# 2002 The social situation in the European Union

ISSN 1681-1658

eurostat

European Commission

# The social situation in the European Union 2002


**European Commission**
Directorate-General for Employment
and Social Affairs

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

DG Employment and Social Affairs and Eurostat would like to thank Professor Géry Coomans of ISMEA, Mr Michiel Ras of the Social and Cultural Planning Office of the Netherlands, and Professor Yannis Yfantopoulos of the University of Athens for their contributions in the preparation of this report.

# Foreword

This is the third annual Report on the Social Situation, which contributes to the monitoring of developments in the social field across Member States. It provides a holistic view of population and social conditions as a background to social policy development, and establishes links to annual Commission publications such as Employment in Europe, Industrial Relations in Europe and the Gender Equality report.

The first section of this Report presents an executive summary which looks at the main social trends. There is an analysis of trends in social protection expenditure together with the effect of social transfers on the distribution of income. Special attention is also given to the issue of geographical mobility in the EU and its implications for living conditions and social cohesion.

This is followed in section 2 by a more in-depth look at social developments related to geographical mobility. Analysis and research, both quantitative and qualitative, are presented under three headings - population, living conditions and social participation.

Section 3 presents a set of harmonised social indicators ranging from demographic issues to employment and income conditions for each Member State. The indicators provide an initial overview of the social situation. In addition, they serve as a powerful tool for the monitoring of social developments over time.

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# Section I

## The Social Situation in Brief

# Introduction

Since the Lisbon summit, attention to social policy and its interplay with employment and economic policies has been greatly heightened in the EU policy debate. In the light of the European Social Agenda and the new processes on social inclusion and pensions, the periodic monitoring of the social situation in Europe offered by this publication takes on new importance.

Demographic and social trends, globalisation, transformations in the information and communication area and the resulting new economy are major driving forces raising new challenges and opportunities. The purpose of this report is to shed light on the resulting social developments and identify some implications for the key policy domains. By developing capabilities to better anticipate and manage change, both the economy and society can respond to these challenges.

One special characteristic of the report is that it combines hard quantitative information with survey data on public opinion. In this way the perceptions and attitudes of European citizens are added to the overall portrait of the social situation.

This section serves as an executive summary of the Report. It is divided into 3 chapters. The first chapter provides an overview of the main social trends backed by the latest facts and figures at European level. The second chapter presents a brief analysis of trends in social protection expenditure over the last decade. Finally, the third chapter takes a closer look at this year's special theme of geographical mobility and, in particular, how the various types of mobility ranging from commuting to migration, interact with the social fabric of European society.

## 1.1 Key social developments

### 1.1.1 Population Dynamics

Population developments offer a good starting point for a portrait of the social situation.

*Europeans live longer lives...*Life expectancy both at birth and at retirement age is expected to continue to grow.

*But fertility levels remain very low ...* Although fertility is no longer dropping to the extent it was a few years ago, fertility levels have remained very low and there is no indication that they will recover in the near future.

*Consequently the EU population is ageing...* As the number of young entrants drops and the larger age cohorts come of age the labour force is greying. When the baby boomers begin to retire from around 2010 the labour force is likely to shrink and the old age dependency ratio will suddenly increase. Today, elderly people represent 16% of the total population, equivalent to about 1/4 of the working age population (15-64 year olds). By 2010, the latter ratio is expected to rise to 27%. Meanwhile the number of 'very old' people aged 80 and over will increase by almost 50% over the next 15 years.

The overall size and growth of the EU population is changing. After centuries of continuous expansion *the end of European population growth is now in sight*. The majority of EU regions are likely to see their populations stagnating or declining before 2015. But, between countries, there will be large differences in the timing and intensity of these processes.

While the internal drivers of population growth are running out of steam, *international migration has rapidly gained importance as a factor in population growth* - in the last five years it has constituted 70% of the increase in the EU population. This phenomenon has acquired a new prominence with the prospect of an ageing and shrinking workforce.

*Meanwhile households are becoming smaller...* When it comes to changes in household and family patterns three trends deserve to be mentioned. The proportion of households composed of two or more adults and dependent children is gradually declining: from 52% in 1988 to 46% in 2000. The number of people living alone is increasing and the average size of households is getting smaller. While the share of dependent children living in lone parent families (primarily with their mother) continues to be relatively small it has increased significantly over the last 15 years - in 1998, 13% of all dependent children were living with one parent compared with just 8% in 1983. The first phase of living as a couple increasingly takes the form of cohabitation, as young people tend to postpone marriage until they want to have children or feel certain that their relationship will last. In 2001, 33% of young people (under the age of 30) living in a couple were cohabiting.

Although these trends can be observed throughout the Union, the degree to which they assert themselves varies significantly between Member States.

### 1.1.2 Some aspects of living conditions

In recent years the living conditions of most EU citizens have benefited from strong and sustained economic growth and improvements in the employment situation. In 2000, around 166 million people were in employment in the Union, a rise of about 10 million since 1995, equal to an employment rate of 63.3%. Women have been the main component of employment growth. The total number of unemployed in the EU-15 dropped to about 14 million or 8.2% of the labour force, which is the lowest unemployment rate since 1992. Despite these favourable developments, unemployment remains too high; the risk of poverty and social exclusion still exists for a considerable part of the EU population. Moreover, the more recent less favourable economic developments raise further challenges in this area.

A brief look at three key aspects of living conditions which play an important role in the overall quality of citizen's everyday lives, - health, income and education - reveals that:

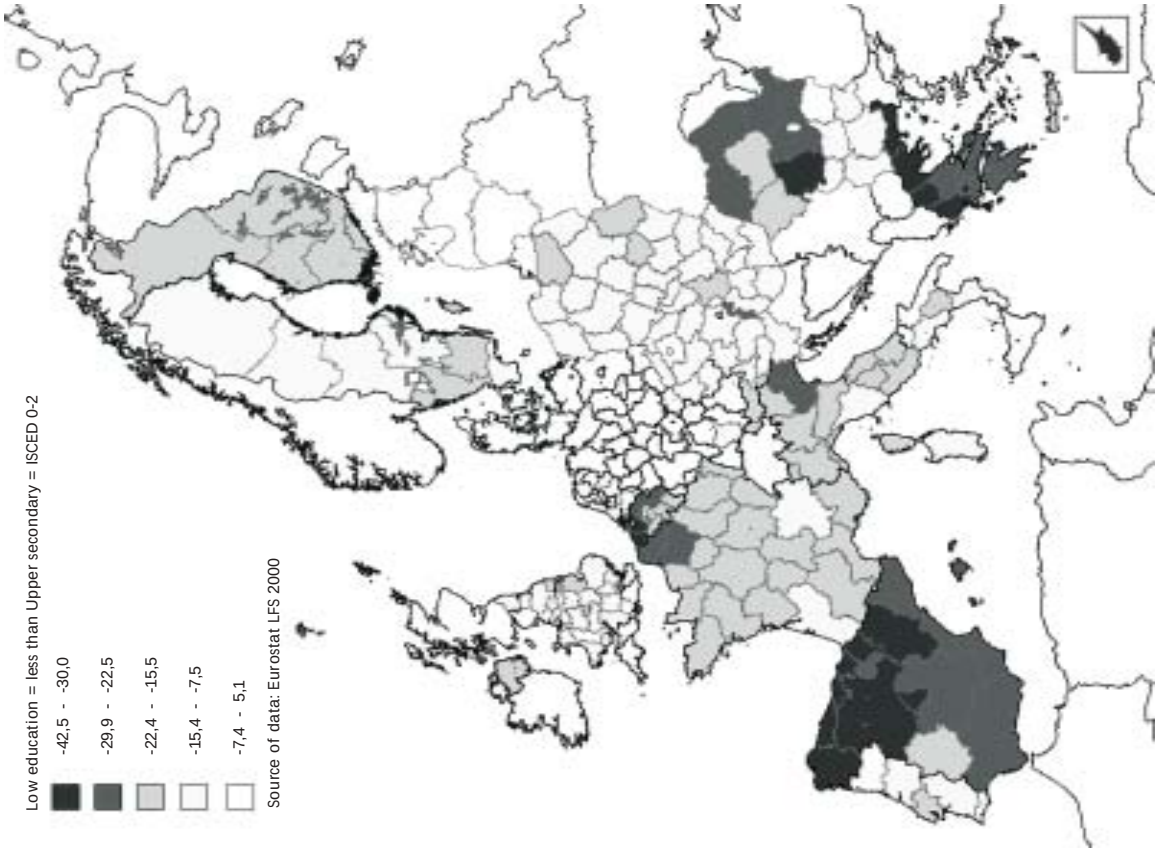
*Health is improving but large social differences in health status persist*

Europeans see their health as a crucial factor in their quality of life (see Social Situation in the European Union, 2001). Studies on the social determinants of health demonstrate that education, income, quality employment and decent housing have a positive correlation with good health. A number of studies point to large differences in health status between social groups and a widening gap in life expectancy between the richer and poorer members of society[1].

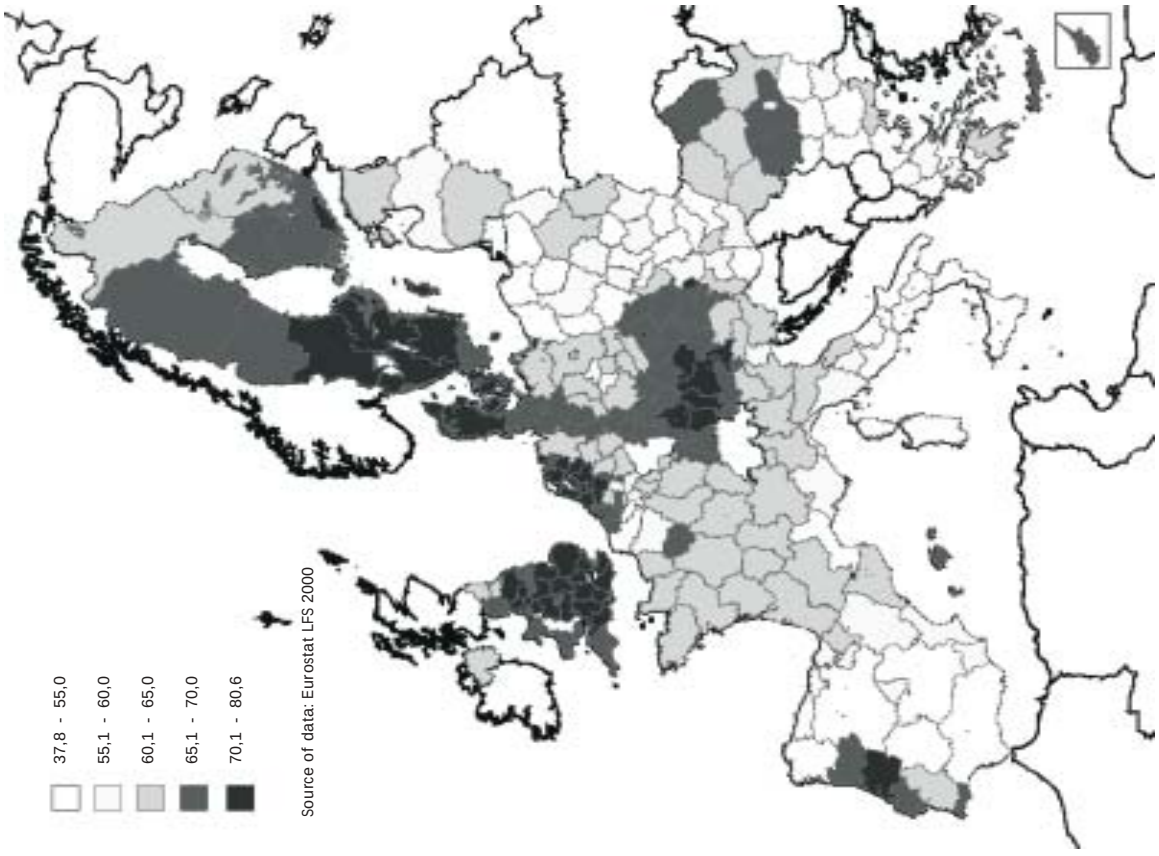
EU-wide, around 10% of adults (aged 16 and over) perceive their health to be 'bad' or 'very bad'. 68% feel that their health is 'good' or 'very good' while the remaining 22% describe it as 'fair'. The proportion of persons in the category '(very) bad' increases with age: almost one in four elderly people described their health as such. At all ages, women are more likely than men to rate their health as '(very) bad'. People in the lowest income quintile are also significantly more likely to report bad or very bad health (13%) than those in the highest (5%).

1 See for example OECD, Regards sur la Santé, 2001. Preparing for an aging world: the case for cross national research, NAS, 2001. World Health Report, 2000

**Map 2 Progression in education: the decrease in the share of low education (difference between the shares of low education in the age groups 25-34 and 45-54), Year 2000**




**Map 1 Employment rate (15-64 age group) Year 2000**



For both men and women, circulatory diseases are the major cause of death throughout the Union (except France). External causes of injury and poisoning prevail among the young (aged 15-34) but account for only a small proportion of those aged 55 and over. Cancer represents the major cause of death among those aged 45-64. For those aged 75 and over, circulatory diseases account for around half of all deaths.

*Education: Access and attainment levels are improving but not for everyone*

Educational attainment has improved significantly over the last thirty years, particularly among females. Today, more than 76% of people aged 25-29 have an upper secondary qualification. The improvement in educational level has been one of the major achievements of the last decades. In 2000, one out of five in the age group 45-54 and one out of four in the age group 25-34 had completed tertiary level education. Between the same two groups,the share of low educational achievement has declined from 41% to 26%. However, 20% of persons aged 18-24 still leave the education system with only lower secondary education at best.

Throughout the Union, the higher the educational level of adults, the greater the training opportunities afforded to them. EU-wide, 8% of the population aged 25-64 had participated in education/training(at some point during the last four weeks) in 2000. Such training activities seem to be more prevalent in the Nordic countries, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom. Older persons are much less likely to receive training than younger persons. Women are far better represented in training activities in Member States in the North than in Southern Member States.

*Employment prospects at regional level: education plays a key role*

During 1996-2000, throughout regions, employment increased strongly for workers with upper secondary and tertiary education, but it fell for lower educational levels. Different regions present a variety of prospects depending on the existing employment rate and progress in educational achievement. Maps 1 and 2 over the page show that some regions of Northern Spain, for example, with a relatively low employment rate, have made great progress in educational levels. There is therefore significant scope for Spain to increase its overall employment rate and provide better jobs for more qualified people. At the other end of the scale, Denmark has a very high employment rate and already a favourable educational mix within the population and therefore there is less scope for employment growth.

*Income Distribution: The situation of Low Income Households remains unchanged*

In 1998, the median equivalised net annual income was around 11,700 PPS (EU-15 population weighted arithmetic average). In most Member States, approximately 70% of income comes from work, around 25-30% from pensions and other social benefits, and the small remaining part from capital and other private sources.

Although social benefits do not constitute a large share of income, 73% of EU citizens benefit from such transfers, either directly or indirectly, through other household members.

At EU level, the bottom (poorest) 20% of the population received 8% of total income in 1998, while the top (richest) 20% received 39% of total income, i.e. 5.4 times as much. Member States with lower levels of average income tend to have higher levels of inequality. This gap between the most and least well-off persons is smallest in Denmark (2.7), Finland (3.0) and Sweden (3.4) but widest in the southern Member States, Belgium, the United Kingdom and Ireland.

In 1998 around 18% of EU citizens or 68 million people were at risk of poverty i.e. they had an equivalised income that was less than 60% of their respective national median. About half of these people had been in this situation for at least three consecutive years. Several types of households have higher than average levels of risk of poverty: single-parents with dependent children, young people living alone, old people living alone and women living alone.

An important cause of poverty and social exclusion is the lack of a job or low wages from employment. In 1998, the risk of poverty for persons living in households where no persons of working age were in employment was nearly 51% - around 2.3 times higher than when at least one person was working.

## 1.2 Trends in social protection expenditure and welfare

Social protection is a cornerstone of EU policies for combating poverty and strengthening social cohesion. Moreover, recent European Summits have emphasised that social protection is an integral part of economic development in the EU. This chapter combines an examination of developments in social protection expenditure with an analysis of the redistributive impact of social transfers and a study of the prevalence and size of social transfer receipts at household level[2].

*Social protection has a considerable impact on the social situation*

Social protection systems in the European Union involve substantial amounts of expenditure. In 1998 gross expenditure on social protection in the EU amounted to 27.7% of GDP. European social protection systems combine social insurance elements (redistribution between different life phases) with redistributive elements (redistribution between income groups) and they have a significant impact on the living conditions of a majority of EU citizens. Differences in tax/benefit structures and related policies among Member States affect the magnitude and character of this impact.

*The majority* of people across the Union live in a household that *receives at least one type of social protection benefit*[3]. In Greece, Italy and Spain the proportion ranges from 50% to 60% but in the rest of the EU the proportion of persons living in such households is between 80% and 95%.

Social benefits reduce the proportion of people at risk of poverty in all Member States ranging from a 5-15% reduction in Greece and Italy to more than 70% in Finland, with an EU average reduction of 31%.

*Differences in social protection expenditure among Member States*

The 1998 figure for gross expenditure on social protection in the EU is equivalent to spending per head of population of about 5600 Ecu (Ecu was changed to Euro in 1999). Taking account of differences in price levels between countries – i.e. measuring spending in terms of purchasing power standards (PPS) – expenditure varied from 8,600 PPS per head in Luxembourg and 7,100 PPS in Denmark to 3,100 PPS per head in Greece and Portugal. The EU average was about 5,500 PPS per head.

Thus, differences in social protection expenditure measured as PPS per head are still very wide among Member States. As seen in last year's report[4], there is a fairly close relationship between expenditure on social protection and GDP per head. One should, however, remember that differences in social protection expenditure are not necessarily indicative of real differences in the degree to which the well being of citizens or the development of an efficient economy is promoted. What matters is the precise character (e.g. the relative accent on active and passive measures) and effect of provisions (e.g. their net value and cost-effectiveness). Moreover, gross expenditure measures may give a distorted image of what goes on.

*Gross versus net expenditure*

Indeed, gross expenditure can be an imprecise indication of the amount of money actually being moved. Gross figures do not take account of taxes or social charges which may be levied on benefits and they exclude so-called 'tax expenditures', that is transfers made by means of tax concessions or allowances rather than directly through cash outlays.

EU-15 data on net social expenditure are not yet available. But for 1995 the OECD[5] has estimated the scale of taxes and social charges levied on benefits and of tax expenditures for some countries in the EU. If one then looks at net instead of gross expenditure there is less variation between Member States than in the gross figures and a different ranking order of countries in terms of spending relative to GDP. It is particularly noteworthy that expenditure in Sweden is reduced to much the same level as in Germany (around 28$_{1/2}$% of GDP) and expenditure in Denmark and the Netherlands falls to below the level in the UK or Belgium.

If we take one step further and use ECHP data to look at social protection costs measured as net benefits in PPS per head at household level the ranking of Member States according to how much they spend is even further changed. In this case it is suddenly Belgium and Finland which emerge as the Member States spending the highest amount on social protection. Clearly one should be careful about ranking Member States according to their level of social protection expenditure and even more cautious about inferring the relative impact on citizens and the economy from expenditure data alone.

However, until data for net expenditure become available for EU-15 reporting on expenditure developments will have to rely on figures for gross expenditure.

*Change in gross social expenditure, 1990-98*

Movements in gross social protection expenditure as a share of GDP over the last decade reflect cyclical developments and a catching up effect on the part of some Member States.

2 The main source is the data compiled by Eurostat in the European System of integrated Social Protection Statistics (ESSPROS).
3 European Community Household Panel 1997.
4 The Social Situation in the European Union, 2001: Section 2, pp 50-54.
5 Willem Adema, Net social expenditure, Labour Market and Social Policy Occasional Papers, No.39, OECD, 1999.

Gross expenditure on social protection in the Union increased less than GDP between the end of the economic recession in 1994 and 1998, when economic recovery was well under way.

The decline in social spending relative to GDP[6] has been a common feature of most Member States over the period 1994 to 1998, just as the rise, which occurred over the preceding four years, was equally widespread.

*Changes in gross social protection expenditure by function 1990-1998*

From 1990-1998 one of the highest rates of expenditure growth occurred not in old-age pensions or health care, but in housing benefits.With a yearly growth rate at the EU level of nearly 5% in purchasing power terms over the 8-year period housing benefits stood out as the item with one of the largest increases. Growth was concentrated in the early part of the period and may reflect the increase in unemployment at the time.

Family benefits (including maternity allowances) was another high growth item with an increase of some 3.5% a year in purchasing power terms. Nevertheless, in four countries (the Netherlands, Austria, Finland and Sweden), spending on this item declined over the four years 1994 to 1998, in contrast to the growth of over 6% a year in Germany, Spain, Ireland and Luxembourg.

Expenditure on disability benefits also grew by around 3.5%. Again the increase was concentrated in the early part of the period, apart from in Greece and Ireland. Yet, in the Netherlands, it fell by 6% a year over the four years from 1994, reflecting the tightening of the system and the shift in responsibility for payment from the State to employers.

Spending on old-age benefits and health care/sickness both rose by around 2.5% a year in purchasing power terms over the 8-year period. In both cases, the growth rate was lower in the second half of the period. Nevertheless, in 7 of the 15 Member States expenditure rose by 3% a year or more in the four years from 1994 and in Greece and Portugal old-age benefits grew by more than 7% a year.

Finally, growth of spending on unemployment benefits in the Union averaged less than 1.5% a year.

*The Redistributive effect of Social Protection Transfers*

All Member States use their systems of social security and taxation[7] to apply a correction to the income distribution created by the market. Looking at the redistributive effect of social protection and taxation , the findings are quite interesting. The contribution from social transfers (and taxes) to the reduction of market income inequality at household level appears to be substantial in all Member States despite the variations. These variations are related not only to the volume of social transfers but also to the degree to which they are targeted. The reduction of market inequality ranges from around 40% in Sweden, Finland and France to about 20% in Portugal. Moreover, we also find that the contribution from social protection benefits to the reduction of market inequality[8] is significantly larger than the contribution from taxation and that this applies to all Member States.

Across Member States social protection is organised in different mixes of public and private and formal and informal provisions. Under the challenge of an ageing society the balance between these four components in the mixes is likely to change. As households are becoming smaller and both men and women are working the caring capacities of families will shrink and a larger proportion of welfare services will have to be delivered andfinanced in the formal sector. Similarly, as governments are trying to rebalance social insurance systems related to such items as pensions, invalidity and sickness benefit there is likely to be a certain move of tasks and costs from public systems to occupational and individual schemes.

In the future we can therefore expect expenditure data to cover a larger share of welfare services. At the same time it becomes crucial that all formal costs whether public, occupational or private are included in the expenditure data.

6 It is important to keep in mind that changes in the share of social protection spending in GDP do not necessarily reflect policy changes. To a large extent they may just mirror changes in the business cycle: When GDP expands the relative share drops though expenditure may be the same or to some degree even growing - and vice versa.

7 Attention is limited to income replacement and income supplementing social security benefits and to direct taxes and social insurance contributions. For reasons of of data limitations indirect taxes (such as VAT and excise duty) and benefits, which are paid as reimbursement for specific costs (e.g. medical expenses) are left out of consideration.

8 Based on the calculation of the Gini coefficient.

## 1.3 The challenge of mobility and migration

The main two categories of geographical mobility examined in this section are migratory flows of EU citizens as well as those of third country nationals entering the EU.

The right to free movement is a fundamental right under the EC Treaty. European citizens have access to employment in any Member State, with an accompanying right of residence for themselves and their family members, and they must not be discriminated against on grounds of nationality. Free movement can mean moving to another Member State, or commuting daily or weekly across a national border.

Mobility is often examined within the context of employment policy, as one of the key elements for increasing flexibility and managing imbalances in the labour market. Continued job creation and fast changes in the demand for labour, particularly since 1997, have accentuated the need for labour mobility. At EU level the debate has been particularly relevant in the context of the European Employment Strategy. Labour mobility has both an occupational and a geographical dimension. While occupational job-to-job mobility and life-long training are by far the most important factors for the adjustment of the workforce to the new economic conditions, improved geographical mobility could play an important role in addressing labour market shortages and furthering economic development.

In addition to employment, geographical mobility has important social and cultural implications. In this context, migration deserves particular attention. The growing number of immigrants from third countries face a variety of socio-economic conditions which brings about new challenges for the host societies. However, immigrants also bring together different cultural backgrounds providing new opportunities for sharing knowledge and cross-fertilization of different cultures.

### 1.3.1 Mobility of EU Citizens

Despite the important progress made in removing obstacles to the free movement of people over the last decades in the EU, present levels of geographical mobility are very low compared to those observed in the 1950's and 60's. Today geographical mobility between Member States is estimated to range between 0.1 and 0.2 per cent of the total population per year. Moreover, it is only partly linked to employment. According to a Eurobarometer survey[9], EU citizens do not change residence very often; 38 % of them, on average, have moved within the last ten years. But this European average masks significant differences between the Member States, with a clear North-South (plus Ireland) divide. Moving to another house in the same city or village is the most common type of mobility, with other moves being less common as distance increases. Of all the people who changed residence at least once during the last ten years, 68% of them moved within the same city, town or village, but during these ten years less than 5% to another country within the European Union and around the same proportion to another country outside the EU. The main motive for moving house is for family/personal reasons (54%), followed by housing (18%) and work related reasons (15%). Research in the USA[10] has reached similar conclusions when considering reasons to move, although mobility in the USA is substantially higher than in the EU.

Several reasons explain this decline of intra-European mobility over the last 3 decades. The southern regions, which were heavily affected by serious economic and social problems during the early post-war years, have since made spectacular progress in reducing the gap with their more prosperous European partners. Today, they offer their citizens relatively high standards of living conditions and social welfare.

The gradual transition from the early post-war paradigm of low skill, labour intensive production to today's knowledge based economy, beginning in the early '70s, may also have contributed to this drop in overall mobility and to a new focus on the migration of high skilled people.

*Other important factors affecting EU mobility*

Language continues to be one of the most important barriers for moving to another country. Forty seven percent of Europeans claim to know only their mother tongue while a recent Eurobarometer survey reported that only 29% of European citizens would be willing to live in another EU country where the language is different from their native tongue. The likelihood that Europeans know a foreign language diminishes with age and increases with the level of education.

The potential loss of social networks also represents a barrier to migration. The absence of family networks, as well as social and cultural differences may be important obstacles for rebuilding those networks in the host community. Usually, people with higher education levels find it easier to rebuild their social networks.

The increasing participation of women in the labour market is often seen as another factor restricting geographical mobility, as moving often means having to find new jobs for two people with different professional careers.

9 Eurobarometer 54.2, 2001

10 *"An overview of labour mobility in the United States"* – F.W. Horvarth (U.S. Bureau of Labour Statistics).

The availability of affordable and good quality housing is another critical factor in decisions to move. Housing conditions across Europe have generally improved in recent decades. Most people even in the less wealthy Member States enjoy reasonable quality housing. However, housing expenditure has grown substantially in most Member States particularly for the less wealthy households. Moreover, despite massive construction of new housing the supply has tended to lag behind the growth in demand. Rising standards and the trend towards more but smaller households are among the factors which have made it increasingly difficult to balance supply and demand. In most urban areas there is a marked shortage of dwellings, in particular affordable housing of fair quality. The problems in finding an affordable and suitable residence in another region or country may play a negative role in people's decision to move. The reluctance of people to move house as evident from a recent Eurobarometer is clearly linked to some of the uncertainties and shortages which characterise the housing market in most of Europe.

*Future trends affecting mobility*

Europe is changing in terms of its population structure and behaviour, which has implications for future levels of geographical mobility. Unsurprisingly, the majority of young people have moved at least once during the last ten years (45% of those aged 15-24 and close to 60% of the 25-39 years olds) mainly for family, employment and education reasons. Young people are mainly attracted to the large urban areas where they enjoy more choice in terms of education, type of job and lifestyle. There is an important North-South divide in the Union in terms of timing and intensity of the moves[11], with young people in the South moving from their parents' place at a later stage. It is also worth noting that the overall level of mobility is likely be affected by the gradual decline in the size of the younger age group (15-29) due to the significant drop in fertility over the past 30 years. This group represented 23.2% of the EU population in 1990, 19.6% in 2000 and the Eurostat baseline scenario indicates a further reduction to 17.8% by 2010.

People with higher educational levels are the most mobile; indeed, for 11 Member States people living in a different Member State have higher educational levels than their compatriots in the home country. Higher educational levels and growing economic integration, together with improved policy co-ordination, will progressively enhance this mobility potential.

*Mobility and regional concerns*

Measures for regional development are particularly important both to prevent excesses in regional polarisation and to maximise the potential of geographical mobility. Over the last decades, there has been an important flow of people mainly moving from rural to urban areas. This has contributed to a process of regional polarisation.

Within the EU, there are 70 regions (approximately one in every three) where over 50% of the population lives in a "densely populated area"[12]. These 70 regions make up 14.7% of the total territory of EU-15, and comprise 45.2 % of the EU-15 population. Large urban areas have experienced growth and rejuvenation of their population, while remote rural areas have been confronted by an acceleration of their population ageing and economic decline.

Current demographic projections indicate that this divergence between regions will keep growing, particularly in relation to the working age population. Between 2000 and 2015, at regional (Nuts2) level, the working age population in the 10 worst off regions is projected to decrease by 12%, while in the 10 better off, it would increase by 15 %.

Further to the implications for economic activity, this regional polarisation has affected the quality of living conditions. Sustained population decrease renders the delivery of public services (e.g. education, health) to those regions with low population more costly, while population concentrations in the large urban districts cause different but equally difficult problems such as traffic congestion, pollution etc.. It is therefore important to pay particular attention to the regional dimension in setting up policies to promote geographical mobility.

In considering the longer term mobility trends, fast technological change, particularly the expected progress in telecommunications and transport, may progressively reduce the importance of geographical mobility (compared to skills mobility) as a means for improving the allocation of human resources.

*Migration and Enlargement*

The next enlargement may contribute to higher cross-border mobility at an initial stage. The size of migration pressures will mainly depend on the income gaps and the differences in the labour market situation between the current and future Member States. It is worth noting that previous enlargements to Greece, Spain and Portugal did not bring about any increase of migratory

11 Some research suggests that this delay in leaving the parental home is related to the fact that young people in the South rely more on family support than in the North – see G. B. Sgritta - Family and Welfare systems in the transition to adulthood- European Observatory on the Social Situation, Demography and Family.

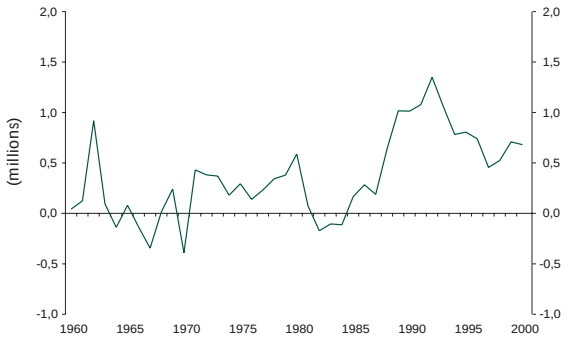
12 This is a contiguous set of local areas, each of which has a density superior to 500 inhabitants per square km, where the total population for the set is at least 50,000 inhabitants. The EU average density is 116 inhabitants per square km.

flows from these countries to other Member States. Moreover, given the economic and social progress made in these countries, they are now countries of destination for third country nationals.

### 1.3.2 Immigration from Third Countries

Third country immigrants entering the EU are another important form of mobility. An irregular pattern of growth in net migration has been observed over the last decades. The size and origin of immigrants vary considerably over time depending on the political and economic situation in different areas of the world. The growth has been particularly strong in the Mid-'80's when there was a significant inflow from Eastern Europe. Following this, the war in the former Yugoslavia and the unstable situation in the Balkans have generated an important wave of immigrants mainly coming from the former Yugoslavian Republics and Albania. There are also a considerable number of flows from other parts of the world, mainly from different areas of Asia and North Africa, related to a combination of economic, political and demographic factors.

**Graph 1 Net Migration, European Union 1960 - 2000**




Net migrants is the difference between people entering the European Union and people who exit.
Source: Eurostat - Migration statistics

In 1999, 13 million[13] or 3.4% of the EU population were third country nationals- a 50% increase from 1985. The share was much higher in some central European Member States (Austria, 9.3% and Germany, 6.7%) and much lower in Spain and Italy[14]. The growing immigration from outside the Union is mainly concentrated in the economically thriving regions. Most large urban areas are becoming more multicultural and need to develop adequate strategies for the social and economic integration of newcomers and their families. Unlike EU citizens, third country nationals do not enjoy the right to free movement in the European Union.

Managing the flow of third country immigrants represents an increasingly important challenge for employment and social policy in the Member States and the Union as a whole. Although Europe has experienced inflows of highly skilled people in response to specific labour supply shortages, a large share of these migrants are young people with low qualifications. Push factors in the country of origin combine with a variety of pull factors of the host countries e.g. caused by labour shortages at regional level, the ageing of the labour force . Looking at the registered inflows of 1999, people from the former Yugoslavia were the most numerous, followed by Poles, people from Northern Africa, those from the former Soviet Union, and Turkey; but registered people represent only part of the full picture. A considerable number of people enter or stay within the EU illegally and carry out undeclared work, often in sectors and regions where the underground economy is more developed. Both illegal and legal immigrants are more vulnerable than national workers; they are often ready to make concessions concerning their wage and other work-related rights.

*Participation in the labour market*

Labour market participation varies a lot between different groups of migrants. For the EU citizens living in another Member State and for workers coming from the candidate countries in Central and Eastern Europe it is equal to or higher than the EU average. For some other groups of migrants employment rates are significantly lower, particularly among women coming from North Africa and Turkey. For the 15-24 age group, the average unemployment rate is 16% for EU nationals, 15% for nationals from Turkey, 14% for nationals from the other 12 candidate countries and 21 % for people from other countries.

Immigration is often seen as a factor that increases the flexibility of the labour market. However, this entails the risk of increasing the segregation of the labour market with an over-representation of third country nationals in poorer jobs. The great majority of employed third country nationals appear to hold jobs in the low-skill/low-pay end of the labour market. Female migrants tend to work in the hotel and restaurant sector and in domestic services. And this is not just an effect of the low average level of qualifications among third country nationals. Workers from the Central and Eastern European countries tend to hold jobs with a skill content which is lower than their average formal skill certification. Migrants' susceptibility to discrimination, exploitation and abuse is often exacerbated by language barriers, but also by lack of familiarity with local custom and culture and underdeveloped social networks. There are, however, several initiatives, such as inter-cultural mediators, which are developing in workplaces or in social and health services to increase the accessibility of these institutions.

13 Most recent data from Eurostat refers to 1998 (France 1990)

14 This figure does not include the foreign born population, which took up EU citizenship, but it includes the children of third country nationals born in Europe if they did not take up EU citizenship.

**Concluding remarks**

In relation to intra-EU mobility, it has been seen that despite the important progress made in removing obstacles to the free movement of people over the last decades in the EU, present levels of geographical mobility are very low compared to those observed in the 1950's and 60's. To a great extent this has been the result of the spectacular progress of the less prosperous European regions in reducing the gap with their more prosperous partners. In the years to come, higher educational levels and growing economic integration, together with improved policy co-ordination could have a more visible contribution to intra-EU mobility. The European Commission in its Communication "New European Labour Markets, Open to All, with Access for All" has proposed a new strategy including concrete policy initiatives to ensure free movement of people and the openness of the New European Labour Markets. Developing these positive dynamics would require the active participation of all the stakeholders at EU, national and local levels. Particular attention is also needed to some specific barriers not directly linked with the labour market such as the relatively low record in learning foreign languages in several Member States and the growing difficulties in relation to housing in most economically booming regions and the trend towards regional polarisation observed in several regions across the EU.

In examining trends in geographical mobility, the flow of third country immigrants represents an increasingly important challenge for employment and social policy in the Member States and the Union as a whole. Most researchers agree that migration inflows will be a rather volatile but lasting phenomenon which increasingly deserves close attention from policy makers. The growing number of immigrants from third countries brings about both challenges and opportunities for European society. Participation in economic and social life constitutes the main route to integration for migrant groups and their families. In turn, successful integration of migrants in the host societies is important for their economic progress and social cohesion. Promoting integration requires targeted policy efforts towards both the immigrants and the host societies. The fight against discrimination is particularly important. Barriers to social participation - whether in the structures, capacities and attitudes of the receiving communities or in those of the arriving immigrants – reduces possibilities for integration and weakens social cohesion. Facilitating access to education for low-education immigrants and their offspring, promoting employment opportunities and removing barriers related to housing are among the key issues for immigrants.

Managing migrant inflows, fighting against illegal immigration and developing an optimal model of integration while respecting diversity are major challenges requiring the commitment of all the actors involved. At EU level, with the entry into force of the Treaty of Amsterdam on 1 May 1999 , the policy on asylum, the free movement of persons, visa policy, rules governing the crossing of the EU's external borders, immigration policy, the rights of nationals of third countries and the fight against illegal immigration are essential parts of the common and comprehensive asylum and immigration policy of the European Union. Further to this process of setting up the institutional and legislative framework, European social policy, provides a range of measures in employment, social inclusion, anti-discrimination, social protection and gender equality which support and strengthen policy efforts at national, regional and local levels.

**Recent policy action related to mobility and migration**

Various Community instruments developed in the **European Employment Strategy**[15] support the efforts of Member States to enhance labour mobility and facilitate access to lifelong learning. The strategy to promote the development of **new European Labour Markets**[16] was endorsed by the Stockholm European Council in March, 2001, with a particular emphasis on skills and mobility.

Several initiatives in the field of **social security**[17] were proposed to improve effective co-ordination and to give more opportunities for workers and job seekers to make use of their right to free movement.

In the new **European Strategy to promote social inclusion**[18], the National Action Plans of several Member States recognised the growing ethnic and cultural diversity and the higher risk of social exclusion for ethnic minorities and immigrants.

Common policies in the field of **immigration and asylum**[19] are being built in line with the conclusions of the Tampere European Council (October 1999). In order to manage migrant flows successfully and to cut illegal migration, the Commission has proposed a co-ordinated approach integrating all aspects of the migratory system and strengthening the partnership with the countries of origin. This is complemented by vigorous[20] integration and anti-discrimination policies in the host countries, on the basis of Article 13 of the Amsterdam Treaty.

It is recognised that there are both pull and push factors which account for the immigration of third country nationals in the EU and that both must be taken into account in the development of appropriate policies to manage migration effectively. Labour market demand is a strong pull factor while poor living conditions and limited prospects for a better quality of life in the countries of origin are important push factors. Community development policy contributes in the long term to normalising migratory flows by supporting sustainable economic and social and evnvironmental development and combating poverty and inequality in the regions from which migrants originate. Migration issues must also be taken into account in the development of EU external relations and trade policy in the context of an enhanced dialogue with countries of origin on the ways to manage migration flows and to maximise its benefits for all concerned.

15 Guidelines for Member States' employment policies for the year 2002 - COM(2001) 511 - Draft Joint Employment Report – COM(2001)438
16 New European Labour Market, Open to All with Access to All - COM(2001)116
17 COM(1997) 586
18 Joint Inclusion Report of the Council and the Commission, adopted by the Council on 3/12/2001
19 See scoreboard included in COM(2001)628
20 Implementation of the principle of equal treatment between persons irrespective of race or ethnic origin (Directive 2000/43/EC); Establishment of a general framework for equal treatment in employment and occupation (Directive 2000/78/EC).

# Section II

## The Social Dimension of Geographical Mobility

## 2.1 Population movements in the European Union

This chapter presents various data which shed some light on the level of population mobility within the EU and explain the main demographic characteristics of the people who have moved. The main data sources used are from Eurostat and Eurobarometer.

**In brief**

- Positive net migration has increased over the last two decades. In 2000, it reached an estimated level of around 700,000 net migrants or a net migration rate of 0.2% of the total EU population. Since the annual natural growth of the total EU population was only 0.1% in the year 2000 , immigration is currently the main cause of population growth in the Union.

- The recent increase in positive net migration is basically due to the growing inflow of third country nationals: they were 58% of all immigrants in 1999, while the inflow of EU nationals seems to be stable. Luxembourg, followed by Ireland, Austria and Germany, is the Member State with the highest immigration (3%) and emigration (2%) rates, well above the EU averages - immigration rate of about 0.5% and an emigration rate of around 0.3%.

- Presently, there are 19 million non-national people living in the 15 Member States, accounting for 5.1% of the total population. But only 30% of these (around 6 million) are nationals from other Member States, making 1.6% of the total EU population. The remaining 13 million people, or 3.4% of the total EU population, are non-EU nationals. The share of EU citizens living in other Member States has changed very little over the last two decades, remaining close to 1.5%, while the share of non-EU nationals is increasing (from 2.3% in 1985 to 3.4% in 1999). Luxembourg is the country with the highest percentage of other EU-nationals: close to one third of the country's total population. Austria (around 9%) and Germany (almost 7%) are the EU Member States with the highest shares of third country nationals in their population. When considering citizens coming from the applicant countries, Turkish nationals are by far the most common foreign nationality in the EU, with 2.7 million people. There are also around 850,000 citizens from the other 12 candidate countries.

- While inflows from outside the EU are growing, the geographical mobility of EU citizens is lower than that existing in the 50's and 60's. However, 600,000 people, or 0.4% of the total employed population, work in a country different from their country of residence and cross-border commuting is continuing to grow. Complementary information is available on how often EU citizens change residence: 38 % of them, on average, have moved within the last ten years. But this European average masks significant differences between the Member States, with a clear North-South (plus Ireland) divide. Work-related reasons are only mentioned in 15% of the cases, while the main motive for moving house is for family/personal reasons. Only 5% of those moving house went to another country within the European Union.

## Introduction

The study of population movements is a complex area which raises several data issues relating to availability, comparability and harmonisation of data sources[21]. The reliability of migration data is often dependent, among other things, on the willingness of people moving to register their change of residence in the place of departure as well as the place of arrival.

### 2.1.1 Growing migratory inflows of third country nationals

The flow of third country nationals entering the European Union is increasing. The available data collected by Eurostat from the Member States about the inflows are incomplete, come from different sources and are not fully homogenised. The data also do not take account of illegal immigrants, who do not appear in administrative registers. However, the existing data reveal some interesting trends:

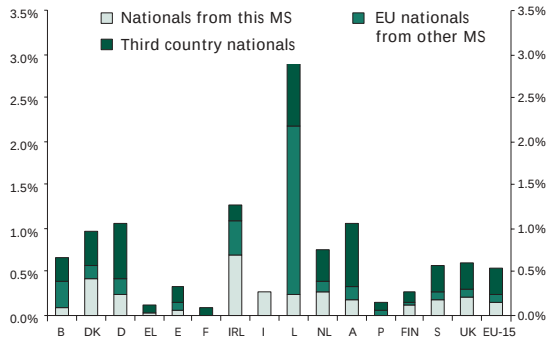
- **The total population entering EU Member States has increased over the last few years reaching around 2 million people...**: Eurostat data on inflows entering EU Member States show that the number of people moving from other countries (both EU citizens and third country nationals) is increasing. It is estimated that in 1999[22] around 2 million people arrived into the 15 Member States, representing just over 0.5% of the total population, compared to almost 1.7 m in 1998 and 1.6 m in 1997[23].

- **... mainly due to the growth of the number of immigrants from third countries...**: Analysing the available data of all the moves towards the EU Member States for the 1997-99 period, the inflow of third country citizens increased from about 53% in 1997 to nearly 58% in 1999. The importance of immigration is relatively larger in Luxembourg (with an immigration rate of 3%), Ireland, Austria and Germany, while Southern countries are at the other end of the scale.

- **... while immigration of EU citizens has not changed significantly**: The number of Union citizens entering the 15 Member States has been relatively stable, so their shares within the total immigration flow have showed a decreasing trend over the last few years: the flows of EU nationals entering their own Member States has passed from 27% of the total inflows in 1997 to 24% in 1999, while the inflows made by Union citizens entering a Member State different from their own nationality has decreased from 20% in 1997 to 18% in 1999.

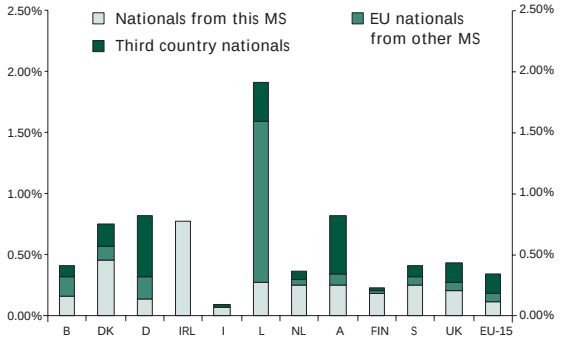
- **Outflows from EU Member States are gradually decreasing**: The available data show that the number of people leaving Member States[24] has decreased from about 1.3 million in 1997 to nearly 1.2 million in 1999 (or around 0.3% of the EU population, using last available data). Around half of this number is made up of third country nationals, almost 30% are EU nationals leaving their own country and around 20% are EU citizens leaving other Member States. Again, Luxembourg (close to 2%), Austria, Germany and Ireland seem to have the largest relative outflows.

**Graph 2 Inflows: immigration rate by citizenship, 1999**




Source: Eurostat - Italian data are total immigrants, data for Greece and Denmark are from 1998. French and Greek data do not include nationals leaving their own MS.

**Graph 3 Outflows: emigration rate by citizenship, 1999**



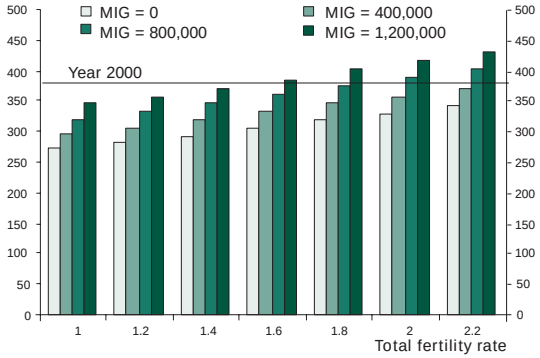

Source: Eurostat - Data from Denmark are from 1998 and 1997 for Ireland. Data are not available for Greece, France and Portugal, and not complete for Spain. Irish data are total emigrants.

21 The systems of registration and accountability of population movements are quite different among the Member States
22 1996 data for Italy, 1998 data for Greece and Denmark.
23 Data on immigration flows are not available for Italy for the three years (or they are not complete); for Greece and Denmark in 1999; for Belgium and Ireland in 1998; and data are partial for Greece, France and Portugal in 1997.
24 Data on emigration flows are not available for France, Portugal and Greece in the period 1997-99, for Denmark in 1999, for Belgium in 1998 and for Italy and Ireland in 1998-1999.

- **As a consequence, total net flows are increasing**: The difference between the number of people entering and leaving the 15 Member States has been growing over the last few years. Using different methods[25], a figure of about 0.7 million people can be seen as a reasonable estimate of the positive net population flow entering the European Union in 1999 and 2000 compared with 0.5 million in 1997. This implies a positive yearly migration growth rate of about 0.2% of the total population, while the annual natural growth rate was around 0.1% in 1999 and 2000 (Eurostat estimation).

- **Positive net migration is mainly comprised of third country citizens**: almost 3/4 of the positive flows are third country nationals, only 12% are EU nationals entering their own Member State and around 15% are EU citizens entering another Member State.

**Graph 4 Total population of the EU-15 in 2050 according to alternative projections assuming a wide range of fertility and annual net migration levels**




Source: European Observatory on the Social Situation, Demography and Family

### *Can Immigration Compensate for Ageing in Europe?*

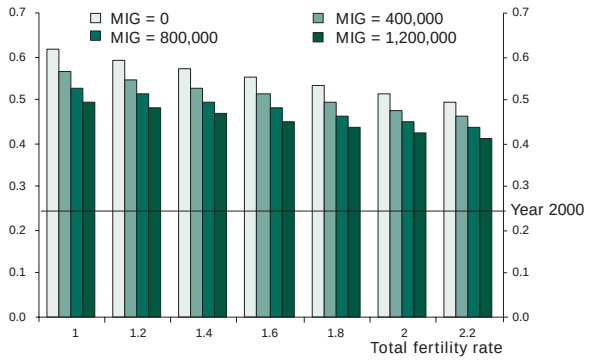
One of the commonly debated issues relates to the possibilities offered by immigration growth for addressing the growing old age dependency in Europe which has implications for the labour market and the sustainability of pension systems. However, as the following analysis demonstrates, even high immigration scenarios could not compensate the growth of dependency due to population ageing.

Although the question "to what extent can the immigration of young adults from outside the EU compensate ageing?" has many political, economic and even cultural dimensions, only the strictly demographic dimension is considered here based on the analysis made by Sergei Sherbov for the European Observatory on the Social Situation, Demography and Family.

Graph 4 presents the results based on alternative population scenarios (combining different fertility and migratory assumptions) for the year 2050, with respect to the total population size of today's EU-15. It shows that total population size is a rather inert variable and even rather extreme combinations of assumptions affect it only very slowly. Population size only grows significantly in 2050 with fertility rates in excess of 1.8 (compared to 1.4 today) combined with an annual net migration of 1,200,000 or more.

Graph 5 shows that the population age structure is expected to change more rapidly and more profoundly than population size. The graph plots the so-called old age dependency ratio, which is defined here as the proportion of the population above age 65, divided by the population aged 15-64. At the level of the EU-15 this ratio is presently 0.24. Due to the inevitable changes that are mostly pre-programmed in the current age structure of the population, this ratio is bound to increase significantly under all scenarios. It is interesting to see that even annual net migration rates of around 1 million combined with higher fertility rates than today's level make little difference to the old age dependency ratio in 2050. In conclusion, immigration can contribute to filling certain specific gaps on the European labour market, but it can in no way stop or reverse the process of significant population ageing in Europe.

**Graph 5 Old age dependency ratio for the EU-15 in 2050 according to alternative projections assuming a wide range of fertility and annual net migration levels**

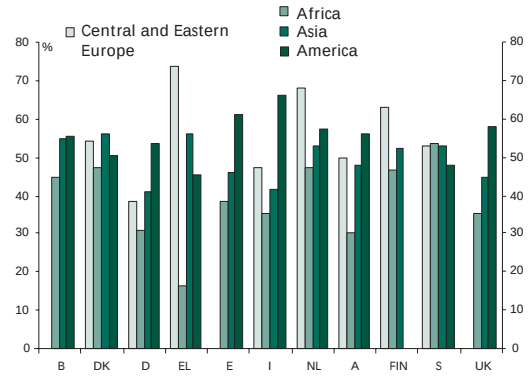



Source: European Observatory on the Social Situation, Demography and Family

25 Using data on registered inflows and outflows, an estimated figure of almost 0.8 million immigrants in 1999 is found. Taking into account the fact that emigration data is habitually more under-recorded than immigration data, this figure is not very different to Eurostat's estimations of net migration using another method: The difference between total population growth and natural increase (births minus deaths). That method gives a positive net migration of 711.4 thousand people in 1999 and 680.4 thousand people in 2000.

- **Migration from outside the Union is not gender neutral**: Currently, differences between Member States in the share of male and female migratory inflows are very large. There are also considerable differences between immigrants of different origin. Women have a higher rate of labour migration in some Member States, particularly as demand for services and domestic workers has risen. The graph shows that women made up the largest percentage (more than 60%) of third country nationals coming from Central Europe to Greece, the Netherlands and Finland in 1997, while Spain and Italy attracted a larger share of women (compared to men) from Central and South America. In Germany there is more male immigration from Central and Eastern Europe and Africa.

**Graph 6 Share of female in immigrants (1997)**




Source: Eurostat

### 2.1.2 The growing share of third country nationals living in the EU

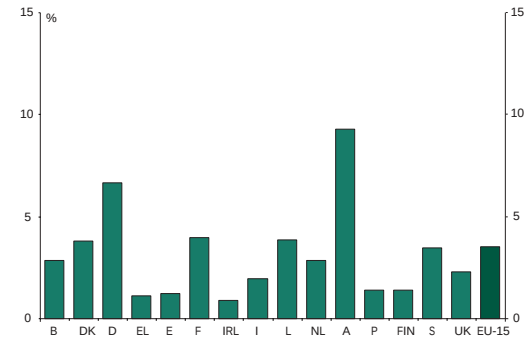
The use of the stocks of population (number of people by nationality) by Member State provides some indication about the magnitude of these flows in the past and the socio-economic status of these people[26], although these data can only be considered as approximate (and probably under-estimating the real figures)[27].

Using the most recently published Eurostat data[28], more than 13 million people or 3.4% of the total EU population are third country citizens, compared with a figure of 8.4 million and a share of 2.3% in 1985. This share is much higher in Austria (9.3%) and in Germany (6.7%). These non-EU nationals can be broken down by the following main geographical groups:

- **More than 3.5 million citizens from the applicant countries are now living in the Union**: According to Eurostat, Turkish nationals are by far the most common foreign nationality in the EU, amounting to 2.7 million persons. Of these, 77% are in Germany (2.1 million), where they make up 2.5% of the total German population. There are also 850,000 citizens from the other 12 applicant countries, with close to two thirds of them being located in Germany. Only two other nationalities show high-registered figures: around 450,000 Polish, of which two thirds are in Germany, and almost 160,000 Romanians.

- **Nationals from the former Yugoslavia make up around 1.9 million people**: Almost two thirds of them are in Germany and another 18% are in Austria. The citizens of the new Federal Republic of Yugoslavia (Serbia and Montenegro) are the most represented, with around 1 million people.

**Graph 7 Share of the population living in the EU Member States which are third country citizens**




Source: Eurostat, 1999 data for Denmark, 1998 for Luxembourg, 1997 for Greece and 1990 for France

- **Nationals from other European countries amount to more than half a million people**. Among this group, two nationalities are predominant: Russians and Albanians. The former group concentrate mainly in Germany while the latter in Greece.

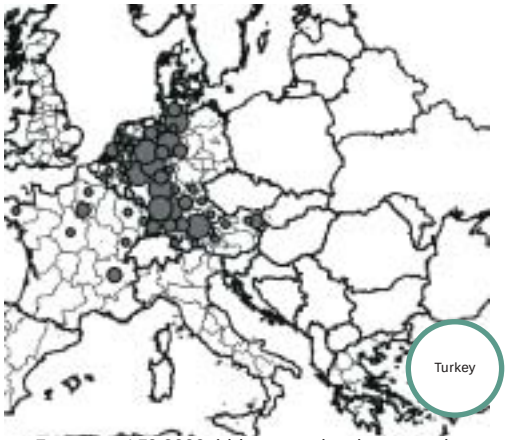
- **Nationals from North African countries living in the Union account for close to 2.3 million people**, with 1.2 million from Morocco, less than 0.7 million Algerians and almost 0.3 million Tunisians. Close to 90% of Algerians and 70% of Tunisians are living in France, while Moroccans are spread over a larger number of Member States.

26 It is important to note that a proportion of immigrants may acquire the citizenship of the host Member State (the laws of acquisition of citizenship varying from one Member State to another) and in addition there are descendants of migrants who maintain the nationality of their immigrant parents even though they were born in the host Member State and are not immigrants. Both these facts limit the scope of using nationality as an indication of the number of migrants who have entered a Member State.

27 Given the different sources used in each Member State to estimate the number of foreign citizens, and the fact that a considerable share of the non-nationals in several Member States are not registered.

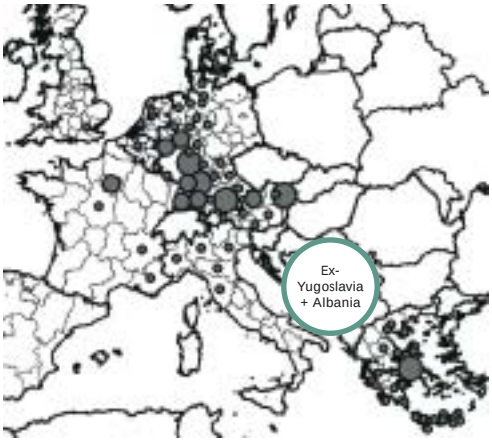
28 Estimations for the year 1998, in EUROSTAT: "European Social Statistics – Migration", 2000 Edition. More recent data on population by citizenship can be found in the EUROSTAT database "NewCronos", where data for the year 2000 are available for all the countries, except for Denmark (last year with available data: 1999), Greece and Luxembourg (1998) and France (1990).

**Map 3 Distribution of nationals from Turkey living in the EU NUTS2 regions[29]**



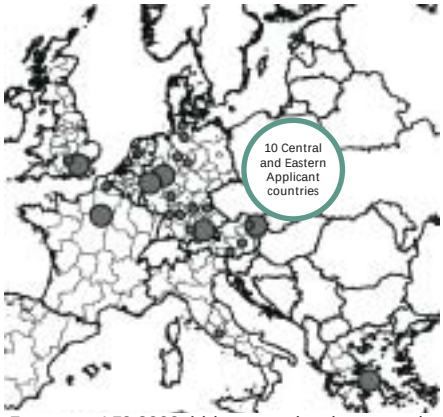

Source: Eurostat - LFS 2000 *(this source has been used as updated registered data by citizenship at regional level and is not available in all the Member States).*

**Map 4 Distribution of nationals from Ex-Yugoslavia and Albania living in the EU NUTS2 regions**



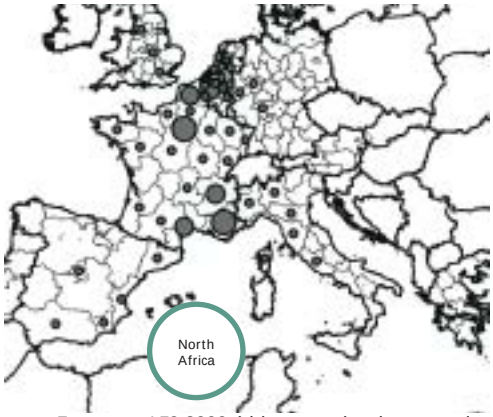

Source: Eurostat - LFS 2000 *(this source has been used as updated registered data by citizenship at regional level and is not available in all the Member States).*

**Map 5 Distribution of nationals from Central and Eastern Applicant countries living in the EU NUTS2 regions**



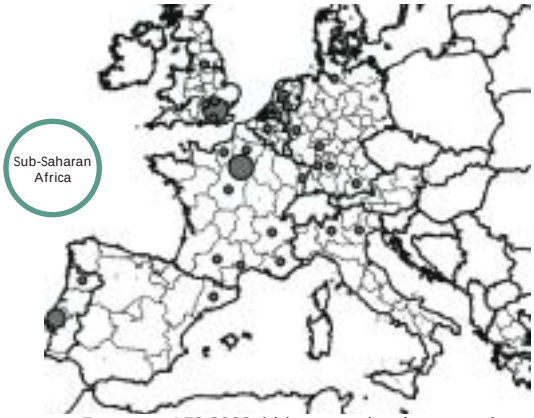

Source: Eurostat - LFS 2000 *(this source has been used as updated registered data by citizenship at regional level and is not available in all the Member States).*

**Map 6 Distribution of nationals from North African countries living in the EU NUTS2 regions**




Source: Eurostat - LFS 2000 *(this source has been used as updated registered data by citizenship at regional level and is not available in all the Member States).*

**Map 7 Distribution of nationals from Sub-Saharan African countries living in the EU NUTS2 regions**




Source: Eurostat - LFS 2000 *(this source has been used as updated registered data by citizenship at regional level and is not available in all the Member States).*

**Map 8 Distribution of nationals from Asian countries living in the EU NUTS2 regions**


Source: Eurostat - LFS 2000 *(this source has been used as updated registered data by citizenship at regional level and is not available in all the Member States).*

29 For this set of maps, the relative size of the "dot" represents the share of people from particular countries living in a region of the EU-15 compared with the total number of people from the same countries living in the EU.

- **The rest of Africa shows just over 1 million nationals in the EU**, mainly concentrated in the UK (27%), France (23%), Germany (15%) and Portugal (9%).

- **Nationals from Asia amount to about 2.2 million people**: They show a wide range of nationalities. The most significant are Indians (close to a quarter of a million people), Pakistanis (nearly 185,000), and Chinese (more than 170,000). The majority of Indians and Pakistanis are concentrated in the UK, while Chinese are more widespread.

- **People from the rest of the world amount to less than one million**: Central and South American nationals account for almost 0.4 million people, one quarter of which are concentrated in Spain. North American nationals account for nearly 420,000 people, 80% from the USA, mainly concentrated in the UK and Germany. Oceania is represented by just over 100,000 nationals mainly concentrated, at around 80%, in the UK.

***Fewer older people within the populations of third nationals living in the EU***

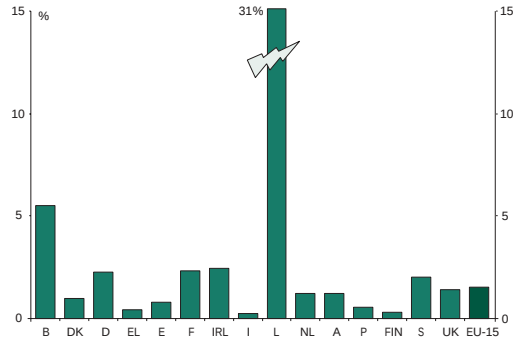
The old age dependency ratio (population aged 65+ / 15-64) is much lower in all third citizen populations compared with EU-nationals. This is not surprising as the majority of immigrants are of working age, and a share of them return to their country of origin when they reach retirement. The lowest value for this indicator is found (according to LFS data) among Turkish immigrants.

However, the situation is more diverse by nationality when the share of young people is analysed. Differences in fertility and family reunion patterns are the main sources of this diversity. Turkish people have the highest young dependency ratio (people aged less than 15 years old / 15-64), while the same indicator for immigrants coming from the other candidate countries is lower than the EU average.

### 2.1.3 Around 6 million EU citizens are living in other Member States

Eurostat data on stocks of people by citizenship allows the quantification of the number of Union citizens living in a Member State different to their own. This group is estimated at around 6 million people, making 1.6% of the total EU population. But big differences in the share exist among the Member States. Luxembourg shows the largest share of other EU citizens: These make up almost one third of the country's total population. Belgium has the second largest share, followed by Ireland and Germany with 2.3%.

**Graph 8 Share of the national population which are EU citizens from other MS, 2000**




Source: Eurostat; 1999 data for Denmark, 1998 for Luxembourg and Austria, 1997 for Greece, and 1990 for France

It is worth noting that the share of EU citizens living in other Member States has changed very little over the last two decades, remaining close to 1.5%. This stagnation is explained by the low levels of mobility between the EU Member States, which have consistently remained below the high levels observed in the 50's and 60's.

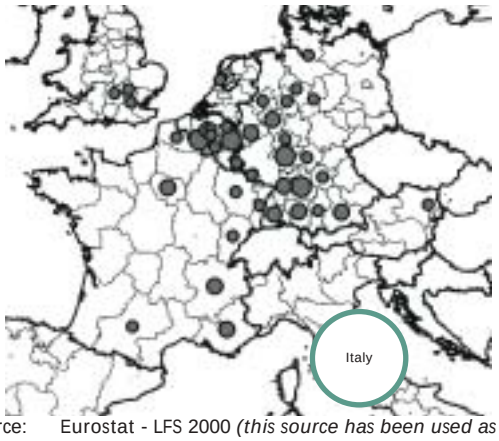
- **Germany has the highest number of Union citizens from other Member States living in it...**: almost 1.9 million, followed by France (1.3 million), UK (0.8) and Belgium (less than 0.6).

- **... while Italians and Portuguese are the largest groups of Union citizens living in other Member States**: More than 1.2 million Italians (equivalent to more than 2% of the national population) and almost one million Portuguese (equivalent to nearly 10 % of the national population) are living in other Member States. Italians are mostly living in Germany (half of them), France, Belgium and UK. In comparison, the Portuguese emigrants are mostly concentrated in France (more than two thirds of them, mainly in the region of Paris - île-de-France), Germany and Luxembourg (where they represent 13% of the total population). These large stocks of Italians and Portuguese living in other Member States are mainly the consequence of the large migration flows until the 70's. Currently, these two countries have positive net migration flows and low international mobility levels[30].

- **Six other EU nationalities have high numbers of persons living in other Member States**: 480,000 Irish (equivalent to 13% of the Irish population) live in other Member States (92% of them in UK), followed by 477,000 Spanish (with 45% in France and 27% in Germany), 455,000 British (25% in Germany, 17% in Spain, 15% in Ireland), 436,000 Greeks (nearly 85% in Germany), 395,000 French and 360,000 Germans.

30 For instance, the emigration rate for the year 1997 (last year with data available in EUROSTAT: "European Social Statistics – Migration", 2000 Edition) were 0.8 per 1000 population in Italy and 1 per 1000 population in Portugal, so the lowest emigration rate among all the Member States (data not available for Greece, Spain and France).

**Map 9** **Distribution of Italian citizens living in the EU NUTS2 regions (excluding Italy)**




Source: Eurostat - LFS 2000 *(this source has been used as updated registered data by citizenship at regional level and is not available in all the Member States).*

**Map 10** **Distribution of Portuguese citizens living in the EU NUTS2 regions (excluding Portugal)**


Source: Eurostat - LFS 2000 *(this source has been used as updated registered data by citizenship at regional level and is not available in all the Member States).*

**Map 11** **Distribution of Spanish citizens living in the EU NUTS2 regions (excluding Spain)**


Source: Eurostat - LFS 2000 *(this source has been used as updated registered data by citizenship at regional level and is not available in all the Member States).*

**Map 12** **Distribution of Greek citizens living in the EU NUTS2 regions (excluding Greece)**


Source: Eurostat - LFS 2000 *(this source has been used as updated registered data by citizenship at regional level and is not available in all the Member States).*

- **Citizens from other Member States tend to concentrate in their main neighbour Member State**: 186,000 Austrians live in Germany out of a total of 219,000 Austrians living in other Member States; 148,000 Belgians, of which close to 80% live in the four adjacent Member States; there are 286,000 Dutch, of which two thirds live in Germany or Belgium; and 135,000 Finns, of which more than two thirds live in Sweden.

- **The majority of the EU nationals living in other Member States are of working age**: Data from LFS show that both young and old age dependency ratios are lower among the Union citizens living in other Member States than among those living in their own country. This concentration within the age 15-64 reflects the fact that migration to other Member States is mainly linked with working reasons.

- **The household composition of EU citizens living in another Member State is different from the average patterns observed in the country of origin**: On average, Union citizens in other Member States live in smaller households (2.1 persons per household, LFS 2000 data) compared to nationals in their country of origin (2.4). The difference is mainly due to the fewer number of dependent children in the households of those living abroad.

- **Males are slightly more numerous than females**: data show a share of 52% of men among the EU nationals who live in other Member States, compared to 48.6% for those who live in their own country.

### 2.1.4 Residential mobility of the EU citizens in the 90's.

When examining mobility phenomena it is also interesting to consider residential mobility. According to a recent Eurobarometer survey[31] European citizens do not change residence very often: 38% of them, on average, have moved at least once within the last ten years (an annual mobility rate of 7.3%, i.e. half of the American mobility levels). Of those who moved, the majority (58%) have done so only once, with 20% having moved house twice and 10% three times. But these European averages mask significant differences between the Member States. Moreover there is a clear North-South (plus Ireland) divide.

- **Citizens from Northern Europe have changed residence more often within the last ten years...**: Finland has the highest level of geographical mobility: 59% of Finnish have changed residence at least once, followed by Danish, Swedish, Dutch and British. Moreover, these European Member States where most people have moved, are also the ones where people have moved house most often: This correlation is particularly strong in the Nordic countries, where the percentages of people who have moved house several times in ten years are greater than the European average. For example: 16% of Finnish, 14% of Danish and 12% of Swedish people who have moved house within the last ten years have done so five times (compared to an EU-15 average of 7%).

- **... while those from the South are more sedentary**: At the other end of the scale, the majority of citizens from Southern Europe (plus the Irish) did not move house in the last ten years. It is especially the case of Italians, who are the most sedentary citizens out of the fifteen Member States. Another indication of low mobility of citizens from the South is that of those who moved, most of them did it just once: 77% in Portugal, followed by Italy and Greece.

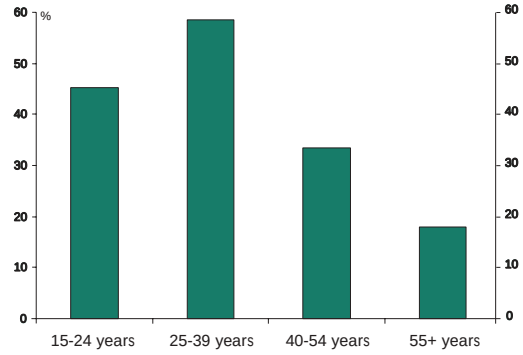
- **There are no significant differences between men and women** since 38 % of men have changed residence at least once within the last ten years compared to 37 % of women.

- **The 25-39 years age group move the most...**: People between 25 and 39 years of age show the largest percentage of moves since almost 60% of them have relocated at least once within the last ten years. People in the 15 to 24 age bracket come second at about 45%, followed by the 40 to 54 year olds at about 34%. People aged over 55 years old have moved house the least at about 18%.

**Graph 9 Percentage of people who have moved in the last 10 years**


Source: Eurobarometer 54.2

**Graph 10 Percentage of people who have moved house, by age group**




Source: Eurobarometer 54.2

***The number of moves decreases with distance***

The analysis above addresses all types of migrations, however, one can distinguish between several types of move when examining the proximity to the former place of residence. Moving to another house in the same city or village is the most common type of mobility, with other moves being less common as distance increases.

| Table 1 Moving house at least once... | EU-15 |
|---|---|
| within the same town or village? | 68.2 |
| to another town or village, but within the same region? | 36.3 |
| to another region, but within the same country? | 21.2 |
| to another country, but one within the European Union? | 4.4 |
| to another country outside the European Union ? | 4.7 |

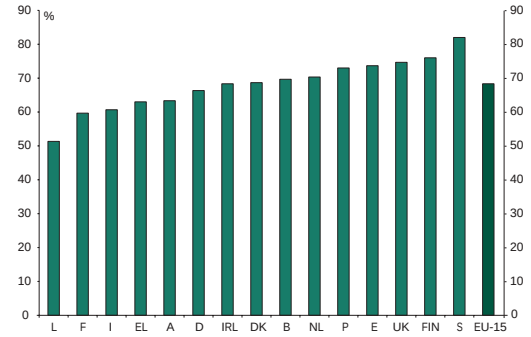
Source: Eurobarometer 54.2 (2001)

31 Eurobarometer 54.2 (2001)

- **Europeans move house most often within their own town or village**: Of the people that have moved house, more than 68% on average have moved at least once within the same city or town. Higher percentages are observed in Sweden (82%), Finland and the UK, and lower percentages are observed in Luxembourg (53%), France and Italy.

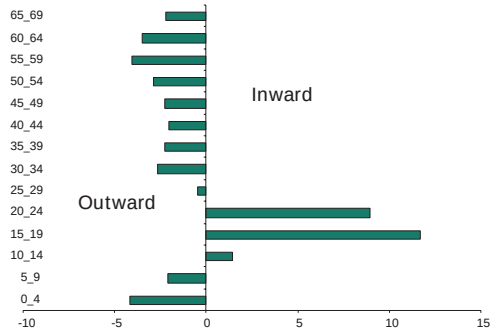
- **Moves within the same region are also quite common, while interregional mobility is relatively less common**: On average, more than a third of the people who moved during the last ten years chose a new place of residence in another city, town or village within the same region, while just over 20% of people relocated to another region of the same country. People from Mediterranean countries (followed by Irish) appear to be more reluctant when it comes to inter-regional mobility. Nevertheless, for these types of mobility the comparisons among Member States have to be relativised given the difficulties of interpretation caused by the concept "region" used in this survey[32].

**Graph 11 Percentage of people who have moved once or more within the same city or town within the last 10 years**




Source: Eurobarometer 54.2

**Graph 12 Net 5-year mobility rate in urban regions* - 1994-1999****




* Average (unweighted) of 9 urban (NUTS2) regions (Brussels, Berlin, Bremen, Hamburg, Vienna, Madrid, Ile-de-France, Stockholm, Zuid-Holland).

** All in 1994-1999 except Ile de France 1993-1998

Source: Eurostat

***Young people are more attracted by urban regions***

Interregional mobility is mainly characterised firstly by the inflow into urban regions of young people, and secondly by the outflow of people reaching the end of their working age, and who are either going back to their home region or to coastal regions.

The graph illustrates these trends using Eurostat data at regional (NUTS-2) level for 9 main EU urban regions. The high positive inflow for the age groups between 15 and 24 years old indicates moving for reasons linked with studies or with the beginning of a professional career. After the age of 25 years, the flows become negative due to, firstly, the suburbanisation process linked with family mobility (see negative flows for small children) and, secondly, mobility at older ages linked with the end of the working period. As a consequence, urban areas tend to maintain a younger demographic structure compared to the EU-15 average.

- **Mobility to another EU country is far less common...:** Less than 5% of the people that have moved in the last decade have chosen a new home in a different country within the EU. Italian and Greeks show the lowest percentage at about 2% followed by people in the other southern countries. The only large deviations from the average are observed in Luxembourg[33] (around 20%), Ireland and Austria. This is not a pure coincidence given that these three countries, in the same order, have the highest annual immigration rate for the year 1999: 3%, 1.3% and 1.1% (See 2.1.1).

- **... as well as having lived in a country outside the EU**: Only about 5 % of those who have moved house in the last ten years have lived in a country outside the EU. The North/South divide appears again, with the Northern Europeans (plus people living in Austria, Ireland, Luxembourg and Germany[34]) being among the individuals most involved in this type of migration, while Southern Europeans, and especially Italians (only 2%), are found at the lower end of this classification.

32 In this survey the concept of "region" is undefined and depends on the interpretation of the interviewee. In adition the size and population density of different regions within the EU vary considerably.

33 Luxembourg is a very specific case with a large share of its population being citizens of other EU Member States. The case of Ireland is also special: Irish people figure amongst the most sedentary citizens in Europe; but they are in the top group of mobility only when it comes to mobility from another country. The significantly high flows between Ireland and UK (and USA) could be the cause of this.

34 Austria and Germany are countries with significant level of shares of third-country nationals.

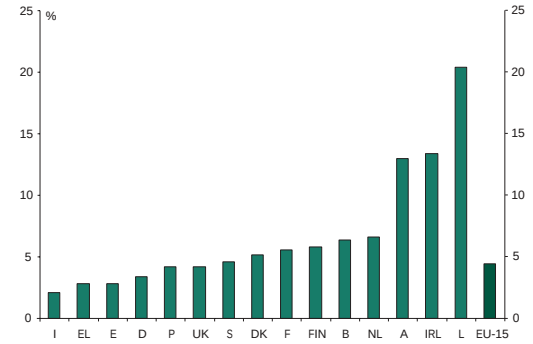
### *Higher mobility in the USA than in the EU, but with similar patterns*

The study "*An Overview of Labour Mobility in the United States*" by F. W. Horvarth (U.S. Bureau of Labour Statistics) demonstrates that, while the United States is a highly mobile country (around 15% of Americans change residence each year, twice as much as the EU average), the main characteristics of these movements are not very different from those which have been found in the Eurobarometer for the Union.

As for the European Union, short-distance moves are predominant: The majority of geographical mobility in the United States relates to intra-county moves (almost 60%) while movements between different counties within the same State make up around 20% of the total annual movements, and 15% of the movements relate to moving between different states.

The reasons for moving in the United States are not very different from those found in the EU. Most of the short-distance movements are mainly related to housing and life-cycle considerations, while job-related reasons only concern 18% (20% for men, 16% for women) of the total mobility (slightly higher than the share of 15% observed in the EU). As also seems to be the case in Europe, the importance of housing and family reasons decreases with distance, whereas the share of work-related moves increases[35]. Finally, unemployment does not seem to be a major factor behind most moves of Americans – the same pattern can be seen from the answers of EU citizens to the Eurobarometer.

**Graph 13 Percent of people who have moved to another country once or more within the European Union**




Source: Eurobarometer 54.2

### *People living in the EU essentially move house for family and housing reasons*

In analysing the motivations of people in relation to changing residence, the following are the main outcomes of the Eurobarometer:

- **Family / personal reasons are the main motives for moving house...**: When the 38% of people who moved were asked what made them move house in the last ten years, 54% cited family and personal reasons as their motivation[36], followed by housing related reasons ("not satisfied with where you were living") with 18%.

- **... while motivations related to work concern only a small share**: Professional reasons only come in third place in terms of importance (15%). Financial reasons are cited by nearly 9% of the people who have moved house and, finally, not liking the people in the area is the main reason for moving at about 3%. These results are in line with the main conclusions of a recent study about the mobility in the United States (see box above).

- **Family reasons affect more women, while work affects more men**: The suggestion "for family / personal reasons" was chosen by 57% of women and 51% of men, while 18% of men and 12% of women replied "for professional reasons". The other answers show few gender differences.

- **People below 39 years old moved more for work reasons**: All the age groups show a similar pattern of answers with a predominance of the family / personal reasons, but it is within 25-39 year olds that we find the greatest proportion of people citing professional reasons (17%), followed by 15-24 year olds (16%), compared with only 8% for 55 years old and over.

- **EU citizens are mainly satisfied with their place of residence...**: Looking at why 62% of European citizens have not moved house within the last ten years, most people declared to be satisfied with where they live. Cited in 81% of cases, this is the principle reason for their sedentary lifestyle. The level of satisfaction increases with the age of the people interviewed, with a maximum of 87% for those aged 55 and above. This "home sweet home" attitude eclipses all other reasons which might have explained why these citizens gave up the idea of moving house. Nevertheless, some other reasons, mainly financial or family (around 8% for each) were also highlighted as impediments to moving house.

35 Work-related moves represent only 6% of the movements within the same country, but about a quarter of the intra-State moves between different counties, one-third of the inter-State movements (within the same statistical region), and around one-half of the movements between States placed in different statistical regions (i.e. different parts of the country) of the USA.

36 The family / personal reasons are very often linked with the transitions to different stages of the life cycle -i.e. the change of residence can be caused by a marriage or the formation of a new couple, a birth, the independence from the parents' household, etc.

- **However, professional reasons emerge as an important factor driving future moves**: When the citizens who intend to move house within the next five years (19% of total) were questioned on the factors which may influence them to move, they cited the following three main reasons: family and personal reasons in first position (46% of mentions), followed by professional reasons (27%) and reasons related to living conditions ("not satisfied with where I live", with 17%). It appears that the importance of work as a factor driving geographical mobility is gradually increasing, in terms of the perception of the EU citizens.

| Table 2 Reasons for changing residence... | ...in the next 5 years | ... in your most recent move |
|---|---|---|
| For family or personal reasons | 45.9 % | 53.9 % |
| For professional reasons | 27.4 % | 15.2 % |
| You aren't (weren't) satisfied with where you live | 16.6 % | 18.0 % |
| Other reasons | 16.2 % | 16.2 % |
| For financial reasons | 9.9 % | 8.5 % |
| You don't like (didn't like) the people living in your area | 5.4 % | 3.4 % |

Source: Eurobarometer 54.2 (2001)

## 2.2 Living conditions

This year, the section on living conditions focuses on those areas which may play a role in either facilitaing or inhibiting geographical movement of people, namely employment, education, quality of housing, and developments in transport and commuting.

**In brief**

- **Employment situation of third country nationals**. The employment rate of third country nationals is significantly lower than the rate for EU nationals: 51% compared to 63%. This gap is wider when considering the situation of women from third countries, while it is narrower when considering only young people. Most of the working third country nationals tend to concentrate in the lower end of the labour market.

- **Education and migration.** The educational distribution of EU citizens living in another Member State tends to be more favourable than in their homeland. The exceptions are Greeks and Portuguese and to a lesser extent, Italians and Spaniards.

  Third country nationals aged 25-64 living in the EU exhibit a wide range of educational attainment levels. People from North America, Russia and Asia are far more likely to have achieved a high level of educational attainment compared with the Turks and North Africans living in EU-15. Similarly, they are also more likely to have a higher occupational status.

  The share of nationals coming from the other 12 applicant countries with a high educational level is slightly higher than the EU average. Despite the fact that nationals from these countries also have lower shares of people with low educational level than EU nationals, 47% of them hold a low occupational position compared to 32% of EU nationals.

- **Housing.** The availability of affordable and good quality housing plays an important role in people's decisions to change residence. In 1997, just under 20% of EU citizens reported themselves dissatisfied with their housing. The average price of dwellings has increased significantly over the last ten years (1990 to 2000) in most Member States. The most dramatic increases are found in Ireland and the Netherlands. The proportion of household spending devoted to housing (i.e. housing, water, electricity, gas and other fuels) varies among the Member States - from just under 20% in Portugal to slightly over 30% in Denmark.

- **Transport and Commuting.** It takes less than 20 minutes for nearly 60% of Europeans to get to work (or place of study). On average it takes people more time to get to their nearest hospital or cinema than to go to work, but this varies somewhat among the Member states.

  Since 1970 there has been a sustained rise in the demand for passenger transport in EU-15. Between 1970 and 1998 car use has increased by 118% (from 4,661 to 10,176 km per capita), bus use by 35% (from 823 -1,109 km) and rail use by 21% from 637 to 773 km/per capita. Air transport shows a marked increase of 171% in usage over the same period - from 460 to 1,247 km travelled per capita.

### 2.2.1 Migration and the labour market

EU citizens living in another Member State have higher employment rates and lower unemployment rates than nationals in their homeland and non-EU citizens living in the EU. This may be due to the fact that the move to another Member State was specifically for taking up a job opportunity.

Non-EU nationals account for 3.4% of the total population of the European Union, 3.6% of the working age (15-64) population, 2.9% of the labour force and 6.4% of the unemployed population. The employment rate of third country nationals is significantly lower than the rate for EU nationals: 51 % compared to 63%. This difference is hardly noticeable when considering nationals from the applicant countries, except for people from Turkey where the difference is very large. This gap in employment rates is also wider when considering women from third countries. Looking at unemployment rates among the 15-24 age group the differences are less obvious: the average unemployment rate lies at 16 % for EU nationals, 14% for nationals from 12 applicant countries, 15% for people from Turkey, and 21% for other thid country nationals. Unemployment rates are strongly correlated to educational levels: the lower the educational level, the higher the unemployment rate.

Foreign workers tend to concentrate in specific job sectors. Considering the male workforce, the three sectors of manufacturing, construction and hotels and restaurants employ 55% of the third country nationals as compared to 40% of EU citizens. In contrast, public administration employs 8% of the workers with Union citizenship and a mere 1.5% of those with 3rd country citizenship.

Women coming from a third country tend to work mainly in the hotel and restaurant sector and in domestic services. The last sector is only marginal in Northern Europe (0.1% in Sweden and in the Netherlands) but remains large in the South of Europe. Its estimated share of overall employment ranges from 3.5% in Greece to more than 6.5% in Portugal and Spain. In Greece, 56% of people working in domestic services are non-nationals, coming from Albania or the applicant countries.

However, labour related migration is not only that of low skilled workers. In recent years, Member States have been more selective and favoured highly skilled workers, e.g. information scientists in Germany. In the UK, 80% of work permits are granted to highly skilled workers[37].

### 2.2.2 Education and Skill level

This section examines the educational levels of foreigners living in EU-15. Two analyses[38] are presented: the educational levels of third country nationals and of EU citizens living in another Member State.

#### *Educational levels of third country nationals living in EU-15*

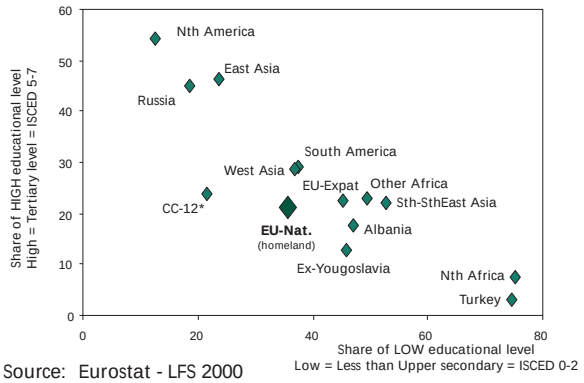
Third country nationals aged 25-64 living in the EU exhibit a wide range of educational attainment levels. A comparison with the EU-15 average education level, reveals that at the top end of the scale there is a relatively high proportion of people from North America, Russia or East Asia with tertiary level education. Among migrants from these areas there is only a very small share of people with a low level of educational attainment. At the other end of the scale, more than 3 in 4 people from Turkey and North Africa have a low educational level. Almost half the migrants from former Yugoslavia or from Albania have a low level of education. Among migrants from other parts of Africa and from South and South-east Asia the share with low level education is only slightly higher than the EU average and the proportion of people with a high level is close to the EU average.

| Table 3 Sectors of activity | % of total employment for non EU Nationals workforce | % of total employment for EU Nationals workforce |
|---|---|---|
| Construction | 10.4 | 7.8 |
| Hotels and Restaurants | 9.7 | 3.9 |
| Health and social work | 7.9 | 9.6 |
| Retail trade | 7.8 | 9.2 |
| Manufacture of fabricated metal products | 3.5 | 2.1 |
| Private households with employed persons | 3.3 | : |
| Education | 3.3 | 6.8 |
| Manufacture of food and beverage | 3.0 | 2.3 |
| Agriculture and fishing | 2.0 | 4.1 |
| Public administration | 1.5 | 7.8 |

Source : Eurostat – LFS 2000 – Employment for age group 15-99

37 New directions for migration policy in Europe, Krank Laczko, IOM
38 Based on data from the European Labour Force survey, 2000.

**Graph 14 Educational level of the EU population aged 25-64 according to their country of nationality, 2000**




Source: Eurostat - LFS 2000
(Medium = Upper Secondary = ISCED3, as complement to 100%)

* CC 12 = all candidate countries except Turkey

**High-skilled people coming from the candidate countries** (except Turkey): Among migrants from the other 12 candidate countries there is a slightly higher share with high level education than the EU average, and a much lower share with low level education, which also implies a higher share of medium level. It is furthermore interesting to note that the migrants from these candidate countries have a much more favourable distribution of educational level than the average in their homeland, which suggests that migration from these countries into the EU is dominated by high-skilled people.

### *Occupational status of third country nationals*

Many migrants come into the European Union to seize economic opportunities and take part in the labour market, even if for some migrant groups, a large share of people, mainly women, migrate for family reasons. This pattern applies quite well to young people coming from Turkey and Morocco, as shown in a recent study[39].

The transformation of the European labour markets in the last decades increases the importance of education and recognised qualifications for a worker to take part in the knowledge based economy.

The most favourable distribution of occupational status is to be found in the group of workers coming from North America and East Asia. Two thirds of North Americans in EU-15 have a high occupational position[40] (ISCO 1-3), and only 15% have a low one (ISCO 7-9). The occupational rank of migrants from East Asia is also significantly higher than the EU-15 average. The most unfavourable distributions can be seen for Africans and nationals from the former Yugoslavia and Turkey of which more than 70% are in a low occupational position. These differences in distributions are closely linked to the differences in educational level.

However, the relationship between education level and occupational status is not so clear for people from the other 12 applicant countries. Nationals from these countries have lower shares of people with low educational level than EU-nationals, yet 47% of them hold a low occupational position compared to 32% of the EU-nationals. For several reasons, a significant proportion of these workers accept to enter jobs where the occupational status is below their qualification level. Underemployment is also a problem for refugees and asylum seekers.

A literature review undertaken by the Refugee Council in 1999 highlighted that despite apparently high levels of qualifications among refugees in Great Britain, the majority of refugees work in informal, short term, low paid, menial jobs with no job security.

### The main characteristics of the EU nationals living in another Member State[41]

Educational levels vary between Southern Member States and the rest. Greeks and Portuguese are over-represented in the low to medium educational level EU-nationals living in other Member States. The same applies to a lesser extent among Italians and Spaniards. Two thirds of the people from these four countries living in another Member State have only a low educational level. People from the remaining 11 Member States living in a different Member State have higher educational levels – 35% have attained tertiary level education and under a quarter have a low level.

When considering occupational status, people from southern Member States show lower shares of people having a high occupational position[42] than the already rather low proportion in their corresponding Member State. Portugal is the clearest example[43], followed by Greece and Italy, with similar low occupational profiles for the people living elsewhere in the Union. In a "medium" position we find Spain and Finland, where the shares of high and low occupational status are similar for nationals living in their homeland and those living in another EU country. For the people from the

39 The results are presented in a comparative report "Push and pull factors of international migration", and in a series of country reports for Turkey, Morocco, Egypt, Senegal and Ghana published by Eurostat, 2000.
40 International Standard Classification of Occupations; ISCO-88.
41 The analysis of the data from the Labour Force Survey gives some information on the main characteristics of the EU nationals living in other Member States.
42 "Higher occupational positions" designate here the sum of the first three ISCO positions while "lower occupational position" designate the last three ISCO positions.
43 For example, 9% high positions for Portuguese expatriates against 21% among those living in the homeland. Moreover, Portuguese expatriates show 73% of Low levels compared with 46% of low occupational positions in the homeland.

other Member States, high occupational positions are even more common among the people living in a different Member State than they are for nationals living in their homeland[44].

It should be noted that these inequalities, observed in terms of educational and occupational levels between EU nationals living in different Member States still reflect to some extent the post-war south-north migratory moves which occurred at a time of low-skill surpluses in the South and a shortage of workforce in the North. Significant generational differences appear between the older people, mainly lower skilled and the young, higher-skilled generations of migrants from the Mediterranean Member States. This suggests that migratory flows between Member States (including those coming from the South of the Union) are now often determined by the demand for high skill workers.

**Migration, enlargement and the labour market**

In the context of the enlargement of the EU, much public attention is given to potential migratory inflows of people from the applicant countries. Since the beginning of the transition period in the 1990s, economic integration between the candidate countries and the EU Member States has been increasing and has already reached a high level. There is ample evidence that most Member States, in particular, those close to the candidate countries as well as some border regions have benefited from this increased integration. Nevertheless, there are concerns that enlargement will lead to migration pressures and labour market disturbances.

At present, levels of migration from the ten Central and Eastern European candidate countries into the EU are relatively low despite a substantial income gap. According to one estimate there are around 850,000 people from these countries currently in the Member States, of which around 300,000 are permanently employed CEC workers. The 300,000 corresponds to 0.2% of the EU labour force of which 80% are working in Germany and Austria.

With a view to providing a factual basis for the debate on enlargement and free movement, the Commission had commissioned a major study on the likely employment impact of enlargement on both the present Member States and the candidate countries. This study confirms the results of other research that the impact on EU labour markets will be limited (both on the negative and the positive side)[45].

However, the size of the migration pressure will depend on two principal factors and a number of others:

- the income gap;
- the labour market situation in the host country;

and,

- the labour market situation in the origin country;
- the distance between the origin and the host country;
- the existence of a core group of immigrants in the "host" country;
- migration patterns between the New Independent States and the candidate countries;
- culture and language barriers.

In addition to these factors the expectations on economic and social progress in the country of origin will also play a role.

However, the debate should not be confined to the possible size of migration flows and on policies to restrict them but rather focus on the broader issue of promoting economic convergence between the Candidate countries and the EU.

### 2.2.3 Housing

The availability of affordable and good quality housing is an important factor in people's decisions about changing their place of residence and subsequently affects geographical mobility. Housing conditions across Europe have generally improved in recent decades and a recent Eurobarometer revealed that many people refrain from changing residence because they are satisfied with where their current dwelling. This section takes a look at the cost[46] and the quality[47] of housing across the EU.

*Household Spending on Housing*

The proportion of household spending devoted to housing[48] (i.e. housing, water, electricity, gas and other fuels) varies among the Member States - from just under 20% in Portugal to slightly over 30% in Denmark. This percentage varies significantly with size of household and level of income.

In all Member States except for Sweden, the percentage of household spending devoted to housing is significantly higher for single person households than for larger households, since larger living units tend to bring economies of scale.

44 For instance, 60% of High positions among Swedish expatriates against 42% among nationals in their homeland, and respectively 17% and 27% Low occupational positions.

45 The study anticipates the initial migration into the EU-15 upon enlargement from the ten CEE countries to be around 330,000 people (residents) assuming free movement of labour for the ten candidate countries in 2002. The number of employees is assumed to be at around 35%. corresponding to an increase of 115 000 people. These inflows would fall quickly to half their initial level after ten years.

46 Using the latest data from the European Household Budget Survey (i.e. 1999 except for France and Portugal where the most recent data are from 1993).

47 Using data from the European Community Household Panel 1997.

48 In order to compare consumption between rented and owned accommodation an estimation (referred to as imputed rent) is calculated for owner-occupied dwellings

The relationship between income level and the proportion of expenditure devoted to housing varies significantly across the Member States. In most Member States the percentage of expenditure on housing decreases with higher income levels. When looking at households by income quintile, the clearest examples of this relationship are found in Germany, France, the Netherlands, Finland, Sweden and the United Kingdom. The corresponding proportion is relatively stable across income quintiles in Belgium, Denmark, Luxembourg and Greece. However, a reverse relationship is found in Spain, Italy and Portugal where the percentage of expenditure devoted to housing increases with higher levels of income.

When comparing these percentages with previous household budget surveys (1988 and 1994), there appears to be a general increase in the percentage of household expenditure devoted to housing, particularly among the lower income groups in the Netherlands, Ireland and Austria (about 10 percentage points). This may reflect not only the increasing costs of housing but also the fact that the availability of cheaper and affordable housing is getting more difficult for low income groups in some Member States.

*Price and quality of housing*

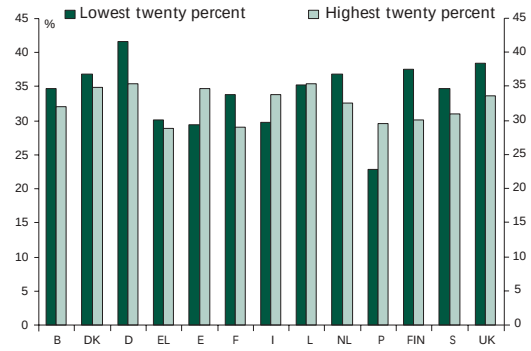
The average price of dwellings has increased significantly over the last ten years (1990 to 2000) in most Member States. The most dramatic increases are found in Ireland and the Netherlands. In 2000 the average price was about 2.5 times more than the 1990 level in these countries. In Finland and Austria, the average price of housing has hardly increased over the same time period (house prices actually decreased significantly in Finland during the mid 90s). It is important to note that national averages mask significant differences in house prices between different regions within a country. House prices are also influenced by diffences in the stock and quality of housing in different geographical areas.

In 1997, just under 20% of EU citizens reported themselves dissatisfied with their housing, however this proportion varies significantly among Member States. The lowest proportions are found in the Netherlands, Austria, Denmark and Belgium (8%, 9%, 11%, 12% respectively) whereas in Italy, Portugal and Greece the corresponding shares are 29%, 31% and 38% respectively.

Looking further into reported problems with housing, the ECHP gives information on the share of households reporting specific problems with their accommodation (including crime, damp, darkness, heating, noise and pollution).

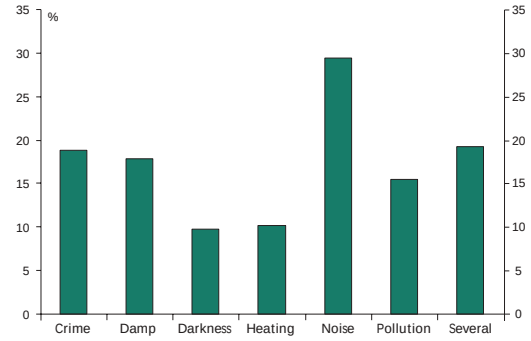
The most commonly reported problem is noise – just under 30% of households reported this problem in 1997 compared to about 25% in 1995. When considering differences among the Member States, Portugal has by far the largest share of households reporting several problems (i.e. 3 or more) – over 40% of households which is more than twice the EU-15 average. Problems with heating are a particularly apparent problem for Greek and Portuguese households (28% and 40% of households respectively) and problems of damp are most commonly reported in Portugal and Spain (by 43% and 25% of households respectively).

**Graph 15 Percentage of total consumption expenditure on housing by income quintile, 1999**




Source: Eurostat - European HBS 1999

**Graph 16 Percentage of households declaring that they experience specific problems with their accommodation, EU-15, 1997**




Source: Eurostat - ECHP, 1997

*Access to housing and integration of third country immigrants*

Access to housing is particularly important for third-country immigrants. Research relating to the living conditions of immigrants points to problems with housing relating to prohibitively high housing prices in the private market, discriminatory practices on the part of landlords and poor reception policies which can lead to segregation and create areas within cities where immigrants tend to concentrate. Furthermore, these issues can also lead to other particular problems for immigrants. For example, a high concentration of immigrants in a local area can often place the local schools under particular pressure in meeting the specific educational needs of migrant children.

### 2.2.4 Transport and commuting

As economies grow, the demand for mobility associated with work and leisure increases, in line with the new lifestyle patterns of individuals. In 1999, household expenditure on transport was in the top three consumption categories in most Member States ranging between 10.3% in the Netherlands and 17% in Finland of total household expenditure. There has not only been an increase in distance travelled, but also an evolution in the mix of modes of transport. As passenger cars and air transport consume more energy, and produce more air emissions, per kilometre travelled than (high occupancy) bus and rail, the changing mix also has implications for the levels of greenhouse gases emission.

Since 1970 there has been a sustained rise in the demand for passenger transport in EU-15. Between 1970 and 1998 car use has increased by 118% (from 4,661 to 10,176 km per capita), bus use by 35% (from 823 to 1,109 km) and rail use by 21% from 637 to 773 km/per capita.

Cars, already the most important means of personal mobility in 1970, have further increased their share. The highest use of cars in Europe is found in Luxembourg, France, Portugal, Italy and Denmark. The lowest per capita usage is registered in Greece and Austria. The most significant increases since 1970 were observed in Greece (+561%) and in Portugal (+465 %).

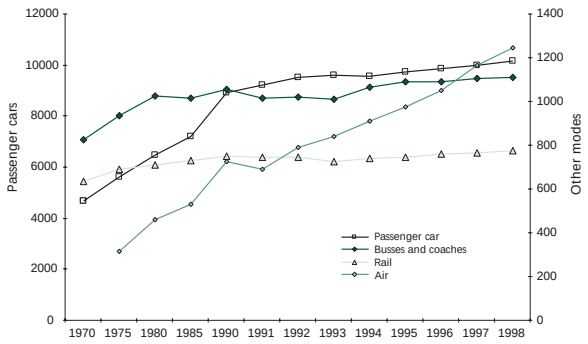
Over the same period, travel by publicly provided rail, bus and coach services has not increased so quickly, only 21% and 34% on a per capita basis, respectively. More significant growth in bus and coach use has been observed in Italy and Portugal (almost three times more), Greece and Denmark (almost twice as much), Spain (+88%) and Sweden (56%). In the United Kingdom bus use has declined (-23%).

The growth in rail use has also increased across Europe (+21% on average) but decreased between 1970 and 1990 in Belgium and Greece. The highest use of rail is measured in Austria, France and Denmark and the lowest in Greece and Ireland.

Air transport shows a marked increase of +171% in usage over the 18-year period between 1980 and 1998 where it rose from 460 to 1,247 km travelled per capita.

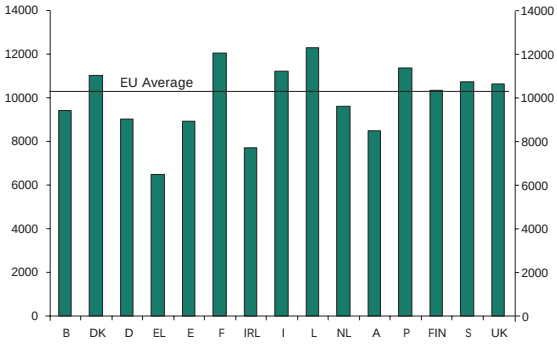
Commuting is the most frequent form of geographical mobility practised by EU citizens. Commuting has increased greatly with the degree of regional concentration of economic activities and with developments in infrastructures and means of transport, which have improved access to various parts of metropolitan areas and reduced travel time to work.

**Graph 17 Distance travelled, EU-15 (passenger km per capita)**




Source: Eurostat

**Graph 18 Distance travelled by passenger car (passenger km per capita) in 1998**




Source: Eurostat[49] - Volume of passenger transport: the unit is the passenger-km, that is one passenger travelling a distance of one kilometre. Data have been normalised according to the population of each country. (ECOTEC- Eurostat - Sustainable Development Indicators.

The willingness and ability of people to commute plays an important role in addressing demand and supply mismatches in labour markets and allows individuals access to a wider range of suitable jobs (in terms of income and content). It can also give people greater choice with regard to the geographical location of their dwelling. Obviously, commuting has costs associated with it. From an individual's point of view, there is the time taken to travel, the cost of the mode of transport and the stress and fatigue associated with travelling. In societal terms the constant rise in commuting has led to undesirable environmental consequences such as noise and pollution.

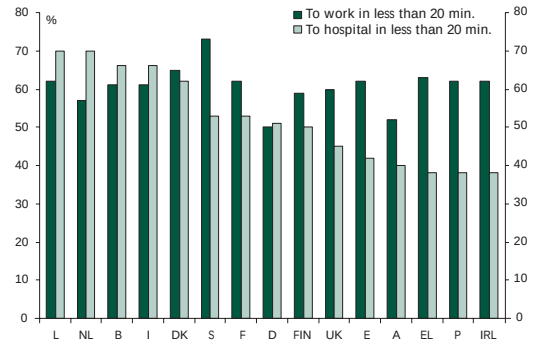
Although commuting times to work can be up to 1 or 2 hours, a recent Eurobarometer revealed that nearly 6 out of 10 Europeans take less than 20 minutes to get to work.

49 Further readings: "Are we moving in the right direction ? Indicators on transport and environment integration in the EU" European Environment agency, Copenhagen, 2000; "Transport and Environment" - Statistics for the TERM for the EU- Eurostat, 2000

On average it takes people more time to get to their nearest hospital or cinema than to go to work, but this varies somewhat among the Member states.

In the longer term, the expected progress in telecommunications, networking and transport, may progressively reduce the importance of commuting and other forms of geographical mobility as a means for improving the allocation of human resources within the labour market.

**Graph 19 Commuting time ...**




Source: Eurobarometer 54.2, 2001

## 2.3 Social Cohesion and Social Participation

This chapter focuses on attitudes towards migrant groups and ethnic minorities and at the barriers to social and political participation for third country nationals. It also discusses issues related to multiculturalism in Europe.

**In brief**

- Mobility is often associated with considerable losses in terms of social networks for those moving to another region or country. The absence of family networks, language problems as well as social and cultural differences may be important obstacles for rebuilding those networks in the host society. Usually, people with higher education levels find it easier to rebuild their social networks.
- In countries where people primarily rely on informal social networks the prospect of losing and having to reconstitute such networks may present an important disincentive to mobility.
- Language barriers may act as a strong disincentive to cross-border mobility. 47% of Europeans claim to know only their mother tongue. The willingness to overcome language barriers is stronger for men than for women, and it climbs continuously with level of education and income whereas it drops with age.
- In most Member States immigration has grown rapidly over the last decade. There is also substantial illegal immigration into the European Union, and many of these people are employed as undeclared workers.
- Since immigration became severely restricted in the 1970's, family reunification has become one of the major legal ways of entry into EU Member States for 3rd country nationals.
- The patterns of asylum seeking are changing. Germany, which was the main target country in the 90s, no longer tops the list for the large majority of people seeking asylum in EU countries. The pattern is more diverse than it used to be.
- The willingness of EU citizens to welcome asylum seekers and migrants depends on the status and origin of the newcomers. Most believe that some restrictions should apply. Yet, a sizeable share thinks that people should be welcomed without restrictions. For citizens from other Member States, persons fleeing serious conflict or seeking asylum, and citizens from Central and Eastern European countries the percentages of people willing to welcome them without restrictions are about 40%, 25% and 20% respectively.
- Naturalisation is the major way to fully enjoy political and social rights. Yet, the naturalisation rate is decreasing among European citizens living in another Member State. This may reflect the emergence of a sense of European citizenship.
- Naturalisation rates for third country nationals differ widely between the Member States: the highest are observed in the Netherlands and the lowest in Portugal and Ireland. There is a growing trend to link the rights and obligations of third country nationals to their length of stay.
- According to the European Monitoring Centre on Racism and Xenophobia, support for multiculturalism in Europe stands at 48% in 2000. But many still fear that immigrants pose a threat to welfare standards and social cohesion.

### 2.3.1 Introduction

The ability of societies to integrate newcomers and the ability of migrants to become full members of the host society grow when opportunities for participation are offered and utilised. These help overcome the barriers related to differences between the social, economic, educational and cultural background of newcomers and the norms, expectations and demands of the host country. Yet, the attitudes of both migrants and majority populations in the host societies are also important.

### 2.3.2 Mobility and barriers to social participation

Social participation is particularly important in everyday life. As moving, in most cases, means parting from a network of social relations, this may represent an important disincentive for people planning to move.

The differences in mobility between the Northern and the Southern Member States (see section 2.1) should be observed in relation to the different forms of social participation most favoured in the respective regions. The last two issues of this Report (2000,2001) showed that the Northern countries record the highest rates of participation in formal organisations as well as higher involvement in volunteering and associative activities, which are less developed in the South.

Social participation in the South tends to be primarily informal and based on neighbourhood and community interactions. People in Portugal, Spain, Greece and Ireland reported the highest levels of informal neighbourhood contacts and the lowest levels of social isolation. Furthermore, the Southern Member States and Ireland still have a significant share of intergenerational households and the bulk of care for children and dependent adults is provided by informal carers. Spanish, Portuguese, Italian, Greek and Irish nationals are therefore more likely to suffer a severe decrease in the size of their social networks and to feel this loss in their daily life when they move a long distance to another region or to another country. In addition, they might be less prone to build new networks and to try to integrate themselves through participation in formal organisations than migrants from Northern Member States.

Among the determinants of the mobility of young people, one should consider the mix of resources available to them from paid work, family and state support. To reach a level of well being similar to the one they had in their childhood, young people in Southern Member States rely more on family support and leave the parental home at a later age. In comparison, the assistance granted by the state to a young person in Northern and Central Europe often surpasses what the family provides[50].

**Language barriers impede mobility between the Member States.**

For those immigrants who do not speak the language of the place in which they live, the chances of integration are severely hindered. The willingness and ability of migrants to take on and overcome a language barrier is crucial for their ability to integrate in the host society. 29% of EU citizens say they would be willing to live in another EU country where the language is different from their native language. The highest rates of willingness are expressed by the North Europeans and the lowest by people living in Greece and Spain. This willingness to overcome the language barrier is stronger for men than for women. It climbs continuously with level of education and income and drops with age. The highest levels are observed for students and for executive level employees.

**Graph 20 Percentage of people willing to live in another European Country where the language is different from their native language**

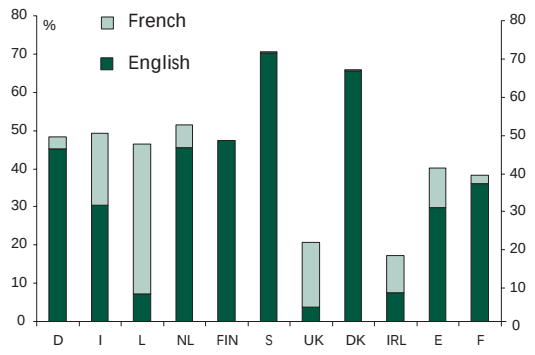

Source: Eurobarometer 54.2, 2001

**How well do Europeans master foreign languages?**

A recent Eurobarometer survey[51] organised for the European Year of Languages revealed that 33% of Europeans speak English as their first foreign language, 10% French, 4% German and 2% Spanish. In Sweden and Denmark, there is a high level of mastery of English, the main "vehicular" European language. 47% of Europeans claim to know only their mother tongue. Taking together people's 1st, 2nd and 3rd foreign language, 81% of Swedes, 80% of the Dutch and 78% of Danes claim to know English, compared with only 39% of Italians and 36% of Spaniards and Portuguese. French is the most frequently known foreign language in the United Kingdom (22%) and Ireland (25%). Considering German as a foreign language in Europe, it is best known as a foreign language in Luxembourg (81%), the Netherlands (68%), Denmark (43%) and Sweden (36%). Nevertheless, in all of these countries except Luxembourg, the most widely known foreign

50 G. B. Sgritta - Family and Welfare systems in the transition to adulthood- European Observatory on the Social Situation, Demography and Family.
51 Eurobarometer 54 – Feb 2001 – Report for European Commission Educatio and Culture.

**Graph 21 First foreign language known ...**




Source: Eurobarometer 54.2, 2001

language is still English. The tendency to know another language diminishes with age and increases with level of education. 59% of white-collar workers, 67% of managers and 78% of university students report some proficiency in a foreign language. English is seen as the most useful foreign language by 75% of Europeans, ahead of French (40%), German (23%) and Spanish (18%). 66% of the 15-24 age group claim to speak English as compared to 18% of the 55+ age group. 74% of parents with children under 20 consider that it is important for their children to learn another language to improve their job prospects and only 7% view it as not at all important. These figures suggest that in the years to come, Europeans will find it easier to commnicate which will assist with the sharing of cultures.

In the candidate countries[52], English is usually preferred to German and French. Yet, German is preferred over English in the Czech Republic, Hungary, and Slovakia, while French takes first position in Romania.

In some Member States (for instance in Germany) third country nationals are requested to have a basic knowledge of the national language before they can acquire a work permit or a permanent residence permit. Some countries also develop specific language courses for adult migrants, refugees and asylum seekers in order to help them with integration in the host society. Adult asylum seekers have a formal right to language tuition in Denmark, Greece, Sweden and Finland and taking language courses is even mandatory in the two last countries. In many other Member States, language tuition is provided mainly by NGO's on a voluntary basis. Most analysis shows that mastering the language of the host country is closely linked to participation in the labour market or in education.

### Living in another Member State

All Union citizens and the members of their families have the right to move and live wherever they want in the EU as long as they do not become an unreasonable burden for the host Member State during an initial period of residence. They must be engaged in gainful activity or have sufficient resources and a sickness insurance in the host country in order to be able to take care of themselves and of their family members. Since the Maastricht Treaty (1993), European citizenship is granted to all citizens of the Member States. Migrating European citizens have also acquired a limited right to political participation in their country of residence: they can vote in elections of the EU Parliament and municipal councils.

**Graph 22 Acceptance of citizens of other countries of the EU who wish to settle in my country**


Source: Eurobarometer 53, 2000

According to a recent survey, 39% of Europeans would accept without restriction citizens from other EU countries wishing to settle in their country[53]. 8% would not accept them. 46% accept these newcomers only under some conditions. European citizens are the most easily accepted as residents in Scandinavian Member States and in some of the Mediterranean countries (Italy and Spain). The lowest proportions of unrestricted acceptance are found in Germany, Austria, Netherlands and the UK. In Germany, the UK and Belgium, as much as one seventh of the respondents found it impossible to accept settlers from other EU countries under any conditions.

### 2.3.3 Migration and participation in paid work

After World War II, labour migration in Europe had taken the form of massive flows from countries with lower levels of living standards and large agrarian overpopulation towards the industrialising North of Europe. Italy was an important source of labour, followed by

52 Eurobarometer – Central and Easter European Countries (CEEB 8 – May 1998).
53 Attitudes towards minority groups in the European Union, EUMC, 2001 (data EB 53-2000).

Spain, Portugal and Greece. As the demand for labour continued to be strong, 3rd countries such as Turkey, Morocco and the former Yugoslavia became important suppliers of manpower for EU labour markets. The end of the growth period (early 1970's) marked also a decline in labour demand pulled migration and migration patterns became more influenced by family reunification and by flows of asylum seekers and refugees. Moreover, the last decade saw a rise in illegal migration, smuggling and trafficking of human beings partly in response to labour shortages and the availability of undeclared work combined with the difficulty of obtaining admission by legal channels for work purposes[54].

**Migrant workforce and entrepreneurship**

Section 2.2 analysed in some detail the educational levels, employment status and occupational profiles of EU citizens living in another Member State and of third country nationals. This section takes a closer look at the economic activity of third country nationals.

The share of firms run by immigrant entrepreneurs tripled in the Netherlands between 1986 and 1997[55] and the share of self-employed in the immigrant groups from non industrialised countries more than doubled during this period. In the United Kingdom, the rate of self-employment for some ethnic minorities is significantly higher than that for the majority population, with one in four self-employed among Indian and Pakistani-Bangladeshi communities. Often under resourced, these workers enter self-employment from a very disadvantaged labour market position and they tend to develop their businesses in markets with low entry barriers in terms of capital and qualifications (restaurants, hair dresser, retailers etc.).

These entrepreneurs enjoy a "mixed embeddedness". They are integrated in the local socio-economic and institutional environment, but primarily through the networks of immigrant groups and co-ethnics which provide them with low cost labour, cheap products and a protected market. Labour can even be paid in kind or rewarded by strengthening social relationships and workers tend to rely on an informal system of social solidarity based on trust and common identity within their ethnic community.

**The migrant workforce and the informal economy**

By definition, the extent of the informal economy and of illegal activities is difficult to estimate. Concerning the number of illegal migrants, it was estimated that the EU hosted 3 million illegal migrants in 1998 (compared to less than 2 million in 1991)[56] . Many economic migrants seek entry through asylum procedures or enter illegally. This creates a distorted response to labour market needs and demands. There is substantial illegal immigration into the EU which Europol estimates at 500,000 people per annum, many of these being employed as undeclared workers[57]. Many illegal residents in the European Union entered with a valid document but have "overstayed".

Given the large numbers of illegal migrants and undocumented residents, several Member States (but not in Northern Europe) have resorted to regularisation or amnesty measures and the total number of those permitted to stay legally as a result is estimated at approximately 1.8 million since the 1970's[58].

Some researchers support the view, that the magnitude of illegal immigration depends to some extent on the size of the underground economy in a country and not only on the quality of the external border controls. Migrants entering countries with a large shadow economy find a wide range of jobs (in agriculture, services and low productivity manufacturing) without having to produce documents and certificates. Section 2.2 showed that non EU nationals are over-represented in sectors of activities such as hotels and restaurants, household services and construction which are particularly difficult to control. Generally, it is easier for migrants with low skills, irrespective of their legal status, to find an irregular job than a registered one.

Migrants are stigmatised when working in the underground economy and in low pay jobs, even in countries where local irregular workers are tolerated. The media and the public tend to think that illegal immigrants are far more prone to cross the border between irregular work and illegal activities than local nationals. This is reinforced by the observed increase of imprisonment of migrants in some countries.

The Communication on a common policy on illegal immigration (COM(2001)672), proposes a series of actions integrating the fight against illegal immigration within a comprehensive strategy for asylum and immigration. Among other actions, more attention is devoted to the issue of employment of illegal residents from third countries. Particularly, sanctions for employers of illegal workers would decrease the attractiveness of illegal employment. Making it difficult to find a job and earn money with a illegal residence status, would immediately question the pull factor to immigrate illegally[59].

54 COM(2001)672 Communication from the Commission on a common policy on illegal immigration.
55 Data from "Working in the fringes : immigrant businesses, economic integration and informal practices" , J.Rath – project funded by the EC – SOE2-CT97-3065
56 Data from "Migrinf : Migrant insertion in the informal economy, deviant behaviour and the impact on receiving societies" - E. Reyneri – funded by the EC – SOE1-CT95-3005
57 COM(2000) 757: Communication on a community immigration policy
58 "Regularisations of illegal immigrants in the European Union", Academic network for legal studies on immigration and asylum law in Europe, under the supervision of Philippe de Bruycker, Collection of the Law Faculty, Free University of Brussels, 2000.
59 See Council recommendation of 27/09/1996 and the 2001 Employment Guidelines which refer to the needs for employment policies to strengthen the prevention of undeclared work.

The 4th and 5th European Framework Programme for Research and Technological Development funded a broad set of research activities on issues related to the theme of "Migration and Social Integration of Migrants". The main conclusions of this research were discussed in a Dialogue workshop on the 28 January 2002 organised by the European Commission. (see http://www.cordis.lu/improving/socio-economic/mechanism.htm)

One of the key conclusions was that deregulation and the extent of the informal economy in the host society can act as a strong pull factor for illegal migrants and undocumented workers.

The discussions also underlined the different dimensions of integration (economic, social, cultural) and the importance of giving close attention to education and training for society as a whole and for migrant groups. Most of these issues are highlighted in other parts of this report.

**Public debate on migrants and criminality**

Public opinion often associates immigration with a growth in criminality and in feelings of insecurity. According to a Eurobarometer survey in 2000, 58% of EU citizens supported the statement that "migrants' involvement in crime is above average". This opinion is particularly strong in Greece (81%) and far less prevalent in Ireland (31%), the UK (31%) and Spain (41%). The tendency to agree that "minority groups can be a cause of insecurity" increased from 37% in 1997 to 42% in 2000.

Related to criminalisation are the higher levels of incarceration for foreigners. A study[60] has shown that in 1997 the imprisonment rate of foreigners compared to natives was 16 times higher in Spain, 13 in Italy, 8 in the Netherlands, 7 in Portugal, 6 in Belgium and 5 in Germany and France. Some social scientists, without calling into question criminality statistics, explain the statistical over-representation by the fact that immigrants are over-represented in the more disadvantaged social groups. Moreover, they consider that people who have stable and well paid employment, are rarely involved in criminal activities. In fact, several studies establish a link between illegal migration and criminality. Illegal immigrants often face great difficulties in obtaining a legal status and a legal job in the country of destination. Young single males who migrated alone, people from countries with serious political and social crisis, people who have not received the assistance of the migratory chain in terms of insertion are among the most vulnerable groups. The attitudes of the media and the institutions may also amplify these difficulties by taking a more severe approach towards immigrants than towards nationals. It is worth noting that the "criminalisation" of immigrants further inhibits their ability to integrate in the host society.

**Smuggling in migrants and trafficking in human beings**

Criminal activities connected with irregular migration, smuggling of migrants and trafficking in human beings, are a common concern of all Member States. Despite difficulties in making reliable estimates of the extent of the phenomena, most actors involved agree that they are increasing. Smuggling in migrants and trafficking in human beings are now thought to be one the major sources of income of organised crime alongside the trade in drugs and fire arms. Trafficking in human beings is a criminal activity that involves abhorrent exploitation of people, in particular women and children. It is therefore necessary to underline that trafficking in human beings is a violation of fundamental rights and this is also recognised in the European Charter on Fundamental Rights. The Commission is continuing to take action to assist and protect victims (e.g. the STOP II and DAPHNE Programs, Commission proposal for a Directive on short-term permits of stay for victims who co-operate against their exploiters).

### 2.3.4 Social networks and patterns of migration

The presence of national or migrant communities in the host country often facilitates migration flows. "Chain migration" or "social network" theories claim that these social networks play a central role by providing information, and by giving social and economic support which facilitates the initial settlement in the host country. The prior establishment of an migrant bridgehead represents a strong pull factor, particularly for the irregular migrants, who are far more dependent on social and other networks for information and basic needs (e.g., housing, work, etc.), than legal migrants. Historical and cultural links, as well as geographical proximity between countries of origin and destination also encourage migration of specific groups to particular destinations.

**Social networks for migrants and ethnic minorities**

Some Member States keep records of the birth place of migrants. Such information reveal how patterns of migration have been influenced by factors such as geographical proximity, former colonial ties, common language between origin and host countries, or by particular labour recruitment strategies. For instance, in Portugal, United Kingdom and the Netherlands, the link with former colonies has played a relatively strong role in immigration whereas the significance of such ties has been low for immigration into Belgium. The effect of proximity has been very strong in the northern countries and in Ireland whereas immigration into the Netherlands and Belgium has been primarily shaped by labour recruitment strategies.

60 Ref.: Palida S. and al., 1999, "Deviant behaviour and the criminalisation of immigrants", in MIGRINF research project funded by the European Commission-SOE1-CT95-3005

**People may have multiple identities ...**

The perception of the term "immigrant" is quite different from the term "foreigner" or "foreign born". A foreigner who opts for naturalisation is no longer a foreigner, but remains an immigrant. His/her children are sometimes called "second generation immigrants" but what does that mean for this group? A study conducted in Marseille of young people born in France of parents with an Algerian origin showed that respondents perceived themselves as having a number of parallel identities. 84% felt they were from Marseille, 68% felt they were Algerian, 63% felt French and 66% felt they were Arab or Muslim, whereas only 22% perceived themselves as immigrants[61].

After 1989, some Member-States favoured **ethnic grouping** and used **ethnicity** as a criterion for access for citizens coming from Eastern Europe and the former Soviet Union.

- In Germany, there was a large inflow of "ethnic German" (Aussiedler). Persons who could prove that they had a German origin could enter Germany with all the rights to full citizenship. Between 1988 and 1994, more than 1.8 million "returned" to Germany under this scheme, accounting for some 50% of the total inflow of immigrants.

- In Greece, a similar trend occurred with the so-called "Pontics", ethnic Greeks coming from the former Soviet Union, who where encouraged to take up Greek citizenship. Ethnic Greeks from Albania were not offered the same possibility for immigrating to Greece.

- In the late 80's, a large number of ethnic Finns (Ingrians) migrated to Finland from Sweden and from the former Soviet Union and were easily naturalised. From 1992 a new law and enforced controls reduced this flow.

### Family reunification as a framework for immigration in Europe

Family reunification refers to the entry into and residence in a Member State of family members of an EU citizen or a third country national residing lawfully in the Member State in question[62]. The right to protection of family life is recognised as a fundamental right and family reunification is often presented as a necessary means for the successful integration of non-EU citizens. It applies to the spouse (married or not, depending on the Member State), minor children and other possible dependants in the ascending and descending lines. Since the 1970's, most European countries have seen an increase in the share of immigration for family reasons. To some extent, this is due to the family reunification associated with earlier waves of economic migration. Available data demonstrates that in 1989 family reunifications accounted for 90% of total foreign inflows (excluding asylum seekers) in Belgium and Germany, more than 65% in France and 40% in the UK. The main pattern of family reunifications is one of the male emigrating and establishing himself before organising a reunification with his family. In Italy, in 1997, more than 87% of men from developing countries received a permit of stay for work reasons, and less than 6% for family reasons. For the women, the respective shares were 55% for work and 32% for family. There are also significant female migratory chains, particularly for women from South America or the Philippines who tend to find jobs in the hotel sector or in domestic services.

**Inter-ethnic marriages**

The last decades have also seen an increase in inter-ethnic marriages and partnerships. For instance, children born with at least one foreign parent in Italy increased from 1.1% of total number of births in 1986 to 3.7% in 1994. 11% of German people in the age group 18-44 live with a foreign partner[63]. Austrians marrying a spouse of foreign origin accounted for 14% of total marriages in Austria in 1998.

Acquiring language skills and having meaningful daily activities are vital assets contributing to integration. Integration into the labour market is important both for economic and social reasons as most of the contacts with the host society derive from the work place. But many of the policies for family reunification restrict the social rights of the united person for a period of time.

Adult family members arriving to join their family in the host society may be denied access to the labour market for a period of time. This inactivity imposed on the migrant can severely decrease the chances of finding a job at a later stage. Moreover, when the applicant for reunification is a man, the inactivity imposed on his wife brought in can reinforce the dependence of the wife on her husband[64].

Schooling is open to all children according to their age. Participation in education increases the language proficiency of the children (more quickly than for their parents, particularly if they are not working), and equips them with the skills necessary to work and live in the host society. However it often makes more appearent existing differences between the values of their family and those of the host society. This can lead to serious tensions and conflicts between children and parents. In many countries local associations of immigrants tend to support the families in the integration process.

61 Ref: Migrations Etudes, 1999, 90, Ministère de l'Emploi et de la Solidarité - France.
62 See COM(2000)624 : amended proposal for a council directive on the right to family reunification.
63 Siena report : "Monitoring multicultural societies", 1998.
64 ref – "Family Reunification Evaluation Project" – R.Bracalenti – study funded by the European Commission

### Asylum requests

Following the end of the Cold War and the fall of the Berlin Wall, asylum applications to EU countries[65] more than doubled, rising sharply from 319,800 in 1989 to an all time high of 672,400 requests in 1992. After 1992, numbers dropped considerably to 227,800 in 1996. In 1997 an increase occurred again and applications reached 352,500 in 1999. During the period 1988-1999, Germany has dominated the list of destination countries but noticeable changes are emerging. In this period, the United Kingdom became the second most important country and Ireland and Luxembourg are new destination countries.

Applicants from the former Yugoslavia were the main national group seeking asylum in most EU countries. In general, the majority of applications from Central and Eastern Europe have been submitted to Austria and Germany. All persons requesting asylum should be granted access to a procedure in the responsible Member State and there are currently discussions on minimum standards on the reception of applicants particularly in terms of material conditions, employment, healthcare, and schooling[66].

### Attitudes towards welcoming immigrants[67]

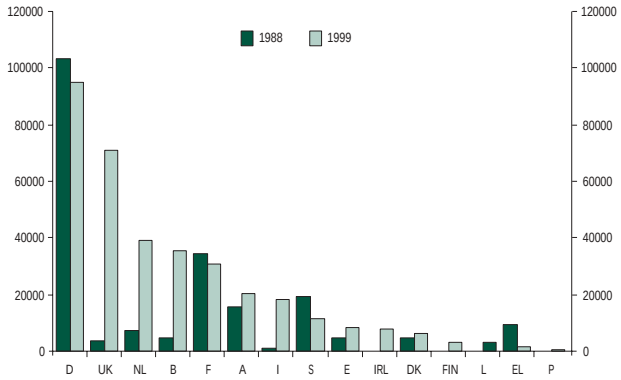
The willingness of EU citizens to welcome asylum seekers and other immigrants depends on the status and origin of the newcomers. Most believe that some restrictions should apply. The settlement of third country migrants meets with much lower levels of acceptance than the settlement of migrants from other EU Member States. Opinion surveys document that people from Muslim countries or from Eastern Europe who wish to work in Europe are accepted without restriction only by 17-20% of EU citizens. Moreover, 14-18% refuse to accept them under any conditions.

A stronger acceptance is expressed for people fleeing a serious internal conflict or people suffering human rights violation and seeking political asylum. Nearly a quarter of Europeans are willing to open their country without restriction to settlers of this kind.

### 2.3.5 Migration and social cohesion

It is important to consider how the processes of public decision-making take place. How are the different trends and values in society represented at the political level? If some groups consider that their interests, needs, experiences and approaches are not adequately taken into account, this can lead to social problems and a feeling of exclusion.

**Graph 23 Asylum applications by country**




Source: Eurostat - Migration Statistics.

**Graph 24 Opening the borders**


Source: Eurobarometer 53, 2000.

### Citizenship and naturalisation

The general trend is an increase in figures for naturalisation in all the Member States. In an increasing number of countries, naturalisation no longer presupposes the renunciation of previous citizenship and may be acquired simply by coming of age, after a period of residence or a period of marriage or partnership with a national citizen.

Expressed as a percentage of the foreign population, annual naturalisation rates vary from less than 0.1% in Portugal to more than 11% in Netherlands[68]. For the European Union as a whole, the naturalisation rate has been quite stable over time, on average around 2%.

65 There are particular comparability issues associated with data on asylum applications. See Section 3.4 for further details.
66 COM (2001)710: Communication on the common asylum policy, introducing an open coordination method.
67 Eurobarometer 53-2000.
68 For Germany: the ethnic Germans claiming citizenship are not included. In 1989-92, this would have meant a 3 to 5-fold increase in naturalisation figures.

There is no indication of a greater inclination of migrant groups to naturalise in Europe, with some exceptions such as Germany, Sweden and the Netherlands; in the last two countries, naturalisation rates rose steeply as part of the integration policy.

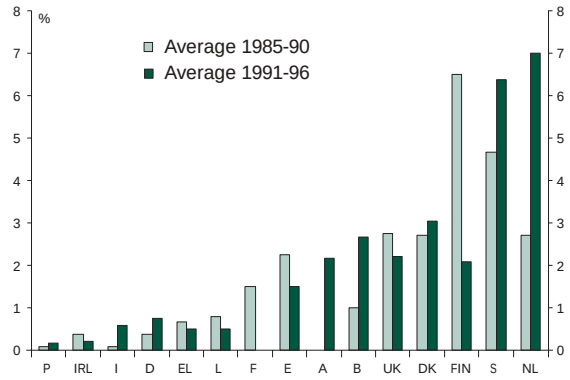
The naturalisation rates are higher for non EU citizens than for EU citizens. Data from 1993 show that in Belgium, EU citizens reach a naturalisation rate of 0.5% while non EU citizens reach one of 3.6%; in the UK, the corresponding figures are 0.7% and 3.3%, and in the Netherlands, 0.8% and 7.2% respectively. Even in Germany, there is a strong difference, with a rate of 0.2% for EU citizens and 0.8% for non-EU citizens.

Among non-EU citizens, a large number of citizens from Turkey, Morocco, India, Pakistan and the Former Yugoslavia have acquired citizenship. In Germany, Austria, the Netherlands, and Sweden, there was already a large Yugoslavian immigrant population and the insecurity caused by the Balkan wars encouraged them to acquire citizenship in their resident country.

Many of the immigrants who arrived as refugees and asylum seekers from Iran, Iraq, Lebanon, Vietnam and Laos applied for naturalisation.

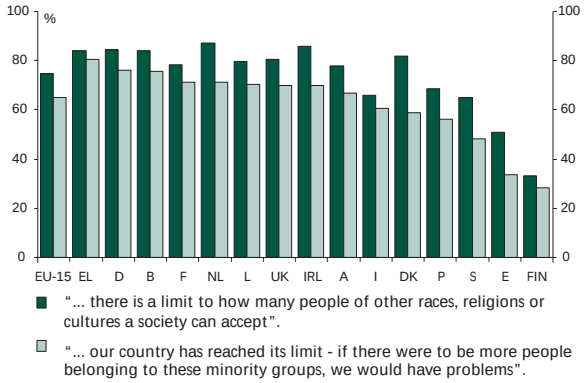
Through naturalisation, foreigners acquire new citizenship and further social and political rights and protection from the state. They nevertheless remain in the less formalised group of "ethnic minorities" or "people with immigrant origin" with specific patterns of social networks and specific risks of discrimination and social exclusion.

**Graph 25 Naturalisation rates**




Source: Eurostat - Data limited to 1990 for F, limited data for I and A.

**Graph 26 People tend to agree that...**




Source: Eurobarometer 53, 2000

## The challenge of multiculturalism in Europe

The European Union is based on the values of a democratic order rooted upon support for individual dignity and liberty, solidarity, respect for human rights, the rule of law and the freedom of expression. These principles have been enshrined in the Charter of Fundamental Rights proclaimed at the European Council meeting in Nice in December 2000.

One European out of two expresses support for multiculturalism among EU citizens (48% in 2000[69]): 74% of Europeans agreed that their country had always consisted of various cultural and religious groups and that this diversity was positive. 71% agreed that "where schools make the necessary efforts, the education of all children can be enriched by the presence of children from minority groups."

**... but people also express concerns about sustainable immigration**: three quarters (72-75% in 1997) of those interviewed agreed with the statement 'there is a limit to the number of people from other races, religions or cultures that a society can accept' and 65% went further, saying that this limit had already been reached in their country.

**... as there are fears that minorities could threaten social cohesion**: In 2000, people continued to express fears that minority groups contribute to increasing unemployment, loss of social welfare, worsening of education and increases in insecurity and criminality. When a person fears loss of economic status and well-being, he/she may find it difficult to rejoice in the enrichment of cultural life by minority groups and be tempted to look for someone to blame for the threat.

69 Data from Eurobarometer 53 (2000); Eurobarometer 47.1 in 1997.

### Xenophobia and ethnic revival

Attachment to tradition and emphasis on "being the same" in order to regain a sense of safety and meaningfulness is a common response when a social group faces stress and uncertainty. Expressions of xenophobia are not diminishing in the EU. Yet, they may be influenced by the subjective feeling that the host country is unable to handle the challenges of immigration. This is confirmed by observations in several European countries[70].

Ethnic revival in minority communities is the other side of the coin. Individuals who experience structural disadvantages can adapt to the situation by putting a stronger emphasis on the differences between the cultures of the host and migrant population. This strategy strengthens one's sense of identity by building on the identity of the community group and valuing its tradition more positively. Ultimately it can lead to increased segregation. Such ethnic revival expresses itself in fringe groups of young foreigners with rebellious attitudes towards national authorities, a return to ethnic values and standards and an adhesion to closed ethnic groupings[71].

It is not straightforward to analyse the complexity of attitudes and feelings of Europeans towards minority groups and towards the best strategy to follow to achieve integration of immigrants. One analysis based on survey data proposes to distinguish four types or patterns[72] of attitudes:

- **actively tolerant Europeans (21%)**: they are not disturbed by minorities, they favour the accommodation of minority cultures by the host society; they support policies in favour of minorities;
- **passively tolerant Europeans (39%)**: they do not insist on the complete abandonment of minority cultures, but are less supportive of positive actions towards these groups;
- **ambivalent Europeans (25%)**: they are not disturbed, but they are in favour of complete assimilation into the majority culture rather than of cultural diversity;
- **intolerant Europeans (14%)**: they have strong negative attitudes, they feel disturbed by minorities, they favour complete assimilation into the majority culture and/or repatriation.

### On the road towards multiculturalism in Europe?

There is an increasing support in Europe for policies designed to improve the coexistence of different cultures in the Member States and to promote respect for cultural diversity. Only a quarter of Europeans consider that foreign people or minority ethnic groups should give up their own culture.

Nevertheless, even the most open Europeans consider that multiculturalism should not become a threat to the fundamental values of the European model of democracy. This model is anchored on freedom of thought, association and speech; equality before the law; equality between man and woman: protection of minorities. Thus a majority of Europeans consider that "people (immigrants) must give up that part of their culture and religions which may be in conflict with those values".

Most Member States have experimented with new strategies and practices over the last decade in their attempts to adapt their political and social institutions to the new patterns of migration. The ultimate goal is to achieve a high level of social participation for all the people living in Europe and to reach better social cohesion.

70 European Monitoring Centre on Racism and Xenophobia (1999) Looking Reality in the face: The situation regarding Racism and Xenophobia in the European Community.

71 "Integration of the second generation foreigners into the society of the Federal Republic of Germany", U. Mammey, 2000, published by the Network for Integrated European Population Studies, funded by EC – HPSE-CT-1999-00005.

72 Analysis by the European Monitoring Centre on Racism and Xenophobia (2001) on basis of the data of the Eurobarometer 53: Attitudes towards minority groups in the European Union.

# Section III

## Areas of social policy concern - statistical portraits

## Areas of social policy concern - statistical portraits

Section Three presents a series of statistical portraits that address a range of social policy concerns for the European Union. Virtually all the main social policy domains are covered: population; education and training; labour market; social protection; income, poverty and regional cohesion; gender equality and health and safety.

Each statistical portrait is presented in the form of tables, graphs and commentary. This year's report includes twenty-one portraits, one more than last year. The new portrait "Women in decision making" is added in the domain 'gender equality'. Gender issues are covered not only by the three portraits in this domain but also by other portraits and the statistical annexes where a number of indicators are disaggregated by sex.

Each portrait (apart from the two first portraits which provide contextual information, one on the economic situation, the other on demography, households and families) is built around a selected key indicator (see following table). Together, the set of indicators provides not only a snapshot of today's social situation but also an instrument for monitoring and comparing progress in the social field among the fifteen Member States.

The following criteria have been applied as much as possible in selecting the key indicators. Each indicator should be: i) policy relevant at EU level ii) comparable across the fifteen Member States iii) available using Eurostat harmonised sources iv) measurable over time and v) easily understood. The set of indicators should be relatively stable over time to ensure continuity. However, a degree of flexibility is required to take account of changing policy needs and future improvements in data availability. Apart from revising only the names of those indicators which are also structural indicators, three of the previous year's indicators have been factually revised (in this year's portraits 16, 19 and 21) and a new one has been added (to the new portrait 17).

A summary of the key indicators with data for each Member State can be found in Annex I. Detailed statistical data covering the whole report can be found in Annex II.

The Annexes III and IV are new this year and present key statistical data on social trends for the candidate countries. They correspond as much as possible to the annexes I and II.

The editing of the portraits has ended in February 2002. Additional or more recent data can be requested from Eurostat Datashops (see list in Annex V).

| Domain | Statistical Portrait | Corresponding key indicator |
|---|---|---|
| **Economy** | 1 Economic situation | - |
| **Population** | 2 Demography, households and families | - |
| | 3 Ageing of the population | Old age dependency ratio |
| | 4 Migration and asylum | Net migration rate |
| **Education and training** | 5 Education outcomes | Early school-leavers not in further education or training |
| | 6 Lifelong learning | Life-long learning (adult participation in education and training) |
| **Labour market** | | |
| *(see also the portraits nr. 18 and 19)* | 7 Employment | Employment rate |
| | 8 Employment of older workers | Employment rate of older workers |
| | 9 Unemployment | Unemployment rate |
| | 10 Youth unemployment | Youth unemployment/population ratio |
| | 11 Long-term unemployment | Long-term unemployment rate |
| **Social protection** | 12 Social protection expenditure | Social protection expenditure as a percentage of GDP |
| | 13 Old age benefits | Old age/survivors benefits as a percentage of total social benefits |
| **Income, poverty and regional cohesion** | 14 Income distribution and regional cohesion | Distribution of income (S80/S20 ratio) |
| | 15 Low-income households | Poverty rate before and after social transfers |
| | 16 Jobless households and low wages | People in jobless households |
| **Gender equality** | 17 Women in decision making | Female share in national Parliaments |
| | 18 Female employment | Female employment rate |
| | 19 Earnings of men and women | Gender pay gap |
| **Health and safety** | 20 Life and health expectancies | Life expectancy (without disability) at birth |
| | 21 Accidents and work-related health problems | Quality of work (serious accidents at work) |

Note: No key indicator has been chosen for either of the contextual statistical portraits (numbered 1 and 2).

## Symbols, abbreviations and country groupings

| | |
|---|---|
| * | provisional/estimated data or low reliability due to small number of observations |
| ° | see the note. The figure may be from another year or may have some other limitation. |
| : | not available |
| - | nil |
| . | not applicable or data not statistically significant |
| 0 | less than half the unit used |

| | |
|---|---|
| PPS | Purchasing Power Standard |
| GDP | Gross Domestic Product |

| | |
|---|---|
| EU-15 | European Union of the fifteen Member States |
| EUR-11 | Euro-zone Member States till 31.12.2000: B, D, E, F, IRL, I, L, NL, A, P and FIN. |
| EUR-12 | Euro-zone Member States from 1.1.2001: EUR-11 and Greece, which joined the euro-zone on 1 January 2001. |

| | |
|---|---|
| B | Belgium |
| DK | Denmark |
| D | Germany |
| EL | Greece |
| E | Spain |
| F | France |
| IRL | Ireland |
| I | Italy |
| L | Luxembourg |
| NL | Netherlands |
| A | Austria |
| P | Portugal |
| FIN | Finland |
| S | Sweden |
| UK | United Kingdom |

The 'southern' Member States are EL, E, I and P.

The 'Nordic' Member States are DK, FIN and S.

# 1 Economic situation

### Healthy economic growth in 2000, but slowdown in the first half of 2001

In 2000, the European Union's gross domestic product rose by 3.3 %, which means a sizeable acceleration compared to the previous year (2.6 % in 1999). Growth among the four biggest Member States was very even in 2000, with France recording the highest rate of growth (3.1 %), closely followed by Germany (+ 3.0 %) and Italy and the United Kingdom (+ 2.9 % each). All of them showed growth rates below the EU-15 average, although all four saw increases in their GDP growth rates compared to 1999. Ireland and Luxembourg showed remarkable growth rates well above those in the other Member States: Ireland's GDP expanded by 11.5 %, while Luxembourg's grew at 7.5 %. Well behind these two, but still markedly ahead of the other Member States, came Finland (+ 5.7 %). All EU Member States, with the exception of the Netherlands and Sweden, recorded growth rates higher or at least equal to those of 1999. Examining, however, the development over the four quarters of 2000, it can be seen that growth was high during the first two quarters but slowed down during the third and fourth quarters.

Concerning the first two quarters of 2001, growth rates continued to fall on the downward trend that had started in the second half of 2000. During the second quarter, GDP growth was observed to be only + 1.7 % compared to the same quarter of the previous year for both the Europan Union and the euro-zone.

### GDP per head rising, variation between Member States diminishing only slowly

In 2000, GDP per capita for each citizen in the European Union amounted to 22 500 PPS. The highest figures occurred in Luxembourg (43 700 PPS) and Denmark (27 100 PPS), the lowest in Greece (15 500 PPS). To make comparisons among Member States easier, GDP per capita may be given in relation to the EU average (EU-15 = 100). This figure for Luxembourg is now a remarkable 94 % above the EU average. The second highest figure is for Denmark, but here the difference is only 20 %. The biggest differences for figures below the EU average are in Greece (31 % below average), Portugal (– 26 %) and Spain (– 20 %). Compared to the situation in 1995, it can be seen that the positions at the extremes remain unchanged, even if the three lowest ranking countries have moved somewhat closer to the EU average. The most obvious change was for Ireland, which recorded a figure for per capita GDP that was lower than the EU average in 1995, while in 2000 it was 19 % above average, placing Ireland third among all EU Member States.

### Moderate inflation

In October 2001, EU-15 annual inflation fell to 2.2 % from 2.4 % in September 2001 and euro-zone annual inflation fell to 2.4 % from 2.5 % over the same time period. A year earlier the corresponding rates were 2.4% and 2.7 % respectively. Among Member States, highest annual rates were in the Netherlands (5.0 %), Portugal (4.2 %) and Ireland (3.8 %) in October; lowest rates were in the United Kingdom (1.2 %), Luxembourg (1.7 %) and France (1.8 %). Compared with September 2001, annual inflation rose in two Member States, fell in ten and was unchanged in three. Compared with October 2000, the biggest relative rises were in Sweden (1.3 % to 2.9 %), the Netherlands (3.2 % to 5.0 %) and in the United Kingdom (1.0 % to 1.2 %); the biggest relative falls were in Luxembourg (4.3 % to 1.7 %), Belgium (3.7 % to 1.9 %) and Ireland (6.0 % to 3.8 %). Over the last months the figures show a moderating trend although since June 2000 the annual rate of change of the euro-zone has passed significantly beyond the 2.0 % stability threshold defined by the ECB. The 12-month average rate of change in consumer prices, which is less sensitive to transient effects, stood at 2.5 % for the EU-15 and at 2.7 % for the euro-zone. Both rates are also higher than the 2.0 % medium-term price stability threshold.

### Interest rates converging

The medium-term development of the yields of 10-year government bonds, as defined in the Treaty of Maastricht as a measure of monetary stability, showed a general fall in every Member State and a high degree of convergence. Since the start of 1999, when the third phase of monetary union became effective, the interest differentials on 10-year bonds among euro-zone members have practically disappeared. In September 2001, the rate differential between Germany, the Member State with the lowest interest rates, and Greece was only 50 basis points, 39 between Germany and Italy, and 33 between Germany and Spain. It is also interesting to note that in September 2001, the interest differential between the 12 countries in the euro-zone and the three countries not involved in EMU has almost vanished.

### The general reduction of public deficit and public debt continues

Public deficit is defined in the Maastricht Treaty as general government's net borrowing according to the European system of accounts. In 2000, nine Member States achieved a budget surplus (net lending), while

for all the others the deficit was less than 1.5 % of GDP. Apart from Denmark, which has, however, been recording a surplus for several years, every country reduced its deficit or increased its surplus in 2000. The general improvement is thus continuing. The average figures for the Union and the euro-zone improved steadily throughout the last five years, and at the end of 2000, for the first time since the adoption of the Maastricht Treaty, the Union's and the euro-zone averages are positive, that is 1.2 % and 0.3 % of GDP respectively.

Public debt is defined in the Maastricht Treaty as total general government gross, nominal and consolidated debt outstanding at the end of the year. At the end of 2000, nine countries had a level of public debt below the 60 % threshold, and three others were not very far from this percentage. Three Member States — Italy, Belgium and Greece — were still above 100 %, but the figure has been dropping every year since 1995. At the end of 2000, the average debt ratio for the 15 Member States stood at 64.1 %, with a figure of 69.6 % for the countries in the euro-zone.

**Policy context**

On 19 June 2000 the Council, based on the proposal and the positive convergence report prepared by the Commission, adopted the decision 2000/427/EC on the adoption by Greece of the single currency on 1 January 2001. As a result, Greece joined the euro-zone, now consisting of 12 Member States, at the beginning of 2001.

On 25 April 2001, the Commission adopted its recommendation for the Broad Economic Policy Guidelines (BEPGs) for the economic policies of the Member States and the Community, in line with article 99(2) of the Treaty. The Council recommendation was adopted on 15 June 2001. The 2001 BEPGs confirm the strategy set out last year to meet the objectives of the Lisbon European Council, and extend it further in light of the results of the Stockholm European Council. In addition, the BEPGs are based upon the report on the implementation of the 2000 BEPGs. (Both the 2001 BEPGs and the report on the implementation of the 2000 BEPGs are available at europa.eu.int/comm/economy_finance/publications_en) They set out a comprehensive strategy to preserve, in the short run, the economic expansion in a context of less favourable global conditions, through growth- and stability-oriented macroeconomic policies; to strengthen, in the medium run, the growth potential of the EU economy through resolute and accelerated implementation of economic reforms and the promotion of entrepreneurship, innovation and a knowledge-based economy that encourage a full and effective use of productive resources and augment productivity, and to prepare, in a longer-term perspective, for the impact of ageing populations. The 2001 BEPGs consist of two parts. The first part comprises horizontal guidelines which are general and apply to all individual Member States. The second part consists of country-specific recommendations that take into account the particular circumstances of each Member State and the different degree of urgencies of measures. Together, they form the reference for the conduct of economic policies in the Member States.

**Methodological Notes**

All National Accounts figures are in line with the European System of National and Regional Accounts in the Community (ESA95). ESA95 is the subject of Council regulation No 2223/96 of June 25, 1996.

Gross domestic product indicates the size of a country's economy in absolute terms, while calculating GDP in relation to the population (per capita GDP) provides an indication, albeit somewhat simplistic, of a country's wealth. To make international comparisons easier, data are expressed in purchasing power standards (PPS). The advantage of using PPS is that they eliminate distortions arising from the different price levels in the EU countries: they don't use exchange rates as conversion factors, but rather purchasing power parities calculated as a weighted average of the price ratios of a basket of goods and services that are homogeneous, comparable and representative in each Member State.

Consumer price inflation is best compared at international level by the 'harmonised indices of consumer prices' (HICPs). They are calculated in each Member State of the European Union, Iceland and Norway. HICPs are used by the European Central Bank for monitoring inflation in the economic and monetary union and the assessment of inflation convergence. As required by the Treaty, the maintenance of price stability is the primary objective of the European Central Bank (ECB) which defined price stability 'as a year-on-year increase in the harmonised index of consumer prices for the euro-zone of below 2%, to be maintained over the medium term'. A more stable measure of inflation is given by the 12-month average change, that is the average index for the latest 12 months compared with the average index for the previous 12 months. It is less sensitive to transient changes in prices but it requires a longer time series of indices.

Depending on whether or not a country's revenue covers its expenditure, there will be a surplus or a deficit in its budget. If there is a shortfall in revenue, the government is obliged to borrow. Expressed as a percentage of GDP, a country's annual (deficit) and cumulative (debt) financing requirements are significant indicators of the burden that government borrowing places on the national economy. These are in fact two of the criteria used to assess the government finances of the Member States that are referred to in the Maastricht Treaty in connection with qualifying for the single currency.

Government bond yields are a good indicator of long-term interest rates, since the government securities market normally attracts a large part of available capital. They also provide a fairly good reflection of a country's

financial situation and of expectations in terms of economic policy. The significance of government bond yields as a measure of Economic and monetary union is recognised in the Treaty on European Union, where it appears as one of the criteria for moving to stage three of monetary union.

### Links to other parts of the report

Employment (3.7), Unemployment (3.9), Economy (Annexes II and IV).

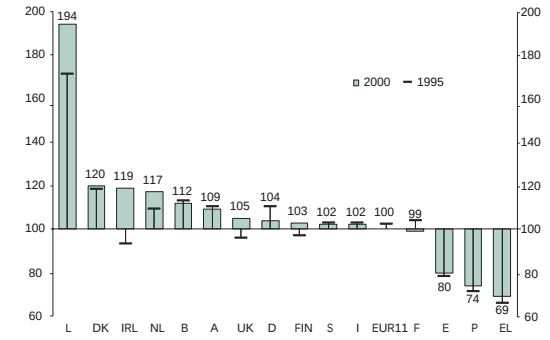
### Further reading

- The Economic Portrait of the Union 2000, Eurostat
- The EU Economy: 2000 Review, DG Economic and Financial Affairs"
- Publications on national accounts, consumer prices and interest rates are available from the "Statistics in focus" collection on Eurostat's web-site (europa.eu.int/comm/eurostat).

| | EU 15 | EUR 11 | EUR 12 (1) | B | DK | D | EL | E | F | IRL | I | L | NL | A | P | FIN | S | UK |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Annual growth rate / quarter on quarter growth rate of GDP at market prices, at constant prices (1995)** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1999 | 2.6 | 2.6 | . | 3.0 | 2.1 | 1.8 | 3.4 | 4.1 | 2.9 | 10.8 | 1.6 | 6.0 | 3.7 | 2.8 | 3.4 | 4.0 | 4.5 | 2.1 |
| 2000 | 3.3 | 3.4 | . | 4.0 | 3.2 | 3.0 | 4.3 | 4.1 | 3.1 | 11.5 | 2.9 | 7.5 | 3.5 | 3.0 | 3.4 | 5.7 | 3.6 | 2.9 |
| 2001 Q1 | 2.5 | . | 2.4 | 3.1 | 1.8 | 1.8 | : | 3.4 | 2.8 | : | 2.5 | : | 1.6 | 2.1 | 2.2 | 3.3 | 2.7 | 2.7 |
| 2001 Q2 | 1.7 | . | 1.7 | 1.6 | 1.3 | 0.6 | : | 2.9 | 2.3 | : | 2.1 | : | 1.4 | 1.2 | 2.5 | 0.4 | 1.9 | 2.3 |

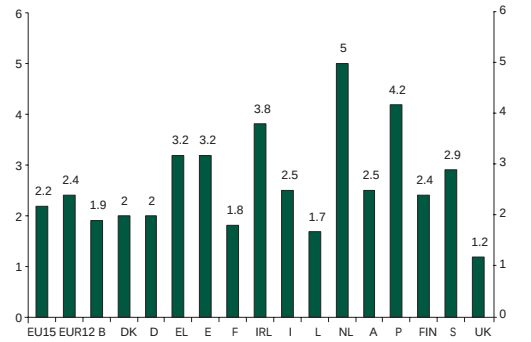
Source: Eurostat - National Accounts.
(1) Greece joined the euro-zone on 1.1.2001. Calculations of 2001Q1 and 2001Q2 GDP growth rates for EUR-12 include also Greece in the corresponding reference quarters of the year 2000.

**Graph 27 GDP per head (index EU-15 = 100)**




Source: Eurostat - National Accounts

**Graph 28 Annual inflation rate, October 2001**




Source: Eurostat - Harmonised Indices of consumer prices. GR joined the euro-zone on 1.1.2001. Calculation of the annual inflation rate for EUR-12 includes also GR in the corresponding reference month of the year 2000.

# 2 Demography, households and families

### 377 million inhabitants in the Union

The population of the European Union stood at 377 million on 1 January 2001. It has the third largest population in the world after China (1273 million) and India (1030 million), but ahead of the United States (278 million) and Japan (127 million). Germany has the largest population within the EU. Its 82 million inhabitants make up 22% of the Union's population while the United Kingdom, France and Italy each account for 15-16% of the total.

Around 17% of the EU-15 population are less than 15 years of age. Ireland has the youngest population (22% of the total). Persons of working age (15-64) account for 67% of the EU total. The remaining 16% are elderly people aged 65 and over. The number of elderly persons has increased rapidly in recent decades. This trend is expected to continue in the coming decades. See Ageing of the population (3.3).

There has been a gradual slowing down of population growth in the Union over the last 35 years. Over the period 1995-2000, the population increased on average by 2.6 per 1000 population per year compared with an annual average of around 8 in the 1960s. Since the mid-1980s, international migration has rapidly gained importance as a major determinant of population growth. See Migration and Asylum (3.4).

According to the baseline scenario of Eurostat (1999 revision), total EU population should peak around 2022. Within the Union, future population growth will be far from uniform. Italy's population is expected to decline early in this decade while Ireland's population is not expected to fall until 2048.

### Fewer children and later in life

The completed fertility of post war generations has been steadily declining since the mid-1960s, but the total fertility rate is now increasing again due to an estimated growth of 1% of births in 2000. The completed fertility changes far less abruptly over time and is now around 1.7, still well below the reproduction level (2.1 children per woman). See Ageing of the population (3.3).

### Fewer and later marriages and more marital breakdowns

In 2000, there were only 5 marriages per 1000 inhabitants in EU-15 compared with almost 8 in 1970. The average age at which people first get married has also increased: for men, from 26 years in 1980 to over 30 today and for women, from 23 to 28 years. Looking at marriage cohorts, the proportion of divorces is estimated at 14% for marriages entered into in 1960. For those more recently married couples (1980), the proportion has doubled to 28%. There are however considerable differences between countries with more than 40% of marriages (entered into in 1980) ending in divorce in Denmark, Finland, Sweden and the United Kingdom compared with 15% or less in the southern Member States.

### A marked increase in non-marital unions ...

In the last twenty years or so, conjugal life in many countries has increasingly taken the form of cohabitation. EU-wide, 33% of young people (under the age of 30) living in a couple are cohabiting compared with 8% of all couples. Among the young generation, there are wide disparities across countries. While more than 70% of young Danish couples are unmarried, only 9-17% of their Greek, Spanish, Irish, Italian, and Portuguese counterparts are cohabiting.

### ... and, as a result, a rise in births outside marriage

The proportion of births outside marriage continues to increase, basically reflecting the growing popularity of cohabitation: from 6% of all births in 1970 to over 27% in 2000. In Sweden, more than half (55%) the children born in 2000 had unmarried parents. The proportion is around 40% in several other countries (Denmark, France, Finland and the United Kingdom). In contrast, low levels, albeit increasing ones, are seen in many southern European countries, including, for example, Greece (1.5% in 1980 to 4.0% in 2000), Italy (4.3% to 9.2% in 1999) and Spain (3.9% to 14.1% in 1999).

### Trend towards smaller households with ...

The result of these and other trends (such as the increasing number of people living alone) is that households are becoming smaller and alternative family forms and non-family households are becoming more widespread. Although this pattern can be observed throughout the Union, there are significant variations between Member States.

While the absolute number of households has increased, the average household size has decreased. In 2000, there were an estimated 371 million persons living in 154 million private households within the fifteen Member States. This represents an average of 2.4 persons per household compared with 2.8 in 1981. Every EU country has experienced a decline in its average household size over this period. Only Spain, Ireland and Portugal have 2.9-3.0 persons per household.

### ... more people living alone ...

In 2000, an estimated 12% of the population were living alone compared with 8% in 1981. The proportion of people living on their own is highest in the Nordic countries (17-20%) and lowest (5%) in Spain and Portugal. There are marked differences between the sexes and across generations regarding the share of the population living alone. More than one-third of one-person households are made up of women aged 65 and over while men of the same age account for only 9% of the total.

### ... and a striking rise in the number of children living with one parent ...

Although the proportion of the population living in a lone-parent family is relatively small (4%), there has been a marked increase in the number of such families over the last twenty years. In 1998, 13% of all dependent children were living with just one parent compared with just 8% in 1983. In the United Kingdom, the proportion has more than doubled over this period. Today, the proportion ranges from 6% in Greece and Spain to 25% in the United Kingdom. The overwhelming majority of lone parents are women.

### ... and a fall in the number of couples with children

In parallel with the above changes, the share of the population living in families composed of two or more adults and dependent children is gradually declining: from 52% in 1988 to 46% in 2000. The highest proportions can be observed in Spain, Ireland and Portugal, due largely to the sizeable proportion (around 20%) of the population living in families with three or more adults and dependent children. This proportion has declined dramatically, however, in Spain and Portugal from just under 30% in 1988.

Persons living in households composed of two adults without dependent children represent 24% of the population although the data include couples whose children may have already left home or children who are still at home but are no longer 'dependent'. The latter account for part of the 14% of the population living in households composed of three or more adults without dependent children. Other examples of this category are households where one or more of the parents of a couple is/are living in the couple's home. This type of household is more common in the southern Member States. See Annex II for data per Member State.

### Methodological notes

Sources: Eurostat - Demographic Statistics. 1999-based (baseline) Eurostat demographic and household projections. European Community Household Panel (ECHP) UDB, version September 2001 and European Labour Force Survey (LFS).

### Links to other parts of the report

Ageing of the population (3.3), Migration and Asylum (3.4), Population (Annexes II and IV)

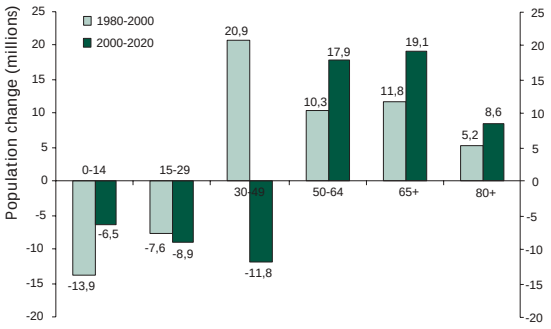
### Further reading

- “European social statistics - Demography”, 2001 edition. Eurostat.
- Statistics in Focus (Population and social conditions): "First results of the demographic data collection for 2000 in Europe", No.15/2001. Eurostat.
- "Family Structure, Labour Market Participation and the Dynamics of Social Exclusion", European Commission DG Research report 2000. "Social Strategies in Risk Societies - SOSTRIS", DG Research report 1999.

| | EU-15 | EUR-12 | B | DK | D | EL | E | F | IRL | I | L | NL | A | P | FIN | S | UK |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Total population, 1.1.2001** | 377026 | 302962 | 10 262 | 5 349 | 82 193 | 10 565 | 39 490 | 59 040 | 3 820 | 57 844 | 441 | 15 983 | 8 121 | 10 023 | 5 181 | 8 883 | 59 832 |
| **Percentage share of total EU population** | 100 | 80 | 3 | 1 | 22 | 3 | 10 | 16 | 1 | 15 | 0 | 4 | 2 | 3 | 1 | 2 | 16 |

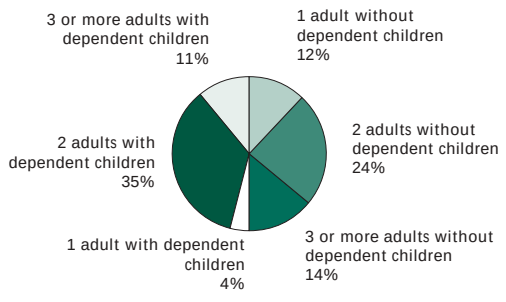
Source: Eurostat - Demographic Statistics.

**Graph 29 Demographic trends by age-group, EU, 1980-2020**




Source: Eurostat - Demographic Statistics and 1999-based Eurostat demographic projections

**Graph 30 Population living in private households by household type, EU-15, 2000**




Source: Eurostat - European Union Labour Force Survey. No data for DK, IRL, FIN and S

# 3 Ageing of the population

In 2000, there were 61 million elderly people aged 65 and over in the EU compared with only 34 million in 1960. Today, elderly people represent 16% of the total population or 24% of what is considered to be the working age population (15-64 year olds). By 2010, the latter ratio is expected to rise to 27%. Over the next fifteen years, the number of 'very old' people aged 80 and over will rise by almost 50%.

## Low fertility levels, extended longevity and baby-boomers' ageing mean that the EU population is ageing

Three driving forces are behind the ageing of the population: fertility below replacement levels, a fall in mortality and the approach of the baby-boomers to the retirement age. The fall in fertility seems to be at its end in 2000, with the highest number of births for six years. Almost 40 thousand more babies were born in the EU in 2000 than in 1999, when a post-war low of just under 4 million was reached. The total fertility rate for the EU increased from 1.45 children per woman in 1999 to 1.53 in 2000, but is still low compared to 2.59 in 1960. Countries with the highest fertility at the beginning of the 1980s (Greece, Spain, Ireland and Portugal) are those where it has since fallen most (by 32-46%). Today, the total fertility rate is lowest in Spain (1.22) and Italy (1.25). Ireland continues to record the highest rate (1.89), together with France, were the rate increased from 1.77 to 1.89 in the last year. Only the rates in the United Kingdom (1.64) and Germany (1.34) continued to decrease in 2000. Meanwhile, life expectancy has increased over the last 50 years by about 10 years in total, due to higher welfare standards and improved medical treatment and care. See Life and health expectancies (3.19).

Between 1960 and the present day, the proportion of older people (65 years and over) in the population has risen from 11% to 16%. All the signs are that this trend will continue well into the new century although in the course of this decade, the rate of change will be somewhat slower due to the drop in fertility during the Second World War. Nevertheless, by 2010, there will be twice as many older persons (69 million) as in 1960 (34 million). Of the 69 million, 40 million will be women.

Over the next fifteen years, the population aged 65 and over will increase by 22%. Growth will be over 30% in Ireland, Luxembourg, Netherlands and Finland. It will remain below 20% in Belgium, Spain, Portugal and the United Kingdom.

## Population growth fastest among the 'very old'

The growth of the population aged 80 or more will be even more pronounced over the next fifteen years: numbers of 'very old' people will rise by almost 50% to over 20 million people EU-wide (of which 13 million women). The rise will be as high as 70% in Greece. In sharp contrast, growth will be negligible (below 10%) in Denmark and Sweden.

It is worth noting that the population aged 55-64 will also grow considerably (around 20%) over the next fifteen years with rises of more than 40% in France, Ireland, Luxembourg and the Netherlands. Only Germany and Italy will experience an increase of less than 10% although the number of people in this age group is set to rise sharply in subsequent years. See also Employment of older workers (3.8).

## Dwindling 'demographic' support for older citizens

In 1990, the EU-15 population aged 65 and over corresponded to 22% of what is considered to be the working age population (15-64 years). In 2000, the old age dependency ratio has risen to 24%. All Member States are expected to see an increase in this ratio between now and 2010 (EU average 27%) although the extent of the rise varies considerably between Member States. Greece, Germany and Italy will experience the most significant change: by 2010, all three countries are expected to have a ratio of around 30%. Meanwhile, Ireland will continue to have the lowest ratio of old people to the working age population (17%).

## On average, 45% of the 'very old' population will live alone in 2010

In 2010, around one-third (32%) of the Union's elderly population (aged 65 and over) will be living alone. More than half (54%) will live with a partner (in a household that may also include children or adults). The remainder will live together with their children (or other relatives/friends) or in a home/institution. It is clear however that demand for housing and care changes considerably as people grow older. Thus, the elderly should not be regarded as a single age-group. While 63% of those aged 65-79 will live with a partner, only 31% of the 'very old' (aged 80 and over) will do so. The 'very old' will continue to have a greater tendency to live alone (45%), in collective households (10%) or together with their children/other relatives/friends (14%). There are marked differences between countries, particularly regarding the proportion of 'very old' people living without a partner but with their children or other relatives/friends: 30% or more have this form of potential support in Spain and Portugal compared with 5% or less in Denmark, Netherlands and Sweden. In Denmark and Sweden, more than 60% of those aged 80 and over live alone.

## Policy context

In its Communication "Towards a Europe for all ages - Promoting Prosperity and Intergenerational Solidarity" (COM 1999 221 final), the Commission concluded that "the very magnitude of the demographic changes at the turn of the 21st century provides the European Union with an opportunity and a need to change outmoded practices in relation to older persons. Both within labour markets and after retirement, there is the potential to facilitate the making of greater contributions from people in the second half of their lives. The capacities of older people represent a great reservoir of resources, which so far has been insufficiently recognised and mobilised. Appropriate health and care policies and services can prevent, postpone and minimise dependency in old age. Furthermore, the demand for these services will open up new job opportunities." The Commission will explore the possibilities for new, horizontal Community action programmes based on articles 13, 129 and 137 of the EC Treaty for those groups of people affected by discrimination, unemployment or social exclusion such as older people. Furthermore under Article 166 of the Treaty, the European Union's fifth framework programme for Community research will mobilise Europe's research resources in order to improve the quality of life, autonomy and social integration of older people. Moreover, the Commission is about to adopt its draft for the joint report on how to increase labour force participation and promote active ageing, requested by the Stockholm European Council in March 2001. In order to adddress the demographic challenge of an ageing population of which people of working age constitute an even smaller part, the Stockholm European Council agreed also to set an EU target for increasing the average EU employment rate among older women and men (55-64) to 50% by 2010.

## Methodological notes

Sources: Eurostat - Demographic Statistics. 1999-based (baseline) demographic and 1995-based (baseline) household scenarios.

The old age dependency ratio shows the population aged 65 and over as a percentage of the working age population 15-64.

## Links to other parts of the report

Population, households and families (3.2), Employment of older workers (3.8), Old age benefits (3.13), Life and health expectancies (3.20), Population (Annexes II and IV)

## Further reading

- "European social statistics - Demography", 2001 edition. Eurostat.
- Statistics in Focus (Population and social conditions): "First results of the demographic data collection for 2000 in Europe", No.15/2001. "First demographic estimates for 2000", No.16/2000. Eurostat.
- "Towards a Europe for all ages - promoting prosperity and intergenerational solidarity", COM(99)221 final. 1999.
- "Family Structure, Labour Market Participation and the Dynamics of Social Exclusion", European Commission DG Research report 2000. "Social Strategies in Risk Societies - SOSTRIS", DG Research report 1999.

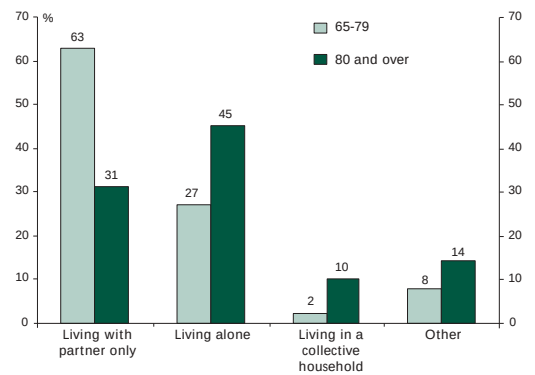
## Key indicator

| Old age dependency ratio (1) | EU 15 | B | DK | D | EL | E | F | IRL | I | L | NL | A | P | FIN | S | UK |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 2000 | 24 | 26 | 22 | 24 | 26 | 25 | 24 | 17 | 27 | 21 | 20 | 23 | 23 | 22 | 27 | 24 |
| 2010 | 27 | 27 | 25 | 30 | 29 | 27 | 25 | 17 | 31 | 24 | 22 | 26 | 24 | 25 | 28 | 24 |

(1) Population aged 65 and over as a percentage of the working age population (15-64)

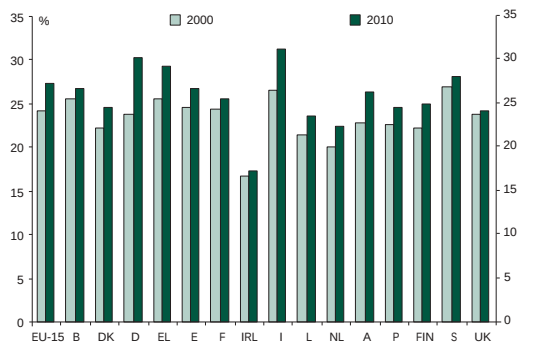
Source: Eurostat - Demographic Statistics.

**Graph 31 Elderly population by household situation and age, EU-15, 2010**




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

**Graph 32 Old age dependency ratio(1), 2000 and 2010**




Source:Eurostat - Demographic Statistics

# 4 Migration and asylum

Since 1989, net migration has been the main component of annual population change in the Union. In 2000, the annual net migration rate was 2.0 per 1 000 population, representing around 65% of total population growth. Around 5% of the EU population are non-nationals (3.4% are non-EU nationals and 1.5% EU nationals). In 1999, there were just over 400 000 asylum applications in the fifteen Member States.

### Important role of international migration in population growth

Since the mid-1980s, international migration has rapidly gained importance as a major determinant of population growth. Over the last five years it has contributed 70% of the increase. It now represents just under 700 000 people per annum. Without positive net migration the populations of Germany, Greece, Italy and Sweden would be in decline.

### 18 million non-nationals in the EU, of which 13 million are non-EU nationals

The total number of non-nationals living in the fifteen Member States in 1999 was around 18 million, the equivalent of 4.9% of the total population. In 1990, the comparable figure was 4.1%. Belgium, Germany and Austria have sizeable non-national populations (around 9%). Next come France and Sweden with about 6%. Luxembourg is a unique case with non-nationals accounting for just over one-third of the population. Differences between countries in terms of non-national populations partly reflect differences in national legislation on the acquisition of citizenship.

Among the non-nationals, around one-third (six million persons) are citizens of another EU Member State and the remaining two-thirds are citizens of countries outside the Union. Belgium, Ireland and Luxembourg are the only countries where other EU nationals outnumber non-EU nationals.

The two largest groups of non-nationals living in the Union are Turkish citizens (around 2.5 million in 1998, of which 2.1 million in Germany) and citizens of the former Republics of Yugoslavia (around 2 million, of which 0.7 million in Germany).

### Around 1.1 million recorded immigrants into the EU in 1999 were non-EU citizens

In 1999, the number of persons recorded as migrating into the fifteen Member States was estimated at just over 2.0 million. Around 1.1 million were citizens of a non-EU country. Germany recorded the highest immigration flow of non-EU nationals (539 000), followed by the United Kingdom (177 000) and Italy (123 000 in 1997).

### 352 500 asylum requests in the EU in 1999

After peaking at 672 400 in 1992, the number of asylum applications in the EU fell to 227 800 in 1996. Thereafter, the trend is upward. In 1999, an estimated 352 500 requests for asylum were made in the EU, a rise of around 19% on the 1998 figure.

The largest increases (in absolute terms between 1998 and 1999) took place in the United Kingdom (+ 25 100) and Belgium (+ 13 800). In relative terms, Finland, Luxembourg, Spain, Ireland, Belgium and the United Kingdom experienced strong rises (more than 50%), largely as a result of the entry of a relatively large group of persons from former Republics of Yugoslavia.

In 1999, Germany received the largest number of applications (95 100) followed by the United Kingdom (71 200), the Netherlands (39 300), Belgium (35 700) and France (30 900). In terms of overall population, Belgium (3.5 applicants per 1 000 inhabitants), Austria (2.5), the Netherlands (2.5) and Ireland (2.1) had the highest rates of asylum requests (excluding Luxembourg with a rate of 6.8 per 1000 inhabitants although the number of applications was less than 3 000).

### Policy context

The Treaty of Amsterdam introduced a new Title IV (Visas, asylum, immigration and other policies related to free movement of persons) into the EC Treaty. It covers the following fields: free movement of persons; controls on external borders; asylum, immigration and safeguarding of the rights of third-country nationals; judicial cooperation in civil and criminal matters and administrative cooperation.

The Treaty of Amsterdam thus establishes Community competence in the fields of immigration and asylum. The European Council at its meeting in Tampere in October 1999 called for the development of a common EU policy in these areas including the following elements: partnership with countries of origin, a common European asylum system, fair treatment of third country nationals and management of migration flows. A detailed programme of action is set out in the "Scoreboard to review progress on the creation of an area of freedom, security and justice in the European Union"(Biannual update COM (2001) 628). The Commission has already put forward proposals for the establishment of a common asylum procedure and a uniform status (COM(2000)755 final and COM(2001)710

final) and for a Community immigration policy (COM(2000)757 and COM(2001)387) together with a number of Directives which will be followed by others setting out the necessary legal framework.

Furthermore, following the Treaty of Amsterdam, asylum and migration are transferred from the intergovernmental third pillar to the community first pillar, with decisions in these fields being shaped in Community instruments such as directives.

### Methodological notes

Source: Eurostat - Migration Statistics.

Population growth rates represent the relative increase of the total population per 1 000 inhabitants during the year(s) in question. The increase in total population is made up of the natural increase (live births less deaths) and net migration. Net migration is estimated on the basis of the difference between population change and natural increase (corrected net migration rate per 1 000 inhabitants).

Total immigration flows include immigration of nationals and non-nationals. Different Member States apply different definitions of migration. Often, statistics are based on a person registering as a resident in another country or on a stated intention to stay longer than a certain period in a country (typically twelve months or more).

Some dependents are included in some countries and excluded in others. The same applies to repeat applications. The details are given in the table "Asylum applications" in the part "2 POPULATION" in Annex II.

### Links to other parts of the report

Population, households and families (3.2), Population (Annexes II and IV)

### Further reading

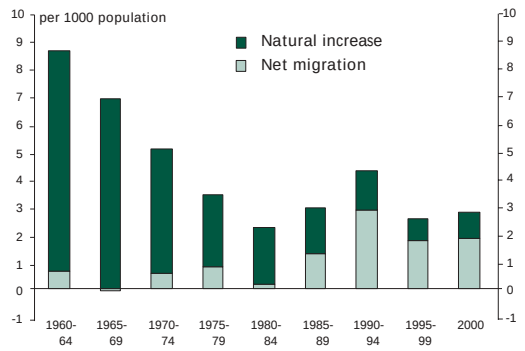
- "European social statistics - Migration", 2001 edition. Eurostat.
- "European social statistics - Demography", 2001 edition. Eurostat.
- Statistics in Focus (Population and social conditions): "First results of the demographic data collection for 2000 in Europe", No.15/2001. Eurostat.
- "Patterns and trends in international migration in Western Europe", 2000. Eurostat.
- "Migrants' insertion in the informal economy, deviant behaviour and the impact of receiving societies", European Commission DG Research report 2000.

### Key indicator

| | EU-15 | B | DK | D | EL | E | F | IRL | I | L | NL | A | P | FIN | S | UK |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Net migration rate (per 1 000 population)** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2000 | 2.0 | 1.6 | 1.8 | 2.5 | 2.1 | 1.0 | 0.8 | 5.3 | 2.0 | 10.9 | 2.8 | 2.4 | 1.0 | 0.7 | 1.5 | 2.8 |
| **Average annual net migration rate** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1995-99 | 1.8 | 1.1 | 3.0 | 2.5 | 1.9 | 1.1 | 0.7 | 4.3 | 2.1 | 10.0 | 2.0 | 1.0 | 1.1 | 0.8 | 1.1 | 2.0 |
| 1990-94 | 2.9 | 1.9 | 2.0 | 7.0 | 5.7 | 0.4 | 1.3 | -0.4 | 1.9 | 10.5 | 2.7 | 7.5 | -1.3 | 1.8 | 3.7 | 1,3 |

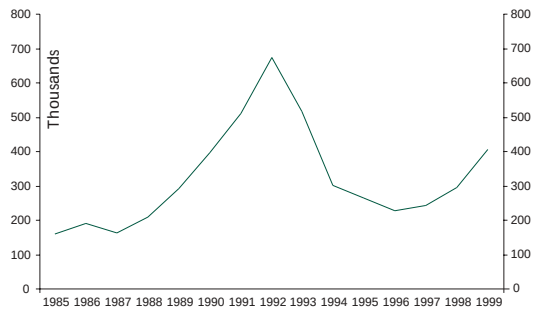
Source: Eurostat - Demographic Statistics

**Graph 33 Average annual rate of population change by component, EU-15, 1960-2000**




Source: Eurostat - Demographic Statistics

**Graph 34 Asylum applications, EU-15, 1985-1999**




Source: Eurostat - Migration Statistics

# 5 Education outcomes

Attainment levels of the population have improved significantly over the last thirty years, particularly among females. Today, more than 76 % of young people aged 25-29 in the Union have a upper secondary qualification. At the same time, however, 20 % of persons aged 18-24 leave the education system with only lower secondary education at best.

**Younger generation is better qualified**

By comparing those currently leaving the education system with older generations, it is possible to monitor the trends in educational attainment over a long time-period of around thirty years. In 2000, 76% of the younger generation aged 25-29 had completed at least upper secondary education (GCE 'A' levels, Baccalauréat, Abitur or equivalent) compared with only 51% of persons aged 50-64. In general, attainment levels are higher in the northern Member States: between 83% and 90% of young people aged 25-29 in the three Nordic countries, Germany, Austria and the United Kingdom have a upper secondary qualification. Greece, Spain, Italy and Portugal continue to record the lowest levels of educational attainment but have witnessed the most significant increases in the last three decades. In these countries, the proportion of the youngest generation having completed at least upper secondary education is more than two or three times that of the oldest generation. As a result, the gap in attainment levels between the Member States is narrowing.

Over the last thirty years or so, disparities in attainment levels between the sexes have been reduced throughout the Union (in the younger generation the females have even slightly passed the males): while 77% of young EU females aged 25-29 have a upper secondary qualification compared with 75% of males, only 45% of females among the population aged 50-64 have such a qualification compared with 57% of males of the same age. See Annex II for data per Member State.

**Almost one in five 'school leavers' are low qualified**

Although educational attainment levels continue to improve, 20% of 18-24 year-olds in the Union have left the education system without completing a qualification beyond lower secondary schooling (the equivalent of full-time compulsory schooling in all Member states). Spain (28%), Italy (29%) and Portugal (43%) have the highest proportions of low-qualified young people. In virtually all Member States, females (EU average of 17%) are less likely than males (EU average of 22%) to fall into this category.

To put the above figures into context, it is useful to look at the activity status of 18-24 year-olds. EU-wide, around half of this age-group are in education/training (16% combine their studies with a job) and it can be assumed that the majority have already attained at least an upper secondary qualification. The picture across the Union is far from homogeneous due to differences in the education systems, length of study, labour market situation, opportunities for young people without work experience, etc. See also Youth unemployment (3.10).

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

In general, higher education qualifications seem to reduce, albeit to differing degrees, the chances of unemployment in all Member States. In EU-15, the unemployment rate of persons with a tertiary education qualification stood at 4% in 2000 compared with 7% for persons who had completed at best upper secondary education and 11% among those who had not gone beyond lower secondary schooling.

**... and increase income ...**

Data show also that a person's income is likely to be considerably higher if he/she is better qualified. On average, the equivalised income of a person with only less than upper secondary education was 90% of the national median compared with 147% for those with tertiary education. This discrepancy between the low- and best qualified was largest in Ireland (82% v 185%) and Portugal (92% v 287%) and smallest in Denmark (88% v 117%) and Germany (95% v 124%).

Data also show that the likelihood of a member of a high-level educated household (i.e. at least one member had completed tertiary education) to live persistently in a low-income household was only 3% compared with 12% among those persons from a low-level educated household (i.e. all members had completed at most lower-secondary schooling).

**... and lead to more training opportunities**

Throughout the Union, the higher the educational level of adults, the greater the training opportunities afforded to them. See also Lifelong learning (3.6).

**Policy context**

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

In the 2001 Employment Guidelines Member States are called upon to improve the quality of their education and training systems as well as the relevant curricula in order to: equip young people with the basic skills relevant to the labour market and needed to participate in lifelong learning; reduce youth and adult illiteracy and reduce substantially the number of young people who drop out of the school system early (a common target has been set of halving by 2010 the number of early school leavers aged 18-24 years); promote conditions to facilitate better access of adults, including those with atypical contracts, to lifelong learning so as to increase the proportion of adult working age population (25-64 year olds) participating at any given time in education and training. In order to facilitate mobility and encourage lifelong learning, Member States should improve the recognition of qualifications, acquired knowledge and skills. (Guideline nr 4)

### Methodological notes

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

The levels of education are defined according to ISCED (International Standard Classification of Education - UNESCO 1997 version). Less than upper secondary corresponds to ISCED 0-2, upper secondary level to ISCED 3-4 (including thus post-secondary non-tertiary education) and tertiary education to ISCED 5-6. The full-time compulsory education in all Member States includes ISCED 2. In Belgium, Germany and the Netherlands there is a compulsory part-time ISCED 3 level education till the age of 18 years. The key indicator shows the number of persons aged 18-24 who have left the education system with low qualifications as a proportion of the total number of persons aged 18-24.

### Links to other parts of the report

Lifelong learning (3.6), Employment (3.7), Employment of older workers (3.8), Unemployment (3.9), Youth unemployment (3.10), Education and training (Annexes II and IV).

### Further reading


- "Education across Europe - Statistics and indicators 1999", 2000, Eurostat.
- "Key data on education in Europe – 1999/2000", 1999, European Commission, DG Education and Culture and Eurostat.
- "The transition from education to working life: Key data on vocational training in the European Union", 2001, DG Education and Culture, Eurostat and Cedefop (European Centre for the development of Vocational Training).
- "Young People's Training: Key data on vocational training in the European Union", 1999, DG Education and Culture, Eurostat and Cedefop.
- "Employment in Europe 2001". European Commission, Employment and Social Affairs DG.
- "Education for the twenty-first century: issues and prospects", 1998, UNESCO Publishing.
- "An age of learning: vocational training policy at European level", 2000, Cedefop.
- "Living conditions in Europe, statistical pocketbook", 2000 edition. Eurostat.
- Statistics in Focus (Population and social conditions): "Persistent income poverty and social exclusion in the European Union", No.13/2000. Eurostat.
- "Statistics in Focus (Population and social conditions): "Education in the regions of the European Union ", No. 6/2001. Eurostat
- "Statistics in Focus (Population and social conditions): "Key data on educational attainment levels in Europe in the 1990s", No. 7/2001. Eurostat.

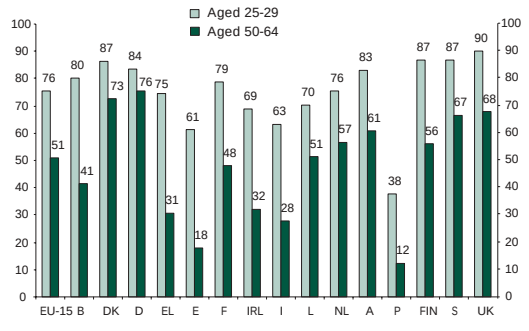

### Key indicator

**Early school leavers not in further education or training** (Share of thepopulation aged 18-24 with less than upper secondary education (ISCED 0-2) and not in education or training)

| | EU-15 | B | DK | D | EL | E | F | IRL | I | L | NL | A | P | FIN | S | UK |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **2000** | 20* | 12 | 12 | 15 | 17 | 28 | 13 | 19 | 29 | 17 | 17 | 11 | 43 | 10 | 8 | : |
| **Population aged 18-24 by activity status (%), 2000** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| In education and employment | 16 | 6 | 40 | 27 | 2 | 6 | 9 | 11 | 3 | 5 | 44 | 13 | 7 | 24 | 16 | 29 |
| In education and not in employment | 35 | 47 | 23 | 29 | 42 | 46 | 48 | 32 | 35 | 49 | 19 | 28 | 37 | 29 | 42 | 19 |
| Not in education and in employment | 34 | 36 | 31 | 33 | 34 | 35 | 30 | 42 | 31 | 39 | 32 | 51 | 46 | 33 | 34 | 39 |
| Not in education and not in employment | 15 | 11 | 6 | 11 | 22 | 14 | 14 | 14 | 32 | 7 | 5 | 8 | 10 | 13 | 8 | 13 |

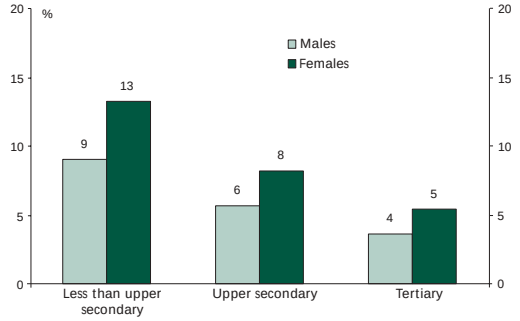
Note: 1997 data for IRL and A.
Source: Eurostat - European Union Labour Force Survey

**Graph 35 Percentage of population that has completed at least upper secondary education, by age-group, 2000**




Source: Eurostat - European Union Labour Force Survey. IRL: 1997 data.
Note: UK - GCSE 'O' levels are included under upper secondary (ISCED 3).

**Graph 36 Unemployment rates of the population aged 25-59 by sex and level of education, EU-15, 2000**




Source: Eurostat - European Union Labour Force Survey
Note: UK - GCSE 'O' levels are included under upper secondary (ISCED 3).

# 6 Lifelong learning

EU-wide, 8% of the population aged 25-64 participated in education/training (in the last four weeks) in 2000. Such training activities seem to be more prevalent in the Nordic countries, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom. Older persons are less likely to receive training than younger persons. Higher qualified persons are more likely than the low-qualified to participate in such training.

**Lifelong learning is more common in the Nordic countries and United Kingdom**

In spring 2000, 8% of the population aged 25-64 declared that they had received education or training during the four weeks preceding the interview. Levels of participation are highest (16-22%) in the Nordic countries, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom. The southern Member States all lie below the EU average. In France, the figure is also low but a different reference period is used (see methodological notes).

**Participation of women varies considerably from country to country**

For the Union as a whole, slightly more women (9%) than men (8%) receive training. The gap in favour of women is particularly large in Denmark (24% v 18%) and the United Kingdom (24% v 18%). In contrast, in Belgium, Germany, Luxembourg, the Netherlands and Austria, men are more likely to participate than women.

**More continued training for the young and the qualified**

Throughout the Union, the level of participation in such training activities decreases with age: from 14% among those aged 25-34 to 3% among the 55-64 age-group. It is worth noting however that the proportion of people receiving training in the older age-groups remains relatively high in some countries: around 11-14% of 55-64 year-olds in Denmark, Sweden and the United Kingdom.

The level of education attained also influences the chances of participation in "lifelong learning" for persons aged 25-64: in 2000, 16% of those with a tertiary qualification received training against 2% of those with the lowest level of education.

**Age of students in tertiary education varies considerably**

An alternative way of measuring "lifelong learning" is to look at the proportion of students in tertiary education who are aged 30 and over. In 1998, around 2.1 million students in tertiary education in the Union were aged 30 and over. Put another way, this age group accounted for 17% of all students in tertiary education. In Denmark (24%), Germany (23%), Austria (22%), Finland (27%), Sweden (31%) and the United Kingdom (32%), the proportion is considerably higher.

**Public expenditure on education: 5.0% of EU GDP**

Although investment in education is influenced by various factors (e.g. levels of participation, length of study), the percentage of national wealth devoted to education tends to reflect the importance which governments attach to education. Public resources allocated to the funding of all levels of education - not including private sources - represented on average 5.0% of the Union's GDP in 1999. A government's contribution to education may vary greatly from one country to another, ranging from 3.7% of GDP in Greece to 7.7% in Sweden and 8.0% in Denmark. The distribution of education budgets by level of education was more consistent, with primary and higher education each accounting for approximately 1% on average of GDP, while secondary education accounts for 2$_{1/2}$%.

**Policy context**

EC Treaty (Title XI, Chapter 3, Art.150(2): "Community action shall aim to ... facilitate access to vocational training ...; stimulate cooperation on training between educational or training establishments and firms;

The 2001 Employment Guidelines have included for the first time a horizontal guideline (guideline B) asking for "comprehensive and coherent national strategies for lifelong learning". In short guideline B requires Member States to develop comprehensive and coherent strategies for lifelong learning, covering all the different education and training systems, in order to promote employability, adaptability and participation in the knowledge-based society. This involves the sharing of responsibilities between all the main actors and particular action by the social partners to negotiate and agree on education and training measures for adults in order to enhance the adaptability of workers and competitiveness of business. Member States are also invited to set, and monitor progress towards, targets for increasing investment in human resources and participation in further education and training.

Guideline 3 asks Member States to develop active ageing policies by adopting measures to maintain working capacity and skills of older workers, to introduce flexible working arrangements and to raise employers' awareness of older workers potential. They should review tax and social protection systems with the aim of removing disincentives and creating incentives for older

workers to continue participating in the labour market.

Guideline 15 invites social partners to conclude agreements, where appropriate, on lifelong learning in order to facilitate adaptability and innovation.

The Lisbon European Council in March 2000 identified four key areas as part of an active employment policy. One of these areas was "giving higher priority to lifelong learning as a basic component of the European social model, including by encouraging agreements between the social partners on innovation and lifelong learning; by exploiting the complementarity between lifelong learning and adaptability through flexible management of working time and job rotation; and by introducing a European award for particularly progressive firms. Progress towards these goals should be benchmarked; ". The Lisbon Conclusions call for increased investment in human resources.

Social Policy Agenda (COM(2000) 379 final), Section 4.1.1.1 stresses the need to focus "efforts on improving people's employability and reducing skill gaps, in particular through developing life-long learning, e-learning and scientific and technological education; developing and improving education and training systems so as to implement a strategy for the 'lifelong education of all'."

A Communication on "Making a European Area of Lifelong Learning a Reality" (COM(2001) 678 final of 21.11.2001) adopted by the Commission sets out proposals for improving the participation of Europeans in lifelong learning activities.

A Report from the Education Council to the European Council on "The concrete future objectives of education and training systems" has been presented in Stockholm in 2001. In this the Ministers of Education have adopted the following concrete strategic objectives: increasing the quality and effectiveness of education and training systems in the European Union; facilitating the access of all to the education and training systems; opening up education and training systems to the wider world. These common objectives provide a basis for Member States to work together at European level over the next ten years to contribute to the achievement of the goals set out by Lisbon, especially in the context of the Luxembourg and Cardiff processes.

**Methodological notes**

Sources: Eurostat - European Union Labour Force Survey (LFS) and UOE (UNESCO, OECD and Eurostat) questionnaires on education statistics (for public expenditure data).

Although some statistical information has been presented above on "lifelong learning" (LLL), the notion of LLL is vast and to study it requires a clear identification of the themes that need to be explored as a priority. Moreover, some aspects are simply not measurable. Statistical information must therefore be complemented by contextual information. A Task Force that has been set up by Eurostat to look at, among other things, the priorities for LLL and discuss their operationalisation in terms of statistical needs has produced its final report in February 2001. This report underlines the need of going at the level of the individual to improve our knowledge base on lifelong learning and proposes an EU Adult Education Survey for 2005. In parallel an ad hoc module on lifelong learning that will be included in the EU LFS in 2003 is being developed.

For most Member States, data refer to persons who had received education or training during the four weeks preceding the interview. In France and Portugal, training must occur at the time of the interview for it to be counted.

Expenditure on education for France does not include the Departements d'Outre Mer (DOM).

**Links to other parts of the report**

Education outcomes (3.5), Employment (3.7), Employment of older workers (3.8), Unemployment (3.9), Education and training (Annexes II and IV)

**Further reading**


- "Education across Europe - Statistics and indicators 1999", 2000, Eurostat.
- "Key data on education in Europe – 1999/2000", 1999, European Commission, DG Education and Culture and Eurostat.
- "The transition from education to working life: Key data on vocational training in the European Union", 2001, DG Education and Culture, Eurostat and Cedefop (European Centre for the development of Vocational Training).
- "Young People's Training: Key data on vocational training in the European Union", 1999, DG Education and Culture, Eurostat and Cedefop.
- "Education for the twenty-first century: issues and prospects", 1998, UNESCO Publishing.
- "An age of learning: vocational training policy at European level", 2000, Cedefop.
- "Living conditions in Europe, statistical pocketbook", 2000 edition. Eurostat.
- Statistics in Focus (Population and social conditions):"Educating young Europeans - Similarities and differences between the EU Member States and the PHARE countries", No.14/2000. "Public expenditure on education in the EU in 1997", No.8/2000. Eurostat.
- "Making a European Area of Lifelong Learning a Reality", COM(2001) 678 final of 21.11.2001.

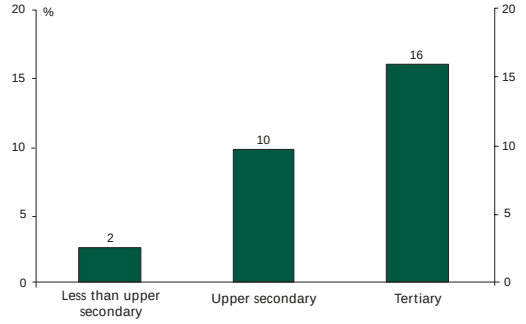
## Key indicator

**Lifelong learning** (adult participation in education and training)
Percentage of population, aged 25-64, having participated in education or training in the last four weeks, 2000

| | EU-15 | B | DK | D | EL | E | F | IRL | I | L | NL | A | P | FIN | S | UK |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total, 25-64 | 8 | 7 | 21 | 5 | 1 | 5 | 3° | 5° | 5 | 5 | 16 | 8° | 3° | 20 | 22 | 21 |
| 25-34 | 14 | 11 | 30 | 13 | 3 | 12 | 7 | 9 | 11 | 8 | 24 | 14 | 8 | 27 | 28 | 25 |
| 35-44 | 8 | 8 | 22 | 5 | 0 | 3 | 2 | 5 | 4 | 5 | 17 | 8 | 3 | 22 | 23 | 23 |
| 45-54 | 6 | 5 | 18 | 3 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 3 | 3 | 4 | 11 | 5 | 1 | 19 | 19 | 19 |
| 55-64 | 3 | 2 | 11 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 6 | 2 | 0 | 8 | 14 | 13 |

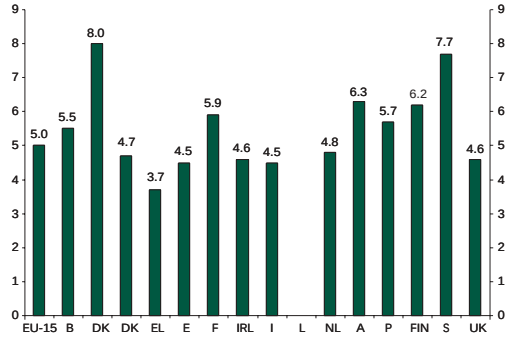
Note: IRL, A - 1997 data. F, P - see methodological notes.
Source: Eurostat - European Union Labour Force Survey

**Graph 37 Lifelong learning by level of education, EU-15, 2000** (Percentage of population, aged 25-64, having participated in education or training in the last four weeks)




Notes: UK - GCSE 'O' levels are included under upper secondary (ISCED 3).
IRL, A - 1997 data. F, P - see methodological notes of the main Report.
Source: Eurostat - European Union Labour Force Survey

**Graph 38 Total public expenditure on education as a percentage of GDP, 1999**




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

# 7 Employment

In 2000, an estimated 166 million people were in employment in the Union, a rise of more than 10 million since 1995. This represents annual growth of around 1.3% per annum. In 2000, employment increased by 1.7%. The employment rate for the population aged 15-64 stood at 63.2% in 2000.

## Significant employment growth in almost all Member States

In 2000, around 166 million people were in employment in the Union, a rise of more than 10 million since 1995. The largest increase in absolute terms in the number of persons in employment were in Spain (+ 2.1 million) and the United Kingdom (+ 1.7 million). Compared with the year before, employment increased by 1.7% in the Union, the largest increase in the last decade. Although in 2000 employment rose in all Member States, in many the growth was less than previous year. But in three larger Member states, Germany, France and Italy employment growth was higher than one year before. Ireland witnessed by far the highest growth (around 5%). Spain, France, the Netherlands, Sweden, Portugal and Finland also had an employment growth above the EU average.

Over this period (1995-2000), the number of employed persons in services increased significantly throughout the Union. In contrast, employment decreased in the agricultural sector in all Member states except in the United Kingdom.

## EU employment rate still lagging behind US and Japan

In 2000, the employment rate for the population aged 15-64 ranged from 54% in Italy and 55% in Spain to 76% in Denmark. The EU average of 63% is considerably less than in the case of the US (74%) and Japan (69%). The gender gap in employment rates in the Union is 18.6 points (72.5% for men compared with 54.0% for women). See Female employment (3.18).

## 67% of total employment in the services sector

EU-wide, 4% are employed in agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing, 29% in industry and the remaining 67% in services. This pattern is rather similar throughout the Member States with the exception of Greece (17%) and Portugal (13%) which still have a relatively large share of people working in agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing. The latter may explain, in part, the rather high proportion of self-employed people in these two countries: 32% and 23% respectively compared with an average of 14% for the Union as a whole. However, Greece has in general among the highest rates of self-employment in all sectors. There are differences between genders, as 81% of the women in employment are working in the services sector but only 15% in the industry.

At sub-national level, regions hosting Member State capitals tend to have the highest proportion of persons employed in the service sector: in 2000, Inner London (87% of total employed) in the United Kingdom, Brussels-capital (86%) in Belgium, Stockholm (85%) in Sweden, Ile de France (80%) in France, Lazio (78%) in Italy, Berlin (78%) but also Hamburg (78%) in Germany, Vienna (77%) in Austria and Attiki (74%) in Greece.

## Numbers working part-time continue to rise

Standard full-time wage employment seems to be less prevalent in the EU. Part-time employment, a reduction and sometimes a polarisation of working hours - when employed persons move away from the standard workweek into both short and long hours - and fixed-term contracts are now common structural characteristics of employment in the EU. The share of part-time employment has increased from 14% of all employment in 1991 to 18% in 2000. More than 21% of persons in employment in Denmark, Sweden, and the United Kingdom and over 40% in the Netherlands are working part-time. However, Greece, Spain and Italy are exceptions where part-time employment is 8% or less.

## Longest working hours in the United Kingdom

In 2000, full-time employees in EU-15 worked for an average of 40 hours per week. The picture was relatively homogeneous throughout the Union with the exception of the United Kingdom (44 hours). EU-wide, almost 20% of full-time employees were working longer than the average of 40 hours per week. Around 8% worked usually at least 49 hours per week. The figure for the United Kingdom was as high as 21%. Men work more hours than women in all Member States although in Netherlands, Austria and Sweden the difference was less than one hour. In contrast, the gender gap was more than 4 hours in the United Kingdom.

At EU level, 16% of employees had jobs which involved them "usually" or "sometimes" working at night while 25% worked on Sundays in 2000. Combining these data (along with Saturday work), 49% of male employees and 42% of females were working also at other times than during day-time hours on weekdays.

The proportion of EU employees with a fixed-term contract continues to increase: from 11% in 1991 to 13% in 2000. Spain has by far the highest proportion (32%). EU-wide, 61% of fixed-term contracts are for a period of less than one year.

### Policy context

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

It was agreed at the Luxembourg Jobs Summit in November 1997 that a strategy should be built on four main pillars: employability, entrepreneurship, adaptability and equal opportunities. The procedure laid down in Art. 128 of the Treaty foresees yearly guidelines, which set out specific targets for Member States to achieve in their employment policies; these objectives are taken up by Member States and transposed into national action plans (NAPs), which are subject to a European monitoring process and an assessment whose results are summarised in a joint employment report; if considered appropriate, recommendations can be given to individual Member States in order to focus attention on specific challenges.

The Commission Communication of 1 March 2000 on Community policies in support of employment concluded that 'Ensuring a wide distribution and high level of skills and knowledge can make a major contribution to the solution of different aspects of the employment challenge, including regional imbalances, employment of older workers, gender gap issues, skills gap and long-term unemployment.'

The Lisbon European Council in March 2000 identified four key areas as part of an active employment policy: (i) improving employability and reducing skills gaps; (ii) giving higher priority to lifelong learning as a basic component of the European social model; (iii) increasing employment in services; and (iv) furthering all aspects of equal opportunities. It stated that "the overall aim of these measures should be to raise the employment rate from an average of 61% today to as close as possible to 70% by 2010. Recognising their different starting points, Member States should consider setting national targets for an increased employment rate. This, by enlarging the labour force, will reinforce the sustainability of social protection systems." (Presidency Conclusions 29 and 30). The target of a 70% employment rate by 2010 was repeated in Section 4.1.1.1 of the Social Policy Agenda (COM(2000) 379 final). The Stockholm European Council in March 2001 added intermediate employment rates targets (67% overall and 57% for women by 2005) and a target for employment participation of older workers by 2010 (50%); all employment rates targets were incorporated as horizontal objective A in the draft employment guidelines for 2002.

### Methodological notes

Sources: Eurostat quarterly labour force data (QLFD) consist of employment by economic activity and status in employment, further broken down by sex and some job characteristics. They are based on the EU Labour Force Survey (LFS) and on the European System of National Accounts (ESA 95). All other data come from the EU Labour Force Survey (LFS).

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

### Links to other parts of the report

Education outcomes (3.5), Lifelong learning (3.6), Employment of older workers (3.8), Unemployment (3.9), Female employment (3.18), Labour market (Annexes II and IV)

### Further reading


- “Employment in Europe 2001", 2001 and its Update, January 2002. European Commission, Employment and Social Affairs DG.
- “European social statistics - Labour force survey results 2000”, 2001. Eurostat.
- Statistics in Focus (Population and social conditions):"Labour Force Survey Principal Results 2000", No.10/2001. Eurostat.
- Statistics in Focus (Population and social conditions):"Employment in the EU Regions 2000: Job creation is driven by the service sector – education is essential”, No. 13/2001. Eurostat.
- Statistics in Focus (Population and social conditions):"Employment rates in Europe – 2000”, No 8/2001. Eurostat.
- “Industrial Relations in Europe", 2000. European Commission, Employment and Social Affairs DG.
- “Employment precarity, unemployment and social exclusion" and "Inclusion through participation", European Commission DG Research reports 2000.

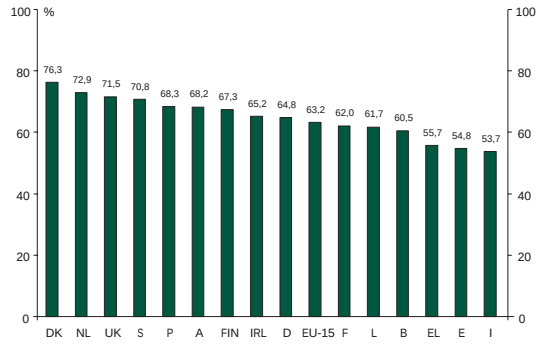
## Key indicator

| | EU-15 | B | DK | D | EL | E | F | IRL | I | L | NL | A | P | FIN | S | UK |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Employment rate** (Employed persons aged 15-64 as a share of the total population aged 15-64) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2000 | 63.2 | 60.5 | 76.3 | : | 55.7 | 54.8 | 62.0 | 65.2 | 53.7 | : | 72.9 | 68.2 | 68.3 | 67.3 | 70.8 | 71.5 |
| 1999 | 62.3 | 59.3 | 76.0 | 64.8 | 55.3 | 52.5 | 60.8 | 63.3 | 52.6 | 61.7 | 71.3 | 68.2 | 67.4 | 66.4 | 70.1 | 71.0 |
| **Trend in employment** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total employment 2000 (millions) | 165.9 | 3.9 | 2.7 | 38.7 | : | 15.6 | 23.3 | 1.7 | 23.1 | : | 8.1 | 4.0 | 4.9 | 2.3 | 4.3 | 29.1 |
| Total employment 1999 (millions) | 163.2 | 3.9 | 2.7 | 38.1 | 3.9 | 15.2 | 22.8 | 1.6 | 22.7 | 0.2 | 7.9 | 4.0 | 4.8 | 2.2 | 4.2 | 28.9 |
| Total employment 1995 (millions) | 154.7 | 3.8 | 2.6 | 37.3 | 3.8 | 13.6 | 22.9 | 1.3 | 21.5 | 0.2 | 7.1 | 3.9 | 4.5 | 2.0 | 4.1 | 26.1 |
| 2000/1995 (% av. annual empl. growth) | 1.4 | 0.8 | 1.0 | 0.7 | 0.7° | 2.9 | 0.4 | 5.6 | 1.4 | 2.1° | 2.6 | 0.6 | 1.9 | 2.3 | 0.8 | 2.2 |
| 2000/1999 (% annual empl. growth) | 1.7 | 1.8 | 0.7 | 1.6 | 0.2° | 3.1 | 2.4 | 4.7 | 1.6 | 2.2° | 2.3 | 0.9 | 2.0 | 1.8 | 2.2 | 0.5 |

Note: EL and L on employment growth have 1999 data instead of 2000 data: figures refer to 1999/1995 and 1999/1998.

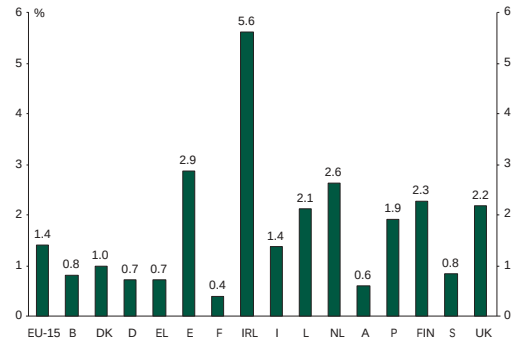
Source: Eurostat - Quarterly labour force data, European Union Labour Force Survey and National Accounts (ESA 95)

**Graph 39 Employment rates (15-64 years), 2000**




Source: Eurostat - Quarterly labour force data

**Graph 40 Average annual employment growth, 1995-2000**




Source: Eurostat - National Accounts (ESA 95)

# 8 Employment of older workers

During the last decade, the EU employment rate of 55-64 year-old men fell by around 3 percentage points to stand at 48% in 2000. The decline may be the result of a combination of job shortages, lower mobility and inadequate skills rather than the wish to retire early. In contrast, the comparable female rate rose by almost 4 points to reach 28% in 2000. Overall, 38% of the population aged 55-64 were in employment in 2000.

### Impact of population ageing on employment

Population ageing will have a major impact on the labour market with the arrival of the first baby-boomer at the age of retirement. For the Union as a whole and in most Member States, the working age population (15-64 years) will stop increasing by 2010. This demographic decline will last several decades. Virtually all Member States are concerned although the intensity and timing of the trend vary at both national and regional level. For example, in Germany, Greece and Italy, the decline has already begun. In contrast, the working-age populations of Ireland and Portugal are expected to peak in 2033 and 2023 respectively. No decline is expected in Luxembourg.

The effect on the labour supply and the economy of a decline in the working age population could be offset if, among other things, the employment rate were to increase among those of working age, including older workers.

### 16.5 million people in employment in the EU are aged 55-64

EU-wide, 38% of the population around the retirement age (55-64 years) were in employment in 2000. The relative stability of the rate throughout the nineties masks important changes among the male and female rates over this period. The male rate for this age group fell by around 3 percentage points during the last decade but this drop was more than compensated by the increase in female participation (4 points). Despite this trend, the rate for males (48%) remains considerably higher than that of females (28%).

Sweden has by far the highest employment rate among older workers (65%) while the proportion in Denmark, Portugal and the United Kingdom is above 50%. At the other end of the scale, less than 30% of older people are working in Belgium, France, Italy, Luxembourg and Austria.

### Employment rates remain high in Portugal beyond the age of 65

Looking at more detailed age groups: the employment rate of the population aged 55-59 stands at 52% while it is 23% among those aged 60-64. Beyond the age of 65, the employment rate decreases sharply. EU-wide, 7% of those aged 65-69 are in employment. Portugal stands out with 25% of this age group in a job.

### Higher proportion of older people working part-time

Among the people aged 55-64 in employment 21% are working part-time in the Union as a whole. This is slightly higher than the proportion of part-timers aged 15-64 (18%). The largest gap between the generations is in the United Kingdom (32% versus 24%). As with younger workers, females (42%) have a greater tendency than males (9%) to work part-time.

### Older workers are less likely than younger ones to receive training

Throughout the Union, training for employees decreases with age: EU-wide, from 10% of the 30-39 age group to 7% among 50-59 year-olds. The generation gap is smallest in the three Nordic Member States and the United Kingdom - countries with the highest overall levels of participation. Between 17-21% of employees aged 50-59 in these countries participated in training (in the four weeks before being asked) in 2000.

### Policy context

The 2000 Employment Guidelines - Improving employability (No.4): Each Member State will "... develop a policy for active ageing, encompassing appropriate measures such as maintaining working capacity, lifelong learning and other flexible working arrangements, so that older workers are also able to remain and participate actively in working life." This was strengthened in the 2001 Employment Guidelines (No. 3) referring to positive measures to maintain working capacity and skills of older workers, not least in a knowledge-based labour market; and review tax and benefit systems in order to reduce disincentives and make it more attractive for older workers to continue participating in the labour market.

The Lisbon European Council in March 2000 concluded that "the employment rate is too low and is characterised by insufficient participation in the labour market by women and older workers." (Presidency conclusion No.4).

In Stockholm, the European Council set for 2010 a 50% employment rate target for the persons aged 50-64 (see Ageing of the population (3.3)).

The Commission adopted on 11 October 2000 a Communication (COM 2000-622 final) on the "Future

Evolution of Social Protection from a Long-Term Point of View : Safe and Sustainable Pensions". Section 2.3 addresses the link between pensions sustainability, the Lisbon strategy and employment promotion: "Current pension systems tend to encourage early exit from the labour market and are frequently used to reduce staff levels while avoiding redundancies. They often do not take into account differing individual needs. Some pension schemes offer insufficient coverage for the most mobile and flexible members of the workforce. More generally, the incentive structure of pension schemes needs to be reviewed to ensure that they become employment-friendly."

Raising labour participation would be crucial for achieving the employment target rates set at Lisbon and Stockholm by 2010. In order to promote active ageing (COM(2002) 9) it is necessary to develop a dynamic-life-cycle approach to participation in in order to identify the underlyning trends and develop focused policy responses.

### Methodological notes

Source: Eurostat - Quarterly labour force data and European Union Labour Force Survey (LFS).

For definitions of activity rates and employment rates, see Employment (3.7).

### Links to other parts of the report

Ageing of the population (3.3), Lifelong learning (3.6), Employment (3.7), Unemployment (3.9), Labour market (Annexes II and IV)

### Further reading

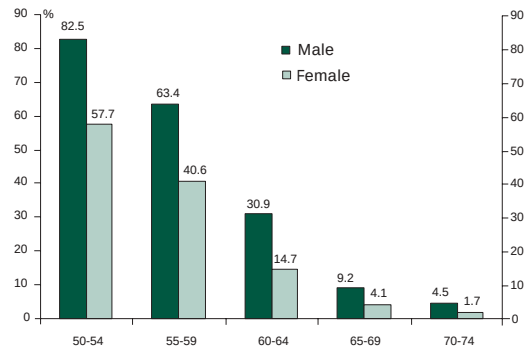

- "European social statistics - Labour force survey results 2000". Eurostat.
- "Employment in Europe 2001", 2001. European Commission, Employment and Social Affairs DG.
- "Combating Age Barriers in Employment: a European portfolio of good practice", 1998. European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions.
- "Employment precarity, unemployment and social exclusion" and "Inclusion through participation", European Commission DG Research reports 2000.
- Increasing labour force participation and promoting active ageing - COM(2002) 9


### Key indicator

| | EU-15 | B | DK | D | EL | E | F | IRL | I | L | NL | A | P | FIN | S | UK |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Employment rate of older workers** (Employed older [aged 55-64] workers as a share of total population aged 55-64)**, 2000** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total | 37.5 | 25.0 | 54.6 | 37.4 | 39.0 | 36.6 | 29.3 | 45.1 | 27.3 | 27.2 | 37.9 | 29.2 | 51.7 | 41.2 | 64.3 | 50.5 |
| Men | 47.6 | 35.1 | 61.9 | 46.2 | 55.3 | 54.8 | 32.8 | 63.0 | 40.3 | 37.9 | 49.9 | 41.4 | 62.5 | 41.8 | 67.0 | 59.8 |
| Women | 27.7 | 15.4 | 46.2 | 28.7 | 24.4 | 19.9 | 26.0 | 27.1 | 15.2 | 16.8 | 25.8 | 17.8 | 42.3 | 40.7 | 61.7 | 41.4 |
| **Persons in employment aged 55-64, 2000 (1000)** | 16530 | 247 | 322 | 4515 | 496 | 1672 | 1644 | 149 | 2044 | 17 | 627 | 291 | 552 | 216 | 663 | 3076 |

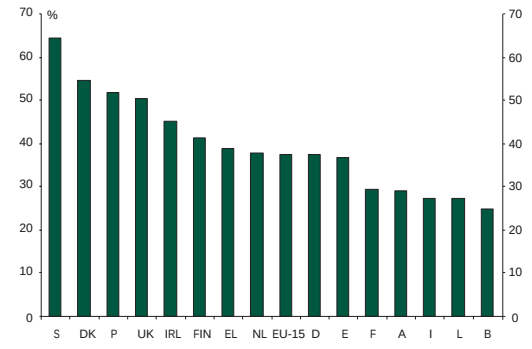
Source: Eurostat - comparable estimates based on the European Union Labour Force Survey

**Graph 41 Employment rates by age-group and sex, EU-15, 2000**




Source: Eurostat - European Union Labour Force Survey

**Graph 42 Employment rates of older (aged 55-64) workers, 2000**




Source: Eurostat - European Union Labour Force Survey

# 9 Unemployment

In 2000, the total number of unemployed in the European Union dropped to 14.2 million. This represents 8.2% of the labour force. This is the lowest rate since 1992. Between 1999 and 2000, Belgium, Spain and France recorded the largest fall in their unemployment rate although Spain continues to have the highest figure (14.1%). It decreased in all Member states, except in Luxembourg where it remained at a low 2.4%.

## EU unemployment rate at it lowest level since 1992

In 2000, the total number of unemployed people in the EU stood at 14.2 million or 8.2% of the labour force. This is the lowest rate since 1992. The rate fell in all Member States except in Luxembourg, where it remained at a low 2.4%. The largest decrease was recorded by Belgium, Spain and France.

Looking at the trend over a longer period - since the EU-15 peak of 11.1% in 1994 - rates in Denmark, Spain, Portugal, Finland and the United Kingdom fell by around 40%. Ireland and the Netherlands saw their rates more than halved.

In 2000, the country most severely hit by unemployment was Spain (14.1%). In contrast, Denmark, Ireland, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Austria and Portugal recorded rates of 5% or less. These figures are similar to those for Japan (4.7%) and the United States (4.0%).

## Females more likely than males to be unemployed in all but three Member States

The female unemployment rate (9.7%) in the EU was still almost 3 points higher than the male unemployment rate (7.0%) in 2000, although the gap is on a declining trend. This less favourable situation for women was apparent in almost all Member states, especially in Greece, Spain and Italy, where the female unemployment rate was twice the male one. The only exceptions were Ireland, Sweden and, in particular, the United Kingdom where 6.0% of active men were unemployed against 4.9% of active women.

## Large regional disparities in unemployment

National unemployment rates often mask important regional disparities within Member States, particularly in Germany (between west and east), Italy (between north and south) and the United Kingdom (also between north and south). In 2000 in Germany, the unemployment rate ranged from less than half the national average of 7.9% in Oberbayern (3.5%) to 20% in Sachsen-Anhalt. Similarly, while many regions in the north of Italy were largely unaffected by unemployment, between 20-25% of the workforce in the southern regions of Campania, Calabria and Sicily was unemployed. Other regions in the Union where unemployment rates were considerably higher than the national average include Hainaut (13%) in Belgium, Andalucia and Extremadura (25%) in Spain, Languedoc-Roussillon (16%) in France and Itä-Suomi (16%) in Finland.

Regional disparities in unemployment are even more pronounced among young people under 25 years of age. Dytiki Macedonia in Greece and several regions in southern Italy all recorded youth unemployment rates of around 50% or more in 2000.

## Policy context

The 2000 Employment Guidelines - general principle, (preamble): “coordinated action must be pursued in a sustained manner to combat unemployment and raise the present levels of employment on a lasting basis. " Guideline No.3 states that each Member State "will endeavour to increase significantly the number of persons benefiting from active measures to improve their employability with a view to effective integration into the labour market." Furthermore, each Member State "will review and, where appropriate, refocus its benefit and tax system to provide incentives for unemployed or inactive people to seek and take up work or measures to enhance their employability and for employers to create new jobs, ..." (Guideline No.4). These messages were reinforced in the 2001 Employment Guidelines.

The Lisbon European Council in March 2000 identified four key areas as part of an active employment policy. One of these was "improving employability and reducing skills gaps, in particular by ... promoting special programmes to enable unemployed people to fill skill gaps."

## Methodological notes

Source: Eurostat - Unemployment rates and the European Union Labour Force Survey (LFS).

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

Regional unemployment rates are based on the estimates of employed and unemployed persons taken from

the Labour Force Survey at national level, in each case for a specific reference date in April. In a second step, the estimated jobless figures are broken down over the individual regions, applying the regional structures of registered unemployed persons or regionally representative results of labour force surveys. NUTS is the nomenclature of territorial units for statistics. The current nomenclature subdivides the territory of the Union into 78 NUTS 1 regions, 211 NUTS 2 regions and 1093 NUTS 3 regions. Though most NUTS 2-level regions are broadly comparable in size, there are some extreme variations.

### Links to other parts of the report

Education outcomes (3.5), Employment (3.7), Youth unemployment (3.10), Long-term unemployment (3.11), Labour market (Annexes II and IV)

### Further reading

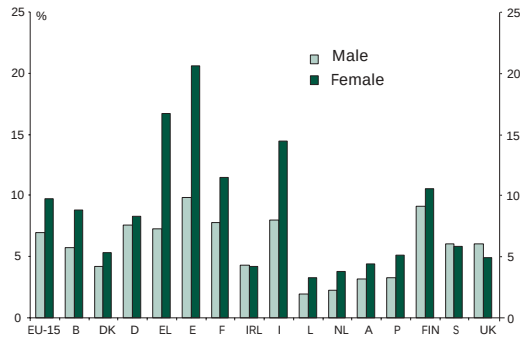
- "European social statistics - Labour force survey results 2000", Eurostat.
- "Employment in Europe 2001", 2001. European Commission, Employment and Social Affairs DG.
- Statistics in Focus (Population and social conditions):"Labour Force Survey Principal Results 2000", No.10/2001. (General Statistics): "Unemployment in the regions of the European Union 1999", No. 3/2000. Eurostat.
- "Employment precarity, unemployment and social exclusion", European Commission DG Research report 2000.

### Key indicator

| | EU 15 | B | DK | D | EL | E | F | IRL | I | L | NL | A | P | FIN | S | UK |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Unemployment rate** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2000 | 8.2 | 7.0 | 4.7 | 7.9 | 11.1 | 14.1 | 9.5 | 4.2 | 10.5 | 2.4 | 3.0 | 3.7 | 4.1 | 9.8 | 5.9 | 5.5 |
| 1999 | 9.1 | 8.8 | 5.2 | 8.6 | 11.6 | 15.9 | 11.2 | 5.6 | 11.3 | 2.4 | 3.4 | 4 | 4.5 | 10.2 | 7.2 | 6.1 |
| 1994 | 11.1 | 10.0 | 8.2 | 8.4 | 8.9 | 24.2 | 12.3 | 14.3 | 11.1 | 3.2 | 7.1 | 3.8 | 6.9 | 16.6 | 9.4 | 9.6 |
| **Unemployment** (in 1000s), 2000 | 14193.3 | 311.3 | 134.6 | 3132.5 | 492.6 | 2379.9 | 2455 | 73.6 | 2465.7 | 4.5 | 238.6 | 142.4 | 210.7 | 252.9 | 264.4 | 1630.4 |

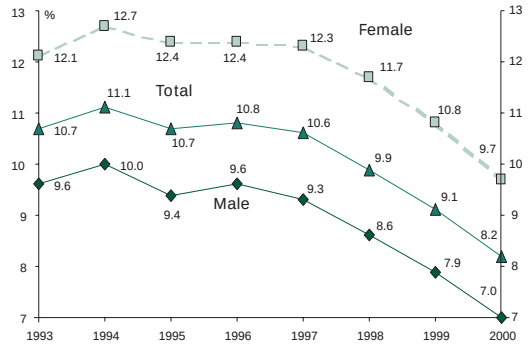
Source: Eurostat - comparable estimates based on the European Union Labour Force Survey.

**Graph 43 Unemployment rates by sex, 2000**




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

**Graph 44 Trend in the unemployment rate by sex, EU-15, 1992-2000**




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

# 10 Youth unemployment

EU-wide, 7.8% of young people (aged 15-24) were unemployed in 2000. The unemployment rate (as a percentage of the labour force) among young people was 16.2%. The differences between these two percentages vary significantly between countries. While the first figure shows that a relatively small proportion of young people is unemployed, the second one gives an indication as to the labour market situation for young people. For most countries, youth unemployment fell between 1999 and 2000, in line with the overall drop in unemployment.

## Staying longer in education

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

Youth unemployment is, on the one hand, a result of the general labour market situation. It is also a reflection of how the educational and employment systems manage to complement one another with respect to the integration of the young in the labour market, and, in particular, of how well the education and training system prepares young people for the labour market. When looking at unemployment rates of 15-24 year-olds, it is important to bear in mind that the young people under consideration are largely first-time entrants onto the labour market and that a sizeable proportion has low qualifications.

## Around one in thirteen young people is unemployed

In 2000, around 3.5 million young people aged 15-24 in the Union were unemployed. This represents 7.8% of the youth population or, put another way, 16.2% of the labour force of this age group. The youth unemployment rate ranges from 5-7% in Luxembourg, the Netherlands and Austria to over 25% in Greece, Spain and Italy.

Between 1999 and 2000, the number of young unemployed decreased by 10% - the same proportion as for the adult unemployed. As a result, the youth unemployment rate fell from 17.9% to 16.2%. The youth unemployment rate increased in Luxembourg, it remained unchanged in Germany and it decreased in all other Member states. Looking at the trend over a longer period - since the EU-15 peak of 22.0% in 1994 - rates in ten Member states fell at least by one fourth. Sweden and the Netherlands saw their rates halved and Ireland recorded the largest drop of more than 70%. In five Member states the youth unemployment rate has not changed much. Germany (9%), Luxembourg (7%) and Austria (5-6%) have constantly had relatively low youth unemployment rates, whereas in Greece and Italy the rate has been about 30%.

## Young people are more than twice as likely as people aged 25 and over to be unemployed

For the Union as a whole and in most Member States, people in the labour force who are less than 25 years of age are more than twice as likely as active people aged 25 and over to be unemployed. In Greece and Italy, the youth unemployment rate is more than three times the rate of those aged 25 and over. The large difference between the two rates reflects, in part, the low labour participation of young people. The one exception is Germany where, in part due to the apprenticeship system, the rate for young people is only slightly higher than that for those aged 25 and over.

## Relatively more young unemployed females than males

Young females in the labour force (17.6%) are more likely than young males (14.9%) to be unemployed although the gap is not as large as it is with the population aged 25 and over. The unemployment rate among young females is over 30% in Greece, Spain and Italy. In Germany and the United Kingdom, a significantly larger proportion of young males than of young females is jobless.

The long-term unemployment rate for people under the age of 25 stood at 8.4% in 2000. See Long-term unemployment (3.11).

## Policy context

The 2000 Employment Guidelines: “In order to influence the trend in youth ... unemployment the Member States will intensify their efforts to develop preventive and employability-oriented strategies,...". Guideline No.1 states that Member States will ensure that "every unemployed young person is offered a new start before reaching six months of unemployment, in the form of training, retraining, work practice, a job or other employability measure with a view to effective integration into the labour market." The 2001 Employment Guidelines further specified that the employability measures should be accompanied by individual vocational guidance and counselling.

## Methodological notes

Source: Eurostat - Harmonised unemployment rates
Unemployment is defined according to the ILO defini-

tion. See Unemployment (3.9) for definition. Youth unemployment population ratios show the unemployed aged 15-24 as a percentage of the population of the same age. Youth unemployment rates represent unemployed persons aged 15-24 as a percentage of the active population (or labour force) of the same age. The active population is defined as the sum of employed and unemployed persons.

### Links to other parts of the report

Education outcomes (3.5), Employment (3.7), Unemployment (3.9), Long-term unemployment (3.11), Labour market (Annexes II and IV)

### Further reading

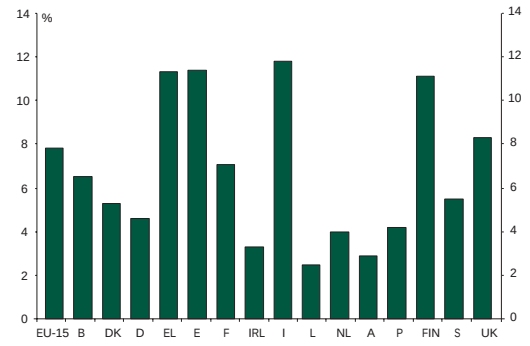
- "European social statistics - Labour force survey results 2000", Eurostat.
- "Youth in the European Union. From Education to Working Life", 1997. Eurostat.
- "Employment in Europe 2001", 2001. European Commission, Employment and Social Affairs DG.
- Statistics in Focus (Population and social conditions):"From school to working life: Facts on youth unemployment", No.13/1998. Eurostat.
- "Youth unemployment and the processes of marginalisation on the northern European periphery", European Commission DG Research report 1999. "Employment precarity, unemployment and social exclusion", DG Research report 2000.

### Key indicator

| | EU 15 | B | DK | D | EL | E | F | IRL | I | L | NL | A | P | FIN | S | UK |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Youth unemployment/population ratio** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2000 | 7.8 | 6.5 | 5.3 | 4.6 | 11.3 | 11.4 | 7.1 | 3.3 | 11.8 | 2.5 | 4.0 | 2.9 | 4.2 | 11.1 | 5.5 | 8.3 |
| 1999 | 8.6 | 8.2 | 7.0 | 4.7 | 12.5 | 12.5 | 8.6 | 4.3 | 12.5 | 2.4 | 4.8 | 3.1 | 4.3 | 10.8 | 6.6 | 8.7 |
| 1994 | 10.7 | 8.8 | 7.8 | 4.8 | 10.2 | 19.4 | 10.8 | 10.7 | 12.6 | 3.3 | 7.0 | 3.5 | 6.8 | 15.5 | 11.7 | 11.2 |
| **Youth unemployment rate** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2000, males and females | 16.2 | 17.7 | 7.3 | 9.1 | 29.6 | 26.2 | 20.1 | 6.5 | 30.8 | 7.3 | 5.6 | 5.3 | 8.9 | 21.4 | 11.3 | 12.8 |
| 2000, males | 14.9 | 15.1 | 7.0 | 9.8 | 22.2 | 20.6 | 18.1 | 6.1 | 27.2 | 6.5 | 4.6 | 4.8 | 6.8 | 21.1 | 10.7 | 13.8 |
| 2000, females | 17.6 | 20.8 | 7.5 | 8.2 | 37.9 | 33.2 | 22.3 | 7.0 | 35.1 | 8.3 | 6.6 | 5.8 | 11.6 | 21.6 | 11.9 | 11.5 |
| 1999 | 17.9 | 23.7 | 9.6 | 9.1 | 31.3 | 29.5 | 24.3 | 8.4 | 32.7 | 7.1 | 7.2 | 5.3 | 9.0 | 21.4 | 13.6 | 13.2 |
| 1994 | 22.0 | 24.2 | 11.1 | 8.8 | 27.7 | 45.1 | 29.2 | 23.0 | 32.3 | 7.3 | 11.5 | 5.7 | 15.0 | 34.0 | 22.0 | 17.0 |

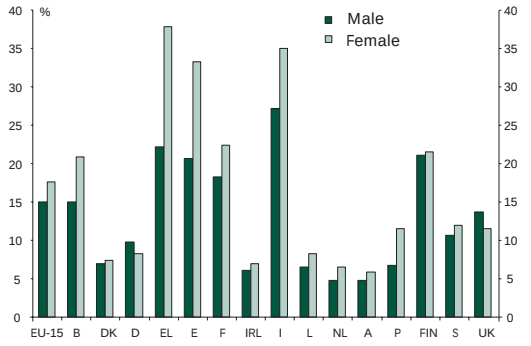
Source: Eurostat - comparable estimates based on the European Union Labour Force Survey.

**Graph 45 Youth unemployment/population ratio (15-24 years), 2000**




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

**Graph 46 Youth unemployment rates (15-24 years) by sex, 2000**




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

# 11 Long-term unemployment

In 2000 3.6% of the EU-15 labour force were affected by long-term unemployment. Put another way, 44 % of unemployed people were jobless for at least one year. The long-term unemployment rate has fallen in recent years but remains about 6% in Greece, Spain and Italy. For young people between 15 and 24 years old, 8.4% (as a percentage of the labour force) were unemployed for at least six months.

### Just under half the unemployed have been jobless for at least twelve months

In 2000, 3.6% of the EU-15 labour force were unemployed for at least one year. In Denmark, Ireland, the Netherlands, Austria, Portugal, Sweden and the United Kingdom 2% or less of the labour force were affected. In contrast, 6% of the active population in Greece, Spain and Italy were unemployed for at least one year.

### Females more affected than males by long-term unemployment

EU-wide, long-term unemployment is slightly more prevalent among unemployed females than males. Unemployed women in Greece and Spain are much more likely than unemployed men to find themselves without work for more than twelve months. In contrast, in Sweden and the United Kingdom, a larger proportion of unemployed men than unemployed women is jobless for a lengthy period.

### The proportion of long-term unemployed decreases

The EU long-term unemployment rate fell over the period 1997-2000 more than the overall unemployment rate, after remaining stable for three years. Put another way, the proportion of unemployed persons without work for at least twelve months decreased for the Union as a whole. In Denmark, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom, the proportion of long-term unemployed persons decreased most since 1997 while it changed hardly in France and Austria, even increased in Germany and Greece.

### ... also among young people the proportion has fallen

The long-term (threshold of six months or more) unemployment rate for young people stood at 8.4% in 2000, a considerable reduction from the 1994 peak of 14.2 % and indeed from the 1998 figure of 11.0%. Young people in Greece, Spain and Italy are particularly affected by long-term unemployment (16-24% of the labour force) as indeed are people aged 25 and over in these three countries.

Over the period 1994-2000, the proportion of young unemployed persons without work for at least 6 months decreased. In 2000, 52% of young unemployed persons had been without a job for six months or more compared with around 64% in 1994. In Italy and Spain, this applied to 79% and 71 % of the young unemployed in 2000 compared with 14% in Finland and only 6% in Denmark.

### Policy context

The 2000 Employment Guidelines (introduction to No. 1): “In order to influence the trend in ... long-term unemployment the Member States will intensify their efforts to develop preventive and employability-oriented strategies." Member States will ensure that "every unemployed young person is offered a new start before reaching six months of unemployment, in the form of training, retraining, work practice, a job or other employability measure with a view to effective integration into the labour market" (Guideline No.1) and that "unemployed adults are also offered a fresh start before reaching twelve months of unemployment by one of the aforementioned means (training, retraining, work practice, a job or other employability measure) or, more generally, by accompanying individual vocational guidance with a view to effective integration into the labour market" (Guideline No.2). These preventive and employability measures should be combined with measures to promote the re-employment of the long term unemployed. This was further reinforced in the 2001 Employment Guidelines.

### Methodological notes

Source: Eurostat - Harmonised unemployment rates and European Union Labour Force Survey (LFS).
Unemployment is defined according to the ILO definition. See Unemployment (3.5) for definition. The unemployed are counted as long-term unemployed if they have been jobless for at least twelve months. The long-term unemployment rate is calculated by dividing the number of persons unemployed for twelve months or more by the active population (or labour force) of the same age and multiplying by 100. For the age-group 15-24, the threshold is lowered to six months or more. Data on the long-term unemployed are also presented in relation to the total number of unemployed people.

### Links to other parts of the report

Education outcomes (3.5), Employment (3.7), Unemployment (3.9), Youth unemployment (3.10), Labour market (Annexes II and IV)

## Further reading

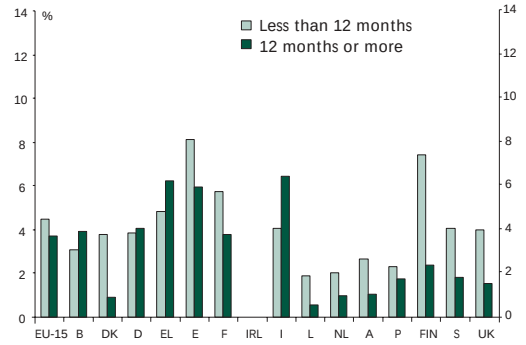
- "European social statistics - Labour force survey results 2000", Eurostat.
- "Employment in Europe 2001", 2001. European Commission, Employment and Social Affairs DG.
- Statistics in Focus (Population and Social Conditions): "Dynamic Measures of Economic Activity and Unemployment: 1. Patterns and Transitions over Time", No.17/1999. "Dynamic Measures of Economic Activity and Unemployment: 2. Status in terms of the amount of time spent", No.18/1999. Eurostat.
- "Employment precarity, unemployment and social exclusion", European Commission DG Research report 2000

## Key indicator

| | EU 15 | B | DK | D | EL | E | F | IRL | I | L | NL | A | P | FIN | S | UK |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Long-term unemployment rate (12 months or more)** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2000 | 3.6 | 3.8 | 1.0 | : | 6.1 | 5.9 | 3.7 | 1.6 | 6.3 | : | 0.8 | 1.0 | 1.6 | 2.8 | 1.7 | 1.5 |
| 1999 | 4.2 | 4.9 | 1.2 | 4.4 | 6.5 | 7.3 | 4.4 | 2.6 | 6.7 | 0.7 | 1.2 | 1.1 | 1.7 | 3.0 | 2.2 | 1.7 |
| 1994 | 5.2 | 5.6 | 2.9 | 3.8 | 4.4 | 12.9 | 4.7 | 9.4 | 6.5 | 0.9 | 3.1 | 0.9 | 2.6 | 6.1 | 2.5 | 4.2 |
| **Persons unemployed for 12 months or more as a percentage of total unemployed** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2000 | 44 | 54 | 21 | : | 55 | 42 | 39 | 38 | 60 | : | 27 | 27 | 39 | 29 | 29 | 27 |
| 1999 | 46 | 56 | 23 | 51 | 56 | 46 | 39 | 46 | 59 | 29 | 35 | 28 | 38 | 29 | 31 | 28 |
| 1994 | 47 | 56 | 35 | 45 | 49 | 53 | 38 | 66 | 59 | 28 | 44 | 24 | 38 | 37 | 27 | 44 |
| **Youth long-term unemployment rate (6 months or more)** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2000 | 8.4 | 9.6 | 0.4 | 4.4 | 15.9 | 18.6 | 8.5 | : | 24.2 | 1.8 | 1.3 | 1.6 | 3.7 | 3.1 | 3.2 | 3.9 |
| 1999 | 9.5 | 14.0 | 1.6 | 4.8 | 18.5 | 21.4 | 8.8 | : | 25.6 | 3.1 | 5.9 | 1.7 | 4.8 | 2.6 | 3.7 | 4.3 |
| 1994 | 14.2 | 16.5 | 3.6 | 4.4 | 19.8 | 32.7 | 14.1 | 17.3 | 26.5 | 3.6 | 9.4 | : | 6.6 | : | : | 9.4 |
| **Young persons unemployed for 6 months or more as a percentage of total young unemployed** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2000 | 51.6 | 54.2 | 6.1 | 48.0 | 53.9 | 71.0 | 42.3 | : | 78.7 | 24.2 | 23.3 | 29.7 | 41.9 | 14.3 | 27.9 | 30.2 |
| 1999 | 53.1 | 59.1 | 15.9 | 52.4 | 72.6 | 59.2 | 36.3 | : | 78.3 | : | 82.0 | 31.3 | 53.7 | 12.5 | 27.1 | 32.3 |

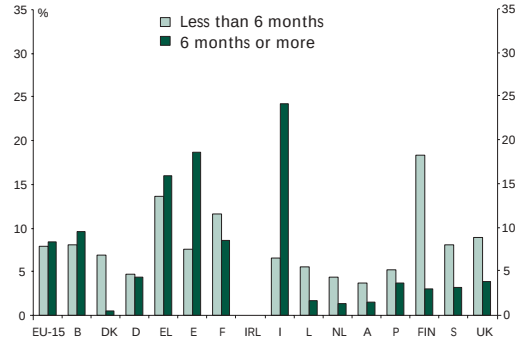
Source: Eurostat - comparable estimates based on the European Union Labour Force Survey.

**Graph 47 Unemployment rates by duration, 2000**




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

**Graph 48 Youth unemployment rates by duration, 2000**




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

# 12 Social protection expenditure

In 1999, EU social protection expenditure represented 27.6% of GDP (as in 1998), confirming the downward trend in this indicator observed since the peak of 28.8% in 1993. However, it still compares favourably with the 1990 level of 25.5%. There are considerable differences between Member States with quite a clear north/south divide. Despite these disparities, social protection expenditure is tending to converge with the largest increases in recent years being observed in the countries with the lowest levels of expenditure.

### Significant rise from 1990 to 1993, then slight decrease

In 1990, expenditure linked to social protection totalled 25.5% of GDP in the Union. The next three years saw a considerable increase in this figure, peaking at 28.8% in 1993. The EU-wide increase occurred during this period mainly as a result of the slower rate of GDP growth (with a recession) and rising unemployment. The rise was visible throughout the Union, particularly in Portugal, Finland, Sweden and the United Kingdom. Between 1993 and 1999, expenditure on social protection as a percentage of GDP declined slightly, partly due to renewed growth in GDP but also to a slowdown in the growth of social protection expenditure (in particular with the decrease in employment benefits). The decline has been more pronounced in those countries where spending had been amongst the highest in 1993, e.g. Sweden (-5.7 percentage points), Finland (-7.9 points) and the Netherlands (-5.5 points). It should be noted that the significant growth of the GDP in recent years explains a large part of the decrease in Ireland (-5.5 points).

### Slowdown in real-terms expenditure from 1993 to 1999

Real-terms expenditure on social protection (i.e. in constant prices per head of population) grew by around 4% annually during the period 1990-1993 in EU-15. The rise was particularly marked in Portugal (13% per year) and the United Kingdom (9% per year). In contrast, the rate of increase during the period 1993-1999 was 1.5% per year for the Union as a whole. Greece, Ireland, Luxembourg and Portugal had growth rates well above the average during this period. In virtually all other Member States, per capita expenditure in real terms grew at a relatively slow rate over this period. However, in 1999 expenditure in real terms rose more quickly.

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

The EU average (27.6%) for social protection expenditure as a percentage of GDP conceals major differences between Member States. The highest ratio in 1999 was found in Sweden (33%) followed by France and Germany (around 30%), while Ireland and the southern Member States recorded the lowest ratios (15-25%). When social protection is expressed in PPS per head of population, the differences between countries are even more pronounced: the ratio between Luxembourg (which spends the most) and Spain (which spends the least) was 2.5 to 1 in 1999. This represents nevertheless a reduction on the 1990 ratio of 3.6 to 1. The differences between countries reflect differences in the social protection systems, demographic change, unemployment and other social, institutional and economic factors.

### Two patterns of funding social protection

At EU level, the main sources of funding for the social protection system are social contributions (employers and protected persons), which accounted for 60.6% of total receipts in 1999, followed by tax-funded general government contributions (35.7%). The European average conceals considerable differences between the Member States in the structure of funding. Social security contributions are more significant (at least 58% of total receipts) in Belgium, Germany, Greece, Spain, France, Italy, the Netherlands and Austria. In contrast, Denmark, Ireland, and to a lesser extent Sweden and the United Kingdom are more dependent on taxes to finance their social protection systems.

### Significant increase in general government contributions between 1990 and 1999

The proportion of general government contributions in total funding rose by 6.9 points between 1990 and 1999 for EU-15. The largest increases were observed in France, Italy and Portugal. In contrast, this proportion fell significantly in Denmark, Greece and the Netherlands. In 1999, only 15.3% of the Netherlands' social protection was financed from general government contributions. The share of EU-15 social contributions in the total of receipts fell between 1990 and 1999, from 67.1% to 60.6%.

For information on the structure of expenditure on social benefits, see Old age benefits (3.13).

### Policy context

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

The Lisbon European Council of March 2000 attached great importance to the role of social protection systems in the achievement of the overall strategic objective it established. It set out the objective that the European social model, with its developed systems of

social protection, must underpin the transformation to the knowledge economy. It went on to state that these systems need to be adapted as part of an active welfare state to ensure that work pays, to secure their long-term sustainability in the face of an ageing population, to promote social inclusion and gender equality, and to provide quality health services.

In its progress report to the Feira Summit of June 2000, the High Level Working Party on Social Protection underlined the importance of the role of social protection by stating that it "must form the third side of a triangle, the other, interrelated but separate sides of which are macro-economic policy and employment policy; in this context the role of social protection as a productive factor should be strengthened, in the context of affirmation of the European social model".

One of the objectives of the Social Policy Agenda (COM(2000) 379 final) is "to modernise and improve social protection to respond to the transformation to the knowledge economy, change in social and family structures and build on the role of social protection as a productive factor." (Section 4.2.1.1).

### Methodological notes

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

Social protection encompasses all interventions from public or private bodies intended to relieve households and individuals of the burden of a defined set of risks or needs, provided that there is neither a simultaneous reciprocal nor an individual arrangement involved. The risks or needs that may give rise to social protection are classified by convention under eight "social protection functions". See Old age benefits (3.13). Excluded are all insurance policies taken out on the private initiative of individuals or households solely in their own interest. The 1999 data are provisional for B, D, EL, E, F, I, NL, P, FIN, S and UK.

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

### Links to other parts of the report

Old age benefits (3.13), Income distribution and regional cohesion (3.14), Social protection (Annexes II and IV)

### Further reading

- "European social statistics - Social protection. Expenditure and receipts 1980-1999", 2001. Methodology: "ESSPROS Manual 1996", Eurostat.
- Statistics in Focus (Population and social conditions): "Social Protection in Europe", No. 1/2002. Eurostat.
- "Social Protection in Europe 1999", 2000. "Social Protection in the Member States of the European Union - Situation on 1 January 1998 and evolution", 1998. European Commission, Employment and Social Affairs DG.

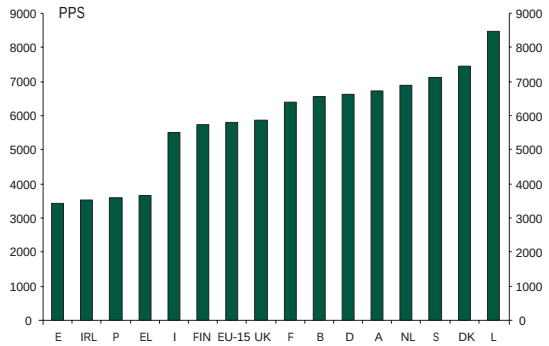
### Key indicator

**Expenditure on social protection as a percentage of GDP**

| | EU 15 | B | DK | D | EL | E | F | IRL | I | L | NL | A | P | FIN | S | UK |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1999 | 27.6 | 28.2 | 29.4 | 29.6 | 25.5 | 20.0 | 30.3 | 14.7 | 25.3 | 21.9 | 28.1 | 28.6 | 22.9 | 26.7 | 32.9 | 26.9 |
| 1993 | 28.8 | 29.5 | 31.9 | 28.4 | 22.0 | 24.0 | 30.7 | 20.2 | 26.4 | 23.9 | 33.6 | 28.9 | 20.7 | 34.6 | 38.6 | 29.1 |
| 1990 | 25.5 | 26.4 | 28.7 | 25.4 | 22.9 | 19.9 | 27.9 | 18.4 | 24.7 | 22.1 | 32.5 | 26.7 | 15.2 | 25.1 | 33.1 | 23.0 |

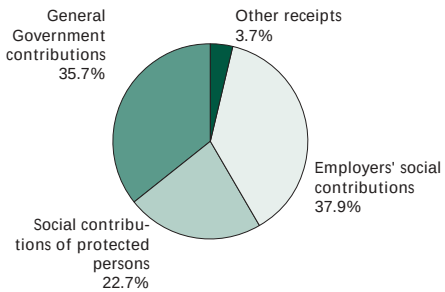
Source: Eurostat - European System of integrated Social Protection Statistics (ESSPROS).

**Graph 49 Expenditure on social protection per head of population, 1999**




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

**Graph 50 Social protection receipts by type as a percentage of total receipts, EU-15, 1999**




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

# 13 Old age benefits

In most Member States in 1999, the largest share of social protection expenditure was assigned to the old age and survivors functions. This was especially true of Italy (64.0% of total benefits against the EU average of 46.0%). EU-wide, benefits paid under the old-age and survivors functions rose by 25% in real terms per capita during the period 1990-1999. This growth is primarily explained by demography. Furthermore the retirement policy (notably early retirement) also influences the development of these benefits.

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

In most Member States, old-age and survivors benefits make up the largest item of social protection expenditure: EU-wide, it amounted to 46.0% of total benefits or 12.1% of GDP in 1999. This was especially true of Italy, where these two functions accounted for 64.0% of all benefits. In Ireland, on the other hand, the old age and survivors functions together accounted for only 25.2%. Ireland is in fact the "youngest" country in Europe, with 31.4% of the population aged under 20 in 1999 (EU average 23.1%) and only 11.3% aged 65 and over (EU average 16.1%). It is therefore to be expected that in Ireland expenditure on old age and survivors is low, whilst family and child benefits are amongst the highest in the Union.

In Ireland, Portugal and Finland, the group of functions sickness/health care and disability take the largest share of benefits paid. There are also major differences between countries when it comes to the relative share of unemployment-related benefits. In 1999, these accounted for about 13% of total benefits in Spain, but only 2% in Italy. The family/children function represented 8.5% of all benefits in EU-15. This function represented 13-15% of all benefits in Denmark, Ireland and Luxembourg and, 5% or less in Spain, Italy and the Netherlands.

**The structure of expenditure on social benefits changed between 1990 and 1999**

Between 1990 and 1999, total benefits rose by 24% in real terms, (i.e. in constant prices per head of population). During this period the structure of social benefits showed different rates of growth for the various functions. The variations result from evolving needs and changes in the legislation on social protection.

Benefits paid under the old-age and survivors functions rose very steadily, also by 25% in real terms. At EU level, their share in the total of benefits fell during the early 1990s but by 1999 had climbed again to the 1990 level. During this period, Germany (-3.7 percentage points) and Ireland (-5.2 points ) experienced significant falls in the share of benefits. In Italy, this expenditure, which was already high in 1990, grew faster than elsewhere, and the two functions' share in the total of benefits rose by 6 points over the nine-year period. Several countries, faced by the ageing of the population, have reformed or, are in the process of reforming, their retirement systems. The effects of this will appear gradually. It should be noted that, at EU level, pensions represent the major part of expenditure on old age and survivors functions.

EU-15 expenditure on the sickness/health-care and disability group of functions took a smaller share of benefits in 1999 than in 1990. In practice, the share fell in almost all Member States as a result of the efforts made to control costs in these areas.

The trend in expenditure on unemployment benefits can be explained broadly by variations in the level of unemployment. Between 1990 and 1999, it rose by 19%, in real terms, in EU-15, but it was not a steady increase: between 1990 and 1993, these benefits increased very rapidly, with their share in total benefits rising from 7.3% to 9.7%. From 1993 on, there was a decrease, in real terms, in unemployment-related benefits in EU-15 (6.8% in 1999), resulting partly from a gradual improvement in the economic situation and partly from reforms of the payment system (e.g. changes in the conditions of entitlement to benefits) in some countries. Furthermore, the new forms of contracts (part-time, fixed-term, etc.) might have reduced the number of people with entitlement to unemployment benefits.

Expenditure on the family as a proportion of total benefits rose in EU-15 from 7.7% in 1990 to 8.5% in 1999. This increase (+35% in real terms between 1990 and 1999) was particularly marked in 1996, when Germany implemented reforms and extended the family benefits system.

**Policy context**

In the context of its general remarks underlying the importance of social protection systems and calling for their adaptation, the Lisbon summit in March 2000 mandated the High Level Working Party on Social Protection "as its first priority" to prepare, on the basis of a Commission Communication, a study on the future evolution of social protection systems from a long-term point of view, giving particular attention to the sustainability of pensions systems. As requested, the Commission adopted on 11 October 2000 a Communication (COM 2000-622 final) on the "Future Evolution of Social Protection from a Long-Term Point of View : Safe and Sustainable Pensions". Section 2.6 states that it is for "Member States to decide what pension system they want and what policy mix is required to maintain adequate incomes for older people without jeopardising the stability of public finan-

ces, undermining employment incentives or squeezing out other essential public expenditures. However, ... Member States face common challenges ... (and) share common objectives with regard to pension systems and are committed to a number of principles, amongst which are equity and social cohesion ... The Commission therefore invites Member States to co-ordinate their efforts and exchange views and information on practices and reforms in progress or at a planning stage." In a progress report to the Nice Summit of December 2000, the High Level Working Party committed Member States to prepare national contributions, not later than 15 February 2001, on their strategies to ensure the fundamental objectives of their pension systems while ensuring their sustainability in the face of the demographic challenge.

The Göteborg European Council in June 2001 stressed the need for a comprehensive approach in order to meet the challenges of an ageing society and endorsed the three broad principles for securing the long-term sustainability of pension systems: to safeguard the capacity of pension systems to meet their social aims of providing safe and adequate incomes to retired persons; to ensure the financial sustainability of pension systems; to enhance the ability of pension systems to respond to the changing needs of society and individuals.

The Laeken European Council endorsed the proposition of objectives and working methods in order to apply the open method of co-ordination in the domain of pensions policy. The integrated framework for policy co-operation in this field aims to help Member States to develop their own national strategies for securing adequate and sustainable pension provision in the long run. The first set of National Strategy Reports are due in September 2002 and a Joint Report will be drafted by the Commission and the Council Report.

The Laeken European Council (2001) called to a similar approach in the field of health care and care for the elderly. The long term objectives presented in the Communication of the Commission (COM (2001) 723) are: accessibility, quality and financial viability of health and care systems. Particular attention will have to be given to the impact of European integration on Member States' health care systems.

See also Social protection expenditure (3.12).

**Methodological notes**

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

See Social Protection expenditure (3.12). Social benefits are recorded without any deduction of taxes or other compulsory levies payable on them by beneficiaries. "Tax benefits" (tax reductions granted to households for social protection purposes) are generally excluded. Social benefits are divided up into the following eight functions: Sickness/health care, Disability, Old age, Survivors, Family/children, Unemployment, Housing, Social exclusion not elsewhere classified (n.e.c.). The Old age function covers the provision of social protection against the risks linked to old age: loss of income, inadequate income, lack of independence in carrying out daily tasks, reduced participation in social life, and so on. Medical care of the elderly is not taken into account (reported under Sickness/health care function). Placing a given social benefit under its correct function is not always easy. In most Member States, a strong interdependence exists between the three functions Old age, Survivors and Disability. For the purposes of better EU-wide comparability, the Old age and Survivors functions have been grouped together. F, IRL and P record disability pensions paid to persons of retirement age as benefits under the disability function as opposed to the old age function.

**Links to other parts of the report**

Ageing of the population (3.3), Employment of older workers (3.8), Social protection expenditure (3.12), Social protection (Annexes II and IV)

**Further reading**

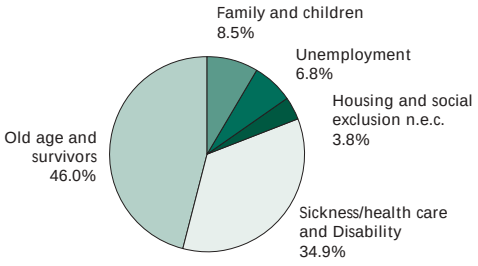

- "European social statistics - Social protection. Expenditure and receipts 1980-1999", 2001. Methodology: "ESSPROS Manual 1996", 1996. Eurostat.
- Statistics in Focus (Population and social conditions): "Social Protection in Europe", No. 1/2002. "Social protection in Europe: expenditure on pensions", No.9/2001.
- Communication (COM 2000-622 final) on the "Future Evolution of Social Protection from a Long-Term Point of View : Safe and Sustainable Pensions". European Commission.
- "Social protection for dependency in old age in the 15 EU Member States and Norway", 1998. European Commission, Employment and Social Affairs DG.
- Objectives and working methods in the area of pensions -Joint report of the Social Protection Committee and the Economic Policy Committee - November 2001
- Supporting national strategies for safe and sustainable pensions through an integrated approach – COM (2001) 362
- The future of health care and care for the elderly:guaranteeing accessibility, quality and financial viability - COM (2001) 723

## Key indicator

| | EU 15 | B | DK | D | EL | E | F | IRL | I | L | NL | A | P | FIN | S | UK |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Old age and survivors benefits as a percentage of total social benefits** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1999 | 46.0 | 43.0 | 38.0 | 42.1 | 50.7 | 46.2 | 44.2 | 25.2 | 64.0 | 41.4 | 41.5 | 47.4 | 43.7 | 35.1 | 39.5 | 46.1 |
| 1990 | 45.9 | 41.8 | 36.7 | 45.8 | 51.7 | 42.9 | 42.7 | 30.4 | 57.6 | 46.7 | 37.4 | 50.1 | 41.9 | 33.8 | : | 45.3 |

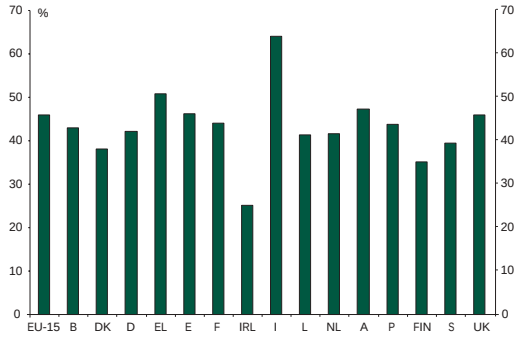
Source: Eurostat - European System of integrated Social Protection Statistics (ESSPROS).

**Graph 51 Social benefits by groups of functions as a percentage of total benefits, EU-15, 1999**




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

**Graph 52 Old age and survivors benefits as a percentage of total social benefits, 1999**




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

# 14 Income distribution and regional cohesion

At EU level, the bottom (poorest) 20% of the population received 8% of total income in 1998, while the top (richest) 20% received 39% of total income, i.e. 5.4 times as much. This gap between the most and least well-off persons is smallest in Denmark (2.7), Finland (3.0, 1997) and Sweden (3.4). It is widest in the southern Member States, Belgium, the United Kingdom and Ireland.

## Member States with lower levels of average income tend to have higher levels of inequality

In 1998, the median equivalised net annual income[73] was around 11,700 PPS (EU-15 population weighted arithmetic average). In around half the Member States including Germany, France and the United Kingdom the level was over 12,000 PPS. A north/south divide remained with income levels in Greece, Spain, Italy and Portugal between 6,500 and 9,500 PPS. Ireland was also below the EU average with 10,400 PPS.1998 data is not available for Luxembourg or Finland: earlier data indicates that Finland was situated slightly above the EU average and that Luxembourg was an outlier with its exceptionally high income levels.

Income distribution can be measured by looking at how total income is shared among different strata of the population formed according to the level of income. EU-wide, the bottom (poorest) 20% of the population received 8% of the total income in 1998, while the top (richest) 20% received 39% of the total income. These figures are summarised by the key indicator Distribution of income (S80/S20 ratio), i.e. the ratio of the sum of the income of the 20% of households with the highest incomes to that of the bottom 20%. This ratio is generally higher in the southern and non-continental Member States (Portugal being the highest with 7.2 - although Belgium, Spain, Greece, Italy and UK also find themselves above the EU average of 5.4). At the other extreme are Denmark (2.7), Sweden (3.4) and Austria (3.8). 1998 data is not available for Finland: earlier data indicated a ratio similar to other Scandinavian countries.

Another way of looking at income inequality is to compare the Lorenz curve of actual income distribution to the line of perfectly-equal income distribution[74]. Within the EU, the country closest to equality was Denmark (coefficient 0.22) and the furthest away was Portugal (0.37).

In general, Member States with higher levels of inequality tend to have a lower level of average income (although the United Kingdom has both above average income and above average inequality).

## Over 70% of persons are 'beneficiaries' of social benefits although these represent only 25% of equivalised income

In most countries in 1996, around 70% of equivalised income arose from work, around 25-30% from pensions and other social benefits, and the small remaining part from capital and other private sources. Although social benefits do not constitute a large share of income, 73% of EU citizens benefit from such transfers, either directly or indirectly, through other household members. The percentage varies from only 50% in Greece and Italy to around 90% in Belgium[75], Ireland and Portugal. EU-wide, 13% of the population live in households that rely on social benefits as the only source of income. The proportion ranges from 4% in France to 19% in Belgium. The equivalised income of persons living in households that draw pensions is, on average, close to the figure for the population as a whole. However, it is higher than the average in France, Italy, the Netherlands and, above all, Ireland. Throughout the Union, but to differing degrees, social benefits other than pensions are heavily concentrated on low income households. See Low income households (3.15).

## Regional disparities in terms of welfare

If the intention is to measure regional disparities in terms of welfare, one must first define what is meant by "welfare", and what is meant by "regional disparity". Regional welfare can be defined as the consumption possibilities of the households resident in a region. An appropriate indicator would, for example, be regional disposable income. Unfortunately, these data are currently not available. Available, however, are data on regional GDP, a production measure. It gives an indication of how much has been produced in a region. As there are price level differences between countries that are not reflected in the exchange rate, a correction is made by Eurostat, i.e. GDP is not only expressed in Euro, but also in purchasing power standards (PPS). This improves the comparability of the data. Of course, regions differ in size, therefore not total GDP is considered, but GDP in terms of the resident population. A measure of welfare could therefore be: Regional GDP

73 For wave 5 (1998) of the European Community Household Panel Survey, several countries (eg. Belgium, France, Portugal) have continued to significantly revise and improve their data also for earlier years (1994, 1995, 1996, 1997). Certain countries (eg. Germany, UK) this have switched from the community household panel to national panels reformatted for ECHP purposes. For the UK, such converted data is provisional. Data is not available for Finland or Luxembourg.

74 This can be expressed mathematically as the Gini coefficient (the ratio of the amount of graph between the line of perfectly-equal distribution and the curve of actual distribution to the total amount of graph below the line of perfectly-equal distribution).

75 Belgian data are provisional.

per capita in PPS. But it has to be borne in mind that this is not the same as income available for households.

Regional disparity of welfare can be measured by the Coefficient of Variation[76] (CV) of regional GDP per capita in PPS. This indicator is quite sensitive to extreme values and should not be over-interpreted. As very often the capital of a country shows an extremely high GDP per capita, the results are somewhat biased. If now these high values are ignored in the calculation, e.g. if the region "Inner London - West" is taken out, the high value for the United Kingdom (51%) decreases to 21.7%. If this correction for the capital city is done, the country that shows the highest disparity is Germany, which can easily be explained by the difference between the western and the eastern part. The second highest can be found in Italy, where there is a disparity between the south and the north. The lowest value is found in Sweden.

**Policy context**

The EC Treaty (Art.2) states that "The Community shall have as its task ... the raising of the standard of living and quality of life...". Art.3 continues "the activities of the Community shall include ... the strengthening of economic and social cohesion;"

The Lisbon European Council in March 2000 set itself "a new strategic goal for the next decade: to become the most competitive and dynamic knowledge-based economy in the world capable of sustainable economic growth with more and better jobs and greater social cohesion." See also Communication adopted by the Commission in March 2000 entitled "Building an Inclusive Europe".

A list of statistical “structural indicators” was agreed at the Nice summit in December 2000, including 7 indicators in the field of social cohesion. This list has been updated for the Synthesis Report from the Commission to the Barcelona Council in March 2002. This approach has been further developed by the Indicators Sub-Group of the Social Protection Committee, who proposed a list of “cohesion indicators” which was adopted by the Laeken summit in December 2001.

The Social Policy Agenda (COM(2000) 379 final) states that "social transfers covering pensions and social security do not only contribute to balance and re-distribute incomes throughout lifetimes and across social groups, but also support better quality in employment, with consequent economic benefits."

The Structural Funds are part of the Community's structural policy which is intended to reduce the gap in terms of development between different regions and between Member States and thereby promote economic and social cohesion. Between 1994 and 1999, the Community allocated around 35% of the EU's total budget to structural measures (EUR 208 billion).

On 20.6.2001 the Commission gave the Communication on “Employment and social policies: a framework for investing in quality”.

**Methodological notes**

Sources: Eurostat - European Community Household Panel (ECHP), wave 5, version December 2001. Income data refers to the calendar year 1997. Data on GDP per head at NUTS-3 level are taken from Eurostat's regional accounts and are based essentially on the European System of National Accounts (ESA 95).

Total household income is taken to be all net monetary income received by the household and its members at the time of the interview (1998) during the survey reference year (1997). This includes income from work, private income (e.g., from investments or property), as well as pensions and other social transfers directly received. As in previous years, no account has been taken of indirect social transfers, receipts in kind and imputed rent for owner-occupier accommodation. As the weight of these income components varies between countries, there is some limitation on the full comparability of income statistics. Comparable income data are now available for most countries but are no longer available for Luxembourg or Finland.

In order to take account of differences in household size and composition in the comparison of income levels, the household's total income is divided by its 'equivalent size', computed using the modified OECD equivalence scale. This scale gives a weight of 1.0 to the first adult, 0.5 to the second and each subsequent person aged 14 and over, and 0.3 to each child aged under 14 in the household. To calculate the share ratio, persons are first ranked according to their equivalised income and then divided into 5 groups of equal size known as quintiles. S80/S20 represents the sum of the income of the 20% of households with the highest incomes to that of the bottom 20%. For information on NUTS, see notes under Unemployment (3.9).

The GDP per head data used in the analysis are expressed in terms of PPS and, therefore, take account of differences in price levels between countries, though not between regions within countries. The coefficient of variation of GDP per head at NUTS-3 level regions provides a measure of overall differences from the mean.

76 Regional disparity can be measured using an indicator for the deviation from the average. One frequently used measure is the Standard Deviation. As the Standard Deviation is not independent of the level, and there are level differences in regional GDP, it has to be standardised to ensure comparability between the figures for different countries. This is done by dividing the Standard Deviation by the average. The result of this operation is referred to as the Coefficient of Variation.

The method of calculating it has been modified during the last year.

**Links to other parts of the report**

Social protection expenditure (3.12), Low income households (3.15), Jobless households and low wages (3.16), Income, poverty and regional cohesion (Annexes II and IV).

**Further reading**

- "European social statistics: Income, Poverty and Social Exclusion in the Member States of the European Union", 2000 edition.
- "European Community Household Panel: selected indicators from the 1995 wave", 1999. Eurostat.
- Statistics in Focus (Population and social conditions): "Social benefits and their redistributive effect in the EU", No.9/2000. Eurostat.
- "Employment in Europe 2000", European Commission, Employment and Social Affairs DG.
- "Unity, solidarity, diversity for Europe, it's people and territory – Second report on Economic and Social Cohesion", 2001. European Commission.
- Evaluation of income support policies at the local urban level", European Commission DG Research reports 1999.

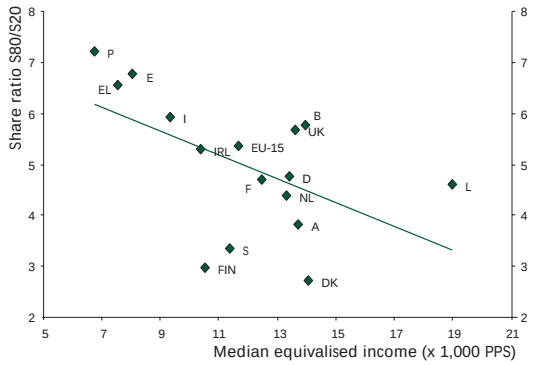
**Key indicator**

| | EU-15 | B | DK | D | EL | E | F | IRL | I | L | NL | A | P | FIN | S | UK |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Distribution of income (S80/S20 ratio) (1)** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1998 | 5.4 | 5.8 | 2.7 | 4.8 | 6.5 | 6.8 | 4.7 | 5.3 | 5.9 | 4.6 | 4.4 | 3.8 | 7.2 | 3.0 | 3.4 | 5.7 |

(1) The share of entire national income received by the top 20% of the population to that of the bottom 20%. EU-15 estimate excludes L and FIN. L 1996 data, FIN 1997 data.

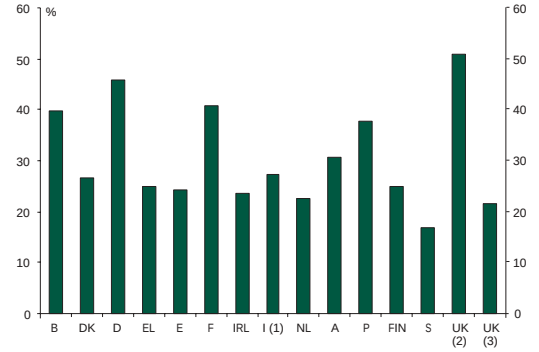
Source: Eurostat - European Community Household Panel - UDB version December 2001

**Graph 53 Level of income and income inequality, 1998**




Source: Eurostat - European Community Household Panel - UDB, version December 2001

**Graph 54 Regional cohesion, Coefficient of variation of GDP per capita in PPS for NUTS 3 regions, 1998**




Source: Eurostat - Regional accounts.'(1) NUTS II only. (2) All UK. (3) = All UK except "Inner London - West" (newly created region with very high GDP/head).

# 15 Low income households

When looking at the total population, around 18% of EU citizens had an equivalised income that was less than 60% of their respective national median in 1998. This figure represents around 68 million people. Using 60% of the national median as a cut-off threshold, the proportion of people at risk of poverty was relatively higher (over 20%) in Greece and United Kingdom - and was relatively lower in Belgium, Germany, Luxembourg (1996), Netherlands, Austria and Sweden (10 to 16%). It was particularly low in Denmark (9%) and Finland (8%, 1997). Social benefits reduce the proportion of people at risk of poverty in all Member States but to very differing degrees: the reduction ranging from 5-15% in Greece and Italy to more than 70% in Finland, with an EU average reduction of 31%.

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

In 1998, several types of household stand out with higher than average levels of being at risk of poverty: single-parents with dependent children (35%), young people living alone (32%), old people living alone (28%) and women living alone (27%). Couples with three or more dependent children were also at high risk (41%). In 1998 nearly 50% of single-parents in Germany, Ireland and United Kingdom can be classified as having a 'low income'. Levels were also high (around 40%) in Spain, Netherlands and Portugal. In 1998 over 50% of households with more than 3 children in Germany, Italy and Portugal had a 'low income'. In 1998 nearly 50% of young people living alone (age under 30) had a 'low income' in Denmark. There were also levels above the EU average (32%) in Germany, France, Netherlands, Sweden and United Kingdom. 1997 data for Finland suggests a similarly high level. More than 60% of old people living alone (aged over 65) had a 'low income' in Ireland. Rates were also high (over 50%) in Portugal and United Kingdom compared with an EU average of 28%.

**Women (compared with men) and children (compared with adults) are more likely to be poor**

Throughout the Union, having a low income is slightly more prevalent among women than among men (EU average of 19% versus 17%). The gender gap is noticeably larger among the elderly (aged over 65) – particularly in Germany, Ireland, Austria and United Kingdom. However, some caution is necessary in interpreting these figures due to the assumptions made about how income is allocated within families.

In 1998, the proportion of children (under the age of 16) living in a household with low income (24%) is around 1/3 higher than for the population as a whole (18%). Children in Germany (60% higher) seem to be particularly worse off. By contrast, children in Belgium, Denmark, Greece and Sweden (also Finland, according to 1997 data) are considerably less likely to live in 'poor' households than adults.

**Unemployed persons most at risk**

On average, just under 40% of unemployed persons have a low income in 1998. The proportion is highest in Italy (nearly 50%) and there are higher than average rates in France and Ireland. The level is lowest in Denmark (5%), followed by Netherlands (21%) and, according to 1997 data, Finland (17%).

In Belgium, the unemployed are around sixteen times more likely than those people with a job to have a low income. In Ireland, the multiple is ten times. In Denmark, Greece, Netherlands and Portugal on the other hand, the ratio is smaller than three.

For the Union as a whole, 7% of those at work (not self-employed) fall into the low income category. See also Jobless households and low wages (3.16).

**Impact of benefits on the proportion of poor people is significant**

A comparison of the number of people on low incomes before social benefits other than pensions and after social benefits, i.e. pensions are included in income both 'before' and 'after', illustrates one of the main purposes of such benefits: their redistributive effect and, in particular, their ability to reduce the percentage of the population on low incomes.

Before social benefits are taken into account, Ireland, Sweden and the United Kingdom show a high percentage (more than 30%) of people on low incomes. The figures for the other Member States vary between 23% (Greece and Italy) and 30% with an EU average of 26%. Social benefits reduce the percentage of people at risk of poverty in all the Member States, but to very disparate degrees. The reduction is smallest – less than 30% - in Greece, Spain, Italy and Portugal. In other Member States it is typically between 30-50%; in Denmark and Sweden the reduction is more than 70% (1997 data for Finland suggests a similar level).

It is notable that Denmark and Sweden have some of the lowest at-risk-of-poverty rates after payment of pensions and other benefits. By contrast, Greece and Portugal have some of the highest percentages of people on low incomes after benefits (and Italy moves from being a country with one of the lowest at-risk-of-poverty rates before transfers to about average after transfers).

Ireland and the United Kingdom have some of the highest at-risk-of-poverty rates in the EU before benefits, and the inequalities remain higher than the Community average after payment of benefits (but the benefits have nevertheless had some redistributive effect).

**EU poverty gap of 30%**

Looking at income below the poverty line identifies those persons at-risk-of income poverty, but does not

show how severe this poverty is. Measuring the gap between the level of income of the poor and the at-risk-of-poverty threshold provides an insight into the severity of income poverty: the poverty gap. In 1998, half of the persons living in a low-income household in the EU had an equivalised household income that was more than 23 per cent below the EU average poverty line. With an average at-risk-of-poverty line of 7,010 PPS[76] in the European Union, this amounts to a relative poverty gap of roughly 1,600 PPS in equivalised income.

**Around 35 million persons living in persistent risk of poverty**

In 1998, 11% of the European Union population were living in a low-income household and had been in this situation for at least two of the three preceding years. Applying a more strict definition of persistent poverty, covering the three most recent years consecutively, the rate is slightly lower at 9%. These figures suggest that more than half of all people in low income households in 1998 are living at-*persistent*–risk-of-poverty. The at–persistent-risk-of-income-poverty rate ranges from around 3% in Denmark and 5% in the Netherlands to 14% in Greece and 16% in Portugal.

**Policy context**

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

The Lisbon European Council in March 2000 concluded that "the number of people living below the poverty line and in social exclusion in the Union is unacceptable" and that "the new knowledge-based society offers tremendous potential for reducing social exclusion" (Presidency conclusion No.32). This conclusion was reinforced at the Nice and Stockholm summits in December 2000 and Spring 2001.

The Social Policy Agenda (COM(2000) 379 final) also addresses the issues of poverty and social exclusion. The main objective is "to prevent and eradicate poverty and exclusion and promote the integration and participation of all into economic and social life." (Section 4.2.2.1).

The Lisbon Council agreed that Member States' policies for combating social exclusion should be based on an open method of co-ordination combining common objectives, National Action Plans and a programme presented by the Commission to encourage co-operation in this field. The Nice European Council in December 2000 adopted the common objectives in the fight against social exclusion and poverty: "to facilitate participation in employment and access by all to the resources, rights,goods and services; to prevent the risks of exclusion; to help the most vulnerable; to mobilise all relevant bodies."

The first two yearly plans were adopted by the Member States in June 2001 and the first Joint Inclusion Report which synthesises and analyses these was adopted by the Employment and Social Affairs Council on December 3rd 2001.

An initial set of ten primary and eight secondary commonly agreed indicators was presented by the Social Protection Committee : these indicators will serve the purpose of monitoring progress towards the common objectives agreed in Nice.

**Methodological notes**

Source: Eurostat - European Community Household Panel (ECHP) UDB, wave 5, version December 2001.

The risk or extent of low income poverty (relative, monetary poverty) is measured in terms of the proportion of the population with equivalised income below 60% of the median equivalised income in each country. The median income is preferred to the mean income as it is less affected by extreme values of the income distribution.

The relative poverty gap is defined as the extra income necessary to bring the equivalised household income of a person who is under the at-risk-of-poverty line, level with the income at the at-risk-of-poverty line. See Income distribution (3.14) for definition of income concepts and notes on data.

Comparable income data is not available for Finland and Sweden in earlier years, so at-persistent-risk-of-poverty rates cannot be established. 4-year persistent poverty could not be calculated for Austria in 1997 (3-year persistent poverty rate is lower than EU average). No data is available for Luxembourg.

76 For more details on Purchasing power standards, see "Purchasing power parities and related economic indicators: Results for 1998" (Eurostat, 2000)

### Links to other parts of the report

Employment (3.7), Social protection expenditure (3.12), Income distribution (3.14), Jobless households and low wages (3.16), Income, poverty and regional cohesion and Consumption (Annexes II and IV)

### Further reading

- "European social statistics: Income, Poverty and Social Exclusion in the Member States of the European Union", 2000 edition. Eurostat.
- Statistics in Focus (Population and social conditions): "Persistent income poverty and social exclusion in the European Union", No.13/2000. "Income poverty in the European Union: Children, gender and poverty gaps", No.12/2000. "Social benefits and their redistributive effect in the EU", No.9/2000. "Social exclusion in the EU Member States", No.1/2000. "Low income and low pay in a household context (EU-12)", No.6/1998. Eurostat.
- "Evaluation of income support policies at the local urban level", European Commission DG Research reports 1999.
- Joint Report on Social Inclusion - COM (2001) 565

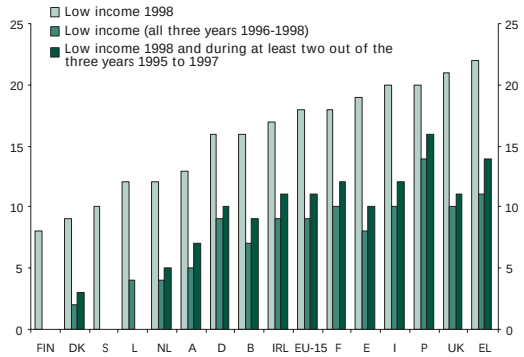
### Key indicator

**Risk of poverty rate before and after social transfers** (Percentage of the population below the poverty line before and after social transfers. Poverty line defined as 60% of the median equivalised income (1), 1998

| | EU-15 | B | DK | D | EL | E | F | IRL | I | L | NL | A | P | FIN | S | UK |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Before social benefits | 26 | 28 | 26 | 24 | 23 | 25 | 28 | 33 | 23 | 26 | 21 | 25 | 27 | 27 | 30 | 33 |
| After social benefits | 18 | 16 | 9 | 16 | 22 | 19 | 18 | 17 | 20 | 12 | 12 | 13 | 20 | 8 | 10 | 21 |
| National currency (NC) symbol | . | BEF | DKK | DEM | GRD | ESP | FRF | IEP | ITL | LUF | NLG | ATS | PTE | FMK | SEK | GBP |
| 60% of median annual income (NC) | . | 336484 | 79620 | 16820 | 1159200 | 654128 | 52290 | 4526 | 9627 (2) | 463848 | 17064 | 120150 | 581876 | 43250 | 74220 | 5883 |
| 60% of median annual income (PPS) | 7 010 | 8 381 | 8 443 | 8 040 | 4 526 | 4 838 | 7 495 | 6 242 | 5 591 | 11 409 | 8 004 | 8 224 | 4 035 | 6 324 | 6 834 | 8 170 |

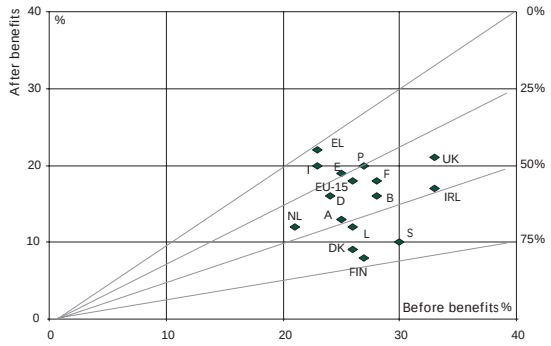
EU-15 estimate excludes L and FIN. (1) Pensions are included 'before' and 'after'. (2) I - data in 1000s.
Source: Eurostat - European Community Household Panel UDB, version December 2001. L 1996 instead of 1998. FIN 1997 instead of 1998.

**Graph 55 Percentage of the population living in (persistent) risk of poverty, 1998**




L 1996 instead of 1998. FIN 1997 instead of 1998.
Source: Eurostat - European Community Household Panel.

**Graph 56 Risk of poverty rate before and after social transfers, 1998**




Source: Eurostat - European Community Household Panel. L 1996 data. FIN 1997 data.

# 16 Jobless households and low wages

An important cause of poverty and social exclusion is the lack of a job or low wages from employment. In 1998, the 'at-risk-of-poverty' rate for persons living in households where no persons of working age are in employment was 51% - around 2.3 times as high as the rate where at least one person is working.

**Persons living in households where no persons of working age are in employment are 2.3 times more likely to be poor than persons living in households where at least one person is working**

In 2000, 79% of people living in private households were living in such a household which had at least one person who was economically active (either in employment or seeking employment). 4.5% of the people living in these 'active' households were living in 'jobless' households, i.e. no member of the household was in employment. The proportion was lowest in Luxembourg (0.9%), the Netherlands (1.1%) and Portugal (1.2%) (no data for the Nordic countries). In contrast, Ireland (6.6%) and France (5.5%) record the highest figures.

EU-wide, the at-risk-of-poverty rate for persons living in households where no persons of working age are in employment was 51% compared with 22% among households in which at least one person is in employment and 5% where all working age persons are in employment. Put another way, persons in jobless households are around 2.3 times more likely than those in working households to be living below the poverty line. The difference between these two groups varies significantly between the Member States. In Belgium, Ireland or Finland, those in jobless households are at least five times more likely to be poor while in Greece, Italy or Portugal, they are only less than two times more likely.

In 1998, more than half the persons in jobless households in Germany, Spain, France and Ireland, were living below the poverty line. In contrast, the proportion was considerably lower in Denmark (25%) and Finland (28%, 1997). Belgium, Greece, Italy, Austria, Portugal and the United Kingdom all had rates between 41% and 50%. Figures are not available for the Netherlands, Luxembourg or Sweden.

**Working poor: a complex picture**

Although persons in employment are less likely to live in a low-income household, i.e. to be "working poor", the risk of poverty is not removed. An employee's standard of living (as measured by income) is only partly determined by his/her wage. Indeed, in many cases, low wages received by one member of a household are "compensated for" by higher wages received by one or more other members of the household. Similarly, a household may receive income other than wages (income from self-employed work or other types of income such as social benefits, income from property, etc.). Lastly, the standard of living depends not only on the resources available but also on the size of the household as well as its economic (number of persons in employment, etc.) and demographic (number of children and other dependants, etc.) characteristics. All low-wage employees do not, therefore, live in low-income households. Inversely, employees whose wages are above the low-wage threshold may - e.g. if they have a number of dependants - be living in poor households.

**EU-wide, 7% of employees are poor**

In 1998, for the EU as a whole, the at-risk-of-poverty rate for employees is about 7%. It is considerably higher in Greece and Portugal (9-10%), and is lower in Belgium, Denmark and Finland (1997) (2 to 3%). In all the countries analysed, the at-risk-of-poverty rate among employees is – as might be expected – lower than the at-risk-of-poverty rate among the population as a whole. It is not necessarily the countries with the highest at-risk-of-poverty rates that have the highest proportions of employees living at-risk-of-poverty, but this does seem generally to be the case. Denmark has some of the lowest at-risk-of-poverty rates both for the population as a whole and for employees, while Portugal has some of the highest at-risk-of-poverty rates both for the population as a whole and for employees.

At EU level and in most countries the at-risk-of-poverty rate of employees is less than half that of the total population.

**Policy context**

On 20.6.2001 the Commission gave the Communication on “Employment and social policies: a framework for investing in quality”.

See also Low-income households (3.15)

**Methodological notes**

Sources: Eurostat – European Union Labour Force Survey (data on population living in ‘active’ and ‘jobless’ households). European Community Household Panel (ECHP) UDB, version December 2001 1998, wave 5. Income data refers to the calendar year 1997.

See Income distribution (3.10) for income concept and definition of equivalised income. For definition of low-income (or poor) households, see Low-income households (3.15).

### Links to other parts of the report

Employment (3.7), Social protection expenditure (3.12), Income distribution (3.14), Low-income households (3.15), Income, poverty and regional cohesion (Annexes II and IV)

### Further reading


- "European social statistics: Income, Poverty and Social Exclusion in the Member States of the European Union", 2000 edition. "European Community Household Panel: selected indicators from the 1995 wave", 1999. Eurostat.
- Chapter IV on Quality in Work and Social inclusion of "Employment in Europe 2001", 2001. European Commission, Employment and Social Affairs DG.
- Statistics in Focus (Population and social conditions): "Income poverty in the European Union: Children, gender and poverty gaps", No.12/2000. "Low-wage employees in EU countries", No.11/2000. "Social benefits and their redistributive effect in the EU", No.9/2000. "Social exclusion in the EU Member States", No.1/2000. Eurostat.
- "Low pay and earning mobility in Europe", TSER programme. Edward Elgar Publishing UK 1999.


### Key indicator

| | EU 15 | B | DK | D | EL | E | F | IRL | I | L | NL | A | P | FIN | S | UK |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **People in jobless households** (Percentage of people living in households with no member in employment among all people living in households with at least one person belonging to the labour force) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2000 | 4.5 | 4.5 | : | 4.7 | 4.2 | 5.1 | 5.5 | 6.6 | 5.0 | 0.9 | 1.1 | 2.4 | 1.2 | : | : | 3.9 |

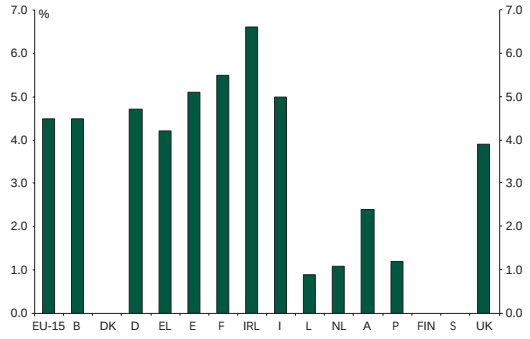
Source: Eurostat - European Union Labour Force Survey 2000. IRL - 1997 data.

**Risk of poverty rates (%) among the persons living in households where ... of the working age persons are in employment, 1998**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| ... none ... | 51 | 50 | 25 | 56 | 41 | 52 | 55 | 63 | 45 | : | : | 45 | 49 | 28 | : | 49 |
| ... some -but not all- ... | 22 | 9 | 6 | 23 | 23 | 18 | 26 | 9 | 26 | : | : | 14 | 23 | 5 | : | 21 |
| ... all ... | 5 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 12 | 6 | 5 | 3 | 4 | : | : | 6 | 13 | 3 | : | 7 |

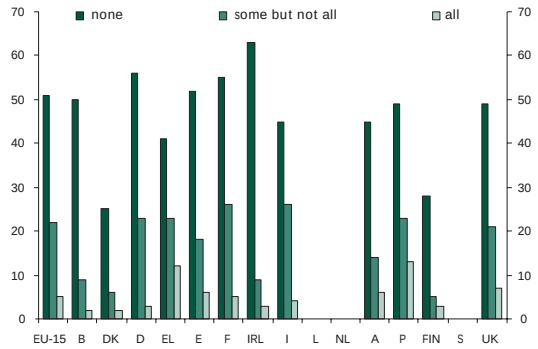
Source: Eurostat - European Community Household Panel UDB, version December 2001. FIN: 1997.

**Graph 57 Percentage of people living in households with no member in employment among all people living in households with at least one person belonging to the labour force, 2000**




Source: Eurostat - European Union Labour Force Survey

**Graph 58 Risk of poverty rates among the persons living in households where ... of the working age persons are in employment, 1998**




Source: Eurostat - European Community Household Panel UDB, version December 2001. FIN 1997 data.

# 17 Women in decision making

At the EU level, women's representation in the European Parliament has increased steadily with each election since 1984 and now reaches 30%. In national Parliaments women continue to be under-represented in all Member States as the percentages of seats occupied by women in these bodies range from 9% in Greece to 44% in Sweden.

Balanced participation of women and men in decision making is increasingly recognised as a requirement for democracy, as well as having a positive outcome for society. Different ideas and values are fed into the process of decision making leading to results which take into account the interests and needs of the whole population.

There is a persisting imbalance in Europe concerning the participation of women at the level of decision making in politics, management, trade unions, universities, civil society and in the judiciary. Access to these institutions is now open to all citizens, but women are still not taking equal part in the decision making process.

**Political decision making**

In the national parliamentary bodies in spring 2001, only 23% of the seats were occupied by women. The discrepancies between countries were huge, from a minimum share of 9% in Greece to a maximum of 44% in Sweden.

It is harder to compare the regional assemblies as some member states do not have any such bodies. Out of the 9,842 persons elected in regional parliaments, 2,896 are women, giving a participation rate of 29% (data reported in 2000).

For the local councils in the countries of the European Union, data are incomplete and not always comparable, due to the huge differences in local level political decision-making. Data available for 1997 pointed to a female participation rate near to 20% in these local councils.

Some Member States and political parties at national level are taking action to overcome the barriers faced by females in participating in political bodies by requesting a minimum (maximum) proportion of candidates from a each sex in the lists of candidates.

The European Parliament has presented a slow progression in terms of gender balance during the last years: currently there are 30% of women, while there were only 19% in 1991.

**Participation in the executive bodies**

In 12 Member States the participation rates of women are higher at the level of the national government than in the national Parliament (or Lower House). The difference is particularly striking in France, with 10% of women in the Assembly and 29% of women in the national government.

Considering the regional level, the tendency is different, with a higher participation of women in the regional assemblies (29%) than in the executive bodies: Out of 940 reported members of regional executive structures, 206 are women, reaching a rate of 22%. In a federal state such as Germany, for example, female participation rates in the national and regional assemblies are very similar, reaching respectively 32% and 31%. But the values are more different for the executive bodies, with respectively 39% and 24% at national and regional levels.

The European Commission and some Member States have adopted regulations on balanced participation of women and men in expert groups and committees.

Participation of women in the highest ranking positions in the public administrations varies from 40% in Sweden to 10% in Austria, Belgium, Germany, Ireland, Italy and Luxembourg. In 2001, at the level of the civil servants of the European Commission, there were 7.4% and 11.3% of women in the two highest levels (A1 and A2 grades). The Employment Committee Report on Indicators of Quality in Work proposes to develop an indicator to measure the share of employed women with supervisory role at work compared with that of men.

**Balanced participation**

Each Member State defines what it considers a balanced participation. While some Member States such as the Nordic countries and the UK have fixed a target of 50% participation, most countries consider that a participation rate of at least 30% constitutes the critical mass above which women or men can exercise any real influence.

**Policy context**

The Declaration and the Platform for Action of the Fourth World Conference on Women (Beijing, 4-15/9/95) stressed the "need to ensure the responsibilities, powers and rights are shared equally".

Council Recommendation (2-12/1996) on the balanced participation of women and men in the decision making process (96/694/EC): The Member States were recommended to "adopt a comprehensive integrated strategy designed to promote balanced participation of women and men in the decision making process and develop or

introduce appropriate measures to achieve this; . . . improve the collection and publication of statistics to provide a clearer picture of how men and women are represented at all levels of the decision making process in the political, economic, social and cultural spheres; . . . promote a balanced participation of women and men at all levels in governmental bodies and committees; (see the Report from the Commission of COM(2000)120 final from 07/03/2000).

Commission Decision relating to Gender Balance within the Committees and Expert Groups established by it (2000/407/EC of 19/06/00) sets a target of at least 40% of each sex in each group or committee in the medium term.

On 20.6.2001 the Commission presented the Communication on "Employment and social policies: a framework for investing in quality", which mentions gender equality as a dimension of job quality.

### Methodological notes

Data is available on the number of women in parliament and most national governments. Sources used here are the European database – Women in decision making – (http://www.db-decision.de).

Not all countries have conclusive statistics on the participation of women in other decision making bodies. See the Report of the Finnish Presidency on the nine indicators for measuring progress in the field of decision making (SI(1999)873).

The issue of women in decision making must also be carefully considered in other areas such as economic life and corporations, social organisations, scientific institutes, public administrations, the media. More research is necessary in these areas.

### Links to other parts of the report

Education outcomes (3.5), Female employment (3.18), Earnings of men and women (3.19), Gender equality (Annexes II and IV).

### Further reading

*Women and decision making in science:*

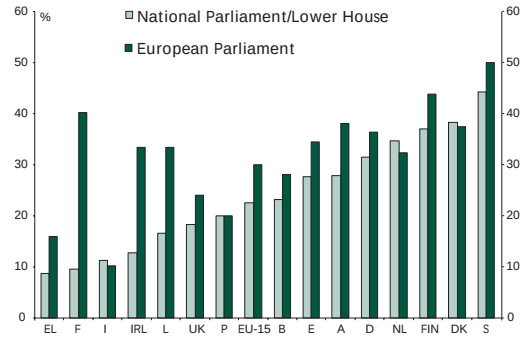
- ETAN report on Women and sciences: Promoting excellence through mainstreaming gender equality, 2000.

### Key indicator

| | EU 15 | B | DK | D | EL | E | F | IRL | I | L | NL | A | P | FIN | S | UK |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Female share in national Parliaments** (Percentage of seats occupied by women in the national Parliaments (or Lower House)), **spring 2001** | 23 | 23 | 38 | 32 | 9 | 28 | 10 | 13 | 11 | 17 | 35 | 28 | 20 | 37 | 44 | 18 |
| Percentage of seats occupied by women in the European Parliament | 30 | 28 | 38 | 36 | 16 | 34 | 40 | 33 | 10 | 33 | 32 | 38 | 20 | 44 | 50 | 24 |
| Percentage of women in the national governments, spring 2001 | 25 | 22 | 43 | 39 | 13 | 18 | 29 | 22 | 14 | 29 | 36 | 31 | 10 | 39 | 50 | 33 |

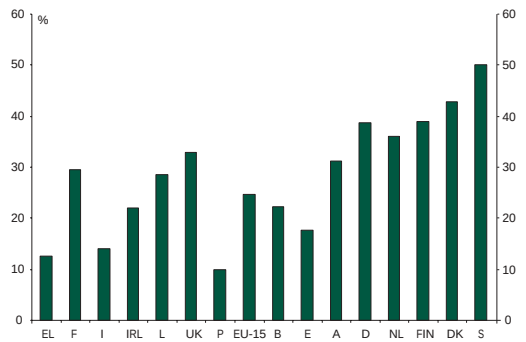
Source: European database - Women in decision making.

**Graph 59 Percentage of seats occupied by women in Parliaments, 2001**




Source: European database - Women in decision making

**Graph 60 Percentage of women in the national governments, spring 2001**




Source: European database - Women in decision making

# 18 Female employment

Between 1995 and 2000, the EU employment rate for males rose by more than 2 percentage points. Over the same period, the rate for females however rose by 4 points, thereby narrowing the gap between the sexes. Nevertheless, the rate for males (72.5%) remains considerably higher than that of females (54.0%). Female employment rates are highest in the three Nordic countries, United Kingdom and the Netherlands.

**Women still at a disadvantage in the labour market**

Despite progress in recent years, women still have particular problems in gaining access to the employment market and particularly to decision-making posts (see Women in politics 3.17), in earnings and in reconciling professional and family life. Although the net additional jobs created over the past decade or so have mainly gone to women, this job growth has failed to keep pace with the increasing number of women who want to work. As a result, unemployment among women is much higher than for men. While women form around 43% of the EU labour force, they account for slightly over half (51%) of the unemployed. Employment rates for women remain systematically lower than for men. Moreover, many women work part-time.

**Gap between the sexes is narrowing but remains substantial**

The combination of increasing education and changing attitudes means that employment rates of women are converging on those of men - between 1995 and 2000, they rose by 4 percentage points to 54.0%, whereas those for men increased only by 2 points to 72.5%. Although the difference is diminishing, it remains large in the vast majority of countries. In Finland and Sweden, the employment rates for women are still around 90% that of men although there has been a relative decline in women in work in these countries over the last few years. In virtually all Member States, the gap in employment rates between the sexes is smaller among the young generation than the older one.

EU-wide, women are concentrated in the growing services sector (82.5% of all employed women against 58.3% of all employed males) which may entail them a smaller risk of losing their job than for men, who are employed disproportionately in agriculture and industry where more restructuring has been taking place. Occupational segregation may limit the choice of women entering or wishing to enter the labour market. Women are still under-represented in managerial posts: only 6% of all women in employment occupy such posts compared with 11% of all men in employment.

Overall, mothers aged 25-49 with at least one young child (aged 0-5) are less likely (56%) to be employed than women of the same age without a young child (70%). The gap between these two groups is largest in Germany and the United Kingdom. In contrast, in Belgium and Portugal the two rates are almost identical. Differences between countries reflect the extent of child-care provision, the availability of part-time work, the varying levels of discrimination, taxation, welfare support, attitudes towards women at work, etc.

**One in three females in employment is working part-time**

EU-wide, 33% of females in employment are working part-time against only 6% of males. Female part-time work is particularly prevalent in the Netherlands (70.5%) and the United Kingdom (44.6%). Among full-time employees, women work less hours than men in all Member States although in Netherlands, Austria and Sweden the difference is less than one hour. In contrast, the gender gap is more than 4 hours in the United Kingdom.

Throughout the Union, female employees (more than 14%) are more likely than their male counterparts (13%) to have a fixed-term contract. The difference is 4 points or more in Belgium, Spain (with 34%, the highest % of female fixed-term employment in the EU), the Netherlands, Finland and Sweden.

**Relatively more women than men are unemployed**

The unemployment rate in 2000 was higher for women than men in most parts of the Union, averaging 9.7% as against 7%. See Unemployment (3.9).

**Policy context**

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

The 2000 Employment Guidelines (No.19): "Member States will attempt to reduce the gap in unemployment rates between women and men by actively supporting the increased employment of women and will take action to bring about a balanced representation of women and men in all sectors and occupations." In order to strengthen equal opportunities, Member States and the social partners will "design, implement and promote family-

friendly policies, including affordable, accessible and high quality care services for children and other dependants, as well as parental and other leave schemes." (Guideline No.20). The 2001 Employment Guidelines further strengthened the fourth pillar by inter alia encouraging Member States to set national targets for increasing employment and for increasing the availability of care services for children and other dependants.

Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament, the Council, the Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions on a community framework programme on gender equality (2001-2005).

Communication from the Commission to the Council, the European Parliament, the Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions on "Employment and social policies: a framework for investing in quality" which establishes a set of indicators on quality in work and considers that "gender equality is a basic horizontal principle" (COM(2001) 313).

Review of the implementation by the Member States and the European Institutions of the Beijing Platform for Action : Women in the decision making process, Council of the European Union, 11829/1/99.

The Lisbon European Council in March 2000 concluded that "the employment rate is too low and is characterised by insufficient participation in the labour market by women ... " (Presidency conclusion No.4). A female employment rate target was set of more than 60% by 2010. The Council also identified four key areas as part of an active employment policy. One of these areas was "furthering all aspects of equal opportunities, including reducing occupational segregation, and making it easier to reconcile working life and family life, in particular by setting a new benchmark for improved childcare provision." The Stockholm summit in March 2001 set an intermediate target for female employment of 57% by 2005 and invited the Council and the Commission to develop indicators on the provision of care facilities for children and other dependants.

One of the main objectives of the Social Policy Agenda (COM(2000) 379 final), Section 4.1.1.1 is to "realise Europe's full employment potential by ... increasing the number of women in work to more than 60 % in 2010 whilst taking into account the different starting points of the Member States." It also stresses the need to give "more priority to equal opportunities."

### Methodological notes

Source: Eurostat - Quarterly labour force data and European Union Labour Force Survey (LFS).

For definition of activity, employment and unemployment rates and full-time/part-time, see Employment (3.7) and Unemployment (3.9).

### Links to other parts of the report

Employment (3.7), Earnings of men and women (3.19), Labour market and Gender equality (Annexes II and IV).

### Further reading

- "European social statistics - Labour force survey results 2000", 2001. Eurostat.
- "Employment in Europe 2001". "Equal Opportunities for Women and Men in the European Union - Annual Report 1999". "Equal opportunities magazine", Quarterly Newsletter. European Commission, Employment and Social Affairs DG.
- Statistics in Focus (Population and social conditions): "Part-time work in the European Union", No.13/1997. "Labour Force Survey Principal Results 2000", No.10/2001. Eurostat.

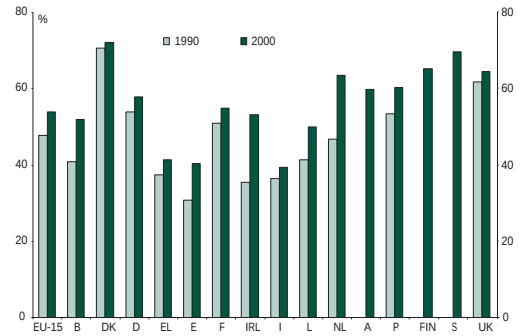
## Key indicator

| | EU 15 | B | DK | D | EL | E | F | IRL | I | L | NL | A | P | FIN | S | UK |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Employment rate, 15-64 years, 2000** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Females | 54.0 | 51.5 | 71.6 | 57.1° | 41.2 | 40.3 | 55.1 | 54.1 | 39.6 | 48.6° | 63.6 | 59.5 | 60.3 | 64.3 | 69.3 | 64.8 |
| Males | 72.5 | 69.5 | 80.8 | 72.4° | 71.1 | 69.7 | 69.1 | 76.2 | 67.9 | 74.5° | 82.1 | 76.9 | 76.5 | 70.2 | 72.3 | 78.1 |

°D, L: 1999 data

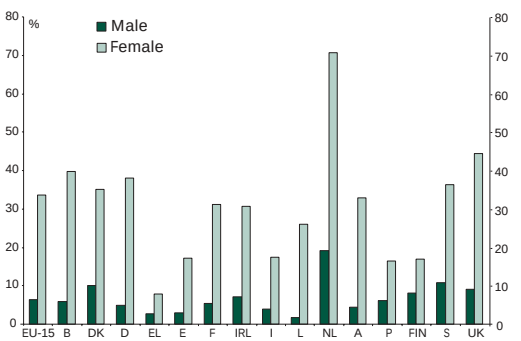
Source: Eurostat - comparable estimates based on the European Union Labour Force Survey.

**Graph 61 Female employment rates (15-64 years), 1990 and 2000**




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

**Graph 62 Percentage of persons in employment working part-time, by sex, 2000**




Source: Eurostat - European Union Labour Force Survey

# 19 Earnings of men and women

EU-wide, the average gross hourly earnings of women in 1998 were estimated at 16% less than the gross hourly earnings of men. The smallest differences are found in Portugal, Belgium, Italy and Denmark. The gap is narrowing but only slowly. The gap can partly be explained – there probably still remains some "pure" gender discrimination in pay.

**Women's average gross hourly earnings around 84% of men's - variation from 76% to 94% among the Member States**

Since 1994, average gross hourly earnings of women have risen relative to those of men in majority of the Member States of the Union, but the rise has been small and women's earnings remain on average below those of men in all EU countries.

According to the European Community Household Panel (ECHP), the average gross hourly earnings of women were 84% of men's in 1998. The population consists of all paid employees aged 16–64 that are at work at least 15 hours per week. (Instead of 15 hours the limit is 12 hours in the Netherlands and 10 hours in Luxembourg.)

There is variation between Member States: Women's average gross hourly earnings as a percentage of men's varies from 76% in the United Kingdom and 79% in Austria and the Netherlands to 93% in Belgium and 94% in Portugal.

There is also variation between different sectors of activity. The latter graph in the next page shows the evolution of women's average monthly earnings in three services subsectors.

**The gap can partly be explained – there probably still remains some "pure" gender discrimination in pay**

EU-wide, in 1995, the gross hourly earnings (bonuses excluded) of women working on a full-time basis were on average 76.3% of those of men in NACE Rev.1 categories C to K according to the European Structure of Earnings Survey, ESES. (The statistics exclude persons who are self-employed or who work in local units employing less than ten people, and also employees in agriculture and fishing, public administration and defence, education, health and social work, other community, social and personal service activities, private households or extra-territorial organisations. The coverage of the survey is not ideal to study women's earnings because sectors where there are a majority of women are thus not covered: health, education and personal services. The earnings differences between genders are probably slightly less important in these categories but at the same time the average earnings are lower which in turn would lower women's overall averages.) Recalculating women's earnings in these categories to remove the three major structural effects: age, occupation and economic activity of the employer, there still remains differences of about 15% in average gross hourly earnings of women and men (originally 23.7% on average). This shows either that women are paid less for equal work or that structural differences are not completely corrected, or both which in fact is probably the case. If figures would allow to go further the main structural differences that would have to be looked at are linked to seniority and to the actual personnel or financial management responsibilities attached to the various occupations. In these statistics age is only a rough approximation of seniority especially for women who have had breaks in their careers, whilst the occupation categories do not tackle the question of the level of managerial responsibilities. It is clear that both aspects should be addressed carefully.

Another example based also on the European Structure of Earnings Survey: The gross hourly earning differential for employees was 25.4% in Belgium in 1995. Almost half of the differential, 12.2 % points, can be explained using eleven explanatory variables: Sector of activity (3.8 % points), Human capital (3.5 % points, three variables), Occupational activity (1.9 % points) and the remaining six variables (3.0 % points). The human capital consists of the following three variables: Years of service [2,0 % points], Work experience [1.0 % points] and Educational level [0.5 % points]. Taking into account these eleven variables there still remains a differential of 13.2 %.

**Policy context**

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

The 2000 Employment Guidelines (No.19): "They (Member States) will initiate positive steps to promote equal pay for equal work or work of equal value and to diminish differentials in incomes between women and

men." The 2001 Employment Guidelines further specified that actions are needed to address gender pay gaps in both the private and public sectors and that the impact of policies on the gender pay gaps should be identified and addressed.

Communication from the Commission to the Council, the European Parliament, the Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions on "Employment and social policies: a framework for investing in quality"

The Employment Committee Report on Indicators of Quality in Work contains indicators on earnings under the form of transition tables.

### Methodological notes

Sources: Eurostat – European Community Household Panel (ECHP) Users' Data Base version of December 2001 (except France and Sweden) ; France: National Labour Force Survey, Sweden: Structure of Earnings Survey.

The EU-15 figure is a weighted average of national values estimated without missing countries.

The ECHP data is not adjusted for age, occupation and NACE (General Industrial Classification of Economic Activities in the European Communities). In 2002, the ECHP Working Group will study the possibility of computing an adjusted gender pay gap of gross hourly earnings.

The ECHP will be replaced in 2003 with a new instrument, EU-SILC (Statistics on Income and Living Conditions).

Both the Synthesis Report for the Barcelona spring 2002 summit and the Employment Committee Report on Indicators of Quality in Work are foreseen to use the same gender pay cap indicator as is used here.

### Links to other parts of the report

Female employment (3.18), Labour market and Gender equality (Annexes II and IV)

### Further reading

- "Earnings in industry and services - Hours of work in industry, 1996-1998", 2000 edition. Eurostat.
- Statistics in Focus (Population and social conditions): "Earnings of men and women in the EU: the gap narrowing but only slowly", No. 5/2001 and "Women's earnings in the E.U: 28% less than men's", No. 6/1999. Eurostat.
- "Industrial Relations in Europe", 2000. European Commission, Employment and Social Affairs DG.
- Indicators on gender pay equality: The Belgian presidency's report, 2001.

### Key indicator

**Gender pay gap** (Average gross hourly earnings of women as % of average gross hourly earnings of men.
The population consists of all paid employees aged 16-64 that are 'at work 15+ hours per week'.)

| | EU 15 | B | DK | D | EL | E | F | IRL | I | L | NL | A | P | FIN | S | UK |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1998 | 84 | 93 | 90 | 81 | 87 | 86 | 88 | 80 | 91 | : | 79 | 79 | 94 | : | 82 | 76 |
| 1997 | 85 | 89 | 87 | 81 | 89 | 84 | 88 | 82 | 92 | : | 83 | 77 | 94 | 82 | 83 | 79 |
| 1996 | 84 | 89 | 85 | 79 | 85 | 87 | 87 | 81 | 91 | 83 | 81 | 80 | 94 | 83 | 83 | 75 |
| 1995 | 83 | 88 | 85 | 79 | 83 | 86 | 87 | 81 | 92 | 82 | 79 | 78 | 95 | : | 85 | 74 |
| 1994 | 83 | 87 | 89 | 79 | 87 | 90 | 87 | 81 | 92 | 83 | 77 | : | 90 | : | 84 | 72 |

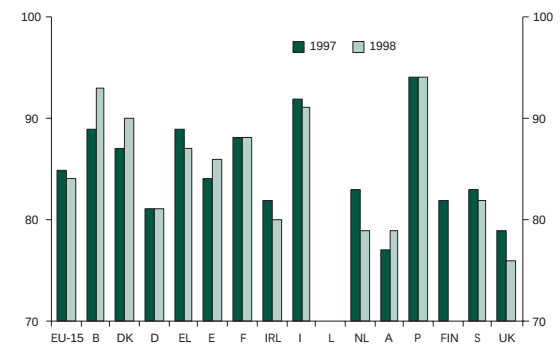
Source: Eurostat - European Community Household Panel UDB version December 2001 (except F: National Labour Force Survey, S: Structure of Earnings Survey.)

**Average monthly earnings of women as a percentage of men's in some service sectors in the EU**

| | 1995 | 1996 | 1997 | 1998 | 1999 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Financial services | 68,2 | 68,4 | 67,3 | 66,6 | 66,5 |
| Hotels and restaurants | 82,9 | 82,4 | 83,4 | 83,5 | 83,1 |
| Business services | 75,4 | 76,2 | 75,1 | 75,6 | 75,5 |

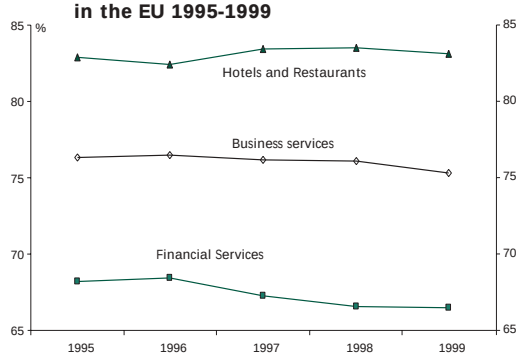
Sources: Eurostat - 1) Harmonised statistics on earnings 1999, 2) Statistics on the Structure of Earnings 1995. Data coverage within services varies from country to country.

**Graph 63 Gender pay gap 1997 and 1998**




Source: Eurostat - European Community Household Panel UDB version December 2001 (except F: National Labour Force Survey, S: Structure of Earnings Survey).

**Graph 64 Average monthly earnings of women as percentage of men's in some service sectors in the EU 1995-1999**




Source: Eurostat - Harmonised statistics on earnings

# 20 Life and health expectancies

Life expectancy continues to rise and now stands at 81 years for women and 75 for men. In all Member States, women live longer then men. EU-wide, women can expect to live to 66 and men to 63 years of age without any disability.

### Average life span continues to increase

Over the past 50 years, life expectancy of men and women has risen steadily: by around 10 years in total for each sex. Throughout the Union, women live longer than men. In 1999, the life expectancy of women in EU-15 was 81 years while that for men was 75 years. Eurostat estimates that the life expectancy of women and men may reach 84 and 78 years respectively by the year 2020.

### Women can expect to live to 66 years and men to 63 years without any disability

Health expectancies are a group of health indicators combining data on mortality and disability/morbidity. This report uses life expectancy without (severe) disability. At EU-level, women can expect to live to 66 years of age without any disability and men 63. People suffering from a severe disability have low life expectancies, e.g. women at 16 years of age with severe disability can expect to live 5 years. The corresponding figure for men is 4 years.

### Large reduction in infant mortality

Progress in medical research and care has also led to a dramatic improvement in the infant mortality rate for EU-15 which has fallen from 23 deaths per 1000 live births in 1970 to 5 deaths per 1000 live births in 1999. Differences between Member States have virtually disappeared.

### Health expenditure accounts for 8% of EU GDP

In 1999, total EU expenditure on health represented 8.0% of EU GDP. Germany (10.3%) and France (9.4%) spend the most although they are still well behind the US (12.9%). Over the last decade or so, health expenditure as a percentage of GDP rose in the majority of countries. The most significant increases were observed in Belgium, Germany and Portugal. The only country showing a decrease is Sweden.

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

EU-wide, around 10% of adults (aged 16 and over) perceive their health to be 'bad' or 'very bad'. 68% feel that their health is 'good' or 'very good' while the remaining 22% describe it as 'fair'. The proportion of persons in the category '(very) bad' increases with age: almost one in four elderly people described their health as such. For all ages, women are more likely than men to perceive their health as '(very) bad'. This pattern can be observed in every Member State with one or two minor exceptions.

Persons with a high level of education report better health than those with a low level of education. On average, only 6% of people with tertiary education described their health as '(very) bad' compared with 15% of those with compulsory education at best.

47% of the EU population aged 65 and over report being hampered in their daily activities by a chronic, physical or mental health problem, illness or disability (22% are "severely" hampered, 25% "to some extent").

### Circulatory diseases and cancer remain the major causes of death

Mortality patterns differ significantly according to age and sex. As a general rule, mortality is higher among men than women in all age groups. For both men and women, circulatory diseases are the major cause of death throughout the Union (the one exception is in France where men are most likely to die of cancer): 700 000 men and 850 000 women died of such diseases in 1998. This represents 349 and 210 deaths per 100 000 population. External causes of injury and poisoning prevail among the young (aged 15-34) but account for only a small proportion of those aged 55 and over. Cancer represents the major cause of death among those aged 45-64. For those aged 75 and over, circulatory diseases account for around half of all deaths.

### 10% of the European are hospitalised every year

Around 10% of the EU adult population spent at least one night in hospital in 1999. The proportion rises to more than 20% among the 'very old'. Older men are more likely than women to be hospitalised. In terms of frequency of admission, (discharges from hospitals) following the WHO ICD (International Classification of Diseases), diseases of the circulatory system (2 420 per 100 000) comprise the highest frequency of admission followed by admissions for cancer (1 367), traumas and poisoning (1 646) and respiratory diseases (1 427). The incidence is not so high for mental disorders (655) and infectious diseases (394).

### Policy context

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

Art.1 of the Community Action on health monitoring (Decision No 1400/97/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council of 30 June 1997) states: "The objective of the programme shall be to contribute to the establishment of a Community health monitoring system which makes it possible to a) measure health status, trends and determinants throughout the Community ..."

The Laeken European Council (2001) called to the development an approach in the field of health care and care for the elderly similar to the one being developped for the pensions. The long term objectives presented in the Communication of the Commission (COM (2001) 723) are: accessibility, quality and financial viability of health and care systems. Particular attention will have to be given to the impact of European integration on Member States' health care systems.

### Methodological notes

Sources: Eurostat - Demographic Statistics and European Community Household Panel (ECHP) UDB version September 2001. OECD Health data 1998.

The infant mortality rate is defined as the number of infants who die within the first year of life divided by the number of live births (per 1000 live births). Life expectancy at birth is the average number of years a person would live if age-specific mortality rates observed for a certain calendar year or period were to continue. Life expectancy without disability is calculated by the Sullivan method and uses the mortality data and disability prevalence figures from the ECHP. To be able to present calculations at birth, Eurostat has, for all countries and for both genders, applied a constant disability rate (of 1 %) between the ages 0 and 16. The life expectancy without disability figures concerning the year 1994 which were published last year in this report, are not directly comparable to the figures in this report (concerning the year 1996). Data on perceived health are based on a subjective question addressed to private households in the ECHP. For the total population (particularly aged 65 and over), the percentages on (very) bad health may be somewhat higher due to the fact that a significant number of people live in homes or institutions for long-term nursing care.

### Links to other parts of the report

Ageing in the population (3.3), Health and safety (Annexes II and IV)

### Further reading

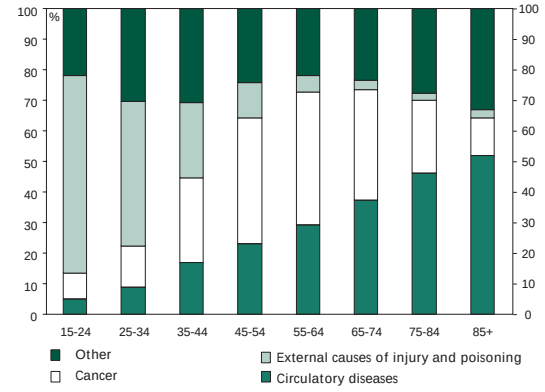
- "Key data on Health 2000", 2000 edition. Eurostat.
- "European social statistics - Demography", 2001 edition. Eurostat.
- The future of health care and care for the elderly:guaranteeing accessibility, quality and financial viability - COM (2001) 723
- Adapting to change in work and society: a new Community strategy on health and safety at work 2002–2006 – COM(2002) 118

### Key indicator

| | EU-15 | B | DK | D | EL | E | F | IRL | I | L | NL | A | P | FIN | S | UK |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Life expectancy at birth, 1999** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Males | 74.6 | 74.3 | 74.0 | 74.5 | 75.5 | 75.3 | 74.9 | 73.5 | 75.5 | 73.7 | 75.2 | 74.4 | 71.7 | 73.7 | 77.1 | 74.8 |
| Females | 80.9 | 80.5 | 78.8 | 80.6 | 80.6 | 82.5 | 82.3 | 79.1 | 81.8 | 80.5 | 80.5 | 80.9 | 78.9 | 81.0 | 81.9 | 79.7 |
| **Disability-free life expectancy (at birth), 1996** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Males | 63 | 65 | 62 | 63 | 67 | 65 | 60 | 64 | 67 | 61 | 63 | 62 | 59 | 56 | : | 61 |
| Females | 66 | 69 | 62 | 69 | 70 | 68 | 63 | 67 | 70 | 64 | 63 | 66 | 61 | 59 | : | 62 |

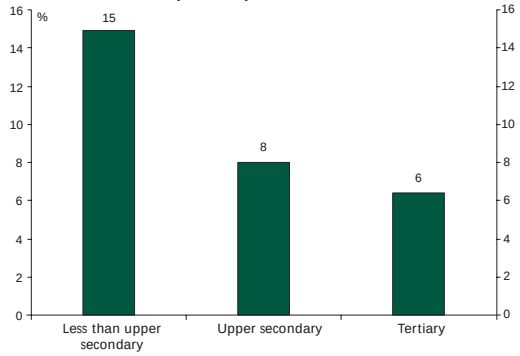
Source: Eurostat - Mortality Statistics and European Community Household Panel.

**Graph 65 Major causes of death by age-group, EU-15, 1998**




Source: Eurostat - Mortality Statistics

**Graph 66 Proportion of population whose perceived health is bad or very bad, by level of education, EU-15, 1997**




Source: Eurostat - European Community Household Panel UDB, version September 2001.
Note: UK - GCSE 'O' levels are included under upper secondary (ISCED 3).

# 21 Accidents and work-related health problems

In 1998, around 4.1% of EU workers were victims of a working accident resulting in more than three days' absence, 6.4% including accidents with no absence from work or an absence up to 3 days. From 1994, the number of accidents at work with more than three days' absence decreased by 10% (the value of the index 1994 = 100 was 90 in 1998). During 1998-99 5.4% of employees per year suffered from work-related health problems. A total of around 500 million working days are lost every year as a result of accidents at work (150 million days lost) and work-related health problems (350 million days lost). Road transport fatalities have fallen by 44% since 1970 but there were still over 40 000 deaths on EU roads recorded in 2000.

## Working accidents more frequent among younger and low seniority workers

In 1998, around 4.7 million accidents at work - each resulting in more than three days' absence - were recorded in the Union. Including the accidents with no absence from work or an absence up to three days, the estimated total number of accidents at work in the EU is 7.4 million in 1998. This represents respectively estimated rates of 4 089 and 6 380 accidents at work per 100 000 employed persons, or put another way, 6.4% of all workers were the victims of an accident at work during the year (4.1% for accidents with more than 3 days' absence). There was a substantial drop in this rate (accidents resulting in more than three days' absence) of 9.9% between 1994 and 1998 (index = 90 in 1998 and 100 in 1994) but first estimates suggest that it will be up in 1999 (about 4 200 per 100 000 employed persons, Index = 93). In addition, 5 476 fatal accidents in the course of work were recorded in 1998 in EU-15, of which 36% were road traffic or transport accidents during work.

These proportions differ of course depending on the economic activity and the size of the enterprise, as well as the age, the sex and the working conditions of the workers. The construction industry has the highest incidence: 8 008 accidents resulting in more than three days' absence and around 13 fatal accidents per 100 000 workers. When including accidents up to three days' absence, the accident rate is particularly high in the fishing industry (where the risk of an accident is 2.4 times greater than the average for all branches in the EU), in agriculture, construction and health and social work (1.3 to 1.4 times). In the local units of the manufacturing, construction and transport industries employing between 10 and 49 persons, the risk is 1.2 to 1.4 times greater than the average for these branches (more than three days' absence). The risk is also high in the local units employing 1 to 9 persons in the manufacturing industry (1.3 times the average for the branch), and in transport (1.2 times). With the exception of Greece, Ireland and Portugal, the incidence of accidents decreases with age in all Member States. In contrast, the incidence of fatal accidents tends to increase considerably with age. Men are around three times more likely than women to have an accident - resulting in more than three days' absence - and about nine times more likely to have a fatal accident. This result is a function of men's jobs and sectors of activity which tend to be more high-risk than those of women. There are also relatively more women who work part-time which may reduce their exposure to risk. Finally, persons who have been working for less than 2 years in a business, shift workers, night workers or persons working fewer than 20 hours per week are also 20% to 50% more likely than average to have an accident.

## Accidents at work: 148 million working days lost to the economy

In addition to the major impact of these accidents in human terms, they also have a high socio-economic cost: though for 37% of accidents there was no absence from work or the resulting absence was only up to three days, for 30% the absence was more than three days but less than two weeks and for 29% the absence was between two weeks and three months. For the remaining 4% of accidents, the consequence was an absence of three months or more, or permanent partial or total disability. It is estimated that 148 million work days were lost in 1998 in the EU owing to accidents at work, i.e. a mean of 20 days per accident (31 days per accident with more than three days' absence) and the equivalent of one day of work lost per year for every person in employment. Additionally, 5% of the victims had to change to a different type of work or another job, or to reduce their working hours. Finally, about 14% of the victims of accidents at work suffer more than one accident per year.

## 350 million working days lost due to work-related health problems

On the basis of the results available for 11 Member States from the European Union Labour Force Survey (self-assessment by survey respondents of their work-related state of health), it is estimated that during the period 1998 to 1999 each year almost eight million people in work or having been in work in the EU were suffering from health disorders, other than accidental injuries, caused or aggravated by their current or past employment. The prevalence rate for employees is 5 372 cases per 100 000 persons per year (7 150 for 55-64 year-olds) linked to their current employment. 53% of cases involve musculoskeletal disorders, which are more frequent in the construction, transport and health and social work sectors (prevalence in these sectors is 1.2 to 1.6 times higher than average). Stress, depression or anxiety represent 18% of problems, and 26% of those involving two or more weeks' absence from work (this rate doubles in education and health and social work). Finally, pulmonary disorders affect yearly 0.6 million people (the risk doubles in the extractive industries). From 1998 to 1999, an estimated 350 million working days were lost each year in the EU owing to work-related health problems.

The first results of the Third European Survey on Working Conditions, carried out by the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions in 2000 reveal that problems related to health, the pace of work and working time continue to rise in European workplaces. The percentage of workers exposed to intense noise, painful/tiring positions and handling of heavy goods continues to increase and the pace of work has quickened. Large numbers of workers complain of stress and burn-out.

**Almost 600 000 commuting accidents in the Union**

The number of commuting accidents (accidents on the way to and from work) in the Union resulting in more than three days' absence was estimated at approximately 580 000 in 1998 (in addition to accidents at work). The incidence rate was 410 per 100 000. The number of fatal commuting accidents, which were chiefly road traffic and transport accidents, was around 3 100 for the entire EU.

**EU roads claimed 41 000 lives in 2000**

For the EU as a whole, road transport fatalities have been in constant decline, showing a 44% decrease compared with 1970 despite the fact that road transport more than doubled over the same period. The biggest improvements (reductions of 60% or more) were recorded in Denmark, Germany, Netherlands, Finland and Sweden. This general downward trend since the early 1970s has not been apparent in Greece, Spain and Portugal where car ownership has grown very fast and road fatalities remain at a very high level. From 1991 to 2000 the fatalities have decreased in all Member States totalling to a 27 % decrease for EU-15. The biggest decreases have been recorded in Finland and Austria (both 37%), the smallest in Greece (2 %) and Ireland (7%).

In spite of the general improvement in road safety, the estimated number of deaths caused by road traffic accidents in 2000 was around 41 000 for EU-15. Whatever the indicator used (number of deaths related to the population or to the total number of cars), Greece and Portugal record the worst levels of road safety. While for the Union as a whole around 108 people per million population died on the roads, the corresponding rates for Greece and Portugal were 196 and 185 respectively. The United Kingdom and Sweden have the lowest death rate (60 and 65 respectively) followed by the Netherlands (73) and Finland (77). Rail transport resulted in relatively few fatalities, with a clear advantage, in safety, over road transport.

**Home and leisure accidents**

There were an estimated 430 000 home and leisure accidents in the EU in 1995 (men had 240 000, women 190 000). Accidents are most likely to occur at home (32% of the total number of accidents among men, 46% among women) followed by sporting accidents (18% among men, 10% among women).

**Policy context**

The EC Treaty (Art.137) states that "the Community shall support and complement the activities of the Member States in ... (the) improvement in particular of the working environment to protect workers' health and safety." Art.140 adds that "the Commission shall encourage cooperation between the Member States and facilitate the coordination of their action in all social policy fields under this chapter, particularly in matters relating to ... (the) prevention of occupational accidents and diseases".

On 29 April 1999, the Economic and Social Committee of the EU gave an opinion on "Health and Safety in the workplace - Application of Community measures and new risks" (O.J. C 51 of 23.02.2000, p33). It looks at changes occurring in work organisation systems and the associated occupational risks such as the increase in psychosocial complaints and burn-out.

The Commission adopted on 17 March 2000 a Communication (COM(2000)125 final) on "Priorities in EU road safety: Progress report and ranking of actions." It encourages Member States, regional and local authorities to "establish a practice of calculating the costs and effects of road safety measures and where appropriate comparing these with the costs of avoided accidents" and invites them "to increase investment in road safety projects ..."

On 20.6.2001 the Commission gave the Communication on "Employment and social policies: a framework for investing in quality". It takes forward the Social Policy Agenda commitment and the Lisbon strategy reinforced by Nice and Stockholm, to promote quality in employment. In particular it defines the approach of improving quality of work and ensures its integration in employment and social policies. For this purpose it establishes a set of indicators on quality in work to be used within the framework of the European Employment Strategy.

The lists of indicators of both the Synthesis Report and the Employment Committee Report on Indicators of Quality in Work include the evolution of the incidence rate of accidents at work, as defined by the number of accidents at work per 100,000 persons in employment. In the future a composite indicator covering accidents and occupational diseases including as a result of stress will be developed by the Commission.

**Methodological notes**

Sources: Eurostat - European Statistics on Accidents at Work (ESAW), ad hoc module on accidents at work and occupational diseases in the 1999 Labour Force Survey and Transport Statistics. European Commission Transport DG - Community Road Accident database (CARE). European Home and Leisure Accident Surveillance System (EHLASS).

For road accidents, persons killed are all those killed within 30 days of the accident. For Member States not using this definition, corrective factors were applied.

The data on working accidents relate to almost 90% of persons in employment in the Union. Only those working accidents that lead to more than three days absence are included in the annual data source (ESAW) but accidents with no absence from work or resulting in an absence from work from one to three days were also covered in the ad hoc module on accidents at work and occupational diseases in the 1999 Labour Force Survey. The incidence rates have been calculated for only nine major branches of economic activity (NACE Rev. 1 sections).

The third European Survey on Working Conditions has been carried out in 2000 by the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions. The previous surveys were carried out in 1990 and 1996.

The EHLASS (European Home and Leisure Accident Surveillance System) was introduced by the Council Decision 93/683/EEC of 29 October 1993 introducing a Community system of information on home and leisure. Since 1999 the EHLASS system has been integrated into the Community Programme of Prevention of Injuries.

**Links to other parts of the report**

Health and safety (Annexes II and IV)

**Further reading**

- Statistics in Focus (Population and social conditions): "Accidents at work in the EU in 1998-1999", No.16/2001 and "Work-related health problems in the EU 1998-99", No. 17/2001; Eurostat. Statistics in Focus (Transport): "Transport Safety", No.3/2000; Eurostat. Statistics in Focus (General statistics): "Road-traffic deaths in the regions of Europe", No. 5/2001; Eurostat.
- "European Statistics on Accidents at Work - Methodology", 2001 Edition. Eurostat and DG Employment and social affairs, "Health and safety at work" series.
- "Key data on Health", 2000 edition. Eurostat.
- "Third European Survey on Working Conditions", 2000. "Precarious Employment and Health-Related Outcomes in the European Union", 1999. "For a better quality of work", September 2001. European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions.
- "Guidance on work-related stress - Spice of life or kiss of death?", European Commission, 2000-12-16.
- Adapting to change in work and society: a new Community strategy on health and safety at work 2002–2006 – COM(2002) 118

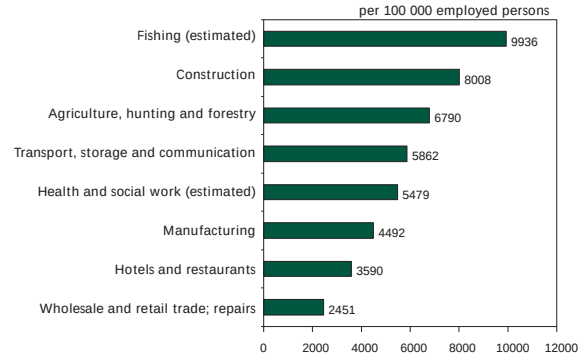
**Key indicator**

| | EU-15 | B | DK | D | EL | E | F | IRL | I | L | NL | A | P | FIN | S | UK |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Quality of work (serious accidents at work).** Incidence rate (number per 100 000 persons in employment) based index of accidents at work resulting in more than 3 days' absence from work, 1998 **- Index 1994 = 100 (1)** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total | 90 | 116 | 121 | 89 | 79 | 115 | 89 | 96 | 88 | 105 | 91 | 93 | 93 | 88 | 118 | 79 |
| Age-group 18-24 | 74 | 137 | 111 | 97 | 64 | 118 | 97 | 100 | 94 | 110 | 96 | 115 | : | 94 | 111 | 74 |
| Age-group 45-54 | 97 | 132 | 130 | 98 | 78 | 111 | 88 | 90 | 82 | 107 | 92 | 92 | : | 95 | 108 | 73 |

(1) Except IRL and A : 1996 = 100.

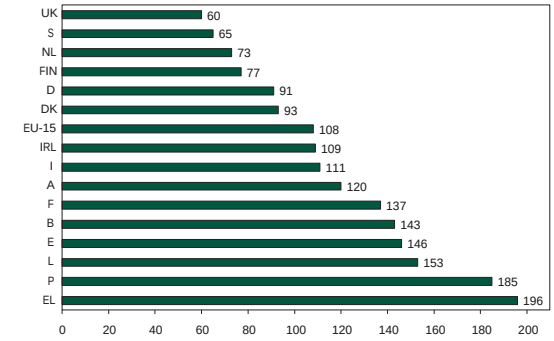
Source: Eurostat - European Statistics on Accidents at Work (ESAW)

**Graph 67 Accidents at work by type of activity, EU-15, 1998**




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

**Graph 68 Number of road traffic deaths per million population, 2000**




Source: Eurostat - Transport Statistics. EL, IRL, I and L: estimates based on national sources.

# Annexes

**Annex I: Key social indicators per Member State**

**Annex II: Statistical data - European Union Member States**

1 Economy
2 Population
3 Education and training
4 Labour market
5 Social protection
6 Income, poverty and regional cohesion
7 Gender equality
8 Health and safety
9 Consumption

**Annex III: Key social indicators per Candidate Country**

**Annex IV: Statistical data - European Union Candidate Countries**

1 Economy
2 Population
3 Education and training
4 Labour market
5 Social protection
6 Income, poverty and regional cohesion
7 Gender equality
8 Health and safety
9 Consumption

**Annex V: List of Eurostat Data Shops**

# Annex I: Key social indicators per Member State

| no. | Key indicator | Unit | Year | EU-15 | B | DK | D | EL | E | F | IRL | I | L | NL | A | P | FIN | S | UK |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 3 | Old age dependency ratio | % | 2000 | 24 | 26 | 22 | 24 | 26 | 25 | 24 | 17 | 27 | 21 | 20 | 23 | 23 | 22 | 27 | 24 |
| 4 | Net migration rate | per 1000 inhab. | 2000 | 2.0 | 1.6 | 1.8 | 2.5 | 2.1 | 1.0 | 0.8 | 5.3 | 2.0 | 10.9 | 2.8 | 2.4 | 1.0 | 0.7 | 1.5 | 2.8 |
| 5 | Early school-leavers not in further education or training | % | 2000 | 20* | 12 | 12 | 15 | 17 | 28 | 13 | 19° | 29 | 17 | 17 | 11° | 43 | 10 | 8 | : |
| 6 | Lifelong learning (adult participation in education and training) | % | 2000 | 8 | 7 | 21 | 5 | 1 | 5 | 3° | 5° | 5 | 5 | 16 | 8° | 3° | 20 | 22 | 21 |
| 7 | Employment rate | % | 2000 | 63.2 | 60.5 | 76.3 | 64.8° | 55.7 | 54.8 | 62.0 | 65.2 | 53.7 | 61.7° | 72.9 | 68.2 | 68.3 | 67.3 | 70.8 | 71.5 |
| 8 | Employment rate of older workers | % | 2000 | 37.5 | 25.0 | 54.6 | 37.4 | 39.0 | 36.6 | 29.3 | 45.1 | 27.3 | 27.2 | 37.9 | 29.2 | 51.7 | 41.2 | 64.3 | 50.5 |
| 9 | Unemployment rate | % | 2000 | 8.2 | 7.0 | 4.7 | 7.9 | 11.1 | 14.1 | 9.5 | 4.2 | 10.5 | 2.4 | 3.0 | 3.7 | 4.1 | 9.8 | 5.9 | 5.5 |
| 10 | Youth unemployment/population ratio | % | 2000 | 7.8 | 6.5 | 5.3 | 4.6 | 11.3 | 11.4 | 7.1 | 3.3 | 11.8 | 2.5 | 4.0 | 2.9 | 4.2 | 11.1 | 5.5 | 8.3 |
| 11 | Long-term unemployment rate | % | 2000 | 3.6 | 3.8 | 1.0 | 4.4 | 6.1 | 5.9 | 3.7 | 1.6 | 6.3 | 0.7 | 0.8 | 1.0 | 1.6 | 2.8 | 1.7 | 1.5 |
| 12 | Social protection expenditure as a percentage of GDP | % | 1999 | 27.6 | 28.2 | 29.4 | 29.6 | 25.5 | 20.0 | 30.3 | 14.7 | 25.3 | 21.9 | 28.1 | 28.6 | 22.9 | 26.7 | 32.9 | 26.9 |
| 13 | Old age and survivors benefits as a percentage of total social benefits | % | 1999 | 46.0 | 43.0 | 38.0 | 42.1 | 50.7 | 46.2 | 44.2 | 25.2 | 64.0 | 41.4 | 41.5 | 47.4 | 43.7 | 35.1 | 39.5 | 46.1 |
| 14 | Distribution of income (S80/S20 ratio) | Ratio | 1998 | 5.4 | 5.8 | 2.7 | 4.8 | 6.5 | 6.8 | 4.7 | 5.3 | 5.9 | 4.6 | 4.4 | 3.8 | 7.2 | 3.0 | 3.4 | 5.7 |
| 15a | Risk of poverty rate before social transfers | % | 1998 | 26 | 28 | 26 | 24 | 23 | 25 | 28 | 33 | 23 | 26 | 21 | 25 | 27 | 27 | 30 | 33 |
| 15b | Risk of poverty rate after social transfers | % | 1998 | 18 | 16 | 9 | 16 | 22 | 19 | 18 | 17 | 20 | 12 | 12 | 13 | 20 | 8 | 10 | 21 |
| 16 | People in jobless households | % | 2000 | 4.5 | 4.5 | : | 4.7 | 4.2 | 5.1 | 5.5 | 6.6 | 5.0 | 0.9 | 1.1 | 2.4 | 1.2 | : | : | 3.9 |
| 17 | Female share in national Parliaments | % | 2001 | 23 | 23 | 38 | 32 | 9 | 28 | 10 | 13 | 11 | 17 | 35 | 28 | 20 | 37 | 44 | 18 |
| 18 | Female employment rate | % | 2000 | 54.0 | 51.5 | 71.6 | 57.1* | 41.2 | 40.3 | 55.1 | 54.1 | 39.6 | 48.6° | 63.6 | 59.5 | 60.3 | 64.3 | 69.3 | 64.8 |
| 19 | Gender pay gap | % | 1998 | 84 | 93 | 90 | 81 | 87 | 86 | 88 | 80 | 91 | 83° | 79 | 79 | 94 | 82° | 82 | 76 |
| 20a | Life expectancy at birth - males | Years | 1999 | 74.6 | 74.3 | 74.0 | 74.5 | 75.5 | 75.3 | 74.9 | 73.5 | 75.5 | 73.7 | 75.2 | 74.4 | 71.7 | 73.7 | 77.1 | 74.8 |
| 20b | Life expectancy at birth - females | Years | 1999 | 80.9 | 80.5 | 78.8 | 80.6 | 80.6 | 82.5 | 82.3 | 79.1 | 81.8 | 80.5 | 80.5 | 80.9 | 78.9 | 81.0 | 81.9 | 79.7 |
| 20c | Disability-free life expectancy (at birth) - males | Years | 1996 | 63 | 65 | 62 | 63 | 67 | 65 | 60 | 64 | 67 | 61 | 63 | 62 | 59 | 56 | : | 61 |
| 20d | Disability-free life expectancy (at birth) - females | Years | 1996 | 66 | 69 | 62 | 69 | 70 | 68 | 63 | 67 | 70 | 64 | 63 | 66 | 61 | 59 | : | 62 |
| 21 | Quality of work (serious accidents at work) Index points | (1994 = 100) | 1998 | 90 | 116 | 121 | 89 | 79 | 115 | 89 | 96° | 88 | 105 | 91 | 93° | 93 | 88 | 118 | 79 |

° = See comment in the corresponding portrait. The figure may be from another year or may have some other limitation.

**Reading note for each key indicator**

3 EU-wide, the number of persons aged 65 and over corresponded to 24% of what is considered to be the working age population (15-64 years) in 2000.
4 The net migration rate for the EU in 2000 was 2.0 per 1000 inhabitants.
5 In 2000, 20% of 18-24 year-olds in the EU had left the education system without completing a qualification beyond lower secondary schooling.
6 EU-wide, 8% of the population aged 25-64 participated in education/training (in the last four weeks) in 2000.
7 63.2% of the EU population aged 15-64 were in employment in 2000.
8 37.5% of the EU population aged 55-64 were in employment in 2000.
9 8.2% of the EU labour force (those at work and those seeking work) were unemployed in 2000.
10 7.8% of the EU population aged 15-24 were unemployed in 2000.
11 3.6% of the EU labour force (those at work and those seeking work) had been unemployed for at least one year in 2000.
12 In 1999, EU social protection expenditure represented 27.6% of Gross Domestic Product (GDP).
13 EU-wide, old-age and survivors benefits make up the largest item of social protection expenditure (46.0% of total benefits in 1999).
14 At EU level, the bottom (poorest) 20% of the population received only 8% of total income in 1998, while the top (richest) 20% received 39% of total income, i.e. 5.4 times as much.
15a EU-wide before social transfers, 26% of the population would have been living below the poverty line in 1998.
15b EU-wide after social transfers, 18% of the population were actually living below the poverty line in 1998.
16 EU-wide, 4.5% of people living in active households (i.e. at least one person belongs to the labour force) were living in jobless households in 2000, i.e. no member of the household was in employment.
17 EU-wide, 23% of the seats in the national Parliaments (or Lower House) were occupied by women in 2001.
18 54.0% of the EU female population aged 15-64 were in employment in 2000.
19 EU-wide, the average gross hourly earnings of women were 84% of the average gross hourly earnings of men in 1998. The population consists of all paid employees aged 16-64 that are 'at work 15+ hours per week'.
20a The average life expectancy at birth of a male citizen in the EU was 74.6 years in 1999.
20b The average life expectancy at birth of a female citizen in the EU was 80.9 years in 1999.
20c On average, a male citizen in the EU should live to 63 without disability (1996 data).
20d On average, a female citizen in the EU should live to 66 without disability (1996 data).
21 EU-wide there occurred 10 % (100-10=90) less working accidents (resulting in more than three days' absence) per 100 000 persons in employment in 1998 than in 1994.

# Annex II: Statistical data - European Union Member States

| 1 ECONOMY | EU-15 | EUR* | B | DK | D | EL | E | F | IRL | I | L | NL | A | P | FIN | S | UK |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *EUR means the euro-zone in its historical composition, so annual data is EUR11, the quarterly and monthly figures are EUR11 if they refer to 2000, EUR12 if they refer to 2001. Growth rates are corrected to be against the correct base number. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| **Gross domestic product at current market prices** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2000, Bn Euro | 8 526 | 6 430 | 248 | 176 | 2 026 | 123 | 609 | 1 405 | 103 | 1 166 | 21 | 401 | 205 | 115 | 132 | 248 | 1 548 |
| GDP growth rates, at constant prices (1995) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Annual growth rate, 1999 | 2.6 | 2.6 | 3.0 | 2.1 | 1.8 | 3.4 | 4.1 | 2.9 | 10.8 | 1.6 | 6.0 | 3.7 | 2.8 | 3.4 | 4.0 | 4.5 | 2.1 |
| Annual growth rate, 2000 | 3.3 | 3.4 | 4.0 | 3.2 | 3.0 | 4.3 | 4.1 | 3.1 | 11.5 | 2.9 | 7.5 | 3.5 | 3.0 | 3.4 | 5.7 | 3.6 | 2.9 |
| Compared to the same quarter of the previous year, 2001Q1 | 2.5 | 2.4 | 3.1 | 1.8 | 1.8 | : | 3.4 | 2.8 | : | 2.5 | : | 1.6 | 2.1 | 2.2 | 3.3 | 2.7 | 2.7 |
| Compared to the same quarter of the previous year, 2001Q2 | 1.7 | 1.7 | 1.6 | 1.3 | 0.6 | : | 2.9 | 2.3 | : | 2.1 | : | 1.4 | 1.2 | 2.5 | 0.4 | 1.9 | 2.3 |
| **GDP per head (Index EU-15=100, in PPS)** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1995 | 100 | 102 | 113 | 118 | 110 | 66 | 78 | 104 | 93 | 103 | 171 | 109 | 110 | 71 | 97 | 103 | 96 |
| 2000 | 100 | 100 | 112 | 120 | 104 | 69 | 80 | 99 | 119 | 102 | 194 | 117 | 109 | 74 | 103 | 102 | 105 |
| **GDP per head in PPS** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2000 | 22 500 | 22 500 | 25 100 | 27 100 | 23 500 | 15 500 | 18 100 | 22 200 | 26 800 | 22 900 | 43 700 | 26 300 | 24 600 | 16 800 | 23 200 | 23 000 | 23 600 |
| Source: Eurostat - National Accounts. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| **General government debt (% of GDP)** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1998 | 68.9 | 73.5 | 119.7 | 55.6 | 60.9 | 105.0 | 64.7 | 59.5 | 54.8 | 116.4 | 6.4 | 66.8 | 63.9 | 54.7 | 48.8 | 70.5 | 48.1 |
| 1999 | 68.0 | 72.1 | 115.9 | 52.0 | 61.3 | 103.9 | 63.4 | 58.5 | 49.3 | 114.6 | 6.0 | 63.1 | 64.7 | 54.5 | 47.3 | 65.3 | 45.7 |
| 2000 | 64.1 | 69.6 | 110.3 | 46.1 | 60.3 | 102.7 | 60.7 | 57.6 | 38.6 | 110.5 | 5.3 | 56.1 | 63.1 | 53.7 | 44.0 | 55.7 | 42.8 |
| **General government deficit (-) (% of GDP)** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1998 | -1.6 | -2.2 | -0.8 | 1.1 | -2.2 | -2.4 | -2.6 | -2.7 | 2.3 | -2.8 | 3.5 | -0.8 | -2.4 | -2.4 | 1.3 | 1.9 | 0.4 |
| 1999 | -0.7 | -1.3 | -0.6 | 3.1 | -1.6 | -1.8 | -1.1 | -1.6 | 2.3 | -1.8 | 3.7 | 0.4 | -2.2 | -2.1 | 1.9 | 1.8 | 1.3 |
| 2000 | 1.2 | 0.3 | 0.1 | 2.8 | 1.2 | -1.1 | -0.3 | -1.3 | 4.5 | -0.3 | 6.1 | 2.2 | -1.1 | -1.5 | 6.9 | 4.1 | 4.3 |
| Source: Eurostat - National and Financial Accounts. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| **Annual inflation rate compared to the same month of the previous year** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| October 2000 | 2.4 | 2.7 | 3.7 | 2.8 | 2.4 | 3.8 | 4.0 | 2.1 | 6.0 | 2.7 | 4.3 | 3.2 | 2.2 | 3.7 | 3.4 | 1.3 | 1.0 |
| August 2001 | 2.6 | 2.7 | 2.5 | 2.5 | 2.6 | 4.0 | 3.8 | 2.0 | 3.7 | 2.8 | 2.5 | 5.2 | 2.5 | 4.0 | 2.7 | 3.0 | 1.8 |
| September 2001 | 2.4 | 2.5 | 1.9 | 2.1 | 2.1 | 4.0 | 3.4 | 1.6 | 3.8 | 2.6 | 1.9 | 5.3 | 2.5 | 4.1 | 2.6 | 3.3 | 1.3 |
| October 2001 | 2.2 | 2.4 | 1.9 | 2.0 | 2.0 | 3.2 | 3.2 | 1.8 | 3.8 | 2.5 | 1.7 | 5.0 | 2.5 | 4.2 | 2.4 | 2.9 | 1.2 |
| **12-month average annual inflation rate. 12-month average rate** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| October 2001 | 2.5 | 2.7 | 2.7 | 2.4 | 2.6 | 3.8 | 3.9 | 1.9 | 4.2 | 2.7 | 2.9 | 4.8 | 2.4 | 4.4 | 2.8 | 2.4 | 1.2 |
| The annual inflation rate measures the price change between the current month and the same month the previous year. This measure is responsive to recent changes in price levels but can be influenced by one-off effects in either month. The 12-month average rate overcomes this volatility by comparing average Harmonized Indices of Consumer Prices (HICPs) in the latest 12 months to the average of the previous 12 months. This measure is less sensitive to transient changes in prices. Source: Eurostat - Price statistics. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| **Interest rates of 10 year government bonds (Maastricht long-term yield), monthly average rate** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| September 2000 | 5.5 | 5.5 | 5.6 | 5.7 | 5.3 | 6.1 | 5.6 | 5.4 | 5.5 | 5.6 | 5.6 | 5.4 | 5.6 | 5.6 | 5.5 | 5.3 | 5.4 |
| July 2001 | 5.2 | 5.3 | 5.4 | 5.3 | 5.0 | 5.5 | 5.4 | 5.2 | 5.2 | 5.4 | 5.1 | 5.2 | 5.3 | 5.4 | 5.3 | 5.4 | 5.3 |
| August 2001 | 5.0 | 5.1 | 5.2 | 5.1 | 4.8 | 5.3 | 5.2 | 5.0 | 5.0 | 5.2 | 4.8 | 5.0 | 5.1 | 5.2 | 5.1 | 5.2 | 5.1 |
| September 2001 | 5.0 | 5.0 | 5.1 | 5.1 | 4.8 | 5.3 | 5.1 | 4.9 | 5.0 | 5.2 | 4.7 | 5.0 | 5.1 | 5.2 | 5.1 | 5.3 | 5.0 |
| **Interest rates of 10 year government bonds (Maastricht long-term yield), annual average rate** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1995 | 8.8 | 8.7 | 7.5 | 8.3 | 6.9 | 17.3 | 11.3 | 7.5 | 8.3 | 12.2 | 7.2 | 6.9 | 7.1 | 11.5 | 8.8 | 10.2 | 8.3 |
| 1998 | 4.9 | 4.7 | 4.8 | 4.9 | 4.6 | 8.5 | 4.8 | 4.6 | 4.8 | 4.9 | 4.7 | 4.6 | 4.7 | 4.9 | 4.8 | 5.0 | 5.6 |
| 1999 | 4.7 | 4.7 | 4.8 | 4.9 | 4.5 | 6.3 | 4.7 | 4.6 | 4.7 | 4.7 | 4.7 | 4.6 | 4.7 | 4.8 | 4.7 | 5.0 | 5.0 |
| 2000 | 5.4 | 5.4 | 5.6 | 5.6 | 5.3 | 6.1 | 5.5 | 5.4 | 5.5 | 5.6 | 5.5 | 5.4 | 5.6 | 5.6 | 5.5 | 5.4 | 5.3 |
| Source: Eurostat - Financial indicators. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| **Net national income per head** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2000. EU-15 = 100 | 100.0 | 96.4 | 107.5 | 137.6 | 107.4 | 57.5 | 67.6 | 103.9 | 107.3 | 90.3 | : | 111.1 | 110.1 | 51.1 | 108.5 | 120.7 | 118.7 |
| **Household consumption per head** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2000. EU-15 = 100 | 100.0 | 94.8 | 99.7 | 120.2 | 109.6 | 61.9 | 68.7 | 96.9 | 99.4 | 92.9 | 139.2 | 95.6 | 109.7 | 54.2 | 95.9 | 106.8 | 129.3 |
| Household consumption includes the consumption expenditure of non-profit institutions serving households. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| **Net saving per head** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2000. EU-15 = 100 | 100.0 | 104.6 | 147.8 | 150.1 | 95.2 | 82.8 | 80.1 | 110.7 | 237.6 | 92.5 | : | 187.4 | 113.2 | 23.7 | 180.8 | 112.6 | 73.8 |
| **Gross compensation per employee** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2000. EU-15 = 100 | 100.0 | 97.0 | 125.4 | 116.7 | 101.5 | 57.3 | 75.2 | 109.3 | 95.5 | 92.0 | 193.9 | 95.5 | 105.2 | : | 98.9 | 115.5 | 112.9 |
| Gross compensation per employee includes wages and salaries plus employers social contributions. Gross compensation of employees is measured according to the domestic concept, while the number of employees is taken from the national concept. This has a significant effect on the ratio for countries such as Luxembourg with a relatively high proportion of workers living in neighbouring countries. Source: Eurostat - National Accounts. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

| 2 POPULATION | EU-15 | B | DK | D | EL | E | F | IRL | I | L | NL | A | P | FIN | S | UK |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total population (1000) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1.1.1960 | 314 826 | 9 129 | 4 565 | 72 543 | 8 300 | 30 327 | 45 465 | 2 836 | 50 026 | 313 | 11 417 | 7 030 | 8 826 | 4 413 | 7 471 | 52 164 |
| 1.1.1980 | 354 572 | 9 855 | 5 122 | 78 180 | 9 588 | 37 242 | 53 731 | 3 393 | 56 388 | 363 | 14 091 | 7 546 | 9 714 | 4 771 | 8 303 | 56 285 |
| 1.1.2000 | 375 974 | 10 239 | 5 330 | 82 163 | 10 543 | 39 442 | 58 744 | 3 777 | 57 680 | 436 | 15 864 | 8 103 | 9 998 | 5 171 | 8 861 | 59 623 |
| 1.1.2001, revised estimate | 377 988 | 10 263 | 5 349 | 82 260 | 10 565 | 40 122 | 59 040 | 3 826 | 57 844 | 441 | 15 987 | 8 121 | 10 243 | 5 181 | 8 883 | 59 863 |
| 1.1.2002, first esimate | 379 449 | 10 292 | 5 367 | 82 360 | 10 596 | 40 428 | 59 344 | 3 874 | 58 018 | 447 | 16 101 | 8 140 | 10 303 | 5 195 | 8 910 | 60 075 |
| 2010, baseline scenario, revision 1999 | 383 397 | 10 352 | 5 476 | 83 435 | 10 768 | 39 857 | 61 369 | 4 141 | 57 277 | 471 | 16 690 | 8 149 | 10 309 | 5 267 | 8 951 | 60 885 |
| 2015, baseline scenario, revision 1999 | 385 186 | 10 419 | 5 514 | 83 477 | 10 817 | 39 824 | 62 192 | 4 295 | 56 761 | 485 | 16 993 | 8 163 | 10 437 | 5 295 | 9 017 | 61 495 |
| 2020, baseline scenario, revision 1999 | 385 984 | 10 483 | 5 554 | 83 295 | 10 806 | 39 528 | 62 840 | 4 427 | 55 985 | 500 | 17 270 | 8 170 | 10 526 | 5 314 | 9 115 | 62 173 |
| 2050, baseline scenario, revision 1999 | 364 485 | 10 104 | 5 555 | 76 006 | 10 231 | 35 145 | 62 153 | 4 757 | 48 072 | 559 | 17 679 | 7 612 | 10 669 | 4 951 | 9 197 | 61 793 |

The new estimates for 1.1.2001 and 1.1.2002 could not be incorporated into the portrait "2. Demography, households and families" in Section 3.

**Population growth rates (per 1000 population), 2000**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total increase | 2.8 | 2.3 | 3.6 | 0.4 | 2.1 | 1.2 | 5.0 | 11.4 | 2.8 | 12.8 | 7.5 | 2.3 | 2.5 | 1.9 | 2.4 | 3.5 |
| Natural increase | 1.0 | 1.1 | 1.7 | -0.9 | -0.2 | 0.7 | 4.1 | 6.1 | -0.3 | 4.5 | 4.1 | 0.2 | 1.4 | 1.4 | -0.3 | 1.2 |
| Net migration | 1.8 | 1.2 | 1.9 | 1.3 | 2.3 | 0.5 | 0.9 | 5.3 | 3.1 | 8.3 | 3.3 | 2.1 | 1.1 | 0.5 | 2.7 | 2.3 |

The increase in total population is made up of the natural increase (live births less deaths) and net migration. Net migration is estimated on the basis of the difference between population change and natural increase (corrected net migration).

**Population structure (percentage of total), 2000**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |
| 0-19 | 23.0 | 23.6 | 23.7 | 21.3 | 21.8 | 21.7 | 25.6 | 30.8 | 19.8 | 24.4 | 24.4 | 22.8 | 23.5 | 24.7 | 24.2 | 25.3 |
| 20-59 | 55.4 | 54.5 | 56.6 | 55.7 | 55.1 | 56.7 | 53.9 | 54.1 | 56.3 | 56.5 | 57.5 | 56.8 | 55.9 | 55.5 | 53.6 | 54.3 |
| 60-79 | 18.0 | 18.4 | 15.8 | 19.4 | 19.6 | 17.9 | 16.9 | 12.6 | 20.0 | 16.0 | 15.0 | 16.9 | 17.8 | 16.5 | 17.2 | 16.5 |
| 80 and over | 3.7 | 3.5 | 3.9 | 3.6 | 3.5 | 3.7 | 3.6 | 2.5 | 3.9 | 3.1 | 3.2 | 3.5 | 2.8 | 3.3 | 4.9 | 4.0 |

Source: Eurostat - Demographic statistics.

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Population aged 0-14** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2000 (1000s) | 63533 | 1795 | 983 | 12915 | 1603 | 5940 | 11145 | 826 | 8290 | 82 | 2946 | 1360 | 1677 | 943 | 1638 | 11390 |
| percentage change, 2000/2015 | -8 | -11 | -6 | -11 | -1 | -4 | -4 | 6 | -10 | -3 | -2 | -18 | 7 | -12 | -18 | -11 |
| **Population aged 15-24** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2000 (1000s) | 46736 | 1240 | 620 | 9123 | 1476 | 5778 | 7722 | 658 | 6823 | 49 | 1877 | 954 | 1484 | 662 | 1025 | 7244 |
| percentage change, 2000/2015 | -7 | -1 | 15 | -2 | -26 | -31 | -4 | -17 | -17 | 30 | 11 | -1 | -21 | -3 | 10 | 7 |
| **Population aged 25-54** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2000 (1000s) | 163365 | 4434 | 2344 | 35831 | 4446 | 17158 | 25441 | 1549 | 25324 | 197 | 7299 | 3611 | 4245 | 2258 | 3678 | 25549 |
| percentage change, 2000/2015 | -3 | -6 | -7 | -3 | 3 | 2 | -3 | 19 | -6 | 0 | -6 | -3 | 4 | -10 | -3 | -1 |
| **Population aged 55-64** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2000 (1000s) | 41549 | 1042 | 595 | 10955 | 1199 | 3960 | 5473 | 319 | 6808 | 44 | 1583 | 912 | 1060 | 543 | 987 | 6070 |
| percentage change, 2000/2015 | 19 | 36 | 16 | 3 | 13 | 25 | 46 | 49 | 9 | 41 | 41 | 16 | 18 | 37 | 14 | 23 |
| **Population aged 65 and over** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2000 (1000s) | 60988 | 1712 | 790 | 13313 | 1819 | 6596 | 9419 | 424 | 10343 | 62 | 2154 | 1253 | 1535 | 766 | 1533 | 9268 |
| percentage change, 2000/2015 | 22 | 17 | 28 | 28 | 20 | 15 | 23 | 32 | 22 | 32 | 36 | 23 | 16 | 36 | 21 | 18 |
| **Population aged 80 and over** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2000 (1000s) | 13752 | 353 | 208 | 2897 | 373 | 1453 | 2117 | 95 | 2240 | 13 | 501 | 278 | 285 | 171 | 436 | 2332 |
| percentage change, 2000/2015 | 48 | 61 | 7 | 49 | 71 | 59 | 66 | 26 | 63 | 67 | 36 | 38 | 51 | 44 | 6 | 18 |

Source: Eurostat - Demographic Statistics; baseline demographic scenario, projection 1995, revision 1999.

**Percentage of people who had moved house in the previous ten years**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Had moved | 37.5 | 34.8 | 57.1 | 36.4 | 28.9 | 32.2 | 41.5 | 28.3 | 19.9 | 39.2 | 53.4 | 30.1 | 25.3 | 59.2 | 55.7 | 52.1 |
| Hadn't moved | 62.0 | 64.2 | 42.9 | 62.5 | 70.8 | 67.5 | 58.4 | 70.9 | 79.9 | 60.3 | 46.3 | 68.4 | 74.7 | 40.6 | 44.3 | 47.6 |
| Refused to answer | 0.5 | 1.0 | 0.0 | 1.1 | 0.3 | 0.3 | 0.1 | 0.9 | 0.2 | 0.4 | 0.3 | 1.5 | 0.0 | 0.2 | 0.0 | 0.3 |

**Percentage of number of moves made among those who had moved house in the previous ten years**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Once | 57.6 | 58.3 | 43.9 | 61.7 | 68.1 | 64.2 | 46.3 | 63.8 | 71.3 | 60.7 | 48.8 | 50.9 | 77.0 | 42.5 | 39.4 | 59.8 |
| Twice | 19.8 | 20.0 | 20.0 | 21.4 | 16.8 | 16.7 | 24.0 | 14.7 | 19.5 | 18.8 | 24.1 | 24.5 | 8.4 | 19.7 | 21.5 | 15.7 |
| Three times | 9.5 | 11.1 | 12.3 | 8.3 | 9.7 | 7.6 | 12.7 | 6.4 | 3.1 | 11.1 | 10.5 | 11.1 | 6.3 | 13.3 | 16.7 | 9.4 |
| Four times | 4.6 | 4.2 | 9.8 | 1.9 | 3.2 | 3.1 | 6.1 | 6.1 | 3.9 | 3.7 | 7.1 | 5.3 | 1.8 | 8.6 | 9.3 | 5.1 |
| Five times and more | 7.3 | 3.9 | 13.7 | 4.8 | 2.2 | 5.9 | 10.4 | 7.1 | 1.6 | 4.0 | 9.4 | 4.4 | 1.7 | 15.9 | 12.4 | 9.1 |
| Didn't know | 1.3 | 2.4 | 0.4 | 1.9 | 0.0 | 2.6 | 0.5 | 2.0 | 0.6 | 1.7 | 0.2 | 3.7 | 4.8 | 0.0 | 0.6 | 1.0 |

**Average number of moves made among those who had moved house in the previous ten years**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1.9 | 1.8 | 2.5 | 1.7 | 1.6 | 1.7 | 2.2 | 1.8 | 1.5 | 1.7 | 2.1 | 1.9 | 1.4 | 2.6 | 2.5 | 2.0 |

| 2 POPULATION (contd.) | EU-15 | B | DK | D | EL | E | F | IRL | I | L | NL | A | P | FIN | S | UK |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Percentage of people who had at least once moved within the same city, town or village among those who had moved in the previous ten years** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Moved within same city .. | 68.2 | 69.6 | 68.8 | 66.3 | 63.1 | 73.6 | 59.6 | 68.5 | 60.8 | 51.2 | 70.3 | 63.2 | 73.1 | 76.1 | 81.9 | 74.6 |
| Not moved within same city | 30.7 | 28.8 | 30.3 | 31.3 | 36.9 | 25.5 | 39.8 | 27.7 | 39.2 | 45.9 | 28.6 | 35.3 | 26.9 | 21.9 | 17.8 | 24.5 |
| Didn't know | 1.1 | 1.6 | 0.9 | 2.4 | 0.0 | 0.9 | 0.6 | 3.7 | 0.0 | 2.9 | 1.1 | 1.5 | 0.0 | 2.0 | 0.3 | 1.0 |
| **Percentage of people who had at least once moved to another city, town or village in the same region among those who had moved in the previous ten years** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Moved to another city... within region | 36.3 | 42.3 | 40.1 | 38.4 | 13.8 | 32.5 | 48.9 | 28.2 | 29.8 | 53.7 | 36.5 | 38.4 | 24.9 | 36.6 | 37.6 | 30.1 |
| Not moved to another city ...within region | 61.2 | 53.0 | 58.8 | 56.3 | 86.2 | 66.3 | 50.5 | 65.9 | 70.2 | 43.7 | 61.8 | 60.0 | 74.6 | 57.1 | 61.8 | 66.7 |
| Didn't know | 2.5 | 4.6 | 1.1 | 5.3 | 0.0 | 1.2 | 0.6 | 5.9 | 0.0 | 2.7 | 1.7 | 1.6 | 0.5 | 6.3 | 0.6 | 3.2 |
| **Percentage of people who had at least once moved to another region within the same country among those who had moved in the previous ten years** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Moved to another region... within country | 21.2 | 19.2 | 29.8 | 18.2 | 26.8 | 11.7 | 29.2 | 19.1 | 17.6 | 39.4 | 26.9 | 37.9 | 10.6 | 23.5 | 25.8 | 18.9 |
| Not moved to another region... within country | 75.4 | 74.8 | 68.9 | 74.2 | 73.2 | 87.0 | 68.9 | 75.2 | 82.4 | 57.3 | 71.5 | 60.5 | 89.1 | 68.7 | 73.7 | 77.6 |
| Don't know | 3.4 | 6.0 | 1.3 | 7.6 | 0.0 | 1.2 | 1.9 | 5.8 | 0.0 | 3.3 | 1.6 | 1.6 | 0.2 | 7.9 | 0.5 | 3.5 |
| **Percentage of people who had at least once moved to another country within the European Union among those who had moved in the previous ten years** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Moved to another country ...within EU | 4.4 | 6.4 | 5.2 | 3.4 | 2.4 | 2.8 | 5.6 | 13.4 | 2.1 | 20.4 | 6.6 | 13.0 | 4.2 | 5.8 | 4.6 | 4.2 |
| Not moved to another country ...within EU | 91.9 | 86.4 | 93.3 | 89.7 | 97.6 | 95.7 | 91.7 | 80.4 | 97.9 | 73.4 | 91.3 | 86.6 | 95.6 | 85.5 | 94.8 | 91.1 |
| Didn't know | 3.7 | 7.2 | 1.5 | 6.8 | 0.0 | 1.5 | 2.7 | 6.3 | 0.0 | 6.2 | 2.1 | 0.4 | 0.2 | 8.7 | 0.6 | 4.6 |
| **Percentage of people who had lived in a country outside the European Union among those who had moved in the previous ten years** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Had lived outside the EU | 4.6 | 3.5 | 7.5 | 5.0 | 4.7 | 4.5 | 4.4 | 6.9 | 2.1 | 6.7 | 4.3 | 8.7 | 3.6 | 5.1 | 9.3 | 4.0 |
| Hadn't lived outside the EU | 92.6 | 93.2 | 91.0 | 88.4 | 95.0 | 94.0 | 92.3 | 86.0 | 97.9 | 86.6 | 93.2 | 91.1 | 95.6 | 90.9 | 90.1 | 95.0 |
| Didn't know | 2.8 | 3.3 | 1.5 | 6.6 | 0.3 | 1.5 | 3.3 | 7.1 | 0.0 | 6.7 | 2.5 | 0.2 | 0.8 | 4.1 | 0.6 | 1.0 |

Source: European Commission - Eurobarometer 54.2. winter 2000, questions 35, 36 and 37a)-e).

**Immigration by main group of citizenship, 1999**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total | 2 062 982 | 68 466 | 51 372 | 874 023 | 12 630 | 127 365 | 57 846 | 47 522 | 171 967 | 12 794 | 119 151 | 86 710 | 14 476 | 14 744 | 49 839 | 354 077 |
| Nationals | 510 137 | 10 682 | 22 542 | 200 150 | : | 28 243 | : | 25 922 | 28 816 | 1 018 | 40 786 | 14 331 | : | 6 807 | 15 266 | 115 574 |
| Nationals of other EU Member State | 354 588 | 28 022 | 7 983 | 135 268 | 2 888 | 32 104 | 5 551 | 14 695 | 9 240 | 8 204 | 20 439 | 13 326 | 4 568 | 1 521 | 8 836 | 61 943 |
| Non EU nationals | 1 198 257 | 29 762 | 20 847 | 538 605 | 9 742 | 67 018 | 52 295 | 6 905 | 133 911 | 3 572 | 57 926 | 59 053 | 9 908 | 6 416 | 25 737 | 176 560 |

DK and EL: 1998, I: 1996.

**Emigration by main group of citizenship, 1999**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total | 1 256 000 | 41 307 | 40 340 | 672 048 | : | : | : | 29 000 | 46 273 | 8 075 | 59 023 | 66 923 | : | 11 966 | 35 705 | 245 340 |
| Nationals | 403 139 | 16 927 | 24 693 | 116 410 | : | : | : | : | 38 984 | 1 172 | 38 358 | 19 644 | : | 9 966 | 22 123 | 114 862 |
| Nationals of other EU Member State | 244 527 | 15 997 | 5 807 | 141 205 | : | : | : | : | 2 173 | 5 560 | 10 127 | 7 653 | : | 947 | 6 365 | 48 693 |
| Non EU nationals | 579 334 | 8 383 | 9 840 | 414 433 | : | : | : | : | 5 116 | 1 343 | 10 538 | 39 626 | : | 1 053 | 7 217 | 81 785 |

DK: 1998. IRL and I: 1997.

**Net migration by main group of citizenship, 1999**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total | : | 27 159 | 11 032 | 201 975 | : | : | : | : | : | 4 719 | 60 128 | 19 787 | : | 2 778 | 14 134 | 108 737 |
| Nationals | : | - 6 245 | - 2 151 | 83 740 | : | : | : | : | : | - 154 | 2 428 | - 5 313 | : | - 3 159 | - 6 857 | 712 |
| Nationals of other EU Member State | : | 12 025 | 2 176 | - 5 937 | : | : | : | : | : | 2 644 | 10 312 | 5 673 | : | 574 | 2 471 | 13 250 |
| Non EU nationals | : | 21 379 | 11 007 | 124 172 | : | : | : | : | : | 2 229 | 47 388 | 19 427 | : | 5 363 | 18 520 | 94 775 |

DK: 1998.

**Population by main group of citizenship, in thousands, 2000 (or latest data)**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total | 374 667 | 10 239 | 5 314 | 82 163 | 10 487 | 39 442 | 58 521 | 3 787 | 57 680 | 424 | 15 864 | 8 103 | 9 998 | 5 171 | 8 861 | 58 614 |
| Nationals | 355 974 | 9 386 | 5 057 | 74 820 | 10 325 | 38 640 | 55 258 | 3 660 | 56 409 | 276 | 15 212 | 7 349 | 9 807 | 5 084 | 8 374 | 56 317 |
| Foreigners | 18 692 | 853 | 256 | 7 344 | 161 | 801 | 3 263 | 127 | 1 271 | 148 | 652 | 754 | 191 | 88 | 487 | 2 298 |
| Nationals of other EU Member State | 5 801 | 564 | 53 | 1 859 | 45 | 312 | 1 195 | 92 | 149 | 131 | 196 | 99 | 52 | 16 | 177 | 859 |
| Non EU nationals | 12 892 | 290 | 203 | 5 485 | 116 | 489 | 2 068 | 34 | 1 122 | 16 | 456 | 654 | 138 | 71 | 310 | 1 439 |

DK: 1999, EL: 1997, F: 1999, L: 1998, UK: 1999, A: The breakdown of foreigners calculated using the 1998 ratio of Nationals of other EU Member State to Non EU nationals. The EU-15 figures here are just the sums of the other figures in the row. Since five countries' data is earlier than 2000 data, the EU-15 total population figure given in the table is too little. The current estimate is 375 974 000. It will be revised in spring 2002 based on revision of at least French and Spanish data.

| 2 POPULATION (contd.) | EU-15 | B | DK | D | EL | E | F | IRL | I | L | NL | A | P | FIN | S | UK |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Population by main group of citizenship. in percentages, 2000 (or latest data)** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Nationals | 95.0 | 91.7 | 95.2 | 91.1 | 98.5 | 98.0 | 94.4 | 96.7 | 97.8 | 65.1 | 95.9 | 90.7 | 98.1 | 98.3 | 94.5 | 96.1 |
| Foreigners | 5.0 | 8.3 | 4.8 | 8.9 | 1.5 | 2.0 | 5.6 | 3.3 | 2.2 | 34.9 | 4.1 | 9.3 | 1.9 | 1.7 | 5.5 | 3.9 |
| Nationals of other EU Member State | 1.5 | 5.5 | 1.0 | 2.3 | 0.4 | 0.8 | 2.0 | 2.4 | 0.3 | 31.0 | 1.2 | 1.2 | 0.5 | 0.3 | 2.0 | 1.5 |
| Non EU nationals | 3.4 | 2.8 | 3.8 | 6.7 | 1.1 | 1.2 | 3.5 | 0.9 | 1.9 | 3.8 | 2.9 | 7.9 | 1.4 | 1.4 | 3.5 | 2.5 |
| DK: 1999, EL: 1997, F: 1999, L: 1998, UK: 1999, A: breakdown for foreigners: 1998. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| **Asylum applications, 1000s** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1990 | 397.0 | 12.9 | 5.3 | 193.1 | 4.1 | 8.6 | 54.8 | 0.1 | 3.6 | 0.1 | 21.2 | 22.8 | 0.1 | 2.7 | 29.4 | 38.2 |
| 1991 | 511.2 | 15.4 | 4.6 | 256.1 | 2.7 | 8.1 | 47.4 | 0.0 | 24.5 | 0.2 | 21.6 | 27.3 | 0.2 | 2.1 | 27.4 | 73.4 |
| 1992 | 672.4 | 17.7 | 13.9 | 438.2 | 2.1 | 11.7 | 28.9 | 0.0 | 2.6 | 0.1 | 20.3 | 16.2 | 0.7 | 3.6 | 84.0 | 32.3 |
| 1993 | 516.7 | 26.7 | 14.3 | 322.6 | 0.9 | 12.6 | 27.6 | 0.1 | 1.3 | 0.2 | 35.4 | 4.7 | 2.1 | 2.0 | 37.6 | 28.5 |
| 1994 | 300.3 | 14.3 | 6.7 | 127.2 | 1.1 | 12.0 | 26.0 | 0.4 | 1.8 | 0.3 | 52.6 | 5.1 | 0.6 | 0.8 | 18.6 | 32.8 |
| 1995 | 263.7 | 11.4 | 5.1 | 127.9 | 1.3 | 5.7 | 20.4 | 0.4 | 1.8 | 0.3 | 29.3 | 5.9 | 0.3 | 0.8 | 9.0 | 44.0 |
| 1996 | 227.8 | 12.4 | 5.9 | 117.3 | 1.6 | 4.7 | 17.4 | 1.2 | 0.7 | 0.3 | 22.9 | 7.0 | 0.3 | 0.7 | 5.8 | 29.6 |
| 1997 | 242.8 | 11.8 | 5.1 | 104.4 | 4.4 | 5.0 | 21.4 | 3.9 | 1.9 | 0.4 | 34.4 | 6.7 | 0.3 | 1.0 | 9.7 | 32.5 |
| 1998 | 295.5 | 22.0 | 5.7 | 98.6 | 3.0 | 4.9 | 22.4 | 4.6 | 13.1 | 1.7 | 45.2 | 13.8 | 0.4 | 1.3 | 12.8 | 46.0 |
| 1999 | 352.5 | 35.7 | 6.5 | 95.1 | 1.5 | 8.4 | 30.9 | 7.7 | 18.5 | 2.9 | 39.3 | 20.1 | 0.3 | 3.1 | 11.2 | 71.2 |
| **Rate per 1 000 inhabitants, 1999** | 0.9 | 3.5 | 1.2 | 1.2 | 0.1 | 0.2 | 0.5 | 2.1 | 0.3 | 6.8 | 2.5 | 2.5 | 0.0 | 0.6 | 1.3 | 1.2 |

B: excluding dependent children. Figure for 1999 is calculated as the sum of monthly data supplied to Eurostat, I: excluding dependent children, DK: excluding applications made outside Denmank and rejected applications at the border, D: excluding repeat applications. Includes dependent children if the parents requested asylum for them, EL: figures for 1989-92 are the sum of the applications registered with the Greek authorities and those registered with UNHCR (United Nations High Commission for Refugees). E: up to 1998 - excluding dependants; 1999 - including dependants, F: excluding children and some accompanying adults, NL, A: excluding displaced persons from the former Yugoslavia granted exceptional leave to remain, S: excluding repeat applications, UK: excluding dependents.

Source: Eurostat - Migration Statistics.

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Number of households (thousands), 2000** | 154 332 | 4 314 | 2 434 | 37 478 | 3 886 | 12 982 | 24 411 | 1 192 | 21 660 | 164 | 6 822 | 3 264 | 3 389 | 2 373 | 4 369 | 25 597 |
| **Average number of persons per household** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1981/82 | 2.8 | 2.7 | 2.4 | 2.5 | 3.1 | 3.6 | 2.7 | 3.6 | 3.0 | 2.8 | 2.8 | 2.7 | 3.3 | 2.6 | 2.3 | 2.7 |
| 2000 | 2.4 | 2.4 | 2.2 | 2.2 | 2.7 | 3.0 | 2.4 | 3.0 | 2.6 | 2.6 | 2.3 | 2.4 | 2.9 | 2.2 | 2.0 | 2.3 |

IRL: 1997, DK, FIN, S: data from national sources. Source: Eurostat - Censuses of Population (1981/82). European Union Labour Force Survey (2000).

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Population living in private households by household type, 2000** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total population | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |
| 1 adult without dependent children | 12 | 12 | 17 | 16 | 8 | 5 | 13 | 7 | 9 | 10 | 14 | 12 | 5 | 17 | 20 | 13 |
| ... aged under 30 | 2 | 1 | 4 | 3 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 3 | 2 | 0 | 4 | 5 | 2 |
| ... aged 30-64 | 5 | 5 | 7 | 7 | 3 | 2 | 5 | 3 | 3 | 5 | 6 | 6 | 1 | 8 | 9 | 6 |
| ... aged 65 or more | 5 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 4 | 3 | 5 | 3 | 5 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 3 | 6 | 6 | 6 |
| ... *Male* | 5 | 5 | 8 | 7 | 3 | 2 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 4 | 6 | 5 | 1 | 7 | 10 | 6 |
| ... ... aged under 30 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 3 | 1 |
| ... ... aged 30-64 | 3 | 3 | 4 | 4 | 1 | 1 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 3 | 1 | 4 | 5 | 3 |
| ... ... aged 65 or more | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 |
| ... *Female* | 7 | 8 | 9 | 9 | 5 | 3 | 8 | 4 | 6 | 5 | 8 | 8 | 3 | 10 | 10 | 7 |
| ... ... aged under 30 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 2 | 1 |
| ... ... aged 30-64 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 1 | 1 | 3 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 1 | 4 | 3 | 3 |
| ... ... aged 65 or more | 4 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 3 | 2 | 4 | 2 | 4 | 3 | 4 | 4 | 2 | 4 | 5 | 4 |
| 2 adults without dependent children | 24 | 25 | 28 | 29 | 22 | 17 | 25 | 14 | 18 | 19 | 29 | 23 | 16 | 26 | 25 | 27 |
| ... both younger 65 | 14 | 14 | 19 | 18 | 9 | 7 | 15 | 8 | 8 | 12 | 20 | 14 | 8 | 16 | 15 | 17 |
| ... at least one aged 65 or more | 10 | 11 | 9 | 11 | 13 | 10 | 10 | 6 | 10 | 7 | 9 | 9 | 9 | 9 | 10 | 10 |
| 3 or more adults without dependent children | 14 | 11 | 8 | 10 | 21 | 23 | 8 | 13 | 21 | 12 | 10 | 15 | 18 | 5 | 1 | 11 |
| 1 adult with dependent children | 4 | 5 | 3 | 4 | 2 | 2 | 5 | 3 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 5 | 7 | 8 |
| 2 adults with dependent children | 35 | 40 | 35 | 33 | 34 | 34 | 42 | 39 | 36 | 44 | 35 | 33 | 38 | 41 | 45 | 32 |
| ... 1 child | 11 | 12 | 11 | 12 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 8 | 13 | 14 | 9 | 11 | 16 | 13 | 12 | 9 |
| ... 2 children | 17 | 17 | 15 | 15 | 18 | 18 | 18 | 15 | 18 | 19 | 17 | 16 | 17 | 17 | 20 | 15 |
| ... 3 or more children | 8 | 11 | 9 | 6 | 5 | 5 | 12 | 17 | 5 | 11 | 8 | 6 | 5 | 11 | 13 | 9 |
| 3 or more adults with dependent children | 11 | 7 | 10 | 7 | 13 | 20 | 8 | 24 | 13 | 12 | 9 | 14 | 20 | 6 | 1 | 8 |

Note: Dependent children include all children younger than 15 years plus all those persons aged 15-24 who are economically inactive (mainly in education) and who are living with at least one of their parents.

Source: Eurostat - European Labour Force Survey 2000. DK, IRL, FIN, S: 1997. European Community Household Panel. UDB September 2001.

| 2 POPULATION (contd.) | EU-15 | B | DK | D | EL | E | F | IRL | I | L | NL | A | P | FIN | S | UK |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Population living in private households by household type, 1988** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total population | 100 | 100 | : | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | : | 100 | : | : | 100 |
| 1 adult without dependent children | 10 | 11 | : | 15 | 6 | 3 | 11 | 6 | 8 | 9 | 11 | : | 4 | : | : | 10 |
| 2 adults without dependent children | 21 | 21 | : | 25 | 18 | 13 | 22 | 13 | 18 | 21 | 23 | : | 15 | : | : | 25 |
| 3 or more adults without dependent children | 14 | 10 | : | 14 | 15 | 17 | 9 | 12 | 18 | 16 | 11 | : | 15 | : | : | 16 |
| 1 adult with dependent children | 3 | 3 | : | 3 | 2 | 1 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 3 | : | 2 | : | : | 4 |
| 2 adults with dependent children | 38 | 46 | : | 33 | 42 | 37 | 46 | 46 | 40 | 38 | 41 | : | 34 | : | : | 35 |
| 3 or more adults with dependent children | 14 | 8 | : | 10 | 18 | 29 | 9 | 21 | 14 | 15 | 10 | : | 29 | : | : | 11 |

Source: Eurostat - European Labour Force Survey 1988.

**Elderly population by household situation and age-group, 2010**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Population aged 65 and over* | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Persons living alone | 32 | 35 | 42 | 35 | 27 | 22 | 34 | 32 | 27 | 28 | 33 | 31 | 23 | 38 | 42 | 35 |
| Persons living with a partner | 54 | 48 | 52 | 56 | 57 | 58 | 54 | 42 | 52 | 52 | 55 | 52 | 57 | 48 | 54 | 52 |
| Other household situations | 9 | 13 | 2 | 5 | 10 | 18 | 6 | 17 | 14 | 16 | 3 | 13 | 18 | 9 | 2 | 8 |
| Institutional households | 4 | 4 | 5 | 3 | 6 | 2 | 5 | 9 | 7 | 4 | 9 | 4 | 2 | 5 | 2 | 4 |
| *Population aged 65-79 years* | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Persons living alone | 27 | 29 | 36 | 30 | 23 | 18 | 29 | 30 | 23 | 24 | 30 | 26 | 20 | 34 | 33 | 30 |
| Persons living with a partner | 63 | 56 | 60 | 64 | 65 | 67 | 64 | 49 | 61 | 61 | 65 | 60 | 64 | 56 | 64 | 61 |
| Other household situations | 8 | 13 | 2 | 4 | 8 | 13 | 5 | 15 | 12 | 12 | 2 | 12 | 15 | 8 | 2 | 7 |
| Institutional households | 2 | 2 | 3 | 1 | 4 | 1 | 2 | 6 | 4 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 |
| *Population aged 80+* | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Persons living alone | 45 | 51 | 62 | 52 | 36 | 30 | 46 | 39 | 39 | 38 | 44 | 43 | 32 | 49 | 62 | 50 |
| Persons living with a partner | 31 | 28 | 26 | 29 | 35 | 34 | 34 | 19 | 30 | 28 | 27 | 29 | 35 | 23 | 30 | 31 |
| Other household situations | 14 | 14 | 2 | 9 | 16 | 32 | 10 | 23 | 17 | 25 | 5 | 17 | 30 | 14 | 3 | 11 |
| Institutional households | 10 | 8 | 10 | 10 | 12 | 4 | 10 | 19 | 13 | 9 | 24 | 11 | 4 | 14 | 4 | 8 |

The category 'Persons living with a partner' includes elderly persons who live with their partner and other adults or children.

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

**Children (0-14 years) living in families with only one adult (person aged at least 15 years) as a % of all children (0-14 years) living in families**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1990 | 6.0 | 5.6 | : | 6.7 | 2.4 | 1.6 | 6.5 | 4.1 | 3.3 | 4.0 | 5.3 | : | 4.4 | : | : | 11.9 |
| 2000 | 9.7 | 10.9 | : | 10.3 | 3.0 | 2.8 | 8.7 | 8.6 | 4.1 | 5.4 | 8.1 | 8.3 | 4.7 | : | : | 19.8 |

**Youngest age at which at least 50 % of young people of the same age are not living with their parents, by sex**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Males* | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1992 | : | 24 | : | 24 | 29 | 28 | 23 | 26 | 28 | 25 | 23 | : | 26 | : | : | 23 |
| 2000 | : | 24 | : | 24 | 31 | 30 | 24 | : | 31 | 24 | 24 | 26 | 28 | : | : | 23 |
| *Females* | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1992 | : | 22 | : | 22 | 24 | 26 | 21 | 24 | 25 | 23 | 21 | : | 25 | : | : | 21 |
| 2000 | : | 23 | : | 22 | 27 | 29 | 22 | : | 28 | 21 | 21 | 24 | 26 | : | : | 20 |

Source: Eurostat - European Union Labour Force Survey

**Crude marriage rate (per 1 000 population)**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1960 | 8.0 | 7.2 | 7.8 | 9.5 | 7.0 | 7.7 | 7.0 | 5.5 | 7.7 | 7.1 | 7.8 | 8.3 | 7.8 | 7.4 | 6.7 | 7.5 |
| 1970 | 7.7 | 7.6 | 7.4 | 7.4 | 7.7 | 7.3 | 7.8 | 7.0 | 7.3 | 6.4 | 9.5 | 7.1 | 9.4 | 8.8 | 5.4 | 8.5 |
| 1980 | 6.3 | 6.7 | 5.2 | 6.3 | 6.5 | 5.9 | 6.2 | 6.4 | 5.7 | 5.9 | 6.4 | 6.2 | 7.4 | 6.1 | 4.5 | 7.4 |
| 1990 | 6.0 | 6.5 | 6.1 | 6.5 | 5.8 | 5.7 | 5.1 | 5.1 | 5.6 | 6.1 | 6.4 | 5.8 | 7.2 | 5.0 | 4.7 | 6.5 |
| 1999 | 5.1 | 4.3 | 6.7 | 5.2 | 5.9 | 5.2 | 4.8 | 4.9 | 4.8 | 4.8 | 5.7 | 4.9 | 6.9 | 4.7 | 4.0 | 5.1 |
| 2000 | : | 4.4 | : | 5.1 | 5.9 | : | 5.1 | 5.0 | : | 4.9 | 5.5 | 4.8 | 6.4 | 5.1 | 4.5 | : |

The crude marriage rate is the ratio of the number of marriages to the mean population in a given year.

**Total fertility rate**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1960 | 2.59 | 2.56 | 2.57 | 2.37 | 2.28 | 2.86 | 2.73 | 3.76 | 2.41 | 2.28 | 3.12 | 2.69 | 3.1 | 2.72 | 2.2 | 2.72 |
| 1970 | 2.38 | 2.25 | 1.95 | 2.03 | 2.39 | 2.90 | 2.47 | 3.93 | 2.42 | 1.98 | 2.57 | 2.29 | 2.83 | 1.82 | 1.92 | 2.43 |
| 1980 | 1.82 | 1.68 | 1.55 | 1.56 | 2.21 | 2.20 | 1.95 | 3.23 | 1.64 | 1.49 | 1.60 | 1.65 | 2.18 | 1.63 | 1.68 | 1.90 |
| 1990 | 1.57 | 1.62 | 1.67 | 1.45 | 1.39 | 1.36 | 1.78 | 2.11 | 1.33 | 1.61 | 1.62 | 1.45 | 1.57 | 1.78 | 2.13 | 1.83 |
| 2000 | 1.53 | 1.65 | 1.76 | 1.34 | 1.30 | 1.22 | 1.89 | 1.89 | 1.25 | 1.78 | 1.72 | 1.32 | 1.54 | 1.73 | 1.54 | 1.64 |

The total fertility rate is the average number of children that would be born alive to a woman during her lifetime if current fertility rates were to continue.

**Percentage of live births outside marriage**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1960 | 5.1 | 2.1 | 7.8 | 7.6 | 1.2 | 2.3 | 6.1 | 1.6 | 2.4 | 3.2 | 1.4 | 13.0 | 9.5 | 4.0 | 11.3 | 5.2 |
| 1970 | 5.6 | 2.8 | 11.0 | 7.2 | 1.1 | 1.4 | 6.9 | 2.7 | 2.2 | 4.0 | 2.1 | 12.8 | 7.3 | 5.8 | 18.6 | 8.0 |
| 1980 | 9.6 | 4.1 | 33.2 | 11.9 | 1.5 | 3.9 | 11.4 | 5.0 | 4.3 | 6.0 | 4.1 | 17.8 | 9.2 | 13.1 | 39.7 | 11.5 |
| 1990 | 19.6 | 11.6 | 46.4 | 15.3 | 2.2 | 9.6 | 30.1 | 14.6 | 6.5 | 12.8 | 11.4 | 23.6 | 14.7 | 25.2 | 47.0 | 27.9 |
| 1999 | 27.2 | 20.1 | 44.9 | 21.6 | 4.0 | 14.1 | 40.7 | 30.9 | 9.2 | 18.6 | 22.8 | 30.5 | 20.8 | 38.7 | 55.3 | 38.8 |
| 2000 | : | : | : | 23.0 | 4.0 | : | : | 31.8 | : | 21.9 | 25.1 | 31.3 | 22.2 | 39.2 | 55.3 | 39.5 |

| 2 POPULATION (contd.) | EU-15 | B | DK | D | EL | E | F | IRL | I | L | NL | A | P | FIN | S | UK |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Crude divorce rate (per 1 000 population)** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1960 | 0.5 | 0.5 | 1.5 | 1.0 | 0.3 | - | 0.7 | - | - | 0.5 | 0.5 | 1.1 | 0.1 | 0.8 | 1.2 | 0.5 |
| 1970 | 0.8 | 0.7 | 1.9 | 1.3 | 0.4 | - | 0.8 | - | - | 0.6 | 0.8 | 1.4 | 0.1 | 1.3 | 1.6 | 1.1 |
| 1980 | 1.4 | 1.5 | 2.7 | 1.8 | 0.7 | - | 1.5 | - | 0.2 | 1.6 | 1.8 | 1.8 | 0.6 | 2.0 | 2.4 | 2.8 |
| 1990 | 1.7 | 2.0 | 2.7 | 2.0 | 0.6 | 0.6 | 1.9 | - | 0.5 | 2.0 | 1.9 | 2.1 | 0.9 | 2.6 | 2.3 | 2.9 |
| 1999 | 1.8 | 2.6 | 2.5 | 2.3 | 0.9 | 0.9 | 2.0 | : | 0.6 | 2.4 | 2.1 | 2.3 | 1.8 | 2.7 | 2.4 | 2.7 |
| 2000 | : | 2.6 | : | : | 0.9 | : | : | : | 0.6 | 2.3 | 2.1 | 2.4 | 1.9 | 2.7 | 2.4 | : |

The crude divorce rate is the ratio of the number of divorces to the mean population in a given year.

**Proportion of marriages dissolved by divorce, by marriage cohort (%)**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1950 | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | - | 2 | : | 10 | : | : | : | : | : |
| 1960 | 15 | 15 | 29 | 18 | 6 | 5 | 17 | - | 3 | 14 | 17 | 18 | 4 | 22 | 32 | 23 |
| 1970 | 22 | 26 | 40 | 28 | 8 | 8 | 28 | : | 5 | 26 | 25 | 27 | 9 | 33 | 38 | 34 |
| 1980 | 28 | 35 | 44 | 36 | 12 | 12 | 35 | : | 8 | 40 | 33 | 34 | 16 | 41 | 46 | 42 |
| 1983 | 29 | 37 | 43 | 36 | 13 | 14 | 35 | : | 9 | 40 | 33 | 36 | 17 | 45 | 47 | 43 |

The sum of the divorce rates by duration of marriage calculated for n calendar years for a marriage cohort gives the proportion of marriages dissolved by divorce for this generation after n years. In practice, the divorce rates for advanced durations of marriage can be estimated using the rates for previous generations, without waiting for the married life of the cohort to be completely over. This produces an estimate of the definitive proportion of marriages, which will end in divorce for this generation.

EU-15. UK: Scotland and Northern Ireland not included.

**Mean marriage duration at divorce by marriage cohort, years**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1950 | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | - | 21.4 | : | 16.9 | : | : | : | : | : |
| 1960 | 14.4 | 17.5 | 14.4 | 12.5 | 14.6 | 19.0 | 15.5 | - | 21.0 | 17.5 | 17.2 | 11.2 | 22.7 | 15.5 | 14.9 | 16.3 |
| 1970 | 14.0 | 16.6 | 11.9 | 12.0 | 14.3 | 19.8 | 15.5 | : | 20.5 | 15.6 | 14.8 | 11.9 | 19.0 | 14.6 | 13.3 | 13.3 |
| 1980 | 12.7 | 15.0 | 10.7 | 11.5 | 12.3 | 16.6 | 14.2 | : | 17.4 | 13.6 | 12.7 | 11.4 | 16.1 | 14.2 | 12.1 | 12.0 |
| 1983 | 12.5 | 14.9 | 10.8 | 11.8 | 12.1 | 15.6 | 14.0 | : | 17.1 | 13.2 | 12.7 | 11.3 | 15.7 | 13.7 | 12.1 | 11.6 |

EU-15, UK: Scotland and Northern Ireland not included.
Source: Eurostat - Demographic Statistics.

**Percentage of couples living in a consensual union, 1998**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Age group 16-29 years | 33 | 35 | 57 | 35 | 8 | 12 | 41 | 29 | 11 | 27 | 56 | 30 | 15 | 61 | 70 | 53 |
| Total population | 9 | 9 | 17 | 9 | 1 | 3 | 10 | 4 | 2 | 7 | 15 | 9 | 5 | 21 | 23 | 13 |

L: 1996, FIN: 1997, S: 1997 data from national Income distribution survey. Source: ECHP users' database. version December 2001.

**Percentage of the population aged at least 16 years whose daily activities include looking after children or other persons (1) without pay, by sex, 1998**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Males | 18 | 23 | 26 | 19 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 16 | 20 | 21 | 32 | 14 | 7 | 22 | : | 20 |
| Females | 33 | 41 | 34 | 28 | 35 | 32 | 24 | 40 | 43 | 36 | 43 | 36 | 31 | 31 | : | 31 |

**Percentage of the population aged at least 16 years whose daily activities include looking after children without pay, by sex, 1998**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Males | 14 | 19 | 23 | 17 | 10 | 10 | 11 | 14 | 18 | 19 | 28 | 12 | 6 | 18 | : | 8 |
| Females | 27 | 36 | 28 | 26 | 32 | 26 | 21 | 36 | 39 | 32 | 39 | 32 | 26 | 26 | : | 18 |

**Percentage of the population aged at least 16 years whose daily activities include looking after persons other than children (1) without pay, by sex, 1998**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Males | | 5 | 5 | 3 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 4 | 4 | 5 | 2 | 1 | 4 | : | 13 |
| Females | | 8 | 8 | 2 | 6 | 7 | 5 | 6 | 8 | 7 | 9 | 7 | 8 | 6 | : | 16 |

(1) Providing care to sick. disabled or frail adults.

Source: Eurostat - European Community Household Panel (ECHP). UDB December 2001 version. L: 1996,FIN: 1997.

## 3 EDUCATION AND TRAINING

| | EU-15 | B | DK | D | EL | E | F | IRL | I | L | NL | A | P | FIN | S | UK |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Population aged 25-64 by age group, sex and educational attainment level (%), 2000** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| *25-64 years* | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ..Males and Females | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ....Less than upper secondary | 36.4 | 41.7 | 20.2 | 18.7 | 48.8 | 62.9 | 37.7 | 50.7 | 54.8 | 39.1 | 33.9 | 23.8 | 78.4 | 26.8 | 22.8 | 19.3 |
| ....Upper secondary | 42.4 | 31.2 | 54.0 | 57.4 | 34.3 | 15.3 | 40.7 | 27.1 | 35.6 | 42.6 | 42.0 | 61.9 | 11.7 | 40.5 | 47.5 | 52.5 |
| ....Tertiary education | 21.2 | 27.1 | 25.8 | 23.8 | 16.9 | 21.8 | 21.6 | 22.2 | 9.6 | 18.3 | 24.1 | 14.2 | 9.8 | 32.6 | 29.7 | 28.1 |
| ..Males | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ....Less than upper secondary | 33.7 | 42.3 | 18.5 | 14.2 | 46.7 | 61.4 | 34.8 | 54.3 | 54.1 | 34.8 | 30.2 | 17.0 | 80.1 | 28.4 | 24.3 | 16.3 |
| ....Upper secondary | 43.5 | 31.1 | 57.1 | 56.8 | 34.4 | 15.8 | 44.0 | 23.2 | 36.0 | 44.4 | 43.1 | 65.9 | 11.7 | 42.2 | 48.3 | 54.0 |
| ....Tertiary education | 22.8 | 26.6 | 24.4 | 28.9 | 18.8 | 22.8 | 21.1 | 22.5 | 9.9 | 20.8 | 26.7 | 17.1 | 8.2 | 29.4 | 27.4 | 29.6 |
| ..Females | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ....Less than upper secondary | 39.1 | 41.1 | 22.0 | 23.3 | 50.8 | 64.2 | 40.6 | 47.1 | 55.5 | 43.5 | 37.8 | 30.6 | 76.7 | 25.3 | 21.2 | 22.6 |
| ....Upper secondary | 41.3 | 31.2 | 50.8 | 58.0 | 34.1 | 14.9 | 37.4 | 30.9 | 35.1 | 40.8 | 40.8 | 58.0 | 11.8 | 38.8 | 46.7 | 50.9 |
| ....Tertiary education | 19.6 | 27.7 | 27.2 | 18.6 | 15.1 | 20.9 | 22.0 | 22.0 | 9.4 | 15.7 | 21.4 | 11.4 | 11.5 | 35.9 | 32.1 | 26.5 |
| *25-29 years* | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ..Males and Females | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ....Less than upper secondary | 24.3 | 19.8 | 13.5 | 16.3 | 25.3 | 38.6 | 21.1 | : | 36.7 | 29.9 | 24.2 | 16.1 | 62.4 | 13.2 | 13.2 | 9.9 |
| ....Upper secondary | 50.0 | 42.5 | 61.2 | 65.7 | 53.8 | 22.0 | 43.4 | : | 54.0 | 45.3 | 48.0 | 70.7 | 23.3 | 50.5 | 52.3 | 57.5 |
| ....Tertiary education | 25.7 | 37.7 | 25.3 | 18.0 | 20.9 | 39.5 | 35.5 | : | 9.2 | 24.8 | 27.8 | 13.3 | 14.3 | 36.3 | 34.5 | 32.6 |
| ..Males | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ....Less than upper secondary | 25.4 | 22.4 | 15.6 | 14.7 | 29.4 | 43.1 | 21.3 | : | 39.8 | 32.4 | 26.1 | 12.0 | 65.7 | 15.7 | 12.8 | 9.6 |
| ....Upper secondary | 50.8 | 43.6 | 63.4 | 67.8 | 52.6 | 23.0 | 46.5 | : | 52.4 | 45.1 | 48.0 | 73.7 | 22.8 | 55.8 | 56.7 | 56.2 |
| ....Tertiary education | 23.8 | 34.1 | 21.0 | 17.5 | 18.0 | 33.9 | 32.2 | : | 7.8 | 22.6 | 25.9 | 14.3 | 11.6 | 28.5 | 30.5 | 34.2 |
| ..Females | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ....Less than upper secondary | 23.3 | 17.2 | 11.5 | 17.9 | 21.1 | 34.0 | 20.8 | : | 33.7 | 27.3 | 22.3 | 20.0 | 59.2 | 10.5 | 13.6 | 10.3 |
| ....Upper secondary | 49.2 | 41.3 | 59.0 | 63.6 | 55.0 | 20.9 | 40.4 | : | 55.6 | 45.5 | 47.9 | 67.8 | 23.8 | 44.9 | 47.7 | 58.9 |
| ....Tertiary education | 27.6 | 41.5 | 29.5 | 18.5 | 23.9 | 45.0 | 38.8 | : | 10.7 | 27.2 | 29.8 | 12.3 | 16.9 | 44.7 | 38.7 | 30.8 |
| *30-49 years* | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ..Males and Females | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ....Less than upper secondary | 31.9 | 37.2 | 17.3 | 15.7 | 40.7 | 57.7 | 33.9 | : | 49.1 | 36.3 | 30.7 | 19.8 | 78.9 | 18.6 | 18.0 | 15.4 |
| ....Upper secondary | 45.1 | 33.2 | 53.4 | 58.0 | 38.7 | 18.7 | 44.0 | : | 39.7 | 45.3 | 44.0 | 64.4 | 11.2 | 45.0 | 50.2 | 55.3 |
| ....Tertiary education | 22.9 | 29.6 | 29.3 | 26.3 | 20.7 | 23.6 | 22.1 | : | 11.2 | 18.4 | 25.3 | 15.9 | 9.9 | 36.3 | 31.8 | 29.2 |
| ..Males | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ....Less than upper secondary | 30.4 | 39.7 | 16.6 | 13.1 | 39.4 | 56.9 | 31.9 | : | 49.4 | 32.3 | 28.9 | 14.5 | 80.6 | 21.2 | 19.8 | 12.9 |
| ....Upper secondary | 45.5 | 31.9 | 57.1 | 56.3 | 38.1 | 18.6 | 46.8 | : | 39.3 | 46.6 | 43.5 | 67.8 | 11.1 | 47.7 | 51.0 | 56.4 |
| ....Tertiary education | 24.1 | 28.4 | 26.4 | 30.6 | 22.5 | 24.5 | 21.3 | : | 11.3 | 21.0 | 27.7 | 17.7 | 8.3 | 31.2 | 29.3 | 30.8 |
| ..Females | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ....Less than upper secondary | 33.5 | 34.7 | 18.2 | 18.5 | 41.8 | 58.4 | 35.9 | : | 48.8 | 40.4 | 32.6 | 25.1 | 77.2 | 16.0 | 16.1 | 18.0 |
| ....Upper secondary | 44.7 | 34.5 | 49.4 | 59.7 | 39.2 | 18.8 | 41.3 | : | 40.1 | 43.8 | 44.5 | 60.8 | 11.3 | 42.3 | 49.5 | 54.3 |
| ....Tertiary education | 21.8 | 30.8 | 32.4 | 21.8 | 18.9 | 22.8 | 22.8 | : | 11.1 | 15.7 | 22.9 | 14.0 | 11.5 | 41.7 | 34.4 | 27.7 |
| *50-64 years* | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ..Males and Females | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ....Less than upper secondary | 48.9 | 58.6 | 27.2 | 24.3 | 69.2 | 82.0 | 51.9 | : | 72.4 | 48.6 | 43.8 | 34.4 | 87.5 | 44.0 | 33.3 | 31.8 |
| ....Upper secondary | 34.6 | 23.0 | 52.3 | 54.0 | 20.8 | 6.9 | 33.5 | : | 20.4 | 36.3 | 35.9 | 53.9 | 5.6 | 30.4 | 41.8 | 44.4 |
| ....Tertiary education | 16.4 | 18.4 | 20.5 | 21.7 | 10.0 | 11.1 | 14.7 | : | 7.2 | 15.1 | 20.3 | 11.7 | 6.9 | 25.6 | 24.9 | 23.7 |
| ..Males | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ....Less than upper secondary | 42.8 | 55.3 | 22.5 | 15.9 | 63.9 | 77.3 | 46.1 | : | 68.4 | 40.6 | 34.2 | 23.8 | 87.6 | 44.2 | 35.3 | 25.6 |
| ....Upper secondary | 37.2 | 24.5 | 54.9 | 54.3 | 22.2 | 7.9 | 37.9 | : | 23.2 | 39.8 | 40.4 | 59.1 | 6.3 | 29.0 | 41.3 | 48.8 |
| ....Tertiary education | 20.1 | 20.2 | 22.6 | 29.8 | 13.8 | 14.9 | 16.0 | : | 8.4 | 19.6 | 25.4 | 17.1 | 6.1 | 26.8 | 23.4 | 25.6 |
| ..Females | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ....Less than upper secondary | 55.2 | 61.8 | 32.2 | 32.8 | 74.0 | 86.4 | 57.4 | : | 76.3 | 56.7 | 53.6 | 44.6 | 87.4 | 43.8 | 31.3 | 39.6 |
| ....Upper secondary | 32.0 | 21.5 | 49.6 | 53.7 | 19.5 | 6.0 | 29.2 | : | 17.7 | 32.7 | 31.3 | 48.9 | 4.7 | 31.8 | 42.3 | 39.0 |
| ....Tertiary education | 12.7 | 16.7 | 18.2 | 13.5 | 6.4 | 7.5 | 13.4 | : | 6.0 | 10.6 | 15.1 | 6.5 | 7.9 | 24.5 | 26.4 | 21.4 |

The levels of education are defined according to ISCED (International Standard Classification of Education). Less than upper secondary corresponds to ISCED 0-2, upper secondary level to ISCED 3-4 (including thus post-secondary non-tertiary education) and tertiary education to ISCED 5-6. IRL 1997 data. UK - GCSE 'O' levels are included under ISCED 3.

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Unemployment rates of the population aged 25-59 by sex and level of education, 2000** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| *Males and Females* | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ..Less than upper secondary | 11 | 9 | 7 | 14 | 9 | 14 | 14 | : | 10 | 3 | 3 | 8 | 4 | 12 | 8 | 9 |
| ..Upper secondary | 7 | 5 | 4 | 8 | 11 | 11 | 8 | : | 7 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 4 | 9 | 5 | 4 |
| ..Tertiary education | 4 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 7 | 9 | 5 | : | 6 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 5 | 3 | 2 |
| *Males* | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ..Less than upper secondary | 9 | 7 | 5 | 15 | 6 | 10 | 12 | : | 8 | 3 | 3 | 10 | 3 | 11 | 8 | 12 |
| ..Upper secondary | 6 | 4 | 3 | 8 | 7 | 7 | 6 | : | 5 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 8 | 5 | 5 |
| ..Tertiary education | 4 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 5 | : | 4 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 4 | 4 | 2 |
| *Females* | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ..Less than upper secondary | 14 | 13 | 8 | 13 | 14 | 22 | 16 | : | 15 | 4 | 4 | 7 | 4 | 13 | 8 | 6 |
| ..Upper secondary | 8 | 7 | 5 | 9 | 17 | 18 | 11 | : | 11 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 5 | 10 | 5 | 4 |
| ..Tertiary education | 5 | 3 | 3 | 5 | 10 | 13 | 6 | : | 8 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 6 | 2 | 2 |
| **Participation (%) in education and training in the last four weeks of those aged 25-64 by sex and educational attainment level, 2000** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| *..Males and Females* | 8 | 7 | 21 | 5 | 1 | 5 | 3 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 16 | 8 | 3 | 20 | 22 | 21 |
| ....Less than upper secondary | 2 | 2 | 11 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 9 | 4 | 1 | 9 | 14 | 7 |
| ....Upper secondary | 10 | 7 | 20 | 6 | 2 | 9 | 2 | 5 | 10 | 6 | 18 | 9 | 14 | 19 | 19 | 20 |
| ....Tertiary education | 16 | 14 | 31 | 7 | 2 | 13 | 7 | 12 | 10 | 11 | 21 | 15 | 11 | 30 | 31 | 35 |
| *..Males* | 8 | 8 | 18 | 6 | 1 | 4 | 3 | 5 | 5 | 6 | 16 | 9 | 3 | 18 | 19 | 18 |
| ....Less than upper secondary | 2 | 3 | 9 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 1 | : | 2 | 1 | 11 | : | 1 | 8 | 12 | 6 |
| ....Upper secondary | 9 | 8 | 16 | 6 | 2 | 9 | 2 | : | 10 | 7 | 19 | : | 16 | 17 | 17 | 16 |
| ....Tertiary education | 14 | 15 | 29 | 6 | 2 | 11 | 7 | : | 9 | 12 | 19 | : | 11 | 28 | 28 | 29 |

**3 EDUCATION AND TRAINING (Contd.)**

| | EU-15 | B | DK | D | EL | E | F | IRL | I | L | NL | A | P | FIN | S | UK |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| ..*Females* | 9 | 6 | 24 | 5 | 1 | 5 | 3 | 5 | 5 | 4 | 15 | 7 | 3 | 22 | 24 | 24 |
| ....Less than upper secondary | 3 | 2 | 13 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | : | 2 | 1 | 8 | : | 1 | 9 | 17 | 8 |
| ....Upper secondary | 10 | 6 | 24 | 5 | 2 | 9 | 3 | : | 10 | 4 | 16 | : | 13 | 21 | 20 | 24 |
| ....Tertiary education | 18 | 12 | 33 | 9 | 2 | 15 | 7 | : | 11 | 11 | 23 | : | 10 | 32 | 34 | 41 |

F, NL, P - Information on training is collected only if it is under way on the date of the survey. Consequently, the extent of training may be underestimated. IRL, A - 1997 data, UK - GCSE 'O' levels are included under ISCED 3. Source: Eurostat - European Union Labour Force Survey.

**Participation rates (16-18 year olds) by sex, 1998/99**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Males | 81 | 91 | 82 | 92 | 80 | 75 | 89 | 76 | 71 | 75 | 94 | 84 | 72 | 91 | 93 | 68 |
| Females | 84 | 95 | 84 | 91 | 70 | 80 | 90 | 90 | 77 | 81 | 94 | 80 | 85 | 93 | 100 | 73 |

D: ISCED 6 missing. L: does not have a complete universitary system. ISCED 6 missing.

**Females per 100 males in tertiary education**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1981/82 | 80 | 76 | 98 | 72 | 74 | 83 | 105 | 67 | 77 | : | 70 | 76 | 102 | 89 | 108 | 59 |
| 1997 | 107 | 102 | 120 | 84 | 92 | 112 | 122 | 107 | 117 | : | 93 | 95 | 134 | 112 | 126 | 107 |
| 1998/99 | 111 | 109 | 129 | 90 | 101 | 113 | 119 | 115 | 123 | 107 | 97 | 100 | 127 | 117 | 136 | 114 |

D: ISCED 6 missing. L: does not have a complete universitary system. ISCED 6 missing.

**Median age of students in tertiary education, 1998/99**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Males and Females | 23 | 21 | 26 | 26 | 20 | 22 | 22 | 21 | 23 | 23 | 23 | 25 | 23 | 25 | 26 | 24 |
| Males | 24 | 22 | 26 | 27 | 20 | 23 | 22 | 21 | 24 | : | 23 | 26 | 23 | 25 | 25 | 24 |
| Females | 23 | 21 | 26 | 25 | 20 | 22 | 22 | 21 | 23 | : | 22 | 25 | 23 | 25 | 26 | 24 |

D: ISCED 6 missing. L: 1997.

**Total public expenditure on education as a percentage of GDP (in PPS)**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1998 | 5.0 | 5.2 | 8.2 | 4.7 | 3.5 | 4.5 | 5.9 | 4.9 | 4.6 | : | 4.9 | 6.3 | 5.6 | 6.2 | 8.0 | 4.6 |
| 1999 | 5.0 | 5.5 | 8.0 | 4.7 | 3.7 | 4.5 | 5.9 | 4.6 | 4.5 | : | 4.8 | 6.3 | 5.7 | 6.2 | 7.7 | 4.6 |
| 2000 | 5.1 | : | : | : | 3.5 | 4.5 | 5.8 | 4.5 | 4.6 | : | 4.9 | : | : | 6.0 | 8.4 | 4.9 |
| 2001 | : | : | : | : | 3.5 | 4.4 | 5.7 | : | 4.5 | : | 4.9 | : | : | : | 8.3 | : |

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

| 4 LABOUR MARKET | EU-15 | B | DK | D | EL | E | F | IRL | I | L | NL | A | P | FIN | S | UK |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Persons in employment by sector (percentage share of total), 2000** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |
| Agriculture | : | 2.0 | 3.6 | 2.5 | 16.7 | 6.6 | 4.4 | 7.5 | 4.8 | : | 3.5 | 13.4 | 10.8 | 6.2 | 2.7 | 1.5 |
| Industry | : | 23.4 | 22.9 | 29.2 | 24.1 | 29.7 | 23.6 | 28.9 | 29.7 | : | 20.1 | 25.0 | 31.2 | 28.1 | 23.8 | 25.3 |
| Services | : | 74.6 | 73.5 | 68.4 | 59.1 | 63.7 | 72.0 | 63.6 | 65.5 | : | 76.4 | 61.5 | 58.0 | 65.7 | 73.5 | 73.2 |
| **Percentage of persons in employment who are self-employed, 2000** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total | 14.7 | 17.5 | 7.1 | 10.3 | 44.3 | 16.5 | 7.4 | 18.1 | 26.2 | 6.4 | 14.1 | 18.9 | 27.4 | 11.6 | 5.3 | 11.8 |
| **Part-time as a percentage of total employment, by sex, 2000** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total | 17.7 | 20.8 | 21.3 | 19.4 | 4.5 | 8.0 | 16.7 | 16.4 | 8.4 | 10.4 | 41.0 | 14.3 | 10.8 | 12.3 | 22.6 | 25.0 |
| Males | 6.2 | 5.8 | 10.2 | 5.0 | 2.5 | 2.8 | 5.3 | 6.9 | 3.7 | 1.9 | 19.3 | 3.9 | 6.2 | 8.0 | 10.6 | 9.1 |
| Females | 33.2 | 40.5 | 34.1 | 37.9 | 7.8 | 16.9 | 30.8 | 30.1 | 16.5 | 24.9 | 70.4 | 28.3 | 16.3 | 17.0 | 36.0 | 44.6 |
| **Employment rates by age-group, 2000** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 50-54 | 70.0 | 61.0 | 80.8 | 74.3 | 61.8 | 58.4 | 74.9 | 64.4 | 58.1 | 66.4 | 71.4 | 72.1 | 71.9 | 80.1 | 83.8 | 76.1 |
| 55-59 | 51.9 | 37.9 | 72.6 | 56.4 | 48.2 | 46.0 | 48.1 | 53.1 | 36.5 | 38.9 | 54.1 | 42.4 | 58.3 | 58.5 | 78.6 | 63.2 |
| 60-64 | 22.6 | 12.4 | 30.9 | 19.6 | 31.3 | 26.4 | 10.2 | 35.8 | 18.0 | 14.5 | 18.5 | 12.1 | 45.2 | 22.8 | 46.0 | 36.1 |
| 65-69 | 6.5 | 2.3 | 8.1 | 4.9 | 11.2 | 3.9 | 2.1 | 14.7 | 6.0 | 3.4* | 5.1 | 5.5 | 27.1 | 5.0 | 14.2 | 11.3 |
| 70-74 | 2.9 | 1.8 | : | 2.3 | 3.7 | 1.0 | 0.9 | 7.7 | 2.7 | : | 2.9 | 2.8 | 18.8 | 2.9 | 5.6 | 4.8 |
| **Percentage of employees with a fixed-term contract** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1990 | 10.2 | 5.3 | 10.8 | 10.3 | 16.5 | 29.8 | 10.4 | 8.5 | 5.2 | 3.4 | 7.6 | : | 18.3 | : | : | 5.2 |
| 2000 | 13.6 | 9.1 | 9.7 | 12.8 | 12.8 | 32.0 | 14.9 | 4.6 | 10.1 | 5.3 | 13.8 | 8.1 | 20.4 | 16.3 | 13.9 | 7.0 |
| **Percentage of employees with a fixed-term contract, by sex, 2000** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Males | 12.7 | 6.7 | 8.5 | 12.5 | 11.1 | 30.6 | 14.1 | 3.6 | 8.7 | 4.5 | 11.4 | 7.4 | 18.8 | 12.8 | 11.5 | 6.2 |
| Females | 14.7 | 12.3 | 11.1 | 13.1 | 15.5 | 34.2 | 16.0 | 5.9 | 12.2 | 6.6 | 16.9 | 9.0 | 22.3 | 19.7 | 16.2 | 8.0 |
| **Average number of hours usually worked per week, full-time employees, by sex, 2000** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total | 40.3 | 38.5 | 39.3 | 40.1 | 40.9 | 40.6 | 38.9 | 39.9 | 38.6 | 39.8 | 39.0 | 40.1 | 40.3 | 39.3 | 40.0 | 43.6 |
| Males | 41.1 | 39.2 | 40.2 | 40.5 | 41.7 | 41.1 | 39.5 | 41.1 | 39.8 | 40.7 | 39.2 | 40.2 | 41.1 | 40.1 | 40.2 | 45.2 |
| Females | 38.9 | 37.1 | 37.9 | 39.3 | 39.5 | 39.6 | 38.0 | 38.1 | 36.5 | 38.0 | 38.2 | 39.8 | 39.3 | 38.4 | 39.7 | 40.6 |
| **Unemployment rates, males** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2000 | 7.0 | 5.7 | 4.2 | 7.6 | 7.3 | 9.8 | 7.8 | 4.3 | 8.0 | 1.9 | 2.3 | 3.2 | 3.3 | 9.0 | 6.0 | 6.0 |
| 1999 | 7.9 | 7.5 | 4.5 | 8.2 | 7.5 | 11.2 | 9.4 | 5.7 | 8.7 | 1.8 | 2.4 | 3.4 | 3.9 | 9.7 | 7.2 | 6.7 |
| 1994 | 9.9 | 7.9 | 7.3 | 7.2 | 6.0 | 19.8 | 10.5 | 14.2 | 8.6 | 2.7 | 6.3 | 3.0 | 6.1 | 18.1 | 10.7 | 11.2 |
| **Unemployment Males (1000), 2000** | 6894.8 | 143 | 64.4 | 1686.1 | 193.8 | 984.7 | 1097.2 | 43.9 | 1161.4 | 2.1 | 106.5 | 68.3 | 92.1 | 122.1 | 142.2 | 982.1 |
| **Unemployment rates, females** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2000 | 9.7 | 8.8 | 5.3 | 8.3 | 16.7 | 20.6 | 11.5 | 4.2 | 14.4 | 3.3 | 3.8 | 4.4 | 5.1 | 10.6 | 5.8 | 4.9 |
| 1999 | 10.8 | 10.5 | 6.0 | 9.1 | 17.6 | 23.0 | 13.2 | 5.5 | 15.6 | 3.4 | 4.6 | 4.7 | 5.2 | 10.7 | 7.1 | 5.3 |
| 1994 | 12.7 | 12.9 | 9.3 | 10.1 | 13.7 | 31.4 | 14.5 | 14.6 | 15.6 | 4.1 | 8.3 | 4.9 | 8.0 | 14.9 | 7.8 | 7.5 |
| **Unemployment Females (1000), 2000** | 7298.5 | 168.3 | 70.3 | 1446.4 | 298.9 | 1395.2 | 1357.9 | 29.7 | 1304.3 | 2.4 | 132.2 | 74.1 | 118.6 | 130.8 | 122.2 | 648.2 |
| **Youth unemployment/population ratio (aged 15-24), males** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2000 | 7.7 | 5.9 | 5.0 | 5.3 | : | 9.8 | 7.0 | 3.4 | 11.5 | 2.4 | 3.5 | 2.8 | 3.5 | 10.9 | 5.4 | 9.4 |
| 1999 | 8.5 | 8.7 | 6.7 | 5.3 | : | 10.8 | 8.7 | 4.5 | 12.4 | 2.4 | 3.5 | 2.6 | 3.7 | 10.9 | 6.5 | 10.2 |
| 1994 | 11.1 | 8.7 | 7.8 | 5.0 | : | 19.3 | 10.2 | 12.3 | 12.7 | 3.5 | 7.6 | 2.9 | 6.5 | 17.7 | 13.3 | 13.8 |
| **Youth unemployment/population ratio (aged 15-24), females** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2000 | 7.9 | 7.0 | 5.5 | 3.9 | : | 13.1 | 7.3 | 3.3 | 12.0 | 2.6 | 4.6 | 3.0 | 4.8 | 11.4 | 5.7 | 7.2 |
| 1999 | 8.6 | 7.8 | 7.2 | 4.0 | : | 14.2 | 8.5 | 4.0 | 12.6 | 2.5 | 6.2 | 3.5 | 4.9 | 10.8 | 6.6 | 7.1 |
| 1994 | 10.3 | 8.9 | 7.8 | 4.5 | : | 19.4 | 11.4 | 9.0 | 12.4 | 3.2 | 6.4 | 4.2 | 7.0 | 13.3 | 10.0 | 8.4 |
| **Youth unemployment rate (aged 15-24), males** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2000 | 14.9 | 15.1 | 7.0 | 9.8 | 22.2 | 20.6 | 18.1 | 6.1 | 27.2 | 6.5 | 4.6 | 4.8 | 6.8 | 21.1 | 10.7 | 13.8 |
| 1999 | 16.6 | 23.1 | 9.1 | 9.8 | 22.8 | 23.2 | 22.1 | 8.2 | 29.1 | 6.5 | 5.4 | 4.3 | 7.2 | 20.8 | 13.1 | 14.7 |
| 1994 | 21.4 | 22.6 | 10.6 | 8.9 | 19.7 | 41.0 | 26.4 | 24.8 | 29.0 | 7.5 | 12.1 | 4.6 | 13.4 | 37.2 | 24.9 | 19.6 |
| **Youth unemployment rate (aged 15-24), females** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2000 | 17.6 | 20.8 | 7.5 | 8.2 | 37.9 | 33.2 | 22.3 | 7.0 | 35.1 | 8.3 | 6.6 | 5.8 | 11.6 | 21.6 | 11.9 | 11.5 |
| 1999 | 19.3 | 24.4 | 10.1 | 8.4 | 40.4 | 37.2 | 26.2 | 8.6 | 37.1 | 7.9 | 8.9 | 6.6 | 11.1 | 22.1 | 14.1 | 11.5 |
| 1994 | 22.8 | 26.1 | 11.6 | 8.7 | 37.0 | 50.0 | 32.3 | 20.7 | 36.6 | 7.1 | 10.7 | 7.0 | 17.0 | 30.5 | 19.0 | 13.8 |
| **Long-term unemployment rate (12 months or more), males** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2000 | 3.1 | 3.2 | 0.8 | 3.8 | 3.6 | 3.6 | 3.0 | : | 4.9 | 0.5 | 0.7 | 0.9 | 1.5 | 2.4 | 2.0 | 2.0 |
| 1999 | 3.5 | 4.5 | 0.9 | 4.1 | 3.6 | 4.5 | 3.5 | : | 5.4 | 0.7 | 1.1 | 0.9 | 1.5 | 2.3 | 2.4 | 2.3 |
| 1994 | 4.6 | 4.2 | 2.3 | 3.0 | 2.5 | 9.2 | 3.9 | 9.7 | 5.1 | 0.9 | 3.2 | : | 2.6 | : | : | 5.7 |

**4 LABOUR MARKET (Contd.)**

| | EU-15 | B | DK | D | EL | E | F | IRL | I | L | NL | A | P | FIN | S | UK |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Long-term unemployment rate (12 months or more), females** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2000 | 4.5 | 5.0 | 1.1 | 4.4 | 10.2 | 9.6 | 4.7 | : | 8.8 | 0.6 | 1.3 | 1.2 | 2.0 | 2.4 | 1.6 | 0.9 |
| 1999 | 5.1 | 6.4 | 1.2 | 4.9 | 10.5 | 11.7 | 5.2 | : | 9.5 | 0.9 | 1.9 | 1.7 | 2.2 | 2.3 | 1.7 | 1.1 |
| 1994 | 6.3 | 8.1 | 3.0 | 4.8 | 7.8 | 18.7 | 5.5 | 8.4 | 9.9 | 1.0 | 4.0 | : | 3.5 | : | : | 2.5 |
| **Persons unemployed for 12 months or more as a percentage ot total unemployed, 2000** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Males | 44 | 56 | 20 | 50 | 49.4 | 37 | 38 | : | 61 | 26 | 32 | 29 | 47 | 27 | 33 | 34 |
| Females | 46 | 57 | 20 | 53 | 61.0 | 47 | 41 | : | 61 | 19 | 34 | 27 | 40 | 22 | 28 | 19 |
| **Youth long-term unemployment rate (aged 15-24. 6 months or more), males** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2000 | 7.4 | 8.1 | 0.3 | 4.6 | 14.2 | 10.3 | 7.4 | : | 21.1 | 2.0 | 0.9 | 1.1 | 2.0 | 3.6 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| 1999 | 8.8 | 14.2 | 1.1 | 4.9 | 15.0 | 12.3 | 7.6 | : | 22.7 | 3.6 | 4.0 | 0.9 | 4.2 | 3.1 | 4.2 | 5.2 |
| 1994 | 13.8 | 15.5 | 3.5 | 3.9 | 12.9 | 27.3 | 12.1 | 19.3 | 23.2 | 3.9 | 9.8 | : | 5.4 | : | : | 11.7 |
| **Youth long-term unemployment rate (aged 15-24. 6 months or more), females** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2000 | 9.5 | 11.4 | 0.6 | 4.1 | 28.7 | 18.8 | 9.7 | : | 28.0 | 1.5 | 1.8 | 2.3 | 5.7 | 2.5 | 3.1 | 3.1 |
| 1999 | 10.3 | 13.7 | 2.1 | 4.7 | 31.0 | 23.7 | 10.1 | : | 29.2 | 2.5 | 8.1 | 2.8 | 5.5 | 2.2 | 3.0 | 3.1 |
| 1994 | 14.7 | 17.7 | 3.7 | 4.9 | 28.5 | 38.2 | 16.4 | 14.9 | 30.8 | 3.4 | 8.8 | : | 8.1 | : | : | 6.4 |
| **Young persons unemployed for 6 months or more as a percentage of total young unemployed (aged 15-24), 2000** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Males | 49 | 53 | 4 | 47 | 64 | 50 | 41 | : | 78 | 30.0 | 19 | 23 | 29 | 17 | 30 | 32 |
| Females | 54 | 55 | 8 | 50 | 76 | 57 | 44 | : | 80 | 18.5 | 27 | 39 | 49 | 12 | 26 | 27 |

Employment rates represent persons in employment aged 15-64 as a percentage of the population of the same age. Persons in employment are those who during the reference week (of the Labour Force Survey) did any work for pay or profit for at least one hour or were not working but had jobs from which they were temporarily absent. Unemployed people - according to the International Labour Organisation (ILO) criteria are those persons aged 15 and over who are i) without work, ii) available to start work within the next two weeks and, iii) have actively sought employment at some time. Unemployment rates represent unemployed persons as a percentage of the active population of the same age. The active population is defined as the sum of persons in employment and unemployed persons.

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

| 5 SOCIAL PROTECTION | EU-15 | B | DK | D | EL | E | F | IRL | I | L | NL | A | P | FIN | S | UK |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Expenditure on social protection as a percentage of GDP** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1990 | 25.5 | 26.4 | 28.7 | 25.4 | 22.9 | 19.9 | 27.9 | 18.4 | 24.7 | 22.1 | 32.5 | 26.7 | 15.2 | 25.1 | 33.1 | 23.0 |
| 1993 | 28.8 | 29.5 | 31.9 | 28.4 | 22.0 | 24.0 | 30.7 | 20.2 | 26.4 | 23.9 | 33.6 | 28.9 | 20.7 | 34.6 | 38.6 | 29.1 |
| 1998 | 27.6 | 28.2 | 29.9 | 29.3 | 24.3 | 20.6 | 30.5 | 15.5 | 25.0 | 22.4 | 28.5 | 28.3 | 22.4 | 27.3 | 33.2 | 27.2 |
| 1999 | 27.6 | 28.2 | 29.4 | 29.6 | 25.5 | 20.0 | 30.3 | 14.7 | 25.3 | 21.9 | 28.1 | 28.6 | 22.9 | 26.7 | 32.9 | 26.9 |
| **Expenditure on social protection in PPS per head of population, 1999** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total | 5 793 | 6 573 | 7 440 | 6 633 | 3 648 | 3 416 | 6 385 | 3 512 | 5 507 | 8 479 | 6 902 | 6 716 | 3 588 | 5 722 | 7 116 | 5 872 |
| **Expenditure on social protection per head of population at constant prices (Index 1990 = 100)** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1990 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |
| 1991 | 104 | 104 | 105 | 95 | 96 | 110 | 102 | 106 | 104 | 109 | 101 | 104 | 112 | 108 | 100 | 111 |
| 1992 | 110 | 107 | 108 | 103 | 94 | 117 | 106 | 112 | 109 | 112 | 103 | 107 | 129 | 115 | 105 | 121 |
| 1993 | 113 | 115 | 113 | 104 | 96 | 124 | 110 | 119 | 108 | 120 | 104 | 110 | 144 | 116 | 108 | 129 |
| 1994 | 114 | 115 | 122 | 106 | 97 | 119 | 111 | 121 | 108 | 125 | 101 | 115 | 149 | 119 | 108 | 132 |
| 1995 | 116 | 115 | 122 | 110 | 101 | 120 | 113 | 128 | 105 | 130 | 103 | 117 | 153 | 119 | 106 | 132 |
| 1996 | 118 | 117 | 122 | 114 | 104 | 122 | 114 | 130 | 108 | 135 | 102 | 118 | 163 | 122 | 106 | 136 |
| 1997 | 119 | 118 | 121 | 112 | 111 | 123 | 115 | 137 | 113 | 138 | 103 | 118 | 174 | 120 | 106 | 136 |
| 1998 | 121 | 122 | 122 | 114 | 120 | 125 | 118 | 142 | 113 | 141 | 103 | 120 | 189 | 120 | 110 | 136 |
| 1999 | 124 | 125 | 123 | 117 | 130 | 127 | 120 | 150 | 116 | 149 | 105 | 125 | 201 | 120 | 113 | 139 |
| **Social benefits by group of functions (as a percentage of total social benefits)** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| *Old age and survivors benefits* | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1990 | 45.9 | 41.8 | 36.7 | 45.8 | 51.7 | 42.9 | 42.7 | 30.4 | 57.6 | 46.7 | 37.4 | 50.1 | 41.9 | 33.8 | : | 45.3 |
| 1999 | 46.0 | 43.0 | 38.0 | 42.1 | 50.7 | 46.2 | 44.2 | 25.2 | 64.0 | 41.4 | 41.5 | 47.4 | 43.7 | 35.1 | 39.5 | 46.1 |
| *Sickness. health care and disability* | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1990 | 36.1 | 33.6 | 30.1 | 38.0 | 33.2 | 36.6 | 34.6 | 38.4 | 35.2 | 38.4 | 44.7 | 33.1 | 47.4 | 44.0 | : | 33.2 |
| 1999 | 34.9 | 33.6 | 31.7 | 36.0 | 31.0 | 37.0 | 34.0 | 45.3 | 30.0 | 39.5 | 40.7 | 35.4 | 45.6 | 37.2 | 36.9 | 34.8 |
| *Unemployment* | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1990 | 7.3 | 13.4 | 15.4 | 6.0 | 4.1 | 18.0 | 8.7 | 14.8 | 2.7 | 2.8 | 8.3 | 4.6 | 3.4 | 6.1 | : | 5.9 |
| 1999 | 6.8 | 12.1 | 11.2 | 8.8 | 5.7 | 12.9 | 7.4 | 11.1 | 2.2 | 2.5 | 6.2 | 5.4 | 3.7 | 11.3 | 8.1 | 3.2 |
| *Family and children* | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1990 | 7.7 | 9.2 | 11.9 | 7.6 | 7.5 | 1.7 | 10.2 | 11.3 | 4.4 | 10.8 | 5.6 | 10.5 | 7.0 | 13.5 | : | 9.0 |
| 1999 | 8.5 | 9.1 | 13.0 | 10.5 | 7.6 | 2.1 | 9.8 | 13.0 | 3.7 | 15.5 | 4.3 | 10.3 | 5.2 | 12.8 | 10.5 | 8.8 |
| *Housing and social exclusion n.e.c.* | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1990 | 3.0 | 2.0 | 6.0 | 2.7 | 3.4 | 0.9 | 3.7 | 5.1 | 0.1 | 1.3 | 3.9 | 1.8 | 0.4 | 2.6 | : | 6.7 |
| 1999 | 3.8 | 2.2 | 6.1 | 2.6 | 5.0 | 1.9 | 4.6 | 5.4 | 0.2 | 1.1 | 7.4 | 1.6 | 1.8 | 3.7 | 4.9 | 7.0 |
| **Social benefits by group of functions per head of population at constant prices (Index 1990 = 100)** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| *Total benefits* | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1993 | 113 | 113 | 114 | 104 | 98 | 123 | 109 | 119 | 107 | 121 | 103 | 110 | 143 | 117 | : | 129 |
| 1996 | 119 | 116 | 122 | 114 | 107 | 122 | 114 | 130 | 108 | 135 | 102 | 118 | 167 | 122 | : | 136 |
| 1999 | 124 | 122 | 123 | 117 | 134 | 127 | 120 | 150 | 117 | 150 | 103 | 126 | 200 | 121 | : | 139 |
| *Old age and survivors benefits* | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1993 | 109 | 116 | 107 | 95 | 97 | 116 | 109 | 109 | 114 | 118 | 103 | 107 | 137 | 112 | : | 121 |
| 1996 | 118 | 119 | 129 | 103 | 107 | 128 | 116 | 110 | 119 | 126 | 107 | 115 | 173 | 122 | : | 132 |
| 1999 | 125 | 126 | 127 | 105 | 125 | 134 | 121 | 120 | 127 | 133 | 115 | 119 | 209 | 126 | : | 141 |
| *Sickness. health care and disability* | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1993 | 111 | 112 | 110 | 101 | 97 | 102 | 107 | 121 | 99 | 120 | 104 | 109 | 145 | 97 | : | 134 |
| 1996 | 115 | 116 | 116 | 110 | 101 | 122 | 112 | 136 | 94 | 136 | 90 | 119 | 158 | 100 | : | 141 |
| 1999 | 120 | 123 | 130 | 111 | 125 | 128 | 118 | 176 | 100 | 154 | 94 | 134 | 193 | 102 | : | 146 |
| *Unemployment* | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1993 | 148 | 113 | 133 | 185 | 89 | 150 | 116 | 135 | 132 | 124 | 115 | 136 | 230 | 309 | : | 155 |
| 1996 | 130 | 112 | 110 | 175 | 109 | 99 | 104 | 137 | 113 | 163 | 122 | 149 | 285 | 281 | : | 112 |
| 1999 | 119 | 111 | 89 | 173 | 187 | 91 | 101 | 113 | 95 | 135 | 76 | 147 | 222 | 224 | : | 76 |
| *Family and children* | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1993 | 111 | 107 | 113 | 111 | 102 | 119 | 106 | 118 | 77 | 137 | 90 | 119 | 122 | 105 | : | 125 |
| 1996 | 126 | 109 | 128 | 143 | 123 | 137 | 110 | 150 | 87 | 163 | 80 | 124 | 125 | 113 | : | 135 |
| 1999 | 135 | 120 | 135 | 162 | 136 | 156 | 116 | 171 | 98 | 215 | 78 | 124 | 148 | 115 | : | 137 |
| *Housing and social exclusion n.e.c.* | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1993 | 121 | 117 | 126 | 103 | 130 | 126 | 122 | 113 | 115 | 116 | 92 | 111 | 193 | 144 | : | 142 |
| 1996 | 144 | 150 | 132 | 122 | 128 | 264 | 136 | 138 | 100 | 126 | 164 | 101 | 270 | 168 | : | 156 |
| 1999 | 146 | 135 | 125 | 115 | 198 | 255 | 150 | 159 | 139 | 134 | 196 | 114 | 896 | 168 | : | 146 |
| **Receipts of social protection by type (as a percentage of total receipts)** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| *General government contributions* | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1990 | 28.8 | 23.8 | 80.1 | 25.2 | 33.0 | 26.2 | 17.0 | 58.9 | 27.2 | 41.5 | 25.0 | 35.9 | 33.8 | 40.6 | : | 42.6 |
| 1999 | 35.7 | 25.7 | 65.2 | 32.8 | 28.6 | 26.8 | 30.4 | 59.8 | 38.9 | 46.9 | 15.3 | 35.0 | 40.9 | 43.4 | 48.9 | 47.3 |
| *Employers' social contributions* | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1990 | 42.5 | 41.5 | 7.8 | 43.7 | 39.4 | 54.4 | 51.0 | 24.5 | 54.9 | 29.5 | 20.0 | 38.1 | 36.9 | 44.1 | : | 28.1 |
| 1999 | 37.9 | 49.4 | 9.2 | 36.9 | 37.7 | 52.2 | 46.5 | 24.2 | 43.6 | 24.7 | 28.4 | 37.4 | 27.6 | 37.2 | 36.3 | 27.7 |
| *Social contributions paid by protected persons* | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1990 | 24.6 | 25.5 | 5.3 | 28.4 | 19.6 | 16.9 | 28.5 | 15.6 | 15.5 | 21.0 | 39.1 | 25.1 | 20.1 | 8.0 | : | 26.9 |
| 1999 | 22.7 | 22.4 | 19.2 | 28.1 | 23.4 | 17.0 | 20.3 | 14.8 | 14.4 | 24.4 | 37.4 | 26.9 | 16.8 | 12.8 | 9.6 | 24.0 |
| *Other receipts* | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1990 | 4.1 | 9.2 | 6.8 | 2.7 | 8.0 | 2.5 | 3.5 | 1.0 | 2.5 | 8.1 | 15.9 | 0.9 | 9.2 | 7.3 | : | 2.4 |
| 1999 | 3.7 | 2.5 | 6.4 | 2.3 | 10.3 | 4.0 | 2.8 | 1.2 | 3.1 | 4.0 | 18.9 | 0.7 | 14.7 | 6.6 | 5.2 | 0.9 |

**5 SOCIAL PROTECTION (Contd.)**

| | EU-15 | B | DK | D | EL | E | F | IRL | I | L | NL | A | P | FIN | S | UK |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Receipts of social protection by type per head of population at constant prices (Index 1990 = 100)** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| *Total receipts* | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1993 | 113 | 115 | 113 | 104 | 96 | 124 | 110 | 119 | 108 | 120 | 104 | 110 | 144 | 116 | 108 | 129 |
| 1996 | 119 | 117 | 122 | 114 | 104 | 122 | 114 | 130 | 108 | 135 | 102 | 118 | 163 | 122 | 106 | 136 |
| 1999 | 124 | 125 | 123 | 117 | 130 | 127 | 120 | 150 | 116 | 149 | 105 | 125 | 201 | 120 | 113 | 139 |
| *General government contributions* | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1993 | 124 | 99 | 114 | 117 | 89 | 148 | 124 | 124 | 120 | 115 | 89 | 110 | 152 | 123 | : | 145 |
| 1996 | 130 | 125 | 103 | 130 | 93 | 131 | 144 | 143 | 120 | 143 | 69 | 118 | 199 | 128 | : | 146 |
| 1999 | 149 | 133 | 101 | 147 | 115 | 137 | 215 | 162 | 172 | 158 | 68 | 122 | 234 | 123 | : | 139 |
| *Employers' social contributions* | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1993 | 103 | 115 | 98 | 92 | 96 | 117 | 101 | 116 | 101 | 112 | 106 | 107 | 111 | 86 | : | 109 |
| 1996 | 106 | 139 | 159 | 94 | 107 | 114 | 102 | 121 | 103 | 111 | 109 | 117 | 119 | 92 | : | 115 |
| 1999 | 111 | 146 | 146 | 96 | 127 | 128 | 110 | 158 | 96 | 117 | 157 | 124 | 145 | 97 | : | 124 |
| *Social contributions paid by protected persons* | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1993 | 107 | 120 | 101 | 100 | 107 | 122 | 103 | 115 | 120 | 118 | 111 | 112 | 112 | 168 | : | 89 |
| 1996 | 118 | 102 | 356 | 110 | 127 | 125 | 110 | 122 | 124 | 126 | 112 | 125 | 134 | 196 | : | 112 |
| 1999 | 114 | 108 | 452 | 112 | 158 | 135 | 86 | 151 | 112 | 163 | 106 | 135 | 162 | 184 | : | 112 |
| *Other receipts* | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1993 | 103 | 102 | 115 | 93 | 136 | 126 | 111 | 148 | 112 | 96 | 102 | 114 | 174 | 114 | : | 54 |
| 1996 | 107 | 35 | 115 | 113 | 128 | 138 | 101 | 118 | 115 | 73 | 125 | 73 | 247 | 115 | : | 45 |
| 1999 | 110 | 33 | 117 | 95 | 170 | 211 | 95 | 179 | 152 | 69 | 131 | 98 | 310 | 104 | : | 49 |

1999 data are provisional for B, D, EL, E, F, I, NL, P, FIN, S and UK. No data on benefits and receipts for S for the period 1990-1992. EU-15 data for 1990 are therefore estimated. The abbreviation 'n.e.c.' indicates not elsewhere classified.

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

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Percentage of persons living in a household that receives .... 1998** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ... Social transfers | 73 | 87 | 84 | 81 | 49 | 55 | 78 | 88 | 54 | : | 77 | 85 | 85 | 93 | 85 | 80 |
| ... ... Unemployment related | 12 | 22 | 21 | 17 | 5 | 14 | 18 | 30 | 5 | : | 6 | 16 | 5 | 37 | 22 | 5 |
| ... ... Old-age / survivors pension | 31 | 30 | 19 | 28 | 38 | 33 | 27 | 22 | 41 | : | 18 | 37 | 34 | 32 | 29 | 28 |
| ... ... Family related | 35 | 53 | 47 | 49 | 12 | 4 | 36 | 63 | 7 | : | 48 | 59 | 55 | 49 | 46 | 49 |
| ... ... Sickness / Invalidity related | 10 | 13 | 11 | 4 | 5 | 13 | 11 | 12 | 10 | : | 10 | 8 | 13 | 26 | 16 | 12 |
| ... ... Education related | 4 | 12 | 14 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 6 | 5 | 1 | : | 6 | 3 | 3 | 17 | 16 | 5 |
| ... ... Other benefits | 3 | 3 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 3 | 3 | 12 | 0 | : | 0 | 3 | 1 | 3 | 0 | 11 |
| ... ... Social assistance | 2 | 1 | 7 | 3 | 4 | 1 | 2 | 22 | 0 | : | 4 | 1 | 2 | 14 | 7 | 0 |
| ... ... Housing allowance | 8 | 2 | 15 | 8 | 0 | 1 | 25 | 1 | 0 | : | 4 | 6 | 0 | 25 | 27 | 6 |
| **Mean amount received by recipients (in PPS), 1998** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ... Social transfers | 6870 | 8610 | 6509 | 7332 | 4991 | 6478 | 6684 | 4437 | 7873 | : | 8149 | 6797 | 3236 | 5759 | 5488 | 6330 |
| ... ... Unemployment related | 464 | 925 | 877 | 701 | 28 | 594 | 575 | 966 | 200 | : | 411 | 366 | 171 | 1217 | 572 | 173 |
| ... ... Old-age / survivors pension | 4939 | 5641 | 2972 | 5315 | 4510 | 4798 | 4784 | 2065 | 6964 | : | 4834 | 4572 | 2431 | 2110 | 3084 | 3616 |
| ... ... Family related | 568 | 1205 | 700 | 800 | 155 | 50 | 629 | 771 | 104 | : | 1351 | 1134 | 195 | 739 | 543 | 732 |
| ... ... Sickness / Invalidity related | 601 | 671 | 897 | 316 | 188 | 962 | 312 | 450 | 559 | : | 981 | 587 | 361 | 1160 | 261 | 1152 |
| ... ... Education related | 58 | 43 | 317 | 44 | 23 | 2 | 51 | 72 | 21 | : | 159 | 43 | 41 | 147 | 308 | 92 |
| ... ... Other benefits | 72 | 58 | 68 | 0 | 30 | 43 | 11 | 39 | 6 | : | 0 | 14 | 17 | 23 | 9 | 394 |
| ... ... Social assistance | 55 | 53 | 339 | 70 | 49 | 6 | 63 | 42 | 7 | : | 331 | 8 | 19 | 131 | 206 | 0 |
| ... ... Housing allowance | 113 | 14 | 339 | 87 | 8 | 25 | 260 | 31 | 12 | : | 81 | 74 | 1 | 232 | 506 | 170 |

FIN: 1997. Source: Eurostat - European Community Household panel. UDB December 2001 version.

## 6 INCOME. POVERTY AND REGIONAL COHESION

| | EU-15 | B | DK | D | EL | E | F | IRL | I | L | NL | A | P | FIN | S | UK |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Mean equivalised net annual income, 1998** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| PPS | 13420* | 17235 | 15197 | 15150 | 9238 | 9822 | 14092 | 13025 | 10688 | 22084 | 15235 | 14865 | 8529 | 11656 | 12324 | 15701 |
| **Share of income by quintile, 1998** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |
| Bottom quintile | 8 | 8 | 12 | 8 | 6 | 6 | 8 | 8 | 7 | 9 | 9 | 10 | 6 | 11 | 10 | 7 |
| 2nd quintile | 13 | 12 | 14 | 14 | 12 | 12 | 13 | 11 | 13 | 13 | 13 | 14 | 11 | 15 | 15 | 12 |
| 3rd quintile | 17 | 16 | 19 | 18 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 15 | 18 | 17 | 17 | 18 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 17 |
| 4th quintile | 23 | 21 | 22 | 22 | 23 | 23 | 23 | 22 | 24 | 23 | 22 | 22 | 22 | 22 | 23 | 23 |
| Top quintile | 39 | 43 | 33 | 39 | 42 | 41 | 38 | 43 | 39 | 38 | 39 | 36 | 45 | 34 | 35 | 41 |
| **Median equivalised income of all persons by sex (indexed, total = 100), 1998** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Males | 102* | 102 | 103 | 102 | 102 | 101 | 102 | 103 | 102 | 101 | 101 | 104 | 103 | 103 | 102 | 104 |
| Females | 98* | 99 | 97 | 98 | 98 | 99 | 99 | 97 | 98 | 99 | 98 | 97 | 99 | 97 | 99 | 96 |
| **Median equivalised income of all persons by age (indexed, total = 100), 1998** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Children below 16 | 88* | 95 | 95 | 83 | 100 | 91 | 94 | 91 | 86 | 86 | 87 | 88 | 88 | 95 | 92 | 85 |
| 16-24 | 90* | 85 | 86 | 89 | 97 | 92 | 79 | 96 | 90 | 91 | 84 | 103 | 100 | 91 | 90 | 98 |
| 25-49 | 109* | 111 | 110 | 107 | 116 | 110 | 108 | 114 | 108 | 110 | 107 | 106 | 114 | 107 | 101 | 114 |
| 50-64 | 114* | 108 | 116 | 111 | 102 | 107 | 113 | 116 | 111 | 104 | 119 | 110 | 113 | 111 | 129 | 127 |
| 65 and over | 90* | 84 | 74 | 97 | 76 | 96 | 94 | 77 | 100 | 97 | 92 | 87 | 76 | 89 | 91 | 69 |
| **Median equivalised income of all persons by type of household (indexed, total = 100), 1998** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1 adult living alone | 88* | 86 | 80 | 93 | 89 | 83 | 93 | 64 | 100 | 111 | 91 | 90 | 66 | 77 | 83 | 70 |
| ... 1 male adult | 106* | 98 | 91 | 101 | 116 | 119 | 98 | 83 | 127 | 129 | 107 | 115 | 91 | 82 | 89 | 95 |
| ... 1 female adult | 80* | 77 | 71 | 88 | 75 | 76 | 87 | 57 | 90 | 96 | 83 | 79 | 64 | 77 | 77 | 62 |
| Single-parent with dependent children | 73* | 68 | 89 | 61 | 110 | 77 | 77 | 64 | 89 | 79 | 66 | 74 | 77 | 87 | 78 | 62 |
| 2 adults aged 15-64 without dependent children | 132* | 122 | 123 | 127 | 119 | 131 | 124 | 162 | 135 | 120 | 135 | 129 | 132 | 118 | 137 | 145 |
| 2 adults. at least one aged 65 or more, without dependent children | 96* | 86 | 78 | 104 | 81 | 98 | 101 | 85 | 102 | 98 | 99 | 94 | 73 | 97 | 109 | 80 |
| 2 adults with one dependent child | 112* | 117 | 122 | 105 | 120 | 112 | 114 | 128 | 115 | 104 | 109 | 103 | 120 | 116 | 117 | 116 |
| 2 adults with two dependent children | 100* | 104 | 108 | 93 | 113 | 98 | 112 | 112 | 95 | 100 | 90 | 90 | 106 | 108 | 104 | 99 |
| 2 adults with three or more dependent children | 70* | 74 | 86 | 55 | 86 | 106 | 69 | 82 | 52 | 87 | 79 | 74 | 53 | 90 | 87 | 75 |
| **Median equivalised income of all persons aged 16 and over by level of educational attainment (indexed, total = 100), 1998** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Less than upper secondary | 89* | 80 | 84 | 88 | 82 | 90 | 90 | 84 | 93 | 90 | 102 | 85 | 93 | 92 | 91* | 83 |
| Upper secondary | 108* | 102 | 108 | 106 | 121 | 116 | 91 | 123 | 125 | 120 | 96 | 108 | 134 | 100 | 103 | 100 |
| Tertiary education | 140* | 132 | 123 | 127 | 182 | 163 | 115 | 164 | 162 | 163 | 127 | 143 | 260 | 131 | 120 | 125 |
| **At risk of poverty rate (60% of median equivalised income), by sex, 1998** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total | 18* | 16 | 9 | 16 | 22 | 19 | 18 | 17 | 20 | 12 | 12 | 13 | 20 | 8 | 10 | 21 |
| Males | 17* | 14 | 7 | 15 | 21 | 19 | 18 | 16 | 19 | 12 | 11 | 11 | 19 | 8 | 10 | 19 |
| Females | 19* | 17 | 10 | 16 | 22 | 19 | 17 | 19 | 20 | 12 | 12 | 15 | 22 | 8 | 10 | 24 |
| **At risk of poverty rate (60% of median equivalised income), by age, 1998** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Children below 16 | 24* | 18 | 3 | 26 | 21 | 25 | 22 | 23 | 28 | 17 | 17 | 16 | 27 | 6 | 11 | 26 |
| 16 - 24 | 23* | 22 | 15 | 23 | 21 | 24 | 28 | 16 | 25 | 18 | 24 | 12 | 16 | 19 | 25 | 22 |
| 25 - 49 | 14* | 11 | 5 | 11 | 16 | 17 | 13 | 14 | 18 | 9 | 10 | 10 | 15 | 7 | 10 | 14 |
| 50 - 64 | 14* | 16 | 4 | 13 | 22 | 17 | 15 | 12 | 17 | 10 | 6 | 10 | 17 | 6 | 4 | 13 |
| 65+ | 20* | 20 | 27 | 13 | 36 | 14 | 18 | 24 | 16 | 9 | 6 | 21 | 34 | 8 | 7 | 40 |
| **At risk of poverty rate (60% of median equivalised income) for persons aged 16 and over, by most frequent activity status, 1998** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Employed. excluding self-employed | 7* | 2 | 3 | 6 | 10 | 7 | 8 | 4 | 7 | 5 | 6 | 5 | 9 | 2 | : | 7 |
| Self-employed | 16* | 10 | 7 | 6 | 23 | 28 | 20 | 8 | 18 | 12 | 17 | 22 | 31 | 13 | : | 13 |
| Unemployed | 38* | 34 | 5 | 38 | 36 | 38 | 40 | 41 | 48 | : | 21 | 32 | 31 | 17 | : | 38 |
| Retired | 18* | 17 | 23 | 14 | 36 | 12 | 16 | 20 | 13 | 11 | 3 | 14 | 28 | 7 | : | 38 |
| Other economically inactive | 27* | 29 | 20 | 27 | 24 | 22 | 31 | 25 | 25 | 15 | 14 | 22 | 22 | 17 | : | 33 |

**6 INCOME, POVERTY AND REGIONAL COHESION (Contd.)**

| | EU-15 | B | DK | D | EL | E | F | IRL | I | L | NL | A | P | FIN | S | UK |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **At risk of poverty rate (60% of median equivalised income), by type of household, 1998** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1 adult without dependent children | 25* | 20 | 27 | 23 | 30 | 11 | 22 | 45 | 21 | 12 | 15 | 24 | 44 | 20 | 20 | 40 |
| ... Male | 20* | 13 | 18 | 22 | 19 | 10 | 22 | 33 | 15 | 5 | 16 | 12 | 36 | 20 | 19 | 27 |
| ... Female | 27* | 24 | 36 | 24 | 36 | 12 | 22 | 57 | 24 | 17 | 14 | 30 | 48 | 19 | 20 | 48 |
| 2 adults without dependent children | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ... both younger than 65 | 9* | 9 | 5 | 8 | 15 | 13 | 11 | 10 | 11 | 10 | 5 | 7 | 17 | 8 | 4 | 7 |
| ... at least one aged 65 or more | 16* | 21 | 18 | 8 | 34 | 17 | 13 | 8 | 13 | 9 | 6 | 17 | 35 | 3 | 3 | 29 |
| 3 or more adults without dependent children | 9* | 6 | 3 | 8 | 16 | 11 | 9 | 4 | 13 | 2 | 7 | 6 | 10 | 6 | : | 8 |
| Single-parent with dependent children | 35* | 25 | 15 | 47 | 13 | 38 | 31 | 48 | 18 | 27* | 43 | 32 | 40 | 9 | 19 | 45 |
| 2 adults with dependent children | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ... 1 child | 11* | 7 | 6 | 8 | 10 | 16 | 11 | 15 | 12 | 8 | 9 | 11 | 11 | 5 | 5 | 15 |
| ... 2 children | 13* | 12 | 3 | 12 | 13 | 22 | 8 | 11 | 15 | 9 | 9 | 11 | 13 | 4 | 6 | 14 |
| ... 3 or more children | 41* | 34 | 0 | 56 | 20 | 29 | 40 | 32 | 54 | 22 | 23 | 32 | 53 | 8 | 14 | 34 |
| 3 or more adults with dependent children | 22* | 13 | 0 | 11 | 37 | 25 | 33 | 13 | 36 | 17 | 15 | 10 | 21 | 4 | : | 17 |
| **Percentage of the population in households which have difficulties in making ends meet, 1998** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 82* | 77 | 87 | : | 87 | 85 | 78 | 82 | 86 | 70 | 75 | 88 | 89 | 89 | : | 78 |

See methodological notes under Income distribution and regional cohesion (3.14).

Source: Eurostat - European Community Household Panel (ECHP). UDB December 2001 version. L: 1996. FIN: 1997.

| 7 GENDER EQUALITY | EU-15 | B | DK | D | EL | E | F | IRL | I | L | NL | A | P | FIN | S | UK |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Women in regional parliaments, 2000** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Number of regions | 143 | 5 | 14 | 16 | . | 19 | 22 | . | 20 | . | 10 | 9 | 2 | . | 23 | 3 |
| Number of members | 9840 | 393 | 374 | 1970 | . | 1180 | 1693 | . | 933 | . | 761 | 448 | 111 | . | 1717 | 260 |
| Number of female members | 2896 | 85 | 113 | 605 | . | 359 | 437 | . | 78 | . | 208 | 117 | 13 | . | 810 | 71 |
| Percentage of female members | 29.4 | 21.6 | 30.2 | 30.7 | . | 30.4 | 25.8 | . | 8.4 | . | 27.3 | 26.1 | 11.7 | . | 47.2 | 27.3 |

EL. IRL. L. FIN: No elected regional parliaments existing. F: 1999 data; With "Assemblée territoriale de Corse". I: From some regions no data is available. P: Only the autonomous regions of Açores and Madeira have regional parliaments.

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Women in regional governments (including junior ministers), 2000** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Number of regions | 97 | 5 | . | 16 | . | 19 | . | . | 20 | . | . | 9 | 2 | . | 23 | 3 |
| Number of members | 940 | 37 | . | 183 | . | 177 | . | . | 194 | . | . | 76 | 16 | . | 224 | 33 |
| Number of female members | 206 | 8 | . | 44 | . | 31 | . | . | 15 | . | . | 17 | 0 | . | 81 | 10 |
| Percentage of female members | 21.9 | 21.6 | . | 24.0 | . | 17.5 | . | . | 7.7 | . | . | 22.4 | 0.0 | . | 36.2 | 30.3 |

DK, EL, F, IRL, L, FIN: No regional governments existing. D: In some regions junior ministers do not longer belong to the government and are no longer included. F: 1999 data. I: From some regions no data is available. NL: Regional governments are appointed. P: Only the autonomous regions of Açores and Madeira have regional governments. S: Some regions do not have governments.

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Women in local councils, 1997** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Number of seats | 364 367 | 12 912 | 4 658 | 177 193 | : | : | : | 883 | 94 886 | 1 105 | 11 072 | 7 508 | 7 337 | 12 482 | 11 006 | 23 325 |
| Number of seats occupied by women | 72 343 | 2 565 | 1 261 | 30 973 | : | : | : | 103 | 18 237 | 114 | 2 475 | 929 | 1 057 | 3 932 | 4 533 | 6 164 |
| Percentage of seats occupied by women | 19.9 | 19.9 | 27.1 | 17.5 | : | : | : | 11.7 | 19.2 | 10.3 | 22.4 | 12.4 | 14.4 | 31.5 | 41.2 | 26.4 |

Local data are incomplete. Due to the huge differences in local level political decision-making data provided are not always comparable. D: No data available for Saxony-Anhalt and Mecklenburg-Vorpommern. A: Only data from Styria available.

Source: European database - Women in decision making (www.db-decision.de).

| 8 HEALTH AND SAFETY | EU-15 | B | DK | D | EL | E | F | IRL | I | L | NL | A | P | FIN | S | UK |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Infant mortality rate, per 1000 live births** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1970 | 23.4 | 21.1 | 14.2 | 22.5 | 29.6 | 28.1 | 18.2 | 19.5 | 29.6 | 24.9 | 12.7 | 25.9 | 55.5 | 13.2 | 11.0 | 18.5 |
| 2000 | 4.9* | 5.2* | 4.2 | 4.4* | 6.1 | 4.6* | 4.6* | 5.9 | 5.1* | 5.1 | 4.8* | 4.8 | 5.5* | 3.8 | 3.0 | 5.6* |
| **Life expectancy at birth. males** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1980 | 70.5 | 70.0 | 71.2 | 69.6 | 72.2 | 72.5 | 70.2 | 70.1 | 70.6 | 69.1 | 72.7 | 69.0 | 67.7 | 69.2 | 72.8 | 70.2 |
| 1999 | 74.6 | 74.3 | 74.0 | 74.5 | 75.5 | 75.3 | 74.9 | 73.5 | 75.5 | 73.7 | 75.2 | 74.4 | 71.7 | 73.7 | 77.1 | 74.8 |
| **Life expectancy at birth, females** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1980 | 77.2 | 76.8 | 77.3 | 76.1 | 76.8 | 78.6 | 78.4 | 75.6 | 77.4 | 75.9 | 79.3 | 76.1 | 75.2 | 77.6 | 78.8 | 76.2 |
| 1999 | 80.9 | 80.5 | 78.8 | 80.6 | 80.6 | 82.5 | 82.3 | 79.1 | 81.8 | 80.5 | 80.5 | 80.9 | 78.9 | 81.0 | 81.9 | 79.7 |

Source: Eurostat - Demographic Statistics.

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Life expectancy with severe disability at 16 years of age, by sex, 1996** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Males | 4 | 4 | 3 | 3 | 4 | 4 | 6 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 4 | 6 | 4 | 7 | : | 5 |
| Females | 5 | 5 | 5 | 3 | 5 | 5 | 8 | 3 | 5 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 5 | 9 | : | 6 |
| **Disability-free life expectancy (at birth), by sex, 1996** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Males | 63 | 65 | 62 | 63 | 67 | 65 | 60 | 64 | 67 | 61 | 63 | 62 | 59 | 56 | : | 61 |
| Females | 66 | 69 | 62 | 69 | 70 | 68 | 63 | 67 | 70 | 64 | 63 | 66 | 61 | 59 | : | 62 |
| **Percentage of persons aged 16 and over stating that they are hampered in daily activities by any physical or mental health problem, illness or disability by sex, 1997** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total | 22 | 15 | 24 | 39 | 16 | 16 | 23 | 16 | 12 | : | 22 | 18 | 24 | 29 | : | 15 |
| Males | 20 | 13 | 20 | 36 | 15 | 14 | 21 | 15 | 11 | : | 19 | 17 | 21 | 28 | : | 13 |
| Females | 24 | 17 | 27 | 42 | 17 | 18 | 25 | 17 | 14 | : | 25 | 19 | 27 | 31 | : | 16 |
| **Percentage of persons aged 65 and over that they are hampered in daily activities by any physical or mental health problem, illness or disability by sex, 1997** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total | 47 | 32 | 48 | 72 | 42 | 38 | 54 | 37 | 33 | : | 41 | 44 | 51 | 62 | : | 30 |
| Males | 44 | 29 | 42 | 69 | 41 | 33 | 51 | 32 | 31 | : | 38 | 41 | 45 | 61 | : | 26 |
| Females | 49 | 35 | 53 | 73 | 42 | 42 | 55 | 41 | 34 | : | 43 | 46 | 56 | 62 | : | 32 |
| **Percentage of persons aged 16 and over with an above-mentioned problem/illness and who are hampered in their daily activities,1997** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Yes. severely | 9 | 6 | 7 | 9 | 7 | 6 | 10 | 4 | 5 | : | 8 | 6 | 11 | 9 | : | 15 |
| Yes. to some extent | 14 | 9 | 17 | 30 | 9 | 10 | 13 | 12 | 7 | : | 14 | 12 | 14 | 20 | : | : |
| No | 78 | 85 | 77 | 61 | 84 | 84 | 77 | 84 | 88 | : | 78 | 82 | 76 | 71 | : | 85 |
| **Percentage of persons aged 65 and over with an above-mentioned problem/illness and who are hampered in their daily activities,1997** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Yes. severely | 22 | 15 | 21 | 22 | 18 | 15 | 28 | 11 | 16 | : | 17 | 19 | 25 | 28 | : | 30 |
| Yes. to some extent | 25 | 18 | 28 | 49 | 24 | 23 | 26 | 26 | 17 | : | 24 | 25 | 26 | 34 | : | : |
| No | 53 | 68 | 52 | 29 | 58 | 62 | 47 | 63 | 67 | : | 59 | 56 | 49 | 38 | : | 70 |
| **Percentage of the population aged 16 and over who feel that their health is bad or very bad, by level of education. 1997** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Pre-primary. primary and lower secondary education | 15 | 9 | 12 | 21 | 14 | 16 | 13 | 6 | 13 | : | 7 | 12 | 27 | : | : | 13 |
| Upper secondary education | 8 | 4 | 4 | 19 | 4 | 2 | 6 | 2 | 4 | : | 4 | 5 | 7 | 7 | : | 7 |
| Total tertiary education | 6 | 3 | 4 | 15 | 1 | 3 | 4 | : | : | : | 2 | 4 | 3 | 3 | : | 7 |

Source: Eurostat - European Community Household Panel (ECHP). UDB September 2001 version.

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Percentage of the population aged 16 and over who feel that their health is bad or very bad, by sex, 1997** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total | 12 | 5 | 7 | 18 | 9 | 11 | 8 | 4 | 12 | : | 5 | 7 | 23 | 8 | : | 10 |
| Males | 10 | 4 | 5 | 15 | 8 | 9 | 7 | 3 | 10 | : | 4 | 6 | 19 | 7 | : | 9 |
| Females | 13 | 6 | 8 | 20 | 10 | 13 | 9 | 5 | 14 | : | 6 | 8 | 28 | 10 | : | 10 |
| **Percentage of the population aged 65 and over who feel that their health is bad or very bad, by sex, 1997** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total | 27 | 13 | 18 | 35 | 28 | 32 | 19 | 12 | 36 | : | 10 | 21 | 59 | 24 | : | 16 |
| Males | 24 | 10 | 14 | 30 | 26 | 26 | 18 | 6 | 34 | : | 8 | 19 | 50 | 19 | : | 14 |
| Females | 29 | 15 | 21 | 39 | 30 | 35 | 20 | 16 | 37 | : | 11 | 22 | 64 | 27 | : | 17 |

Source: Eurostat - European Community Household Panel (ECHP). UDB December 2001 version.

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Standardised death rates (SDR) per 100 000 population by sex, 1998** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| *Males* | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Diseases of the circulatory system | 349 | 328 | 374 | 401 | 368 | 277 | 234 | 430 | 318 | 348 | 324 | 435 | 403 | 419 | 358 | 367 |
| Cancer | 258 | 301 | 268 | 250 | 217 | 259 | 279 | 251 | 258 | 271 | 270 | 238 | 243 | 212 | 193 | 244 |
| Diseases of the respiratory system | 87 | 114 | 90 | 62 | 44 | 103 | 66 | 153 | 61 | 91 | 102 | 45 | 113 | 92 | 51 | 134 |
| External causes of injury and poisoning | 61 | 82 | 72 | 53 | 60 | 58 | 87 | 62 | 54 | 78 | 37 | 71 | 76 | 116 | 56 | 40 |
| *Females* | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Diseases of the circulatory system | 210 | 207 | 220 | 258 | 285 | 188 | 136 | 257 | 206 | 222 | 188 | 284 | 284 | 226 | 207 | 223 |
| Cancer | 141 | 155 | 201 | 151 | 115 | 113 | 126 | 174 | 132 | 143 | 159 | 140 | 123 | 126 | 138 | 167 |
| Diseases of the respiratory system | 40 | 40 | 65 | 26 | 29 | 39 | 32 | 94 | 22 | 35 | 47 | 20 | 51 | 38 | 30 | 88 |
| External causes of injury and poisoning | 23 | 34 | 34 | 20 | 18 | 18 | 38 | 21 | 22 | 28 | 19 | 23 | 23 | 36 | 23 | 16 |

Data 1998 except B 1995. DK 1996. EL and I 1997.
Source: Eurostat - Health and safety statistics.

**8 HEALTH AND SAFETY (Contd.)**

| | EU-15 | B | DK | D | EL | E | F | IRL | I | L | NL | A | P | FIN | S | UK |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Number of persons per 100 000 discharged from hospitals by ICD diagnosis, 1999** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Infectious and parasitic diseases | 394 | 389 | 490 | 365 | 374 | 186 | 428 | 538 | 310 | 347 | 118 | 673 | 200 | 741 | 458 | 290 |
| Cancer | 1367 | 976 | 1613 | 1815 | 1229 | 624 | 1169 | 1150 | 1042 | 1485 | 791 | 2671 | 507 | 1838 | 1441 | 2147 |
| Diseases of the respiratory system | 1427 | 1440 | 1625 | 1266 | 1073 | 1034 | 1447 | 1629 | 1237 | 2135 | 673 | 2010 | 718 | 2430 | 1193 | 1500 |
| Diseases of the circulatory system | 2420 | 2351 | 2594 | 3369 | 1952 | 1291 | 2268 | 1798 | 2589 | 2447 | 1474 | 4010 | 1046 | 3983 | 2983 | 2138 |
| Mental and behavioural disorders | 655 | : | 256 | 1037 | 330 | 262 | 482 | 207 | 463 | 1102 | 138 | 1484 | 112 | 1778 | 1051 | 467 |
| External causes of injury and poisoning | 1646 | 1678 | 1874 | 1995 | 1273 | 849 | 2134 | 1706 | 1622 | 1752 | 762 | 3040 | 696 | 2139 | 1631 | 1534 |

Data 1999 except B, EL, E, F, L, A, FIN 1997. UK includes only England.
Source: Eurostat - Health and safety statistics.

**Total expenditure on health (percentage of Gross Domestic Product)**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1990 | 7.5 | 7.4 | 8.5 | 8.7 | 7.5 | 6.6 | 8.6 | 6.7 | 8.1 | 6.1 | 8.5 | 7.1 | 6.2 | 7.9 | 8.5 | 6.0 |
| 1999 | 8.0 | 8.8 | 8.4 | 10.3 | 8.4 | 7.0 | 9.4 | 6.8 | 8.2 | 6.1 | 8.7 | 8.2 | 7.7 | 6.8 | 7.9 | 6.9 |

Data 1999 except D. EL. IRL. P and S 1998
Source: OECD Health data 2001.

**Work accidents per 100 000 employed persons by selected type of activity, 1998, Index (1994 = 100)**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total | 90 | 116 | 121 | 89 | 79 | 115 | 89 | 96 | 88 | 105 | 91 | 93 | 93 | 88 | 118 | 79 |
| Construction | 89 | 96 | 104 | 78 | 77 | 126 | 106 | 118 | 95 | 112 | 92 | 82 | 111 | 94 | 164 | 84 |
| Agriculture, hunting and forestry | 105 | 119 | 47 | 100 | 128 | 149 | 50 | 113 | 125 | 91 | 93 | 141 | 53 | 103 | 75 | 69 |
| Transport, storage and communication | 95 | 188 | 128 | 111 | 88 | 111 | 95 | 55 | 67 | 113 | 96 | 99 | 154 | 74 | 72 | 81 |
| Manufacturing | 89 | 108 | 143 | 94 | 75 | 103 | 99 | 93 | 86 | 105 | 98 | 90 | 62 | 89 | 141 | 86 |
| Hotels and restaurants | 87 | 105 | 65 | 77 | 70 | 122 | 76 | 192 | 121 | 138 | 93 | 71 | : | 79 | 106 | 74 |
| Wholesale and retail trade; repairs | 96 | 117 | 84 | 92 | 85 | 118 | 85 | 115 | 98 | 101 | 90 | 82 | 172 | 86 | 129 | 82 |

**Work accidents per 100 000 employed persons by selected type of activity, 1998**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total | 4 089 | 5 112 | 3 203 | 4 958 | 2 936 | 7 073 | 4 920 | 1 433 | 4 105 | 4 719 | 3 909 | 3 321 | 5 505 | 3 435 | 1 329 | 1 512 |
| Construction | 8 008 | 8 658 | 3 902 | 9 810 | 6 803 | 15 486 | 12 205 | 1 901 | 6 445 | 10 027 | 2 499 | 6 439 | 10 093 | 7 538 | 2 247 | 2 439 |
| Agriculture, hunting and forestry | 6 790 | 6 867 | 1 203 | 11 852 | 3 094 | 3 466 | 4 839 | 5 816 | 9 381 | 7 666 | 7 079 | 11 856 | 5 682 | 774 | 1 451 | 2 114 |
| Transport, storage and communication | 5 862 | 5 728 | 3 399 | 11 691 | 2 016 | 6 688 | 6 128 | 1 923 | 5 482 | 3 648 | 3 055 | 2 761 | 4 221 | 3 646 | 1 549 | 1 746 |
| Manufacturing | 4 492 | 4 733 | 5 910 | 4 761 | 3 831 | 8 383 | 4 458 | 1 638 | 5 006 | 5 174 | 5 628 | 3 770 | 5 909 | 4 600 | 1 676 | 1 678 |
| Hotels and restaurants | 3 590 | 4 044 | 1 388 | 5 516 | 1 077 | 6 220 | 5 306 | 435 | 3 249 | 3 891 | 1 615 | 1 194 | 3 372 | 2 577 | 1 009 | 1 556 |
| Wholesale and retail trade; repairs | 2 451 | 4 076 | 1 189 | 2 380 | 2 144 | 4 918 | 3 692 | 380 | 1 961 | 3 219 | 2 222 | 1 473 | 4 784 | 2 230 | 969 | 1 298 |

**Work accidents per 100 000 employed persons by sex, 1998, Index (1994=100)**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Males | 88 | 115 | 119 | 88 | 81 | 114 | 90 | 100 | 87 | 102 | : | 96 | 91 | 83 | 116 | 77 |
| Females | 98 | 128 | 128 | 98 | 73 | 130 | 90 | 89 | 94 | 126 | : | 81 | 108 | 92 | 126 | 77 |

F and UK: The total index in 1998 is not between the index for men and women. This is due to the fact that. though there are only few cases, for some accidents the sex of the victim is unknown; these cases are included in the total evolution but not in the evolution by sex.

**Work accidents per 100 000 employed persons by sex, 1998**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Males | 5 268 | 6 455 | 3 956 | 6 578 | 3 826 | 8 609 | 6 532 | 1 961 | 4 987 | 5 969 | : | 4 408 | 7 343 | 4 418 | 1 543 | 1 867 |
| Females | 1 890 | 2 201 | 1 745 | 2 123 | 1 110 | 3 476 | 2 146 | 594 | 2 047 | 1 967 | : | 1 512 | 2 477 | 1 586 | 882 | 873 |

Only those working accidents that lead to more than 3 days absence are included.

Source: Eurostat - Health and safety statistics.

**Number of persons killed in road accidents**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1970 | 73 229 | 2 950 | 1 208 | 21 332 | 931 | 4 197 | 15 034 | 540 | 10 208 | 132 | 3 181 | 2 238 | 1 417 | 1 055 | 1 307 | 7 499 |
| 1980 | 59 600 | 2 396 | 690 | 15 050 | 1 225 | 5 017 | 12 384 | 564 | 8 537 | 98 | 1 997 | 1 742 | 2 262 | 551 | 848 | 6 239 |
| 1990 | 51 711 | 1 976 | 634 | 11 046 | 1 737 | 6 948 | 10 289 | 478 | 6 621 | 71 | 1 376 | 1 391 | 2 321 | 649 | 772 | 5 402 |
| 1998 | 42 416 | 1 500 | 499 | 7 792 | 2 226 | 5 957 | 8 918 | 458 | 6 342 | 57 | 1 066 | 963 | 2 126 | 400 | 531 | 3 581 |
| 1999 | 42 122 | 1 397 | 514 | 7 772 | 2 131 | 5 738 | 8 487 | 417* | 6 633 | 58* | 1 090 | 1 079 | 1 955 | 431 | 580 | 3 564 |
| 2000 | 40 803 | 1 470 | 494 | 7 487 | 2067* | 5 776 | 8 079 | 415* | 6047* | 67* | 1 160 | 976 | 1 855 | 396 | 573 | 3 580 |

**Number of persons killed in road accidents per million inhabitants**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 2000 | 108 | 143 | 93 | 93 | 196 | 146 | 137 | 109 | 111 | 153 | 73 | 120 | 185 | 77 | 65 | 60 |

For road accidents, 'persons killed' are all those killed within 30 days of the accident. For Member States not using this definition, corrective factors were applied.
Source: Eurostat - Transport Statistics.

| 9 CONSUMPTION | EU-15 | B | DK | D | EL | E | F | IRL | I | L | NL | A | P | FIN | S | UK |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|

*More statistical data on consumption can be found in "Consumers in Europe – Facts and figures 1996-2000". Eurostat, 2001. ISBN 92-894-1400-6.*

**Final consumption expenditure of households, 2000, current prices**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Thousand millions of euro | 4561 | 131 | 83 | 1144 | 83 | 356 | 760 | 47 | 699 | 8 | 197 | 113 | 69 | 62 | 121 | 976 |
| Euro per inhabitant | 12 090 | 12 790 | 15 510 | 13 920 | 7 870 | 8 920 | 12 580 | 12 490 | 12 110 | 17 700 | 12 380 | 13 950 | 6 930 | 12 050 | 13 610 | 16 350 |
| Thousand millions of PPS | 4561 | 134 | 68 | 1092 | 106 | 423 | 728 | 46 | 792 | 7 | 206 | 110 | 102 | 57 | 99 | 886 |
| PPS per inhabitant | 12 090 | 13 070 | 12 730 | 13 290 | 10 080 | 10 710 | 12 040 | 12 240 | 13 730 | 16 329 | 12 930 | 13 570 | 10 220 | 10 990 | 11 140 | 14 850 |
| Percentage of GDP | 56.9 | 52.8 | 46.9 | 56.5 | 70.8 | 58.5 | 54.1 | 45.7 | 60.0 | 38.0 | 49.1 | 55.2 | 60.2 | 47.4 | 48.6 | 63.0 |

EU-15. EL: 1999. The "per inhabitant" figures are forecasts for EU-15, D, EL, IRL, P and UK.

Source: Eurostat. National Accounts - ESA95 - aggregates (theme2/aggs)

**Structure of household consumption expenditure, 1999 (%)**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |
| Food and non-alcoholic beverages | : | 13.3 | 13.1 | 11.1 | 16.6 | 18.3 | 16.2 | 15.4 | 19.0 | 10.1 | 10.5 | 13.4 | 21.2 | 14.2 | 15.4 | 10.5 |
| Alcoholic beverages and tobacco | : | 2.3 | 4.2 | 2.8 | 3.5 | 2.7 | 2.7 | 7.7 | 1.9 | 2.0 | 2.1 | 2.6 | 2.8 | 2.9 | 2.9 | 3.0 |
| Clothing and footwear | : | 5.4 | 5.5 | 5.7 | 8.6 | 7.4 | 5.6 | 6.2 | 7.5 | 5.9 | 6.0 | 6.6 | 6.3 | 4.6 | 5.2 | 5.5 |
| Housing, water, electricity, gas and other fuels | : | 26.2 | 28.4 | 31.2 | 21.9 | 27.5 | 23.2 | 17.4 | 24.7 | 27.4 | 26.7 | 23.9 | 19.9 | 28.1 | 26.8 | 28.3 |
| Furnishings, household equipment & routine maintenance | : | 6.5 | 6.4 | 7.4 | 7.5 | 5.0 | 7.6 | 4.5 | 7.6 | 8.2 | 7.2 | 7.2 | 6.7 | 4.5 | 5.0 | 7.3 |
| Health | : | 4.7 | 2.4 | 3.6 | 6.3 | 2.5 | 5.2 | 1.6 | 4.4 | 2.4 | 1.1 | 2.4 | 4.6 | 3.7 | 3.0 | 1.1 |
| Transport | : | 12.5 | 14.1 | 13.3 | 11.2 | 12.5 | 14.5 | 13.0 | 13.7 | 15.4 | 10.3 | 14.4 | 15.7 | 17.0 | 13.4 | 13.6 |
| Communication | : | 2.2 | 2.1 | 2.5 | 3.3 | 2.0 | 2.0 | 2.5 | 2.5 | 2.1 | 2.2 | 2.6 | 2.0 | 2.8 | 2.6 | 2.3 |
| Recreation and culture | : | 10.7 | 11.2 | 11.9 | 4.5 | 6.2 | 7.6 | 9.1 | 6.3 | 8.7 | 10.4 | 12.3 | 3.7 | 10.7 | 14.6 | 13.4 |
| Education | : | 0.5 | 0.4 | 0.5 | 2.4 | 1.4 | 0.5 | 1.4 | 0.8 | 0.1 | 1.2 | 0.3 | 1.3 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 1.3 |
| Restaurants and hotels | : | 5.7 | 4.1 | 4.9 | 8.8 | 9.2 | 6.9 | 5.1 | 4.6 | 9.6 | 7.0 | 5.4 | 9.2 | 4.1 | 3.8 | 7.9 |
| Miscellaneous goods and services | : | 10.0 | 8.1 | 5.0 | 5.5 | 5.1 | 8.1 | 8.1 | 7.1 | 8.0 | 15.3 | 8.9 | 6.5 | 7.1 | 7.2 | 5.8 |

F. P: 1994.
Source: Eurostat - Household Budget Survey (theme3/hbs)

**Average number of rooms per person**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1981/82 | 1.6 | 1.8 | 1.6 | 1.7 | 1.2 | 1.3 | 1.6 | 1.3 | 1.3 | 1.9 | 1.8 | : | 1.0 | 1.3 | 1.7 | 1.8 |
| 1998 | 1.9 | 2.1 | 2.0 | 1.9 | 1.4 | 1.8 | 2.0 | 2.1 | 1.6 | 2.2 | 2.6 | 2.0 | 1.6 | 1.7 | 2.0 | 2.3 |

**Households owning their accommodation (%)**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1981/82 | 54 | 58 | 55 | 40 | 70 | 73 | 51 | 74 | 59 | 60 | 42 | 48 | 57 | 61 | 59 | 56 |
| 1990/91 | 59 | 65 | 54 | 39 | 76 | 78 | 54 | 79 | 68 | 65 | 45 | 50 | 65 | 67 | 56 | 66 |
| 1998 | 59 | 71 | 56 | 41 | 74 | 82 | 53 | 75 | 71 | 70 | 51 | 51 | 66 | 64 | 59 | 69 |

Source: Eurostat - Censuses of Population (1981/82. 1990/91). European Community Household Panel (1998). L: 1996. FIN: 1997. S: National sources for 1981/82 and 1990/91.

**Percentage of households possessing selected consumer durables, 1998**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Colour television | 97 | 96 | 97 | 97 | 96 | 99 | 94 | 98 | 97 | 98 | 98 | 97 | 93 | 94 | 98 | 98 |
| Video recorder | 67 | 68 | 72 | 64 | 47 | 67 | 65 | 76 | 59 | 68 | 73 | 65 | 57 | 61 | 68 | 83 |
| Microwave oven | 51 | 60 | 41 | 52 | 12 | 46 | 55 | 66 | 18 | 33 | 67 | 56 | 27 | 74 | 66 | 77 |
| Dishwasher | 33 | 32 | 39 | 45 | 23 | 22 | 36 | 26 | 25 | 56 | 29 | 49 | 23 | 42 | 41 | 23 |

**Percentage of households possessing a telephone, by income group, 1998**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total | 95 | 95 | 98 | 96 | 95 | 89 | 97 | 87 | 91 | 98 | 99 | 97 | 81 | 95 | : | 96 |
| Top income group | 98 | 99 | 100 | 97 | 99 | 97 | 100 | 93 | 96 | 99 | 100 | 99 | 95 | 100 | : | 99 |
| Bottom income group | 86 | 85 | 95 | 86 | 85 | 77 | 90 | 83 | 81 | 94 | 95 | 92 | 59 | 85 | : | 92 |

**Percentage of households possessing a car or a van (available for private use), 1998**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Have a car | 73 | 76 | 63 | 73 | 57 | 67 | 80 | 70 | 76 | 83 | 68 | 74 | 63 | 65 | 72 | 70 |
| Cannot afford one | 4 | 6 | 14 | : | 19 | 12 | 7 | 14 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 20 | 9 | : | : |
| Don't want one | 23 | 18 | 24 | : | 24 | 21 | 13 | 16 | 21 | 14 | 27 | 21 | 17 | 26 | : | : |

L: 1996, FIN: 1997. It doesn't matter whether the item (in the three tables above) is owned. rented ot otherwise provided for use. Top income group refers to household income that is 140% or more of national median income. Bottom income group refers to household income that is less than 60% of national median income.

Source: Eurostat - European Community Household Panel (ECHP). UDB December 2001 version.

**Level of internet access of households (%)**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1998 | 8.3 | : | 8.2 | 24.6 | 7.1 | 5.0 | 3.9 | 8.4 | 6.1 | 14.0 | 19.6 | 6.8 | 3.4 | 17.2 | 39.6 | 10.7 |
| 1999 | 12 | 12 | 35 | 11 | 3 | 6 | 8 | 6 | 7 | 17 | 21 | 12 | 4 | 21 | 51 | 17 |
| 2000 | 28.4 | 29.2 | 51.6 | 27.1 | 11.7 | 15.7 | 19.0 | 35.5 | 23.7 | 36.3 | 54.8 | 38.0 | 18.1 | 43.5 | 53.8 | 40.9 |
| 2001 | 37.7 | 36.4 | 58.6 | 38.4 | 9.9 | 24.7 | 30.1 | 47.6 | 33.5 | 43.0 | 63.8 | 47.2 | 26.1 | 50.2 | 60.7 | 49.3 |

**Internet users per 100 inhabitants**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1998 | 9.7 | 7.8 | 18.9 | 12.8 | 3.3 | 4.4 | 6.0 | 8.1 | 5.2 | 11.8 | 10.2 | 7.4 | 6.0 | 25.5 | 33.5 | 13.5 |
| 1999 | 14.9 | 13.7 | 28.2 | 19.4 | 7.1 | 7.2 | 9.6 | 11.9 | 8.7 | 17.5 | 19.0 | 10.5 | 7.0 | 32.3 | 41.4 | 21.1 |
| 2000 | 26.3 | 29.3 | 48.4 | 29.5 | 9.4 | 13.7 | 16.9 | 27.4 | 23.4 | 27.8 | 45.8 | 31.9 | 10.1 | 44.5 | 56.1 | 33.6 |
| 2001 | 32.7 | 26.3 | 66.8 | 38.9 | 12.1 | 17.7 | 18.4 | 29.4 | 25.2 | 34.8 | 65.4 | 35.8 | 12.5 | 60.9 | 69.0 | 42.4 |

| 9 CONSUMPTION (Contd.) | EU-15 | B | DK | D | EL | E | F | IRL | I | L | NL | A | P | FIN | S | UK |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Information Technology expenditure as a % of GDP (hardware, software and services)** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1992 | 3.03 | 3.38 | 3.94 | 2.94 | 0.71 | 1.62 | 3.59 | 2.35 | 1.80 | : | 3.96 | 2.73 | 1.24 | 2.93 | 4.37 | 4.43 |
| 1998 | 3.57 | 3.97 | 4.77 | 3.62 | 1.00 | 1.78 | 4.09 | 2.38 | 2.01 | 4.30 | 4.83 | 3.30 | 1.73 | 3.89 | 6.24 | 4.82 |
| 1999 | 3.90 | 4.33 | 5.04 | 3.95 | 1.09 | 1.85 | 4.33 | 2.47 | 2.21 | 4.90 | 5.20 | 3.52 | 1.86 | 4.34 | 6.48 | 5.15 |
| 2000 | 4.15 | 4.55 | 5.35 | 4.22 | 1.20 | 1.96 | 4.67 | 2.37 | 2.36 | : | 5.37 | 3.73 | 1.99 | 4.46 | 6.87 | 5.53 |
| **Communications expenditure as a % of GDP (telecommunication equipment and services)** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1992 | 2.1 | 1.8 | 2.1 | 2.2 | 1.5 | 2.0 | 2.0 | 2.7 | 1.7 | : | 2.2 | 2.1 | 1.2 | 1.6 | 2.9 | 2.5 |
| 1998 | 2.4 | 2.4 | 2.3 | 2.2 | 3.2 | 2.2 | 2.2 | 3.0 | 2.4 | 2.3 | 2.7 | 2.0 | 3.2 | 2.3 | 2.6 | 2.6 |
| 1999 | 2.5 | 2.5 | 2.4 | 2.3 | 3.5 | 2.3 | 2.3 | 3.0 | 2.5 | 2.7 | 2.8 | 2.1 | 3.3 | 2.4 | 2.7 | 2.7 |
| 2000 | 2.7 | 2.7 | 2.4 | 2.5 | 3.8 | 2.5 | 2.6 | 3.0 | 2.7 | : | 3.1 | 2.3 | 3.6 | 2.3 | 2.8 | 2.9 |

Source: Eurostat - Information Society Statistics

# Annex III: Key social indicators per Candidate Country

*In order to cover most Candidate Countries, 2nd quarter (instead of yearly) data of 2000 is presented for the employment and unemployment indicators 7-11 and 18. In these cases the EU-15 data is also from the 2nd quarter of 2000 and may thus be different from the yearly EU-15 data presented in annex I.*

| no. | Key indicator | Unit | Year (and quarter) | EU-15 | BG | CY | CZ | EE | HU | LV | LT | MT | PL | RO | SK | SI | TR |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 3 | Old age dependency ratio | % | 2000 | 24 | 24 | 17° | 20 | 21 | 21 | 22 | 20 | 18° | 18 | 19 | 17 | 20 | : |
| 4 | Net migration rate | per 1000 inhab. | 2000 | 2.0 | 0.0 | 1.5 | 0.6 | 0.2 | 0.0 | -0.8 | 0.0 | 3.5 | -0.5 | -0.2 | 0.3 | 1.4 | : |
| 5 | Early school-leavers not in further education or training | % | 2000 | 20* | : | 15 | : | 14 | 14 | : | 17 | : | : | 22 | : | 7 | : |
| 6 | Lifelong learning (adult participation in education and training) | % | 2000 | 8 | : | 3 | : | 6 | 3 | : | 3 | : | : | 1 | : | 4 | : |
| 7 | Employment rate | % | 2000 Q2 | 63.1 | 51.5 | 65.5 | 64.9 | 60.6 | 55.9 | 58.2 | 60.1 | : | 55.1 | 64.2 | 56.3 | 62.7 | : |
| 8 | Employment rate of older workers | % | 2000 Q2 | 37.7 | 22.1 | 49.0 | 36.1 | 43.0 | 21.9 | 35.4 | 42.2 | : | 29.0 | 52.0 | 21.5 | 22.3 | : |
| 9 | Unemployment rate | % | 2000 Q2 | 8.2 | 16.2 | 4.9 | 8.8 | 13.2 | 6.6 | 14.2 | 15.6 | : | 16.3 | 7.0 | 19.1 | 6.9 | : |
| 10 | Youth unemployment/ population ratio | % | 2000 Q2 | 7.6 | 10.2 | 4.0 | 7.5 | 8.5 | 4.6 | 8.2 | 10.1 | : | 13.4 | 7.4 | 16.5 | 6.1 | : |
| 11 | Long-term unemployment rate | % | 2000 Q2 | 3.7 | 10.2 | 1.3 | 4.5 | 6.7 | 3.2 | 8.4 | 8.8 | : | 8.0 | 3.6 | 11.3 | 4.5 | : |
| 12 | Social protection expenditure as a percentage of GDP | % | 1999 | 27.6 | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | 21.2 | 26.5 | : |
| 13 | Old age and survivors benefits as a percentage of total social benefits | % | 1999 | 46.0 | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | 36.6 | 45.4 | : |
| 14 | Distribution of income (S80/S20 ratio) | Ratio | 1998 | 5.4 | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : |
| 15a | Risk of poverty rate before social transfers | % | 1998 | 26 | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : |
| 15b | Risk of poverty rate after social transfers | % | 1998 | 18 | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : |
| 16 | People in jobless households | % | 2000 | 4.5 | : | 1.5 | 4.2 | 5.7 | 4.0 | : | : | : | : | 3.8 | 8.9 | 2.6 | : |
| 17 | Female share in national Parliaments | % | 1998 | 23° | : | : | 15 | 18 | 8 | : | : | 9 | 13 | : | : | 12 | : |
| 18 | Female employment rate | % | 2000Q2 | 53.8 | 47.2 | 52.5 | 56.8 | 57.1 | 49.4 | 54.3 | 58.5 | : | 49.3 | 59.0 | 51.1 | 58.5 | : |
| 19 | Gender pay gap | % | 1998 | 84 | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : |
| 20a | Life expectancy at birth - males | Years | 1999 | 74.6 | 67.6 | 75.3 | 71.4 | 65.5 | 66.4 | 64.9 | 67.1 | 75.1 | 68.8 | 66.1 | 69.0 | 71.3 | 66.5° |
| 20b | Life expectancy at birth - females | Years | 1999 | 80.9 | 74.6 | 80.4 | 78.1 | 76.3 | 75.2 | 76.2 | 77.4 | 79.3 | 77.5 | 73.7 | 77.0 | 78.8 | 71.2° |
| 20c | Disability-free life expectancy (at birth) - males | Years | 1996 | 63 | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : |
| 20d | Disability-free life expectancy (at birth) - females | Years | 1996 | 66 | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : |
| 21 | Quality of work (serious accidents at work) | Index points (1994 = 100)" | 1998 | 90 | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : |

° = The figure may be from another year (latest available) or may have some other limitation.

**Reading note for each key indicator**

3 EU-wide, the number of persons aged 65 and over corresponded to 24% of what is considered to be the working age population (15-64 years) in 2000.
4 The net migration rate for the EU in 2000 was 2.0 per 1000 inhabitants.
5 In 2000, 20% of 18-24 year-olds in the EU had left the education system without completing a qualification beyond lower secondary schooling.
6 EU-wide, 8% of the population aged 25-64 participated in education/training (in the last four weeks) in 2000.
7 63.1% of the EU population aged 15-64 were in employment in the 2nd quarter of 2000.
8 37.7% of the EU population aged 55-64 were in employment in the 2nd quarter of 2000.
9 8.2% of the EU labour force (those at work and those seeking work) were unemployed in the 2nd quarter of 2000.
10 7.6% of the EU population aged 15-24 were unemployed in the 2nd quarter of 2000.
11 3.7% of the EU labour force (those at work and those seeking work) had been unemployed for at least one year in the 2nd quarter of 2000.
12 In 1999, EU social protection expenditure represented 27.6% of Gross Domestic Product (GDP).
13 EU-wide. old-age and survivors benefits make up the largest item of social protection expenditure (46.0% of total benefits in 1999).
14 At EU level, the bottom (poorest) 20% of the population received only 8% of total income in 1997, while the top (richest) 20% received 39% of total income, i.e. 5.4 times as much.
15a EU-wide before social transfers, 26% of the population would have been living below the poverty line in 1998.
15b EU-wide after social transfers, 18% of the population were actually living below the poverty line in 1998.
16 EU-wide, 4.5% of people living in active households (i.e. at least one person belongs to the labour force) were living in jobless households in 2000. i.e. no member of the household was in employment.
17 EU-wide, 23% of the seats in the national Parliaments (or Lower House) were occupied by women in 2001.
18 53.8% of the EU female population aged 15-64 were in employment in the 2nd quarter of 2000.
19 EU-wide, the average gross hourly earnings of women were 84% of the average gross hourly earnings of men in 1998. The population consists of all paid employees aged 16-64 that are 'at work 15+ hours per week'.
20a The average life expectancy at birth of a male citizen in the EU was 74.6 years in 1999.
20b The average life expectancy at birth of a female citizen in the EU was 80.9 years in 1999.
20c On average, a male citizen in the EU should live to 63 without disability (1996 data).
20d On average, a female citizen in the EU should live to 66 without disability (1996 data).
21 EU-wide there occurred 10 % (100-10=90) less working accidents (resulting in more than three days' absence) per 100 000 persons in employment in 1998 than in 1994.

# Annex IV: Statistical data - European Union Candidate Countries

*More statistical data on candidate countries can be found in the "Statistical yearbook on candidate and South-East European countries"; Eurostat, 2001, ISBN 92-894-1038-8.*

**1 ECONOMY**

| | Bulgaria | Cyprus | Czech Republic | Estonia | Hungary | Latvia | Lithuania | Malta | Poland | Romania | Slovak Republic | Slovenia | Turkey |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | **BG** | **CY** | **CZ** | **EE** | **HU** | **LV** | **LT** | **MT** | **PL** | **RO** | **SK** | **SI** | **TR** |
| **Gross domestic product at current market prices** | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2000. Bn Euro | 13 | 10 | 55 | 5 | 50 | 8 | 12 | 4 | 171 | 40 | 21 | 20 | 217 |
| **GDP growth rates, at constant prices (1995)** | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Annual growth rate, 1999 | 2.4 | 4.5 | -0.4 | -7.0 | 4.2 | 1.1 | -3.9 | 4.1 | 4.1 | -2.3 | 1.9 | 5.2 | -4.7 |
| Annual growth rate, 2000 | 5.8 | 4.8 | 2.9 | 6.9 | 5.2 | 6.6 | 3.9 | 5.1 | 4.0 | 1.6 | 2.2 | 4.6 | 7.2 |
| Compared to the same quarter of the previous year, 2001Q1 | 4.5 | : | 4.1 | 5.8 | 4.4 | 8.3 | 4.4 | 2.1 | 2.3 | 4.8 | 3.0 | 3.2 | -2.2 |
| Compared to the same quarter of the previous year, 2001Q2 | 5.1 | : | 3.9 | 5.0 | 4.0 | 9.2 | 5.7 | -0.6 | 0.9 | 5.1 | 2.8 | 2.7 | -9.3 |
| **GDP per head (Index EU-15=100, in PPS)** | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1995 | 28 | 79 | 62 | 32 | 46 | 24 | 27 | 49 | 34 | 32 | 44 | 64 | 29 |
| 2000 | 24 | 82 | 60 | 38 | 53 | 29 | 29 | 53 | 39 | 27 | 48 | 71 | 29 |
| **GDP per head in PPS, 2000** | 5 400 | 18 500 | 13 500 | 8 500 | 11 900 | 6 600 | 6 600 | 11 900 | 8 700 | 6 000 | 10 800 | 16 100 | 6 400 |

Source: Eurostat - National Accounts.

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **General government debt (% of GDP)** | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1998 | 82.7 | 61.9 | 14.0 | 6.1 | 62.1 | 10.6 | 16.7 | 56.9 | 42.9 | 17.9 | 29.7 | : | 52.3 |
| 1999 | 82.8 | 62.7 | 15.0 | 6.8 | 60.5 | 13.6 | 22.5 | 60.1 | 44.4 | 24.4 | 29.8 | 25.1 | 69.2 |
| 2000 | 76.9 | 63.0 | 17.3 | 5.3 | 55.7 | 14.1 | 23.7 | 60.6 | 40.9 | 22.9 | 32.4 | 25.8 | 57.8 |
| **General government deficit (-) (% of GDP)** | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1998 | 1.3 | -3.7 | -3.8 | -0.4 | -7.8 | -0.7 | -3.1 | -10.8 | -2.4 | -4.4 | -4.9 | : | -11.9 |
| 1999 | 0.2 | -4.0 | -4.0 | -4.1 | -5.4 | -5.3 | -5.7 | -7.8 | -2.1 | -2.1 | -5.7 | -1.3 | -21.8 |
| 2000 | -0.7 | -3.2 | -4.2 | -0.7 | -3.1 | -2.7 | -3.3 | -6.6 | -3.5 | -3.8 | -6.7 | -2.3 | -11.0 |

Source: Eurostat - National and Financial Accounts.

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Annual inflation rate compared to the same month of the previous year** | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| October 2000 | 11.9 | 4.2 | 4.5 | 5.4 | 10.7 | 2.0 | 1.0 | : | 9.9 | 42.9 | 8.5 | 9.1 | : |
| August 2001 | : | 1.8 | 5.4 | 5.9 | 8.7 | 3.1 | 2.7 | : | : | 32.4 | : | 8.8 | : |
| September 2001 | : | 2.2 | 4.6 | 5.7 | 7.9 | 3.7 | 2.4 | : | : | 31.2 | : | 8.2 | : |
| October 2001 | : | : | : | : | : | 3.3 | : | : | : | : | : | : | : |
| **12-month average annual inflation rate. 12-month average rate** | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| October 2001 | : | : | : | : | : | 2.3 | : | : | : | : | : | : | : |

The annual inflation rate measures the price change between the current month and the same month the previous year. This measure is responsive to recent changes in price levels but can be influenced by one-off effects in either month. The 12-month average rate overcomes this volatility by comparing average Harmonized Indices of Consumer Prices (HICPs) in the latest 12 months to the average of the previous 12 months. This measure is less sensitive to transient changes in prices.
Source: Eurostat - Price statistics.

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Central government bond yields, monthly average rate** | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| September 2000 | : | 7.6 | 7.1 | : | 8.2 | : | : | 6.0 | 12.3 | : | 8.2 | : | : |
| July 2001 | : | 7.6 | : | : | : | : | 8.0 | : | : | : | : | : | : |
| **Central government bond yields, annual average rate** | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1995 | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | 7.0 | : | : | : | : | : |
| 1998 | : | 7.2 | : | : | : | : | : | 6.9 | : | : | : | : | : |
| 1999 | : | 7.4 | : | : | 9.9 | : | : | 5.8 | 9.5 | : | : | : | : |
| 2000 | : | 7.6 | 7.0 | : | 8.5 | : | : | 5.8 | 11.7 | : | 8.2 | : | : |

Source: Eurostat - Financial indicators.

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Net national income per head** | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2000, EU-15 = 100 | : | : | 22.7 | 16.6 | : | : | 15.5 | : | : | : | : | 42.3 | : |
| **Household consumption per head** | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2000, EU-15 = 100 | 8.8 | : | 22.2 | 16.9 | 20.2 | 15.5 | 16.2 | 48.2 | 21.9 | 10.0 | 15.7 | 41.0 | 17.5 |

Household consumption includes the consumption expenditure of non-profit institutions serving households.

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Net saving per head** | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2000, EU-15 = 100 | : | : | 17.7 | 9.3 | : | : | 9.3 | : | : | : | : | 42.1 | : |
| **Gross compensation per employee** | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2000, EU-15 = 100 | : | : | : | 15.8 | : | : | 15.1 | 43.3 | : | : | : | 45.4 | : |

Gross compensation per employee includes wages and salaries plus employers social contributions. Gross compensation of employees is measured according to the domestic concept, while the number of employees is taken from the national concept. This has a significant effect on the ratio for countries such as Luxembourg with a relatively high proportion of workers living in neighbouring countries.

Source: Eurostat - National Accounts.

| 2 POPULATION | BG | CY | CZ | EE | HU | LV | LT | MT | PL | RO | SK | SI | TR |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Total population (1000)** | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1.1.1960 | 7 830 | : | 9 638 | 1 209 | 9 961 | 2 104 | 2 756 | 327 | 29 480 | 18 319 | 3 970 | 1 580 | 27 120 |
| 1.1.1980 | 8 846 | 608 | 10 316 | 1 472 | 10 709 | 2 509 | 3 404 | 330 | 35 413 | 22 133 | 4 963 | 1 893 | 44 016 |
| 1.1.2001, revised estimate | 8 150 | 759 | 10 295 | 1 367 | 10 005 | 2 366 | 3 693 | 383 | 38 644 | 22 431 | 5 402 | 1 990 | 65 783 |
| 1.1.2002, first esimate | 8 107 | : | 10 275 | 1 360 | 9 973 | 2 352 | 3 681 | 384 | 38 629 | 22 390 | 5 403 | 1 995 | : |
| **Population growth rates (per 1000 population), 2000** | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total increase | -5.1 | 5.9 | -1.1 | -3.7 | -3.8 | -5.8 | -1.6 | 6.8 | -0.2 | -1.1 | 0.7 | 1.2 | 14.8 |
| Natural increase | -5.1 | 4.5 | -1.8 | -3.9 | -3.8 | -5.0 | -1.3 | 3.3 | 0.3 | -0.9 | 0.4 | -0.2 | 14.8 |
| Net migration | 0.0 | 1.5 | 0.6 | 0.2 | 0.0 | -0.8 | -0.3 | 3.5 | -0.5 | -0.2 | 0.3 | 1.4 | 0.0 |

The increase in total population is made up of the natural increase (live births less deaths) and net migration. Net migration is estimated on the basis of the difference between population change and natural increase (corrected net migration).

**Population structure (percentage of total), 2000**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |
| 0-19 | 22.8 | 31.3 | 23.4 | 25.5 | 23.6 | 25.3 | 27.1 | : | 28.3 | 26.0 | 28.1 | 23.2 | 41.4 |
| 20-59 | 55.5 | 53.4 | 58.4 | 54.2 | 56.7 | 54.1 | 54.4 | : | 55.2 | 55.3 | 56.5 | 57.8 | 50.7 |
| 60-79 | 19.6 | 12.9 | 15.9 | 17.7 | 17.2 | 18.1 | 16.0 | : | 14.6 | 16.9 | 13.5 | 16.8 | 7.2 |
| 80 and over | 2.1 | 2.5 | 2.3 | 2.6 | 2.4 | 2.5 | 2.5 | : | 1.9 | 1.7 | 1.8 | 2.3 | 0.5 |

TR: 1998.

**Immigration by main group of citizenship, 1997**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total | : | 6 560 | 15 811 | 1 665 | 9 397 | 2 913 | 3 682 | 937 | : | 6 600 | : | 8 982 | : |
| Nationals | : | 411 | 2 931 | 509 | : | 1 242 | 1 146 | 453 | : | : | : | 1 093 | : |
| Nationals of EU Member States | : | 2 243 | 648 | 40 | 1 013 | : | 11 | : | : | 2 220 | : | 209 | : |
| Others | : | 3 906 | 12 232 | 1 116 | 8 384 | : | 2 525 | : | : | 4 380 | : | 7 680 | : |

**Emigration by main group of citizenship, 1997**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total | : | 8 000 | 1 491 | 4 982 | 3 454 | 9 677 | 3 780 | 73 | : | 19 945 | : | 6 254 | : |
| Nationals | : | : | 686 | 911 | 955 | 1 257 | 1 323 | 73 | : | : | : | 807 | : |
| Nationals of EU Member State | : | : | 19 | 17 | 131 | : | 4 | : | : | 11 790 | : | 221 | : |
| Non EU nationals | : | : | 786 | 4 054 | 2 368 | : | 2 453 | : | : | 8 155 | : | 5 226 | : |

**Net migration by main group of citizenship, 1997**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total | : | -1 440 | 14 320 | - 3 317 | 5 943 | - 6 764 | - 98 | 864 | : | - 13 345 | : | 2 728 | : |
| Nationals | : | : | 2 245 | - 402 | : | - 15 | - 177 | 380 | : | : | : | 286 | : |
| Nationals of EU Member State | : | : | 629 | 23 | 882 | : | 7 | : | : | - 9 570 | : | - 12 | : |
| Non EU nationals | : | : | 11 446 | - 2 938 | 6 016 | : | 72 | : | : | - 3 775 | : | 2 454 | : |

Source: Eurostat - Migration Statistics.

**Population by main group of citizenship, in thousands, 2000**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total | 8 191 | 755 | 10 448 | 1 439 | 10 043 | 2 424 | 3 699 | 380 | 38 654 | 22 455 | 5 399 | 1 988 | 64 814 |
| Nationals | : | 731 | 10 209 | : | 9 890 | 1 805 | : | 372 | : | 22 454 | : | 1 945 | : |
| Foreigners | : | 24 | 239 | : | 153 | 620 | : | 9 | : | 1 | : | 43 | : |
| Nationals of EU Member State | : | : | 17 | : | 18 | 1 | : | : | : | | : | 1 | : |
| Non EU nationals | : | : | 222 | : | 135 | 619 | : | : | : | | : | 41 | : |

Source: Eurostat - Demographic Statistics and Council of Europe. TR: 61 thousand foreigners in 1986.

**Population living in private households by household type, 2000**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Total population* | : | : | 100 | 100 | 100 | : | : | : | : | 100 | 100 | 100 | : |
| 1 adult without dependent children | : | : | 8 | 10 | 9 | : | : | : | : | 7 | 5 | 8 | : |
| ... aged under 30 | : | : | 1 | 1 | 1 | : | : | : | : | 1 | 0 | 1 | : |
| ... aged 30-64 | : | : | 3 | 5 | 4 | : | : | : | : | 3 | 2 | 3 | : |
| ... aged 65 or more | : | : | 4 | 4 | 5 | : | : | : | : | 4 | 3 | 4 | : |
| ... Male | : | : | 3 | 3 | 3 | : | : | : | : | 2 | 1 | 3 | : |
| ... ... aged under 30 | : | : | 0 | 1 | 0 | : | : | : | : | 0 | 0 | 0 | : |
| ... ... aged 30-64 | : | : | 1 | 2 | 2 | : | : | : | : | 1 | 1 | 2 | : |
| ... ... aged 65 or more | : | : | 1 | 1 | 1 | : | : | : | : | 1 | 1 | 1 | : |
| ... Female | : | : | 5 | 7 | 6 | : | : | : | : | 5 | 3 | 5 | : |
| ... ... aged under 30 | : | : | 0 | 1 | 0 | : | : | : | : | 0 | 0 | 0 | : |
| ... ... aged 30-64 | : | : | 2 | 3 | 2 | : | : | : | : | 2 | 1 | 2 | : |
| ... ... aged 65 or more | : | : | 4 | 3 | 4 | : | : | : | : | 3 | 2 | 4 | : |
| 2 adults without dependent children | : | : | 21 | 18 | 20 | : | : | : | : | 16 | 13 | 17 | : |
| ... both younger 65 | : | : | 12 | 10 | 11 | : | : | : | : | 8 | 6 | 9 | : |
| ... at least one aged 65 or more | : | : | 10 | 8 | 9 | : | : | : | : | 8 | 6 | 8 | : |
| 3 or more adults without dependent children: | | : | 15 | 11 | 14 | : | : | : | : | 12 | 17 | 21 | : |
| 1 adult with dependent children | : | : | 4 | 6 | 4 | : | : | : | : | 2 | 2 | 3 | : |
| 2 adults with dependent children | : | : | 39 | 38 | 37 | : | : | : | : | 37 | 32 | 33 | : |
| ... 1 child | : | : | 12 | 14 | 12 | : | : | : | : | 13 | 8 | 13 | : |
| ... 2 children | : | : | 21 | 16 | 18 | : | : | : | : | 17 | 16 | 17 | : |
| ... 3 or more children | : | : | 6 | 8 | 7 | : | : | : | : | 7 | 8 | 3 | : |
| 3 or more adults with dependent children | : | : | 13 | 17 | 16 | : | : | : | : | 26 | 31 | 18 | : |

Note: Dependent children include all children younger than 15 years plus all those persons aged 15-24 who are economically inactive (mainly in education) and who are living with at least one of their parents.

Source: Eurostat - European Labour Force Survey 2000.

| 2 POPULATION (Contd.) | BG | CY | CZ | EE | HU | LV | LT | MT | PL | RO | SK | SI | TR |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Children (0-14 years) living in families with only one adult (person aged at least 15 years) as a % of all children (0-14 years) living in families** | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2000 | : | : | 6.5 | 9.4 | 6.3 | : | : | : | : | 3.0 | 2.5 | 3.3 | : |
| **Youngest age at which at least 50 % of young people of the same age are not living with their parents, by sex, 2000** | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Males | : | 25 | 26 | 24 | 26 | : | : | : | : | 29 | 30 | 30 | : |
| Females | : | 23 | 24 | 24 | 24 | : | : | : | : | 25 | 27 | 27 | : |

Source: Eurostat - European Union Labour Force Survey

**Crude marriage rate (per 1 000 population)**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1960 | 8.8 | : | 7.7 | 10.0 | 8.9 | 11.0 | 10.1 | 5.9 | 8.3 | 10.7 | 8.1 | 8.9 | : |
| 1970 | 8.6 | 8.6 | 9.2 | 9.1 | 9.3 | 10.2 | 9.5 | 7.4 | 8.6 | 7.2 | 7.9 | 8.3 | : |
| 1980 | 7.9 | 7.9 | 7.6 | 8.8 | 7.5 | 9.8 | 9.2 | 8.6 | 8.6 | 8.2 | 7.9 | 6.5 | 8.2 |
| 1990 | 6.7 | 9.3 | 8.8 | 7.5 | 6.4 | 8.8 | 9.8 | 7.1 | 6.7 | 8.3 | 7.6 | 4.3 | 8.2 |
| 2000 | 4.2 | 12.3 | 5.4 | 4.0 | 4.8 | 3.9 | 4.6 | 6.2 | 5.5 | 6.1 | 4.8 | 3.7 | 7.7 |

The crude marriage rate is the ratio of the number of marriages to the mean population in a given year. TR: 1998 data instead of 2000 data.

**Total fertility rate**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1960 | 2.31 | 3.51 | 2.11 | : | 2.02 | : | 2.60 | 3.62 | 2.98 | 2.33 | 3.07 | 2.18 | 6.18 |
| 1970 | 2.18 | 2.54 | 1.91 | 2.16 | 1.98 | 2.01 | 2.40 | 2.02 | 2.20 | 2.89 | 2.40 | 2.10 | 5.68 |
| 1980 | 2.05 | 2.46 | 2.10 | 2.02 | 1.91 | 1.90 | 2.00 | 1.99 | 2.28 | 2.45 | 2.32 | 2.11 | 4.36 |
| 1990 | 1.81 | 2.42 | 1.89 | 2.05 | 1.87 | 2.02 | 2.00 | 2.05 | 2.04 | 1.83 | 2.09 | 1.46 | 2.99 |
| 2000 | 1.25 | 1.83 | 1.14 | 1.39 | 1.33 | 1.24 | 1.33 | : | 1.34 | 1.30 | 1.20 | 1.25 | 2.50 |

The total fertility rate is the average number of children that would be born alive to a woman during her lifetime if current fertility rates were to continue.

**Percentage of live births outside marriage**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1960 | 8.0 | 0.2 | 4.9 | : | 5.5 | 11.9 | 7.3 | 0.7 | 4.5 | : | 4.7 | 9.1 | : |
| 1970 | 9.3 | 0.2 | 5.4 | 14.1 | 5.4 | 11.4 | 6.4 | 1.5 | 5.0 | : | 6.2 | 8.5 | : |
| 1980 | 10.9 | 0.6 | 5.6 | 18.3 | 7.1 | 12.5 | 6.3 | 1.1 | 4.7 | : | 5.7 | 13.1 | 2.9 |
| 1990 | 12.4 | 0.7 | 8.6 | 27.1 | 13.1 | 16.9 | 7.0 | 1.8 | 6.2 | : | 7.6 | 24.5 | 4.4 |
| 2000 | 38.4 | 2.1 | 21.8 | 54.5 | 29.0 | 40.3 | 22.6 | 10.1 | 11.7 | 25.5 | 18.3 | 37.1 | : |

CY 1998. MT and PL 1999 data instead of 2000 data.

**Crude divorce rate (per 1 000 population)**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1960 | : | : | 1.3 | 2.1 | 1.7 | 2.4 | 0.9 | : | 0.5 | 2.0 | 0.6 | 1.0 | 0.4 |
| 1970 | 1.2 | 0.3 | 2.2 | 3.2 | 2.2 | 4.6 | 2.2 | : | 1.1 | 0.4 | 0.8 | 1.1 | 0.3 |
| 1980 | 1.5 | 0.3 | 2.6 | 4.1 | 2.6 | 5.0 | 3.2 | : | 1.1 | 1.5 | 1.3 | 1.2 | 0.4 |
| 1990 | 1.3 | 0.6 | 3.1 | 3.7 | 2.4 | 4.0 | 3.4 | : | 1.1 | 1.4 | 1.7 | 0.9 | 0.5 |
| 2000 | 1.2 | 1.7 | 2.9 | 3.1 | 2.4 | 2.6 | 2.9 | : | 1.1 | 1.4 | 1.7 | 1.1 | 0.5 |

The crude divorce rate is the ratio of the number of divorces to the mean population in a given year. BG, TR: 1999 data instead of 2000 data.

Source: Eurostat - Demographic Statistics. TR: partly also Council of Europe.

| 3 EDUCATION AND TRAINING | BG | CY | CZ | EE | HU | LV | LT | MT | PL | RO | SK | SI | TR |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Population aged 18-24 by activity status (%), 2000** | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| In education and employment | : | 4 | : | 6 | 4 | : | 6 | : | : | 2 | : | 10 | : |
| In education and not in employment | : | 30 | : | 42 | 37 | : | 40 | : | : | 34 | : | 47 | : |
| Not in education and in employment | : | 52 | : | 33 | 39 | : | 31 | : | : | 42 | : | 31 | : |
| Not in education and not in employment | : | 14 | : | 18 | 19 | : | 23 | : | : | 23 | : | 13 | : |
| **Population aged 25-64 by age group. sex and educational attainment level (%), 2000** | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| *25-64 years* | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ..Males and Females | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ....Less than upper secondary | 32.9 | 37.0 | 13.9 | 15.3 | 30.8 | 16.5 | 15.1 | : | 20.3 | 30.7 | 16.4 | 25.2 | : |
| ....Upper secondary | 48.7 | 37.8 | 74.6 | 56.3 | 55.2 | 65.3 | 42.6 | : | 68.3 | 60.1 | 73.3 | 59.1 | : |
| ....Tertiary education | 18.4 | 25.2 | 11.5 | 28.5 | 14.0 | 18.1 | 42.3 | : | 11.4 | 9.2 | 10.2 | 15.7 | : |
| ..Males | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ....Less than upper secondary | 33.4 | 33.2 | 8.8 | 16.6 | 25.9 | 18.3 | 15.0 | : | 18.5 | 24.2 | 11.4 | 20.8 | : |
| ....Upper secondary | 51.1 | 38.8 | 78.1 | 61.9 | 60.4 | 65.1 | 47.5 | : | 71.4 | 65.4 | 77.7 | 65.1 | : |
| ....Tertiary education | 15.5 | 28.0 | 13.1 | 21.6 | 13.7 | 16.6 | 37.5 | : | 10.1 | 10.4 | 10.9 | 14.1 | : |
| ..Females | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ....Less than upper secondary | 32.5 | 40.8 | 19.0 | 14.1 | 35.3 | 14.9 | 15.3 | : | 22.0 | 37.0 | 21.3 | 29.6 | : |
| ....Upper secondary | 46.4 | 36.8 | 71.1 | 51.2 | 50.4 | 65.6 | 38.1 | : | 65.4 | 54.9 | 69.1 | 53.0 | : |
| ....Tertiary education | 21.1 | 22.4 | 9.9 | 34.7 | 14.3 | 19.5 | 46.6 | : | 12.6 | 8.1 | 9.6 | 17.3 | : |
| *25-29 years* | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ..Males and Females | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ....Less than upper secondary | 25.1 | 18.9 | 6.9 | 12.6 | 19.1 | 13.4 | 11.0 | : | 9.8 | 14.9 | 5.0 | 12.1 | : |
| ....Upper secondary | 56.8 | 47.0 | 82.9 | 55.3 | 66.8 | 70.6 | 52.9 | : | 75.2 | 76.1 | 84.0 | 68.0 | : |
| ....Tertiary education | 18.1 | 34.1 | 10.2 | 32.1 | 14.0 | 16.0 | 36.1 | : | 15.0 | 9.0 | 10.9 | 20.0 | : |
| ..Males | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ....Less than upper secondary | 27.0 | 18.9 | 5.7 | 17.7 | 17.8 | 14.6 | 12.6 | : | 10.8 | 13.7 | 4.9 | 14.1 | : |
| ....Upper secondary | 61.7 | 50.8 | 84.7 | 59.7 | 70.3 | 71.1 | 56.4 | : | 78.1 | 76.6 | 85.2 | 73.3 | : |
| ....Tertiary education | 11.3 | 30.2 | 9.7 | 22.6 | 11.9 | 14.4 | 31.0 | : | 11.1 | 9.7 | 9.9 | 12.6 | : |
| ..Females | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ....Less than upper secondary | 22.9 | 18.9 | 8.1 | 7.7 | 20.5 | 12.2 | 9.4 | : | 8.7 | 16.1 | 5.2 | 10.0 | : |
| ....Upper secondary | 51.5 | 43.4 | 81.2 | 51.0 | 63.2 | 70.2 | 49.3 | : | 72.3 | 75.6 | 82.8 | 62.6 | : |
| ....Tertiary education | 25.6 | 37.8 | 10.7 | 41.3 | 16.3 | 17.6 | 41.4 | : | 19.0 | 8.3 | 12.0 | 27.3 | : |
| *30-49 years* | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ..Males and Females | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ....Less than upper secondary | 25.6 | 29.4 | 11.8 | 8.5 | 22.7 | 9.5 | 4.8 | : | 14.6 | 20.4 | 12.5 | 22.8 | : |
| ....Upper secondary | 54.0 | 41.7 | 75.4 | 63.0 | 62.6 | 70.9 | 47.9 | : | 74.5 | 70.0 | 76.5 | 61.5 | : |
| ....Tertiary education | 20.5 | 29.0 | 12.8 | 28.6 | 14.7 | 19.6 | 47.3 | : | 10.9 | 9.6 | 11.0 | 15.7 | : |
| ..Males | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ....Less than upper secondary | 26.6 | 27.2 | 8.1 | 10.1 | 18.6 | 11.4 | 6.3 | : | 14.2 | 15.6 | 9.2 | 19.8 | : |
| ....Upper secondary | 56.4 | 40.9 | 77.3 | 70.1 | 68.1 | 72.3 | 52.6 | : | 76.2 | 74.1 | 79.1 | 66.5 | : |
| ....Tertiary education | 17.0 | 31.9 | 14.6 | 19.8 | 13.2 | 16.3 | 41.1 | : | 9.6 | 10.3 | 11.7 | 13.7 | : |
| ..Females | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ....Less than upper secondary | 24.5 | 31.5 | 15.6 | 6.9 | 26.7 | 7.7 | 3.4 | : | 15.0 | 25.1 | 15.8 | 25.9 | : |
| ....Upper secondary | 51.6 | 42.5 | 73.4 | 56.0 | 57.2 | 69.6 | 43.3 | : | 72.9 | 66.1 | 73.9 | 56.3 | : |
| ....Tertiary education | 23.9 | 26.0 | 11.0 | 37.1 | 16.1 | 22.7 | 53.3 | : | 12.1 | 8.8 | 10.3 | 17.8 | : |
| *50-64 years* | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ..Males and Females | | | | | | | | : | | | | | : |
| ....Less than upper secondary | 47.1 | 59.6 | 20.3 | 27.6 | 48.5 | 29.1 | 36.0 | : | 35.9 | 56.5 | 30.5 | 35.1 | : |
| ....Upper secondary | 37.6 | 26.5 | 69.6 | 45.6 | 38.5 | 54.2 | 28.0 | : | 53.4 | 34.9 | 61.2 | 50.9 | : |
| ....Tertiary education | 15.3 | 14.0 | 10.1 | 26.8 | 12.9 | 16.7 | 36.0 | : | 10.7 | 8.6 | 8.3 | 14.0 | : |
| ..Males | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ....Less than upper secondary | 46.9 | 51.1 | 11.4 | 28.1 | 42.2 | 32.8 | 34.1 | : | 31.0 | 45.5 | 19.9 | 25.5 | : |
| ....Upper secondary | 38.1 | 29.7 | 76.1 | 47.5 | 42.4 | 49.0 | 32.1 | : | 58.3 | 43.8 | 70.2 | 58.9 | : |
| ....Tertiary education | 14.9 | 19.3 | 12.4 | 24.4 | 15.4 | 18.3 | 33.8 | : | 10.6 | 10.7 | 9.9 | 15.6 | : |
| ..Females | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ....Less than upper secondary | 47.3 | 67.7 | 28.6 | 27.2 | 53.9 | 26.3 | 37.5 | : | 40.2 | 66.5 | 39.6 | 44.2 | : |
| ....Upper secondary | 37.1 | 23.4 | 63.5 | 44.1 | 35.2 | 58.2 | 24.9 | : | 49.1 | 26.8 | 53.4 | 43.3 | : |
| ....Tertiary education | 15.6 | 8.9 | 7.9 | 28.7 | 10.9 | 15.6 | 37.6 | : | 10.8 | 6.7 | 7.0 | 12.4 | : |

The levels of education are defined according to ISCED (International Standard Classification of Education). Less than upper secondary corresponds to ISCED 0-2, upper secondary level to ISCED 3-4 (including thus post-secondary non-tertiary education) and tertiary education to ISCED 5-6.

| **Unemployment rates of the population aged 25-59 by sex and level of education, 2000** | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Males and Females* | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ..Less than upper secondary | 24 | 7 | 20 | 22 | 10 | 21 | 23 | : | 23 | 5 | 37 | 10 | : |
| ..Upper secondary | 14 | 4 | 7 | 15 | 6 | 15 | 20 | : | 14 | 8 | 15 | 6 | : |
| ..Tertiary education | 6 | 3 | 3 | 5 | 1 | 7 | 9 | : | 5 | 4 | 4 | 2 | : |
| *Males* | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ..Less than upper secondary | 22 | 5 | 22 | 23 | 12 | 23 | 27 | : | 21 | 6 | 44 | 11 | : |
| ..Upper secondary | 13 | 2 | 5 | 15 | 6 | 15 | 21 | : | 12 | 7 | 15 | 6 | : |
| ..Tertiary education | 7 | 2 | 2 | 6 | 1 | 7 | 10 | : | 5 | 4 | 5 | 1 | : |
| *Females* | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ..Less than upper secondary | 26 | 9 | 19 | 22 | 9 | 17 | 17 | : | 24 | 4 | 32 | 10 | : |
| ..Upper secondary | 14 | 8 | 9 | 15 | 5 | 14 | 18 | : | 17 | 8 | 15 | 6 | : |
| ..Tertiary education | 6 | 3 | 3 | 4 | 1 | 8 | 8 | : | 5 | 3 | 3 | 3 | : |

| 3 EDUCATION AND TRAINING (Contd.) | BG | CY | CZ | EE | HU | LV | LT | MT | PL | RO | SK | SI | TR |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Participation (%) in education and training in the last four weeks of those aged 25-64 by sex and educational attainment level, 2000** | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| *Males and Females* | : | 3 | : | 6 | 3 | : | 3 | : | : | 1 | : | 4 | : |
| ..Less than upper secondary | : | 1 | : | 0 | 1 | : | 0 | : | : | 0 | : | 1 | : |
| ..Upper secondary | : | 2 | : | 4 | 3 | : | 2 | : | : | 1 | : | 5 | : |
| ..Tertiary education | : | 8 | : | 13 | 8 | : | 5 | : | : | 1 | : | 8 | : |
| *Males* | : | 3 | : | 4 | 3 | : | 2 | : | : | 1 | : | 4 | : |
| ..Less than upper secondary | : | 1 | : | 0 | 1 | : | 0 | : | : | 0 | : | 1 | : |
| ..Upper secondary | : | 2 | : | 3 | 3 | : | 1 | : | : | 1 | : | 4 | : |
| ..Tertiary education | : | 8 | : | 9 | 7 | : | 4 | : | : | 1 | : | 7 | : |
| *Females* | : | 3 | : | 8 | 3 | : | 3 | : | : | 1 | : | 5 | : |
| ..Less than upper secondary | : | 0 | : | 0 | 0 | : | 0 | : | : | 0 | : | 1 | : |
| ..Upper secondary | : | 3 | : | 5 | 4 | : | 2 | : | : | 1 | : | 5 | : |
| ..Tertiary education | : | 9 | : | 15 | 9 | : | 6 | : | : | 1 | : | 9 | : |

Source: Eurostat - European Union Labour Force Survey.

**Participation rates (16-18 year olds) by sex, 1998/99**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Males | 63 | : | 82 | 79 | 82 | 75 | 78 | 59 | 83 | 58 | : | 83 | 33 |
| Females | 66 | : | 83 | 84 | 85 | 83 | 84 | 51 | 88 | 62 | : | 89 | 24 |

CY: no population data for males and females. SK: no breakdown by age.

TR: 228844 students in ISCED 3C cannot be broken down by age or gender. Data for ISCED 3C relates to the 1997/98 educational year.

**Females per 100 males in tertiary education**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1998/99 | 147 | 127 | 99 | 137 | 118 | 160 | 150 | 106 | 133 | 104 | 107 | 127 | 66 |

RO. SI: ISCED 6 missing

**Median age of students in tertiary education. 1998/99**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Males and Females | 22 | 21 | 22 | 22 | 22 | 22 | 21 | 21 | 23 | 22 | : | 22 | 22 |
| Males | 23 | 21 | 22 | 22 | 23 | 22 | 21 | 22 | 23 | 22 | : | 23 | 22 |
| Females | 22 | 20 | 22 | 22 | 22 | 23 | 21 | 21 | 22 | 22 | : | 22 | 22 |

RO. SI: ISCED 6 missing

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

| 4 LABOUR MARKET | BG | CY | CZ | EE | HU | LV | LT | MT | PL | RO | SK | SI | TR |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Employment rates. 15-64 years, by sex, 2nd quarter of 2000** | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total | 51.5 | 65.5 | 64.9 | 60.6 | 55.9 | 58.2 | 60.1 | : | 55.1 | 64.2 | 56.3 | 62.7 | : |
| Males | 56.1 | 78.9 | 73.1 | 64.3 | 62.7 | 62.3 | 61.8 | : | 61.2 | 69.5 | 61.6 | 66.7 | : |
| Females | 47.2 | 52.5 | 56.8 | 57.1 | 49.4 | 54.3 | 58.5 | : | 49.3 | 59.0 | 51.1 | 58.5 | : |
| **Employment rates by age-group and sex, 2nd quarter of 2000** | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| *Males and Females* | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ...50-54 | 65.6 | 71.3 | 80.4 | 73.6 | 66.4 | 69.9 | 72.8 | : | 61.4 | 70.3 | 69.0 | 64.4 | : |
| ...55-59 | 33.5 | 60.5 | 50.2 | 58.4 | 33.7 | 49.3 | 56.8 | : | 37.7 | 56.6 | 34.5 | 29.0 | : |
| ...60-64 | 10.5 | 35.1 | 16.9 | 29.4 | 7.6 | 21.8 | 26.4 | : | 20.9 | 48.0 | 6.1 | 15.1 | : |
| *Males* | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ...50-54 | 67.6 | 91.0 | 84.5 | 72.5 | 69.7 | 69.9 | 69.3 | : | 65.7 | 77.4 | 74.4 | 77.7 | : |
| ...55-59 | 53.6 | 80.8 | 71.6 | 66.5 | 50.2 | 64.5 | 64.3 | : | 47.5 | 63.1 | 55.3 | 40.3 | : |
| ...60-64 | 15.7 | 50.0 | 23.5 | 35.5 | 10.8 | 31.6 | 38.4 | : | 27.5 | 52.5 | 10.4 | 19.8 | : |
| *Females* | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ...50-54 | 63.8 | 51.8 | 76.3 | 74.5 | 63.2 | 69.9 | 75.8 | : | 57.4 | 63.3 | 63.9 | 51.2 | : |
| ...55-59 | 16.2 | 40.7 | 30.4 | 52.0 | 19.8 | 37.5 | 50.8 | : | 28.9 | 51.1 | 16.8 | 17.5 | : |
| ...60-64 | 6.1 | 21.5 | 11.2 | 24.8 | 5.1 | 14.9 | 17.7 | : | 15.4 | 44.1 | 2.7 | 11.2 | : |
| **Unemployment rates by sex. 2nd quarter of 2000** | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total | 16.2 | 4.9 | 8.8 | 13.2 | 6.6 | 14.2 | 15.6 | : | 16.3 | 7.0 | 19.1 | 6.9 | : |
| Males | 16.6 | 3.2 | 7.3 | 14.7 | 7.2 | 15.0 | 17.9 | : | 14.6 | 7.5 | 19.4 | 6.8 | : |
| Females | 15.8 | 7.4 | 10.5 | 11.6 | 5.8 | 13.2 | 13.1 | : | 18.3 | 6.4 | 18.6 | 7.1 | : |
| **Youth unemployment/population ratio (aged 15-24) by sex, 2nd quarter of 2000** | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total | 10.2 | 4.0 | 7.5 | 8.5 | 4.6 | 8.2 | 10.1 | : | 13.4 | 7.4 | 16.5 | 6.1 | : |
| Males | 13.0 | 2.8 | 8.3 | 10.3 | 5.9 | 9.4 | 11.5 | : | 13.8 | 8.8 | 19.1 | 6.0 | : |
| Females | 7.6 | 5.1 | 6.6 | 6.7 | 3.4 | 6.9 | 8.8 | : | 13.0 | 5.9 | 13.9 | 6.2 | : |
| **Youth unemployment rate (aged 15-24), 2nd quarter of 2000** | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total | 33.3 | 10.5 | 17.0 | 23.7 | 12.3 | 21.2 | 27.5 | : | 35.7 | 17.8 | 16.4 | 36.9 | : |
| Males | 36.1 | 6.7 | 17.4 | 24.7 | 13.7 | 21.1 | 27.6 | : | 34.3 | 19.3 | 40.0 | 14.8 | : |
| Females | 29.6 | 14.2 | 16.4 | 22.4 | 10.4 | 21.3 | 27.4 | : | 37.2 | 15.9 | 33.3 | 18.5 | : |
| **Long-term unemployment rate (12 months or more), 2nd quarter of 2000** | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total | 10.2 | 1.3 | 4.5 | 6.7 | 3.2 | 8.4 | 8.8 | : | 8.0 | 3.6 | 11.3 | 4.5 | : |
| Males | 10.4 | 0.5 | 3.7 | 7.7 | 3.8 | 9.0 | 10.9 | : | 6.5 | 3.9 | 11.4 | 4.5 | : |
| Females | 9.9 | 2.5 | 5.5 | 5.7 | 2.6 | 7.8 | 6.7 | : | 9.8 | 3.2 | 11.1 | 4.4 | : |
| **Youth long-term unemployment rate (aged 15-24. 6 months or more), 2nd quarter of 2000** | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total | 25.8 | 4.9 | 11.8 | 12.8 | 8.5 | 13.7 | 20.4 | : | 26.5 | 13.1 | 28.8 | 11.9 | : |
| Males | 28.0 | 2.3 | 11.9 | 14.0 | 9.8 | 13.4 | 21.5 | : | 24.0 | 14.2 | 31.5 | 9.9 | : |
| Females | 22.9 | 7.5 | 11.7 | 11.1 | 6.8 | 14.1 | 18.9 | : | 29.4 | 11.8 | 25.9 | 14.6 | : |

Employment rates represent persons in employment aged 15-64 as a percentage of the population of the same age. Persons in employment are those who during the reference week (of the Labour Force Survey) did any work for pay or profit for at least one hour or were not working but had jobs from which they were temporarily absent. Unemployed people - according to the International Labour Organisation (ILO) criteria are those persons aged 15 and over who are i) without work, ii) available to start work within the next two weeks and, iii) have actively sought employment at some time. Unemployment rates represent unemployed persons as a percentage of the active population of the same age. The active population is defined as the sum of persons in employment and unemployed persons.

Source: Eurostat - European Union Labour Force Survey.

| 5 SOCIAL PROTECTION | BG | CY | CZ | EE | HU | LV | LT | MT | PL | RO | SK | SI | TR |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Expenditure on social protection as a percentage of GDP** | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1998 | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | 21.5 | 26.5 | : |
| 1999 | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | 21.2 | 26.5 | : |
| **Expenditure on social protection in PPS per head of population, 1999** | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | 2172 | 3963 | : |
| **Social benefits by group of functions (as a percentage of total social benefits), 1999** | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Old age and survivors benefits | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | 36.6 | 45.4 | : |
| Sickness. health care and disability | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | 40.6 | 39.5 | : |
| Unemployment | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | 5.7 | 4.7 | : |
| Family and children | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | 11.1 | 8.7 | : |
| Housing and social exclusion n.e.c. | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | 6.1 | 1.6 | : |
| **Receipts of social protection by type (as a percentage of total receipts), 1999** | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| General government contributions | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | 30.1 | 32.3 | : |
| Employers' social contributions | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | 46.7 | 28.4 | : |
| Social contributions paid by protected persons | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | 17.8 | 38.4 | : |
| Other receipts | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | 5.4 | 0.9 | : |

The abbreviation 'n.e.c.' indicates not elsewhere classified.

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

| 6 INCOME, POVERTY AND REGIONAL COHESION | BG | CY | CZ | EE | HU | LV | LT | MT | PL | RO | SK | SI | TR |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Average gross hourly earnings in industry** (Manual workers, sections C to F of NACE Rev. 1) **in ECU** | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1997 | 80.38 | : | 1.73 | 1.28 | 1.83 | 1.26 | 0.98 | 4.39 | 2.08 | 104.95 | 1.35 | 3.88 | 1.67 |
| 1998 | 105.66 | 6.20 | 1.89 | 1.42 | 1.85 | 1.35 | 1.20 | 4.46 | 2.28 | 125.60 | 1.40 | 4.18 | : |
| 1999 | 114.02 | 6.36 | 1.91 | 1.53 | 2.03 | 1.46 | 1.27 | 4.70 | 2.87 | 106.95 | 1.37 | 4.37 | : |
| 2000 | 128.45 | : | 2.20 | : | 2.21 | 1.68 | 1.48 | : | 3.15 | : | 1.51 | 4.56 | : |

BG, RO: monthly earnings, CZ: excluding construction.

**Average gross monthly earnings of full-time employees in industry and services** (sections C to K of NACE Rev. 1) **in ECU**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1997 | 76 | 1181 | 309 | 242 | 277 | 198 | 190 | 759 | 323 | 111 | 269 | 768 | 382 |
| 1998 | 100 | 1240 | 339 | 276 | 289 | 214 | 233 | 764 | 346 | 136 | 280 | 823 | 407 |
| 1999 | 109 | 1342 | 359 | 291 | 318 | 226 | 251 | 836 | 442 | 120 | 271 | 809 | : |
| 2000 | 127 | : | 400 | 323 | 348 | 270 | 299 | : | 490 | : | 286 | 860 | : |

| 7 GENDER EQUALITY | BG | CY | CZ | EE | HU | LV | LT | MT | PL | RO | SK | SI | TR |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Female share in national parliaments** (Percentage of seats occupied by women in the national parliaments (or Lower House)) | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Year | : | : | 1998 | 1999 | 1998 | : | : | 1998 | 1997 | : | : | 1996 | : |
| Percentage | : | : | 15.2 | 17.8 | 8.4 | : | : | 9.2 | 13.4 | : | : | 12.2 | : |
| **Female share in national governments** | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Year | : | : | 1998 | 1999 | 2000 | : | : | 1998 | 1999 | : | : | 1997 | : |
| Percentage | : | : | 0.0 | 13.3 | 6.1 | : | : | 7.1 | 10.5 | : | : | 5.6 | : |

Source: European database - Women in decision making (www.db-decision.de).

**Average monthly earnings of women as percentage of men's in industry and services** (sections C to K of NACE Rev. 1)

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1995 | : | 69.5 | : | 73.3 | 80.3 | : | 76.9 | : | 77.7 | 78.0 | : | 83.2 | : |
| 1996 | 72.9 | 70.0 | 77.2 | 72.6 | 79.0 | 78.4 | 81.3 | : | 77.8 | 77.8 | 75.2 | 83.8 | : |
| 1997 | 74.1 | 70.2 | 75.7 | 72.0 | 77.6 | 79.9 | 78.4 | : | 80.2 | 74.3 | 75.0 | 83.8 | : |
| 1998 | 73.5 | 68.7 | 72.0 | 74.2 | 81.4 | 80.1 | 78.4 | : | 83.2 | 77.5 | 77.5 | 86.3 | : |
| 1999 | 77.6 | 69.3 | 74.2 | : | 81.3 | 77.8 | 80.7 | 76.4 | 82.6 | 81.9 | 76.9 | 90.3 | : |
| 2000 | 74.6 | : | 73.3 | : | 81.0 | 76.9 | 80.9 | : | : | 79.5 | 73.7 | : | : |

CZ: Full-time employees, sections A to O of NACE Rev.1, EE: Hourly earnings, all activities, LV: Data from short-term statistics. bonuses included, PL: Source: the representative survey in September of 1995 to 1997 or as of October 1998-1999. RO: Earnings of women as percent of men for month October; bonuses included. Source: Annual survey on earnings by occupations for month October. SI: All activities; if only industry: 80.6 (1998).

| 8 HEALTH AND SAFETY | BG | CY | CZ | EE | HU | LV | LT | MT | PL | RO | SK | SI | TR |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Infant mortality rate. per 1000 live births** | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1970 | 27.3 | 26.0 | 20.2 | 17.7 | 35.9 | 17.7 | 19.3 | 27.9 | 36.4 | 49.4 | 25.7 | 24.5 | : |
| 2000 | 13.3* | 5.7* | 4.1 | 8.4 | 9.2 | 10.4 | 8.6 | 6.1 | 8.1 | 18.6 | 8.6 | 4.5 | : |
| SI: 1999 data | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| **Life expectancy at birth. males** | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1980 | 68.7 | 72.3 | 66.8 | 64.1 | 65.5 | 63.5 | 65.5 | 68.5 | 66.9 | 66.5 | 66.8 | 67.4 | 55.8 |
| 1999 | 67.6 | 75.3 | 71.4 | 65.5 | 66.4 | 64.9 | 67.1 | 75.1 | 68.8 | 66.1 | 69.0 | 71.3 | 66.5 |
| TR: 1998. | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| **Life expectancy at birth. females** | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1980 | 74.0 | 77.0 | 73.9 | 74.1 | 72.7 | 74.2 | 75.4 | 72.7 | 75.4 | 71.8 | 74.3 | 75.2 | 60.4 |
| 1999 | 74.6 | 80.4 | 78.1 | 76.3 | 75.2 | 76.2 | 77.4 | 79.3 | 77.5 | 73.7 | 77.0 | 78.8 | 71.2 |
| TR: 1998. | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

Source: Eurostat - Demographic Statistics. TR: Council of Europe.

**Standardised death rates (SDR) per 100 000 population by sex, 1998**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Males* | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Diseases of the circulatory system | 972 | : | 616 | 82 | 749 | 848 | 648 | 411 | 671 | 855 | 709 | 438 | : |
| Cancer | 206 | : | 329 | 308 | 403 | 286 | 286 | 235 | 298 | 218 | 350 | 304 | : |
| Diseases of the respiratory system | 76 | : | 52 | 67 | 68 | 58 | 78 | 112 | 61 | 103 | 68 | 106 | : |
| External causes of injury and poisoning | 91 | : | 92 | 283 | 143 | 268 | 252 | 39 | 115 | 114 | 107 | 119 | : |
| *Females* | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Diseases of the circulatory system | 681 | : | 407 | 482 | 471 | 508 | 444 | 272 | 420 | 629 | 468 | 285 | : |
| Cancer | 118 | : | 177 | 146 | 204 | 147 | 139 | 140 | 156 | 126 | 160 | 152 | : |
| Diseases of the respiratory system | 36 | : | 23 | 20 | 29 | 14 | 20 | 51 | 24 | 52 | 32 | 46 | : |
| External causes of injury and poisoning | 26 | : | 35 | 62 | 49 | 66 | 57 | 13 | 32 | 34 | 23 | 40 | : |

Data 1998 except PL 1996
Source: WHO - Health For All Database 2002

**Number of persons per 100 000 discharged from hospitals by ICD diagnosis, 1999**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Infectious and parasitic diseases | 505 | : | 467 | 674 | 395 | 748 | 1040 | : | : | 990 | 490 | 480 | : |
| Cancer | 522 | : | 1494 | 1555 | 1810 | 1233 | 1464 | : | : | 1091 | 1377 | 1658 | : |
| Diseases of the respiratory system | 1781 | : | 1567 | 2165 | 2201 | 2441 | 3094 | : | : | 3008 | 1606 | 1292 | : |
| Diseases of the circulatory system | 1766 | : | 3271 | 3118 | 4084 | 3060 | 3939 | : | : | 2253 | 2723 | 1671 | : |
| Mental and behavioural disorders | : | : | 302 | : | 1524 | 1607 | 1291 | : | : | 1092 | 594 | 543 | : |
| External causes of injury and poisoning | 1036 | : | 1740 | 1282 | 1487 | 2213 | 2141 | : | : | 1188 | 1495 | 1639 | : |

RO: Mental and behavioural disorders 1998.
Source: Eurostat - Health and safety statistics.

**Total expenditure on health (percentage of Gross Domestic Product)**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1990 | : | : | 5.0 | : | : | : | : | : | 5.3 | : | : | : | 3.6 |
| 1999 | : | : | 7.4 | : | 6.8 | : | : | : | 6.2 | : | : | : | 4.8 |

Data 1999 except HU,TR: 1998.
Source: OECD Health data 2001.

**Number of persons killed in road accidents**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1998 | 1 003 | 111 | 1 360 | 284 | 1 371 | 627 | 829 | 17 | 7 080 | 2 778 | 860 | 309 | 6 083 |
| 1999 | 1 047 | 113 | 1 455 | 232 | 1 306 | 604 | 748 | 4 | 6 730 | 2 505 | 671 | 334 | 5 723 |
| 2000 | 1 012 | 111 | 1 486 | 204 | 1 200 | 588 | 641 | 15 | 6 294 | 2 499 | 647 | 313 | 5 510 |

**Number of persons killed in road accidents per million inhabitants**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 2000 | 124 | 165 | 144 | 149 | 120 | 248 | 173 | 39 | 163 | 111 | 120 | 157 | 84 |

Source: Eurostat - Transport Statistics.

**Home and leisure accidents (age standardised mortality rate per 100 000 inhabitants), 1995**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 55 | : | 40 | 177 | 70 | 92 | 168 | 11 | 60 | 86 | 32 | 53 | : |

Source: WHO mortality statistics, 1995

| 9 CONSUMPTION | BG | CY | CZ | EE | HU | LV | LT | MT | PL | RO | SK | SI | TR |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|

*More statistical data on consumption can be found in "Consumers in Europe – Facts and figures 1996-2000". Eurostat, 2001, ISBN 92-894-1400-6.*

**Final consumption expenditure of households, 2000, current prices**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Thousand millions of euro | 9 | 5 | 30 | 3 | 26 | 5 | 8 | : | 110 | 28 | 11 | 11 | : |
| Euro per inhabitant | 1100 | 8300 | 2900 | 2200 | 2600 | 2000 | 2100 | : | 2800 | 1200 | 2000 | 5300 | : |
| Thousand millions of PPS | 37 | 8 | 73 | 7 | 59 | 10 | 18 | : | 219 | 82 | 31 | 17 | : |
| PPS per inhabitant | 4500 | : | 7100 | 5000 | 5900 | 4200 | 4800 | : | 5700 | 3700 | 5700 | 8400 | : |
| Percentage of GDP | 71.6 | : | 53.7 | 57.7 | 51.1 | 62.5 | 64.1 | : | 64.0 | 70.0 | 52.9 | 54.0 | : |

CY: 1998.
Source: Eurostat0 National Accounts - ESA95 - aggregates (theme2/aggs)

**Estimation of structure of household consumption expenditure, 1999 (%)**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |
| Food and non-alcoholic beverages | 46.5 | : | 25.2 | 35.7 | 28.9 | 42.1 | 48.1 | : | 35.1 | 55.3 | 33.0 | 26.1 | : |
| Alcoholic beverages and tobacco | 3.9 | : | 3.5 | 3.4 | 4.3 | 2.8 | 4.0 | : | 3.3 | 2.7 | 3.6 | 3.4 | : |
| Clothing and footwear | 8.2 | : | 7.7 | 7.7 | 6.6 | 7.1 | 8.0 | : | 7.0 | 7.4 | 10.3 | 8.4 | : |
| Housing, water, electricity, gas and other fuels (1) | 14.2 | : | 17.1 | 18.7 | 19.5 | 17.0 | 12.3 | : | 18.4 | 15.3 | 12.4 | 10.7 | : |
| Furnishings, household equipment & routine maintenance | 4.4 | : | 7.8 | 5.4 | 5.4 | 4.2 | 4.8 | : | 5.5 | 4.3 | 6.4 | 6.8 | : |
| Health (2) | 3.3 | : | 1.5 | 1.6 | 3.0 | 3.5 | 3.5 | : | 4.4 | 2.3 | 1.2 | 1.6 | : |
| Transport (3) | 7.2 | : | 10.2 | 6.8 | 9.2 | 6.9 | 6.7 | : | 8.6 | 5.2 | 8.9 | 16.5 | : |
| Communication (4) | 1.9 | : | 2.0 | 2.8 | 4.4 | 3.2 | 1.9 | : | 2.3 | 1.4 | 2.1 | 1.9 | : |
| Recreation and culture | 3.0 | : | 11.0 | 7.5 | 6.7 | 5.6 | 3.5 | : | 6.5 | 2.6 | 8.2 | 8.8 | : |
| Education | 0.6 | : | 0.6 | 1.2 | 0.4 | 1.0 | 0.3 | : | 1.3 | 0.6 | 0.5 | 0.7 | : |
| Restaurants and hotels | 3.5 | : | 5.0 | 3.5 | 3.0 | 2.5 | 3.8 | : | 1.3 | 0.8 | 5.8 | 5.9 | : |
| Miscellaneous goods and services | 3.3 | : | 8.4 | 5.7 | 8.6 | 4.1 | 2.9 | : | 6.3 | 2.1 | 7.6 | 9.2 | : |

CZ: Estimations based on the national classification of the 9 main expenditure groups. EE: Non-monetary consumption of non-food items is not included; own produced food or food received without paying is included. SI: 1997.

(1) Imputed rent for owner-occupiers is not included in any of the countries; CZ, HU and SI, housing provided by employer (for free or reduced price) is not included; CZ. the benefit from free or reduced cost supply of gas, electricity and water is not included; LT, LV and PO, measurement problems.

(2) HU, LT and PL, household net expenditure (after deduction of social security and private insurance reimbursements) is recorded; in the other countries, household gross expenditure is recorded; LT, all expenditures of households are recorded, except for accommodation in sanatoriums; PL, health expenditure is not corrected for reimbursement; for the other countries, information on recording is not available.

(3) RO, SI and SK, personal use of a company car and/or free fuel is not accounted for; LV, LT and PL, measurement problems.

(4) CZ, free or reduced telephone costs are not included; LV, LT and PO, measurement problems.

Source: Eurostat - Household Budget Survey (theme3/hbs)

**Percentage of dwellings with selected electrical appliances, 1996 (%)**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Cooker | 86.4 | : | 16.3 | 47.8 | 9.7 | 6.1 | 11.0 | : | : | 2.7 | 30.1 | 86.0 | : |
| Microwave oven | 4.4 | : | 30.1 | 11.0 | 25.8 | 2.8 | 5.4 | : | : | : | 18.1 | 6.9 | : |
| Fridge | 88.5 | : | 98.1 | 89.7 | 99.9 | 86.6 | 93.7 | : | 100.0 | 68.9 | 97.4 | 95.2 | : |
| Freezer | 17.3 | : | 65.2 | 11.7 | 52.4 | 2.2 | 6.2 | : | 30.0 | 13.0 | 55.7 | 85.8 | : |
| Automatic washing machine | 40.6 | : | 74.7 | 22.6 | 43.9 | 8.6 | 11.6 | : | 50.0 | 7.2 | 57.0 | 96.4 | : |
| Non-automatic washing machine | 36.2 | : | 35.7 | 52.1 | 59.6 | 61.3 | 63.2 | : | 80.0 | 43.6 | 45.7 | : | : |
| Clothes dryer | 0.3 | : | 3.3 | : | 0.4 | : | : | : | : | : | 1.2 | 7.2 | : |
| Dishwasher | 0.9 | : | 3.3 | 0.7 | 0.6 | 0.1 | 2.0 | : | : | : | 1.3 | 20.2 | : |
| Hot water boiler | 61.1 | : | 38.8 | 11.3 | 47.1 | 3.1 | 2.1 | : | : | 0.3 | 30.0 | 47.3 | : |
| Space heater | 83.4 | : | 20.5 | 25.4 | 9.3 | 93.6 | 6.5 | : | : | 11.9 | 14.4 | 17.4 | : |
| Air conditioning | 0.4 | : | 0.4 | : | 0.4 | : | : | : | : | : | 0.2 | 0.7 | : |

PL: Based on households rather than dwellings; 1993. SI: Automatic washing machines includes non-automatic washing machines.

Source: Eurostat - Survey on Energy Consumption in Households

**Internet users per 100 inhabitants**

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1998 | 1.8 | : | 3.9 | 10.3 | 4.0 | 3.3 | 1.9 | : | 4.1 | 2.2 | 9.3 | 10.1 | : |
| 1999 | 2.9 | : | 6.8 | 13.8 | 6.0 | 4.3 | 2.8 | : | 5.4 | 2.7 | 11.1 | 12.6 | : |
| 2000 | 5.2 | : | 9.7 | 26.3 | 6.4 | 6.1 | 6.1 | : | 13.5 | 3.1 | 13.0 | 15.2 | : |

Source: Eurostat - Information Society Statistics

# Annex V: Eurostat Datashops

**Belgique/ België**

**Eurostat Data Shop Bruxelles/Brussel**
**Planistat Belgique**
Rue du Commerce 124
Handelsstraat 124
B-1000 Bruxelles/Brussel
Tel. (32-2) 234 67 50
Fax (32-2) 234 67 51
E-mail: datashop@planistat.be
http://www.datashop.org/

Languages spoken:
ES, DE, EN, FR

**Danmark**

**DANMARKS STATISTIK**
**Bibliotek og Information**
**Eurostat Data Shop**
Sejrøgade 11
DK-2100 København Ø
Tlf. (45) 39 17 30 30
Fax (45) 39 17 30 03
E-mail: bib@dst.dk
http://www.dst.dk/bibliotek

Languages spoken:
DA, EN

**Deutschland**

**Statistisches Bundesamt**
**Eurostat Data Shop Berlin**
Otto-Braun-Straße 70-72
(Eingang: Karl-Marx-Allee)
D-10178 Berlin
Tel. (49) 1888-644 94 27/28
Fax (49) 1888-644 94 30
E-Mail: datashop@destatis.de
http://www.eu-datashop.de/

Languages spoken:
DE, EN

**España**

**INE**
**Eurostat Data Shop**
Paseo de la Castellana, 183
Oficina 011
Entrada por Estébanez Calderón
E-28046 Madrid
Tel. (34) 91 583 91 67
Fax (34) 91 579 71 20
E-mail: datashop.eurostat@ine.es
http://www.datashop.org/
Member of the MIDAS Net

Languages spoken:
ES, EN, FR

**France**

**INSEE Info service**
**Eurostat Data Shop**
195, rue de Bercy
Tour Gamma A
F-75582 Paris Cedex 12
Tel. (33) 1 53 17 88 44
Fax (33) 1 53 17 88 22
E-mail: datashop@insee.fr
Member of the MIDAS Net

Languages spoken:
FR

**Italia - Roma**

**ISTAT**
**Centro di informazione statistica — Sede di Roma**
**Eurostat Data Shop**
Via Cesare Balbo, 11a
I-00184 Roma
Tel. (39) 06 46 73 31 02/06
Fax (39) 06 46 73 31 01/07
E-mail: dipdiff@istat.it
Member of the MIDAS Net

Languages spoken:
IT

**Italia - Milano**

**ISTAT**
**Ufficio regionale per la Lombardia**
**Eurostat Data Shop**
Via Fieno, 3
I-20123 Milano
Tel. (39) 02 80 61 32 460
Fax (39) 02 80 61 32 304
E-mail: mileuro@tin.it
Member of the MIDAS Net

Languages spoken:
IT

**Luxembourg**

**Eurostat Data Shop Luxembourg**
BP 453
L-2014 Luxembourg
4, rue Alphonse Weicker
L-2721 Luxembourg
Tél. (352) 43 35-2251
Fax (352) 43 35-22221
E-mail: dslux@eurostat.datashop.lu
http://www.datashop.org/
Member of the MIDAS Net

Languages spoken:
ES, DE, EN, FR, IT

**Nederland**

**STATISTICS NETHERLANDS**
**Eurostat Data Shop — Voorburg**
Postbus 4000
2270 JM Voorburg
Nederland
Tel. (31-70) 337 49 00
Fax (31-70) 337 59 84
E-mail: datashop@cbs.nl

Languages spoken:
EN, NL

**Portugal**

**Eurostat Data Shop Lisboa**
**INE/Serviço de Difusão**
Av. António José de Almeida, 2
P-1000-043 Lisboa
Tel. (351) 21 842 61 00
Fax (351) 21 842 63 64
E-mail: data.shop@ine.pt

Languages spoken:
EN, FR, PT

**Suomi/Finland**

**STATISTICS FINLAND**
**Eurostat DataShop Helsinki**
Tilastokirjasto
PL 2B
FIN-00022 Tilastokeskus
Työpajakatu 13 B, 2. kerros, Helsinki
P. (358-9) 17 34 22 21
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Sähköposti: datashop@stat.fi
http://tilastokeskus.fi/tk/kk/datashop/

Languages spoken:
EN, FI, SV

**Sverige**

**STATISTICS SWEDEN**
**Information service**
**Eurostat Data Shop**
Karlavägen 100
Box 24 300
S-104 51 Stockholm
Tfn (46-8) 50 69 48 01
Fax (46-8) 50 69 48 99
E-post: infoservice@scb.se
http://www.scb.se/info/datashop/
eudatashop.asp

Languages spoken:
EN, SV

**United Kingdom**

**Eurostat Data Shop**
**Office for National Statistics**
Room 1.015
Cardiff Road
Newport
South Wales
NP10 8XG
UK
Tel: (44) 1633 813369
Fax: (44) 1633 813333
E-mail: eurostat.datashop@ons.gov.uk

Languages spoken:
EN

**Norge**

**Statistics Norway**
**Library and Information Centre**
**Eurostat Data Shop**
Kongens gate 6
Boks 8131 Dep.
N-0033 Oslo
Tel. (47) 21 09 46 42/43
Fax (47) 21 09 45 04
E-mail: Datashop@ssb.no

Languages spoken:
EN, NO

**Schweiz/ Suisse/ Svizzera**

**Statistisches Amt des Kantons Zürich**
**Eurostat Data Shop**
Bleicherweg 5
CH-8090 Zürich
Tel. (41-1) 225 12 12
Fax (41-1) 225 12 99
E-mail: datashop@statistik.zh.ch
http://www.statistik.zh.ch

Languages spoken:
DE, EN

**USA**

**HAVER ANALYTICS**
**Eurostat Data Shop**
60 East 42nd Street
Suite 3310
New York, NY 10165
Tel. (1-212) 986 93 00
Fax (1-212) 986 69 81
E-mail: eurodata@haver.com

Languages spoken:
EN

**Eurostat home page**
**http://www.europa.eu.int/comm/eurostat/**
**has an updated list of Eurostat Data Shops**