



Living conditions and social protection

Eurostat data on living conditions and welfare aim to show a comprehensive picture of the social situation in the European Union (EU), covering variables related to income, housing, poverty, social exclusion and other living conditions. The demand for statistics on living conditions and welfare received a new impetus following the social chapter of the Amsterdam Treaty (1997) which became the driving force for EU social statistics. This was reinforced by successive European Councils that have kept the social dimension high on the political agenda. Moreover, 2010 was designated as the European year for combating poverty and social exclusion.

Eurostat collects and publishes a broad portfolio of social inclusion indicators employment and social policy indicators. Data covering living conditions and welfare come from three main sources:

- household budget surveys (HBS);
- EU statistics on income and living conditions (EU-SILC);
- the European system of integrated social protection statistics (ESSPROS).

Information is collected through an open method of coordination, designed to encourage national governments to provide regular data concerning social protection and social inclusion/exclusion, while focusing on combating poverty and social exclusion, reforming social welfare systems, and tackling the challenges posed by demographic change (in particular, population ageing). Social risks (such as unemployment, ill health or social exclusion) or actions that are undertaken to help meet social needs can be evaluated by studying data on social protection expenditure and receipts.

The Europe 2020 strategy for smart, sustainable and inclusive growth put forward by the European Commission provides a growth strategy



for the coming decade. A European platform against poverty will be one of the seven flagship initiatives of this strategy. The goals are to:

- ensure economic, social and territorial cohesion;
- guarantee respect for the fundamental rights of people experiencing poverty and social exclusion, and enable them to live in dignity and take an active part in society;
- mobilise support to help people integrate in the communities where they live, get training and help to find a job and have access to social benefits.

To measure progress in meeting the Europe 2020 goals, five headline targets to be met by 2020 have been agreed and translated into national targets in each EU Member State, reflecting different situations and circumstances. One of these targets is that for the EU as a whole there will be at least 20 million fewer people in or at-risk-of poverty and social exclusion by 2020. The integrated economic and employment guidelines, first combined in 2008, were also revised as part of the Europe 2020 strategy. Guideline 10 concerns promoting social inclusion and combating poverty.

6.1 Living conditions

This subchapter analyses recent statistics on living conditions in the European Union (EU). Favourable living conditions depend on a wide range of factors, which may be divided into those that are income-related and those that are not. The income distribution within a country provides a picture of inequalities: on the one hand, inequalities may create incentives for people to improve their situation through work, innovation or acquiring new skills, while on the other, crime, poverty and social exclusion are often seen as being linked to such income inequalities. Non-income related factors that may influence living conditions include the quality of healthcare services, education and training opportunities, or individual's access to goods and services – aspects that affect everyday lives and well-being.

Main statistical findings

At-risk-of-poverty rate and threshold

In 2008, 16.5 % of the EU-27 population was assessed to be at-risk-of-poverty. This figure, calculated as a weighted average of national results, conceals considerable variations between countries. In five Member States, namely Latvia (25.6 %), Romania (23.4 %), Bulgaria (21.4 %), Greece (20.1 %) and Lithuania (20.0 %), one fifth or more of the population was assessed to be at-risk-of-poverty. Among the EU Member States the lowest percentages of persons at-risk-of-poverty were observed in the Czech Republic (9.0 %), the Netherlands (10.5 %) and Slovakia (10.9 %); Iceland (10.1 %) and Norway (11.3 %) also report-



ed relatively low shares of their respective populations at-risk-of-poverty (see Figure 6.1).

The at-risk-of-poverty threshold is set at 60 % of the national median equivalised disposable income. It is often expressed in purchasing power standards (PPS) in order to take account of the differences in the cost of living across countries. It varies greatly from about PPS 2 000 in Romania and PPS 3 000 in Bulgaria to more than PPS 10 000 in eight Member States as well as Iceland and Norway, with the highest value in Luxembourg (PPS 16 000) – see Figure 6.1. In general, the at-risk-of-poverty rate is very stable from one year to the next. Between 2007 and 2008, the main exceptions to this rule were Latvia (with a sharp increase of 4.4 percentage points) and Ireland (with a reduction of 1.7 percentage points).

Different groups in society are more or less vulnerable to monetary poverty. Although in 2008 there was little difference in the at-risk-of-poverty rate (after social transfers) between men and women in the EU-27 (15.4 % compared with 17.4 % respectively), there were notable differences when the population was classified according to activity status (see Tables 6.1 and 6.2).

The unemployed are a particularly vulnerable group: a little over two fifths (44.5 %) of the unemployed were at-risk-of-poverty in the EU-27 in 2008, with the highest rates in Estonia (61.3 %), Germany (56.8 %), the United Kingdom and Bulgaria (both 55.0 %). About one in six (16.2 %) retired persons in the EU-27 were at-risk-of-poverty in 2008; rates were much higher in the Baltic Member States, Cyprus, Bulgaria and the United Kingdom. Those in employment were far

less likely to be at-risk-of-poverty (8.5 % in the EU-27), although there were relatively high rates in Romania (17.5 %) and Greece (14.3 %) – see Table 6.2.

Social protection measures can be used as a means for reducing poverty and social exclusion. This may be achieved, for example, through the distribution of benefits. One way of evaluating the success of social protection measures is to compare at-risk-of-poverty indicators before and after social transfers. In 2008, social transfers reduced the at-risk-of-poverty rate among the population of the EU-27 from 25.1 % before transfers to 16.5 % after transfers, thereby lifting 34 % of those in poverty above the poverty line. In percentage terms, the impact of social benefits was lowest in Greece, Latvia, Spain, Italy, Bulgaria, Estonia, Romania and Cyprus. In contrast, half or more of those persons who were at-risk-of-poverty in Hungary, Denmark, Sweden, the Czech Republic, Ireland and Finland were removed as a result of social transfers; this was also the case in Norway (see Figure 6.2).

Income inequalities

Societies cannot combat poverty and social exclusion without analysing inequalities within society, whether they are economic in nature or social. Data on economic inequality becomes particularly important for estimating relative poverty, because the distribution of economic resources may have a direct bearing on the extent and depth of poverty (see Figure 6.3).

There were wide inequalities in the distribution of income among the population of the EU-27 in 2008: the 20 % of the population with the highest equivalised



disposable income received five times as much income as the 20 % of the population with the lowest equivalised disposable income. This ratio varied considerably across the Member States, from 3.4 in the Czech Republic, Slovenia and Slovakia to more than 6.0 in Portugal and Bulgaria, reaching highs of 7.0 in Romania and 7.3 in Latvia.

There is policy interest in the inequalities felt by many different groups in society. One group of particular interest is that of the elderly, in part reflecting the growing proportion of the EU's population aged over 65 years. Pension systems can play an important role in addressing poverty amongst the elderly. In this respect, it is interesting to compare the incomes of the elderly with the rest of the population. Across the EU-27 as a whole, people aged 65 and more had a median income which in 2008 was around 85 % of the median income for the population under the age of 65. Hungary was the only Member State where the income of the elderly was at the same level as for persons under 65. In Luxembourg, Poland, France and Austria, the median income of the elderly was more than 90 % of that recorded for people under 65. In contrast, the elderly in Latvia and Cyprus had median incomes that were less than 60 % of those recorded for people under 65, with shares between 60 % and 70 % in Estonia, Bulgaria and Denmark (see Figure 6.4). These relatively low proportions may broadly reflect pension entitlements.

The depth of poverty, which helps to quantify just how poor the poor are, can be measured by the relative median at-risk-of-poverty gap. The median income of persons at-risk-of-poverty in the EU-27 was an average 21.8 % below the 60 % poverty

threshold in 2008. Among the countries shown in Figure 6.5, the national at-risk-of-poverty gap was widest in Romania (32.3 %), Latvia (28.6 %) and Bulgaria (27.0 %), but also relatively wide in Lithuania (25.7 %) and Greece (24.7 %). The lowest gap among the Member States was observed in the Netherlands (4.9 %), followed by Austria (15.3 %), while there was also a relatively low gap in Iceland (15.0 %).

Material deprivation

Income-related measures of poverty need to be analysed together with other measures – such as material deprivation – in order to have a deeper understanding of poverty. The material deprivation rate provides a headcount of the number of people who cannot afford to pay for at least three from a list of nine items, while those who lack four or more items are considered to be severely deprived. About one in every six (17.3 %) members of the EU population were materially deprived in 2008, while 8.5 % suffered from severe material deprivation; there were considerable discrepancies between the Member States that joined the EU in 2007, those that joined in 2004, and the EU-15 Member States. Less than one in ten people in Luxembourg, the Nordic Member States, the Netherlands and Spain were materially deprived, whereas the proportion rose to around one third of the population in Latvia, Hungary and Poland and reached around half of the population in Romania and Bulgaria. The proportion of people severely deprived ranged from below 3 % in Spain, Denmark, the Netherlands, Sweden and Luxembourg to more than 30 % in Romania and Bulgaria (see Figure 6.6).



Persons living in households with a low work intensity

Being in employment is generally an effective way to secure oneself against the risk of poverty. People living in households with a low work intensity (people aged 0 to 59 living in households where the adults worked less than 20 % of their total work potential during the year prior to the survey) were more likely to be exposed to social exclusion. In 2008, 9.0 % of the EU-27 population lived in households with low work intensity. The highest percentages among the countries shown in Figure 6.7 were registered in Ireland (13.6 %), Hungary (12.0 %), Belgium (11.7 %) and Germany (11.6 %) while the lowest were in Sweden (5.4 %), Estonia (5.3 %), Slovakia (5.2 %), Latvia, Lithuania (both 5.1 %), Luxembourg (4.7 %) and Cyprus (4.1 %), as well as in Iceland (2.6 %).

Data sources and availability

EU statistics on income and living conditions (EU-SILC) was launched in 2003 on the basis of a gentlemen's agreement between Eurostat, six Member States (Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Greece, Ireland, Luxembourg) and Norway. It was formally launched in 2004 in 15 countries and expanded in 2005 to cover all of the then EU-25 Member States, together with Iceland and Norway. Bulgaria launched EU-SILC in 2006, while Romania, Switzerland and Turkey introduced the survey in 2007.

EU-SILC comprises both a cross-sectional dimension and a longitudinal dimension. While comparisons of standards of living between countries are frequently based

on GDP per capita, such figures say little about the distribution of income within a country. In this subchapter, indicators measuring the distribution of income and relative poverty are presented.

Household disposable income is established by summing up all monetary incomes received from any source by each member of the household (including income from work, investment and social benefits) plus income received at the household level and deducting taxes and social contributions paid. In order to reflect differences in household size and composition, this total is divided by the number of 'equivalent adults' using a standard (equivalence) scale, the so-called 'modified OECD' scale, which attributes a weight of 1 to the first adult in the household, a weight of 0.5 to each subsequent member of the household aged 14 and over, and a weight of 0.3 to household members aged less than 14. The resulting figure is called equivalised disposable income and is attributed to each member of the household. For the purpose of poverty indicators, the equivalised disposable income is calculated from the total disposable income of each household divided by the equivalised household size; consequently, each person in the household is considered to have the same equivalised income.

The income reference period is a fixed 12-month period (such as the previous calendar or tax year) for all countries except the United Kingdom for which the income reference period is the current year of the survey and Ireland for which the survey is continuous and income is collected for the 12 months prior to the survey.



The at-risk-of-poverty rate is defined as the share of people with an equivalised disposable income that is below the at-risk-of-poverty threshold (expressed in purchasing power standards – PPS), set at 60 % of the national median equivalised disposable income. This rate may be expressed before or after social transfers, with the difference measuring the hypothetical impact of national social transfers in reducing poverty risk. Retirement and survivors' pensions are counted as income before transfers and not as social transfers. Various analyses of this indicator are available, for example by age, gender, activity status, household type, or education level. It should be noted that this indicator does not measure wealth but is instead a measure of low current income (in comparison with other people in the same country) which does not necessarily imply a low standard of living. The EU-27 aggregate is a population-weighted average of individual national figures. In line with decisions of the European Council, the at-risk-of-poverty rate is measured relative to the situation in each country rather than applying a common threshold to all countries.

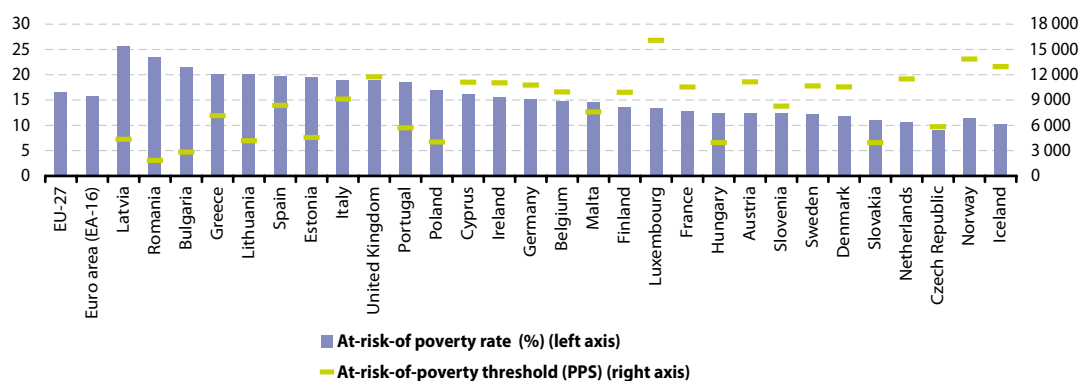
Context

At the Laeken European Council in December 2001, European heads of state and government endorsed a first set of common statistical indicators for social exclusion and poverty that are subject to a continuing process of refinement by the indicators sub-group (ISG) of the social protection committee (SPC). These indicators are an essential element in the open method of coordination to monitor the progress of Member States in the fight against poverty and social exclusion.

EU-SILC was implemented in order to provide underlying data for these indicators. Organised under framework Regulation 1177/2003, it is now the reference source for statistics on income and living conditions and for common indicators of social inclusion in particular.

In the context of the Europe 2020 strategy, the European Council adopted in June 2010 a headline target on social inclusion. EU-SILC is the source for the three sub-indicators on which this new target is based, namely the at-risk-of-poverty rate, severe material deprivation rate and persons living in households with low work intensity.

Figure 6.1: At-risk-of-poverty rate and threshold, 2008



Source: Eurostat ([ilc_li01](#) and [ilc_li02](#))



Table 6.1: At-risk-of-poverty rate after social transfers
(%)

	Male			Female		
	2006	2007	2008	2006	2007	2008
EU-27	15.3	15.9	15.4	16.9	17.5	17.4
Euro area (EA-16)	14.5	15.1	14.8	16.4	17.1	16.8
Belgium	13.7	14.4	13.6	15.6	15.9	15.9
Bulgaria ⁽¹⁾	17.3	20.9	19.8	19.3	23.0	22.9
Czech Republic	8.9	8.7	8.0	10.8	10.5	10.1
Denmark	11.4	11.3	11.7	12.0	12.0	12.0
Germany	12.1	14.1	14.2	13.0	16.3	16.2
Estonia	16.3	16.7	16.5	19.9	21.7	22.0
Ireland	17.5	16.0	14.5	19.5	18.5	16.4
Greece	19.5	19.6	19.6	21.4	20.9	20.7
Spain	18.5	18.5	18.3	21.3	20.9	21.0
France ⁽²⁾	12.3	12.8	11.9	14.0	13.4	13.4
Italy	18.0	18.4	17.1	21.1	21.3	20.1
Cyprus	13.5	13.5	14.0	17.7	17.4	18.3
Latvia	21.1	19.3	23.1	24.8	22.7	27.7
Lithuania	19.1	16.7	17.6	20.8	21.3	22.0
Luxembourg	13.8	12.9	12.5	14.3	14.1	14.3
Hungary	16.3	12.3	12.4	15.5	12.3	12.4
Malta	13.2	13.8	13.7	14.1	14.9	15.5
Netherlands	9.5	9.6	10.5	9.9	10.7	10.4
Austria	11.0	10.6	11.2	14.0	13.3	13.5
Poland	19.7	17.6	17.0	18.5	17.1	16.7
Portugal	17.7	17.2	17.9	19.1	19.0	19.1
Romania ⁽³⁾	:	24.3	22.4	:	25.3	24.3
Slovenia	10.3	10.0	11.0	12.9	12.9	13.6
Slovakia	11.8	9.8	10.1	11.5	11.2	11.5
Finland	12.1	12.1	12.7	13.1	13.8	14.5
Sweden	12.3	10.5	11.3	12.3	10.6	13.0
United Kingdom	18.0	17.7	17.5	20.0	20.0	20.1
Iceland	9.1	8.9	9.5	10.1	11.0	10.7
Norway	10.0	10.6	9.8	12.6	14.1	12.9

⁽¹⁾ Break in series, 2006.

⁽²⁾ Break in series, 2008.

⁽³⁾ Break in series, 2007.

Source: Eurostat (ilc_li02)



Table 6.2: At-risk-of-poverty rate after social transfers by most frequent activity status, 2008 ⁽¹⁾ (%)

	Total population	Persons employed	Not employed	Unemployed	Retired	Inactive population, others
EU-27	15.4	8.5	23.3	44.5	16.2	27.1
Euro area (EA-16)	14.9	8.0	22.5	43.9	14.4	26.3
Belgium	13.9	4.8	23.8	34.8	18.3	25.6
Bulgaria	20.5	7.5	34.9	55.0	31.7	23.9
Czech Republic	8.0	3.6	13.5	47.8	8.0	12.4
Denmark	12.3	5.0	22.7	33.9	16.5	30.6
Germany	14.5	7.1	22.8	56.8	15.0	22.6
Estonia	20.1	7.3	39.9	61.3	43.3	31.9
Ireland	14.6	6.5	25.1	28.3	18.0	26.6
Greece	19.4	14.3	24.5	36.8	20.3	26.0
Spain	18.7	10.6	28.6	37.4	21.3	31.1
France	11.7	6.8	16.7	39.0	8.8	24.9
Italy	17.3	8.9	24.6	41.8	14.8	28.6
Cyprus	16.8	6.4	32.5	32.0	48.1	20.0
Latvia	25.7	11.0	47.6	52.8	55.1	32.6
Lithuania	19.2	9.3	32.6	51.0	30.8	31.5
Luxembourg	11.5	9.4	14.1	52.2	4.9	15.9
Hungary	10.5	5.8	15.0	48.9	6.8	23.9
Malta	13.3	5.1	21.0	29.4	21.5	20.1
Netherlands	9.2	4.8	15.3	36.3	8.3	18.8
Austria	11.7	6.3	18.2	41.0	13.1	21.9
Poland	15.4	11.5	19.7	38.8	9.6	25.0
Portugal	17.4	11.8	24.8	34.6	20.1	28.3
Romania	20.9	17.5	24.7	42.7	19.0	31.8
Slovenia	12.3	5.1	20.2	37.6	17.9	21.6
Slovakia	9.5	5.8	14.5	43.2	9.7	15.7
Finland	13.8	5.1	25.6	43.5	21.7	29.1
Sweden	11.7	6.8	20.0	39.2	14.9	32.1
United Kingdom	17.6	8.6	32.5	55.0	29.1	35.4
Iceland	9.5	6.7	18.8	25.1	18.1	19.3
Norway	11.4	5.3	22.3	40.0	13.7	40.3

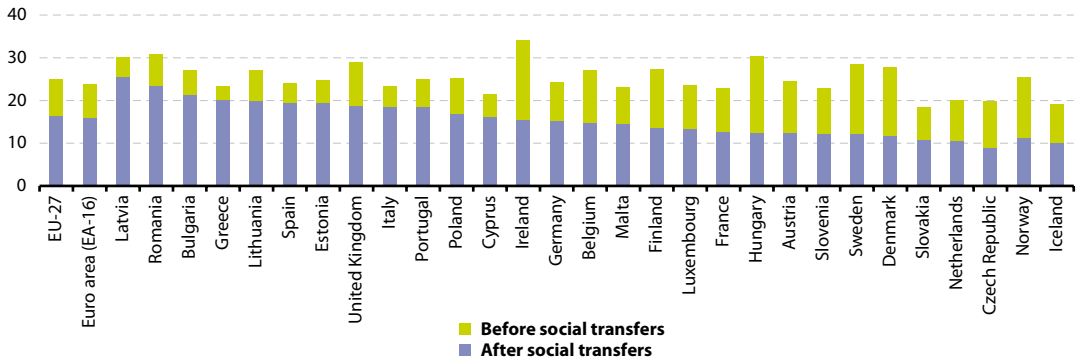
⁽¹⁾ Persons aged 18 or over.

Source: Eurostat ([ilc_li04](#))



Figure 6.2: At-risk-of-poverty rate, 2008

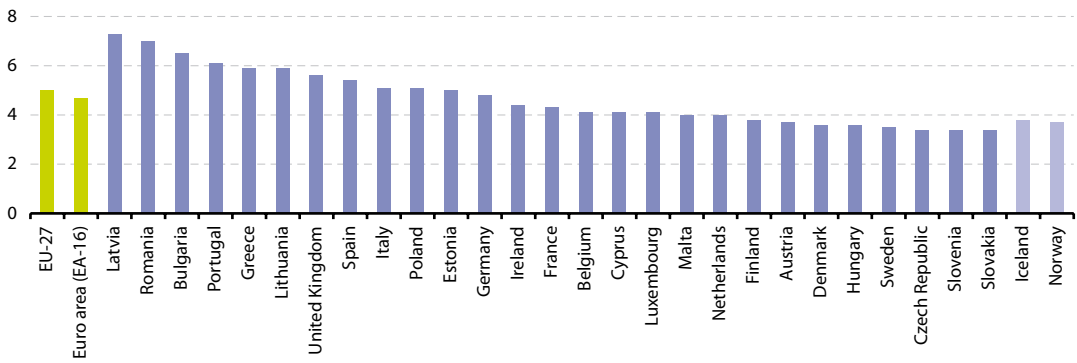
(%)



Source: Eurostat (ilc_li02 and ilc_li10)

Figure 6.3: Inequality of income distribution, 2008

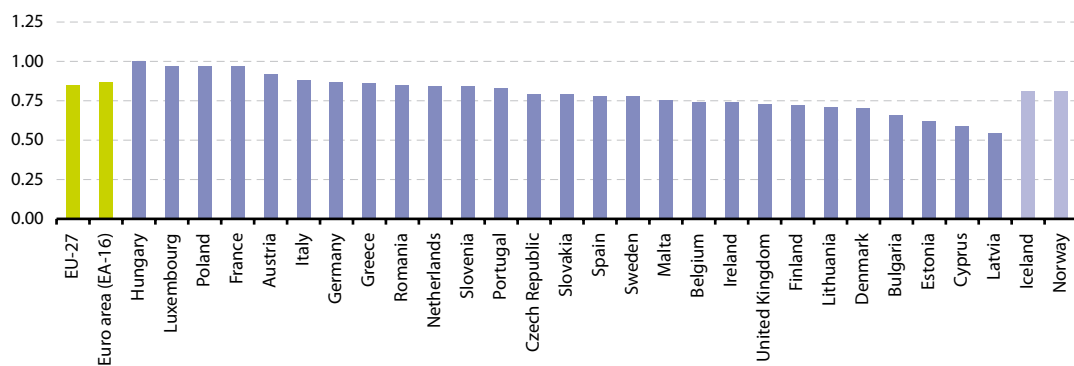
(income quintile share ratio)



Source: Eurostat (ilc_di11)

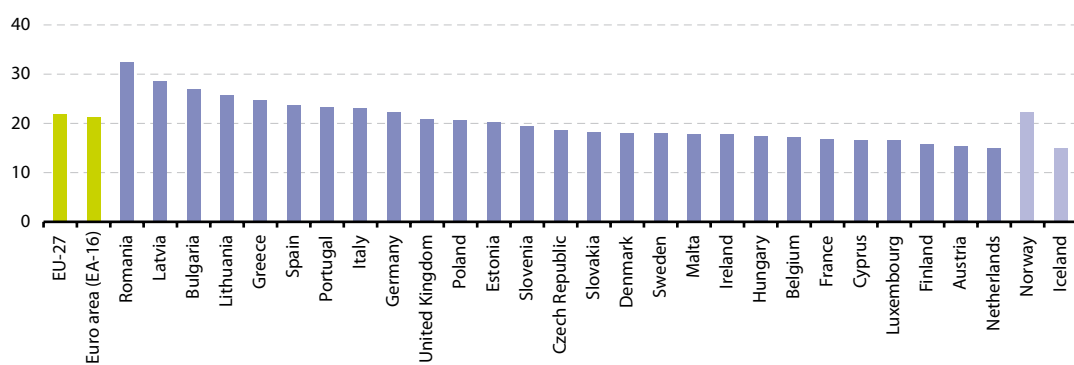


Figure 6.4: Relative median income ratio, 2008
(ratio)



Source: Eurostat ([ilc_pnp2](#))

Figure 6.5: Relative median at-risk-of-poverty gap, 2008
(%)

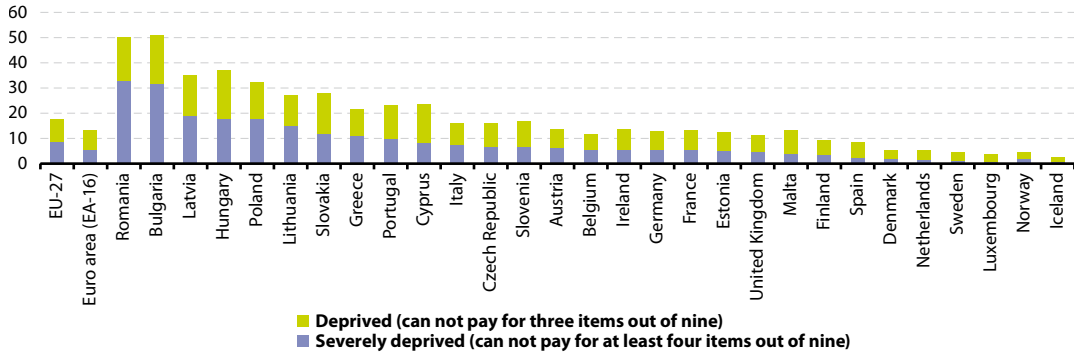


Source: Eurostat ([ilc_li11](#))



Figure 6.6: Material deprivation rate - proportion of persons who cannot afford to pay for selected items, 2008

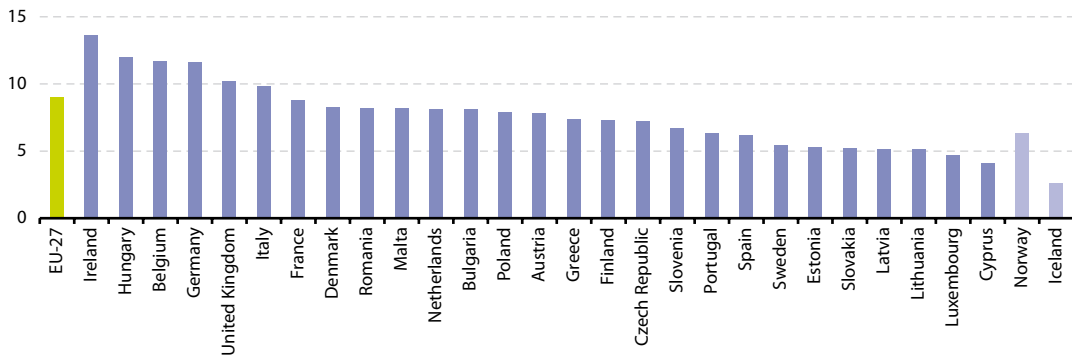
(%)



Source: Eurostat (ilc_sip8)

Figure 6.7: People living in households with very low work intensity, 2008

(%)



Source: Eurostat (t2020_51)



6.2 Housing

Decent housing, at an affordable price in a safe environment, is a fundamental need and right. Ensuring this need, which is likely to alleviate poverty and social exclusion, is still a significant challenge in a number of European countries. This subchapter provides information in relation to recent statistics on housing in the European Union (EU), focusing on dwelling types, tenure status (owning versus renting), housing quality and affordability.

Main statistical findings

Type of dwelling

In 2008, 41.8 % of the EU-27 population lived in flats, 34.1 % in detached houses and 22.6 % in semi-detached houses. The share of persons living in flats was highest in Latvia (66.5 %), Estonia (65.2 %) and Spain (64.4 %). The share of people living in detached houses was highest in Slovenia (68.1 %), Hungary (65.4 %), Romania (59.7 %) and Denmark (59.0 %), while the highest propensity to live in semi-detached houses was reported in the Netherlands (62.0 %), followed by the United Kingdom (60.5 %) and Ireland (55.4 %) – see Figure 6.8.

Tenure status

In 2008, just over one quarter of the EU-27 population lived in an owner-occupied home for which there was an outstanding loan or mortgage, while close to half of the population lived in an owner-occupied home without a loan or mortgage. As such, a total of nearly three quarters (73.6 %) of

the population lived in owner-occupied dwellings, while 12.5 % lived in dwellings with a market price rent, and 13.9 % in reduced-rent or free accommodation.

At least half of the population lived in owner-occupied dwellings in 2008 across all of the EU Member States; the figures ranged from 57.7 % in Austria to 96.5 % in Romania. In the Netherlands (59.6 %) and Sweden (55.6 %) more than half of the population lived in owner-occupied dwellings with an outstanding loan or mortgage; this was also the case in Iceland (72.2 %) and Norway (61.5 %).

The share of persons living in rented dwellings with a market price rent in 2008 was less than 10 % in 14 of the EU Member States, as well as in Iceland. In Denmark, the Netherlands, Sweden and Austria more than one quarter of the population lived in rented dwellings with a market price rent. The share of the population living in a dwelling with a reduced price rent or occupying a dwelling free of charge was less than 20 % in all of the Member States except for Poland where this share reached 31.7 % (see Figure 6.9).

Housing quality

One of the key dimensions in assessing the quality of housing conditions is the availability of sufficient space in the dwelling. The overcrowding rate describes the share of people living in a dwelling considered as overcrowded. Based on the number of rooms available to the household, this indicator depends on the household's size, as well as its members' ages and family situation.



Some 18.2 % of the EU-27 population lived in overcrowded dwellings in 2008; the highest overcrowding rates were registered in Latvia (58.1 %), Romania (56.5 %), Poland (50.8 %) and Lithuania (49.9 %). In contrast, Cyprus (1.2 %) and the Netherlands (1.7 %) recorded the lowest rates of overcrowding.

Within the population at-risk-of-poverty (whose equivalised disposable income was below 60 % of national median equivalised disposable income) the overcrowding rate in the EU-27 was 29.3 % in 2008, 11 percentage points above the rate for the whole population. The highest overcrowding rates among the population at-risk-of-poverty were registered in Poland (67.2 %), Hungary (65.7 %) and Romania (63.3 %), while the overcrowding rate was below 5 % in Cyprus and Malta. Malta and Latvia were the only Member States where the overcrowding rate was lower among the population at-risk-of-poverty than among the population as a whole (see Figure 6.10).

In addition to overcrowding some aspects – such as the lack of a bath or a toilet, a leaking roof in the dwelling, or a dwelling considered as too dark – are taken into account to build a more complete indicator of housing quality. The severe housing deprivation rate is defined as the share of persons living in a dwelling which is considered as overcrowded, while having at the same time at least one of the housing deprivation measures. Across the EU-27 as a whole 6.6 % of the population suffered from severe housing deprivation in 2008. In Bulgaria, Hungary and Latvia between one fifth and one quarter of the population faced severe housing deprivation in 2008, rising to a high of 30.2 % in

Romania. In contrast, less than 1 % of the population in the Netherlands, Finland, Cyprus, Ireland, Malta and Spain lived in conditions which could be qualified as severe housing deprivation (see Figure 6.11).

Housing affordability

Some, 12.5 % of the EU-27 population spent 40 % or more of their equivalised disposable income on housing in 2008. The proportion of the population whose housing costs exceeded 40 % of their equivalised disposable income was highest for tenants with market price rents and lowest for persons in owner-occupied dwellings without a loan or mortgage (see Table 6.3).

The EU-27 average masks significant differences between Member States: at one extreme there were a number of Member States where a relatively small proportion of the population had housing costs in excess of 40 % of their disposable income, notably Cyprus (2.0 %), Ireland (3.3 %), France (3.4 %), Estonia (3.6 %), Luxembourg (3.7 %) and Malta (3.8 %). At the other extreme, 24.7 % of the population in Germany spent more than 40 % of their equivalised disposable income on housing, well above the next highest shares recorded in Greece (22.6 %), Romania (18.9 %) and the United Kingdom (16.7 %).

Data sources and availability

The data used in this section are primarily derived from micro-data from EU statistics on income and living conditions (EU-SILC). The reference population is all private households and their current



members residing in the territory of the Member State at the time of data collection; persons living in collective households and in institutions are generally excluded from the target population.

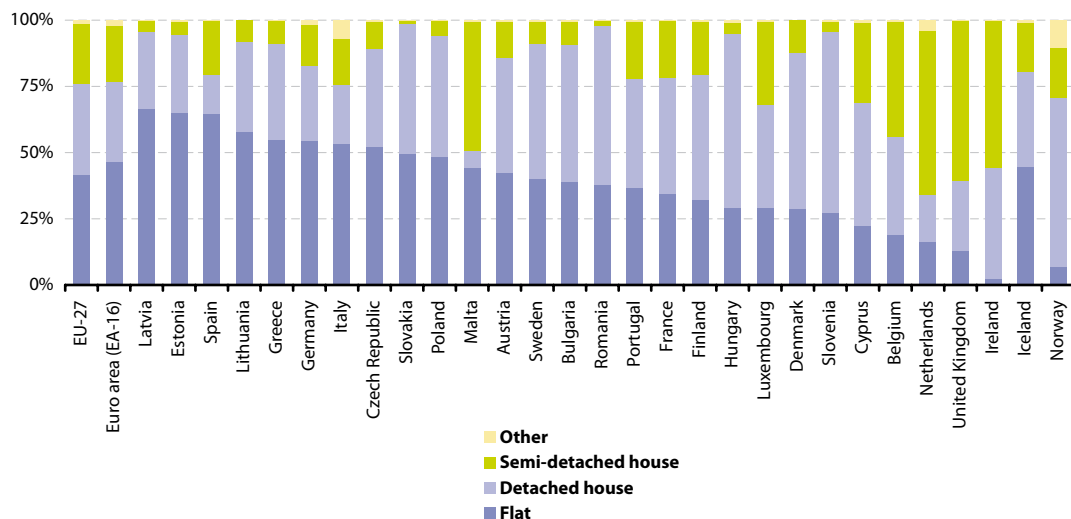
Context

Questions of social housing, homelessness or integration play an important role within the social policy agenda. The charter of fundamental rights stipulates in Article II-94 that 'in order to combat social exclusion and poverty, the Union recognises and respects the right to social and housing assistance so as to ensure a

decent existence for all those who lack sufficient resources, in accordance with Community law and national laws and practices'.

However, the EU does not have any responsibilities in respect of housing; rather, national governments develop their own housing policies. Many countries face similar challenges: for example, how to renew housing stocks, how to plan and combat urban sprawl, how to promote sustainable development, how to help young and disadvantage groups to get into the housing market, or how to promote energy efficiency among house owners.

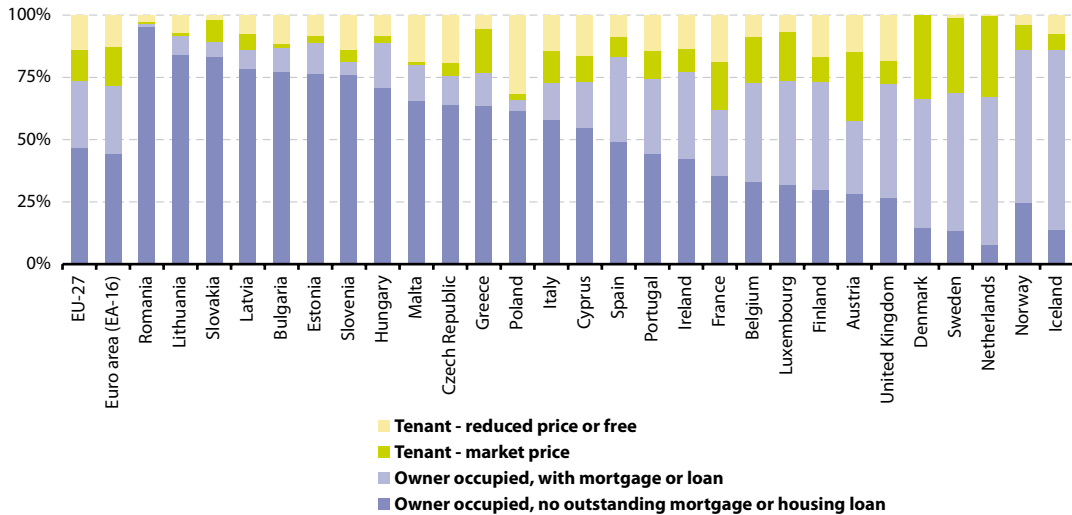
Figure 6.8: Population by dwelling type, 2008
(% of population)



Source: Eurostat (ilc_lvho01)



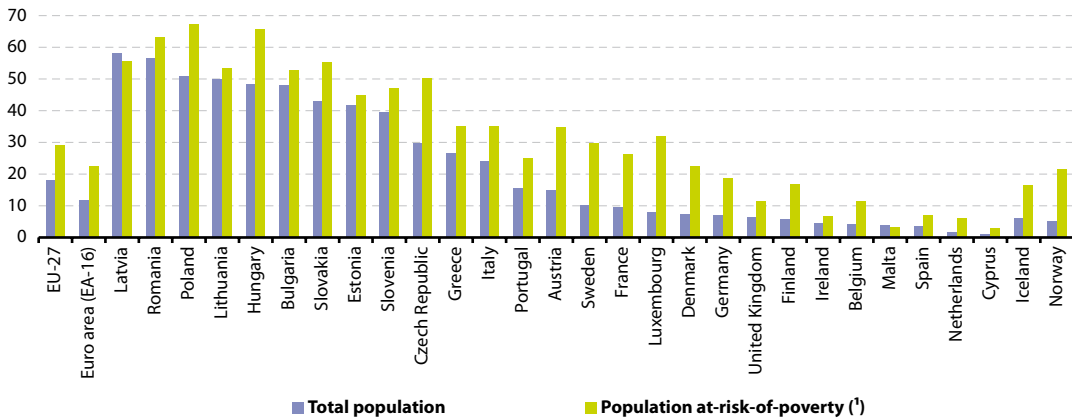
Figure 6.9: Population by tenure status, 2008 ⁽¹⁾
(% of population)



⁽¹⁾ Germany, not available.

Source: Eurostat (ilc_lvho02)

Figure 6.10: Overcrowding rate, 2008
(% of specified population)

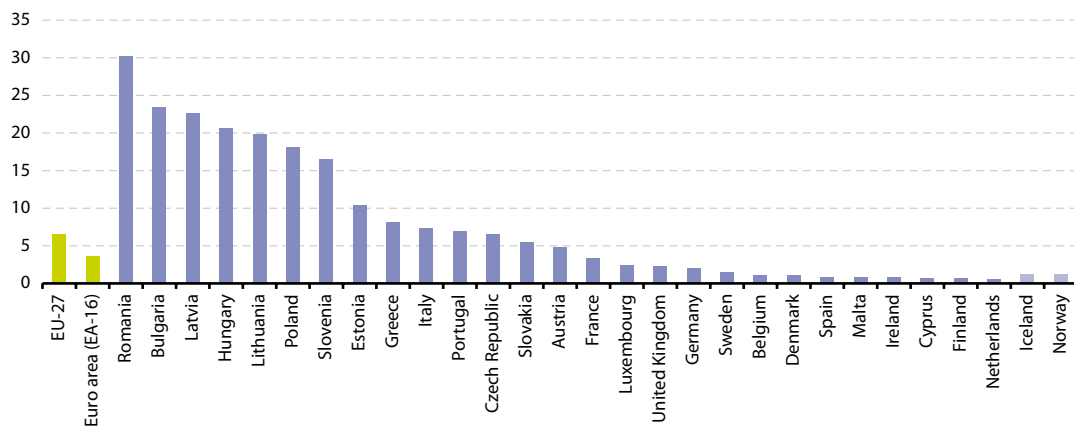


⁽¹⁾ Population below 60 % of median equivalised income.

Source: Eurostat (ilc_lvho05a)



Figure 6.11: Severe housing deprivation, 2008
(% of population)



Source: Eurostat ([ilc_mdho06a](#))



Table 6.3: Housing cost overburden rate by tenure status, 2008
(% of population)

	Total population	Owner occupied, with mortgage or loan	Owner occupied, no outstanding mortgage or housing loan	Tenant - market price	Tenant - reduced price or free
EU-27	12.5	8.6	6.8	24.6	11.6
Euro area (EA-16)	12.0	6.9	3.4	23.0	6.4
Belgium	12.5	6.5	9.5	30.5	13.8
Bulgaria	13.9	18.9	11.8	36.6	20.5
Czech Republic	12.8	28.7	9.4	25.4	11.1
Denmark	6.1	3.5	3.5	11.2	:
Germany	24.7	:	:	:	:
Estonia	3.6	6.0	2.0	25.1	7.2
Ireland	3.3	2.7	1.0	17.1	2.6
Greece	22.6	11.3	13.2	69.0	5.2
Spain	8.1	10.4	2.3	35.4	6.3
France	3.4	0.2	0.5	11.7	4.9
Italy	8.1	9.2	3.1	28.6	8.3
Cyprus	2.0	1.3	0.4	13.4	0.7
Latvia	9.3	14.0	8.0	17.4	9.9
Lithuania	4.8	5.8	4.5	8.4	7.5
Luxembourg	3.7	1.6	0.3	14.3	2.6
Hungary	11.6	18.9	7.8	48.7	16.9
Malta	3.8	7.2	2.4	31.3	3.8
Netherlands	13.8	11.2	6.1	20.7	9.3
Austria	4.7	1.6	1.4	10.4	6.8
Poland	9.7	7.3	8.8	26.6	10.6
Portugal	8.2	13.1	3.8	19.0	3.2
Romania	18.9	15.0	18.1	72.8	28.8
Slovenia	4.4	17.4	2.9	15.2	4.2
Slovakia	6.0	3.7	5.2	11.6	20.5
Finland	4.8	3.2	2.3	13.3	8.7
Sweden	8.6	2.1	8.9	19.8	26.5
United Kingdom	16.7	12.6	9.7	39.6	26.1
Iceland	10.6	11.7	5.9	14.2	4.5
Norway	11.0	11.0	4.8	30.7	5.0

Source: Eurostat (ilc_lvho07c and ilc_lvho07a)



6.3 Social protection

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. This subchapter analyses recent statistics on social protection in the European Union (EU).

Main statistical findings

Social protection expenditure in the EU-27 was equivalent to 26.2 % of gross domestic product (GDP) in 2007 (see Table 6.4). Among the Member States its share was highest in France (30.5 %) and Sweden (29.7 %), and was higher than 25 % in ten of the EU-15 Member States. In contrast, social protection expenditure represented less than 20 % of GDP in all of the Member States that joined the EU in 2004 or 2007 with the exceptions of Slovenia and Hungary, and was also below 20 % in Ireland (18.9 %) and Luxembourg (19.3 %).

The use of a purchasing power standard (PPS) allows a comparison of social protection expenditure per inhabitant between countries, taking account of differences in price levels. The highest level of expenditure on social protection per inhabitant in 2007 was registered for Luxembourg (PPS 13 231 per inhabitant), followed some way behind by the Netherlands, Sweden, Belgium, Austria, Denmark and France – where social protection per inhabitant was between PPS 8 200 and PPS 9 300 (see Figure 6.12). In contrast, expenditure in

Latvia, Bulgaria and Romania was less than PPS 2 000 per inhabitant. These disparities between countries are partly related to different levels of wealth, but may also reflect differences in social protection systems, demographic trends, unemployment rates and other social, institutional and economic factors.

Among social protection benefits (the largest component of total expenditure), a majority of the EU-27's expenditure was directed towards old age benefits (for example, pensions) or to sickness and healthcare benefits; together these two items accounted for close to 70 % of total EU-27 benefits in 2007 (see Figure 6.13). Benefits related to family/children, disabilities, survivors and unemployment each accounted for shares of between 5 % and 8 % of total expenditure in the EU-27, while housing accounted for 2.3 %.

Expenditure on pensions across the EU-27 was equivalent to 11.8 % of GDP in 2007, ranging from 14.6 % in Italy to 5.2 % in Ireland (see Figure 6.14). Expenditure on care for the elderly accounted for 0.5 % of GDP in the same year, although Sweden reported a rate that was almost five times as high; expenditure on the elderly fell to less than 0.1 % of GDP in Greece, Estonia, Belgium, Bulgaria, Romania and Cyprus (see Figure 6.15).

Average (median) pension levels of 65 to 74 year olds were generally lower than average earnings of those aged 50 to 59 in 2008 (see Figure 6.16). This was particularly the case in Latvia,



Cyprus and Bulgaria where pensions represented around one third of the earnings among those aged 50 to 59. This aggregate replacement ratio was highest in Austria, France, Sweden and Hungary, where it was above 60 %. It should be borne in mind that relatively low ratios may reflect low coverage and/or low income replacement from statutory pension schemes and maturing pension systems, as well as incomplete careers or an under-declaration of earnings.

A breakdown of social protection receipts across the EU-27 in 2007 shows that the majority of receipts could be attributed to employers' social contributions (38.5 %) and general government contributions (38.0 %); one fifth (20.0 %) of all EU-27 receipts were funded by contributions made by protected persons (see Figure 6.17).

Data sources and availability

Data on social protection expenditure and receipts are drawn up according to the European system of integrated social protection statistics (ESSPROS) methodology; this system has been designed to allow a comparison of social protection flows between Member States. In April 2007, a legal basis was established for the provision of ESSPROS with the delivery of data to start from reference year 2006, as provided by a European Parliament and Council Regulation 458/2007; this was later supplemented by two European Commission implementing Regulations (1322/2007 and 10/2008).

Expenditure on social protection includes: social benefits, administration

costs (which represent the costs charged to the scheme for its management and administration) and other expenditure (which consists of miscellaneous expenditure by social protection schemes, principally, payment of property income).

Social protection benefits are direct transfers, in cash or in kind, by social protection schemes to households and individuals to relieve them of the burden of one or more of the defined risks or needs. Social benefits are paid to households by social security funds, other government units, NPISHs (non-profit institutions serving households), employers administering unfunded social insurance schemes, insurance enterprises, or other institutional units administering privately funded social insurance schemes. Benefits are classified according to eight social protection functions (which represent a set of risks or needs):

- sickness/healthcare benefits – including paid sick leave, medical care and the provision of pharmaceutical products;
- disability benefits – including disability pensions and the provision of goods and services (other than medical care) to the disabled;
- old age benefits – including old age pensions and the provision of goods and services (other than medical care) to the elderly;
- survivors' benefits – including income maintenance and support in connection with the death of a family member, such as survivors' pensions;
- family/children benefits – including support (except healthcare) in connection with the costs of preg-



- nancy, childbirth, childbearing and caring for other family members;
- unemployment benefits – including vocational training financed by public agencies;
- housing benefits – including interventions by public authorities to help households meet the cost of housing;
- social exclusion benefits not elsewhere classified – including income support, rehabilitation of alcohol and drug abusers and other miscellaneous benefits (except healthcare).

The pensions aggregate comprises part of periodic cash benefits under the disability, old age, survivors and unemployment functions. It is defined as the sum of the following social benefits: disability pension, early-retirement benefit due to reduced capacity to work, old age pension, anticipated old age pension, partial pension, survivors' pension, and early-retirement benefit for labour market reasons.

Expenditure on care for the elderly is defined as the percentage share of social protection expenditure devoted to old age care in GDP. These expenditures cover care allowance, accommodation, and assistance in carrying out daily tasks.

Pension systems can also play a key role in allowing retirees to maintain living standards they previously enjoyed in the later years of their working lives. The aggregate replacement ratio measures the difference between gross retirement benefits and gross earnings. It is defined as the median individual gross pensions of those aged 65 to 74 relative to median individual gross earnings of those aged 50 to 59, excluding other social benefits; it is expressed in percentage terms.

The schemes responsible for providing social protection are financed in different ways. Social protection receipts comprise social security contributions paid by employers and protected persons, contributions by general government, and other receipts from a variety of sources (for example, interest, dividends, rent and claims against third parties). Social contributions by employers are all costs incurred by employers to secure entitlement to social benefits for their employees, former employees and their dependants; they can be paid by resident or non-resident employers. They include all payments by employers to social protection institutions (actual contributions) and social benefits paid directly by employers to employees (imputed contributions). Social contributions made by protected persons comprise contributions paid by employees, by the self-employed and by pensioners and other persons.

Context

Social protection systems are highly developed in the EU: they are designed to protect people against the risks and needs associated with unemployment, parental responsibilities, sickness/healthcare and invalidity, the loss of a spouse or parent, old age, housing and social exclusion (not elsewhere classified). The main challenge that is likely to face social protection systems in the coming years is that of demographic change, in particular the ageing of Europe's population.

The organisation and financing of social protection systems is the responsibility of each of the Member States. The model used in each Member State is therefore somewhat different, while the EU plays



a coordinating role to ensure that people who move across borders continue to receive adequate protection. This role also promotes actions among the Member States to combat poverty and social exclusion, and to reform social protection systems on the basis of policy ex-

changes and mutual learning. This policy is known as the social protection and social inclusion process – it underpins the Europe 2020 strategy and will play an important role as Europe seeks to become a smart, sustainable and inclusive economy.

Table 6.4: Expenditure on social protection
(% of GDP)

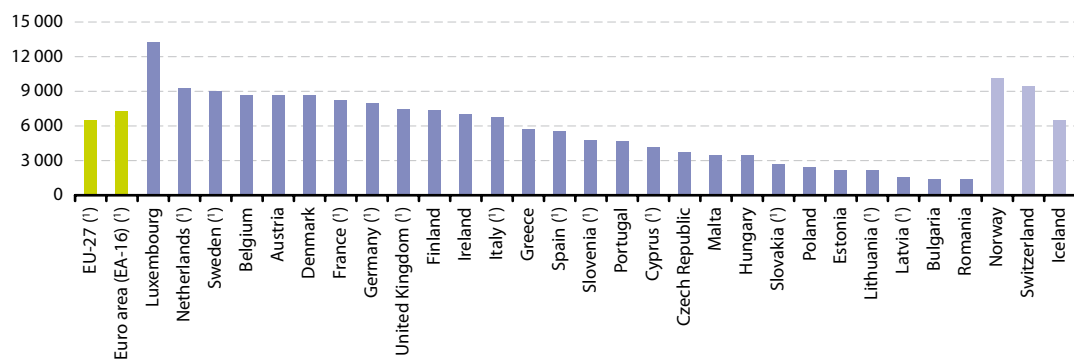
	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
EU (¹)	27.4	27.0	26.9	26.5	26.7	27.0	27.4	27.2	27.1	26.7	26.2
Euro area (EA-16)	:	:	:	26.7	26.8	27.4	27.8	27.7	27.7	27.4	27.0
Belgium	27.4	27.1	27.0	26.5	27.3	28.0	29.0	29.2	29.6	30.2	29.5
Bulgaria	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	16.0	14.9	15.1
Czech Republic	18.6	18.5	19.2	19.5	19.4	20.2	20.2	19.3	19.2	18.7	18.6
Denmark	30.1	30.0	29.8	28.9	29.2	29.7	30.9	30.7	30.2	29.3	28.9
Germany	29.0	28.9	29.2	29.3	29.4	30.1	30.4	29.8	29.7	28.7	27.7
Estonia	:	:	:	13.9	13.0	12.7	12.5	13.0	12.6	12.3	12.5
Ireland	16.4	15.2	14.6	13.9	14.9	17.5	17.9	18.1	18.2	18.3	18.9
Greece	20.8	21.7	22.7	23.5	24.3	24.0	23.5	23.5	24.6	24.5	24.4
Spain	20.8	20.2	19.8	20.3	20.0	20.4	20.6	20.7	20.9	20.9	21.0
France	30.4	30.1	29.9	29.5	29.6	30.4	30.9	31.3	31.4	30.7	30.5
Italy	24.9	24.6	24.8	24.7	24.9	25.3	25.8	26.0	26.4	26.6	26.7
Cyprus	:	:	:	14.8	14.9	16.3	18.4	18.1	18.4	18.4	18.5
Latvia	15.3	16.1	17.2	15.3	14.3	13.9	13.8	12.9	12.4	12.3	11.0
Lithuania	13.7	15.1	16.3	15.8	14.7	14.0	13.5	13.3	13.1	13.2	14.3
Luxembourg	21.5	21.2	20.5	19.6	20.9	21.6	22.1	22.3	21.7	20.3	19.3
Hungary	:	:	20.3	19.6	19.2	20.3	21.2	20.6	21.9	22.4	22.3
Malta	18.0	17.9	17.8	16.9	17.8	17.8	18.3	18.8	18.6	18.2	18.1
Netherlands	28.7	27.8	27.1	26.4	26.5	27.6	28.3	28.3	27.9	28.8	28.4
Austria	28.8	28.4	29.0	28.4	28.8	29.2	29.6	29.3	28.9	28.5	28.0
Poland	:	:	:	19.7	21.0	21.1	21.0	20.1	19.7	19.4	18.1
Portugal	20.3	20.9	21.4	21.7	22.7	23.7	24.1	24.7	25.3	25.4	24.8
Romania	:	:	:	13.0	12.8	13.6	13.0	12.7	13.2	12.5	12.8
Slovenia	23.9	24.1	24.1	24.2	24.5	24.4	23.7	23.4	23.0	22.7	21.4
Slovakia	19.8	20.0	20.2	19.4	19.0	19.1	18.2	17.2	16.5	16.3	16.0
Finland	29.1	27.0	26.3	25.1	24.9	25.7	26.6	26.7	26.8	26.2	25.4
Sweden	32.2	31.4	31.0	30.1	30.8	31.6	32.6	32.0	31.5	30.7	29.7
United Kingdom	26.9	26.3	25.7	26.4	26.8	25.7	25.7	25.9	26.3	26.1	25.3
Iceland	18.5	18.3	18.8	19.2	19.4	21.2	23.0	22.6	21.6	21.2	21.5
Norway	25.1	26.9	26.9	24.4	25.4	26.0	27.2	25.9	23.8	22.6	22.8
Switzerland	27.3	27.4	27.4	27.0	27.7	28.5	29.2	29.3	29.3	28.0	27.3

(¹) EU-15 for 1997-1999; EU-25 for 2000-2004; EU-27 for 2005-2007.

Source: Eurostat (tps00098)



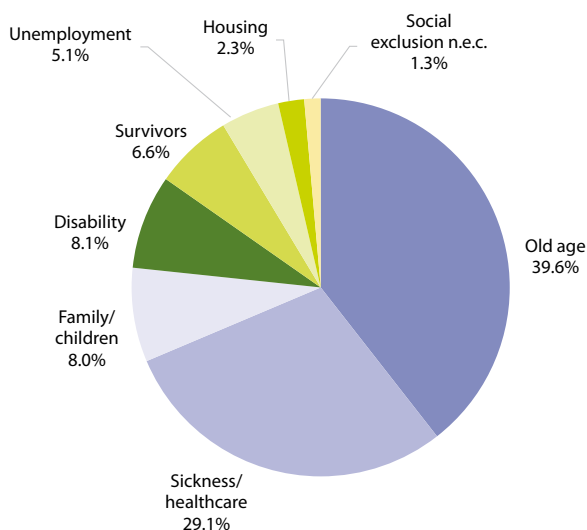
Figure 6.12: Expenditure on social protection per inhabitant, 2007 (PPS)



(*) Provisional.

Source: Eurostat (tps00100)

Figure 6.13: Social benefits, EU-27, 2007 (*)
(%, based on PPS)

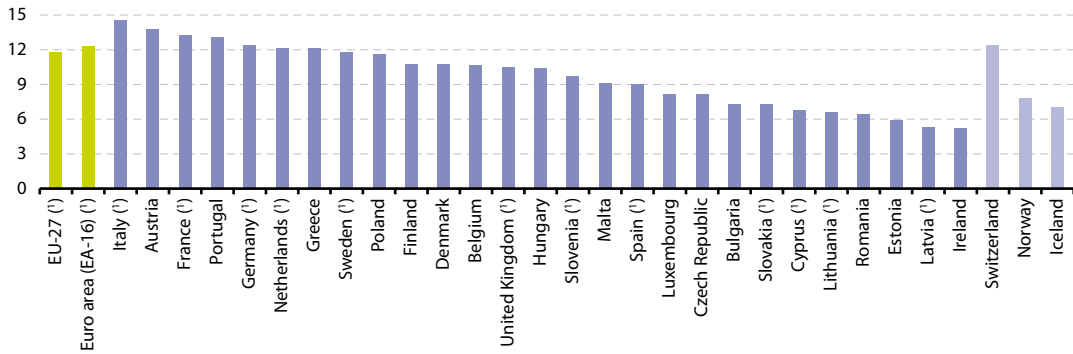


(*) Provisional; figures do not sum to 100 % due to rounding.

Source: Eurostat (tps00107)



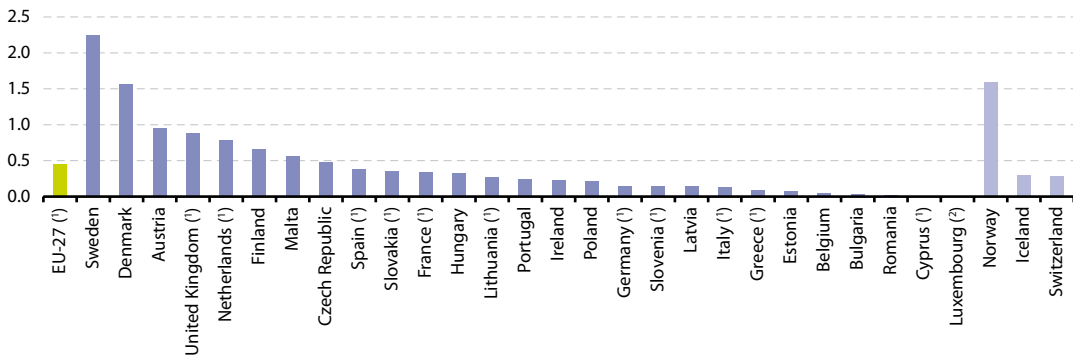
Figure 6.14: Expenditure on pensions, 2007
(% of GDP)



(¹) Provisional.

Source: Eurostat (tps00103)

Figure 6.15: Expenditure on care for the elderly, 2007
(% of GDP)



(¹) Provisional.

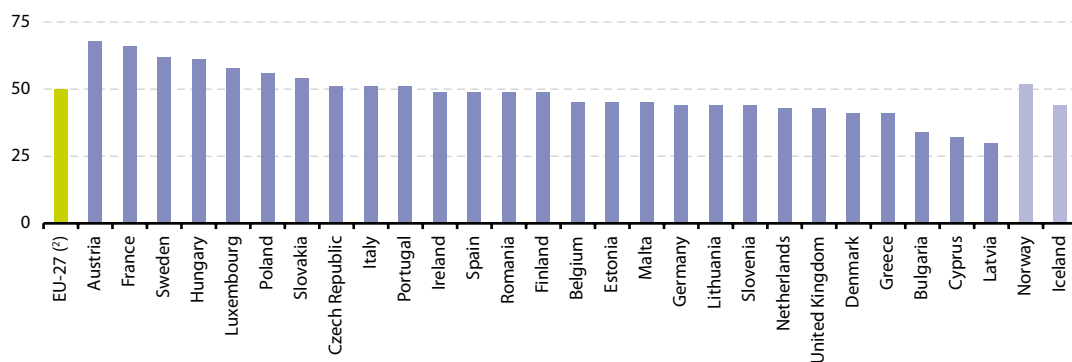
(²) Not available: expenditure was recorded together with similar benefits under the disability function as the split between old-age and disability was not available.

Source: Eurostat (tsdde530)



Figure 6.16: Aggregate replacement ratio, 2008 ⁽¹⁾

(%)



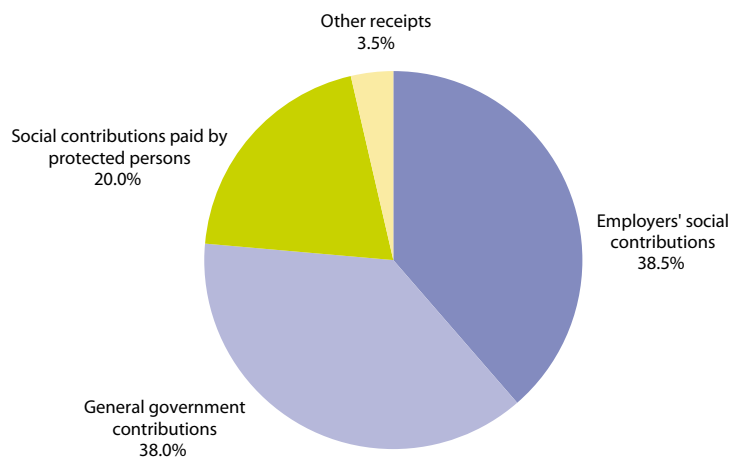
⁽¹⁾ The income reference period concerns the year preceding the survey year for the majority of countries.

⁽²⁾ Eurostat calculation based on population-weighted averages of national data.

Source: Eurostat ([ilc_pnp3](#))

Figure 6.17: Social protection receipts, EU-27, 2007 ⁽¹⁾

(% of total receipts)



⁽¹⁾ Provisional.

Source: Eurostat ([tps00108](#))



6.4 Crime

Statistics that are currently available on crime and criminal justice reflect the diversity of policing and legal systems within the European Union (EU). While the development of crime and criminal justice statistics is still in its infancy, a more comparable system is in the process of being developed.

Comparisons of crime statistics between Member States should ideally be based on trends over time, rather than direct comparisons of levels between countries, given that the data presented can be affected by a range of issues, including different levels of criminalisation, the efficiency of criminal justice systems, and police recording practices; furthermore, it is likely that a relatively high proportion of crime remains unrecorded.

Main statistical findings

There were 1.7 million police officers in the EU-27 in 2007, which marked an overall increase of nearly 6 % when compared with five years earlier (see Table 6.5). There were some quite rapid changes in the size of national police forces during the period from 1997 to 2007, with expansions of at least 20 % recorded for Italy (to 2006), Cyprus and Luxembourg (where the highest overall growth was registered, at 36.0 %). On the other hand, the size of the police force was reduced by more than a fifth in each of the Baltic Member States, and by as much as 28 % in Slovakia (again between 1997 and 2007).

There were an estimated 29 million crimes recorded by the police within the EU-27 in 2007 (see Table 6.6). From 1999, the number of recorded crimes in

the EU-27 rose to a peak around 2002, but subsequently fell each year through to 2007. In recent years (from the peak in recorded crime in the EU in 2003 through to 2007), the number of recorded crimes has fallen in a number of Member States; particularly in Poland, the United Kingdom, Malta, Lithuania and the Netherlands, where recorded crime fell by more than 10 % during the period under consideration.

The EU-27 prison population rose by 1.3 % per year during the period 1997 to 2006 to reach a total of almost 600 000, which equated to 0.12 % of the EU's population; for comparison, the prison population of the United States was some 0.79 % of the total population (see Table 6.7).

When expressed in relation to total population, the Baltic Member States and Poland had more than 200 prisoners per 100 000 inhabitants. At the other end of the range, the Nordic countries of Finland, Denmark and Sweden (as well as Iceland and Norway among non-member countries), Slovenia and Ireland (2006), each reported less than 75 prisoners per 100 000 inhabitants in 2007.

Data sources and availability

Eurostat publishes statistics on crime and criminal justice systems from 1950 onwards for the total number of recorded crimes, and from 1993 onwards for a set of specific offences. In addition, the database also includes statistics for prison populations from 1987 onwards and the number of police officers from 1993 onwards. Figures for the United Kingdom are reported separately (as there are three



separate jurisdictions for England and Wales, Scotland, and Northern Ireland); these have been summed together for the purpose of this subchapter.

Comparisons of crime statistics between countries may be affected by a range of factors, including:

- different legal and criminal justice systems;
- the rates at which crimes are reported to the police and recorded by them;
- differences in the timing of recording crimes (for example, when reported to the police, when a suspect is identified, etc.);
- differences in the rules by which multiple offences are counted;
- differences in the list of offences that are included in the overall crime figures.

Consequently, care should be taken when analysing the information presented.

Figures for the prison population may also be affected by a range of factors, including:

- the number of cases dealt with by the courts;
- the percentage of convicted criminals given a custodial sentence;
- the length of the sentences imposed; the size of the population on remand;
- the date at which the survey was conducted (especially where amnesties or other early release arrangements might apply).

The prison population is measured as the total number of adult and juvenile prisoners (including pre-trial detainees) as of 1 September each year. The figures

include offenders held in prison administration facilities, juvenile offenders' institutions, drug addicts' institutions and psychiatric or other hospitals.

As a general rule, comparisons should be based upon trends rather than upon levels, on the assumption that the characteristics of the recording system within a country remain fairly constant over time. There are, however, a large number of breaks in time series and other methodological/definitional changes – more information is available through the dedicated section on crime and criminal justice statistics on the Eurostat website.

Context

The progressive elimination of border controls within the EU has considerably facilitated the free movement of European citizens, but may have also made it easier for criminals to operate, especially since the scope of law enforcement authorities and criminal justice systems is generally limited to the boundaries of national borders.

Since the adoption of the Amsterdam Treaty, the EU has set itself the objective of providing a common area of freedom, security and justice. This goal was further developed by the Hague programme in 2004, which outlined ten priority areas: strengthening fundamental rights and citizenship; anti-terrorist measures; defining a balanced approach to migration; developing integrated management of the EU's external borders; setting up a common asylum procedure; maximising the positive impact of immigration; striking the right balance between privacy and security while sharing information;



developing a strategic concept on tackling organised crime; ensuring a genuine European area of justice; and sharing responsibility and solidarity.

As part of the work to harmonise and develop crime and criminal justice systems, EU Member States agreed to approximate the definitions of offences and the level of sanctions for certain type of offences. Furthermore, mutual recognition of decisions taken by national judges is set to become the cornerstone of judicial cooperation in criminal matters, with a range of tools having been developed to facilitate practical cooperation across borders.

With respect to police cooperation, the EU seeks to grant law enforcement authorities in each of the Member States access to relevant information (such as DNA, fingerprint, vehicle registration or immigration databases), and to improve police cooperation within a common framework for the protection of personal data. Access to information is covered by a raft of legislation, including the Data Retention Directive (Directive 2006/24/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council), the Swedish Framework Decision (Council framework Decision 2006/960/JHA), the Prüm Decision (Council Decision 2008/615/JHA) and a Regulation of the European Parliament and of the Council (767/2008) concerning a visa information system (VIS) and the exchange of data between Member States.

Police cooperation has been encouraged through legislation such as, a Framework Decision on Joint Investigation Teams (Council framework Decision 2002/465/JHA), and a Decision on improved coop-

eration between special intervention units (Council Decision 2008/617/JHA), while a range of organisations/bodies have been created to aid cooperation between different law enforcement agencies, such as the European Police College (CEPOL), the European Police Office (Europol), or the European agency for the management of operational cooperation at the external borders of the Member States of the EU (Frontex). Furthermore, the EU supports a range of national and multi-national projects, through programmes such as the 'Prevention of and fight against crime' (Council Decision 2007/125/JHA).

The first steps towards a more comparable system of crime and criminal justice statistics was outlined in a European Commission Communication (COM/2006/437), titled 'Developing a comprehensive and coherent EU strategy to measure crime and criminal justice: an EU action plan 2006-2010'. In the short term, its objective was to collect national data and to assess its quality. However, the longer-term goal is for the European Commission's Directorate-General for Home Affairs, in close collaboration with Eurostat, to develop a harmonised methodology, on which the collection of EU-wide statistics should be based, allowing comparisons of the structure and trends of crime between Member States.

Particular progress has been made in the collection of statistics related to the police and in the development of a common victimisation survey. The collection of data relating to money laundering is underway, and subsequent priorities include information on the trafficking of human beings, corruption and cybercrime.



Table 6.5: Police officers

	Police officers (units)			Police officers (per 100 000 inhabitants)		
	1997	2002	2007	1997	2002	2007
EU-27⁽¹⁾ (2)	:	1 611 355	1 703 982	:	339.2	352.3
Belgium	35 613	37 242	38 718	350.2	361.2	365.8
Bulgaria	:	:	:	:	:	:
Czech Republic	43 722	45 538	44 101	424.1	446.2	428.7
Denmark	9 837	10 233	10 620	186.5	190.6	195.0
Germany	229 424	247 190	250 353	279.7	299.8	304.1
Estonia	4 400	3 503	3 247	312.9	257.3	241.9
Ireland (2)	10 968	11 895	12 954	300.1	305.0	307.8
Greece	44 183	51 634	51 152	411.2	470.7	457.9
Spain	:	190 119	214 935	:	464.1	483.3
France (3)	224 693	235 116	238 478	386.6	393.9	385.9
Italy (2)	261 082	272 282	324 339	459.0	477.7	552.1
Cyprus	4 092	4 531	5 139	614.1	642.2	660.0
Latvia	11 067	10 265	8 222	452.7	437.6	360.4
Lithuania	14 559	11 678	11 173	405.8	336.0	330.1
Luxembourg	1 117	1 254	1 519	268.0	282.4	319.0
Hungary	29 532	28 996	26 334	286.7	285.0	261.6
Malta	:	1 796	1 933	:	455.1	474.0
Netherlands	31 884	36 766	35 923	204.8	228.3	219.6
Austria	26 291	27 798	26 623	330.1	344.7	321.4
Poland	100 201	99 502	98 337	259.3	260.2	257.9
Portugal	44 448	48 060	51 779	441.3	465.3	488.5
Romania	50 261	45 245	45 391	222.6	207.2	210.5
Slovenia	6 815	7 392	7 971	343.0	370.7	396.5
Slovakia	19 577	13 997	14 134	364.0	260.2	262.1
Finland	7 843	8 284	8 156	152.8	159.5	154.6
Sweden	16 783	16 149	17 866	189.8	181.3	196.0
United Kingdom	142 208	144 890	156 735	244.2	244.7	257.9
Iceland	:	678	683	:	236.6	222.0
Liechtenstein	:	79	93	:	235.6	264.4
Norway	7 404	8 221	7 453	168.6	181.7	159.2
Switzerland	14 210	15 073	16 808	200.7	207.7	223.8
Croatia	23 130	19 537	20 424	510.3	439.6	459.9
FYR of Macedonia	:	:	9 599	:	:	470.1
Turkey	304 265	370 095	329 533	479.3	537.6	472.9
Japan	226 401	233 251	:	:	:	:
United States	618 127	666 555	699 850	:	:	:

(1) Excluding French overseas departments and territories.

(2) 2006 instead of 2007.

(3) Excluding overseas departments and territories.

Source: Eurostat ([crim_plce](#) and [tps00001](#))



Table 6.6: Crimes recorded by the police
(1 000)

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
EU-27⁽¹⁾	:	:	:	28 614	29 613	30 677	30 864	30 254	29 840	29 660	29 172
Belgium ⁽²⁾	:	:	:	1 002	959	1 008	1 001	1 005	990	1 010	1 003
Bulgaria ⁽²⁾	228	159	145	149	147	147	144	142	138	136	135
Czech Republic	404	426	427	391	359	372	358	352	344	336	357
Denmark	531	499	494	504	473	492	486	474	433	425	445
Germany	6 586	6 457	6 302	6 265	6 364	6 507	6 572	6 633	6 392	6 304	6 285
Estonia ⁽³⁾	41	46	52	58	58	53	54	53	53	52	50
Ireland ⁽⁴⁾	91	86	81	73	87	106	103	99	102	103	:
Greece	:	386	374	369	440	441	442	406	456	464	423
Spain ⁽⁵⁾	:	1 866	1 896	1 853	2 052	2 183	2 144	2 141	2 231	2 267	2 310
France ⁽⁶⁾	3 493	3 566	3 568	3 772	4 062	4 114	3 975	3 825	3 776	3 726	3 589
Italy ⁽⁷⁾	2 441	2 426	2 374	2 206	2 164	2 232	2 457	2 418	2 579	2 771	2 933
Cyprus ⁽⁸⁾	4	4	4	4	5	5	7	8	7	8	8
Latvia ⁽⁹⁾	37	37	44	50	51	49	52	62	51	62	56
Lithuania ⁽⁹⁾	76	78	77	82	79	73	79	84	82	75	68
Luxembourg ⁽¹⁰⁾	24	27	27	23	23	26	26	27	25	26	28
Hungary	514	601	506	451	466	421	413	419	437	426	427
Malta	:	15	16	17	16	17	18	18	19	17	15
Netherlands	1 220	1 235	1 303	1 329	1 379	1 402	1 369	1 319	1 255	1 218	1 215
Austria ⁽¹⁰⁾	482	480	493	560	523	592	643	644	605	589	594
Poland	992	1 073	1 122	1 267	1 390	1 404	1 467	1 461	1 380	1 288	1 153
Portugal	322	341	363	363	372	392	417	416	392	399	400
Romania	361	399	364	354	340	312	277	232	208	233	281
Slovenia ⁽¹¹⁾	37	55	62	68	75	77	77	87	84	90	88
Slovakia	92	94	94	89	93	107	112	131	124	115	111
Finland	374	383	372	386	361	365	367	354	340	325	344
Sweden	1 196	1 181	1 194	1 215	1 189	1 235	1 255	1 249	1 242	1 225	1 306
United Kingdom ⁽¹²⁾	5 081	5 650	5 856	5 714	6 086	6 544	6 549	6 194	6 096	5 969	5 445
Iceland ⁽⁵⁾	:	:	:	19	19	20	18	17	12	13	13
Liechtenstein	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Norway	285	294	292	307	300	320	304	288	276	277	272
Switzerland	383	378	355	317	322	357	379	389	353	335	326
Croatia	55	56	58	68	78	78	80	85	80	81	76
FYR of Macedonia	:	:	:	20	17	18	23	23	23	22	26
Turkey ⁽¹³⁾	357	357	339	340	414	459	499	533	674	987	963
Japan	1 900	2 034	2 166	2 443	2 736	2 854	2 790	2 563	2 269	2 051	:
United States	13 195	12 486	11 634	11 608	11 877	11 879	11 827	11 679	11 565	11 402	11 252

(1) Excluding French overseas departments and territories; the figure for 2007 is calculated using data for Ireland for 2006; care should be taken in interpreting the time-series due to a large number of breaks in series.

(2) Break in series, 1999.

(3) Break in series, 2002 and 2005.

(4) Break in series, 1999 and 2006.

(5) Break in series, 2004.

(6) Excluding overseas departments and territories.

(7) Break in series, 2003.

(8) Break in series, 2002.

(9) Break in series, 2003, 2004 and 2005.

(10) Break in series, 1999 and 2001.

(11) Break in series, 1999 and 2002.

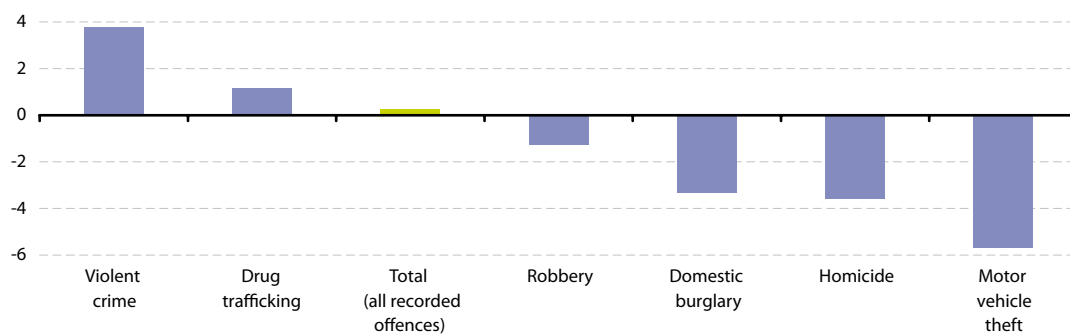
(12) Break in series, 2001 and 2003.

(13) Break in series, 2004 and 2005.

Source: Eurostat (crim_gen)



Figure 6.18: Recorded crimes, EU-27, 2000-2007 ⁽¹⁾
(%, average annual change)



⁽¹⁾ EU-27 excluding French overseas departments and territories; total recorded crimes including data for Ireland for 2006 instead of 2007; drug trafficking, also excluding Malta; violent crime, also excluding Cyprus and Malta; care should be taken in interpreting the time-series due to a large number of breaks in series.

Source: Eurostat ([crim_gen](#))

**Table 6.7:** Prison population

	Prison population (units)			Prison population (per 100 000 inhabitants)		
	1997	2002	2007	1997	2002	2007
EU-27 ⁽¹⁾(²)	535 592	588 772	599 829	111.9	121.9	122.1
Belgium	8 156	8 605	9 950	80.2	83.5	94.0
Bulgaria	11 847	9 607	10 792	142.0	121.7	140.5
Czech Republic	21 560	16 597	19 110	209.1	162.6	185.8
Denmark	3 170	3 435	3 646	60.1	64.0	66.9
Germany ⁽³⁾	68 029	75 025	73 319	82.9	91.0	89.1
Estonia	4 638	4 775	3 486	329.9	350.8	259.7
Ireland ⁽²⁾	2 424	3 028	3 053	66.3	77.6	72.5
Greece ⁽²⁾ (⁴)	5 577	8 284	10 280	51.9	75.5	92.4
Spain	43 453	50 537	67 100	109.9	123.4	150.9
France ⁽⁵⁾	54 442	53 463	60 403	93.7	89.6	97.7
Italy	50 527	55 670	48 693	88.8	97.7	82.3
Cyprus	263	351	671	39.5	49.7	86.2
Latvia	12 736	8 358	6 548	520.9	356.3	287.0
Lithuania	13 205	11 345	7 770	368.0	326.4	229.6
Luxembourg	443	391	666	106.3	88.1	139.9
Hungary	13 405	17 838	14 743	130.1	175.3	146.5
Malta	254	283	382	67.9	71.7	93.7
Netherlands	11 770	13 060	14 450	75.6	81.1	88.3
Austria ⁽³⁾	6 946	7 511	8 887	87.2	93.1	107.3
Poland	57 424	80 990	90 199	148.6	211.8	236.6
Portugal	14 167	13 772	11 587	140.6	133.3	109.3
Romania	45 121	48 075	29 390	199.8	220.2	136.3
Slovenia	768	1 120	1 336	38.7	56.2	66.5
Slovakia	7 656	7 849	8 235	142.3	145.9	152.7
Finland	2 836	3 469	3 370	55.3	66.8	63.9
Sweden	5 221	6 506	6 740	59.0	73.0	74.0
United Kingdom	69 554	78 828	88 590	119.4	133.1	145.8
Iceland	:	107	115	:	37.3	37.4
Liechtenstein	82	67	38	263.3	199.9	108.1
Norway	2 536	2 832	3 420	57.7	62.6	73.1
Switzerland ⁽³⁾	5 428	4 937	5 715	76.7	68.0	76.1
Croatia	:	2 641	4 290	:	59.4	96.6
FYR of Macedonia ⁽²⁾	965	1 291	2 090	48.5	63.3	102.5
Turkey	60 843	59 512	90 732	95.8	86.5	130.2
Japan ⁽⁶⁾	50 091	67 354	77 932	:	:	:
United States	1 743 643	2 033 331	2 375 615	:	:	:

(¹) Excluding French overseas departments and territories; care should be taken in interpreting the development over time due to a large number of breaks in series.

(²) 2006 instead of 2007.

(³) Break in series, 1997-2002.

(⁴) Break in series, 1997-2002 and 2002-2007.

(⁵) Excluding overseas departments and territories; break in series, 2002-2007.

(⁶) 2005 instead of 2007.

Source: Eurostat (crim_pris and tps00001)