

European Network Indicators of Social Quality
- ENIQ -

“Social Quality”
The Swedish National Report

by
Prof. dr Göran Therborn
& Sonia Therborn

SCASS

February 2005



European Foundation on Social Quality

This report is published by the European Foundation, copyright 2005. For the rights of translation or reproduction, application should be made to the director of the European Foundation on Social Quality.

The European Network Indicators of Social Quality is co-ordinated by the European Foundation on Social Quality in Amsterdam and was Financed under the European Commissions DG Research fifth Framework program; 2001-2004.

European Foundation on Social Quality

Felix Meritis Building

Keizersgracht 324

1016 EZ Amsterdam

Ph: +31 20 626 2321

Fax: +31 20 624 9368

Email: EFSQ@felix.meritis.nl

Website: www.socialquality.org

Preface

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

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

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

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

Alan Walker, Chair of ENIQ

Laurent van der Maesen, Co-ordinator of ENIQ

Participants

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

Contents

1	Introduction	1
2	Socio-economic Security.....	3
2.1	Introduction	3
2.2	Financial resources	3
2.3	Housing and environment.....	6
2.4	Health and Care	8
2.5	Work	9
2.6	Education.....	10
3	Social Cohesion	13
3.1	Introduction	13
3.2	Trust.....	13
3.3	Other integrative norms and values	14
3.4	Social networks	17
3.5	Identity	18
4	Social Inclusion	21
4.1	Citizenship Rights.....	21
4.2	Labour market	23
4.3	Services	24
4.4	Social networks	26
5	Social Empowerment	27
5.1	Introduction	27
5.2	Knowledge Base.....	27
5.3	Labour Market	29
5.4	Openness and supportiveness of institutions.....	30
5.5	Public Space.....	31
5.6	Personal Relationships.....	32
6	Conclusion.....	35
	Annex Social Quality Indicators	37
	Annex Collective data	43
	Annex Social Quality theory.....	69

List of Tables

Table 1	Components of Social Quality, and of Level of Living.....	1
Table 2	Household expenditure in 2003. Per cent of the group total.	3
Table 3	The Structure of Public Income Support Before Old Age Retirement in 2003. Per cent of population aged 20-64, full-year equivalents.....	4
Table 4	The System of Income Redistribution in 2001. Means for all households. Thousands of Swedish crowns.....	5 5
Table 5.	Market Income Distribution and Disposable Income Distribution.....	5
Table 6	Foreign-Born in Sweden 1950-2003. Per cent of the Total Population.....	15
Table 7	Cases by the new Public Ombudsmen in 2002.....	22
Table 8	The Proportion of Women in Various Public Bodies in 2003-2004 Per cent.....	23

1 Introduction

"Social quality" is not a common term in Sweden, and its sister notion "quality of life" is used mainly with respect to the conditions of particular individuals, rarely if ever in social analysis. Swedish social statistics and social studies focus on "levels of living", or "living conditions". The perceived subjectivity connotations of "quality" in this context have not been attractive. On the other hand, Swedish social research and policy evaluation have de facto been very much concerned with measuring what may properly be called qualitative dimensions of living conditions, and correspondingly less interested in, for example, the possession of consumer goods.

The Swedish Level of Living surveys, which have been going since 1968, focus on individual disposal of resources, in a medical and a social as well as in an economic sense. The social quality concept, that is now being gauged empirically in the European Union and was developed in the late 1990s is centred on capability to social and economic participation. The project's founding book (Beck et al., The Social Quality of Europe, The Hague 1997) defined social quality as "the extent to which people are able to participate in the social and economic life of their communities under conditions which enhance their well-being and individual potential". The latter is a more communitarian approach, than the egalitarian individualism adopted in Sweden, and draws upon social philosophical reactions to the anti-egalitarian individualism reigning in the Anglo-Saxon world of the 1980s. Whereas the Level of Living surveys are concentrated on the individual and his/her resources, the social quality approach is interested in community variables, such as cohesion, inclusion and empowerment. In investigative application there is a large overlap, though.

Table 1 Components of Social Quality, and of Level of Living

Social Quality	Level of Living
Socio-economic security	Health and access to medical service Employment and working conditions Economic resources and consumer protection Knowledge and possibilities of education Housing and community services Security of life and property
Social cohesion	Political resources Family and social relations
Trust, Values, Identity	
Social inclusion	[Aspects of all the above] Leisure and culture
Citizenship rights	
Social empowerment	[Some aspects of the above]
Information access	
Openness of institutions	
Public space	

The summarized sub-domains in the left-hand column indicate topics not clearly included in the level of living surveys. On the other hand, there are several sub-aspects of the level of living components not included among the 95 indicators of social quality, for instance on individual income and health situation. The methodology is also different. The level of living studies gather their data from designed national surveys, whereas this round of social quality research is based mainly on data already in the public domain, whether from statistical registration or from other surveys, and it draws upon international as well as on national sources.

2 Socio-economic Security

2.1 Introduction

The Swedish language has two words corresponding to the English “security”. In the context of social policy and social conditions, “*trygghet*” is the most proper word. It has a strong positive value charge, and is also used with reference to psychological and emotional conditions. “*Trygghet*” is a central concept of Swedish social policy, and of the Swedish welfare state. It has been a frequently used Social Democratic slogan, in electoral campaigns as well as in Mayday demonstrations, then very often joined by “work” and also by “development”. The other word, “*sökerhet*” is less value-laden, although also denoting something positive. It corresponds to the English safety as well as to “national security” and to international “security policy”. Espionage and counter-espionage are in Sweden handled by an organization known as “*Säkerhetspolisen*” (Security Police).

Security in the first sense of *trygghet* is a main goal of Swedish social policy, the key part of the latter’s “general welfare” purpose, referring to its principle of income compensation for all major income groups as well as for all kinds of income-reducing events.

2.2 Financial resources

2.2.1 Income sufficiency

Swedish household budgets are usually presented in terms of the demographic composition of households, rather than according to income deciles. A hint of the expenditure situation of a vulnerable large social group may be captured by looking at single parents.

Table 2 Household expenditure in 2003. Per cent of the group total.

	Single parents	All households
Housing	35	28
Food (incl. non-alcoholic drinks)	17	18
Clothing	6	5
Health	2	2
Transport	11	14
Leisure and culture	16	18

Source: SCB (Statistics Sweden), Hushållens utgifter 2003.

Even single parents have, on the average, a considerable share of discretionary income, and the expenditure structure is rather similar across household demography. Child daycare costs only one per cent of their income. Housing costs are the main variable. Cohabiting couples need only to devote a fourth of their income to housing.

2.2.2 Income Security

The risk of falling into (relative) poverty is smaller in Sweden than in non-Nordic EU. Nine per cent of population did in 1999, as compared to 15 per cent in the EU-15. In contrast to most other European countries there is no gender difference (European Commission, The Social Situation of the European Union in 2003. Appendix I and II). Highest is the risk among young people, 16-24, who in Sweden tend to live on their own after finishing secondary school, 25%. 19 per cent of single parents fell into relative poverty in 1998, to be compared with 35% on the EU level. Most secure comparatively are old people (>65). Three per cent of them in Sweden were poor in the EU sense, while in the Union as a whole the figure was sixteen. This outcome derives from social efficiency, not from higher pensions expenditure, which in 2000 was the same proportion of GDP in Sweden as in the EU (European Commission 2003, loc. cit.)

Another measure of income (in)security is the proportion of people falling into an acute economic crisis. Swedish statistics defines that as not being able to buy food or pay rent without having to ask for social assistance, to borrow from relatives or friends, or, not paying one's rent in due time. In the mid-90s, this happened to about a tenth of the total population 16-84 each year, in 2000 to 8 per cent. It occurred to a third of single mothers – in 1998-99 45 per cent – and to a fifth of single fathers. Among age groups, economic crises are concentrated to people 16-44, and in particular the group 25 to 34, among whom one in five ran into a personal economic crisis in 1996-97 (SCB, Levnadsförhållanden 2002, table EK.5)

The Swedish social security net is vast and finely woven. One person in five of the age 20-64 is full-year provided for by public social support. The figure (19.6%) refers to 2003, it is somewhat lower than the peak at the early 1990s depression, 22.7% in 1994, but significantly higher than the pre-crisis level of 15% in 1990

Table 3 The Structure of Public Income Support Before Old Age Retirement in 2003. Per cent of population aged 20-64, full-year equivalents.

Early retirement	7.7
Sick pay	4.9
Unemployment allowance	3.6
Employment promotion	1.7
Social assistance	1.6

Source: SCB Press Information 2004:220.

The high proportion on sick leave, with a good four per cent of all employees always sick, is regarded as a major and expensive social policy problem in Sweden. It shows both an upward trend, from a pre-crisis level of 211,000 full-year equivalents in 1990 to 270,000 in 2002 and 260,000 in 2003, and a conjunctural oscillation, going down to 120,000 whole-year persons in 1997 at the end of the depression.

The system of income redistribution sustaining this vast income security is naturally very large.

Table 4 The System of Income Redistribution in 2001. Means for all households.
Thousands of Swedish crowns

Factor Income	245
Wages	211
Capital gains	15
Interest and dividends	9.5
Business	7
Taxable Transfers	84.5
Pensions	61
Sickness allowance	9
Unemployment support	7
Parental leave	4
Non-Taxable Transfers	16
Child allowance	5
Disability support	4
Housing allowance	3
Social assistance	2
Negative transfers (taxes and social insurance contributions)	105
Disposable household income	241

Source: SCB, Statistisk Årsbok (Statistical Yearbook) 2004, table 359.

The redistributive flows make up 85% of disposable household income. And they make a great difference in the pattern of distribution.

Table 5. Market Income Distribution and Disposable Income Distribution.

Fifth wave of Luxemburg Income Study surveys, 1998-2002. Gini index.		
	Market Income	Disposable Income
Sweden	0.44	0.26
Germany	0.44	0.26
Finland	0.37	0.25
Canada	0.41	0.31
UK	0.46	0.35
US	0.46	0.38

Source: Luxemburg Income Study, results kindly communicated by Dr. Thomas Cussack, Wissenschaftszentrum Berlin, March 2004.

The Swedish distribution of market income is surprisingly similar to that of the United States and was in the more than two decades of the Luxemburg project usually more unequal than the core of Western Europe. But the redistributive outcome is much more equal, although the latest wave shows Sweden on par with Germany, after a Swedish increase from 0.22 to 0.26.

If individual public consumption – of education, health and social care, public transport – is also taken into account, the Swedish Gini coefficient is estimated to be 0.20 (OECD Economic Surveys 2001-2002. Sweden, table A2.).

Among demographic groups, the median differences are rather limited. Equalised (by consumption unit) disposable income in 2001 was 81% of the total median for single women with children and, at the other end, for cohabiting couples without children aged 30-49, 177%. (SCB, Statistisk Årsbok 2004, table 362).

2.3 Housing and environment

2.3.1 Housing Security

Housing costs weigh heavily on Swedish household budgets. For all households, rented dwellings cost 26% of household income in 2000, after housing allowances, condominiums 21%, and a one-family house 20%, with a tendency bending down slightly since the end of the 1990s (SCB, Bostads- och byggnadsstatistisk Årsbok 2004, table .1.11). According to the latest census, of 1990, 41% of dwellings were owned by their occupiers, and 15% were condominiums. Tenants with first-hand contracts with the owner enjoy considerable legal protection. They cannot be dismissed at will, nor can their rent be unilaterally raised beyond clear limits. Forty per cent of dwellings were held by these legally protected contracts. Four per cent were inhabited by less secure, second-hand contracts, and one per cent lacked information of ownership or tenancy. (SCB, Bostads- och byggnadsstatistisk Årsbok 2004, table 10.1)

Tenancy contracts are usually undetermined in time, and involve a three months notice. The housing market is regulated in ways similar to the labour market in Sweden, with local Tenants' and Estates Owners' Associations as the main parties, but with a corporatist local Rents Board as both a mediating and an arbitrating instance, including powers to legalize an eviction. In the late 1980s, about two per cent of tenant households were threatened with eviction, but only a third of these (4-5000 a year) were actually carried out (S-Å. Stenberg, Vräkt ur folkhemmet, Stockholm 1990, ch.3). In the first half of the nineties evictions increased with the crisis, up to 7,000 a year (I. Sahlin, På gränsen till bostad, Lund 1996, p. 147.).

Of old, Sweden is a country of neolocal family formation, and a country where children leave their parental home early. Historically, farm households often harboured single lodgers working on the farm, and in industrial cities single lodgers were frequent till World War II. Survey data indicate that now about 1% of households include co-living and not-co-living persons in the same household, and another 1.5% two or more single persons (SCB, Statistisk Årsbok 2004, table 70).

2.3.2 Housing Conditions

The average Swedish dwelling has nowadays 89.8 square metres, and with an average incumbency of 2.1 persons this makes 43 square metres per individual. The internal quality has improved to the point, where there are virtually no dwellings without basic amenities, of water, electricity, and sanitation. According to Swedish statistics, 98 per cent of dwellings are of “modern” standard, with central or otherwise automatic heating. Only two per cent of Swedish households are crowded, in the sense of having more than two non-coupled people per bedroom. According to the criterion of no more than one person per bedroom, i.e., each child having a room of its own or a single person having both a living room and a bedroom, about fourteen per cent of the population lived in crowded conditions in 2000. One third of single parent households did so, fifteen per cent of couples with children. (SCB, Levnadsförhållanden table BO 7).

The social quality of neighbourhoods, or, as they are called in Sweden, “dwelling areas” (*bostadsområden*) is another matter, with social problems at least superficially similar French, German, or Dutch problem suburbs. Considerable efforts at raising their quality have been made in the last 15-20 years, but the supply of social problems also increased in the 1990s, with substantial refugee (and family reunion) immigration and a more closed labour market. Ensuing frustrations and alienation are damaging several suburbs with vandalism and violence.

2.3.3 Environmental conditions (social and natural)

Reported crimes rose continuously after World War II to a peak in 1990. Since the early 1990s the level has stabilized, with about the same value in 2002 as in the mid-1980s. Traffic offences excluded, they amount to 130 per 10,000 inhabitants, to be compared with 25 in 1950 (including traffic offences). (SCB, Statistisk Årsbok 2004, table 556, figure 548). Security of life and property was added to the Level of Living studies in the 1980s. Their results show that about seven per cent of the total population aged 16-84 had been victim to violence or threats of violence in 2000-2001. In the 1990s this figure rose from about five per cent in the 1980s. Young men, 16-24, run most of the risk, twenty per cent, followed by young women seventeen per cent. (SCB, Levnadsförhållanden Rapport no. 100, 2003, ch. 17)

The natural environment has, on the whole, ameliorated in the last 10-15 years, due to a series of deliberate public efforts. There are now less air emissions, less heavy metal in fish, less noise. - Nevertheless, seventeen per cent of the total population, a third in the three large cities, were exposed to traffic noise in 1997, defined as standardized 55 decibel or more by the external wall of the dwelling. There is so much traffic noise in the inner city of Stockholm, that the national government in December 2003 stopped the building of new housing in one of the inner city streets (Dagens Nyheter 19.12.2003 p. 9). - Instances to the contrary, of deterioration, include fertilizers into rivers and a slight deterioration of bathing water. In 1998, fifteen per cent of bathing places in the country got a critical note, according to EU standards, (Naturvårdsverket och SCB, Naturmiljön i siffror 2000). Over a

longer period, of a couple of decades, one might also add the improvement of the waters of Stockholm, to swimming and good fishing quality.

2.4 Health and Care

2.4.1 Security of health provisions

Health care in Sweden is primarily organized and provided by the provinces, financed by provincial taxes, and governed by their elected assemblies, although under considerable national supervision, including financial. Sweden is an internationally outstanding health care cost cutter. In spite of population ageing – Sweden has the highest world proportion of people above 80, 4.5% -, health care costs as a percentage of GDP are lower in 2000 than in 1980, 7.9 and 9.5%, respectively. In PPP dollars per capita as well as in GDP proportion Swedish health expenditure is slightly below the EU15 average. (OECD, Health Care Systems in Transition 1990, p. 10: OECD, Society at a Glance 1993, p. 69.) Private health care is clearly secondary, although it has grown in recent years, promoted by provinces governed by bourgeois coalitions, in particular by that of metropolitan Stockholm, till the elections of 2002. The current Social Democratic government has announced plans of making hospitals for profit illegal, in order to stop the expansion of health care for profit.

Public sickness insurance covers all residents of the country from the age of sixteen. Below that age all children are entitled to health care under the school health and child health systems. The insurance covers health care costs and, for those in the labour force, sickness allowance, which is returning (after the 1990s crisis) to providing 80% of earnings (for most employees) by January 1st 2005. But there is always a patient fee, which varies among the provinces but is no longer symbolic, around 20 euros (with an annual ceiling, a high cost protection). Patients' co-payments amounted to two per cent of public health care expenditure in 1999 (Health care systems in transition, Sweden www.observatory.dk). About forty-five per cent of employees have their health care subsidized by their employer (Dagens Nyheter 2.4. 2003, p. 6). Private health insurance is marginal, but increasing, largely provided as a supplement by the employer.

2.4.2 Health services

There are 29 physicians per 10,000 inhabitants in Sweden in 2003. (SCB, Statistisk Årsbok 2004, table 534). Private practices account for about seven per cent of all doctors. Only five per cent are independent practitioners, as the others have contracts with the provinces (Dagens Nyheter 28.12.2003, p. 7).

Time distance to hospitals and time responses of ambulances do not seem to be available data in Sweden. Like in most countries there is a queue for care, mainly for operations. Eighty per cent of operations take place within three months, while fourteen per cent require more than six months of waiting, according to a report by the Association of Provinces (Landstingsförbundet) in 2003.

2.4.3 Care Services

Sweden has an extensive supply of public care services, of daycare for pre-school children, personal assistants for needy disabled, and home help services for the elderly. But the size of the total supply has shrunk in the last decade. 140,000 persons were supplied with home-help services in 2000, of whom 85,000 aged 80 or more. That is barely one old person 80+ in five, and the trend is declining since the early 1990s, in absolute numbers as well as proportionately. A further good fifth was provided with special (service) housing. Most of the six-year-olds have in recent years entered pre-school, but for the younger age-groups day-care supply has been rather stable since the mid-nineties. About two thirds of two- and of three-year-olds are in day-care, and one third of one-year-olds. Most of it is publicly provided, by the municipalities, but a private sector has grown in recent years, up to fifteen per cent of the places. In Stockholm privately provided but publicly financed childcare has become predominant. (SCB, Statistisk Årsbok 2004; M. Szebehely et al., Välfärdstjänster i omvandling, Stockholm SOU 2001:52)

It has been estimated, that unpaid care for the elderly amounts to something like 120 –150,000 full-time jobs, which is about the same as, perhaps even slightly more than, the total amount of full-time employment in care for the elderly (M. Szebehely et al., Välfärdstjänster i omvandling, Stockholm SOU 2001:52, pp. 164-5). Counted on a daily basis, men in the age of 20-64 spend about 25 minutes taking care of children or of other people, and women about 40 minutes (SCB, Tidsanvändningsundersökningen 2000-2001).

2.5 Work

2.5.1 Employment security

Labour contracts are governed by an Employment Security Act, of 1982. A normal labour contract shall be without time limits, and employees are well protected against individual firings, even for minor misconduct. The work-place trade union is given a crucial say in any termination or change of the employment contract, including the individual order of collective dismissals for scarcity of work. In this way, the law provides for local flexibility to the extent that the employer can reach an agreement with the union. Cases of conflict can be referred to a tripartite Labour Court, though not economically collective firings. The minimum length of notice is one month for employees under 25, then two months, and from 45 years of age or ten years of employment six months. Grave misconduct motivating immediate dismissal has to be noticed to the union and to the person involved one week in advance, which gives the union time to react and demand negotiations if it should decide to. Fifteen per cent of employees had a temporary job contract in 2002, according to national employment statistics.

To our knowledge there are no reliable estimates of the black or illegal labour force. But it is well known to exist, in larger city domestic service and construction, in the restaurant business, and in

seasonal agricultural work. The eastern enlargement of the EU should have diminished its size, as a large proportion of this labour force is from Poland and the Baltics, who now no longer require a work permit. There are a fair number of Russians, but the non-European illegal labour force appears to be much smaller than in most other parts of Western Europe.

2.5.2 Working conditions

There were in 2002 a total of 35,744 reported occupational injuries, 842 per 100,000 employed. The rising trend indicated by Eurostat (The Social Situation of the European Union 2003, appendix 1, item 22), comparing 2000 to 1998, is not borne out by national data. Rather, there was a decline between 1975 and 1980, and a sharp decline from the late 1980s till the mid-nineties, after which the level has stabilized. Fatal accidents shows a declining trend, although the most rapid change in that direction took place between 1965 and 1975, with the first wave of de-industrialization. (SCB, Statistisk Årsbok 2002, figures 274 and 275.) There were in 2000 two fatal accidents per 100,000 employees.

The normal Swedish work week is 40 hours. But ten per cent of male employees and thirty-four of female work less than 35 hours a week. The large time budget survey of 2000/2001 found that men worked on the average a good 38 hours and women 25 hours (SCB, Tidsanvändningsundersökningen 2000/2001, p. 1)

Swedish employees are often de facto absent from work. Any average week in 2000 fifteen per cent of employed men and twenty-four per cent of employed women were absent for the whole week, but these figures also include holidays. Paid sick leave takes a good four per cent of total normal working time, and parental leave another two per cent. (SCB, Labour Force Surveys, AKU, 2004) Absenteeism peaked in 1990, when forty per cent of employed women with children under (the school age of) seven were absent. In the new century it is about a third. This percentage includes parental leave, care of a sick child, own sickness, and holidays (SCB, Arbetskraftsprognos 2002, p. 52).

2.6 Education

About ten per cent of a cohort finish obligatory school without knowledge qualifying for secondary education. Education in Sweden is free, demanding no study fees, even for tertiary education. The fit between education and labour market is far from perfect. About half of those who finished vocational secondary school in 1999 had been unemployed for some period in the three years afterwards, on the average for 5.5 months. Three years after finishing school, 66% of the women and 77% of the men were employed. But only half of the total in the occupation which had been their school goal. Twenty-two per cent who had taken a degree of tertiary education had had a spell of unemployment, 4.8 months on the average. The gender differentials are small and inconsistent. Women from vocational schools had a somewhat higher risk of becoming unemployed, but their unemployed period was somewhat shorter. For the whole population coming out of tertiary education the risk of unemployment was not gendered at all, whereas men were unemployed for a month longer on the

average. The longest post-education unemployment had the 22 per cent of women who were unemployed after a PhD, seven months of the 1998/99 cohort, almost ten months if graduating in 1996/97. Three years after their degree, 95 per cent were employed. (SCB, Utbildning och forskning, Inträdet på arbetsmarknaden, 2004)

3 Social Cohesion

3.1 Introduction

In general historical terms Sweden is a cohesive nation. It is an old realm of unbroken medieval continuity. It was so successfully Lutheranized, that no deep religious cleavages remained, although a large plethora of dissenting movements developed in the second half of the nineteenth century. After the regional, not to speak of big, power dreams were shattered in 1809, the country became ethnically and linguistically very homogenous, with only tiny peripheral minorities. Modern politics has been characterized by institutionalized conflict, with competing ideological left and right party blocs and powerful, well organized “counterparts” - not “partners” - on the labour market, but all playing by rules. The only violent capital-labour clashes took place in 1931, in forest industry port areas in the north. There, strike-breakers were still used, and the army was called in to protect them. Seven strikers were killed in the most serious clash.

3.2 Trust

3.2.1 Generalised trust

Swedes have little reason to feel “betrayed by history” – a powerful source of social mistrust in the Mediterranean region, analyzed by C. Giordano (Die Betrogenen der Geschichte Frankfurt/New York 1992). The peasants preserved their personal freedom, and their ancient institutions of local self-government were fitted into the monarchical state. The short half-century of Absolutism, ending in 1718, had an anti-aristocratic, proto-populist bent, at least in its first half. The bulk of the population was never excluded or alienated from the state. To the poverty of the people corresponded a relative modesty of the monarchy, and even of the nobility.

Consequently, Swedes today tend to be trusting, together with the other Scandinavians the most trusting in the world. Sixty-six per cent, in both World Values survey waves (1990 and 2000) think that most people can be trusted. There was then slightly more trust than in 1981 (B. Rothstein, ‘Sweden’, in R. Putnam (ed.) Democracies in Flux, Oxford 2002, p. 320.) While there is little difference by age, the income and education differences are substantial. People of low income and low education have less trust in people. Nevertheless a good half of them has. (R. Inglehart et al. eds., Human Values and Beliefs, Mexico Siglo XXI 2004, question A165.)

3.2.2 Specific trust

With regard to their confidence in institutions Swedes are less outstanding. About half, or just below, have confidence in the survey list of public institutions, from parliament and the armed forces to churches, labour unions and major companies. Questions about political parties and, in the 2000

wave, about government were not asked. Swedes had in 2000 most institutional confidence in the health care system and the police (three fourths) followed by the educational and the justice systems (barely two thirds). The Eurobarometer of February-March 2004 gives similar results, but adds a clearly greater trust in the national government and, even more, in the national parliament than on the average of the EU15. In Sweden the trusters and non-trusters were 48 vs. 47 per cent for the government, to be compared with the EU average of 30-61, and parliament was trusted by 58 per cent and not trusted by 37 per cent in Sweden, corresponding to 35-54 in the EU (Eurobarometer 61, First results, table 5a).

Sweden has recognized as binding upon itself, the European Court of Human Rights, early, as an EU member of course of the European Court of Justice, several UN Conventions, and the new International Crimes Tribunal. The country has occasionally been brought to the Court of Human Rights, and sometimes sanctioned. Controversial cases have included the involuntary taking care of children by local social services, and an earlier, now changed, system of administrative, non-judicial appeal of administrative decisions.

In their view of importance in life, nine tenths of Swedes, like most people in the world, regard family as very important. Friendship is more important than in other European countries, and so are leisure and politics. The importance of work is rather average, and religion less. Much fewer Swedes think that parents are due unconditional respect, 44%, than the world total, 82, and the average of France, Germany, and Great Britain, 64% (World Values Surveys: R. Inglehart et al., Human Beliefs and Values, Mexico, Siglo XXI, 2004, tables A1-6, 25)

3.3 Other integrative norms and values

3.3.1 Altruism

“Altruism” may not fit very well into Swedish public discourse, because of its connotations of an individualist ethics. But a sense of collective commitment, responsibility, and obligation is widespread, and current surveys indicate a significant amount of attitudinal altruism. Two thirds of Swedes thought in 2000 that parents should do their best for their children even at the expense of their own well-being, lower than in Britain and France but higher than in Germany, and similar to the three-country average. The question of the importance of “service to others” was not asked in the rest of Western Europe. 37% of Swedes said it was very important in their lives, which might best be compared with USA 51% and Canada 42% (Inglehart et al. Human Beliefs and Values, tables A7, A26).

Unpaid association work is very common, coming out of a classical “popular movements” tradition, of religious dissent, temperance, and labour, and nowadays carried by sports organizations more than by any others. In 1998/1999 about half of the Swedish population, aged 16-74, did some unpaid voluntary work, according to national data. On the average, 12 hours per month, 13 by men and 10 by women. This volume of work corresponds to 200,000 full-time jobs. In voluntary work with a social welfare

orientation 26% of all women and 17% of all men participated. Both sets of figures show a slight increase since the early 1990s. (SCB, Levnadsförhållanden Rapport no 100, 2003)

In the World Values Surveys, Swedes appear to do more unpaid civic work than most Europeans, although the differences are not large. Nine per cent there report doing unpaid work for elderly people, eleven per cent cultural work, ten per cent trade union work, and six per cent local community work. A figure of 23 per cent doing voluntary work for churches in 2000 (Inglehart et al. 2004, question A82) is most likely a misunderstanding or a misprint. The 1990 answer of three per cent corresponds better to the secularized country. A comparative European study of the 1990s found a third of Swedes saying that they had done unpaid work unrelated to their own work or family in the past twelve months, a definition more narrow than those above, excluding care of relatives and trade union work (K. Gaskin and J. Davis Smith, A New Civic Europe?, London: The Volunteer Center 1995). That was about the same as in the Netherlands, and higher than in other countries.

3.3.2 Tolerance

Tolerance of deviance is seldom a characteristic of cohesive rural societies, and Sweden before World War II is no exception in that respect. The Church Law of 1686 banned other religions than Lutheran Christianity, although foreigners were allowed to practice their religion in private. The Constitution of 1809 proclaimed freedom of religion, but only around 1870 were non-Lutherans, including Jews and Catholics, recognized equal civic rights. On the other hand, the State Church could never establish itself firmly among the industrial classes, so Sweden has secularized rapidly in the 20th century, becoming with the other Scandinavian countries the most secularized in the world, together with China and Japan. And secularization has meant more tolerance of sexual behaviour. By 1960, when the senior author began his university studies, gender-integrated student dormitories was already a self-evident practice. Homosexuality between consenting adults was de-criminalized in 1944. Since the 1970s Swedish law has provided cohabitee rights to same-sex couples, and in 1987 discrimination of homosexuals was made a criminal offence.

The ethno-cultural composition of Sweden changed dramatically in the last third of the 20th century.

Table 6 Foreign-Born in Sweden 1950-2003. Per cent of the Total Population

1950	2.8
1960	4.0
1970	6.7
1980	7.5
1990	9.2
2000	11.3
2003	12.0

Source; SCB, Statistiska Meddelanden; Be 18 0401, table 6.

The old country of mass emigration has become a country of immigration on par with USA. It is an expression of an open public policy. But it has not passed without friction. The 1990s saw several cases of xenophobic violence, including some cases of murder. But the violence and the mobbing have been carried out by individuals or by small groups. There have no race riots or other collective violence. In the early nineties a xenophobic political party was represented in parliament, but it disintegrated in 1994, and since then that kind of politics has lacked any national parliamentary presence.

In terms of attitudes Swedes appear relatively tolerant. In the World Values Survey of 2000, only three per cent expressed reservations against have immigrants as neighbours, and nine per cent against Muslim neighbours (Questions A 128, 129). Just six per cent would be worried by homosexual neighbours. Worrying neighbours were, like in other countries, drug addicts, people with a criminal record, and alcoholics.

A Eurobarometer survey found Swedes most frequently “actively tolerant” ,33% as compared to an EU average of 21, and less frequently “intolerant”, 9 per cent, than the average, 14 per cent. The Spanish came out as least actively tolerant and most often passively tolerant. These indexes include views on non-civic behaviour, such as fraudulent claims to public benefits, tax and fare cheating, car theft (“joyriding”), littering drunken driving, which had better be distinguished from other issues of tolerance.

3.3.3 Social Contract

Swedes were in 2000 the least prone to blame the people in need for their poverty, only seven per cent did so. Fifty per cent pointed to social injustice instead. (Inglehart et al. 2004, tables E190-1) In election after election, a majority of Swedes have re-confirmed their commitment to high taxation, as a necessary price for social services. Most recently this happened in the parliamentary election of 2002, which not only re-elected the Social Democratic government – dependent on the support of the Left and of the Environment parties -, but also gave a strong setback to the rightwing Moderates, who put forward far-reaching tax reduction proposals. In the governing political elite it seems that taxation has now reached its ceiling, and tax cuts have now entered the Social Democratic agenda. The level is much higher than in the rest of the EU and of the OECD. In 2001, taxes and social security contributions comprise 53.6% of the Swedish GDP, to be compared with the EU average of 40.8.

In 2002, 60-65% of Swedes said they were prepared to pay higher taxes for health care, schools, and support for the elderly. The support is higher than it was in the 1980s. (SCB, Levnadsförhållanden Rapport no 100, ch. 20)

The extent of willingness and of actual voluntary community work is not really known. But its occurrence is, of voluntary fire fighters, of parental night patrols, of vigilantes against burglary and theft, of housing cooperatives and neighbourhoods cleaning their backyards and their commons,

occasional help for local elderly and disabled. Annual neighbourhood parties have become common in many cities. There is also a recent phenomenon, supported by public training, of volunteers for supporting crime victims and threatened witnesses after trials. National surveys of the early and the late nineties found that half of the Swedish population (16-74) makes some kind of voluntary work in a year, on an average 12-13 hours a month. Almost a third is providing regular support and help to someone outside one's own household, among the age group 60-74 a good third. One in six of the latter is helping a non-relative (Szebehely et al. 2001 ch. 3).

Household work is still distributed unevenly among men and women, although the distance narrowed in the 1990s, because women worked less at home. Women devote on the average four hours a day to domestic work, and men between two and half and three hours a day. The main difference refers to the core of household chores, cooking, washing, and cleaning, to which women devote two hours a day and men one hour. (SCB, Tidsanvändningsundersökningen 2000/2001; Levnadsförhållanden Rapport no. 100, ch. 21).

3.4 Social networks

Swedes are a people of joiners, with strong traditions of associational membership. Some, previously large, organizations have declined, religious denominations, temperance associations, in the last decades also political parties and their youth and women's wings. Trade unions have maintained themselves extraordinarily well albeit not without losses, and sports clubs and practically passive support-cause membership have increased. By the end of 2002, trade unions organized about eighty per cent of Swedish employees. (The exact figure depends on estimates of the number of retired members of the manual workers' confederation. If the proportion were the same as for the main white-collar confederation, the figure would be 79%) (SCB, Statistisk Årsbok 2004, table 335).

Ninety per cent of Swedes are members of at least one association, a little less than half (44%) are active in at least one organization, and a good fourth have some kind of task function in a voluntary organization (SCB, Levnadsförhållanden Rapport no 100, 2003, ch. 22). In the World Values Surveys, two thirds said they belonged to a trade union, a good third to a sports club, and a fifth to as social welfare association. Membership in a religious organization is not comparable to other countries, because of lingering effects of automatic state church affiliation.

Ninety-five per cent spend time with friends at least once or twice a month (WVS question A58). But in national surveys, one in five say that they lack a close friend (J. Fritzell and O. Lundberg, Välfärd, ofärd och ojämlikhet Stockholm SOU 2000:41, table 2.2.). Between a fourth (tertiary education) and forty per cent (workers) see a workplace colleague in leisure time at least every week. About sixty per cent meet a friend every week. On the whole, friendship contacts became more frequent in the 1970s and 1980s, and then stabilized (SCB, Levnadsförhållanden Rapport 91 1997, ch. 17). In the WVS

data 54% report that they see a colleague from work at least once a month, and ninety-five per cent a friend.

As we noticed above, the supply of support to persons outside the household is substantial, but there is less information about its reception. An early 1990s Eurobarometer study found that 28 per cent of Swedes of age 60+ received unpaid personal help from outside their household, by relatives, friends or neighbours. That was then considerably lower than in Britain (42%) and Germany (58%), with their much more limited public service. In the mid-nineties, 39% of elderly (82+) living at home in (a part of inner Stockholm) received outside personal help (M. Szebehely, 'Omsorgsarbetets olika former', Sociologisk forskning 1999 no. 1, tables 1 and 3).

3.5 Identity

3.5.1 National / European identity

Together with Danes, Portuguese, and Irish, Swedes were the only Europeans feeling clearly more nationally proud in 1990 than in 1981, but the level remained below the Western European average, 41% of Swedes and 45% of Western Europeans feeling proud of their country. In the 2000 wave of the value surveys there were still 41 per cent proud, about the same as in France and Italy, but much higher than in Germany or the Netherlands.

From a background of successful neutrality – which kept Sweden out of the two world wars – , post-war full employment, and of a system of social security and equality which has been second to none since the 1960s, the limited European enthusiasm of the Swedish population is quite rational and understandable. With a slight lead of positive opinion Swedes are divided almost equal among those who think the EU is a good thing (37% in spring 2004), a bad thing (33%), and neither good nor bad (29%). Fifty-nine per cent held that Sweden had not benefited from EU membership, while 27% found benefits of membership. But with their trusting propensities Swedes are as frequent in their trust of the Commission as the average European (Eurobarometer 61)

In terms of attitudinal attachment and identity, Swedes differ rather little from the European average. But more Swedes see themselves as nationals only (48%) than the EU15 average (40%), and six as opposed to average ten per cent see themselves as Europeans first. Fifty-one per cent said in October 2003 that they felt very proud of their national belonging, as compared to 41 % in average EU. There was also on the other hand a good deal of pride in being European, 17% very proud (higher than the average, 13%), a lower share of lack of European pride than the average, 24 to 28 per cent. Trend-wise Swedes are becoming more European, in the autumn of 1999 31% said they considered themselves Swedes and Europeans, in 2003 45%.

3.5.2 Regional / community / local identity

The reported sense of attachment to country, region, and locality is very close to the European average (95, 89, 86 feeling very or rather attached), but in a mid-90s European Values survey, 59 per cent of Swedes declared themselves primarily attached to their locality, as against 22 per cent to the country as a whole, which was a middle position in the EU, between the regional-cum-local attachment of the Germans (ten per cent primary national belonging) and the national Dutch (41%). It is noteworthy, given the EU skepticism in Sweden, that Swedes in 2003 felt more attachment to Europe than the average EU resident, 72 to 58% (Eurobarometer 60.1, National report, 2003).

4 Social Inclusion

4.1 Citizenship Rights

4.1.1 Constitutional / political rights

Swedish citizenship is historically based on the principle of *ius sanguinis* (of descent), but also on residence. Minimum residence length requirements are rather low (two years for Nordic citizens, five years for others), and children who at 21 have lived for ten years in Sweden only have to give notice of their desire of citizenship, whereas for adults a non-criminal record is also important. Administrative practice does not enforce a renunciation of another citizenship. By the end of 2002 5.3 per cent of Swedish residents were foreign citizens. In the period of 1998-2002 202,000 persons were naturalized as citizens, which amounts to 0.4-0.5 per cent of the total resident population per year. (SCB, Statistisk Årsbok 2004, tables 91 and 100).

Sweden was a pioneer in giving non-citizen long-term residents the right to vote in municipal elections. In 2002 220,000 non-citizens were entitled to vote, three per cent of the electorate. But participation is rather low, and in the end there were only 25,000 more votes in the municipal than in the simultaneous parliamentary elections.

4.1.2 Social rights

Social rights are generally based on residence and age. Full basic pension rights are accorded all citizens from the age of 65, all foreign residents who have lived in Sweden for 40 years since their 25th birthday, and old age refugees according to more special rules. The so-called income pension, for which one may opt from the age of 61, depends on previous earnings for which contributions have been paid, and on the current development of the economy as a whole.

In gross terms, women's wages as per cent of men's were in 2001 84 per cent in the private sector and 90 per cent in the municipalities. But controlled for occupation, branch, education, and age, female wages made 92 per cent of the male wage on the whole labour market, ninety per cent in private sector, among state employees 92 per cent, 93 per cent among the provincial employees (the bulk of health care), and 99 per cent among municipal employees (C.-H. Gustafsson et al. SCB, "Hopplösa fel om löneskillnader", Dagens Nyheter 15.1 2003, p. A4.) These national data from Statistics Sweden are geared to an identification of gender discrimination. But if gendered occupational choice is allowed to count, Swedish women fare less well, because of a rather gender-segregated, high female-employment labour market and many women in low paid social service jobs. Eurostat data for average hourly earnings in 2001 point to a larger gender gap in that sense than on the average in the EU, an 18 per cent gap in Sweden compared to a 16 per cent in the EU.

4.1.3 Civil rights

Subsidised legal assistance (*rättshjälp*) is a means-tested, individual case-decided right, costing the state about ninety million euros annually. The income limit is generous, 260,000 crowns of annual income in 2002, almost 30,000 euros. Everyone accused of a serious crime has the right to a public defence counsel, who is free to the acquitted, and who would cost only a (graded) fee of legal assistance in case of conviction.

“Ombudsman” is a Swedish word and concept which spread around the world in the last decades of the 20th century. It goes back to the Constitution of 1809, instituting two parliamentary administrative offices for receipt and investigation of complaints about the public administration and about the military. The “ombudsman” in this sense has the right start investigations on own initiative and to bring cases to court, but the main function is one of public criticism of officialdom and its practice. The ombudsman is a representative of the people, but not a politician, usually with a legal training. In recent times there has been a proliferation of ombudsmen in Sweden, preoccupied not only with the state apparatus but also with the functioning of society at large. Beside the main parliamentary ombudsman office, there are now also a Consumer Ombudsman, an Ombudsman against Ethnic Discrimination, an Equal Opportunities Ombudsman, a Children’s Ombudsman, a Disability Ombudsman, and since July 1999 an Ombudsman against Discrimination because of Sexual Orientation.

The Parliamentary Judiciary Ombudsman deals with 4-5,000 cases a year. The cases of the new offices vary considerably.

Table 7 Cases by the new Public Ombudsmen in 2002.

Consumer Ombudsman	8922
Disability Ombudsman	1955
Ombudsman against Ethic Discrimination	1551
Children’s Ombudsman	1218
Equal Opportunities Ombudsman	862
Ombudsman against Discrimination because of Sexual Orientation	446

Source: SCB, Statistisk Årsbok 2004, table 575.

4.1.4 Economic and political networks

There is neither a clear definition of ethnic minority citizens nor a registration of their representation. The usual Swedish way of reference is to people of “immigrant background”. The public biographies of Swedish MPs do not permit an exact determination of the number of foreign-born. But from culling the data (www.riksdagen.se), it seems that around 4 per cent, about 15 of 349, are foreign-born. Women’s representation, in various contexts, is an officially recognized issue, with gender distribution rules throughout the public sector, commitment of all political parties to some definition of a “balanced”

electoral representation, and public pressure also on private business. Data supply is accordingly ample.

Table 8 The Proportion of Women in Various Public Bodies in 2003-2004 Per cent

Cabinet	50
Parliament	45
Board members of state authorities	
Central	47
Regional	50
Provincial executives	47
Municipal executives	36
Trade union executives	
LO (manual workers)	27
TCO (white collar)	55
SACO (professional)	56
Corporations listed on the stock exchange	
Board members	15
CEOs	1

Source: SCB, På tal om kvinnor och män 2004, pp. 84ff

4.2 Labour market

4.2.1 Access to paid employment

Swedish full employment policies and institutions weathered the international crises of the mid-seventies and early eighties very well (cf. G. Therborn, Why Some Peoples Are More Unemployed than Others, London 1985). But the burst of a financial bubble brought about a depression in the early 1990s, which for a while took the whole banking system to the verge of bankruptcy, only to be rescued by the state. The economy came to a standstill, GDP declined and unemployment soared. However, the economy, public finances, and the labour market recovered in the second half of the 1990s. The rate of employment (as a proportion of the population, usually aged 15-64), which is the best measure of labour market inclusion, is among the highest in the world, 73% in 2003, as against 65% in the EU and 64% in the OECD (OECD, Economic Outlook 74, 2003). But it is still below the pre-crisis peak, in more national calculation for the age interval of 20-64, of 86% in 1990, currently at 79%. Long-term unemployment, for more than a year, stood in 2003 at 0.6% for men and 0.4% for women (SCB, AKU 2004). These Swedish labour force surveys figures are somewhat lower than Eurostat data, 1.2 and 0.8, respectively, reflecting some difference of criteria and measurement.

There is a considerable amount of ethnic discrimination on the labour market. How much is impossible to say, because it concerns a discrete illegal behaviour, and because researchers have been barred from investigating it by undercover methods. The country's leading morning paper, Dagens Nyheter (6.9.2004), has made a serious journalistic study of it, letting four reporters claiming identical merits, two with fully native names and two with clearly non-native names, answer 366 vacancy ads, from a

number of job sectors. In thirteen per cent of the cases discrimination was found, dismissing non-natives while encouraging natives to apply in writing. Comparing the private sector cases (15% discrimination, as against 2% in public schools) with similar studies in Western Europe indicates more ethnic discrimination in Sweden than in Germany, but less than in Belgium, Italy, Netherlands, and Spain. However, international comparability is at most approximate.

4.3 Services

4.3.1 Health services

Every resident adult is covered by health insurance, and all children by child and school health care. But as adult medical consultation and care are no longer free, consulting a public doctor costing 20-25 euros, with an annual ceiling, there is an actual under-supply. In 1999 two per cent of men and four per cent of women above 20 said they abstained from medical care for economic reasons. The proportion is highest among women aged 20-24 (5%), and lowest among elderly men (1%). (SCB, Hälsa- och sjukvårdsstatistisk Årsbok 2001, table 8).

4.3.2 Housing

The number of homeless people has been estimated to 3,000 in Stockholm, by local social workers (interview with Erik Finne at the Social services of Stockholm). On a national scale, there is an estimate from the 1990s of 10,000 (Välfärd vid vägskäl, Stockholm, SOU 2000:3, pp. 246-7)

A more representative approach to the accessibility of housing may be to look at the dwelling situation of young people. In 1999 a good half of all Swedes aged 18 to 29 had rented accommodation of their own, a good fourth were still living with their parents, and a fifth owned their dwelling (SCB, Bostadsförhållanden)

4.3.3 Education

Nine years of schooling are compulsory. After that, about ninety per cent of the cohort are qualified for secondary education.

Two thirds of a cohort nowadays get a tertiary education (SCB, Svensk utbildning i internationell statistik 2002, p. 102) Women make up sixty-one per cent of tertiary education undergraduates and 63% of first degree-takers in 2001/02. They were 49% of beginning post-graduate students, and 43 per cent of the PhDs, a year later 45% (SCB, Utbildning och forskning 2004).

4.3.4 Social care

According to a whole body of specific legislation in Sweden, everybody in need of care services has a right to it. The rules are strict and simple with respect to health care and care for disabled. The right to

public child care is also straightforward. Within four months, the municipality has to provide a "reasonable offer" of public daycare, with "reasonable" referring mainly to location. Old people in need living on their own have a right to home-help - and if they cannot live in ordinary housing to special accommodation -, but here there is room for considerable municipal discretion, in deciding who is in need, and of how much help. Whereas on national average about a fifth of all elderly of 80 and older who live in ordinary housing receive municipal home-help, the decile range between the municipalities was 14 to 25 per cent (Szebehely et al. 2001, pp. 62-3). Access to, and waiting for, a service dwelling or to an old age home also varies among the municipalities, according to their resources and to the demographic composition of the municipality.

4.3.5 Financial services

Hard systematic data on access to credit are unknown to us. But in case of need, there is the legal right social assistance. There is also a special Debt Relief Act of 1994, setting up municipal counselling on household budgeting and debt, with procedures for negotiated debt relief. Between 1994 and 2001 29,000 persons applied for debt relief, and 11,000 got it. How many asked for counselling has not been nationally registered (information from the Social services of the City of Stockholm).

4.3.6 Transport

All towns have local transport, heavily subsidized. In the countryside there is also an extensive public bus service, organized by the provinces. Elderly and disabled have the right to personal transport services for a modest fee. To our knowledge there is no clear Swedish definition of "access to public transport". Statistics Sweden is using distance to a bus stop, of 250 metres or more, and the nearest bus service running less frequently than every half hour. In those respects, about forty per cent of the population had limited access to public transport in the mid-nineties. Seventeen per cent had no car. But the proportion having neither a car nor a bus stop within 250 metres was only four per cent (of the population 16-74). (SCB, Levnadsförhållanden Rappports no 91, pp. 262-3)

In terms of road density, Sweden has per square kilometre of land area, 0.5 kilometre of public roads trafficable by car. It should then be borne in mind that Sweden is a sparsely populated country, with 22 inhabitants per square kilometre of land.

4.3.7 Civic / cultural services

We have not been able to get much data on sports facilities. Their importance is indicated, however, both in their demand and in the cost of their supply. In the early 1990s, an outdoor sports arena was used at least once a year by a fifth of all men, and once a week by a tenth, an indoor swimming-pool by a good fourth of all men and women. Female utilization of outdoor sports facilities was then less than ten per cent any time a year and five per cent once a week, figures most likely to have risen with the expansion of women's football in recent years. A fifth of both women and men used an indoor

athletics hall at least once a week. About five per cent, somewhat more women, went swimming indoors at least once a week. (SCB. Fritid 1976-91).

On the supply side, the municipal net costs for providing “leisure” (*fritid*) facilities, which is mainly sports but which also includes some support of associations, amounted to circa 900 euros per inhabitant in 2001. This was slightly more than their support for “culture”, and forty per cent of municipal expenditure for physical infrastructure.

As far as cultural facilities are concerned, there were in Sweden in 2000 per 10,000 inhabitants, 1.3 cinemas, 0.26 museums and public art galleries, 0.4 orchestras, 0.4 public theatres, 0.7 other publicly supported theatre groups. Apart from individual institutions these include some 25 regional ones, regional orchestras, museums, and theatres in a systematic countrywide net. Seventeen concerts and fourteen theatre performances per 10,000 inhabitants were given by the public institutions. Each of the 289 municipalities runs a public library, usually with several subsidiaries, even in the countryside. They lend on the average about eighty books per inhabitant annually.

4.4 Social networks

About forty per cent of the population have no contact with their neighbours, but a third relate to neighbours every week. One in five per cent of the population aged 16-84 lacks a close friend (Välfärd, ofärd och ojämlikhet, Stockholm SOU 2000:41, p.112), and in the EVS study 95% say they spend time with friends at least once a month. About half of the population spend leisure time with colleagues at work. Since the 1970, the networks of friendship have become more dense. Almost sixty per cent are with friends – who are not close relatives, work colleagues or neighbours - at least every week, an increase with 12 percentage point between the mid-seventies and the late eighties, whereupon there has been a certain stabilization. Two per cent of the population 16 to 84 lack social relations outside their own household, and are in that sense isolated.

Meeting with a close relative – child, parent, sibling – outside one’s own household do sixty per cent of the population 16-74 at least every week. This has been a stable condition over time, except among people with tertiary education, where the proportion seeing a close relative every week increased from the seventies to the nineties by ten percentage points, from a good third to almost half. A third of men and women aged 45-64 who have parent(s) alive see them at most once in a quarter of a year. One in five of the total population see a close relative at most a couple of times a year. (SCB, Levnadsförhållanden Rapport 91, 1997, ch. 17).

Twenty-four per cent of all persons aged 16 to 84 were living alone in 1998-2000, according to statistical surveys. Informal cohabitation and other errors tend to exaggerate the proportion in the population register (SCB, Levnadsförhållanden Rapport no. 100, 2003, ch. 16)

5 Social Empowerment

5.1 Introduction

The large popular movements, above all of religious dissent, temperance, and labour, which rose in Sweden in the second half of the 19th century and were to set their imprint on the 20th century development were very much concerned with what today's public discourse calls social empowerment. That is, with increasing the capability of their members to cope with their lives and with social challenges. A core institution of this "empowerment" was the study circle, for collective self-study, a tradition which is still being reproduced, and supported by public financial support of the study organizations. The latter are often, but not always, linked to religious or political currents, and include also political youth organizations. Currently, about 2.8 million people participate annually in study circles, according to official statistics (SCB, [Statistisk Årsbok 2002](#), table 596). The topics are wide-ranging, from Swedish for immigrants, civic and political topics, to art and hobbies. But they are not vocational.

5.2 Knowledge Base

5.2.1 Application of knowledge

A good part of the Swedish labour force is over-educated in relation to their job, 37% in 2000. For the period of 1974-2000 average education of the labour force increased from 1.6 to 3.8 years after compulsory school, whereas average employer demand has augmented from 1.8 to 3.6 years. About a fourth of all jobs require no particular qualification. (C. LeGrand et al., 'Arbetslivet halkar efter: de enkla jobben försvinner inte', [Sociologisk forskning](#) no. 1 2004). But on the whole, the Swedish labour market and Swedish society appear less rigid with regard to formal qualification or definitions of knowledge than several others. Only for comparative international purposes has Swedish official statistics taken up the distinction of skilled, semi-skilled, and unskilled workers, for instance, absent from the census till the latest decades. Knowledge from experience is often treated on par with study merits. Income differentiation by educational level is rather modest. In 2002 a male employee with at least three years of tertiary education had 34% higher gross wages than one with only two years of secondary school. Among women the differential was higher, 52 per cent (SCB, [Lönestatistisk Årsbok 2002](#), table 2a.) Nevertheless there is an increase of the educational differential in spite of the above-mentioned over-supply of education.

Sweden is a country with a somewhat greater social "fluidity", of relative social mobility odds, than most countries, although the differences are small. In particular, children of unskilled workers have had better chances in Sweden. (R. Eriksson and J. Goldthorpe, [The Constant Flux](#), Oxford, Clarendon Press, 1992; SCB, [Levnadsförhållanden Rapport 91](#) 1997, ch. 27). Education is a major channel of social mobility, but also a mechanism of social selection and reproduction. Sweden is one of the few

countries where there has been a long-term, decline of social bias in the educational system, but equalization flattened out after 1970. International differences are surprisingly small, and Sweden seems to have about the same overall social bias in education as Britain and USA, with their many private upper-class schools, but somewhat less than the public elitism of France and Germany. (SCB, Levnadsförhållanden Rapport 91 ch. 28).

5.2.2 Availability of information

Literacy is an old tradition, virtually universal even before compulsory schooling, because of clerical diffusion and control of Bible reading. Functional illiteracy and innumeracy, or rather, low functional literacy and numeracy, are not completely eradicated, however. The OECD PISA study found in 2000 one out of eight Swedish student aged 15 to be “poor” in reading competence, about the same as in the UK, lower than in France and Germany, but the almost the double in comparison with Finland. A European Adult Literacy Survey of the mid-nineties found only six per cent with a poor literacy, then the lowest in Europe, including reversing the relation to Finland.

A significant role in augmenting the formal knowledge of the population is played by municipal adult education, providing basic and secondary education to those who missed or failed it in their youth. In the school year of 2001/02 this free educational system – entitling to public study support – comprised 288,000 pupils. Twenty-six per cent of them were foreign born. (SCB, Komvuxregistret 2003)

The Swedish media landscape is relatively pluralistic. The two public TV channels are not only subject to private competition, their impartiality is generally recognized, and under constant surveillance. Bourgeois, as they are officiously called in Sweden, newspapers have a preponderance among the print media, but there are also several locally significant Social Democratic papers, and currently the largest national paper is Social Democratic.

In 2002 75 per cent of all Swedes aged 16 to 84 had access to a computer at home. Sixty per cent had then access to the internet at home, forty-six per cent among manual workers. (SCB, Statistisk Årsbok 2004, tables 285 and 289).

5.2.3 User friendliness of information

According to the Administration Act, residents and asylum seekers who do not master Swedish have a right to interpreters and translators, in contacts with public authorities, the health and social care system, and the courts. It is provided free of charge by the municipalities, and by publicly financed private entrepreneurs. The number of languages offered is large. For instance in Uppsala, a city with 150,000 inhabitants, 126 languages are on offer (Uppsala *Tolk- och översättningsservice* interview September 2004).

5.3 Labour Market

5.3.1 Control over employment contract

67-70% of the total labour force was unionized in early 2003 (SCB, [AKU 2004](#); SCB, [Statoistisk Årsbok 2004:335](#)), trend slowly declining. There is virtually no difference between the public sector and the private industrial sector, but private services have a lower rate. Swedish trade union membership is sustained by the fact that most unemployment insurance is administered by the unions, although overwhelmingly publicly financed, and also by the strong, legally backed, workplace presence of the unions. The Co-Determination Act and the Employment Security Act make all workplace re-organization and employment contract changes subject to employer-trade union negotiations. Of old, the labour market counterparts have a strong autonomy from the state. Collective bargaining covers almost the whole labour market, and takes place between the organizations of employers and employees only. The state is not seldom providing “mediators”, but no arbitrators, and no *fiat*.

5.3.2 Prospects of job mobility

Staff training on the workplace has become common. According to the national labour force surveys, forty per cent of all employed participated in training in 2000, eight per cent for six days or more. The Swedish data refer to the whole labour market, and not, as the Eurostat, to private enterprises with ten or more employees.

Sweden became known in OECD policy circles in the 1960s for its “active labour market policies”, i.e., of policies providing work or re-training for the unemployed. Such back to work schemes have recently been scaled down, but they are still significant. Discounting special schemes for the disables, they covered 2.7% of the labour in 2002.

5.3.3 Reconciliation of work and family life

Making it possible to combine work and family is a major policy objective in Sweden. In a quantitative sense at least this policy has been rather successful. For example eighty per cent of women with children under seven are in the labour force. The total fertility rate is above the EU average, despite a dip due to the early 1990s economic crisis, and rising, probably reaching 1.76 in 2004.

A parental insurance provides for paid parental leave. It covers 480 days of paid leave for a single parent and two times 240 days for two-parental families. The two parents may shift the leave between them, but one of them can only take out 420 days. Two months are reserved for the other parent, a rule to promote more active fatherhood. – Apart from this ordinary parental leave, the father has also a right to ten days paid leave within two months of the birth of his child. The days of parental leave need not be taken out in one go, and may be used till the child reaches 8 years of age.

If you had been employed for at least 240 days before the childbirth, your parental leave benefit is the same as your sick benefit, except for three months of the total leave period, which give you only the basic benefit of circa 13 euros a day.

You have also a right to “temporary parental benefit”, to take care of a sick child, to replace a caregiver who is sick, or some other urgent reasons of parental responsibility. Such a right holds till the child is 12 –in special cases it may be prolonged till 16 -, up to a maximum of 60 days per child and year. Having spent those 60 days, you have only two months more for the whole age period. As a parent of a child 6-11 you have further the right to temporary parental leave for one “contact day” a year, to visit the child’s school for instance. Temporary parental leave benefit is equal to sickness benefit.

Working-time and career paths have become much more varied, but the terms of the debate have shifted, with the balance of power, from a focus on options for the individual to options for the firm, and from alternate timing of leisure to prolongation of working life. Flexible working-times also seem to have little effect on easing conflicting demands of work and family, presumably largely because the latter has a fixed time structure governed by daycare centres and schools (A. Grönlund, Flexibilitetens gränser. Förändring och friction i arbetsliv och familj. Umeå, Borea, 2004). But absence from work remains an important option. In the first quarter of 2004, Swedish employees were in fact absent – holidays and flex-time excluded - from eleven per cent of their working hours, women fifteen and men seven (SCB, Labour Force Surveys, AKU 2004).

5.4 Openness and supportiveness of institutions

5.4.1 Openness and supportiveness of political systems

The Swedish political system has traditionally had an emphasis on “representative democracy”, centered in parliament for the system as a whole, in party and trade union congresses and executives. While trade union executives still keep control of labour market conflict, political parties are now holding consultative primaries, and referenda have become important. The latter are not constitutionally binding, but are generally respected by the political elite. In the last 24 years, Sweden has held three important referenda, in 1980 on nuclear energy, in 1994 on EU membership, and in 2003 on the euro. At the municipal level, referenda have to be put on the agenda, but not necessarily held, if five per cent of the municipal voters so demand. Most municipal referenda held have been on division/secession.

Public planning decisions, urban plans and non-urban road plans have by law to be submitted to public scrutiny and debate before they can be passed. Municipalities sometimes invite public initiatives and opinions, on whatever issue.

The Swedish public bureaucracy is- with the other Nordic countries - uniquely accessible to civic questioning. All its files, except on private matters and judicial cases, are in principle accessible to

anybody requesting them. The office has a legal obligation to provide them upon request, in- and outgoing correspondence, receipts, minutes, etc. Investigative journalism is much facilitated. From our personal experience we know that interviewing public bureaucrats, including by university students as part of their education, is much easier in Sweden, than, for example, in the Netherlands.

5.4.2 Openness of economic systems

The openness of the economic system is primarily provided by the rights and power of trade unions. It is not possible to run a significant anti-union enterprise in Sweden. In the 1970s the Stockholm plant was the first ever unionized IBM plant in the world. In the 1990s the anti-union retail chain Toys´R Us was forced by a strike to choose whether to negotiate or to quit the country. It chose to quit. (Ryanair has so far been able to circumvent the Swedish unions by having their Swedish employees officially employed in England.) The Co-Determination Act and the high rate of unionization provide the unions with rights and powers, of insight and bargaining, if not of deciding. The Employment Promotion Act of 1974 and the Employment Security Act of 1982 provide an extensive legal framework of labour rights, the flexibility of which is wholly dependent on direct employer-union negotiations. Lay-offs of the enterprise labour force, of five employees or more, have to be noticed to the provincial labour market authority, but are not subject to any state evaluation. In the case of large-scale changes, affecting >100 employees, the required public notice time is six months.

Sweden does not have the German institution of works councils. It is the workplace trade union(s) and their information and bargaining rights which are crucial.

5.5 Public Space

5.5.1 Support for collective action

Sweden has an old concept of nature as a public space. Fields, forests, meadows, mountains, waters are in principle accessible to everybody (*allmansrätt*, literally the right of everybody). Private property does not prevent you from walking in nature, from picking flowers and berries, from swimming, from pitching a tent for one night.

Civic organizations of all kinds, including political parties, receive considerable economic support from the public purse, nationally and locally. This support is particularly important for the parties (with their youth organizations), for associations of immigrants, and for the adult study organizations. A special wage support program subsidizes the employment of handicapped or unemployed people, and organizations of "public utility" can thereby get 90 per cent of the wage from the public purse. In this way, sports organizations employ about 8-9000 people, and other associations 3-5000 ([Dagens Nyheter 24.9.2004](#), Ekonomi p. 8). A recent voucher system supports a number of private schools, including religious ones.

It may be noticed, that Mayday is still a day of rallies and marches of the labour movement, the Social Democratic as well as the Left party, and minor organizations. The importance of the First of May is underlined by the absence of any National Day marches.

To our knowledge, no demonstration has been banned in the last 12 months, although the possibility of some local case is not to be excluded. There is a law against incitement to group hatred, but it has not been used to ban Nazi or xenophobic demonstrations. It has happened though, that such demonstrations have been stopped, but then for reasons of public order, i.e., the prospect of counter-demonstrations and of violent clashes.

5.5.2 Cultural enrichment

Cultural policy is primarily oriented towards diffusion and participation, and very little to national prestige. On the national level, only 0.8% of the state budget is devoted to "Leisure activities, culture, and religion". The municipalities spend a good eighty euros per inhabitant on culture, and the provinces twenty.

As far as people's "cultural enrichment" is concerned, survey data from 1998-99 tell us that among the population 16-64 the proportion who in the last twelve months had visited them was, 58% for cinemas, 59% for libraries, 40% for theatres. These figures are all higher than attending a religious service at least once in the last twelve months, 37 per cent, and compares well with attendance of sports events, 49 per cent. (SCB, Statistisk Årsbok 2002, tables 604-20).

Adult educational associations also organize a broad range of cultural activities, lectures, exhibitions, plays, literature readings, music etc. In 2000 there were 211,000 such events, two thirds of which lectures and concerts, visited by 16.8 million people (SCB, Statistisk Årsbok 2002, table 597).

5.6 Personal Relationships

A noteworthy change of personal relationships occurred, very rapidly, at the end of the 1960s. The Swedish language never developed a generalized polite second person pronoun, like the German *Sie*, the French *vous*, or the universalistic English *you*. Instead, in polite language you had to use clumsy third person circumventions, using titles if known, otherwise some neuter third person circumlocution. In the phonebook, people with the same surname were listed according to their titles or occupation. Then in just a couple of years, everybody was empowered to say *du*, using the intimate, informal second person pronoun, to everybody. Except to the royal family, but very well to the Prime Minister, the Archbishop, the teacher, and the boss. The telephone book now list persons with the same surname by their first names, in alphabetical order.

Support for the disabled amounted to eleven per cent of all social expenditure in 2000, and 3.6% of GDP. Legal rules ensure accessibility of all public buildings to disabled people.

As noted above, pre-school daycare covers two thirds of all children aged 2 and 3, three fourths of four-year-olds, and four fifths of all five-year-olds. Two thirds of 7-9-year-olds are in after-school centres, but barely seven per cent of the age group 10-12.

Planned urban neighbourhoods virtually always include a public square in front of local service functions, such as post, bank, everyday shopping, news agent, often some food outlet. Their actual operation as public meeting-places is very variable, though. Sweden has no gated communities.

6 Conclusion

It may be concluded, hopefully without nationalist bias, that social quality in Sweden is relatively high. This is also borne out by the Human Development Reports of the UNDP, which place Sweden at the top of their human development index, in 2004 as second after Norway. Nor is the position contested by liberal American economists (see e.g. J. Sachs, 'The Best Countries in the World', *Newsweek* July 26 2004). It is noteworthy that it goes together with a top ranking of "world competitiveness" by the World Economic Forum, putting Sweden third among 102 countries of the world in 2003, after Finland and the United States. The national Level of Living and Living Conditions surveys bring out a basic trend of social quality amelioration since 1968, when the series started.

As already hinted at, the Swedish position is not unique, but part of a somewhat broader Nordic spectrum, which has developed by the five countries learning from each other as well as from parallel trajectories. The Nordic nations share an egalitarian tradition, from a forceful pre-industrial peasantry and a tradition of limited patriarchy. Their Lutheran churches provided early universal literacy, and then become wide open to industrial secularization. From late nineteenth century they grew rapidly economically, on the basis of commodity exports in mounting demand, but of commodities conducive to fruitful industrial linkages domestically. All this provided the fertile soil for the 20th century labour and women's movements. The smallness of the countries, but also their capacity of rapidly and smoothly overcoming historical conflicts and frictions among themselves, put domestic reform and development at the top of the political agenda, unhampered by imperial or irredendist ambitions or concerns.

The new challenges of the last decades have been weathered rather well by the Swedes and their institutions. De-industrialization after 1965 did not lead to mass unemployment, and most of the effects of the deep (financially-induced) crisis of the early 1990s have been overcome. The wave of large immigration has caused friction and tension, but less xenophobia than in most countries of Europe. New political priorities, of gender equality, of environment protection, of equal sexual rights, have been well received by the political system.

However, there are also some clouds above the rose garden. Tendencies of social polarization are operating, although their outcome is still limited. Economic inequality has increased substantially, from a Gini index of disposable income of 0.20 in 1980 to 0.28 in 1999, i.e., up to a Western European average.¹ The latest large wave of immigrants, of the late eighties-early nineties did not make it very well due to the slack labour market, and there is now a substantial pool of ethnic unemployment. The very successful cost containment of health care is now beginning to hit the quality of the service. But politicians, if not yet citizens, seem to be converging on the idea that taxation has reached its limit. Meanwhile, the population is ageing further, the big cohorts of the 1940s are nearing retirement. And the working population is to a large extent either on their stress threshold or harbouring a strong

¹ That is a comparable measure over time. In 1996 the methodology was changed, for the better – by not assuming a priori that everybody above 18 lived on his/her own -, and according to the new measure the 1999 value was 0.26, up from 0.24 in 1996.

leisure preference. Here, in the triangle of need, taxes, and care work dilemmas and conflicts are building up. And externally, increased competitive pressures are mounting, from Eastern Europe and from East Asia, threatening countries of currently high social quality, either by eroding their economic base or by inspiring their leaders to lower the standards.

An upward equalization of the social quality of the enlarged union should be a prime goal of the European Union, much more important to its citizens than, for example, a common foreign and security policy.

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	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

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

Indicators of Social Cohesion

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

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

Indicators of Social Inclusion

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

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

Indicators of Social Empowerment

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

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

Annex Collective data

1. Socio-economic security

Domain: Financial resources

Sub-domain: Income security

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

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

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

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

Source: Eurostat; free data, social cohesion

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

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

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

Source: Eurostat; free data, social cohesion

Domain: Housing and environment

Sub-domain: Housing conditions

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

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

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

Source: Eurostat 2003, Living conditions in Europe

Domain: Health and care

Sub-Domain: Health services

11. Number of medical doctors per 100.000 inhabitants

Number of practitioners per 100 000 inhabitants

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

Source: Eurostat, Yearbook 2003

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

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

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

Source: Eurobarometer 52.1

Domain: Work

Sub-domain: Employment security

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

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

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

Source: Eurostat; Statistics in Focus

Sub-domain: Working conditions

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

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

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

Source: Eurostat; Statistics in Focus

Evolution of the accidents at work, 1998 = 100

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

p) provisional value

b) break in series

Source: Eurostat, free data, employment

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

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

Source: Eurostat 2003; Living conditions in Europe

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

Hours worked per week of full time employment

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

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

Domain: Education

Sub-domain: Security of education

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

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

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

p) provisional value

b) break in series

Source: Eurostat SC053 IV.5.1

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

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

p) provisional value

b) break in series

Source: Eurostat SC053 IV.5.1-2

2. Social cohesion

Domain: Trust

Sub-domain: Generalised trust

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Source: European Social Survey (ESS) 2002

Sub-domain: Specific trust

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

Trust in different institutions in European countries 2002/2003

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

Source: European Social Survey 2002.

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

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

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

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

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

Domain: Other integrative norms and values

Sub-domain: Altruism

29. Volunteering: number of hours per week

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

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

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

30. Blood donation

Blood donation (%), 2002

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

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

Sub-domain: Tolerance

31. Views on immigration, pluralism and multiculturalism

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

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

Source: European Values Survey 1999/2000, Q74

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

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

Source: European Values Survey 1999/2000, Q75

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

Typology of people according to their attitudes towards minorities

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

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

Source: Eurobarometer 2000 survey

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

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

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

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

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

Sub-domain: Social contract

33. Beliefs on causes of poverty: individual or structural

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

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

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

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

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

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

Source: European Social Survey 2002/2003

Proportion of population which belongs to....

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

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

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

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

40. Frequency of contact with friends and colleagues

Frequency of spending time with friends

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

Source: European Social Survey (Q6A)

Frequency of spending time with colleagues

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

Source: European Social Survey (Q6B)

Domain: Identity

Sub-domain: National / European pride

41. Sense of national pride

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

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

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

Sense of national pride

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

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

Sub-domain: Regional / community / local identity

43. Sense of regional / community / local identity

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

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

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

3. Social inclusion

Domain: Citizenship rights

Sub-domain: Constitutional / political rights

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

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

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

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

Sub-domain: Social rights

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

Gender pay gap

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

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

Source: Eurostat; free data, employment

Earnings of men and women

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

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

Note: The share refers to full-time earnings.

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

Sub-domain: Economic and political networks

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

Proportion of women in national governments and parliaments, 2001

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

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

Domain: Labour market

Sub-domain: Access to paid employment

53. Long-term unemployment (12+ months)

Total long-term unemployment

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

Source: Eurostat; free data, social cohesion

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

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

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

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

Source: Eurostat; free data, social cohesion

Domain: Social networks

Sub-domain: Neighbourhood participation

67. Proportion in regular contact with neighbours

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

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

Source: Eurostat 2003, Living conditions in Europe

Sub-domain: Friendships

68. Proportion in regular contact with friends

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

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

Source: Eurostat 2003, Living conditions in Europe

4. Social Empowerment

Domain: Knowledge base

Sub-domain: Availability of information

73. Per cent of population literate and numerate

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

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

Source: PISA2000; Adult Literacy Survey, 1994-98

75. Access to internet

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

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

Source: European Social Survey, 2002/2003

Domain: Labour market

Sub-domain: Prospects of job mobility

80. % of employed labour force receiving work based training

Continuing vocational training (CVT) in enterprises (1999)

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

Source: Eurostat 2003, Living conditions in Europe

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

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

Source: Eurostat 2002, Statistics in Focus

Annex Social Quality theory

1 Introduction

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

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

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

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

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

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

2.1 The Foundation's second book as point of departure

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

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

2.2 The challenge of the Network Indicators

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

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

3 Some aspects of the theory and its indicators

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

3.1 The reciprocity between structure and action

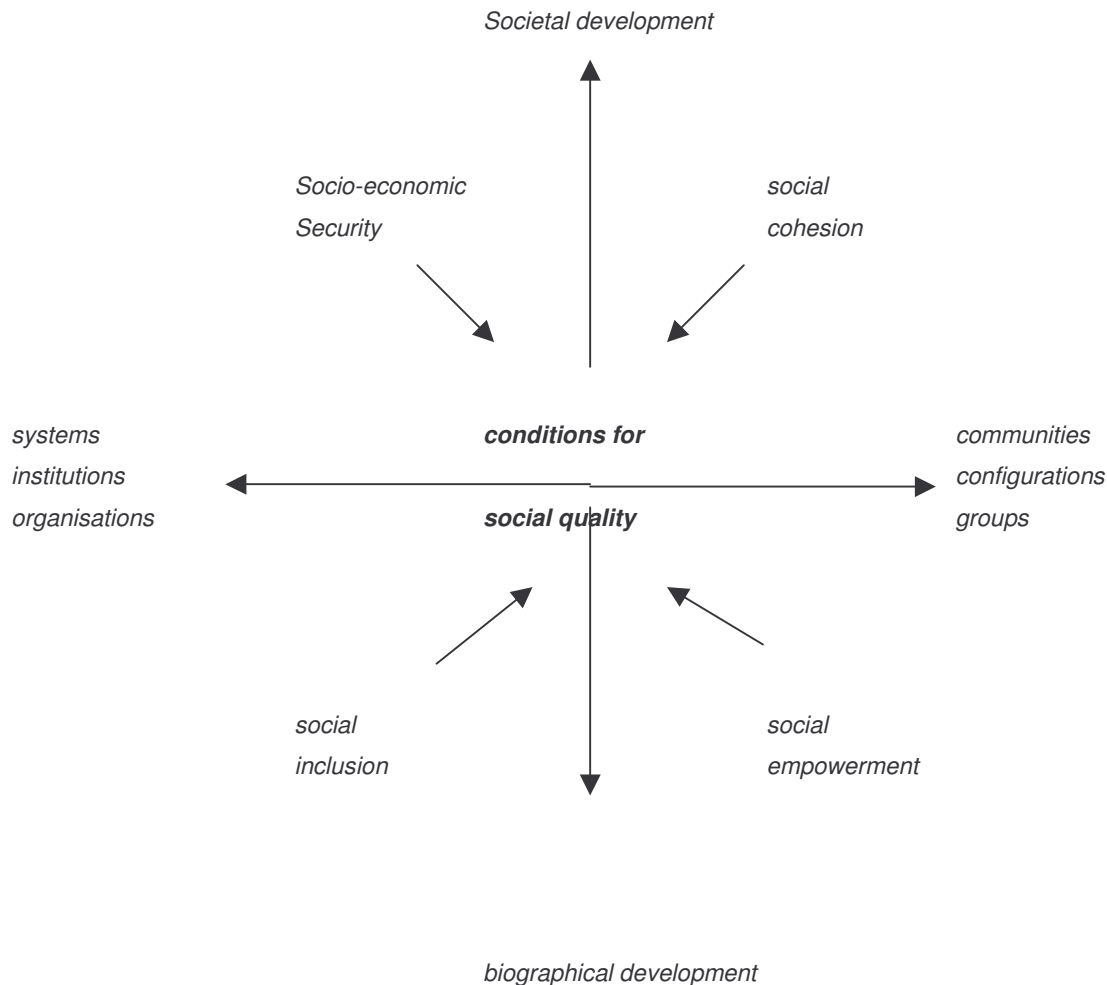
A fundamental problem of any comprehensive theoretical approach is to grasp the structural and dialectical interdependence of what Emile Durkheim called 'social facts'. The reason for mentioning Durkheim here is that in his definition of 'social facts' he explicitly showed the supposed independence of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

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

3.2 The four conditional factors

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

Figure-1 The quadrangle of the conditional factors



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

3.3 A referral to the four constitutional factors

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

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

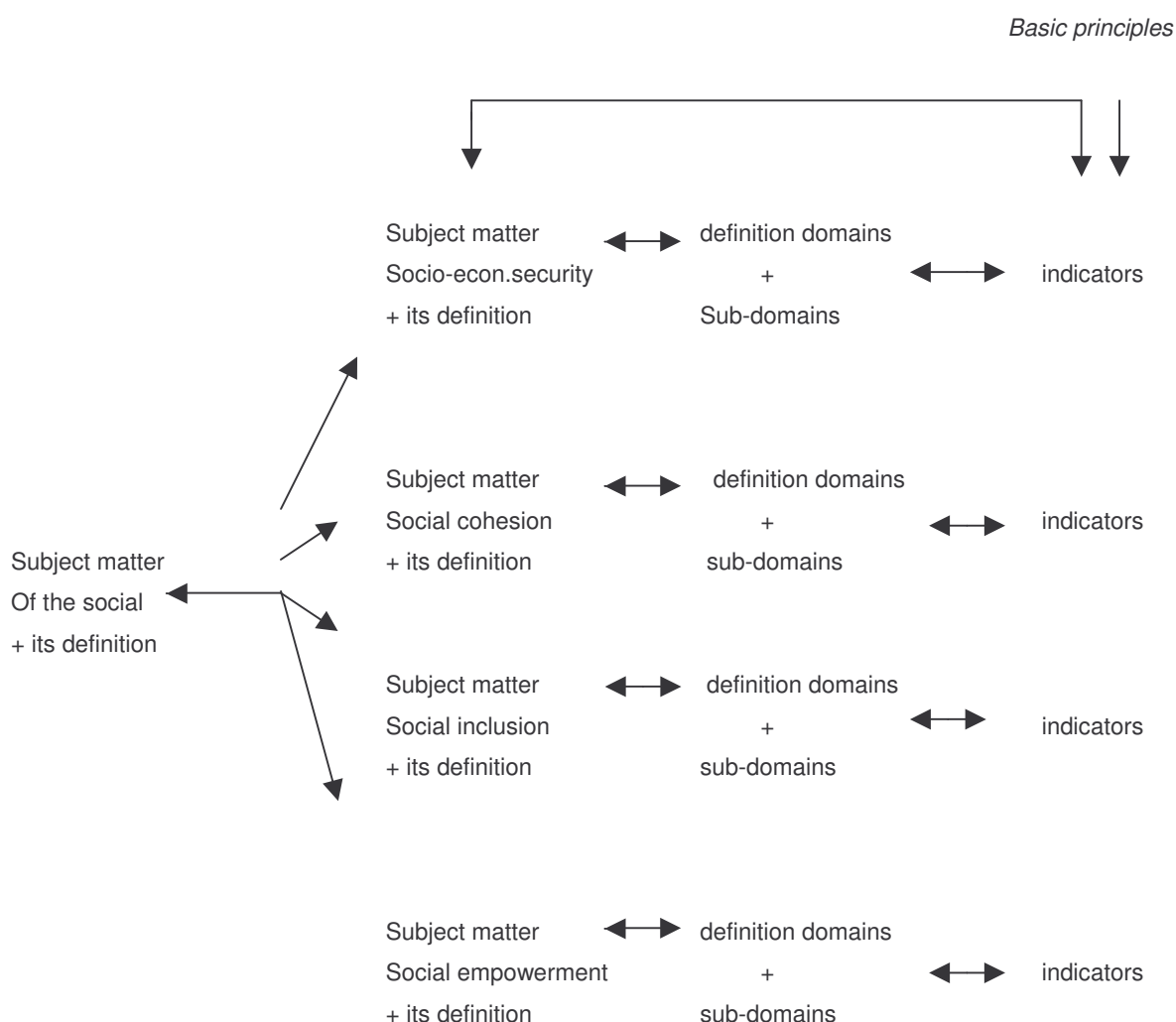
This theme is presented for the first time in the Foundation's second book of January 2001 and will be elaborated in the Foundation's third book. The relationship between the constitutional factors and the conditional factors – theoretically and practically – will be analysed. For the European Network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

4 The national reports about the indicators of social quality

4.1 The steps made by the network

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

Figure-2 Determination of related concepts

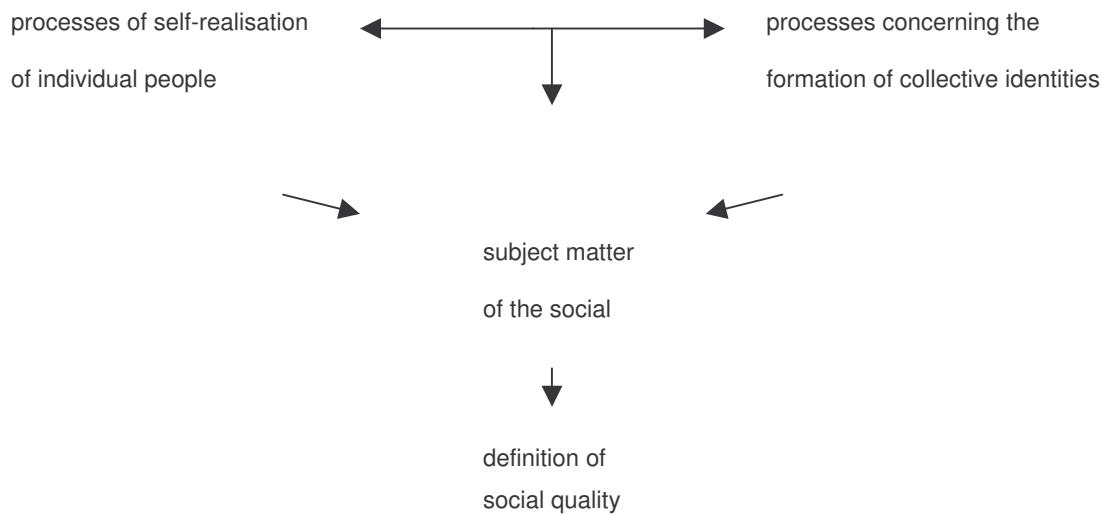


4.2 The definitions of the four conditional factors

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

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

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



The herewith related definitions of the four conditional factors are:

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

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

5 Conclusions

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

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