

European Network Indicators of Social Quality - ENIQ -

“Social Quality” The Slovene National Report

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Preface

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

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

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

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

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Abstract

The report follows the Social Quality perspective and analyses the four conditional factors of Social Quality, namely, Socio-Economic Security, Social Cohesion, Social Inclusion and Empowerment. Furthermore, the analysis is made in the perspective of Slovenian transition from one political system to another, which has had in our opinion a great effect on all four defined conditional factors of Social Quality. The present situation in Slovenia is intrinsically linked to the socialist past and transition period. Another important milestone in developing Social Quality in Slovenia is accession to the European Union, which took place in May 2004. As the event has only recently occurred, it is too soon for in-depth analysis of the effects of the accession.

The report has been written in the critical style, more oriented on problems than on positive results, since one of the important aims of the National reference group is to point out what is missing and to draw the attention on issues that deserve some reflections of the policymakers.

In the chapter of Socio-Economic Security, the situation in Slovenia is described regarding the chosen domains – financial resources, housing and environment, health and care, work, and education. From the chosen indicators it could be said that Slovenian citizens face lower at-the-risk-of-poverty situation as most of other European citizens. On the other hand, Slovenians spend larger share of their income on food than inhabitants of “old” member states. There are some categories of persons, who face greater risks of not having sufficient resources over time, which is the subject matter of Socio-Economic security. Almost the whole population is included in compulsory health insurance, which is very good result. However, in the past years the scope of the medical assistance ensured by compulsory health insurance has been shrinking. So, voluntary health insurance is becoming more and more important in diminishing the medical risks of the population.

After independence, in the 1990's the relevant trends in Slovenian housing were quite negative and housing became one of the generators of risk. There is a clear trend of declining collective provision against housing risks and an increase of forms of housing, where risks are individualised. Regarding the tenure status, tenants are more at-risk-of-poverty than owners of the dwellings.

As far as the employment situation is concerned, Slovenian workers are relatively well protected by legislation. Due to the global changes, also in Slovenia the share of persons with temporary employment contract is rising and the security of employment is becoming smaller than in the past, especially in comparison with the socialist period.

Although the educational level has increased in the past decade, Slovenia is still facing the problem of unfavourable education level of its population. Compulsory education is currently being reformed, as well as the higher education (in accordance with Bologna process), with which the educational system will become more compatible with the EU system.

Social Cohesion depends on the strength of social relations, including social networks. When observing Social Cohesion in Slovenia, the historical context and several events are of great

importance. One of them is the formation of the nation state in 1991, after the plebiscite with 93,2% turnout and the second is joining the European Union in 2004. Besides that, the socialist past of living in Yugoslavia also affected norms and values, and the level of trust.

Social Cohesion in Slovenia is quite strong at the primary level – family and friends. On the other hand it is quite low, in comparison to other European Union countries, when referring to trust in people in general and institutions.

Interesting is the fact that Slovenia has one of the largest number of non-profit organisations per 1000 inhabitants in the world. On the other hand the share of people that are members of different voluntary organisations is rather low.

Regarding migrations, Slovenia is a rather closed society as many people express negative attitudes towards foreigners and persons of different religions. Yet, the shares do not stand out from average in the EU countries, only for two groups – “heavy drinkers” and “persons with criminal record”.

Slovenia scores quite high as far as the chosen indicators on solidarity are concerned. A large majority of the people would actually be prepared to do something for sick and disabled, and the elderly. Also cohesion on the local level is quite strong.

Sense of national pride is very strong among Slovenes, but also European average is very high, so Slovenia does not stand out to a greater extent from the average. Also local identity seems very strong, which is not surprising if looked on together with the data about the cohesion on the local level.

In the chapter on Social Inclusion, the level of integration of Slovenian citizens into systems, institutions, organisations and structures that constitute everyday life, is analysed. In the past decade, with the change of the political and economic system, the structure and the way of functioning of most institutions and organisations have been changed. Not only the way of integration but often also the level of integration of the citizens changed.

According to the European Commission against Racism and intolerance (ECRI), Slovenian legislation provides the basis for non-discrimination of different groups. The implementation of the existing legislation seems to be more problematic. The most concerning is the situation of the ex-Yugoslav ethnic groups, especially “the erased”. Among the three recognized minorities, Hungarian, Italian and Roma, the Roma people are in much worse position than the other two minorities.

Concerning the gender question it has to be stated that in comparison with “old” European Union countries, in Slovenia the pay gap is lower. The pay gap is still decreasing. For Slovenia, maybe more problematic is the distribution of the male and female workforce across occupations. In the sixty largest Slovenian companies there was no female top manager in 2000. Yet, according to the Eurostat data the rate of female members of the highest decision bodies in Slovenia is twice as high as the European average.

The long-term unemployment rate was slightly higher than EU average. The figures are better for the higher educated. The share of persons in temporary employment is slightly lower than EU (15 countries) average and also different forms of contractual employment are relatively low in the European context.

One of the most burning issues in Slovenia is housing. No systematically collected information about the waiting lists is available and also very low share of eligible persons, who apply for the social

housing, is successful at the public tenders. The lack of non-profit and affordable housing is one of the issues with which Slovenia (and its local communities) will have to deal with more actively.

Concerning education and Social Inclusion, one of the biggest issues relates to drop-outs from the secondary education.

Being integrated into and having developed social network is important in everyday life of citizens. In Slovenia, in the past, neighbours that had an important role in the social networks are now losing their importance. Like it is characteristic for the post-modern period, friends are becoming an increasingly important resource. The social networks are especially important for vulnerable groups, as it is the trend that more and more support services are redirected to the private domain.

The chapter on Social Empowerment is the shortest in the report and the least extensive. Primary reason for that is the lack of data concerning the chosen indicators. Also this component is the least elaborated because the use of the concept of empowerment is relatively new. The second reason is that, according to the data that was available, Slovenia cannot be placed among the countries with the most empowered people. At the moment democratic deficit in Slovenia is higher if compared to most "old" EU countries. Yet, on some domains and sub-domains, Slovenia is relatively advanced in comparison to other countries, especially in parenthood and family policy.

Media in Slovenia is still, directly or indirectly, owned by the state. Although at the first glance it does not seem so, media concentration is high (Hrvatini, Kucic, 2004). On the other side, according to the opinion polls data, media is believed to be a reliable source of information and the prevailing opinion is that media is free in Slovenia.

Adult literacy in Slovenia is relatively poor, the most problematic is the fact that Slovenian citizens don't understand and use information they get. In comparison to other countries Slovenians score rather low.

All important information in Slovenia is also available in Hungarian and Italian language, since these two are recognized minorities. On the other hand information is not available in the languages of the ex-Yugoslavian nations, which is problematic because they outnumber the recognized minorities and often they are more in need for social and other services. A lot of good work in informing citizens and non-citizens about their rights and possibilities is done by Slovene non-governmental organizations. Furthermore, highly centralised bargaining system is characteristic, with two general collective agreements and more branch and company collective agreements. The membership of the trade unions is relatively high, 60% of active population. Over 70% of organisations have defined and formalised human resource development policy and 67% of all enterprises provide trainings for their employees.

Slovenia is one of the countries with the most progressive family policy and parenthood system, which is very much linked to the fact that women in socialism were full-time employed since the WW II and because of that childcare services are well developed.

Share of budgets, with which the state supports the citizens' initiatives rose in the past years but it is still relatively low if compared to other European countries.

The last chapter offers a view on some national, regional and local initiatives on the four conditional factors (components) of Social Quality. They are focused into four groups: education, (un)employment, gender issues, Roma people. Of course, there are more initiatives, which could be placed into this chapter but the four chosen topics are also important on the European level. Education is important from the point of the new trend towards the “knowledge based society”. Employment and labour market is still one of the most important issues within the welfare state changes. Gender issue seem to be still important if taken into account all the actual differences one faces when looking closer to the wages, leisure time, possibilities of professional advancement etc. The fourth topic, Roma question, is chosen, as this group is still one of the most vulnerable groups in Europe. The chapter represents some good policy initiatives and also self-organised activities in these fields.

Altogether, the National Report offers extensive data about Slovenia as well as some current trends and issues in the Slovene society.

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1 Introduction

Social Quality is “*the extent to which citizens are able to participate in the social and economic life of their communities under conditions which enhance their well-being and individual potential*” (Beck et al., 1997, 2001). Social Quality theory consists of four components, namely, Socio-Economic Security, Social Cohesion, Social Inclusion and Empowerment. Each component has its specific subject matter and is further divided into domains, sub-domains and indicators. Slovenian National report refers to the Social Quality in Slovenia and it is based on the indicators, chosen in the iterative process of work of the European Network on Indicators of Social Quality (ENIQ) in the years 2001-2004. Data, included in the report, were not gathered specifically for the report but are collected from different sources, such as Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia, different Ministries, and from some research carried out in the past years. Where no data was found or was not received in time, legislation or current circumstances and issues are described so the reader can have at least some insight in the situation concerning the indicators.

One of the specificities of the Slovenian Report in comparison with reports of other partners in the ENIQ network results from the specific historical background of Slovenia, as one of the post-socialist countries. The present situation in Slovenia is intrinsically linked to the socialist and transition period; therefore the link is established with past historical periods where it is important for understanding the present.

During the past decade of Slovenian transition major changes occurred, which have affected the lives and security of the people. Firstly, with the change of the social system the ways of access to Socio-Economic Security have changed, namely the entitlement to different benefits and services. Secondly, also the citizens' perceptions of the role of the state in provision of their well-being have somehow changed.

Since economic prosperity is significant for Social Quality, let us start with the national economy. Slovenia, as one of the post-socialist countries, has undergone specific development in the past few decades and occupies a unique position among the central and Eastern European economies in transition (HDR, 1999). In times before transition, the Slovenian economy was relatively open and there was relative freedom of circulation of people and products across Slovenia's borders. One of the most specific Slovenian characteristic was so-called »market socialism« with a system of decentralised control, where markets were allowed to play a significant role in the allocation of resources throughout the economy. This past economic well-being has also influenced the present quite advanced economic situation. Also important will be the effects of accession in the European Union, but since this has happened only recently (May 2004), they are not yet visible.

The Social Quality of citizens is also closely linked to the welfare regime. Slovenia as once part of the socialist country had again a specific development in comparison to Western European countries as

well as other ex-socialist states. Before the transition, Slovenia (as a part of Yugoslavia) was characterised by a “local, self-managing” social policy during the 1970s (Kolaric, 1992) when the responsibility for the implementation of social programmes was transferred from the level of the republic to the communal level as well as to enterprises. The constitution of 1974 assigned many obligations to enterprises and turned the state’s attention also to the informal sector. The shift from the formal to semi-formal part of the welfare system in the 1980s at a time of economic crisis meant that the state reduced financial support for service organisations since it relocated the GNP to the industrial organisations. At the same time, however, it did not reduce the contents of the already accepted social programmes. This resulted in the rationalisation of professional activity, commercialisation of particular services, and externalisation of costs to other partners. Besides that it also resulted in the emergence of new groups of self-organised people, groups for help and self-help.

In the 1990s Slovenia entered a post-socialist period. Political and social areas after independence were marked by reforms whose beginning goes back to the mid-1980s (Rus, 1992). Rationalisation of professional activity in the public sector is still going on, however the public sector has remained the principal welfare services supplier. Commercialisation of particular services resulted in the emergence of private profit suppliers, mostly in health care. The externalisation of costs is linked with the development of a non-profit sector whose role in supplying services is growing. The state financing of this sector is becoming more stable and the contracting out is increasingly present. According to Kolaric et al. (2002) it is difficult to predict what direction the Slovenian welfare regime will follow – liberal, corporative, social-democrat, catholic; or else these trends may result in a new specific welfare regime. Recent study of Crnak-Meglic (2004) shows that Slovenia is moving towards, what Korpi and Palme (2004) calls *encompassing model* of welfare state. It means that the basis of entitlement is citizenship and labour force participation and that the benefit principle is flat rate and earnings-related (Korpi, Palme, 2004: 158).

All these changes have a strong impact on the circumstances of the daily lives of citizens, on new social risks and life chances, as well as on the way these issues are articulated in policy making. Especially important is the new feeling of insecurity, in the unpredictable (post)modern environment. The risks are very individualised, which increases the difficulty in coping with them. However, the most important risks are still poverty, homelessness and unemployment. Different risks as well as the way Slovenian society face them will be further elaborated within four chapters concerning each conditional factor of Social Quality. The First Chapter represents Slovenian situation considering the Socio-Economic Security, in the second chapter the state of affairs of Social Cohesion in Slovenia is shown, the third chapter deals with Social Inclusion in Slovenia and the fourth chapter offers a view on Empowerment. In the fifth chapter, some initiatives, which are relevant for Social Quality, are presented.

2 Socio-economic Security

2.1 Introduction

Socio-Economic Security within the Social Quality theory is defined as “*the degree to which people have sufficient resources over time*” (Keizer et al., 2004: 6). This means that an individual has enough resources to avoid risks over time, not only at one moment. Socio-Economic Security is understood as having three dimensions: 1. The social dimension, which encompasses organizations and institutions that provide security, 2. It is a condition (a state); it is not a process, and 3. It is social – in the sense that it refers to public responsibility for the social and economic security of the individual.

Table 1 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

2.2 Financial resources

2.2.1 Income sufficiency

In the year 2001 the structure of allocated assets is 90% on consumption expenditure, and 10% on other expenditure (not part of consumption expenditure, for example expenditure for a dwelling, house - purchase of a dwelling, major works and renovations). At that (among the consumption expenditures) food and non-alcoholic beverages represented in average 17,8% of allocated assets, clothing 6,2% and footwear 1,8%, housing, water electricity, gas and other fuels represented 10,5%, furnishings, household equipment and routine maintenance of the household represented 6,7%, transport 15,2%, recreation and culture 8,9% and health 1,7%. Miscellaneous goods and services (like personal care, personal goods, social protection services, insurance and financial services) represented 9,8%. Educational services represented only a small share (0,9%), communication a slightly higher share (3,4%), and also share of expenditure on hotels, restaurants and cafes is not negligible (5,2%).

The primary expenses (food and non-alcoholic beverages, clothing, footwear and housing expenses) represent a major part of consumption expenditure structure, namely 36,3%. Also among other expenditure (not part of consumption expenditure), 7% of all allocated assets represent expenditure for a dwelling or house (purchase of a dwelling, major works and renovations). This indicates, that a majority of resources is directed to primary needs, while leaving less resource for the improvement of the level of living and quality of life (like leisure activities and similar). If we compare the share of food consumption expenditure by households and GDP per capita, it is clear that people in Slovenia spend larger share of income on food than inhabitants in the "old" EU member states (HDR 2002/2003). In 2001 the average Slovenian household spent app. 25% on food, while the average for EU members was 17%. On the other hand the average share in the candidate countries was 40% (HDR 2002/2003).

Table 2 Household expenditure (in %)

Consumption expenditure	90,0
Food	16,0
Non-alcoholic beverages	1,8
Alcoholic beverages	0,9
Tobacco	0,9
Clothing	6,2
Footwear	1,8
<i>Housing, water, electricity, gas and other fuels</i>	<i>10,5</i>
Actual rentals for housing	0,7
Regular maintenance and repair of the dwelling	1,1
Other services relating to dwelling	1,9
Electricity	2,8
Gas	0,6
Liquid fuels	2,3
Solid fuels	0,3
Hot water and distant heating	0,8
Furnishings, household equipment and routine maintenance of the household	6,7
Health	1,7
<i>Transport</i>	<i>15,2</i>
Purchase of vehicles	6,1
Operation of personal transport equipment	8,1
Transport services	1,0
Communications	3,4
Recreation and culture	8,9
Educational services	0,9
Hotels, cafes and restaurants	5,2
<i>Miscellaneous goods and services</i>	<i>9,8</i>
Personal care	2,7
Personal goods	0,6
Social protection services	0,1
Insurance	5,5
Financial services	0,2
Other services	0,8
Other expenditure which are not part of consumption expenditure	10,0
Expenditure for a dwelling, house (purchase of a dwelling, major works and renovations)	7,0
Other expenditure	3,0
Allocated assets	100

Source: SORS: Data of the 2000-2002 Household Budget Survey are calculated to the middle year (2001), which is used as the reference year.

2.2.2 Income security

When talking about the risk of poverty we will adopt the definitions of Laeken indicators, where the at risk of poverty rate is defined as “the share of people that live in households with net income below the poverty line, set at 60% of median equivalent net household income”. At risk of poverty rate is therefore in Slovenia 12,9% (income in cash) or 11,2% (income in cash and in kind) in the year 2000. This is lower than in most EU countries and below the EU average (which was 15% in the year 2000). In the next part we will describe only at risk of poverty rate regarding income in cash (without income in kind).

There are differences in the shares between men and women, namely at risk of poverty among men the share is 12,4%, while for women it is slightly higher (13,4%). It seems that more than gender differences; age is a significant factor of being at risk of poverty in Slovenia. At the risk of poverty among all age groups, except the older (65 years and above), the averages of shares at the risk of poverty are lower than the national average. In the last age group (65 and over) the share is significantly higher, as at the risk of poverty there is 23,1% of this population. At that, women are even more vulnerable, as share among older women is 26%, while among men 18%. Older women are therefore most vulnerable group according to this indicator. Only in one other group the share is higher than the national average, and that are young adult men (aged 16-24), where the share of those below the poverty threshold is 13,5%.

Age and gender are therefore important factors that affect the risk of poverty. We will look also at other factors, such as employment and household type and tenure status. These all manifest important biographical events, which also affect the risk of poverty.

The most vulnerable group, concerning the employment status, are of course the unemployed (39,9% at risk of poverty), followed by self-employed (18,7% at risk of poverty), other economically inactive (23,1%) and retired (15,4%). In three groups (an exception is the group of unemployed) women are more vulnerable than men.

According to household type, the highest shares of population at risk of poverty belong to one person households (32,3%). At that, especially vulnerable are one person households, aged 65 or more (37,2%), and one person households, female (35,1%), compared to one person household, male (25,7%), and one person household, aged between 30 and 64 (25,2%). Single households therefore are in general the most vulnerable group. Also high share at risk of poverty have two persons household, no dependent children, where at least one adult has 65 years or more (21,6%), and also two adults household with three or more dependent children (19%). Also, high share of people below poverty threshold are among single parent household with one or more dependent children (17,3%).

There are also significant differences according to tenure status. Among tenants the share below poverty threshold is 16,3%, while among owners or those rent free the share is 12,7%.

According to this data we can see that there are several specific groups that are more vulnerable, and to them special policy instruments should be and also in some specific cases are directed.

According to the Eurostat (2000) data, the risk of poverty rate in 2000 was 17% before the social transfers, and 11% after the social transfers (excluding pensions). This share is quite constant in the last years, as in 1999 it was 18%, in 1998 and 1997 17% and 1996 16% (before social transfers). Also the shares of at-risk-of-poverty after the social transfers holds constant; in 1999 it was 11%, in 1998 12%, in 1996 and 1997 again 11%.

As already mentioned above, women are slightly more at risk of poverty. In 2000 the share of women at risk of poverty before social transfers was 18%, while men it was 17%. The differences even increases after social transfers, as the share of women below poverty threshold was 12%, while among men it was 10%. Similar difference can be seen in the year 1999, when the share of women below poverty threshold (before social transfers) was 19%, while men 17%, and also after the social transfers among the women the share stayed higher (12% vs. 11% among men).

In general we could say, that Slovenia has, compared to other countries, lower shares of those at risk of poverty (according to Eurostat 2000¹). The shares of at risk of poverty before and after social transfers are lower than in several European countries (in Slovenia 17 and 11%, while EU-15 average was 23 and 15%).

2.3 Housing and environment

2.3.1 Housing security

Housing is one of the most important aspects of Socio-Economic Security of the individual. There is no data measuring the proportion of hidden families, i.e. number of families that do involuntarily live together due to different reasons (not having a dwelling or similar). In some cases hidden families can be found also among more households that live in one dwelling, which can be in various surveys counted as one family. The share of such households is 2,4% in Slovenia. This is not a high share, but it has to be kept in mind that the share of hidden families is higher.

Table 3 Number of households in one dwelling

	Number of households in a dwelling		
	1	2	3+
Total			
661.509	645.485	15.010	1.014
100%	97,6%	2,3%	0,1%

Source: SORS, Population Census 2002.

¹ 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

Another problem of Slovenian society, which is also connected with the involuntary cohabitation, is very long period in which young adults live with their parents. One of the reasons for that is the lack of affordable housing, however some researchers believe that this could also be a consequence of cultural characteristics.

2.3.2 Housing conditions

Slovenian national statistical office does not use the measure m² per member, but similar measures that also indicate the quality of living. The average number of rooms per household is in Slovenia 2.78, while the average number of persons per room is 1,03.

Table 4 Size of dwellings and number of persons in household

Average size of dwelling (m ²)	76,8
Average number of persons in household	2,9

Source: SORS, Population Census 2002.

The share of households that would lack one of the basic amenities (like bathroom or flush toilet) is not high, around 5%.

Table 5 Basic amenities

	All households
Bathroom	
Yes	94,8%
No	5,2%
Flush toilet	
Yes	95,2%
No	4,8%

Source: SORS, Population Census 2002.

There are higher shares when we observe the lack of basic amenities (like water supply system, electricity and bathroom) according to dwellings and not households. Almost 20% of dwellings do not have a bathroom. However, also second homes and empty dwellings are included in this number. Less than 3% do not have a water supply system and less than 1% are not equipped with electricity. This shows a quite high standard of equipment with basic amenities. The data is unfortunately not comparable with the EU data on the share of households with the lack of at basic amenities (the EU average is 21%). Still it could be concluded on the basis of this data that Slovenia is probably not above average in comparison.

Table 6 Dwelling stock, dwellings by equipment

Equipment of dwellings	number of dwellings	% of total number of dwellings (718.000)
Central heating	471.898	65,70%
Water supply system	701.680	97,60%
Electricity	715.596	99,60%
Bathroom	633.092	88,10%

Source: SORS. Dwelling stock, dwellings by equipment, 31.12.2001.

2.3.3 Environmental conditions (social and natural)

In Slovenia, the share of people affected by criminal offences is estimated. According to the national estimates, 18,4% of people experienced at least one victimization (excluding consumer fraud or corruption) in the year 2000. (SORS, Yearbook 2003). The share in the capital Ljubljana is a lot higher, 32%, which indicates higher crime rate in larger urban areas.

The most common types of crime are car vandalism (with 6% share of victims and their households) and theft from cars (3,9%). Again the shares are higher in Ljubljana, where theft from cars was experienced by 9,4%, car vandalism (10,1%) and theft of bicycles (6,2%). A small part of population also suffered from burglary (1,2%), robbery (1,3%), personal theft (2,3%), assaults/threats (3%) and sexual offence (only women) (1,8%). Again the shares are higher in Ljubljana: burglary (3,5%), robbery (1,9%), personal theft (4,1%), assaults/threats (5,1%) and sexual offences (only women) (2,6%). Also common are consumer fraud (9,7% for Slovenia, 10,2% for Ljubljana) and corruption (2,1% for Slovenia, 1,9% for Ljubljana).

As these are national data we do not have comparable international data that would put them into perspective. We can say that in the capital (Ljubljana) the crime rate is higher than average in Slovenia, which is not surprising as it is the capital and largest city in Slovenia. There are high rates of car theft and vandalism. Among other criminal offences also consumer fraud stands out.

The pollution rate is higher near the larger polluters like power stations (TE Sostanj, TE Trbovlje, TE Brestanica), where also air pollution is regularly measured. The measuring of sulphur dioxide has the longest tradition in Slovenia. In the 70s the concentrations were so high that the health of people was endangered. In the last years the concentrations are significantly lower, but they still often surpass the marginal values in the areas surrounding power plants Trbovlje and Sostanj. People in these areas have consequently lower quality of life. Other substances rarely surpass the marginal measures (except maybe ozone).

Furthermore, the quality of water is also regularly observed. In the year 2000 almost 155 000 (7,8%) of citizens of the Republic of Slovenia have not yet had secured drinking water from the public supply system. Majority of them was connected to the local public water supply systems, which provide

around 100 people and are not under regular surveillance. In recent times there have been some issues about pollution of drinkable water by illegal dumping of poisonous substances. In addition, there were cases of improper use of pesticides on the crops which had negative impact on the other animals (bees have died in large numbers). All this shows that some people still do not have a high awareness of the consequences of their action and their impact on the eco-system.

Noise can also be a form of pollution and can affect the quality of life. There are unfortunately no data on the share of people that suffer from the noise in the surroundings. Probably more affected are people that live in urban areas, as one of the most important sources of noise is traffic. Also other forms of noise can be disturbing (like noise from neighbours and similar). According to some estimation, approximately 6% of people suffer from this kind of noise.

In Ljubljana a recent study has shown, that the city centre is above average burdened with noise. Again the most important noise polluter was traffic. In Slovenia there are 579 km of traffic roads that go through densely populated areas and are overburdened with noise. The number of buildings that suffer this noise burden is 10 526².

Some data on pollution and disturbances for Ljubljana was gathered in 2004 as part of international research project (Re-Urban Mobil). Among the disturbances occurring ("constantly or often") in the residential environment the respondents most frequently referred to street pollution (53%), traffic noise (49%) and smells and emissions (43%). Other quite disturbing factors mentioned as occurring either constantly or frequently were noise disturbance caused by passer-bys (32%) and noise caused by restaurants and clubs (26%). This research shows that mainly street pollution, traffic noise and smells and emissions are problematic in urban areas, which is not surprising. We could presume that these are also problematic issues in other urban areas.

2.4 Health and care

2.4.1 Security of health provisions

The proportion of people covered by a compulsory health insurance is 98,6%. This is a high share, which indicates that basic health care resources are available to almost all. But the scope of medical assistance ensured by compulsory health insurance has been shrinking in the past years, which means that for high quality of medical care more and more important is becoming additional voluntary health insurance. According to the survey data (SJM 1999/2) 78% of respondents also had voluntary health insurance.

² Source: http://www.arso.gov.si/poro~cila/Poro~cila_o_stanju_okolja_v_Sloveniji/.

2.4.2 Health services

In 2001 there were 46,3 physicians – general practitioners (doctors working in hospitals and non-hospital health service) per 100 000 inhabitants. There were 156,4 physicians – specialists per 100 000 inhabitants, 59,1 dentists per 100 000 inhabitants and 38,3 pharmacists per 100 000 inhabitants. The number of dentists, pharmacists and physicians – specialists has been slowly rising from 1990 to 2001³. For the physicians – general practitioners the methodology has changed, so the numbers are not comparable⁴ (Source: SORS, Slovenia in figures 2003).

Insufficient number of doctors and, linked to that, long waiting hours (for different surgeries, for example) are a pressing issue in Slovenia. One of the appropriate indicators to measure Social Quality in the area of Socio-Economic Security in Slovenia could also be waiting time for different surgeries.

The share of people that have access to a hospital in less than 20 minutes in Slovenia is 37,9%. According to Human Development report 2002/2003 (HDR, 2002/2003), there are altogether 26 hospitals in Slovenia. As Slovenia is a very small country, it is expected that most people live close to a hospital. But this does not mean a greater availability of these services (due to, for example, long waiting lists). There is a large difference according to income. Among those in lowest income quartile 30,5% live close to the hospital, while among the highest quartile 46,2% live in this proximity (less than 20 minutes).

In general the share of those that have less than 20 minutes to hospital is rather low, compared to other European countries (for example in Netherlands the share is 72%). This might be due to the lower number of hospitals concentrated in big cities, and the mountainous Slovene area, which leaves several people in quite considerable distance from nearest hospital. But this issue is still open for interpretation.

Higher is the share of people that live in close proximity (less than 20 minutes) to general practitioner's surgery, namely 80%. Here the difference between the lowest income quartile and the highest is not so large (76, 2% vs. 84,2%), but still significant and shows the advantage of the wealthier population. This share is comparable to those in other European countries, although several of them have even higher shares (Sweden, Denmark and the Netherlands have the shares over 90%) (Source: Eurobarometer).

2.4.3 Care services

There is no data on hours spent on care but some Eurostat data (1998-2002) on time spent on volunteering and help can also be helpful. Women spent 2% of their free time on volunteering and

³ Number of dentists from 56,4 in 1990, number of pharmacists from 32,6 in 1990 and number of physicians – specialists from 125,6 in 1990).

⁴ There were 72,4 general practitioners per 100 000 inhabitants in 1990.

help, while men spent 3% of their free time for these activities. This share is slightly lower than in other European countries (for example France 6% women, 6% men and, UK 5% women, 3% men). At that women have 3 hours 51 minutes of free time a day, while men have 4 hours 52 minutes. Time spent on domestic work (where care for family members might be included) is 4 hours 24 minutes for women and 2 hours 24 minutes for men. The time spent for domestic work is higher than in all others chosen countries (Belgium, Germany, Estonia, France, Hungary, Finland, Sweden, United Kingdom and Norway).

2.5 Work

2.5.1 Employment security

A change of employment contract or conclusion of a new employment contract can be proposed by any contracting party. A contract can be changed and/or a new contract is valid if the other party agrees.

When the employer terminates the employment contract and simultaneously offers the worker to conclude a new employment contract, the provisions of the Act relating to the ordinary termination of the employment contract are applied (see below). The worker must express his views about the conclusion of the new employment contract within 30 days as of the receipt of the written offer. If the worker in the cases referred to accepts the offer by the employer for the appropriate employment for an indefinite period of time, he should not be entitled to claim the severance pay, but retains the right to challenge in court that the reasons for termination are not substantiated. The appropriate employment is the one for which the type and the level of education are requested which are the same as for the performance of work at the previous post for which the worker's employment contract was concluded. In the case of unsuitability of the new employment, the worker is entitled to a proportionate share of severance pay in the amount agreed with the employer.

The termination of labour contract is highly regulated and the legislation in this field offers the worker protection from one-sided termination from the part of the employer. The employment contract can be terminated: upon the expiration of the period for which it was concluded, upon the death of the worker or the employer-natural person, with a consensual cancellation, with an ordinary or extraordinary termination, by a court judgement, by law, in the cases stipulated by the Employment relationships Act, in other cases stipulated by law.

If the employment contract is terminated by the worker, the period of notice is 30 days. The employment contract or the collective agreement may provide for a longer period of notice, but it may not exceed 150 days. If the employment contract is terminated by the employer due to business reasons, the minimum period of notice is 30 days to 150 days (depending on the worker's period of service). If the employment contract is terminated by the employer due to reasons of incapacity, the minimum period of notice is 30 to 120 days (depending on the worker's period of service).

If the employment contract is terminated by the employer due to faults on the side of the worker, the minimum period of notice is 30 days. The employer and the worker may agree about compensation instead of the period of notice. This must be in writing.

The worker may within eight days after having previously reminded the employer of the fulfilment of obligations and informed the labour inspector about the violations in writing, extraordinarily terminate the employment contract (there are some conditions that additionally must be fulfilled, like for example employer's failing to pay the wage or failing to ensure secure and health conditions at the workplace, etc.).

There are also special conditions if the employer terminates contracts to a large number of workers at once, which has also an important role in ensuring Socio-Economic Security in specific regions (where large number of workers are employed in one company and their dismissal could cause severe problems in the region). In the case where the employer terminates the employment contracts to a larger number of redundant workers, he must take into account the dismissal programme for redundant workers, and must follow the expiration of 30 days as from the fulfilment of the following obligation: the employer must inform the Employment Service in writing about the procedure of establishing the redundancies of a larger number of workers, about the performed consultation pursuant to the previous article, about the reasons for the redundancies, about the number and categories of all employed workers, about the foreseen categories of redundant workers and about the foreseen term in which the need for the work will cease.

In Slovenia in 2002 14,7% of employees had a contract with a limited duration (temporary job contracts), which is slightly higher share than in 2001, when it was 13,3. The larger share of temporary job contracts is among females than among males. In 2002 16,7% of women employees had a contract of limited duration, and 12,9% of males. This indicates a discrepancy between men and women, where women tend to be more often in the more vulnerable, insecure employment. Nevertheless, the share of workers with temporary work contract is in the EU 15 average (13,1% in 2002), which indicates that we do not stand out in this feature and that still a large majority of workforce has a rather secure working environment (Eurostat, 1999-2002).

In the period from 1.7. 2001 to 31. 12. 2002 the Commission of the government of the Republic of Slovenia for the discovery and prevention of illegal working and illegal employment discovered that in 16,8% of examined cases illegal work was performed and in 15,5% of cases illegal employment was carried out. In comparison to the average (from 1997 to 2002) the illegal work has dropped for 5,5%, and the illegal employment has risen for 2,40%. In the period from 1997 – 2002 the Commission has discovered that in 22,4% of examined cases illegal work was performed, 13,10% of cases were counted under illegal employment⁵.

⁵ Work is wider term than employment as it incorporates many forms of activities. Employed person always has to have a contract, whereas for instance family worker does not.

The illegal work in Slovenia is prevalent in sectors such as building construction, seasonal work (like picking fruit). The latest data from the European Commission states that the share of GDP created by illegal work was in Slovenia in 2003 17%. This places Slovenia among the countries with the highest share (of GDP) by illegal work, such as Lithuania, Latvia, Greece, and far above some other European nations (United Kingdom – 2%, Sweden – 3%)⁶.

2.5.2 Working conditions

According to Labour Force survey (2003, the data refer to the second quarter) 3,9% of active labour force has reduced work time due to parental leave, illness, injuries, temporary incapability for work and due to family or personal reasons.

This is a rather low number that might indicate a smaller possibility for actually reducing working time (low flexibility of employers, fear of eventually becoming redundant, incapability of managing household with only a part of full income).

In Slovenia the number of serious accidents at work has been quite constant, and has even dropped in the last few years. The same is true for the number of fatal accidents, but from the year 2000 to the year 2001 an increase in number can be noticed. In the year 2002 according to national statistical data, the number of work related injuries was 25792, and the number of casualties 32. The number of casualties/fatal accidents is therefore 0,4 per 1000 persons in paid employment.

The work related injuries are much more common among men than women. Among men there were 43,4 per 1000 employed men, while there were 19,5 work related injuries per 1000 employed women. Unfortunately, we do not have the data on casualties by gender.

When observing the casualties by sector of activity, we can see that the highest number of casualties per 1000 persons in paid employment is by far in manufacture of basic metals (4,7). Also high number have land transport, pipeline transport (2), manufacture of wood and wood products (1,6), manufacture of medical and precision instruments (1,3), construction (1,1), manufacture of other non-metal and mineral products (1) and agriculture, hunting and services (1).

The highest number of work related injuries per 1000 employed men are in the mining of uranium and thorium ores (205,1), forestry, logging and services (91,9) and manufactory of other transport equipment (80,4). The sectors with the number of work related injuries higher than 70 per 1000 employed men are also: mining of coal and lignite, extract of peat, manufacturing of other non-metal and mineral products and recycling. On the other hand the highest number of work related injuries per 1000 employed women is again mining of uranium and thorium ores (400) – which is probably also partly due to a very small number of women performing this job. The high number of injuries have

⁶ Source: Delo, 6.7.2004. Years referred range from 1997-2003.

manufacture of other non-metal, mineral products (56,4), manufacturing of other transport equipment (64,5), manufacture of food; beverages and tobacco (35,3), manufacture of pulp, paper and paper products (38,8), manufacture of machinery and equipment (30) (Statistical Yearbook, 2003).

In Slovenia in 2003 the average number of hours that a full time employee typically works a week was 42,6. The number of hours has been slightly dropping from the 1998, when it was 43,9. This places Slovenia among the countries with the longest working week (along with Greece and Great Britain, for example).

The average number of hours that a part time employee typically works a week was 19,2. When compared to the past years there is no visible trend. Compared to the year 2002 the number has increased slightly (18,9), but compared to the year 1996 for example, it has dropped slightly (20,3). This indicates that the number has stabilised around 19. The average number of hours for part time employees is around the EU average, which places Slovenia in the middle, comparable to countries such as Denmark, the Netherlands or Portugal.

2.6 Education

2.6.1 Security of education

In a process of instant fast changes of the society, also the demands of employment market are becoming different, more focused on knowledge. One out of the most important goals of appropriate and quality educational offer, both for youth and adults, is proper employment, which should be the result of continuous education and learning.

Slovenia is still facing the problem of unfavourable education of its population, although the educational level has increased in the last ten years. According to the last count of the population, in 2002, there were around 33% of persons, aged over 15, having finished a primary school or less (in the year 1991 the percentage was around 48%), more than a half of them were older than 50. We are not going to discuss reasons for such a situation here, but only present some facts and its impact on employment and consecutive quality of life, since the quality of education is regarded as a function of the capacity to find employment.

Table 7 Population aged 15 years or over by educational attainment and sex

Educational attainment	1991 ¹⁾			2002		
	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women
Actual number	1.514.722	718.867	795.855	1.663.869	804.286	859.583
Proportions (%)						
No education	0,7	0,5	0,8	0,7	0,5	0,8
Incomplete basic	16,7	15,5	17,9	6,3	5,3	7,2
Basic	29,8	23,6	35,4	26,1	21,1	30,8
Upper secondary	43,1	49,9	36,9	54,1	60,6	47,9
Short-term tertiary	4,6	4,2	4,9	5,1	4,5	5,6
Higher	4,3	5,4	3,3	7,9	8,1	7,7
Unknown	0,9	0,9	0,8	-	-	-
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

1) Data recalculated according to the 2002 Census methodology.

Source: SORS, Population Census, 2002.

When observing educational attainment of population by age group, we can see that in 2002 14% of those aged 25-34 had low educational attainment, 67% medium and 19% high. Comparing this to the population group aged 25-64, where the share with low educational attainment is 23%, we can see that the share of those with low educational attainment is significantly lower among the younger group.

Here it might be interesting to note also the data on the quality of education, through the indicator of the number of students per teacher. The ration for Slovenia in 2000/01 was 13 (for the ISCED⁷ level 1). This places Slovenia among the countries with the lowest number of pupils per teacher, along with Italy (11), Hungary (11), Luxemburg (11) and Sweden (12) (Eurostat).

Furthermore, the percentage of pupils repeating primary education (ISCED level 1) was in 2000/01 0,8%, and for ISCED level 2 1,4%. (These two levels together compose the compulsory, primary education in Slovenia).

Drop out rate of pupils from the 1st year to the 8th year of primary school was in the school year 2000/2001 4,43%. The share has been dropping constantly (in 1994/1995 it was 10,37%)⁸.

One of the present discussions concerning education relates, more than to primary school drop-outs, to drop-outs from secondary education, especially from vocational and technical education. In the late 1990s almost 6000 young persons entered the labour market without any qualifications, i.e. 20.4% of all enrolled in vocational and professional programmes in the five year monitoring period from 1991 to

⁷ ISCED is an international standard classification of education. Level 1 is the first level of primary education and lasts around 5 years. Level 2 is the second part of primary (obligatory education).

⁸ Implementing the Social Inclusion strategy with report on the realisation of the programme of the fight against poverty and social exclusion, 2002. Ljubljana: Government of the RS, Ministry of labour, family and social affairs.

1996. The enrolment in the part-time adult education programmes covers only a part of the drop-outs from the regular education. A great many of the drop-outs remain without qualifications. It is needless to add that this increases different risks for them.

In Slovenia the study fees are not a relevant indicator, as primary, secondary and high education are provided by the government and therefore there are no study fees. But there is a current debate that study fees should be introduced at the high education level (at universities), which has met a strong resistance from the part of the students. In addition, there are very high fees for part time students (a large part of these students are not those already employed, but those that have not reached the acceptance level at the preferred faculty and were therefore not able to become regular students which is the reason they decide to study part time). The post-graduate programmes are not for free but on the contrary, have very high study fees. But some of the programmes are funded by the government, which lowers the costs of the study fee for individual participants.

Although there are not study fees for high education institutions, the studying can represent a financial burden for individual households. All study material (books, etc.) must be provided by students themselves. In addition, for those not living near university areas, the living costs (renting an apartment for example) are significant. This is an especially great problem due to a big shortage of student dormitories.

In the case of part-time students, either they pay a fee on their own or it is paid by their employers. If the part-time course is co-financed by public funds, for example, part-time courses for teachers, the fee is correspondingly lower. Students may be eligible for a state scholarship provided that candidates are citizens of the Republic of Slovenia or Slovenes without Slovene citizenship, and that they satisfy the financial criteria on their enrolment in the first year of higher education and are not older than 26. The right to such state scholarships may be exercised by students participating in state-approved educational programmes if they apply for the invitation for the expression of interests published by the Employment Service of the Republic of Slovenia. Budget appropriations are also used to subsidise meals to all full-time students, which are not employed⁹.

Pursuant to the Act and the Rules on Scholarships, the granting of scholarships is a composite part of the Employment Service of Slovenia (ESS) activities. The single scholarship system has been developed in Slovenia for over 30 years. The Slovene scholarship system now encompasses: Company scholarships announced and granted by organisations and employers in line with their staff requirements;

Company scholarships are granted by organisations and employers in line with their staff requirements with the intention of ensuring suitably trained staff within a certain period of time. The company scholarships policy is completely left for them to determine, with the Act only regulating the minimum scholarship amount, which for secondary school students may not be less than 20%, and for university students not less than 30%, of the guaranteed wage, minus tax and contributions. Judging

⁹ Ministry of Education, Science and Sport. Accessible on: <http://www.mszs.si/eng/education/system>.

from the levels for which scholarships were offered, employers show greatest interest in staff taking higher or university courses, followed by students in secondary vocational programmes and technical and other professional education programmes. According to figures supplied by the Statistical Office, in the 2002/03 academic year a total of 7,000 students were receiving company scholarships (source: Statistical Information, February 2004).

National scholarships for apprentices, secondary school pupils and university students who would otherwise be unable to study for financial reasons;

The main objective of national scholarships is to improve the educational structure of low-income groups who would otherwise be unable to achieve adequate education, and thus to enhance their employability. National scholarships are classified as social benefits whose aim is to provide educational opportunities for children from low-income families. Scholarships thus contribute to the long-term reduction of poverty and social exclusion among children from low-income families, and thus help to break the vicious circle of poverty. Figures for December 2003 shows that in the 2003/04 academic year the ESS disbursed national scholarships to 28,763 secondary school pupils (477 of whom were apprentices in the dual system of vocational training) and 12,225 to university students, of whom 902 were part-time students.

Zois scholarships for highly gifted students that are intended to raise the education level of the most talented young people.

The aim of Zois scholarships is to encourage the most talented young people to opt for more demanding or longer studies, in line with their interests and the needs of the society for highly qualified professionals. Applications may be submitted by children in their last year of primary school, apprentices, secondary-school pupils, higher and high school students, and university students. At the end of December 2003 the total number of scholarship recipients was 12,962, of whom 6,247 were secondary school pupils and 6,715 undergraduate and postgraduate students (at the end of December 2002 there were 12,845 Zois scholarship recipients, of whom 6,335 were secondary school pupils and 6,510 university students).

Also, all students receive subsidies for meals, which is one of the important forms of state help to students.

2.7 Trends and Reflection

As it can be interpreted from the indicators described above, each area or domain of Socio-Economic Security has specific characteristics, problematic and trends. We will try to refer to them in this closing section.

In the post-modern societies the sphere of employment is one of those spheres that have gone through substantial changes. It is labelled by terms such as: "the crisis of employment society" or "the shift from the system of standardized full employment towards the system of flexible-plural underemployment". From this shift new risks arise which can no longer be controlled through the

employment-based system of social security (employment is losing its central role in the provision of social security). The substantial change in the sphere of employment in Slovenia can be designated as the shift from standardised long-term employment towards the pluralism of non-standardised short-term employment. Those forms of employment include especially young people entering the labour market after finishing their education. Also women can be defined as a more vulnerable group (according to the larger share in temporary employment). The level of financial (income) and social security of those involved in these employment arrangements is much lower than the level of income and social security of those included in the long-term employment arrangements. The new law, which regulates the sphere of employment, restricts the employers in concluding short-term employment arrangements, which means that it should contribute to more secure employment arrangements especially for the young people entering the labour market. Work-based training is a right included mainly in the long-term employment arrangements and its significance is increasing for both employees and employers. The responsibility for safety at work (work injuries) is explicitly transferred to employers (the employer is obliged to provide additional health insurance for workers at high risk of work injury). The income is mainly based on employment and is certainly one of the bases for Socio-Economic Security. The share of that at-the-risk-of-poverty is 12,9%, which is in the European average. But still some groups are far more vulnerable than others, and special care in policy instruments should be dedicated to them. These groups are single older people (especially women) and the larger households (with three or more dependent children) and the unemployed. Special care should be given to the older population, as their number is constantly growing, and with that possibly also the number of vulnerable older people.

Also in the domain of health there are new trends to be observed. According to the WHO definition, health is "a state of complete physical, mental, and social well-being not merely the absence of disease." To influence one's health condition, public health policy should support preventive measures. In the year 2002 an important shift was made between preventive and curative activities done by general practitioners, supported by a change in the financing of preventive activities. An active approach toward endangered individuals (interviews, counselling, workshops, preventive measures) will in the long run ensure better health for a greater part of the population. In addition, the Ministry of Health has prepared a Law on the consumption of alcohol aiming to reduce the use of alcohol among the youth and to lower the percentage of persons addicted to alcohol. Whether the result will be in line with expectations has yet to be seen. The law itself, without proper implementation, will not change people's habits. The most important issue concerning the domain of health in the year 2002, interlinked with Social Quality in the domain of health, was the organisation of health care services and the operating time of doctors. By these measures the Ministry of Health has planned to improve access to the services and ensure a better use of operating time and equipment. Although according to some indicators (for example proximity to hospitals) Slovenian health care system in a positive light, but there are some important issues that have to be mentioned. At the moment there is a serious public debate on how much of the hospital equipment is in dire need of repair and modernization, and the quality of medical care is seriously endangered due to these deficiencies. There are also problems with the shortage of medical stuff and places in hospitals. To

these very long waiting periods (for examinations, surgeries and similar) are linked, which seriously lower the quality of health care (where early treatment is usually of extreme importance). All this issues will have to be addressed soon also by political actors.

The domain of housing affects people's life chances and social risks in many ways and during 1990's the relevant trends in Slovenian housing were quite negative and housing became one of the generators of risk. As well as in other countries in transition, housing was in strong recession (very low investments, scarce new construction and new lettings, high cost). The accessible and affordable housing stock did not manage to support the new household formation; this was one of the reasons for a dramatic increase in incidence of staying in parental home during transition. According to a research findings, the percentage of youth aged 25 to 34, that lived in their parents home, has increased from 30% in 1984 to 41% in 1994 (Mandic, 2001). Unable to begin their housing career, young adults tend to remain longer with their family, which can partly be interpreted as a 'hidden form of homelessness'. The access to housing became more difficult also for the vulnerable groups with lesser means to compete in the housing market, single mothers among them. During 1990's, due to drastic privatisation, the percentage of public rentals decreased from 32% to 9%; also new housing insecurities emerged in partly de-regulated rented sector, such as threats of legal and illegal evictions and housing market frauds (Mandic, 2000) and this decrease was among the steepest among the transitional countries. Also the new lettings in social housing became very rare; in Ljubljana housing needs of only 7% of the eligible claimants are yearly met (Cernic Mali, Kreitmayer, 1999). To conclude, there is a clear trend of a declining collective provision against housing risks (social or non-profit rented housing) and an increase of forms of housing, where risks are individualised (home ownership). Also, new generators and forms of housing risks such as homelessness, evictions and repossessions are emerging, while new social provisions to cope with these risks are only slowly developing, such as shelters for homeless, supported housing, safe housing, consumer protection against housing market frauds etc.

There are significant changes in the educational system. Compulsory education is currently being reformed. The reform is expected to be fully implemented in near future. In the past years it started at the age of 7 and lasted for 8 years. With the reform, the duration of the primary education will be prolonged by one year and will thus last 9 years. However it will start at the age of 6, so the pupils will be of the same age as now (15) when they finish the compulsory education. As far as gender issues are concerned, the male and female pupils are granted equal possibilities to enrol in any programme, but there are no quotas or similar measures to ensure relatively equal gender distribution through the different educational programmes. In fact the gender structure of the pupils enrolled in the different vocational programmes is rather traditional: mainly male pupils in male dominated occupations and female pupils in usually female dominated occupations.

Considering the equal opportunities of the minorities in the areas with Italian and Hungarian minorities, besides the Slovene language, the Italian and the Hungarian languages are also used in schools. With the wars in the Balkans in the 1990s Slovenia was faced with the phenomenon of refugees who came

from other parts of ex-Yugoslavia. Many of them were children and young people. The Ministry of Education and Sport has developed some projects of education but faces problems due to lack of available posts and also of financial resources. In the secondary schools those pupils have the status of “occasional students”.

Currently also the reform of higher education is taking place (the so called Bologna process), with which our high educational system will become comparable with the EU system. The current 5 years schooling process to reach the diploma will be shortened to either 3 or 4 years, with an additional 2 or 1 year of postgraduate programme. This will also have some significant influences in the area of education. It will open the programmes to the students from abroad and also enable larger mobility between different programmes and universities.

3 Social Cohesion

3.1 Introduction

According to Berman and Phillips (2004: 21) Social Cohesion depends on the strength of social relations (including social networks) and is a function of the integration between integrative norms and values (including trust) [and identities] in society. When observing Social Cohesion in Slovenia the historical context and several events are of importance. When the cohesion is understood in the sense of solidarity as the basis of collective identity, in Slovenia the issue that comes to mind is the formation of the nation state, in 1991. For this act sense of solidarity and collective identity had to be felt and presented on the plebiscite (December 23. 1990). 93,2% of persons with the right to vote participated in the plebiscite and 88,2% of them voted for the independence of Slovenia. This is an important manifestation of solidarity and a viewpoint in connection to which Social Cohesion in Slovenia could also be observed. The new processes that are affecting the solidarity and collective identity are the joining of the European Union. This has happened only recently (in May 2004), but will probably also have some important effects on the Slovenian identity. Here the people were not so united as in the case of Slovenian independence, the scepticism was higher, although large majority was still inclined favourably toward the European Union – i.e. seeing Slovenia as part of Europe.

The past circumstances have also influenced the values of people, their type of connections, levels of trust in different institutions and in people in general. When observing the trust as part of Social Cohesion, the concept becomes close to the concept of social capital, as the latter usually encompasses trust and networks. Slovenia belongs to eastern European countries for which low social capital is characteristic. This means that structural aspect of social capital is low (participation in voluntary organisations) and also cultural aspect of social capital (trust in people) is low (Igljic, 2001). In Slovenia the level of trust has dropped in the middle of the 1990, compared to the period before or right after the transition, along with the sharp rise in the participation in voluntary organisations.

Authors on social capital are also more and more including the analysis of networks into their studies, as these can also be an indicator of social capital, and has also been chosen as a dimension of Social Cohesion. In the 80s the most prevalent type of social network in Yugoslavia was privatised network, as 40% of people had this type of social network. The characteristic of this network is that it is formed mainly of relatives. The second most common type of social network in Yugoslavia was friends-oriented network, which was typical for 30% of respondents. In this type of network friends, neighbourhood ties and similar non-formal and non-family ties predominate. More specifically in that period, the tolerance and ethnic heterogeneity of networks in Slovenia were smaller, when compared to other ex-Yugoslav republics (Igljic, 2001).

This past events and characteristics might be a relevant frame through which we can interpret the indicators and data following below.

According to domains and sub-domains, the defined indicators are analysed in the following part of the report.

Table 8 Indicators of Social Cohesion

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

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

3.2 Trust

3.2.1 Generalised trust

According to the first indicator on generalised trust, Slovenia does not rank high. Namely, more than three quarters of respondents (78,3%) feel, that you cannot trust other people, while only 21,7% feel that most people can be trusted. The share of trust is low in comparison to some other European states and is an important indicator of rather low Social Cohesion. But this general distrust must be observed along with primary social networks, and communal relationships, which are observed in the next section that might put this low level of trust into context.

3.2.2 Specific trust

Trust in institution seems somewhat higher than trust in people in general. Especially high is the trust in educational system (80,3 % trust a great deal or quite a lot), while on the other side stand out with very low level of trust political institutions, such as the parliament (74,7 % do not trust it very much, or not at all) and the civil services (74,7 % do not trust it very much, or not at all). Trust is also lower than in European countries in average. (Source: EVS 1999/2000) Also there is quite high distrust in the armed forces, trade unions, the police, the social security system, the justice system and the church (more than half of respondents do not trust it very much or not at all). This low level of trust might be connected to the developing, transitional problems of such institutions in Slovenia, while the low level of trust in the church can be explained by historical circumstances, primarily the past communist regime. The only two institutions where there is higher share of people that trust in them than the share of those that distrust them are the educational system and the press. The trust in press is even higher than the European average.

The Court of Justice of the European Communities (often referred to simply as "the Court") was set up in 1952 under the Treaty of Paris (establishing the European Coal and Steel Community). Its job is to ensure that EU legislation (technically known as "Community law") is interpreted and applied in the same way in each member state. In other words, that it is always identical for all parties and in all circumstances. The Court has the power to settle legal disputes between member states, EU institutions, businesses and individuals. As Slovenia has become a member state only recently (may 2004) we feel that this indicator is for the moment not relevant.

The number of cases referred to the European Court of Human rights could be observed as a substitute. The current incarnation of the European Court of Human Rights was instituted on November 1, 1998, as a means to systematize the hearing of Human Rights complaints from Council of Europe member states. The court's mission is to enforce the Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms, ratified in 1953. Under the Rules of Court, the Court is divided into four Sections, whose composition, fixed for three years, is geographically and gender balanced and takes account of the different legal systems of the Contracting States.

Applications from Slovenia are recorded by the Third section (in the Third section Annual activity report 2003 (January 2004)) At the end of the year, 10,016 applications were pending before the Section. When observing the composition of the applications pending on 31 December 2002 by the state, Slovenia has represented 6% of applications. Other countries were Turkey (62%), Germany (13%), Lithuania (6%), Russia (3%) and other states (9%)¹⁰. But it is difficult to put this data into any context, on whether this is a high share or not, and even if it means that the Social Cohesion is low (due to high numbers of issues reported) or high (due to the activity that is taken by the people).

Slovenia has still some very traditional patterns, which are also reflected in the importance people ascribe to different things. The most important for Slovenians is family (82,2% regard it as very important). Also important are friends (41,8% think they are very important) and leisure time (32,5% regard it as very important). On the other side, politics and religion are not very important for Slovenians. 40,7% thinks that politics is not important at all, while 25,7% think the same about religion. The low level of importance that is ascribed to politics could also be linked to the low level of trust in political system. It might indicate, that Slovenians are either disappointed in these institutions, or that the democratic values are still developing (and we are therefore perhaps still in the period of transition).

Traditional values can be observed also in the importance that is put on the respecting the parents. Namely, 78,2% of respondents feels that regardless of what qualities and faults are of ones parents, one must love and respect them. But also there are very high expectations from the parents, as 73,8% feels that parents' duty is to do their best for their children even at the expense of their own well-being. (EVS, 1999/2000)

Social Cohesion in Slovenia is therefore quite strong on the primary level – family and friends. It is somewhat low when referring to people in general or institutions.

3.3 Other integrative norms and values

3.3.1 Altruism

According to the statistical data, Slovenia is among the countries with the largest number of non-profit voluntary organisations per 1000 inhabitants in the world (more than in Canada, United States, Italy, etc.). In 1996 the register of the Statistical office data show that there were 11.570 associations. But the largest share (95%) of these associations are clubs (associations) and not voluntary associations in the narrow sense, and almost a half (40%) function only for the benefit of their members and not for the benefit of all or majority of the members of the society (Kolaric et al., 2002). With this correction in mind Slovenia's voluntary sector is similar to the countries of Portugal, Hungary and Italy – that is the

¹⁰ Source: Third section Annual activity report 2003. Accessible on:
<http://www.echr.coe.int/Eng/EDocs/2003AnnualActivityReportThirdSection.pdf>

countries with the less developed private non-profit voluntary sector. Interesting is also the structure of these organisations; the majority operate in the field of sport (28,6%), culture (11,6%), fire brigades (12,3%), protection of animals (6,2%) and professional associations (5,7%). Only 3,5% operate in the field of social protection.

The share of people that belong to different voluntary associations and groups is low. The highest is the share of people that belong to trade unions (16,9%) and sports and recreation associations (16,9%). Other more important voluntary associations, which have a share higher than 5% are social welfare services for the elderly, religious organisations, education, music or cultural activities, local community actions and professional associations. There is also a quite significant share of those that do youth work (4,5% are members, 3,5% also do voluntary work). But also here the share of respondents that do some voluntary work in these organisations is usually lower than the share of those that are members. In particular it is lower in trade union members (only 3,3% also do voluntary work) and sports and recreation (only 8,4% also do voluntary work). In other organisations the differences are not so significant. The lowest membership can be seen in voluntary associations, such as third world development and human rights (0,8%), peace movements (0,8%), women's groups (1,9%), political parties or groups (3%) and the environment, ecology and animal rights (3,3%).

These shares are not high but they are comparable to the shares in other European countries and therefore they do not indicate an important deficit for Social Cohesion and solidarity in this area. It is important to note, that issues closer to »home« (like community activism, youth work) seem to be more relevant to Slovenians and incite higher solidarity (share of people involved is much higher than the average in European countries), than global issues (like peace movements, animal rights and similar, where shares are below European average).

Although the share of people that belong to voluntary associations is low, only 48,5% of respondents answered that they spend no time at all in clubs and voluntary associations. The share of those that spend time in clubs and voluntary associations every week is 18,9%, once or twice a month 14,8% and few times a year 17,9%. (Source: EVS 1999/2000).

In Slovenia there are approximately 94.000 blood donations every year, which covers the needs of Slovene health services for blood. Yearly approximately 42.000 litres of blood are donated. Share of blood donors is 5% of the whole population.

3.3.2 Tolerance

The views on migration in Slovenia indicate a rather closed society. More than two thirds (69,2%) of respondents feel that for the greater good of society it is better if immigrants do not maintain their distinct customs and traditions but take over the customs of the country.

Similarly, when asked what the government should do about the workers from less developed countries coming to work, 8,4% feel that the government should prohibit them to come, 38,9% feel that it should strictly limit the number of foreigners, 48,1% feel that they should be allowed to come when the jobs are available and 4,6% feel that anyone who wants to come should be allowed. Slovenia belongs according to these data to more closed countries. This could also be linked to a lower level of trust in general and specifically to certain groups (EVS 1999/2000).

The views on immigration can also be gathered from the data of the European social survey (2002) (SJM 02/2). Opinions are given if the foreigners should be allowed to move to Slovenia. When the immigration of people with similar ethnic background is concerned, 11% feel that many should be allowed to move, 54% feel that some should be allowed, 27% feel that very few should be allowed to immigrate and 7% feel that no one should be allowed. The shares are similar when the immigration of people of different ethnic background is concerned, with slightly higher shares of those that would not approve of that immigration. Therefore, 7% feel that many should be allowed to immigrate, 46% feel that some should be allowed, 31% feel that very few should be allowed and 11% feel that no one should be allowed to immigrate.

When asked, "who they would not like as neighbours", the largest share of negative attitudes received the following groups: drug addicts (65,3%), heavy drinkers (69,3), homosexuals (44,3%) and people with criminal record (40,5%). People also have a rather negative attitude toward left wing extremists (36% would not like them as neighbours), right wing extremists (37%), gypsies (36,6%), people with aids (33,2%) and emotionally unstable people (30,4%). Toward other groups the attitudes are less negative. These groups are: people of different race, large families, Muslims, immigrants and foreign workers and Jews. It seems as if race and religion are not such an important factors of discrimination. But this can also partly be due to rare contacts with these groups (in Slovenia there is a very small number of Jews or people of different race). The low prejudice against Muslims and immigrants are more difficult to explain, especially in the light of the feelings mentioned above, that not much migration should be allowed and the immigrants should not maintain their customs (in Slovenia there are many immigrants from former Yugoslavia, especially Bosnia, where Muslims prevail). In general the shares do not stand out from average in the European countries (according to the total in EVS), which means that we are not particularly less or more tolerant to any particular group in comparison to other European countries. We slightly stand out from the average in attitude toward two groups, that is heavy drinkers (where there is a higher share of those with negative attitude toward this group) and those with criminal record (where the share of those with negative attitude is lower than average)

People in general are least tolerant to the following behaviour: taking and driving away a car belonging to someone else, throwing away litter in a public place, accepting a bribe in the course of their duties and doing scientific experiments on human embryos (all have averages under 2, on the scale from 1 to 10, where 1 means »it can never be justified and 10 – »it can always be justified«). Also as less justifiable are the following actions: claiming state benefits which you are not entitled to (2,82), cheating on tax if you have the chance (2,34), taking the drug marihuana and hashish (2,30), lying in

your own interest (2,54), driving under the influence of alcohol (2,04), genetic manipulation of food stuffs (2,83) and speeding over the limit in built-up places (2.93).

On the other hand, as most justifiable actions people rated (averages over 5): euthanasia, sex under the legal age of consent, divorce and abortion. Other actions were rated: married men/women having an affair (3,47), homosexuality (4,62) and suicide (3,54), paying cash for services to avoid taxes (3.28), having casual sex (4.08), smoking in public buildings (3.57) and prostitution (3,31). (Source: EVS 1999/2000)

According to the EVS data, in Slovenia people in general were more permissive to all the actions (the averages were higher than the total average in European countries). Significantly higher averages, and therefore significantly more permissive attitudes were to the following: abortion, divorce, euthanasia and sex under legal age of consent. Lower averages and therefore less permissive attitudes were only on issues of lying in one's own interest and cheating on tax.

Some of this more permissive attitudes could be linked to the past regime, with less emphasis on religious norms, so this could be linked to more permissive attitudes towards divorce, abortion and similar.

3.3.3 Social contract

Regarding the beliefs in the causes of poverty in Slovenia the most prevalent believed reason is injustice in society (35,4), therefore the institutional reason, but the share is almost the same as the individual reason of laziness or lack of willpower (33,2%). Also quite common is the reason »part of the modern progress« (17,3%), while the reason »unlucky« is less common (10,4%). It is interesting, that the two opposite reasons have almost the same share, which indicates a division in the society regarding the attitude toward poverty. As the first reason enhances the feeling of solidarity more than the second, there can be negative consequences for the Social Cohesion due to the large share of people that ascribe poverty to the laziness of people.

As the indicator willingness to pay more taxes in order to improve the situation of the elderly was not available for Slovenia, an alternative indicator is added. This is the question on whether you would be prepared to actually do something to improve the conditions of the elderly (EVS, question 81). The majority would be prepared to do something (13,3% answered absolutely yes, 51,6% yes), while 30,7% were undecided (maybe yes/no), and only a few answered no (3,9%) and absolutely no (0,5%). This shows a rather high level of intergenerational solidarity.

Along with intergenerational solidarity, solidarity with other vulnerable groups, like sick and disabled people, is also interesting to be mentioned. A large majority of people would be prepared to actually do something for the sick and disabled people (16,8% answered absolutely yes and 54% answered yes), 26,1% were undecided and only 3,1% answered no (or absolutely no). Here the solidarity seem so be even slightly higher than with the older people.

There are no direct indicators for the willingness to actually do something practical (like picking up litter, and similar) in the community or neighbourhood. The alternative indicators are chosen from the European Value Survey (questions 81 and 79).

People were asked whether they would be prepared to actually do something to improve the conditions of people in their neighbourhood /community. In Slovenia the majority of the respondents would be prepared (15,6% answered absolutely yes and 50,4% answered yes), a little more than a quarter (28,3%) were indecisive (answer maybe yes/no), and only a small number (5,7%) answered negatively.

As an indicator of the attitude toward and solidarity with the community could also be the question "to what extent do you feel concerned about the living conditions of the people in your neighbourhood?" The majority answered that they are concerned only to a certain extent (54,2%), almost a quarter were concerned to a higher level (very much – 4,7% and much 18,5%), while a fifth of the respondents were not so much concerned with these issues (15,9% not so much and 6,7% not at all).

In general it could be said that cohesion on the local level in Slovenia is quite strong. This validates also the questions on local identification, and membership in local groups.

The adjustment of private and professional life is one of the important factors for ensuring equal opportunities of women and men in society. Here the important role is played by the employers, who can ease this process by allowing part time employment, work at home and similar.

The majority of women in Slovenia is dually burdened with the full time employment and taking care of household and family. The most important reason for this is that the work at home is unequally divided between the partners. The data for 2000-2001 show that men with full time employment devote less time per day for the household care, informal help to other households and for family care. Men spend in average 2h and 25 minutes for this, while women spend 4h 13 minutes (SORS, 2003, Anketa o porabi casa).

Table 9 Time use of full-time employed persons, by sex, Slovenia, April 2000–March 2001 – counting primary activities

	Average time of all persons	Average time of all persons
Sleeping	8 ^h 03'	8 ^h 04'
Eating	1 ^h 24'	1 ^h 18'
Personal Care	1 ^h 07'	1 ^h 02'
Employment	5 ^h 29'	4 ^h 42'
Study	4'	6'
Household care and informal help to other households	2 ^h 5'	3 ^h 34'
Family care	16'	39'
Participatory activities, religious activities	7'	7'
Culture, sport, hobbies	45'	30'
Social life	56'	53'
TV	2 ^h 3'	1 ^h 27'
Other mass media	21'	22'
Travelling	1 ^h 18'	1 ^h 14'
Other, unspecified	2'	2'
Total	24^h 0'	24^h 0'

Source: SORS, Statistical yearbook 2003.

As an indicator of equal opportunities could also be used the share of men that use their right to the parental leave. The legal possibilities for work leave in Slovenia are extensive (due to the comprehensive childcare system) and are even increasing. The new legislation on parental leave and family allowances has introduced new forms of leave (fathers' leave), prolonged the time of leave, especially in the case of children with health problems and handicapped children, and increased the amount of income compensation. The function of these changes is not only the harmonisation of work and family life but also raising the fertility rate, which is substantially low. In the year 2003 among the rightful claimants of leave for the care of the child there were 1,1% of men. The share has slightly risen compared to the previous years, when it was below 1%. The fathers have also the right to father's leave¹¹. In the year 2003, 10917 fathers used this right. But there were already noticed also discriminations from the employers of men taking father's leave. There were cases when employer did not enable the use of the father's leave, they have limited its duration, or even cancelled the working contract (Source: Anonymous reports on the telephone of the Office for Equal Opportunities).

Also the data on the use of leave to care for the ill relative show a great distinction between men and women. In 2003 women have been 6 times more often absent from work due to care for a family member than men (women: 513.609 days, men: 87.237 days)¹².

¹¹ The fathers' leave has a maximum period of 90 days, but will be adopted by stages. In 2003 there is a possibility to take 15 days of father's leave.

¹² Source: Evidenca zacasne odsotnosti z dela zaradi bolezni, poskodb, nege in drugih vzrokov 2003, Institut za varovanje zdravja, 2004.

In balancing work and family life childcare facilities also play an important role. Regarding the possibility of including children in childcare facilities, supply is even higher than demand. The majority of childcare facilities are public and are used by a vast majority of employed parents. Thus, in the case of childcare, the combination of work and employment functions well. Although a greater flexibility in the hours that childcare facilities are available is needed.

3.4 Social networks

3.4.1 Networks

Membership in organisations is partly described already under the indicator 29 (volunteering). Here only the main points are revised.

The highest is the share of people that belong to trade unions (16,9%) and sports and recreation associations (16,9%). The high share that belongs to trade unions can be explained by a strong tradition of trade unionism in Slovenia (in the old regime). Otherwise people mainly belong to groups linked to their free time, pleasure activities (like sports and recreation). To these also education, music or cultural activities (9,2%) and religious organisations (6,7%) can be included. The membership in associations is in general comparable to that in other European countries, and is very near the European (EVS) average. The exception might be membership in religious associations, which is somewhat lower than the European average. This might be due to historical negative attitudes to the church and religion (due to former communist regime). Interesting is also high participation in local community action groups (9,2%), while the European (total in EVS) average is only 3%.

The lowest membership can be seen in voluntary associations, such as third world development and human rights (0,8%), peace movements (0,8%), women's groups (1,9%), and the environment, ecology and animal rights (3,3%). The exception might be social welfare services for the elderly, where the share is 5,4% (Source: EVS 1999/2000).

When observing support of networks, two factors are important: who is the provider of the support, and which kind of support is given. The indicators are taken from the survey on support networks done in Slovenia (Ferligoj, Kogovsek, 2003). Here 6 different types of support were distinguished: socialising, financial support, smaller material support, larger material support, emotional support and support in times of illness. The support network was also very specified, and as support givers were noted: partner, parents, siblings, children, other relatives, co-worker, co-member, neighbour, friend, acquaintance, counsellor and other.

Data show that the most important part of network for socializing are friends (30,3%), partner (12,2%), siblings (11,5%) and other relatives (13,2%). For the financial support most important are friends, as 26,2% would turn to them, also parents (22,5%) and siblings (14,4%). For smaller material support again the most important source of support are friends (25,5%), also neighbours (16,6%) and other

relatives (14,4%). Similar is valid for larger material support, where again most important are friends (21,5), and relatives (partner 11,7%, parents 12,8%, siblings 12,7% and other relatives 16,3%). In all these instances friends seem to be the most important network that offers all these types of support. Only in instances of emotional support and support in times of illness friends are not the most important. In times of need for emotional support most important are partner (31,5%) and again friends (27,2%), and than siblings (8,8%), parents (7,9%) and children (7,6%). For support needed in times of illness most important is again the partner (33,9%), than children (18,1%) and parents (15%), while friends are here less often mentioned (10,7%).

Other members of social network, like co-workers, co-members, acquaintances and counsellors are very rarely used for any kind of support. Also neighbours come in forefront only in case of smaller material support. The majority of support is therefore provided by family members and friends.

As social networks are very important for support and therefore the quality of life of individuals and families, it is important to look at social networks of so called vulnerable groups. Firstly, the single parent households. For them it is typical, that children are a very important source of all kinds of support (their share in support in case of illness is 44%, in larger material support 22,5%). Low-income households have similar social network as described above, where friends provide a lot of support. It is important, that in case of financial support children are the most important (18,4%). Therefore, they are mainly dependant on family support, which places a lot of burden on the family. Similarly, households with older people, rely on social support from the family, mainly children. Children are important in socializing (18,5%), for financial support (34,8%), smaller material support (20%), larger material support (28,5%), emotional support (22,9%) and in case of illness (35,7%).

Social networks are an important source of different kinds of support, but this might not be always available – its availability, and perhaps even quality is dependent also on the frequency of contact. The majority of people spend time with friends every week (57,7%) or at least once, twice a month (25,7%). Only a small proportions spend it less often (14% few times a year, 2,6% not at all). Frequency of spending time with colleagues is less often, as almost a quarter (24,4%) spend time with them every week, and the same share (25,6%) once, twice a month, a bit larger share (28,2%) a few times a year, and there is also a large share (21,9%) that do not spend any time at all with their colleagues (Source: EVS 1999/2000).

As friends are important for different types of support, high frequency of contact with friends for majority of people indicates that majority have well developed social networks that are an important basis of Social Cohesion.

3.5 Identity

3.5.1 National / European identity

A sense of national pride is very high among Slovenians. In some measure this could also be attributed to a fact that Slovenia is a very young state (from 1991), and that the sense of national pride was also one of the reasons for its independence. More than half of Slovenes (55,7%) are very proud to be Slovene, and approximately one third (34,9%) are quite proud. Only 7,7% are not very proud and only 2% are not proud at all to be Slovene (EVS 1999/2000). This places Slovenia among the more proud nations. But also the European average is very high (83% proud or very proud), thus Slovenia does not stand out to a greater extent.

Regarding identification with the national symbols, we can say that in Slovenia the issue of national symbols, its significance and aesthetic value is quite a burning issue. As Slovenian flag is very similar to the Russian and some other east-European countries' flags, there were already some mix-ups of our flag with others. The low recognition of our country is often in public thinking linked to the low recognition of our national symbols. Recently, there were serious debates on changing the coat-of-arms and the flag, and a public contest was organised in September 2003. The best proposition was awarded, but has also received various critics from the wider public, so the decision on changing the arms and the flag was halted.

3.5.2 Regional / Community / Local identity

The sense of local identity could be interpreted from the EVS question »which of these geographical groups would you say you belong to first of all?« The geographical locations are divided to locality or town, region, country, Europe and the world as a whole. In Slovenia local identification is very strong, as more than half (52,8%) of respondents listed locality or town. This places Slovenia among countries with high local identification. This local identification is followed by country as a whole, which listed primarily a third of respondents (32,1). All other geographical levels of identification seem to be less important. Region of a country was listed by 8,7%, Europe by 2,4% and world as a whole by 3,9%.

3.6 Trends and Reflection

Authors like Forrest and Kearns (2001) emphasise that in the global individualised world the place where Social Cohesion resides is the feeling of local. This might be also seen as a trend in Slovenia, as the locality seems to stand out as an important source of identification, activity and contacts. The local identification is important for Slovenes, and here the regions and municipal districts have the important role. But this division can also be said to go in some ways too far. Namely, the number of independent municipalities is growing, they are becoming smaller and smaller, to the measure where this division might not be functional anymore. However, people feel more in control of their lives and

its quality if the decision centres and power centres are closer to them. Their involvement in local affairs can also be seen from the high share of people that belong to local, community organisations (which is much higher than in other voluntary organisations, with the exception of trade unions and sport and leisure organisations). Community involvement is also high in a more informal way, as social ties in the neighbourhood are quite strong (when observing their frequency, the number of friends in the neighbourhood and similar).

When observing trust, altruism and tolerance as values that are important for Social Cohesion, it is useful to use the distinction between the value orientations that is used by Inglehart. He claims that economic changes lead to gradual changes in the value priorities. This is especially applicable for Slovenia, where economic changes have been extreme, from one economic system in the socialism, to a new free market economic system. Therefore the change from materialistic values to post-materialistic could be somewhat specific in Slovenia. With materialistic values Inglehart and Abramson (1999, 1994) understand the emphasis on economic and physical security, while post-materialistic values are linked to freedom, self-expression, the quality of life and also tolerance. The post-materialistic values can develop if the economic security is given. The case of East Germany showed that with the rise of employment insecurity (especially unemployment itself), has lead to more materialistic orientations of people (Inglehart, Abramson, 1994). Interesting is that despite the fact that economic and social indicators for Slovenia show a relatively satisfactory level of welfare and economic growth, the quality of life is estimated as relatively low by the population itself (HDR, 2000-2001). Here we regard the self-estimation of the quality of life as a reflection of social climate. Change toward post-materialistic orientations could be partially seen in the lowering importance of work – which is typical for post-materialistic values, and the leisure time becoming more important (comparing 1995 and 1992), but in 1999 the importance of work has risen again. The reasons could be similar to those in East Germany, and reflect the situation in the labour market.

Tolerance has also been included as an important indicator of Social Cohesion, and it can be linked to post-materialistic values in Inglehart's theory. According to the research of children values in 1999 (HDR, 2000-2001), tolerance seems to fall out of post-materialistic pattern. It is not promoted either in families or in the education system, where success, achievements and competition are emphasised much more than cooperation. On the other hand, the indicators described in the report do not show Slovenians as standing out with higher levels of intolerance. Slovenia seems to be in the average regarding tolerance to different groups. But still the research on children's values must be acknowledged and policies that would promote tolerance in schools could be advantageous for this issue.

The shift toward post-materialistic values is indicated after 1999 partly also by the growing importance of friends (HDR, 2000-2001). In the introduction we have mentioned, that in Yugoslavia family-oriented networks were predominant. Also now in Slovenia family is considered to be very important for a large majority of people. Here the homogeneity of what is important is the highest (the share of those that chose the family was the largest). But on the other side, when observing the support networks, along

with family also friends play a very important role. Family is still more important when it comes to support in times of illness, or emotional need, but otherwise, friends could be rated as almost equally important. Furthermore, these social networks seem to be offering the majority of Slovenians good support, as citizens of Slovenia in 1992 feel by far the least lonely – it ranked 3rd in the world (unfortunately we don't have more recent data, and this result could be also due to recent independence and accompanying emotions, expectations and similar).

Social support can function as a buffer that protects the individual and his health from the stressful influences from the environment. They often importantly compensate or replace entirely the state-offered help (or its lack) in case of particularly vulnerable groups like the elderly, the handicapped, etc. (Hlebec, Kogovsek, 2003). Social networks are therefore of extreme importance for more vulnerable social groups, where they often represent the key element of support and therefore significantly influence their quality of life.

Another issue that also needs to be mentioned in connection to Social Cohesion is trust. The latter could be understood as a basis of cohesion. The level of trust in Slovenia is low according to the indicators mentioned in the report (in comparison to other European countries). This could also be an indicator of democratic culture. State institutions enjoyed a relatively high degree of trust after the independence, but the trust has been falling in the next decade. As already mentioned in the report, this might be due to high expectations of people after the independence and the subsequent disappointment. However, when compared to other east and central European countries, the trust in Slovenia in almost all institutions is high (HDR, 2000-2001). Therefore, the low levels of trust can be linked to the transition and change in systems and Slovenia in this context seems to have quite high levels of trust in institutions. Maybe the most worrying trend in connection to the issue of Social Cohesion could be the low level of trust in people in general. The reasons for this low trust are probably various and hard to analyse, so we will not tackle this issue here. It might be linked to some historic circumstances, values and similar.

4 Social Inclusion

4.1 Introduction

Social Inclusion is defined in Social Quality context as “*the degree to which people are integrated in different social relations (systems, institutions, organisations and structures) that constitute everyday life*” (Walker, Wigfield, 2003). This integration is important as it enables people to realise their potentials, it enables the processes of self-realisation, which are important aspect of Social Quality.

In Slovenia it is important to note that access to different systems has in many ways changed with the transition from one political system to another, and also expectations of people are very much linked to this change. This refers to inclusion in various system, that are also defined as domains and sub-domains of Social Inclusion component; from personal networks to civil systems, housing, education, social care, financial systems and so on.

In the following part the indicators described below will be analysed.

Table 10 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.

4.2 Citizenship rights

4.2.1 Constitutional/political rights

In Slovenia the proportion of population with citizenship is very high, according to the Census (2002) approximately 98%. These persons have a right to carry Slovenian passport, they can vote in national elections and they benefit from all services that are intended for citizens. Not all of the citizens are of Slovenian ethnic origin. 83% of all inhabitants in Slovenia are native Slovenians and the large majority of other citizens come from the republics of the former Yugoslavia. Mostly, they gained citizenship after Slovenian independence under quite favourable conditions. 2% of the residents are foreign citizens, inhabitants without citizenship or unknown citizenship. According to this indicator, Slovenia could be characterised as highly inclusive country. On the other hand, almost 1% of Slovenian population was erased from all registers in 1994 and their position is still not clear.

According to Slovenian legislation, persons, who have the permanent residence permit to live in Slovenia, have the right to vote in local elections that are held every four years. For the past two local elections the situation was as follows:

Table 11 The right to vote and the turn out at the local elections

	1998		2002	
	The right to vote	The actual turnout	The right to vote	The actual turnout
Altogether	1.452.868	775.617	1.615.666	1.105.436
Urban areas	525.455	245.194	577.758	369.499
Rural areas	927.413	530.423	964.856	663.456

Source: SORS. Accessible on: www.stat.si.

4.2.2 Social rights

According to Slovenian legislation, every person with a permanent residence permit, who is not entitled to the pension according to the Pension and Disability Insurance Act or other foreign legislation and her/his income does not achieve the threshold set for the present year is entitled to so called national pension. A person has to be at least 67 years of age or she/he should have lived in Slovenia at least 30 years between 15 and 65 years of age. In the year 2002 approximately 1,9% of population were the recipients of the national pension. The national pension equals 33% of the lowest pension basis.

As far as gender pay gap is concerned, Slovenia shows quite favourable figures. In comparison with other European countries, those differences are almost the lowest in Europe. Eurostat data shows that the pay gap is decreasing in the past 10 years. In 2001 the gap was 11%, which is lower than EU (15 countries) average. The difference is the highest for presidents of a business board, where women earned only 33% of male pay in 2001 (Kanjuro Mrcela, Cernigoj Sadar, 2004). On the other hand in

some professions women averagely earn more than their male colleagues – chemists (112%), architects (124%) and teachers (101%).

4.2.3 Economic and political networks

The income gap is only one aspect of inclusion. Another, maybe even more important for Slovenia, concerns the distribution of male and female workforce across occupations. According to data of Commerce of Slovenia in the sixty largest Slovenian companies there was no female top manager in 2000 (Kanjuro Mrcela, Cernigoj Sadar, 2004). Regarding Slovenian situation, the indicator about women's pay as a proportion of men's and the distribution of the workforce by gender would better fit into the labour market domain.

Also, the proportion of women in parliament and in national government is rather low, lower than EU 15 average.

Table 12 Women in national governments and parliaments

	Slovenia	EU average (2001)
National government (2004)	17%	24,7%
Parliament (elected in 2000)	13%	20,5%

Sources: www.db-decision.de, <http://www.gov.si/vrs/slo/vlada/vlada.html>, http://www.stat.si/letopis/index_vsebina.asp?poglavje=5&leto=2003&jezik=si

Eurostat data about the women in managerial positions show, that the percentage of women in managerial positions in Slovenia is slightly lower than European average.

Table 13 Women on managerial positions (%)

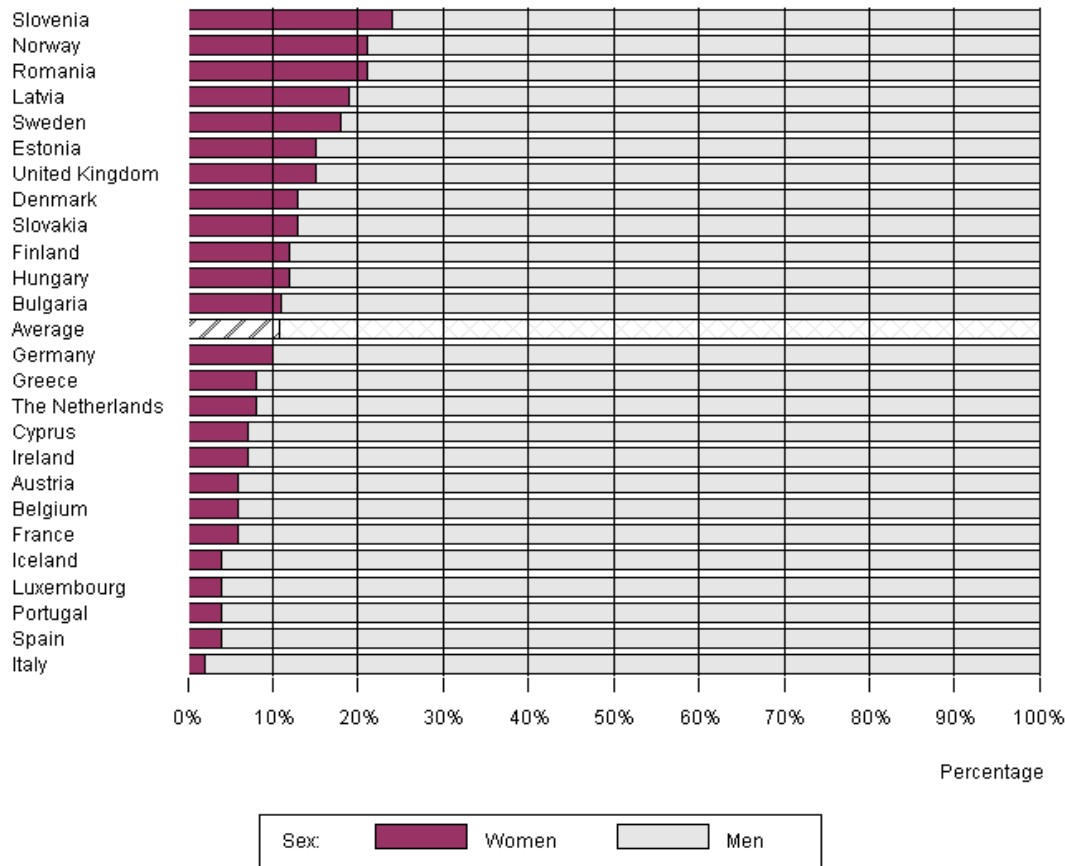
	Women in managerial positions	Men in managerial positions
Slovenia	29	71
Europe Average	30	70

Source: http://www.europa.eu.int/comm/employment_social/women_men_stats/out/measures_out4311_en.htm.

Yet, the Eurostat (2000) data also show that Slovenia has the largest share of women among the presidents and members of the highest decision bodies in the Top 50 publicly quoted companies. The rate of women, members of the highest decision bodies in Slovenia is 22%, while European average is 10%.

Figure 1 Presidents and members of the highest decision-making body in Top50 companies

Presidents and members of the highest decision-making body in Top50 companies



Source: Eurostat, 2000.

4.2.4 Civil rights

In the Legal Aid Act from 2001 free legal advice is defined and also, who are the eligible persons to the entire or the partial provision of funds necessary to cover the costs of legal assistance and the right to exemption of payment of the costs of the judicial proceeding. According to the Article 10, the eligible persons are: the citizens of Republic of Slovenia with permanent residence in the republic of Slovenia, aliens with a permanent or temporary residence in the Republic of Slovenia, the stateless persons residing legally in the Republic of Slovenia, other aliens subject to the condition of reciprocity or under the conditions and in cases laid down in international treaties binding the Republic of Slovenia, not-for-profit non-governmental organisations and associations that operate in the public interest and that are entered in the appropriate register pursuant to the valid legislation. The conditions for granting legal aid are the person's and his/her family financial position. The legal aid is granted to those, whose social position or the social position of their families would be harmed by the costs of the judicial proceedings.

Initial legal advice is free for all eligible persons. Other legal assistance can be granted in two ways: legal advice and representation or in the form of exemption from the payment of the costs of proceedings.

In Slovenian Public Opinion Survey (2002), which was a part of European Social Survey, also questions about experiencing discrimination were posed. 5,4% of respondents said that they belong to a group, which experience discrimination. Three most important reasons for experiencing discrimination, given by the respondents are religion, physical disability and ethnic background.

Table 14 Experiencing discrimination

Would you say for yourself that you belong to a group, which experiences discrimination in our country?		
Yes	82	5,4%
No	1420	93,5%
I don't know	16	1%

Source: Slovenian Public Opinion Survey, European Social Survey 2002.

Useful source for data about discrimination is ECRI – European Commission against Racism and Intolerance. In the Second Report on Slovenia (2002) it is stated that Slovenian legislation provides the basis for non-discrimination of different groups. However, in spite of generally positive image ECRI warns about the problems of implementation of non-discriminative legislation and that all the actors do not act entirely non-discriminative. According ECRI report (2002: 15-17) the most vulnerable groups are the Roma population, persons from ex-Yugoslav republics (the problem of access to services such as health care, welfare and housing), German speaking minority and small religious groups. The Muslim community still does not have a mosque, despite of the fact that they have been applying for a place to build a mosque for several decades.

ECRI stated as an issue of particular concern the situation of the ex-Yugoslav minority groups, especially those, whose name was removed from the registry of permanent residence (so-called “erased”). They also pointed out that the unemployment among minority groups is significantly higher than among the majority population and that members of minority groups are over-represented in the lower-status sectors of the employment market, such as manual work (ECRI, 2002: 14).

In Slovenia, the collection of data of ethnic origin of persons is not allowed in Slovenia. This was made in order not to provide means for discrimination and intolerance against ethnic groups. But the fact is that non-existence of data means that no matter that some groups can live in bad conditions, it is looked at individually, not as a problem of discrimination or worse access to services and means. There are three recognized minority groups – Hungarian, Italian and Roma. While for the first two groups there seem not to be any problems, the Roma people are almost excluded. Their names cannot be found in boards of private companies.

In parliament the Hungarian and Italian minorities have their representatives. In those local communities, where Roma persons live, they have to be represented in the local authorities. One example of good practice can be found – in Maribor local community, they have a Roma representative, regardless the fact that they were not obliged to do it. On the other hand, especially in some municipalities in Dolenjska region, there was much resistance for and great difficulties for that.

The other group of ethnic groups is formed of persons of ex-Yugoslav nations. They have moved to Slovenia as internal migrants, while there was a common state. However, in times of Yugoslav wars a lot of them also came as refugees. Those, who have the citizenship, are by law equal as native Slovenians so there are no special data about them therefore they are represented in boards of different companies (even the most successful ones) in Slovenia.

4.3 Labour market

4.3.1 Access to paid employment

Concerning the long-term unemployment, Eurostat data show that in Slovenia, the figures did not change much in the past four years. From 1999 to 2003 this number is around 3.4. The highest was in 2000 – 4.1. In 2003 the long-term unemployment in Slovenia was 3.4, while in EU (15 countries) it was slightly lower, 3.3. The share of long-term unemployed is higher between females (3.6 in 2003), which is slightly lower than 3.7, which is EU (15 countries) average. The share of long-term unemployed males in 2003 was 3.3, which is higher than EU (15 countries) average – 2.9.

According to the Slovenian national statistics (SORS, First release, 2003) in 2003 the activity rate was 56,3% and unemployment ratio was, 52,6%. In 2003 the registered unemployment rate was 11.2%, 6,6 % were long-term unemployed (12 months). The highest proportion of unemployed persons completed lower or middle vocational education (34% of unemployed in 2003), they are followed by those, who completed elementary school and upper secondary professional education (24% each). As expected, with higher education, those figures are lower.

The proportion of persons in temporary employment in the past five years is around 10%. This is slightly lower than EU (15 countries) average. The most frequent reason for working on temporary employment positions in the Labour Force Survey in 2000/2 is the inability to find permanent job. The proportion of persons in temporary employment was the highest in 2002 (11.4%) then it dropped in 2003 to 9.8% (LFS, 1999-2003). This positive change can be attributed to the change in the legislation. With the Act on Employment Relations in 2002 the temporary employment is restricted because it brings new risks and uncertainties. Ignjatovic (2002: 189) states that the temporary employment increases the velocity of entering and exiting the employment. Consequently this means that more persons are entitled to unemployment benefits, which burdens the welfare state. In 1999 the average age of persons in temporary employment was 30 years, while the average age of persons in permanent employment in Slovenia was 38 years (Ignjatovic, 2002: 189). Ignjatovic concludes that

with the age differentiation in of the temporary/permanent employment also the risks differentiate with regard to age.

Table 15 Do you have a work contract for indefinite period or definite period?

	N	Shares (%)
Indefinite period	6216	89,1
Definite period	760	10,9

Source: Labour force survey (ADS 002).

Table 16 What are the reasons for having a definite work contract?

	N	Shares (%)
Apprentice	82	8,7
Cannot find permanent employment	400	42,4
Does not want permanent employment	81	8,6
On trial period	35	3,7
Individual contract of employment	253	26,8
Permanently redundant worker	2	0,2
Other	91	9,6

Source: Labour force survey (ADS 002).

On the other hand, some other forms of contractual employment are increasing from 2.4% in 1999 to 3.8% in 2003. Still, those shares are relatively low in the European context. The share of persons with shorter working week is around 7.5% in 2002 and 2002. There is no data whether it is voluntarily or not.

Also important indicator about the inclusion on the labour market is the data about the underemployed persons. According to the Labour Force Survey (2003) there were approximately 7.000 underemployed persons in the second quarter of 2003, more than 70% of them were women.

4.4 Services

4.4.1 Health services

With the new health care legislation, passed in 1992, Slovenia introduced a new system of health insurance, compulsory for all the citizens of the Republic of Slovenia having their residence in the territory of Slovenia. The Law on Health Care and Health Insurance provides: The Contributions which are paid for the insured persons by the obligors for Contributions; in Articles 48 and 49 of the Law on Health Care and Health Insurance the following are listed: the Contributions for particular rights of the compulsory health insurance (CHI) which are paid for the insured persons (defined in Articles 15 to 18 of the Law). The Contributions for CHI are paid either as specified basis set by Law, as set proportional rates, or as flat sum charges. The obligors for contributions are the insured persons, their employers and other statutorily defined obligors. The rights from CHI for different categories of insured persons are tied to the contributions paid by the obligors according to the provisions of the Law.

As part of the CHI, the insured persons are guaranteed by the Law the following: the payment of health services, sick pay during temporary absence from work, death benefits, funeral costs refunds, the reimbursement of travel expenses tied to obtaining health services.

The amount of paid contributions in 2003 has increased by 8 % compared to 2002. The contributions paid in 2003 represent 99,6 % of the CHI income by the Institute. The largest piece in the structure is provided by contributions paid by the employers and the employees (77,5 %), followed by the contributions of pension fund (16 %) and the contributions of farmers and other contributors (5,3 %).

The compulsory health insurance contributions are paid calculated either as a percentage of the specified bases or as flat sum charges. The Law on Health Care and Health Insurance provides, in its Articles 50 to 57, the bases applied in calculation of the contributions for different groups of insured persons, and the groups of persons subject to flat sum contributions (Article 57). The bases applied in calculation of the contributions were broadened by the Low on Contributions for Social Security in effect from January 15, 1998. The obligors for contributions and the types of contributions to be paid for different classes of insured persons are identified in the Articles 48 and 49 of the Law on Health Care and Health Insurance.

There is a relation between the types of rights of different categories of insured persons and the corresponding contributions.

The rates of contributions under compulsory health insurance are specified by the Law on Contributions for Social Security. The Resolution on the Flat Sum Contributions for the Compulsory Health Insurance determines periodically the new fixed amounts in effect every year. The amount of the flat sum charges is set by the Institute itself.

The compulsory health insurance contributions depend on the salary or other income earned by the insured person. This ensures a high degree of solidarity within the system. For some groups of insured persons (the unemployed, the recipients of the social security allowances and similar), the health insurance contributions are paid by national or local community budgets (The Health Insurance Institute of Slovenia, 2004)¹³. The system is highly inclusive, since in 2003 98,6% of persons were de facto insured not only had the entitlement to be insured.

4.4.2 Housing

Estimates of the proportion of homeless in 1990 were app. 320 homeless persons, in 1994 app. 550 homeless persons – only persons sleeping in the shelters. We do not have the data about the hidden homelessness (Oslaj, 1999).

¹³ Source: The Health Insurance Institute of Slovenia. Accessible on: <http://www.zzzs.si/>.

As far as social housing is concerned there is no systematically collected information about the waiting lists in Slovenia. The Director of the Ljubljana housing fund¹⁴ points out that that the problem is that very low proportion of persons, who are entitled and who apply for the social housing are successful and win the social housing. For instance in Slovenia there are some groups of applicants for whom it is almost impossible to get social housing because they are never at the top of the applicant lists. In Ljubljana those are especially partners without children and single persons. There are always so many families with (more) children, who are recognized as the most vulnerable category, waiting.

Sendi et al (2000) state that it the needs for social housing in different local communities vary significantly. Of course, in urban areas the needs are much higher and so are the numbers of social dwellings in the cities. In the cities, where the 36% of Slovene population live, there are 54% of all social housing (12.437 of 23.045 in the whole country – data on 30.6.1999).

Table 17 Housing needs

	Number of residents,	Social and non-profit dwelling, owned by the municipality			The estimation of the need for social and non-profit dwelling		
		Data for 30-6-99	Social	Non-profit	Total	Social	Non-profit
City municipality	708.902	1.364	7.427	12.437	4.581	4.312	8.893
Other municipalities	1.276.655	4.158	6.138	10.608	2.693	2.282	4.975
Total	1.985.557	5.522	13.565	23.045	7.274	6.594	13.868

Source: Sendi et al., 2000.

Note: by estimation of needs already existent social and non-profit dwellings were included.

4.4.3 Education

With the data of school participation rates one has to be careful because the methodologies used differ significantly one from another, which makes it quite difficult to compare countries. Overall, some basic characteristics of the system should be introduced. The scheme of the educational system in Slovenia consists of pre-school education, compulsory education, secondary education - general and vocational streams, and post-secondary education.

Pre-school education (kindergartens) is well developed in Slovenia and is seen as forming an integral part of the educational system. Most kindergartens are public and financed by the municipalities (from public funds), payments from parents, donations and other sources but private kindergartens also exist. Pre-school education is not compulsory; the exception is the one-year of pre-primary education with the preparatory programme for entering elementary school. In the 1990s the proportion of children in the pre-school institutions was about 50% between one and seven years of age.

¹⁴ Source: Information received via E-mail on 11.06.2004.

Compulsory education is currently being reformed. In the past years it started at the age of 7 and lasted for 8 years. With the reform, the duration of the primary education was prolonged by one year and thus last 9 years. It starts at the age of 6, so the pupils will be of the same age as now (15) when they finish the compulsory education.

Secondary education holds an important position between compulsory and higher education. Different forms of secondary education exist at the moment in Slovenia: gimnazija (most general secondary programme), the classical gimnazija also includes Latin and Greek curriculum), international baccalauréat (two year preparation for the International Baccalauréat), the technical gimnazija (incorporating a professional field module). Besides the above-mentioned there are also secondary vocational and technical-professional forms of education and training, which last from 2 to 4 years and are designed for pupils to acquire different callings (professions).

One of the present discussions concerning education in Slovenia relates to drop-outs from secondary education, especially from vocational and technical education. In the late 1990s almost 6000 young persons entered the labour market without any qualifications, i.e. 20.4% of all enrolled in vocational and professional programmes in the five-year monitoring period from 1991 to 1996. The enrolment in the part-time adult education programmes covers only a part of the drop-outs from the regular education. A great many of the drop-outs remain without qualifications. It is needless to add that this increases different risks for them.

Post-secondary education also consists of two types of studies. The first type is post-secondary vocational (professional) education – two-year programmes with a markedly practical character; 40% of the programme is carried out in enterprises. The second type is higher education, which is provided in the two universities. The third university was established in the Primorska region in 2003. Universities also offer post-graduate studies. The new trend in the past decades in this field is towards exchanging students with other European countries and participating in international under- and postgraduate programmes.

As far as gender issues are concerned, the male and female pupils are granted equal possibilities to enrol in any programme, but there are no quotas or similar measures to ensure relatively equal gender distribution through the different educational programmes. In fact the gender structure of the pupils enrolled in the different vocational programmes is rather traditional: mainly male pupils in male dominated occupations and female pupils in usually female dominated occupations. Considering the equal opportunities of the minorities in the areas with Italian and Hungarian minorities, besides the Slovene language, the Italian and the Hungarian languages are also used in schools.

With the wars in the Balkans in the 1990s Slovenia was faced with the phenomenon of refugees who came from other parts of ex-Yugoslavia. Many of them were children and young people. The Ministry of Education Science and Sport has developed some projects of education but faces problems due to lack of available posts and also of financial resources. In the secondary schools those pupils have the

status of “occasional students” and at the end of the year they receive a certificate on the completed studies.

In 2002 the educational attainment of population aged 15 and over was following: 7% of population did not finish primary school, 26,1% had finished elementary school, 54,1% finished upper secondary school, 5,1% finished non-university college and 7,9% finished university (SORS, Slovenia in figures 2003).

4.4.4 Financial care

For Slovenia, there is no data on “proportion denied credit differentiated by income groups”. In fact there is no data about the denied credit at all. This indicator does not describe the situation for Slovenia, as people are not denied credit but they do not apply for it. So the number of denied credits would be relatively low, which would not mean that everyone could get a credit. There is also no data about it. More appropriate for Slovenian context would be indicator (data) “what’s the minimum salary, in order to get a credit (and differentiation in different banks)” and how many persons earn less than that. In 2002: 1.064.942 persons opened private accounts¹⁵.

4.4.5 Transport

Slovenia is a small country, one of the smallest in EU and it takes very little time to drive by car from north to south and from east to west of the country. With the exception of the high Alpine mountains, the whole country is quite easily accessible. In the past years the number of cars has been growing significantly. From 578.268 cars in 1990 it came to 873.962 cars in the year 2002. At the same time the number of buses lowered from 3077 buses in 1990 to 2189 buses in 2002. The highest drop in number of buses was between 1990-1995, which is also the time of gaining independence for Slovenia and the time of wars in former Yugoslav republics, where many destinations of the buses were. Also the number of passengers carried by all public transport (in 1000) dropped from 479.587 in 1990 to 177.226 in 2004. The largest share of passengers is carried by road transport (77%), mainly with buses. Approximately 22% passengers are carried by railway transport. From 1995 to 2002 the number of passengers using this kind of transport is slightly rising (from 13.307.000 passengers in 1995 to 14.519.000; the difference is +1.212.000 passengers) – for both, national and international railway transport. About 1% of passengers were transported by air.

If only urban passenger transport is looked at, the figures show a bit different view. Data on urban passenger transport relate to transport in Ljubljana and Maribor, which are two biggest cities in Slovenia. The number of the buses in 1990 was 343 and it was increasing to 496 in 1999. Then it dropped to 312 in 2002. According to the Statistical Office Methodological Explanation (SORS,

¹⁵ Source: Statistical Yearbook of the Republic of Slovenia 2003. Chapter 31: Means of individuals, consumer credits and insurance.

Statistical Yearbook, 2003), the change of methodology and definition of urban passenger transport with the Road Transport Act¹⁶ caused that the data for Maribor are not comparable with the data before 2001. Although the number is significantly lower, one cannot derive straightforward conclusions. However, if this data is related to the subject matter of the Social Inclusion, it could be said that Slovenia seems not to be so inclusive with regard to the public transportation by road. People in Slovenia rely more on their own means of transport (also for daily commuting) than on the public means of transport.

Data on road network show that 58 km of motorways were built from 1999 and that there are less major and main roads in 2002 than in 1999. Building of the motorway cross, which will connect the north of Slovenia (border with Austria) with the south (border with Croatia) and north-east (border with Hungary) with south-west (coastal region and border with Italy) is one of the priorities of Slovenia in the past and in the next few years.

4.4.6 Civic / cultural services

According to the data of Ministry of Education, Science and Sport in the year 2002 there were 2455 sport facilities (12,3 per 10.000 inhabitants), with 4334 indoor and outdoor training spaces (21,7 per 10.000 inhabitants). In the same year, there were 4779 sports clubs with 350.345 members¹⁷.

According to this data approximately 17% of Slovenian population were members of sports clubs. Sport has the highest share of membership among all areas (See Social Cohesion chapter). In the past few years, also jogging is becoming very popular. The number of competitors (participants) in runs and marathons is much higher than some years ago. Many of those persons are not members of any registered sports clubs but train by themselves. Very important activity in Slovenia is also mountaineering, which gather many persons, among whom, many are not members of any mountaineering club.

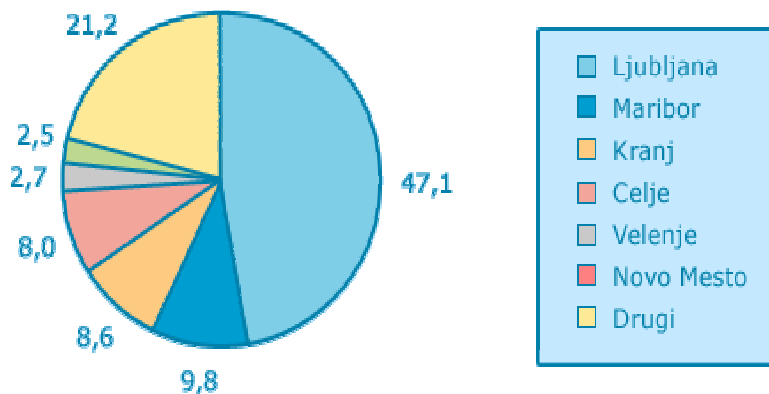
In Slovenia there in the year 2000/2001 there were 0.1 theatres per 10.000 inhabitants (SORS, Statistical Yearbook, 2003). Mostly, they were professional and experimental theatres (14 of 27), 2 were professional youth and children's theatres, 2 were amateur theatres and 9 were independent theatrical companies. The number of theatres did not change much from the beginning of the nineties, except the number of professional and experimental theatres grew from 8 in 1990 to 14 in 2000. Except for the regular visitors, who visit theatres regularly, also those, who cannot afford it or who prefer more alternative performances have the possibility to attend the performances, mostly in summer time. The main reason for this is the fact that in the past ten years, the number of tenders for different theatrical activities grew significantly. This enhanced the possibilities for performers and also for potential attendees.

¹⁶ Source: Official Gazette RS (2001), No. 59/01.

¹⁷ Source: Calculation from the data from: Statistical Yearbook of the Republic of Slovenia 2003. Chapter 8: Culture and Sport.

In 2001 there were 0.4 cinemas per 10.000 inhabitants¹⁸. In the past few years, from 1995 to 2001, the number of cinemas has decreased from 98 in 1995 to 71 in 2001. Although in this time, some big cinema complexes with several halls were built in Slovenia and one could get an impression that there are more cinemas, also the number of seats lowered for 6578 seats and in 2001 there were 113 seats per 10.000 inhabitants.

Figure 2 The shares of Slovenian cinemas by cities in the year 2000



Source: <http://www.kolosej.si/podjetje/kino-trg-obiskovalci-02/kino-trg-obiskovalci-01/#01>, 14.06.2004

Note: The coloured cities are Ljubljana, Maribor, Kranj, Velenje, Novo mesto and others (21,2%).

4.5 Social networks

Social networks are important for Social Inclusion as they can perform important role as a resource, especially for the more vulnerable groups. Social networks can namely compensate or even replace the state offered help (or its lack).

4.5.1 Neighbourhood participation

Neighbourhood ties are not so important anymore in Slovenia, as they were. Namely, the share of neighbours in social support networks has diminished from 1987 to 2002. For example the share of neighbours offering emotional support has been 10% in 1987, and it has dropped to 3% in 2002.

4.5.2 Friendships

Friends are becoming an increasingly important resource in the post-modern times. The majority of people spend time with friends every week (57,7%) or at least once, twice a month (25,7%). Only a small proportion spends it less often (14% few times a year, 2,6% not at all) (EVS, 1999/2000).

¹⁸ Source: Calculation from the data from: Statistical Yearbook of the Republic of Slovenia 2003. Chapter 8: Culture and Sport.

4.5.3 Family life

According to Human development report (2000/2001) the share of people that feel lonely or isolated is very low in Slovenia. Slovenia is ranked 3rd in the world (the data from the world values survey 1992). According to this survey only 10,5% said that they feel lonely (WVS, 1992). This indicates that people are well included in social networks.

We have already described the support networks in the chapter on Social Cohesion. Let us here only recapitulate some main points, relevant for Social Inclusion. Family is still the most important part of a person's social network.

Family members are very important and predominant actors in giving individuals emotional support (In times of need for emotional support most important is partner - 31,5%) and support in times of illness (most important is again the partner - 33,9%, than children - 18,1% and parents - 15%). They are also important in giving material support. Especially important is support of the family for single parents, in addition, older households and also those with low income depend largely on the family support. (Ferligoj, Kogovsek, 2003; Dremelj, 2003).

4.6 Trends and Reflection

Social Inclusion defines the integration of people in relations that constitute every day life. The Social Quality perspective is inclined to the inclusion of the as high a share of people as possible, so that as many as possible would have the means and resources to achieve self-realisation. However there are several groups that are more vulnerable in this respect. Trbanc (1996) stated, that characteristic of those at higher risk of exclusion in various fields at once are lower educated, those that live in smaller, less populated geographical areas, older people, unemployed and farmers.

As probably goes for other countries, the citizenship rights are very important for inclusion or gaining access to several other state systems and are limited to those with Slovene nationality. Foreigners are therefore often excluded or have limited rights. With the accession to the European Union these rights have in some cases been broadened also to citizens of other countries that form the European Union. An example of this can be found in the field of housing, as only those with Slovene nationality (and citizens of other EU countries) can compete for social housing.

In some cases also foreigners have access to systems, like for example those with permanent residence permit have a right to national pension. Also highly inclusive is the right to free legal aid, which is not available only to those with Slovene citizenship, but also to aliens (either with permanent or temporary residence, and also in some other cases).

As the shares of unemployment and long-term unemployment are lower than the EU average, this indicated relatively high inclusion in the labour market. However, there are groups with higher risks of

unemployment, like for example ethnic minority groups, especially the Roma population. These groups need special inclusion measures. One of good practices in inclusion measures for specific groups could be stated the legislation, that directs the municipality with higher share of Roma people, that there must be a Roma representative in the local authorities.

The importance of social support networks is important especially because of the transition, where many systems and state offered help has been transferred to private domain, either to voluntary institutions, or market-offered services. The latter can be hardly accessible to individuals with lower income, which makes voluntary sector and personal networks even more important.

Inclusion in private networks in Slovenia is high, which is also reflected in the low share of those that feel isolated or lonely. The predominant is the importance of family networks, but also friends have an increasingly important share in the personal support networks. The support networks are very important for some vulnerable groups. This is especially the case for example for older people, where good support network can prolong staying at home and being independent instead of going to an institution.

5 Social Empowerment

5.1 Introduction

In the Social Quality quadrant, Social Empowerment is defined as "*degree to which the personal capabilities are and ability of people to act is enhanced by social relations*". This means that the relationship between the individual and the social side of Empowerment is somewhat circular, each depending on the development of the other (Herrmann, 2004: 6). Looking on the chosen indicators, it is clear that the focus of Social Empowerment, at this stage, is focussed more on the "top-down" Empowerment (to enable) than on the "bottom-up" processes of Empowerment.

In this chapter, Slovenian context regarding the chosen indicators of Social Empowerment is presented.

Table 18 Indicators of Social Empowerment

Domains	Sub-domains	Indicators	
Knowledge base	Application of knowledge	72. Extent to which social mobility is knowledge-based (formal qualifications)	
		73. Per cent of population literate and numerate	
	Availability of information	74. Availability of free media	
		75. Access to internet	
		76. Provision of information in multiple languages on social services	
Labour market	User friendliness of information	77. Availability of free advocacy, advice and guidance centres	
		78. % Of labour force that is member of a trade union (differentiated to public and private employees)	
	Control over employment contract	79. % Of labour force covered by a collective agreement (differentiated by public and private employees)	
		80. % Of employed labour force receiving work based training	
	Prospects of job mobility	81. % Of labour force availing of publicly provided training (not only skills based). (Please outline costs of such training if any)	
		82. % Of labour force participating in any "back to work scheme"	
		83. % Of organisations operating work life balance policies.	
Openness and supportiveness of institutions	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)	
	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)	
Public space	Openness of organisations	87. % of organisations/ institutions with work councils	
		88. % Of the national & local public budget that is reserved for voluntary, not-for-profit citizenship initiatives	
	Support for collective action	89. Marches and demonstrations banned in the past 12 months as proportion of total marched and demonstrations (held and banned).	
		Cultural enrichment	90. Proportion of local and national budget allocated to all cultural activities
			91. Number of self-organised cultural groups and events
Personal relationships	Provision of services supporting physical and social independence	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.

5.2 Knowledge base

5.2.1 Availability of information

The research Adult Literacy and Participation in Education of the Slovene Institute for Adult Education show, that from 65 to more than 70% of adult population (from 16 to 65 years of age) in Slovenia do not attain literacy level 3, which is indispensable for equal participation in modern society. According to these outcomes Slovenia was ranked at the tail end of countries participating in the research¹⁹. As far as this indicator is concerned, Slovenia has poor availability of information, not because of unavailability of information but because of the incapability of many people to understand and use it. The participation of young persons in last years was about 80%. Consequences of a relatively huge dropout of young persons from secondary schools are reflected on the labour market as well as in educational system itself. On the one hand, the dropouts increase the range of poorly educated labour force and on the other; they fulfil placements in adult education programmes. Poor educational structure of elderly persons (employed and unemployed) is one of the factors of a modest participation of adults in education and training in Slovenia as the lower is the level of achieved formal education, the lower is possibility that a person will participate in education and training later in life.

The media situation in Slovenia is, according to Hrvatin and Kucic (2004), rather specific. After almost 15 years of market economy and completed privatisation process, many media companies are still directly or indirectly owned by the state. Media legislation is thorough and restrictive but media concentration is high and regulatory bodies do not have the political support or the autonomy necessary to implement it (2004: 464). Data on ownership are easily accessible but change rapidly, and Hrvatin and Kucic (*ibid.*) believe that this fact makes the media landscape difficult to map and interpret. At first glance daily newspapers in Slovenia appear to be characterised by relatively dispersed ownership. The closer inspection shows that there are few persons, related through capital and management functions – the owners of one newspaper are the supervisory boards of other newspapers (Hrvatin, Kucic, 2004: 489). The analysis showed that the situation in Slovenia eludes the classical definition because the absence of formal links (*ibid.*). Also serious is the situation in the broadcast sector. There are 83 radio stations and 37 television stations with broadcast license, which is a lot concerning the size of Slovenia and not all can survive the competition.

On the other side, there is a belief that the media in Slovenia are reliable source of information. The trust in media is, according to the opinion polls, relatively high in comparison with other European countries and also high in comparison with the trust in other institutions in Slovenia (See Social Cohesion Chapter). In fact in spite of the survey of Hrvatin and Kucic, there is a prevailing opinion that media is free in Slovenia. Mostly people compare the situation with Italy and UK, where the owner structure is publicly known and debated, which easily leads to conclusion that the situation of the media concentration is characteristic only for those countries.

¹⁹ Slovene Institute for Adult Education. Accessible on: <http://siae.acs.si/projects/001/>.

Apart of the availability of knowledge and information in formalised ways and by public media, Internet is also playing a very important role in getting new knowledge nowadays. The comparison between Slovenia and EU for the end of the year 2002 shows that share of general Internet in population over 15 years old consists of 45% in Slovenia and 53% in EU. For measuring was used specific definition of Internet usage, which originates from detailed questioning about use of Internet on different locations. This definition is different than those of Eurostat, RIS and SIBIS. In Slovenia is intensity of Internet use smaller, because of smaller number of daily users (28% in Slovenia and 44% in EU). In Slovenia there are superior shares about general questions of Internet use (search for information, education, etc), but about concrete use the shares are much smaller. That's why is probably also a big difference about question from public places (Si 30%: EU 13%), which is gone by concrete locations, for example cyber café (Si 6%: EU 9%). Above average is also reach of general contact with public administration (Si 62%: EU 52%), but there is a large lag about advance applications: use of on-line blanks (Si 16%: EU 29%). Among Slovenian Internet users is low use of e-banking (Si 21%: EU 33%) and e-commerce (Si 21%: EU 39%). Surprisingly low are also obstacles for e-commerce. Also this survey proves that users in Slovenia relatively frequent access to Internet from job (Si 47%: EU 43%) and from school (Si 29%: EU 19%), rarely from home (Si 60%: EU 71%). About mode of access there are no larger differences about modem access (70% both). Slovenia step out about ISDN (Si 24%: EU 18%) and cable (Si 12%: EU 9%) and is behind about ADSL (Si 4%: EU 13%). In Slovenia are large security problems viruses (Si 39%: EU 27%) and spam (Si 45%: EU 40%). Slovenia has also larger use of access to Internet with mobile phone than in EU²⁰.

5.2.2 User friendliness of information

Regarding the user friendliness of information at this moment no quantitative data is available about provision of information in multiple languages on social services. Overall, the State Portal of the Republic of Slovenia is also made in English (partly finished), and Italian and Hungarian, since those are the two ethnic minorities in Slovenia. However, at the moment no written information about the social services is available in these languages at the Centres of Social Work. It seems that those persons, who do not speak Slovene, have to find information about Social Services in person – in the Centres of Social Work etc. At present the most useful would be information in other languages of the former Yugoslavia, since most persons that would acquire those information come from former Yugoslavian republics.

Also, the web page of the Ministry of Labour, Family and Social Affairs is only available in Slovene language. Ministry of Interior has all legislation translated in English language, which is useful for foreign citizens – although, as previously mentioned, mostly they come from former Yugoslav republics and do not speak English.

²⁰ Source: <http://www.sisplet.org/engris/content.php?pid=56&id=103>. Accessible on: 20.06.2004.

NGOs provide info for their users and they also offer the free advocacy and guidance for those persons. One NGO – Legal Information Centre for NGOs Slovenia offers information in all kinds for persons in need. Information and assistance is not free, only in cases of the persons entitled to the social services or persons, for whom other co-operant NGO provide some reference.

5.3 Labour market

5.3.1 Control over employment contract

For Slovenia a highly centralised bargaining system is characteristic. The structure of collective agreement is as follows: two general collective agreements (for private and public sector); branch collective agreements; company collective agreements. Two general collective agreements are the result of the dialogue at the national level conducted by the main trade union confederations, the national employers associations and the government for the public sector. As in many other countries, also in Slovenia there is a tripartite agreement between the government, trade unions and employers. In the 1994 the Economic and Social Council was established, which is at present made of 15 members – five from the government, five from the trade unions and five from the employers.

The branch/sector agreements are negotiated by branch trade union organisations and corresponding employers' associations. With the exception of company collective agreements all others are valid under the condition of registration at the Ministry of Labour, Family and Social affairs. The collective bargaining system in Slovenia includes almost all of the total labour force, at least with the lowest standards defined in the general agreements. This is due to the role of the Chamber of Commerce (as the substitution for employers association) in the bargaining system. Being obligatory members of the Chamber, Slovenian companies are obliged to respect the agreements signed by the Chamber (Stanojevic, 2003).

60% of active population was member of trade unions in 1994. The number has dropped in 1998 to 42,8%, and remained at this level also in 2000 (when the share was 41,3%). At the end of 90s the number of branch syndicates has risen. The syndical situation in Slovenia is divided; on one hand membership is concentrated in one syndicate (ZSSS) (more than 50% of all union members) and a fragmentation of membership in a large number of branch syndicates. All together there are six syndicates, four of them were formed at the beginning of the nineties, the last two were formed almost ten years later. Apart of that, there are also 17 autonomous professional and sector trade unions, most of them concentrated in the public service sector of the economy. On the employer side there are four employers organisations in Slovenia. The most influential is the Slovenian Chamber of Commerce, which consists of 26 branch and 13 territorial organisations including about 50.000 firms (Stanojevic, 2000; Stanojevic in Omerzu 1994; in Stanojevic, 2001; Stanojevic, 2003).

5.3.2 Prospects of job mobility

Data from the Cranet research, which was done in 2001, show that 71,1% organisations have defined and formalised human resource development policy, in 23,9% organisations this policy is defined but not formalised. In 4,5% organisations there is no training and human resource development policy (Kopac, Trbanc, 2004: 210). The authors state that in the EU (15 countries) proportion of organisations with defined and formalised human resource development policy is 68,6% and in the transition countries this proportion is even lower, 55,3%.

According to the data of the Statistical Office for the year 2000 (SORS, Statistical Yearbook, 2003) 67% of all enterprises and other organisations provide training for their employees. 14% of them also carry out trainings. Yet, only 34% of all employed persons in those enterprises and other organisations participate in continuing vocational training courses. In two sectors, the proportion of enterprises and other organisations that provide training for the employees is lower than a half – agriculture, hunting, forestry and construction.

Publicly provided training is ensured for the unemployed by Employment service of Slovenia. The Employment service of Slovenia carries out different educational and training programmes for the unemployed since 1991. In 2002 the Active employment policy was adopted. In 2003 27.025 people were newly included in the programmes for education and training, at that: 37% in programmes for help to achieve professional goal and search for employment; 17,5% in programmes of improvement and training; 0,7% in project learning for young adults; 6,1% in clubs for the search for employment; 9,6% work test by the employer; 27% in »programme 10.000« (for the achievement of formal education); 1,7% in programme of work training without employment contract; 0,5% in programme of conclusion of employment contract with training.

In this programmes the number of included unemployed represented 26,4% of the average registered number of unemployed in that year. The programmes are targeted; a particular group are young unemployed, those with lower education and those in need of requalification.

5.3.3 Reconciliation of work and family life

Currently, in Slovenia there are not many data about how work and life balance measures are balanced in the organisations. This issue has lately become a research topic but it seems that it is not a very important topic in the organisations. One of the important issue concerns gender questions in relation with the work and life balance policies. Slovenia is one of the countries in Europe with the lowest fertility rate and some policies are being adopted in order to ease the situation with raising children. The Parenthood and Family Incomes Act (2001) regulate the parental leave. It is a right of absence from work for purpose of giving birth and nursing and caring for baby. There are four types of parental leave: maternity leave, paternity leave, leave for nursing and caring by baby and adoption leave. All are financed by the state social security system. Maternity leave (105 working days) is

financially covered by the state. Paternity leave is non-transferable father's right (90 days). 15 days have to be used during the maternity leave and a father has a right for 100% replacement rate and other 75 days have to be used until the child is 8 years old (the state covers social security contributions based on minimal wage). If only this is taken into account, Slovenia has really an advanced parenthood system.

On the other hand, considering women and their employment the concrete everyday experience of many – especially younger – women is they are one of the groups, which are most often employed for definite period of time. If they have a baby and go to the maternity leave, their employment positions are not on hold, waiting for them. Therefore in the case of employment for definite time, if they choose to have a baby, they face unemployment once they end maternity leave. The other issue, which was addressed by some trade unions, is that many women got lower paid jobs or lower positions when they come back from maternity leave. By the end of year 2004, a research will be done about this problem. All this indicates that the state is prepared for solving this particular issue but that maybe not all the possibilities are being used for solving it and that not all the potential risk factors are being considered in solving the issue.

The proportion of eligible men who took parental leave has been during several past years around 1% but now it is expected that fathers will use new paid paternal leave. According to the data of the Governmental Office for Equal Opportunities in February 2003 more than 90% of eligible fathers used this right (Kanjuo Mrcela, Cernigoj Sadar, 2004). In average they took 8 days. This result is a direct consequence of the appropriate policy measures.

5.4 Openness (supportiveness) of systems and institutions

From the time Slovenia became independent, there has been 7 referenda. Apart from those, which were also held in many other countries – EU accession and NATO, referenda were also used in some cases, where no wider public agreement could not be reached on (for some groups) important issues: whether the railway should be privatised, should the shops be opened on Sundays, etc. Unfortunately, also some questionable referenda about basic human rights were held – whether so called “the erased”²¹ should be re-given their permanent residence and papers back. In 2004 the Constitutional Court decided that the referendum initiative about the mosque construction is not in line with Slovenian constitution.

²¹ Approximately, 18.000 people were erased from all registers in Slovenia after independence. Mostly, those were people from ex-Yugoslav republics, living in Slovenia, some were even born in Slovenia. Their ID's were taken from them and often they were harassed by the police since they didn't have any documents.

5.5 Public space

5.5.1 Support for collective action

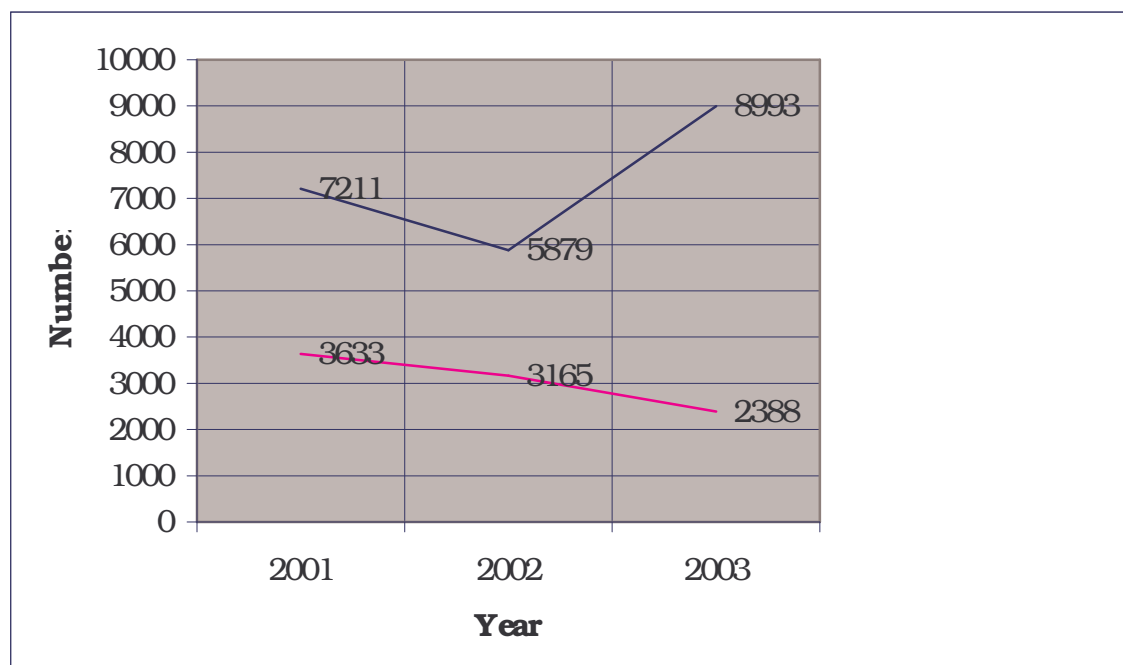
An important indicator of the availability of public space is the share of budgets, allocated to the voluntary and not-for-profit initiatives. In Slovenia, in the past few years, the funds raised. From 1999 to 2003, the funds almost doubled. However, it stayed below 1% through all the years. Although Slovenia theoretically and in the political national documents acknowledges the role of citizen initiatives and non-profit organisations this is not reflected in the financial support designed for these initiatives.

Table 19 Transfers from state budget for non-profit organisations and institutions

	Total national budget outgoings (mio SIT)	Amount for non-profit organisations (mio SIT)	Share of the budget (%)
1999	962.699,7	5.955	0.62
2000	1.028.944,6	6.202	0.60
2001	1.194.151,1	7.586	0.64
2002	1.311.747,9	9.908	0.76
2003	1.464.458,0	10.508	0.72

Source: Ministry of Finance, Bilten javnih financ 7-8/2004.

Figure 3 Public gatherings



Blue line – announced gatherings, events

Pink line – gatherings, events with official permits

From the year 2002, when 5879 events were declared, to 2003, when 8993 events were declared, the number of declared events raised for 53%. Also the number of public gatherings was increased from 65 in 2002 to 71 in 2003. The reason for lower number of officially permitted gatherings and events from 2001 to 2003 comes from the fact that the legislation on public gatherings changed. Although the number of officially permitted and announced public gatherings differs significantly, the police forces are instructed and usually do not act violently towards people gathered.

5.5.2 Cultural enrichment

The proportion of national budget allocated to cultural activities between 1999 and 2003 stayed between 2% and 2.5% of the national budget.

Table 20 Proportion of national budget allocated to all cultural activities

	Total national budget outgoings (mio SIT)	Cultural activities (mio SIT)	Share of the budget (%)
1999	962.699,7	22.539	2.34
2000	1.028.944,6	24.857	2.42
2001	1.194.151,1	28.495	2.39
2002	1.311.747,9	30.619	2.33
2003	1.464.458,0	32.938	2.25

Source: Ministry of Finance, E-mail communication: 5.10.2004.

5.6 Personal relationships

5.6.1 Provision of services supporting physical and social independence

Data of the Ministry of Finance shows that the amount of funds for the physically disabled persons between 1999-2003 was raising and also the share of the national budget outgoings rose in these years. As far as this social category is concerned, it could be said that Slovenia acknowledges that by financing, the ability to act of physically disabled persons is enhanced.

Table 21 Proportion of national budget allocated to physically disabled

	Total national budget outgoings (mio SIT)	Physically disabled (mio SIT)	Share of the budget (%)
1999	962.699,7	3.906	0.41
2000	1.028.944,6	4.881	0.47
2001	1.194.151,1	5.833	0.49
2002	1.311.747,9	6.004	0.46
2003	1.464.458,0	6.858	0.47

Source: Ministry of Finance, E-mail communication: 5.10.2004.

5.6.2 Personal support services

The share of children in the kindergartens are 42% in public kindergartens and 0.5% in private kindergartens for those, who are 1 to 3 years old. This proportion is higher for children from 4 to 6 years of age: 64,2% of them are in the public kindergartens and 0.7% in the private kindergartens. Parents' fees depend on the income per family member, family property and on the costs of the programme. Parents' participation is from 10% to 80% of fee.

Table 22 Kindergartens

	Institutions	Class units	Children	
			Total	Girls
1995/96	793	3.500	66.553	31.559
1996/97	800	3.509	65.332	31.161
1997/98	793	3.468	62.662	29.912
1998/99	802	3.455	62.848	29.226
1999/00	808	3.523	64.151	30.639
2000/01	814	3.531	63.328	30.350
2001/02	801	3.477	61.803	29.293

Source: SORS, Statistical yearbook 2003.

Table 23 Pre-school preparation

	1998/99	1999/00	2000/01	2001/02
Children involved in	22.987	20.997	16.899	14.046
Whole-year programmes	18.677	17.282	14.101	11.861
Part-time programmes	4.310	3.695	2.798	2.185

Source: SORS, Statistical yearbook 2003.

5.6.3 Support for social interaction

Personal relationships are one of important factors of social capital. At the same time, one of important aspects of social capital is how housing and environment supports social interactions. Inclusiveness or exclusiveness affects the development of social capital. Dragos and Leskosek (2003) show on the case of Ljubljana that due to the restructuring of the local communities, many community spaces were sold to commercial users. One of the consequences was, that inhabitants of the local communities are less informed about what is going on in their immediate environment and they are not informed about events. We can assume, that the similar process happened also in other local communities. In the past, local community spaces were very important places of meetings, exchanging information and of activities. At the present times many it depends on the local communities themselves if they recognize the importance of community spaces.

5.7 Trends and Reflection

For the purpose of operationalisation, the concept of Empowerment should be further developed to become more focused and empirically observable. The starting point for this is the original, core meaning of 'power'. Power is relational and context dependent; it does not exist per se, but always implies power of an actor relative to another, and with respect to particular aim. Power is the power of somebody to do (or not do) something. Thus, power can be understood and observed only in its social context. Social Empowerment implies an increase in power. Empowerment is a normative concept, denoting that such an increase of somebody's power to do something is desired, intended and, most specifically, proclaimed as a public policy objective; furthermore, this intention (objective) is manifested in particular provisions (agencies, facilities, arrangements, resources or policy instruments).

There are a number of specific social contexts (or policy areas, domains) that are particularly relevant for post-modern societies. Each is characterised by a specific group, recognised as a weaker party that should gain more power in relation to another specific party, and in a specific respect. In such a context (possible domain) Empowerment is manifested in specific arrangements and resources (indicators of Empowerment).

For observing social developments in so-called 'transitional countries' 5 contexts (domains) are specifically significant and may be the major bias between old EU members and newcomers: Provision of goods and services. In this context, Empowerment generally implies an increase in the power of users relative to providers. It is manifested in institutions of consumer protection, inspection, and market regulation. Also it is manifested in institutional arrangements of user participation (forums for user (or representative or advocates) participation, complaint procedures).

Public administration, state apparatus. In this context, Empowerment implies that citizens gain more power in relation to public authorities and administration. It is manifested in: Existence of ombudsman; availability of advice; complaint and appeal procedures; working principles of the authorities. Efficiency of court of justice (average waiting period for procedures in civil legal suits); availability of (free) legal advice and advocacy; institutions of mediation.

Participatory democracy: In this context, Empowerment implies that citizens, groups and NGO's gain more power in public policy shaping, monitoring and evaluation. It is manifested in existence of citizens' juries, specific types of policy networks (policy communities), institutionalised forms of social dialogue, fora of civil engagement and discussion, institutional support for groups' activities.

Local democracy and community. In this context, Empowerment implies that citizens, groups and NGO's gain more power in local policy and community structures. It is manifested in representation, support (resourcing) of community groups, availability of community centres, community development programmes (agencies), and tenant organisations.

Vulnerable groups, groups with specific deficits in resources, capabilities (ethnic minorities, handicapped people, old people, youth, women, etc.). In this context, Empowerment implies a

counter-balance to the specific deficit. It is manifested in availability of specific compensatory resources, including advocacy, representation and advice; legal anti-discriminatory provisions; equal opportunity policy / agency; positive discrimination measures (quotas for women and ethnic minorities in parliamentary election, legal obligation that public institutions must be physically accessible for handicapped people; educational opportunities for handicapped people etc.

In these societies new market and political democracy arrangements have started to develop only recently (during 90's): With an exception of a relatively well developed parliamentary democracy institutions, it is in 'Empowerment' that the major 'democratic deficit' may be expected in comparison to old EU members. There are a number of trends signifying this deficit in Slovenia.

There are inefficient and lacking institutions of consumer protections in some spheres (for instance in housing market), allowing frequent frauds, lack of quality standards etc. In provision of social services, there is a lack of institutional mechanisms participation of users in control of quality of services, lack of complaint procedures, of information and advice. The same is true for parts of public administration and functioning of the state apparatus. In courts of justice, there is a long waiting period and often a legal suit may take a decade to be concluded and the weaker party (illegally fired worker, illegally evicted tenant etc) to get protection by the state. Only in 2002 the free legal help was organised for people with lowest incomes. However, there is an Ombudsman office, active from mid 90's.

Participatory democracy across different public policy areas is weak and, according to survey (Fink Hafner, 1998) policy networks varied, with uneven representation of parties, and often of elitist type. There are few institutional fora for public discussion; no arrangements were established to compensate for the self-managing democratic civic engagements of the interest communities, abolished in the early 90's.

Local democracy is relatively weak and backed up with very few institutional arrangements and resources. Former institutional structures of 'local communities' were abolished and new are only starting to be developed. Availability of resources (finances, rooms) for community groups is weak, particularly in urban communities.

Vulnerable groups are varied and in a different position. Let us point out only four. Firstly, women are significantly underrepresented in the parliament and constitutional changes are in preparation, to allow quotas in election procedures. Second, handicapped persons are undergoing some 'Empowerment'. Legal provisions, requiring that public institutions provide physical accessibility for handicapped people (on wheel-chairs) were brought only in year 2002; there is a public agency for handicapped persons. The oldest umbrella organisation of handicapped people has retained a very rich financial source, while some new ones have no access to it. Thirdly, the Muslim community in Slovenia still does not get the building site for the only mosque in Slovenia. Fourthly, there is a specific group of so called 'erased persons'; the group consists of 18.000 people (one per cent of the Slovenian population) to whom the authorities cancelled their status of permanent residents in 1991, with many painful

consequences (denied access to education, health provision, employment, housing); according to the latest decision of the Constitutional court, this was un-lawful and the status should be returned.

6 National, regional, or local initiatives on four conditional factors of Social Quality

In this chapter local as national, public as private initiatives in Slovenia, which promote the four conditional factors and Social Quality altogether, will be presented. They are not presented in separate sub-chapters because often a positive initiative influences more than one conditional factor (Social Quality component). Of course, there are more initiatives than could be described here, however the chapter is focused around four important points. Since we are moving to a “knowledge based society”, one focus is on education. Education is important factor of individual’s possibility of getting employment and for his/her possibility to climb the vertical mobility ladder in the society. Also, some programmes for better inclusion of unemployed are presented. The third focus is around gender issues in Slovenia. The final, fourth focus concerns Roma people, which are one of the most excluded groups not only in Slovenia but also in other European countries. For them positive initiatives are especially important in order to be able to have the same level of Social Quality as the rest of the society.

6.1 Educational initiatives

Slovenia has in last decade initiated several alternative educational offers, which contribute to better Social Quality of individuals and various social groups.

Project learning for young adults (PLYA) is a preventive education programme for young adults aged from 15 to 25 years who failed in school, have no vocation, and are unemployed²². The programme’s basic aim is to help these young people to rejoin their peers, develop working and learning habits, and motivate them for learning. While attending the programme, participants learn how to co-operate and support each other, they overcome learning difficulties and articulate explicit vocational aspirations and goals. At the time being, PLYA projects are active in eight Slovenian cities but it is expected that they will gradually be introduced to all larger cities in the country. The programme has been granted financial support by the Ministry of Education, Science and Sport, the National Employment Agency, and by the above-mentioned local municipalities. The evaluation study of the programme in the year 2002 show that the Project Learning for Young Adults has long-term social-integration effects (Dobrovoljc, 2003).

Non-formal education and learning - study circles - have been well known in Slovenia for ten years. The long-term and multi-purpose nature of study circles demonstrate clearly that study circles are a promising form of linking learning with work. Circles bring to institutions, mentors, participants and the local environment a range of contents that formal education does not provide, promoting curiosity, creativity, responsibility and Social Inclusion, which are the basic conditions for education. At the end

²² More can be seen on: <http://siae.acs.si/projects>.

of May 2003, there were 195 circles registered in Slovenia with a total of 2,007 participants in more than fifty different places all over Slovenia (Bogataj, 2003).

In Slovenia there is currently a network of 33 centres for self-directed learning providing adults with the opportunity to participate free of charge in non-formal education in the form of self-directed learning. They all have suitable computer equipment, audio and video appliances, most also providing Internet access; they provide assistance of information staff and counsellors, while participants have access to various programmes for self-directed learning, often using multimedia. The number of participants and the number of hours of self-directed learning are growing each year, along with the growth in the number of learning points and centres. However, a distribution of centres in Slovenia and comparison of data on the number of inhabitants in individual regions show that this activity is far from having equal coverage of all areas of Slovenia (Perme, Oresnik, 2003).

Eight guidance centres for adult education have been operating in Slovenia since 2001. Alongside each guidance centre a local guidance network was formed (<http://isio.acs.si/omrezje/>), comprising various educational and other institutions engaged in a particular local environment in education or any form of guidance activities for adults (Klemencic, 2003). Guidance centres offer adults in their local environment guidance prior to participation in education, during education, and at the end of education. They apply the following basic operating principles: accessibility to all adults, no payment, impartiality and confidentiality of data.

At the Slovenian Institute for Adult Education they have developed different programmes to raise the literacy level of diverse target groups such as Bridge to education programme that is intended for adults enrolling in formal secondary education and renewing reading, writing, arithmetic and computing skills to participate in education more effectively or the family literacy programme Read and write together which is intended for parents with ten or less years of education who would like to refresh their basic skills to be able to help their children in literacy education and learning.

As part of education and training, several different groups of programmes, organised by the Employment Service of Slovenia (ESS) on the basis of their employment plans, were available in 2003.

6.2 Employment initiatives

Programme 5,000-10,000

Programme 5,000-10,000 has been carried out by the ESS, in collaboration with other key institutions, since 1998. This programme is, in compliance with the Act, prepared by the Ministry of Labour, Family and Social Affairs and the Ministry of Education, Science and Sport for each academic year, and it allows unemployed people to acquire publicly accredited education. The programme is adopted by the Slovene government. The programme defines the types of education and the number of places set

aside in individual academic years, the conditions for enrolment and the method of funding. The type and number of vacancies for students are determined on the basis of an assessment of demand for labour and education at the local/regional levels, prepared by ROs in collaboration with local units of the Slovene Chamber of Craft and the Chamber of Commerce.

The programme is primarily intended for the following:

Unemployed people without vocational or professional qualifications, especially young people under the age of 26;

People over 40 who have not completed their vocational or professional training, primarily to allow them to acquire national vocational certificates;

Unemployed people with vocational or professional qualifications who are unable to acquire employment in their profession and have been registered with the ESS for more than six months.

The programme's objectives are:

to increase the employability of unemployed people;

to raise education and qualifications levels;

to reduce the structural occupational discrepancies.

Job clubs

Job clubs, in existence since 1995, are a more permanent form of training for unemployed that help them to find successful employment. A course lasts three months: the first weeks are set aside for training on how and where to seek employment opportunities. For the remainder of the course the participants, who are assisted and supported by a trained job club leader and other club members, look for jobs on a systematic basis. Participants are also provided with access to all available technology and communications when job seeking (computers with internet access, telephones, daily and professional printed media, etc.). In 2003 the programme was carried out by providers selected by means of a public tender.

In the field of employment, several measures are envisaged in the National Action plan for Social Inclusion (2004-2006) in accordance with EU recommendations: project learning for younger adults, programme of education and acquisition of national vocational qualifications (programme 10 000), exemption from payment of employer contributions on employing a unemployed person over 55 years old, exemption from paying tax on wages and reimbursement of employer contributions on the employment of an unemployed person with 4-year university level education, etc. These are all important initiatives in the Social Quality perspective.

6.3 Gender issues²³

Office for Equal Opportunities

Slovenia has been among the first EU accession countries that have been paying great attention to gender and women's policies. In June 1992, the Government of the Republic of Slovenia founded the Women's Policy Office as a self-standing government body, a professional service responsible for the realisation of the rights of women guaranteed by the constitution, legislation and international treaties. In 2001, the Office was renamed the *Office for Equal Opportunities* and as such continues to perform all the former tasks committed to integrating the principle of gender equality into government policy and to eliminating inequality in all areas of life.

Advocate for Equal Opportunities

Under the new Act on Equal Opportunities of Women and Men, adopted in June 2002, a separated body of an *Advocate for Equal Opportunities*, employed at the Office for Equal Opportunities, is going to be established (in July 2003). According to the law the tasks of the Advocate are investigation and advising in the case of unequal treatment and discrimination on the grounds of gender. The Advocate issues a written opinion with findings and assessments of the circumstances of the case.

Co-ordinators for Equal Opportunities

According to the Act on Equal Opportunities of Women and Men, every ministry appoints an official which performs the duties of co-ordinator for equal opportunities for women and men. The co-ordinator is responsible for the implementation of duties deriving from the law, within competence of the ministry and works together with the Office for Equal Opportunities.

Employment Relationships Act

The constitutional principle of equality between men and women is supported by specific anti-discrimination acts included in Slovene legislation. The Employment Relationships Act contains provisions on prohibition of direct and indirect discrimination on the grounds of sex in job-seeking, employment, promotion, vocational training and pre-qualification. Moreover, the article on equal pay for the same work or work of the same value for men and women is included in the Act. Under this law equal opportunities and equal treatment in employment, promotion, training, wages and other incomes, absence from work, working conditions, working hours and cancelling employment, have to be assured to women and men.

The novelty in the Act is the article dealing with sexual harassment. According to the Act employers are bound to provide a working environment in which no worker will be exposed to any undesired treatment of a sexual nature, including undesired physical, verbal or non-verbal treatment or other behaviour based on gender, which would create intimidating, hostile or humiliating working relations and environments and degrade the dignity of men and women at work, on the part of employers, superiors or co-workers. Rejection of such treatment on the part of an affected worker may not be a reason for discrimination in employment and work.

The Employment Relationships Act devotes particular attention to the protection of pregnancy and parenting. For pregnancy and parenting, workers have the right to special protection in employment,

²³ This section is extracted mostly from the written material of the Office for Equal Opportunities.

and in the event of a dispute in connection with claiming special protection for pregnancy and parenting, the burden of proof lies with the employer. In the same way, employers must make it possible for workers to co-ordinate more easily their family and occupational duties.

In the case of a dispute connected with any form of discrimination based on gender prohibited by the Employment Relationships Act, the burden of proof lies with the employer.

Parental Care and Family Benefits Act

The *Parental Care and Family Benefits Act*, which was adopted in the National Assembly in November 2001 and was applied from 1 January 2002, governs an area which was previously regulated in two laws, the Employment Act and the Family Benefits Act. The *Parental Care and Family Benefits Act* regulates two groups of rights: insurance for parental care and the rights deriving from this, and family benefits. The novelty in the Act is the introduction of 90 days non-transferable paternity leave in order to encourage parents towards greater sharing of parental leave and fathers to take paternity leave.

In order to encourage parents towards greater sharing of parental leave and fathers to take paternity leave, the Office for Equal Opportunities, under the Phare Twinning project, drew up an action plan to promote it. The plan contains activities for greater supply with information, promotion and awareness raising, with the aim of familiarising all the target groups with the rights and possibilities of taking parental leave, and changing the traditional patterns of family behaviour. These activities involve primarily 1) disseminating information over the Internet, 2) posters, flyers, postcards and letters to parents of new-born infants who will encourage a positive view of greater sharing of leave, free telephone advice in connection with taking parental leave, and a competition entitled »Family-friendly company«, intended to encourage employers to create the kind of corporate organisational culture that will favour the harmonisation of professional and private life and promote gender equality.

Act on Equal Opportunities for Women and Men

EU legislation and practice on equal opportunities stimulated a formulation and adoption of the special law for ensuring and promoting equal treatment and equal opportunities for men and women in Slovenia. In June 2002 the Parliament adopted the *Act on Equal Opportunities for Women and Men*, set up by the Office for Equal Opportunities, which improves and amends existing legal instruments dealing with gender equality and equal opportunities of men and women in the Republic of Slovenia. Moreover, it introduces new legal instruments and strategies in those areas that have not been harmonised with recent international documents. The Law is set as an umbrella law, arranging common grounds for the improvement of women's situation and for the establishment of equality of men and women in political, economic, social, educational and any other sphere of public life. The law contains guidelines and recommendations for their fulfilment in practice, and defines the responsibility for implementing, monitoring, assessing, planning and reporting on measures in individual areas defined in the act. The law observes the model of those laws of the EU member states which are progressively oriented and open to further development of policies in this area. This means that it provides primarily a basic framework and sets up a system in which those bearing individual responsibility will continuously include the aspect of gender equality in the planning, formulation,

implementation, monitoring and assessment of their policies. The purpose of the act is to establish a general legal basis for the adoption of various measures aimed at promoting actual gender equality, and at creating equal opportunities for women and men, to formulate a national policy in this area and to establish a special procedure for resolving individual violations of the principle of equal treatment of the sexes.

The act also introduces special measures that permit differing treatment of women and men, but only in cases where such differentiation is founded on legitimate aims and the measures for achieving these aims are determined rationally and relative to the objectively established difference between women and men. It therefore permits the implementation of special measures only in the event of the aim being the achievement of gender equality and when there are reasonable and justifiable reasons for their implementation. Special measures are divided into two sub-categories, positive and simulative. Positive measures are those that while fulfilling equal conditions and criteria, give priority to persons of the sex which in a specific field is less well represented or is in a less favourable position. Since positive measures may pose a risk and there exists the possibility of abuse, the method of their adoption is also defined. Given that these measures are most commonly taken on the labour market and in education, the proposed act specifically provides that in the event of employers taking positive measures, they must necessarily ensure the co-operation of the trade union, while if such measures are taken by education providers, they must obtain the opinion of the competent professional council. Otherwise, positive measures are taken by a method set out in the internal acts of the subjects taking them. An opinion on the harmony of the positive measure with the proposed act will also be given by the advocate for equal opportunities for women and men. According to the law, the Office for equal opportunities will employ the advocate for equal opportunities whose tasks will be offering the official procedure and legal services in the cases of alleged unequal treatment.

Each ministry has to appoint the co-ordinator for gender equality issues and will have to prepare the report on activities every second year. According to the law the National Program on Equal Opportunities policy has to be adopted. The main areas for active gender equality measures will be labour market, education and training. The Law also introduces a special strategy for achieving gender equality, integrating the principle of gender equality into all policies, gender mainstreaming. Responsibility for gender mainstreaming is carried by the government, ministries and local communities, while the Equal Opportunities Office is charged with providing professional support in developing appropriate methods and systems.

Labour market

Compared to the EU countries Slovenia has a very high employment among women. Female employment rate (age 15-64) in Slovenia 58,9% is above the average in the EU, 54,9% (data for 2001). Female unemployment rate does not significantly differ from male, but the gap is widening in the last years. Additional problems concerning equality of men and women in the labour market are persistent occupational segregation and the pay gap. Despite the fact that women are on average 4,6% more educated than men (measured by the average school years of employed people), women

are facing hidden and open discrimination that is the main root of vertical and horizontal segregation and the gender pay difference.

Inequalities between men and women are therefore persistent in the Slovenian labour market. Negotiations with the EU and harmonisation of Slovenian legislation with the *acquis* brought the changes concerning equal treatment in the area of the employment. The Employment Relationships Act and Parental Care and Family Benefits Act were amended and adopted in consistence with the EU directives. In this way Slovenia harmonised its law with directives 75/117/EEC on ensuring equal pay for women and men doing equal work or work of equal value; 76/207/EEC on fulfilling the principle of equal treatment of women and men in access to employment, professional education and promotion and working conditions; 92/85/EEC on implementing measures for securing improvements in occupational safety and health for pregnant workers and for workers who have recently given birth or who are breast-feeding; 97/80/EC on reverse burden of proof; and 96/34/EC on parental leave. Together with the adoption of the Act on Equal Opportunities for Women and Men in June 2002, this means that in the area of equal treatment of women and men Slovenia is entirely harmonised with the European Union *acquis*. Now the main task is the implementation of legislation in practice.

Besides legislation, the Government of Slovenia in co-operation with DG for Employment and Social Affairs, prepared a Joint Assessment of Slovenia's Medium-Term Employment and Labour Market Policy Priorities. According to this document Slovenia obliged itself that it will be preparing the active employment policy programmes in such way that it will include the principle of equal opportunities and gender mainstreaming.

The Government also adopted the guidelines of the Active Employment Policy (AEP) for the years 2002 and 2003, including gender mainstreaming approach (inclusion of women in AEP programs and encouragement of women's entrepreneurship) and tackling gender gaps (with legislation on equal opportunities and development of new vocations for women). Ministry of Labour, Family and Social Affairs will within the program Development of New Programmes publicly offer new programs for women, especially stimulating the development of new forms and methods of work (e.g. part-time work, the mediation of work, flexible forms of work).

Statistics disaggregated by gender and gender based research of the labour market is important for the development of further strategies and activities for tackling gender inequalities and discrimination on the labour market. Under the EU Phare program the project Building Up the Labour Market Indicators in Slovenia is running at the Ministry of Labour, Family and Social Affairs together with the Danish consultants. The central objective of the project is to generate labour market indicators necessary to produce National Employment Strategies and National Employment Action Plans. Another objective is to support the monitoring of the Slovenian labour market - with the aim of improving the planning, implementation and evaluation of active labour market policies. The working group is studying also the document of Eurostat working group on wages and labour cost statistics on gender pay gap.

The gender equality issues are also partly addressed in the National action plan on Social Inclusion (2004-2006). The employment gender gap is recognised in NAPIncl, but, according to Leskosek (2004) it is insufficiently targeted when introducing strategy, main objectives and target groups. Since 2000 the employment rate of women dropped and in 2003 it was 57.6% (age group 15-64) (compared to 58,8 in 2000), this indicates a move away from the EU target for 2010 (60%). Furthermore, it is recognised in the NAPIncl that women are paid less for equal work, which is a form of discrimination. But at the same time women are not mentioned in the priority objectives for the period 2004 – 2006, and there are no other plans to reduce gender discrimination further on in the text, apart from the general statement on provision of gender equality. It is also stated in the NAPIncl that special attention will be needed in the future on reducing the gender differences and on preventing the separation into the so-called men's and women's occupations. There are no plans to reach this goal. For example, there is a growing need for the care for the elderly at their homes and in the current situation mostly women are employed as carers. According to the NAP, there should be equal number of men and women employed in such professions. No plans to reach that goal can be found in the text (Leskosek, 2004).

Political and public life²⁴

In formal legal terms, women and men have equal political rights in Slovenia. However, the formal legal equality of men and women in the sphere of political decision making does not ensure their actual equal position in practice. In relation to the share in the total structure of the population in the country, women are under-represented at all levels of political decision-making, in both elected and appointed political bodies, both on a local and on a state level.

The constitutional provisions in relation to the right to vote and be elected are unchanged, but an amendment is in process of debate that refers to efforts towards a better balance of representation of women and men in political life. Article 44 of the Constitution of the Republic of Slovenia determines the right to participation in managing public affairs and, in compliance with this provision; every citizen has the right in accordance with law to participate directly or through elected representatives in the management of public affairs. A group of members of parliament submitted a draft of a constitutional law to the National Assembly on 30.11.2001, by which it proposes an amendment to this act, in such a way that it adds a new second paragraph that will determine that measures may be determined by law for encouraging equal opportunities of men and women in standing as candidates in elections to state bodies and bodies of local communities.

The new Act on Equal Opportunities for Women and Men also contains provisions that relate to the participation of women in political and public life. Article 31 imposes a duty on political parties entered in the register of parties. They must adopt a plan every four years in which they take a position on the issue of balanced representation of women and men and in accordance with the position, determine methods and measures for encouraging a more balanced representation of women and men within

²⁴ Remark: the following text is a part of the 3rd CEDAW Report, Slovenia.

the bodies of the party, on candidate lists for election to the National Assembly and to bodies of local communities and for elections of the President of the Republic. Political parties must submit the plans to the Office for Equal Opportunities, within three months following their adoption. A political party that does not submit a plan is liable to a fine for a violation.

The Act on Equal Opportunities for Women and Men also contains two provisions relating to the representation of women and men in working and other bodies of the National Assembly, the Government and ministries. It determines in Article 10 that the National Assembly, in accordance with actual possibilities, respects to the greatest possible extent the principle of gender balanced representation in forming working bodies and composing delegations that it finds in accordance with its Standing Orders. A similar duty also applies to the Government, which must respect the principle of gender balanced representation in the composition of consultative and co-ordination bodies, other working bodies and delegations that it finds under the Government of the Republic of Slovenia Act and under its own Standing Orders, as well as in appointing or nominating government representatives in state-owned enterprises and other public bodies, unless this is not possible for objective reasons (Article 14). This duty also binds ministers in the composition of expert councils.

Within the framework of efforts for greater representation of women in political and public life, a civil society initiative, the Coalition for Establishing a Balanced Representation of Women and Men in Public Life, has emerged, which unites individuals from non-governmental and governmental organisations, parliamentary and non-parliamentary political parties and women's groups in political parties, trade unions, other forms of organised civil society, public and private institutions and foundations. The main aim of the Coalition is encouraging and establishing balanced representation of women and men in public life, mainly by changing electoral legislation and with the introduction of the principle of balanced representation of women and men in all bodies of authority and in other decision-making places. In the opinion of the Coalition, the electoral legislation should determine that there must be an equal share of women and men on all candidate lists at local and national elections (zip system). The first result of the efforts of the coalition is the already mentioned proposed constitutional amendment, which a group of parliamentarians from seven parliamentary parties (75 out of 90 members of the National Assembly) have submitted to parliamentary procedure.

6.4 Roma people

One of the groups that needs special measures as to be able to reach the same quality of life as other groups in the society are the Roma people. In general the Roma population is one of the most marginalized ethnic groups in Slovene society and is facing multiple exclusion, from cultural life of the society, economic (especially the labour market), in the field of housing and other fields.

The Slovene Government has advanced several initiatives, with the priority given to socio-economic improvements, which should also result in reducing both cultural and political exclusion. Therefore,

municipal projects for the improvement of infrastructure of Roma settlements (water, electricity, sewerage, streets etc.) were co-financed by the Ministry of Economic Affairs. Also the legalisation of Roma settlements is an instrument, used by the Government to improve the living conditions of the Roma. In recent years the Ministry of Environment and Spatial Planning has assisted municipalities in the preparation of land-use plans on the professional level and by co-financing site documentation for Roma settlements in certain municipalities. An example of the legislation of the Roma settlement is described below (in a box).

Legalisation of the Sovinek settlement, Municipality of Semic

Nine Roma families live in the Semic municipality, of which only five have houses and the remaining four live in containers. The municipality applied for funds to legalise the settlement and received SIT one million (approximately €4,400) from the Ministry of the Environment for that purpose in 1995. The municipality subsequently allocated land to every family, built a road to the settlement, and provided access to water. In 2002, the municipality applied for Government funds to improve the settlement's infrastructure and connect it to the electricity grid (Open Society Institute 2002).

Additionally, the RS Housing Fund offered, through tenders, loans for programmes intended also for establishing permanent housing for Roma families and at the same time for improving the living conditions of other residents who live in their neighbourhoods. In connection with the responses to the above-mentioned tenders, the Ministry of the Environment states that no applicant made an application for a loan with the given justification. Although there are no data on the reasons for this, we can assume that the Governmental programmes were not satisfactorily promoted among the institutions to which this programme was addressed.

There are also some initiatives that are directed at various fields of exclusion, and not only to housing issues, as mentioned above. A programme directed at improving the living environment of the Roma and their employment status has been carried out in Sentjernež. It is an example of good practice concerning the cooperation between the Roma community, local community (local Employment Service, municipality) and national level (National Employment Service).

Local programme for Roma in Sentjernej

In 2001 the programme "Roma for Roma" was initiated in the Sentjernej municipality. In cooperation with a private company, the local Employment Service organised work for nine Roma in a clean-up and maintenance programme around the Roma neighbourhood. The local official responsible for the programme noted that the poor condition of the neighbourhood had prompted interest in initiating the project. Roma also cleaned garbage in the municipality, built fences, and worked on the sewage system. In 2001, the municipality also spent SIT 2 million (approximately €8,800) to improve the streets in the settlement. The National Employment Service and the municipality shared the material cost of SIT 1 million (approximately €4,400) in 2001.

A municipal official indicated that funding had not been requested to continue the project for a second year, as it was viewed as a failure in the municipality: "Last year's [2001] goals were not achieved – when the project was finished there were again loads of garbage in the settlement. They haven't learned anything" (Open Society Institute, 2002).

The problem with such programmes is that they can turn out not to solve the problem in the long-term perspective. Still, such programs are important initiatives for improving the Social Quality as it is defined in the Social Quality perspective, as they are directed at the inclusion of vulnerable groups, they are trying to improve the Socio-Economic Security of the groups and consequently also promote Social Cohesion in the local community by developing common goals.

In the National action plan on Social Inclusion 2004-2006 (as a document that indicates strategic goals of the state in the improvement of Social Quality) there is a large emphasis on the conditions of the Roma. There are several objectives and measures directed at improvements in the field of employment, in the field of education and also in the field of housing.

Recently, the Strategy for education of Roma was adopted at the Ministry of Education, Science and Sports. It was presented together with the Romany Union. Key measures are: early inclusion in the education system, Roma assistant (to help children with language and with integration), introduction of the Roma language and culture into the primary schools curriculum, education of adult Roma, developing an advice centres and networks, introducing Roma coordinator.

As Leskosek (2004) comments, measures are very concrete and promising because education is most important for the inclusion of Roma in society. Particularly the introduction of the Roma language and culture into the primary schools is important to break with stereotypes and prejudices against the Roma.

Also in the field of employment, there is a the Action Programme for Employment of Roma 2003-2006 with the following objectives: inclusion of young unemployed Roma in primary and vocational schools, inclusion of adult Roma in programmes of subsidised jobs, creation of public works (to help in

learning) to reduce the school drop-out rate, employment of Roma advisers at ZRSZ offices (Leskosek, 2004: 10).

However, in regards to Roma Leskosek (2004) expresses a fear that efforts to solve the problem will be directed towards the expansion of the state administration and not towards the Roma as an excluded group. There are several new posts planned at different state agencies: employment of Roma advisers at ZRSZ offices, Roma assistant (to help children with language and with integration), Roma coordinator, social services will employ nine workers, if possible Roma, social services that deal with the largest numbers of Roma have been ensured the additional full-time employment of a professional worker. A relatively large number of new posts are planned, but it is not known how these employees will divide work between themselves or what powers they will have. There are quite a lot of open questions that need to be answered before the money is used for new posts. It is also high time to start investing money in Roma and brings to an end paternalism that is often hidden behind new posts (Leskosek, 2004: 11).

6.5 Some other issues

In the final section we will present some of the policy measures described in the National action plan for Social Inclusion (2004-2006), as we feel that some of them are important for the promotion of Social Quality in Slovenia and relate to specific areas and fields described in the individual domains of Social Quality.

In the field of housing the priority objectives for the period 2004-2006 therefore are promotion of the provision of non-profit rental apartments, implementation of reformulated rents policy, which would promote investment and construction of new apartments and establishment of a more flexible verification of the capacity for paying rent relative to the specific circumstances of each tenant and introduction of an effective system of rent subsidy, which will enable subsidising of rents up to 80% (currently up to 50%). Especially the last measure is important, as it is most concrete. In the field of social protection there is also a very concrete policy measure envisaged, as one of the objectives is the lessening of the tax burden for the lowest income groups and a higher tax relief for children (by implementing the revised personal income tax, adopted in 2004).

Also regarding discrimination, some measures and programmes are planned. In this field the priority objectives stated in the NAPincl are establishment of a Slovenian Government council for fulfilling the principle of equal treatment, employment of an advocate of the equality principle for dealing with suspected violations of the prohibition on discrimination at the UEM, implementation of the awareness raising campaign as part of the EU anti-discrimination campaign »For adversity- against discrimination«, establishing a network among those that work in the area of preventing discrimination and defining a framework for the fight against discrimination owing to personal circumstances in employment and work. Especially employment of an advocate and the establishment of a council for

fulfilling the principle of equal treatment might be seen as positive incentives, that would promote Social Inclusion of discriminated groups and therefore also enhance the Social Quality.

7 Conclusion

The Social Quality initiative is very important and useful within the European community. This particular project did not offer only comparative study in fourteen countries but has also indirectly contributed to the development of European idea. The National reports are the result of cooperation of fourteen scientific groups coming from countries with different historical and different cultural backgrounds. Thus, also different ideological backgrounds were an important part of the dynamic within the project.

On the other hand it seems that although a lot of work has been done, the idea and Social Quality theory should be further developed since it was very difficult to reach the agreement on some points. Also the four concepts, which form the four conditional factors of Social Quality, are very broad and the problem of overlapping should be further discussed. It is possible to have similar domains, sub-domains and indicators within different conditional factors but it should be clear which aspects of the conditional factors they explain. It would be a project in itself to discuss methodological issues concerning the development of indicators, and we will address these issues briefly at the end of this concluding chapter.

The National report represents an overview of a large number of indicators that measure separate domains and components of Social Quality. It represents a large amount of various data that has to be combined and interpreted through the Social Quality initiative. The Social Quality theory can be viewed as a concept that observes the quality of life in separate national countries and enables to measure the capacity of individuals to cope with the (post)modern situations and also new arising risks. On the other hand it also encompasses the other perspective, namely, what is done by states and societies to help individuals face the risks in everyday life.

The situation in Slovenia is somewhat specific due to the significant impact of the formation of the new nation state and subsequent political and economic changes on Social Quality and consequently all four conditional factors of Social Quality. This is also the context that has been emphasised in the National report. The transition has brought many important changes in the field of social security benefits, available services, different politics and regulations, which have influenced all individuals and some groups of the population in particular. In addition to these changes also the process of EU integration has had an important influence on each domain of Social Quality. That is, from the adaptation of different new political instruments (such as new services for example), new policies and laws and also to more subtle changes linked to identity (the question of importance of national identity vs. European identity) and value changes. Both of these processes therefore form an important context factor according to which all of the report and the described indicators must be observed.

In conclusion we would like to recapitulate the most important findings and trends regarding each Social Quality components and reflect them from the Social Quality viewpoint.

In the field of socio-economic security we feel that the most important findings are related to the sub-domains health, housing, education and work. In the field of housing the indicators do not cover the issue of lack of choice and the price of the dwelling, which in Slovenia both represent an important issue. There is a significant lack of social rented dwellings and also the small share of rental housing market represents a serious dysfunction for normal operation of the housing market. All these factors severely limit individuals ability to satisfy his/her needs and poses limits on their quality of life.

In the field of health care there are several shortcomings of the health system already mentioned in the report (shortage of doctors, long waiting lists, new restrictions on rights arising from obligatory health insurance). However, it should be kept in mind that almost all of the Slovenian population are covered by obligatory health insurance, which enables them to get access to quality health care.

In the field of education there are several changes in the process, like the adaptation to the Bologna standards and these might have severe impact on the access and availability of education in the Social Quality perspective. However, the free access to also higher education is still characteristic of Slovenia, which indicates good Social Quality from the point of view of individuals' ability to fulfil their potential and achieve personal growth.

Also in the field of work there is good legislative basis to enable protection for workers, and also the number of temporary or limited duration contracts is low. However, also in Slovenia the trends that are characteristic for all modern countries are visible, that is the increased share of unemployed, the problem with long term unemployment, flexible employment (which can also sometimes be linked with a more unstable employment). Slovenia is also one of the countries with the longest working week.

Similarly as in the field of socio-economic security, in the field of social cohesion the observed context changes have had an important impact. The act of voting on the plebiscite and consequently the development of autonomous state and later voting in favour of joining the European Union have been important acts that are indicative of social cohesion in Slovenia. Both these processes have had an important impact on collective identity of Slovenians. Regarding identity there seems to be particular importance of local identification, as slightly more than half of respondents listed as primary source of identification locality or town.

There is one quite negative aspect of social cohesion in Slovenia, and that is low levels of trust in people in general. It is quite low in comparison to many other European countries, although it is similar to those countries of eastern Europe in transition, so this low trust might be linked to these changes. Regarding general values and norms linked to social cohesion and integration, Slovenia shows quite high tolerance to different issues, like abortion, divorce, and euthanasia. In general Slovenian values regarding migrants, different groups in the society and similar do differ from other European countries. In shares of people that would not like to have as neighbours these different groups Slovenia is placed near the European average.

Membership in voluntary organisations in Slovenia is not particularly high, except in trade unions but also in sports and recreation. Especially low is the share of membership in global organisations (such as peace movements, animal rights and similar). On the other hand family networks are very strong and family represents the most important source of support in various times of need (like the time of illness, financial help, material support). In addition to family members and relatives, also friends are very important as a source of support. Friends are most important part of network for socializing, financial support, for smaller and also for larger material support. When they need emotional support and the support in the times of illness, Slovenes turn to their partners. On the other hand, co-workers, co-members, acquaintances and counsellors are very rarely turned to for any kind of support. In case of some more vulnerable groups (like single parent households, low income households, older households) family support is even more important.

Social inclusion as defined in the Social Quality context describes the degree to which people are integrated in different social relations that constitute everyday life. The emphasis is mainly on the systems and institutions that should provide aid and resources in coping with everyday life and the risks that can emerge. Here the important are system of welfare state, which are directed particularly toward this goal.

This issue is covered primarily with the sub-domains like health services and social care. The access to health services is quite good, as practically all the population is covered by the compulsory health insurance. This indicates a highly inclusive health system. In the report have also been already mentioned some trends in this regard, namely the rise of private practices and also narrowing of the services that the basic health insurance encompasses. This could be termed a negative trend from the social inclusion perspective, as the changes will probably lead to the exclusion of the more vulnerable groups (for example those with lower income).

In the field of services one other should be mentioned, that is the social housing. This is very important to insure the housing of the more vulnerable groups and by that their full inclusion in the society. However, in Slovenia there is a significant shortage of social housing, which is a very negative aspect from the Social Quality perspective.

In addition, also access to other systems is important. In Slovenia political rights are well developed, and also the civic culture is quite strong, as the voter turnout at the elections is quite good (around 70%). Slovenian population is relatively homogenous comparing to the other countries and also the proportion of the citizens with citizenship is high. Having citizenship in Slovenia means the right to vote on national and local level, obtaining Slovenian passport and being entitled to all social services. On the other hand persons with the permanent residence permit cannot vote on the national elections and do not have Slovenian passport.

Also, as already mentioned, the educational system is highly inclusive (due to the fact that it is free in primary, secondary and also higher levels. Exception are post-graduate studies, but also here there is

funding from the government, that lowers the costs of the postgraduate courses). On the other hand, the negative part of inclusiveness of the educational system is the high share of dropouts from secondary education (vocational and technical education), which is around 20%.

In addition, an important issue is also equal access to various resources for men and women. Here Slovenia seems to stand out in a positive way, as the share of women in highest decision bodies is well above European average. On the other hand, however, the share of women in national government and parliament is somewhat lower than the EU average. The picture is therefore very diverse and consequently, it is difficult to draw general conclusions regarding these issues.

Although the general trends in social inclusion show Slovenia as having inclusive systems in various fields (like health, education and others), there are always groups that are at higher risk of being excluded. Trbanc (1996) stated, that lower educated, older, unemployed and farmers were at higher risks of social exclusion. These probably holds true even today. In addition to these groups, there are also others that are excluded from the society in various fields – one such group are the Roma. Their exclusion is multiple, as it is usually in several fields at once – education, employment, and housing. However, the state is trying to develop various programmes aimed at these particular groups (which are listed in the National action plan for social inclusion). This shows that the awareness and the recognition of the problem is present and there are initiatives to include the group in the society.

Empowerment is the last of the conditional factors of Social Quality, and is linked to the other three in various ways. It is linked to education, institutions and labour market. However, this link regards less the general inclusion of people, and observes more the application and the use of the resources that are available to them.

The indicators show that Slovenians have a poor ability to understand various information, due to the fact that it did not rank very high regarding the proportion of people that are literate. Also the use of Internet, as the new source of information, that also requires special skills, is lower than the EU average, but the gap is not very large.

In the labour market the empowerment of workers and their ability to influence their working conditions is linked to the strength of Unions and the bargaining system. For Slovenia centralised bargaining system is characteristic. There is a tripartite agreement between the government, trade unions and employers, while sector agreements are negotiated by branch trade union organisations and corresponding employer associations. However, there is a negative trend in the membership in the Trade Unions, as the share has significantly dropped from 60% in 1994 to 41% in 2000, which might indicate a negative trend from the empowerment perspective.

In the political field the empowerment can be linked to the statute of referenda. Since independence, 7 were held in Slovenia. However, there was a debate whether the referenda can also be abused for negative purpose and in contrariness to the openness of the society, like the referenda on the

question of the erased, or intended referenda on whether there should be a mosque in Ljubljana (this referendum initiative was decided by the Constitutional court not to be in line with Slovenian constitution).

As the empowerment implies increase in power, the process is usually linked with specific groups that need this increase for the improvement of their situation – the so called more vulnerable groups. These groups can vary but also overlap. As such groups already mentioned were the Roma, but also for example the handicapped, the erased or those with other ethnic backgrounds (like the Muslim community). For these groups the process of empowerment might be important either to improve their quality of life in general, or in relation to a particular issue. For example, the Muslim community had a lot of problems before they could finally get an approved building site for their mosque.

The last part of the report addresses the question on national, regional and local initiatives on the four conditional factors of Social Quality. The issues in two major fields are observed, and that is employment and education, and also for two groups – women and the Roma people. These are only chosen examples, as of course there are various initiatives that can be found also in other fields or relating to other groups, but as the amount of material would be too various and numerous, we have limited ourselves to the issues mentioned above.

In the field of education there are several programmes that are organised to improve educational attainment and skills of various groups. Such are project learning for young adults, guidance centres for adult education, the programmes of the Slovenian Institute for adult education like bridge to education and read to write together. Also as a form of non-formal education there are 33 centres for self-directed learning, and also study circles are quite wide-spread (in 2003 195 circles were registered). The existence of non-formal educational programmes is very important not only as an initiative that can improve individuals education, but also in other aspect, like wider inclusion of people, formation of social network, development of particular skills and through that attainment of resources that can aid an individual (can function also as a form of empowerment).

The other field, mentioned in the initiatives section, is employment. Already in the report various aspects of labour market and employment were described, that is in the relation to the socio-economic security, of which a stable employment is an integral part, inclusion and also empowerment (through influence that an individual has on his or her working conditions, the role of trade unions). The programmes developed are linked to the issues of education, as the latter is seen as the most important resource to aid the job seekers. Therefore, in addition to traditional role of the Employment office, which is to aid the job seekers in finding the employment, they also carry out a programme called »Programme 5.000-10.000 (developed by the Ministry of labour, family and social affairs), whose goal is to raise education and qualification levels of unemployed. In addition to this since 1995 exist job clubs, which are a more permanent form of training of unemployed.

The gender equality is recognised and implemented in different laws and acts (like employment relationship act, parental care and family act, act on equal opportunities of men and women). These instruments are vital for achieving gender equality. In addition to this, there are also some institutions that promote gender equality, like Office for equal opportunities). But along with these official instruments, their implementation in practice is vital. Regarding employment, female employment rate is in Slovenia almost equal to that of men, there are no large differences in the share of unemployment. However, women still tend to be in more unstable, temporary forms of employment. There is also lower share of women in the national parliament and government bodies. The new Act on equal opportunities prescribes that political parties must take gender equality into consideration, and propose gender balanced task division and similar.

Another particular group, for which several initiatives were adapted, directed at improving their socio-economic status and their inclusiveness in the society are the Roma people. Several initiatives were advanced by the government regarding improvement of their housing situation (legalisation of settlements, improvement of infrastructure), and also in the field of education and employment. The development of new posts of Roma advisers (in the employment office) and Roma assistants (to help children with language and school integration) are examples of the policy initiatives aimed at improvement of Social Quality.

Let us now turn to the methodological issues. Several indicators were not measured or gathered in Slovenia, which made it difficult to collect the appropriate and comparable data. Also in some cases where the data for the particular indicator could be gathered, there are various methodological hesitations in using it. We will cite here one example of this, and that is the indicator of social networks, which is very important from the Social Quality perspective as it is also found in two separate domains, namely social cohesion and social inclusion. We will point on some issues, which could be raised regarding social networks with regard to their methodological characteristics, interpretative depth and explanatory power.

Social networks are very often conceptualized in relation to social support concepts. Vaux (1988) defines social support as a metaconstruct and proposes three dimensions or constructs of social support: social support network resources, supportive behaviour, and support appraisal²⁵. In order to evaluate support received from various sources all three dimensions have to be assessed, namely social networks, support behaviour and support appraisal. Beyond the structural properties of the networks (such as network size or density), qualities of relationships such as closeness, complexity, and reciprocity are also likely to affect supportive behaviour. The composition of networks, e.g., the

²⁵ Social support network as a subset of the larger social network to which ego turns or could turn for assistance. Support networks, i.e., social support network resources, are assumed to be stable in terms of size and composition, except in times of developmental transitions or non-normative life changes. Support behaviours, on the other hand are specific acts generally recognized as intentional efforts to help a person. Helpfulness depends on proper timing and mode of support as well as on relationship with the support provider. Support appraisals are subjective evaluative assessments of support resources and behaviours. They are primary indicators of how effectively support functions are fulfilled. There are several distinct appraisal dimensions, such as satisfaction, a feeling of respect, a sense of attachment, and reliable membership in same alliance.

proportion of kin, friends, and co-workers, can also play an important role in fulfilling supportive needs. Appraisals are also multifaceted and they vary from satisfaction, and helpfulness, to feeling cared for, respected, and involved, having a sense of reliable alliance, and reassurance of worth and social integration.

Social networks and social support provision can be measured in several different ways. Interaction approach identifies all people (Milardo, 1989; van der Poel, 1993) with whom an individual has social interactions within a given period of time. The role-relation approach uses role relationships that are accompanied by a specific set of expectations, obligations and rights (van der Poel, 1993). Role relationships are used to describe normative or formal aspects of relationships. When the role relation approach is used as network generator, it tends to underestimate relations with co-workers, fellow members of associations, and acquaintances (van der Poel, 1993).

The affective approach uses the subjective value which a relationship has for a respondent, such as closeness, intimacy, or importance (van der Poel, 1993a). Along the dimension of closeness, characteristics of social support providers change with respect to closeness, composition, and duration. An exchange approach elicits the names of people with whom respondents have valued interactions (McCallister, Fisher, 1983). Several authors compared and discussed these four approaches. Milardo (1989) found that the size of an affective network was unrelated to the size of the reported interactive network. Obviously, people do not meet close others every day; i.e., frequency of contacts is not a necessary condition for closeness. On the other hand, people who are met on a day-to-day basis have a different significance in an individual's life. Members of broad interactive networks are unlikely to be providers of social support per se, whereas the members of affective networks are more likely to be providers of important supportive acts. The interactive approach is seldom used in research focused on social support, because of its inability to elicit primarily and mainly supportive ties. Therefore, measures based solely on frequency of contacts, cannot be used to evaluate the quality of evaluated relationships.

Similarly, Burt (1984) finds that discussion partners are most likely friends, relatives, and co-workers who are especially close to respondents. Discussion partners show a high degree of homogeneity with regard to sex, age, religion, and ethnicity (Burt, 1984; Marsden, 1988). In general discussion partners follow decreasing order with regard to closeness and frequency of contacts, except for co-workers who are contacted on a daily basis (Burt, 1986). Van der Poel (1993) showed that 5 measures, measuring exchange of emotional support (discussing major life changes), instrumental support (jobs around the house, borrowing things), and social companionship (going out together, visiting) explain 84% of the variability in network size and measure at least 75% of every role relationship category.

Close relationships (van Tilburg, 1990b) are all characterized by the possibility of sharing emotion and exchanging advice, practical help and affection. However, relationships differ in their degree of intimacy. The type of relationship per se give little information about the intensity of the support in the relationship, a finding which indicates that relationship type is not a sufficient indicator of support in

this relationship. The number of supportive ties should thus not be used as an indicator of provided social support.

Relation strength is one of the important determinants of a capacity to provide social support. The strength of a relationship can be measured in several ways (Marsden, Campbell, 1984), with closeness as the best measure of the emotional intensity of a relationship. Frequency of contacts as a measure of tie strength tends systematically to overestimate the strengths of ties between neighbours and co-workers, whereas duration tends to overestimate the strength of ties with relatives.

Based on studies mentioned above, the following indicators should be reconsidered as indicators of social cohesion and social inclusion: social support received from colleagues should also be measured, frequency of contacts with friends and colleagues (or anybody else) is not a very informative measure, proportion of regular contacts with various types of people is not a very informative measure, and duration of contact with relatives is also not very informative measure. Therefore, apart from frequency of contacts or duration of contacts, several appraisal measures should be considered.

Despite the methodological issues, there are some important contributions of the Social Quality theory and ENIQ project, which cannot and must not be neglected. Besides the national overview and comparison between states, there is also another important aspect of the project. Each member state can learn from other states how did they tackle different issues if their own way of solving problems is not efficient and effective.

Slovenia has done a lot in the last decades to come near other EU members and it was assessed as the best prepared accession country before joining the EU. But the fact is that achievements in the past years were also greatly the consequence of the good starting point. The differences between Slovenia and some other new members are diminishing rapidly, which is partly consequence of some other problems Slovenia has to deal with. In this report it was possible to touch some of them and this is a positive contribution of the report to the Social Quality issue in Slovenia.

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Annex Collective data

1. Socio-economic security

Domain: Financial resources

Sub-domain: Income security

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

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

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

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

Source: Eurostat; free data, social cohesion

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

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

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

Source: Eurostat; free data, social cohesion

Domain: Housing and environment

Sub-domain: Housing conditions

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

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

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

Source: Eurostat 2003, Living conditions in Europe

Domain: Health and care

Sub-Domain: Health services

11. Number of medical doctors per 100.000 inhabitants

Number of practitioners per 100 000 inhabitants

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

Source: Eurostat, Yearbook 2003

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

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

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

Source: Eurobarometer 52.1

Domain: Work

Sub-domain: Employment security

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

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

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

Source: Eurostat; Statistics in Focus

Sub-domain: Working conditions

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

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

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

Source: Eurostat; Statistics in Focus

Evolution of the accidents at work, 1998 = 100

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

p) provisional value

b) break in series

Source: Eurostat, free data, employment

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

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

Source: Eurostat 2003; Living conditions in Europe

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

Hours worked per week of full time employment

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

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

Domain: Education

Sub-domain: Security of education

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

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

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

p) provisional value

b) break in series

Source: Eurostat SC053 IV.5.1

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

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

p) provisional value

b) break in series

Source: Eurostat SC053 IV.5.1-2

2. Social cohesion

Domain: Trust

Sub-domain: Generalised trust

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Source: European Social Survey (ESS) 2002

Sub-domain: Specific trust

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

Trust in different institutions in European countries 2002/2003

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

Source: European Social Survey 2002.

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

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

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

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

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

Domain: Other integrative norms and values

Sub-domain: Altruism

29. Volunteering: number of hours per week

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

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

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

30. Blood donation

Blood donation (%), 2002

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

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

Sub-domain: Tolerance

31. Views on immigration, pluralism and multiculturalism

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

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

Source: European Values Survey 1999/2000, Q74

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

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

Source: European Values Survey 1999/2000, Q75

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

Typology of people according to their attitudes towards minorities

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

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

Source: Eurobarometer 2000 survey

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

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

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

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

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

Sub-domain: Social contract

33. Beliefs on causes of poverty: individual or structural

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

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

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

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

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

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

Source: European Social Survey 2002/2003

Proportion of population which belongs to....

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

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

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

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

40. Frequency of contact with friends and colleagues

Frequency of spending time with friends

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

Source: European Social Survey (Q6A)

Frequency of spending time with colleagues

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

Source: European Social Survey (Q6B)

Domain: Identity

Sub-domain: National / European pride

41. Sense of national pride

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

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

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

Sense of national pride

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

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

Sub-domain: Regional / community / local identity

43. Sense of regional / community / local identity

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

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

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

3. Social inclusion

Domain: Citizenship rights

Sub-domain: Constitutional / political rights

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

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

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

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

Sub-domain: Social rights

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

Gender pay gap

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

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

Source: Eurostat; free data, employment

Earnings of men and women

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

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

Note: The share refers to full-time earnings.

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

Sub-domain: Economic and political networks

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

Proportion of women in national governments and parliaments, 2001

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

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

Domain: Labour market

Sub-domain: Access to paid employment

53. Long-term unemployment (12+ months)

Total long-term unemployment

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

Source: Eurostat; free data, social cohesion

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

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

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

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

Source: Eurostat; free data, social cohesion

Domain: Social networks

Sub-domain: Neighbourhood participation

67. Proportion in regular contact with neighbours

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

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

Source: Eurostat 2003, Living conditions in Europe

Sub-domain: Friendships

68. Proportion in regular contact with friends

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

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

Source: Eurostat 2003, Living conditions in Europe

4. Social Empowerment

Domain: Knowledge base

Sub-domain: Availability of information

73. Per cent of population literate and numerate

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

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

Source: PISA2000; Adult Literacy Survey, 1994-98

75. Access to internet

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

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

Source: European Social Survey, 2002/2003

Domain: Labour market

Sub-domain: Prospects of job mobility

80. % of employed labour force receiving work based training

Continuing vocational training (CVT) in enterprises (1999)

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

Source: Eurostat 2003, Living conditions in Europe

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

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

Source: Eurostat 2002, Statistics in Focus

Annex Social Quality theory

1 Introduction

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

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

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

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

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

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

2.1 The Foundation's second book as point of departure

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

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

2.2 The challenge of the Network Indicators

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

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

3 Some aspects of the theory and its indicators

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

3.1 The reciprocity between structure and action

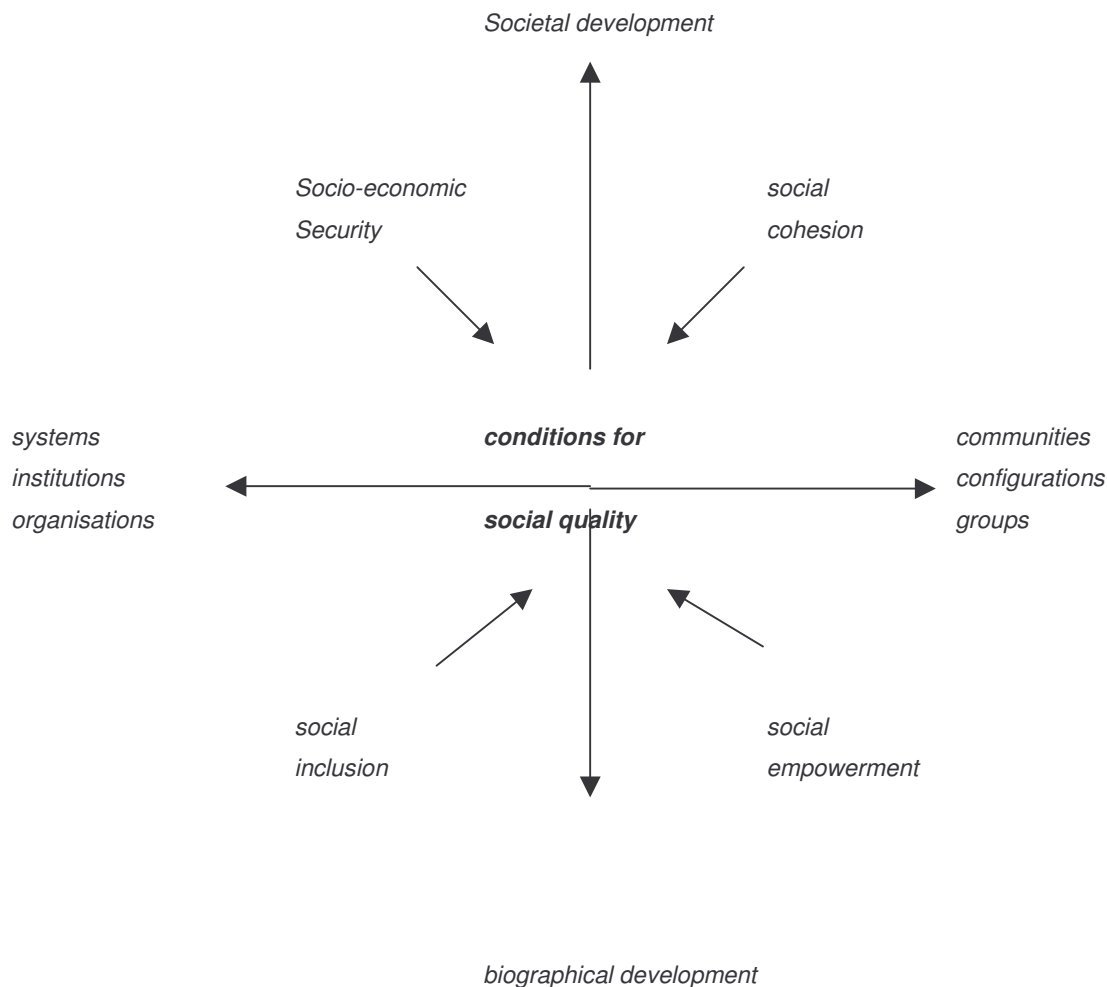
A fundamental problem of any comprehensive theoretical approach is to grasp the structural and dialectical interdependence of what Emile Durkheim called 'social facts'. The reason for mentioning Durkheim here is that in his definition of 'social facts' he explicitly showed the supposed independence of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

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

3.2 The four conditional factors

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

Figure-1 The quadrangle of the conditional factors



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

3.3 A referral to the four constitutional factors

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

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

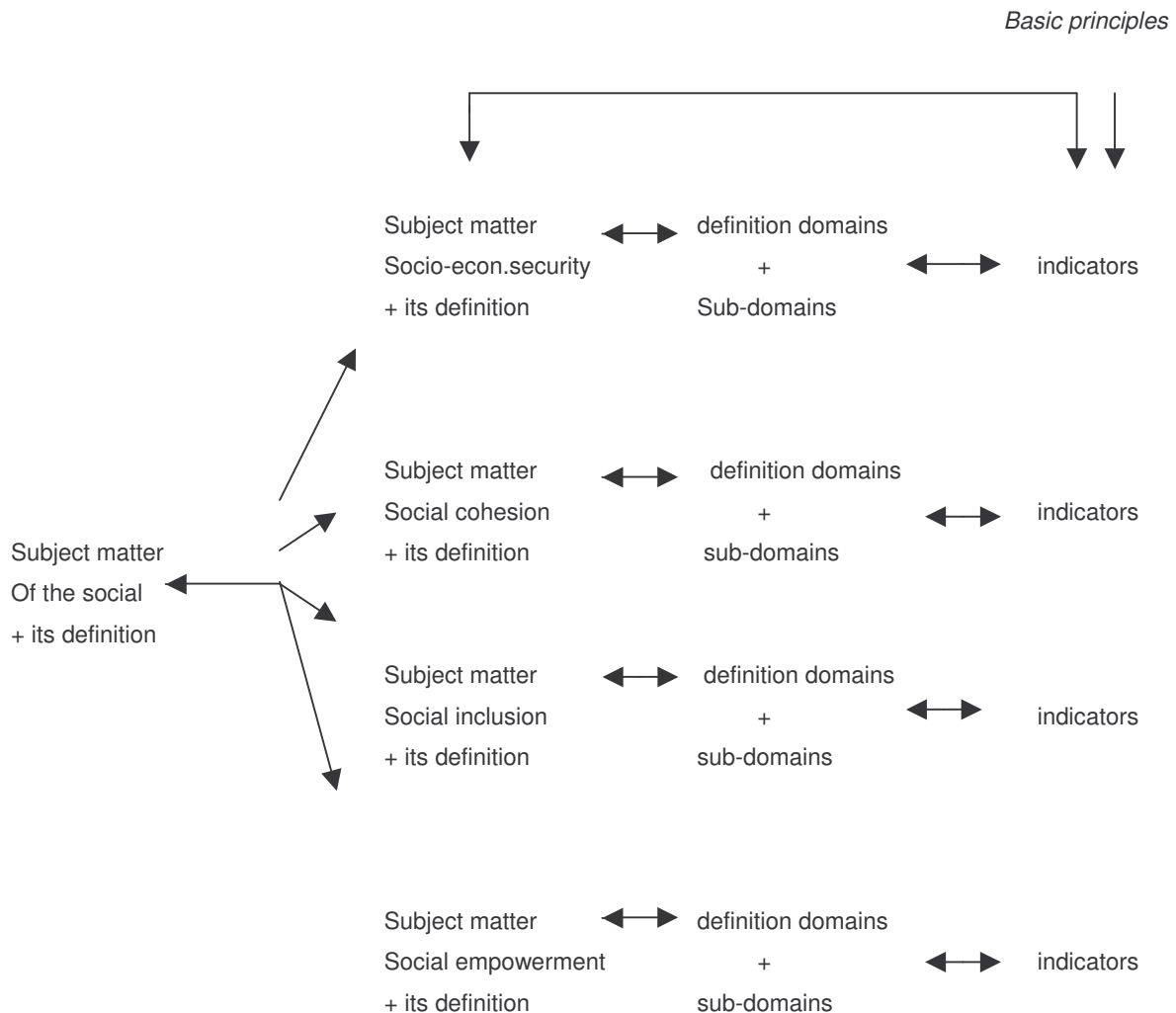
This theme is presented for the first time in the Foundation's second book of January 2001 and will be elaborated in the Foundation's third book. The relationship between the constitutional factors and the conditional factors – theoretically and practically – will be analysed. For the European Network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

4 The national reports about the indicators of social quality

4.1 The steps made by the network

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

Figure-2 Determination of related concepts

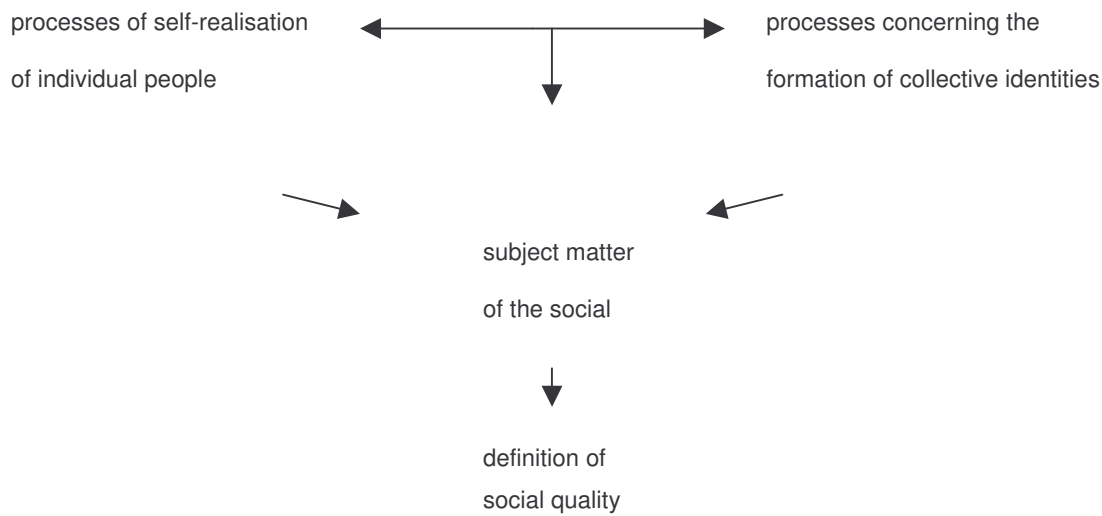


4.2 The definitions of the four conditional factors

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

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

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



The herewith related definitions of the four conditional factors are:

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

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

5 Conclusions

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

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