

EUROPEAN COMMISSION

CANDIDATE COUNTRIES
EUROBAROMETER
2002.1

SOCIAL SITUATION IN THE COUNTRIES
APPLYING FOR EUROPEAN UNION
MEMBERSHIP

OCTOBER 2002

DRAWN UP BY:
THE GALLUP ORGANIZATION, BUDAPEST

Release: October 2002

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Introducing the Candidate Countries Eurobarometer

The European Commission has launched series of surveys in the 13 countries that are applying for European Union membership. The objective of the Candidate Countries Eurobarometer is to gather information from the future member states in a way that allows direct comparison with the Standard Eurobarometer carried out in the existing EU. Using this new tool, the Commission is able to provide decision makers and the European public with opinion data that helps them to understand similarities and differences between the EU and the Applicant Countries. The Candidate Countries Eurobarometer will continuously track support for EU membership, and changes in attitudes related to European issues in the applicant countries. In the course of the next few years, a series of Applicant Countries Eurobarometer reports are planned to be released; these are the first results in this series.

This summary report presents the results of the surveys conducted during late March - early April period in 2002 in the 13 Candidate Countries: Bulgaria, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, Romania, Slovakia, Slovenia and Turkey. In Cyprus, the survey only covers citizens living on the southern part of the island.

An identical set of questions was asked of representative samples of the population aged fifteen years and over in each Candidate Country. The regular sample in Candidate Countries Eurobarometer surveys is 1000 people per country except Malta and Cyprus (500). For this study a 2000 sample was used in Poland and Turkey to achieve better coverage.

In each of the 13 Candidate Countries, the survey is carried out by national institutes associated with and coordinated by The Gallup Organization, Hungary. This network of institutes was selected by tender. All institutes are members of the "European Society for Opinion and Marketing Research" (ESOMAR) and comply with its standards.

The figures shown in this report for each of the Candidate Countries are weighted by sex, age, region, size of locality, education level, and marital status. The figures given for the Candidate Countries as a whole (CC-13) are weighted on the basis of the adult population in each country. Due to the rounding of figures in certain cases, the total percentage in a table or graph does not always add up exactly to 100%, but a number very close to it (e.g. 99 or 101). When questions allow for several responses, percentages often add up to more than 100%. Percentages shown in the graphics may display a difference of 1 percentage point compared to the tables because of the way previously rounded percentages are added.

The present survey was ordered by the European Commission, Directorate-General for Employment and Labour.

Types of surveys in the Eurobarometer series

The European Commission (Directorate-General Press and Communication) organizes general public opinion, specific target group, as well as qualitative (group discussion, in-depth interview) surveys in all Member States and, occasionally, in third countries. There are four different types of polls available:

- Traditional standard Eurobarometer surveys with reports published twice a year
- Telephone Flash EB, also used for special target group surveys (e.g. Top Decision Makers)
- Qualitative research ("focus groups"; in-depth interviews)
- Applicant Countries Eurobarometer (replacing the Central and Eastern EB)

The face-to-face general public standard Eurobarometer surveys and the EB Applicant Countries surveys, the telephone Flash EB polls and qualitative research serve primarily to carry out surveys for the different Directorates General and comparable special services of the Commission on their behalf and on their account.

**The Eurobarometer Website address is:
http://europa.eu.int/comm/public_opinion**

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Introduction

This second report of the Candidate Countries Eurobarometer (CC-EB) presents results on several issues related to social situation from the thirteen Candidate Countries. The survey was fielded in all 13 Candidate Countries during March-April 2002. In many instances, the reader will note that the results are compared with those from the 15 Member States of the European Union, to provide comparisons between the EU and the Candidate Countries.

The first -- shorter -- part of the report looks at long-term developments in **public opinion towards the European Union**. Applying adapted versions of the standard indicators used by Eurobarometer surveys, the two key measures -- **support for EU membership** and **perceived benefit from EU membership** -- are presented. The chapter also reports on **voting preferences if a referendum would be held about joining the European Union** in each Candidate Country.

The second part deals with several issues of social situation in the Candidate Region.

Chapter 1 examines levels of **life satisfaction** in each Candidate Country, including experiences of change in subjective well-being concerning the recent past, and expectations for the short-term future. This chapter also looks at satisfaction levels regarding various domains of life.

Chapter 2 profiles **fertility** patterns in the Candidate Region. The chapter begins with examination of attitudes related to childbearing, including ideal family size, childbearing desires, and realizations of fertility expectations. The report outlines the main perceived burdens of realizing childbearing desires as well. Then, the chapter focuses on fertility indicators, such as current family size, age at first birth. We will take a short look on indicators of special interest in this regard; women without children in their reproductive ages, and proportion of females living out of wedlock in each Candidate Country. Finally, we will look at what kind of support people expect from governments to help families with children.

Chapter 3 deals with gender roles in child care across the region as well as perceived **roles of family** in the societies of the Candidate Countries.

Chapter 4 examines the issue of **ageing**, and the **care for the elderly** and those who cannot manage to live independently. This chapter has the results regarding the preferences for community versus residential care of the elderly in the region, we examine the levels of personal involvement of the citizens of each Candidate Country in the care for the elderly or handicapped family members and others, and finally we will profile the opinions concerning financial contribution to the care of these persons; i.e. who should assume the most financial responsibility in this issue.

Chapter 5 gives an overview about the **health** status of the citizens in the Candidate Region, with special focus on health-related behaviours, such as smoking or eating a healthy diet. We will examine proportions of those who suffer from long-standing illness or disability in each of the thirteen countries. Finally, the Chapter profiles satisfaction levels with health services in the region.

Chapter 6 investigates the levels of spatial isolation of people living in countries that are applying for European Union membership, or in other words, their **physical proximity to services**, such as police stations, primary health care, nurseries, or grocery stores.

Chapter 7 gives a detailed overview about the **standard of living** in each Candidate Country. This chapter gives a very detailed picture of levels of poverty in the region as well as presenting the nature of efforts people take to improve their standard of living in each Candidate Country. This includes the examination levels of minimum income, people living below subsistence level, solvency problems of the households, and duration of financial difficulties. The chapter closes with the examination of possession of several goods and commodities across the region.

Chapter 8 deals with **social exclusion and protection**. It investigates the strength of social support networks in each country as well, as different other measures of the level of social exclusion. This chapter profiles citizens' opinion related to government responsibilities to eradicate social exclusion, quality of social services, and sectoral responsibilities in social support. We will also deal with levels voluntary help provided by the inhabitants of the Candidate Region, and rationalizations of reasons of social exclusion.

Chapter 9 deals with levels and dominant forms **social participation** in the Candidate Region.

Chapter 10 examines issues related to **employment**. This chapter reports on economic activity of citizens in the Candidate Region, presents sectoral analyses of employment, and deals with unemployment in more detail, including current levels of unemployment, and history of long-term unemployment in each of the thirteen countries. Later in the chapter we focus on working conditions, dealing with working hours, work intensity, workplace autonomy, attachment to workplace, career opportunities, and finally, consequences of excessive workload.

The report ends with Chapter 11, about **geographical mobility** in the Candidate Region. In this chapter we examine the levels, destinations, and frequency of mobility, reasons for mobility and immobility, and prospects of future mobility, including desired destination, and motivating factors for changing residence in the future. This chapter ends with investigation of links between unemployment and geographical mobility, with emphasis to prospective mobility to the European Union.

▣ ▣ ▣

We wish to thank all interviewers and respondents in the Candidate Countries who have taken part in the survey. Without their participation, this report could not have been written.

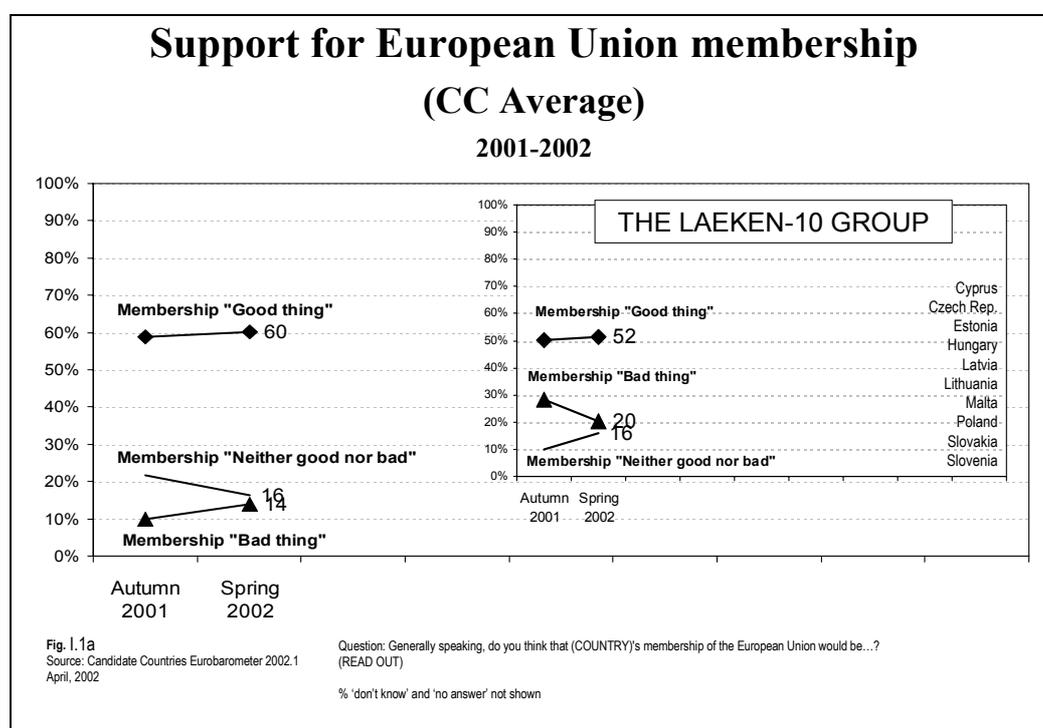
I. The core indicators of support for the European Union membership

In this Chapter, we look at developments in some of the standard indicators of support for the European Union in each of the Candidate Countries. The overall indication is that the citizens of the Candidate Region are now similarly likely to hold views as favourable about the Union as they were in the autumn of 2001, and the vast majority of all countries with the exception of Malta and Latvia would approve the accession of their country to the European Union if a referendum were held on this issue.

1. Support for European Union membership

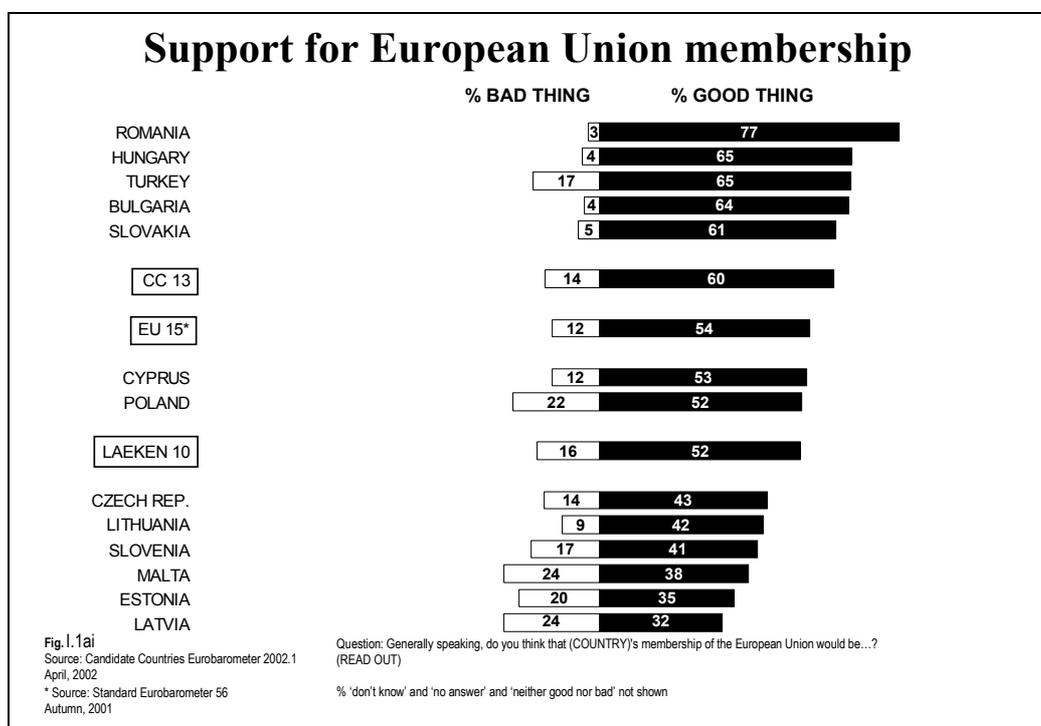
Over a period of six months, support for European Union membership has risen by one percent to 60% in the Candidate Region. Citizens of Candidate Countries are now less likely to regard their country's future membership as neither good nor bad; the neutral stance decreased over the past years (-6 over the past six months). At the same time, the proportion of people who see their country's future membership as a bad thing has increased, and now stands at 14% (+4 since Autumn 2001).

Support for membership is lower in the countries that were named at the Laeken summit to be among those who can join the European Union as soon as 2004¹. The support for European Union membership in the Laeken group stands at 52%, which is 8 percentage points less than the Candidate Region average. Support levels among the Laeken-10 group have risen by 2 percentage points since the autumn of 2001. In this group of countries, the proportion of those who regard EU membership negatively decreased consistently over the past four years, and in the spring of 2002 every fifth citizen of these countries thought that their country's EU membership would be a bad thing (-8).



¹ The Laeken Summit in 2001 concluded that up to ten countries may join in 2004 if the pace of the accession negotiations were to be maintained. The Seville Summit in June 2002 listed the ten possible new members as: Cyprus, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, Slovakia, and Slovenia

Support for EU membership in the Candidate Region has remained at the same level that we observed in the winter of 1999, while support in the Laeken-10 group increased over the same period. (See also individual country graphs, Figures I.1b-n)



The graph above shows that almost 8 in 10 people in Romania (77%) support their country's future membership of the European Union. In Hungary (65%), Turkey (65%), Bulgaria (64%), and Slovakia (61%) more than 6 in 10 people support their country's membership. (Hungary shows the highest levels of support in the Laeken-10 group). Opposition to EU membership ranges from 3% in Romania to 24% in Malta and Latvia, and similarly to the latest results of the Standard Eurobarometer, there is no country in the Candidate Region where those who regard EU membership as a bad thing outnumber those who see it as a good thing. The support for membership of the EU in the candidate region is higher than the support of EU citizens for their own countries' membership of the EU (54%)². Support levels of the Laeken-10 group are somewhat lower than the EU average.

The trend analyses show an increase in support levels since autumn 2001 in Turkey (+6), and Hungary (+6). Though the level of outright support has not changed significantly in Malta, people are now less likely to see their country's membership as a bad thing (-7).

In Bulgaria (-10), the Czech Republic (-3), and Romania (-3) we find a lower percentage of people viewing their country's future membership as a good thing. At the same time, in several countries the proportion of those who regard their country's approaching European Union membership negatively has risen. These countries are Poland (+11), Latvia (+7), Slovenia (+6), Estonia (+6), the Czech Republic (+5), and Turkey (+3).

No significant changes in support have been recorded in Cyprus, Lithuania, and Slovakia. (See Table A1 in the Annex)

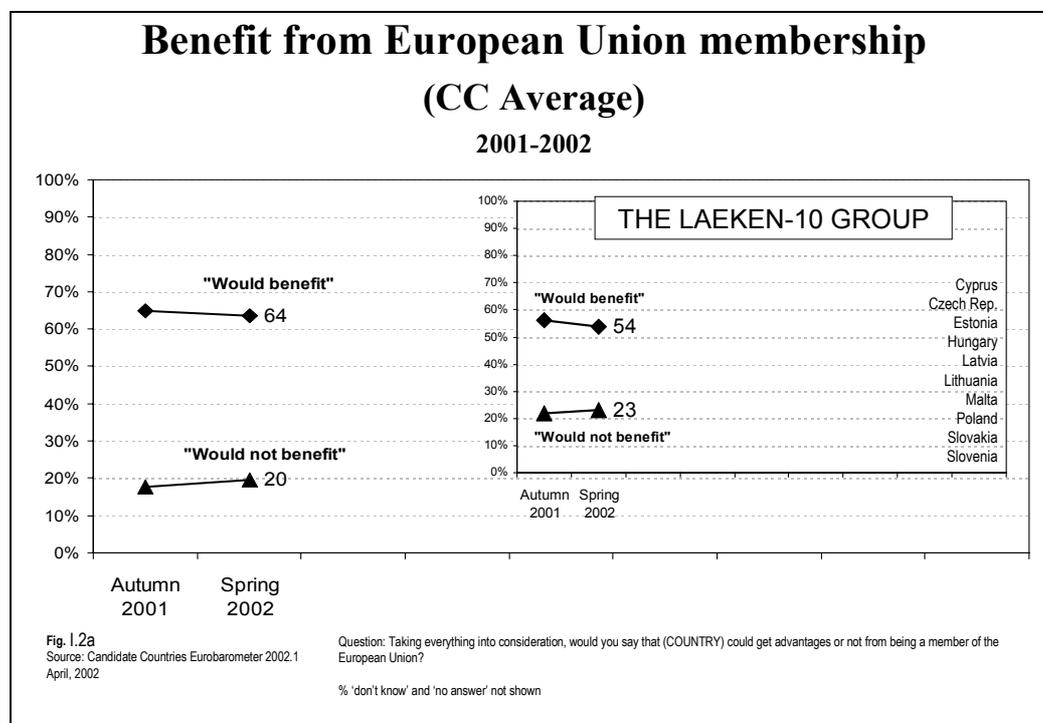
² EB56.1, Autumn 2001

Men regard their country's membership as a good thing more than women do (65% vs. 56%). Education continues to be a powerful explanatory variable of attitudes to the European Union. Levels of support for the European Union increase with education. Only 54% of people who left school aged 15 or younger seeing their country's membership as a good thing compared to 68% of people who left full-time education aged 20 or older or to 74% of those who are still studying. Younger generation is more pro-Europe; those aged 15 to 24 significantly more likely (68%) than those aged 55 and over (52%) to support their country's future membership.

Analyses of the economic activity scale show a gap of 20 percentage points in support levels between managers (73%) on the one hand and retired people (53%) on the other hand. The level of urbanization has a positive effect on people's support of their country's coming membership to the European Union. Levels of support are the lowest in rural areas where only a slim majority regards future membership as a good thing. In contrast, 65% of those living in large cities support the European Union membership of their country.

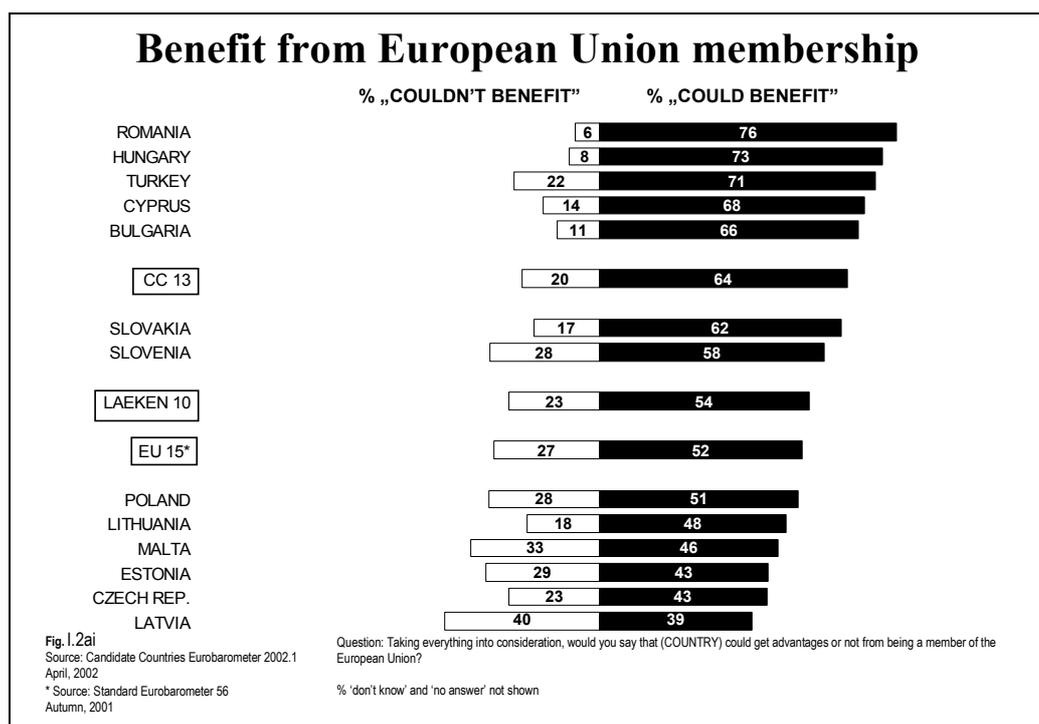
2. Benefit from European Union membership

Nearly two-thirds of citizens of the Candidate Region feel that their country could benefit from EU membership (64%), while exactly 1 in 5 people hold the opposite view (20%). At the CC13 level, a decrease of one percentage point has been recorded since autumn 2001.



As accession date is approaching, there is less conviction that it would bring benefits in the Laeken-10 group. Despite the decrease of 2 percentage points since autumn 2001, a slim majority (54%) of the people still expect that their country would benefit from the coming membership to the European Union. This is only 2 percent more than the average of current member states (52%)³. 23% of the people living in the Laeken-10 countries do not share this positive expectation, and a further 23% are not able to formulate an opinion about this question; in other words, 46% are not convinced over the possible benefits of membership.

³ EB56.1, Autumn 2001



More than 7 in 10 people in Romania (76%), Hungary (73%), and Turkey (71%) now feel their country would benefit. In Cyprus as well, nearly 7 in 10 people feel their country could benefit from membership (69%), followed by Bulgaria (66%).

In all other countries, those who are convinced about possible benefits are in minority relative to the total population. In Lithuania (48%), Malta (46%), Estonia (43%), the Czech Republic (43%), and Latvia (39%) less than half of the people are optimistic, but only in Latvia are those who feel that their country will definitely not benefit in the majority. The proportion of people that lack an opinion ranges from 7% in Turkey to a significant 34% in Lithuania and the Czech Republic. (See also individual country graphs, Figures 1.2b-n)

Among all 13 Candidate Countries, this figure has improved only in Cyprus since the autumn of 2001 (+5). In most countries, we could not detect any significant change, but figures have declined in five of the thirteen Candidate Countries: the Czech Republic (-10), Latvia (-8), Bulgaria (-7), Lithuania (-5), and Romania (-4). (see Table B1 in the Annex). Three countries stand out as those where negative opinions have increased since the last measurement; in Latvia, the scepticism regarding the benefits of the coming EU accession has risen by 10 percentage points. We observed similar tendencies to a smaller extent in Slovenia (+6), Poland (+4), as well as in Turkey (+3), and Bulgaria (+3).

Demographic analyses show that students (78%) are most likely to feel that their country will benefit from European Membership, while retired people and people aged 55 or older (53% each) are the least likely to share this view.

BULGARIA

Support for European Union membership (Bulgaria) 2001-2002

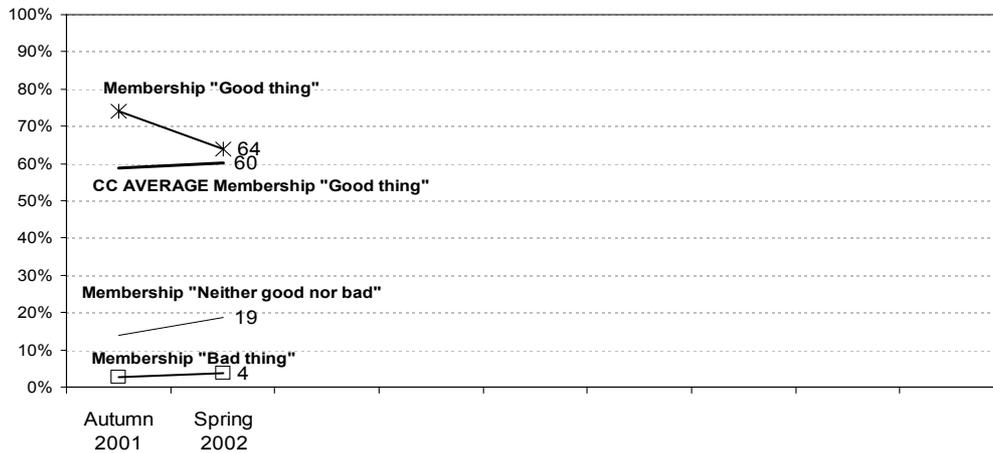


Fig. 1.1b
Source: Candidate Countries Eurobarometer 2002.1
April, 2002

Question: Generally speaking, do you think that (COUNTRY)'s membership of the European Union would be...?
(READ OUT)

% 'don't know' and 'no answer' not shown

Benefit from European Union membership (Bulgaria) 2001-2002

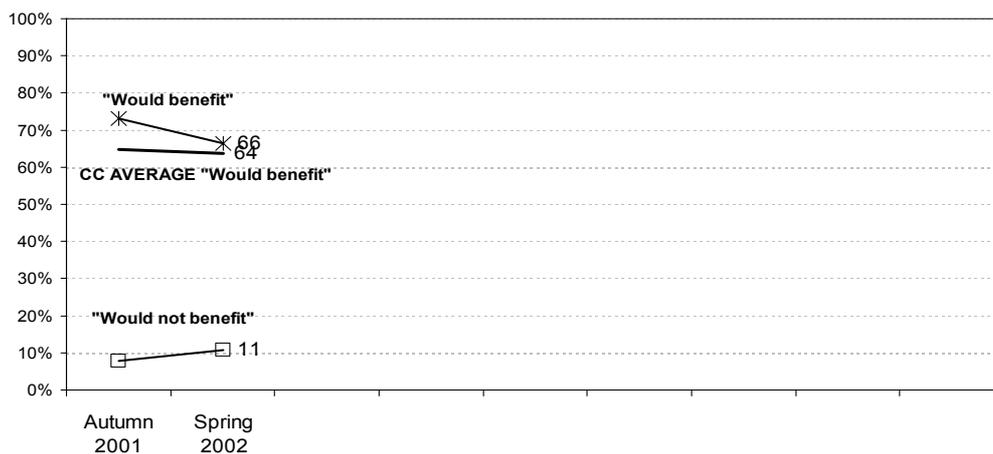
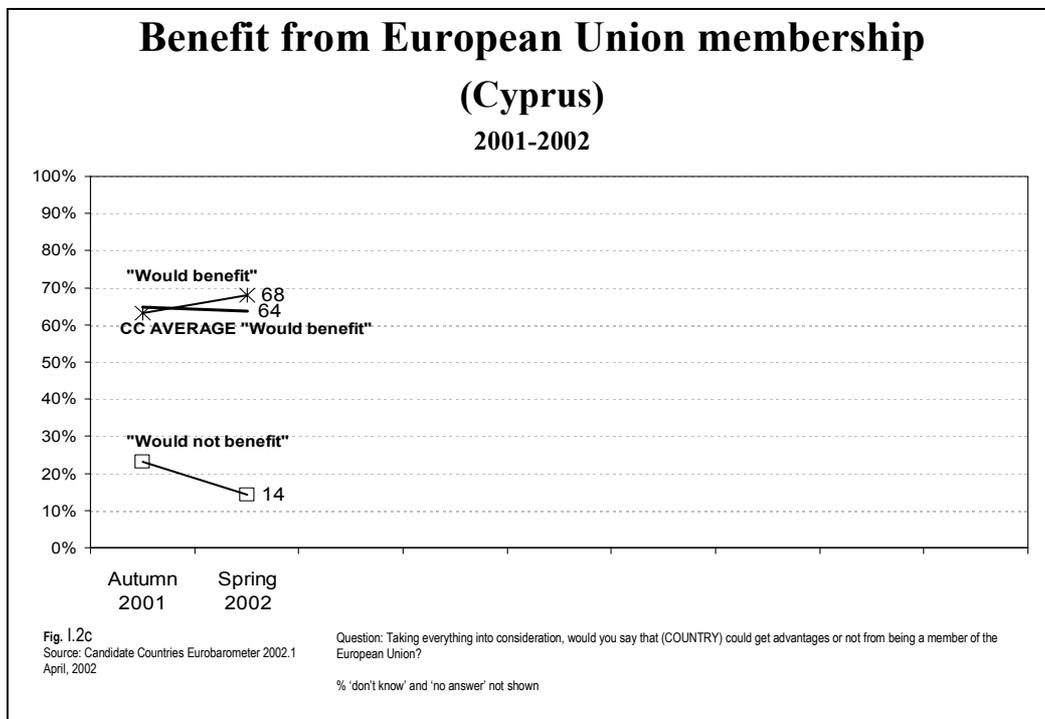
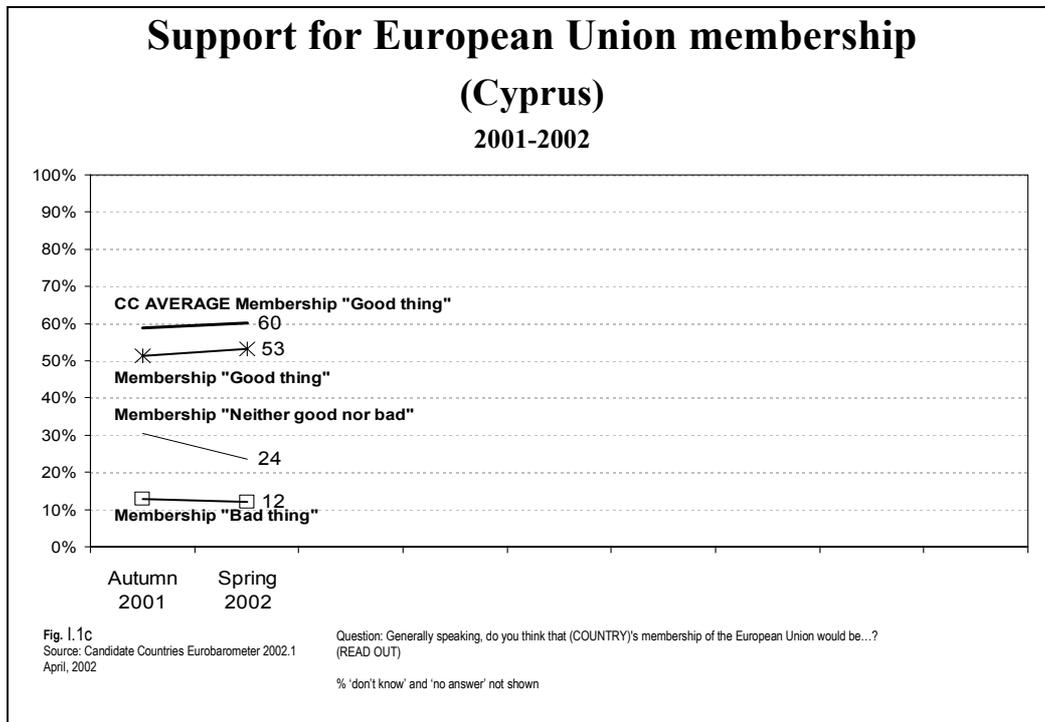


Fig. 1.2b
Source: Candidate Countries Eurobarometer 2002.1
April, 2002

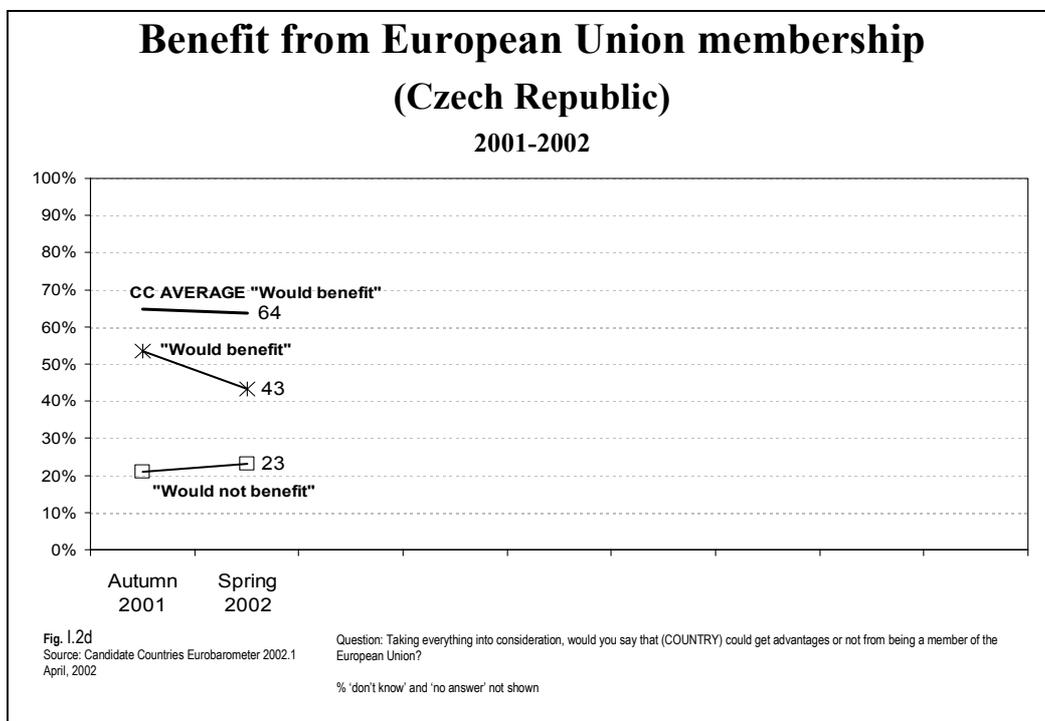
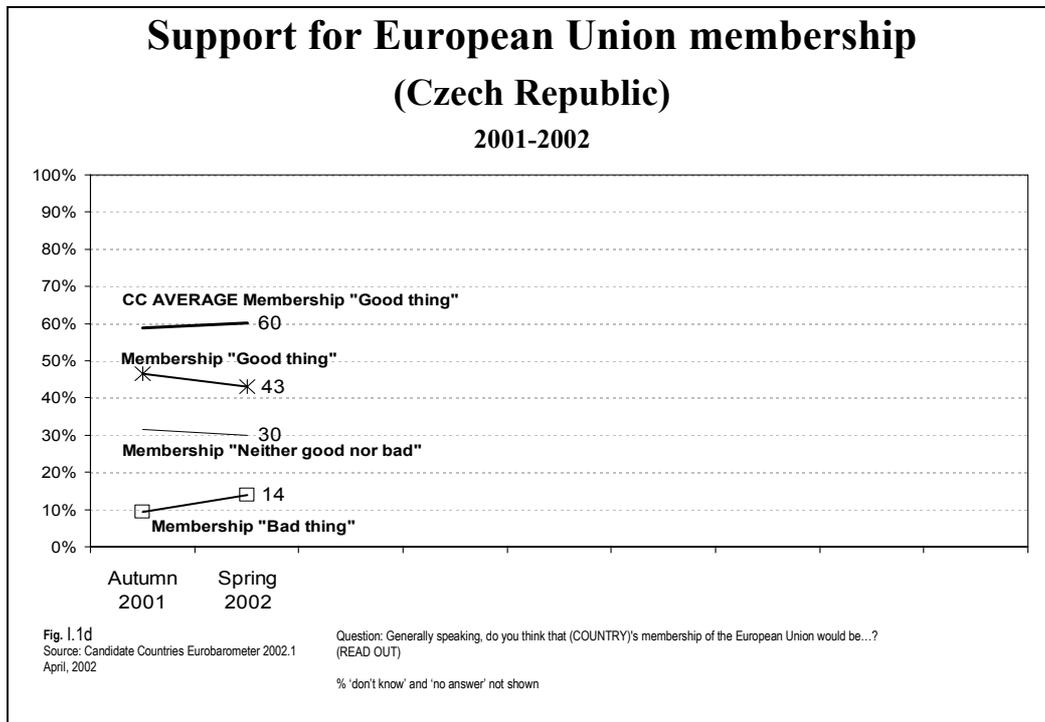
Question: Taking everything into consideration, would you say that (COUNTRY) could get advantages or not from being a member of the European Union?

% 'don't know' and 'no answer' not shown

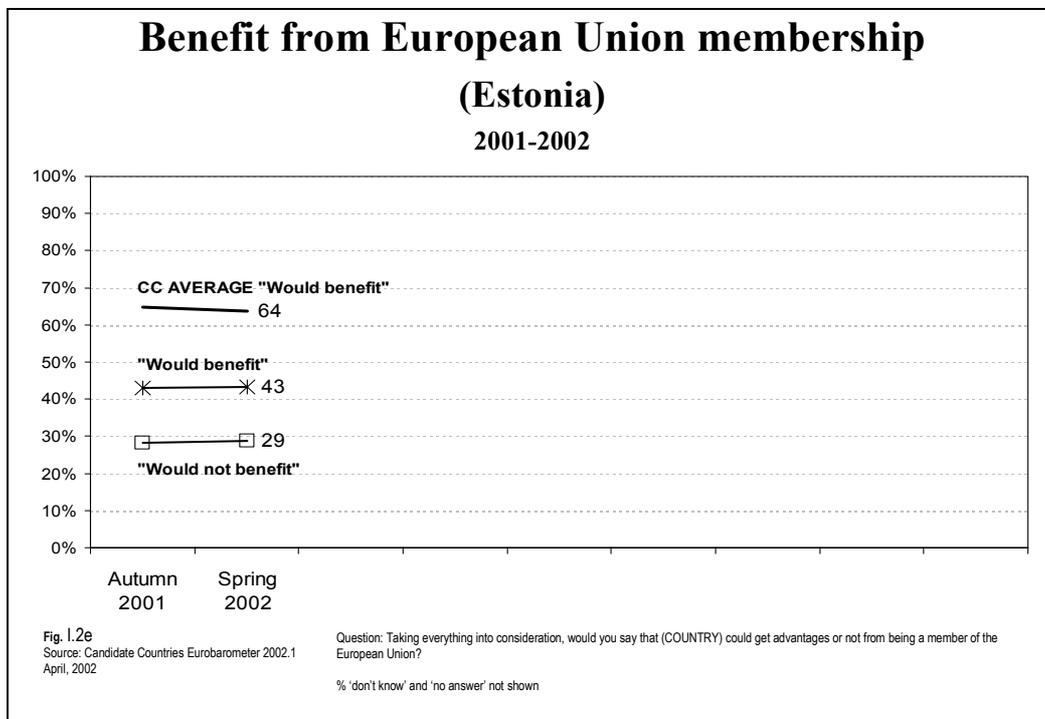
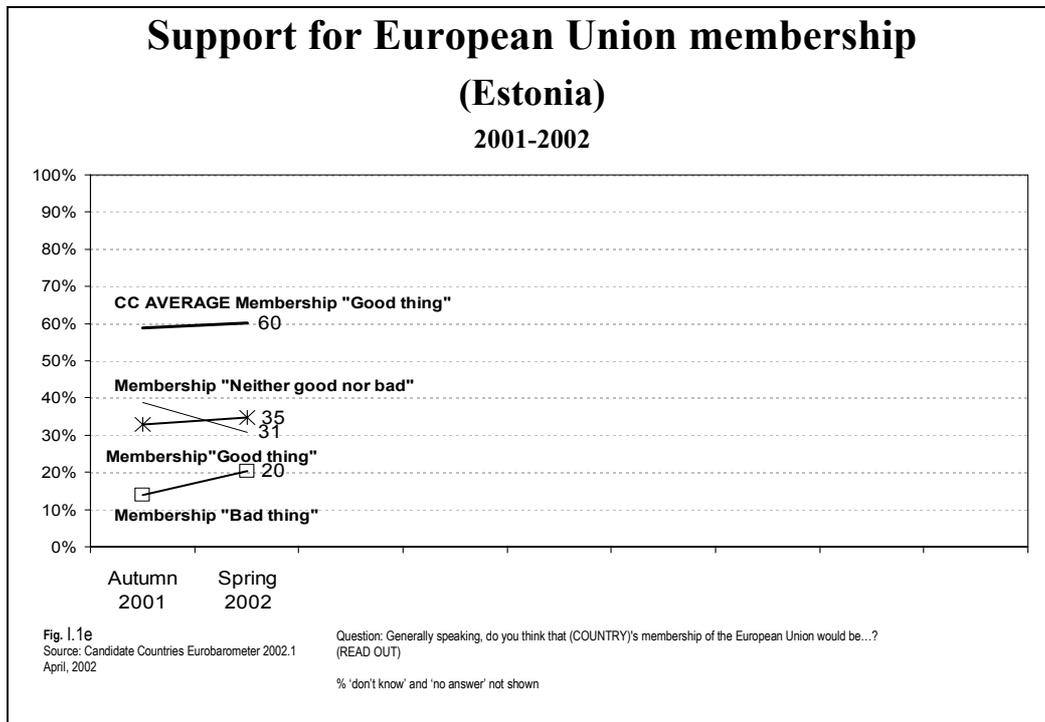
CYPRUS



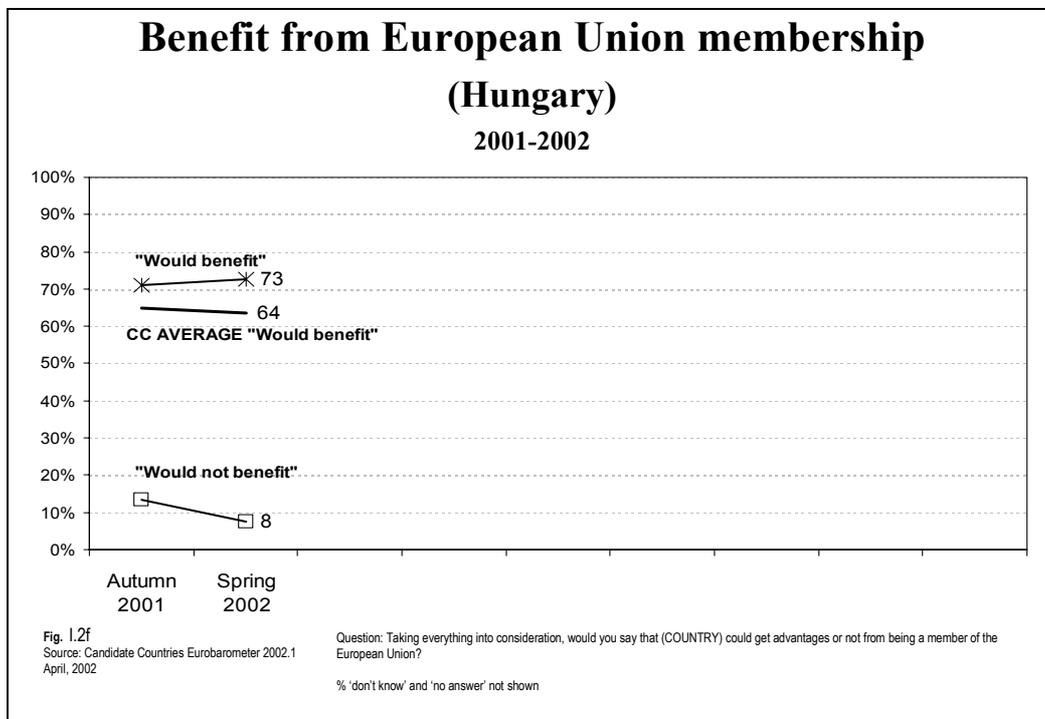
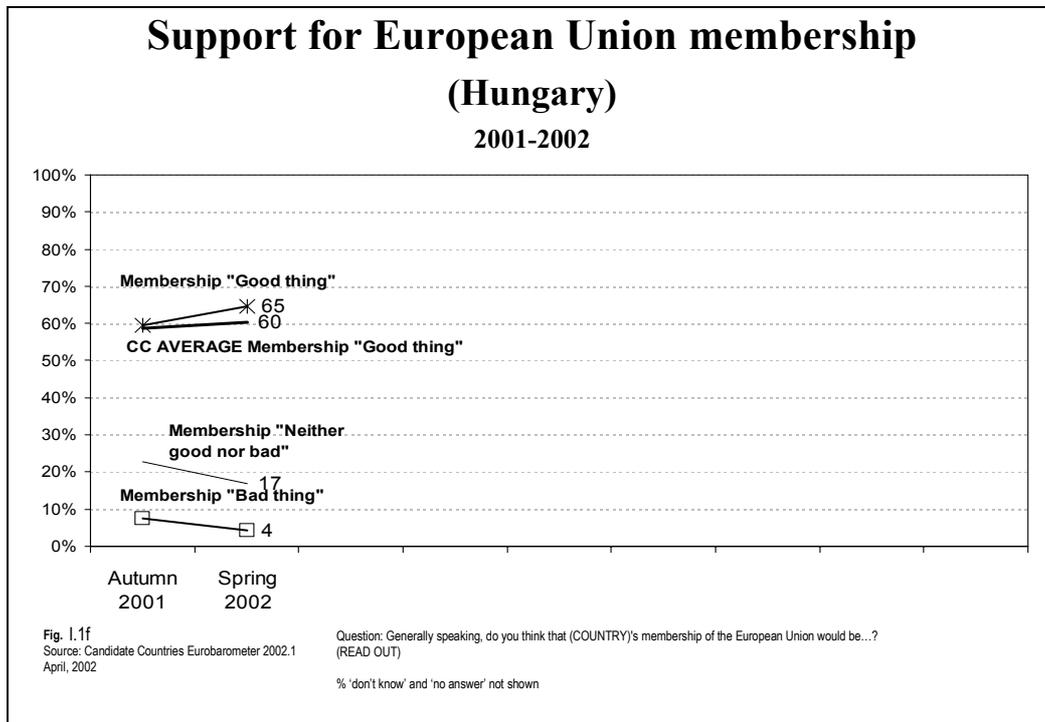
THE CZECH REPUBLIC



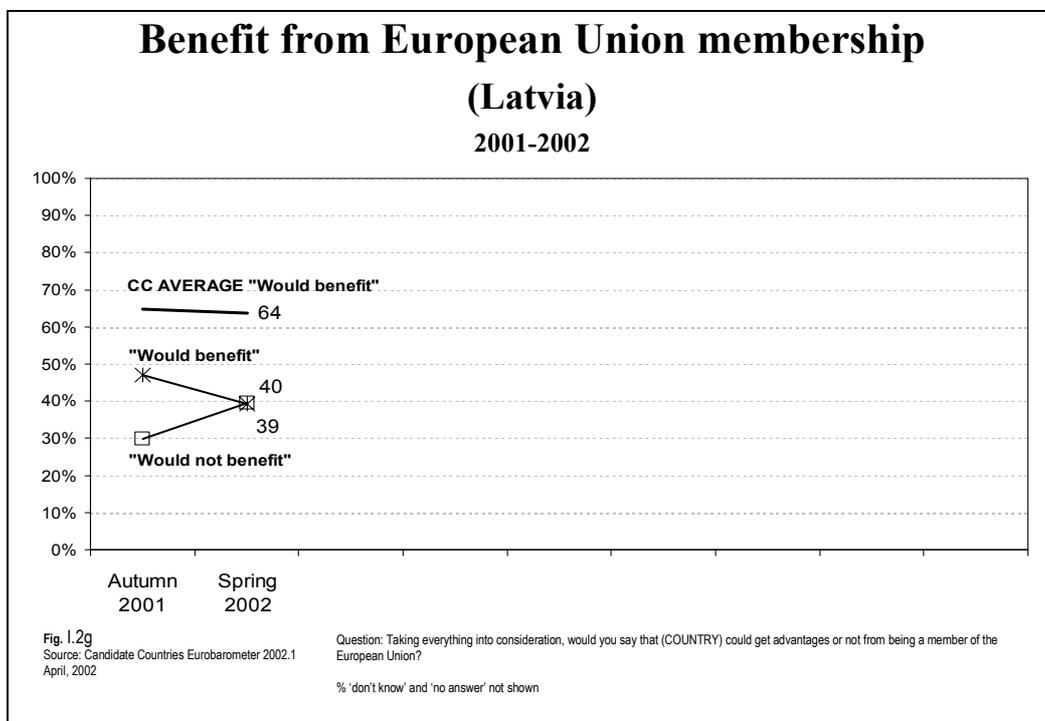
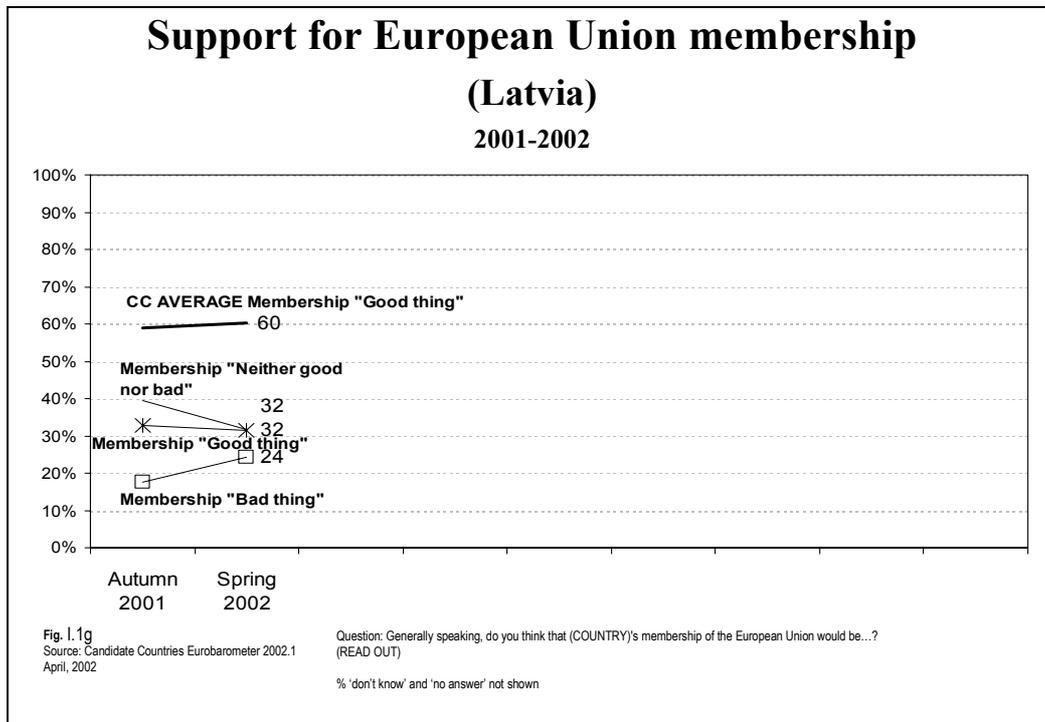
ESTONIA



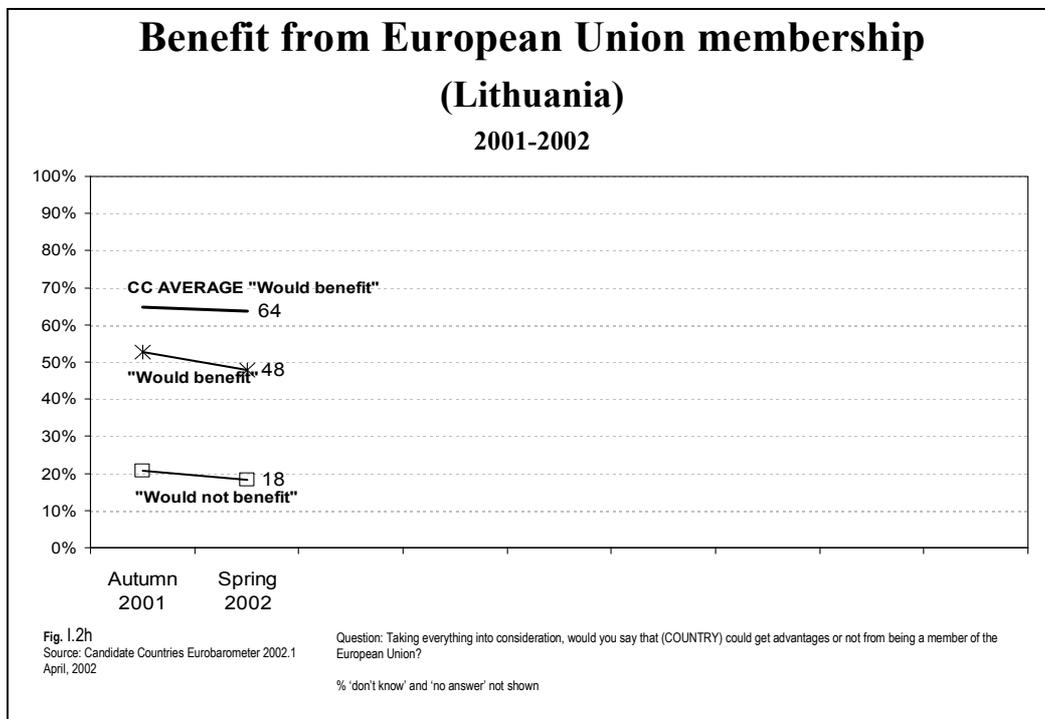
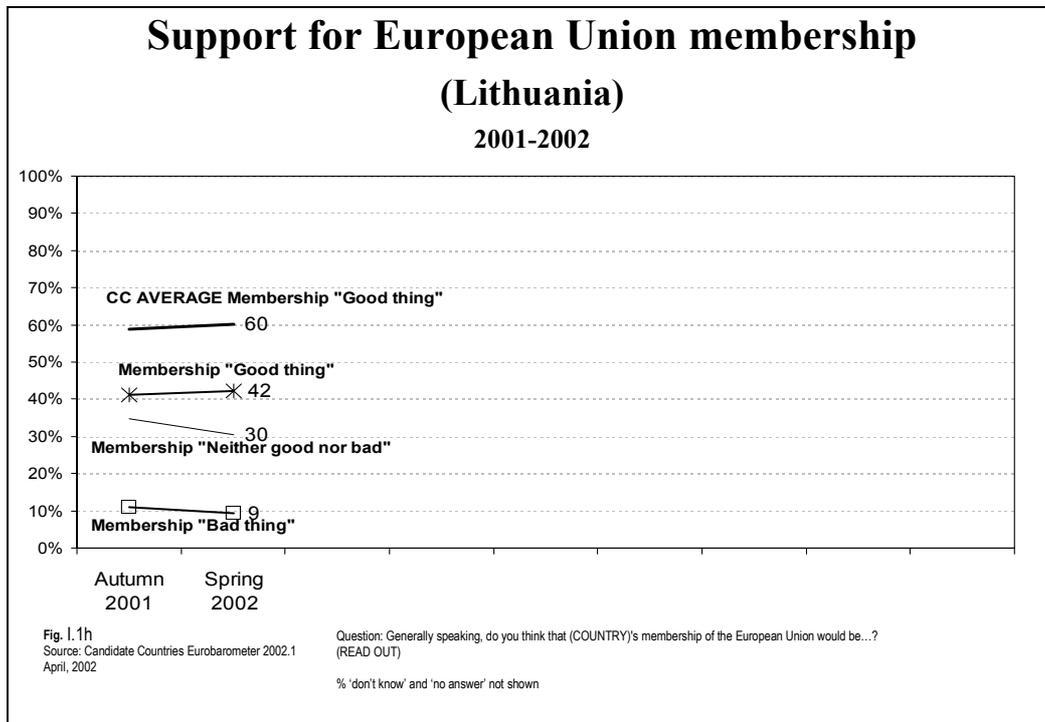
HUNGARY



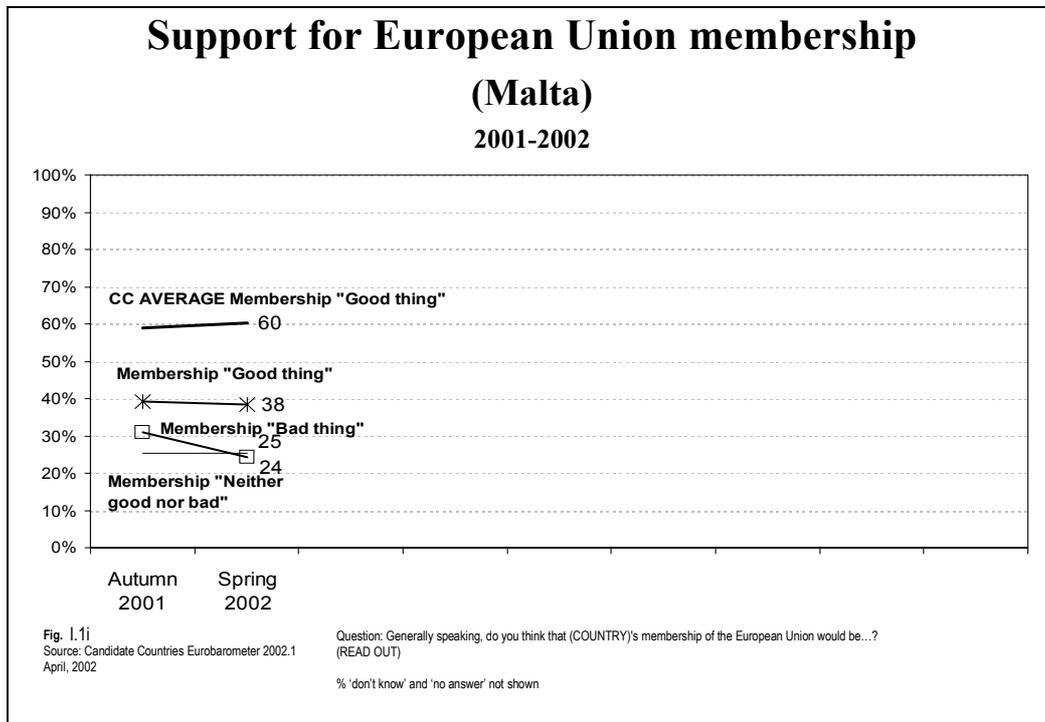
LATVIA



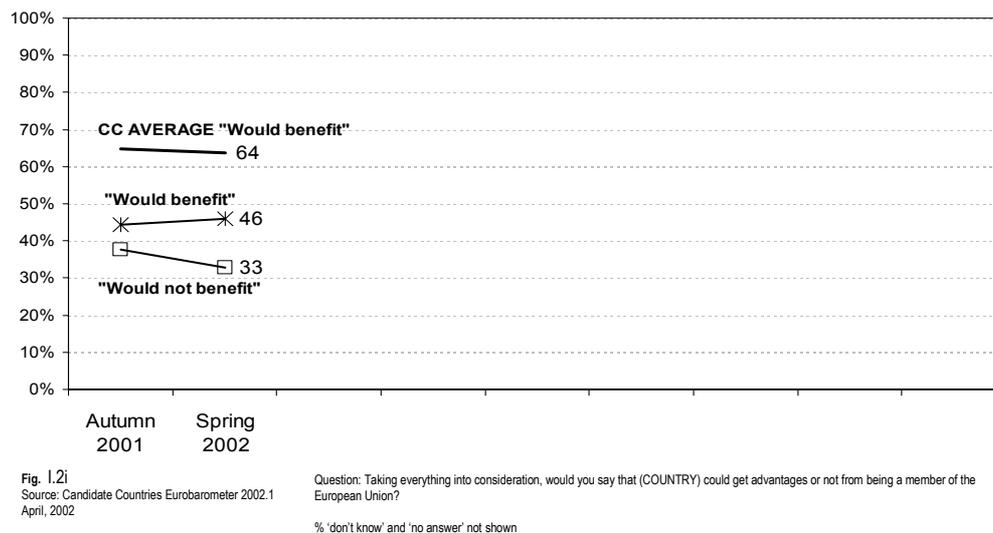
LITHUANIA



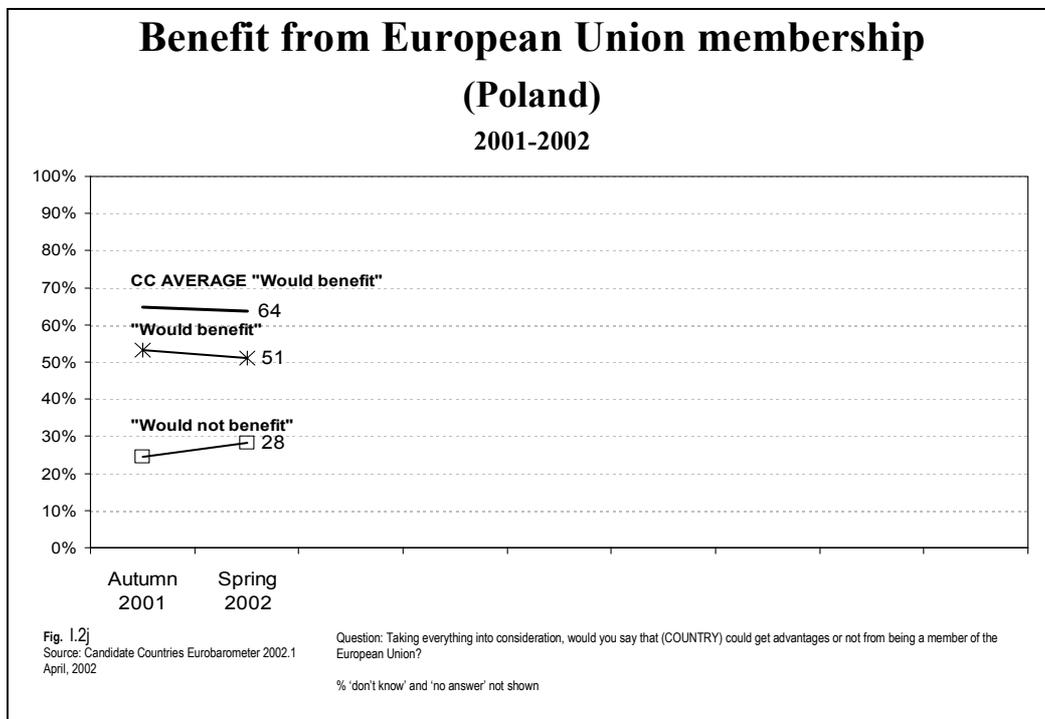
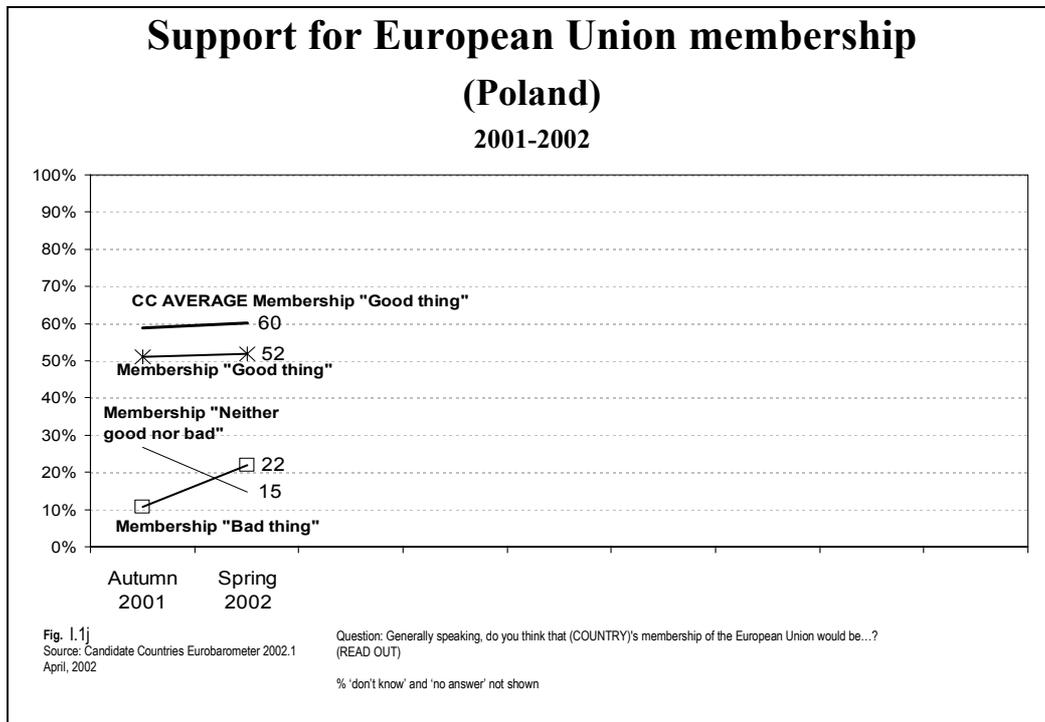
MALTA



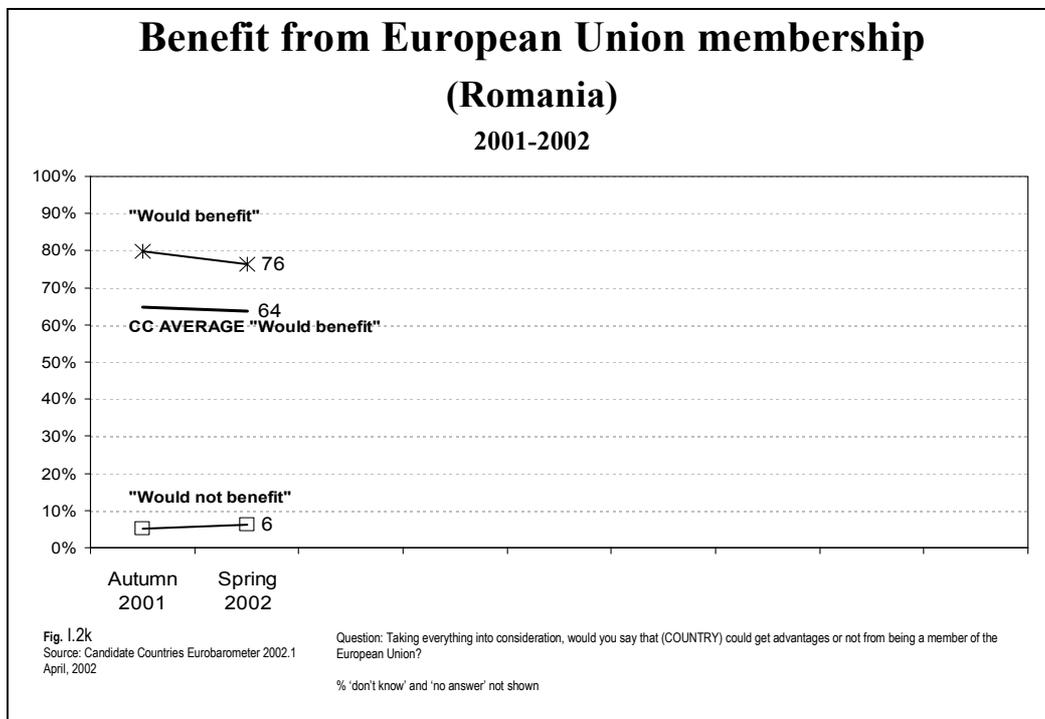
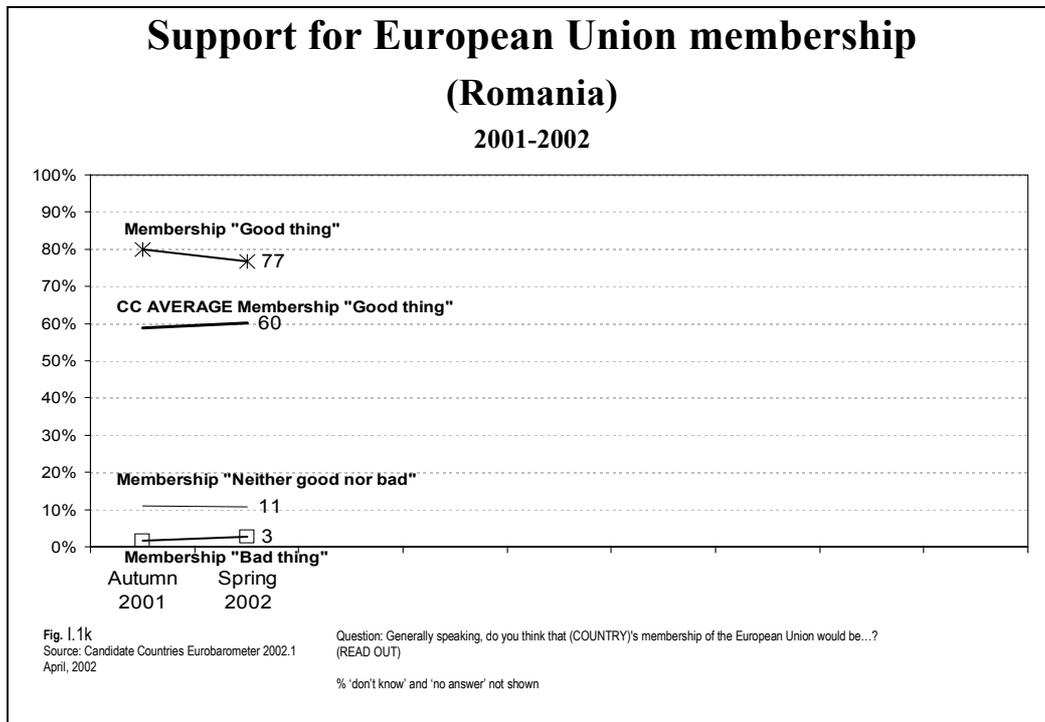
Benefit from European Union membership (Malta) 2001-2002



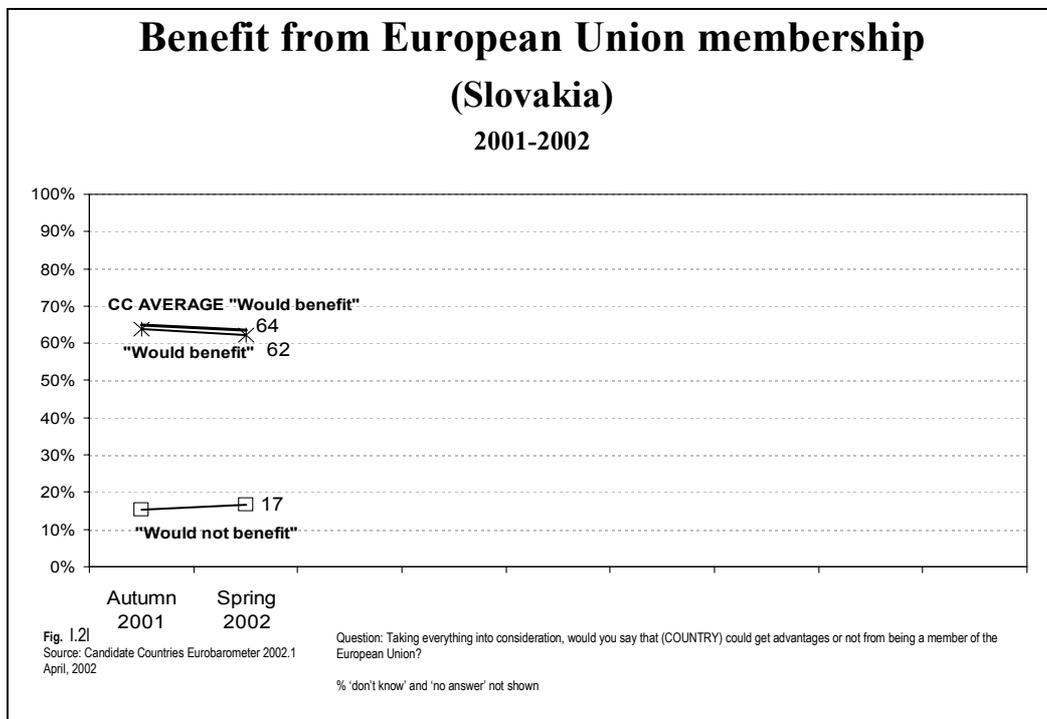
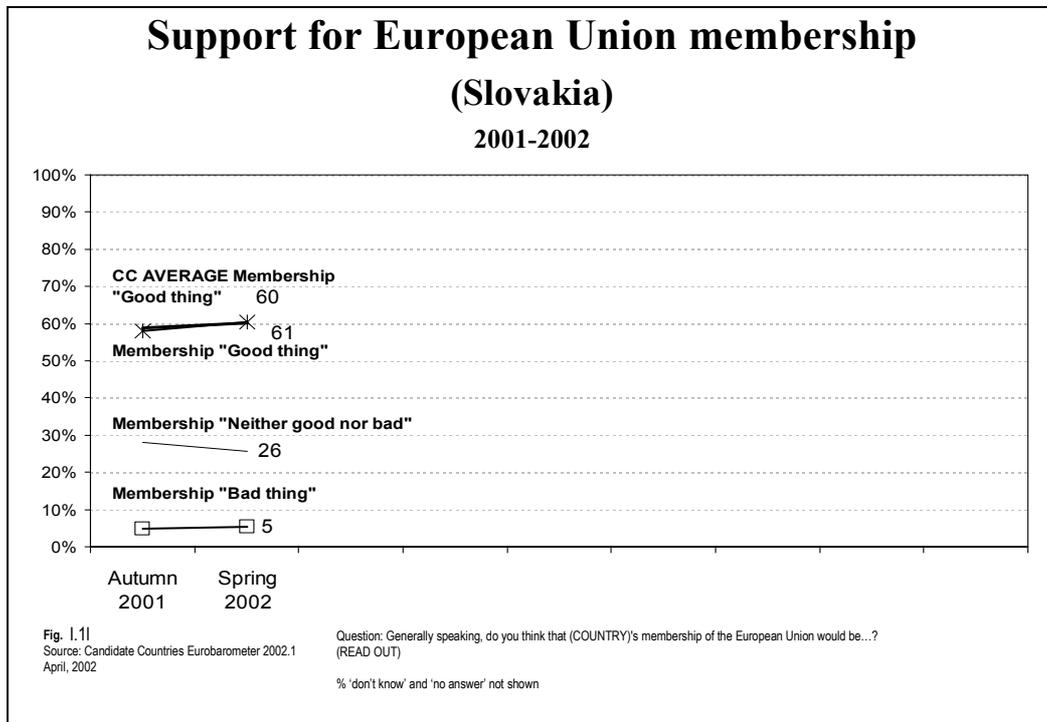
POLAND



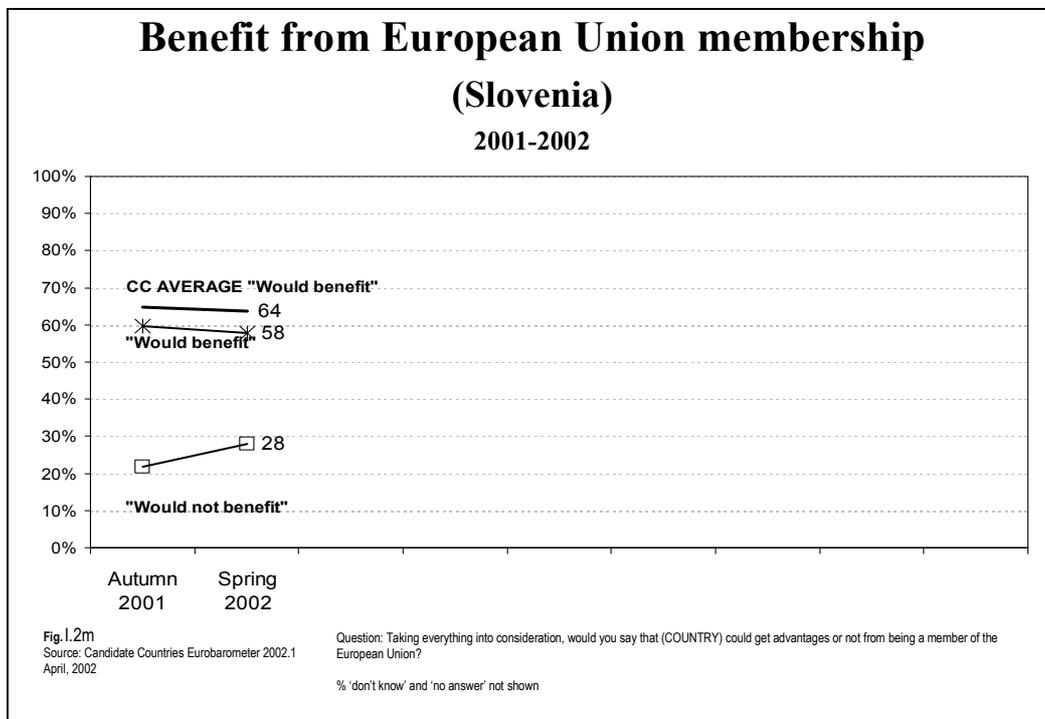
ROMANIA



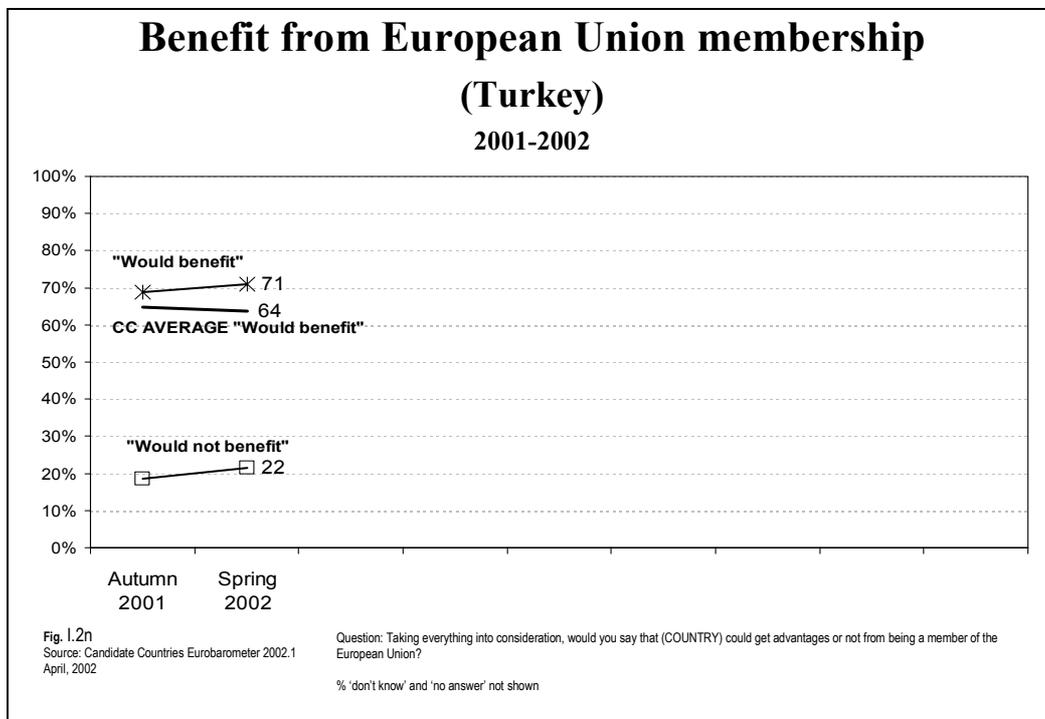
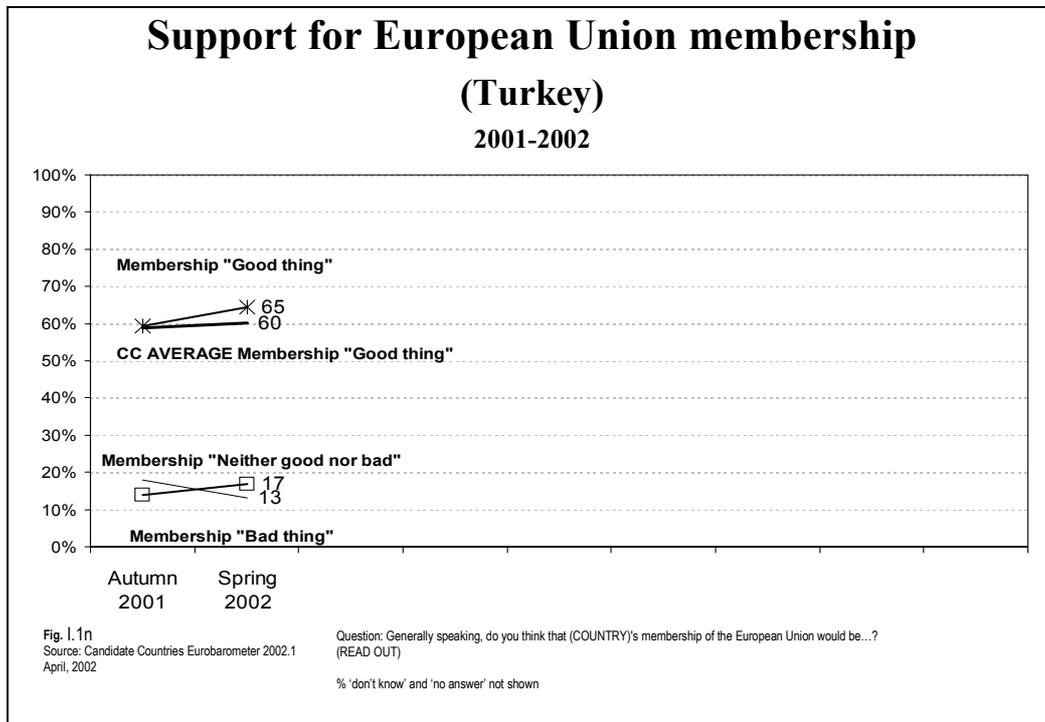
SLOVAKIA



SLOVENIA



TURKEY



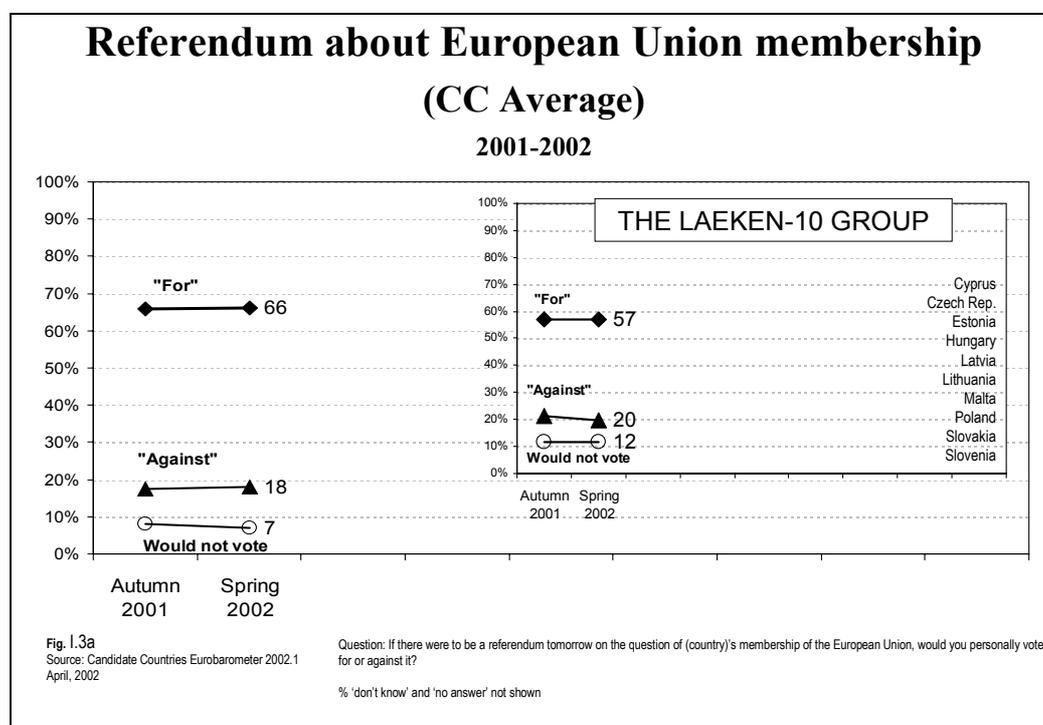
3. Referendum about European Union membership

Respondents were also asked about a slightly different measure of support:

If there were to be a referendum tomorrow on the question of (country)'s membership of the European Union, would you personally vote for or against it?

This question is not a real predictor of the outcome of a referendum that would be held, because such a referendum may seem too far away for many citizens yet. It is used here more as an attitudinal rather than a behavioural measure of support⁴. In addition, we are asking about "tomorrow", thereby adding a rather unrealistic time-dimension to the measure of popular support for EU membership.

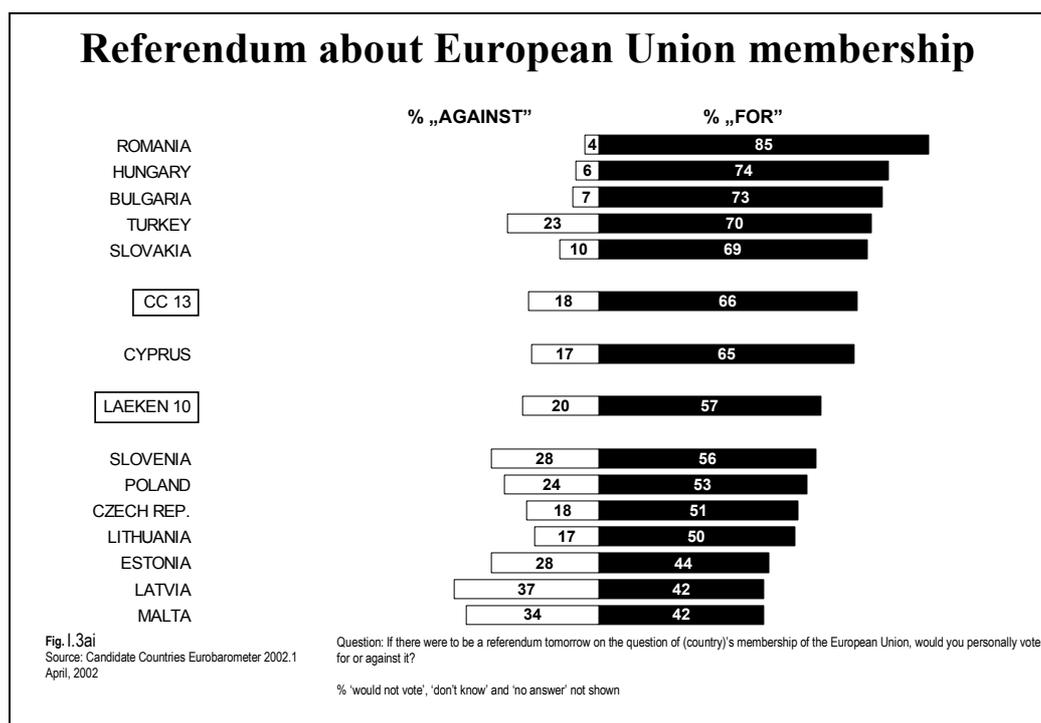
On the average, as of April 2002, a convincing majority of the Candidate Region, comprising two thirds (66%) of the respondents of all ages, declared that they would support their country's membership in the EU if a referendum were to be held on this issue. We did not detect any change from autumn 2001 in this respect on CC13 levels. Eighteen percent would cast a vote against membership, 7% spontaneously told us that they would not vote, and a further 9% could not decide how they would vote.



The proportion of those who would vote for the accession in the Laeken-10 countries remained at the somewhat lower level detected in autumn 2001 (57%), and now less, one in five people (19%) would cast a vote against, thereby actively opposing the membership of his or her country (-1). Twelve percent told us they would not go to the ballot, and 11% lack an opinion about this question.

Repeatedly, we find in the Candidate Countries that more people say they would vote for membership than people who regard future membership as a good thing.

⁴ The survey did not include appropriate screening to determine eligibility or likelihood to vote. Once again, the reader is advised not to consider these results as accurate predictions of outcomes of a possible referendum. These numbers should be treated instead as indications of the possible orders of magnitude of such results across the thirteen countries, as of April 2002



More than 8 in 10 people in Romania (85%) would vote for their country's EU membership if a referendum were to be held on this issue. Among the Laeken-10 countries Hungary stands out again, with three-quarters (74%) of its citizens saying they would vote for their country's membership. Hungary is followed by Bulgaria (73%), Turkey (70%), Slovakia (69%), and Cyprus (65%), where pro-EU voters account for more than two-thirds of the population. In Slovenia (56%), Poland (53%), the Czech Republic (51%), and Lithuania (50%) only a slim majority claimed they would support their country's membership on a referendum. In contrast, only 44% of Estonians, and 42% of Latvians and Maltese would vote for their country's membership. (For country-by-country results, refer to Figures I.3.b-n)

The ratio of pro-voters in the total population increased the most in Estonia over the past six months (+5), followed by Slovakia (+4), and Hungary (+3). At the same time, we detected a decrease of support in Bulgaria (-7), Latvia (-5), and the Czech Republic (-3). In Latvia, the proportion of those who say they would vote *against* the EU membership of their country has risen over the past six months (+6). (Table C1 in Annex)

Demographic analyses show that men are more likely to vote for accession than women (69% vs. 63%). Education is again a powerful explanatory variable of voting preferences about the membership to the European Union. Levels of behavioural support for the European Union increase with education with 61% of people who left school aged 15 or younger claiming they would vote for their country's membership compared to 73% of people who left full-time education aged 20 or older or to 76% of those who are still studying. Age is also an important variable with those aged 15 to 24 significantly more likely (73%) to support their country's future membership with their votes than those aged 55 and over (59%).

Analyses of the economic activity scale show a gap of 21 percentage points in support levels between managers (80%) on the one hand and retired people (59%) on the other. The level of urbanization has a positive effect on people's support of their country's membership to the European Union; the proportions of pro-voters are the lowest in rural areas (62%). In contrast, 71 percent of those living in large cities would vote for the EU accession of their country. (see Table C2 in the Annex)

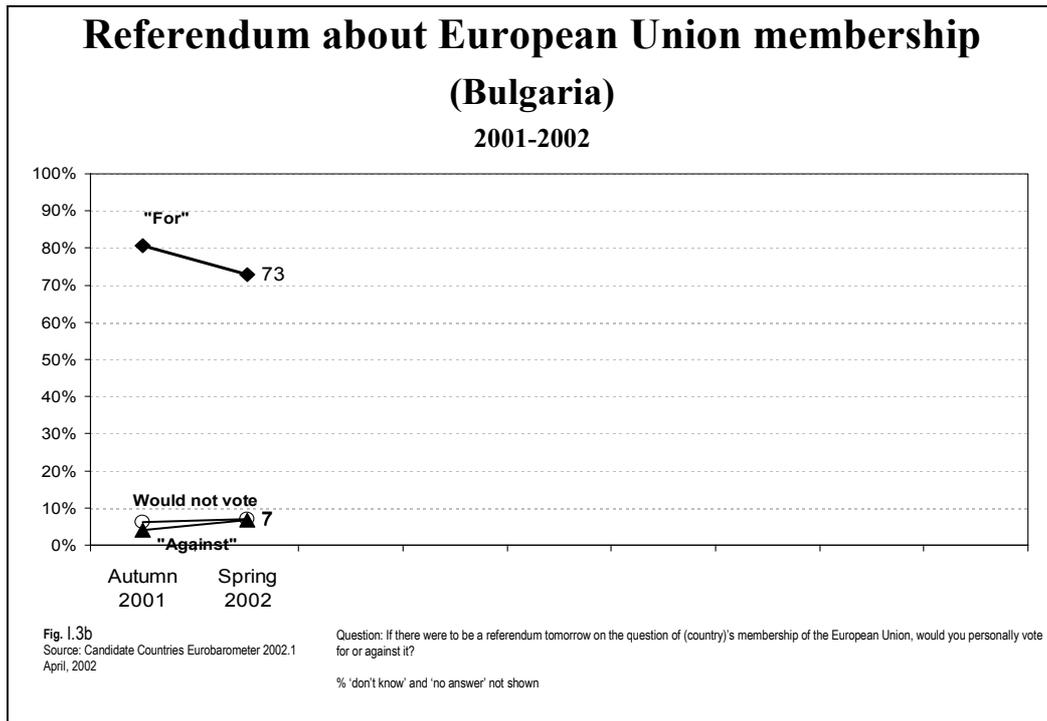
Further analyses – see Table I.3 below – show that at the time of the survey the majority of eligible respondents in all 13 countries would have voted in favour of joining the EU (78%)⁵ and the similar proportion is nearly as high in the Laeken-10 group as well (74%). There are, however, two countries without a large majority in favour of accession: Malta, where only 55% of eligible respondents indicate that they would have voted in favour of EU membership (which is an increase of 2 percentage points from autumn 2001), and Latvia, with 52% of pro-voters among eligible respondents. Six months ago 59 percent of eligible Latvian respondents supported their country's accession to the EU, which means a drop of 7 percentage points in support over the past half year.

	% for	% against		% for	% against
ROMANIA	96	4	LAEKEN 10	74	26
HUNGARY	93	7	CZECH REP.	72	28
BULGARIA	91	9	POLAND	68	32
SLOVAKIA	88	12	SLOVENIA	67	33
CC 13	78	22	ESTONIA	59	41
CYPRUS	78	22	MALTA	55	45
TURKEY	75	25	LATVIA	52	48
LITHUANIA	75	25			

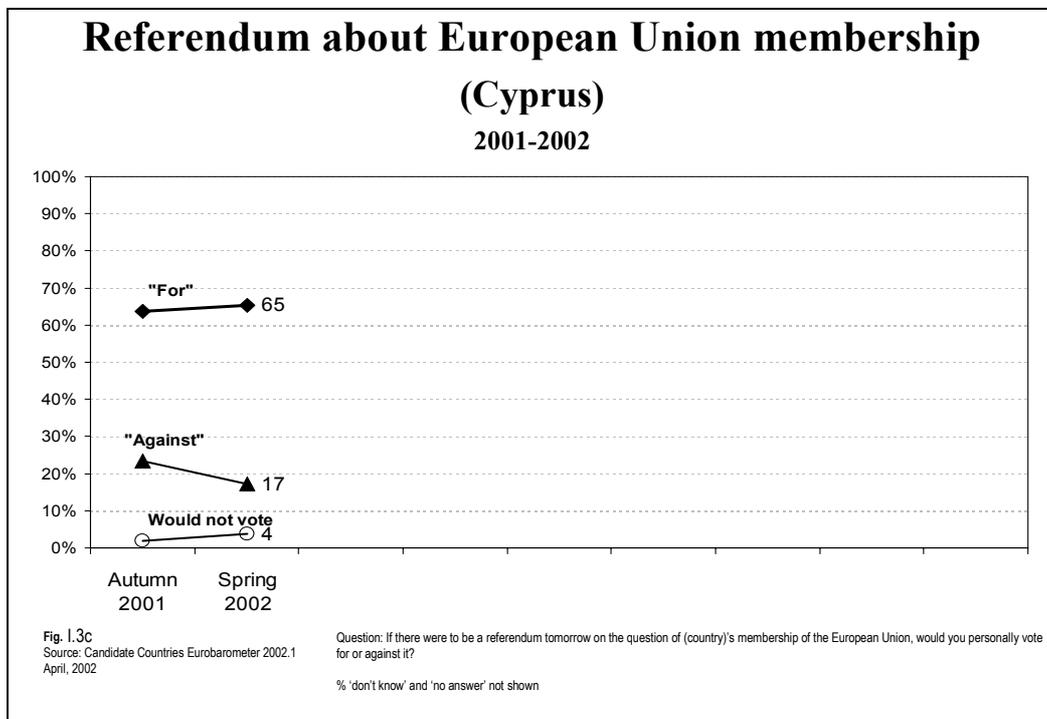
In contrast, nearly every eligible respondent would vote for membership in Romania (96%), Hungary (93%), and Bulgaria (91%). Slovak voters (88%) are also extraordinarily supportive of membership in this question. More than 7 in 10 voters would approve membership in Cyprus (78%), Turkey (75%), Lithuania (75%), and the Czech Republic (72%). Poles and Slovenes are a bit more divided on this issue.

⁵ Eligible voters are those aged 18 and over. The analysis also excludes respondents who said they would not vote, who did not know how they would vote and who didn't answer the question. The analysis includes the non-citizen permanent residents of Estonia and Latvia (the results, if we exclude these people from the analysis, do not change significantly).

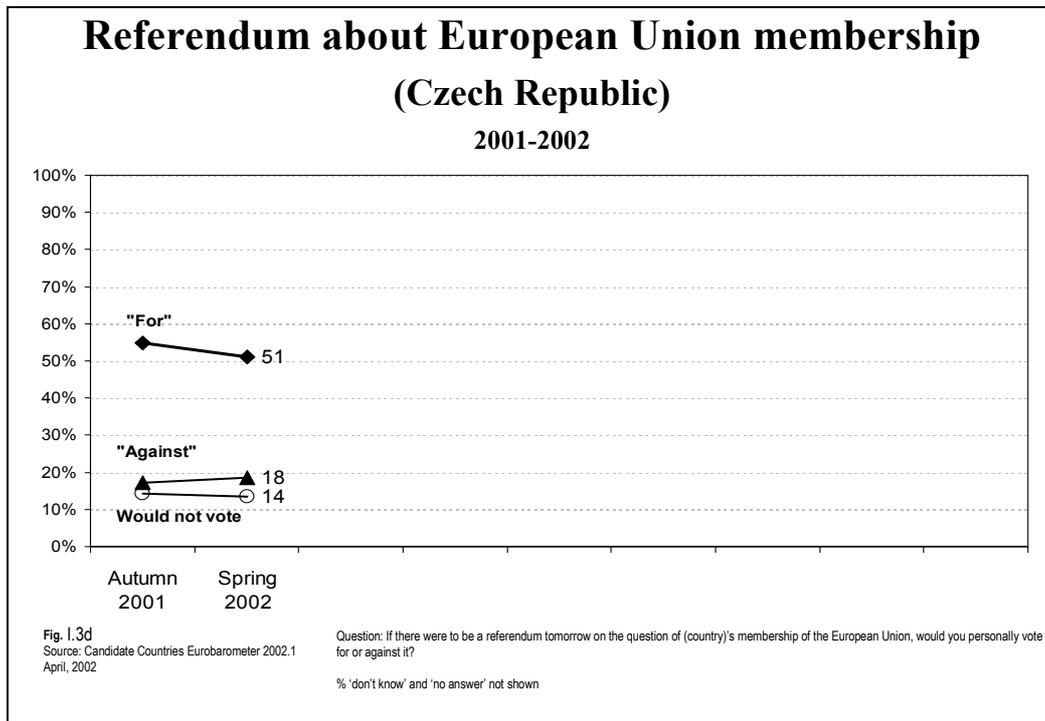
BULGARIA



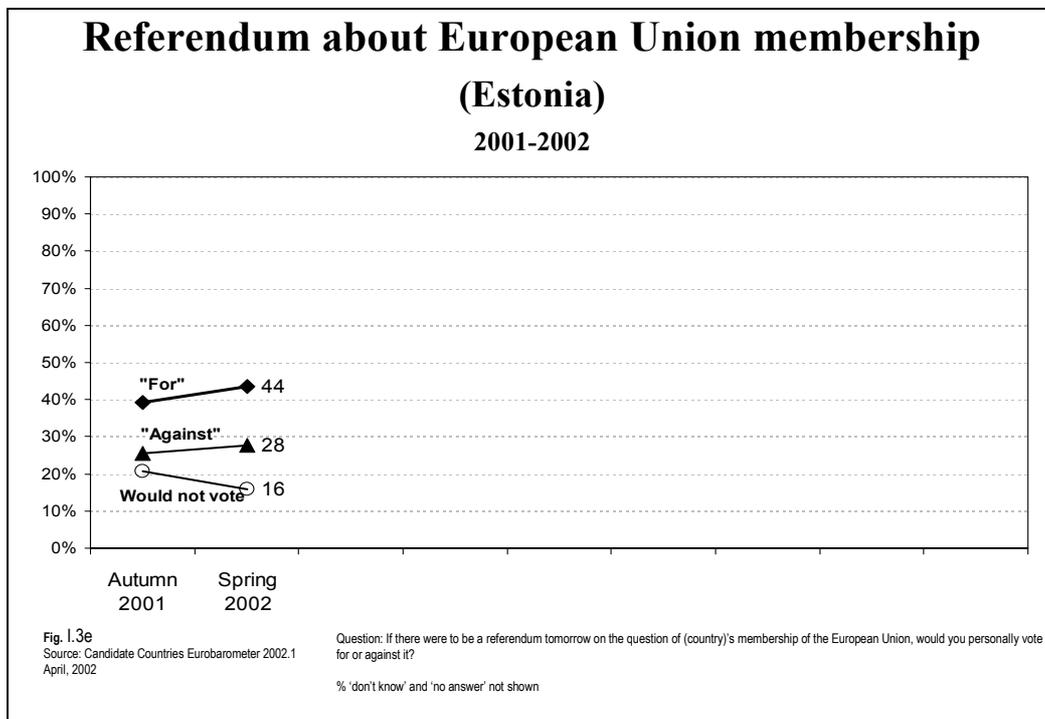
CYPRUS



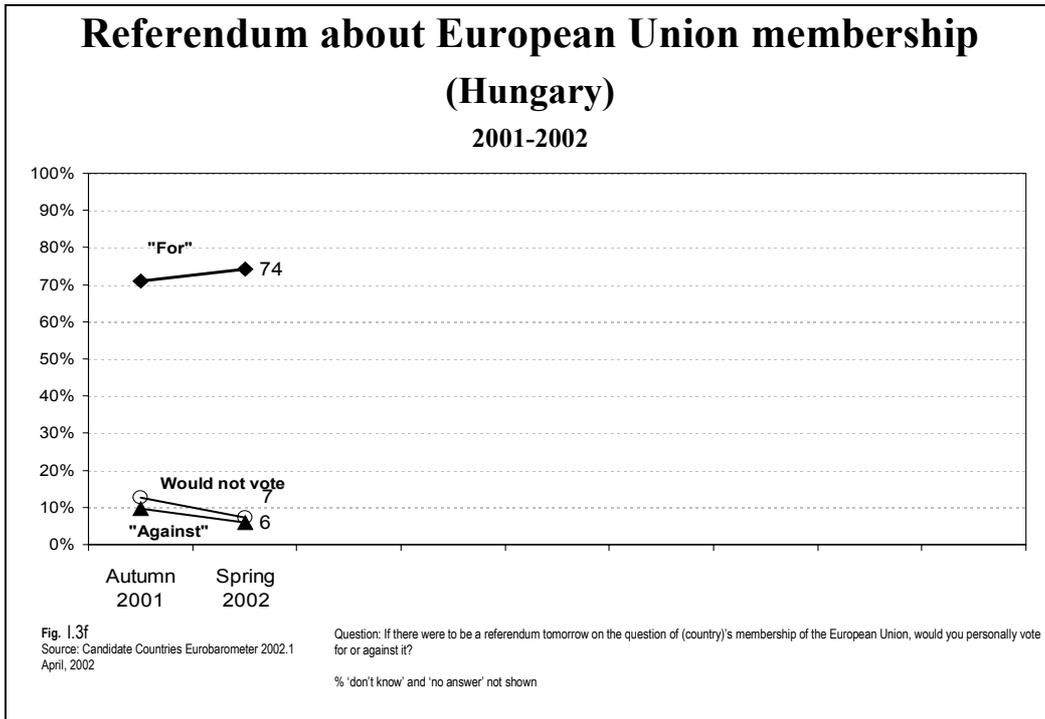
THE CZECH REPUBLIC



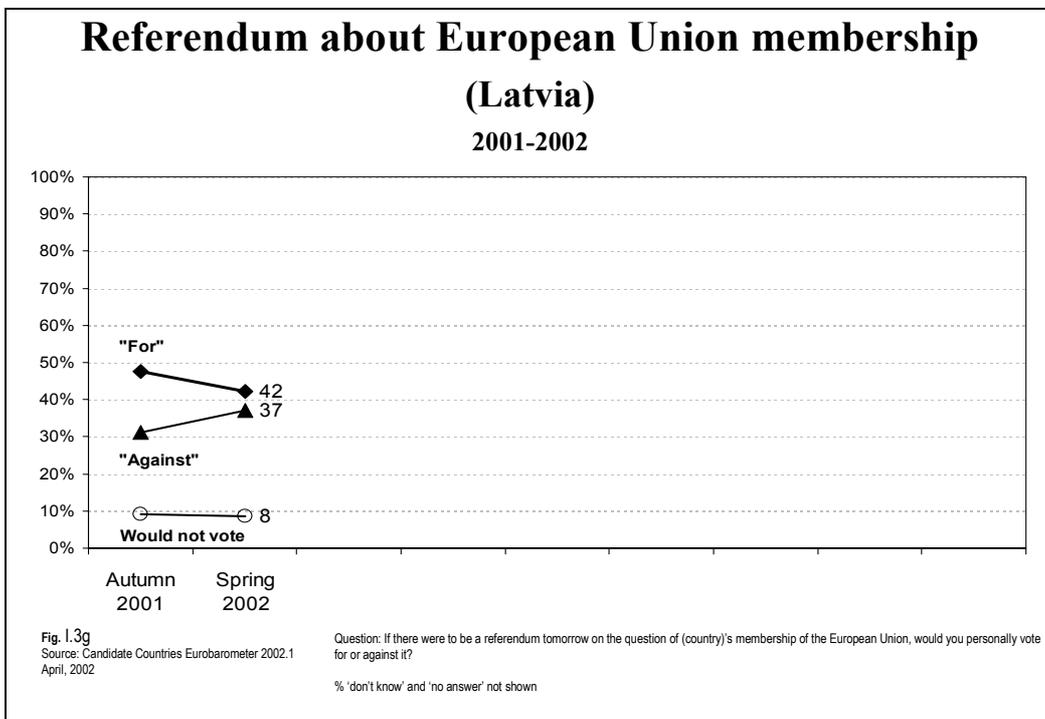
ESTONIA



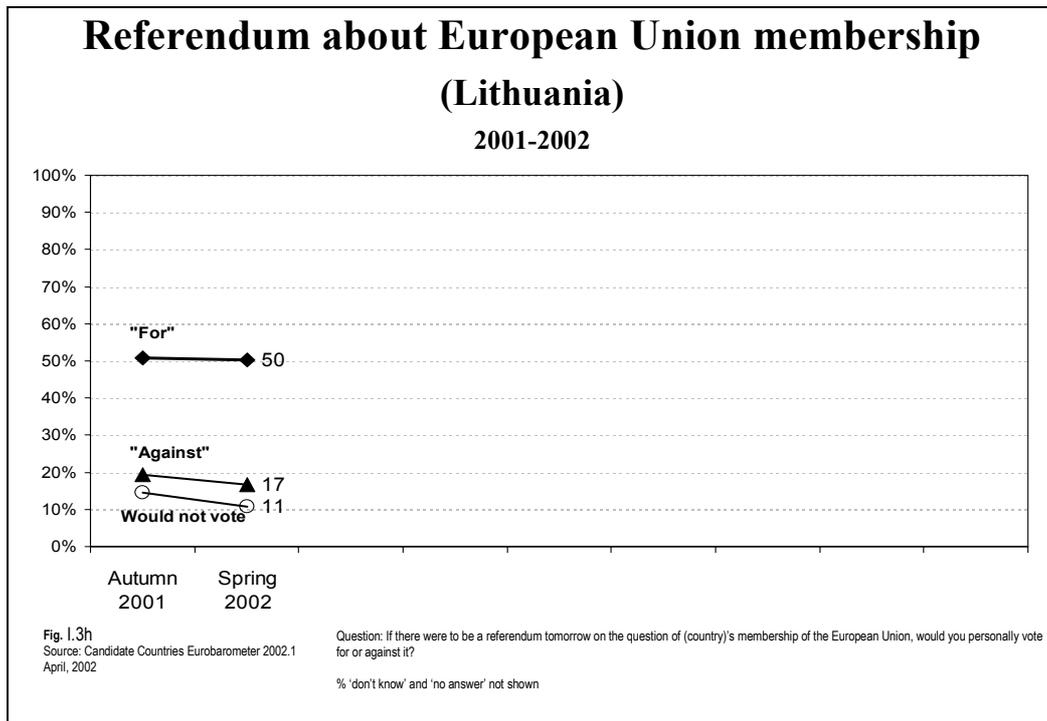
HUNGARY



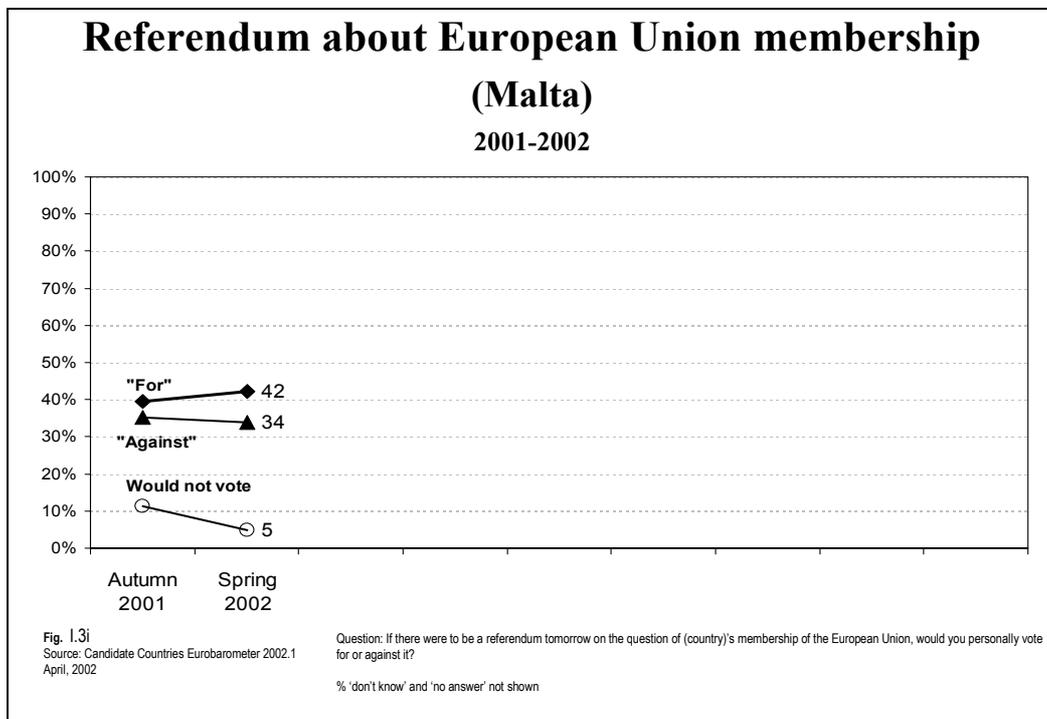
LATVIA



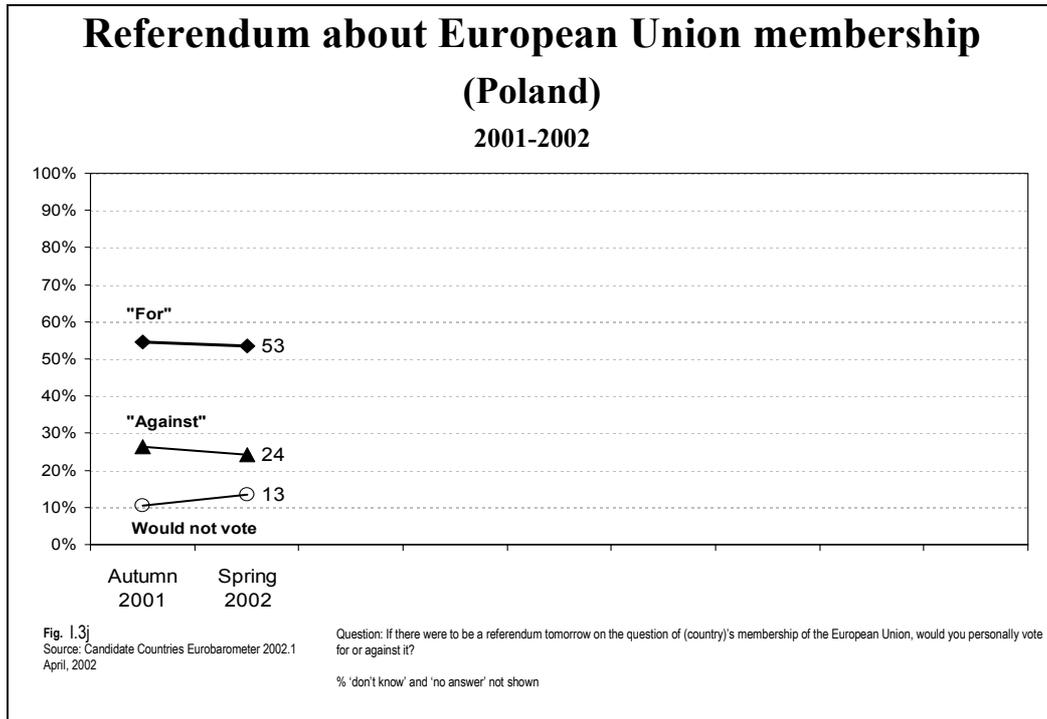
LITHUANIA



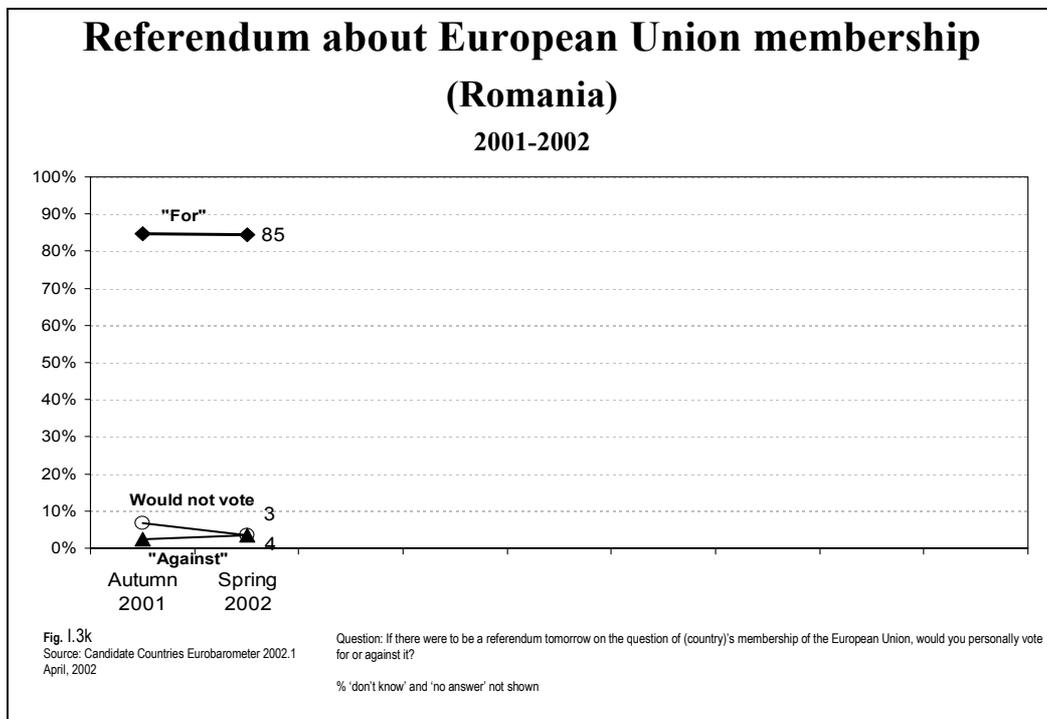
MALTA



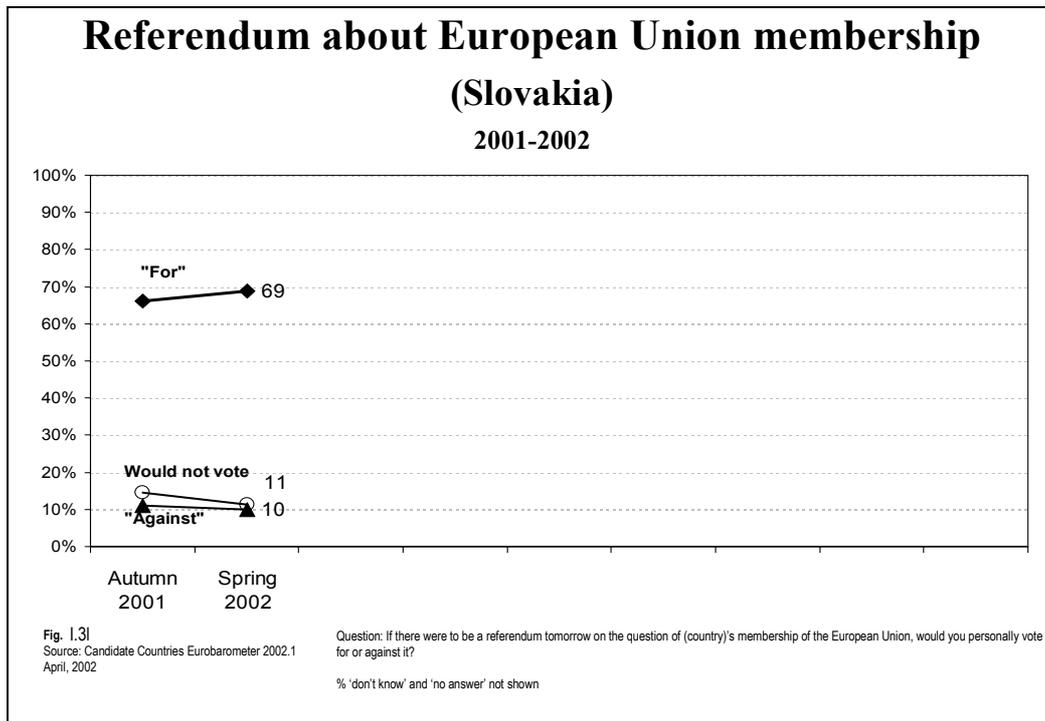
POLAND



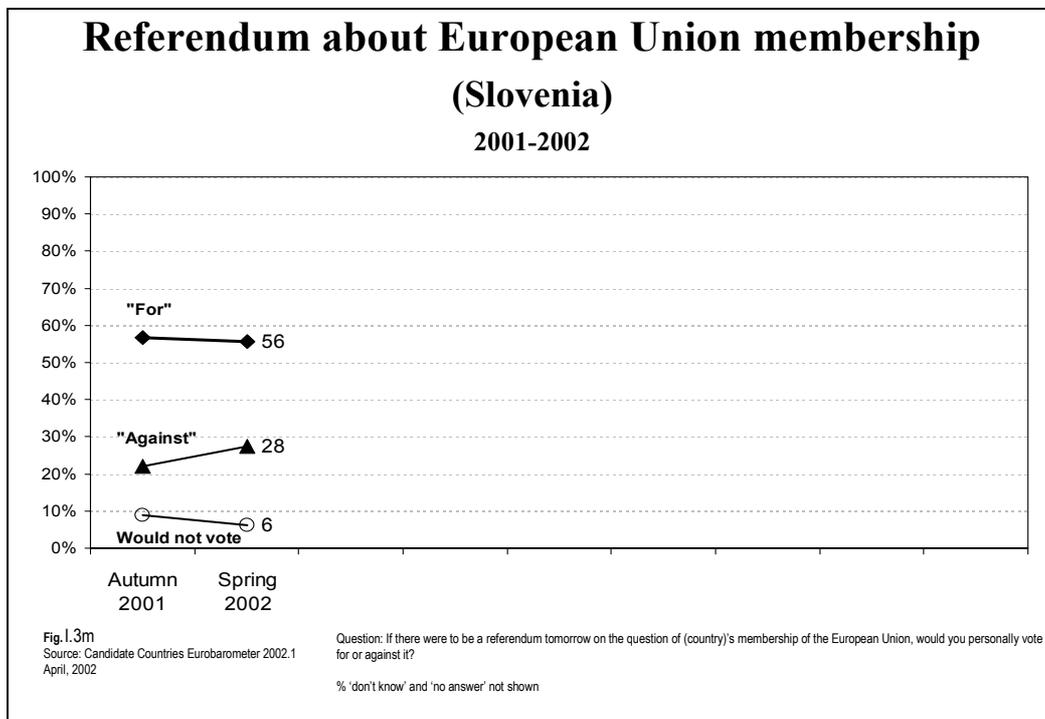
ROMANIA



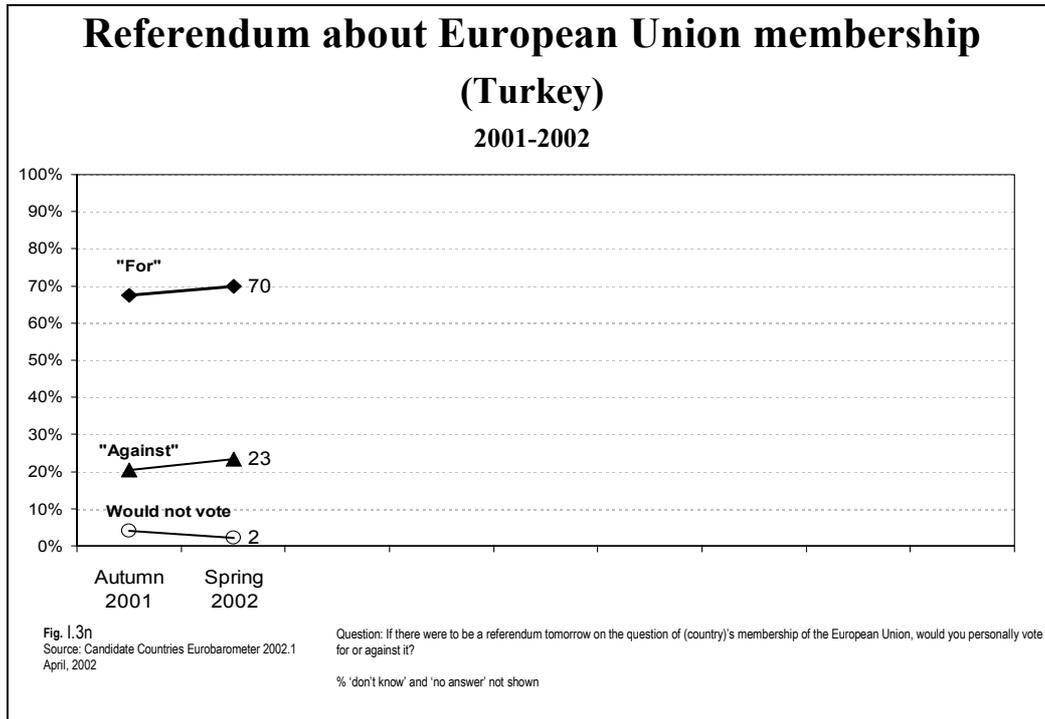
SLOVAKIA



SLOVENIA



TURKEY



II. Social Situation in the Candidate Countries

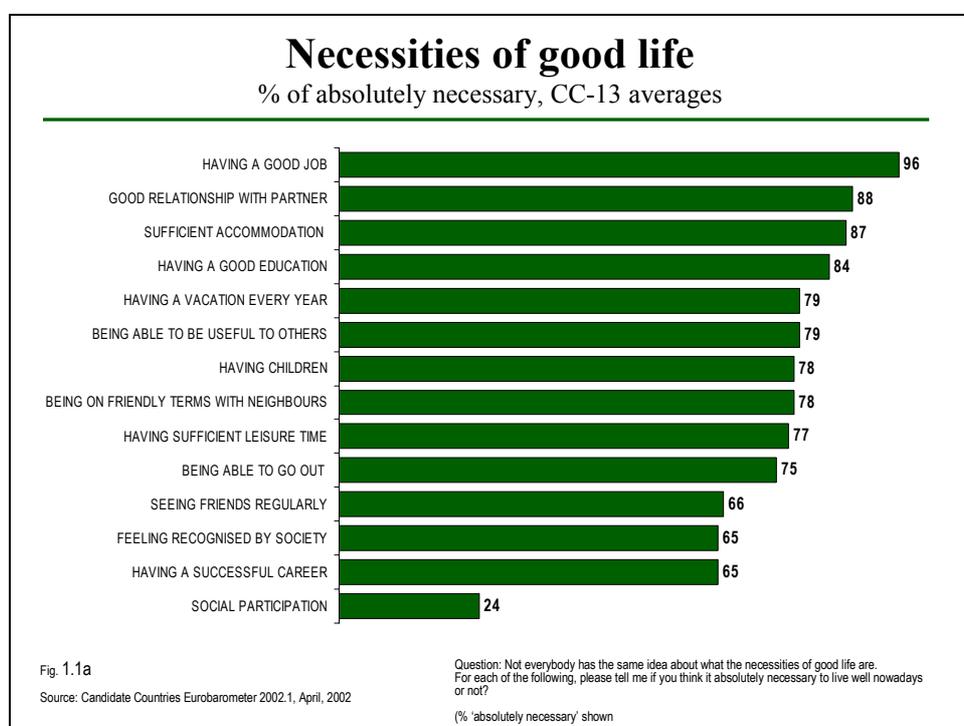
1. Quality of life in the Candidate Countries

Before examining the satisfaction with life in general and satisfaction with certain aspects of life, we will describe briefly the factors the Candidate Countries' population think are essential to quality of life.

We asked our respondents the following question: "Not everybody has the same idea about what the necessities of good life are. For each of the following, please tell me if you think it absolutely necessary to live well nowadays or not?" and listed the following items:

- *Having a good job*
- *Having a good education*
- *Living with a partner with whom one has a good relationship*
- *Having children*
- *Seeing friends regularly*
- *Having sufficient leisure time and the means to enjoy it*
- *Having at least one vacation a year*
- *Being on friendly terms with the neighbours*
- *Being able to go out with friends or family*
- *Having sufficient accommodation for everyone to have their own space*
- *Being able to be useful to others*
- *Feeling recognised by society*
- *Having a successful career*
- *Participating in the activities of associations, trade unions or political parties*

The graph below has the results based on all responses gathered from the Candidate Region.



As shown on Figure 1.1a *having a good job* is undisputedly considered as the most essential component – in each Candidate Country – of having a good life. Almost everybody, 96% of CC-13 population answered that it is absolutely necessary for good life. Having a good job is the most important in Lithuania and Turkey (99% both) and the least important in the Czech Republic (90%).

The second and third factors absolutely necessary for good life are *good relations with partner* (88%) and *sufficient accommodation* (87%). Having a good relationship with one's partner is the most important in Cyprus (98%) and the least important in Estonia (76%). Sufficient accommodation is the most important in Turkey (95%) and the least important in Malta (59%).

Having a good education is also essential for 84% of the Candidate Countries' population. This factor is the most important for the Turkish population (97%) and the least important for Bulgarians (59%).

For all other factors but one, more than half of the respondents from Candidate Countries claimed these are absolutely necessary for a good life (proportions of 'absolutely important' answers are between 65% and 79%).

The one that proved to be the least essential in having a good life is social participation. Only one quarter (24%) of the region's population considers active *social participation* an absolutely necessary component for a good life. Social participation is most important for those from Cyprus (31%) and least important for the Czech and Maltese populations (6% both). (For more details refer to Table 1.1 in the Annex)

Surprisingly, having children is only seventh on this list, but were the younger generations excluded from the analysis, babies would become more desirable than a yearly vacation (occupying the sixth place on this ranking), although it would remain behind job, partner, accommodation and a good education. Above the age of 30, having a child becomes a substantially more important contributor to quality of life.

We measured the satisfaction with life of the population of the Candidate Countries with multi-faceted questions. Besides asking the respondents how satisfied they were with life in general, we measured their satisfaction in various domains of life as well. In addition, we focused our questions not only on current situation, but we obtained information about retrospective evaluation of satisfaction in each dimension two years ago, and we asked our respondents to make projections for the coming two years as well.

1.1 Subjective well-being

Current life satisfaction – such as satisfaction with different life-domains – was measured with questions using a four point scale, ranging from “very satisfied” to “not at all satisfied” at the bottom end. For country-by-country summaries of positive and negative responses see Table 1.2a in the Annex.

Current levels of subjective well-being

With life in general, 10% of the Candidate Countries populations are very satisfied, 52% are fairly satisfied, 27% are not very satisfied, and 11% are not at all satisfied. These data show a staggering difference from the results measured in the Member States of the European Union, where 26% of the population is very satisfied, and 62% is fairly satisfied with life in general⁶. 88% of European citizens are satisfied with life, while only 61% of the Candidate Countries citizens report higher levels of subjective well-being.



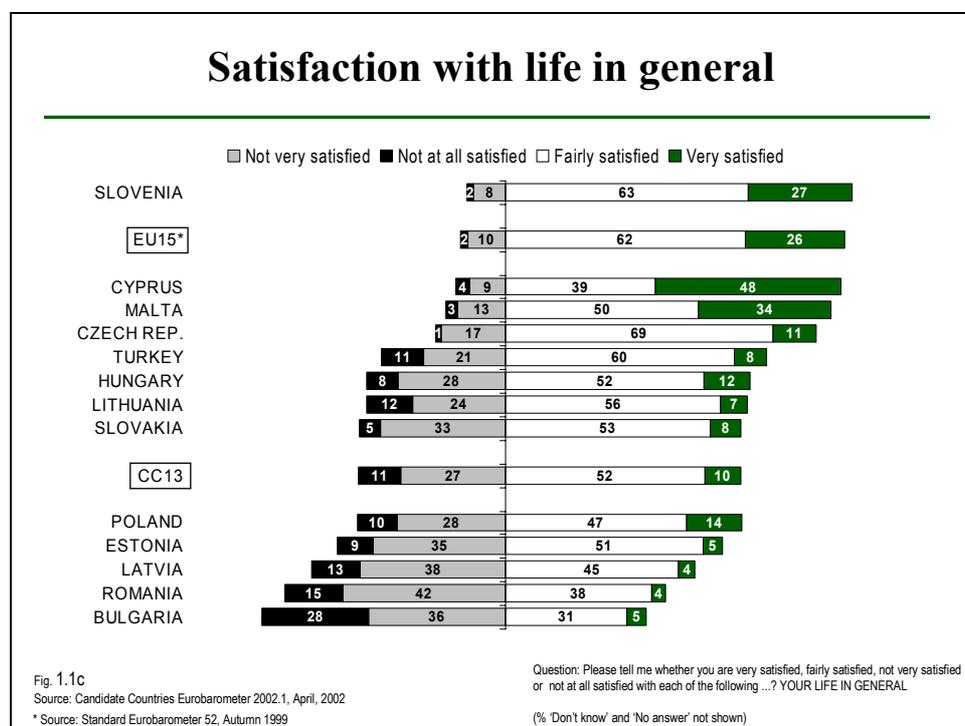
Among the Candidate Countries, citizens of Slovenia, Cyprus, Malta, the Czech Republic, Turkey, Hungary, and Lithuania are more satisfied with life than the average in the Candidate Countries (62% - 90%). Among the Polish population, as many are satisfied with their lives as the average in the Candidate Countries (61% - 61%), but the satisfaction of the population of Estonia, Latvia, Romania and Bulgaria is below the average (36% - 56%).

Looking at the cumulative ratio of those who are very and fairly satisfied with their lives, Slovenia is at the top with 90% of the population answering that they are very or fairly satisfied with life. Cyprus is second (87%), and Malta comes third (84%).

If we only consider the ratio of those who are *very satisfied* with their lives in general, then Slovenia falls behind Cyprus and Malta. While 48% of the Cypriots and 34% of the Maltese answered that they were very satisfied with their lives, only 27% of the Slovenians agreed.

⁶ Source: Standard Eurobarometer 51, Autumn 1999

Citizens of Bulgaria and Romania are the least satisfied with life. 28% of the Bulgarians answered that they were not at all satisfied, and 36% said that they were not very satisfied with life in general. In Romania 15% of the population is not at all satisfied, and 42% is not very satisfied with life. (Figure 1.1.b.).



In the Candidate Countries more women than men answered that they are very and fairly satisfied (63% versus 60%), and also less women than men claim to be not very or not at all satisfied with the life in general (37% versus 41%).

Analyses of age groups show that younger generations are more satisfied with life than their older peers. 15% of the youngest generation is very satisfied with life in general and 61% of them are fairly satisfied. The 25 to 39 year olds are also rather satisfied, 64% of them claiming they are very or fairly satisfied with life in general. This rate is lower in the other two age groups: 53% of the 40 – 54 year olds and 55+ year olds are very and fairly satisfied with the life. A quarter of the youngest generation is not very or not at all satisfied with life in general (23%). 37% of the 25-39 year old population, 46% of the 40-54 years old and 55+ year old population is not very or not at all satisfied with life.

Managers are very and fairly satisfied with life in general (75%), and this ratio is similarly high amongst white collar workers (73%). Unemployed persons are the least likely to be very or fairly satisfied with their life (47%) and the most likely to be not very or not at all satisfied (53%).

The student population is the most likely to be satisfied with life in general (73%), followed by those who ended their education at 20 years of age or above (65%). People with lower education have lower levels of subjective well-being; those who terminated their education either between 16 and 19 years or below 15 years (58-58%).

There is a big gap between the level of dissatisfaction with life between the generation still studying and those who have completed their education. While only 16% of the generation still studying is not very or not at all satisfied with the life, 36% of those with more than 20 years of education and 42% of those with more than 15-16 years or below 15 years of education said they are dissatisfied.

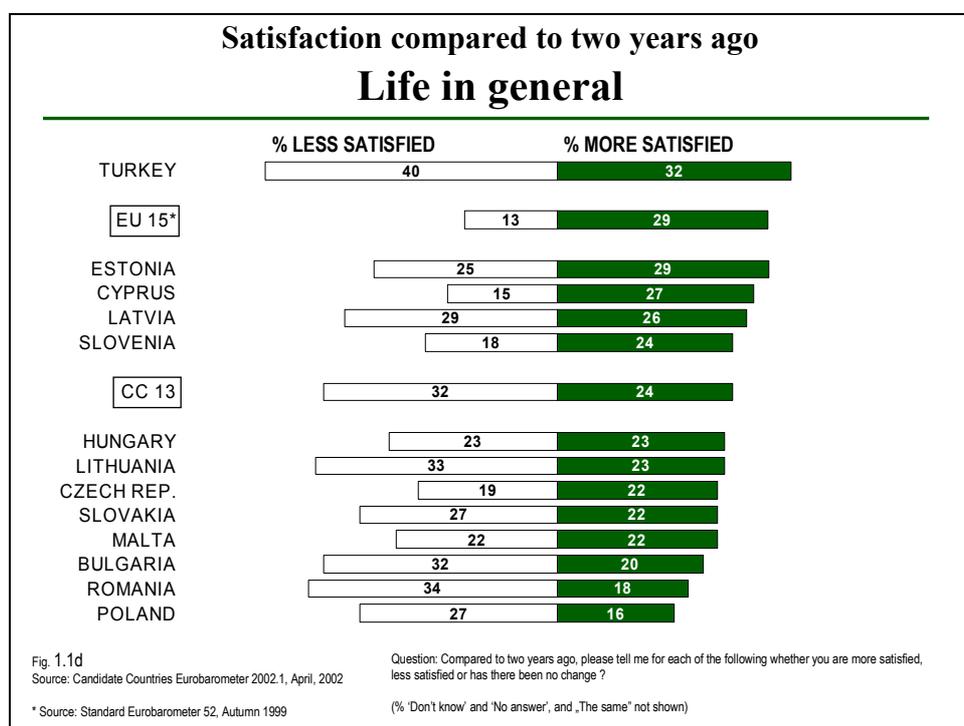
The greatest proportion of those with high levels of subjective well-being is among those who live in large towns (64%), but those living in small or middle sized towns are close behind (62%). Those who live in rural areas or villages are somewhat less likely to be very or fairly satisfied (59%). There are a higher number of dissatisfied people in rural area and villages (40%) than in small or mid-sized towns (38%) and the lowest percent of them are in large towns (36%). (see Annex Table 1.2b)

Recent change in subjective well-being

In the entirety of the Candidate Countries, 44% of the population answered that they were as satisfied two years ago as they are now with their life in general. 32% of the respondents are less satisfied, and 24% are more satisfied with their life than two years ago. In the EU Member States we find more stability; only 42 percent report any change (versus 56% in the CC-13 region). The direction of the change people recently experienced in the European Union is reverse; it is more than twice as likely positive than negative (29% and 13% respectively).

People in Turkey (32%), Estonia (29%), Cyprus (27%), and Latvia (26%) are now satisfied with their life in the highest proportions.

However, it is also in Turkey where the ratio of those who are less satisfied with their life than they were two years ago is the highest (40%). The ratio of those less satisfied with their life as compared to the situation two years ago is also high in Romania (34%), Lithuania (29%), and Bulgaria (32%). (See also Table 1.4a in Annex)



Males and females perceive change in their subjective well-being over a two year period in a very similar fashion: 25% of females were more satisfied two years ago with their life in general, and 22% of the men felt the same way. 43% of the men and 45% of the women see no change at all in their satisfaction with life.

Thirty-four percent of the youngest generation (15-24 years), 26% of those 25-39 years old, 20% of those 40-54 years old and only 14% of those 55+ years old are more satisfied now than two years ago with life in general. While more than half of the oldest generation (52%) said they are as satisfied as they were two years ago with their life, only 44% of the 40-54 year old population, 40% of the youngest generation and 39% of those 25-39 years old also felt this way.

Over the recent past, subjective well-being improved amongst managers (32%) and house persons (32%) in the highest proportions, inversely, those who are now less satisfied can be found with the greatest likelihood among the unemployed (42%) and self employed (36%) persons.

47% of both those still studying and those who ended their education at 16-19 years claim no change in their satisfaction with life. Those more satisfied than two years ago are most likely those who are still studying (31%), while the opposite opinion is most prevalent among those who terminated their education before 15 years of age (35%). Detailed data in demographic breakdown are presented in Table 1.4b in the Annex.

Short-terms expectations related to subjective well-being

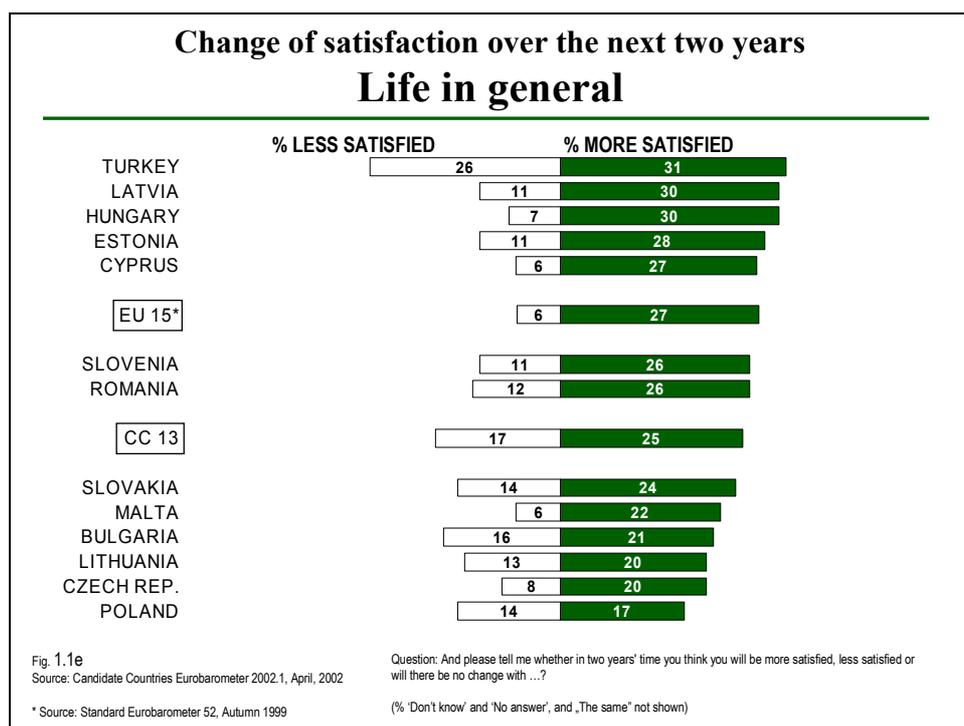
In Candidate Region, 25% of the population believe that they will be more satisfied with their life in general than they are now, and 17% believe that their subjective well-being will deteriorate in short term. A large proportion of the population (39%), however, expects to be as satisfied with their life in two years' time as they are now. With the exception of Romania and Turkey, those who expect no change in their satisfaction with life are in the majority. (Table 1.6a in the Annex)

Compared to the European Union, people in the Candidate Region are more divided in evaluating the future dynamics of their subjective well-being. While in the EU, people who expect change are almost unanimously expecting improvement (27% versus 6% expecting deterioration), similar levels of optimistic expectations in the CC-13 region are paired with considerably higher levels of pessimistic projections.

We note here that in each of the Candidate Countries, the ratio of those who could not or did not want to answer this question was very high. The highest levels are in Cyprus (33%), and the lowest in Poland (10%). In the whole of the Candidate Countries, 19% of the population could not or did not want to answer this question.

When looking only at the ratio of those that answered that they would be more satisfied in two years' time with their life in general, then we find the most of them in Turkey (31%). Citizens are almost as optimistic in Latvia and Hungary (30%, both). Poland has the least number of people with optimistic expectations (17%).

Analysing pessimistic responses we find Turkey topping the list: a quarter (26%) of the population believes that they would be less satisfied in two years' time with their life in general than they are now. With this high proportion the populous Turkey determines the average for the whole CC-13 region; in the other countries there are less people than the average for the entirety of the Candidate Countries who believe that they will be less satisfied with their life in two years' time (from 6% in Malta and Cyprus to 16% in Bulgaria and 14% in Poland and Slovakia).



Looking at the differences in different demographic groups, we find that one quarter of both men and women said they expect to be more satisfied with their life (25%). More men than women think they will be less satisfied (19% versus 15%), and more women than men predict no change in life satisfaction (40% versus 38%).

Among age cohorts, the 25-39 year olds are the most likely to expect improved well-being (41%) in the short term, while the oldest generation is the most likely to expect to be less satisfied after two years. The ratios of those expecting no change are high among both the 15-24 year olds and people 55 years and older.

The white-collar workers (30%) and the house persons (29%) are the most likely to claim higher expected satisfaction in two years time. The greatest proportions of those expecting deteriorating quality of life are among the self employed (24%). From different current positions, 48% of the retired and 45% of managers expect no change.

Looking at the levels of education, the greatest number expecting more satisfaction are those still studying (43%), while those who ended their education at 15 or 19 years of age (22% and 23%) are the least likely to expect improvement. Those with less than 15 years of education are the most likely to predict lower levels of satisfaction (21%). 43% of those who are studied 20 years or more claim there will be no change in life satisfaction, they perceive their subjective well-being to remain stable in short term.

Those living in large towns are most likely to expect a positive change with life in general in two years time (30%). 18% of the villagers, and 16% of those who live in small towns expect to be less satisfied with life. (see also Table 1.6b in the Annex)

Dynamics of change in subjective well-being

Satisfaction is always relative. The recent past and expectations regarding the near future together determine to what extent people think they have a chance to improve their quality of life. In these paragraphs below we will profile certain patterns we found in each Candidate Country in this respect.

For these analyses we combined past experience and future expectations in the following groups:

Improving satisfaction: those who believe that two years ago their satisfaction levels were not better than today, and expect positive change in the future; and those who experienced improvement in the past two years and do not expect deterioration in the short future

Deteriorating satisfaction: those who believe that their satisfaction levels were better two years ago than today, and do not expect positive change in the future; combined with those who experienced stability over the past two years but expect deterioration in the short future

Stable satisfaction: those who did not experience change in the recent past, and expect stability in the future as well

All other cases, where there is no clear and consistent directionality of the experienced and expected change over time are excluded from these analyses.

In the Candidate Region we find that a consistent positive change is perceived by every fifth citizen (21%), one quarter (24%) report no change and 16% reports expected or experienced change pointing in negative direction. (39% reported mixed directionality in the past and future change of their subjective well-being).

Table 1.1a Subjective well-being, perceptions of change over time
in %, by country

	CURRENT LEVELS OF SATISFACTION	IMPROVING	STABLE	DETERIO- RATING	NET DIFFERENCE BETWEEN PERCEPTIONS OF IMPROVEMENT AND DETERIORATION
CC 13	61	21	24	16	+4
SLOVENIA	90	24	36	12	+13
CYPRUS	87	24	23	6	+18
MALTA	84	24	32	12	+13
CZECH REP.	81	18	30	11	+7
TURKEY	68	25	13	19	+5
HUNGARY	63	23	28	10	+13
LITHUANIA	63	18	20	16	+2
POLAND	61	16	42	17	-2
SLOVAKIA	61	21	26	15	+6
ESTONIA	56	23	22	13	+10
LATVIA	49	22	23	13	+10
ROMANIA	41	21	17	14	+7
BULGARIA	36	18	22	20	-2

In most Candidate Countries, the net balance of the consistent directionalities of the change points to the positive direction as far as subjective well-being is concerned. This is not the case only in Bulgaria and Poland, where deterioration outweighs improvement; positive and negative reports sum up to -2 percentage points.

The highest levels of positive change can be observed in the countries that are topping the ranking of the subjective well-being in the CC-13 region (Cyprus: +18, Slovenia and Malta: +13), and in Hungary, where reports of consistent improvement outscore those of consistent decline by 13 percentage point as well.

Among the countries, where current quality of life is reported to be relatively low, we found clearly positive tendencies in Estonia and Latvia (+10 percentage points); Romanians and Slovaks also have a positive balance of improvement and decline (+7 and +6 percentage points respectively).

The Polish report the highest stability in life satisfaction; 42% of them did not experience significant change in the recent past, and do not expect one in the future either. The same is true for only 13% of the Turkish citizens. In Turkey, recently hit by serious financial crisis, we find a marked division; this country ranks high in both positive and negative perceptions of change in life satisfaction, which suggests that there is a widening gap between the more and the less advantageous parts of its population.

1.2 Satisfaction with various life-domains

We measured satisfaction in nine sub-domains of life (health, health care system of the given country, family life, social life, personal safety, financial situation, employment situation, home, the living area, neighbourhood) on a 4-point scale, ranging from “very satisfied” to “not at all satisfied”.

Multivariate analyses show significant and tight contingency between the satisfaction with life in general and the satisfaction with its sub-domains. When examining the coefficients among variables, the closest contingency is between satisfaction with life in general and the satisfaction with financial situation, followed by satisfaction with social life and one’s own health. Satisfaction with family life shows close contingency with levels of subjective well-being as well. These are the factors that explain the most of the overall variation in life satisfaction, in other words, these are the ones that drive subjective well-being to the greatest extent.

Table 1.2a Relationships between subjective well-being and satisfaction with various sub-domains of life
results of contingency analysis at CC-13 level

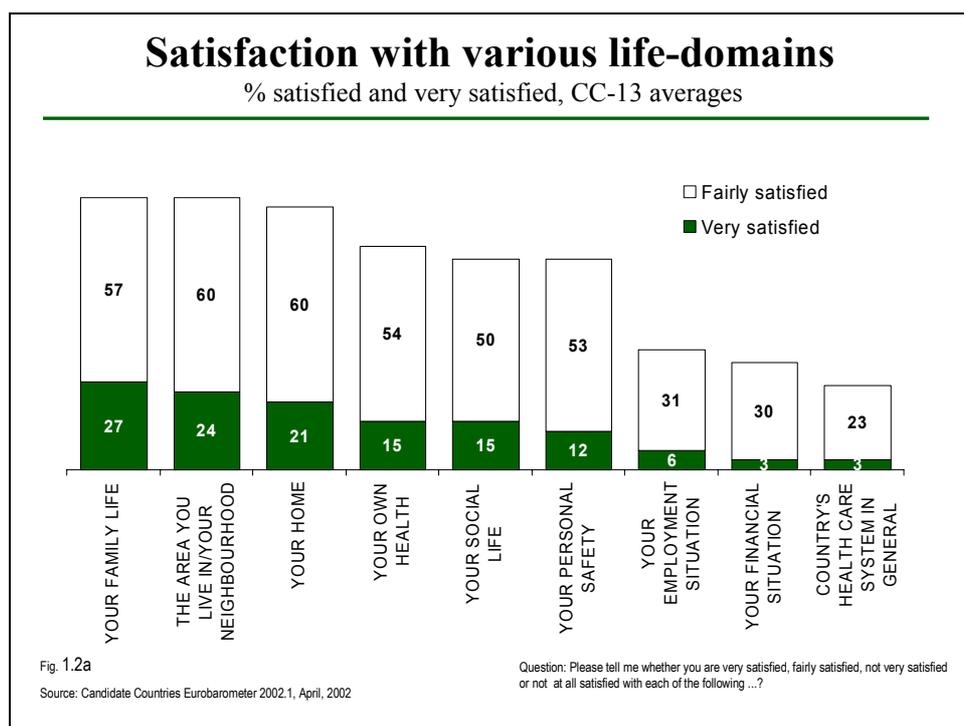
	Gamma coefficients
Your financial situation	0.615
Your social life	0.565
Your own health	0.557
Your family life	0.486
Your employment situation	0.477
Your personal safety	0.398
Your home	0.368
Country’s health care system in general	0.288
The neighbourhood	0.221

Approximate significance: 0.000 for each variable

The survey found varying proportions satisfied with the four sub-domains of life that proved to be the key drivers of subjective well-being; while many people are satisfied with their family life, most of our respondents are unsatisfied with their financial situation, as the graph below shows. Levels of health satisfaction and satisfaction with social life are not particularly high either.

In the Candidate Region people are the most likely to be very or fairly satisfied with their family life (84%), with their area they live (84%) and with their home (81%). Only few are satisfied with their country’s health care system (26%) and satisfaction levels remain low if it comes to employment opportunities or personal financial situation as well.

Considering just those who claimed to be very satisfied with certain aspects of life, satisfaction levels are considerably lower, but the ranking does not change: the greatest proportion is very satisfied with family life (27%), followed again by the neighbourhood (24%) and home (21%). People are the least likely to be ‘very satisfied’ with their financial situation (3%), and their country’s health care system (3%). Only 15% of all citizens in the Candidate Region are very satisfied with their health and social life.

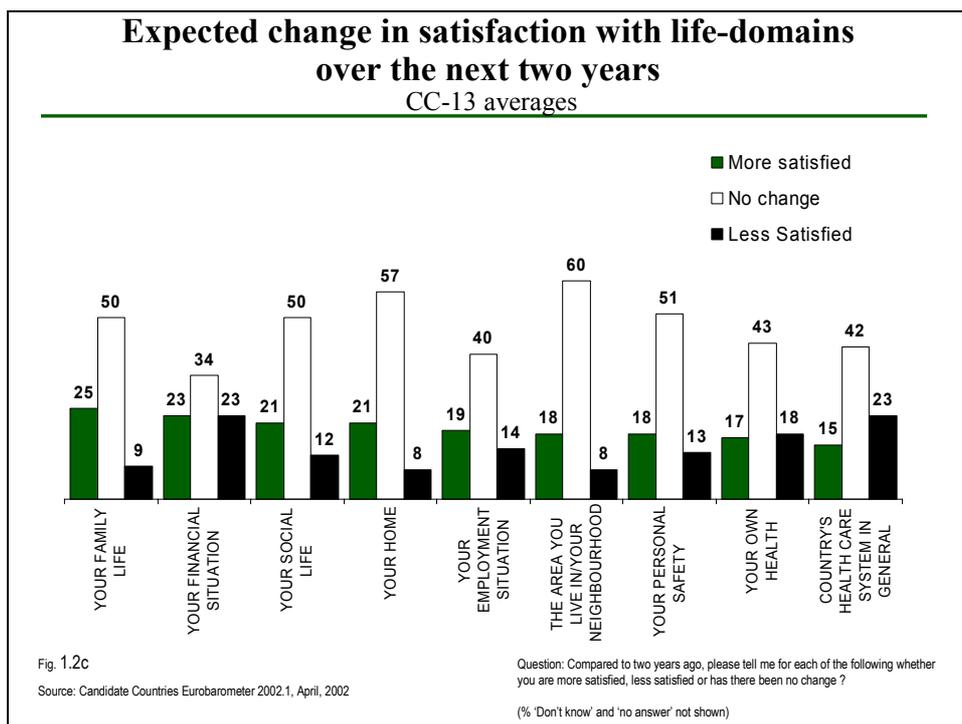
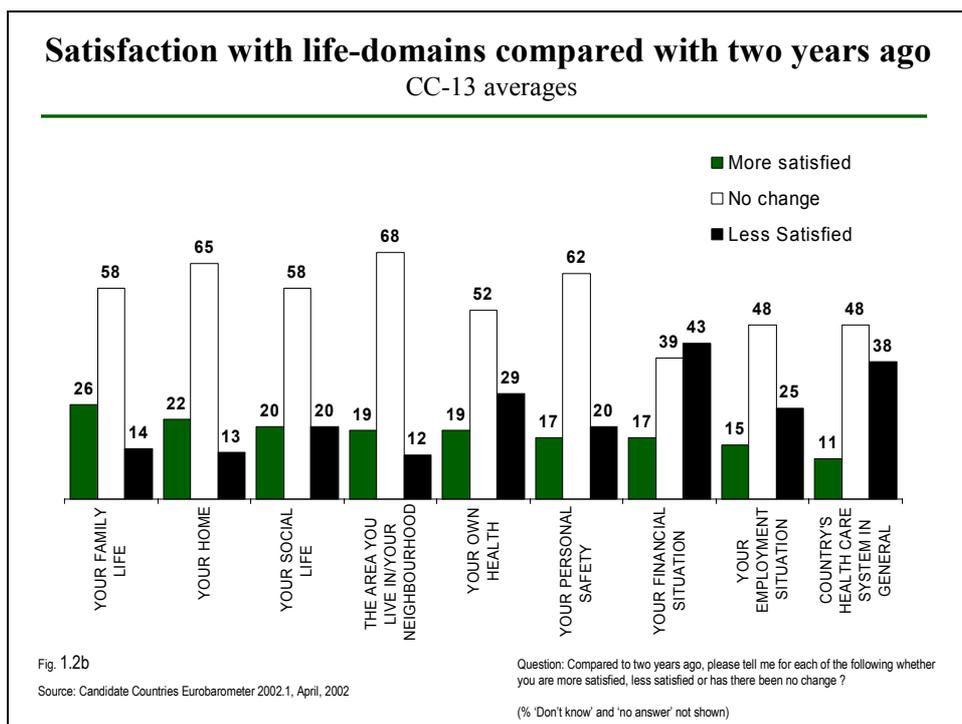


In the 13 Candidate Countries people experienced a positive change over the past two years in their satisfaction with their family the most likely (26%), 22% are now more satisfied with their homes and 20% reported an improvement in their social life. However, only 11% of the Candidate Countries' population thought their country's health care system had improved, and 15% indicated that their current position on the labour market is better compared to two years ago.

People rarely report an improvement in their financial situation either (17%). Just in contrary: a great deal of people are less satisfied with their financial situation compared to two years ago (43%) as well as with the health care system in their country (38%). (Figure 1.2b)

The aspects, in which citizens of the Candidate Countries are most likely to think they will be "more satisfied in the next two years" are their family life (25%), their financial situation (23%), their home (21%) and their employment situation (21%). Only 15% of the population of the Candidate Countries hope they will be more satisfied in two years time with their country's health care system.

Considering "less satisfied in the next two years" answers, the highest ratios were in the financial situation (23%, the respondents are clearly divided in this respect), the country health care system (23%) and the respondent's own health (18%). (Figure 1.2c)



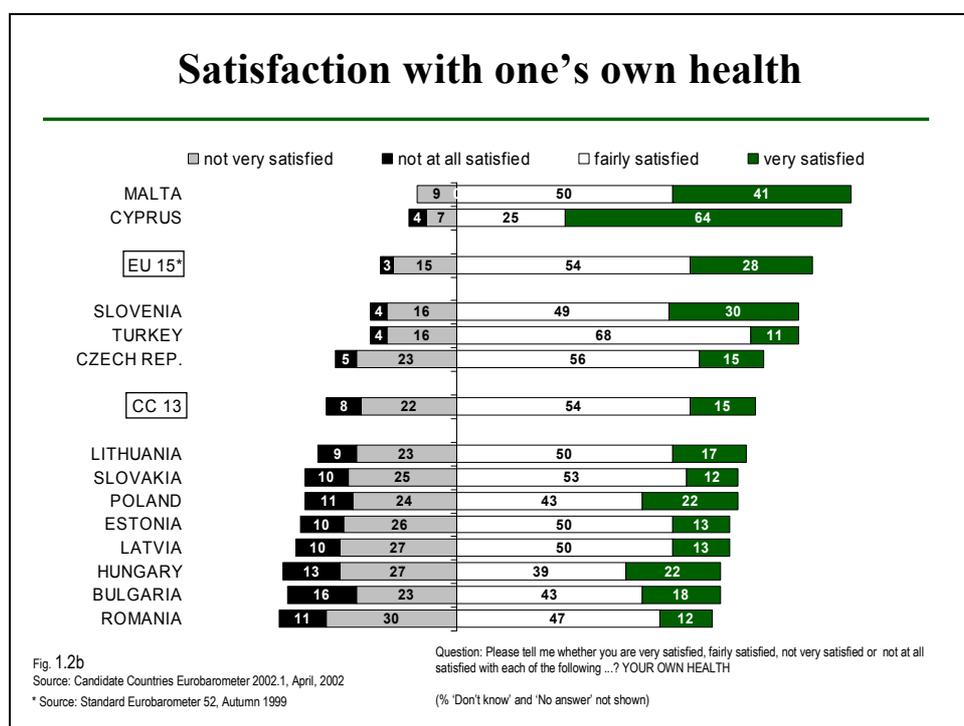
In the following pages we will examine current, past, and projected future satisfaction with each of these factors. Table 1.3 in the Annex gives a short overview of the positive and negative responses in each Candidate Country, Table 1.5 has comparisons with two years ago, and the reader can look up country-by-country expectations regarding future in Table 1.7 of the Annex.

Satisfaction with one's own health

Current satisfaction levels

Looking at the total percentage of very satisfied and fairly satisfied respondents combined, the Maltese are the most satisfied in this respect with 91% of the citizens answering that they are very or fairly satisfied with their health. Cyprus comes second (89%), and Slovenia third (78% very or fairly satisfied with their health). Focusing on the ratio of those who are very satisfied only, the Cypriots top the list with 64% feeling this way.

At the other end of the scale, those least satisfied with their health are living in Romania and Hungary. 11% of the Romanian population claim to be not at all satisfied and 30% are not very satisfied. In Hungary, the same ratios are 13% and 27%, respectively. It is worth noticing that Bulgaria has the highest ratio of those not at all satisfied with their health (16%).

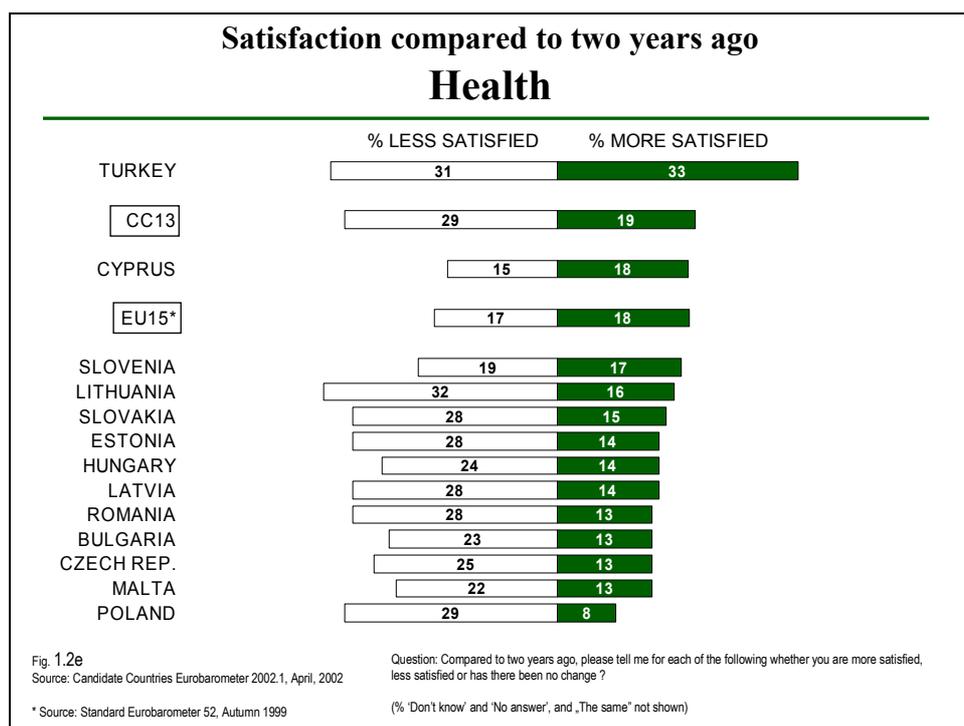


Satisfaction levels compared to two years ago

In the Candidate Region, 19% of the population are more satisfied with their health than they were two years ago, 29% are less satisfied, and over half of the respondents are as satisfied with their health as they were two years ago (52%).

Only in Turkey did more people than the average of the Candidate Countries respond that they were currently more satisfied with their health than they were two years ago (33%, while the Candidate Country average is 19%). At the same time 31% of Turks are less satisfied with their health than they were 2 years ago. The remaining 36% had the same level of satisfaction with health as they had 2 years earlier.

Among the Polish, the fewest (8%) said that they were more satisfied now with their health than two years ago, and 29% of them are less satisfied. 63% of them reported no change in this sub-area (Figure 1.2.b.)



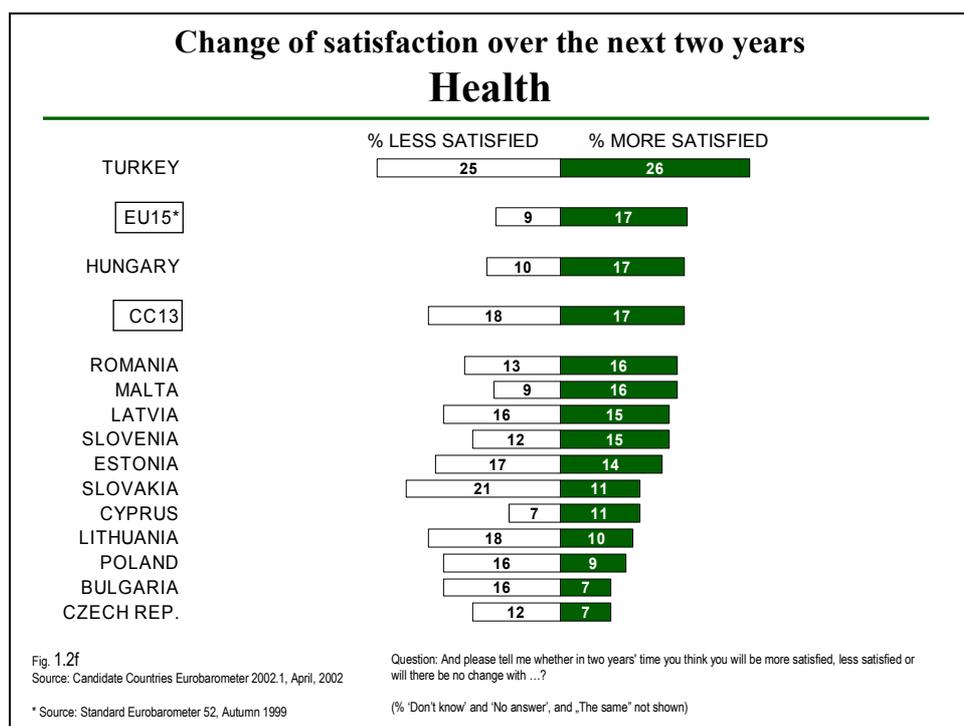
Projected satisfaction levels in the next two years

Exceeding the average of the Candidate Countries, Turkish and Hungarians are the most likely to expect that they will be more satisfied in two years' time with their health than now (26% and 17%).

While among the Turkish this optimism is paralleled with high proportion of pessimistic responses (who expect to be less satisfied with their health: 25%), for the Hungarians this rate is only 10%. 31% of the Turkish, and 50% of the Hungarians predict no change in their levels of satisfaction concerning their health.

Czechs and the Bulgarians are the least likely to expect to be more satisfied with their life in two years' time (7% both). Still the majority, 48% of the Czechs and 45% of the Bulgarians answered that they would be as satisfied with their health in two years' time as they are now. (Figure 1.2c)

(Chapter 5 discusses issues related to health in more detail.)



Dynamics of change: health satisfaction

In the Candidate Region we find that a consistent positive change regarding their health status is perceived by 15% of the citizens, 29% report no change and another 15% reports change pointing in negative direction. The net balance of negative and positive responses is 0 at the CC-13 level; there are as many people reporting improvement as sensing deterioration. (41% reported mixed directionality in the past and future change of their health status).

Table 1.2a Health satisfaction, perceptions of change over time
in %, by country

	CURRENT LEVELS OF SATISFACTION	IMPROVING	STABLE	DETERIORATING	NET DIFFERENCE BETWEEN PERCEPTIONS OF IMPROVEMENT AND DETERIORATION
CC 13	69	15	29	15	0
MALTA	91	20	38	12	+8
CYPRUS	89	12	28	7	+5
SLOVENIA	79	16	46	13	+3
TURKEY	79	19	17	17	+2
CZECH REP.	71	10	33	14	-4
LITHUANIA	67	9	21	15	-5
POLAND	65	11	48	17	-6
SLOVAKIA	65	11	26	15	-4
ESTONIA	63	12	33	14	-2
LATVIA	63	15	34	12	+2
BULGARIA	61	9	33	17	-9
HUNGARY	61	16	38	11	+5
ROMANIA	59	16	23	12	+4

Candidate Countries reporting positive tendencies in health satisfaction are on one hand those, where satisfaction levels are the highest (Malta +8, Cyprus +5, Slovenia +3 percentage points) and on the other hand, those where current levels of satisfaction are the lowest (Hungary +5, Romania +4).

However, the country where we observed the most dramatic negative tendency is also one with a low level of health satisfaction, Bulgaria, where reports of consistent deterioration outscore those of consistent improvement by 9 percentage points. Also in Lithuania and Poland, deteriorating tendencies are dominant over improvement (with -5 and -6 percentage points net difference between positive and negative change, respectively).

At the same time, the Polish – along with Slovenians – report the highest stability in health satisfaction; respectively, 48% and 46% of them did not experience significant change in the recent past, and do not expect one in the future either. The same is true for only 17% of the Turkish citizens.

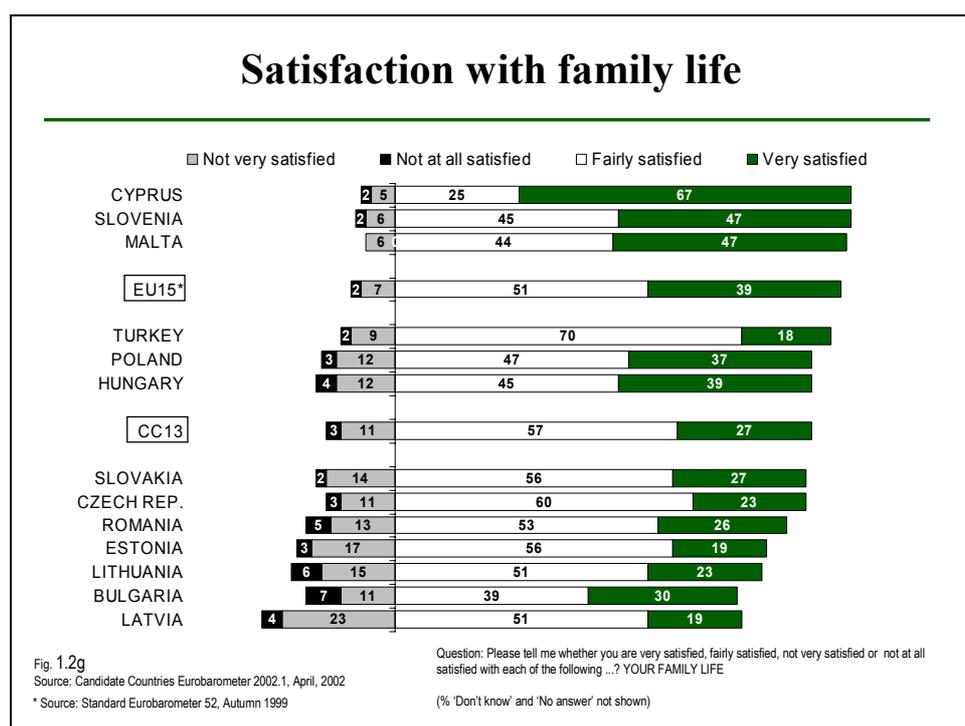
Satisfaction with family life

Current satisfaction levels

This is the domain of life that not only drives subjective well-being to a great extent, but the survey recorded high levels of satisfaction across the Candidate Region. Satisfaction with family life is high in each country; 27% are very satisfied, and a further 57% are fairly satisfied with their family life. Only 3% of the respondents claimed that they were not at all satisfied with this aspect of their life. Still, European citizens report even higher levels of satisfaction, 39% in the EU are very satisfied with their family life compared to the just over one quarter we find in the Candidate Region.

There are six countries above the CC-13 average: Cyprus, Slovenia, Malta, Turkey, Poland and Hungary. When looking at only those who are *very* satisfied with their family life, Cyprus tops the list with 67%, followed by Slovenia and Malta with an equal ratio of 47%.

Although similar ratios remain below the average in the other countries, the levels of satisfaction remain high. The people most unsatisfied with their family life live in Latvia and Lithuania. 28% of the Latvians and 22% of the Lithuanians are unsatisfied with their family life. In Bulgaria, the ratio of those not at all satisfied with their family life is the highest, but is still only 7%. (Figure 1.2g)

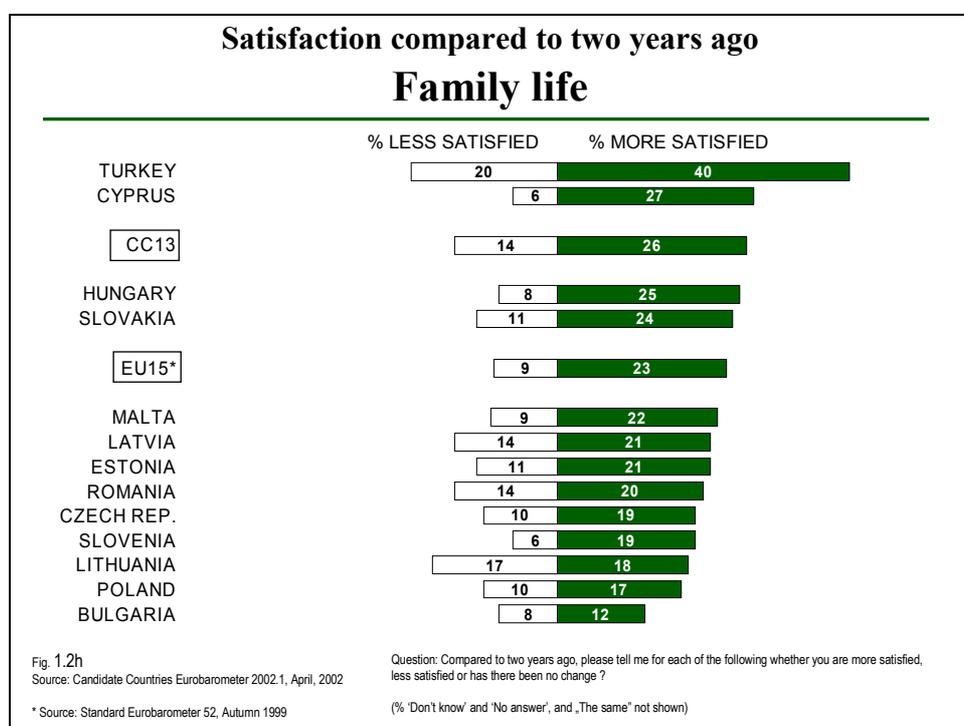


Satisfaction levels compared to two years ago

In this aspect of life, people who are more satisfied now, outscore those who are less satisfied compared to two years ago. 26% are more satisfied, and 14% are less satisfied with their family life compared to two years ago, and 58% think there has been no change in this respect.

As regards more satisfied population, two countries are above the Candidate Countries average: 40% of the Turkish and 27% of the Cypriots are now more satisfied with their family life than two years ago. Among the Turkish, the ratio of those less satisfied with their family life now than two years ago is also high (20%); while among the Cypriots this ratio is only 6%. 40% of the Turkish, and 67% of the Cypriots are as satisfied with their family life as they were two years ago.

The fewest people are more satisfied with their family life than two years ago among the Bulgarians (12%), but the ratio of those now less satisfied with this domain also remains low (8%). Consequently, 75% of the Bulgarians answered that there was no difference in their level of satisfaction with family life as compared to two years ago. (Figure 1.2h)



Projected satisfaction levels in the next two years

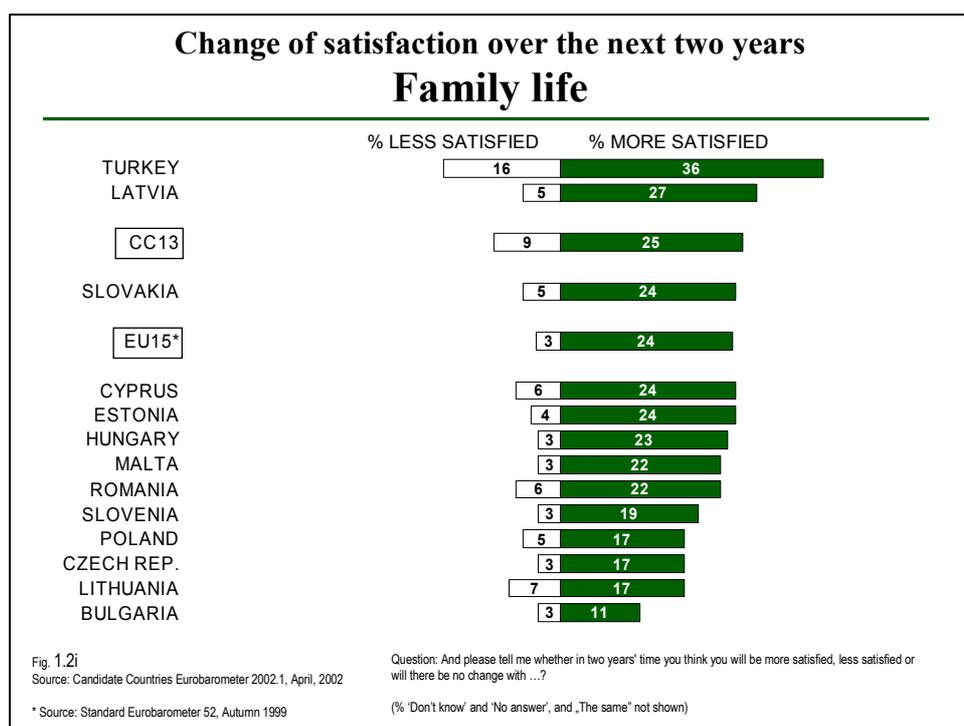
With the exception of Turkey, the majority of the people in each country expect to be similarly satisfied with their family life in two years time.

Overall, in the Candidate Region, half of the population predicts no change in their satisfaction with family life, and 25% answered that they will be more satisfied in two years' time. Only 9% are pessimistic in this respect.

The average ratio among the Candidate Countries of those expecting more satisfaction with family life is exceeded only by Turkey and Latvia. High proportion of the Turkish (36%) and

27% of the Latvians indicated that they expect to be more satisfied with their family life in two years' time than they are now. On the other hand, among the Turkish the ratio of those that expect to be less satisfied with their family life in two years' time is also the highest (16%), while it is only 5% among the Latvians.

The Bulgarians have the lowest ratio of those people who expect to be more satisfied with their family life in two years' time (11%), but their ratio is also the lowest among those who expect less satisfied with it (3%). According to 65% of the Bulgarians, there will be no change in the level of satisfaction with family life. (Figure 1.2i)



Dynamics of change: satisfaction with family life

Candidate Countries unanimously report positive tendencies in satisfaction with family life over time. As shown on Table 1.2b on the next page, indications of consistent improvement and consistent deterioration yield a clearly positive balance in each Candidate Country.

Overall, in the Candidate Region we find that a consistent positive change regarding their satisfaction with family life is reported by 20% of the citizens, 37% report no change and only 9% report a consistent change pointing in negative direction. The net balance of positive and negative responses is +11 percentage points at the CC-13 level. 34% report mixed directionality in the past and future change of their satisfaction with their family life.

The countries where we observed the most significant positive tendencies are Malta (+17 percentage point), Slovakia, and Slovenia (+16 both).

Again, the Polish and the Slovenes are the most likely to report no change in the past and in the future: respectively, 57% and 56% of them did not experience significant change in the recent past in this aspect of their life, and do not foresee one in the near future either. The same is true for only 21% of the Turkish citizens, who are consistently the least likely to report

stability over time in their levels satisfaction, and usually the most divided among all countries. In this aspect as well as in many others, they are reporting both consistent improvement and steady worsening in satisfaction with their family life in the highest proportions.

Table 1.2b Satisfaction with family life, perceptions of change over time
in %, by country

	CURRENT LEVELS OF SATISFACTION	IMPROVING	STABLE	DETERIO- RATING	NET DIFFERENCE BETWEEN PERCEPTIONS OF IMPROVEMENT AND DETERIORATION
CC 13	84	20	37	9	+11
CYPRUS	92	19	38	6	+14
SLOVENIA	92	20	56	4	+16
MALTA	91	23	43	6	+17
TURKEY	88	24	21	14	+9
HUNGARY	84	17	43	4	+13
POLAND	84	17	57	7	+11
CZECH REP.	83	18	44	5	+13
SLOVAKIA	83	22	39	6	+16
ROMANIA	79	18	34	7	+11
ESTONIA	75	19	40	6	+13
LITHUANIA	74	16	34	8	+8
LATVIA	70	20	41	8	+12
BULGARIA	69	14	54	7	+8

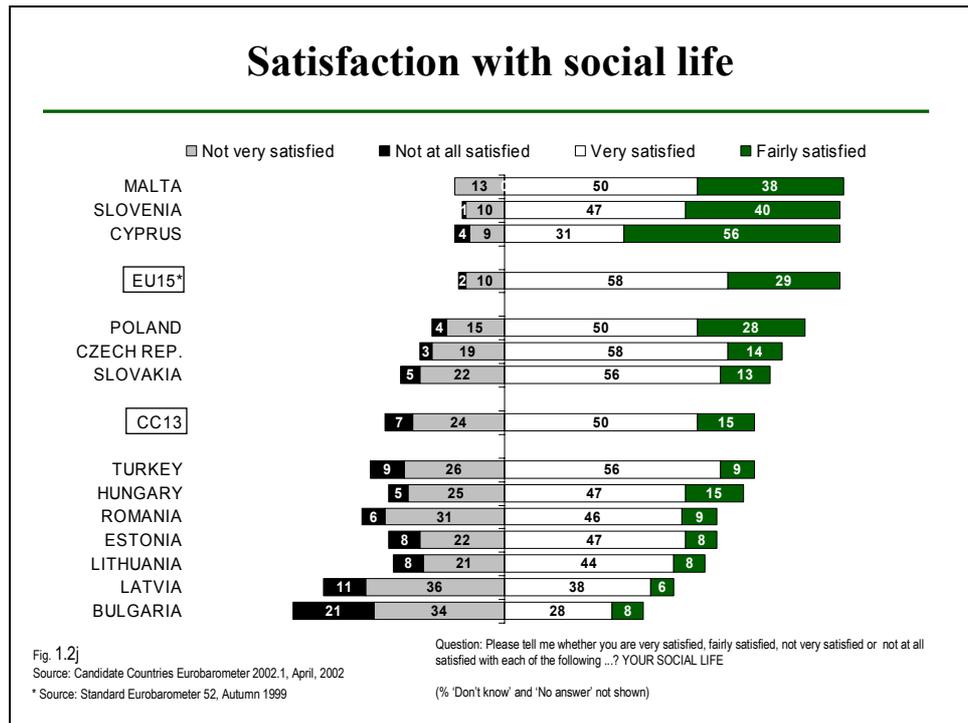
Satisfaction with social life

Current satisfaction levels

As we saw, satisfaction with social life is the second most important driver of one's subjective well-being. 50% of the population is fairly satisfied and 15% is very satisfied with social life in the Candidate Countries. Overall, only about two thirds (65%) of CC-13 citizens are satisfied with this life-domain, compared to 87% in the EU-15 region.

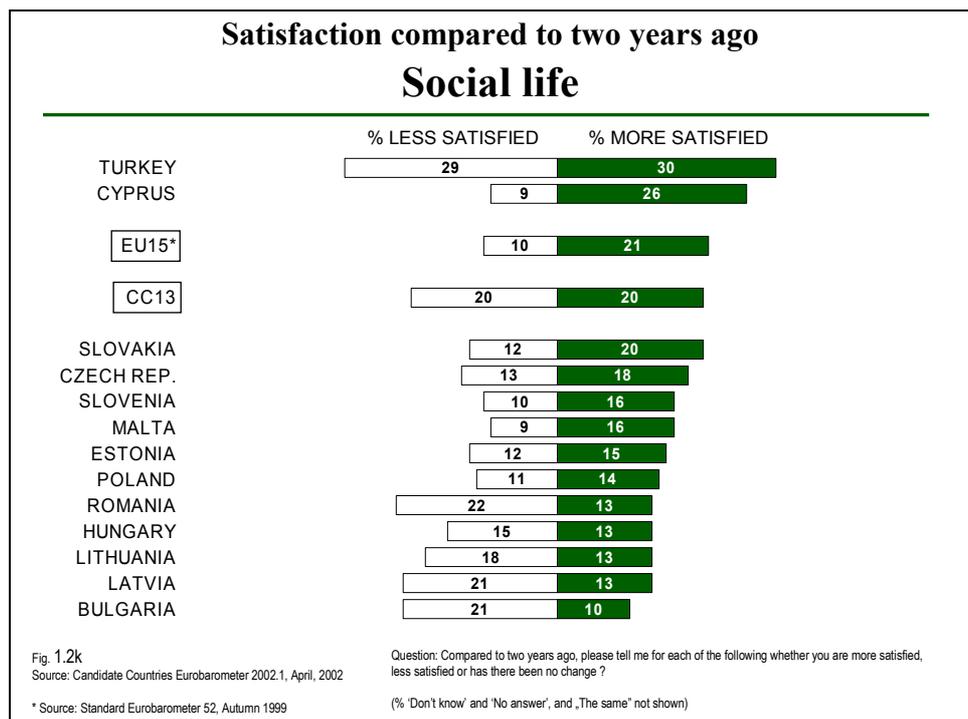
The analysis of the responses on country level shows, that the ratio of people very and fairly satisfied with social life is the highest in Malta, where 88% feel that way. Within the Cypriot and Slovene population, the rate of those satisfied with social life is rather high as well (87%). When looking at only those who are very satisfied with their social life, the Cypriots are far off ahead of other countries with more than half of the population choosing the most affirmative option in this question (56%).

Bulgaria has the highest proportion of those not at all or not very satisfied with their social life (55%), one fifth of them (21%) are even 'not at all' satisfied in this respect. The ratio of disappointed respondents is also high in Latvia (47%). 38% of the population in Romania, 35% in Turkey, and 30% of the population in Estonia are dissatisfied with their social life. (Figure 1.2j)



Satisfaction levels compared to two years ago

Exactly one in five respondents (20%) in the Candidate Region are now more satisfied with their social life than two years ago, but another 20% are less satisfied with this domain than two years ago. The majority, 58% of the Candidate Region's population are as satisfied with their social life as they were two years ago.



Turkey has the highest percentage of people who reported change for both better and worse, 30% now more satisfied, and 29% less satisfied with their social life than two years ago. Cyprus seems a bit better off, because while the ratio of those now more satisfied is close to that of Turkey (26%), the ratio of those less satisfied is considerably lower at only 9%.

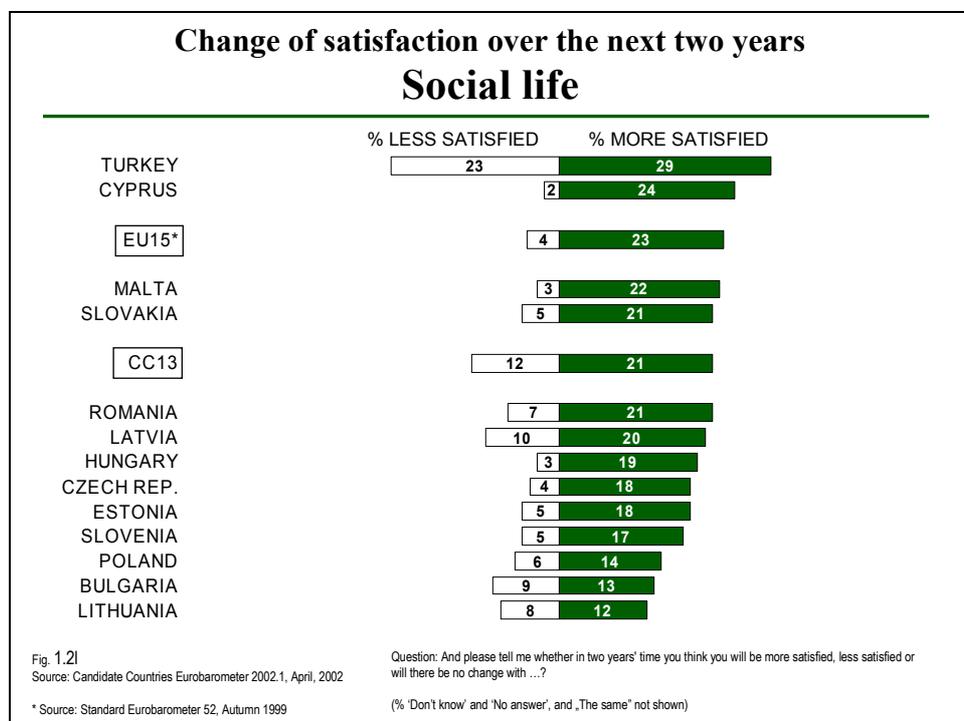
The ratio of those who are now more satisfied with their social life is the lowest among the Bulgarians (10%), and almost as low among the Latvians (12%). Among the Bulgarians and the Latvians, 21% of the population responded that they were now less satisfied with their social life than they were two years ago; 61% and 62% feel that there has been no change. Also in Romania, the survey found a significant negative balance of past change for the better (13%) and for the worse (22%), resulting a net difference of -9 percentage points. (Figure 1.2k)

Projected satisfaction levels in the next two years

In the Candidate Region exactly half (50%) of the population indicated that in two years' time they anticipate similar levels of satisfaction with their social life to their current one. About one fifth, 21% hope to be more satisfied, and only 12% are pessimistic in this respect.

In each country, those respondents that expect to be as satisfied with their social life in two years' time as they are now are in the majority (between 35% and 73%).

We find high levels of optimism in Turkey (29%), Cyprus (24%), Malta (22%), and Slovakia (21%). While the ratio of pessimistic respondents is only 2% among Cypriots, 3% among Maltese and 5% among Slovaks, in Turkey the ratio of those who predict lesser satisfaction with their social life is the highest in the region (23%).



In none of the countries does the ratio of those expecting to be less satisfied with their social life in two years' time approach the level detected in Turkey. Furthermore, this ratio in all the other countries is below the CC-13 average, ranging from 2% in Cyprus to 10% in Latvia.

Candidate Countries Eurobarometer found the least people expect to be more satisfied with their social life in Lithuania (12%), but the ratios measured in Bulgaria and Poland are rather close to this figure (13% and 14%, respectively). 8% of the Lithuanians, 9% of the Bulgarians, and 6% of the Polish think they will be less satisfied with their social life in two years' time; the vast majority, 44% in Lithuania, 53% in Bulgaria, and 73% in Poland anticipate no change in this domain. (Figure 1.2I)

Dynamics of change: satisfaction with social life

In the Candidate Region we find that a consistent positive change is perceived by 17% of citizens, 37% report no change and 12% indicate expected or experienced change pointing in negative direction. (34% reported mixed directionality in the past and future change of their satisfaction with social life).

Table 1.2c Satisfaction with social life, perceptions of change over time
in %, by country

	CURRENT LEVELS OF SATISFACTION	IMPROVING	STABLE	DETERIO- RATING	NET DIFFERENCE BETWEEN PERCEPTIONS OF IMPROVEMENT AND DETERIORATION
CC 13	65	17	37	12	+5
MALTA	88	23	47	6	+17
CYPRUS	87	21	41	5	+16
SLOVENIA	87	19	56	7	+12
POLAND	78	13	62	8	+4
CZECH REP.	72	18	42	7	+11
SLOVAKIA	69	16	45	7	+9
TURKEY	65	21	20	19	+2
HUNGARY	62	15	43	6	+9
ESTONIA	55	12	42	7	+5
ROMANIA	55	18	31	8	+10
LITHUANIA	52	12	32	10	+1
LATVIA	44	16	39	11	+4
BULGARIA	36	12	41	13	-1

In most Candidate Countries, the net balance of the consistent directionalities of the change points to the positive direction as far as satisfaction with social life is concerned (+5). This is not the case only in Bulgaria, where reported deterioration slightly outweighs improvement; positive and negative reports sum up to -1 percentage points.

The highest levels of positive change can be observed in the countries that are topping the ranking of this sub-domain as well (Malta: +17, Cyprus: +16 and Slovenia: +12). There is a favourable tendency in Romania as well, where reports of consistent improvement outscore those of consistent decline by as much as 10 percentage points.

Among the countries, where current satisfaction is reported to be relatively low, we found weak positive tendencies in Lithuania and Latvia (+4 and +1 percentage points); while Bulgarians show no promise of improvement in satisfaction with social life.

As always, the Polish (62%) and the Slovenians (56%) report the highest stability in this aspect of satisfaction; they are the most likely not to experience significant change in the recent past, and do not expect one in the future either.

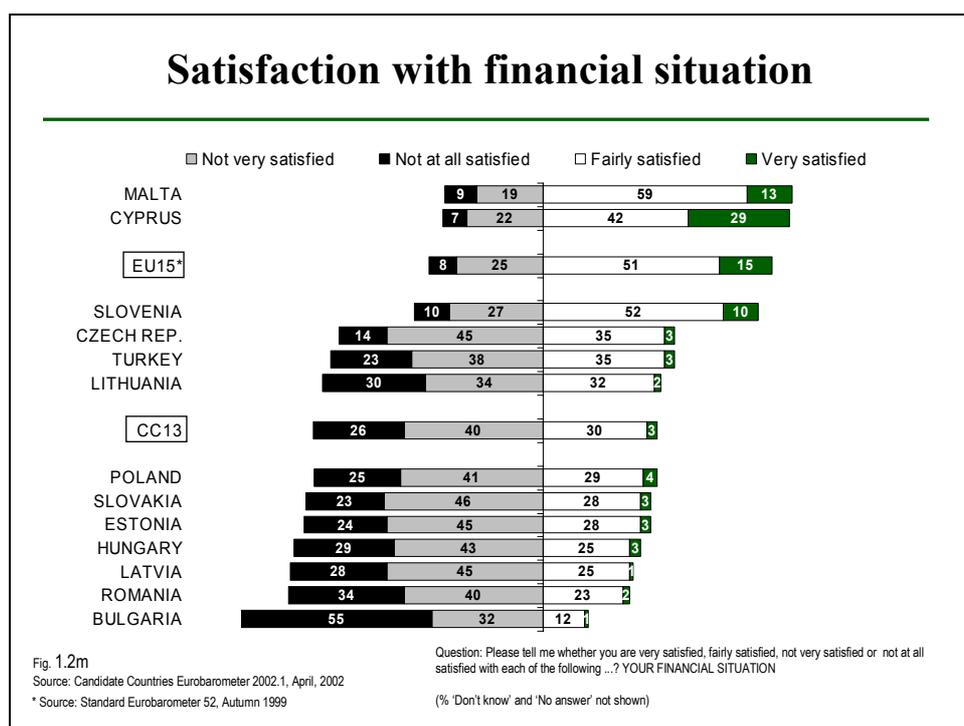
Satisfaction with financial situation

Current satisfaction levels

Only 33% of the population in the Candidate Countries are very and fairly satisfied with their financial situation, as opposed to 40% who are not very satisfied and 26% who are not at all satisfied. The following chapters will profile some of the consequences of the fact, that the subjective well-being of the citizens in the Candidate Region is primarily determined by their financial situation, an aspect which they are the most dissatisfied with among all domains of life.

Except for three countries, dissatisfied persons outnumber those who are satisfied with their financial situation. The exceptions are Malta (72%), Cyprus (71%), and Slovenia (62%), where satisfaction levels are close to those in the European Union. In Cyprus, 3 in 10 people are very satisfied with their financial situation (29%).

In the other ten countries, the proportion of those who are not at all or not very satisfied with their financial situation, ranges between 59 and 88%. The highest proportions of dissatisfaction with financial situation we have found in Bulgaria (88%, 55% not at all satisfied), Romania (74%), Latvia (73%), Hungary (72%), Estonia (69%), Slovakia (69%), and Poland (66%). (Figure 1.2m)



Satisfaction levels compared to two years ago

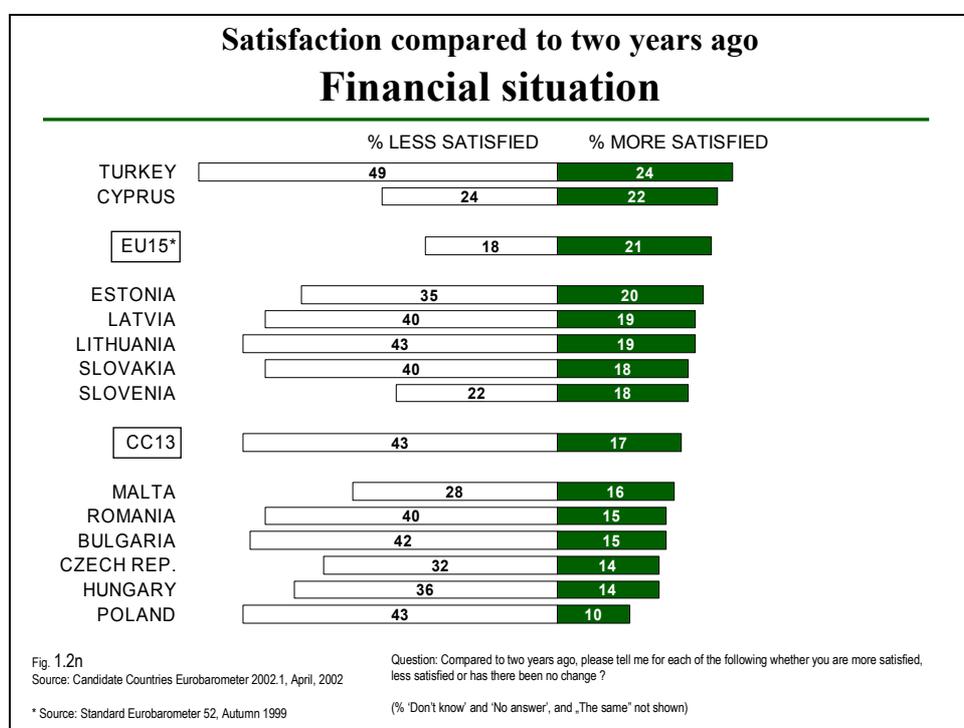
Candidate Countries Eurobarometer did not find any country, where not deterioration would have been the dominant tendency regarding personal financial situation over the course of the past two years. Among the citizens of the Candidate Countries, only 17% are now more satisfied with their financial situation today than they were two years ago, and 43% are less satisfied with their finances. 39% indicated no change in their levels of satisfaction.

Again the Turkish are in a delicate situation; while – marginally – they report improved financial satisfaction as compared to two years ago in highest numbers (24%), they also

experienced deterioration in the recent past in – by far – the highest proportions (49%). The recent financial turmoil left only 28% of the Turkish in a similar financial situation as they were two years ago.

Analysing the result, one can immediately see that country-by-country variations in the positive side are much smaller than in the proportions of negative answers. Reports about worsening financial situation – and deteriorating satisfaction as a consequence – are frequent not only in Turkey, but in Lithuania, Poland (43% both), and Bulgaria (40%) as well as in Romania, or Slovakia (40% both). In contrast, reports of deteriorating financial situation remain relatively infrequent and therefore well below the CC-13 average in Slovenia (22%), Cyprus (24%), Malta (28%), and the Czech Republic (32%).

We found the fewest people in Poland who are more satisfied with their financial situation now than they were two years ago (10%), and the same proportions are not much higher in Hungary and the Czech Republic either (14% both). Almost half of the Polish population (46%) answered that, regarding their own finances, they are as satisfied as they were two years ago. (Figure 1.2n)



Projected satisfaction levels in the next two years

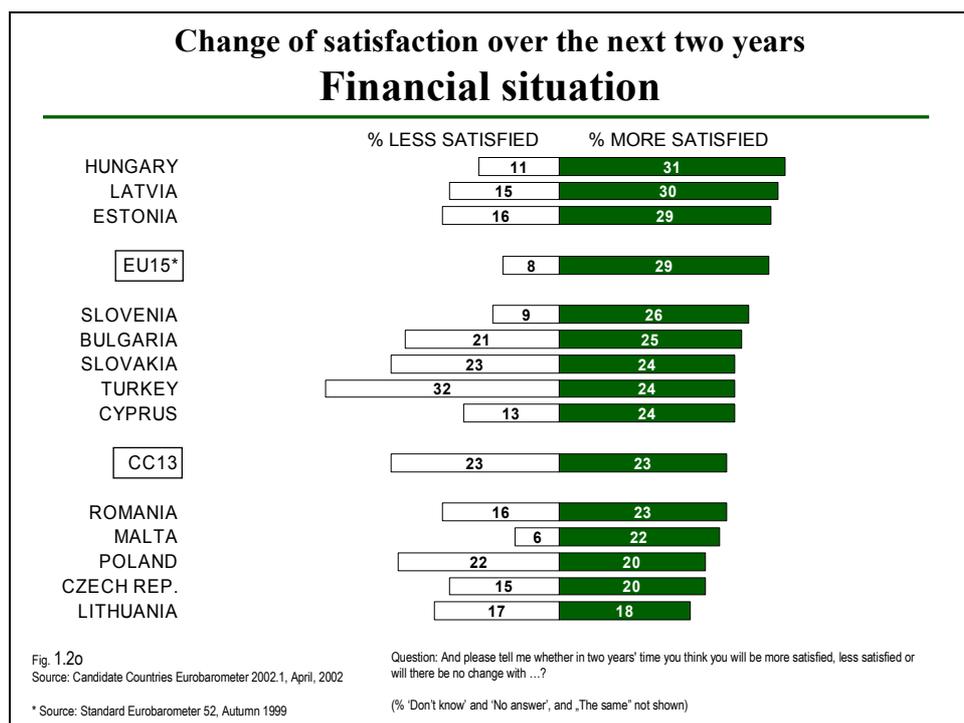
In spite of unfavourable experiences in the recent past people in the Candidate Region are optimistic about their finances; they are more likely to think that they will be more satisfied in two years with their financial situation than they are now. In this issue, we experienced in all but two countries a higher ratio of those anticipating higher levels of satisfaction in the future than those being pessimistic about their outlook. The exceptions are Turkey and Poland.

Overall, in the Candidate Region, an equal number said that they expect to be more satisfied with their financial situation as said they expect to be less satisfied (23% both). The ratio of those that think they will be as satisfied as they are now is at 34%.

Optimism regarding personal finances is the most widespread among the Hungarians (31%) followed Latvians (30%), and Estonians (29%). It is among the Lithuanians where we detected the lowest levels of optimism (18%), and only one in five Polish and Czech hopes a change for the better in this respect (20% both).

In Turkey a very high proportion, 32% of the population believe that they will be less satisfied with their financial situation than they are now. A quarter (24%) of Turkish anticipates increase in financial satisfaction and 30% expect no change.

In this question, the ratio of those respondents who could not tell what will happen or did not want to answer ranged between 11% in Poland and 37% in Lithuania. (Figure 1.2o)



Dynamics of change: satisfaction with personal financial situation

In the Candidate Region we find that a consistent positive change in satisfaction with personal finances is perceived by 19% of citizens, only 20% report stability and 17% indicate expected or experienced unfavourable change. A high proportion, 44% reported tendencies with mixed directionality (i.e. past change and future expectations that are not consistent) from the past to the future. The proportions of positive and negative responses yield a positive balance of +3 percentage points, indicating that the situation is slightly more likely to improve than to deteriorate.

In most Candidate Countries, the net balance of the consistent directionalities of the change points to the positive direction as far as satisfaction with personal finances concerned. This is not the case in Turkey, Poland and Bulgaria, where reported deterioration and improvement are in balance.

The highest levels of positive change can be observed in two countries that are relatively behind on the satisfaction ranking of this sub-domain of life (Hungary: +15, Latvia: +10), but the countries where satisfaction levels with personal finances are the highest in the region are also reporting clear positive tendencies. There is a favourable tendency in Romania as well,

where, in spite of high levels of current dissatisfaction, reports of consistent improvement outscore those of consistent decline by as much as 7 percentage points.

Table 1.2d Satisfaction with financial situation, perceptions of change over time
in %, by country

	CURRENT LEVELS OF SATISFACTION	IMPROVING	STABLE	DETERIO- RATING	NET DIFFERENCE BETWEEN PERCEPTIONS OF IMPROVEMENT AND DETERIORATION
CC 13	33	19	20	17	+3
MALTA	72	20	35	11	+9
CYPRUS	71	19	28	11	+9
SLOVENIA	62	23	39	13	+9
CZECH REP.	38	18	25	14	+4
TURKEY	38	20	14	20	0
LITHUANIA	34	16	15	15	+1
POLAND	33	18	31	19	0
ESTONIA	31	23	19	13	+9
SLOVAKIA	31	18	17	15	+3
HUNGARY	28	26	23	10	+15
LATVIA	26	23	19	13	+10
ROMANIA	25	18	17	11	+7
BULGARIA	13	19	17	19	0

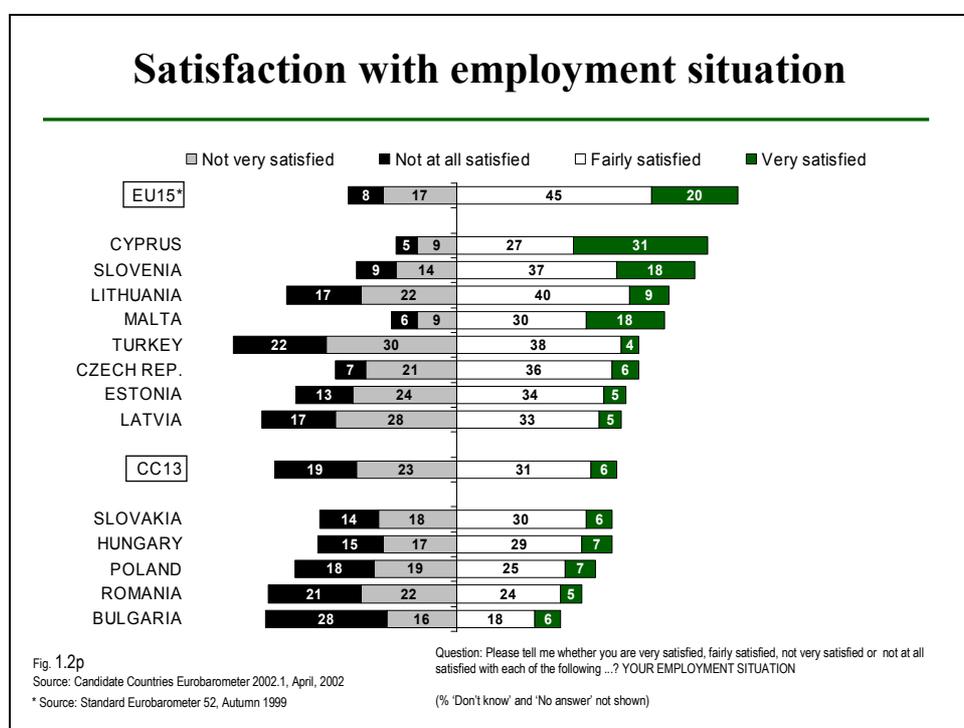
Satisfaction with employment situation

Current satisfaction levels

In total, 37% of the population in the Candidate Countries are satisfied with their employment situation, while 42% are unsatisfied. In the European Union satisfaction with employment situation reaches 65% -- no country in the CC-13 region could repeat this level of satisfaction.

The populations of Cyprus (58%) and Slovenia (56%) are very and fairly satisfied with their employment situation in the greatest proportion. Also, 49% and 48% of the populations of Lithuania and Malta answered that they were very and fairly satisfied with their employment situation.

In Turkey more than half of the people (52%) answered that they were not at all and not very satisfied with their employment situation, and many felt the same way in Latvia (45%), Bulgaria (44%), and Romania (43%). The highest proportion of people answering that they were not at all satisfied with the employment situation is in Bulgaria (28%). (Figure 1.2p)



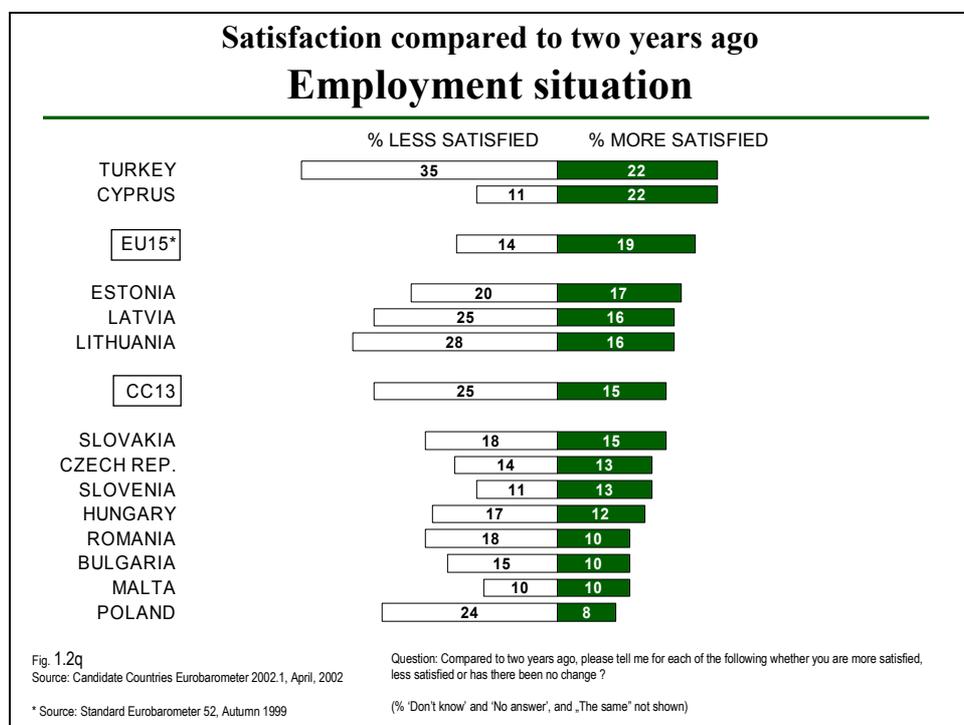
Satisfaction levels compared to two years ago

According to 48% of the Candidate Countries population, there was no change in their satisfaction related to employment situation over the past two years. In the CC-13 region 15% feel that their employment situation improved in the recent past, while 25% think the opposite: they are now less satisfied with their employment situation than they were two years ago.

In Turkey, Cyprus, and Estonia as well as in Latvia and Lithuania, feeling of improvement in this respect is above the average of the region. In Cyprus and Turkey, 22-22% of the population, in Estonia 17%, and in Latvia and Lithuania 16% are more satisfied now with their employment situation.

Among all Candidate Countries, the ratio of those less satisfied with their employment situation than two years ago is the highest in Turkey (35%), and the lowest in Cyprus and Slovenia (11%).

The fewest who are more satisfied with their employment situation now than two years ago are in Poland (8%), and this country is also among those most likely to perceive deterioration in employment situation (24%). (Figure 1.2q)

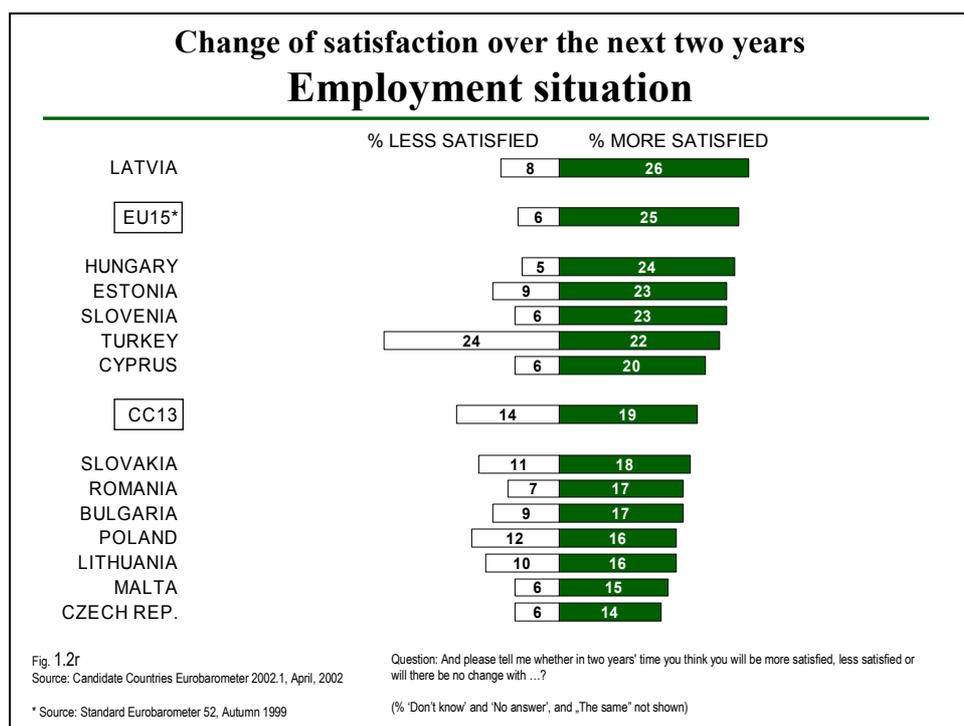


Projected satisfaction levels in the next two years

The majority do not expect change in satisfaction with their employment situation; 40% of the Candidate Countries population believes that they will be as satisfied in two years' time as they are now. 19% of the Candidate Countries population expects increased satisfaction, and 14% think they will be less satisfied with this aspect of their life. Levels of optimism are lower in the CC-13 region compared to the EU-15 average.

Latvians (26%) were the most likely to indicate that they hope to be more satisfied with their employment situation in the near future; the same opinion is shared by the Czech and the Maltese to the least extent (14% and 15%).

Among the Turkish there are the most people who expect deterioration in employment situation over the next two years (24%), whereas Hungarians are the least likely to be pessimistic in this respect (5%). (Figure 1.2r)



Dynamics of change: satisfaction with employment situation

On the CC-13 level a consistent positive change in satisfaction with employment situation is perceived by only 15% of citizens, 29% report stability and 12% stronger or weaker, but consistent unfavourable change. A high proportion, 44% reported tendencies with mixed directionality (i.e. past experience and future expectations that are not consistent) from the past to the future. The proportions of positive and negative responses yield a positive balance of +3 percentage points on the CC-13 level, indicating that employment situation – as seen with the eyes of respondents – is slightly more likely to improve than to deteriorate in the Candidate Region.

In most Candidate Countries, the net balance of the consistent directionalities of the change points to the positive direction as far as satisfaction with personal finances concerned. This is not the case in Turkey, where reported deterioration slightly outweighs improvement, yielding a net balance of -1.

The highest levels of positive change can be observed in Slovenia (+14), Cyprus and Hungary (+12 both), but the Estonians (+10) and Latvians (+9) are also reporting clear positive tendencies. There is a favourable tendency in Romania as well, where, in spite of tremendous levels of current dissatisfaction, reports of consistent improvement regarding employment situation outscore those of consistent decline by as much as 7 percentage points.

In this respect Slovenes (43%), the Polish, and Cypriots (37% both) perceive the highest stability of satisfaction over time; they are the least likely to experience significant change in the recent past, and do not expect one in the future either, as regards their satisfaction with employment situation.

**Table 1.2e Satisfaction with employment situation,
perceptions of change over time
in %, by country**

	CURRENT LEVELS OF SATISFACTION	IMPROVING	STABLE	DETERIO- RATING	NET DIFFERENCE BETWEEN PERCEPTIONS OF IMPROVEMENT AND DETERIORATION
CC 13	37	15	29	12	+3
CYPRUS	58	17	37	5	+12
SLOVENIA	55	21	43	7	+14
LITHUANIA	49	13	25	11	+2
MALTA	48	11	28	6	+5
CZECH REP.	42	12	27	7	+4
TURKEY	42	17	22	19	-1
ESTONIA	39	17	23	8	+9
LATVIA	38	19	29	9	+10
HUNGARY	36	18	29	6	+12
SLOVAKIA	36	14	24	8	+6
POLAND	32	13	37	11	+2
ROMANIA	29	14	29	7	+7
BULGARIA	24	13	36	9	+4

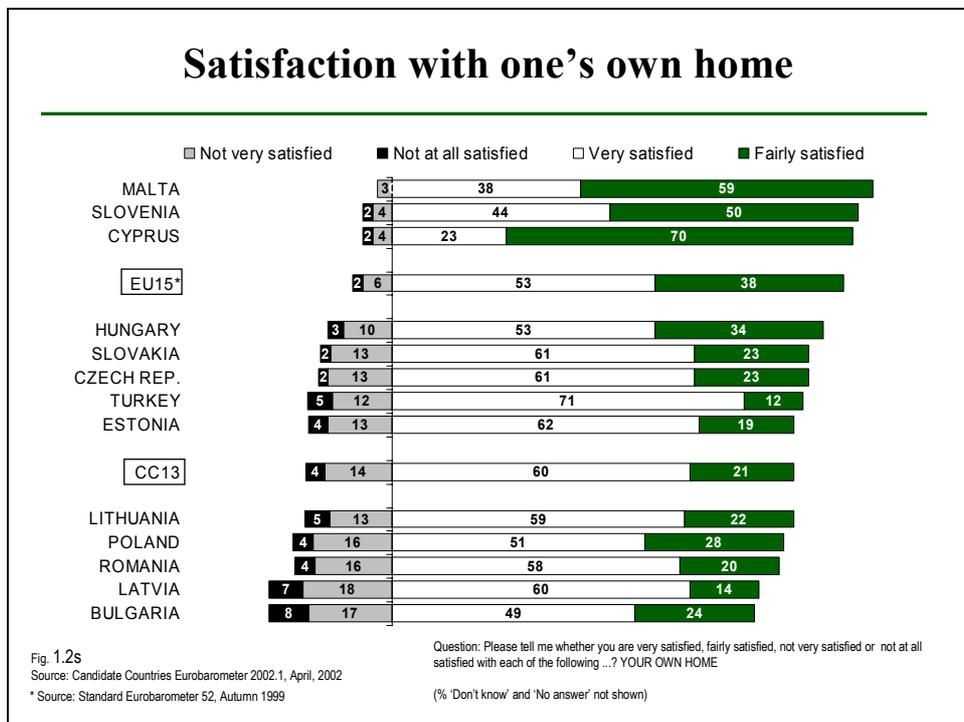
Satisfaction with one's own home

Current satisfaction levels

Levels of satisfaction with one's own home is high in the population of most of the Candidate Countries (as will be discussed later in Chapter 11 about geographical mobility; people are not very much willing to leave their homes in the CC-13 region), however not as high as in the European Union. Overall, On CC-13 level, 21% of the population are very satisfied, and 60% are fairly satisfied with their home.

The people most likely to be very satisfied and fairly satisfied with their home (both 95%) are the Maltese, but the satisfaction levels in Slovenia and Cyprus are not far from this ratio (94% and 93%). Focusing only on 'very satisfied' responses, proportionally the most people giving this highly affirmative answer are in Cyprus (70%). The same ratio is 59% in Malta, and 50% in Slovenia.

The highest ratios, about one quarter of those dissatisfied with their home are in Bulgaria and Latvia (26 and 25%, respectively). (Figure 1.2s)



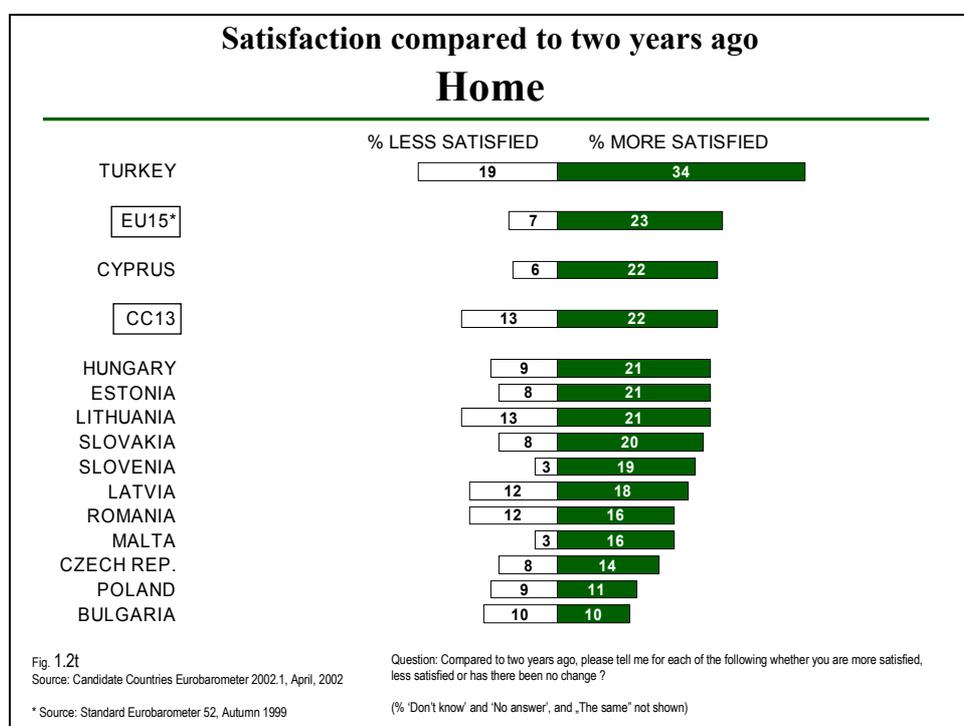
Satisfaction levels compared to two years ago

In all of the Candidate Countries, those who responded that there had been no change in their satisfaction with their home are in the majority (65%). Overall, 22% in the Candidate countries are now more satisfied, and 13% are less satisfied than they were two years ago.

The ratio of those who are more satisfied with their home now than they were two years ago is noticeably high among the Turkish (34%), but the Turkish ratio of less satisfied with their home is also the highest (19%).

Cyprus is also above the average of the Candidate Countries in reporting increased satisfaction: among them 22% are more satisfied with their home now than were two years ago, and only 6% are less satisfied. Satisfaction with housing increased markedly in Hungary, Estonia, and Lithuania (21% each) as well as in Slovakia (20%) and Slovenia (19%).

In Bulgaria the ratio of those more satisfied with their home is the lowest (10%), but this equal to that of those less satisfied (10%). Generally, in the countries at the bottom of this list, the proportions of those who do not perceive change are high. (Figure 1.2t)



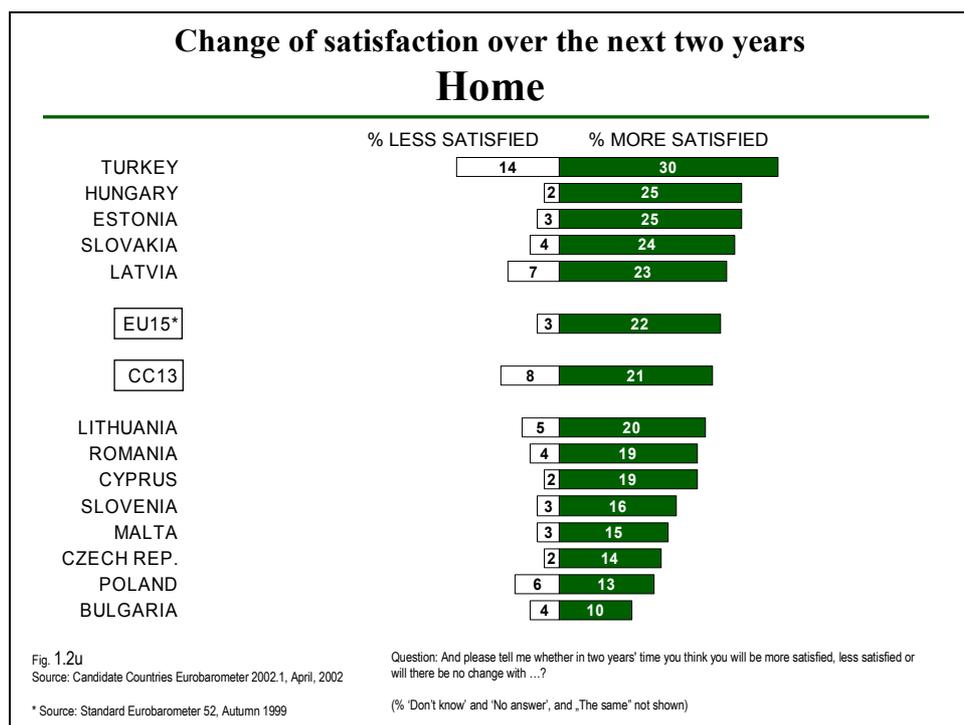
Projected satisfaction levels in the next two years

In each Candidate Country, with the exception of Turkey, more than half of the population believes that they will remain as satisfied with their home in two years' time as they are now. The ratio of those not expecting change in this respect ranges from 51% to 76%, while in Turkey it is only 44%.

On CC-13 level, 57% of the citizens do not expect any significant change in how much they are or will be satisfied with their home. 21% hope a change for the better, and only 8% project deteriorated satisfaction with their home in the short future.

Looking at the optimistic end of the list, we find five countries above the average of the Candidate Region (21%). 30% of the Turkish, 25% of the Hungarians and the Estonians, 24% of the Slovaks, and 23% of the Latvians believe that they will be more satisfied with their home in two years' time. The country with the least number of people sharing this optimistic view is Bulgaria (10%). 44% of the Turkish, 54% of the Hungarians, 53% of the Estonians, 59% of the Slovaks, and 58% of the Latvians expect to remain as satisfied with their home in the future as they are now.

Although it is the Turkish who are the most likely to expect that they will become more satisfied, they are also the most likely to predict less satisfaction (14%). The proportion of people expressing pessimistic views is very low in Hungary, Cyprus, and the Czech Republic in this respect (2% each). (Figure 1.2u)



Dynamics of change: satisfaction with home

On the CC-13 level a consistent positive change in satisfaction with one's own home is perceived by 17% of citizens, 46% report stability and only 9% indicate consistent unfavourable change. Only 28% reported tendencies with mixed directionality from the past to the future. The proportions of positive and negative responses yield a clearly positive balance of +8 percentage points on the CC-13 level, indicating that satisfaction with one's home is slightly more likely to improve than to deteriorate in the Candidate Region.

Without exception in the Candidate Region, the net balance of the consistent directionalities is positive as far as satisfaction with one's own home is concerned. The most favourable tendencies are detected in Cyprus (+17) and Estonia (+15), and the less favourable, but still clearly positive ones in Bulgaria (+4) and Turkey (+5).

With regard to one's own home, the Polish (66%), Maltese (62%) and Slovenes (60%) perceive the highest stability of satisfaction over time; people from these countries are the most unlikely to have experienced any significant change in the recent past, and do not expect one in the near future either.

Table 1.2f Satisfaction with home, perceptions of change over time
in %, by country

	CURRENT LEVELS OF SATISFACTION	IMPROVING	STABLE	DETERIO- RATING	NET DIFFERENCE BETWEEN PERCEPTIONS OF IMPROVEMENT AND DETERIORATION
CC 13	81	17	46	9	+8
MALTA	97	15	62	2	+12
SLOVENIA	94	18	60	4	+13
CYPRUS	93	19	53	2	+17
HUNGARY	87	19	45	4	+14
CZECH REP.	84	16	54	3	+13
SLOVAKIA	84	20	49	5	+14
TURKEY	83	20	30	14	+5
ESTONIA	81	20	44	5	+15
LITHUANIA	81	17	40	7	+10
POLAND	79	14	66	6	+7
ROMANIA	78	14	44	6	+8
LATVIA	74	19	47	8	+12
BULGARIA	73	12	64	8	+4

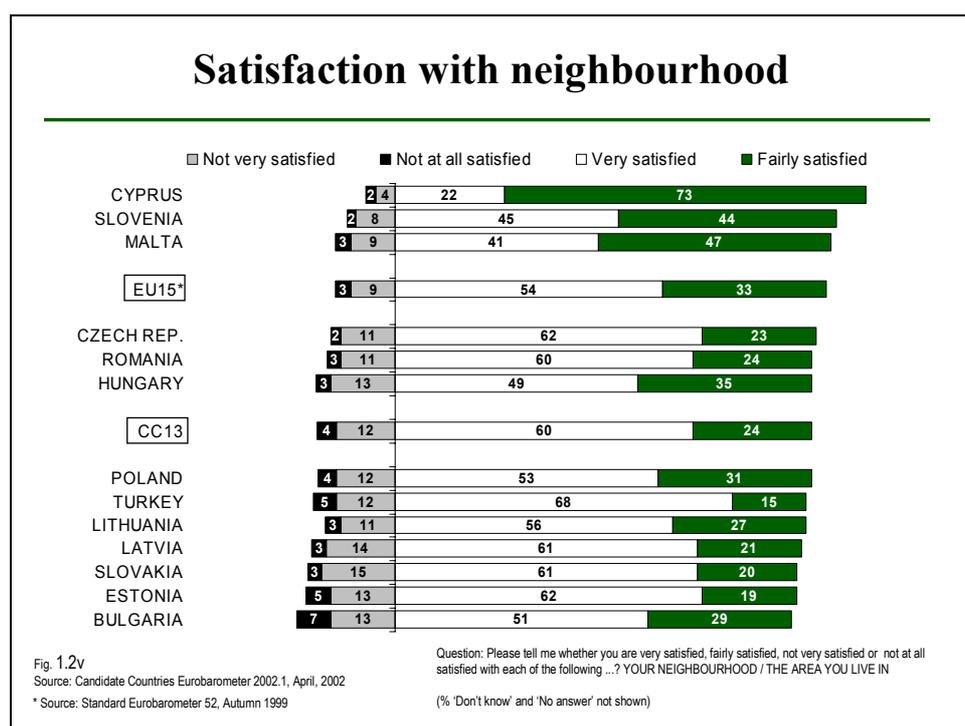
Satisfaction with one's neighbourhood

Current satisfaction levels

The ratio of those who are very or fairly satisfied with the area they live in is high across the whole Candidate Region, just a little behind of the average measured in the European Union in the same question. On CC-13 level, 84% of the population answered that they were very and fairly satisfied with this area of their life. Proportions of satisfaction range from 80% in Bulgaria to 95% in Cyprus.

Candidate Countries Eurobarometer found the highest proportion of those *very* satisfied with their neighbourhood in Cyprus, where 73% of the population feel this way. Many are also very satisfied with their living area in Malta (47%) and Slovenia (44%). Looking at those very or fairly satisfied, Cyprus (95%) features the highest proportion; Slovenia comes second (89%), and Malta follows closely, on the third place, with 88%.

Bulgaria has proportionally the most respondents claiming to be not at all or not very satisfied with their neighbourhood (20%); the ratio of those unsatisfied is close to this proportion in Slovakia (18%), Latvia (18%), Estonia (18%) and Turkey (17%) as well as in Poland (16%), and Hungary (16%). (Figure 1.2v)



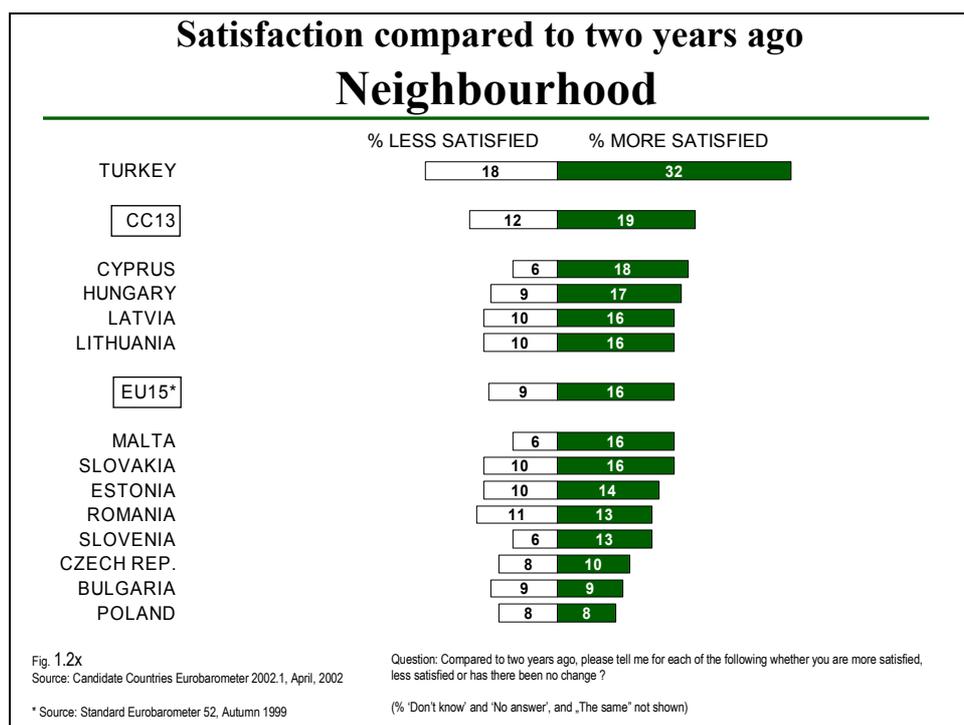
Satisfaction levels compared to two years ago

Similarly to what we saw at analysing satisfaction levels with respondents' home, the majority in all Candidate Countries are as satisfied with their living area as they were two years ago. Two-thirds (68%) do not report any significant change in any direction, 19% are now more satisfied, and 12% are less satisfied.

The ratios of both those more satisfied and those less satisfied are the highest in Turkey again: 32% and 18%. Half of the Turkish population (49%) reported no change in their level of satisfaction with the neighbourhood they live in.

Among the Polish we find the lowest proportions more satisfied with the area they live in (8%). At the same time, only another 8% of the Polish are now less satisfied with their neighbourhood than two years ago, and 83% indicated no change in their satisfaction.

Otherwise, there is little variation in the assessment of the neighbourhood compared to two years ago; the majority of respondents did not change their opinion in the recent past. (Figure 1.2x)



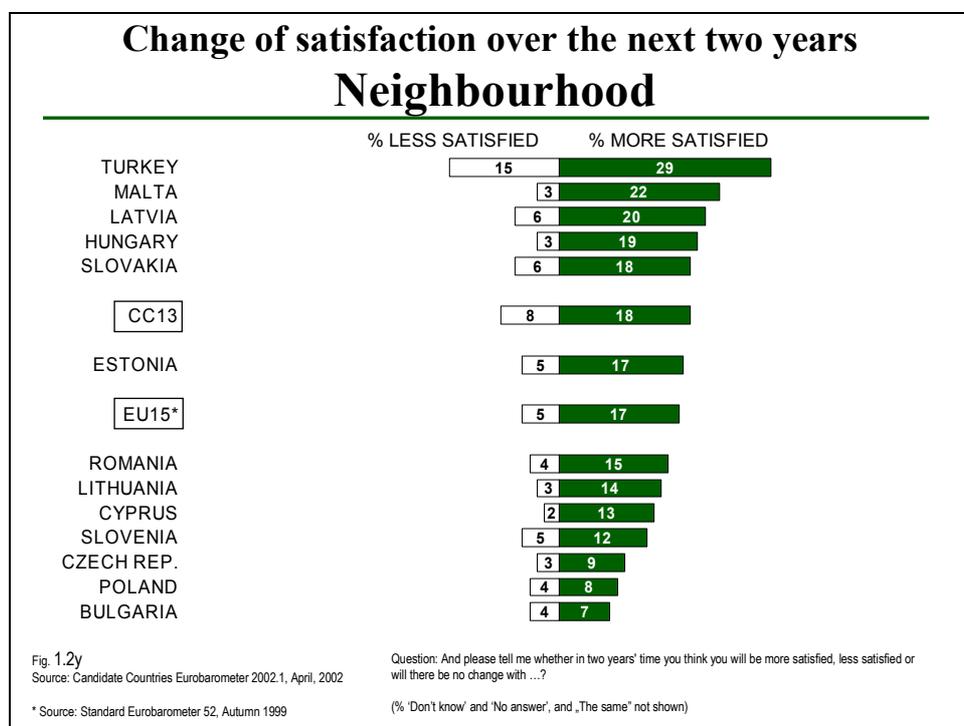
Projected satisfaction levels in the next two years

The same can be said about future satisfaction with the neighbourhood as about future satisfaction with the home. With the exception of Turkey, over half of the population of all countries do not expect any change in their satisfaction for the next two years. The ratio of those not expecting change ranges between 56% (Romania) and 82% (Poland), while in Turkey this ratio is only 45%.

In the entirety of the Candidate Countries, 60% of the population believes that they will remain as satisfied with their neighbourhood as they are now, 18% anticipate increased level of satisfaction, and 8% say they will be less satisfied.

The Turkish, as in the previous questions, are again at the top of the rankings both as regards improved satisfaction (29%) as well as deteriorated satisfaction (15%). Relatively large proportions in Malta, Latvia, Hungary, and Slovakia hope to be more satisfied with their living area in two years' time (22%, 20%, 19% and 18%, respectively). In these countries, the ratio of those that believe they will be less satisfied with their living area in two years' time is rather small (3%, 6%, 3% and 6%, respectively), but a great many are not expecting significant changes in any direction (63%, 63%, 59% and 63%).

The Bulgarians again are the least likely to be optimistic; to expect more satisfaction in two years' time with their living area (7%), but among them the ratio of those expecting less satisfaction is also small (4%). Three quarters of the Bulgarian population do not expect changes in this respect (76%). (Figure 1.2y)



Dynamics of change: satisfaction with neighbourhood

In the Candidate Region we find that a consistent improvement is perceived by 15% of citizens, as many as 50% report no change and only 8% indicate expected or experienced change pointing in negative direction. (24% reported mixed directionality in the past and future change of their satisfaction with the area they live in).

In all but one Candidate Countries, the net balance of the consistent directionalities of the change point clearly to the positive direction as far as satisfaction with neighbourhood is concerned (+6). It is not the case in Bulgaria only, where reported deterioration slightly outweighs improvement; positive and negative reports sum up to a -2 percentage points net difference.

As Table 1.2 shows, the highest levels of consistent and favourable change can be observed in Malta and Hungary (+11 both) as well as in Cyprus and Slovakia (+10 both). There is a favourable tendency in Estonia, Latvia, and Slovenia as well, where reports of consistent improvement outscore those of consistent decline by as much as 9 percentage points.

Among the countries where current satisfaction is reported to be relatively low, we found strong positive tendencies in every case except for Bulgaria, that ranks the lowest among all countries in the CC-13 region in satisfaction with neighbourhood as well.

As usually, the Polish (74%) and the Slovenians (64%), accompanied by Bulgarians (66%) report the highest stability in satisfaction with this life-domain; they are the most likely not having experienced significant change in the recent past, and do not expect one in the future either.

Table 1.2g Satisfaction with neighbourhood, perceptions of change over time
in %, by country

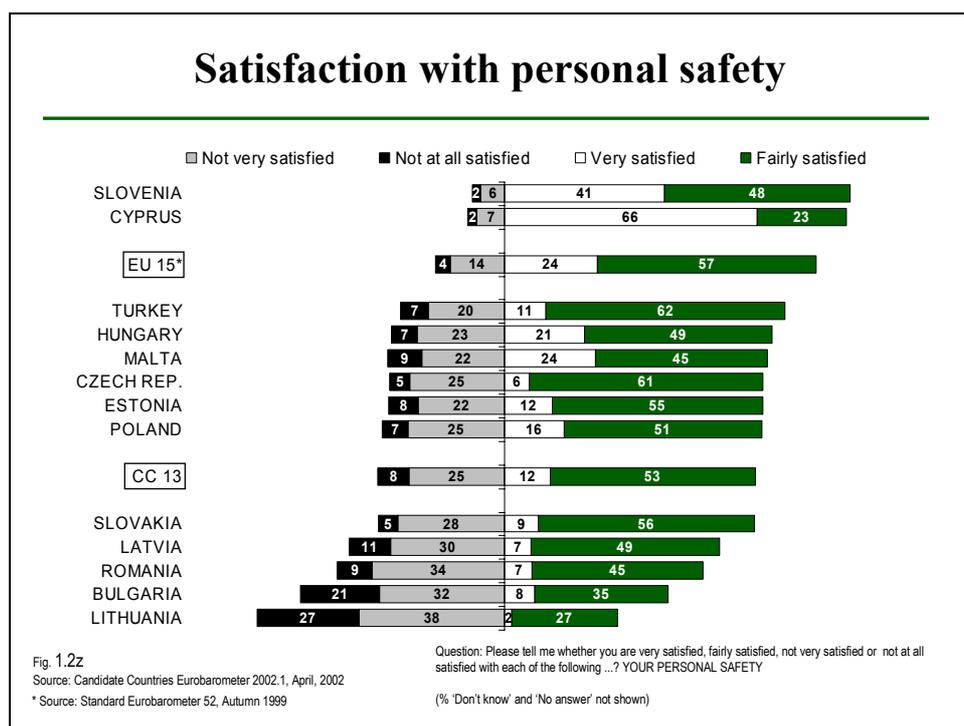
	CURRENT LEVELS OF SATISFACTION	IMPROVING	STABLE	DETERIO- RATING	NET DIFFERENCE BETWEEN PERCEPTIONS OF IMPROVEMENT AND DETERIORATION
CC 13	84	15	50	8	+6
CYPRUS	95	13	59	3	+10
SLOVENIA	89	14	64	6	+9
MALTA	88	15	54	4	+11
CZECH REP.	85	11	58	4	+7
HUNGARY	84	15	50	4	+11
POLAND	84	10	74	4	+6
ROMANIA	84	13	48	5	+8
LITHUANIA	83	14	50	6	+8
TURKEY	83	20	31	15	+5
LATVIA	82	15	53	6	+9
ESTONIA	81	14	51	5	+9
SLOVAKIA	81	15	54	6	+10
BULGARIA	80	7	66	9	-2

Satisfaction with one's personal safetyCurrent satisfaction levels

Fifty-three percent of the citizens in the Candidate Countries are fairly satisfied, and 12% are very satisfied with their personal safety. Only 8% of the population answered that they were not at all satisfied with this aspect. Comparison with current Member States show a clear advantage of the EU-15 region over the CC-13 countries in this respect as well (EU-15: 81% versus 65% in the Candidate Region).

Slovenia has the highest proportion of people claiming that they are very or fairly satisfied with their personal safety (90%), this rate is almost as high, 89% in Cyprus. Looking only at those very satisfied, the highest proportion are the Cypriots (65% feel very secure), followed by the Slovenians (41%) and the Maltese (25%).

Inversely, 65% of the Lithuanians, 53% of the Bulgarians, 44% of the Romanians, and 40% of the Latvians are not at all or not very satisfied with their personal safety. The proportion of people who are *not at all* satisfied with their personal safety is the highest in Latvia (27%). (Figure 1.2z)



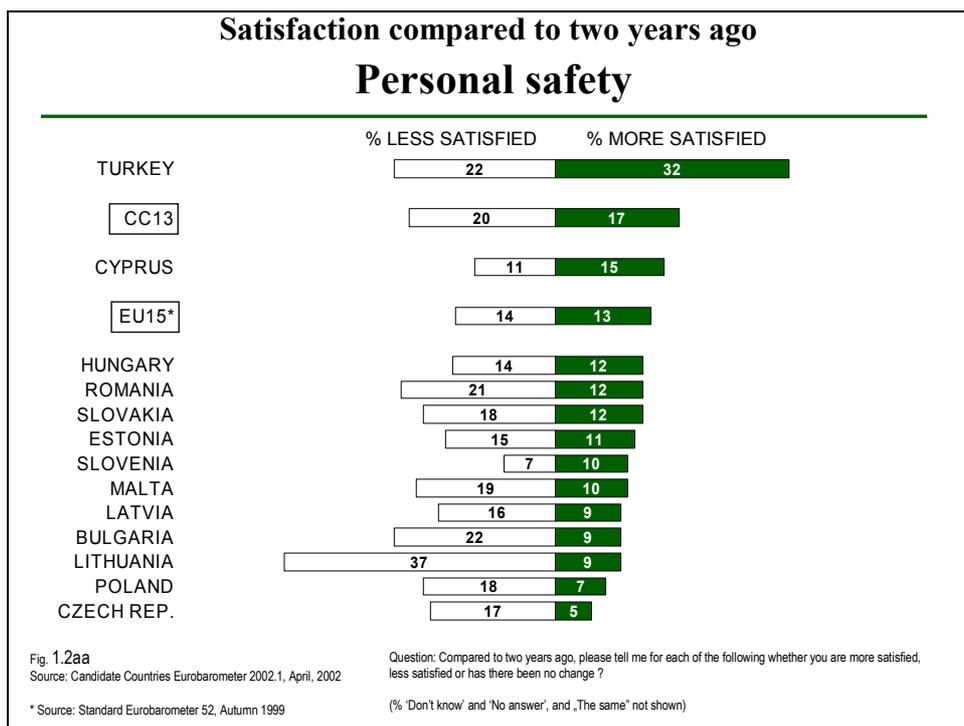
Satisfaction levels compared to two years ago

The Turkish are the most likely to be more satisfied with their personal safety than two years ago (32%); this ratio significantly exceeds the average measured in the Candidate Countries (only 17% of the Candidate Countries population are more satisfied with their personal safety now than two years ago). On CC-13 level, 20% are now less satisfied with their personal safety. The Turkish again surpass the average of the Candidate Countries population: 22% of them are less satisfied with their personal safety than two years ago.

Almost two thirds (62%) of people living in Candidate Countries believe that there has been no change in their satisfaction with how much they feel safe and secure; in Turkey this ratio is considerably less (40%).

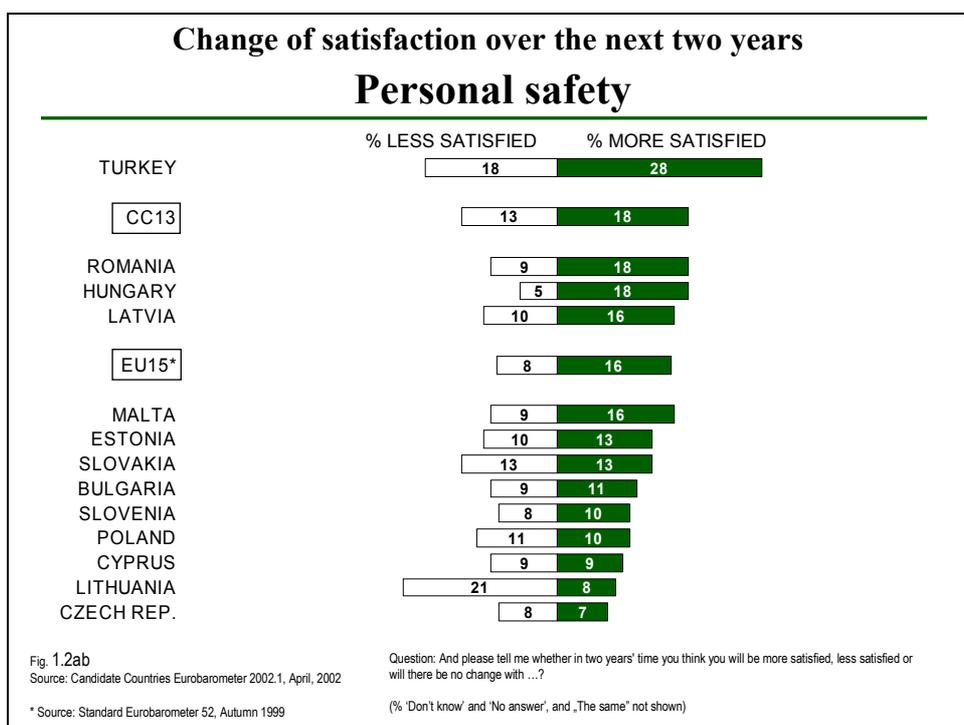
The proportion of those reporting deteriorating safety is tremendous in Lithuania, with 37% of the Lithuanians responding that they were more satisfied with their personal safety two years ago than they are now.

The lowest ratio of those who are now more satisfied with their personal safety is among the population of the Czech Republic (5%), while 17% are less satisfied if asked about this aspect of their life. Two thirds of the Czech population (74%) remained as satisfied with their personal safety now as they were two years ago. (Figure 1.2aa)



Projected satisfaction levels in the next two years

Expectations about future satisfaction with regard to personal safety reflect what we have found in various other sub-domains: respondents in the greatest proportions are neither pessimistic nor optimistic about their future safety.



In the Candidate Region, 51% of the citizens do not expect any change in their satisfaction levels in the course of the next two years, 18% believe there will be an increase, and 13% believe they will be less satisfied with their personal safety in two years' time.

We find Turkey to be the most optimistic, and the Czech Republic to be the least. 28% of the Turkish expect to be more satisfied with their personal safety in two years' time as they are now, but 18% also say that they expect to be less satisfied in this dimension.

Among the Czechs, the ratio of those respondents that hope to be more satisfied with their personal safety in two years' time is 7%. The rate of those who will be less satisfied with this life-domain is very low (8%), and the overwhelming majority (62%) believe they will remain as satisfied as they are now.

Hungarians, with 5% are the least, while Lithuanians are the most pessimistic (21%) if it comes to their future personally safety. (Figure 1.2ab)

Dynamics of change: satisfaction with home

On the CC-13 level a consistent positive change in satisfaction with one's personal safety is perceived by only 15% of citizens, 40% report stability and 12% stronger or weaker, but consistent unfavourable change. 33% reported tendencies with mixed directionality from the past to the future. The proportions of positive and negative responses yield a slightly positive balance of +2 percentage points on the CC-13 level, indicating that satisfaction with personal safety is slightly more likely to improve than to deteriorate in the Candidate Region.

In the majority of the Candidate Countries, the net balance of the consistent directionalities of the change lean to the positive direction, but these favourable tendencies are weak in most of the countries as far as satisfaction with one's safety is concerned. The responses indicating positive and negative tendencies are in balance in Poland and Slovakia, and deterioration of satisfaction with home outweighs improvements to a marginal extent in the Czech Republic and Bulgaria (-2 both), and to a great extent in Lithuania (-10 percentage points). The highest levels of positive change in personal safety can be observed in Hungary (+9), Latvia (+6), and Romania (+5).

In this respect Slovenes (63%), the Polish (60%), Hungarians and Latvians (48% both) perceive the highest stability of satisfaction over time; people from these countries they are the most unlikely likely to have experienced any change in the recent past, and do not expect one in the future either, as regards their satisfaction with their personal safety.

Table 1.2h Satisfaction with personal safety, perceptions of change over time
in %, by country

	CURRENT LEVELS OF SATISFACTION	IMPROVING	STABLE	DETERIO- RATING	NET DIFFERENCE BETWEEN PERCEPTIONS OF IMPROVEMENT AND DETERIORATION
CC 13	65	15	40	12	+2
SLOVENIA	90	12	63	8	+3
CYPRUS	89	10	47	8	+2
TURKEY	73	20	25	17	+3
HUNGARY	69	15	48	6	+9
MALTA	68	16	46	13	+3
ESTONIA	67	11	46	8	+3
CZECH REP.	67	7	52	9	-2
POLAND	67	10	60	11	0
SLOVAKIA	65	12	46	11	0
LATVIA	56	14	48	8	+6
ROMANIA	52	15	31	10	+5
BULGARIA	42	11	41	13	-2
LITHUANIA	29	7	25	18	-10

Satisfaction with <country's> health care system

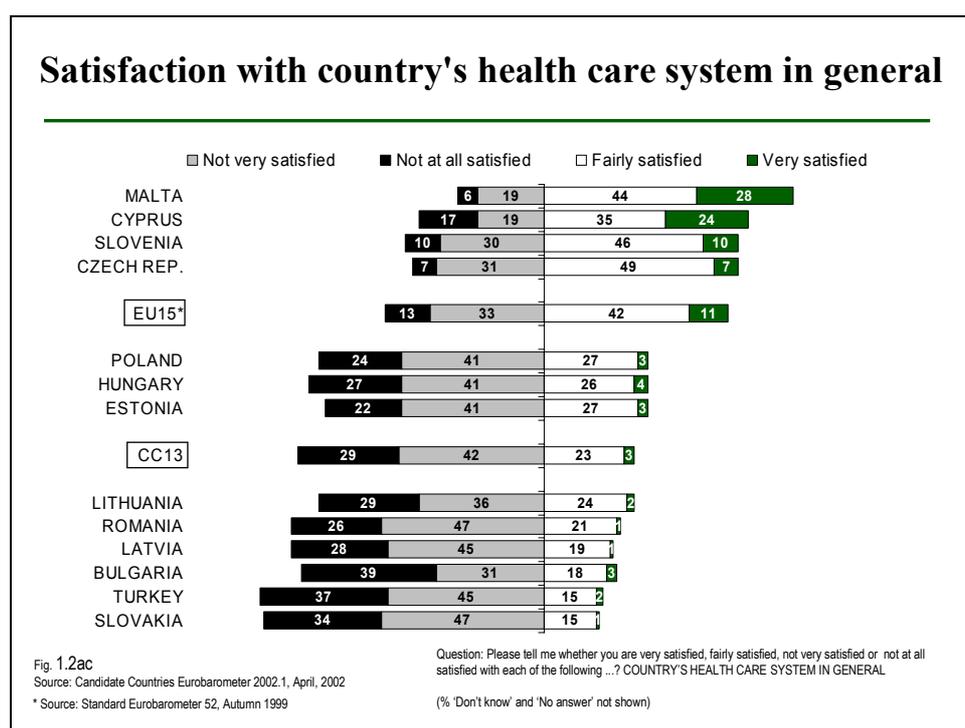
Current satisfaction levels

In the CC-13 region satisfaction levels related to health care systems are enormously low; only few countries have considerable proportions of their population expressing satisfaction with health services. European citizens are markedly more satisfied with health services in their country (53% satisfied) than the citizens in the Candidate Countries (26%).

When we asked how satisfied people are with the health care system of their country, in Malta, we found 72% of the population being very or fairly satisfied, and 59% of Cypriots, as well as 56% of Slovenians and Czechs answered affirmatively to this question. Focusing on only those *very* satisfied with the health care system of their country, this ratio is the highest in the Malta: almost 3 in 10 people (28%) are very satisfied with their health care system.

At the same time, virtually nobody – only a sheer 1 percent – expressed similar level of satisfaction in Slovakia, Latvia and Romania. In all countries but in the aforementioned four, people who are dissatisfied with health services outnumber those who are satisfied with them.

On average, 71% of the population in the Candidate Countries answered that they were not very or not at all satisfied with their country's health care system, this rate is above average in Turkey (82%), Slovakia (81%), Latvia and Romania (both 73%). (Figure 1.2ac; further analyses about satisfaction with health services refer to Chapter 5)



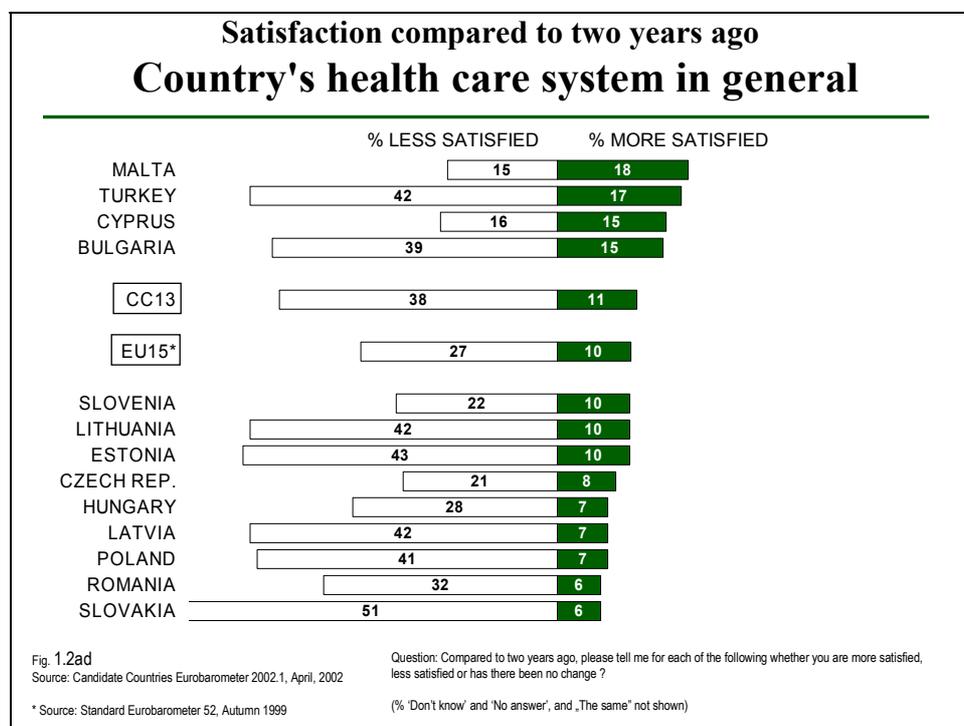
Satisfaction levels compared to two years ago

Only 11% of the respondents thought the health care system had improved in the previous two years. At the same time, 38% are now less satisfied with the health care system of their country than they were two years ago. 48% of the CC-13 population is as satisfied with the health care system now as they were two years ago.

People in the Candidate Region are unlikely to think that their country's health care system improved in the past two years. In all countries but in Malta and Cyprus, they think the opposite, with a varying extent. Slovaks are the most likely to think that their health system declined recently (51%), but the survey detected high proportion of these people also in Estonia (43%), Lithuania, and Turkey (42%) as well as in Poland (41%)

The proportion of those Slovaks and Romanians that are now more satisfied with their country's health care system than they were two years ago is only 6%.

There does not seem to be a healthcare crisis in Malta, Cyprus, and to some extent in Slovenia and Czech Republic. In these countries those who don't see any difference remain the most populous group. (Figure 1.2ad)



Projected satisfaction levels in the next two years

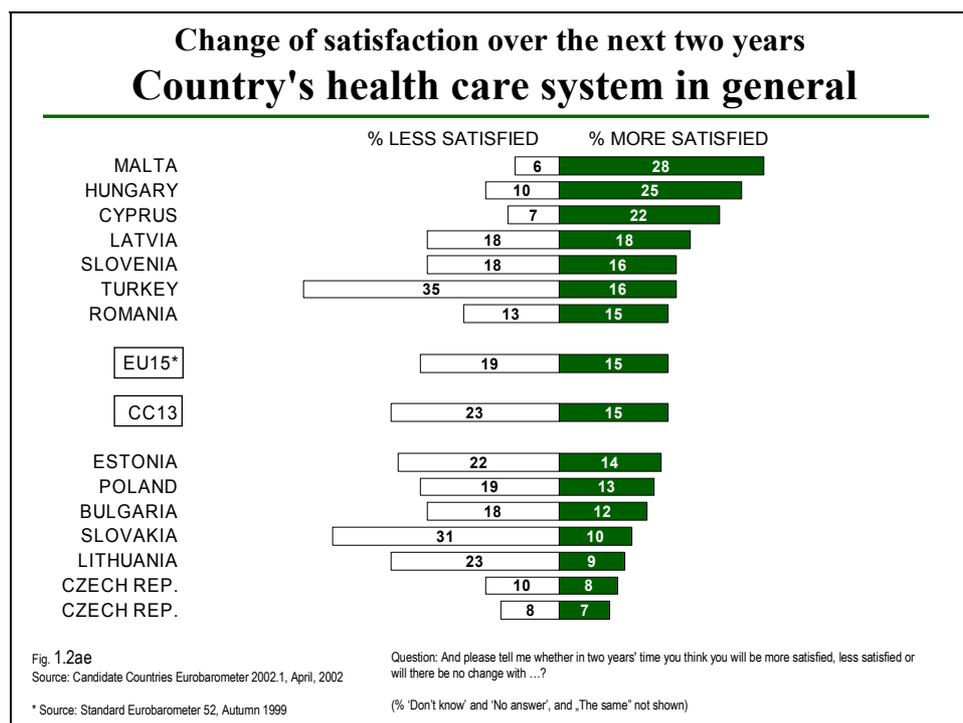
In the Candidate Region, 15% of the population expects to be more satisfied, 23% will be less satisfied, and 42% expect their levels of satisfaction to remain the same when it comes to health services.

Among those who hope to be more satisfied with the health care system of their country than they are now, we find the Maltese at the top (28%), the Hungarians close behind (25%), and the Cypriots following (22%). At the same time, among the population of these countries there are relatively few that expect less satisfaction with, or – in other words - deterioration in their health care system (6%, 10% and 7%, respectively). 50% of the Maltese, 39% of the

Hungarians, and 35% of the Cypriots answered that they will most likely remain as satisfied with their country's health care system as they are now.

Among the Czech, levels of optimism are the lowest in the CC-13 region (only 8 percent believes that their satisfaction with health services will be higher in two years time). Among the Czech 10% think they will be less satisfied, and 55% expect no change in satisfaction.

When looking at the ratio of only those who will be less satisfied in two years' time with their country's health care system, the Turkish, the Slovaks and the Lithuanians take the lead. 35% of the Turkish, 31% of the Slovaks and 23 percent of Lithuanians believe they will be less satisfied with this sub-area in two years' time. (Figure 1.2ae)



Dynamics of change: satisfaction with home

On the CC-13 level a consistent positive change in satisfaction with health services in the country is perceived by only 14% of citizens, 27% report stability and 20% indicate consistent unfavourable change. 39% reported tendencies with mixed directionality from the past to the future. The proportions of positive and negative responses yield a clearly negative balance of -6 percentage points on the CC-13 level, indicating that satisfaction with health services is expected to further decline in the Candidate Region.

In the majority of the Candidate Countries, the net balance of the consistent directionalities of the change lean to the negative direction, and these unfavourable tendencies are rather strong in some of the countries as far as satisfaction with one's safety is concerned, particularly in Slovakia (-14), Bulgaria (-12) and Lithuania (-11). Perceptions of consistent improvement outweighs the indications of deterioration very clearly in Malta (+16), Hungary (+12), and Cyprus (+7)..

In this respect Slovenes (44%) and the Czech (42%) are the most likely to perceive the stability over time; people from these countries are the most unlikely to have experienced any

change in the recent past, and do not expect one in the future either, as regards their satisfaction with their country's health services.

**Table 1.2i Satisfaction with country's health care system,
perceptions of change over time**
in %, by country

	CURRENT LEVELS OF SATISFACTION	IMPROVING	STABLE	DETERIO- RATING	NET DIFFERENCE BETWEEN PERCEPTIONS OF IMPROVEMENT AND DETERIORATION
CC13	26	14	27	20	-6
MALTA	72	24	39	9	+16
CYPRUS	59	17	25	10	+7
CZECH REP.	56	9	42	12	-3
SLOVENIA	56	17	44	12	+5
ESTONIA	30	12	20	17	-5
HUNGARY	30	22	31	10	+12
POLAND	30	14	37	21	-8
LITHUANIA	26	9	17	20	-11
ROMANIA	22	13	25	14	-1
BULGARIA	21	12	18	24	-12
LATVIA	20	16	22	17	-2
TURKEY	17	15	21	24	-9
SLOVAKIA	16	10	22	24	-14

1.3 Factors that contribute most to current quality of life

At the beginning of the previous subchapter we profiled drivers of subjective well-being, where we determined the most important factors by multivariate statistical analytical methods. We concluded that empirically, levels of satisfaction with *financial situation*, *family life*, *social life* and *health* are the most important contributors for one's subjective well-being.

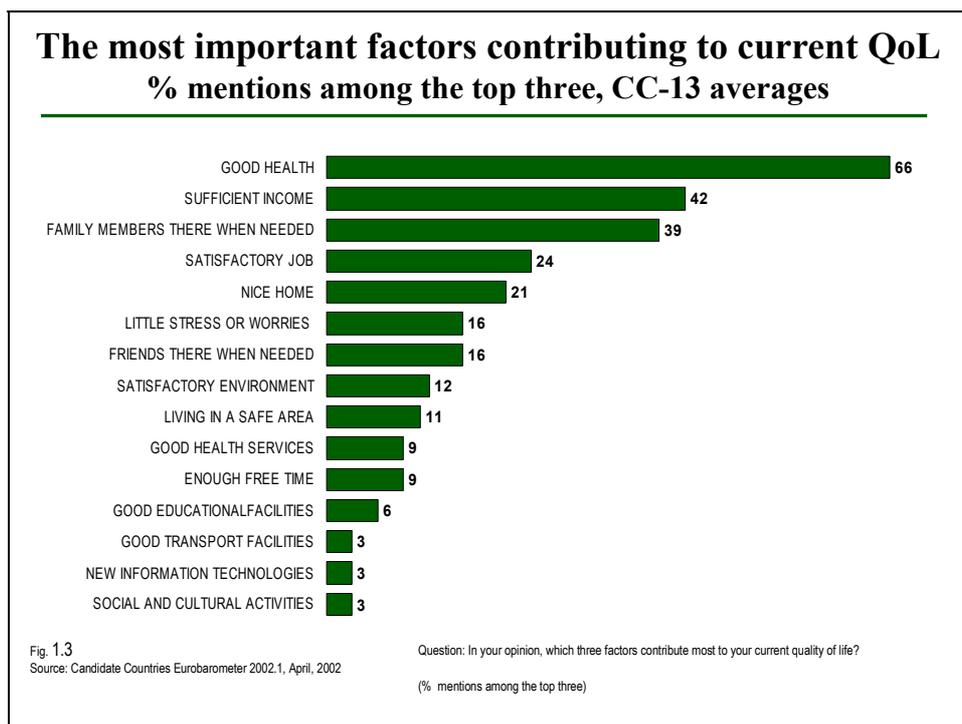
But the respondents have their opinion too. Within the satisfaction block of questions, we asked directly about the respondent's opinion as to which three factors contributed the most to their current quality of life. Respondents were to select the three factors that contributed to their current quality of life from 15 sub-domains:

- *Being in good health*
- *Having little stress or worries*
- *Having sufficient income to meet my needs*
- *Having a nice home*
- *Having a satisfactory environment*
- *Having a satisfactory job*
- *Having a family members who are there when I need them*
- *Having friends who are there when I need them*
- *Having access to good transport facilities*
- *Having access to good educational or training facilities*
- *Having access to good health services*
- *Living in a safe area*
- *Having enough free time for myself and my family*
- *Having access to new information technologies*
- *Having access to social and cultural activities*
- *None of these (SPONTANEOUS)*
- *DK*

Most of the respondents in the Candidate Countries (66%) selected *good health* among the first three as a factor that principally contributed to their current quality of life. Second in the list, but mentioned by less than half of respondents only, was *income* sufficient to satisfy needs (42%), and many mentioned *family* members they can count on when needed in the third place (39%).

One fourth of the respondents think that satisfying workplace is a factor that greatly contributes to their quality of life (24%), and one in five considers nice home contributing to their well-being as well (21%).

Good transport facilities, access to new information technology, and participation at social and cultural events on the other hand, are not considered to be absolutely necessary for having a good life. (3% each). (Figure 1.3) Responses for each Candidate Country can be found in Annex Table 1.8.



Both empirical analysis and respondents' self-reports placed health, financial situation, and good family life on the top of the list of factors essential for having a quality life. But respondents, cognitively, do not consider social life to be as important as it proved to be in determining subjective well-being. They rather choose material aspects of life that are most important of having a good life, with the exception of family life.

1.4 Factors that would most improve quality of life

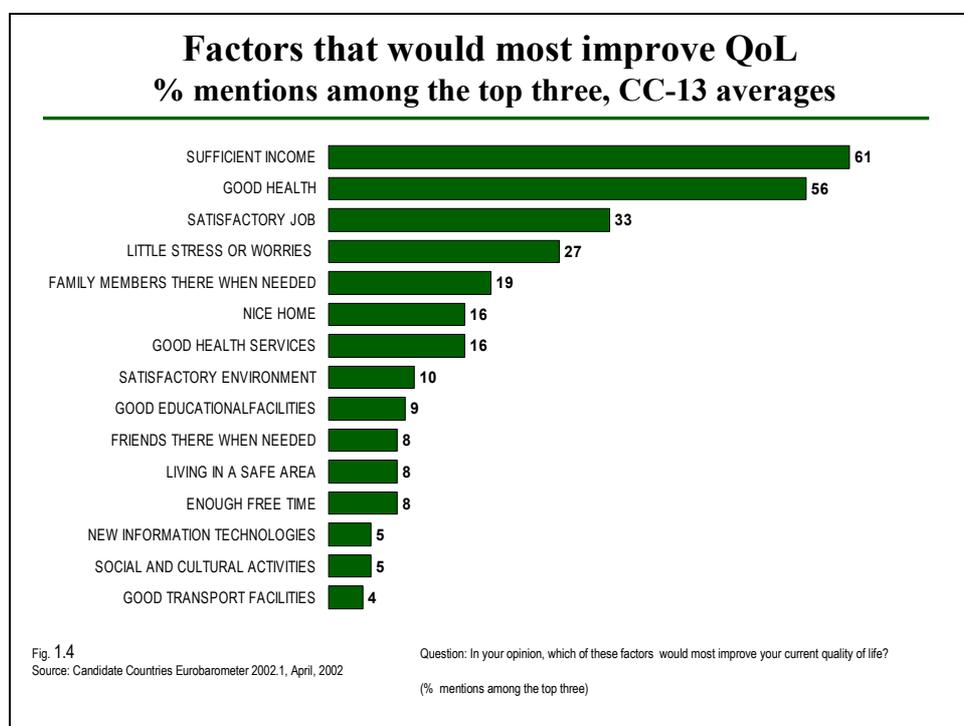
We also inquired our respondents what would improve their quality of life the most, in other words, what are they currently lacking the most preventing them to reach the quality of life they wish to have.

Respondents, similarly to the previous question, could name three factors that – in their opinion – would improve their quality of life the most, from the same list of 15 possible factors we introduced above.

Most of the respondents underline sufficient income as one that would most improve their quality of life (61%), closely followed by good health (56%). In other words, for 61 percent, their income levels are seen as the most important burdens to fulfil their life, and more than half of the respondents think the same about their health situation.

One third of the respondents (33%) believe suitable workplace would improve their quality of life, and 27% of the respondents feel this way about less stress and worries.

Responses for each Candidate Country can be found in Annex Table 1.9.



2. Fertility

Candidate Countries Eurobarometer profiles some of the current fertility patterns of the populations of the Candidate Region, especially those of women of childbearing ages⁷. In this Chapter we will discuss general fertility patterns - ideal family size, fertility targets, mean effective family size, age at first birth, and fertility rates - based on survey data (we do not use secondary sources such as vital statistics in the analysis, so all presented numbers are subject to sampling and non-sampling errors, as shown in the Annex). We will look at the underlying causes of the failed realizations of childbearing targets of families. We will also analyse the labour situations of mothers with infants, and out-of-wedlock childbearing patterns in the Candidate Countries.

2.1 Fertility – Can we expect growing or sustaining populations in New Europe?

The planned enlargement of the EU will cause a dramatic increase in the Union's population. With only the entrance of the Laeken-10 there will be an immediate 20% population gain in the European Union, with the 87.5 million combined population of Romania, Turkey and Bulgaria on the horizon. However, this expansion will barely cover or outweigh the effects of the ageing and population-decrease we can expect in Europe. In almost all of the EU15 societies⁸ among women at the end of their reproductive career (40-54 years), the current birth rate is below the level required for natural replacement of the population⁹, and the current Member States can only sustain their population through international migration. On the EU15 level, among women 40-54 years old in 2002, the average birth rate is 2.0 children. These statistics predict a decreasing and/or ageing population in Europe.

The picture is not very different in the Candidate Countries, where the actual population growth is negative in 8 out of the 13 countries (see subchapter 2.3 below).

The regional *average of planned* family size among women in reproductive ages seems to be enough for population reproduction - even for some growth - (reaching a targeted 2.2 births per women in childbearing ages), and the fertility rate among the 40-54 year olds reaches 2.4 birth per women. We have only few countries where the actual fertility rate of women at the end of their reproductive career is currently above the 2.1 level: such as Cyprus, Malta, and Turkey - the latter with an astonishingly high average of 3.6 births per woman. Turkey and Cyprus present fertility patterns that are dramatically different from the average of the other countries. Particularly in Turkey, where we can not only observe extremely high fertility rates but also an enormously high ratio of women in their fertile years.

But generally, most of the fertility indicators are as discouraging in the Candidate Region as in the EU itself¹⁰; and most of the Candidate Countries will face depopulation and ageing in the foreseeable future.

⁷ "Women in childbearing or reproductive ages" in this analysis are women between 15 and 44 years, according to international standards

⁸ Source: EB56.2, Chapter 5

⁹ The birth rate required for natural replacement of population (i.e. to replace each woman with a female living to the average age of childbearing) is about 2.1 children in a reproductive career in our part of the globe

¹⁰ All EU data used in this report on fertility issues are from Standard Eurobarometer 56.2; Attitudes of Europeans towards fertility: Ideals, Desires, Intentions and Realizations, collected in Autumn 2001 (later referenced as EB56.2)

2.2 Ideal family size

The Candidate Countries Eurobarometer investigated how people of the thirteen countries perceive the ideally sized family in general for their society and for themselves personally. Ideals related to family size have a strong effect on achieved fertility, especially the personal opinion about ideal family size. Although in this case we cannot exclude a post-hoc justification effect (respondents aligning their responses according to their fertility), it seems that there is a strong correlation between personal childbearing ideals and the actual number of children, both among men and women, with a slightly higher correlation among female respondents.

**Table 2.2a Correlations between ideal family size, and number of children
(all correlations are significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed))**

		Ideal number of children for a family	Ideal number of children personally	Have you had any children? How many?
Male	Ideal number of children for a family	1,0000		
	Ideal number of children personally	0,6601	1,0000	
	Have you had any children? How many?	0,1803	0,3452	1,0000
Female	Ideal number of children for a family	1,0000		
	Ideal number of children personally	0,6011	1,0000	
	Have you had any children? How many?	0,1891	0,3729	1,0000

As Table 2.2a shows, the ideal number of children personally correlates significantly more closely with the actual or effective fertility than the general evaluation of this issue. But it does not fully predict the number of children a family will actually achieve at the end of the childbearing years of the women: even in the age groups that have presumably completed fertility (40 and older), ideal family size (as perceived personally) has only a somewhat stronger correlation with Effective Family Size at about 0.4.

Ideal number of children for a family

Table 2.2b shows that the ideal number of children in a family, similarly to what Eurobarometer has found in the EU-fifteen countries¹¹, is 2.3 in the CC13 region. We have measured a little lower mean ideal family size among women in childbearing ages, with 2.2 children. Consequently, males tend to prefer larger family size when asked about ideal family in general.

If we take a closer look at the preferences of women in reproductive ages, we find that the highest number of children is preferred by Cypriot women (2.8), and ideal family size evaluations go as low as 2.0 children in Romania, and the Czech Republic. Slovenian, Hungarian and Bulgarian women opt for 2.1 children, which is just sufficient for natural reproduction of the population. Polish, Slovakian, Lithuanian, and Latvian women in childbearing ages prefer 2.2 children on the average for a family, while Turkish, Maltese, and Estonian respondents think that the mean ideal number of children for a family is 2.3.

¹¹ EB56.2, Autumn 2001

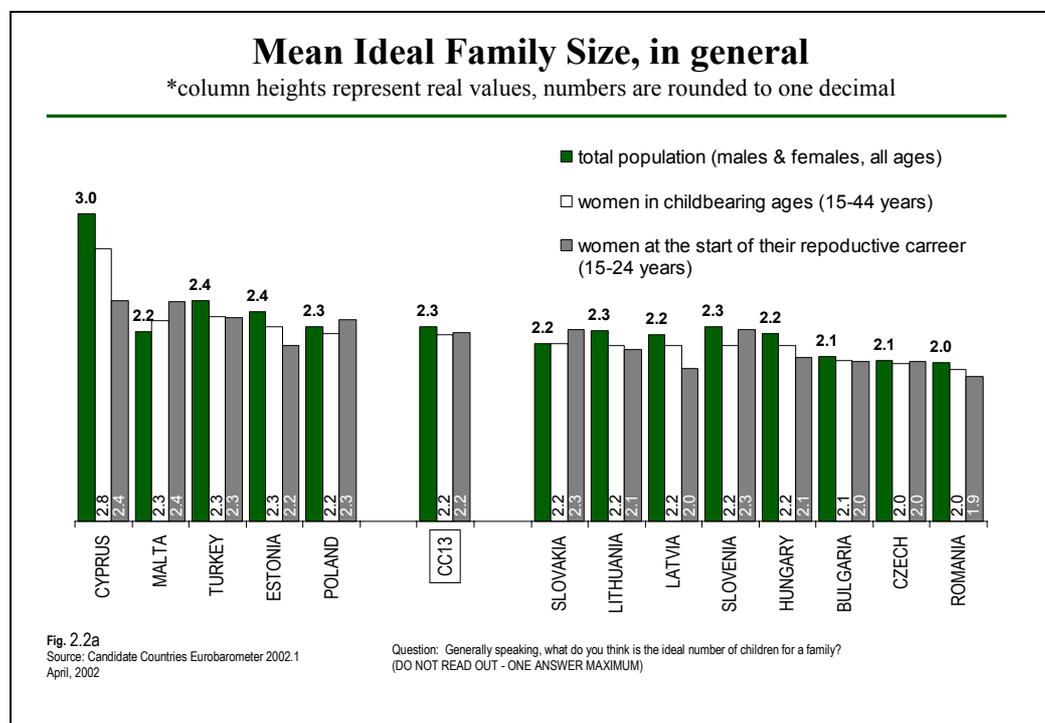
As in the Member States, the respondents strongly favour the 2-child family model. 59% of the citizens in the Candidate Countries favour the two-child model, and one tenth of the respondents think that less than two children are sufficient for a family.

Women in their fertile years are even more strongly in favour of the 2-child model: 64% of women in childbearing years said that 2 children are ideal for a family. Cyprus is the only country where the majority of women in childbearing age support the three or more child model (63%). Elsewhere this ratio ranges from 34% (in Estonia) to 11% (in Romania). 16% of the Czech women in reproductive ages reported that less than two children is the ideal size for a family. Every tenth respondent (among fertile women and the general public equally) prefers a family model with less than two children.

Table 2.2b Ideal number of children for a family (DK responses not shown)

		Mean ideal number of children	% less than 2 children	% two children	% 3 or more children			Mean ideal number of children	% less than two children	% two children	% 3 or more children
Bulgaria	in all ages	2,1	11	69	15	males	2,1	11	66	16	
						females	2,1	10	72	15	
	in childbearing ages	2,1	10	71	13	males	2,0	12	67	13	
						females	2,1	9	74	12	
Cyprus	in all ages	3,0	2	26	71	males	3,0	2	27	68	
						females	3,0	2	24	72	
	in childbearing ages	2,7	2	37	59	males	2,7	3	41	55	
						females	2,8	2	34	63	
Czech Rep.	in all ages	2,0	15	60	19	males	2,0	16	56	17	
						females	2,1	14	64	21	
	in childbearing ages	1,9	18	60	14	males	1,8	20	55	10	
						females	2,0	16	65	18	
Estonia	in all ages	2,4	9	45	40	males	2,4	10	46	38	
						females	2,4	9	43	42	
	in childbearing ages	2,3	12	49	34	males	2,3	12	48	33	
						females	2,3	11	50	34	
Hungary	in all ages	2,2	10	58	29	males	2,3	10	56	29	
						females	2,2	10	59	29	
	in childbearing ages	2,2	10	65	23	males	2,2	10	63	24	
						females	2,1	10	66	23	
Latvia	in all ages	2,2	13	50	31	males	2,1	15	50	28	
						females	2,3	11	51	34	
	in childbearing ages	2,1	14	59	22	males	2,0	16	57	20	
						females	2,2	12	60	24	
Lithuania	in all ages	2,3	8	53	27	males	2,2	8	50	26	
						females	2,3	8	55	28	
	in childbearing ages	2,1	10	59	21	males	2,1	10	56	19	
						females	2,2	10	62	24	
Malta	in all ages	2,2	7	64	27	males	2,2	8	64	25	
						females	2,3	6	64	28	
	in childbearing ages	2,2	8	68	22	males	2,0	10	73	14	
						females	2,3	7	64	29	
Poland	in all ages	2,3	9	57	27	males	2,2	10	58	24	
						females	2,3	9	56	29	
	in childbearing ages	2,2	11	62	22	males	2,1	12	61	20	
						females	2,2	10	62	25	
Romania	in all ages	2,0	14	63	16	males	2,1	13	60	17	
						females	2,0	15	65	15	
	in childbearing ages	2,0	13	68	11	males	2,0	13	64	11	
						females	2,0	12	71	11	
Slovakia	in all ages	2,2	10	63	23	males	2,1	11	63	21	
						females	2,2	9	62	24	
	in childbearing ages	2,1	11	67	17	males	2,0	15	68	14	
						females	2,2	8	67	20	
Slovenia	in all ages	2,3	8	60	29	males	2,3	8	62	28	
						females	2,3	9	59	30	
	in childbearing ages	2,2	10	63	26	males	2,2	10	60	28	
						females	2,1	10	65	24	
Turkey	in all ages	2,4	8	58	34	males	2,5	7	54	39	
						females	2,3	8	62	30	
	in childbearing ages	2,4	8	58	34	males	2,5	7	54	38	
						females	2,3	8	62	29	
CC 13	in all ages	2,3	10	59	27	males	2,3	10	57	29	
						females	2,2	10	61	26	
	in childbearing ages	2,3	10	61	25	males	2,3	10	58	26	
						females	2,2	10	64	24	

Gender differences in ideal family size assessment are not very prevalent and only Turkish preferences show significant gaps between the two genders. In Turkey, males are more likely to think that three or more children are ideal for a family (39% males vs. 30% females), and consequently, the mean ideal family size is higher for Turkish men (2.5) than for women (2.3). Generally, however, male and female preferences are very close to each other in this respect. Age differences are much more apparent in fertility issues.



As shown in Figure 2.2a, in several countries, the younger female generations, which are just entering the childbearing years, perceive ideal family size as considerably smaller than the whole nation or even all women in childbearing ages in the country. Specifically in Cyprus, the 15-24 year old group of women reports significantly smaller family size as their ideal than the whole nation: their preferred 2.4 children compares to the 3-child model favoured in the Cypriot society, and the Estonian, Latvian, and Turkish counterparts of this age group are also less likely than the older generation to support larger families.

On the other hand, in Malta, Slovakia, and Poland, those women who are just entering the reproductive phase of their life prefer larger families than their older peers.

In Latvia, Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, and Romania, the youngest female group's ideal family preference favours family sizes that are below 2.1 children, which is the required level for natural replacement of population. (For country-by-country numbers, refer to Table 2.1 in the Annex.)

Ideal number of children, personally

When asking “for you personally, what would be the ideal number of children you would like to have or would have liked to have had?” we do not find significant departures from the answers given to the previously discussed question. Generally, people do not distinguish between their personal childbearing preferences and that of an ‘ideal family’ – as evidenced by the over 0.6 correlation between the two questions, shown in Table 2.2a. In the Member States, ideal personal family size is smaller than in the Candidate Countries’ 15 years and older population. The latter favours a mean family size of 2.3 children, while current European citizens think that 2.2 children are enough for their own ideal family. Among all 28 countries Eurobarometer investigates (15 EU countries and 13 Candidate Countries), Cypriots reported to have the largest ideal family size personally, reaching 3.1 children (even higher than in the other Greek-speaking country with preference for larger families, Greece).

Table 2.2c Ideal Family Size personally, CC and EU¹², total population

CYPRUS	3,1
IRELAND	2,9
GREECE	2,6
FINLAND	2,5
UNITED KINGDOM	2,5
DENMARK	2,4
FRANCE	2,4
TURKEY	2,4
SPAIN	2,3
ITALY	2,3
NETHERLANDS	2,3
PORTUGAL	2,3
CC13	2,3
POLAND	2,3
SLOVENIA	2,3
LICHTENSTEIN	2,2
EU15	2,2
ESTONIA	2,2
HUNGARY	2,2
LATVIA	2,2
LITHUANIA	2,2
MALTA	2,2
SLOVAKIA	2,2
BELGIUM	2,1
CZECH REP.	2,1
ROMANIA	2,1
BULGARIA	2,1
AUSTRIA	2,0
SWEDEN	1,9
DENMARK	1,8
GERMANY (WEST)	1,8
GERMANY (EAST)	1,8

However, among the top ten we find only two Candidate Countries; besides Cyprus, the Turkish favour relatively large families. At the same time, no Candidate Country reports ideal own family size as low as we have seen in Sweden, Germany, or Austria. In fact, not any Candidate Country has a personal family size preference that would fall below the level of national replacement of the population – however, actual fertility goes well below this level in most of the countries, as discussed in Chapter 2.3.

As shown in Table 2.2d, every tenth women in childbearing ages in the Candidate Countries thinks that the ideal number of children for their family is less than two – which is a -4% compared to the general IFS figure. The personal preference for a three- or more children model is about the same as the general IFS, 23% vs. 24%.

Evidently, the two-child model dominates the personal preferences of females in childbearing ages: 61% think that they should ideally have or have had two babies in their reproductive life. We have found about the same ratio in the total population of those 15 years or older in the Candidate Region, where 59% thinks that two children are the ideal for one’s own family. The corresponding number within the European Union is less, at 48%. European citizens’ preference for smaller families – with only one baby or no child at all – is a little higher than in the Candidate Countries (EU15: 17%, CC13: 13%), but at the same time the preference for larger families is greater as well (3 or more children, EU15: 30%, CC13: 23%).

Just as we have seen with general ideals, Cyprus is the only country in the Candidate Region where the three-child model dominates the preferences for own family (67%). The family values and ideals, nevertheless, seem to change in the island of Cyprus as well: among women in reproductive ages, the ideal family size for one’s own family is 2 children for 40% compared to the 28% measured among all women.

¹² EB56.2, Autumn 2001

Table 2.2d Ideal number of children personally (DK responses not shown)

		Mean ideal number of children	% less than 2 children	% two children	% 3 or more children			Mean ideal number of children	% less than two children	% two children	% 3 or more children
Bulgaria	in all ages	2,1	11	70	15	males	2,0	12	68	15	
						females	2,1	11	71	16	
	in childbearing ages	2,0	13	70	12	males	1,9	15	67	10	
						females	2,1	11	72	15	
Cyprus	in all ages	3,1	2	30	67	males	3,0	2	31	64	
						females	3,1	2	28	70	
	in childbearing ages	2,7	3	43	53	males	2,7	3	46	49	
						females	2,7	3	40	57	
Czech Rep.	in all ages	2,1	15	58	20	males	2,0	18	55	17	
						females	2,1	13	61	23	
	in childbearing ages	1,9	20	55	16	males	1,8	22	50	12	
						females	2,0	18	59	20	
Estonia	in all ages	2,2	14	49	30	males	2,3	13	47	31	
						females	2,2	15	51	29	
	in childbearing ages	2,2	15	50	27	males	2,2	15	46	29	
						females	2,1	15	55	25	
Hungary	in all ages	2,2	10	64	23	males	2,2	9	64	22	
						females	2,2	11	64	23	
	in childbearing ages	2,2	13	63	21	males	2,1	13	63	20	
						females	2,1	14	63	21	
Latvia	in all ages	2,2	15	53	25	males	2,1	16	52	23	
						females	2,2	15	54	28	
	in childbearing ages	2,1	55	55	20	males	2,0	19	52	19	
						females	2,1	16	59	21	
Lithuania	in all ages	2,2	11	54	24	males	2,2	10	51	22	
						females	2,2	12	57	25	
	in childbearing ages	2,1	13	59	18	males	2,0	12	55	17	
						females	2,1	15	62	20	
Malta	in all ages	2,2	16	53	28	males	2,1	18	54	24	
						females	2,3	14	53	32	
	in childbearing ages	2,0	18	59	20	males	1,9	23	59	13	
						females	2,2	14	59	26	
Poland	in all ages	2,3	11	55	29	males	2,2	11	58	24	
						females	2,3	11	53	32	
	in childbearing ages	2,1	13	61	22	males	2,1	12	62	19	
						females	2,2	14	60	24	
Romania	in all ages	2,1	16	61	18	males	2,1	15	62	16	
						females	2,1	16	60	19	
	in childbearing ages	1,9	20	64	11	males	2,0	17	66	12	
						females	1,9	23	63	10	
Slovakia	in all ages	2,2	10	57	27	males	2,2	9	57	26	
						females	2,2	10	58	28	
	in childbearing ages	2,1	13	63	19	males	2,1	13	65	13	
						females	2,2	12	61	24	
Slovenia	in all ages	2,3	12	55	31	males	2,3	10	58	31	
						females	2,2	14	53	32	
	in childbearing ages	2,1	15	58	26	males	2,3	11	59	29	
						females	2,0	19	57	23	
Turkey	in all ages	2,4	10	59	32	males	2,5	8	56	36	
						females	2,3	12	61	28	
	in childbearing ages	2,3	11	60	30	males	2,4	9	58	33	
						females	2,3	12	61	26	
CC 13	in all ages	2,3	11	59	30	males	2,3	11	58	27	
						females	2,2	12	59	26	
	in childbearing ages	2,2	13	61	23	males	2,2	12	60	24	
						females	2,2	14	61	23	

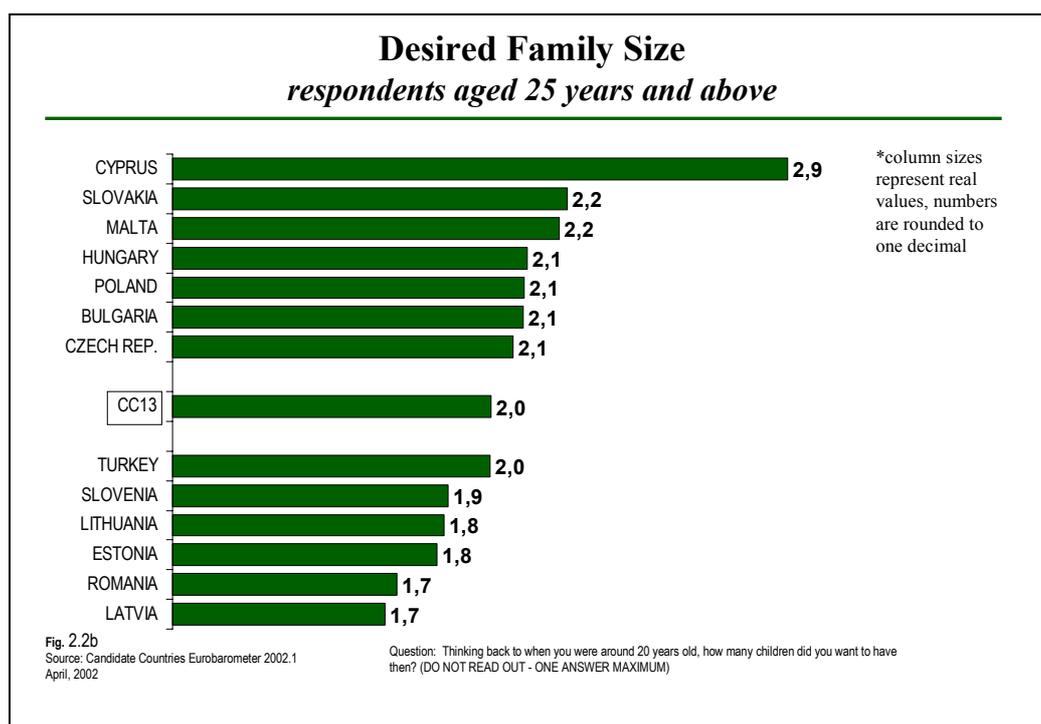
Looking at the ratios of those women in their childbearing ages that think that the ideal number of children for their own family is less than two children, we find large differences between countries. An extreme low 3% prefers less than two children in Cyprus, whereas almost one quarter of their Romanian peers (23%) opt for this model. Almost one fifth of Slovenians (19%) and Czechs (18%) agree that their own ideal family size is less than two children. (For country-by-country numbers, refer to Table 2.2 in the Annex.)

Childbearing desires, realization of goals

We asked citizens aged 25 and older in the Candidate Region about their childbearing desires around the age of 20. On the average, similarly to the EU15 countries¹³, respondents preferred 2.0 children for their own family at the approximate start of their reproductive life. This value is appreciably lower than the ideal family size perceived either generally or personally (2.3 children).

At the same time, 59% of the respective population in the region reports an ideal personal family size identical to the number of children desired at the age of 20, and 12% report that he or she wanted more children at the age of twenty than his or her current perception of *ideal* family size is. The remaining 29% reported lower childbearing desires at the approximate start of their reproductive life as compared to their present evaluation of a personally ideal family size. An even lower ratio – 39% – reported to have had all the children they wanted at the age of 20; the same figure among those who have passed their childbearing ages (above 44) is only 44%. In the latter group, 24% had more babies than planned when they were young.

Probably in a more mature age, people have a more established evaluation of their childbearing plans (10% of the 25 and older population did not care at all about the desired number of children at that age). Nonetheless, the initial (reported) plans still show some correlation with the actual number of children at the end of the reproductive career (0.276 among males, and 0.234 among females in the total 25+ population of the Candidate Region¹⁴).



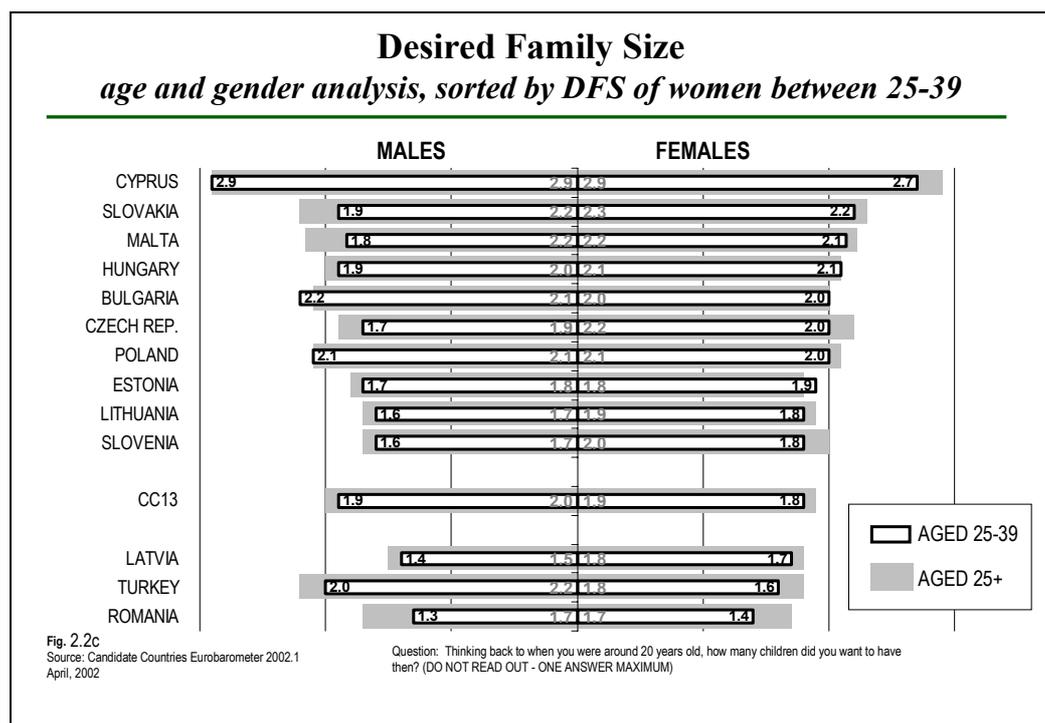
If we examine childbearing desires in the Candidate Countries in the above figure, we find that Cyprus is again at the top of the list with 2.9 children (only one tenth less than the ideal family size in all ages). The rest of the nations are lagging well behind in childbearing desires. Slovaks and Maltese reported relatively high desired family size (DFS) with 2.2 children. Latvians and Romanians, on the other hand, wanted only 1.7 children, and DFS remains

¹³ EB56.2, Autumn 2001

¹⁴ Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

below 2 children in Slovenia (1.9), Lithuania, and Estonia as well (both 1.8). (For country-by-country numbers, refer to Table 2.3a in the Annex.)

Gender and age differences in DFS are mixed in the region. While on the average males planned more children than females (2.0 vs. 1.9), there is only one country in the region that has a DFS higher than two tenths among males, and this is Turkey. In Turkey, males desired 2.2 children for their family, while women would have preferred 1.8 at the start of their reproductive life. This pattern prevails even in the youngest group as shown in Figure 1.2c. On the other hand, there are five countries where female DFS is higher than males' wishes by more than one tenth: in Hungary (M: 2.0, F: 2.1), Lithuania (M: 1.7, F: 1.9), Latvia (M: 1.5, F: 1.8), Slovenia (M: 1.7, F: 2.0), and the Czech Republic (M: 1.9, F: 2.2). (For other demographic breakdowns check Table 2.3b in the Annex).



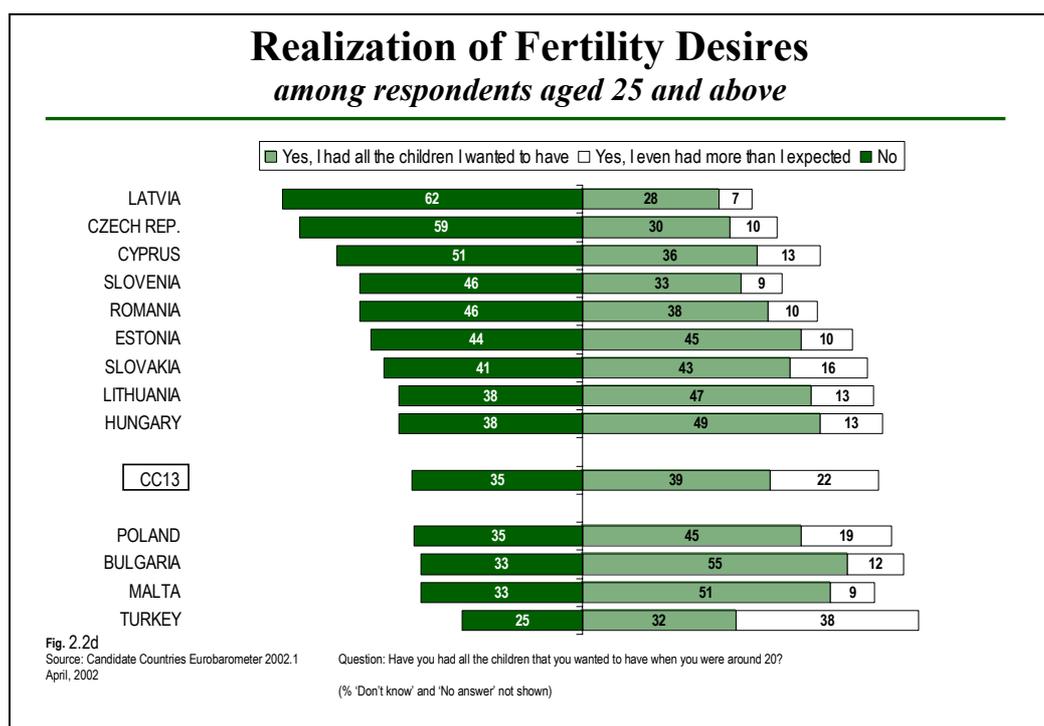
But generally, the above Figures suggests that desired family size shrinks over time: males and females between 25 and 39 years have lower DFS values than the whole 25+ population in most countries. In the actively reproductive group, the mean desired family size is 1.8 children for women and 1.9 for men. In fact, among younger females, the desired number of children at the age of 20 reached the 2.1 level needed for population replacement in Malta, Hungary (2.1 both) and Slovakia (2.2), as well as in Cyprus (2.7). But in Hungary, Malta, and Slovenia, the possible partners are not so enthusiastic about large families; the young men in these countries wanted only 1.8-1.9 children at the age of 20. Besides these countries, the desired family size of women between 25 and 39 is significantly larger than men's in the Czech Republic, Latvia, Estonia, Lithuania, and Slovenia (with a difference of at least 0.2).

We find the opposite in Turkey, where young (25-39 years of age) males tended to plan larger families in their 20's compared to females of a similar age.

In Romania young female generations want 0.3 children less on the average compared to all women in the country.

As noted earlier, these reported intentions are far from accurate in predicting future fertility. As seen in Figure 2.2d, a number of respondents ended up having more children than they thought they would have liked to have. The Candidate Countries' average of 22% is largely determined by the populous Turkey's residents, where the desired family size among women is one of the lowest, although the actual fertility rate is rather high.

In fact, the only country that reported above the average excessive births compared to the plans made at 20 years of age was Turkey, with 38% saying they had more children than planned. In the other twelve countries, this figure ranges from 7% in Latvia to 16% in Slovakia, and 19% in Poland. Consequently, the simple, unweighted average for the remaining countries is about 12% saying that they had more children than they planned to have – which is the same as the corresponding figure in the Member States.



In the Candidate Region, 39% of all respondents declared that they have the same number of children they planned on when they were around 20. This is 5% short of the corresponding figure in the EU15 countries (44%). Bulgarians are the most likely to exactly fulfil their childbearing desires from their youth: 55% of all Bulgarians above 25 years told us that they have all the children they wanted around 20, followed by Maltese (51%), and Hungarians (49%). At the bottom of this ranking, we find that respondents from Latvia (28%), the Czech Republic (30%), and Turkey (32%) have no more and no fewer children than they wanted at the start of their reproductive life. But while Turkey – as discussed above – is overperforming compared to the initial targets, Latvia and the Czech Republic are strongly under-performing in terms of childbearing desires and achieved fertility. (For country-by-country numbers, refer to Table 2.4 in the Annex.)

We will briefly discuss the reasons why people fail to reach the childbearing targets they had at the start of their reproductive career. But let us take a closer look at the sheer numbers first. The Latvian citizens stand out with almost two-thirds (62%) of them failing to reach their childbearing targets, and the Czechs are behind the targeted number of children as well (59% not having had all the children they wanted at the age of 20). The majority of Cypriots, who reported by far the largest desired family size, also seem to fail to live up to their own expectations, with 51% failed realization of childbearing goals. On the other hand, only one-

quarter, 25% of Turkish, and exactly one third (33%) of Bulgarians and Maltese reported that they have less children than seemed desirable at the age of 20.

The regional average is higher than in the Member States; while on the average more than one third (35%) of adults aged 25 years or above failed to realize their fertility targets, the same figure is only 29% in the fifteen countries of the European Union.

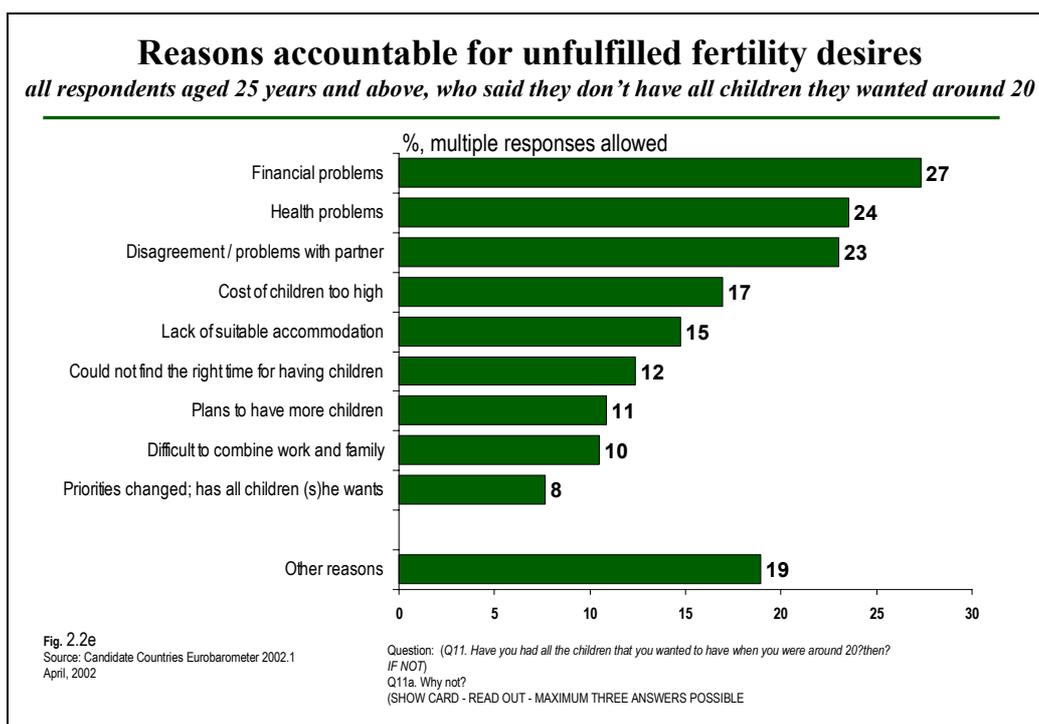
What are the main barriers in reaching the fertility goals respondents have had at the start of their reproductive life?

The survey listed 10 possible reasons that might prevent the achievement of one's childbearing targets, adding the possibility that the respondent is still planning to have babies. The reasons presented to respondents were:

- 1 - I have / had health problems*
- 2 - My partner has / had health problems*
- 3 - I did not find the right partner for raising children or I had problems with my partner / my partner wanted fewer (or no) children*
- 4 - I have / had financial problems*
- 5 - My partner has / had financial problems*
- 6 - I find / found it difficult to combine work and family life (lack of nurseries...)*
- 7 - Availability of suitable accommodation was a problem*
- 8 - The cost of children (education, etc.) is/ was too high*
- 9 - I could not find the right time for having children*
- 10 - My priorities have changed and I already have the number of children I want*
- 11 - I still plan to have more children*

For the analysis, we merged codes 1-2 into 'health problems' in general, and 4-5 into 'financial problems', considering that the respondent and the partner share these problems in a family.

It is worth to remind the reader that people who say that they have not met the fertility desires they had at the age of 20 years are only a sub-sample of all respondents. This group includes only those who say they have fewer children than they wanted at age 20. It is worth noting that 10% of those answering "No" to the question on realizations of fertility desires are in fact adopting a fertility behaviour consistent with the previous childbearing desires, at least according to their own responses.



As shown in Figure 2.2e, there are three dominant reasons for not achieving fertility targets in the Candidate Region; personal financial problems, health problems, and disagreement or other problems related to the partner. Listing financial difficulties at the first place as one of the main reasons for not having all the children desired at the age 20 years is not what we have experienced within the European Union, where – besides health reasons and problems with the partner – changed priorities were mentioned by most respondents. Generally, it seems that high child-related costs and other financial problems play a more crucial role in not attaining fertility desires in the Candidate Countries than in the European Union. While in the EU only Greece and Portugal have a significant number of respondents claiming that financial burdens are the reasons for unmet childbearing desires, there are only two Candidate Countries, where financial problems are not in the top three in the importance ranking of all reasons: Malta and Slovakia. (See also Table 2.5 in the Annex)

Table 2.2e Top three reasons given for unmet fertility desires
(in %, by country)

Bulgaria		Malta	
Health problems	27	Other	36
Problems with partner	24	Health problems	18
Financial problems	24	Problems with partner	18
Cyprus		Poland	
Health problems	27	Problems with partner	27
Problems with partner	20	Health problems	24
Financial problems	25	Financial problems	24
Czech Republic		Romania	
Problems with partner	33	Financial problems	26
Lack of suitable accommodation	27	Problems with partner	25
Financial problems	26	Health problems	24
Estonia		Slovakia	
Financial problems	43	Problems with partner	34
Health problems	35	Health problems	31
Problems with partner	32	Lack of suitable accommodation	18
Hungary		Slovenia	
Health problems	32	Problems with partner	24
Financial problems	28	Financial problems	22
Problems with partner	25	Health problems	21
Latvia		Turkey	
Lack of suitable accommodation	26	Financial problems	34
Other	22	Other	30
Financial problems	22	Cost of children too high	19
Lithuania			
Financial problems	36		
Problems with partner	28		
Health problems	27		

The table above shows which three of these reasons are most widely cited in each Candidate Country for unmet childbearing desires. **Financial problems** tops the list in 4 of the 13 Candidate Countries, is second in 2 countries, and third in a further 5 countries. Malta is the only country where this item is not included in the top three. In Turkey, financial burdens seem to be more decisive in not reaching fertility targets. Turkey was the only country that does not only have “financial reasons” as the first reason for not having all planned children, but we also find “cost of children too high” as the third most important reason - this item was not found the top three in any other Candidate Country.

In four countries, disagreement with partner, or lack of appropriate **partner** was the most frequently mentioned reason for not having all children planned at the age of 20. In three

further countries this was the second most important problem, and the third in another three countries. Partner-related problems did not make the top three only in Latvia and Turkey. In Bulgaria, Hungary, and Cyprus **health problems** tops the list of causes for unmet childbearing desires; health condition is second in a further 4 countries, and third in 3 countries. Health problems do not play such an important role in the Czech Republic, Latvia, or Turkey.

Lack of suitable accommodation appeared among the top problems in the Czech Republic and Slovakia, and was the most important reason for unmet childbearing desires in Latvia. Finally, the respondents listed “other” – non-listed – reasons very frequently in Malta, Turkey, and Latvia.

Looking at differences by demographic characteristics, we find that males are much less likely to blame health conditions for not having all the children they wanted than women (18% vs. 29%), while they are more likely to attribute unmet childbearing desires to financial difficulties than women (31% vs. 24%).

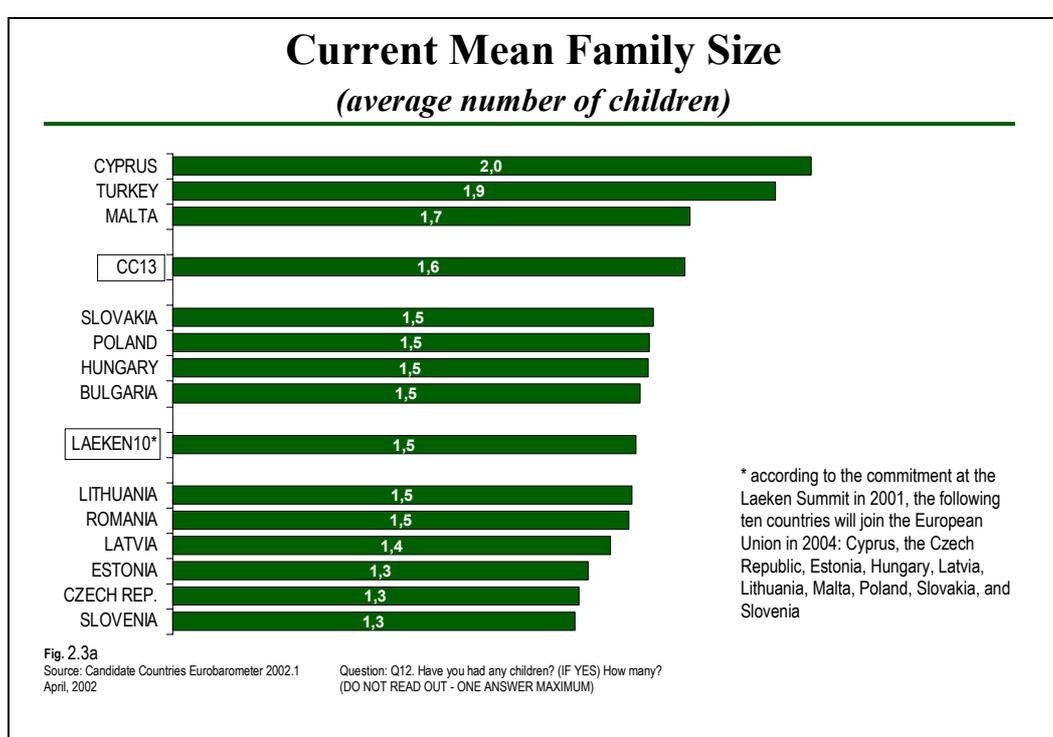
Financial difficulties seem to be a more frequent reason why the youngest age group do not fulfil their childbearing desires (31% among 25 to 39 year olds versus 24% in the 55+ group). In large cities, financial difficulties are the main reason for not having all the children planned, while in small towns health related problems are the principle cause of failed realization of childbearing goals – however, in small villages we find financial concerns to come up most frequently. (For details see Annex Table 2.5.)

2.3 Current family size, reproductive behaviour

Current family size

As we now have an approximate picture of how different the attitudes towards fertility in the Candidate Countries are, we will take a look at how these turn into practice. Generally, we can say that attitudes towards reproduction are quite similar to what we have found in the Member States, so we might expect similar fertility rates and family sizes in the region as well.

But this expectation does not prove to be true: while the average current family size in the EU¹⁵ is 1.5 children, the same figure is 1.6 children in the Candidate Region. In fact, except for Latvia (1.4), Estonia, the Czech Republic, and Slovenia (1.3 each), current family size reaches or exceeds the 1.5 EU average everywhere. It goes as high as 2.0 in Cyprus and 1.9 in Turkey. At the same time, the Laeken-10 group¹⁶ has an identical family size with that of the mean of the current Member States (1.5).



If we compare current family size with childbearing intentions, we find some dramatic discrepancies. While the high childbearing desires of the Cypriots' match the high rate of fertility we find in Cyprus; the Turkish – who are around the average if we look at fertility expectations (for details, refer to *Figure 1.2b*) – stand out with very high actual fertility.

The explanation of this phenomenon is the strikingly different demographic composition of the Turkish population, where only 20% of the population is older than 44 years – the same figure ranges from 33% to 42% in the other Candidate Countries –, that is, the population in their reproductive years is enormously high. Turkey does not face the problem of ageing population yet; one third of the population is below 15 years of age. Consequently, even lower fertility desires result in higher fertility rate per citizen in Turkey. In addition, the Turkish have

¹⁵ EB56.2, Autumn 2001

¹⁶ According to the commitment at the Laeken Summit in 2001, the following ten countries will join the European Union in 2004: Cyprus, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, Slovakia, and Slovenia

the highest fertility rate among women in childbearing ages, as will be detailed below. As a result, according to estimations and local statistics, Turkey has a positive natural population growth of more than 1% annually.

**Table 2.3a Population growth rate
(2001 est.)¹⁷**

TURKEY	1.24%
MALTA	0.74%
CYPRUS	0.59%
SLOVENIA	0.14%
SLOVAKIA	0.13%
POLAND	-0.03%
CZECH REP.	-0.07%
ROMANIA	-0.21%
LITHUANIA	-0.27%
HUNGARY	-0.32%
ESTONIA	-0.55%
LATVIA	-0.81%
BULGARIA	-1.14%

Looking at Table 2.3a, we find that countries reporting high current family size are presenting the highest positive population growth, according to vital statistics as well (Turkey, Malta, and Cyprus).

It is interesting to observe that Slovenians – with the lowest current family size – are the fourth on the population growth ranking; this may be a result of the fact that life expectancy in Slovenia is the third longest among all countries in the Candidate Region.

Current family size is the smallest in Estonia, in the Czech Republic, in Slovenia (1.3 each), and in Latvia (1.4). At the same time, only Latvia is among the strongly depopulating countries, according to vital statistics.

Again, due to the effect of different death rates in the countries with lower birth rates, population growth can be very different. In some countries, positive migration also contributes significantly to population growth (the migration rate in Latvia is -1.27, whereas in Slovenia we experience a positive 2.11 migration per 1,000 – according to the CIA World Factbook).

There is significant difference between genders in terms of current family size, although not as large as Eurobarometer found in the Member States (where females had 0.4 more children than male respondents) in 2001. On the average, males have 0.2 less children than females in the Candidate Region. The difference ranges from 0.5 in Poland and 0.4 in Slovakia to practically no difference in Turkey (0.0).

Table 2.3b Current family size by gender

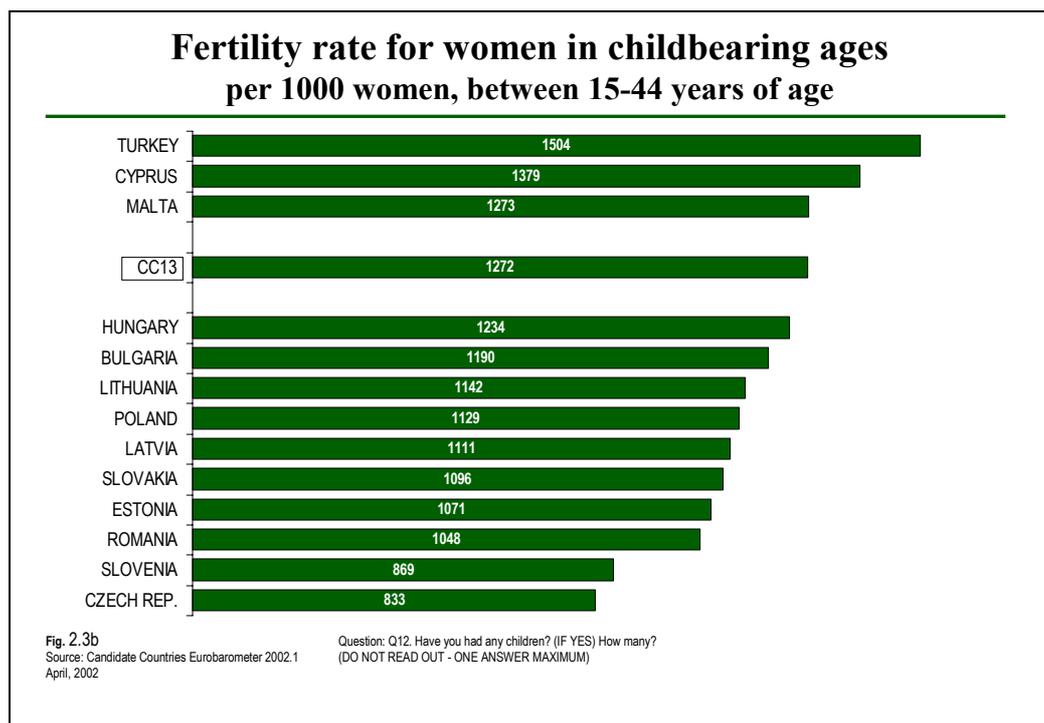
(rounded differences of the unrounded CFS figures are shown, so two 'equal' numbers can have a 0.1 difference, and so on)

	Males	Females	difference (female - male)
CC13	1,5	1,7	0,2
BULGARIA	1,4	1,6	0,2
CYPRUS	1,9	2,2	0,3
CZECH REP.	1,1	1,4	0,3
ESTONIA	1,2	1,4	0,2
HUNGARY	1,3	1,7	0,3
LATVIA	1,4	1,4	0,1
LITHUANIA	1,4	1,5	0,2
MALTA	1,6	1,7	0,2
POLAND	1,3	1,8	0,5
ROMANIA	1,4	1,5	0,2
SLOVAKIA	1,3	1,7	0,4
SLOVENIA	1,2	1,4	0,2
TURKEY	1,9	1,9	0,0

¹⁷ Source: CIA World Factbook, 2002

Now let us take a closer look at fertility patterns of females in childbearing ages in the different countries. For the more detailed analysis we use another usual indicator here, the number of children per 1,000 women, which is a finer measure of fertility rates – compared to the one-decimal number of children per adult figure.

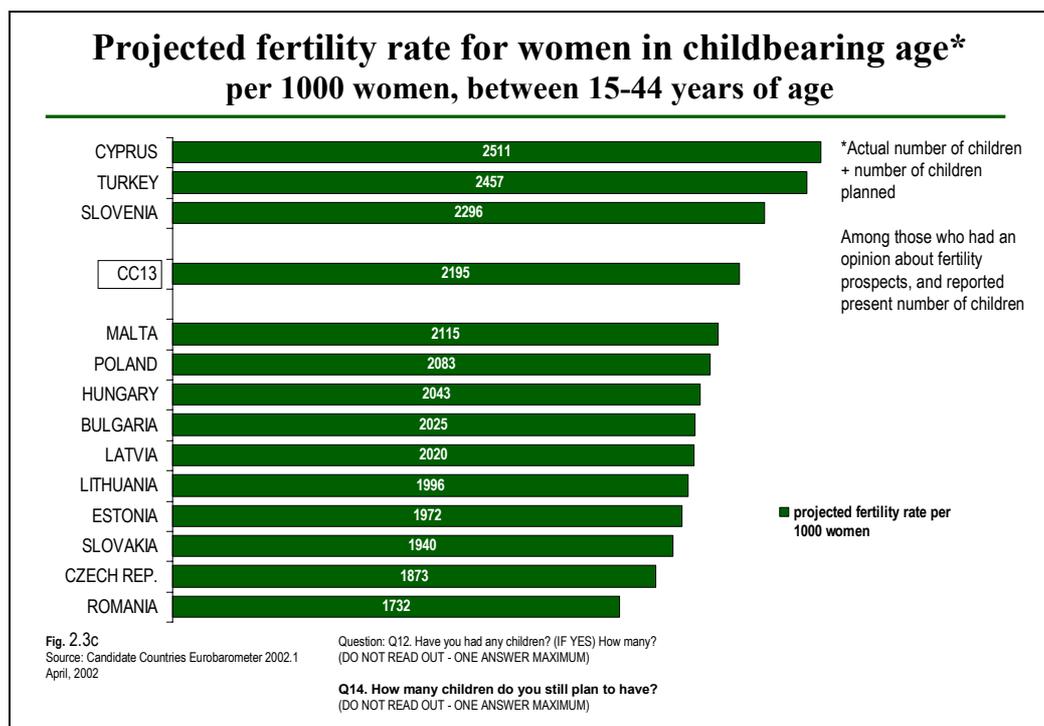
Candidate Countries Eurobarometer found (as shown on Figure 2.3b) that women in their reproductive ages have the most children in Turkey (1,504 for 1,000 females between 15 and 44 years of age). Cyprus and Malta come second and third in this respect. Current family size – or fertility rate – among females who have current ability to generate population replacement for the nations is the lowest in the Czech Republic, and in Slovenia, where we find fewer children than women in their childbearing ages (833 and 869 children for 1,000 women, respectively). (For more details see Table 2.6a and Table 2.6b in the Annex)



The survey also investigated future childbearing plans (“*How many children do you still plan to have?*”). In Figure 2.3c, we added the responses received to this question to the actual number of children to analyse fertility expectations as well. This way we can analyse projected fertility by summing up already born children with babies „in the pipeline”, that is, babies planned to be born for females in fertile ages¹⁸.

¹⁸ We did so in the case of women who were in the appropriate age, and reported the actual number of children along with their plans. We added up actual and planned children individually, and we calculated mean projected fertility on that basis.

Looking at the figures, we can quickly see that there are only four countries in the Candidate Region where the self-projected fertility rate of the reproductively active female group would exceed the 2.1 level required for the natural reproduction of the population. These are: Cyprus (with a fertility rate of 2,511 children per 1,000 women in childbearing ages), Turkey (2,457), Slovenia (2,296), and Malta (2,115 children). The low extremes are Romania (1,732), the Czech Republic (1,873), and Slovakia (1,940). In a further five countries, however, the projected fertility rate of the reproductive female group is below what is required for sustaining the population. Poland reported a projected fertility rate that is around the required level of population replacement for the current reproductively active female generations.

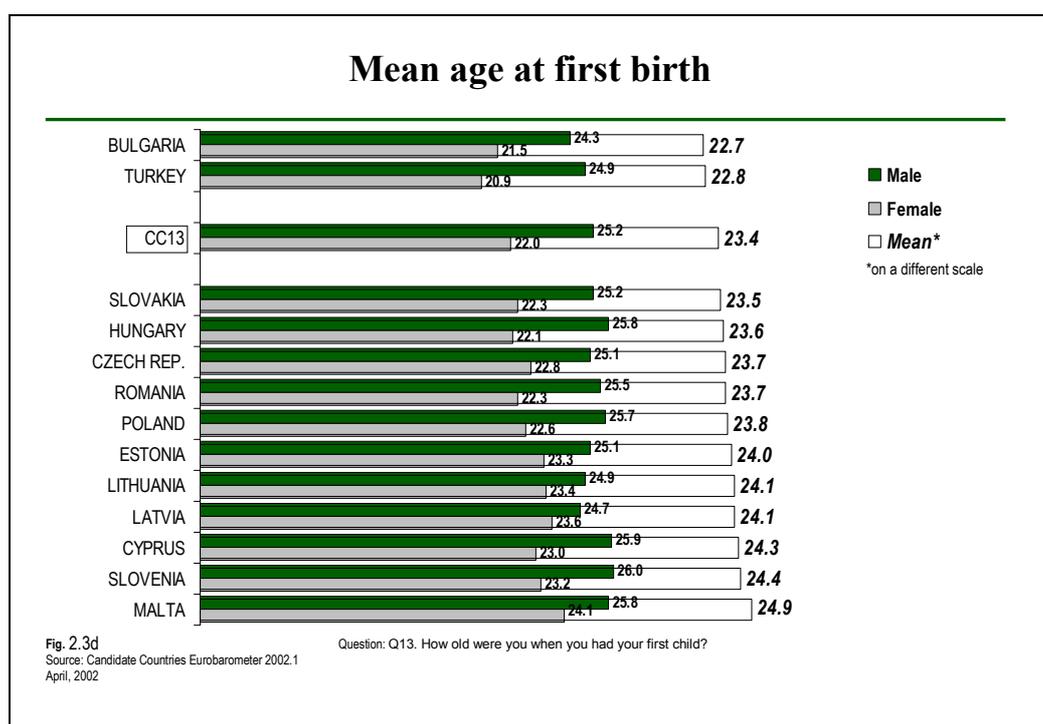


These numbers mean that some countries can bid farewell to growing or sustaining population unless there is a significant immigration to the country. Slovakia seems to be moving from growth towards depopulation, and the presently sustaining Czech Republic is going to face population problems in the mid-term future. (Also see Table 2.8 in the Annex)

Age at first birth

The mean age of having one's first child (among those who have any children, obviously) is lower in the Candidate Countries than in the Member States. On the average, people have their first baby at the age of 23 in the Candidate Region, while European citizens wait until they are 25¹⁹. If we consider the Laeken-10 countries only, we still have a younger start to the reproductive career at the age of 24.

We find the youngest ages for having babies in Bulgaria and in Turkey (23 years of age), whereas Maltese, Slovenian, and Cypriot (24 years each) females are the latest with their first child. We find a rather low variation among the Candidate Countries in this respect; there is only 2.2 years difference between the mean age at first birth in Malta and Bulgaria. (In the Member States, there is a 2.8 years difference between the two extremes: Greece – with the oldest age at first birth – and the UK)



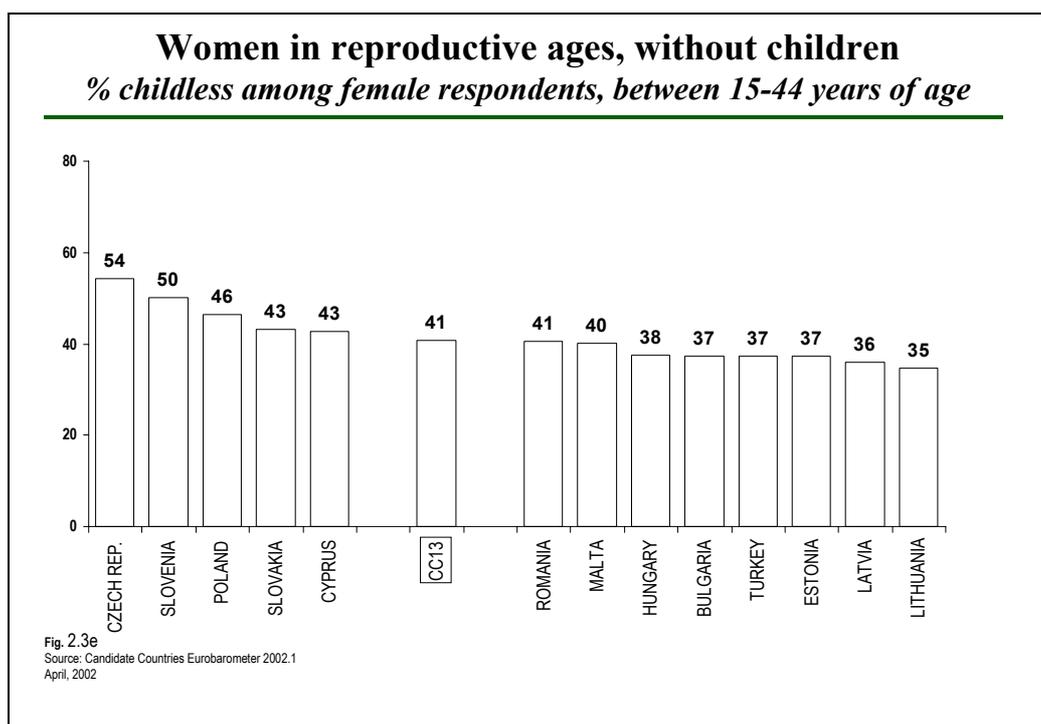
Definitely, males are less likely to have babies in their teenage years: there is a 3.2 year difference between the genders. Females have babies at a significantly younger age than males do; on the average, a woman had her first baby when she was 22, while men were content to wait until they were somewhat over 25 years of age.

The widest gap we found between the two genders is in Turkey with 4 years difference; here teenage pregnancy is not at all peculiar. 39% of all women interviewed (and reporting their age at first birth) were below 20 when they have had their first baby. Consequently, their mean age at first birth is less than 21 years, while males wait almost until they are 25. Hungary is the other country where the gender gap is above the average in this respect (F: 22, M: 26, gap: 3.7 years) – an average that is largely determined by the populous Turkey again. On the other hand, in the Baltic Countries, the ages of males and females are relatively close at the first birth. In these countries – Latvia, Lithuania, and Estonia – the age gap is below 2 years. (For more numbers check Table 2.7a and Table 2.7b in the Annex)

¹⁹ EB56.2, Autumn 2001

Women without children

A very meaningful indicator in describing reproductive behaviour is the number of women in childbearing ages without children. As Figure 2.3d shows, 41% of women in childbearing ages do not have any children in the Candidate Countries – with great variations across the countries. This ratio exceeds to over half of the respective population in the Czech Republic, and is at 50% in Slovenia. This figure is the lowest in the three Baltic States (Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania), but the majority of women in fertile ages have started their reproductive life in Turkey, Bulgaria, and in Hungary as well. (For number of children in the total population please refer to Table 2.6b in the Annex.)



Women in childbearing ages living out-of-wedlock

“Married with children”. Living in wedlock is a conservatively looking, but very significant predictor, or driver, of fertility across the globe – probably the least in Western Europe. In the Candidate Region, though, there is a very solid (0,39) correlation between married status and number of children²⁰.

This correlation is positive and relatively high across the whole region – however, in some countries the size of subsample prevented us from proving it undoubtedly with statistical analytical methods. Nevertheless, in Table 2.3c we find that the association between marriage and number of children is especially close in Slovenia, Slovakia, and the Czech Republic.

²⁰ Among women aged between 26 and 44 years. We did not include the younger groups in this equation, since they are too unlikely to be married, or to have children. If we include all women between 15 and 44 years, the same correlation goes up to 0,6. This correlation and the one above are both significant at the 0.01 level.

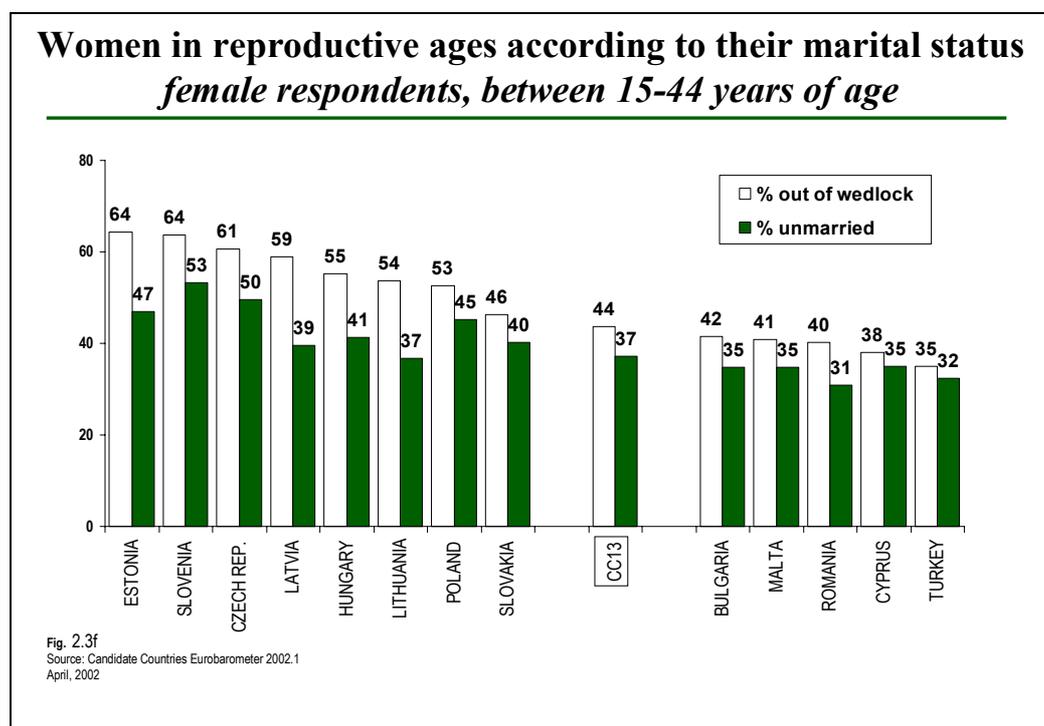
Table 2.3c Association between married status and number of children
(measured by bivariate correlation, among women between 26 and 44 years of age)

	Pearson Correlation	Unweighted N		Pearson Correlation	Unweighted N
BULGARIA	0.18	139	MALTA	0.29	95
CYPRUS	0.51	92	POLAND	0.45**	395
CZECH REP.	0.51**	203	ROMANIA	0.30**	156
ESTONIA	0.14	169	SLOVAKIA	0.59**	207
HUNGARY	0.14	171	SLOVENIA	0.61**	165
LATVIA	0.24	174	TURKEY	0.40**	464
LITHUANIA	0.29*	180			

** significant at the 0,01 level; * significant at the 0,05 level; others are not significant

Slovenian females between 15 and 44 years are the most likely to wait for the One; 53% of them have never been married, and 64% of them are currently living out of wedlock. In both respects, Slovenia stands out among the countries covered by the survey. Estonian and Czech females in the respective age groups are also very likely to live out of wedlock.

On the other hand, Turkish, Cypriot, Romanian, Maltese, and Bulgarian females in their childbearing ages are the most likely to live in an officially established partnership with someone. Only 31% of Romanian and 32% of Turkish females in the fertile group are not married, that is, more than two thirds of the respective population of these countries are wives. On the average, 44% of females between 15 and 44 years of age in the Candidate Region do not currently have a husband, and 37% of the same population had never been married.



In the light of these results, we can now understand why Slovenian women are reporting the lowest current family size (Figure 2.3b), but projecting the fourth highest fertility for their reproductive career; they are waiting for husbands. 38% of Slovenian women between 26 and 44 years are unmarried and never had a husband. The regional average in the Candidate Region is 14% in the same age group.

2.4 Government help needed for families

“In order to improve life for families with children, which three of the following should the government make top priority?” – we asked our respondents. We presented 10 possible answers from which our respondents were to choose the three most important. The items were:

- The duration of leave a mother or father can take around the child's birth
- The level of benefits that the family gets during the time the mother or the father stays home with the baby / newborn child
- Availability of childcare arrangements
- The benefits the family gets during raising up a child (child allowance)
- Tax advantages for families with children
- Lowering the cost of educating children
- Flexible working hours
- Fight against unemployment
- Availability of suitable accommodation
- The availability and affordability of methods of contraception

As shown on Figure 2.4a, according to the respondents the most important priority of governments in the Candidate Region should be raising the benefits to help replace the income lost as a result of a family member having to stay home with the child. The second most important priorities (both equally desired) are help for finding suitable accommodation, and tax advantages for families with children.

The public in the Candidate Region does not regard contraception as a top priority in improving life for families with children, but Turkish and Maltese respondents were much more likely to mention this item compared to other countries in the region (10% and 7%, respectively). Generally, those priorities were selected in most countries that would enhance the families' financial abilities.

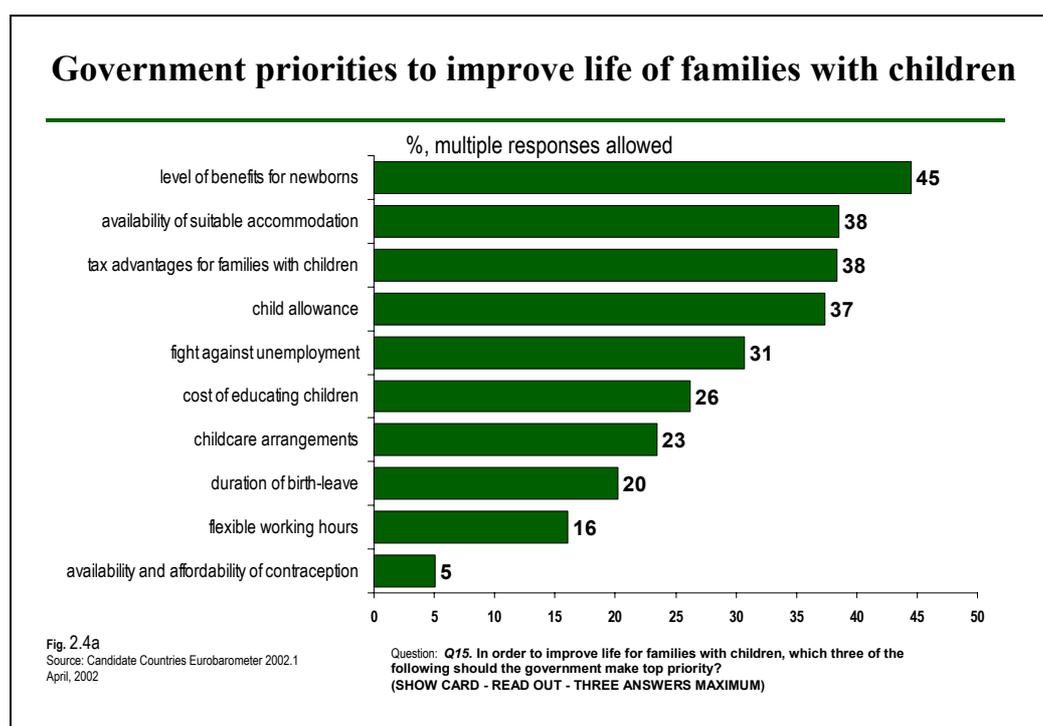


Table 2.4 shows the top three priorities country-by-country in the Candidate Region. Suitable **accommodation** is the dominant answer in Turkey, but makes the top three in only two other countries: Slovakia and the Czech Republic. In the most – six – countries the benefits a family receives during child raising (**child allowance**) is on the top of the priority list, and it comes second in a further 3 countries. In Malta, Poland, Slovenia, and Turkey it is not in the top three.

Table 2.4 Top three priorities of governments how they should help families with children
in %, by country

Bulgaria		Malta	
Benefits for newborns	60	Childcare arrangements	62
Child allowance	55	Fight against unemployment	55
Fight against unemployment	48	Flexible working hours	38
Cyprus		Poland	
Child allowance	53	Fight against unemployment	53
Cost of educating children	49	Cost of educating children	41
Benefits for newborns	42	Benefits for newborns	39
Czech Republic		Romania	
Benefits for newborns	57	Child allowance	49
Child allowance	50	Benefits for newborns	39
Suitable accommodation	39	Cost of educating children	39
Estonia		Slovakia	
Child allowance	68	Child allowance	58
Benefits for newborns	56	Benefits for newborns	39
Tax advantages	37	Suitable accommodation	38
Hungary		Slovenia	
Child allowance	54	Cost of educating children	39
Benefits for newborns	44	Benefits for newborns	37
Cost of educating children	39	Tax advantages	36
Latvia		Turkey	
Child allowance	69	Suitable accommodation	68
Benefits for newborns	56	Tax advantages	46
Cost of educating children	44	Benefits for newborns	46
Lithuania			
Fight against unemployment	46		
Child allowance	42		
Tax advantages	38		

Another important priority is the level of benefits the family gets during the time the mother or the father stays at home with the baby (**benefits for newborns**). This tops the list in 2 countries – Bulgaria and the Czech Republic – but is second in 6 countries, and third in 3. The **cost of educating children** makes the top three in 7 countries, and is the first in

Slovenia. In Poland and Lithuania, **the fight against unemployment** was mentioned most frequently as a required government priority to improve the life of families with children. In Malta and Bulgaria this priority was the second and third most important respectively.

Tax advantages for families with children is considered as one of the three most important priorities governments should set in 4 countries. In Malta the provision of – affordable – **childcare arrangements** seems to be the most important for the respondents, although nowhere else is it among the three most important items. Maltese named **flexible working hours** as the third most important priority; this item does not appear among the top three anywhere else in the region. (For detailed country-by-country percentages for all items refer to Table 2.9 in the Annex.)

3. Family & Children

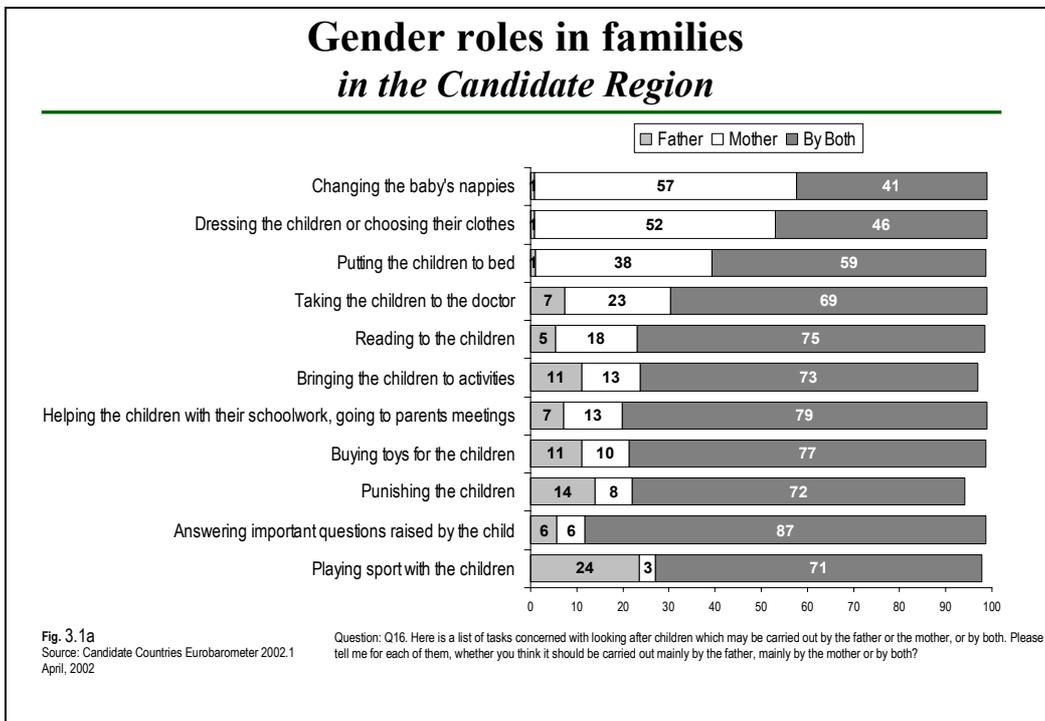
This chapter examines selected issues of family life, family roles, and values. First, we will look at the role of parents in childcare and education, and we will then analyse what roles are attributed most frequently to the family in the Candidate Countries, as perceived generally and personally, for individual families.

3.1 Gender roles in child-care

In modern societies traditional gender roles in families are not as prevalent as they were a century ago. They did however survive despite the structural changes brought by the 20th century, including women’s emancipation movements, the advent of almost equal labour participation of females, and the dramatically changing fertility behaviour of families.

In Figure 3.1a we find that gender stereotypes prevail. Although most of the tasks related to childcare are perceived as shared duties, any gender ‘preference’ detected leans towards mothers with two exceptions: one of these is playing sports with children. Respondents are more likely to think that this is the father’s responsibility than the opposite -- however, the vast majority thinks that both parents should be involved in this activity. The only other issue, where fathers are more likely to be assigned substantially more responsibility than women is in the punishment of children.

There are two tasks for which the majority assigns female responsibility over shared or male responsibility. 57 percent of all respondents from all countries think that changing the babies’ nappies is a task that should be carried out by the mother. 41 percent perceive it as a task that should be shared between parents, and virtually nobody assigns this responsibility to fathers. In addition, respondents seem to be rather sceptical about father’s fashion sense; 52 percent think that dressing up or choosing clothes for children is primarily a female responsibility in a family.



Still, preference for shared -- not necessarily meaning 'equal', obviously -- participation dominates gender role perceptions in child-care throughout the Candidate Region.

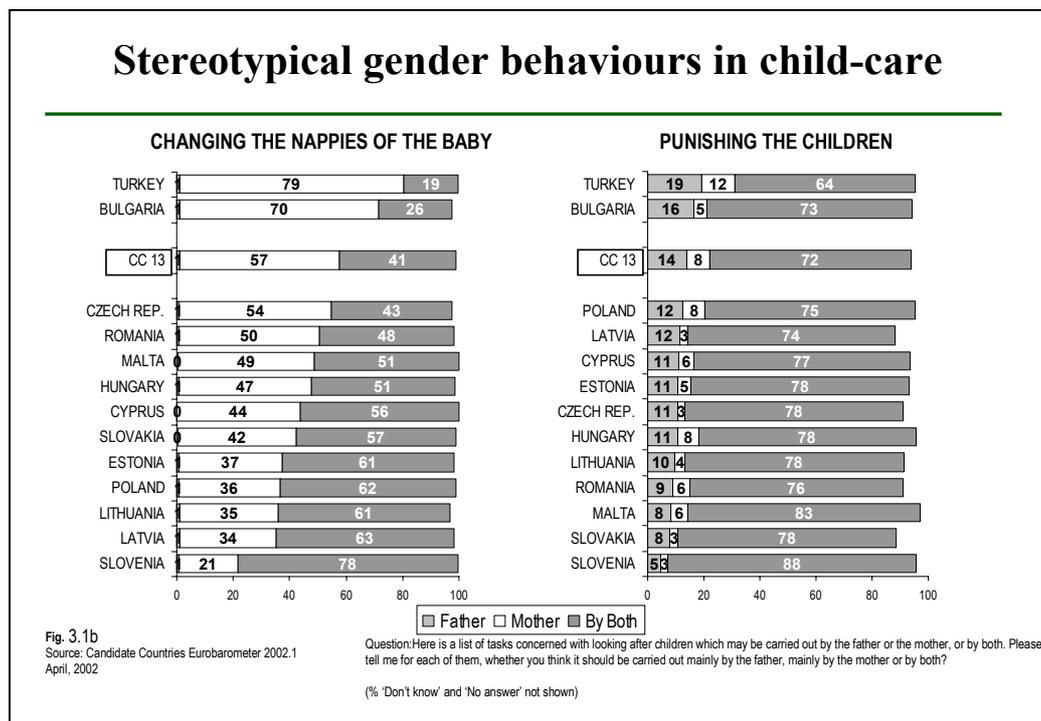
Averaging out all tasks investigated, we can clearly see that people in the Candidate Countries feel that the child-related tasks should be carried out by both parents equally. Slovenian respondents proved the least traditional in their perceptions; on average 88 percent of them thought that the eleven tasks we listed should be carried out by both parents.

Table 3.1 Gender roles in looking after children
(Mean responsibility attribution for all tasks listed, in
%, by country)

	Fathers' responsibility	Mothers' responsibility	Shared responsibility
SLOVENIA	3	8	88
CYPRUS	6	16	77
ESTONIA	5	18	75
LATVIA	5	18	74
POLAND	6	19	74
ROMANIA	4	20	73
SLOVAKIA	4	20	73
MALTA	5	23	72
LITHUANIA	5	20	71
HUNGARY	5	24	69
CZECH REP.	6	22	69
CC 13	8	22	68
BULGARIA	6	28	61
TURKEY	13	25	61

On the other hand, Turkey and Bulgaria do not adopt non-traditional opinions so widely. Nevertheless, while Bulgarians tend to attribute the listed responsibilities more to mothers than to fathers, the Turkish seem to distinguish between different tasks, and assign more responsibility to males than to females in 7 of the 11 tasks listed (mostly those related to education) -- provided that they have any gender preference at all.

Now we will take a closer look at two characteristic and rather traditionally perceived tasks; one attributed to mothers, and another one that is perceived to be the father's responsibility.



In four of the thirteen Candidate Countries, the majority of people consider changing the baby's nappies the responsibility of the mother. We find no country where more than one percent of the respondents would give this task primarily to fathers. Even in the least traditional Slovenia, more than one in five respondents think that dealing with nappies is the responsibility of the mother. In Turkey 79 percent share this opinion.

Obviously, males are more likely to think that changing nappies is a female job (males 61, females 53%), but it is worth noting that even among women the majority think that changing diapers is primarily their own responsibility. In rural areas, people are more likely to adopt the traditional way of thinking: in those areas, 64 percent believe that changing nappies is a female job, while the same ratio in urban areas is 53 percent. We find occupational groups in which less than the majority attribute this task to women: managers (female responsibility: 35%), and white collar workers (40%), but 70 percent of home makers (overwhelmingly women) think that nappies should be changed by mothers. Apparently, gender stereotypes are very vulnerable to education: while almost three quarters (73%) of those who left school aged 15 or younger agree that changing diapers is a female responsibility, only 38 percent share this opinion among those who stayed in school until the age of 20 or over. Interestingly, attitudes do not change with age. In the youngest age group (those aged between 15 and 24 years) we find 58 percent who feel that changing nappies is a female job, which is only two percent short of what we detected among our respondents aged 55 years or older (60%). (For details see Table 3.1 in Annex)

With regard to punishing the children, there is a wide consensus that this is a shared responsibility. Nevertheless, if there is any gender preference expressed, it leans toward fathers in each of the Candidate Countries, without exception. This suggests that the traditional father's role of strictness with children prevails in the Candidate Region, even if majority opinion does not prefer any gender in children's discipline.

Demographic analyses show that stereotypical attitudes prevail more among males than females (16% vs. 12%), but even females with a gender preference in this question prefer their male partners to punish their children. Again, education seems to be the demographic

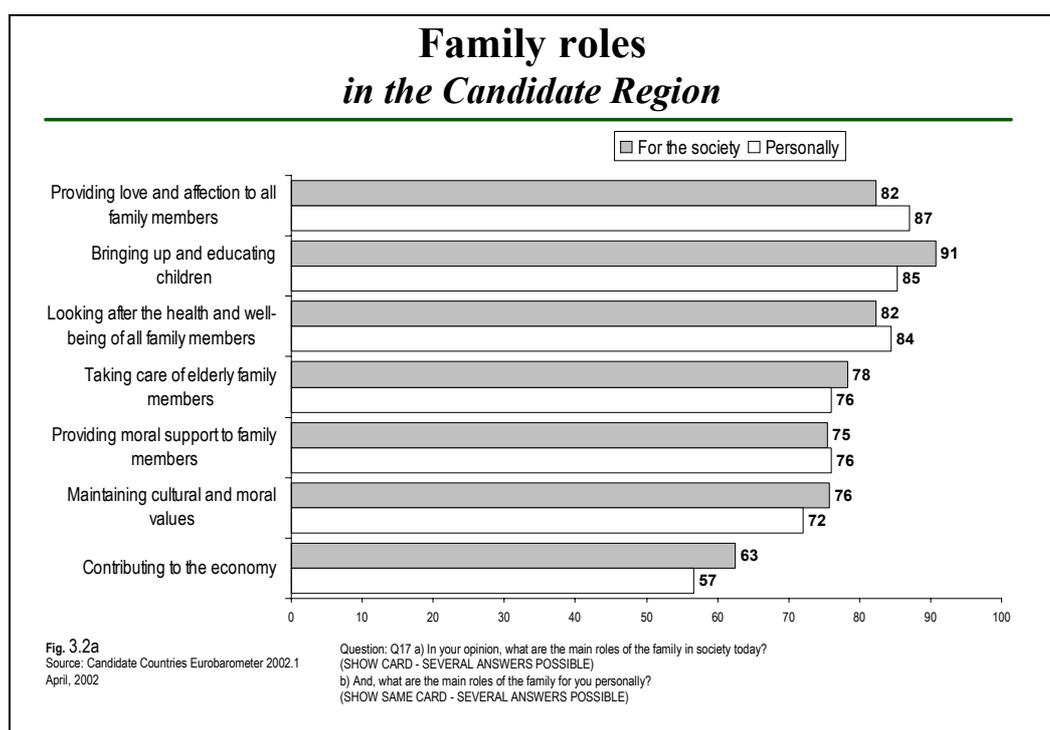
characteristic that has the largest effect on attitudes: 17 percent of the least educated group prefer males to discipline children, while only 8 percent of those who remained at school at least until 20 years of age share this opinion. (Table 3.1 in Annex)

3.2 Roles of family

We asked our respondents “*In your opinion, what are the main roles of the family in society today?*” and “*What are the main roles of the family for you personally?*”. The attitudes of the respondents do not differ significantly between the two viewpoints: the differentiation between personal and public usefulness of families is apparently very limited.

There is however a clear difference right at the top: people living in the Candidate Region consider bringing up and educating children as the main role of the family in society, while within their own family they say that the provision of emotional stability and a loving environment is the most essential. One more thing emerges as prime role of family besides the previously mentioned two, and that is the care for family members -- looking after their health and general well-being. These three dominate the public’s view about the role of family in each country of the Candidate Region. (see Table 3.2 and Table 3.3 in Annex)

While the majority of the respondents in the Candidate Countries consider their own families’ contribution to national economy as an essential role, this dimension is regarded to be the least important among those under investigation. The other, rather abstract function of the family -- maintaining moral and cultural values -- is considered as an important role of the family by about three-quarters of respondents.



We do not find differences in the relative importance of family roles by countries or demographic groups. The rankings are stable and seem to be universal across the region and different segments of society.

The only difference we could recognize -- as shown in Table 3.2 -- is in the average number of roles mentioned as important in the different Candidate Countries. It seems that Hungarians or Latvians tend to name fewer roles as the most important, while the Turkish or Polish perception of family includes most of the factors we listed to the respondents. But the importance ranking of family roles is the same in Turkey as in Hungary, or in any other country in the region.

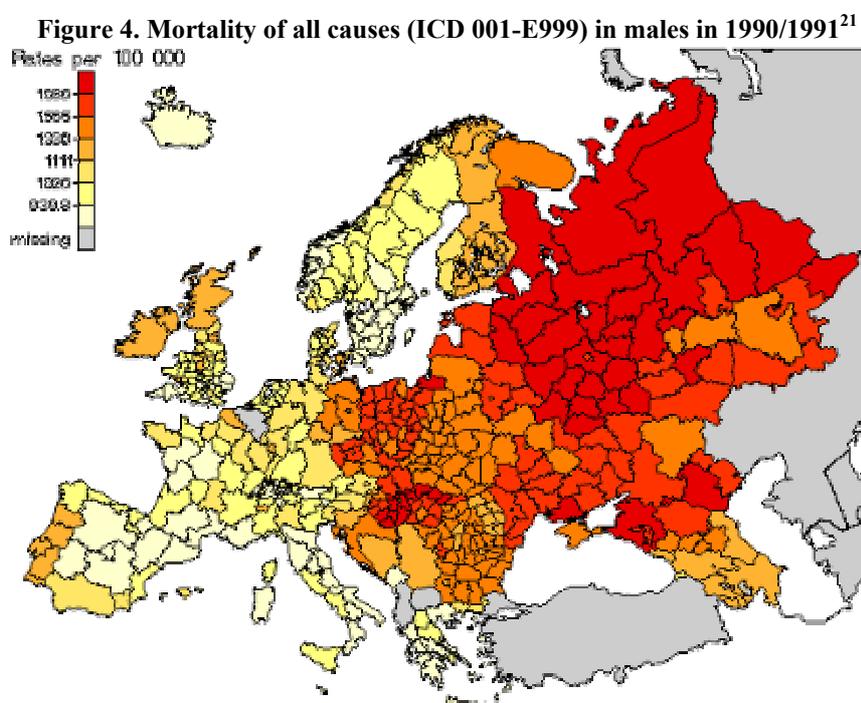
**Table 3.2 Number of family roles
mentioned as “most important” in the
different countries
(means by country)**

	for society	personally
TURKEY	6,4	6,3
POLAND	5,7	6,2
ESTONIA	5,4	5,8
CC 13	5,4	5,5
CYPRUS	5,1	5,2
BULGARIA	5,2	5,2
ROMANIA	4,6	4,8
MALTA	4,2	4,7
SLOVAKIA	4,4	4,5
CZECH REP.	4,0	4,2
SLOVENIA	4,1	4,2
HUNGARY	3,8	4,0
LATVIA	3,7	4,0
LITHUANIA	4,7	4,0

4. Ageing, care for the elderly

While longer life expectancy is an excellent measure of social progress, better medical assistance and public policy-making, it causes problems for insurance and pension systems in most countries in the more developed part of the globe. One of the most far-reaching transformations of the European societies is the increased longevity of their senior citizens, but much more so in the current Member States of the European Union than in the Candidate Countries.

In fact, some of the Candidate Countries have faced a decline in life expectancy from 1989. Candidate Countries from the former Soviet bloc did not keep pace with the development in Western Europe from the 70's with regard to an increased ability to prolong life. Unfortunately, with few exceptions, the Candidate Countries' populations have significantly worse health conditions than European citizens, and face much higher mortality rates than their Western counterparts. As the map below shows, the gap in mortality rates (and health conditions), between East and West are enormous, and there are no signs of reaching levels of equality.



Life expectancies have recently increased in most of the countries in the Candidate Region, but they still lag well behind the average life expectancy in the European Union (approaching 78-79 years for the total population). Table 4a. lists current life expectancies at birth in the Candidate Countries.

While new-borns' expected mean age in Malta and Cypress is close to that of the most developed countries in the European Union, all other Candidate Countries have a shorter life expectancy than that of Portugal (about 76 years), the worst among Member States.

At the bottom of the list, we find the three Baltic States, with a mean life expectancy about a decade shorter than in most of the current Member States (but still higher than that of the other post-Soviet republics).

²¹ from Atlas of mortality in Europe. Subnational patterns, 1980/1981 and 1990/1991. WHO Regional Publications, European Series, No. 75. 1997

**Table 4a. Life expectancy at birth in the
Candidate Countries²²**
(for the total population, in years)

MALTA	78.10
CYPRUS	76.89
SLOVENIA	75.08
CZECH REPUBLIC	74.73
SLOVAKIA	73.97
POLAND	73.42
HUNGARY	71.63
TURKEY	71.24
BULGARIA	71.20
ROMANIA	70.16
ESTONIA	69.73
LITHUANIA	69.25
LATVIA	68.70

Ageing is a function of two things: life expectancy and fertility rate. Even countries with shorter life expectancies can face the problems related to ageing if fertility rates are low, as there are no replacements for the passing population. The following table orders the EU 15 and CC 13 countries according to the ratio of those aged 65 or older.

**Table 4b. Population aged 65 and above
(as % of total, 1999²³)**

ITALY	17.8	LATVIA	14.5
SWEDEN	17.4	LUXEMBOURG	14.3
GREECE	17.2	ESTONIA	14.1
BELGIUM	16.8	CZECH REPUBLIC	13.7
SPAIN	16.7	SLOVENIA	13.6
GERMANY	16.1	NETHERLANDS	13.6
BULGARIA	16	LITHUANIA	13.1
FRANCE	15.8	ROMANIA	13.1
UNITED KINGDOM	15.7	MALTA	12.2
AUSTRIA	15.4	POLAND	11.9
PORTUGAL	15.4	CYPRUS	11.4
DENMARK	15	SLOVAKIA	11.3
FINLAND	14.8	IRELAND	11.3
HUNGARY	14.6	TURKEY	5.6

Bulgaria is the seventh on this ranking, the oldest nation among the Candidate Countries, followed by Hungary and Estonia. Comparing the ratios of the elderly and life expectancies (the two tables above), we can see that ageing in the Candidate Region is not so much the result of increased longevity of the citizens, but is due to sharply declining fertility rates in some of the countries. (The countries with the oldest populations are in the second half of the life expectancy rankings). Turkey is a young society, and an ageing population is not among

²² Source: Statistical Offices in the Candidate Countries, all figures are as of 2001

²³ Source: Human Development Indicators, Human Development Report 2001, UNDP

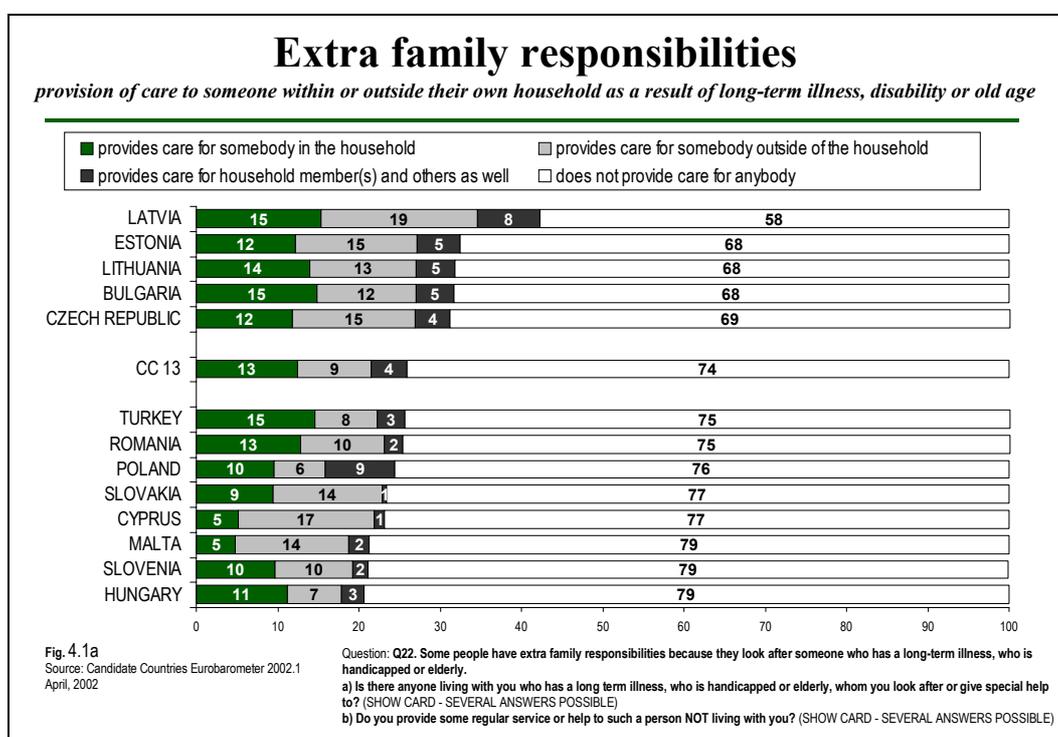
its most significant concerns –according to the estimations of the UNDP (a 7.2% 65+ ratio in Turkey by 2015), this should remain the case for the near future as well.

Ageing populations raise numerous concerns in both the current and future member states in the European Union. The next section examines the degree to which citizens participate in the care of their ageing populations, as well as the care of others in need.

4.1 People providing care for others

We asked people aged 15 years and over in each Candidate Country whether they had extra family responsibilities that involved looking after someone with a long-term illness, who is handicapped or elderly. What we have found is different from the findings of the 1999 Eurobarometer in the Member States in many aspects.²⁴

In the Candidate Region, 26% of the respondents told us they have such a responsibility. 13% provide care for someone in the household only, 4% look after somebody within and outside of the household, and 9% have a responsibility that is not in their household. (See Figure 4.1a) In the Member States, out-of-home care (14%) is more common than in-home (10%).



The three countries with the lowest life expectancy top the list of extra family responsibilities – not the three with the highest ratio of senior citizens – a sign that factors other than ageing play a role in how much people need to, or are willing to take care of relatives or friends for health reasons. In Latvia only 58% do not take up extra responsibilities, while only about 20-21% of Maltese, Slovenians, and Hungarians are looking after someone who has a long-term illness, who is handicapped or elderly. The Maltese (6%) and the Cypriots (7%) are the least likely to provide co-residence caring for others, resembling the patterns in the EU, where out-of-home care is more frequent than co-residence.

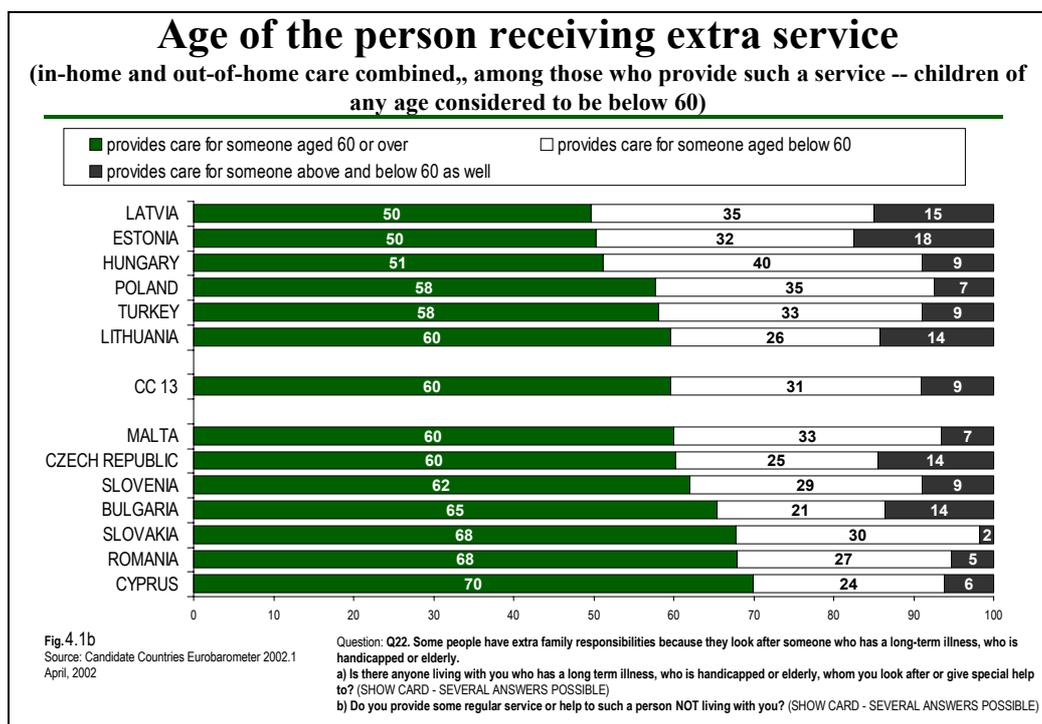
²⁴ for details refer to Standard Eurobarometer 51, Attitudes To Population Ageing in Europe; A Comparison of the 1992 and 1999 Eurobarometer Surveys (EB51), Spring 1999

The majority (54%) of those in the Candidate Region who receive in-home care are not a partner or a child, but are most likely a parent. (Table 4.1) 26% take care of a handicapped child or a child with long-term illness, and 23% take care of a partner (husband or wife). If a citizen of the European Union takes care of somebody at home who is elderly or unable to manage life independently, it is most probably (in half of the cases) is his or her partner.

Table 4.1 Proportion of the different groups receiving care in-home and out-of-home (% in the Candidate Region)

	In-home care	Out-of-home care
partner	23	6
child	26	16
another relative	54	68
non-relative	8	26

26% of those who provide out-of-home care for somebody claimed that this person is not their relative. 4% of EU citizens, on average, provide help and support to older persons not living with them who are neither relatives nor friends –in the Candidate countries this figure is 2%. This voluntary (or charged) service provision is over 10% in the Netherlands and 7% in Ireland²⁵, and reaches 6% in Lithuania in the Candidate Region. Lithuania is followed by Estonia and Latvia, both with 5%. In contrast, only 1% of Turkish and Hungarian citizens provide such care on a presumably voluntary basis. (For more details, refer to Table 4.5 and Table 4.6 in the Annex)



²⁵ EB51, Spring 1999

Figure 4.1b gives us evidence that ageing is not solely responsible for the increased family responsibility of the citizens of the Candidate Countries: on average, 40% of those who provide some special care for a friend or relative, do so for someone below 60 years of age. The elderly (those aged 60 years or older) alone receive only 60% of special care provided by family members, friends or complete strangers in the societies of the Candidate Region. In Latvia, Estonia, and Hungary elderly care accounts for about half of the assistance provided. 40% of those in Hungary who have extra family responsibilities take care solely of someone below 60 years of age – which is an indicator of the general health situation in the country.

Looking at demographic characteristics of those who provide special care for somebody within or outside of their households, we find surprisingly low variations. Except for those aged between 40 and 54 years – who are more likely to provide such a service than anybody else – no demographic group stands out.

One fourth of all men care for someone: and slightly more (27%) women do. There is practically no difference according to settlement type; people in rural areas are somewhat more likely to provide service for somebody who needs it (27%) than urbanites (25%). In rural areas people are much more likely to provide in-home service (15% in-home to 8% outside) than in large cities (10% in-home, 11% outside). This is mainly the function of housing patterns: in large cities parents (who are the most likely to be taken care of) are more likely to live apart from their families than is the case in villages.

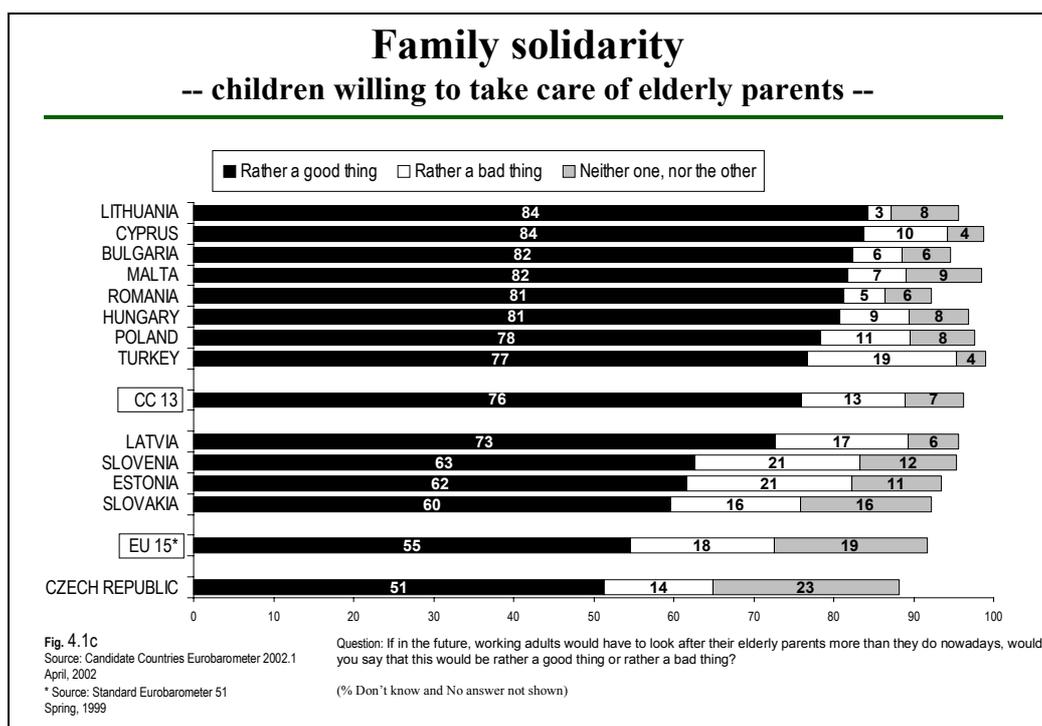
The only breakdown where we find significant differences is in age groups: 22% of the youngest (15-24 years), 25% of the 25-39 year olds, 33% of those aged between 40-54 years, and 24% of the oldest age group (55 or above) provide special care for someone who requires regular help.

Family solidarity: would people take responsibility for taking care of their elderly parents?

As shown previously, four in ten respondents in the Candidate Region are providing care for someone on a regular basis. But how willing are these people to actually take responsibility for taking care of their parents who reach an age and physical condition where they can no longer manage to live entirely on their own? We asked our respondents: *“If in the future, working adults had to look after their elderly parents more than they do now, would you consider this rather a good thing or rather a bad thing?”*.

As shown in Figure 4.2a, the citizens of the Candidate Countries are significantly more willing to take a greater responsibility in the care of their elderly parents than current EU citizens are. On average, a little more than three-quarters (76%) of those waiting for admission to the European Union express a positive attitude regarding the enhanced family solidarity that was suggested by our question. In contrast, only a slight majority (55%) of European citizens think that an increased future participation in the care of their elderly parents would be good.

Czech respondents have the lowest ratio of approval for the statement formulated in the question, while at the top we can observe a similarly high prevalence of family solidarity in six or seven countries. Over one fifth of the respondents in Slovenia and Estonia (21%) have a negative view of the statement, which is actually higher than the current EU average (18%). The difference between these two countries is found in the participation of Slovenians and Estonians in the care of elderly, or disabled persons. As is shown in Figure 4.1a, while Estonians show a great solidarity reflected by the high ratio of those who are currently providing care for someone in need, Slovenians are at the bottom of that ranking as well. (For more country-by-country numbers see Table 4.1a in the Annex)



Demographic analyses reveal significant differences between groups in this question. While we find no noticeable difference between the two genders, there is a definite imbalance between occupational and educational groups.

Only 63% of managers and other white-collar workers prefer increased involvement in the care of elderly parents, while 78% of retired persons, 80% of home makers, and 82% of the self-employed are in favour of such a change. The highly educated group (those who did not leave school until at least the age of 20) is less likely to prefer greater involvement than those who left school at or before 15 years of age (71% vs. 82%).

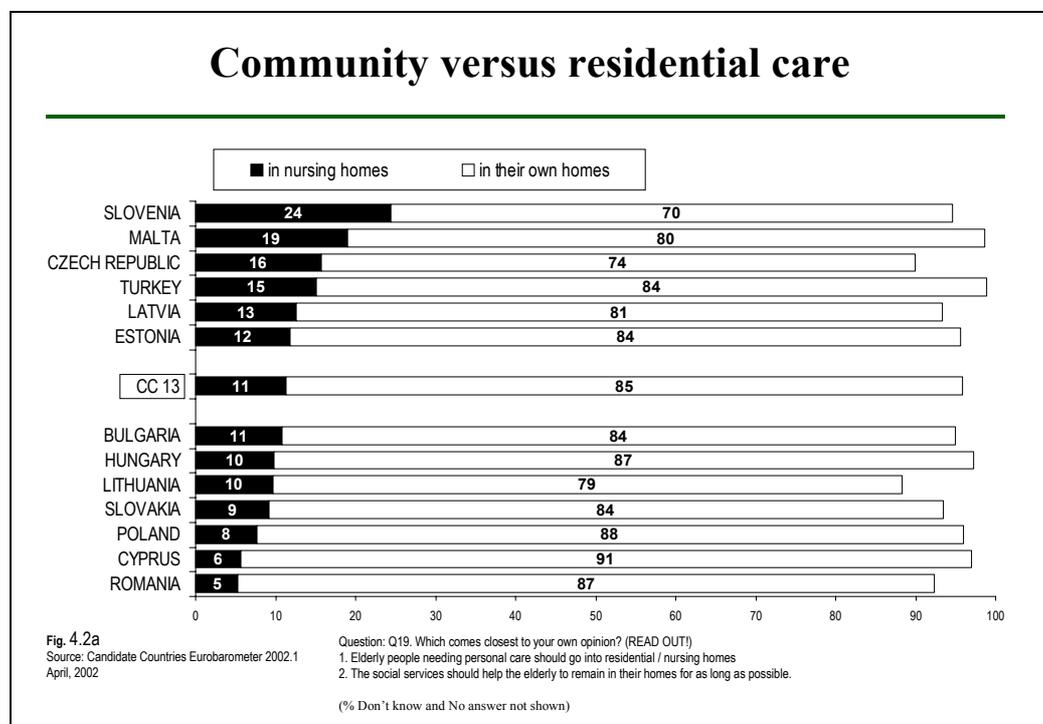
The differences according to the size of locality where respondents live are also very noticeable: 81% of the rural population would gladly accept a change that would require more active participation in the care of their elderly parents, while the same ratio in mid-sized towns is 76%, and 69% in large cities. (for more details refer to Table 4.1b in the Annex)

4.2 Community care versus residential care

Turning from the personal caring commitments of the citizens in the Candidate Countries to the key EU policy issues, we will focus first on community care versus residential care. The question is whether the state should provide institutionalised care for its senior citizens (in nursing homes or hospitals), or whether the elderly should stay at their homes, or with their family, and receive necessary assistance there. We investigated this issue with the help of two questions – both of which were asked in previous Eurobarometer surveys in the Member States of the European Union as well.

First we asked our respondents the following question: “Which comes closest to your own opinion: Elderly people needing personal care should go into residential / nursing homes; or The social services should help the elderly to remain in their homes for as long as possible.” The public opinion in both the Candidate Region and the European Union leans strongly toward community care; 85% of those who live in Candidate Countries and four out of five European citizens prefer that social services assist the elderly in their homes as long as

possible. As Figure 4.2b shows, in each Candidate Country the clear majority of the public supports community care over residential care. Similarly to Portugal (23%) and Denmark (24%), in Slovenia more than one fifth (24%) chose the residential care option, but there is no doubt that all Europeans – current or future EU citizens – favour care for elderly that is provided in their homes. (For more country-by-country numbers, check Table 4.2a in the Annex)



Demographic analyses show few differences in preference for community care. Males are slightly less supportive than females (83% to 86%). People living in rural environments are a little less in favour of residential care (support for community care in rural areas: 86%, in large cities: 83%). The occupational group which is the most supportive of community care is managers (88%), while unemployed persons are the least likely to support the idea (81%).

Similarly to what we have found in the current Member States, the younger the respondent is, the more likely he or she has a preference for residential care. But the extent of support for community care in the Candidate Countries is generally higher than in the European Union, due to the much smaller ratio of those who did not have an opinion in this question, as Table 4.2 shows.

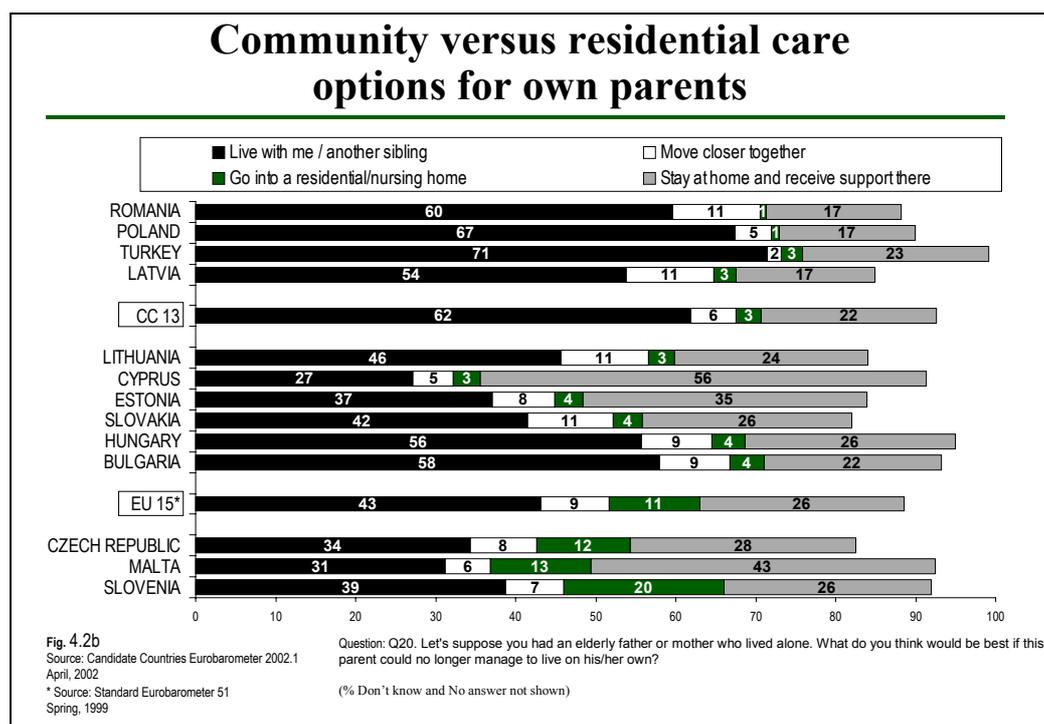
Table 4.2 Support for community care for elderly
(%, in the Candidate Region, and in the EU member states²⁶)

	15-24 years		25-39 years		40-54 years		55+ years	
	CC13	EU15	CC13	EU15	CC13	EU15	CC13	EU15
residential care	15	16	12	11	9	10	9	9
community care	80	69	85	75	87	80	87	82
no opinion	5	16	3	13	4	10	5	9

²⁶ EB51, Spring 1999

A second question investigated the same issue with a personal approach. We asked our respondents: "Let's suppose you had an elderly father or mother who lived alone. What do you think would be best if this parent could no longer manage to live on his/her own?" We listed several possibilities, including that of the parent(s) entering a nursing home.

The preference for residential care seems to diminish if it is applied to the respondents' own parents. Only 3% of the people living in the Candidate Countries would prefer to have their own parent move to a nursing home, if he or she could not live alone anymore. In contrast, 11% of EU citizens would approve of sending their parents to nursing homes if they required regular care.



Nursing home is not an option most residents of a number of Candidate Countries would invite their parents to live with them, or they would move in with their parents. Turkey (71%), and Poland (67%) chose co-habitation. In Romania, Bulgaria, Hungary and Latvia this solution is also preferred by the majority of citizens.

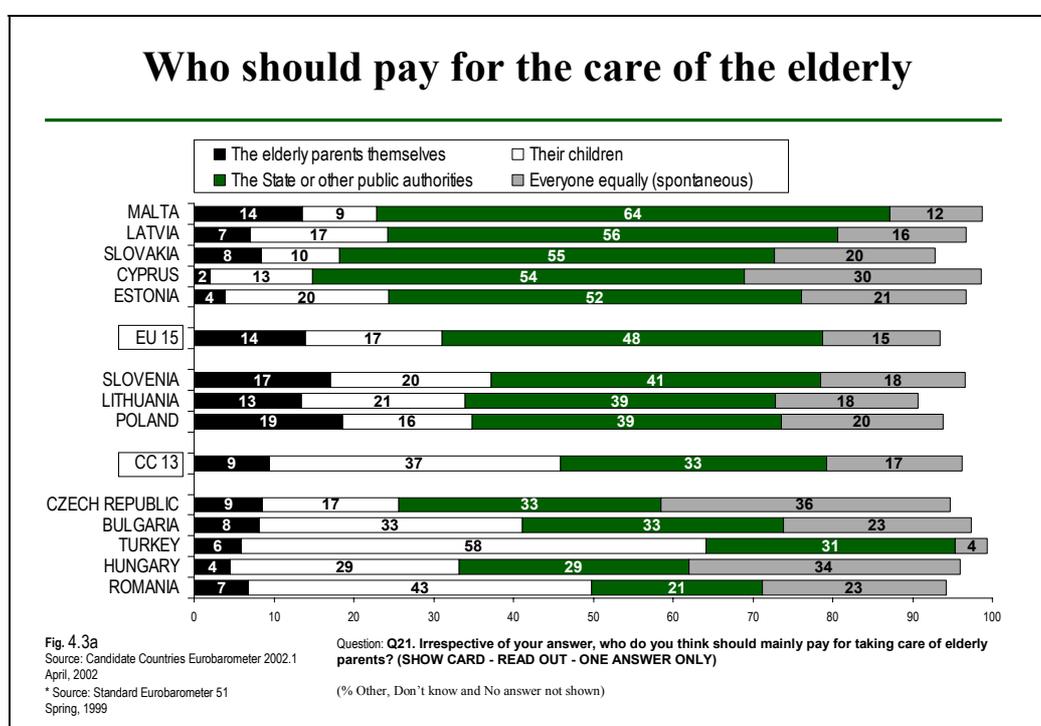
Respondents preferred the costlier version of community care parents remaining at home and receiving services there – over simply moving closer together in two countries; Cyprus (55% choosing this alternative), and Malta (43%).

The preference for residential care if one's own parent was involved remained rather high in Slovenia (20%), and was the preferred option for more than one in ten respondents in Malta (13%), and the Czech Republic (12%). On the other end of this ranking, in Romania and Poland virtually nobody preferred this option if their parent was involved. Turkey is noteworthy in this respect: 15% of the Turkish said that elderly people who can't manage to live alone should move to nursing homes, but with regard to their own parents only three percent chose this option. (See Table 4.2b and Table 4.3 in the Annex for details)

4.3 Risk pooling in the care of the elderly

Increasing longevity – expected to catch up with EU norms soon in the Candidate Region – requires additional costs to ensure quality life for persons in advanced ages, when they are less able to support themselves. In the European Union there is a continuing belief in the model of solidarity and the risk pooling it entails, as opposed to allowing the costs of long-term care to be borne solely by the individuals and families who are unfortunate enough to be affected²⁷. 48% of Western Europeans think that the costs related to increasing longevity should be borne by the state or other public authority, so that the costs are shared by the whole society. In the Candidate Countries – where life spans are considerably shorter as described in the introductory part of this Chapter (Figure 4.3a) – only one in three people believe that the state alone should pay the costs for treating or caring for the elderly.

If we add up the spontaneous “everyone equally” and “state should pay” responses, we find that exactly 50% of the population of the Candidate Countries favour sharing the risks associated with long-term care. The number of those who think that children should exclusively cover the costs of long-term care (37%) outnumber those who think that the state should exclusively bear these costs (33%).



Variations among countries are enormous. While 64% of the Maltese think that the costs related to long-term care should be provided by the state (or other public authorities), only 21% of Romanians agree. If we combine the “everyone equally” and “state should pay” answers, we find only two countries where less than 50% of the population wants to involve the state, and by doing so share the costs across all of society: Turkey (35%) and the aforementioned Romania (44%). Exclusive state payment of long-term care related bills is preferred by the majority in four countries besides Malta: Latvia, Slovakia, Cyprus, and Estonia.

Demographic analyses show relatively low variations among different groups. As Table 4.3 shows, the only significant difference to be found is according to the respondents’ age. The older the respondents are the less likely they are to think that the state should exclusively

²⁷ EB51, Spring 1999

cover the costs of long-term care (15-24 years: 36%, 25-39 years: 35%, 40-54 years: 32%, 55+ years: 30%). (See also Table 4.4)

**Table 4.3 Who should mainly pay for the care of the elderly?
(%, in the Candidate Region, by demographics)**

	The elderly parents	Their children	The State or public authorities	Everyone equally		The elderly parents	Their children	The State or public authorities	Everyone equally
Male	9	37	34	16	Self-employed	10	45	30	12
Female	10	37	32	18	Managers	12	24	33	27
AGE: 15-24 years	7	41	36	12	Other white collars	9	25	36	27
AGE: 25-39 years	9	37	35	17	Manual workers	9	33	35	20
AGE: 40-54 years	10	36	32	18	House Persons	8	50	30	9
AGE: 55+ years	12	33	30	20	Unemployed	8	41	37	12
EDU: up to 15 years	8	46	30	13	Retired	12	32	31	21
EDU: 16-19 years	10	31	35	20	Rural area or village	9	42	31	15
EDU: 20+ years	11	29	33	22	Small or mid-sized town	9	31	35	20
EDU: still studying	8	30	39	17	Large town	10	34	35	17

5. Health

In this Chapter we will investigate the health status of the citizens in the Candidate Countries in more detail. In Chapter 1 we found that health is on one hand one of the main contributors to subjective well-being of the people in the region, but we have also seen that more than half of those living in the Candidate Region think that better health could improve their quality of life.

5.1 Health Condition

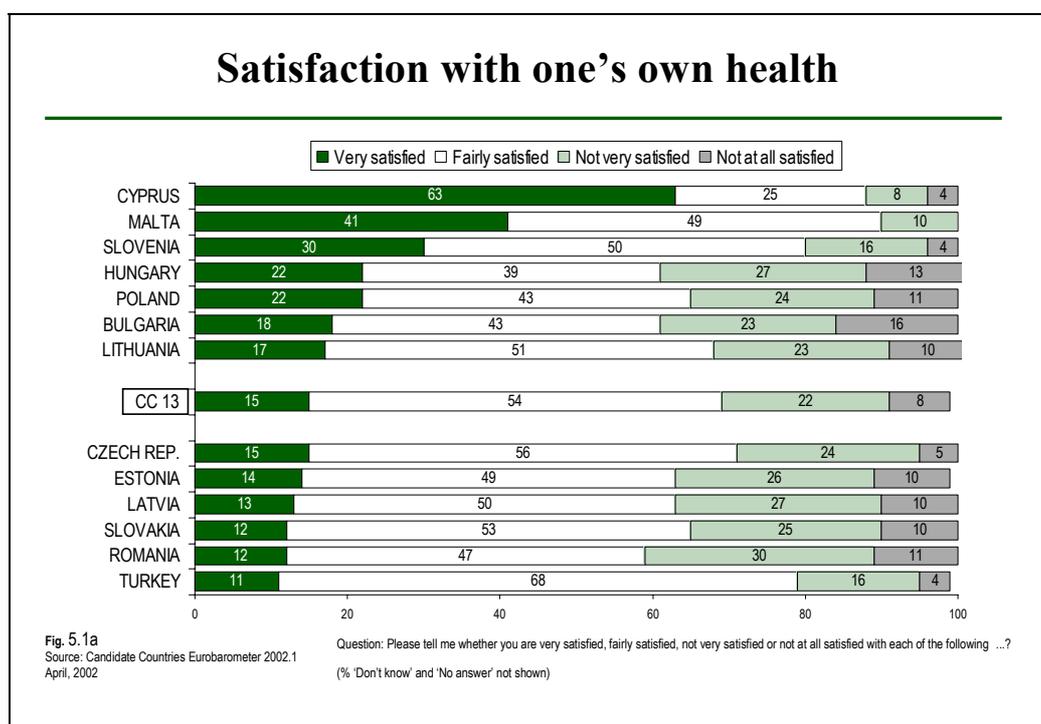
The exploration of health conditions used several questions. One part of the questions related to the issue of health and targeted the people's subjective opinions; another part probed their health condition indirectly, through their life situation and conditions.

Satisfaction with one's own health

With one of the questions, we asked our respondents to subjectively evaluate on a 4-grade scale how satisfied they were with their own health condition.

Based on the average of the CC-13 countries, 54% of the respondents are 'fairly satisfied', and 15% are 'very satisfied' with their own health condition. Conversely, the ratio of 'not very satisfied' and 'not at all satisfied' is 30%.

Naturally, this yields somewhat different ratios in the various countries, but the ratio of those not satisfied with their health condition does not exceed 41% in any of the countries, as Figure 5.1a shows.



The Cypriots are the most satisfied with their health condition; 63% are 'very', and 25% are 'fairly satisfied'. We find rather high values of satisfaction in Malta and Slovenia as well, where the ratio of those very satisfied is 41% and 30%, respectively.

It is in Turkey where the ratio of those 'very satisfied' with their health condition is the lowest, but at the same time the ratio of those that are 'fairly satisfied' with their own health condition

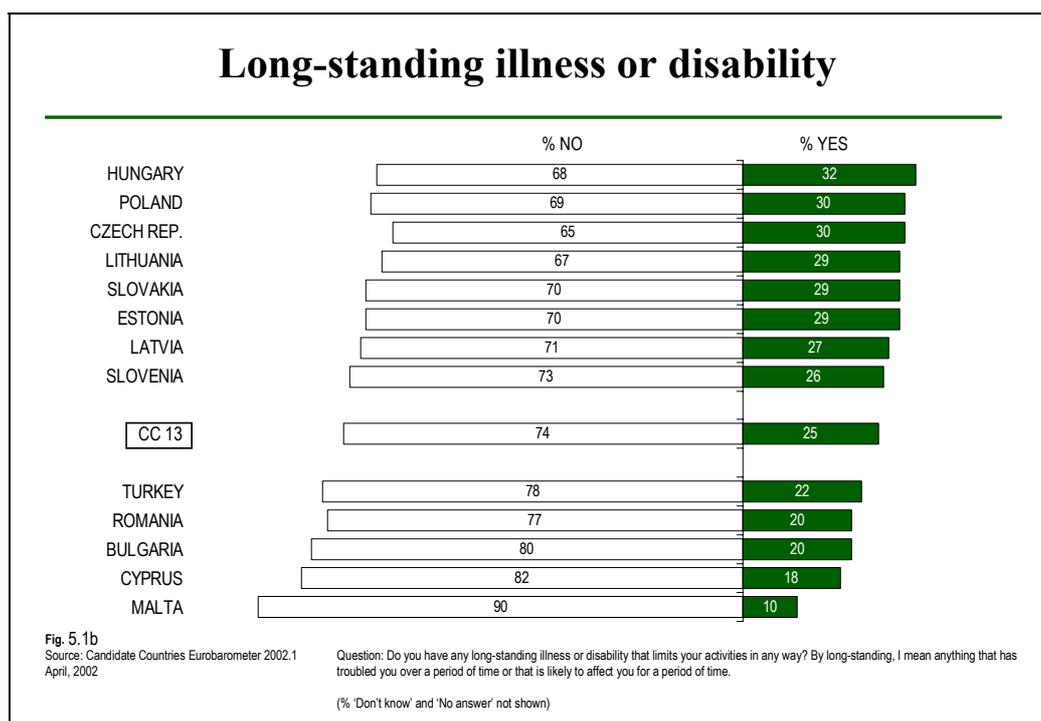
is very high (68%). So while the Figure below may seem to indicate that the Turkish are the least satisfied with their health, a different picture emerges if we look at those 'very satisfied' together with those who are 'fairly satisfied'. The combined ratio is 79%, which is somewhat higher than the average of the 13 Candidate Countries (70%). Romania, Bulgaria and Hungary have the largest population who are judging their own health status as unsatisfactory. (For more details check Table 5.1a and Table 5.1b in the Annex)

Long-standing illness or disability

It also provides important information on the health condition of those living in the CC 13 countries to find what proportions of the population suffer in long-standing illness or disability that limits their productivity in a way that detrimentally affects their life conditions. This may be a serious burden not only for the ill, but for their family members as well.

In the entirety of the Candidate Countries, one quarter of the population suffers from some long-standing illness or disability that limits their activities. In this aspect Hungary, Poland, and the Czech Republic, where this ratio is 30-32%, are among the countries that seem to be in a situation worse than the average.

The fewest people with long-standing illness live in Malta, where the ratio is almost 10%. The figure below provides a more detailed overview of the individual countries. (See Table 5.3 in the Annex for details)



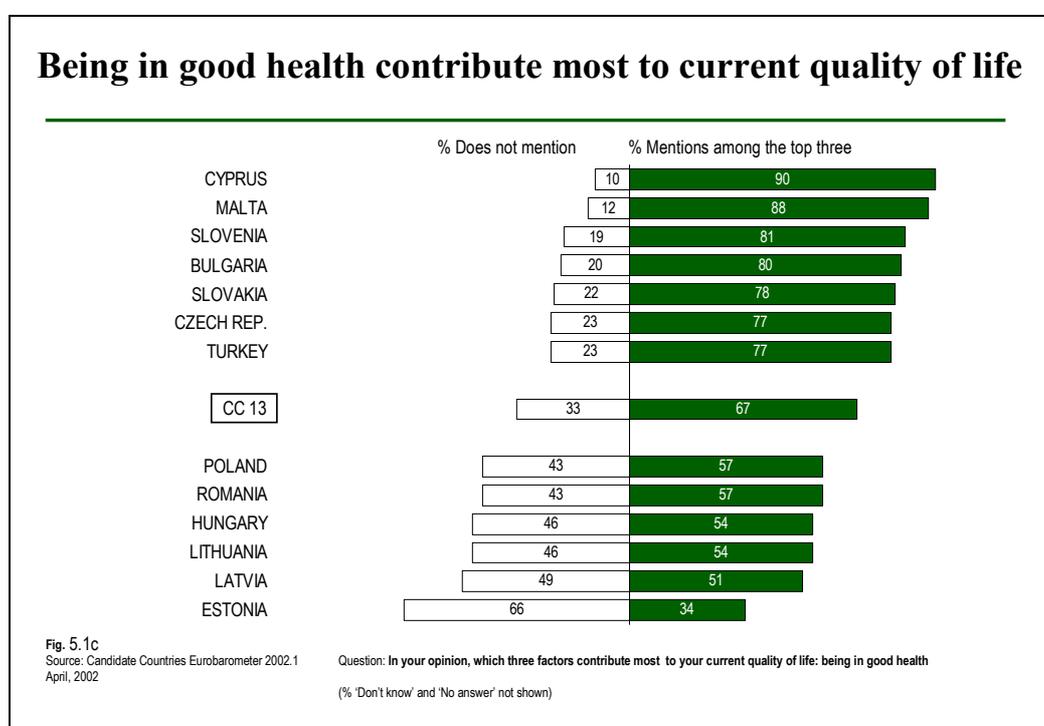
Being in good health

The issue of the importance of health we explored with two questions: *What is the most important factor that influences your current quality of life?* And *What is the most important factor that would most improve your current quality of life?* (Detailed analyses of the other factors contributing to quality of life can be found in Chapter 1)

With two-thirds of all respondents mentioning good health among the three most important factors; their own health is the most important factor that contributes to the current quality of life of people living in the Candidate Countries.

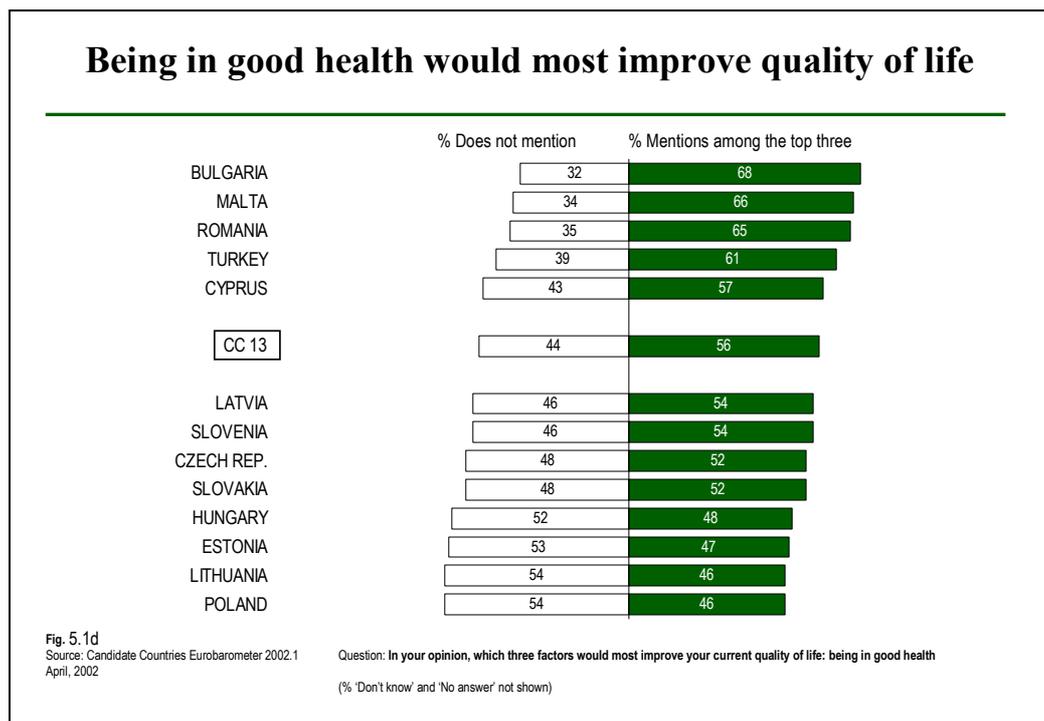
Differing from the average, this issue is regarded as extremely important in Cyprus and Malta, where for 90% and 88% of the respondents respectively, health was among the first three factors influencing current quality of life.

The other end of the scale is represented by the Baltic States, mainly Estonia, where in the opinion of only one third of the population does one's health condition have significance in determining current quality of life. (See Table 5.4 in the Annex)



As regards the future, the judgment on the same question shows a somewhat more balanced picture. 56% of the entirety of the residents of the CC13 countries underlined their health condition as an important factor that would most improve their quality of life – but sufficient income proved to be more important in this respect (see Chapter 1.5). There are no differences as significant within the countries as there are regarding the contribution to current quality of life. The most people believe in Bulgaria, Malta, and Romania that 'being in good health' is a determining factor that can improve the quality of life.

In Hungary, Estonia, Lithuania, and Poland, nevertheless, more than half of the population does not regard health among the three most important factors that could improve their quality of life. (See Table 5.5 in the Annex)

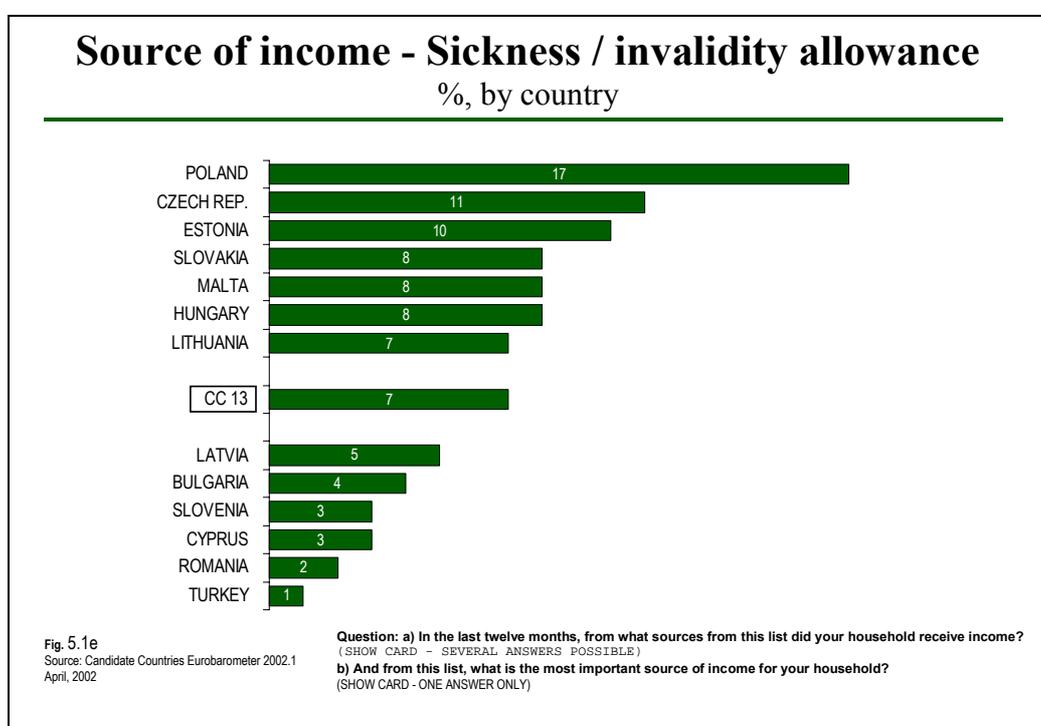


Sickness / invalidity allowance as main source of income

There is an indirect – and by the varying social security and benefits systems strongly biased – indication of the health condition of the populations in each Candidate Country. This is the ratio of those in the population for whom one of the sources of income is sickness or invalidity allowance. Analysing this issue provides an important insight not only into the health status, but also into the levels of state or social security contributions provided in each country of the region.

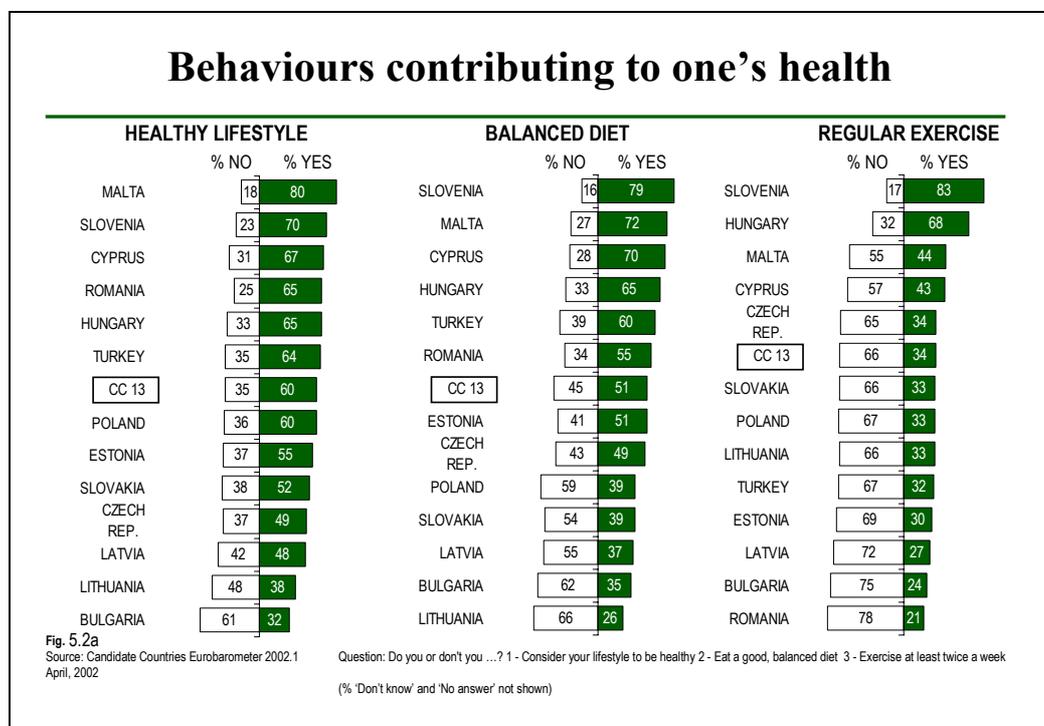
This ratio in the Candidate Countries is 7%. Only Poland, with 17% of the respondents claiming this type of allowance as one of the sources of their income, differs to a significant extent. Comparing the other countries, the ratio of those living at least partly on this allowance is 3-4% higher in the Czech Republic and Estonia and lower in Bulgaria, Slovenia, and Cyprus.

The lowest value we find in Turkey, where only 1% of the population collects their income from sickness or invalidity allowance. At the same time, the proportion of those in Turkey who suffer from a long-standing illness or disability is close to the CC-13 average (as shown on Figure 5.1a above).



5.2 Health Behaviour

In the survey, we listed behaviours related to lifestyle that are regarded generally as more healthy or unhealthy, and asked the respondents to tell us if they participated in these activities or not.



Based on healthy activities, such as a healthy lifestyle, balanced diet, or regular exercises, Slovenia and Malta occupy an outstanding place. The residents of these countries gave positive answers in rather high ratio to all three questions.

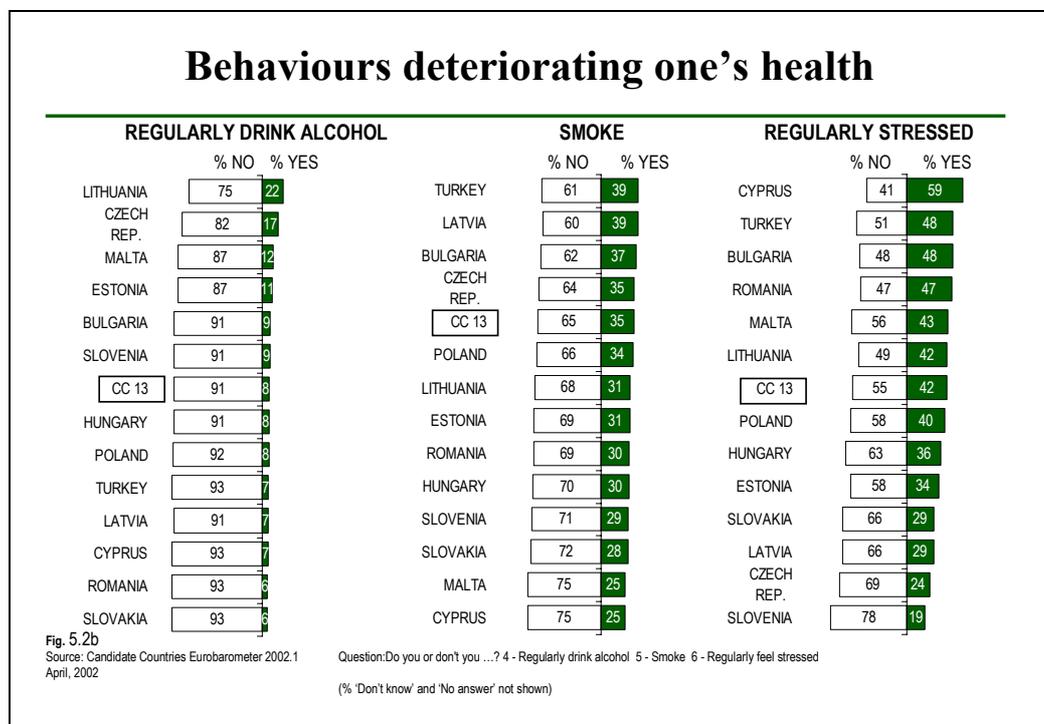
While 60% of the respondents said they were living a healthy lifestyle, only 51% of them believe their diet to be balanced, and when it comes to regular exercises, only 34% of the respondents said that they were doing regular exercises.

Based on these three questions reflecting healthy lifestyle, Bulgaria seems to be somewhat less health-conscious: the proportion of 'yes' answers to these questions is 32%, 35% and 24% respectively.

The balanced, healthy diet is rather characteristic of Slovenia, Malta, and Cyprus; more than 70% of the residents of these countries reported eating a healthy diet. This issue receives much less attention than the average (51%) in Lithuania and Bulgaria, where 66% and 62% gave negative answer to this question.

Those claiming to engage the most in regular exercise are the Slovenians (83%), and the Hungarians, of whom 68% claim to exercise regularly.

From among activities damaging to health – regular consumption of alcohol, smoking, regular stress –, regular stress is considered the most widespread and probably the biggest problem in the Candidate Region, as 42% of the respondents feel regularly nervous or stressed. This is followed by the frequency of smoking (35%), and regular drinking of alcohol (8%.)



Lithuania has the highest levels of alcohol consumption, with 22% of the respondents report drinking alcohol regularly. This ratio is also high, more than double the average, in the Czech Republic. Among the CC 13 countries, the ratio of regular alcohol drinkers is the lowest in Romania and Slovakia (6% both)

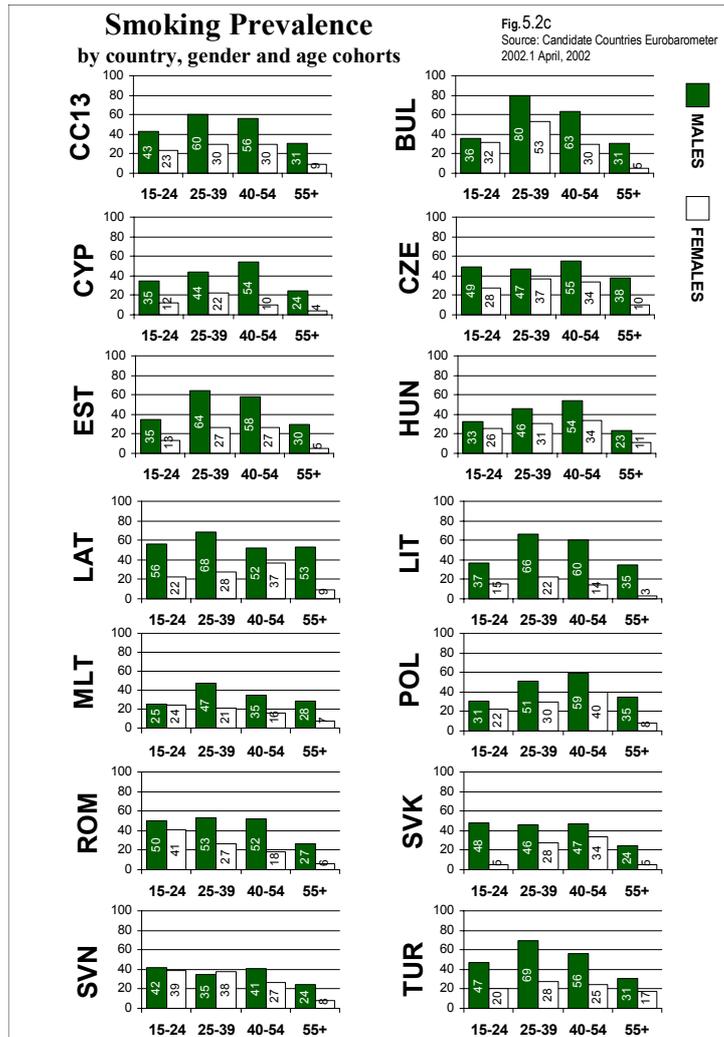
Regarding smoking more than one third (35%) of the population of the Candidate Countries smokes; Turkey and Latvia stand with smoking ratios reaching almost 40%. The countries with the lowest percentage of smokers are Malta and Cyprus (25% both).

Residents of Cyprus reported the highest percentage (59%) of regular stress and tension. At the other end of the scale, citizens of Slovenia and the Czech Republic reported the quietest life. Only 24% of the Czechs and 19% of the Slovenians feel their life to be stressful. (For more country-by-country numbers, refer to Table 5.2 in the Annex)

Smoking Prevalence

Smoking is probably the most dangerous preventable health risk. Tobacco kills many tens of thousands of people in the region every week. The figure below provides a more detailed picture of smoking habits.

Thirty-five out of hundred adults and teenagers in the Candidate region smoke; 48% of males and 23% of females are consuming tobacco. Men form a larger percentage of smokers, nearly twice as many of them smoking as women do across all age groups. In the Candidate Countries, among the 15-24 year old age group 43% of men smoke, and 23% of women do. The largest ratio of smokers is that of the middle aged - 25-39 years old and 40-54 years old



– groups, among them the ratio for men is 60% and 56%, respectively, and the ratio for women is 30%. In the oldest age group (55 years and over), the proportion of smokers drops to less than half of the figure we measured among those who are between 25 and 54 years of age; only 18% smokes in the oldest cohort, indicating high mortality among smokers.

Latvia stands out from among the countries, as 56% of the 15-24 year old men, and 68% of 25-39 year old men smoke.

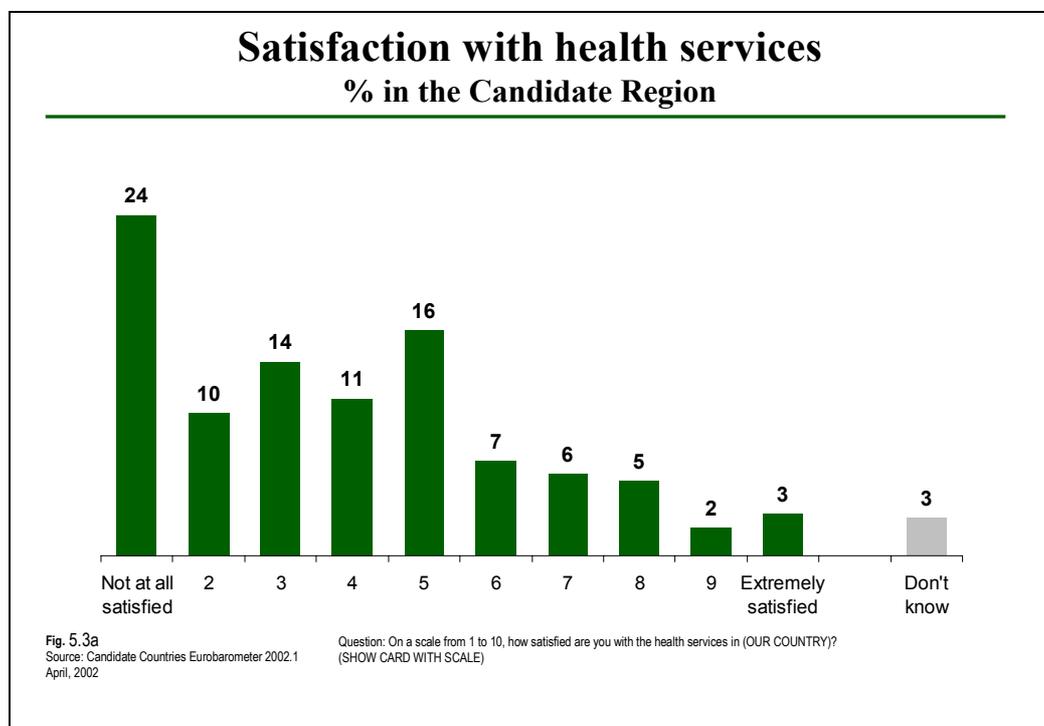
The situation is not very much better in Turkey, where 47% of the 15-24 year old men and 69% of the 25-39 year old men smoke. In these two countries, the overall ratio of smokers is almost forty percent.

In Bulgaria the situation is also alarming: 80% of the 25-39 year old men, and 53% of all women smoke, but prevalence is lower than average in the youngest age group.

Eurobarometer found the smallest smoking prevalence in Malta. (For more details check Table 5.6 in the Annex)

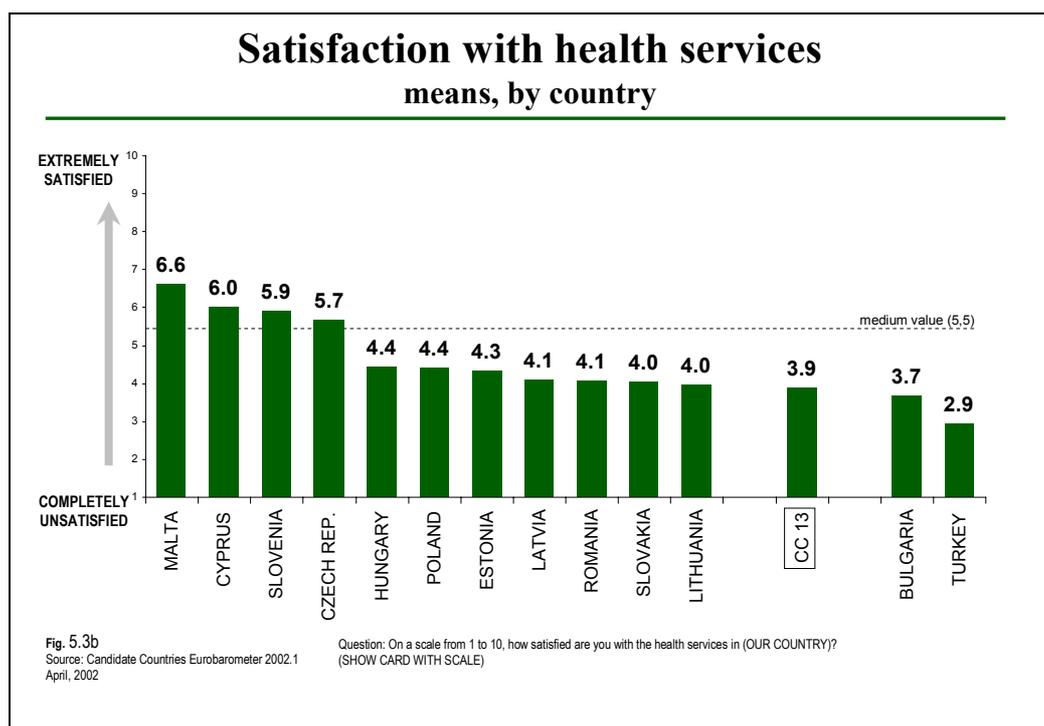
5.3 Satisfaction with health services

We asked our respondents the following question: “On a scale from 1 to 10, how satisfied are you with the health services in (OUR COUNTRY)?”. The extremes on the anchored scale were “not at all satisfied” (1) and “extremely satisfied” (10).



As Figure 5.3a shows, the satisfaction levels with health services are rather low on average in the Candidate Countries; 1 in 4 of the respondents is completely dissatisfied with the health services in his or her country. This average is largely determined by Turkey, where we found 45% – almost half – of the respondents claiming that they were not at all satisfied with health services. In other countries, the levels of complete dissatisfaction range from 1% (in Malta and in the Czech Republic) to 18% (in Bulgaria). For detailed country-by-country results, please refer to Table 5.7a in the Annex. Back to the average of the region, only 23% believes that their social services are better than the average (and consequently, rated it higher than 5 on the ten-point scale).

Demographic analyses suggest that those least satisfied with the social services are the disadvantaged groups: the low-educated (completely unsatisfied: 32%), and the unemployed (33%). We have found significant dissatisfaction among house persons (36%), the self-employed (28%), among the 25-39 years old (30%), and those who are living in large cities (27%). (Table 5.7b in the Annex)



For country-by-country analyses, we apply means on the 10-point scale we used. The Maltese are the most satisfied with the quality of health services in their country (with a mean of 6.6). There are three other countries where health services are rated – slightly – higher than mediocre, Cyprus (6.0), Slovenia (5.9), and the Czech Republic (5.7). In the remaining Candidate Countries, citizens rated the quality of health services below the neutral cut-point of the scale (5.5), which means that people regard the level of their country's health services as worse than mediocre, ranging from the low extreme in Turkey (2.9) to Hungary (4.4). (For more country-by-country numbers see Table 5.7a)

6. Access to and quality of services

The survey briefly investigated how easily citizens of each Candidate Country can access - or how isolated they are from - places related to their everyday activities, such as their workplace, police station or healthcare centre. We also asked our respondents how satisfied they are with health and social services in their countries, and to what extent they think that non-state institutions should be involved in financing different social services.

6.1 Proximity to services

We asked our respondents “*If you had to go to each of the following places from home, how long would it take you?*” and we listed the following places:

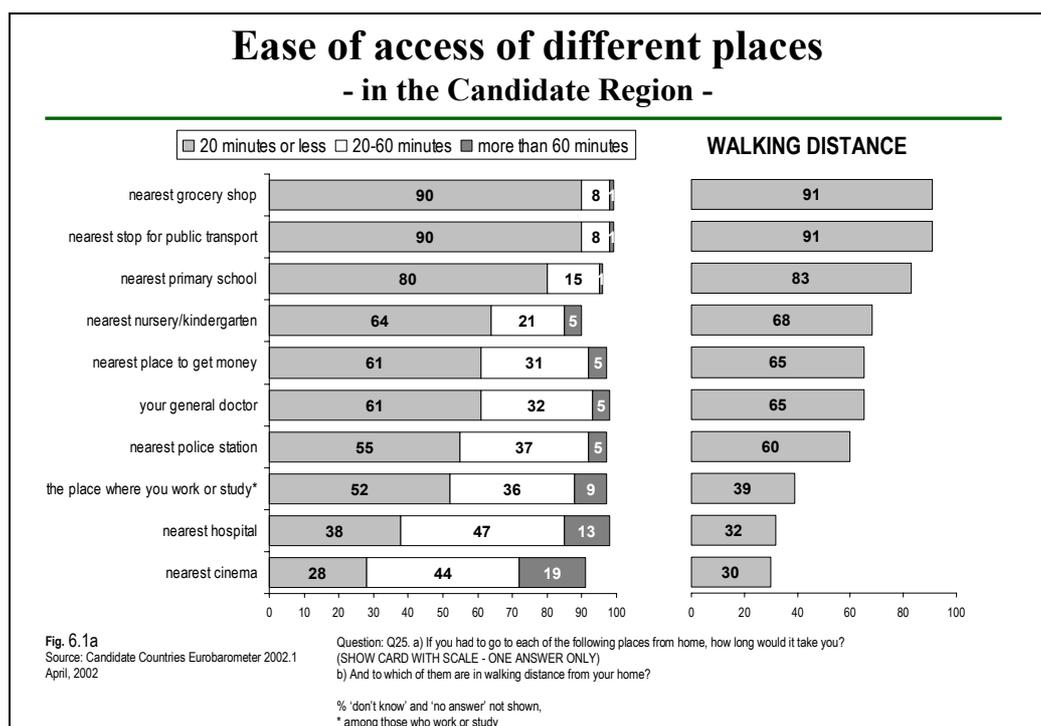
- *The place where you work or study*
- *Your general doctor / health centre*
- *The nearest hospital*
- *The nearest grocery shop /supermarket*
- *The nearest place to get money: cash dispenser, bank, post office*
- *The nearest stop for public transport*
- *The nearest nursery / kindergarten*
- *The nearest primary school*
- *The nearest police station*
- *The nearest cinema*

By doing so, we tried to measure the degree of separation or isolation from these places from the citizens of each Candidate Country. This list contains the major nodes of the spatial grid where we usually live our lives, and the distances people live from these places. The capacity to access commercial, education, health and security services can greatly affect one's ability to achieve a high quality of life. For example, reasonable accessibility to workplaces enables people to spend more time with their family. We also surveyed the general public about the proximity to their homes of public transportation. Finally, we investigated access to cultural services with regard to the most widespread and widely used system of entertainment: the cinema.

Nine in ten citizens in the Candidate Countries live within walking distance to public transport. This proportion is larger than in the EU 15 countries, (81% in the autumn of 1999²⁸), but – accompanied with lower car ownership – it indicates that one tenth of the people in the Candidate Countries cannot easily leave their place of residence.

As Figure 6.1a shows, 90% of people living in the Candidate Countries have a grocery shop that they can reach within 20 minutes by their usual means of transportation. However, only 80% have a primary school within the same 20-minute reach. A bit more than 6 in 10 respondents told us they could reach the nearest crèche (64%), cash machine, post office or bank (61%) and their general practitioner within 20 minutes. Police stations are in short distance for 55% of respondents. A slim majority (52%) of the respective population can reach their schools and workplaces within 20 minutes. For the nearest hospital or cinema, the majority of citizens in the Candidate Countries need to travel more than 20 minutes. (See Table 6.1 in the Annex)

²⁸ The same questions were asked in Standard Eurobarometer 52 - for the detailed analysis of the situation within the Member States refer to „Les européens et la qualite de vie”, a special report written on the basis of EB52, available only in French.



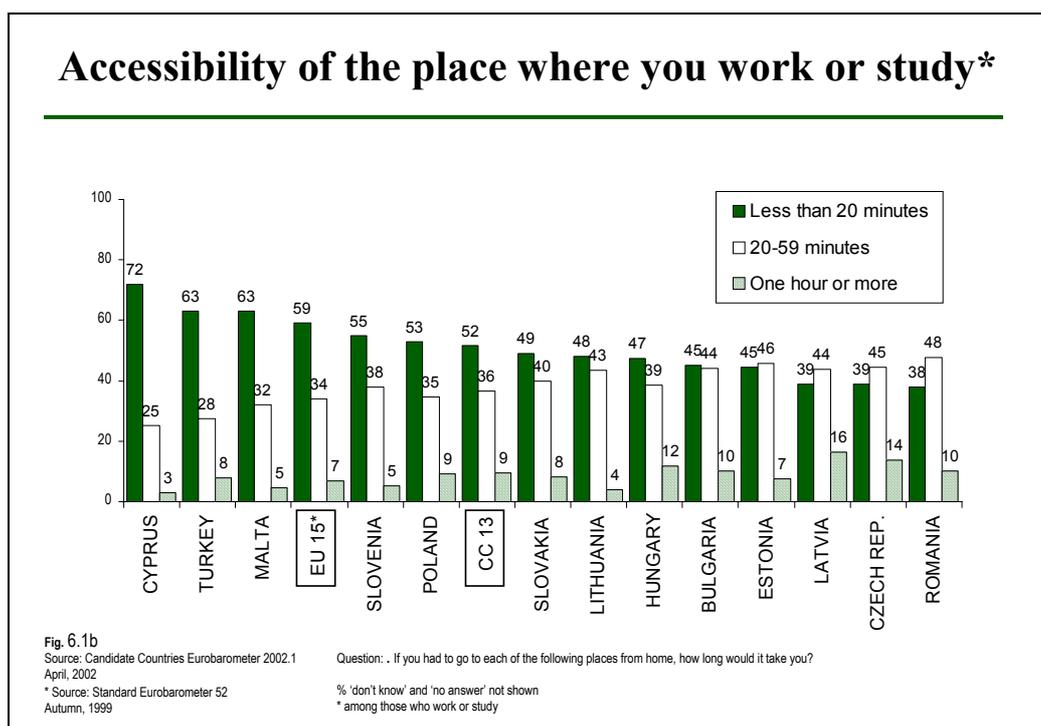
Almost one in five people need to travel more than an hour to watch a movie in a cinema (19%). 13% have to travel more than an hour to get to a hospital. Almost one in ten people (9%) among those who work or study require more than an hour to get to their places of work or study.

As we see in the graph above, people consider walking distance to be almost identical with a 20 minute accessibility, so we will analyse the first part of the question in more detail. Before doing so, it is important to remind the reader that we will not be speaking about physical distances, but about the time required to get to different places. Different ratios of motorization can have an influence on the demographic breakdowns, so higher segments of society may live as far, or even further away than others, but still get to the same places faster with their cars. In addition, young people may commute - walk - faster than their older peers may. These factors play a role in the following results. (For details check Table 6.2)

Place of work

Generally, EU citizens live closer to their workplaces than their peers in the Candidate Countries. 59% of European citizens live conveniently close to their place of work or study, compared to only 52% of those in the Candidate Region.

Among all countries surveyed in the Candidate Region, the workplace is the closest for the Cypriot working population: almost three quarters of them (72%) can reach their place of work (or study) in 20 minutes or less. Turkish and Maltese people are also among the luckier citizens of the Candidate Region, as 63% of them live within 20 minutes of their workplace. On the other hand, most Romanians, Czechs, Latvians, and Estonians live further away from their workplaces, and for the majority of them it takes between 20 minutes and one hour to reach their workplaces.



The three Baltic States have the lowest population density among all countries in the survey: Estonia and Latvia have less than 40 people living per km², Lithuania has 55. But the densely inhabited Czech Republic's place on the bottom of this list shows that the proximity of significant places is not only the function of population density. In this case, centralization of industries and other business organizations or average settlement size might play a significant role in addition to population density.

In Latvia, 16% of working adults and students need to travel more than one hour twice a day to reach and return from their place of work or study. At least one in ten Czechs (14%), Hungarians (12%), Romanians, and Bulgarians (10% both) share this fate.

Table 6.1a If you had to go to each of the following places from home, how long would it take you? - The place where you work or study
(in %, by demographics)

	less than 20 minutes	20-59 minutes	60 minutes or more		less than 20 minutes	20-59 minutes	60 minutes or more
Male	52	34	11	Self-employed	69	19	6
Female	51	40	8	Managers	49	41	9
AGE: 15-24 years	49	40	10	Other white collars	46	45	8
AGE: 25-39 years	51	36	12	Manual workers	47	41	11
AGE: 40-54 years	54	36	7	House Persons	NA	NA	NA
AGE: 55+ years	56	28	6	Unemployed	NA	NA	NA
EDU: up to 15 years	63	25	9	Retired	NA	NA	NA
EDU: 16-19 years	52	37	9	Rural area or village	53	33	10
EDU: 20+ years	46	42	10	Small or middle sized town	60	30	8
EDU: still studying	47	40	11	Large town	43	45	10

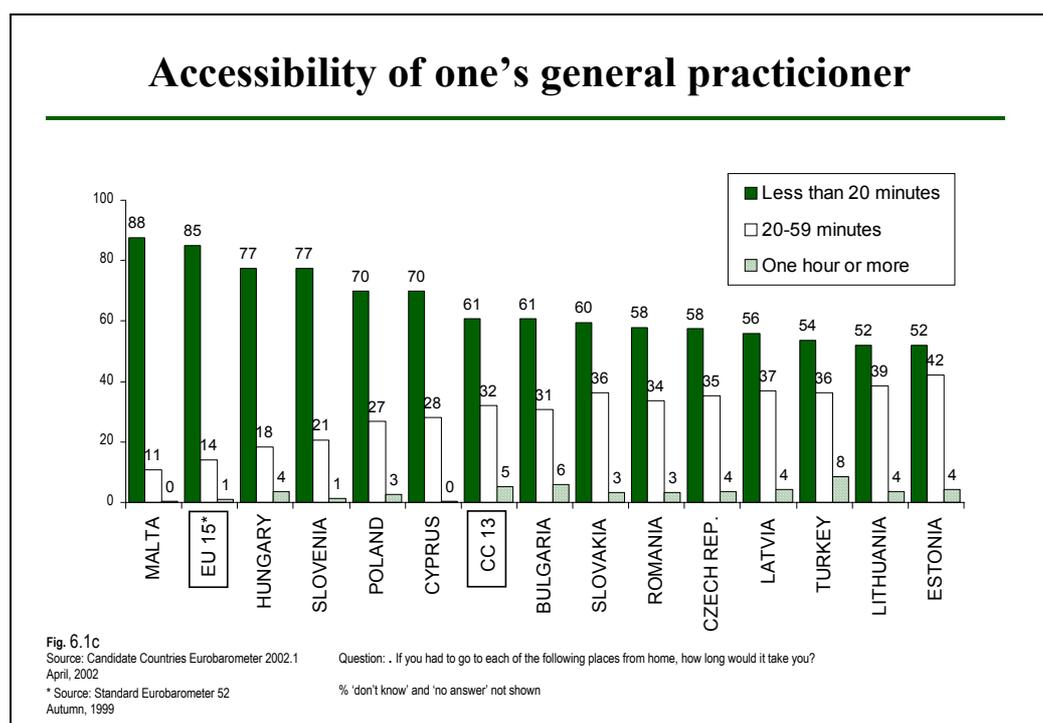
Demographic analyses show little variation between genders (Table 6.1a); 52% of working or studying men and 51% of similar women have to travel less than 20 minutes to get to their respective place of activity. In other groups, we find significant differences. The younger a respondent is the less likely he or she is to live close to the place of work or study. In terms of education the association is the opposite, as more educated people is the less likely to be close to the workplace. In rural areas, 53% of those for whom it is applicable are close to work or study, and in large cities the same ratio is only 43%.

Not surprisingly, those who live in small or medium sized towns are the most likely to have their workplaces close to their homes: 60% of them can reach their place of work within 20 minutes.

And finally: the luckiest group in this respect is of course that of self-employed persons. On average, 69% of them have to commute less than 20 minutes a day to get to their workplace - all other occupational groups have a longer commute.

Primary healthcare

On average 85% of EU citizens are within 20 minutes of their doctor or medical centre. Significantly less, only 61% of those who live in the Candidate Countries can receive care at such a convenient distance from their homes. Five percent of people living in the Candidate Countries have to commute more than an hour to see their doctors - the same figure is 1% in the European Union.



The densely populated Malta (with close to 1,200 people per square kilometre Malta is among the ten most densely inhabited countries on the globe) provides the best access to general practitioners; almost nine in ten (88%) Maltese live conveniently close to their general doctors. Equally, 77% of Hungarians and Slovenians can reach primary medical assistance within 20 minutes. In contrast, almost half of Estonians and Lithuanians have to commute more than 20 minutes to see their doctor.

There is no difference between males and females with regard to how far they are from their general practitioner. 8% of those living in villages have to travel more than an hour to see their doctors, and only 55% live close to a health centre. At the same time, 62% of residents of large cities and 69% of the residents living in small or mid-sized towns have a nearby doctor, and only 4% and 3% have to commute over an hour to get to the place of their primary healthcare.

Among occupational groups, managers live the closest to their doctors (67%), followed by other white collar workers (66%). In the less prestigious occupational groups, distance from one's own doctor increases. Only 61% of retired persons can reach their doctors conveniently. Those who left school early are also less likely to live close to their practitioner (58%) than those who remained in school for a longer period (64%).

Table 6.1b If you had to go to each of the following places from home, how long would it take you? - General practitioner / health centre
(in %, by demographics)

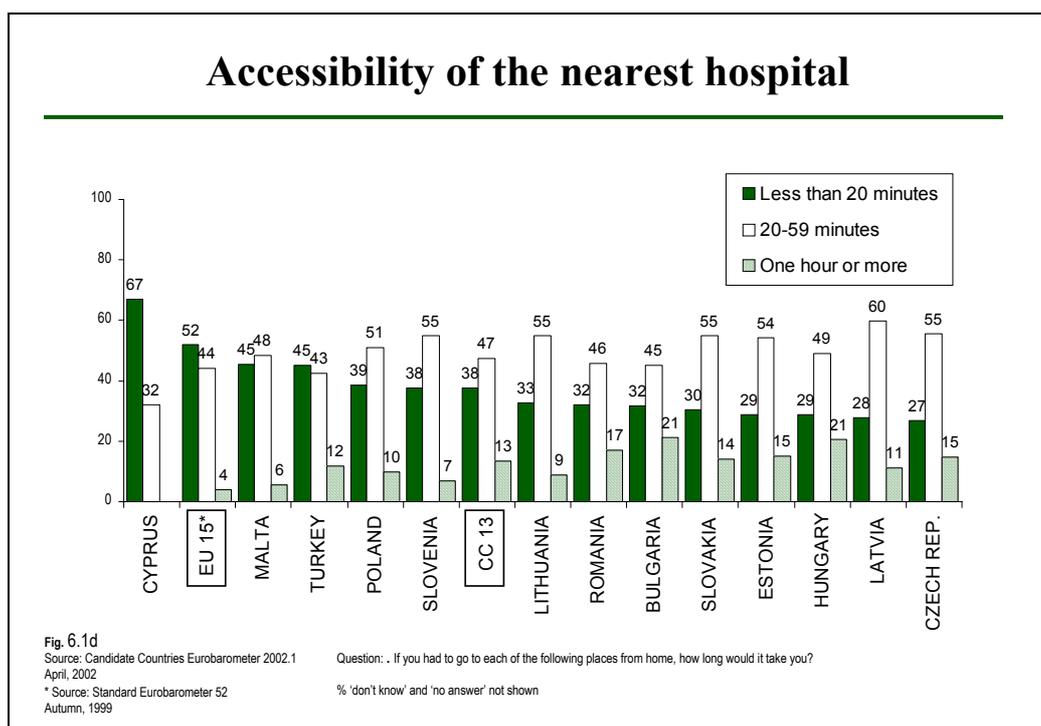
	less than 20 minutes	20-59 minutes	60 minutes or more		less than 20 minutes	20-59 minutes	60 minutes or more
Male	61	31	6	Self-employed	57	36	6
Female	61	33	5	Managers	67	28	4
AGE: 15-24 years	59	32	7	Other white collars	66	31	2
AGE: 25-39 years	62	31	5	Manual workers	63	31	4
AGE: 40-54 years	63	31	4	House Persons	59	33	6
AGE: 55+ years	59	34	4	Unemployed	58	32	8
EDU: up to 15 years	58	33	7	Retired	61	33	4
EDU: 16-19 years	64	31	4	Rural area or village	55	36	8
EDU: 20+ years	64	30	3	Small or middle sized town	69	27	3
EDU: still studying	62	29	6	Large town	62	31	4

The nearest hospital

In case of emergency, close proximity to a hospital saves lives – and this close proximity is more common in the EU than in the Candidate Region, as Figure 6.1d shows. There is one country in the Candidate Region (Cyprus) in which people live closer to a hospital than the EU average, which is 52% versus the 38% average found in the Candidate Countries. Only four percent of EU citizens have to commute over an hour to get to a hospital, and more than three times as many people (13%) have to in the Candidate Countries (Figure 6.1d).

On average, Cypriots live the closest to a hospital; exactly two thirds of them can get there within 20 minutes if needed. Turkey and Malta are the other countries that seem to have an accessible network of hospitals: almost half of the people (45%) in both countries live conveniently close to such an institution. But there is a large ratio in Turkey who are isolated from hospitals: 12% have to commute more than an hour to get to the nearest one, and in the rural areas less than 30 percent can get to a hospital within 20 minutes.

Generally, the majority of the population lives between 20 and 60 minutes from a hospital. Less than 3 in 10 people in the Czech Republic (27%), in Latvia (28%), in Estonia, and in Hungary (both 29%) live close to a hospital. Hungarians, along with Bulgarians, are the most likely to live very far from the nearest hospital: over one fifth (21%) of the populations of these two countries have to travel over an hour to get there.



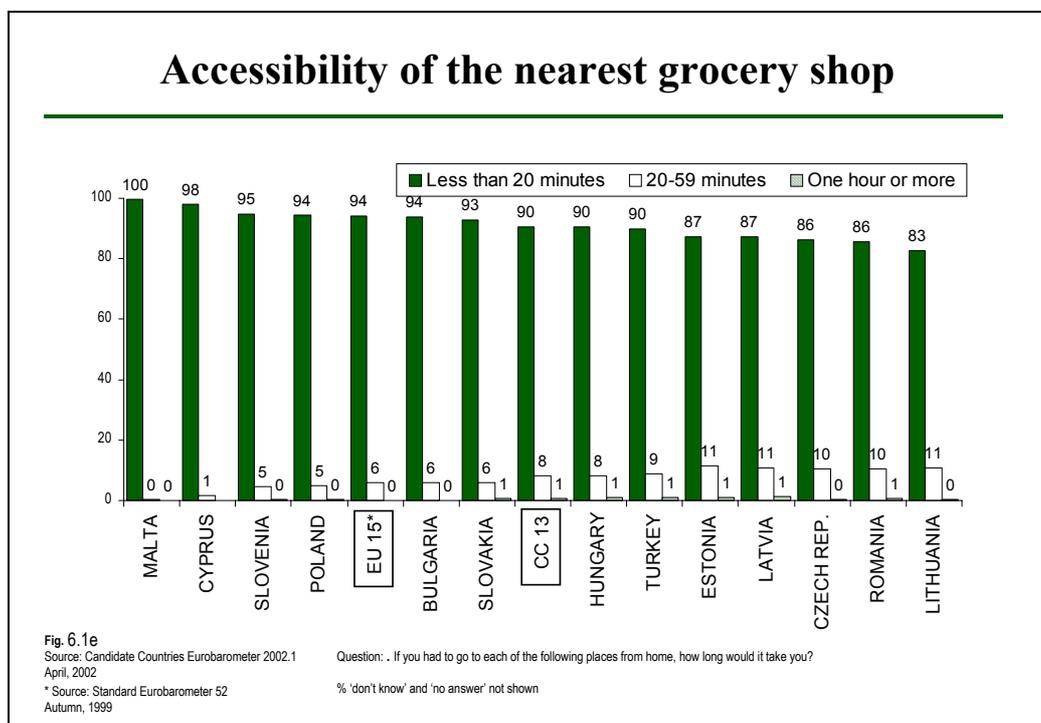
Demographic analyses reveal one important, but rather obvious fact; those who live in villages live far from a hospital. At the same time, the fact that 23% of those cannot access the nearest hospital within an hour is a strikingly high figure (only 19% of rural population live within 20-minutes reach of a hospital in the Candidate Region). Consequently, the elderly (less than 20 minutes: 32%), retired people (31%) and the respondents with the lowest education (33%) are the least likely to live close to a hospital. Almost one in five in each of these groups has to travel more than an hour to get to such an institution.

Table 6.1c If you had to go to each of the following places from home, how long would it take you? - The nearest hospital (in %, by demographics)

	less than 20 minutes	20-59 minutes	60 minutes or more		less than 20 minutes	20-59 minutes	60 minutes or more
Male	39	47	13	Self-employed	35	53	12
Female	37	48	14	Managers	49	44	6
AGE: 15-24 years	42	48	9	Other white collars	45	46	7
AGE: 25-39 years	40	47	12	Manual workers	38	50	12
AGE: 40-54 years	38	48	13	House Persons	40	45	13
AGE: 55+ years	32	48	19	Unemployed	35	48	17
EDU: up to 15 years	33	47	18	Retired	31	47	20
EDU: 16-19 years	36	49	13	Rural area or village	19	57	23
EDU: 20+ years	45	46	8	Small or middle sized town	50	42	7
EDU: still studying	45	47	6	Large town	51	41	6

The nearest grocery shop

Grocery shops are virtually everywhere - almost equally so in the Western and Eastern parts of Europe. 94% of European citizens and 90% of the people living in the Candidate Region have convenient access to a department store or a grocery shop where they can buy their everyday food and other basic goods. The question of whether a distance of 20 minutes is close enough for a grocery shop or not remains, but generally, commercial coverage does not seem to vary very different between the European Union and the Candidate Region.



In Malta, we did not find anyone who did not live near to a food-store: 100% claimed to have a grocery shop nearby. The same ratio was very high in Cyprus (98%), in Slovenia (95%), and in Poland (94%) as well. The lowest ratios of grocery stores in convenient distance were found in Lithuania (83% live in close proximity of one), in Romania, and in the Czech Republic (86% both). It is almost impossible to live more than an hour away from a grocery store in this part of Europe as well: perhaps a conscious choice of the lifestyle of a hermit is required for that one percent who claim to live so far from the nearest food shop.

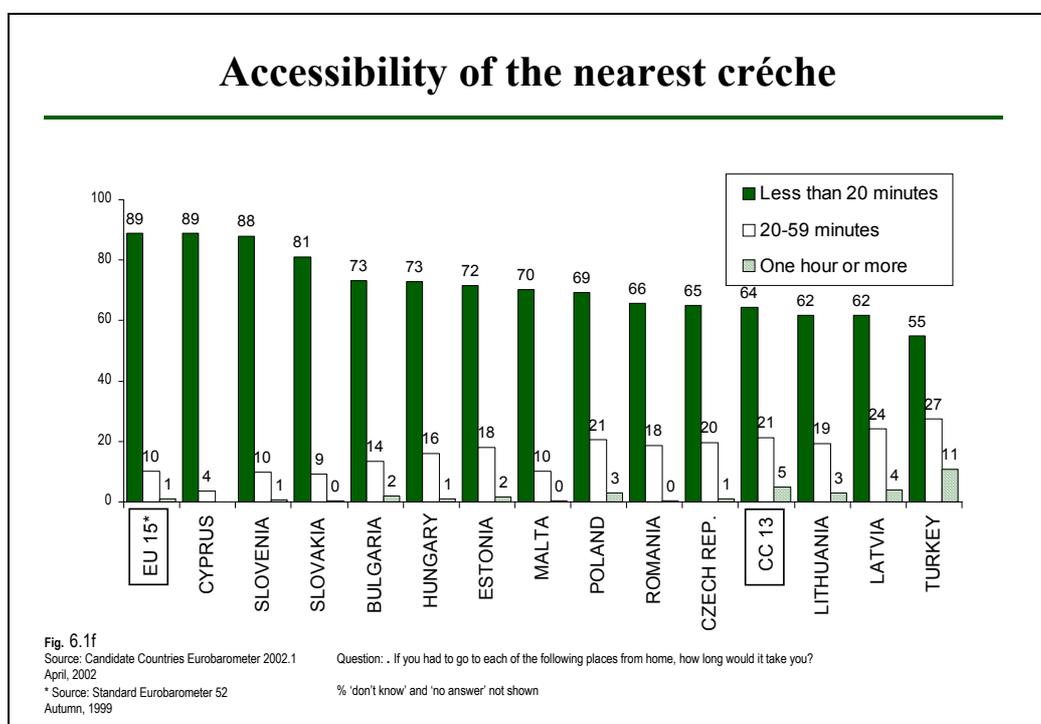
Demographic analyses show a clear advantage for access to basic commercial facilities in urban settings. Rural areas are less equipped with grocery stores; 84% of respondents from villages told us that they could get to the closest shop in less than 20 minutes compared to 95% of urban residents. Table 6.1d has more details, but generally, the difference in population composition of villages and larger cities reflects by the limited variation among the different demographic groups.

Table 6.1d If you had to go to each of the following places from home, how long would it take you? - The nearest grocery shop
(in %, by demographics)

	less than 20 minutes	20-59 minutes	60 minutes or more		less than 20 minutes	20-59 minutes	60 minutes or more
Male	90	8	1	Self-employed	87	10	2
Female	91	8	0	Managers	94	5	0
AGE: 15-24 years	92	7	1	Other white collars	95	5	0
AGE: 25-39 years	92	7	1	Manual workers	93	6	0
AGE: 40-54 years	91	7	1	House Persons	91	9	0
AGE: 55+ years	87	11	1	Unemployed	90	8	1
EDU: up to 15 years	89	9	1	Retired	87	10	1
EDU: 16-19 years	91	7	1	Rural area or village	84	13	1
EDU: 20+ years	93	6	0	Small or middle sized town	94	5	0
EDU: still studying	92	6	1	Large town	95	4	0

The nearest crèche

In the case of grocery stores the level of service - as far as geographical coverage is concerned - is close to parity in the EU and Candidate Countries. The opposite is true of kindergartens. Most of the Candidate Countries lag well behind the EU in terms of accessibility to childcare institutions.



Parents face the most difficulties in taking their children to a kindergarten in Turkey, where only 55% live close to a crèche; and Latvian and Lithuanian parents are not in much better position: only 62% of their populations have a kindergarten near to the place where they live. Interestingly, neither of these countries listed “childcare arrangements” when we asked how governments should help families with children (Chapter 2.3). The only country where this was considered an important area of improvement was Malta, which is in the middle of the ‘spatial ranking’ of crèches, as shown in Figure 6.1f. Cyprus and Slovenia have coverage of childcare institutions similar to the EU average: almost 9 in 10 people live in close proximity to a kindergarten or crèche.

Table 6.1e If you had to go to each of the following places from home, how long would it take you? - The nearest nursery school / kindergarten
(in %, by demographics)

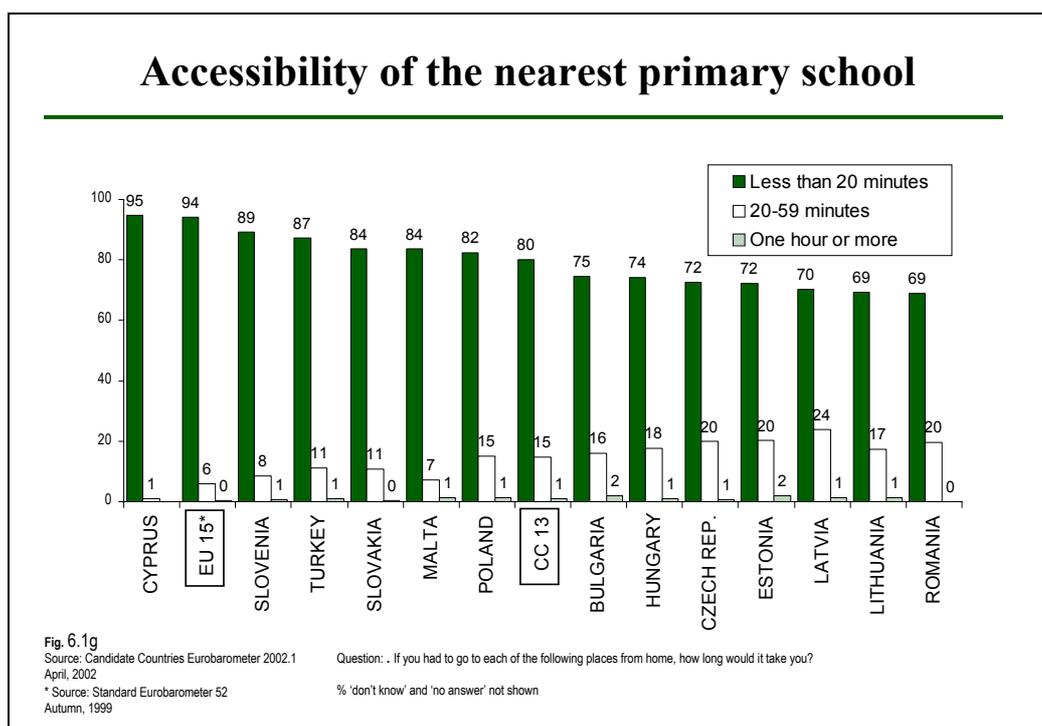
	less than 20 minutes	20-59 minutes	60 minutes or more		less than 20 minutes	20-59 minutes	60 minutes or more
Male	63	21	6	Self-employed	58	30	6
Female	65	21	4	Managers	78	15	1
AGE: 15-24 years	67	20	6	Other white collars	76	14	1
AGE: 25-39 years	67	21	5	Manual workers	69	20	4
AGE: 40-54 years	65	22	5	House Persons	61	24	8
AGE: 55+ years	58	21	4	Unemployed	62	23	8
EDU: up to 15 years	53	28	9	Retired	58	21	4
EDU: 16-19 years	70	19	2	Rural area or village	52	31	9
EDU: 20+ years	74	14	2	Small or middle sized town	73	16	2
EDU: still studying	74	17	2	Large town	72	13	3

Demographic analyses consistently confirm the poor coverage of most social institutions in the rural areas of the Candidate Region. Crèches are no exception. While only a slim majority of those in villages live near to a kindergarten or a nursery school (52%), residents in medium sized and large cities have a crèche near home in significantly higher ratios (73% and 72%, respectively). The highly educated group (74%), managers (78%), and other white-collar workers (76%) can also easily access a crèche.

Since the older age groups are not as much in a need of a nursery school near, it follows that those younger in age live closer to crèches than older citizens. But even among those aged between 15 and 24 years, and those in their most fertile years (aged 25-39), only two thirds live close to a nursery school or a kindergarten.

The nearest primary school

In terms of geographic access to basic education, the gap between the EU and the Candidate Countries is smaller but still significant; while 95% of EU citizens live close to a primary school, only eight in ten inhabitants of the Candidate Region have a primary education institution within a 20-minute reach. 16% of citizens of the Candidate Countries have to commute more than twenty minutes to the closest primary school, while only 6% of EU citizens claim to live that far from schools.



Cyprus tops the ranking of access to primary schools as well: almost everybody in the country lives in the near proximity of a primary school. Slovenia is another frequent top-three in the proximity rankings (89% live close to a school), and Turkey is third with 87% living near a primary school. (Turkey made the top three only in what could be considered the most important aspects: place of work / study, nearest hospital, and nearest primary school). Romania, on the other hand, rarely appears at the top of these rankings: Romanians - along with Lithuanians - live the farthest away from primary schools among all countries in the Candidate Region (only 69% live conveniently near to a school).

Table 6.1f If you had to go to each of the following places from home, how long would it take you? - The nearest primary school
(in %, by demographics)

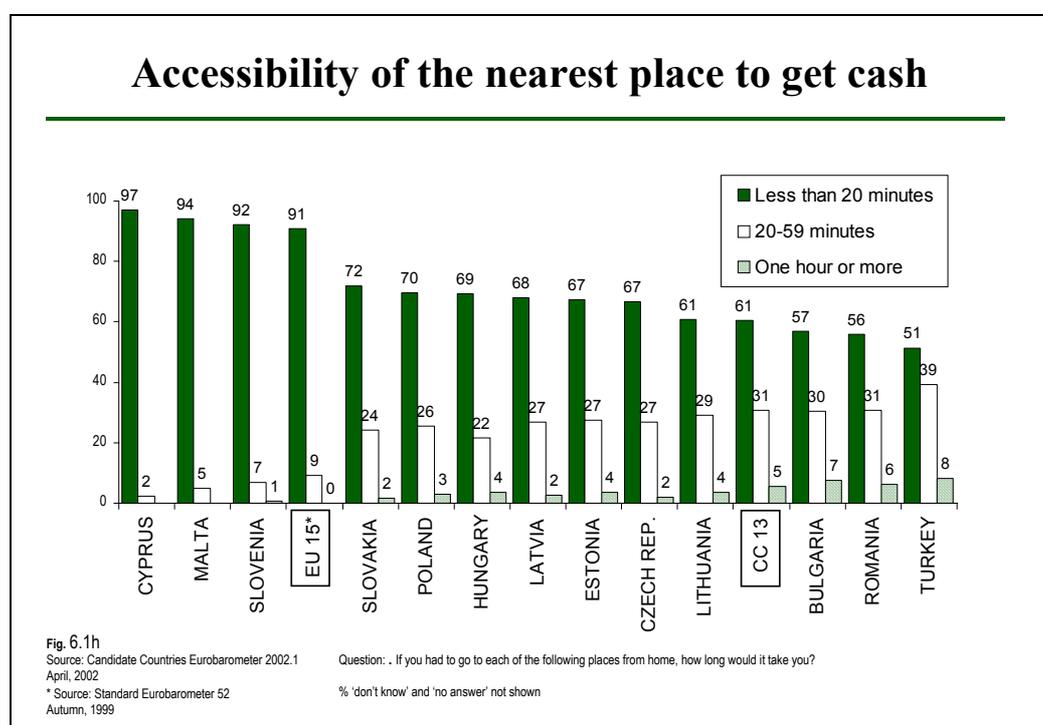
	less than 20 minutes	20-59 minutes	60 minutes or more		less than 20 minutes	20-59 minutes	60 minutes or more
Male	81	14	1	Self-employed	76	22	1
Female	80	15	1	Managers	87	10	0
AGE: 15-24 years	86	11	1	Other white collars	84	12	0
AGE: 25-39 years	85	13	1	Manual workers	82	14	1
AGE: 40-54 years	81	15	1	House Persons	85	13	1
AGE: 55+ years	70	20	1	Unemployed	81	15	2
EDU: up to 15 years	78	17	1	Retired	70	19	1
EDU: 16-19 years	80	15	1	Rural area or village	73	22	2
EDU: 20+ years	84	10	0	Small or middle sized town	84	12	0
EDU: still studying	88	8	1	Large town	87	7	0

Demographic analyses again show relatively low coverage in rural areas. 73% of those living in a village live close to a school, while 87% of the inhabitants of large cities have a primary

school they can get to within 20 minutes. Higher social status determines closer access to primary education, as managers (87%) and highly educated people (84%) live the closest to a school. Retired people and the elderly - who are probably less interested in the close proximity of a primary school - are in fact the least likely to live close to a school (or are the least aware of a school near to where they live); only 70% of each group said that it takes them less than 20 minutes to get to the nearest primary school.

The nearest place to get money: cash dispenser, bank, post office

There is a significant difference between the three top countries and the rest of the Candidate Region in the proximity ranking of places where people can get cash. For the average European Union citizen, it is practically effortless to find a place to get cash: 91% live less than 20 minutes away from a specialized institution or a facility. The same is not true in the Candidate Region, where 36% have to commute more than 20 minutes if they are in need of banknotes.



Cyprus (97%), Malta (94%), and Slovenia (92%) offer - similarly to the average EU country - easy access to cash machines or other places where citizens can get money. This is not the case in Turkey, where only a slim majority live conveniently near to a place where they can get money (51%). It is similarly inconvenient in Romania (56%) and in Bulgaria (57%). We included post offices in the institutions in the question, which means that for example 47% of the Turkish live far away from post offices as well.

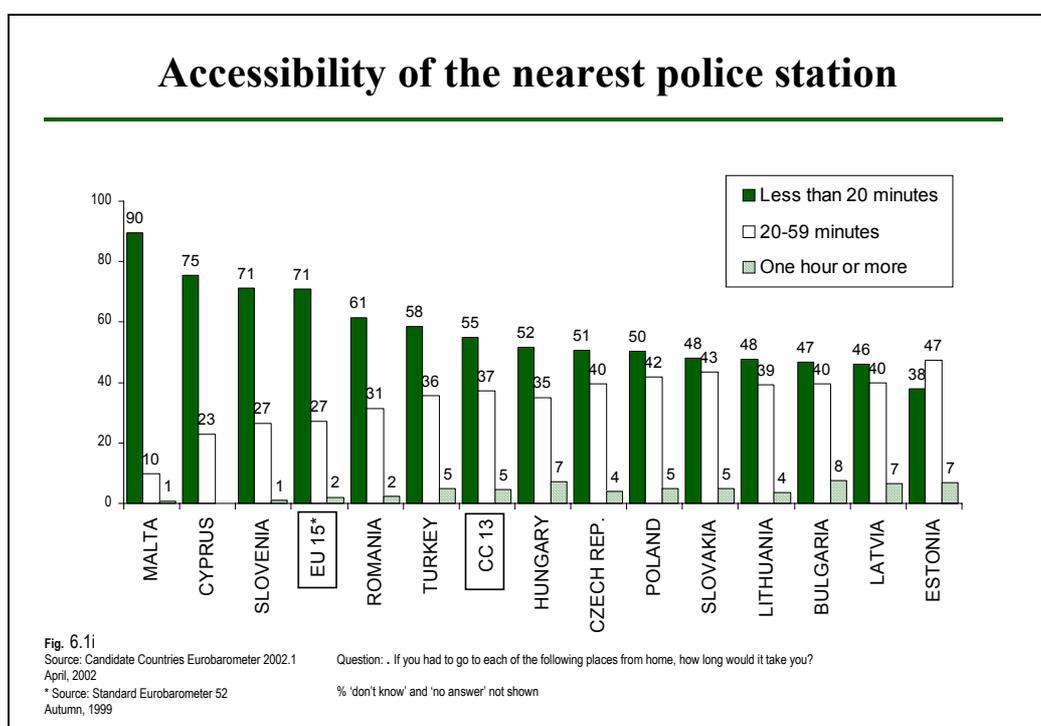
Again, a large imbalance between rural areas and larger settlements can be observed in this question. Less than half (44%) of rural people live near to a post office (or other institution where they can get money), while three quarters of the urban population have a post office or ATM less than 20 minutes away. The likelihood to live close to such facilities grows significantly with education: only 50% of those who left school before the age of 15 have easy access to places where they can get cash (including post offices), while 65% of those who stayed in school until the age of 19, and 74% of those who remained in school until 20 years of age or older have easy access. Managers live the closest to banks or post offices (78%), followed by other white-collar workers (77%).

Table 6.1g If you had to go to each of the following places from home, how long would it take you? - The nearest place to get money: cash dispenser, bank, post office
(in %, by demographics)

	less than 20 minutes	20-59 minutes	60 minutes or more		less than 20 minutes	20-59 minutes	60 minutes or more
Male	62	30	6	Self-employed	54	38	7
Female	60	32	5	Managers	78	19	3
AGE: 15-24 years	62	30	6	Other white collars	77	20	2
AGE: 25-39 years	60	32	6	Manual workers	66	26	7
AGE: 40-54 years	63	31	4	House Persons	52	38	7
AGE: 55+ years	59	29	5	Unemployed	53	38	7
EDU: up to 15 years	50	38	8	Retired	59	29	5
EDU: 16-19 years	65	28	5	Rural area or village	44	42	10
EDU: 20+ years	74	22	2	Small or middle sized town	70	25	2
EDU: still studying	68	27	3	Large town	74	21	2

The nearest police station

Police coverage seems to be less complete in the Candidate Region than in the Member States. Only a slim majority of those who live in a Candidate Country have police station close to where they live (55%), but almost three quarters of European citizens can reach the closest police station in less than 20 minutes.



Close proximity of a police station enhances the feeling of personal safety and may even reduces crime rates.

In the densely populated Malta, nine in ten people live close to a police station, and police coverage in Cyprus (75% live close to police station) and Slovenia (71%) is similar to the average of the European Union. Romania has the fourth highest police coverage with 61% living close to a police station. This is the only case in which Romania is close to the top of the proximity ranking. On the bottom end, most Estonians live more than 20 minutes from a police station, and only 38% have a police station near to their homes. The situation is similar in Latvia (with 46% living close), Bulgaria (47%), Lithuania, and Slovakia (48% both), where less than half of the population live close to a police station.

Demographic analyses show differences between the two genders only in this proximity question. Males consider themselves closer to police stations than females (57% vs. 52%). But the decisive difference is again between villages and cities: police is present within the close environment of only 41% living in villages; while close to two thirds of the urban population have a police station near their homes. With higher social status, people are more likely to live close to a police station (managers and white-collar workers: 64%; highly educated: 62%). The elderly are the least likely to live close to a police station

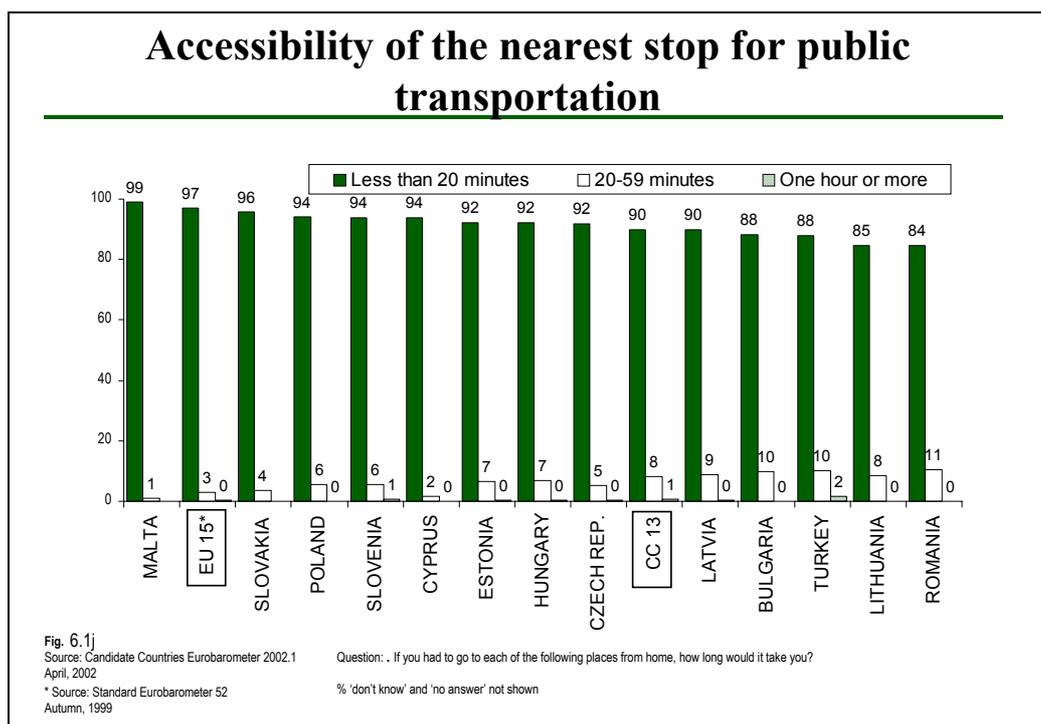
Table 6.1h If you had to go to each of the following places from home, how long would it take you? - The nearest police station
(in %, by demographics)

	less than 20 minutes	20-59 minutes	60 minutes or more		less than 20 minutes	20-59 minutes	60 minutes or more
Male	57	36	4	Self-employed	56	38	4
Female	52	39	5	Managers	64	30	2
AGE: 15-24 years	59	33	4	Other white collars	64	30	2
AGE: 25-39 years	58	37	3	Manual workers	58	36	4
AGE: 40-54 years	56	38	4	House Persons	53	40	5
AGE: 55+ years	47	41	7	Unemployed	55	36	6
EDU: up to 15 years	50	40	8	Retired	46	41	7
EDU: 16-19 years	55	38	4	Rural area or village	41	48	9
EDU: 20+ years	62	31	2	Small or middle sized town	65	31	1
EDU: still studying	62	33	2	Large town	63	29	3

The nearest stop for public transportation

The most surprising result in this block of questions is regarding public transportation: while almost everyone in the EU has a nearby stop for public transportation, the same ratio is only 90% in the Candidate Countries. Access to public transport is as low as 84% in Romania and 85% in Lithuania. This means that large numbers of people in these countries are cut off from public transportation and are more dependent on their own vehicles.

The best access to public transportation is found in Malta, where 99% of the respondents reported that there is a stop for public transportation nearby. This ratio is also high in Slovakia (96%), in Poland, in Slovenia, and in Cyprus (all 94%).



Insufficient rural coverage is at least partly responsible for the relatively low ratio of access to public transportation in the Candidate Region. Only 85% of those who live in rural areas have easy access to public transportation; at the same time, 96% of the residents of large cities have public transportation near to their homes. There is a high ratio of elderly who can not access public transportation - not all elderly people are able to walk more than 20 minutes to get on a bus – and only 87% of retired people reported relatively near access to public transportation.

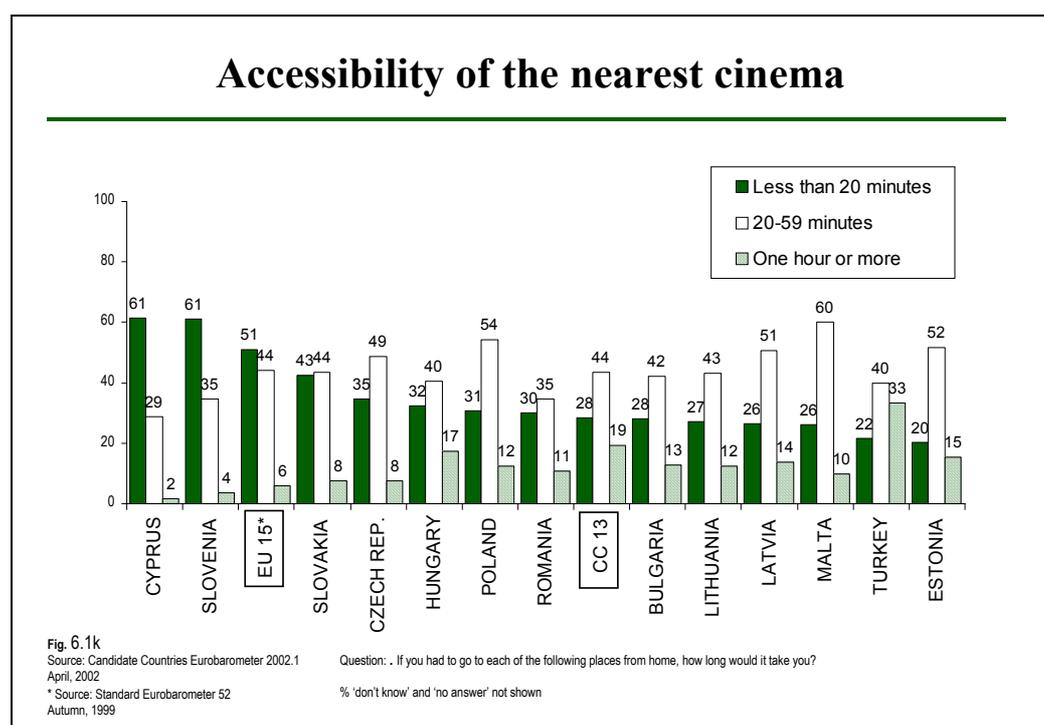
Unemployed persons are among those most likely to have insufficient access to public transportation.

Table 6.1i If you had to go to each of the following places from home, how long would it take you? - The nearest stop for public transportation
(in %, by demographics)

	less than 20 minutes	20-59 minutes	60 minutes or more		less than 20 minutes	20-59 minutes	60 minutes or more
Male	89	8	1	Self-employed	85	12	2
Female	90	8	0	Managers	95	4	0
AGE: 15-24 years	91	7	1	Other white collars	95	4	0
AGE: 25-39 years	92	7	1	Manual workers	93	6	0
AGE: 40-54 years	90	8	0	House Persons	89	9	1
AGE: 55+ years	86	11	0	Unemployed	87	10	2
EDU: up to 15 years	87	11	1	Retired	87	10	0
EDU: 16-19 years	91	7	0	Rural area or village	85	13	1
EDU: 20+ years	93	5	0	Small or middle sized town	91	7	0
EDU: still studying	93	5	1	Large town	96	3	0

The nearest cinema

A consequence of the changing nature of entertainment industry, that the nearest cinema is relatively far away in both the EU and the Candidate Countries - at least it is not as close as other social locations. Probably the most popular form of public entertainment, cinemas are still much more accessible in the Member States (51% live near to a movie theatre) than in the Candidate Countries (28%). Although Malta is usually among the top countries in proximity rankings, it is now third from the bottom with only one quarter (26%) of its population living near to a cinema. The other countries where cinemas are relatively far away from people's homes are Turkey (22%), and Estonia (20%).



In order to watch a movie in Turkey, careful planning and orientation is required: one quarter of the Turkish population has to travel more than an hour to get to a cinema. The same ratio is 17% in Hungary and 15% in Estonia. In contrast, almost three quarters of Cypriots and Slovenians live near to a movie theatre.

Definitely, cinemas are more common in urban areas; consequently, only 13% of the rural population is in close proximity to a cinema, versus 42% in small towns, and 35% in large cities. Almost one third of the rural population needs to travel a distance exceeding an hour - one-way - to watch a movie in a theatre. Managers claim to be the closest to cinemas (44%). Age has little effect, but the level of education matters in terms of access to a cinema. The least educated group is the farthest from this form of culture (easy access for only 21%), while those with more education people tend to live in neighbourhoods, with easier access to this entertainment (39%).

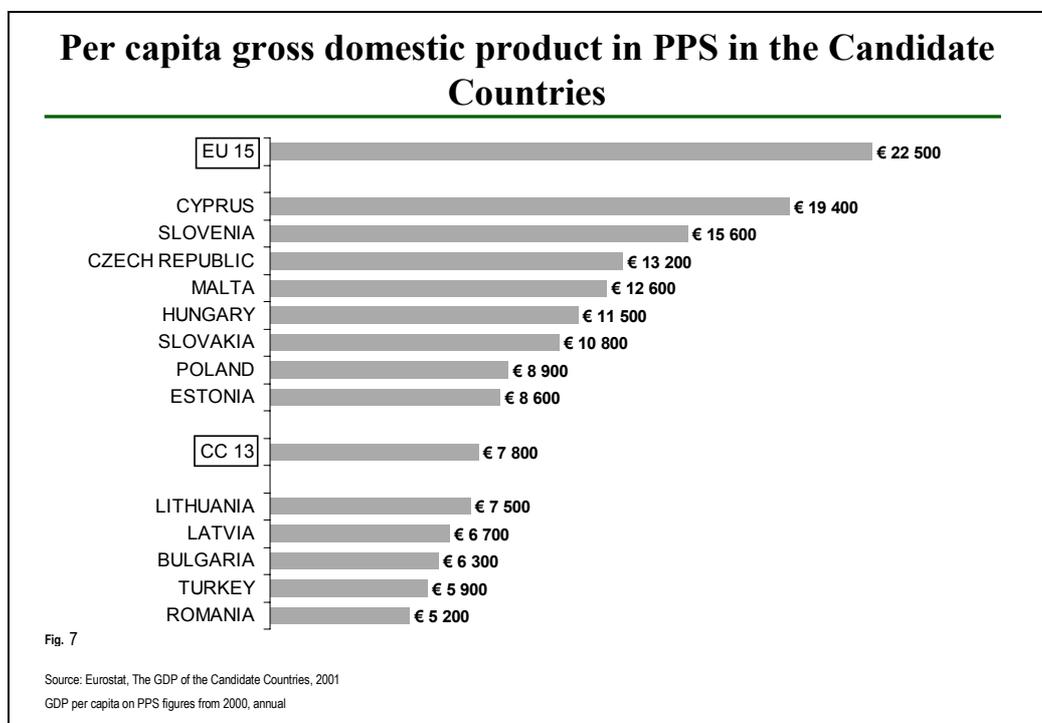
Table 6.1j If you had to go to each of the following places from home, how long would it take you? - The nearest cinema
(in %, by demographics)

	less than 20 minutes	20-59 minutes	60 minutes or more		less than 20 minutes	20-59 minutes	60 minutes or more
Male	29	43	21	Self-employed	25	42	28
Female	28	44	18	Managers	44	46	7
AGE: 15-24 years	28	46	21	Other white collars	36	49	9
AGE: 25-39 years	29	45	21	Manual workers	33	44	16
AGE: 40-54 years	30	43	18	House Persons	23	42	26
AGE: 55+ years	26	40	17	Unemployed	23	40	30
EDU: up to 15 years	21	40	29	Retired	26	41	16
EDU: 16-19 years	31	46	15	Rural area or village	13	44	32
EDU: 20+ years	39	46	9	Small or middle sized town	42	40	10
EDU: still studying	33	52	13	Large town	35	47	11

7. Standard of Living in the Candidate Countries

Despite the close similarities of values and traditions across the nations of the European continent, there is without doubt a marked division between the East and the West that relates to the highly different income levels in the two parts of Europe. In fact, the high levels of support for membership in most of the countries in the Candidate Region are closely related to the expectation that membership in the European Union will bring higher levels of living standards.

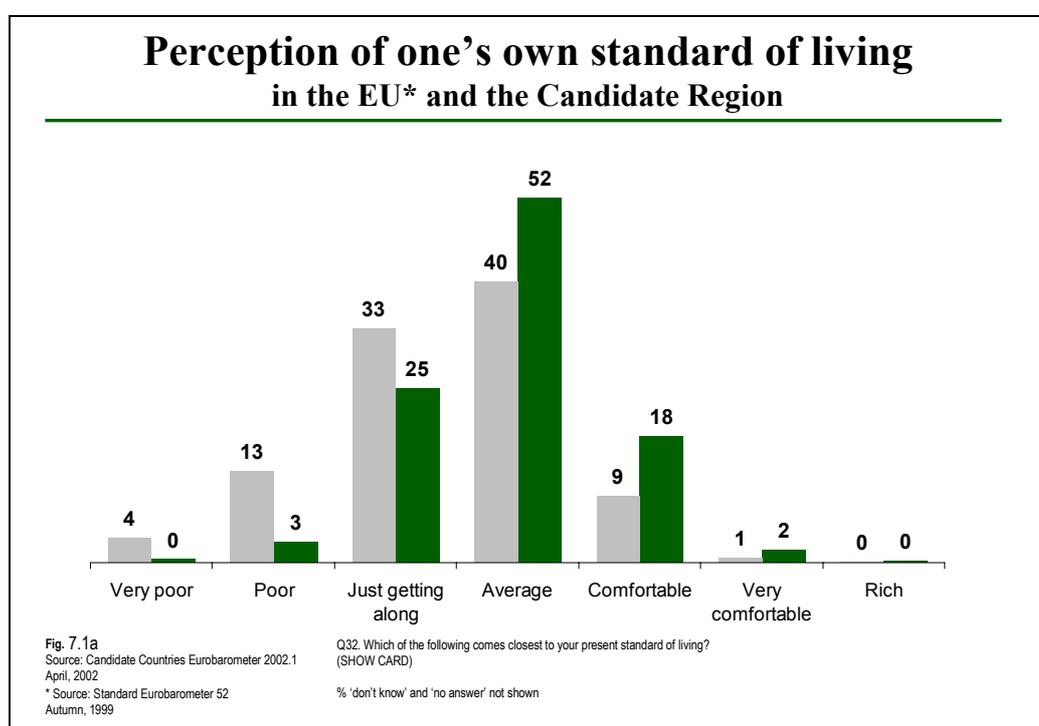
The average per capita GDP in Purchasing Power Standard (PPS) of the thirteen Candidate Countries is about one third of that in the EU-15. As of 2000, eleven out of the 13 countries had a lower per capita national income than the poorest country in the European Union (Greece, having a gross domestic product in PPS equal to that of Slovenia). Differences in national product in current prices (where consumer price inequalities are not balanced out) are even wider between the countries that are invited to negotiation talks with EU and the EU itself.



Consequently, the vast majority of people in the Candidate Countries have a more modest standard of living than European citizens. This chapter will profile the details.

7.1 Standard of living

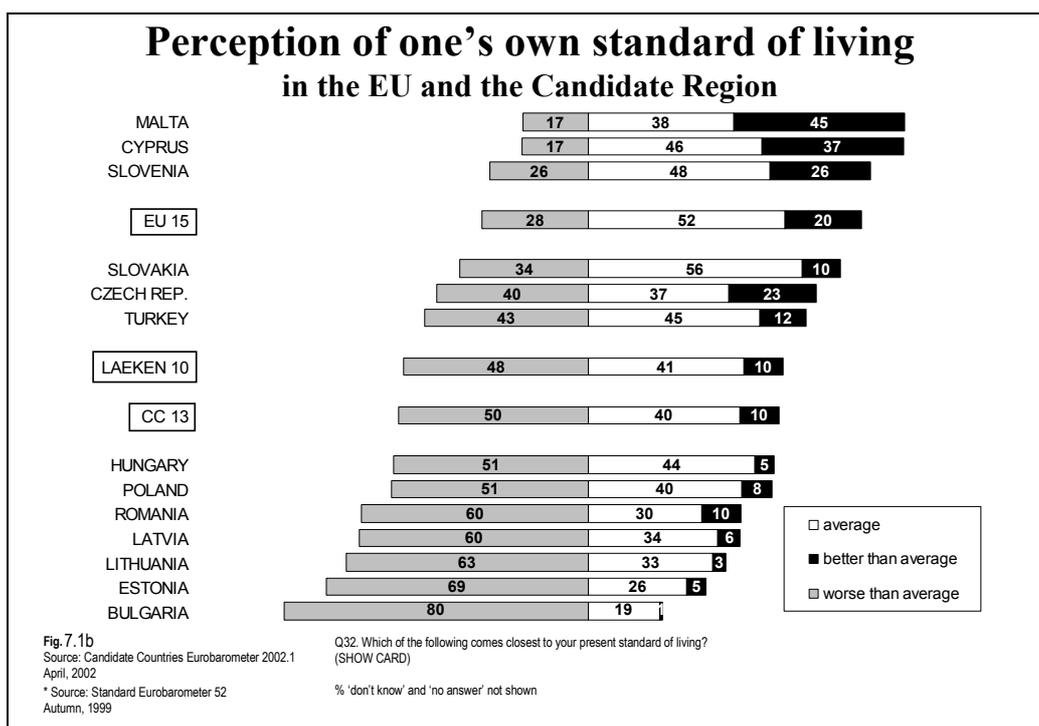
We asked our respondents to assess their personal standard of living on a seven-point scale, where the two extremes were 'rich' and 'very poor'. The majority of respondents placed themselves in the middle of this scale, describing their living standard as "average" (Figure 7.1a). These people account for more than half of the citizens of the European Union (52%)²⁹, but only for 40% of those who live in the Candidate Countries. Comparing the distribution of the responses, we find that the evaluations of personal living standards by European citizens are close to normal -- about as many people regard their standard of living below average as do above --, while the responses from the Candidate Region are asymmetric, leaning toward the 'poor' end of the scale. Combining below-the-average answers, we find that 50% of the Candidate Countries' citizens regard their standard of living worse than average. Only 28% of European citizens complain about being poorer than the average. This self-assessment reflects a more skewed distribution of living standards in the CC-13 region.



Nobody in Europe claims to be 'rich' – neither inside nor outside the European Union. On the other hand, 4% of the respondents in the Candidate Countries consider themselves 'very poor' (while virtually nobody felt this way in the EU).

Figure 7.1b shows that more than 4 in 10 people in Malta – the most populous group of the population – regard their living standard as being above average (45%). In Cyprus (37%), Slovenia (26%), and the Czech Republic (26%) more than 1 in 5 respondents think they have a better-than-average standard of living. On the other hand, 8 in 10 Bulgarians and nearly 7 in 10 Estonians think they have a sub-par living standard. In seven of the 13 Candidate Countries, the majority of people think they are living at a below-average level, including Lithuania (63%), Latvia, Romania (60% both), Poland, and Hungary (51% both).

²⁹ The same question was asked in Standard Eurobarometer 52 (Autumn 1999) -- for the detailed trend analysis of the situation within the Member States please refer to „Les europeens et la qualite de vie”, a special report written on the basis of EB52.



In the Candidate Region males and females evaluate their standard of living very similarly. Levels of education prove to be a better indicator of individual standard of living. People who left school aged 15 or younger are more likely to judge their living standard below average (57%), compared to 42% of people who left full-time education aged 20 or older or to 30% of those still studying. Age is also an important variable with those aged 15 to 24 significantly more likely (55%) to claim they have an average or better standard of living than those aged 55 and over (38%). Analyses of the economic activity scale show a gap of 37 percentage points between managers (73%) and retired people (36%). 62% of unemployed people regard their standard of living as below average. People's perceptions of their standard of living are similar in the cities and rural areas. (Table 7.6a and Table 7.6b in Annex)

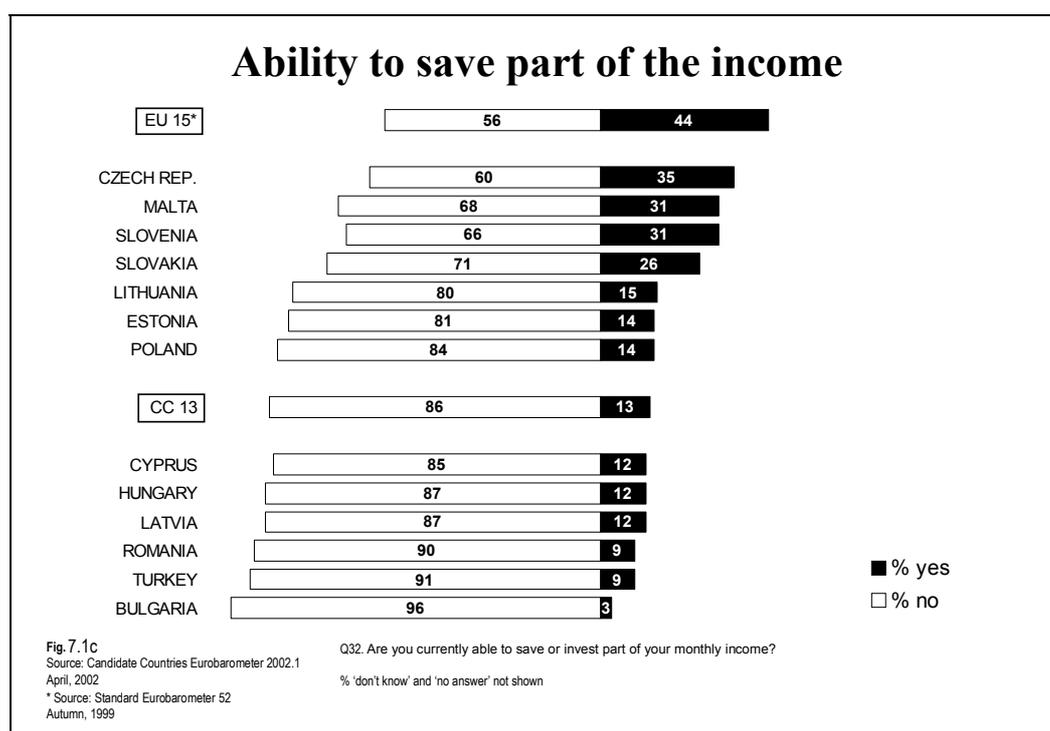
Ability to save or invest part of income

Numbers in Figure 7.1c indicate that on the average a lower proportion of citizens in the Candidate Region can save money (13%) than the unemployed persons in the European Union do (16%)³⁰. There is an enormous, 31 percentage point gap between the Candidate Region average and that of the European Union (44%). This difference is even higher than the difference between GDP in PPS of the two groups.

Among those who reported their standard of living as 'average', 16% are currently able to save money. Practically nobody (3%) among those who claimed to have a sub-par living standard can save any money. 44% of those claiming a higher than average standard of living are able to save at least some money. This matches the mean percentage of all EU citizens.

Clearly, the ability to save part of one's income is dependent on more factors than the sheer size of the income at disposal. It is also a question of values and traditions, as well as being dependent on consumption desires.

In the Czech Republic the moral imperative of a thrifty life overcomes desires of consumption in a relatively large proportion of the people; with more than one third (35%) currently able to save part of their income, the Czechs lead the region in this respect, followed by Maltese and Slovenians (31% both). Slovaks are also able (or willing) to invest or save money to secure their future (26%), but in the remaining nine countries, less than 2 in 10 people report an ability to save a part of their income. At the bottom of the list we find the countries with the lowest GDP (see Figure 7 above): less than 1 in 10 people say they can save money in Romania and Turkey (9% both), and a mere 3% of Bulgarians reported current ability to save money. (See Table 7.7a in Annex)



As in the European Union, males in the Candidate Region reporting that they are more able to save money than females (14% vs. 12%). Education proves to be a very strong predictor of one's ability to invest. Only 7% of people who left school aged 15 or younger indicate they can save money while 23% of people who left full-time education aged 20 or older can. Age

³⁰ EB52, Autumn 1999

groups are not as different; the two younger groups are only somewhat more able to save money than people from the two older age groups (15% vs. 10%).

It is not surprising that analyses of the economic activity scale show a gap of 30 percentage points in investment ability between managers (34%) and unemployed persons (4%). Those who live in small towns are the most likely to save money (15%), followed by residents of large cities (13%) and people living in the countryside (11%). (Table 7.7b in Annex)

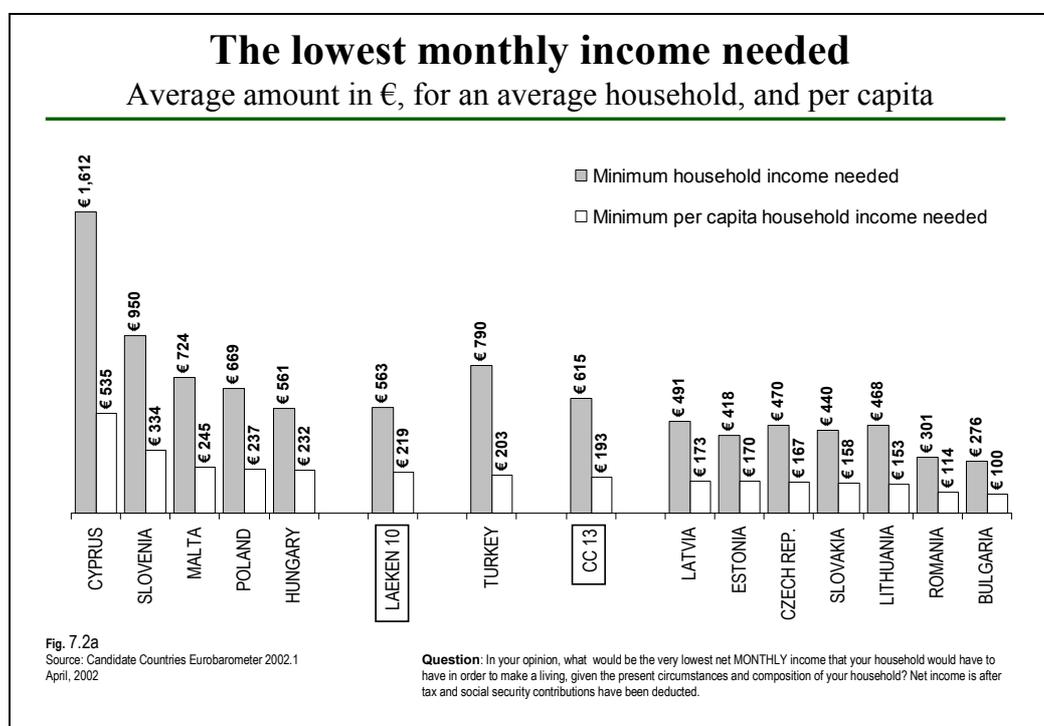
7.2 Sub-standard existence

The majority of people in the Candidate Countries think they have less money than needed “in order to make a living, given the present circumstances and composition of your household”. We asked our respondents how much they think the necessary amount would be. We converted the answers into Euros, and Figure 7.2a shows the results.

(A factor that cannot be overlooked in evaluating the income required for a household is the average family size in a country. Taking this into account we computed per capita subsistence income levels for each country, and sorted the graph below according to this indicator.)

Levels of minimum income required to make a living

Apparently, the perception of minimum income required for making a living is closely correlated to a nation’s gross domestic product. If we compare the graph above with Figure 7, the close interaction between the two variables is clear. But at the same time, people’s expectations play a role as well: the meaning of the expression “make a living” varies in content and quality according to social environment, aspirations, and reference groups.



Looking at per capita minimum income required to make a living, Cyprus stands out among the thirteen countries of the Candidate Region, with people claiming a need of at least 535 Euros a month to survive. This figure is close to three times as high as the average for the

whole region, which is little less than 200 Euros a month. Above this average we find five countries besides Cyprus; Slovenia (334 €), then Malta (245 €), Poland (237 €), Hungary (232 €), and Turkey (203 €). On the other hand, Bulgarians claimed the ability to survive with income levels as low as 100 Euros per head, and Romanians claim that one can get by with just a bit more (114 €).

Looking at crude figures of minimum household income required to make a living, we find that households in Turkey and Cyprus need proportionally more money than any other country, due to the larger average household size. This is significant, because the number of earners does not grow in direct ratio with household size; in other words, Turkish and Cypriot earners need to have relatively higher salaries – compared to the per capita minimum subsistence income -- to provide a living for all members of the household. (See Table 7.1a and Table 7.1b in Annex)

People with incomes below the perceived subsistence level

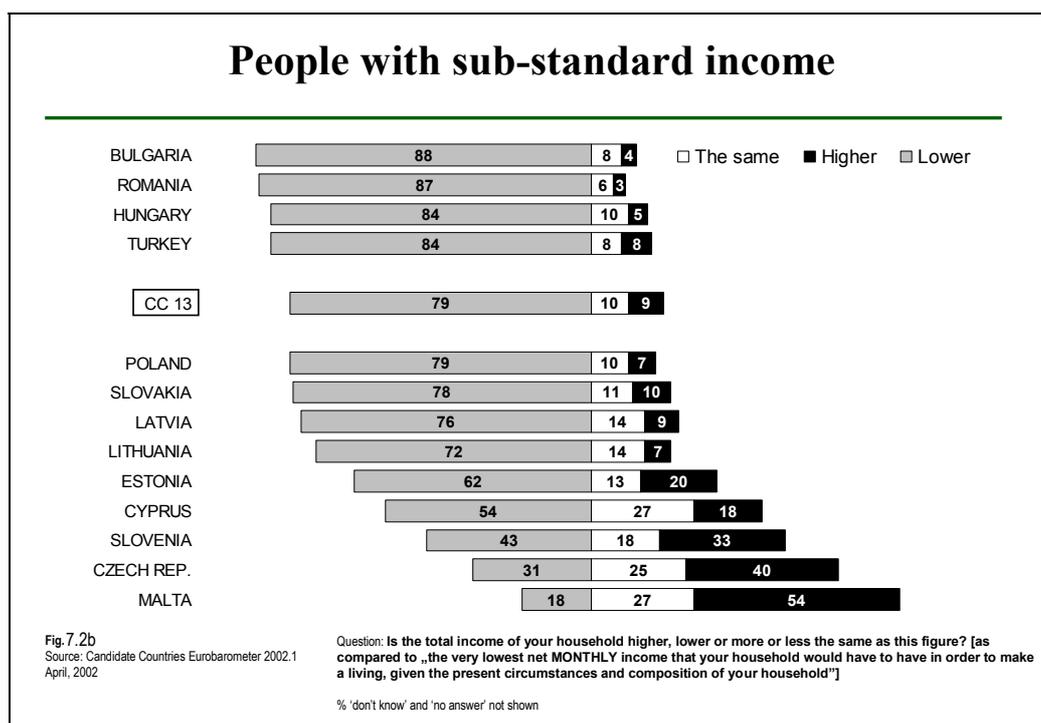
The vast majority of people in the Candidate Countries (79%) say they have less money than the necessary minimum to make a living. Only about one in five European citizen share this view (22%)³¹.

There is a widely shared view in most of the countries in the region that everybody is poor. Indeed, 74% of those who said they have an average standard of living claim that there is less money at their disposal than the very minimum needed to survive. (41% of those who say that their standard of living exceeds the average also indicate that they have less income compared to what they think would be necessary to “make a living”). These results suggest that being “poor”, or at least deprived, has become a norm in many of the region’s countries.

For the record: 44% of those who admitted they could easily get by with their current income levels (every fifth person in the region – see next subchapter or Table 7.3a and 7.3b in the Annex), also said they had less income than the required minimum for subsistence. (See previous subchapter)

Furthermore, there is no significant correlation between the responses given to this question and actual solvency problems of the households.

³¹ EB56.1, Autumn 2001



As shown in Figure 7.2b, almost 9 in 10 people in Bulgaria claim they have less income than what they think is the very minimum needed to make a living in their present circumstances. Romania follows closely with 87%, and Hungary, with 84%, has the third highest ratio of those who claim to live below subsistence levels. It is important to reiterate that the meaning of the expression “make a living” varies in content and quality according to social environment, aspirations, and reference groups of people. Hungarians, who live in the fifth richest country of the region, are at the same time the third most likely to think they live below subsistence levels. Much more so than Latvians or Lithuanians, who live in countries which produce about half of the economic output of Hungary – and have wage levels that show a comparable difference.

There are few countries, however, which do not experience the phenomenon we talk about, and these are some of the wealthiest countries in the Candidate Region. For example, the majority of Maltese (54%) think they earn more than their perceived subsistence level, and 4 in 10 people in the Czech Republic, and one-third in Slovenia share this opinion. (See Table 7.2a and Table 7.2b in Annex)

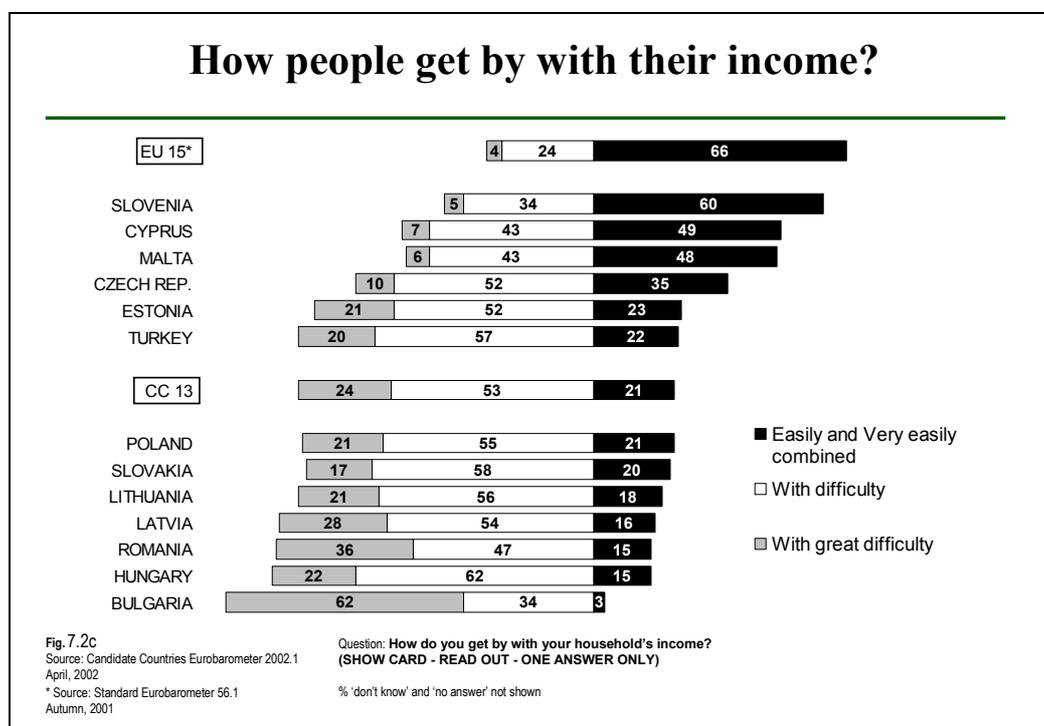
A better indicator for poverty: how can people get by with their current income?

As we saw, subjective evaluations of below-subsistence levels of income do not work well as poverty indicators. We found, however, another variable more closely correlating with current solvency problems of households³². The question asked was: “How do you get by with your household’s income?”, and we offered the following possible answers: “very easily”, “easily”, “with difficulty”, and “with great difficulty”.

On the CC-13 level, one in five people says he or she can get by easily or very easily with his or her current income (21%) while two-thirds of respondents in the EU report the same thing.

³² There is a strong, .416 correlation between the level of difficulty of getting by with current income and the occurrence of any form of solvency problem (any problems with paying for food, utility, rent or mortgage, other loans). The correlation is significant at the 0.001 level.

More than half (53%) of the population of the Candidate Countries have difficulties, and a further 24% have great difficulties in managing their lives at the current levels of income. In the current Member States only 4% claim that they face great difficulties to get by with their incomes.



Slovenians are by far the most likely to think that they can easily get by with current levels of income (60%), followed by Cypriots and Maltese (48% both). Other countries above the CC-13 average are the Czech Republic (35%), Estonia (23%), and Turkey (22%). In Bulgaria, only three percent of the respondents believe that they can easily get by with their incomes. In Hungary and Romania 15%, Latvia 16%, Lithuania 18% and Slovakia 20% of the population aged 15 or above say they can easily get by with their income. (Check Table 7.3a and Table 7.3b in Annex)

Table 7.2a Cross tabulation between the level of difficulty of getting by with current income, and forms and levels of solvency problems
(%, on CC-13 level)

	Can get by with great difficulty			
	Paying the rent or mortgage	Paying utility bills	Paying for food	Repaying loans (other than for housing)
No problem	55	30	25	48
Some problems	24	38	44	24
Serious problems	21	32	31	28
Total	100	100	100	100

	Can get by with difficulty			
	Paying the rent or mortgage	Paying utility bills	Paying for food	Repaying loans (other than for housing)
No problem	70	54	56	62
Some problems	22	35	35	26
Serious problems	8	11	9	12
Total	100	100	100	100

As Table 7.2 shows, the likelihood of having serious solvency problems is associated with “great difficulties” at getting by with current income levels. All multivariate analyses suggest that the best proxy indicator for poverty, as below-subsistence living, is the “with great difficulty” response to this question. On the other hand, poverty is not an objective term, as illustrated by various findings above. A great number of people, who seem to have an income clearly above what is needed for their physical subsistence, consider themselves deprived. We will analyse what strategies these people have to utilise in their subjective or objective deprivation in the next sub-chapter.

Looking at the ratios of those having income levels that are barely enough for them to survive, six in ten of the Bulgarian respondents indicate that they can get by with their incomes only with great difficulty (62%), followed by Romania (36%), Latvia (28%), Hungary (22%), Lithuania, Poland, and Estonia (all 21%). One in five Turkish respondents (20%) indicated they were having great difficulties, and 17% of Slovaks face a similar problem. Only 1 in 10 people in the Czech Republic has serious difficulties getting by with their income, and 7% of Cypriots, 6% of Maltese and only 5% of Slovenians reported the same level of difficulty.

Demographic analyses show little if any difference between males and females: 24% of men and 25% of women report to have great difficulties getting by with their current levels of income. Those aged between 40-54 years are the most likely to have serious difficulties (30%), followed by the oldest age group (55 years or older: 28%), and the young adults (25-39 years of age: 23%). The youngest -- those aged between 15 and 24 years -- are the least likely to feel they have great difficulties getting by with their income (16%).

Analyses of the economic activity scale show a gap of 33 percentage points between managers (8%) and unemployed persons (41%). 31% of retired people regard their income levels as very difficult to get by with. The level of urbanization has a slight positive effect on how easily people can get by with their income: 27% report great difficulties in the rural areas, while 22% report a similar level of difficulty in small towns and large cities.

Education has a more definite effect on the likelihood of having serious problems with managing life at current income levels: 29% of those who left school before 16 years of age claim to have great difficulties, as opposed to 18% who remained in school until at least the age of 20. People still studying are the least likely to have great difficulties getting by with their income (9%). (For details see Table 7.3a and Table 7.3b in the Annex)

Time perspective of financial difficulties

From the respondents who indicated having difficulties in getting by with current income levels, we asked the following question: *How long has your household been in this financial situation?* On the average, 11% living in the Candidate Region report that a recent change led to the current unsatisfactory situation that they are facing now. 43% claim that the difficult situation has persisted for the past 2-5 years, 19% date the beginning at 6-10 years ago, and only a little more than one in five (22%) indicate that their personal financial problems with started more than a decade ago.

Table 7.2b Duration of unsatisfactory financial situation
(% of those who face difficulties in getting by with their income, by country, 'don't know' responses not shown)

	1 year or less	2-5 years	6-10 years	Over 10 years
CC 13	11	45	19	22
BULGARIA	11	49	24	16
CYPRUS	16	54	14	15
CZECH REP.	16	47	19	14
ESTONIA	12	50	23	13
HUNGARY	8	42	21	28
LATVIA	12	42	26	17
LITHUANIA	12	53	20	12
MALTA	11	59	12	16
POLAND	11	49	19	16
ROMANIA	6	39	24	27
SLOVAKIA	14	51	17	14
SLOVENIA	8	45	17	24
TURKEY	12	45	15	27

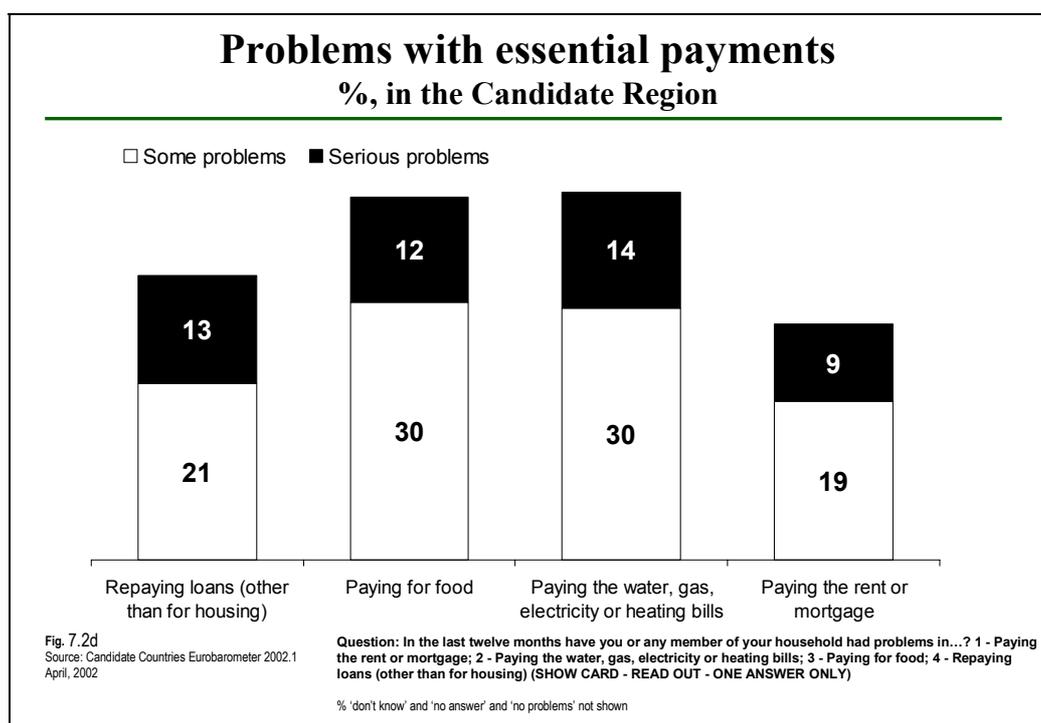
As the table above shows, individual countries show great variation in this respect. The generalization of the results is even more difficult, since the transitions from planned economy to free market economies followed different models, took different shapes, and had different paces in each affected country. These transformations almost inevitably brought about serious measures to achieve macroeconomic equilibrium, which usually included serious cuts in wages and pensions. This is one factor that must be considered in the above results. The other important factor is the varying levels of income and living standards across the region ten or twelve years ago. Generally, however, most people in ten of the thirteen Candidate Countries date the beginning of their financial problems to the period 2-5 years ago; only Hungarians, Romanians, and Latvians indicate that their current situation has persisted on a longer term.

In two countries where people regard themselves as having relatively more wealth, the ratio of recent deterioration of financial situation is higher than average; 16% of Cypriots and Czechs report unsatisfactory changes in the past year that have led to difficulties in getting by with current income levels. In Romania, which has recently shown promising signs of sustained and significant growth only 6% of those living under difficult financial circumstances claimed that their problems started recently. This ratio is relatively low in Hungary and Slovenia as well (8% both). In Hungary, 28% claim that they have been living under difficult circumstances for more than a decade now. In Romania, this ratio was almost as high, at 27%. (See also Table 7.4 in Annex)

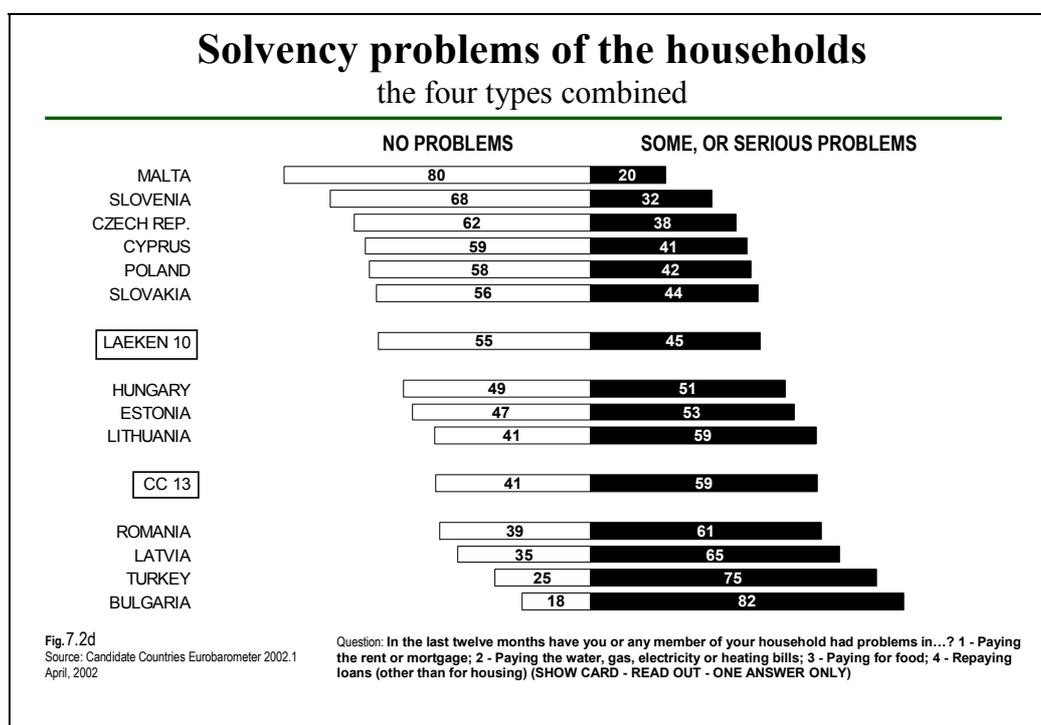
Solvency problems of the households

We have referred to this question previously, when we tested interaction between poverty indicators. We asked our respondents: “*In the last twelve months have you or any member of your household had problems in...? 1 - Paying the rent or mortgage; 2 - Paying the water, gas, electricity or heating bills; 3 - Paying for food; 4 - Repaying loans (other than for housing)*”. The respondents could choose among three possible response categories: “no problems”, “some problems”; and “serious problems”. This question attempts to explore the extent to which people have difficulties sustaining their lives due to income problems.

Most people had problems with paying utility bills (30% slight problems, 14% serious problems), and paying for food (30% slight problems, 12% serious problems). Renting a home (or paying the instalments of mortgage) and paying back other loans were less of a problem for the citizens in the Candidate Countries.



Combining all four types of problems, we find that the majority (59%) of all people aged 15 and older living in the Candidate Region faced at least slight problems of solvency during the past twelve months. The same ratio in the Laeken-10 group is 45%.



Country-by-country analyses show that solvency problems are an exception in Malta, where one in five people faced difficulties in making their basic payments. 32% of Slovenians and 38% of the Czechs had problems with essential payments, and 68% and 62% respectively did not face such difficulties. In contrast, more than 8 in 10 people in Bulgaria (82%) reported solvency problems, followed by Turkey (75%), Latvia (65%), and Romania (61%). Most Hungarians (51%), Estonians (53%), and Lithuanians (59%) also had slight or serious problems paying for food, residence, or instalments.

Table 7.2c Solvency problems
(%, by demographics)

Male	59	Self-employed	59
Female	60	Managers	37
AGE: 15-24 years	57	Other white collars	52
AGE: 25-39 years	63	Manual workers	61
AGE: 40-54 years	63	House Persons	72
AGE: 55+ years	54	Unemployed	75
EDU: up to 15 years	68	Retired	55
EDU: 16-19 years	58	Rural area or village	62
EDU: 20+ years	48	Small or middle sized town	55
EDU: still studying	46	Large town	61

Demographic analyses reveal no significant difference between men and women in this respect. (Table 7.2c) Interestingly, the oldest age group is the least likely to have had

difficulties with payments in the past year, while young adults and middle-aged persons are more likely to report problems concerning paying their food or house bills (63%). Analyses of the economic activity scale indicate a huge gap between managers and unemployed persons, who are almost twice as likely to have solvency problems (managers: 37%, the unemployed: 75%). Homemakers are also very likely to have faced similar difficulties in the past twelve months. People living in small towns are the least likely to have solvency problems (55%), while the residents of rural areas (62%) and large cities (61%) are equally affected. (For details see Table 7.5 in Annex)

7.3 Improvement of standard of living

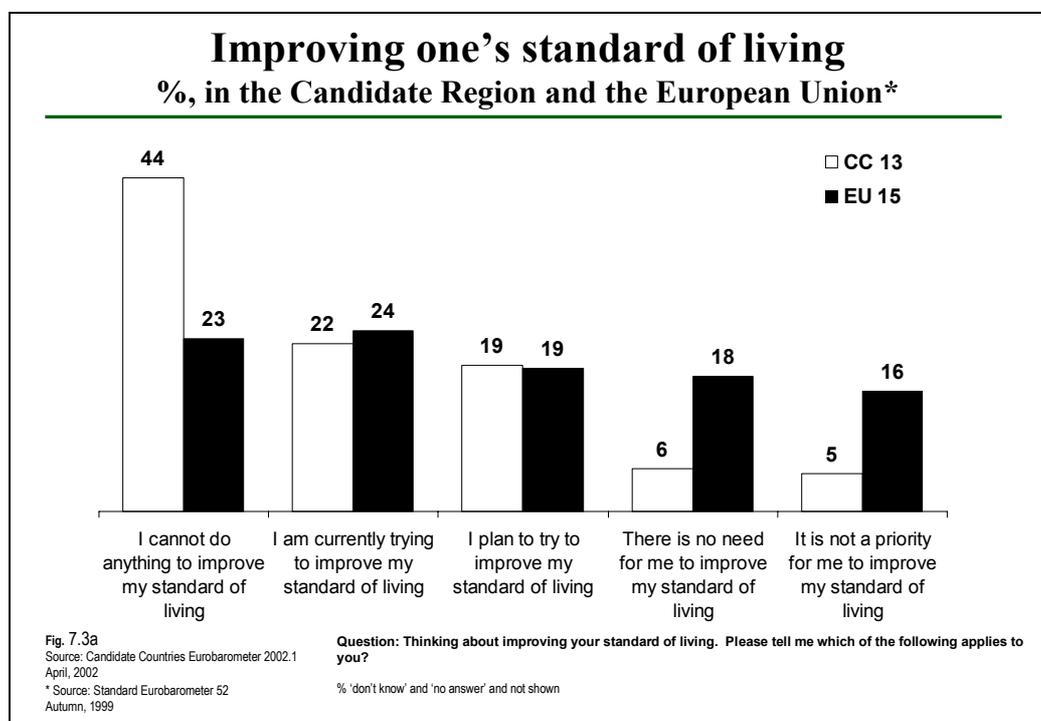
After digesting the enormous levels of dissatisfaction with incomes and standard of living, we might expect that citizens in the Candidate Countries are striving bitterly to improve both of these elements in their lives. This is partly true: we found few if any people in the region who said that the improvement of their standard of living is not a priority or necessity. However, many of those who live in the Candidate Region think they are trapped in their current standard of living, and feel that they themselves cannot do anything about it. Consequently, these people expect their government to help, and will surely hope for an effective intervention by the European Union after the accession of their countries.

Intentions to improve the standard of living

We asked our respondents the following question: “When thinking about improving your standard of living. Please tell me which of the following applies to you?”. The response categories were:

- I am currently trying to improve my standard of living
- I plan to try to improve my standard of living
- I cannot do anything to improve my standard of living
- It is not a priority for me to improve my standard of living
- There is no need for me to improve my standard of living

While almost a quarter of European Union citizens are most likely trying to do something in order to improve their standard of living (24%)³³, in the Candidate Region the most populous group are those who believe they cannot do anything to improve their living standard (44%). Compared to the EU, a little less among those who live in the Candidate Countries are trying to improve their standard of living (22%). We observe a significant difference in the proportion of those who think improving their living standard is not a priority (EU-15: 16%, CC-13: 5%), and those who simply do not regard it as necessary (EU-15: 18%, CC-13: 5%). (see Figure 7.3a)



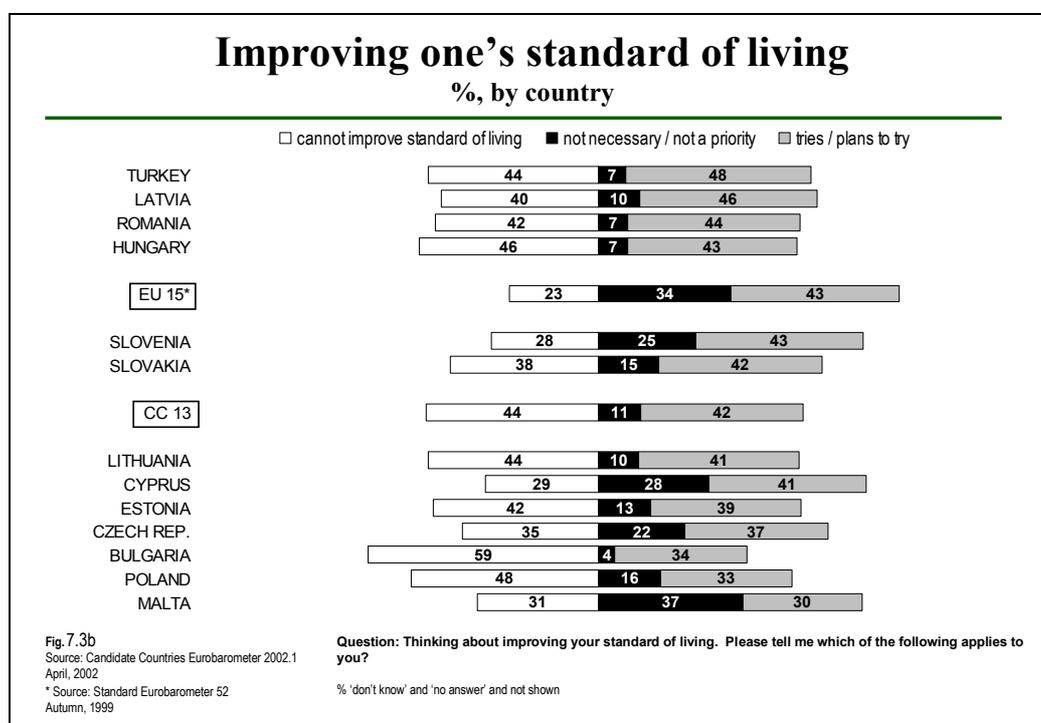
³³ EB52, Autumn 1999

Table 7.3 shows that the poor are the most likely to think that improving their living standard is rather impossible -- or at least that they cannot do anything about it (57%). At the same time, in the groups with income levels ensuring a comfortable life, 1 in 4 (26%) of those who can get by with their income easily and 1 in 5 (20%) of those who can get by with their income very easily, people also consider themselves equally unable to effect their standard of living. For these people, improving their living standard is much less likely a priority or a need compared to the groups who face larger financial difficulties. Those who say they get along very easily are as likely to say that improving their living standard is not a necessity or a priority as is the average citizen of the European Union (35% vs. 34%).

Table 7.3 Cross tabulation between the level of difficulty of getting by with current income, and intentions to improve standard of living
(%, on CC-13 level)

Ease of getting by with current income	Improvement of living standard		
	tries + plans to improve	no need + not a priority	can't improve
with great difficulty	36	4	57
with difficulty	44	7	47
easily	43	28	26
very easily	39	35	20

But the highest ratio of those who are currently trying to improve their living standard is found in the group who say they face difficulties -- but not *great* difficulties -- in getting by with their incomes (44%).



The graph above shows that there are four countries where a larger proportion of people try or plan to try to improve their standard of living than in the European Union: Turkey (48%), Latvia (46%), Romania (44%), and Hungary (43%).

At the bottom of the scale we find Malta, with only 3 in 10 people (30%) drawing up plans or taking actions in order to improve their standard of living. Poland (33%), and Bulgaria (34%) have similar ratios.

Interestingly, the motivations are very different in the three countries. While many Maltese do not think they need to improve their standard of living, most of the Bulgarians think they cannot do anything about it. Poland is somewhere in between the other two, but we find the second highest proportion of those who think they cannot influence their standard of living in this country (48%). The number of Hungarians who feel this way is also high (46%).

On the other hand, the highest proportion of those who do not find it necessary to improve their standard of living are in the aforementioned Malta (37%), Cyprus (28%), Slovenia (25%), and the Czech Republic (22%). (For more country-by-country numbers see Table 7.8a in Annex)

Demographic analyses reveal that men are more likely to plan or actually do something to improve their living standard than women (tries: 26% vs. 19%, plans: 22% vs. 17%). Women are more likely to feel trapped in their situation; 50% claim they cannot do anything to improve their standard of living (vs. 39% of men). In the different age groups those who are between 25 and 39 are the most likely to do something to improve their living standard (32%), and those aged 55 years or older are the least likely to do so (7%). The latter age group rarely have plans to improve their standard of living (5%), while the young (15-24 years of age) are the most likely to plan something in this vein (31%). Respondents belonging to the oldest age group are the most likely to think that there is no hope: exactly two-thirds of them claim they cannot do anything to improve their standard of living, while only 30% of the youngest group share this opinion.

Size of locality seems to make little if any difference in this respect. Education does: the most educated persons are the most likely to be currently trying to improve their living standard (28%), although a third of them (34%) claimed they cannot make a difference. The same numbers among those who left the school before the age of 16 are 19% and 55%. Analyses of the economic activity scale show that self-employed persons, unemployed persons, and managers are similarly likely to take actions in order to improve their standard of living (33%); on the other hand, barely any retired people take steps to change their situation (7%). They feel they cannot do anything that would help to improve their standard of living (68%); the same is true only for 24% of managers. (For more demographic breakdowns see Table 7.8b in Annex)

The next section looks at what strategies people use in order to try to improve their standard of living.

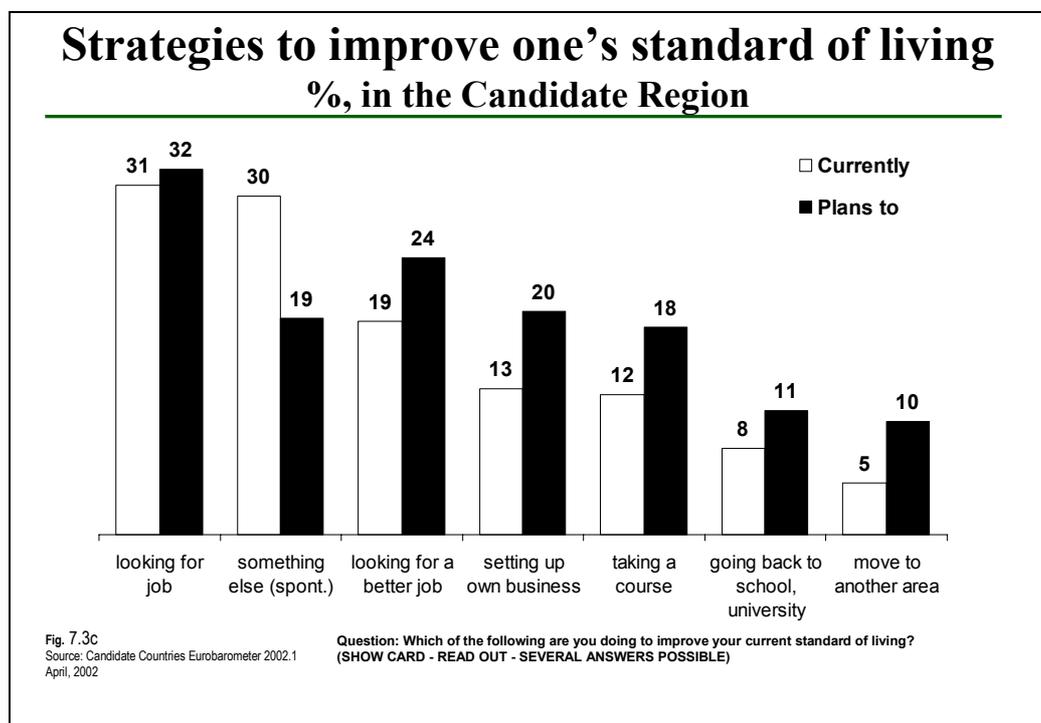
Strategies to achieve the goal of improving the standard of living

We asked the following question of those respondents who either indicated that they are currently doing something to improve their standard of living or claimed that they are planning to do so:

“Which of the following are you doing to improve your current standard of living?” We presented them a card with the following possibilities (if respondent only “planned” to improve living standard than we formulated accordingly):

- *I had no job and I have just found one / I have no job I am looking for one*
- *I have just found a better job / I am looking for a better job*
- *I have just moved to another area / I am going to move to another area*
- *I have just gone back to school, university / I am going back to school, university*
- *I am taking a training course / I am going to take a training course*
- *I am setting up my own business / I am going to set up my own business*
- *I am doing something else / I am going to do something else (spontaneous)*

Since the answer patterns of those who are just planning and those who are currently trying to improve their situation are too similar, both in the EU and on CC level, we do not discuss current and planned actions separately.



It seems that finding a job is the most common strategy of those who think they can improve their standard of living, and indeed, 19% of such people in the Candidate Region are unemployed. This strategy came third in the European Union. In the Member States, finding a *better* job was the top priority of those who were concerned about improving their living standard³⁴, while this approach was the third most likely in the Candidate Countries. Both in the EU and in the CC-13 group, individual strategies including non-listed actions were the second most frequently mentioned (this category was spontaneous and was not among our the options offered the respondents). In both the Candidate Region and in the EU, few people consider going back to school in order improve their living standard. Taking individual courses is considered as a strategy that might more successfully improve the standard of living, but more people plan to utilize their current skills for finding a -- better -- job.

The main difference in this respect between European citizens and people living in the Candidate Region is that Europeans are more likely to consider moving to another area as a strategy to increase their living standard, while people in the Candidate Countries are less likely to move, they rather set up or plan to set up their own business. (For details check Table 7.9 and Table 7.10 in Annex)

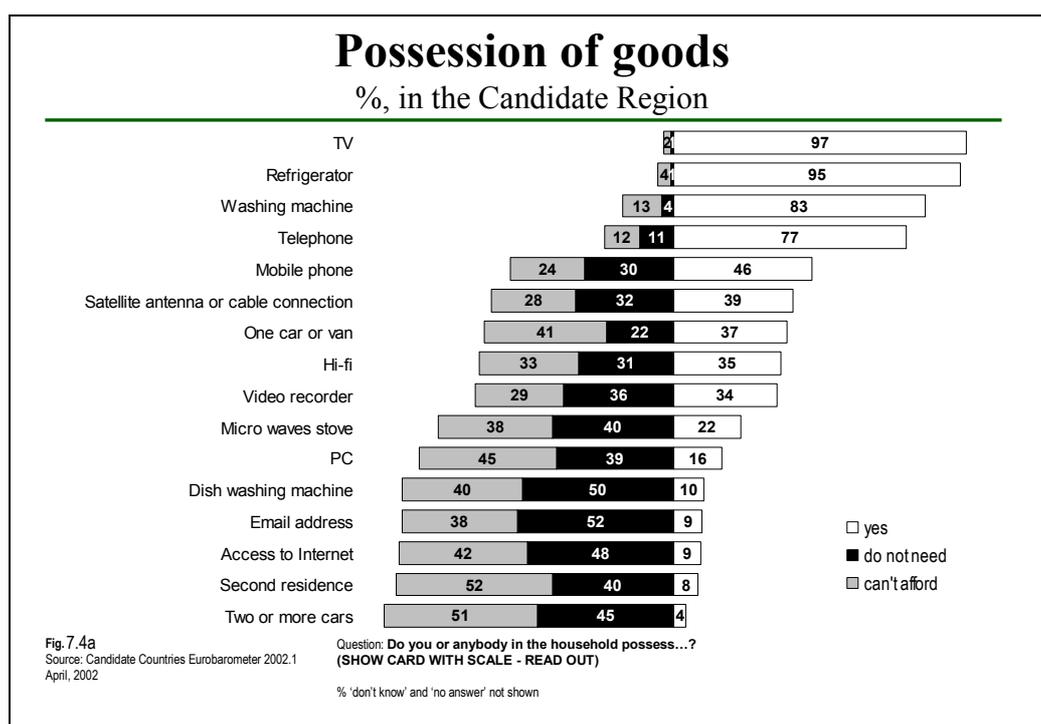
³⁴ EB52, Autumn 1999

7.4 Commodities

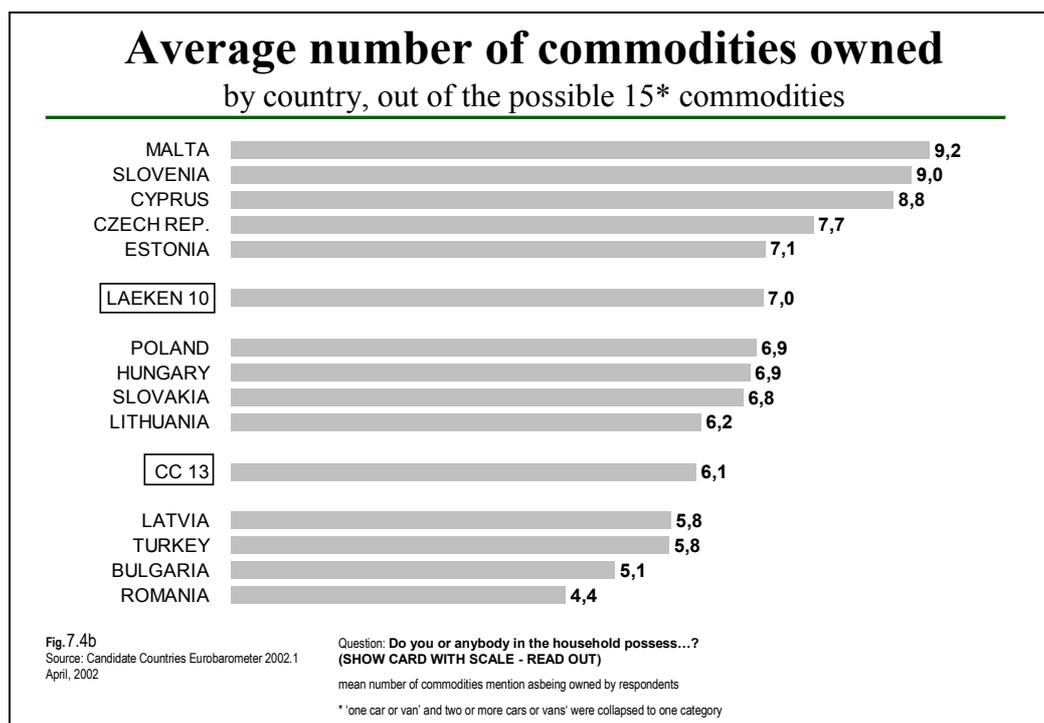
Standard of living can be measured by various proxy indicators. One of these is the possession of several goods in the family – one of the methods ESOMAR is suggesting for assessment of the consumer potential of a person or a household. With the following question, we investigated the average household inventory in the Candidate Region: *Do you or anybody in the household possess...?*

- TV
- Video recorder
- Satellite antenna or cable connection
- Telephone
- Mobile phone
- Refrigerator
- Washing machine
- Dish washing machine
- Micro waves stove
- Hi-fi
- One car or van
- Two or more cars
- PC
- Access to Internet
- Email address
- Second residence

Candidate Countries Eurobarometer found that the most common consumer goods in the region are a colour television, an automatic washing machine, a telephone, a mobile phone, satellite or cable TV, hi-fi equipment, a car, and a video recorder. (Figure 7.4a) It is very rare that a household owns more than one car, or a second home. 16% have a PC in their household, and 9% have Internet access at home.



Looking at Figure 7.4b, the size of the inventories seems to reflect the actual wealth of these societies (for detailed information about gross domestic product in Candidate Countries, see the opening paragraphs of this Chapter). On the average, a citizen of the Candidate Region possesses 6.1 of the 15 possible commodities³⁵, and in the Laeken-10 countries citizens have on average half of them. Three countries emerge as the wealthiest: Malta (9.2), Slovenia (9.0), and Cyprus (8.8). At the bottom end of this ranking, we find that Romanians have the fewest of the listed commodities (4.4). Bulgaria (5.1) is well below the Candidate Region average as well. Table 11 in the Annex shows the possession levels of each commodity country-by-country.



Demographic analyses (Table 7.4 below) show no significant difference between the two genders: both men and women possess the same number of goods out of the 15 we listed. It is not a surprise that the youngest age group is the least likely to have many of these commodities (they only have six out of the listed 15) while those aged between 25 and 39 years have the most (7).

Education level is a direct predictor of the number of commodities a household has; while those who completed education at the age of 15 or younger have less than one third of the listed goods (4.8), those who did not leave school before the age of 20 have an average of 6.3 items. Those who are still studying are the owners of most goods (7.7) -- on the household level. People living in rural areas are more poorly equipped (5.2) than those who live in large cities (7.0). Analyses of the economic activity scale show that managers (8.9) and white collar workers in lower levels (7.9) possess the most of the listed goods, while retired people have only 4.8 of the 15 items.

³⁵ The original list has 16 items, but for this analysis we treated the two options for car-ownership (one car, 2 or more cars) as single item

Table 7.4 Average number of commodities owned
(%, by demographics)

Male	6,1	Self-employed	6,8
Female	6,2	Managers	8,9
AGE: 15-24 years	7,0	Other white collars	7,9
AGE: 25-39 years	6,5	Manual workers	6,3
AGE: 40-54 years	6,3	House Persons	5,4
AGE: 55+ years	4,8	Unemployed	5,2
EDU: up to 15 years	4,8	Retired	4,8
EDU: 16-19 years	4,9	Rural area or village	5,2
EDU: 20+ years	6,3	Small or middle sized town	6,6
EDU: still studying	7,7	Large town	7,0

8. Social protection and exclusion

The term 'social exclusion' is often a euphemism for poverty. As we will see, in the Candidate Region at least, the association between levels of social exclusion – as we measure it – and income poverty is weak and mixed. Nevertheless, those who indicate they can get by with their incomes only with great difficulties are more likely to have a looser connection to the surrounding society than any other group.

In the followings we will profile different forms and levels of social exclusion in the societies of the Candidate Countries. The Candidate Countries Eurobarometer asked several questions about the strength of the respondents' social support networks, and their self-evaluation in many respects of their social inclusion. We then investigated people's opinions about the reasons for social exclusion, and their approaches to its elimination.

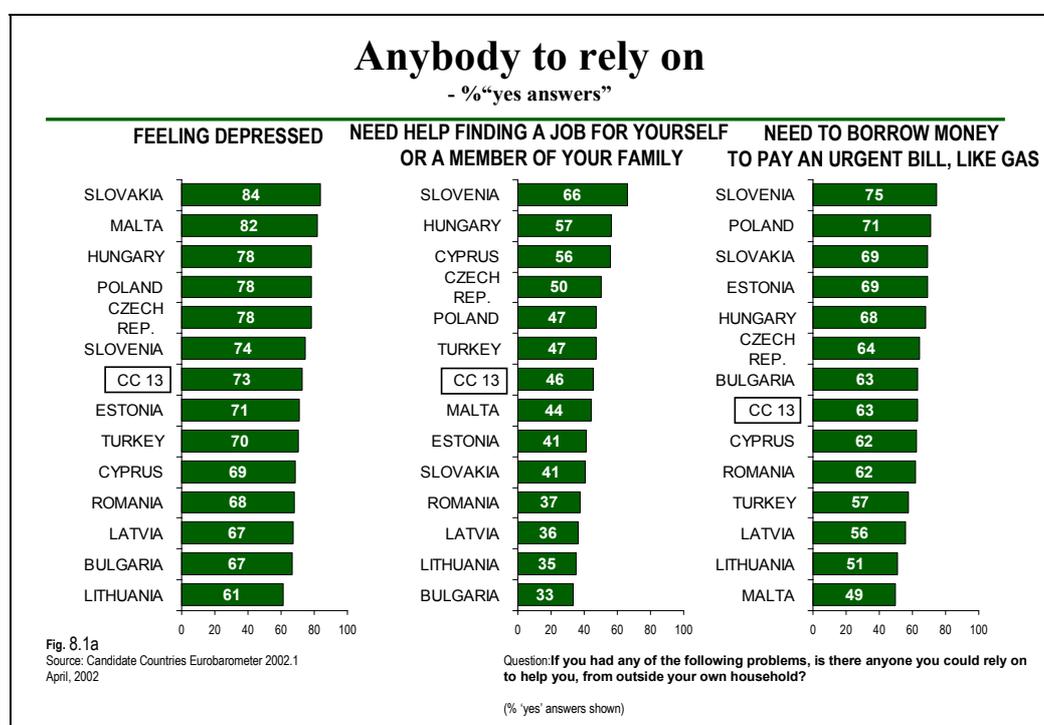
8.1 Levels of social exclusion in the Candidate Region

We attempted to use two proxy measures for social inclusion and exclusion in the Candidate Countries Eurobarometer.

Strength of social support networks

First we asked our respondents about the strength of their social support networks with the following question: "If you had any of the following problems, is there anyone you could rely on to help you, from outside your own household?"

- If you were feeling depressed
- If you needed help finding a job for yourself or a member of your family
- If you needed to borrow money to pay an urgent bill, like electricity, gas, rent or mortgage"



The strength of social support networks in each of the Candidate Countries is shown in Figure 8.1a. (See also Annex Table 8.1) Clearly, social environment can provide the best help for someone facing psychological problems. Almost three-quarters of those who live in the

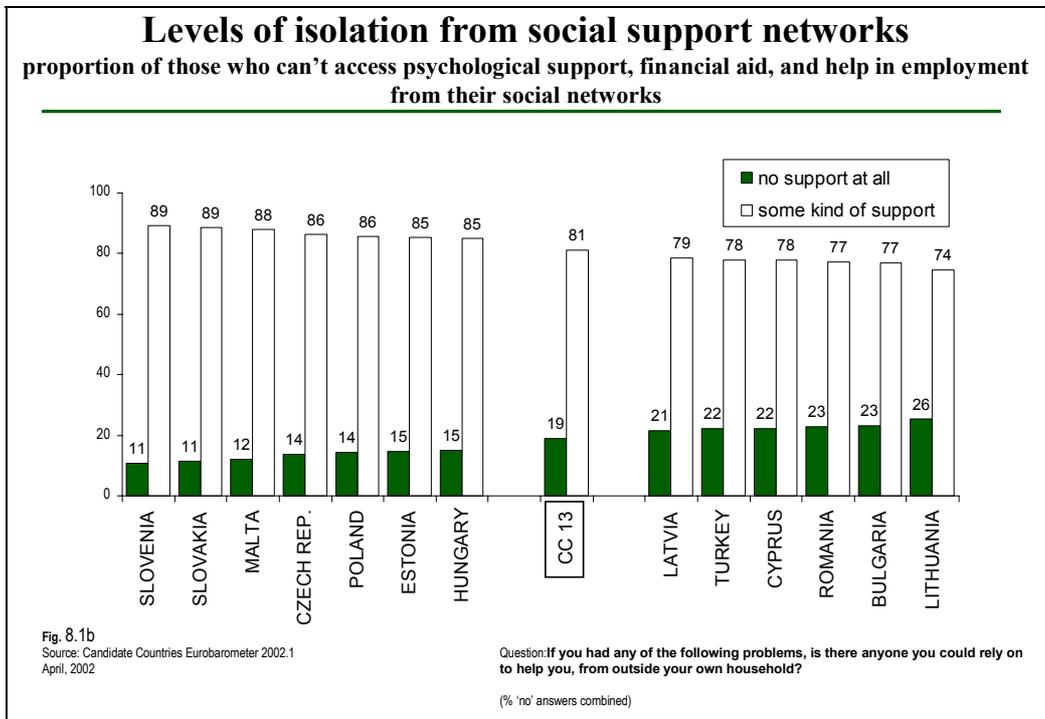
Candidate Region (73%) feel that there is someone outside of their household that they can rely on if they feel depressed. A smaller proportion (63%) claim that they could turn to somebody not living with them if they faced problems in payment of an urgent bill. And a little less than half (46%) indicate they could turn to someone if they or their family members were looking for a job.

Only Slovenes think that it would be easier to get urgent financial help than psychological support from a friend or a relative not living with them, while everywhere else the hierarchy follows what we have described for the average of the region.

Slovenian respondents are the most likely to claim that they have an effective 'liquidity' network that helps to fill in the financial gaps in emergencies (75%), followed by Polish (71%), and Slovak respondents (69%). Also, the Slovenes are the most likely to have friends who can help them finding jobs (66%), followed by Hungarians (57%), and Cypriots (56%). In terms of psychological support – or just friendship –, Slovakian citizens are in the best situation: 84% of them have a friend or relative not living with them who can provide support if they feel depressed. In this ranking, Malta comes second (82%), and Hungary third (78%).

At the same time, less than two-thirds of the people in Latvia (67%), Bulgaria (67%), and Lithuania (61%) say there is somebody they could rely on if they were depressed. Respondents from these three countries are also the least likely to have somebody who could help them or their family members find a job. If we look at the bottom of the financial-help ranking, we find that the Maltese are the least likely to have somebody who would lend them money if needed (49%), followed by Lithuanians (51%) and Latvians (56%).

Now let us take a look at how these three aspects sum up; that is, what is the ratio of those who are isolated from each of the three forms of support provided by their social networks. This is a possible and indeed a very plausible way to define social exclusion.



We find that one in five people in the Candidate Region is isolated from the kind of help we investigated in our survey. This is the least so in Slovenia and Slovakia, where only 11% of the respondents claimed to not have friends who could support them emotionally, financially, or in finding a job. Malta came third: it seems Maltese provide non-financial help to friends

much more easily. The Czech, Polish, Estonian, and Hungarian respondents are more likely to have social networks they can rely on than the average of the region. At the same time, 1 in 4 Lithuanians indicates he or she has nobody to turn to if any of the problems occur, and 23% of Romanians and Bulgarians face the same problem. Interestingly – at least for those who argue that levels of social exclusion are the function of poverty in a society – Cyprus is below the average in this respect, as are Turkey and Latvia.

Correlation analysis proves that there is a very weak link between financial situation and isolation from support networks: in the Candidate Countries we have found a statistically significant, only .09 'strong' positive correlation between the two variables.

Demographic analyses show that social isolation occurs more likely among men than women (20% vs. 18%), and its likelihood grows with age: the youngest age group reported a 14% 'level of isolation', while exactly one quarter of the oldest group face the same problem. We discovered a very strong tie with education: 25% of those who left school at the age of 15 or earlier report that there is nobody to rely on if any of the three problems occur, while only 11% of the highly educated group face similar difficulties. What we have found in analysing settlement size goes against conventional wisdom. One would think that rural communities provide more help to their members, but apparently, those who lack functioning social support networks live in the highest proportions in rural areas (23%), and those residing in large cities are the least likely to have such problems (15%).

Table 8.1a Levels of isolation from social support networks
- proportion of those who can't access psychological support, financial aid,
and help in employment from their social networks -
(%, by demographics)

Male	20	Self-employed	18
Female	18	Managers	10
AGE: 15-24 years	14	Other white collars	11
AGE: 25-39 years	18	Manual workers	18
AGE: 40-54 years	19	House Persons	24
AGE: 55+ years	24	Unemployed	25
EDU: up to 15 years	25	Retired	22
EDU: 16-19 years	17	Rural area or village	23
EDU: 20+ years	11	Small or middle sized town	18
EDU: still studying	8	Large town	15

Analyses of the economic activity scale reveals that the highest levels of isolation can be found among unemployed persons (25%), closely followed by house persons (24%) and those who are retired (22%). In contrast we find relatively low levels of isolation among managers (10%), and other white collar workers (11%).

Dimensions of social exclusion

We asked our respondents if they agree or disagree with the following statements (they could express their level of agreement on a five-point scale, with 'strongly disagree' and 'strongly agree' being the extremes; for detailed country-by-country results look up Annex Table 8.2):

- *I have felt lonely at some time during the last two weeks.*
- *I don't feel that the value of what I do is recognised by the people I meet.*
- *It's difficult to have close friends in the area in which I live.*
- *I feel left out of society.*
- *I feel left out of my family.*
- *I don't feel that I have the chance to play a useful part in society.*
- *Some people look down on me because of my income or job situation.*
- *I feel that there is a risk that I could fall into poverty.*
- *I feel that there is a risk that I could never get out of poverty.*
- *The area in which I live has buildings in a bad state of repair.*
- *There is a lot of unemployment in the area in which I live.*
- *There are problems of drug abuse in the area in which I live.*
- *The area in which I live has a lot of vandalism and theft.*
- *There is a lot of violence in the area in which I live.*
- *The area in which I live has not got a good reputation.*

Each of these statements relate to the concept of social exclusion. Some of them relate to spatial segregation (living in bad neighbourhoods), a few are related to social isolation, some are in connection with the person's participation and prestige in society, and some simply connect to poverty. These issues probably seem to be not so closely related to each other, but we can empirically prove that each of these attributes correlates with any other one significantly and positively; in other words, they are all closely inter-related. And the hidden factor behind these dimensions is the level of social inclusion or exclusion.

The following graph shows which dimensions of social exclusion are the most common in the Candidate Region. We also computed and included in the graph the ratio of those who chose to agree or strongly agree with 8 of the 15 attributes. We call these people *socially excluded*. Standardized canonical discriminant function coefficients³⁶ show that the agreement to the following items predict inclusion in this group the most: *The area in which I live has not got a good reputation* (0.276), *There is a lot of violence in the area in which I live* (0.273), *I don't feel that the value of what I do is recognised by the people I meet* (0.264), *I feel that there is a risk that I could never get out of poverty* (0.230), and *Some people look down on me because of my income or job situation* (0.207).

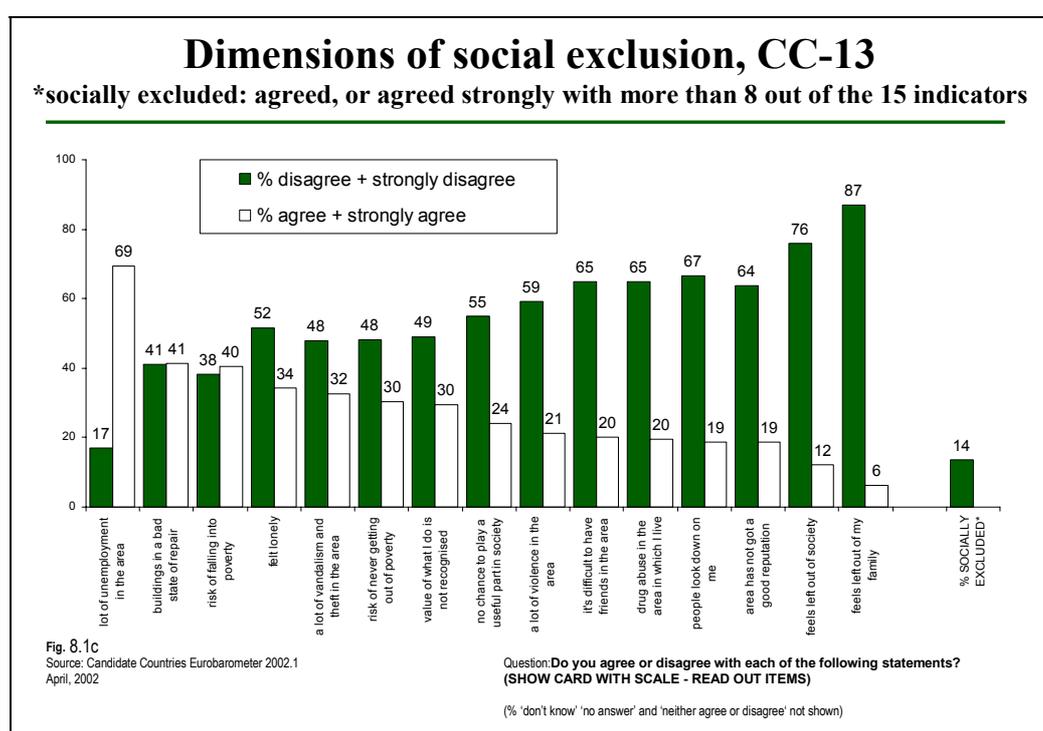
Generally, we find that 14% of the people living in the Candidate Countries are socially excluded using this definition. We might remember that a somewhat higher percentage (19%) was determined as 'isolated' or cut-off from social support networks in the previous subchapter. In fact, we find a statistically significant, but rather weak correlation between the belonging to the two groups, at a level of .133.

Now, let us look at the prevalence of various dimensions of social exclusion in the Candidate Region. More than two thirds of the respondents of Candidate Countries Eurobarometer (69%) agree that they are living in an area where unemployment is high. This can mean two things: either unemployment levels are considered to be very high everywhere or spatial segregation is not very prevalent in the Candidate Region. Closer examination of the responses reveals that both are probably true (only 17% of the respondents disagreed). At the same time, forty-one percent of our respondents agreed that they are living in a

³⁶ Discriminant analysis is used for building a predictive model of group membership based on observed characteristics of each case. The procedure generates a discriminant function based on linear combinations of the predictor variables that provide the best discrimination between the groups.

neighbourhood where most of the buildings are in bad state of repair, which probably supports the relative lack of spatial segregation theory as well. Although, one of the most important problems in the post-socialist societies that accumulated over the decades is that of a disintegrating infrastructure, and as a consequence, whole cities, or even countries are still in “a bad state of repair”. The third most widely shared concern was the fear of falling into poverty (40% agree) – and 30% agrees that there is a risk that they might never get out of poverty. Thirty-four percent agreed that they have felt lonely, which again shows an insufficiency of social networks in the societies of the Candidate Region. Almost one third (32%) complained about a lot of vandalism and theft in the area where they live. 3 in 10 respondents think that society – or the people they meet – does not recognise the value of what they are doing.

At the bottom end of this ranking we find only 6% claiming that their family ties have been cut-off, and 12% saying that they feel left out of society.



Figures 8.1e-q show the results for each Candidate Country. Before presenting these charts, we will analyse the proportions of socially excluded persons in each Candidate Country and by demographic groups.

The highest levels of exclusion are in Turkey, with 25% of respondents agreeing with more than half of the attributes describing forms of social exclusion. Bulgaria is second with 14%. Having the populous Turkey on the top with a significant margin, the regional average is relatively high; only these two countries are above it. But levels of social exclusion in Estonia and Latvia are high as well (13%). One in ten people in Slovakia can be described as socially excluded, followed by Lithuania (8%), Romania (7%), the Czech Republic, Poland (6% both), and Hungary (5%). The countries with the lowest levels of social exclusion are Cyprus, Malta (3% both) and Slovenia (2%).

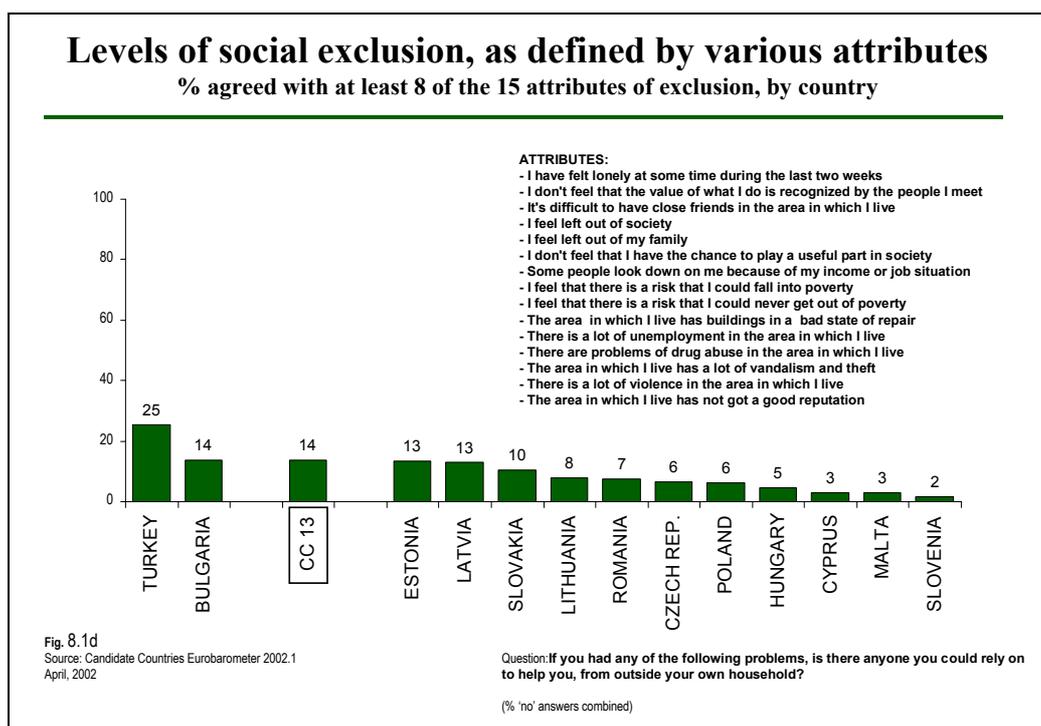
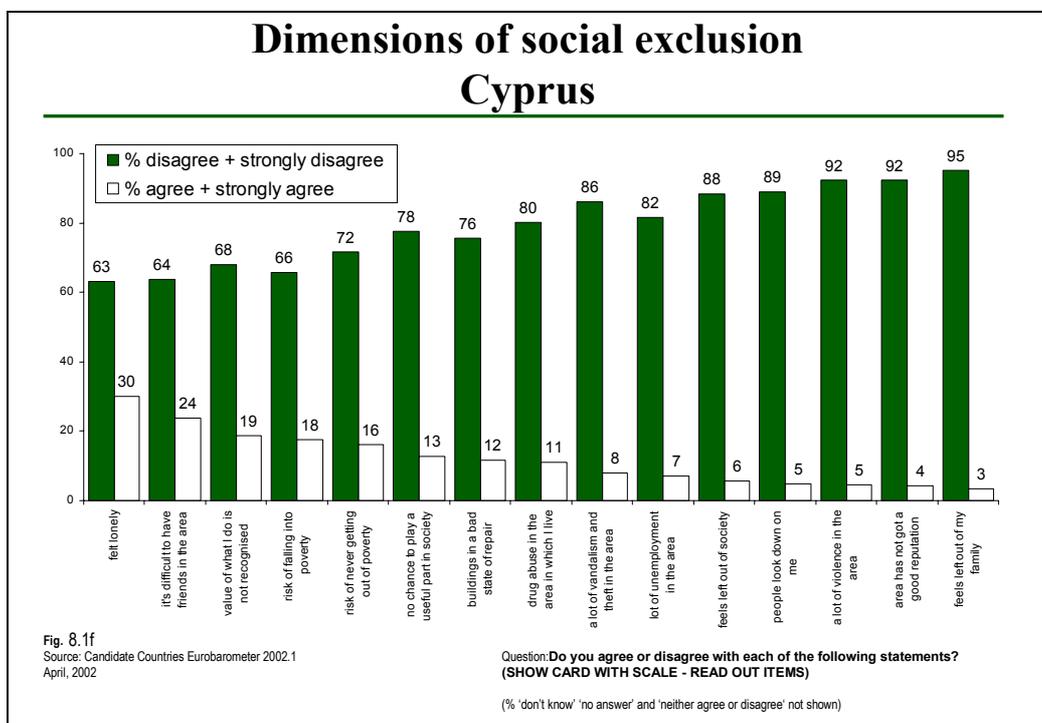
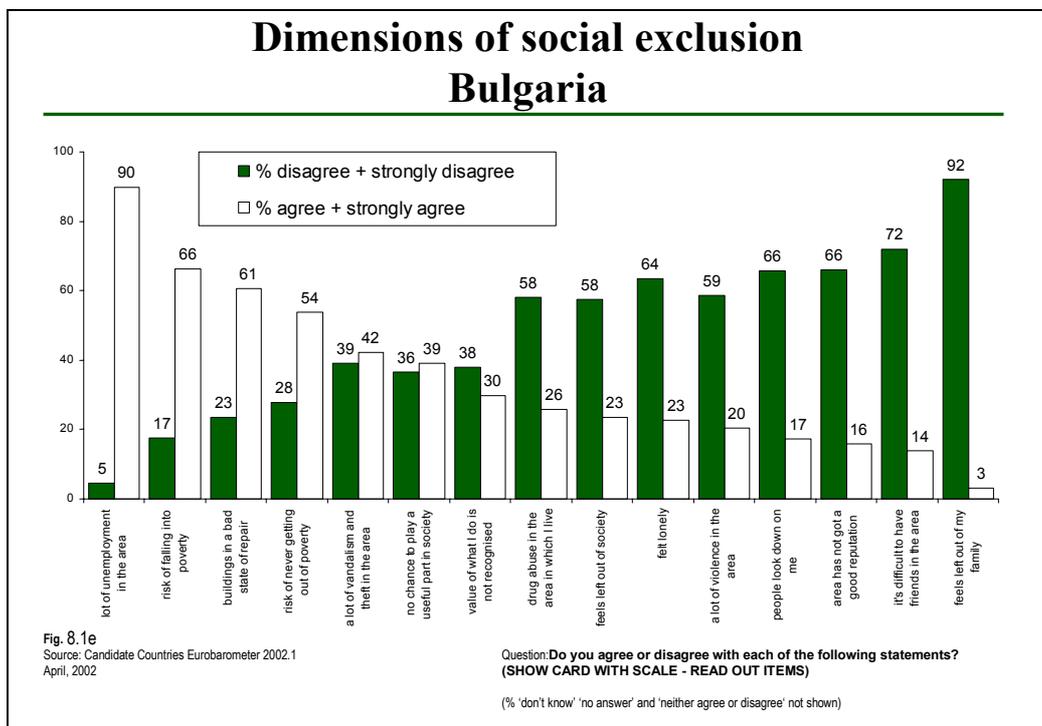
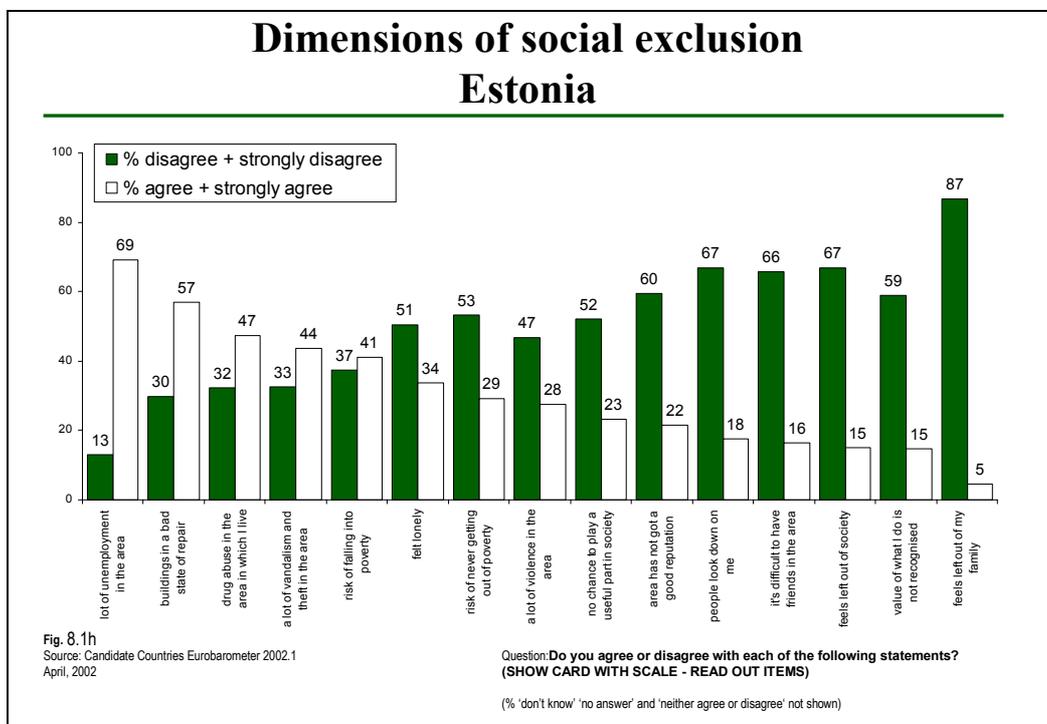
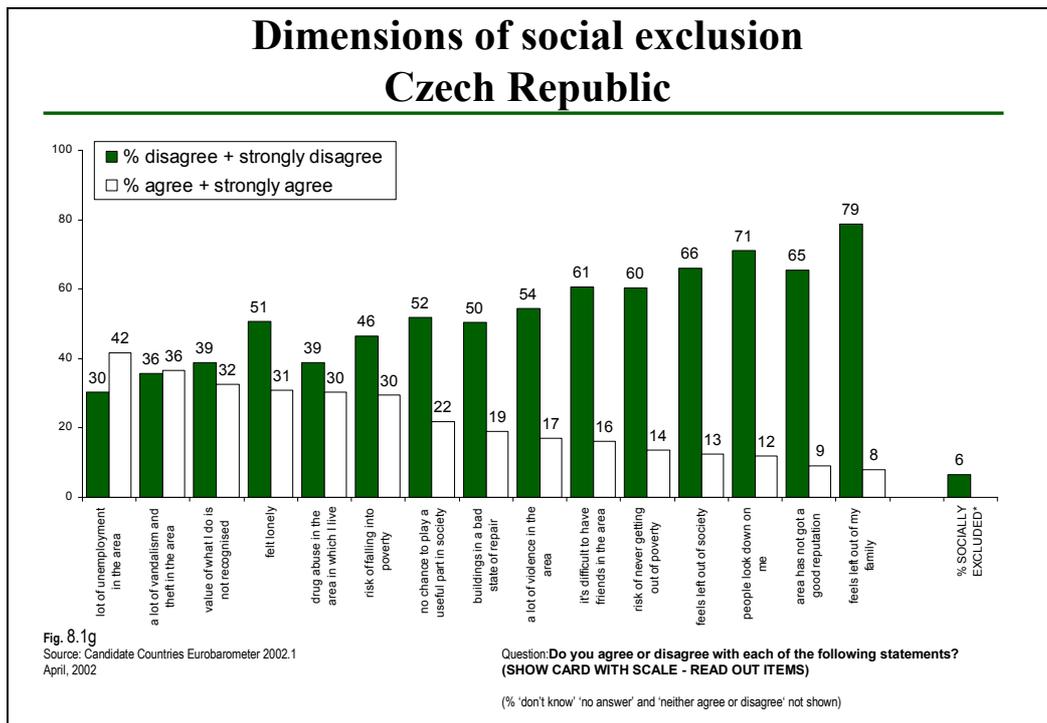


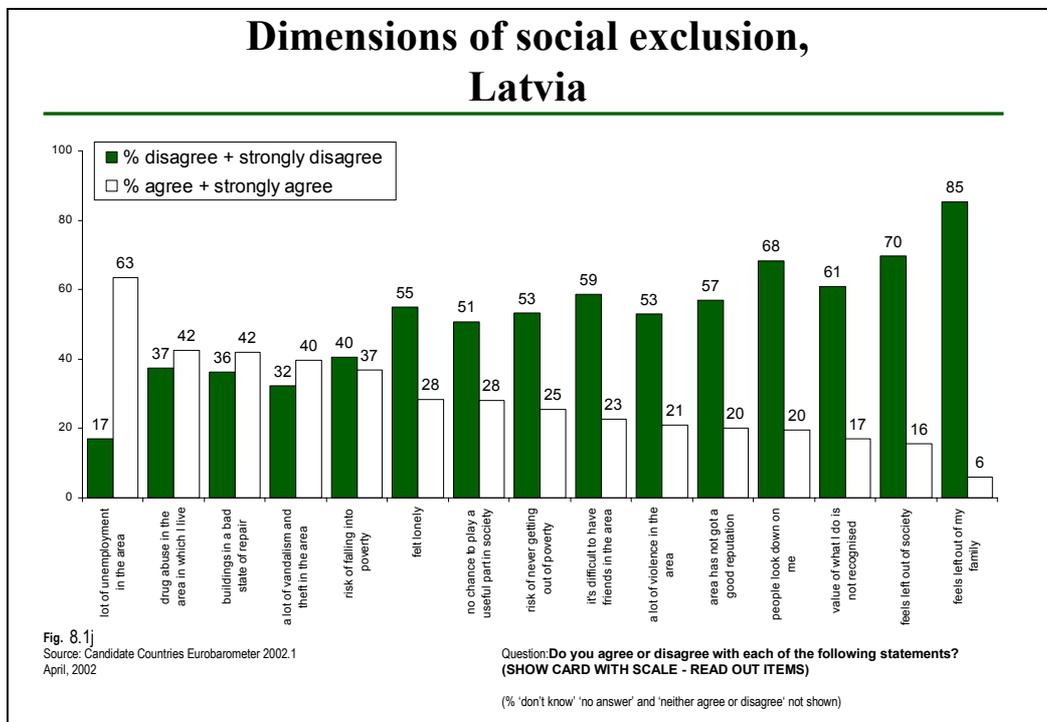
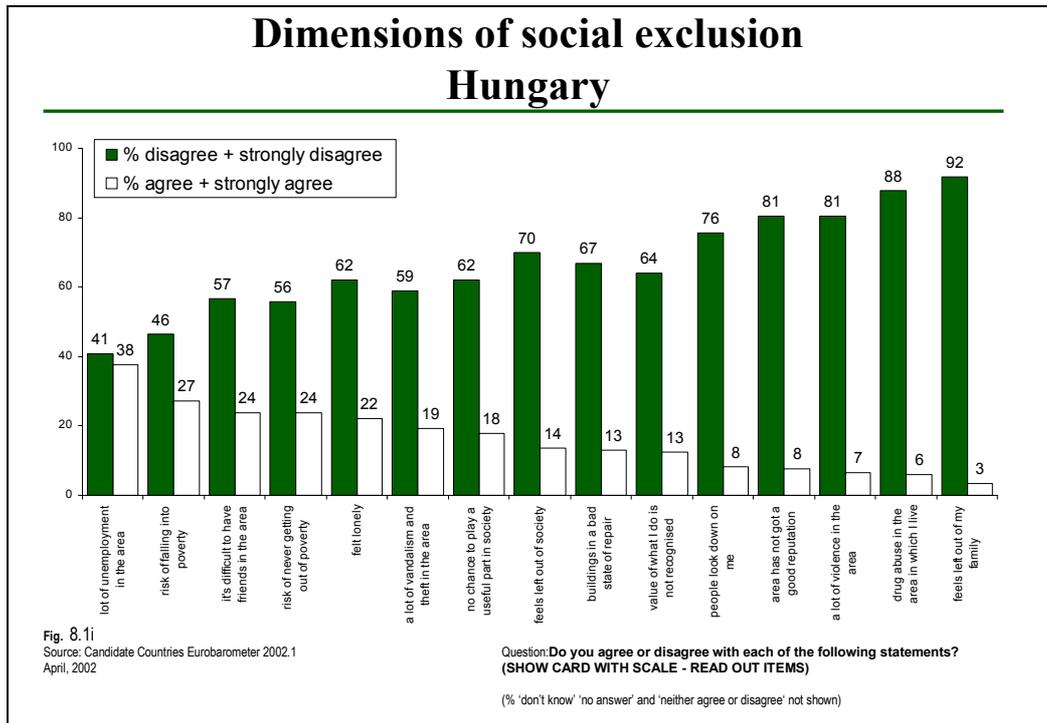
Table 8.1b helps to understand the demographic characteristics of social exclusion. There is no significant difference between the two genders. Education is the best social protection: the more educated people are, the less likely they are to face social exclusion; there is a gap of 12 percentage points between the lowest (19%) and the highest educated group (7%). But the results we found between the different age groups are more surprising. In the 15-24, 25-39, and 40-55 cohorts, the level of social exclusion is 15%. At the same time, the oldest group (aged 55 or older) face this problem in significantly lower proportions (9%). Social exclusion is the most widespread in large cities (16%), and the least prevalent in small towns (11%). The analyses of the economic activity scale show that managers are the least likely to be the victims of social exclusion (6%), along with other white collar workers (9%), and – again – retired people (9%), while the unemployed and house persons (23% both) are the most likely to fall victim to this problem.

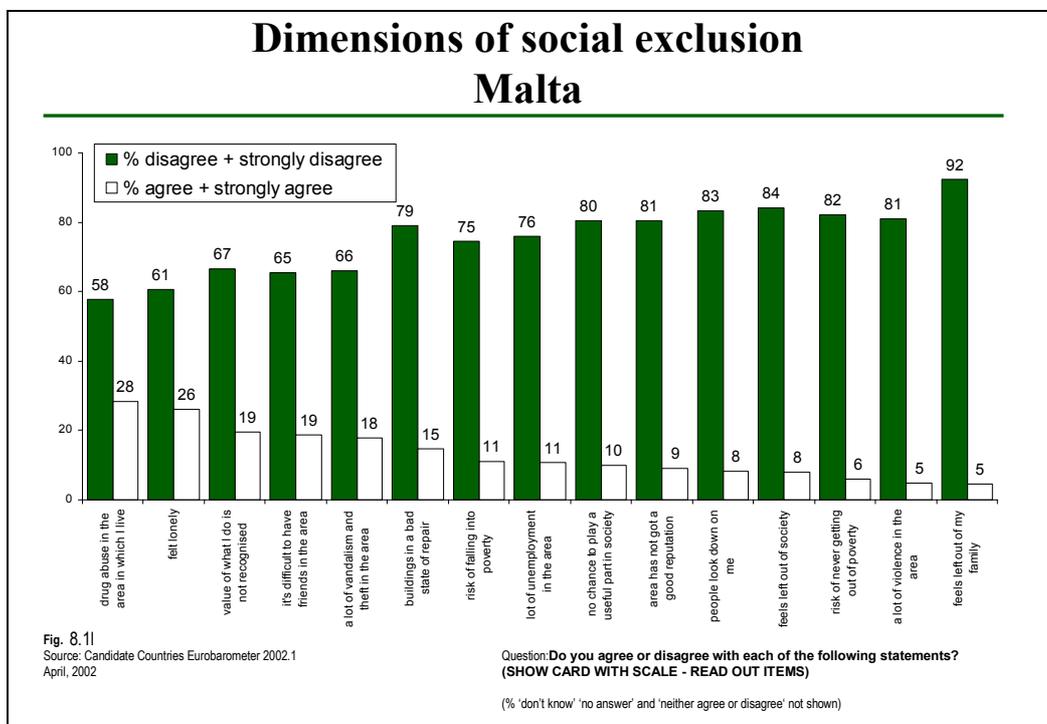
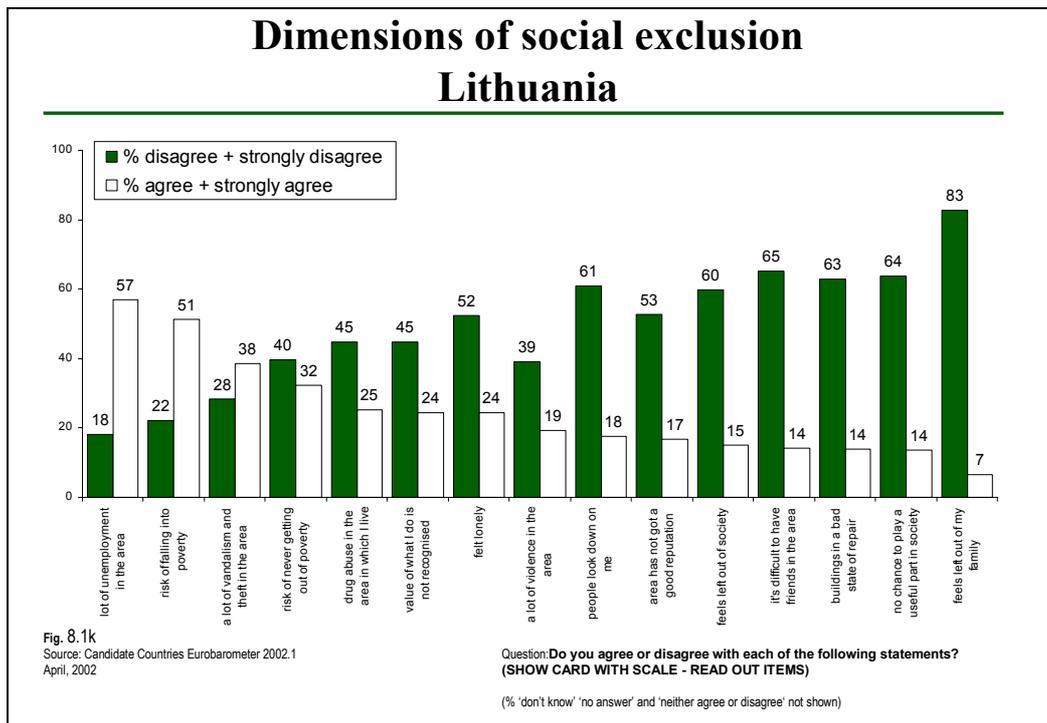
Table 8.1b Levels of social exclusion
(%, by demographics)

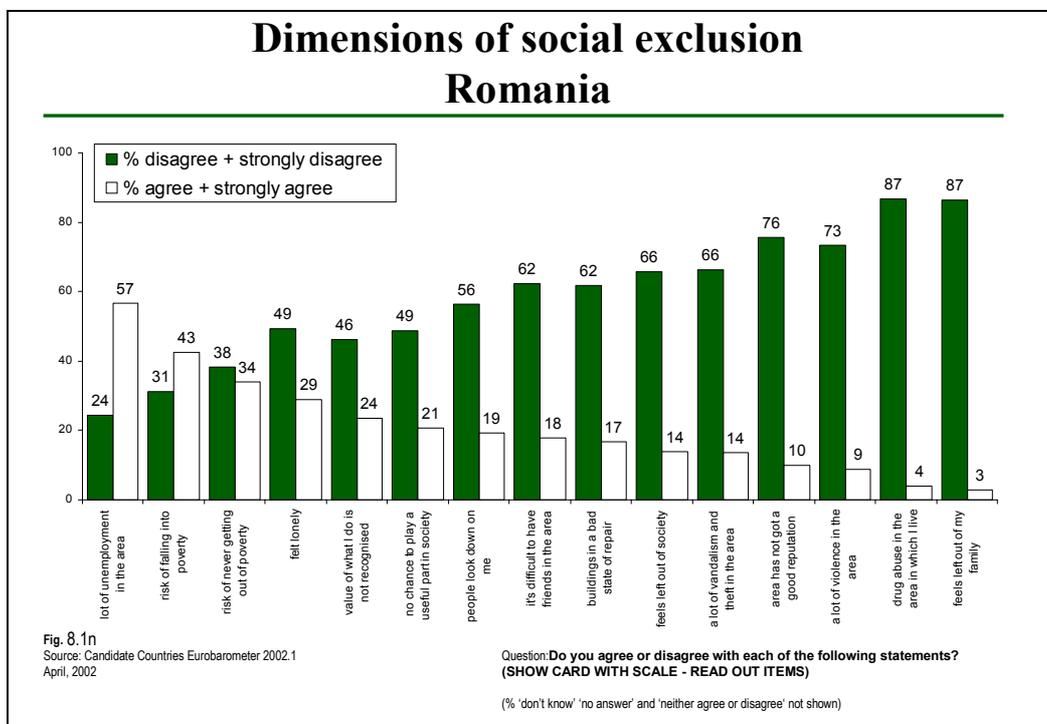
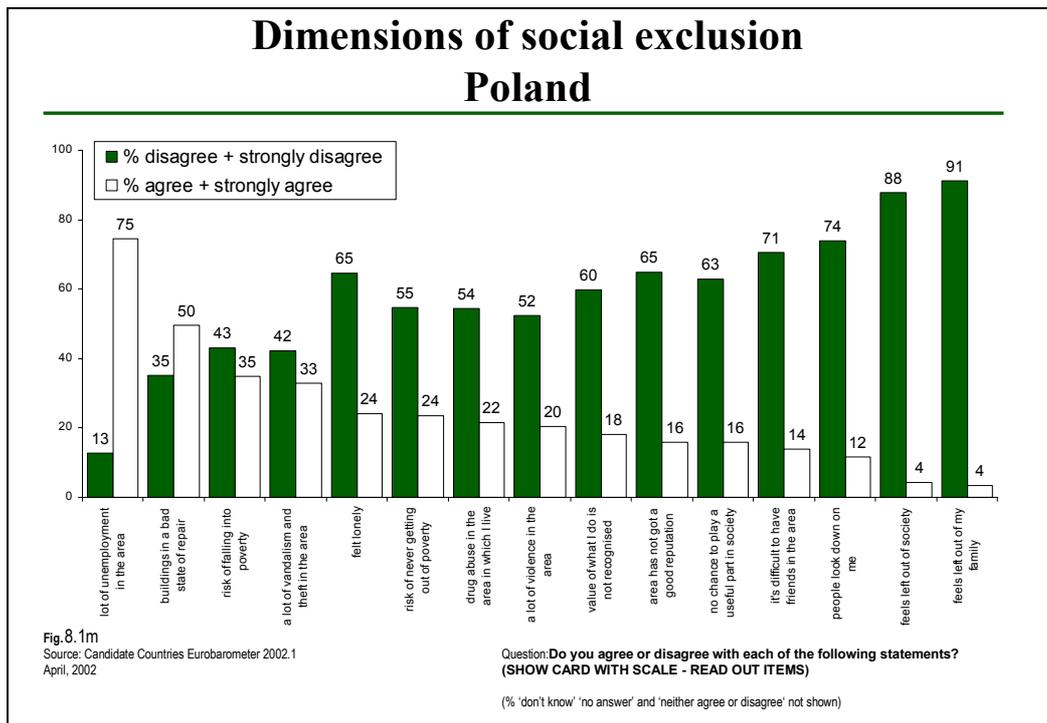
Male	14	Self-employed	14
Female	13	Managers	6
AGE: 15-24 years	15	Other white collars	9
AGE: 25-39 years	15	Manual workers	12
AGE: 40-54 years	15	House Persons	23
AGE: 55+ years	9	Unemployed	23
EDU: up to 15 years	19	Retired	9
EDU: 16-19 years	11	Rural area or village	14
EDU: 20+ years	7	Small or middle sized town	11
EDU: still studying	6	Large town	16

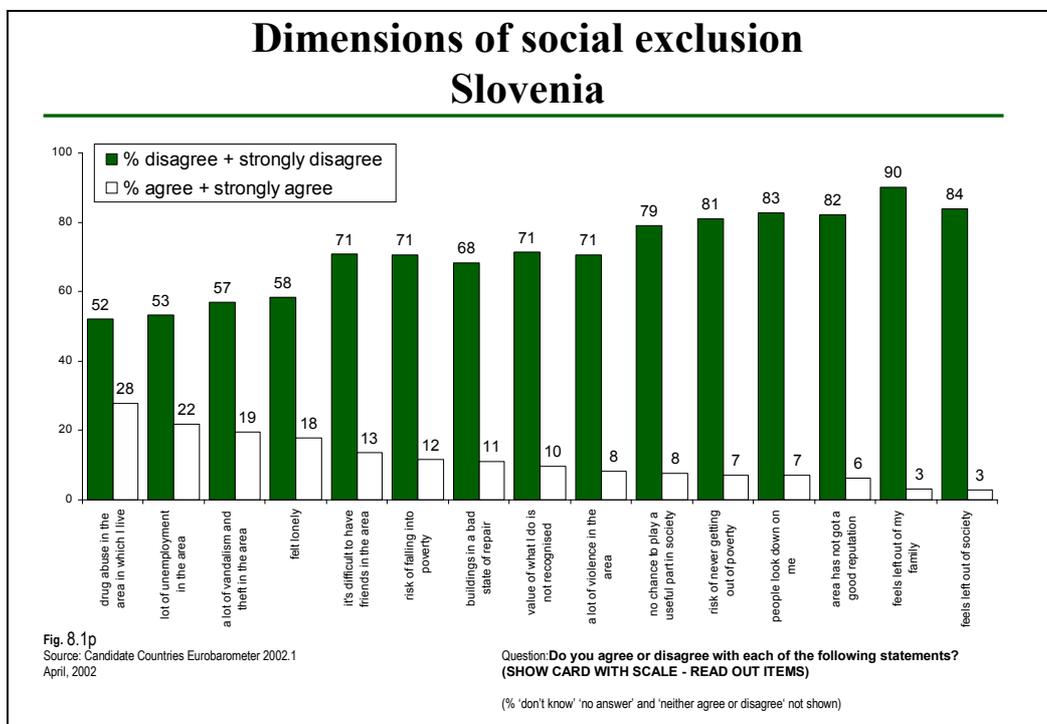
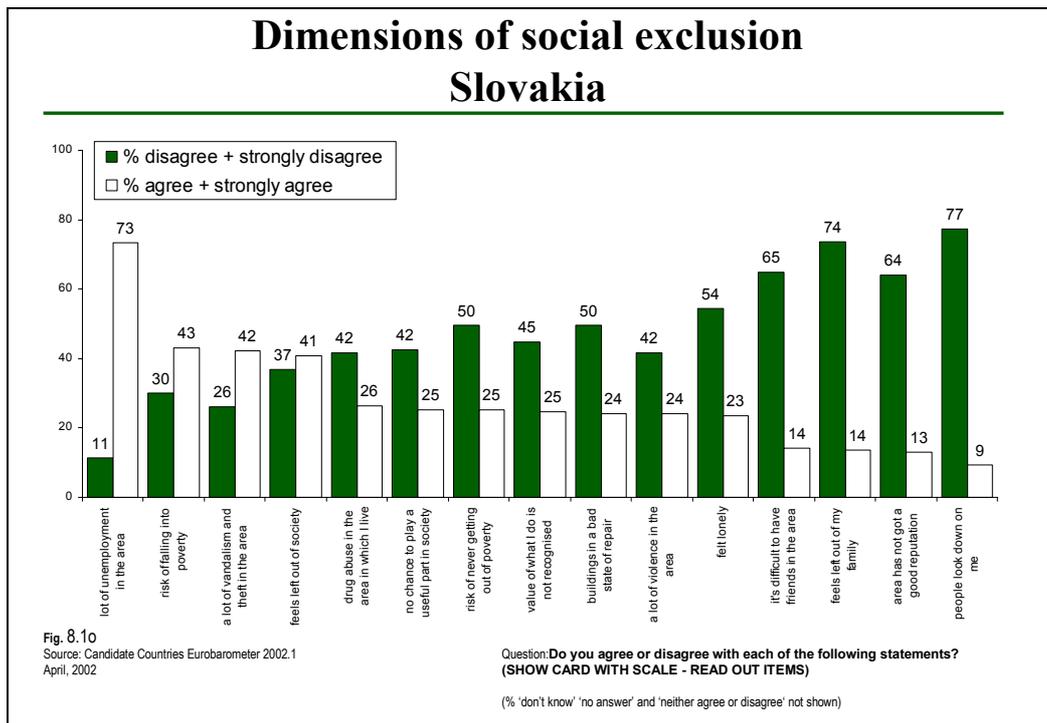


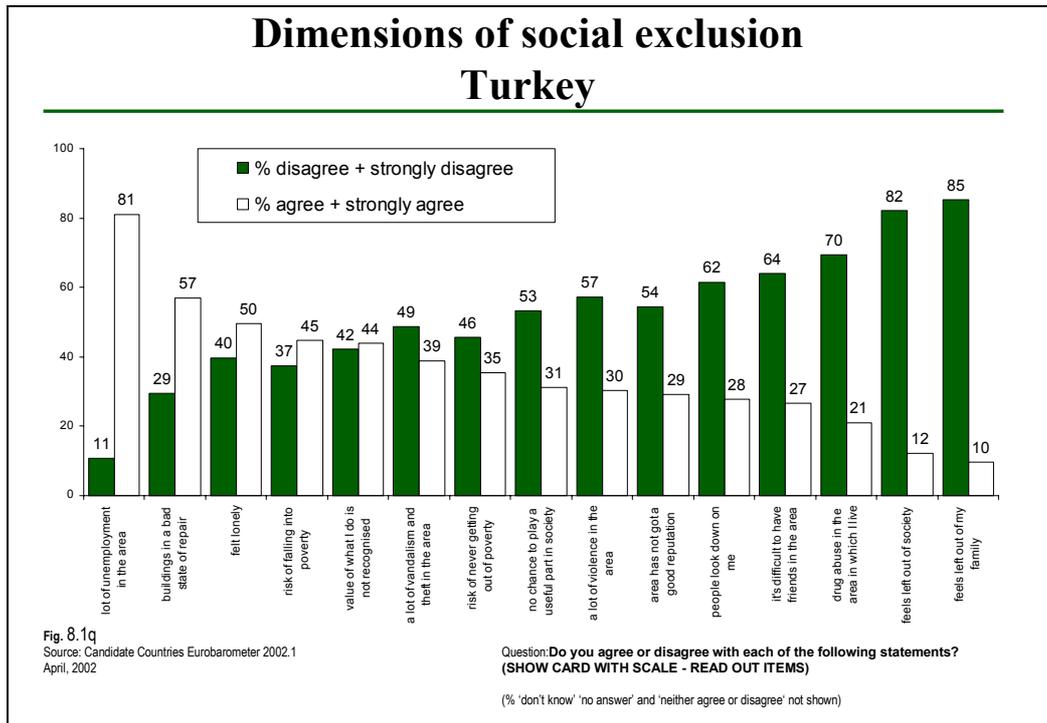












8.2 General attitudes toward inequalities in society

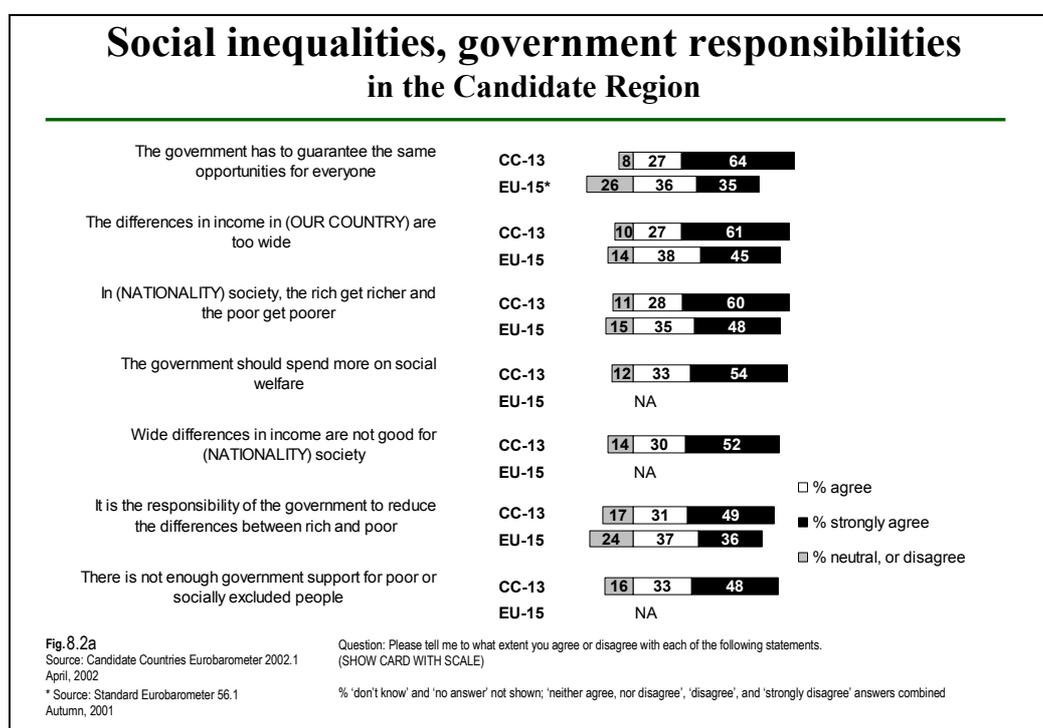
Without dwelling on political economy too much: ten of the thirteen countries of the Candidate Region have a past of an artificially engineered equalitarian society, where nobody could really accumulate wealth or have an outstanding income; instead a modest, less differentiated standard of living was promised for the whole society. At least, this was the articulated goal of the social policies across most countries in the region. In fact, this goal was achieved to very different degrees in the “socialist” societies; and in many cases this policy-making, paired with planned economy, led to more-or-less equal poverty among most of the people, with only few in the nomenclature having access to higher levels of consumption and living standard. In some countries, a very limited level of market activity was allowed for small businesses and entrepreneurs, who could achieve higher incomes, and were considered as “rich” by the majority who were living at or below subsistence levels.

After the fall of the Berlin wall, the whole picture changed. Inequalities appeared in the post-socialist societies with extraordinary proportions, in a few years time large differences in material positions became visible.

All these factors play a role in how people relate to social inequalities, and whom they assume holds responsibility for solving different social problems.

Attitudes toward income inequalities and the role of governments

We asked our respondents in each Candidate Country to what extent they agree with the statements listed on the graph below. They had the opportunity to express their levels of agreement on a five-point scale, where they could place their answers between the ‘strongly agree’ and ‘strongly disagree’ endpoints.



An enormously high proportion of the citizens in the Candidate Region agrees strongly with the statements. This indicates a widely shared egalitarian, solidary world-view across the region. In all dimensions where we have comparable information from the Member States, the population in the Candidate Region proved to be more ‘statist’ and egalitarian in their attitudes, as shown on the graph above.

Generally, throughout the remaining part of the Chapter, we will see answer patterns that reflect a high level of social consciousness, and a strong preference for high levels of state involvement in resolving social problems.

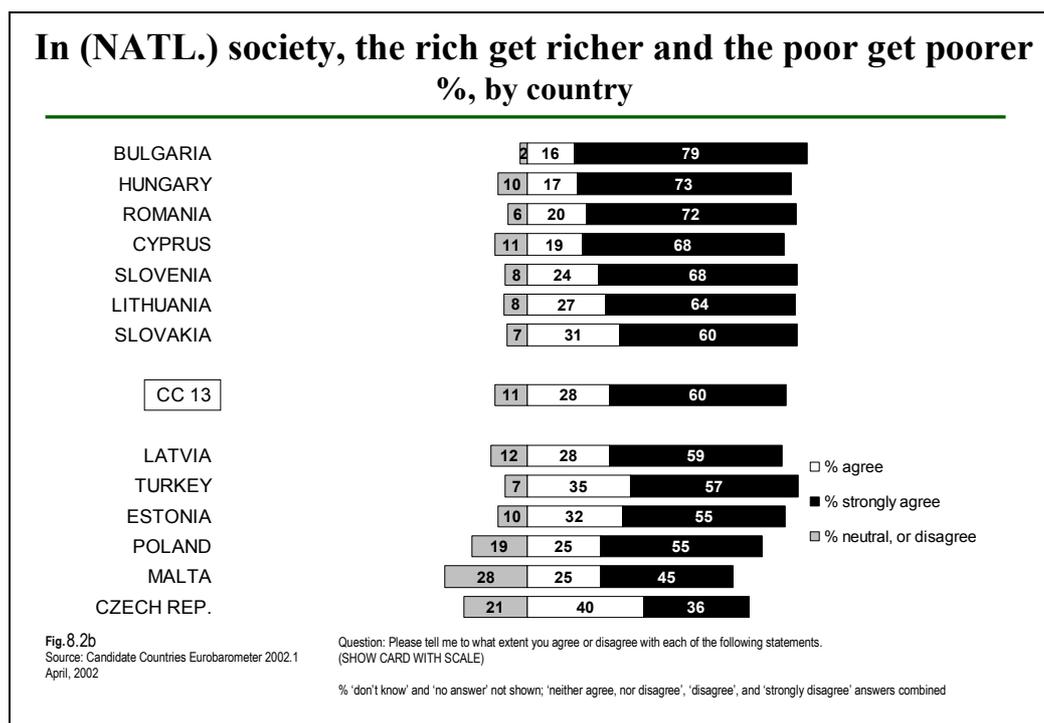
Almost two thirds strongly agree that governments should guarantee equal opportunities for everyone (64%), and a further 27% agree to some degree. Only 8% of the respondents indicated they “neither agree nor disagree”, “disagree”, or “strongly disagree” with this statement, which shows a high level of ‘statist’ attitude in the societies of the Candidate Region. Almost equally, a vast majority think that income inequalities are too high, and that the rich get richer and the poor get poorer in society (about 60% strongly agree (SA), and about 28% agree (A)). A slim majority of respondents firmly believe that the government should spend more on social welfare (SA: 52, A: 33%), and that wide income differences are disadvantageous for society (SA: 52%, A: 30%). Forty-nine percent agree strongly that it is the responsibility of the government to reduce the differences between rich and poor (and a further 31% agree), and 48% strongly agree that there is insufficient support for poor or socially excluded people.

Now we will look at these statements one by one. The Czech people seem to be the least egalitarian and the least supportive of governmental interventions that aim at eradicating poverty or decreasing income differences. Just the opposite, the Bulgarians seem to be the most egalitarian of the thirteen nations in the Candidate Countries Eurobarometer; they rank the highest on four of the seven rankings we present below. The Cypriots, Romanians, and Hungarians are also among the more solidary countries of the region. (For results in each Candidate Country for each statement refer to Annex Table 8.3 as well)

In (NATIONALITY) society, the rich get richer and the poor get poorer

This opinion is the most strongly shared in Bulgaria, where 8 in 10 respondents agree strongly with this statement (and where – according to an expert group³⁷ – inequality increased sharply between 1995 and 1997, with the Gini³⁸ rising from 27.1 to 31.4, a process that took place in almost all transition economies). Hungary comes second: here almost three quarters (73%) believe strongly that income differences are increasing, followed by Romania (72%), Cyprus, and Slovenia (68% both.)

The Polish (SA: 55%), Maltese (45%), and the Czech (36%) are the least likely to agree strongly with this statement; still, a clear majority of the people are in agreement.



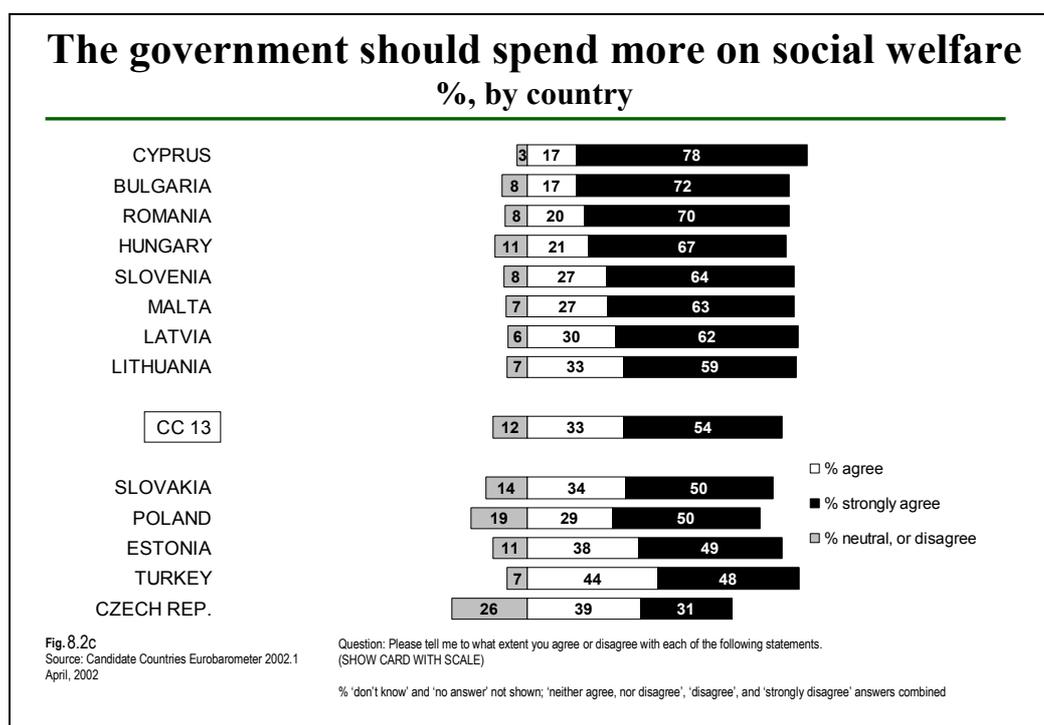
³⁷ The road to stability and prosperity in South Eastern Europe: A regional strategy paper, March 1, 2000, The World Bank

³⁸ The Gini index is a measure of income inequality; an index of zero indicates perfect equality, while an index of 100 indicates perfect inequality

The government should spend more on social welfare

95% of Cypriots agree that the government should spend more on social welfare, and 78% of them strongly agree (in Cyprus the relocated population that is estimated to be around the third of the total population remains to be a major concern for the residents and policy-makers). Almost as many (72%) Bulgarians strongly agree with this statement, and 7 in 10 Romanians share the same opinion. Above the average are Hungary (SA: 67%), Slovenia (64%), Malta (63%), Latvia (62%), and Lithuania (59%).

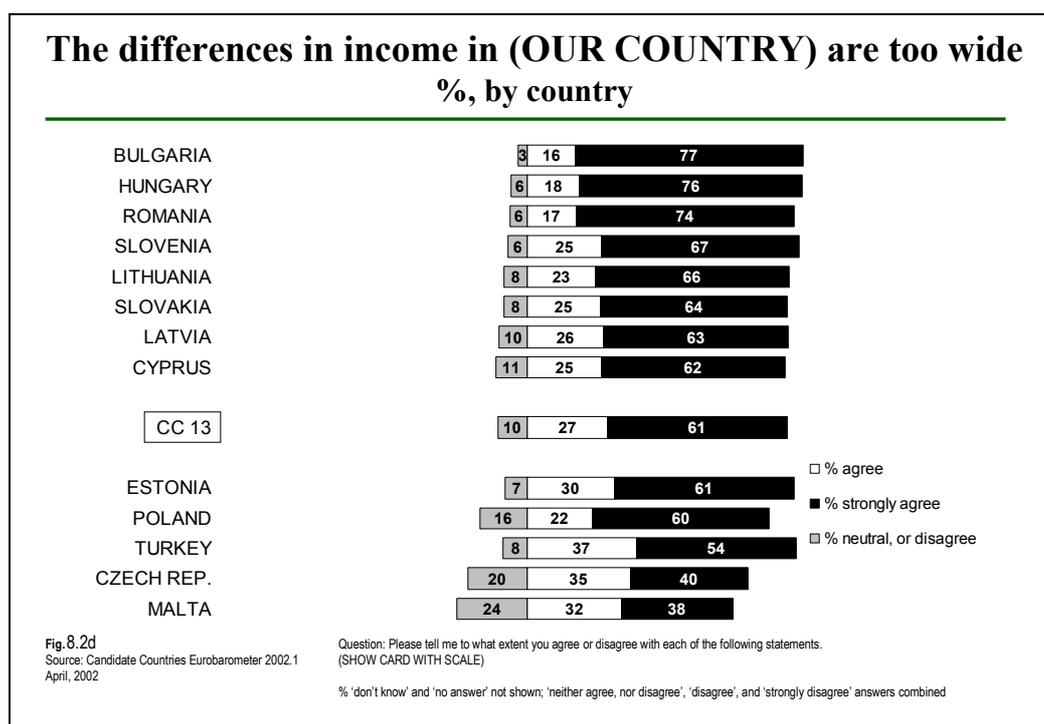
People in the Czech Republic are – relatively – the least concerned about social welfare spending, ‘only’ 31% agree strongly, and another 39% agree to some degree that the Czech government should allocate more money for social welfare. The Turkish are not solidary to the extent that the Cypriots or Bulgarians are, and the Polish and Estonian publics are also relatively less likely to support increased government spending on welfare.



The differences in income in (OUR COUNTRY) are too wide

Again, with 77% of the population strongly agreeing with the above statement, Bulgaria tops this ranking, followed by Hungary (76%), and Romania (74%). Slovenians (67%), Lithuanians (66%), Slovaks (64%), Latvians (63%), and Cypriots (62%) are more likely than the average to strongly agree that income differences are too wide in their countries.

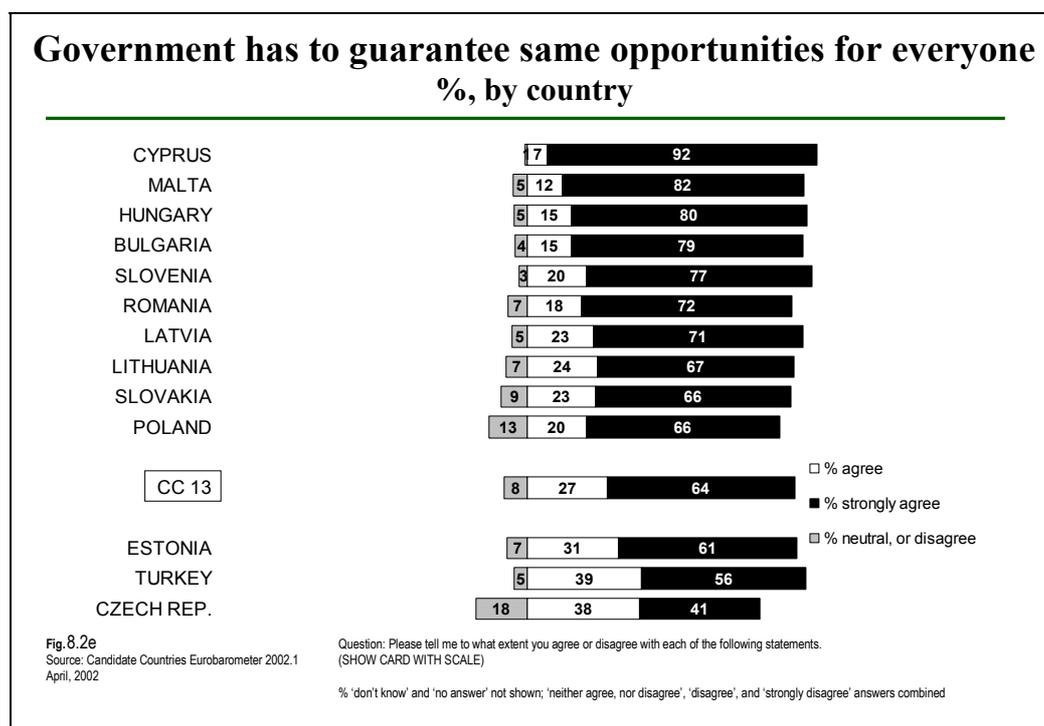
In contrast, 1 in 4 people in Malta do not particularly agree with the same statement, and only 38% believe strongly that current differences in incomes are too wide in Malta. The Czech public is the second most likely not to agree with this statement: every fifth Czech respondent chose not to agree or strongly agree with this statement (20%). The majority of the Turkish public strongly believes that income inequalities are too wide in their country (53%), but even with this result they are the third from the lowest in this ranking.



The government has to guarantee the same opportunities for everyone

The demand for state involvement in social engineering is not limited to previous state-socialist experiences. This statement that the highest proportion of people in the Candidate Region: as many as 92% agree strongly in Cyprus, 82% in Malta, and 80% in Hungary. In 10 of the thirteen countries more than two thirds of the respondents agreed fully that governments should guarantee equal opportunities for everyone in their country.

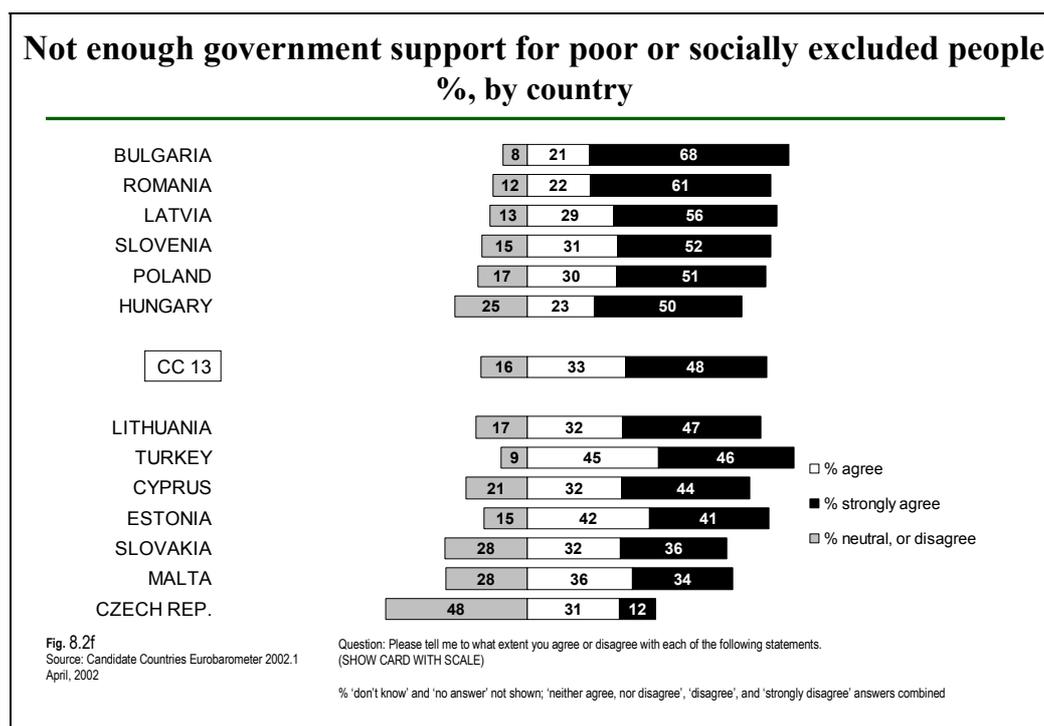
Below the average of the region we find the Czech Republic, where an overwhelming majority still agree with this principle fully or somewhat (SA: 41%, A: 38%). The two other countries where the provision of equal opportunities is not as much favoured as by the average of the region are Turkey (SA: 56%), and Estonia (61%). But – as illustrated by the number – this does not mean that the people of these countries would not support this principle in large proportions.



There is not enough government support for poor or socially excluded people

Only twelve percent of the Czechs agree strongly with this statement, while 48% rather disagree or take a neutral stance in this question. Only slightly more than a third of Slovaks and Maltese agree strongly that their government does not provide sufficient help for the poor or socially excluded people.

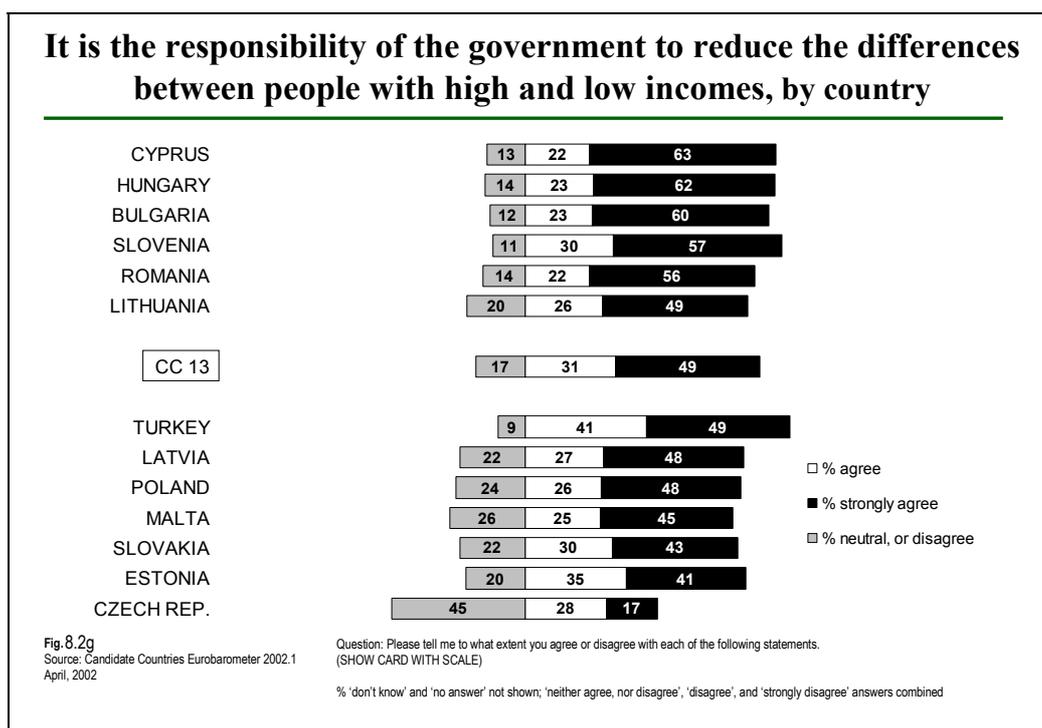
On the top of the ranking we find Bulgaria, with 68% strongly agreeing that the poor do not get enough support from the government, followed by Romanians (61%), and Latvians (56%). Slovenia (52%), Poland (51%), and Hungary (50%) are the remaining countries above the average of the Candidate Countries.



It is the responsibility of the government to reduce the differences between people with high incomes and those with low incomes

"The prince should try to prevent too great an inequality of wealth." – Erasmus said at the dawn of the sixteenth century, and he has numerous followers in Cyprus, with 63 percent strongly agreeing that government should intervene to prevent differences too wide in income levels across society. Hungarians (62%) and Bulgarians (60%) are second and third sharing this opinion, and if we combine 'agree' and 'strongly agree' responses, the Slovenians are the most likely to share the thought of the medieval philosopher (SA: 57%, A: 30%).

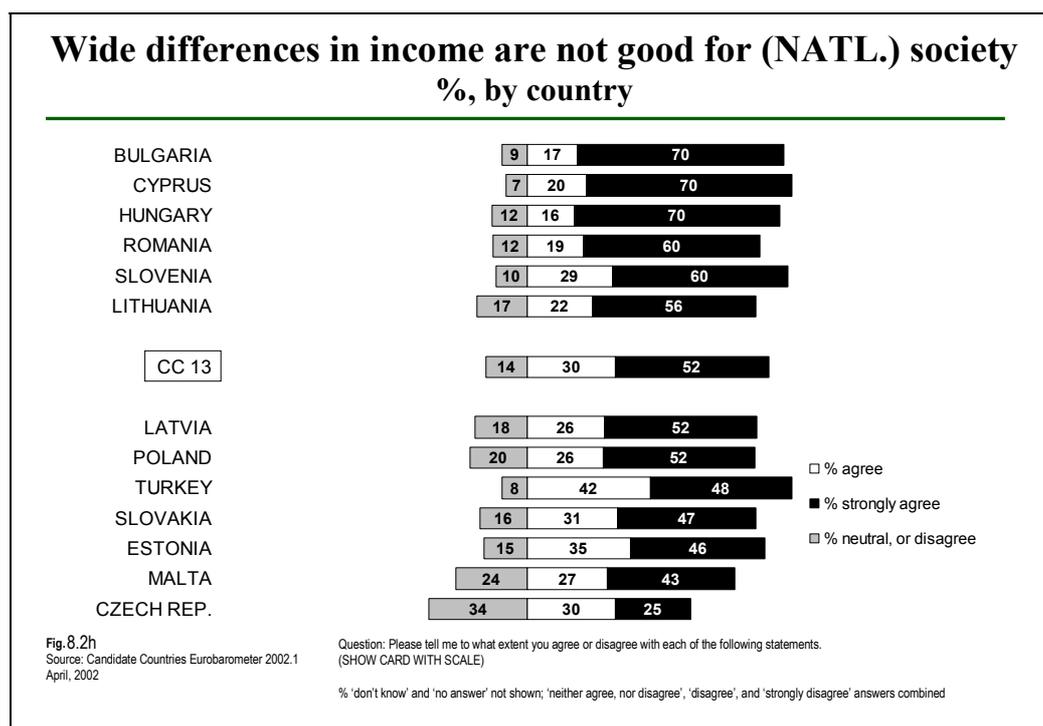
In contrast, only 45% of Czech citizens agree to some degree with government intervention to narrow the gap between low and high incomes (SA: 17%, A: 28%).



Wide differences in income are not good for (NATIONALITY) society

One third (34%) of the Czechs do not think that income inequalities are harmful for their society; at the same time only 1 in 4 respondents indicated he or she agrees strongly with this statement. Respondents in Malta are also divided in this issue, but the majority does not believe that wide income differences are useful to Maltese society.

Bulgarians, Cypriots and Hungarians are sure that the income levels of the upper and lower classes should not drift too far away from each other. 70% strongly agree in all three countries that there should not be wide differences between the incomes of the upper and lower income groups



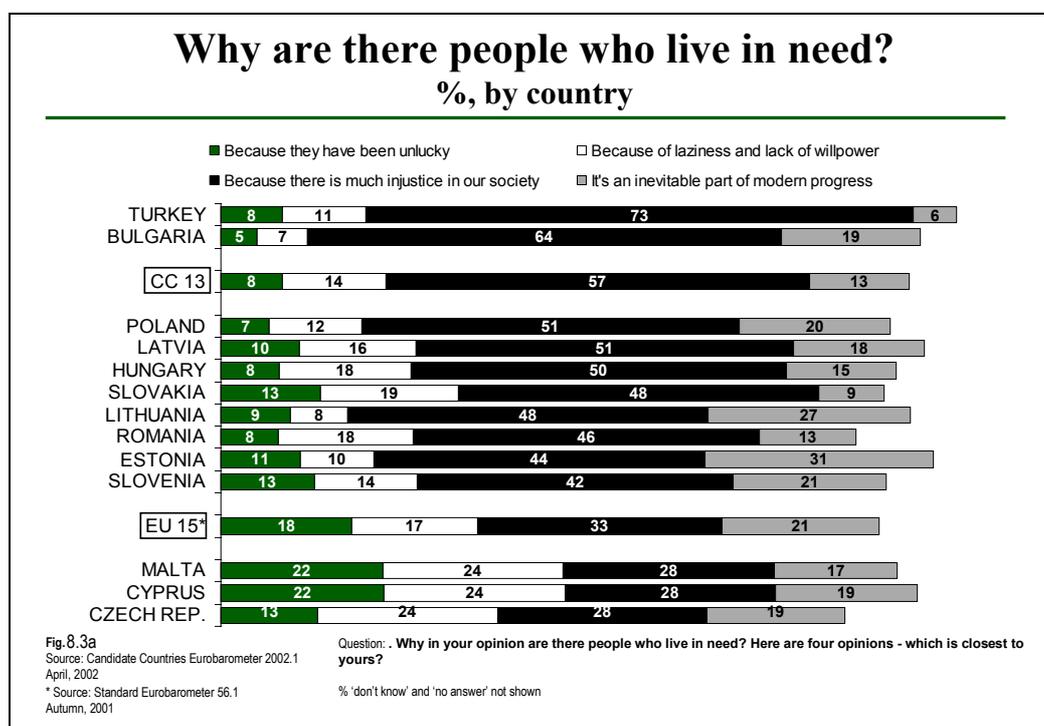
8.3 Reasons of poverty, social exclusion

We asked our respondents: “Why in your opinion are there people who live in need? Which of these four opinions is closest to yours?”

- Because they have been unlucky
- Because of laziness and lack of willpower
- Because there is much injustice in our society
- It's an inevitable part of modern progress”

Respondents were asked to identify the reason that is most likely to force people to live in need, choosing between social injustice, progress, bad luck, or laziness. If society finds that people are in need because of social injustice or simply bad luck, the situation, in principle, could be remedied by social welfare interventions. On the other hand, if their condition is seen to be the product of the inevitable advance of progress, it might not be as easy to remedy the situation. Finally, respondents are presumably not too likely to offer their tax money to help the lazy or those lacking in willpower.

Now, let us take a look at the responses we received in each Candidate Country. (Figure 8.3a)



The majority of respondents in the Candidate Region believe that social injustice is the source of inequalities and poverty (57%), 13% blame the poor for their own difficulties, and 14% the modern progress for poverty and social exclusion. Bad luck was the least frequently mentioned response: only 8% in the Candidate Countries believe that bad luck alone would lead to poverty or social exclusion among those affected. The European citizens are more divided in this issue, but generally, they are less likely to attribute disadvantages position to structural reasons, such as injustice, or ‘progress’³⁹.

Country-by-country analyses show significant variations around these averages. The Turkish are the most likely to blame **social injustice** for poverty and social exclusion (73%), followed

³⁹ EB56.1, Autumn 2001

by the Bulgarians (64%), and the Polish (51%). At the same time, less than 1 in 3 respondents in Malta, Cyprus, and the Czech Republic (28% each) think that social injustice is responsible for poverty and social exclusion. About 1 in 5 people in Cyprus and Malta (22%), and 13% in Slovakia and the Czech Republic think that **bad luck** is the prime reason for being poor or socially excluded. Bulgarians (5%) and Polish (7%) are the least likely to share this opinion. Thirty-one percent of Estonians believe that poverty and social exclusion is **an inevitable part of modern progress**, while 27 percent of Lithuanians and 21 percent of Slovenians share this view. Finally, Maltese, Cypriots, and Czechs are the most likely to blame the poor and the socially excluded themselves for their situation (close to one quarter, 24% in each of the three countries). In contrast, only 7% of Bulgarians, 8% of Lithuanians and 1 in 10 people in Estonia agree with this. (Table 8.4a in Annex)

There is no difference between males and females. We do not find significant differences among the different age groups either. People living in rural areas are the most likely to attribute poverty to laziness and lack of willpower (16%). People living in small towns are the most likely to think that poverty and social exclusion are part of modern life and are inevitable results of progress.

Respondents of different education levels express different opinions. Those who left school at the age of 15 or earlier are the most likely to blame social injustices (62%) and bad luck (9%) for poverty, while those who remained in school until they were at least 20 are much less likely to believe that social exclusion is the result of social injustice (50%). At the same time they are the most likely to claim that it is part of modern progress that cannot be eliminated (21%). Analyses of the economic activity scale shows that managers and other white collar workers are the least likely to agree that social injustice is primarily accountable for poverty (45% both), they rather see it as the collateral damage of progress (managers: 26%, other white collar workers: 22%). Self-employed persons (17%) and retired people (19%) are the most likely to consider poverty a result of laziness and lack of willpower. (See also Table 8.4b in the Annex)

**Table 8.3a Why are there people in need?
(in%, by demographics)**

	Bad luck	Laziness	Injustice in our society	Part of modern progress		Bad luck	Laziness	Injustice in our society	Part of modern progress
Male	8	14	58	13	Self-employed	10	17	56	12
Female	8	14	56	14	Managers	6	13	45	26
AGE: 15-24 years	8	13	59	14	Other white collars	9	13	45	22
AGE: 25-39 years	9	11	60	14	Manual workers	7	14	58	13
AGE: 40-54 years	8	14	58	14	House Persons	10	12	65	8
AGE: 55+ years	8	18	52	12	Unemployed	10	7	68	11
EDU: up to 15 years	9	15	62	8	Retired	7	19	51	13
EDU: 16-19 years	8	13	56	15	Rural area or village	8	16	59	10
EDU: 20+ years	6	14	50	21	Small or middle sized town	9	14	53	17
EDU: still studying	8	13	52	18	Large town	8	11	59	15

These results suggest that rationalizations of poverty might change as a function of one's income levels. Indeed, we find a close interaction between ease of getting by with income (see Chapter 7) and the responses to this question, as Table 8.3b illustrates.

Table 8.3b Cross tabulation between the level of difficulty of getting by with current income, and reasons why there are people in need
(%, on CC-13 level)

Ease of getting by with current income	Why there are people in need?			
	Bad luck	Laziness and luck of willpower	Injustice in our society	Part of modern progress
with great difficulty	8	10	65	10
with difficulty	8	13	59	13
easily	7	20	48	17
very easily	20	24	35	18

Those who claim they can barely survive with their income are much more likely to blame social injustices for poverty in general (65%) than those who can get by easily with their income (35%). At the same time, they are less likely to think that there are people in need because of their bad luck (8% vs. 20% in the wealthiest group), and they are also less likely to connect poverty with laziness and lack of willpower than their wealthy fellows (10% vs. 24%). The more income people have the more likely they also are to think that poverty and social exclusion are natural by-products of modern progress.

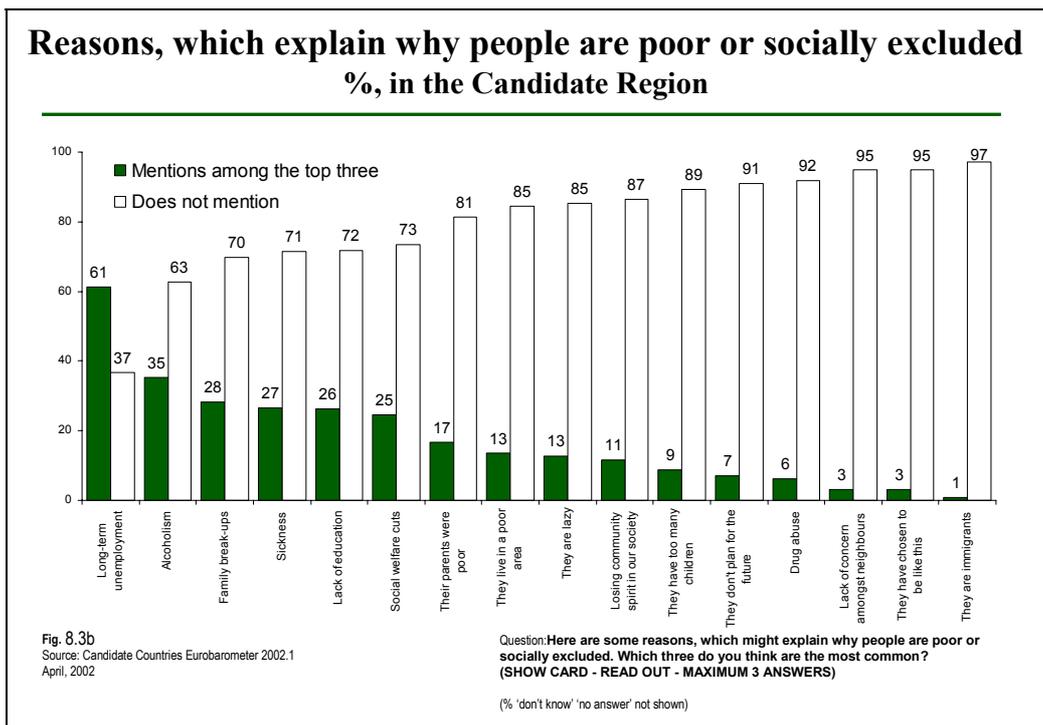
We used another question to investigate the same issue in a less general manner. We specifically listed a number of possible reasons for our respondents, and we asked them to choose the three that they thought were the most significant causes of poverty or social exclusion. The question was as follows: *“Here are some reasons which might explain why people are poor or socially excluded. Which three do you think are the most common?”*

- Social welfare cuts
- Lack of concern amongst neighbours
- Sickness
- Family break-ups
- Their parents were poor
- Losing community spirit in our society
- Alcoholism
- Long-term unemployment
- They live in a poor area
- Drug abuse
- They don't plan for the future
- Lack of education
- They are lazy
- They have too many children
- They are immigrants
- They have chosen to be like this”

Looking at Figure 8.3b, we find results that are somewhat contradictory compared to the previous question, in which people generally associated poverty with social injustices. In this more detailed question, by far the most frequent response was *long-term unemployment* (61%). This is probably the only one among the leading three reasons causing poverty that has to do with social injustice.

At the second place, we find an individual level explanation, '*alcoholism*' as the prime reason for poverty and social exclusion (35%). In fact, alcohol consumption levels in the Candidate Countries vary, and are not really different from the EU region – at least according to FAO alcohol consumption statistics. For the analyst there is no clear directionality of the alleged association of social exclusion and alcoholism, but for the respondents there is a very clear one: in most of the countries alcoholism is named as the second most important reason that leads to poverty and social exclusion. As this directionality is assumed, we can be sure that this is not a reason that could be classified as a form of social injustice (as it isn't indeed: cross tabulations show that almost everyone who named laziness and lack of willpower as the prime reasons for poverty named alcoholism among the three most important reasons that lead directly to social exclusion and poverty).

The third leading reason with which respondents in the Candidate Region explain poverty is *family break-ups* (28%). Another personal characteristic came fourth on this list: *sickness* is also considered to be one of the main reasons that people become poor (27%), followed by *lack of education* (26%), and *social welfare cuts* (25%).



From this list of most important explanations for people's poverty or social exclusion, only cuts in welfare budget, long-term unemployment, and lack of education can be considered as structural reasons for poverty. The other leading reasons are related to the person, even if on an abstract level they are connected to structural dysfunctions as well, or if these dysfunctions in the societies magnify these problems into leading reasons of poverty and social exclusion (e.g. sickness).

Going further down on the list we find inherited poverty ("their parents were poor") coming next (17%), and 13% believe that one of the most important reasons of poverty is

segregation, "living in a poor area" (13%); the same ratio think that laziness explains poverty. Eleven percent indicate that losing community spirit is a major factor, 9% blame a high number of children for poverty, 7 % think the poor do not plan for the future and that is how they end up in a disadvantaged situation. Six percent think that drugs are a major factor. At the same time, almost nobody thinks that lack of concern among neighbours (3%), their own choice (3%), or their immigrant status (1%) plays an important role in causing people to become poor or socially excluded.

Table 8.3c shows which three of these explanations were the most frequently mentioned in each Candidate Country (for detailed results see Table 8.5 in Annex).

Table 8.3c Top three reasons that explain, why are people poor or socially excluded
(in %, by country)

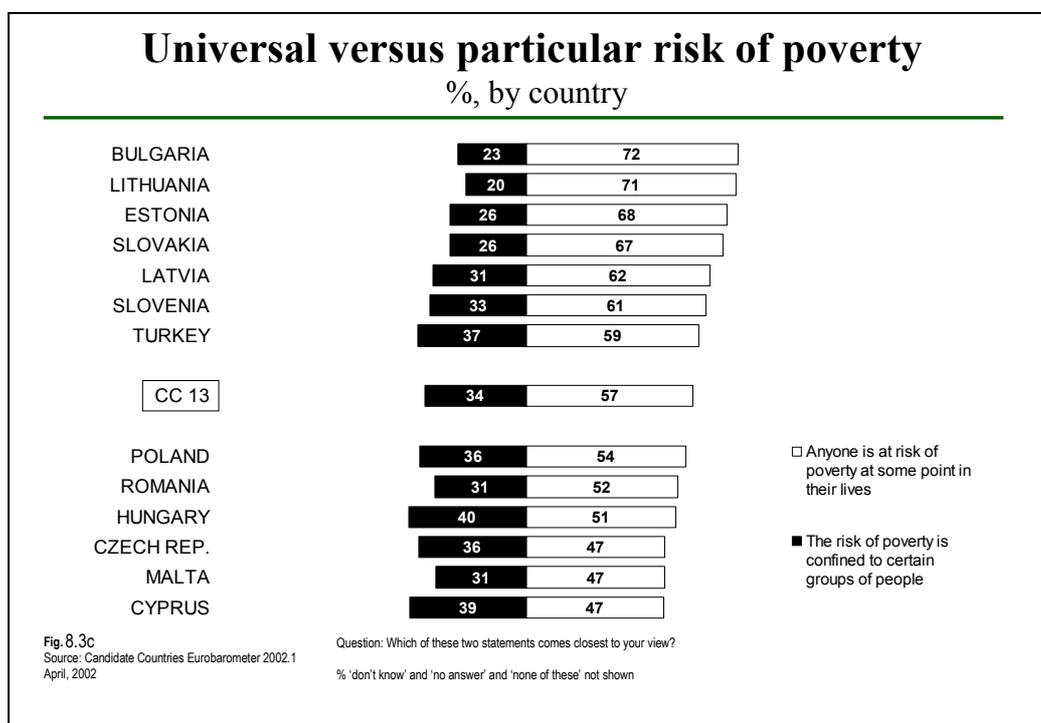
Bulgaria		Malta	
Long-term unemployment	85	Sickness	54
Sickness	33	Family break-ups	48
Social welfare cuts	26	Long-term unemployment	47
Cyprus		Poland	
Family break-ups	48	Long-term unemployment	67
Sickness	45	Alcoholism	52
They are lazy	32	Sickness	41
Czech Republic		Romania	
Alcoholism	56	Long-term unemployment	57
Family break-ups	44	Alcoholism	34
Long-term unemployment	42	Social welfare cuts	30
Estonia		Slovakia	
Long-term unemployment	65	Long-term unemployment	66
Alcoholism	59	Alcoholism	51
Lack of education	24	Family break-ups	39
Hungary		Slovenia	
Long-term unemployment	55	Alcoholism	53
Alcoholism	55	Long-term unemployment	47
Sickness	43	Sickness	35
Latvia		Turkey	
Long-term unemployment	62	Long-term unemployment	61
Alcoholism	57	Lack of education	45
Sickness	28	Social welfare cuts	29
Lithuania			
Long-term unemployment	72		
Alcoholism	58		
Social welfare cuts	39		

Long-term unemployment tops the list of leading reasons that explain why people are poor or socially excluded in 9 of the 13 Candidate Countries, is second in 1 country, and third in 2 countries. Cyprus is the only country where long-term unemployment is not included in the top three. **Alcoholism** tops the list in 2 Candidate Countries, and comes in second place in 7 countries. It is not included in the top three in Bulgaria, Cyprus, Malta, and Turkey. **Sickness** tops the list in Malta, comes in second place in Bulgaria and Cyprus, and third place in Slovenia, Latvia, Poland, and Hungary. **Family break-ups** are the primary reason in Cyprus, second in the Czech Republic and Malta, and third in Slovakia. **Social welfare cuts** are featured in the top three only in Bulgaria, Lithuania, Romania, and Turkey. **Lack of education** appears among the top three reasons of social exclusion in Turkey and Estonia. Cyprus is the only country where the “laziness” of the poor is in the top three. None of the other reasons makes the top three in any country.

Finally, we asked our respondents: “Which of these two statements comes closest to your view?”

- *Anyone is at risk of poverty at some point in their life.*
- *The risk of poverty is confined to certain groups of people”*

Most of the citizens of the Candidate Countries believe that every one of us is threatened by poverty at some point of our lives (57%), and only a third of them (34%) think that poverty is confined to certain groups of people. As we noted in the opening paragraphs of this Chapter, 40% even fear that they themselves could fall into poverty. Consequently, the myth that poverty is confined only to “others”, is not the majority view in the societies of the Candidate Region (where, in fact, virtually every person is poor according to the EU definition, falling below 50% of the annual expenditure of an average EU citizen).



The view of poverty being confined only to certain groups of people prevails in Hungary and Cyprus in the highest proportions (40% and 39%), but even in these countries, the majority does not believe that anyone is entirely exempt from the risk of falling into poverty. (See Table 8.6 in Annex)

There is an interesting association between this variable and income level / standard of living. Those who can get by with their income very easily are less likely to think that anybody might face the risk of poverty at some point in their lives. Still, even in this group, the majority (51%) believes that everybody – even themselves – can be at risk of falling into poverty at some point. Therefore, the gap between the poor (58%) and the relatively rich is not as wide in this respect as we would have expected. (Table 8.3d)

Table 8.3d Cross tabulation between the level of difficulty of getting by with current income, and universal versus particular risk of poverty
(%, on CC-13 level)

Ease of getting by with current income	Which of these two statements comes closest to your view?	
	Anyone is at risk of poverty at some point in their lives	The risk of poverty is confined to certain groups of people
with great difficulty	58	33
with difficulty	57	35
easily	56	36
very easily	51	41

8.4 Help for the socially excluded, responsibility of the state

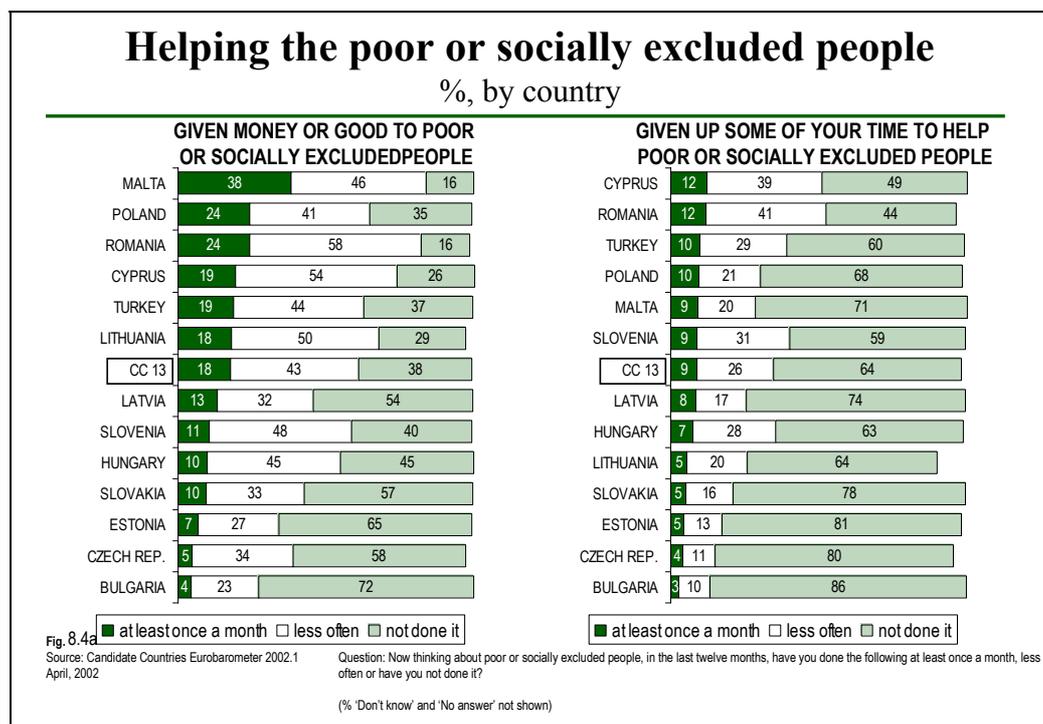
Altruistic behaviour

First we asked our respondents to what extent they are helping the poor and socially excluded: *“Thinking about poor or socially excluded people, in the last twelve months, have you done the following at least once a month, less often or have you not done it at all?”*

- Given money or goods to poor or socially excluded people?
- Given up some of your time to help poor or socially excluded people?”

In the Member States, 61% of the respondents claimed they had given money to the poor in the past twelve months, and 19% on a monthly basis⁴⁰. In the much poorer Candidate Countries we found the same proportions, as 61% of the people gave money to charities or directly to the poor, and 18% of them did so on a monthly basis.

People living in the Candidate Region are more likely to devote time to the care of the poor. While 28% of European citizens indicated they have given up some of their time to help the poor and the socially excluded in the past year; the same ratio is 35% in the Candidate Countries. The proportion of those who have done this on a monthly basis is 8% in the EU-15, and 9% in the CC-13 countries.



As Figure 8.4a shows, the Maltese are the most likely to spend on supporting the poor, with almost 4 in 10 Maltese giving money to the poor on a monthly basis, and altogether 84% of them having spent money for charity or given directly to the poor over the past twelve months. Surprisingly, one of the most disadvantaged societies comes second: 82 percent of Romanians gave money at least once over the past one year, and 24 percent have done so at least every month. With 73% supporting the poor financially, the Cypriots come third. One in every four Polish people gives money to the poor on a monthly basis. (Tables 8.7 and 8.8 in Annex)

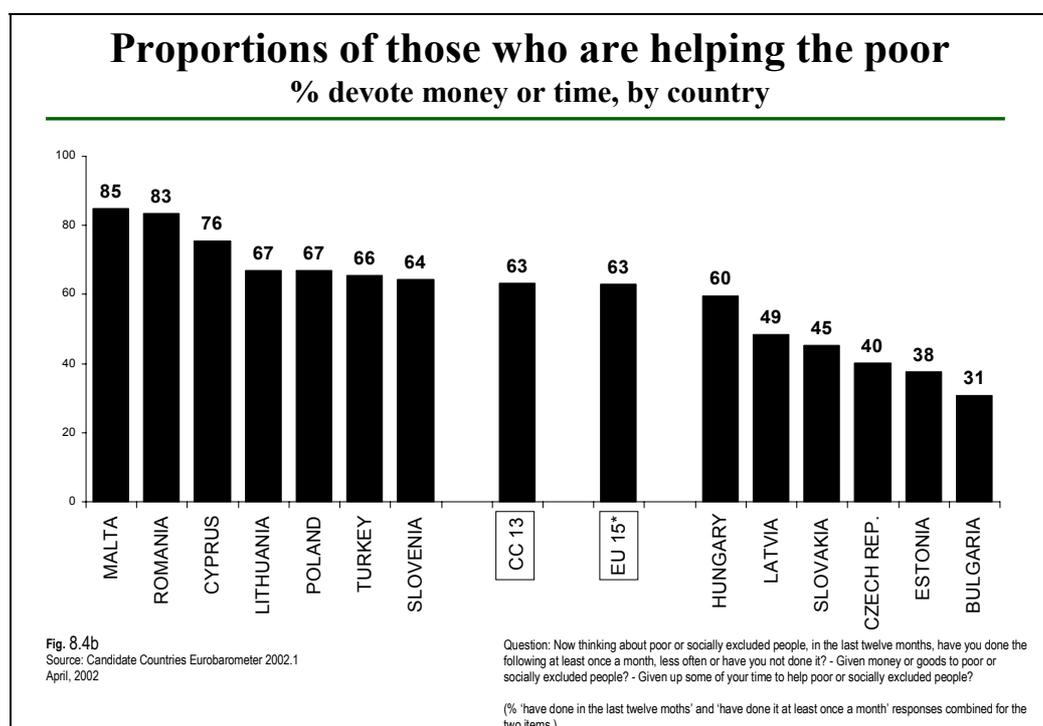
⁴⁰ EB52, Autumn 1999

The bottom of the scale is also interesting; the most individualistic Czechs (based on their responses we analysed in Subchapter 8.2) are behaving the same way, as the most egalitarian, state-oriented Bulgarians. Bulgarians were those who undoubtedly opted for egalitarian society, and consider income differences unwelcome, believing the poor have to be supported by the government. But not by fellow citizens, apparently: Bulgaria is at the bottom in both forms of personal contribution provided for the socially excluded and the poor. They are the least likely to give money or devote some time for this purpose. Estonians and the Czechs behave similarly; with the exception that they are not keen supporters of a solidary society and they expect their governments to act against poverty and social exclusion to a much lesser extent.

Maltese prefer to support the poor with financial assistance instead of work contributions; Romanians and Cypriots are the most likely to devote time to the support of the poor. In both countries, 12% help the poor on a monthly basis, and in the past one year, 53% of Romanians and 51% of Cypriots devoted some of their time to help the socially excluded. People from Slovenia and Turkey also show a higher level of active solidarity: about 1 in 10 in both societies provides help to the poor on a regular basis. 40% of the Slovenes and 39% of the Turkish gave support to poor people with some of their time over the past 12 months.

Figure 8.4b shows the proportions of the two altruistic behaviours combined for each Candidate Country. The overall levels of solidarity in the CC-13 and in the EU-15 region are exactly the same.

Eighty-five percent of Maltese helped the poor in one of these two ways over the last twelve months. Romanians come second with still more than 8 in 10 people (83%) contributing to the life of their disadvantaged fellow-citizens. Cyprus comes next with a bit more than three quarters (76%) of their citizens showing explicit solidarity for the needy.



In contrast, Bulgarians, Estonians, and Czechs are the least likely to be solidary with the poor and the excluded in their countries.

Analysing the same ratios according to demographic characteristics of respondents, the results show evidence that those on the higher levels of social hierarchies are devoting more of their resources to support the less fortunate fellow citizens of their country. While we find only a slight difference between the two genders – women are marginally more likely to provide help for the poor (64%) than men (62%) –, and there is a strong relation between solidary behaviour and the level of education.

Seventy-seven percent of those who did not leave school until they were at least twenty provide help for the poor and socially excluded people, while only 56% display similarly solidary behaviour among those who left school before the age of 16.

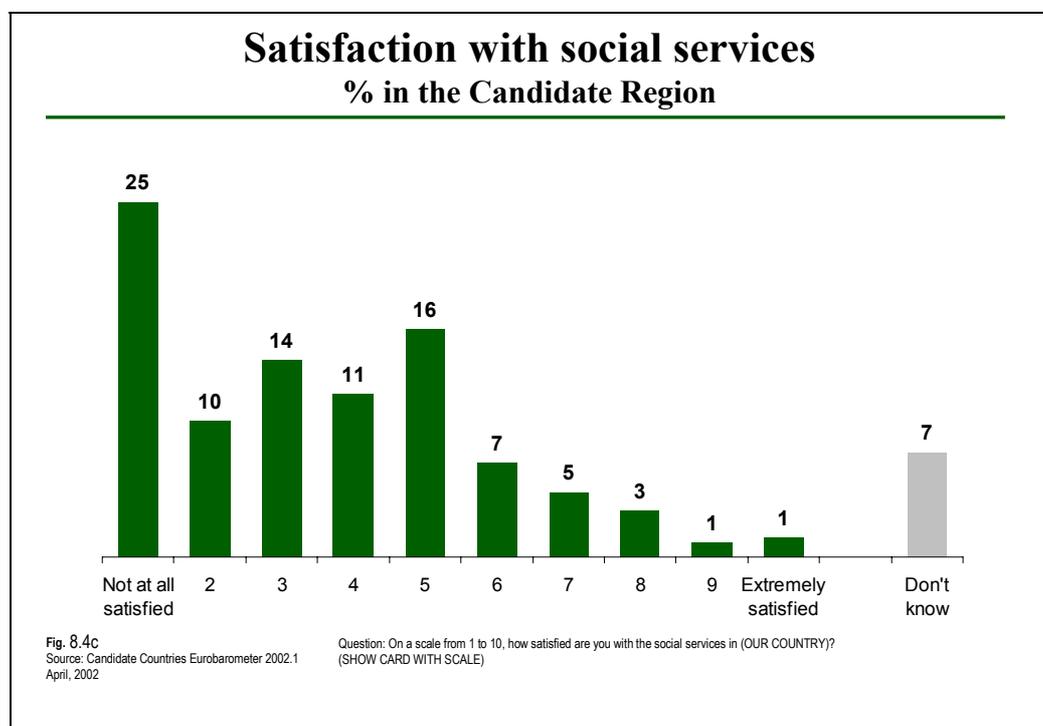
Further demographic analyses show that young adults (between 25 and 39 years), and those in their middle ages are the most likely to provide help for the poor (67% and 68%), while the youngest generation shows the weakest signs of solidarity with only 56% supporting the poor with money or work. Solidary behaviours are the most frequent in urban areas; only 59% of those who live in rural areas claimed they helped the poor one way or the other. Analyses of the economic activity scale show that managers are the most likely to provide help for those in need (79%), and unemployed persons are the least likely to do so (54%).

Table 8.4a Levels of solidarity – proportions of those who are helping the poor
(in%, by demographics)

Male	62	Self-employed	67
Female	64	Managers	79
AGE: 15-24 years	56	Other white collars	68
AGE: 25-39 years	67	Manual workers	67
AGE: 40-54 years	68	House Persons	63
AGE: 55+ years	61	Unemployed	54
EDU: up to 15 years	59	Retired	63
EDU: 16-19 years	65	Rural area or village	59
EDU: 20+ years	77	Small or middle sized town	67
EDU: still studying	57	Large town	66

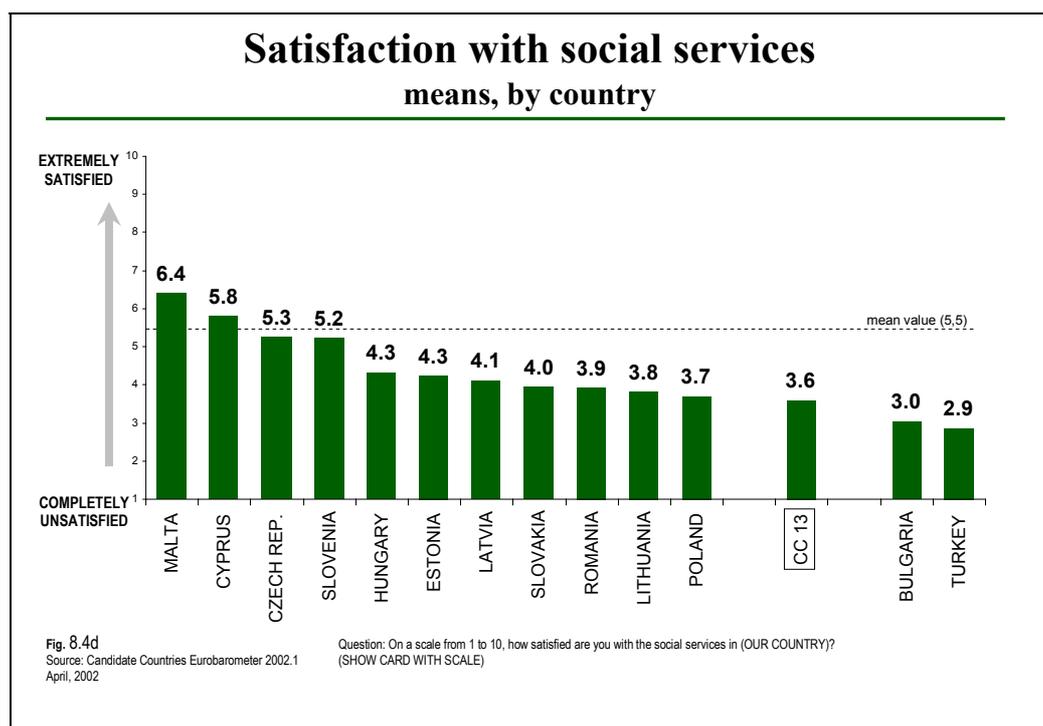
Satisfaction with social services

We asked our respondents to judge the quality of social services with the following question: “On a scale from 1 to 10, how satisfied are you with the social services in (OUR COUNTRY)?”. The extremes on the anchored scale were “not at all satisfied” (1) and “extremely satisfied” (10).



As Figure 8.4c shows, the satisfaction levels with social services are rather low on average in the Candidate Countries; 1 in 4 of the respondents is completely dissatisfied with the social services in his or her country. This average is largely determined by Turkey, where we found almost half of the respondents claiming that they were not at all satisfied with social services. In other countries, the levels of complete dissatisfaction range from 3% (in Malta and in the Czech Republic) to 21% (in Bulgaria). For detailed country-by-country results, please refer to Table 8.9a in the Annex. Back to the average of the region, only 17% believes that their social services are better than the average (and consequently, rated it higher than 5 on the ten-point scale).

Demographic analyses suggest that those least satisfied with the social services are those who actually use them: the low-educated (completely unsatisfied: 34%), and the unemployed (37%). We have found significant dissatisfaction among house persons (37%), the self-employed (29%), among the 25-39 years old (30%), and those who are living in a rural area (27%). (Table 8.9b in the Annex)



For country-by-country analyses, we apply means on the 10-point scale we used. The Maltese are the most satisfied with the quality of social services in their country (with a mean of 6.4). There is one other country where social services are rated – slightly – higher than mediocre, Cyprus (5.8). In all remaining eleven Candidate Countries, citizens rated the quality of social services below the neutral cut-point of the scale (5.5). Still, we recorded relatively higher ratings in the Czech Republic (5.3) and Slovenia (5.2). In the other countries, people regard the level of their country’s social services as worse than mediocre, ranging from the low extreme in Turkey (2.9) to Hungary (4.3).

Institutions providing the most help for the poor and socially excluded

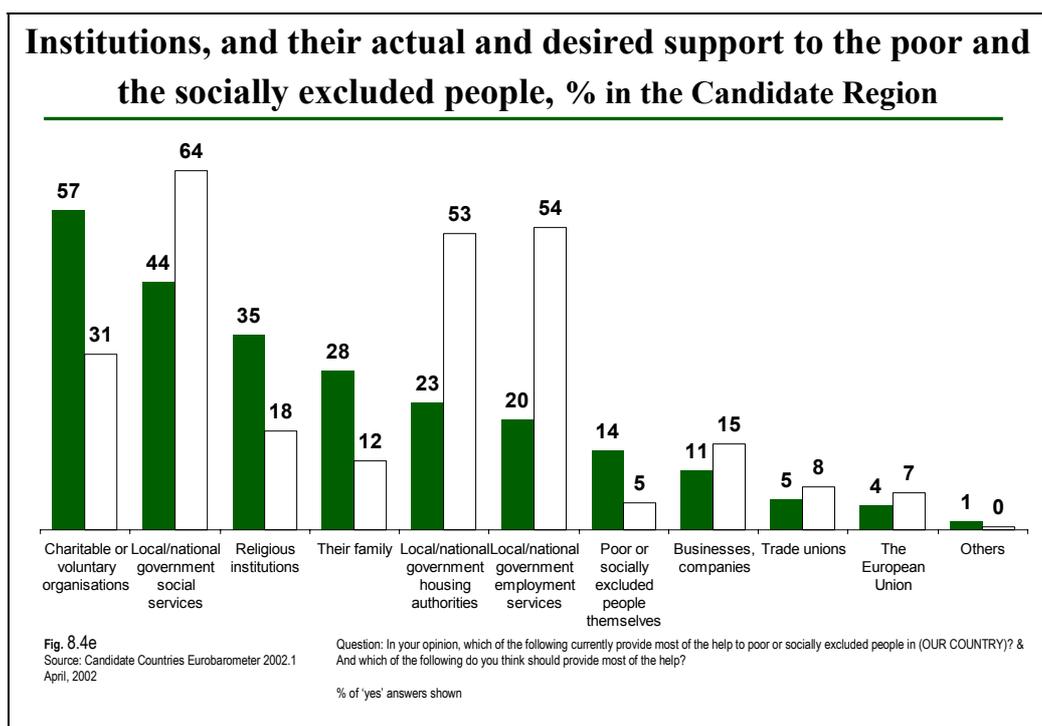
Certainly, even if citizens feel responsible for providing help to the poor and socially excluded, different institutions – including the state, central or local governments – have to take their share in providing support for those in need. Without these contributions it is rather hopeless to accumulate enough support for them to ensure higher quality life, or to be modest: at least a subsistence-level life – for the poor and the socially excluded.

The Candidate Countries Eurobarometer surveyed the public about the current levels of institutional support for those in need, and we also asked our respondents how they feel, who should provide the most support for the poor and the socially excluded. Overall, the most important result is that people expect the state to assume more responsibility, to replace charities and voluntary organizations as the most important source of outside help for those in need.

We asked the following question from the respondents of the Candidate Countries Eurobarometer: *“In your opinion, which of the following currently provide most of the help to poor or socially excluded people in (OUR COUNTRY)?”*; then: *“And which of the following do you think should provide most of the help?”*

- *Local/national government housing authorities*
- *Local/national government employment services*
- *Local/national government social services*
- *Religious institutions*
- *Charitable or voluntary organisations*
- *Businesses, companies*
- *Trade unions*
- *Their family*
- *The European Union*
- *Poor or socially excluded people themselves*
- *Others”*

Discrepancies between actual and desired sources of support show a clear preference for a state institutional solution instead of the perceived private- or church-based voluntary service provision. In the judgement of the public, charitable and voluntary organizations provide the most help for the socially excluded and poor people in the Candidate Region; 57% names them among the organizations that provide the most support to the needy.



The social services of the local or national government come in the second place, with 44% mentioning these among the institutions that provide the most help to the poor and socially excluded people. Religious institutions are the third important current source of assistance provided for the needy (35%). In the eye of the public, state housing authorities (23%) and employment services (20%) are not among the institutions that are providing the most help currently. Twenty-eight percent mentions their family and 14% of the poor or socially excluded people themselves among those who are supporting them the most. Businesses are mentioned by 1 in 10 respondents in the Candidate Countries (11%), and trade unions are perceived as a less important source of help (5%). As of April 2002, 4% of the population in the Candidate Countries mention the European Union among the institutions that provide the most help for the socially excluded and the poor.

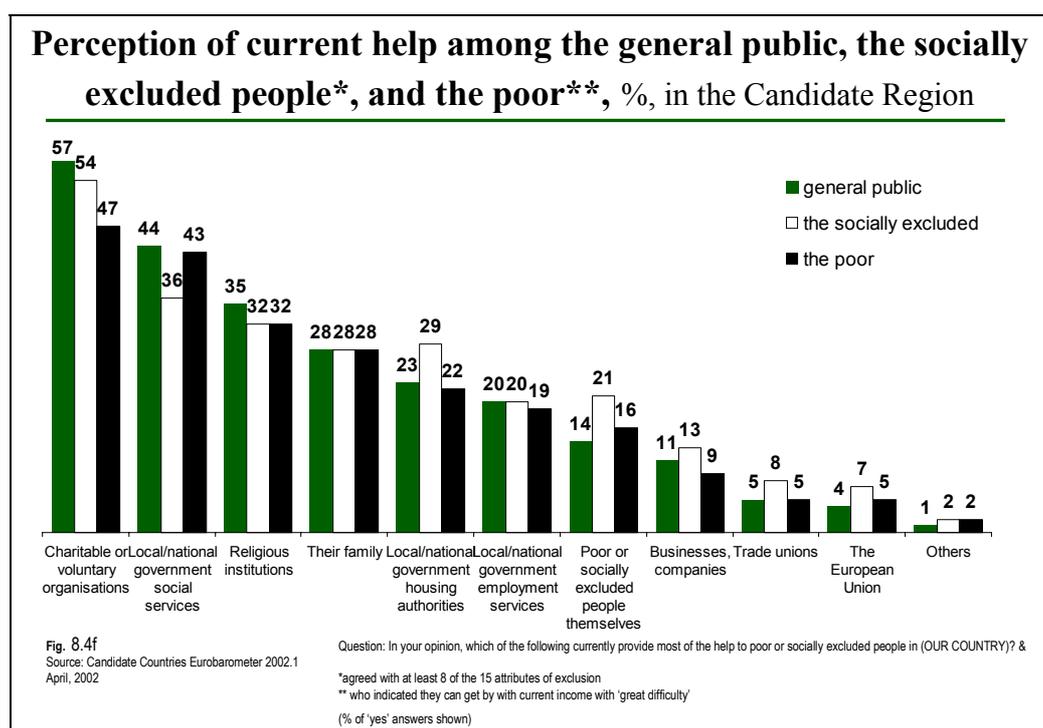
Table 8.4b Top three institutions currently providing the most help for the socially excluded and poor people (in %, by country)

Bulgaria		Malta	
Government social services	60	Government social services	77
Charitable or voluntary organisations	33	Charitable or voluntary organisations	70
Government employment services	30	Religious institutions	58
Cyprus		Poland	
Charitable or voluntary organisations	62	Charitable or voluntary organisations	61
Government social services	53	Government social services	60
Religious institutions	40	Religious institutions	44
Czech Republic		Romania	
Charitable or voluntary organisations	69	Government social services	37
Government social services	57	Religious institutions	37
Religious institutions	35	Charitable or voluntary organisations	31
Estonia		Slovakia	
Government social services	58	Charitable or voluntary organisations	66
Religious institutions	49	Government social services	42
Charitable or voluntary organisations	47	Religious institutions	39
Hungary		Slovenia	
Charitable or voluntary organisations	59	Charitable or voluntary organisations	67
Government social services	59	Government social services	42
Religious institutions	40	Their family	31
Latvia		Turkey	
Government social services	65	Charitable or voluntary organisations	66
Religious institutions	49	Government housing authorities	33
Charitable or voluntary organisations	48	Their family	31
Lithuania			
Charitable or voluntary organisations	51		
Government social services	43		
Poor people themselves	38		

Table 8.4b shows, which three of these other institutions are considered to provide the most help to the poor and socially excluded people in each Candidate Country. The **charities and voluntary organizations** tops the list in 8 of the 13 Candidate Countries, comes in second place in 2 countries, and third place in a further 3 countries. There is no country where charities are not included in the top three. The **social services of national or local government** tops the list in 5 Candidate Countries, comes in second place in 7 countries. It is not included in the top three only in Turkey. **Religious institutions** comes in second place in Estonia, Romania, and Latvia, and third in Hungary, Slovakia, the Czech Republic, Malta, Cyprus, and Poland. This category does not appear among the top three in Bulgaria,

Slovenia, Turkey, and Lithuania. **Government housing authorities** takes the second place in Turkey. The **families** of the excluded people comes third in Slovenia and Turkey, while **poor people themselves** is third in Lithuania. None of the other institutions makes the top three. (See also Table 8.10 in the Annex)

Figure 8.4f below shows that the perceptions of those who might be affected in this respect are very close to those of the general public: the socially excluded⁴¹ and poor persons⁴². Nevertheless, the poor are less likely to think that charities provide the most help, and the socially excluded are not as likely to perceive that social services provide the most support as the general public, or the poor do. The socially excluded persons are more likely to list housing services and the affected population itself to be amongst those who provide the most help. Socially excluded people feel more that the European Union is one of the institutions that provide the most support to the poor and socially excluded.



Generally – unlike in the current situation –, the public *expects* that state or municipal services should provide the bulk of the support for the poor: social services (64%), employment services (54%), and housing authorities (53%). Thirty-one percent would prefer that charities remain among the institutions that provide the most help for the poor and socially excluded, and 1 in 5 people would prefer if religious institutions took their share in providing assistance for the needy.

Only one in ten respondents thinks that the poor persons' own families should be among the most important sources of help, and only 5% expect that the poor themselves should be among those who provide the most help to them.

People expect not only from state and municipal authorities to assume more responsibility, but from businesses as well: 11% named companies among the institutions providing the most help currently, and 15% among those that should provide the most help for the poor and socially excluded persons.

⁴¹ According to the definition we used in subchapter 8.1

⁴² Who claimed they can get by with their incomes only with great difficulty

People expect in somewhat higher but still in low proportions significant involvement of the European Union in support of the poor and the socially excluded persons: 4% mentioned EU among the institutions that provide the most help currently, and 7% agreed that the EU should be among these institutions.

Table 8.4c on the next page shows that the public of each Candidate Country unanimously think the municipal or national government should provide the most help to the poor or socially excluded people. In almost all countries social services come first, and local or national housing authorities and employment services come second and third.

The exceptions are Malta, where religious institutions and charities follow social services; the Czech Republic where charities – coming third – replace housing authorities; and Slovakia, where charities come second and housing authorities do not feature in the top three. (See also Table 8.11 in the Annex)

Table 8.4c Top three institutions people expect to provide the most help for the socially excluded and poor people (in %, by country)

Bulgaria		Malta	
Government social services	73	Government social services	84
Government employment services	64	Religious institutions	45
Government housing authorities	46	Charitable or voluntary organisations	44
Cyprus		Poland	
Government social services	64	Government social services	68
Government housing authorities	49	Government employment services	44
Government employment services	48	Government housing authorities	43
Czech Republic		Romania	
Government social services	69	Government employment services	62
Government employment services	49	Government social services	58
Charitable or voluntary organisations	45	Government housing authorities	51
Estonia		Slovakia	
Government social services	76	Government social services	67
Government employment services	48	Charitable or voluntary organisations	41
Government housing authorities	40	Government employment services	36
Hungary		Slovenia	
Government social services	69	Government social services	70
Government employment services	45	Government employment services	58
Government housing authorities	43	Government housing authorities	53
Latvia		Turkey	
Government social services	81	Government housing authorities	71
Government employment services	43	Government employment services	61
Government housing authorities	39	Government social services	60
Lithuania			
Government social services	64		
Government employment services	59		
Government housing authorities	56		

State, corporate and non-governmental responsibilities in social support

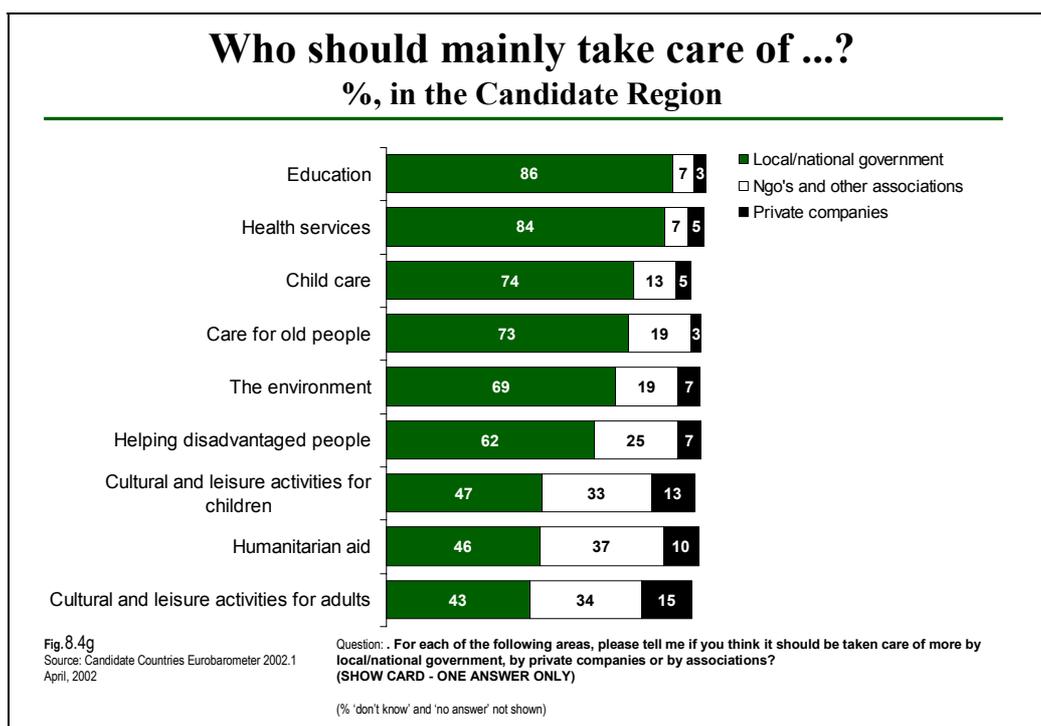
At a broader level, the Candidate Countries Eurobarometer also investigated to what extent people are preferring state support in various important social issues – besides helping the disadvantaged, socially excluded people –, or to what extent they think that private businesses or NGOs have to take care of these issues.

The question was: *“For each of the following areas, please tell me if you think it should be taken care of more by local/national government, by private companies or by associations?”*

- *Child care*
- *Care for old people who no longer can live an independent life*
- *Health services*
- *Cultural and leisure activities for adults*
- *Cultural and leisure activities for children*
- *Education*
- *The environment*
- *Humanitarian aid*
- *Helping disadvantaged people, the socially excluded*

In the Candidate Region most people think that the state has to take care of each area we listed. In the issues of humanitarian aid and leisure activities for children and adults not the majority think that the state has to take care of them, nevertheless, most of the people chose this alternative.

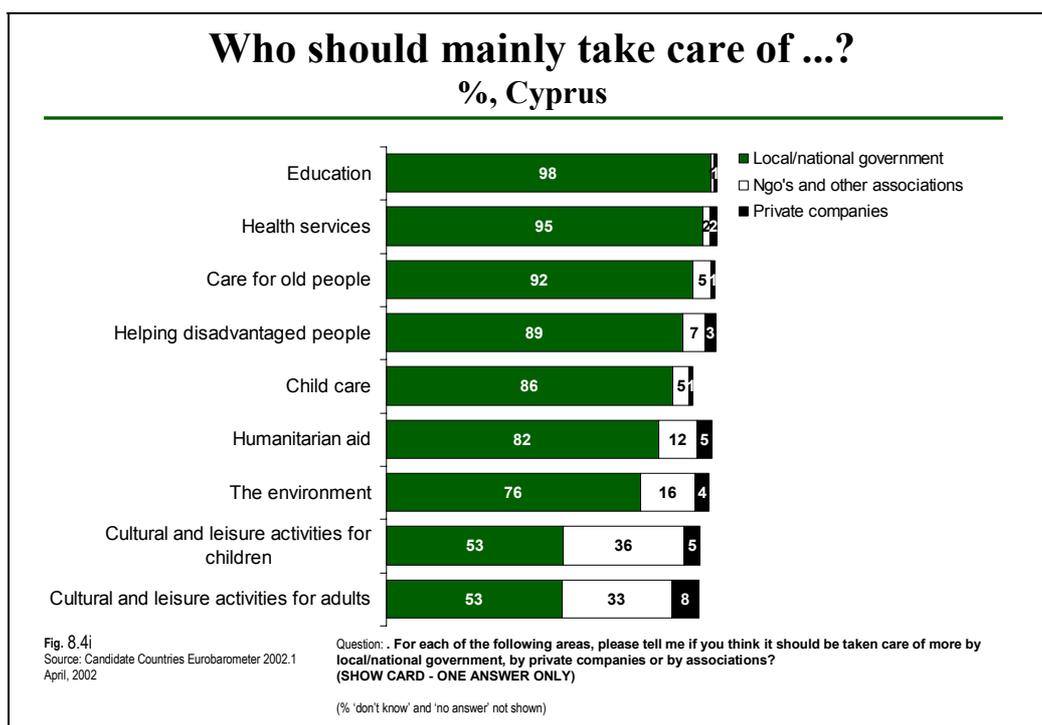
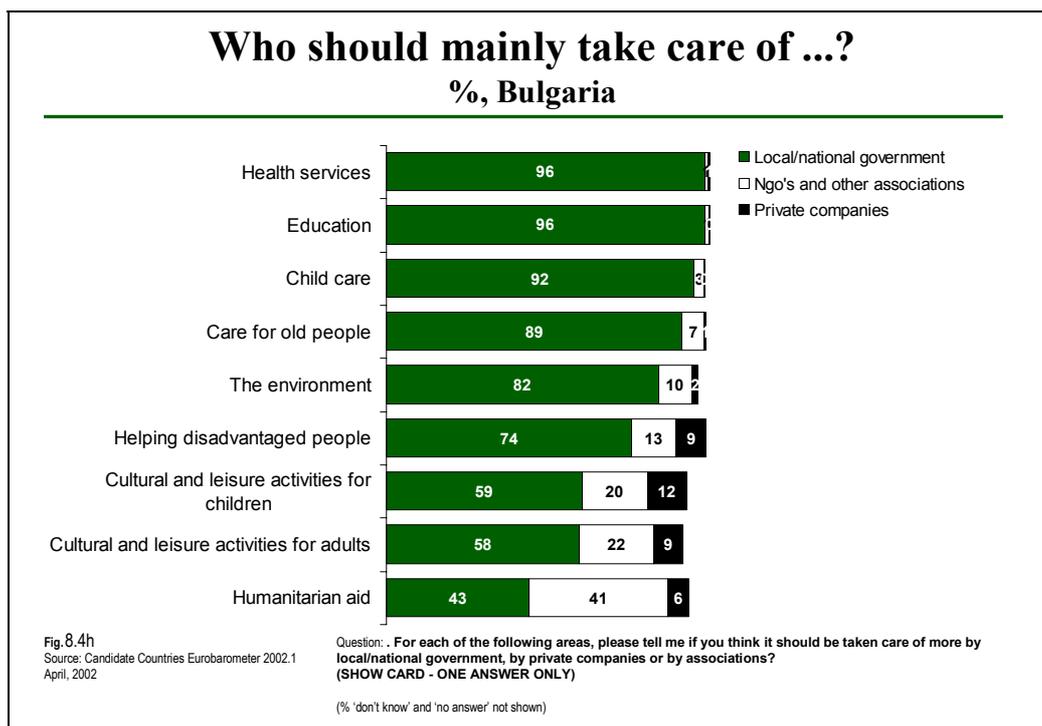
Almost unanimously, the citizens of the Candidate Countries think that education (86%) and health services (84%) have to be taken care by the state – either local or national. 3 in 4 residents in the Candidate Region believe that child care (74%) and care for the elderly (73%) should not be “privatised” to NGOs or corporations. (More about state responsibilities in child-care is in Chapter 2.4, while the reader can find detailed analyses about the issues related to the care of elderly in Chapter 5.) More than 6 in 10 citizens say that the state should take care of environmental issues and the support provided for disadvantaged people (69% and 62%, respectively).

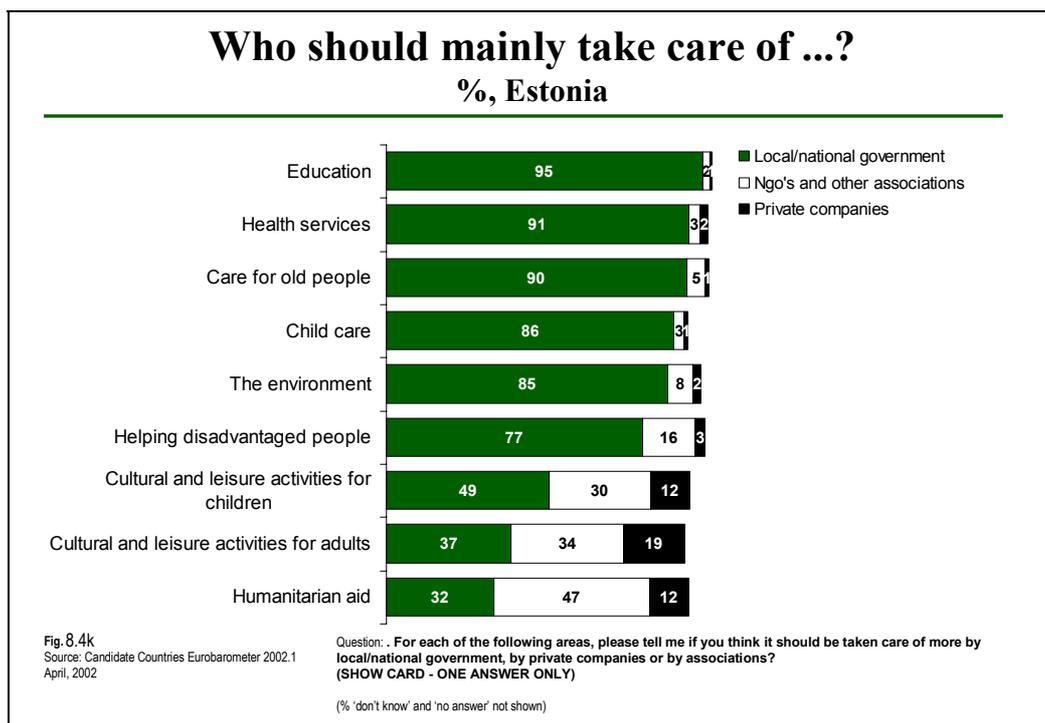
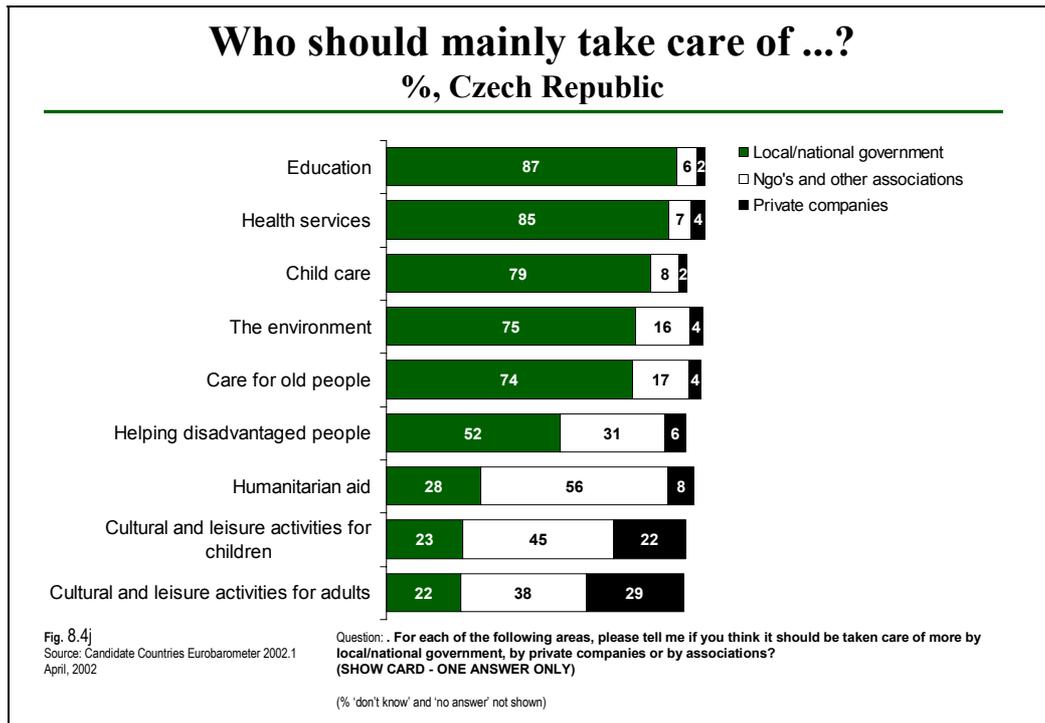


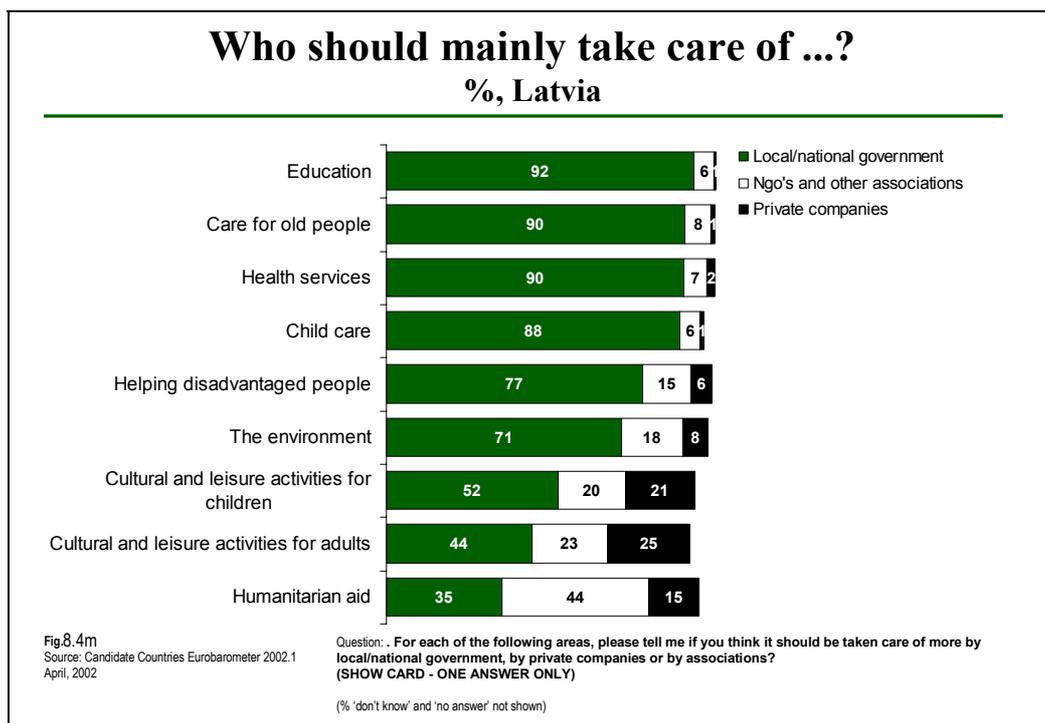
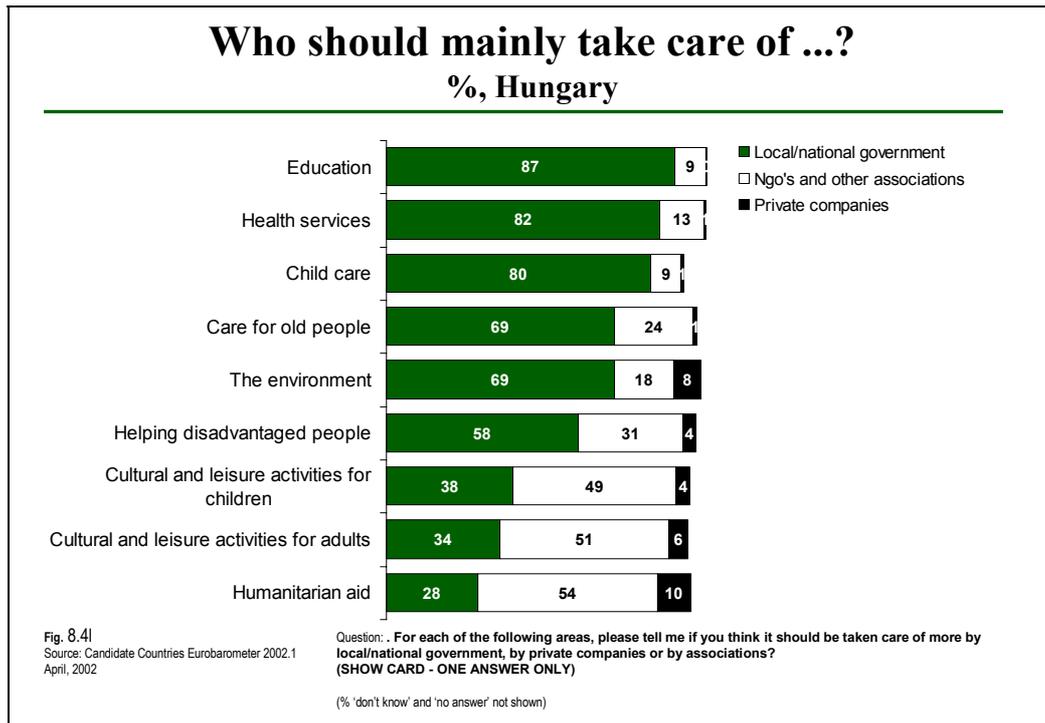
At the same time 1 in 5 people thinks that environmental issues should be taken care of by NGOs (19%), and 1 in 4 believes that the help for the socially excluded or disadvantaged should be primarily provided by non-governmental organizations. About one third prefers these organizations to take care of leisure activities of children (33%) and adults (34%), and 37% think that NGOs should be the prime source of humanitarian aid in their countries. Generally though, NGOs are expected to play second fiddle to local or national governmental services in taking care of these social issues.

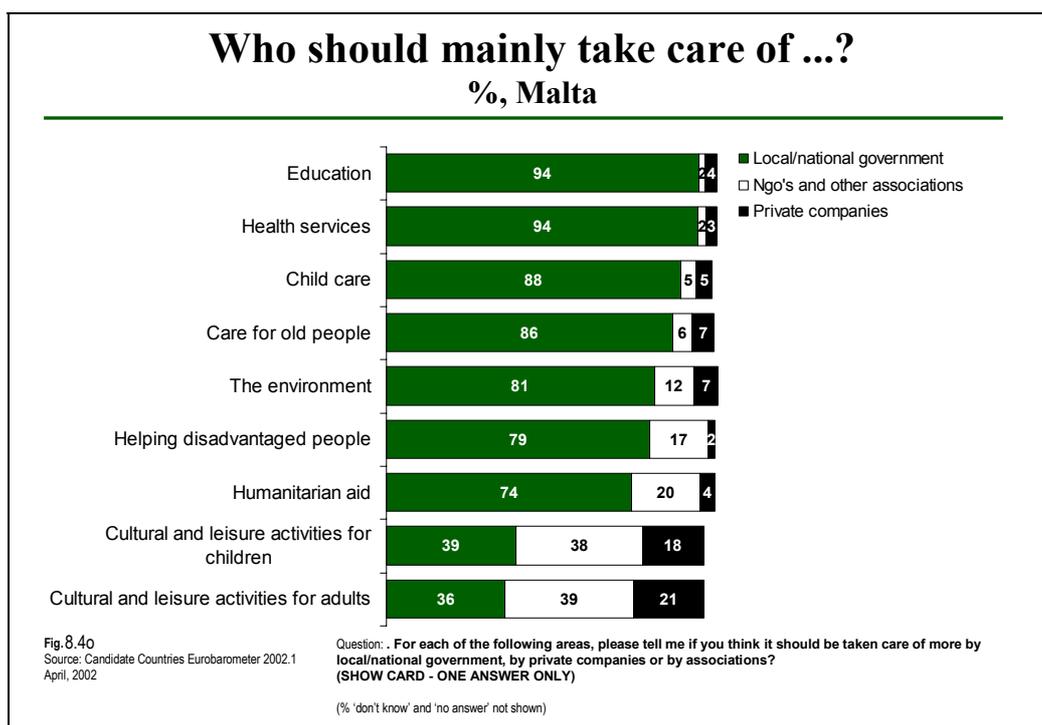
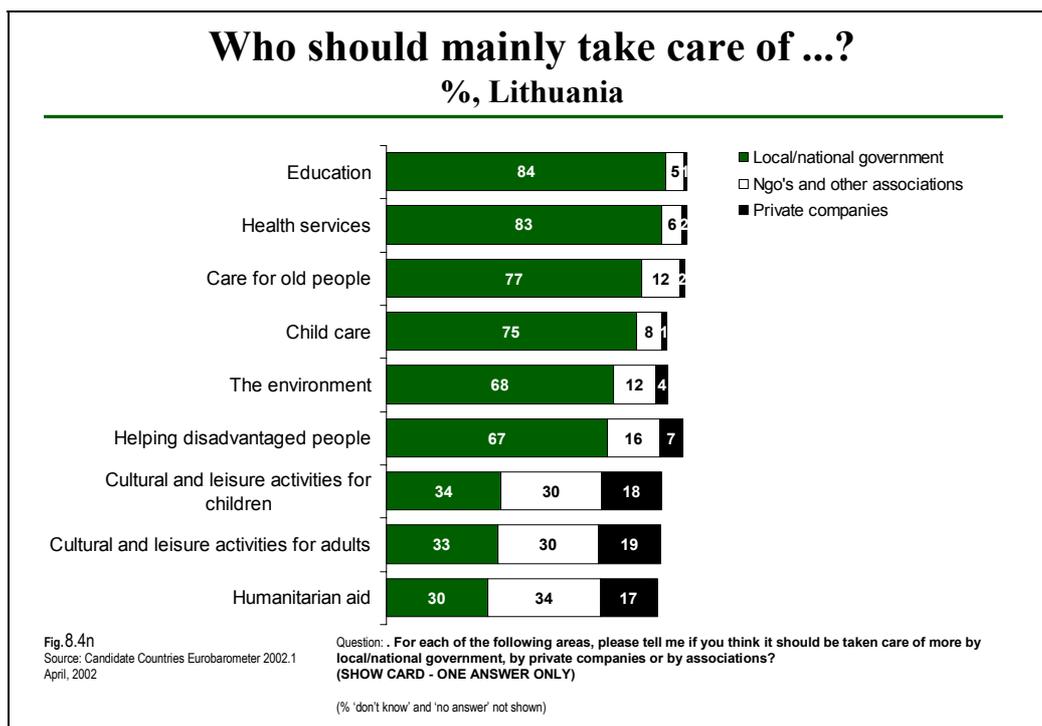
The preference for corporate participation is the highest in the leisure activities for children (13%) and adults (15%), but generally, the public does not think that businesses should take responsibility for any of the issues we investigated.

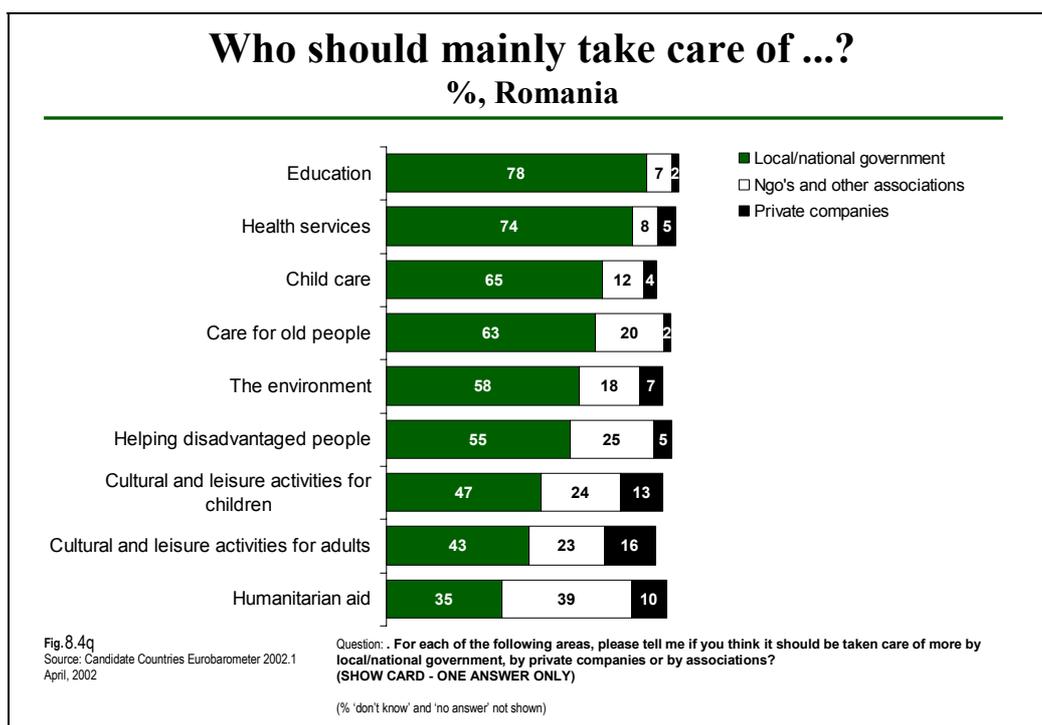
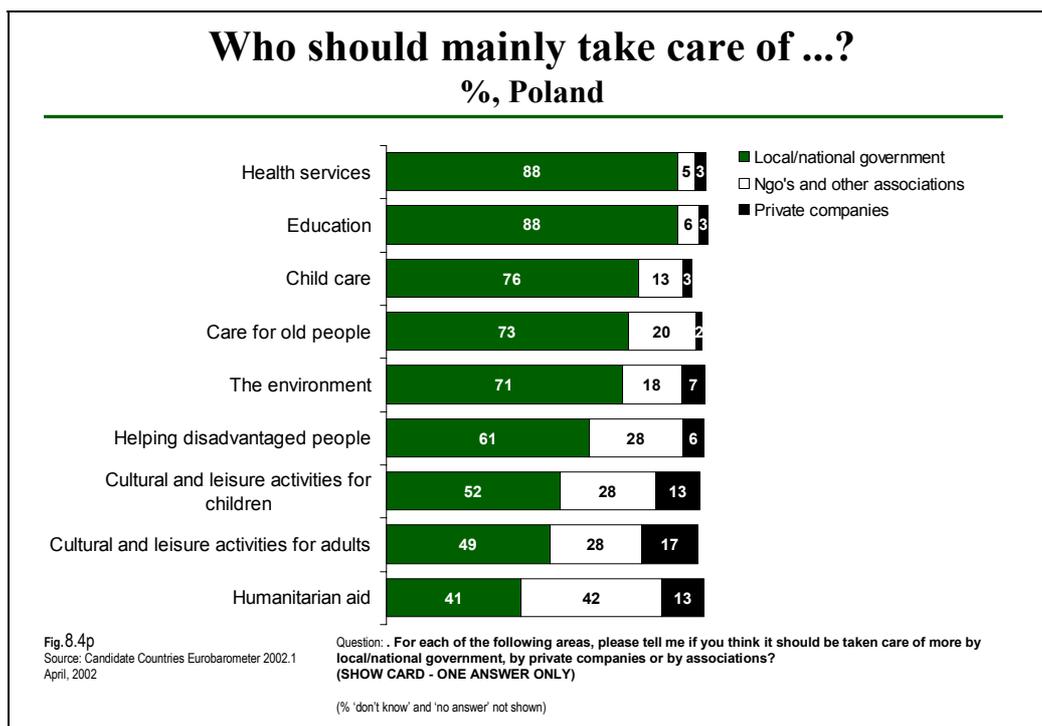
For detailed country-by-country results see Figures 8.4h-t, and Table 8.12 in the Annex of this report.

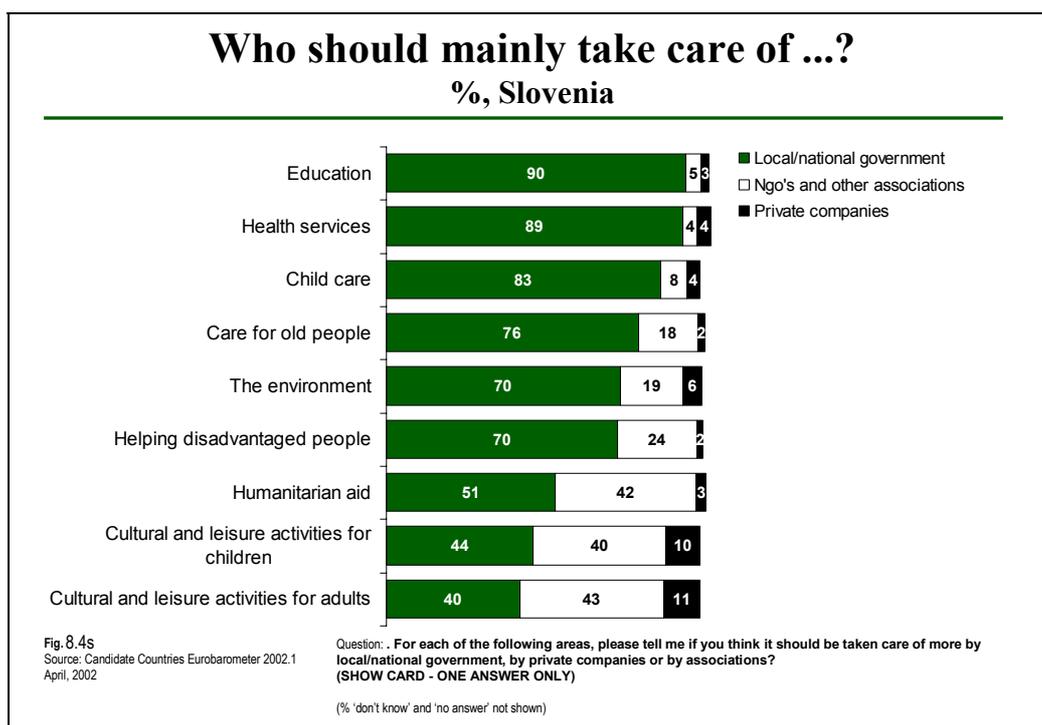
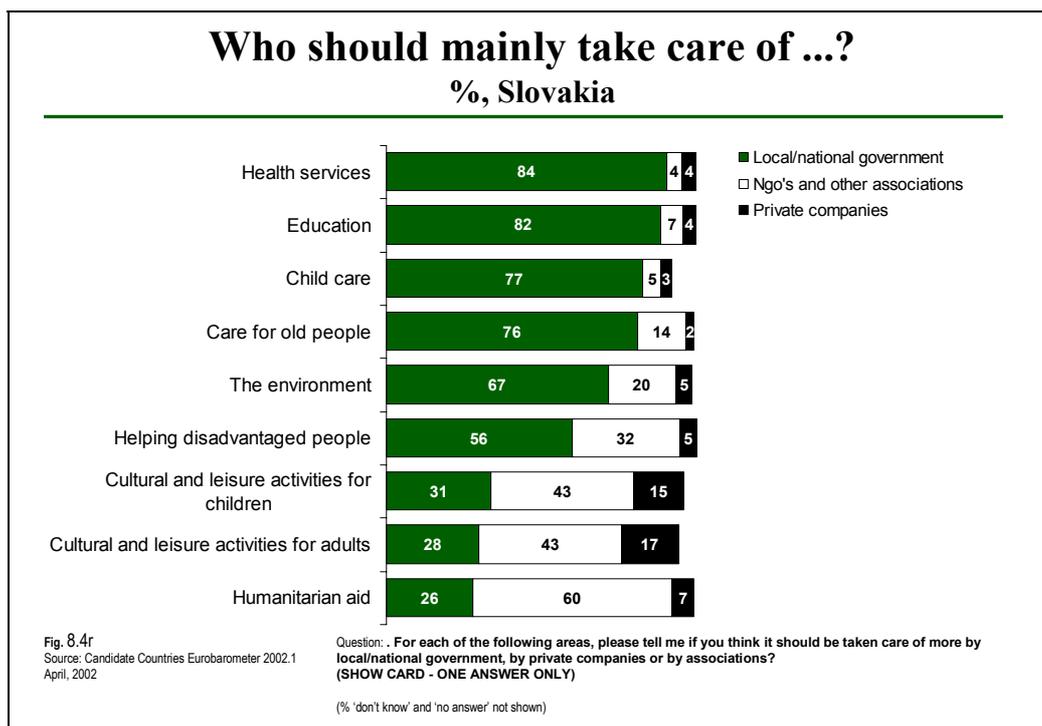


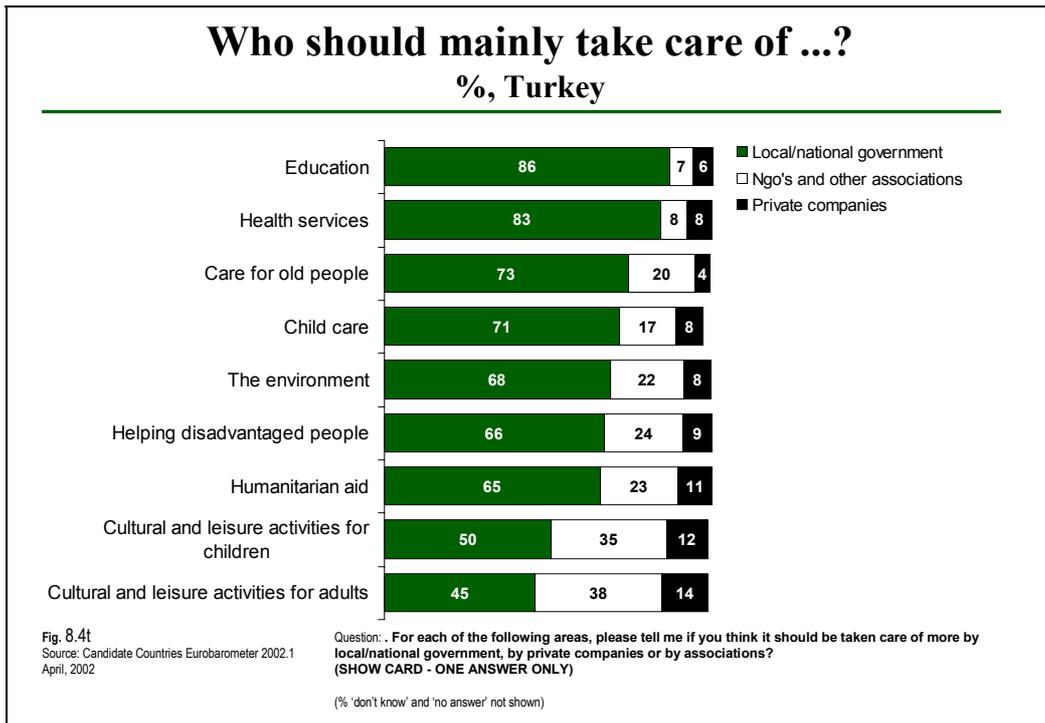












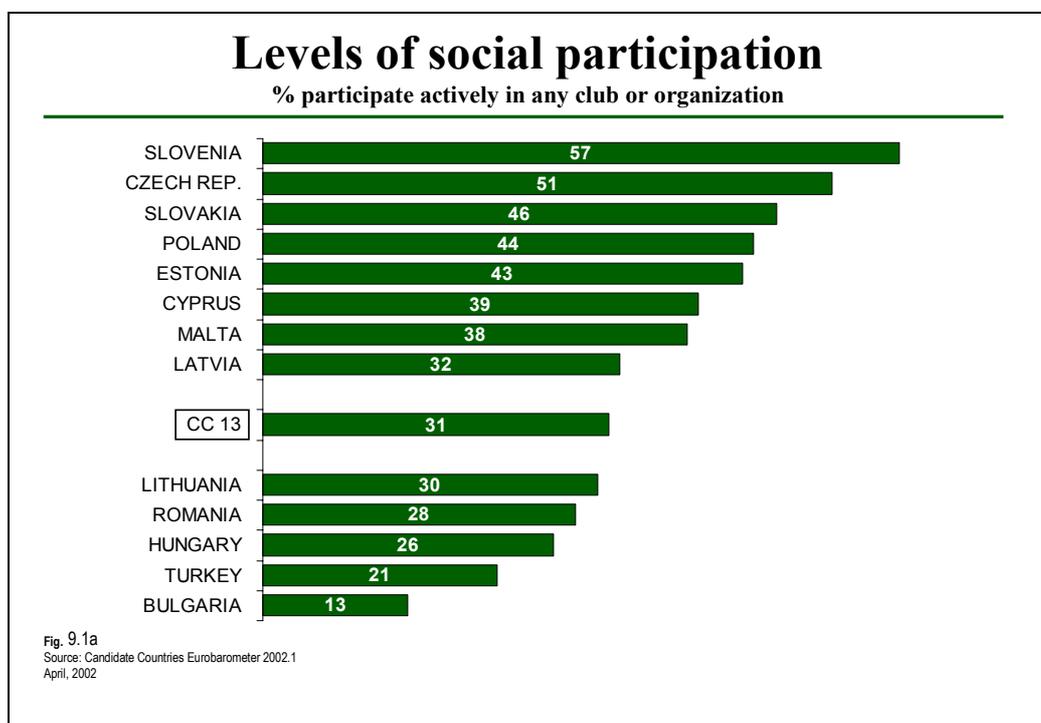
9. Social and Political Participation and Integration

To measure social and political participation and integration of the societies in the Candidate Region, we repeated a question from Eurobarometer 52 that investigated active participation in several forms of organisations and associations. The respondents had to choose from the list in which they were involved or actively participated. Respondents could name as many of this list as they wanted. Levels of social participation are lower in the Candidate Countries than they are in the European Union Member States.

9.1 Levels of participation

In summary, it seems that on the average 31% of the 13 Candidate Countries' population are *actively* involved in some kind of clubs, organisations or associations⁴³.

This means that on the average almost one third of the people claim to have strong ties at least to one club, or organisation, which on one hand expands their social scope, on the other hand it helps to build their support networks, protects their interests if necessary, and finally it creates a community of people with similar interests and beliefs.



Differences among countries are in all probability due to social traditions, but besides this, the differences anticipate a lot of the given country's social integration and activity.

Relying on the above findings, the most active residents are Slovenians: more than 56% of the respondents are actively participating in the activities of some kind of club, community, or organisation. In this ranking, Slovenia is followed by the Czech Republic, where more than half of the respondents claimed to have been active members of organisations. This proportion is slightly smaller – but still well exceeding the average – in Slovakia (46%), Poland

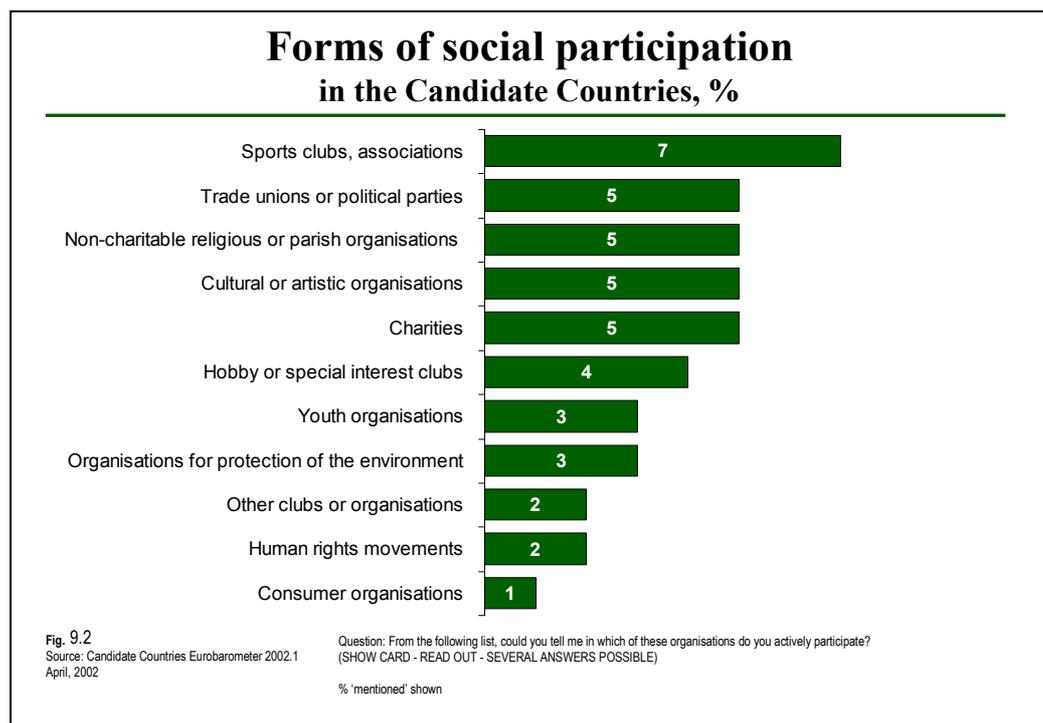
⁴³ Our question was: „From the following list, could you tell me in which of these organisations do you actively participate?”

(44%), and in Estonia (43%). At the same time, Turkey with 21% and Bulgaria, with its proportion of only 13%, are left far behind the average of the 13 Candidate Countries.

9.2 Forms of participation

If we go into a deeper analysis of what kind of clubs people join, we get a much more detailed picture of the nature of social and political participation and integration. These social organisations cover all important fields of life: from sports clubs, through cultural and religious organisations, to trade unions and political parties.

The graph below presents the proportions of participation in these organisations.



Among the 13 Candidate Countries the most people who join clubs - 7% of the respondents - are members of some kind of sports club, or association. The second place is occupied by trade unions and political parties, and the third is by non-charitable religious or parish organisations, 5-5% respectively. Another 5% of the respondents are members of cultural or artistic organisations. Again another 5% of respondents are members of social or community organisations or religious organisations involved in charitable activities. Hobby or special interest clubs play an important role in the 13 Candidate Countries, where 4% of the residents are members of one of them. Youth organisations attract 3% of the respondents.

Growing problems of protecting the environment have drawn the attention of this region's inhabitants as well; 3% of the region's residents are active participants in organisations for the protection of the environment.

Other clubs or organisations stand for those forms of social activities, communities and clubs that are not listed below or above, i.e. do not belong to any of the organisations mentioned before. 2% of the respondents categorised themselves as members of such organisations as the members of the human rights movements.

The least people participate in consumer organisations; only 1% of the respondents are members.

Differences across the countries of the Candidate Region are illustrated with the chart below.

Table 9.2 Top three most widespread forms of social activities in the Candidate Region (in %, by country)

Bulgaria	
Hobby clubs	5
Trade unions or political parties	4
Sports clubs, associations	3

Cyprus	
Sports clubs, associations	11
Trade unions or political parties	11
Cultural or artistic organisations	10

Czech Republic	
Sports clubs, associations	21
Cultural or artistic organisations	13
Hobby clubs	10

Estonia	
Sports clubs, associations	12
Hobby clubs	11
Cultural or artistic organisations	7

Hungary	
Sports clubs, associations	6
Religious or parish organisations	6
Trade unions or political parties	5

Latvia	
Sports clubs, associations	10
Religious or parish organisations	7
Cultural or artistic organisations	6

Lithuania	
Sports clubs, associations	9
Religious or parish organisations	6
Cultural or artistic organisations	5

Malta	
Religious or parish organisations	13
Sports clubs, associations	13
Charities	10

Poland	
Sports clubs, associations	6
Religious or parish organisations	4
Charities	4

Romania	
Religious or parish organisations	10
Trade unions or political parties	6
Sports clubs, associations	3

Slovakia	
Sports clubs, associations	16
Religious or parish organisations	11
Cultural or artistic organisations	10

Slovenia	
Sports clubs, associations	15
Hobby clubs	10
Trade unions or political parties	10

Turkey	
Charities	6
Sports clubs, associations	6
Cultural or artistic organisations	5

The top three organisations with the most members are almost alike in each country: sports clubs, associations, religious or parish, and cultural or artistic organisations. In contrast to this – and of course to the general tendency – hobby clubs and organisations are of greater importance in Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Estonia, and Slovenia.

Memberships of trade unions or political parties are more characteristic of Bulgaria, Cyprus, Romania, Hungary, and Slovenia than other countries of the region. (For details see Table 9.1 in Annex)

9.3 Participation and satisfaction

The assumption that people of wider social scope are more satisfied with their social life seems to be true (and – as we have shown in Chapter 1 – satisfaction with one’s social life is closely correlated with the person’s general satisfaction level). Examining the relationship between satisfaction with one’s social life and social and political participation and integration, it appears that only 21% and 26% of people who are not at all, or not really satisfied with their social life are members of some kind of organisations, while 32% of the fairly satisfied and 43% of the very satisfied people are members of clubs, or organisations.

Table 9.3a Satisfaction with social life as a function of active involvement in a club, association, other organization
(%, on CC-13 level)

	Participate in any organization
Not at all satisfied	21
Not very satisfied	26
Fairly satisfied	32
Very satisfied	43

Carrying out a similar analysis of the relationship between the household incomes and social and political participation and integration, we find that membership in organisations seems to be in direct connection with the income of the family. While only 22% of people in the group of the lowest income quartile join some kind of organisation, this proportion is already 28% in the second lowest quartile. This figure changes to 33% among people with the second best income and peaks at 36% among people with the highest income.

Table 9.3b Social participation as a function of household income⁴⁴
(%, on CC-13 level)

	Participate in any organization
Household Income - -	22
Household Income -	28
Household Income +	33
Household Income + +	36

⁴⁴ income quartiles

10. Employment, working conditions

This Chapter will profile the economic activity of the population in the Candidate Region, discuss the issue of unemployment in more detail, and lastly, introduce selected dimensions of working conditions in the countries waiting for accession to the European Union.

10.1 Economic Activity

The Table below profiles the distribution of the adult population 15 years or over, according to economic activity in each Candidate Country.

Table 10.1a Economic activity of citizens in the countries of the Candidate Region
(in %)

	CC-13	LAEKEN-10	EU-15 ⁴⁵	BULGARIA	CYPRUS	CZECH REP	ESTONIA	HUNGARY	LATVIA	LITHUANIA	MALTA	POLAND	ROMANIA	SLOVAKIA	SLOVENIA	TURKEY
Responsible for ordinary shopping and looking after the home, or without any current occupation, not working	17	7	13	3	19	2	4	4	4	4	33	7	14	3	3	34
Student	11	10	10	8	13	14	15	9	10	11	7	13	9	11	15	9
Unemployed or temporarily not working	13	9	5	21	5	5	8	8	13	12	4	14	9	10	7	17
Retired or unable to work through illness	24	27	22	35	14	26	24	40	24	23	17	30	36	30	31	9
NOT WORKING TOTAL⁴⁶	64	54	50	68	50	46	50	61	51	50	61	65	68	55	56	69
Farmer	4	2	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	5	1	1	2	7
Fisherman	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Professional (lawyer, medical practitioner, accountant, architect, ...)	1	1	2	0	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	0	0
Owner of a shop, craftsmen, other self employed person	4	3	5	2	3	4	1	2	2	2	4	2	1	3	2	7
Business proprietors, owner (full or partner) of a company	1	2	2	1	1	3	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	3	1
SELF-EMPLOYED TOTAL	9	7	10	4	6	8	5	5	5	7	6	9	3	5	6	15
Employed professional (employed doctor, lawyer, accountant, architect)	2	3	1	3	1	4	4	2	5	3	2	2	3	3	2	0
General management, director or top management (managing directors, director general, other director)	0	1	2	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	2	0	0	0	1	0
Middle management, other management (department head, junior manager, teacher, technician)	4	7	6	3	6	8	4	3	6	7	6	5	1	9	6	2
Employed position, working mainly at a desk	4	6	9	4	9	13	4	5	4	7	4	3	3	6	7	2
Employed position, not at a desk but travelling (salesmen, driver, ...)	2	4	3	2	3	4	4	4	6	4	4	3	2	2	3	1
Employed position, not at a desk, but in a service job (hospital, restaurant, police, fireman, ...)	3	5	6	4	6	5	9	3	5	7	4	3	4	8	4	2
Supervisor	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	1	0	2	2	1	1	1	0
Skilled manual worker	7	9	10	9	13	9	10	9	11	9	7	8	12	9	10	4
Other (unskilled) manual worker, servant	3	4	5	3	4	3	9	7	6	5	3	1	2	2	3	4
EMPLOYED TOTAL	26	40	43	28	43	45	45	34	44	43	33	27	28	40	38	16

⁴⁵ As of Autumn 2001, source: Standard Eurobarometer 56.1

⁴⁶ Totals of non-rounded percentages, except for the European Union, therefore in the case of Candidate Countries, the actual sum of the numbers in some of the columns may differ from the given total figures; and in the case of EU, the sum of the three sub-totals exceed 100%

Almost inevitably, general population surveys that are not tailored to measure employment, (such as labour force surveys which have sophisticated screeners for determining if one is working or not⁴⁷, as well as significantly larger sample sizes), underestimate employment rates (which, for example, are above 60% in the European Union according to Eurostat, not 50% as the Table above suggests).

Differences between statistics and Eurobarometer estimations can be very great in economies where agriculture is an important sector. In Romania⁴⁸, for example, 33% of the 15+ population is retired⁴⁹, but at the same time, only 64.3% of those aged 65 years and over were inactive by the ILO definition of employment (see footnote). In more industrialized societies we find that Eurobarometer's activity estimates are much closer to the figures published in national or international statistics, as Table 10.1b below.

Table 10.1b Comparison of employment rates by ILO definition*, and % working found by Eurobarometer surveys (in %)

	Employment rate, 1999, Eurostat	% working, 2002, Eurobarometer
Bulgaria	40.8	32.4
Cyprus	67.3	49.5
Czech Republic	55.5	53.5
Estonia	52.3	49.6
Hungary	45.9	38.8
Latvia	50.2	48.9
Lithuania	55.3	50.0
Malta	44.7	38.8
Poland	49.6	35.4
Romania	60.9	31.7
Slovakia	49.7	45.1
Slovenia	53.6	44.1
Turkey	48.9	30.5
EU-15	62.3	50.0**
CC-13	N.A	35.6

* All people aged 15 years and over, who have carried out an economic or social activity producing goods or services, with a duration of at least one hour during the reference period (one week), for a salary, payments in kind or other benefits.

** Standard Eurobarometer 56.1, Autumn 2001

Since detailed statistical information is not always available from all Candidate Countries (Eurostat often exclude Turkey from their analyses) and even nomenclatures are not perfectly harmonized across the Candidate Region, it may be well worth taking a look at the patterns we find with our measurements as well, rather than simply suggesting that the reader look up the appropriate Eurostat publications. However, the reader should not forget that these numbers are not comparable with those appearing in official statistics.

⁴⁷ For Labour Force Surveys, employment comprises all people aged 15 years and over, who have carried out an economic or social activity producing goods or services, with a duration of at least one hour during the reference period (one week), for a salary, payments in kind or other benefits. Our definition is much simpler; we just ask what people's occupation is, and if they claim not to be working, we believe them.

⁴⁸ According to national statistics 41.4%, according to Eurostat 45.2% of Romanian labour force is employed by agriculture as of 2000.

⁴⁹ Source: Statistical Yearbook 2001, National Institute of Statistics of Romania.

In the opening Table of this Chapter (Table 10.1a), we find remarkable differences across the countries of the Candidate Region mainly in the non-working population. On the average, we find more **house persons** in the Candidate Region (17%) than in the European Union⁵⁰ (13%), but in fact, two countries account for most of the disparity in this regard; 34% of the Turkish population describe themselves as primarily responsible for shopping and looking after the home, or simply not working, while 14% of Romanians make the same claim. Proportions of homemakers are also high in Malta (33%) and Cyprus (19%), but these two countries with their combined population of about a million do not account for one percent of the total population of the region – consequently, their weight in the total results is low. The ratio of homemakers in the 9 remaining Candidate Countries ranges from 2% in the Czech Republic to 7% in Poland. The average of the Laeken-10 group is 7%, which is 10 percentage points lower than the respective European Union figure, indicating that women's labour participation is considerably higher in these Candidate Countries than in the EU.

In the Candidate Countries about the same percentage of the 15 years and older population as in the European Union claim to be **studying**, (CC-13: 11%, EU-15: 10%). The highest percentages were found in Estonia and Slovenia, where 15% of all adult respondents classified themselves as students. (In the age group between 20 and 30 years, 37% of Slovenians claimed that they were students, the next highest proportion was reported in Romania (20%) and the lowest in Malta (8%).

Unemployed or non-working people account for only 5% of the EU-15 population, for 9% of the Laeken-10 population, and 13% of all citizens in the Candidate Region. The highest proportions were found in Bulgaria (21% of all adults aged 15 years or over), and in Turkey (17%), while only 5% of the Czech and the Cypriots claimed they were unemployed or not working. For detailed analyses of this issue refer to the next subchapter.

The proportion of the population that is **retired** is high in the Candidate Region (24%) compared to the European Union (22%), and even higher in the Laeken-10 group (27%). This ratio is the highest in Hungary (40%) and the lowest in Turkey (9%).

According to the findings of the present survey, the proportion of the **non-working** population is drastically higher in the entirety of the Candidate Countries (64%) than in the Member States of the European Union (50%). At the same time, this proportion is much closer to the European figure in the Laeken-10 group, with 54% indicating that they are not working.

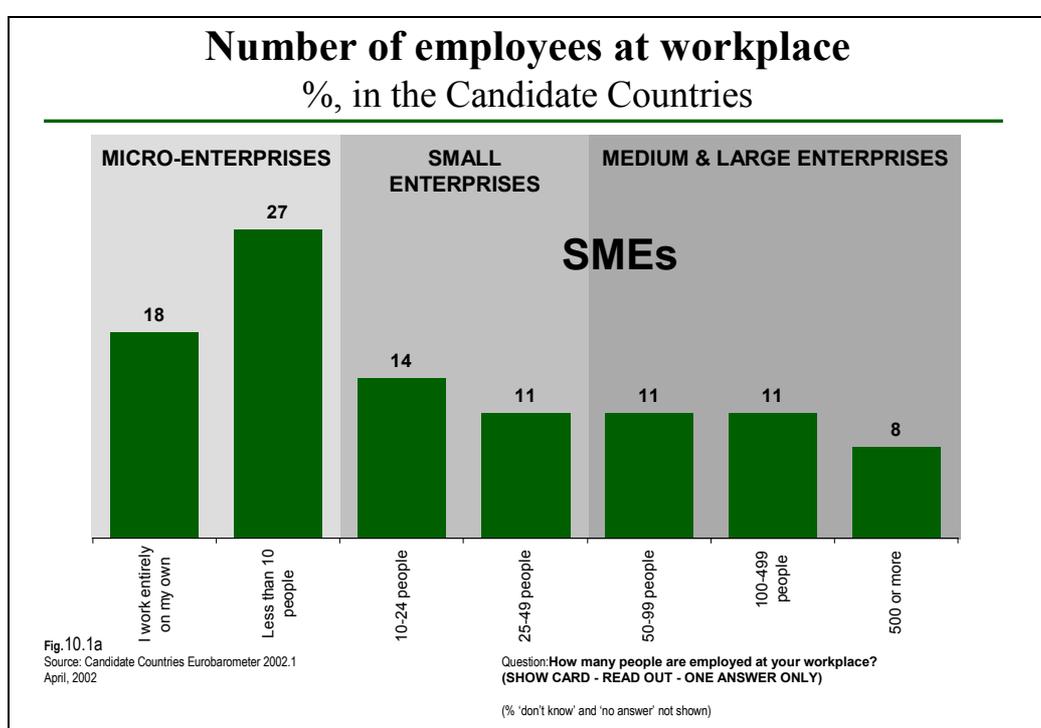
Looking at the different occupation categories, we do not find significant variations across the countries; most of the differences are within sampling error.

⁵⁰ Source: EB56.1, Autumn 1999

The role of SMEs in employment in the Candidate Region

According to our respondents, those who are economically active are most probably working in micro-enterprises (45%); either on their own, or in a business with less than 10 employees. Thirty-five percent indicate that they are working in a small enterprise (with employees numbering between 10 and 49), and 30% report that they are working for a medium or large enterprise. According to the survey, SMEs⁵¹ (small and medium enterprises) employ 8 of 10 people (80%) of the working population in the Candidate Region. (For details see Table 10.4 in Annex)

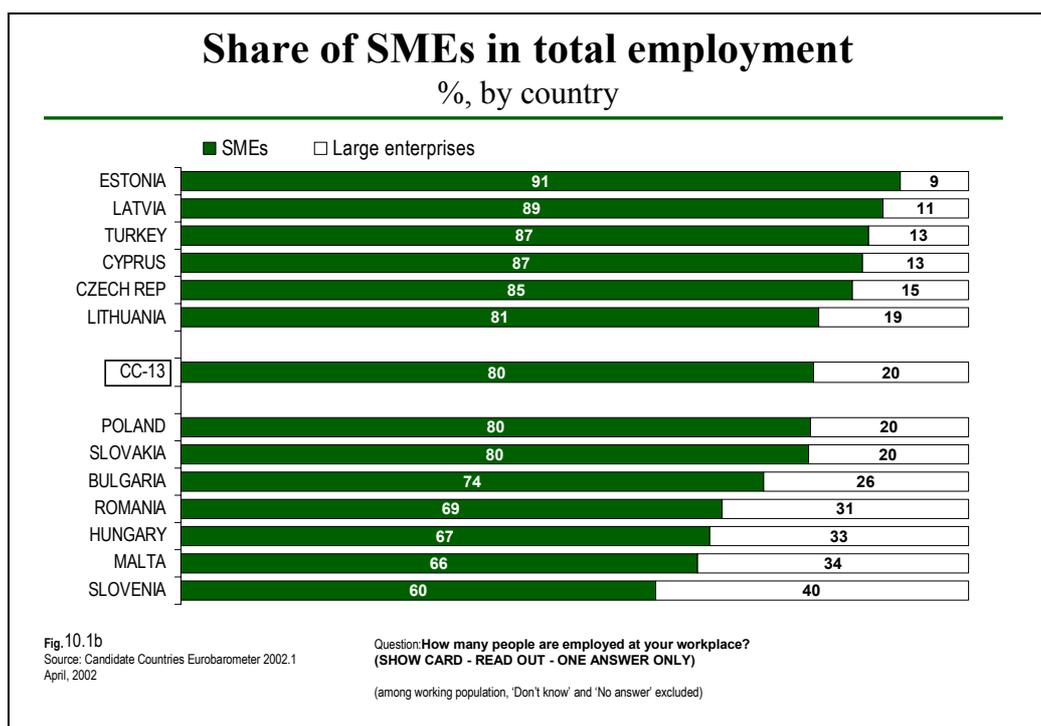
In reality, these proportions might be different, since people tend to report the size of their immediate workplace instead of the whole organization that employs them, but generally it is true that SMEs employ a large proportion of the labour force in the Candidate Region, very probably larger than in the European Union. (We could not access reliable – or, in some countries, any – comparable statistical or survey information in this respect.)



As Figure 10.1b on the next page shows, small and medium enterprises employ about 9 in 10 – waged or not waged – employees in Estonia (91%), Latvia (89%), Turkey, and Cyprus (87% both). Eighty-five percent of the Czech labour force works in the SME sector; the similar figure is 81% in Lithuania.

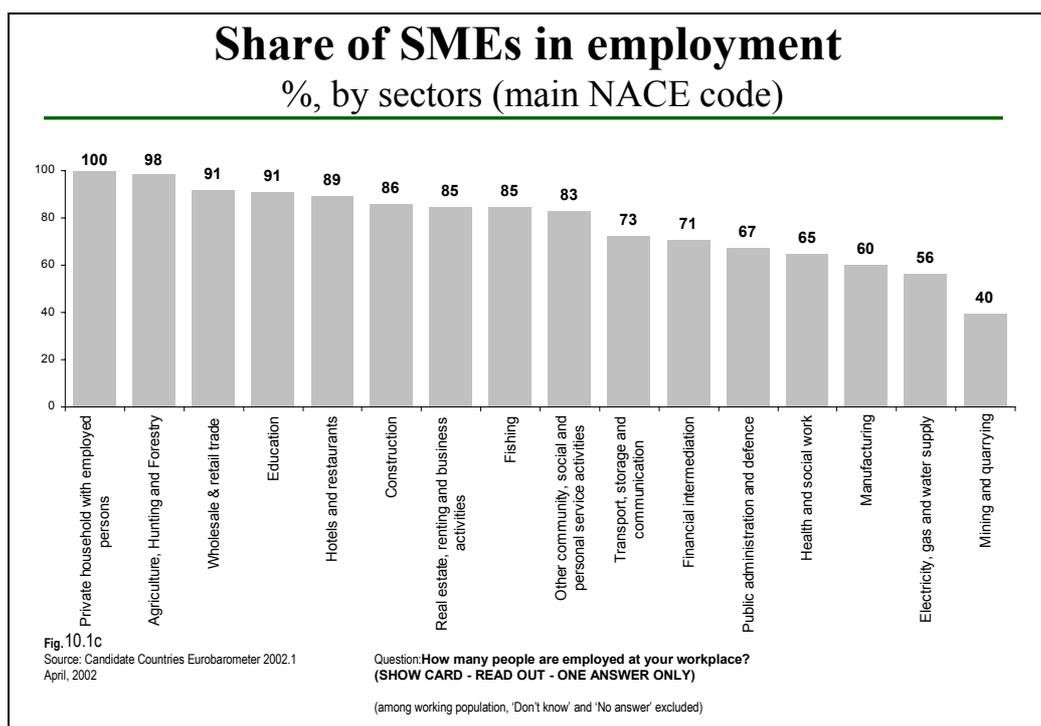
SME's share of the total employment is significantly smaller in Slovenia (60%), Malta (66%), Hungary (67%), and Romania (69%).

⁵¹ Among the conflicting definitions of SME we used the one that defines the small- and medium sized enterprises with the upper threshold of 100 employees (Eurostat uses another definition as well, where they consider a business as an SME if it has less than 250 employees).



As mentioned above, the role of micro-enterprises is surprisingly significant in the total employment throughout the region. However, the share in employment of enterprises employing less than 10 persons varies across industries, as Figure 10.1c illustrates.

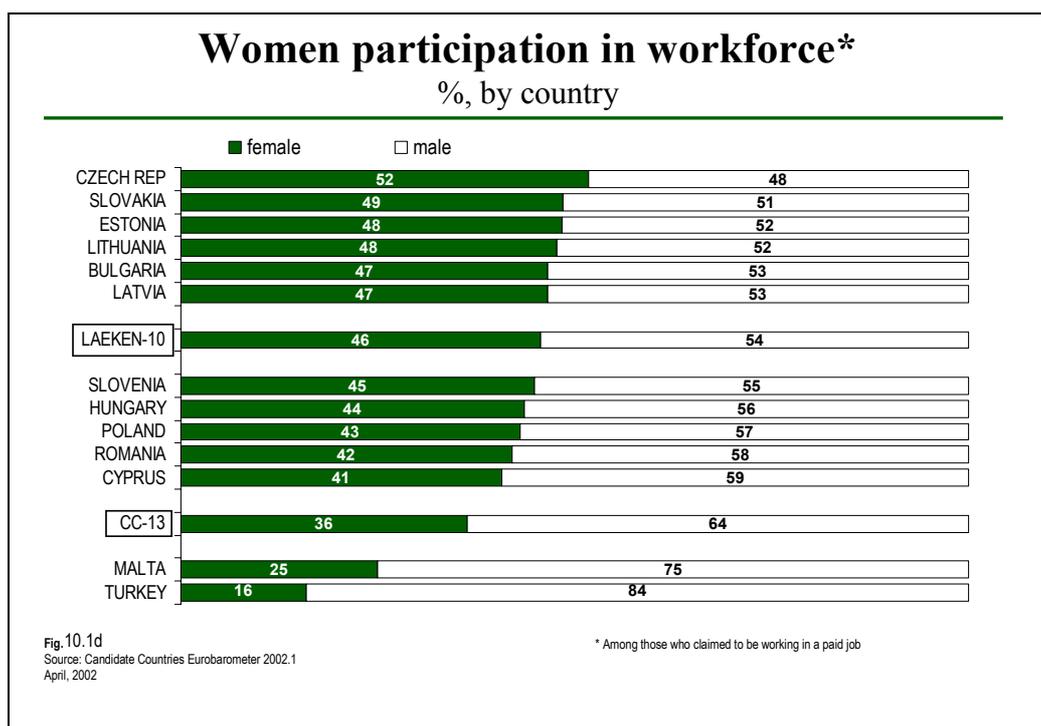
Almost the entire *agricultural* population is employed by SMEs in the Candidate Region (98%), while in certain sectors large employers play a more significant role: in *mining and quarrying* (40% employed by SMEs), in *electricity, gas and water supply* (56%), *manufacturing* (60%), *health and social work* (65%), or in *public administration and defence*, where exactly two thirds (67%) of employees are working for an SME. (For more details check Table 10.5 in Annex)



Women's participation in workforce

Many argue that the socialist past with its often violent modernization efforts helped women to achieve emancipation more effectively than was the case in societies of the free world. In fact, most forms of subordination and other inequalities did survive those decades, but the definitely high – in some countries almost equal – labour participation of women is one of the undisputed achievements of the socialist regimes across the region.

Still, among all respondents who indicated they were working, only 36% were women in the Candidate Region. The same proportion in the Laeken-10 group is 46%, which means an almost equal share of the two sexes in the working population of these countries. The regional average is strongly influenced by the low proportion of women among the workforce in the populous Turkey (as low as 16%). The other low extreme is Malta, where only 1 in 4 working people (25%) is a female.



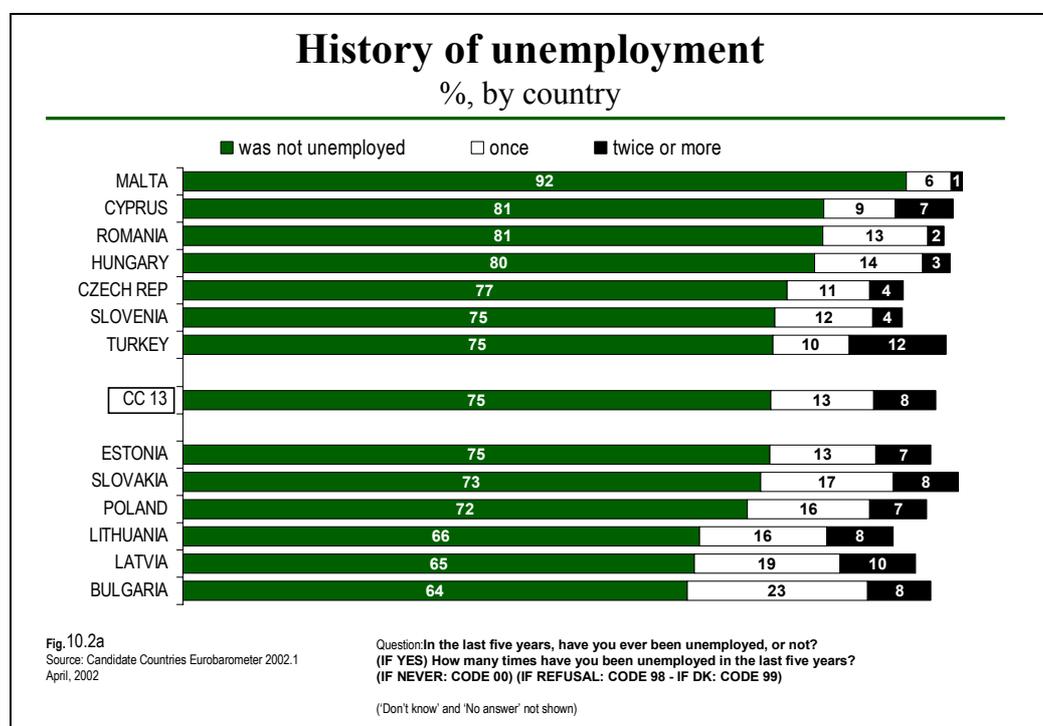
Women's share in the workforce is below the Laeken-10 average in Cyprus (41%), Romania (42%), Poland (43%), Hungary (44%), and Slovenia (45%). At the same time we detect a female majority (though within the range of sampling error) in the Czech workforce (52%), and we can see equilibrium of the two genders in the working population of Slovakia (49%), Estonia, Lithuania (both 48%), Bulgaria, and Latvia (both 47%).

10.2 Unemployment

We asked our respondents the following question: “In the last five years, have you ever been unemployed, or not? (IF YES) How many times have you been unemployed in the last five years?”

In the last five years more than 1 in 5, 21% of those 15 years and older in the Candidate Countries were unemployed at least once, and 8% were unemployed multiple times. Three quarters of the respondents indicated that they were at no point unemployed over this period.

The proportion of those who report that they have been unemployed in the recent past is the highest in Bulgaria (31%), followed by Latvia (29%), Slovakia (25%), Lithuania (24%), Poland (23%), and Turkey (22%). These countries are above the regional average. The most rare occurrences of unemployment in the last five years we detected in Malta (only 7%), the Czech Republic (15%), and Romania (15%). We found that Slovenia (16%), Cyprus (16%), Hungary (17%), and Estonia (20%) are somewhat below the average. (See Table 10.1a and Table 10.1b in Annex)



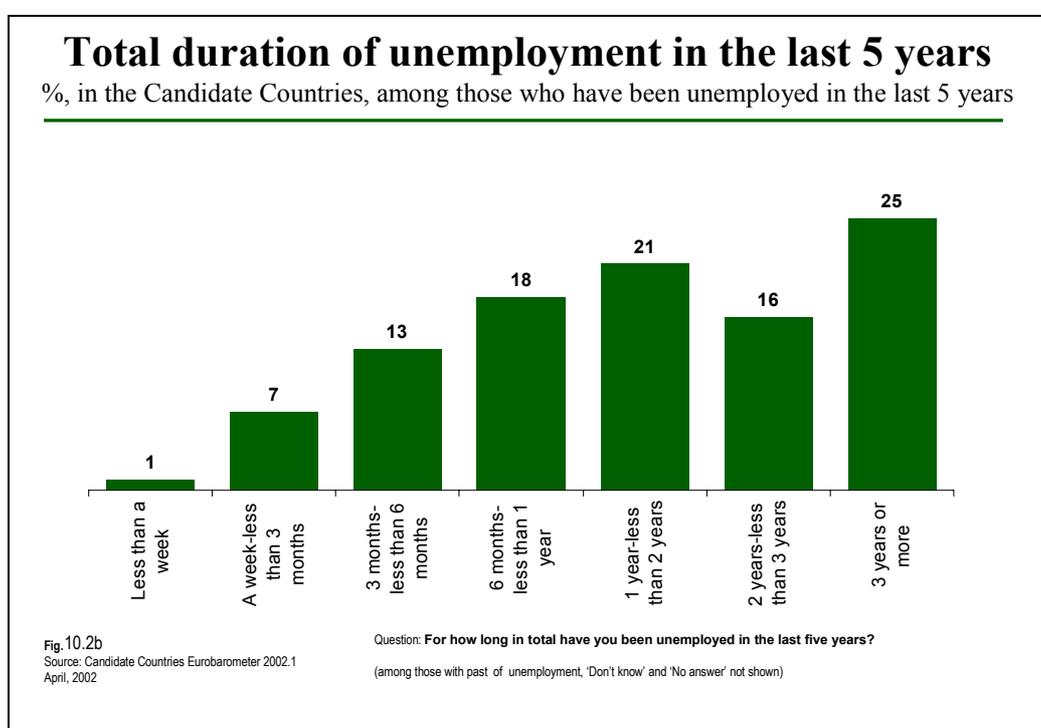
History of long-term unemployment

Usually, the indicator on long-term unemployment looks at unemployment in terms of its duration - the length of time that an unemployed person has been without work and looking for a job. The underlying assumption for this indicator is that shorter periods of joblessness are of lesser concern, especially when unemployed persons are covered by unemployment insurance or similar forms of support (note that Turkey provides unemployment benefits only from April, this year; so at the time of the survey the unemployed could not receive such benefits). Moreover, short-term unemployment is often viewed as desirable, allowing time for jobless persons to seek and find optimal employment. However, when the unemployment period lengthens, and is measured in months, and even years, the concern increases as well.

We asked the respondents who claimed they have been unemployed during the past five years the following question: "For how long in total have you been unemployed in the last five years?"

- Less than a week
- A week - less than 3 months
- 3 months - less than 6 months
- 6 months - less than 1 year
- 1 year - less than 2 years
- 2 years - less than 3 years
- 3 years or more"

The results for the total Candidate Region are rather discouraging (Figure 10.2b). 1 in 4 people (25%) who faced unemployment during the past five years, spent 3 years or more as unemployed in total. Another 37% totalled more than one year of unemployment in this period, and only 1 in 5 people with a recent past of unemployment faced this problem for less than 6 months, all occasions combined.



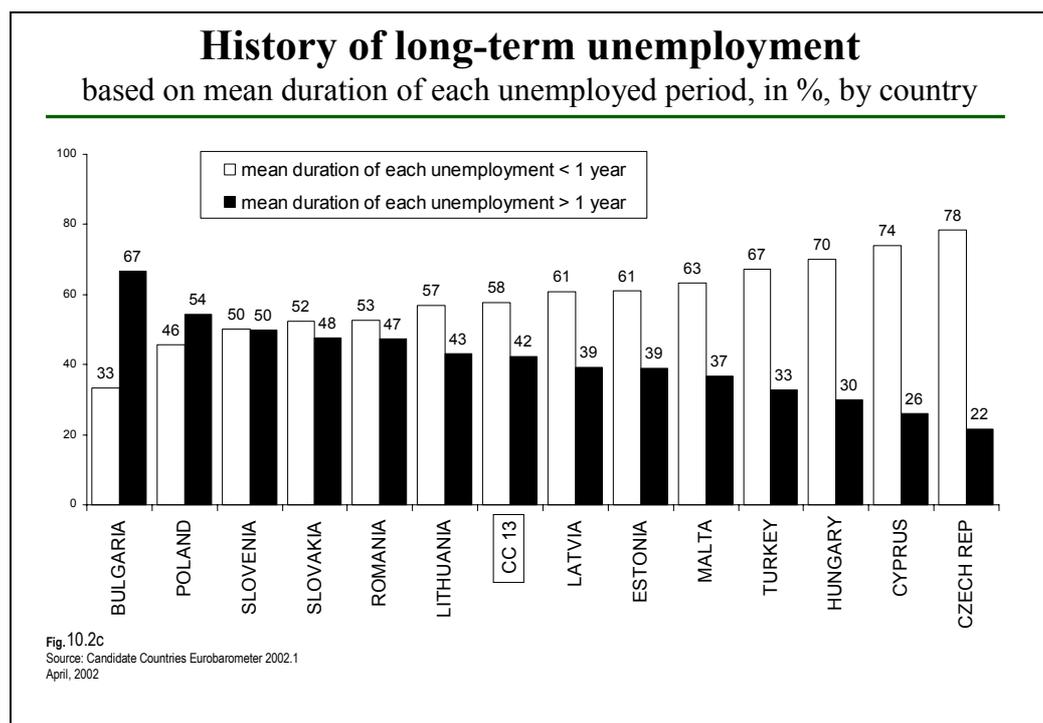
For analytical reasons we computed an index for the average duration of unemployed status over the past 5 years⁵². If one's mean duration of each period of unemployment in the last five years is above one year, we consider that person as having faced long-term unemployment during that period.

(Note that this is a conservative estimate of long-term unemployment history, since it is more likely that someone who has been without work twice in a five year period, and spent one and half years being unemployed faced long-term unemployment in one of the occasions. In our

⁵² For that reason we recoded the answer categories of the question cited on the top of the page in years, using mean values for the ranges (this way 'less than one week' became 0.02 (1/52) years, we transformed 'a week less than 3 months' to 0.23 years, or we recoded '1 year – less than 2 years' into 1.5 years), then we divided this value by the number of times the respondent was unemployed. The result of this process is the 'mean duration of each unemployment in the last five years'.

formula, this person would not be considered as unemployed long-term, since the mean duration of each unemployment is below one year.)

On average, 42% of those who faced unemployment in the last five years in the Candidate Countries spent more than 12 months unemployed at least once. The relative ratio of long-term unemployment is the highest in Bulgaria (the country which has the most citizens with a recent history of unemployment), where exactly two thirds (67%) of all persons with a recent past of unemployment faced long-term unemployment at least once during the last 5 years. Bulgaria is followed by Poland (54%), and Slovenia (50%). Those who have been out of work but are the least likely to have been unemployed for the long-term are in the Czech Republic (22%), Cyprus (28%), and Hungary (30%). (For details check Table 10.2a and Table 10.2b)

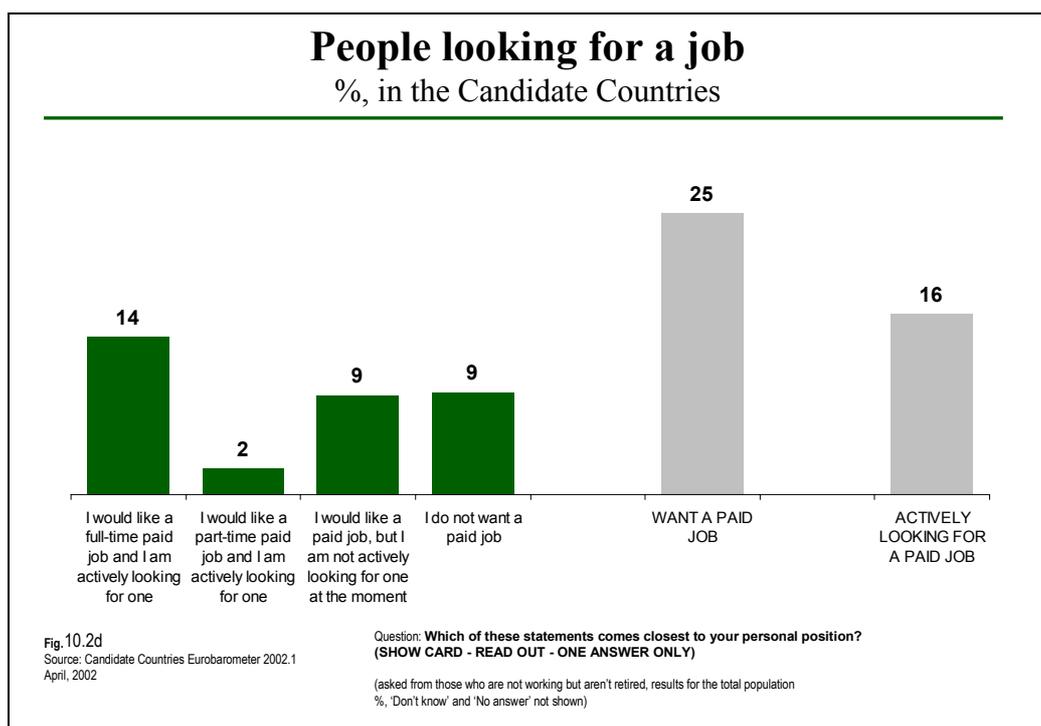


Current levels of unemployment

As we saw in Table 10.1a, the ratio of those who claim they are unemployed or not working is 13% in the Candidate Region. In fact, an even higher proportion of people is looking for jobs. We asked non-working – but not retired – respondents to answer this question: “Which of these statements comes closest to your personal position?”

- I would like a full-time paid job and I am actively looking for one
- I would like a part-time paid job and I am actively looking for one
- I would like a paid job, but I am not actively looking for one at the moment
- I do not want a paid job“

Fourteen percent of all citizens in the Candidate Countries claimed that they were actively looking for a full-time job, 2% were looking for a part-time occupation, and 9% said they would like to have a job, but they were currently not looking for one. Only 9% (out of the 41% non-working and not yet retired) indicated that they did not want to work at all. (Figure 10.2d on the next page) In total, 1 in 4 people (25%) living in the Candidate Region currently does not have a job, but wants one, and 16% are looking actively for part or full-time occupation.



Looking at the distribution of those who are looking for a job by economic activity (Table 10.2a), we find that the majority of those who want a paid job but are not actively looking for one are homemakers (45%), students (36%), and the unemployed (19%). At the same time two thirds (66%) of those who are actively looking for a full-time paid job are unemployed persons, 25% are homemakers, and only 9% are students. Students account for the majority of those who are looking for a part-time job.

Seventy-two percent of those who do not want to work at all are homemakers, 17% are students, and 10% are unemployed – who disqualify themselves from the unemployed status with this answer, since unemployed status requires that a person be without work, but able to work, and looking for a job⁵³.

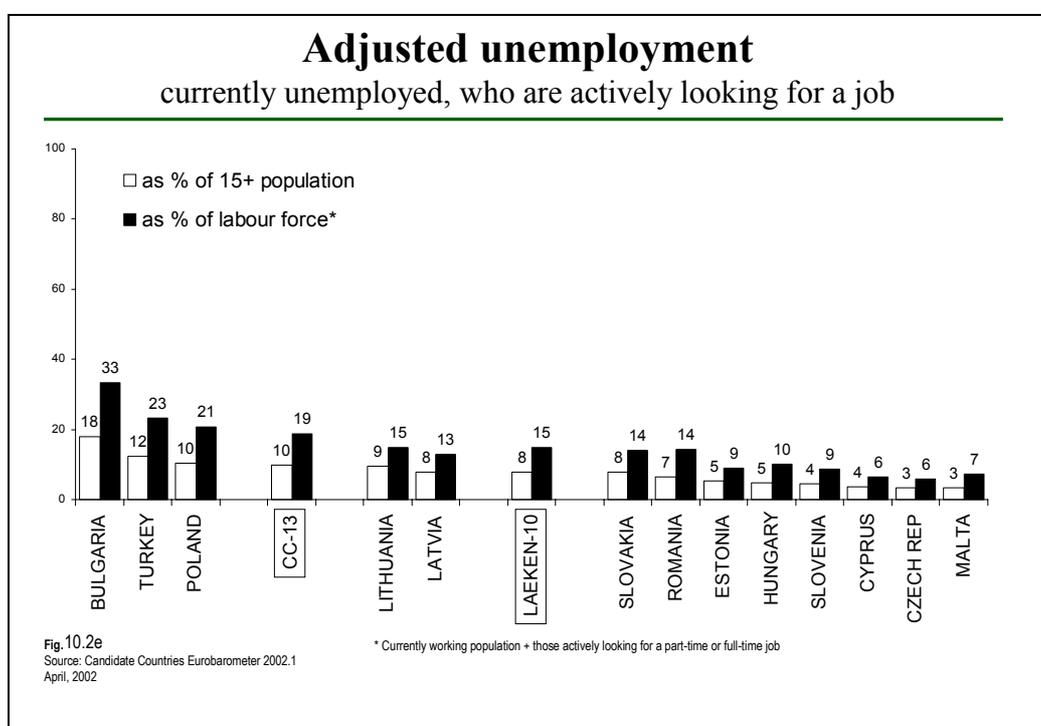
Table 10.2a Cross tabulation of economic activity by intent of finding jobs
(in %, CC-13 level)

	House persons	Students	Unemployed, not working	TOTAL
I would like a full-time paid job and I am actively looking for one	25	9	66	100
I would like a part-time paid job and I am actively looking for one	32	44	24	100
I would like a paid job, but I am not actively looking for one at the moment	45	36	19	100
I do not want a paid job	72	17	10	99
WANT A JOB	33	22	46	101
ACTIVELY LOOKING FOR A JOB	26	14	60	100

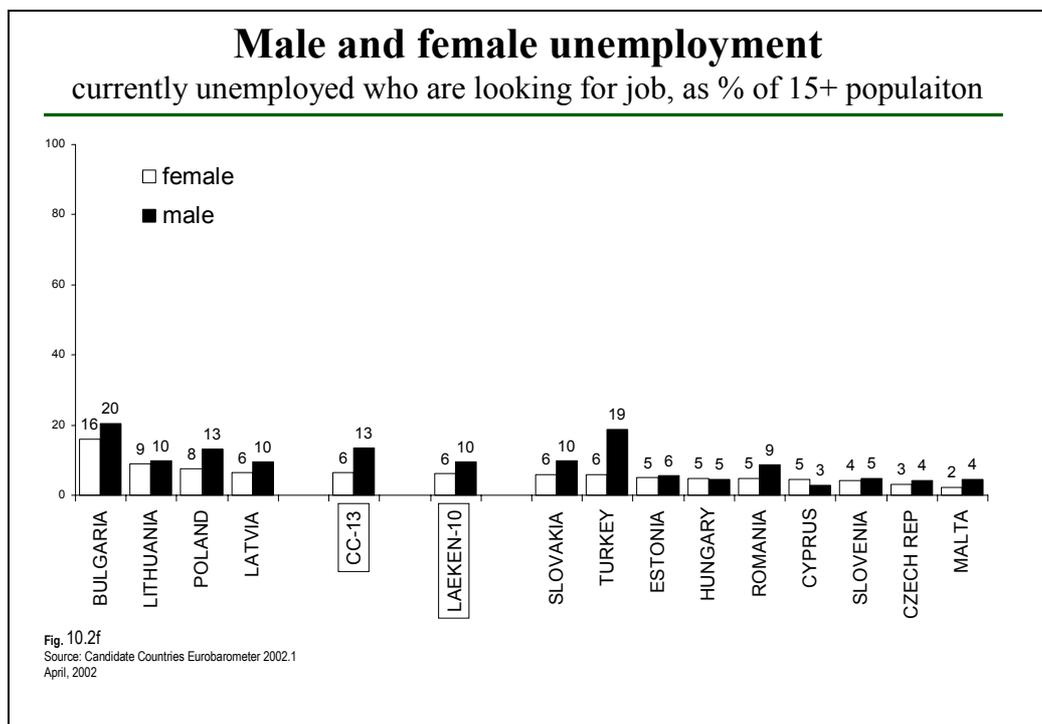
⁵³ The International Labour Organization's definition for the unemployed: All persons who during the reference period were: (1) "without work", that is, were not in paid employment or self-employment as specified by the international definition of employment; (2) "currently available for work", that is, were available for paid employment or self-employment during the reference period; or (3) "seeking work", that is, had taken specific steps in a specified recent period to seek paid employment or self-employment.

We adjusted the 'crude' unemployment rates (i.e. the proportions in which people claimed they were unemployed, not working) with these responses, and Figure 10.2e has the results. On average, 19% of the labour force (defined as the entirety of those who are working, or actively looking for a job) in the Candidate Region, and 15% in the Laeken-10 countries are unemployed and actively seeking an opportunity to work. The proportion of these people in the population 15 years and older in these two regions is 10% and 8%, respectively.

The highest level of unemployment is in Bulgaria, where one third, 33% of the – loosely defined – labour force (LF) is without work and currently looking for a job, and the unemployed account for 18% of the total population 15 years or older (T) in that Candidate Country. Unemployment levels are also high in Turkey (LF: 23%, T: 12%), and Poland (LF: 21%, T: 10%). At the bottom end of this ranking we find Malta (LF: 7%, T: 3%), the Czech Republic (LF: 6%, T: 3%), Cyprus (LF: 6%, T: 4%), and Slovenia (LF: 9%, T: 4%).



Gender inequalities can be observed in the adjusted proportions of unemployed persons, but unlike in the European Union, males are more likely to be unemployed in the Candidate Countries. On the average in all thirteen countries, 13% of males and only 6% of females are without work and trying to find a job. In the Laeken-10 group the difference is smaller, nevertheless, men are more likely to be looking for job (10%) than women (6%). In all but two countries the proportion of unemployed persons is higher among males than females. The exceptions are Cyprus, where more women (5%) than men are unemployed (3%), and Hungary, where the two genders are equally affected by unemployment (5-5%).



Further demographic analyses show marked differences between age groups (Table 10.2b). Those in the youngest age group (below 25 years of age) are the most likely to be unemployed. Almost 3 in 10 of those in this group who are also part of the labour force (LF) (in our definition; either work, or actively looking for a job) are unemployed (28%), and the proportion of unemployed persons in the entirety of the group (T) is 14%.

Levels of unemployment are the highest among those who left school at the age of 15 or younger (LF: 27%, T: 11%), and the lowest in the most educated group (LF: 12%, T: 8%). Only 74% of those who claim they are unemployed or not working look actively for a paid job (only these people classify to be unemployed by the adjusted definition of unemployment). Unemployment is the most widespread in rural areas (LF: 25%, T: 13%), less so in small towns (LF: 17%, T: 9%), and the least in large cities (LF: 12%, T: 7%). (See Table 10.3a and Table 10.3b in Annex)

Table 10.2b Level of unemployment, adjusted
(by demographics, on CC-13 level)

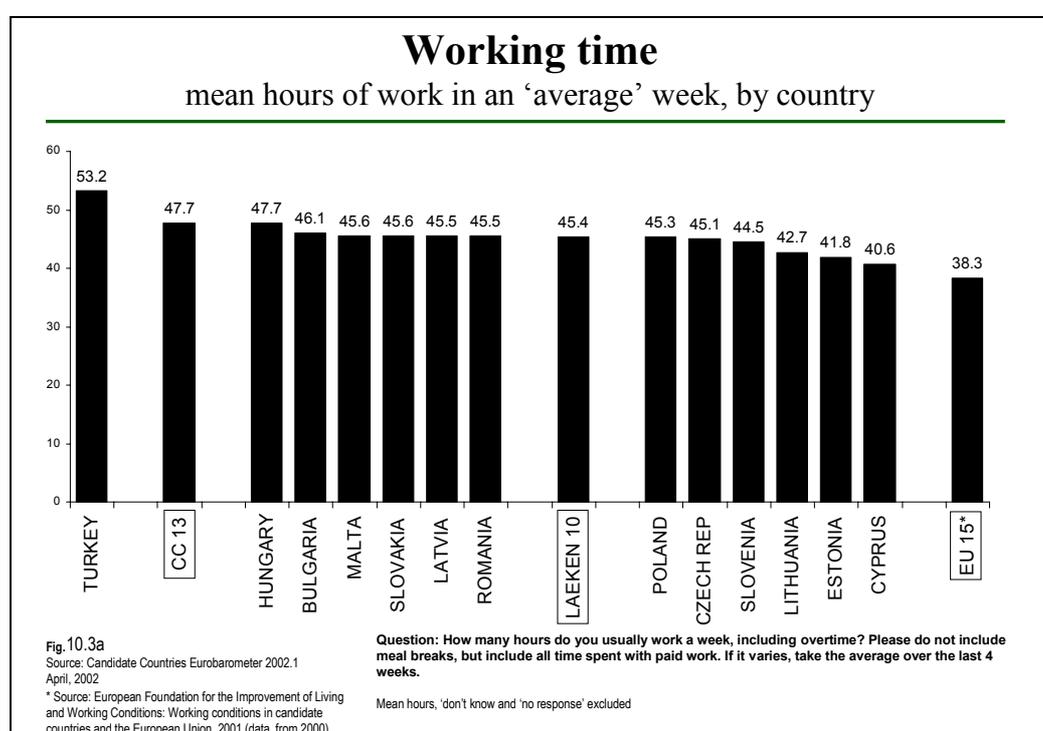
	As % of 15+ population	As % of labour force		As % of 15+ population	As % of labour force
Male	13	21	Self-employed	-	-
Female	6	16	Managers	-	-
AGE: 15-24 years	14	28	Other white collars	-	-
AGE: 25-39 years	12	16	Manual workers	-	-
AGE: 40-54 years	12	17	House Persons	-	-
AGE: 55+ years	2	12	Unemployed, not working	74	100
EDU: up to 15 years	11	27	Retired	-	-
EDU: 16-19 years	13	20	Rural area or village	13	25
EDU: 20+ years	8	12	Small or middle sized town	9	17
EDU: still studying	0	1	Large town	7	12

10.3 Working conditions in the Candidate Countries

While having a job is indisputably a major contributor to one's quality of life, what may be nearly as important is the way that people feel about their workplace. This subchapter will profile selected dimensions related to the quality of working conditions, such as working time patterns, issues of work organisation, job-pressure, workplace autonomy, levels of emotional attachment to the workplace, and career prospects. (For details check Table 10.6)

Hours of work

According to the Dublin Foundation, Europeans work an average of 38.3 hours a week⁵⁴. Their eastern peers are working significantly more: on average a waged or non-waged employee in the Candidate Countries works 47.7 hours a week. In the Laeken-10 group (without Bulgaria, Romania and Turkey), the average time spent with on the job is still 7 hours more than in the EU: 45.4 hours⁵⁵.



In Turkey a relatively large number of workers claim they are working practically night and day (25% of workers in Turkey report that they are working more than 60 hours a week). Consequently, the average workweek is the longest in Turkey, at 53.2 hours – almost two normal working days longer than the 2000 EU average.

People also spend much time at work in Hungary (47.7), and Bulgaria (46.1 hours a week). In Malta, Slovakia, Latvia, Romania, Poland, and the Czech Republic the average is 45-46 hours a week. At the same time, workers in Cyprus complete “only” 40.6 hours of work in an average week, the working week is relatively short (but still longer than the EU average) in Estonia (41.8) and Lithuania (42.7).

⁵⁴ European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions: Working conditions in candidate countries and the European Union, 2001 (EU figures are from 2000)

⁵⁵ Methodological differences might contribute to this, but several other data suggest that such a difference exist in the two parts of Europe

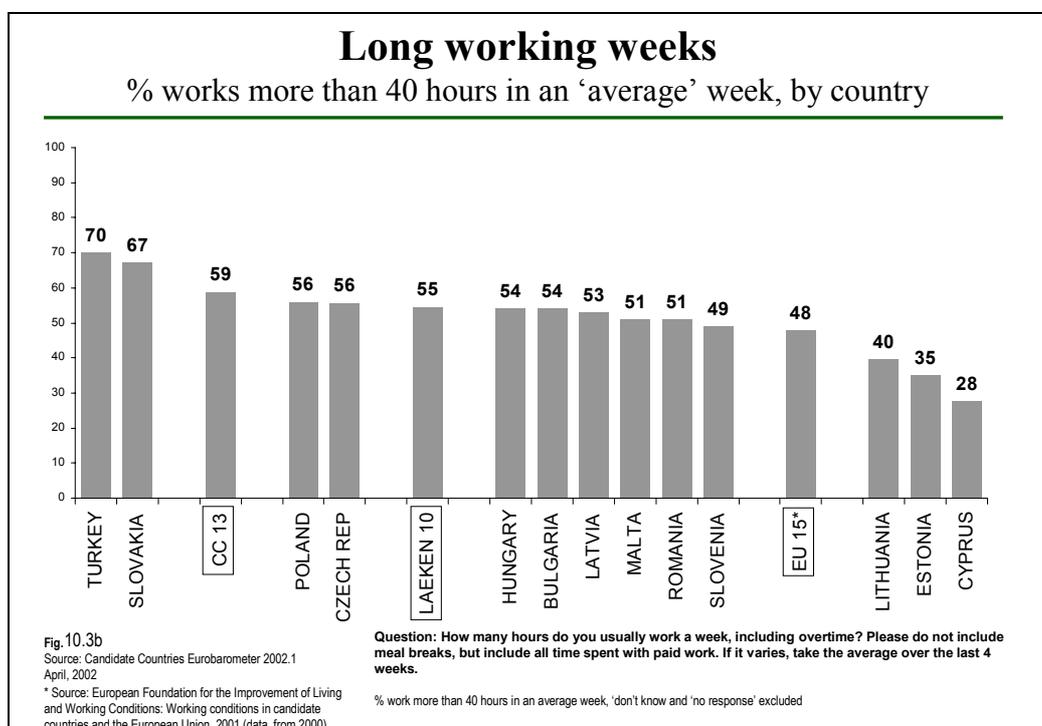
We detected longer working hours among men than women (49.9 vs. 43.9), and further demographic analyses reveal that younger respondents are more likely to have a longer workweek. The average for those aged between 15 and 24 years is 50 hours, while those 55 and older who work spend 46 hours a week. (See Table 10.3a below)

Those living in small towns are the least overworked at 46.7 hours, while those living in rural areas work 49 hours. The working week is found in the agricultural sector (51.7 hours), and the shortest in the industrial (46.7). The most educated workers spend less time; 44.7 hours, while those who left school at the age of 15 or earlier work over 50 hours a week (51.9). The self-employed are spending significantly more time with work than employees, completing 55 working hours a week. Managers spend 42.4 hours on the job in an average week.

Table 10.3a Working time
Hours of work in an average week
(by demographics)

Male	49.9	Self-employed	55.0
Female	43.9	Managers	42.4
AGE: 15-24 years	50.0	Other white collars	45.9
AGE: 25-39 years	48.0	Manual workers	46.6
AGE: 40-54 years	47.1	Agriculture	51.7
AGE: 55+ years	46.0	Industry	46.7
EDU: up to 15 years	51.9	Trade & Services	47.6
EDU: 16-19 years	47.6	Rural area or village	49.0
EDU: 20+ years	44.7	Small or middle sized town	46.7
EDU: still studying	36.7	Large town	47.4

From another perspective, we can see that the majority of working people living in the Candidate Region work more than 40 hours a week (CC-13: 59%, LAEKEN-10: 55%). In the member states of the European Union a little less than half of the workforce spends more than 40 hours a week at work.



After the Turkish (70%), the Slovak working population is the most likely to surpass the 40 hours threshold. Exactly one third of them have long working weeks (67%). 56% of Polish and Czech workers work more than 40 hours a week. Long working weeks are less frequent in Cyprus (28%), Estonia (35%), and Lithuania (40%); these countries are below the average of the European Union in this respect.

Demographic analyses show significant difference between the sexes. As Table 10.3b shows, less than half (47%) of employed women work more than 40 hours a week, while almost two thirds (65%) of the men report that they do. Sixty-seven percent of those aged between 15 and 24 years have long working weeks, while only a slim majority of workers 55 or older are in a similar situation. (See Table 10.3b below)

61% of workers in large cities report longer working weeks, and almost 7 in 10 workers in the agrarian sector spend more than 40 hours a week at work (69%).

The most educated workers are less likely to have long working weeks (53%), while 67% of those who left school at the age of 15 or younger work more than 40 hours a week. Three quarters of the self-employed spend more than 40 hours at work in an average week, while a minority (48%) of managers report the same.

Table 10.3b Long working weeks – working population spending more than 40 hours with paid work in an average week
(in %, by demographics)

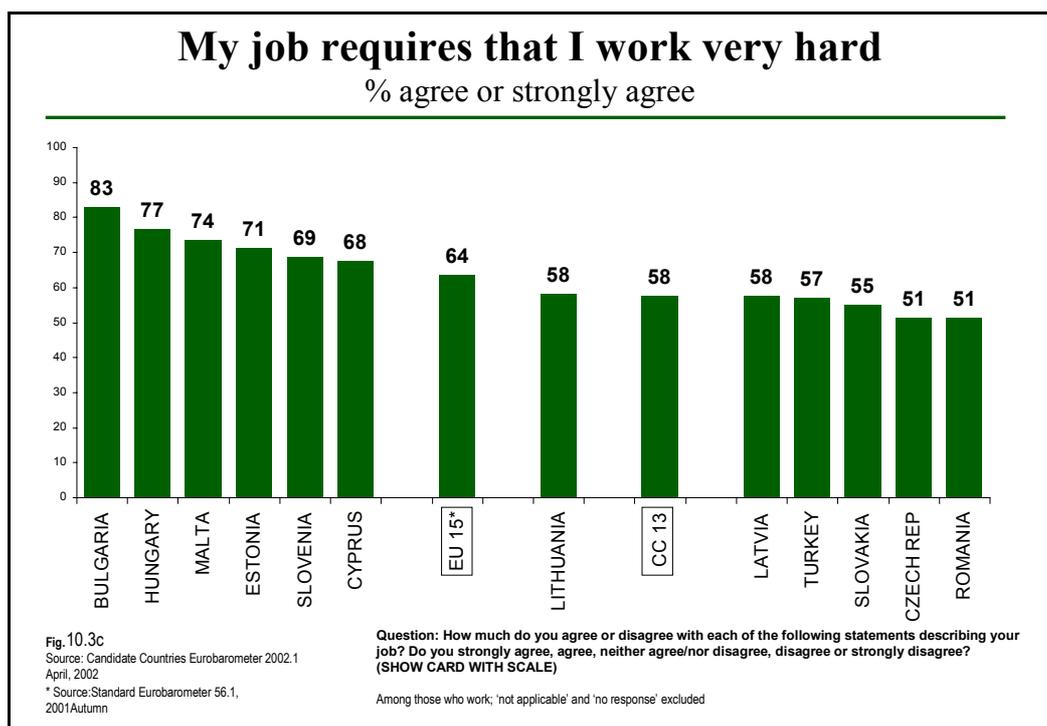
Male	65	Self-employed	76
Female	47	Managers	48
AGE: 15-24 years	67	Other white collars	54
AGE: 25-39 years	59	Manual workers	56
AGE: 40-54 years	57	Agriculture	69
AGE: 55+ years	51	Industry	57
EDU: up to 15 years	67	Trade & Services	58
EDU: 16-19 years	58	Rural area or village	60
EDU: 20+ years	53	Small or middle sized town	55
EDU: still studying	33	Large town	61

Work intensity

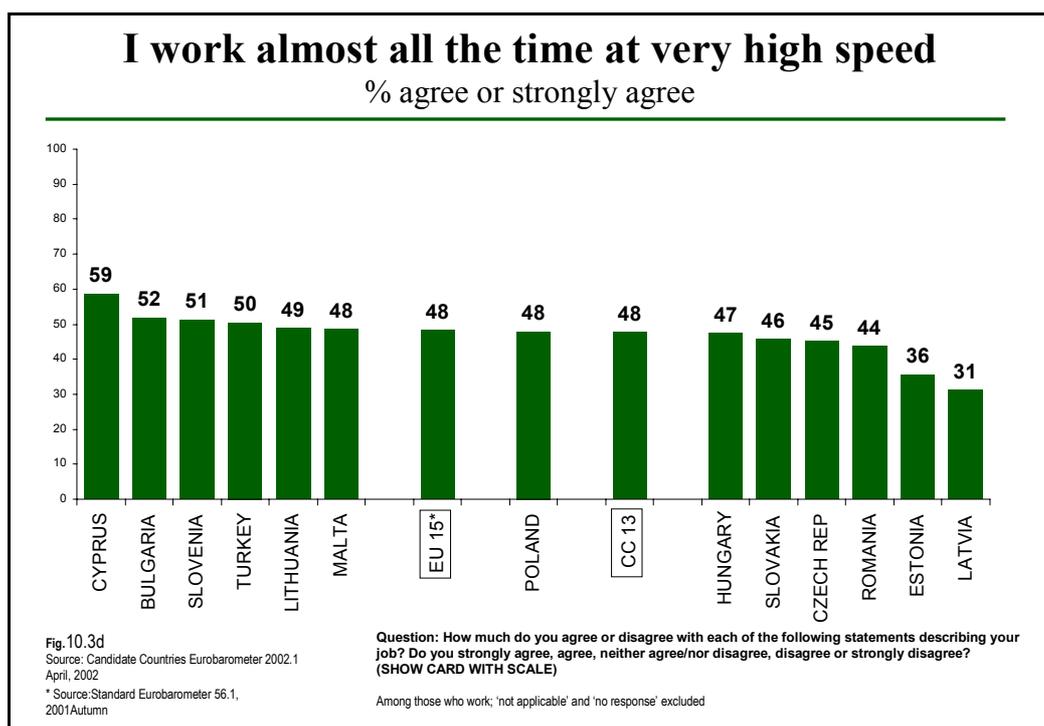
Although people work long hours in the Candidate Countries, they produce less than half of what their Western colleagues do (Eurostat estimates CC-13 labour productivity as 41% of that in the EU-15 region). This is largely dependent on technology, and the nature and market value of the products and services produced or delivered.

Apparently, it has very little or nothing to do with how hard or how much people are working. Bulgarians, with the lowest level of productivity in the Candidate Region, are the most likely to claim that they work very hard along with spending a great amount of time at work (83%). At the same time, the country with levels of labour productivity closest to those characterizing the EU economies is Slovenia (about seventy percent of productivity of the EU average, a figure close to Greece's). Slovenian workers however, are less likely to agree that they need to work hard at their jobs. Having said that, we have to point out, that on average, the EU workforce is more likely to claim that they are working hard, compared to their eastern peers. (Figure 10.3c)

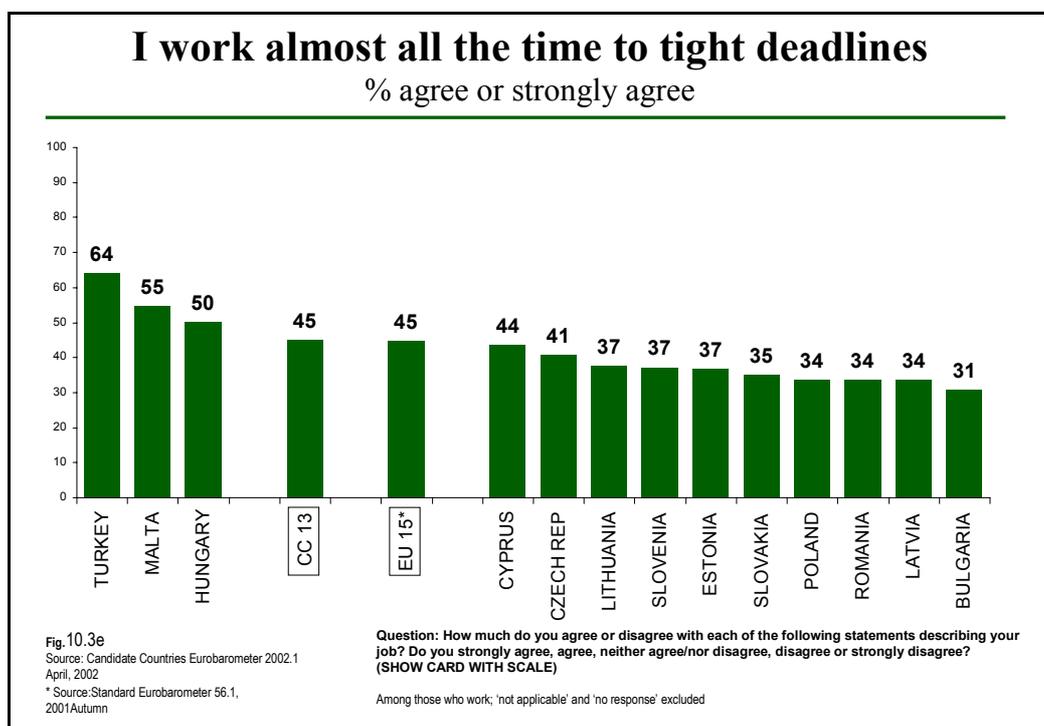
On average, 58 percent of the workers in the Candidate Countries claim they have to **work hard** at their jobs. Besides Bulgarians, Hungarians and Maltese are the most likely to indicate that their job requires intensive work, while fewer respondents in Romania, The Czech Republic (51% both), and Slovakia (55%) feel this way.



Another aspect of work intensity is the speed with which people work in their jobs. Almost half of the workers (48%) in the Candidate Countries and in the European Union indicate that they are **working at a very high speed** almost all the time. Affirmative responses to this question range in the Candidate Countries from 59% in Cyprus, 52% in Bulgaria, and 51% in Slovenia to 31% in Latvia, 36% in Estonia, and 44% in Romania.

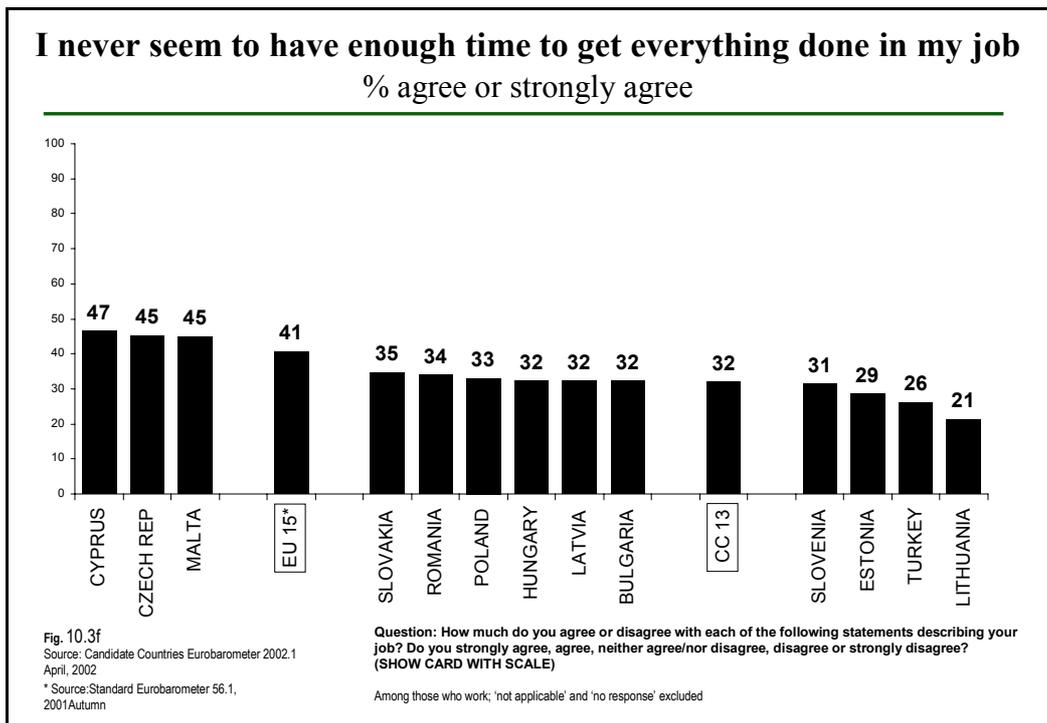


Less than the half of the workers in the Candidate Region (and in the European Union) face **tight deadlines** at work (45%). Such pressure is high in Turkey (with close to two thirds – 64% – of the working population indicating they regularly face tight deadlines), in Malta (55%), and Hungary (50%). At the same time such job pressure is less prevalent in Bulgaria (31%), Latvia, Romania and Poland (34% each). In fact, ten countries fall below the average of the Candidate Countries in this respect, which means that in these countries workers face tight deadlines with a probability smaller than that of the European Union.

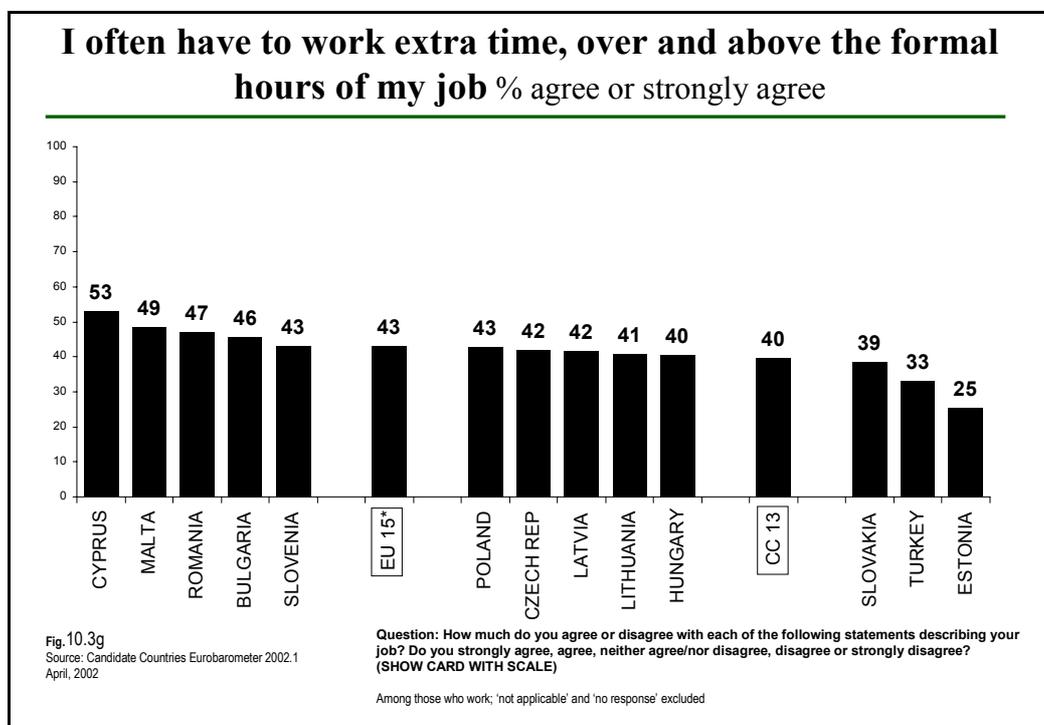


Multivariate analyses suggest that workplace stress levels are largely determined by the three factors analyzed above, but there are two further attributes that are almost equally good measures of job-related stress, and are good predictors of a job's interference with the family life of a worker as well. One of these is continuous time pressure, respondents indicating that they **never have enough time** to get everything done in their jobs (this item correlates the most with family-related difficulties caused by excessive workloads as shown in the next subchapter).

Workers in the Candidate Countries are less likely to claim they work under continuous time pressure (32%) than their Western colleagues (41%). Almost half of Cypriot (47%), Czech and Maltese workers (45% both) report working under serious time pressure, while about one fifth of the Lithuanian (21%), one quarter of the Turkish (26%), and 29 percent of Estonian workers report similar situation at their workplaces.



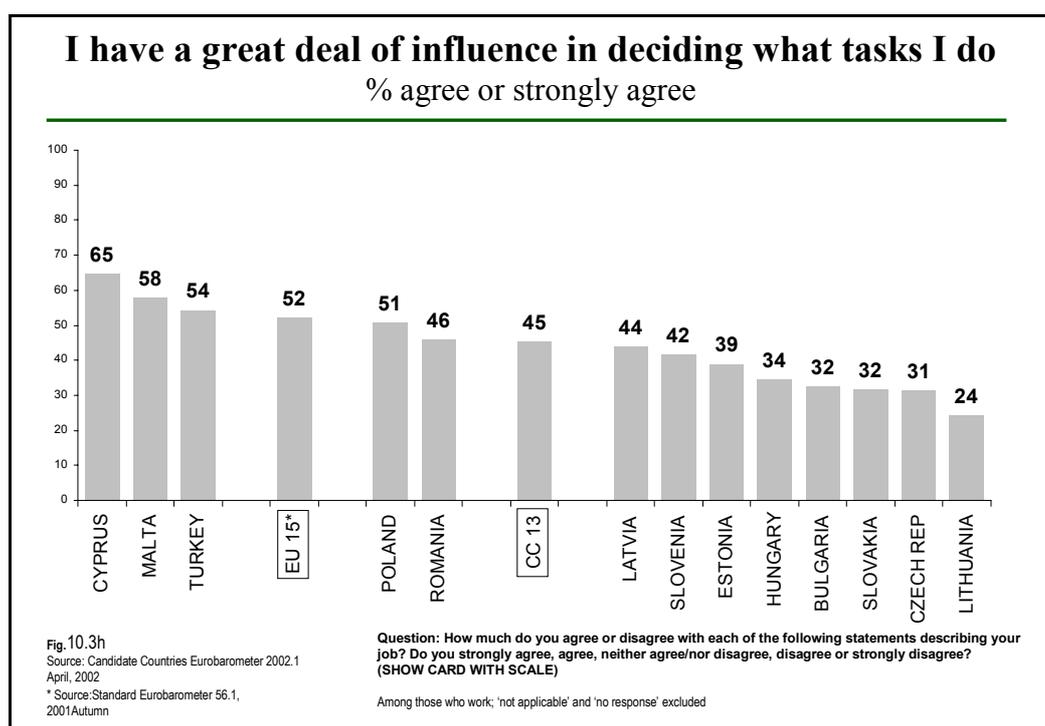
Forty percent of the Candidate Countries' working population has **to work extra time**, over and above the formal hours of their job; this is a proportion slightly lower than in the European Union (certainly, there is a difference in the volume of 'formal hours' as the paragraphs about working time suggest above). The rates are only lower than the Candidate Countries average in three countries: Slovenia 39%, Turkey 33% and Estonia 25%. At the other end of the scale, more than half of Cypriots agree and strongly agree that they have to work extra time (53%).



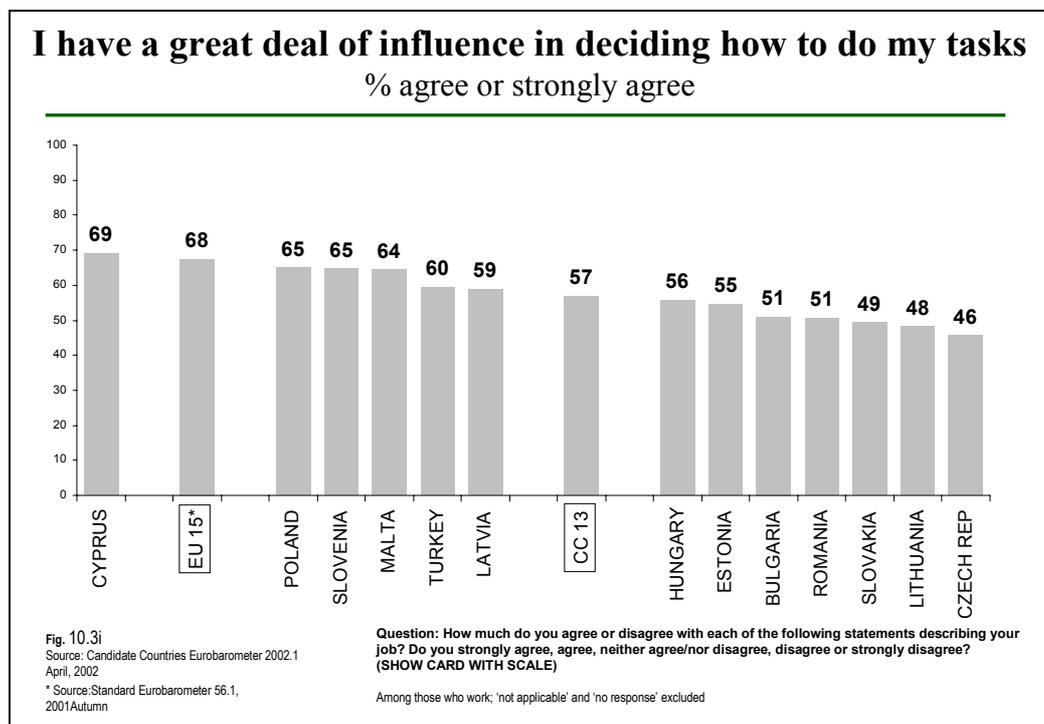
Workplace autonomy

Workplace autonomy is not as widespread in the Candidate Countries as it is in the European Union; however, the differences are not dramatic. Workers in the EU have more influence in choosing the tasks they are doing, and are freer to select the methods of works.

Forty-five percent of the Candidate Countries' working population has a great deal of influence in deciding **what task they do**. Employee empowerment is stronger in the EU-15 region, with 52% of workers having some degree of autonomy in deciding what tasks they are doing. The most likely to feel they have a great deal of influence in deciding what they do are the Cypriots (65%), Maltese (58%), Turkish (54%) and Polish (51%). The lower numbers in this regard are from Lithuania (24%), The Czech Republic (31%), Slovakia (32%), Bulgaria (32%) and Hungary (34%).



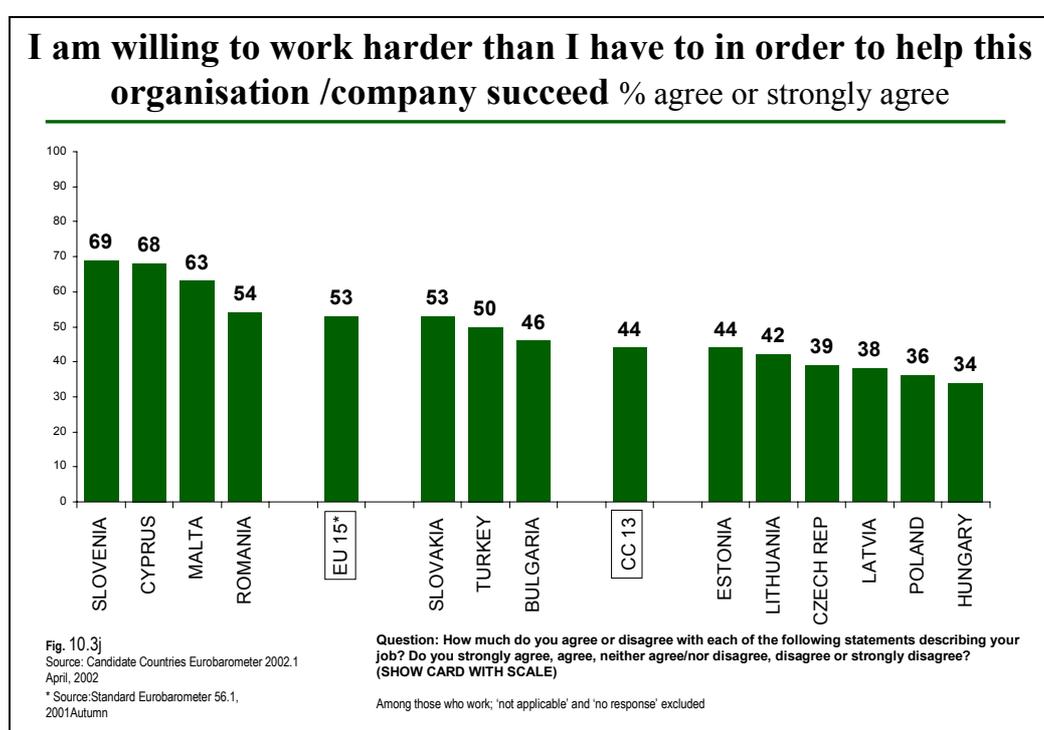
In general the highest percentages of the working respondents from all countries agree and strongly agree that they have a **great deal of influence in deciding how to do their tasks**. Still, liberty in determining how to perform one's work is higher in the EU-15 region. Fifty-seven percent of the working populations of the Candidate Countries, and more than two thirds (68%) in the EU-15 region feel this way. In Cyprus (69%), Poland (65%), Slovenia (65%), Malta (64%) and Turkey (60%) the highest percentages of working agree. Those least likely to feel this way are in The Czech Republic (46%), Lithuania (48%), Slovakia (49%), Romania and Bulgaria (51%).



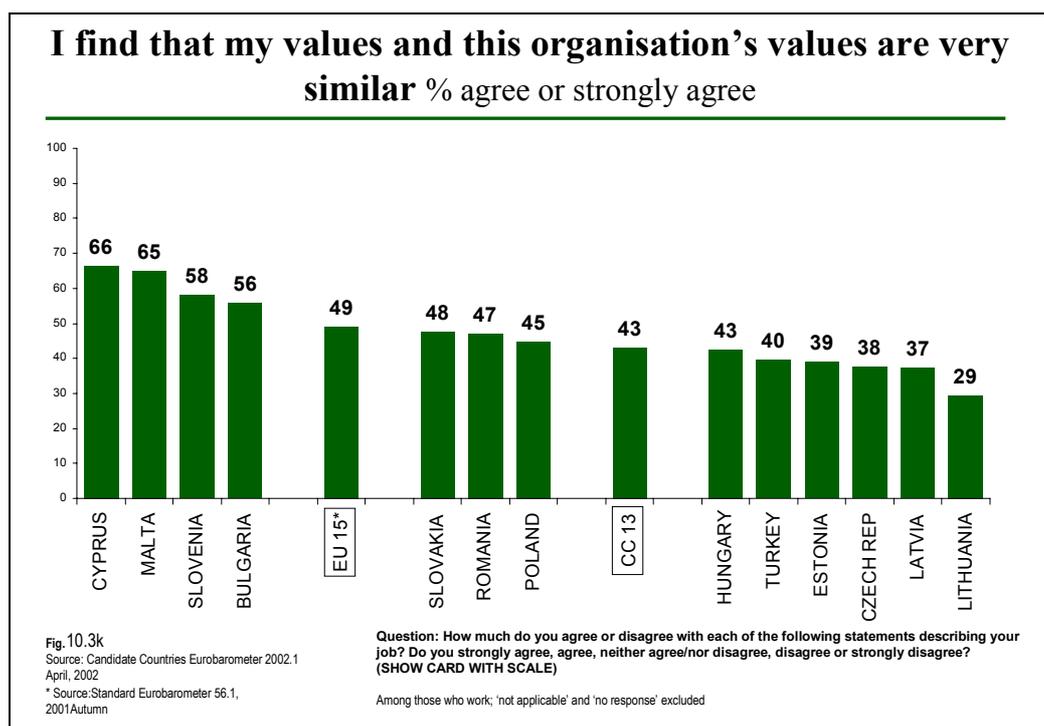
Attachment to the workplace

Working people spend almost half of their active life at their workplaces. Strong emotional bonds to their workplaces contribute to their productivity and general well-being as well. With few questions, Eurobarometer determined the level of emotional attachment to people's places of work in each Candidate Countries.

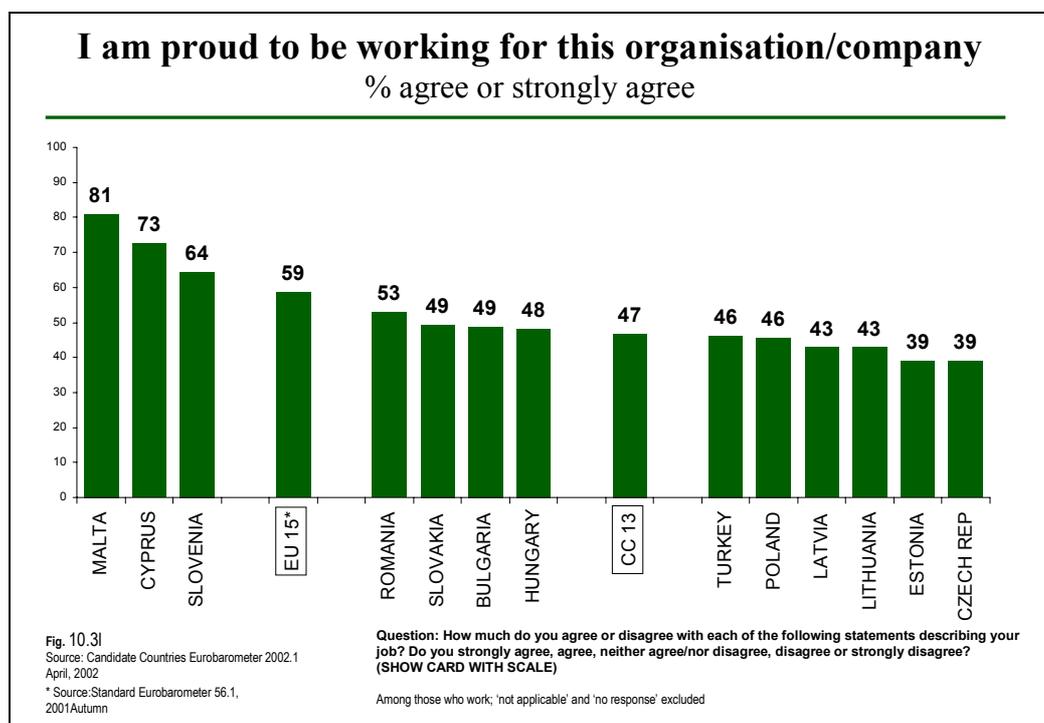
The first question dealing with attachment to the workplace investigated if the working respondents are willing to **work harder** in order to help their organisation succeed. In Candidate Countries 44% of the working population is willing to work harder for the above-mentioned purpose, less than their Western European colleagues. Those most likely to be willing to work harder are the Slovenians (69%), Cypriots (68%) and Maltese (63%). Those least likely to do so are the Hungarians (34%), the Polish (36%), Latvians (38%) and Czechs (39%).



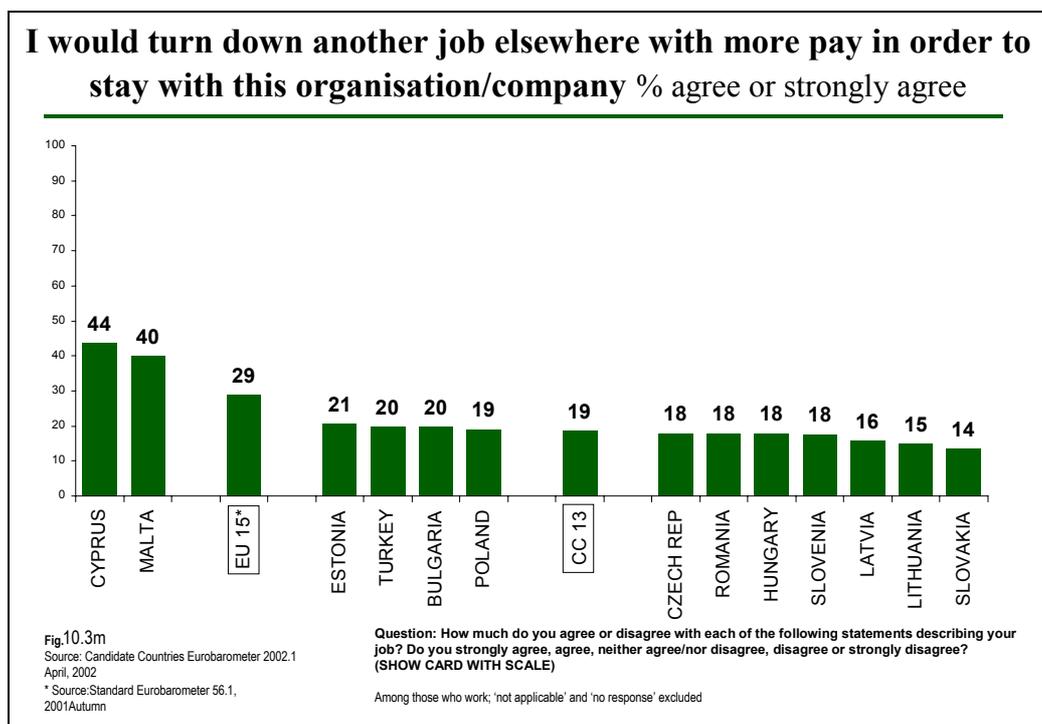
Another question measuring attachment to the workplace asked whether respondents are in agreement with their organisation's **values**. 43% of the Candidate Countries' working populations agree and strongly agree with the statement: "*I find that my values and this organisation's values are very similar*"; four percent less than in the EU-15 region. The Cypriots (66%) and the Maltese (65%) are the most likely to agree, while Lithuanians (29%), Latvians (37%), Czechs (38%) and Estonians (39%) find their personal values in agreement with those of their organisations.



The best part of Maltese (81%) agrees and strongly agrees with the idea that they are **proud** to be working for their organisation. This rate is much higher than that of the Candidate Countries average, where just 47% of the working population is proud to work for their organisation. Pride at workplace is considerably lower in the CC-13 region than in the European Union, however there are also high levels of pride in Cyprus (73%) and Slovenia (64%). Workers from the Czech Republic and Estonia (39% each) are the least likely to be proud of their workplace or organisation.



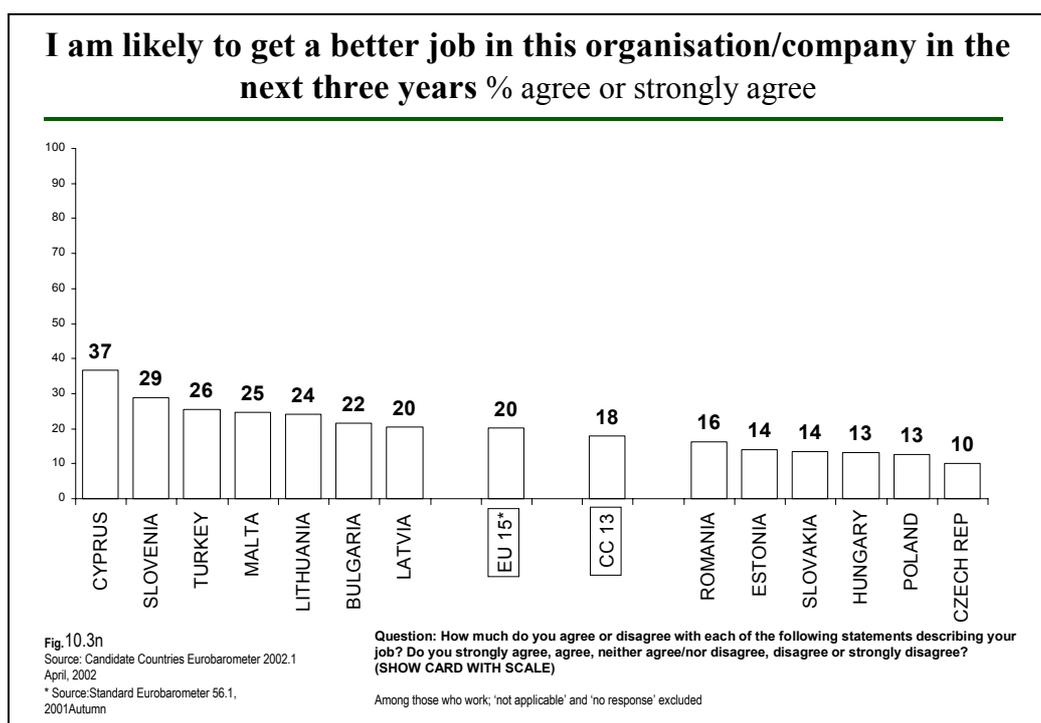
In the last question measuring the attachment to workplace we asked respondents if they would **turn down another job** elsewhere with more pay in order to stay with their organisation, company they work. These rates are rather low in every country. In fact, workers in the Candidate Countries are much less likely allow the luxury of refusing a job offering higher salary than they peers in the EU-15 region. Only 19% of the Candidate Countries' working population would turn down another job elsewhere in this scenario. The Cypriots (44%) and Maltese (40%) are the most likely to agree or strongly agree with the statement they would down another job with more pay to remain where they are, and Slovaks (14%), Lithuanians (15%) and Latvians (16%) are the most likely to think they would leave.



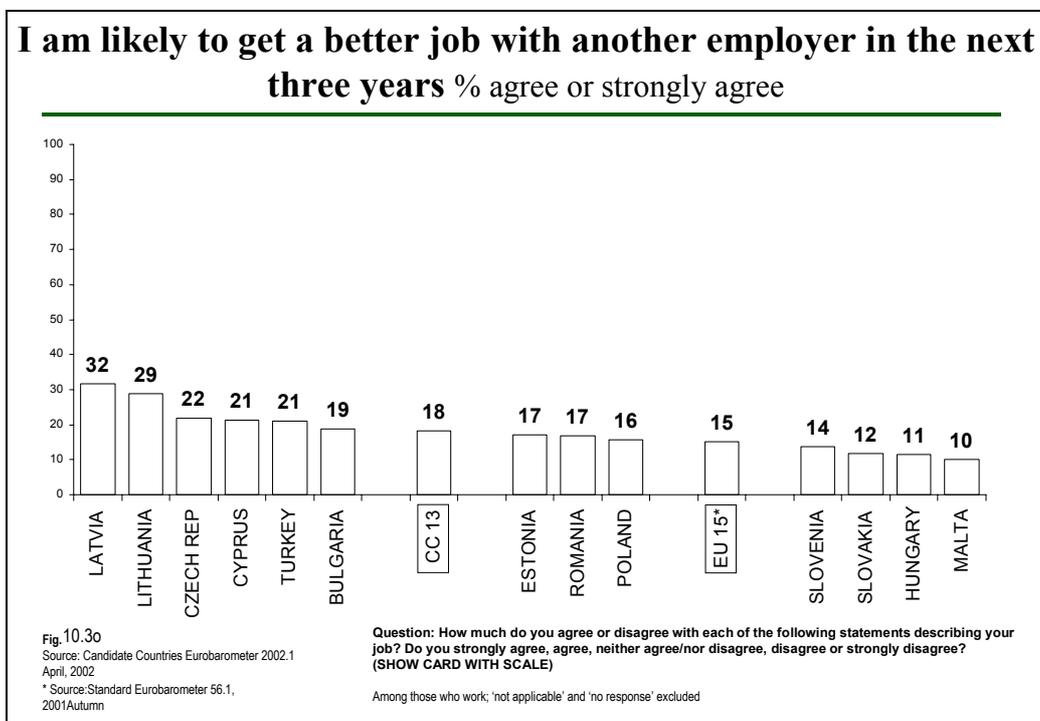
Career opportunities

We asked about career opportunities in a twofold manner: first we asked about the opportunities within the organisation the employee is working in now, and then we asked about perceived opportunities with another employer.

Similarly to European workers, only about one out fifth (18%) of the Candidate Countries' working populations agree and strongly agree with the statement that they are likely to get a **better job in the organisation they work** in the next three years. The Cypriots are the most likely to agree and strongly agree with this statement (37%) while only 10% of workers in the Czech Republic felt this way. Polish and Hungarian workers are not very optimistic about their promotion prospects either (13% both).



However, in the Candidate Region, workers perceive better chances for their career with a different employer than the average European worker. Eighteen percent of the Candidate Countries' working population agree and strongly agree with the statement that they are likely to get a **better job with another employer** in the next three years. The Latvians and Lithuanians are the most optimistic in this respect, (32% and 29% respectively). The Maltese (10%), Hungarians (11%) and Slovaks (12%) are the least likely to agree or strongly agree with this statement. (For details see Table 10.6 in Annex)

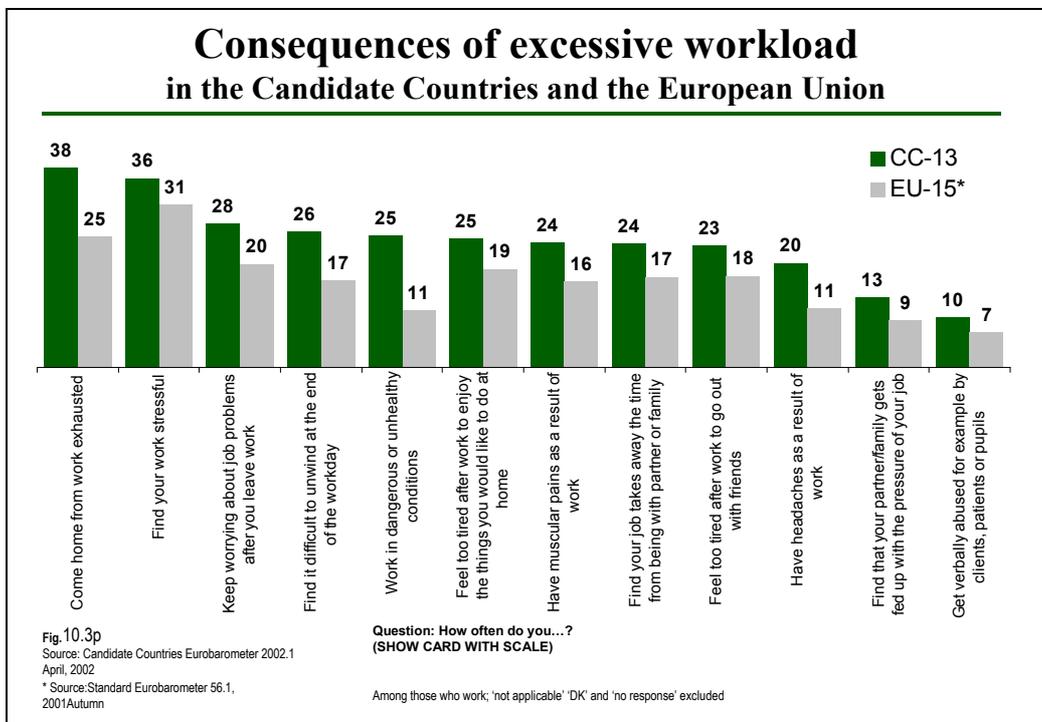


Consequences of excessive workload, unhealthy working conditions

Eurobarometer used 12 statements describing possible consequences of an excessive workload. We asked the respondents to indicate how often they felt any of the followings: "How often do you...?"

- Find your work stressful
- Work in dangerous or unhealthy conditions
- Have headaches as a result of work
- Have muscular pains as a result of work
- Get verbally abused for example by clients, patients or pupils
- Come home from work exhausted
- Keep worrying about job problems after you leave work
- Find it difficult to unwind at the end of the workday
- Find your job prevents you from giving the time you want to your partner or family
- Feel too tired after work to enjoy the things you would like to do at home
- Feel too tired after work to go out with friends
- Find that your partner/family gets fed up with the pressure of your job"

Generally, workers in the Candidate Countries face more stress, exhaustion, physical symptoms, and hampered family life by a gruelling work schedule than workers in the European Union. While about one out of ten workers in the EU has to work in unhealthy conditions, one quarter of CC-13 workers report this problem. Almost 4 out of 10 workers in the Candidate Countries leave work exhausted, while, and more than one third (36%) find their work stressful. There is no attribute where CC-13 workers held a more favourable view about workplace pressure than their western peers (Figure 10.3o).



The consequence most likely to be felt always or often across the Candidate Region is coming home from work **exhausted** (38%). The second most often mentioned consequence is finding work **stressful** (36%). But 23% of workers rarely or never come home from work exhausted, and 24% of them rarely or never find their work stressful. 34% of Estonians said that they rarely or never come home from work exhausted, and 36% of Lithuanians (36%) rarely or never find their work stressful. At the same time, 45% of Lithuanians always or often come home from work exhausted and 46% of Cypriots always or often find their work stressful. (for country-by-country results for each of the consequences please refer to Table 10.7 in the Annex)

28% of the working populations from Candidate Countries always or often **keep worrying** about job related problems after they leave work, and 26% of them find it **difficult to unwind** at the end of the workday. But 40% of working population rarely or never keep worrying about job problems after they leave work, and rarely or never find difficult to unwind at the end of the workday. The working population from Poland is the most likely to keep worrying about job problems (33%), and workers from Turkey find it difficult to unwind at the end of the workday more than others in the region (32%). 58% of Slovenians rarely or never keep worrying about job problems, and they are also the most likely to rarely or never find it difficult to unwind at the end of the workday (62%).

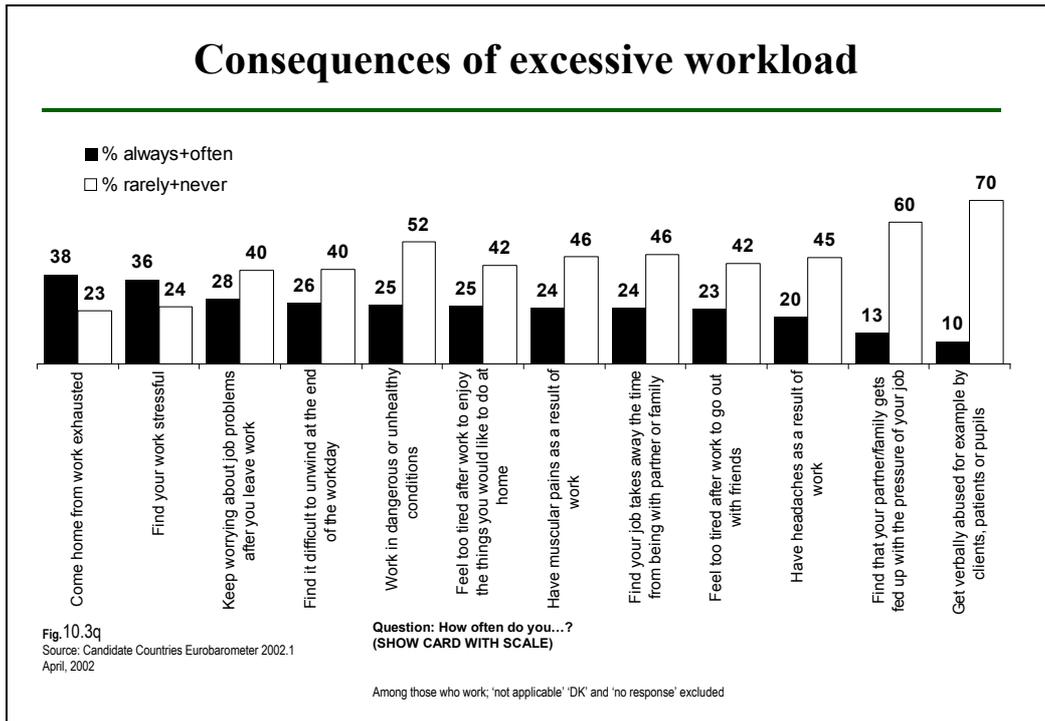
Exactly one quarter of the Candidate Countries' working populations always or often **work in dangerous or unhealthy conditions**, and **feel too tired** after work to enjoy the things they would like to do at home. Half of the working population (52%) rarely or never works in dangerous or unhealthy conditions, and 42% of them rarely or never feel too tired after work to enjoy the things they would like to do at home. Bulgaria has the highest proportion of those who always or often work in unhealthy conditions (33%), while the Maltese are at the opposite end of the scale in this regard (rarely or never: 65%). The Bulgarians and Hungarians are most likely to be always or often too tired after work (30% each), but 58% of Slovenians are rarely or never too tired to enjoy their lives.

24% of the working populations from Candidate Countries always or often have **muscular pains** as a result of work, and in the same percentage answered that they always or often find their **job takes away time they would spend with a partner or family**. 46% of them rarely or never have muscular pain, and rarely or never find that their job takes away time from a partner or family. Hungarians and Slovenians have the highest number of workers who rarely or never have muscular pains as a result of work (60%), while 33% of Cypriots always or often have such pains. Those most likely to feel that their job takes away time they would spend with a partner or family are the Hungarians (34%), while the Maltese (56%) and Slovenians (54%) most commonly rarely or never feel this way.

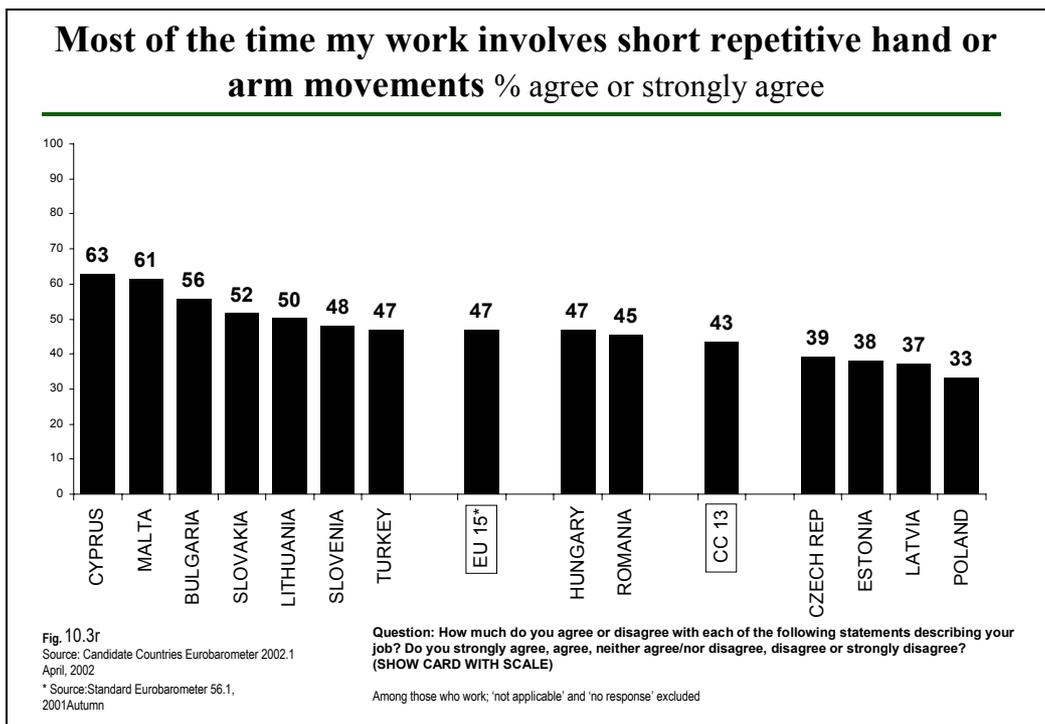
23% of workers from Candidate Countries always or often **feel too tired** after work to go out with friends, and 20% of them **have headaches** as a result of work. 42% of workers rarely or never feel too tired after work to go out with friends, and 45% of them rarely or never have headaches as a result of work. 28% (the highest rate among the Candidate countries) of Hungarians and Turkish said they always or often are too tired go out after work with friends, but Slovenians are the most likely to rarely or never be too tired to do so (61%). Turkey has the highest percentage of those who always or often have headaches after work (26%) while 72% Hungarians rarely or never have headaches as a result of work.

Only 13% of the working populations from Candidate Countries always or often find that their partner or **family gets fed up with the pressure of their job**, but 60% of them answered that they rarely or never find it so. At the high end of this scale, 16% of workers in Turkey think that their families or partners are always or often fed up with work related pressure but 74% of Maltese rarely or never feel this way.

Only 10% of the workers in the Candidate Countries are always or often **verbally abused** by clients, patients or pupils, and 70% of workers answered they rarely or never have this problem. Verbally abused always or often are the Polish are most likely to be verbally abused (14%), while clients of Cypriot workers seem to be the most polite (89% rarely or never verbally abused).



Forty-three percent of the Candidate Countries' working population answered that their work involves short repetitive hand or arm movements, about the same proportion Eurobarometer found in the European Union. Four countries are below the Candidate Countries' average: 33% of Polish, 37% of Latvian, 38% of Estonian and 39% of Czech workers agree and strongly agree that most of the time their work involves short repetitive hand or arm movements. Those with the highest percentages in this regard were from Cyprus (63%), where muscular pains resulting from work was also reported in the highest frequency. In Malta 61% agree and strongly agree with the above statement. (See Table 10.7 in Annex)



11. Geographical mobility

The analysis of geographical mobility profiles the levels of possibility of changing locality within the countries. The overall indication is that the citizens in the Candidate Region are less likely to change residence than their western counterparts, and financial reasons play a much greater role in mobility decisions and intentions.

11.1 Frequency of geographical mobility

Eurobarometer found low geographical mobility in the Candidate Countries. The citizens of the Candidate Countries do not change their place of residence very often, even more rarely than their counterparts in the European Union⁵⁶. Less than one third of them (29%) on average moved within the last ten years. Comparing this ratio with the European average (38%) the difference is almost ten percent.

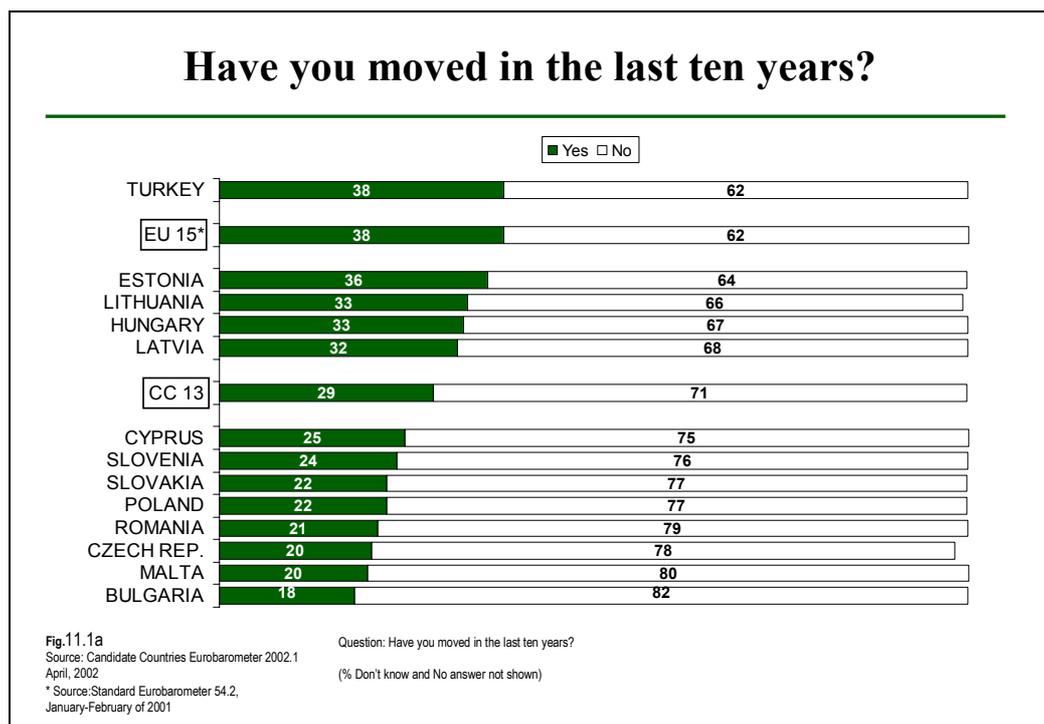
Table 11.1a Frequency of geographical mobility
(%, by country)

	Yes	No	DK/RF
EU-15	38	62	1
CC-13	29	71	0
BULGARIA	18	82	0
CYPRUS	25	75	0
CZECH REP.	20	78	2
ESTONIA	36	64	0
HUNGARY	33	67	0
LATVIA	32	68	0
LITHUANIA	33	66	1
MALTA	20	80	0
POLAND	22	77	0
ROMANIA	21	79	0
SLOVAKIA	22	77	0
SLOVENIA	24	76	0
TURKEY	38	62	0

This Candidate Countries average reflects a rather varying context from one country to another. As the graph below illustrates, Turkey has the highest level of geographical mobility with 38%, followed by Estonia (36%), Lithuania (33%), Hungary (33%), and Latvia (32%). These countries are all above the CC-13 average.

Everywhere else in the Candidate Region, less than one citizen out of four has moved within the last ten years. This is especially true in the Czech Republic and Malta (20% have moved in both countries), and Bulgaria, where only 18% of the respondents moved in the last ten years. (For more country-by-country numbers see Table 11.1a in Annex)

⁵⁶ all EU-15 data in this chapter are from Eurobarometer 54.2 on “*The Social Situation in the European Union*”, January / February 2001



40% of executive level employees have moved in the last ten years, opposed to only 11% of retired people and 25% of self-employed people.

Only 26% of the least educated people have moved in this period. On the other hand, the 25-39 year old cohort has moved a good deal (46%). The people living in large towns seem to have more opportunities to move and 38% of them have done so, as opposed to the 21% of the villagers and 29% of the respondents living in small or middle size towns. (See Table 11.1b in Annex)

An important note: the following questions, examining the nature of mobility in each Candidate Country, only concern those who have moved within the last ten years.

If moved, people have moved just once in ten years, equally in the European Union and in the Candidate Region. Of those citizens in the Candidate Countries who have moved within the last ten years, the majority (60%) have only done so once, 18% have moved twice, and 9% three times.

Table 11.1b Frequency of geographical mobility
%, by country

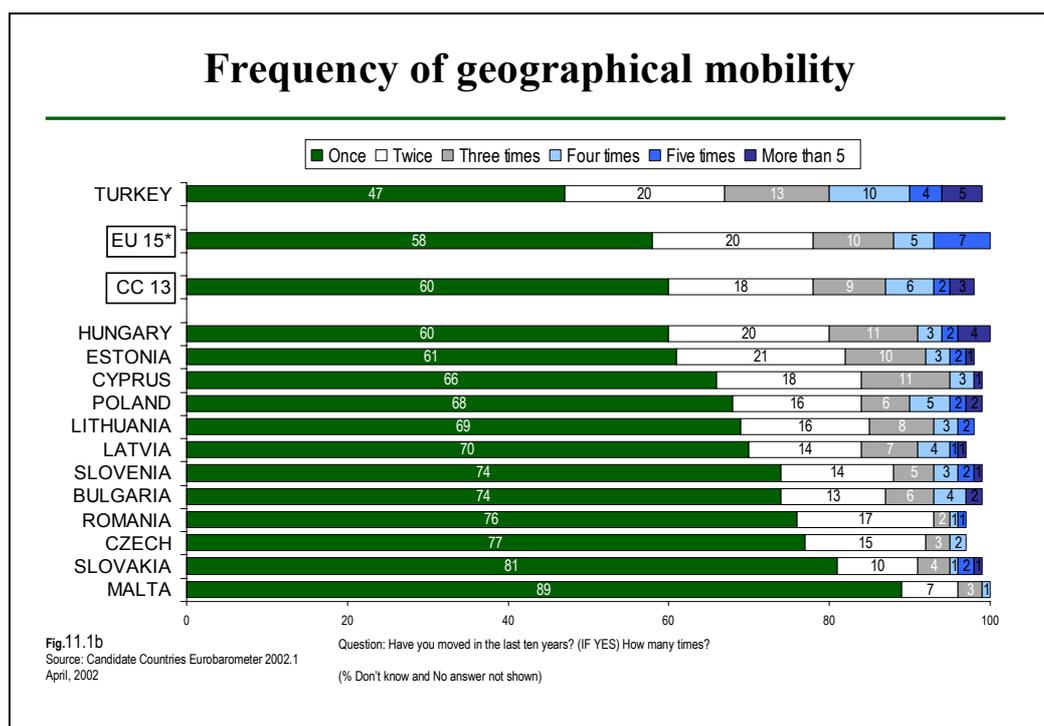
	Once	Twice	3 times	4 Times	5 times	More than 5 times	DK/RF
EU-15	58	20	10	5	7	1	2
CC-13	60	18	9	6	2	3	1
BULGARIA	74	13	6	4	0	2	0
CYPRUS	66	18	11	3	0	1	0
CZECH REP.	77	15	3	2	0	0	2
ESTONIA	61	21	10	3	2	1	2
HUNGARY	60	20	11	3	2	4	0
LATVIA	70	14	7	4	1	1	2
LITHUANIA	69	16	8	3	2	0	2
MALTA	89	7	3	1	0	0	0
POLAND	68	16	6	5	2	2	1
ROMANIA	76	17	2	1	1	0	3
SLOVAKIA	81	10	4	1	2	1	1
SLOVENIA	74	14	5	3	2	1	1
TURKEY	47	20	13	10	4	5	0

In general, the European frequency for moving in the last ten years for the people concerned reflects the situation in the Candidate Countries and parallels a general trend with it.

From Figure 11.1b below, we can also establish that those citizens in the Candidate Countries who are the most likely to have moved are also those who have moved most often.

We can observe this correlation in Turkey, where 38% of the respondents have changed their place of residence in the last ten years, giving Turkey the highest level of geographical mobility. It can also be noted that those who have moved the most frequently are Turkish.

In Slovakia and especially in Malta, the percentage of people moving just once every ten years is much greater than the CC-13 average, whereas the percentage of people who have moved more often than once in ten years is less than the European Union average. (For more details see Table 11.2 in Annex)



Studying these figures from a social-demographic angle, it seems that the average number of times respondents have moved in ten years increases consistently with the size of the settlement (from 1.79 from villages to 1.98 in large cities). The figure is slightly higher among men (1.93) than women (1.83). In terms of age, we observe the highest average among 15-24 year olds (2.05), and the lowest among those 55 years old and over (1.38).

All Europeans move most often within their own town or village. Only 29% have moved within the last ten years and of them the majority (60%) have only moved once.

In terms of where citizens of the Candidate Countries move most often to, it is overwhelmingly within their own town or village, as the Table below, a summary of the CC-13 averages shows. We asked our respondents to indicate the distance they moved in the last ten years: (for more details see Annex Table 11.3) *“And have you moved house at least once...*

- ... within the same town or village?*
- ... to another town or village, but within the same region?*
- ... to another region, but within the same country?*
- ... to another country, but one within the European Union?”*

As these results below show, more than two-thirds (69%) of the people who moved in the last ten years changed their place of residence within the same town or village.

Table 11.1c Destinations of moving in the last ten years
CC-13 averages

within the same town or village	69%
another town or village, but within the same region	28%
to another region, but within the same country	15%
to another country, but one within the European Union	2%

About the same percentage, a bit more than two thirds of the mobile population move within their own settlement in the European Union and the Candidate Region, whereas long-distance moving is considerably more prevalent in the EU-15 countries.

The highest local mobility ratios were found in Latvia (82%) and Estonia (77%). 75% of the Slovaks and 73% of both Hungarians and Turkish moved within their city borders. Compared to the CC-13 averages, those least likely to move within the same city, town or village in the past ten years were found in Bulgaria (48%), Slovenia (55%) and the Czech Republic (54%).

Table 11.1d Destinations of geographical mobility
(%, by country)

	within the same city, town or village	another city or village within the same region	another region within the same country	another country in the EU	lived in a country outside the EU
CC-13	69	28	15	2	1
EU-15	68	36	21	4	5
BULGARIA	48	37	33	4	4
CYPRUS	71	18	13	21	5
CZECH REP.	54	35	15	1	1
ESTONIA	77	25	20	1	1
HUNGARY	73	29	16	4	0
LATVIA	82	20	13	3	1
LITHUANIA	69	29	13	9	2
MALTA	58	30	14	2	6
POLAND	63	32	14	2	1
ROMANIA	62	31	8	0	0
SLOVAKIA	75	20	8	2	1
SLOVENIA	55	36	9	6	1
TURKEY	73	24	15	0	0

Overall, 28% of the respondents have moved to another town or village within the same region. In Bulgaria, Slovenia and the Czech Republic more than one third of the inhabitants moved in such a manner. In Cyprus, the fewest citizens moved to another town or village within the same region in the last ten years (18%)

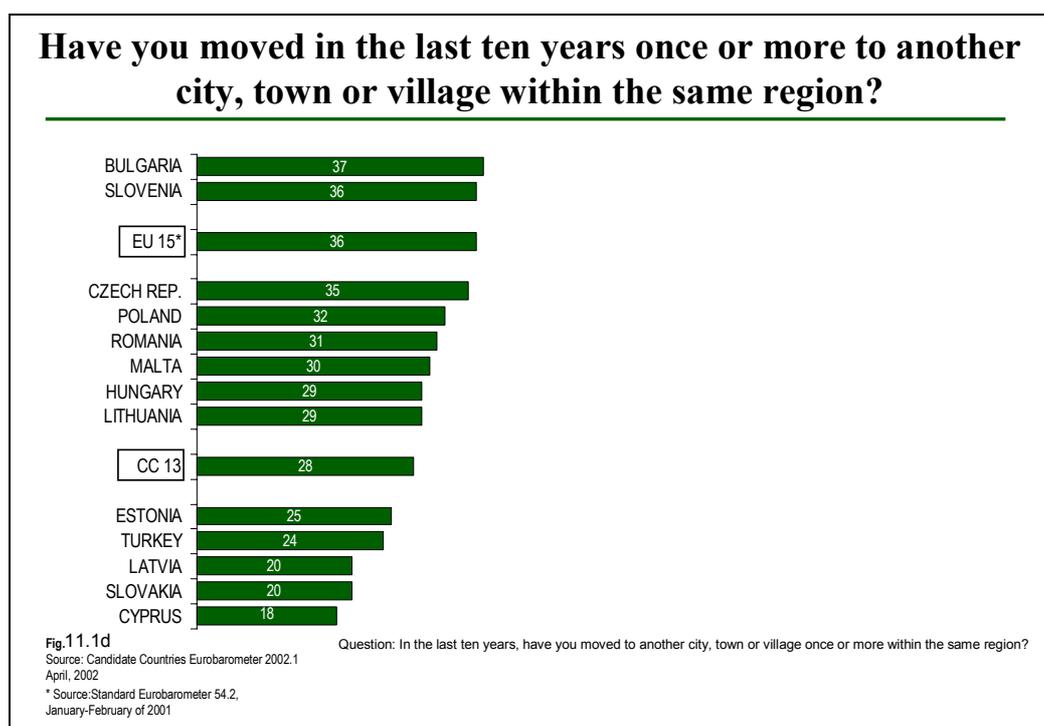
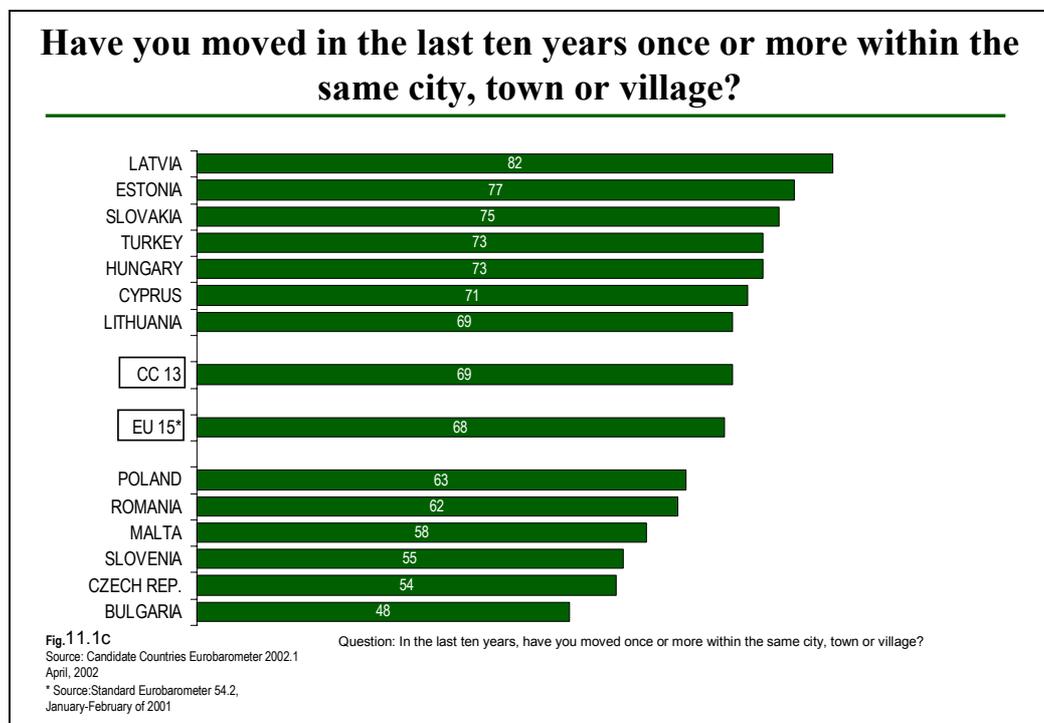
Overall, 15% of the respondents of the Candidate Countries have moved to another region within the same country. 33% of the Bulgarians moved in the last ten years once or more to another region within the same country, well above the CC-13 average. The lowest ratios were found in Romania, Slovakia, and Slovenia, where less than 10% of the inhabitants moved to another region in the last ten years.

Although last among the thirteen countries when it comes to moving within the same town or village, Cypriots find themselves systematically in the lead for all other destinations, the divergence from the average becoming more and more noticeable the greater the distance of relocation is.

21% of Cypriots who moved within the last ten years relocated to another country within Europe (compared to the 2% CC-13 average). The Cypriots have moved the greatest distances between their old and new homes. 26% of them have moved to another country in Europe at least once or lived in a country outside Europe in the last ten years (compared to the 3% CC-13 average).

When it comes to moving to a country outside the EU, the citizens who most often choose this destination are once again the Maltese (6% of them within the last ten years), the Cypriots (5%) and the Bulgarians (4%). Romanians and Turks stand out among the inhabitants of the CC-13 region; none of them moved to or lived outside their own country in the past ten years.

The following pages contain graphs that detail the responses to this question. For more details see also Table 11.3 in Annex.



Have you moved in the last ten years once or more to another region within the same country?

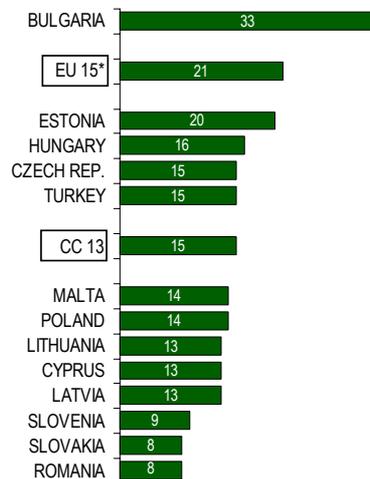


Fig.11.1e
Source: Candidate Countries Eurobarometer 2002.1
April, 2002
* Source: Standard Eurobarometer 54.2,
January-February of 2001

Question: In the last ten years, have you moved to another region once or more once or more within the same country?

Have you moved in the last ten years once or more to another country within Europe?

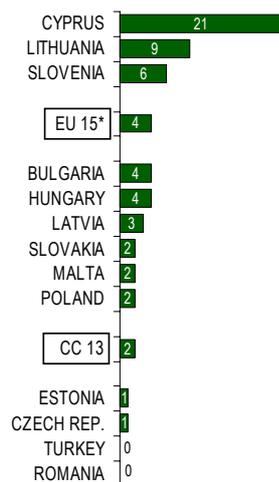


Fig. 11.1f
Source: Candidate Countries Eurobarometer 2002.1
April, 2002
* Source: Standard Eurobarometer 54.2,
January-February of 2001, question slightly different: „And have you moved house at least once...to another country, but one within the European Union?“

Question: In the last ten years, have you moved to another country once or more within Europe?

Have you lived in the last ten years in a country outside Europe?



Fig11.1g

Source: Candidate Countries Eurobarometer 2002.1
April, 2002

*Source: Standard Eurobarometer 54.2,
January-February of 2001, question slightly different: „And have you lived in a country outside the European Union?“

Question: In the last ten years, have you moved to another country once or more within Europe?

11.2 Reasons for geographical mobility

New Europeans essentially move for family or private reasons, financial reasons play a much greater role in mobility decisions than in the European Union. When asking respondents for the reasons behind any move in the last ten years, family and private reasons were in the first position (41%); and domestic reasons (weren't satisfied with where you were living), and financial reasons (both 26%). Professional and work reasons were third in terms of importance (19%), and other reasons counted for 12% of the moves.

Table 11.2a shows the results for the following question: *"Why did you move last time?"*

1. *You weren't satisfied with where you were living*
2. *You didn't like the people living in your area*
3. *For professional reasons*
4. *For family or personal reasons*
5. *For financial reasons*
6. *Other reasons*
7. *DK"*

Table 11.2a Reasons for geographical mobility
%, by country

	unsatisfied with home	didn't like people	professional reasons	personal reasons	financial reasons	other reasons
EU-15	18	3	15	54	9	16
CC-13	26	6	19	41	26	12
BULGARIA	20	3	15	48	23	13
CYPRUS	21	2	21	50	7	14
CZECH REP.	27	3	15	63	11	10
ESTONIA	31	4	11	56	18	7
HUNGARY	19	3	7	57	18	15
LATVIA	30	4	14	47	24	14
LITHUANIA	28	3	10	52	22	18
MALTA	30	8	5	38	7	35
POLAND	26	4	14	54	13	13
ROMANIA	19	3	10	51	15	13
SLOVAKIA	17	1	8	77	10	11
SLOVENIA	17	4	10	60	8	16
TURKEY	29	9	27	25	39	10

In general, this order of importance also holds true across the whole Candidate Region with the following exceptions.

The Turkish are the least likely to have moved for family or personal reasons (25%). In Slovakia (77%) there is a much larger difference in comparison with the EU. The Estonians (31%), the Latvians and the Maltese (30% both) are proportionally the most likely, compared to the European average, to evoke dissatisfaction with where they were living as the reason for having moved. Finally, Turkish citizens are the most likely to cite financial reasons (39%).

Demographic analyses – as Table 11.2b shows – indicate that women are more likely to move for private reasons, while men's mobility is more likely work-related. Family / personal reasons were named by 46% of women and 36% of men, while 25% of men and only 14% of women cited professional reasons as reason for mobility.

Professional reasons lead to moving house the most likely among managers and self-employed persons (27% both), but are relatively insignificant reasons for mobility for the white collar workers (18%). Obviously, retired persons and homemakers are not likely to name professional reasons for their recent mobility.

The least educated respondents are the most likely to cite financial reasons (41%) for changing residence.

People who are living in rural area or village are least likely to name domestic reasons for changing their homes. Self-employed and the 15-24 years olds cited most frequently the reason 'did not like people in your area' (29% both). (See Table 11.4 in Annex)

Table 11.2b Reasons for geographical mobility
%, by demographics

	unsatisfied with home	didn't like people	professional reasons	personal reasons	financial reasons	other reasons		unsatisfied with home	didn't like people	professional reasons	personal reasons	financial reasons	other reasons
Male	25	7	25	36	27	11	Self-employed	25	9	27	34	30	11
Female	26	5	14	46	26	12	Managers	29	3	27	44	10	10
AGE: 15-24 years	26	9	15	43	27	11	Other white collars	27	7	18	46	13	14
AGE: 25-39 years	25	5	21	40	28	11	Manual workers	23	7	20	42	27	10
AGE: 40-54 years	29	6	22	42	23	11	House Persons	27	6	16	39	35	9
AGE: 55+ years	22	1	14	44	23	15	Unemployed	27	5	22	43	31	11
EDU: up to 15 years	27	5	21	31	41	11	Retired	20	3	14	46	21	14
EDU: 16-19 years	23	5	16	51	18	12	Rural area or village	23	5	20	48	26	12
EDU: 20+ years	25	4	23	46	15	11	Small or middle sized town	29	6	19	44	25	9
EDU: still studying	25	8	13	38	23	17	Large town	25	6	19	35	28	13

11.3 Reasons for geographical immobility

In the Candidate Region and in the European Union people are almost equally satisfied with their place of residence. When we examine more closely why 71% of the citizens of the Candidate Countries did not move in the last ten years, the primary reason is that people are satisfied with where they live. Cited in 77% of the cases, this is the principal reason for their sedentary lifestyle. Again, citing financial reasons (not being able to afford a new or better home) are significantly more prevalent in the CC-13 region (21%) than in the EU-15 (8%).

Financial reasons are only cited in 21% of the cases, and reasons related to family are cited in only 11% of the cases. Finally, work does not seem to hold back the inhabitants of the Candidate Countries at all: this reason is only cited by 2% of people who did not move in the last ten years.

“Why haven't you moved?”

1. *You are satisfied with where you live*
2. *You thought about moving, but you didn't do it for professional reasons*
3. *You thought about moving, but you didn't do it for family/personal reasons*
4. *You thought about moving, but you didn't do it for financial reasons*
5. *Other reasons (SPONTANEOUS)*
6. *DK”*

Table 11.3a Reasons of geographical immobility
%, by country

	satisfied with home	professional reasons	family / personal reasons	financial reasons	other reasons	DK
EU-15	81	2	8	8	6	2
CC-13	77	7	11	21	5	3
BULGARIA	84	3	9	10	6	2
CYPRUS	93	1	3	7	1	0
CZECH REP.	80	5	13	13	8	6
ESTONIA	81	5	10	22	3	3
HUNGARY	77	2	8	19	4	2
LATVIA	81	5	10	15	7	3
LITHUANIA	79	6	11	20	4	2
MALTA	86	0	6	11	5	0
POLAND	74	6	11	22	6	7
ROMANIA	75	2	9	21	4	2
SLOVAKIA	83	5	12	18	2	2
SLOVENIA	86	3	7	12	2	0
TURKEY	77	15	12	27	3	1

Due to the predominance of satisfaction with one's place of residence, it is difficult to draw out any particularities at the individual country level. At the very most, we can highlight that the Turkish (15%) are proportionally the most likely compared to the CC-13 average of 7% to state professional reasons for not having moved, and that the Cypriots (3%) are proportionally far below the CC-13 average (11%), of citing family or personal reasons. In Turkey, financial burden (27%) also seems to be more important in explaining immobility than in the other countries (CC-13: 21%). (Figures 11.3a-d show country rankings in each of the reasons)

Table 11.3b Reasons of geographical immobility
in %, by demographics

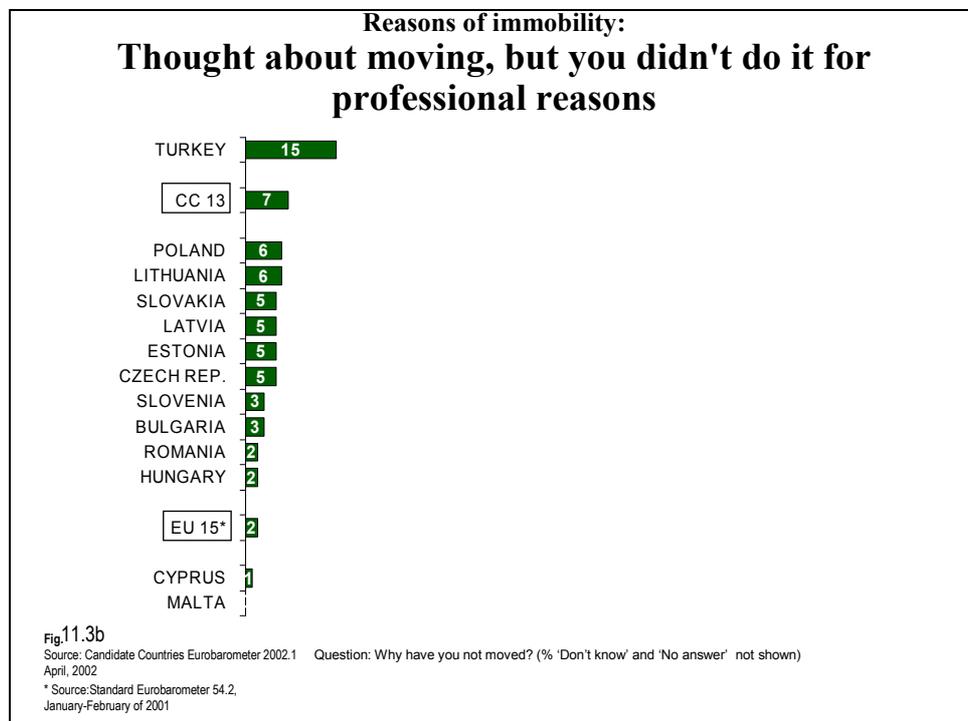
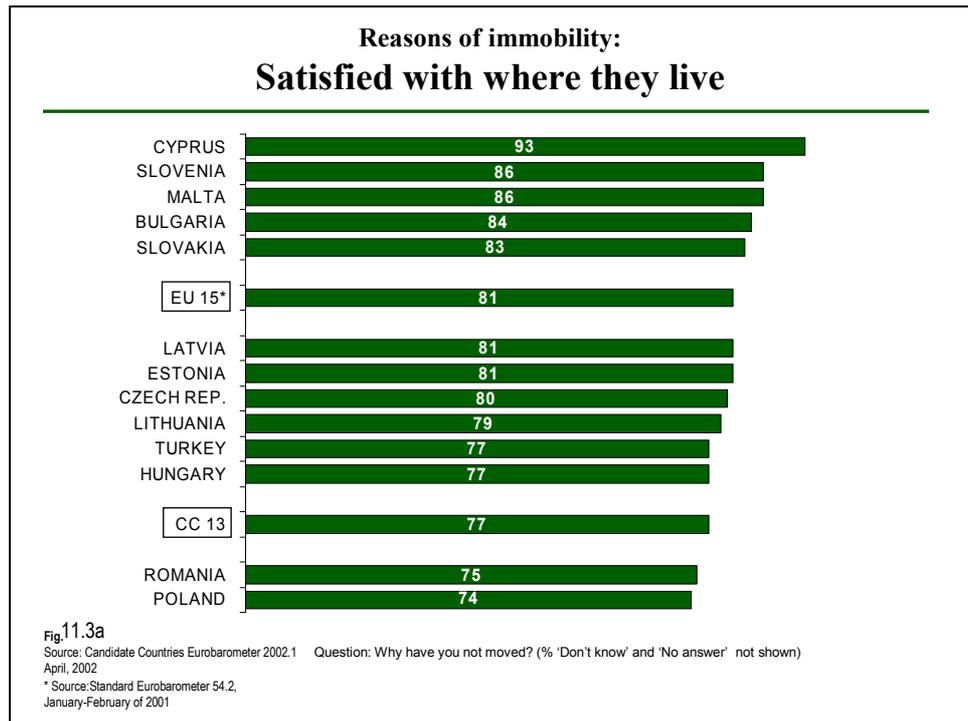
	satisfied with home	professional reasons	family / personal reasons	financial reasons	other reasons		satisfied with home	professional reasons	family / personal reasons	financial reasons	other reasons
Male	77	9	11	22	4	Self-employed	82	16	11	20	4
Female	77	6	10	21	5	Managers	72	13	11	19	6
AGE: 15-24 years	70	5	12	27	7	Other white collars	69	8	15	29	5
AGE: 25-39 years	72	11	14	29	5	Manual workers	77	8	11	26	3
AGE: 40-54 years	77	10	12	23	3	House Persons	74	10	14	24	5
AGE: 55+ years	85	4	7	12	4	Unemployed	69	7	14	33	5
EDU: up to 15 years	80	8	10	21	3	Retired	85	3	7	12	4
EDU: 16-19 years	78	7	12	21	5	Rural area or village	78	8	12	20	5
EDU: 20+ years	74	7	10	24	4	Small or middle sized town	80	8	10	20	4
EDU: still studying	70	3	11	21	8	Large town	72	5	10	26	5

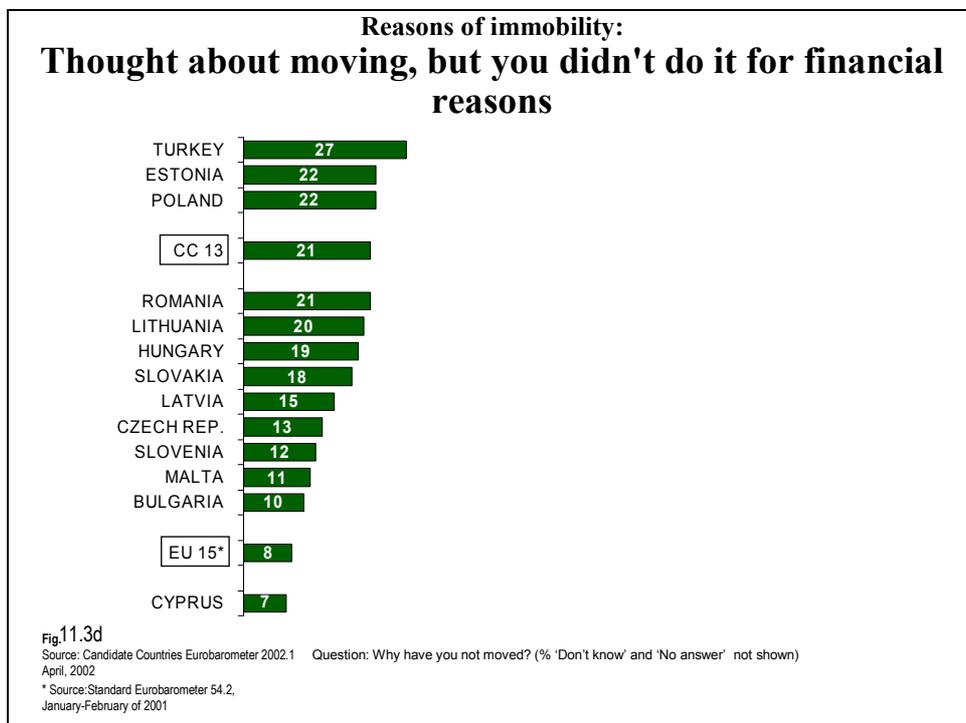
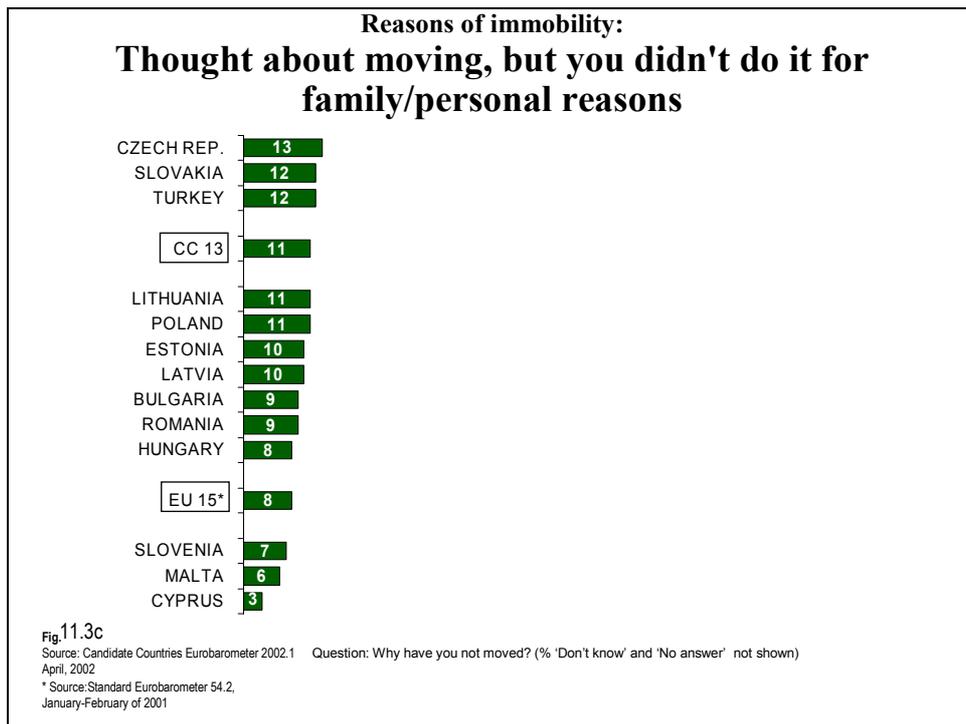
Demographic analyses are not showing significant differences either; satisfaction with current home is the predominant reason of sedentary lifestyle in each group. The only difference between males and females is that men are a bit more likely to claim they are bound to their work (9%), and therefore they can't move than women do (6%).

The least educated people (80%) are most likely to say they did not move because they were satisfied with where they lived. This same response increases with the age of the people interviewed. The response 'I thought about moving, but didn't do it for family/personal reasons' reaches 14% among those 25-39 years old but is only 7% among those at least 55 years old.

Retired people (85%) and self-employed are the most likely to be satisfied with where they live (82%), while unemployed persons and white collar employees are the least likely to be satisfied with current living conditions to a degree that would prevent them changing home (69% both). Unemployed people claim to be unable to move for financial reasons (33%) as well as family/personal reasons (14%). Other white collars, and young adults between 25 and 39 years often explain their immobility with not being able to afford a new home (29% both).

People in large cities are the least likely to explain their sedentary lifestyle with domestic reasons (that they are satisfied with where they currently live; 72%), while those who live in smaller towns seem to be the most content with their homes (80%). (For more details check Table 11.5 in Annex)



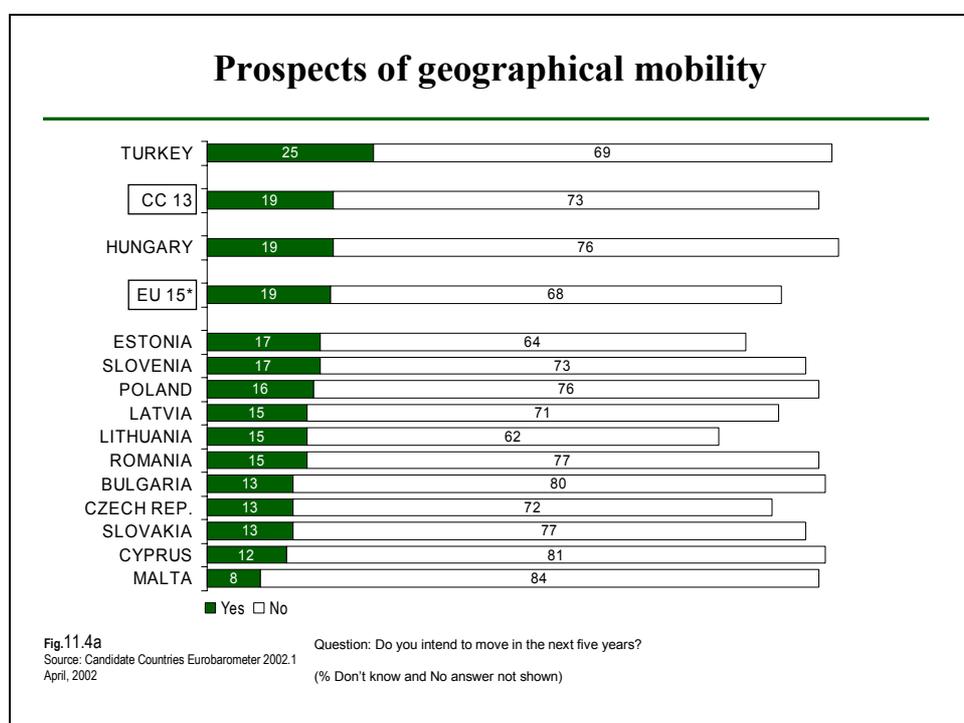


11.4 Prospects of geographical mobility

Candidate Countries Eurobarometer found little prospect of geographical mobility in the near future. 29% of the citizens of the Candidate Countries moved within the last ten years, and even less think they might move in the next five years. When asked, 19% of respondents say they think they will move, while 73% think they will not, and 8% do not give a response to this question: “Do you intend to move in the next five years?” At the same time, this proportion is similar to what we find in the EU-15 region, where mobility reaches higher levels.

Table 11.4a Prospect of geographical mobility
%, by country

	Yes	No	DK/RF
EU-15	18	68	14
CC-13	19	73	8
BULGARIA	13	80	6
CYPRUS	12	81	7
CZECH REP.	13	72	15
ESTONIA	17	64	19
HUNGARY	19	76	5
LATVIA	15	71	14
LITHUANIA	15	62	23
MALTA	8	84	9
POLAND	16	76	8
ROMANIA	15	77	8
SLOVAKIA	13	77	10
SLOVENIA	17	73	9
TURKEY	25	69	6



The analysis of the graph above reveals that the low prospect for geographical mobility observed in the CC-13 average also holds true at the Candidate Country level with the

exception of Turkey (25%). The ratio of those who think they may move in the next five years is lower or the same than the CC-13 average (19%) in every other country. In all countries, the negative response collects a higher percentage than the positive one.

In the case of Turkey, where 38% of the citizens have already moved in the last ten years, a quarter of the respondents think they might move in the next five years. On average, the Turkish moved 2.26 times, well above the CC-13 average. We observe a higher willingness and ability to change one's place of residence in Turkey - much more so than in the other Candidate Countries.

At the other end of the spectrum, we find countries – like Cyprus and Malta – where a lower proportion of respondents think they will move in the next five years.

In the last ten years the Bulgarians were the least likely to move (18%). However, in the near future, the citizens of Malta think that they will be the most sedentary.

Only 8% of Maltese think they will move in the next five years. Malta has the lowest frequency of geographical mobility as well because among the respondents who moved in the last ten years the majority (this is the highest proportion compared to the other Candidate Countries), 89% moved only once in this period. If nothing else, the Maltese have a consistently low ratio of moving.

Among the CC-13 countries, Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Slovakia, and Cyprus remain the countries where the citizens are the most sedentary. In the case of Hungary (19%), Estonia (17%), and Slovenia (17%) the trend conforms closely to the CC-13 average (19%). (For more country-by-country numbers see Table 11.6a in Annex)

Demographic analysis shows that 20% of men and 18% of women think they will move in the next five years. This figure increases in a very clear manner with the level of education (from 15% to 23%), but declines with age (from 33% to 4%).

Students (36%) form the socio-professional group most likely to respond positively in this consideration, followed by unemployed people (24%), executive level employees (26%) and white-collar workers (25%).

The percentages for people who live in large towns (27%) are higher than they are for those who live in small or middle size town or villages (18%) or in rural areas or villages (14%). (For demographic breakdowns refer to Table 11.6b in the Annex)

These data suggest a trend toward an even more sedentary lifestyle for Candidate Country citizens in the next few years. As a reminder, only 19% think they will move in the five years to come.

Destinations of intended geographical mobility

We posed another question, related to the destination of intended move, for those who indicated they might move over the course of the next half decade: *"In the next five years, do you think you will move at least once...*

- ... within the same town or village?*
- ... to another town or village, but within the same region?*
- ... to another region, but within the same country?*
- ... to another country, but one within Europe?*
- ... to another country outside Europe?"*

When asked about **where people think they will move to**, the people concerned (those who intend to move) most often say that they will stay in the same city or town (53%). The table below sets out the CC-13 averages for questions 60 a-e, which ask where people think they will move to in the next five years, and compares these responses to where they moved in the last ten years.

Table 11.4b Destinations for geographical mobility in the next five years and the past ten years

CC-13 and EU-15 averages

	CANDIDATE REGION		EUROPEAN UNION	
	intended mobility (in the next five years)	historic mobility (over the past ten years)	intended mobility (in the next five years)	historic mobility (over the past ten years)
within the same town or village	53%	69%	51%	68%
to another town or village, but within the same region	25%	28%	31%	36%
to another region, but within the same country	21%	15%	26%	21%
to another country, but one within Europe (in EU-15: "within the European Union)	9%	2%	8%	4%
to another country outside Europe (in EU-15: "outside the European Union)	3%	1%	7%	5%

Analysing Table 11.4b, we see immediately that both in the CC-13 and the EU-15 region there has been a reorientation of destinations although remaining in the existing town or village of residence maintains the majority (53% of predicted destinations in the Candidate Region). The difference of 16 points as compared to past mobility destinations highlights this reorientation. The data for moving within the same region also confirms this reorientation, but to a lesser extent (only 3 points of difference).

Conversely, moving to a more distant destination seems more likely. The choice "another region, but within the same country" gained 6 percentage points in the CC-13 countries, while the intent of moving to another European country is almost five times greater (9% compared to 2%). Moving to a country outside the EU is also more likely, but remains very infrequent choice of the respondents (3%, +2 percentage points).

Comparing the CC-13 proportions with the average of the EU-15 countries, the trends are almost identical, nevertheless, there are some characteristic features worth mentioning. The citizens of the Member States are more likely to be 'long distance travellers' than those in the Candidate Countries as regards both moving to another region within the same country (EU-

15: 21%, CC-13: 15%), and moving to another country within or outside Europe (EU-15: 5%, CC-13: 1%).

As relates to the next five years, the citizens of the Member States are more likely than inhabitants of the Candidate Region to plan a move to another region in their own country. They are also almost twice as likely to consider moving outside of Europe (EU-15: 7%, CC-13: 3%).

Analysing the responses regarding intended destinations of moving in the next five years in each Candidate Country (see Table 11.4c and Figures 11.4b-f below), we find several peculiarities, as outlined below.

Table 11.4c Destinations of intended geographical mobility
(% mentioned, by country)

	within the same city, town or village	another city or village within the same region	another region within the same country	another country in Europe (in EU-15: *within the European Union)	a country outside Europe (in EU-15: *outside the European Union)
CC-13	53	25	21	9	3
EU-15	51	31	26	8	7
BULGARIA	35	18	28	35	21
CYPRUS	59	18	12	19	9
CZECH REP.	46	27	21	8	6
ESTONIA	48	27	23	9	1
HUNGARY	61	21	11	4	2
LATVIA	59	16	19	13	4
LITHUANIA	54	20	14	16	7
MALTA	39	39	37	4	0
POLAND	40	31	24	11	2
ROMANIA	52	17	12	19	3
SLOVAKIA	58	27	14	15	11
SLOVENIA	50	31	16	5	3
TURKEY	60	25	25	3	2

In Bulgaria we find the most marked difference in directionality of mobility intentions amongst all Candidate Countries, with very high proportions interested in moving to far-off places in the future. Proportionally, compared to the CC-13 average, they are the first to consider moving to another country in Europe (35% versus 9% for the CC-13 average), and again the first to consider moving outside the EU (21% versus CC-13 average 3%). Inversely, only 35% of Bulgarians who think they will move house in the next five years, think they will do so within the same town or village (versus 53 % for the CC-13 average).

Moving within current settlement is the choice of Hungarians (61%), the Turkish (60%), and the Cypriots (59%) in highest proportions. At the same time, relatively few Bulgarians, Maltese (39%) and Polish (40%) would like to move within the same town or village where they are currently living.

Intra-regional mobility is planned the most by Slovenians (31%), followed by Czech, Estonian, and Slovak people who intend to move (27% each). Latvians (16%), Romanians (17%), and Cypriots (18%) are not interested changing residence within the region where they live.

Inter-regional mobility is most preferred by the Maltese (37% of those who plan to move indicated to move to a different region in their country), followed by Bulgarians (28%) and the Turkish (25%). People in Hungary are not likely to choose another region within their country as the destination of moving (11%), just like Cypriots and Romanians (12% both).

Emigration to another European country is an option for Bulgarians in the highest proportions (35%), followed by Cypriots and Romanians (19% both). People in Turkey (3%), Malta, and Hungary (4% both) are the least likely to be interested to move in another country in Europe.

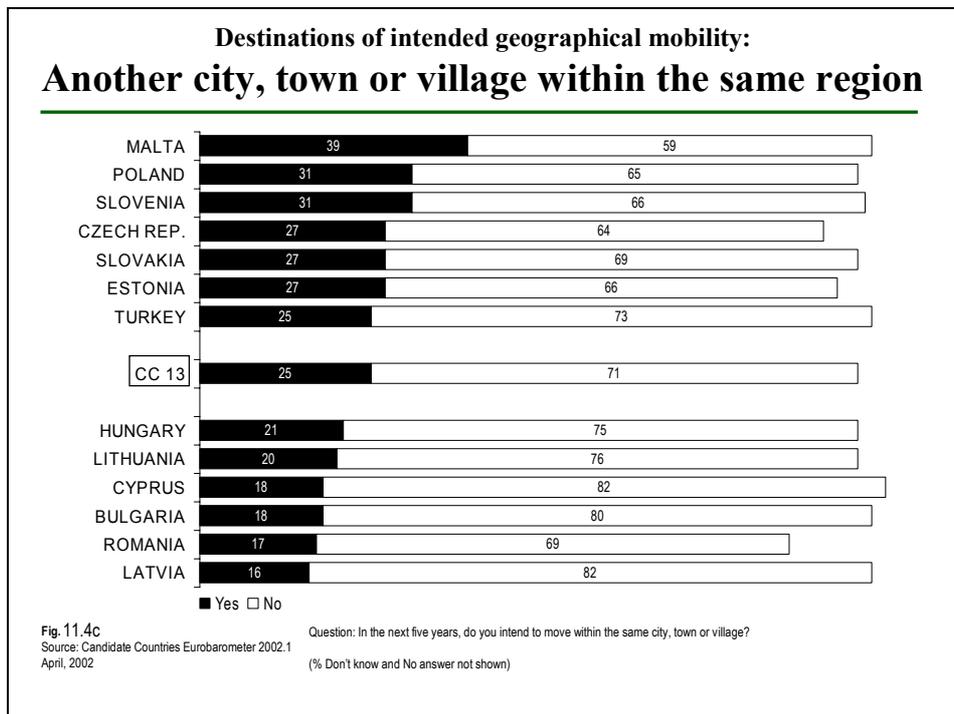
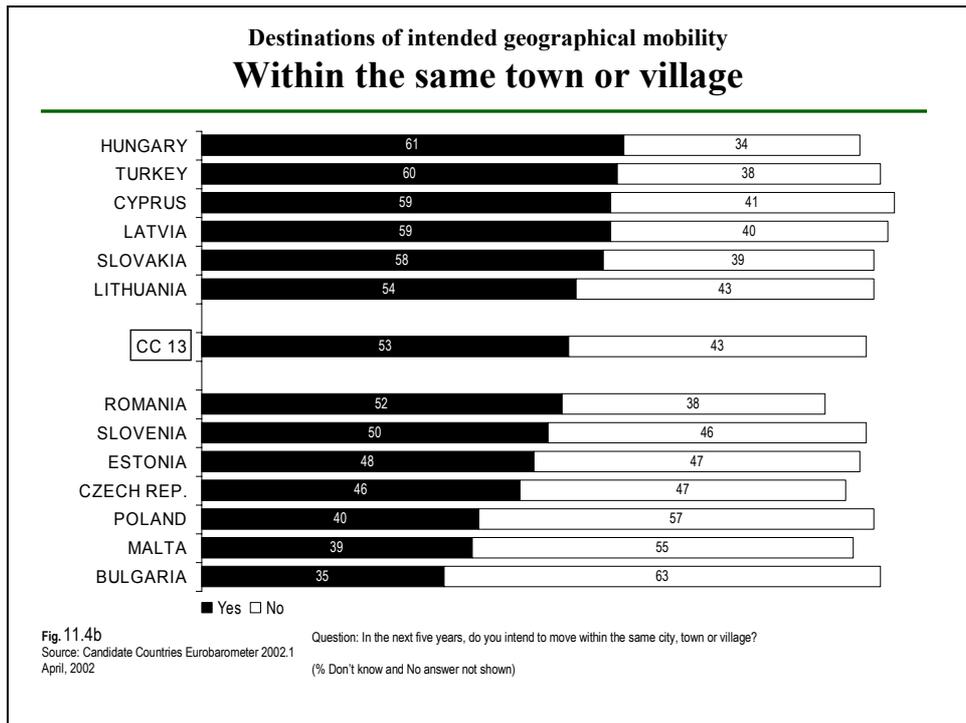
Emigration to outside Europe is an option for every fifth Bulgarian (21%) who plans to move house in the next five years. Slovaks are also interested in such a move well above the CC-13 average (11%), and so are the Cypriots (9%). Virtually nobody in Malta, one percent in Estonia and two percent in Poland, Turkey and Hungary consider moving to such a far off location.

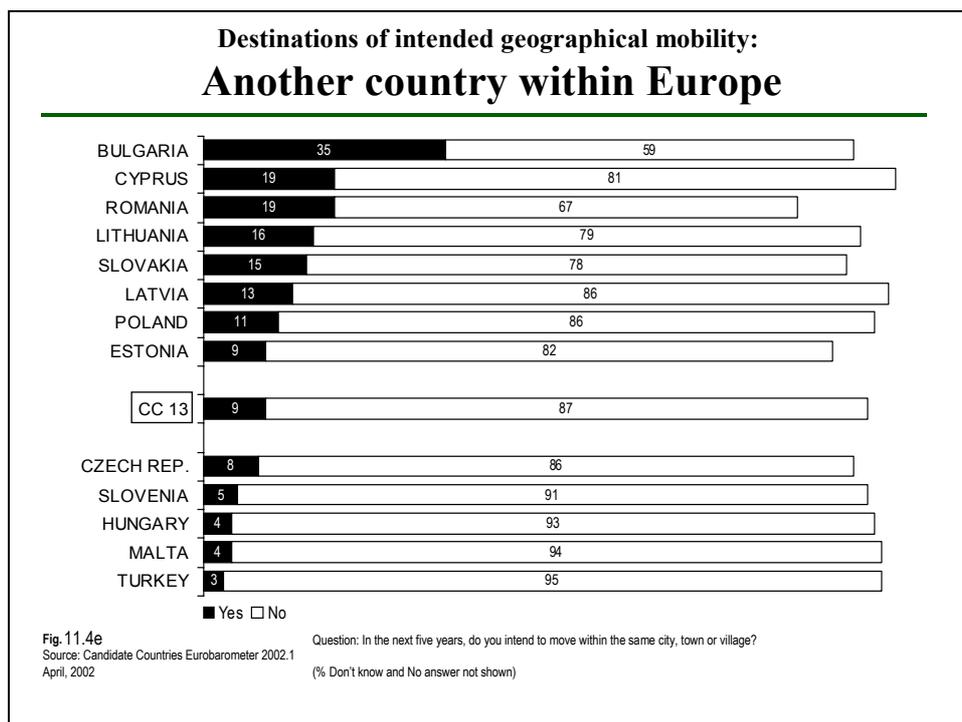
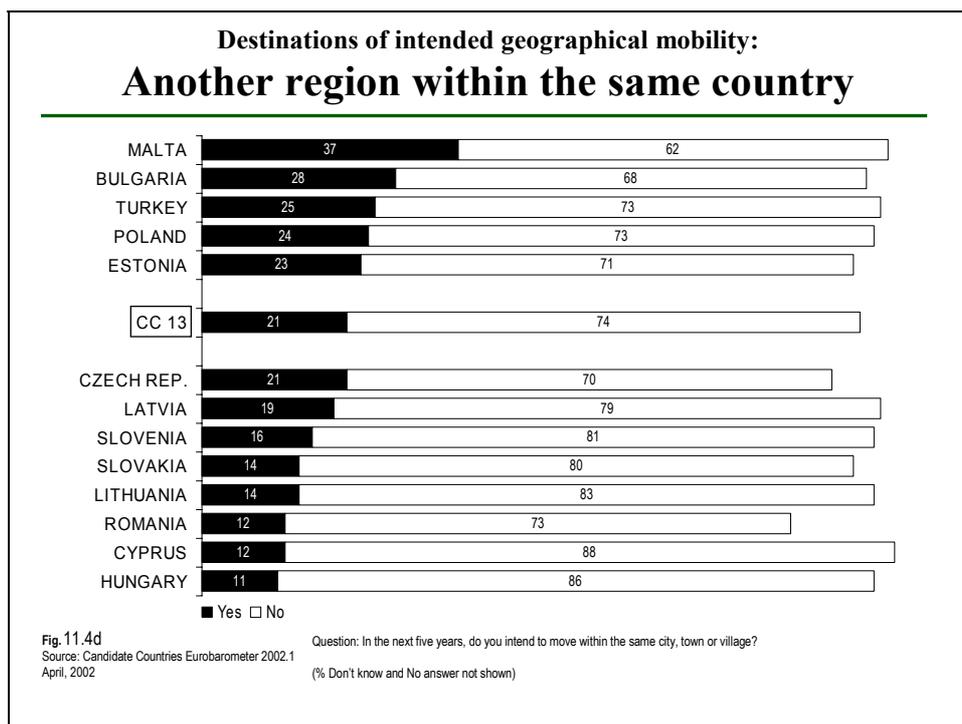
Table 11.4d shows main directionality of planned mobility, with combined responses for within-country moves, and emigration of any form. Romanians (28%), Hungarians (30%), Latvians (32%) and Lithuanians (33%) are the least likely to look for a new residence within their own country, but not in their current town or village. We find the most potential emigrants in Bulgaria (42%), followed by Cyprus (24%), Lithuania, and Romania (22%).

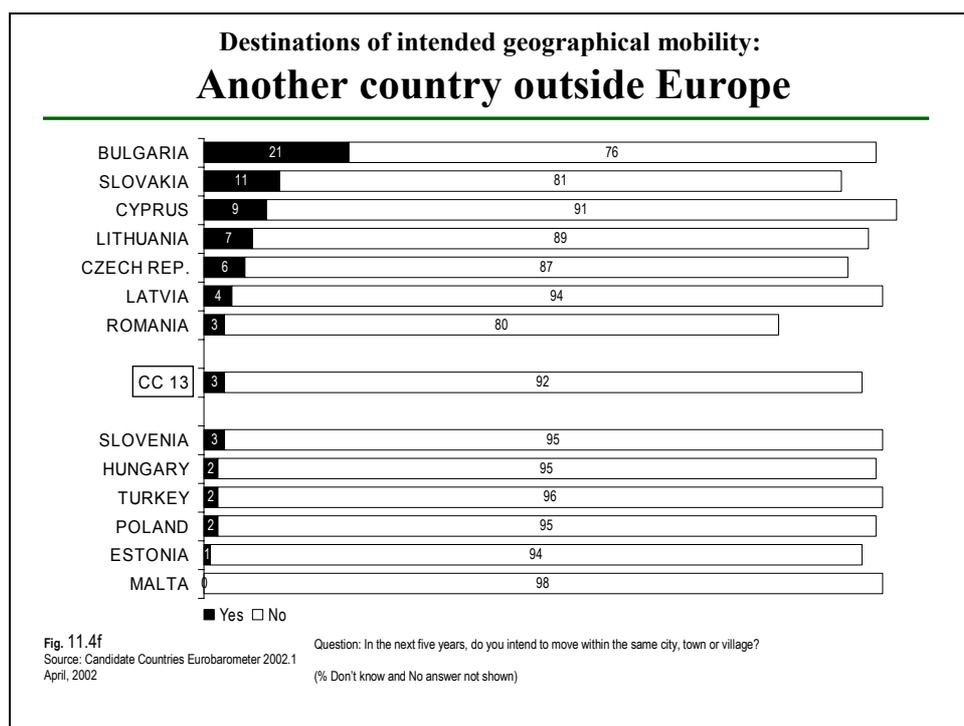
Table 11.4d Main directions of intended mobility
%, by country

	% plan to move in the next 5 years	Destinations of planned geographical mobility		
		local	within-country (same region & other region combined)	abroad (within and outside Europe combined)
CC-13	19	53	42	11
BULGARIA	13	35	41	42
CYPRUS	12	59	29	24
CZECH REP.	13	46	47	11
ESTONIA	17	48	43	9
HUNGARY	19	61	30	6
LATVIA	15	59	32	15
LITHUANIA	15	54	33	22
MALTA	8	39	67	4
POLAND	16	40	51	12
ROMANIA	15	52	28	22
SLOVAKIA	13	58	35	21
SLOVENIA	17	50	44	7
TURKEY	25	60	44	5

The following pages contain graphs which detail the responses to the question about where people will or at least plan to move house to in the future. (For more details check Table 11.7 in Annex)







Reasons for future geographical mobility

When people are asked about what makes them think they will move within the next five years, the citizens concerned cite the following four main reasons (in descending order):

- financial reasons (38%);
- family and personal reasons (32%);
- professional reasons (31%);
- domestic reasons ('not satisfied with where I live') (27%).

The citizens of the Candidate Countries **move for essentially financial reasons**, while European citizens name family or private reasons at the first place, if asked what make them think they will move. (See Table 11.8 in Annex)

To assess dominant reasons for planning to move in each Candidate Country and in the average of the region, we asked the following question from our respondents, allowing them to choose more than one of the possible reasons: "*Why do you think you will move within the next five years?*"

- *You're not satisfied with your current home*
- *You do not like the people who live in your area*
- *For professional reasons*
- *For family or personal reasons*
- *For financial reasons*
- *Other reasons*
- *DK*"

Table 11.4e Reasons for planning to move in the next five years
%, by country

	not satisfied with your current home	do not like the people who live in your area	profession al reasons	family or personal reasons	financial reasons	other reasons	DK
EU-15	17	5	27	46	10	16	2
CC-13	27	10	31	32	38	11	1
BULGARIA	29	7	9	31	51	16	0
CYPRUS	21	4	22	56	12	25	0
CZECH REP.	36	5	27	67	22	16	0
ESTONIA	36	5	22	49	36	10	3
HUNGARY	33	8	17	35	15	18	0
LATVIA	39	8	29	49	31	7	0
LITHUANIA	38	5	27	39	36	18	1
MALTA	22	8	4	34	6	43	0
POLAND	26	9	35	43	29	11	4
ROMANIA	27	8	10	36	36	14	0
SLOVAKIA	30	3	26	65	23	11	0
SLOVENIA	14	11	17	55	16	18	1
TURKEY	25	13	39	21	48	7	1

Analysing the reasons for moving in the next five years at the individual country level we find the followings:

- Compared to the CC-13 average (32%), the respondents in the Czech Republic (67%) and Slovakia (65%) are the citizens who cite family and personal reasons most often. At the other extreme, these reasons were not mentioned in Malta as a motivation to move in the next five years;
- The financial reason comes up significantly more frequently than the CC-13 average (38%) in Bulgaria (51%) and Turkey (48%), while this proportion is less than 10% in Malta (6%) Slovenia (2%), and Cyprus (1%);
- The citizens of the Baltic States and the Czech Republic are proportionally the most likely to consider moving due to dissatisfaction with their place of residence. (Latvia 39%, Lithuania 38%, the Czech Republic and Estonia 36%, compared the CC-13 average of 27%). At the bottom of this scale we find only 14% of Slovenians mentioning this reason for moving in the next five years;
- Problems with the neighbourhood ('you do not like the people living in your area') are of varying importance. The CC-13 average is 10%, with a minimum of 3% in Slovakia and a maximum of 13% in Turkey, and 11% in Slovenia;
- Finally, the percentage of those choosing 'other reasons' is much higher than the 11% CC-13 average in Malta (43%), and Cyprus (25%).

The enormous levels of citing financial reasons for the intended move alongside with the high levels of interest in possible emigration in Bulgaria is signalling a very bad perception of people's domestic options for a better life in that country (Chapter 7 has the details about the standard of living in the Candidate Countries).

The table below shows the CC-13 and EU-15 averages for this question and compares them with those obtained in the question regarding the reasons for having moved in the last ten years.

Table 11.4f Reasons of geographical mobility in the next five years and the past ten years

	CANDIDATE REGION		EUROPEAN UNION	
	intended mobility (in the next five years)	historic mobility (over the past ten years)	intended mobility (in the next five years)	historic mobility (over the past ten years)
For financial reasons	38%	26%	10%	9%
For family or personal reasons	32%	41%	46%	54%
For professional reasons	31%	19%	27%	15%
Dissatisfied with current home	27%	26%	17%	18%
Other reasons	11%	12%	16%	16%

Comparing motivations in the Candidate Countries, either for people who have already moved or who think they will in the future, we find that financial reasons or family and personal reasons are the two top motivations. However, the importance of motivations is clearly reversed when it comes to moving in the future.

When comparing these figures with the proportions in the Member States, it becomes apparent that the motivations behind moving in both cases (past ten years and next five years) are different. If we see the figures from either scenario it is clear that in the EU-15 countries financial reasons do not play such an important role as in the CC-13, although family or personal reasons do.

These results also show that family or personal motivations are more important in the EU member countries than in the CC-13 (54% in the EU-15 compared to 41% in the CC13 regarding moving in the past ten years, and 46% EU-15 compared 32% CC-13 regarding the near future).

The level of dissatisfaction with one's current place of residence as a reason to move is about 10% higher in the Candidate Countries than in the EU-15 member countries in both categories.

Professional reasons, on the other hand, have greater importance when it comes to moving in the future (increase of 12 points in both the CC-13 countries and the Member States).

Overall, the degree of comfort that people feel in their neighbourhood (dislike for the people in your neighbourhood) is of more significance for the future than it was for the past (10% compared to 6%) in the Candidate Countries. In the EU-15 countries these proportions are 5% and 3% respectively.

Table 11.4g The reason for planning to move in the next five years
%, by demographics

	not satisfied with your current home	do not like the people who live in your area	professional reasons	family or personal reasons	financial reasons	other reasons		not satisfied with your current home	do not like the people who live in your area	professional reasons	family or personal reasons	financial reasons	other reasons
Male	24	9	35	30	42	10	Self-employed	22	12	37	29	38	7
Female	30	11	25	34	34	12	Managers	30	6	21	47	20	10
AGE: 15-24 years	22	11	35	33	36	13	Other white collars	31	6	16	42	21	19
AGE: 25-39 years	32	8	30	30	38	9	Manual workers	27	9	30	33	40	9
AGE: 40-54 years	29	11	27	33	44	9	House Persons	40	14	23	21	49	8
AGE: 55+ years	20	15	6	44	41	14	Unemployed	27	5	46	27	53	7
EDU: up to 15 years	29	9	33	19	56	7	Retired	27	19	1	47	34	14
EDU: 16-19 years	30	9	26	41	32	13	Rural area or village	20	8	42	31	45	7
EDU: 20+ years	32	9	24	38	28	10	Small or middle sized town	32	10	29	37	34	9
EDU: still studying	18	13	39	34	29	14	Large town	29	12	24	30	36	14

Demographic analyses show that males are least likely to willing to change their place of residence because of their dissatisfaction with their current home (24% versus 30% amongst females), while they are more likely to name professional reasons in explaining their mobility motivations (35% versus 25% among females). Financial reasons also play a greater role among men with 42% mentioning these as reasons of the intended move (34% of women agree).

In the youngest age group – and among students – professional reasons are important drivers of intended move (35%), but financial reasons come first among all (36%), and this is true for all age groups but for the oldest one. Those who are belonging to the oldest age group (55 years or older) name family reasons the most often (44%).

The lowest educated group's main reason to move is of financial nature (56%), among those who remained at school until at least 16 years of age, family and private reasons are more important.

More than half of the unemployed persons indicate that they are planning to move house because of financial reasons (53%), and similar difficulties make house persons (49%), and manual workers (40%) think they will move in the next five years. Among managers and white collar employees, family or private reasons are dominant (47% and 42%), but their dissatisfaction with their current home is also frequently mentioned as reason for changing place of living (30% and 31%). For self-employed, professional reasons are important drivers of mobility (37%), while these reasons are absolutely unimportant (1%) for retired persons.

Financial reasons are mentioned most frequently in all settlement types as prime reasons for intended geographical mobility. People in cut-off rural areas (see Chapter 6) report that their intention to move is driven by professional (42%) reasons high above the average. The larger the locality is, the more likely that people are dissatisfied with people in their area.

Reasons for future geographical immobility

When we asked why 69% of CC-13 citizens do not think they would move in the next five years, people primarily replied that they were satisfied with where they currently live. Cited in 78% of the cases, this is by far the most common explanation for their sedentary lifestyle.

This attitude surpasses all other reasons that might explain why CC-13 citizens would not move, financial reasons being cited by only 29% and family or personal reasons by 15%.

Finally, the CC-13 citizens' jobs do not seem to create a barrier that can stop their moving: this reason is only cited by 14% of those interviewed (i.e. those who say they won't move in the next five years).

To assess most important reasons for not planning to move over the course of the next five years in each Candidate Country and in the average of the region, we asked the following question from our respondents, allowing them to choose more than one of the possible reasons: *"Why do you think you will not move within the next five years?"*

- *You are satisfied with where you are living*
- *For work reasons*
- *For family / private reasons*
- *For financial reasons*
- *Other reasons (spontaneous)*
- *DK"*

The table below shows the CC-13 averages for this question and compares them with those obtained for the question about reasons for not having moved within the last ten years. Additionally, the table shows the averages of the EU-15 member countries to offer comparative analysis.

Table 11.4h Reasons of geographical immobility in the next five years and the past ten years

CC-13 and EU-15 averages

	CANDIDATE REGION		EUROPEAN UNION	
	future immobility (in the next five years)	past immobility (in the past ten years)	future immobility (in the next five years)	past immobility (in the past ten years)
Satisfied with current home	78%	77%	85%	81%
For financial reasons	29%	21%	15%	8%
For family or personal reasons	23%	11%	9%	8%
For work reasons	14%	7%	5%	2%
Other reasons	4%	5%	5%	6%

The results of the analysis of the differences between the EU-15 member countries and the 13 Candidate Countries ascertain that the citizens of the Member States are – for the future – more satisfied with their current place of residence than the respondents in the Candidate Countries. Looking at the ratios of satisfaction with one's living situation (both in the past 10 and coming 5 years) as a motivator for moving, we find that these are 4-7 points higher in the EU-15 than in the CC-13. The average ratio of those who give family or personal reasons not to move in the next years is higher in the Candidate Countries than in the Member States (25% in CC-13 compared to 9% in EU-15).

Comparing the motivations of the respondents who have not moved or do not think they would, reveals that satisfaction with one's place of residence remains about the same in importance (78% compared to 77%) in the 13 Candidate Countries. At the same time, family / personal reasons also gain in importance (+ 12 points), as do financial reasons (+ 8 point) and professional reasons (+ 7 points).

There are few particularities regarding the reasons that people might move in the next five years, primarily because of the obvious prevalence of people's satisfaction with their current residence. However, we can highlight a few things:

Table 11.4i Reasons for not planning to move in the next five years
%, by country

	satisfied with current home	works reasons	family / private reasons	financial reasons	other reasons	DK
EU-15	85	5	15	9	5	1
CC-13	78	14	23	29	4	1
BULGARIA	82	4	25	20	4	1
CYPRUS	77	7	18	7	1	0
CZECH REP.	86	14	31	20	6	5
ESTONIA	77	17	31	30	7	5
HUNGARY	79	5	21	20	4	2
LATVIA	65	12	23	22	8	5
LITHUANIA	83	15	22	25	3	2
MALTA	92	3	12	14	5	0
POLAND	76	15	33	35	3	2
ROMANIA	80	4	17	22	4	1
SLOVAKIA	84	10	30	24	4	1
SLOVENIA	91	7	20	11	2	0
TURKEY	74	22	17	35	3	0

The Maltese (92%), Slovenians (91%), and the Czechs (86%) are, proportionally compared to the CC-13 average (78%), the most numerous in putting forward satisfaction with their place of residence as a reason why they think they would not move in the next five years. At the other end of the scale, Latvians (65%) cite this argument the least often;

The Polish (33%), the Czechs (31%), Estonians (31%), and Slovaks (30%), proportionally compared to the CC-13 average (23%), are the most likely to cite family / personal reasons as why they think they would not move in the next five years. This reason was the least mentioned in Malta (12%);

The Turkish (15%), are more likely to cite financial reasons that they do not think they will move in the next five years (CC-13 average 7%);

The Turkish (22%) and the respondents from Estonia (17%), compared to the CC-13 average (14%), are most likely to cite professional reasons for why they think they would not move in the next five years.

87% of the most educated people say they do not think they would move in the next five years because they are satisfied with where they live now; a score which is just slightly higher than the other levels of education (85%). This same response increases in a constant manner with the age of the people interviewed.

The opposite is true for the response 'for family / personal reasons' which declines slightly but consistently with age (from 18% to 13%). White collar workers and executive level employees (88% each) have the highest scores for 'I'm satisfied with where I live now', contrary to students (72% only).

The same students, joined here by executive level employees and unemployed people (20% for all three), display the highest percentages for the response 'for family / personal reasons'. The proportion of those in the lowest income group who gave the response 'I'm satisfied with where I live now' (83%) is lower than for the other income groups (86% and 87%). (For more details check Table 11.9 in Annex)

11.5 Employment and geographical mobility

Unemployment and geographical mobility

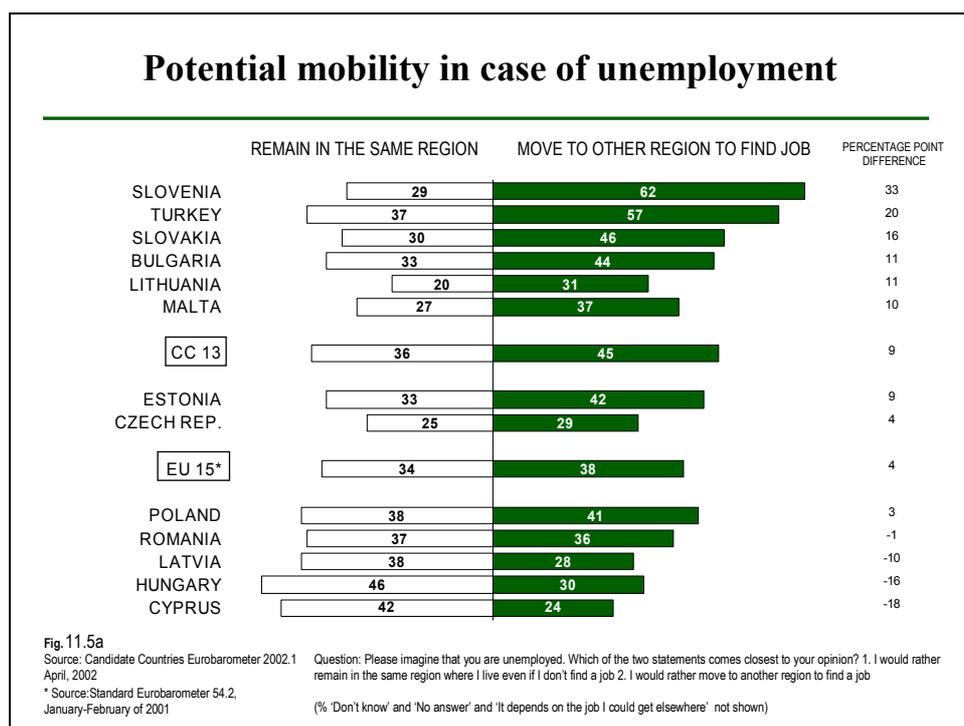
What is the relationship between place of residence and employment? We have seen that the highest levels of intended geographical mobility are driven by primarily financial and work reasons (like we have found in Bulgaria, or in rural areas, or, most notably, among unemployed persons). But do citizens in the Candidate Region really prefer to be out of work but stay in the same region or do they prefer to move to another region in order to find work? Faced with this question, CC-13 citizens display a high degree of disagreement, but they are more content to stay: 36% put employment before place of residence and choose to move, and 45% of the citizens in the Candidate Countries prefer to stay in the same region, even if it means being out of work.

At the same time, we should note that the opinion of certain citizens in the Candidate Countries is subject to pragmatic considerations, since 12% state that their attitude depends on the nature of the work to be found elsewhere. 7% do not have an answer to this question: *“Please imagine that you are unemployed. Which of the two statements comes closest to your opinion?”*

- *I would rather remain in the same region where I live even if I do not find a job*
- *I would rather move to another region to find a job*
- *It depends on the job I could get elsewhere (spontaneous)*
- *DK”*

Table 11.5a Potential mobility in case of unemployment
%, by country

	would stay	would move	depends	DK
EU-15	34	38	16	12
CC-13	36	45	12	7
BULGARIA	33	44	15	7
CYPRUS	42	24	23	11
CZECH REP.	25	29	32	14
ESTONIA	33	42	14	10
HUNGARY	46	30	16	9
LATVIA	38	28	22	12
LITHUANIA	20	31	30	19
MALTA	27	37	16	20
POLAND	38	41	15	6
ROMANIA	37	36	15	12
SLOVAKIA	30	46	13	11
SLOVENIA	29	62	5	5
TURKEY	37	57	2	4



The Cypriots and the Hungarians are by far the CC-13 citizens who most prefer to stay in their region, even if it means finding themselves out of work. In these two countries, "stay" responses have a clear lead over "move" responses (Cyprus: 42% vs. 24%, Hungary: 46% vs. 30%). The Latvians also express the same preference, but in a less marked manner (38% versus 28%).

The Slovenians, Turkish, Slovaks, Bulgarians, and Lithuanians prefer to move. In these countries, "move" responses have a clear lead over "stay" responses (Slovenia: 62% versus 29%, Turkey: 57% versus 37%, Slovakia: 46% versus 30%, Bulgaria: 44% versus 33%, Lithuania 31% versus 20%).

In the other CC-13 countries, regardless of which of the two options has the advantage, the differences are much less clearly defined. The difference between the two options never exceeds 10 percentage points. (For more country-by-country numbers see Table 11.10a in Annex)

Demographic analyses show that 49% of men and 41% of women chose the response 'I prefer to move'. This response rises with the size of residence (from 41% to 48%), and drops even dramatically with age (from 63% to 30%). Looking at the levels of education, the most highly educated (47%) are the most probable to move, while those who terminate their education between the ages of 16-19 years are less likely to move (38%).

Students (67%) are the socio-professional group the most inclined to move in order to find work, well ahead of managers (49%), unemployed people (48%), and self-employed people (47%) and a considerable way from homemakers (43%), and retired people (31%). (See Table 11.10b in the Annex)

The question 'In the next five years, to what extent do you think that moving to a different geographical location would improve your job prospects?' provides further confirmation of the tendency for a sedentary lifestyle amongst CC-13 citizens even if they are troubled by employment problems, as suggested by the previous question. (For more details see Table 11.11a and Table 11.11b in Annex)

Forty-one percent of them think that moving house will not improve their professional situation, 31% are of the opposite opinion, and 18% say that such an idea is not relevant for them. Compared with the EU-15 averages, these figures show almost the same proportions. However, the citizens of the Member States are less likely to think that moving would improve their work situation (22% compared with CC-13 average 31%), and they are more likely to think this question is not relevant (EU-15 28% versus CC-13 18%).

Table 11.5b Moving to another geographical location would improve the job prospects
%, by country

	Very much	To some extent	Not much	Not at all	Not relevant	DK
EU-15	6	16	17	23	28	10
CC-13	8	23	19	22	18	11
BULGARIA	3	16	15	17	38	11
CYPRUS	4	11	6	55	8	16
CZECH REP.	5	18	14	18	25	19
ESTONIA	6	22	17	20	19	16
HUNGARY	6	16	13	21	31	13
LATVIA	4	21	19	26	15	16
LITHUANIA	12	18	12	15	18	26
MALTA	1	5	11	35	42	6
POLAND	5	24	14	21	22	15
ROMANIA	5	15	16	20	30	14
SLOVAKIA	6	18	11	19	32	14
SLOVENIA	8	29	22	14	12	14
TURKEY	12	29	27	26	3	3

In the next five years, to what extent do you think that moving would improve your job prospects?

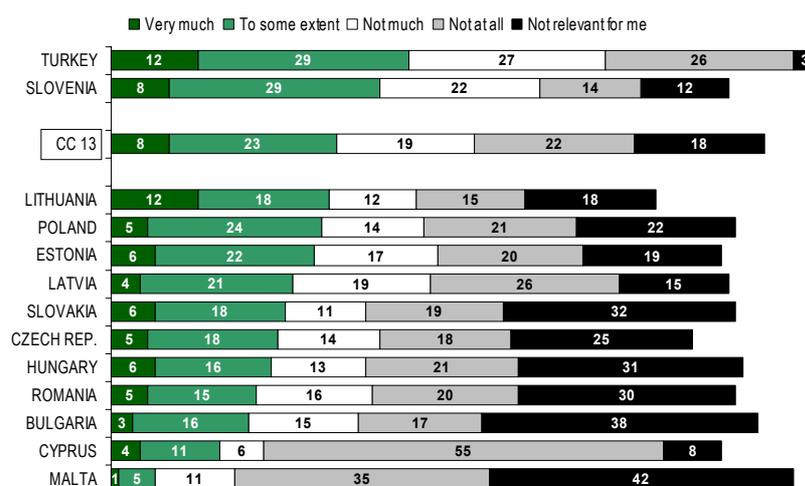


Fig. 11.5b
Source: Candidate Countries Eurobarometer 2002.1 April, 2002
Question: In the next five years, to what extent do you think that moving to a different geographical location would improve your job prospects?
(% 'Don't know' and 'No answer' not shown)

Analysing the responses to this question by country reveals that in all cases but two (Lithuania and Slovenia), more citizens think that moving house would not improve their professional situation than think the opposite.

Even in Lithuania and Slovenia the opinion that moving can improve your professional situation is weak. 30% of the citizens of Lithuania think that changing location would improve their job opportunities compared to 27% and 44% of the respondents who say that either the question is not relevant for them or did not answer the question. 37% of Slovenians establish this link, while 36% do not and 12% say that the question does not apply to their situation. The Turkish ('a lot / quite a lot': 41%) are also the most likely to share this opinion in comparison to the CC-13 average, but in their case the proportion of negative responses is greater ('not very much / not at all': 53%).

Finally, the CC-13 citizens who believe more than the average of the thirteen Candidate States that this question does not apply to their situation are those from Malta (42%), Bulgaria (38%), Slovakia (32%), Hungary (31%), and Romania (30%).

Encouragement to geographical mobility

Complementing the previous question, responses to another one ('*Which of the following factors, if any, would make you move house?*') show that CC-13 citizens give preference to improving their financial situation over a better social life or social security benefits. The prospect of benefiting from a better financial situation attracts 64% of the responses, while a better social life is mentioned in 38% of the cases, better social security benefits is cited in 35%, and better career prospects in 34% of cases. The prospect of better public utilities, on the other hand, only attracts 29%.

(In this case, better financial situation can also be perceived as catalyst of mobility, not only as a target that could be reached by its means. With choosing this dimension as a factor that would encourage people to move, respondents may reinforced their view that unavailability of sufficient funds prevent them from changing their home to a nicer, larger, or better one. We should not forget that the prime reason of immobility in the Candidate Region is financial situation, as profiled above in this Chapter.)

'Other reasons' is selected by 6%, and the response 'none of these reasons' is spontaneously cited by 24% of people living in the Candidate Region, reminding us of the strong trend for a sedentary lifestyle among CC citizens and their relatively high degree of satisfaction with where they live.

Which, if any, of these would encourage you to move?

- *Better career prospects*
- *A better financial situation*
- *Better social security benefits*
- *Better public utilities*
- *A better social life*
- *Other reasons (spontaneous)*
- *None of these reasons (spontaneous)*
- *DK*

Table 11.5c Factors that would encourage people to move
%, by country

	career prospects	better financial situation	better social security	better utilities	better social life	other	none
EU-15	29	41	10	7	18	7	28
CC-13	34	64	35	29	38	6	24
BULGARIA	20	54	27	17	33	4	33
CYPRUS	27	33	14	10	18	1	47
CZECH REP.	31	51	11	12	17	19	29
ESTONIA	36	60	23	22	23	5	18
HUNGARY	15	42	10	6	8	9	44
LATVIA	31	60	21	11	13	8	23
LITHUANIA	28	59	33	14	17	12	18
MALTA	21	27	9	7	12	12	49
POLAND	35	65	31	23	28	4	24
ROMANIA	22	47	15	13	23	10	41
SLOVAKIA	34	60	27	15	23	5	29
SLOVENIA	32	54	22	14	18	13	18
TURKEY	45	79	58	54	66	2	10

Comparing the EU-15 average with the CC-13 average we can establish that the largest difference between the proportions of answers is in the opinion about public utilities. In the Member States only 7% of the respondents mentioned better public utilities as a component of encouragement towards moving compared to the Candidate Region average of 29%. If we look at all other reasons, the importance of all factors is much higher in the Candidate Countries than in the European Union, which means that inhabitants of the Candidate Region are more likely to name multiple components that would encourage them to move house. (Check Table 11.12 in Annex)

Analysing responses to this question by country highlights the following particulars:

- The response "better career prospects" is most often cited by the Turkish (45%). At the other end of the scale, the Hungarians (15%) are the least affected by this reason.
- The citizens who are most motivated by an improvement in their financial situation are the Turkish (79%) and the Polish (65%).
- 58% of the Turkish, 33% of the Lithuanians and 31% of the Polish are more likely than the other Candidate Country nations to put forward the argument of better social security, while better public utilities are the most frequently mentioned by the Turkish (54%), the Polish (23%), and the Estonians (22%).
- A better social life is the most mentioned argument in Turkey (66% compared to the 38% CC-13 average), and it has relative high importance in Bulgaria (33%) and Poland (28%) as well.
- The citizens least concerned by these prospects are the Maltese (35%) and, in particular, the Cypriots (47%), and the Hungarians (44%), where the response "none of these reasons" comes out ahead of all the others.

Mobility to Europe

Certainly, one of the most important fears related to the enlargement of the European Union is concerning high-level immigration from the new members. In fact, people in the Candidate Region are interested in entering the labour markets of the current Member States, but the highest proportions of European mobility intentions are present in those countries that are not yet about to join the Union. If we are comparing proportions of those who are 'very much' willing to live in another European country with different language, the citizens of the Laeken-10 group are less interested (7%) than European citizens (9%).

As we saw, of those Candidate Country citizens who think they would move within the next five years, 9% say they would be prepared to move to a present EU country.

When it comes to moving to another country that is currently a member state of the EU, the problem of the language barrier also arises. Thirty-five percent of CC citizens say they would be willing to live in another European country where the language is not the same as their native language. This ratio is higher than in the EU member countries (EU-15 average is 30%⁵⁷), where people already have the opportunity to move from one member country to another.

It is interesting that the citizens of the Candidate Countries are less likely to speak foreign languages than their western counterparts, but are more willing to live in a country where they mother tongue is not spoken.

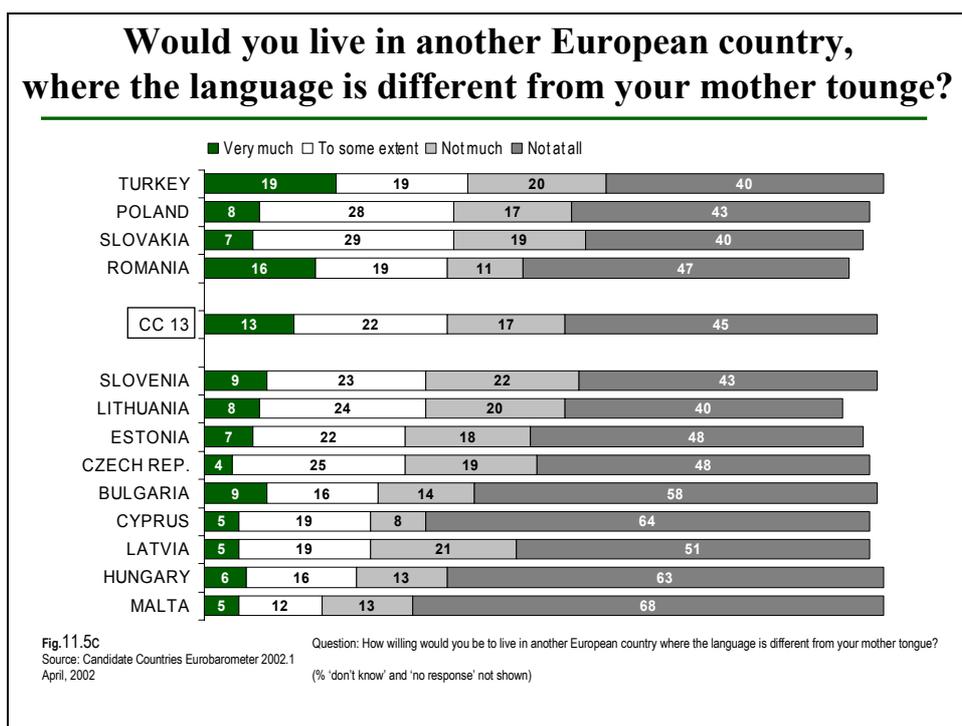
How willing would you be to live in another European country where the language is different from your mother tongue?

- *Very much*
- *To some extent*
- *Not much*
- *Not at all*
- *DK*

Table 11.5d Willingness to live in an other European country where the language is different from your mother tongue (% , by country)

	very much	to some extent	not much	not at all	DK
EU-15	9	21	21	46	3
CC-13	13	22	17	45	3
LAEKEN-10	7	25	17	47	4
BULGARIA	9	16	14	58	2
CYPRUS	5	19	8	64	3
CZECH REP.	4	25	19	48	4
ESTONIA	7	22	18	48	5
HUNGARY	6	16	13	63	2
LATVIA	5	19	21	51	4
LITHUANIA	8	24	20	40	8
MALTA	5	12	13	68	2
POLAND	8	28	17	43	3
ROMANIA	16	19	11	47	6
SLOVAKIA	7	29	19	40	4
SLOVENIA	9	23	22	43	3
TURKEY	19	19	20	40	1

⁵⁷ in the European Union, this question was restricted to another *European Union* country



By analysing the question about willingness to move to a European country where the language is different from the respondent's mother tongue in each Candidate Country, we can establish that the majority of the CC-13 citizens (62%) are not interested in changing their residence in this manner.

The ratio of those willing to live somewhere else in Europe *very much* is considerably higher than the CC-13 average in Turkey, Romania, and Bulgaria. Earlier in this Chapter we found that 0% of Turkish and Romanians have European mobility experience in the past decade, and only 4% of Bulgarians reported that they have been living in another European country in the past ten years. But almost every fifth Turkish (19%), 16% of Romanians, and 9 percent of Bulgarians claim that they are very much willing to live in another country in Europe.

In the Laeken-10 group Slovenes and Slovaks are the most interested in living in a European country, where the language is different.

On the other end of this scale we find Hungary (6%), Cyprus, Latvia, and Malta (5% each) where the 'very much' answers are far below the CC-13 average (13%). (See Table 11.13a and 11.13b in Annex)

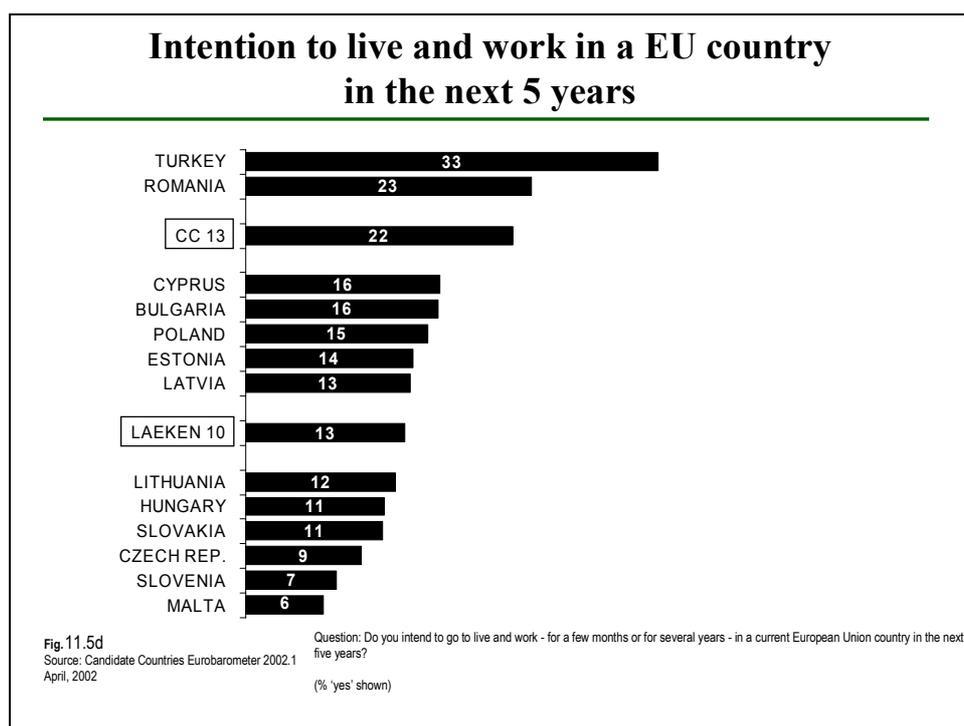
Work in the European Union

Candidate Countries Eurobarometer asked the respondents about their intentions to live and work for a few months or for several years in a current European Union country in the next five years. By the nature of the question, these numbers are indications of the extent to which people are interested in the possibility of working in the EU, rather than elaborated job-mobility projections.

Overall, 22% of the citizens in the Candidate Countries replied “yes” for this question, so in average more than every fifth respondent is interested in the possibility to at least temporarily live and work in a current EU country. In the Laeken-10 group this proportion is almost the half (13%).

The European job mobility intention is the highest in Turkey – where about every third of the citizens report interest – and also very high in Romania (23%). (Again, virtually nobody in these two countries have European mobility experience from the past 10 years.)

At the other end of this scale we find the Slovenians with 7% and the citizens of Malta only with 6%, they are the least interested in entering current EU labour markets. It is worth mentioning that Slovenians are among those who are the most willing to live in another European country, but they are not very likely to intend to work temporarily in the current European Union. (For more country-by-country numbers see Table 11.14a)



By analysing this question by demographic characteristics of the respondents we find that men are much more open for mobility in European direction as well (28% of them would live and work in the EU) than women are (16%). European work-mobility intentions gradually decrease with age. It is interesting to see that we find no difference in the different education groups. However the proportion of those who still studying and would to live and work in an EU country is higher than in any other occupational group.

Table 11.5e Willing to live and work for a few month or several years in the current EU country in the next 5 years
(in %, by demographics)

Male	28	Self-employed	26
Female	16	Managers	15
AGE: 15-24 years	38	Other white collars	22
AGE: 25-39 years	27	Manual workers	25
AGE: 40-54 years	17	House Persons	17
AGE: 55+ years	5	Unemployed	37
EDU: up to 15 years	20	Retired	6
EDU: 16-19 years	19	Rural area or village	21
EDU: 20+ years	19	Small or middle sized town	21
EDU: still studying	38	Large town	23

Analysing respondents' occupation scale, we find the highest European job-mobility intentions among the unemployed people, 37% of them would live and work in a current EU country. They are followed by the self employed (26%) and the manual workers (25%), who might believe they would have easier access to jobs and higher pays in the European Union than in their home country. At the same time, managers are the least likely among the active groups to consider option of working in the European Union (15%), and obviously, the retired persons are uninterested.

There are no big differences according to the size of localities. 21-21% of the small villagers and respondents living in small or middle sized town show interest in working in the EU in the next five years. In case of people who are living in a large town this proportion is a little bit higher, 24%. (For more demographical numbers see Table 11.14b in Annex)

ANNEXES

CC-EB 2002.1

SOCIAL SITUATION IN THE COUNTRIES APPLYING
FOR EUROPEAN UNION MEMBERSHIP

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A. LISTS OF GRAPHS

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TABLE A1. SUPPORT FOR EUROPEAN UNION MEMBERSHIP (% BY COUNTRY)
 CHANGE FROM AUTUMN 2001 (AC EB 2001.1) TO SPRING 2002 (CC EB 2002.1)

Question: Q1 Generally speaking, do you think that (COUNTRY)'s membership of the European Union would be...?
 (READ OUT)

	1st column: CC EB 2002.1		2nd column: % change from AC EB 2001.1		CC 13 AVERAGE		Bulgaria		Cyprus		Czech Republic		Estonia		Hungary		Latvia	
A good thing	60	+ 1	64	- 10	53	+ 2	43	- 3	35	+ 2	65	+ 6	31	- 2				
A bad thing	14	+ 4	4	+ 1	12	- 1	14	+ 5	20	+ 6	4	- 3	24	+ 7				
Neither good nor bad	16	- 6	19	+ 5	24	- 7	30	- 1	31	- 7	17	- 6	32	- 7				
DK/ No answer	10	0	14	+ 5	11	+ 6	13	0	14	- 1	14	+ 4	12	+ 1				
Total	100		101		100		100		100		100		99					
	Lithuania		Malta		Poland		Romania		Slovakia		Slovenia		Turkey					
A good thing	42	+ 1	38	- 1	52	+ 1	77	- 3	60	+ 2	41	+ 1	65	+ 6				
A bad thing	9	- 2	24	- 7	22	+ 11	3	+ 1	5	0	17	+ 6	17	+ 3				
Neither good nor bad	30	- 5	25	0	15	- 12	11	0	25	- 3	35	- 7	13	- 5				
DK/ No answer	18	+ 5	12	+ 7	12	0	10	+ 2	9	0	7	0	5	- 4				
Total	99		99		101		101		99		100		100					

TABLE A2. SUPPORT FOR EUROPEAN UNION MEMBERSHIP (% BY DEMOGRAPHICS)

Question: Q1 Generally speaking, do you think that (COUNTRY)'s membership of the European Union would be...?
(READ OUT)

CC EB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	SEX		AGE			
		male	female	15-24	25-39	40-54	55+
N=	14163	6459	7704	2443	3730	3653	4252
A good thing	60	65	56	68	61	60	52
A bad thing	14	15	13	13	14	15	14
Neither good nor bad	16	15	18	14	17	18	16
DK/ No answer	10	5	14	5	8	7	17
Total	100	100	101	100	100	100	99
MAIN ECONOMIC ACTIVITY							
CC EB 2002.1	Self employed	Managers	Other white collars	Manual workers	House persons	Un- employed	Retired
N=	1052	1312	1164	2429	1559	1514	3777
A good thing	61	73	64	59	55	62	53
A bad thing	19	8	12	13	16	15	14
Neither good nor bad	16	16	20	21	15	15	16
DK/ No answer	4	3	5	7	14	8	16
Total	100	100	101	100	100	100	99
TERMINAL EDUCATION AGE				SIZE OF LOCALITY			
CC EB 2002.1	below 15	16-19	20 and above	still studying	rural area or village	small or middle sized town	large town
N=	2967	5868	3351	1422	5002	4646	4489
A good thing	54	59	68	74	56	61	65
A bad thing	17	13	12	9	15	13	13
Neither good nor bad	16	19	16	12	16	18	16
DK/ No answer	13	8	5	5	13	8	6
Total	100	99	101	100	100	100	100

TABLE B1. BENEFIT FROM EUROPEAN UNION MEMBERSHIP (% BY COUNTRY)
CHANGE FROM AUTUMN 2001 (AC EB 2001.1) TO SPRING 2002 (CC EB 2002.1)

Question: Q3 Taking everything into consideration, would you say that (COUNTRY) could get advantages or not from being a member of the European Union?

	1st column: CC EB 2002.1		2nd column: % change from AC EB 2001.1		CC 13 AVERAGE		Bulgaria		Cyprus		Czech Republic		Estonia		Hungary		Latvia	
Yes, it could	64	-1	66	-7	68	+5	43	-10	43	0	73	+2	39	-8				
No, it couldn't	20	+2	11	+3	14	-9	23	+2	29	+1	8	-5	40	+10				
DK/ No answer	10	-8	23	+4	18	+4	34	+8	28	-1	20	+4	21	-3				
Total	100		100		100		100		100		101		100					
	Lithuania		Malta		Poland		Romania		Slovakia		Slovenia		Turkey					
Yes, it could	48	-5	46	+2	51	-2	76	-4	62	-2	58	-2	71	+2				
No, it couldn't	18	-3	33	-5	28	+4	6	+1	17	+2	28	+6	22	+3				
DK/ No answer	34	+7	21	+3	21	-1	17	+2	21	0	14	-5	7	-6				
Total	100		100		100		99		100		100		100					

TABLE B2. BENEFIT FROM EUROPEAN UNION MEMBERSHIP (% BY DEMOGRAPHICS)

Question: Q3 Taking everything into consideration, would you say that (COUNTRY) could get advantages or not from being a member of the European Union?

CC EB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	SEX		AGE			
		male	female	15-24	25-39	40-54	55+
N=	14163	6459	7704	2443	3730	3653	4252
Yes, it could	64	67	61	76	66	61	53
No, it couldn't	20	21	18	15	21	23	20
DK/ No answer	17	12	21	10	13	16	27
Total	101	100	100	101	100	100	100
MAIN ECONOMIC ACTIVITY							
CC EB 2002.1	Self employed	Managers	Other white collars	Manual workers	House persons	Un- employed	Retired
N=	1052	1312	1164	2429	1559	1514	3777
Yes, it could	64	74	65	64	64	65	53
No, it couldn't	27	16	18	21	19	21	20
DK/ No answer	9	10	17	16	17	14	27
Total	100	100	100	101	100	100	100
TERMINAL EDUCATION AGE				SIZE OF LOCALITY			
CC EB 2002.1	below 15	16-19	20 and above	still studying	rural area or village	small or middle sized town	large town
N=	2967	5868	3351	1422	5002	4646	4489
Yes, it could	60	61	69	78	60	64	69
No, it couldn't	22	20	19	12	20	20	18
DK/ No answer	19	19	13	10	20	16	13
Total	101	100	101	100	100	100	100

TABLE C1. REFERENDUM ABOUT EUROPEAN UNION MEMBERSHIP (% BY COUNTRY)
CHANGE FROM AUTUMN 2001 (AC EB 2001.1) TO SPRING 2002 (CC EB 2002.1)

Question: Q2 And, if there were to be a referendum tomorrow on the question of (country)'s membership of the European Union, would you personally vote for or against it?

	1st column: CC EB 2002.1		2nd column: % change from AC EB 2001.1		CC 13 AVERAGE		Bulgaria		Cyprus		Czech Republic		Estonia		Hungary		Latvia	
For	66	0	73	-7	65	+2	51	-3	44	+5	74	+3	42	-5				
Against	18	0	7	+3	17	-6	18	+1	28	+3	6	-4	37	+6				
I would not to go to vote	7	-1	7	+1	4	+2	14	0	16	-5	7	-6	8	-1				
DK/ No answer	9	0	14	+5	13	+2	17	+2	13	-2	13	+6	12	0				
Total	66	0	73	-7	65	+2	51	-3	44	+5	74	+3	42	-5				
			Lithuania		Malta		Poland		Romania		Slovakia		Slovenia		Turkey			
For	50	-1	42	+2	53	-2	85	+1	69	+4	56	0	70	+2				
Against	17	-2	34	-1	24	-2	4	+2	10	-1	28	+6	23	+2				
I would not to go to vote	11	-3	5	-6	13	+3	3	-4	11	-3	6	-3	2	-2				
DK/ No answer	22	+7	19	+5	9	0	8	+1	10	+1	11	-2	4	-4				
Total	100		100		99		100		100		101		99					

TABLE C2. REFERENDUM ABOUT EUROPEAN UNION MEMBERSHIP
(% BY DEMOGRAPHICS)

Question: Q2 And, if there were to be a referendum tomorrow on the question of (country)'s membership of the European Union, would you personally vote for or against it?

CC EB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	SEX		AGE			
		male	female	15-24	25-39	40-54	55+
N=	14163	6459	7704	2443	3730	3653	4252
For	66	69	63	73	68	66	59
Against	18	19	17	17	19	20	16
I would not to go to vote	7	6	8	5	6	7	10
DK/ No answer	9	6	12	5	7	8	15
Total	100	100	100	100	100	101	100
MAIN ECONOMIC ACTIVITY							
CC EB 2002.1	Self employed	Managers	Other white collars	Manual workers	House persons	Un- employed	Retired
N=	1052	1312	1164	2429	1559	1514	3777
For	66	80	71	66	64	66	59
Against	25	11	15	18	22	21	16
I would not to go to vote	5	4	7	8	5	6	10
DK/ No answer	4	4	7	8	10	7	15
Total	100	99	100	100	101	100	100
TERMINAL EDUCATION AGE							
CC EB 2002.1	below 15	16-19	20 and above	still studying	rural area or village	small or middle sized town	large town
N=	2967	5868	3351	1422	5002	4646	4489
For	61	66	73	76	62	66	71
Against	21	18	16	13	19	18	17
I would not to go to vote	7	7	6	7	8	7	5
DK/ No answer	11	9	5	5	11	8	7
Total	100	100	100	101	100	99	100

TABLE 1.1 NECESSITIES OF GOOD LIFE (% BY COUNTRY)

Question Q36. Not everybody has the same idea about what the necessities of good life are.

For each of the following, please tell me if you think it absolutely necessary to live well nowadays or not?

(READ OUT)

1. Having a good job
2. Having a good education
3. Living with a partner with whom one has a good relationship (**Good relationship with partner**)
4. Having children
5. Seeing friends regularly
6. Having sufficient leisure time and the means to enjoy it (**Having sufficient leisure time**)
7. Having at least one vacation a year (**Having vacation yearly**)
8. Being on friendly terms with the neighbours (**Friendly terms with neighbours**)
9. Being able to go out with friends or family (**Being able to go out**)
10. Having sufficient accommodation for everyone to have their own space (**Sufficient accommodation**)
11. Being able to be useful to others
12. Feeling recognised by society
13. Having a successful career
14. Participating in the activities of associations, trade unions or political parties (**Social participation**)

CC EB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia
Having a good job	96	97	98	90	95	93	96
Having a good education	84	59	89	63	84	75	80
Good relationship with partner	88	88	98	81	76	89	79
Having children	78	86	93	57	67	80	71
Seeing friends regularly	66	58	80	49	60	58	56
Having sufficient leisure time	77	65	86	61	69	75	70
Having vacation yearly	79	72	87	64	85	66	74
Friendly terms with neighbours	78	69	88	50	60	70	58
Being able to go out	75	69	86	52	74	57	69
Sufficient accommodation	87	83	90	63	82	92	77
Being able to be useful to others	79	72	98	60	65	73	61
Feeling recognised by society	65	50	89	36	49	62	27
Having a successful career	65	60	76	27	47	49	55
Social participation	24	9	31	6	12	13	9

TABLE 1.1 NECESSITIES OF GOOD LIFE (% BY COUNTRY, CONTINUED)

Question Q36. Not everybody has the same idea about what the necessities of good life are.

For each of the following, please tell me if you think it absolutely necessary to live well nowadays or not?

(READ OUT)

	Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
Having a good job	99	95	97	96	91	94	99
Having a good education	91	94	81	79	63	85	97
Good relationship with partner	86	86	79	88	87	92	96
Having children	81	62	71	74	69	70	87
Seeing friends regularly	63	43	55	48	49	68	89
Having sufficient leisure time	74	48	74	63	67	83	90
Having vacation yearly	87	41	77	67	52	83	93
Friendly terms with neighbours	79	73	69	71	72	83	95
Being able to go out	72	74	67	69	52	70	94
Sufficient accommodation	87	59	84	82	92	89	95
Being able to be useful to others	76	79	76	67	70	80	94
Feeling recognised by society	53	11	65	59	53	67	80
Having a successful career	71	28	55	61	33	62	88
Social participation	24	6	14	19	7	28	42

TABLE 1.2A LIFE SATISFACTION (% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q4.1 Please tell me whether you are very satisfied, fairly satisfied, not very satisfied or not at all satisfied with each of the following? - Your life in general

(READ OUT - SHOW CARD)

CCEB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia
Very satisfied	9	5	48	11	5	12	4
Fairly satisfied	52	32	39	69	51	52	45
Not very satisfied	27	36	9	17	34	28	38
Not at all satisfied	11	28	4	1	9	8	13
DK / no opinion	0	0	0	1		1	0
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
	Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
Very satisfied	7	34	14	4	8	27	8
Fairly satisfied	56	50	47	38	53	63	60
Not very satisfied	24	13	28	42	33	8	21
Not at all satisfied	12	3	10	15	5	2	11
DK / no opinion	1		0	1	1		
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

TABLE 1.2B LIFE SATISFACTION (% BY DEMOGRAPHICS)

Question: Q4.1 Please tell me whether you are very satisfied, fairly satisfied, not very satisfied or not at all satisfied with each of the following? - Your life in general

(READ OUT - SHOW CARD)

	TOTAL	SEX		AGE			
	CC 13 AVERAGE	male	female	15-24	25-39	40-54	55+
CCEB 2002.1							
N=	14163	6774	7389	3126	4059	3361	3511
Very satisfied	9	9	10	15	9	7	8
Fairly satisfied	52	51	53	61	55	46	45
Not very satisfied	27	29	26	18	27	32	31
Not at all satisfied	11	12	11	5	10	14	15
DK / no opinion	0	0	1	1	0	0	1
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
	MAIN ECONOMIC ACTIVITY						
	Self employed	Managers	Other white collars	Manual workers	House persons	Un-employed	Retired
CCEB 2001.1							
N=	1320	798	843	2077	2368	1861	3381
Very satisfied	9	12	10	7	9	8	8
Fairly satisfied	57	63	63	50	59	39	43
Not very satisfied	24	20	22	34	22	33	34
Not at all satisfied	10	4	5	9	10	20	16
DK / no opinion		1	0	0	0	0	1
Total	100	100	100	101	100	100	100
	TERMINAL EDUCATION AGE				SIZE OF LOCALITY		
	below 15	16-19	20 and above	still studying	rural area or village	small or middle sized town	large town
CCEB 2002.1							
N=	4798	4770	2165	1539	5771	4198	4175
Very satisfied	8	9	10	19	8	11	10
Fairly satisfied	50	49	55	64	51	51	54
Not very satisfied	27	31	28	14	28	27	26
Not at all satisfied	15	11	8	2	12	11	10
DK / no opinion	0	1	0	1	1	0	0
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

TABLE 1.3 SATISFACTION WITH VARIOUS DOMAINS OF LIFE (% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q4. Please tell me whether you are very satisfied, fairly satisfied, not very satisfied or not at all satisfied with each of the following?

(READ OUT - SHOW CARD)

1. Your own health
2. (Our Country)'s health care system in general **(Country's health care system)**
3. Your family life
4. Your social life
5. Your personal safety
6. Your financial situation
7. Your employment situation
8. Your home
9. The area you live in/your neighbourhood **(The area you live in)**

CCEB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE		Bulgaria		Cyprus		Czech Republic		Estonia		Hungary		Latvia	
	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-
	+: very and fairly satisfied, combined -: not very and not at all satisfied, comb.													
Your own health	69	31	60	40	88	12	71	29	63	36	60	40	63	37
Country's health care system	26	71	21	70	59	36	56	38	29	63	30	68	21	73
Your family life	84	15	70	19	93	7	83	14	75	20	84	16	69	28
Your social life	65	31	36	55	87	13	72	22	55	29	62	29	44	47
Your personal safety	65	33	43	53	89	10	67	30	67	30	69	29	56	40
Your financial situation	33	66	13	87	71	29	39	59	30	69	28	72	27	72
Your employment situation	37	42	24	45	58	14	42	28	39	36	36	32	39	45
Your home	81	18	75	26	93	6	84	15	81	18	87	13	75	25
The area you live in	84	16	80	20	95	6	85	13	81	18	84	16	82	18
	Lithuania		Malta		Poland		Romania		Slovakia		Slovenia		Turkey	
	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-
Your own health	67	33	90	10	64	35	58	41	66	34	80	21	79	21
Country's health care system	25	64	72	26	31	65	22	73	16	81	56	41	17	82
Your family life	75	21	91	7	84	15	79	18	83	16	92	7	88	11
Your social life	52	28	88	13	78	19	55	38	69	28	88	11	65	35
Your personal safety	29	64	68	30	67	32	52	44	65	33	90	8	73	27
Your financial situation	34	64	72	28	33	66	25	74	31	69	62	38	39	61
Your employment situation	49	39	49	15	32	37	29	44	37	31	56	23	43	51
Your home	81	17	97	3	79	21	78	20	85	15	94	6	83	17
The area you live in	83	14	88	12	84	16	84	14	81	18	89	10	83	17

The difference between "+", and "-", and 100, is the percentage of "don't know" (not shown).

TABLE 1.4A LIFE SATISFACTION COMPARED TO 2 YEARS AGO (% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q5A Compared to two years ago, please tell me for each of the following whether you are more satisfied, less satisfied or has there been no change? - Your life in general
(READ OUT - SHOW CARD)

CCEB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia
More satisfied	24	20	27	22	29	23	26
Less satisfied	32	32	15	19	25	23	29
No change	44	47	56	56	45	53	44
DK / no opinion	1	1	2	3	1	1	1
Total	100	100	100	100	100	101	100
	Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
More satisfied	23	22	15	18	22	24	32
Less satisfied	33	22	27	34	27	18	40
No change	41	56	57	47	51	58	28
DK / no opinion	3		0	2	0	1	0
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

TABLE 1.4B LIFE SATISFACTION COMPARED TO 2 YEARS AGO (% BY DEMOGRAPHICS)

Question: Q5A Compared to two years ago, please tell me for each of the following whether you are more satisfied, less satisfied or has there been no change? - Your life in general
(READ OUT - SHOW CARD)

	TOTAL	SEX		AGE			
	CC 13 AVERAGE	male	female	15-24	25-39	40-54	55+
CCEB 2002.1							
N=	14163	6774	7389	3126	4059	3361	3511
More satisfied	24	22	25	34	26	20	14
Less satisfied	32	35	30	25	34	35	32
No change	44	43	45	40	39	44	52
DK / no opinion	1	1	1	1	0	1	1
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
	MAIN ECONOMIC ACTIVITY						
	Self employed	Managers	Other white collars	Manual workers	House persons	Un-employed	Retired
ACEB 2001.1							
N=	1320	798	843	2077	2368	1861	3381
More satisfied	26	32	26	22	32	22	13
Less satisfied	36	22	29	34	33	42	31
No change	38	46	45	43	35	35	55
DK / no opinion	0	1	1	1	0	1	1
Total	100	100	100	101	100	100	100
	TERMINAL EDUCATION AGE				SIZE OF LOCALITY		
	below 15	16-19	20 and above	still studying	rural area or village	small or middle sized town	large town
CCEB 2002.1							
N=	4798	4770	2165	1539	5771	4198	4175
More satisfied	24	21	23	31	24	22	25
Less satisfied	35	32	32	21	32	31	33
No change	42	47	44	47	44	46	41
DK / no opinion	0	1	1	1	1	0	1
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

TABLE 1.5 SATISFACTION LEVELS COMPARED TO 2 YEARS AGO (% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q5A Compared to two years ago, please tell me for each of the following whether you are more satisfied, less satisfied or has there been no change?
(READ OUT - SHOW CARD)

1. Your own health
2. (Our Country)'s health care system in general (**Country's health care system**)
3. Your family life
4. Your social life
5. Your personal safety
6. Your financial situation
7. Your employment situation
8. Your home
9. The area you live in/your neighbourhood (**The area you live in**)

CCEB 2002.1 +: more satisfied -: less satisfied	CC 13 AVERAGE		Bulgaria		Cyprus		Czech Republic		Estonia		Hungary		Latvia	
	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-
	Your own health	19	29	13	23	18	15	13	25	14	28	14	24	14
Country's health care system	11	38	15	39	15	16	8	21	10	43	7	28	7	42
Your family life	26	14	12	8	27	6	19	10	21	11	25	8	21	14
Your social life	20	20	10	21	26	9	18	13	15	12	13	15	13	21
Your personal safety	17	20	9	22	15	11	5	17	11	15	12	14	9	16
Your financial situation	17	43	15	42	22	24	14	32	20	35	14	36	19	40
Your employment situation	15	25	10	15	22	11	13	14	17	20	12	17	16	25
Your home	22	13	10	10	22	6	14	8	21	8	21	9	18	12
The area you live in	19	12	9	9	18	6	10	8	14	10	17	9	16	10
	Lithuania		Malta		Poland		Romania		Slovakia		Slovenia		Turkey	
	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-
Your own health	16	32	13	22	8	29	13	28	15	28	17	19	33	31
Country's health care system	10	42	18	15	7	41	6	32	6	51	10	22	17	42
Your family life	18	17	22	9	17	10	20	14	24	11	19	6	40	20
Your social life	13	18	16	9	14	11	13	22	20	12	16	10	30	29
Your personal safety	9	37	10	19	7	18	12	21	12	18	10	7	32	22
Your financial situation	19	43	16	28	10	43	15	40	18	40	18	22	24	49
Your employment situation	16	28	10	10	8	24	10	18	15	18	13	11	22	35
Your home	21	13	16	3	11	9	16	12	20	8	19	3	34	19
The area you live in	16	10	16	6	8	8	13	11	16	10	13	6	32	18

The difference between "+", and "-", and 100, is the percentage of "no change" and "don't know" (not shown).

TABLE 1.6A LIFE SATISFACTION IN 2 YEARS (% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q5.B And please tell me whether in two years' time you think you will be more satisfied, less satisfied or will there be no change with ...? - Your life in general
(READ OUT - SHOW CARD)

CCEB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia
More satisfied	25	21	27	20	28	30	30
Less satisfied	17	16	6	8	11	7	11
No change	39	39	35	44	38	40	38
DK / no opinion	19	24	33	28	23	23	20
Total	100	100	100	100	99	101	100
	Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
More satisfied	20	22	17	26	24	26	31
Less satisfied	13	6	14	12	14	11	26
No change	37	50	59	30	40	50	29
DK / no opinion	31	22	10	32	22	13	14
Total	100	100	100	100	101	100	101

TABLE 1.6B LIFE SATISFACTION IN 2 YEARS (% BY DEMOGRAPHICS)

Question: Q5.B And please tell me whether in two years' time you think you will be more satisfied, less satisfied or will there be no change with ...? - Your life in general
(READ OUT - SHOW CARD)

CCEB 2002.1	TOTAL	SEX		AGE			
	CC 13 AVERAGE	male	female	15-24	25-39	40-54	55+
N=	14163	6774	7389	3126	4059	3361	3511
More satisfied	25	25	25	14	41	28	21
Less satisfied	17	19	15	9	13	18	19
No change	39	38	40	43	32	37	41
DK / no opinion	19	18	19	33	14	17	19
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
ACEB 2001.1	MAIN ECONOMIC ACTIVITY						
	Self employed	Managers	Other white collars	Manual workers	House persons	Un-employed	Retired
N=	1320	798	843	2077	2368	1861	3381
More satisfied	25	28	30	26	29	27	12
Less satisfied	24	9	13	16	19	21	17
No change	26	45	39	38	35	35	48
DK / no opinion	16	18	18	20	18	17	23
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
CCEB 2002.1	TERMINAL EDUCATION AGE				SIZE OF LOCALITY		
	below 15	16-19	20 and above	still studying	rural area or village	small or middle sized town	large town
N=	4798	4770	2165	1539	5771	4198	4175
More satisfied	22	23	27	43	21	26	30
Less satisfied	21	15	14	10	18	16	16
No change	39	41	43	33	40	41	37
DK / no opinion	18	21	16	14	21	17	17
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

TABLE 1.7 SATISFACTION LEVELS IN 2 YEARS (% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q5.B And please tell me whether in two years' time you think you will be more satisfied, less satisfied or will there be no change with ...? - Your life in general
(READ OUT - SHOW CARD)

1. Your own health
2. (Our Country)'s health care system in general **(Country's health care system)**
3. Your family life
4. Your social life
5. Your personal safety
6. Your financial situation
7. Your employment situation
8. Your home
9. The area you live in/your neighbourhood **(The area you live in)**

CCEB 2002.1 +: more satisfied -: less satisfied	CC 13 AVERAGE		Bulgaria		Cyprus		Czech Republic		Estonia		Hungary		Latvia	
	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-
	Your own health	17	18	7	16	11	7	7	12	14	17	17	10	15
Country's health care system	15	23	12	18	22	7	8	10	14	22	25	10	18	18
Your family life	25	9	11	3	24	6	17	3	24	4	23	3	27	5
Your social life	21	12	13	9	24	2	18	4	18	5	19	3	20	10
Your personal safety	18	13	11	9	9	9	7	8	13	10	18	5	16	10
Your financial situation	23	23	25	21	24	13	20	15	29	16	31	11	30	15
Your employment situation	19	14	17	9	20	6	14	6	23	9	24	5	26	8
Your home	21	8	10	4	19	2	14	2	25	3	25	2	23	7
The area you live in	18	8	7	4	13	2	9	3	17	5	19	3	20	6
	Lithuania		Malta		Poland		Romania		Slovakia		Slovenia		Turkey	
	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-
Your own health	10	18	16	9	9	16	16	13	11	21	15	12	26	25
Country's health care system	9	23	28	6	13	19	15	13	10	31	16	18	16	35
Your family life	17	7	22	3	17	5	22	6	24	5	19	3	36	16
Your social life	12	8	22	3	14	6	21	7	21	5	17	5	29	23
Your personal safety	8	21	16	9	10	11	18	9	13	13	10	8	28	18
Your financial situation	18	17	22	6	20	22	23	16	24	23	26	9	24	32
Your employment situation	16	10	15	6	16	12	17	7	18	11	23	6	22	24
Your home	20	5	15	3	13	6	19	4	24	4	16	3	30	14
The area you live in	14	3	22	3	8	4	15	4	18	6	12	5	29	15

The difference between "+", and "-", and 100, is the percentage of "no change" and "don't know" (not shown).

**TABLE 1.8 THE MOST IMPORTANT FACTORS CONTRIBUTE THE CURRENT QOL
(% BY COUNTRY)**

Question: Q6. In your opinion, which three factors contribute most to your current quality of life?
(SHOW CARD - READ OUT - THREE ANSWERS MAXIMUM)

1. Being in good health
2. Having little stress or worries
3. Having sufficient income to meet my needs (**Sufficient income to meet needs**)
4. Having a nice home
5. Having a satisfactory environment
6. Having a satisfactory job
7. Having family members who are there when I need them (**Family members**)
8. Having friends who are there when I need them (**Friends**)
9. Having access to good transport facilities (**Access to good transport facilities**)
10. Having access to good educational or training facilities (**Access to good educational facilities**)
11. Having access to good health services (**Access to good health services**)
12. Living in a safe area
13. Having enough free time for myself and my family (**Enough free time for the family**)
14. Having access to new information technologies (**Access to new technologies**)
15. Having access to social and cultural activities (**Access to cultural activities**)

CCEB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia
Being in good health	66	80	91	76	33	54	51
Having little stress or worries	16	12	20	20	8	12	16
Sufficient income to meet needs	42	69	46	50	16	37	35
Having a nice home	21	16	4	14	35	44	29
Having a satisfactory environment	12	2	20	7	15	12	10
Having a satisfactory job	24	38	16	24	19	17	28
Family members	39	23	53	38	56	55	47
Friends	16	14	13	18	34	15	21
Access to good transport facilities	3	1		1	5	2	6
Access to good educational facilities	6	4	4	4	7	5	6
Access to good health services	9	12	7	11	3	9	5
Living in a safe area	11	6	11	5	13	15	7
Enough free time for the family	9	8	11	14	19	8	13
Access to new technologies	3	1	2	2	7	3	3
Access to cultural activities	3	1		3	5	3	4

CONTINUED

TABLE 1.8 THE MOST IMPORTANT FACTORS CONTRIBUTE THE CURRENT QOL
 (% BY COUNTRY, CONTINUED)

CCEB 2002.1	Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
Being in good health	53	88	56	56	78	81	76
Having little stress or worries	15	34	25	13	21	12	13
Sufficient income to meet needs	46	56	41	36	50	42	41
Having a nice home	24	3	16	25	15	37	18
Having a satisfactory environment	5	13	6	10	7	5	20
Having a satisfactory job	35	19	20	16	29	15	29
Family members	42	41	45	50	37	44	29
Friends	20	9	20	14	15	15	13
Access to good transport facilities	4	3	4	2	1	1	4
Access to good educational facilities	6	3	4	4	2	3	10
Access to good health services	4	12	7	5	10	4	11
Living in a safe area	4	6	12	10	12	14	12
Enough free time for the family	13	9	13	10	9	9	6
Access to new technologies	5	3	4	4	1	2	3
Access to cultural activities	4	3	3	3	1	3	5

**TABLE 1.9 THE MOST IMPORTANT FACTORS IMPROVE THE CURRENT QOL
(% BY COUNTRY)**

Question: Q7. And which three of these factors would most improve your current quality of life?
(SHOW CARD - READ OUT - THREE ANSWERS MAXIMUM)

1. Being in good health
2. Having little stress or worries
3. Having sufficient income to meet my needs (**Sufficient income to meet needs**)
4. Having a nice home
5. Having a satisfactory environment
6. Having a satisfactory job
7. Having family members who are there when I need them (**Family members**)
8. Having friends who are there when I need them (**Friends**)
9. Having access to good transport facilities (**Access to good transport facilities**)
10. Having access to good educational or training facilities (**Access to good educational facilities**)
11. Having access to good health services (**Access to good health services**)
12. Living in a safe area
13. Having enough free time for myself and my family (**Enough free time for the family**)
14. Having access to new information technologies (**Access to new technologies**)
15. Having access to social and cultural activities (**Access to cultural activities**)

CCEB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia
Being in good health	56	68	56	51	46	48	54
Having little stress or worries	27	18	27	29	29	29	22
Sufficient income to meet needs	61	81	51	59	67	73	62
Having a nice home	16	12	6	16	15	14	16
Having a satisfactory environment	10	3	20	6	9	8	7
Having a satisfactory job	33	43	20	25	33	23	37
Family members	19	16	42	25	16	18	25
Friends	8	10	13	14	6	6	10
Access to good transport facilities	4	1	2	2	5	6	5
Access to good educational facilities	9	4	7	4	12	8	10
Access to good health services	16	15	15	10	16	22	18
Living in a safe area	8	6	13	7	8	11	4
Enough free time for the family	8	6	13	17	13	13	9
Access to new technologies	5	3	2	3	5	2	4
Access to cultural activities	5	2	4	5	4	3	5

CONTINUED

TABLE 1.9 THE MOST IMPORTANT FACTORS IMPROVE THE CURRENT QOL
 (% BY COUNTRY, CONTINUED)

CCEB 2002.1	Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
Being in good health	45	66	45	64	52	54	61
Having little stress or worries	32	34	43	27	32	25	18
Sufficient income to meet needs	69	56	67	69	62	54	48
Having a nice home	14	3	18	18	12	17	17
Having a satisfactory environment	4	22	6	5	8	7	18
Having a satisfactory job	36	19	32	26	29	19	38
Family members	20	34	14	28	20	23	17
Friends	7	9	8	7	11	9	6
Access to good transport facilities	4	6	3	2	2	3	7
Access to good educational facilities	12	3	5	5	5	5	15
Access to good health services	16	16	17	13	13	10	18
Living in a safe area	5	9	5	4	13	12	11
Enough free time for the family	10	13	9	5	14	16	5
Access to new technologies	8	3	5	4	2	3	8
Access to cultural activities	4		3	3	3	3	8

TABLE 2.1 IDEAL FAMILY SIZE IN GENERAL (% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q8. Generally speaking, what do you think is the ideal number of children for a family?
(DO NOT READ OUT - ONE ANSWER MAXIMUM)

CC EB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia
None	2	1	0	3	1	1	3
One	8	10	1	12	8	9	10
Two	59	69	26	60	45	58	51
Three	21	13	46	17	36	26	28
Four	5	1	20	2	3	2	3
Five	1	1	3	0	1	0	0
Six	0		1			0	
More than six	1	0	1	0	0	0	0
DK/No opinion	4	5	2	5	6	3	5
Total	101	100	100	99	100	99	100
	Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
None	2	1	2	4	2	1	0
One	7	6	7	10	8	7	7
Two	53	64	57	63	63	60	58
Three	23	24	21	11	19	24	23
Four	3	2	4	4	3	3	8
Five	1	0	1	1	0	1	2
Six			0	0		0	0
More than six	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
DK/No opinion	12	2	6	7	4	3	0
Total	101	99	99	100	99	99	99

TABLE 2.2 IDEAL FAMILY SIZE FOR OWN FAMILY (% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q9. And for you personally, what would be the ideal number of children you would like to have or would have liked to have had?

(DO NOT READ OUT - ONE ANSWER MAXIMUM)

CC EB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia
None	2	1	1	4	3	2	3
One	10	10	1	12	11	8	13
Two	59	70	30	58	49	64	53
Three	19	13	39	16	25	19	21
Four	5	1	19	3	3	2	2
Five	1	1	5	1	1	1	1
Six	0		1	0		0	0
More than six	1	0	2		0	1	0
DK/No opinion	3	3	1	6	7	3	6
Total	100	99	99	100	99	100	99
	Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
None	2	5	3	2	1	2	1
One	9	11	9	14	8	10	9
Two	54	53	55	61	57	55	59
Three	19	19	20	12	23	25	21
Four	3	6	6	5	3	4	8
Five	2	2	1	1	1	1	2
Six	0	0	1	0	0		1
More than six	0	1	0	0	0	1	1
DK/No opinion	11	3	5	6	6	1	0
Total	100	100	100	101	99	99	102

TABLE 2.3A DESIRED FAMILY SIZE (% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q10. Thinking back to when you were around 20 years old, how many children did you want to have then?
(DO NOT READ OUT - ONE ANSWER MAXIMUM)

CC EB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia
None	10	2	6	9	12	7	16
One	11	8	3	8	9	8	12
Two	40	53	22	42	34	48	30
Three	12	11	24	14	13	17	10
Four	3	1	17	5	1	2	1
Five	1	1	3	1	1	1	1
Six	1	0	2	0	0	1	1
More than six	1	0	2	0	0	0	0
Did not know how many	5	11	6	6	13	3	8
Did not care	13	10	12	12	15	11	13
DK	3	3	3	3	2	2	8
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
	Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
None	8	13	5	14	4	16	14
One	8	7	7	12	7	12	15
Two	30	36	38	36	40	33	42
Three	8	17	12	7	18	14	11
Four	2	10	3	4	3	3	4
Five	1	1	1	1	1	1	2
Six	0	1	0		1	0	1
More than six	0	1	0	0	1	1	2
Did not know how many	10	3	6	5	7	2	3
Did not care	25	8	24	16	17	15	4
DK	8	2	2	6	3	3	2
Total	100	99	98	101	102	100	100

TABLE 2.3B DESIRED FAMILY SIZE (% BY DEMOGRAPHICS)

Question: Q10. Thinking back to when you were around 20 years old, how many children did you want to have then?
(DO NOT READ OUT - ONE ANSWER MAXIMUM)

CC EB 2002.1	TOTAL	SEX		AGE			
	CC 13 AVERAGE	male	female	15-24	25-39	40-54	55+
N=	14163	6459	7704	2443	3730	3653	4252
None	10	12	8		13	8	8
One	11	8	13		13	11	7
Two	40	35	45	41	42	42	37
Three	12	12	12	31	10	13	12
Four	3	3	4		3	3	4
Five	1	2	1		1	1	2
Six	1	1	0		1	1	1
More than six	1	2	0		1	1	1
Did not know how many	5	5	5		3	4	8
Did not care	13	17	10	28	11	13	16
DK	3	3	3		2	3	4
Total	100	100	101	100	100	100	100
MAIN ECONOMIC ACTIVITY							
CC EB 2002.1	Self employed	Managers	Other white collars	Manual workers	House persons	Un-employed	Retired
N=	1052	1312	1164	2429	1559	1514	3777
None	11	11	12	12	10	10	8
One	11	11	11	10	17	10	7
Two	38	41	46	39	45	38	39
Three	16	12	10	11	9	14	12
Four	3	2	3	3	4	4	3
Five	2	1	1	1	1	1	2
Six	1	0	0	1	0	1	1
More than six	1	1	1	1	0	2	1
Did not know how many	4	3	3	4	3	4	8
Did not care	10	15	12	17	6	13	17
DK	2	3	2	3	3	3	4
Total	99	100	101	102	98	100	102
TERMINAL EDUCATION AGE				SIZE OF LOCALITY			
CC EB 2002.1	below 15	16-19	20 and above	still studying	rural area or village	small or middle sized town	large town
N=	2967	5868	3351	1422	5002	4646	4489
None	9	10	11	14	9	9	12
One	13	9	10	3	10	11	12
Two	42	41	40	51	36	44	43
Three	12	12	11	14	13	11	10
Four	4	3	2	1	4	3	3
Five	1	1	1	2	2	1	1
Six	1	1	0	0	1	0	0
More than six	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Did not know how many	6	5	5	3	6	5	4
Did not care	10	15	16	6	15	13	11
DK	2	3	3	4	3	3	3
Total	101	101	100	99	100	101	100

TABLE 2.4 REALIZATION OF FERTILITY GOALS (% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q11. Have you had all the children that you wanted to have when you were around 20?

1. Yes, I had all the children I wanted to have (**Had all wanted to have**)
2. Yes, I even had more that I expected (**Had more than expected**)
3. No
4. DK / no opinion (spontaneous)

CC EB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia
Had all wanted to have	39	55	36	30	45	49	28
Had more than expected	22	12	13	10	10	13	7
No	35	33	51	59	44	38	62
DK/no opinion	4	0		1	1	0	3
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
	Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
Had all wanted to have	47	51	45	38	43	33	32
Had more than expected	13	9	19	10	16	9	38
No	38	33	35	46	41	46	25
DK/no opinion	2	6	1	6	0	13	6
TOTAL	100	99	100	100	100	101	101

TABLE 2.5 REASONS FOR UNMET FERTILITY DESIRES (% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q11A Why less children?

(SHOW CARD - READ OUT - MAXIMUM THREE ANSWERS POSSIBLE)

1. I have / had health problems (**Health problems**)
2. My partner has / had health problems (**Partner's health problems**)
3. I did not find the right partner for raising children or I had problems with my partner / my partner wanted fewer (or no) children (**Problems with partner**)
4. I have / had financial problems (**Financial problems**)
5. My partner has / had financial problems (**Partner's financial problems**)
6. I find / found it difficult to combine work and family life (lack of nurseries...)
(**Work vs. family**)
7. Availability of suitable accommodation was a problem (**Lack of suitable accommodation**)
8. The cost of children (education, etc.) is/ was too high (**Cost of children is too high**)
9. I could not find the right time for having children (**Could not find the right time**)
10. My priorities have changed and I already have the number of children I want (**Priorities changed**)
11. I still plan to have more children (**Plans to have more children**)
12. Other (spontaneous)
13. Dk

CC EB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia	
Health problems	18	22	20	15	22	25	13	
Partner's health problems	8	8	7	8	14	8	6	
Problems with partner	23	24	20	33	32	25	20	
Financial problems	26	22	23	24	41	27	20	
Partner's financial problems	4	7	3	4	8	4	4	
Work vs. family	10	16	6	18	14	6	6	
Lack of suitable accommodation	15	26	7	27	30	19	26	
Cost of children is too high	17	15	15	10	16	13	7	
Could not find the right time	12	10	4	14	13	12	10	
Priorities changed	8	4	5	13	8	8	8	
Plans to have more children	11	25	20	11	14	15	12	
Other	19	7	10	18	7	13	22	
DK	5	2	3	3	4	2	3	
		Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
Health problems	16	13	18	19	21	16	15	
Partner's health problems	12	6	8	8	14	5	5	
Problems with partner	28	18	27	25	34	24	12	
Financial problems	35	13	23	27	8	21	32	
Partner's financial problems	9	3	4	2	3	6	4	
Work vs. family	15	3	10	11	7	13	9	
Lack of suitable accommodation	25	8	11	17	18	16	5	
Cost of children is too high	24	10	20	19	13	12	19	
Could not find the right time	11	11	8	19	9	9	12	
Priorities changed	3	13	11	8	6	7	5	
Plans to have more children	22	2	13	5	13	8	7	
Other	9	36	11	22	13	9	30	
DK	4	4	6	9	5	5	6	

TABLE 2.6A EFFECTIVE FAMILY SIZE (% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q12. Have you had any children? (IF YES) How many?
 (DO NOT READ OUT - ONE ANSWER MAXIMUM)
 (IF NO: code "none")

CC EB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia
None	33	23	27	36	31	27	28
One	16	20	8	15	25	21	26
Two	28	45	29	35	32	38	32
Three	12	9	19	11	9	10	10
Four	6	1	11	3	2	3	2
Five	2	1	3	0	1	1	1
Six	1	0	1	0	0	1	0
Seven	1	0	1		0	0	0
Eight	0		1		0	0	0
Nine	0	0	0				0
Ten or more	0		0			0	
DK	0			0			0
Total	99	99	100	100	100	101	99
	Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
None	26	35	35	28	33	35	36
One	22	13	16	24	14	18	10
Two	37	26	27	33	32	32	20
Three	11	15	13	9	14	11	15
Four	3	3	6	4	5	2	9
Five	1	3	2	1	2	1	5
Six	0	1	1	0	1	0	3
Seven		1	0	0	0	0	1
Eight		1	0	0			1
Nine		0	0			0	0
Ten or more		0	0				1
DK		0				1	
Total	100	98	100	99	101	100	101

TABLE 2.6B EFFECTIVE FAMILY SIZE (% BY DEMOGRAPHICS)

Question: Q12. Have you had any children? (IF YES) How many?
 (DO NOT READ OUT - ONE ANSWER MAXIMUM)
 (IF NO: code "none")

CC EB 2002.1	TOTAL	SEX		AGE			
	CC 13 AVERAGE	male	female	15-24	25-39	40-54	55+
None	33	39	27	90	29	11	9
One	16	14	17	6	23	16	15
Two	28	25	31	2	30	38	39
Three	12	11	14	0	12	19	18
Four	6	5	7	0	4	9	10
Five	2	3	2	0	2	4	4
Six	1	2	1	0	1	2	2
Seven	1	1	0		0	0	1
Eight	0	1	0		0	1	1
Nine	0	0	0		0	0	0
Ten or more	0	1	0			1	0
Dk	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Total	99	102	99	98	101	101	99
CC EB 2002.1	MAIN ECONOMIC ACTIVITY						
	Self employed	Managers	Other white collars	Manual workers	House persons	Un-employed	Retired
None	27	33	41	31	15	47	11
One	16	25	20	21	17	13	17
Two	27	33	31	31	31	19	40
Three	14	7	6	11	19	10	17
Four	7	1	1	3	11	5	9
Five	4		0	2	3	3	4
Six	3	0	0	1	3	1	2
Seven	0		0	0	1	1	1
Eight	1	0		0	0	0	0
Nine	0			0	0	0	0
Ten or more	1				0	1	0
Dk		0	0	0			
Total	100	99	99	100	100	100	101
CC EB 2002.1	TERMINAL EDUCATION AGE				SIZE OF LOCALITY		
	below 15	16-19	20 and above	still studying	rural area or village	small or middle sized town	large town
None	20	29	33	98	29	32	39
One	12	21	25	1	13	16	19
Two	30	34	32	0	27	31	26
Three	19	10	8	0	15	12	9
Four	10	4	1	0	8	5	3
Five	4	1	1	0	4	2	2
Six	2	1	0		2	1	1
Seven	1	0		0	1	0	0
Eight	0	0	0		1	0	0
Nine	0	0	0		0	0	0
Ten or more	0				1	0	0
Dk		0	0	0	0	0	0
Total	98	100	100	99	101	99	99

TABLE 2.7A AGE AT FIRST BIRTH (% BY COUNTRY, RECODED)

Question: Q13. How old were you when you had your first child?

CC EB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia
Refused	2	1		2		1	1
20 years and below	28	32	23	20	20	28	19
21-25 years	44	47	42	52	51	43	48
26-30 years	20	16	25	22	22	21	25
31-35 years	4	3	7	4	5	5	5
36 years and above	2	1	2	1	2	3	2
Total	100	100	99	101	100	101	100
	Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
Refused		0	3	3	1	3	1
20 years and below	18	12	20	24	23	19	39
21-25 years	53	46	50	44	53	44	36
26-30 years	24	35	21	22	19	28	18
31-35 years	4	6	4	5	3	3	4
36 years and above	1	1	2	2	1	2	2
Total	100	100	100	100	100	99	100

TABLE 2.7B AGE AT FISRT BIRTH (% BY DEMOGRAPHICS, RECODED)

Question: Q13. How old were you when you had your first child?

CC EB 2002.1	TOTAL	SEX		AGE			
	CC 13 AVERAGE	male	female	15-24	25-39	40-54	55+
N=	14163	6459	7704	2443	3730	3653	4252
Refused	2	2	2	1	1	2	2
20 years and below	28	13	40	78	28	27	26
21-25 years	44	44	44	21	47	45	42
26-30 years	20	32	11		20	19	23
31-35 years	4	6	2		3	4	5
36 years and above	2	3	1		0	3	2
Total	100	100	100	100	99	100	100
MAIN ECONOMIC ACTIVITY							
CC EB 2002.1	Self employed	Managers	Other white collars	Manual workers	House persons	Un-employed	Retired
N=	1052	1312	1164	2429	1559	1514	3777
Refused	1	2	2	3	2	2	2
20 years and below	18	8	14	20	53	30	24
21-25 years	52	45	54	47	34	45	44
26-30 years	23	35	24	24	9	17	23
31-35 years	5	9	4	4	2	4	5
36 years and above	1	2	2	2	0	2	2
Total	100	101	100	100	100	100	100
TERMINAL EDUCATION AGE				SIZE OF LOCALITY			
CC EB 2002.1	below 15	16-19	20 and above	still studying	rural area or village	small or middle sized town	large town
N=	2967	5868	3351	1422	5002	4646	4489
Refused	1	2	2	5	2	1	2
20 years and below	39	21	9	44	32	25	26
21-25 years	40	49	48	39	43	46	43
26-30 years	15	23	30	12	18	21	23
31-35 years	3	4	8		3	5	4
36 years and above	2	1	3		2	2	1
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	99

TABLE 2.8 CHILDREN STILL PLANNED (% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q14. How many children do you still plan to have?
(DO NOT READ OUT - ONE ANSWER MAXIMUM)

CC EB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia
None	49	51	44	47	41	52	49
One	12	15	13	14	18	15	17
Two	22	17	17	22	18	25	16
Three	5	2	7	4	4	3	3
Four	1		3	1	0	0	
Five	0		0				0
Six	0						0
More than six	0						
DK/No opinion	11	15	17	11	18	4	14
Total	100	100	101	99	99	99	99
	Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
None	45	52	47	48	50	44	50
One	12	12	11	12	15	12	11
Two	9	22	21	18	22	21	24
Three	2	3	4	1	2	8	7
Four	0		0	0	1	1	2
Five			0			1	1
Six			0			0	0
More than six			0				1
DK/No opinion	32	11	16	21	11	13	6
Total	100	100	99	100	101	100	102

TABLE 2.9 GOVERNMENT PRIORITIES FOR FAMILIES WITH CHILDREN
(% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q15 In order to improve life for families with children, which three of the following should the government make top priority?

(SHOW CARD - READ OUT - MAXIMUM THREE ANSWERS POSSIBLE)

1. The duration of leave a mother or father can take around the child's birth (**Duration of birth-leave**)
2. The level of benefits that the family gets during the time the mother or the father stays home with the baby / newborn child (**Level of benefits for newborns**)
3. Availability of childcare arrangements (**Childcare arrangements**)
4. The benefits that the family gets during raising up a child (child allowance) (**Child allowance**)
5. Tax advantages for families with children (**Tax advantages**)
6. Lowering the cost of educating children (**Cost of educating children**)
7. Flexible working hours
8. Fight against unemployment
9. Availability of suitable accommodation (**Accommodation**)
10. Availability and affordability of contraception (**Contraception**)
11. Dk/refusal

CC EB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia
Duration of birth-leave	20	29	33	22	15	11	19
Level of benefits for newborns	45	60	42	57	56	44	56
Childcare arrangements	23	20	25	19	14	22	13
Child allowance	37	55	53	50	68	54	69
Tax advantages	38	19	40	33	37	38	29
Cost of educating children	26	25	49	20	32	39	44
Flexible working hours	16	9	16	10	8	15	6
Fight against unemployment	31	48	21	23	34	30	36
Accommodation	38	22	6	39	21	35	12
Contraception	5	1	0	2	1	1	1
Dk/refusal	4	2	2	4	3	2	1
	Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
Duration of birth-leave	18	31	22	22	23	33	19
Level of benefits for newborns	36	17	39	39	39	37	46
Childcare arrangements	27	62	20	26	18	27	27
Child allowance	42	25	34	49	58	35	22
Tax advantages	38	24	37	32	32	36	46
Cost of educating children	36	14	41	39	29	39	8
Flexible working hours	8	38	6	9	8	10	29
Fight against unemployment	46	55	53	30	37	31	14
Accommodation	32	21	12	20	38	28	68
Contraception	2	7	5	2	1	0	10
Dk/refusal	3	1	7	6	3	1	2

TABLE 3.1 ROLE OF PARENTS IN THE FAMILY (% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q16. Here is a list of tasks concerned with looking after children which may be carried out by the father or the mother, or by both. Please tell me for each of them, whether you think it should be carried out mainly by the father, mainly by the mother or by both?

(READ OUT)

1. Playing sport with the children
2. Bringing the children to activities such as drama, music, (boy-)scouts, etc. (**Bringing child to activities**)
3. Changing the baby's nappies
4. Dressing the children or choosing their clothes (**Dressing the children**)
5. Taking the children to the doctor (**Taking child to the doctor**)
6. Helping the children with their schoolwork, going to parents' meetings (**Helping child with schoolwork**)
7. Reading to the children
8. Buying toys for the children
9. Punishing the children
10. Putting the children to bed
11. Answering important questions raised by the child (**Answering questions**)

CC EB 2002.1 A='father', B='mother', C='by both'	CC 13 AVERAGE			Bulgaria			Cyprus			Czech Republic			Estonia			Hungary			Latvia		
	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C
Playing sport with the children	24	3	71	28	2	60	31	1	67	30	1	66	23	1	74	27	2	69	28	1	68
Bringing child to activities	11	13	73	3	27	58	8	9	83	7	13	77	4	18	77	9	16	72	3	25	70
Changing the baby's nappies	1	57	41	1	70	26	0	44	56	1	54	43	1	37	61	1	47	51	1	34	63
Dressing the children	1	52	46	0	62	35	0	45	54	1	59	38	0	44	54	1	56	42	1	42	56
Taking child to the doctor	7	23	69	2	23	73	3	6	91	2	37	59	2	29	69	1	33	65	1	28	69
Helping child with schoolwork	7	13	79	3	19	75	3	9	88	4	12	82	5	10	84	3	20	77	4	8	86
Reading to the children	5	18	75	3	26	67	3	12	85	3	23	72	3	17	78	1	23	74	2	16	79
Buying toys for the children	11	10	77	6	14	77	6	4	88	2	10	85	3	8	87	3	15	80	4	8	86
Punishing the children	14	8	72	16	5	73	11	6	77	11	3	78	11	5	78	11	8	78	12	3	74
Putting the children to bed	1	38	59	1	54	42	1	31	68	1	32	65	1	25	72	0	33	66	1	27	70
Answering questions	6	6	87	4	6	87	3	4	92	4	3	91	3	4	93	3	8	88	2	2	95
	Lithuania			Malta			Poland			Romania			Slovakia			Slovenia			Turkey		
	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C
Playing sport with the children	23	2	69	26	2	71	26	2	71	12	5	81	23	1	73	13	0	86	24	6	69
Bringing child to activities	4	21	70	5	24	70	6	15	77	4	10	81	4	11	81	3	7	90	21	9	68
Changing the baby's nappies	1	35	61	0	49	51	1	36	62	1	50	48	0	42	57	1	21	78	1	79	19
Dressing the children	0	51	46		57	43	1	43	55	0	41	57	1	56	43		21	79	1	61	38
Taking child to the doctor	2	30	65	1	16	84	1	30	68	2	25	71	1	31	67	1	9	91	19	12	69
Helping child with schoolwork	6	10	81	1	19	80	4	12	83	4	14	80	2	12	85	2	6	92	14	11	75
Reading to the children	3	22	73	2	22	76	3	17	79	2	19	77	2	19	78	1	10	88	11	15	74
Buying toys for the children	5	10	81	5	24	70	4	9	85	4	12	82	4	12	82	2	5	93	24	9	67
Punishing the children	10	4	78	8	6	83	12	8	75	9	6	76	8	3	78	5	3	88	19	12	64
Putting the children to bed	1	32	64	0	29	71	1	29	70	0	31	66	1	27	72	1	10	89	2	51	47
Answering questions	2	4	91	2	9	89	3	5	91	5	5	88	3	5	91	1	1	97	10	8	81

The difference between "A", "B" and "C", and 100, is the percentage of "don't know" and "can not decide" (not shown).

TABLE 3.2 MAIN ROLES OF THE FAMILY IN SOCIETY (% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q17A In your opinion, what are the main roles of the family in society today?
(SHOW CARD - SEVERAL ANSWERS POSSIBLE)

1. Bringing up and educating children (**Educating children**)
2. Providing love and affection to all family members (**Love/affection to family**)
3. Looking after the health and well-being of all family members (**Looking after health of family**)
4. Maintaining cultural and moral values (**Cultural/moral values**)
5. Taking care of elderly family members (**Elderly family members' care**)
6. Providing moral support to family members (**Moral support**)
7. Contributing to the economy
8. Other (spontaneous)
9. None (spontaneous)
10. DK

CC EB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia
Educating children	91	87	93	83	93	79	84
Love/affection to family	82	77	84	70	84	64	47
Looking after health of family	82	81	80	63	88	65	66
Cultural/moral values	76	68	79	50	77	50	50
Elderly family members' care	78	73	66	52	83	59	54
Moral support	75	75	69	54	85	44	48
Contribution to the economy	63	52	54	34	63	35	39
Other	3	0	0	5	2	2	4
None	1	1		1	0	1	2
DK	2	6	0	5	1	2	2
	Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
Educating children	71	87	97	85	89	86	95
Love/affection to family	44	82	95	71	82	79	90
Looking after health of family	58	74	94	72	76	72	90
Cultural/moral values	59	69	89	60	50	45	91
Elderly family members' care	57	59	90	65	59	51	91
Moral support	45	57	88	65	58	53	88
Contribution to the economy	54	43	61	48	35	28	87
Other	1	4	5	5	1	1	2
None	1		0	2	0	0	0
DK	7		0	5	2	2	1

TABLE 3.3 MAIN ROLES OF THE FAMILY FOR THE RESPONDENT (% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q17B And, what are the main roles of the family for you personally?

(SHOW SAME CARD - SEVERAL ANSWERS POSSIBLE – “YES”, “NO”, “DK/NA”)

1. Bringing up and educating children (**Educating children**)
2. Providing love and affection to all family members (**Love/affection to family**)
3. Looking after the health and well-being of all family members (**Looking after health of family**)
4. Maintaining cultural and moral values (**Cultural/moral values**)
5. Taking care of elderly family members (**Elderly family members' care**)
6. Providing moral support to family members (**Moral support**)
7. Contributing to the economy
8. Other (spontaneous)
9. None (spontaneous)
10. DK

CC EB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia
Educating children	85	84	88	74	81	68	73
Love/affection to family	87	84	90	78	88	85	60
Looking after health of family	84	86	82	69	86	66	66
Cultural/moral values	72	68	73	48	70	39	39
Elderly family members' care	76	77	62	52	76	55	47
Moral support	76	80	65	55	83	45	54
Contribution to the economy	57	42	45	20	53	18	27
Other	3	0	1	4	3	2	5
None	1	1	0	1	1	1	2
DK	2	5	0	5	3	2	3
	Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
Educating children	74	79	87	76	80	81	96
Love/affection to family	76	85	94	79	86	89	90
Looking after health of family	76	71	92	75	78	74	92
Cultural/moral values	44	56	83	54	47	40	91
Elderly family members' care	62	48	82	62	56	48	92
Moral support	63	49	84	65	60	51	90
Contribution to the economy	68	31	49	45	29	22	88
Other	2	4	4	6	1	1	1
None	0	0	1	2	1	0	0
DK	5		1	4	1	1	1

TABLE 4.1A FAMILY SOLIDARITY (% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q18 If in the future, working adults would have to look after their elderly parents more than they do nowadays, would you say that this would be rather a good thing or rather a bad thing?

(READ OUT!)

CC EB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia
Rather a good thing	76	82	84	51	62	81	73
Rather a bad thing	13	6	10	14	21	9	17
Neither one, nor the other	7	6	4	23	11	8	6
DK	4	5	1	12	7	3	4
Total	100	99	99	100	101	101	100
	Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
Rather a good thing	84	82	78	81	60	63	77
Rather a bad thing	3	7	11	5	16	21	19
Neither one, nor the other	8	9	8	6	16	12	4
DK	4	2	2	8	8	5	1
Total	99	100	99	100	100	101	101

TABLE 4.1B FAMILY SOLIDARITY (% BY DEMOGRAPHICS)

Question: Q18 If in the future, working adults would have to look after their elderly parents more than they do nowadays, would you say that this would be rather a good thing or rather a bad thing?

(READ OUT!)

CC EB 2002.1	TOTAL	SEX		AGE			
	CC 13 AVERAGE	male	female	15-24	25-39	40-54	55+
N=	14163	6459	7704	2443	3730	3653	4252
Rather a good thing	76	76	76	73	74	77	79
Rather a bad thing	13	14	12	14	16	12	9
Neither one, nor the other	7	7	8	6	7	8	8
DK	4	4	4	6	3	3	4
Total	100	101	100	99	100	100	100
CC EB 2002.1	MAIN ECONOMIC ACTIVITY						
	Self employed	Managers	Other white collars	Manual workers	House persons	Un-employed	Retired
N=	1052	1312	1164	2429	1559	1514	3777
Rather a good thing	82	63	63	75	80	79	78
Rather a bad thing	11	22	17	13	13	11	10
Neither one, nor the other	5	11	14	8	5	6	7
DK	2	4	6	4	2	3	4
Total	100	100	100	100	100	99	99
CC EB 2002.1	TERMINAL EDUCATION AGE				SIZE OF LOCALITY		
	below 15	16-19	20 and above	still studying	rural area or village	small or middle sized town	large town
N=	2967	5868	3351	1422	5002	4646	4489
Rather a good thing	82	74	71	69	81	76	69
Rather a bad thing	12	12	17	16	9	13	18
Neither one, nor the other	5	9	9	7	6	8	8
DK	2	4	4	7	3	4	4
Total	101	99	101	99	99	101	99

TABLE 4.2A COMMUNITY VS RESIDENTIAL CARE FOR ELDERLY PEOPLE
 (% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q19 Which comes closest to your own opinion?
 (READ OUT!)

1. Elderly people needing personal care should go into residential / nursing homes
(In nursing homes)
2. The social services should help the elderly to remain in their homes for as long as possible.
(In their own homes)
3. DK (spontaneous)

CC EB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia
In nursing homes	11	11	6	16	12	10	13
In their own homes	85	84	91	74	84	87	81
DK	4	5	3	10	4	3	7
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	101
	Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
In nursing homes	10	19	8	5	9	24	15
In their own homes	79	80	88	87	84	70	84
DK	12	1	4	8	7	5	1
Total	101	100	100	100	100	99	100

TABLE 4.2B COMMUNITY VS RESIDENTIAL CARE FOR ELDERLY PEOPLE
 (% BY DEMOGRAPHICS)

Question: Q19 Which comes closest to your own opinion? (READ OUT!) 1. Elderly people needing personal care should go into residential / nursing homes 2. The social services should help the elderly to remain in their homes for as long as possible.

1. Elderly people needing personal care should go into residential / nursing homes
(In nursing homes)
2. The social services should help the elderly to remain in their homes for as long as possible.
(In their own homes)
3. DK (spontaneous)

CC EB 2002.1	TOTAL	SEX		AGE			
	CC 13 AVERAGE	male	female	15-24	25-39	40-54	55+
N=	14163	6459	7704	2443	3730	3653	4252
In nursing homes	11	12	10	15	12	9	9
In their own homes	85	83	86	80	85	87	87
DK	4	5	4	5	3	4	5
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	101
MAIN ECONOMIC ACTIVITY							
CC EB 2002.1	Self employed	Managers	Other white collars	Manual workers	House persons	Un-employed	Retired
N=	1052	1312	1164	2429	1559	1514	3777
In nursing homes	11	8	11	10	11	16	10
In their own homes	86	88	84	85	86	81	86
DK	3	4	5	5	2	4	5
Total	100	100	100	100	99	101	101
TERMINAL EDUCATION AGE				SIZE OF LOCALITY			
CC EB 2002.1	below 15	16-19	20 and above	still studying	rural area or village	small or middle sized town	large town
N=	2967	5868	3351	1422	5002	4646	4489
In nursing homes	11	10	11	12	11	10	13
In their own homes	86	85	86	81	86	85	83
DK	3	5	4	7	4	4	5
Total	100	100	101	100	101	99	101

TABLE 4.3 FAMILY CARE FOR ELDERLY PEOPLE (% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q20. Let's suppose you had an elderly father or mother who lived alone. What do you think would be best if this parent could no longer manage to live on his/her own?

(SHOW CARD - READ OUT - ONE ANSWER ONLY)

1. Myself or one of my brothers or sisters should invite my father or mother to live with one of us (**Parent should move to child**)
2. I or one of my brothers or sisters should move in with my father or mother (**Child should move to parent**)
3. One should move closer to the other (**Moving closer to the other**)
4. My father or mother should move in to an old people's home or a nursing home (**Parent should move to nursing home**)
5. My father or mother should stay at home, and receive visits there, as well as appropriate health care and services (**Parent should get help at home**)
6. It depends (spontaneous)
7. DK (spontaneous)

CC EB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia
Parent should move to child	55	48	26	31	31	51	45
Child should move to parent	6	10	1	3	6	5	9
Moving closer to the other	6	9	5	8	8	9	11
Parent should move to nursing home	3	4	3	12	4	4	3
Parent should get help at home	22	22	56	28	35	26	17
It depends	5	5	7	12	14	4	12
DK	2	2	1	5	2	1	3
Total	99	100	99	99	100	100	100
	Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
Parent should move to child	40	24	61	49	34	34	66
Child should move to parent	6	7	6	10	8	5	6
Moving closer to the other	11	6	5	11	11	7	2
Parent should move to nursing home	3	13	1	1	4	20	3
Parent should get help at home	24	43	17	17	26	26	23
It depends	12	7	7	7	13	5	1
DK	4	0	3	5	5	3	0
Total	100	100	100	100	101	100	101

TABLE 4.4 BEARING COSTS OF CARE OF THE ELDERLY (% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q21 Irrespective of your answer, who do you think should mainly pay for taking care of elderly parents?

(SHOW CARD - READ OUT - ONE ANSWER ONLY)

1. The elderly parents themselves
2. Their children
3. The State or other public authorities (e.g. local government, Social Security, etc.) **(The State or other public authorities)**
4. Everyone equally (spontaneous)
5. Other (spontaneous)
6. DK (spontaneous)

CC EB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia
The elderly parents themselves	9	8	2	9	4	4	7
Their children	37	33	13	17	20	29	17
The State or other public authorities	33	33	54	33	52	29	56
Everyone equally	17	23	30	36	21	34	16
Other	0		1	1	1	1	1
DK	3	3	1	5	2	3	2
Total	99	100	101	101	100	100	99
	Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
The elderly parents themselves	13	14	19	7	8	17	6
Their children	21	9	16	43	10	20	58
The State or other public authorities	39	64	39	21	55	41	31
Everyone equally	18	12	20	23	20	18	4
Other	0	1	0	0	1	0	0
DK	9	0	6	5	6	3	0
Total	100	100	100	99	100	99	99

TABLE 4.5 PROVISION OF SPECIAL HELP IN HOUSEHOLD (% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q22A Some people have extra family responsibilities because they look after someone who has a long-term illness, who is handicapped or elderly.

a) Is there anyone living with you who has a long term illness, who is handicapped or elderly, whom you look after or give special help to?

(SHOW CARD - SEVERAL ANSWERS POSSIBLE)

CC EB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia
Husband/wife/partner, under 60	2	3	1	3	2	2	4
Husband/wife/partner, 60 or over	2	5	1	3	3	2	3
A child, under 5	2	2	0	1	3	2	4
A child, 5 or over (or adult child)	3	3	2	3	5	4	6
Another relative, under 60	2	2	1	2	2	2	3
Another relative, 60 or over	7	8	2	5	4	5	8
Friend, under 60	0	0		0	1		
Friend, 60 or over	0	0		0	0		
Other person, under 60	0	0		1	0	0	0
Other person, 60 or over	1	1	1	1	1	0	0
DK	1	1		2	2	2	3
	Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
Husband/wife/partner, under 60	4	1	2	2	0	1	1
Husband/wife/partner, 60 or over	3	3	3	3	3	2	1
A child, under 5	2		2	1	1	1	2
A child, 5 or over (or adult child)	4	1	4	2	1	2	2
Another relative, under 60	2	1	2	1	1	1	4
Another relative, 60 or over	6	2	6	5	4	4	9
Friend, under 60			0	0	0	0	0
Friend, 60 or over			0	0	0	0	0
Other person, under 60	1		0	0		0	0
Other person, 60 or over	2	0	1	1		1	1
DK	4	1	1	3	0	1	1

TABLE 4.6 PROVISION OF SPECIAL HELP OUTSIDE OF HOUSHOLD (% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q22B Some people have extra family responsibilities because they look after someone who has a long-term illness, who is handicapped or elderly.

b) Do you provide some regular service or help to such a person NOT living with you?

(SHOW CARD - SEVERAL ANSWERS POSSIBLE)

CC EB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia	
Husband/wife/partner, under 60	0	0		0	1	0	0	
Husband/wife/partner, 60 or over	0	0		0	0	0	0	
A child, under 5	1	0		0	1	1	1	
A child, 5 or over (or adult child)	1	2	0	1	3	2	4	
Another relative, under 60	2	3	3	2	3	1	5	
Another relative, 60 or over	7	11	11	12	10	5	14	
Friend, under 60	0	0	0	2	1	0	1	
Friend, 60 or over	1	1	1	2	2	1	2	
Other person, under 60	1	0	0	1	1	1	2	
Other person, 60 or over	2	3	3	3	5	1	4	
DK	2	3		3	3	3	3	
		Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
Husband/wife/partner, under 60	1	2	1	0	0	0	0	
Husband/wife/partner, 60 or over	0	3	1	0	0	0		
A child, under 5	0	1	2	1	0	1	0	
A child, 5 or over (or adult child)	1	1	2	1	1	0	1	
Another relative, under 60	2	2	2	2	2	1	2	
Another relative, 60 or over	9	8	5	7	8	6	7	
Friend, under 60	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	
Friend, 60 or over	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	
Other person, under 60	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	
Other person, 60 or over	6	1	2	3	1	2	1	
DK	5	1	1	4	1	1	1	

TABLE 5.1A SATISFACTION WITH ONE'S OWN HEALTH (% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q4.2 Please tell me whether you are very satisfied, fairly satisfied, not very satisfied or not at all satisfied with each of the following? - Your health in general

(READ OUT - SHOW CARD)

ACEB 2001.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia
Very satisfied	15	18	63	15	14	22	13
Fairly satisfied	54	43	25	56	49	39	50
Not very satisfied	22	23	8	24	26	27	27
Not at all satisfied	8	16	4	5	10	13	10
DK / no opinion	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
Total	99	100	100	100	100	101	100
	Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
Very satisfied	17	41	22	12	12	30	11
Fairly satisfied	50	49	43	47	53	50	68
Not very satisfied	23	10	24	30	25	16	16
Not at all satisfied	10	1	11	11	10	4	4
DK / no opinion	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
Total	100	101	100	101	100	100	99

TABLE 5.1B SATISFACTION WITH ONE'S OWN HEALTH (% BY DEMOGRAPHICS)

Question: Q4.2 Please tell me whether you are very satisfied, fairly satisfied, not very satisfied or not at all satisfied with each of the following? - Your health in general

(READ OUT - SHOW CARD)

	TOTAL	SEX		AGE			
CC EB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	male	female	15-24	25-39	40-54	55+
N=	14163	6459	7704	2443	3730	3653	4252
Very satisfied	18	13	27	18	11	6	18
Fairly satisfied	56	51	62	61	54	37	56
Not very satisfied	19	25	9	17	26	37	19
Not at all satisfied	6	10	2	4	9	19	6
DK / no opinion	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total	99	99	100	100	100	99	99
	MAIN ECONOMIC ACTIVITY						
CC EB 2001.1	Self employed	Managers	Other white collars	Manual workers	House persons	Un-employed	Retired
N=	1052	1312	1164	2429	1559	1514	3777
Very satisfied	17	26	22	18	9	15	8
Fairly satisfied	66	56	58	58	57	54	41
Not very satisfied	14	15	17	19	28	23	33
Not at all satisfied	3	3	4	5	6	8	18
DK / no opinion	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total	100	100	101	100	100	100	100
	TERMINAL EDUCATION AGE				SIZE OF LOCALITY		
CC EB 2002.1	below 15	16-19	20 and above	still studying	rural area or village	small or middle sized town	large town
N=	2967	5868	3351	1422	5002	4646	4489
Very satisfied	8	17	18	35	15	16	16
Fairly satisfied	54	52	54	58	53	52	57
Not very satisfied	26	24	21	7	23	24	20
Not at all satisfied	12	8	6	1	10	8	7
DK / no opinion	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total	100	100	99	101	101	100	100

TABLE 5.2 HEALTH BEHAVIOUR (% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q23. Now, let's talk about your lifestyle. Do you or don't you ...?

(READ OUT)

1. Consider your lifestyle to be healthy (**Healthy lifestyle**)
2. Eat a good, balanced diet (**Balanced diet**)
3. Exercise at least twice a week
4. Regularly drink alcohol
5. Smoke
6. Regularly feel stressed

CC EB 2002.1 -: 'no'; +: 'yes'	CC 13 AVERAGE		Bulgaria		Cyprus		Czech Republic		Estonia		Hungary		Latvia	
	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-
Healthy lifestyle	60	35	32	61	67	31	49	37	55	37	65	33	48	42
Balanced diet	51	45	35	62	70	28	49	43	51	41	65	33	37	55
Exercise at least twice a week	34	66	24	75	43	57	34	65	30	69	68	32	27	72
Regularly drink alcohol	8	91	9	91	7	93	17	82	11	87	8	91	7	91
Smoking	35	65	37	62	25	75	35	64	31	69	30	70	39	60
Regularly feel stressed	42	55	48	48	59	41	24	69	34	58	36	63	29	66
	Lithuania		Malta		Poland		Romania		Slovakia		Slovenia		Turkey	
	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-
Healthy lifestyle	38	48	80	18	60	36	65	25	52	38	70	23	64	35
Balanced diet	26	66	72	27	39	59	55	34	39	54	79	16	60	39
Exercise at least twice a week	33	66	44	55	33	67	21	78	33	66	83	17	32	67
Regularly drink alcohol	22	71	12	87	8	92	6	93	6	93	9	91	7	93
Smoking	31	68	25	75	34	66	30	69	28	72	29	71	39	61
Regularly feel stressed	42	49	43	56	40	58	47	47	29	66	19	78	48	51

The difference between "+" and "-", and 100, is the percentage of "don't know" (not shown).

TABLE 5.3 LONG-STANDING ILLNESS OR DISABILITY (% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q24. Do you have any long-standing illness or disability that limits your activities in any way? By long-standing, I mean anything that has troubled you over a period of time or that is likely to affect you for a period of time.

CC EB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE		Bulgaria		Cyprus		Czech Republic		Estonia		Hungary		Latvia	
	Yes	25	20	18	30	29	32	27	25	20	18	30	29	32
No	74	80	82	65	70	68	71	74	80	82	65	70	68	71
DN/NA	1	0	0	5	1	0	2	1	0	0	5	1	0	2
	Lithuania		Malta		Poland		Romania		Slovakia		Slovenia		Turkey	
Yes	29	10	30	20	29	26	22	29	10	30	20	29	26	22
No	67	90	69	77	70	73	78	67	90	69	77	70	73	78
DN/NA	4	0	1	2	1	1	0	4	0	1	2	1	1	0

**TABLE 5.4 HEALTH AS CURRENT CONTRIBUTION TO QUALITY OF LIFE
(% BY DEMOGRAPHICS)**

Question: Q6.1 In your opinion, which three factors contribute most to your current quality of life: BEING IN GOOD HEALTH

CCEB 2002.1	TOTAL	SEX		AGE			
	CC 13 AVERAGE	male	female	15-24	25-39	40-54	55+
N=	14163	6459	7704	2443	3730	3653	4252
Mentions among the top three	67	69	66	63	70	69	67
Does not mention	33	31	34	37	30	31	33
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
CCEB 2002.1	MAIN ECONOMIC ACTIVITY						
	Self employed	Managers	Other white collars	Manual workers	House persons	Un-employed	Retired
N=	1052	1312	1164	2429	1559	1514	3777
Mentions among the top three	74	69	67	67	72	68	63
Does not mention	26	31	33	33	28	32	37
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
CCEB 2002.1	TERMINAL EDUCATION AGE				SIZE OF LOCALITY		
	below 15	16-19	20 and above	still studying	rural area or village	small or middle sized town	large town
N=	2967	5868	3351	1422	5002	4646	4489
Mentions among the top three	70	66	65	60	69	65	67
Does not mention	30	34	35	40	31	35	33
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

TABLE 5.5 HEALTH WOULD CONTRIBUTE TO QUALITY OF LIFE (% BY DEMOGRAPHICS)

Question:Q7.1 In your opinion, which three factors would most improve your current quality of life: BEING IN GOOD HEALTH

CCEB 2002.1	TOTAL	SEX		AGE			
	CC 13 AVERAGE	male	female	15-24	25-39	40-54	55+
N=	14163	6459	7704	2443	3730	3653	4252
Mentions among the top three	56	55	57	40	49	59	76
Does not mention	44	45	43	60	51	41	24
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
CCEB 2002.1	MAIN ECONOMIC ACTIVITY						
	Self employed	Managers	Other white collars	Manual workers	House persons	Un-employed	Retired
N=	1052	1312	1164	2429	1559	1514	3777
Mentions among the top three	58	44	43	50	60	50	77
Does not mention	42	56	57	50	40	50	23
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
CCEB 2002.1	TERMINAL EDUCATION AGE				SIZE OF LOCALITY		
	below 15	16-19	20 and above	still studying	rural area or village	small or middle sized town	large town
N=	2967	5868	3351	1422	5002	4646	4489
Mentions among the top three	65	54	49	32	61	55	50
Does not mention	35	46	51	68	39	45	50
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

TABLE 5.6 HEALTH BEHAVIOUR – SMOKING PREVALENCE (% BY DEMOGRAPHICS)

Question: Q23.5 Do you Smoke?

CCEB 2002.1	TOTAL	SEX		AGE			
	CC 13 AVERAGE	male	female	15-24	25-39	40-54	55+
N=	14163	6459	7704	2443	3730	3653	4252
Yes	35	48	23	24	33	45	43
No	65	51	77	76	67	55	57
Total	100	99	100	100	100	100	100
	MAIN ECONOMIC ACTIVITY						
CCEB 2002.1	Self employed	Managers	Other white collars	Manual workers	House persons	Un-employed	Retired
N=	1052	1312	1164	2429	1559	1514	3777
yes	48	33	43	49	24	54	21
no	52	67	56	51	76	46	79
Total	100	100	99	100	100	100	100
	TERMINAL EDUCATION AGE				SIZE OF LOCALITY		
CCEB 2002.1	below 15	16-19	20 and above	still studying	rural area or village	small or middle sized town	large town
N=	2967	5868	3351	1422	5002	4646	4489
yes	31	43	36	25	32	36	38
no	68	57	63	75	68	64	62
Total	99	100	99	100	100	100	100

TABLE 5.7A SATISFACTION WITH HEALTH SERVICES (% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q26B And, on a scale from 1 to 10, how satisfied are you with health services in (OUR COUNTRY)?

(SHOW SAME CARD WITH SCALE)

CC EB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia
Not at all satisfied	24	18	10	3	9	12	16
2	10	15	2	3	8	11	10
3	14	19	4	11	19	14	13
4	11	10	6	13	16	13	12
5	16	12	15	18	19	21	17
6	7	5	12	14	10	9	12
7	6	3	14	13	7	7	6
8	5	5	18	12	4	6	5
9	2	3	6	6	2	4	2
Extremely satisfied	3	2	8	4	2	2	1
DK	3	7	4	3	5	2	5
Total	101	99	99	100	101	101	99
	Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
Not at all satisfied	15	1	12	15	15	4	45
2	11	4	10	10	12	4	10
3	17	6	15	16	17	7	11
4	12	5	12	13	15	8	8
5	17	16	21	17	18	22	11
6	8	12	8	8	7	12	3
7	5	13	7	7	5	15	3
8	3	20	6	5	6	14	3
9	2	14	2	1	3	6	1
Extremely satisfied	1	8	4	1	1	7	3
DK	8	2	3	5	2	1	1
Total	99	101	100	98	101	100	99

TABLE 5.7B SATISFACTION WITH HEALTH SERVICES
(% BY DEMOGRAPHICS)

Question: Q26B And, on a scale from 1 to 10, how satisfied are you with health services in (OUR COUNTRY)?

(SHOW SAME CARD WITH SCALE)

CC EB 2002.1	TOTAL	SEX		AGE			
	CC 13 AVERAGE	male	female	15-24	25-39	40-54	55+
N=	14163	6459	7704	2443	3730	3653	4252
Not at all satisfied	24	25	23	25	30	25	15
2	10	10	10	9	10	10	10
3	14	14	14	14	14	14	13
4	11	11	11	11	12	11	10
5	16	15	16	15	15	16	18
6	7	7	7	7	6	6	7
7	6	6	6	6	4	6	7
8	5	4	6	5	4	5	8
9	2	2	2	2	1	2	3
Extremely satisfied	3	3	3	3	2	3	5
DK	3	3	2	4	2	2	3
Total	101	100	100	101	100	100	99
	MAIN ECONOMIC ACTIVITY						
CC EB 2002.1	Self employed	Managers	Other white collars	Manual workers	House persons	Un-employed	Retired
N=	1052	1312	1164	2429	1559	1514	3777
Not at all satisfied	28	15	20	24	36	33	16
2	9	13	11	10	9	10	10
3	12	18	17	16	12	13	12
4	11	14	11	14	9	9	11
5	17	19	16	15	13	12	18
6	5	8	10	7	5	6	7
7	7	6	6	5	4	5	7
8	3	3	4	3	5	5	8
9	1	1	1	2	2	1	3
Extremely satisfied	5	1	1	2	3	4	4
DK	1	1	2	2	2	3	3
Total	99	99	99	100	100	101	99
	TERMINAL EDUCATION AGE				SIZE OF LOCALITY		
CC EB 2002.1	below 15	16-19	20 and above	still studying	rural area or village	small or middle sized town	large town
N=	2967	5868	3351	1422	5002	4646	4489
Not at all satisfied	32	19	18	17	24	22	27
2	9	10	12	10	9	11	10
3	11	15	17	14	13	14	15
4	9	12	13	12	10	11	12
5	14	18	17	17	16	16	15
6	5	7	8	9	7	7	6
7	5	6	6	6	6	7	5
8	6	6	4	5	6	6	4
9	2	2	1	2	2	2	2
Extremely satisfied	4	2	2	1	4	2	2
DK	2	3	2	5	3	2	3
Total	99	100	100	98	100	100	101

TABLE 6.1 DISTANCES FROM HOME (% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q25A. If you had to go to each of the following places from home, how long would it take you?

(SHOW CARD WITH SCALE - ONE ANSWER ONLY)

1. The place where you work or study (**Study or workplace**)
2. Your general doctor / health centre (**General doctor**)
3. The nearest hospital
4. The nearest grocery shop/supermarket (**Nearest grocery shop**)
5. The nearest place to get money: cash dispenser, bank, post office (**Nearest place to get money**)
6. The nearest stop for public transport
7. The nearest nursery / kindergarten
8. The nearest primary school
9. The nearest police station
10. The nearest cinema

CC EB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE			Bulgaria			Cyprus			Czech Republic			Estonia			Hungary			Latvia		
	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C
	A='less than 20 minutes', B='20-59 minutes', C='more than one hour'																				
Study or workplace	29	19	5	18	18	4	45	16	2	26	30	9	29	29	5	42	27	7	28	30	11
General doctor	61	32	5	61	31	6	70	28	0	58	35	4	52	42	4	77	18	4	56	37	4
Nearest hospital	38	47	13	32	45	21	67	32		27	55	15	29	54	15	29	49	21	28	60	11
Nearest grocery shop	90	8	1	94	6	0	98	1		86	10	0	87	11	1	90	8	1	87	11	1
Nearest place to get money	61	31	5	57	30	7	97	2		67	27	2	67	27	4	69	22	4	68	27	2
Nearest stop for public transport	90	8	1	88	10	0	94	2	0	92	5	0	92	7	0	92	7	0	90	9	0
Nearest nursery/kindergarten	64	21	5	73	14	2	89	4		65	20	1	72	18	2	73	16	1	62	24	4
Nearest primary school	80	15	1	75	16	2	95	1		72	20	1	72	20	2	74	18	1	70	24	1
Nearest police station	55	37	5	47	40	8	75	23		51	39	4	38	47	7	52	35	7	46	40	7
Nearest cinema	28	44	19	28	42	13	61	29	2	35	49	8	20	52	15	32	40	17	26	51	14
	Lithuania			Malta			Poland			Romania			Slovakia			Slovenia			Turkey		
	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C
Study or workplace	35	30	3	34	16	2	38	21	5	22	22	4	33	25	5	40	28	3	25	11	3
General doctor	52	39	4	88	11	0	70	27	3	58	34	3	60	36	3	77	21	1	54	36	8
Nearest hospital	33	55	9	45	48	6	39	51	10	32	46	17	30	55	14	38	55	7	45	43	12
Nearest grocery shop	83	11	0	100	0	0	94	5	0	86	10	1	93	6	1	95	5	0	90	9	1
Nearest place to get money	61	29	4	94	5		70	26	3	56	31	6	72	24	2	92	7	1	51	39	8
Nearest stop for public transport	85	8	0	99	1		94	6	0	84	11	0	96	4		94	6	1	88	10	2
Nearest nursery/kindergarten	62	19	3	70	10	0	69	21	3	66	18	0	81	9	0	88	10	1	55	27	11
Nearest primary school	69	17	1	84	7	1	82	15	1	69	20	0	84	11	0	89	8	1	87	11	1
Nearest police station	48	39	4	90	10	1	50	42	5	61	31	2	48	43	5	71	27	1	58	36	5
Nearest cinema	27	43	12	26	60	10	31	54	12	30	35	11	43	44	8	61	35	4	22	40	33

The difference between "A", "B" and "C", and 100, is the percentage of "DK/NA" (not shown).

TABLE 6.2 IN WALKING DISTANCE FROM HOME (% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q25B And to which of them are in walking distance from your home?

READ OUT

1. The place where you work or study (**Study or workplace**)
2. Your general doctor / health centre (**General doctor**)
3. The nearest hospital
4. The nearest grocery shop/supermarket (**Nearest grocery shop**)
5. The nearest place to get money: cash dispenser, bank, post office (**Nearest place to get money**)
6. The nearest stop for public transport
7. The nearest nursery / kindergarten
8. The nearest primary school
9. The nearest police station
10. The nearest cinema

CC EB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia
Work or study place	30	23	16	26	32	47	32
Your general doctor	65	80	19	61	60	84	64
Nearest hospital	39	47	16	30	37	31	35
Nearest grocery shop	91	98	82	85	92	94	91
Nearest place to get money	65	75	75	69	75	77	76
Nearest public transport stop	91	98	78	89	94	97	93
Nearest nursery/kindergarten	68	84	70	66	75	81	70
Nearest primary school	83	84	79	73	75	81	77
Nearest police station	60	66	25	56	47	59	55
Nearest cinema	32	43	17	41	25	36	31
	Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
Work or study place	36	22	38	23	41	31	25
Your general doctor	55	77	71	69	72	59	56
Nearest hospital	34	23	40	37	38	25	43
Nearest grocery shop	86	95	95	87	98	86	89
Nearest place to get money	66	91	70	67	80	77	54
Nearest public transport stop	88	97	95	88	99	84	88
Nearest nursery/kindergarten	65	73	70	74	92	72	58
Nearest primary school	72	84	83	76	92	73	88
Nearest police station	53	92	53	74	62	50	60
Nearest cinema	32	16	36	37	55	43	21

TABLE 7.1A HOUSEHOLD INCOME (% BY COUNTRY, RECODED)

Question: Q28. In your opinion, what would be the very lowest net MONTHLY income that your household would have to have in order to make a living, given the present circumstances and composition of your household? Net income is after tax and social security contributions have been deducted.

(ONE ANSWER ONLY - INT: IF DK CODE "0", IF REFUSAL CODE "9")

CC EB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia
DK	3	3	3	8		2	3
Below 200 Euros	9	38	0	7	22	7	17
200-399 Euros	23	37	3	29	37	34	32
400-599 Euros	30	15	5	34	12	25	23
600-799 Euros	10	4	8	6	14	18	12
800-999 Euros	9	0	11	4	4	3	6
1000-1199 Euros	9	1	8	3	1	6	3
1200-1399 Euros	2	0	15	0	2	1	1
1400 Euros or more	4	0	48	1	1	3	2
Refusal	2	1	0	8	7	2	1
Total	101	99	101	100	100	101	100
	Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
DK	6	5	4	6	5	7	
Below 200 Euros	13	1	2	29	9	0	1
200-399 Euros	29	13	14	36	34	7	16
400-599 Euros	30	19	38	18	34	17	34
600-799 Euros	4	31	9	5	11	19	12
800-999 Euros	8	21	19	2	2	20	9
1000-1199 Euros	4	2	7	1	2	7	18
1200-1399 Euros	2	6	5	1	0	11	0
1400 Euros or more	1	3	3	0	0	11	7
Refusal	3	1	1	2	4	1	2
Total	100	102	102	100	101	100	99

TABLE 7.1B HOUSEHOLD INCOME (% BY DEMOGRAPHICS, RECODED)

Question: Q28. In your opinion, what would be the very lowest net MONTHLY income that your household would have to have in order to make a living, given the present circumstances and composition of your household? Net income is after tax and social security contributions have been deducted.

(ONE ANSWER ONLY - INT: IF DK CODE "0", IF REFUSAL CODE "9")

CC EB 2002.1	TOTAL	SEX		AGE			
	CC 13 AVERAGE	male	female	15-24	25-39	40-54	55+
N=	14163	6459	7704	2443	3730	3653	4252
DK	3	3	3	5	1	1	4
Below 200 Euros	9	7	10	4	4	6	21
200-399 Euros	23	22	23	20	21	21	30
400-599 Euros	30	30	31	28	33	33	26
600-799 Euros	10	11	10	11	12	12	6
800-999 Euros	9	10	8	9	10	11	6
1000-1199 Euros	9	9	9	11	11	9	4
1200-1399 Euros	2	2	1	2	2	2	1
1400 Euros or more	4	4	3	6	5	3	1
Refusal	2	2	2	3	2	2	2
Total	101	100	100	99	101	100	101
	MAIN ECONOMIC ACTIVITY						
CC EB 2002.1	Self employed	Managers	Other white collars	Manual workers	House persons	Un-employed	Retired
N=	1052	1312	1164	2429	1559	1514	3777
DK	1	2	2	2	1	1	4
Below 200 Euros	3	2	3	5	6	8	21
200-399 Euros	21	16	20	24	17	27	30
400-599 Euros	36	26	28	33	34	33	25
600-799 Euros	10	14	12	12	13	8	6
800-999 Euros	9	15	13	9	8	9	5
1000-1199 Euros	10	13	11	8	13	8	4
1200-1399 Euros	3	2	2	2	1	2	1
1400 Euros or more	5	6	5	3	4	3	1
Refusal	2	3	3	2	2	2	2
Total	100	99	99	100	99	101	99
	TERMINAL EDUCATION AGE				SIZE OF LOCALITY		
CC EB 2002.1	below 15	16-19	20 and above	still studying	rural area or village	small or middle sized town	large town
N=	2967	5868	3351	1422	5002	4646	4489
DK	2	2	2	9	3	3	3
Below 200 Euros	11	9	7	3	11	7	6
200-399 Euros	23	26	22	14	26	22	19
400-599 Euros	33	30	26	26	31	32	27
600-799 Euros	9	11	9	12	9	11	11
800-999 Euros	7	9	12	11	7	10	10
1000-1199 Euros	10	6	11	10	6	8	13
1200-1399 Euros	1	2	3	3	1	2	2
1400 Euros or more	3	3	6	8	2	4	6
Refusal	2	2	3	4	2	2	3
Total	101	100	101	100	98	101	100

TABLE 7.2A SUFFICIENT HOUSEHOLD INCOME (% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q29 Is the total income of your household higher, lower or more or less the same as this figure?
 (READ OUT - ONE ANSWER ONLY)

CC EB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia
Higher	9	4	18	40	20	5	9
Lower	79	88	54	31	62	84	76
The same	10	8	27	25	13	10	14
DK	3	0	1	4	5	2	1
Total	101	100	100	100	100	101	100
	Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
Higher	7	54	7	3	10	33	8
Lower	72	18	79	87	78	43	84
The same	14	27	10	6	11	18	8
DK	7	2	4	4	2	7	1
Total	100	101	100	100	101	101	101

TABLE 7.2B SUFFICIENT HOUSEHOLD INCOME (% BY DEMOGRAPHICS)

Question: Q29 Is the total income of your household higher, lower or more or less the same as this figure?
(READ OUT - ONE ANSWER ONLY)

CC EB 2002.1	TOTAL	SEX		AGE			
	CC 13 AVERAGE	male	female	15-24	25-39	40-54	55+
N=	14163	6459	7704	2443	3730	3653	4252
Higher	9	10	8	10	10	7	8
Lower	79	77	80	73	78	83	80
The same	10	11	9	10	11	9	10
DK	3	2	3	7	1	1	3
Total	101	100	100	100	100	100	101
MAIN ECONOMIC ACTIVITY							
CC EB 2002.1	Self employed	Managers	Other white collars	Manual workers	House persons	Un-employed	Retired
N=	1052	1312	1164	2429	1559	1514	3777
Higher	11	27	15	8	7	3	6
Lower	72	57	69	81	85	90	82
The same	15	15	15	10	6	5	9
DK	1	1	2	1	2	2	2
Total	99	100	101	100	100	100	99
TERMINAL EDUCATION AGE				SIZE OF LOCALITY			
CC EB 2002.1	below 15	16-19	20 and above	still studying	rural area or village	small or middle sized town	large town
N=	2967	5868	3351	1422	5002	4646	4489
Higher	5	10	15	12	6	10	11
Lower	86	78	70	64	83	77	75
The same	8	10	13	13	8	10	12
DK	2	2	1	10	3	2	3
Total	101	100	99	99	100	99	101

TABLE 7.3A HOW PEOPLE GET BY WITH THEIR INCOME (% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q29A How do you get by with your household's income?
(SHOW CARD - READ OUT - ONE ANSWER ONLY)

CC EB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia
With great difficulty	24	62	7	10	21	22	28
With difficulty	53	34	43	52	52	62	54
Easily	20	3	46	34	22	14	15
Very easily	1	0	3	1	1	1	1
DK	2	1	0	2	5	2	2
Total	100	100	99	99	101	101	100
	Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
With great difficulty	21	6	21	36	17	5	20
With difficulty	56	43	55	47	58	34	57
Easily	18	45	20	14	19	57	21
Very easily	0	3	1	1	1	3	1
DK	5	4	4	1	5	2	0
Total	100	101	101	99	100	101	99

TABLE 7.3B HOW PEOPLE GET BY WITH THEIR INCOME (% BY DEMOGRAPHICS)

Question: Q29A How do you get by with your household's income?
(SHOW CARD - READ OUT - ONE ANSWER ONLY)

CC EB 2002.1	TOTAL	SEX		AGE			
	CC 13 AVERAGE	male	female	15-24	25-39	40-54	55+
N=	14163	6459	7704	2443	3730	3653	4252
With great difficulty	24	24	25	16	23	30	28
With difficulty	53	53	54	52	54	55	54
Easily	20	21	19	26	22	14	17
Very easily	1	1	1	2	1	1	1
DK	2	2	2	5	1	0	1
Total	100	101	101	101	101	100	101
CC EB 2002.1	MAIN ECONOMIC ACTIVITY						
	Self employed	Managers	Other white collars	Manual workers	House persons	Un-employed	Retired
N=	1052	1312	1164	2429	1559	1514	3777
With great difficulty	20	8	14	22	24	41	31
With difficulty	52	50	57	61	56	46	53
Easily	24	39	28	15	18	12	14
Very easily	3	1	0	1	2	0	1
DK	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Total	100	99	100	100	101	100	100
CC EB 2002.1	TERMINAL EDUCATION AGE				SIZE OF LOCALITY		
	below 15	16-19	20 and above	still studying	rural area or village	small or middle sized town	large town
N=	2967	5868	3351	1422	5002	4646	4489
With great difficulty	29	25	18	9	27	22	22
With difficulty	56	55	50	49	54	55	51
Easily	14	18	29	32	16	20	24
Very easily	1	1	2	2	1	1	1
DK	1	1	1	9	1	2	2
Total	101	100	100	101	99	100	100

TABLE 7.4 DURATION OF FINANCIAL SITUATION (% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q30. How long has your household been in this financial situation?
(READ OUT - ONE ANSWER ONLY)

CC EB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia
Less than a year	3	4	4	5	4	3	5
1 year	8	7	13	10	8	5	7
2-3 years	26	24	29	25	26	19	24
4-5 years	20	25	25	23	23	23	18
6-10 years	19	24	14	19	23	21	26
Over 10 years	22	16	15	14	13	28	17
DK	2	1	0	4	3	1	2
Total	100	101	100	100	100	100	99
	Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
Less than a year	4	3	5	1	4	4	2
1 year	8	8	7	4	10	4	10
2-3 years	26	33	28	18	25	24	30
4-5 years	27	26	21	20	26	21	15
6-10 years	20	12	19	24	17	17	15
Over 10 years	12	16	16	27	14	24	27
DK	3	3	5	4	4	5	1
Total	100	101	101	98	100	99	100

TABLE 7.5 SOLVENCY PROBLEMS OF THE HOUSHOLD (% BY COUNTRY)

Question: **Q31. In the last twelve months have you or any member of your household had problems in...?**
(SHOW CARD WITH SCALE)

1. Paying the rent or mortgage
2. Paying the water, gas, electricity or heating bills (**Paying the house bills**)
3. Paying for food
4. Repaying loans (other than for housing) (**Repaying loans**)

CC EB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE		Bulgaria		Cyprus		Czech Republic		Estonia		Hungary		Latvia	
	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+
:- 'some problems' and 'serious problems' comb. +: 'no problem'														
Paying the rent or mortgage	28	69	9	87	17	82	16	79	38	59	22	75	42	53
Paying the house bills	43	55	65	34	23	76	23	73	38	60	36	63	46	52
Paying for food	43	56	71	28	15	84	17	80	35	63	38	61	46	53
Repaying loans	34	62	29	64	31	67	21	73	21	71	21	74	16	69
	Lithuania		Malta		Poland		Romania		Slovakia		Slovenia		Turkey	
	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+
Paying the rent or mortgage	34	57	9	89	26	72	15	79	21	77	17	81	40	59
Paying the house bills	49	48	17	82	32	67	39	60	28	70	22	77	57	43
Paying for food	41	56	8	91	23	77	53	46	29	69	15	84	56	43
Repaying loans	15	59	8	90	20	75	16	75	15	80	17	80	57	41

The difference between "+" and "-", and 100, is the percentage of and "don't know" (not shown).

TABLE 7.6A STANDARD OF LIVING (% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q32. Which of the following comes closest to your present standard of living?

(SHOW CARD)

CC EB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia
Rich	0		1	0	0	0	
Very comfortable	1		4	4	0	0	0
Comfortable	9	1	32	19	5	5	6
Average	40	19	46	37	26	44	34
Just getting along	33	41	14	31	50	39	45
Poor	13	28	3	8	16	10	13
Very poor	4	11	0	1	3	2	2
DK	0	1		1	1	0	0
Total	100	101	100	101	101	100	100
	Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
Rich		0	0	0	0	0	0
Very comfortable	1	3	1	0	1	2	1
Comfortable	3	41	7	10	8	24	11
Average	33	38	40	30	56	48	45
Just getting along	42	16	33	38	28	22	29
Poor	18	1	16	18	5	3	9
Very poor	4	0	3	4	0	1	4
DK	1		0	1	0	0	
Total	102	99	100	101	98	100	99

TABLE 7.6B STANDARD OF LIVING (% BY DEMOGRAPHICS)

Question: Q32. Which of the following comes closest to your present standard of living?

(SHOW CARD)

CC EB 2002.1	TOTAL	SEX		AGE			
	CC 13 AVERAGE	male	female	15-24	25-39	40-54	55+
N=	14163	6459	7704	2443	3730	3653	4252
Rich	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Very comfortable	1	1	1	2	1	1	0
Comfortable	9	10	9	15	11	8	5
Average	40	39	40	47	43	37	33
Just getting along	33	32	34	25	31	36	39
Poor	13	13	13	8	10	15	19
Very poor	4	4	4	3	4	4	3
DK	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
Total	100	99	101	101	100	101	99
	MAIN ECONOMIC ACTIVITY						
CC EB 2002.1	Self employed	Managers	Other white collars	Manual workers	House persons	Un-employed	Retired
N=	1052	1312	1164	2429	1559	1514	3777
Rich	0	0		0	0	0	0
Very comfortable	1	2	0	1	1	0	0
Comfortable	14	18	12	7	10	6	4
Average	49	53	44	40	41	32	32
Just getting along	26	24	36	38	31	33	40
Poor	7	3	6	12	12	19	20
Very poor	2	0	1	3	5	10	3
DK	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total	99	100	99	101	100	100	99
	TERMINAL EDUCATION AGE				SIZE OF LOCALITY		
CC EB 2002.1	below 15	16-19	20 and above	still studying	rural area or village	small or middle sized town	large town
N=	2967	5868	3351	1422	5002	4646	4489
Rich	0	0	0	0		0	0
Very comfortable	0	1	1	2	0	1	1
Comfortable	6	8	14	18	8	11	10
Average	37	39	42	48	41	38	40
Just getting along	35	36	33	23	31	35	35
Poor	16	13	7	6	15	12	11
Very poor	6	3	2	1	5	4	2
DK	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
Total	100	100	99	99	100	101	99

TABLE 7.7A SAVINGS FROM INCOME (% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q33. Are you currently able to save or invest part of your monthly income?

CC EB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia
Yes	13	3	12	35	14	12	12
No	86	96	85	60	81	87	87
DK	2	1	3	6	5	1	2
Total	101	100	100	101	100	100	101
	Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
Yes	15	31	14	9	26	31	9
No	80	68	84	90	71	66	91
DK	4	1	2	1	3	2	0
Total	99	100	100	100	100	99	100

TABLE 7.7B SAVINGS FROM INCOME (% BY DEMOGRAPHICS)

Question: Q33. Are you currently able to save or invest part of your monthly income?

CC EB 2002.1	TOTAL	SEX		AGE			
	CC 13 AVERAGE	male	female	15-24	25-39	40-54	55+
N=	14163	6459	7704	2443	3730	3653	4252
Yes	13	14	12	15	15	10	10
No	86	85	87	80	84	89	89
DK	2	2	2	5	1	0	1
Total	101	101	101	100	100	99	100
	MAIN ECONOMIC ACTIVITY						
CC EB 2002.1	Self employed	Managers	Other white collars	Manual workers	House persons	Un-employed	Retired
N=	1052	1312	1164	2429	1559	1514	3777
Yes	18	34	22	13	9	4	9
No	82	65	77	86	91	95	91
DK	1	1	1	1	0	0	1
Total	101	100	100	100	100	99	101
	TERMINAL EDUCATION AGE				SIZE OF LOCALITY		
CC EB 2002.1	below 15	16-19	20 and above	still studying	rural area or village	small or middle sized town	large town
N=	2967	5868	3351	1422	5002	4646	4489
Yes	7	13	23	16	11	15	13
No	92	86	76	74	88	83	85
DK	0	1	1	10	1	2	2
Total	99	100	100	100	100	100	100

TABLE 7.8A IMPROVING THE STANDARD OF LIVING (% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q34.A Thinking about improving your standard of living. Please tell me which of the following applies to you?

(SHOW CARD - READ OUT - ONE ANSWER ONLY)

1. I am currently trying to improve my standard of living (**Trying to improve SoL**)
2. I plan to try to improve my standard of living (**Plan to try to improve SoL**)
3. I cannot do anything to improve my standard of living (**Can not improve SoL**)
4. It is not a priority for me to improve my standard of living (**Not a priority to improve SoL**)
5. There is no need for me to improve my standard of living (**No need to improve SoL**)

CC EB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia
Trying to improve SoL	22	18	23	20	20	29	21
Plan to try to improve SoL	19	16	18	16	18	15	25
Can not improve SoL	44	59	29	35	42	46	40
Not a priority to improve SoL	5	2	7	11	7	4	6
No need to improve SoL	6	3	21	12	7	4	5
DK/NA	3	3	2	6	6	3	3
Total	99	101	100	100	100	101	100
	Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
Trying to improve SoL	22	14	16	29	20	18	24
Plan to try to improve SoL	20	16	18	16	22	25	23
Can not improve SoL	44	31	48	42	38	28	44
Not a priority to improve SoL	4	13	8	5	7	8	3
No need to improve SoL	7	25	8	2	9	17	4
DK/NA	5	1	2	7	5	5	2
Total	102	100	100	101	101	101	100

TABLE 7.8B IMPROVING THE STANDARD OF LIVING (% BY DEMOGRAPHICS)

Question: Q34.A Thinking about improving your standard of living. Please tell me which of the following applies to you?

(SHOW CARD - READ OUT - ONE ANSWER ONLY)

1. I am currently trying to improve my standard of living (**Trying to improve SoL**)
2. I plan to try to improve my standard of living (**Plan to try to improve SoL**)
3. I cannot do anything to improve my standard of living (**Can not improve SoL**)
4. It is not a priority for me to improve my standard of living (**Not a priority to improve SoL**)
5. There is no need for me to improve my standard of living (**No need to improve SoL**)

CC EB 2002.1	TOTAL	SEX		AGE			
	CC 13 AVERAGE	male	female	15-24	25-39	40-54	55+
N=	14163	6459	7704	2443	3730	3653	4252
Trying to improve SoL	22	26	19	27	32	23	7
Plan to try to improve SoL	19	22	17	31	25	16	5
Can not improve SoL	44	39	50	30	33	48	67
Not a priority to improve SoL	5	5	5	4	4	5	6
No need to improve SoL	6	5	6	4	3	5	10
DK/NA	3	3	4	3	3	3	5
Total	99	100	101	99	100	100	100
	MAIN ECONOMIC ACTIVITY						
CC EB 2002.1	Self employed	Managers	Other white collars	Manual workers	House persons	Un-employed	Retired
N=	1052	1312	1164	2429	1559	1514	3777
Trying to improve SoL	33	33	28	30	19	33	7
Plan to try to improve SoL	23	21	27	22	16	27	5
Can not improve SoL	32	24	29	38	52	35	68
Not a priority to improve SoL	5	10	8	4	3	2	7
No need to improve SoL	6	9	5	3	6	1	9
DK/NA	2	2	3	3	3	2	5
Total	101	99	100	100	99	100	101
	TERMINAL EDUCATION AGE				SIZE OF LOCALITY		
CC EB 2002.1	below 15	16-19	20 and above	still studying	rural area or village	small or middle sized town	large town
N=	2967	5868	3351	1422	5002	4646	4489
Trying to improve SoL	19	26	28	20	23	22	22
Plan to try to improve SoL	13	21	21	33	19	19	21
Can not improve SoL	55	41	34	29	46	44	43
Not a priority to improve SoL	3	5	8	7	4	6	5
No need to improve SoL	6	5	7	6	5	6	6
DK/NA	3	3	2	5	3	4	3
Total	99	101	100	100	100	101	100

TABLE 7.9 ACTIONS TAKEN FOR IMPROVING THE STANDARD OF LIVING
(% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q34B Which of the following are you doing to improve your current standard of living?

(SHOW CARD - READ OUT - SEVERAL ANSWERS POSSIBLE)

1. I had no job and I have just found one / I have no job I am looking for one (**Looking for job**)
2. I have just found a better job / I am looking for a better job (**Looking for a better job**)
3. I have just moved to another area / I am going to move to another area (**Going to move to another area**)
4. I have just gone back to school, university / I am going back to school, university (**Going back to school, university**)
5. I am taking a training course / I am going to take a training course (**Going to take a course**)
6. I am setting up my own business / I am going to set up my own business (**Going to set up business**)
7. I am doing something else / I am going to do something else (spontaneous) (**Something else (spont.)**)
8. DK - No answer

CC EB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia
Looking for job	31	33	20	23	30	19	32
Looking for a better job	19	21	19	28	36	18	29
Going to move to another area	5	7	3	1	15	7	10
Going back to school, university	8	6	6	10	14	9	9
Going to take a course	12	5	16	17	29	19	20
Going to set up business	13	15	13	10	15	13	12
Something else	30	28	34	36	21	38	28
DK/NA	4	3	5	5	2	2	3
	Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
Looking for job	25	32	32	22	23	23	39
Looking for a better job	23	17	24	14	26	20	15
Going to move to another area	5	1	5	4	4	9	4
Going back to school, university	8	7	9	6	11	14	7
Going to take a course	20	11	21	9	14	10	7
Going to set up business	9	5	7	10	9	15	17
Something else	38	38	26	38	34	26	24
DK/NA	7	4	3	4	6	3	4

TABLE 7.10 ACTIONS PLANNED FOR IMPROVING STANDARD OF LIVING
(% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q34C Which of the following are you doing to improve your current standard of living?
(SHOW CARD - READ OUT - SEVERAL ANSWERS POSSIBLE)

1. I have no job and I plan to look for one **(To find a job)**
2. I plan to change jobs to a better one **(To find a better job)**
3. I plan to move to another area **(To move to another area)**
4. I plan to go back to school / university **(To go back to school, university)**
5. I plan to take a training course **(To take a course)**
6. I plan to set up my own business **(To set up business)**
7. I plan to do something else (spontaneous) **(To do something else)**
8. DK - No answer

CC EB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia
To find a job	32	45	15	19	25	14	24
To find a better job	24	22	19	39	51	26	42
To move to another area	10	13	15	9	18	11	14
To go back to school, university	11	9	1	4	17	22	8
To take a course	18	15	13	23	39	18	27
To set up business	20	17	19	14	14	14	13
To do something else	19	17	23	32	10	23	15
DK/NA	4	5	11	8	2	7	1
	Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
To find a job	21	15	41	28	28	20	33
To find a better job	40	21	24	19	26	21	22
To move to another area	9	4	10	4	9	11	10
To go back to school, university	11	6	15	1	14	21	10
To take a course	29	15	23	11	20	16	16
To set up business	12	4	16	18	9	7	26
To do something else	25	32	18	25	23	27	15
DK/NA	3	14	1	8	9	5	3

TABLE 7.11 POSSESSION OF HOUSEHOLD GOODS (% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q35.Do you or anybody in the household possess...?

(SHOW CARD with scale - READ OUT)

CC EB 2002.1 A=yes, I do'; B=no, I do not need'; C=no, I can not afford'	CC 13 AVERAGE			Bulgaria			Cyprus			Czech Republic			Estonia			Hungary			Latvia		
	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C
	TV	97	1	2	96	0	4	100	0		99	1	0	98	1	1	98	1	1	98	0
Video recorder	34	36	29	30	38	32	75	21	4	54	38	8	40	35	25	50	30	20	43	27	29
Satellite antenna or cable	39	32	28	45	26	28	14	71	15	33	53	14	55	29	16	58	26	16	43	26	31
Telephone	77	11	12	79	5	16	99	0	0	74	20	5	79	13	8	73	15	12	73	13	14
Mobile phone	46	30	24	18	37	44	67	28	5	62	29	9	61	25	14	53	31	16	46	27	26
Refrigerator	95	1	4	91	1	8	100			99	1	0	97	1	2	99	1	1	94	1	5
Washing machine	83	4	13	72	3	24	99	0	1	97	3	1	84	7	9	94	3	3	79	4	17
Dish washing machine	10	50	40	1	47	51	40	46	14	13	65	22	3	72	25	2	72	25	2	60	37
Micro waves stove	22	40	38	9	36	54	44	47	9	59	31	11	33	42	24	53	25	22	13	44	43
Hi-fi	35	31	33	15	38	47	58	33	8	43	46	11	37	36	27	30	45	25	20	37	40
One car or van	37	22	41	40	23	37	89	9	2	61	24	15	42	23	34	37	32	31	36	24	39
Two or more cars	4	45	51	1	51	47	55	35	10	8	61	30	5	53	41	4	63	33	5	51	44
PC	16	39	45	5	52	43	34	51	15	29	51	19	26	38	37	21	53	26	16	38	46
Access to Internet	9	48	42	4	57	38	24	62	14	20	61	19	17	44	39	9	64	28	6	48	46
Email address	9	52	38	4	58	37	21	66	12	22	62	16	24	46	31	9	64	27	9	51	39
Second residence	8	40	52	5	44	51	11	54	35	15	59	25	14	48	37	7	50	44	8	52	39
	Lithuania			Malta			Poland			Romania			Slovakia			Slovenia			Turkey		
	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C
TV	99	0	1	99	1	0	99	1	0	92	1	7	99	1	0	98	1	0	96	1	2
Video recorder	34	36	29	81	17	3	58	25	16	16	39	44	47	38	15	62	31	7	16	44	40
Satellite antenna or cable	28	38	33	66	29	4	49	31	20	49	19	32	51	34	15	68	26	6	24	37	38
Telephone	77	13	9	97	3	0	76	14	10	52	15	33	67	25	8	87	10	3	88	5	7
Mobile phone	47	31	22	69	30	2	39	41	20	23	32	44	52	32	15	79	17	4	56	21	24
Refrigerator	96	1	2	100		0	99	0	1	85	2	13	98	1	1	99	0		95	1	4
Washing machine	84	5	11	97	3	0	96	2	2	60	9	31	96	3	1	97	2	1	78	5	17
Dish washing machine	1	68	30	13	81	6	4	64	32	1	47	51	3	69	28	36	51	13	20	32	49
Micro waves stove	27	35	38	39	56	4	22	50	27	5	38	56	50	31	18	22	67	11	14	40	46
Hi-fi	31	31	37	66	32	2	45	31	25	9	38	52	39	43	19	55	35	10	42	22	36
One car or van	54	18	28	69	28	3	49	22	29	28	20	52	45	27	29	80	13	7	25	21	54
Two or more cars	7	56	34	37	57	5	5	49	47	3	37	60	3	53	44	34	47	19	2	36	61
PC	16	37	46	43	50	6	27	36	38	10	37	52	21	48	31	46	41	13	7	34	59
Access to Internet	12	43	43	33	60	7	16	48	36	5	42	51	5	62	33	28	55	16	4	43	53
Email address	13	45	41	31	62	6	15	51	34	7	44	47	7	63	30	28	56	14	4	49	46
Second residence	7	51	41	11	71	18	6	45	49	6	33	61	5	60	35	15	54	30	10	29	61

The difference between "A", "B" and "C", and 100, is the percentage of "don't know" (not shown).

TABLE 8.1 STRENGTH OF SOCIAL SUPPORT NETWORKS (% BY COUNTRY)

Question Q37. If you had any of the following problems, is there anyone you could rely on to help you, from outside your own household?
(READ OUT)

1. If you were feeling depressed (**Feeling depressed**)
2. If you needed help finding a job for yourself or a member of your family (**Need help finding a job**)
3. If you needed to borrow money to pay an urgent bill, like electricity, gas, rent or mortgage (**Need borrow money to pay bill**)

CC EB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia
Feeling depressed	73	67	69	78	71	78	67
Need help finding a job	46	33	56	50	41	57	36
Need borrow money to pay bill	63	63	62	64	69	68	56
	Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
Feeling depressed	61	82	78	68	84	74	70
Need help finding a job	35	44	47	37	41	66	47
Need borrow money to pay bill	51	49	71	62	69	75	57

TABLE 8.2 FORMS OF SOCIAL EXCLUSION (% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q38. Do you agree or disagree with each of the following statements?
(SHOW CARD WITH SCALE - READ OUT ITEMS)

1. I have felt lonely at some time during the last two weeks (**Felt lonely**)
2. I don't feel that the value of what I do is recognized by the people I meet (**Value of work is unrecognised**)
3. It's difficult to have close friends in the area in which I live (**Difficult to have close friends**)
4. I feel left out of society
5. I feel left out of my family
6. I don't feel that I have the chance to play a useful part in society (**No chance to be useful in society**)
7. Some people look down on me because of my income or job situation (**Some people look down on me**)
8. I feel that there is a risk that I could fall into poverty (**Risk of fall into poverty**)
9. I feel that there is a risk that I could never get out of poverty (**Risk of never get out of poverty**)
10. The area in which I live has buildings in a bad state of repair (**Buildings in bad state of repair**)
11. There is a lot of unemployment in the area in which I live (**Lot of unemployment in the area**)
12. There are problems of drug abuse in the area in which I live (**High drug abuse in the area**)
13. The area in which I live has a lot of vandalism and theft (**Lot of vandalism in the area**)
14. There is a lot of violence in the area in which I live (**Lot of violence in the area**)
15. The area in which I live has not got a good reputation (**Bad reputation of the area**)

CC EB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE		Bulgaria		Cyprus		Czech Republic		Estonia		Hungary		Latvia	
	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+
Felt lonely	51	34	62	22	63	30	49	30	50	33	61	22	54	28
Value of work is unrecognised	46	28	32	25	67	18	33	28	56	14	60	12	54	15
Difficult to have close friends	64	20	71	14	63	24	59	16	63	16	55	23	56	22
I feel left out of society	74	12	56	23	87	6	63	12	65	15	67	13	69	15
I feel left out of my family	86	6	91	3	94	3	77	8	86	5	90	3	84	6
No chance to be useful in society	52	23	31	33	77	13	46	19	48	22	57	16	48	26
Some people look down on me	63	18	59	16	83	4	64	11	61	16	69	8	63	18
Risk of fall into poverty	37	39	16	62	60	16	43	28	35	39	45	26	38	35
Risk of never get out of poverty	46	29	26	51	66	15	54	12	50	27	54	23	50	24
Buildings in bad state of repair	40	40	22	58	74	11	50	19	29	55	67	13	34	40
Lot of unemployment in the area	16	65	4	83	73	6	26	36	12	63	36	33	15	55
High drug abuse in the area	55	17	38	17	69	10	30	24	27	39	72	5	32	36
Lot of vandalism in the area	45	31	36	38	81	8	32	33	30	40	56	18	29	36
Lot of violence in the area	56	20	49	17	90	4	49	15	42	25	75	6	47	19
Bad reputation of the area	61	18	63	15	89	4	61	8	56	20	78	7	54	19

The difference between "+" and "-", and 100, is the percentage of "neither agree, nor disagree"; "don't know" and "no answer" (not shown).

TABLE 8.2 FORMS OF SOCIAL EXCLUSION (% BY COUNTRY, CONTINUED)

Question: Q38. Do you agree or disagree with each of the following statements?
(SHOW CARD WITH SCALE - READ OUT ITEMS)

CC EB 2002.1	Lithuania		Malta		Poland		Romania		Slovakia		Slovenia		Turkey	
	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+
Felt lonely	52	24	60	26	64	24	48	28	53	23	58	18	40	49
Value of work is unrecognised	41	22	64	19	57	17	42	21	40	22	68	9	42	43
Difficult to have close friends	64	14	64	18	70	14	61	17	63	14	70	13	64	26
I feel left out of society	56	14	84	8	86	4	62	13	36	39	82	3	82	12
I feel left out of my family	82	7	92	5	91	3	85	3	73	13	89	3	85	10
No chance to be useful in society	59	13	78	9	60	15	43	18	38	23	77	7	52	31
Some people look down on me	55	16	81	8	72	11	51	18	69	8	80	7	61	27
Risk of fall into poverty	21	49	73	11	42	34	30	40	28	40	68	11	37	44
Risk of never get out of poverty	37	30	81	6	52	22	36	32	45	23	78	7	45	35
Buildings in bad state of repair	62	14	75	14	34	48	59	16	47	23	68	11	29	56
Lot of unemployment in the area	17	53	64	9	12	71	21	49	11	68	49	20	11	81
High drug abuse in the area	38	21	52	26	46	18	62	3	34	21	47	25	65	20
Lot of vandalism in the area	26	35	63	17	40	31	59	12	24	39	55	19	47	37
Lot of violence in the area	36	18	78	5	49	19	68	8	37	22	68	8	56	30
Bad reputation of the area	49	15	78	9	62	15	71	9	60	12	80	6	54	29

The difference between "+" and "-", and 100, is the percentage of "neither agree, nor disagree"; "don't know" and "no answer" (not shown).

TABLE 8.3 OPINIONS ABOUT INEQUALITY, GOVERNMENT RESPONSIBILITY
(% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q44. Please tell me to what extent you agree or disagree with each of the following statements.
(SHOW CARD WITH SCALE - READ OUT)

1. In (NATIONALITY) society, the rich get richer and the poor get poorer (**Rich get richer, poor get poorer**)
2. The government should spend more on social welfare (**Government should spend more**)
3. The differences in income in (OUR COUNTRY) are too wide (**Too wide income differences**)
4. The government has to guarantee the same opportunities for everyone (**Equal opportunities**)
5. There is not enough government support for poor or socially excluded people (**Insufficient support for the poor**)
6. It is the responsibility of the government to reduce the differences between rich (**Reduce differences**)

CC EB 2002.1 -: 'somewhat disagree' and 'strongly disagree' combined +: 'strongly agree' and 'somewhat agree' combined	CC 13 AVERAGE		Bulgaria		Cyprus		Czech Republic		Estonia		Hungary		Latvia	
	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+
	Rich get richer, poor get poorer	5	88	1	95	5	87	6	76	4	88	3	90	3
Government should spend more	5	87	2	89	1	95	9	70	3	87	1	88	2	92
Too wide income differences	4	88	1	94	3	88	5	75	1	91	1	94	3	89
Equal opportunities	3	91	1	94	0	99	4	79	2	92	1	95	2	94
Insufficient support for the poor	6	82	1	89	11	76	18	44	3	82	6	73	5	85
Reduce differences	7	80	4	83	4	85	23	45	6	75	3	85	11	75
	Lithuania		Malta		Poland		Romania		Slovakia		Slovenia		Turkey	
	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+
Rich get richer, poor get poorer	2	91	15	70	13	80	2	92	2	92	2	92	4	92
Government should spend more	1	91	3	91	11	79	2	89	3	84	1	91	3	92
Too wide income differences	2	89	10	70	9	82	2	91	2	88	2	92	3	91
Equal opportunities	2	91	3	94	8	86	1	90	1	90	1	97	1	95
Insufficient support for the poor	4	80	12	70	9	81	4	83	7	68	4	83	3	91
Reduce differences	7	76	13	71	11	73	5	78	8	72	4	87	4	90

The difference between "+" and "-", and 100, is the percentage of "neither agree or disagree" and "don't know" (not shown).

TABLE 8.4A WHY PEOPLE IN NEED (% BY COUNTRY)

Question: **Q41 Why in your opinion are there people who live in need? Here are four opinions - which is closest to yours?**
(SHOW CARD - ONE ANSWER ONLY)

1. Because they have been unlucky (**They have been unlucky**)
2. Because of laziness and lack of willpower (**Laziness and lack of willpower**)
3. Because there is much injustice in our society (**Much injustice in our society**)
4. It's an inevitable part of modern progress (**Part of modern progress**)
5. None of these

CC EB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia
They have been unlucky	8	5	22	13	11	8	10
Laziness and lack of willpower	14	7	24	24	10	18	16
Much injustice in our society	57	64	28	28	44	50	51
Part of modern progress	13	19	19	19	31	15	18
None of these	3	2	1	6	2	4	1
DK	5	4	5	11	3	5	4
Total	100	101	99	101	101	100	100
	Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
They have been unlucky	9	22	7	8	13	13	8
Laziness and lack of willpower	8	24	12	18	19	14	11
Much injustice in our society	48	28	51	46	48	42	73
Part of modern progress	27	17	20	13	9	21	6
None of these		8	5	6	4	5	0
DK	8	1	5	9	8	6	1
Total	100	100	100	100	101	101	99

TABLE 8.4B WHY PEOPLE IN NEED (% BY DEMOGRAPHICS)

Question: **Q41 Why in your opinion are there people who live in need? Here are four opinions - which is closest to yours?**
(SHOW CARD - ONE ANSWER ONLY)

1. Because they have been unlucky (**They have been unlucky**)
2. Because of laziness and lack of willpower (**Laziness and lack of willpower**)
3. Because there is much injustice in our society (**Much injustice in our society**)
4. It's an inevitable part of modern progress (**Part of modern progress**)
5. None of these

CC EB 2002.1	TOTAL	SEX		AGE			
	CC 13 AVERAGE	male	female	15-24	25-39	40-54	55+
N=	14163	6459	7704	2443	3730	3653	4252
They have been unlucky	8	8	8	8	9	8	8
Laziness and lack of willpower	14	14	14	13	11	14	18
Much injustice in our society	57	58	56	59	60	58	52
Part of modern progress	13	13	14	14	14	14	12
None of these	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
DK	5	4	5	4	4	4	7
Total	100	100	100	101	101	101	100
	MAIN ECONOMIC ACTIVITY						
CC EB 2002.1	Self employed	Managers	Other white collars	Manual workers	House persons	Un-employed	Retired
N=	1052	1312	1164	2429	1559	1514	3777
They have been unlucky	10	6	9	7	10	10	7
Laziness and lack of willpower	17	13	13	14	12	7	19
Much injustice in our society	56	45	45	58	65	68	51
Part of modern progress	12	26	22	13	8	11	13
None of these	3	7	5	4	2	2	3
DK	3	3	6	4	3	3	7
Total	101	100	100	100	100	101	100
	TERMINAL EDUCATION AGE				SIZE OF LOCALITY		
CC EB 2002.1	below 15	16-19	20 and above	still studying	rural area or village	small or middle sized town	large town
N=	2967	5868	3351	1422	5002	4646	4489
They have been unlucky	9	8	6	8	8	9	8
Laziness and lack of willpower	15	13	14	13	16	14	11
Much injustice in our society	62	56	50	52	59	53	59
Part of modern progress	8	15	21	18	10	17	15
None of these	2	4	6	3	3	3	4
DK	4	5	3	6	5	4	4
Total	100	101	100	100	101	100	101

TABLE 8.5 REASONS THAT EXPLAIN POVERTY (% BY COUNTRY)

Question: **Q42. Here are some reasons, which might explain why people are poor or socially excluded. Which three do you think are the most common?**
(SHOW CARD - READ OUT - MAXIMUM 3 ANSWERS)

CC EB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia
Social welfare cuts	25	26	12	10	21	14	26
Lack of concern with neighbours	3	1	2	1	1	1	5
Sickness	27	33	45	32	19	43	28
Family break-ups	28	17	48	44	20	43	13
Their parents were poor	17	16	21	6	8	13	7
Losing community spirit in society	11	23	8	9	17	7	12
Alcoholism	35	11	14	56	59	55	57
Long-term unemployment	61	85	29	42	65	55	62
They live in a poor area	13	22	3	9	12	4	4
Drug abuse	6	3	12	25	14	7	10
They don't plan for the future	7	6	22	7	6	5	7
Lack of education	26	13	14	11	24	20	28
They are lazy	13	13	32	17	8	17	18
They have too many children	9	4	17	1	2	4	3
They are immigrants	1	1	1	1	6	0	3
They have chosen to be like this	3	3	6	11	7	3	5
DK/Refusal	2	2	2	3	2	1	1
	Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
Social welfare cuts	39	19	23	30	16	18	29
Lack of concern with neighbours	1	2	2	1	0	5	6
Sickness	19	54	41	22	20	35	14
Family break-ups	12	48	23	26	39	28	28
Their parents were poor	13	9	15	17	6	9	22
Losing community spirit in society	13	4	8	9	11	8	15
Alcoholism	58	26	52	34	51	53	16
Long-term unemployment	72	47	67	57	66	47	61
They live in a poor area	3	3	5	23	11	16	18
Drug abuse	9	31	6	3	13	9	3
They don't plan for the future	9	16	6	6	6	10	8
Lack of education	19	13	17	14	10	25	45
They are lazy	8	20	11	20	14	11	9
They have too many children	3	5	7	13	4	3	13
They are immigrants	0	0	0	0	1	1	1
They have chosen to be like this	7	2	3	1	11	3	2
DK/Refusal	3		2	4	2	1	1

TABLE 8.6 RISK OF POVERTY (% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q43. Which of these two statements comes closest to your view?

1. Anyone is at risk of poverty at some point in their lives (**Anyone is at risk of poverty**)
2. The risk of poverty is confined to certain groups of people (**Certain groups of people**)
3. None of these
4. DK

CC EB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia
Anyone is at risk of poverty	57	72	47	47	68	51	62
Certain groups of people	34	23	39	36	26	40	31
None of these	4	1	8	8	3	6	2
DK	5	4	6	9	4	3	4
Total	100	100	100	100	101	100	99
	Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
Anyone is at risk of poverty	71	47	54	52	67	61	59
Certain groups of people	20	31	36	31	26	33	37
None of these	3	17	4	7	3	4	1
DK	5	5	6	10	4	2	3
Total	99	100	100	100	100	100	100

TABLE 8.7 ALTRUISM, GIVEN MONEY (% BY COUNTRY)

Question: **Q39.1 Now thinking about poor or socially excluded people, in the last twelve months, have you done the following at least once a month, less often or have you not done it? Given money or goods to poor or socially excluded people?**
 (READ OUT - SHOW CARD - ONE ANSWER PER ITEM ONLY)

CC EB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia
At least once a month	18	4	19	5	7	10	13
Less often	43	23	54	34	27	45	32
Not done it	38	72	26	58	65	45	54
DK	1	0		3	1	0	1
Total	100	99	99	100	100	100	100
	Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
At least once a month	18	38	24	24	10	11	19
Less often	50	46	41	58	33	48	44
Not done it	29	16	35	16	57	40	37
DK	3	0	1	2	1	1	1
Total	100	100	101	100	101	100	101

TABLE 8.8 ALTRUISM, GIVEN UP SOME TIME FOR HELP (% BY COUNTRY)

Question: **Q39.2 Now thinking about poor or socially excluded people, in the last twelve months, have you done the following at least once a month, less often or have you not done it? Given up some of your time to help poor or socially excluded people?**

(READ OUT - SHOW CARD - ONE ANSWER PER ITEM ONLY)

CC EB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia
At least once a month	9	3	12	4	5	7	8
Less often	26	10	39	11	13	28	17
Not done it	64	86	49	80	81	63	74
DK	2	0		5	2	1	1
Total	101	99	100	100	101	99	100
	Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
At least once a month	5	9	10	12	5	9	10
Less often	20	20	21	41	16	31	29
Not done it	64	71	68	44	78	59	60
DK	10		2	4	1	1	1
Total	99	100	101	101	100	100	100

TABLE 8.9A SATISFACTION WITH SOCIAL SERVICES (% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q26A On a scale from 1 to 10, how satisfied are you with the social services in (OUR COUNTRY)?

(SHOW CARD WITH SCALE)

CC EB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia
Not at all satisfied	25	21	6	3	8	10	14
2	10	18	2	4	7	7	7
3	14	20	5	11	18	14	13
4	11	11	5	10	14	15	12
5	16	12	22	22	24	24	18
6	7	4	14	13	10	9	9
7	5	2	20	12	5	6	6
8	3	1	12	7	3	4	4
9	1	0	3	3	1	2	2
Extremely satisfied	1	0	4	2	1	1	1
DK	7	11	7	14	9	8	14
Total	100	100	100	101	100	100	100
	Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
Not at all satisfied	17	3	17	16	15	7	45
2	9	2	10	9	9	4	10
3	13	6	16	16	16	10	11
4	13	5	13	12	12	8	10
5	17	17	19	16	24	27	10
6	7	15	7	8	9	13	4
7	5	16	3	5	5	13	3
8	3	21	2	5	3	7	2
9	1	8	1	1	1	3	1
Extremely satisfied	0	6	1	1	1	3	2
DK	14	2	11	10	6	6	2
Total	99	101	100	99	101	101	100

TABLE 8.9B SATISFACTION WITH SOCIAL SERVICES (% BY DEMOGRAPHICS)

Question: Q26A On a scale from 1 to 10, how satisfied are you with the social services in (OUR COUNTRY)?

(SHOW CARD WITH SCALE)

CC EB 2002.1	TOTAL	SEX		AGE			
	CC 13 AVERAGE	male	female	15-24	25-39	40-54	55+
N=	14163	6459	7704	2443	3730	3653	4252
Not at all satisfied	25	26	24	26	30	27	17
2	10	10	9	6	10	11	11
3	14	13	14	13	14	14	14
4	11	11	12	12	12	11	11
5	16	16	16	16	15	16	17
6	7	7	6	7	7	6	7
7	5	5	5	6	3	4	5
8	3	3	3	3	2	3	4
9	1	1	1	1	1	1	2
Extremely satisfied	1	1	1	1	1	2	2
DK	7	6	8	8	5	6	11
Total	100	99	99	99	100	101	101
	MAIN ECONOMIC ACTIVITY						
	Self employed	Managers	Other white collars	Manual workers	House persons	Un-employed	Retired
CC EB 2002.1							
N=	1052	1312	1164	2429	1559	1514	3777
Not at all satisfied	29	14	17	24	37	37	17
2	10	10	9	9	9	11	11
3	12	19	19	14	13	11	14
4	10	16	12	13	10	11	11
5	18	19	18	18	12	11	17
6	7	9	9	7	4	5	7
7	5	5	4	4	4	4	4
8	3	2	3	2	3	3	5
9	1	0	1	1	1	0	2
Extremely satisfied	2	1	0	2	2	1	1
DK	4	6	7	6	5	5	11
Total	101	101	99	100	100	99	100
	TERMINAL EDUCATION AGE				SIZE OF LOCALITY		
	below 15	16-19	20 and above	still studying	rural area or village	small or middle sized town	large town
CC EB 2002.1							
N=	2967	5868	3351	1422	5002	4646	4489
Not at all satisfied	34	20	18	16	27	22	25
2	11	10	9	5	9	11	10
3	11	15	18	14	13	13	16
4	9	12	15	14	11	12	12
5	13	19	18	19	16	17	15
6	6	7	8	8	6	7	7
7	4	4	5	7	5	5	4
8	3	4	3	3	4	4	2
9	1	1	0	1	1	1	1
Extremely satisfied	2	1	1	1	2	1	1
DK	7	7	6	12	8	7	7
Total	101	100	101	100	102	100	100

TABLE 8.10 INSTITUTIONS PROVIDING MOST HELP FOR POOR PEOPLE
(% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q40A In your opinion, which of the following currently provide most of the help to poor or socially excluded people in (OUR COUNTRY)?

(SHOW CARD - READ OUT - THREE ANSWERS MAXIMUM)

1. Local/national government housing authorities (**Housing authorities**)
2. Local/national government employment services (**Employment services**)
3. Local/national government social services (**Social services**)
4. Religious institutions
5. Charitable or voluntary organizations (**Voluntary organizations**)
6. Businesses, companies
7. Trade unions
8. Their family
9. The European Union
10. Poor or socially excluded people themselves (**Poor people themselves**)
11. Others
12. DK/NA

CC EB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia
Housing authorities	23	19	38	13	18	23	15
Employment services	20	30	31	27	23	21	22
Social services	44	60	53	57	58	59	65
Religious institutions	35	13	40	35	49	40	49
Voluntary organizations	57	33	62	69	47	59	48
Businesses, companies	11	8	7	6	5	6	6
Trade unions	5	3	3	3	3	2	3
Their family	28	30	31	17	28	26	26
The European Union	4	2	2	2	1	1	2
Poor people themselves	14	12	8	12	20	14	22
Others	1	1	0	3		3	1
DK/NA	8	17	3	8	9	5	2
	Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
Housing authorities	25	26	15	18	9	18	33
Employment services	24	15	18	19	14	22	18
Social services	43	77	60	37	42	42	29
Religious institutions	31	58	44	37	39	31	29
Voluntary organizations	51	70	61	31	66	67	66
Businesses, companies	7	7	6	8	5	3	18
Trade unions	2	6	3	6	1	10	9
Their family	28	21	29	26	26	31	31
The European Union	1	3	1	6	3	3	8
Poor people themselves	38	5	13	9	18	13	15
Others	0	1	1	2	2	1	1
DK/NA	9	1	8	17	10	4	5

**TABLE 8.11 INSTITUTIONS TO PROVIDE MORE HELP FOR POOR PEOPLE
(% BY COUNTRY)**

Question: Q40.B And which of the following do you think should provide most of the help?

(SHOW SAME CARD - READ OUT - THREE ANSWERS MAXIMUM)

1. Local/national government housing authorities (**Housing authorities**)
2. Local/national government employment services (**Employment services**)
3. Local/national government social services (**Social services**)
4. Religious institutions
5. Charitable or voluntary organizations (**Voluntary organizations**)
6. Businesses, companies
7. Trade unions
8. Their family
9. The European Union
10. Poor or socially excluded people themselves (**Poor people themselves**)
11. Others
12. DK/NA

CC EB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia	
Housing authorities	53	46	49	28	40	43	39	
Employment services	54	64	48	49	48	45	43	
Social services	64	73	64	69	76	69	81	
Religious institutions	18	6	46	22	17	20	17	
Voluntary organizations	31	28	32	45	33	35	36	
Businesses, companies	15	16	10	5	11	13	22	
Trade unions	8	5	2	4	9	5	8	
Their family	12	13	12	23	13	22	13	
The European Union	7	4	8	3	5	5	7	
Poor people themselves	5	2	1	13	8	10	2	
Others	0	0	2	1		1	1	
DK/NA	5	11	2	7	9	4	3	
		Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
Housing authorities	56	43	43	51	29	53	71	
Employment services	59	35	44	62	36	58	61	
Social services	64	84	68	58	67	70	60	
Religious institutions	13	45	28	19	23	9	11	
Voluntary organizations	21	44	38	16	41	29	30	
Businesses, companies	11	10	7	14	14	6	24	
Trade unions	4	7	6	8	7	6	11	
Their family	16	8	14	13	23	9	6	
The European Union	5	9	4	8	11	6	9	
Poor people themselves	13	3	5	2	5	3	3	
Others	0	2	0	0	2	0	0	
DK/NA	8	2	6	10	5	2	1	

TABLE 8.12 FINANCIAL RESPONSIBILITY OF DIFFERENT SECTORS
(% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q27.For each of the following areas, please tell me if you think it should be taken care of more by local/national government, by private companies or by associations?

(SHOW CARD WITH SCALE - ONE ANSWER ONLY)

1. Child care
2. Care for old people who no longer can live an independent life (**Care for old people**)
3. Health services
4. Cultural and leisure activities for adults (**Activities for adults**)
5. Cultural and leisure activities for children (**Activities for children**)
6. Education
7. The environment
8. Humanitarian aid
9. Helping disadvantaged people, the socially excluded (**Helping disadvantaged people**)

CC EB 2002.1 A=Local/national government, B=Ngo's and other associations, C=Private companies	CC 13 AVERAGE			Bulgaria			Cyprus			Czech Republic			Estonia			Hungary			Latvia		
	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C
	Child care	74	13	5	92	3	0	86	5	1	79	8	2	86	3	1	80	9	1	88	6
Care for old people	73	19	3	89	7	1	92	5	1	74	17	4	90	5	1	69	24	1	90	8	1
Health services	84	7	5	96	1	1	95	2	2	85	7	4	91	3	2	82	13	1	90	7	2
Activities for adults	43	34	15	58	22	9	53	33	8	22	38	29	37	34	19	34	51	6	44	23	25
Activities for children	47	33	13	59	20	12	53	36	5	23	45	22	49	30	12	38	49	4	52	20	21
Education	86	7	3	96	1	0	98	1	1	87	6	2	95	2	1	87	9	0	92	6	1
The environment	69	19	7	82	10	2	76	16	4	75	16	4	85	8	2	69	18	8	71	18	8
Humanitarian aid	46	37	10	43	41	6	82	12	5	28	56	8	32	47	12	28	54	10	35	44	15
Helping disadvantaged people	62	25	7	74	13	9	89	7	3	52	31	6	77	16	3	58	31	4	77	15	6
	Lithuania			Malta			Poland			Romania			Slovakia			Slovenia			Turkey		
	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C
Child care	75	8	1	88	5	5	76	13	3	65	12	4	77	5	3	83	8	4	71	17	8
Care for old people	77	12	2	86	6	7	73	20	2	63	20	2	76	14	2	76	18	2	73	20	4
Health services	83	6	2	94	2	3	88	5	3	74	8	5	84	4	4	89	4	4	83	8	8
Activities for adults	33	30	19	36	39	21	49	28	17	43	23	16	28	43	17	40	43	11	45	38	14
Activities for children	34	30	18	39	38	18	52	28	13	47	24	13	31	43	15	44	40	10	50	35	12
Education	84	5	1	94	2	4	88	6	3	78	7	2	82	7	4	90	5	3	86	7	6
The environment	68	12	4	81	12	7	71	18	7	58	18	7	67	20	5	70	19	6	68	22	8
Humanitarian aid	30	34	17	74	20	4	41	42	13	35	39	10	26	60	7	51	42	3	65	23	11
Helping disadvantaged people	67	16	7	79	17	2	61	28	6	55	25	5	56	32	5	70	24	2	66	24	9

The difference between "A", "B" and "C", and 100, is the percentage of "don't know" (not shown).

TABLE 9.1 PARTICIPATIONS IN ORGANIZATIONS (% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q45. From the following list, could you tell me in which of these organizations do you actively participate?

(SHOW CARD - READ OUT - SEVERAL ANSWERS POSSIBLE)

1. Social or community organizations or religious organizations involved in charitable activities **(Charities)**
2. Religious or parish organizations not involved in charitable activities **(Religious or parish org.)**
3. Cultural or artistic organizations
4. Trade unions or political parties
5. Human rights movements or organizations
6. Organizations for the protection of nature, animals, the environment **(Environment protecting org.)**
7. Youth organizations (scouts, youth clubs) **(Youth organizations)**
8. Consumer organizations
9. Sports clubs, associations
10. Hobby or special interest clubs/associations (collectors clubs, 'fan-clubs', computer clubs, etc.) **(Hobby clubs/associations)**
11. Other clubs or organizations (spontaneous)
12. No club or organization (spontaneous)
13. DK/NA

CC EB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia
Charities	5	1	9	7	3	4	4
Religious or parish org.	5	1	9	6	5	6	7
Cultural or artistic organizations	5	2	10	13	7	2	6
Trade unions or political parties	5	4	11	8	3	5	4
Human rights movements/org.	2	0	4	2	1	1	1
Environment protecting org.	3	0	3	8	3	3	2
Youth organizations	3	1	5	7	4	3	3
Consumer organizations	1	0	1	3	2	0	1
Sports clubs, associations	7	3	11	21	12	6	10
Hobby clubs/associations	4	5	4	10	11	4	5
Other clubs or organizations	2	1	4	8	3	4	3
No club or organization	67	84	58	48	57	72	66
DK/NA	2	2	3	1	5	2	2

CONT.

TABLE 9.1 PARTICIPATIONS IN ORGANIZATIONS (% BY COUNTRY, CONTINUED)

	Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
Charities	4	10	4	1	9	5	6
Religious or parish org.	6	13	4	10	11	5	3
Cultural or artistic organizations	5	5	4	2	10	8	5
Trade unions or political parties	4	6	4	6	8	10	5
Human rights movements/org.	1	3	1	1	3	1	4
Environment protecting org.	3	3	2	1	6	3	3
Youth organizations	5	4	4	2	5	6	3
Consumer organizations	0	1	0	0	4	0	2
Sports clubs, associations	9	13	6	3	16	15	6
Hobby clubs/associations	5	6	4	2	8	10	3
Other clubs or organizations	2	5	3	1	4	7	1
No club or organization	57	61	53	68	50	43	79
DK/NA	13	1	3	4	4	0	1

TABLE 10.1A UNEMPLOYMENT IN THE LAST FIVE YEARS (% BY COUNTRY, RECODED)

Question: Q46. In the last five years, have you ever been unemployed, or not? (IF YES) How many times have you been unemployed in the last five years?
(IF NEVER: CODE 00) (IF REFUSAL: CODE 98 - IF DK: CODE 99)

CC EB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia
Never	75	64	81	77	75	80	65
1	13	23	9	11	13	14	19
2	3	5	2	3	5	2	5
3	2	1	1	0	2	1	2
4 or more	3	1	4	1	1	1	3
Refusal	2	3	2	8	3	1	5
DK	2	3	0	1	2	1	2
Total	100	100	99	101	101	100	101
	Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
Never	66	92	72	81	73	75	75
1	16	6	16	13	17	12	10
2	6	1	4	2	5	2	4
3	2		2	0	2	0	2
4 or more	0	0	2	0	1	2	6
Refusal	3	0	4	1	0	2	1
DK	7	1	1	2	1	7	2
Total	100	100	101	99	99	100	100

TABLE 10.1B UNEMPLOYMENT IN THE LAST FIVE YEARS (% BY DEMOGRAPHICS, RECODED)

Question: Q46. In the last five years, have you ever been unemployed, or not? (IF YES) How many times have you been unemployed in the last five years?
(IF NEVER: CODE 00) (IF REFUSAL: CODE 98 - IF DK: CODE 99)

CC EB 2002.1	TOTAL	SEX		AGE			
	CC 13 AVERAGE	male	female	15-24	25-39	40-54	55+
N=	14163	6459	7704	2443	3730	3653	4252
Never	75	69	80	76	65	69	90
1	13	14	12	12	18	18	4
2	3	5	2	3	5	4	1
3	2	3	1	1	3	2	0
4 or more	3	5	1	3	5	3	1
Refusal	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
DK	2	2	2	2	2	1	2
Total	100	100	100	99	100	99	100
CC EB 2002.1	MAIN ECONOMIC ACTIVITY						
	Self employed	Managers	Other white collars	Manual workers	House persons	Un-employed	Retired
N=	1052	1312	1164	2429	1559	1514	3777
Never	78	84	78	65	85	23	90
1	7	9	14	17	9	42	5
2	4	2	4	7	1	11	0
3	1	1	1	3	0	7	0
4 or more	5	1	1	5	1	8	0
Refusal	2	4	2	2	1	3	3
DK	2	0	0	2	2	5	1
Total	99	101	100	101	99	99	99
CC EB 2002.1	TERMINAL EDUCATION AGE				SIZE OF LOCALITY		
	below 15	16-19	20 and above	still studying	rural area or village	small or middle sized town	large town
N=	2967	5868	3351	1422	5002	4646	4489
Never	76	67	74	92	73	74	77
1	11	20	14	3	14	13	12
2	3	5	4	0	4	4	3
3	2	2	1	0	1	2	2
4 or more	4	2	2	1	4	2	2
Refusal	2	2	4	3	2	3	3
DK	2	2	1	1	2	2	1
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

TABLE 10.2A TOTAL DURATION OF BEING UNEMPLOYED (% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q47. For how long in total have you been unemployed in the last five years?

CC EB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia
Less than a week	1			0	0	1	1
A week-less than 3 months	7	4	6	16	11	11	13
3 months-less than 6 months	13	8	15	28	15	22	17
6 months-less than 1 year	18	10	29	25	23	27	17
1 year-less than 2 years	21	24	25	19	22	13	17
2 years-less than 3 years	16	17	8	8	12	12	10
3 years or more	25	39	17	4	17	14	25
DK	1				2	0	
Total	102	102	100	100	102	100	100
	Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
Less than a week	3	3	2			2	1
A week-less than 3 months	8	13	6	8	6	9	6
3 months-less than 6 months	11	13	7	14	9	14	14
6 months-less than 1 year	24	28	14	25	22	18	15
1 year-less than 2 years	21	24	20	22	28	14	21
2 years-less than 3 years	12	4	19	19	13	13	15
3 years or more	21	15	30	12	21	29	26
DK	1		2		1	1	1
Total	101	100	100	100	100	100	99

TABLE 10.2B TOTAL DURATION OF BEING UNEMPLOYED (% BY DEMOGRAPHICS)

Question: Q47. For how long in total have you been unemployed in the last five years?

CC EB 2002.1	TOTAL	SEX		AGE			
	CC 13 AVERAGE	male	female	15-24	25-39	40-54	55+
N=	14163	6459	7704	2443	3730	3653	4252
Less than a week	1	1	0	1	1	1	1
A week-less than 3 months	7	7	7	9	7	5	7
3 months-less than 6 months	13	13	12	18	12	10	12
6 months-less than 1 year	18	18	17	22	17	17	12
1 year-less than 2 years	21	21	20	25	21	18	16
2 years-less than 3 years	16	16	15	12	17	16	14
3 years or more	25	22	28	12	24	32	35
DK	1	1	1	1	1	1	3
Total	102	99	100	100	100	100	100
MAIN ECONOMIC ACTIVITY							
CC EB 2002.1	Self employed	Managers	Other white collars	Manual workers	House persons	Un-employed	Retired
N=	1052	1312	1164	2429	1559	1514	3777
Less than a week	5		1	0	0	1	1
A week-less than 3 months	3	26	13	9	4	5	5
3 months-less than 6 months	15	12	23	19	7	9	14
6 months-less than 1 year	16	29	29	21	12	14	20
1 year-less than 2 years	14	15	25	27	19	20	15
2 years-less than 3 years	24	13	6	13	16	18	11
3 years or more	20	5	3	11	41	32	34
DK	3			1	0	1	0
Total	100	100	100	101	99	100	100
TERMINAL EDUCATION AGE				SIZE OF LOCALITY			
CC EB 2002.1	below 15	16-19	20 and above	still studying	rural area or village	small or middle sized town	large town
N=	2967	5868	3351	1422	5002	4646	4489
Less than a week	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
A week-less than 3 months	5	8	9	11	5	8	9
3 months-less than 6 months	14	12	15	12	11	12	17
6 months-less than 1 year	12	19	21	29	14	17	24
1 year-less than 2 years	20	23	18	11	18	25	20
2 years-less than 3 years	14	17	17	12	18	15	13
3 years or more	34	21	19	22	31	22	16
DK	1	1	1	3	1	0	1
Total	101	102	101	101	99	100	101

TABLE 10.3A WILLINGNESS TO WORK (% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q48. Which of these statements comes closest to your personal position?
(SHOW CARD - READ OUT - ONE ANSWER ONLY)

1. I would like a full-time paid job and I am actively looking for one (**I would like a full-time paid job**)
2. I would like a part-time paid job and I am actively looking for one (**I would like a part-time paid job**)
3. I would like a paid job, but I am not actively looking for one at the moment (**Not actively looking for paid job**)
4. I do not want a paid job
5. DK

CC EB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia
I would like a full-time paid job	38	59	15	29	22	32	39
I would like a part-time paid job	6	10	11	6	11	13	12
Not actively looking for paid job	24	17	10	44	42	30	32
I do not want a paid job	25	6	61	10	11	20	4
DK	7	9	4	11	13	5	14
Total	100	101	101	100	99	100	101
	Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
I would like a full-time paid job	43	10	58	35	37	29	34
I would like a part-time paid job	13	5	7	9	6	5	5
Not actively looking for paid job	22	16	24	28	44	44	22
I do not want a paid job	4	52	6	20	5	10	34
DK	18	16	6	9	9	12	6
Total	100	99	101	101	101	100	101

TABLE 10.3B WILLINGNESS TO WORK (% BY DEMOGRAPHICS)

Question: Q48. Which of these statements comes closest to your personal position?
(SHOW CARD - READ OUT - ONE ANSWER ONLY)

1. I would like a full-time paid job and I am actively looking for one (**I would like a full-time paid job**)
2. I would like a part-time paid job and I am actively looking for one (**I would like a part-time paid job**)
3. I would like a paid job, but I am not actively looking for one at the moment (**Not actively looking for paid job**)
4. I do not want a paid job
5. DK

CC EB 2002.1	TOTAL	SEX		AGE			
	CC 13 AVERAGE	male	female	15-24	25-39	40-54	55+
N=	14163	6459	7704	2443	3730	3653	4252
I would like a full-time paid job	38	53	29	35	44	44	13
I would like a part-time paid job	6	8	6	8	6	5	3
Not actively looking for paid job	24	20	26	29	24	19	14
I do not want a paid job	25	12	32	20	22	25	57
DK	7	7	7	7	4	8	13
Total	100	100	100	99	100	101	100
MAIN ECONOMIC ACTIVITY							
CC EB 2002.1	Self employed	Managers	Other white collars	Manual workers	House persons	Un-employed	Retired
N=	1052	1312	1164	2429	1559	1514	3777
I would like a full-time paid job	N.A	N.A	N.A	N.A	23	73	
I would like a part-time paid job	N.A	N.A	N.A	N.A	5	4	16
Not actively looking for paid job	N.A	N.A	N.A	N.A	26	13	9
I do not want a paid job	N.A	N.A	N.A	N.A	40	7	59
DK	N.A	N.A	N.A	N.A	7	3	17
Total	N.A	N.A	N.A	N.A	101	100	101
TERMINAL EDUCATION AGE				SIZE OF LOCALITY			
CC EB 2002.1	below 15	16-19	20 and above	still studying	rural area or village	small or middle sized town	large town
N=	2967	5868	3351	1422	5002	4646	4489
I would like a full-time paid job	37	55	59	16	45	39	28
I would like a part-time paid job	4	7	5	13	5	7	9
Not actively looking for paid job	20	22	22	40	22	24	27
I do not want a paid job	35	11	10	19	21	24	30
DK	4	5	3	12	7	6	7
Total	100	100	99	100	100	100	101

TABLE 10.4 EMPLOYEE NUMBER AT WORKPLACE OF RESPONDENT (% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q49. How many people are employed at your workplace?
(SHOW CARD - READ OUT - ONE ANSWER ONLY)

CC EB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia
I work entirely on my own	17	7	14	8	7	8	7
Less than 10 people	26	24	29	28	36	17	29
10-24 people	13	16	19	19	23	12	23
25-49 people	10	10	15	16	13	15	15
50-99 people	11	11	7	12	10	13	11
100-499 people	11	16	9	10	7	20	9
500 or more	8	8	4	4	2	11	1
DK	4	7	3	2	3	4	5
Total	100	99	100	99	101	100	100
	Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
I work entirely on my own	3	11	12	5	8	8	35
Less than 10 people	23	19	26	19	21	19	30
10-24 people	14	15	15	15	20	10	8
25-49 people	19	13	11	10	14	9	5
50-99 people	17	8	12	10	15	12	7
100-499 people	12	15	9	14	13	20	7
500 or more	5	19	10	13	7	18	6
DK	7	2	5	12	2	4	2
Total	100	102	100	98	100	100	100

TABLE 10.5 INDUSTRIAL SECTOR OF EMPLOYMENT (% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q50. What does the firm or organisation that you currently work for actually make or do?
(WRITE DOWN EXACT REPOSENSE, OPEN ENDED)

CC EB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia
A - Agriculture, Hunting/Forestry	13	5	3	4	6	7	5
B - Fishing	0		1		1	0	1
C - Mining and quarrying	1	1		2	1	1	0
D - Manufacturing	15	22	12	23	17	19	17
E - Electricity, gas/ water supply	2	4	2	1	1	2	2
F - Construction	7	7	14	6	8	8	8
G - Wholesale & retail trade	19	15	15	17	16	12	23
H - Hotels and restaurants	3	4	8	7	3	3	1
I - Transport	7	8	3	6	10	7	7
J - Financial intermediation	2	2	4	3	1	1	1
K - Real estate, renting activity	4	4	0	3	3	4	1
L - Public administration	4	2	12	7	7	7	4
M - Education	8	5	12	10	11	9	11
N - Health and social work	6	9	2	6	7	8	7
O- Social/personal serv. activity	6	12	11	7	9	11	8
P - Household employees	0	1	1				1
Q - Extra-territorial organ.	2	0					
DK	0					0	1
Total	99	101	100	102	101	99	98
	Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
A - Agriculture, Hunting/Forestry	7		15	6	3	6	24
B - Fishing	0		0				1
C - Mining and quarrying			1	4	0	1	0
D - Manufacturing	17	21	16	22	26	33	6
E - Electricity, gas/ water supply	3	8	3	3	2	3	2
F - Construction	7	4	7	6	6	5	7
G - Wholesale & retail trade	22	11	15	18	13	10	27
H - Hotels and restaurants	2	4	1	3	3	3	3
I - Transport	6	7	6	10	4	9	6
J - Financial intermediation	2	7	3	1	2	2	1
K - Real estate, renting activity	1	5	5	4	6	5	5
L - Public administration	6	5	4	8	6	6	1
M - Education	13	11	10	6	7	5	5
N - Health and social work	10	3	8	5	9	4	3
O- Social/personal serv. activity	6	14	5	6	7	7	4
P - Household employees	1	0	0		0		1
Q - Extra-territorial organ.							6
DK					4	1	
Total	103	100	99	102	98	100	102

TABLE 10.6 STATEMENTS ABOUT WORKPLACE (% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q52. How much do you agree or disagree with each of the following statements describing your job? Do you strongly agree, agree, neither agree/nor disagree, disagree or strongly disagree?
(SHOW CARD WITH SCALE)

1. My job requires that I work very hard (**work very hard**)
2. I never seem to have enough time to get everything done in my job (**time pressure**)
3. I often have to work extra time, over and above the formal hours of my job (**work extra time**)
4. I work almost all the time at very high speed (**work at high speed**)
5. I work almost all the time to tight deadlines (**tight deadlines**)
6. Most of the time my work involves short repetitive hand or arm movements (**repetitive movements**)
7. I have a great deal of influence in deciding what tasks I do (**decide about tasks**)
8. I have a great deal of influence in deciding how to do my tasks (**decide how to do the tasks**)
9. I am willing to work harder than I have to in order to help this organisation/company succeed (**willing to work harder**)
10. I find that my values and this organisation's values are very similar (**similar values**)
11. I am proud to be working for this organisation/company (**proud to work here**)
12. I would turn down another job elsewhere with more pay in order to stay with this organisation/company (**would turn down other job**)
13. I am likely to get a better job in this organisation/company in the next three years (**likely promotion**)
14. I am likely to get a better job with another employer in the next three years (**better job somewhere else**)

CCEB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE		Bulgaria		Cyprus		Czech Republic		Estonia		Hungary		Latvia	
	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+
Work very hard	18	57	8	83	16	68	12	50	12	71	7	76	22	57
Time pressure	43	31	43	32	30	47	25	45	46	29	44	32	47	32
Work extra time	39	39	40	45	39	53	33	42	56	25	36	38	41	41
Work at high speed	26	47	26	51	21	59	22	45	35	36	29	47	43	30
Tight deadlines	32	44	38	28	32	43	29	40	40	37	29	48	45	33
Repetitive movements	37	42	28	50	31	63	39	38	44	38	37	43	44	35
Decide about tasks	33	44	44	31	23	65	44	31	37	39	47	32	34	43
Decide how to do the tasks	24	55	31	49	19	69	30	45	27	55	29	53	22	58
Willing to work harder	23	41	20	43	18	66	22	38	30	44	35	31	36	37
Similar values	21	39	18	53	9	65	27	36	27	39	24	40	28	36
Proud to work here	19	43	13	47	9	71	21	38	23	39	17	45	28	43
Would turn down other job	54	17	60	19	41	43	56	18	61	21	61	17	69	16
Likely promotion	44	16	42	20	33	36	48	9	52	14	50	12	45	20
Better job somewhere else	40	17	45	18	50	21	31	21	37	17	51	10	24	31

The difference between "+" and "-", and 100, is the percentage of "neither agree nor disagree", "don't know" and "not applicable" (not shown).

TABLE 10.6 STATEMENTS ABOUT WORKPLACE (% BY COUNTRY, CONTINUED)

Question: Q52. How much do you agree or disagree with each of the following statements describing your job? Do you strongly agree, agree, neither agree/nor disagree, disagree or strongly disagree?
(SHOW CARD WITH SCALE)

	Lithuania		Malta		Poland		Romania		Slovakia		Slovenia		Turkey	
	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+
Work very hard	9	58	9	74	23	51	18	50	16	55	11	68	23	57
Time pressure	45	21	30	44	46	33	31	32	29	35	42	31	53	26
Work extra time	32	40	38	49	41	42	29	45	38	38	38	43	45	32
Work at high speed	22	49	29	48	27	48	22	42	21	45	26	51	28	50
Tight deadlines	29	37	23	54	47	33	33	32	32	35	39	37	20	62
Repetitive movements	28	46	29	61	52	33	28	43	27	51	37	48	31	46
Decide about tasks	42	23	22	58	33	50	27	43	43	31	36	41	24	52
Decide how to do the tasks	28	46	18	64	22	65	22	48	26	49	17	64	21	57
Willing to work harder	22	41	19	62	35	35	13	49	14	53	12	69	18	42
Similar values	23	27	10	63	21	44	12	44	16	47	21	57	23	32
Proud to work here	16	42	3	77	20	44	14	50	12	49	13	64	21	38
Would turn down other job	62	14	31	40	56	19	55	17	60	13	62	17	47	16
Likely promotion	37	23	29	24	55	12	34	14	43	13	37	28	36	20
Better job somewhere else	30	28	42	10	50	15	32	15	33	11	47	13	38	17

The difference between "+" and "-", and 100, is the percentage of "neither agree nor disagree", "don't know" and "not applicable" (not shown).

TABLE 10.7 CONSEQUENCES OF EXCESSIVE WORKLOADS (% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q53. How often do you...?
(SHOW CARD WITH SCALE)

1. Find your work stressful
2. Work in dangerous or unhealthy conditions (**work in unhealthy conditions**)
3. Have headaches as a result of work (**headaches as a result of work**)
4. Have muscular pains as a result of work (**muscular pains**)
5. Get verbally abused for example by clients, patients or pupils (**verbally abused at work**)
6. Come home from work exhausted (**exhausted after work**)
7. Keep worrying about job problems after you leave work (**keep worrying about job problems**)
8. Find it difficult to unwind at the end of the workday (**difficult to unwind**)
9. Find your job prevents you from giving the time you want to your partner or family (**job takes time away from family**)
10. Feel too tired after work to enjoy the things you would like to do at home (**tired to enjoy activities**)
11. Feel too tired after work to go out with friends (**tired to go out with friends**)
12. Find that your partner/family gets fed up with the pressure of your job (**family gets fed up with the job**)

CCEB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE		Bulgaria		Cyprus		Czech Republic		Estonia		Hungary		Latvia	
	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+
Find your work stressful	36	24	32	33	46	24	32	22	30	26	39	20	30	25
Work in unhealthy conditions	25	51	33	44	26	58	15	59	24	56	23	56	23	46
Headaches as a result of work	20	45	17	49	25	50	16	39	14	56	11	72	11	52
Muscular pains	24	45	22	46	33	44	15	52	19	52	20	60	20	48
Verbally abused at work	9	66	8	72	5	89	7	58	9	67	3	83	9	66
Exhausted after work	38	22	42	22	36	31	27	23	29	34	39	28	38	23
Keep worrying about job problems	27	39	28	43	29	48	18	46	27	42	28	43	21	43
Difficult to unwind	26	40	31	35	21	42	18	44	15	53	20	50	17	48
Job takes time away from family	23	45	20	46	16	47	15	45	23	46	34	42	18	48
Tired to enjoy activities	24	41	30	38	25	35	13	50	25	36	28	36	22	36
Tired to go out with friends	23	42	27	42	23	43	13	52	21	39	28	40	20	42
Family gets fed up with the job	13	56	13	51	6	70	9	54	10	59	13	51	11	55

The difference between "+" and "-", and 100, is the percentage of "sometimes", "don't know" and "not applicable" (not shown).

TABLE 10.7 CONSEQUENCES OF EXCESSIVE WORKLOADS
(% BY COUNTRY, CONTINUED)

Question: Q53. How often do you...?
(SHOW CARD WITH SCALE)

	Lithuania		Malta		Poland		Romania		Slovakia		Slovenia		Turkey	
	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+
Find your work stressful	20	36	38	21	37	23	37	18	33	20	32	27	38	27
Work in unhealthy conditions	20	46	18	65	27	47	25	47	22	55	20	61	25	50
Headaches as a result of work	13	47	15	59	22	44	18	42	15	57	8	65	26	37
Muscular pains	13	51	21	48	28	41	16	50	15	56	14	60	31	36
Verbally abused at work	9	53	4	80	14	58	4	65	7	67	9	67	11	69
Exhausted after work	45	13	30	27	39	19	32	21	35	22	34	22	43	24
Keep worrying about job problems	30	25	24	44	33	35	22	38	21	39	13	58	29	39
Difficult to unwind	14	39	18	52	30	35	19	38	15	52	18	62	32	36
Job takes time away from family	21	39	15	56	23	45	19	42	19	46	15	54	26	46
Tired to enjoy activities	25	33	10	45	24	40	19	36	20	41	12	58	30	44
Tired to go out with friends	22	35	15	51	23	40	20	33	15	44	10	61	28	43
Family gets fed up with the job	7	50	5	74	12	55	8	59	14	43	7	71	16	60

The difference between "+" and "-", and 100, is the percentage of "sometimes", "don't know" and "not applicable" (not shown).

TABLE 11.1A MOBILITY IN THE LAST TEN YEARS (% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q54. Have you moved in the last ten years?

CC EB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia
Yes	29	18	25	20	36	33	32
No	71	82	75	78	64	67	68
DK/RF	0	0		2	0	0	0
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
	Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
Yes	33	20	22	21	22	24	38
No	66	80	77	79	77	76	62
DK/RF	1		0	0	0	0	0
Total	100	100	99	100	99	100	100

TABLE 11.1B MOBILITY IN THE LAST TEN YEARS (% BY DEMOGRAPHICS)

Question: Q54. Have you moved in the last ten years?

CCEB 2002.1	TOTAL	SEX		AGE			
	CC 13 AVERAGE	male	female	15-24	25-39	40-54	55+
N=	14163	6459	7704	2443	3730	3653	4252
Yes	29	28	29	34	46	22	10
No	71	72	71	66	53	77	90
DK	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
Total	100	100	100	101	99	99	100
CC EB 2002.1	MAIN ECONOMIC ACTIVITY						
	Self employed	Managers	Other white collars	Manual workers	House persons	Un-employed	Retired
N=	1052	1312	1164	2429	1559	1514	3777
Yes	25	40	36	33	39	34	11
No	74	59	63	66	61	66	89
DK	1	0	0	1	0	0	0
Total	100	99	99	100	100	100	100
CCEB 2002.1	TERMINAL EDUCATION AGE				SIZE OF LOCALITY		
	below 15	16-19	20 and above	still studying	rural area or village	small or middle sized town	large town
N=	2967	5868	3351	1422	5002	4646	4489
Yes	26	28	36	32	21	29	38
No	74	72	64	67	79	70	61
DK	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
Total	100	100	100	100	100	99	100

TABLE 11.2 FREQUENCY OF MOBILITY (% BY COUNTRY, RECODED)

Question: Q55. How many times?

(INT. WRITE DOWN NUMBER OF TIMES, IF RESPONDENTS DOESN'T KNOW OR REMEMBER, WRITE DOWN '99')

CC EB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia
1	60	74	66	77	61	60	70
2	18	13	18	15	21	20	14
3	9	6	11	3	10	11	7
4	6	4	3	2	3	3	4
5 or more	6	2	1	0	4	5	3
Refusal	0			1	1		0
DK	1			1	1		2
Total	100	99	99	99	101	99	100
	Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
1	69	89	68	76	81	74	47
2	16	7	16	17	10	14	20
3	8	3	6	2	4	5	13
4	3	1	5	1	1	3	10
5 or more	2	1	4	1	3	3	9
Refusal	1		0	0		0	
DK	1		0	2	1	1	0
Total	100	101	99	99	100	100	99

TABLE 11.3 DIRECTIONS OF MOBILITY (% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q56. In the last ten years, have you ...

1. moved once or more within the same city, town or village (**Moved within the same city/town**)
2. moved to another city, town or village once or more within the same region (**Moved within the same region**)
3. moved to another region once or more within the same country (**Moved within the same country**)
4. moved to another country once or more within Europe (**Moved within Europe**)
5. Lived in a country outside Europe (**Lived outside Europe**)

CC EB 2002.1	AC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia
Moved within the same city/town	69	48	71	54	77	73	82
Moved within the same region	28	37	18	35	25	29	20
Moved within the same country	15	33	13	15	20	16	13
Moved within Europe	2	4	21	1	1	4	3
Lived outside Europe	1	4	5	1	1	0	1
	Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
Moved within the same city/town	69	58	63	62	75	55	73
Moved within the same region	29	30	32	31	20	36	24
Moved within the same country	13	14	14	8	8	9	15
Moved within Europe	9	2	2	0	2	6	0
Lived outside Europe	2	6	1	0	1	1	0

TABLE 11.4 REASON OF MOST RECENT MOVE (% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q57. Why did you make your most recent move?
(SHOW CARD - READ OUT - SEVERAL ANSWERS POSSIBLE)

1. You were not satisfied with your current home (**Not satisfied with current home**)
2. You did not like people in your area (**Not like people in the area**)
3. For work reasons
4. For family/private reasons
5. For financial reasons
6. Other reasons (spontaneous)
7. DK/ No answer

CC EB 2002.1	AC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia
Not satisfied with current home	26	20	21	27	31	19	30
Not like people in the area	6	3	2	3	4	3	4
For work reasons	19	15	21	15	11	7	14
For family/private reasons	41	48	50	63	56	57	47
For financial reasons	26	23	7	11	18	18	24
Other reasons (spontaneous)	12	13	14	10	7	15	14
DK/ No answer	1	1		5	0	1	0
	Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
Not satisfied with current home	28	30	26	19	17	17	29
Not like people in the area	3	8	4	3	1	4	9
For work reasons	10	5	14	10	8	10	27
For family/private reasons	52	38	54	51	77	60	25
For financial reasons	22	7	13	15	10	8	39
Other reasons (spontaneous)	18	35	13	13	11	16	10
DK/ No answer	0		0		0		2

TABLE 11.5 REASON OF IMMOBILITY (% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q58. Why have you not moved?
(SHOW CARD - READ OUT - SEVERAL ANSWERS POSSIBLE)

1. You are satisfied with where you live (**Satisfied with current home**)
2. You considered moving but did not do it for work reasons (**For work reasons**)
3. You considered moving but did not do it for family / personal reasons (**For personal reasons**)
4. You considered moving but did not do it for financial reasons (**For financial reasons**)
5. You considered moving but did not do it for financial reasons (**Other reasons (spontaneous)**)
6. DK/No answer

CC EB 2002.1	AC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia
Satisfied with current home	77	84	93	80	81	77	81
For work reasons	7	3	1	5	5	2	5
For personal reasons	11	9	3	13	10	8	10
For financial reasons	21	10	7	13	22	19	15
Other reasons (spontaneous)	5	6	1	8	3	4	7
DK/No answer	3	2		6	3	2	3
	Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
Satisfied with current home	79	86	74	75	83	86	77
For work reasons	6	0	6	2	5	3	15
For personal reasons	11	6	11	9	12	7	12
For financial reasons	20	11	22	21	18	12	27
Other reasons (spontaneous)	4	5	6	4	2	2	3
DK/No answer	2	0	7	2	2	0	1

TABLE 11.6A MOBILITY IN THE NEXT FIVE YEARS (% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q59. Do you intend to move in the next five years?

CC EB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia
Yes	19	13	12	13	17	19	15
No	73	80	81	72	64	76	71
DK	8	6	7	15	19	5	14
Total	100	99	100	100	100	100	100
	Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
Yes	15	8	16	15	13	17	25
No	62	84	76	77	77	73	69
DK	23	9	8	8	10	9	6
Total	100	101	100	100	100	99	100

TABLE 11.6B MOBILITY IN THE NEXT FIVE YEARS (% BY DEMOGRAPHICS)

Question: Q59. Do you intend to move in the next five years?

	TOTAL	SEX		AGE			
	CC 13 AVERAGE	male	female	15-24	25-39	40-54	55+
CCEB 2002.1							
N=	14163	6459	7704	2443	3730	3653	4252
Yes	19	20	18	33	26	13	4
No	73	71	75	54	63	81	94
DK	8	9	7	13	10	6	3
Total	100	100	100	100	99	100	101
	MAIN ECONOMIC ACTIVITY						
	Self employed	Managers	Other white collars	Manual workers	House persons	Un-employed	Retired
CC EB 2002.1							
N=	1052	1312	1164	2429	1559	1514	3777
Yes	15	26	25	21	19	24	4
No	78	63	60	69	74	68	93
DK	7	11	14	9	7	8	2
Total	100	100	99	99	100	100	99
	TERMINAL EDUCATION AGE				SIZE OF LOCALITY		
	below 15	16-19	20 and above	still studying	rural area or village	small or middle sized town	large town
CCEB 2002.1							
N=	2967	5868	3351	1422	5002	4646	4489
Yes	15	16	23	36	14	18	27
No	81	75	67	48	80	74	63
DK	4	9	9	16	6	8	11
Total	100	100	99	100	100	100	101

TABLE 11.7 DIRECTIONS OF MOBILITY IN THE NEXT FIVE YEARS
(% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q60. In the next five years, do you intend to ...

1. Move within the same city, town or village (**Move within the same city/town**)
2. Move to another city, town or village within the same region (**Move within the same region**)
3. Move to another region within the same country (**Move within the same country**)
4. Move to another country within Europe (**Move within Europe**)
5. Live in a country outside Europe

CC EB 2002.1	AC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia
Move within the same city/town	53	35	59	46	48	61	59
Move within the same region	25	18	18	27	27	21	16
Move within the same country	21	28	12	21	23	11	19
Move within Europe	9	35	19	8	9	4	13
Live in a country outside Europe	3	21	9	6	1	2	4
	Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
Move within the same city/town	54	39	40	52	58	50	60
Move within the same region	20	39	31	17	27	31	25
Move within the same country	14	37	24	12	14	16	25
Move within Europe	16	4	11	19	15	5	3
Live in a country outside Europe	7		2	3	11	3	2

TABLE 11.8 REASON OF INTENDED MOVE IN THE NEXT FIVE YEARS
(% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q61. Why do you think you will move in the next five years?
(SHOW CARD - READ OUT - SEVERAL ANSWERS POSSIBLE)

1. You are not satisfied with your current home (**Not satisfied with current home**)
2. You do not like people in your area (**Not like people in the area**)
3. For work reasons
4. For family/private reasons
5. Other reasons (spontaneous)
6. DK/No answer

CC EB 2002.1	AC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia	
Not satisfied with current home	27	29	21	36	36	33	39	
Not like people in the area	10	7	4	5	5	8	8	
For work reasons	31	9	22	27	22	17	29	
For family/private reasons	32	31	56	67	49	35	49	
For financial reasons	38	51	12	22	36	15	31	
Other reasons (spontaneous)	11	16	25	16	10	18	7	
DK/No answer	1				3	0	0	
		Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
Not satisfied with current home	38	22	26	27	30	14	25	
Not like people in the area	5	8	9	8	3	11	13	
For work reasons	27	4	35	10	26	17	39	
For family/private reasons	39	34	43	36	65	55	21	
For financial reasons	36	6	29	36	23	16	48	
Other reasons (spontaneous)	18	43	11	14	11	18	7	
DK/No answer	1		4			1	1	

TABLE 11.9 REASON OF IMMOBILITY IN THE NEXT FIVE YEARS (% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q62. Why do you think you will not move in the next five years?
(SHOW CARD - READ OUT - SEVERAL ANSWERS POSSIBLE)

1. You are satisfied with where you live (**Satisfied with current home**)
2. For work reasons
3. For family/private reasons
4. For financial reasons
5. Other reasons (spontaneous)
6. DK/No answer

CC EB 2002.1	AC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia
Satisfied with current home	78	82	77	86	77	79	65
For work reasons	14	4	7	14	17	5	12
For family/private reasons	23	25	18	31	31	21	23
For financial reasons	29	20	7	20	30	20	22
Other reasons (spontaneous)	4	4	1	6	7	4	8
DK/No answer	1	1		5	5	2	5
	Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
Satisfied with current home	83	92	76	80	84	91	74
For work reasons	15	3	15	4	10	7	22
For family/private reasons	22	12	33	17	30	20	17
For financial reasons	25	14	35	22	24	11	35
Other reasons (spontaneous)	3	5	3	4	4	2	3
DK/No answer	2		2	1	1	0	0

TABLE 11.10A POTENTIAL MOBILITY IN CASE OF UNEMPLOYMENT (% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q63. Please imagine that you are unemployed. Which of the two statements comes closest to your opinion?

1. I would rather remain in the same region where I live even if I don't find a job (**Remain in the same region**)
2. I would rather move to another region to find a job (**Move to other region to find job**)
3. It depends on the job I could get elsewhere (spontaneous) (**It depends**)
4. DK

CC EB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia
Remain in the same region	36	33	42	25	33	46	38
Move to other region to find job	45	44	24	29	42	30	28
It depends	12	15	23	32	14	16	22
DK	7	7	11	14	10	9	12
Total	100	99	100	100	99	101	100
	Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
Remain in the same region	20	27	38	37	30	29	37
Move to other region to find job	31	37	41	36	46	62	57
It depends	30	16	15	15	13	5	2
DK	19	20	6	12	11	5	4
Total	100	100	100	100	100	101	100

TABLE 11.10B POTENTIAL MOBILITY IN CASE OF UNEMPLOYMENT
(% BY DEMOGRAPHICS)

Question: Q63. Please imagine that you are unemployed. Which of the two statements comes closest to your opinion?

1. I would rather remain in the same region where I live even if I don't find a job (**Remain in the same region**)
2. I would rather move to another region to find a job (**Move to other region to find job**)
3. It depends on the job I could get elsewhere (SPONTANEOUS) (**It depends**)
4. DK

CCEB 2002.1	TOTAL	SEX		AGE			
	CC 13 AVERAGE	male	female	15-24	25-39	40-54	55+
N=	14163	6459	7704	2443	3730	3653	4252
Remain in the same region	36	34	38	23	36	41	43
Move to other region to find job	45	49	41	63	47	40	30
It depends	12	12	12	10	13	13	11
DK	7	6	9	4	4	6	16
Total	100	101	100	100	100	100	100
	MAIN ECONOMIC ACTIVITY						
CC EB 2002.1	Self employed	Managers	Other white collars	Manual workers	House persons	Un-employed	Retired
N=	1052	1312	1164	2429	1559	1514	3777
Remain in the same region	38	25	29	37	43	39	42
Move to other region to find job	47	51	43	44	43	48	31
It depends	12	19	23	14	6	9	11
DK	4	6	5	5	8	4	15
Total	101	101	100	100	100	100	99
	TERMINAL EDUCATION AGE			SIZE OF LOCALITY			
CCEB 2002.1	below 15	16-19	20 and above	still studying	rural area or village	small or middle sized town	large town
N=	2967	5868	3351	1422	5002	4646	4489
Remain in the same region	42	38	29	16	41	33	32
Move to other region to find job	42	39	47	67	41	46	48
It depends	7	16	17	11	11	12	13
DK	9	7	6	5	7	8	7
Total	100	100	99	99	100	99	100

TABLE 11.11A THE EFFECT OF MOVING ON JOB PROSPECTS (% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q64. In the next five years, to what extent do you think that moving to a different geographical location would improve your job prospects?
(SHOW CARD - READ OUT -ONE ANSWER ONLY)

CC EB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia
Very much	8	3	4	5	6	6	4
To some extent	23	16	11	18	22	16	21
Not much	19	15	6	14	17	13	19
Not at all	22	17	55	18	20	21	26
Not relevant for me	18	38	8	25	19	31	15
DK	11	11	16	19	16	13	16
Total	101	100	100	99	100	100	101
	Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
Very much	12	1	5	5	6	8	12
To some extent	18	5	24	15	18	29	29
Not much	12	11	14	16	11	22	27
Not at all	15	35	21	20	19	14	26
Not relevant for me	18	42	22	30	32	12	3
DK	26	6	15	14	14	14	3
Total	101	100	101	100	100	99	100

TABLE 11.11B THE EFFECT OF MOVING ON JOB PROSPECTS
 (% BY DEMOGRAPHICS)

Question: Q64. In the next five years, to what extent do you think that moving to a different geographical location would improve your job prospects?
 (SHOW CARD - READ OUT -ONE ANSWER ONLY)

CCEB 2002.1	TOTAL	SEX		AGE			
	CC 13 AVERAGE	male	female	15-24	25-39	40-54	55+
N=	14163	6459	7704	2443	3730	3653	4252
Very much	8	8	7	14	9	6	2
To some extent	23	26	20	35	29	19	8
Not much	19	20	17	20	23	23	9
Not at all	22	21	23	13	21	28	26
Not relevant for me	18	15	20	7	6	13	46
DK	11	10	12	11	11	12	9
Total	101	100	99	100	99	101	100
CC EB 2002.1	MAIN ECONOMIC ACTIVITY						
	Self employed	Managers	Other white collars	Manual workers	House persons	Un-employed	Retired
N=	1052	1312	1164	2429	1559	1514	3777
Very much	8	6	9	7	8	13	2
To some extent	27	30	25	25	20	30	8
Not much	24	18	21	24	23	23	9
Not at all	24	22	21	22	32	20	23
Not relevant for me	10	13	8	9	7	5	49
DK	6	10	16	14	10	10	9
Total	99	99	100	101	100	101	100
CCEB 2002.1	TERMINAL EDUCATION AGE				SIZE OF LOCALITY		
	below 15	16-19	20 and above	still studying	rural area or village	small or middle sized town	large town
N=	2967	5868	3351	1422	5002	4646	4489
Very much	7	6	8	13	9	7	7
To some extent	19	21	26	39	23	24	22
Not much	21	18	17	17	17	19	22
Not at all	26	23	19	7	23	20	23
Not relevant for me	20	19	20	10	18	20	15
DK	7	13	11	14	11	11	11
Total	100	100	101	100	101	101	100

TABLE 11.12 FACTORS ENCOURAGING MOVING (% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q65. Which, if any, of these would encourage you to move?
(SHOW CARD - READ OUT - MULTIPLE ANSWERS POSSIBLE)

CC EB 2002.1	AC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia
Better career prospects	34	20	27	31	36	15	31
Better financial situation	64	54	33	51	60	42	60
Better social benefits	35	27	14	11	23	10	21
Better public services	29	17	10	12	22	6	11
Better social life	38	33	18	17	23	8	13
Other reasons	6	4	1	19	5	9	8
None of these	24	33	47	29	18	44	23
DK/No answer	4	6	3	7	7	4	6
	Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
Better career prospects	28	21	35	22	34	32	45
Better financial situation	59	27	65	47	60	54	79
Better social benefits	33	9	31	15	27	22	58
Better public services	14	7	23	13	15	14	54
Better social life	17	12	28	23	23	18	66
Other reasons	12	12	4	10	5	13	2
None of these	18	49	24	41	29	18	10
DK/No answer	12	4	5	4	5	4	2

TABLE 11.13A WILLINGNESS TO LIVE IN ANOTHER EUROPEAN COUNTRY
(% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q66. How willing would you be to live in another European country where the language is different from your mother tongue?
(SHOW CARD- ONE ANSWER ONLY)

CC EB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia
Very much	13	9	5	4	7	6	5
To some extent	22	16	19	25	22	16	19
Not much	17	14	8	19	18	13	21
Not at all	45	58	64	48	48	63	51
DK	3	2	3	4	5	2	4
Total	100	99	99	100	100	100	100
	Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
Very much	8	5	8	16	7	9	19
To some extent	24	12	28	19	29	23	19
Not much	20	13	17	11	19	22	20
Not at all	40	68	43	47	40	43	40
DK	8	2	3	6	4	3	1
Total	100	100	99	99	99	100	99

TABLE 11.13B WILLINGNESS TO LIVE IN ANOTHER EUROPEAN COUNTRY
(% BY DEMOGRAPHICS)

Question: Q66. How willing would you be to live in another European country where the language is different from your mother tongue?
(SHOW CARD- ONE ANSWER ONLY)

CCEB 2002.1	TOTAL	SEX		AGE			
	CC 13 AVERAGE	male	female	15-24	25-39	40-54	55+
N=	14163	6459	7704	2443	3730	3653	4252
Very much	13	15	11	23	15	10	4
To some extent	22	25	19	33	27	19	8
Not much	17	18	16	20	21	16	11
Not at all	45	39	52	22	35	50	73
DK	3	3	3	2	2	4	4
Total	100	100	101	100	100	99	100
	MAIN ECONOMIC ACTIVITY						
CC EB 2002.1	Self employed	Managers	Other white collars	Manual workers	House persons	Un-employed	Retired
N=	1052	1312	1164	2429	1559	1514	3777
Very much	13	12	13	13	12	21	4
To some extent	25	29	28	26	15	23	9
Not much	16	28	24	19	16	17	11
Not at all	43	28	31	38	54	35	73
DK	3	4	4	4	3	3	3
Total	100	101	100	100	100	99	100
	TERMINAL EDUCATION AGE				SIZE OF LOCALITY		
CCEB 2002.1	below 15	16-19	20 and above	still studying	rural area or village	small or middle sized town	large town
N=	2967	5868	3351	1422	5002	4646	4489
Very much	12	10	12	22	12	11	15
To some extent	12	22	29	42	17	22	28
Not much	14	19	20	20	16	17	19
Not at all	59	45	36	13	51	47	36
DK	3	4	2	3	4	4	2
Total	100	100	99	100	100	101	100

TABLE 11.14A WILLINGNESS TO LIVE IN AN EU COUNTRY (% BY COUNTRY)

Question: Q67. Do you intend to go to live and work - for a few months or for several years - in a current European Union country in the next five years?

CC EB 2002.1	CC 13 AVERAGE	Bulgaria	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia
Yes	22	16	16	9	14	11	13
No	72	76	78	79	71	86	76
DK	7	8	7	11	15	2	11
Total	101	100	101	99	100	99	100
	Lithuania	Malta	Poland	Romania	Slovakia	Slovenia	Turkey
Yes	12	6	15	23	11	7	33
No	64	89	76	66	80	84	65
DK	23	4	10	11	9	8	1
Total	99	99	101	100	100	99	99

TABLE 11.14B WILLINGNESS TO LIVE IN AN EU COUNTRY (% BY DEMOGRAPHICS)

Question: Q67. Do you intend to go to live and work - for a few months or for several years - in a current European Union country in the next five years?

CCEB 2002.1	TOTAL	SEX		AGE			
	CC 13 AVERAGE	male	female	15-24	25-39	40-54	55+
N=	14163	6459	7704	2443	3730	3653	4252
Yes	22	28	16	38	27	17	5
No	72	65	78	50	66	77	93
DK	7	7	6	11	7	6	2
Total	101	100	100	99	100	100	100
CC EB 2002.1	MAIN ECONOMIC ACTIVITY						
	Self employed	Managers	Other white collars	Manual workers	House persons	Un-employed	Retired
N=	1052	1312	1164	2429	1559	1514	3777
Yes	26	15	22	25	17	37	6
No	69	75	68	67	79	55	92
DK	5	10	11	8	4	8	2
Total	100	100	101	100	100	100	100
CCEB 2002.1	TERMINAL EDUCATION AGE				SIZE OF LOCALITY		
	below 15	16-19	20 and above	still studying	rural area or village	small or middle sized town	large town
N=	2967	5868	3351	1422	5002	4646	4489
Yes	20	19	19	38	21	21	24
No	77	73	72	46	73	73	69
DK	2	8	8	15	7	7	7
Total	99	100	99	99	101	101	100

C. TECHNICAL SPECIFICATIONS

C.1 Co-operating Agencies and Research Executives

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Czech Republic	THE GALLUP ORGANIZATION, CZECH REP. Karoliny Svetle 10/979 11000 Praha	Ms. Alena NEDOMOVA	420-2-2423-2244	420-2-2423-3754
Estonia	SAAR POLL Veetori 4 EE0001 Tallin	Mr. Andrus SAAR	372-6-311-302	372-6-312-486
Hungary	THE GALLUP ORGANIZATION, HUNGARY Fő tér 1., Zichy Kastély H-1033 Budapest	Mr. Gergely HIDEG	371-731-4002	371-727-4936
Latvia	LATVIAN FACTS Brivibas str. 106-2 LV1001 Riga	Mr. Aigars FREIMANIS	370-2-762-790	370-2-227-145
Lithuania	BALTIC SURVEYS Didlauko 47 LT2057 Vilnius	Ms. Rasa ALISAUSKIENE	356-239-683	356-247512
Malta	MISCO 3rd Floor Regency House, Republic street VLT04 Valletta	Mr. Anthony CARABOTT	48-22-622-4132	48-22-622-6716
Poland	THE GALLUP ORGANIZATION, POLAND ul. Krzywickiego 34 02-078 Warszawa	Ms. Hanna IGNACZEWSKA	40-1-210-5016	40-1-211-0366
Romania	THE GALLUP ORGANIZATION, ROMANIA Bd. Nicolae Titulescu Nr. 1, Bl. A7, Sc. 4, Et. 8, Ap. 116-117, Sector 1 78151 Bucuresti	Ms. Olga NICULESCU	421-2-529-31366	421-2-529-31378
Slovakia	FOCUS Grossinglova 37 81000 Bratislava	Ms. Olga GYARFASOVA	386 1 2410072	386-1-421-1970
Slovenia	CATI CENTER Trzaska 2 1000 Ljubljana	Mr. Zenel BATAGELJ	359-2-971-3000	359-2-971-2233
Turkey	KONSENSUS Dikilitas Mah, Ayazmaderesi Cd. Mehmet Plaza No:30/3 Gayrettepe 80260 Istanbul	Mr. Murat SARY	90-212-216-3212	90-212-216-1814

C2. Administrative Regional Units in the Candidate Countries (NUTS II. equivalent)

BULGARIA

Sofia
Varna
Lovech
Montana
Rousse
Bourgas
Plovdiv
Sofia
Haskovo

CYPRUS

CZECH REPUBLIC

Praha
Stredocesky
Jihocesky
Zapadocesky
Severocesky
Vychodocesky
Jihomoravsky
Severomoravsky

ESTONIA

Pohja-Eesti
Kesk-Eesti
Kirde-Eesti
Laane-Eesti
Louna-Eesti

HUNGARY

Kozep-Magyarorszag
Kozep-Dunantul
Nyugat-Dunantul
Del-Dunantul
Eszak-Magyarorszag
Eszak-Alfold
Del-Alfold

LATVIA

Riga
Vidzeme
Kurzeme
Zemgale
Latgale

LITHUANIA

Alytaus
Kauno
Klaipedos
Marijampoles
Panevezio
Siauliu
Taurages
Telsiu
Utenos
Vilniaus

MALTA

POLAND

Podlaskie
Lubelskie
Podkarpackie
Warminsko-Mazurskie
Lubuskie
Opolskie
Malopolskie
Kujawsko-Pomorskie
Todzkie
Zachodnio-Pomorskie
Pomorskie
Wielkopolskie
Dolnoslaskie
Slaskie
Mazowieckie
Swietokrzyskie

ROMANIA

Nord-Est
Sud-Est
Sud
Sud-Vest
Vest
Nord-Vest
Centru
Bucuresti

SLOVAKIA

Bratislavsky
Zapadne Slovensko
Stredne Slovensko
Vychodne Slovensko

SLOVENIA

Pomurska
Podravska
Koroska
Savinjska
Zasavska
Spodnjeopavska
Dolenjska
Osrednjeslovenska
Gorenjska
Notranjsko-Kraska
Goriska
Obalno-Kraska

TURKEY

Mediterranean region
East Anatolian region
Aegean region
South-East Anatolian
region
Central Anatolian region
Black Sea region
Marmara region

C.3 Sample Specifications

Between the 1st of March and the 5th of April 2002, The Gallup Organization Hungary carried out wave 2002.1 of the Candidate Countries Eurobarometer, at the request of the EUROPEAN COMMISSION, Directorate-General Employment and Social Affairs.

The Candidate Countries Eurobarometer 2002.1 covers citizens of each of the countries that are applying for European Union membership aged 15 and over, with the exception of Estonia and Cyprus. In Estonia, the survey covered permanent residents aged 15 and over. In Cyprus, the survey only covers citizens living on the southern part of the island. The basic sample design applied in all Candidate Countries is a multi-stage, random (probability) one. In each country, a number of sampling points were drawn with probability proportional to population size (for a total coverage of the country) and to population density.

For doing so, the points were drawn systematically from each of the "administrative regional units", after stratification by individual unit and type of area. They thus represent the whole territory of the Candidate Countries Region according to the EUROSTAT NUTS 2 (or equivalent) and according to the distribution of the resident population of the respective nationalities in terms of metropolitan, urban and rural areas. In each of the selected sampling points, a starting address was drawn, at random. Further addresses were selected as every Nth address by standard random route procedures, from the initial address. In each household, the respondent was drawn, at random. All interviews were face-to-face in people's home and in the appropriate national language. In countries with significant minorities the respondents had a chance to respond in their mother tongue (in Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania in Russian, and in Romania in Hungarian).

Countries	Institutes	Number of Interviews	Field Work Dates	Population (x 000)
Bulgaria	VITOSHA RESEARCH	1000	10-March – 29-March	8,487
Cyprus	CYMAR MARKET RESEARCH	500	4-March – 26-March	663
Czech Republic	THE GALLUP ORGANIZATION, CZECH REP.	1000	9-March – 2-April	10,229
Estonia	SAAR POLL	1010	8-March – 21-March	1,446
Hungary	THE GALLUP ORGANIZATION, HUNGARY	1020	14-March – 4-April	10,198
Latvia	LATVIAN FACTS LTD.	1000	8-March – 24-March	2,439
Lithuania	BALTIC SURVEYS	1015	7-March – 20-March	3,701
Malta	MISCO	500	5-March – 4-April	379
Poland	THE GALLUP ORGANIZATION, POLAND	2000	8-March – 5-April	38,666
Romania	THE GALLUP ORGANIZATION, ROMANIA	1049	6-March – 28-March	22,546
Slovakia	FOCUS CENTER FOR SOCIAL AND MARKET ANALYSIS	1067	12-March – 2-April	5,391
Slovenia	CATI CENTER	1002	2-March – 29-March	1,986
Turkey	KONSENSUS RESEARCH & CONSULTANCY	2000	1-March – 3-April	56,473
Total number of interviews		14163		162,604

For each country a comparison between the sample and the universe was carried out. The Universe description was derived from population data from national statistics. For all Candidate Countries a weighting procedure, using marginal and intercellular weighting, was carried out, based on this Universe description. As such in all countries, gender, age, region NUTS 2, settlement size, household size, and education level were introduced in the iteration procedure. For international weighting (i.e. CC-13 averages), Gallup applies the official population figures as provided by national statistics. The total population figures for input in this post-weighting procedure are listed above.

The results of the Candidate Countries Eurobarometer studies are reported in the form of tables, datafiles and analyses. Per question a table of results is given with the full question text in English. The results are expressed as a percentage of the total. The results of the Eurobarometer surveys are analysed and made available through the Directorate-General Press and Communication, Opinion Polls of the European Commission, rue de la Loi 200, B-1049 Brussels. The results are published on the Internet server of the European Commission: http://europa.eu.int/comm/public_opinion/. All Eurobarometer datafiles are stored at the "Zentral Archiv" (Universität Köln, Bachemer Strasse, 40, D-50869 Köln-Lindenthal), available through the CESSDA Database <http://www.nsd.uib.no/cessda/europe.html>. They are at the disposal of all institutes members of the European Consortium for Political Research (Essex), of the Inter-University Consortium for Political and Social Research (Michigan) and of all those interested in social science research.

Readers are reminded that survey results are estimations, the accuracy of which, everything being equal, rests upon the sample size and upon the observed percentage. With samples of about 1,000 interviews, the real percentages vary within the following confidence limits (in case of a sample of 1000 people – confidence intervals for N=500 sample are larger; and smaller for a N=2000 sample):

Observed percentages	10% or 90%	20% or 80%	30% or 70%	40% or 60%	50%
Confidence intervals	± 1.9%	± 2.5%	± 2.7%	± 3.0%	± 3.2%

C.4 Definition and weighted distribution of the socio-demographic variables used in cross-tabulations

C.4.1 Gender

The sample consists of the following breakdown by gender:

(1) Men	48 %
(2) Women	52 %

C.4.2 Age bands

On the basis of their age, respondents are grouped into the following four age bands:

(1) Aged 15 -24	22 %
(2) Aged 25 -39	29 %
(3) Aged 40 -54	24 %
(4) Aged 55+	25 %

C.4.3 Terminal education age

Terminal education age represents recoded categories of answers to the following question :

"How old were you when you stopped full-time education?"

Respondents are grouped into the following 4 categories :

(1) respondents who left school at age fifteen or younger	36 %
(2) respondents who left school at ages 16 to 19	36 %
(3) respondents who stayed in school until they were aged 20 or older	16 %
(4) respondents who are still studying	12 %

C.4.4 Main economic activity scale

The main economic activity scale represents recoded answers to the following question:

"What is your current occupation?"

The original question shows the following distribution:

Self – employed

(1) Farmer	4 %
(2) Fisherman	0 %
(3) Professional (lawyer, medical practitioner, accountant, etc.)	1 %
(4) Owner of a shop, craftsman, self -employed person	4 %
(5) Business proprietor, owner (full or partner) of a company	1 %

Employed

(6) Employed professional (employed doctor, lawyer, practitioner, accountant, architect)	2 %
(7) General management, director or top management (managing director, director general, other director)	0 %
(8) Middle management, other management (department head, junior manager, teacher, technician)	4 %
(9) Employed position, working mainly at a desk	4 %
(10) Employed position, not at a desk but travelling (salesman, driver, etc.)	2 %
(11) Employed position, not at a desk, but in a service job (hospital, restaurant, police, fireman, etc.)	3 %
(12) Supervisor	1 %
(13) Skilled manual worker	7 %
(14) Other (unskilled) manual worker, servant	3 %

Non-active

(15) Responsible for ordinary shopping and looking after the home, or without any current occupation, not working	17 %
(16) Student	11 %
(17) Unemployed or temporarily not working	13 %
(18) Retired or unable to work through illness	24 %

The recoded categories and their distribution for the main economic activity scale are as follows:

(1) Self employed = Farmer + Fisherman + Professional (lawyer, medical practitioner, accountant, architect, etc.) + Owner of a shop, craftsman, other self employed person + Business proprietor, owner (full or partner) of a company	9 %
(2) Managers = Employed professional (employed doctor, lawyer, accountant, architect, etc.) + General management, director or top management (managing director, director general, other director) + Middle management, other management (department head, junior manager, teacher, technician)	6 %
(3) Other white collars = Employed position, working mainly at a desk + Employed position, not at a desk but traveling (salesmen, driver, etc.)	6 %
(4) Manual Workers = Employed position, not at a desk, but in a service job (hospital, restaurant, police, fireman, etc) + Supervisor + Skilled manual worker + Other (unskilled) manual worker, servant	15 %
(5) House persons = Responsible for ordinary shopping and looking after the home, or without any current occupation, not working	17 %
(6) Unemployed = Unemployed + temporarily not working	13 %
(7) Retired = Retired + unable to work through illness	24 %
(8) Still studying = Student	11 %

In the tables, the category "Still studying" is displayed as part of the Terminal Education Age variable

C.4.5 Household Income Quartiles

Household income quartiles were created on the basis of answers to the following question :

We also need some information about the net income of this household to be able to analyse the survey results for different types of households. Here is a list of income groups. (SHOW CARD) Please count the total wages and salaries per month of all members of this household; all pensions and social insurance benefits; child allowances and any other income like rents, etc.

Of course, your answer as all other replies in this interview will be treated confidentially and referring back to you or your household will be impossible. Please give me the letter of the income group your household falls into.

Labels are : ++, +, -, --. Respondents falling into the top quartile are labelled ++, respondents belonging to the bottom quartile labelled --. Middle categories are constituted correspondingly, those who refused to answer this question were not classified.

The breakdown of the four categories is as follows:

(1) ++	22 %
(2) +	24 %
(3) -	20 %
(4) --	22 %