

European Network Indicators of Social Quality - ENIQ -

“Social Quality” The Spanish 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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1 Introduction

This report presents the results of our exploration of social quality in Spain, through the list of 95 indicators suggested by the network for the four conditional factors. Following the guidelines from the Network, an effort has been made to refer to data from European or international sources, analysing the position of Spain in comparison with the former 15 European member states. When data for the proposed indicators can not be found in official sources nor concrete research works, a qualitative description of the national situation with regard to that issue is presented.

The report is mainly oriented to data analysis, though comments in relation to the choice of indicators, sub-domains and domains from the national point of view are made when the operationalisation does not sufficiently reflect the Spanish specific national scene.

Throughout the data analysis, the report illustrates that in a wide range of aspects, the circumstances in Spanish society are similar to those in Italy, Greece and Portugal. These similarities have led to the conception of a *Mediterranean Model* in research about European welfare states and social policy models.

Following the proposal of Titmuss (1974), the comparative analysis of Esping-Andersen (1990), focussed on the dimensions of demercantilization, social stratification and employment, identifies three different types of welfare regimes –the three worlds of welfare capitalism-, namely socialdemocrat (Scandinavian countries), liberal (Anglosaxon countries) and conservative (Continental countries). This analysis, based on the 18 most industrialised democracies at the time it was carried out, does not include Spain, nor Greece or Portugal. When different contributions try to overcome what has been a recurrent exclusion in literature in this field, two different approaches appear: on the one hand, it is argued that Southern European countries correspond to the continental model, though in a preliminary phase of development of this welfare regime (Castles, 1995); other authors (Sarasa and Moreno, 1995; Rhodes, 1997) state that the specific aspects of Southern Europe regarding welfare policies would remain in spite of the convergence with continental Europe.

Thus, the Mediterranean model expresses the variations that characterize Southern European countries in relation to social policy and welfare structures, in contrast to the features of the other EU countries, which fit the Continental Model (Germany being the most illustrative example), the Nordic Model (exemplified by Sweden) or the Anglosaxon Model (the United Kingdom).

The main features of this Mediterranean welfare model can be described, according to Adelantado and Gomá (2000), as the following:

- The period of building the welfare state overlaps with its so-called crisis and restructuring. The basis of the welfare structures are developed from 1975, but their consolidation takes place in a context of deep transformations. Thus, the process of convergence with the level of well-being attained in most countries within the EU is challenged by the implementation of measures based upon the dominant neo-liberal trends.
- The social protection system is centred on the contributive social security system (managed by autonomous public institutions), which means high protection intensities for reduced groups of workers but does not include wide sectors of the population (all those excluded from the employment system).

- Universalistic models for health and education, though with lower per capita expenditure and wider private sectors than in the EU.
- In the field of social exclusion/inclusion, the continuity of a system which relies on the family for the provision of minimum levels of welfare, with a weak role of the State, despite the implementation of new policies such as social services and partial programmes of minimum income.
- The model of labour relations combines high proportions of the population covered by a collective agreement with very low levels of unionization, the inconsistency between these two indicators being higher than in the continental systems.
- The impact of the EU social and cohesion policies has been extremely relevant in comparative terms, from a quantitative perspective (social spending financed by structural funds) as well as from the qualitative point of view (adjustment to the EU patterns). A clear example of this positive influence is the introduction of the gender perspective in public policies, together with the development of remarkable equal opportunities programs thanks to the financial support of the EU.

This conceptualisation can be seen as a valid starting point, since it establishes the basic framework in which to understand the current national circumstances in Spain, through the description of the core specific aspects of the recent socio-political context, particularly with regard to social policy development, in comparison with other EU countries.

Bearing in mind this conceptualisation of the Mediterranean welfare model, and provided that all the aspects mentioned in that definition are sufficiently reflected within the operationalisation of social quality, the data analysis would illustrate the degree in which empirical evidence supports this theory. Therefore, it should also be possible to determine to what extent Spain –and each of the other Southern European countries- fits this Mediterranean model.

According to some authors, an additional characteristic of these countries is that there exists a territorial fracture North/South, particularly in the Italian and Spanish models, which has derived into political tensions, not only in relation to the inter-territorial distribution of resources but also regarding nationalism.

In Spain, nationalism is indeed a relevant issue in the current socio-political context, as it is explained in the social cohesion chapter, but the idea of a territorial fracture North-South is not so evident. On the one side, the regions with the highest and lowest per capita income cannot be clearly identified with the Northern and Southern regions. On the other hand, the increasing strength of the regional level of public administration has led to a reduction in regional inequalities throughout the last years. Indeed, for the understanding of national circumstances regarding social quality in Spain, it is necessary to take into account the political and administrative structure of the State, which is divided into 17 Autonomous Regions with legislative and executive capacity to manage a wide range of issues: from housing and environment to employment, including health, education and social policies in the strict sense, the Autonomous Governments can develop and implement their own policies. Actually, the social protection system comprises three levels: national (the central administration), regional (the autonomous governments) and local, which might overlap in certain areas of social policy development.

This complex administrative structure has often entailed differences in criteria, management and so on, particularly between regional governments with distinct political orientations and between the

central government and some regional governments. But the disaggregation of data at regional level is not straightforward due to the number of regions, so instead of illustrating regional inequalities through data, we refer to this issue for any indicator in which it is of importance.

With regard to the structure of the report, the four main chapters (2 to 5) present data analysis for the indicators in each of the four conditional factors. All those four chapters include a brief summary, and are structured in sections corresponding to the domains and sub-sections for every sub-domain. Each chapter ends with a reflection on the key social trends in contemporary Spain with regard to a concrete dimension of social quality, mentioning the most relevant developments for that conditional factors. Chapter six is devoted to the description of some public and private measures that are considered particularly relevant for social quality.

2 Socio-economic Security

2.1 Introduction

The operationalisation of the socio-economic security dimension of social quality seems certainly appropriate and comprehensive. Objections can only be made in relation to the sub-domains income sufficiency, care services and quality of education, in which the proposed indicators do not sufficiently reflect relevant information from the perspective of the Spanish national circumstances.

In this conditional factor, data analysis is mainly based on Eurostat databases. Many indicators in this conditional factor are measured at household level, thus facilitating the utilisation of income as a key variable. For the indicators measured at individual level, reference is usually made to gender differences.

The image of the Spanish society regarding socio-economic security is diverse for the five dimensions that constitute this conditional factor.

First, in relation to financial resources, the indicators regarding income security show that the financial protection system is relatively weaker in Spain than in most EU countries, due to the lower impact of social transfers in households. With regard to income sufficiency, the proposed indicator does not allow us to derive a clear depiction of the situation of Spanish households in this matter. Additional indicators (referred, for instance, to the proportion of households that report great difficulties for *making ends meet*) would be necessary within this sub-domain.

Concerning the second domain, housing and environment, a high level of socio-economic security can be observed in Spain, particularly with regard to housing security, due to the high level of ownership, though this also implies, for a significant proportion of households, a high level of indebtedness related to housing.

Within the sub-domains regarding health, the indicators for health services and security of health provisions lead to a very positive image of the Spanish situation with regard to socio-economic security, though data for some indicators are not presented at European level.

As for the sub-domain care services, the proposed indicator does not sufficiently reflect the situation in Spain in this field: the insufficiency of public care services does not become visible due to the focus on time spent on care work. Thus, an additional indicator referred to the coverage of public care services would be necessary. Actually, public expenditure in care services in Spain is one of the lowest in the EU-15 (per capita social expenditure was the second lowest in 2001, only higher than in Portugal), and it can be interpreted that one of the main features of socio-economic security in Spain is the extremely low proportions of dependants and children that receive assistance through publicly provided care services. Moreover, from this point of view it is arguable that a high level of unpaid care work is a positive aspect in the level of socio-economic security.

Regarding work and education, though comparisons are not presented for several indicators, the high incidence of temporary employment, of work accidents and of early school leavers point to a low level of socio-economic security in Spain. Nevertheless, quality of education is not accurately reflected through the proposed indicator: the focus of this sub-domain on the link between the educational

system and the labour market does not seem entirely appropriate, since the labour market outcomes of new entrants are biased by the overall level of employment/unemployment in the country. In summary, the data analysis illustrates the wide disparities in Spain regarding the different dimensions of this conditional factor: in comparison with the other EU member states, Spain holds a high level of socio-economic security in the dimensions of housing and health, but regarding the domains financial resources and work the degree of socio-economic security is relatively low in Spanish society. In relation to the sub-domains care services and quality of education, the image derived for Spain leads to doubt whether the proposal of indicators does sufficiently reflect the national circumstances.

2.2 Financial resources

2.2.1 Income sufficiency

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

This indicator can be interpreted as referred to the proportion of household income or expenditure dedicated to the basic needs in relation to income. Eurostat data about the structure of consumption expenditure by income quintile shows that there are considerable variations in household consumption patterns between European countries, and also in the way the level of household income influences those consumption patterns.

The EU average illustrates that basic needs account for 55% of expenditure in lower income households, and 45% in higher income households. In Spain, the total percentage of expenditure dedicated to these four basic consumption functions ranges from 59,8% in lower income households to 51% in higher income households.

Actually, basic needs represent a higher share of expenditure in Spanish households than in the EU as a whole, regardless of income quintile, but at the same time disparities between households of divergent income are lower in Spain than in most EU countries. Only in Ireland the difference between the proportions spent in these functions by households in the first and the fifth quintile is lower than in Spain.

By specific consumption functions, the main variations in the EU are found in food: its proportion decreases from 18% to 10,9%, and the part dedicated to housing also diminishes considerably as income is higher. In Spain significant variations regarding income quintile can only be found with regard to the percentage spent on food (25% in lower income households and 17% in higher income households), and to lesser extent, on housing, where expenditure in relative terms tend to increase as income is higher. The other two categories, clothing and health, account for very similar proportions of expenditure in households of divergent income.

Table 1 Proportion of household expenditure in 4 basic consumption functions, by income quintile, 1999.

		EU 15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
First quintile	Food	18,1	16,9	15,5	15,5	24,0	24,9	18,2	18,1	25,1	14,2	13,0	17,9	-	17,0	17,5	15,1
	Clothing	5,8	4,8	5,7	5,3	7,2	7,2	5,6	5,8	7,6	5,4	5,6	6,5	-	4,1	5,5	5,0
	Housing	28,7	29,3	32,1	35,9	24,2	25,2	32,2	17,8	22,6	28,2	30,8	26,5	-	33,6	31,1	32,4
	Health	3,0	6,0	2,4	2,3	6,3	2,6	3,5	1,2	4,7	2,8	0,7	2,1	-	3,9	2,2	0,8
	Total	55,5	56,9	55,8	59,0	61,7	59,8	59,6	42,9	60,0	50,6	50,2	52,9	-	58,6	56,3	53,4
Second quintile	Food	16,4	14,9	14,8	13,5	20,6	21,6	17,4	16,8	22,4	12,5	12,8	15,5	-	17,0	16,5	12,9
	Clothing	5,9	4,5	5,5	5,8	7,9	7,7	5,7	6,3	7,0	5,8	5,3	6,1	-	4,2	5,2	5,5
	Housing	27,7	26,9	32,0	32,6	24,1	26,3	30,2	17,9	24,1	27,1	30,2	25,1	-	32,0	27,5	32,0
	Health	3,3	5,2	2,7	2,7	6,5	2,6	4,3	1,7	5,1	2,7	1,1	2,6	-	4,4	3,5	1,0
	Total	53,2	51,4	55,0	54,5	59,1	58,2	57,5	42,6	58,6	48,0	49,4	49,3	-	57,6	52,7	51,4
Third quintile	Food	14,9	14,0	13,7	12,1	18,4	19,6	16,7	15,9	20,1	10,5	10,8	13,9	-	14,9	16,8	11,3
	Clothing	6,1	5,5	5,4	5,8	8,5	7,6	5,4	6,4	7,5	5,7	6,1	6,1	-	4,6	5,3	5,7
	Housing	26,7	27,4	27,8	32,8	22,7	28,3	28,2	17,8	24,9	28,4	27,0	24,3	-	28,4	27,4	28,9
	Health	3,1	5,2	2,0	2,7	6,2	2,5	4,3	1,5	4,7	2,6	1,2	2,2	-	3,7	4,0	1,1
	Total	50,9	52,1	48,8	53,4	55,9	58,0	54,6	41,6	57,2	47,1	45,0	46,4	-	51,6	53,5	47,0
Fourth quintile	Food	13,5	12,9	12,8	10,8	15,8	17,4	15,0	14,2	18,0	9,3	9,8	13,4	-	13,8	15,0	10,2
	Clothing	6,2	6,2	5,8	5,9	8,6	7,5	5,7	6,4	7,3	6,0	6,0	7,0	-	4,6	4,4	5,6
	Housing	25,4	25,7	25,7	32,2	20,9	27,4	26,4	16,2	25,1	27,9	24,3	23,5	-	26,7	25,9	27,9
	Health	2,9	4,6	2,0	3,3	6,4	2,5	3,7	1,5	4,2	2,1	1,1	2,4	-	3,3	2,7	1,1
	Total	48,0	49,3	46,3	52,1	51,8	54,7	50,7	38,3	54,6	45,3	41,2	46,3	-	48,4	48,0	44,8
Fifth quintile	Food	10,9	10,6	11,2	8,2	12,1	13,3	12,4	13,1	14,0	7,5	8,4	9,7	-	11,5	12,8	7,6
	Clothing	6,4	5,6	5,4	5,6	9,4	7,2	6,2	6,0	7,9	6,4	6,4	7,2	-	5,2	5,8	5,5
	Housing	24,6	23,9	27,6	27,6	20,5	28,8	25,0	17,7	25,7	26,2	24,6	22,2	-	25,1	24,7	25,3
	Health	3,1	3,6	2,8	5,3	6,1	2,3	3,8	2,1	3,9	2,1	1,3	2,6	-	3,7	2,4	1,3
	Total	45,0	43,7	46,9	46,6	48,0	51,5	47,4	38,9	51,4	42,2	40,7	41,7	-	45,4	45,6	39,7

Source: Adapted from Eurostat, NewCronos database, Theme 3, Household Budget Survey.

To sum up, a positive image with regard to income sufficiency in the EU is observed in Ireland, the Netherlands and Luxembourg, where households in the first income quintile dedicate at most 50% of expenditure to basic needs, while the proportion reaches 60% in Germany, France, Spain, Italy and Greece. With regard to the influence of household income, Ireland, Spain and Luxembourg are the countries where the differences in the proportion of expenditure dedicated to basic needs are less pronounced between lower and higher income households, while in most countries disparities surpass 10 percentage points.

2.2.2 Income security

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

The biographical events considered in the definition of this indicator are usually linked, in welfare states, to entitlement transfers. In this sense, we can address the effect of those biographical events in

the risk of poverty through the comparison of the at risk of poverty rate before and after social transfers.

In the EU as a whole, poverty risk before social transfers reaches 40%, and after social transfer is reduced to 15%. In Spain, that reduction in the risk of poverty is slightly less significant, since the share of the population at risk of poverty is 37% before social transfers and 18% after social transfers. Actually, Spain is, together with Greece, Ireland and Portugal, one of the countries where the impact of social transfers in the risk of poverty is lesser (below 20 points), while that impact is particularly high (over 25 points) in Sweden, Germany, Belgium, Luxembourg, the Netherlands and Austria.

Table 2 At risk of poverty rates* before and after social transfers (including pensions), 2000.

	Total		Males		Females	
	before	after	before	after	before	after
Belgium	40	13	36	12	44	15
Denmark	32	11	29	10	35	13
Germany	39	11	35	10	43	11
Greece	39	20	37	19	41	20
Spain	37	18	35	17	39	19
France	41	16	39	15	43	16
Ireland	37	20	35	19	38	21
Italy	42	18	40	18	44	19
Luxembourg	39	12	37	12	41	12
Netherlands	36	10	33	10	39	10
Austria	37	12	33	9	41	14
Portugal	38	21	36	19	40	22
Finland	32	11	29	9	35	13
Sweden	43	11	41	10	45	11
UK	41	19	37	16	44	21
EU-15	40	15	37	14	42	16

* 60% of median equivalised income after social transfers.

Source: Adapted from Eurostat, NewCronos database, Theme 3, Income and living conditions.

These data also illustrate that as the poverty risk is higher for women than for men in all the countries, the impact of social transfers is also greater, though in most cases the reduction is not significantly higher for female than for male.

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

Eurostat provides information about the risk of poverty by main source of household income. Thus, it is possible to compare the poverty risk for households in which social transfers are the main income source with the overall risk of poverty, as well as with the figure for households in which the main source of income is employment. This seems to be a suitable way of addressing to what extent social

transfers prevent households from falling under the poverty level, though in-kind transfers are not taken into account.

In the EU, 15% of households are at risk of poverty, but when it comes to households in which social transfers are the main income source, the percentage reaches 28%, while it is 10% for households receiving income from employment.

Table 3 At risk of poverty rate* by main source of household income, 2000.

	EU 15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
Total	15	13	11	11	20	18	16	20	18	12	10	12	21	11	11	19
Work	10	6	6	5	15	13	10	9	16	9	8	6	15	5	6	9
Social transfers	28	31	31	23	33	32	28	57	22	21	17	29	40	27	20	38

* 60% of median equivalised income after social transfers.

Source: Eurostat, NewCronos database, Theme 3, Income and living conditions.

In Spain, the risk of poverty for households living in social transfers is slightly above the EU average (32%), with a figure similar to the observed in Greece, Belgium and Denmark. The highest poverty risk for these households is found in Ireland (57%), Portugal (40%) and the United Kingdom (38%). In these countries, living in social benefits is highly associated with low income. In Sweden or the Netherlands, on the contrary, only around 20% of the households living in social transfers are at risk of poverty.

2.3 Housing and environment

2.3.1 Housing security

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

In Spain, the main feature of the housing situation is the high level of ownership: the percentage of households owners of their accommodation is 84,9%, and there are no significant differences in tenure status by the income of the households.

According to Eurostat data, the relationship between tenure status and income is evident in most EU countries. However, in Spain the influence of household income in tenure status is not significant, since the percentage of ownership is also very high for low income households.

While the average in the EU-15 is 50% of ownership for low-income households (income less than 60% compared to median actual current income) and 74% for higher income households (between 140% and greater compared to median actual current income), in Spain the figures are 83% and 87% respectively.

Given the high share of households owning their own accommodation (85%), even for low income households, it can be said that there is a high level of housing security in Spain.

Table 4 Share of households owning their accommodation by income group (%), 2000.

Household income compared to median actual current income	EU 15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
Less than 60%	50	60	39	33	87	83	46	68	65	45	32	47	62	43	41	51
Between 60% and 100%	59	69	61	39	84	85	57	82	75	70	40	52	59	70	53	64
Between 100% and 140%	67	80	77	44	83	87	66	88	78	78	60	55	65	71	68	79
140% and greater	74	79	81	55	81	87	76	92	80	75	70	62	74	82	77	87
Total	63	73	65	43	84	85	63	82	75	71	53	54	65	68	60	71

Source: Eurostat, NewCronos database, Theme 3, Housing.

However, there is another feature of the Spanish housing situation that cannot be ignored: a high proportion of homeowners (30%) are still purchasing their property, and the low interest mortgage rates, together with the huge increase in housing prices during the last years, have lead to a high level of indebtedness, particularly for new buyers. Thus, in the period 1998-2001, housing prices rose at an average rate of 11,6% per year, while household income grew at a lower rate. A rise in the interest rates in the coming years is likely to have an intense effect in the affordability of *mortgage loans*¹.

Table 5 Population by tenure status of housing.

	thousands	%
Property, fully paid	20.531,7	50,6
Property, still purchasing it	9.798,4	24,1
Property, inherited	3.312,7	8,2
Rental accommodation	4.406,0	10,9
Another	2.547,0	2,5
Total	40.595,9	3,8

Source: Spanish Statistical Institute, Population Census 2001.

For that reason, security of tenure for owners should be analysed in relation to the question of indebtedness or to the financial burden imposed by the monthly mortgage repayments. Then a good indicator for housing security (not only for countries with high proportions of ownership, since it also includes rental accommodation) refers to the affordability of housing costs. Thus, it is possible to estimate to what extent people (both owners who are still purchasing their property and other tenants) have certainty of keeping their home, trough data about the financial burden households have due to housing costs.

In Spain, the proportion of households that have a heavy financial burden due to housing costs is 26,2%, a proportion higher than in all other EU countries except Italy and Portugal.

On the other side, only 16,5% of Spanish households have no financial burden due to housing costs,

¹ Sawaya, 2003: Housing Affordability in Sapin, 1987-2001. Draft working paper, UAB.

while the EU average is 46,8%.

Table 6 Share of households with/without financial burden due to housing costs (%), 2000.

Financial burden due to housing costs	EU 15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	NL	A	P	FIN	UK
Households with heavy financial burden	19	21	7	16	17	25	16	14	44	3	11	25	10	6
Households with financial burden	35	37	29	43	42	57	29	49	54	20	47	50	35	-
Households without financial burden	47	42	64	42	41	18	54	37	3	77	42	25	54	94

Source: Eurostat, NewCronos database, Theme 3, Housing.

An adequate description of the national housing security situation in Spain must take into account the combination of these two features: a very high proportion of households owning their own accommodation, even in low income households, and a high proportion of households with a heavy financial burden due to housing costs. On the one side, most people are certain of keeping their home because it is their property; on the other, a significant proportion of households (mostly owners that are still purchasing it) are placed in an extreme debt situation, and they face the risk of not being able to afford their mortgage repayment.

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

No information on this issue have been found in the Population Census or surveys in Spain. In the last Population and Housing Census, the number of adults living in the same households is presented, but no reference is made to the number of families. A study referred to Euskadi (Marañón Calleja, 2000) estimates that 2,6 of households in 1996 were integrated by more than one family. Whether this responds to voluntary or involuntary factors is a different question.

It can be said that the incidence of this phenomenon is likely to be minimum in Spain, given the situation of the housing sector in Spain, defined by the high proportion of the population owning their own accommodation. However, it may not be so exceptional for immigrants, who might face particular difficulties in finding accommodation, given the limited supply of rental accommodation in Spain.

2.3.2 Housing conditions

6. Number of square meters per household member

Data from Eurostat provide information on the average number of rooms per person. The EU average is 1.9, and there are no differences by household income except for the most wealthy households, that have on average 2.2 rooms per person.

In Spain, the average number of rooms per person is 1.8. Greece, Portugal, Italy and Finland hold the lowest figures (from 1,6 to 1,4), while in most of the other EU countries the average number of rooms is over 2.

Moreover, according to these data, in Spain household income does not influence this aspect of

housing conditions, since the higher figures correspond to the lower income households. The same is true for Greece, Ireland and Portugal. This phenomenon is likely to be related to the high rates of ownership –also for households with the lowest income-, and it might be explained in relation to the situation of the elderly in Southern European countries, where they represent a high percentage of single persons households, and at the same time they tend to be in houses versus flats.

Table 7 Average number of rooms per person by income group, 2000.

Household income compared to median actual current income	EU 15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
Less than 60%	1,9	1,8	2,0	1,9	1,4	1,9	1,7	2,5	1,4	1,7	2,1	2,2	1,8	1,5	2,1	2,4
Between 60% and 100%	1,9	2,1	2,0	1,8	1,3	1,8	1,9	1,9	1,6	2,1	2,5	1,9	1,4	1,6	2,0	2,2
Between 100% and 140%	1,9	2,0	1,9	1,9	1,2	1,7	1,9	1,8	1,6	2,3	2,5	1,9	1,3	1,6	2,0	2,2
140% and greater	2,2	2,3	2,2	2,2	1,5	1,8	2,2	2,3	1,8	2,6	3,2	2,3	1,6	1,8	2,3	2,5
Total	1,9	2,1	2,0	1,9	1,4	1,8	1,9	2,1	1,6	2,2	2,6	2,0	1,5	1,6	2,1	2,3

Source: Eurostat, NewCronos database, Theme 3, Housing.

The suggested indicator –number of square metres per household member- refers to available space as a relevant aspect of housing conditions. This aspect can be addressed, from a different approach, through another indicator that focuses, instead of on the average, on the frequency of households where available space is insufficient: the percentage of households living in overcrowded houses (more than one person per room). In the EU, 9% of households are overcrowded, but rates are very different by income groups, from 3,9% of households with high income to 15,8% in lower income households.

Table 8 Percentage of households living in overcrowded conditions by income group, 2000.

Household income compared to median actual current income	EU 15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
Less than 60%	15,8	11,2	8,8	13,2	25,4	19,2	15	19,1	38,3	23,6	3,9	9,3	21,5	8,1	5,2	5,3
Between 60% and 100%	11,0	5,4	5,9	8,7	31,8	15,5	6,0	14,9	24,2	8,0	1,6	10,0	28,9	10,1	6,0	5,2
Between 100% and 140%	7,7	3,0	3,0	3,8	32,5	17,2	3,3	10,1	17,8	2,7	0,3	6,3	21,9	7,6	2,9	2,6
140% and greater	3,9	0,8	0,9	1,7	18,3	6,9	1,8	3,2	10,4	1,6	-	3,3	11,0	4,3	0,9	1,3
Total	9,1	4,3	4,7	6,2	26,9	14,1	5,6	11,8	21,5	6,6	1,0	7,5	20,6	7,9	4,2	3,6

Source: Eurostat, NewCronos database, Theme 3, Housing.

In Spain, the rate for all households is 14%, again with large differences by income group: one in every five lower income households is overcrowded, while in higher income households the percentage is 7%.

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

Data are reported from Eurostat about the lack of the three basic amenities for dwellings, defined as hot running water, bath or shower and flush toilet. Thus, the functioning basic amenities as defined by ENIQ (water, sanitation and energy) are included in Eurostat definition of basic amenities.

Table 9 Percentage of households lacking at least one of the three basic amenities by income group, 2000.

Household income compared to median actual current income	EU 15	B	DK	D	E L	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
Less than 60%	9,7	15,2	8,4	9,2	-	4,7	11,8	3,2	7,1	-	3,1	14	43,5	-	-	-
Between 60% and 100%	4,8	8,1	3,3	3,2	-	4,2	6,6	10,8	3,4	-	0,7	6,5	22,5	-	-	-
Between 100% and 140%	2,4	3,1	1,7	2,7	-	1,2	2,9	4	1,6	-	0,7	3,2	8,7	-	-	-
140% and greater	1,4	0,6	1,6	1,7	-	0,5	1,0	1,8	1,8	-	0,9	1,8	1,4	-	-	-
Total	3,9	5,6	3,1	3,3	-	2,5	4,8	5,1	2,9	-	1,0	5,6	17,8	-	-	-

Source: Eurostat, NewCronos database, Theme 3, Housing.

According to data for this indicator, proportions range from 1% in the Netherlands to the highest figures in Portugal. The EU average is 3,9%, and Spain hold the second lowest percentage (2,5%). However, large differences are evident by household income, and the lack of these basic amenities is highly concentrated in households with income below the poverty line (60% of the national median income). In any case, concern arises about the reliability of these data, particularly for those countries with very high figures, like Portugal, but also Belgium, Austria, France, etc.

Another interesting indicator for housing conditions (and also relevant for environmental conditions) is referred to housing problems. Eurostat provides information about the following problems in housing conditions: lack of space, noise (from neighbours or outside), darkness, not adequate heating facilities, rot in the house or damp or leaky roof, pollution (caused by traffic or industry), vandalism or crime. From this information, the indicator *Percentage of households with three or more housing problems* is derived.

It can be observed that noise and crime are the most frequent housing problems in the EU on average. These data are also available by income group, and can be used for indicators 8 and 9.

Table 10 Percentage of households with housing problems, 2000.

Housing problems	EU 15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
Space	14,6	11,6	14,7	15,1	17,4	15,0	12,1	7,6	16,9	-	11,3	10,3	24,3	14,9	-	14,6
Noise	25,3	24,6	14,3	-	18,3	22,7	22,0	9,7	34,1	-	34,7	20,9	27,4	24,6	23,2	25,3
Darkness	8,4	8,0	4,3	-	6,3	9,4	10,2	2,3	10,9	-	6,1	4,8	14,5	4,6	6,0	8,4
Heating	8,6	5,5	3,1	-	21,7	2,2	9,6	4,9	12,8	-	5,1	3,9	37,7	2,6	4,8	8,6
Damp	15,9	16,5	10,6	-	18,4	15,2	21,4	9,7	11,6	-	16,7	8,4	38,8	4,6	13,6	15,9
Pollution	12,6	10,4	4,7	-	13,3	9,4	16,7	6,6	17,1	-	12,1	5,4	18,7	14,0	8,1	12,6
Crime	16,5	18,5	9,2	-	5,4	11,4	19,3	10,4	16,2	-	18,1	5,8	21,4	22,7	18,8	16,5
Three or more problems	16,1	13,3	6,4	-	16,0	12,6	16,6	8,1	17,7	-	13,5	6,8	37,5	10,0	17,4	16,1

Source: Eurostat, NewCronos database, Theme 3, Housing.

These data illustrate that 12,6% of Spanish households report having three or more housing problems, while the average percentage in the EU is 16%. The most frequent housing problem both in the EU-15 is noise, which affects 1 in 4 households-, followed by crime, damp and space. In Spain, noise is also the most frequent housing problem; the percentage of households reporting damp and space problems is also similar to the EU average, while crime and heating problems are significantly less frequent in Spain.

2.3.3 Environmental conditions (social and natural)

8. People affected by criminal offences per 10.000 inhabitants

Criminality and the subsequent insecurity certainly affects individual well-being, so it is necessary to include an indicator on this issue within environmental conditions.

According to national data, in Spain the number of criminal offences per 10.000 inhabitants in 2001 was 491, which means an increase of 25% in relation to 1991. 83% of all crimes and offences were against property.

An alternative to the indicator suggested by ENIQ for personal safety regards the subjective dimension, addressing to what extent people feel safe or unsafe in the area where they live (their neighbourhood). Eurostat data for this indicator show that on average 16,5% of households perceive crime or vandalism as a problem in the environment of their accommodation.

In Portugal and Finland, this is the perception in one out of every five households, and the figures are also high in France, Sweden, Belgium and the Netherlands, while the perception of crime as a problem is low in Denmark (below 10%) and particularly in Austria and Greece (only around 5% of households).

Table 11 Proportion of households with problems of crime or vandalism in the area by income group, 2000.

Household income compared to median actual current income	EU 15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
Less than 60%	17,5	20,5	9,2	-	4,2	13,0	18,7	7,1	17,5	-	23,7	3,8	16,8	23,6	20,9	17,5
Between 60% and 100%	16,7	20,6	10,0	-	4,7	11,0	18,7	12,9	14,5	-	18,1	6,4	20,2	21,5	21,8	16,7
Between 100% and 140%	16,1	15,4	9,5	-	6,6	11,7	18,5	13,0	16,6	-	18,4	5,3	22,4	24,4	17,0	16,1
140% and greater	16,0	18,0	6,9	-	6,3	10,7	21,1	8,6	17,0	-	15,8	7,0	25,3	21,9	14,9	16,0
Total	16,5	18,5	9,2	-	5,4	11,4	19,3	10,4	16,2	-	18,1	5,8	21,4	22,7	18,8	16,5

Source: Eurostat, NewCronos database, Theme 3, Housing.

In Spain, the percentage of households that perceive this problem is rather low according to these data. However, the increase in the number of criminal offences in past years (and in media coverage of this increase) suggests that national data on the same issue, reported in 2001, are closer to the actual situation in Spain: the last Population Census indicated that 22% of the population perceive crime or vandalism as a problem in the neighbourhood where they live.

With regard to the influence of household income in this perception, it can be observed that on average, the feeling of insecurity is slightly less frequent in most wealthy households, and this trend is clear in several countries (Spain, Denmark, the Netherlands, Sweden, the United Kingdom), but in many other member states a reverse tendency is evident, since the percentage of households feeling unsafe is lower in the lower income households: in Portugal, Greece, Ireland, or Austria, the lowest perception of crime as a problem in the housing environment is found in households below the poverty line.

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

With regard to this indicator, it must be noted that the interpretation of data should take into account that they are based on individual perceptions and are therefore subjective. The EU average for perception of living in polluted areas is 12,6%. Denmark, Austria, Ireland and Sweden hold the minimum figures, while the highest values correspond to Portugal, Italy and France (over 15%).

Table 12 Proportion of households with problems of pollution by income group, 2000.

Household income compared to median actual current income	EU 15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
Less than 60%	12,0	7,4	5,8	-	8,9	6,2	16,9	8,4	16,9	-	15,2	3,5	13,8	14,5	7,7	12,0
Between 60% and 100%	12,5	10,7	4,7	-	11,9	8,9	17,3	6,1	15,4	-	13,1	4,9	18,7	13,2	8,7	12,5
Between 100% and 140%	12,9	12,8	4,6	-	15,8	11,0	15,8	4,8	18,2	-	11,4	4,9	15,6	13,6	8,4	12,9
140% and greater	13,1	8,0	3,9	-	16,4	10,6	16,6	7,0	18,2	-	10,7	8,8	24,5	15,6	7,4	13,1
Total	12,6	10,4	4,7	-	13,3	9,4	16,7	6,6	17,1	-	12,1	5,4	18,7	14,0	8,1	12,6

Source: Eurostat, NewCronos database, Theme 3, Housing.

By income group, the figures for the EU show that the perception of pollution as a housing problem increases slightly for each income group in comparison with the lower one. Since perceptions are strongly related to awareness, the higher percentages do not necessarily indicate higher levels of pollution, but maybe higher degrees of awareness.

However, the influence of household income in this perception is widely diverse in European countries, since opposite trends can be observed in different countries.

With regard to noise (from neighbours or outside), which is indeed a relevant aspect of pollution, it is perceived as a problem in one quarter of European households, but wide disparities can be observed between countries. Thus, in Italy and the Netherlands one third of households declare noise as a housing problem, while perceptions of this problem are particularly low in Ireland (below 10%) and to lesser extent in Denmark.

Table 13 Proportion of households with problems of noise by income group, 2000.

Household income compared to median actual current income	EU 15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
Less than 60%	27,3	25,2	17,2	-	13,4	20,6	26,1	10,4	36,6	-	41,4	24,1	22,0	33,0	24,9	27,3
Between 60% and 100%	25,2	23,7	14,6	-	18,2	22,5	22,4	10,6	33,6	-	34,3	20,9	28,5	23,5	22,9	25,2
Between 100% and 140%	24,8	25,7	13,3	-	20,6	21,9	20,7	8,4	33,8	-	33,4	21,9	27,6	23,0	22,9	24,8
140% and greater	24,8	24,5	12,4	-	20,6	24,7	20,5	9,3	33,4	-	34,3	17,0	30,2	22,0	22,1	24,8
Total	25,3	24,6	14,3	-	18,3	22,7	22,0	9,7	34,1	-	34,7	20,9	27,4	24,6	23,2	25,3

Source: Eurostat, NewCronos database, Theme 3, Housing.

Spain is slightly below the EU average, since 23% of households perceive noise as a problem in their environment. However, data from the Population Census 2001 indicate that 31% of the population declare that noise is a problem in the neighbourhoods where they live. According to these national data, the most widespread problem in housing environment for the Spanish population is the lack of green areas (37% of people), the second one is dirt (33%), and noise is in the third position.

Again, the effect of household income in people's perception of noise as a housing problem is ambiguous. According to Eurostat data, in Spain, as household income is higher the percentage of

household that declare problems of noise in their accommodation increases. Data reflect the same trend in Greece and Portugal, but the opposite –a decrease in perception of noise problems as income is higher- is observed in Nordic countries and other member states such as France, Austria, and the UK.

2.4 Health and care

2.4.1 Security of health provisions

10. Proportion of people covered by compulsory/ voluntary health insurance

In Spain, public health services (the former National Health Service corresponds now to regional administrations) are universalistic. Health insurance is linked to legal residence, but even non legal residents are entitled to primary health care and emergency care on a free basis, as the rest of the population.

Regarding the exploration of what is covered by the public health insurance, it must be mentioned that some regions have introduced new services in their health systems, covering some services that were not included in the National Health Service. However, what most public health services still do not cover is the most part of dental treatment.

Table 14 Proportion of adults covered by private health insurance by household income.

Household income (monthly)	%
Less than 398 euros	0,0
398 to 793 euros	3,7
794 to 1190 euros	6,4
1191 to 1587 euros	8,9
1588 to 2380 euros	11,2
More than 2380 euros	26,9
Total	14,1

Source: Spanish Statistical Institute, ECHP 2001.

Private health insurance is used on a voluntary basis, mainly by the most wealthy households as a means to access higher quality health services (with regard to waiting lists, hospitals' facilities, the possibility to choose the doctor, etc.). Thus, only 14% of the population is covered by private health insurance, and this is very strongly related to income, as it can be observed in the table above. Private health insurance often cover some services not included in the public health system (such as a part of dental treatment).

2.4.2 Health services

11. Number of medical doctors per 10.000 inhabitants

According to Eurostat data, the number of practitioners per 10.000 inhabitants in Spain was 45 in 2000. This rate is the second highest in the EU, and apart from Italy –where the figure reaches 60–, only in Greece and Belgium the rate is also over 40. However, it would be convenient to explore the influence of different national definitions on this indicator. In Spain, for instance, the remark must be made that statistics on health practitioners are derived from the number of members of medical professional associations, which is compulsory for practising doctors, but unemployed or retired doctors can also be members of those associations.

12. Average distance to hospital (in minutes)

Eurostat provides information on the time needed to go to nearest hospital, using three intervals: less than 20 minutes, between 20 and 59 minutes, and 1 hour or more. Thus, we can address the issue of proximity to hospital through the proportion of the population that have access to a hospital in less than 20 minutes.

Table 15 Proximity to hospitals (% having access to a hospital in less than 20 minutes) by sex, 1999.

	EU 15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
Total	51,9	65,9	62,3	50,9	37,7	41,5	53,2	38,4	65,7	70,1	70	40,1	37,6	50,3	52,8	44,7
Males	54,2	68,8	64,6	54,3	40,6	42,0	56,8	38,1	64,4	71,9	74,6	40,2	36,0	52,8	57,5	48,3
Females	49,9	63,2	60,1	47,7	35,0	41,0	49,9	38,7	66,8	68,4	65,5	39,9	39,0	48,0	48,2	41,3

Source: Eurostat, NewCronos database, Theme 3, Health and safety (source: Eurobarometer 52.1 – 1999).

The percentage is 41,5 in Spain, while the average for the EU is 52%. In Austria, Greece and Portugal the figures are slightly lower than in Spain, but in all the other member states they are higher.

On the other side, proximity to hospitals is particularly high in the Netherlands, Luxembourg and Belgium, where for more than two thirds of the population it would take less than 20 minutes to arrive to the nearest hospital from home. However, the interpretation of this indicator is to some extent problematic, due to the influence of the territorial elements. In fact, it can be noticed that the group of countries with the best outcomes regarding proximity to hospitals are also the countries with the highest figures in density of the population.

By sex, women are disadvantaged in comparison with men regarding proximity to hospital, since in most countries the proportion of men with access to a hospital in less than 20 minutes is higher than the figure for women. However, the differences are not significant on average (the average gap in the EU is below 5 percentage points).

In Portugal and Italy, women are better off than men with regard to proximity to hospitals, and in Ireland, Austria and Spain there are no significant differences by sex. On the contrary, large differences are observed in Sweden and the Netherlands (above 9 percentage points), and to lesser extent, in the United Kingdom, France and Germany.

According to data by income (see table below), significant differences are evident also for this

indicator, since there is a difference of 15 percentage points on average for the highest and lowest quartile proportions. In this regard, Spain is one of the countries where these differences are less pronounced.

Table 16 Proximity to hospitals by income (% having access to a hospital in less than 20 minutes) by quartiles of household-equivalence income, 1999.

	EU 15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
Total	52,8	66,0	64,0	52,7	39,9	41,4	54,4	44,6	60,9	69,7	72,5	40,8	37,8	50,9	58,0	45,5
Lowest quartile	44,9	53,6	58,7	48,0	35,7	38,4	43,4	40,5	47,0	69,9	66,8	38,7	27,2	48,0	56,0	34,2
Highest quartile	60,4	78,9	69,2	56,8	44,3	44,2	65,3	48,7	75,2	69,6	77,8	42,9	49,0	53,8	60,0	57,8
Difference*	15,5	25,3	10,5	8,9	8,5	5,8	21,9	8,2	28,2	-0,3	11,0	4,2	21,9	5,8	40,0	23,6

* In percentage points.

Source: Veerle Maesschalck, taken from European Foundation for the Improvement of Working and Living Conditions: Health and care in an Enlarged Europe (based on Eurobarometer 52.1, Q17/D29).

13. Average response time of medical ambulance

Spanish statistics on health do not provide information on this issue. However, according to the data provided by the regional coordination unit of medical ambulance, for 82% of the received calls, medical ambulance reaches the patient in less than 15 minutes, and in 16% of the events, it takes 15 to 30 minutes. Only for 2 in every 100 emergency calls, medical ambulance takes more than 30 minutes. It is complicated to assess to what extent these data can be extrapolated to the national level. Differences between rural and urban areas are likely to be relevant, and regional disparities may also be considerable as a consequence of geographical conditions.

2.4.3 Care services

14. Average number of hours spent on care

The definition of this indicator distinguishes care for four specific groups –disabled, children under 3, children over 3, and the elderly-, and refers to time spent on paid and unpaid care. Available information in Spain do not provide for such specific data, differentiating only care for children and adults (including sick, disabled and the elderly). But another issue is of higher importance: statistics about time spent on care usually refer exclusively to unpaid work.

According to the Time Use Survey 2002-03, carried out by the Spanish Statistical Institute, 15% of the population in Spain spend time daily in caring for children, and the average time spent on it is 1:55. Differences by gender are evident: this activity is carried out daily by 18,6% of women and 11,2% of men, and on average Spanish women spend 2 hours and 11 minutes daily in caring for children, while men spend 1 hour and 27 minutes.

With regard to caring for adults, only 2,5% of men and 4,5% of women spend time on this activity daily, and the average time is similar (around one hour and a half for both).

According to the ECHP 2001, 9,3% of men and 25% of women spend time in caring for children daily. The figures are 2,3% and 8,4 respectively for daily care for adults.

Since data cannot be found about time spent on caring when it is paid work, this indicator is not sufficiently reflecting the issue of care services. From the perspective of the Southern European countries, it would be more appropriate to clearly differentiate the role of the family and the role of public institutions, through two indicators: one referred to (unpaid) time spent in caring for others (either through the family or voluntary work), and another indicators about the coverage of public care services, such as the number of places for pre-school children and for dependant adults in relation to the total population.

2.5 Work

2.5.1 Employment security

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

According to the Law of Workers, a substantial change in terms or conditions of the contract must be notified to the employee 30 days in advance (art. 41).

16. Length of notice before termination of labour contract

This is also regulated in the Law of Workers, which establishes a length of notice of 30 days for individual dismissal, though in some cases it might be reduced to 15 days.

17. Proportion employed workforce with temporary job contract

The growth in temporary employment has been a common trend in European countries in the last decades. Temporary employment is associated with flexibility in the labour market from the perspective of employers, but also with precarity and insecurity in employment, from the side of employees.

This negative view of temporary employment becomes evident when we observe that the reason given by most temporary employees for being in temporary employment is that they could not find a permanent job.

Data about the proportion of employees with a contract of limited duration across the European Union show that the highest percentage is observed in Spain, where it reaches 30% of total employment.

The proportion is 5 percentage points higher for women than for men, so 1 out of every 3 female employees in Spain have a temporary contract.

The share of temporary employment is higher in female employment in all the countries considered, with the exception of Austria and Hungary, but the widest differences in relative terms are observed in Belgium and Finland.

Table 17 Proportion of temporary employees by sex (% of the total number of employees of a given sex), 2001*.

	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IR L	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	HU	SI
Total	8,9	9,4	-	11,5	30,8	-	-	10,0	-	14,4	7,2	21,9	14,9	14,4	6,3	7,2	14,2
Males	6,4	8,4	-	10,3	28,7	-	-	8,5	-	12,0	7,6	20	11,4	12,1	5,4	7,6	12,5
Females	11,9	10,4	-	13,2	33,8	-	-	12,3	-	17,2	6,8	24,1	18,3	16,7	7,2	6,7	16,1

* Age group: between 15 and 64 years. Last quarter.

Source: Eurostat, NewCronos database, Theme 3, Labour Force Survey.

The second position regarding the percentage of temporary employees corresponds to Portugal, where temporary employment accounts for a fifth of total employees. In all the other countries considered, it is below 15% of total employment, and the lowest rates correspond to Austria, Hungary and the United Kingdom.

It is worth noting that temporary employment involves insecurity in employment, particularly in contexts of high unemployment rates –which has been the case in Spain during the last years-, and that it affects mainly, apart from females, young people.

18. Proportion of workforce that is illegal

No reference to this issue can be found in national labour statistics. The OECD Employment Outlook 2004 dedicates a chapter to informal employment, addressing issues related to different types of undeclared work, including work by illegal migrants. According to this organization, underground production officially accounts for more than 10% of GDP in several OECD countries, and the share is about 15% in several Southern European countries. According to the last national estimates, in Spain economic underground (hidden) output and informal economic activity represents a share of 20% in GDP. Work by illegal migrants is one of the main sources of this irregular work, but other undeclared employees, undeclared wages, "black market" transactions and tax evasion by the self-employed are also included within estimations for underground production.

2.5.2 Working conditions

19. Number of employees that reduced work time as a proportion of the employees who are entitled to these kinds of work time reductions

Official statistics published by the Ministry for Labour and Social Affairs hardly pay any attention to the conciliation of work and family life, and data about actual use of work/life balance measures only refer to maternity and paternity leaves². The Law for promoting the conciliation of working and family life of workers (1999) established that employees are entitled to work time reductions for family reasons in the following terms (article 2): any employee in charge of any child under 6 years old or of any disabled person is entitled to reduce at least one third and a maximum of half their working time, with

² See indicator 84.

a proportional reduction in salary. The incidence of this and other measures regulated in this law has been low so far, though there seems to be a trend towards a growing number of employees using these measures.

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

The incidence rate of fatal accidents at work³ in the European Union was below 3 in 2000. Fatal work accidents are more frequent in Spain (4,7). Only in Austria, Luxembourg and Portugal the incidence rate is higher than in Spain.

Table 18 Standardised incidence rate of fatal accidents at work⁴, 2000.

EU	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
-15															
2,8	3,1	1,9	2,1	2,7	4,7	3,4	2,3	3,3	6,8	2,3	5,1	8,0	2,1	1,1	1,7

Source: Eurostat, NewCronos database, Theme 3, Health and Safety.

The incidence of non-fatal work accidents in Spain is the highest in the European Union. Agriculture (A) is the only sector where the incidence rate in Spain is lower than the EU average.

In all the other sectors, with the exceptions of Transport and communication (I), the incidence rate of those accidents that imply more than three days lost at work in Spain doubles the average incidence for the EU.

³ A *fatal accident* is defined as an accident which leads to the death of a victim within one year of the accident. The *incidence rate* is defined as the number of accidents at work per 100 000 persons in employment.

⁴ Excluding road traffic accidents and accidents on board of any mean of transport in the course of work. These accidents are not recorded as accidents at work in a few Member States, but they represent an important share of the number of fatal accidents, so comparisons of national incidence rates for fatalities would introduce a serious bias without this adjustment of the rates.

Table 19 Standardised incidence rate of non-fatal accidents at work (work accidents with more than three days absence) by economic activity, 2000.

	Economic activities *								
	Total	A	D	E	F	G	H	I	J-K
B	4.213	5.754	4.042	1.177	7.859	3.613	3.295	3.702	2.949
DK	2.866	1.541	4.956	3.521	3.955	1.438	1.702	3.361	965
D	4.757	14.443	4.455	270	8.893	2.331	5.579	10.460	448
EL	2.595	2.695	3.944	3.557	5.838	1.695	1.004	1.585	261
E	7.052	2.763	8.977	3.761	14.807	5.180	6.554	6.603	3.427
F	5.030	4.496	4.488	1.699	11.407	3.868	5.374	6.084	3.472
IRL	1.027	3.356	1.105	1.284	1.630	589	613	1.261	403
I	4.049	8.808	4.930	3.421	6.450	1.898	3.191	5.659	1.868
L	4.891	8.610	4.850	3.477	10.942	3.288	4.677	4.236	2.017
NL	4.095	5.754	5.714	496	2.777	2.336	1.604	3.268	5.328
A	3.056	11.138	3.345	2.177	5.499	1.439	1.199	2.816	1.323
P	4.863	2.422	6.462	3.638	7.048	4.113	3.183	4.243	3.078
FIN	3.046	729	4.024	1.691	7.059	1.849	2.099	3.634	1.325
S	1.475	1.629	1.957	970	2.410	1.175	1.131	1.466	631
UK	1.607	2.328	1.723	543	2.506	1.488	2.021	1.957	606
EU-15	4.016	6.625	4.421	1.513	7.548	2.524	3.790	5.512	1.815

* Classification of economic activities: NACE Rev. 1: A- Agriculture, hunting and forestry; D- Manufacturing; E- Electricity, gas and water supply; F- Construction; G- Wholesale and retail trade; repair of motor vehicles, motorcycles and personal and household goods; H- Hotels and restaurants; I- Transport, storage and communication; J-K- Financial intermediation; real estate, renting and business activities.

Source: Eurostat, NewCronos database, Theme 3, Health and Safety.

21. Number of hours a full-time employee typically works a week

The actual working time has been proposed as a third relevant aspect of working conditions, together with work time reductions and work accidents. This indicator focuses on actual working time for employees, thus avoiding the bias that employers or self-employed workers could introduce. Eurostat provides information about the average number of actual weekly hours of work by employment status, working time (full-time / part-time), sex and other variables such as economic activity and occupational status.

The following table presents data about weekly hours worked by full-time employees. In spite of the fact that data are lacking for several member states –including France, where the 35 working week has been established-, it can be observed that there are no substantial variations between EU member states in average working time for employees: it is around 40 hours in all the countries, ranging from a minimum of 37,8 in Belgium to a maximum of 41,7 in the United Kingdom.

Table 20 Average number of actual weekly hours of work in main job for full-time employees, by sex, 2002.

	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	HU	SI
Total	37,8	38,4	-	40,0	38,5	-	-	38,6	-	39,5	-	39,5	38,0	39,1	41,7	41,0	40,6
Females	36,8	37,0	-	38,8	37,7	-	-	36,4	-	38,0	-	38,4	36,6	38,0	39,0	40,2	40,0
Males	38,3	39,3	-	40,7	38,9	-	-	39,9	-	39,9	-	40,3	39,3	39,9	43,2	41,7	41,1

Source: Eurostat, NewCronos database, Theme 3, Labour Force Survey .

With regard to the gender variable, in all the countries the number of hours worked per week is higher for men than for women, though the differences are minor.

2.6 Education

2.6.1 Security of education

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

The indicator *early school leavers* is defined by Eurostat as *the percentage of the population aged 18-24 with at most lower secondary education and not in further education or training*. Lower secondary education is usually compulsory education, so this indicator can also be defined as *the proportion of pupils leaving education with at most compulsory education*.

The table below shows that in Spain, 29% of the young leave education with at most lower secondary education. The figure is lower for females (22%), and for males reaches 35%. These proportions of early school leavers are much higher than the EU average, and extremely far from the percentages in countries like Finland, Austria or Denmark, where less than 10% of the young leave school with only compulsory education. Actually, only in Portugal early school leavers represent higher proportions than in Spain.

Table 21 Early school leavers by sex, 2003.

	EU 25	EU 15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
Total	16,5	18,5	12,4	8,4	12,6	16,1	29,0	13,4	14,7	24,3	17,0	15,0	9,5	45,5	9,9	10,4	17,7
Females	14,2	16,1	9,9	6,6	12,6	12,3	22,3	11,9	10,8	20,7	19,6	14,3	10,3	38,1	7,3	9,3	16,6
Males	18,7	20,9	14,9	10,3	12,6	20,1	35,4	14,9	18,5	27,9	14,4	15,7	8,8	52,9	12,6	11,4	18,8

Source: Eurostat, NewCronos database, Theme 3, Labour Force Survey .

If we stick to the initial definition of this indicator –proportion of pupils leaving education without finishing compulsory education-, it must be pointed out that it does not refer to early school leavers, but to drop-outs in the late schooling years, that is, to the extent in which educational systems fail in schooling pupils till they complete compulsory education. We can look at this phenomenon through the school participation rates by age.

Table 22 School participation rates by age, 2000/2001.

	EU 15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
Compulsory education age		18	16	19	15	16	16	15	15	15	17	15	15	16	16	16
16	93	98	90	100	92	94	97	93	81	84	99	92	81	96	97	86
17	84	100	86	94	68	80	92	81	75	80	89	89	74	94	97	74
18	74	85	80	83	69	70	80	79	69	72	77	69	66	88	95	55
19	59	73	66	64	71	60	66	51	47	52	64	43	56	48	43	52
20	48	63	49	48	54	54	52	44	36	30	58	30	47	48	46	47

Source : F. Salladarre, taken from Eurostat (2003): Living conditions in Europe, p.30.

The table below shows that only 6% of those aged 16 (the age at which compulsory education ends) are not in education in Spain. In comparison with other European countries with the same compulsory education age, the proportion of drop-out in Spain is higher than in France, Finland and Sweden (3%), but is considerably lower than in the UK (14%) and Denmark (10%).

23. Study fees as proportion of national mean net wage

In Spain, compulsory education (up to 16 years old) is free, but even at high secondary level study fees are merely symbolic. This is not the case for private educational institutions, where fees are in function of the extent to which the institution is more exclusive or elitist. The same applies to higher education: fees in public universities and other public higher education institutions tend to be affordable for most people, and much lower than fees in private higher education institutions, which also vary substantially among them.

So from the Spanish perspective, this indicator should refer to tertiary education, and it would be necessary to introduce the distinction between in public and private educational institutions. In any case, information on study fees has not been collected in Spain so far.

Moreover, in our view the issue of affordability of education could be addressed in a more appropriate way through the focus on subsidies instead of fees, that is, through an indicator about financial aid to pupils/students.

2.6.2 Quality of education

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

Apart from the reservation about this indicator as a good proxy for quality of education, data are not available. However, similar information can be derived from a special Labour Force Survey ad hoc module in 2000, Youth Transitions from Education to Working Life in Europe: the average time to first significant job (defined as a job a job lasting at least 6 months and of a minimum of 15 hours per week). According to these data, the average time spent in the labour market after leaving education for the first time in Spain ranges from 22 months to 30. Only Italy hold higher figures, while the shortest transitions are found in Sweden and Austria.

Nevertheless, the fact that access to the labour market is particularly rough in Spain is undoubtedly influenced by the higher levels of unemployment than in most EU countries. Thus, additional indicators seem necessary to reflect more appropriately the quality of education in Spain.

2.7 Key trends for socio-economic security in Spain

With regard to the domain work, a relevant issue from the national perspective refers to the continuation of the adscription of gender roles, which is the grounding not only for inequality between men and women but also for discrimination in the labour market. Spain holds the lowest female participation in the labour force, along with Italy, (under 50% of the population aged 15 to 65), and the highest difference between female and male unemployment rates.

In this regard, it is indeed important to take into account the role of public structures supporting the conciliation or work and family life. A recent study about the relationship between social protection systems in the EU-15 and female participation in the labour market concludes that there is a significant correlation between public expenditure in care services for children and dependants and female employment rates. Thus, the insufficiency of public care services in Spain appears as a key factor in the low level of female employment. This dimension of socio-economic security, which is undoubtedly of importance in Southern European countries, should be properly reflected in its operationalisation.

It is also important to look at divergences between public and private sector workers, whose security in employment differ significantly. The working conditions in the public and private sector may also be considerably different.

On the other hand, some regional administrations have established additional measures for their employees to combine work and care: in certain Autonomous Regions, the governments have launched measures, including the provision of care services for children and the elderly, that go beyond those regulated at national level, so territorial differences may be becoming significant with regard to the combination or working and family life.

Concerning the domain housing, a relevant social trend in Spain is, no doubt, the influx of immigrants, which, unlike in many other European countries, is a very recent phenomenon. Thus, attention should be paid to the connection between immigration and housing conditions, and, more generally, with low quality of physical living circumstances.

A specific issue regarding housing in Spain concerns its affordability for the young, and the influence of this aspect in the delay in emancipation.

Health policy is facing the implications of ageing, as well as of immigration. A key question with regard to this later issue is the accessibility of health services for immigrants. The administrative division of the State in Spain is an aspect to consider also within this domain, since the decentralization of the health system may lead to territorial inequalities concerning the provision of health services.

Educational structures are also facing the challenge of immigration. Both sub-domains in the domain education could include indicators referred to the role of the educational system in the processes of integration/segregation.

3 Social Cohesion

3.1 Introduction

Comparative data for the indicators of this conditional factor are based in two main international sources: the Eurobarometer and the European Values Study. Though many indicators are derived from the questionnaire used for the European Values Survey, the availability of these data is rather limited, and information from this source usually comes from national sources, referring only to national data. In these cases, data analysis does not include comparison with other European countries.

From the picture drawn by these indicators, and even though in some cases data are only presented at national level, the degree of social cohesion in Spain can be said to be intermediate in the context of the European Union.

In the explanation of this intermediate position, historical factors such as the proximity of the setting-up of democracy in Spain in relation to other European countries should be kept in mind. Particularly, this aspect entails significant differences by age, due to the divergent socialization process lived by different generations. The duration of the dictatorship means that the older generations have hardly interiorised aspects of trust, participation, entitlement to social rights, etc.

Other relevant issues in Spain are, first, the recent massive entrance of immigrants, a new social phenomenon that requires time for adaptation; second, the situation with regard to educational levels, defined by the striking shift within two generations: a significant proportion of persons over 65 did not complete primary education, while the percentage of the population aged under 35 with tertiary education is higher in Spain than in most European countries. Lastly, the high rates of unemployment that have characterised the Spanish labour market throughout the last years can also be influencing the level of social cohesion negatively.

The influence of all these factors is confirmed when higher levels of cohesion are observed in the younger groups, with higher educational levels and a longer socialization process in democracy.

3.2 Trust

3.2.1 Generalised trust

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

According to the European Values Survey 1999, 36% of the Spaniards think that most people can be trusted. No differences can be observed by sex. By age, the highest level of trust corresponds to those aged 18 to 24 years (42%), while the lowest percentage is observed for people over 65 years (32%). Though the differences are not large, educational attainment also influences the degree in which people consider that they can trust other people.

When comparing with other EU countries, the position of Spain regarding social trust is intermediate, between the highest figures in Denmark and Sweden (66% of the population trust other people) and

the lowest in Greece (19,1%).

3.2.2 Specific trust

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

According to data from the EVS 1999, the institutions with the highest level of trust for the Spanish population are the educational system (65,3% of the population tend to trust it), the health system (64,2%) and the social security system (61,2%).

Apart from those institutions, only the police is trusted by more than half the population (53,7%).

With regard to elected representatives, in Spain only four out of ten individuals trust the Parliament (43,5%). Similar proportions are observed with regard to the national legal system (40,9%) and the public administration or civil service (38,5%).

Similar figures are also observed for the armed forces (42%), the Church (41,2%), and the media (40%), while the lowest level of trust corresponds to big companies –which can be seen as a proxy for economic transactions- (31,5%) and trade unions (25,2%).

The information found from the EVS 1999 for Spain about trust in different institutions does not refer to the government or political parties. According to the Eurobarometer 60, in 2003, 23% of the Spanish population tend to trust political parties, while the average in the EU-15 is 15%. Trust in the national government is also significantly higher in Spain (42%) than in the EU (31%). The same is observed with regard to the Parliament, since only 35% of the population trust this institution on average in the EU, while in Spain the proportion is over 40%. Though considerable differences are found between data from the 1999 EVS and data from the 2002 Eurobarometer for Spain with regard to trust in the armed forces and trade unions, in any case trust in these two institutions is significantly lower in Spain than in the EU on average.

To summarise, trust in the political system (political parties, the government and the Parliament) in Spain is considerably higher than in the EU-15, and the same is observed with regard to the media and big companies. While the proportion of Spaniards who tend to trust other institutions (particularly justice, the police, the army and religious institutions) is lower than the EU average.

27. Number of cases being referred to European Court of Law

No data have been found on this issue, but the information provided by the Eurobarometer about trust in EU institutions and bodies includes the Court of Justice of the European Union. According to data for 2003 (Eurobarometer 60), in Spain half of the population (48%) tend to trust the European Court of Justice, which is the average value in the EU-15. The highest proportions regarding trust in this institution are found in Luxembourg (70%), Denmark and Sweden, where more than two thirds of the population trust this court of justice, and the lowest correspond to the United Kingdom (32%).

It is worth highlighting that the proportion of people who tend to trust the European Court of Justice in Spain indicates a higher level of trust in this institution than in the Spanish national legal system.

28a. Importance of family, friends, leisure, politics

Regarding the importance of family in the lives of citizens, in Spain 98,9% of the population think that it is very or quite important. Figures are very similar in the other EU-15 countries, the lowest percentage corresponding to the Netherlands (92,7%).

The second most important aspect in life for the Spanish population is work (94,3% think it is very or quite important), while in many other European countries friends are placed in that second position. In Spain, 86% of the population considers friends as very or quite important in their lives (one of the lowest percentages observed in the EU), while in Sweden, Ireland, Great Britain and the Netherlands the proportion is ten points higher. A wide difference is also observed with regard to the importance of leisure: 80% of the Spaniards think it is important, while in several countries (the Netherlands, Sweden, Great Britain) this percentage is over 90%.

However, the widest differences among Europeans are observed in the importance given to religion and, to lesser extent, to politics.

In Spain, only for 41,7% of the population religion is an important aspect in their lives, and the percentage is below 20% when it comes to politics (19%).

Actually, politics is important for less than 20% of the Slovenians, Hungarians, Spanish and Finnish, while in Denmark, Austria and Luxembourg more than 40% of the population consider politics important and the proportion surpasses 50% in the Netherlands and Sweden.

With regard to religion, the divergences are huge: it is an important aspect in the lives of between 70% and 80% of the Greek, the Portuguese, the Italians and the Irish, while in all the other countries, including Spain, the proportions are below 50% (with the exception of Austria, 53,8%).

28b. Respecting parents

In the 1999 EVS, 75% of the Spaniards agreed with the statement that regardless of what the qualities and faults of ones parents are, one should always love and respect them. This figure represents a decrease with regard to the data obtained in 1995, where 85% of the population in Spain shared that opinion.

28c. Parents' duty to children

The view about parents' responsibilities are also clearly defined in Spain: 79% of the population agree with the statement that parents' duty is to do their best for their children even at the expense of their own well-being. The percentage was similar in the 1995 EVS (80%). However, the contribution of these two indicators to the domain trust is unclear.

3.3 Other integrative norms and values

3.3.1 Altruism

29. Volunteering: number of hours per week

According to the Use of Time Survey 2002-2003, in Spain 12% of the population spend time on unpaid voluntary work daily, but the proportions differ considerably by gender: 9,5% of men and 15% of

women. The average time spent on this is 1 hour and 49 minutes daily, and it is very similar for women and men. Age is also a relevant variable: 22% of people over 65 spend time daily on this activity, while the percentage is 6% for the young (under 25).

30. Blood donation

According to the Eurobarometer, in 2002, 31% of the population in the UE is blood-donor. The countries with higher rates of participation in blood donation are Austria (51%), Finland (39%) and France (38%), while the lowest proportions correspond to Italy (24%), Luxemburg (23%) and Portugal (22%). In Spain, blood donation is as common as in Sweden and Holland: around 25% of the population participates in this altruist activity.

3.3.2 Tolerance

31. Views on immigration, pluralism and multiculturalism

One of the questions in the EVS questionnaire addresses openly the issue of tolerance with regard to immigration, pluralism and multiculturalism, asking respondents their opinion about whether they think that it is better for society that immigrants maintain their distinct customs and traditions or that they do not maintain them but take over the customs of the country. In Spain, the proportions of people that agree with each of the alternative statement are very similar: 41% of the population are positive about pluralism and multiculturalism in society, and 38% think that it is better if immigrants do not maintain their traditions but take over the customs of the country.

However, several variables –such as age, educational attainment, ideological position, habitat, etc.- introduce significant differences in the positioning of the Spaniards. For instance, the percentage of the population that are positive about multiculturalism and pluralism reaches 50% for the young (those under 35) and surpasses that percentage for people with higher educational attainment (55% for those that hold a university degree).

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

One of the questions that addresses the issue of tolerance towards other groups in the EVS refers to the groups of people that respondents would not like to have as neighbours, including categories such as people of a different race, immigrants/foreign workers, homosexuals, people from different religious communities (Muslims, Jews), etc.

Based on the answers to this (and some other) question, different profiles of individuals can be defined regarding tolerance. In a similar way, the Eurobarometer 2000 analyzes the degree of tolerance towards minority groups in the EU, elaborating a typology of people according to their attitudes towards minorities. That typology identifies four categories of citizens: intolerant, ambivalent, passive tolerant, and active tolerant.

Data for this classification show that intolerance reaches the highest proportions in Greece (27%), Belgium (25%) and Denmark (20%), and the lowest are observed in Italy (4%), Spain (8%), Finland (8%), Portugal (9%) and Sweden (9%).

The highest levels of active tolerance are found in Sweden and Denmark (33%), Finland (32%) and

Holland (31%), while the lower figures correspond to Greece (7%), Portugal (12%), Italy (15%), Ireland (15%) and Spain (16%).

3.3.3 Social contract

33. Beliefs on causes of poverty: individual or structural

The EVS 2000 includes a question about people's opinion on causes of poverty, presenting four possible explanations for the existence of people who live in need. These reasons correspond to individual (unluckiness, laziness) or structural factors (injustice in society, part of modern progress).

Table 23 Proportion of the population that considers that the most important reasons for living in need are individual and structural.

	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	HU	SI
Individual	42,8	36,5	40,1	44,1	39,4	25,8	43,8	42,5	54,8	47,1	46,2	65,2	37,8	17,3	41,0	40,6	43,6
Structural	55,3	50,9	56,5	52,6	58,8	71,2	52,3	53,3	41,5	43,3	46,7	33,2	59,1	82,6	54,9	56,5	52,7

Source: Adapted from Veerle Maesschalk, taken from European Values Study: A third Wave.

A heterogeneous answer is observed among European countries with regard to this question: individual reasons are more important than structural reasons in Luxembourg, the Netherlands and Portugal, while in all the other countries structural reasons reach higher percentages as the most important causes of poverty.

In Spain, 39,4% of the population consider that poverty responds to individual reasons, while for 58,8% of people the most important reasons for living in need are structural. There is a clear influence of the variable age, since the proportion of people who consider that living in need respond to structural reasons is higher for the young, and decreases when age increases.

34-36. Willingness to pay more taxes if you were sure that it would improve the situation of the poor / Willingness to pay 1% more taxes in order to improve the situation of elderly people in your country / Willingness to actually do something practical for the people in your community- neighbourhood

These three indicators insist on the same issue: the degree in which people are concerned about the living conditions of the others in such a way that they would be willing to do something in the interest of certain groups (the poor, the elderly, etc.) or society.

In our view, this aspect of integrative norms and values can be appropriately reflected through a single indicator, which can be easily derived from the EVS 2000: question 81 ask people to what extent they would be prepared to actually do something to improve the conditions of their immediate family, people in their neighbourhood/community, elderly people, immigrants, and sick and disabled people in their country⁵.

⁵ Other categories might be included in the formulation of this question in different countries (people in the region, people in

This corresponds to the formulation of indicator 36 –though skipping any reference to the potential ways of providing help-, and it can be interpreted that it also reflects sufficiently the issues addressed in the other two indicators. Moreover, the proposal of indicators referred to paying more taxes (34 and 35) might be subjected to bias, in the sense that people may be really concerned about the situation of any of those groups, and still not agree on an increase in taxes –it could be the case of people in low income, or people who think that they pay enough taxes and part of that money should be used for those ends-.

According to data for Spain, on a scale from 1 (absolutely yes) to 5 (absolutely not), the average response is over the intermediate value for most categories; apart from the immediate family (which obtains 4,54), the highest average is observed for elderly people (3,77); for sick people the figure is 3,52, and for people in the neighbourhood/community 3,35, while for immigrants goes down to 3,15.

37. Division of household tasks between men and women

The formulation of this indicator refers to the existence of an understanding husband/ spouse about the division of household tasks, raising of the children, and gaining household income. Apart from the complexity to measure this, it seems more appropriate to focus on the actual division of household tasks between men and women, reflected in time use surveys. Data for Spain indicate that women spend 4 hours and 45 minutes daily in household and family activities, while men spend 2 hours and 8 minutes (Source: National Statistics Institute, Use of Time Survey 2002-03).

3.4 Social networks

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

According to the EVS 2000, in Spain 31,4% of the population are members of some association (voluntary organisations, sport clubs, etc.), and 18,9% are active members. Sport and recreational organisations hold the highest level of membership (8% of people), together with cultural and religious organisations (7% and 6%, respectively).

39. Support received from family, neighbours and friends

The Time Use Survey carried out recently in Spain indicates that 24,5% of households receive support from other households for different activities, including care for children or adults, the cooking, the cleaning, the shopping, etc.

From the perspective of those who provide support to other households, the table below illustrates the proportion of people that help other households in different activities, by sex and age. It can be observed that support is provided mainly by women.

Moreover, the high proportion of elderly women helping other households point to the frequent support from grandmothers to the rising of their grandchildren and in general, to household work for their daughters and sons.

your country, Europeans, mankind, the unemployed, etc.)

Table 24 Percentage of the population that help other households, by sex and age.

	Total	Males	Females
Under 25	19,0	14,9	22,9
25 to 64	15,9	13,6	18,3
65 and over	20,3	14,9	25,6
Total	18,0	16,3	19,3

Source: adapted from INE, Use of Time Survey 2002-03.

40. Frequency of contact with friends and colleagues

The ECHP (2001) indicates that 68% of people spend time with friends or relatives the majority of days, and another 25% once or twice a week. No significant differences are found by gender, but frequency of contact is lower for the elderly (65 years old and over). Data are not presented for contact with colleagues in this source.

The Use of Time Survey indicates that 50% of the population spend time in social life daily (45% in working days, and 57% during the weekend). Proportions do not vary significantly by gender, but differences by age are considerable: on average, 58% of people under 25 spend time daily in social life, and for the age group 45 to 64, the proportion is 46%.

3.5 Identity

3.5.1 National / European identity

41. Sense of national pride

Sense of national pride –measured through the proportion of the population which is very or fairly proud of being national of each state- in the EU ranges from 96% in Finland, Greece and Ireland, to the lowest figure in Germany (only two thirds of the population are proud of being German). In Spain, this percentage reaches 92%, while the EU average is 85%. In all Southern European countries the sense of national pride is higher than the EU average, since more than 90% of people are proud of their nationality; actually, these countries hold, together with Ireland and Finland, the maximum level of national pride.

If national pride is considered an appropriate indicator for measuring national identity, its equivalent, European pride, should also be included for measuring European identity.

Table 25 National and European pride: proportion of the population being very or fairly proud of being national and European.

	EU 15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
National pride	85	83	89	66	96	92	86	96	93	85	84	88	92	96	90	90
European pride	61	64	69	49	64	74	58	75	81	73	62	69	66	73	70	47

Source: Veerle Maesschalk, taken from Eurobarometer 60.

Three quarters of the population in Spain are proud of being European. This proportion is 13 points higher than the EU average (61%). The highest values correspond, together with Spain, to Italy and Ireland, and the lowest to the UK and Germany, where only half of the population is proud of being European.

42. Identification with national symbols and European symbols

Data about the proportion of the population that identifies themselves with symbols such as the national and the European flag have not been found for Spain. However, the Eurobarometer provides information for an alternative indicator, which also seems more appropriate to complement the picture on national and European identity: the degree of attachment of people to Europe and to their nation (proportion of people feeling very or fairly attached to Europe and to their nation, respectively).

Table 26 People's attachment to their country and to Europe: proportion of the population feeling very or fairly attached to their country and to Europe.

	EU 15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
Attachment to own country	91	87	98	86	98	92	93	96	97	92	85	91	97	97	95	88
Attachment to Europe	58	67	73	62	52	67	56	58	68	77	29	66	64	62	72	52

Source: adapted from Eurobarometer 60.3.

It can be observed that people's attachment to their country is very high in most member states. The figure for Spain coincides with the average percentage for the EU, which indicates that 9 in 10 respondents feel very or fairly attached to their country. In 5 countries (Denmark, Greece, Portugal, Finland and Ireland) the proportion is over 95%, and the lowest percentages (below 90%) are observed in the Netherlands, Germany, Belgium and the UK.

People's attachment to Europe is much lower, and there is a wide gap between maximum and minimum values. On average nearly 6 in 10 EU citizens feel very or fairly attached to Europe. In Spain, two thirds of respondents feel very or fairly attached to Europe. The highest degree of attachment to Europe is found in Luxembourg, Denmark and Sweden (over 70%). People in the Netherlands are least likely to feel attached to Europe (half of the Dutch respondents feel not very attached), followed by people in the UK. In 13 of the 15 member states, more than half of the respondents feel very or fairly attached to Europe.

Another indicator that can also illustrate people's identification with Europe and with their country can be derived from the Eurobarometer, which includes a question about how people see themselves in the near future with regard to their nationality and being European. Respondents have to choose one answer of these four options: (Nationality) only, (Nationality) and European, European and (Nationality), European only. In order to grasp to what extent there is a European identity, we can look at the percentage of citizens who see themselves as nationals only, in comparison with those who feel European (adding the other three categories). Data are presented in the following table.

Table 27 Identification with country and Europe: proportion of the population identifying themselves only with their country and proportion feeling European.

	EU 15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
National only	40	40	37	38	51	29	35	49	25	24	43	46	51	57	48	62
European	57	57	63	59	48	69	62	48	72	72	57	53	48	43	51	36

Source: adapted from Eurobarometer 60.3.

It can be observed that the majority of citizens feel to some extent European (nearly 6 in 10 on average), but opinions differ widely between countries. People are most likely to identify themselves with Europe in Luxembourg, Italy and Spain, where less than 30% of citizens see themselves as nationals only. In Sweden, Ireland, Greece and Portugal, half of respondents do not identify themselves with Europe, and this percentage is still higher in Finland and the UK.

3.5.2 Regional / community / local identity

43. Sense of regional / community / local identity

The sense of regional and local identity can be measured through data from the Eurobarometer about the degree of attachment of people to their city/town/village and to their region, but no reference is made to community identity.

Table 28 People's attachment to their city/town/village and to their region: proportion of the population feeling very or fairly attached to their city/town/village and to their region.

	EU 15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
Attachment to city/town/village	88	87	86	88	97	97	83	93	92	83	75	91	93	87	86	88
Attachment to region	87	89	80	86	99	92	85	93	88	84	76	88	95	90	89	85

Source: adapted from Eurobarometer 60.3.

Data show that on average nearly 9 in 10 European citizens feel very or fairly attached to both their locality and their region. With regard to local identity, attachment to city/town/village is particularly high in Spain and Greece (97%), followed by Ireland, Portugal, Italy and Austria, where the proportion of respondents feeling very or fairly attached to their locality surpasses 90%. Only in the Netherlands the sense of local identity is below 80%.

The differences between countries in the degree of attachment to their region are very similar: in Greece, Portugal, Ireland and Spain more than 90% of the population hold a strong regional identity, and the lowest proportion of people feeling very or fairly attached to their region are found in the Netherlands and Denmark.

If we compare local and regional identities, it can be observed that both are similarly widespread. In the EU as a whole, the percentages of respondents feeling very or fairly attached to their city/town/village and to their region are nearly the same, and those differences in both proportions are

minor in all countries: the degree of attachment of people to their region is slightly higher than attachment to locality in Belgium, Greece, France, Portugal, Finland and Sweden, while sense of local identity is higher than regional identity in Denmark, Germany, Spain, Italy, Austria and the UK.

3.5.3 Interpersonal identity

44. Sense of belonging to family and kinship network

No relevant data have been found on this question, but data about the importance of family and the willingness to do something for the immediate family (see indicators 28a & 34-36) can be seen as a proxy for the relevance of this institution in Spain, which is a common feature in Southern European countries.

3.6 Key trends for social cohesion in Spain

The social trends that are likely to influence the social cohesion dimension of social quality in Spain, are, to a great extent, common to most southern European countries, and they are very much related to historical reasons. The late democratization of Spain has entailed the concentration within a short period of time of far-reaching transformations not only in the political and economic field but also in the social and cultural spheres.

We can identify the following trends in the Spanish society as the most relevant for social cohesion: *The rapid growth of immigration in the last years.* Spain has become a country of reception of immigrants in a very short period of time. The continuous flow of foreign workers and their families – especially from Northern Africa and Southern America- from the nineties is one of the social phenomena with greatest impact in current Spanish society. Their integration is a challenge for the coming years.

The strength of (emergent) nationalisms in different regions of the country. In several Autonomous Communities, the recent political developments point towards a greater influence of nationalism in terms of the ideological alignments of citizens, together with the radicalization of the lines of nationalist political parties. For example, in the last elections in Catalonia, the political parties that claim full sovereignty for the ‘Catalonian nation’ found the support of an important proportion of voters.

The insufficient presence of women in the public space. In comparison with most other countries in the EU, women continue to be, to a large extent, excluded from the processes of decision-making in our country.

The rupture in female and male images of their social roles. In Spain, attention must be paid to the persistence of the sexual division of labour, which becomes evident in wage discrimination against women or in the fact that little has changed with regard to the incorporation of men into the family sphere. But the development of this unequal structure is having a dual effect in collective values: on the one hand, most women do not longer accept their subordinate role in the family and in society, while, to a large extent, many ideas of the bread winner model of family seem to remain valid for men. Thus, the term ‘rupture’ is used to express the trend towards a scenario in which women and men tend to hold conflicting views and incompatible images about their roles, so that a new social contract

needs to be re-negotiated regarding the social roles of women and men. This aspect of the social contract does not seem to be sufficiently addressed in the operationalisation of social cohesion. Related to this issue is a question that we must also mention: *violence against women*. It can be said that it has recently become a social problem in Spain due to the increase in the number of murders of women by their (ex) husbands or partners in the last years, but also to the drop of social tolerance towards this phenomenon. This brutal manifestation of gender inequality has to do with the imbalance or rupture between female and male conceptions of their respective roles. Finally, the increase in the number of associations and institutions that intermedate between citizens and the State: it has meant an enlargement or a generation of *new links in vertical networks*. However, in this sense, this trend in Spain may be in an earlier phase than in most other European countries. Another trend relevant for social cohesion and also important for other countries is the *growing mobility of people within the EU*.

4 Social Inclusion

4.1 Introduction

The image of the Spanish society regarding its degree of social inclusion is fairly positive, though relevant variations emerge between the different dimensions of this conditional factor, as for socio-economic security.

At the societal level, a high level of inclusiveness is observed concerning citizenship rights, due to the minor impact of immigration in Spain in comparison with Central and Northern EU member states, and as a consequence, to the lesser magnitude of ethnic minorities and non-nationals in the population in Spain.

With regard to the social inclusion of women, the position of Spain is characterised, as well as in the other Southern European countries, by the lowest levels of female participation in decision-making, both in the economic and political spheres. Nevertheless, the situation has improved significantly in the last years, particularly regarding their participation in political networks.

The same applies to the inclusion of individuals in the labour sphere: the Spanish labour market is one of the least inclusive in the EU, according to the observed indicators, but a major change has taken place, with the substantial reduction in the last years in the incidence of unemployment and of long-term unemployment, which were in Spain throughout the nineties much higher than in the other EU countries. However, gender differences continue to be of the highest importance in this dimension of social inclusion in Spain.

Regarding access to services, though comparative data are not presented, the Spanish society appears to be fairly inclusive with regard to health, housing and education, as a result of the specificity of the housing situation in Spain and of entitlement to public health care services, to education and to social rights –particularly public pensions-, which became key pillars of the Spanish society with the recuperation of democracy.

As for care services, the focus on access hinders the issue of coverage of public care services, which is absolutely insufficient in Spain. This aspect of services calls for further attention, given its importance for assessing the degree of inclusiveness of any society.

The information provided through the sub-domains financial services and transport, on the other side, does not seem especially relevant for social inclusion in Spain. Moreover, data about the accesibility of the public transport system in Spain are in contrast with actual use. As for the financial assistance system, in spite of the limited data available, it cannot be seen as inclusive.

Regarding access to cultural and civic services, data for Spain can be interpreted as positive, particularly because of a positive trend in last years.

At the interpersonal level, though comparison with other European countries is also lacking, the inclusion of individuals in social networks in Spain seems to be high.

4.2 Citizenship rights

4.2.1 Constitutional / political rights

45. Proportion of residents with citizenship

Different official sources provide information about foreign population in Spain, and data differ considerably from one source to another. Data from Eurostat illustrate that immigration is a recent phenomenon in Spain: in 1990, when the average proportion of non-nationals in the European population was 4,1%, in Spain the percentage was one of the lowest (1%), together with Portugal, Italy and Finland. In 2001, the incidence of immigration continues to be significantly lower in Spain than in many other European countries, and the proportion of non-national population is still far from the figure for the EU as a whole.

Table 29 Non-national population as a percentage of total population.

	EU 15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
1990, total	4,1	8,9	2,9	6,1	2,2	1,0	6,3	2,3	0,9	28,7	4,3	6,6	1,0	0,4	5,3	-
2001, total	5,4	8,4	4,8	8,9	7,0	3,3	5,6	4,1	2,5	36,9	4,2	8,9	2,0	1,8	5,4	-
Other EU nationals	1,6	5,5	1,0	2,3	0,4	1,0	2,0	2,7	0,3	31,8	1,3	1,3	0,6	0,3	2,0	-
Non EU nationals	3,8	2,9	3,8	6,6	6,5	2,3	3,5	1,4	2,3	5,1	2,9	7,5	1,5	1,4	3,3	-

Source : F. Salladarre, taken from Eurostat, 2003, «Living conditions in Europe», p.12

According to statistics from the Ministry of Home Affairs, based on residence permits, in 2003 there were 1.647.011 non-national residents in Spain, which in relation to total population (42.717.064 inhabitants), represent a proportion of 3,9%. The following table illustrate that this percentage has increased significantly in very few years. Thus, its counterpart, the proportion of residents with nationality (or citizenship) has been diminishing intensely in relative terms in the last years: in 2000, 97,8% of the population in Spain were residents with citizenship, and three years later the figure is 96,1%.

These data also show that the proportion of EU nationals in non-national residents is decreasing rapidly: in 2000, EU nationals accounted for almost half of residence permits (47%), and three years later the percentage falls to one third.

Table 30 Evolution of residence permits in Spain.

	2000	2001	2002	2003
Residence permits	895.720	1.109.160	1.324.001	1.647.011
Residence permits for EU nationals	419.874	449.881	497.045	572.116
% of total population	2,2	2,7	3,2	3,9

Source: adapted from Ministry of Home Affairs, Annual Report, and National Statistics Institute, population estimations.

According to the last official estimation of the National Statistics Institute, the proportion of non-national residents in Spain reached 4,7% in 2002, so the percentage of the population entitled to citizenship rights would be 95,3%.

Bearing in mind that that official statistics estimate the number of illegal residents in one million people in Spain, and they are not included in the above data, we can conclude that approximately 5% of people residing in Spain are not entitled to citizenship rights.

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

According to statistics from the Ministry of Home Affairs about foreign residents, 35% of residence permits in 2003 correspond to EU-nationals or Norway, which are the countries whose nationals have the right to vote in Spanish local elections if they are officially residents in Spain.

Another source, the Population Census 2001, establishes that 19% of foreign residents in Spain are citizens of other EU member state or Norway.

In the electoral census for the last local elections (May 2003), 153.405 non-national residents were entitled to vote. This figure supposes 9,3% of the non-nationals with residence permits, and 13% of foreign residents over 18 years old. As a proportion of EU residents, the number of non-nationals who could vote in the last local elections represents 26,8%. This low proportion suggests a voluntary aspect in non-participation in local elections. Data about actual participation of non-national voters in Spanish local elections do not exist.

4.2.2 Social rights

47. Proportion with right to a public pension

The image of Spain is very positive with regard to this aspect of social inclusion, since the pensions system is universalistic: 100% of Spanish citizens aged 65 and over are entitled to a public pension. The system is divided in two different types of benefits: the contributory pensions (direct taxation based), for retired workers, through the national social security system. These pensions are financed through compulsory revenues from employees and employers, and the pension depends on the time the worker has quoted (though it is not a capitalization system, it cannot be assimilated to what would be obtained from a private system of social security). Second, for all citizens 65 and over who are not entitled to a contributive pension in the social security system, the State finances the non-contributive pensions through the General Budget, so it accounts for an important share of social protection expenditure in Spain.

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

According to Eurostat, in 2002 annual gross earnings of women were 85% of men's in Spain, so the gender pay gap was at the level of the average for the EU (16 percentage points). The most striking fact with regard to this indicator emerges when we observe the recent evolution of data, and a trend towards a less equitable situation is evident. Effectively, in the EU the distance between female and male wages has not decreased since the mid-nineties, and in Spain the gender pay gap has increased in almost 10 percentage points since 1995.

4.2.3 Civil rights

49. Proportion with right to free legal advice

Legal advice is one of the types of assistance provided by social services in Spain, and every social services centre has a legal adviser. In this sense, it can be said that the entire population is entitled to free legal advice in terms of consultation and guidance, through social services.

Besides this assistance at local level, at regional level different public administration bodies in the social policy area provide free legal advice in their specific policy field. For labour issues, trade unions provide legal advice to employees, even if they are non-members, though usually legal representation is not provided on a free basis.

Moreover, the Ministry of Justice created in 1995 the offices for the assistance to crime victims, but representation is not included in the services they provide.

The provision of free legal representation is regulated in the Law on Free Legal Assistance (1996), which established that people in low income are entitled to it. This law acknowledges the right to free legal assistance for all those whose family annual income from any source is below twice the minimum wage (in 2003, the minimum wage was 451,2 € a month, 6.316,8 € a year). According to the ECHP 2001, 22% of households are in that situation with regard to income, so it can be estimated that a similar proportion of the population has the right to free legal representation. In special cases, if the committee in charge of it consider it is appropriate, people whose income is below four times the minimum wage can also access free legal representation.

A particular issue with regard to legal advice is related to gender violence. A recent set of measures to fight violence against women (2003) establishes free legal advice (both representation and consultation) for women who denounce these situations.

50. Proportion experiencing discrimination

A survey carried out by the European Foundation on Living and Working Conditions (Third European Working Conditions survey, 2000), includes a set of question about the awareness of the existence of discrimination in the workplace, and also about experiencing discrimination: "*Over the past 12 months, have you or have you not, been subjected at work to sexual discrimination, discrimination linked to nationality, ethnic background/race, disability or sexual orientation?*" (Q31). The following table presents the data for Spain and the average in the 15 EU member states.

Table 31 Discrimination at work: proportion of respondents who have been subjected to discrimination.

	Spain	EU-15
Sexual discrimination	1,2	1,7
Nationality	0,5	1,1
Ethnic background/ race	0,4	1,0
Disability	0,2	0,5
Sexual orientation	0,1	0,3

Source: adapted from Third European Working Conditions survey, 2000, Q.31.

It can be observed that discrimination based on gender is far more frequent than discrimination based in any other feature, and that the percentage of workers who have been subjected to discrimination linked to any characteristic is lower in Spain than in the EU.

According to these data, discrimination affects at most 12 in 1000 workers in Spain, and 17 in 1000 workers in the EU. However, the incidence of discrimination is likely to be considerably higher, since these data are referred only to discrimination experienced at work over the 12 months prior to the interview.

4.2.4 Economic and political networks

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

As said earlier, immigration is a very recent phenomenon in Spain, and ethnic diversity is only nowadays beginning to come on stage. Thus, except for the gypsies, we cannot still speak of ethnic minority groups in Spanish society but of migrant groups (without nationality status), whose exclusion/inclusion is conditioned by nationality rather than by ethnicity or race. Thus, they are not Spanish citizens and therefore are excluded from political participation.

With regard to the gypsies, there has only been one parliament member from this ethnic group, in two of the nine parliamentary periods in the Spanish democracy (1977-2004).

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

After the recent general elections in Spain (March 2004), the percentage of women in the Parliament reaches 25% in the Upper House and surpasses 35% in the Lower House.

Table 32 Proportion of women in the Spanish Parliament by term.

	Lower House	Upper House
1982/1986	4,6	4,3
1986/1989	6,3	5,6
1989/1993	12,9	10,8
1993/1996	15,7	12,5
1996/2000	22,0	14,1
2000/2004	28,9	24,3
2004-2008	36,0	25,1

Source: Women in figures 2004 (Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, Women Institute).

This represents a significant increase in relation to the previous term. In regional parliaments, the proportion of women is around 30%.

Moreover, the new Socialist government has made an important step forward with regard to female access to decision-making, applying the criterion of parity in the composition of the government (half of ministers are women) and also in the party representation in the parliament (46% of female

parliament members).

In comparison with the other European member states, there has been a significant change in the position of Spain with regard to female participation in politics, which nowadays is only lower than in the Nordic countries (Finland, Sweden and Denmark) and Germany, and is significantly higher than in the countries of a similar cultural setting (Italy, Portugal, Greece and Ireland).

With regard to female access to management in the economic sphere, the Third European Working Conditions Survey illustrates that in Spain only 13% of workers report that their immediate boss is a woman.

This is the second lowest percentage (after Greece), while the average in the EU reaches 20%, and in several countries more than 1 out of 4 workers have a woman as boss.

Table 33 Gender of immediate superior: proportion of respondents whose boss is a woman.

EU 15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
19,3	17,2	28,3	15,9	7,9	13,3	20,1	20,3	17	16,7	19,7	16	17,6	27,6	28,3	27,7

Source: adapted from Third European Working Conditions survey, 2000, Q.33.

If we focus on female participation in top positions, according to the 2002 CWDI Report for Spain⁶, only 24% of the top 300 companies have at least a woman in their board of directors. This means that in 75% of these companies there are no women in the board of directors. Moreover, the ten largest companies do not have one single woman director.

The number of board seats held by women is 115, which represents 4,6% of the total number of individual board directorships in the top 300 companies, so 95,4% of board seats are held by men. If we look at companies on stock-exchange, the percentage of board direct members who are women is 3,8%.

4.3 Labour market

4.3.1 Access to paid employment

53. Long-term unemployment

The long-term unemployment rate in Spain in 2003 was 3,9%. This figure coincides with the average rate for the 25 member states, but is higher than the rate for the EU-15. The incidence of long-term unemployment within the 15 EU countries is particularly high in Italy and Greece, followed by Spain and Germany, while the lowest rates (below 1%) are found in Austria, Denmark, Luxembourg and the Netherlands.

⁶ The 2002 Corporate Women Directors International Report: Women Board Directors of Spain's Top Companies.

Table 34 Long-term unemployment rates by sex (as a percentage of the total active population), 2003.

	EU 25	EU 15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
Total	3,9	3,1	3,5	0,9	4,1	5,1	3,9	3,0	1,3	5,3	0,7	0,7	0,9	1,8	2,3	1,0	1,1
Female	4,5	3,6	4,1	1,0	4,2	8,3	6,3	3,5	0,7	7,2	1,2	0,8	1,1	2,2	2,0	0,8	0,7
Male	3,4	2,7	3,2	0,8	4,0	3,0	2,3	2,6	1,7	4,1	0,5	0,6	0,8	1,4	2,5	1,2	1,4

Source: Eurostat, NewCronos database.

Women are more likely than men to be long-term unemployed in all countries except Finland, Sweden and Ireland, but the wider disparities by gender are found in Greece, Spain and Italy. Actually, the incidence of male long-term unemployment in Spain is lower than in the EU-15, while female long-term unemployment surpasses widely the rate for the EU-15.

Nevertheless, the image of Spain with regard to this indicator is not so negative when we look at the recent evolution. Indeed, employment growth since the mid-nineties has resulted in a very significant decrease in the incidence of both unemployment and long-term unemployment in Spain. In a period of ten years, long-term unemployment rates shifted from nearly 10%, which was twice the average rate in the EU-15 at that time, to 4%.

54a. Involuntary temporary employment

According to Eurostat data, in Spain 7 in 10 temporary employees report that the reason for being in temporary employment is that they could not find a permanent job. The percentage reaches 93,3% if we exclude non-respondents (25%), so the overwhelming majority of Spanish temporary employees are involuntarily working under a contract of limited duration. The table below illustrates that there are wide variations between European countries in the proportion of temporary employees who would prefer a permanent job. It can also be observed that there is a high level of non-response in many countries: it reaches 29% in the Netherlands, 39% in the UK, 45% in Austria⁷ and is over 50% in Sweden.

Table 35 Reason reported by employees for being in temporary employment (% of total number of temporary employees), 2002.

	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	HU	SI
Could not find a permanent job	80,9	39,0	-	72,4	69,2	-	-	42,8	-	22,6	0,0	68,7	73,6	24,0	27,9	49,6	36,1
Did not want a permanent job	10,5	23,7	-	4,1	0,8	-	-	4,5	-	11,8	0,0	0,0	17,2	11,8	27,3	4,6	49,1
In education or training	8,9	36,8	-	7,5	3,0	-	-	29,5	-	0,5	54,6	6,0	5,9	1,3	5,5	2,5	7,4
Probationary period	0,0	0,0	-	3,4	1,2	-	-	4,8	-	36,1	0,0	8,2	2,6	11,8	0,0	20,4	3,7
No reason given	0,0	0,0	-	12,3	25,8	-	-	18,3	-	29,1	45,0	17,3	0,0	51,3	39,2	22,9	3,7

Source: adapted from Eurostat, NewCronos database (Theme 3, Labour Force Survey).

⁷ Data for Austria do not seem reliable.

If the ratio of involuntary temporary employment is calculated taking as reference population the employees who respond this question, the highest proportion corresponds to Spain (over 90%), followed by Greece and Portugal (83%) and Belgium (80%). The lowest percentages of involuntary employees are found in the Netherlands (32%), Slovenia (37%) and Denmark (39%). An intermediate situation with regard to the incidence of involuntary temporary employment is observed in Italy, the UK and Sweden, where the rate is around 50%.

In a group of countries (the Netherlands, Denmark, Italy, Sweden and Hungary), a significant share of people working under a contract of limited duration are either in education or training or in a probationary period. These data also show that in two member states (Slovenia and the UK), there is a high proportion of voluntary temporary employees, since 45 to 50% of respondents do not want a permanent job.

54b. Involuntary part-time employment

With regard to involuntary part-time work, strictly, involuntary part-time workers are those who report the inability to find a full-time job as the reason for working part-time. Data show that, as in the previous question, variations between member states are broad: the percentages range from 2,5% in the Netherlands to 46% in Greece, though the ratio is between 20% and 30% in the majority of countries. However, these data are biased by non-response, which is extremely high again in many countries. Excluding that category, the ratio of involuntary part-time work reaches 45% to 55% in the Mediterranean countries (Greece, Italy and Spain), and surpasses 30% in Portugal, Belgium and Finland.

The Netherlands and the UK are the only countries where the majority of part-time workers (around 3 in 4) report voluntary reasons for working fewer than full-time hours. The percentage of voluntary part-time workers is also high in Sweden, Denmark and Italy (40% to 45%), while the lowest ratio corresponds to Spain, Slovenia and Belgium, where for less than 20% of part-time workers did not want a full-time job.

Table 36 Reason reported by part-time workers for working part-time (% of total number of part-time workers), 2002.

	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	HU	SI
Could not find a full-time job	18,1	15,9	-	45,9	20,4	-	-	31,9	-	2,5	-	26,8	29,9	23,3	8,7	24,0	11,1
Did not want a full-time job	11,1	44,3	-	27,7	7,2	-	-	25,4	-	70,9	-	16,8	23,9	42,8	72,8	26,4	8,9
Familiar/ personal responsibilities	23,2	0,0	-	0,0	10,8	-	-	0,0	-	4,5	-	10,5	7,0	0,0	0,0	7,4	0,0
In education or training	2,6	34,9	-	7,5	6,4	-	-	3,9	-	13,3	-	6,9	32,6	18,2	15,8	4,1	31,1
Own illness or disability	2,5	4,5	-	1,9	0,8	-	-	1,8	-	0,7	-	11,5	2,3	10,6	2,1	19,8	31,1
Other reasons/ No reason given	42,5	0,0	-	17,6	54,3	-	-	37,1	-	8,1	-	27,8	4,3	5,1	0,5	19,0	17,8

Source: adapted from Eurostat, NewCronos database (Theme 3, Labour Force Survey).

Whether the other responses point to voluntary or involuntary reasons for working part-time is a relevant question. Actually, these responses may refer to specific constraints for finding a full-time job (such as familiar responsibilities), which do not necessarily mean that these respondents are working part-time on a voluntary basis. On the contrary, for a considerable share of them a full-time job could be a more desirable situation in employment.

In addition to this, the high level of non-response rises concern about the reliability of these data, and it may be pointing to an inadequate way to tackle the question of the “involuntary” aspects in working conditions.

4.4 Services

4.4.1 Health services

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

As mentioned in indicator 10, 100% of people are entitled to primary health care in Spain, as well as to emergency care, even if they are not legal residents.

About actual use of primary health care services, the ECHP 2001 shows that 36% of men and 26% of women have not gone to the general practitioner in the year previous to the interview, so it can be said that 64% of males and 74% of females actually used primary health care. The proportions vary significantly by age, from 60% for the age group 16 to 29, to 85% for the elderly.

4.4.2 Housing

56. Proportion homeless, sleeping rough

The Spanish Statistical Institute carried out for the first time in 2002-03 a survey on homeless people centres⁸, studying the network of centres that offer homeless people accommodation, catering and other types of services. Through data provided from those centres about the number of users, the number of homeless is estimated in 18.500. According to this survey, the most frequent users of the centres are immigrants (58%), alcoholics (43%), drug addicts (41%) and, to a lesser extent, former prisoners (33%) and abused women (27%).

In a previous similar work carried out by Caritas (Cabrera, 1999, *Social action for homeless people in Spain*), the estimation of the number of homeless people was 20.000 to 30.000. This study highlighted the growing heterogeneity in the profile of the homeless, revealing that, apart from the traditional solitary middle-age male, the welfare centres that provide services for the homeless have noticed a trend towards more diverse profiles within the users: young (around 20% of users are aged 16 to 24 years), seasonal workers (around 15%), women (approximately 10%), and families (5%).

As a proportion of the total population, it can be estimated that 46 to 70 people in 10.000 are homeless in Spain.

⁸ Source: Spanish Statistical Institute, 2003, Homeless People Centres Survey (www.ine.es)

57. Average waiting time for social housing

In Spain, housing policies have been traditionally oriented to wide social layers, and consisted of subsidies for encouraging ownership. Thus, in 1970, 60% of residential developments were subsidized to make them affordable for the majority of households. That proportion decreased to 50% in 1980, and continued to diminish, experiencing the most intense reduction during the nineties, so in 2001 it only represented 10% of the housing supply. Several mechanisms coexist in the provision of social housing, the most frequent being the regulation of housing prices and of financial conditions, together with the public promotion of housing (council housing), at prices below the market level, for low-income households. The provision of social housing for the most vulnerable families or people in need has also diminished in the last years.

4.4.3 Education

58. School participation rates and higher education participation rates

Since 1990, education is compulsory and free from 6 to 16 years old in Spain, so school participation rates should reach 100% for those ages. However, due to drop-outs in the late schooling years, participation rates for those aged 15 and, particularly, 16 years old do not reach 100%, as it can be observed in the table below.

Table 37 School participation rates* by age in Spain, 1999-2000.

	Total	Males	Females
0	1,5	1,5	1,4
1	6,8	6,9	6,7
2	15,9	16,1	15,7
3	84,1	83,3	85,0
4	99,3	98,7	99,8
5	100	100	100
6	100	100	100
7	100	100	100
8	100	100	100
9	100	100	100
10	100	100	100
11	100	100	100
12	100	100	100
13	100	100	100
14	100	100	100
15	99,4	99,2	99,6
16	87,2	84,3	90,4
17	76,4	72,4	80,6
18	40,7	40,6	40,7
19	27,1	27,0	27,1

*Tertiary education excluded. Source: Ministry for Education.

Comparability at European level is complex due to the differences between countries with regard to the age at which compulsory education ends (from 15 to 19). Actually, a more accurate indicator for inclusion in the educational sphere would be specifically referred to school participation rates in non-compulsory ages, differentiating pre- and post-compulsory education levels. For post-compulsory education, it would also be appropriate to distinguish between higher education participation rates and participation in post-compulsory non-tertiary education, as statistics on education usually do.

Data about participation at tertiary level show that in all the countries except Ireland, Italy, and Austria, more than half of the young population enrol in some higher education programme.

Table 38 Gross enrolment ratios⁹ (%) by sex at tertiary level, 1999-2000.

	EU 15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
Total	57,2	57,0	56,1	46,3	54,7	57,6	52,5	46,4	46,6	52,2	56,2	47,1	83,8	66,3	57,8	57,2
Male	51,1	53,5	47,4	47,3	53,2	53,0	47,2	41,6	40,7	51,1	53,6	40,4	76,0	54,2	51,8	51,1
Female	62,1	60,6	65,2	45,2	56,2	62,3	58,1	51,4	52,8	53,2	58,8	53,9	91,9	79,1	64,2	62,1

Germany: 1998/99.

Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2002.

In Spain, participation rates in tertiary education are very similar to the average ratios for the EU. It can be observed that female participation surpasses that of their male counterparts in all European countries with the exception of Germany, and it is over 60% in many of them. On average, female participation in tertiary education is ten percentage points higher than the male ratio, and the wider disparities are observed in Finland, Denmark and Portugal.

4.4.4 Social Care

59. Proportion of people in need receiving care services

The Survey on Disabilities, Impairments and Health 1999 carried out by the Spanish Statistical Institute, estimated the number of dependants (those who need support for daily activities) on 3.528.221 persons, which in relative terms results in a prevalence of dependency of 9% of the total population. These data are referred to the population living in family households, and do not include people living in care institutions.

The ratio between the number of dependants and the total population is significantly higher for women (10,3%) than for men (7,7%). The estimated dependency rate for people aged 65 and over is 32%, while for those under 65 is less than 5%. Since age is the most significant variable, this ratio is likely to increase in the coming years due to the ageing of the population.

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

⁹ Number of students enrolled in a given level of education, regardless of age, as a percentage of the population of the age-group which officially corresponds to the given level of education.

Data about waiting time for care services in Spain do not exist, but according to the above referred survey, only 47% of people who need support for daily activities (dependants) are assisted by other people, which means that half of people with some disability do not receive any support. Data also show that assistance comes from their own families for more than one third of dependants, and only 3,5% of them receive assistance through publicly provided care services.

With regard to child-care coverage, according to the OECD Employment Outlook 2001, the proportion of children using formal child-care arrangement in Spain is 5% for children aged under 3, and 84% for children aged 3 to mandatory school age. Only in Greece and Austria child care coverage for children under 3 is lower than in Spain, while in all the other countries with the exception of Italy and the Netherlands it is over 10%.

4.4.5 Financial services

61. Proportion denied credit differentiated by income groups

Statistics about credit denials are not available in Spain. We can approximate the proportion of people that do not have access to financial services through the criteria used by financial entities in Spain. In principle, credits are accessible for people whose income is over the minimum wage and whose indebtedness level is below 20% of their income. People in the lowest income group (under the minimum wage), that represent 22% of the population, are excluded from credits.

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

Within the provision of information and guidance in the social services, financial assistance is also contemplated for people in need, but there is no specific unit or office for financial advice in Spain. However, in a way it can be interpreted that savings banks have traditionally played that role, particularly for low income people, who tend to establish a direct relation to the staff in their usual bank office, and trust them for their financial decisions.

4.4.6 Transport

63-64. Proportion of population who has access to public transport system / density of public transport system and road density

Access to transport as a relevant service for social inclusion can be measured through data about the proximity to the nearest public transport station (walking distance in minutes). According to a recent survey on mobility in Spain, in towns and cities over 10.000 inhabitants, data about city transport point out that for 62,3% of people it takes less than 15 minutes to walk to the nearest public transport station, and 25% of people need 15 to 30 minutes. Statistics about inter-city transport are very similar: 65% of people need less than 15 minutes to arrive to the nearest station, and 22,2% need 15 to 30 minutes.

Nevertheless, the Population Census 2001 points out that only 20% of people who commute daily in Spain use the public transport. This preference for private transport may be due to its quality, but it does not seem to be related to its accessibility.

With regard to access to private transport, according to the Movilia Survey 2000, 82% of the population have a car or motorcycle at their disposal.

4.4.7 Civic / cultural services

65. Number of public sport facilities per 10.000 inhabitants

According to the last official statistics, there are 66.921 sport facilities in Spain. This leads to a ratio of 16,38 per 10.000 inhabitants.

66. Number of public and private civic & cultural facilities per 10.000 inhabitants

The last official statistics from the Ministry of Culture about cultural facilities indicate that in 2003 there were 4353 screens in 1194 cinemas in Spain. On average, people go to the cinema 3,36 times a year, and the ratio screens/inhabitants is 1,04 for every 10.000 inhabitants.

With regard to theatres, data are not referred to facilities but to performances and spectators: in 2000 there were 37.563 performances, which results in a ratio of 94,1 per 100.000 inhabitants, and more than 10 million spectators, which leads to a proportion of 25,8% of the population.

Regarding other cultural facilities and events, in 2002 there were 316 concert halls, with 1.099 music events (including festivals and contests) and 234 stage spaces for dance, in which 386 activities took place.

4.5 Social networks

4.5.1 Neighbourhood participation

67. Proportion in regular contact with neighbours

The ECHP 2001 shows that on average, in Spain two thirds of people (66%) contact their neighbours the majority of days, and 22% do so once or twice a week. If weekly contact is identified with regular contact, almost 90% of people are in regular contact with neighbours in Spain. The percentages of people in regular contact with neighbours are higher for women, and increase for each age group.

4.5.2 Friendships

68. Proportion in regular contact with friends

Considering that regular contact means weekly contact, in Spain 9 in 10 people contact friends or relatives (68% of people do so the majority of days, and 25% once or twice a week), according to the ECHP 2001.

As said for indicator 40, data from another source (the Use of Time Survey) indicate that 50% of the population spend time in social life daily (45% of people in working days, and 57% during the weekend). Proportions do not vary significantly by gender, but differences by age are considerable: on average, 58% of people under 25 spend time daily in social life, and for the age group 45 to 64, the proportion is 46%.

4.5.3 Family life

69. Proportion feeling lonely/isolated

The percentage of people feeling lonely in Spain is 6,2 on average, but disparities by age groups are evident: 12% of the elderly feel lonely, while the proportion falls to 2,1% and 3,9% for people aged 18 to 24 and 25-34, respectively.

Table 39 Proportion of people feeling lonely, by age groups.

	Often	Sometimes
Total	6,2	26,6
18-24	2,1	31,0
25-34	3,9	26,8
35-44	5,1	27,2
45-54	4,8	22,1
55-64	7,8	25,6
65 and over	12,1	27,2

Source: CIS (Sociological Research Centre) survey 2.442, 2002.

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

No data found for this indicator in national or international sources. A relevant issue in Spain with regard to the duration of cohabitation with the family is the question of the delay in the emancipation of the young: in 2001, 66% of people aged 25 to 29 continued to live with their parents or family of origin.

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

As said for indicator 39, 24,5% of Spanish households receive support from other households for different activities, including care for children or adults, the cooking, the cleaning, the shopping, etc., according to the Time Use Survey 2002-03.

4.6 Key trends for social inclusion in Spain

The labour market sphere appears as a key dimension of social inclusion in Spain, as it can be observed in the II National Action Plan on Social Inclusion of the Spanish Government, covering the period 2003-2005, which places a special emphasis on the topic of employment. Thus, this NAP inclusion refers to long term unemployment (mainly affecting women) and the high temporary employment rate as particularly relevant questions for the social inclusion strategy in Spain.

Reference has already been made to the fact that the negative image drawn from the indicators in this domain is counteracted by the positive recent evolution in the long-term unemployment rate.

Nevertheless, the same does not apply to temporary employment, whose incidence does not tend to decrease.

According to this plan, the other relevant issues for social inclusion in Spain include the aging of the

population and the growing number of old people living alone (mainly women), single parent households (mostly female), immigration and violence against women.

Though the conceptualisation of social inclusion in this plan seems to be closer to the socio-economic security component of social quality, both conditional factors coincide widely in the social systems and sub-systems they deal with. In this sense, the trends already mentioned for socio-economic security can be considered of importance for social inclusion. For instance, given the scope of gender inequalities in Spain, as in the other Southern European countries, it is crucial to pay attention to the differences between women and men with regard to their inclusion in the different systems.

5 Social Empowerment

5.1 Introduction

The situation in Spain with regard to this conditional factor, captured through the dimensions of knowledge base, labour market, openness and supportiveness of institutions, public space and personal relationships, points towards a fairly positive trend. Recent developments in some of these domains suggests that the conditions for the empowerment of individuals are improving, particularly with regard to the role of civil society. A negative side is found in relation to the combination of work and family life, and also regarding care services.

On the other hand, the information presented for the majority of the indicators in this conditional factor come from national sources, so comparability with other European countries is not possible.

5.2 Knowledge base

5.2.1 Application of knowledge

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

Data about intergenerational mobility based on educational attainment in Spain can be found in a research referred to 1990, in which Sánchez Ugalde estimates that nearly 30% of intergenerational income mobility is explained by educational mobility. According to her, this is a slightly lower proportion than those obtained by Cecchi for Italy, Germany and the United Kingdom.

5.2.2 Availability of information

73. Percentage of population literate and numerate

According to the 2001 Population and Housing Census, illiteracy accounts for 2,55 of the population in Spain, though the percentages are considerably divergent for women (3,56%) and men (1,55%).

Thus, the proportion of literate people is 97,5% in Spain, 98,5% for male and 96,4 for female. Data by age illustrate the extreme differences between generations: for those aged under 45, the proportion of illiteracy is below 1%, while more than 6% of people over 65 years old are illiterate. For those aged 85 and over, the proportion of illiterate males is 7%, and for female is 17,5%. Spanish statistics do not refer to the concept of numeracy.

74. Availability of free media

With regard to the media in Spain, a basic distinction has to be made between the public and private ownership. Two of the four non-pay national television channels, as well as several radio stations, are still the property of the State. This allows for a potential influence of the government in these media, and in fact the successive governments have often taken control of the contents of those media in their interest.

Regarding the privately owned media, a huge corporation owns an important share of the media in Spain, from cable TV to sport press, including the most popular radio station and daily newspaper. This corporation, identified with certain ideological position (left-wing) competes with two other big media groups, one of them is partly the property of the Catholic Church and both are clearly in line with the conservative side of the political arena. A most problematic issue is the extent to which their economic interests interfere with the contents of these media.

75. Access to internet

According to a recent survey on internet users¹⁰, in Spain 31,4% of the population aged over 14 years old have access to an internet connection on a regular basis. 62% of them do it from home, and 32,2% from the workplace.

The gender differences in this area have diminished considerably in the last years: while in 1997 72,5% of internet users were male and 25,7% female, in 2004 the proportions are 57,8% and 42,2%, respectively.

5.2.3 User friendliness of information

76. Provision of information in multiple languages on social services

Considering that official languages (two in many Spanish regions) are not included in the idea of multiple languages (in most Autonomous Communities with their own official language apart from Spanish, information is provided in the two languages), the provision of information in foreign languages is still exceptional in Spain. The information in the websites of public administrations is sometimes accessible in other languages, normally English and/or French, and specific programmes and administrative departments oriented to foreigners are increasingly editing information leaflets in other languages. Apart from this, the scope of this service is very limited. Translators are beginning to be hired exceptionally in certain centres such as hospitals, courts or schools where it has been considered necessary due to the increasing number of foreign users. More common is that non-profit organisations agree to cooperate with public administrations when translation is needed¹¹. This applies to information on public services and on social services as well.

77. Availability of free advocacy, advice and guidance centres

The provision of information and guidance is one of the pillars of social services in Spain. Apart from free advice in social services centres, to which everyone is entitled, in Spain free advice and guidance is normally assumed by every specific programme or department, for their specific field. Indeed, during the last years specifically oriented advice and guidance centres (for labour issues, health, consumption, etc.) have proliferated in Spain. Non-profit organisations are increasingly becoming a

¹⁰ Survey "Evolution of Internet Users" (February-March 2004).

¹¹ It is the case, for instance, of ATIME (the National Organisation of Maghribian Workers and Immigrants), which provides assistance, guidance and other services for people from Northern Africa in Spain, facilitating their access to any relevant information.

key actor in the provision of this kind of assistance for the most vulnerable.

5.3 Labour market

5.3.1 Control over employment contract

78. Proportion of labour force that is member of a trade union

According to data from ILO, in 1995 less than 1 in 5 workers was member of a trade union in Spain. This represents around 3 million of employees, and the information provided by the trade union with a highest number of members points out that this number has not increased since 1995. It can be calculated, taking the labour force for 2003 as reference population (18.821.900) that the percentage has decreased to 15,93.

Thus, the level of unionization in Spain is one of the lowest in the EU, with the exception of France (below 10%). In the Netherlands, Portugal and Greece, where the proportion is 1 in 4 workers, while in the Nordic countries the proportions are between 80-90%. The distinction between public and private employees has not been found.

Table 40 Unionization index, 1995.

B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
-	80,1	28,9	24,3	18,6	9,1	-	44,1	-	25,6	41,2	25,6	79,3	91,1	32,9

Source: ILO.

79. Proportion of labour force covered by a collective agreement

Official data about collective agreements in Spain do not distinguish between public and private employees. Moreover, most public employees are covered by specific rules and agreements for their status, and not by collective agreements. The last statistics from the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs refer to 2001, and indicate that 9.496.000 employees were covered by a collective agreement. This leads to a percentage of 53,3% of the labour force.

5.3.2 Prospects of job mobility

80. Proportion of employed labour force receiving work based training

According to data from the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions, 3 in 10 workers in the EU-15 receive work-based training. The table shows that there are wide differences between member states, the highest proportions corresponding to the Nordic countries, the UK and the Netherlands, where 40% to 50% of workers undergo work-based training (53% in Finland). The lowest participation in work-based training is observed in Southern European countries, and it is particularly low in Greece and Portugal (around 10%), while in Spain and Italy the proportions are 18% and 21%, respectively.

Table 41 Proportion of workers undergoing work based training, 2000.

EU 15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
30,8	30,5	48,0	31,3	11,4	17,8	23,7	33,2	20,7	30,3	44,4	32,6	10,0	52,7	41,9	48,0

Source: adapted from Third European Working Conditions survey on working conditions (2000), Q29 (*Over the past 12 months, have you undergone training paid for or provided by your employer or by yourself if you are self-employed, to improve your skills?*)

A different source, Eurostat, refers to continuing vocational training, and points out that 62% of enterprises in the EU provide such training, and 4 in 10 employees participate in these courses. Though these data differ considerably from the former, the disparities between member states in the percentage of enterprises and employees participating in this training confirm the same groups of countries.

Table 42 Continuing vocational training (CVT) in enterprises, 1999.

	EU 15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
Training enterprises as a percentage of all enterprises	62	70	96	75	18	36	76	79	24	71	88	72	22	82	91	87
Participants in CVT courses as a percentage of total employees	40	41	53	32	15	25	46	41	26	36	41	31	17	50	61	49

Source: F. Salladarré, taken from Eurostat (2003): Living conditions in Europe, p.38.

81. Proportion of labour force availing of publicly provided training

An important share of publicly provided training is oriented to the unemployed. According to official data from the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, in 2002 314.587 participated in occupational vocational training, which means 1,71% of the labour force. Nevertheless, this data do not include the training provided by regional administrations (funded directly from the European Social Fund), and from the estimations about the number of participants in certain regions, the total percentage of the labour force availing of this type of publicly provided training is likely to reach (or even surpass) 2%.

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

In Spain, the number of workers availing of any of the measures of active employment policies (including training and career guidance, allowances for employers recruiting certain profiles of workers, allowances for self-employment, etc.), according to the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, was 1.392.461 in 2002. As a percentage of the labour force, this means 7,7%. If data for workers availing of similar measures funded by regional administrations were included, it can be estimated that the proportion would be around 10% of the labour force.

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

83. Proportion of organisations operating work life balance policies

According to a recent estimation about work/life balance measures in enterprises in Spain¹², approximately 40% of companies are developing or planning to develop 'flexible programmes', aimed at promoting flexibility as a means to facilitate the conciliation of work and family for workers, and the number of organisations committed with work/life balance is increasing.

84. Proportion of employed labour force actually making use of work/life balance measures

National data about actual use of work/life balance measures only refer to maternity and paternity leaves. The proportion of women and men actually making use of maternity/paternity leaves, which is one of the indicators proposed by the European Council (2000) about the conciliation of working and family life, was 1 per 1000 employees in 2003. Since 96% of these leaves correspond to mothers, figures are extremely divergent for female and male employees: 2,4 in 1000 female employees made use of a maternity leave in 2003, in contrast to 6 in every 100.000 male employees.

Table 43 Evolution of the number of maternity /paternity leaves in Spain.

	Total	Mothers	Fathers	% Mothers
2000	8.339	8.007	332	96,02
2001	10.163	9.800	363	96,43
2002	12.694	12.206	488	96,16
2003	13.879	13.377	502	96,38

Source: Women in figures, 2004 (www.mtas.es/mujer/mcifras).

In Spain, paternity leaves are contemplated in labour legislation for the first time in 1999, with the Law 39/1999, for promoting the conciliation of working and family life of workers. The way in which it is regulated (a maximum of 10 weeks in the 16 weeks of maternity leave may be transferred by the mother to the father) has meant a extremely low incidence of this leave.

5.4 Openness and supportiveness of institutions

5.4.1 Openness and supportiveness of political system

85. Existence of processes of consultation and direct democracy

These processes are barely established in Spain. Thus, referenda are regulated in a very complex way and seen as an exceptional process of consultation. In the last Spanish democratic period, from the approval of the Constitution in a referendum in 1978, there has only been one referendum, in 1986, regarding the entry of Spain into NATO. It is planned to subject the European Constitution to a coming referendum.

¹² Source: Some measures and experiences for the conciliation of working and family life, Papers Concilia, 6, eQual Concilia, Murcia, 2004.

5.4.2 Openness of economic system

86. Number of instances of public involvement in major economic decision making

Information about the level of public involvement in economic decision making is not available. However, during the last years it can be observed that public administrations, particularly at local and regional level, are increasingly getting involved in those economic decisions that have a negative effect in their communities (such as company relocations or closures). This growing involvement has been to a large extent promoted by citizenship mobilizations.

5.4.3 Openness of organisations

87. Proportion of organisations/ institutions with work councils

In Spain, the right of employees to participate in their companies is articulated through two mechanisms: employee representatives and work councils. In workplaces where the number of employees is from 10 to 50, employee representatives may be appointed, and also in those from 6 to 10 employees, if the majority of them decide so. With regard to the number of employee representatives, it is 1 in workplaces in which the number of employees is up to 30, and 3 in workplaces from 31 to 49 employees.

In working centres with 50 or more employees, work councils should be constituted, for the participation of employees in the company decisions that affect them. The number of employees in the work councils varies in accordance to the total number of employees in the work centres: from 50 to 100 employees, 5 employees in the work council, 100 to 250 employees, 9 employees in the work council, and so on.

Data about the number of organisations or companies in which there exist employee representatives or work councils are not available, but can be estimated through statistics about the distribution of enterprises by number of employees. Micro and small enterprises are extremely important in Spain, and only 10% of the total number of enterprises have more than six employees, though there are wide differences by economic activity. This means that less than 1 in 10 companies is likely to develop a mechanism for employees participation.

5.5 Public space

5.5.1 Support for collective action

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

Official information about public expenditure do not allow us to know the percentage dedicated to these initiatives, but according to a study about the non-profit sector in Spain –within a comparative international research-, in 1995 of the total expenditure of voluntary and non-profit organisations (19.332 million €), 32% was publicly funded.

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

Data from the Statistical Yearbook of the Ministry of Interior point out that 10.238 marches and demonstrations were held in 1998, and only 3 were banned, so the proportion of banned demonstrations is 1 in 1000.

It is relevant to mention that only one third of the total number of marches and demonstrations could have been banned, because the authorities were informed in advance –as it is established by law-, while 66% of the total number of marches and demonstrations were not reported to the authorities previously.

5.5.2 Cultural enrichment

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

According to official data about public expenditure in 2001, in the classification by functions (elaborated in accordance with the international classification for that purpose), the Spanish public administration –including national, regional and local administrations- spent 8.073 million € in cultural services, which means 1,1% of the total budget.

91. Number of self-organised cultural groups and events

With regard to cultural groups, we can only present quantitative information about registered associations. Official data distinguish by activity groups, and cultural and ideological organisations are one of them. Of the total number of registered associations in 1998 (200.593), 37% were cultural or ideological associations.

Table 44 Number of registered associations by activity group, 1998.

Group 0 – Various	2.211
Group 1 – Cultural and ideological	75.407
Group 2 – Sports, recreational and youth	31.751
Group 3 – Disabled (physical and mental)	3.922
Group 4 – Economics and professionals	12.068
Group 5 – Family, consumption and the elderly	9.603
Group 6 – Female	6.370
Group 7 – Philanthropic	9.998
Group 8 – Educational	26.584
Group 9 – Neighbourhood	22.679
Total	200.593

Source: Statistical Yearbook of the Ministry of Interior, 1998.

Further disaggregated data about registered organisations by activity groups shows that ideological and political associations represent a very low percentage, so more than 95% of organisations in this group are definitely cultural groups.

With regard to cultural events, data are available about the number of performances in theatres, 37.563, and about music and dance events: in 2002 there were 1.099 music events and 386 dance

activities.

92. Proportion of people experiencing different forms of personal enrichment on a regular basis

As said for indicator 66, on average, people in Spain go to the cinema 3,36 times a year (official data for 2003); and the annual number of spectators in theatres results in a proportion of attendance of 25,8% of the population (data corresponding to 2000). From the number of music and dance events in 2002, it can be estimated that there are 3,7 events per 100.000 inhabitants.

5.6 Personal relationships

5.6.1 Provision of services supporting physical and social independence

93. Percentage of national and local budgets devoted to disabled people

In a recent study about the evolution during the nineties of public expenditure on disability, referred to both central and regional administrations, Rodríguez Cabrero and Marbán Gallego (2002) point out that the percentage of total public expenditure dedicated to disability has fallen from 6,9% in 1991 to 5,3% in 2000.

5.6.2 Personal support services

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

Public child care coverage in Spain is one of the lowest in the EU. According to a recent study, only 2% of children aged 0 to 3 years can access public child-care services, while in Germany and Denmark the proportion is around 50%, and it is approximately one third in Sweden and Norway. The insufficient number of places in public child care services means that the majority of families in Spain must turn to the private sector, which offers a sufficient coverage, though fees are not always reasonable, particularly for low income families.

5.6.3 Support for social interaction

95. Extent of inclusiveness of housing and environmental design

In Spain, housing and environmental design has been exclusive rather than inclusive till recently. On the one hand, during the period of maximum growth of urban population (the sixties and the seventies) housing planning did not pay any attention to the quality of housing and environmental conditions, and simply tried to respond to the growing housing demand. It is from the eighties onwards that meeting places and green areas begin to be relevant in urban design. On the other hand, for a period of fifty decades community participation in decision making was almost inexistent, and this applies also to housing and environmental design. During the nineties, some local authorities begin to promote the participation of citizens in housing and environmental projects, through workshops and others mechanisms oriented to include people, particularly neighbours and residents, in the decisions about

the design of their towns and cities.

5.7 Key trends for social empowerment in Spain

The following can be identified as the most relevant trends regarding empowerment in Spain:

- the progress of public policies regarding education and training;
- the importance of collective bargaining, although with a low level of unionization;
- the difficulties to combine education/training or access to the labour market with caring for children or dependants, due to the lack of solid support measures in this field and the insufficient public care services;
- the new demographic factors, including the aging of the population and immigration, together with the new ways of coexistence, which are transforming the social structure in Spain;
- the importance of civil society, of the associative movement in the development of guidance and advice policies, which are therefore characterised by fragmentation and often by excessively dependency on public funding;

The family has traditionally played a major role in the Spanish welfare system, as in the other countries fitting the Southern European model, which are nowadays facing the challenge of developing programs and initiatives that adapt to the new social needs, at the same time that women are no longer willing nor able to accept the burden imposed by the gender division of labour.

In this context, a firm effort of public institutions is needed to improve the conditions for the empowerment of vulnerable individuals, particularly with regard to personal relationships and access to knowledge and to the labour market.

6 Social Quality initiatives

Reference has been made extensively to the importance of female incorporation to the public sphere. In this field, it is worth highlighting the commitment of the Spanish Socialist Party for promoting parity in politics, which materialized in the Cabinet constituted after the recent General Elections (14th March 2004), by as many women as men. Moreover, for the first time in Spanish democracy the vice-president is a woman. Thus, Spain has made a significant step forward in this field, and besides the impulse in other political parties, it is a valuable model for other European countries, now that has become one of the countries with a higher female presence in national government.

One of the first laws passed by the new government can also be labelled as a good practice: the law against gender violence, which adopted a comprehensive conceptualisation of this social problem, establishing the need to fight and prevent it from schools, mass media, the health system, etc.

Another significant example of a social quality initiative is the “Nunca Mais” (Never Again) social movement, an example of the new role of civil society in Spain, whose citizens are increasingly resorting to direct action to express their demands, thus involving themselves intensely in the fight for raising the relevance of their concerns and achieving their purposes.

The Nunca Mais movement arose after the wreckage of the oil ship Prestige on the 19th of November 2002 opposite the Costa da Morte in Galicia. Similar events had happened during the last decades in this north-west region, characterised by a deep economical dependence on the sea industry. The Spanish society gave a rapid and firm response to the environmental disaster provoked by the oil spill, with the mobilisation of thousands of citizens all over the country (and beyond). First, the locals worked restlessly to try to avoid that the large oil slick (60.000 tones) reached the coast. In the following days, around 120.000 people from self-organised groups –with the support of universities, local institutions and many non for profit organisations-, travelled to the Galician coast to help to clean the coastline. It was estimated that these volunteers worked a total a 350.000 working days cleaning kilometres of coast affected by the black tides. At the same time, hundred of thousands of people demonstrated in Galicia and in the rest of Spain to support the demand that mechanism were established to ensure that this would never happen again, in a country where ecology moments are not very popular. Nunca Mais became a strong citizens movement in which solidarity with the Galicians combined with expressing disapproval of the management of the crisis by the government and claiming for new ways of protecting the coastline against these environmental risks.

7 Conclusion

From the outcomes of the data analysis, the theory of the Mediterranean Social Policy Model seems to be a valid framework for the understanding of national circumstances in Spain in the context of comparative analysis of European welfare states. Indeed, through the report the features identified as specific of Southern European countries in the conceptualisation of a Mediterranean social policy and welfare model have become explicit. Moreover, deriving from the indicators for the four conditional factors the core characteristics of social quality in Spain, it can be observed that, to certain extent, they correspond to those features.

Thus, the indicators show that the Spanish society is characterised by a high level of socio-economic security and social inclusion with regard to health and education, which are conceived as universalistic systems. With regard to the social protection system, along with its focus on the contributive social security system, the Spanish situation is characterised by the coexistence of entitlement to pensions as a social right for all citizens over 65, with insufficient minimum income programmes for other life circumstances.

A second basic attribute of social quality in Spain –and probably in the other Mediterranean countries– is the key position of the family in contributing to a high degree of socio-economic security, due to its role for the coverage of people's needs and risks. The configuration of the family in Spain has also a positive influence in social inclusion, given its contribution to the strength of social networks.

But this role of the family also influences negatively the accessibility of the labour market and other public spheres –particularly for women– as well as the conditions for their empowerment. In order to reflect adequately the ambivalent position of this key social institution for social quality in Southern European countries, it would be necessary to consider this specific issue within the operationalisation of the four conditional factors. A key question within this topic is the voluntary or involuntary dimension of care work provided by the family, in other words, to what extent the contribution of the family to social quality in the Mediterranean countries is due to the lack of social policy measures for guaranteeing minimum levels of welfare. It is also interesting to analyse the degree to which the traditional role of the family, and the sexual division of work in which it relies, continue to be valid for different sectors of the population.

The late democratisation of Spain –common to Portugal and Greece– also appears as a key element for the understanding of national circumstances. This recent socio-political context seems to be particularly relevant with regard to social cohesion (due to its influence in the aspects of trust, shared norms and values, etc.), but it also implies a significant delay in the incorporation of Spain to different social trends that have been transforming European societies during the last decades. This is the case of female incorporation to the public sphere but also of immigration, two factors that entail a deep social change in current European countries.

But this delay also means that the context in which welfare structures are established and developed in Southern Europe differs widely from the context of building the welfare state in the rest of Western Europe. Thus, there has not been a continuous process of convergence, as data about the evolution of per capita social expenditure in the EU reveal.

A specific relevant feature of social policy development in Spain is the growing importance of the regional level of public administration. The Autonomous Communities have their own parliaments and governments, and hold a wide range of powers for policy making, and the different political orientation of regional governments has a clear impact in social policies. Thus, though this administrative structure of the State has had a positive influence in the reduction of historical regional inequalities within the country, nowadays the coverage for people's needs and risks reflects a variety of approaches and levels of protection between the Autonomous Regions. This pattern, along with the non-existence of national programmes that define and finance minimum levels of protection, is deriving into increasing differences within our country in social benefits among Spanish citizens depending on where they live.

As an example, we can observe the social policies developed regarding care needs for dependants (children, the elderly...). Nowadays, most families' new needs remain unsolved, and the deficits on attention to the dependants are due to a delay in policy development, but also to the overlapping of the three levels of action, which has entailed differences in criteria, management and so on. In 1995, social resources were transferred to the Autonomous Regions, and these regional governments have just started to undertake the task of offering care services that improve the quality of daily lives of citizens.

Attention to the dependants (children, elderly, disabled) is a field that calls for immediate action, since it affects intensely living conditions of citizens, that is, social quality. This issue should be addressed by the central government, which is responsible for creating a legal framework that defines the basic support mechanism for all citizens, the sources of financing and the cooperation channels between the different administrations.

With regard to gender inequalities, reference has been made to the positive recent initiative of the Spanish government in the promotion of female access to decision-making, as well as to the key role of the European Union in the promotion of equal opportunities in different spheres. In this sense, maybe the emphasis regarding this issue should be placed in the significant progresses that have been made within a short time span in Spain, and not in the higher incidence of gender inequalities in different dimensions of social quality.

Regarding immigration, we have already highlighted that it is a new phenomenon for the Spanish society, which is therefore facing new challenges at an extremely fast rhythm. The lack of an adequate reaction to new social needs could lead to a negative impact of immigration in the level of social quality in Spain in the coming years. The same could apply to the other Southern European countries, while most EU member states have been receiving important flows of foreign population during the last decades. Learning from their experience would definitely help to face the implications of immigration.

In summary, similarities between Southern European countries (Spain, Italy, Greece and Portugal) have been observed for numerous indicators, in contrast with the characteristics of Central and Northern European member states. The fact that the position of Ireland is often close to the Mediterranean countries suggests the hypothesis that their specific characteristics in relation to social policy and welfare structures are related to their cultural traditions, linked to a lower degree of laicism than in the rest of Europe.

Annex Social Quality indicators

Indicators of Socio-economic Security

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

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

Indicators of Social Cohesion

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

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

Indicators of Social Inclusion

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

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

Indicators of Social Empowerment

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

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

Annex Collective data

1. Socio-economic security

Domain: Financial resources

Sub-domain: Income security

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

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

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

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

Source: Eurostat; free data, social cohesion

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

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

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

Source: Eurostat; free data, social cohesion

Domain: Housing and environment

Sub-domain: Housing conditions

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

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

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

Source: Eurostat 2003, Living conditions in Europe

Domain: Health and care

Sub-Domain: Health services

11. Number of medical doctors per 100.000 inhabitants

Number of practitioners per 100 000 inhabitants

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

Source: Eurostat, Yearbook 2003

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

Proximity to hospitals by income (% having acces 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 live (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. It's 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

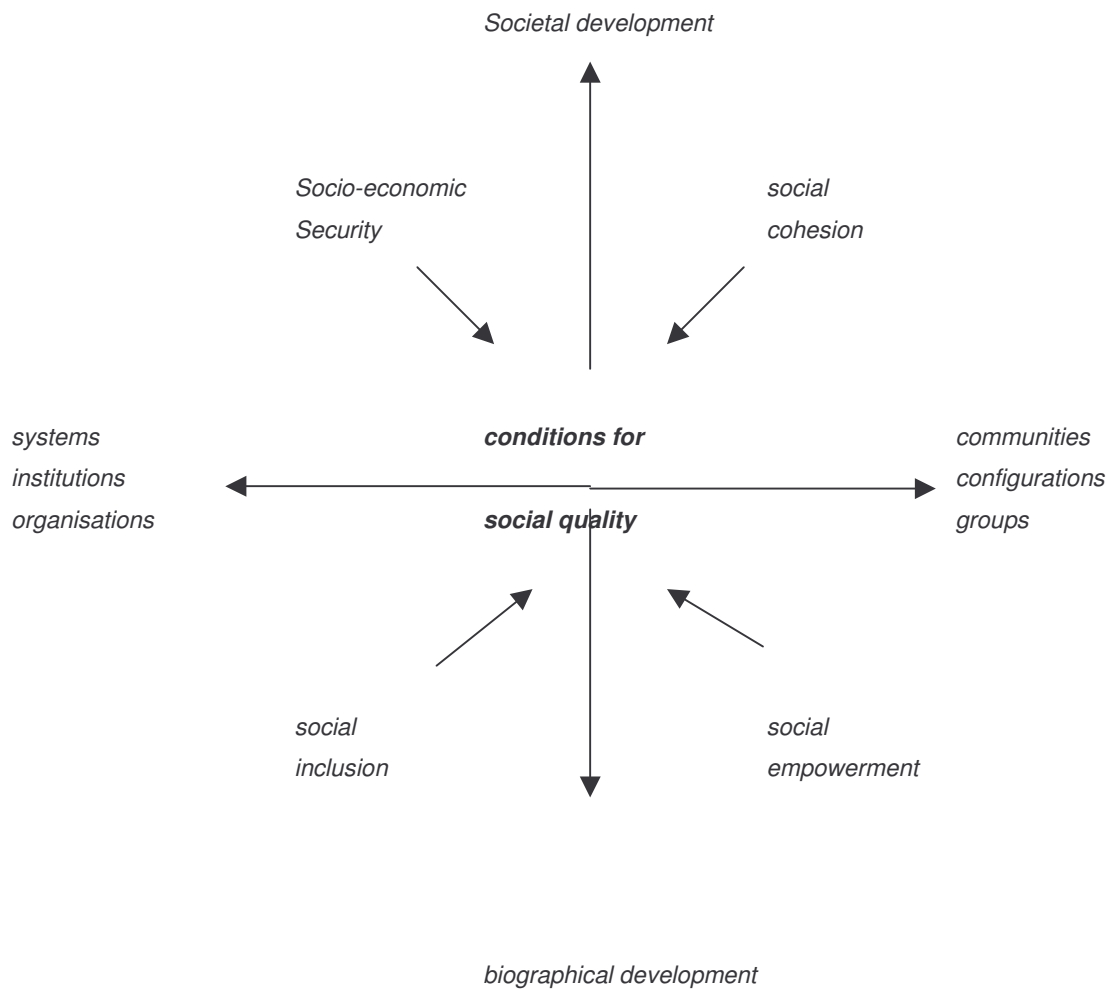
A fundamental problem of any comprehensive theoretical approach is to grasp the structural and dialectical interdependence of what Emile Durkheim called 'social facts'. The reason for mentioning Durkheim here is that in his definition of 'social facts' he explicitly showed the supposed independence of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

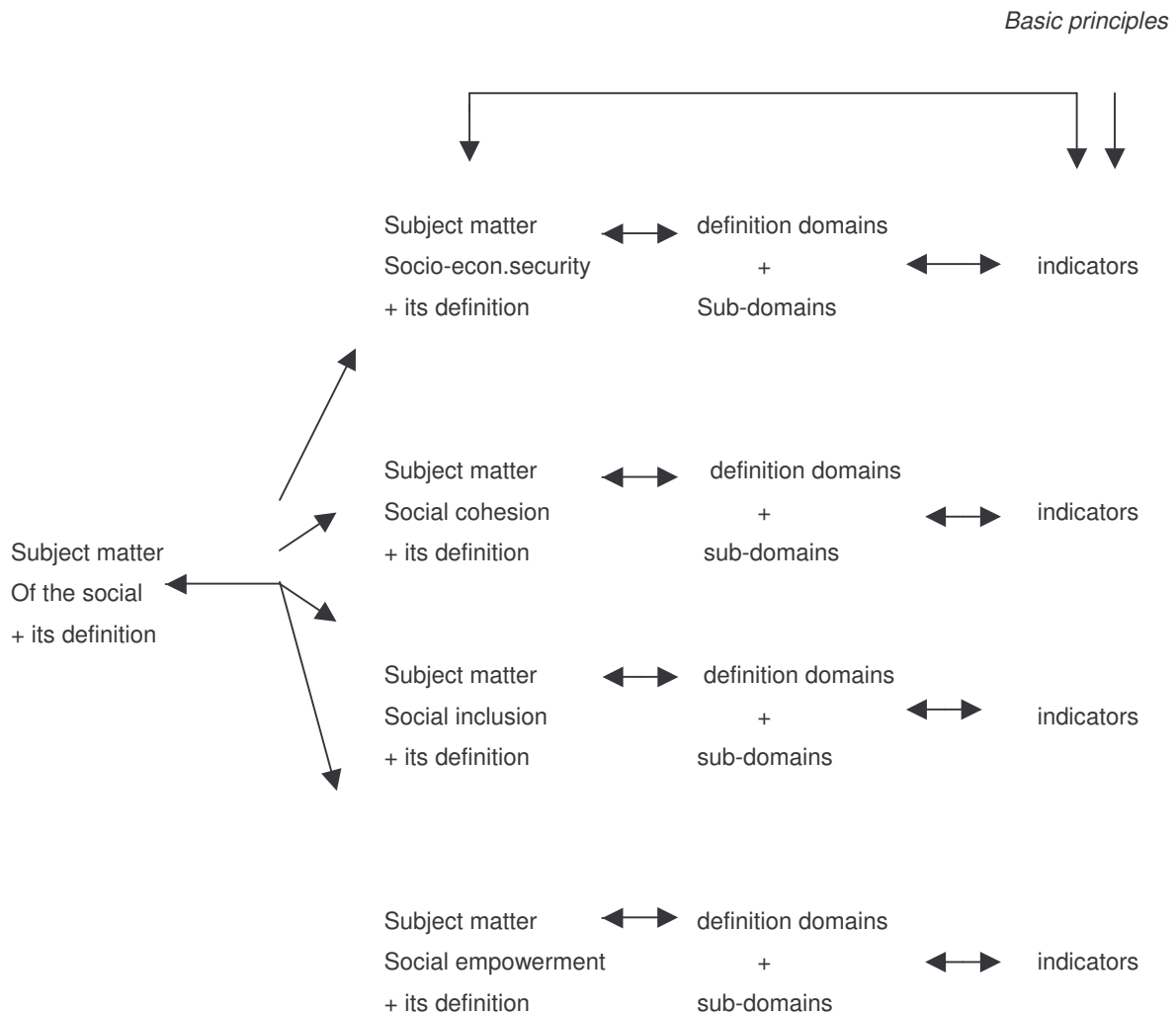
This theme is presented for the first time in the Foundation's second book of January 2001 and will be elaborated in the Foundation's third book. The relationship between the constitutional factors and the conditional factors – theoretically and practically – will be analysed. For the European Network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

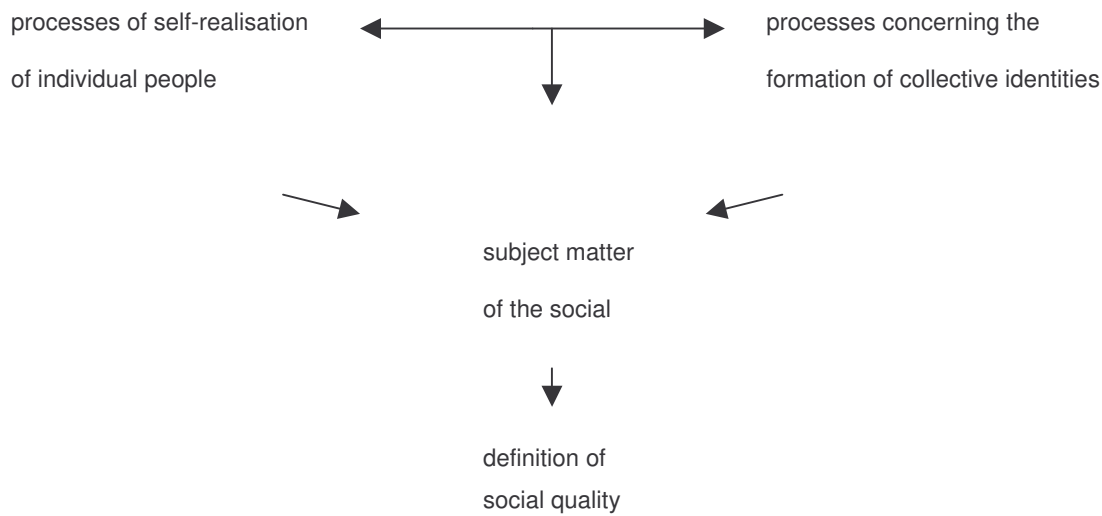


4.2 The definitions of the four conditional factors

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.