The social situation in the European Union

2000

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European Commission

Directorate-General for
Employment and Social Affairs
Unit E.1

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FOREWORD

This Report presents a broad description of the social situation of Europe based upon harmonised information. This allows reliable, comparative analyses of different social developments across Member States to be made which not only promotes and widens the European social policy debate, but acknowledges the importance of the social dimension in the future vision of Europe.

This is the first annual Report on the Social Situation, which contributes to the process of monitoring developments in the social field across Member States and serves as a complementary analysis to current publications such as the Employment Report and the Social Protection Report. The report provides an holistic view of population and social conditions as a background to social policy development and establishes links with Community policies in the social field such as the European Employment Strategy.

This year, the Report's focus is the evolving demand for social support and social services and it considers the potential in meeting this demand.

The first section of this Report presents a set of harmonised social indicators ranging from demographic related issues to employment and income conditions for each Member State. The indicators provide an overview of the social situation. In addition, they serve as a powerful tool for the monitoring of social developments over time.

This is followed in section two by a more in-depth look at the main social developments. Analysis and research is presented on four issues which are closely related to societal development - population, living conditions, income and social participation. These presentations provide the reader with background information for the discussion of evolving social needs of tomorrow.

Societal development over the last few decades has been remarkable compared to any previous time period. Demographic and social trends, technological progress, and the increased global competition are posing both challenges and opportunities to the European Union.

On the one hand, the analysis of social trends indicates an increasing social demand over the coming years. However, there also appears to be potential for increasing supply. This will require well-informed policy decisions to be made at the right time. In addition, the encouraging trends in social participation need to be recognised as an opportunity for developing the response to the needs of tomorrow.

We believe, that this first Report of the Social Situation in the European Union will provide valuable material for the developing debate on growth, competitiveness, employment and sustainable development.

Ms. A. Diamantopoulou
Commissionner for Employment and Social affairs

Mr. P. Solbes Mira
Commissionner Economic and monetary affairs - responsible for Eurostat

SECTION 1

AREAS OF SOCIAL POLICY CONCERN - STATISTICAL PORTRAITS

Areas of social policy concern - statistical portraits

Section One presents a series of statistical portraits that address a range of social policy concerns for the European Union. Each statistical portrait is presented in the form of tables, graphs and commentary. The focus is largely but not exclusively on the related key indicator (see table below). In many cases, contextual and other relevant data and analysis are also included. Additional statistical information can be found in Section Four.

A wide range of legislative and policy papers (Treaty of Amsterdam, Employment Guidelines, etc) were used to identify the areas of social policy concern. This led to the selection of the fifteen key indicators[1]. One major constraint is that of data availability - only those areas for which data exist at EU level have been included. The set of indicators may thus be modified in the future either as a result of changing policy concerns and/or new data becoming available.

	Statistical Portrait	Corresponding key indicator
1	Ageing of the population	Old age dependency ratio
2	Education outcomes	Percentage of the population aged 18-24 having left education with low qualifications
3	Employment	Employment rate of 15-64 year olds
4	Ageing in employment	Employment rate of 55-64 year olds
5	Unemployment	Unemployment rate
6	Youth unemployment	Youth unemployment/population ratio
7	Long-term unemployment	Long-term unemployment rate
8	Social protection expenditure	Social protection expenditure as a percentage of GDP
9	Old age benefits	Old age/survivors benefits as a percentage of total social benefits
10	Income distribution	Income distribution ratio (S80/S20)
11	Low-income households	Percentage of the population with an income less than 60% of the national median
12	Female employment	Female employment rate of 15-64 year olds
13	Earnings of men and women	Monthly earnings of women as a percentage of men's
14	Life and health expectancies	Life expectancy (without disability) at birth
15	Accidents at work	Incidence rate of working accidents

[1] A pocketbook Living conditions in Europe containing a larger array of social statistics and indicators is published annually by Eurostat

Symbols and abbreviations

*	provisional/estimated data or low reliability due to small number of observations
:	not available
-	nil
.	not applicable or data not statistically significant
0	less than half the unit used
PPS	Purchasing Power Standard
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
EU-15	European Union of Fifteen
B	Belgium
DK	Denmark
D	Germany
EL	Greece
E	Spain
F	France
IRL	Ireland
I	Italy
L	Luxembourg
NL	Netherlands
A	Austria
P	Portugal
FIN	Finland
S	Sweden
UK	United Kingdom

AGEING OF THE POPULATION

In 1998, the number of persons aged 65 and over in the EU corresponded to 24% of what is considered to be the working age population (15-64 year olds). By 2010, this ratio is expected to rise to 27%. Italy will have the highest ratio (31%).

375 million inhabitants in the Union

The population of the European Union stood at 375 million on 1 January 1999. It has the third largest population in the world after China (1241 million) and India (992 million), but ahead of the United States (272 million) and Japan (126 million). The population of the potential members of the Union, i.e. the twelve countries who are in the process of membership negotiations, is around 106 million. Germany has the largest population. Its 82 million inhabitants make up 22% of the Union's population while the United Kingdom, France and Italy each account for around 15% of the total.

The EU population is ageing

Two driving forces are behind the ageing of the population: a fall in fertility and a fall in mortality. The number of babies born in the EU fell in 1998 to around 4 million - a new post-war low. Indeed, the total fertility rate for the EU has fallen from 2.59 in 1960 to 1.45 in 1998. Countries with the highest fertility at the beginning of the 1980s (Greece, Spain, Ireland and Portugal) are those where it has since fallen most (by 33-48%). Today, the total fertility rate is lowest in Spain (1.15) and Italy (1.19). Despite a sharp decrease, Ireland continues to record the highest rate (1.94). In contrast, the rate in Sweden, previously among the highest in the Union, continued its sharp fall from 1.73 in 1995 to 1.51 in 1998. Meanwhile, life expectancy has increased over the last 50 years by about 10 years in total. See *Life and Health expectancies* (1.14).

Population growth fastest among the 'very old'

Between 1960 and the present day, the proportion of older people (65 years and over) in the population has risen from 11% to 16%. All the signs are that this trend will continue well into the new century. By 2010, there will be twice as many older persons (69 million) as in 1960 (34 million). Even in the next ten years, the number of persons aged 65 and over will rise by around 13% in EU-15. Germany (24%) is likely to witness the largest increase.

The growth of the population over 80 years of age has been even more pronounced. In the course of this decade, numbers of 'very old' people will rise by 36%. Belgium, Greece, France, Italy and Luxembourg are expected to experience the largest increases (around 50%). In sharp contrast, growth will be negligible in Denmark and Sweden.

Dwindling 'demographic' support for older citizens

In 1998, the EU-15 population aged 65 and over corresponded to 24% of what is considered to be the working age population (15-64 years). From a demographic point of view, Ireland appears to be in the best position to support its older citizens (17%). Throughout the Union, this ratio will have grown by 2010, particularly in Italy where it is expected to climb to 31%. In interpreting these data, account should be taken of the differences between Member States in actual working ages.

Around 45% of the 'very old' live alone

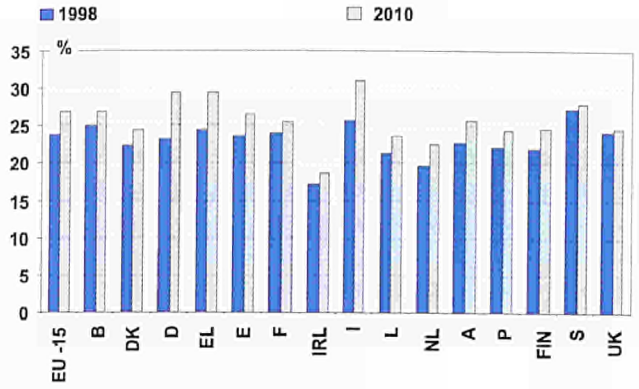
The majority of the Union's elderly population (aged 65 and over) either live alone (32%) or with their partner (51%). A further 13% live with their children (or other relatives/friends). Only 4% live in a home or institution. It is clear however that demand for housing and care changes considerably as people grow older. As a result, the elderly should not be regarded as a single age-group. While the majority (60%) of those aged 65-79 are still living as couples, only 26% of the 'very old' (aged 80 and over) are living solely with a partner. The 'very old' have a greater tendency to live alone (45%), in collective households (10%) or with their children (19%). There are marked differences between countries, particularly regarding the proportion of 'very old' people living with their children (or other relatives/friends): 40% or more have this form of potential support in Spain and Portugal compared with less than 5% in Denmark and Sweden.

Key indicator

Old age dependency ratio (1)	EU15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
1998	24	25	22	23	24	24	24	17	26	21	20	23	22	22	27	24
2010	27	27	24	29	29	26	25	19	31	23	23	26	24	25	28	25

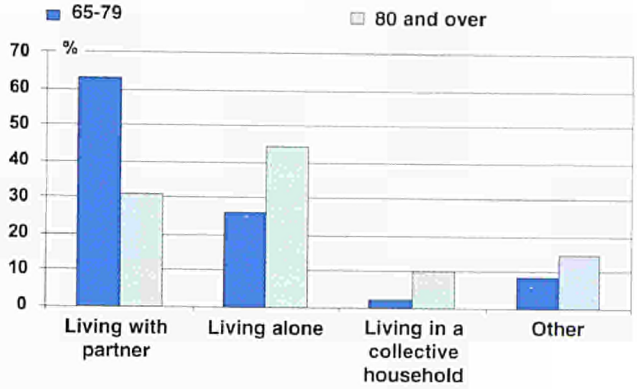
(1) Population aged 65 and over as a percentage of the working age population (15-64)
Source : Eurostat - Demographic Statistics

Old age dependency ratio (1), 1998 and 2010



Source : Eurostat - Demographic Statistics

Population by household situation and age EU-15, 1995



Source : Eurostat - 1995-based (baseline) household scenarios

Policy context

In its Communication "Towards a Europe for all ages - Promoting Prosperity and Intergenerational Solidarity" (COM 1999 221 final), the Commission concluded that "the very magnitude of the demographic changes at the turn of the 21st century provides the European Union with an opportunity and a need to change outmoded practices in relation to older persons. Both within labour markets and after retirement, there is the potential to facilitate the making of greater contributions from people in the second half of their lives. The capacities of older people represent a great reservoir of resources, which so far has been insufficiently recognised and mobilised. Appropriate health and care policies and services can prevent, postpone and minimise dependency in old age. Furthermore, the demand for these services will open up new job opportunities." The Commission will explore the possibilities for new, horizontal Community action programmes based on articles 13, 129 and 137 of the Amsterdam Treaty for those groups of people affected by discrimination, unemployment or social exclusion such as older people. Furthermore under Article 166 of the Treaty, the European Union's fifth framework programme for Community research will mobilise Europe's research resources in order to improve the quality of life, autonomy and social integration of older people.

Methodological notes

Source: Eurostat - Demographic Statistics. 1995-based (baseline) demographic and household scenarios.

The old age dependency ratio shows the population aged 65 and over as a percentage of the working age population 15-64. The baseline population scenario has been used for 2010 data.

Further reading

- "Demographic statistics", 1998 and 1999 editions. Eurostat.
- Statistics in Focus (Population and social conditions): "First results of the demographic data collection for 1998 in Europe", No.12/1999. "Slightly fewer births and deaths in 1998", No.1/1999. Eurostat.
- "Demographic report 1997", European Commission, Employment and Social Affairs DG.
- "Towards a Europe for all ages - promoting prosperity and intergenerational solidarity", COM(99)221 final. 1999.

Links to other areas of policy concern

Ageing in employment (1.4), Old age benefits (1.9), Life and health expectancies (1.14).

EDUCATION OUTCOMES

Today's younger generation is better educated than before. However, 22% of persons aged 18-24 have left the education system with only lower secondary education at best.

Younger generation is better qualified

Attainment levels of the population have improved significantly over the last thirty years. By comparing those currently leaving the education system with older generations, it is possible to monitor the trends over a long time-period. In 1997, 59% of persons aged 55-64 in EU-15 had completed only lower secondary education. This proportion had fallen to 32% among the younger age group 25-34. Greece, Spain, Italy and Portugal have the lowest levels of educational attainment but have witnessed the most significant increases in the last three decades. In these countries, the proportion of the youngest generation having completed at least upper secondary education is more than twice that of the oldest generation. As a result, the gap in attainment levels between the Member States is narrowing.

More than one in five 'school leavers' are low qualified

Although education levels continue to improve, up to 22% of 18-24 year-olds have left the education system without completing a qualification beyond lower secondary schooling (the equivalent of compulsory schooling in many cases).
To interpret this figure correctly, it is important to look at the activity status of 18-24 year-olds. EU-wide, 60% have left the education system and are either in employment, unemployed or inactive. The remaining 40% are still in education and it can be assumed that the majority will attain at least an upper secondary qualification (GCE 'A' levels, Baccalauréat, Abitur or equivalent) in the near future. The picture across the Union is far from homogeneous but divergences can largely be explained by the different proportions of young people still in education, e.g., countries such as Spain, Italy, Portugal and the United Kingdom with a relatively large share of low-qualified 18-24 year-olds also have a comparatively small proportion of young people still studying. In contrast, Germany and Denmark, with more than two-thirds of this age-group in education, have among the lowest share of low-qualified young people.

Higher qualifications tend to reduce the risk of unemployment...

In general, higher education qualifications seem to reduce, albeit to differing degrees, the chances of unemployment in all Member States. In EU-15, the unemployment rate of persons with a tertiary education qualification stood at 6% in 1997 compared with 10% for persons who had completed at best upper secondary education and 14% among those who had not gone beyond compulsory schooling.

... and increase earnings ...

Data show also that earnings are more likely to be higher for better qualified people. In all Member States, full-time employees with tertiary education earn more on average than those who had completed upper secondary school. The difference is over 50% in Germany, France and Austria and 100% in Portugal. The earnings difference between those with upper secondary and those with lower secondary education was rather less (10-20%) in most countries and, negligible in Greece, France, Ireland and Finland.

... and lead to more training opportunities at work

It is widely recognised that people in the labour force have to be equipped with the necessary skills to adapt in a labour market where the expectation of a "job for life" has become increasingly outdated. Training of employees aged 30 and over is particularly prevalent in the Nordic countries, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom. For all countries, the higher the educational level of adults in employment, the greater the training opportunities afforded to them. See also Ageing in Employment (1.4).

Policy context

Treaty of Amsterdam (Title XI, Chapter 3, Art.149(1): "The Community shall contribute to the development of quality education by encouraging cooperation between Member States and, if necessary, by supporting and supplementing their action ..." and Art.150(1): "The Community shall implement a vocational training policy which shall support and supplement the action of the Member States ...".

The 2000 Employment Guidelines state that "Employment prospects are poor for young people who leave the school system without having acquired the aptitudes required for entering the job market." Member States will therefore (Guideline No.7) "improve the quality of their school systems in order to reduce substantially the number of young people who drop out of the school system early. Particular attention should also be given to young people with learning difficulties" and make sure (Guideline No.8) "they equip young people with greater ability to adapt to technological and economic changes and with skills relevant to the labour market. Member States will give particular attention to the development and modernisation of their apprenticeship and vocational training systems, where appropriate in cooperation with the social partners, to developing appropriate training for the acquisition of computer literacy and skills by students and teachers as well as to equipping schools with computer equipment and facilitating student access to the Internet by the end of 2002."

Methodological notes

Source: Eurostat - European Union Labour Force Survey (LFS) and Structure of Earnings Statistics.

The levels of education are defined according to ISCED (International Standard Classification of Education). Less than upper secondary corresponds to ISCED 0-2, upper secondary level to ISCED 3 and tertiary education to ISCED 5-7. The key indicator shows the number of persons aged 18-24 who have left the education system with low qualifications as a proportion of the total number of persons aged 18-24.

Further reading

- "Education across the European Union - Statistics and Indicators 1998". Eurostat.
- "Key data on education in Europe", 1999/2000. European Commission, Education and Culture DG / Eurostat.
- "Youth in the European Union. From Education to Working Life", 1997. Eurostat.
- "Living conditions in Europe, statistical pocketbook", 1999 edition. Eurostat.

Links to other areas of policy concern

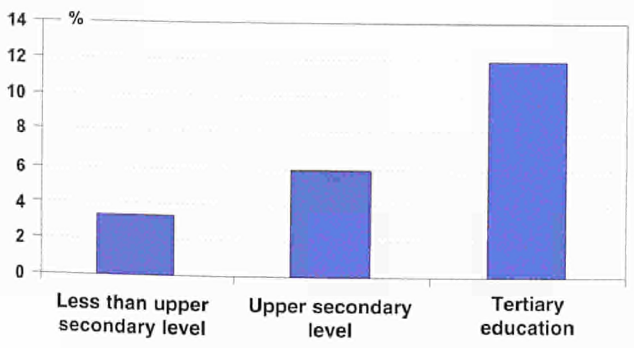
Employment (1.3), Unemployment (1.5), Youth unemployment (1.6), Long-term unemployment (1.7).

Key indicator

	EU15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
Percentage of 18-24 year-olds not in education and with low qualifications																
1997	22	13	11	13	20	30	14	19	30	31	16	11	41	8	14	30
Population aged 18-24 by activity status, 1997																
In education	40	52	68	68	21	17	49	28	35	42	52	56	30	46	53	24
Not in education	60	48	32	32	79	83	51	72	65	58	48	45	70	54	48	76

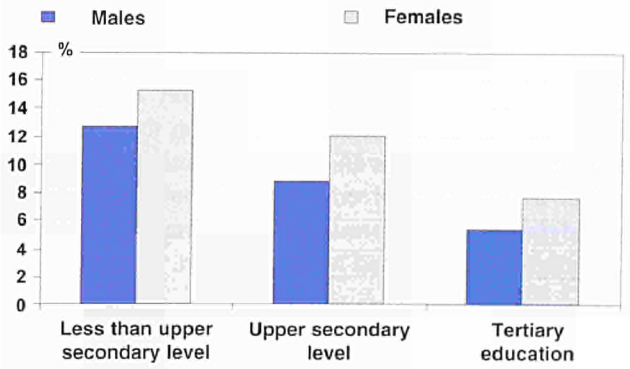
Source : Eurostat - European Union Labour Force Survey

Participation of employees (aged 30 and over) in education and training by educational level, EU-15, 1997



Source : Eurostat - European Union Labour Force Survey

Unemployment rates by sex and educational level, EU-15, 1997



Source : Eurostat - European Union Labour Force Survey

EMPLOYMENT

In 1998, 151 million people were in employment in the Union, a rise of more than 3 million since 1995. The employment rate for the population aged 15-64 stood at 61.0%.

EU labour force of 165 million people

EU-wide, 68.0% of the population aged 15-64 are economically active (i.e., either in employment or seeking employment). The rate for males (77.8%) is considerably higher than that of females (58.2%) although the gap is slowly narrowing.

The employment rate for the population aged 15-64 ranges from 49.7% in Spain to 75.3% in Denmark with an EU average of 61.0%. This is considerably lower than the US (73%) and Japan (70%). The overall figure for males is 70.8% compared with 51.2% for females.

Modest employment growth

In 1998, 151 million people were in employment in the Union, a rise of more than 3 million since 1995. This period, which followed a few years of recession, witnessed substantial employment growth (10-16%) in Spain, Ireland and Luxembourg. Germany, on the other hand, has seen the number of people in work fall by 2.6%. Austria and Sweden also experienced a slight drop in employment. During this period 1995-1998, jobs in services increased in all Member States apart from Portugal and Sweden. In contrast, job losses were recorded in the agricultural sector throughout the Union. Industry presents a mixed picture with substantial gains in Ireland, Portugal and Finland against a considerable reduction in Germany, Luxembourg and Austria.

Numbers working part-time continue to rise

The share of part-time employment has increased from 14% of all employment in 1990 to 17% in 1998. More than 20% of persons in employment in Denmark, Sweden, and the United Kingdom and almost 40% in the Netherlands are working part-time. In 1998, 13% of EU-15 employees had a fixed-term contract. Spain has by far the highest proportion (33%).

EU-wide, around 15% of persons in employment are self-employed. The figures are significantly higher in the southern Member States but it is important to bear in mind the sizeable agricultural communities in these countries.

Longest working hours in the United Kingdom

Full-time employees in EU-15 work for an average of 40 hours per week. The picture is relatively homogeneous throughout the Union with the exception of the United Kingdom (44 hours). EU-wide, one in five full-time employees work more than the average of 40 hours per week. Just under 10% work for 48 hours or more per week although no Member State, other than the United Kingdom (23%), reaches double-figures.

Policy context

The Treaty of Amsterdam adopted in May 1999 takes an important step in committing the Union itself to a high level of employment as an explicit objective: "The objective of a high level of employment shall be taken into consideration in the formulation and implementation of Community Policies and activities" (Art.127(2)).

Following the adoption of the Amsterdam Treaty, it was agreed at the Luxembourg Jobs Summit in November 1997 that this strategy should be built on four main pillars: employability, entrepreneurship, adaptability and equal opportunities. Every year, a set of Guidelines are adopted for each of the pillars, which set out a number of specific targets for Member States to achieve in their employment policies. The Employment Guidelines are then transposed into concrete and administrative measures by each Member State, through their National Action Plans for Employment (NAPs).

The Commission Communication of 21 April 1999 on Community policies in support of employment states that economic reform in the EU should continue and deepen to ensure a dynamic, innovative internal market; that would promote the right conditions for long-term economic expansion, helping to create more jobs.

Methodological notes

Source: Eurostat - Benchmark series / European Union Labour Force Survey (LFS).

Activity rates represent the active population aged 15-64 as a percentage of the population of the same age. The active population (or labour force) is defined as the sum of persons in employment and unemployed persons. Employment rates represent persons in employment aged 15-64 as a percentage of the population of the same age. Persons in employment are those who during the reference week (of the Labour Force Survey) did any work for pay or profit for at least one hour or were not working but had jobs from which they were temporarily absent. Family workers are included. The classification by part-time or full-time job depends on a direct question in the LFS, except for Austria and the Netherlands where it depends on a threshold on the basis of the number of hours usually worked.

Further reading

- "Labour Force Survey Results 1998", Eurostat.
- Statistics in Focus (Population and social conditions):"Labour Force Survey Principal Results 1998", No.11/1999. Eurostat.
- "Employment in Europe 1999", European Commission, Employment and Social Affairs DG.
- "Living conditions in Europe, statistical pocketbook", 1999 edition. Eurostat.

Links to other areas of policy concern

Education outcomes (1.2), Ageing in employment (1.4), Unemployment (1.5), Female employment (1.12)

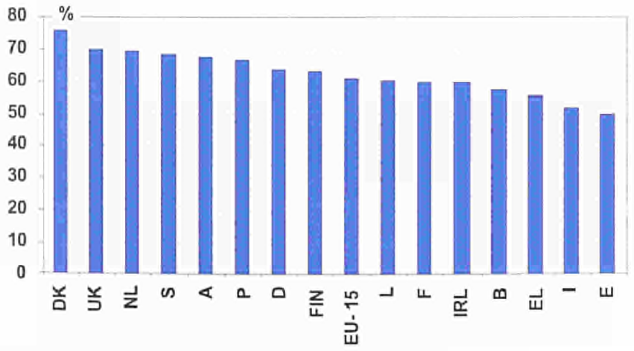
Key indicator

Employment rate, 15-64 years

	EU15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
1998	61.0	57.3	75.3	63.7	55.6	49.7	59.9	59.7	51.8	60.2	69.4	67.4	66.8	63.4	68.6	70.2
Trend in employment, 1995-1998																
1998 (millions)	151.0	3.9	2.8	34.0	3.9	13.2	22.7	1.5	20.2	0.2	7.2	3.7	4.6	2.2	4.0	26.9
1995 (millions)	147.7	3.8	2.6	34.9	3.8	12.0	22.2	1.3	19.9	0.2	6.7	3.8	4.4	2.1	4.0	25.9
1998-1995 (change in millions)	3.3	0.1	0.2	-0.9	0.1	1.2	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.0	0.5	0.0	0.2	0.2	0.0	0.9
1998/1995 (% change)	2.2	1.7	6.2	-2.6	2.6	9.7	1.9	16.3	1.1	10.6	7.9	-0.6	5.2	7.5	-0.2	3.7

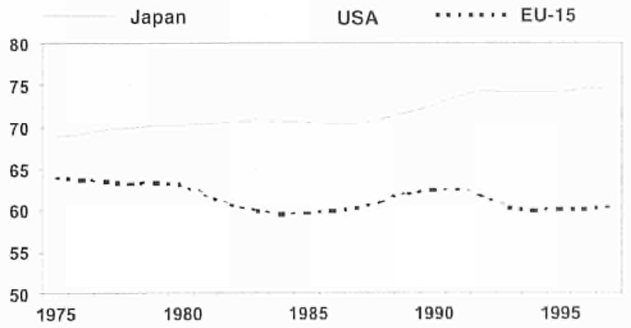
Source : Eurostat - European Union Labour Force Survey and Benchmark series.

Employment rates (15-64 years), 1998



Source : Eurostat - European Union Labour Force Survey

Employment rates for EU-15, US and Japan, 1975-1998



Source : Eurostat - Benchmark series. European Union Labour Force Survey US and Japan Labour Force Statistics

AGEING IN EMPLOYMENT

Over the last two decades, labour force participation of older people, particularly those aged 60-64, has decreased steadily in nearly all Member States. The decline may be the result of a combination of job shortages, lower mobility and inadequate skills rather than the wish to retire early. In 1998, 36.3% of the population aged 55-64 were in employment.

Impact of population ageing on employment

Population ageing will have a major impact on the labour market with the arrival of the first baby-boomer at the age of retirement. In most Member States, the working age population (15-64 years) will stop increasing before 2012. This demographic decline will last several decades. All Member States are concerned although the intensity and timing of the trend vary at both national and regional level. The effect on the labour supply and the economy of a decline in the working age population could be offset if, among other things, the employment rate were to increase among those of working age, including older workers.

15 million people in employment are aged 55-64

EU-wide, 40% of the population around the retirement age (55-64) are economically active (i.e., either in employment or seeking employment). The rate for males (52%) is considerably higher than that of females (29%). Just over one-third (36%) of persons aged 55-64 are in employment. Sweden has by far the highest percentage (63%) while the proportion in Denmark, Portugal and the United Kingdom is around 50%. At the other end of the scale, less than 30% of older people are working in Belgium, France, Italy, Luxembourg and Austria. Throughout the Union, males (EU average of 47%) are more likely to be employed at this age than females (26%).

Employment rates remain high in Portugal beyond the age of 65

Looking at more-detailed age-groups reveals other differences between Member States: the employment rate of the population aged 55-59 stands at 50% with figures ranging around 35% in Belgium and Italy to 76% in Sweden. Among those aged 60-64, only 22% of the population is in a job. Rates are lowest (around 10%) in Belgium, France, Luxembourg and Austria and highest (over 40%) in Portugal and Sweden. EU-wide, 6% of persons aged 65-69 are in employment. This applies to around 10% in Denmark, Greece, Ireland, Sweden and the United Kingdom. Portugal stands out with more than a quarter of 65-69 year-olds and a fifth of 70-74 year-olds still in employment.

Higher proportion of older people working part-time

For the Union as a whole, 20% of people aged 55-64 in employment are working part-time, slightly higher than the proportion of part-timers aged 15-64 (17%). The largest gap between the generations is in the United Kingdom (31% versus 24%). As with younger workers, females (41%) have a greater tendency than males (8%) to work part-time.

Older workers are less likely than younger ones to receive training

Throughout the Union, training for employees decreases with age: EU-wide, from 8.1% of the 30-39 age-group to 4.5% among 50-59 year-olds. The generation gap is smallest in the three Nordic Member States - countries with the highest overall levels of participation. Between 14-18% of employees aged 50-59 in these countries participate in training.

Policy context

The 2000 Employment Guidelines - Improving employability (No.4): Each Member State will " ... develop a policy for active ageing, encompassing appropriate measures such as maintaining working capacity, lifelong learning and other flexible working arrangements, so that older workers are also able to remain and participate actively in working life."

Methodological notes

Source: Eurostat - European Union Labour Force Survey (LFS).

For definitions of activity rates and employment rates, see Employment (1.3).

Further reading

- "Labour Force Survey Results 1998". Eurostat.
- "Employment in Europe 1999", European Commission, Employment and Social Affairs DG.
- "Employment rates report 1998", European Commission, Employment and Social Affairs DG.
- "Combating Age Barriers in Employment: a European portfolio of good practice", 1998. European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions.

Links to other areas of policy concern

Ageing of the population (1.1), Employment (1.3), Unemployment (1.5)

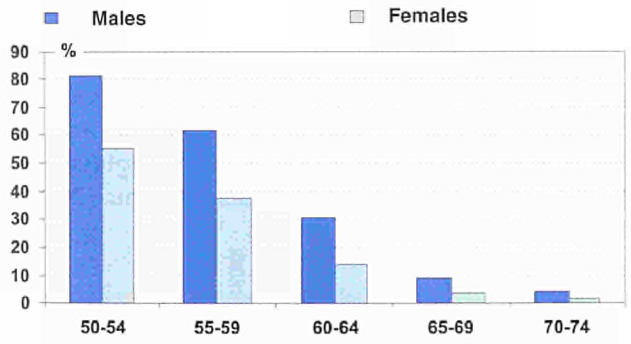
Key indicator

Employment rate, 55-64 years

	EU15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
1998	36.3	22.5	50.4	37.7	39.1	35.0	28.3	41.6	27.4	25.0	33.0	28.0	50.5	35.7	62.7	48.3
Persons in employment aged 55-64, 1998 (1000)	15164	234	269	4320	506	1469	1523	126	1869	10	493	241	541	188	574	2800

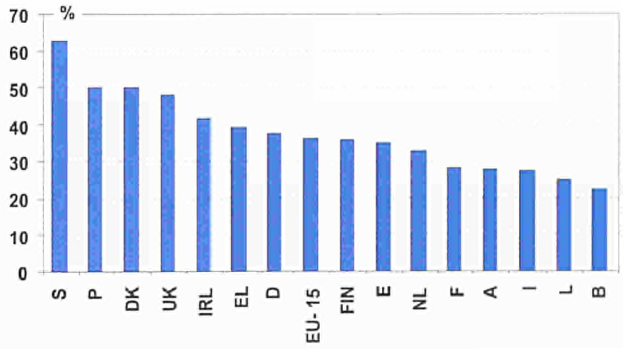
Source : Eurostat - European Union Labour Force Survey.

Employment rates by age-group and sex, EU-15, 1998



Source : Eurostat - European Union Labour Force Survey

Employment rates of 55-64 year-olds, 1998



Source : Eurostat - European Union Labour Force Survey

UNEMPLOYMENT

In 1998, the total number of unemployed in the Europe of Fifteen dropped below 17 million for the first time since 1992. This represents 9.9% of the labour force compared with 4.5% and 4.1% in the United States and Japan respectively.

Recent trends in unemployment

The EU-wide unemployment rate rose sharply from 9.2% in 1992 to peak at 11.1% in 1994. It then fluctuated around this level until 1998 when the rate fell significantly from 10.6% to 9.9%. This recent trend can be observed, to varying degrees, in all Member States with the exception of Belgium, Italy and Luxembourg (almost no change), Austria (slight increase but overall level remains low) and Greece (rate continues to rise). Looking at the trend over a longer period - since the EU-15 peak in 1994 - rates in Denmark, Ireland, the Netherlands, Finland and the United Kingdom fell by one-third or more.

In 1998, the country most severely hit by unemployment was Spain (18.7%). In contrast, rates in Denmark, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Austria and Portugal recorded rates of 5% or less. These figures are similar to Japan (4.1%) and the United States (4.5%). In the vast majority of Member States, women (EU average 11.7%) are more likely to be unemployed than men (8.6%). Ireland, Sweden and, in particular, the United Kingdom (7.0% men against 5.5% women) are the exceptions.

Regional disparities in unemployment

National unemployment rates often mask important regional disparities within Member States, particularly in Germany (between west and east), Italy (between north and south) and the United Kingdom (also between north and south). In Germany, the unemployment rate in 1998 ranged from less than half the national average of 9.8% in Oberbayern (4.7%) to more than twice it in Dessau (22.3%). Similarly, while many regions in the North of Italy were largely unaffected by unemployment (4-6%), around 25% of the workforce in the southern regions of Campania and Calabria was unemployed. Other regions in the Union where unemployment rates were considerably higher than the national average include Hainaut in Belgium, Languedoc-Roussillon in France and Itae-Suomi in Finland. The region with the highest unemployment rate in Europe is Andalucia in Spain (29.9%).

Policy context

The 2000 Employment Guidelines - general principle, (preambule): "coordinated action must be pursued in a sustained manner to combat unemployment and raise the present levels of employment on a lasting basis." Guideline No.3 states that each Member State "will endeavour to increase significantly the number of persons benefiting from active measures to improve their employability with a view to effective integration into the labour market. In order to increase the numbers of unemployed who are offered training or any similar measure, it will in particular fix a target, in the light of its starting situation, of gradually achieving the average of the three most successful Member States, and at least 20%". Furthermore, each Member State "will review and, where appropriate, refocus its benefit and tax system to provide incentives for unemployed or inactive people to seek and take up work or measures to enhance their employability and for employers to create new jobs, ..." (Guideline No.4).

Methodological notes

Source: Eurostat - comparable estimates based on the European Union Labour Force Survey (LFS).

Unemployed people - according to the International Labour Organisation (ILO) criteria are those persons aged 15 and over who are i) without work, ii) available to start work within the next two weeks and, iii) have actively sought employment at some time during the previous four weeks or have found a job to start later. Unemployment rates represent unemployed persons as a percentage of the active population of the same age. The active population (or labour force) is defined as the sum of employed and unemployed persons.

Regional unemployment rates are based on the estimates of employed and unemployed persons taken from the Labour Force Survey at national level, in each case for a specific reference date in April. In a second step, the estimated jobless figures are broken down over the

individual regions, applying the regional structures of registered unemployed persons or regionally representative results of labour force surveys.

Further reading

- "Labour Force Survey Results 1998", Eurostat.
- "Employment in Europe 1999", European Commission, Employment and Social Affairs DG.
- Statistics in Focus (Population and social conditions):"Labour Force Survey Principal Results 1998", No.11/1999. (General Statistics): "EU unemployment still marked by wide regional variations", No. 5A/1999. Eurostat.

Links to other areas of policy concern

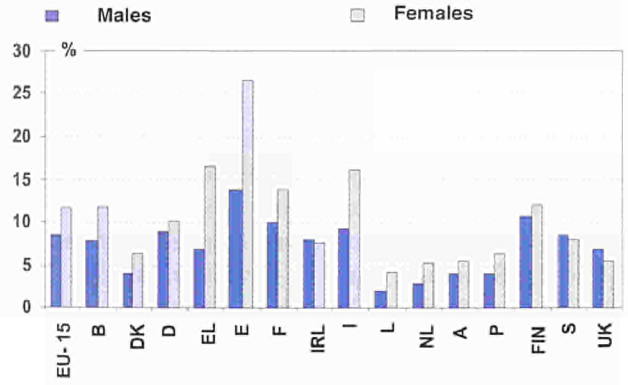
Education outcomes (1.2), Employment (1.3), Youth unemployment (1.6), Long-term unemployment (1.7)

Key indicator
Unemployment rate

	EU15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
1998	9.9	9.5	5.1	9.4	10.7	18.7	11.7	7.8	11.9	2.8	4.0	4.7	5.1	11.4	8.3	6.3
1994	11.1	10.0	8.2	8.4	8.9	24.1	12.3	14.3	11.4	3.2	7.1	3.8	7.0	16.6	9.4	9.6
Unemployment, 1998 (1000)	16808	403	144	3699	475	3045	2976	126	2715	5	305	178	254	286	365	1832

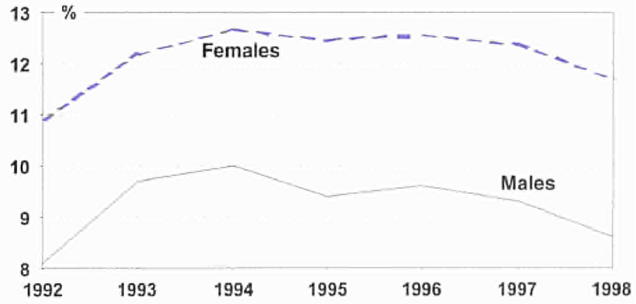
Source : Eurostat - comparable estimates based on the European Union Labour Force Survey.

Unemployment rates by sex, EU-15, 1998



Source : Eurostat - comparable estimates based on the European Union Labour Force Survey.

Unemployment rates by sex, EU-15, 1992 - 1998



Source : Eurostat - comparable estimates based on the European Union Labour Force Survey.

6 YOUTH UNEMPLOYMENT

On average, 9.2% of young people (aged 15-24) are unemployed. The unemployment rate (as a percentage of the labour force) among young people is 19.5%. The differences between these two percentages vary significantly between countries. While the first figure shows that a relatively small proportion of young people is unemployed, the second one gives an indication as to the labour market situation for young people (bearing in mind that they are largely first-time entrants onto the labour market and that a sizeable proportion have low qualifications).

Staying longer in education

As the result of a longer stay in education, young people are now entering the labour market at a later age than in the past. For the Union as a whole, it is not until the age of 22 that at least 50% of young people are in employment for a minimum of twelve hours per week. However, there are considerable differences between Member States. For example, in Germany, Austria and the United Kingdom, the median age is 19 years.

Youth unemployment is, on the one hand, a result of the general labour market situation. It is also a reflection of how the educational and employment systems manage to complement one another with respect to the integration of the young in the labour market, and, in particular, of how well the education and training system prepares young people for the labour market.

Around one in ten young people is unemployed

In 1998, 4.25 million young people aged 15-24 in the Union were unemployed. This represents 9.2% of the youth population or, put another way, 19.5% of the labour force of this age-group.

The recent trend in the unemployment rate for young people has followed a similar pattern to the overall rate of unemployment. The youth unemployment rate rose sharply from 18.1% in 1992 to peak at 22.0% in 1994. It then fluctuated around the 21-22% mark until 1998 when it fell notably from 21.2% to 19.5%. Ireland (-25%) and Portugal (-30%) recorded the most significant reductions over this period (1997-1998). Today, the youth unemployment rate ranges from 7% in Denmark, Austria and Luxembourg to 30% or more in Greece, Spain and Italy.

In the Union, young people less than 25 years of age are nearly 2.5 times more likely than people aged 25 and over to be unemployed. With the exception of Germany - where, in part due to the apprenticeship system, the rate for young people is similar to the overall rate - youth unemployment is significantly higher than the overall rate across all countries and regions.

Relatively more young unemployed females than males

Young females (21.0%) are more likely than young males (18.2%) to be unemployed although the gap is not as large as it is with the population aged 25 and over. The unemployment rate among young females is around 40% in Greece, Spain and Italy. In Germany and the United Kingdom, a significantly larger proportion of young males than young females is jobless.

Policy context

The 2000 Employment Guidelines: "In order to influence the trend in youth ... unemployment the Member States will intensify their efforts to develop preventive and employability-oriented strategies,...". Guideline No.1 states that Member States will ensure that "every unemployed young person is offered a new start before reaching six months of unemployment, in the form of training, retraining, work practice, a job or other employability measure with a view to effective integration into the labour market."

Methodological notes

Source: Eurostat - European Union Labour Force Survey (LFS).

Unemployment is defined according to the ILO definition. See Unemployment (1.5) for definition. Youth unemployment/population ratios show the unemployed aged 15-24 as a percentage of the population of the same age. Youth unemployment rates represent unemployed persons aged 15-24 as a percentage of the active population (or labour force) of the same age.

Further reading

- "Labour Force Survey Results 1998", Eurostat.
- "Youth in the European Union. From Education to Working Life", 1997. Eurostat.
- Statistics in Focus (Population and social conditions):"From school to working life: Facts on youth unemployment", No.13/1998. Eurostat.
- "Employment in Europe 1999", European Commission, Employment and Social Affairs DG.

Links to other areas of policy concern

Education outcomes (1.2), Employment (1.3), Unemployment (1.5), Long-term unemployment (1.7)

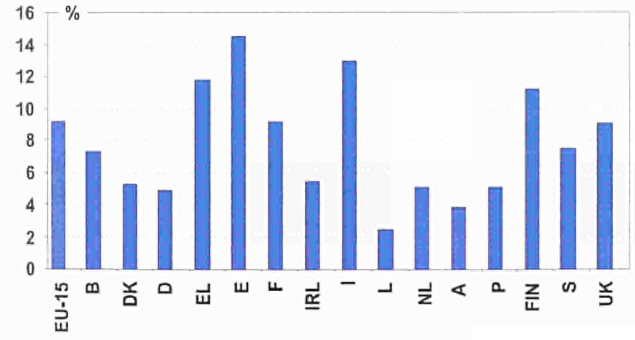
Key indicator

Youth unemployment/population ratio

	EU15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
1998	9.2	7.4	5.3	4.9	11.8	14.5	9.1	5.6	13.0	2.5	5.1	3.8	5.1	11.2	7.5	9.1
1994	10.8	8.7	7.8	4.7	10.2	19.4	10.7	10.6	12.8	3.3	6.9	3.4*	6.8	14.7*	10.6*	11.2
Youth unemployment rate																
1998	19.5	22.1	7.4	9.8	29.8	35.3	26.6	11.5	33.8	6.9	7.8	6.6	10.6	23.5	16.7	13.6
1994	22.0	24.2	11.0	8.7	27.7	45.0	29.0	22.8	32.3	7.3	11.4	5.7	15.1	34.0	22.0	17.0

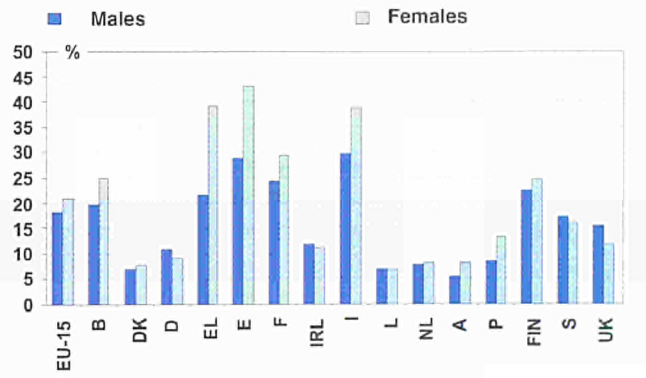
Source : Eurostat - comparable estimates based on the European Union Labour Force Survey.

Youth unemployment/population ratio (15-24 years), 1998



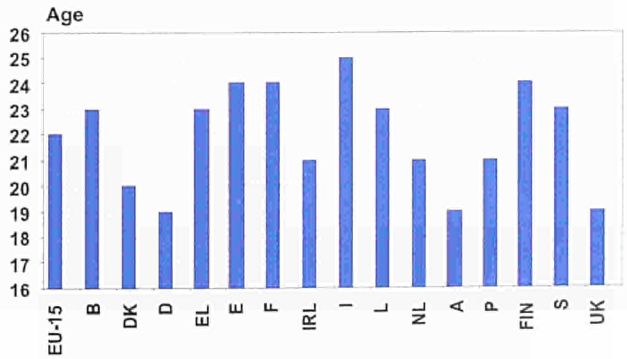
Source : Eurostat - European Union Labour Force Survey

Youth unemployment rates (15-24 years) by sex, 1998



Source : Eurostat - European Union Labour Force Survey

Youngest age at which employment rate (1) reaches 50%, 1998



(1) Persons employed for a minimum of 12 hours per week

Source : Eurostat - European Union Labour Force Survey

LONG-TERM UNEMPLOYMENT

In 1998, 4.8% of the EU-15 working population was affected by long-term unemployment. Put another way, 47% of unemployed people were jobless for at least one year.

Half the unemployed were jobless for at least 12 months

In 1998, the long-term unemployment rate stood at 4.8%. In Denmark, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Austria, Portugal and the United Kingdom 2% or less of the labour force were affected. In contrast, 9.4% of the active population in Spain (and 7.1% in Italy) were unemployed for at least one year.

In relation to the total number of unemployed, just under half had been looking for a job for at least twelve months. This proportion is relatively low in the Nordic Member States, Luxembourg, Austria and the United Kingdom (27-38%) but around the 60% mark in Belgium and Italy.

Females more affected than males by long-term unemployment

EU-wide, long-term unemployment is slightly more prevalent among unemployed females (49%) than males (46%). Unemployed women in Denmark, Greece, Spain and Austria, however, are much more likely than men to find themselves out of work for more than twelve months. In contrast, in Ireland, Finland and the United Kingdom, a larger proportion of men than women are unemployed for a lengthy period.

The proportion of long-term unemployed remains stable ...

The EU long-term unemployment rate fell over the period 1994-1998, more or less in line with the decrease in the overall unemployment rate. As a result, the proportion of unemployed persons without work for at least twelve months has remained relatively stable for the Union as a whole. However, Germany has witnessed a significant increase while the United Kingdom, on the other hand, has reduced its share of long-term unemployed from 45% in 1994 to 33% in 1998.

... although among young people the proportion has fallen.

The long-term youth unemployment rate (six months or more) stood at 11.2% in 1998, a considerable reduction from the 1994 level (13.9%). Young people in Greece, Spain and Italy are particularly affected by long-term unemployment (more than 20% of the labour force) as indeed are people aged 25 and over in these three countries.

Over the period 1994-1998, the long-term unemployment rate for young people has fallen at a sharper pace than the overall youth unemployment rate. As a result, the proportion of long-term unemployed has been reduced. Today, around 57% of young unemployed persons have been without a job for six months or more. In Greece and Italy, this applies to more than 70% of the young unemployed compared with less than 20% in Denmark and Finland.

Policy context

The 2000 Employment Guidelines (introduction to No.1): "In order to influence the trend in ... long-term unemployment the Member States will intensify their efforts to develop preventive and employability-oriented strategies."
Member States will ensure that "every unemployed young person is offered a new start before reaching six months of unemployment, in the form of training, retraining, work practice, a job or other employability measure with a view to effective integration into the labour market" (Guideline No.1) and that "unemployed adults are also offered a fresh start before reaching twelve months of unemployment by one of the aforementioned means (training, retraining, work practice, a job or other employability measure) or, more generally, by accompanying individual vocational guidance with a view to

effective integration into the labour market" (Guideline No.2).

Methodological notes

Source: Eurostat - European Union Labour Force Survey (LFS).

Unemployment is defined according to the ILO definition. See Unemployment (1.5) for definition. The unemployed are counted as long-term unemployed if they have been jobless for at least twelve months. For the age-group 15-24, the threshold is lowered to six months or more. The long-term unemployment rate is calculated by dividing the number of persons unemployed for twelve months or more by the active population (or labour force) of the same age and multiplying by 100. Data on the long-term unemployed are also presented in relation to the total number of unemployed people.

Further reading

- "Labour Force Survey Results 1998î, Eurostat.
- Statistics in Focus (Population and Social Conditions): "Dynamic Measures of Economic Activity and Unemployment: 1. Patterns and Transitions over Time", No.17/1999. "Dynamic Measures of Economic Activity and Unemployment: 2. Status in terms of the amount of time spent", No.18/1999. Eurostat.
- "Employment in Europe 1999", European Commission, Employment and Social Affairs DG.

Links to other areas of policy concern

Education outcomes (1.2), Employment (1.3), Unemployment (1.5), Youth unemployment (1.6)

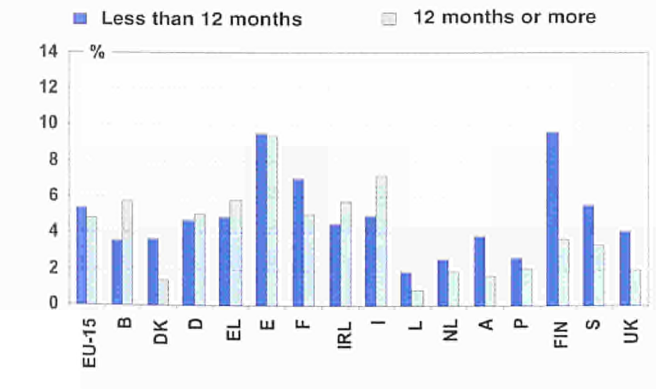
Key indicator

Long-term unemployment rate (12 months or more)

	EU15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
1998	4.8	5.7	1.4	5.0	5.9	9.4	5.1	5.7*	7.1	0.9	1.9	1.6	2.1	3.6	3.3	2.0
1994	5.4	5.6	2.6	3.8	4.5	12.8	4.7	9.1	6.9	1.0	3.1	:	2.8	:	:	4.4
Persons unemployed for 12 months or more as a percentage of total unemployed, 1998	47	62	27	52	55	50	42	56*	59	31	42	29	44	28	37	33
Youth long-term unemployment rate (6 months or more)																
1998	11.2	13.8	1.4	4.9	21.8	23.1	13.2	9.8*	25.9	3.4	5.2	2.5	5.0	5.6	6.5	4.2
1994	13.9	14.9	3.3	4.4	20.1	32.1	13.8	16.2	25.6	3.8	6.4	:	5.8	:	:	9.0
Young persons unemployed for 6 months or more as a percentage of total unemployed, 1998	57	68	19	50	73	65	50	61*	77	53	59	33	53	16	37	34

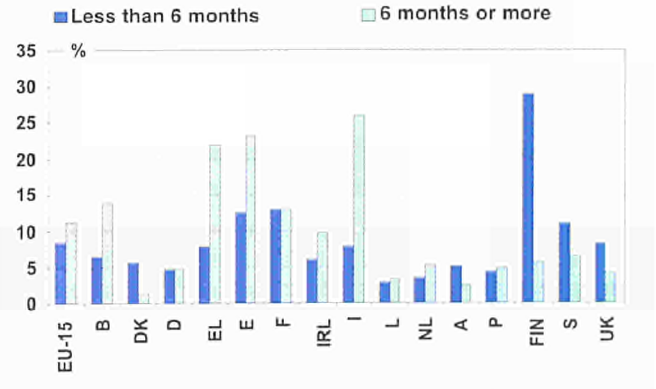
Note : 1994 Labour Force Survey data on long-term unemployment are not available for A, FIN, and S. IRL - 1997 data.
Source : Eurostat - comparable estimates based on the European Union Labour Force Survey.

Unemployment rates by duration, 1998



Source : Eurostat - European Union Labour Force Survey

Youth unemployment rates by duration, 1998



Source : Eurostat - European Union Labour Force Survey

SOCIAL PROTECTION EXPENDITURE

In 1996, EU social protection expenditure represented 28.7% of GDP, compared with a figure of 25.4% in 1990. The highest ratios were found in the three Nordic Member States (32-35%) while Greece, Spain, Ireland and Portugal recorded the lowest ratios (19-23%). Despite these disparities, social protection expenditure is tending to converge in the Member States with the largest increases in recent years being observed in the countries with the lowest levels of expenditure.

Significant rise from 1990-1993, then stabilisation

In 1990, expenditure linked to social protection totalled 25.4% of GDP in the Union. In 1996, the figure stood at 28.7%. The rise was visible throughout the Union, with the exception of the Netherlands and Ireland, where the percentage fell slightly/remained stable over this period. The EU-wide increase occurred mainly during the period 1990-1993 as a result mainly of the slowing rate of GDP growth and rising unemployment. Between 1993 and 1996, expenditure declined slightly. This was particularly noticeable in Sweden (-3.8 percentage points), Finland (-3.3 points) and the Netherlands (-2.8 points), all countries where spending had been amongst the highest in 1993.

Slowdown in real-terms expenditure

Real-terms expenditure on social protection (i.e. in constant prices per head of population) grew by around 4% annually during the period 1990-1993 in EU-15. The rise was particularly marked in Portugal (13% annually). In contrast, the rate of increase during the three most recent years (1993-1996) has been around 1% annually for EU-15. Only in Greece and Germany has real-term expenditure risen. The slowdown in the growth rate has been particularly marked in Italy and the United Kingdom. Meanwhile, in the Netherlands, Spain and Sweden the real value of expenditure actually fell between 1993 and 1996.

Cross-country differences are more marked when expenditure is expressed in PPS per head of population

When social protection is expressed in PPS per head of population, the differences between countries are even more pronounced: the ratio between Luxembourg (which spends the most) and Portugal (which spends the least) was 3.3 to 1 in 1996. This represents nevertheless a reduction on the 1990 level of 3.7 to 1. The differences between countries reflect differences in the social protection systems, demographic change, unemployment and other social, institutional and economic factors.

Two patterns of funding social protection

At EU level, the main sources of funding for the social protection system are social contributions (employers and protected persons), which accounted for 63.5% of total receipts in 1996, followed by tax-funded general government contributions (31.4%). The European average conceals considerable differences between the Member States in the structure of funding. Social security contributions are more significant in Belgium, Germany, Spain, France, Italy and the Netherlands. In contrast, Denmark, Ireland, and to a lesser extent Finland, Sweden and the United Kingdom are more dependent on taxes to finance their social protection systems.

Slight increase in general government contributions

The proportion of general government contributions in total funding rose by 2.6% between 1990 and 1996 for EU-15. The largest increases were observed in Portugal and the United Kingdom. In contrast, this proportion fell significantly in Denmark and the Netherlands. In 1996, only 16.4% of the Netherlands' social protection was financed from general government contributions. The share of EU-15 social contributions in the total of receipts fell slightly between 1990 and 1996, from 65.0% to 63.5%.

Policy context

The Treaty of Amsterdam, Art.2 states that "the Community shall have as its task ... to promote throughout the Community ... a high level of ... social protection."

The Commission adopted on 14 July 1999 a Communication (COM99-347) on an EU-wide strategy for modernising social protection. The Communication establishes an agenda for collective reflection on four key objectives: to make work pay and provide secure income; to make pensions safe and pension systems sustainable;

to promote social inclusion; and to secure high quality and sustainable health protection. Moreover, the Commission's suggestions were endorsed in the Council's Conclusions of November 1999.

Methodological notes

Source: Eurostat - European System of integrated Social Protection Statistics (ESSPROS).

Social protection encompasses all interventions from public or private bodies intended to relieve households and individuals of the burden of a defined set of risks or needs, provided that there is neither a simultaneous reciprocal nor an individual arrangement involved. The risks or needs that may give rise to social protection are classified by convention under eight "social protection functions". See Old age benefits (1.9). Excluded are all insurance policies taken out on the private initiative of individuals or households solely in their own interest. Data on social protection expenditure are recorded without any deduction of taxes or other compulsory levies applicable to social benefits. Data for Greece are provisional as are the 1996 data for Belgium, Germany, Spain, Italy, the Netherlands, Portugal, Finland and the United Kingdom.

Purchasing Power Parities (PPP) convert every national monetary unit into a common reference unit, the purchasing power standard (PPS), of which every unit can buy the same amount of consumer goods and services across the Member States in a given year.

Further reading

- "Social Protection expenditure and receipts: European Union, Iceland and Norway - Data 1980-96", 1999. Eurostat.
- Statistics in Focus (Population and social conditions): "Social Protection in the European Union, Iceland and Norway", No.5/1999. Eurostat.
- Methodology: "ESSPROS Manual 1996", Eurostat.
- "Social Protection in Europe 1997", 1998. "Social Protection in the Member States of the European Union - Situation on 1 January 1998 and evolution", 1998. European Commission, Employment and Social Affairs DG.

Links to other areas of policy concern

Old age benefits (1.9), Income distribution (1.10)

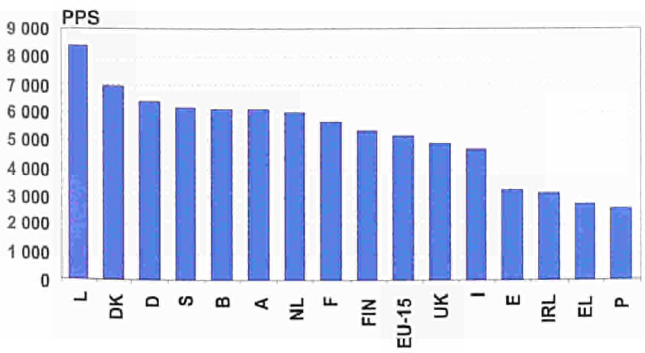
Key indicator

Expenditure on social protection as a percentage of GDP

	EU15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
1996	28.7	30.0	33.6	30.5	23.3	22.4	30.8	18.9	24.8	26.2	30.9	29.5	21.6	32.1	34.8	27.7
1993	29.0	29.0	33.5	29.1	22.0	24.4	31.2	20.8	26.0	25.2	33.7	29.0	21.0	35.4	38.6	28.8
1990	25.4	26.8	30.3	25.4	22.7	20.4	27.7	19.1	24.1	23.5	32.5	26.7	15.5	25.5	32.9	23.1

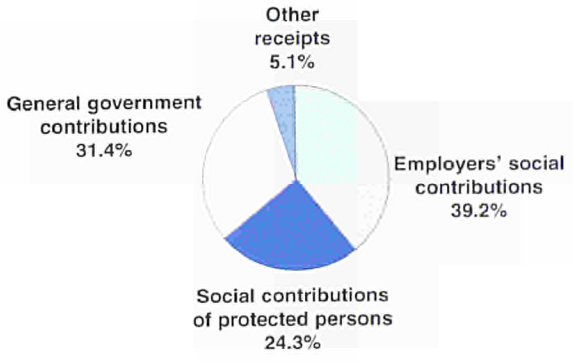
Source : Eurostat - European System of integrated Social Protection Statistics (ESSPROS)

Expenditure on social protection per head of population 1996



Source : Eurostat - European System of integrated Social Protection Statistics (ESSPROS)

Social protection receipts by type as a percentage of total receipts, EU-15, 1996



Source : Eurostat - European System of integrated Social Protection Statistics (ESSPROS)

OLD AGE BENEFITS

In most Member States in 1996, the largest share of social protection expenditure was assigned to the old age and survivors functions. This was especially true of Italy (66% of total benefits against the EU average of 45%). EU-wide, benefits paid under the old-age and survivors functions rose by 17% in real terms during the period 1990-1996.

The old-age and survivors functions account for the major part of benefits

In most Member States, old-age and survivors benefits make up the largest item of social protection expenditure (EU-wide, it amounted to 44.8% of total benefits or 12.3% of GDP in 1996). This was especially true of Italy, where these two functions accounted for 65.9% of all benefits. In Ireland, on the other hand, the old age and survivor functions together accounted for only 26.1%. Ireland is in fact the "youngest" country in Europe, with 33% of the population aged under 20 in 1996 (EU average 24%) and only 11% aged over 65 (EU-15 average 16%). It is therefore to be expected that in Ireland expenditure on old age and survivors is low, whilst family and child benefits are amongst the highest in the Union, at 12.8%.

In Ireland, the Netherlands, Portugal and Finland, the group of functions sickness/health care/disability take the largest share of benefits paid. There are also major differences between the Member States when it comes to the relative importance of unemployment-related benefits. These accounted for over 14% of the total benefits in Ireland, Belgium, and Spain, but less than 2% in Italy. The family/children function represented 7.9% of all benefits in EU-15 in 1996. This function represents more than 12% of all benefits in Denmark, Ireland, Luxembourg and Finland and, less than 5% in Spain, Italy and the Netherlands.

The structure of expenditure on social benefits changed between 1990 and 1996

Between 1990 and 1996 the structure of social benefits showed different rates of growth for the various functions. The variations result from evolving needs, and changes in the legislation on social protection. The total of benefits rose by 18% in real terms during the period 1990-1996.

Benefits paid under the old-age and survivors functions rose by 17%. Their weight in the total of benefits slipped from 45.7% in 1990 to 44.8% in 1996, due to the significant rise in other functions. The fall was particularly steep in Germany and Ireland. In Italy, this expenditure, which was already high in 1990, grew faster than elsewhere, and the two functions' share in the total of benefits rose by around 6 percentage points over the six-year period. Several countries, faced by the ageing of the population, are in the process of reforming their retirement systems. The effects of this will appear gradually.

EU-15 expenditure on the sickness/health-care/disability group of functions took a smaller share of benefits in 1996 than in 1990. In practice, the share fell in almost all Member States as a result of the efforts made to control costs in these areas.

The trend in expenditure on unemployment benefits can be explained, in part, by variations in the level of unemployment. Nevertheless, the slight decline recorded since 1993 also reflects the reforms in the benefits system implemented in certain countries, e.g. Denmark, Spain and France. During 1996 the benefits of the unemployment function increased in real terms again, partly as a result of new employment market policies being implemented.

Expenditure on the family as a proportion of total benefits rose in EU-15 from 7.6% in 1990 to 7.9% in 1996. This increase (+21% in real terms between 1990 and 1996) was particularly marked in 1996, when Germany implemented reforms and extended the family benefits system.

Policy context

See Social protection expenditure (1.8).

Methodological notes

Source: Eurostat - European system of integrated social protection statistics (ESSPROS).

See Social Protection expenditure (1.8). Social benefits are classified in the following eight functions: Sickness/health care, Disability, Old age, Survivors, Family/children, Unemployment, Housing, Social exclusion not elsewhere classified (n.e.c.). The Old age function covers the provision of social protection against the risks linked to old age: loss of income, inadequate income, lack of independence in carrying out daily tasks.

reduced participation in social life, and so on. Medical care of the elderly is not taken into account (reported under Sickness/health care function). Placing a given social benefit under its correct function is not always easy. In most EU Member States, a strong interdependence exists between the three functions Old age, Survivors and Disability. For the purposes of better EU-wide comparability, the Old age and Survivors functions have been grouped together.

Further reading

- "Social Protection expenditure and receipts: European Union, Iceland and Norway - Data 1980-96", 1999. Eurostat.
- Statistics in Focus (Population and social conditions): "Social Protection in the European Union, Iceland and Norway", No.5/1999. "Social benefits and their redistributive effect in the EU", No.13/1999. Eurostat.
- Methodology: "ESSPROS Manual 1996", 1996. Eurostat.
- "Social Protection in Europe 1997", 1998. European Commission, Employment and Social Affairs DG.
- "Social protection for dependency in old age in the 15 EU Member States and Norway", 1998. European Commission, Employment and Social Affairs DG.

Links to other areas of policy concern

Ageing of the population (1.1), Social Protection expenditure (1.8).

Key indicator

Old age and survivors benefits as a percentage of total social benefits

	EU15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
1996	44.8	43.2	38.9	41.1	49.0	45.3	43.5	26.1	65.9	43.4	38.5	48.5	43.3	33.9	38.9	40.1
1990	45.7	40.4	36.7	45.8	50.9	42.9	42.7	30.5	59.6	45.8	37.4	50.0	43.1	33.8	:	42.5

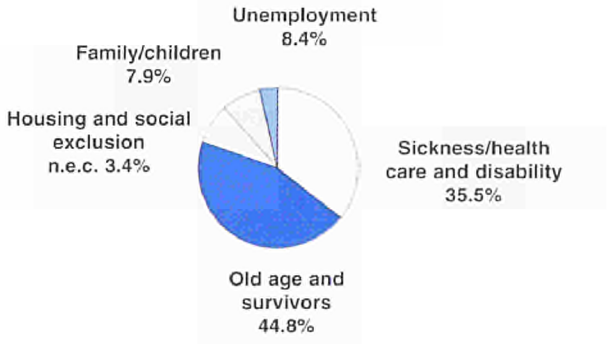
Source : Eurostat - European System of integrated Social Protection Statistics (ESSPROS)

Social benefits per head of population, at constant prices, EU-15, 1990-1996 (index 1990=100)

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996
Old-age and Survivors	100	101	107	109	112	114	117
Sickness/health-care and Disability	100	103	109	110	111	113	115
Unemployment	100	121	136	151	143	134	138
Family/Children	100	103	110	113	111	112	121
Housing and social exclusion n.e.c.	100	99	110	121	126	130	130
Total benefits	100	104	110	113	114	115	118

Source : Eurostat - European System of integrated Social Protection Statistics (ESSPROS)

Social benefits by groups of functions as a percentage of total benefits, EU-15, 1996



Source : Eurostat - European System of integrated Social Protection Statistics (ESSPROS)

INCOME DISTRIBUTION

At EU level, the bottom (poorest) 20% of the population received only 8% of total income in 1994, while the top (richest) 20% received almost 40% of total income, i.e. five time more (known as the share ratio S80/S20). This gap between the most and least well-off persons is smallest in Finland (3.1) and Denmark (3.2) and widest in Portugal (7.2).

Over 70% of persons receive social transfers although these represent only 26% of equivalised income

In 1994, the median equivalised net (disposable) annual income was around 11-13000 PPS in a majority of the Member States. However, the North/South divide remains with income levels in Greece, Spain, Italy and Portugal all significantly below the EU average. Luxembourg is an outlier with its exceptionally high income levels.

On average, 70% of this income arises from work (employment and self-employment), around 25% from pensions and other social transfers, and the remaining 5% from capital and other private sources. Although social transfers do not constitute a large percentage of equivalised income, 73% of EU citizens benefit from such transfers, either directly or indirectly, i.e., through other household members. The percentage varies from only 50% in Italy to 90% in Belgium.

The equivalised income of persons living in households that draw pensions is, on average, close to the figure for the population as a whole. However, it is higher than the average in France, Italy, the Netherlands and, above all, Ireland. Throughout the Union, but to differing degrees, social transfers other than pensions are heavily concentrated on low income households. How these transfers change the proportion of low income households varies considerably between Member States.

Households with one adult and those with three or more children tend to have lower levels of equivalised income

In general, persons living alone have lower median equivalised incomes (88% of the national median) than households composed of two or more adults. In all Member States, men living on their own have a higher median income than women. The two groups worst off are women aged 65 and over (75%) and single parents (72%).

The most affluent group in terms of median income are couples less than 65 years of age without dependent children (127%). The median equivalised income tends to decrease as the number of dependent children increases: couples with three or more dependent children have a median income of 81% as against 114% of couples with just one dependent child.

Looking at differences by age-group shows that the elderly (persons aged 65 and over) have the lowest median incomes (89%). The elderly in Greece, Portugal and the United Kingdom are the worst off (less than 75% of the national median). In contrast, their counterparts in Spain, France, Italy and Luxembourg each have median incomes of around 95%.

Income distribution can also be measured by looking at how total income is shared among different strata of the population formed according to the level of income. EU-wide, the bottom (poorest) 20% of the population receive 8% of the total income, while the top (richest) 20% receive almost 40% of the total income. These figures are summarised by the share ratio S80/S20, i.e., the share of the top 20% to that of the bottom 20%. This ratio is generally higher (above the EU average of 5.0) in the Southern Member States (Portugal being the highest with 7.2) although Ireland and the United Kingdom also find themselves in this group. At the other extreme are the Nordic Member States, particularly Finland (3.1) and Denmark (3.2).

Policy context

The Treaty of Amsterdam (Art.2) states that "The Community shall have as its task ... the raising of the standard of living and quality of life...". Art.3 continues "the activities of the Community shall include ... the strengthening of economic and social cohesion;"
The Social Action Programme 1998-2000 states: "Despite the successes of Europe's social model, poverty and social exclusion remain significant problems in the EU ... Public policies have a crucial role to play in helping to achieve this (an inclusive society) by ... promoting income redistribution and alleviating poverty, ..."

Methodological notes

Source: Eurostat - European Community Household Panel (ECHP), wave 2. Income data refers to the calendar year 1994. Finland and Sweden: national sources.

The income concept used is a net monetary concept. Imputed rents and benefits in kind are not included. In order to take account of differences in household size and composition in the comparison of income levels, the household's total income is divided by its 'equivalent size', computed using the modified OECD equivalence scale. This scale gives a weight of 1.0 to the first adult, 0.5 to the second and each subsequent person aged 14 and over, and 0.3 to each child aged under 14 in the household.
To calculate the share ratio, persons are first ranked according to their equivalised income and then divided into 5 groups of equal size known as quintiles. S80/S20 represents the share of the top 20% to that of the bottom 20%.
Purchasing Power Parities (PPP) convert every national monetary unit into a common reference unit, the purchasing power standard (PPS), of which every unit can buy the same amount of goods and services across the Member States in a given year.
Data for EU-15 exclude Finland and Sweden for which data are not available from the ECHP (2nd wave).

Further reading

- "European Community Household Panel: selected indicators from the 1995 wave", 1999. Eurostat.
- Statistics in Focus (Population and social conditions):
- "Social benefits and their redistributive effect in the EU", No.13/1999. Eurostat.

Links to other areas of policy concern

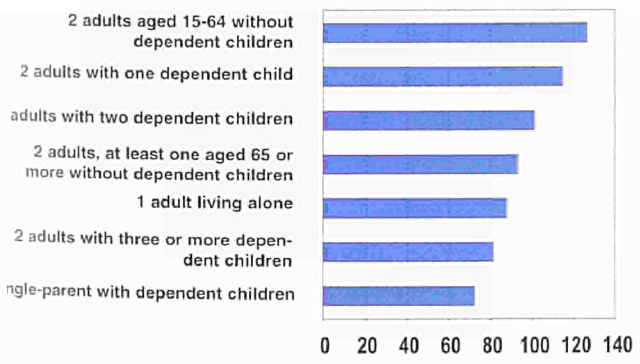
Social protection expenditure (1.8), Low income households (1.11)

Key indicator

Share ratio S80/S20 (1)	EU15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
1994	5.0	4.6	3.2	4.9	6.2	5.4	4.5	6.0	5.3	4.8	3.9	4.7	7.2	3.1	4.5	5.5

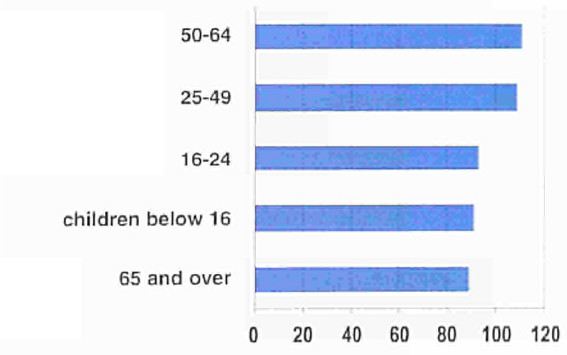
(1) The share of entire national income received by the top 20% of the population to that of the bottom 20%.
Source : Eurostat - European Community Houseld Panel; FIN, S - national sources.

Median equivalised income of all persons by household type (indexed, total=100), EU-15, 1994



Source : Eurostat - European Community Household Panel

Median equivalised income of all persons by age (indexed, total=100), EU-15, 1994



Source : Eurostat - European Community Household Panel

LOW INCOME HOUSEHOLDS

In 1994, 18% of the EU population had an equivalised income that was less than 60% of the national median. The proportion was highest in Greece, Ireland, Portugal and the United Kingdom and at its lowest in Denmark, the Netherlands and Finland.

More than one-third of lone parents have a 'low income'

Around 18% of EU citizens had an equivalised income that was less than 60% of the median for their country (the 'poverty line') in 1994. The proportion of people with a low income was relatively high (20-24%) in Greece, Ireland, Portugal and the United Kingdom and at its lowest in Denmark, the Netherlands and Finland (9-11%).

At EU level, three types of household stand out with higher than average levels of 'poverty' : single-parents with dependent children (36%), couples with three or more dependent children (27%) and people living alone (23%), particularly women (26%). More than 50% of single-parents in Ireland and the United Kingdom can be classified as having a 'low income'. At national level, other household types seem particularly at risk: in Greece and Portugal, more than 40% of elderly couples have an income that is less than 60% of the median.

Women (compared with men) and children (compared with adults) are more likely to live in a household with low income

Throughout the Union, 'poverty' is slightly more prevalent among women than among men (EU average of 19% versus 17%). The gender gap is even larger among persons living alone, particularly among the elderly.

The proportion of children (under the age of 16) living in a household with low income (21%) is higher than for the population as a whole (18%). Children in Ireland (28% versus 21%) and the United Kingdom (28% versus 20%) seem to be particularly worse off. However, children in Denmark (6% versus 11%) and Greece (16% versus 21%) are considerably less likely to live in 'poor' households.

Unemployed persons most at risk

On average, 38% of unemployed persons have a low income. The proportion is close to 50% in the United Kingdom. In Ireland and the United Kingdom, the unemployed are almost seven times more likely than those people with a job to have a low income. In Austria and Portugal, on the other hand, the difference is a factor of two. For the Union as a whole, 10% of those at work fall into the 'poor' category.

Around 19% of retired people in the Union have an income below 60% of the national median. Although Denmark (21%) does not have the highest rate, this figure is almost twice that for the population as a whole (11%). EU-wide, one in four economically inactive persons (excluding the retired) has a low income. The picture is relatively homogeneous throughout the Member States.

Impact of transfers on population with a low income is significant

Social transfers other than pensions reduce the percentage of "poor" people in all the Member States, but to very differing degrees. The reduction is smallest in Greece, Italy and Portugal: between 7% and 15%. In no other Member State is it less than 25%, and in Denmark and the Netherlands, it is around 60% - these two countries have the lowest "poverty rate" after payment of benefits. Ireland and the United Kingdom have a high proportion of people on low equivalised incomes both before and after payment of benefits. However, after payment of benefits, the share of those still in poverty is highest in Portugal. It is because Italy has the lowest poverty rate before benefits that the percentage of "poor" people in this country is close to the EU mean, despite the low impact of transfers.

Policy context

Art.136 of the Amsterdam Treaty lists "the combating of exclusion" as one of the six objectives of European social policy. Art.137.1 cites the integration of persons excluded from the labour market as one of the fields in which Community action should support and complement the activities of Member States. Art.137.2 creates scope for action at Community level by encouraging "cooperation between Member States through initiatives aimed at improving knowledge, developing exchanges of information and best practices, promoting innovative approaches and evaluating experiences in order to combat social exclusion."

Methodological notes

Source: Eurostat - European Community Household Panel (ECHP), wave 2. Income data refers to the calendar year 1994. Finland: national source.

The extent of low income (or relative, monetary poverty) is measured in terms of the proportion of the population with equivalised income below 60% of the median equivalised income in each country. See Income distribution (1.10) for income concept and definition of equivalised income.

'Dependent' children include all children up to the age of 15 plus all those persons aged under 25 who are economically inactive (mainly in education) and who are living with at least one of their parents.

Data for EU-15 exclude Finland and Sweden for which data are not available from the ECHP (2nd wave).

Further reading

- "European Community Household Panel: selected indicators from the 1995 wave", 1999. Eurostat.
- Statistics in Focus (Population and social conditions):
- "Low income and low pay in a household context (EU-12)", No.6/1998. "Social exclusion in the EU Member States", No.1/2000. Eurostat.

Links to other areas of policy concern

Employment (1.3), Social protection expenditure (1.8), Income distribution (1.10)

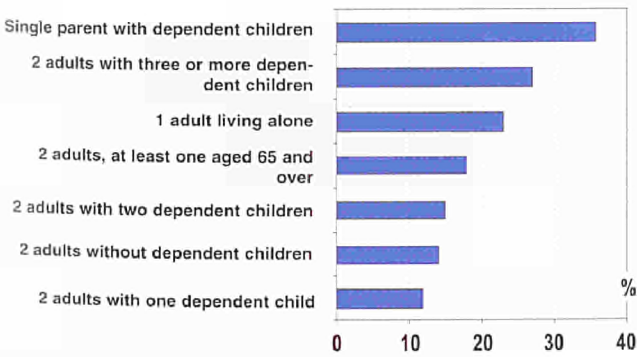
Key indicator

Percentage of the population with an income less than 60% of the national median

	EU15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
1994	18	18	11	18	21	19	16	21	19	14	10	17	24	9*	:	20
60% of median annual income (Euro)	6340	7560	7759	7422	4268	4544	7025	5447	5228	11219	6583	7404	3790	7263*	:	6715

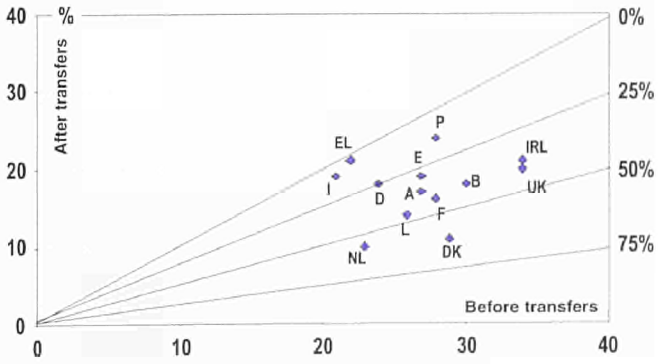
Source : Eurostat - European Community Household Panel. National source for FIN.

Population with a low income by type of household, EU-15, 1994



Source : Eurostat - European Community Household Panel

Percentage of the population on a low income before and after social transfers other than pensions, 1994



Source : Eurostat - European Community Household Panel

12 FEMALE EMPLOYMENT

In 1998, 51.2% of the female population aged 15-64 was in employment in the Union. The rate for males (70.8%) is considerably higher but the gap between the sexes is slowly narrowing. Women in the three Nordic countries are almost as likely as men to be economically active.

Women still at a disadvantage in the labour market

Despite progress in recent years, women still have particular problems in gaining access to the employment market, in career advancement, in earnings and in reconciling professional and family life. Although the net additional jobs created over the past decade or so have virtually all gone to women, this job growth has failed to keep pace with the increasing number of women who want to work. As a result, unemployment among women is much higher than for men. Despite the fact that women form around 43% of the EU labour force, they account for slightly over half of the unemployed. Employment rates for women remain systematically lower than for men. Moreover, many women work part-time.

Increase in female participation

The combination of increasing education and changing attitudes means that employment rates of women are converging on those of men - between 1988 and 1998, they rose from 45% of working-age population to 51%, whereas those for men declined from 74% to 71%. Although the difference is diminishing, it remains large in the vast majority of countries. In Finland and Sweden, the employment rate for women is still around 90% that of men although there has been a relative decline in women in work in these countries over the last few years. In virtually all Member States, the employment rates for young females are closer to those of young men than their elders.

EU-wide, women are concentrated in the growing service sector (80% of all employed women against 55% of all employed males) and are therefore less at risk of losing their job than men, who are employed disproportionately in agriculture and industry where restructuring has been taking place. Occupational segregation may limit the choice of women entering or wishing to enter the labour market. Women are still under-represented in the 'top' jobs with only 6% in managerial posts (of the total in employment) compared with 10% of men.

Overall, mothers aged 25-49 with at least one young child (aged 0-5) are less likely (53%) to be employed than childless women of the same age (67%). The gap between these two groups of women is particularly large in Germany and the United Kingdom. In contrast, in Belgium and Portugal the two rates are almost identical. Differences between countries reflect the varying levels of discrimination, the extent of child-care provision, the availability of part-time work, taxation, welfare support, attitudes towards women, etc.

One in three females in employment is working part-time

In the Union as a whole, 33% of women in employment are working part-time against only 6% of males. Female part-time work is particularly prevalent in the Netherlands (68%), United Kingdom (45%) and Sweden (39%). Among full-time employees, women work less hours than men in all Member States although in Netherlands, Austria and Sweden the difference is less than one hour. In contrast, the gender gap is 5 hours in the United Kingdom.

Relatively more women than men are unemployed

The unemployment rate in 1998 was higher for women than men in most parts of the Union, averaging 11.7% as against 8.6%. In Belgium, Denmark, Spain, Italy, the Netherlands and Portugal, the female rate is between 55% and 92% higher than that of men. Active women in Luxembourg and Greece are more than twice as likely as men to be unemployed. The situation is more favourable for women only in Ireland, Sweden and, most notably, the United Kingdom where the rate for women is 20% less than that of men.

Policy context

The Treaty of Amsterdam (Art.137) states that "the Community shall support and complement the activities of the Member States in ... equality between men and women with regard to labour market opportunities and treatment at work.."

The 2000 Employment Guidelines (No.19): "Member States will attempt to reduce the gap in unemployment rates between women and men by actively supporting the increased employment of women and will take action to bring about a balanced representation of women and men in all sectors and occupations." In order to strengthen equal opportunities, Member States and the social partners will "design, implement and promote family-friendly policies, including affordable, accessible and high quality care services for children and other dependents, as well as parental and other leave schemes." (Guideline No.20).

Methodological notes

Source: Eurostat - European Union Labour Force Survey (LFS).
For definition of activity, employment and unemployment rates and full-time/part-time, see Employment (1.3) and Unemployment (1.5).

Further reading

- "Labour Force Survey Results 1998". Eurostat.
- "Employment in Europe 1999". "Equal Opportunities for Women and Men in the European Union - Annual Report 1998". "Equal opportunities magazine", Quarterly Newsletter. European Commission, Employment and Social Affairs DG.

Links to other areas of policy concern

Earnings of men and women (1.13).

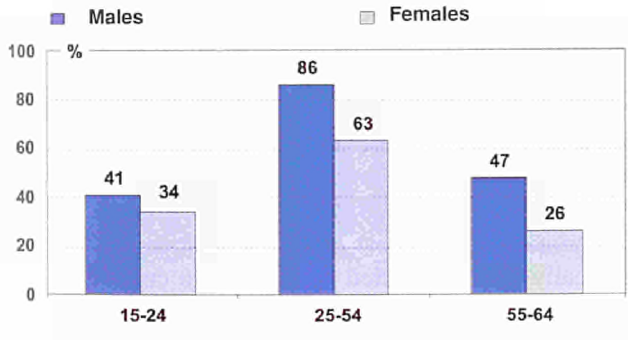
Key indicator

Female employment rate, 15-64 years

	EU15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
1998	51.2	47.5	70.3	55.6	39.6	34.8	52.9	48.2	36.7	45.6	58.9	59.0	58.1	60.5	66.4	63.2
1995	49.7	45.4	67.0	55.3	38.0	31.2	52.0	41.3	35.6	42.2	53.2	59.2	54.3	58.1	72.4	61.4
1988	45*	38.4	70.9	49.5	37.2	28.1	50.2	32.9	35.3	40.5	43.4	:	51.2	:	:	58.3

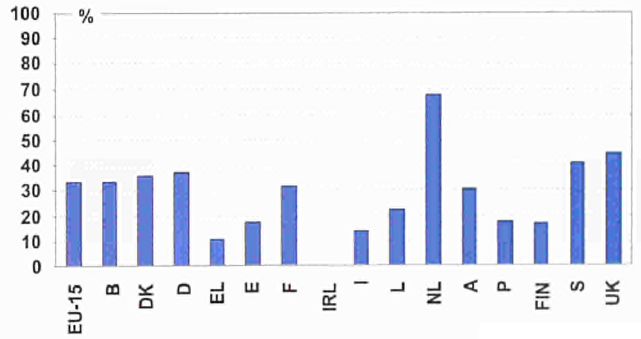
Source : Eurostat - European Union Labour Force Survey

Employment rates by age and sex EU-15, 1998



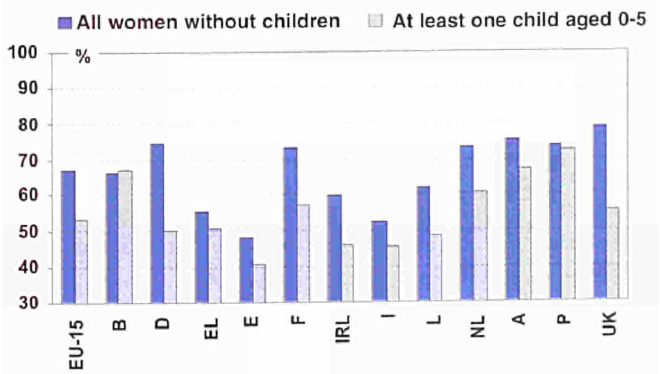
Source : Eurostat - European Union Labour Force Survey

Percentage of females in employment working part-time, 1998



Source : Eurostat - European Union Labour Force Survey

Employment rates of women aged 25-49 with and without children, 1998



EU-15 excludes the three Nordic Member States for which data are not available
Source : Eurostat - European Union Labour Force Survey

EARNINGS OF MEN AND WOMEN

In 1995, on average, the gross monthly earnings of a woman were 26% less than the earnings of a man. The smallest differences are found in Belgium, Denmark, Luxembourg and Sweden. Although it is not possible to determine whether women are paid less for equal work, it can be concluded that women are in lower-paid positions.

No Member State in which women's earnings exceed 84% of men's

In 1995, the average gross monthly wage of women working on a full-time basis was 74% the earnings of a man. In Belgium, Denmark, Luxembourg and Sweden, the average wages of women are equivalent to 84% of men's. In Ireland and the United Kingdom, on the other hand, women's wages represent only 70% of men's. These discrepancies should primarily be interpreted as the result of comparing averages for two populations of employees with very different characteristics. Firstly, women and men do not have the same jobs. In the population under review, 38% of women working full time are office clerks against only 12% of men, while 48% of men are manual workers or plant operators compared with only 19% of women. On average, manual workers are better paid than office clerks. Secondly, working women tend to be younger: 36% are less than 30 years old compared with 24% of men. As a result, women on average have less seniority and less of an opportunity to be in management positions. This clearly has an impact on their average salary level. Thirdly, the attainment levels of women are in general lower than men which, in turn, means that they are more likely to earn less. Furthermore, women are less likely than men to have a technical education for which the average salary is higher than for a more general secondary education.

Pay differences by occupation

Differences in pay levels are smallest in traditional "female" occupations (such as office clerks, service workers, shops and market sales workers) where women often outnumber men. In occupations where a technical background is required (such as craft and related trades workers), the difference in earnings is larger than the average.

A generational effect ?

Comparing the inequality structure of earnings by age shows that pay differences between men and women increase rapidly with age. This is mainly due to the occupational structure of older women which is more concentrated in lower-paid clerical positions than the average. However, this may also be explained by the fact that some older women have quite long career breaks which means that pay differences increase. The age gap is most pronounced in Greece and the United Kingdom.

An educational effect ?

Overall, pay differences between men and women appear to increase with the level of education although the picture is far from homogeneous between Member States. In Belgium, Denmark, Spain, France, Italy, and the Netherlands, the highest qualified women are the most unequally paid compared to their male colleagues. The opposite is true in Greece and Ireland. In the other Member States, the level of education appears to have minimal influence on wage differences.

Policy context

The Treaty of Amsterdam (Art.141) states that "Each Member State shall ensure that the principle of equal pay for male and female workers for equal work or work of equal value is applied. For the purpose of this Article, 'pay' means the ordinary basic or minimum wage or salary and any other consideration, whether in cash or in kind, which the worker receives directly or indirectly, in respect of his employment, from his employer. Equal pay without discrimination based on sex means:
(a) that pay for the same work at piece rates shall be calculated on the basis of the same unit of measurement;
(b) that pay for work at time rates shall be the same for the same job.

The 2000 Employment Guidelines (No.19): "They (Member States) will initiate positive steps to promote

equal pay for equal work or work of equal value and to diminish differentials in incomes between women and men."

Methodological notes

Source: Eurostat - Structure of Earnings Statistics.

Data on earnings are based on female and male full-time employees in all economic activities except persons who are self-employed or who work in local units employing less than ten people, and also employees in agriculture and fishing, public administration and defence, education, health and social work, other community, social and personal service activities, private households or extra-territorial organisations (together with certain other exceptions on a national basis). The coverage of the survey is not ideal to study women's earnings because sectors where there are a majority of women are not covered: health, education and personal services. The earnings differences between genders are probably slightly less important in these categories but at the same time the average earnings are lower which in turn would lower womenís overall averages. Persons employed as trainees are excluded here because their lower rates of pay would distort the averages. The average EU-15 figures presented here are calculated by weighting the earnings with the number of employees in Member States.

Further reading

- Statistics in Focus (Population and social conditions): "Women's earnings in the EU", No.6/1999. Eurostat.
- "Social Portrait of Europe", 1998. Eurostat.

Links to other areas of policy concern

Female employment (1.12)

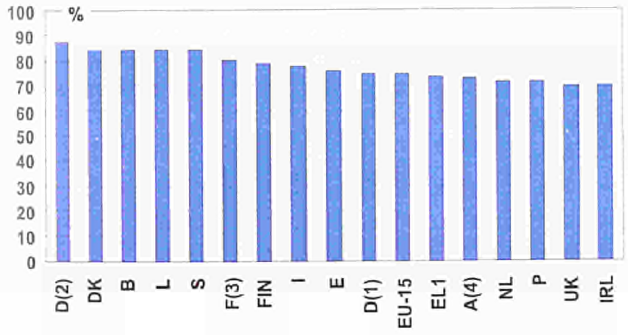
Key indicator

Gross monthly wages of women as a percentage of men's (5)

	EU15	B	DK	D (1)	D (2)	EL	E	F (3)	IRL	I	L	NL	A (4)	P	FIN	S	UK
1995	74	84	84	74	87	73	76	80	70	77	84	71	73	71	78	84	70

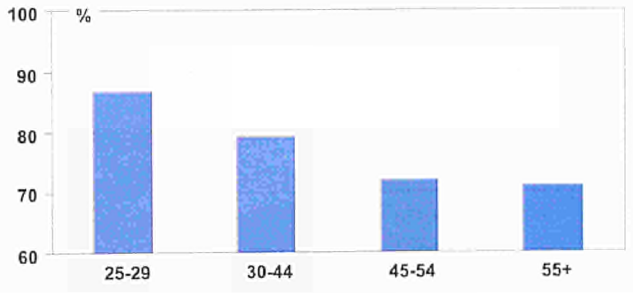
(1) Former West Germany (2) New Länder (3) 1994 (4) 1996 (5) Full-time earnings, bonuses excluded
Source : Eurostat - Structure of Earnings Statistics

Monthly earnings of women as a percentage of men's, 1995



Source : Eurostat - Structure of Earnings Statistics

Monthly earnings of women as a percentage of men's by age-group, EU-15, 1995



Source : Eurostat - Structure of Earnings Statistics

Monthly earnings of women as a percentage of men's in selected occupations, EU-15, 1995

Source : Eurostat - Structure of Earnings Statistics

LIFE AND HEALTH EXPECTANCIES

Life expectancy continues to rise and now stands at 80.8 years for women and 74.5 for men. Women can expect to live to 62 years of age without any disability and 74 years without any severe disability. The corresponding figures for men are 60 and 69 years.

Average life span continues to increase

Over the past 50 years, life expectancy of men and women has risen steadily: by around 10 years in total for each sex. Throughout the Union, women live longer than men. In 1998, the life expectancy of women in EU-15 was 80.8 years while that for men was 74.5 years. Eurostat estimates that the life expectancy of women and men may reach 84 and 78 years respectively by the year 2020. In France, the life expectancy of baby girls was almost 8 years longer than baby boys while in the United Kingdom, the difference was around 5 years. Life expectancy is improving throughout the Union albeit at different rates. The Southern Member States have made great strides to close the gap with the North. Since 1960, the life expectancy of men and women in Portugal has improved by 10.5 and 12 years compared with an average of 3.2 and 4.1 years respectively in Denmark.

People can expect to live to around 60 years without any disability

Health expectancies are a group of health indicators combining data on mortality and disability/morbidity. This report uses life expectancy without (severe) disability. At EU-level, women can expect to live to 62 years of age without any disability and 74 years without any severe disability. The corresponding figures for men are 60 and 69 years. EU-wide, one in four persons aged 16 and over (and up to one in two elderly persons) report having a chronic, physical or mental health problem, illness or disability. Among this group, 36% claim to be severely hampered in their daily activities as a result (42% of elderly persons).

Large reduction in infant mortality

Progress in medical research and care has also led to a dramatic improvement in the infant mortality rate for EU-15 which has fallen from 23 deaths per 1000 live births in 1970 to 5 deaths per 1000 live births in 1997. Differences between Member States have virtually disappeared.

Health expenditure accounts for 8% of GDP

In 1997, total expenditure on health represented on average 8% of GDP. Germany and France spend the most (10%) although they are still well behind the US (14%). Over the last decade or so, health expenditure as a percentage of GDP rose in the majority of countries. The most significant increases were observed in Greece, Spain and Portugal where the initial level was relatively low.

Almost one in four elderly people describe their health as 'bad'

EU-wide, around 9% of adults (aged 16 and over) perceive their health to be 'bad' or 'very bad'. 65% feel that their health is 'good' or 'very good' while the remaining 26% describe it as 'fair'. The proportion of persons in the category '(very) bad' increases with age: almost one in four elderly people described their health as such. For all ages, women are more likely than men to perceive their health as '(very) bad'. This pattern can be observed in every Member State with one or two minor exceptions. Throughout the Union, persons with a high level of income report better health than persons with a low level of income.

Policy context

The Treaty of Amsterdam (Title XIII Public Health, Art.152) states that "Community action, which shall complement national policies, shall be directed towards improving public health, preventing human illness and diseases, and obviating sources of danger to human health. Such action shall cover the fight against the major health scourges, by promoting research into their causes, their transmission and their prevention, as well as health information and education."

Art.1 of the Community Action on health monitoring (Decision No 1400/97/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council of 30 June 1997) states that: "The objective of the programme shall be to contribute to the

establishment of a Community health monitoring system which makes it possible to a) measure health status, trends and determinants throughout the Community ..."

Methodological notes

Source: Eurostat - Demographic Statistics and European Community Household Panel (ECHP). OECD Health data 1998.

The infant mortality rate is defined as the number of infants who die within the first year of life divided by the number of live births (per 1000 live births). Life expectancy at birth is the average number of years a person would live if age-specific mortality rates observed for a certain calendar year or period were to continue. Life expectancy without disability is calculated by the Sullivan method and uses the mortality data and disability prevalence figures from the ECHP. Data on perceived health are based on a subjective question addressed to private households in the ECHP. For the total population (particularly aged 65 and over), the percentages on (very) bad health may be somewhat higher due to the fact that a significant number of people live in homes or institutions for long-term nursing care.

Further reading

- "Key Figures on Health", 2000. Eurostat.
- "Demographic statistics", 1998 and 1999 editions. Eurostat.
- "Social Portrait of Europe", 1998. Eurostat.
- "The State of Health of Women in the European Community". 1997. European Commission, Employment and Social Affairs DG.

Links to other areas of policy concern

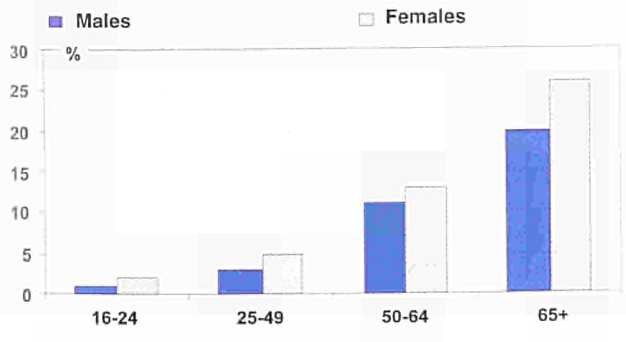
Ageing in the population (1.1)

Key indicator

	EU15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
Life expectancy, 1998																
Males	74.5	74.1	73.6	74.1	75.5	74.4	74.6	73.4	74.9	74.1	75.1	74.6	71.7	73.5	76.7	74.6
Females	80.8	80.6	78.5	80.4	80.8	81.7	82.2	78.6	81.3	79.8	80.5	80.8	78.8	80.8	81.8	79.6
Life expectancy without disability, 1994																
Males	60	60	61	57	63	62	60	61	60	59	59	:	55	:	:	59
Females	62	61	61	60	65	64	65	64	61	61	59	:	57	:	:	61

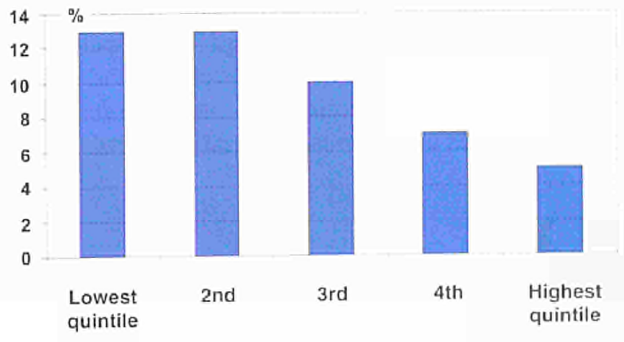
Source : Eurostat - Demographic statistics and European Community Household Panel

Proportion of population whose perceived health is bad or very bad, by age and sex, EU-15, 1995



Source : Eurostat - European Community Household Panel

Proportion of population whose perceived health is bad or very bad, by income level, EU-15, 1995



Source : Eurostat - European Community Household Panel

ACCIDENTS AT WORK

Around 4.2% of EU workers were victims of a working accident (resulting in more than three days' absence) in 1996. The construction industry has the highest proportion of accidents (8.0%).

Accidents more frequent among younger workers

In 1996, around 4.8 million accidents at work - each resulting in more than three days' absence - were recorded in the Union. This represents 4 229 accidents at work per 100 000 employed persons, or put another way, 4.2% of all workers was the victim of an accident at work during the year. In addition, 5 549 fatal accidents were recorded in EU-15. These figures relate to almost 90% of persons in employment in the Union.

With the exception of Greece, Ireland, Austria and Sweden, the incidence of accidents decreases with age in all Member States. In contrast, the incidence of fatal accidents increases considerably with age.

Accidents most likely to occur in the construction industry

These proportions differ of course depending on the economic activity of the enterprise, and the age and sex of workers. The construction industry has the highest incidence: 8 023 accidents resulting in more than three days' absence and around 13 fatal accidents per 100 000 workers, corresponding to 2 and 2.5 times the respective averages. It is also higher than average in agriculture and transport and some manufacturing sectors: food and beverages, wood, glass, ceramics and construction materials and basic metals and fabricated metal products.

Men more likely than women to have accidents

Men are almost three times more likely to have an accident - resulting in more than three days' absence - and nearly ten times more likely to have a fatal accident: 5 458 accidents and 7.7 deaths per 100 000 male workers compared with 1 924 and 0.8 respectively for women. This result is a function of men's jobs and sectors of activity which tend to be more high-risk than those of women. There are also relatively more women who work part-time which may reduce their exposure to risk.

Downward trend in rate of accidents

Four Member States are able to provide a comparable time series. The results are seen as indicative of the general trend in accidents at work in the Union from 1990 to 1997. In Germany (-25%), Spain (-5%) and France (16%), the number of accidents at work per 100 000 persons in employment fell significantly between 1990 and 1997 (1991-97 for Germany). The evolution is different in Denmark with a 17% increase in the number of accidents at work over this period. Data exist also over a longer period for France and Germany: over the last forty years there has been a sharp downward trend (-60%) in the incidence of accidents at work in these two countries.

Policy context

The Treaty of Amsterdam (Art.137) states that "the Community shall support and complement the activities of the Member States in ... (the) improvement in particular of the working environment to protect workersí health and safety."

Art.140 adds that "the Commission shall encourage cooperation between the Member States and facilitate the coordination of their action in all social policy fields under this chapter, particularly in matters relating to ... (the) prevention of occupational accidents and diseases".

Methodological notes

Source: Eurostat - European Statistics on Accidents at Work (ESAW).

The data relate to almost 90% of persons in employment in the Union. Only those working accidents that lead to more than three days absence are included. The incidence rates have been calculated for only nine major branches of economic activity (NACE Rev. 1 sections). Data for Ireland the United Kingdom do not include road traffic accidents at work.

Further reading

- Statistics in Focus (Population and social conditions): "Accidents at work in the European Union in 1994", No.2/1998. Eurostat.
- "Social Portrait of Europe", 1998. Eurostat.
- "European Statistics on Accidents at Work - Methodology", 1998 Edition. Eurostat.
- "Precarious Employment and Health-Related Outcomes in the European Union", 1999. European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions.

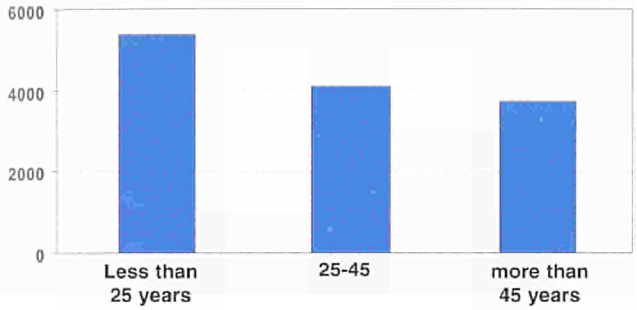
Key indicator

Working accidents (1) per 100 000 employed persons, 1996

	EU15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
Total	4229	5059	2704	5098	3783	6736	4964	1494	4179	4741	4251	4554	7214	3372	1217	1550
Age-group under 25	5405	9127	2701	6844	3733	8491	7796	1159	5458	6524	6861	4812	8913	4566	1160	1560
Agre-group 45 and over	3735	3666	2440	4276	4242	5449	4279	1650	4238	3869	2850	6028	6379	3004	1232	1486

(1) Only those working accidents that lead to more than 3 days absence are included
Source : Eurostat - European Statistics on Accidents at Work (ESAW)

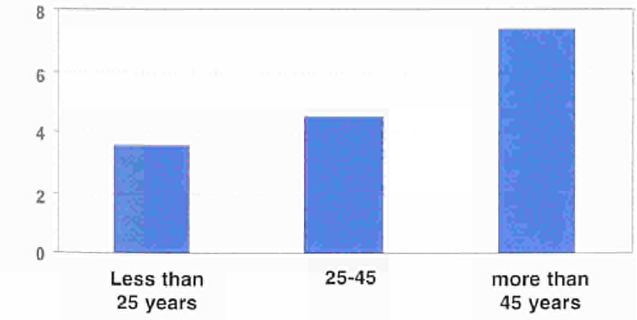
Accidents at work by age-group, EU-15, 1996



Accidents at work by type of activity EU-15, 1996

Source : Eurostat - European Statistics on Accidents at Work (ESAW)

Fatal accidents at work by age group, EU-15, 1995



Source : Eurostat - European Statistics on Accidents at Work (ESAW)

SECTION 2

MAIN SOCIAL DEVELOPMENTS

2.1. POPULATION TRENDS AND RELATED ISSUES

This chapter examines the trends and implications of demographic change, the changing family structure and household types as well as the changing participation patterns of men and women in the labour market

In brief,

- Extended longevity coupled with a significant decline in fertility over the last thirty years, has resulted in a fast transition towards a much older population that, according to demographic projections, will last for several decades. The trend towards population ageing is bringing about profound changes for all generations and most areas of economic and social activity. Its importance for the social economy, both in terms of supply and demand of social support, will grow further over the next several decades since the baby-boom generation, of significant size, is now approaching the age of retirement. In addition, people aged 80 years and above are increasing in size faster than any other age group. In the next decade, this age group will grow by 36%. This trend contributes to the growth of the demand for social services.

- Changes in household type and family size and structure have also been very significant. People are marrying less and at a later stage in their lives. Divorces are more frequent than in the past. Furthermore, in 1998 the average fertility rate in the EU was as low as 1.45 child/woman. This is among the lowest in the world. These changes mark a departure from a model of the married couple with children towards smaller sized and more frequently changing household forms such as childless couples, one person and single parent families. The new household structures appear to be, in most cases, more dependent on external social support.

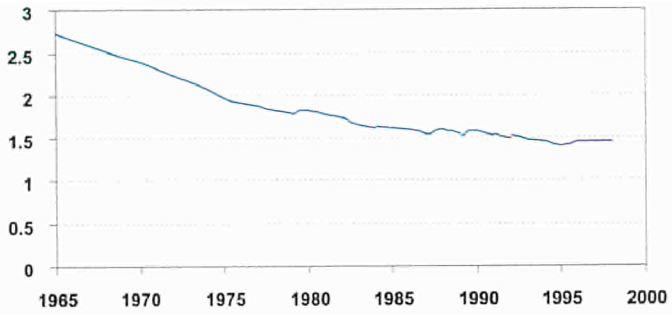
- The growing female participation in economic and social life has also been a very significant development strongly related to the trends mentioned above. In the last three decades, patterns of education and employment for men and women have become more similar. More women have been entering into paid employment and earning an entitlement to more individualised social rights. However, within the family, women still assume most of the caring responsibilities. In the future, these responsibilities are likely to increase the demand for social services.

2.1.1 The Ageing of the Population

At the turn of the millennium, the EU population faces an accelerating ageing process characterised by the following trends:

- **life expectancy is growing:** In 1998, life expectancy at birth was 80.8 years for women and 74.5 for males, resulting in a larger share of females in the older population.
- **fertility is decreasing:** With an average of 1.45 child/woman in 1998, the fertility rate in the EU was, together with that of Japan, the lowest in the world, but with differences between Northern and Southern Member States.

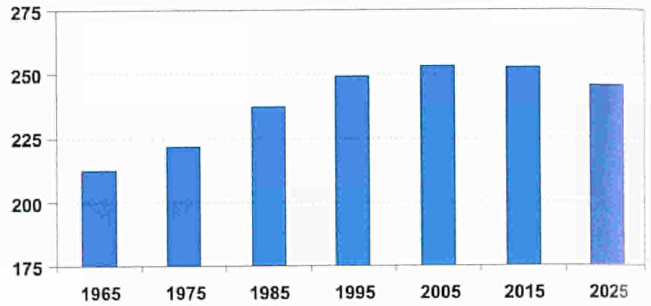
Total fertility rate (children per woman)
EU-15, 1965 - 1995



Source : Eurostat - Demographic statistics

- **less people under 15:** the number of younger people has fallen by one fifth over the last three decades and according to Eurostat Demographic projections, this trend will continue at the beginning of the next century.
- **the working age population is ageing...:** The diminishing younger incoming generation and the increase of people aged 50 and over (progressive arrival of baby boomers) will accelerate this trend in the future.
- **... and in the future the size of the working age population will decrease:** Progressive retirement of baby boomers combined with the decreasing inflow of young people will reduce the EU working age population from about 2010 onwards.
- **growth of the population over 65...:** The share of older people has been increasing quickly in the EU (aged 65 and over: 10.6% of total population in 1960, 15.9% in 1998).This trend will be even more important in the early decades of next century with the arrival of baby boomers into this age group.

Working age population
EU-15, 1965 - 1995



Source : Eurostat - Demographic statistics

- **...and even faster increase of the very old:** The growth of people above 80 years has been the most pronounced trend in the process of population ageing. According to the projections, their total number will increase by one third in the next decade.

The process of fertility decline started in the 1960's, first in the Nordic Member States and one decade later in the Mediterranean Member States. But the Nordic Member States experienced a fertility recovery from the mid-1980's until the first half of the 1990's. Nowadays, the lowest fertility levels can be found in the Mediterranean Member States, with a minimum below 1.2 children/women in Spain and Italy. This implies that the Southern Member States are ageing more quickly than the Northern ones.

Recent trends in population movements and urbanisation show that migration patterns vary depending on age and life cycle stage. As a consequence of these age-specific migratory patterns, the ageing process can be mitigated or accentuated by population movements in many regions. Therefore, the potential regional supply and demand of care can be also affected by migratory moves. These are factors that cannot be neglected in the estimation of future social services provision.

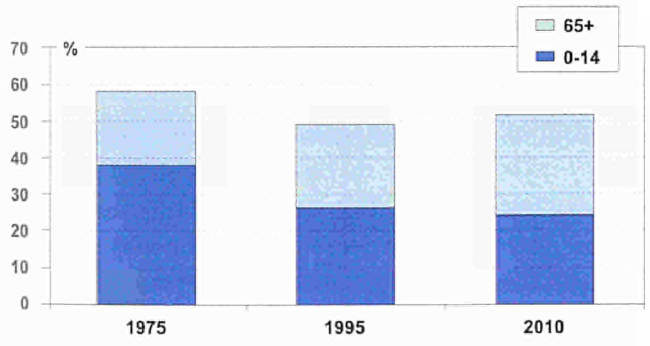
Related consequences

The following are the main demographic consequences of the trends described above:

a) **rising "dependent" population**: the ratio showing the population aged 0-14 and 65 years and over in relation to the population aged 15-64 (conventionally known as "dependency ratio" from a purely demographic point of view) fell in the EU from 58% in the mid-1970s to 49% in the mid-1990s as a consequence of fertility decline (the decreasing number of young dependant people was greater than the increasing number of older dependants). But this ratio is expected to rise in the next decades due to a faster ageing process caused by the arrival of the baby boomers.

- **more older people and less young people**: in the past, the younger population accounted for the majority of "dependants", whereas in the twenty-first century most "dependants" will be older people due to greater longevity, particularly among women.

Young and elderly populations in relation to the population aged 15-64, EU-15, 1975, 1995 and 2010



Source : Eurostat - Demographic statistics

b) **evolution of potential informal carers**: Considering the two main categories of care, i.e. child-caring and caring for older people, the potential number of informal carers must be considered.

- In relation to the carers of the decreasing younger generations, it is likely that the generations of their parents and grand parents will be under less pressure.
- However, informal care for older people requires further consideration. In most Member States, the 80 years and above age cohort will still have a high number of children upon which to rely over the next two decades (on average over 2 per older person) .

The demographic trend towards an increasing number of older people, especially those people aged 80 years and above, combined with a decline in the average length of working life due to longer schooling and compulsory retirement, have created potentially new pressures on relations between the generations and, as a result, the future sustainability of pensions, care and health systems may be put under increasing pressures.

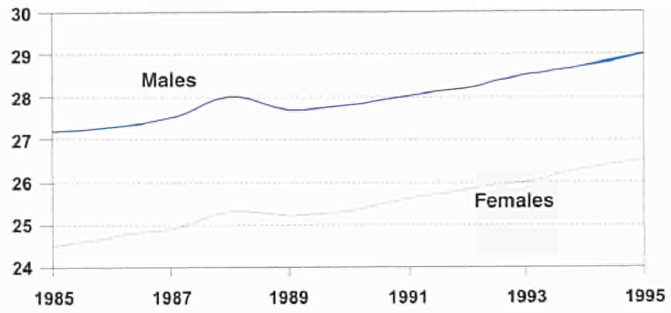
2.1.2 Some behavioural changes

The changing household and family patterns

The structure of families is being transformed in EU Member States as changes are occurring in the patterns of marriage, family formation and dissolution:

- **marrying less and later:** across the EU, marriage rates have been falling and had reached 5.1 per 1000 population in 1998, compared to 7.9 in 1960. At the same time, marriage is being postponed.

Mean age at first marriage
EU-15, 1985 - 1995

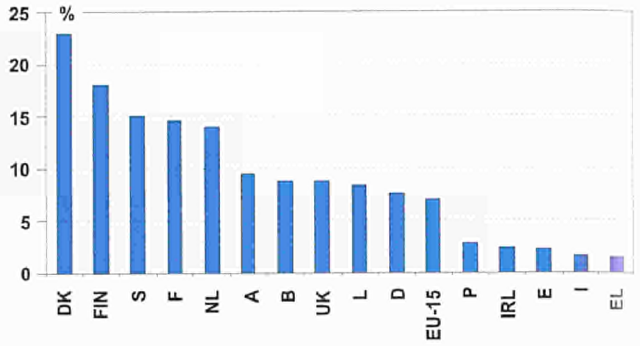


Source : Eurostat - Demographic statistics

- **divorcing more frequently:** marriage has become increasingly fragile as divorce rates have risen to relatively high levels, especially in the Nordic Member States and the United Kingdom.

- **increasing unmarried cohabitation...:** unmarried cohabitation has become a widespread living arrangement in the Nordic Member States, affecting about one in four of all couples, and is particularly prevalent among the younger age groups. Cohabitation is also increasing in the Mediterranean Member States, but is not yet of significant importance.

Percentage of individuals (living in couples) in a consensual union, 1995



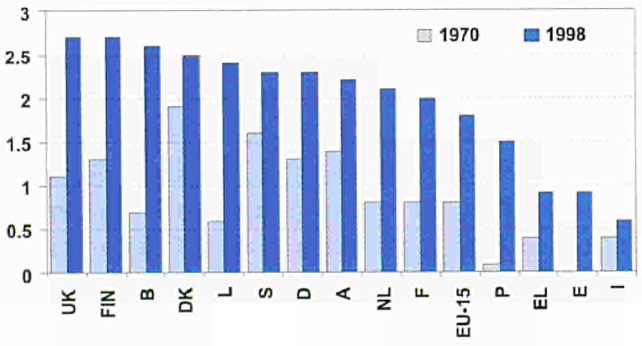
Source : Eurostat - European Community Household Panel

- **...and as a result, more extramarital births:** one in four births in the EU are presently from unmarried parents, however there are significant differences between Northern and Southern Member States.

The following are the main household trends:

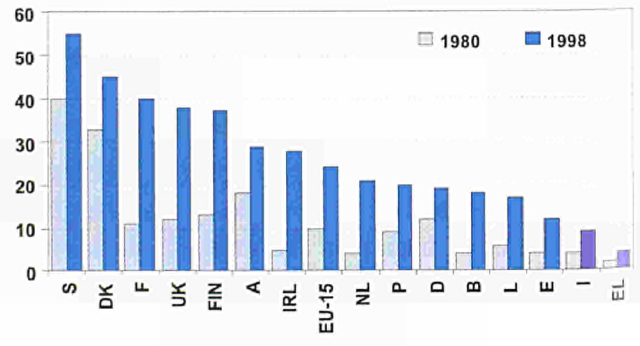
- **more households, but smaller:** while the average household size has decreased, the absolute number has increased. More people are now living in smaller types of household, whereas the proportion of people living in 4 or more person households is reducing.

Divorces per 1000 population, 1970 and 1998



Source : Eurostat - Demographic statistics

Percentage of live births outside marriage 1980 and 1998

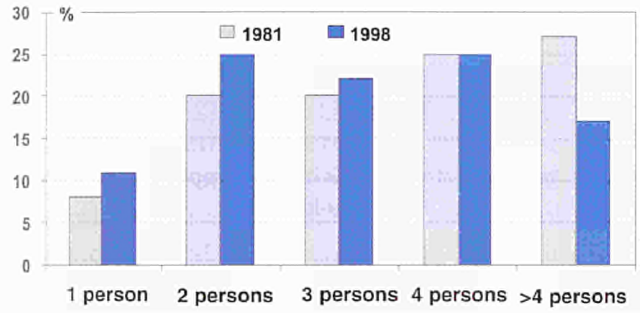


Source : Eurostat - Demographic statistics

The result of these trends is that household forms are changing more frequently, their size is decreasing and alternative family forms and non-family households are becoming more widespread, although with important variations between Member States (North-South dichotomy).

- **typical nuclear family still prevails:** in EU Member States the family, composed of a couple with children, remains the most frequent household form (55% of the citizens of the Union live in it), but its importance is slowly declining. However, the proportion of people living as a couple without children is growing (19% in 1995).

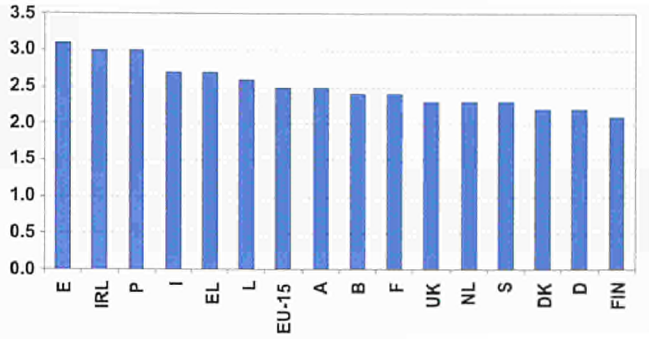
Population by household size, EU-15, 1981 and 1998



Source : Eurostat-Census (1981) and Labour Force Survey (1998)

- **rising single-parent households:** in 1995, 7% of the EU population lived in families where only one parent is present, usually the mother (in 90% of cases).
- **complex households are decreasing:** the number and relative importance of households formed by a nuclear family plus one or several additional people (grandparents, for instance), or formed by two or more families, is gradually decreasing, but is still very important in the Mediterranean Member States.
- **growing one person households:** more adults, especially older people, are living in one-person households. In 1995, 11% of people lived in this type of household in the whole of the EU, representing 26% of total households. The proportion of people living alone increases with age (10 % of people aged 20-64 live alone, 28 % in the age group 65-79, 45 % in the age group 85 years and above). Therefore population ageing plays an important role in the increase of single person households.

Average household size, 1998



Source : Eurostat - Labour Force Survey

Are there different family characteristics in the EU Member States ?

Although the tendencies towards household disintegration, individualism and reduced family dependence are common to all the Member States of the European Union, the household/family situation is far from being homogeneous. Different societal models preserve important differences in the way the family or the collective organisation define the frame of living conditions :

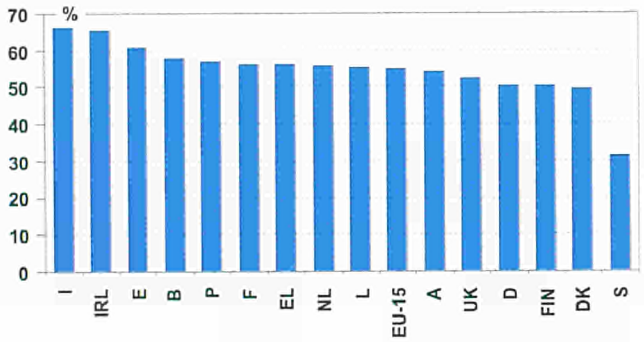
- The most conventional family patterns and household forms exist in **the Southern Member States and Ireland**. In these Member States, there is less incidence of divorce, unmarried cohabitation and extra-marital birth. Households forms change less frequently and their average size is bigger, ranging from 3.1 to 3.4 people per household. One-person households are only about 1/10th (between 8.7 % in Portugal and 13.5% in Ireland) of the total number of households, whereas four or more person households account for over 40%. This is due to the high proportions of younger people aged 16-30 living with their parents (up to two thirds in Italy) and of the number of three generation households (highest in Greece, with over 20 % of total number of households). On the other hand, households formed by a couple without children or headed by a single-parent are of little importance. Finally, the Mediterranean Member States also show the lowest share of fami-

ly/children benefits within total social benefits: 2% in Spain, 3.6% in Italy, 5.6% in Portugal, 8.3% in Greece, compared with an EU average of 8% in 1996. This suggests that many functions (especially caring) are still covered by the family.

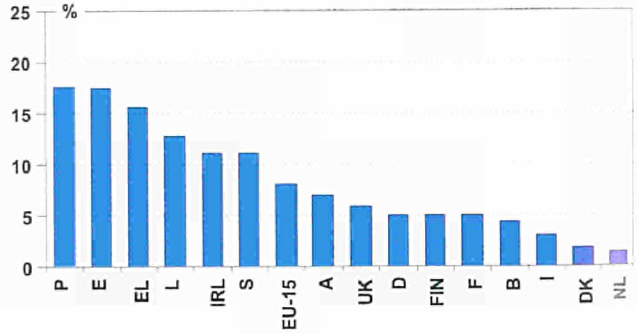
- The Nordic Member States are the opposite, with more development in the transition towards the new types of smaller households. These Member States are characterised by a high proportion of one-person households (between 29 and 31 % of total number of households) and only 20 % of households with four or more persons. Nordic Member States also show the lowest proportion of children aged 16-30 living with their parents (between 24% and 34%) - with more incidence of "couples without children" households - and the lowest share of three generation households (3%). Changing household forms are due to high incidence of divorce (more than 4 in 10 marriages contracted in 1980 are expected to end in divorce, compared to 2 in 10 for the 1960 cohorts). As a consequence, the relative importance of single-parent households is high, whereas the "couple with children" household is not so prevalent. Unmarried cohabitation is very common and about half of the births are from unmarried parents. Finally, the Nordic Member States show a significant development of family-interventionist public policies: family/children benefits represent over 10 % of total social benefits.

- Between these two "extremes", the other EU Member States show household characteristics with intermediate levels of development of the new family patterns and differing family-friendly public institutions and policies. Various mixes of family allowances, child-caring facilities, parental leave regulations, family-friendly fiscal settings, school attendance timetables, basic revenue grants, etc. determine specific national models.

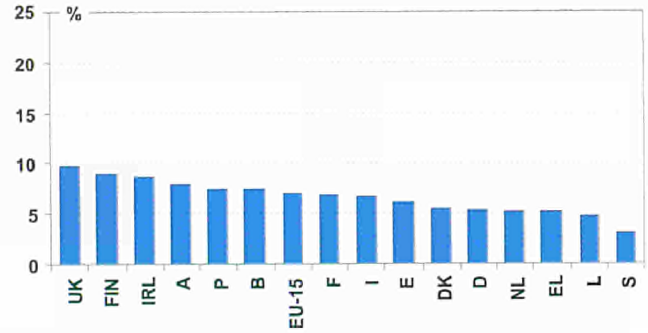
Percentage of people living in households made up of a couple with children, 1995



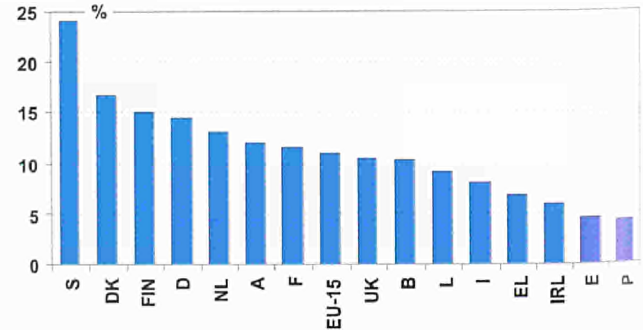
Percentage of people living in complex/extended households, 1995



Percentage of people living in single parent households, 1995



Percentage of people living in one-person households, 1995



Source : Eurostat - European Community Household Panel

Female labour force participation and changing gender relations

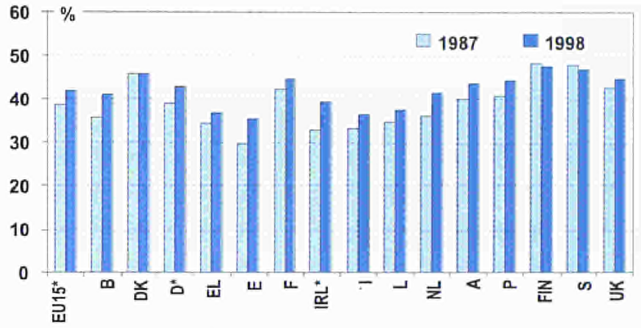
In the last three decades patterns of education and training, employment and unemployment have generally moved closer together for women and men. The following are the main characteristics of this evolution:

- **rising female education levels**: by the mid-1990s, women marginally outnumbered men at both the upper secondary (103 women/100 men for EU-15), and higher education levels (104 women/100 men).
- **decreasing male labour participation**: the prolonging of the education period for young people and the trend over the last two decades towards ever earlier exit from the labour market has substantially eroded participation rates for males.
- **increasing female labour participation...**: activity rates for women increased between the mid-1980s and 90s, while those for men were falling, bringing the rates for men and women closer together. Between 1987 and 1997, females accounted for 90% of additional employment across the EU. Consequently, their share in total employment has gone up, in the same period, by nearly 3 percentage points, from 39 % to 42%.
- **...more significant for the younger generations**: the difference in activity rates for men and women is smaller in the younger generations. So, as better-educated, younger generations of women keep joining the labour market, women's activity rates will keep increasing.
- **...but important differences exist across EU Member States**: while in Northern Member States female activity rates are already close to

Is the number of dependent children a determinant of female activity rates?

Female employment appears to be less and less dependent on the number of dependent children, but differences still exist: There is a significant decrease in employment rates due to the presence of one or more dependant children aged 0-5 in Member States like Germany, France and the United Kingdom. However, global female employment rates remain relatively stable for women in Belgium and Portugal. See Female Employment (1.12)

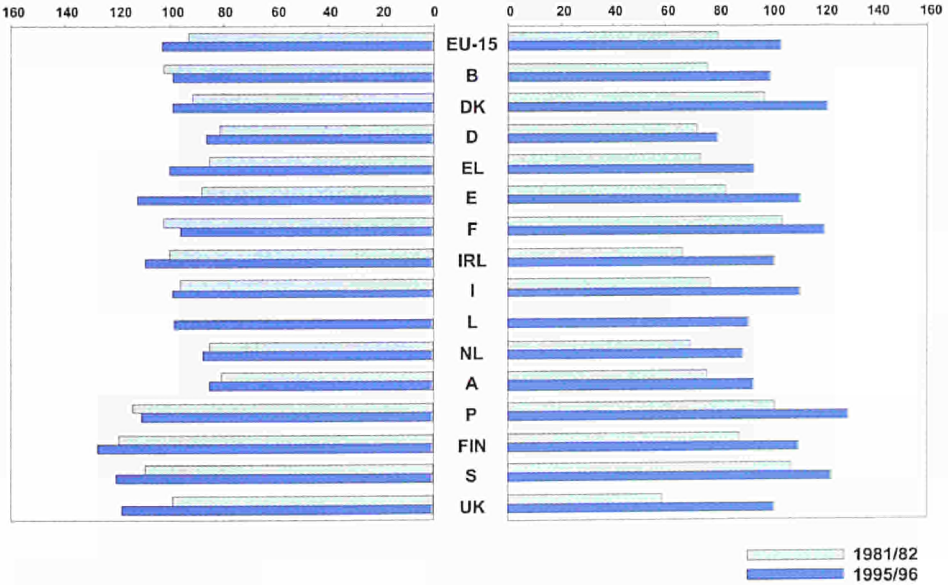
Female share in employment, 1987 and 1998



(*) BRD in 1987, D in 1998. IRL 1997 instead of 1998

Source : Eurostat - Labour Force Survey

Trends in female participation in upper secondary and tertiary education per 100 males, 1981/82 and 1995/96



Source : Eurostat - UOE (Unesco, OECD and Eurostat) questionnaires on education statistics.

male ones -especially in Finland (6.1 percentage points difference) and Sweden (6.5 percentage points)- disparities remain most notably in Greece, Spain, Ireland, Italy and Luxembourg, (around 30 percentage points).

- **future female activity trends**: Current trends indicate that women's activity rates may go on increasing. The decreasing gap between young female and young male employment rates should also add to a generation effect of female activity keeping pace with male activity in the future. This evolution is likely to be reinforced by the increasing educational level achieved by the younger generations.

...and more inequality persists at home

The greater commitment of women to paid work has not been accompanied by any significant redistribution of household labour, with women performing more than 80% of household tasks in all but the Nordic Member States, Sweden and the United Kingdom (see Statistical Annex). The disparities in terms of gender equality and sharing of tasks between men and women are most notable in Greece, Spain, Ireland, Italy and Luxembourg , while they appear to be less significant in the Nordic Member States.

Despite progress, differences between men and women in employment persist: Increasing female participation in the labour market does not mean that a complete elimination of sex discrimination has been achieved. More specifically:

- **lower female participation rates for the same education level**: women with an equivalent level of educational achievement to men showed consistently lower economic activity rates in the 25-39 age group, particularly in Greece, Ireland and Italy, but disparities are greater for the older age groups.
- **female employment patterns are less continuous**: a significant percentage of women continue to leave the labour market when they have young children, although many of them return as their children grow older.
- **larger female unemployment**: in most EU Member States (except Ireland, Sweden and the United Kingdom) active women are more likely than men to be unemployed.
- **more women in part-time jobs**: women are much more likely than men to be working part-time, but again rates vary markedly from one Member State to another (68% in the Netherlands compared to 11% in Greece);
- Higher shares of women are found in more **atypical forms of employment** e.g. temporary employment, family workers, home working and informal work.

Related Consequences

Some consequences of family/household transformation and new gender relations for the provision of social support are:

- **new household types may weaken family ties...**: the growth of smaller and frequently changing household forms could make intra-family solidarity networks weaker, making care provision more difficult within the family.
- **...and increase the demand for social services**: a significant number of single parent and one-person households have reduced incomes, limited family support and, therefore, depend on different forms of social assistance. This is particularly the case for the Nordic Member States.
- **new gender relations increase extra-family caring...**: as more working age women -traditionally main carers- have entered and remained in employment outside the home, fewer people are available to care for family dependants. So, public and private provision of child and older people care have been extended in many Member States, especially where female participation is higher.
- **...but family caring is still important**: across the EU, almost 40% of men and over 80% of women with children working more than 30 hours a week, were reporting that they provide more than 4 hours of child care per day, and 5% of men and 9% of women in the same working group care for older or disabled relatives for more than 4 hours a day. In the Mediterranean Member States, where public and market-provided social support are less developed, extended family still prevails and female activity rates are lower, informal care plays an important role.

2.1.3 The balance between the demand and supply of social support in the future

In terms of consequences, the information presented in the second section of this chapter shows that there is likely to be an increase in the demand for social services over the next two or three decades, mainly due to the unique combination of two trends. On the one hand there is the rapid ageing of the population. On the other hand, there are some important behavioural trends within European society relating to household size, family structures, employment situation and migration patterns which have important implications in terms of family support across the Member States.

> If current trends are maintained, it is likely that the overall imbalance between the need and the supply of family support will worsen due to a growing demand and constraining forces on the supply.

In particular,

- The **young cohorts are decreasing** in the vast majority of Member States, although at various speeds. The decrease is expected to be particularly steep in the Mediterranean Member States, which should alleviate the demand for child-caring services.
- The **working age population** is changing significantly. After several decades of growth, the demographic evolution will reverse this trend. With the younger generation remaining longer in education and decreasing quickly in size, the relative position of the younger generation in terms of jobs and revenue will improve, after the deterioration observed in the last decades. The most important aspect of the change within the working age population is its rapid ageing, i.e. the increasing share of people aged 50 and over, at a time when technological changes require constant re-skilling. This emphasises the importance of the development of lifelong learning.
- Although life expectancy has increased, since the 1950s, by 8-10 years, **labour force participation of the older male workers** (60-64) has dropped from close to 80% to approximately 30%. The trend over the last two decades towards ever earlier exit from the labour market has also substantially eroded participation rates for male workers in their fifties. It may be seen in some cases as the result of a widespread desire for more leisure as society and individuals grow wealthier. But a Eurobarometer survey demonstrates that at least 40 % of early retirees regard their labour market exit as primarily involuntary and would have liked to continue working in some capacity. The trend particularly reflects lower activity rates of male workers beyond a certain age, typically associated with industrial restructuring. Early exit accounted for a fall of more than 6 percentage points in the participation of men aged 55-64 between 1986 and 1997, contrasting with a slight increase of 4 percentage points for women, but from a lower initial level. If Europe maintains current levels of early exit from work, then the ageing of the labour force will lead to labour shortages and greatly accentuated old age dependency burdens. At the same time, workers currently retire 5-10 years earlier than their parents did, while they are, on average, in better health and they are likely to live between 6 and 8 years longer. As a result of the early exits and the substantial gains in longevity, there are today an increasing number of healthier people in their sixties who would like to maintain some form of activity and social involvement after the end of their professional life. This issue is examined in more detail in the last chapter of this section devoted to social participation.
- Dependent older people, mostly in the 75 years and above age group, will increase from 9 to 11 million between 2000 and 2010, whilst the 60 to 74 age group is hardly changing, preserving a relatively high number of potential informal carers for dependent older people. But the ratio between these two groups (75 years and above and 60-74 years) will increase quickly in the decades after 2010. Therefore, when considering the ageing issue over the next decade, much more attention will have to be given to the people in their sixties.
- **Compatibility between employment and family life**: Existing discriminations in the labour market and some of the more recent trends, like the

expansion of part-time jobs (mainly taken up by women), confirm a continuing division of roles by gender, leaving women with most of the workload as care-givers. However, the increasing future care demands and the increasing desire of women to integrate more widely in the labour market may raise tensions between family tasks and work. This imbalance can only be addressed with greater equality between sexes (with further progress in sharing family tasks between men and women) and making employment and family life more compatible for both men and women. Nevertheless, the new household structures appear to be, in most cases, more dependent on external social support.

2.2. LIVING CONDITIONS

This chapter aims to cover some of the areas within the broad field of living conditions and in particular to address those that may relate to an increasing need for social services. It begins by describing the four "welfare regimes" across Europe, which not only play a fundamental role in the present distribution and levels of living standards within Member States, but are also an important dimension in considering any future social developments.

The chapter looks specifically at consumption expenditure, housing conditions, health status, employment and finally considers the importance of education in the broader context of living conditions.

In brief,

- Consumption expenditure patterns for the EU in relation to income levels reveal some important differences in the allocation of the household budget. Lower income households have a significantly higher proportion of their consumption expenditure devoted to housing expenses and food, about 52%, compared to 35% for the higher income groups.

- Housing conditions have generally improved over the last decades, however certain vulnerable groups of society face significant problems in affording a residence which meets their needs. Many older people live on their own and have specific housing needs which the current housing stock does not meet giving rise to the need for social and health care. Growing numbers of older people in society could worsen this situation and lead to an increasing need for care.

- EU citizens are living longer and healthier than ever before. However, rising expectations of health care combined with the ageing of the population will give rise to an increased need for effective health and care services for the elderly, particularly women. There is also evidence that poor life style habits remain in society e.g. smoking, poor diets which deteriorate an individual's health status. People need to be well informed of the health risks involved at an early age to ensure healthy ageing in the future.

- Education levels have been consistently rising in the EU over the past years. At the same time, entry into the labour market has become more competitive putting increasing pressures on young people to be highly qualified. A significant proportion of young people currently leave the education system with lower secondary level qualifications. They immediately face significant challenges in finding employment and fulfilling their potential in society. They are a group at risk of exclusion and require assistance in terms of career advice, work experience and training opportunities.

EUROPE'S WELFARE REGIMES

This section specifies the nature of Europe's welfare regimes or groupings of the regimes. Of course, these groupings sometimes have important differences among them, and we begin to illustrate how national features can differ.

Seen "from below", the social protection systems of the Member States appear to be highly diverse: indeed so diverse that it may seem impossible to identify common traits and almost pointless to speak of the European social model. Each nation has followed a distinct path in welfare state development, which has left its mark on today's policies (and politics). In the eyes of country specialists, the dynamics of persistence clearly overshadow those of convergence. However, as the rich literature on welfare state 'models' (or regimes, or types) has shown, certain countries are less dissimilar than others. They share in fact a number of institutional ingredients that are systematically linked, that have produced a distinct "logic" of evolution over time and that, today, pre-structure in similar ways the reform agenda, in terms of both constraints and opportunities. Drawing on this literature, four different groupings of welfare state (one could say: four different 'social Europes') can be identified: the Scandinavian, the Anglo-Saxon, the Continental and the South European. The basic institutional ingredients on which this four-way partition rests are: 1) risk coverage and eligibility; 2) the structure of benefits; 3) financing mechanisms and 4) organisational arrangements.

a) Scandinavia

In the Scandinavian countries, as is well known, social protection is a citizen's right, coverage is fully universal and everybody is entitled to the same "basic amounts" (quite high by international standards) at the occurrence of social risks - even though the gainfully employed get additional benefits through mandatory occupational schemes. Besides generous income maintenance benefits, the Scandinavian systems offer a wide array of public social services and active labour market programmes, which sustain high participation rates on the side of both men and women. Public employment is also very extensive. General taxation plays a dominant (though not exclusive) role in the financing of the welfare state and taxing and spending levels are high by international standards. Public assistance plays a rather circumscribed, residual and integrative role. The various functions of social protection are highly integrated and the provision of benefits and services is mainly under the responsibility of (central and local) public authorities. The only sector that remains substantially outside this integrated organisational framework is unemployment insurance, which is not formally compulsory and is directly managed by the trade unions.

b) the United Kingdom and Ireland

The second "social Europe" is based on Beveridge's ideas and consists of the UK and Ireland. The coverage of social protection is highly inclusive, though not fully universal (except for health care): inactive citizens and the employed earning less than a certain threshold have no access to National Insurance benefits. These benefits - which are flat rate - are moreover much more modest than in Scandinavia. Conversely, the range of social assistance and means tested benefits is much more extensive. Health care and social services are financed through general taxation, but contributions play an important role in the financing of cash benefits. Tax and expenditure levels have remained relatively low (at least compared with Scandinavia and Continental Europe), and the same is true for public sector employment. As in Scandinavia, the organisational framework of the welfare state is highly integrated (including unemployment insurance) and entirely managed by the public administration: in the UK, the social partners are only marginally involved in policy making or management.

c) Continental Europe

This grouping includes Germany, France, the Benelux countries, Austria and (outside the

EU) Switzerland. Here the Bismarckian tradition centred on the linkage between work position (and/or family status) and social entitlements is still highly visible both in the field of income maintenance and in the health sector. Only the Netherlands and Switzerland have made this tradition partially hybrid by introducing some schemes of a universal character. Benefit formulae (proportional to earnings) and financing (through social security contributions) largely reflect insurance logics - even if not in a strict actuarial sense - often with different rules for different professional groups. Replacement rates are generous and coverage is highly inclusive (although fragmented): thus spending and taxing levels are high. The occupation-oriented approach manifests itself also in organisation and management. Trade unions and employersí associations actively participate in governing the insurance schemes, maintaining some marginal autonomy vis-a-vis public officials - especially in the field of health. The majority of the population is covered by social insurance, through individual or derived rights. Insurance obligations come into effect automatically at the beginning of a gainful job - though in Germany and Austria a minimum earning threshold is required. Whoever falls through the insurance net in these countries can fall back on a network of fairly substantial social assistance benefits.

d) Southern Europe

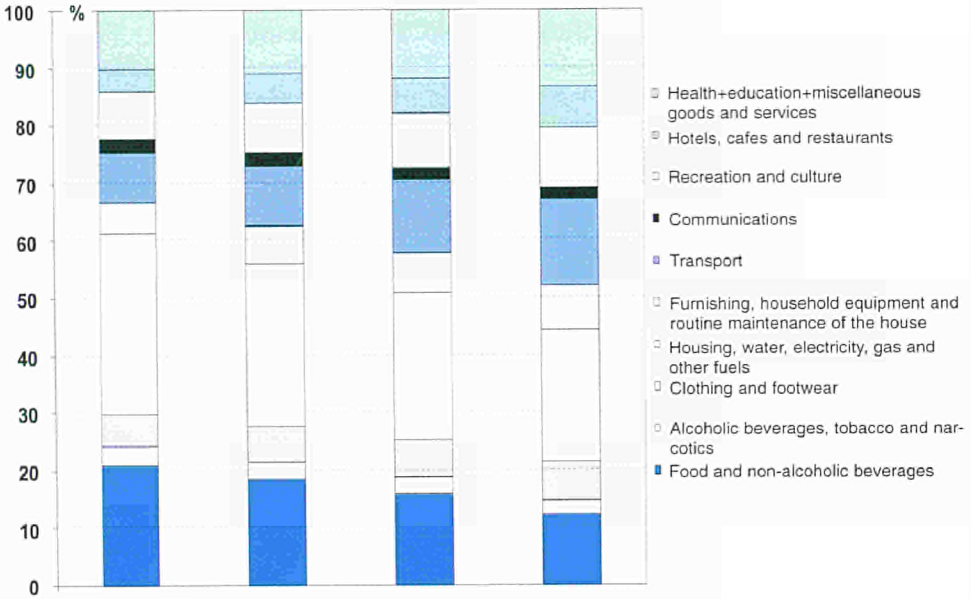
The last grouping of welfare states comprises Italy, Spain, Portugal and Greece. The degree of social protection maturity is different in these four countries: the Italian system took off much earlier than the other three, and this is well reflected in spending and taxing levels (especially for Portugal and Greece). But the South European welfare states display a number of common institutional traits, which set them somewhat apart from the Continental cluster. They share a mixed orientation in terms of coverage: they are clearly Bismarckian in the field of income transfers (with very generous pension formulas) and Beveridgean in the field of health care, having established universal national health services (fully realised, however, only in Italy and Spain). The safety net underneath social insurance is not very developed in these countries and occupational funds and the social partners play a prominent role in income maintenance policy, but less so in health care, which is largely decentralized - especially in Italy and Spain. Social charges are widely used but general taxation is gradually replacing contributions as a source of financing for health and social services (again, in Italy and Spain the process has been completed). The family is still highly important in Southern Europe and largely acts as a welfare "broker" for its members.

2.2.1 Levels of consumption expenditure

The main indicators used for the measurement of household living standards are income and expenditure. In the next Section (2.3), income is used extensively to describe the welfare level of the household and to analyse income inequalities. This section examines consumption expenditure across the EU in 1994[1] and looks at the differences in consumption patterns between different income groups (four income quartiles) with a view to identifying the needs and priorities of households in relation to their overall living conditions.

The above graph shows some significant differences in consumption expenditure patterns in the EU across the four income groups. **The most notable differences relate to expenditure on food, housing and transport.** Just over 20% of total consumption expenditure in the lowest income quartile (1st quartile) is devoted to food as opposed to about 12% in the highest income quartile (the 4th quartile). This is not unexpected, as food is a basic human need.

Percentage of total consumption expenditure by income quartile, EU-15, 1994



Source : Eurostat - Household Budget Survey, 1994

Another difference is found in the consumption expenditure on housing. **In the EU, nearly 33% of total consumption expenditure is taken up by housing expenditure in the lowest quartile compared to 23% in the highest.** This indicates, to some extent, the relatively high costs of adequate housing for the lower income group. However, there are some significant differences between Member States. In the United Kingdom the corresponding figures are 40% and 21% while in Luxembourg the share is between 28% and 29% across the four income quartiles.

Consequently, **the lower income group spends considerably less on transport, recreation, hotels/restaurants, health/education services and the miscellaneous category.**

Expenditures on transport, recreation and hotels/restaurants are likely to be associated with certain types of participation in society e.g. employment-related activities, membership of clubs, which may suggest that owing to household budget constraints, the lower income groups may have fewer opportunities to meet with different people.

Expenditure related to health and education is of particular relevance with regard to the need for social services. The information shows that **the lowest income group devotes just under 10% of total consumption expenditure to health/education (and miscellaneous) services compared to 13% in the highest group.** It is interesting to note that in absolute terms, the higher income group has a consumption expenditure level nearly 3.5 times higher than the lowest one. Given that this category includes services which are regarded as essential factors of social and economic well-being (health and education) this may indicate, to some extent, the relative dependence of the lower income groups on social services provided by the state.

[1] EU-15 excludes Austria

2.2.2 Housing characteristics

The characteristics of the dwellings where people live are one of the main indicators of their standard of living. They also play an important role on economic behaviour both in terms of consumption and in terms of participation in the labour market. Although housing conditions in the EU have globally improved in the last decades and only 18% of EU households are dissatisfied with their housing situation (ECHP, 1995), some problems remain. The analysis of the housing market and the dwelling stock in the Member States show that there are still many people living in dwellings with poor conditions, without economic access to a decent house or, in the extreme cases, are homeless.

More specifically,

- **vulnerable groups are the most affected by lack of basic amenities...:** On average, only 5% of the households lack one or more basic amenities (indoor flushing toilet, hot running water and a bath or shower), but the situation is worse for elderly households, particularly those living alone
- **...by overcrowded dwellings...:** the percentage of people living in overcrowded houses (more than one person per room) is 18% in the EU, but unemployed people, low-income households and households with three or more children experience above average levels of overcrowding.
- **...and by other housing problems:** 17% of households report three or more housing problems in relation to noise, insufficient natural light, pollution, inadequate heating facilities, vandalism etc. but the percentage is higher in households headed by a single-parent with dependent children and in low-income households.
- **almost a quarter of all EU households report 'heavy' financial burdens due to housing costs,** but this percentage is much larger among low-income households (39%), single-parents with dependent children (37%) and couples with three or more dependent children (30%).
- **around 4% of homeowners with a existing loan or mortgage and 9% of tenants were in arrears with their repayments** during 1994. In addition, 5% of EU households found themselves in arrears with their utility bills. Greece (30%) has by far the highest proportion.
- **security of housing** is an issue for nearly one fifth of European households. 18% of European households report incidents of crime or vandalism, with Spain, France, Portugal, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom showing the highest incidence.

Housing conditions of the elderly

The majority of the Union's elderly population (aged 65 and over) either live alone (32%) or with a partner (51%) in mainstream housing. A further 13% live with other relatives or friends. Only 4% live in a home or institution.

The elderly should not however be regarded as a single age-group. While only 28% of those aged 65-79 are living alone, this proportion rises to 45% among the 'very old' (those aged 80 and over). Furthermore, up to 10% of the 'very old' are living in homes or institutions compared with only 2% of those aged 65-79.

There are also important differences between Member States in terms of where the elderly live. In Denmark and Sweden, more than 60% of the 'very old' live alone compared with around 20% in Spain and Portugal. In the two latter countries, around 40% of the 'very old' live with in large households, usually with their children or other relatives.

The following conclusions are based on information pertaining to the elderly living alone or with a partner. It therefore excludes those old people living with their children and those in homes or institutions.

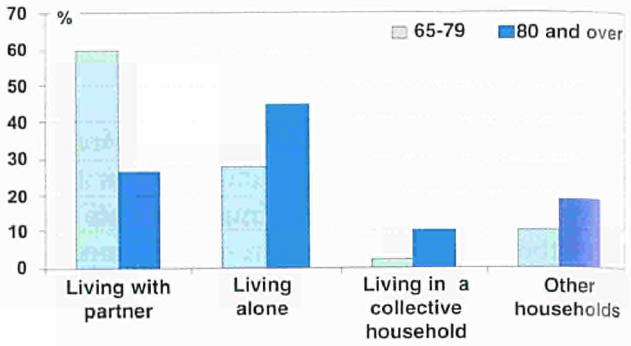
Elderly living alone less likely than elderly couples to be owner-occupiers ... In most Member States, the level of home ownership among the elderly is similar to that of the population as a whole. A notable exception is the Netherlands where only 30% of elderly households are owner-

occupiers compared with almost 50% of all households. However, for all Member States, there are more owner-occupiers among older couples (EU average of 68%) than among older people living alone (EU average of 50%. The gap is particularly wide in Denmark (factor of more than 2), Germany, the Netherlands and Austria.

The elderly are more likely to be without basic amenities...: For the Union as a whole, only 5% of households are not equipped with the following basic amenities in their accommodation: bathroom or shower, indoor flushing toilet and hot running water. By comparison, 9% of elderly households are missing at least one of the three basic amenities. Elderly persons living alone seem particularly vulnerable (EU average 12%) with a sizeable proportion (16-21%) lacking at least one of the above amenities in Belgium, France, Ireland and Austria. Portugal represents an outlier with more than half of this group affected.

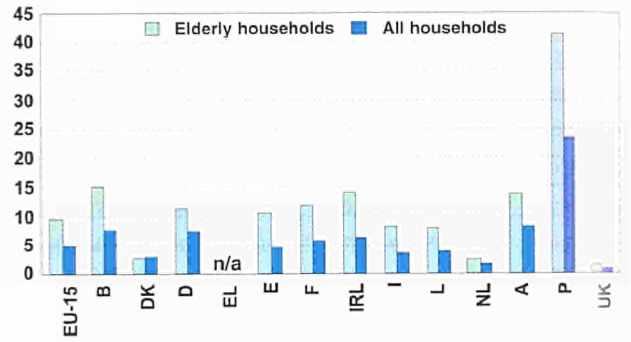
The elderly are slightly more satisfied than the younger generation with their housing... the proportion of elderly people reporting various problems (e.g., noise, rot/damp, lack of space, pollution) and expressing dissatisfaction with their housing is generally lower than for the rest of the population. The exceptions are Greece and Italy where the elderly are less satisfied than the younger generation with their housing.

Distribution of the elderly population by age-group EU-15, 1995



Source : Eurostat - 1995-based (baseline) household scenarios

Percentage of households lacking at least one of three basic amenities, EU-15, 1995



Source : Eurostat - European Community Household Panel

2.2.3 Health status in the EU

This section describes health trends in the Member States. The population has never been healthier. At the same time health systems face particular challenges owing to the ageing of the population. In addition, significant advances in new medical technologies for diagnosis and treatment have raised the expectations of European citizens in relation to the quality and range of health services that should be available.

Mortality and Morbidity

There has been a consistent decline in the overall mortality rate in all Member States during the last decades, but this decline has not been uniform across all age groups. The graphs below show that the downward trend in mortality rates in recent years has not been experienced for those people aged between 25 and 35 years where male rates have increased slightly and female ones have remained at similar levels. This is mainly explained by an increasing number of deaths arising from accidents, suicides etc. and, to a lesser extent, the impact of AIDS in this age group. The graphs also indicate that in general, men are at greater risk of dying than women at all ages.

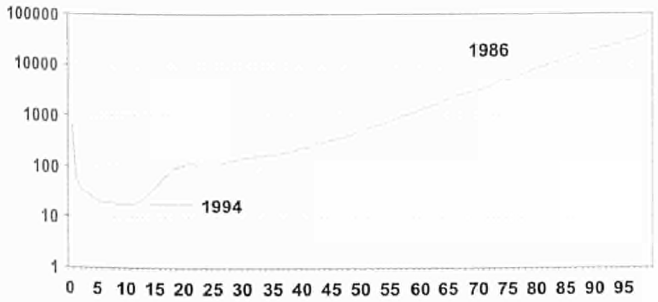
The current major causes of deaths in the EU are cardiovascular diseases, cancer, respiratory diseases, traffic accidents and AIDS which is a new and growing threat. However,

- **causes of death vary significantly with age...** In infancy and childhood, respiratory and infectious diseases as well as accidents are the leading causes of death. In young people, accidents and suicide are the main killers: as many as 43% of male deaths and 33% of female deaths are due to accidents and suicide. Cardiovascular disease and cancers become more frequent in late- middle age. Around 50% of deaths of the elderly (65 years and above) are due to cardiovascular diseases. Another important problem affecting the elderly is the impact of chronic mental diseases like Alzheimer's.

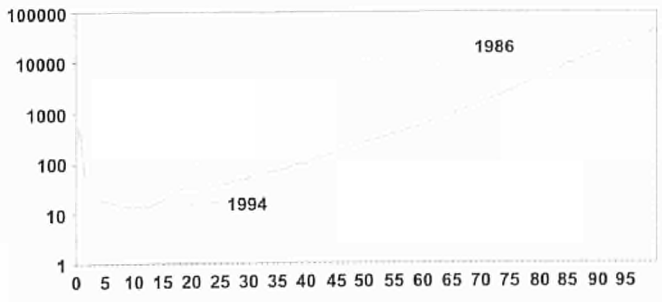
Even though there has been an overall decline in mortality rates across Member States, there are still some specific causes of death which continue to pose significant challenges, in particular cancer.

- **Cancer** is the second most common cause of death in Europe after cardiovascular diseases. In the age group 35-64 as many as 40% of the total deaths are due to cancer, whereas among the elderly, the corresponding percentage is around 20%. Lung cancers, cancer of the prostate (for men) and breast cancer (for women) are the most common types of cancer. **The ageing impact in breast cancers is severe** because as many as 60% of the deaths occur after 65 years of age. There is an increasing trend among elderly women.

Probability of dying (x100 000 people) by age, males EU-15, 1986 and 1994



Probability of dying (x100 000 people) by age, females EU-15, 1986 and 1994



Source : Eurostat - Demographic Statistics

Mortality rates do not however provide a full description of the health status of a population. Information is needed on the number of people suffering particular illnesses i.e. **morbidity rates**. This provides a better understanding of the demands that are made upon a health system. Currently, owing to differences in the collection of morbidity data across Member States, there are little comparable data for the EU as a whole. However national statistics (in relation to hospital admissions and number of days spent in bed) provide some information on the relative importance of the various diseases in terms of morbidity[2].

- Cardiovascular diseases are the most important cause of ill health. However cancer is of less importance in morbidity than in mortality as there are several significant non-fatal diseases, notably musculoskeletal and respiratory which are strongly related to life style habits such as excessive smoking and drinking, lack of exercise, non-nutritious diet, stress and poor working conditions.
- Drug dependence is also on the increase. An increasing number of individuals (particular younger people) are involved in drug abuse which has substantial implications on social and health problems.
- Instances of chronic mental illnesses among older people, such as Alzheimer's, are also increasing. In terms of provision of care, these illnesses have significant implications for the demand for care in the future, particularly in the light of the ageing of the population.

Perceived health

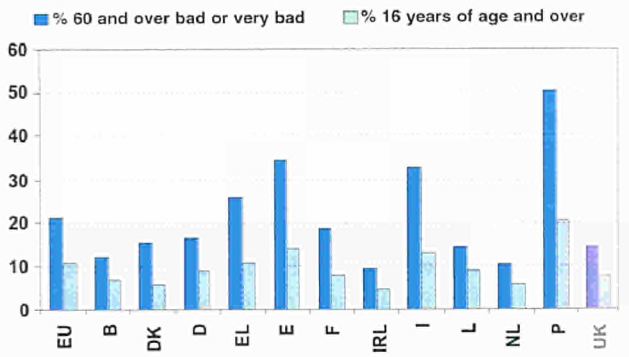
An important dimension of health, is the perceived health of citizens (see also Life and Health expectancies, 1.14). A feeling of being unhealthy has considerable implications on one's ability to participate in civil society.

- **As many as 65% of the Europeans** report that their health is very good (22%) or good (43%). Only 10% of the population reports a very bad (3%) or bad (7%) health status. Substantial differences in reported health exist between the Member States ranging from 19% with bad/very bad health in Portugal to 4% in Ireland. All the Southern European Member States reported lower levels of perceived health. Poorer health is more frequently reported among women.

- **Perceived health is influenced by age...** The majority of the young population report very good health and only 1% to 2% report bad or very bad health. The proportion of people with health problems increases with age, and 21% of the elderly population report bad, or very bad health, which is just over double the average value of all ages. (10%).

- **...and some interesting differences exist**. Sex inequalities in perceived health exist among the EU Member States. On average 70% of male and 63% of female EU citizens declared a good or a very good level of health. The highest levels of health status have been reported in Denmark, Ireland, the Netherlands and Austria. The lowest level is reported in Portugal, which has also the highest difference between the sexes. Following Portugal, Greece, Italy and Luxembourg, are the Member States with the largest differences by sex.

The ageing impact on self reported health, 1995



Source : Eurostat - European Community Household Panel

[2] European Commission, Public Health in Europe, 1997

2.2.4 Employment and living conditions

The employment situation has always played a dominant role in living conditions. Since the early 1970s, the EU labour market has undergone profound changes. Unemployment has been the most important issue. The high level of unemployment, particularly among the younger generations, has had a significant impact on European society. Participation in the labour force for young people has fallen somewhat in the last few years. To a certain extent, this fact can be explained by increases in the number of young people enrolled in post-secondary education (see next section 2.2.5 - Education). However, the proportion of young people will fall significantly during the next ten to fifteen years. This trend will be more pronounced in the Mediterranean Member States - Greece, Spain, Italy and Portugal, as well as in Ireland, and to a lesser extent in France. These Member States should therefore see their share of young entries converging towards the higher levels found in Northern Europe. This global decrease of the younger cohort may facilitate the integration of the young into the labour market.

Over the last decades, demographic growth, reinforced by rapidly growing female participation, played a significant role in the labour market by increasing the working age population and expanding the labour supply. However, given the demographic trends over the next fifteen years, women will be practically the only source of labour supply growth. Even in the case of some marginal rises in male participation due to expected reductions of the early retirement schemes, these would be counterbalanced by the increasing duration of initial education which will further delay the entry of the younger generations into the labour market. Nevertheless, women continue to be over-represented in the more vulnerable and lower paid (part-time or temporary) career patterns. The prospect of increased female participation in the labour market raises, among other things, the question of reconciliation of family life and work. The links between activity rates and the demography of the family and households have been shown in a number of studies.. For a number of women, the birth of a child means that they stop working or, in certain cases, seek alternative part-time employment. Depending on the country, this change, prompted by the birth of a child, can sometimes be permanent for any number of reasons, ranging from the availability of child-care services to cultural factors.

Trends in the demography of families will become increasingly important. With increased life expectancy, it is not unusual to find three or four generations living at the same time, and increased demographic ageing is set to make this even more common. Within the family structure, it is usually the woman who cares for elderly people when they become dependent. In the future, this burden of responsibility is likely to increase as smaller families mean that the task is spread among fewer individuals.

An additional consideration, with respect to social protection, is that female participation has been relatively low in the past decades. This, combined with the fact that women live on average 6 to 8 years longer than men may give rise to an increasing number of poor and socially excluded older women who are insufficiently covered by social protection systems.

For the last five years, average overall activity rates have been quite stable at around 68 % with a falling rate for men and an increasing rate for women of all ages. This particularly reflects lower activity rates by male workers beyond a certain age, typically associated with industrial restructuring. This accounted for a fall of more than 6 percentage points in the participation of men aged 55-64 between 1986 and 1997, contrasting with a slight increase of 4 percentage points for women, but from a lower level. Early retirement has also been seen as a way to create more employment opportunities for the young unemployed, although it must be said that the direct link between early retirement and job creation for the young has been weaker than expected. With the ageing of the labour force, if the Union maintains current levels of early exit from work, there will be

labour shortages and greatly accentuated old age dependency burdens. Today, investment in training and staff development is concentrated on the younger cohorts, leaving the middle and older cohorts with gradually depreciating qualifications and, therefore, less able to cope with change. Over the working lifetime, their risk of marginalisation and eventual exclusion from the labour market grows. In the end, older workers often find that early retirement is the only choice left to them.

To maintain an increasing number of active older people requires investment in their skills and their motivation. Work in community and third sector enterprises is an area where older people are particularly active. It may often meet the requirements for promoting active ageing and gradual retirement. These sectors should be made more accessible to the older part of the labour force.

Employment and people with disabilities

The European Community Household Panel (ECHP) provides a valuable insight into the employment characteristics and the problems faced by disabled people in relation to the labour market[3] . In the EU, nearly 5% of people of working age (15-64 years) reported to be severely hampered in their daily activities and 12% were *hampered to some extent.*

The proportion of hampered people in employment is significantly lower than for those people who are not hampered and there are important differences between men and women. In 1994, 36% of severely hampered men and 63% of men hampered to some extent were in employment compared with a figure of 76% for men of working age who were not hampered. For women, the corresponding figures were 25% (severely hampered), 40% (hampered to some extent) compared to 55% (as reported in the ECHP) of unhampered women of working age in employment.

[3] ECHP, 1994 excludes Austria, Finland and Sweden. See also Employment in Europe, 1997

2.2.5 Education and human resources development

Education plays a prominent role in overall living standards. Section 1 (the statistical portraits) and this chapter show many examples where higher educational levels of citizens are strongly associated with better living conditions e.g. in terms of labour market participation, training opportunities at work and income levels. Given the presentation of the changing social trends, in relation to population ageing, household and family structures, technological advances, it is clear that the educational systems throughout the Union need to be responsive to the developing needs of society in a rapidly changing environment. In addition, the ageing of the population combined with the transition to a knowledge-based society and the changing nature of work, emphasise the importance of new approaches to human resources development such as age management, lifeling educaiton and continuous training.

The educational level of the EU population has in fact been increasing steadily over the last decades through increased periods of compulsory education, a broader range of subjects being taught at schools, and the more recent promotion of life-long learning strategies. However difficulties in accessing appropriate educational services remain for certain groups of society, particularly those with lower incomes. These groups are likely to experience poorer living conditions and ultimately at greater risk of social exclusion.

Education and the youth employment

Regardless of educational background, participation in the labour force for young people has fallen somewhat in the last few years. To a certain extent, this fact can be explained by increases in the number of youth enrolled in post-secondary education. Diplomas at both the secondary and post-secondary levels remain the best predictor of success in the labour market. It is therefore crucial that continued improvements in educational systems are made to prevent young people leaving school with low levels of educational qualifications. Indeed, the growing competitiveness of the labour market exerts an increasing pressure on young people to be highly educated and to possess marketable, work-place skills.

Despite considerable progress, 22% of 18-24 year olds leave the education system without completing a qualification beyond lower secondary schooling (see Education outcomes, 1.2). This group are at risk of unemployment and social exclusion and represent a major concern for social policy. In addition to young people, other disadvantaged groups such as poor families with young children, the disabled, migrants and other minorities are confronting similar risks.

These population groups need support on a number of different levels that are rarely offered by the formal education systems. Firstly, these groups need the opportunity to acquire some of the soft skills required in the workplace, such as communication skills, teamwork, leadership and accountability. Secondly, there is a need for practical information about career possibilities that might match their interests and aptitudes. Many people in these groups indicate that choosing an appropriate career path is in fact the most difficult task facing them, and that things would tend to fall into place once that decision had been made. Thirdly, to avoid the "no experience, no job trap" it is vitally important that these groups are offered the opportunity to acquire some real workplace experience through exposure to different jobs and tasks.

Education and people with disabilities

In 1994, a lower proportion of people of working age who reported to be severely hampered or hampered to some extent, had a university degree or the equivalent compared with those people of working age who were not hampered. However there was only a small difference in the proportions of those with upper secondary education.

In relation to hampered people in employment, only 13% of the severely hampered men and 20% of men hampered to some extent had a university degree or the equivalent, compared with a figure of 27% of those who were unhampered and in employment.

The corresponding figures for women in employment were 15% (of the severely hampered), 16% (of those hampered to some extent) compared with 23% of unhampered women.

2.2.6 Implications on the demand and supply for social services

Even though there is evidence of a general improvement in living conditions across the EU, the study of socio-economic trends indicates several note-worthy developments which are sources of increasing social demand.

- Consumption expenditure patterns by income level indicate that vulnerable groups in society (low income, unemployed, the elderly) may not have the ability to access an adequate level of health and social services they require to ensure a decent standard of living. They are likely to be more dependent on the services provided by the state.

- Rapid changes in household structure and size have generated increased imbalances in housing. On the one hand, a growing number of old people are living in houses that do not correspond to their specific needs. On the other hand, younger people with families find it particularly difficult to find adequate housing at an affordable price. Inadequate housing conditions can lead to a deterioration of an individual's health, education and employment opportunities which increases the need for health and social services.

- In the area of health and care services there is evidence that the most vulnerable groups in society (i.e. long-term unemployed, people with special needs, very old people, minorities) are exposed to higher health risks facing, in turn, increasing needs for health and care services. Among those categories, the growing number of 'very old' (aged 80 and over) constitute an increasingly important group with specific needs in terms of the health and care services..

- Despite considerable progress in education levels, 22% of 18-24 year olds leave the education system without completing a qualification beyond lower secondary schooling. This group is at risk of unemployment and social exclusion given the increasing entry requirements of the labour market. There are other disadvantaged groups confronted with similar risks. These population groups need support on a number of different levels that are rarely offered by the formal education systems.

2.3. INCOME DISTRIBUTION AND INTERGENERATIONAL ISSUES

This chapter deals with the income levels and income distributions in the EU Member States, and with the roles of social and private transfers

In brief,

- **Mean disposable income** varied considerably within the EU in 1994[1]. Most Member States had a mean between 11 and 14 thousand PPS (Purchasing Power Standards), but the four Southern Member States had a low level (7.5 to 10 thousand PPS) and Luxembourg had a very high level (22 thousand PPS). In six Member States, covering 62% of EU population, the means were surprisingly close to each other: their values vary from 13.3 to 13.9.

- Greece, Ireland and Portugal, with relatively low income levels had the highest levels of **inequality in 1994**. Denmark and the Netherlands on the other hand had low levels. Following a downward trend, inequality has been rising in most Member States since 1980. However, this rise has not been uniform, neither by Member State, nor over time.

- The combined effects of (net) market income and **social benefits** are largely responsible for the income distribution in all Member States. Social benefits diminish inequality within Member States considerably. However, they enlarge differences in inequality between Member States by almost a half. The size of social benefits and their redistributive effect are positively related, suggesting that it takes a larger part of GDP (Gross Domestic Product) to redistribute more. But this relation does not hold for all Member States. For almost all Member States, there is a strong correlation between a higher mean disposable income and a larger redistribution by social benefits. It should be noted however, that another pattern could emerge if the redistribution by taxes and social contributions were included.

- **Private transfers of money[2] between households** probably play a very moderate role. Their frequency and mean amounts are small compared to social benefits. Private transfers reduce inequality too, but to a much smaller extent than social benefits.

- **Redistributive effects of received social and private transfers by age** are clearly visible. Social benefits mainly favour the elderly and the 50-64 age group, while private transfers favour persons under 50 years of age, notably the 16-24 age group.

- **The consequences of future income developments for social support** are relatively uncertain. Economic growth may be expected to yield better health, but the expectation of increasing income inequality and growing shares of low-income groups is likely to lead to an increase in health inequality and the demand for social support.

[1] Analysis of income for the EU is based on the European Community Household Panel (ECHP conducted across 13 Member States. Unfortunately, therre are no pan-European sources that provide data over time although the ECHP will allow such analysis in the near future.

[2] Excluded are money transfers within households and all transfers 'in kind', for which data are not available.

2.3.1 The distribution of income

The EU structure of the income distribution is the following:

- **Mean disposable income[3] was 12.1 thousand PPS in 1994...:** Mean disposable income, measured on a purchasing power parity basis, was 12.1 thousand PPS in the EU. The income has been equivalised, i.e. corrected for differences in household size and scale effects of households. See Income distribution (1.10).

- **... but differs between Member States:** In six Member States, covering 62% of the EU population, the means were surprisingly close to each other, varying from 13.3 to 13.9 thousand PPS. On the other hand, the Southern Member States ranged from 7.7 to 9.9, while Luxembourg was strikingly higher (22.2) . See Statistical Annex.

- **Income from work and social benefits (i.e., received social transfers) are the most important components:** On average, 70% of disposable income arises from work (employment and self-employment), around 25% from pensions and other social transfers, and the remaining 5% from capital and other private sources. In all Member States, old-age and survivors benefits formed the largest part of the social transfers (14 to 26% of disposable income), including private pension schemes. Most of the other types of social transfers were less than 6% of disposable income.

- **Households with one adult person are worse off...:** For the Union as a whole, the median equivalised income of a one-person household is 88% of the national median income . In all Member States, men living alone have a higher median income than women . See Income distribution (1.10).

- **...compared with households of more than one adult:** See Income distribution (1.10).

- **Persons aged 25 to 64 have the highest incomes...:** The income levels of young persons aged under 25 (92% of the national median) and older persons aged 65 and over (89%) are much lower than the rest of the population aged 25 to 64 (110%) . This pattern was not universal in all Member States. See Income distribution (1.10) and Statistical Annex.

- **Gender differences persist:** As mentioned earlier, women living alone have a lower median income than men. Furthermore, unemployment among women is some 3 percentage points higher than among men. See Female employment (1.12). The hourly monthly earnings of women are 74% of that of men See Earnings of men and women (1.13) This difference can be partly attributed to differences in the types of jobs, in levels of educational attainment, in age and in working hours per week.

- **Inequality differs across the EU...:** Inequality, measured by the share ratio S80/S20 or the Gini coefficient, is found to be highest in Portugal. Ireland and Greece have also relatively high levels of inequality. The lowest values are to be found in Denmark, the Netherlands and Finland. See Income distribution (1.10).

- **The lower end of the distribution...:** The first (lowest) decile share of disposable income differed by more than a factor of two between the two most diverging countries in 1994. It was lowest for Portugal (2.1%), followed by Greece and Italy, and highest for Denmark (4.3%), followed by the Netherlands and France. Portugalís second and third decile also had the lowest shares of the EU. Portugal combined the lowest mean disposable income with the lowest share of disposable income for the first three deciles, with Greece a close second.

[3] Disposable income is all money income from (self-)employment and other private income, plus received social and private transfers. Excluded are paid direct taxes and social contributions. Income in kind, e.g. imputed rent (the constructed income value of home ownership) is not included in this analysis. Disposable income and its distribution reflect differences in the sare persons have in the national income of Member States and in their command over goods and services. Most of the data used in this chapter stem from the European Community Household Panel (ECHP). For France, not all information is available, and Sweden and Finland are not included in the survey

- **... and at the upper end:** In all Member States, the seventh to tenth deciles had more than proportionate income shares. In the upper decile, Portugal had the highest share (almost 28%), followed by Ireland (more than 26%). The smallest share was found in Denmark (20%). Portugal also had the highest share in the ninth decile. It should be noted that these high shares only have a relative meaning within Portugal. The absolute incomes in these deciles were not particularly high, because of the low mean income of that country. In fact, both Greece and Portugal had the lowest absolute mean income in their highest deciles in 1994.

- The **share of low-income groups** correlates strongly with the overall inequality. High shares (21-24%) are found in Greece, Ireland, Portugal and the United Kingdom, low shares (10-11%) in Denmark and the Netherlands.

Almost half of EU citizens claim to have financial difficulties...: Income is an objective measure of the command over goods and services, but it does not necessarily correspond to the experience of people. It is therefore important to ask people whether their household has difficulty in making ends meet. Almost half of the persons in the EU were in households claiming at least some difficulties in 1994. Most difficulties were reported in the Southern Member States, where Greece and Portugal had figures of almost 80%, followed by Spain and Ireland..

... and their problems seem to be related to low incomes: Greece, Portugal and Spain have the lowest mean disposable incomes in the EU and relatively high levels of inequality. The shares of people in households with difficulties were more than 90% in the first three or four income deciles in Greece and Portugal, suggesting that measured low income and reported difficulties are closely related. On the other hand, one has to be careful in attributing absolute value to reported difficulties. Even in relatively wealthy Member States, still some 10 to 20% of people in the two highest deciles felt hampered by financial difficulties.

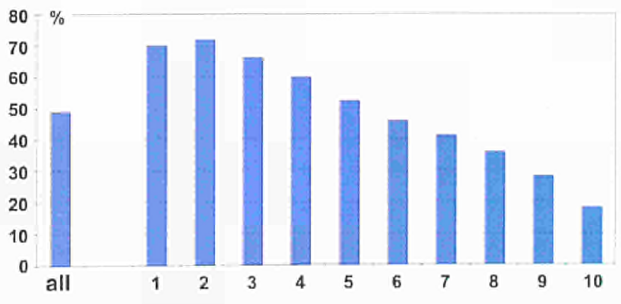
- **Inequality rose in most EU Member States...:** Data from other sources, which are not comparable across Member States, but comparable in time for each Member State, show that inequality rose in most Member States over the period 1980-1995[4]. A decline occurred in the decades before 1980.

- **... but the recent rise in inequality was not universal:** The inequality increase between 1980-1995 was greatest in the Denmark, the Netherlands, Sweden and the United Kingdom. A moderate increase was observed in France, Germany, along with Japan and the United States. In Ireland and Finland the change was negligible, and Italy experienced a slight decrease. In many of these Member States, inequality had declined in the decades before 1980.

- **Wealth inequality** is less well documented because of much poorer data availability. Some research has shown that France, Germany, Sweden and the United Kingdom were at roughly comparable levels of personal wealth inequality in the mid-1980s, while the United States ranked much higher and Japan was much less unequal. In the United States, this high level was preceded by a sharp increase since the mid-1970s.

- **...is only partly related to income inequality:** The United States, has both high wealth and income inequality figures. France, Germany, Sweden and the United Kingdom share a comparable wealth inequality, but they have differing income inequalities.

Persons in households with difficulties in making ends meet by deciles (% of persons), EU-15, 1994



Source : Eurostat - European Community Household Panel

[4] see Gottschalk and Smeeding, 1998

2.3.2 Social transfers

Income and its distribution are seen as the result of a process in which market income is redistributed by social transfers (by the welfare state) and private transfers (by other households). The process and its results are considered here. Some attention is devoted to intergenerational issues, mainly in the balance of the various transfers by age group and by cohort.

Income concepts and transfers

Several income concepts are used in this chapter. All concepts are monetary, i.e. in kind income or ditto transfers are not taken into account. The relationships between income concepts and transfers are as follows.

1 gross market income
  - paid taxes and social transfers
---------- =
2 net market income
  + received social transfers
  + received private transfers
---------- =
3 disposable income

1 **Gross market income** is all money income from work and capital.
2 **Net market income** is market income after payment of taxes and social transfers. However, taxes and social contributions are not analysed in this chapter. Nor is gross market income.
3 **Disposable income** is net market income plus received social and private transfers. Received social transfers (i.e., social benefits) consist of old-age and survivors pensions and other social benefits (unemployment, disability, sickness, etc). They may be public or private. Received private transfers are monetary transfers received from other households. The counterpart of this component, the payments, are not measured in the European Community Household Panel (ECHP). They are not deducted from market income in the ECHP.

Summarizing the way transfers are dealt with: it should be noted that received monetary transfers (social and private) are measured and analysed. Paid social transfers (taxes and social contributions) are not analysed, but taken into account in the net market income concept. Paid private transfers are neither analysed nor taken into account.

- Social transfers play an important role in all Member States: EU expenditure on social protection (used here as a proxy for social benefits) amounted to 29% of GDP in 1996. High shares were found in the Northern Member States, while lower percentages were found in Ireland (19%) and the Southern Member States. Looking at the shares of total benefits, old-age and survivors pensions took up 45% on average in the EU, with variations related to differences in retirement age and partly to classification problems. Sickness, health care and disability formed the second largest share with 35% on average (including benefits in kind for health care). The Netherlands and Portugal had a much higher value for this share (up to 45%). The other shares were family and children (8%), unemployment (8%) and housing and social exclusion (together 3%). See Social protection expenditure (1.8) and Old age benefits (1.9).

The role of social transfers could be seen as just redistributing market income, from higher to lower incomes and over the life cycle. But it is important to realise that a system of transfers (and taxes) have other behavioural consequences.

- **Social transfers influence labour market behaviour...:** An often discussed side effect of social transfers is the poverty trap, i.e. market income is redistributed by the transfer system, and the willingness to earn more money can diminish.

- Social transfers may also have effects on **risk taking**. Individuals might be willing to take more risks, knowing that the social transfer system will protect them in the case of "bad luck". On the other hand, "good luck" may be less rewarding. The combined effect on risk-taking may affect economic growth and the income distribution.

- Finally, social transfers will influence the extent to which individuals **insure** themselves **privately** against risks like invalidity and old age. This will partly compensate for changes in social policy.

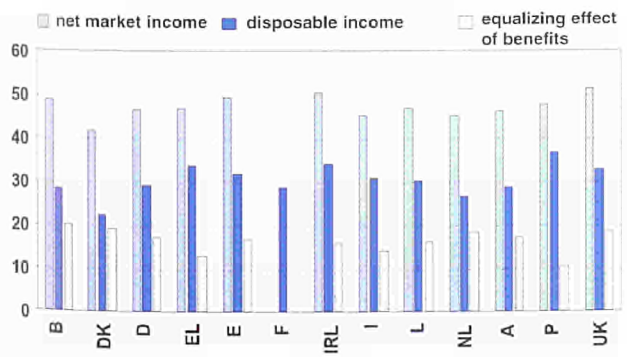
- **Social benefits also change market income:** No attempt is made here to quantify these behavioural effects, however, it can be stated that market income is influenced by the welfare state. Therefore, social policy should also pay attention to the market income distribution and to its relation with redistribution.

- **Market outcomes by age...:** Persons aged between 25 and 49 generally live in households with the highest net market income but also in the largest households . Apparently their relatively high net market incomes were not completely compensated by the diminishing effect of equivalisation.

- **... differ from disposable income:** Compared to disposable income, the EU age pattern is the same, except for the 50-64 (lower) and 65 and over age groups (much lower). The 25-49 age group has the highest market income in all Member States.

- **Net market income distributions differ...:** The redistributive roles on market income of social and private transfers can be measured by their effects on inequality, measured with the Gini coefficient.

Income inequalities, 1994



Source : Eurostat - European Community Household Panel

The inequality of market income is measured here by a "net" income concept , which means that direct taxes and social contributions have already been deducted. The highest net market income inequalities were found in the United Kingdom (51.8) and Ireland (51.0), the lowest in Denmark (42.0), Italy and the Netherlands (both 45.7).

- **... and social transfers reduce inequalities within Member States...:** The redistributive effect of social and private transfers in this analysis is limited to that of money received. The (possibly large) effect of taxes and contributions is not included. Both social and private received transfers reduce inequality. The effect of social benefits on income inequality varied from -10.9 (Portugal) and -12.5 (Greece) to -19.4 (Denmark) and -20.4 (Belgium), while the effect of received private transfers only exceeded -0.5 in Greece (-0.9). Private transfers had a much smaller, but still inequality reducing effect than social benefits, with the exception of Belgium and Luxembourg where private transfers are 'neutral'.

- **...but they increase differences between Member States:** Social benefits diminish income inequality within Member States. However, they enlarge differences in income inequality between Member States. The differences in inequalities between Member States increase from 10 to 14.5 percentage points in the process from net market income to disposable income. There seems to be no straightforward relation between inequality of net market income and redistribution by social benefits. The correlation is very low and not significant. For example, among the four Member States with the highest net market income inequality, both the lowest (Portugal) and highest (Belgium) in terms of redistribution are found.

- **Redistribution is higher when social benefits form a larger part of GDP...:** There appears to be a relationship between the size and the equalising effect of benefits, measured as a percentage of GDP. (The correlation is .68, and significant at 5% level). Portugal and Greece redistribute least and have a relatively low level of expenditure on social benefits. In Denmark on the other hand, the largest redistribution is found, accompanied by the largest relative size of social benefits.

- **... and is highest for Member States with higher mean incomes:** A higher mean disposable income correlates with more redistribution by benefits, if Luxembourg with its very high mean is omitted. The correlation appears to be strong (.86) and significant (at 1% level). It should be noted however, that taxes and social contributions are not accounted for. It is also difficult to determine the causality of this relationship. It is possible that a third common factor is the underlying cause.

- **The receipt of social benefits is widespread...:** More than 70% of persons were in households reporting to receive social transfers in 1994, including benefits related to unemployment, old-age, retirement and survivors (both private and social), family, sickness and invalidity, and study grants. Greece, Spain and Italy had the lowest shares (50-60%), while all other Member States are in the range from 77 to 90%.

- Almost all Member States show a **U-shaped relation** between age and the percentage of persons in households receiving social benefits. This percentage is 90% for children aged under 16, 84% for the 25-64 age group and 94% for those aged 65 and over. In Greece, Spain and Italy, the U shape was present too, with the exception of the children where the shares were lower. These last differences may be explained by the scarcity of family-related benefits in these countries.

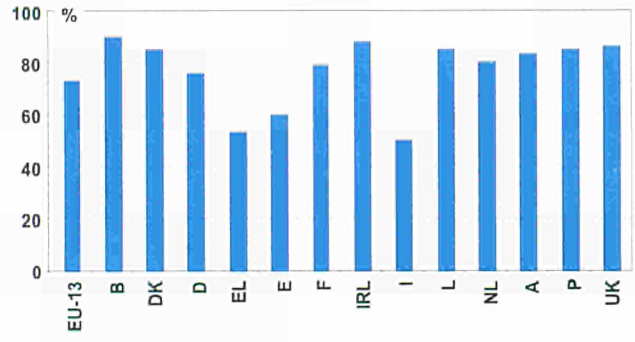
- **...but the received amounts differ by Member State...:** The mean received equivalised net social transfer was 3.1 thousand PPS for all persons, including persons in households that don't receive any social transfer. It was smallest in Portugal (1.6) and Greece (1.7) and largest in Belgium (4.5) and Luxembourg (5.6).

- **...and by age...** The age distribution is clearly in favour of those persons aged 50 and over in all Member States, with persons aged 65 and over generally receiving two to three times as much as those in the 50-64 group.

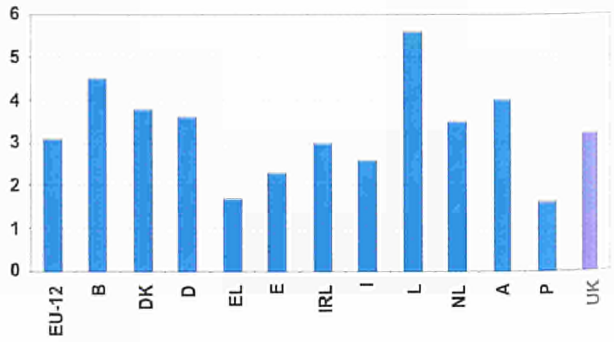
- **...and by income:** The EU-distribution of social benefits in deciles can be divided into three parts: in the first decile, the mean received transfer was relatively low, in the next eight deciles, this was higher but relatively stable and in the highest decile it was considerably higher. This 'three level' pattern can be observed in eight Member States, with the second level showing larger fluctuations between Member States. However, Belgium, Denmark, Ireland, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom had decreasing means for five to seven consecutive deciles. With the exception of Ireland, these Member States have the most redistributive systems. Inequality at the bottom end of the distribution was only partly diminished while inequality at the upper end was even increased by the received social transfers. It is important to keep in mind however that taxes and social contributions are not included in this analysis. If their effect is added to that of social benefits, the picture may be more in favour of the lowest decile(s), because they are likely to pay less than the average.

- **Transfers redistribute income over the lifetime...:** The role of transfers in redistributing income over the lifetime was clarified by analysing the mean received transfers by age group. Lifetime incomes in for example Sweden and the Netherlands are 35-45% more equally distributed than annual incomes. But the distribution of lifetime income is also influenced by social security: in the Netherlands for example, the social system reduces lifetime inequality by 30% for the 1930 cohort and by 15% for the 1950[5] cohort.

Persons in households receiving social benefits (%), 1994

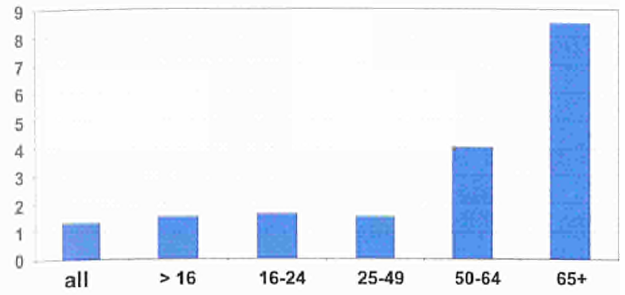


Mean received equivalised social benefit (000s PPS),1994

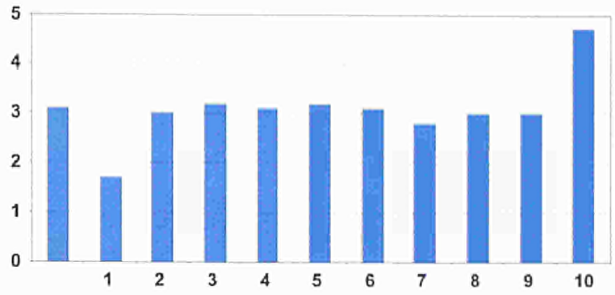


[5] Nelissen, 1998

Mean **received equivalised social benefit (000s PPS) by age, EU-15, 1994**



Mean equivalised received social benefit (000s PPS) by decile, EU-15, 1994



Source : Eurostat - European Community Household Panel

2.3.3 Private transfers

Market income and its 'correction' by social transfers have been dealt with in the previous sections of this chapter. The role of other, private transfers can be investigated along the same lines and can be compared with social transfers.

Only transfers of money between living persons in different households are taken into account. Therefore, pocket money from parents to children living at home is excluded as too are bequests. Little statistical information is available on these transfers. Their impact on individuals is undoubtedly large, however. Transfers in kind, like housing and food also are not considered here.

It should be noted that in some Member States legal or cultural obligations influence the (formal) private transfers. In Italy for example, a law (as well as culture) obliges children to support their elderly relatives in certain cases.

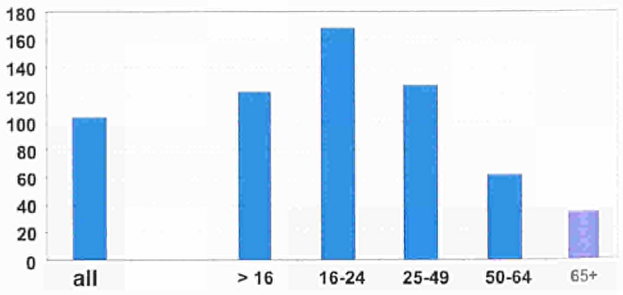
- **About 8% of persons receive private transfers of money between households...** Taking all private monetary transfers from other households into account, the share of persons reporting to receive such transfers in 1994 was 8% for the EU. It is important to bear in mind that more extensive data on this subject would generate a higher percentage. The largest part of private transfers takes place between generations within families, for example from parents to their adult children. Even the largest shares - 12% in some Member States - were very modest compared with those of social transfers.

- **The distribution by age** shows that the 16-24 age group are more likely than older groups to receive transfers (15% compared with 3% of those aged 65 and over). Financial support for education may partly explain the high frequency among young adults. The age pattern seems to be universal in almost all Member States. Children below 16 years of age took an in-between position in almost all Member States. The share of persons receiving private transfers by deciles of disposable income shows a negative relationship between frequency of transfers and the level of income of the receiver.

- **... and providers of private transfers tend to be aged 40 and over ..:** In some research relating to Italy, the frequency of money given was highest (around 5%) for households in the 40-60 age group and decreased as age increased. Research in Germany showed that money was given by 31% of persons aged 40-85 in 1996, but did not correlate with age within that group.

- **The mean received amount is small...:** The mean received equivalised private transfer of all persons in the EU (excluding France) is about 100 PPS, which is less than 1% of mean disposable income. This figure includes persons in households that don't receive any private transfer. It ranges from around 30 PPS to more than 200 PPS per Member State (except for Luxembourg which has a higher average amount).

Mean received equivalised private benefits (PPS) by age



Source : Eurostat - European Community Household Panel

- **...mainly favouring the lower and higher income groups:** The distribution by income deciles shows relatively low mean private transfers in the third to seventh deciles, somewhat higher means in the first two deciles and the eighth and ninth deciles, and a much higher mean in the tenth decile. This pattern is consistent with the idea of altruistic (higher) transfers in the first deciles, and 'rich to rich' (much higher) transfers in the three highest deciles. The mean received amount in the United States in 1987 was three or four times high-

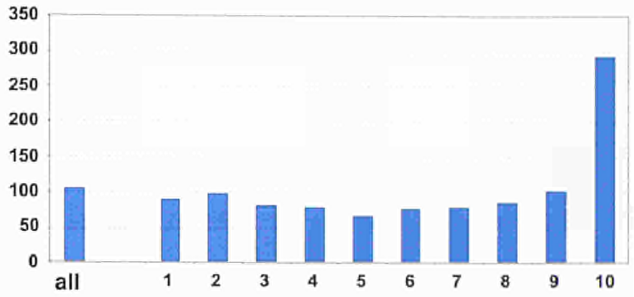
er than the EU mean, decreased strongly with age and was substantially lower for middle income groups. However, the amount of money given was highest for the 50-75 age group and increased with the income of the donor.

- **Is there a relation between social and private transfers?** In neo-classical theory on the relation between social and private transfers, private transfers between households are altruistically motivated (as long as they are not obliged by law). This means that social transfers, if they are perceived as being altruistic, diminish the need for private transfers. And, if social transfers are not altruistic, private transfers may even be used to create a 'private safety net'.

- **Private transfers may compensate social transfers...:** Using data for Germany, research has shown that intergenerational private transfers still exist in spite of the emergence of widespread social transfers, but now partly compensate the social transfer system: public pension transfers to the elderly are channelled back to younger generations. In the EU, some 'reversal' of publicly redistributed money seems to be taking place. The mean balance of social transfers is several thousand PPS in favour of the elderly, while the balance of private transfers is less than 150 PPS in the other direction.

- **...but private transfers may be independent of social transfers:** The Italian study concluded that people in Italy act as if there was a contract between generations, which means that private transfers are not very sensitive to social policy. Across the EU, the most unequal Member States in terms of disposable income (Portugal and Ireland) have very low shares of people receiving private transfers and low mean received amounts. However, two Member States with high equality (Denmark and the Netherlands) reveal completely diverging shares: 12% and 2% and 80 and 31 PPS. As a result, it is difficult to draw any hard conclusions on the relation of private to social transfers.

Mean received equivalised private transfer by decile (PPS) EU-15, 1994



Source : Eurostat - European Community Household Panel

2.3.4 Relationships with social support

Income and its distribution are related to the demand and supply of social support. It is therefore appropriate to look at the implications of income developments for social support. However, neither future income developments nor these relationships are very clear at present.

No attempt is made here to make precise forecasts of income developments in the Member States. For simplicity, we will look at some developments that may increase both the level and the inequality of income in the near future. Continuing economic growth is forecast in most developed countries, at least in the short-term. Inequality may grow because of several reasons: the (continuing) decrease of the industrial sector and its effects on market income[6], and the reduction of social transfers and (progressive elements in) tax rates in several Member States.

On the demand side of social support the following processes play a role:

- There is a positive correlation between **income level** and health status. See Life and health expectancies (1.14). This implies that a uniform income increase for all persons in a country would result in a better health for all, leading to a decrease of the demand for social support. However, causality may also exist the other way round: health differences may be the cause of income differences.

- Economic growth will also have implications for the **distribution of income**. More income inequality is associated with more health inequality. Some studies indicate that income inequality itself is a potential stress factor, deteriorating social cohesion and the health of the population .

- **Low-income groups** are vulnerable. They may have poorer health and less access to health care. The expectation of growing income inequality is likely to mean that the share of low-income groups, like the elderly and single-parent families, will grow too. Their relative position may lead to an increase in social demand.

The supply side is not clear:

The relation between income and the provision of help is an important factor. Persons with higher incomes are more likely to provide help to adults in other households. See Social participation (2.4). Households sizes may be smaller in the future, see Population and related issues (2.1), implying that inter-household help will be more important. On the other hand, the help of higher income persons generally amounts to relatively few hours. See Social participation (2.4).

[6] Gustafsson and Johansson (1997)

2.4. SOCIAL PARTICIPATION

This chapter focuses on social participation: the extent to which citizens in the EU engage in interaction with their families, friends and neighbours and are active participants in the social and cultural lives of their communities.

- **There is a high level of social interaction throughout the EU.** Neighbourliness is especially prevalent in Greece, Spain, Ireland and Portugal.

- **Social contact in old age remains high.** Older citizens have not been abandoned by their families: nearly four out of five see a relative every day. Also nearly four out of five of those over the age of 80 speak to a neighbour at least once a week.

- **However a minority of very old people (the fastest expanding population group) have very limited social contact:** on average just over 6% of those aged over 80 years fall into this category (1% in Denmark and 15% in Italy) compared with 1% of those aged 16 to 39 years.

- **Just over one in five carers** aged 16 and over say that caring responsibilities prevent them from undertaking the amount of paid work they would otherwise do and they are overwhelmingly women, in their twenties and thirties

- **Organised participation is relatively high in the EU**, for example in clubs, associations and political activities. In contrast to informal social interaction between family members and neighbours, participation in formal activities is more common in the North than in the South.

- **Voluntary sector activity is extensive:** at least one in four citizens in the EU undertake unpaid work for a variety of charitable causes and voluntary groups. The scale of this activity is hardly recognised in the Union but it suggests enormous potential for responding to the social demand outlined in the previous three chapters of Section 2.

- **The voluntary sector has grown enormously in the last twenty years** and is more established in the North than the South. The vast majority of voluntary organisations are small enterprises employing just a few staff with an estimated average of 20 volunteers.

2.4.1 Introduction

Participation in society is a signal of social cohesion since it reflects the state of societal relations, the extent to which individuals are willing and able to take part in society. The level of social cohesion may be gauged by the extent to which citizens contribute to society (the same is true for a group or organisation). Such participation is commonly assessed with reference to paid employment but it is also expressed in cultural, political and social involvement and that is the main focus of this chapter.

Given the rapid and continual nature of cultural, economic, political and social change it is vital for policy makers to know whether social cohesion is being maintained or is in decline. Unfortunately we do not possess the necessary comparative data to measure such changes over time but this chapter uses what little EU data are available to take a first look at social participation on a European scale.

The chapter is based on the assumption that social cohesion is a function of the level of participation. There is a dynamic relationship between participation in society, bonding and involvement: the more individuals participate in a club, organisation or society, the stronger their bonds will become and the more they will identify with it and the greater its social cohesion will be. Of course participation is not simply concerned with the individual exercise of choices but also comprises normative elements (the existence of a moral obligation to participate) and structural ones (the capacity of the individual to participate and the extent of any barriers, for example financial or attitudinal ones).

2.4.2 Social contact

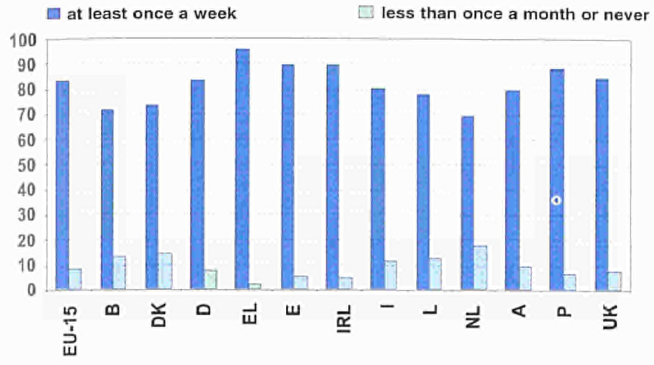
It is sometimes claimed that social relationships are becoming more narrowly focused with less frequent interactions outside the domestic sphere. However, there is a high level of interaction with neighbours throughout the EU. On average, more than 4 out of 5 talk to a neighbour at least once a week and this is especially prevalent in the three Southern Member States and Ireland.

Relatively high levels of contact with neighbours are not related to income. The variation in the level of such interaction is only 5 percentage points between the top and the bottom decile income groups. However in Portugal this difference is three times the average (92% of those in the lowest decile talk with a neighbour at least once per week compared with 77% in the highest).

The high levels of verbal interaction between neighbours are indicative of basic social contact and, therefore, the likely absence of isolation. In turn this means that one of the basic conditions for anomie and subjective feelings of loneliness is also absent.

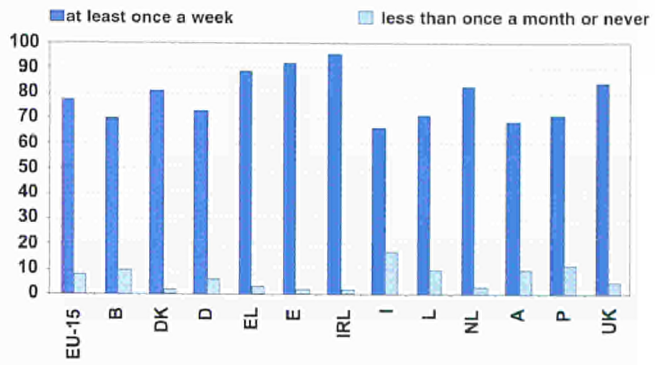
On average, only 8% of citizens in the EU aged 16 and over talk to their neighbours less than once a month or never. **However**, this implies a figure of just over 20 million people aged 16 and over in the 13 Member States covered by the European Community Household Panel (ECHP).

Percentage of people talking to neighbours at least once a week and less than once a month or never, 1995



Source : Eurostat - European Community Household Panel, 1995

Percentage of people meeting other people at least once a week and less than once a month or never, 1995



Source : Eurostat - European Community Household Panel, 1995

Who are those least likely to speak to their neighbours?

Young people aged 16-24 (15% overall) and **older** people aged 80 and over (12%) are the least likely to speak to their neighbours. In Denmark and the Netherlands, one in four **young people** talk with a neighbour less than once a month or never. In Italy and the Netherlands this applies to nearly one in **five people aged 80 and over**.

Unemployed people are less likely to talk to neighbours than those in work and the retired (11%, 9% and 7% respectively talk with neighbours less than once a month/never).

Health has an impact on social contact: 8% of those in good health compared with 11% of those whose health is bad or very bad talk to neighbours less than once a month or never.

Marital status is a significant indicator of low levels of interaction with neighbours: 6% of married people, 11% of separated, 12% of divorced, 8% of widowed and 14% of the never married do so less than once a month/never.

Those on low incomes, as defined by the lack of basic necessities, are the most likely to have little contact with neighbours: 12% of those unable to afford six basic necessities compared with 8% of those with all of the necessities.

Meeting people (at home or elsewhere)

This is also a frequent occurrence in the EU. The Southern Member States and Ireland again are among those with the highest frequencies of face-to-face interaction but, in contrast with neighbourly contact, Portugal is not among them. Denmark, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom have relatively high rates compared with neighbourly contact.

Meeting people is related to age. Young people are more likely to meet people at home or elsewhere than older people: the proportion doing so at least once per week declines steadily with age, from 93% among those aged 16-24 to 66% among those aged 80 years and above.

In addition, those whose health is bad or very bad are less likely to meet people at least once a week: 67% compared with 81% of those with good or very good health. Data also show that those people without six basic necessities - generally lower income groups - are less likely to meet people at least once a week than the better-off (those with the full list of necessities). The figures are 68% and 80% respectively.

The Isolated

While the two measures of social contact used so far are indicative of the potential for isolation, using the European Community Household Panel data it is possible to identify those citizens who have very little or no social contact of the forms considered (i.e. those who talk to neighbours less than once per month or never and who meet people less than once per month or never). It is a small group: 2% of EU citizens for whom data are available (excluding France, Finland and Sweden). In terms of population numbers, 2% implies more than 4.5 million people in the twelve Member States.

It is important to bear in mind that those at risk of isolation are probably a larger group than the 2% having very little or no social contact of the forms

Main Findings:

age - Those aged 80 years and above are three times more likely than the average to experience isolation (6% compared with 2%). In Italy it is 15% of those aged 80 and over, Luxembourg 10% and Austria 9%.

health - Those with bad or very bad health are five times more likely to be isolated than those with good or very good health and more than twice as likely as those whose health is fair.

marital status - The widowed and separated are more likely than the married, divorced and never married to experience isolation.

low income - The proportion of people experiencing isolation rises with inability to afford one, two, three... to a maximum of six basic necessities. Those unable to afford all six are six times more likely to be isolated than those who can afford all of them.

described above. For example, around 8% of the population meet people less often than once per month or never. Again age, health, marital status and income are the key indicators. The following persons are more likely to fall into this category: those aged 80 and over (20% of this age-group) compared with 2% of those aged 16-24 and 10% of those aged 60-69; in poor health (17% compared with 5% of those in good health); widowed (twice as likely as the married and separated and four times as likely as the never married); and poor (15% of those without six basic necessities compared with 5% of those with all of the necessities).

Suicide

Although such data must be handled with extreme caution, suicide and intentional self-harm rates provide an indication of the existence of extreme forms of individual alienation from society. It is well known that loneliness and isolation are triggers of suicide.

Some facts:

Suicide rates are nearly three times higher among men than women. They are relatively low in the South of the Union and higher in the North. Suicide is more common among younger and middle aged adults than either young or older people.

An increase in the very elderly population may result in a rise in the suicide rate among older people. Some of the risk factors are prevalent in advanced old age: disability, pain, irreversible physical and psychological illness, social isolation, fear for one's personal safety, bereavement and a sense of inadequacy and frustration. Also suicide rates in the South may increase, as they have done in Italy, especially among very elderly men.

Social Contacts in Old Age

Growing numbers of older people are living alone in the EU. See Population and related issues (2.1). More than two-fifths of those aged 80 and above are living alone. In addition, very elderly people have been identified as being at risk of isolation and loneliness. Self-perceived loneliness is also closely associated with depression and related mental health problems in old age. Therefore, the combination of demographic and behavioural trends indicate increased future demands for health and social care support for older people.

This will impact differently on the Member States depending on factors such as the extent of existing residential segregation in old age and the availability of support services e.g. the proportion of persons aged 80 and over living alone in Denmark is more than 3 times that in Spain. See Statistical Annex.

If the residential patterns in old age in the South of Europe converge towards those in the North without a parallel increase in support services, many more older people will experience isolation, loneliness and, as a result, deteriorating mental health.

However, the available evidence shows that, rather than being abandoned by frequent face-to-face contacts between older people and their families, nearly four out of five see a family member at least once a week. In Greece, Ireland, Italy, Portugal and Spain more than half of older people see a relative everyday.

But, although social contacts remain relatively high, especially in the South of the EU, there are significant minorities who are at risk of isolation and whose mental health may be affected by loneliness.

Some relevant facts are:

- 8% of those aged 60 years and above see a relative less often than once per month and an additional 3% never see a relative (table 2).
- 5% of those aged 60-69, 6% aged 70-79 and 12% aged 80 and over talk to their neighbours less than once a month or never.
- 10% of those aged 60-69, 13% aged 70-79 and 20% aged 80 plus meet people at their home or elsewhere less than once a month or never.

In addition,

- Nearly three out of four older people see a friend at least once a week.
- Nearly four out of five of those over 80 talk to a neighbour at least once per week - ranging from 70% in Denmark to 86% in Greece.
- Just under 9 out of 10 of those aged 70-79 talk to a neighbour at least once a week - from 71% in the Netherlands to 96% in Greece.

Older people and feelings of loneliness across the EU

Surveys show that older people in the Northern Member States are less likely to report "feeling lonely" than older people living in Southern Europe. Less than 10% of people aged 60 years and above report that they often feel lonely in Denmark, Germany, Netherlands and the United Kingdom whereas the proportion is above 15% in Italy, Portugal and as high as 36% in Greece.

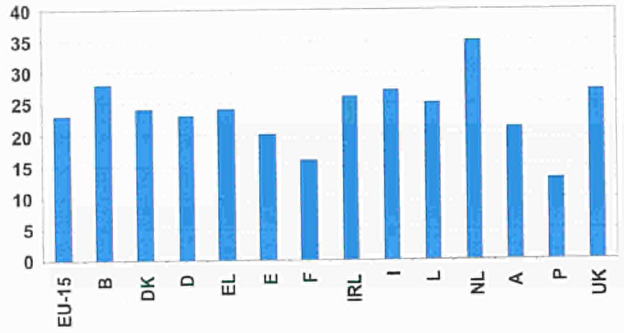
Social contact and subjective feelings of loneliness have been studied extensively in Italy. The loneliness felt by older people increases when their circle of relationships is limited only to the family. For example, women who are satisfied with their relationship with their children belong mostly to the group who have other friendships and relationships (such as with neighbours) and relatively high levels of independence in social relationships. In other words loneliness is not so damaging when living alone is a personal choice and accompanied by a willingness and capacity to develop and maintain interpersonal relationships beyond the family.

The high levels of subjectively expressed loneliness in the South reflect the transition that is taking place in the family and, therefore, the family life of older people, and suggest that some older people have not developed rewarding personal relationships to substitute for the diminishing role of the family. They retain an expectation of very close family contact and support despite the changing nature of the family.

2.4.3 Provision of help and support

The main form of interpersonal help and support is child care. Just under one in four EU citizens aged 16 years and above is involved in looking after children (their own and/or others) on a daily basis.

Percentage of people looking after children without pay, 1995



Source : Eurostat - European Community households Panel, 1995

Who are the main providers of unpaid child care?

Those in the **age groups 25-29** (26%), 40-49 (35%) and particularly the **30-39 age group** (51%) are the most common source of unpaid child care, however **older people** are also a significant source, usually as grandparents: 11% of those aged 60-69 and 6% of those aged 70-79.

Women are twice as likely as men to provide child care (31% compared with 15%), in the Southern Member States and Ireland their disparity is even larger: 3 to 1 in Greece and 5 to 1 in Portugal but also in Austria (nearly 3 to 1). In Denmark and the Netherlands the difference is only 30%.

33% of the economically inactive provide unpaid child care although the figure is lower for the unemployed (28%) and retired (8%).

People whose **health is good** or very good are more likely to be child-carers (26%), as opposed to those in bad or very bad health (14%).

Time spent on unpaid child care

The average number of hours spent on unpaid child-care is 34 hours per week. **Women** spend nearly twice as much time as men on child care (41 hours per week compared with 21), with people **aged 25-29** devoting most time (47 hours per week).

Older people who do look after children, spend considerable amounts of time doing so: an average of 19 hours per week among those aged 60-69 and 16 hours per week among the 70-79 year olds.

Those **in work** with child care responsibilities devote less time to them (30 hours per week) than either the unemployed (41 hours) or the **economically inactive** (45 hours).

Caring for sick or disabled adults and older people

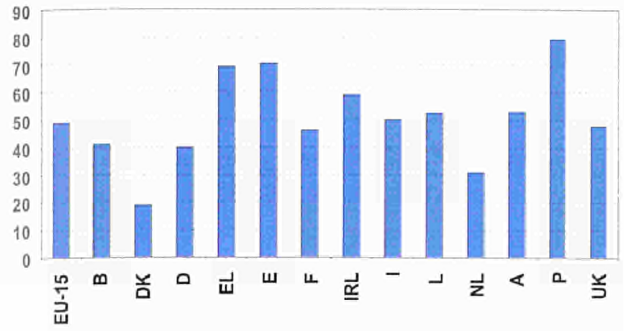
Provision of unpaid 'informal' care to sick or disabled adults and older people (in the same household and outside) is much less common than child care: on average 6% of EU citizens are engaged in such activities.

Women are twice as likely as men to be caring for sick or disabled adults or older people on a daily basis (8% compared with 4%),

It is not the 30-39 year old age group that takes the major responsibility for the care of adults, as with children, but the **50-59 year olds** (11%) and the 60-69 year olds (9%). Also 7% of those aged 70-79 and 3% of those aged 80 years and above are providing care to sick, disabled or frail adults.

Although the average for the EU is that around one-half of informal care for adults takes place within the same household while the other half is out-of-house care, in the three Southern Member States co-resident care is the dominant form.

Percentage of care taking place within the same household, 1995



Source : Eurostat - European Community Household Panel, 1995

Certain groups of carers are more likely to provide care for adults in other households (as opposed to within the same household):

- the middle-aged rather than older age groups where co-resident care is much more common (63% in the 40-49 age group, 53% in the 50-59 age group compared with 35% in the 70-79 and 23% in the 80 plus group),
- those in work (58%) rather than the retired (42%) and the other economically inactive (49%),
- the highest decile income group (63%) rather than the lowest decile (47%),
- those whose health is good or very good (66%) rather than bad or very bad (46%),
- the widowed (64%) and divorced (72%) rather than the married (50%) or never married (52%).

The average number of hours spent on informal care for sick, disabled or frail adults is 21 hours per week, but in Denmark and Belgium it is under half of the average and, in Spain, more than 50% above the average.

There are some note-worthy differences between certain groups...

- women spend slightly more time on this care work than men (22 compared with 18 hours).
- older people spend above average amounts of time caring for other adults and those up to the age of 49 are below average,
- those in work devote less time (15 hours) than the unemployed (20 hours), retired (26 hours) and other economically inactive people (25 hours),
- those in the highest income decile spend less time on care (17 hours) than those in the lowest one (25 hours),
- those in poor health devote more time to caring for other adults (29 hours) than those whose health is good or very good (18 hours).

Caring responsibilities versus paid employment

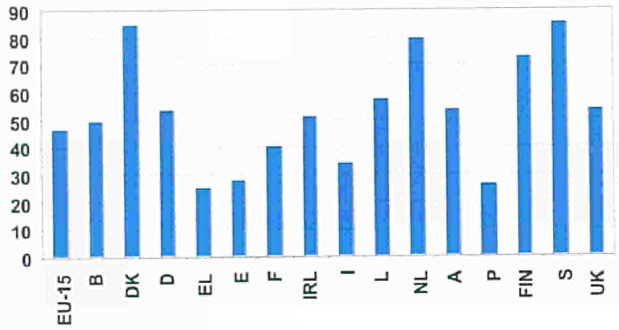
A lower proportion of people in employment are engaged in informal care for children, disabled and older people than those who are economically inactive. But, do such caring responsibilities prevent carers from undertaking the amount of paid work they would otherwise do? Just over one in five carers aged 16 and over say that it does and they are overwhelmingly women (31% of female carers compared with 4% of male ones), in their twenties and thirties. Other groups reporting that caring responsibilities prevent them taking on paid work are:

- The economically inactive (49%) rather than unemployed (13%) or in work (15%)
- Those in low income groups (28% in the two lowest deciles) rather than the highest (16%), and
- Those not suffering from a chronic physical or mental health problem (23% compared with 11% of those severely hampered by such a condition).

2.4.4 Social, cultural and political participation

Detailed information on participation in a wide range of clubs, associations and political activities, from the 1998 Eurobarometer, show that nearly one half of adult citizens in the EU partake in either social, cultural or political activities, however there are significant variations between the Member States in overall levels of participation.

Percentage of people participating in social, cultural or political activities, 1998



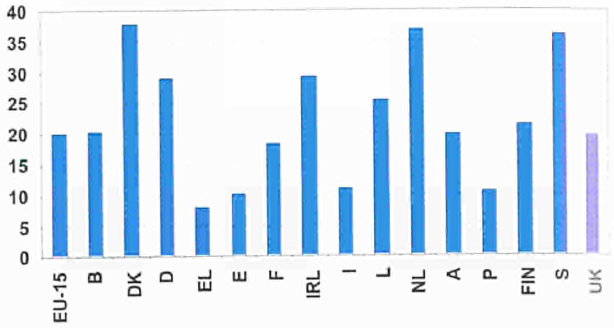
Source : Eurobarometer

The Nordic Member States and the Netherlands have the highest levels of social participation and the Southern EU Member States have the lowest. Thus there appears to be an inverse relationship between the level of contact between family members and participation in social, cultural and political activities. Whether or not this relationship consists of a direct substitution of one for the other it is not possible to say.

The largest variation between the Member States is in the participation in trades unions and political parties (though the data do not allow us to say what 'participation' may mean beyond membership). Again the Nordic Member States show particularly high levels of such participation (in the cases of Denmark and Sweden more than 6 times the EU average). This may be partly explained by the traditionally high trade union membership of workers in these Member States.

People in Southern Europe are consistently less likely than their Northern counterparts to be involved in sports clubs and associations.

Percentage of people participating in sports clubs and associations, 1998

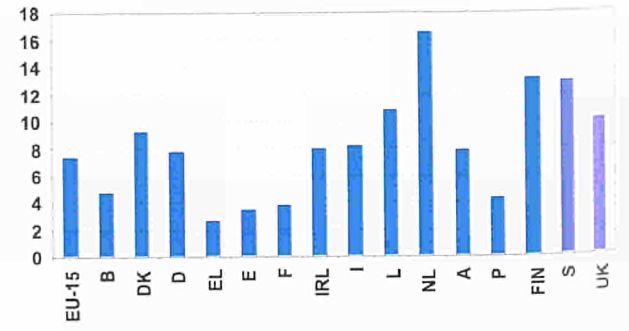


Source : Eurobarometer

Involvement in the Voluntary Sector

There are significant variations too between the Member States in the involvement of citizens in the voluntary sector. Overall the level of participation in social or religious organisations undertaking charitable activities is quite low in the EU as a whole (7.4% of those aged over 15) but the level of participation in the Netherlands is 6 times that in Greece. This reflects, to some extent, the different nature of participation between the North and the South and, therefore, the lack of availability of these organisations in the South. This issue is discussed further in the section on volunteering, below.

Percentage of people participating in voluntary organisations, 1998



Source : Eurobarometer

How much time are people spending on these activities?

Only just over one in four European citizens spend more than 10 hours per month on social, cultural and political activities. The majority of citizens (67.9%) spend less than 10 hours per month engaged in such activities. See Statistical Annex.

Although such data are notoriously difficult to collect and, therefore, not too much should be read into them, they suggest a quite limited amount of social participation in formal and quasi-formal clubs and associations. If we take out time allocated to sleep (average 8 hours per 24) and paid employment (average 35 hours per week) 10 hours per month represents just 3% of the time potentially available for such activities and it is only a minority of EU citizens who are spending even this or more time taking part in social, cultural and political activities.
An even smaller minority of people (7% in the EU as a whole) devote more than 30 hours to activities or associations. Above average maximum time allocations were found in Belgium, Denmark, Ireland, Italy, Austria, Portugal and the United Kingdom.

Levels of more formal participation in clubs

Men are more likely than women to join clubs (41% compared with 28%). In most of the Southern EU Member States (Greece, Italy and Portugal) men are at least twice as likely as women to be members of clubs (in Portugal it is a sex ratio of 3:1). In Spain, however, men are only 50% more likely than women to join clubs.

There is a remarkable symmetry across the **age groups**, with between 34 and 38% of those aged 16-69 reporting club membership. In the age group 70-79 there is a slight decline in membership (32%) but it is not until the 80 years and above age group that there is a significant tail-off (24%). Of course we do not know anything about the kinds of clubs that the different age groups are members of but it is reasonable to expect some relationship between age and generation and membership of different clubs.

The **participation rates** of specific age groups across the Member States give a fuller picture of the differences and also some indication of the potential for increased participation. There are perennial concerns in all Member States about the extent to which **young people** remain attached to basic beliefs and values. Equally there are current concerns about the extent to **which older people** are able (and enabled) to remain active and healthy in old age. There are substantial variations between the Member States in club membership among those aged 80 and over but, in addition, some countries, notably Denmark and the United Kingdom, manage to record relatively high levels of participation at both ends of the age range (ECHP, 1995).

Economic activity is related to club membership: those in work are more likely than the unemployed and the otherwise economically inactive to join clubs. This holds true for all Member States except Portugal where the unemployed are slightly more likely to report club membership (21% compared with 18% of those in work).

On average the **retired** are more likely to join clubs than the economically inactive.

These data emphasise the importance of **employment** as both a direct source of club membership (i.e. work-based associations) and as a source of the income and perhaps, self-esteem, that is necessary to gain access to some clubs.

Income is also an important indicator of levels of social participation: Those living in households which are having **difficulty making ends** meet are less likely than those having no such difficulty to be members of clubs (29% and 39%).

The **lowest income** households (those that cannot afford six basic necessities) are less likely than the better-off (those who can afford all of the necessities) to join clubs (27% compared with 40%).

Underlying these differences in income and living conditions are, among other things, differences in **education**. Therefore those with the highest level of educational attainment are the most likely to be members of clubs: 29% of those whose highest education level was below upper secondary compared with 46% of those that had reached the tertiary level.

There is also a clear relationship between self-reported **health status** and participation in clubs. This holds true for all Member States. On average club membership among those whose reported health is good or very good is more than 60% higher than among those whose reported health is bad or very bad (37% compared with 23%). Similarly persons with a chronic physical or mental health problem which severely hampers their activities are nearly 70% less likely than those who are not hampered to join clubs (25% compared with 36%).

2.4.5 The extent of volunteering in Europe

Volunteering is an obvious form of social participation and commitment to a local community, group or organisation. Unfortunately there is very little scientific evidence on the extent of volunteering and voluntary activity in the Member States but, what there is, suggests that it is extensive and has been growing and that general questions, such as those used by the ECHP, are likely to underestimate it.

A survey of over 20,000 people across Europe found that one in four Europeans undertakes unpaid work for a variety of charitable causes and voluntary groups. The most popular volunteer activities are sports and recreation, religious groups, educational and cultural pursuits, welfare services and youth work.

Volunteers are not typical of the population as a whole: they are more likely to be middle-aged and better educated, more trusting, more religious, less materialistic and have high standards of civic morality. Research has shown that they also exhibit significantly higher levels of psychological well-being than the general population.

TABLE 1 Percentage of citizens engaged in various types of voluntary work, EU-15, 1990

• health	1.8
• social welfare	4.1
• youth work	2.9
• education, arts, culture	3.8
• local community action	1.5
• third world, human rights	1.2
• women's groups	1.4
• conservation, environment	1.5
• animal rights	1.0
• sports and recreation	6.8
• religious and church	5.8
• trade unions	2.0
• political parties and groups	2.3
• professional associations	1.9

The available evidence suggests that voluntary activity is more prevalent in the North than in the South. It is most developed in Belgium, Germany, France, the Netherlands, Scandinavia and the United Kingdom and least developed in Spain and Portugal. Three-quarters of the organisations responding to a European Commission survey of the voluntary sector were founded after 1961, 65% after 1971 and 45% after 1981. In the cases of Spain and Portugal more than four out of five organisations were founded after 1971.

The recent expansion in the voluntary sector, particularly in Spain and Portugal, is attributed to:

- increases in prosperity and leisure time,
- increases in service provision,
- increased delegation to voluntary organisations by the public sector,
- changes in public preferences towards the individually-oriented approach favoured by voluntary organisations,
- the emergence of new needs (e.g. environment),
- the employment crisis in the late 1970s leading to employment creation schemes involving the voluntary sector,
- political changes (in Spain and Portugal),
- demographic changes leading states to regard the voluntary sector as a way of limiting public expenditure.

Understanding the roots of involvement...

Before turning to policy questions in the next section, it's worth examining the profile of the people involved, the characteristics of these organisations and the range of activities involved. A study in the early 1990s examined data from an average of 230 households in a matched disadvantaged area in seven European countries, both north and south, to examine the proportion and characteristics of local people who got actively involved in community groups and voluntary organisations. An average of three organisations per thousand people was found, suggesting that the total number of organisations

across the present 15 Member States must be well in excess of a million. But it is likely that 90% plus of these would be small and local.

The total sample of 1,590 respondents were clustered according to their awareness of, and level of involvement in, local groups or organisations. Just under half (46%) were involved in at least one local organisation as users. People helping at least one group or organisation consistently over the preceding year and being aware of a variety of local groups were regarded as highly active. People who helped groups intermittently and had a limited awareness of local groups were rated moderately active. 'Not active' people helped only occasionally if at all, and knew few or no local groups. 5% of the sample were found to be highly active, 9% moderately active and 86% not active. All the categories were spread across the seven case studies.

Most active and moderately active people were also users, so the general picture which emerged was of about one in seven people (14%) being the ones who ran the sector, who 'made it happen', a further two or three out of seven (32%) using the groups without being actively involved in running them, and three or four out of seven (54%) neither using nor helping them.

The active minority was made up of roughly equal numbers of men and women, and marital status made little difference. There was an increasing level of activity, however, among people over forty, suggesting that a long-term association with the locality, or the expectation of staying there, could be a factor. People with care responsibilities were more likely to be active. Retired people and those not looking for work were less likely to be active than those who were unemployed, employed full time or employed part time, and activity was higher amongst white collar workers and professionals than amongst skilled or unskilled manual workers.

...Personal need - a driving force for community activity?

Another study looked at how far activism is related to whether the respondent was personally affected by the issue addressed in the activity - in other words, how far community activity is driven by personal need and how far by altruism or interest. Four interesting types of position emerged:

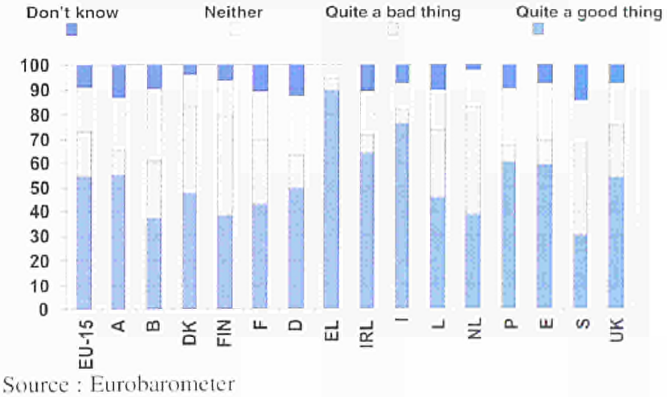
- 42% of respondents had little interest in local issues, even when they affected the household, and did nothing about them.
- Another large group, 45%, had a high level of concern with local issues and about a quarter of the issues affected their household directly but they did little about them.
- A third group, of 7%, were both concerned with local issues, were frequently affected by them and were active about them.
- The final group, of 5%, were not particularly affected personally by the issues but were characterised by concern for local issues and a high level of activity on them.

This pattern suggests that the minority of local populations who make the local community and voluntary sector what it is are a unique group of people, some motivated by need and others by altruism and interest. The great majority of people are not 'connected' in a practical way, though about half are consciously concerned with local issues whereas the other half are not interested even when affected by the issues.

Responding to the needs of the future - the citizen's perceptions and expectations

An additional element contributing to a better understanding of the trends in social participation comes from the analysis of public opinion on citizen's perceptions and expectations concerning the future of social welfare.

In the future working adults may have to look after their parents more than they do nowadays, 1998 (%)



Source : Eurobarometer

In the context of a Eurobarometer survey run in 1992 and 1999, people were asked if they thought that the welfare state would continue to grow in the future and that retired people would be better off than they are now. In 1992, just over 30% of European citizens agreed with this view; seven years later the percentage has dropped to below 20%.

In relation to the provision of social care, there appears to be acceptance that the role of the family is an important one, and moreover is a positive influence. In 1998, people were asked about their views on the prospect of working adults having to care more for their parents than they do nowadays. Just over 50% of people viewed this as a "good thing".

In a broader context in relation to the provision of social welfare, Table 1 shows the views of the general public regarding various aspects of social welfare and whether they should be the province of local/national government, private companies or non-profit associations. In all Member States the public sector was consistently ranked first, followed by the associations. Only in the case of health services did the for-profit sector come before the non-profit sector in the public's preferences. (Though it must be acknowledged that the distinction between 'public ' and 'voluntary' services is not always a clear one to citizens)

There are some variations in opinion between countries. For example Denmark and Sweden are more supportive of the private sector than associations in the fields of education and the care of older people. In the health area Italy ranked the private above the non-profit sector. Denmark, the Netherlands and Sweden are much more supportive of the for-profit sector than the non-profit sector in the field of child care. In a few Member States the enterprises of the social economy received significant public support in certain fields of social protection. In the following countries more than one in five of the public chose the non-profit sector: Austria, Germany (care of older people), Germany (child care), Germany, Italy, Luxembourg (helping the disadvantaged and excluded), Austria, Denmark, France, Germany, Finland, Luxembourg, Sweden (humanitarian aid). In the fields of cultural and leisure activities for adults and children more than one fifth of the population in all Member States apart from Greece voted for the non-profit sector and in six countries (Belgium, Denmark, France, the Netherlands, Luxembourg and Sweden) more than half did so.

The general public is also supportive of retired people being able to re-enter paid employment or voluntary work and even though there are differences between Member States, less than one third of respondents say that retired people should be confined only to voluntary work. The Member States with the strictest line on paid employment after retirement are Spain and, to a slightly lesser extent, France and this is probably related to the relatively high unemployment in both countries. Only in Spain and France therefore may public attitudes act as a barrier to the growth of participation in the social economy among older people.

Table 2 Public attitudes towards responsibility for social welfare (percentages)

	Public Sector	Private Sector	Non-Profit Associations	Don't Know
Education	88	4	4	4
Child care	66	10	13	11
Elder care	72	7	14	6
Health services	86	6	4	4
Humanitarian aid	66	6	22	6
Helping the disadvantaged and excluded	76	4	15	5
Cultural/leisure activities for adults	37	14	42	7
Cultural/leisure activities for children	40	11	42	7

Source : Eurobarometer

2.4.6 Implications for social demand and supply

This chapter has collated a wide variety of different evidence on the extent of social participation in the EU. It shows a high level of social interaction throughout the Union but the outlines of what appear to be separate 'cultures of participation'. In the South the picture is one of higher levels of informal, neighbourhood and community interaction, whereas, in the North, there is more participation in formal clubs and associations.

The evidence also suggests increasing social demand, particularly from the rapid rise in the numbers aged 80 years and above. However, it also indicates increasing supply and potential supply in the form of a buoyant voluntary sector in Europe. The fact that older people are becoming healthier, there are reasons for optimism about the capacity of voluntary organisations and volunteers within the social economy to play a role in responding to social demand.

The associations and organisations of the social economy are already making a substantial contribution to both the economic and social life of the EU, even though much of the economic contribution is not recognised officially. In addition, given the encouraging trends in social participation, both in terms of the level of participation of older people and the range of activities undertaken, there appears to be scope for this sector to expand even further. This should be taken into account by policy makers when considering the response to the evolving social needs described throughout this section.

SECTION 3

PREPARING FOR THE NEEDS OF TOMORROW

The evolving needs...

The main focus of this report has been to enrich the debate on the future of social welfare by presenting an analysis of the dynamics of the demand for social goods and services while also referring to new opportunities offered on the supply side by the developing trends in social participation.

It has been seen that although the increasing life expectancy, observed in Europe in the post-war era, has been indeed an indicator of economic and social development extended longevity coupled with an important decline in fertility over the last 30 years, results in a fast transition towards a much older population over the next decades. The trend towards **population ageing** is bringing about profound changes for all generations and most areas of economic and social life. Its importance for the social welfare, both in terms of supply and demand of social support, will grow further over the next decades since the baby-boom generation, of significant size, is now approaching the age of retirement. In addition, people aged 80 years and above are increasing in size faster than any other age group. As Europe enters the 21st century, the demographic trend towards an ageing society is becoming a very important issue for social welfare, the labour market, politics, education and culture; in other words for the whole economy and all of society. If society does not adapt to the changing socio-economic conditions over the next decade, we will enter a situation where an increasing number of beneficiaries of social, health and pension funds will have to be supported by a decreasing number of workers. However, the ageing process can be viewed as a challenge. It is not the ageing population which poses the primary challenge to social welfare systems, rather the principles on which they are based which are proving to be inflexible and not entirely shockproof. Population ageing is therefore not insurmountable; it merely exposes the need for social arrangements to address the emerging imbalances in the society of tomorrow.

A second particularly important trend has been the **growing female participation in economic and social life**. In the last three decades, patterns of education and employment for men and women have become more similar. More women have been entering into paid employment and earning an entitlement to more individualised social rights. However, within the family, women still assume most of the caring responsibilities. In the future, these responsibilities are also likely to contribute in increasing the demand for social services.

In the area of living conditions the general improvement over the last decades have significantly **increased expectations** in particular areas such as health, education, housing etc. This increasing demand is further amplified by the population trends described before and the rapid technological change which both call for structural changes in the type and mix of services required.

An additional element brought into the picture has been the distribution of income. Economic growth may be expected to yield further prosperity and better health, but the expectation of increasing **income inequality** and growing shares of low-income groups is likely to lead to an increase in health inequality and the demand for social support.

Finally it has also demonstrated the importance of the inter play between public, private, voluntary sector and the family in the provision and distribution of services. Whithin this context, the linkages between population dynamics, living conditions, income distribution and their role in determining the dynamics of social demand has been one of the main concerns of this Report.

...and the challenges of tomorrow

This section highlights the main challenges[1] in relation to the overall balance between the demand and supply for social services in the future.

Developing the labour force: The most important aspect of the change within the working age population is its rapid ageing. On the one hand, the share of people aged 50 and over is increasing, at a time when technological changes require constant re-skilling. On the other hand the considerably smaller younger

[1] The issue of social protection is not explicitly covered in this report. It has been extensively presented in the corresponding Commission Report and in the recent Commission Communication.

generations remain longer in education and are quickly decreasing in size. These trends emphasise the importance of the development of lifelong learning and promoting active ageing. The participation of men aged 55-64 between 1986 and 1997 fell by more than 6 percentage points contrasting with a slight increase of 4 percentage points for women, but from a lower initial level. This particularly reflects the lower activity rates of male workers beyond a certain age typically associated with industrial restructuring. However a Eurobarometer survey demonstrates that at least 40 % of early retirees regard their labour market exit as primarily involuntary and would have liked to continue working in some capacity. Moreover, there are today an increasing number of healthier people in their mid- fifties and sixties who would like to maintain some form of activity and social involvement after the end of their professional life.

Human resources management policies will have to adjust to the new demographic and technological realities if the workforce of tomorrow is to generate the productivity growth we need to sustain our social model in the face of new demands and new needs. Europe does not remain inactive in this field. The European Employment Strategy has provided a new Union-level focus on employment and on European collaboration to improve performance. The basis for stronger efforts on helping the older part of the workforce is laid out in the 1999 Guidelines for Employment Policy in the Member States. They call for a coherent and strategic policy to provide the appropriate mix of policy measures and services required particularly in areas such as lifelong learning, awareness raising and counselling, so that more opportunities are offered to older workers to participate actively in working life.

Intergenerational relations and the challenge of increasing dependency: although the proportion of younger people in the population is decreasing in most Member States, as education is being prolonged and labour market entry is being postponed, a growing number of young people below 30 are living with their parents. The trend is more pronounced in the Mediterranean Member States, Ireland and Belgium. While more younger people are continuing to live with their parents, fewer older people are likely to be living with their adult children and therefore may be more dependent on other forms of care.

Although, there is a lack of precise estimates of the old people who are dependent on long term care, the European Commission, in its 1998 report on the long term care of the elderly states, that as much as 5% of those 65 years and above are directly dependent on continuous social care, and around 15% are partly dependent. Dependency on continuous social care increases exponentially with age, since the corresponding percentages of those 75 years and above are 10% dependent on direct care and around 25% dependent on partial care.

A closely related issue to old-age dependency is the housing situation of the elderly. Rapid changes in household structure and size have generated increased imbalances in the housing situation within Member States. Consequently, a growing number of older people are living in houses that do not correspond to their specific needs. The expected increase in the older population poses serious challenges to national housing policies. It has been argued that the main approach should be to support living at home for as long as possible, also allowing people to make a positive choice to move into more convenient or appropriate accommodation as they age. This being the case, more attention needs to be paid to ensure that homes are accessible, convenient and safe, and are capable of meeting the needs of residents with declining mobility.

The increasing imbalance in age dependency in combination with longer periods of material and financial dependency for younger and older people, is making heavier demands on the population of working age raising issues about the divisions and boundaries between public and private responsibilities. Much of the debate is centred on how to reduce strains on intergenerational relationships while ensuring high standards of provision of services to meet the needs of dependants. Furthermore the attempts made in several countries to curb spending are shifting the responsibilities for caring more heavily onto families. The issue of how to manage the regulation of rights and obligations between family members to avoid placing an excessive burden on the so-called sandwich generation still remains to be answered. Despite variations in the boundaries between state and family responsibility in different countries, the available literature suggests that the critical contribution and role of informal care-givers across the EU, is still not acknowledged sufficiently.

Nor have carers needs been explicitly addressed in most Member States. Policies providing care arrangements as a complement to family based care and encouraging voluntary action in the field may be needed to meet the increasing future demand. These policies could also have a positive effect on labour market productivity by offering to informal family carers, mainly women, more possibilities in the labour market.

The gender balance and related issues: Female participation in the labour market will continue to increase during the years to come. Existing discriminations in the labour market and some of the more recent trends, like the expansion of part-time jobs (mainly taken up by women), confirm a continuing division of roles by gender, leaving women with most of the workload as care-givers. However, the increasing future care demands and the increasing desire of women to integrate more widely in the labour market may raise tensions between family tasks and work.

Both ethical and efficiency arguments suggest that it is essential to achieve a new gender balance. Although considerable progress has been made, the changing pattern of household composition and family types requires further action. The existing tensions can only be addressed with greater equality between sexes, implying among other things, further progress in sharing family tasks between men and women, and making employment and family life more compatible for both men and women. Innovative and viable schemes need to be developed to reconcile working life with the needs of families, households and individuals, while avoiding putting the burden for all care on families. This implies finding new arrangements for reconciling working and family life and implementing progressively the individualisation of rights.

Healthy ageing: Although people in the EU are now living longer, one in five citizens still dies prematurely, often due to preventable diseases. New risks to health, especially communicable diseases, are emerging. There are disturbing inequalities in health status between social classes. And longer life expectancy is itself creating its own problems such as a sharp rise in age-related diseases such as Alzheimer's.

With more people living into their 80s and 90s, there will be increased pressure on health care and particularly on social care for older dependents. Although there is not a consensus on the cost implications of ageing on health, a number of economic studies conducted in USA, Canada and recently in the EU Member States, have shown the intensifying pressures of ageing on the demand for social and health care. The average cost of care of those, 65 to 74 years of age, is estimated to be more than twice than the corresponding cost of people less than 65 years. The average cost of care for people 75 years and above becomes even higher. Overall estimates have shown that for the period up to 2010, although the average European population will increase by 3% 'the age adjusted cost of health' will increase by 10%. This increase only takes into account the demographic effect and assumes constant prices and no major health reforms implemented.

In addition, health risks associated with respiratory illnesses, stress and musculoskeletal problems are arising from environmental changes, lifestyle habits, and working conditions. Effective promotion of healthy ageing through awareness programs and education is an essential ingredient for any active ageing strategy and moreover can improve the citizen's quality of life which will have inestimable benefits for society as a whole.

Promoting social inclusion: Over the last decades the European societies are faced with a developing trend: exclusion. Income inequalities play a significant role in this area. More income inequality is often associated with more health inequality. Some studies indicate that income inequality itself is a potential stress factor, deteriorating social cohesion and the health of the population, and increasing risks of social exclusion. The expectation of growing income inequality is likely to mean that the share of low-income groups, like the elderly and single-parent families, will grow too. Low-income groups are vulnerable. They tend to have poorer health and less access to health care. Their relative position may lead to an increase in social demand.

However, exclusion goes beyond income inequalities. It is the accumulation and the combination of several types of deprivation: lack of education, deteriorating health conditions, homelessness, loss of family support, non-participation in the regular life

of society, and lack of job opportunities. Each type of deprivation increases the other types. The result is a vicious circle, leading from long-term unemployment to the break of family ties, and eventually to marginality and delinquency.

Social protection alone cannot be the remedy for every situation of exclusion. Social exclusion also concerns participation and social integration in society in all their dimensions. How can people who are currently excluded be given a role in society? The excluded experience major difficulties in finding a job because they are unable to meet firms' requirements in terms of skills, productivity and flexibility. It is very difficult for marginalised people to be as productive and flexible in the labour market as skilled and fully integrated workers. Excluded people need to be offered integration opportunities with a guaranteed minimum level of stability. This minimum stability is not easy to find in the private, profit-making sector of the economy.

On the other hand, there are needs which are not currently met in the sector of non-market services, run by central Government, local Authorities and the NGOs. Several Member States have embarked on a new approach, aiming at the activation of social assistance expenditure and trying to achieve long-lasting integration of excluded people through meeting social needs which are currently financially out-of-reach. The same experiments are made both by the countries which are most advanced in terms of active labour market policies and by those which are making efforts to develop the integration part of their minimum income schemes. They need to turn a passive and precarious solidarity with excluded people, into a contract that offers them real opportunities of both social and economic integration, in return for a commitment to make an effort themselves. However, this boost for non-market activities must be carefully monitored and some links with market activities must be developed in order to avoid a further segmentation of the labour market and some people being locked into subsidised jobs.

Exploring the potential of social participation: The growing number of initiatives that are taking place between the public and private sectors are progressively attracting the attention of the policy makers. While the phenomenon of the so called "Social economy" still remains, to a great extent, unexplored, its potential has been recognised recently in the framework of the "Entrepreneurship" pillar of the European Employment Guidelines as well as in the horizontal priorities of the new ESF regulations.

Concluding Remarks

This Report has outlined some of the main social developments and identified the related areas of policy concern for the future.

The pace of change that we are undergoing in relation to globalisation, demographic change, new forms of work and family life, the transition to a knowledge-based society, is raising the profile of the social dimension in achieving economic efficiency and social equity.

One of the main challenges Europe faces today is to generate economic growth and competitiveness whilst preserving its social model within a caring society. The employment situation in Europe is some way behind that of the United States, mainly due to an under-developed services sector. Job creation in this area is a key policy concern in contributing to economic growth.

This report indicates that while there has been a general improvement in living conditions, particular groups of society are still facing social problems. At the same time, demographic and behavioural trends are generating new and increasing needs for social support.

In developing the appropriate policy framework which enables the development of services to the citizen, Europe has a potential opportunity to respond both to the growing social needs and promote economic growth and social cohesion.

SECTION 4

ANNEXES

POPULATION

	EU-15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
Total population (1000)																
1960	314826	9129	4565	72543	8300	30327	45465	2836	50026	313	11417	7030	8826	4413	7471	52164
1980	354572	9855	5122	78180	9588	37242	53731	3393	56388	363	14091	7546	9714	4771	8303	56285
1998	374566	10192	5295	82060	10508	39348	58723	3693	57563	424	15650	8075	9957	5147	8848	59084
2010	376961	10252	5321	83123	10643	39544	59179	3625	57455	435	15868	8144	9993	5178	8932	59269
2020	388233	10658	5526	84670	11269	40307	62831	3909	56543	501	17204	8443	10513	5350	9470	61038
Population structure (percentage of total). 1998																
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Under 15	17.1	17.7	18.0	16.0	15.8	15.6	19.0	22.7	14.6	18.7	18.4	17.2	17.0	18.7	18.7	19.2
15-24	12.8	12.3	12.4	11.0	14.5	15.6	13.4	17.6	12.8	11.3	12.2	12.0	15.7	12.5	11.9	12.2
25-64	54.2	53.5	54.7	57.2	53.2	52.7	52.0	48.4	55.2	55.7	55.9	55.4	52.2	54.2	52.0	52.9
65-79	12.2	12.9	11.0	12.1	13.0	12.6	11.9	8.8	13.4	11.1	10.3	11.9	12.2	11.3	12.6	11.7
80 and over	3.7	3.6	3.9	3.7	3.5	3.5	3.7	2.5	4.0	3.2	3.2	3.5	2.8	3.3	4.8	4.0
Crude rate of net migration (per 1 000 population)																
1960-64	0.6	1.5	0.2	2.2	-4.9	-3.5	6.5	-7.4	-1.8	6.5	0.3	0.1	-8.7	-2.5	1.4	1.1
1980-84	0.2	-0.7	0.2	0.0	1.8	0.0	1.0	-1.9	-0.5	1.1	1.0	0.7	0.5	0.8	0.6	-0.2
1990-94	2.9	1.9	2.0	7.0	5.7	0.4	1.3	-0.4	1.9	10.5	2.7	7.5	-1.3	1.8	3.7	1.3
1998	1.2	1.1	2.1	0.6	2.1	1.1	0.7	7.7	1.8	9.4	2.8	0.6	1.5	0.9	1.2	1.1
Crude rate of natural increase (per 1 000 population)																
1960-64	7.9	4.9	7.4	6.0	10.3	12.8	6.7	10.0	9.1	4.0	13.1	6.0	13.3	8.9	4.5	6.4
1980-84	2.0	0.8	-0.6	-1.2	5.0	5.9	4.3	10.6	1.2	0.4	4.1	0.0	5.5	4.2	0.3	1.3
1990-94	1.4	1.7	1.1	-1.0	0.6	1.4	3.7	5.5	0.1	3.4	4.3	1.4	1.1	3.2	2.9	2.3
1998	0.8	1.0	1.4	-0.9	0.0	0.1	3.4	6.0	-0.9	3.5	3.9	0.4	0.7	1.5	-0.5	1.5
Population aged 65 and over. 1998																
(1000)	59596	1679	791	12966	1738	6340	9171	419	10012	60	2110	1244	1501	752	1542	9269
as a percentage of total population	15.9	16.5	14.9	15.8	16.5	16.1	15.6	11.4	17.4	14.3	13.5	15.4	15.1	14.6	17.4	15.7
percentage increase. 2000/2010	13.2	8.3	11.3	24.1	14.8	8.1	9.3	12.8	13.1	18.4	16.8	14.9	8.7	14.4	8.4	6.5
Population aged 80 and over. 1998																
(1000)	13965	365	206	3028	368	1383	2197	93	2310	14	493	286	282	169	427	2342
as a percentage of total population	3.7	3.6	3.9	3.7	3.5	3.5	3.7	2.5	4.0	3.2	3.2	3.5	2.8	3.3	4.8	4.0
percentage increase. 2000/2010	35.7	49.2	4.9	35.0	47.0	39.6	51.6	16.4	46.8	46.0	26.1	34.6	35.3	33.1	8.8	16.6
Where the population aged 65-79 live. 1995																
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Living alone	28	27	39	33	21	15	28	28	24	24	31	29	17	36	36	30
Living with partner	60	56	56	58	63	65	63	46	57	57	62	54	62	52	61	59
Living in a collective household	2	2	3	1	4	1	2	6	4	3	3	2	1	2	1	2
Other	10	15	2	7	13	20	7	20	15	16	4	15	19	9	2	9
Where the population aged 80 and over live. 1995																
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Living alone	45	50	67	54	30	21	45	32	37	35	46	43	26	52	64	50
Living with partner	26	23	23	23	32	29	29	18	26	22	24	24	30	19	29	27
Living in a collective household	10	8	10	10	12	4	10	19	13	9	24	10	4	14	3	8
Other	19	19	1	13	26	46	15	31	24	34	6	22	40	15	4	15
Non-nationals as a percentage of total population																
1990 - total	4.3	8.9	2.9	6.1	2.2	1.0	6.3	2.3	0.9	27.9	4.3	:	1.0	0.4	5.3	4.3
1996 - total	5.5	9.0	4.2	8.8	1.5	1.3	6*	3.2	1*	33*	4.7	9*	1.7	1.3	6.0	3.4
1996 - Other EU-nationals	1.9	5.5	0.9	2.2	0.4	0.6	2*	:	:	:	1.2	1*	0.4	0.3	2.0	1.4
1996 - Non-EU nationals	3.6	3.5	3.4	6.6	1.1	0.7	4*	:	:	:	3.4	8*	1.3	1.1	4.0	2.0

Population on 1 January. Natural increase equals live births less deaths.
Source: Eurostat - Demographic Statistics. 1995-based (baseline) demographic scenarios.

HOUSEHOLDS AND FAMILIES

	EU-15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
Proportion of persons living in households by type of household. 1995																
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	:	:	100
1 adult without dependent children	11	11	17	15	7	5	12	7	8	10	14	11	4	:	:	11
... Male	4	4	8	6	2	1	5	3	3	4	6	4	1	:	:	4
... ... aged under 30	1	0	2	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	2	1	0	:	:	1
... ... aged 30-64	2	3	4	4	1	1	2	2	2	3	3	2	1	:	:	2
... ... aged 65 or more	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	:	:	2
... Female	7	7	9	9	5	3	7	3	5	6	9	7	3	:	:	7
... ... aged under 30	1	0	2	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	2	1	0	:	:	0
... ... aged 30-64	2	2	3	3	1	1	2	1	1	2	3	2	1	:	:	2
... ... aged 65 or more	4	4	5	5	4	2	4	2	3	3	4	4	2	:	:	5
2 adults without dependent children	23	24	29	29	20	15	24	15	17	21	29	20	18	:	:	26
... both younger than 65	13	12	19	18	8	6	14	7	8	13	19	13	8	:	:	16
... at least one aged 65 or more	10	12	10	11	12	9	10	7	9	9	9	7	11	:	:	10
3 or more adults without dependent children	14	10	8	12	18	21	9	13	21	14	9	14	18	:	:	13
Single-parent with dependent children	3	4	4	3	2	1	4	3	2	2	3	2	2	:	:	6
2 adults with dependent children	36	43	35	33	35	35	43	40	35	39	40	30	35	:	:	36
... 1 child	11	14	12	12	10	10	13	7	13	13	9	10	14	:	:	9
... 2 children	17	19	16	16	21	18	18	14	16	17	19	14	16	:	:	17
... 3 or more children	8	11	7	6	4	6	12	18	6	9	11	6	4	:	:	10
3 or more adults with dependent children	12	8	7	8	18	24	9	23	18	14	6	22	22	:	:	8

Dependent children include all children up to the age of 15 plus all those persons aged under 25 who are economically inactive (mainly in education) and who are living with at least one of their parents.
Source: Eurostat - European Community Household Panel (ECHP).

Average household size																
1981/82	2.8	2.7	2.4	2.5	3.1	3.6	2.7	3.6	3	2.8	2.8	2.7	3.3	2.6	2.3	2.7
1998	2.5	2.4	2.2	2.2	2.7	3.1	2.4	3.0	2.7	2.6	2.3	2.5	3.0	2.1	2.3	2.3

Source: Eurostat - Censuses of Population (1981/82. 1990/91). European Unionabour Force Survey (1998). ECHP for DK. National sources for I. FIN. S.

Age dependency ratio (population aged 0-14 and 65+ in relation to the population 15-64)																
1975	58	57	56	58	57	60	60	72	57	50	57	62	61	49	56	60
1998	49	52	49	47	48	46	53	52	47	49	47	48	47	50	57	54
2010	52	52	52	51	56	50	52	47	54	50	49	49	51	50	55	50

Old age dependency ratio (population aged 65+ in relation to the population 15-64)																
1975	19	22	21	23	17	16	21	17	19	19	17	24	15	16	23	22
1998	24	25	22	23	24	24	24	17	26	21	20	23	22	22	27	24
2010	27	27	24	29	29	26	25	19	31	23	23	26	24	25	28	25

Fertility rate																
1960	2.59	2.56	2.54	2.37	2.28	2.86	2.73	3.76	2.41	2.28	3.12	2.69	3.10	2.72	2.20	2.72
1980	1.82	1.68	1.55	1.56	2.21	2.20	1.95	3.25	1.64	1.49	1.60	1.62	2.18	1.63	1.68	1.90
1998	1.45	1.53	1.72	1.34	1.30	1.15	1.75	1.93	1.19	1.68	1.62	1.34	1.46	1.70	1.51	1.72

Completed fertility per generation (women born in ...)																
1930	2.42	2.30	2.36	2.17	2.21	2.59	2.64	3.50	2.29	1.97	2.65	2.32	2.95	2.51	2.11	2.35
1940	2.23	2.17	2.24	1.98	2.01	2.59	2.41	3.27	2.14	1.92	2.21	2.17	2.61	2.03	2.05	2.36
1950	1.97	1.84	1.90	1.72	2.07	2.19	2.11	2.99	1.90	1.72	1.90	1.70	1.97	1.89	2.03	2.02
1962	1.74	1.81	1.89	1.58	1.81	1.60	2.04	2.25	1.55	1.78	1.79	1.66	1.83	1.92	2.00	1.91

The total fertility rate is the average number of children that would be born alive to a woman during her lifetime if current fertility rates were to continue.
Source: Eurostat - Demographic Statistics. 1995-based (baseline) demographic scenarios.

	EU-15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
Dependent children living in lone-parent families																
1983	8	7	:	:	4	:	9	5	7	8	8	:	:	:	:	11
1996	13	13	:	12	6	7	13	11	10	10	9	12	11	15	:	23

Source: Eurostat - European Union Labour Force Survey.

Crude marriage rate (per 1 000 population)																
1970-74	7.6	7.6	6.6	7.0	7.7	7.5	7.8	7.3	7.5	6.3	8.7	6.8	9.4	7.9	5.1	8.2
1998	5.1	4.4	6.5	5.1	5.4	5.1	4.8	4.5	4.8	4.8	5.5	4.8	6.7	4.7	3.6	5.3
Crude divorce rate (per 1 000 population)																
1970-74	1.0	0.8	2.5	1.5	0.4	0.0	0.9	.	0.3	0.7	1.1	1.3	0.1	1.7	2.1	1.8
1998	1.8	2.6	2.5	2.3	0.9	0.9	2.0	:	0.6	2.4	2.1	2.2	1.5	2.7	2.3	2.7

The crude marriage/divorce rates are the ratios of the number of marriages/divorces to the mean population in a given year. For a number of countries, data for 1998 relate to 1997.

Source: Eurostat - Demographic Statistics. 1995-based (baseline) demographic scenarios.

Percentage of couples living in a consensual union. 1995																
Total	7*	9	23	8	1	2	15	2	2	8	14	10	3	18	15	9

Source: Eurostat - European Community Household Panel (ECHP). National source for NL. FIN and S.

Percentage of live births outside marriage																
1970	6	3	11	7	1	1	7	3	2	4	2	13	7	6	19	8
1980	10	4	33	12	2	4	11	5	4	6	4	18	9	13	40	12
1998	24	18	45	19	4	12	40	28	9	17	21	29	20	37	55	38

Source: Eurostat - Demographic Statistics.

EDUCATION AND TRAINING

	EU-15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
Educational attainment level of the population aged 25-59 by sex. 1997																
Males and females																
Less than upper secondary level	41	39	20	18	51	65	37	49	59	52	34	25	76	27	23	45
Upper secondary level	40	34	54	59	32	15	43	28	32	27	42	66	12	51	49	32
Tertiary education	20	27	26	24	17	20	19	23	9	20	24	9	12	21	28	23
Males																
Less than upper secondary level	44	40	22	23	53	66	40	45	60	59	38	32	76	25	21	51
Upper secondary level	38	32	51	59	33	15	40	32	31	24	41	60	11	53	50	28
Tertiary education	18	28	27	18	15	19	20	23	9	17	21	8	13	21	30	22
Females																
Less than upper secondary level	37	38	18	13	49	64	34	53	57	46	30	18	77	30	26	39
Upper secondary level	41	35	56	58	32	16	47	24	33	30	43	72	13	49	49	36
Tertiary education	21	26	26	29	19	21	19	23	10	24	27	10	10	22	26	25
Percentage of the population that has completed only lower secondary education (ISCED 0-2) by age-group. 1997																
25-29	31	22	15	15	29	43	23	31	46	48	26	17	59	13	14	39
30-34	33	29	18	14	36	52	29	38	50	48	28	17	70	14	15	42
35-39	36	34	21	15	43	59	33	43	51	49	30	21	73	17	18	43
40-44	40	42	18	16	50	68	38	50	55	50	33	26	77	25	24	43
45-49	45	46	18	18	59	75	42	61	64	57	39	30	81	36	26	45
50-54	50	53	24	22	67	81	48	64	72	58	43	32	85	40	32	49
55-59	55	61	29	27	75	87	57	69	80	63	48	38	89	52	38	57
Unemployment rates of the population aged 25-59 by educational level and sex. 1997																
Total																
Less than upper secondary level	13.8	14.3	8.3	15.0	7.4	22.1	17.0	15.6	13.2	3.8	8.7	7.8	6.7	21.8	14.2	9.2
Upper secondary level	10.3	8.7	5.0	9.9	14.3	22.7	11.7	8.2	12.7	1.5	4.3	4.6	9.1	15.1	11.4	6.8
Tertiary education	6.4	3.8	3.4	5.7	6.6	16.5	7.5	4.1	7.0	1.1	3.6	2.7	2.9	6.0	4.5	3.4
Males																
Less than upper secondary level	12.7	11.4	6.8	15.7	5.1	17.8	15.8	14.9	10.7	2.8	6.7	7.9	5.8	20.8	13.9	11.4
Upper secondary level	8.8	6.1	4.1	9.4	8.9	15.9	9.5	7.4	9.4	1.0	3.3	4.7	7.6	15.2	11.8	7.3
Tertiary education	5.4	3.0	3.1	5.1	4.5	11.9	6.9	3.7	5.2	1.2	3.0	2.2	3.0	5.6	5.3	3.7
Females																
Less than upper secondary level	15.3	19.3	10.2	14.3	11.5	30.1	18.3	17.3	18.4	5.4	11.4	7.6	7.8	23.2	14.8	6.9
Upper secondary level	12.1	12.5	6.0	10.5	21.7	31.6	14.6	9.3	17.0	2.4	5.7	4.5	10.9	15.1	10.9	6.1
Tertiary education	7.7	4.6	3.7	6.8	9.4	21.8	8.2	4.7	9.5	1.1	4.5	3.4	2.9	6.4	3.7	3.0
Percentage of employees who participated in training in the last four weeks by age-group. 1997																
30-39	8.1	3.7	20.3	5.5	0.9	3.9	2.9	9.0	4.8	3.3	16.8	9.4	5.2	20.4	21.2	16.1
40-49	6.3	3.1	21.1	3.1	.	2.7	1.5	6.3	4.7	2.7	11.0	7.0	2.7	19.2	19.4	14.2
50-59	4.5	2.0	15.5	1.9	.	1.0	0.6	4.0	3.3	.	7.0	5.3	.	14.4	17.8	9.4
60 and over	2.6	.	8.6	0.9	.	.	.	.	2.3	.	6.5	.	.	.	13.6	3.3
Percentage of employees who participated in training in the last four weeks by educational level. 1997																
Less than upper secondary level	3.3	1.2	10.0	1.5	.	0.6	0.9	3.7	1.4	1.4	7.8	5.3	0.8	9.6	11.6	7.9
Upper secondary level	6.0	2.2	16.5	3.0	0.5	4.3	1.5	6.2	5.9	3.4	13.8	7.6	6.9	15.4	17.6	12.5
Tertiary education	11.9	6.2	27.6	6.5	1.4	6.1	4.2	11.8	10.9	4.1	15.9	13.6	10.0	31.1	27.0	22.2

The levels of education are defined according to ISCED (International Standard Classification of Education). Less than upper secondary corresponds to ISCED 0-2, upper secondary level to ISCED 3 and tertiary education to ISCED 5-7.
F, NL, P - Information on training is collected only if this is under way on the date of the survey. Consequently, the extent of training may be underestimated.

Source: Eurostat - European UnionLabourForce Survey.

Females per 100 males in upper secondary education																
1981/82	93	102	91	81	85	88	102	100	96	:	85	80	114	119	109	99
1995/96	103	99	99	86	100	112	96	109	99	98	87	85	110	127	120	118
Females per 100 males in tertiary education																
1981/82	80	76	98	72	74	83	105	67	77		70	76	102	89	108	59
1995/96	104	100	122	80	94	112	121	102	112	92	90	94	130	111	124	102
Expenditure on education as a percentage of Gross Domestic Product. 1995																
Total public expenditure	5.2	5.7	8	4.8	2.9	4.9	6	5.2	4.7	4.4	5.2	5.6	5.8	7.3	7.8	5.2

Source: Eurostat - UOE (Unesco. OECD and Eurostat questionnaires on education statistics).

LABOUR MARKET

	EU-15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
Activity rates. 15-64 years. by sex. 1998																
Total	68.0	63.2	79.3	70.7	62.5	61.3	68.2	64.7	59.0	61.9	72.6	71.3	70.3	73.1	75.5	74.9
Males	77.8	72.5	83.5	79.2	77.1	75.5	75.1	77.3	73.7	76.0	82.4	80.2	78.9	76.1	78.7	82.8
Females	58.2	53.8	75.1	62.1	48.5	47.5	61.6	52.1	44.5	47.6	62.5	62.5	62.1	70.0	72.2	66.9
Number of persons in employment. 1998																
Millions	151.0	3.9	2.8	34.0	3.9	13.2	22.7	1.5	20.2	0.2	7.2	3.7	4.6	2.2	4.0	26.9
Employment rates. 15-64 years. by sex. 1998																
Total	61.0	57.3	75.3	63.7	55.6	49.7	59.9	59.7	51.8	60.2	69.4	67.4	66.8	63.4	68.6	70.2
Males	70.8	67.0	80.2	71.7	71.6	64.9	67.2	71.0	66.7	74.6	79.6	75.9	75.7	66.2	70.8	77.0
Females	51.2	47.5	70.3	55.6	40.3	34.8	52.9	48.2	37.1	45.6	58.9	59.0	58.3	60.5	66.4	63.2
Employment rates. 15-64 years. by sex. 1995																
Total	59.9	56.3	73.9	64.7	54.5	45.9	59.5	54.1	50.5	58.5	64.2	68.4	62.5	59.7	73.5	68.1
Males	70.1	66.9	80.7	73.9	72.2	60.8	67.3	66.7	65.7	74.3	75.0	77.6	71.2	61.4	74.7	74.8
Females	49.7	45.4	67.0	55.3	38.0	31.2	52.0	41.3	35.6	42.2	53.2	59.2	54.3	58.1	72.4	61.4
Employment rates. 15-64 years. by sex. 1988																
Total	59*	52.5	76.7	63.4	55.1	46.5	60.4	49.8	53.3	58.8	58.3	:	64.0	:	:	68.3
Males	74*	66.5	82.4	77.2	74.5	65.4	71.0	66.3	72.0	77.1	72.9	:	78.0	:	:	78.4
Females	45*	38.4	70.9	49.5	37.2	28.1	50.2	32.9	35.3	40.5	43.4	:	51.2	:	:	58.3
Part-time as a percentage of total employment. by sex. 1998																
Total	17.4	15.7	22.3	18.3	6.0	8.1	17.3	16.7	7.4	9.5	38.7	15.8	11.1	11.7	23.2	24.9
Males	6.1	3.5	10.9	4.7	3.3	3.0	5.7	7.8	3.5	1.8	18.1	4.4	6.2	6.9	9.1	8.8
Females	33.0	33.2	35.7	36.4	10.5	17.2	31.6	30.1	14.4	22.5	67.6	30.3	17.2	17.0	39.0	44.8
Activity rates. 55-64 years. by sex. 1998																
Total	39.9	23.8	53.1	44.5	40.4	39.0	30.9	43.8	28.7	25.1	33.8	29.9	52.3	41.2	67.2	51.0
Males	51.6	33.9	61.1	54.9	57.5	57.8	35.6	62.9	43.1	35.1	47.0	42.5	66.8	45.5	71.2	62.6
Females	28.7	14.2	44.3	34.2	24.5	21.6	26.4	24.6	15.3	15.6	20.5	18.1	39.7	37.1	63.2	39.8
Employment rates. 55-64 years. by sex. 1998																
Total	36.3	22.5	50.4	37.7	39.1	35.0	28.3	41.6	27.4	25.0	33.0	28.0	50.5	35.7	62.7	48.3
Males	47.1	32.1	58.5	47.3	55.8	52.3	32.7	59.7	41.1	35.1	46.2	39.6	64.2	39.4	65.7	58.3
Females	25.9	13.4	41.5	28.1	23.6	19.0	24.1	23.5	14.6	15.3	19.8	17.1	38.6	32.2	59.7	38.5
Part-time as a percentage of total employment. 55-64 years. by sex. 1998																
Total	20.0	13.2	22.5	20.2	7.7	7.3	21.7	18.3	6.8	9.1	38.2	16.3	21.3	13.9	27.3	31.1
Males	7.9	4.4	8.8	5.2	3.8	2.4	10.4	8.5	4.8	2.4	21.4	6.0	11.2	9.7	11.4	13.0
Females	41.2	33.4	43.8	45.4	16.3	19.8	36.0	43.5	12.0	23.9	77.2	38.9	35.8	18.8	44.8	57.7
Employment rates by age-group. 1998																
50-54	68.1	60.0	78.9	71.4	59.3	55.7	73.8	59.1	55.7	63.3	69.5	70.6	70.5	76.5	83.6	75.7
55-59	49.8	35.3	67.9	53.9	47.0	45.0	46.9	48.5	36.2	38.0	47.4	40.5	58.2	50.6	75.7	61.0
60-64	21.9	10.1	30.9	18.7	32.1	26.1	10.3	33.7	18.4	10.4	16.2	9.4	42.7	18.8	46.9	34.4
65-69	6.4	1.7	10.9	4.9	11.7	3.4	2.4	14.3	5.9	2.5*	5.6	4.2	26.2	5.6	11.3	11.2
70-74	2.9	0.8*	:	2.6	5.2	1.0	1.3	8.5	2.7	:	2.2	3.1	19.1	1.2*	4.5	4.0
Percentage of employees with a fixed-term contract. 1998																
Total	12.7	7.8	10.1	12.3	13.0	32.9	13.9	7.3	8.5	2.9	12.7	7.8	17.4	17.7	12.9	7.1
Percentage of persons in employment who are self-employed. 1998																
Total	14.7	15.4	8.4	10.0	32.5	20.1	10.9	18.8	24.4	8.8	10.8	11.0	25.9	14.0	10.9	12.1
Average number of hours usually worked per week. full-time employees. by sex. 1998																
Total	40.5	38.6	38.7	40.0	40.8	40.7	39.7	40.3	38.5	39.3	39.0	40.1	41.0	39.2	40.1	44.0
Males	41.3	39.1	39.3	40.4	41.7	41.2	40.3	41.8	39.7	40.3	39.2	40.2	42.1	40.1	40.2	45.7
Females	39.0	37.5	37.7	39.3	39.3	39.6	38.7	38.2	36.3	37.4	38.5	39.8	39.6	38.2	40.0	40.7

	EU-15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
Percentage of full-time employees working long hours. 1998																
More than 40 hours per week	19.8	7.0	13.3	11.4	24.7	14.6	15.6	17.7	14.9	5.3	3.4	6.9	22.6	9.4	8.1	52.4
More than 48 hours per week	8.7	4.4	5.1	6.5	8.0	6.8	6.6	9.3	4.3	2.5	1.6	3.3	7.9	5.0	2.1	22.9
Employment rates of women aged 25-49 by number of children. 1998																
All women	63.8	66.4	:	69.1	54.2	46.7	68.6	55.6	51.0	58.0	69.8	73.5	73.2	:	:	72.1
Women without children	67.3	66.2	:	74.3	55.2	48.3	73.2	59.7	52.5	61.9	73.2	75.5	73.6	:	:	78.8
Women with at least 1 child aged 0-5	53.0	67.3	:	50.1	50.4	40.7	57.0	46.0	45.7	48.8	60.7	67.1	72.0	:	:	55.4
Women with 1 child aged 0-5	55.7	68.0	:	53.2	51.1	41.3	62.2	49.0	47.1	52.6	61.9	67.7	73.3	:	:	59.8
Women with 2 children. at least 1 aged 0-5	52.1	68.2	:	48.4	48.3	36.9	61.4	45.3	41.7	45.0	57.1	61.2	71.3	:	:	59.0
Women with 3 or more children. at least 1 aged 0-5	37.0	44.1	:	33.2	42.6	24.6	34.9	32.0	31.6	29.1	49.0	52.7	47.7	:	:	40.4
Number of unemployed persons (1000)																
1994	18428.2	416.2	228.8	3299.3	369.5	3732.0	3049.9	202.2	2569.4	5.4	516.3	146.2	332.6	409.2	411.8	2739.6
1998	16807.6	402.8	144.3	3699.2	474.8	3045.0	2976.1	126.0	2714.9	4.9	305.3	177.8	254.2	286.0	365.1	1831.9
Unemployment rates by sex. 1998																
Total	9.9	9.5	5.1	9.4	10.7	18.7	11.7	7.8	11.9	2.8	4.0	4.7	5.1	11.4	8.3	6.3
Males	8.6	7.7	3.9	8.9	7.0	13.8	9.9	8.0	9.2	2.0	3.0	3.9	4.1	10.8	8.6	7.0
Females	11.7	11.9	6.5	10.2	16.5	26.5	13.9	7.6	16.2	4.2	5.2	5.6	6.4	12.0	8.0	5.5
Number of unemployed persons aged 15-24 (1000). 1998																
Total	4255.2	92.5	34.2	428.4	167.9	914.4	658.9	36.3	940.1	1.2	96.7	35.4	80.8	70.1	78.9	618.7
Youth unemployment/population ratio (unemployed aged 15-24 as a percentage of population of same age) by sex. 1998																
Total	9.2	7.4	5.3	4.9	11.8	14.5	9.1	5.6	13.0	2.5	5.1	3.8	5.1	11.2	7.5	9.1
Males	9.2	7.2	5.0	5.6	9.3	13.0	8.8	6.2	12.8	2.5	5.1	3.2	4.3	11.3	8.0	10.7
Females	9.2	7.6	5.7	4.2	14.3	16.1	9.4	4.9	13.1	2.1	5.2	4.5	5.9	11.1	7.1	7.3
Youth unemployment rate (aged 15-24) by sex. 1998																
Total	19.5	22.1	7.4	9.8	29.8	35.3	26.6	11.5	33.8	6.9	7.8	6.6	10.6	23.5	16.7	13.6
Males	18.2	19.7	6.8	10.6	21.5	28.9	24.2	11.8	29.8	7.0	7.6	5.3	8.3	22.5	17.3	15.2
Females	21.0	25.1	7.9	9.0	39.4	43.2	29.3	11.1	38.8	6.8	8.1	8.1	13.2	24.6	16.1	11.7
Long-term unemployment rate (12 months or more) by sex. 1998																
Total	4.8	5.7	1.4	5.0	5.9	9.4	5.1	5.7	7.1	0.9	1.9	1.6	2.1	3.6	3.3	2.0
Males	4.1	4.5	0.9	4.5	3.1	6.2	4.3	6.4	5.6	0.7	1.5	1.5	1.6	4.2	3.9	2.6
Females	5.8	7.4	1.9	5.7	10.1	14.5	5.9	4.6	9.6	1.1	2.3	1.8	2.6	3.1	2.7	1.3
Persons unemployed for 12 months or more as a percentage of total unemployed. 1998																
Total	47.5	61.7	27.1	51.5	54.5	49.8	41.7	55.6*	58.9	31.3	42.4	29.5	44.1	27.6	37.4	32.8
Youth (15-24) long-term unemployment rate (6 months or more) by sex. 1998																
Total	11.2	13.8	1.4	4.9	21.8	23.1	13.2	9.8*	25.9	3.4	5.2	2.5	5.0	5.6	6.5	4.2
Males	10.0	11.8	1.3	5.0	14.6	17.6	11.2	10.9*	22.7	2.9	5.1	2.0	4.1	6.3	7.9	5.2
Females	12.6	16.2	1.4	4.7	30.2	29.8	15.3	8.4*	30.1	3.9	5.3	3.1	6.0	4.9	5.0	3.0
Persons unemployed for 6 months or more as a percentage of total unemployed (aged 15-24). 1998																
Total	57.3	67.7	18.9	49.5	73.5	64.7	50.2	61.5*	76.9	53.2	59.4	33.3	52.9	16.2	37.3	33.6

Activity rates represent the active population aged 15-64 as a percentage of the population of the same age.

The active population (or labour force) is defined as the sum of persons in employment and unemployed persons.

Employment rates represent persons in employment aged 15-64 as a percentage of the population of the same age.

Persons in employment are those who during the reference week (of the Labour Force Survey) did any work for pay or profit for at least one hour or were not working but had jobs from which they were temporarily absent.

Unemployed people - according to the International Labour Organisation (ILO) criteria are those persons aged 15 and over who are i) without work. ii) available to start work within the next two weeks and. iii) have actively sought employment at some time during the previous four weeks or have found a job to start later.

Unemployment rates represent unemployed persons as a percentage of the active population of the same age.

Long-term unemployment data for Ireland refer to 1997.

Source: Eurostat - European Union Labour Force Survey.

INCOME

	EU-15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
Mean/median equivalised net annual income. 1994																
Mean - PPS in 1000	12.1	13.7	13.9	13.8	8.4	9.0	13.4	11.2	9.9	22.2	12.5	13.7	7.7	10.5*	11.8*	13.3
Median - PPS in 1000	10.6	12.6	12.9	12.4	7.1	7.6	11.7	9.1	8.7	18.7	11.0	12.3	6.3	:	:	11.2
Distribution of equivalised income by component. 1994																
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	:	100	100	100	100	100	100	:	:	100
... Income from work	70	60	69	69	72	70	:	71	70	70	69	67	77	:	:	72
... Private income	5	7	4	5	8	5	:	2	3	5	3	4	3	:	:	4
... Social transfers	26	33	27	26	20	26	:	27	27	25	28	29	21	:	:	24
... ... Old-age / survivors pension	17	19	11	19	18	18	:	15	23	17	15	19	15	:	:	12
... ... Other social transfers	8	14	16	7	2	8	:	12	3	8	13	10	5	:	:	12
... ... Unemployment related	2	4	5	2	0	4	:	6	1	0	3	1	1	:	:	1
... ... Sickness / Invalidity related	2	3	3	1	1	4	:	2	2	2	4	1	2	:	:	3
... ... Other benefits	4	7	8	3	1	1	:	4	1	6	5	7	2	:	:	9
Percentage of persons living in households receiving 1994																
Social transfers	73	90	85	76	53	60	79	88	50	85	80	83	85	:	:	86
... Old-age / survivors pensions	30	29	19	29	42	34	26	22	39	28	19	37	37	:	:	26
Share of income by quintile. 1994																
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Bottom quintile	8	8	10	8	7	7	8	7	7	8	9	8	6	11	8	7
2nd quintile	13	14	15	14	12	12	13	11	13	13	14	14	11	15	15	12
3rd quintile	17	18	19	18	17	17	17	16	18	17	18	18	16	18	19	17
4th quintile	23	23	22	23	23	23	23	23	24	22	23	23	22	22	24	23
Top quintile	39	37	33	38	41	40	38	43	39	39	36	37	44	33	34	41
Median equivalised disposable income of all persons by type of household (indexed). 1994																
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	:	:	100
1 adult living alone	88	85	83	95	75	79	89	65	101	103	91	93	62	:	:	75
... 1 male adult	106	99	90	116	101	112	95	77	126	122	107	115	71	:	:	93
... 1 female adult	81	78	77	87	66	72	86	62	88	90	84	81	60	:	:	70
Single-parent with dependent children	72	73	84	63	87	83	79	53	87	84*	68	71	71	:	:	58
2 adults aged 15-64 without dependent children	127	118	114	121	118	129	118	158	130	124	144	130	108	:	:	144
2 adults, at least one aged 65 or more, without dependent children	93	85	84	96	68	94	103	96	97	93	99	96	67	:	:	78
2 adults with one dependent child	114	108	115	106	120	113	116	138	119	105	112	110	119	:	:	123
2 adults with two dependent children	101	109	106	94	109	104	108	123	94	93	95	97	102	:	:	105
2 adults with three or more dependent children	81	93	92	83	95	91	82	82	69	67	80	78	64	:	:	76
Median equivalised disposable income of all persons by age (indexed). 1994																
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	:	:	100
children below 16	91	99	100	91	103	94	94	86	91	91	89	88	93	:	:	84
16-24	93	94	89	93	95	94	84	95	89	94	89	101	104	:	:	103
25-49	109	109	106	105	114	110	106	113	109	108	109	106	109	:	:	115
50-64	111	104	109	109	104	101	112	115	107	108	119	108	105	:	:	120
65 and over	89	81	81	92	73	94	96	84	95	97	90	92	72	:	:	74
Median equivalised disposable income of all persons by most frequent activity status (indexed) 1994																
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	:	:	100
at work	120	118	111	115	119	128	114	137	125	117	.	112	113	:	:	131
... employed	121	119	110	114	123	133	114	141	132	115	.	113	119	:	:	131
... self-employed	117	107	117	123	110	106	121	118	103	134	.	94	87	:	:	128
unemployed	71	74	89	73	80	73	75	66	65	.	.	83	80	:	:	62
retired	90	85	81	92	77	96	97	99	97	93	.	99	77	:	:	76
other economically inactive	86	88	87	91	90	91	81	85	87	93	.	86	92	:	:	81

	EU-15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
Persons withequivalised total income below 60% of medianequivalisedtotal income. by type of household. 1994																
Total	18	18	11	18	21	19	16	21	19	14	10	17	24	9*	:	20
1 adult living alone	23	21	24	22	36	15	23	39	22	13	15	20	48	:	:	28
... 1 male adult	19	16	21	18	23	13	23	32	13	7	16	17	45	:	:	20
.. 1 female adult	26	24	26	24	41	15	24	46	27	18	15	22	49	:	:	33
Single-parent with dependent children	36	30	9	45	39	33	27	59	17	26*	30	32	37	:	:	55
2 adults aged 15-64 without dependent children	11	15	7	12	16	13	11	9	8	8	4	11	25	:	:	9
2 adults. at least one aged 65 or more. without dependent children	18	22	17	14	43	22	15	9	10	12	7	15	44	:	:	27
2 adults with one dependent child	12	14	5	12	10	14	9	11	12	12	9	20	13	:	:	11
2 adults with two dependent children	15	13	4	18	14	16	10	13	15	13	8	16	16	:	:	17
2 adults with three or more dependent children	27	18	10	28	15	28	20	27	36	35	15	29	44	:	:	30
Main activity status of the population aged 16 and over by income level. 1994																
Income less than 60% of median																
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	:	:	100
at work	28	24	26	37	24	21	25	16	28	:	32	49	39	:	:	22
... employed	21	17	21	34	12	12	20	9	16	37	26	40	20	:	:	16
... self-employed	7	7	5	3	12	9	5	7	12	:	6*	8	19	:	:	5
unemployed	13	13	9	9	6	22	14	18	16	:	16	4	6	:	:	10
retired	24	28	43	29	37	10	24	10	21	18*	3*	16	31	:	:	33
other economically inactive	35	35	23	25	32	48	37	56	35	39	51	31	24	:	:	35
Income equal to or more than 60% of median																
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	:	:	100
at work	53	49	64	56	49	41	56	51	46	53	52	58	61	:	:	60
... employed	46	45	59	52	33	34	50	41	36	48	49	52	49	:	:	52
... self-employed	7	4	5	3	15	7	6	10	10	5	3	6	11	:	:	8
unemployed	4	5	7	3	4	8	4	6	4	:	8	2	4	:	:	2
retired	20	25	20	25	18	13	22	9	25	19	4	20	16	:	:	19
other economically inactive	22	21	9	16	29	37	18	35	24	28	36	20	19	:	:	19
Percentage of households that cannot afford selected items. 1995																
Eat meat/chicken/fish every second day	6	4	2	5	37	2	5	3	7	3	1	8	7	:	:	8
A week's annual holiday away from home	30	26	15	12	54	50	34	37	40	13	14	24	60	:	:	36
New clothes	14	10	4	15	35	9	9	7	16	4	13	10	49	:	:	13
Percentage of households in arrears with (re)payments. 1995																
Mortgage payments	4	5	2	2	24	7	3	7	4	2	1	2	4	:	:	6
Rent for accommodation	9	12	3	3	37	11	9	22	8	5	3	3	4	:	:	16
Utility bills (electricity. water. gas)	5	6	3	1	30	4	7	7	4	2	1	1	2	:	:	8

The income concept used is a net monetary concept. Imputed rents and benefits in kind are not included.

Source: Eurostat - European Community Household Panel (ECHP). National sources for FIN. S.

EARNINGS

	EU-15	B	DK	D(1)	D(2)	EL	E	F(3)	IRL	I	L	NL	A(4)	P	FIN	S	UK
Gross monthly earnings of women as a percentage of men's, 1995 (5)																	
Total	74	84	84	74	87	73	76	80	70	77	84	71	73	71	78	84	70
By occupation																	
Legislators, senior officials and managers	75	80	80	68	79	90	78	76	75	89	69	66	77	75	80	80	72
Professionals	82	82	87	79	83	74	79	82	79	86	86	75	86	86	83	88	83
Technicians and associate professionals	80	85	81	72	79	73	84	86	86	81	88	73	74	83	77	83	77
Clerks	82	84	86	78	83	79	77	94	80	78	83	74	79	83	91	94	84
Service workers, shop and market sales workers	78	80	86	68	73	72	77	91	67	78	79	70	75	80	82	94	74
Manual workers	72	80	83	70	75	68	72	80	65	74	67	69	67	68	78	87	64
Craft and related trades workers	71	82	88	72	74	59	71	81	58	75	77	75	68	63	79	83	58
Plant and machine operators and assemblers	75	76	86	74	76	72	72	79	67	73	67	66	68	71	81	94	69
Elementary occupations	80	83	83	78	80	87	82	90	66	81	81	75	75	84	81	89	74
By age																	
25-29	87	91	91	85	91	90	86	92	82	87	99	87	80	79	84	90	83
30-44	79	88	85	78	88	80	81	81	73	82	88	83	75	73	79	86	73
45-54	72	87	81	71	85	66	79	75	65	77	76	70	72	72	75	81	60
55+	71	83	82	69	81	62	76	75	68	72	76	77	65	67	72	80	65
By educational level																	
Less than upper secondary level	76	81	87	79	83	69	74	79	63	78	82	74	72	71	81	85	73
Upper secondary level	79	83	88	78	89	75	76	85	72	76	84	70	76	73	82	84	72
Tertiary education	74	76	80	78	84	76	70	71	70	72	81	67	71	73	83	83	76
Gross monthly earnings by educational level, ECU, 1995																	
Less than upper secondary level	.	1838	2332	2117	1549	869	1003	1584	1639	1286	2179	1796	1613	564	1723	1819	1427
Upper secondary level	.	2034	2726	2620	1774	863	1261	1678	1636	1574	2976	2011	2054	812	1786	2038	1698
Tertiary education	.	2703	3665	3946	2667	1163	1561	2544	2248	2123	3636	2764	3264	1660	2567	2465	2268

(1) Former West Germany (2) New Länder (3) 1994 (4) 1996 (5) Full-time earnings, bonuses excluded

Source: Eurostat - Structure of Earnings Statistics.

SOCIAL PROTECTION

	EU-15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
Expenditure on social protection in PPS per head of population. 1996																
Total	5120	6059	6884	6351	2695	3160	5608	3069	4644	8297	5952	6050	2533	5266	6119	4839
Expenditure on social protection per head of population at constant prices (Index 1990 = 100)																
1990	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1993	113	111	113	104	96	124	111	119	109	120	104	110	143	116	104	127
1996	117	121	122	114	109	120	114	133	109	134	100	118	162	122	103	131
Social benefits by group of functions (as a percentage of total social benefits)																
Old age and survivors benefits																
1990	45.7	40.4	36.7	45.8	50.9	42.9	42.7	30.5	59.6	45.8	37.4	50.0	43.1	33.8	:	42.5
1996	44.8	43.2	38.9	41.1	49.0	45.3	43.5	26.1	65.9	43.4	38.5	48.5	43.3	33.9	38.9	40.1
Sickness. health care and disability																
1990	36.5	34.1	30.1	38.0	34.7	36.6	35.6	38.4	33.7	39.1	44.7	33.2	46.9	44.0	:	36.1
1996	35.5	32.1	28.5	37.1	34.9	36.9	35.0	39.1	28.5	38.5	43.6	33.3	44.6	36.0	33.9	37.5
Unemployment																
1990	7.1	13.8	15.4	5.9	4.2	18.0	8.3	14.6	1.7	2.6	8.3	4.6	2.5	6.1	:	5.7
1996	8.4	14.5	13.8	9.6	4.3	14.5	8.1	16.7	1.9	3.5	12.0	5.7	5.8	13.9	10.3	5.8
Family and children																
1990	7.6	9.4	11.9	7.6	7.2	1.7	9.3	11.4	4.9	10.8	5.6	10.5	7.1	13.5	:	9.0
1996	7.9	8.0	12.4	9.4	8.3	2.0	8.7	12.8	3.6	13.2	4.4	11.0	5.6	12.5	10.5	8.7
Housing and social exclusion n.e.c.																
1990	3.1	2.4	6.0	2.7	3.0	0.9	4.1	5.2	0.0	1.7	3.9	1.8	0.4	2.6	:	6.7
1996	3.4	2.3	6.5	2.9	3.5	1.3	4.8	5.3	0.0	1.4	1.6	1.5	0.6	3.6	6.3	7.8
Receipts of social protection by type (as a percentage of total receipts)																
General government contributions																
1990	28.8	24.7	80.1	25.2	33.4	26.2	16.7	59.0	29.0	40.6	25.0	35.9	33.8	40.6	:	39.9
1996	31.4	20.4	68.9	30.0	30.3	27.8	20.2	63.0	29.6	46.7	16.4	35.7	42.2	44.6	45.3	48.5
Employers' social contributions																
1990	42.0	40.9	7.8	43.6	38.8	54.4	52.0	24.3	52.9	28.9	20.0	38.1	37.1	44.1	:	27.2
1996	39.2	44.5	9.6	39.1	38.0	52.0	49.9	21.9	49.3	25.8	23.2	37.4	26.0	34.9	40.0	24.7
Social contributions paid by protected persons																
1990	23.0	25.2	5.3	28.4	20.0	16.9	28.8	15.6	15.0	22.6	39.1	25.1	20.0	8.0	:	16.3
1996	24.3	25.9	15.3	28.5	23.4	17.6	27.9	14.2	18.0	22.9	44.4	26.4	16.8	13.3	6.8	14.5
Other receipts																
1990	6.2	9.3	6.8	2.8	7.8	2.5	2.5	1.0	3.1	7.9	15.9	0.9	9.2	7.3	:	16.6
1996	5.1	9.2	6.2	2.4	8.3	2.6	1.9	0.9	3.1	4.6	16.0	0.6	15.0	7.2	7.9	12.3

Provisional data for all years (EL). for 1996 (B. D. E. I. NL. P. FIN. UK). No data on benefits and receipts for S in 1990. Thus figures for EU-15 exclude S in order to permit parsions over time.
PPS are Purchasing Power Standards.
Source: Eurostat - European system of integrated social protection statistics (ESSPROS).

CONSUMPTION AND HOUSING

	EU-15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
Structure of consumer expenditure. 7 main categories. percentage of total. 1994																
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Housing. water. electricity and other fuel	24.7	29.0	27.9	24.8	24.0	23.5	23.2	21.6	24.1	27.4	27.2	21.6	19.9	27.2	26.0	25.9
Food. drinks. tobacco	18.9	14.0	17.8	16.0	21.2	25.3	18.9	26.3	23.5	14.5	14.4	18.1	24.1	19.1	21.0	17.0
Transport and communication	15.0	12.7	17.5	16.5	10.9	13.0	16.5	15.2	15.0	15.2	11.2	18.8	17.7	15.6	15.1	13.6
Recreation. hotels and restaurants	15.8	16.7	14.1	17.0	9.0	15.3	14.5	13.5	13.0	15.7	15.5	13.0	12.9	15.7	16.0	19.9
Clothing and footwear	6.9	6.2	5.7	7.3	12.9	8.0	5.6	6.5	7.3	8.5	6.0	8.8	6.3	4.6	6.1	6.3
Furniture. household equipment. repairs	7.0	6.7	6.3	6.8	6.7	6.2	7.6	4.8	6.2	9.3	7.1	10.6	6.7	4.6	5.3	7.9
Other goods and services	11.7	14.7	10.7	11.7	15.3	8.7	13.8	12.2	10.9	9.4	18.7	9.2	12.4	13.3	10.5	9.5

Source: Eurostat - Household Budget Surveys.

Percentage of households living in houses (versus flats). 1995																
Total	53*	78	61	39	48	36	58	94	32	67	67	48	70	53	57	83
Average number of rooms per person																
1981/82	1.56	1.80	1.55	1.72	1.20	1.32	1.64	1.33	1.30	1.92	1.77	:	1.04	1.30	1.70	1.80
1995	1.88	2.08	2.04	1.83	1.33	1.71	1.90	2.00	1.58	2.09	2.56	1.90	1.53	1.60	1.50	2.16
Households owning their accommodation																
1981/82	54	58	55	40	70	73	51	74	59	60	42	48	57	61	59	56
1990/91	59	65	54	39	76	78	54	79	68	65	45	50	65	67	56	66
1995	60	69	57	42	81	81	56	83	74	69	49	49	62	67	60	67

Source: Eurostat - Censuses of Population (1981/82. 1990/91). European Community Household Panel (1995). National sources for A. FIN. S.

Households owning their accommodation by type of household. 1995																
1 adult living alone aged 65 or more	50	56	33	31	84	76	52	81	70	64	21	35	55	:	:	50
1 adult living alone aged under 65	41	46	31	20	57	67	29	67	62	48	24	30	45	:	:	57
Single-parent with dependent children	36	37	19	27	71	72	33	58	33	46*	19	28	54	:	:	28
2 adults aged 15-64 without dependent children	62	71	66	44	77	75	53	86	71	66	60	41	60	:	:	81
2 adults. at least one aged 65 or more. without dependent children	69	78	74	52	91	83	77	93	80	82	40	57	67	:	:	71
2 adults with dependent children	64	76	47	77	78	74	61	70	85	72	72	49	61	:	:	73
Percentage of households lacking basic amenities. 1995																
Bath or shower	2	4	3	2	6	2	4	4	2	2	1	4	16	:	1	0
Indoor flushing toilet	2	3	1	1	7	1	3	3	1	1	1	6	14	:	:	0
Hot running water	3	5	1	6	.	4	2	5	2	3	1	3	22	:	:	0
Percentage of households lacking at least one of the above three basic amenities by type of household. 1995																
1 adult living alone aged 65 or more	14	21	5	16	:	14	18	23	15		3	18	55	:	:	2
1 adult living alone aged under 65	6	11	9	8	:	5	7	10	4	5	4	13	28	:	:	0
Single-parent with dependent children	5	2	1	11	:	3	2	5	2	0*	1	3	23	:	:	0
2 adults. aged 15-64 without dependent children	3	4	1	5	:	3	3	5	2	1	2	5	22	:	:	0
2 adults. at least one aged 65 or more. without dependent children	6	10	1	8	:	10	7	8	4	5	2	10	34	:	:	0
2 adults with dependent children	5	7	1	6	:	7	5	6	3	3	2	7	29	:	:	0
Percentage of households declaring that they experience specific problems with their accommodation. 1995																
Shortage of space	16	13	16	12	26	22	14	12	18	12	10	17	30	:	:	21
Leaky roof or damp or rot	19	22	12	12	25	24	24	14	12	13	21	14	42	:	:	25
Noise from neighbours or outside	25	20	13	29	20	31	25	9	27	17	24	21	17	:	:	21
Vandalism or crime in the area	18	17	10	9	7	24	21	14	17	12	20	9	21	:	11	29
Percentage of persons living in households that are overcrowded - more than one person per room (excluding kitchens). 1995																
Total population	18	10	8	13	43	25	14	26	32	12	2	18	31	:	:	11
Children below 16 years	33	20	19	31	65	31	29	41	52	23	6	32	49	:	:	24
	EU-15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
Percentage of households owning selected consumedurables. 1995																
Colour television	96	96	97	98	90	98	94	96	96	98	97	96	88	96	97	97
Video recorder	62	62	63	58	39	62	59	70	54	64	68	57	49	:	65	79
Microwave oven	42	46	33	45	5	32	45	54	13	31	51	43	13	:	:	71
Dishwasher	28	31	33	38	19	17	36	21	23	53	20	41	17	40	42	21
Telephone	93	92	97	94	91	86	96	82	92	98	98	94	77	:	:	93

Source: Eurostat - European Community Household Panel (ECHP).

HEALTH

	EU-15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
Infant mortality rate. per 1000 live births																
1970	23	21	14	23	30	28	18	20	30	25	13	26	56	13	11	19
1997	5*	6*	5*	5*	6*	6*	5*	6*	6*	4	5*	5	7	4	4	6*
Life expectancy at birth. males																
1980	70.5	70	71.2	69.6	72.2	72.5	70.2	70.1	70.6	69.1	72.7	69	67.7	69.2	72.8	70.2
1998	74.5	74.1	73.6	74.1	75.5	74.4	74.6	73.4	74.9	74.1	75.1	74.6	71.7	73.5	76.7	74.6
2010	77.8	78.7	77.1	77.4	79.4	76.7	78.3	77.2	78.3	78.8	78.2	76.6	75.3	76.6	78.9	78.3
Life expectancy at birth. females																
1980	77.2	76.8	77.3	76.1	76.8	78.6	78.4	75.6	77.4	75.9	79.3	76.1	75.2	77.6	78.8	76.2
1998	80.8	80.6	78.5	80.4	80.8	81.7	82.2	78.6	81.3	79.8	80.5	80.8	78.8	80.8	81.8	79.6
2010	83.6	84.2	80.8	82.9	83.6	84	85.4	82.3	84	83.4	83.3	82.4	81.9	83.3	83.4	83.2

Source: Eurostat - Demographic Statistics.

Life expectancy without severe disability. by sex. 1994																
Males	69.2	69.3	69.6	68.0	70.4	70.0	66.8	70.5	69.7	70.0	70.1	:	66.0	:	:	70.5
Females	74.3	74.3	73.8	74.0	74.4	75.4	72.8	75.7	73.8	76.5	74.0	:	71.8	:	:	74.7
Life expectancy without disability. by sex. 1994																
Males	59.7	60.3	60.7	56.6	62.9	61.8	60.1	61.2	60.2	59.1	58.9	:	55.0	:	:	59.0
Females	61.5	61.4	61.2	60.0	65.0	63.5	64.6	63.9	60.8	61.0	58.8	:	56.7	:	:	60.8
Percentage of persons aged 16 and over stating that they have a chronic physical or mental health problem/illness or disability. by sex. 1995																
Total	25	20	30	28	18	24	22	19	15	24	25	24	24	:	:	36*
Males	23	19	27	27	18	22	20	18	14	22	24	24	22	:	:	34*
Females	26	20	33	28	19	25	24	20	15	25	27	24	25	:	:	37
Percentage of persons aged 65 and over stating that they have a chronic physical or mental health problem/illness or disability. 1995																
Total	49	37	51	48	41	50	54	42	38	46	46	49	46	:	:	61
Percentage of persons with one of the above problems and who are hampered TO SOME EXTENT in their daily activities. by age-group. 1995																
Aged 16 and over	51	55	49	54	50	43	56	60	47	68	57	56	50	:	:	.
Aged 65 and over	48	49	48	48	48	43	50	57	43	67	53	53	47	:	:	50
Percentage of persons with one of the above problems and who are SEVERELY hampered in their daily activities. by age-group. 1995																
Aged 16 and over	36	36	21	29	39	29	44	22	46	19	29	28	40	:	:	.
Aged 65 and over	42	46	34	43	45	36	50	29	53	24	35	39	46	:	:	29
Percentage of the population aged 16 and over who feel that their health is bad or very bad. by sex. 1995																
Total	9	6	6	8	10	13	8	4	13	7	5	9	22	:	:	8*
Males	8	5	4	7	9	10	7	3	11	6	3	8	17	:	:	7*
Females	11	7	8	9	11	16	10	4	14	8	6	10	26	:	:	9
Percentage of the population aged 65 and over who feel that their health is bad or very bad. by sex. 1995																
Total	24	14	16	18	27	35	19	10	37	15	11	27	52	:	:	15
Males	20	10	12	16	26	28	16	9	34	12	8	26	45	:	:	13
Females	26	16	20	20	27	40	22	11	40	17	12	27	57	:	:	16

Source: Eurostat - European Community Household Panel (ECHP).

Standardised death rates (SDR) per 100 000 population by sex. 1996																
Males																
Circulatory diseases	364	351	374	443	384	289	255	465	341	406	358	463	428	444	380	398
of which heart attacks	167	132	200	217	131	103	85	285	125	163	164	210	106	289	216	248
Cancer	265	305	269	263	220	262	293	256	276	282	282	248	241	227	191	252
External causes of injury and poisoning	63	86	57	60	60	58	89	60	55	83	40	79	88	100	55	40

SOCIAL PARTICIPATION

Deaths per 100 000 population due to suicide and intentional self harm. by age and sex. 1995

	EU-15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
Men																
Total	14.3	30.1	23.5	4.5	5.5	11.7	29.3	18.4	11.0	21.3	12.5	32.9	11.9	41.8	20.3	11.3
0-24	1.6	2.9	1.9	1.0	0.7	1.2	3.0	3.5	1.1	2.7	1.3	3.7	0.8	5.4	1.9	1.3
25-54	7.5	16.5	11.1	2.1	3.0	5.0	15.9	10.5	5.0	10.8	6.9	16.7	4.9	24.6	11.4	7.1
55-74	3.5	6.7	7.2	1.1	1.3	3.4	7.2	3.4	3.2	5.5	3.3	8.7	4.0	9.6	5.3	2.2
75 and over	1.7	3.9	3.3	0.5	0.7	1.8	4.0	0.8	1.7	2.2	1.0	4.7	2.1	2.2	1.7	0.7
Women																
Total	4.6	10.2	9.8	1.8	1.1	3.2	9.9	4.9	3.2	8.0	6.1	9.2	3.9	11.4	8.4	3.0
0-24	0.4	0.7	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.3	0.6	0.5	0.3	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.4	1.2	0.8	0.3
25-54	2.4	6.8	4.8	0.6	0.5	1.3	5.2	3.2	1.4	5.1	3.5	4.9	1.7	7.0	4.7	1.6
55-74	1.3	3.1	3.5	0.4	0.5	1.2	3.0	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.7	2.8	1.2	2.6	2.2	0.8
75 and over	0.4	0.9	1.3	0.3	0.0	0.4	0.8	0.1	0.4	1.0	0.4	1.1	0.5	0.5	0.7	0.3

Data for B (1993). I (1994).

Source: Eurostat - Mortality Statistics.

Contacts with family among the population aged 60 and over (percentage of total). 1992

Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	:	100	:	:	100
Everyday	44	36	14	47	65	61	34	50	71	38	19	:	60	:	:	22
Two or more times a week	18	22	26	16	10	16	16	19	14	21	27	:	10	:	:	
Once a week	16	24	25	14	6	7	25	14	8	19	25	:	9	:	:	19
Once every two weeks	6	5	17	9	4	4	6	3	1	10	11	:	4	:	:	7
Once a month	5	4	8	5	2	3	7	4	1	4	9	:	4	:	:	6
Less often	8	6	8	6	7	8	9	7	2	7	6	:	10	:	:	15
Never/no family	3	4	2	4	6	1	3	3	3	3	3	:	4	:	:	4

Source: European Commission - Eurobarometer 1992.

Participation in social. cultural and political activities by type of organisation. 1998

At least one activity	46	48	84	53	24	28	40	51	34	57	79	53	26	72	85	53
Social/Religious	7	5	9	8	3	4	4	8	8	11	17	8	4	13	13	10
Cultural/Artistic	7	9	16	4	7	6	10	4	6	10	11	6	5	7	10	5
Trades Union/Political Party	9	8	51	8	3	3	4	6	4	11	19	11	3	37	51	11
Human Rights	2	3	5	1	0	2	2	2	2	3	5	3	0	2	7	2
Nature/Environmental	6	5	15	7	2	1	3	1	2	11	25	10	1	7	15	8
Youth	3	6	5	2	1	2	2	5	1	9	3	5	2	6	4	5
Consumer	2	1	5	1	0	1	1	0	1	9	11	1	1	1	19	1
Sports	20	20	38	29	8	10	18	29	11	25	37	20	10	21	36	20
Hobby/Special Interest	7	4	19	11	1	0	2	11	1	4	16	10	1	16	19	11
Other	6	8	7	7	4	4	7	7	4	3	9	4	3	9	11	7

Data include multiple answers and therefore do not sum up to 100.

Source: European Commission - Eurobarometer 1998.

Public opinion on whether retired people should be permitted to take paid employment or only work on a voluntary base (percentage of total). 1998

Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Paid employment	45	48	72	55	51	16	19	68	29	33	64	62	39	54	70	75
Both (spontaneous)	19	24	15	29	27	11	14	18	21	12	22	20	14	17	18	12
Voluntary work	36	28	13	15	22	73	68	14	50	55	14	19	47	29	13	13
Don't know or No answer	11	11	2	10	11	16	13	9	14	9	2	12	16	3	4	7

In the above table. the first three categories sum up to 100. The last category 'don't know or no answer' is provided as an indication as to the level of non-response.

Source: European Commission -Eurobarometer1998.

Time spent each month participating insocial. cultural and political activities (percentage of total) 1998

Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
less than 1 hour	16	14	22	15	23	13	16	6	14	6	20	14	10	23	40	11
1-5 hours	30	29	26	31	50	45	20	24	32	37	33	29	49	29	25	27
5-10 hours	22	22	19	24	10	21	30	23	25	20	16	14	17	22	16	21
more than 10 hours	28	30	33	25	13	20	32	43	26	33	27	25	21	21	18	37
time unknown	4	5	2	6	4	2	1	4	4	4	4	18	4	5	2	5

Annex II : Key social indicators per Member States

No.	Indicator	Unit	Year	EU-15	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
1	Old age dependency ratio	%	1998	24	25	22	23	24	24	24	17	26	21	20	23	22	22	27	24
2	Percentage of the population aged 18-24 having left education with low qualifications	%	1997	22	13	11	13	20	30	14	19	30	31	16	11	41	8	14	30
3	Employment rate of 15-64 year olds	%	1998	61	57	75	64	55	50	60	60	51	60	69	67	67	63	69	70
4	Employment rate of 55-64 year olds	%	1998	36	23	50	38	39	35	28	42	27	25	33	28	51	36	63	48
5	Unemployment rate	%	1998	10	10	5	9	12	19	12	8	12	3	4	5	5	11	8	6
6	Youth unemployment/population ratio	%	1998	9	7	5	5	13	15	9	6	13	3	5	4	5	11	8	9
7	Long-term unemployment rate	%	1998	5	6	1	5	6	10	5	6	9	1	2	2	2	4	4	2
8	Social protection expenditure as a percentage of GDP	%	1996	29	30	34	31	23	22	31	19	25	26	31	30	22	32	35	28
9	Old age benefits as a percentage of total social benefits	%	1996	45	43	39	41	49	45	44	26	66	43	39	49	43	34	39	40
10	Income distribution ratio (S80/S20)	Ratio	1994	5	5	3	5	6	5	4	6	5	5	4	5	7	3	5	5
11	Percentage of the population with an income less than 60% of the national median	%	1994	18	18	11	18	21	19	16	21	19	14	10	17	24	9*	:	20
12	Female employment rate of 15-64 year olds	%	1998	51	48	70	56	40	35	53	48	37	46	59	59	58	61	66	63
13	Monthly earnings of women as a percentage of men's	%	1995	74	84	84	74	73	76	80	70	77	84	71	73	71	78	84	70
14a	Life expectancy at birth - males	Years	1998	75	74	74	74	76	74	75	73	75	74	75	75	72	74	77	75
14b	Life expectancy at birth - females	Years	1998	81	81	79	80	81	82	82	79	81	80	81	81	79	81	82	80
14c	Life expectancy without disability at birth - males	Years	1995	60	60	61	57	63	62	60	61	60	59	59	:	55	:	:	59
14d	Life expectancy without disability at birth - females	Years	1995	62	61	61	60	65	64	65	64	61	61	59	:	57	:	:	61
15	Percentage of employed persons who had a working accident	%	1996	4	5	3	5	4	7	5	1	4	5	4	5	7	3	1	2

Reading notes for demographic and employment-related indicators

1 In 1998, the number of persons aged 65 and over corresponded to 24% of what is considered to be the working age population (15-64 years)
3 61% of the EU-15 population aged 15-64 were in employment in 1998
4 36% of the EU-15 population aged 55-64 were in employment in 1998
5 10% of the EU-15 labour force (those at work and those seeking work) were unemployed in 1998
6 9% of the EU-15 population aged 15-24 were unemployed in 1998
7 5% of the EU-15 labour force (those at work and those seeking work) had been unemployed for at least one year in 1998
10 At EU level, the poorest 20% of the population received only 8% of total income in 1994, while the richest received almost 40%, i.e. five time more
12 51% of the EU-15 female population aged 15-64 were in employment in 1998

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