

European Network Indicators of Social Quality
- ENIQ -

“Social Quality”
The British National Report

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European Foundation on Social Quality

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Preface

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

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

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

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

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1 Introduction

1.1 Geographic variations in the U.K., G.B. and Britain.

The national report for the UK deals in the main with England, commenting on Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland where appropriate. This is because in a discussion that focuses on the National picture, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland have different communities and way of life from the rest of the UK. The principalities of Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland are much more rural with less population density than in England. There is less heavy industry, fewer cities and services and more farming. Communities are more static with less population migration and few ethnic minorities. Housing and community services are mostly poorer and distributed over a wider area. In addition, because of devolution of government, statistics are often difficult to compare since they employ different methods and priorities in collection, compilation, and publication strategies: for example, in law, Scottish legal provision for individual protection differs from the rest of Britain. Therefore many statistics for crime, individual responsibility and public provision for criminal justice do not fit into a national picture. Northern Ireland has special provision because a number of the population are at risk due to political and terrorist activity. Therefore a national picture again would be distorted.

For education, in parts of Wales, English is taught at primary school as a second language. This happens nowhere else in the UK for other local languages, and is a deliberate strategy to keep the Welsh language alive. Statistics relating to achievement are held by the Welsh Assembly, but are not publicly available as in the rest of the UK. Although children take the same examinations, schools are not required to assess children's performance in the same way and their results in the final examinations are difficult to compare. Education in Scotland, again, differs considerably from that in the rest of the UK and children take a different kind of examination on leaving school. Performance tables are not publicly available and leaving results are not comparable. The majority of University students in Scotland derive from Scottish schools and thus these results are peculiar to Scotland.

The devolved governments of Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland compile statistics locally. National surveys often exclude Wales, Northern Ireland and Scotland because of skew, lack of data and different constitution and density of the population. Statistical cover varies and national data often only covers England, except where specified for UK or GB. For example, the deprivation index provides ward and area statistics for England only, Wales has its own deprivation index relating information locally and they are not directly comparable, partly because comparison of rates over vastly different density of population and lifestyle can be misleading. This makes any comparative exercise a very complex matter of choice between a proliferation of statistics and data collected nationally and locally and used for all kinds of government and social processes; different figures for slightly different agendas are common for all areas of data.

1.2 Data used in this report

Although the guidelines suggest that European data should be used as the first point of reference, most of the suggested sources were nationally produced local data. We found that European statistics are rather old, and where compatible in date, do not always reflect nationally collected statistics. One of the reasons for this could be that the dating and methods of internationally collected statistics have to be matched to some reasonable degree over a wide range of countries; a point of discussion among the international partners because it has international comparative implications for standard statistics. Additionally, we have included much qualitative data where available, and tried to draw out the cultural assumptions within the context of nationally available information.

It was not sensible to restrict our data to a period dating back 4 years. Great changes have occurred in England over the last few years, and particularly in migration and composition of the population, economic and social reform, crime rates, compilation and access to statistics. Statistics relative to dates shortly before the 2001 national census are very difficult to validate. This is because estimates and projections were based on the previous 1991 census, 10 year old data. Therefore our report is based as much as possible on data relating to the latter end of the suggested period: 2001 and sometimes on 2002 data to take advantage of the greater accuracy and projections for recent trends.

Where available we present EU data as points of reference, but in compiling these statistics, we have found that national rates and figures do not relate to these data well. We have tried, where possible and useful, to make differentiations in gender, age (children, adults) and geographical regions and have attached where possible comparisons with Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland. To obtain urban/rural distinctions in the UK, statistics would have to be presented for quite small areas: Britain has a very diverse and dense mix of communities, so at this stage comparisons are national rather than regional. Income group comparisons (below and above mean national income) were not available mostly.

2 Socio-economic Security

2.1 Introduction

The Section for Socio-Economic Security is accompanied by tables for each part. Most of the items suggested national data sources but EU comparisons are offered where available. Income differentiation was generally not available and the UK is very diverse between countries. For most of the items, we used quantitative data, and qualitative for explanations of national policy, but some items had cultural implications and these are explicated where we thought necessary.

2.2 Financial resources

2.2.1 Income sufficiency

Just over half (54%) the average household weekly income in the U.K. was spent on provision of food (16%), clothing (16%), housing (16%), health (6%) (1999-2002) (table 2.1) and in 2003, this picture had not changed (ONS Family income and expenditure survey).

Table 2.1 expenditure (1999-2002)

	% of average weekly household income
Health	16%
Clothing	6%
Food	16%
Housing	16%

Source: Expenditure and Food Survey, Office for National Statistics; Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency

2.2.2 Income security

Before government intervention, the richest fifth of retired households receive nearly three fifths of total original income, while the Gini coefficient for this measure of income is 63 per cent. After the impact of taxes and benefits there is a large reduction in inequality. Cash benefits play by far the largest part in bringing about this reduction (the Gini coefficient is reduced from 63 per cent to 31 per cent). (Table 2.2).

The UK offers a wide range of consumables at very basic to luxury level so average cost is variable and income dependent. Once basic needs are serviced, information on percentage of income spent on provision allows us to judge how much is left for other pursuits. However, total expenditure, seems an adequate measure to a reference point for the amount of disposable income considered to be usual.

Table 2.2a Gini coefficients for the distribution of income at each stage of the tax-benefit system and P90/P10 and P75/P25 ratios for disposable income for ALL households, 1980 to 2002-032.

	Gini coefficients (per cent)				Ratios for disposable income	
	Original	Gross	Disposable	Post-tax	P90/P10	P75/P25
2000/01	51	38	35	39	4.5	2.3
2001/02	53	39	36	40	4.5	2.3
2002/03	51	37	33	37	4.3	2.2

1 P90/P10 is the ratio of the income at the 90th percentile to the 10th; P75/P25 is the ratio of the income at the 75th percentile to the 25th.

2 From 1990 this includes company car benefit and beneficial house purchase loans from employers. From 1996-97 values are based on estimates for the sample grossed to population totals.

Table 2.2b Percentage shares of household income and Gini coefficients¹ for RETIRED households, 2002-2003

	Original income	Gross income	Disposable income	Post-tax income
Quintile group ²				
Bottom	4	10	10	9
2nd	7	14	14	14
3rd	10	16	17	17
4th	20	21	22	22
Top	58	39	37	39
All retired households	100	100	100	100
Decile group ²				
Bottom	1	4	4	4
Top	42	25	23	24
Gini coefficient (per cent)	63	29	26	31

This is a measure of the dispersion of each definition of income

Households are ranked by equivalised disposable income.

Source: The New Earnings Survey (NES) Office for National Statistics

2.2.3 Poverty

Approximately 8% of working age people claimed income related benefits in 2001-2. (Table 2.3).

There are a range of incremental benefits depending on household income and means-testing, but applicants aged under 18 are not usually eligible for direct payments. In the UK, the most commonly used threshold of low income is 60% of median income. In 2001/02, before deducting housing costs, this equated to £187 per week for a couple with no children, £114 for a single person, £273 for a couple with two children and £200 for a lone parent with two children. (Table 2.4).

Table 2.3 November 2002, the proportion of the working age population in each region who are claimants of means-tested benefits

	Claimants income related benefit
East	5.50%
East Midlands	6.70%
London	10.40%
North East	10.80%
North West	10.00%
South East	4.90%
South West	5.80%
West Midlands	8.30%
Yorkshire and The Humber	8.40%
Average for England	7.87%

Note that the proportion of people benefiting will be higher than that shown as the figures are for claimants only and not their spouses/partners.

Source: New Policy Institute website www.npi.org.uk <http://www.poverty.org.uk/indicators/indexrural.htm> very useful by subject, rural, age.

The indicator for poverty is very difficult to understand. Proportion of population living in households receiving transfers seems to require a percentage of the total population including children. It is likely that a statistic at the individual level, if available, would be heavily biased towards youth in the UK, since the benefits system for low income prioritises families.

In-kind benefits include healthcare and prescription charges, dental care, milk for children, cost of eye treatments, free school meals for children, help with childcare costs, help with rent and community charges, local education classes. (Appended summary document)

In the U.K. people place great value on the long-term purchase of a house. Consequently, much of the U.K. population spends most of their working life in debt to a bank or building society for a loan in order to buy a house. This is not seen as a low quality life, but is a source of status and respectability in the community.

In the UK, healthcare is universal independent of income, so nationally, there are less acute problems in the UK for people who live in poverty unable to access treatment.

2.3 Housing and environment

2.3.1 Housing Security

In 2001 owner occupation in Great Britain was 69% of homes, with least in Scotland (62%), and most in Ireland (73%) and Wales (72%)¹ (table 2.4) but still well above the EU average of 55%.

(Table/figure 2.5). Owning a house is a very important ideal for the vast majority of the population in

¹ Although Eurostat shows 71% in 2000 for UK. It is unlikely that owner occupation has decreased and therefore there is some disagreement with European statistics.

the UK but very few people buy one outright. The usual route to owning a house is save a deposit and to borrow most of the money from a bank, typically 90% (but banks are increasingly offering 100%).

Table 2.4 Owning a house

	Owner-occupied	Rented		
		local authority ²	private owner	social landlord
England	69	14	10	6
Wales	72	15	9	4
Scotland	62	25	7	6
Great Britain	69	15	10	6
Northern Ireland ³	73	19	5	3

¹As at 31 March (England), 1 April (Wales) and 31 December 1999 (Scotland and Northern Ireland).

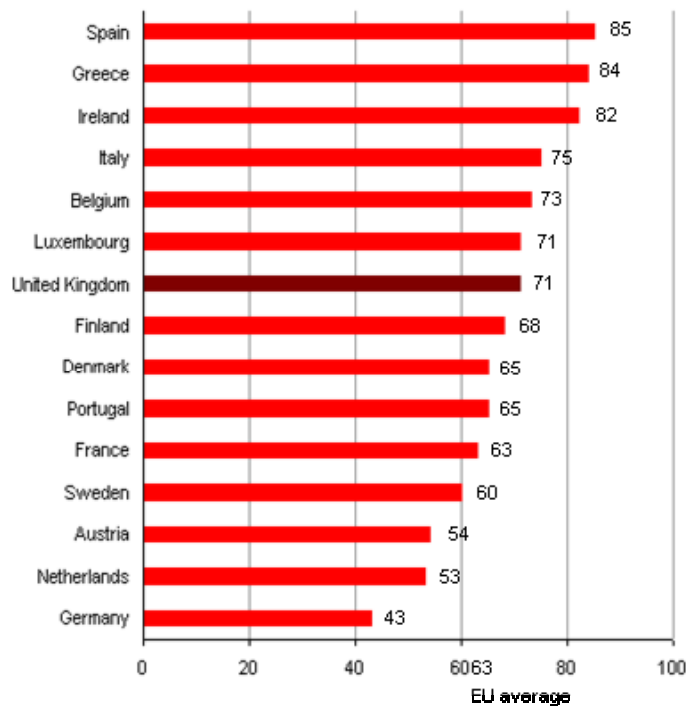
²Including Scottish Homes and Northern Ireland Housing Executive.

³Figures for Northern Ireland are not directly comparable with the rest of the UK.

Source: Department for Transport, Local Government and the Regions, National Assembly for Wales, Scottish Executive and Department for Social Development, Northern Ireland

The loan is called a mortgage and is typically repaid over 20-25 years. Mortgage rates are lower than other loans, secured on the house, and are regulated by the Bank of England. An average mortgage is for 3 times gross salary and repays at approximately 3 times the cost of the house. Social housing (21%) and private rentals (10%) make up the rest of the housing stock. Social housing is usually administrated by the local council but agencies are increasingly being contracted; they offer secure tenancies, typically prioritise families and offer family homes with gardens, but there are also large numbers of flats. There is usually a waiting list for housing. Social agencies are good landlords, have responsibility for appropriate non-crowded housing with basic amenities and are price regulated. Private rentals are not typically secure; terms vary from a few months to annual renewal. The lower priced houses and flats may be overcrowded since legislation does not extend to them. Also included are tenancies subject to employment (houses provided with job).

Figure 2.5 Owner-occupied dwellings: EU comparison, 2000



Source: Eurostat

2.3.2 Housing conditions

At any one time in 2002, a quarter of a million single people were living in inadequate accommodation and these are thought mostly to be male. Vast fluctuations are likely, particularly at different times of year due to climate and education cycles. Average local authority priority need statistics are 0.16% of households.

Hidden families in case of emergency (living with family or friends), was difficult to interpret because it was impossible to separate an emergency situation. We assumed a lack of appropriate personal accommodation, i.e homelessness and temporary accommodation. A new indicator by ONS measures single people in inadequate accommodation (2002). We used this as well as the local authority standard 'priority need' which refers to families in need of appropriate accommodation.

Using the accepted standard, 'priority need' by local authorities was limited because lack of accommodation is dependent on administrative judgement. Figures do not include many single people who are effectively homeless, as local authorities have no general duty to house such people, although many authorities will place single women as priority due to risk status.

Table 2.6 Effectively homeless people (Hidden families)

Groups of people who are effectively homeless	(thousands at any point in time) 2002		
	With dependant children	Without dependant children	Total
Rough sleepers	-	-	1
At imminent risk of eviction	2	2	4
In non-permanent supported housing	4	30	33
Bed-and-breakfast and other board accommodation	3	42	45
Aged 25+ in concealed households in overcrowded accommodation	41	138	179
Aged 25+ in concealed households in non-overcrowded accommodation but where the owner/renter is dissatisfied	3	43	46
Aged 25+dissatisfied or overcrowded	-	-	225

Source: Various sources aggregated by ONS www.statistics.gov.uk

Differentiation by income class within households is problematic. Accommodation style varies between countries and it seems that 'area allocated to housing' would be biased towards countries with less urban districts. More useful and available and possibly comparable is a measure of privacy, persons per room, differentiated by tenancy status. In Britain, the average owner-occupier has fewer people per room (0.43) than private tenants (0.49) and social tenants have the most (0.5).

British housing stock is generally good with basic facilities in the vast majority of homes. The old measure of unfit property (lacking basic amenities) used by the English House Condition Survey was abandoned in 1996, when less than 1 per cent of the stock, private and social, lacked one or more basic amenities. Figures for Wales, Scotland and Ireland are likely to be higher but are not available. It was replaced with a measure of 'non-decent housing' (needs repair, poor thermal efficiency, not modernised). 41% of English houses were classed non-decent in 1996 (Table 2.8). In Scotland, Wales and Ireland housing a greater proportion would be expected.

Table 2.8 Percentage of households living in non-decent housing (1996)

	Percentage of households living in non-decent housing
All Stock	41
Private	40
Social	47

Source: DTLR English House Condition Survey

2.3.3 Environmental Conditions

Areas with high crime rates are recorded in Table 2.9 (appended)

Recorded Crime rates are measured as a proportion of the population rather than relative to average as originally requested. Recorded crime affects 1.1% of the population. In 2002, statistics became

more accessible and comparable, so our figures are relatively recent. We were able to differentiate comparable criminal offences but not rural/urban. Crime rate will however be relative to area, and we were able to obtain proportion of population believing they were affected generally by crime in the area, differentiated by poor and not poor areas.

Less serious offences have greater frequency than offences which might have a greater detrimental effect on quality of life and recorded crime is the standard for consistency but practically does not convey a useful picture.

Crime rate for England is about 1% for all recorded crime, with handling of stolen goods as the most frequent and burglary and violence as the next most frequent. Only serious offences are recorded. In 2001, 40% of poorer households reported frequent crime in their area and 28% drug dealing (Table 2.10). Drug dealers and prostitution particularly has a detrimental effect on the area, so we obtained these separately. In 2001, 23% of not-poor households reported frequent crime in their area and 11% reported drug dealing. (Table 2.10)

Table 2.10 Residents' views of problems in their neighbourhood: by whether living in a poor or other neighbourhood (%), England 2001

	Poor neighbourhood	Other neighbourhood	All
Litter and rubbish in the streets	57	34	36
Problems with street parking	48	37	38
Fear of being burgled	47	33	34
Problems with dogs/dog mess	41	32	33
General level of crime	40	23	25
Vandalism and hooliganism	36	21	22
Heavy traffic	35	26	27
Troublesome teenagers/children	34	19	21
Poor state of open spaces/gardens	29	14	15
Presence of drug dealers/users	28	11	13
Pollution (including air quality and traffic fumes)	23	15	16
Graffiti	21	11	12
Problems with neighbours	20	11	12
Racial harassment	6	2	3

Source: English House Condition Survey, Office of the Deputy Prime Minister

In Britain, water quality (from the tap) is good throughout the UK and freely accessible for the whole population. Water treatment plants exist throughout the UK and there are no separate facilities for drinking water. Water quality is good throughout the UK. In 2001, 23% of poorer households and 15% of not-poor households suffered air pollution (Table 2.10). In 2001, 20% of poorer households and 11% not-poor suffered noise from neighbours.

2.4 Health and Care

2.4.1 Security of health provisions

The Department of Health provides information that conforms to indicators well. Additionally qualitative local knowledge is provided. Great Britain has a national fully comprehensive National Health Service that covers all the resident population, independent of their contributions. The National Health system is funded partly through central government and a proportion of earned income deducted from working age UK residents, independent of their use of the NHS. A standard charge applies for those over 16 years for each prescribed item on collection from the pharmacist. This charge is waived for those on means-tested benefits. There are no separate charges for visits by or to GPs, secondary, or tertiary medical care under the NHS.

Emergency services are available at all general hospitals without referral. Patients may not otherwise usually self refer to hospital secondary or tertiary care, even for maternity services, although some community psychiatric facilities allow self-referral.

Primary care is through the GP who is the gatekeeper for further referral and care. GP clinics may also include Practitioner-nurses who are able to prescribe and inoculate, health visitors and midwives, counsellors, chiropractors and other complementary healthcare, all of which are covered by the NHS but GPs may also refer to private complementary practitioners. Recently, NHS 'drop in centres' are becoming popular, where medical advice and some preventative checks are provided free of charge by trained nurses. NHS care is among the best in the world but all major hospitals have long waiting lists for operations and many seriously ill patients have died or worsened beyond treatment whilst awaiting their turn. Private medical care is becoming more popular amongst the wealthy, particularly consultations, because referrals are quicker. Some employers offer private medical insurance as an incentive, but it is generally taken up for less serious or cosmetic conditions because few private hospitals have complex equipment.

There have been a number of changes in the last 5 years: Dentists and opticians charges may be partly covered by NHS provision and for those on means-tested benefits and under 16 years are fully covered. However, in recent years it is becoming increasingly difficult to find NHS funded dentists and many poorer areas lack provision. Increasingly, there are concerns about staffing and quality in hygiene at NHS hospitals and mainstreaming of huge changes in the management and roles of hospital staff, in NHS governance, increasing efficiency, cost-cutting and consultation with patients. In the last two years, concerns about health tourism have manifested in charges introduced for temporary residents of the U.K; In the last year, concerns about immigrants and refugees have led to the establishment of separate health clinics for minority groups.

2.4.2 Health services

Ambulance response times and distance to hospital are provided at an aggregate level. Hospitals are available in all major towns and cities in the U.K. Rural areas have smaller or more distant facilities but

may also have helicopter links. Minutes from hospital vary with traffic routes, forms of transport, times of day and severity of problem. There were 1779 UK patients per medical doctor (GP) in 2001² (Table 2.11). In 2000 90% of ambulance calls were answered within 14 minutes and 78% of journeys by ambulance arrived within 15m. of the expected time (table 2.12 and 2.13). 23% of households thought their access to hospital was difficult (1997-8)³.

Table 2.11 General practitioners, dentists and opticians¹

	United Kingdom	England	Wales	Scotland	Northern Ireland
General medical services					
No. of practices	10,758	8,817	517	1,054	370
No. of general medical practitioners (GPs) ¹	34,505	27,843	1,796	3,798	1,068
Average list size per GP	1,779	1,841	1,685	1,409	1,663
General dental services ^{1,2}					
No. of dentists	22,084	18,354	1,011	2,038	681
Percent registered with dentist ^{3,4}	48	47	47	52	53
Average registrations per dentist ³	1,29	1,285	1,451	1,299	1,383
No. of opticians	..	8,103	599	934	418

¹ Figures for GPs include unrestricted principals, PMS contracted GPs and PMS salaried GPs. Figures for General Dental Practitioners include principals, assistants and vocational dental practitioners. Salaried dentists, Hospital Dental Services and Community Dental Services are excluded.

² Dentists are assigned to the region where they carry out their main work.

³ Registrations with dentists practising in each region.

⁴ Figures for the United Kingdom relate to Great Britain only.

Source: Department of Health; National Assembly for Wales; Information and Statistics Division, NHS Scotland; Central Services Agency, Northern Ireland

² G.P.s maintain a list of registered patients in the geographical area of the clinic and are paid according to the size of the list, not by the frequency of visit. Patients may change their G.P. but may not be registered with more than one G.P. and if the patient is out of the area, the G.P. may refuse to register. Patients must be registered to visit a G.P.

³ 10.17 Difficulty in accessing various amenities¹: all households, 1997-98; 23% of households said they found access to Hospital and 8% to a Doctor either 'very difficult' or 'fairly difficult'. Source: Survey of English Housing, Department for Transport, Local Government and the Regions 1997.

Table 2.12

		1999-2000	2000-01	2001-02	2002-03
Emergency calls	Total (millions)	4.18	4.41	4.70	4.96
Emergency calls resulting in an emergency response arriving at the scene of the incident:	Total	3.43	3.56	3.82	4.03
Response within 14/19 minutes	Number	3.11	3.23	3.49	3.67
	Percentage	90.6	90.8	91.3	91.0
Patient journeys by priority of journey:	Emergency	2.85	2.91	3.09	3.18
	Urgent	1.07	1.01	0.97	0.94
Arrival not more than 15 minutes late (%)		80.5	78.8	78.5	78.0
Special/planned		14.87	14.86	14.49	14.08
Total patient journeys		18.79	18.78	18.55	18.20

Table 2.13 Satisfaction with Local Hospital and Community health services¹, Great Britain (%)

	1991	1999
Hospital services		
Quality of medical treatment	65	66
Time spent waiting for an ambulance after a 999 call	n.a.	60
General condition of hospital buildings	40	53
Time spent waiting in outpatient departments	17	28
Time spent waiting in accident and emergency departments before being seen by a doctor	24	20
Waiting lists for non-emergency operations	13	20
Waiting time before getting appointments with hospital consultants	14	17
GP services		
Quality of medical treatment by GPs	73	76
Being able to choose which GP to see	72	71
Amount of time GP gives to each patient	65	69
GP appointment systems	54	54

¹Percentage of respondents who said that each service was 'very good' or 'satisfactory' when asked 'From what you know or have heard, say whether you think the NHS in your area is, on the whole, satisfactory or in need of improvement'.

Source: British Social Attitudes Survey, National Centre for Social Research

2.4.3 Care services

In the U.K., care, paid and unpaid, is overwhelmingly done by women but in Britain it is difficult to differentiate paid from unpaid care and hours of care are difficult to evaluate.

Registered carers of disabled or people with long term disabling illness can claim allowances depending on the type and level of disability, benefits are paid accordingly. Additionally there is a range of social service provision from home help and meals provision aimed at allowing independent living to day care, holiday or respite care. Health services vary and provide a huge range of care. Educational and social provision offer life skills for those with learning disabilities, district nurses provide a range of visiting health care. Mental health services provide community and other visiting

services. Additionally there is a vast range of services for people who are not disabled such as family therapy, drug and rehabilitation services, and community projects to increase social responsibility. Figures for unpaid care of children are not collected and would prove too ambiguous. Paid care of children is mostly private and difficult to collect. At 4 years, local schools should provide a full or part time nursery place funded by central government. Some nursery schools provide state funded places from 2.5years. Additionally, social services may provide places from a few months old for mothers with problems. After school care is provided by many institutions for working parents at a charge. Registered childminders are privately paid, but provision may be made without registration. All mothers get a midwife visiting service each day for 10 days after the birth of a child, and a health visitor who calls at the home every week for 6 weeks and co-ordinates with social services. Official figures for 2001 indicate that 10% of the population provided some level of unpaid care in England and just under 10% in Wales. 2% of people in England and in Wales provide over 50 hours unpaid care (Table 2.14).

Table 2.14 Unpaid care provided by residents England and Wales.

	People providing any unpaid care (%)	People providing 50 hours or more unpaid care per week (%)
England and Wales	10.03	2
England	9.93	2
North East	11.00	3
North West	10.77	2
Yorkshire and the Humber	10.44	2
East Midlands	10.44	2
West Midlands	10.60	2
East	9.65	2
London	8.50	2
South East	9.22	2
South West	10.05	2
Wales / CYMRU	11.74	3

Notes: Cells in this table have been randomly adjusted to avoid the release of confidential data.

Working age population is 16-64 inclusive for men and 16-59 inclusive for women.

Provision of unpaid care: looking after; giving help or support to family members; friends; neighbours or others because of long-term physical or mental ill-health or disability or problems relating to old age.

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2.5 Work

2.5.1 Employment security

In Britain, most employment statistics relate to those paying tax and contributory national insurance, which are very complicated and deducted by an employer at source of pay (PAYE). A small but increasing percentage however, have self-employed status and their contributions and tax is more difficult to track, thus economic activity rate may be a better measure (Table 2.15). Statistics on

temporary contracts relate to those under 12 months and other contracts are not differentiated. In Britain, a contract of employment must be given to employees stating terms and conditions and length of notice, which cannot be changed without prior agreement. The vast majority of the workforce is employed on permanent contracts, but increasingly fixed term contracts are becoming more popular. It is increasingly common to provide employment on fixed term contracts, for 12 months renewable annually. This decreases risk for the employer against redundancy. Employees of more than 2 years with permanent contracts cannot be terminated due to lack of work, without a redundancy payment. Fixed term contracts are often issued for posts funded by charities or local government and may last from a few months to as long as 5 years and are not all classified as temporary.

Table 2.15 Economic activity and employment rate

	2001	2002	2003
Economic activity rate			
population (16-59/64)	78.6	78.6	78.7
men (16-64)	74.6	74.4	74.7
women (16-59)	84	83.9	84.1
Employment rate			
population (16-59/64)	79.5	79	79.3
men (16-64)	72.7	73	73
women (16-59)	69.4	69.6	69.7

Source: Labour Force Survey: Employment Status, Full-time/Part-time and Second Jobs (SA) revised 2004.

Statistics and qualitative information on the amount of people having paid employment are available nationally except for illegal workforce, which remains difficult to estimate. In Britain in 2004, it is now an offence to employ someone who is not a registered citizen. 74% of the workforce was employed⁴ in 2002 and 74% of these full time. 6% of workers had temporary contracts (Table 2.16), but there were no statistics for illegal workforce. For comparison on job security, in 1998, 19% of workers surveyed thought their job was not secure but the data is rather old (Table 2.17).

Table 2.16 Employment

	Apr-Jun 2002	Sep-Nov 2002
All persons:Employees	24318	24427
Full time employees %	74.5	74.4
Full time employment %	85.3	85.1
Self employed %	13.7	13.7
Temporary contract (%)	6.8	6.6

Labour Force Survey: Employment Status, Full-time/Part-time and Second Jobs (SA) revised 2004.

⁴ Includes employees, self-employed, unpaid family workers and those on government-supported training schemes.

Table 2.17 Employees* perceived job security: by type of employment, Great Britain 1998

	Disagreed or strongly disagreed (%)
Full-time employment	21
Part-time employment	15
Permanent employment	18
Temporary employment	36
Fixed term contract	39
All	19

* Employees in workplaces with 10 or more employees. Respondents were asked 'Do you feel your job is secure in this workplace?'

Source: <http://www.statistics.gov.uk/StatBase/Expodata/Spreadsheets/D51113.xls>

2.5.2 Working conditions

89% of male employees work over 31 hours and most work 31-45 hours (56% Table 2.15) whereas females work fewer hours on average (46% work 31-45 hours and only 56% work over 31 hours (Table 2.18).

Table 2.18 Usual weekly hours of employment¹ spring 2003, UK

Hours	Males (%)	Females (%)
Less than 6	0.8	2.4
6 to 15	3.2	12.5
16 to 30	7.2	29.3
31 to 45	55.6	46.2
Over 45	33.3	9.7
over 31	88.9	55.9

¹ Includes employees, self-employed, unpaid family workers and those on government-supported training schemes.

Source: Labour Force Survey, Office for National Statistics – revised 2004.

The Green Paper, Work and Parent: Competitiveness and Choice (December 2000), concluded the British economy needed a more flexible labour market. The Government introduced new rights for working parents known as the Maternity Regulations under the Employment Act 2002 effective April 2003. All women must take a period of compulsory maternity leave following childbirth. This is for her health and safety. It is unlawful for an employer to allow a woman to work during her compulsory maternity leave period. The compulsory maternity leave period is: 2 weeks from the date of childbirth, or 4 weeks from the date of childbirth if the woman works in a factory, or there may some other statutory requirement which means compulsory maternity leave will last longer (this does not include any requirement for an employer to suspend a woman from work on maternity grounds under health and safety regulations). Ordinary Maternity Leave (OML) starts 11 weeks before the expected date of birth. This is the basic paid entitlement for all women irrespective of their length of continuous employment. The first six weeks is paid at 90% usual wage and rest at £100 per week or 90% of wage whichever is lower. Additional Maternity Leave (AML) entitlement arises once a woman has been

Women continuously employed for 26 weeks by the 14th week before the birth may take 26 weeks unpaid Additional Maternity Leave starting immediately after the end of OML. A woman is therefore able to take one year's maternity leave in total, if entitled. Pregnant employees are allowed to take time off for antenatal classes. All parents have the right to time off work to deal with an emergency or unexpected situation involving a dependant. Workers in continuous employment for one year, are entitled to parental leave; unpaid time off work to look after a child or make arrangements for the child's welfare. New rights were introduced from April 2003: the right to 2 weeks paid paternity or adoption leave and applications for flexible working hours. There are no statutory rights to sabbatical time off.

Eurostat provides rates of fatal injury for 1996 as 1.9 per 100,000 workers and 1600 for injuries over 3 days, putting Britain in the lowest group including Finland and Sweden, however this data is rather old (Table 2.19). However, British statistics rate most injuries to machine operatives and most fatal injuries, also skilled trades very high (Table 2.20).

Table 2.19 Workplace injury in Europe and the USA (1996). Rates of fatal and over-3-day injuries per 100.000 workers or employees

Country	Rate of fatal injury	Rate of over-3-day injury	Employed people covered
Finland	1.7	3400	employees
Great Britain	1.9	1600	workers
Sweden	2.1	1200	workers
Netherlands	2.7	4300	employees
USA	2.7	3000	workers
Denmark	3.0	2700	workers
Ireland	3.3	1500	workers
Germany	3.5	5100	workers
EU average	3.6	4200	employees
France	3.6	5000	employees
Greece	3.7	3800	employees
Italy	4.1	4200	workers
Austria	5.4	3600	employees
Belgium	5.5	5100	employees
Spain	5.9	6700	employees
Portugal	9.6	6900	employees
Luxembourg	-	4700	workers

Source: Eurostat publication "Accidents at work in the EU in 1996 – Statistics in Focus, Theme 3 – 4/2000". The source for Netherlands and the USA is a study by HSE.

Table 2.20 Injuries to employees by occupation and severity of injury 2002/03: As reported to all enforcing authorities

Occupation	SOC major groups	(a) Fatal injuries: rate per 100.000 employees	(a) Major injuries: rate per 100.000 employees	(a) Over-3-day injuries: rate per 100.000 employees	(a) All reported injuries: rate per 100.000 employees
Managers and Senior Officials	1	0.3	44.7	109.8	154.8
Professional Occupations	2	0.2	51.6	149.3	201.2
Associate Professionals and Technical Occupations	3	0.1	62.8	340.8	403.7
Administrative and Secretarial Occupations	4	-	26.0	75.8	101.9
Skilled Trade Occupations	5	2.3	225.6	773.2	1 001.1
Personal Service Occupations	6	0.2	91.6	486.7	578.5
Sales and Customer Service Occupations	7	-	74.6	305.9	380.5
Process, Plant and Machine Operatives	8	3.0	360.5	1 737.4	2 100.9
Elementary Occupations (b)	9	1.2	192.7	1 034.5	1 228.4
Not known		89.7	4 422.1	26 211.9	30 723.7
All Occupations		0.7	113.0	501.1	614.9

(a) The rates are calculated from the Labour Force Survey, by reportable injury per 100 000 employees 2002-3. Source ONS

(b) The elementary occupations category includes occupations non specified above in agriculture, construction, plant processing and services

2.6 Education

2.6.1 Security of Education

Data on early school leavers, the proportion of pupils leaving education without finishing compulsory education, is very difficult to capture in the UK. The British Education system graduates each child annually to the next stage of education by age independent of their achievement level (there are no pupils held back a year) and the curriculum is adjusted for individual differences by ability and achievement level (most pupils with physical or minor mental disabilities are integrated into mainstream schools). Pupils not attending school can be captured by two measures: absences (where the pupil is registered but does not appear at school) authorised absences were at 6.13 percent for 2002; unauthorised (where the school judges there is insufficient reason) were 0.70 percent. Total absence 6.83%.

exclusion (where the pupil has been expelled temporarily or permanently from school for behaviour problems or other reasons) : 0.12% from all schools,; 0.03% from Primary (age 5-10) and 0.33% from Secondary (age 11-16) (Table 2.21).

In the UK, as in most developed countries, access to education does not easily relate to quality employment, particularly at the stage of young adulthood.

Table 2.21 Permanent Exclusions England and Wales 2002

Primary schools (4)	1997/98	1998/99	1999/00	2000/01 (2)	2001/02 (2)	2002/03 Provisional (1) (2)(3)
Number of permanent exclusions	1,539	1,368	1,228	1,436	1,451	1,3
Percentage of all permanent exclusions (5)	13	13	15	16	15	14
Percentage of school population (6)	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.03
Secondary schools (4)						
Number of permanent exclusions	10,187	8,836	8,713	7,306	7,741	7,89
Percentage of all permanent exclusions (5)	83	83	81	80	81	83
Percentage of school population (6)	0.33	0.28	0.21	0.23	0.24	0.23
Special schools (7)						
Number of permanent exclusions	572	436	384	394	343	300
Percentage of all permanent exclusions (5)	5	4	5	4	4	3
Percentage of school population (6)	0.58	0.45	0.4	0.41	0.36	0.32
All schools						
Number of permanent exclusions	12,298	10,438	8,323	9,135	9,535	9,29
Percentage of all permanent exclusions (5)	100	100	100	100	100	100
Percentage of school population (6)	1.16	0.14	0.11	0.12	0.12	0.12

(1) Provisional figures are subject to revision

(2) Based on numbers confirmed by Local Education Authorities due to incomplete school data returns

(3) Numbers have been rounded to the nearest ten

(4) Includes middle school as deemed

(5) The number of permanent exclusions by school type expressed as a percentage of the total number of permanent exclusions across all school

(6) The number of excluded pupils expressed as a percentage of the number (headcount) of the school population. Excludes dually registered pupils.

(7) Includes both maintained and non-maintained special schools

Most schools for children from 4-16 and from 16-18 are publicly funded and some places in private schools are also publicly funded. Private fees vary greatly, but most are specialist schools or schools with a very reputation. University fees are standardised presently and do not reflect the cost of courses (but this is predicted to change shortly and Universities will be able to apply top-up fees) at £1000 annual for first degree (4% of national wage) in most universities, although fees for means-tested candidates may be waived. Higher degrees vary in charges but bursary places are common.

2.6.2 Quality of Education

Statistics for unemployed school leavers is easily available. The vast majority of young people leaving education aged 16-18, enter government funded schemes designed to offer training and experience in partnership with employers. Jobs are almost completely tied to government incentives. Additionally, 16-18 year olds cannot claim benefits or transfers. Unemployed school leavers tend to be hard to

place or disabled. Y11 students (aged 16) leaving at July 2002 entering employment that year was 13% in England (Table 2.22).

Table 2.22 Young people in learning year 11 2002

	In Learning	Survey- Total	Full time education	Employment		
				Total	With training	Without training
England	84.4	592,329	72.1	8.2	5.6	2.6

Data relates to school leavers July 2002-3

Source: Connexions - part of the "Moving On" series of publications, DFES 2003.

2.7 Trends and Reflection.

Leaving aside the debate that poverty is relative to expectations, financially, most people in Britain enjoy a relatively comfortable life, given that only half the average household income is spent on the basic necessities. At retirement and difficult periods in life, government provision for transfers on payments in kind and tax concessions help to close the inequality gap. Incremental benefits are available but young people, especially those who don't progress in education, find themselves in a difficult situation.

People live in a more conducive environment than years ago, and their main complaints cite noise pollution and nuisance. Health care is universal, and most basic needs are met.

For those in poverty, and unemployed, incremental means-tested benefits and universal healthcare most particularly benefits in kind directed at particular groups increase social participation and allow a basic standard. For international comparisons there might be a floor-ceiling effect, however.

As Britain reduces its industrial base, so accidents decrease, but quality of work is more difficult to judge, since there are less dirty jobs and more poor quality and insubstantial service industry jobs for those without academic qualifications. The job-for-life which once maintained British Industry has gone, and change management means training at work, more insecurity as jobs become obsolete, more fear for some in the manual and low skilled occupations, but greater benefits and flexibility in working in the higher echelons for middle management and professions.

In order to get into the higher echelons, education becomes necessary. Fees have been introduced for University in the last few years, grants have ceased and young people are often faced with debt on graduation, which does not allow them to participate in the consumer economy as much as they might expect.

In addition, the decline of skilled trades has contributed to a lack of good quality employment for young people who do not or cannot progress into further education. Government incentives for employers to train school leavers mean that very few find jobs with real wages. Young people are not eligible for benefits if they do not participate.

For women there is a huge gender disproportion in number of hours worked at 31 hours so men still support family and women do the caring, often unpaid. However, due to the decline of the extended family support and different roles for women, a greater provision of health interventions often make up a proportion of care for elderly or disabled people.

In housing and environment, the national focus on house purchase has particular cultural implications for British people and the debt associated is not a matter for shame as it might be in other cultures. Most houses meet basic standards for appropriate accommodation, so that 'unfit' has no longer a national statistic. Density of population however, is probably high towards other countries and the possession and maintenance of a garden is a national standard for quality accommodation.

Quality in socio-economic security for the average British person seems to indicate a permanent job paying twice the amount required to cover basic needs in housing health, clothing and food. The house should be owner occupied, with a garden in a quiet residential district, without industrial effluent. Britons have been led to expect good quality healthcare and social services, government funded and providing a vast range of interventions in care and therapy. They expect their children to be educated at a University and to attain a reasonably attractive job.

3 Social Cohesion

3.1 Introduction

Items in the section for Social Cohesion are accompanied by data tables but also by brief qualitative explanations of change in national policy and culture, to provide a relative perspective. Over the past 5 years, particularly, the social mix, cultural norms and neighbourhood cohesion have changed as the youth population born under the last government has reached adulthood and beyond. Most of the items suggested European statistical data sources but some data did not relate to the question properly⁵, or were very old. National data comparisons were more recent and are offered where available.

Items not sourced were not collected because comparability between specific questions would be very low between countries where specific definitions were vague.

3.2 Trust

3.2.1 Generalised Trust

Among the EU population, British people trust most people neither more nor less than most European nations. 30% of British people surveyed in 2000 trusted most people (table 3.1a). However, more detailed national data at the same time (2000-1 Table 3.1b) segregated by age suggests a greater percentage of the population trust most people and that trust increases dramatically with age (40% of 16-29 years and 70% of 60+ years trusted most people).

⁵ Trust questions referred to different nationalities rather than the specified questions and specific trust was not available. Most of the kinship data was available except for the parent questions and duty. Many of the altruism and values questions were not available in the form specified.

Table 3.1a Proportion of the population who thinks that most people can be trusted, EU Countries 2000

	most people can be trusted	you cannot be too careful
Greece	19.1	80.9
Slovenia	21.7	78.3
Hungary	21.8	78.2
France	22.2	77.8
Luxembourg	25.9	74.1
Belgium	29.3	70.7
Great Britain	29.9	70.1
Italy	32.6	67.4
Austria	33.9	66.1
Germany	34.8	65.2
Ireland	35.2	64.8
Spain	38.5	61.5
Finland	58	42
Netherlands	59.7	40.3
Sweden	66.3	33.7
Denmark	66.5	33.5

Source: European Values Study : A third Wave (question 8) 2000

3.2.2 Specific trust

Amongst the European nations, British people place a high importance for quality of life on relations with family (99%), friends (97%) and on their leisure time (92.5%). The proportion of British people citing most importance for these aspects of life was third highest for each, out of 15 European nations (Table 3.2). Despite this only 49% of British people have satisfactory relations with relatives⁶ and 64% with friends (table 3.3). British people rate religion (37%) and politics (34%), similarly to most of Europe, lowest in importance⁷. Fewer British people than any other nation claim work is important to quality of life (79%) (table 3.4).

⁶ Contact weekly and resident within local area.

⁷ European Values Study : A third Wave (question 5) 2000

Table 3.1b Trust in neighbours¹: by age, Great Britain

Age	Trust most /many neighbours (%)
16-29	39
30-39	47
40-49	59
50-59	67
60-69	73
70 and over	75

¹ Respondent trusted most or many people in the neighbourhood.

Source: General Household Survey, Office for National Statistics

<http://www.statistics.gov.uk/STATBASE/Expodata/Spreadsheets/D6233.xls>

Table 3.2 Proportion of the population for whom work, family, friends, leisure time, politics is quite or very important in its live (those two answer categories are taken together)

	work	family	friends	leisure time	politics	religion
France	94.8	98.2	94.4	88.1	35.4	36.9
Great Britain	78.6	98.8	96.6	92.5	34.3	37.4
Germany	82.7	96.9	94.5	83.2	39.5	35
Austria	92.8	98.4	90.4	86.2	41.4	53.8
Italy	95	98.6	89.8	81.2	33.8	72.1
Spain	94.6	98.9	86.6	80.9	19.3	42
Portugal	95.1	98.7	87.9	83.7	27.1	75.5
Greece	87.2	99.1	85.5	76.9	34.9	79.7
Belgium	92.8	97.6	89.1	86.2	33.1	47.6
Netherlands	86.5	92.7	96.3	94	57.7	39.8
Luxembourg	92.3	98.3	92.3	89.4	41.2	45.1
Denmark	85	98.3	94.2	88.9	41.6	27.1
Sweden	91.1	97.9	97.6	93.9	55	35
Finland	89.2	96.2	95.2	90	19.8	45.1
Ireland	84.7	98.5	97.3	86.9	32.1	70.7
Hungary	88.7	97.8	82.3	79.7	18.2	42.3
Slovenia	95.8	97.2	88.3	79.7	14.5	36.6

Source: European Values Study: A third Wave (question 1) 2000

Table 3.3 Satisfactory relatives and friendship networks¹ in Great Britain: by length of residence, 2000/01

Years of residence	Satisfactory relatives network (%)	Satisfactory friendship network (%)
0-4	34	53
5-19	47	68
20 or more	65	72
average	48.7	64.3

¹Those described as having a 'satisfactory relatives or friendship network' were those people who saw or spoke to relatives or friends at least once a week and had at least one close relative or friend who lived nearby.

Source: General Household Survey, Office for National Statistics 2000-1

3.3 Other integrative norms and values

3.3.1 Altruism

In 2000, 11% of British men and 13% of women surveyed did some voluntary work in the 4 weeks prior to survey (table 3.4). Average time for both British men and women volunteering was 4m per day in the week and less at weekend but women had less free time than men (table 3.5).

Table 3.4 Use of leisure time in volunteering

	In the past four weeks ¹		
	Men	Women	All
Volunteering	11	13	12
Helping	27	33	31
Socialising ²	80	87	83

¹Using the individual questionnaire

²Taken from range of leisure activities in individual questionnaire; taken from sociable activities

Source: UK 2000 Time Use Survey

Table 3.5 Average time spent on free time activity per day by gender¹

	Volunteering	Helping	Socialising	All free time
Weekdays				
Men	4mins	6mins	32mins	5hrs:02mins
Women	4mins	9mins	38mins	4hrs:55mins
Significance ²	ns	**	**	*
Weekend days				
Men	2mins	8mins	1hr:07mins	7hrs:00mins
Women	3mins	11mins	1hr:05mins	6hrs:09mins
Significance ²	ns	*	ns	**

¹Information is for main activity only

²Differences between means tested using T-test. ** p<0.001 very significant, * p<0.05 significant, ns not significant

Source: UK 2000 Time Use Survey

In Britain, blood donation is voluntary and unpaid, each donor has a special registration number and a record is kept of donations and state of health. Donations are one pint (1/2 litre) each time.

Workplaces are expected to provide free time for donors to contribute. In 1999, 1.9million donors (3% of population) contributed 2.4million pints.

3.3.2 Tolerance

The British Government has in the past promoted the multicultural society, but this was true only in the cosmopolitan cities and less in the more provincial areas. The events over the last few years and particularly September 11, 2001, have seen policy radically alter. Separate development of cultures, which has been encouraged and celebrated under the heading of diversity for decades is now being subsumed under new Home Office directive for integration and allegiance to British norms and values⁸. Racial discrimination is illegal, of course, but there are increasing tensions between British and migrant populations. 58% of British people are actively or passively tolerant of ethnic minorities and other nationalities, just under the EU average of 60% and round about the median in Europe (Table 3.6).

British Citizenship is not a straightforward definition (see chapter 4) and international law has so far provided us with no universally accepted and binding definition of a minority; efforts by the United Nations to define a minority have proved unsuccessful. The common understanding of ethnic minorities in Britain does not include Welsh, Irish and Gaelic communities who maintain a separate identity through preservation of their language and culture, but they would probably qualify under the

⁸ Community Cohesion: a report of the independent review team, chaired by Ted Cattle (London, Home Office 2001)

Council of Europe Parliamentary Recommendation 1201 (1993)⁹. Comment on British minorities refers to migrant populations. The recent perceived loss of control of borders in the last few years to asylum seekers and refugees has fuelled media hysteria and tension in provincial areas, already hit by deprivation where large numbers of economic migrants were posted without the allocation of corresponding support and resources.

The principalities particularly have a very low proportion of other ethnic minorities, and traditional suspicions of foreigners, including the English.

Table 3.6 Proportion of population surveyed that is passively or actively tolerant of minority groups

Country	Proportion (%)
Belgium	48
Denmark	64
Germany	53
Greece	29
Italy	69
Spain	77
France	56
Ireland	65
Luxembourg	61
Netherlands	65
Portugal	56
UK	58
Finland	71
Sweden	76
Austria	57
EU15	60

Source: Proportion of the population that is intolerant, ambivalent, passively tolerant and actively tolerant by country, Attitudes towards minority groups in the european Union by Thalhammer et al. Based on Eurobarometer 2000 survey.

3.3.3 Social Contracts

British males spent 1.65 hours per day on household and family care and females spent more, 2.88 hours (Table 3.7)

⁹ A group of persons in a state who: (a) reside on the territory of that state and are citizens thereof; (b) maintain longstanding, firm and lasting ties with that State; (c) display distinctive ethnic, cultural, religions or linguistic characteristics; (d) are sufficiently representative, although smaller in number than the rest of the population of that state or of a region of the state; (e) are motivated by a concern to preserve together that which constitutes their common identity, including their culture, their tradition, their religion or their language.

Table 3.7 Time spent on various activities in hours per day, UK 2000-01¹

	Males	Females
Other	2.35	2.52
Entertainment and culture	0.10	0.1
Childcare	0.17	0.48
Sports and outdoor activities	0.30	0.18
Shopping and services	0.38	0.62
Social life	0.85	1.02
Eating	1.38	1.45
Travel	1.48	1.37
Household and family care ²	1.65	2.88
TV and video	2.65	2.25
Employment/Study	4.28	2.57
Sleeping	8.40	8.57

¹Adults aged 16 and over.

²Excludes shopping and childcare.

Source: UK Time 2000 Use Survey, Office for National Statistics

3.4 Social networks

British people are one of the least likely nationalities to belong to community groups (Britain ranked 14th out of 17 countries on the proportion surveyed having membership of community groups¹⁰. (See table 3.8 and 3.9).

Table 3.8 Ranked order community groups participated in, in Great Britain (greatest first)

	Rank
Education, arts, music or cultural activities	1
Trade unions	2
Social welfare services for elderly, handicapped or deprived people	3
Youth work	4
Other groups	5
Religious or church organisations	6
Local community action on issues like poverty, employment, housing, racial equality	7
Voluntary organisations concerned with health	8
Sports or recreation	9
Third world development or human rights	10
Political parties or groups	11
Women's groups	12
Professional associations	13
Conservation, the environment, ecology, animal rights	14
Peace movements	15

Source: Eurobarometer: European Values Study : A third Wave (question 5) 2000

¹⁰ Averaging between all groups presents problems because of double counting, people might belong to more than one group.

Table 3.9 Proportion of surveyed respondents participating in any community group (above)

Country	(%)
Portugal	2.3
Hungary	2.8
Spain	3.6
Great Britain	4.0
France	4.1
Italy	5.2
Germany	5.6
Greece	6.0
Slovenia	6.5
Ireland	7.7
Luxembourg	9.7
Austria	9.9
Belgium	10.4
Finland	12.4
Denmark	12.9
Netherlands	21.0
Sweden	21.6

Source: Eurobarometer: European Values Study : A third Wave (question 5) 2000

Britons were most likely to engage in education, trade unions, social welfare for the elderly and youth work and tended to place more importance on social welfare than the average European. Like most of Europe, Britain had the lowest proportions involved in peace, conservation and human rights. Local community and institutional rights issues are important to around 10% of the survey population but politics and global issues aren't. Generally, group action is rather lower than most of Europe.

3.5 Identity

3.5.1 National / European Identity

There are complex reactions to European nationality within Britain and resistance to what is seen as federalist conformity of culture across the EU. The media projects a critical view of examples from the European courts and edicts from Brussels that commonly reflect a large unwieldy bureaucracy insensitive to local culture. References to Europe in Britain denote continental Europe, not Britain, even in official Government literature. From Eurobarometer, British people were the most likely to have some sense of national pride among the European countries (97%), but only 47% , the lowest of all the countries, were proud of being within Europe (Table 3.10).

Table 3.10 Sense of pride: proportion of the population which is proud of being (country) / European

	national pride	european pride
UK	90	47
Germany	66	49
France	86	58
EU15	85	61
Netherlands	84	62
Belgium	83	64
Greece	96	64
Portugal	92	66
Austria	88	69
Denmark	89	69
Sweden	90	70
Luxembourg	85	73
Finland	96	73
Spain	92	74
Ireland	96	75
Italy	93	81

Source: Standard Eurobarometer 60 : full report (categories very and fairly proud taken together)

There are many language and conversion differences which impact on these attitudes. For example, most people, outside London, would not claim conversational ability in another European language, even though French and German are taught at school and one EU language is compulsory. There are no generally available media in other European languages. Research on potential referenda outcomes has consistently predicted rejection of monetary union and despite commercial legislation towards metric standardisation in retail sales, imperial measures are still common.

Except in the large cosmopolitan cities, it is unlikely that the population would identify at all with the European flag.

3.5.2 National and Regional Identity

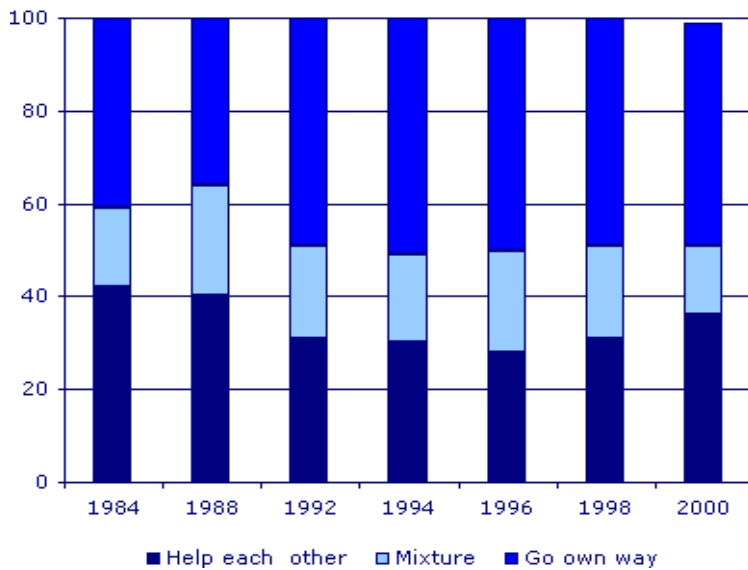
National pride is generally considered eroded with the demise of the British Empire, and many people are wary of displaying patriotism because it may be associated with extreme nationalistic groups¹¹. The UK itself is a divided country and attachment to the principalities is stronger than to the greater union of the Kingdom, particularly for those in Scotland, Wales and N. Ireland. Less than a third of the nation described themselves as British only in 2001 and the majority of these were from England (48%)¹².

England has a long history of persecution of its subject principalities in the cause of the greater union and almost eradicated the Welsh language in the last century. There still exist many nationalistic groups in the principalities that promote divisiveness amongst the union.

¹¹ Display of the Union Jack (GB Flag) for example – or the cross of St. George (England) has been banned by some institutions as nationalistic and anti-multicultural.

Some parts of England are extremely insular, for example, in Cornwall, non-locals (UK nationals) are barely tolerated. All parts of the UK have distinctive regional accents that identify their inhabitants. In 2001, people living in England were more likely to describe themselves as British (48 per cent) than those in Scotland (27 per cent) or Wales (35 per cent)¹². 50% of people described themselves as English, Scottish, Welsh or Irish. Thirty-one per cent described themselves as British only, with 13 per cent choosing British and either English, Scottish, Welsh or Irish.

Figure 3.11 Community spirit in neighbourhoods, England&Wales
Percentages



Source: British Crime Survey

Community Cohesion in neighbourhoods has declined in recent years. In 1984 40% of respondents to the British Crime Survey saw their neighbourhood as one where residents 'help each other out'. However, in 1992 only 31 per cent did so (figure 3.11).

3.6 Trends and Reflection

'If we want social cohesion we need a sense of identity', interview with David Blunkett by Colin Brown, Independent on Sunday (9 December 2001), p. 4

Despite placing the most emphasis on friends, family and leisure time and the least on fulfilment at work, as important for quality of life, only half of British survey respondents maintain good relations with family, and the media represents the man-in-the-street's opposition to the proposed EU legislation on reduction of the working week.

¹² <http://www.statistics.gov.uk/CCL/nugget.asp?ID=278&Pos=3&ColRank=1&Rank=176> Source: Living in Britain, Office for National Statistics

Britain's neighbourhoods are becoming less socially cohesive; although legislation, working practices and the institutions to provide community resources exist; fewer British people belong to neighbourhood groups than most EU countries. Surveys have demonstrated that neighbours help each other less, have less interest in politics and local issues and trust each other less – all these factors are demonstrated to correlate in damaging the social fabric and health of communities¹³. These traits are commoner amongst younger people, so as the population ages, neighbourhood cohesion is predicted to drop.

Eight years ago, the polarisation of income distribution was seen as the key determinant of the widening gap in social cohesion in Britain and the USA¹⁴. Since then, in the last 5 years, social inequality for ethnic minority communities has been particularly targeted for intervention, partly as the result of the failed investigation into the murder of Stephen Lawrence (1997), which opened the national debate on institutional racism of the Police and major services. Social interventions have focused on deprivation, poor achievement, low aspirations and promoting the understanding of cultural diversity. Community leaders were elected to provide a surrogate voice for ethnic minority groups with the agenda of celebration of multi-culturalism as a path to social inclusion.

The race riots of summer 2001 and events since September 11 have seen the end of multi-culturalist policies and the adoption of racial profiling in policing has become acceptable as part of anti-terrorist operations. The government multicultural agenda has also not been compatible with anti-immigrant media attention. Tolerance of migrants is wearing thin because of perceived lack of control of immigration, the exposure of illegal workers and migrants in deprived areas competing for resources.

The British fascist party (National Front) has gained ground recently in local elections although there is little danger of widespread support. The government has denied them a political platform, for fear of increase in racial violence and support for them. Inconsistently, however, Islam fascist groups such as al-Muhajiroun retain their platform and the reasons for allowing are the same - to diffuse racial tension and support. This has placed further pressure on British Muslims' allegiances.

Until recently, Asian culture was perceived as a deferential one, similar to historical Britain, supporting education, self-employment and hard work. Asians were the minority most predicted to succeed, but it has not happened. The majority of Bangladeshi and Pakistani communities remain in poverty. Increasingly, young Asians are adopting antisocial activity usually associated with white and African-Caribbean youths¹⁵.

¹³ Relation of social distrust in United States to voter turnout in November 1990 elections and social isolation, Kawachi, I., Kennedy, B., P. (1997) Socioeconomic determinants of health : Health and social cohesion: why care about income inequality? *BMJ* 1997;314:1037 (5 April)

¹⁴ Kawachi, I., Kennedy, B., P. (1997) op cit.

¹⁵ Anthony, A. (2004) Multiculturalism is dead. Hurrah? *The Guardian*, Thursday April 8, 2004

The political agenda has now shifted, but the solutions look depressingly similar; the 2001 Community cohesion report¹⁶ cited the polarisation of parallel cultural lives in towns and cities to be the most apparent factor impacting on social cohesion and the direct outcome as racism.

The Cattle report focuses on attitude change as the new cohesive 'magic bullet'. Like social exclusion, social cohesion is thought to depend upon social networks, identity and discourse rather than disadvantage. A new National Community Cohesion Task Force will set out core values, put limits on multiculturalism, establish pathways for people of ethnic minority backgrounds to gain 'a greater acceptance of the principal national institutions', English language skills and introduce a new policing measure the ID card, not yet implemented.

Blunkett has suggested that immigrants take an 'oath of allegiance' to the British state and adopt British norms, putting the emphasis on a British identity. Media debate has speculated on the clarification of the rights and responsibilities of a British citizen, and what a British identity is, but many aspects remain unclear.

For the general non-minority population, national identity and pride in being British is difficult to distinguish from regional identity, where links are stronger, and associations clearer, especially in the principalities. However, the principalities are not usually areas with large ethnic minorities. European identity is even more diffuse and compromised by fear of change and federalism, language difficulties and distance. The popular media tends to concentrate on fear of outside control compromising sovereignty, and doesn't generally support a European identity.

Altogether then, it looks like more is expected from the migrant population than the majority British population, who suffer from deterioration in social networks, eroding of community cultural and social values and a sense of confusion about what it means to be British, trepidation about the integration of the British population and little confidence in the control of the Government of migration and equity of distribution of income.

¹⁶ Community Cohesion: a report of the independent review team, chaired by Ted Cattle (London, Home Office 2001).

4 Social Inclusion

4.1 Introduction

Most of the suggested data sources were national except for family life, which was difficult to interpret as the questions were very vague. National data was found for most of the items, but as before, qualitative information is added for context and explanation.

Some of the items could be interpreted a number of ways. For example, because there is no set constitution in Britain, and no bill of rights, the cultural understanding of a social right is probably different from the rest of the EU.

Britain is a monarchy, with a tradition of class differentiation and a very clear social stratum. The Queen is Head of State and British citizens are ultimately subject to her power, even though that power is not exercised. The class system is endemic. It still underlies all British norms and social conventions, even though the Government promotes the ideal of a classless society and conventions are becoming less rigid. The upper class is still regarded as a model influence, service to the country is still rewarded by title and the House of Lords has a major influence in mediating politics. Even now, representation as a member of the upper class will incur less severe penalties in law, in general, people respond deferentially to upper or middle class traits, and entry at private schools, guaranteeing the best connections, jobs and other benefits is often subject to enquiry into background circumstances.

Britain has not generally codified its law and courts interpretation of statutes is often strict and literal. International conventions do not automatically become domestic law until domestic law is amended by the government. However, now Britain is an EU member, Community law is part of British law and takes precedence in the event of conflict between the two.

4.2 Citizenship rights

4.2.1 Constitutional / political rights

Britain is a parliamentary democracy; the Government are responsible to the people through the elected House of Commons (MPs), which has the power to force a government to resign on a vote of no-confidence. The non-elected House of Lords, provides a forum for discussion and revision of proposals and does not compete with the Commons. Its powers to delay legislation are limited by law. Each region is divided into political wards containing roughly equivalent numbers of voters. Local elections determine councillors representing each ward. National elections determine Members of Parliament (MP), who represent a number of wards to the national government. There is no obligation for party membership for MPs and some are independent. The electorate votes for their MP, not the head of Government, by secret ballot. The Prime Minister is also an MP representing a constituency.

The political party to take office is the one with most MPs in the election¹⁷. The Queen appoints the cabinet, chosen by the Prime Minister. The unsuccessful party MPs still represent their electorate, whichever party they may belong to, but take no political lead roles. The 'shadow government' is composed of MPs who would have taken political office if their party was successful, they form a foil to unilateral politics. In 2001 Labour, the successful party took office with 41% of the vote, The previous Conservative Government took office with only a third of the vote.

Citizenship in Britain is not straightforward and thus it is difficult to determine the proportion of residents with citizenship. UK citizenship became automatic for people of UK birth even if neither parent held citizenship from 1983. Stateless people residing in the UK were also eligible for British citizenship but many may not have claimed it. Many former British Citizens, settled in the UK, but born in the former colonies, are actually citizens of that country rather than British. In the last few years, there has been a significant increase in applications for citizenship from other nationalities due to asylum, economic conditions, refugee status and EU movement between member states. Commonwealth, Irish Republic and foreign nationals can acquire citizenship by naturalisation, but applicants must register. Some people may have claims to automatic status as a British Citizen too.

There is no written constitution or comprehensive Bill of Rights; Britain's constitution lies partly in conventions and customs and partly in statute. Parliament has power to enact any law and change any previous law.

Voting rights are usually extended to citizens in most democratic countries but in Britain, voting is not confined to British Citizens. People able to vote in a UK Parliamentary election are: Aged 18 or over; Citizens of the UK, a Commonwealth country or the Republic of Ireland; Registered, resident in the constituency and not in a category barred from voting¹⁸. British citizens who have lived abroad for up to 15 years¹⁹ may also vote. The Treaty of Maastricht (1993) also gave resident EU citizens the vote in EU parliamentary and local government elections, but not in national elections. In all, more than 44 million people meet these criteria.

Voting turnout has consistently decreased since 1979²⁰. In the General Election, 2001, 59% of those registered voted (Table 4.1). Younger people (under 34 years) are less likely to vote and older people more likely (80% turnout for 60+ years). Overall participation in local elections across types of authority has been in general decline since 1990. Between 1990-1999 the number of voters turning out to vote at each election represented 36% of the registered electorate. In 1998 the British Social Attitudes Survey, found that a third of those aged 18 to 24 said everyone has an obligation to vote, compared with four-fifths of the 65 and over age group and the social attitudes held by the young are

¹⁷ Parties have no legal existence and membership of a political party is not a requirement for government office.

¹⁸ Mentally unfit, in prison or member of the House of Lords

¹⁹ In 1985, it was 5 years, extended to 20 years in 1989, then reduced after 2001 general election to 15 years effective 2002.

²⁰ 76% of registered voters exercised their vote in 1979.

more likely to prevail over time. Political interest among young people was low in 1994 and even lower in 1998²¹.

Table 4.1 Voting turnout by age and gender (2001)

Age	Males	Females
18-24	60	46
25-34	59	56
35-44	66	74
45-54	76	81
55-59	79	82
60-64	80	80
65 and over	87	87

Source: British Election Study, National Centre for Social Research; University of Essex.

In 2001, 92% of residents of England were born in the UK (Table 4.2). The majority of foreign residents were born outside the EU (6%), most migrants derive from South Asia. The principalities of Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland are even more indigenous (for example 97% of people living in Wales were born there (census 2001)). 1998 figures from Eurostat indicated only 3-4% born outside the UK and ranks the UK in the lower quartile of 20 countries²² submitting statistics for foreign born residents, but this data is rather old, so there have been significant changes in the last 5 or 6 years with the influx of asylum seekers and refugees.

Table 4.2 Country of Birth

Born in UK	91.7%
Born elsewhere in EU (inc Rep Ireland)	2.2%
Born outside EU	6.1%

UK CENSUS 2001 <http://www.statistics.gov.uk/census2001/profiles/uk.asp>

4.2.2 Social rights

The situation for pension rights has reached a crisis point in Britain. Payment of National Insurance has in the past guaranteed employed people the right to a basic pension independent of other provision. This money is drawn from the funds collected from the employed workforce at the time. However, the increasing percentage of older people to younger people has meant that there is an increasing shortfall in funds and it is unlikely the present workforce will benefit in the future. It is now compulsory for employed people to contribute to a private pension fund, to which the employer also pays a part. Part of the National Insurance payment is waived. However, the media consistently reports that most people do not contribute enough and schemes will not provide a basic income. Most people consider the cost of a scheme guaranteeing a reasonable income too much and the industry is widely regarded with suspicion. Virtually all pensioners receive the state retirement pension. In

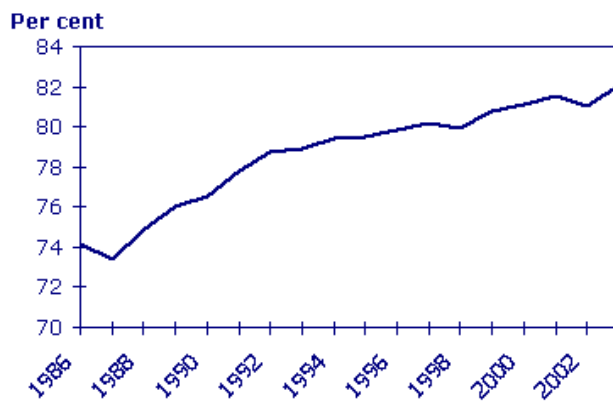
²¹ Young People's Social Attitudes Survey 1994-98.

²² Trends in International Migration, OECD (1999).

addition, in 1999-00, 12 per cent of pensioners were also receiving income support along with their basic state pension. In April 1999 the Minimum Income Guarantee entitled people aged 60 or over with less than £8000 savings to supplement their pension up to £67.50 (single) or £108 (married) (1999). However, take up of this benefit is very low and an estimate of 83% of low income pensioners are estimated to fail to claim²³. 61% male and 51% of female employees contribute to occupational or personal pension or both (2001). Self-employed people are less likely to contribute to pension schemes- only 48 per cent of men and 30 per cent of women made contributions in 2001. They are expected to use their business as collateral on retirement.

The gender pay gap in average hourly pay of full-time employees, excluding overtime, narrowed between 2002 and 2003 to its lowest value since records began (Figure 4.3). Women's average hourly pay was 82.0 per cent of men's – compared with the 81.0 per cent recorded in April 2002. The average hourly rate for men went up 2.2 per cent to £12.88 while the rate for women increased by 3.4 per cent to £10.56.

Figure 4.3 Women's pay as a proportion of men's



Source: New Earnings Survey

4.2.3 Civil rights

In April 2000 the Community Legal Service (CLS) for England and Wales, replaced the Legal Aid Board part or wholly funding legal services for clients with limited income and capital. They granted 77% of applications received in 2000, but applications sharply decreased. Civil Legal Aid in Scotland operates differently, on a similar basis to the previous Legal Aid board.

CLS offers legal help on family law, including divorce, separation, financial provision, domestic violence and residence, contact issues, and matters arising under the Child Support Act 1991 or the Children Act 1989. CLS gives help on mediation and representation on tribunals and court and this makes up one third of its work, the rest covers Immigration, housing and welfare benefits.

²³ Willcocks, S. (2002) 80% of low income pensioners failing to claim benefit, Guardian June 19.

Discrimination is a generic term for lots of different behaviours and conditions. This has been interpreted as racial harassment as gender pay differences already proxy for discrimination of women.

The Race Relations Act 1976 (Amended 2003) protects against indirect racial discrimination and harassment for ethnic origin. The original Act protects from discrimination on grounds of colour or nationality for any form of social advantage. Racial harassment was mentioned by 4% of households in 2000 as part of a questionnaire covering neighbourhood problems as a serious issue in their area - similar to levels in 1997-98, largely undifferentiated by income (8% low income area, 9% 'affluent urban areas

Table 4.4 Nuisance and neighbourhood problems 1999-2000

	Affluent family areas	Mature home-owning areas	Affluent suburban and rural areas	New home-owning areas	Council and low income areas	Affluent urban areas	All types of area
Crime	51	54	49	57	66	59	56
Litter and rubbish	31	41	26	47	58	49	42
Vandalism and hooliganism	32	38	25	44	58	42	40
Dogs	25	29	22	33	37	25	29
Noise	17	21	16	25	31	35	23
Graffiti	16	18	11	23	36	32	22
Neighbours	9	11	7	15	18	17	13
Racial Harassment	2	3	1	4	8	9	4

Source: Survey of English Housing, Department for Transport, Local Government and the Regions

The Sex Discrimination Act (1975) prohibits discrimination against either sex including advertising and selection procedures, promotion prospects and pay differentials. It also protects married people against less favourable treatment y than single people.

4.2.4 Economic and political networks

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

The detailing of private companies and foundations would be rather tedious since there are very many companies in Britain of different sizes and the robustness or completeness of such information dubious. Employment law in the UK requires a representative percentage of minority groups, disabled people and women in large institutions, small companies are excused, but they do not have to publish such information. National Parliament, Judiciary and Senior Civil Service positions are a good relative proxy for national proportions.

Britain has many more women managers and senior staff than most European countries (32% women and 68% men 2001) and ranks in the top quartile for table 4.5. National data for 2001, suggests 5% of women and 15% of men occupy higher managerial and professional jobs (Table 4.6). In 2000-2001

23% of applications for senior civil service jobs were from women, and 29% were appointed²⁴. Additionally 55% of civil service staff (non-manual) were women (2002 table 4.7). 28% of local authority councillors were women (2002-3) and 18% of Members of Parliament were women (2002-2003)²⁵

Table 4.6 Women in Managerial positions by country

Country	Proportion of women (%)
Cyprus	19
Italy	20
Denmark	21
Luxembourg	22
Greece	26
The Netherlands	26
Germany	27
Finland	28
Ireland	28
Austria	29
Slovenia	29
Portugal	30
Average (%)	30
Belgium	31
Iceland	31
Sweden	31
Spain	32
Slovakia	32
United Kingdom	32
Hungary	35
France	36
Estonia	37
Latvia	39
Liechtenstein	48

Source: Eurostat

²⁴ National Census Local Authority Councillors 2001 Employer;s Organisation for local government issued as part of fact sheet by Equal Opportunities Commission 2002.

²⁵ House of Commons weekly information bulletin 12.1.2002 issued as part of fact sheet 2002 Equal Opportunities Commission.

Table 4.7 Women in managerial positions in the U.K.

Position	%
Higher managerial and professional	5
Lower managerial and professional	22
Intermediate	19
Small employers and own account	5
Lower supervisory and technical	6
Semi-routine	23
Routine	14
Never worked and long-term unemployed	6
Weighted base (000's)=100%	21,879
Unweighted sample	7847

Living in Britain 2002

In higher socio-economic employment, 8.4% of white employed British have managerial jobs, and 9.3% of other ethnic groups²⁶. The least likely to have management jobs are Pakistanis, Black Caribbean's and Bangladeshi at 3-4% and most likely are the White Other group (15%) (Table 4.8). In 2000-2001 8% of applications for senior civil service jobs were from people of ethnic minority backgrounds, and 4% were appointed²⁷. 8.5% of civil service employees derived from ethnic minority populations (non manual). 3.4% of MPs derive from ethnic minority populations (MPs) 3.4%²⁸. 4.4% of staff in Public Bodies in England derive from ethnic minorities. Figures suggest 2.5% of local government councillors derived from ethnic minority populations in England and Wales (2002) but Wales and Scotland had no ethnic minority staff in 2002, so the proportions are probably relative to the population in these areas.

²⁶ Local Labour force Survey ONS <http://www.statistics.gov.uk/STATBASE/Expodata/Spreadsheets/D7380.xls>

²⁷ Civil Service departmental returns: <http://www.civil-service.gov.uk/statistics/documents/pdf/02staffbyeosalaryandgender.pdf>

²⁸ Living in Britain 2002

Table 4.8 People in employment who were in the higher managerial and professional group: by ethnic group, Great Britain 2001-2002

Ethnic group	Percentages
Other	13.5
Chinese	10.5
Black African	7.9
Black Caribbean	4.9
Other Asian	11.6
Bangladeshi	3.0
Pakistani	4.4
Indian	13.6
Mixed	7.1
White Other	15.6
White Irish	10.3
White	8.4

Source: Annual Local Area Labour Force Survey, Office for National Statistics

4.3 Labour market

4.3.1 Access to paid employment

In Britain, the benefits system is difficult to enter and leave. Consequently, unless people enter a job with some prospects for continuance, they may suffer waiting time without income between jobs. Access to employment therefore does not guarantee a greater average income. In 2000, the parents most vulnerable to severe poverty were those who followed the government's advice to escape poverty by taking work whenever it was available.²⁹

Involuntary part-time or temporary unemployment was difficult to interpret. This has been interpreted as part time and temporary employment by sex. 1.5% males and 0.8% females (16years and over) were classified long-term unemployed in 2001 (Census). 5.6% of males and 7.5% of females were employed in temporary jobs (2001 Census), which is considerably less than the EU average (12.5% males and 14.4% female - Eurostat). 9% of men and 44% of women were employed part time.

The average working week is 39 hours for males and 26 hours female in Britain (2002) (table 4.9). 9% of children in 1999 were living in families that were severely and persistently poor³⁰.

²⁹ David Gordon, D., Levitas, R., Pantazis, C., Patsios, D., Payne S., Townsen, P., Adelman, L., Ashworth, K., Middleton, S., Bradshaw J., William, J. (2000) Social Exclusion in Britain, Joseph Rowntree Fnd.

³⁰ Carvel, J. (2003) Labour 'failing to help 1 million poorest children', Guardian Sept. 2 quoting reports from Save the Children and Child Poverty Action Group. Severe poverty was 40% of average income.

Table 4.9 Usual weekly hours of employment, spring 2003, UK

Hours	Males (%)	Females %
Less than 6	0.8	2.4
6 to 15	3.2	12.5
16 to 30	7.2	29.3
31 to 45	55.6	46.2
Over 45	33.3	9.7

Source: UK 2004 Yearbook

4.4 Services

4.4.1 Health services

Use of the public healthcare system for all citizens is covered by national insurance, deducted from earned income. For neighbourhoods, the GP at primary care level maintains a local clinic and residents are registered under the NHS. The GP may refuse to treat people who live outside the immediate area of the clinic because GPs are obliged to make home visits to some patients or in cases of emergency. The GP gateways refer patients to secondary care (except emergencies who may access hospital directly). A group of GPs and hospitals form a local trust which is subsidised and funded by government. Charges are not made to patients directly. Quality and duration of care is independent of demographics and does not depend on contributions to the NHS. Transients are also treated and non-registered people but they may be obliged to go to an emergency department of a general hospital and there is no long term follow-up. With the sharp increase in immigration to the UK and 'health-tourists', hospitals may require proof of residence in the UK, and may apply charges to visitors. Private care for residents is also available and increasing due to long waiting lists for non-priority treatment. The healthcare system is inclusive of all residents and is described under Security.

4.4.2 Housing

Figures for homeless people, sleeping rough are largely based on local authority counts and estimates, but many authorities do not provide statistics. There are no definitive and robust figures to rely on, due to the transient nature of the population. Recent estimates place people sleeping rough on a single night relatively low - around 500, compared with nearly 2,000 in 1998. The government claims to have reduced rough sleepers by 70%³¹ but charitable organisations query these figures.

³¹ Social Exclusion Unit (2004) Breaking the Cycle of Social Exclusion, HMSO, September. 70% reduction from 1997.

Table 4.10 Homeless households in priority need accepted by local authorities¹: by region², 2000

	Acceptances per 1,000 households
England	5.4
North East	4.7
North West	4.6
Yorkshire and the Humber	4.2
East Midlands	4.2
West Midlands	6.3
East	4.2
London	9.2
South East	4.3
South West	5.3

¹Figures include decisions taken under both the 1985 and 1996 Housing Acts.

²Government Office Region.

Source: Department for Transport, Local Government and the Regions

<http://www.statistics.gov.uk/STATBASE/Expodata/Spreadsheets/D5127.xls>

There are no recent comprehensive or reliable figures for single homelessness nationally, any figure would include hostels, B&Bs, rough sleepers, squatters, etc. However, 28,353 households accepted by local authorities as homeless in 1996/97 had a single occupant (table 4.10) and 1996 estimates by the London Research Centre were over 100,000 in London alone. In October 2000, the DETR estimated there to be 1180 people sleeping rough on any given night in England³² but just 2 years before, the Housing Services Agency in 1998 gave a figure of 400 on any given night in London and 2,400 throughout the year. Shelter (1997) estimated 2,000 sleeping rough nightly outside London in England and that 10,000 people sleep rough temporarily, over the course of a year. Estimates for Scotland predict 11,000 people sleeping rough at least once in any year. In 2002, estimates of priority need households (usually homeless family with children) were 5.4 per 1000 but local authorities' definitions slightly differ. In 2002-03, around 48,000 single people and childless households were accepted, by local authorities, as unintentionally homeless and in priority need. At the end of December 2003, local councils placed 95,060 homeless people with children in temporary accommodation.

To allocate social housing according to priority need, councils generally use a points system. Single people get fewer points unless in a serious situation and families with children lacking proper facilities accumulate the most points. Councils cannot offer inappropriate housing so sometimes a single person with few points will wait less time than a family in great need if the accommodation is too small. Most councils house priority applicants fairly quickly but non-priority applicants wait years.

³² <http://www.homeless.org.uk/db/20010123182655> for earlier information and for 2002-4 information Government paper http://www.odpm.gov.uk/stellent/groups/odpm_homelessness/documents/source/odpm_home_source_027790.doc Homeless statistics March 2004.

4.4.3 Education

In Britain, school is compulsory for children from 5 to 16 years. There is no charge to attend a local authority maintained school and local tax pays for materials, books and equipment. Most schools enrol from the area adjoining the school, but some schools are independently maintained or private and set entry standards by exam or other criteria³³. Participation is measured here by absences from sessions. In 2002 8% of half days were missed through absence in secondary schools (11-16years). 65% of girls and 59% of boys progress to further education (table 4.11)

Table 4.11 Pupil absence in maintained secondary schools for England 2002

% of half days missed secondary 2002/03	8.28
% of half days missed secondary 2001/02	8.72
% of half days missed secondary 2000/01	9.04

Source: DFES <http://www.dfes.gov.uk/rsgateway/DB/SFR/s000434/tab007.shtml>

4.4.4 Social care

Nursery provision is perceived in Britain as part of education and care during school hours is state-provided at 4 years old and can be provided earlier - at 3 years - there is rarely a waiting time. There are also numerous private facilities.

The Proportion of people in need receiving care services indicator was too ambiguous. As indicated in the Security chapter, there are many kinds of care and social agencies provided in Britain.

4.4.5 Financial services

In Britain, credit is available on a larger scale than in many EU countries. People can borrow as much as 5 times salary for a house. Most employed people aspire to buy their home, so refusals are not always due to risk assessment of the individual. Increasingly, bank overdrafts are very common and not perceived as shameful. Bank accounts may be held by people without income - because social care payments are made through the account, an estimated 8% households have no bank account³⁴. And individual insolvencies (unable to get credit) were 30,600 in England in 2002³⁵. Credit payments No. of payments by cheque, credit card, non-cash increased over 1999-2002 at an average of 7% a year (1999-2002)³⁶ and this is predicted to increase as cards get ever more popular.

³³ Independent schools are part funded by Government. For Private schools, entry criteria may include an assessment of background of potential students if their achievement is not to the standard.

³⁴ Report by the National Consumer Council, 15th September 2004

³⁵ Source: Department of Trade and Industry <http://www.statistics.gov.uk/statbase/Expodata/Spreadsheets/D7484.xls>

³⁶ non cash transactions Government office National Statistics:
<http://www.statistics.gov.uk/StatBase/Expodata/Spreadsheets/D7481.xls>

Social security was covered in Security. The unemployed, previously working for 12 months are entitled to jobseeker's allowance, which is a contributory non-means tested benefit. This lasts for 6 months, during which time, the unemployed person seeks work. After 6 months, the unemployed person will claim a means-tested social security benefit calculated to include dependents. Financial assistance of every kind exists including helping disabled people and their carers, people with social or health problems, students from impoverished background with fees. The Citizens Advice Services can provide a mediating service to those in need of financial advice and mediation with credit agencies. Appointments may be booked and although these services have been systematically reduced in the last 5 years, there are no charges.

4.4.6 Transport

Large cities have better public transport and congestion charges have been introduced in recent years to combat ever increasing numbers of private vehicles. The road density in Britain is very high, and even remote parts and Islands of Scotland have roads, although in smaller communities public transport is increasingly becoming a problem in provision and cost. Travel by train is possible over most of Britain and the network is comprehensive, but it is relatively expensive compared with other EU countries. 89% of British households lie within 13mins of a bus stop with a service at least once per hour. 3,400 motor vehicles flow over an average point on an average road per day over all roads. (Table 4.12).

Table 4.12 Average daily flow¹ of motor vehicles (in thousands) in Great Britain: by class of road²

	1993	1997	2001	2002
Motorways ³	57.5	65.8	71.5	72.9
Urban major roads	18.9	19.8	20.1	20.1
Trunk	31.8	33.6	36.1	36.0
Principal	17.4	18.2	18.3	18.4
Rural major roads	8.8	9.8	10.3	10.5
Trunk	14.2	15.9	17.1	17.6
Principal	6.5	7.1	7.4	7.5
All major roads	11.2	12.2	12.6	12.8
All minor roads	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.4
All roads	2.9	3.2	3.3	3.4

¹Flow at an average point on each class of road

²See Appendix: Part 12, Road Traffic.

³Includes motorways owned by local authorities.

Source: Department for Transport <http://www.statistics.gov.uk/STATBASE/Expodata/Spreadsheets/D7243.xls>

4.4.7 Civic / cultural services

Most residential neighbourhoods have some access to public sport facilities, which make a charge. There are large numbers of private clubs and facilities too. Similarly data was unavailable for the number of cultural facilities. We provide participation data instead (table 4.13). Cinema was most popular and contemporary dance least.

Table 4.13 Attendance at Cultural Events, Percent attended cultural event this year¹. 1999–2000

	Percent surveyed
Cinema	56
Theatre	23
Art galleries/exhibitions	22
Classical music	12
Ballet	6
Opera	6
Contemporary dance	4

¹Per cent of resident population aged 15 and over attending.

Source: Target Group Index, BMRB International 2002 yearbook ONS

Table 4.14 Participation¹ in a sport or physical activity: by age, UK 2000-01

Age	Percentage
8-15	95.3
16-24	77.1
25-44	67.5
45-64	55.0
65 and over	30.4

¹Percentage reporting participation in the four weeks prior to interview.

Source: UK 2000 Time Use Survey, Office for National Statistics

4.5 Social networks

Neighbourhood and family participation - In Britain surveys from 2000-2001 suggest older people had more sense of community, they were friendlier than younger people: 86% of 40+ year olds spoke to their neighbours more than once a week (14% spoke less than once a week), whereas 30% of 16-29 year olds spoke to their neighbours less than once a week, and only 21% of 29-29 year olds spoke that rarely (see chapter 2). 58% of adults saw their friends at least weekly; 34% more than once a year; and 4% less than that (2001). Two-thirds surveyed in 2000 (66 per cent) had a 'satisfactory friendship network'. That is they saw or spoke to friends at least once a week and had a close friend living nearby.

Family Life - Just over half surveyed in 2000 (52 per cent) had a 'satisfactory relatives network'. Twenty per cent had neither. 51% had contact with their mother at least weekly; 36% more than once a year; and 10% less than that (chapter 2).

4.6 Trends and Reflection

The European Commission in 1994 saw social exclusion as an outcome of poverty: *'It is clear that contemporary economic and social conditions tend to exclude some groups from the cycle of opportunities'*³⁷.

The British Government adopted a similar position in 1999, setting up units for neighbourhood renewal, rough sleepers, teenage pregnancy, children and young people. In 1998, its definition of social exclusion *'What can happen when people or areas suffer from a combination of linked problems such as unemployment, poor skills, low incomes, poor housing, high crime, bad health and family breakdown'*³⁸. Since then, Social Inclusion has been the new buzzword over the past couple of years, emphasising the process of isolation, powerlessness and discrimination for vulnerable groups, social rights and responsibilities and de-emphasises a state of poverty as the main cause and focus of intervention. However, in 2004, the Unit for Social Exclusion still identified unskilled, unqualified adults, people with chronic illness or disabilities and poor ethnic minority communities as helped little by these measures³⁹

European Union concepts of social rights and solidarity are removed from British politics. The European Union Observatory has in the past criticised the *'hierarchy of moral credibility, designating particular groups as deserving or undeserving'* in most countries, citing particularly the emphasis on youth as incurring state disapproval and the elderly as being more worthy⁴⁰.

A debate as to whether inclusion is equal and opposite to exclusion is not appropriate here, but inclusion seems to imply a positive focus on the mechanisms of institution and equity of access for the whole community, whilst exclusion seems to concentrate the focus on particular groups and attitudes or cultural values preventing access that don't apply to the general community. *'You can lead a horse to water, but you can't make it drink'*, is the pivot on which this discussion seems to hinge.

In Britain, the legal and social institutions of inclusion comprehensively exist even though poorer services still discriminate communities in poverty⁴¹. There is equity in law as far as possible for disabled people, marginalized groups and ethnic minorities, in employment, education, legal and civil

³⁷ European Social Policy: A way forward for the Union, EU Commission (DGV) Brussels 1994.

³⁸ Bringing Britain together: a national strategy for neighbourhood renewal, Social Exclusion Unit, 1998

³⁹ Unit Social Exclusion. Sep 2004. Breaking the cycle, HMSO.

⁴⁰ EU Observatory on National Policies to Combat Social Exclusion, 2nd An. Report, EU Commission, Brussels 1991.

⁴¹ John Prescott (2002) address Conference of the Fabian Society and the New Policy Institute, London. Jan 15th. 'Post-code poverty' coined in 2002, described communities served by the worst schools, public transport, longest GP waiting lists, the highest burglary rates and unemployment.

assistance, access to a voice in their democracy, and there are mechanisms to include people who are hard to reach.

However, in Britain, people's attitudes to and understanding of the rights and responsibilities of citizenship are foggy. The local institutions that support a sense of structure and national pride are more focused on regional or cultural loyalty, especially for young people. Falling birth rates, increasing minority populations living for the most part in poverty, together with an increasing percentage of older people with more money and power than ever before, has resulted in a political shift to target an older electorate, marginalizing and disempowering the young. Younger people and ethnic minorities have less sense of national inclusion, of influence on the structure of society and wider political issues; consequently they vote less and feel less of a responsibility for continuance of community values.

In a look forward to the future, for poor people, the Prime Minister has admitted its pensions strategy will soon become unsupportable⁴² and savings for retirement are dropping. The Minimum Income Guarantee also sends the message to most people that saving for retirement is not worthwhile. In the aftermath of publicity about the failure of many private schemes to provide guarantees or even deliver on promises, the Government are considering a universal compulsory scheme for the employed to provide 25% average income. Feeling less of a responsibility for social cohesion, the youth that will support them will probably be fairly unsympathetic to increases in tax, so it is likely that a large percentage of older people will be subject to means testing all their lives.

⁴² Field, F. (2004) Blair finally admits pensions are in crisis, but words won't pay the gas bill, Times, Sep. 21.

5 Social Empowerment

5.1 Introduction

The suggested sources for social empowerment were mostly national data – Any European data was quite old, predating the last census, and in Britain, as with the other domains, the results of social reforms since 1997 have been felt over the last 5 years. Large changes in freedom of information have occurred with internet access, cheap communication and availability of information.

The terminology of social empowerment probably has cultural assumptions that differ between countries. Intervention policies and roles in social services particularly in trade unions, the understanding of community involvement in decision-making process and collective and family life are difficult to compare with British policies.

For survey based information, compiled between countries, these assumptions and relative understandings and particularly quality assessments will always bias towards population norms and their comparative value will rest on how they are collected, which is not always apparent. In Britain, the assumption of public provision for most social institutions is implicit and expectations can exceed what is practical.

Most of the information presented here, particularly qualitative, was very complex and not possible to summarise with any great understanding of comparative values. So, for most factors information is available but not easily transferable to the categories indicated.

5.2 Knowledge base

5.2.1 Application of knowledge

The average reading score in young people over 35 countries internationally was 500 in 2001 (PIRLS 2000). The British average was well above at 553 (table 5.1). In 1996 the average Maths score for Britain for the general population was 123 but this data is rather old⁴³.

⁴³ IALS (EU comparison) This data derives from 1994, with updates at 1996 and does not really reflect current levels in the UK

Table 5.1 Mean score for reading achievement: G8 comparison¹, 2001

Country	Reading achievement score
England	553
Canada ²	544
United States	542
Italy	541
Germany	539
Scotland	528
Russia	528
France	525
International Average (35 countries)	500

¹All pupils had four years formal schooling prior to test except in England and Scotland with five years and in Russia where some had three years. Selected countries are those that are members of the G8, excluding Japan who did not take part.

²Ontario and Quebec only

Source: Progress in International Reading Literacy Study; National Foundation for Educational Research

There was an increase in the numbers of university entrants from more disadvantaged backgrounds up to 2001; despite increasing from a participation rate of 11 per cent in 1991/92 to 19 per cent in 2001/02, representation, level of participation and likelihood of success all remain greatest amongst young people from affluent areas and lowest amongst those from deprived neighbourhoods (table 5.2). Participation rates for the non-manual social classes increased from 35 per cent to 50 per cent over the same period. Participation amongst minority ethnic groups also increased with Indian ethnic origin the highest at 4.2% of all undergraduates in 2002/3 ⁴⁴

⁴⁴ <http://www.statistics.gov.uk/StatBase/ssdataset.asp?vlnk=7308&More=YJRF> Findings Ref: N110, Nov. 2000, Alasdair Forsyth and Andy Furlong of the University of Glasgow, Socio-economic disadvantage and experience in higher education, JRF May 2003 - Ref 563 <http://www.jrf.org.uk/knowledge/findings/socialpolicy/d33.asp>

Table 5.2 Participation in higher education by social class

	Percentages Social class I, II and III (non-manual)	Percentages Social Class III (manual), IV and V
1991/92	35	11
1992/93	40	14
1993/94	43	16
1994/95	46	17
1995/96	47	17
1996/97	48	18
1997/98	48	18
1998/99	45	17
1999/2000	45	17
2000/01	48	18
2001/02	50	19

Source: Department for Education and Skills
<http://www.statistics.gov.uk/StatBase/Expodata/Spreadsheets/D7308.xls>

5.2.2 Availability of information

Nearly four out of 10 adults in some parts of England could not read or write properly or do simple sums in 2000⁴⁵. In 1999 20% of adults were described as functionally illiterate. On average, 15% have low literacy, 5% have lower literacy and 4% have very low literacy. In 2003 5.2 million adults in England (16%) have literacy skills below level 1⁴⁶.

Both men and women appear to experience a 50 per cent wage increase as the length of education rises from leaving full-time education at 16 to leaving at 21. Graduates in mathematics, economics, law and health had earnings that were on average nearly 30 per cent higher for men and around 40 per cent higher for women than for employees with 2 or more A levels only, over the period 1993 to 2001 (see table 5.3).

⁴⁵ Basic Skills Agency report, May 2000.

⁴⁶ The Skills for Life survey, 2003. Level 1 is lower than the lowest grade (G) at GCSE (General Certificate of Secondary Education, examination on leaving school at 16 years). A-C grades (pass at 48%) qualify a young person to study a further 2 years at College.

Table 5.4: Proportional effect¹ on earnings of a degree level qualification: by sex and degree subject, England and Wales 1993-2001²

Degree subject	Males (%)	Females (%)
Arts	-4.8	12.1
Education	1.6	19.8
Language	1.5	21.2
Social	11.6	21.1
Architecture	13.5	31.1
Nursing	16.6	26.5
Combined	17.4	23.0
Science	15.4	22.1
Engineering	21.4	30.9
Mathematics	27.5	40.5
Economics	28.6	38.9
Law	29.1	44.2
Health	28.7	40.2

¹Compared with the average earnings for those with at least 2 A levels.

²Data from 1993 to 2001 have been pooled. See Appendix, Part 5: Earnings and education.

Source: Department of Economics, University of Warwick, from Labour Force Survey

Internet use is rising steeply in Britain. Men are more likely to use it than women and the 16-24 age group much more likely (83% of respondents aged 16-24 to ONS survey 2003 had used the internet in the previous 3 months). 39% of British households had home access to the internet at the end of 2001⁴⁷ rising to 49% in 2003⁴⁸ while 48% of adults surveyed in 2001 used the internet at some point in the previous 3 months and 58% in 2003⁴⁹.

5.2.3 User friendliness of information

Provision of information in multiple languages on social services

There are multilingual communities in many parts of Britain, but variation is great, and where necessary and practical information on public services is produced in the main languages of the whole community. The Principality of Wales provides all public information in Welsh and English, which are the major languages spoken, but for the rest of the UK, individual local authorities assess the needs of their population, making essential information available in major languages spoken in the area. Local Authorities are becoming much more sensitive to multilingual distribution of information, especially in the major South Asian languages, but while most urban areas now have a very rich diversity of population, others don't and this is not always linked to deprivation. For example, taking two cities with deprived populations, in Coventry in the Midlands, some schools have pupils with 30 different first

⁴⁷ Source: Family Expenditure Survey (April 1998 to March 2001); Expenditure and Food Survey (April 2001 onwards)

⁴⁸ Source: Family Expenditure Survey (April 1998 to March 2001); Expenditure and Food Survey (April 2001 onwards)

⁴⁹ Source: National Statistics Omnibus Survey 2003: Adults who have used the Internet in the 3 months prior to interview by sex/age (Great Britain) <http://www.statistics.gov.uk/StatBase/Expodata/Spreadsheets/D8428.xls>

languages and in Easington, in the North East, most schools have no pupils at all with ethnic minority backgrounds.

Advocacy, advice and guidance centres are already covered for UK in provision of legal advice.

Availability of free media

In Britain, laws regulate the media and charters designed to help present majority or unbiased views, regulate sensationalism, and personal identification. The press is described as free but is also subject to The Press Complaints Commission (PCC), self-regulatory code, designed to cope with the same issues. Recently Britain has appointed OFCOM, the new industry regulator, of "media scrums" and collective harassment by the press. OFCOM is the regulator for the UK communications industries, with responsibilities across television, radio, telecommunications and wireless communications services.

5.3 Labour market

5.3.1 Control over employment contract

No overall figures are available for unions not affiliated to the TUC⁵⁰. Serving members of Armed forces are not eligible to join a Union in the UK and no data is available from the UK on non-employed members. Bearing this in mind, available figures suggest 28% of the eligible workforce in Britain (main wage earners) in 2001 had membership of TUC⁵¹, Table 5.5 deconstructs this membership by sex; 53% were men⁵², and by proportion in each part of the UK; 80% of union membership in the United Kingdom derived from England. Division between the private sectors and public are fairly equitable: 47% of Union members worked in the private sector and 53% worked in the public sector. (2001 table 5.5).

⁵⁰ Trades Union Council

⁵¹ Labour Force Survey 1991-2000.

⁵² Proportion of those eligible for membership (from comparable figures compiled from 23 European countries) 1993-2003

Table 5.5 Trade Union membership in GB and the UK.

Sex	(%)	Length of service	(%)
Men	53	<1 year	9
Women	47	1-2 years	7
Age band		2-5 years	16
<20 years	1	5-10 years	17
20-29 years	13	10-20 years	29
30-39 years	28	>20 years	21
40-49 years	30	Full-time or part-time work	
>50 years	27	Full-time	82
Ethnic group		Part-time	18
White	95	Workplace size	
Asian or Asian British	2	<25 employees	17
Black or Black British	2	>25 employees	83
Chinese and other ethnic groups	1	Sector	
Highest qualification		Private	47
Degree or equivalent	23	Public	53
Other higher education	15	Country	
A-level or equivalent	23	England	80
GCSE or equivalent	18	Wales	6
Other	11	Scotland	10
No qualifications	9	Northern Ireland	3

a. Includes all employees except members of the armed forces

b. Estimates do not add up to 100 per cent due to rounding

c. This table uses the National Statistics classification of ethnic group consistent with the 2001 Census

Source: Labour Force Survey

As there is no system for registering collective agreements in the UK, making an accurate assessment of the number of collective agreements in force is not possible. Collective bargaining in the UK continues to be highly decentralised: most bargaining is at company or workplace level, with little multi-employer bargaining outside the public sector (EIRO).

Table 5.6 Union coverage of collective agreements in the UK.

	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Number of employees where there are trade union members at the work place (thousands)	11,358	11,335	11,385	11,735	12,009	11,948
Percentage of employees working where trade union members are present	49.8	48.5	47.6	48.3	48.7	48.0
Number of employees whose pay is affected by collective agreements (thousands)	8,297	8,247	8,249	8,771	8,924	8,869
Percentage of employees whose pay is affected by collective agreement	36.4	35.3	34.5	36.1	36.2	35.6

a. Includes all employees except for members of the armed forces. Those who did not report their union recognition status or were not contactable in the autumn quarter have been allocated on a pro-rata basis

b. Data for 1989 onwards are not directly comparable to earlier years due to changes in the trade union question in the Labour Force Survey

Source: Labour Force Survey

Table 5.7 Collective Bargaining Cover

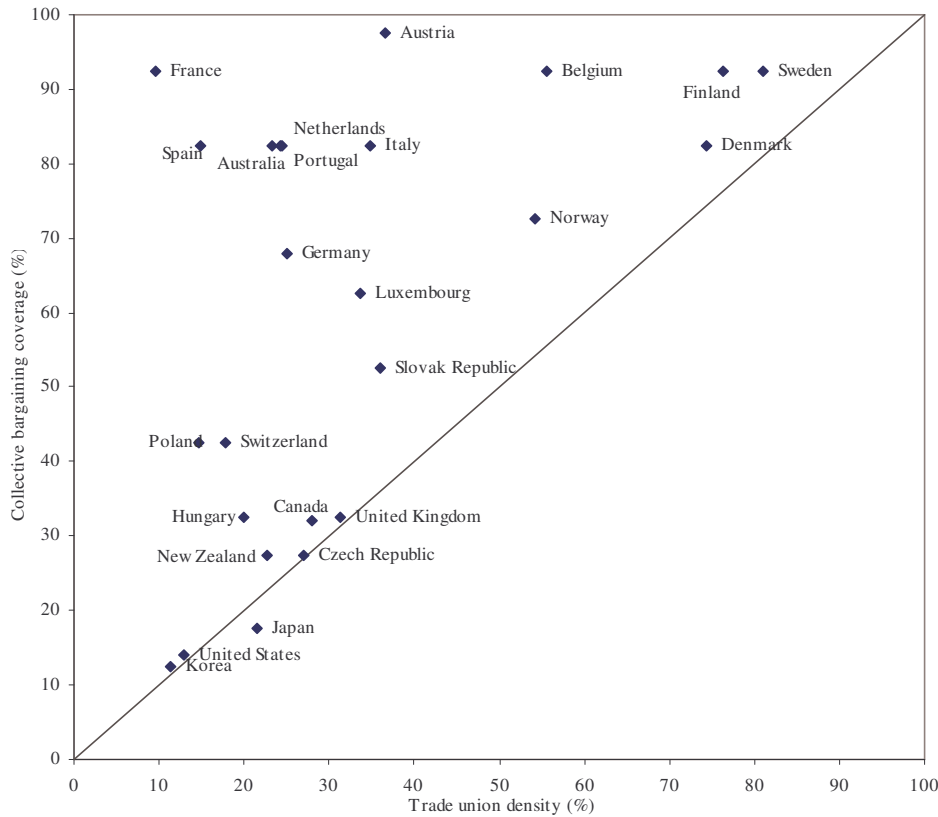
EIRO	Union density	Collective bargaining coverage
Australia	24.5	82.5
Austria	36.5	97.5
Belgium	55.6	92.5
Canada	28.1	32.0
Czech Republic	27.0	27.5
Denmark	74.4	82.5
Finland	76.2	92.5
France	9.7	92.5
Germany	25.0	68.0
Hungary	19.9	32.5
Italy	34.9	82.5
Japan	21.5	17.5
Korea	11.4	12.5
Luxembourg	33.6	62.5
Netherlands	23.2	82.5
New Zealand	22.7	27.5
Norway	54.3	72.5
Poland	14.7	42.5
Portugal	24.3	82.5
Slovak Republic	36.1	52.5
Spain	14.9	82.5
Sweden	81.1	92.5
Switzerland	17.8	42.5
United Kingdom	31.2	32.5
United States	12.8	14.0

Source: Labour Force Survey

A Labour force survey analysis by ONS in 2001 indicates the best estimates to be: 35.6% of employees were in positions where their pay was affected by collective agreements. EIRO estimates 32% and union density at 31% (2001 for UK, Table 5.6).

The pay of 73% of public sector workers and 22% of private sector workers were estimated to be affected by collective agreements[1]. Union density and coverage by collective bargaining, compared internationally, is rather low, particularly in coverage by collective bargaining, compared with the rest of Europe at around 30% (table 5.7), equating the UK with Japan and Korea, rather than the EU, probably reflecting the British political emphasis on a market economy which tends to marginalise relations with the workforce, increase inequalities and unemployment in the pursuit of economic growth, grouping the UK with capitalist nations like the US. Most of the EU countries appear around the top of figure 5.8 at around 80% coverage, although density of Trade Union varies.

Figure 5.8 collective bargaining coverage - worldwide



Source: Trade Union Membership, an analysis of data from the 2001 LFS by Keith Brook, Employment Relations Directorate, Dept. of Trade and Industry. http://www.dti.gov.uk/er/emar/artic_02.pdf

5.3.2 Prospects of job mobility

An average 17% of employees undertook work based training in 2003; 18% were female and 16% male (average of Table 5.9 which shows age differentiated data) but most were aged 16-24 years.

Table 5.9 Employees receiving job-related training in the UK (2003)

Age group	Males (%)	Females (%)
16 - 17	22.4	19.8
18 - 24	21.5	23.7
25 - 34	15.3	18.3
35 - 49	13.3	17.5
50 - 59/64	8.2	12.4

Source: Department for Education and Skills, from the Labour Force Survey

Public provided training is usually concentrated on those in the process of seeking a job and particularly for young people entering employment. Most publicly provided training in the UK is at no cost to the individual. The government supports modern Apprenticeships, a work-based form of

vocational training, by incentives to the employer, but there are a wide range of training programmes for young people both with and without employment status. Older people may claim 'jobseeker's allowance', a state benefit for those who have previously been employed, but the recipient must actively seek work and engage in skills training if appropriate. Job-centres typically refer people to the Learning and Skills Council for basic skills and other enhancements and run self-development courses mostly free of charge. Government support for training and skills is also available through grant schemes for higher or further education and there are many special university based programmes to help women back to work after having children. Many schools run supported evening courses for adults in English as a foreign language and other skills and qualifications at a lower level. Career development loans supported by the government are also available for those employed persons wishing to upgrade their skills, and in some instances grants and bursaries are available for shortage areas.

The New Deal is part of the Government's Welfare to Work scheme. Every 18-24-year-old who has been jobless for six months is offered three training options: a job with an employer, work on an environmental task force, or work in the voluntary sector. The fourth option is full time education and training at a college and help towards self-employment is also available. From table 5.10, In 2002, 8% of 16-18 year olds were in work based learning, 5% of 16-18 year olds were in Employer funded training, and 5% of 16-18 year olds took other education and training.

5.3.3 Reconciliation of work and family life

Regulations made under the Employment Act 2002 gave parents of children aged under six (or of disabled children up to 18) the right to request flexible working patterns for childcare purposes, and obliged employers to give proper consideration to the request. At the same time, new rights to adoption leave and two weeks' paid paternity leave came into force, alongside improvements in maternity leave and pay. Research published in October 2003⁵³ by the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development found that, despite apprehension in a number of quarters, the right to request flexible working had operated smoothly, and that most employers reported no significant problems in complying with the legislation. All organisations must comply to a legal minimum.

28% Of employers reported increases in requests for flexible working since the right became applicable in April 2003. Britain leads the EU when implementing flexible working practises (teleworking); 72 % of British workers are provided with the technology to work remotely, compared to 60 per cent of Germans, 55 per cent of Italians and 46 per cent of French. 1.7% of employees or self-employed were teleworking as their sole income in 2003⁵⁴.

⁵³ EIRO <http://www.eiro.eurofound.eu.int/2004/01/feature/uk0401103f.html>
<http://www.eiro.eurofound.eu.int/2003/12/inbrief/uk0312102n.html>

⁵⁴ http://www.avaya.co.uk/Corporate_Information/Press_Room/Press_Release_Archive/news.asp?ID=297 teleworking
<http://www.worcestershire.gov.uk/home/cs-environment/cs-transport/cs-transport-travel-wise/cs-transport-travel-wise-media-factflex.htm>

42 Welfare to work schemes were identified and evaluated in 1997⁵⁵. Up to 28% of participants found jobs as a result of these. 9 were training and education programmes, 13 were job search measures, 3 employer incentive schemes, 1 job creation scheme, 10 out of and in work benefits and 6, assistance with costs measures.

Table 5.10 Participation in education and training of 16-18 year olds by labour market status, England, 2001 to 2003

	2001	2002	2003
Total Education and training	75%	75%	75%
Full-time education	56%	56%	56%
Work Based Learning (WBL)	8%	8%	8%
Employer Funded Training (EFT)	5%	5%	5%
Other education and training (OET)	6%	5%	5%
Not in any education or training	25%	25%	25%
Total	100%	100%	100%

Source DFES http://www.dfes.gov.uk/rsgateway/DB/SFR/s000469/SFR18-2004tables_additional.xls

5.4 Openness (supportiveness) of systems and institutions

5.4.1 Openness and supportiveness of political system

The government occasionally seeks consultation from the electorate in the form of referenda. However, there are a variety of opinions on whether the government practices open democracy. Until recently, British government has had a culture of secrecy, embodied in the 1911 Official Secrets Act. The two White Papers, 'Better Government' and 'Right To Know', 1998, were the first legislation proposing freedom of information in UK history. However amendments to the 'Right to Know' paper have diluted its original aims, to much criticism.

In 1998 a series of government papers proposed Freedom of Information legislation that took Britain from its former culture of secrecy to a greater degree of transparency⁵⁶. The mechanisms and processes of consultation are only now becoming visible and embedded into policy processes and previous information is difficult to evaluate.

The leader of the majority party is asked by the Sovereign to form a government. About 100 of its members in the House of Commons and the House of Lords are appointed ministers; the Cabinet is chosen on the advice of the Prime Minister. The largest minority party becomes the official Opposition. The Lords are not elected, it is a conferred or hereditary title, but they may be associated with political parties. Outside Parliament, party control is exercised by the national and local organizations. In Parliament, party control is exercised by the Chief Whips who organise information and attendance at

⁵⁵ Gardiner, Karen, Bridges from Benefit to Work, 1997, Joseph Rowntree Foundation:
<http://www.jrf.org.uk/knowledge/findings/socialpolicy/sp130.asp>

⁵⁶ White Papers: "Better Government" and "Right to Know", 1998.

important debates and pass to the leaders, the opinions of the backbenchers. MPs represent the interests and questions of their local constituency and thus any person living in a local constituency could have a political issue addressed at the House of Commons as presented through their MP. This process is very limited due to time constraints and, more usually, the MP deals with issues raised by letter.

Recently, in 2004, the government has introduced a wider use of resources to better consultation for individuals through internet use and e-government.

5.4.2 Openness of economic systems

Residents groups exist in most neighbourhoods. Local councils have remits to include community engagement as part of their planning. Individual companies are more autonomous but sometimes include residents groups, especially when there are sensitive issues at stake. Deprived areas tend to have more mechanisms for community consultation as a way of increasing collective involvement in renewal and regeneration. Negative impacts, such as closures of plants, do not tend to include residents voices. If a large company is relocated where it could affect the neighbourhood or have environmental impact, attempts will be made to hold public forums for local residents to air their views or to promote understanding or support. An example of this is the widespread dissatisfaction and protest against telephone masts near schools and residential areas.

Information on Work Councils was not available; this is presently not a common UK practice.

5.5 Public space

5.5.1 Support for collective action

Not available as a national figure, information varies considerably by council and the indicator is not specific enough

There is no national database to register marches and thus no national figures for refusal of permission and figures would be difficult to compare. Britain is perceived as a country where organisations and individuals can demonstrate peacefully, however in recent years laws have been developed to ban certain gatherings, such as union demonstrations and popular protests against fuel charges. There is no permission from the police necessary for a demonstration⁵⁷. The police cannot ban a demonstration or procession except by an order from the local council.

⁵⁷ It should be held within the boundaries of Section 11-14 of the Public Order Act 1986. The police should be given 6 days notice and they may impose conditions although there is no legal requirement to inform Police.

5.5.2 Cultural enrichment

In Britain, the Arts Council, the national body administrating budgets and promotion of cultural activity, receives from the government and distributes local annual funds, managed by each council, for major public cultural activities, events and public commissions. Distributed funds are very varied and there is considerable criticism about the heavy allocation of funds to London. Competitive tenders are submitted by local government and organisations.

Self-organised cultural groups and events were not available, since self organised groups will not produce national figures.

There are very many self organised (not public funded) neighbourhood locally or self funded groups in Britain for young people and adults, ranging from political discussion groups, differentiated social clubs on the basis of work, area, family status, interest and religious affiliation. Some are nationally organised, such as the Women's Institute which exists to provide cultural, social and charitable events for women of all ages; events are advertised locally; various religious groups are funded through the churches, and also promote cultural activities such as dancing and social evenings; all areas have scouts groups for young people and youth clubs, to promote social and cultural involvement. Amateur dramatics groups exist in most neighbourhoods, and plays are performed in special reparatory theatres, separate from professional theatres and may be part funded through the arts council or local councils. Arts groups are prolific and exist everywhere independently and most towns have local amateur art exhibitions organised and funded by members. Photography also has a large following.

We found survey information from 2000 to cover the average percent of the population, attendance at cultural activities (e.g. theatre, ballet, concerts, cinema etc. see chapter 2 cultural events) Most popular entertainment is cinema (56%) with theatre next most popular (23%) and ballet least popular (6%) but percentage attendance will vary by region considerably, since most of the cultural provision is in the south of the country.

5.6 Personal relationships

5.6.1 Personal support services

There has been a major expansion in pre-school education over the last 30 years. The proportion of three and four year olds enrolled in schools in the United Kingdom rose from 26% in 1972/73 to 65% in 2002/03 for maintained schools⁵⁸.

Independent private provision is estimated at 29% but children attending public provision may also attend private provision too and thus be counted twice. This data also may include 2 year olds⁵⁸.

⁵⁸ Dept. Education and Skills, 2002; National Assembly for Wales; Scottish Executive; Northern Ireland Department of Education <http://www.statistics.gov.uk/STATBASE/Expodata/Spreadsheets/D7296.xls>

5.6.2 Support for social interaction

Inclusiveness of housing and environmental design was too wide-ranging and vague. Definitions of community buildings need to be included. Many local meetings have unconventional locations and expected norms for the use of community buildings may vary throughout the Union. In Britain, virtually all residential areas have access to a meeting place, for instance, village halls, churches etc. The information not covered here was already gathered for the Consultation process.

Community centres probably have different uses and meanings for different countries but in Britain they are used for local group based activities and non-profit organisations. Each urban centre including the smallest village usually has a community centre or meeting place provided by the local council from community funds. Towns and cities have at least one community centre in each residential sub-district. If this does not exist, churches usually have a meeting room used weekly by local hobby societies, community associations and parent and infant groups. If the community has a sizable population following a minority religion or other grouping, the council or other body will often provide a dedicated meeting room or temple. Disadvantaged communities often have more provision for drop in and social, advice and consultation centres. The majority of neighbourhoods have youth clubs, community education centres (which may be housed in school buildings in the evening).

The government has an agenda for public consultation at all levels and all councils must consult with the public nationally and locally on all issues that affect residents of areas. Opinions are sought in a variety of ways, through the internet, local meetings, and surveys.

The Neighbourhood renewal fund is a national project from central government worth £900 million over three years 2001/02 to 2003/04. At the conclusion of Spending Review 2002 (SR 2002) provision has been made for a further £975 million for 2004/05. It provides extra resources for 88 of the most deprived local authority districts. The fund boosts government departments' main spending programmes, and gets neighbourhood renewal strategies under way. The Community Empowerment Fund was launched in January 2001.

5.7 Trends and Reflection

The preceding data shows that the institutional structure for social empowerment is increasing for the poor and particularly for women. Poorer families have greater access to university education, and community life through social reform; the gap is not closed, but is narrowing. Social community institutions, such as preschool, education, neighbourhood centres, legal and social representation, and the funding and processes of social reform and centrality⁵⁹ of culture and information are in place for the majority community.

⁵⁹ All local authorities are bound to centralise and integrate their social agencies through a local Strategic Partnership, by 2004.

Additionally, the 'Right to Buy' introduced by the Thatcher Government of 1979 was particularly important in Britain, described recently as 'a policy of empowerment'⁶⁰ that the Blair Government has never revoked. It forced local councils to sell their housing stock to long-term tenants at a discounted price. It had a massive impact for the poor, it allowed them status and control over their environment as homeowners.

The conditions for individual empowerment, it seems, in British society are better than ever before.

However, it can be argued that the power of an individual to develop and achieve recognition in society is different from that affecting the structural conditions of society. It is the collective agency that enables the community to take advantage of opportunities for development. Recent government initiatives, since 1997, have intensively addressed deprived communities that are seen to have a fragmented social culture and little collective agency. Residents are involved in collective decision-making and processes for community consultation are supposed to generate interaction and social capital. The end product is not empowerment for the community but that the mechanism itself is recognised.

Britain has seen the systematic destabilisation of collective empowerment over the last 20 years. Collective empowerment through union membership is the lowest in Europe, particularly for the poor. 23% of union memberships, in 2001, were better educated public service workers. Additionally, many of the traditional recourses to collective action are now disenfranchised or weakened. Unions must often sign up to no-strike agreements; pickets or protest marches are now illegal, and solidarity between trades, where one trade supports another's collective action, is now illegal.

Despite the passing of reactionary laws such as the Criminal Justice Act and the Terrorism Act, individuals still have the right to protest⁶¹. However, a variety of public order offences can be used by the Police to break up demonstrations.

Although the processes of Open Government are in place, Government faces quite aggressive criticism through the British media. Most newspapers offer a party political stance and the more popular ones adopt the position that they present the collective view of the electorate. TV broadcasts are bound to fair representation of all parties and the Blair Government has recently successfully taken on the BBC for unfair representation, thus imposing clear limits for the first time on the mass media.

The new consultation initiatives are directed at younger people to promote better and wider consultation through the use of internet resources and e-government⁶². 'The big conversation' was the largest consultation exercise ever undertaken, a process where the electorate is supposed to be able to make their views and discussion points known to high level government through individual face to

⁶⁰ Davis, D. (2002) Full text of speech to Conservative Party Conference, Guardian 8th October.

⁶¹ The Human Rights Act, which incorporated the European Convention on Human Rights into UK law, strengthens this.

⁶² see www.cabinet-office.gov.uk/servicefirst/2000/consult/code/ConsultationCode.htm

face meetings and internet resources. The expectation that citizens would provide regulated systematic feedback has been criticised as unrealistic⁶³ and the effectiveness, purpose and outcomes are not clear, apart from promoting the idea of democratic inclusion.

These processes, however, effectively reduce the emphasis on collective representation of views through mediators such as the national press and popular media.

⁶³ The new consultation paper 'In the Service of Democracy', July 2002 radically revised Citizen Space on UKOnline.

6 Conclusion

Britain has a very diverse population, varied geography and cultural life, even within its regional boundaries. National statistics average out densely populated and rural areas and don't generally show the intensity of distribution. Statistical information on Britain has become much more widely available and comprehensive in the last few years through publication on the Internet so for most indicators there was a vast choice of different kinds of information, compiled in different ways. Greater specification of the items would aid comparability.

Most people in Britain live in the South East, which is more sophisticated, wealthier, more cosmopolitan and closer to the seat of Government. Greater London is home to a dense urban population of over 8m people and has a significantly different structural economy than most of the UK. London is therefore not entirely representative of the rest of the UK in population, culture lifestyle or attitudes.

Government intervention policies increasingly derive from USA social programmes, mainly because the UK lacks the evidence base for evaluation of outcomes⁶⁴. The transfer of social programmes to Britain is problematic, partly because of cultural differences in community management and services but also because Britain has a long list of pre-existing social reform programmes with overlapping territories, objectives and funding policies⁶⁵. A major emphasis of social reform interventions in recent years has been on the acculturation, suppression and control of antisocial youth⁶⁶. The construction of a problematic youth culture and its punitive control was recognised both at European policy level 10 years ago⁶⁷ and is still being addressed by policy analysts now⁶⁸.

In Britain, the basic infrastructure of social services ensures that security and inclusion from benefits, both in-kind and financial do much to alleviate the basic needs for people who cannot work, are disabled or vulnerable. The same institutions that provide security, social care and equity of representation take measures to include vulnerable and hard to reach groups. Economic security in the form of labour relations, however, is weak and follows the Anglo-American model with minimal employment regulation leading to a flexible market economy. Compared to North European labour partnerships Britain's job insecurity leads to greater inequality⁶⁹.

The means to advancement and equity exist, and the majority of employed people in higher quality jobs benefit from better working conditions, greater access to education and training, and equity in

⁶⁴ For instance see Carr, S. (2004) Has service user participation made a difference to social care services? London, Social Care Institute for Excellence

⁶⁵ France, A., Crow, I., Hacking, S., Hart, M. (2004) National Evaluation of Communities that Care Programmes, London, Joseph Rowntree Foundation.

⁶⁶ See for example Pitts, J. (2001) The Politics of Youth Crime, Lyme Regis, Russell Ho.

⁶⁷ European Social Policy: A way forward for the Union, EU Commission (DGV) Brussels 1994.

⁶⁸ See Pitts, J. (2001) *ibid*; Muncie, J.(1999) Youth and Crime, London, Sage.

⁶⁹ Driver, S. Martell, L. (1999) Ch.2 The New Economics in New Labour: Politics After Thatcherism, Cambridge, Polity.

employment. However, the preponderance of short term and low quality employment means most poorer families need two incomes to participate in the long term purchase of a house and other status items which probably delays a first child, but increases career prospects and pay for women, but also increases pressure on their domestic role and expectations in modern society.

People with income below the poverty line need not go hungry, are provided with housing, their children are educated, healthcare and social services are universally state funded and fairly comprehensive, although quality of provision is much poorer in pockets of deprivation and therefore most of the universal benefits confer no advantage, whilst their neighbourhood environment is less protective and less supportive.

Although there are no institutional barriers to advancement, school leavers from a poverty of circumstance are less likely to go to University, to enter jobs with training, to form lasting relationships and to conform to society norms. Young people whether or not in education, on the transition from school to adult identity are systematically forced into a further period of dependency and insecurity. Their earnings from employment are restricted and they are barred from subsistence pay, the pressure to participate in the consumer economy has few outlets for the aspiring adult, trapped in a poverty of circumstance, apart from criminality. There is great pressure to conform to society norms after education, to take advantage of earning power and reduce the burden of debt. Whether these young adults will acquire integrated values through participation in the consumerist economy alone is unknown.

The British population seems more insular than the average European; people spend more time at home than ever before, children spend less active time, typified by declining involvement in voluntary organisations, politics and community activity. British people have fewer satisfactory social relations, although they consider family values most important. Again, younger people are less involved with community and social networks. Social initiatives aim to involve young people in community and public life. They are less effective in deprived areas. The ability to make choices is limited by lack of information about options and collective support for decisions. The slow replacement of collective support with a global individualistic Western culture in British young people has been partly attributed to increased contact with America, through the popular media. We also reap the products of the change in social values generated by the Thatcher Government of the eighties "*a society that promoted greed above responsibility to others*"⁷⁰. It is obvious that youth culture is concerned with commodification, in the importance assigned to possessions: mobile phones, designer clothes, cars and gadgets, particularly in areas of deprivation, where the increasing importance of rhetoric, image and outward accoutrements reinforce notions of respect through buying power. Increasing problems amongst youth, of associated alcohol abuse, drugs, smoking and debt, have been largely met by more punitive measures than ever before.

⁷⁰ Deveney, C (2000), 'Iain Banks: underachiever, and proud of it' in *Scotland on Sunday*, Spectrum supplement, pp 16-19.

The fear of youth may be linked to insecurity for the stability of economy tomorrow. The majority population is aging, and presently Britain suffers a loss of confidence in the morality of financial institutions holding pensions that extends to authority and structural processes of government in general.

At the time of writing, a big moral panic about asylum seekers, refugees and economic migrants is replacing multiculturalism as a pivotal issue. The new focus on integration is now seen as the solution to the perceived lack of cohesion between ethnic minority communities and the majority culture. The tolerance of minority culture and diversity that characterised multiculturalist policy is now seen as increasing separatism and emphasis on cultural heritage possibly damaging to national identity.

It is yet too early to tell if social interventions to reduce deprivation and enhance inclusion for minority communities have made any difference, but it is true that polarisation of parallel societies is very apparent in cities with large ethnic minority populations. It seems likely that the new National Community Cohesion Task Force has problems ahead if policies to enforce integration emerge. Minority communities are well known to have cohesive internal relations, and the indigenous white communities have more problems.

In terms of integration into Europe, the model New Labour economy has been criticised⁷¹ for perpetuating the competitive individualism of USA and global influences than the more stable capitalism of North Europe. Meanwhile Britain has further to go to integrate its own diverse communities under one flag.

Despite the value shift in the 1980s towards individualism and materialism, Britain doesn't share a global value system with America. Technically, Labour promotes collectivism and community in Britain remains an active component of society. The transfer of USA social policy does not take into account the enduring influence of collective responsibility in British policy, undermined but still present. European policy guidelines go some way towards addressing these issues but they are not clear cut and British policy on social reform appears to be schizophrenically attempting to introduce both an environment where meritocracy can flourish, so that the individual is responsible for their own advancement, as well as a social democratic model of collective responsibility and community action in partnership with social agency. The USA has nothing like our intervention overload, and against the backdrop of massive social change in many domains, overlapping programmes with different aims, changes of policy and direction as well as introduction of new initiatives, under different funding streams, the impossibility of finding stable comparison areas, it is impossible to disentangle the effect of any one programme.

Meanwhile, the Government seem to have embarked on a position of more centralised authority, fragmenting local systems even more. Efforts to change this have been made through centralising local agencies in partnership agreements, thus effectively limiting the collective empowerment of

⁷¹ Hutton, W. (1995) *The State We're In*, (Chapter 10) London, Cape.

communities through social agencies⁷². Simultaneously, the Blair Government has been successful in undermining the power base of the House of Lords, the Civil Service, of the major media to criticise and obstruct. Additionally, its consultation exercises directly appeal to the individual electorate through Internet resources, effectively competing with the collective representation of the people, offered by the tabloid press, but more probably represent be a discrete community of younger people with unrepresentative technical mobility⁷³.

6.1 The Social Quality framework

The framework for social quality (ENIQ) offers a useful comparative structure to balance UK domains against a standardised European collective representation of what it is that defines and shapes social values in each country.

In terms of Socio-economic Security, Britain appears to be able to offer the institutions of social need and security relatively well in comparison with most of Europe. People in difficult circumstances can live securely within their communities with the basic means of support covered and processes exist to include hard to reach and vulnerable groups.

In terms of inclusion of minorities, and vulnerable groups, Britain also fares relatively well. The processes of support exist, but there is evidence that collective support from the community is needed to increase awareness and participation of minorities, disabled people and excluded groups.

Social cohesion is difficult to judge because of sudden policy changes in the wake of recent developments concerning the identification of the minority community with British interests. The findings of polarisation of communities do not indicate good integration, but that has not been the aim of previous policy.

Social empowerment has not been a stated policy of British Government and it seems that the individualistic model is replacing the social democratic collective support of community. This seems to bode ill for community cohesion and indicates an incoherent policy direction.

⁷² Power relations have been specifically identified as a barrier to user participation in decisions, particularly within established mainstream structures and formal consultation mechanisms. Carr, S. (2004) Has service user participation made a difference to social care services? Social Care Institute for Excellence

⁷³ Idea by McGavock, K. (2000) Risking Disconnection?: Mobility, Place and Education today, Paper presented at the European Conference on Educational Research, Edinburgh, 20-23 September 2000 <http://www.leeds.ac.uk/educol/>

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Annex Social Quality indicators

Indicators of Socio-economic Security

Domains	Sub-domains	Indicators	
Financial resources	Income sufficiency	1. Part of household income spent on health, clothing, food and housing (in the lower and median household incomes)	
	Income security	2. How do certain biographical events affect the risk of poverty on household level. 3. Proportion of total population living in households receiving entitlement transfers (means-tested, cash and in-kind transfers) that allow them to live above EU poverty level	
Housing and environment	Housing security	4. Proportion of people who have certainty of keeping their home 5. Proportion of hidden families (i.e. several families within the same household)	
		Housing conditions	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	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 and care	Health services	11. Number of medical doctors per 10.000 inhabitants 12. Average distance to hospital, measure in minutes, not in meters 13. Average response time of medical ambulance	
	Care services	14. Average number of hours spent on care differentiated by paid and unpaid	
	Work	Employment security	15. Length of notice before employer can change terms and conditions of labour relation/contract 16. Length of notice before termination of labour contract 17. proportion employed workforce with temporary, non permanent, job contract 18. Proportion of workforce that is illegal
Working conditions			19. Number of employees that reduced work time because of interruption (parental leave, medical assistance of relative, palliative leave) as a proportion of the employees who are entitled to these kinds of work time reductions 20. Number of accidents (fatal / non-fatal) at work per 100.000 employed persons (if possible: per sector) 21. Number of hours a full-time employee typically works a week (actual working week)
		Education	Security of education
Quality of education			24. Proportion of students who, within a year of leaving school with or without certificate, are able to find employment

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

Indicators of Social Cohesion

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

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

Indicators of Social Inclusion

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

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

Indicators of Social Empowerment

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

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

Statistical Annex

Table 2.7 Persons per room and mean household size by tenure

Households	Tenure – owners (%)			Social sector tenants (%)			Private renters (%)			Total (%)
	Owned outright	With mortgage	All owners	Council†	Housing Ass.n	Social sector	Unfurnished private**	Furnished private	Private renters††	
Persons per room*										
Under 0.5	78	48	61	51	51	51	52	35	48	57
0.5 to 0.65	16	27	23	23	24	23	25	30	26	23
0.66 to 0.99	5	21	14	17	18	17	18	25	20	16
1	0	3	2	6	5	6	4	8	5	3
Over 1	0	1	1	3	2	2	1	2	1	1
Weighted base (000's) =100%	7,027	9,871	16,898	3,404	1,6	5,004	1,878	728	2,606	24,508
Unweighted sample	2612	3474	6086	1138	542	1680	633	214	847	8613
Mean persons per room	0.35	0.49	0.43	0.5	0.49	0.5	0.46	0.54	0.49	0.45
Mean household size	1.91	2.71	2.38	2.19	2.07	2.15	2.09	2.25	2.13	2.31

* Boxed figures indicate median density of occupation

† Council includes local authorities, New Towns and Scottish Homes from 1996

** Unfurnished includes the answer "partly furnished"

†† From 1996 all tenants whose accommodation goes with the job of someone in the household have been allocated to "rented privately". Squatters are also included in the privately rented category.

Source: ONS

Table 2.9 Recorded crimes¹: by offence group, 2002/2003

	Violence against the person	Sexual offences	Burglary	Robbery	Theft and handling stolen goods	Theft of vehicles	Theft from vehicles	Fraud and forgery	Criminal damage	Drug offences	Other	Total
England and Wales ²	1,603	93	1,707	207	4,542	609	1,265	634	2,13	271	139	11,327
North East	1,556	89	1,797	126	4,229	551	1,118	410	2,816	358	162	11,543
North West	1,538	88	2,093	236	4,44	753	1,221	406	2,59	266	152	11,81
Yorkshire and the Humber	1,366	91	2,879	186	5,463	873	1,694	644	2,595	240	133	13,597
East Midlands	1,579	96	2,077	159	4,81	559	1,441	645	2,164	189	166	11,884
West Midlands	1,851	99	1,813	232	4,257	640	1,201	749	2,095	264	185	11,546
East	1,279	77	1,217	91	3,706	419	1,064	552	1,892	167	104	9,084
London	2,5	146	1,584	592	6,538	817	1,605	1,167	2,014	475	160	15,175
South East	1,155	75	1,162	82	3,64	395	1,001	491	1,707	208	111	8,631
South West	1,353	85	1,382	112	3,928	435	1,153	585	1,72	211	97	9,473
England	1,59	95	1,733	217	4,589	609	1,276	646	2,121	266	139	11,396
Wales	1,831	70	1,269	47	3,744	614	1,07	420	2,276	354	145	10,156
Scotland ³	420	92	867	98	3,338	445	800	396	1,889	799	551	8,448
Northern Ireland ⁴	1,684	87	1,105	148	2,481	498	423	521	2,165	114	131	8,435

¹ Recorded crime statistics broadly cover the more serious offences

³ Scottish data refer to 2002

⁴ Figures for Scotland, Northern Ireland, England and Wales are not comparable, because of the differences in the legal systems, recording practises and classifications.

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

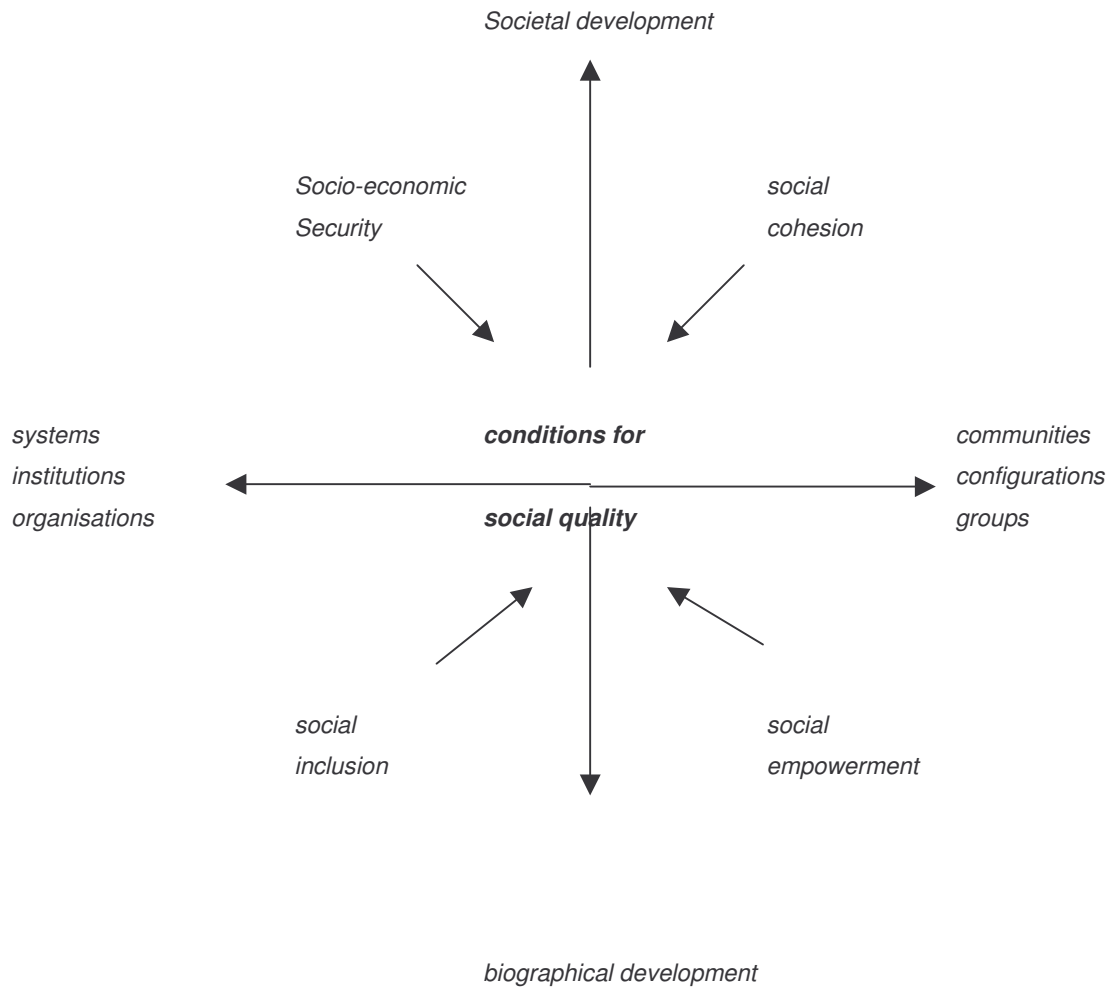
A fundamental problem of any comprehensive theoretical approach is to grasp the structural and dialectical interdependence of what Emile Durkheim called 'social facts'. The reason for mentioning Durkheim here is that in his definition of 'social facts' he explicitly showed the supposed independence of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

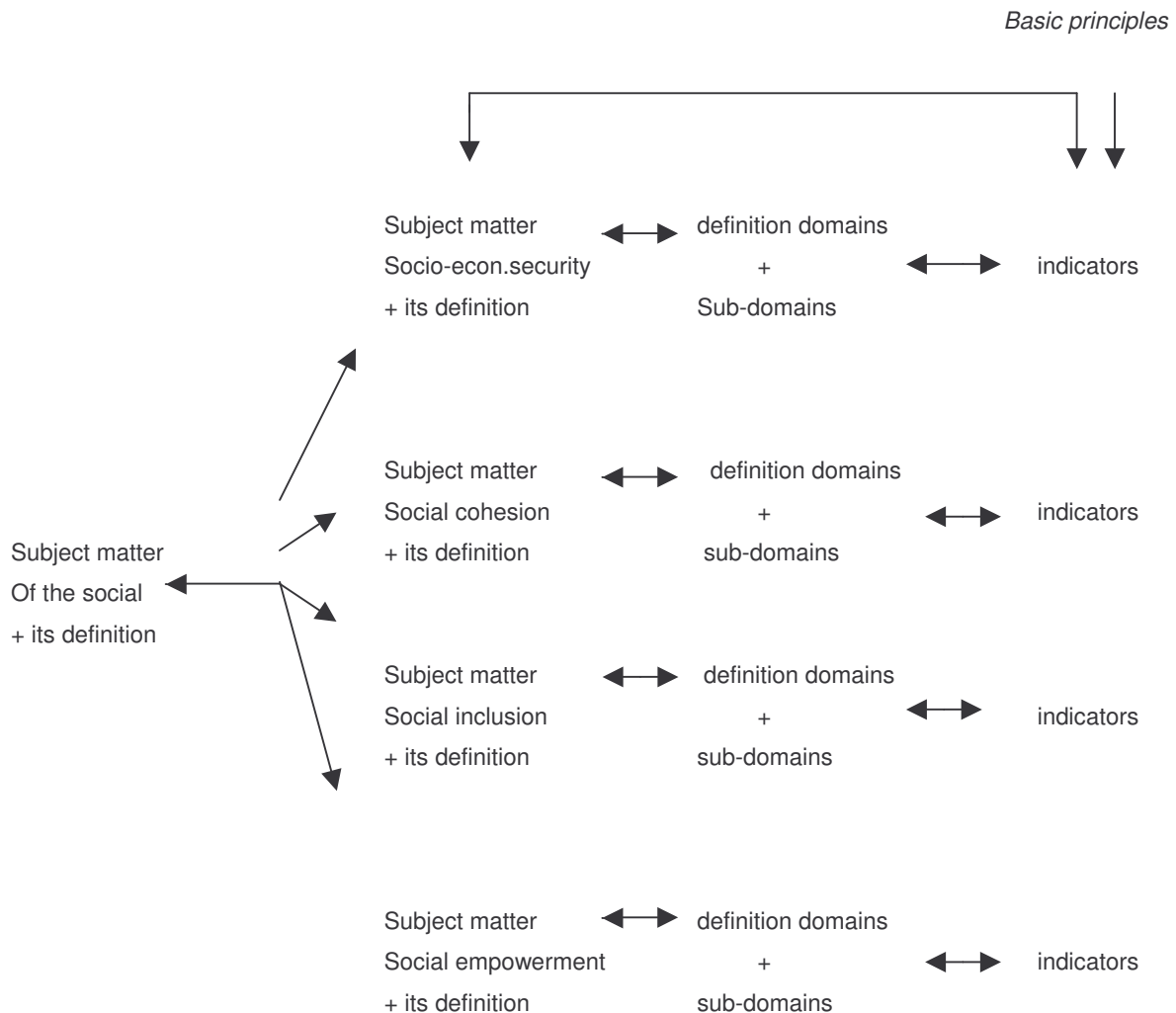
This theme is presented for the first time in the Foundation's second book of January 2001 and will be elaborated in the Foundation's third book. The relationship between the constitutional factors and the conditional factors – theoretically and practically – will be analysed. For the European Network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

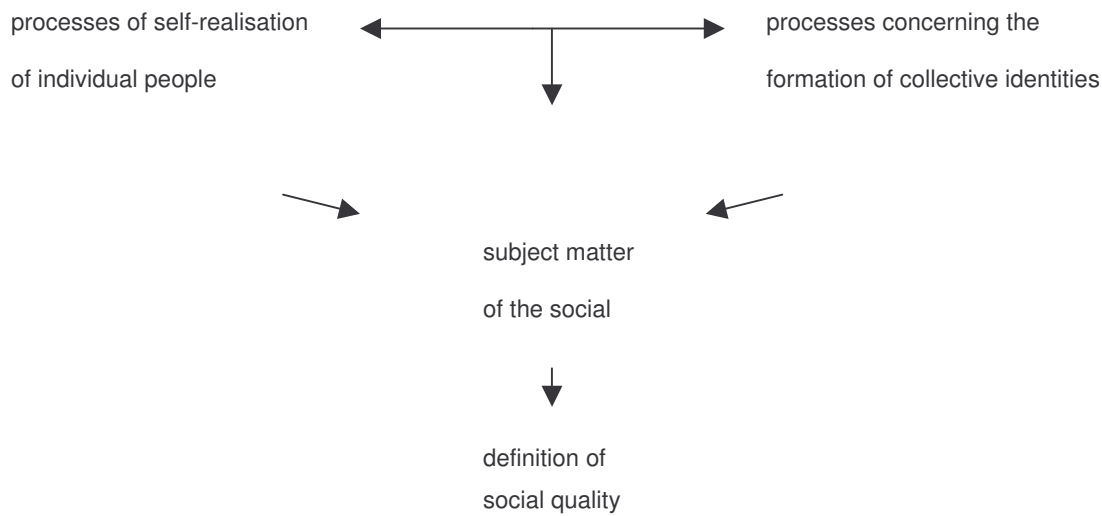


4.2 The definitions of the four conditional factors

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.

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