

# COMMISSION OF THE EUROPEAN COMMUNITIES

COM(91) 29 final

Brussels, 13 February 1991

FINAL REPORT ON THE SECOND EUROPEAN POVERTY PROGRAMME

1985 - 1989

## CONTENTS

	Page
INTRODUCTION.....	1.
PART I - POVERTY IN EUROPE: THE FACTS.....	2.
I - Poverty is not just a shortage of money.....	2.
A. Monetary poverty: 50 million Europeans have a low income.....	2.
B. The different dimensions of poverty.....	5.
II - The face of poverty has changed.....	6.
A. Less poverty among the elderly, although they remain a vulnerable group.....	6.
B. Aspects of economic and social change that constitute new poverty factors.....	7.
C. Limitations of social protection.....	9.
III - Poverty has become a subject for public debate.....	11.
A. The perception of poverty has changed.....	11.
B. Poverty, new poverty?.....	12.
C. The parties involved in the fight against poverty.....	13.
PART II - THE SECOND EUROPEAN POVERTY PROGRAMME (1985-1989).....	15.
I - Activities under the Second European Poverty Programme.....	16.
A. 91 action-research projects.....	16.
B. European coordination.....	18.
C. Poverty statistics.....	19.
II - Experience gained from the Second European Poverty Programme.....	19.
A. Organisational experience .....	19.
B. Experience gained from the action-research projects.....	20.
III - PROSPECTS FOR SOLIDARITY IN EUROPE.....	27.
I - Certain aspects of economic and social change and of the construction of Europe represent a challenge for the fight against exclusion.....	27.
A. Required responses to economic and social change.....	27.
B. The internal market and the fight against exclusion.....	28.
II - Towards a coherent overall policy in the fight against exclusion.....	28.
A. The principles of solidarity in Europe.....	29.
B. Action for solidarity in Europe.....	30.

## ANNEXES

## INTRODUCTION

Designed to assist the Member States with their anti-poverty policies, the Second Community Programme was seen as a contribution towards two ambitious objectives: to propose innovative and universally applicable measures based on field trials, and to cast light on the causes of poverty.

The purpose of this report is to take stock of the situation, evaluate the measures implemented and set out the lessons to be learnt.

It has been drafted on the basis of contributions from four independent experts, Brian Abel-Smith, Aristos Doxiadis, Françoise Euvrard and Giovanni Sarpellon.

A number of benefits have already been drawn from the interim report presented by the Commission in 1988. In addition, the Commission department responsible (Organisation and Dissemination Unit) has produced various publications and continuously assessed the 91 action-research projects under the Programme.

On the basis of this experience, the Commission has drafted a proposal for the Third Poverty Programme, which has been transmitted to the Council with a view to ensuring the continuity and effectiveness of Community initiatives.

Part I of this report sets out the facts of poverty in Europe, discussing its extent, where it is found and which population groups it affects.

Part II traces the various stages of the Second European Poverty Programme, which finished at the end of 1989. It summarises the different activities under the Programme and attempts to draw lessons from them.

Part III suggests approaches for consistent overall anti-poverty policies to be implemented at all levels of the Community.

PART I

POVERTY IN EUROPE: THE FACTS

1. How many poor people are there in Europe today, and who are they? Whilst poverty has existed for a long time - it might even be said to have always existed - its form has changed in line with economic and social changes, and new poverty groups have recently appeared. The existence, persistence and development of poverty are subjects which have given rise to varying degrees of public debate in one form or another in all Member States.

1 - Poverty is not just a shortage of money

2. The definition and measurement of poverty are operations which are full of implications, as they involve identifying and counting those people whose situation is unacceptable and who therefore merit priority help, and because they require responsibilities and approaches to be established and policies to be proposed.

A complete objective definition of poverty refers to individual or family situations characterised by shortages or insufficiencies in various fields, i.e. insufficient resources, but above all many and varied weaknesses and shortcomings in non-monetary areas such as training, work capacity, health, housing and isolation. Poverty has many aspects, which combine in diverse ways for each individual. Its many different forms and dimensions mean that it does not generate a homogeneous group whose problems can be solved simply by increasing monetary input.

3. An assessment of the shortcomings and insufficiencies which characterise poverty is based on a set of norms stretching from the concept of a subsistence minimum (absolute poverty) to that of discrepancies between the living conditions of different citizens in the same society at the same time (relative poverty). In launching the Second European Poverty Programme (1985 -1989), the Council of Ministers defined the poor as "persons whose resources (material, cultural and social) are so limited as to exclude them from the minimum acceptable way of life in the Member State in which they live". Referring to the various types of resources to be taken into account (material, cultural and social), the Council stressed the multi-dimensional nature of poverty, and also its relative nature, as it is defined with reference to the living conditions of other citizens in the same society. According to this definition, poverty is the extreme form of inequality in standards of living.

A. Monetary poverty: 50 million persons have a low income (1985).<sup>(1)</sup>

4. An insufficient income is only one of the aspects of poverty, but it is the common denominator of all poverty situations and can therefore be a good indicator of the extent of poverty.

---

(1) Expenditure per equivalent adult has been used throughout as an approximation of average per capita income.

5. The interim report on the Second European Poverty Programme<sup>1</sup> estimated that the number of poor in the twelve Member States of the Community had increased from 38 million in 1975 to 44 million in 1985. This estimate related to income poverty only, the poverty threshold being defined as 50% of the average disposable income per head in the country in question. The consumption units applied were 1 for a single person, 0.7 for an additional adult in the household, and 0.5 for each child. However, these figures were provisional and based on unofficial sources.

6. The Commission has now prepared its own estimates based on the same definitions but using the family budget surveys now available. The new estimates increase the number of persons with low income in 1985 from 44 million to 50 million, corresponding to 15.4% of the total population of the twelve Member States (Table 1).<sup>2</sup>

The same calculations for 1980 give a figure of 49 million persons with low income, which means that the number of poor stabilised between 1980 and 1985, as did the percentage of the population beset by income poverty (15.6% in 1980).

In contrast, between 1975 and 1980 the number of low-income households in the then nine Member States seemed to increase, although the quality of the sources was less satisfactory (Annex 1, Table A3).<sup>3</sup>

7. This stabilisation of poverty in the Community of Twelve as a whole between 1980 and 1985 is the net result of different developments at national level. The proportion of low-income persons remained more or less the same over this period in Denmark, Germany and Portugal, increased in the Netherlands, Ireland, Italy and above all in the United Kingdom, but fell in Belgium, Greece, Spain and France (Annex 1 Table A1).<sup>4</sup>

---

<sup>1</sup> Social Europe, Supplement 2/89.

<sup>2</sup> These figures are likely to be too low - see Annex 1.

<sup>3</sup> Detailed statistics are contained in Annex 1, whilst this report concentrates on presenting general trends.

<sup>4</sup> The sources used do not permit an assessment of the situation in Luxembourg.

In 1985 the proportion of low-income persons in the population as a whole was particularly high (18 - 32%) in the poorer countries of the Community, i.e. Portugal, Greece, Spain, Ireland and the United Kingdom. It was very much lower (6 - 11%) in Belgium, Denmark, Germany and the Netherlands, and around average (15%) in France and Italy (Annex 1, Table A1).

8. Any interpretation of the figures contained in this report on poverty in Europe must take account of the definitions and calculation methods used. Even if a purely monetary approach in terms of income is adhered to, fixing the poverty threshold at 40% of average disposable income per head instead of 50% is sufficient to reduce the number of low-income persons in 1985 from 50 million to 26 million - in fact it reduces the number of poor by half or more in a good number of countries, particularly Germany, Belgium and the Netherlands (Table 1).

9. Similarly, the poverty threshold adopted may be the European average instead of the national average. The income of each individual is then compared with the average disposable income per head in the twelve Member States as a whole rather than in the country concerned. The difference between the results obtained by the two methods increases with the difference between the standards of living of the Member States. For example, with European average income as the point of reference 69.5% of the Portuguese population in 1985 was poor, compared with 32% when applying the national average. By contrast, 1.8% of the Belgian population was classified as poor on the European scale, against 5.9% on the national scale (Annex 1, Table A8)

10. Other approaches are also possible. One of these consists in taking people's perception of poverty to establish the number of poor. A representative sample of families was taken, and each one asked to place itself on a scale going from poor to rich. Only 2% of the families questioned classified themselves as "poor" and 9% as "poor or just above the poverty line". In other words, according to this approach there would be far fewer poor than the experts claim. In actual fact these results must be interpreted taking into account the fact that the most deprived are not generally asked to reply to such surveys, and the stigma attached to poverty causes people in very difficult situations to deny being poor.

11. To understand and take action against poverty it is important to know whether the persons with low incomes are the same from year to year or whether there is a significant turnover. It is too early to draw conclusions from the various Commission-financed panel studies monitoring the situations of households. However, it is known that more than half (60%) of the households in Belgium identified as being poor in 1985 were still poor in 1988, and 14% of households who did not consider themselves poor in 1985 did so in 1988.

12. 1985 is the most recent year for which usable data on the monetary aspect (income) of poverty are available. It can be assumed that the amount of poverty has fallen a little since then, as unemployment is slightly down and some countries have improved their social protection system and introduced measures to guarantee income, e.g. the minimum integration income in France and the guaranteed minimum income in Luxembourg.

## B. The different dimensions of poverty

13. The information available is not sufficient to permit a systematic analysis of the non-monetary aspects of poverty as for income, but it is intended to improve the comparability of statistics on non-monetary aspects in the near future.

14. Poverty is expressed in terms of insufficiency and deprivation in a large number of areas:

- The educational aspects include illiteracy, leaving school early and irregular attendance at school. The people affected will remain poor or become poorer, as their capacity for employment and participation in social life is very much restricted.

- In the same way as insufficient education, poor health is both a cause and a consequence of poverty. It is known that the mortality rate, the proportion of chronically ill and the feeling of being in poor health are indicators which are very closely related not only to social class, but above all to job and financial problems. Numerous studies have shown that unemployment can cause depression, mental illness and suicide.

- Poverty can also restrict access to health services, not just because of the advance payment often required, but also because behaviour and cultural habits mean that people tend not to seek treatment as soon as it is needed, if at all.

Furthermore, less-favoured regions are often short of medical infrastructure and services.

- As far as accommodation is concerned the poor generally live in the least comfortable housing and the most adverse environments. Many poor people live in isolated suburbs far from the town's services and facilities. Families in need, such as unemployed persons evicted from their dwelling for non-payment of rent, or families with only one parent following a separation (sometimes due to violence), have to live in housing which no one else wants. The poorest people sometimes squat in condemned buildings or even live in caravans or lorries. Some are homeless or, particularly in southern Europe, live in completely unacceptable conditions in cellars, basements or huts without any amenities.

15. Towards the middle of the 1980s the number of homeless in Germany was estimated at between 1 and 2 million. The number of persons in debt, particularly those with rent arrears, increased in many Member States, with the result that persons with housing debts were threatened with eviction.

For example, evictions of defaulters in the United Kingdom increased almost tenfold between 1979 and 1986. In Belgium more than 700 000 persons were threatened with having their gas and electricity cut off in 1985, and 65 000 had major difficulties paying their debts. A study in the Netherlands estimated that in 1985 150 000 households did not have the money to settle their debts.

16. Chain reactions can lead to an accumulation of handicaps. Unemployment and the resulting low level of income may be caused by a combination of poor qualifications and bad health, in turn leading to unsatisfactory living conditions and social isolation. Unemployment and a drop in living standards can lead to depression and apathy, reducing the chances of obtaining work even further. Sexual or racial discrimination can also be a factor behind low, irregular income and intermittent unemployment, situations which lead to substandard living conditions, health deterioration and the risk of alcoholism or drug abuse.

#### 11 - The face of poverty has changed

17. Poverty did not decline between 1975 and 1985, but above all it changed its appearance, in that poverty among the elderly decreased although the total population of elderly people rose steeply during the same period. In other words, poverty increasingly tended to strike the population groups of working age and their children. This is linked to the rise in unemployment and the change in family structures, particularly the growing number of single-parent families.

A. Less poverty among the elderly, although they remain a vulnerable group.

18. Between 1975 and 1985 there was a sharp increase in the number of elderly persons in Europe. In the United Kingdom the proportion of isolated people among those aged 75 or more rose from 19% in 1961 to 30% in 1981. In Germany the increase was from 37% in 1975 to 55% in 1985. There are more women than men in this category. In the United Kingdom and France more than 40% of elderly women live alone, compared with only around 20% in Ireland and France. Between 1980 and 1985 the proportion of elderly among those with low incomes went down in the Member States (Table 2) despite the rise in the number of elderly people and in the proportion of the total population which they represent. There was a particularly sharp decline in the number of low-income elderly people in Spain, France, Ireland, Belgium and to a lesser extent Germany and the United Kingdom. On the other hand, the number went up in Denmark, Italy, Portugal and especially the Netherlands. It remained almost unchanged in Greece.

In all countries the younger group of elderly persons with their own rights linked to a complete employment career were able to benefit from pensions schemes, which tended to concentrate poverty at the older end of the scale and among women.



Table 2 - Elderly persons

Number of elderly persons with income of less than 50% of the average national income in 1980 and 1985

	Thousands		Increase or Decrease	
	1980	1985	Thousands	%
Belgium	175	144	- 31	- 17.7
Denmark	140	157	+ 17	+ 12.2
Germany	1 374	1 263	- 111	- 8.0
Greece	382	371	- 11	- 2.9
Spain	1 379	1 080	- 299	- 21.7
France	2 198	1 513	- 685	- 31.2
Ireland	109	54	- 55	- 51.0
Italy	1 426	1 447	+ 21	+ 1.5
Nether-lands	69	91	+ 22	+ 31.3
Portugal	504	545	+ 41	+ 8.2
United Kingdom	1 988	1 846	- 142	- 7.1
Total	9 744	8 511	- 1 233	- 12.7

Source : Eurostat

B.Aspects of economic and social change that constitute new poverty factors.

19. In the social sphere, changes with a far-reaching effect on the organisation and functioning of the family are found to varying degrees in all Member States and contribute towards increasing isolation and the risk of poverty. In the economic field, unemployment in its various forms directly or indirectly leads to poverty, and social protection systems are not sufficient to check these developments.

20. The increase in the number of single-parent families is particularly marked. In Ireland the percentage doubled between 1975 and 1985, and by 1985 it had reached more than 10% in Belgium and France, more than 11% in Germany, approximately 13% in the United Kingdom and 20% in Denmark. The figures are lower in the south of the Community, but in 1985 single-parent families accounted for 10% of families in Europe as a whole.

The financial situation of such families depends on the proportion of them receiving a pension (as is the case for widows) and on the proportion of women who are able to exercise a gainful activity and find someone to look after their children while they do so, particularly where the children are very young. Childminding facilities for young children are very much lacking in most Member States. This means that where women go out to work they often take part-time jobs, which tend to be badly paid. On average, women earn only two-thirds to three-quarters of average men's wages when full-time equivalents are compared. Thus, between 1975 and 1985 the number of single-parent families dependent on social assistance increased in Belgium, France, Germany, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom.

21. Rise in unemployment. The main cause of poverty in the Member States is, directly or indirectly, the rise in unemployment, particularly long-term unemployment. Compared with the number of persons looking to enter the labour market, not enough new jobs have been created, and the recent recovery of the labour market has been accompanied by selectivity to the detriment of the long-term unemployed.

There is a considerable risk of two different societies developing within the Member States, one of them active, well-paid, well-protected socially and with an employment-conditioned structure, the other poor, deprived of rights and devalued by inactivity.

The high level of unemployment in the Community is partly explained by the economic recession in the late 1970s and early 1980s, which brought with it a decline in public and private investment. The second reason is linked to major restructuring of the Community's economic activities over the past 15 years in response to competition from Japan and newly industrialised countries. Many regions in northern Europe, particularly those previously dominated by traditional manufacturing industries, have become blackspots of unemployment.

22. The underdeveloped rural regions of the Community such as Portugal, part of Spain, southern Italy, Ireland and Greece have long had to contend with structural underemployment. Even in periods of rapid economic growth, these regions are beset by unemployment. Many of them suffer a population exodus, and the long-term decline in employment and an unbalanced population structure result in a high proportion of elderly people. A further factor, in the south, has been the return of migrant workers to their country of origin; more than 300 000 Greeks returned home between 1974 and 1980, and many of them found it hard to reintegrate into a traditional society. Refugees returned to Greece, and former colonial settlers to Portugal.

23. Between 1975 and 1985, in EUR-10, the unemployment rate rose from 3.7% to 9.5% of the workforce, with long-term unemployment (one year or more) going up from 0.7% to 4.6%. In the Community as a whole, the unemployment rate in EUR-12 reached 10.7% in 1987 (8.2% in EUR-10) with 15.1 million unemployed and fell back in EUR-10 to 9% in 1988 (10% in EUR-12).

a) "New poverty"

24. The direct consequence of the restructuring of economic activities in the Member States is the creation of new forms of poverty. Persons in apparently secure, full-time, qualified jobs are made redundant on economic grounds. They find themselves faced with a decline in their prosperity and can eventually become poor. These are relatively well-qualified, young and healthy people, but most of them find it difficult to contend with a situation made worse by loans and other commitments taken on while they were well-off. Such groups are both unaccustomed and unable to manage their lives with a low income; this is illustrated by the level of their debts, their inability to help themselves and their unwillingness to ask for the assistance to which they are entitled.

b) Invisible unemployment and insecure forms of employment

25. Several action-research projects under the Second European Poverty Programme have revealed how official statistics underestimate the extent of unemployment. Few figures are available on underemployment, particularly in southern Europe. For example, persons in temporary employment or following a training course, elderly workers taking early retirement with a reduced pension, nomads, potential migrant country-dwellers, the homeless and women (particularly women who are heads of families) are all under-represented. Many of them are discouraged from seeking work. Unemployment statistics do not count family workers in agriculture or persons with temporary jobs who are looking for more secure employment. In 1986 France had 1.4 million persons in this situation.

26. The sharp rise in the number of part-time jobs means that such work is not always the preference of people who accept it. In 1985 more than 40% of women in Denmark, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom worked part-time, whereas many of them would have preferred a full-time job; they do not appear in unemployment statistics even when they are looking for alternative employment.

27. The labour market is tending towards a split between a restricted market offering secure, well-paid employment and an expanding secondary market where employment is temporary, irregular, part-time and often badly paid. The aim here is not to question the usefulness of these particular types of employment, which reflect the need of employers for flexibility and which can in certain circumstances meet the wishes of certain workers. In the absence of alternatives, they have enabled and still do enable deprived persons to gain access to the labour market. However, it is true that they are likely to help institutionalise insecure employment. Frequent alternation between periods of unemployment and atypical employment means that unemployment insurance rights cannot be accumulated and makes it difficult to obtain steady employment.

C. Limitations of social protection.

28. Although they have reached a high level of sophistication, the social protection systems of the Member States do not always take account of poverty as such. For example, unemployment insurance schemes always favour the core of employees who have built up rights by working full-time and earning a good wage or salary. When schemes were set up, provision was not made for the sharp growth in the number of persons looking for their first job (young people), wanting to return to the labour market (women) or still unemployed following a badly-paid, part-time, temporary job as often held by women or created for young people with the help of the authorities. In 1987 more than a third of the Community's unemployed (5.9 million) were under 25 years of age, and more than half of these (3.1 million) had never worked.

Benefit payments for long-term unemployment are not generally as high as payments immediately following the loss of a job. However, the duration of unemployment has increased significantly; in 1987 more than half of the Community's unemployed had been without a job for over a year, and more than a third for over two years.

29. Social assistance is then often the only recourse, subject to fulfilment of the qualifications. But of course it does not always provide an income which is sufficient to avoid poverty. In Germany, the percentage of unemployed receiving payments from unemployment insurance schemes fell from 66% in 1975 to 38% in 1984. Accordingly, in 1975 less than 14% of unemployed persons' households were dependent on social assistance, but by 1985 the figure was close to 33%. In the Netherlands 20% of the unemployed were receiving social assistance in 1975, rising to 57% in 1985. However, social assistance does not always provide an income in excess of the threshold of 50% of average disposable income per head. The same applies, in certain countries, to the guaranteed minimum income.

30. Overall, a significant percentage of those people officially counted as unemployed (available for and seeking work) receive neither unemployment benefits nor social assistance, being excluded by the rules. There are also a large number of persons who do not claim their rights, either because they are unaware of them or because they are afraid of the authorities (migrant workers without the necessary permits). Furthermore, those in the greatest need of help, the homeless, often have no rights because they cannot meet the residence conditions.

Finally, women and young people who are the most prone to unemployment are also the most likely not to qualify for assistance. This makes them dependent on family solidarity, which is on the decline even in the countries of southern Europe, where it is threatened by the development of urbanisation and industrialisation.

Table 3  
Unemployed persons receiving neither unemployment benefits  
nor social assistance

	% of total unemployed	% of unemployed aged under 25
Belgium	17	22
Denmark	26	39
Ireland	32	40
Netherlands	40	41
Germany	42	50
France	60	67
Luxembourg	79	-
Italy	83	86
Greece	96	-

Source: EUROSTAT, Community Labor Force Survey, 1985.

31. During the 1980s social protection systems certainly helped to alleviate the effects of the crisis and limit the spread of poverty. But although poverty seemed relatively stabilised, it still existed, owing to gaps or shortcomings in basic social protection. It has been estimated that social protection saves 85% of households from poverty in Belgium, around 80% of households in Lorraine, Luxembourg and the Netherlands, but only two-thirds of households in Ireland. In Greece 48% of households escape income poverty thanks to social security, which means that 52% remain poor despite social protection.

32. These gaps and shortcomings in the social protection system must be assessed in the light of national situations. The absence of mechanisms to guarantee resources in some countries, the selective nature of such mechanisms in others and the insufficient level of guaranteed resources contribute towards the persistence of poverty. Furthermore, to eliminate poverty it is not sufficient to introduce a minimum income, as not all households always claim their rights.

III - Poverty has become a subject for public debate

33. The characteristics of poverty in Europe have changed in recent years. As well as traditional poverty, there are now new forms affecting population groups which are all the more unable to deal with the situation given that they had previously been spared. A whole range of economic, political and social bodies are now involved to varying degrees in the fight against poverty.

A. The perception of poverty has changed

34. The opinion polls carried out periodically by Eurobarometer suggest that after an increase between 1976 and 1983 the percentage of Europeans who considered themselves poor fell between 1983 and 1989. The limitations of these surveys as a measure of poverty were described in §10, and the results are therefore mentioned here only as a guide to changes in opinions. In 1976 7.6% of the Europeans interviewed (excluding Greeks, Spaniards and Portuguese) regarded themselves as living in poverty. The percentage rose to 10.7% in 1983 (excluding Spaniards and Portuguese), followed by a fall to 8.6% in 1989. However, there are significant differences between countries; the percentage of persons considering themselves poor in 1989 was 2% in Luxembourg, 4.7% in Germany, 15.5% in Spain and 12.5% in Ireland. One fifth of Europeans agree that poverty exists in their district or village, the number rising to a third if those who agree that there is a risk of poverty are included. The change in the perception of the causes of poverty means that 66% of the persons interviewed want the authorities to do more to combat poverty. Furthermore, half of them said that they would be prepared to make a financial contribution, and 59% would be willing to give their time to help the poor.

35. The main factor revealed by the Eurobarometer surveys is the change in the perception of poverty: in 1989 laziness and unwillingness are less often cited as causes of poverty than in 1976, whereas the situation is reversed as far as the shortcomings of the social system are concerned. 17% of the persons interviewed think that poverty is an inevitable part of the development of the modern world, and 18% think that the poor have been unlucky. This suggests that between 1976 and 1989 Europeans became aware of the social origins of poverty.

#### B. Poverty, new poverty?

36. More than ever, poverty in Europe now seems to have taken on different forms, aspects and dimensions. There is no lack of typologies developed to record this diversity, nor of attempts to make a careful distinction between the many different words used to describe it (poverty, insecurity, marginalisation, social exclusion, fourth world). This report will not attempt to judge these various terms, which often reflect national or cultural sensitivities, although it should be stressed that the Council Resolution of 29 September 1989 did adopt the concept of social exclusion. The different situations identified in the Member States seem to fall into three main categories.

37. First of all there is the type of poverty which besets individuals and households with a recognised status and income which is regular and safe, but particularly low. This is referred to as worker poverty. These persons have a modest standard of living supported by their own resources. However, the balance is extremely precarious and likely to be tilted by the loss of their job, their spouse giving up work, long-term illness, etc.

38. Secondly, there is a new type of poverty affecting people whose participation in society is becoming subject to chance, either because they do not have a regular, safe income (e.g. young people who do not succeed in entering the labour market, or single women and widows who are looking for a job), or because there is a change in the regularity, certainty and/or level of their income. Such a situation results in, for example, the non-repayment of instalments on goods purchased, failure to keep up with mortgage payments, the non-payment of taxes, or even the failure to pay rent, gas, electricity and telephone bills, etc.

These new poverty situations are caused, first of all, by the restructuring of the labour market and the recurring or long-term unemployment which results. The limitations of anti-poverty measures and social protection systems are a further factor.

39. Finally, there is poverty of what is referred to as the fourth world, i.e. the population stratum situated right at the bottom of the social ladder. The income of these people is extremely low, irregular and uncertain. The social services are often aware of them, not because they are covered by the social protection system, but because their situation tends to reproduce itself from one generation to the next, and especially because their difficulties mount up to the extent that it is difficult for them to comply with the conventional criteria for assistance.

C. The parties involved in the fight against poverty

40. First of all, the fight against poverty is a subject for national social policies. The central government, the provider of national solidarity, must ensure that a certain level of social cohesion is maintained. In all countries the central government traditionally develops sectoral policies to help combat poverty (housing, education and training, health, employment, etc.). For these policies to be effective in helping the poor, it is necessary to ensure that the most deprived people are not excluded from their scope. Furthermore, the authorities concerned have for a number of years been aware that responding to the needs of the poor is less a matter of implementing different policies through institutions and groups of persons working side by side than of providing simultaneous and coordinated aid in various fields. Thus, in addition to their traditional sectoral policies, the Member States have gradually created and developed overall approaches to poverty by setting up global action programmes where necessary. For example, area revival programmes based on similar principles have been undertaken in several Member States. Government funds are used to supplement those provided by local authorities to finance concerted projects aimed at improving life in such areas (better housing, youth training schemes, cultural and sports events, employment possibilities, etc.).

41. The central governments of a number of Member States have recently demonstrated their recognition of the existence and extent of poverty either by introducing and developing new policies to help the poor (introduction of a minimum income), by setting up a national commission on poverty as in Italy or by making poverty the subject of a ministerial portfolio as in Belgium.

42. Local or regional authorities are responsible for the practical implementation of measures to combat poverty. Procedures vary first of all as a function of the degree of decentralisation of administrative action and political structures. These authorities traditionally play an important role in providing social assistance and nowadays they can act more efficiently through the local policies which exist in most Member States. Such policies do not just aim to combat poverty; they can also promote overall action on the various factors leading to exclusion and dependence (housing, education, health, income, employment, sociability, etc.). Such overall action calls for a partnership approach, so that the responsible persons in the different institutions, which previously went their own separate ways, can act together, in a coordinated manner, and therefore more efficiently.

43. Apart from the authorities and government bodies, the main parties involved in the fight against poverty are the large general-interest associations. These non-governmental organisations have developed in all Member States, some of them on an international basis. They are of course very different in nature and cover many different aspects; they may be charitable organisations or activist groups, they may be concerned with practical policies, or they may engage in political or media lobbying, etc. Those in direct contact with the most deprived are in a position to speak on their behalf. They also keep public opinion and decision-makers informed, with a view to increasing solidarity with the poor. Some of them work closely together with local, area, regional and national authorities.

45. With a few exceptions, the bodies and institutions responsible for the economy have tended not to get involved in the fight against poverty. However, it seems that they are now beginning to show awareness of the problem particularly on account of the clear link between unemployment trends and poverty. Local development and economic and social integration programmes should provide an opportunity for the more active involvement of companies and trade unions in the major campaign required to combat poverty.

\*  
\* \*



PART II - SECOND EUROPEAN POVERTY PROGRAMME (1985-1989)

46. A growing number of Europeans are unemployed or in a marginal situation as regards employment and social status. Studies indicate that the Single European Market will create jobs in the medium term, but in the short term it may make things precarious for the more fragile groups in certain regions which are undergoing conversion to other industries or are underdeveloped, and also in other more competitive regions. Faced with this challenge, the Commission of the European Communities is contributing towards the fight against poverty on several fronts, which will be discussed further in Part III. One of these is the continuation and extension of specific measures launched in the mid-1970s. The objective is to promote the exchange of information, experience and models for action.

47. Following the first European programme of pilot schemes and studies to combat poverty, which ran from 1975 to 1980, four years of evaluation and reflection were needed before the conditions were established for the Commission to be able to put forward a proposal for a new programme. The Second Programme did not in fact become reality until December 1984. It finished at the end of 1989, and this time - in contrast to the previous occasion - a third programme (Poverty 3) aimed at fostering economic and social integration of the least privileged groups was launched to cover the period 1989-1994, thus avoiding any hiatus between programmes.

48. In doing things this way the Commission is trying to avoid disruptions to measures in force at European level. While recognising that solidarity towards the most deprived is basically a matter for each Member State, at the same time it must acknowledge that the fight against poverty has its roots in the economic and social policies discussed at Community level. The fight against poverty thus constitutes an area for research and experiment, an area in which the problems to be dealt with and the solutions adopted or tried out in the different countries have much in common. Exchanges of experience are therefore possible, permitting the exploitation throughout the Community of useful information and thus limiting the need for working by trial and error, which is a feature of all activities in an area where the institutional and social problems to be dealt with are particularly complex.

The desired continuity of action must also be accompanied by improvements to the methods used. It would therefore appear essential to take account of the lessons learnt from the Second Community Poverty Programme, which included both strong points and weaknesses - the latter usually linked to the persistent causes of poverty, which are the most difficult to eliminate. An interim report provided an opportunity to identify these strengths and weaknesses<sup>1</sup> and also allowed a number of lessons to be learnt, which were taken into account in designing Poverty 3.

<sup>1</sup> Social Europe, Supplement 2/89.

## I - Activities under the Second European Poverty Programme

49. The Second Programme was allocated a relatively modest budget given the size of the problem: 25 million ECU initially, increased to 29 million following its extension to Spain and Portugal. Activities were based on two principles:

- the need to avoid approaches which were too theoretical or ideological, by taking account of actual experience;
- the study of new methods developed locally by associations or other bodies active in the field.

Adopting these principles the Commission

- supported 91 local action-research projects throughout the twelve Member States,
- attempted to coordinate projects and assess their progress throughout the programme,
- launched a parallel series of studies and statistical projects on the nature, measuring, development and perception of poverty in Europe.

### A. 91 action-research projects

50. Following the First Programme, which was not subject-based, it seemed sensible to group projects together around common themes. Projects under the Second Programme were therefore divided into eight subject groups agreed with the Member States to take account of the traditional targets of their anti-poverty activities, as follows:

- integrated action in urban areas
- integrated action in rural areas
- long-term unemployed
- youth unemployment
- the elderly
- single-parent families
- migrants and refugees
- marginals.

51. On the basis of these subjects, the Commission invited proposals from the Member States. After a study of those received, 91 action-research projects were selected, taking account of strict criteria (which applied to the whole Community) and the objective of the programme, which was to explore the eight subjects and analyse the twelve Member States' methods and know-how.

52. Distribution by subject: "integrated action" accounts for 26 of the projects (13 in urban areas and 13 in rural areas). As for the vulnerable population groups there were 13 action-research projects relating to "migrants and refugees", 12 on "the elderly", 11 on "long-term unemployed" and 9 each on "youth unemployment" and "single-parent families".

53. The scope of the projects varied, and distribution between the different countries is not significant.

54. The Commission financed each project's operating budget to the amount of 50% (55% in special cases). The balance was financed by other organisations: national or local government, local authorities or national or local charitable organisations in most cases, sometimes religious organisations and, more rarely, trade unions. The modest Community budget allocated to the programme to investigate the eight subjects resulted in a tendency to finance projects of more limited overall scope. The size of projects does seem to have had an effect on their efficiency; the available budget, the size of the project management team, the qualifications of the persons employed and the ability of the project leaders to involve voluntary workers and the population groups concerned do indeed play an important role in making it possible to achieve the aspired goals. Even where they concentrate on particular groups of vulnerable persons, projects must be very specific to ensure the fostering and maintaining of links with other local or national bodies for the purpose of dealing with the multiple aspects of poverty. This explains the very considerable differences between the budgets allocated to action-research projects under the programme, which varied in a ratio of one to ten, and the management teams, which consisted of between two and 27 full-time staff. Similarly, some projects were dependent on volunteers, whereas others had more than 200 people working for them.

55. In some countries poor people themselves participated in the running of the majority of projects, though in others such participation was very limited. An analysis of the difficulties encountered in involving beneficiaries in the design and management of projects will help to establish integration strategies for the model projects under Poverty 3.

56. Projects were based on various approaches to poverty, which meant that the underlying logic also differed. In some cases the principal (if not the only) activity was to "socialise" persons with medico-psychological problems. Such action was more or less ambitious depending on whether the aim was to return the person concerned to a normal life or to help him or her adapt to some form of permanent sheltered life. Other projects attempted to make up for the shortcomings of the social protection system where this creates dependence on benefits such as the single-parent allowance. The aim then was to help the people concerned integrate or reintegrate into normal life and achieve an independent existence by gaining access to the labour market.

Unlike the projects relating to specific population groups, the integrated action projects in rural and urban areas were closely concerned with exclusion processes originating for example in schools or from housing association contacts or neighbourhood relations. The approach here was more sociological than medico-psychological.

57. In addition to variations in project scope, objectives and strategies, the team responsible for European-level coordination also had to cope with differences between local and national situations.

#### B. European coordination

58. The Commission had entrusted a social research institute based in Cologne with the task of coordinating and promoting the 91 action-research projects. This involved cooperation with two teams recruited by a specialised institute at the University of Bath and a member of staff at the Catholic University of Louvain.

59. The plan had been for the programme to be monitored by these two teams, including an assessment with regard to national situations and exploitation of the know-how of the people working in the field through a transnational comparison of their experience in each subject.

60. Information on the programme was disseminated through regular publications in several languages:

- a monthly internal liaison bulletin
- a quarterly review translated with wider distribution than the bulletin
- annual supplements to this review.

The transnational exchanges held at the project locations presented an opportunity to organise, under the patronage of the Commission, events, seminars, conferences and discussions to provide local communities with information on poverty situations and appropriate remedial action. The Commission's Organisation and Dissemination Unit has produced various documents on the programme, including a description of the action-research projects. Evaluation reports have also been published.

61. Finally, the Commission itself looked after the financial administration of projects.

### C. Poverty statistics

62. Overall official statistical information on poverty, particularly its development in time and distribution in space, was clearly insufficient.

The Commission, through the Statistical Office of the European Communities, therefore proceeded to identify and collect comparable data on poverty and engaged independent experts to carry out research into methods of measuring poverty (both quantitative and qualitative) and to estimate the number of poor.

The Statistical Office (Eurostat) based its work on the results of the Community family budget surveys and the administrative statistics available in the Member States.

63. The University of Antwerp's Social Policy Centre coordinated the design of instruments to measure poverty, using as a basis the information provided by representative samples of households (subjective measurement of poverty) in seven countries, and testing five measuring methods.

64. Finally, in 1989 Eurobarometer repeated its 1976 survey on the perception of poverty in Europe.

65. All these various measuring instruments and data represent a major step forward in the establishing of basic principles for adequate anti-poverty policies. Although they are still far from complete, they have enabled a relatively detailed picture of poverty in Europe to be compiled, covering its development over the past ten years (see Part I of this report).

### II - Experience gained from the Second European Poverty Programme

66. The lessons learnt from the Second Programme can be divided into two categories:

- administrative experience in the broader sense, covering project organisation and implementation methods

- policy lessons resulting from the actual content of the projects carried out in the field.

#### A. Organisational experience

67. The 91 action-research projects under the Second Programme reflected the adopted approach, which was to explore new methods implemented at local level and aimed at specific population groups. Activities were restricted in scope, rather dispersed and varied in nature. Furthermore, the people in charge of them were field-workers who were often very dutiful and did much to promote the development of project activity, but were not trained to monitor and analyse this activity.

68. The people responsible for evaluation and coordination at Community level have therefore been faced with a considerable need on the part of projects for technical assistance with self-evaluation and the preparation of strategies. This role was not foreseen originally and has sometimes been inconsistent with the assessor/organiser's independent status.

The geographical and functional dispersion of project organisation, financial administration, evaluation and dissemination, etc., entrusted to different persons employed in different bodies in different places, constituted a stumbling-block for overall consistency and combination of projects into a genuine joint project.

Generally speaking, coordination suffered from the limitations of the intermediate stages between European level and local activities. The scope of action-research projects was a significant factor in their ability to become integrated into local action networks. Some of them were big enough to be able to make use of these networks or even serve as references on a local basis, but this was not always the case.

69. In an attempt to achieve a Community dimension, which had not been the case with the First Programme, the Commission did not propose specific national activities. This meant that national implications often were not fully developed. Action-research projects often seemed only loosely connected with national projects, and their intended role as an example and test was not very obvious.

70. It is true that the projects under the Second Programme did not so much seek to echo policies as to provide for the needs of the poor and find a concrete solution to their problems. The people responsible for implementing projects in the field have often stressed that poverty must above all be fought at local level. But the battle cannot be fought just in the field, and what can be achieved at local level largely depends on the decisions taken at national and Community level.

#### B. Experience gained from the action-research projects

71. The objective of the action-research projects under the Second European Poverty Programme was to integrate the population groups at which they were aimed. It was essential to combat the dangerous phenomenon of growing population fringes experiencing difficulties - primarily as a result of industrial restructuring and social changes - in adapting to their environment and becoming integrated into economic, social and political structures. Activities were aimed at maintaining or restoring social links, and either concerned the poor directly or attempted to improve economic and social structures.

72. These activities served as a social laboratory for testing a number of innovations. The conditions of implementation and project results provide a new view of the equilibrium between the three components of all policies to benefit the poor. The first component is the market, the constraints of which vary from country to country, but which imposes a certain number of statutes or de facto laws; it is hoped that the market can supply at least the basic conditions for the employment of persons currently regarded as marginals. Secondly, there are the various support points, or society institutions (family, neighbourhood, associations, miscellaneous solidarity groups), whose efficiency can be improved and their area of activity extended if they seem capable of playing a positive part in the fight against poverty. Finally, taking account of the market and society support points, there are activities which can be implemented by the various public authorities, particularly at local level.

73. The often very different fields in which the programme projects have involved investigating approaches, testing methods and exchanging experiences can be grouped together by target subject (employment, family and neighbourhood, social protection and social institutions, local development).

#### 1. Employment

74. Employment is one of the main problems in the fight against exclusion. Since employment guarantees income and provides the basis for social identity, exclusion from employment is a process which, without special intervention, is almost certain to lead to social exclusion. Action-research projects provided opportunities to test various hypotheses concerning local, national and European situations and policies. They led to the implementation of new approaches inspired by current discussions relating to the future of employment and the nature of poverty.

75. Whilst unemployment policies differ, it is still possible to identify common factors. Policies are largely centered on youth unemployment and the supply of labour, involving vocational training, job hunting, and making aid conditional on being active in some way. However, the people benefitting from these measures rarely find a steady job, and the activities developed under certain action-research projects therefore do not just aim to reintegrate the unemployed into the labour market, but also to help them avoid becoming demoralised. The various strategies adopted for the projects are described below.

##### a) Action aimed at persons

76. One of the priority objectives of action-research projects was to encourage unemployed people to make an effort to get out of their isolation and to avoid becoming resigned and demotivated. This was an initial step to more direct action on training and job-seeking. To attain this goal, meeting places were set up (reception centres, information centres, social centres for the unemployed, etc.), or events were organised by the population groups concerned (public debates, or even fêtes and other social gatherings, etc.).

77. The second stage was to improve the position of persons who were not or no longer employable. Young people who would not otherwise have found work were able to acquire vocational experience under a monitored, ongoing programme. Limited-period contracts were used systematically to act as staging-posts towards steady jobs. In other cases action-research project teams offered intermediate practical work between training and reentering the labour market. "Occupational" activities enabled some people to relearn the patterns of a working life or just a social life. Genuine vocational training courses were also offered, in particular to prepare people for often very specialised jobs expected to become available following the arrival of new companies in the region or district.

78. Finally, for some of the unemployed, help was provided in the form of an opportunity to play an active role in the community. Some of them had together analysed their needs and assessed their abilities to participate in joint activities, e.g. formation of various groups, help with training young people, consultancy and advisory activities.

b) Changes in the environment.

79. Activities under the Programme were not restricted to helping persons, and project teams also concerned themselves with the immediate environment of the unemployed, fostering links with local authorities in order to amend certain regulations and thus facilitate the existence and functioning of groups or centres for the unemployed. Some of these centres were officially recognised as non-profit-making associations and were able to use municipal premises free of charge, and unemployed persons were allowed to use public transport free of charge, etc.

It seemed important to develop a real policy of communication, to bring out the problems encountered by the unemployed and the possible solutions. Other measures in this context included the publication of bulletins and brochures and the distribution of video films produced by groups of unemployed. All these activities brought overall benefits and had a positive effect on public opinion about the unemployed.

80. However, the effectiveness of these practices was limited by the insufficient number of jobs available. A number of teams therefore devoted themselves to creating activities for persons in danger of remaining permanently unemployed (formation of companies, production or service cooperatives, and agencies).



81. As project scopes were limited, it is not possible to evaluate their effects in terms of reducing the number of particularly deprived unemployed persons in the project area. However, the most innovative lesson provided by projects in connection with unemployment is a qualitative one: how to guarantee a minimum quality of life to persons who must often live for a long time at the edge of the labour market, and which active social measures to provide for. Projects demonstrate the importance of developing national income support policies and the need to guarantee resources. They offer examples of the need to adapt national employment and vocational training policies to take account of the least privileged groups.

## 2. Social protection institutions

82. Up to a certain point, action-research projects served to test the efficiency of social protection systems for the most deprived. In more than half the cases the projects came up against institutional obstacles. The limitations of the systems concern both the low level of allowances and the restrictive eligibility conditions, which do not always take account of new poverty situations. Some benefits place a social stigma on those who apply for them, whilst in other cases the calculation procedures are difficult to understand, and others still have the perverse effect of creating new forms of poverty.

83. In this connection there is a universal need for potential beneficiaries to be informed and advised. At the same time, the authorities need to be made aware of the existence of persons living in poverty and the problems facing them. This means that there is a need for intermediaries to act as an interface, i.e. to enable the population groups concerned to gain access to information and to enable the institutions to gain access to the population groups.

### a) Facilitating access to social services and entitlements

84. A large number of projects carried out under the Programme were aimed at making the poor aware of their rights and helping them to claim those rights. Activities included systematic and general dissemination of information to certain groups such as single-parent families and immigrants (immigrants likely to return home were provided with information on social measures in force there), private consultations provided through a local "surgery", and legal assistance to help applicants bring their cases to court if they were otherwise unable to obtain their rights.

### b) Improvement of relations between services and users

85. It is not necessarily sufficient to organise services at local level to improve relations with users and respond to their specific needs. However, what did seem essential almost everywhere was an improvement in the coordination of measures implemented by the different institutions, whether public or private, central or local, and professional or voluntary. Efficiency improved wherever the responsible persons in the different institutions involved at local level managed to harmonise their working methods and coordinate their action.

86. The efficiency of services can also be improved by systematically consulting the population groups before establishing policies or measures designed to meet their needs. Participation by these groups in the organisation and management of services represents an advanced form of such consultation.

87. Social services staff should be given training specific to the needs of the poor population groups, e.g. courses to enable them to offer help to persons who are weak in reading and writing, or language courses in the mother tongues of potential applicants. More generally, staff should be provided with information on the problems encountered by the different groups living in poverty.

88. Similarly, training programmes in methods of intercultural education have been successfully developed with the help of teachers and with the children of families in difficulty in mind. Some staff have participated in actions aimed at allowing young people who have left school early to return, to avoid them ending up on the streets.

It goes without saying that there must be absolutely no racist or sexist behaviour on the part of social services staff, although it may sometimes be difficult to define such behaviour.

c) Provision of the most appropriate benefits for fighting poverty

89. The complexity of procedures and length of formalities act as a deterrent to certain applicants. A periodic examination of the conditions of eligibility for assistance should be carried out, with a view to their systematic simplification.

90. Some benefits (e.g. family allowances) could probably play a more important role in the fight against poverty.

91. For all that, it is necessary to avoid creating an assisted population which remains dependent on financial aid and social workers. With this in mind, financial incentives to accept a job may be considered, although they give rise to difficult problems in respect of reconciliation with the market, the functioning of which must not be impeded by unfair competition, and with the combined effects of taxes, social contributions and amounts of aid paid (particularly where the payment of aid leads to further benefits).

92. The most interesting lesson learnt from the projects was seeing how it was possible to construct an interface between the measures and services offered by the public sector and the people entitled to them and to develop cooperation between the public and the private sectors with a view to providing more efficient aid for the most deprived.

### 3. Family and neighbourhood

93. The demographic and social changes now taking effect in our societies play a part in creating situations of isolation and dependence. The increasing number of divorces, development of the feminist movement, and increase in the number of elderly persons both in absolute terms and as a percentage of the total population are factors which have affected the composition of families and their ability to take responsibility for dependent persons.

94. In this respect, action-research project teams have reacted different ways in different cultures. In some countries and for some teams, one of the main objectives is to avoid the institutionalization of persons in a marginal position. It is necessary to avoid long-stay establishments or hospices, keep dependent people at home and develop relations between them and the rest of the community. Some teams have successfully experimented with the local development of inter-generation relations; the experience, professional qualifications and availability of people who have taken early retirement or single women (heads of family) who cannot find work can help to meet the needs and combat the isolation of the dependent elderly, sick and disabled. By taking responsibility for providing part of the necessary care, together with the neighbourhood community, these teams have contributed towards helping families to look after their sick and have helped the sick to leave their institutions. They have also drawn attention to the high cost of caring for the sick at home, the promotion of which can certainly not be regarded as a solution to budgetary constraints.

95. As in the case of the unemployed, activities were aimed at bringing about a positive effect on the behaviour of dependent persons and the image which their environment has of them, by giving them the means to control their life, organise themselves as a group and themselves take the decisions which concern them. Other teams, however, took the view that the burden on a family of an elderly or sick person at home was too much, particularly as this burden normally falls on the women.

96. The most valuable lesson learnt from projects in this field was a broader knowledge of the nature and dimensions of poverty and recognition of the potential ability of the most deprived to look after themselves if given the chance.

#### 4. Local development, mobilisation of local resources

97. Many action-research projects experimented with special integrated action procedures, including provisions for enabling deprived local communities to work together or allowing volunteer workers and institutions to cooperate actively in a bid to fight exclusion.

Programme activities showed that it is possible to involve both the population groups concerned and local bodies and authorities in the battle against marginalisation.

Methods exist which allow the population groups to participate in the launching, realisation and promotion of economic, social and cultural activities. Economic activities frequently involve cooperatives or collective enterprises associating the population groups with decision-making and management.

As far as cultural activities are concerned, local culture and traditions can be exploited, e.g. enhancement of natural or archeological sites. In the social field, services and even infrastructures have been provided or improved after consultation of the population (social services, transport, communications, etc.).

98. More specifically, the creation of information and meeting centres was very successful, providing clear evidence of the existence of collective projects. The participation of development agencies and consultants was considered necessary to give impetus to local economic activities by helping with technical preparations. These agencies and consultants were also required to be able to draw up applications for financing and to argue for them at the various levels of government, including the Commission of the European Communities.

99. The lessons drawn from the projects which were based on an integrated approach, encouraging local development, were the most fruitful as far as definition of the key principles for Poverty 3 were concerned.

\*  
\* \*

100. Overall, activities under the Second Programme had the tremendous advantage of being carried out in the direct environment of the poor, and in some cases by the poor themselves. They were able to demonstrate the weaknesses of our economies and gaps in the social policies intended to remedy these faults and also revealed the need for action covering all the dimensions of poverty by coordinating the policies and activities of the various public and private bodies. Policies and activities must be directed towards encouraging independence, with the participation of the beneficiaries. The Third European Programme decided by the Council in July 1989 to foster integration of the least privileged groups (Poverty 3) has been designed to put all this into practice by drawing on the experience of the Second Programme. This ambitious aim represents the basis for the social and economic reintegration of the poor.

PART III - PROSPECTS FOR SOLIDARITY IN EUROPE

101. Completion of the Single Market, a major step forward for the Community, will not be seen as an unqualified success if it does not take the phenomenon of social exclusion into account.

The Commission believes that solidarity involves efforts and measures linked to completion of the Internal Market.

This essential task is made even more difficult by the fact that economic and social changes represent a challenge in the fight against exclusion. It therefore necessitates the involvement of the various levels of responsibility in activities which are decentralised but as consistent with each other as possible.

I - Certain aspects of economic and social change and of the construction of Europe represent a challenge for the fight against exclusion.

102. The economic and social changes currently being witnessed or likely to occur in the Member States suggest that isolation and exclusion will continue to spread. At the same time, the economic modernisation expected as a result of the Single Market is poised to produce major positive changes in terms of both growth and employment, although it may also cause a certain amount of exclusion, particularly in the initial stages. This is why this twofold trend may well give rise to a series of challenges to the fight against exclusion. How can we reply to these, without endangering growth and the improvement in the employment situation?

A. Required responses to economic and social change

103. These challenges can be either social and demographic, or economic. Of course they are not equally in evidence in all Member States, but they do develop according to identical lines of force all leading to an increase in isolation and poverty situations.

As far as social and demographic changes are concerned, the birth rate and the steady rise in life expectancy are altering the age pyramid, i.e. populations are ageing. The percentage of elderly (over 60) and old (over 75) is set to continue rising, and although age and poverty no longer systematically go hand in hand, the large number of elderly persons who have suffered long periods of unemployment or temporary, badly-paid work will not enjoy good retirement pensions, even if retirement schemes have matured, because they will not have been able to accumulate rights. Where social protection is still underdeveloped, there is also a risk that some people will not be sufficiently protected against exclusion and poverty.

At the same time, the sharper decline in family solidarity and the instability of the family unit are causing an increase in single-parent families and isolation.

As far as economic changes are concerned, it looks as though there will be an overall improvement in the labour market as a result of increased growth following completion of the Single Market.

Nevertheless, this generally favourable trend still has important limitations, which may be reflected by an increase in certain exclusion situations. The fall in unemployment levels will be gradual, it will not benefit all categories equally, and it will no doubt be accompanied as by a trend towards less secure jobs.

#### B. The internal market and the fight against exclusion.

104. The completion of the Single European Market guarantees a more dynamic, efficient market likely to create more jobs, but it is also likely to have two further consequences with adverse effects on the fight against poverty.

The first of these is the limitation of margins for manoeuvre traditionally employed by the Member States in their social policies. Increasing the redistribution of incomes through tax changes, recourse to a national budget or balance of payments deficit, and competitive devaluation, etc. will no longer be possible. These limitations are largely wanted and accepted as one of the conditions for the modernisation of Europe, but at social level they can cause substantial difficulties in making short-term adjustments.

There is in the second place - as shown by studies relating to the internal market - an increased risk, at least in the short term, of insecurity and marginalisation affecting certain categories.

105. These are the complex conditions in which the national authorities have to establish an overall and consistent policy to combat exclusion, with help from the Community institutions.

#### II - Towards a coherent overall policy in the fight against exclusion

106. In presenting its contribution towards solidarity in Europe, the Commission is aware that it must find a path between two extremes:

- The first extreme would be to go into the details of the measures to be taken, which would be doomed to failure, as it would be largely illusory, introduce a threat of technocracy, and it is not the Commission's job to do the work of the Member States, let alone that of the local authorities;

- The other extreme would be to abstain from taking any initiatives against poverty. This would be dangerous in the face of the challenge<sup>1</sup> represented by the completion of the internal market. Furthermore, not to make a contribution to this problem would be to risk triggering extreme reactions or social divisions, which could well compromise the construction of Europe as a whole.

107. The Commission is therefore proposing a course of action midway between these extremes, on the following basis:

- stimulation and coordination of ideas, experience and practices in the fight against exclusion, and pooling of results - thus contributing to the development of debate and policies on the subject;
- development of a certain number of initiatives to fight or help fight exclusion in the context of Community policies.

These approaches can draw on the measures taken in various fields by the Commission.

They are based on general principles.

#### A. The principles of solidarity in Europe

108. There are three such principles:

a) The first is that of integration. It is important to promote a global and coherent policy in the matter.

It is important to avoid creating a process of exclusion in the various fields of action (education, training, housing, health, regional development, etc.). The aspects affecting deprived groups should be taken into consideration right from the drafting stage of general economic and social policies. General policies could then be supplemented by more specific policies aimed directly at eliminating exclusion situations once these have been identified.

b) The second principle is that of subsidiarity, which concerns the respective roles of the different bodies responsible for designing and implementing policies. The measures introduced under the Second European Poverty Programme (1985-1989) demonstrated the irreplaceable role of the local level in effective action to help persons threatened by exclusion. On the other side of the coin, it is up to the national authorities to ensure that effective action is taken at grass-roots level and that the conditions exist for securing the information, cooperation and financing needed for such action.

---

<sup>1</sup> See above

At Community level, the main activities are to promote the exchange of ideas, experience and practices and thus to stimulate global reflection on the policies and measures to combat poverty and exclusion, and to take a limited number of initiatives to guarantee the exercise of fundamental rights in the fields of Community competence.

c) The third principle, which is closely linked to the second, is that of partnership: It is by working together to create policies and carry out measures or local projects that the parties concerned with fighting exclusion (both private, e.g. voluntary organisations, both sides of industry, citizens' groups, and local, national and Community authorities) will be able to develop an integrated and multi-dimensional approach, the only way to attack both the causes and effects of poverty.

#### B. Action for solidarity in Europe

109. The Community has already introduced a number of initiatives relating to the fight against exclusion. First, as a political undertaking, the Council's Resolution of 29 September on the fight against social exclusion illustrates its desire to develop an overall, consistent policy based on a guarantee of resources and a policy of economic and social integration. The Community Charter of Fundamental Social Rights for Workers recognizes the right of persons excluded from the labour market and the elderly to sufficient resources and benefits.

On this basis, the programme of action adopted by the Commission in November 1989 for implementation of the Charter calls for a direct instrument on the fight against exclusion in the form of a recommendation on common criteria for guaranteeing resources and benefits.

Parallel to this, it provides for a follow-up to the poverty programme. This new Third Poverty Programme constitutes the final and most visible aspect of these initiatives. Modest in scope and based on the experience gained from the two previous programmes, it aims to promote action models based on three principles (local level, partnership and multi-dimensional activity) by supporting and spreading innovative projects and measures.

The Commission also encourages cooperation with non-governmental organisations active in the field, particularly by supporting the creation of a European forum to allow these organisations to put forward their points of view and encourage dialogue with the Community institutions.



Finally, the observatory on anti-exclusion policies - currently at the feasibility stage - should become an instrument of comparative analysis and evaluation of measures and policies, in other words a basis of reflection to stimulate political debate at the appropriate levels.

110. Furthermore, a series of more general activities may have a significant effect on the fight against social exclusion. First of all, the Community is providing a very large amount of aid through the Structural Funds, for large-scale activities devoted to training and employment for the young and long-term unemployed, especially in less-favoured areas. Special mention can be made in this context of recent Community initiatives proposed by the Commission, particularly those benefitting the disabled and certain deprived groups (HORIZON). Secondly, a series of legal initiatives have been provided for in the Commission's programme of action relating to implementation of the Charter of Fundamental Social Rights for Workers. We might mention in particular the draft directives on certain working relationships (Atypical work) based respectively on Articles 100, 100A and 118A of the Treaties, the planned Directive on protection of youth, the planned Recommendation on convergence of objectives in the area of social protection and the Recommendation on guarantee of sufficient resources for European citizens as well as the Opinion on just pay.

111. An important role can also be played by certain programmes in the field of employment (e.g. LEDA and ERGO) and training (especially the PETRA programme).

112. The action programmes benefitting certain vulnerable categories, e.g. the one on equal opportunities for women or the HELIOS programme for the disabled, can be particularly important, especially in the context of a strategy to prevent exclusion.

113. Mention should also be made of the various observation mechanisms, particularly in the field of employment (employment observatory), social protection (MISSOC) and family policy (family policy observatory), which provide analysis helping to identify problems and measures relating to exclusion and poverty.

114. To achieve greater impact, the measures must be better coordinated, thus creating the necessary synergy. This will call for a strengthening of internal cooperation within the Commission, particularly through the inter-service group set up in 1989, and also means more account has to be taken of efforts to prevent exclusion in projects at both Community and national level. Much significance will be attached to the results of the HORIZON programme, and also - perhaps especially - the outcome of the promotion of policy convergence approaches (particularly in social protection) and the measures relating to employment and the promotion of programmes aimed at specific categories of persons.

115. The approach developed in the Third Community Poverty Programme stressing the need to develop partnership between all the parties concerned, both in the public and private sectors, and to promote a multi-dimensional approach to avoid disjointed and uncoordinated action must of course be put into practice in the first instance by the Community and the Commission.

\* \*  
\*

116. All these provisions and activities must allow the people responsible to establish contacts with each other in order to acquire new information and broaden their approach. They should also represent the basis for overall reflection on the fight against exclusion, which needs more than just the input of increased financial resources. Perhaps the most important requirements are a sustained innovative approach relating to the methods and practices of institutions and the painstaking development of partnership at local, national and Community level. The Commission's aim is progressively to introduce innovation, make policies more complementary to each other and develop the principle of partnership in order to achieve the integration of all Europeans into a Europe which is not only economically and politically stronger, but also offers more justice and solidarity.

## APPENDIX I. STATISTICS AND METHODOLOGY

The measures of income poverty used in the main text are percentages of average expenditure per adult equivalent - "relative Poverty". Adult equivalent scales are used to take into account differences in household size and composition. The scales are : first adult in a household = 1,0, all other adults = 0,7 and children less than 14 years = 0,5. This has the advantage of consistency with the measure used in the final report on the first programme and the interim report on the second programme. While it might be more appropriate to make comparisons with the median rather than the mean, the median cannot be calculated for the year 1975.

The main criticism made of this approach is that it is a measure of inequality rather than of poverty. Other approaches to the measurement of poverty have been examined as part of the Second Programme. They are set out below and both the findings from these approaches and the drawbacks of using them are pointed out.

### 1. RELATIVE POVERTY IN MEMBER STATES

#### A. The imperfections of the data

Before describing these other methods the imperfections of the data used for applying the main measure should be pointed out. The calculations are made from family budget studies collected for other purposes. The use of these data is likely to lead to the underestimation of poverty for the following reasons:-

- (1) Persons who are homeless are excluded and those who are nomads, repatriated immigrants, political refugees, illegal immigrants or living in shanty towns are inevitably under-represented.
- (2) Persons living in institutions of all kinds are not included in the figures. Such persons are likely to be disproportionately poor.
- (3) The figures are based on expenditure, which is taken as a proxy for income, simply because, in some countries, income is substantially under-reported in family budget surveys. Expenditure is more likely to exceed income in poor households as they are more likely to be running up debts than saving. This is particularly likely to be the case when income is precarious - varying from day to day.

On the other hand it is difficult to measure expenditure from income in kind. In so far as this is underestimated, it is likely to understate the resources of lower income rural households. Nor is the contribution to households of unpaid work, particularly of women, taken into account. Moreover the figures are based on households rather than family units and the assumption has to be made that income is pooled and shared fairly within the household. In many households this will not be the case. Women who are not in paid work may be disadvantaged compared with earners.

It should also be pointed out that the size of the samples in Denmark and the Netherlands

was small and that the response rate to the Danish survey was poor. Moreover, data are not wholly comparable between countries in several different ways. First the assumption has to be made that relative prices do not vary between the different Member States. Second, it has to be assumed that the expenditures needed to attain a minimum acceptable way of life do not differ. One example is the need for heating in cold climates and the importance of refrigerators in hot climates. A second is variations in the extent to which low income housing is subsidised or services such as those for health are available free or heavily subsidised and for which income groups.

On balance it is likely that the extent of poverty is more likely to be underestimated than overestimated through the failure to include many poor persons in the surveys.

#### B. Relative poverty in households

In table A.1 is shown the number of persons which are below half national average income per head.

\* The table shows a quite stable number of poor persons (49.1 million in 1980 and 49.6 million in 1985. This is in contrast to the finding that poverty has increased slightly among households due to the increase in the number of small households and the increase in poverty in such households.

\* The chart A0 shows the percentage distribution by Member State of these persons.

In chart A.1 is shown, for the year 1985, the geographical distribution by Member State of all households in the Community which are below half national average income per head. In 1985, 23,5% of the poor households in the Community lived in the United Kingdom, 18,3% in France and 17,1% in Italy.

In table A.2 the number of households below 40 per cent and below 50 percent of average income per head are compared.

While the number of poor persons (below 50 per cent of average national income per head) has been more or less the same between 1980 and 1985 the number of poor households has slightly increased. (Table A3)

#### C. Relative income poverty lines in national currencies

In table A.4 is shown the monthly income in 1980 national currencies corresponding to 40 per cent and 50 per cent of average income per head in 1980 for a one adult household and a four person household (two adults and two children). Table A.5 gives the corresponding figures for 1985.

## 2. CHANGES IN POVERTY WITH A CONSTANT POVERTY LINE

### A. All persons

It is also of interest to look at the change in the number of households and in the number of persons who were below 50 per cent of average income per head in each year using the same real income level in 1985 as in 1980.

Average income increased slightly in real terms between 1980 and 1985 in the Community as a whole. But it is important to note that there was a slight fall in average real

income between 1960 and 1985 in Germany, Portugal and the United Kingdom, and somewhat greater declines in average real income in Spain, Ireland and the Netherlands.

#### B. Children, the aged and others

The extent to which children were below 50 per cent of 1980 average national income is shown in table A.6.

Between 1960 and 1985, the number of poor children fell by about 3 per cent, but this conceals a small increase in the incidence of poverty among children. The incidence in 1985 was about 50 per cent higher than among those of working age and almost the same as the incidence of poverty among the aged. The fall in the number of poor children is partly due to a decline in the number of large families. Contrary to the general trend there has been a marked increase in the number of poor children in Ireland (24%), the Netherlands (26%) and a smaller increase in the United Kingdom (12%) and Germany (3.5%).

The extent to which children and aged persons and others were below 50% of 1980 average Community income per head in real terms (1980 prices) is shown in table A.7.

Calculated in this way, the number of poor children fell by 1.2 million among children but there were increases in Germany, Ireland and the Netherlands. The number of poor aged fell by nearly 1.5 million but there were increases in the Netherlands and the Portugal. The numbers in poverty increased slightly among those of working age. There were increases in Spain, Ireland, the Netherlands, Portugal and the United Kingdom.

### 3. CHANGES IN INEQUALITY IN THE DISTRIBUTION OF INCOME

#### A. All persons

In chart A.5 is shown the estimated cumulative distribution of persons in the Community by family expenditure 1960 and 1985 in 1980 ECUs for both years.

The chart shows that expenditure patterns were more evenly distributed in 1985 than in 1960.

#### B. Children, the aged and others

In chart A. 6 is shown the cumulative distribution of children, the aged and others by family expenditure in 1980.

The chart shows considerably greater inequality among children and the elderly than among those of working age.

### 4. INEQUALITY BETWEEN MEMBER STATES

In chart A. 4 is shown average income per head by Member State for 1960 and 1985 (in 1980 ECUs for both years) compared with the average income per head of the Community. The chart shows that average family expenditure was over two and half times greater in Denmark than in Portugal. (The chart does not include Luxembourg). It also shows that Denmark achieved the largest increase in living standards between 1960 and 1985.

### 5. RELATIVE POVERTY WITHIN THE COMMUNITY

In table A. 8 is shown the number of persons below 50 per cent of the average income per head of the Community.

Calculated in this way, there were abt. 51 million poor in the Community in 1985 (compared to 49 million calculated in relation of national average income per head) and nearly 53 million in 1980 (compared with 49.6 million calculated in relation to national average income per head). The largest number of poor in 1985 were in Spain (12.5 million). There were almost 9 million in the United Kingdom, nearly 8 million in Italy and around 6.7 million in France. By this standard over 69 per cent of the population of Portugal were poor and 32 per cent of the population of Spain and over a quarter of the population of Ireland were poor.

The geographical distribution of persons below 50 per cent of the Community average income per head in each Member State in 1985 is shown in chart A.8.

Nearly a quarter of the Community's "poor" were in Spain, nearly 18 per cent were in the United Kingdom, over 15 per cent were in Italy and under 14 per cent were in Portugal.

The number of persons below 40 per cent of the community average income per head is shown in table A.9.

Lowering the poverty line to 40 per cent of the Community's average income reduces the number of "poor" to 30 million in 1985 of whom 7.5 million were in Spain and around five million were in both Italy and Portugal. The calculation also shows a slight increase in "poverty" between 1980 and 1985. The incidence of "poverty" in Portugal remains as high as 67 per cent in both years.

The geographical distribution of persons below 40 per cent of the Community average income per head in each Member State\* are shown in pie chart A.9. The chart shows that nearly a quarter of the Community's "poor" were in Spain, 19 per cent in Portugal, over 17 per cent in Italy and 15.5 per cent in the United Kingdom.

\* in 1985

## 6. SUBJECTIVE POVERTY

It has been argued that the decision on what constitutes poverty should not be made by "experts" or governments but by the population as a whole or that section of the population whose incomes are relatively low. Attempts to apply this approach operationally were financed as part of the research carried out for the First Programme. Since then these methods have been extended to more Member States.

Two somewhat different ways of doing this have been developed and tested. Families are asked to state the minimum income that the family in its current circumstances needs to manage. The method developed by the Centre of Social Policy at the University of Antwerp (the CSP method) identifies the level of income at which lower income families say they would have "some difficulty" in making ends meet and averages the result for households of different composition. The second method developed at the Universities of Leyden and Tilburg (the SPL method) uses replies from all households on what income is "barely sufficient" from a ten point scale. The results found by these methods for five countries and two regions of countries are shown in Table A.10.

Table A.10  
 Percentage of Households in Relative and Subjective Poverty  
 (Five Countries and two Regions)

Country or Region	Year	UNDER 50%	CSP Standard	SPL Standard
Belgium	1985	5.2 <sup>^</sup>	21.4	24.9
Greece	1988	17.4 <sup>^</sup>	42.6	42.0
Ireland	1987	17.4 <sup>^</sup>	35.3	32.4
Luxembourg	1985	--	14.7	23.2
Netherlands	1985	7.9 <sup>^</sup>	12.4	8.6
Catalonia (Spain)	1988	15.1 <sup>*</sup>	31.3	37.3
Lorraine (France)	1985	9.7 <sup>*</sup>	26.6	29.1

<sup>^</sup> 1985- estimates of Eurostat

<sup>\*</sup> Calculated from the small regional surveys of Catalonia (1988) and Lorraine (1985)

In comparing these results with those derived from comparisons with average income per head, the following points should be noted:-

(1) The results are in every case higher. A large number of people above half average income per head have some difficulty in making ends meet. As a result one of the authors of the surveys describes the results as measuring "insecurity of subsistence" and only uses the term poverty to avoid the cumbrousness of this phrase.

(2) The results produce a much higher incidence of "poverty" in Lorraine than in the Netherlands, with Belgium in between, although these three countries have about the same level of average income.

(3) The two subjective measures do not necessarily produce similar results for the same country. For example, the CSP method produces similar results for Lorraine and Luxembourg in contrast to the SPL method.

There is a further striking difference when the results are analyzed at greater depth. Both the subjective methods indicate very low equivalence scales. This is particularly the case for children. Nor are they fully consistent in this respect either between countries or between the two methods. The SPL method leads to fairly large equivalence scales for Ireland, Catalonia and Luxembourg while they are small for the Netherlands and in the case of the CSP method small for Luxembourg. In several countries, the CSP equivalence scales drop after the first child as if the cost of children is not so much dependent on their number as on whether there

are children or not. Equivalence scales are of crucial importance in measuring poverty. While calculations in terms of average income per head show, for nearly all countries, poverty to be increasing with the number of children, the subjective measures of poverty in many cases do not. Thus using the subjective measures, small households (often elderly, pensioners and female headed) are shown as being much more at risk of poverty than when the objective measure of the proportion of income per head is used.

Finally the results are not consistent over time, at least in the case of Belgium, where the surveys were done both in 1985 and 1988. The CSP standard rises at rates varying between 3% and 13%. But the SLP standard rises for all households with children but decreases for all other types of household by as much as 12%.

While subjective poverty lines have a value in a particular country at a particular time, they appear to be unsuitable for comparisons between countries or over time. A poverty standard used for the Community needs to be robust in these respects. Moreover the equivalence scales are so far below those used in social assistance scales throughout the Community that they lack credibility and acceptability. By this comparison the equivalence scales used above in comparisons with income per head may be on the high side.

## 7. PERCEIVED POVERTY

Measures of perceived poverty differ from measures of subjective poverty as only households considering themselves to be poor are counted. The poverty standard is thus established by each household considering itself to be poor rather than by averaging estimates of the minimum income on which households can manage to make ends meet or have incomes which are "barely sufficient".

Three such studies have been financed by the Commission in 1976, 1983 and 1989. The results for the three studies are shown in Table A.11 Column 1 refers to those saying they are poor and column 2 refers to those placing themselves on the next point above on the seven point scale.

The answers roughly correspond to the absolute average standards of Member States in so far as Spain, Greece Ireland and Portugal show the highest perceived poverty and very few people perceive themselves as poor in Luxembourg. There was an increase in perceived poverty between 1976 and 1983 and then a fall in 1989 but not to the levels of 1976, except for Italy.



Table A. 11  
 Percentage of Households Perceiving Themselves as "Poor"(1)  
 poor"(2)  
 (1976, 1983 and 1989)

or "Near

Member State	1976			1983			1989		
	1	2	1+2	1	2	1+2	1	2	1+2
Be	1.0	4.0	5.0	1.8	7.1	8.9	0.4	4.5	4.9
De	1.5	2.7	4.2	0.7	4.1	4.8	2.2	3.4	5.6
Ge	1.1	3.3	4.4	1.0	4.9	5.9	0.9	3.8	4.7
Gr				8.0	12.7	20.7	3.4	10.5	13.9
Sp							4.2	11.3	15.5
Fr	1.6	6.0	7.6	8.1*	8.5	11.6	2.8	7.2	10.0
Ir	2.2	4.4	6.6	3.6	11.0	14.6	4.4	8.1	12.5
It	3.0	7.8	10.8	3.6	10.5	14.1	1.5	4.7	6.2
Lu	1.1	1.1	2.2	1.3	3.0	4.3	0.3	1.7	2.0
Ne	1.2	3.2	4.4	2.1	7.2	9.3	1.3	3.7	5.5
Po							3.4	9.0	12.4
U.K.	2.5	6.8	9.3	4.1	7.4	11.5	3.2	6.6	9.8
EU 9	2.0	5.6	7.6						
EU 10				2.9	7.8	10.7			
EU 12							2.3	6.3	8.6

## 8. DEMOGRAPHIC CHANGE

In Table A.12 is shown the population of the European Community divided into age groups for 1975, 1985 and projected for the year 2000.

Between 1975 and 1985, the population under age 15 decreased by 11.6 million and the population aged 15-24 rose by 5.8 million. Those aged 65-74 fell by 1.6 million and those

aged over 75 rose by 5.2 million. The Community has had to find jobs for six million more young people entering the labour force and support four million more older people, most of whom have retired. The most striking change is the increase in those over the age of 75 by 37.4 per cent. Of this age group in 1985, 65.7 per cent were women.

Table A.1 2  
The Age Structure of the Population of the Community  
(1975, 1985, and projected for 2000)

Age Group	1975	1985	2000
0-14	75.1	63.5	54.1
15-24	46.6	52.7	40.0
25-64	150.1	162.2	178.0
65-74	25.9	24.3	31.6
75+	13.9	19.1	25.7
TOTAL	311.6	321.8	329.4

Source: Eurostat

Over the period 1985 to 2000, the population of the Community is expected to increase by 7.6 million. The number of persons under the age of 15 is expected to fall by 9.4 million. Of critical importance is the projected decline in the number of persons aged 15-24 by 12.7 million. By the year 2000 the Community population of working age will have fallen by 2.6 million. These projections do not account for the population of East Germany. During the same period those 65 or over are expected to increase by 13.9 million, of which 6.6 million will be aged 75 or over.

## 9. CHANGES IN THE LABOUR MARKET

### A. The composition of the working population

In Table A.13, are shown the changes in the working population between 1975 and 1985 by age group and sex.

Table A.13  
The Population of Working Age in the 12 Member States  
1975 and 1985  
(Millions)

Age Group	Male		Female	
	1975	1985	1975	1985
15-24	23.7	26.8	22.9	25.9
25-34	21.6	23.5	20.8	23.0
35-44	20.0	21.2	19.7	20.9
45-54	18.5	19.2	19.9	19.4
55-64	13.5	16.6	16.1	18.9
TOTAL	97.3	107.3	99.4	108.1

Source: Labour Force Survey

In what is now the community, the population of working age has increased by nearly 19 million with the increase concentrated on the younger population. And most of them have wanted paid work. This has been difficult to provide in a period of relatively slow economic growth and strong competition - particularly from the Pacific basin countries which have experienced much faster rates of economic growth.

In Table A.14 is shown the distribution of households separating those headed by one parent with and without an earner and other households with no earner, one earner or more than one earner.

Table A.14  
Households with head aged 15 to 65 by number of earners  
in 1985 and 1987  
(All Community in millions)

	1985	1987
One Parent		
No member employed	1.6	1.7
One or more employed	4.2	4.3
Other households		
No member employed	11.7	12.1
One member employed	31.9	31.9
Two or more employed	29.3	30.0
TOTAL	78.6	79.9

Source: Labour Force Survey

The table shows in one parent families, most of which are headed by a female, over two-thirds of the heads of household are employed. It also shows that there are now almost as many two earner households as there are one earner households - mainly because of the extent to which women as well as men are in paid work. There were in 1987 nearly 14 million households with no earner in which the head was of working age.

## B. Statistics of unemployment

Partly as a result of these structural changes and partly because of relatively low rates of economic growth, officially measured unemployment was considerably higher in 1987 than in 1975. In Table A.15 the percentage unemployed is shown for each Member State.

Table A.15  
Percentage of Unemployed by Member State  
(1975, 1985 and 1987)

Member State	Percentage Unemployed		
	1975	1985	1987
Belgium	3.2	11.3	11.3
Denmark	6.8	7.8	6.1
Germany	2.9	6.9	6.8
Greece	---	7.8	7.4
Spain	---	21.9	20.6
France	3.3	10.3	10.7
Ireland	9.6	18.0	18.1
Italy	3.3	9.2	10.7
Luxembourg	(0.6)	3.0	2.5
Netherlands	3.2	10.5	10.0
Portugal	---	8.6	7.4
United Kingdom	4.6	11.5	11.0
TOTAL EUR 12	---	10.7	10.8
EUR 9	3.7	9.6	10.7

Source: Labour Force Survey

In the nine older Member States, unemployment has increased from 3.7% to 10.7% between 1975 and 1987. For the community as a whole there was a very small increase in unemployment between 1985 and 1987. By 1989 unemployment had fallen to 9.0 per cent and is expected to fall to 8.7 per cent in 1990. The duration of the search for work is shown in table A.16.

Table A.1 6

Unemployment by Duration of Search for Work  
(As a proportion of the total unemployed)

Member State	One Year or More			Two Years or More	
	1975	1985	1987	1985	1987
Belgium	29.7	68.2	74.6	51.5	56.7
Denmark	9.4	32.0	29.5	13.3	12.6
Germany	11.8	46.9	48.1	26.7	31.0
Greece	---	43.4	45.8	19.5	20.4
Spain	---	57.8*	65.7	---	47.8
France	16.3	43.8	49.4	21.8	29.8
Ireland	19.1	62.2	66.1	41.1	47.0
Italy	33.8	63.6	66.3	38.1	42.2
Luxembourg	---	(36.8)	(34.2)	(13.8)	(15.6)
Netherlands	18.6	56.4	45.7	35.7	29.6
Portugal	---	48.4*	56.7	---	35.3
United Kingdom	14.8	48.7	45.2	33.2	30.5
EUR 12	---	53.8*	55.4	---	36.8
EUR 9	18.4	48.5	52.7	29.5	34.1

Source: Labour Force Survey

\* Data for Spain and Portugal have been derived from national publications of LFS results: for Spain the data relate to the population aged 16 years or over while for Portugal the figures are for person aged 10 years and over.

Tableau A.1 Personnes ayant un revenu inférieur à 50 % du revenu national moyen par tête

**Table 1:** Poverty Incidence Compared for 1980 and 1985 (Poverty Line Taken as 50% of National Average Equivalent Expenditure in Respective Years)

Country	HOUSEHOLDS				PERSONS			
	1980		1985		1980		1985	
	%	Abs (000)	%	Abs (000)	%	Abs (000)	%	Abs (000)
Belgium	6.3	226	5.2	189	7.1	701	5.9	583
Denmark	8.0	166	8.0	166	7.9	407	8.0	409
Germany	10.3	2,592	9.2	2,306	10.5	6,448	9.9	6,074
Greece	20.5	604	17.4	527	21.5	2,073	18.4	1,817
Spain	20.3	2,129	17.8	1,924	20.9	7,829	18.9	7,257
France	18.0	3,503	14.8	2,947	19.1	10,313	15.7	8,621
Ireland	18.5	167	17.4	162	18.4	625	19.5	684
Italy	12.0	2,237	14.7	2,760	14.1	7,941	15.5	8,820
Netherlands	6.9	345	7.9	403	9.6	1,363	11.4	1,661
Portugal	31.4	906	31.7	948	32.4	3,167	32.7	3,310
United Kingdom	14.1	2,808	18.9	3,790	14.6	8,226	18.2	10,324

Source : EUROSTAT

Table A.2 Households with income of below 40% and below 50% of national average income per head (thousands)

Tableau A.2 Ménages dont le revenu est inférieur à 40 % et à 50 % du revenu national moyen par tête (en milliers)

	Below 1980 Inférieur à 40 %	Below 1980 Inférieur à 50 %	Below 1985 Inférieur à 40 %	Below 1985 Inférieur à 50 %
Belgique	70	226	54	189
Danemark	72	166	72	166
Allemagne	1 119	2 592	949	2 306
Grèce	342	604	274	527
Espagne	1 250	2 129	1 065	1 924
France	2 009	3 503	1 559	2 947
Irlande	92	167	84	152
Italie	1 451	2 237	1 628	2 760
Luxembourg				
Pays Bas	122	345	129	403
Portugal	591	906	621	948
Royaume Uni	1 258	2 808	2 120	3 790
TOTAL	8 378	15 682	8 555	16 121

Source : EUROSTAT

..... nombre de menages dont le revenu est  
 inférieur à 50 % du revenu moyen par tête dans  
 chaque état membre entre 1975 et 1985 (en millions)  
 Table A.3 Change in the number of households with income of below 50%  
 of average income per head in each Member State between 1975  
 and 1985 (millions)

	1975		1980		1985		Evolution du % Change	
	Households Ménages	%	Households Ménages	%	Households Ménages	%	75-85	80-85
Belgique .....	0,21	6,6	0,23	6,3	0,19	5,2	- 1,4	- 1,1
Danemark .....	0,33	13,0	0,17	8,0	0,17	8,0	- 5,0	0,0
Allemagne .....	1,53	6,6	2,59	10,3	2,31	9,2	2,6	- 1,1
Grèce .....	-	-	0,60	20,5	0,53	17,4	-	- 3,1
Espagne .....	-	-	2,13	20,3	1,92	17,8	-	- 2,5
France .....	2,63	14,8	3,50	18,0	2,95	14,8	0,0	- 3,2
Irlande .....	0,17	23,1	0,17	18,5	0,16	17,4	- 5,7	- 1,1
Italie .....	3,82	21,8	2,24	12,0	2,76	4,7	- 7,1	2,7
Luxembourg .....	0,02	14,6	0,00	-	-	-	-	-
Pays Bas .....	0,23	4,8	0,34	6,9	0,40	7,9	3,1	1,0
Portugal .....	-	-	0,91	31,4	0,95	31,7	-	0,3
Royaume Uni .....	1,24	6,3	2,81	14,1	3,79	18,9	15,4	7,6
TOTAL EUROPE 9 ...	10,18	11,4	12,04	-	12,73	-	-	-
TOTAL EUROPE 12 ...	-	-	15,68	14,1	16,12	14,4	-	0,8



Table A.4 1980 Monthly expenditure at current prices expressed in national currency corresponding to 40% and 50% of national average income for one-person households and households consisting of four persons (2 adults + 2 children)

Tableau A.4 1980 Dépenses mensuelles en prix courants exprimées en monnaie nationale, correspondant à 40 % et 50 % de la moyenne des dépenses pour des ménages d'une personne et de quatre personnes (deux adultes + deux enfants)

	40% of national average		50% of national average		50% of Community average	
	40 % de la moyenne nationale		50 % de la moyenne nationale		50 % de la moyenne communautaire	
	Ménage d'une personne	Ménage de 4 personnes	Ménage d'une personne	Ménage de 4 personnes	Ménage d'une personne	Ménage de 4 personnes
Belgique	8.374	22.610	10.468	28.263	4.338	11.714
Danemark	1.820	4.914	2.275	6.142	0.940	2.538
Allemagne	0.513	1.385	0.641	1.731	0.288	0.717
Grèce	6.018	16.248	7.522	20.310	4.288	11.578
Espagne	10.165	27.498	12.731	34.373	7.627	20.593
France	1.076	2.911	1.348	3.639	0.636	1.724
Irlande	0.086	0.232	0.108	0.290	0.057	0.154
Italie	141.787	382.826	177.234	478.532	90.332	243.897
Luxembourg						
Pays Bas	0.567	1.530	0.708	1.913	0.366	0.772
Portugal	3.425	9.248	4.281	1.560	4.025	10.868
Royaume Uni	0.093	0.251	0.116	0.314	0.058	0.158
	1-person household	4-person household	1-person household	4-person household	1-person household	4-person household

Table A.5 1985 Monthly expenditure at current prices expressed in national currency corresponding to 40% and 50% of national average income for one-person households and households consisting of four persons (2 adults + 2 children) corresponding to 40% and 50% of national average income for one-person households and households consisting of four persons (2 adults + 2 children)

Tableau A.5 1985 Dépenses mensuelles en prix courants exprimées en monnaie nationale, correspondant à 40 % et 50 % de la moyenne des dépenses d'une personne et de quatre personnes (deux adultes + deux enfants) pour des ménages d'une personne et de quatre personnes (deux adultes + deux enfants)

	40% of national average		50% of national average		50% of Community average	
	40 % de la moyenne nationale		50 % de la moyenne nationale		50 % de la moyenne communautaire	
	Ménage d'une personne	Ménage de 4 personnes	Ménage d'une personne	Ménage de 4 personnes	Ménage d'une personne	Ménage de 4 personnes
Belgique	12.074	32.599	15.092	40.749	6.095	16.457
Danemark	2.960	7.991	3.700	9.989	1.375	3.715
Allemagne	0.610	1.646	0.762	2.057	0.348	0.940
Grèce	16.777	45.297	20.971	56.122	10.955	29.606
Espagne	9.570	25.840	11.963	32.300	13.447	36.306
France	1.772	4.784	2.215	5.980	1.009	2.723
Irlande	0.145	0.391	0.181	0.489	0.102	0.274
Italie	266.713	774.124	358.391	967.655	171.902	464.136
Luxembourg						
Pays Bas	0.673	1.818	0.842	2.273	0.350	0.945
Portugal	9.581	25.868	11.976	32.336	11.435	30.875
Royaume Uni	0.140	0.377	0.175	0.472	0.083	0.223
	1-person household	4-person household	1-person household	4-person household	1-person household	4-person household

Table A. 6 Incidence of poverty among children and elderly people  
 Comparison for the years 1980 and 1985  
 (Poverty line equal to 50% of the national average of equivalent  
 expenditure at national level for respective years)

A. ← **TABEAU** Incidence de la pauvreté parmi les enfants et les personnes âgées  
 Comparaison pour les années 1980 et 1985  
 (Ligne de pauvreté égale à 50 % de la moyenne nationale de dépenses équivalentes  
 au niveau national pour les années respectives.)

Pays Country	ENFANTS Children				PERSONNES AGEES Elderly people			
	1980		1985		1980		1985	
	%	Abs (000)	%	Abs (000)	%	Abs (000)	%	Abs (000)
Belgique	8,0	158	6,7	126	12,4	175	10,7	144
Danemark	8,7	92	9,1	87	18,8	140	20,4	157
R.F. d'Allemagne	11,5	1.244	13,7	1.287	14,3	1.374	14,0	1.263
Grèce	20,7	473	18,9	395	31,2	382	28,2	371
Espagne	22,1	2.124	20,2	1.817	32,9	1.379	23,6	1.080
France	20,7	2.453	19,5	2.290	30,4	2.198	21,4	1.513
Irlande	22,4	231	27,9	286	30,0	109	14,2	54
Italie	16,1	1.972	15,1	1.688	18,6	1.426	20,0	1.447
Pays-Bas	13,1	403	17,7	506	4,2	69	5,2	91
Portugal	36,2	901	36,6	880	44,9	504	45,3	545
Royaume-Uni	20,1	2.354	24,0	2.642	23,8	1.988	21,7	1.846

Table A.7 : Incidence of poverty among children and elderly people  
 Comparison for the years 1980 and 1985  
 (Poverty line equal to 50% of the Community average of  
 equivalent expenditure in 1980)

A.7

TABLEAU A.7 : Incidence de la pauvreté parmi les enfants et les personnes âgées :  
 comparaison pour les années 1980 et 1985  
 (ligne de pauvreté égale à 50 % de la moyenne communautaire  
 de dépenses équivalentes de 1980)

Pays Country	ENFANTS Children				PERSONNES AGEES Elderly people			
	1980		1985		1980		1985	
	%	Abs (000)	%	Abs (000)	%	Abs (000)	%	Abs (000)
Belgique	3,1	61	2,1	39	4,7	67	3,3	45
Danemark	4,3	45	3,1	29	9,3	69	7,1	54
R.F. d'Allemagne	7,9	852	9,8	919	9,8	942	10,0	902
Grèce	28,1	642	21,6	450	39,9	488	31,2	410
Espagne	32,1	3.088	33,6	3.022	43,9	1.840	39,2	1.790
France	17,8	2.110	15,0	1.761	27,1	1.956	17,8	1.252
Irlande	25,9	266	35,0	359	33,6	122	19,9	75
Italie	17,1	2.092	13,4	1.504	19,6	1.506	18,0	1.507
Pays-Bas	5,0	153	7,1	202	1,6	26	2,1	36
Portugal	70,3	1.751	71,2	1.713	80,3	902	81,0	975
Royaume-Uni	20,4	2.392	21,0	2.309	24,2	2.018	19,2	1.630
Communauté	19,7	13.452	19,4	12.307	22,5	9.938	19,6	8.478

Table A.8 Persons with income of below 50% of Community average income

	Number of persons (thousands)		Percentage of total population	
	Nombre de personnes (en milliers)		Pourcentage de la population totale	
	1980	1985	1980	1985
Belgique	268	182	2.7	1.8
Danemark	201	136	3.9	2.7
Allemagne	4 416	4 335	7.2	7.1
Grèce	2 784	2 062	28.9	20.9
Espagne	11 512	12 453	30.8	32.4
France	8 997	6 685	16.7	12.1
Irlande	729	898	21.4	25.6
Italie	8 437	7 912	15.0	13.9
Luxembourg				
Pays-Bas	517	664	3.7	4.6
Portugal	6 701	7 023	68.6	69.5
Royaume Uni	3 368	8 944	14.9	15.8
TOTAL	52 930	51 292	16.8	15.9

Source : EUROSTAT

Table A.9 Persons with income of below 40% of Community average income

	Number of persons (thousands)		Percentage of total population	
	Nombre de personnes (en milliers)		Pourcentage de la population totale	
	1980	1985	1980	1985
Belgique	76	54	0.8	0.5
Danemark	83	56	1.6	1.1
Allemagne	1 821	1 705	3.0	2.8
Grèce	1 636	1 077	17.0	10.9
Espagne	7 578	7 518	18.9	19.7
France	4 875	3 413	9.0	6.2
Irlande	395	506	11.6	14.4
Italie	5 316	4 847	9.4	8.5
Luxembourg				
Pays-Bas	169	186	1.2	1.3
Portugal	5 573	5 879	57.1	58.2
Royaume Uni	3 732	4 739	6.6	8.4
TOTAL	30 736	30 040	9.7	9.3

FIGURE A.O.

Répartition des personnes dont le revenu est inférieur à 50 %  
du revenu national moyen par Etat membre en 1985

Breakdown by Member State of persons with income of below 50%  
of national average income in 1985

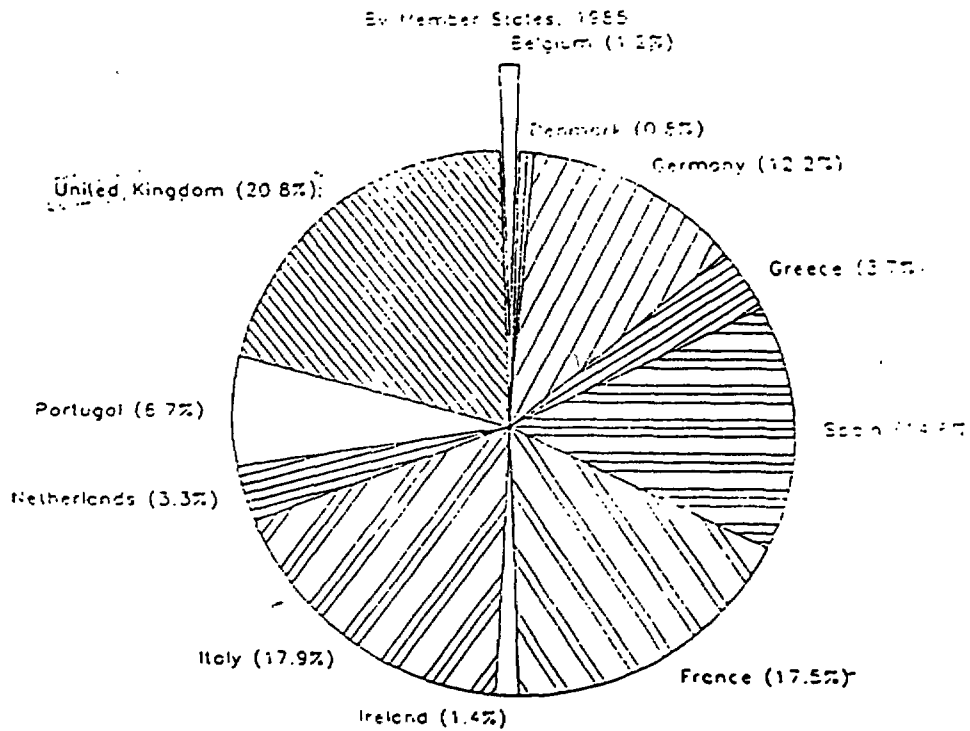


Figure A.1

Breakdown by Member State of households with income of below 50% of national average income in 1985

Répartition des ménages dont le revenu est inférieur à 50% du revenu national moyen par Etat membre en 1985

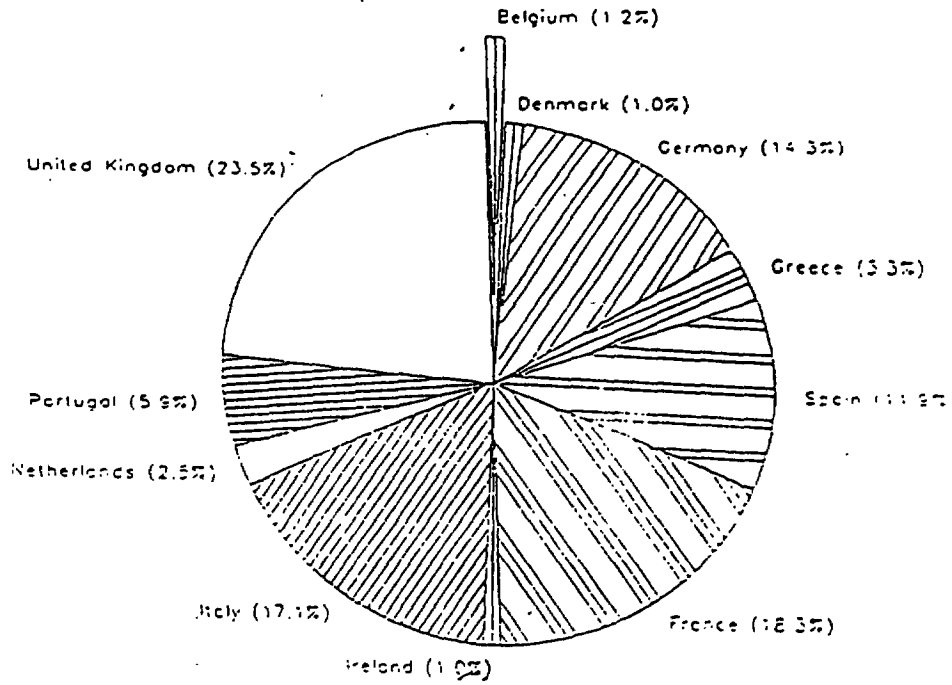




Figure A.4

Average family expenditure per head by Member State in 1980 and 1985  
(1980 ECU for the two years in question, compared with the Community average)

Dépenses familiales moyennes par tête selon les Etats membres en 1980 et en 1985  
(écus de 1980 pour les deux années considérées, comparées à la moyenne communautaire)

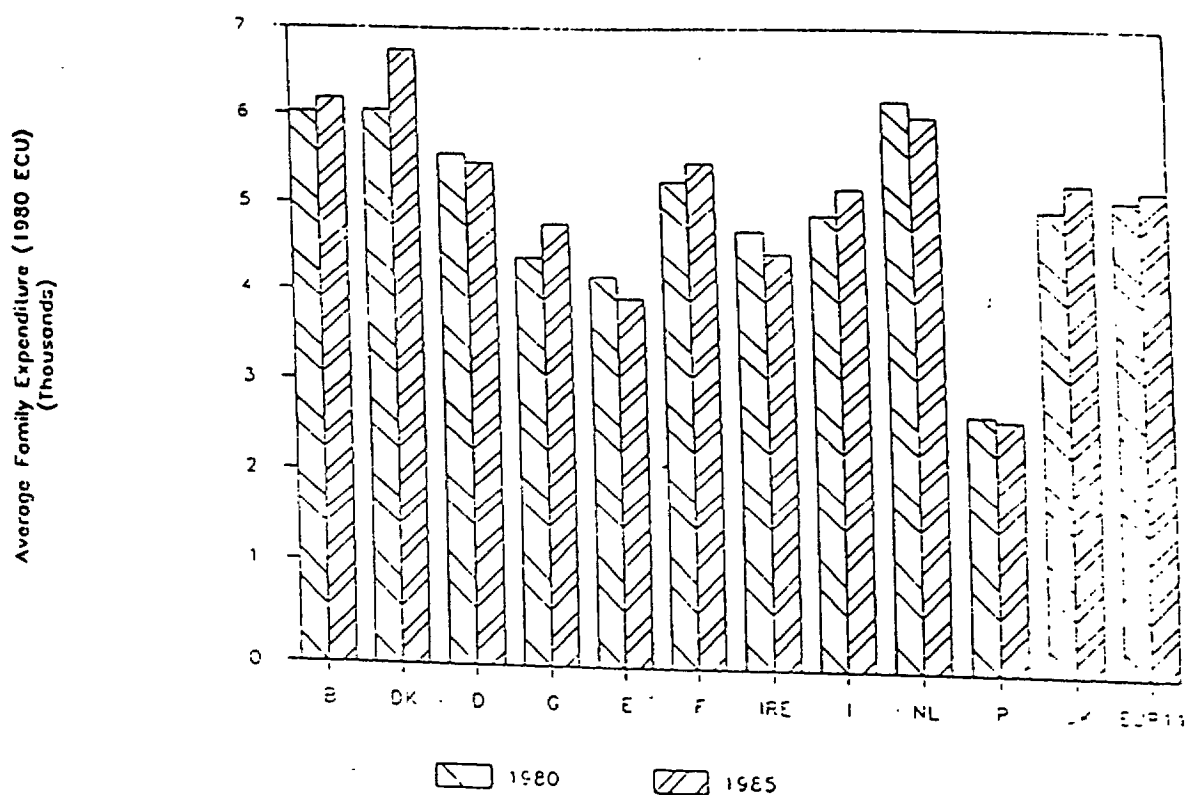


FIGURE A.5.  
 Estimated breakdown of persons (cumulative percentages) by amount of family expenditure in 1980 (upper curve) and 1985 (lower curve) in 1980 ECU

Répartition estimée des personnes, en pourcentages cumulés, selon le montant des dépenses familiales en 1980 (courbe supérieure) et en 1985 (courbe inférieure) en écus de 1980

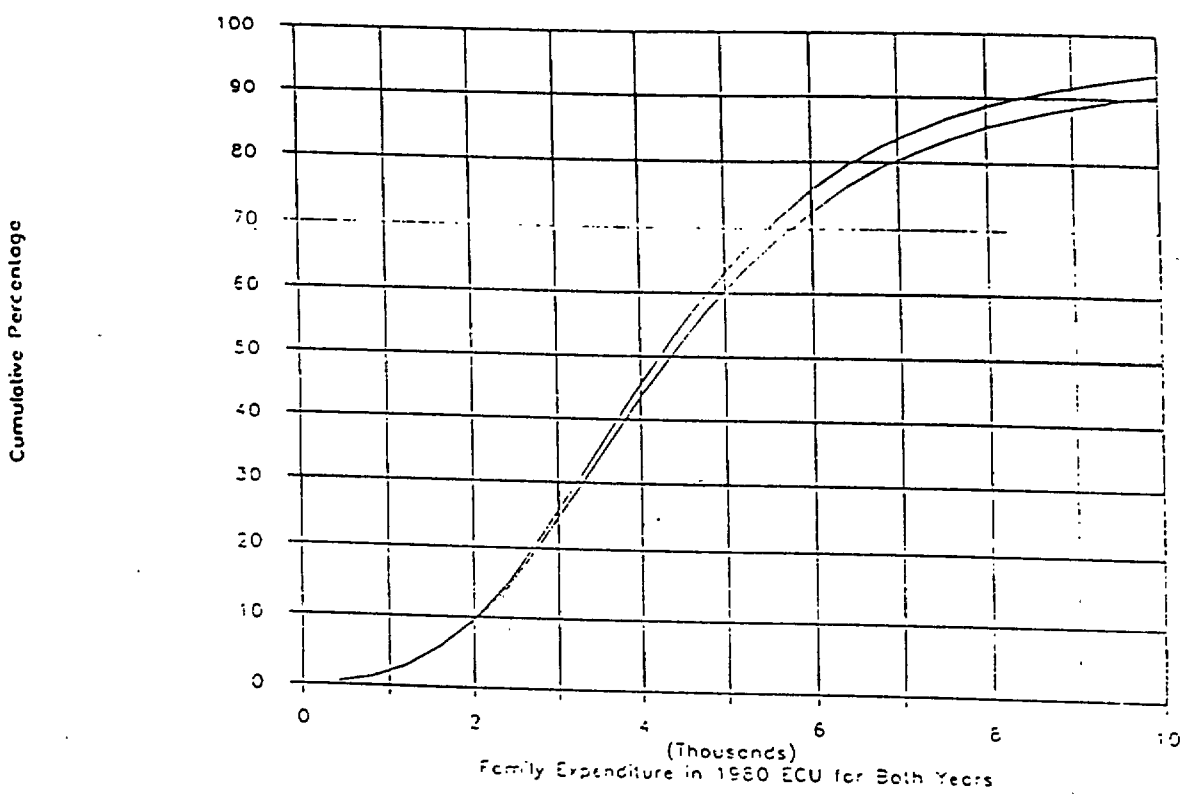


Figure A.6 .

Estimated Breakdown (cumulative percentages) of children, elderly persons and other persons by amount of family expenditure in 1980

At 4 000 ECU the upper curve represents elderly persons, the middle curve children and the lower curve other persons

Répartition estimée en pourcentages cumulés des enfants, personnes âgées et autres personnes selon les montants des dépenses familiales en 1980

A 4 000 écus la courbe supérieure concerne les personnes âgées, la courbe intermédiaire des enfants et la courbe inférieure des autres personnes

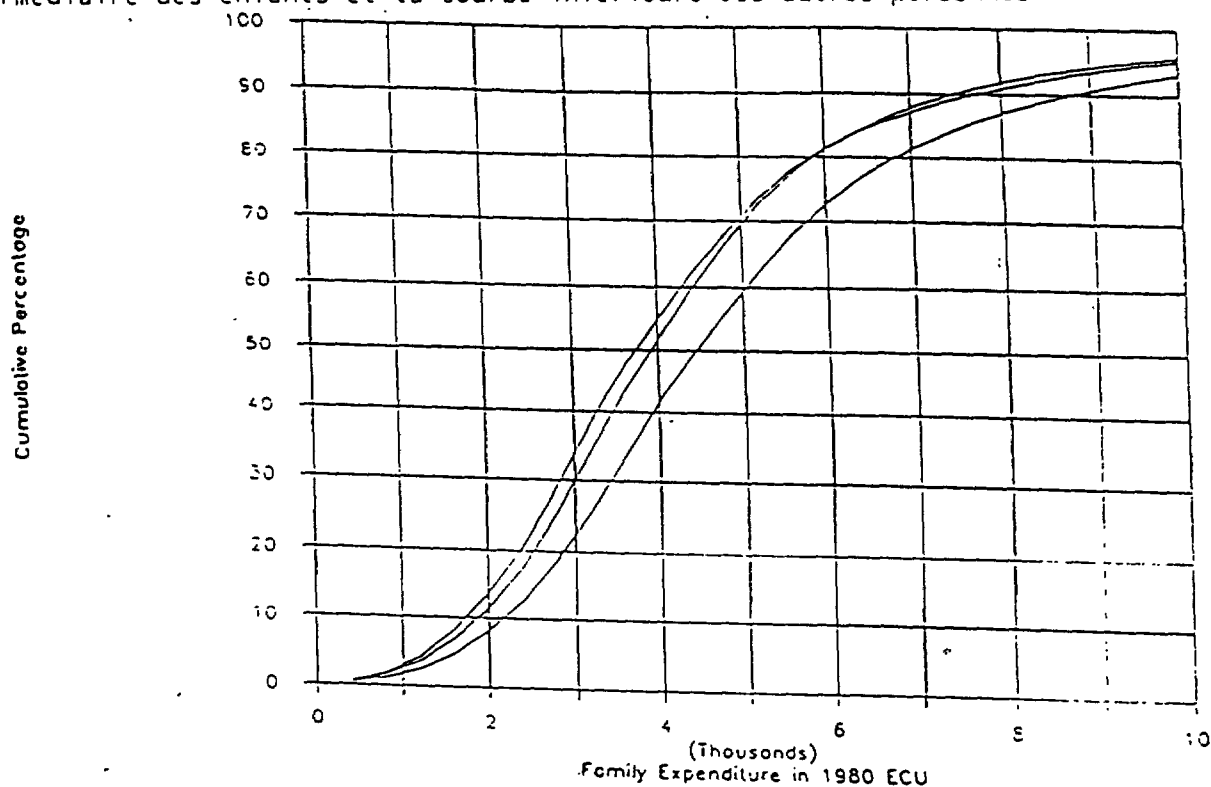


Figure A.8

Breakdown by Member State of persons with income of below 50% of Community average income in 1985

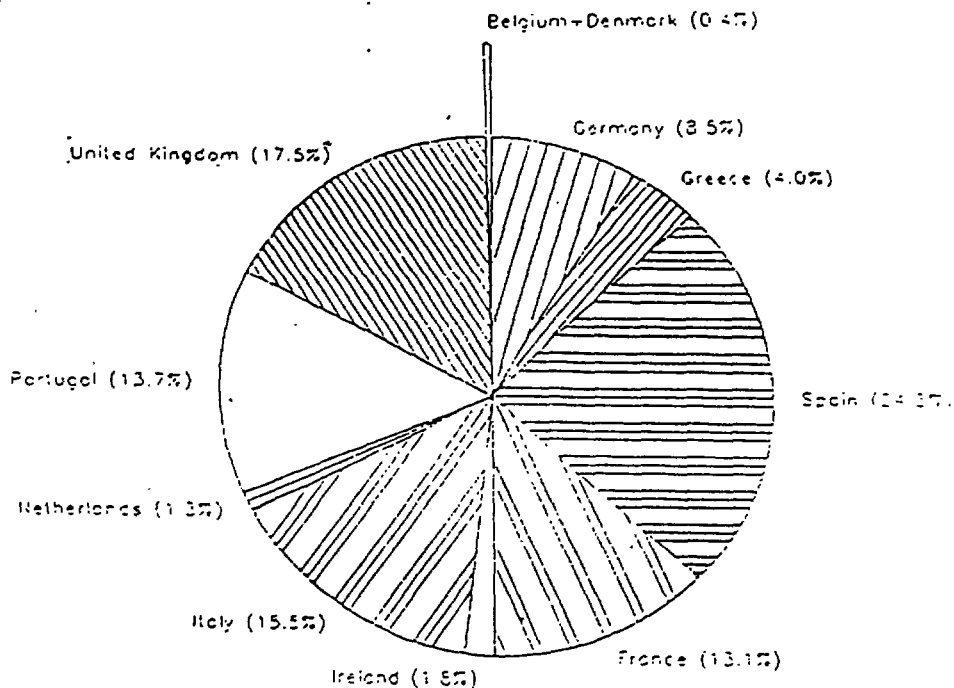
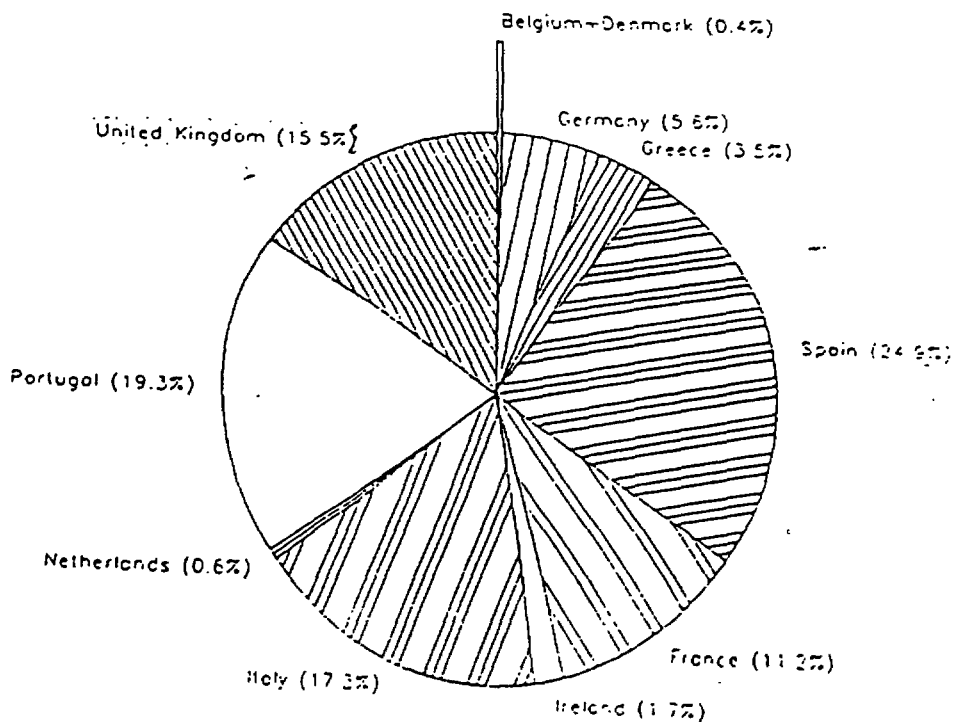


Figure A.9

Breakdown by Member State of persons with income of below 40% of Community average income in 1985



ANNEX 2

STRUCTURE OF THE SECOND EUROPEAN POVERTY PROGRAMME

1. General description

With its decision of 19 December 1984, the Council of Ministers launched the Second European Poverty Programme (1985-1989) comprising 91 local action-research projects, an "Organisation and Dissemination Unit" responsible for coordinating and evaluating projects and disseminating the results, and studies of poverty statistics. The Programme's objective was to combat poverty more effectively and implement positive measures to help the under-privileged and identify the best means of attacking the causes of poverty and alleviating its effects in the Community (Decision of the Council of Ministers of 19 December 1984 Article 1.1).

The fundamental elements of the Programme, which may be regarded as an experimental programme, were the 91 action-research projects, the eight themes under which the projects were classified, project coordination, evaluation and dissemination, and transnational action at European level.

Initially, the Programme involved 65 action-research projects; a further 26 projects based in Spain and Portugal were added in summer 1987. All projects were chosen by the European Commission, after preliminary selection by the national governments, on the basis of their potential use of particularly interesting methods of combating poverty. They dealt with the population groups particularly vulnerable to poverty, i.e. the long-term unemployed, the young unemployed, the elderly, single-parent families, second-generation migrants, refugees and returning migrants and various "marginal" population groups, particularly the homeless. Many of the projects were concerned with poverty in under-privileged urban areas and impoverished rural areas.

Inter-project cooperation was organised through transnational groups. The primary aim was for this cooperation and exchange of views to provide project leaders with new insights and new methods of attacking poverty, which they could then apply. Secondly, practical cooperation was intended to produce results which could be made available to anyone outside the Programme engaged in anti-poverty activities. The value of this transnational programme thus lay in increasing the innovative capacity and effectiveness of each project, pooling the projects' collective experience, and drawing on their implications for action at national and Community level.

## 2. Selection

In July 1984 the Commission presented a draft Decision to the Council, which was adopted on 19 December of that year. Following the Council Decision, the Commission drew up the necessary application procedures, and during the first half of 1985 the national governments called for applications from potential contractors.

The publicity given to this call for applications differed from country to country, which meant that the number and scope of applications also varied.

In the summer of 1985 the Commission then chose from among the projects which had been submitted those which were of sufficient technical merit and could be allocated to transnational teams in accordance with the Programme's subject groups.

Of course it is not only the Commission and the national governments which have been concerned with the projects and Programme. Many other bodies have been involved, not only as the projects have developed, but also at the design stage. They have included national and international voluntary organisations and trade unions.

Although an initial definition phase had not formally been provided for by the Programme, many projects encountered major difficulties in getting under way and setting up in the field the structure described in their applications.

## 3. Country distribution

In its Decision to launch a Second European Poverty Programme, the Council of Ministers approved the Commission's proposal that the various types of action should be centred on subjects common to all Member States.

The following points are worth noting:

- i) the poor representation of small northern countries in the Programme;
- ii) some regions were completely unrepresented in the Programme, despite their high levels of deprivation;
- iii) some countries had only one rural project, despite the extent of rural poverty in those countries (an imbalance to some extent compensated for by the additional funding which the governments provided for projects not selected by the Commission);
- iv) initially only a few projects were submitted under the subject of "marginals"; the addition of the Iberian projects corrected this imbalance, although it can be argued that this was only achieved by the contrived classification of some of these.

#### 4. Sponsors

Although some projects were completely autonomous, most of them - more than four-fifths - were part of larger parent organisations which signed the contract with the Commission and are ultimately responsible for the project. And of course, regardless of whether or not a project is part of a larger organization, different sponsors may have helped to set it up, and many of them may continue to be actively involved either formally or informally.

In many cases projects were proposed by organisations already familiar with anti-poverty work. However, in some cases the existence of the European Programme encouraged organisations relatively new to the field to submit projects, e.g. trade unions. Sponsors tended to influence project strategy in accordance with their background, whilst projects were in turn significant in respect of sponsors' own development.

Among the most obvious elements of variation are the following:

- i) the levels of involvement of religious organisations;
- ii) the involvement of local and regional government;
- iii) the level of involvement of the local voluntary sector;
- iv) the low level of involvement of trade union organisations.

The part played by a particular type of sponsor is not, of course, the same in all countries. For example, the role and powers of voluntary organisations or local government in the welfare field vary considerably.

## 5. Staff

The skills, experience and enthusiasm of a project's staff are a major force in shaping its direction and progress.

A number of projects have experienced major recruitment problems.

As shown in Table 1, according to the information available for 85 of the projects, there were approximately 400 full-time staff, an average of 4.8 per project, and a similar number of part-time staff.

70% of the projects used volunteers, some extensively. Several projects employed temporary or part-time staff through government-sponsored work experience and community employment schemes. To some extent the staffing of these projects illustrates the effects of more general changes in the labour market, with an increasing proportion of workers being employed on short-term and temporary contracts, even in the public sector.

---

TABLE 1  
STAFFING LEVELS: 1987-88

---

	Total Number	Men	Women	Poor	Non-Poor
Full-Time Staff	412	169	243	108	304
Part-Time Staff	418	153	265	95	323
Full-Time Equivalents	615	242	373	159	456
Volunteers	2204				

---

No of projects: 91 (including 5 with multiple sub-projects)

---

If the figures for each country are considered separately, it is seen that the Belgian and Danish projects on the whole were the best staffed, with an average of more than 11 full-time equivalent staff.

The Irish and French projects were at the other end of the scale, with an average of only three and four full-time equivalent staff respectively. The solitary Dutch project had only two (the figures are not broken down by sub-projects). The largest project in terms of full-time equivalent staff was No 3 (27 persons), in Belgium.

As for the composition of staff within different countries, Belgium and Luxembourg stand out as being the only countries where the numbers of male full-time equivalent staff exceeded the numbers of female staff. France, Italy and Luxembourg had only small proportions of their staff drawn from among the poor, whereas Portugal was the only country where a majority of the staff came from disadvantaged backgrounds.



Finally, very large variations are to be seen in the number of volunteers used by projects, ranging from an average of more than 200 in the case of the Danish and Dutch projects, to hardly any in France or Luxembourg.

## 6. Budgets

Projects varied greatly in terms of annual budget (taking both European and complementary funds). The four largest projects (located in Luxembourg, Spain, Belgium and Germany) were around ten times bigger than the smallest. Such different levels of resources affect the capacity of projects to develop effective strategies.

Table 2 summarises the sources of complementary funds. One third of the projects were dependent on a single source.

It is evident that in most countries all levels of government are well represented among the sources of project finance. Leaving aside Denmark and the Netherlands, where the number of projects was very small, the most obvious exceptions are the lack of central government funding in Italy and the lack of regional and local government funding in Ireland.

Table 2

Percentage of projects which received complementary funds from the various sources

	B	DA	D	EL	ES	F	IRL
Central government	67	50	37	37	87	100	89
Local government	50	0	50	50	50	71	0
Regional government	67	0	37	37	87	57	0
Self-generated funds (*)	67	0	50	37	37	71	33
Other	33	100	12	25	12	43	11
	IT	L	NL	P	UK	EC12	
Central government	0	100	100	80	36	62	
Local government	62	67	0	20	57	45	
Regional government	25	33	100	50	29	45	
Self-generated funds (*)	50	67	100	30	64	48	
Other	25	33	0	10	50	26	

(\*) Including donations and finance from parent organisation

No of projects : 92 (including 5 with multiple sub-projects).

## 7. The eight subject groups

1. Long-term unemployed. Although unemployment affects all countries of the European Community, it is not distributed evenly. It is particularly serious in the traditional industrial areas where national and European policies have brought about the relocation or restructuring of traditional industries and/or the introduction of new technologies. Most projects in this group are in areas suffering from economic and social decline, where unemployment is well above the national average. There are eleven projects in all under this group, three in Germany, one in Ireland, one in Italy, two in the United Kingdom and four in Spain.

The objectives of these projects were many and varied, including local economic development, community development, elimination of isolation, improvement of awareness of the political nature of unemployment, organisation of educational courses for adults, and the development of methods aimed at guaranteeing a minimum subsistence income and procedures to put the poor in contact with local government. The common denominator of all these objectives was to try to influence employment and social policies at all decision-making levels in order to improve the lot of the long-term unemployed.

2. Youth unemployment. The projects under this group were widely spread throughout the Community, reflecting the extent of the phenomenon. There were nine projects located in Belgium, Germany, France, Ireland, Italy, United Kingdom, Luxembourg, Spain and Portugal, mostly in urban or semi-rural regions, where unemployment rates are generally higher than the national average.

The starting point of the projects was the fact that the crucial question for deprived young people is how to get a job with a reasonable income allowing them to live like anyone else and escape from social isolation. With this in mind, projects have introduced various systems to provide general training and vocational reintegration by facilitating access to existing jobs or supporting job-creation schemes.

3. The elderly. How is it possible to restore deprived elderly people's links with the outside world and their ability to get about and satisfy their needs and aspirations? How can they be offered a lifestyle which, from both the material and social point of view, is acceptable and more suited to their needs and objective abilities? These are the questions which the projects in this group tried to answer, through activities in two main, mutually-complementary directions:

i) Avoidance of institutionalisation, i.e. allowing the elderly to remain in their own surroundings, in optimum conditions, for as long as they want to;

11) Participation, i.e. to achieve more active participation by the elderly in economic and social life. The twelve projects under this group were distributed between seven countries, namely France, Italy (2 projects), Luxembourg, Netherlands, United Kingdom (4 projects), Spain (2 projects) and Portugal. One of the main results was to raise the standing of elderly people in their own eyes and the eyes of their environment. Others were socialisation and integration into social networks, and the establishing of mutual help and solidarity groups able to look after the immediate needs of their members.

#### 4. Single-parent families.

Out of the nine projects in this group, eight are in northern Europe (Denmark, Germany, France, Ireland, Luxembourg and three projects in the United Kingdom), whilst the ninth is a Portuguese project which was added in summer 1987. Throughout Europe more and more single parents are bringing up their children alone. For some this is by choice, and for many it is an option which is preferable to marriage or the relationship which they have ended. Most single-parent families consist of a mother and her children, and the difficulties encountered in responding to their needs represent a major factor in the growing poverty among women in Europe.

The discrimination in education, training and employment, to which all women may fall victim, is liable to be intensified against women who are bringing up their children alone. The projects are based on the two methods of self-help and assumption of responsibility. In the first case all services (reception, guidance, support, counselling on social rights, etc.) are provided by a group of persons who themselves are single parents. In the second case, women are directed towards training facilities or temporary employment by professional counsellors.

Almost all projects are run by non-profit making associations, and all have recognised the need to work together with other voluntary organisations, the social services and all types of private and public institution concerned with the problem of single-parent families, i.e. the need for mutual partnership.

#### 5. Migrants and refugees.

The material and financial aspects of poverty among refugees, immigrants and ethnic minorities represent only part of a much more complex phenomenon. In a more conventional sense, poverty may be regarded as an indicator of the degree of people's social and economic integration or non-integration. The objective of the projects was to achieve optimum psycho-social, political and legal integration or reintegration without adversely affecting the personal and cultural identity of individuals. They aimed to improve people's self-organisation potential by encouraging them to participate in the life of their host community. There were twelve projects in this group (two in Belgium, one each in Denmark and Germany, four in Greece, one in Italy and two in Portugal), all of which had their own identity. In general, activities were concentrated at local level in a bid to establish satisfactory relations and contacts with the people responsible at that level (local authorities, churches, trade unions, training centres, social services, job creation initiatives, etc.)

They involved regular direct contacts with the immigration authorities, employment ministries, and local and regional authorities etc. In one case there was even transnational cooperation and official contacts between the migrants' country of origin and their host country. Various approaches to spreading information and awareness were used, with varying degrees of success. The multi-sectoral organisation of teams and the involvement of legal, social, psycho-social and medical experts (often on a voluntary basis) was considered very effective.

## 6. Marginals

Marginality is a complex phenomenon which occurs in many different specific situations. As a result, the projects in this group are also rather different from each other. They are distributed between five countries (one each in France, Belgium, Ireland and the United Kingdom, five in Spain and three in Portugal). The problems dealt with can be summarised as follows: loss (or inaccessibility) of a "normal" job; loss of social roles and cultural identity; marginalisation and deterioration of the victims' environment; desocialisation, loss of ability to live in a normal domestic situation and more or less forced recourse to illegitimate activities. The projects were oriented towards both the social reintegration of the target population groups through vocational reintegration and towards the immediate meeting of the urgent needs of persons in distress, without being able to change the basic situations. As well as providing assistance, most projects included "promotional" activities and attempts to rationalise help and social action. Employment was used as a priority instrument of social reintegration policy, either in the form of "protected work" or by using the possibilities offered by the secondary markets (low profitability). Effective use was made of social solidarity cooperatives, the members of which belonged to both marginal and non-marginal population groups.

## 7. Integrated action in rural areas

Apart from the Belgian projects, the thirteen rural action projects under the Second European Poverty Programme are located in the most economically deprived regions of Europe. The Spanish, Portuguese, Greek, Italian and Irish projects are in peripheral regions in the south and west of Europe, in areas characterised by their remoteness, low population density and isolation. The Belgian project is in a rural region situated in a very urbanised environment, and the Welsh project is in an area which could be described as being hit by economic decline.

The projects have developed new methods of action and more systematic approaches on the basis of a rural development model founded on the principles of integration and participation.

The common denominators of this rural development model are as follows:

- a marked tendency to work within cooperative structures or systems to make progress at project level,
- development of a series of information and training activities as part of every project, such activities being regarded as an essential aspect of the process of commitment and participation on the part of the population group concerned,
- many rural-action projects have identified the needs of specific sub-groups in the local rural community (the elderly, unemployed young persons and single-parent families) and have found the necessary resources to work with them.

#### 8. Integrated action in urban areas

The thirteen projects in this group were divided between eight countries, with each in Belgium, Spain, France, Ireland and Italy, and one each in the United Kingdom, Greece and Portugal. Their objective was to give new impetus to mutual help networks, social regulation mechanisms and the communal use of available space, to rally local potential and goodwill, to involve people in the development of an activity by giving them responsibility, to fulfill the wishes of women wanting to participate in economic life, to promote the participation of children, adults and the elderly in projects relating to their area or their house (renovation projects), to help people become independent of social protection by encouraging their active and socially useful participation in community life, and to make aid a right. Independently of the problem of minorities needing support in their own language, special attention has been given to the smallest population groups, which live right on the edge of society and risk being overlooked by the development work designed primarily to help them. Specific measures were introduced to enable them to increase their margin of independence.

**ANNEX 3**

**PUBLICATIONS OF THE ORGANISATION AND DISSEMINATION  
UNIT, SECOND EUROPEAN POVERTY PROGRAMME**

Over the four years of the Second European Poverty Programme, the three sections of the Organisation and Dissemination Unit have published and distributed three different series of documents.

**1. Coordination Section publications**

**1.1 Final reports**

Two documents are published (in French, English and Spanish), as final reports on the work done by the Coordination Section and the eight transnational teams.

- J.P. Hiernaux: **Combating Poverty in Europe - Results and Prospects of the Transnational Exchange of Experiences in the Field.**  
Prepared on the basis of contributions by the transnational teams, their coordinators and the members of the Coordination Bureau. December 1989.

- J.P. Hiernaux, A. Ganty, M. Silvestre and C. Marques Balsa: **Transnational Action Evaluated by the Participants in the Projects.**  
December 1989.

**1.2 Brochures produced by the transnational teams**

A comprehensive brochure on the results and prospects of the work on each of the eight themes of the Second European Poverty Programme has been published in the series "Results and Prospects" in French and English:

- Transnational team "Integrated urban action" (coordinator and author: C. Chigot): **Integrated Action for Socio-economic Development in Deprived Urban Areas.** May 1988, third edition January 1989.

- Transnational team "Integrated rural action" (coordinator and author: S. Kennedy): **Rural Poverty and Deprivation in Europe.** February 1988.

- Transnational team "Elderly people" (coordinator: S. Greengross, author: M. Silvestre): **Elderly People and Poverty in Europe.** May 1988.

- Transnational team "Single-parent families" (coordinator: C. Hartmann-Hirsch, authors: C. Hartmann-Hirsch and D. Robbins): Poverty Among Single-parent Families. March 1989.
- Transnational team "Young unemployed" (coordinator: C. Carracillo, author: A. Ganty): Training and Reintegration of Marginalised Young Unemployed People. May 1988.
- Transnational team "Long-term unemployed" (coordinator: A.K. Papantoniou, authors: A.K. Papantoniou and the transnational team): Unemployment and Poverty - the Experience of 11 Projects. December 1989.
- Transnational team "Migrants" (coordinator: P. v. Bethlenfalvy, author: P. v. Bethlenfalvy in collaboration with D. v. Bethlenfalvy and P. Rösiger): Refugees, Migrants, Ethnic Minorities and Gypsies in Europe. October 1989.
- Transnational team "Marginals" (coordinator: A. Guiglia, authors: C. Marques Baisa and A. Guiglia): Action Involving Marginalised Populations and Groups. October 1989.

### 1.3 Cross-subject documents

The Coordination Section has published several documents on cross-subject matters in the series "Working Papers".

- Programme coordination team: Transnational Action in the European Programme to Combat Poverty - Conditions, Achievements and Prospects (January 1986 - June 1987). Document GEI/RPI (in French, English, Spanish and Portuguese).
- J. P. Hiernaux: Production and Animation in the Meetings of the Transnational Teams. September 1987. Documents GE-2/IM-1 (in French and English).

### 1.4 Transnational meetings

Documents resulting from the transnational meetings of the eight theme group teams (synoptic reports, proceedings, memoranda) and the working memoranda of the transnational teams are published in the series "Working Papers". They include:

- Transnational team "Integrated urban action" (coordinator: C. Chigot)
  - . Poverty and Local Economic Development. Transnational meeting in Nola, 13-17 May 1987. Author: F. Euvrard. March 1988. Document TR-9a/IU-2A (in French and English).
  - . Participation of Inhabitants and Integrated Action to Combat Poverty. Transnational meeting in Dublin, 2-7 May 1988. Author: C. Jacquier. September 1988. Document TR-31/IU-4 (in French and English).

- Transnational team "Integrated rural action" (coordinator: S. Kennedy):

. Integrated Rural Action - Diagnosis and Methodological Orientations. Transnational meeting in Leuven, 13-17 January 1988. Author: C. Marques-Balsa. March 1988. Document TR-24/IR-3 (in French and English).

. Women in Rural Areas. Transnational meeting in Vila de Rei, 16-18 April 1989. Author: S. Kennedy. April 1989. Document TR-39/IR-7 (in French and English).

- Transnational team "Migrants and refugees" (coordinator: P. v. Bethlenfalvy):

. Language training, Culture, Education and Employment within the Context of Poverty. Transnational meeting in Copenhagen, 14-18 December 1987. Author: P. v. Bethlenfalvy in cooperation with F. Peuliche, T. Wedege, I. Boesen, A. Christiansen and D. v. Bethlenfalvy. 1988. Document TR-35/MI4 (in French and English).

. Development of Ethnic Communities in a Deprived Urban Environment. Document TR-36/MI-5 (in French and English).

- Transnational team "Long-term unemployed", coordinators: G. Mourgelas (1986-1988), A. Papantoniou (1988-1989):

. Alliances in Action in Support of the Long-term Unemployed. Transnational meeting in Dublin, February 1988. Author: C. Marques-Balsa. March 1988. Document TR-25a/LT2a (in French and English).

- A Survey of Projects in the Long-term Unemployment Theme Group, transnational meeting in Bielefeld, 11-16 November 1989. Author: P. McGinn. November 1989. Document TR-45/LT-3 (in English).

- Transnational team "Marginals/Homeless" (coordinator: A. Guiglia):

. The Homeless in Europe - Innovative Field Work - Experiments in Action. General report on the transnational seminar in Vierset. Authors: J.P. Hiernaux, D. Neufcoeur, C. Chigot and A. Guiglia. June 1987. Document TR-11/MA-1 (in French and English).

. The Process and Procedures of Integrated Action - From Marginalised Groupings towards Communities. Transnational meeting in Rabo de Peixe, 24-29 October 1988. Author: C. Marques-Balsa. February 1989. Document TR-32/MA-4 (in French, English and Portuguese).



## 2. Publications of the Evaluation Section

### 2.1. Final Report

- The Final Report of the Evaluation Section was published in April 1990.

G. Room in collaboration with G. Abou Sada J. Benington, J. Breda, M.G. Giannichedda, E. Guillen, B. Henningsen, F. Laczko, J. Madeira, D. Mylonakis, S. O'Conneide, D. Robbins and C. Whitting : Final Report of the Programme Evaluation Team. April 1990.

This final report is accompanied by ten national reports written by the national evaluators in the Evaluation Section.

### 2.2. General publications on evaluation :

The Evaluation Section published working papers on the methodological questions of evaluation in the context of the European Programme :

- G. Room : The Evaluation of the European Programme to Combat Poverty. 1988. Document ESWP 33.

- G. Room, G. Whitting : Criteria for Project Evaluation. 1988. Document ESWP 34.

- G. Whitting : Measuring the Cost-Effectiveness of Anti-Poverty Projects. 1989. Document ESWP 35.

- G. Whitting : A Good Practice Guide to Self-Evaluation. 1989. Document ESWP 36.

### 2.3. National Contextual Papers

In the first phase of the European Programme, a series of contextual papers on the poverty situation and the anti-poverty policies in the Member States, written by independent experts, was published by the Evaluation Section.

- G. Vandenbroucke : Contextual Paper on Poverty in Belgium. September 1987. Document ESWP 10.

- P. Abrahamson, J. Henderson, J.P. Henriksen, JE. Larsen : Poverty and Poverty Politics in Denmark in the 1980s. June 1987. Document ESWP 11.

- J. Bolz : Poverty in the Federal Republic of Germany. July 1987. Document ESWP 12.

- D. Karantinos : Poverty and Anti-Poverty in Greece. June 1987. Document ESWP 13.

- A. Duran, P. Lopez Arribas : Poverty in Spain. June 1987. Document ESWP 14.

- P. Kelleher : Poverty in Ireland. July 1987. Document ESWP 16.
- E.M. Brandolini, V. Razzano : Poverty and Social Policies in Italy. July 1987. Document ESWP 17.
- R. Muffels, A. de Vries : Poverty in Debate - a Study on Evidence, Policy, and Public Opinion on Poverty in the Netherlands. July 1987. Document ESWP 18.
- A Bruto da Costa : Contextual Paper on Poverty in Portugal. July 1987. Document ESWP 19.
- C. & A. Walker : Poverty in Great Britain. September 1987. Document ESWP 20.

#### 2.4. Theme contextual Papers

A further series of published working papers deals with specific themes of poverty ("Theme Contextual Papers") :

- R. Lawson : Unemployment, Social Security and Poverty - European Comparisons. October 1986. Document ESWP 21.
- P. Burton M. Stewart : Urban Deprivation - A Theme Paper for the European Programme to Combat Poverty. August 1987. Document ESWP 22.
- M. O'Higgins : Lone-Parent Families in the European Community - Numbers and Socio-Economic Characteristics. August 1987. Document ESWP 23.
- F. Laczko : Poverty and the Elderly in the European Community. January 1988. Document ESWP 24.
- H. Newby : Rural Restructuring and Rural Poverty in Europe. January 1988. Document ESWP 25.
- T. Ress : Poverty and the Young Unemployed in Europe. 1988. Document ESWP 26.
- F. Laczko J. Benington, J. Breda : Employment and the Labour Market. 1989. Document ESPW 37.
- F. Laczko. D. Robbins, M. Giannichedda : The Family and the Local Community. 1989. Document ESWP 38.
- G. Whitting, B. Henningsen, J.P. Tricart : Social Institutions and Social Protection. 1989. Document ESWP 39.
- G. Whitting, S. O'Connell, D. Mylonaki : Integrated Area Development and the Mobilisation of Local Resources. 1989. Document ESWP 40.

## **2.5. Community Contextual Papers**

The last series of publications deals with anti-poverty strategies and problems at Community level ("Community Contextual Papers") :

- E. L. Drury : European Community Policies and Actions of Relevance to the Second EC Programme to Combat Poverty. August 1987. Document ESWP 30.

- A.B. Philip, J. St Wabe : Regional Disparities in the European Community. August 1987. Document ESWP 31.

- P. Collett: Decision-Making in the Institutions of the European Communities and in particular in the Commission Programmes to Combat Poverty. October 1987. Document ESWP 29.

## **3. Publications of the Dissemination Section**

### **3.1. "Short Descriptions"**

As a first source of detailed and comprehensive information on the Programme as a whole, the projects and the tasks of the Organisation and Dissemination Unit, the Dissemination Section published the book "Action Research Projects, Short Descriptions of the 65 projects" in English and French (1987). After the extension of the Programme to Spain and Portugal, a revised version was published in two editions under the title "Second Programme of the European Communities to Combat Poverty : Short Descriptions of the Projects", with a preface by Vasso Papandreou, Member of the Commission (1989).

### **3.2. Bulletin**

For the regular and continuous information of all the parties concerned with the European Programme, the Dissemination Section also published a monthly Information Bulletin in French and English. 400 copies of the Bulletin were distributed to all the projects and staff of the other sections as well as to members of the Advisory Group, the European Parliament and the various European Institutions and organisations.

### **3.3. Review "ECHANGE/EXCHANGE"**

For the information of the general public, the mass media, and the parties concerned with social policies in the Member States etc., the Dissemination Section published the quarterly review "ECHANGE/EXCHANGE" in English, French, German, Italian, Spanish and - for a certain period - also in Greek. In the final stage, 4000 copies were distributed regularly.

### **3.4. EXCHANGE SPECIAL**

Besides the regular quarterly review, the Section published special editions ("EXCHANGE SPECIAL") on specific topics of the Programme, e.g. Winter Aid, Unemployment Centres, New Poverty, Poverty in Southern Europe etc.

### **3.5. Press clips**

Press publications on the Programme as a whole or on specific projects were collected, reproduced and distributed as a general source of information. Single press clips were distributed in the series "ACTUELS", and a collection of press clips was published in 1988 as "ECHO DE LA PRESSE". For some member countries, special collections were published.

### **3.6. Exhibition**

In 1989, the Dissemination Section organised an art exhibition and published a catalogue entitled "Poverty in Painting and Sculpture". The exhibition was shown in Düsseldorf, Luxembourg and Brussels.

### **3.7. Leaflets and brochures**

As a means of providing brief overall information, the Section published general leaflets in 1987, 1988 and 1989 in the nine languages of the Community, as well as short brochures on the projects in Spain (Espana participa en el segundo programa europeo de lucha contra la pobreza, 1988), Portugal (Portugal participa no segundo programa europeu de luta contra a pobreza, 1988) and Germany (Aktionsforschungsprojekte in der Bundesrepublik Deutschland, 1988 and 1989). A special brochure on each of the eight theme groups of the Programme was published in three languages (English, French, German).

### **3.8. "Info-Package"**

The Dissemination Section received daily requests for information on the Programme, the theme groups or other special topics from politicians, scientists, social institutions and journalists etc. In order to be able to provide the specific information requested, the section distributed regularly-updated information packages on special subjects (General Information, Projects of the Theme Groups, Projects in Member States, Transnational Coordination, Evaluation, etc.).