

European Network Indicators of Social Quality  
- ENIQ -

“Social Quality”  
The Italian National Report

by  
Prof. dr Chiara Saraceno, Dr Ester Cois  
& Dr Susanna Terracina

University of Torino  
Department of Social Sciences

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## *European Foundation on Social Quality*

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

*Felix Meritis Building*

*Keizersgracht 324*

*1016 EZ Amsterdam*

*Ph: +31 20 626 2321*

*Fax: +31 20 624 9368*

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

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



## **Preface**

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

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

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

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

Alan Walker, Chair of ENIQ

Laurent van der Maesen, Co-ordinator of ENIQ



## Participants

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





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# 1 Introduction

Within Europe, Italy exhibits one of the highest levels of internal, regional, heterogeneity not only from an orographic and climatic point of view (with the ensuing differences in experiences and needs – e.g. in transportation, in access to essential services etc.), but also across many social indicators: e.g. PIL per capita, per capita income, incidence and intensity of poverty, unemployment rates, women's activity and employment rates, age structure of the population, fertility patterns, marriage patterns (age at marriage, marriage rates), marriage instability rates, presence and size of volunteer activities and of non profit enterprises, coverage rates in services for very young children, incidence of full day schools and of after school activities and so forth.

These differences are at the same time long standing (so much so that a research tradition has developed looking at regional diversities as veritable social formations – see e.g. Bagnasco 1977), and not fixed. Thus, for instance, it would be much more difficult today than fifteen-twenty years ago to speak of “the South” as an homogeneous social formation, given the growing differences which may be found between, let's say Sicily and Puglia. And even the so called “third Italy” – using a fortunate and famous expression introduced by Bagnasco (1977) to indicate those Central-North East Regions where “industrial districts” developed in the seventies, linking contiguous local communities at the productive and economic level on the basis of consolidated patterns of family culture, land ownership, professional history, political traditions –has become more diverse and possibly also less of a success story than when it was first identified.

Yet, the persistence of these diversities indicate that we are in the presence of institutional and economic, as well as cultural path dependencies which frame the understanding of priorities as well as the developing of their solution. From this point of view, there are quite different objective and subjective social quality circumstances across Italy, as there are local political and socio-economic societies.

The lack, for many years, of a national framework law in the field of social policies has further strengthened these diversities, overlapping with, but also partly articulating the diversity of political traditions. The result is that local welfare regimes might be as different across Italy as they are at the national level across Europe, offering, but also testifying, different degrees and understandings of what citizenship is about. Differences (and inequalities) in local societies interact with “standard” differences (and inequalities) such as those deriving from social class, gender, ethnicity, and autochthonous or migrant status - sometime strengthening and sometime weakening them.

The tardiness with which such a law was eventually approved (law n. 328/2000), its complexity together with its not fully clear funding, its weakening following, first, the approval of a Constitutional reform which weakened the role of the central government in setting standards and, second, the little interest of the new government coalition in implementing this law, together with the presence of high budget constrain. All these factors have not helped in reducing the range of variation at least in basic items and rights, while to some degree putting pressure on “best practice local governments” and/or local education, health, or social services to lower their standards in the face of reduced resources.

These differences also frame, but also render problematic, how social quality is constructed, but also understood, at the national level. They also frame to a large degree how, and whether, shared understandings develop at the national level with regard to policy priorities and policy solutions. Thus, for instance, the high concentration of poverty in the South, where there is also a weaker tradition of local social policy and on average a lower professionalised administrative bureaucracy, while it renders more evident, to some degree problematic, the existence of great economic inequalities in this country, renders also less politically problematic (and also totally absent from the public discourse) the absence of a national anti-poverty policy and the lack of a minimum income guarantee: it may be perceived as “just a Southern problem”. Further, precisely the concentration of poverty in the Regions in which clientelism and administrative inefficiency are or have been in the past widespread, may – and has been – used as an alibi for not devising national policies in this field. In a period, as the past 20-15 years, during which localism and regionalism have become more outspoken, there are trends towards increasing federalism and resentment against redistribution across Regions, such a measure may be perceived, and campaigned against, as just another example of waste and of re-distribution from the “working North” towards the “lazy or inefficient, or cheating South”. Trends in the conditions of social quality, therefore, must be read against this background.

In this report we highlight the main features of each conditional factor with regard to the Italian situation, taking into account regional differences and gender differences as well as a European comparative perspective. Where it has been possible, we have considered the trends over time in the last 10 years, since data concerning one point in time cannot be easily interpreted. We also point out what proposed indicators we consider little relevant, misleading, misplaced, or unfocused, and viceversa what indicators, or subject matter, we consider relevant from a social quality perspective, are missing.

## **2 Socio-economic Security**

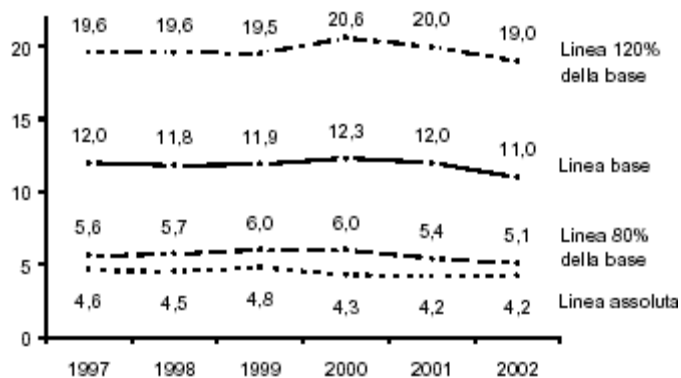
### **2.1 Introduction**

For the purposes of this report socio-economic security is intended to mean the necessary material and other resources which are available for the enhancement of the interaction of individual people as social beings. In order to properly address this, a life course perspective and longitudinal data are necessary. Actually one might even argue that this perspective is crucial to a social quality approach overall. Also, the tension between an individual and a household approach must be addressed. Material circumstances in fact are to a large degree mediated by household membership and household characteristics. But assumptions concerning sharing and redistribution within households are often quite abstract (and empirically undemonstrated). Further, even when sharing and redistribution occur, different household members may have a different “hold” on the resources available. Social policies themselves may incentive behaviours which promote a differential access not only to income but to social protection by household members. For instance in Italy the design of family allowances disincentive wives in low income households with two or more children from working in the (official) labour market. Thus they do not earn an own old age pension and must rely only on their husband pension and on a survivor pension if and when they become widows. What happens when separation and divorce occur is a good example of a differential control on “shared” resources: even if there was sharing during marriage, when marriage ends each spouse remains with his/her own earning capability which may have been enhanced or on the contrary reduced through marriage). Once again, only longitudinal data over a reasonable period of time may help assess the actual “hold” on resources over the life course and over different household circumstances. ECHP data are a starting point, but the observation window is too short (and the sample too small to allow to keep under control social as well as regional differences). Given the lack of adequate longitudinal data, our analysis will be mainly based on cross-section data, a limitation to be taken account of.

## 2.2 Financial resources

At the aggregate level the distribution of income and consumption has remained fairly, and even surprisingly, stable since the mid-nineties, notwithstanding important changes in labour market patterns (growth of atypical job contracts), in the fiscal system, in the pension system and more generally in the Italian economy (Brandolini 2004). Fig.1 shows this on the basis of ISTAT data on consumption and of ISTAT/Poverty Commission definition of poverty as involving those who have an equivalised income below 50% of the mean. Also the equivalence scale is that used by ISTAT/Poverty Commission, which is different from that used by EUROSTAT.<sup>1</sup>

Figure 1 Incidence of poverty. Years 1997-2002



Source: ISTAT "La stima ufficiale della povertà in Italia, 1997-2000", n. 24, 2002, ISTAT "La povertà in Italia nel 2001", Note rapide, n. 2, 2002. ISTAT "La povertà in Italia nel 2002", Note Rapide, n. 2, 2003. Brandolini 2004.

From top: 120% of poverty line; poverty line; 80% of poverty line; absolute poverty line.

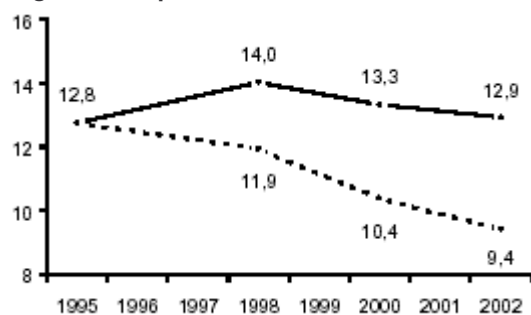
Also data on income, based on Bank of Italy surveys, show the same stability. Particularly, the proportion of low income households has remained about the same, with some fluctuation over the years, as indicated in fig. 2.

<sup>1</sup> Comparing the different methodologies of measuring the risk of poverty, in ITALY for the Year 1999 on the basis of national methodology/ Consumption data (a) is 13,1 %, EU methodology Consumption data (b) is 17,3 % and EU methodology/ Income data (b) is 18,4%. (Source: ISTAT, ECHP, UDB 1-5, for income data, Survey on Household Consumption for consumption data).

Notes: (a) The poverty threshold is defined for a household of two persons as being equal to the *mean* per capita consumption of the population. The equivalence scale used is the so-called "Carbonaro scale", which takes into account only the number and not the age of the members, according to the following coefficients: 0.60 (1-member household), 1.00 (2 members.), 1.33 (3 members), 1.63 (4 members), 1.90 (5 members), 2.16 (6 members), 2.40 (7 or more members). (b) The poverty threshold is calculated as 60% of the *median* equivalised net income of the population. The equivalence scale used is that known as the "modified OECD scale", that assigns the following weights: 1.0 to the first adult, 0.5 to other persons over 14 living in the household and 0.3 to persons under 14. (Source: Ministero del lavoro e delle politiche sociali (2003)).



**Figure 2 Proportion of low income households. Years 1995-2002**



Notes: the dotted line takes as a reference point 1995 mean income, only adjusting it for inflation. The continuous line takes as reference point mean income at each year.

Source: Brandolini 2004, on the basis of Banca d'Italia, *Indagini sui bilanci delle famiglie italiane*, various years.

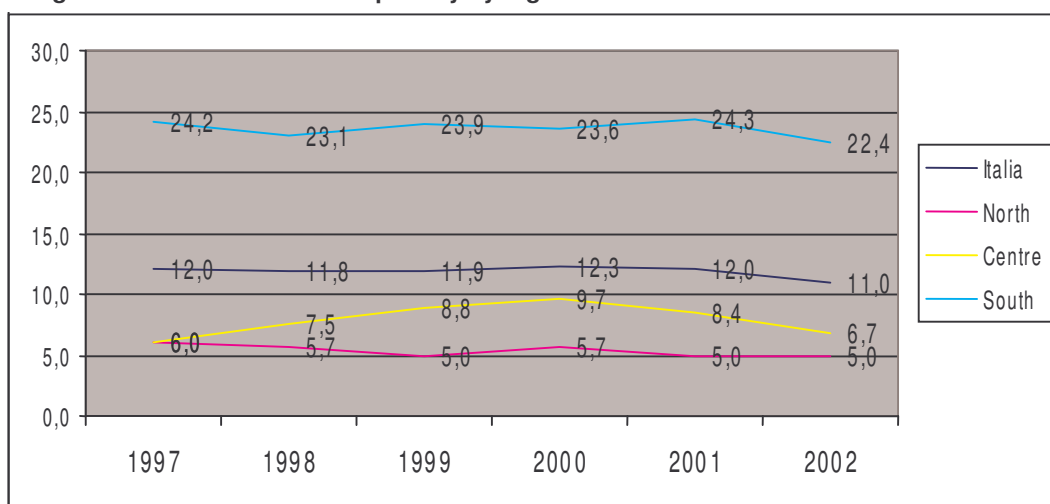
Also the geographical pattern of distribution of poverty has remained substantially the same over the period, as indicated in tab. 1, with a high concentration in Southern Regions, where 66% of all the poor live.

**Table 1 Relative poverty by regional areas. Year 1997- 2002 (incidence %)**

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Italy	12,0	11,8	11,9	12,3	12,0	11,0
North	6,0	5,7	5,0	5,7	5,0	5,0
Center	6,0	7,5	8,8	9,7	8,4	6,7
South	24,2	23,1	23,9	23,6	24,3	22,4

Source: ISTAT, Consumption Survey. Year 2002.

**Figure 3 Incidence of relative poverty by regional area. Years 1997-2002.**



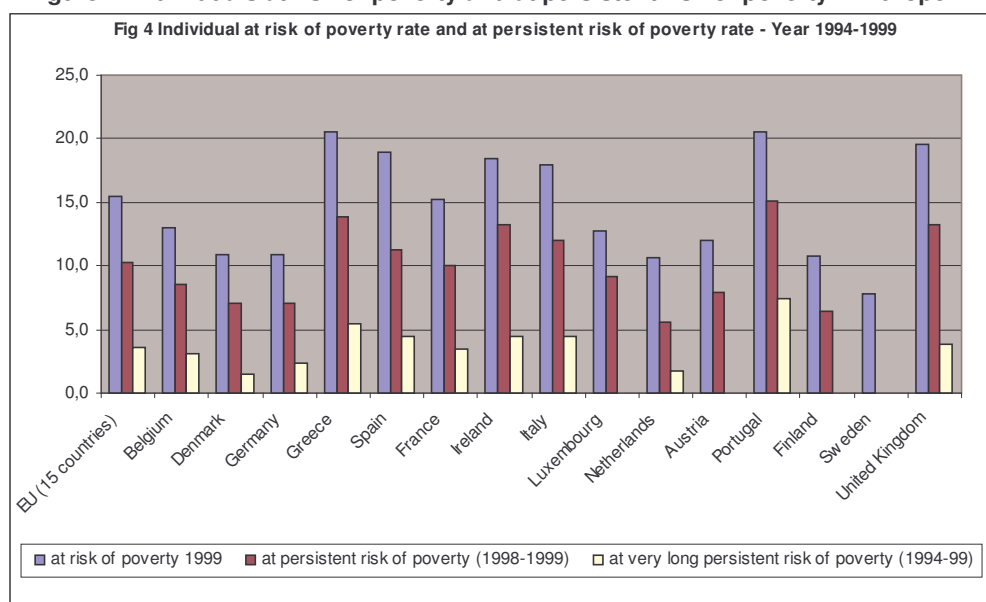
Source: ISTAT, Consumption Survey. Years 1997-2002.

In a comparative perspective, Italy is among the six EU15 countries with the highest incidence of poverty, and the highest rate of persistence of poverty.

**Table 2 At Risk of Poverty Rate in Europe. Individuals - Years 1994-1999.**

	at risk of poverty 1999	at persistent risk of poverty (1998-1999)	At very long persistent risk of poverty (1994-99)
EU (15 countries)	15,5	10,3	3,6
Belgium	13,0	8,5	3,1
Denmark	10,9	7,0	1,5
Germany	10,9	7,1	2,3
Greece	20,5	13,8	5,4
Spain	18,9	11,3	4,4
France	15,2	10,0	3,5
Ireland	18,5	13,2	4,5
Italy	18,0	12,0	4,5
Luxembourg	12,8	9,2	-
Netherlands	10,7	5,6	1,7
Austria	12,0	7,9	-
Portugal	20,5	15,1	7,4
Finland	10,8	6,4	-
Sweden	7,8		
United Kingdom	19,5	13,2	3,8

**Figure 4 Individuals at risk of poverty and at persistent risk of poverty in Europe - Years 1994-1999.**



Source: elaboration on ISTAT (2004a) La situazione Finanziaria delle famiglie. ECHP Data 1999-2000.

Note: Sweden has no panel data.

**Table 3 Individuals at risk of poverty by household type in Europe - Years 1998-1999 (for 100 individuals)**

HOUSEHOLD TYPE	A	BE	DK	FI	FR	DE	EL	IR
<b>1998</b>								
Single person < 65	15,7	16,8	27,2	30,1	22,9	23,1	23,6	32,2
Single person > 64	31,8	26,1	45,2	33,5	24,9	20,1	41,2	69,1
Single-parent family	17,2	25,4	15,6	8,2	26,4	35,2	17,9	21,6
Couple without children (one person > 64 )	18,6	24,7	29,9	3,4	13,8	7,2	38,3	22,2
Couple without children (both person < 65 )	6,1	7,6	5,9	5,8	9,6	6,4	15,5	10,7
Couple with 1 child (< 16)	10,5	5,1	4,3	3,7	9,6	6,8	7,0	18,5
Couple with 2 children or more (< 16)	13,7	11,0	1,7	3,3	13,2	8,8	14,4	19,7
Couple with children (at less one > 15)	9,5	12,4	8,8	4,4	12,2	9,4	17,6	14,1
Others	12,1	18,7	8,9	8,8	22,3	4,0	29,4	13,6
Total	12,9	14,3	11,9	9,3	14,7	11,4	20,8	19,2
<b>1999</b>								
Single person < 65	16,1	14,5	26,7	30,4	20,0	20,0	19,7	29,6
Single person > 64	38,1	24,9	42,0	33,4	26,9	18,6	34,7	69,3
Single-parent family	14,9	25,8	19,5	9,8	25,6	34,1	20,5	21,5
Couple without children (one person > 64 )	17,5	22,3	25,5	6,3	15,2	6,4	38,1	29,4
Couple without children (both person < 65 )	5,1	9,4	5,1	6,1	10,5	5,7	16,9	9,8
Couple with 1 child (< 16)	7,9	6,9	.	4,0	7,4	7,7	8,3	12,0
Couple with 2 children or more (< 16)	13,8	7,3	2,7	3,9	14,5	10,5	15,7	17,5
Couple with children (at least one > 15)	7,5	11,4	7,6	8,1	12,7	8,5	17,0	13,2
Others	9,8	15,6	12,4	11,6	21,0	3,5	26,6	16,5
Total	12,0	13,0	10,9	10,8	15,2	10,9	20,5	18,5

**Table 3 (continued)**

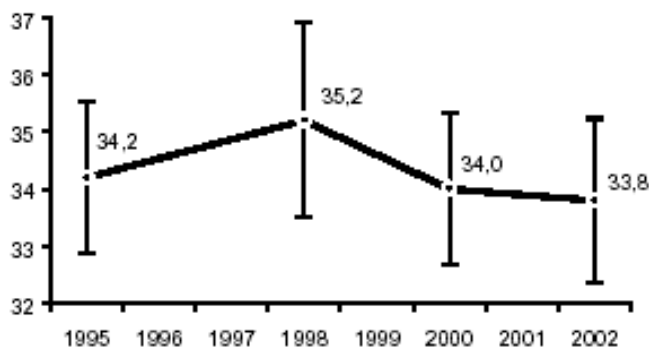
HOUSEHOLD TYPE	IT	LU	NL	P	UK	ES	S	UE
<b>1998</b>								
Single person < 65	15,2	8,5	18,2	29,4	22,9	14,0	22,8	21,8
Single person > 64	25,9	16,2	4,2	52,5	36,0	11,2	13,0	25,8
Single-parent family	21,2	19,7	32,8	31,1	44,5	20,5	19,1	30,1
Couple without children (one person > 64 )	12,2	7,3	2,8	42,6	17,3	22	2,9	14,5
Couple without children (both person < 65 )	9,9	6,9	3,2	15,3	7,0	11,9	4,4	7,6
Couple with 1 child (< 16)	12,0	8,8	7,6	9,5	8,0	13,5	5,6	9,0
Couple with 2 children or more (< 16)	19,8	18,3	9,2	21,5	22,2	23,5	8,0	15,2
Couple with children (at least one > 15)	20,0	9,6	12,6	14,6	9,1	18,5	8,0	13,8
Others	15,0	15,2	20,0	21,4	18,9	15,5	21,8	15,3
Total	17,8	12,4	10,2	20,8	19,0	18,2	10,4	15,4
<b>1999</b>								
Single person < 65	13,8	13,2	16,6	29,4	24,2	16,4	20,4	20,2
Single person > 64	22,7	.	8,6	51,8	31,5	12,4	15,7	24,5
Single-parent family	18,1	17,6	33,0	22,4	38,6	20,9	17,0	27,6
Couple without children (one person > 64 )	9,2	7,1	5,7	38,4	14,0	25,2	2,8	13,8
Couple without children (both person < 65 )	9,6	4,8	3,8	10,7	7,3	11,9	4,5	7,6
Couple with 1 child (< 16)	11,8	9,3	8,1	14,6	11,9	12,8	4,6	9,3
Couple with 2 children or more (< 16)	20,5	18,6	8,2	20,7	24,1	24,2	7,3	16,0
Couple with children (at least one > 15)	21,2	12,1	12,4	15,2	11,1	18,1	7,3	14,0
Others	17,0	14,1	16,8	23,0	27,0	18,2	.	17,0
Total	18,0	12,7	10,7	20,5	19,4	18,9	9,5	15,5

Source: ISTAT ,La situazione finanziaria delle famiglie. Dati ECHP 1994-1999, 2004.

The Poverty Commission in the 2001 report (Commissione di Indagine sulla esclusione sociale 2002) signalled that families with two or more children are more likely both to be poor, and to remain poor longer than childless families and families with one child only. The risk drops by about two thirds when both parents are employed, signalling that access by women-mothers to own income is a crucial asset not only for them, but for their families and particularly their children. Contrary to what occurs in most European countries, separation seems not to produce a greater risk of poverty in Italy, in so far lone mother households are not over-represented among the poor. This is to a large degree due to the specific characteristics of lone motherhood and marital instability in this country: most lone mothers are separated/divorced or widows, that is they were previously in a marriage; dual worker couples of the middle-high classes are over-represented among those who separate and divorce, although this is changing in the Center North.

Finally, also the overall equivalent income distribution has remained fairly stable over this entire period, as indicated in fig. 5.

**Figure 5 Inequality of disposable equivalent incomes. Years 1995-2002**



Source: Brandolini 2004, on the basis of Banca d'Italia, Indagini sui bilanci familiari, various years.

This stability at the aggregate level, however, contrasts with the experience of the previous decade, when income dynamics were greater and household disposable income on average increased. This phenomenon may explain the recent widespread feeling of a general impoverishment of the middle classes: their perspectives of a financial improvement for themselves and their children are much more reduced than ten-fifteen years ago. A feeling strengthened by a perceived insecurity in the labour market conditions, although the unemployment rate has decreased and for the first time is below 10%. Also, the middle classes formed by employees experience a deterioration of their income and wealth position relative to the managerial classes. While the latter since 2000 have greatly improved their situation, the former, together with the blue collar workers, have remained fairly stable, while the pensioners have improved slightly their circumstances (Banca d'Italia 2004, Brandolini 2004). Particularly according to ISTAT's evaluations (ISTAT 2003e: p. 176) between 1993 and 2001, controlling for inflation the per capita income deriving from wages has declined by 3,4% in Italy, while in the UK increased by 17,8%, in France by 7,4%, in Germany by 0,9%. Thus the middle class – particularly that deriving its income from wages – is experiencing a relative loss of status.

Data on patterns of consumption must be read against this background (see tab. 4) As expected, the incidence of food expenditure is much higher among the poor than the non poor, while overall housing expenses are lower. There are also differences in health expenditure, but they are less meaningful. In Italy there is a universal national health service and the poor are generally exempted from health charges. However, given their lack of resources, they cannot have recourse to private health services in order to offset long waiting lists or to obtain services (e.g. dentist) which are not provided by the public service.

**Table 4 Average monthly household's consumption expenditure by expenditure items. Poor and non-poor households. % on total expenditure- Year 2001.**

	Food	Health	Clothing/ shoes	Housing	Housing- energy	Housing- Furniture
<b>Non Poor*</b>						
Single person < 65	15,6	2,5	6,7	27,8	4,3	5,7
Single person > 64	21,2	5,5	4,5	37,1	6,5	6,0
Couple with r.p.* < 65	16,0	3,5	6,9	23,0	4,4	7,7
Couple with r.p.* > 64	21,6	5,4	5,1	29,5	5,6	7,2
Couple with 1 child	17,5	3,5	7,5	21,5	4,4	7,2
Couple with 2 children	18,3	3,4	8,3	18,9	4,0	7,3
Couple with 3 o more children	20,4	2,9	8,9	17,2	4,1	6,8
Single-parent family	19,0	4,3	7,0	22,7	4,9	6,3
Others	18,5	4,0	6,6	21,0	4,7	8,1
Total	18,3	3,7	7,1	23,2	4,6	7,0
<b>At risk of poverty*</b>						
Single person < 65	29,7	2,5	2,1	39,1	6,7	2,5
Single person > 64	33,3	3,9	2,2	38,2	9,1	3,0
Couple with r.p. < 65	30,4	2,0	2,7	31,2	7,0	3,3
Couple with r.p. > 64	32,7	3,8	2,4	33,9	8,3	3,4
Couple with 1 child	30,5	2,4	4,3	26,8	6,6	3,3
Couple with 2 children	29,8	1,7	5,7	25,2	5,9	3,2
Couple with 3 o more children	31,5	1,6	5,8	21,8	6,5	3,5
Single-parent family	30,2	2,1	3,1	32,4	7,2	3,0
Others	31,8	2,6	4,5	26,3	6,9	3,4
Total	31,1	2,3	4,4	27,8	6,9	3,3

Source: ISTAT, Consumption Survey. Year 2001 \*on the basis of the Italian standard poverty line.

Excluding pensions, social transfers in Italy are scarce and fragmented. They are also inefficacious in protecting from poverty as shown in tab. 5 and indicator 3 in the Annex. The data concerning the proportion of the total population receiving means-tested benefits are very partial and should be read with caution. The variety, fragmentation, and heterogeneity in the forms of delivery as well as of the public body responsible for it, render it difficult to detect all those who receive such benefits (particularly in the case of minimum income benefits, which are always local). It is likely that survey data under-represent them. Thus this indicator, conceptually and policy-wise important, cannot be really constructed in Italy, with the partial exception of the elderly and the disabled receiving the social assistance pension or indemnity. Of course, this situation points to a lack of clear rules, and in the

case of minimum income provision of clear entitlement in the presence of great local variation and discretion, which certainly affects the quality of life of individuals and households involved.

**Table 5 At risk of poverty rate before and after social transfers, including and excluding pensions in Italy (Variable of reference: income) – Years 1998 and 1999 (in percentage).**

	Before transfers (pensions + social transfers)		Before social transfers (excluding pensions)		After transfers	
	1998	1999	1998	1999	1998	1999
Geog. area						
North	31.3	31.4	8.5	7.7	6.7	6.4
Center	36.7	40.8	15.3	16.5	11.8	13.7
South + Isl.	54.2	55.1	38.4	38.8	34.7	35.1
Age group						
0-15	27.3	30.8	24.2	27.2	22.2	25.0
16-24	37.1	36.4	28.3	27.5	24.9	24.8
25-49	27.1	28.5	19.1	19.8	16.9	17.8
50-64	46.2	46.1	18.9	18.1	15.8	15.4
65+	79.9	80.9	18.7	16.7	14.5	13.2
Total	40.8	42.0	20.9	20.9	18.0	18.4

Source: ISTAT, European Household Panel, udb 1-7. Years 1999-2000.

## 2.3 Housing and environment

In Italy over 70% of families own their own housing, although there are rural/urban differences and the tenancy rate is higher in larger cities. Housing policies have always supported buying. On the contrary the social housing sector is very residual and under funded. In the past fifteen years, moreover, social housing has been used to contrast emergencies, rather than supporting low income households. As a consequence, a large number of low income households must resort to the private renting market. According to the ISTAT Survey on Consumption, 36,9% of rented lodgings are under a contract in the framework of a with rent control policy.

As shown in tab. 6 the incidence of poverty is about double among tenants compared to home-owners, whether we use consumption or income.

**Table 6 Poverty rate by tenure status. Variables of reference: income and consumption – Years 1998, 1999 for income and 1999, 2001, 2002 for consumption (in percentage).**

	Income*		Consumption**		
	1998	1999	1999	2001	2002
Own-home or life tenancy	15.6	15.2	11.2	11.2	10.0
Rent-free or accommodation provided	24.7	26.2			
Tenancy or sub-tenancy	26.0	30.1	21.5	24.5	23.7
Total	18.0	18.4	13.1	13.6	12.4

Source: \*ISTAT, European Household Panel, udb 1-7. Years 1999-2000, for income data; \*\*ISTAT, Survey on Household Consumption, for consumption data.

Households in social housing *de facto* may not be evicted. This renders their situation very secure, irrespective of changes in their economic circumstances; but it also further restricts the available social housing for potential new entrants (Olagnero 2002). Evictions are very difficult in general, and take a very long time, therefore rendering home-owners very cautious in letting, thus further restricting the housing market, particularly for “risky renters” (low income people, people with insecure income, immigrants). Some municipality in recent years is developing a kind of standard contract with incentives to those who let to low income household, at the same time offering a financial guarantee against damages.

Whether they own their lodging or not, 53% of Italian households in 2000 complained that the housing costs were too high. This percentage increased since the mid-nineties.

In 2002 housing provided an average 10,4 meters per capita. Overcrowding involved a quarter of all households in 1994 and still 20% in 2000, with substantial regional differences which see Southern households (which are also on average larger) having more problems (see tab 7). In 1999, within the EU15 Italy was the second Country, after Greece, with the highest incidence of households declaring overcrowding. The incidence was greater for poor households.

As shown in data in the annex (see indicator 7), the percentage of population in Italy with lack of functioning amenities is lower than in other Mediterranean countries and the EU15 average, but higher than in the Continental and Northern countries.

The proposed indicator relative to number of people or families hosted in other households is interesting; but it must not be confused with the number of multiple or extended households, which is a specific pattern of family formation. Unfortunately we don't have data or estimates on the former.

**Table 7 Individuals declaring problems in housing conditions by geographical area - Years 1994, 1999, 2000 (in percentage).**

	1994				1999				2000			
	North	Center	South	Italy	North	Center	South	Italy	North	Center	South	Italy
Lack of space	20.0	23.3	32.8	25.3	15.3	19.7	27.0	20.5	16.3	16.9	26.2	20.1
Street noise	28.9	28.7	34.5	30.9	34.2	31.1	36.7	34.5	34.5	29.4	34.5	33.5
Ill-lit, dark house	7.7	10.1	17.1	11.5	7.4	12.7	14.1	10.9	8.3	13.3	12.9	11.0
Leaks from roof	6.0	6.7	11.4	8.1	2.8	3.6	5.4	3.9	3.1	3.9	5.3	4.1
Rising damp in walls, basement, foundations	5.9	7.2	9.8	7.6	7.6	7.7	10.0	8.5	6.7	7.9	9.6	8.0
Cracks in window-frames, floor	6.4	7.1	9.7	7.7	3.1	3.6	6.5	4.5	2.9	3.3	4.8	3.7

Source: ISTAT, European Household Panel, udb 1-7.

With regard to exposition to criminal offence, data from surveys on victimization indicate that crimes against households and property are more numerous than those against persons, as shown in tab. 8. They are particularly numerous in larger cities. On 10.000 inhabitants 0,186 families have been victim of a crime in Italy. The majority of crimes concerns car stealing and stealing from cars. Since 1997/98 there has been a decrease of crimes against property and an increase of crimes against persons (ISTAT 2003a)

**Table 8 Individuals and households victims of at least one crime against person or family in the last 12 months, by geographical area and city dimension – Year 2002 (for 10.000 individuals and 10.000 families).**

	Crime against individual property (a)	Violent crime (b)	Tot. Crimes against person (a+b)	Crime against family and house (d)	Crime against vehicles (e)	Tot. crimes against family (d+e)
North-west	0,049	0,009	0,056	0,056	0,151	0,193
North-east	0,042	0,007	0,048	0,055	0,125	0,167
Center	0,047	0,009	0,056	0,063	0,155	0,201
South	0,043	0,013	0,054	0,058	0,147	0,188
Isles	0,028	0,007	0,034	0,058	0,126	0,168
Italy	0,044	0,009	0,052	0,058	0,143	0,186

Note: (a) bag-snatching and attempted bag-snatching, pick pocketing and attempted pick pocketing, theft and attempted theft of personal objects; b) robbery and attempted robbery, aggression; d) theft of objects outdoor the house, theft and attempted theft into the house, abusive entrance, vandalic acts against house; e) theft and attempted theft of vehicles, theft of vehicles parts, theft of objects inside vehicles, vandalic acts against vehicles.

Source: ISTAT Multipurpose Survey. Security of citizens. Year 2002.

ISTAT has a long tradition of survey on issues concerning the perceived quality of housing and local environment. In its annual survey on family and everyday life it asks questions on the housing and environment conditions, including the perception of crime risk. Data are interesting because they are related to the area and neighborhoods where people live. Although the quota of households complaining about some kind of environmental problem is substantial, there has been an improvement since the mid-nineties, which contrasts somewhat with the prevalent public discourse (see tabb. 9-11). Feelings of un-safety increase with the size of the municipality. There is also a strong gender division (ISTAT 2003b). Women feel that their environment is unsafe to a greater degree than men.

**Table 9a Households that declare problems relative to the area in which they live. Years 1993-2002 (per 100 families).**

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Litter in the streets	30,6	29,0	28,8	27,3	26,0	31,5	22,2	32,0	33,8	31,1
Parking difficulties	38,6	40,2	38,1	38,2	37,9	38,0	40,7	38,9	41,6	40,8
Badly connected	31,1	29,0	28,4	28,3	27,8	31,2	32,3	29,7	30,9	29,8
Traffic	48,3	49,8	49,4	48,8	47,3	46,5	49,3	47,6	47,6	48,3
Air Pollution	37,0	41,2	40,8	39,1	38,5	37,1	40,1	39,9	39,9	40,0
Noise (*)				39,2	38,4	34,7	38,3	38,0	38,5	37,8
Crime risk	31,2	30,8	30,9	29,3	29,3	31,3	32,5	30,6	30,8	29,2
Unpleasant smells(*)						20,5	22,0	21,9	21,2	21,7
Ill-lit (*)								36,0	35,2	34,3
Damaged pavements (*)								41,3	43,2	41,0

Source: ISTAT , Multipurpose Survey on Households "Aspects of Everyday Life". Year 2002.

(\*)not asked before in the previous years.



**Table 9b Households that declare problems relative to the area in which they live by geographical area. Years 1998 and 2001 (per 100 families).**

	1998				2001			
	North	Center	South	Italy	North	Center	South	Italy
Litter in the streets	29.1	39.1	30.4	31.5	32.1	38.8	33.2	33.8
Parking difficulties	36.0	40.7	39.1	38.0	38.4	45.3	44.0	41.6
Badly connected	30.4	34.7	30.2	31.2	29.7	30.9	32.6	30.9
Traffic	47.4	50.0	43.0	46.5	47.9	50.5	45.4	47.6
Air Pollution	41.5	38.2	30.0	37.1	44.4	41.0	32.8	39.9
Noise	39.2	38.3	36.0	38.0	36.6	39.7	40.6	38.5
Crime risk	31.2	29.1	32.2	31.1	31.1	31.3	30.2	30.8
Unpleasant smells	20.8	19.0	21.1	20.5	21.8	20.2	20.8	21.2
Ill-lit (*)	35.2	38.5	35.6	36.0	31.6	40.1	37.4	35.2
Damaged pavements (*)	41.2	45.7	38.9	41.3	40.2	47.2	45.1	43.2

Source: ISTAT, Multipurpose Survey on Households "Aspects of Everyday Life". Various Years.

Notes: (\*) years 2000 and 2001

**Table 10 Persons aged 14 and over who witness , often or sometimes, unpleasant behaviors which negatively impact on their environment, by geographical area. Years 1999 and 2001(in percentage).**

	1999				2001			
	North	Center	South	Italy	North	Center	South	Italy
People taking drugs	13.6	13.9	15.7	14.4	11.4	13.0	10.8	11.5
People peddling drugs	8.0	7.7	8.6	8.1	7.3	8.2	6.1	7.0
Syringes laying on the ground	21.4	24.5	21.0	21.9	16.4	21.6	15.0	16.9
Drunk people	24.7	21.6	17.9	21.7	6.8	8.1	5.9	6.7
Beggars	28.6	30.5	25.8	28.0	21.5	25.6	19.1	21.5
Persons sleeping in the street	7.1	10.1	6.2	7.4	6.2	9.6	4.6	6.3
Vandalism	37.9	37.8	37.6	37.8	33.5	36.6	33.6	34.2
Prostitutes	19.3	15.4	6.5	14.0	15.3	12.4	3.9	10.7

Source: ISTAT, Multipurpose Survey on Households "Aspects of Everyday Life". Years 1999, 2001.

**Table 11 Persons aged 14 and over who feel quite unsafe or not at all safe walking alone in the dark in the area in which they live, by geographical area and gender - Years 1999 and 2001 (in percentage).**

	1999				2001			
	North	Center	South	Italy	North	Center	South	Italy
Men	28.1	26.9	35.0	30.3	25.4	26.1	31.9	27.8
Women	44.7	45.0	46.8	45.5	39.9	41.7	43.1	41.4
Total	36.7	36.3	41.1	38.2	32.9	34.2	37.7	34.8

Source: ISTAT, Multipurpose Survey on Households "Aspects of Everyday Life". Years 1999, 2001.

Looking at data on pollution, the trend in main air pollution factors, between 1994 and 1998, in eight important Italian cities, with a population of at least 400,000 inhabitants (Turin, Genoa, Milan, Bologna, Florence, Rome, Naples and Palermo) has been analysed by ANPA (2003)<sup>2</sup>, in order to assess the impact of pollution on health. In particular, some data seem interesting: concentration of PM10, sort of

<sup>2</sup> ANPA is a Study-Center aimed at collecting and processing data about environmental issues, within the frame of the World Health Organisation.

dust smaller than 10 micron, has exceeded the threshold set to 40 micrograms/ m<sup>3</sup> in all the cities examined. Traffic is the main cause of this concentration in all cities (or examples in Naples and Palermo, where traffic can explain 90% of this form of air pollution) but Genoa, where the cause is mainly industrial pollution.

Legambiente (2003a)<sup>3</sup> has examined the urban ecosystem every year in 103 Italian cities, in order to measure air quality by two indicators: the yearly average concentration of NO<sub>2</sub> and the number of overcomes of the concentration threshold equal to 10 mg/ mc, during 8 hours. With regard to dioxide of nitrogen, although average index related to the cities has got better in 1999 (48 mg/ m<sup>3</sup> versus 55 in the year before), situation goes on being dangerous, since in 16 cities (among which Rome, Naples, Milan, Turin, Bologna, etc ) the yearly average exceeds the threshold of 60 mg/ m<sup>3</sup> defined by European Community Instruction 99/30. Taking into account the exposition of population to benzene, a very carcinogenic substance, Legambiente has showed a critical situation in all the cities considered: in 1999/2000 the allowed threshold has been overcome in 50% of big cities and 40% of medium towns. About 73% of citizens in cities with more than 150,000 inhabitants have been exposed to over 10 mg/ m<sup>3</sup>, percentage which decreases to 59% in smaller towns.

As a rule, the marginal threshold beyond which noise becomes dangerous for human health is 40-45 Db, with regard to closed places like an apartment, or the workplace; but this limit is often exceeded due to road traffic, even when windows are closed. At the national level, there aren't many data about noise pollution in urban areas, but we can take into account some studies on this phenomenon performed from 1996 to 1999 in ten very important cities, spread all over the North and the Center of Italy, which are linked by a net of monitoring instruments (*Source*: ANPA 2003).

## 2.4 Health and care

In principle, in Italy all legally resident individuals are covered by the national health service. Levels of coverage, access, and quality of services may however vary and this may be only partly grasped through the proposed indicator on the proportion of people covered by health insurance.

Responsibility for the organisation of health services is mainly on Regional Administrations, although the funding is national. Profound reorganisation occurred over the last ten years and implementation of devolution following the Constitutional reform in 2001 quite different organisational and public/private mixes developed across Regions. This is a potential cause of inequality between regions across Italy, in so far provisions and their quality may differ.

The change effected in the public health service is not purely financial and organisational. It also involves the basic principles of this system. More specifically, selective mechanisms (priority levels) and conditions for access (charges and exemption criteria) were introduced, thereby limiting the principle of identical health care provision throughout the country only to services that are considered essential. The most incisive actions affected hospitals, which are still responsible for 51% for the overall financial resources used for the public health service. The main objectives involved de-hospitalisation and organisational efficiency. Efficiency improved: the average duration of hospital

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<sup>3</sup> Legambiente is an association aimed to assess environmental issues in Italy. [www.legambiente.com](http://www.legambiente.com).

stays decreased from nine days in 1994 to seven days in 1999. They were lower in Southern Italy than anywhere else in the country. However, this advantage is reduced when taking into consideration the overall number of cases dealt with by hospitals in this area.

The fairness of the public health system is an important aspect. This undoubtedly depends on the equivalent availability of financial resources throughout the country. But it also involves organisation. Long waiting lists for health services indicate inefficient organisation and system iniquity if the difficulties encountered differ according to the social and demographic conditions of the user. Waits exceeding 60 days involved only 2.4% of requests for diagnoses and 1.2% of specialist examinations. However, the longest waiting lists affected the most underprivileged categories: poorly educated and old people and - at least with regards to specialist examinations – low income individuals and households.

Compared with the European situation, Italy has a very high number of physicians per inhabitants, it has the higher proportion of physicians for inhabitant (see indicator 11 in the Annex, *source*: Eurostat 2003). Tab.12 shows how they are distributed at the regional level since the years 1993. Trends show an increasing value for all the Regions.

**Table 12 Physicians or doctors (licensed, practising or active according to different national definitions) by regional area - Years 1993-2000 (per 10.000 inhabitants).**

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Piemonte	47	47	47	48	49	49	50	52
Valle d'Aosta	45	44	45	44	44	45	45	46
Liguria	69	69	69	69	71	71	72	73
Lombardia	52	51	52	52	53	54	54	55
Trentino-Alto Adige	44	43	43	44	44	45	45	46
Veneto	48	48	48	48	49	49	49	50
Friuli-Venezia Giulia	50	50	50	51	52	52	53	55
Emilia-Romagna	63	62	63	63	63	64	64	65
Toscana	60	60	61	61	62	62	63	64
Umbria	64	63	64	64	65	65	66	67
Marche	53	52	52	53	53	53	54	54
Lazio	74	72	74	74	75	76	76	77
Abruzzo	63	62	62	63	63	64	65	66
Molise	55	54	55	56	57	57	58	58
Campania	58	56	57	57	58	58	59	59
Puglia	49	47	48	49	50	50	51	52
Basilicata	43	42	43	44	44	45	45	46
Calabria	62	61	62	63	64	65	66	67
Sicilia	61	60	60	60	61	61	62	63
Sardegna	59	58	59	60	61	62	63	65
Italy	57	56	57	57	58	58	59	60

Source: Eurostat, New Cronos, Regio, Health Statistics, Nov 2003.

ISTAT gathers data on the subjective assessment of difficulty in reaching services. As tab. 13 shows, difficulties concern particularly reaching and obtaining emergency health services. As expected, given the fact that there may not be an emergency room in every hospital and small municipality and that the

country's orography may make transportation difficult, people living in rural areas and in small municipalities perceive more difficulties than those living in urban areas and larger towns. Over the years an improvement may be detected.

**Table 13 Proportion of households who declare that they have difficulty in reaching selected health services by geographical area and dimension of city. Years 1994 and 2001.**

	Pharmacy	Emergency room	Pharmacy	Emergency room
	1994		2001	
Geographical area:				
North-west	21.0	53.3	18.4	51.6
North-east	19.5	47.6	22.4	51.8
Center	18.9	51.4	22.4	52.7
South	26.6	62.4	29.3	68.6
Islands	27.0	58.5	26.6	65.1
Type of municipality				
Central city areas	13.6	47.8	14.7	52.1
City suburbs	21.8	58.4	28.3	65.5
Less than 2.000 inhabitants	28.2	73.9	26.4	73.0
From 2.001 to 10.000 inhabitants	26.1	64.6	23.9	62.0
From 10.001 to 50.000 inhabitants	25.2	47.8	28.3	52.9
More than 50.001 inhabitants	20.1	48.3	19.8	49.2
Italy	22.2	54.5	23.2	57.0

Source: ISTAT, Multipurpose Survey on Households "Aspects of Every Day Life". Years 1994 and 2001.

Looking at Eurobarometer data –question 52.1 (see ind12 in the Annex) - the proximity to hospitals in term of percentage of people having access to a hospital in less than 20 minutes appears generally good for all income levels in Italy. Following the Netherlands, Belgium and Luxemburg, about 60% of the population may reach the Hospital in less than 20 minutes. But the evidence shows a very high disparity between the lowest and the highest quartile of equivalent income (28%, the highest after Hungary). These data confirm those from the Italian consumption survey, according to which in 2002 only 10% of non poor families declared some difficulty to access the emergency services, against 17,1 % of the poor (ISTAT 2003c).

With regard to care, the suggested indicator<sup>4</sup> is unclear in its meaning and confused in its content. Performing unpaid care may be an indicator of having time for it, as well as of being burdened by it – which makes quite a difference in terms of social quality. Mixing this up with performing paid care renders the meaning totally confused. Paid care may be a job as any other job. Thus, why should it be used as an indicator of social quality under the domain of social security? If the indicator addressed the issue of how much care one receives it would make more sense, although one should be able to assess also the need of care. For instance, an item might be the kind of paid and unpaid, family and non family care received by individuals in severe health conditions (frail elderly, invalids).

<sup>4</sup> IND 14 average number of hours spent on care.

This indicator is now under Social inclusion, but the opportunity to move it here might be considered.

## 2.5 Work

The suggested indicators concerning length of notice before termination and change of terms of contract are not very meaningful in the Italian situation, for at least two reasons: first, there is a variation according to sector and enterprise size; second, the main divide, in terms of security, is between workers in large and middle-sized enterprises, who receive the best protection (usually negotiated with local and national government) in the case of lay off and redundancies (special unemployment indemnity, earning integration) on the one hand, and workers in small enterprises, who are protected only by the general unemployment indemnity which lasts for a shorter period (six months maximum) and covers a smaller fraction of lost wages, on the other hand. Atypical work contracts – which are increasing and concern particularly the young of both genders and women of all ages - are either totally excluded by both kinds of protection or, as in the case of interim contracts, not always reach the minimum time-in work threshold to grant access to the general unemployment indemnity. Actually these differences have been at the core of the political debate in the past ten-fifteen years. Atypical work contracts cover a wide range of contracts and of conditions, going from dependent work to self-employment (including the more or less fake consultancy contracts). Even the conceptualization of atypical contract is somewhat confused, since it may include all those “non standard” situations which do not adhere to the pattern of full time, no-fixed term contracts. Further, an atypical contract may involve high level professional jobs and little qualified jobs; it may constitute the only work relationship for the person involved, or it may be an additional professional status. All this renders the assessment of the numbers involved quite difficult, and even more so the evaluation of the circumstances of those involved in these kinds of contract. Data in tab. 14 and indicator 17 in the Annex, compares Italy to the average EU15 and to selected countries. It distinguishes two different kinds of atypical contracts within wage work: part time (which may be temporary but also no fixed term) and temporary (*interinaire*). Other kinds of contracts, such as the various consultancy jobs and self employed are not included.

**Table 14 Non standard dependent workers by gender. An international comparison- Year 2001 and 1995-2001 (% variation).**

	% on total occupation						% variation between 2001 and 1995					
	I	Fr	D	UK	ES	UE15	I	Fr	D	UK	ES	UE15
	Part time employment											
Men	3,5	5,0	5,3	9,1	2,8	6,2	0,6	-0,1	1,7	1,1	0,0	1,0
Women	16,6	30,4	39,2	44,1	16,8	33,4	3,9	1,3	5,5	-0,4	0,6	2,1
Total	8,4	16,4	20,3	24,9	8,1	17,9	2,1	0,6	4,0	0,6	0,7	1,9
	Temporary employment											
Men	8,3	13,6	12,2	6,0	30,0	12,4	2,1	2,2	2,1	-0,4	-3,2	1,2
Women	11,9	16,3	12,7	7,6	34,2	14,6	2,6	2,7	1,6	-0,7	-3,8	1,6
Total	9,8	14,9	12,4	8,8	31,7	13,4	2,5	2,5	1,9	-0,5	-3,2	1,4

Source: European Commission, Employment in Europe 2002, and ISTAT Rapporto Annuale sulla Situazione del Paese. Anno 2002, Roma, 2003.

Temporary workers in Italy have a turnover rate of 128%, compared to 24,5% of non fixed term workers and 24,5% of the self employed. This indicates that their job tenure is much less secure and stable. Over time, the chances that temporary workers after one year have found a job improved from 1997 to 2000, to worsen again in 2001. Men on average have better chances to pass from a temporary to a non fixed term contract than women (as well as to pass from unemployment to employment).

Estimates of informal, illegal, paid work vary. ISTAT suggests that it is about 22,3% of all paid work, to which another quota should be added, counting those enterprises which use irregular workers (17,8%) and enterprises which evade social security contributions. It is over-represented in traditional sectors such as tourism, agriculture and clothing industry and in services: commerce and personal social services. According to the Bank of Italy annual Report, in some Southern Regions and in some activity sector it reaches 50% of all the labour force. Tab. 15 shows the distribution of irregular work by region and over the 1995-2001 period.

**Table 15 Illegal workforce rate. Nr. of irregular workers on total labour units by Regions -Years 1995-2001 (in percentage).**

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Piemonte	10,3	10,8	10,6	10,2	10,5	11,1	11,2
Valle D'Aosta	16,0	15,3	15,7	17,5	16,3	15,5	16,0
Lombardia	11,4	11,2	11,1	10,9	10,5	10,2	10,8
Trentino - Alto Adige	12,8	13,8	14,1	14,9	12,6	12,8	12,5
Veneto	11,2	11,0	10,9	11,4	11,1	11,5	11,4
Friuli - Venezia Giulia	11,5	11,5	11,1	11,4	13,0	12,6	13,5
Liguria	12,8	13,5	13,3	13,8	13,7	13,2	12,7
Emilia - Romagna	10,7	10,5	10,6	10,8	10,8	10,5	10,3
Toscana	11,9	12,3	12,9	12,9	12,9	13,0	12,3
Umbria	14,7	14,1	15,2	14,4	15,1	17,1	15,8
Marche	11,7	11,7	12,0	12,0	12,9	13,9	13,0
Lazio	16,5	16,5	17,0	17,2	16,9	17,2	17,7
Abruzzo	12,1	12,8	12,9	13,4	13,2	13,9	14,1
Molise	14,2	15,6	15,9	16,5	16,2	18,0	20,5
Campania	23,8	23,8	25,0	26,2	25,6	24,7	25,2
Puglia	19,4	19,5	19,4	19,4	19,5	20,4	20,8
Basilicata	17,1	17,5	18,1	19,9	19,8	22,1	21,4
Calabria	28,1	27,3	27,5	28,3	28,0	29,1	29,1
Sicilia	20,3	21,1	21,9	23,4	23,5	23,3	24,0
Sardegna	16,4	17,5	18,7	19,7	19,5	18,4	19,8
Italy	14,5	14,5	14,8	15,1	15,0	15,0	15,3

Source: ISTAT, Conti economici territoriali SEC 1995-2001. System of regional Indicators for the evaluation of Policy of Development. DPS, Ministry of Economy and Finance. 2003.

Notes: irregular work comprises: non fixed term work performed not respecting existing legislation; occasional work performed by individuals who define themselves as students, housewives or pensioners; work performed by non regular resident foreigners; different work positions which have not been declared to the labour offices.

In the domain of working conditions, the indicator on the system of leaves<sup>5</sup> and the use that people do is crucial in order to see the transformation of the society at different levels; but it must be seen in the general context of the labour market conditions and connected with the issue of conciliation and gender equality. For Italy, there are no national data on the proportion of people on a specific leave. And leave opportunities (sickness, maternity and parental, study leaves) differ according to the labour contract. The largest difference is between workers with permanent dependent contract and workers with atypical contract.

The meaning of this indicator however is not clear. The proportion of those who take such a leave should be assessed with regard, on the one hand, to the proportion of people being entitled to them, on the other hand to the presence of actual conditions which would require such a need (personal sickness, sickness in a family, motherhood, fatherhood, and so forth). Also the kind of income coverage granted by such leaves is a crucial factor. Below we provide a description of parental leave regulation concerning regular wage workers.

**Parental Care-leave scheme. Legislation 53/2000 “Norms on maternity and paternity support, in favour of care-rights and training-rights and in favour of the co-ordination of city times”**

**General conditions**

In addition to the compulsory maternity leave reserved to mothers only (and exceptionally to fathers, if the mother cannot take care of the baby), working parents are entitled together to 10 months of parental leave until the child reaches age 8. Neither parent may take more than 6 months of this period. Solo mothers are entitled to up to 10 months. The leave indemnity covers 30% of lost pay, but only for the portion of leave taken within the first three years of the child. After that age, the indemnity is means-tested.

**For mothers**

*Working mothers*, after the period of compulsory abstention (maternity leave: 5 months, 2 before and 3 after the birth, with a daily benefit equal to 80% of salary), can leave work for a continuous or fragmented period (i.e. taking care-leave in successive stages) of at most 6 months. In case of multiple births, working mothers are given a double rest period.

*Self-employed mothers* are entitled to maternity leave and can take optional leave for a period of at most 3 months until their child is 1 year old.

**For fathers**

*Working fathers* can leave work for a continuous or fragmented period of at most 6 months. If the father leaves work for a period of at least 3 months, this limit is increased to 7 months, thus increasing the possible total abstention by parents to 11 months.

The father can take paternity leave over the first 3 months after the child's birth in case of the mother's death, her severe disability, or absence, or in the case the infant child is fostered exclusively to him.

Rest periods available for working mothers can be taken also by the father in case of:

<sup>5</sup> See also indicator 83 in the empowerment area

Children' fosterage to the father; the working mother doesn't use them; the mother isn't entitled to them.

**Special leave and training leave**

*Special leave:* In case of death or severe disability of one's partner or strict relative it is allowed a three-days paid leave a year. Moreover, because of serious and certified reasons it's possible asking for a continuative or extended leave period of at most 2 years. During this period the employee maintains his job without any salary.

*Training leave:* It is possible taking leaves for training for a period of at most 11 months in case of being subordinate employee for at least 5 years in order to complete compulsory education, achieve upper secondary diploma or degree, attending other training courses. During this period the employee maintains his job without any salary.

Sources: CNEL, Report on women's work, under legal protection and contractual rules, 2002 and Act of Parliament 53/2000 "Norms on maternity and paternity support, in favour of care-right and training-right and in favour of the co-ordination of city times".

From a social security perspective, also the number of workers per household might be of interest. Jobless households (including only those in which at least one person is of working age) were 4,4% of all households in 2002. They are highly concentrated in the South, where they constitute 6% of all resident households. The phenomenon has been decreasing since 1995, particularly with respect to lone parent (mother) households, which however appear to remain more vulnerable to joblessness than couple households. Actually, among couples the incidence of dual worker couples is increasing, as a consequence of women's labour market participation, particularly among the younger cohorts. This increases the financial security of households, but also of individual members (particularly women and children) in the case of household break up.

Considering Eurostat data on hours worked per week (see ind 21 in the Annex) in full time employment, they were 40,5 in 2003 and they have been stable over time. From national data for the year 2002 we also know that the average hours/week are longer for the self employed than for the employees (46 hours/week against 38,6 hours/week), shorter in the public sector (35,3 hours/week) (Banca d'Italia 2004)<sup>6</sup>.

The indicator on accidents at work is relevant to evaluate the conditions of safety in which people work. Of course it depends highly on the type of mansion and job sectors. The data on work accidents per 100.000 employed persons registered in Italy show a relative stability between 1998 and 2000. Data show a strong reduction of fatal work accidents that decreased of 66 points from the year 2000 (EUROSTAT 2003b). The number of work accidents in Italy is on average with the Eu15. The fatal work accident involve more the oldest workers, 10% against 7 % of the total and youth (see Ind 20 in the Annex).

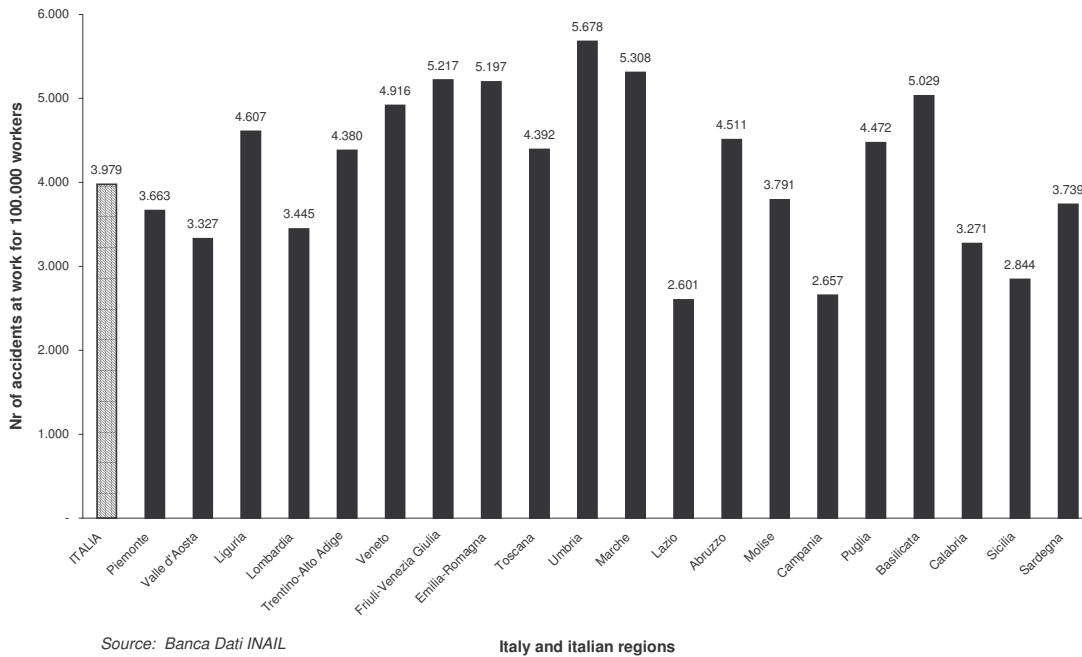
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<sup>6</sup> Information on hours worked per week is linked to the thematic of reconciliation of work and family life that in the list of indicators of conditional factors of Social Quality is located in the empowerment area. See data and comments on the distribution of time for care and for paid work under domain of labour market in that area.



In Italy we must signal a great variation between Regions and sector. It is also important to consider the relation with irregular work where the incidence of work-related accidents is higher (see fig.6).

**Figure 6 Accidents at works rate by regional area. Year average 1999-2001 (per 100.000 employed persons)**



## 2.6 Education

Compulsory education in Italy stops at 14 years of age. Since 1999 there is an additional “training obligation” until age 18. but this obligation may be fulfilled in apprenticeship contracts and in other kinds of professional/training courses which may be taken also while in work. Thus de facto individuals may exit the formal school system after having completed 8 years of schooling: five years of elementary school and three years of middle school. Further, the high school system is highly differentiated and the drop out rates are higher in the most professional curricula (where children from the lower classes usually are enrolled) than in the most academic curricula. Thus the school system itself is a powerful “streaming” mechanism, the impact of which on the individuals’ life chances may be long term.

The compulsory school is free (and in the elementary school also books are free), and there are no uniform requirements. In the high school there is a, low, enrolment fee. But the highest expense concerns books, for which there is no provision in case of low income children. The state and a few regions have introduced income supports for those who enroll their children in private schools – a provision argued in terms of increasing freedom of choice, which however is likely to be a kind of

reverse distribution, in so far it is mostly the middle-high classes who can afford to send their children to private schools.

The proportion of Italian sixteen years olds who continue education after the compulsory age is lower than in the countries with a higher compulsory age (but similar to that in the countries who have a similar rule), although it has been increasing over the years (tab. 16). In the Annex the tables on indicators 22 show a percentage higher than the Eu15 and Eu25 averages but lower than Spain and Portugal.

Mention should be made also of the phenomenon of school evasion during the compulsory period. It is estimated in 5%, with a high concentration in the South, particularly in Sicilia, Calabria, Campania and Puglia (Centro Nazionale di documentazione e analisi per l'infanzia e l'adolescenza 2001).

**Table 16 Early school-leavers- Percentage of the female population aged 18-24 with at most lower secondary education and not in further education or training, by gender and Regions. Years 1999-2003**

	Total					Males					Females				
	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Piemonte	28,8	25,4	27,8	23,9	22	33,9	32,2	31,7	29,6	27,3	24	18,7	24	18,1	16,6
Valle d'Aosta	25,9	31,2	28,2	26,6	25,7	27,7	28,7	34,6	39,2	33	24,1	33,8	21,8	13,4	18,7
Liguria	23,8	22,4	23,8	22,5	22,7	23	25,2	29,1	23,6	27,9	24,5	19,8	18,7	21,3	17,4
Lombardia	25,9	23,2	24,2	23	22,1	30,9	28,6	30,4	27,4	27,2	20,9	18	18,1	18,6	17
Trentino-Alto Adige	23,8	19,3	28,4	30,1	34,2	28,7	24,4	41,9	34b	42,7	19b	14,8	17,5	27,1	24,8
Veneto	25,2	23,1	21,1	19,8	17,4	28,8	25,5	24	23,4	20,1	21,6	20,6	18,2	16,1	14,6
Friuli-Venezia Giulia	18	15,2	15,6	17,5	20,5	24,7	19	19,1	18,2	23,1	11,6	11,6	12,4	16,9	17,7
Emilia-Romagna	24,2	20,6	25,6	18,6	21,5	29,1	25,1	31,1	21,7	24,2	19,6	16,1	20,2	15,5	18,9
Toscana	26,6	26,8	25,2	21,4	19,6	30,6	30	26,6	25,1	24,1	22,8	23,6	23,9	17,5	14,7
Umbria	20,9	14,5	10,6	14,4	17,1	24,4	19,9	15,3	19,5	18,6	17,6	9,2	5,8	9,4	15,5
Marche	21,6	20,9	16,7	21	18	29,4	29,2	19,9	25,3	21,6	14,1	12b	13,3	16,9	14,5
Lazio	18,7	18,8	20,6	19,7	20,3	22,3	21,3	24,7	24	21,5	15,2	16,3	16,4	15,3	19,1
Abruzzo	17,5	16,7	16,9	11,3	8,4	20,8	18,6	20,8	12	9,2	14,1	14,9	13,3	10,6	7,6
Molise	22,7	18,8	21,6	20,8	21,4	27,8	22,9	25,9	26,5	26,4	17,5	14,7	17,2	15,1	16,4
Campania	31,5	31,2	32,2	29,5	30,4	33,2	32,7	35,9	32,6	32,2	29,8	29,8	28,5	26,3	28,5
Puglia	32,3	30,3	31,0	27,6	28,1	32,8	31,2	30,8	29,5	31,4	31,7	29,4	31,2	25,6	24,8
Basilicata	23,9	26,7	27,8	21,2	19,4	23,5	29,4	32,8	25,1	21	24,4	24,1	23	17,1	17,9
Calabria	23,7	25,3	26,1	25,2	21	21,6	27,2	30,2	26,7	22,8	25,8	23,3	22,1	23,8	19,1
Sicilia	37	31,2	33,7	33,3	29,5	38	34,9	36,8	37,5	32,7	36,1	27,7	30,8	29,2	26,2
Sardegna	34,2	33,4	34	34	29,8	41,5	39	39,1	39,4	34,6	27,4	27,8	28,8	28,7	24,9
Italy	27,2	25,3	26,4	24,3	23,5	30,3	28,8	30,2	27,9	26,8	24,2	21,9	22,6	20,7	20,1

Source: Eurostat, New Cronos, Regio. LFS.

In Italy the occupational situation of people with secondary and university degree is studied by a survey that asks students with a school degree which is their occupational status 3 years after leaving school<sup>7</sup>. The last one is for the year 2001. It concerns the young who obtained the degree in the year 1998. 55% of high school graduated are in work and 17% are looking for a job. There are differences by kind of school, by gender and by geographical area. The Employment rate for males is 58% against

<sup>7</sup> ISTAT conducts an integrated system of surveys focused on the transition school to work for the students in post compulsory education. The surveys are triennial and interviewed a sample of students with the Computer Assisted Telephonic Interview Technique (See ISTAT 2002, 2003d).

52,7% of females. For university degree holders, the proportion of people who are in employment after 3 years is 73,5%; also in this case there are significant differences by kind of degree (ISTAT 2004).

**Table 17 Occupational status three years after having completed the University degree, by gender and Regions - Year 2001.**

	Men and Women							
	employment		Unemployment		Inactive		Total	
	a.v.	%	a.v.	%	a.v.	%	a.v.	%
Piemonte	7.328	81,7	368	4,1	1.273	14,1	8.969	100,0
Valle d'Aosta	127	74,3	7	4,1	37	21,5	171	100,0
Lombardia	20.742	85,4	742	3,0	2.787	11,4	24.272	100,0
Liguria	2.597	71,2	343	9,4	703	19,3	3.643	100,0
Trentino-Alto Adige	1.263	86,3	32	2,1	168	11,5	1.464	100,0
Veneto	8.253	79,4	511	4,9	1.630	15,6	10.394	100,0
Friuli-Venezia Giulia	2.002	80,0	149	5,9	349	13,9	2.501	100,0
Emilia-Romagna	8.479	78,0	540	4,9	1.841	16,9	10.860	100,0
Toscana	5.769	73,8	600	7,6	1.440	18,4	7.809	100,0
Umbria	1.432	72,7	238	12,0	300	15,2	1.969	100,0
Marche	2.524	75,9	353	10,6	444	13,3	3.321	100,0
Lazio	11.101	70,8	1.858	11,8	2.720	17,3	15.679	100,0
Abruzzo	1.858	65,1	497	17,4	499	17,4	2.854	100,0
Molise	375	60,6	149	24,0	95	15,2	619	100,0
Campania	6.353	59,7	2.280	21,4	1.992	18,7	10.625	100,0
Puglia	3.865	60,1	1.378	21,4	1.180	18,3	6.423	100,0
Basilicata	600	56,3	318	29,8	146	13,7	1.064	100,0
Calabria	2.052	56,1	979	26,7	624	17,0	3.655	100,0
Sicilia	4.464	61,9	1.330	18,4	1.408	19,5	7.203	100,0
Sardegna	1.810	60,6	498	16,6	676	22,6	2.983	100,0
Italy (b)	93.007	73,5	13.167	10,4	20.321	16,0	126.495	100,0
North	50.792	81,6	2.691	4,3	8.789	14,1	62.272	100,0
Center	20.826	72,3	3.048	10,5	4.904	17,0	28.778	100,0
South	21.378	60,3	7.427	21,0	6.620	18,7	35.426	100,0
	<i>Females</i>							
Piemonte	3.832	78,6	239	4,9	801	16,4	4.873	100,0
Valle d'Aosta	70	90,7	7	9,2	-	-	77	100,0
Lombardia	10.403	82,1	546	4,3	1.709	13,4	12.658	100,0
Liguria	1.343	67,4	252	12,6	397	19,9	1.991	100,0
Trentino-Alto Adige	595	85,8	10	1,4	88	12,7	693	100,0
Veneto	4.338	76,5	331	5,8	1.000	17,6	5.668	100,0
Friuli-Venezia Giulia	1.114	77,0	98	6,8	233	16,1	1.445	100,0
Emilia-Romagna	4.539	73,5	427	6,9	1.206	19,5	6.172	100,0
Toscana	3.235	72,1	400	8,9	848	18,9	4.483	100,0
Umbria	852	72,6	159	13,5	162	13,8	1.173	100,0
Marche	1.398	75,3	249	13,3	210	11,2	1.856	100,0
Lazio	5.709	66,4	1.287	14,9	1.592	18,5	8.588	100,0
Abruzzo	1.006	58,2	380	21,9	342	19,7	1.728	100,0
Molise	222	55,7	122	30,6	54	13,6	398	100,0
Campania	2.948	51,7	1.614	28,3	1.138	19,9	5.700	100,0
Puglia	2.050	54,8	949	25,3	738	19,7	3.737	100,0

(continued...)

Basilicata	268	43,8	252	41,1	92	14,9	612	100,0
Calabria	1.099	49,9	734	33,3	368	16,7	2.200	100,0
Sicilia	2.200	54,8	1.022	25,4	788	19,6	4.010	100,0
Sardegna	1.072	58,0	386	20,8	388	21,0	1.846	100,0
Italy (b)	48.301	69,0	9.463	13,5	12.152	17,3	69.916	100,0
North	26.235	78,1	1.910	5,7	5.434	16,2	33.578	100,0
Center	11.194	69,5	2.095	13,0	2.812	17,4	16.100	100,0
South	10.867	53,7	5.459	27,0	3.907	19,3	20.231	100,0

Source: ISTAT Annuario Statistico Italiano 2003, Roma, 2004.

## 2.7 Trends and reflections

The most meaningful trends in socio-economic security from the point of view of social quality concern:

A relative stability in the diffusion of poverty and in its regional concentration, but a change in its social composition (fewer older people, more families with children, more working families).

A differential dynamics in the equivalent disposable income of households located in different professional status, which has reshaped the distribution of income inequalities across social groups, with a relative disadvantage for blue collar and white collar worker' households (Brandolini 2004). This phenomenon is to a large degree responsible for the widespread perception of an "impoverishment of the middle classes". This perception might be reinforced by the fact the young enter the labour market in a situation characterized by flexibility of labour contracts, thus of uncertainty.

An increasing feeling of insecurity due to the flexibilisation of work contracts. This feeling is further strengthened by the lack of a welfare state/social security framework attuned to the new forms of economic risk. As a matter of fact, social security policies in Italy neither cover traditional social risks (poverty), nor the new emerging ones (e.g. flexibilisation of the labour market, ageing of the population, marriage instability and changing gender arrangements).

Within this general framework, the ongoing changes implemented and debated at the national institutional level – federalism, de-centralisation, pension reform – open new spaces for innovation, but also contribute both to feelings of insecurity and to the development of new causes of inequality.

In this chapter, we also raised some methodological issue concerning the meaning of some of the proposed indicators. Particularly, we raised two question. One concerns the well know debate households individual approach. Although being able to share within an household is a crucial aspect of economic security, individual hold (command) over resources is an as important and possibly more important dimension. Thus we suggest that an indicator of this command be developed (e.g. the quota of household income one earns or owns directly). The second question concerns the issue of care giving, which seems to us both conceptually confused in the indicator and misplaced. Being able to receive needed care seems to us a better indicator of socio-economic security than giving care.

Moreover, lumping together paid and unpaid caregiving renders the proposed indicator totally useless – not only for the Italian situation, but in general.

## **3 Social Cohesion**

### **3.1 Introduction**

As it is well known, social cohesion is a tricky concept. Moreover, indicators of cohesion at one level (e.g. family, or local community, or ethnic community) do not necessarily transfer at another level, nor are they hierarchically ordered. Italy is a good case in point. In this country trust and reliance on family and kin networks is high, while trust on public institution is on average lower than in other European countries. This is not the old “amoral familism” argument, particularly in view of the high, and growing, participation in volunteer activities. Rather, it may be the opposite argument: when political and social circumstances do not support the development of trust in political and economic institutions, trust and allegiance are reserved for those ties and institutions – ascribed, but also elective - which are closer to the individual. It is well known, in fact, that in all Southern European Countries in which the welfare state tends to be residual, trust in government is relatively low and criticism of public social policies relatively high (see e.g. Gallie and Paugam 2002).

### **3.2 Trust**

Survey data on attitudes, particularly when they are comparative on a large scale, must be used very carefully, since, as it is well known, there are many methodological pitfalls and the dimensions themselves explored may have different meanings and relevance in different cultures. Thus simple indicator per indicator data in one point in time give only simplistic, and possibly even misleading ideas of the attitudes they aim at detecting. Trends over time might offer more meaningful indications than pure one point in time ones.

With this cautionary remarks, we may point out, on the basis of the European value survey (see indicator 25 in the Annex), that in Italy general trust in people was in 1999/2000 slightly higher than average in Europe, as well as higher than in most continental European countries (but much lower than in Scandinavian ones, which seem to make up a pattern by themselves).

Also trust in sovra-national institutions as diverse as the Church (which in Italy means the Catholic Church,) the EU, the Nato, UN, is higher than the European average, while trust in national institutions is on average lower, with the exception of the police (see tabb. 18-19 and indicator 26 in the Annex). One might be tempted to suggest that since Italians have a reduced trust on their democratic national institutions, they rely either on sovra-national institutions or on the repressive national institution to keep them in check. But one might also suggest that they have a greater trust on those institutions which they perceive as most distant from their everyday life and circumstances, while they are more critical of those from which they expect more.

**Table 18 Proportion of the Italian population who express trust various institutions - Years 1999-2003 (percentage).**

	Eb51.0	Eb54	Eb55.1	Eb56.2	Eb58	Eb59
	1999 spring	2000	2001	2001	2002	2003 spring
The press	45	37	43	39		45
Radio	53	46	55	44		58
Television	59	47	49	49		47
EU	53		53	65	59	59
UN	51	66	49	65		53
The army	57	67	66	67		69
The police	59	72	63	67		69
Charitable of voluntary organisations	60	65	52	52		
Church	58	61	56	53*		58
Justice/ the national legal system	36	35	40	40		44
Italian parliament	30	35	32	43	41	41
Italian government	28		29	41	34	34
Civil services	27	31	27	28		
Political parties	16	13	11	13	15	15
Trade unions	28	34	25	30		35
Big companies	41	41	37	35		36

\* the question did no longer concern the "Church" but "Religious institutions"

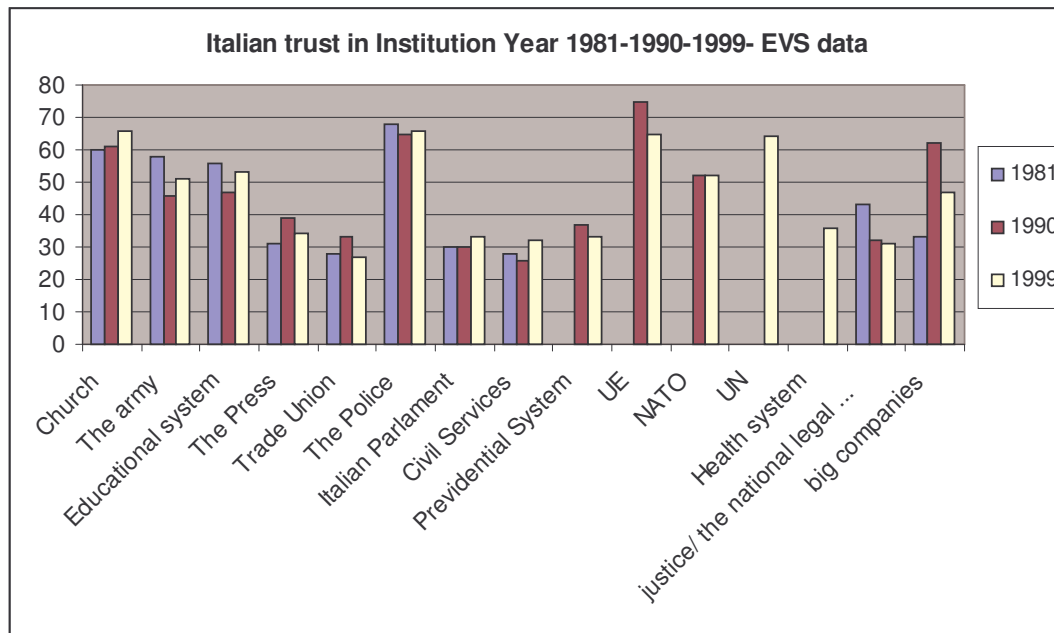
Source: Eurobarometer 51, 54, 55, 56, 58, 59, Spring 2003 National Report, 60.1, autumn 2003, National Report.

**Table 19 Trust in institutions (very, enough) in Italy, on the basis of EVS data - Years 1981,1990 and 1999 (percentage).**

	1981	1990	1999
Church	60	61	66
The army	58	46	51
Educational system	56	47	53
The Press	31	39	34
Trade Union	28	33	27
The Police	68	65	66
Italian Parliament	30	30	33
Civil Services	28	26	32
Previdential System		37	33
UE		75	65
NATO		52	52
UN			64
Health system			36
Justice/ the national legal system	43	32	31
Big companies	33	62	47

Source: EVS data in Gubert (2000), p. 235-246.

Figure 7 Trend in trust in institutions in Italy (EVS data)- Years 1981,1990 and 1999.



Source: EVS data in Gubert (2000), p.235-246.

As confirmed also by national studies, family is ranked as very important. But here cross national differences are not very meaningful, except in the case of countries formerly belonging to the Soviet bloc. Among the other countries, differences appear mainly at the level of intensity (“very” rather than “quite” important). Moreover, exactly what is meant by “important” is unclear. Family may be very important in relational and affective terms and not at all in terms of access to resources. Or it may be important (also) as a source of resources, care and protection in a context where these are little provided at the social and public level. The latter is to a large degree the case in Italy, particularly in the case of the young and of the frail elderly. This partly explains the slightly stronger emphasis put on obligations between parents and children. Further, the high importance allocated to family in Italy goes hand in hand with an apparent difficulty, or resistance, to form new families, as indicated by the comparative young people’s lateness in exiting the parental household, in marrying or otherwise forming a cohabitant couple and in having children, as well as by the very low fertility rate. The proposed SQ indicator (see indicator 28 in the Annex) does not allow to detect what dimensions are implied in the feeling of “importance of the family”. These interpretation problems are less complex in the case of the importance of friends, where in any case cross country differences are slight. Also in the case of religion, which in Italy ranks over twenty points higher in importance than in average Europe (but also much higher than in other Mediterranean Catholic countries such as Spain, Portugal, Ireland), one should be cautious; in so far this importance does not translate in participation to the religious community and its rites, as demonstrated by recent national surveys, and even less in adherence to religious principles in crucial attitudes and behaviours, such as those relating to contraception, abortion, divorce and so forth.

### 3.3 Other integrative norms and values

Help-giving occurs first of all within kin networks. It involves care giving to children and frail elderly, help with housework, keeping company, help with bureaucratic matters. We will address this in the chapter on social inclusion. It may also occur outside the kin network, through formal and informal volunteer work, which we will address here.

We don't have data on hours spent in this activity; but two surveys conducted by ISTAT have explored extensively this field with regard to the number and social characteristics of people doing volunteer work and on voluntary organizations (ISTAT 2004b).

The number of individuals 14 years and over who give some kind of help to people outside their household is increasing in Italy. It was 20,8% in 1983 and 22,5% in 1997. Women do it more than men (24,5% compared to 20,3%, in 1998) and also more often. The incidence of help givers is higher in the North, followed by the Center and then the South. It is also higher among the better educated and among those who have a higher professional status. And it is higher in the central age brackets (ISTAT 1999). In 2002 8% of the population over 15 years old (about 4 millions of individuals) took part in some kind of volunteering (see tab. 20). This value is stable since 1993. The incidence is higher in the North-East: 21% in Trentino Alto Adige, 14,3% in Veneto. Since 1997 we observe a trend towards a reduction of regional differences. Increasing participation noticeable particularly in the South in some Regions like Basilicata (4,1% in 1997 to 7,0% nel 2002), Calabria (4,2 to 6,0%) and Sicilia (3,6% to 5,6%) and in the city center of metropolitan areas (4,0 % to 6,4 %) (ISTAT 2004c).

The survey on voluntary activities and participation asks about the frequency of activities, times per week or per month: 40,3% of volunteers performed a voluntary activity once a week in 2002.

**Table 20 Proportion of individuals 14 years old and over who have performed some activity in voluntary association, by geographical area and city dimension- Years 1997 and 2002 (per 100 individuals >14).**

	1997		2002	
	Once a week	Total	Once a week	Total
Geographical area				
North-west	4,3	8,8	4,0	9,1
North-east	4,5	11,5	4,5	12,7
Center	2,6	6,1	2,8	7,0
South	2,4	4,7	2,2	4,9
Islands	2,4	4,4	2,5	6,1
Type of municipality				
Central city areas	2,7	4,0	2,9	6,4
City suburbs	3,4	7,0	2,9	7,0
Less than 2.000 inhabitants	3,1	9,8	3,0	9,3
From 2.001 to 10.000 inhabitants	3,7	9,2	3,5	9,4
From 10.001 to 50.000 inhabitants	3,6	8,1	3,5	8,7
More than 50.001 inhabitants	3,2	6,0	3,0	6,8
Italy	3,4	7,3	3,2	8,0

Source: ISTAT, Multipurpose Survey on Households "Aspects of everyday life". Years 1997 and 2002.



The distribution of organisations reflects this distribution of individuals doing some volunteer work. About 60% of all volunteer organizations operate in the North-East and North-West (tab. 21). But since the mid-nineties the greatest increase has occurred in the South.

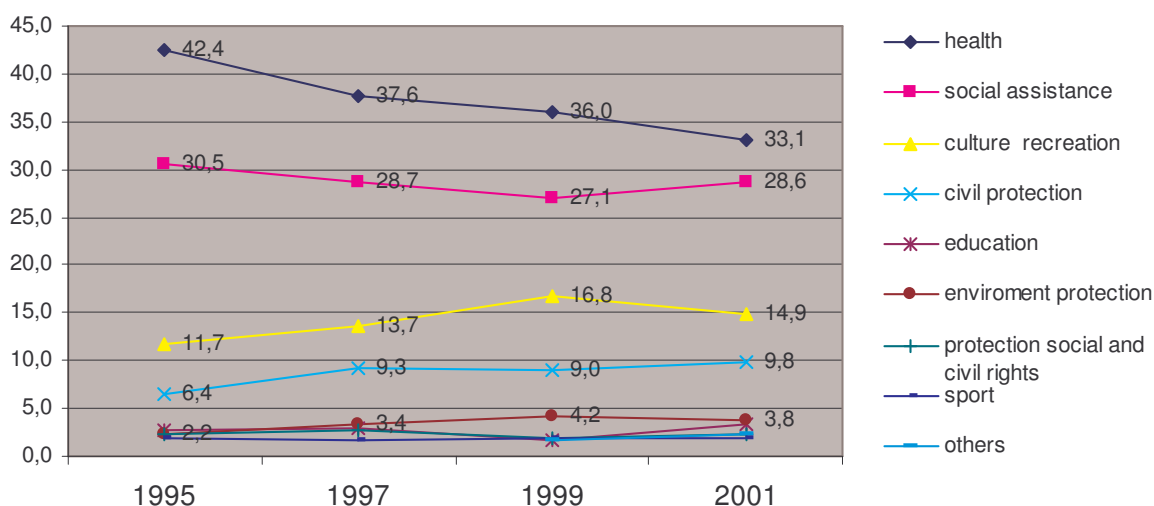
**Table 21 Voluntary organizations by geographical area - Years 1997 and 2001 (per 10.000 inhabitants).**

	1997		2001		% variation (1997=100)
	a.v.	Per 10.000 ab	a.v.	Per 10.000 ab	
North-west	3.353	2,2	5.424	3,5	56,3
North-east	3.666	3,5	6005	5,6	63,8
Center	2.607	2,4	3.440	3,2	32,0
South	2.084	1,0	3.606	1,8	73,0
Italy	11.710	2,0	18.293	3,2	56,2

Source: ISTAT Le organizzazioni di volontariato in Italia. Anno 2001, "Statistiche in breve". Roma, 2004.

Areas of intervention of voluntary organizations in Italy changed over time (see fig.8). Health and social assistance are the main areas of intervention, comprising over half of all activities. Yet, since 1995 there has been a decrease of the incidence of activities in these two sectors, and on the contrary an increase in volunteer activities in the area of culture and leisure, civil and environmental protection (recreation and culture from 11,7 % to 14,9 %, civil protection from 6,4% to 9,8%) possibly indicating that we are in presence of an enlargement of the concept of civic and collective responsibility, embracing not only traditional forms of solidarity but also responsibility towards and care for the overall quality of society (ISTAT 2004d).

**Figure 8 Voluntary organizations by prevalent sector of activity - Year 1995-2001 (percentage on total voluntary organizations).**



Source: ISTAT Le organizzazioni di volontariato in Italia 2001. "Statistiche in breve". Roma, 2004.

Voluntary activities are only a part of the so called third sector, which includes also non profit organisations (among which there are social cooperatives)<sup>8</sup>. Among the proposed indicators there is no way of assessing the relevance of such sector, which is a possible serious deficit; although it is true that mere presence/absence/density of such sector should be assessed with regard to presence/absence/density of the public sector, particularly with regard to the field of social assistance and social services.

Voluntary organizations were 2,0 per 10.000 inhabitants in 1997 increased to 3,2 per 10.000 inhabitants in 2001. Also the Survey by IREF (Caltabiano 2003) on voluntary associations and voluntary activities underlines a revitalization of voluntary organizations and a new model characterized by personal voluntary activities oriented to socially responsible behaviours (critical consumption, investing in ethical funds, and so forth). Non profit institutions were 41 per 10.000 inhabitants in 2001 (since 1991 + 283%) 74% of them are in the sector of culture, sport and recreation. There are significant regional differences. Lombardy has the most high presence of organizations: between 13,7 non-profit institutions active in the sector of cultural etc and 18,8 % in the sector of health. The region of Trentino Alto Adige has the primate of 105, 3 institutions for 10.000 inhabitants (ISTAT 2004c: pp. 355-374).

Social Cooperatives were 8,1 per 10.000 inhabitants in 1999 and 9,7 per 10.000 inhab in 2001 (+ 18,6%). They may be of two kinds: the first operates in the area of social and cultural services; the second, may operate in these same areas, but also in that of manufacture and production. In this latter case the distinctive feature is not only the lack of a "profit" for the cooperating members, but also the fact that the cooperative includes among its members and workers a quota of individuals belonging to the disadvantaged groups.

The enormous growth of the non profit sector in Italy in the past ten years has been supported by different motives: the inadequacy of public provision of services; the diversification of needs, which require more tailored and flexible services; the increasing professionalisation of volunteer associations, the rigidity of the labour market in the public sector, and its costs, which have incentivated the phenomenon of contracting out. In the area of social services these trends have found a regulatory framework and institutionalisation in the framework social assistance law n. 328/2000, in which the criteria for the public/private partnership in providing services have been defined.

With regard to blood donation, Italy is in the group of Mediterranean countries under the EU15 average. Whether this is dependent on personal/cultural attitudes or on patterns of information and access to this particular activity remains to be seen (see Indicator 30 in the Annex). On the basis of national data, within those who had performed some kind of voluntary activity, 13,2% had donated blood (ISTAT 2004c).

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<sup>8</sup> There is some overlapping between type of institutions, organizations.

### **3.3.1 Tolerance**

With regard to attitudes towards foreigners Italians seem to be less hostile than some of the political and public discourse represents them as being. It is true that slightly over than the European average would rather not live near somebody of a different race (EVS Q. 74 and 75, see indicator 31 in the Annex); but the proportion of those who are against any form of immigration is less than half the European average, and also the proportion in favour of severe restrictions is lower than average. Particularly in the Northern Regions, where immigrants are concentrated, there is the experience of their usefulness in the productive sector. Italians also have a higher proportion of people feeling that migrants should be able to keep their customs and traditions. This does not mean that there are not phenomena of racism and ethnocentrism. Rather it means that there is a space for a public discourse (together with a policy of neighbourhood and space control at the local level) which helps people to deal with their fear and with changes in the social environment. If this public discourse is not developed, and particularly if groups and parties in government on the contrary play on, and emphasize fears, these can easily break out. Two incidents occurred in 2002 are exemplary of these two opposite outcomes. When a Muslim father required the crucifix be removed from the classroom of his son (in a public school), instead of critically debating the opportunity of keeping the symbols of one religion in a public space a strong outcry, manoeuvred by all political forces (and supported even by the otherwise cautious President of the Republic) framed the issue as an attack against Italian traditions and identity; and all of a sudden everybody was a militant catholic. The second example concerns a Muslim woman, wearing a veil, who was supposed to spend a training period in a (private) kindergarten. The director of the kindergarten and the children's parents refused to host her on the ground that, with her veil, she would "scare the little children" (a similar problem has never and nowhere been raised with regard to Catholic nuns). This provoked many criticisms at the local and national level; and the local municipality offered her to do her training in a public kindergarten, with no problem with teachers, parents and children.

Generally speaking, the attitudes towards minorities found in the Eurobarometer 2000 survey (see indicator 32 in the Annex) show more than half of the Italian population with a passively tolerant attitude and a smaller proportion of individuals who declare openly intolerant attitudes than in most European countries (11% compared to the 14% EU15 average) or active tolerant (15%, compared to 15% EU15 average).

### **3.3.2 Social contract**

With regard to causes of poverty, the majority of Italians tend to point to social, rather than personal causes: more than British and the Danes, but much less so than the Continental Europeans and the Swedes (see EVS 1999-2000, Q11, indicators 33 in the Annex). 37% of Italian people consider "living in need" a consequence of an injustice in society: less than France 44%, Spain 48,4% and Sweden 49,5% but more or less as Germany 36,9% and Hungary with 37,7%.

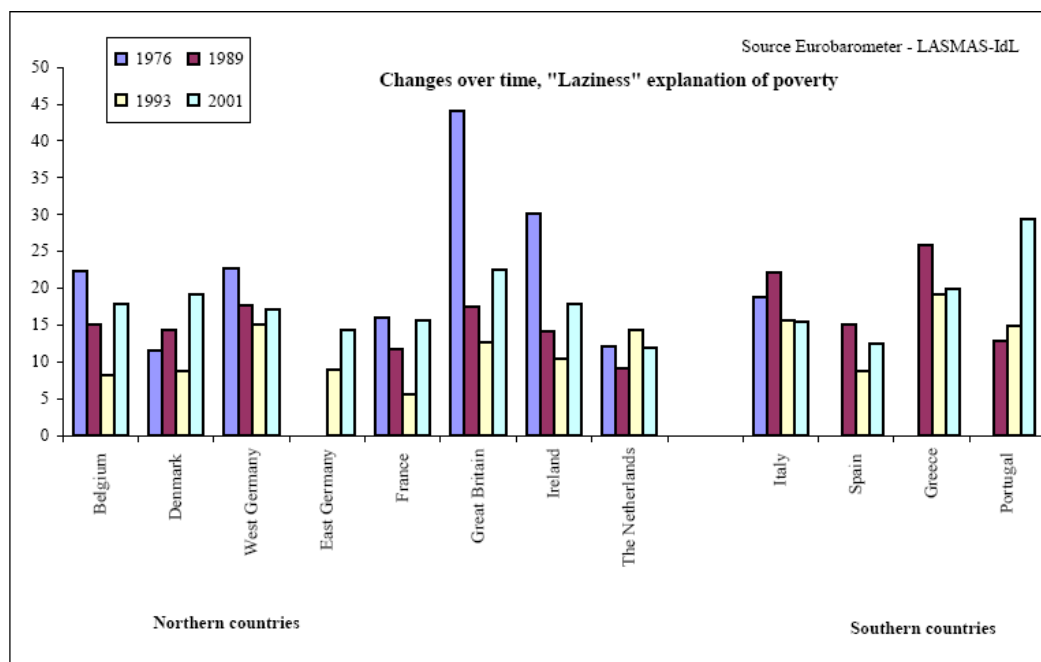
These country diversities cross, and do not overlap with political and welfare traditions, thus are not easily explained. In the case of Italy we might hypothesise that this distribution includes at least two

different evaluations and points of reference. On the one hand, there is certainly the traditional critical attitude towards government, particularly in the light of the fact that in Italy there is no clear and explicit anti-poverty policy. On the other hand, however, given the high concentration of poverty in the South, a different evaluation emerges, which rather points to the responsibility of the poor themselves, as Southerners (as well as to patterns of intergenerational transmission of poverty). Stereotypes concerning the Southerner's laziness and lack of will are at play here.

Gallie and Paugam (2002) in the research based on Eurobarometer data<sup>9</sup> observe that "the ways people see the causes of poverty are not immutable; like all perceptions, they can change. They vary both from country to country (that is, according to patterns of political and cultural perception) and according to the economic and social climate" (p. 26).

Fig. 9 and 10 confirm that Italy is in the group of countries with low values, decreasing over time, on the side of the "laziness explanation" of poverty. The "injustice" explanation of poverty is prevalent in the opinions of Italian people even if in the last survey (Eurobarometer 56.1) data show a decline of this interpretation.

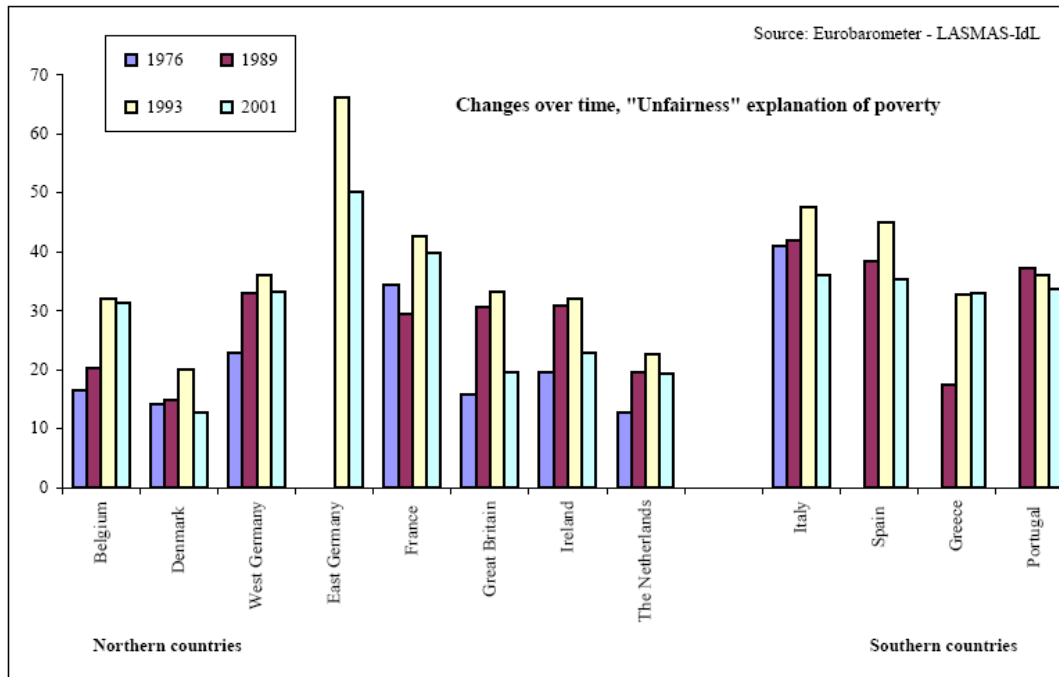
**Figure 9 "Laziness" explanation of poverty. Years 1976, 1989, 1993 and 2001.**



Source: Gallie and Paugam (2002), p. 21 fig 2.3.

<sup>9</sup> In the Eurobarometer surveys the question on causes of poverty has been asked since 1976; therefore there are figures from four surveys, offering a particularly good basis for studying, over time, both national differences and differences among survey periods.

Figure 10 “Unfairness” explanation of poverty. Years 1976, 1989, 1993, 2001.



Source: Gallie and Paugam (2002), p. 22 fig 2.4.

With regard to the gender contract, relevant indicators may be, on the one hand, data on women's labour market participation on the basis of household status, on the other hand, data on the use of time. With regard to the latter, there are no truly comparative time use surveys. But available data (e.g. data from a recent survey on quality of life in 28 European countries – European Foundation for the Improvement of Working and Living Conditions 2004) indicate, first, that working mothers perform household and caring work to a much larger degree than fathers; second, that gender differences are greater in Southern European countries than in Scandinavian ones, with the Northern and Central European ones exhibiting the highest heterogeneity: Ireland, Belgium, Austria, Germany and the Netherlands are more similar to the Southern European Countries, France is more similar to the Scandinavian ones. Particularly, ISTAT and Bank of Italy data for the late Nineties and 2000 indicate that in Italy working women with family responsibilities devote to unpaid family work more than twice as much as men. Consequently, although they have on average shorter paid working hours, they have a working week longer by on average 9-11 hours.

In addition to a reduced presence in housework and childcare, fathers also tend not to take parental leave, even when it is on principle available, thus confirming that child-raising is a mother's affair. Part of the difference is due to the policy framework, part to the degree to which the parental leave is compensated for, part also to deeply ingrained gender models. For instance, in Italy, although in the public sector the first month of parental leave is fully paid at 100% of the wage, after it was extended to fathers with law 53/2000 only 18% of fathers who are employed in the public sector take it. These asymmetrical gender arrangements up to now have had an integrative role in social and family cohesion. Yet, as more women are educated and expect equality, the balance seems increasingly

fragile. The low fertility rate is an indicator of the fragility and possible un-tenability of such arrangements.

With regard to intergenerational contracts, the longer dependency on the parental household by the young in Italy might be used as an indicator of a strong family and intergenerational solidarity. This indicator, however, is at best ambivalent, since on the one hand it suggests a familisation of social rights in Italy well beyond childhood. On the other hand, it is counterbalanced by the already pointed out difficulty in forming new households and in keeping a reproductive balance.

Another indicator of intergenerational solidarity is that of wealth transfers, either *inter vivos* or as inheritance. According to the already cited study by the Bank of Italy on the income and wealth of households in 2002, 71% of all wealth owned by Italian families had been gained through inheritance. And over 70% of all Italians planned to leave some inheritance to their children. In a country where over 70% of households own the apartment in which they live, it is an easy prediction.

Together with financial transfers, also care provision across generations may be an indicator of intergenerational contracts. This indicator, however, is located in another area<sup>10</sup>.

### 3.4 Social networks

We already mentioned the number of individuals who are members of voluntary groups. It should be mentioned that in Italy people attending regularly church might not define themselves as being “a member of a group”, even if going to church and meeting people there might be an important part of their social life, particularly in the case of the elderly, or in small communities. Again, some of the proposed SQ indicators in their fragmentation do not allow to grasp the real texture of people’s life, which should be the important core of a social quality approach.

Looking at EVS data on membership in 1999 (see tab. 23), Italians express the higher participation in sport and recreational clubs (11,5%), religious organizations (10,3%), followed by the organizations of artistic and cultural character (9,9%). Compared to the other European Countries (see also tab on indicator 38 in the Annex) membership is lower than in Countries with very high values (like Sweden, The Netherlands, Denmark and Austria) but similar to the continental Countries and UK.

There is a high differentiation between Countries according to the type of associations, even sport or recreational and religious organisations are just all over the first (with the exception of Denmark for which 54,7% of people declare to be member of Trade Union).

Looking at trends we observe in Italy an increase in membership since 1981 for each kind of association, apart from political parties (see tab. 23). Also the decrease in the proportion of people that declare of not being member of any associations is relevant. The percentage of association members that are performing some activity is high and the proportion of individuals that perform some activity is on average higher, in comparison with other European Countries. (Gubert 2000). This is linked to the increasing numbers of voluntary activities and non profit and voluntary organisations in Italy mentioned above.

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<sup>10</sup> see indicator 39 on social networks, in Social Cohesion and indicator 71 in Social Inclusion.

**Table 23 Membership and engagement (active/non active) in associations: EVS data for Italy. Years 1981, 1990 and 1999 (percentage).**

	Membership			membership and activity		
	1981	1990	1999	1981	1990	1999
Social welfare services for elderly, handicapped or deprived people	4,0	4,2	6,4	3,0	3,3	5,1
Religious or church organisations	7,0	7,9	10,3	5,0	6,2	6,7
Education, arts, music or cultural activities	4,0	4,4	9,9	3,0	2,6	6,1
Trade unions	8,0	6,0	6,2	4,0	2,5	2,2
Political parties or groups	6,0	5,2	4,1	4,0	3,5	2,3
Local community action on issues like poverty, employment, housing, racial equality		1,7	2,4		1,3	1,8
Third world development or human rights	1,0	1,1	2,9	1,0	0,7	1,9
Conservation of the environment, ecology, animal rights	2,0	2,9	3,8	1,0	1,4	1,8
Professional associations	3,0	3,6	7,1	1,0	1,1	3,2
Youth work	2,0	3,3	4,2	1,0	2,7	3,0
Sports or recreation		10,1	11,5		6,2	6,3
Women's groups		0,3	0,4		0,1	0,4
Peace movements		1,1	1,4		0,6	0,9
Voluntary organisations concerned with health		2,5	4,7		1,9	2,9
Other groups		2,1	2,6		1,7	1,6
<b>Total</b>	<b>37,0</b>	<b>56,4</b>	<b>77,9</b>	<b>23,0</b>	<b>35,8</b>	<b>46,2</b>
Non membership	74,0	65,1	56,2	82,0	74,5	69,3

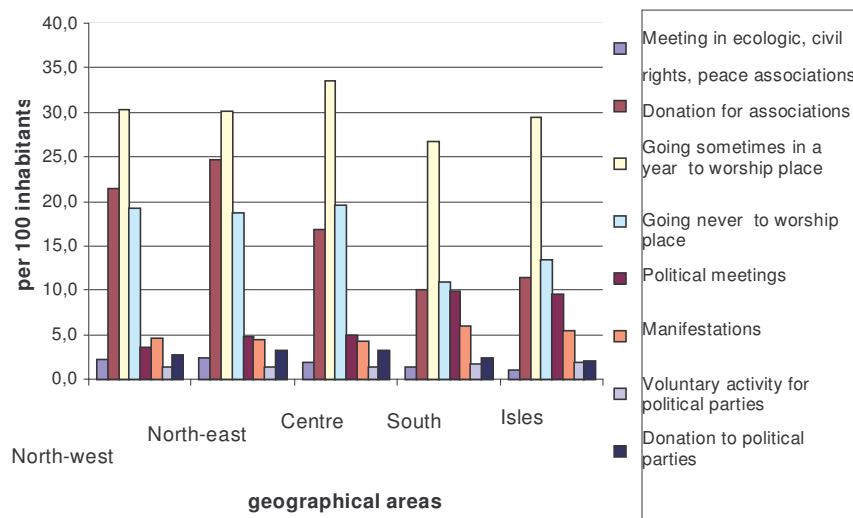
Source: EVS data 1981, 1990, 1999 in Gubert (2000) p.124

Note: total is higher than 100% for multiple membership

National data show a different geographical distribution of different types of associations.

The Italian survey explores behaviour more than membership, since it asks about attending to a meeting of different kind of associations: ecology, civil rights, peace, cultural recreation and others, trade unions and voluntary. It also asks about voluntary activity for different organizations (voluntary, trade union, other associations) (ISTAT 2002). We have also data on attendance to religious events and political participation (fig.11).

**Figure 11 Participation at meeting of associations, donations of money, religious and political participation by geographical - Year 2001 (per 100 persons).**



The importance of family relationships in Italy does not hinder the ability to form friendship and the intensity of contacts with them, also in comparative terms. Moreover, friends, are also part of the support network (Sabbadini 2002): 16,5% of informal care givers (mostly women) help friends and neighbours, and 19% of all those providing informal help (mostly men) provide financial and professional support to friends and neighbours. And there is also a quota of young people, mostly student, who provide help with studying lessons.

The indicator of receiving support from family, neighbours and friends has been put here, but might be as legitimate (and possibly more) either in the socio-economic security or in the social inclusion domain (see domain social networks, indicator 71).

In 1998 15% of all households have received some help from non cohabitant others. They are more numerous in the North-East and Center, less numerous in the North-West (see tab. 24) The most helped households include children under 14, followed by households which include elderly above 64. Among the latter however, about a quarter of households with an elderly over 80 and of single person households receive some kind of informal help. Among household with children, the most helped include dual workers couples and lone parent couples. Further, in the North, dual worker couples are strongly helped – in the form of child care – by their informal network. In the South on the contrary, dual worker households receive little informal help, while on the contrary are more likely to have to provide help themselves to their frail kin, given the on average worse health conditions of the elderly in these Regions). This puts a particular pressure on mothers, and particularly working mothers in these Regions.



**Table 24 Proportion of people 15 years old and over who declare to have friends, neighbourhood and relatives from whom can receive support in case of need, by Regions, geographical area and city dimension- Year 1998(per 100 individuals).**

	Friends	one individual/ family	more than one individuals/ families	relatives	uncles	cousins
Region						
Piemonte	62,1	30,0	25,1	43,6	45,6	38,3
Valle d'Aosta	70,0	23,8	37,4	49,2	48,1	41,5
Lombardia	62,0	28,9	24,7	47,8	49,9	33,1
Trentino-Alto Adige	70,9	31,1	30,5	46,6	51,5	37,2
Veneto	65,6	28,4	28,5	46,7	48,1	36,5
Friuli-Venezia Giulia	59,9	26,3	25,5	44,4	42,7	39,0
Liguria	55,6	23,5	23,8	37,4	45,2	33,2
Emilia-Romagna	57,3	22,5	20,8	43,9	45,8	38,8
Toscana	58,4	28,1	28,2	48,0	42,1	36,7
Umbria	59,4	24,5	29,0	45,7	45,8	37,0
Marche	59,5	25,1	28,4	39,7	43,7	40,4
Lazio	57,2	25,8	21,8	38,9	45,0	41,1
Abruzzo	53,6	27,9	24,1	43,1	46,0	41,2
Molise	62,1	26,6	28,5	46,1	40,7	33,1
Campania	52,8	33,8	19,3	38,3	37,3	35,3
Puglia	47,9	23,3	19,3	36,8	47,6	29,7
Basilicata	56,2	31,9	14,5	38,8	43,8	37,0
Calabria	47,0	24,6	24,3	41,1	49,3	35,1
Sicilia	53,1	29,7	16,9	38,4	39,1	32,9
Sardegna	66,7	28,5	32,9	50,4	44,6	39,9
Italy	57,9	27,8	23,5	42,8	45,3	36,1
Geographical area						
North-west	61,4	28,6	24,8	45,5	48,3	34,6
North east	62,2	26,1	25,4	45,4	46,9	37,7
Center	58,1	26,4	25,3	42,5	43,9	39,1
South	51,0	28,6	20,5	38,9	43,2	34,4
Isles	56,6	29,4	20,9	41,4	40,8	35,0
Italy	57,9	27,8	23,5	42,8	45,3	36,1
City dimension						
Town metropolitan area	55,1	26,4	17,3	34,8	42,2	35,9
Periphery metropolitan area	59,4	30,3	22,3	43,2	48,8	35,5

Source: ISTAT, Multipurpose Survey on "Households and Social Subjects". Year 1998.

Eurobarometer data (see Gallie and Paugam 2002: pp. 48-49) indicate that Italy is among the few countries in which the perception of one's own ability to receive support (financial or otherwise) if in need has not declined but rather slightly increased between 1996 and 2001, both for the population as a whole and for those in the lowest quartile. They also confirm what emerges from national data: notwithstanding the ageing of the population, the availability of potential support decreases steadily with age across Europe. This might point to difficulties in dealing with the problems of the elderly. It is also in contrast with other Eurobarometer data, according to which slightly less than 60% of EU

citizens (but over 80% of Italians) declared that they would rather care for their frail elderly themselves (Alber and Kohler 2004). This is an instance in which attitude survey must be used with caution since not only they may express a tension between ideal and actual behaviours, but also involve multiple dimensions which should be explored in more detail.

From EVS data (Q 6A, 6B) frequency of contact with friends in Italy are higher than the average: 61,9% of people declare that they see their friends every week; on the other hand, the proportion of people that declare not to spend any time with colleagues is 35,0%, higher than the average (see indicator 40 in the Annex).

### **3.5 Identity**

The proposed indicators/data available on a comparative basis are particularly weak, in the face of the oversemantic of the concept of identity, even if limited to some kind of “collective identity”. And data can be very tricky. Thus, for instance, Italians are among the proudest “to be Italian”, but at the same time declare among the lowest trust in Italians themselves (see answers to Q 71 and Q 71A of the EV, See in the Annex Indicators 41-43). Thus, what does it mean to be proud to be part of a population which deserves little trust?

The data on feelings of belonging to different territorial entities deserve some attention from an Italian perspective. Recent years have been characterized both in the public discourse and in legislation (see the Constitutional reform approved in 2001 and the now pending proposal for another more radical reform) by a growing demand for federalism and decentralisation, in which the role of Regions has greatly increased. Yet, if we look at the EVS data, Italians exhibit a lower degree of identification with their region than with the country as a whole (although the latter is lower than the EU15 average ). Further, their identification with their region is much lower than that found in all EU15, either federal or centralised countries (the exception is only the Netherlands). Of course, from the Italian point of view data disaggregated by region would be most interesting, but the sample does not allow it (see e.g. Negri and Sciolla 200).

In any case, it seems fair to say that if Italy is a country of “town bell towers” – meaning that it is a country with strong local identifications, the boundaries of the “local” stopping at the municipality’s ones. And the family (not only the household) remains the main body one feels he/she primarily belongs to. To this it should be added that even identification with the municipality should be looked at twice, since it is not necessarily the municipality one lives in. It could also be that where one comes from. This is important in a country where – particularly in large cities - a substantial quota of the population are second or third generation internal migrants. Actually, from a social cohesion point of view, it would be interesting to verify whether there are differences in the municipality which one feels to belong to between the older generation of internal migrants and their children or grand children.

### 3.6 Trends and reflections

This conditional factor – Social Cohesion – is more difficult and more controversially defined than that of socio-economic security. The indicators are not easily clear cut in conceptual terms. Thus identifying trends is rendered complex (and possibly dubious) by a not fully shared and clarified conception of what social cohesion is about.

Very tentatively, we may point out that looking at attitudes, Italians seem to appear most cohesive at the micro (family and kin) and macro (Church, sovra-national bodies) level, much less so at the meso level. Further, the persistence of large regional differences not only at the economic level, but at the level of political culture, represents a not so hidden fracture in Italian society. The political developments of the past ten years, including the creation of regional parties and a demand for federalism sometime spurred by inter-regional conflicts, has changed the public discourse on this fracture in a manner the consequences of which on common perceptions and attitudes must still be fully analysed. Further problems, and needs to develop adequate public discourses and policies, arise from the phenomenon of Third world immigration. Italy, in fact, has definitely become a country of immigration, therefore multi-cultural and multiethnic.

Further, a radical change in the traditional forms of political representation (parties) in the late eighties-early nineties overturned balances and alliances which had lasted for over thirty years. The two largest political parties which had dominated government and opposition since the post war years – the Christian democrats and the Communists – both crumbled after the fall of the Berlin wall in 1989, while new parties emerged. This was both a consequence and a cause of changing forms of individual, social and political identification, of changing patterns of social stratification, of the re-emergence of old cleavages (e.g. the North/South one). Whatever the political judgment one may pass on these processes and on the coalitions which have taken their turn in government in the past decade, it is fair to say that the public arena has become somewhat unsettled, and there is a general feeling that a public discourse is lacking, in which society as a whole may, albeit conflicting, recognize itself. This is not a negative condition *per se*, as it may represent a transitional phase, from one balance to another, more adequate one. This breaking up of long standing balances and discourses may also open up new options. Yet this situation – which a scholar has aptly described as that of a “society out of frame” – or lacking a frame (Bagnasco 2003) – contributes not only to lack of trust in public institutions - a quality which has never fared high among Italians, in comparisons to other Europeans. Together with changes in the economy, in the family, in gender arrangements and so forth, it also contributes to feelings of uncertainty.

Against this background of not fully integrated changes the growing willingness of Italians to take part into some kind of volunteer activity, the enormous growth of the so called “social economy” (cooperatives and so forth) suggest that the civil society is developing new ways to address issues of social cohesion at the meso level. This is a very important development.



## **4 Social Inclusion**

### **4.1 Introduction**

As with social cohesion, also social inclusion is multi-level and inclusion at one level does not necessarily translate into inclusion at another level. Three examples are particularly telling here. The first refers to the constraints which a strong inclusiveness into family (and its obligations) may impose on women, reducing their ability to be fully included into the labour market, or in political participation. The second example refers to the high dependency of the young in Mediterranean countries on family solidarity for access to housing, social protection and so forth. They are certainly included, not isolated. But their citizenship as individuals is somewhat constrained. These two examples are at the core of the familisation/defamilisation debate (see e.g. Saraceno 1997 and 2004b). The third example refers to the tensions which may be empirically found in ethnic communities, where loyalty and identification with the values and rules of that community may hinder (or even be used against) integration in the larger community. The debate about the veil is just the most symbolic example of this: the veil may be enforced upon women by their ethnic community, it may be used by women to express their belonging to that community, it may be used by the larger community and its institutions as an indicator of women's oppression (negating their possible agency) and of lack of integration, therefore excluding those very women from participation in "non oppressive" institutions. Thus social inclusion is not only a matter of rights, but of complex negotiations between different levels of belonging (and different obligations), each of which has its own formal and informal rules and power relations. The indicators proposed in the Social Quality approach at best grasp only the formal dimensions of inclusion, but not its internal tensions.

### **4.2 Citizenship rights**

#### **4.2.1 Legal rights of citizens, of foreigners and immigrants, of ethnic groups**

In 2001 97,5% of all legally resident in Italy were Italian citizens. The proportion had slightly decreased from 98,9% in 1996, following the increase in immigration. Resident foreigners, who include also EU citizens, were 2,6% of the total resident population at the end of 2000, up from 1,9% in 1995.

Including children, the estimate is 3% of the total resident population. Both the incidence and total number of legal resident foreigners has increased since 2001, following a regularization law which allowed migrants who had not a regular sojourn permit but had a labour contract to regularize their position, under certain conditions. Thousands of requests were presented and their processing is just being completed but full data are not yet available.

Table 25 provides an overview of the different status foreigners can have in Italy, with regard to the form of their (legal or illegal) presence, as well as an estimate of the number of those who are illegally (with no permit) in the country. Experts say that data on sojourn permits are more reliable than those on legal residence, since migrants are a very mobile population and they do not always change their

official residence when they move. At the same time, a quota of those who have a sojourn permit are temporary residents. It is the case of workers with seasonal work contracts, who commute more or less regularly between their country and Italy.

**Table 25 Types of status of foreign citizens and foreign born people. Years 1995 and 2001 (absolut values and percentage).**

	1995			2001		
	a.v. per 1.000	%	% on resident population	a.v. per 1.000	%	% on resident population
Legal Foreign citizens (a)	820	72,2	1,4	1.708	67,3	3,0
Number of sojourn permits	729	64,2	1,3	1.448	57,1	2,5
Non legal Foreign citizens (b)	256	22,5	0,5	700	27,6	1,2
Foreign Population (1+3)	1.076	94,7	1,9	2.408	94,9	4,2
Foreign citizens residents (c)	737	64,9	1,3	1.465	57,7	2,6
Naturalization (d)	60	5,3	0,1	130	5,1	0,2
Immigrants population (e)	1.136	100,0	2,0	2.538	100,0	4,5

Source: Golini, Strozza, Basili, Cibella Reginato (2004).

Notes: (a) Minor of 18 years estimates included enve if without sojourn. For the year 1995 Natale e Strozza (1997), per il 2001 ISTAT (2003). (b) Estimates on the basis of regularization demands for the sanatory of he year 1995-96 (Decreto Legge Dini) and sanatory of the year 2002-2003 (Law Bossi-Fini). (c) The last data davailable is for 2000. (d) The number 84.297 citizenship acquisitions registred by Ministry of Interior 1991 and 2001 is summed up with an estimate of citizenship acquired by children trough naturaizad parentsts and an estimate of naturalization before the year 1991. (e) Foreign people plus etimate of naturalized foreign citizens. Are escluded children born in Italy fron naturalized citizens.

According to experts, for every legal entry into the country, we should add an illegal one (50%). Italy attracts illegal immigration more than other countries due to the difficulty of controlling such extensive borders and to the size of its informal economy. Particularly relevant is the expansion of their presence in private care and domestic services as well as the proliferation of small enterprises where unregistered labour can be hidden more easily. Immigration laws have been mainly aimed at regularising the status of those already residing in Italy illegally rather than at regulating new legal entries. This means that the 'back door' of illegal entry was the only viable one. Between 1986 and 1998 Italian Governments introduced four amnesties for a total of almost 790,000 people. According to Caritas-Minister of the Interior data, at 1st January 2000, 565,596 of them were still present in Italy. To this figure, at least further 130,000 persons should be added, who came to Italy through family reunion with regularised immigrants. Legal residents in Italy from emigration countries amounted to 1,112,173 (1 January 2000), which means that the great majority of regular immigrants in Italy (at least 60%) was made up of people who had undergone a regularisation process or who had joined relatives who had been through the experience of being illegal or irregular immigrants. The several amnesties did not solve the problem. They appear, in fact, to have attracted new illegal migration more than to have drained the basin of illegality.

The gap between the planned legal quotas, on the one hand, and the demand for immigrant labour, on the other, continuously reproduces large numbers of illegal. This is why even the present Center-Right government, which claims to fight illegal migration more firmly, accepted the inclusion in its new reform

(no.189– July 30, 2002) of the possibility to legalise one housekeeper per family and an unlimited number of care workers for non self-sufficient people, as long as they were hired before June 10, 2002 – a requirement that is difficult to deny. Another decree (no.195 – September 9, 2002) extended the amnesty to other employees hired before June 10, 2002. These measures were adopted under the pressure both of an advocacy coalition (made up mainly of Catholic religious associations, democratic lawyers' associations, part of the trade unions, academics) and an organisation of entrepreneurs. At the end of 2003 the regularisation procedures had almost been completed and more than 630,000 applications had already been accepted (some will be multiple because a person could have more than one employer but others will be added), an estimate of 600,000 is therefore cautious. At 31 December 2002, according to the Ministry of the Interior figures as calculated by Caritas there were 1.512.000 foreigners present. Adding these to the figure of 600,000, the total of around 2,112,000 is reached. The total increase obtained by calculating those present between the beginning and end of 2002 and calculating as legal residents the applications accepted or in the process of being accepted, this would be more than 55%. The percentage of foreigners out of the total Italian population, calculated at the end of 2002 as around 58 million, would be around 4.2%. Italy thus moves closer to the European average which was 5.25% at the beginning of 2001 (Caritas immigrants) (Zincone 2004).

From a social inclusion perspective also rules concerning acquiring citizenship and receiving asylum are important (although not mentioned in the SQ indicators). Acquiring citizenship is very difficult for a non Italian. Law no. 91 of 1992 reinforced the *jus sanguinis* principle by demanding three years of residence for foreigners of Italian origin, four for foreigners of E.U. countries, five for refugees, and ten years for foreigners from non-EU countries, before requiring the Italian nationality. By contrast, the previous 1912 Law did not make any distinction and set five years for all foreigners. The *jus soli* criterion, i.e. non-discretionary access to citizenship for foreigners born in Italy when they turn 18, is thus modified: they must be legal residents since birth, and must prove a steady presence in the country. These two requirements were not part of the 1912 law. Further, Italy does not have a law concerning asylum and refugee protection. Requests for asylum is still mainly regulated by art. 1 of Law no.39 February 28, 1989 and by the few articles included in the Bossi-Fini 2002 reform. The 1989 law repealed the Italian clause of ratification of the Geneva Convention that had previously limited the status of refugee in Italy to people from authoritarian European countries. The Dublin Convention of 1990 (ratified by Italy in 1992 but in force only since 1997) introduced the principle of refusing applications from people who have already been granted refugee status by other states considered to be "safe countries", in terms of civil and political rights. As far as asylum is concerned, a more liberal bill was passed by the Senate (5 November 1998), but it is still under examination by the Chamber of Deputies. This would be the first Single Act on asylum in Italy. In 2002, only 8,210 asylum applications had been presented and recorded up to March 2003, 17,162 were examined, partly recorded in previous years, and 1,270 accepted (Zincone 2004).

All Italian citizens 18 years old and over are entitled to vote in elections. EU citizens can vote only for EU parliament elections. In some municipality there have been attempts to extend the right to vote in

local elections to all legally resident adults; but this is a highly controversial item and no national regulation exist, although various proposals are pending. In some cities foreigners can elect a representative who can then sit in the city council with an advisory role (e.g. in Rome)<sup>11</sup>.

In Italy there is generally a very high turn out at elections, higher than the European average. Yet, in the past ten years there has been a constant decrease. In the local elections in 2003 voted respectively 75,1% of all women and 74,5% of all men having a right to vote (ISTAT 2004b).

It should be pointed out that a few traditional ethnic and linguistic minorities have a special protected status in Italy. It is the case of the German (and partly the Ladin) speaking population in South Tyrol, or the French speaking and Walser population in the Aosta Valley and, to a lower degree, the Slovenian population in Friuli-Venezia Giulia. The existence of these minorities has been acknowledged also in the particular autonomy granted to those Regions, and in the case of South Tyrol to Provinces. In those Regions/Provinces even political parties, particularly in the case of non Italian linguistic minorities, are ethnic based and do not follow the traditional divisions of the "Italian" political parties. They usually constitute the major party in those areas, stipulating allegiances which constitute forms either of center-left or of center-right government. In these contexts, also positions in the public administrations may be covered by people belonging to different ethnic groups according to a quota system, although this is fully formalised only in South Tyrol, where all the system (from kindergarten to schools to services for the disabled) is segregated on the basis of the two prevalent ethnic groups as a result of an agreement between Austria and Italy following the after war period of ethnic rebellion and terrorism.

Also other traditional ethnic/linguistic minorities exist, with a lower degree of institutional acknowledgement, such as the traditional Albanian enclave in the South and the Sardinians, who have long fought to have their dialect be acknowledged as a veritable language. More recently, reference to some kind of ethnic identity has been used as a powerful symbolic means in the creation of the Lega Nord (Northern League), which has a substantial basis in the North and particularly the North-west, being nourish also by anti-Rome and anti South feelings.

#### **4.2.2 Social rights**

The pension system in Italy is based on the Bismarkian principle of compulsory insurance for all dependent workers. Also the self employed have their own pension institutes and so do the professionals. Thus, on principle nobody in regular work should be exempted both from paying contributions towards a pension and from receiving it when they reach the retirement age. Rules and contributions vary, notwithstanding the effort at homogenisation made by the 1995 reform. Further, in order to be entitled to a pension there must be a minimum contributory record. In the case the minimum contributory record is reached, but it does not grant the minimum pension, the pension may be integrated up to the minimum on the basis of a means-test (in the case of a person living with a partner, the couple's, not the individual's, income is means-tested).

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<sup>11</sup> see the description on chapter 6 of this report.

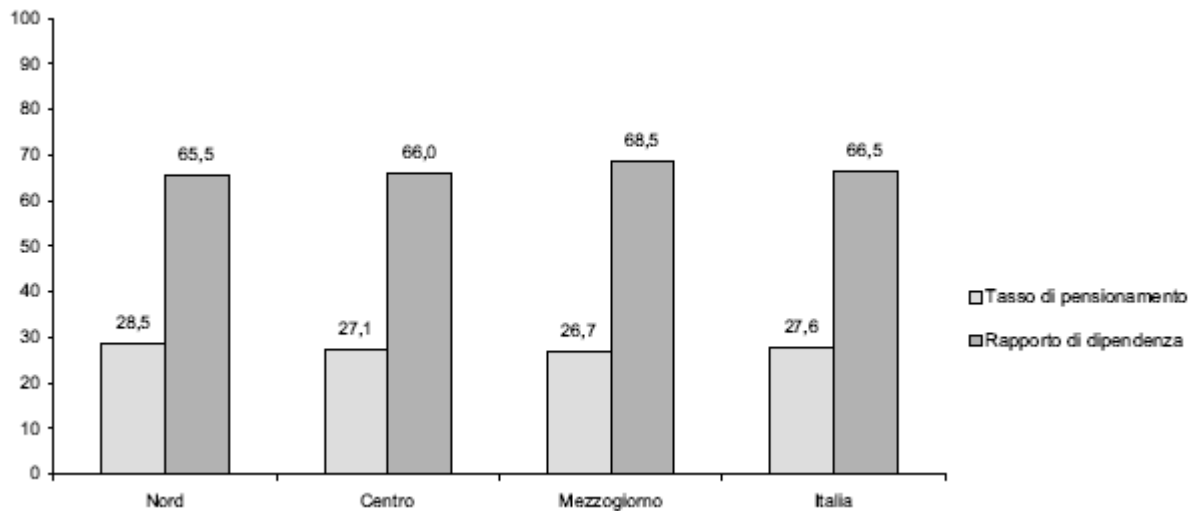


As temporary job contracts are becoming widespread and workers (particularly women) tend to remain longer in these kinds of contracts, the risk is that in the future the quota of those not entitled to a full pension will increase.

Those with no official paid work record are not entitled to a pension but in two cases: as the survivor “dependents” (wife and children) of a worker entitled to a pension and as elderly poor. In the former case they receive a – since 1995 means-tested - survivor pension (about 60% of the original pension); in the latter case they receive a means-tested social assistance pension, which is lower than the minimum contributory one. Thus many women, particularly in the older cohorts, are not entitled to a pension on their own, but only through marriage (and unmarried cohabitant partnership does not entitle to any survivor pension) or through social assistance. Women in fact are the most numerous beneficiaries of social assistance pensions as well as of integrated to the minimum contributory pensions. At the same time, marriage and particularly raising children, by reducing women’s participation to the labour market, reduce also their access to an own pension, or to an adequate pension – a phenomenon well analysed for instance by Ginn et al. (2001) in a comparative perspective. Thus in Italy, although women outnumber men among pensioners (given their longer life expectancy), men pensioners, who are 46,8% of all pensioners, receive 55.5% of pension income, since their average pension is about 4 thousands euros higher than that of women: 13.736 euros compared to 9.688.

There are also important regional differences in the distribution of pensioners and of the pension income, due to differences in the age structure of the population but also to different regional economic and labour market histories. The highest percentage of pensioners on the population (28,5%) is found in the North. It is 27% in the Center and 26,7% in the South. The dependency ratio (number of pensioners on the total working population) however is more homogeneous, as indicated in figure 12 (ISTAT 2004c).

**Figure 12 Standardised retirement rate and dependence index by geographical area. Year 2002 (per 100 inhabitants).**



Source: ISTAT –INPS Statistiche della previdenza e della assistenza sociale. I beneficiari delle prestazioni pensionistiche in ISTAT (2004c), fig. 5.15.

Notes: a) Tasso di pensionamento is calculated as the average number of retired people on total resident population and ponderated. B) rapporto di dipendenza is the number of retired people (beneficiaries of social assistance excluded) on total employed people.

Speaking of social rights, two other rights should be mentioned: that to health services and that to income support when in need. The former will be dealt with in par. 4.4. As for income support for the poor, Italy still lacks a sound basis, as mentioned in chapter two, and in many localities there is nothing at all. At the national level, only the poor elderly and the poor (severely) disabled are entitled to some form of income support, in the form of a social assistance pension or a social assistance invalidity indemnity.

### 4.2.3 Overt and implicit discrimination

Overt discrimination on the basis of gender, ethnicity, religion, sexual orientation is banned in Italy. Yet implicit discriminations still exist.

In the case of gender, according to Eurostat data (see indicator 48 in the Annex), the gender pay gap in Italy is the lowest in Europe: 6% in 2001 compared to the EU average of 16%. Yet this good news covers more problematic phenomena which are not grasped by the proposed indicator.

First, there is the low women's labour market participation. A high proportion of women does not have access to paid work at all, particularly if they have family responsibilities (thus incurring severe economic risks when the marriage breaks up, or when they remain widows, and in old age).

Second, women are disproportionately concentrated in the lower and middle ranks of the occupational scale, although some improvements may be witnessed in recent years, due to women's better education compared to men in the younger cohorts.

Third, there is a high concentration of women in atypical job contracts, which offer less social security protection with regard not only to unemployment and old age, but also to motherhood. As a matter of

fact, women, and particularly young women, are dis-proportionally included in the kinds of job contracts which have the least, if any, protection in case of motherhood.

Finally, the gender pay gap increases with education and occupational rank. Thus, the better educated have better jobs and have higher chances to remain in the labour market irrespective of their family obligations than the lower educated; but they are also more discriminated against in terms of pay.

Recent data (2003 and 2004) on the situation of university graduates one and five years after having completed their degree, indicate that one year after graduation women already have less job security and lower pay than their male colleagues, although on average the former had a more regular and better university curriculum. Differences remain even if one controls for kind of University degree; that is they remain also when comparing women engineers with men engineers, women doctors with men doctors and so forth. These differences remain also five years after graduation (AlmaLaurea 2003, ISTAT 2004e).

The most patent gender unbalance in Italy is found in politics, with only 10% of women elected in the National Parliament (17% now in the European Parliament), and only two women ministers, one of whom (the equal opportunity minister) without portfolio. This unbalance has remained fairly stable throughout the almost sixty years of the Italian Republic and since women obtained voting rights. Recently, a law has been passed requiring that each electoral list must include at least 30% of either gender.

Improvements have occurred in the economic sector. Since 1993 the number of women in managerial and entrepreneurial positions has increased, as well as within the profession. The higher presence of women in all self employed positions, including entrepreneurial ones, however, must be read with caution, since it is often the only option offered in an otherwise impermeable labour market. The very reduced size of women's enterprises is an indirect indicator of this, and should be reflected upon when promoting, at the national and EU level, self employment as a kind of panacea for women.

Women continue to remain absent from top decision making positions, including the public administration, as indicated in tab.26.

**Table 26 Proportion of Women in managerial position in the Public Administration by sector - Year 2002 (women per 100 employees with the same qualification)**

Types of Public Sectors	%
School- Principal	39
Health- Manager in complex structure	17
University- Full professors	16
Ministries- Director general	15
Research Institutes- Director of research	15
Judiciary - High Court (cassazione) Judge	10
Judiciary- Section presidents	0
Diplomacy- Ambassador	0

Source: Ragioneria dello Stato- Conto Annuale , Ministero dell'Istruzione e della Ricerca Scientifica (MIUR) in ISTAT (2004e) p. 121.

There are no women in the top positions of the Bank of Italy and there is not a woman among the presidents of the various national banks. Also in the organizations which represent entrepreneurs,

artisans, commerce, agriculture there are no women in the decision making positions. The situation is better, although far from satisfactory, within trade unions, where 23,6% of top positions is covered by women (ISTAT 2004e. See also indicator 52 in the Annex).

As pointed out, ethnicity may be even an advantage in certain conditions (i.e when one is part of a protected traditional ethnic minority in a specific region, as in the Valle d'Aosta, or in South Tyrol). But when ethnicity couples with the migrant status it is a different story. As it always occurs in migration, migrant workers often occupy the lowest positions in the labour market. If they are women, their options are further restricted: the most common job offered to migrant women, irrespective of their professional skills, is that of private caring work for the frail elderly and, to a lesser degree, for children. An official term has been even invented for it: in the light of the growing frail elderly population and lack of support services, the recent immigrant regularization law made particular allowances for the "*Badanti*": women (sic) paid family carers. Within this field, the successive waves of migration are creating a kind of hierarchy (in pay, negotiating power, preferability) not only along the regular/irregular divide, but along ethnic lines: women from Eastern European countries are increasingly preferred to those coming from Latin America (particularly if these are not "white") and these are preferred over the African ones.

Legal discrimination (or discriminations through the law) occurs in two main areas: that of religion and that of interpersonal relations. None of them is grasped by the proposed SQ indicators.

Only Catholic religion is taught in school. Pupils may be exempted from religion class; but they must remain in school. Although actually a law stipulates that a request to remove religious symbols from public spaces, such as schools, hospitals, and so forth, must be accepted, any time the removal of a crucifix is required by someone it is perceived as an attack against (Catholic) religion, while the slight made to those (Jews, Muslims, atheists, or simply people who wish that the public space be neutral) who are disturbed by it is never taken into consideration.

As for interpersonal relationship, Italian law does not acknowledge any right and obligations created through - hetero- or homosexual - cohabitation without marriage. As a consequence, cohabitant partners may not benefit from a survivor pension, or inherit in the absence of a testament (and in any case only for the quota which does not go to the "lawful heirs"), or succeed in the renting contract. Generally their financial relationships are little protected. And although natural children have the same rights of legitimate ones with regard to their parents, their legal kinship network is very restricted, which is an important restriction in a country where support obligations within kin are a crucial item in the welfare package.

### **4.3 Labour market**

Italy is the EU15 country with the highest share of long term unemployment among the unemployed: 61.6% in 2001 and 59,1% in 2002 (see indicator 52 in the Annex). As shown in tab 27 the incidence varies substantially across Regions. On average is much higher in the Southern Regions (where, as

we have indicated in chapter 2 there is also a concentration of poverty. Yet it is quite substantial also in Piemonte and Liguria, two traditional industrial Regions where the processes of industrial restructuring and of technological innovation have rendered redundant a quota of a traditional manual working class. It is high also in Lazio.

**Table 27 Percentage of long term unemployment on total unemployment by Regions – Years 1999-2002 and variations 1999-2002.**

	1999	2000	2001	2002	Variations 1999-2002
Piemonte	57,8	47,0	47,5	47,0	81
Valle d'Aosta	19,0	31,2	18,6	18,8	99
Liguria	62,1	57,4	56,3	56,8	91
Lombardia	44,5	40,4	40,1	36,0	81
Trentino-Alto Adige	13,2	26,0	18,3	11,4	86
Veneto	30,8	29,4	26,2	28,3	92
Friuli-Venezia Giulia	33,3	38,3	33,3	25,1	75
Emilia-Romagna	27,6	23,4	28,8	25,0	91
Toscana	43,5	45,9	39,3	38,6	89
Umbria	55,2	52,6	45,8	44,3	80
Marche	48,4	46,7	40,1	33,4	69
Lazio	69,6	69,8	71,0	68,5	98
Abruzzo	64,3	62,6	51,0	53,0	83
Molise	67,1	66,2	65,0	60,6	90
Campania	74,4	74,5	76,8	73,3	99
Puglia	63,0	61,9	63,3	65,5	104
Basilicata	57,3	60,4	63,7	59,7	104
Calabria	63,4	66,8	66,2	61,8	97
Sicilia	67,7	69,5	70,2	69,0	102
Sardegna	59,1	64,5	62,3	57,9	98
ITALY	60,6	61,2	61,7	59,1	98

Source: Eurostat, New Cronos, Regio, LFS.

The data on involuntary part time and atypical contract (tab. 28) indicate that these forms of work, which are often presented in the public, including EU, discourse as a solution to unemployment and as a support to women's labour force participation, have at least a dubious status. About half of all men part-timers would rather work full time and the same is true for about a third of women. About 20% of the self employed would rather have a different occupational status. Yet, between 1999 and 2003 there has been a distinct decrease in the proportion of part-timers claiming that part time was involuntary. This decrease involves particularly women in the younger cohorts. This phenomenon suggests that the availability of part time positions may meet the needs of women involved in the most exigent phase of family formation, encouraging them to remain in – or enter – the labour force.

**Table 28 Proportion of involuntary part-time, temporary and atypical contracts by type of contracts age class and by gender - Year 1999-2003.**

	Dependent employment				Self-employees		Atypical contracts	
	Involuntary part-time employees/ part-time employees	Involuntary temporary contract/ temporary contract employees	Involuntary part-time self-employees/ part-time self-employees	Involuntary atypical contract workers/ atypical workers	1999	2003	1999	2003
	1999	2003	1999	2003	1999	2003	1999	2003
Males								
15-24	54,2	55,9	23,2	22,2	33,2	17,0	28,7	27,3
15-64	55,7	54,7	41,1	42,2	29,4	21,6	43,5	42,7
Females								
15-24	62,6	52,7	26,2	24,6	41,6	27,0	40,5	35,9
15-64	37,9	30,3	40,4	40,9	17,3	13,5	32,2	31,5
Total								
15-24	59,7	53,8	24,6	23,2	37,9	22,1	34,9	31,5
15-64	42,3	35,1	40,7	41,5	21,4	16,0	38,4	35,4

Source: OML on ISTAT DATA, Survey on Labour Force, Ministero del Lavoro e delle Politiche Sociali (2004) Rapporto di Monitoraggio sull'occupazione 2004.

Note: Involuntary means that part-time or temporary contract workers have declared that they had not succeeded in obtaining a fulltime or permanent job (all forms of non permanent jobs involving training are considered voluntary).

Mention should be made of access to the labour market by disabled people (an indicator totally missing from the list). The law requiring that enterprises above a given size hire a quota of disabled workers is highly controversial and not very effective, in so far it may be easily overlooked. In recent years an important role in this field has been attributed to social cooperatives which hire and support disadvantaged people, including the disabled.

## 4.4 Services

### 4.4.1 Health services

Since 1978 in Italy there is a National health service; and all those legally resident in the country are entitled to it. Formal exclusion therefore concerns non regular residents (who however must be accepted in the hospital emergency room) and those citizens, such as the homeless, who have no address and often have lost their ID and local residence. Health care in fact is organised regionally, even if nationally funded. Thus lack of residence excludes from services such as the family doctor and primary health services. In recent years, precisely in order to grant these people access to health services an address is given them either at the municipal house or at some charity. For non legally resident foreigners volunteer groups and charities often organise ad hoc services.

Entitlement and actual access do not coincide. Information asymmetries, queuing and so forth may de facto hinder access by some groups. Tab. 29 indicates what kind of difficulty poor households of different composition find in using selected health services. A more sophisticated indicator should offer information on what kind of public health services are most used by different social groups and how long they have to wait to receive service (and what alternative options they have). Averages say very

little on the resources available to individuals located differently in the social stratification. Scattered research data for instance suggest that the better off tend to use the most sophisticated and most costly public health care services. Also they can opt out of queuing either by having recourse to the private market, or by “buying” privately the public service: an option which is legally available in the public hospital sector, where a patient can opt for having a private service within the public hospital by paying.

**Table 29 Households that declare difficulties using health services and emergency care by poverty conditions and households type- Year 2002 (per 100 households).**

	Health Services (a)	Emergency (b)	Total (a+b)	Total (a+b)	
				poor	Non poor
Households with elderly					
1 elderly	11,3	13,6	15,8	22,4	14,8
at least 1	10,6	13,2	15,2	22,9	13,9
Households with children < 18					
1 child	4,7	7,0	8,3	8,8	8,3
2 children	5,0	8,4	9,5	10,4	9,4
3 or more	8,1	9,3	11,3	11,2	11,3
at least 1	5,1	7,7	9,0	9,9	8,9
Household dimension					
1 components	10,2	12,4	14,4	25,9	13,3
2 comp	7,1	9,5	11,0	19,9	10,9
3 comp	5,0	7,7	9,1	14,3	8,6
4 comp	5,2	7,7	9,1	10,4	8,9
5 comp and more	6,5	9,5	9,9	14,0	9,9
Total	7,0	9,5	10,3	17,1	10,3

Source: ISTAT, Multipurpose Survey on Households, “Aspects of Every Day Life”. Year 2002.

#### 4.4.2 Housing

As indicated in chapter 2, social housing is scarce in Italy and there is very little turnover. Thus queuing can take years. Low income young couples have almost no chance to obtain a social housing apartment, since being evicted is the most important requisite to access, followed by having particularly troubled family and personal circumstances. In order to meet the housing needs of low income families a national fund was created in 1999 to offer some income support to low income household who rent in the private market, but it is largely insufficient. Some municipalities integrate this fund with their own funds and also, as mentioned above, are trying to develop incentives for private owners to encourage them to let to low income households (26.000 household are now under eviction). The present government has also introduced a Fund, administered by Regions, to help young married couples to buy their own lodging.

With regard to homelessness, it should be preliminary pointed out that the term homeless covers a number (and continuum) of circumstances: from sleeping in hostels or at friend’s, to living in improper

housing, up to living in the street. The first estimate of the proportion of homeless who do not have a regular roof over their heads (therefore excluding those who live in hostels, or are hosted at friends or relatives, or even at charities) has been performed for the Poverty Commission in 2000, using the “one night” method. The study estimated that there were about 17.000 homeless people in Italy, highly concentrated in the larger towns (which also offer more services). They are mostly men (about 80%), relatively Young (70% is under 48 years old), about equally divided between Italians and foreigners. Only 32% of them has access to some kind of publicly or privately provided shelter for the night. The remaining sleep in the street, under bridges, in parks, near the railway stations and so forth. Actually it is likely that these two percentages imply a turnover. That is, one can obtain a bed in a shelter for period, and then has to change and spends time sleeping rough. Tab. 30 offers a glimpse of the “accommodations” found in the sample.

**Table 30 Types of night accommodation of the homeless by citizenship status- Year 2000.**

	Italian		Foreign		Total	
	a.v.	%	a.v.	%	a.v.	%
Organized shelter	275	34,5	200	29,4	475	32,1
Informal shelter, precarious housing	62	7,8	134	19,7	196	13,3
Emergency housing	28	3,5	34	5,0	62	4,2
Railway Station, Train, Car	193	24,2	105	15,4	298	20,2
Street, Park	196	24,6	163	23,9	359	24,3
Other	43	5,4	45	6,6	88	6,0
Total	797	100,0	681	100,0	1478	100,0

Note: 1190 missing response

Source: Commissione di Indagine sull'Esclusione Sociale 2002, p.148 (Survey on homeless people by Fondazione Zancan on March the 14th 2000)

In a number of municipalities, often through agreements and collaborations with volunteer and third sector associations, together with the offer of emergency shelter, a careful and diversified package of services has been developed, going from a moving van which goes round at night (particularly during the winter) to offer support (a hot beverage, a blanket, somebody to talk to) to those who are sleeping in the street, to protected apartments where the homeless can re-learn the everyday life routines. Some of these experiences may be found, in addition to FEANTSA publications, in Commissione di Indagine sull'Esclusione Sociale (2002).

#### 4.4.3 Education

Although compulsory schooling in Italy stops at the eighth grade, the quota of those who pass from the middle school to the non compulsory high school is high and increasing, as indicated in tab 32. Yet a highly differentiated high school system, with an added professional sector, socially streams teenagers, directing them to different outcomes which are strongly linked to their family social origins. In this perspective, it is worthwhile noticing that in 2003 78% of those who graduated from the university were the first in their family to receive a university degree, indicating a high degree of intergenerational educational mobility (Alma laurea 2004). Yet, looking at the specific university



degrees, the incidence of graduated whose parents had a university degree themselves was quite differentiated across kinds of degree. The highest incidence is found in medicine, law, engineering, the lowest one in the faculties offering degrees in education, social services and so forth. Thus, even if children of lower educated parents now go on to the university in increasing numbers, they are likely to obtain those degrees which have a lower prestige and market value (see also indicator in social empowerment). Further, as indicated in tab. 31, the trend to enrol at the university in the past few years is at best stable, if not declining.

**Table 31 Indicators of university education by Region (a) – Academic Years 2000-2001.**

Regions	Passage rate from Secondary school (b)			University Participation rate (c)			Students with university degree on all 25 years old people (e)		
	M	F	MF	M	F	MF	M	F	MF
1996-97	67,5	70,7	69,1	27,6	33,3	30,4	12,4	15,2	13,8
1997-98	59,4	63,9	61,8	27,5	34,0	30,7	11,8	14,6	13,2
1998-99	54,1	59,5	57,0	27,4	34,9	31,1	12,7	16,4	14,5
1999-00	57,5	62,6	60,2	27,5	35,7	31,5	13,8	17,9	15,8
Academic year 2000-2001									
Piemonte	61,5	61,3	61,4	26,6	33,2	29,8	14,9	18,5	16,7
Valle d'Aosta	62,0	75,1	69,5	25,6	33,3	29,3	10,2	16,0	13,1
Lombardia	57,5	60,0	58,8	25,4	31,2	28,2	15,2	19,0	17,1
Trentino-A Adige	55,3	53,5	54,3	20,6	25,7	23,1	11,9	14,3	13,1
Veneto	55,5	59,5	57,6	26,2	32,9	29,5	15,7	20,0	17,8
Friuli-Ven. Giulia	59,3	67,5	63,5	32,8	42,8	37,6	16,2	24,8	20,3
Liguria	65,1	72,1	68,8	34,7	42,6	38,6	20,8	24,9	22,8
Emilia-Romagna	59,6	61,2	60,5	28,8	36,2	32,4	17,2	22,5	19,8
Toscana	63,0	66,7	65,0	31,8	41,1	36,3	15,6	20,8	18,1
Umbria	56,3	68,9	62,6	31,0	43,3	37,0	16,3	23,0	19,6
Marche	60,5	68,2	64,5	32,2	43,4	37,7	16,5	21,5	19,0
Lazio	64,4	70,4	67,5	37,2	47,5	42,3	18,7	22,4	20,5
Abruzzo	65,2	78,2	71,8	36,1	51,4	43,6	17,0	25,0	21,0
Molise	63,6	75,5	69,8	34,5	49,8	41,9	16,8	21,6	19,1
Campania	60,3	72,0	66,3	28,3	37,3	32,8	13,6	16,5	15,0
Puglia	54,0	65,3	59,8	25,0	35,3	30,1	12,7	17,5	15,1
Basilicata	51,1	63,1	57,3	31,5	46,0	38,6	14,2	19,8	17,0
Calabria	64,6	75,1	70,0	33,8	46,1	39,8	14,9	19,4	17,1
Sicilia	55,1	61,9	58,7	24,9	34,0	29,4	11,2	13,6	12,3
Sardegna	53,4	67,8	61,3	27,4	45,8	36,3	11,8	19,7	15,7
ITALY	59,1	65,8	62,6	28,6	37,7	33,1	15,0	19,3	17,1
North	58,5	61,1	59,9	26,9	33,5	30,1	15,7	20,0	17,8
Center	62,9	69,0	66,1	34,4	44,7	39,5	17,2	21,8	19,5
South	57,9	68,5	63,4	27,9	38,8	33,3	13,1	17,2	15,1

Source: ISTAT (2004b)

Notes: (a). Unless stated otherwise, Region refers to where the student has his/her legal residence, not where the university is located (b) Enrolled at the University on 100 students having completed high school the year before (c) Enrolled at the university per 100 19-25 years olds. Region refers location of University. This under-estimated the phenomenon in the Regions which experiment out-migration and over-estimated Regions which experiment in-migration by university students (e) for the academic year  $t/t+1$  the average age at university graduation in Italy is  $>25$ , since until 1999 all university curricula lasted at least 4 years and on average a student took 7 years.

**Table 32 Indicators for the secondary school -Academic Years 1997-2002.**

Scolastic years	Participation Rate (a)			Secondary school diploma for 100 people 19 years old (b)		
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
1997-1998	80,6	83,8	82,2	62,9	74,6	68,6
1998-1999	80,3	84,1	82,2	66,1	78,7	72,2
1999-2000 (c)	83,7	83,4	83,6	65,2	76,7	70,8
2000-2001	85,2	87,6	86,3	65,3	75,7	70,4

An interesting indicator of social inclusion (not present in the proposed list) is the number of foreign children in schools. Their number has been growing sharply, indicating a change in patterns of migration: more stabilised, with more family-reunions and more marriages and children being born in Italy (tabb. 33-34. The presence of foreign students in every kind of school since the year 1995-96 has increased from 0,56 to 2,96 in 2003 on the total students. Since the year 1999-2000 has increased by 110.000 units, doubling the number. The presence is particularly strong in the North of Italy where there is a high proportion of non Italian students for all the compulsory school cycle and a growing presence in the high school.

**Table 33 Incidence % of non Italian pupils by kind of school and regional areas - School Years 1995-2003.**

	Kindergarten	Elementary	Middle school	High school	Total
1995-96	0,34	0,89	0,61	0,30	0,56
1999-00	1,69	2,03	1,68	0,58	1,47
2002-03	3,40	3,75	3,46	1,45	2,96

**Table 34 Non Italian pupils by kind of school and regional areas. School – Year 2002-2003.**

	Kindergarten	Elementary	Middle school	High school	Total
Number of foreign students					
North-West	19.860	36.095	21.197	12.076	89.228
North-East	13.663	27.890	15.559	10.161	67.273
Center	10.159	21.807	3.607	8.073	53.646
South	4.663	9.509	5.521	2.860	22.553
Italy	48.345	95.301	55.884	33.170	232.700
Incidence % on total students					
North-West	5,4	5,8	5,4	2,2	4,6
Nord-East	5,5	6,4	5,8	2,7	5,3
Center	4,6	5,2	4,9	2,1	4,1
South	0,8	0,9	0,8	0,3	0,7
Italy	3,4	3,8	3,5	1,5	3,0

Source: elaboration on data of Minister of Education, University and Research (MIUR) in Golini et al 2004.

Another indicator of social inclusion with regard to education (again not present in the proposed list) concerns the disabled. In Italy since the seventies physically, mentally and psychically disabled children are entitled to attend the compulsory school with everybody else and with the support of a special teacher. Transportation must be provided if it is needed. In the past fifteen years also

attendance in kindergarten and in high school has substantially increased, while attendance in the compulsory school has remained fairly stable, indicating that there is a growing awareness both among the disabled themselves and among their parents and teachers that disabled children must not be excluded from the right to education. In some municipality, such as e.g. in Turin, severely disabled children have a priority also in services for children under 3. And if they cannot attend the public services, they are entitled to an at home teacher.

The rights of the disabled have been strengthened with Law n. 104/1992. In the following years, and particularly with Law 53/200 on parental leaves, the right of carers have been acknowledged as well.

#### **4.4.4 Social care**

The proposed indicator “proportion of people in need receiving care services” is too general and a-specific. One can try to see how different categories of need and of people “in need” are covered, keeping in mind that the definition of need itself, and of the legitimate providers of care, is highly culturally bounded. Thus, for instance, a high degree of coverage of the frail elderly in institutions may be taken as an indicator of good collective responsibility, or on the contrary as an indicator of social and family indifference – of exclusion. Moreover, levels of coverage say nothing with regard to the quality of services and particularly to the degree of personal dignity and autonomy they grant to their guests.

Italy is among the European Countries the Country with the lowest coverage for the frail elderly both in institutions and through at home care services, although there are wide regional variations, particularly in the latter (which are more widespread in the Center-North Regions). As a consequence, the frail elderly are left to their own and to their kin resources, as indicated in tab 35.

**Table 35 Households needing help, by kind of help received and type of household- Year 1998\*.**

	Help	Help by family	Health services	Non health services	Public services	Private services	Financial help
Single person household							
With severe problems	64,5	50,5	8,1	8,9	13,8	27,7	3,3
With non severe problems	49,7	37,2	4,3	2,8	6,8	17,1	1,3
Total with problems	55,5	42,4	5,8	5,2	9,5	21,2	2,1
With relatives							
With severe problems	42,4	30,4	5,6	3,9	9,4	20,3	4,0
With non severe problems	29,1	15,6	2,4	2,2	4,6	11,1	0,0
Total with problems	36,6	24,0	4,2	3,1	7,3	16,3	2,3
Childless couples							
With severe problems	35,4	22,1	4,8	5,6	9,3	13,1	2,4
With non severe problems	23,6	15,4	1,1	1,2	2,1	8,0	1,7
Total with problems	29,0	18,4	2,8	3,2	5,4	10,3	2,0
Couple with children							
With severe problems	36,0	21,5	3,9	9,4	10,8	9,1	7,9
With non severe problems	19,1	10,9	0,9	1,9	2,7	7,3	1,0
Total with problems	27,5	16,2	2,4	5,6	6,7	8,2	4,4
Lone parent households							
With severe problems	41,9	26,3	5,9	7,4	11,4	13,8	2,8
With non severe problems	32,7	16,5	3,3	2,1	5,4	11,0	4,7
Total with problems	37,8	22,0	4,8	5,1	8,8	12,6	3,6
Multiple households							
With severe problems	17,2	8,9	7,2	3,4	8,8	6,9	1,6
With non severe problems	26,1	21,8	-	18,3	18,3	0,0	10,8
Total with problems	20,7	13,9	4,4	9,2	12,5	4,2	5,2
Total households with problems							
With severe problems	43,3	29,4	5,6	7,6	11,1	15,7	4,4
With non severe problems	32,2	21,7	2,4	2,4	4,5	11,1	1,7
Total with problems	37,4	25,3	3,9	4,8	7,6	13,3	3,0

\*includes also households without elderly

Source: adapted from Buratta and Crialesi, 2002, tab. 7. and ISTAT, Multipurpose Survey on "Households and Social Subjects". Year 1998.

With regard to children, children three years old and over are almost fully covered in kindergarten, although time schedules may be shorter in some areas. Also elementary schools have usually shorter hours in the South. But the most severe problem of inadequate coverage concerns children under three years old. Nursery places cover only about 8% of all children of this age at the national level, with wide variations, as shown in tab 36. The Law 285/1997 had introduced incentives to enlarge the offer also with regard to its differentiation, since in Italy there is no general consensus on the impact on very young children's welfare of attending a collective service. Thus diversifying the offer might meet a demand not only for quantity but also for a different kind of services. The present government, however, has allocated funds only to incentive enterprise to create their own nursery schools.

**Table 36 Nursery school places (absolute values) and incidence of place on the 0-2 population by Regions - Years 1992 and 2000.**

	Number of places	Incidence of places on 0-2 population	Number of places	Incidence of places on 0-2 population
	1992		2000	
Piemonte	10.842	10,8	11.160	10,7
Valle d'Aosta	228	7,6	390	12,3
Lombardia	20.821	9,1	23.594	9,7
Trentino-Atto Adige	1.487	5,1	2.354	7,5
Veneto	6.382	5,5	8.986	7,2
Friuli-Venezia Giulia	1.408	5,4	2.103	7,8
Liguria	2.714	8,0	3.199	9,7
Emilia-Romagna	15.854	18,8	17.110	18,3
Toscana	6.195	7,9	9.144	11,3
Umbria	1.112	8,7	2.268	11,6
Marche	3.096	8,5	4.196	11,5
Lazio	9.882	6,6	11.971	8,5
Abruzzo	1.738	4,7	1.340	4,1
Molise	208	21	242	2,9
Campania	1.517	0,6	4.603	2,2
Puglia	5.795	4,0	3.437	2,7
Basilicata	724	3,4	873	5,2
Calabria	671	0,9	1.167	1,9
Sicilia	4.640	2,4	7.773	4,7
Sardegna	1.650	3,3	2.607	6,4
Italy	97.654	5,8	118.517	7,4

Source: Centro Nazionale di documentazione e analisi per l'infanzia e l'adolescenza- Istituto degli Innocenti, Novembre 2001, tav. 2

#### 4.4.5 Financial services

Data on these items are not available. There is a national fund to support the victims of usury. Local nonprofit organizations work on this area. There also local microcredit experiences, funded by non profit organizations such as non profit Foundations.

#### 4.4.6 Transport

The proposed indicators are not only difficult/impossible to construct, but also unclear. Everybody in principle has access to public transportation and public transportation is heavily subsidised, which means that its cost for users is on average lower than in most European countries. The public transportation system is quite dense – somebody might even say too much. Of course, orography may render some areas (mountainous areas, isolated valleys) less easily served. But the main problem is the different quality of public transportation (trains, roads) in the areas South of Naples.

Tab 37 shows data on specific users of transportation (students and workers) as it is asked in the multipurpose survey by ISTAT. It is a partial data because clearly it doesn't cover all the population

that use public transport but give some idea of the percentage very low of people that in the daily mobility uses public transport, especially in the case of workers.

**Table 37 Students and workers that use some type of transportation and users of public transportation by geographical area - Year 2002 (percentage).**

	Users of some transportations (%)		Public transportation users (% of people that use some transportation)			Tot users of public transportation (%)
		Train	Tram and bus	Underground	Pullman	
	Children and students until 34 years old by type of transportations to go to school and university					
North	77,9	8,0	12,5	2,5	12,9	35,9
Center	76,6	6,4	16,6	2,9	9,9	35,8
South	62,1	4,0	10,0	0,5	13,0	27,5
Italy	70,8	6,0	12,2	1,7	12,4	32,3
	Employed people of 15 years old and more by type of transportations to to work					
North	88,5	2,5	5,4	2,6	2,4	12,9
Center	88,5	3,1	7,7	3,7	1,6	16,1
South	81,7	1,9	2,9	0,1	2,4	7,3
Italy	86,5	2,4	5,1	2,1	2,2	11,8

Source: Elaboration on data on Multipurpose Survey "Aspects of Every Day Life". Year 2002.

A Dossier by Legambiente published in 2003 gathered data on the public transportation in the main Italian cities for years 1999 – 2002, based on local transport companies data. An indicator on number of travel per inhabitants is proposed. In the cities with more than 200.000 inhabitants Roma is in the first position, with 481 trips per inhabitants, followed by Milano with 408 (Trieste 329, Genova 251, Venezia 247, Pavia 216) (Legambiente 2003b).

#### 4.4.7 Civic/cultural services

Data on the offer of sport services at territorial level have been published for the first time in 2002. They concern 1999 and do not specify which kind of structure they are part of but only whether they are public, private, or non profit .

In 1999 sport infrastructures were 77.000, 73,8% were private, non profit structures, 15,5% for profit enterprises and 10,7 public structures (see tab. 38).

**Table 38 Sport services (public, non profit, for profit) by Regions and per inhabitants – Year 1999.**

	Public institutions (%)	Nonprofit organisations (%)	For profit organisations (%)	Total (a.v.)	Total per 10.000 inh.
Piemonte	18,7	65,4	16,0	6.542	15,3
Valle d'Aosta	17,2	55,7	27,1	431	35,9
Lombardia	13,3	65,3	21,4	11.689	12,9
Trentino-Atto Adige	11,1	74,7	14,2	2.897	31,1
Veneto	7,6	79,5	12,9	7.724	17,2
Friuli-Venezia Giulia	10,8	78,1	11,2	2.089	17,6
Liguria	9,2	75,7	15,1	2.628	16,1
Emilia-Romagna	4,9	78,0	17,1	7.184	18,1
Toscana	5,0	77,4	17,6	6.035	17,1
Umbria	7,4	76,8	15,9	1.291	15,5
Marche	8,4	79,4	12,2	2.941	20,2
Lazio	9,1	67,5	23,3	4.687	8,9
Abruzzo	13,8	71,5	14,7	2.219	17,4
Molise	30,5	60,6	8,9	449	13,7
Campania	14,1	70,4	15,5	3.950	6,8
Puglia	6,7	81,4	11,9	3.954	9,7
Basilicata	32,1	55,5	12,4	411	6,8
Calabria	23,3	68,8	7,9	1.795	8,7
Sicilia	7,7	83,4	8,9	5.188	10,2
Sardegna	12,4	80,9	6,7	3.050	18,4
Italy	10,7	73,8	15,5	77.154	13,4

Source: ISTAT, L'offerta di servizi sportivi in Italia, Anno 1999. "Informazioni in breve", Roma, 2002.

There are no data at the national level on the distribution of cultural services. Every municipality, and in some cases the Regions, collect these data; but they are not available at national level if not doing a focused research.

Data gathered by the SIAE (Italian Society of Authors and Editors) give a picture of the effective cultural and sport activities, in terms of number of shows, ticket sold (people involved) and the expenditure on different kind of cultural and recreational activities in the last 4 years, disaggregated by geographical area (see tab 38a). ISTAT also in the Multipurpose Survey every year ask about the participation of people in social, cultural and sportive activities (see tab. 38b).

**Table 38a Number of shows, tickets and expenditure by the public for cultural and recreational events (Theatre, Cinema, Entertainment, Sport events), by geographical area - Years 1999-2002.**

	North west				North-east			
	1999	2000	2001	2002	1999	2000	2001	2002
<b>Theater and musical activities</b>								
Shows	32.594	33.281	40.980	47.721	27.613	27.941	35.055	42.381
Tickets sold	9.484	8.809	7.779	7.801	7.487	7.274	6.961	6.757
Expenditure by the public	130.792	128.840	125.058	137.645	102.364	101.942	118.241	122.515
% on total	15,0	34,2	33,1	32,7	12,9	32,1	36,3	35,9
<b>Movies</b>								
Theaters working	1.488	....	....	....	1.233	....	....	....
Opening days	213.354	227.458	239.388	271.419	163.346	183.695	204.916	223.504
Tickets sold	31.211	30.357	33.684	32.504	22.237	22.013	24.200	22.789
Expenditure by the public	161.948	161.369	177.015	187.769	118.667	121.010	135.070	136.134
% on total	18,6	42,9	46,9	44,7	14,9	38,1	41,4	39,9
<b>Entertatinments</b>								
Expenditure by the public	161.948	161.369	177.015	187.769	118.667	121.010	135.070	136.134
% on total	52,6	....	....	....	59,3	....	....	....
<b>Sport shows</b>								
Expenditure by the public	120.239	86.359	75.736	94.918	102.215	94.315	72.790	82.812
% on total	13,8	22,9	20,0	22,6	12,9	29,7	22,3	24,3
<b>of which football (national division only)</b>								
Manifestations	240	....	....	....	278	....	....	....
Tickets sold	5.181	....	....	....	3.127	....	....	....
Expenditure by the public	79.748	49.502	35.727	59.726	50.661	42.727	28.541	31.450
% on total	9,2	13,1	9,5	14,2	6,4	13,5	8,8	9,2



**Table 38a (continued...)**

	Center				South			
	1999	2000	2001	2002	1999	2000	2001	2002
<b>Theater and musical activities</b>								
Shows	35.444	36.737	42.106	45.469	27.959	26.956	30.994	33.905
Tickets sold	8.463	7.469	7.054	7.540	6.830	5.877	5.387	5.780
Expenditure by the public	103.368	98.942	96.404	115.688	65.710	70.708	69.899	82.480
% on total	15,9	28,8	24,1	29,8	12,7	31,8	30,8	31,5
<b>Movies</b>								
Theaters working	1.084	....	....	....	1.106	....	....	....
Opening days	196.286	216.362	236.666	257.133	154.909	172.383	196.670	229.831
Tickets sold	26.671	26.943	28.521	29.725	23.365	21.598	23.564	25.475
Expenditure by the public	148.289	147.064	164.920	175.763	104.023	99.974	112.494	129.719
% on total	22,8	42,9	41,3	45,3	20,2	45,0	49,6	49,5
<b>Entertainment</b>								
Expenditure by the public	287.147	....	....	....	282.907	....	....	....
% on total	44,2	....	....	....	54,9	....	....	....
<b>Sport shows</b>								
Expenditure by the public	111.226	96.996	138.327	96.739	63.138	51.360	44.190	49.597
% on total	17,1	28,3	34,6	24,9	12,2	23,1	19,5	18,9
<b>of which football (national division only)</b>								
Manifestations	4.065	....	....	....	3.012	....	....	....
Tickets sold	79.397	64.638	106.217	61.148	37.408	25.740	19.877	25.330
Expenditure by the public	12,2	18,8	26,6	15,8	7,3	11,6	8,8	9,7

Note: (a) Since the year 2000 the survey system has been changed.

Source: SIAE - Società Italiana Autori Editori, in ISTAT 2004b.

**Table 38b People of 6 years and over who in the last year attended different types of cultural activities – Year 1998-2002 (percentage).**

	Population 6 years and more (1000)	Theatres	Cinema	Museum, expositions	Concerts of classical music	Other concerts	Sportive manifestations	Disco, dance-hall, ecc.
1998	53.922	16,0	47,3	26,7	7,9	17,0	26,5	25,0
1999	53.948	16,7	45,0	26,8	8,9	17,4	26,9	25,0
2000	54.074	17,2	44,7	28,6	8,5	18,3	27,8	25,9
2001	54.220	18,7	49,5	28,0	9,1	19,0	28,2	26,4
2002	27.925	20,4	47,3	28,1	9,0	17,8	16,1	22,7
	<b>Geographical area</b>							
Italy	54.220	18,7	50,0	28,1	9,0	19,4	27,3	25,2
North	24.293	20,8	49,4	34,2	10,1	18,5	27,4	27,1
Center	10.514	21,6	54,6	30,6	10,0	19,6	29,7	26,1
South	19.413	14,5	48,3	19,2	7,1	20,3	25,8	22,3

**Table 38b (continued...) People of 6 years and more that in the last year attended different types of cultural activities by age-brackets and geographical area – Year 1998-2002 (percentage).**

	Population 6 years and more (1000)	Theatres	Cinema	Museum, expositions	Concerts of classical music	Other concerts	Sportive manifest- tations	Disco, dance-hall, ecc.
<b>Males</b>								
6-10	1.414	23,2	70,8	36,0	3,2	9,4	36,7	3,0
11-14	1.218	24,5	79,7	48,9	7,6	16,8	53,3	13,8
15-17	955	18,8	82,3	36,3	10,1	36,0	64,5	46,2
18-19	611	20,2	81,6	34,4	12,6	49,1	64,0	74,5
20-24	1.685	15,1	84,7	27,4	12,1	50,0	61,9	74,4
25-34	4.314	19,5	75,1	30,1	11,9	36,5	54,1	56,6
35-44	4.665	18,4	58,6	29,4	8,9	21,7	40,8	27,0
45-54	3.732	17,4	46,2	31,7	9,7	16,3	36,7	17,9
55-59	1.645	16,9	34,0	28,8	8,5	10,5	32,0	12,6
60-64	1.739	15,2	25,4	23,1	8,8	8,4	25,0	10,1
65-74	2.667	10,2	15,3	15,4	7,5	5,3	15,3	5,6
75 e più	1.649	5,1	7,5	8,0	4,1	3,0	6,1	3,0
Tot	26.295	16,9	52,9	28,1	9,0	21,0	39,2	27,8
<b>Females</b>								
6-10	1.358	26,1	70,9	36,8	4,1	9,5	24,6	6,7
11-14	1.109	28,7	79,9	50,7	7,3	21,0	35,4	16,2
15-17	863	30,6	87,9	50,8	10,9	43,4	39,0	57,0
18-19	618	29,4	87,8	45,2	11,9	44,4	35,7	75,0
20-24	1.677	24,9	83,7	33,6	13,7	45,9	32,7	69,1
25-34	4.232	25,5	70,0	34,2	11,2	30,7	22,6	44,1
35-44	4.604	22,4	57,0	31,4	9,7	19,2	18,5	21,5
45-54	3.875	22,8	42,6	30,4	10,5	14,5	13,2	16,2
55-59	1.765	21,6	30,8	27,9	11,2	9,5	8,5	10,1
60-64	1.718	16,5	19,9	20,8	8,8	6,9	5,2	7,7
65-74	3.264	11,7	12,4	13,7	6,8	3,8	2,6	4,3
75 e più	2.843	4,2	4,5	4,9	2,9	1,3	0,8	0,9
Totale	27.925	20,4	47,3	28,1	9,0	17,8	16,1	22,7
<b>Total</b>								
6-10	2.772	24,6	70,8	36,4	3,7	9,4	30,8	4,8
11-14	2.327	26,5	79,8	49,8	7,4	18,8	44,7	14,9
15-17	1.818	24,4	84,9	43,2	10,5	39,5	52,4	51,3
18-19	1.230	24,8	84,8	39,8	12,2	46,7	49,8	74,7
20-24	3.362	20,0	84,2	30,5	12,9	48,0	47,3	71,7
25-34	8.546	22,5	72,6	32,1	11,6	33,6	38,5	50,4
35-44	9.269	20,4	57,8	30,4	9,3	20,5	29,7	24,3
45-54	7.607	20,1	44,4	31,0	10,1	15,4	24,8	17,0
55-59	3.410	19,3	32,3	28,3	9,9	10,0	19,9	11,3
60-64	3.457	15,8	22,7	22,0	8,8	7,7	15,2	8,9
65-74	5.931	11,0	13,8	14,5	7,1	4,5	8,3	4,9
75 e più	4.492	4,5	5,6	6,0	3,4	2,0	2,7	1,7

Source: Multipurpose Survey on Households, "Aspects of every day life".Year 2002.

## 4.5 Social Networks

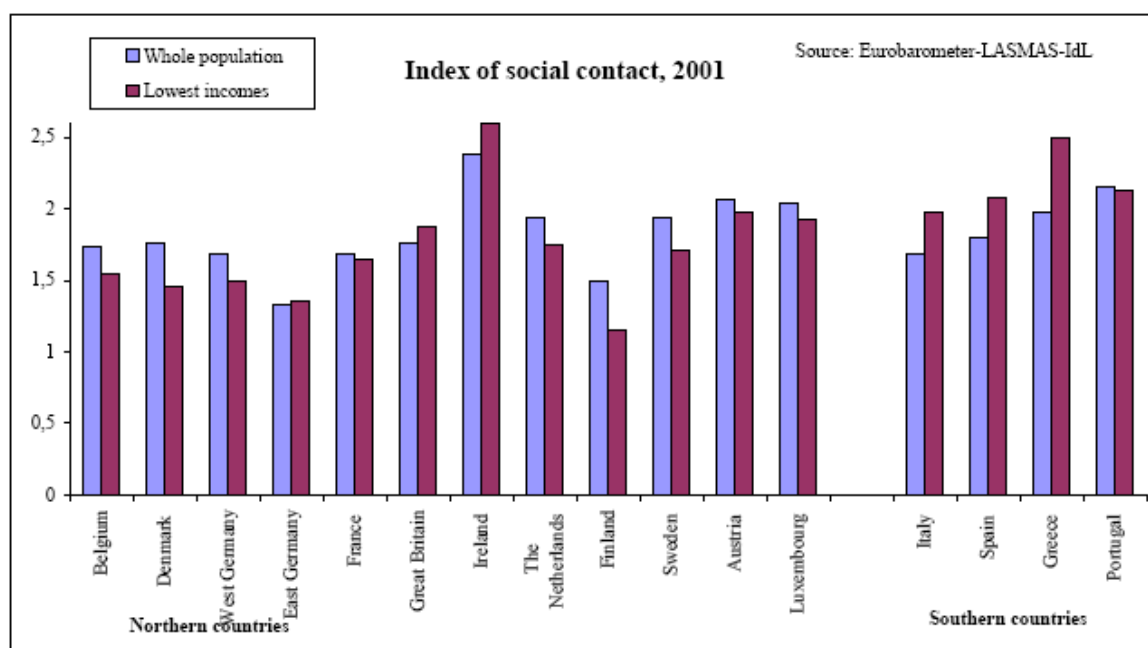
The level of sociability in Italy is high both in absolute and comparative terms. Even excluding contacts with family and kin, the quota of those who have little or no contact with friends is low, as shown in tables relative to indicators 67 and 68 in the Annex (see also data and indicators in the paragraph on social networks in the social cohesion section). Also tab. 39 shows how the proportion of people relatively isolated is small, living more in the north of Italy.

**Table 39 Persons over 6 years of age who meet with friends by geographical area and gender - Year 2001 (in percentage).**

	North			Center			South + Islands			Italy		
	M	F	Tot	M	F	Tot	M	F	Tot	M	F	Tot
a few times a year	6.4	8.9	7.7	6.3	8.2	7.3	3.9	6.5	5.2	5.5	7.9	6.7
Never	3.0	5.8	4.5	2.6	4.9	3.8	2.4	4.6	3.5	2.7	5.2	4.0
have no friends	1.0	1.9	1.5	1.1	1.9	1.5	1.2	2.0	1.6	1.1	2.0	1.5

Source: ISTAT - Multipurpose Survey of Households "Aspects of Everyday Life". Year 2001.

**Figure 13 Index of social contact by whole and lowest income population (Eurobarometer) - Year 2001.**



Source: Eurobarometer data in Gallie and Paugam (2002), p. 53.

As Gallie and Paugam (2002) observe, frequency of contact is however a dubious indicator of inclusion and subjective well being. As their analysis shows, in Southern European Countries on average people, and particularly poor people, have a high degree of social contacts. Yet the poor feel more isolated than the non poor.

#### 4.5.1 Informal assistance

Possibly more interesting is the internal variety of the network. Studies in fact indicate that poorer people and people living in small communities tend to have a more restricted network than those with larger financial means and living in larger cities. Particularly, there is not a substitution effect between friends and family, but rather an integration effect. Thus there are individuals and households who can count both on a rich family/kin network and on a rich friends/colleagues etc. network, and there are individuals and households who can count only on family/kin. And, as Gallie and Paugam (2002) also suggest, in the latter case contacts may be somewhat constrained for lack of alternatives .

As for receiving informal support we already addressed this issue in chapter 3 (on social cohesion), thus there is some overlapping in the proposed indicators. In any case, again, giving and receiving informal support is certainly a measure of inclusion at one level. But it also may be an indicator of exclusion at another level, in so far one has no other options, as it is often the case in Italy.

**Table 40 Support recipients (households that in the past four weeks have received at least once free support from non cohabitant persons ), by geographical area - Year 1998 (in percentage of households).**

North	Center	South + Isl.	Italy
14.4	16.1	15.3	15.0

Source: ISTAT, Multipurpose Survey on "Household and Social Subjects". Year 1998.

**Table 41 Proportion of households that received help in the last four weeks by kind of support and household type – Year 1998 (per 100 households) (Ind 71).**

	Informal help (a)	Private help (b)	Municipal and public help (c)	A+B	A+C	B+C	all Type of help	No help	Total
Households including elderly, no children	11,9	7,3	1,9	2,4	1,3	0,4	0,5	74,3	100,0
Households without elderly, with children	19,6	6,8	1,0	3,4	1,0	0,1	0,1	68,0	100,0
Households with elderly and with children	8,1	2,9	2,1	1,5	2,2	1,6	-	81,4	100,0
Households without elderly and without children	7,6	5,9	1,3	0,7	0,6	0,1	0,1	83,7	100,0
Total	12,0	6,5	1,5	1,9	0,9	0,2	0,2	76,7	100,0

Source: ISTAT, Multipurpose Survey on "Household and Social Subjects". Year 1998.

**Table 42 Proportion of households that received help or have given help in the previous four weeks, by households type – Years 1983 and 1998 (per 100 households).**

	Per 100 households				Percentages					
	Households help givers		Households help receivers		Households help givers		Households help receivers		Total	
	1983	1998	1983	1998	1983	1998	1983	1998	1983	1998
Households with elderly and without children	26,1	25,0	30,7	16,0	19,1	25,1	32,3	36,5	24,5	33,9
1 component	17,7	16,9	48,6	24,2	3,8	6,3	14,8	20,6	7,1	12,6
2 components	26,4	27,3	28,9	11,6	8,0	11,1	12,6	10,8	10,2	13,8
3 or more components	34,0	34,3	15,7	10,2	7,3	7,6	4,8	5,2	7,2	7,5
Households with at least one child and without elderly	34,7	36,5	25,1	23,7	36,7	26,0	38,3	38,6	35,6	24,1
Housewife	34,5	33,9	20,2	15,4	19,7	10,4	16,6	10,7	19,1	10,3
Worker mothers	36,1	38,5	30,9	31,2	13,3	12,2	16,4	22,4	12,4	10,7
Mother in professional condition	38,2	41,2	27,0	24,9	2,9	2,0	3,0	2,7	2,6	1,6
Monoparental	19,6	34,2	38,9	30,8	0,8	1,2	2,3	2,5	1,4	1,2
Others	16,8	39,2	6,5	7,2	0,1	0,3	0,0	0,1	0,1	0,3
Households with at least one child and one elderly	34,9	36,8	14,8	11,7	3,3	1,3	2,0	0,9	3,2	1,2
Households without elderly and without children	37,3	39,2	17,4	8,7	40,9	47,6	27,4	24,0	36,8	40,9
1 component	32,4	30,9	33,0	14,1	5,7	8,3	8,4	8,6	5,9	9,0
2 components	38,2	43,9	11,6	5,2	19,5	23,8	8,6	6,4	17,2	18,3
3 or more components	40,4	39,3	17,8	8,9	12,0	11,1	7,6	5,7	10,0	9,5
Monogenitore	31,9	36,1	18,2	11,2	3,0	3,8	2,5	2,6	3,1	3,5
Others	36,5	39,2	17,3	16,7	0,7	0,7	0,5	0,7	0,6	0,6
<b>Total</b>	<b>33,5</b>	<b>33,7</b>	<b>23,3</b>	<b>14,8</b>	<b>100,0</b>	<b>100,0</b>	<b>100,0</b>	<b>100,0</b>	<b>100,0</b>	<b>100,0</b>

Source: ISTAT, Multipurpose Survey "Households and Social subject. Year 1998.

Note: in 1983 survey didn't ask on help for studying

Although help giving – in the form of care, money, advice, and so forth - is greater among better off families, households who receive help are more numerous among those who are in difficult economic and personal conditions. Particularly, 28% of households whose reference person is unemployed receive help, often in the form of financial support. Tab. 43 indicates what kinds of help are received.

**Table 43 Proportion of households that in the previous four weeks received at least one help from non cohabitant persons, by type of support -Year 1998 (per 100 households).**

	At least one help	Economic support	Sanitary care	Adult's care	Children's care
Piemonte	11,8	11,4	18,6	14,7	33,9
Valle d'Aosta	14,5	17,4	10,6	7,2	44,4
Lombardia	13,9	13,6	13,5	10,0	38,7
Trentino-Alto Adige	17,2	11,8	14,0	14,9	37,7
Veneto	16,7	14,4	10,8	15,9	40,0
Friuli-Venezia Giulia	13,1	5,5	16,6	16,7	31,5
Liguria	13,0	18,5	12,9	11,6	26,2
Emilia-Romagna	16,4	14,2	15,6	12,0	31,9
Toscana	17,8	21,7	19,9	17,6	21,7
Umbria	11,6	9,9	17,1	16,0	35,8
Marche	15,1	11,0	19,1	20,6	31,0
Lazio	16,0	20,5	17,6	10,0	24,5
Abruzzo	13,9	18,4	25,1	14,2	31,7
Molise	17,8	10,9	24,5	11,6	31,2
Campania	17,2	24,3	26,3	19,9	19,6
Puglia	13,9	35,6	15,3	14,1	24,0
Basilicata	7,4	22,0	35,9	17,8	29,1
Calabria	13,8	33,4	24,6	11,9	25,5
Sicilia	16,7	24,6	21,1	14,9	30,6
Sardegna	13,8	18,2	27,9	20,2	19,6
Italy	15,0	18,9	18,1	14,2	29,9
Geographical area					
North-west	13,2	13,6	14,8	11,4	36,0
North east	16,2	13,2	13,6	14,4	35,8
Center	16,1	19,2	18,5	14,2	24,9
South	15,0	27,5	23,2	16,4	23,2
Isles	16,0	23,3	22,5	16,0	28,4
City dimension					
metropolitan city	15,0	27,1	16,4	14,3	21,2
metropolitan periphery area	17,7	18,9	21,6	15,4	28,1
up to 2.000 inhab.	11,9	13,9	20,0	12,9	29,2
2.001 - 10.000 inhab.ab	14,4	12,8	18,0	13,5	36,7
10.001 -50.000 inhab.ab	15,5	16,4	16,8	14,4	32,6
Over 50.000 inhab.	14,7	23,6	18,4	14,5	27,6

Source: ISTAT, Multipurpose Survey "Households and Social Subjects". Year 1998.

**Table 43 (continued...)**

	House work	Company hospitality	Burocratic help	Extra domestic help	Help with lessons
Piemonte	36,6	17,1	18,3	8,9	1,7
Valle d'Aosta	25,5	12,1	11,4	7,7	1,7
Lombardia	31,1	13,9	18,7	8,7	2,5
Trentino-Alto Adige	31,7	20,6	14,3	13,3	2,5
Veneto	33,7	15,4	16,0	5,3	3,7
Friuli-Venezia Giulia	32,2	18,0	18,4	7,4	1,6
Liguria	40,4	16,7	15,5	5,1	4,7
Emilia-Romagna	38,7	22,2	20,8	5,2	2,9
Toscana	32,8	18,5	20,5	3,4	1,8
Umbria	41,8	26,1	15,9	6,5	1,5
Marche	45,6	16,9	20,2	4,4	2,6
Lazio	29,2	18,2	15,4	4,9	3,7
Abruzzo	34,5	19,1	12,0	10,8	2,3
Molise	32,4	28,0	17,6	7,5	2,4
Campania	27,9	21,0	13,6	6,7	3,6
Puglia	27,1	15,9	15,2	3,8	1,4
Basilicata	40,5	0,0	12,3	0,0	2,0
Calabria	23,4	16,8	9,0	5,0	2,8
Sicilia	25,3	20,3	22,5	3,5	4,3
Sardegna	40,4	26,8	21,0	8,7	3,9
Italy	32,0	18,1	17,4	6,1	2,9
Geographical area					
North-west	33,6	15,1	18,2	8,3	2,5
North east	35,3	18,8	17,9	6,2	3,1
Center	33,1	18,6	17,8	4,4	2,8
South	28,1	18,7	13,4	5,9	2,7
Isles	28,4	21,6	22,2	4,5	4,2
City dimension					
metropolitan city	36,7	24,1	19,1	3,6	4,2
metropolitan periphery area	27,0	20,3	17,8	2,4	2,8
up to 2.000 inhab.	39,2	18,7	21,4	11,1	1,4
2.001 - 10.000 inhab.ab	31,7	17,1	15,3	8,6	3,0
10.001 -50.000 inhab.ab	30,8	15,2	19,3	8,3	2,9
Over 50.000 inhab.	27,6	31,1	15,4	14,5	3,6

Source: ISTAT, Multipurpose Survey "Households and Social Subjects". Year 1998

## 4.6 Trends and reflections

As in the case of social cohesion, this domain is still not fully conceptualised as well as highly controversial. The indicators exercise is useful precisely because it points both to possible debates and to theoretical problems. We could say that the (too many) proposed indicators belong to two major sub-domains: one somewhat overlapping with socio-economic security and the other somewhat overlapping with social cohesion. All those indicators which concern degree of social protection (e.g

for the homeless, but also for the sick) belong to the first group; indicators concerning sociability on the other hand belong to the second group.

Having said that, from the perspective of social protection the Italian situation looks at best ambivalent, with its universal social services in the area of health and education, but with little positive actions to support access and efficacy, with some important exception: access to school for disabled children, and more recently for immigrant children. Also, as already pointed out in the chapter on socio-economic security, there is no general measure to protect from poverty in a country where the incidence of poverty is relatively high (and geographically concentrated), and job insecurity (including long term unemployment) involves a meaningful quota of the population.

The number of immigrants has constantly increased, as well that of (immigrant) family re-unions. This last phenomenon indicates a process of stabilisation and of possible integration. In the large cities of the Center-North the number of migrant children in schools has constantly increased, indicating both a possible means of integration and problems of integration, in so far it requires that schools re-organise in order to deal and integrate these new pupils and their families. Further, while migrant workers are often a precious resource for enterprises and households alike, in so far they fill places which otherwise would not be filled (in manual jobs in enterprises and agriculture, in housework and caring work in families which see an increasing presence of frail elderly), on the hand they risk being exploited, particularly when they are irregular. On the other hand, given the relative high rate of irregular migrants and their spatial concentration within cities, they also risk being perceived as a problem of security. In the period of observation two different laws L 40/98 ("Turco-Napolitano") e L 189/2002 ("Bossi-Fini") - the latter partially repealing and rendering stricter the former - were approved to deal with immigration. Many observers agree that the present law, aimed at restricting immigration *de facto* has worsened the conditions both for those who want to hire immigrants and for the immigrants themselves, while not solving the problem of irregular migration.

With regard to sociability, our data cannot but confirm what emerges from other studies. Family and kin are an important part of the social network, both in terms of relations and in terms of support, particularly for the latter. That is, while strong family ties do not prevent from having friends and from participating to clubs and associations, family solidarity remains the main, and sometimes the only, resource in case of need, either financial or of care. The ageing of the kin network and the growing presence of frail elderly is still dealt with almost exclusively within families and with private resources. At the same time the "young elderly" are an important caring and support resource for young households. Yet, tensions arising from demography and from both individual behaviours (women's labour force participation) and policy reforms (raising retirement age) are already visible. Lack of alternatives, rather than the strength of family ties, appears as problematic, particularly in the case of individuals and households who belong to disadvantaged groups.



It should be mentioned that at the methodological and conceptual level we raised, among other things, the issue of a missing attention, throughout the whole system of indicators, for the disabled people. This deficit is particularly serious when speaking of social inclusion.



## **5 Social Empowerment**

### **5.1 Introduction**

This is possibly the most interesting domain, but that which in the SQ proposal is still most undeveloped and unfocused, as well as the most difficult to find quantitative indicators for. As it is well known, the UNPD, from within the capability approach, has tried some kind of operationalisation which probably should have been taken more account of in the SQ work (and particularly the concept of “combined capabilities” by Nussbaum). But even in that approach, the gap between theoretical sophistication and operationalisation through indicators is great.

### **5.2 Knowledge base**

#### **5.2.1 Application of knowledge**

Italy has been defined as a scarcely social mobile society in relative terms. That is, the weight of family social origins on an individual's life chances are great notwithstanding a substantial absolute mobility (Cobalti and Schizzerotto 1994, Schizzerotto 2002). Although each new generation has improved its educational level compared to the previous one since the post war years, the difference in the relative chances of children of various social class to exit their class have remained about the same.

According to a longitudinal study (Schizzerotto 2002), things have even worsened for the younger generation now entering the labour market. The only clear improvement concerns the chances of young women compared to the older generations: women not only study more than their elder, they also study longer than their male contemporaries. And they also have access to better jobs than their (female) elders. Also the Bank of Italy, presenting its data on household budgets comments that “constraining elements to social mobility are evidenced by correlation coefficients between years of schooling of the reference person, of his/her father, mother and spouse”

Actually the debate on the impact of education in reducing disparities in life chances is open and recent studies have started to question it (Esping-Andersen and Mestres 2003, Sieben and De Graaf 2004). That is, questions have been raised over whether the apparent positive relationship between education and professional outcomes is not spurious, in so far educational achievement is in itself mediated by family origin, i.e. social capital. Certainly the highly streamed high school system existing in Italy, and its not being compulsory, further strengthens the impact of social origin.

Whatever the relationship of educational attainment with social origins, certainly the inability to read and numerate adequately is a serious handicap not only in the labour market, but for social participation and more generally for the ability to fully act as an agent. It is a case of combined capability.

Italy is among the countries with a higher than average percentage of individuals with a low capability in numeracy and literacy skills (OECD, IALS and ALL: Italy participated in 2000 with a pilot project, with regional samples, the first results of the ALL survey will be published in 2005).

According to PISA data, the survey on the 15 years old young (see indicator 73 in the annex), Italian schools perform lower than the OECD average: Italian students' performance, in fact, belongs to the five bottom ranks. Thus, not only do Italian schools not succeed in overcoming social origin inequalities in human and social capital, but also put Italian students and citizens at a comparative disadvantage internationally.

Also the knowledge of foreign languages (and particularly English) is comparatively low, although growing in the younger cohorts. Once again, social class/family origin makes an important difference: only those children who can spend time abroad for substantial periods are advantaged. In this perspective, the relatively low participation to student mobility programs in Italian universities should be of some concern. Among those who obtained their university degree in 2003, only 18,2 had a study experience abroad of some kind. And only 8,4% had benefited from a EU mobility program (Almalaurea 2004). Certainly, behind this unwillingness to spend time abroad cultural patterns are at play. Yet there are also financial problems: sending a child abroad for a few months is too costly for many households, particularly in view of the fact that in Italy most students still live with their parents and are financially dependent on them, therefore the cost of living abroad is a totally new cost, not an additional fraction of the cost of living out of the parental home. Universities rarely have the means to integrate the meagre scholarship. Thus a positive policy such as the EU Socrates program may have a discriminating effect in the absence of adequate financial support, given existing social inequalities.

In accordance with an average higher education, but also with a higher availability of opportunities and information, the younger cohorts take part to cultural events to a larger degree than the older ones, particularly with regard to attending movies, going to art exhibition, attending concerts of all kinds of music. Interestingly, among the young more women than men participate in cultural activities, while the reverse is true for the population as a whole. But if we control for occupational status, among the adults it is the group of women not in employment which keeps down the overall women's rate. If we consider women workers, they have higher cultural activities participation rates than men. This higher participation by women has developed over the recent years and has involved women of all ages (see tab. 44).

**Table 44 People of 15 year and more that take part to different kind of cultural events - Year 2002 (for 100 people with the same characteristics).**

Age and occupational status	Theatre		Movies		Museum, exhibitions		Concerts of classic music		Concerts of other music	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
15-19	19,3	30,1	82,0	87,9	35,5	48,5	11,1	11,3	41,3	41,8
15 and more	16,1	19,7	50,5	44,6	26,6	26,7	9,4	9,3	21,9	18,1
Adult employed	18,5	28,4	60,0	64,3	30,1	38,3	10,4	12,8	24,1	25,4

Source: ISTAT, Multipurpose Survey on Households, "Aspects of Every Day Life". Year 2002.

## **5.2.2 Availability of information**

Among the 15 years old and over population, 41,6% of men and 30% of women use the pc, and respectively 33,3% of men and 21,9% of women use internet. This substantive technological gap in the population and between genders is radically reduced, if we look at the younger cohorts. In the 15-19 age bracket, respectively 76,7% of men and 74,6% of women use the pc, and 58,2% of men and 58,6% of women use internet. As in schooling, there is no longer a gender technological divide, while this divide, particularly with regard to internet use, might remain in terms of social class. Internet use, in fact, requires an infrastructure (and telephone bills) which not all families are ready to accommodate. Moreover, the diffusion of cell phones which sees Italy as the country where there is almost one cell phone per person, has encouraged many households, particularly in the less educated classes, not to connect to a regular phone line, thus rendering it difficult to have access to internet. Finally, simple "internet use" says little on what it is for and what actual abilities individuals have. It is a basic skills, which needs to be implemented with others. Using email does not mean to be able to read newspapers on line, to search for information (and to select it), to make use of data bases, and so forth (see indicator 75 in the Annex).

There is still a gender gap in reading newspapers, which involves 72,3% of men and 56,1% of women 15 years old and over. This gap is reduced among the young, but within an overall lower readership (56% and 52,4% respectively of 15-19 years old men and women read a newspaper). Listening to the radio and watching TV cannot be assumed as substitutes for newspaper reading, particularly with regard to obtaining information in order to form a personal opinion. Radio and TV may be used in fact for entertainment. Moreover, particularly with regard to political information, national radio and even more TV channels are more politically homogeneous than newspapers. Although there is a number of private radio and TV stations, they are mostly local, but for a few.

There are virtually two monopolies in TV channels, one public, the other private. Since the private is owned by the present Prime Minister who, through the parliamentary majority, also de facto controls the public network, democracy problems in communication are likely to arise. A law has been approved recently reforming the entire system which, according to the opposition and to many commentators is likely to further strengthen the private monopoly, in the complex balance of newspapers, digital and analogical channels which can belong to the same network. Since a great part of the media is supported by publicity, of course being able to go national rather than local makes a huge difference. Having summarily pointed out the relevance of the institutional framework, one should not under evaluate the relevance of individual agency. In at least one case the possibility to create an autonomous third network – LA7 – was relinquished by the responsible entrepreneur, possibly in exchange of favours at a different level. And generally, in addition to formal and informal censorship and a wide use of the spoil system, there is the phenomenon of self-censorship and band wagon by journalists themselves, in the radio and TV media but also in newspapers.

### **5.2.3 User friendliness information**

A number of newspapers are published in the languages of the foreign groups present in Italy, although they are often available only in large towns.

For some time on the public TV and radio there were programs targeted to migrants, where information was given in different languages and there was an attempt to exchange information between migrants and Italians.

In most health services, police offices and so forth, at least in the municipalities where there is a high presence of foreigners, notices are attached in various languages. Moreover, in court there are not only interpreters, but some time cultural mediators. Cultural mediators, at least in some Regions and municipalities, are present also in social services, hospitals and health services (e.g. maternity wards) and in children's reform houses (prisons for under age children).

A number of - non profit - advocacy groups exist on various issues: for the disabled (and for particular types of disability), for adoptive and foster families, for lone parents and for separated parents (including non custodial parents), for migrants, and so forth. An important role, particularly with regard to migrants and the poor, is played by Caritas and by religious groups and parishes, but also trade unions.

## **5.3 Labour market**

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

In 2002 over 11 million people were enrolled in the three major trade unions (but particularly in recent years there has been an increasing number of other unions as well; in some sector they may be more powerful than those three). Half of those enrolled are pensioners and actually the growing enrolment of the past few years owes more to the ageing of the population than to an increasing popularity of trade unions among the young. Also the new kinds of labour contracts render it difficult the traditional forms of organisation and representation. Trade unions have started to deal with this, creating specific new branches. In any case, about 33% of the labour force belongs to a trade union – one of the highest quota in industrialised societies (Daloia, Olini 2004).

The collective wage bargaining system in Italy covers all employees in the public sector and roughly two thirds of those in the private sector. The current structure was brought in by the agreements of 1992 and 1993 between the government and the social partners, which eliminated wage indexation and formalised a two-tier bargaining system. With regards to wage formation, the industry-wide bargaining at the national level is mainly designed to defend the purchasing power of wages, whereas the company-level bargaining deals with bonuses related to the firm's performances (Brandolini, Casadio, Cipollone 1999).

Studies however have indicated that a quota of informal work is performed by formal workers in formal/regular enterprises or in informal ones. The former is the case of "black" overtime, paid out of the legal pay check. The latter is the case of formal workers moonlighting in their free time. Moreover, even in enterprises which formally adhere to national labour contracts and are formally totally legal, it

may happen that on hiring workers are requested to sign an undated resignation letter, which then the employer may use in case of redundancies, pregnancy and so forth. Of course this is totally illegal; but it works on the fear by workers never to be hired by anybody in the area if they rebel and denounce it. This explains why the highest quota of resignations by women during the protected maternity leave (that is when they cannot be fired) occurs not in the South, but in “legal” Lombardy (Daloia, Olini 2004).

The high number of small enterprises, with less than 5 workers, together with the growing number of atypical contracts, leave a number of workers outside collective bargaining.

It has been estimated that 38-40% of workers in enterprises with 10 employees or more are covered by collective bargaining at the local level. The quota rises to almost 60% in the case of enterprises with at least 50 employees, and to 80% if one considers all enterprises which have an enterprise contract. In the public sector the contract, as an institutional mechanism, has been introduced only very recently and the coverage reaches 90%. Since its stipulation is a legal obligation, only those having an atypical contract (an increasing number in the public administration) are not covered. Actually one has the impression that recourse to atypical contracts has been a way of weakening or avoiding the constraints both of national and local collective bargaining.

The recent reform of the labour market (so called Biagi law) has at least tried to set some rules in a growing fragmented situation, where differences and inequalities in rights among workers are great. At the same time, there has been an attempt by government to divide trade unions and to weaken their bargaining power particularly at the national level.

### **5.3.2 Prospects of job mobility**

According to Eurobarometer data (Gallie and Paugam, 2002, p. 98), in 1996 Italy was the country with the highest quota (78%) of employees not receiving on the job training. But in 2001 it had improved by about 17 percentage points and climbed five positions. It remains that still 60% of the work force does not receive on the job training; and that job training is more likely to be offered not only to regular employees rather than to those holding an atypical contract, but to skilled workers rather than to unskilled ones, thus widening the skilled/unskilled gap. Even more so in the light of the fact that, in Italy as elsewhere, the more skilled and educated a worker, the more likely he/she is to look also for further training outside the firm (see also indicator 80 in the annex).

Mention should be made also of such continuing education experiences as were developed in the mid-seventies in national contracts under the heading “150 hours” (meaning that if a worker attended course for 150 hours on his/her free time, then the firm had to grant him/her the same amount during working time). In the beginning they were used both to complete basic education and to develop knowledge and awareness in fields like health hazards, environment, collective bargaining, gender discrimination, but also general culture. In many cases 150 hours classes were the first instance of organised women’s studies. Over the years, this instrument changed its public and means. At present it is often used by workers-students to attend classes (e.g. at the university), or for migrant workers to

learn Italian.<sup>12</sup> In any case, the principle has remained that workers are entitled a quota of paid time to improve their education in the field of their choice.

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

With regard to measures to reconcile working and family obligations different issues are at stake (Saraceno 2003). One concerns the division of labour within the household. As mentioned in the chapter on social cohesion, working women with family responsibilities in Italy perform between 9 and 11 hours a week more than men when summing up paid and unpaid work. This explains why they earn less, but also why a quota leaves the labour market. A second issue concerns services for children, school hours, but also caring services for the elderly. We have already spoken of that. A third issue concerns working time management. Analyses, including one by the European Foundation on Living and Working Conditions on the Quality of work and employment in Europe (2002), suggest that working time management involves at least four dimensions: a) length of working hours; b) flexibility of working hours; c) predictability of working hours; d) organisation of “urban times”; e) modular organisation of working hours over the whole working life cycle.

Comparative data on hours worked per week by gender, their distribution within the couple and the differential impact of children on the working time for men and women, indicate that in Italy and the other Mediterranean countries the most prevalent pattern in dual worker households is for both partners to work long full-time hours, whether they have children or not. In Italy (like in Greece, France, Ireland and Portugal) the proportion of women working 20 or more hours a week is higher for those with children than for those without. Thus working mothers in Italy and in other Mediterranean countries not only have an overall longer working day and week than men. They also have a longer working day/week than working mothers in Central and Northern European countries, often with lower support from social services (see Franco and Winqvist 2002: p. 4).

It is fair to say that the issue of conciliation has been introduced late in the Italian policy agenda and with little results. The main initiative, by the previous government, has been the approval of law 53/2000 on parental leaves, which extends (and incentives) leaves to fathers and which also introduces incentives to companies who develop conciliating policies. Mention is made also of the responsibility of local government in order to coordinate urban times (in public services, in transportation, and so forth) in order to ease the life and task of those who have to juggle multiple responsibilities. The implementation of this law is being monitored but there are not national data yet, either on the leave part or on the company policies part. Thus there are only scattered and impressionistic or local data. From these, it appears that men do not take a great advantage of parental leave, which remains a women’s “privilege”.

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<sup>12</sup> Following an experience in Brescia of classes for foreign adults, national Law 40/1998 instituted “C.T.P.”, “Centri Territoriali Permanenti” (“Permanent Territorial Centres”) for adult education; the special characteristics of the Brescia experience, which integrated different training programmes within broad and integrated training projects, which request the mobilisation and cooperation of different institutions delegated to training - are thus progressively extended to other local Italian contexts (see SACHEL 2003: p. 41).



There are many reasons for this, some of them cultural, some of them economic (given the average gender gap it is not convenient that the higher earning parent forfeits 70% of his pay), some of them linked to employers' hostility. But even in the public sector, where the first month of parental leave is paid in full and where the professional career follows more automatic mechanisms than in the private sector, only 18% of fathers take the leave.

**Table 45 Use of maternity and parental leaves (Law 53/2000), by geographical area and child's age.**

	North	Center	South	Italy
No	18,7	27,1	34,4	23,9
Yes	81,3	72,9	65,6	76,1
Age of child at the end of leave				
Until 3 months	10.3	15.1	19.2	13.4
3 - 6 months	23.4	31.9	44.1	30.1
6 - 9 months	26.3	25.6	18.6	24.3
9 - 12 months	28.4	18.0	11.4	22.2
More than 12 months	11.6	9.2	6.0	9.8
Total	100	100	100	100

Source: ISTAT, Survey on births, workshop CNEL-ISTAT 2003.

Notes: 24% of mothers don't take any facultative leave. 10% utilized different possibilities (vacancies, leave for sickness) with 100% retribution. 95% has declared to have received regular retribution, maternity indemnity. 50% has declared to wish to stay more at home. Economic motivation, necessities on the job different by level of education. 7% of fathers used parental leave, 4% declare that they will use it in the future.

What is more worrying, is that in government's discourse part time for women, together with job sharing, seems to be the main solution to conciliating problems (of course perceived as mainly if not exclusively women's problems). At the same time, the labour market reform has greatly worsened the conditions under which part time may occur (thus time schedules may change from a week to the next, overtime has no limitations, and so forth). Thus the specific advantages of this time organisation, against the present and long term (in terms of pension income) disadvantages, are greatly reduced if not reversed. Actually, for those who have to juggle multiple obligations and paid and unpaid work, predictability of working hours is more important than length. As for job sharing, it puts all the pressure on the sharers, who must either stay together or be fired/leave together, since they are under a single contract. As a matter of fact, it seems that this is not a very popular kind of contract, either with employers or with employee.

An indicator which would be worthwhile developing here (and/or in social inclusion) concerns the degree to which the disabled are supported in remaining/entering the labour market and in developing skills (see the OECD document *Transforming disability into ability*, 2003, and a similar document by the EU), as well as in participating to social life. Actually indicators concerning the disabled as citizens and active human beings, not only as persons needing care, are curiously missing in this long and rambling list of indicators of social quality.

## **5.4 Openness and supportiveness of institutions**

The Italian Constitution allows for repealing referenda. The first such referendum, in 1974, was that proposing to repeal the law introducing divorce, followed by that proposing to repeal the law introducing abortion. These two referenda had a very high turn out. Also the referendum repealing the proportional system in the elections had a substantial turn out. In recent years, however, as the number of referenda increased, the turnout decreased and most referenda end without the quorum, thus have no validity. The reasons for this are multiple and spur a highly controversial debate. Someone points to the difficulty in understanding what a referendum is about, since it must be framed in very technical ways. Others point to the fact that often the repealing mechanism is counter-intuitive, since one has to vote no if he/she wants to keep that particular law or comma of a law, and yes if he/she wants to repeal it. Still others point to the fact that there have been too many referenda and often on very technical matters. Finally many point out that even the referenda which did obtain a legal result, that is had a quorum, thus actually repealing the law or part of law involved, then were de facto nullified by the legislator, through some superficial change of the parts repealed. Thus there are reasons which point to a lack of willingness (or ability) to take part in direct democracy and reasons which point to lack of trust in the ability of direct democracy to impact on decision making. In any case the referendum instrument exists and is often used for a number of issues. In the summer 2004, for instance, signatures were collected to ask for a referendum to repeal all or part of the law narrowly regulating access to reproductive technologies which was approved in the Spring 2004. Local governments can hold their own referenda on local matters. They may be either negative (to repeal something) or positive. In some case they are only consultant referenda, with no direct impact on decisions.

Consultation may occur, and is increasingly occurring, in the case of major environmental decisions, such as neighbourhood restructuring or the location of waste site. As a matter of fact, local communities increasingly organise, usually in opposition, around choices concerning the building of high roads, railway roads, waste sites and so forth. It could be read as an example of direct democracy; but in many instances it is at least dubious (see the issue of the different levels of social cohesion), in so far it often represents a way of not accepting a quota of collective responsibility; and sometimes it provokes serious disruptions (the last case is that of a small town near Naples which is refusing to have a waste site in its territory and periodically interrupts the railway traffic connecting the South to the North).

## **5.5 Public space**

Indicators concerning number of marches and demonstrations are weak indicators of empowerment. Certainly the ability to hold such demonstrations is an indicator of democracy. But their number (and their issues) may be an indicator of social unrest and of a perceived unavailability of other channels to impact the decision making process. Thus, for instance, in the past two years in Italy there has been an incredible number of protests around issues concerning the proposed reform of the Judiciary or

against the proposed reform of the TV system, since – right or wrong - they were perceived as an attack against civil liberties and democracy. Yet both reforms have been approved. The same occurred with elementary school reform. And the number of anti-war marches has been high, but still Italian soldiers are in Irak. Actually the systematic defeat of these protests may undermine, not enhance, the feeling of empowerment.

At the minimum, we should be aware that the meaning – in terms of empowerment (of whom?) – of direct participation in protests and marches is context and time specific.

At the same time it should be pointed out that the use of public space not only for protests, but for celebrations, festivals, public shows and so forth is widespread and sometime even organized directly by the municipalities. The traditional way of using public space by religious procession has been substituted for by festivals, concerts, mega TV monitors in the case of sport events and so far – which is also a way of making the public space public.

Data on public expenditure on various kinds of cultural and recreational activities (see tabb. 46 and 47) may offer a (very impressionistic) insight on the degree to which there is public support to these activities, either directly or indirectly, through the provision of financial support.

**Table 46 Expenditure by the Public Administrations for cultural, recreational and religious activities by Regions and Geographical area - Year 1995-2001 (percentage on totale expenditure) (IND 90).**

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Piemonte	2,4	2,4	2,8	2,6	2,6	2,4	2,4
Valle d'Aosta	4,1	3,9	3,4	3,3	2,9	2,8	2,9
Lombardia	2,9	2,9	3,0	2,8	2,7	2,7	2,5
Trentino-Alto Adige	2,6	2,7	2,0	2,0	2,3	2,3	2,3
Veneto	2,2	2,1	2,4	2,5	2,2	2,3	2,3
Friuli-Venezia Giulia	2,8	2,9	3,3	3,2	3,1	3,0	2,8
Liguria	2,7	2,8	3,1	2,9	2,6	2,4	2,3
Emilia Romagna	2,7	2,7	3,3	3,2	3,1	2,9	2,7
Toscana	2,6	2,7	3,1	3,1	2,8	2,6	2,6
Umbria	2,1	2,1	2,2	2,2	2,4	2,3	2,2
Marche	2,1	2,2	2,3	2,3	2,5	2,3	2,2
Lazio	2,4	2,6	2,8	2,6	2,4	2,4	2,2
Abruzzo	1,9	1,9	1,7	1,7	1,7	1,6	1,5
Molise	1,9	2,0	1,6	1,8	1,8	1,7	1,7
Campania	1,8	1,8	1,5	1,5	1,4	1,4	1,4
Puglia	1,4	1,4	1,4	1,5	1,6	1,5	1,5
Basilicata	1,6	1,7	1,3	1,4	1,6	1,4	1,4
Calabria	1,6	1,5	1,5	1,4	1,5	1,4	1,4
Sicilia	2,2	2,1	2,6	2,2	2,1	2,0	2,1
Sardegna	2,0	2,1	1,6	1,9	2,1	2,0	1,9
Italy	2,3	2,3	2,4	2,4	2,3	2,2	2,1
Geographical area							
North-west	2,7	2,8	3,0	2,8	2,7	2,6	2,5
North-east	2,5	2,5	2,8	2,8	2,7	2,6	2,5
Center	2,4	2,6	2,8	2,7	2,5	2,4	2,3
South	1,8	1,8	1,8	1,7	1,7	1,6	1,6

Source: ISTAT, Conti Economici Territoriali SEC 1995-2001, database 2004.

**Table 47 Expenditure of Municipal Public Administration in cultural activities by geographical area - Years 2001-2002 (provisional data) (percentage on total expenditure).**

	2001	2002
North-west	3,1	2,9
North-east	4,6	4,3
Center	4,1	4,4
South	1,8	2,1
Italy	3,1	3,2

Source: ISTAT I bilanci consuntivi delle amministrazioni comunali. Anno 2002. "Statistiche in breve". Aprile 2004.

## 5.6 Personal relationships

The indicators proposed overlap with those relating to social inclusion and have been dealt with (when available and meaningful) there. Their specific relevance here is unclear.

## 5.7 Trends and reflections

As pointed out above, this is at the same time the most interesting and the most difficult (and least well conceptualised) Conditional Factor from a social quality perspective. As the list of indicators goes, there is a large degree of overlapping with other domains, as well as unclear assumptions underlining some of them.

Having said this, we may point out some interesting trends:

A continuing improvement in the level of education of the young compared to their parents. In 2003 73% of all who graduated from the university that year were the first to obtain a university degree in their family. This improvement is even more striking in the case of young women: not only are they better educated than their mothers and fathers, but better educated than their male peers. In 2003 women were 59% of all university graduates.

The increase in women's education is accompanied by, and strengthens, women's labour force participation. Although Italy is far from the 60% Lisbon target, this target if fully reached among younger women – but only if they are childless. If they have a child, the Lisbon target is not reached even among women below 40 years of age. Level of education and place of residence are the two crucial items in allowing women with children to stay in the labour market. Little skilled women with children living in the South are the worse off, constrained as they are by a reduced labour demand on the one hand, lack of services and lower kin support on the other.

Constraints on young people's autonomy (due to constraints on the labour market, but also the housing market and in access to credit) and on the possibility for women to conciliate labour market participation and family responsibilities, together with the persistence of traditional gender models with regard to the division of labour, are responsible both for the specific Italian delay in family formation and for the very low fertility. In this period the "reproductive paradox of a familistic society" (Della Zuanna 2001, Saraceno 2004) has been displayed in full.

The persistence of still heavily skewed gender arrangements is confirmed also in the distribution of positions between men and women in decision making places and processes, notwithstanding the

growing presence of well educated women in the professions and their growing presence in managerial positions.

If one looks at participation to strikes, street demonstrations and so forth, one could consider Italy as a country where social and political participation is lively, and where citizens can express their views easily. Yet, participation in elections has been going down and there is a general distancing from political parties. Actually, one may point to a sort of paradox: as party politics increasingly permeates all the public space, including the media, interest in politics decreases. This may be an indicator of a change in the way citizens perceive what is "politics" and what a political action is. Thus it may be assumed as an indicator of empowerment (instead of trying to influence Parliament and political elections from within the system, other "political" spaces and relationships are built elsewhere, in volunteer associations, street manifestations, social economy enterprises and so forth. But it may also be an indicator of a diffuse feeling of powerlessness: there is no influence one can exert; the dominant groups are always the same; citizens have no power and they better not waste their time. What of these two possibilities will prevail is to be seen.

Among the methodological and conceptual issues we raised in the chapter, we remind here that concerning, once again, the missing attention for disabled people. We also suggested some indicator in this area (e.g. with regard education, but also labour market participation).



## **6 National, Regional or local initiatives on four conditional Factors of Social Quality**

### **6.1 Introduction**

The most interesting initiatives that may be considered from a social quality point of view are at the local level. There is a number of projects by public and private actors, at the regional, province, city and neighbourhood level, sometime financed by the European Social fund, sometime financed otherwise.

Without any pretence to be exhaustive, nor to make some kind of ranking, we will present here initiatives which represent good examples of quality innovation in selected areas: support to social and political participation by foreign residents, support to social participation by children, the development of new forms of reciprocity, support to e-learning for the young, local development initiatives..

### **6.2 Supporting political participation of foreign residents**

In contrast to other European countries such as Denmark, Ireland, the Netherlands or Sweden, Italy has no legislation that, incorporating European Union guidelines<sup>13</sup>, grants resident foreigners on the national territory the right to vote in local elections.

During the previous parliamentary term, there was vigorous debate on the granting of voting right to immigrants. This ended with a Government Bill on immigration being submitted that made provision for this concession precisely in Art.18.3<sup>14</sup>. The provision did not pass the debate and was converted into a constitutional bill that never became a law. The debate ended when parliament changed. Discussion then shifted to a different level immediately after the rejection of the bill on the granting of voting rights to immigrants and the institution of bodies for immigrant advice and participation at local level (the immigrants' "consulte" or advisory bodies and deputy councilors at municipal, provincial and regional levels). It seems that instead of enhancing self-awareness among immigrants by granting their requests, these new means of representation actually sparked off internal dynamics within the different immigrant communities that worked against a general movement developing to obtain citizenship rights. (Carpo, F.; Cortese, O.; Di Peri, R. and G. Magrin 2003).

In the Spring 2004 deputy prime minister Fini shocked his coalition standing for the rights of vote for foreign citizens. But this position seems more linked to internal and political dynamics than to a serious debate on this issue. Some Regions and towns have decided to register in their Statute the right of vote in local elections. Yet, the national government opposed the new Statute of the Toscana regions, among other things, on the ground that it introduced the general principle of the right to vote

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<sup>13</sup> The possibility of access to political rights for foreign residents is not in force in Italy which has not yet ratified the provisions of Chapter C of the Strasbourg Convention of 1992, nor the guidelines included in the resolutions of the European Parliament of 1997 and 2003, in which the member states are invited to recognise local voting rights to citizens of third countries.

<sup>14</sup> The Bill proposed extending the right to vote at local elections to immigrants holding a "carta di soggiorno permanente" (permanent residence card) (granted after 5 years of holding a residence permit).

in local administrative elections to legal resident foreigners. The issue is now pending in the Constitutional Court.

### 6.2.1 Advisory bodies and deputy councilors

A recent research under the SATCHEL project (Carpo et. al. 2003), studied the case of political participation of foreign citizens in Italy, analysing empirically the most significant experiences and steps taken in recent years in the direction of the political inclusion of foreigners. In addition to Turin, the location of the research group, the study also paid particular attention to the cases of Rome, Lecce and the Marche region. The research analyses with particular attention the local experiences of the Advisory Bodies and Deputy Councilors, trying to draw some conclusions on their activities in the course of the nineties, both in terms of their ability to represent and express the needs of the immigrant population, and of their effectiveness.

From the first half of the 1990s in various municipalities and provinces two pilot experiences in political representation of foreign citizens, and particularly non EU immigrants, representing the immigrants at different levels, municipal (the widest experience), provincial and regional have been developed: in the first place immigrants' advisory bodies were instituted; later the figure of deputy councillor was created. Most of these experiences occur in the Center-North.

The *advisory bodies* made provision for the presence of representatives from the institutions, trade unions, social welfare associations and immigrant associations, the main aim being to have them express recommendations on the specific problems immigrants encounter<sup>15</sup>. The immigrants' political/advisory process varies a great deal, both in terms of its institutions and context, and of the period over which the experience lasted. The evaluation of the efficacy of these bodies is not fully positive, whether in terms of their ability to represent immigrants' problems or of their real influence in their dealings with the institutions. Their effectiveness was also found to be somewhat lacking also due to the small number of meetings. Lastly, also relationships with the employers associations were found to be weak.

The experience of the *deputy councilors* is certainly more interesting, above all with reference to the mechanisms of how immigrants are elected. Although lacking voting rights, the foreign deputy councilors take part in the meetings of the councils they have been elected to, and in discussions of both the council and the commissions of the local body. In the case of the deputy councilors, things have been found to work better in smaller geographical areas than in large cities, where often immigrants themselves, belonging to different ethnic groups, may be in disagreement, thus weakening the role of the person who is supposed to represent them.

Another means of immigrant representation - a tool through which the local bodies support the immigrants' associations - is the *Area Councils for immigration*. The setting up of these bodies, which was enacted through the measure to implement the Consolidation Act on immigration (1998), aimed to favour the provinces or large urban areas. According to the law, at the local level the Area Councils

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<sup>15</sup> According to the data of the CNEL report on the representation of immigrants of 1998 (CNEL Report, *La rappresentanza diffusa. Le forme di partecipazione degli immigrati alla vita collettiva*, Rome, April 2000).



must monitor the problems of migration without therefore being restricted to just integration policy but dealing also with the specific problems and issues of the local contexts. A year after the decree was issued, the Area Councils were set up in all the provinces of Italy. These bodies include representatives of the local bodies, the regional administration, bodies and associations that work for and with immigrants, and workers' and employers' associations.

The SATCHEL research underlines that from the late '90s there is a transformation of these experiences. The visibility and credibility of these institutions declines and the degree of representativity weakened overall, despite the increasing number of attempts to increase their involvement and responsibility. Partly this process was caused by the fact that immigration policies were enacted and approved, without any contribution by these bodies thus creating, *de facto*, a situation of "concession" without increasing the level of participation of the communities and individuals in social and political life (*ibidem*: 10-11).

The pilot experiences at the local level in the late nineties – with the creation of the Advisory Bodies and Deputy Councillors in many Italian municipalities, provinces and regions – were however important test benches for policies aimed at "giving a voice" to representatives of the immigrant population.

Its main strong point is the symbolic value that the Advisory Bodies and Deputy Councillors play in offering visibility and legitimacy to the foreign communities present in Italy. The creation of these institutions is often accompanied, especially in the initial phases, by the lively involvement of the foreign and mixed associations which are present locally, generally called on to provide suggestions or to find advance agreement on candidates for elections for foreign residents. Yet, the dialogue between foreign communities, and between them and the local political class, has often revealed difficulties and incomprehension, especially in the early stages: there was no shortage of cases of dissent between foreign associations or charges of political instrumentality by Italian politicians. The fact remains that the presentation of candidates and the elections themselves represent an important occasion for the *acknowledgement* on the public stage of the political subjectivity of foreigners.

The most significant experiences in the direction of increasing the political inclusion of foreigners are those at the municipal level, where relations between representatives, on the one hand, and the local area, associations, and electoral base, on the other, are closer. When there is no co-ordination of foreign communities on the local level, the municipal level has in fact shown itself more fruitful than the provincial or regional one for the creation of effective dialogue between representatives and the world of foreign residents.

The research underlined the failure of "top-down investiture" style. The institutional co-opting of members of the foreign communities into the new consultative bodies would seem to generate a "cascade" effect, meaning that the lack of representativeness of those "invested" is reflected in their poor or non-existent negotiating capacity with Italian political counterparts, producing at the end of the day the ineffectiveness of the institution itself. Elections thus appears a decisive step, not only in symbolic terms, for the purposes of the representativeness and effectiveness of these institutions. It is however clear to all that the real difficulty lies in finding electoral forms that combine the criterion of representation on an ethnic basis with a universal one, which sees in the individual, not the community, the final subject of representation: it is precisely on this issue that some of the most

interesting experiences seem to have failed, as demonstrated by the refusal of the Albanian community to recognise the Deputy Councillor of Lecce, of Philippine origin.

In many cases, the life of the Advisory Bodies and the activity of the Deputy Councilors meet practical and organisational difficulties that call into question local administrators. The lack of logistical support, of an office and administrative personnel, and the failure to offer some kind of financial compensation to those elected often turned out to be a significant causes of failure.

In all the cases studied, the immigrants' associations played a – either positive or negative decisive role, first in the dynamic of legitimising those elected and then in supporting or undermining their activity. Fragmentation and quarrelling generally undermined support for the representatives and in some cases made a considerable contribution to the failure of the experience. On the contrary, co-ordination between the immigrant and ethnic associations strengthened the role of the representative/s, in the best cases providing them with planning, pro-active and organisational support.

Especially in the Italian situation, characterised by the presence of numerous recently settled and poorly structured foreign communities, the priority today, from the perspective of increasing their political participation, is to act at every level to foster the creation of federations of foreign associations, or at least to develop a common ground at the local level, in which the foreigners' chief needs and political demands can be discussed, developed and, finally, presented to the local political system, through the consultative bodies and otherwise. In the absence of occasions to draw up common proposals and strategies, the relations of the single foreign associations with the local political system also seem frequently to obey a logic of self-interest and fuel the competition between the various associations in the search for exclusive accreditation with the Italian political counterparts". In September 2004 the Consiglio di Stato (the higher administrative Court in Italy) expressed a positive position in favour of the legitimacy the extension of the right to vote to foreign citizens regularly sojourning in Italy in the election of sub-areas of cities councils (zone, circoscrizioni, quartieri), in the towns where the Statute has established this right.

### **6.2.2 A success story: the experience of the Regione Marche.**

In the *Marche* region an interesting mix was created between the immigrants' associations and institutional experiences of Advisory Bodies and Deputy Councillors, which was very praiseworthy in terms of the capacity of political mobility and its effectiveness. In terms of foreigner participation. The experience in the Marche saw a central role played by the Regional Federation of the Associations and by the immigrants foreign community, which was started in 1993 from a pool of four or five foreigners with militant experience in parties and associations also outside Italy, with the goal of creating an instrument of support for immigrants' associations which would foster the participation of immigrants in civil and political life. The principles that guide the action of the original group - later acknowledged within the federation - are basically of autonomy of foreigners to be mobile with respect to Italian politics, and the fundamental value of co-operation and the building of a network-type of relationship among the various immigrant associations. The associations are generally created according to ethnic reasons, and almost all have only foreign members. Starting from the six original

associations, today there are some 24 associations formally enrolled in the Federation, many of which arising upon invitation of the Federation itself through pressure political exerted by the exponents of the non-organised national groups, with letters, information reports, invitations to take part in the meetings, and other various supports. The Marche Regional Federation has energetically followed a strategy of keeping full independence both with regard to the local trade unions - with which, after resisting the initiative of CISL to incorporate it into ANOLF (Associazione Nazionale Oltre le Frontiere) it has recently signed an agreement within which the enrolment and participation of foreign members to various associations and political parties is promoted without indication of political interest and with the intent of controlling the main power positions in the areas regarding immigration. This is an interesting example of the use of the local political context and its partners to promote the cause of immigrants' rights, with a large capacity to fend off or neutralise its instrumental connotations. The operational competence of the Federation is guaranteed by a flexible internal organisation, that entrusts the choice of the roles of responsibility to the election mechanism, such roles being moreover reserved only to foreigners. The organisational structure of the federation makes provision for: a President's Office elected every three years and made up of the Chairman, Secretary and three Vice presidents; an Executive Committee, also elected every three years and having three representatives for each association; lastly, the Assembly of all the associations taking part in the Federation. The Federation of immigrant associations has provided the impulse for the whole process to progressively open institutional areas to foreigners, both according to the formula of the Advisory Body set up at regional level, and in the form of experiences of Foreign Deputy Councilors, set up at council and provincial levels. The law that instituted the Regional Advisory Body (Regional law 2/1998) was approved on the basis of a bill drawn up by the Federation. The positions of President and Vice-President of the Advisory Body are reserved to immigrants, with four of the seven members of the Executive Committee also having to be immigrants. To avoid internal divisions prevailing in the Federation and in the group of foreign representatives of the Advisory Body – such divisions making the foreigners' position extremely weak in many concrete experiences of mixed-make-up advisory bodies – the practice has consolidated of bringing together the various immigrant associations before calling the Advisory Body to develop a joint position. The members of the Advisory Body underline that the Advisory Body itself succeeds in concretely exerting a strong influence on the activities of the Regional Executive. Already starting in 1994, the Federation also promoted the various experiences of Deputy Councillors through an awareness-raising campaign at the Municipal and Provincial Councils of the Marche region. In 1995 the first Deputy Councillor was elected in Ancona; Deputy Councillors were subsequently elected in the municipalities of Senigallia, Fabriano, Jesi, Grottamare, Colle del Tronto, Macerata and in the provinces of Ancona and Macerata, with election procedures that, after various experiments, currently come very close to resembling Italy's administrative elections: foreigners report in person to sign at the Town Hall to make up the list of candidates; those who obtain more than 100-150 signatures become candidates. One of the assumptions considered essential for effective operation of the practice of the Deputy Councillors is the creation of a compact and united work group of immigrants' representatives around the elected Foreign Councillor, so as to avoid both his political instrumentalisation and his role suffering in terms of representation (Carpo, F.; Cortese, O.; Di Peri, R. and G. Magrin 2003).

### 6.3 Local initiatives for the participation of children and youth.

From the Social Quality conceptualization it is interesting what is reported in the evaluation that Legambiente does on the initiatives taken at the Municipal level in relation to the children's quality of life. The seventh report of Legambiente (2004) - *Ecosistema Bambino 2004* -, collects data for 2002 on the opportunities for children's participation, the structures dedicated to children, the initiatives of cultural animation (Law 285/97), public transportation, the proportion of cars by inhabitants, the presence of pedestrian areas, the presence and length of bike lines, the restricted circulation areas and the quantity of public parks by inhabitants. The major towns in Italy are ranked on this basis. The top seven cities are La Spezia, Pesaro, Arezzo, Ravenna, Udine, Reggio Emilia, Belluno. Followed by Torino, the first large city in this classification paying attention to young citizens.

The main initiatives that involved children and the youth are "participated planning" (progettazione partecipata) of the urban territory (42% of the cities are involved in initiatives of this kind) and regular meeting with the Mayor (41%). In the field of social and cultural activities the most popular are the laboratories (73%) and outdoor initiatives but also theater festivals for young people. On the environmental conditions the selected parameters show that the cities are yet largely inadequate. The projects reported as more innovative concern the "adoption" by schools or young people association of specific parts of the city or of the neighbourhood: monuments, squares, parks. The groups involved take responsibility for their maintenance, and also for making them known to local citizens and Tourists. One of the first cities to develop this initiative was Napoli. In the city of La Spezia it eventually led to develop a more ambitious project of urban renewal.

The organization of youth city councils and consultive bodies are common experiences in the cities with the highest rank in the Legambiente study.

### 6.4 Bank of times: developing new forms of reciprocity

According to Tempomat, Nation Observatory on Banks of Time, on September 2003 there are 300 such institutions on the national territory. They are active mostly in the north of Italy (Piemonte 31, Lombardia 85, Veneto 30, Friuli Venezia Giulia 7, Trentino 5, Liguria 9) and in the Center (Emilia Romagna 39, Marche 17, Toscana 24, Umbria 4, Lazio 7, 1 in Roma with 22 points). But also in the south there are some of these experiences: Abruzzo 4, Campania 7, Calabria 3, Basilicata 1, Puglia 9, Sicilia 10 (Modica with 7 points), Sardegna 9.

The "Bank of Time" is a special bank that provides to exchange services in kind. "the Bank of Time" is a system by which people reciprocally exchange activities, services and knowledge. The clients declare which activities and services they can offer and then they can open an account in which they deposit and draw hours instead of money. "Who does the exchange, does an important action: liberation of time. The value of an hour is simply an hour, independent of the services exchanged". (Source: Regione Emilia Romagna).

"The Bank of time is a social innovation that could activate a solidarity network based on the exchange between peers of services that can satisfy needs of the daily life and care activities in a way that no

public service can do. It is a way to organize a network of reciprocal help like in a neighbour. At the beginning of 90s the name "Bank of time" was invented in Parma, but it developed in many other towns and even at the international level, mostly due to the initiative and involvement of women's groups and associations. The Italian experience is often compared with the British LETS (local exchange system), but the peculiarity is that they are not originated by an economic necessity, but with the aim to rebuild and to strengthen the relation between persons, starting from the point that time is a resource which for someone is scarce and for some other too much abundant. Participating in the Bank of Time a person can receive services that satisfy needs immediately; but the final result will be the rebuilding social networks and solidarity links on the territory" (*Source: Banca del Tempo di Iperbole, Bologna*).

In some case these "banks" are totally managed and organised by a non profit organisation. But in many cases they are in one way or another initiated and sponsored by local administrations, which offer office space and minimal technologies, when not also the basic staff, although they also involve some degree of volunteerism and especially some activity of networking.

These "banks" are also often part of wider projects of intervention in the time organisation of local communities, with regard for instance to coordination of public services hours, or of transportation schedules with office and school hours (see e.g. Zayczyck 2000).

*Città in tempo*, for instance, is a project organized by the Turin Provincial Council . Its aim is to improve the quality of life for the inhabitant of the Turin province by improving the quality of public services. Through this project the Turin Provincial Council coordinates itself with the various metropolitan city councils not only on financial matters but also on the most frequently used city services, paying particular attention to the provision of information and opening times for the public.

*Città in tempo* puts its plans into action by using four strategies: Research, co-ordination of the metropolitan registry, training, use of the documentation center. The Time bank is a subproject of *Città in tempo* ("città in tempo [www.provincia.torino.it/tempi](http://www.provincia.torino.it/tempi))..

## 6.5 National Campaign "Vai con Internet"

This initiative is promoted by the Department of Innovation and Technologies at the Ministry with the same name, with the goal to incentive the diffusion and use of personal computer by families. This initiative includes the project "PC alle famiglie" (PC to the families) that gives the opportunity of receiving a contribution of 200 Euro to the families residents in Italy with an households income under 15.000 € for the year 2002, in order to purchase a personal computer with the internet access. The project (approved with the decree of 29 luglio 2004 reg. 8, foglio 311), starts in september 2004. It has a financial budget of 30 millions of Euro in the financial law of 2004.

The project "Vola con Internet" "PC ai giovani" is designed specifically for the 16 year old youth (born in the year 1987). All those in this age group can participate (estimated in the number of 593.784) (decree of 30 gennaio 2004 by the Ministry of Economy and Finance.). The initiative provides a deduction of 175 € in the case a personal computer is bought. The European Computer Licence can be obtained at a low fee (18 €).

This campaign also includes a project by the Ministry of Education “PC to the teacher”, that gives the opportunity to the 900.000 teachers of the Public school and the University to buy a personal computer at a special price ([G.U. n.164 del 15 luglio 2004](#)). (Source: <http://www.istruzione.it/>)

#### 6.6. Participation and local development: Roma and Torino

Different towns and areas are involved in local development projects which see the cooperation of different local actors and some kind of social participation. These may involve sovra-municipal areas or sub-municipal ones. These activities are sponsored under different ministries and local authorities, and may be funded under different parts of the national or local budget, depending also on their specific focus. The “territorial pacts”, which focus mostly on job and enterprise creation, are regulated and funded under the Ministry of labour and that of finances. Urban renewal initiatives are regulated and funded – often within the social fund framework, by local authorities. All these initiatives have in common a, more or less successful and efficacious, the setting up of local networks (“Tables”) where social actors who usually do not cooperate or even conflict (trade unions, employer’s unions, third sector actors, local associations, and so forth) develop common strategies.

The most important initiatives in this field concern “territorial contracts”. These are also the most known and studied. Other initiatives involve municipal governments. These latter initiatives have found a legislative tool and funding in law 266/1997 and implementation decree 225 of June 1998, under which the Ministry of industry, commerce and artisanship may fund municipal initiatives aimed at supporting the development of economically active enterprises. Ten cities - Torino, Milano, Venezia, Genova, Bologna, Firenze, Roma, Cagliari, Napoli, Bari – have been using systematically this tool and have created a network among themselves – “Rete delle città” – which is coordinated by one of them, in turn. The projects developed under this fund in the four years 1999-2002 involved 171 million euros. 30% has been spent in services to the enterprises (incubators, technical assistance, training, consulting), 70% in direct financial contribution either in form of capital, or in form of low cost loans (see Report on the law 266/1997 art. 14 - Interventi per lo sviluppo imprenditoriale in aree di degrado urbano. Indagine pilota sull'applicazione della normativa da parte dei Comuni, a cura dell'Istituto per la Promozione Industriale, Comune di Firenze, April 2004).

From a social quality approach and its focus on the development and enriching of citizens' agency, the most interesting initiatives however are those which involve municipal governments and actors not only in creating economically profitable activities, but also in changing the social quality of the local environment, trying to combine economic with social development and participation.

Here we will mention two such cases, which address precisely the issue of agency within a “sustainable development” framework. The first concerns the city of Roma, the second the city of Torino.

### **6.5.1 Roma: the city of “alternative economy”**

Since 2001 the various associations which work in the area of so called alternative economy (cooperatives, equal and solidaristic commerce, critical consumption and so forth) cooperate with the municipality of Roma in the development of criteria and means for a sustainable and equitable development at the city level. The first outcome of this collaboration is the institution of “the city of the alternative economy”. Using the funds provided by law 266/1997, the municipality has allocated a wide area in a popular and run down neighbourhood in the periphery to initiatives involving shops of the equal and solidaristic commerce, artisan workshops, offices and show rooms for enterprises in the “alternative economy”, meeting places and so forth, which will be run and organised by the organisation which comprises the various associations. The aim is not only that to offer a space for small enterprises and initiatives, but to develop structural and social instruments to involve citizens in the re-qualification and re-vitalisation of the areas in which they live and to reduce the physical and symbolic space between center and periphery (see [www.autopromozionesociale.it](http://www.autopromozionesociale.it)).

This initiative is inserted in the general framework in which the municipality of Roma has been using the funds of law 266: as an item in an integrated patchwork of funds and initiatives aiming not only at developing economically profitable initiatives, but at supporting urban renewal, including a re-vitalisation and strengthening of social participation. The general instrument of this policy has been the so called “neighbourhood contracts”.

### **6.5.2 Turin: the “peripheries project”**

Turin has long been a company town and its population includes a large proportion of working class, often second or third generation internal immigrants. The peripheries have developed often in an unplanned way and for many years little investment has been made on them, even when, in the early nineties, the city started a large program of urban renewal, which however involved mostly the center. In the late nineties and at the beginning of the new century, however, also under the impulse of the then woman councillor responsible for this issue, a number of projects started to be developed addressing the social and urban environment of the peripheral neighbourhoods, under the aegis of the “Progetto Periferie”, which is still under way and which is progressively incorporating new areas. At present, the portfolio of local development projects of Turin's City Council includes thirteen that target peripheral areas of the city. These projects are in part of initiatives of integrated urban regeneration, plans of urban requalification, and neighbourhood contracts. Urban interventions represent an overall investment of approximately 500 million Euros over several years. Other three territorial areas are due to be selected by the region and by the Ministry for the Infrastructures to access the funds for new neighbourhood contracts. Restructuring the buildings and infrastructures was sparked off by a complex objective: to recreate a more solid social fabric. Different sectors of the Public Administration, local health authorities and services, schools, trade unions, local associations and institutions, parishes, cooperatives and so forth were involved in the planning and implementation process.

This integrated type of approach and horizontal intervention has been a part of local policies in Turin for many years now. The novelty is twofold. First, starting from interventions based in specific areas, it was possible to link and put into systematic communication and inter-exchange otherwise isolated initiatives and good practices – in social work, in the health services, in schools, in neighbourhood associations and so forth. Second, local residents were explicitly indicated and conceptualised as crucial partners, not only beneficiaries, of all interventions. This allows both listening to how residents perceive needs, problems, priorities, and supporting and incentivising the creation of local networks. In this articulated and complex scenario the role of the Periphery Department alternated between providing stimulation, which triggered occasions for the intervention of various actors, and facilitating, which involved controlling and supporting the interaction between all the involved parties. To perform this role, on one hand, the Periphery Sector could count on the one hand on the availability of Social Fund programmes urban re-newal, on the other hand on the willingness of all relevant actors in the city to take the challenge of cooperation.

Problems of different kinds however arose: the difficulty in being welcomed in the area and gaining the trust of the inhabitants; administrative problems to create optimal new procedures for performing functions other than ordinary management; the difficulty in sharing financial and human resources, which barely suffice to cover regular work and thus are rather scarce; and the difficulties in connecting sector policies that normally differ in terms of plans, methods, and timing.

On the whole, these difficulties continue to exist, but they have been partially resolved, at least where this was instrumental in achieving results (*Giovanni Magnano, Director of the Periphery Sector in [www.comune.torino.it](http://www.comune.torino.it)*).



## **7 Conclusion**

The list of proposed social quality indicators is still too long, not fully focused, the Conditional Factors and domains not yet fully distinguished, to allow a description of the Italian – or any other – society which is really different in perspective and cognitive demands than that found in the many existing national and comparative studies. Our exercise is still very far from the requirement that a system indicator should be at the same time conceptually clear in the domains it aims at representing, and in their boundaries, and parsimonious. Over one hundred indicators, without any hierarchical order, are just unmanageable both at the level of collecting them and at the level of interpreting the overall picture. In the end, they prevent both a descriptive and an analytical effort. For this reason we will not attempt here to draw any conclusion on the quality of Italian society on the basis of the data presented in the previous chapters. Provisional, partial and tentative conclusions may be found in the concluding paragraphs of each chapter. We can summarize them as follows.

With regard to Socio-Economic Security there is a relative stability in the diffusion of poverty and in its regional concentration, but a change in its social composition (fewer older people, more families with children, more working families). Further, we can witness a differential dynamics in the equivalent disposable income of households located in different professional status, which has reshaped the distribution of income inequalities across social groups, with a relative disadvantage for blue collar and white collar worker' households. This phenomenon is to a large degree responsible for the widespread perception of an "impoverishment of the middle classes" - a perception which has been the "code word" of economic and social uneasiness in the past two years and which may cause a process of disaffiliation of a portion of the middle classes towards not only its political representatives, but towards the kind of social contract which has characterised the Italian system until the early nineties.

With regard to Social Cohesion and Social Inclusion, close community (family, friends, interpersonal networks, local communities) ties in Italy remain strong. Yet they show also possible fault lines. On the one hand, traditional family balances may be put under stress because of demographic changes (ageing of the population) and behavioural changes (women's labour force participation, marital instability). On the other hand, the very strength of family and community ties manifest not always positive undersides: at the family level, we witness the phenomenon of the difficult independence of the young and the general difficulty to form new families, of which the low fertility rate is the most macroscopic indicator. At the community level the revival of localism, the re-invention of cultural and even ethnic identities appears sometime more as a disintegrative tool as an integrating one: the North against the South, each region against the others, municipalities against regions, regions against the state, Italians against immigrants. This process has been at the same time spurred and exploited by political parties and contributes to the symbolic and material context in which the institutional reforms are taking place and being debated. Even religion, traditionally one of the most cohesive elements in the Italian culture, sometime appears to become a very divisive one. Although this may happen also because, together with an instrumental use of religion to distinguish friends and foes in politics and

society, a growing proportion of the population is increasingly unwilling to accept that norms addressing rights and duties of all citizens be dictated by religious affiliation and with reference to religious values. Thus religion, its content, its variety, its influence, is more than ever at the center of the public discourse, but also conflicts, not only because of the increasing presence of members of a religious community which had been not existent or marginal before – the Muslim, but because of the controversial role of the Catholic Church and of the use of Catholicism by political leaders. Further, Italy has definitely become a country of immigration, therefore multi-cultural and multiethnic. The number of immigrants has constantly increased, as well that of family re-unions. This last phenomenon indicates a process of stabilisation and of possible integration. In the large cities of the Center-North the number of migrant children in schools has constantly increased, indicating both a possible means of integration and problems of integration, in so far it requires that schools re-organise in order to deal and integrate these new pupils and their families. Further, while migrant workers are often a precious resource for enterprises and households alike, in so far they fill places which otherwise would not be filled (in manual jobs in enterprises and agriculture, in housework and caring work in families which see an increasing presence of frail elderly), on the hand they risk being exploited, particularly when they are irregular. On the other hand, given the relative high rate of irregular migrants and their spatial concentration within cities, they also risk being perceived as a problem of security.

Finally, a radical change in the traditional forms of political representation (parties) in the late eighties-early nineties overturned balances and alliances which had lasted for over thirty years. The two largest political parties which had dominated government and opposition since the post war years – the Christian democrats and the Communists – both crumbled after the fall of the Berlin wall in 1989, while new parties emerged. This was both a consequence and a cause of changing forms of individual social and political identification, of changing patterns of social stratification, of the re-emergence of old cleavages (e.g. the North/South one). Whatever the political judgment one may pass on these processes and on the coalitions which have taken their turn in government in the past decade, it is fair to say that the public arena has become somewhat unsettled, and there is a general feeling that a public discourse is lacking in which society as a whole may, albeit conflicting, recognize itself. This is not a negative condition per se, as it may represent a transitional state, from one balance to another, more adequate one. This breaking up of long standing balances and discourses may also open up new options. Yet this state contributes not only to lack of trust in public institutions - a quality which has never fared high among Italians, in comparisons to other Europeans. Together with changes in the economy, in the family, in gender arrangements and so forth, it also contributes to feelings of uncertainty.

With regard to Social Empowerment the trends are at the best ambivalent. On the one hand the level of formal education has been growing in the successive cohorts. But Italy does not show up well in international comparisons on competence. And little is done to integrate the most disadvantaged groups in the school system, with heavy risks of intergenerational transmission not only of inequality, but of poverty. Women have improved very much their education levels and now, in the younger cohorts, they are better educated than their male contemporaries. Yet, notwithstanding improvements,

they still fare not so well in the labour market, and even less in the decision making positions, in the economy and in politics. Further, the gender division of labour in the household seems only slightly touched. All in all, the gender contract seems highly unbalanced and contradictory in Italy

Also if we look at social participation as an indicator of empowerment, the situation appears Janus-like: indicators of “voice” (bottom up organisations, protest actions, growth in volunteer and self help activities) go hand in hand with indicators of “exit” (decreasing electoral participation, decreasing interest in the political debate, mistrust). Moreover, some forms of protest, however legitimate, seem to point more to a lack of trust in collective agreements and decisions than to a willingness to become involved in person in making society work. But, of course, there are also indicators of the contrary, and in the examples of good practices we pointed out some of these. The most interesting seem those which involve the creation of integrated social networks, the making of alliances cross-borders and cross-affiliations, together with the development of integrated actions, where the distinction between the economic and the social dimension, or the hierarchy between them is weakened and sometime even reversed. All the examples we have made present to some degree these features.

A final word concerning this exercise. We have been systematically critical and self critical throughout it and also in this conclusion. Yet, we feel that this exercise has been far from useless both conceptually and in cognitive terms.

From a conceptual point of view, we think that, precisely because we attempted at operationalising it, we, as a group, are now in a better position to review the social quality quadrant, both with regard to the components of the quadrant (should the conditional factors be really four? All four? These four?), and with regard to their relationships. Our suggestion that some indicator should be moved to other parts, or should be reformulated, are intended in this spirit. And only a comparative approach may help develop this re-view further.

With regard to the cognitive dimension, the sheer accumulation and listing side to side of information which often pertains to fields which do not communicate, although somewhat maddeningly rambling, forces a less taken for granted view on available data and on their meaning. And while some data – indicators – may appear irrelevant, or misplaced, others can now be argued more forcefully. For instance all the data concerning immigrants are not only crucial, but should be strengthened throughout the domains, e.g. with regard to patterns of family formation, social networks, political participation, volunteer activities, education and so forth. Also a gap in the indicators has emerged, in all the domains, concerning people with disability: a serious gap, in a social quality approach.



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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
		40. Frequency of contact with friends and colleagues
Identity	National/ European identity	41. Sense of national pride
	Regional/ community/ local identity	42. Identification with national symbols and European symbols
		43. Sense of regional / community / local identity
	Interpersonal identity	44. Sense of belonging to family and kinship network

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

**Indicators of Social Inclusion**

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

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

### Indicators of Social Empowerment

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

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



## **Annex Collective data**



## 1. Socio-economic security

### Domain: Financial resources

### Sub-domain: Income security

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

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

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

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

Source: Eurostat; free data, social cohesion

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

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

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

Source: Eurostat; free data, social cohesion

**Domain: Housing and environment**

**Sub-domain: Housing conditions**

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

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

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

Source: Eurostat 2003, Living conditions in Europe

**Domain: Health and care**

**Sub-Domain: Health services**

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

**Number of practitioners per 100 000 inhabitants**

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

Source: Eurostat, Yearbook 2003

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

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

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

Source: Eurobarometer 52.1

**Domain: Work**

**Sub-domain: Employment security**

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

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

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

Source: Eurostat; Statistics in Focus

## Sub-domain: Working conditions

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

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

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

Source: Eurostat; Statistics in Focus

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

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

p) provisional value

b) break in series

Source: Eurostat, free data, employment

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

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

Source: Eurostat 2003; Living conditions in Europe

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

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

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

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



## Domain: Education

### Sub-domain: Security of education

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

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

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

p) provisional value

b) break in series

Source: Eurostat SC053 IV.5.1

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

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

p) provisional value

b) break in series

Source: Eurostat SC053 IV.5.1-2

## 2. Social cohesion

### Domain: Trust

#### Sub-domain: Generalised trust

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Source: European Social Survey (ESS) 2002

#### Sub-domain: Specific trust

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

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

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

Source: European Social Survey 2002.

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

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

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

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

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

## Domain: Other integrative norms and values

### Sub-domain: Altruism

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

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

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

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

#### 30. Blood donation

Blood donation (%), 2002

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

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

## Sub-domain: Tolerance

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

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

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

Source: European Values Survey 1999/2000, Q74

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

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

Source: European Values Survey 1999/2000, Q75

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

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

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

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

Source: Eurobarometer 2000 survey

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

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

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

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

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

## Sub-domain: Social contract

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Source: European Social Survey 2002/2003



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

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

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

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

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

## 40. Frequency of contact with friends and colleagues

### Frequency of spending time with friends

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

Source: European Social Survey (Q6A)

### Frequency of spending time with colleagues

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

Source: European Social Survey (Q6B)

## Domain: Identity

### Sub-domain: National / European pride

#### 41. Sense of national pride

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

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

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

##### Sense of national pride

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

### 3. Social inclusion

#### Domain: Citizenship rights

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

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

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

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

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

#### Sub-domain: Social rights

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

##### Gender pay gap

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

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

Source: Eurostat; free data, employment

### Earnings of men and women

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

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

Note: The share refers to full-time earnings.

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

## Sub-domain: Economic and political networks

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

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

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

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

**Domain: Labour market**

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

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

**Total long-term unemployment**

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

Source: Eurostat; free data, social cohesion

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

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

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

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

Source: Eurostat; free data, social cohesion

**Domain: Social networks**

**Sub-domain: Neighbourhood participation**

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

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

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

Source: Eurostat 2003, Living conditions in Europe

**Sub-domain: Friendships**

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

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

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

Source: Eurostat 2003, Living conditions in Europe

## 4. Social Empowerment

### Domain: Knowledge base

#### Sub-domain: Availability of information

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

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

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

Source: PISA2000; Adult Literacy Survey, 1994-98

##### 75. Access to internet

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

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

Source: European Social Survey, 2002/2003

### Domain: Labour market

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

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

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

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

Source: Eurostat 2003, Living conditions in Europe



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

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

Source: Eurostat 2002, Statistics in Focus



## **Annex Social Quality theory**



## 1 Introduction

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

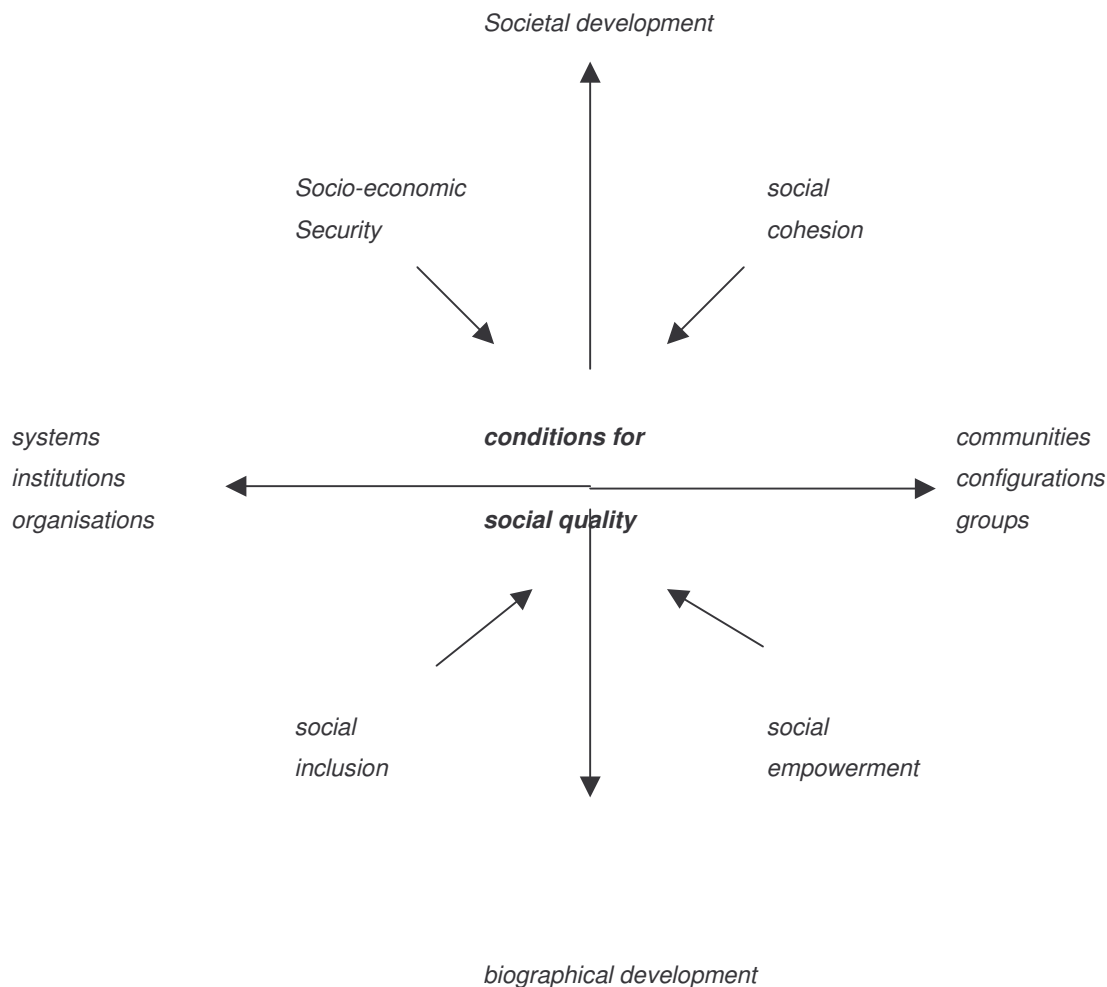
The social quality approach tries to resolve the actual tension behind action and structure in a dialectical way. Social science is by definition a theory of action (this is not the same as the so-called 'action theory'), as the social cannot be imagined without actions or interventions by individual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

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

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



Figure-1 The quadrangle of the conditional factors



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

### 3.3 A referral to the four constitutional factors

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

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

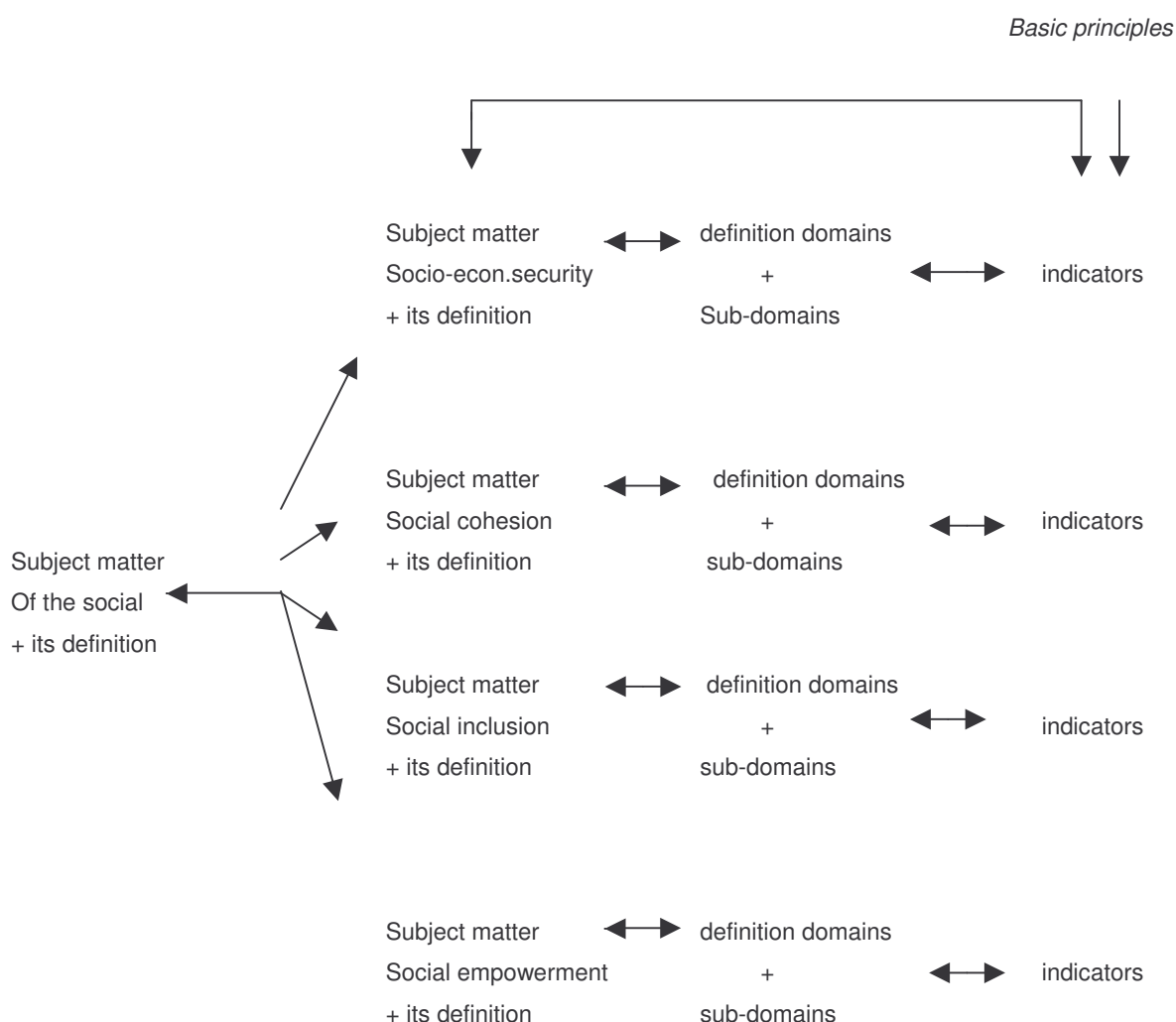
This theme is presented for the first time in the Foundation's second book of January 2001 and will be elaborated in the Foundation's third book. The relationship between the constitutional factors and the conditional factors – theoretically and practically – will be analysed. For the European Network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

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

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

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

Figure-2 Determination of related concepts

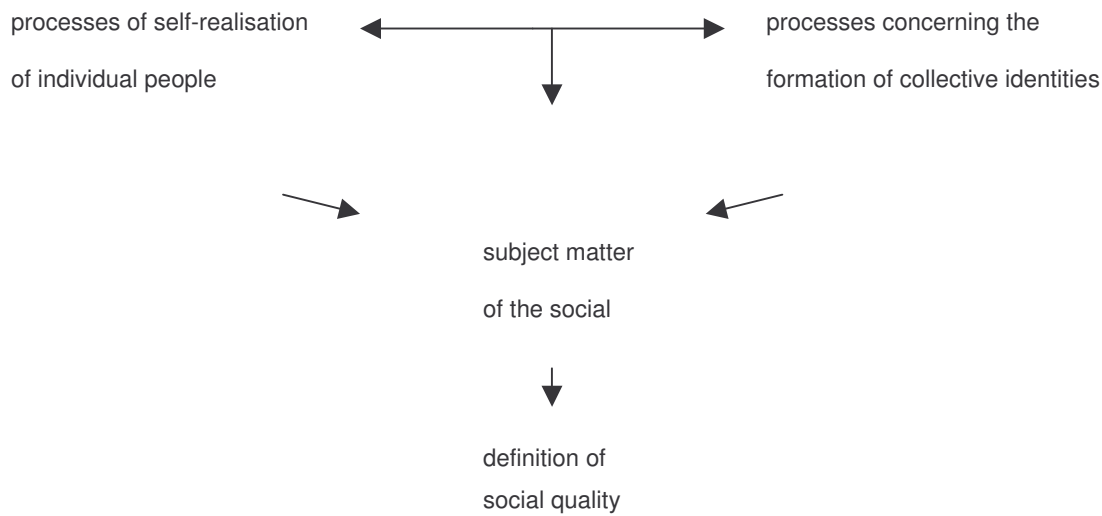


## 4.2 The definitions of the four conditional factors

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

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

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



The herewith related definitions of the four conditional factors are:

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

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

## **5 Conclusions**

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

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



## **Annex Composition of national reference group**





## **Italian national reference group**

Luciano Abburrà  
IRES PIEMONTE (Istituto di Ricerca Economico e Sociali del Piemonte)  
Turin

Dr. Andrea Brandolini  
Bank of Italy  
Economic Research Department  
Rome

Prof.ssa Marina Galloni  
University of Milan Bicocca  
Department of Sociology and Social Research

Prof.ssa Ota De Leonardis  
University of Milan Bicocca  
Department of Sociology and Social Research

Prof. Maurizio Ferrera  
University of Milan  
Department of Labour Studies

Cristina Freguja  
ISTAT  
Rome

Prof. Enzo Mingione  
University of Milan Bicocca  
Department of Sociology and Social Research

Prof. Nicola Negri  
University of Turin  
Department of Social Sciences

Dr. Nicola Sciclone  
Prof.ssa Alessandra Pescarolo  
IRPET (Istituto Regionale Programmazione Economica Toscana)  
Florence

Prof. Stefano Toso  
University of Bologna  
Department of Economic Science

Prof.ssa Francesca Zajczyk  
University of Milan Bicocca  
Department of Sociology and Social Research

Italian referent of the European antipoverty network:  
Letizia Cesarini Sforza  
CILAP EAPN ITALIA

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