 Percentage increase in number of students in higher education, 1991-2001

	Ireland	EU-15
Females	122	46
Males	54	21
Total	85	35

Source: Eurostat – UOE (Unesco, OECD and Eurostat)

Table 39.2 Females per 100 males in tertiary education, 2000/01

Ireland	EU-15
121	114

Source: Eurostat – UOE (Unesco, OECD and Eurostat)

Compulsory education ends at age fourteen years. Ireland has made progress in terms of participation rates, particularly in higher education. The rate of participation in higher education has increased by eighty-five per cent in the period 1991-2001; the gap in participation rates for female and male is particularly significant in Ireland in favour of females. Participation rates for students aged thirty years and over are below the EU-15 average as a whole.

With regard to Traveller participation rates, just over sixty-three per cent left full-time education early compared to a national drop-out rate of fifteen per cent approximately. Little over fifteen per cent of Travellers have been able to obtain a lower secondary education against just over twenty-three per cent of settled school goers. Less than four per cent of Travellers have completed upper secondary education and less than one per cent have obtained a non-degree post-secondary certificate.

4.4.4 Social care

59. Proportion of people in need receiving care services

This data is not collected centrally and no comprehensive information is available nationally.

60. Average waiting time for care services (including child care)

This data is not collected centrally and no comprehensive information is available nationally.

4.4.5 Financial services

61. Proportion denied credit differentiated by income groups

Data not available

62. Access to financial assistance / advice in case of need

The [Money Advice and Budgeting Service \(MABS\)](#) is a free and confidential service for people in Ireland with debt and money management problems. There are 52 MABS offices in Ireland. The MABS service includes:

- Dealing with debts and making budgets
- Income examination to ensure all entitlements are being availed of
- Contacting creditors on individuals behalf with offers of payment
- Help with deciding on the best way to make the payments

4.4.6 Transport

63. Proportion of population who has access to public transport system

Data not available

64. Density of public transport system and road density

The table below shows motorway density in Ireland to be below the EU-15 average:

Table 40.0 Motorway density Length (km) / surface (1,000 km²)

	1999	2000	2001
Ireland	1	1	2
EU 15	16	16	17

Source: Energy, Transport and Environment Indicators, 1999-2001, Eurostat

The table below shows above average reliance on buses and coaches and below average passenger transport by rail:

Table 40.1 Passenger transport (passenger-km per inhabitant)

	Buses and Coaches			Rail		
	1999	2000	2001	1999	2000	2001
Ireland	1571	1607	1624	388	365	393
EU 15	1077	1091	1097	780	804	811

Source: Energy, Transport and Environment Indicators, 1999-2001, Eurostat

Ireland has not had the same opportunities as other member states to develop a comparable road and rail infrastructure. The rail network was allowed to fall into disrepair and existing lines were discontinued. EU Structural Funds and recent economic growth have provided the necessary capital for investment in and expansion of the road and rail networks.

65. Number of public sport facilities per 10.000 inhabitants

Data is not available.

4.4.7 Civic and cultural services

66. Number of public and private civic & cultural facilities (e.g. cinema, theatre, concerts) per 10.000 inhabitants

No central database or listing exists.

4.5 Social networks

4.5.1 Neighbourhood participation

67. Proportion in regular contact with neighbours.

The table below shows Irish people to have regular contact with their neighbours:

Table 42.0 Percentage of population age 16 and over talking to neighbours, 1999

	Ireland	EU 15
At least once a week	89	81
Once or twice a month	7	10
Less than once a month or never	4	9

Source: User's database version, 2002, ECHP – Eurostat

4.5.2 Friendships

68. Proportion in regular contact with friends.

The table below shows Irish people to have above average regular contact with friends:

Table 42.0 Percentage of population age 16 and over meeting people at home or elsewhere, 1999

	Ireland	EU 15
At least once a week	97	81
Once or twice a month	3	14
Less than once a month or never	1	5

Source: User's database version, 2002, ECHP – Eurostat

4.5.3 Family life

69. Proportion feeling lonely/isolated

AWARE, a voluntary organisation which exists to support those whose lives are affected by depression, claim that approximately 300,000 people in Ireland are depressed. However there is no data pertaining to feeling lonely/isolated specifically.

70. Duration of contact with relatives (cohabiting and non-cohabiting)

No data exists

71. Informal (non-monetary) assistance received by different types of family

Data relating to unpaid care was first gathered by the 2002 census and may incorporate direct or indirect financial assistance. (See Indicators 39 and 94). The data shows that more women than men are likely to act as carers and female carers provide more hours of care in a week than male carers.

5 Social Empowerment

5.1 Introduction

Assessing levels of Social Empowerment in Ireland is difficult as it is the conditional factor for which the least data is available. Broadly speaking Ireland appears to have average to low levels of empowerment. In recent years most opportunities for progression have existed within the private sector in the form of increased employment opportunities. Many state led initiatives to improve empowerment also related to removing barriers to employment. Institutional openness appears to be problematic as does public space. Much empowerment related policy is in the early stages of development - such as advocacy and childcare - and it will be a number of years before effectiveness can be measured. It will be very telling to assess whether such structures and institutions will be capable of empowering all members of society.

5.2 Knowledge base

5.2.1 Application of knowledge

72. Extent to which social mobility is knowledge-based (formal qualifications)

Data on educational qualification and ILO Economic Status is presented by the 2002 Census of Population:

Table 43.0 Persons aged 15 years and over, classified by socio-economic group and highest level of education completed

Socio-economic Group	% of Total	% Non-Degree	% Degree or Higher	% Not Stated
Professional Workers	5.7	5.1	26.3	1.4
Managerial/Technical	24.3	42.4	51.4	6.9
Non-Manual	16.6	24.3	9.6	5.5
Skilled Manual	17.3	12.4	3.4	9.3
Semi-Skilled	11.4	7.7	2.6	6.3
Unskilled	6.1	1.7	0.6	5.3
All Others Gainfully Occupied and Unknown	18.5	6.5	6.1	65.3

Source: 2002 Census, CSO

The data indicates a direct link between socio-economic group and educational qualification. Those involved in manual or unskilled labour do not progress through the education system to the same extent as those in professional, managerial and technical roles. (See Indicator 73 for the relationship between literacy and disadvantage)

5.2.2 Availability of information

73. Per cent of population literate and numerate

Several studies can be drawn upon for this indicator:

The Pisa 2000 report Literacy Skills for the World of Tomorrow displays results of tests and background questionnaires administered to between 4,500 and 10,000 students aged 15 years old in each participating country.

Table 44.0 Student performance on the combined reading, mathematical and scientific literacy scales, by gender

Test	Result	Males		Females		Difference ¹	
		Mean Score	S.E.	Mean Score	S.E.	Score dif.	S.E.
Reading Literacy	Ireland	512.8	4.2	541.5	3.6	-28.7	4.6
	EU-15	480.3	4.0	512.2	3.6	-32.0	4.5
Mathematical Literacy	Ireland	510.1	4.0	497.3	3.4	12.9	5.1
	EU-15	500.9	4.4	489.2	3.9	11.7	5.3
Scientific Literacy	Ireland	510.7	4.2	516.9	4.2	-6.2	5.5
	EU-15	494.9	4.5	494.7	4.1	0.2	5.4

Source: Data Chart SS7.2, Literacy Skills for the Social World, PISA 2000

Data pertaining to adult literacy was gathered through the OECD International Adult Literacy Survey (IALS, 1997). This survey showed that 25% of the adult population in Ireland were at the lowest levels of literacy, with a further 32% at the second lowest.

According to the Department of Education White Paper on Adult Education, Learning for Life (2000), 30% of the adult population has poor literacy skills.

This indicator provides evidence of how the system of education in Ireland has an uneven impact on national literacy and numeracy. A 2003-2004 report conducted by the Education Research Centre for the Department of Education Inspectorate indicates the relationship between poor literacy and socio-economic disadvantage in the Irish context. The report finds that over thirty per cent of primary school children in disadvantaged areas suffer from severe literacy problems and that the number of children with serious learning difficulties is three times higher in poorer areas than in others.

74. Availability of free media

The First World Press Freedom Ranking index was compiled by asking journalists, researchers and legal experts to answer fifty questions about a whole range of press freedom violations (such as murders or arrests of journalists, censorship, pressure, state monopolies in various fields, punishment of press law offences and regulation of the media). The final list extends to one hundred and thirty-nine countries, with Ireland ranked sixth. The Second World Press Freedom Ranking produced by Reporters Without Borders ranks Ireland seventeenth out of a total of one hundred and sixty-six

countries. The report is a snapshot of the situation between 1st September, 2002 and 1st September, 2003, taking account of press freedom violations. The World Audit Annual Survey of Press Freedom 2002 reflects events of January to December 2001; Ireland is ranked thirteenth out of one hundred and eighty-seven countries.

75. Access to the internet

The table below offers a snapshot of Internet access in Ireland for 2000:

Table 45.0 Places of access to the Internet

	Ireland	EU 15
Office	24	36
Friend's home	15	20
University	12	10
School	17	9
Cyber café	4	6
Home only	36	31

Source: Measuring Information Society, 2000, Eurobarometer

Ireland ranks higher than the EU-15 average for private home access. Internet access in the office increases according to education, income and age (with the exception of the 55 years and over group). Also, men are more likely to access the Internet in the office. Accessing the Internet from a friend's house is particularly widespread among younger respondents, students and lower income groups. Students and younger respondents in general are more likely to access the Internet from university.

5.2.3 User friendliness of information

76. Provision of information in multiple languages on social services

Initiatives in this area are at an early stage and it can generally be said that formal responses to the increasing diversity of languages spoken in Ireland have been limited to date.

77. Availability of free advocacy advice and guidance centres

The limited number of organisations or discussion documents dealing with advocacy shows that advocacy in Ireland is in an embryonic state. For example, one of the most comprehensive directories on voluntary organisations in Ireland, the Directory of National Voluntary Organisations and Other Agencies, 2001—2002, produced by Comhairle, does not include advocacy in its subject index. Most existing advocacy services in Ireland relate to some disability e.g. the Mental Health Advocacy Network, Irish Wheelchair Association (IWA), Schizophrenia Ireland, Brothers of Charity /Galway Citizen Advocacy. Perhaps the most frequently cited definition of advocacy in the Irish context is that of the Commission on the Status of People with Disabilities in its report, A Strategy for Equality, 1996, while most of the limited published work on advocacy has been compiled by disability organisations (Forum of People with Disabilities, 2001; National Disability Authority, 2003 forthcoming).

The Department of Health and Children has also set out its policy on advocacy within the context of mental health in its Health Strategy, Quality and Fairness, 2001. The Irish Advocacy Network (IAN) is developing quite a formalised structure and has established itself in a number of Health Board areas. Comhairle is a national statutory agency under the remit of the Department of Social & Family Affairs and is responsible for supporting the provision of information, advice and advocacy on social services and systems. This agency supports the provision of information through a nationwide network of Citizens Information Centres (CIC's), the Citizens Information Phone Service and through the on-line OASIS website and Citizens Information Databases.

In 2002 Comhairle produced a report, Levels of Advocacy Services in Key CICs, which focused on the level of advocacy services in 38 of its key CICs and it suggests that all such centres are engaged in advocacy work at some level. However, the type of advocacy undertaken by CIC staff pertains to such specific problems as social welfare claims, housing, health services or employment. Other organisations involved on the general area include MABS (see Indicator 62) and the Irish National Organisation for the Unemployed.

5.3 Labour market

5.3.1 Control over employment contract

78. % of labour force that is member of a trade union (differentiated to public and private employees)

The table below shows TU membership rising in absolute terms but decreasing in % terms:

Table 45.0 Irish Trade Union membership as a % of total Labour Force

	1993	1998	2003
Membership of TUs	432,000	463,000	515,000
Total LF	1403000	1621000	1,920,700
% in a TU	31	29	27

Source: EIRO, 1993-2003

Employees in Ireland have a constitutional right to join a trade union, however there is no legal obligation on an employer to recognise or negotiate with a union. In recent years absolute numbers of those in a trade union has risen but this rise has not been commensurate with the rise in employment and overall density has declined. Much of the rise in employment has occurred in the construction and service industries and amongst female and immigrant workers.

79. % of labour force covered by a collective agreement (differentiated by public and private employees)

Since 1987 the Irish social partners have been working to a developed system of social participation/partnership which feeds into the content and implementation of national economic and

social policies and collective wage agreements. The social partners are represented by four groupings or pillars namely; Employers; Trades Unions; Farmers; Community and Voluntary. Organisations that participate in the partnership process tend to adhere to the guidelines yet the level of trade union membership as a percentage of the Labour Force is decreasing (see Indicator 78).

5.3.2 Prospects of job mobility

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

The table below shows above average numbers of Irish workers in receipt of work-based training:

Table 46.0 Incidence of workplace training

	EU 15	Ireland
Training enterprises as a percentage of all enterprises	62	79
Employees in training enterprises as a percentage of employees in all enterprises	88	92
Participants in CVT courses as a percentage of employees in all enterprises	40	41
Hours in CVT courses per employee (all enterprises)	12	17
Hours in CVT courses per participant	31	40

Source : Living conditions in Europe, 2003, Eurostat

The above findings correspond to a recent survey, Ten Years of Working Conditions in the EU, which shows that on average thirty-three per cent of employees across the EU received training, while in Ireland thirty-seven per cent of employees had received training. The most recent national survey to determine the extent and type of training carried out by Irish enterprises was published by IBEC in 2002. Approximately two-thirds of companies (68%) stated that they designed/delivered training directly to employees. The average percentage spend on training by those surveyed was almost four per cent of payroll. The top three drivers for training in the twelve months prior to this survey were staff motivation/retention, technological change and customer service.

81. % of labour force availing of publicly provided training (not only skills based). [Please outline costs of such training if any.]

The National Training and Employment Authority - FÁS - provides a range of training and employment programmes, aimed at employers, employees and unemployed people. There are over eight hundred courses on offer, the courses are free and trainees may be paid a training allowance. The end of year report for FÁS, 2002, shows that just under three per cent of the Labour Force participated in publicly provided training programmes. In that year 26,000 unemployed/job-seekers trained in a variety of skills with the aim of obtaining employment. This figure includes 11,000 who trained for specific occupational skills, 1,500 who trained on special training courses for those with a disability, and 5,000 who trained in Community Training Workshops for early school leavers. Again in the same period some 27,700 persons were on employment programmes at the end of the year - 25,000 on Community Employment and 2,700 on Job Initiative. The profile of those who participated in such

schemes was: 13,600 long-term unemployed; 6,700 who were in receipt of lone parents allowance; 4,100 persons with a disability; and 1,900 supervisors.

82. % of labour force participating in any “back to work scheme”.

The table below provides data for the period 1999-2001:

Table 47.0 Percentage of labour force participating in back to work schemes, 1999-2001

	1999	2000	2001
% of Labour Force on Back to Work Scheme	2.3	2.1	1.9
Number of Labour Force on Back to Work scheme	38,991	36,396	33,385

Source: End of Year Report, 2002, FÁS

A number of schemes have been brought forward by Irish policy makers in recent years to promote the return to work and education. Many of these schemes emerged when unemployment was particularly high. However, recent attempts by the Irish Government to repeal these provisions has revealed that such measures continue to have a place even when mainstream job creation reaches high levels. This is especially exemplified by the Community Employment Scheme (CE Scheme), referred to above (see Indicator 81). The CE Scheme was designed to help the long-term unemployed and others to return to work by offering part-time and temporary placements in positions based within local community services, such as youth work or care of the elderly. In theory the rise in employment levels in recent years reduced the demand for places on these schemes and thus prompted the Government to reduce the number of positions available. However, this logic ignored three important facts:

First, while the original aim of the scheme was to provide incentives for people to return to work the services provided by these people have become an integral part of the communities within which these services are located and the withdrawal of these positions has not been compensated for in any meaningful way thus leaving many communities without basic services.

Second, while many of those people who took up positions within local services have proved themselves to be of value to their communities it cannot be assumed from this that they would be of equal value in any other setting or that they would wish to work elsewhere.

The Government's own review of the CE scheme recognised it as value for money.

Other schemes brought forward by the Government were designed to encourage the unemployed to return to work by minimizing the “tax/benefit trap” and allowing these individuals to retain certain benefits. These include The Back To Work Allowance and the Back To Education and Enterprise Allowance. As with the CE Scheme these other provisions are being reduced and limited.

5.3.3 Reconciliation of work and family life (work/ life balance)

83. % of organisations operating work life balance policies.

No specific data is available for the number of organisations operating work life balance policies.

84. % of employed labour force actually making use of work/life balance measures (see indicator above)

The table below sets out data on the percentage of employees availing of flexible working arrangements, with a further breakdown according to gender:

Table 48.0 Percentage of employees on flexible working arrangements, 2000

	% of Employees on Flexible Work Arrangements as a % of All Employees	% of Females	% of Males
Permanent Part-time	2.0	85	15
Job Sharing	0.6	98	2
Term-time working	-	68	32
Telecommuting / Home-working	0.1	44	56
Flexi-time	3.5	54	46
Career Breaks / Sabbaticals	0.1	57	43
Flexible hours	1.5	47	53
Other type	0.1	58	42
TOTAL	8.1	64%	36%

Source: National Survey on Pay and Other Employment-Related Issues, 2000, IBEC

Approximately eight per cent of employees were on some form of flexible work arrangement. The incidence of take up was higher amongst females at sixty-four per cent and males at thirty-six per cent. However, there are more males on telecommuting/home-working and on flexible hours than females. Generally speaking, the larger the company the more likely they are to have flexible working arrangements; this does not hold in terms of the percentage take up.

5.4 Openness and supportiveness of institutions

5.4.1 Openness and supportiveness of political system

85. The existence of processes of consultation and direct democracy (eg. referenda).

The Irish Constitution reflects a tripartite separation of powers between the judiciary, legislature and executive⁸. A good account of the system and its operational flaws is provided by the Irish Council for Civil Liberties⁹:

'Under the Irish political-legal order the main deviation from the tripartite separation of powers is the fused legislature-executive. In theory the government is elected by and can be removed or replaced by the Dáil¹⁰ i.e. the legislature is supposed to control the executive; in reality the converse is true. The executive commands a majority in the Dáil and because of the strong party system votes are invariably cast along party lines and not in accordance with the merits of the proposal put before the parliament. As a result, Ireland's legislative process is flawed in that it provides few opportunities for widespread participation. Political party politics drive and control law and policy making. Opposition party parliamentarians who have been elected to represent the viewpoint of the people, often experience difficulties in understanding the implications of legislation which comes before the Houses of the Oireachtas, because of inadequate resourcing and time constraints. Consultation, if it happens at all, is carefully managed and sometimes rejected if it does not suit the government's agenda. Public consultation seems to vary widely and consultations can be conducted on the whim of a civil servant or government minister. This is because there is no legal duty on the government to consult when preparing legislation. In practice, the existence of a fused legislature-executive means a significant proportion of the population has no input into legislative processes.'

The independent Democracy Commission was set up to respond to widespread concerns about the nature of democracy in Ireland throughout the island. The Commission undertook research to consider the capacity of Irish democracy to be inclusive, participatory and egalitarian.¹¹ The Commission comments include:

Government in all its manifestations needs to be more accountable.

Under-representation of significant sub-groups on government institutions and quangos, with a proposal that there should be some form of open competition and transparency regarding the selection procedures.

The civil service has become increasingly politicised.

A view that Ireland does not have local government, rather local administration.

⁸ See Irish Constitution, 1937, Article 6.1 – "All powers of government, legislative, executive, and judicial, derive, under God, from the people, whose right it is to designate the rulers of the State and, in final appeal, to decide all questions of national policy, according to the requirements of the common good."

⁹ From the ICCL's submission, July 2004, to the Democracy Commission .

¹⁰ An Dáil Éireann – the Irish Parliament.

¹¹ The Democracy Commission (2004) *Disempowered & Disillusioned But Not Disengaged: Democracy in Ireland, A Progress Report*, May 2004, The Democracy Commission: Dublin.

A common perception in the Community and Voluntary sector (see Indicator 79) that politicians are bound by the party whip and are incapable of independent action.

A counterview that social partnership has sidelined democratically elected representatives such as opposition and government backbench TDs¹².

A lack of coherent policies on the part of the government concerning relationships with civil society organisations.

Since 1987 the Irish Government has encouraged the neo-corporatist model of social partnership (see Indicator 79) as a basis for the content and implementation of national economic and social policies and collective wage agreements. Under this model certain interest groups play a role in decision taking and policy making. In theory the partnership model allows the social partners to enter discussions on a range of issues to reach consensus. The over-riding focus of social partnership has been on collective wage agreements and the economic aspects of development. There have been six national agreements to date and the model is heralded as being central to the emergence of the Celtic Tiger, so-called. The Democracy Commission is amongst others in noting the existence of critical voices who see in the partnership model a creeping corporatism.

Alongside the economic development of the past two decades community development approaches have sought to increase the participation of marginalised societal groups, supported in part through the allocation of EU Structural Funds. The granting of such monies was linked to the establishment of an independent intermediary agency, Area Development Management (ADM). Local partnership companies have been established in areas of disadvantage, mirroring the mix of social partners engaged in national wage agreements with a view to promoting both the economic and social development locally. One criticism levelled at these companies is that they by-pass elected representatives. As a way of addressing this and by way of increased co-ordination government has introduced City and County Development Boards, with political representation, to inspect and approve economic and social developments proposed at the city and county level.

The [Freedom of Information Act, 1997](#), was designed with a view to improving transparency around decision making in both the public and private spheres. The Act established three new statutory rights:

A legal right for each person to access information held by public bodies

A legal right for each person to have official information relating to himself/herself amended where it is incomplete, incorrect or misleading

A legal right to obtain reasons for decisions affecting himself/herself.

The Government has recently moved to restrict the workings of the Act on the basis of increasing the number of years that must pass before information surrounding certain Government decisions can be released and by introducing financial charges for information.

¹² Teachta Dála (TD) – member of the Irish Parliament

5.4.2 Openness of the economic system

86. Number of instances of public involvement in major economic decision making (e.g. public hearings about company relocation, inward investment and plant closure)

No data exists. It is not common practice for an organisation to include members of the public in major decision making. One way in which the public can affect decisions around company location is through the planning process.

5.4.3 Openness of organisations

87. % of organisations/ institutions with work councils

Work councils are currently not a feature of consultation and negotiations procedures within firms in Ireland. However, pending obligations under the European Works Councils Directive are forcing organisations to reconsider the way in which they consult and communicate with employees.

5.5 Public space

5.5.1 Support for collective action

88. % of the national & local public budget that is reserved for voluntary, not-for-profit citizenship initiatives.

The data for such spending is not available in an easy to reach form. The Community and Voluntary sector in Ireland is funded by two separate departments of Government. However, the following account of spending in this area may be given:

The Department of Community, Rural and Gaeltacht Affairs has lead responsibility for developing the relationship between the State and the Community and Voluntary sector. This incorporates overseeing the implementation of the White Paper on a Framework for Supporting Voluntary Activity and for Developing the Relationship between the State and the Community and Voluntary Sector, 2000. The White Paper commits the Government to providing a range of funding measures over a three-year period for Federations, Networks and Umbrella Bodies and for a scheme of funding for training and support in the community and voluntary sector;

The Department of Health and Children has a role because many organisations that are classified as belonging to the Community and Voluntary sector are service providers and therefore require distinct funding. The Department of Health and Children does not provide a breakdown for the expenditure on this sector. The above mentioned White Paper does contain a commitment on behalf of the Irish Government to quantify the value of the sector and the total funding. This has yet to be implemented; Since 2002 the Government has engaged in a process of reviewing the relationship between the Community and Voluntary sector and relevant departments.

89. Marches and demonstrations banned in the past 12 months as proportion of total marched and demonstrations (held and banned).

This information has not been recorded in Ireland. The following comments may be made however:

The right to freedom of assembly was incorporated in the first Irish Constitution (Article 9) and today is guaranteed by Article 40.6.1.ii and 2 of the revised Irish Constitution of 1937. This states that:

“The State guarantees liberty for the exercise, subject to public order and morality, of the right of the citizens to assemble peacefully and without arms. Provision may be made by law to prevent or control meetings which are determined in accordance with law to be calculated to cause a breach of the peace or to be a danger or nuisance to the general public and to prevent or control meetings in the vicinity of either House of the Oireachtas. Law’s regulating the manner in which ... the right of free assembly may be exercised shall contain no political, religious or class discrimination.”

Article 9 acknowledges the importance of freedom of assembly yet provides some legal restraints. A number of Acts have since been passed to enhance the power of An Garda Síochána regarding the right of public assembly, namely:

Offences Against the State Act, 1939, provides for a blanket prohibition on meetings or processions “by or on behalf of or by arrangement or in concert with an unlawful organisation” (S.27). It also permits a senior Garda officer to prohibit any meetings or procession within half a mile of a building in which either House of the Oireachtas¹³ is sitting or about to sit (S.28).

The Road Traffic Act, 1961, prohibits any act which might cause the obstruction of traffic, and could therefore be used to restrain demonstrations (Forde 1987).

The Offences Against the State (Amendment) Act, 1972, makes any meeting or procession which interferes with, directly or indirectly, the course of justice an unlawful assembly.

The Criminal Justice (Public Order) Act, 1994, replaced a number of common law offences relating to public order and also gave the police extended powers of crowd control including requirements for notification and size.

City Councils recently imposed a ban on all fly-postering and leafleting outside of election time.

Posters are traditionally important for organising demonstrations and meetings, and the vast majority of groups do not have the resources to advertise in major publications or possibility of accessing the media.

Finally, contentious parades and marches in the north of Ireland have been the scene of conflict and at times have attracted great international media interest. While the same said contentious marches and parades do not feature in the Republic of Ireland the controversies generated by such have threatened political stability throughout the island, have impacted negatively upon tourism and inward investment, and more critically created a climate that encouraged restrictions on the right to assembly and protest generally.

¹³ The Oireachtas, the legislature of the Republic of Ireland: the President, An Dáil Éireann and An Seanad Éireann

5.5.2 Cultural enrichment

90. Proportion of local and national budget allocated to all cultural activities

The Arts Council of Ireland functions to “stimulate public interest in and promote the knowledge, appreciation and practice of the arts”. The Council provides grants, bursaries and awards to assist individual artists, arts organisations, local authorities and other bodies. The table below sets out funding for the period 1999 – 2001:

Table 41.0 Arts funding in Ireland, 1999-2001

1999	2000	2001
€35.55m	€45.08m	€48.147m

Source: Department of Arts, Sport and Tourism

Data on local and national budget allocations is not readily available. The table below sets out data collected as part of an international study in 1997:

Table 49.0 Proportion of national budget spending on cultural activities, 1997 (euros)

Government Final Consumption expenditure	14995.61 millions
GDP	61257.24 millions
Central / Federal Government Expenditure on arts and Museums	50,402,887
State / Regional Expenditure on Arts and Museums	N/A
Local Government Expenditure on Arts and Museums	4,861,827.10
Total Arts and Museums Expenditure	55,886,886
Total Arts Expenditure Only	47,380,276
Total Arts and Museums Expenditure as % of Total Government Expenditure	0.37%
Total Arts expenditure Only as % of Total Government Expenditure	0.31%
Total Arts and Museums Expenditure as % of GDP	0.09%
Total Arts and Museums Expenditure as % of GDP	0.07%

Source: A Comparative Study of Levels of Arts Expenditure, 2000, International Arts Bureau¹⁴

Irish local authorities do not have the power to raise local taxation; there are commercial rates but no domestic rates. In Ireland, local authorities are allowed but not required to provide for the arts in their areas. Comprehensive figures on the level of support provided at the local level are not readily available. A large part of budgets for the arts are devoted to municipal venues and direct spending on arts programmes; the provision of arts grants is small.

¹⁴ Note: The definition of ‘arts’ covers the following disciplines: Community arts; Dance; Drama; Festivals and other mixed art-forms and venues; Film production; Literature support; Music; Opera; Visual arts (including public art) and photography; Museums and galleries. Because of the difficulty in disaggregating the costs of bureaucracy at national and local level the expenditure figures include the ‘administration of culture’.

91. Number of self-organised cultural groups and events

This data is not available. The Arts Council of Ireland maintain a database of individuals and organisations who are either in a financial relationship with the Arts Council or who are considered “valued contacts”.

92. Proportion of people experiencing different forms of personal enrichment on a regular basis (Measured by the average number of attendance of cultural activities, e.g. theatre, ballet, concerts, cinema, etc, each month).

This information was collected in other EU Member states via the Working Group on Cultural Statistics. Although Ireland is a member of this working group there was a failure to complete the research, as responsibility was not delegated at a national level. At the EU level, LEG-Culture has been established to function as a leadership group on cultural statistics. National research was undertaken by the Lansdowne Market Research Agency, indicating a small difference between the percentage of females (7.76) and males (7.21) participating in the arts on a regular basis.

(2002 Lansdowne Market Research, Annual Joint National Leadership Rese)

5.6 Personal relationships

5.6.1 Provision of services supporting physical and social independence

93. Percentage of national and local budgets devoted to disabled people (physical and mental)

The data for such spending is not available.

5.6.2 Personal support services

94. Level of pre-and-post –school child care.

In common with some other EU countries Ireland’s Labour Force was traditionally male, with the responsibility for child care falling to the mother. In the past ten years Ireland has witnessed a phenomenal increase in female participation in the labour force, particularly bringing married women into paid employment. This development is due in part to an increased availability of jobs, the influence of EU equality measures, and as a response to the increased costs of living associated with economic growth. Therefore, the issue of childcare is a very topical one for Ireland. As it stands, childcare is in the main provided for by the private sector, demand outstrips supply, and childcare costs are exorbitant. The Department of Justice, Equality and Law Reform has lead responsibility for the co-ordination of the Government’s National Childcare Policy including the Equal Opportunities Childcare Programme (EOCP). Priority has been given to the childcare issue in the National Development Plan 2000-2006.¹⁵

¹⁵ The issue of childcare has been on the national agenda for the past two decades and has been marked by the publication of a series of policy documents over that time, most recently: The National Childcare Strategy, Partnership 2000 Expert Working Group on Childcare (1999) DJE&LR, Report on the Commission of the Family (1998) DSC&FA, Report on the National Forum for Early Childhood Education (1998) DE&S. National Children’s Strategy (2000) DH&C

The Central Statistics Office conducted a survey module on childcare included in the Quarterly National Household Survey in the fourth quarter of 2002. Over 73,000 families, or forty-two and a half per cent of all families with pre-school children, regularly rely on non-parental childcare arrangements for minding these children during normal working hours. Couples where both partners were at work had the greatest need for regular non-parental childcare facilities. Over three-quarters (55,300) had childcare arrangements for their pre-school children and nearly half (50,100) required it for their primary school-going children. Lone parents with pre-school children used non-parental childcare arrangements to a lesser extent than average (42.5%), with just over thirty per cent (7,600) having regular arrangements. The reverse was true in the case of lone parents with primary school-going children with over twenty-eight per cent (12,800) having regular arrangements, compared to the average of twenty-three and a half per cent. Almost 23,000 families relied on Unpaid Relatives for minding pre-school children on a regular basis and over 19,000 of these indicated that it was their main source of childcare. In proportionate terms, lone parents were more reliant on Unpaid Relatives.

The primary options for individuals requiring pre and post child care are as follows:

- Nurseries – full day care for children aged 3-6 months, public or private.
- Child minders – self-employed family carers for non-school and pre-school going children; up to 6 children are allowed to be cared for, including their own.
- Playgroups – centres for children 3-6 years, usually part-time, some in private houses and open for two sessions (3-4 hours a day), between 2 and 5 days a week whereas others are provided in commercial premises and also open for 4 to 5 sessions a week.
- Naíonraí – an Irish language playgroup, for children 3 to 5 years.
- Pre-school groups – most are private and generally accept children 2 ½ until 6 years, open 8h to 18h; children attend sessions of 2 ½ hours either in morning or afternoon.
- Early Start Programme - introduced in 1994, Early Start is a pre-school education organised by the Department of Education and Science; aims to tackle disadvantage by targeting children considered at risk of not reaching their potential.
- Traveller Pre-school – in operation since 1984, funded by grant aid from the Department whereby the State covers 98% of tuition and transport costs for a maximum of 3 hours tuition per day during regular national school year.
- Infant Class – early Primary education provided in schools for children before compulsory education (age 6), two levels consisting of Junior Infants (4 years) and Senior Infants (5 years); usually attended in the morning until 13.30h or 14.30h.
- Out-of-school Care – a service providing care for school-age children outside school hours, offered in nurseries or commercial playgroups.

5.6.3 Support for social interaction

95. extent of inclusiveness of housing and environmental design (e.g. meeting places, lighting, layout)

The Department of the Environment, Heritage and Local Government is primarily responsible for the formulation and implementation of policy and of legislation in relation to housing and associated standards. For residential area design the Government provides guidelines but responsibility for planning and housing decisions rests with Local Authorities. In practice most planning authorities issue quantitative standards for public open space in their Development Plans. These are represented either as a requirement per person or as a percentage of site area. Most common amongst the requirements are 15/20m² per person or 10-14% of site area. Development plans also include guidelines in relation to road width and footpaths, traditional practice has led to long straight roads in housing estates which encourages excessive speed. Very few plans consider traffic calming or use of grouped car parking.

Current parking standards vary considerably between planning authorities but are generally in the range of 1-2 spaces per dwelling. In general planning authorities in Ireland do not set out detailed guidelines on internal space. These guidelines are important to ensure adequate standards in relation to overall dwelling and individual room sizes. Guidelines issued by the Government to Local Planning Authorities in 1999 state:

“ Firm emphasis must be placed by planning authorities on the importance of qualitative standards in relation to design and layout”...“Local or Action Area Plans should play an important role in setting the framework for the achievement of integrated and balanced communities in development areas providing for schools, social and recreational facilities, local shopping and appropriate employment uses, integrated with housing, roads and the public transport network¹⁶”.

There is also scope for individuals to influence planning in their area. Local Authorities must set out a development plan detailing objectives for the use of particular areas (i.e., residential areas, industrial areas, agricultural areas, etc.). It should also set out local authority objectives for development in the area, road improvements, renewal of obsolete areas and for improving amenities. Individuals can become involved at the initial stage when local authorities publish their intention to review the plan. Individuals can participate at the draft and, if applicable, the amended draft plan stage. At all of these times, within the timeframes allotted, individuals can make observations, submissions and suggestions about the plan.

In relation to social housing, the Department's publication “Design Guidelines for Social Housing” gives guidance on achieving efficient site layout and house design. Approved housing bodies are also required to comply with the terms and conditions of the Technical Guidelines (Part 7) of the Memorandum on the Capital Funding Schemes for Approved Housing Bodies. In 1997, as an attempt

¹⁶ Department of the Environment, Heritage and Local Government (September 1999) Residential Density: Guidelines for Planning Authorities.

to promote local arts and also the quality of construction projects, the Irish Government made a decision that budgets for all capital projects should include 1% as funding for an arts feature, subject to limits..

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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
	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
Education	Security of education	22. Proportion of pupils leaving education without finishing compulsory education (early school leavers) 23. Study fees as proportion of national mean net wage
	Quality of education	24. Proportion of students who, within a year of leaving school with or without certificate, are able to find employment

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

Indicators of Social Cohesion

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

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

Indicators of Social Inclusion

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

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

Indicators of Social Empowerment

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

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

Annex Collective data

1. Socio-economic security

Domain: Financial resources

Sub-domain: Income security

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

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

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

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

Source: Eurostat; free data, social cohesion

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

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

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

Source: Eurostat; free data, social cohesion

Domain: Housing and environment

Sub-domain: Housing conditions

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

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

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

Source: Eurostat 2003, Living conditions in Europe

Domain: Health and care

Sub-Domain: Health services

11. Number of medical doctors per 100.000 inhabitants

Number of practitioners per 100 000 inhabitants

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

Source: Eurostat, Yearbook 2003

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

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

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

Source: Eurobarometer 52.1

Domain: Work

Sub-domain: Employment security

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

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

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

Source: Eurostat; Statistics in Focus

Sub-domain: Working conditions

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

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

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

Source: Eurostat; Statistics in Focus

Evolution of the accidents at work, 1998 = 100

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

p) provisional value

b) break in series

Source: Eurostat, free data, employment

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

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

Source: Eurostat 2003; Living conditions in Europe

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

Hours worked per week of full time employment

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

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

Domain: Education

Sub-domain: Security of education

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

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

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

p) provisional value

b) break in series

Source: Eurostat SC053 IV.5.1

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

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

p) provisional value

b) break in series

Source: Eurostat SC053 IV.5.1-2

2. Social cohesion

Domain: Trust

Sub-domain: Generalised trust

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Source: European Social Survey (ESS) 2002

Sub-domain: Specific trust

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

Trust in different institutions in European countries 2002/2003

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

Source: European Social Survey 2002.

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

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

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

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

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

Domain: Other integrative norms and values

Sub-domain: Altruism

29. Volunteering: number of hours per week

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

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

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

30. Blood donation

Blood donation (%), 2002

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

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

Sub-domain: Tolerance

31. Views on immigration, pluralism and multiculturalism

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

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

Source: European Values Survey 1999/2000, Q74

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

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

Source: European Values Survey 1999/2000, Q75

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

Typology of people according to their attitudes towards minorities

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

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

Source: Eurobarometer 2000 survey

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

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

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

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

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

Sub-domain: Social contract

33. Beliefs on causes of poverty: individual or structural

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

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

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

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

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

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

Source: European Social Survey 2002/2003

Proportion of population which belongs to....

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

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

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

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

40. Frequency of contact with friends and colleagues

Frequency of spending time with friends

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

Source: European Social Survey (Q6A)

Frequency of spending time with colleagues

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

Source: European Social Survey (Q6B)

Domain: Identity

Sub-domain: National / European pride

41. Sense of national pride

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

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

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

Sense of national pride

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

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

Sub-domain: Regional / community / local identity

43. Sense of regional / community / local identity

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

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

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

3. Social inclusion

Domain: Citizenship rights

Sub-domain: Constitutional / political rights

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

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

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

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

Sub-domain: Social rights

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

Gender pay gap

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

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

Source: Eurostat; free data, employment

Earnings of men and women

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

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

Note: The share refers to full-time earnings.

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

Sub-domain: Economic and political networks

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

Proportion of women in national governments and parliaments, 2001

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

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

Domain: Labour market

Sub-domain: Access to paid employment

53. Long-term unemployment (12+ months)

Total long-term unemployment

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

Source: Eurostat;; free data, social cohesion

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

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

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

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

Source: Eurostat; free data, social cohesion

Domain: Social networks

Sub-domain: Neighbourhood participation

67. Proportion in regular contact with neighbours

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

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

Source: Eurostat 2003, Living conditions in Europe

Sub-domain: Friendships

68. Proportion in regular contact with friends

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

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

Source: Eurostat 2003, Living conditions in Europe

4. Social Empowerment

Domain: Knowledge base

Sub-domain: Availability of information

73. Per cent of population literate and numerate

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

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

Source: PISA2000; Adult Literacy Survey, 1994-98

75. Access to internet

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

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

Source: European Social Survey, 2002/2003

Domain: Labour market

Sub-domain: Prospects of job mobility

80. % of employed labour force receiving work based training

Continuing vocational training (CVT) in enterprises (1999)

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

Source: Eurostat 2003, Living conditions in Europe

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

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

Source: Eurostat 2002, Statistics in Focus

Annex Social Quality theory

1 Introduction

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

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

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

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

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

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

2.1 The Foundation's second book as point of departure

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

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

2.2 The challenge of the Network Indicators

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

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

3 Some aspects of the theory and its indicators

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

3.1 The reciprocity between structure and action

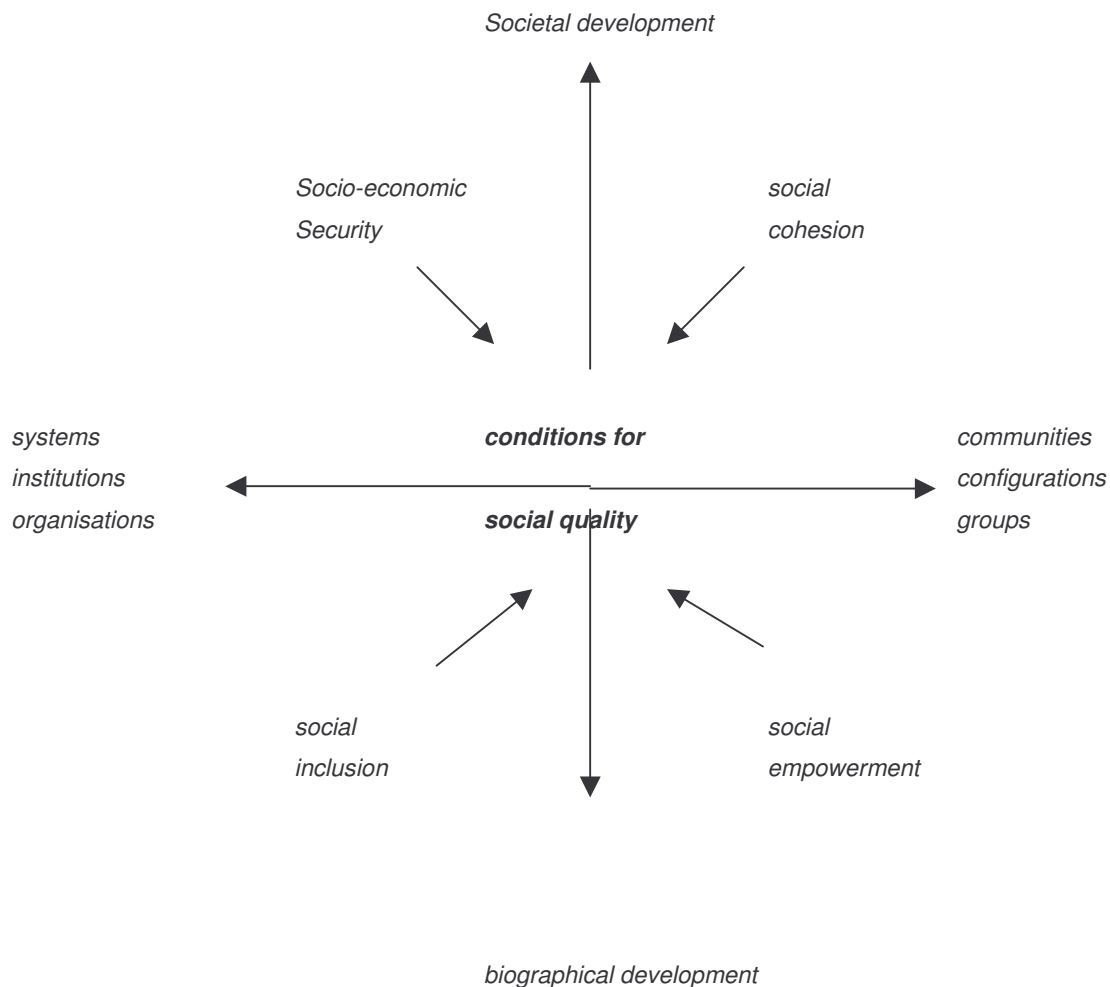
A fundamental problem of any comprehensive theoretical approach is to grasp the structural and dialectical interdependence of what Emile Durkheim called 'social facts'. The reason for mentioning Durkheim here is that in his definition of 'social facts' he explicitly showed the supposed independence of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

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

3.2 The four conditional factors

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

Figure-1 The quadrangle of the conditional factors



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

3.3 A referral to the four constitutional factors

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

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

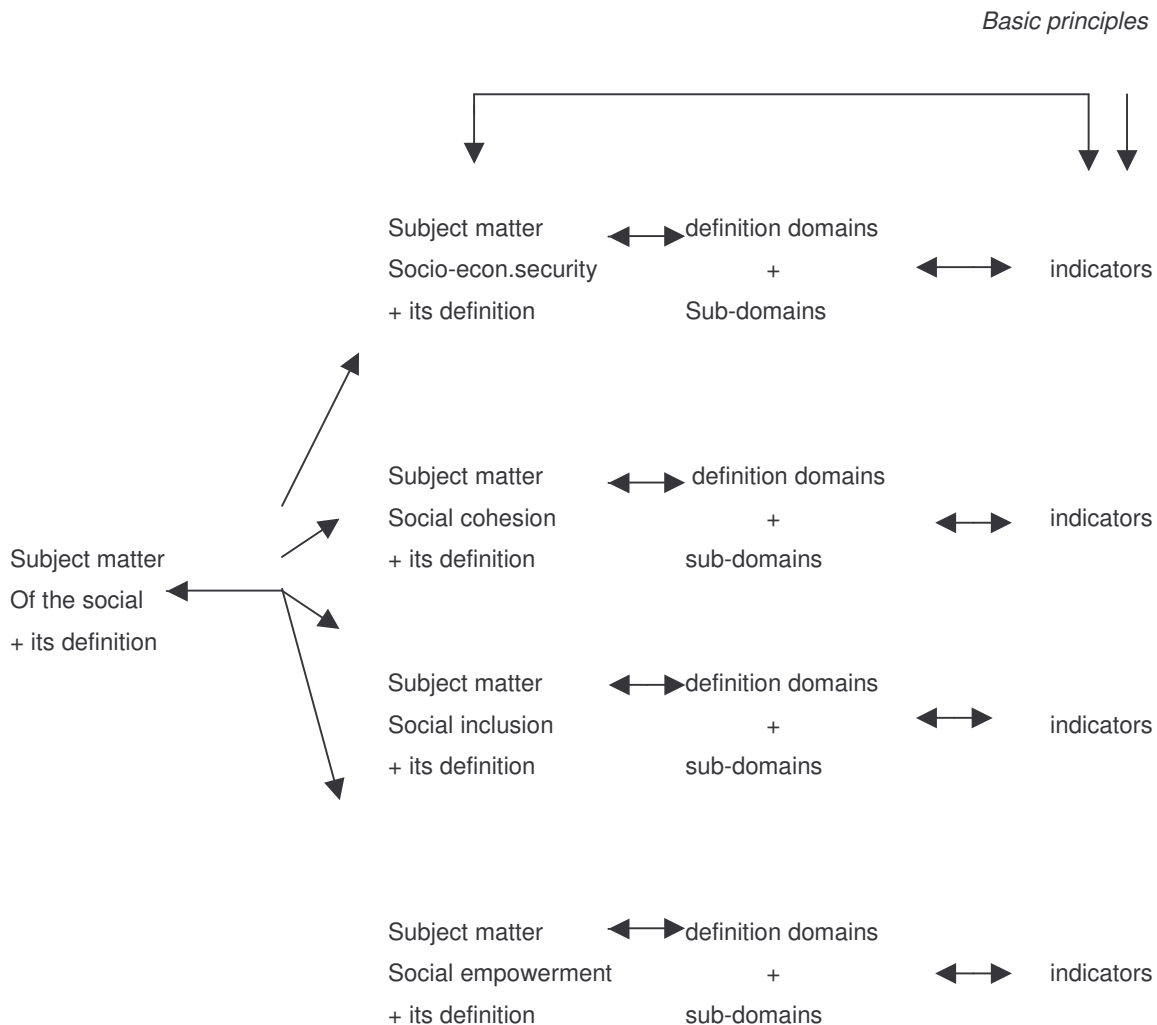
This theme is presented for the first time in the Foundation's second book of January 2001 and will be elaborated in the Foundation's third book. The relationship between the constitutional factors and the conditional factors – theoretically and practically – will be analysed. For the European Network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

4 The national reports about the indicators of social quality

4.1 The steps made by the network

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

Figure-2 Determination of related concepts

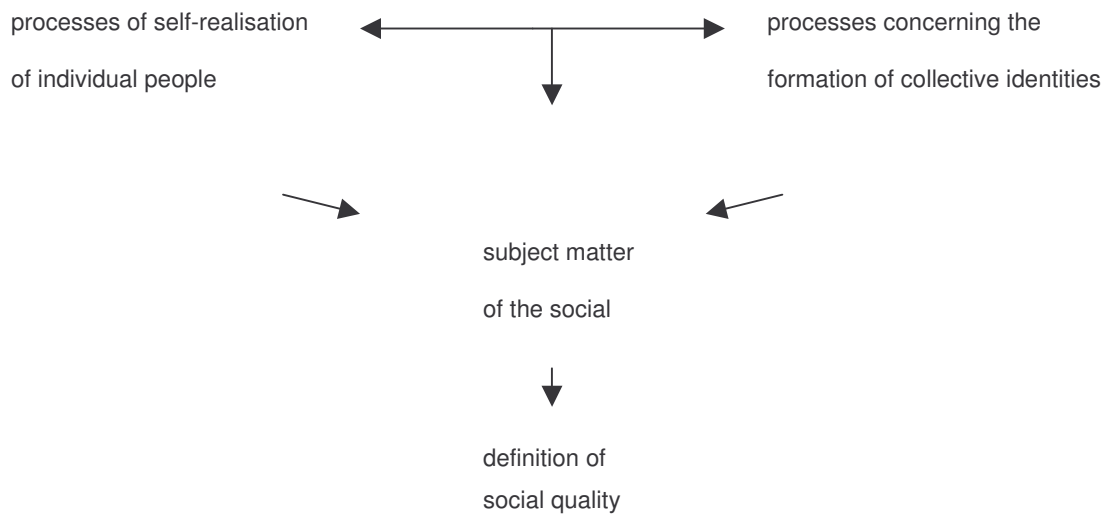


4.2 The definitions of the four conditional factors

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

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

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



The herewith related definitions of the four conditional factors are:

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

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

5 Conclusions

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

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