



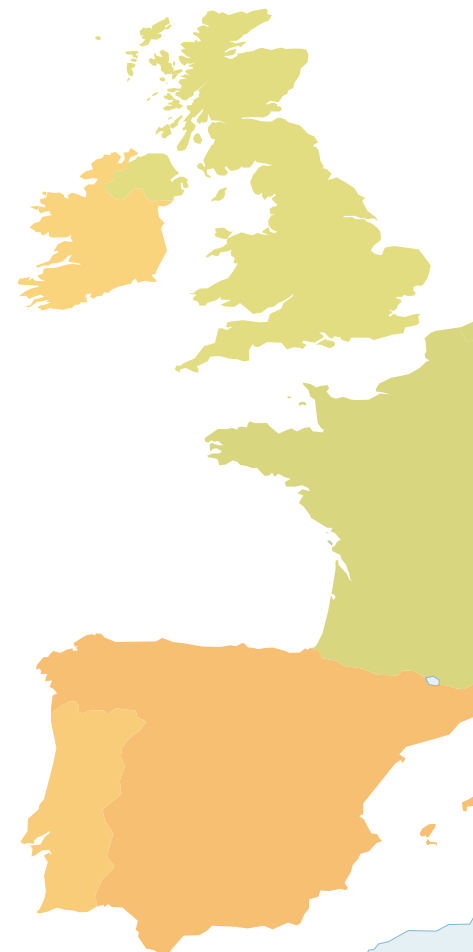
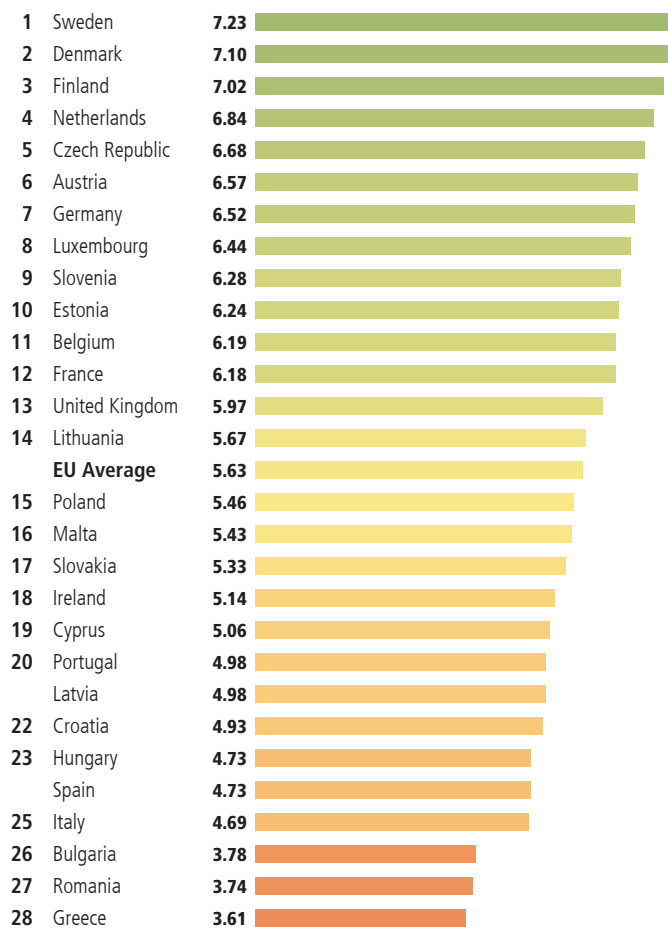
Social Justice in the EU – Index Report 2015

Social Inclusion Monitor Europe

Daniel Schraad-Tischler

Social Justice in the EU

EU Social Justice Index

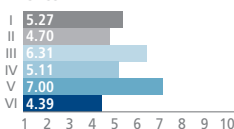


Social Justice Index

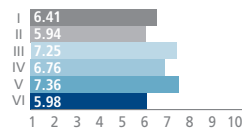


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- II** Equitable education
- III** Labor market access
- IV** Social cohesion and non-discrimination
- V** Health
- VI** Intergenerational justice

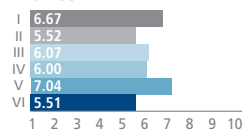
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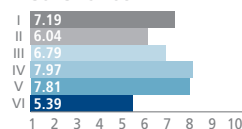
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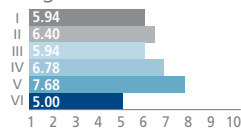
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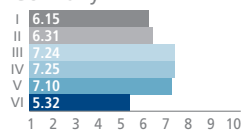
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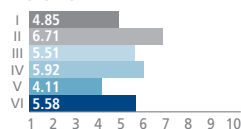
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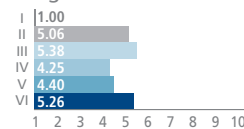
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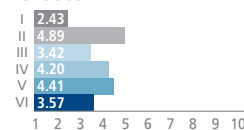
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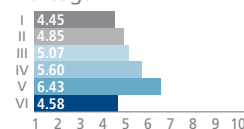
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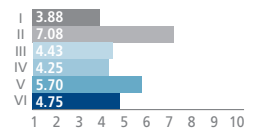
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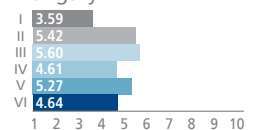
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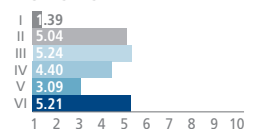
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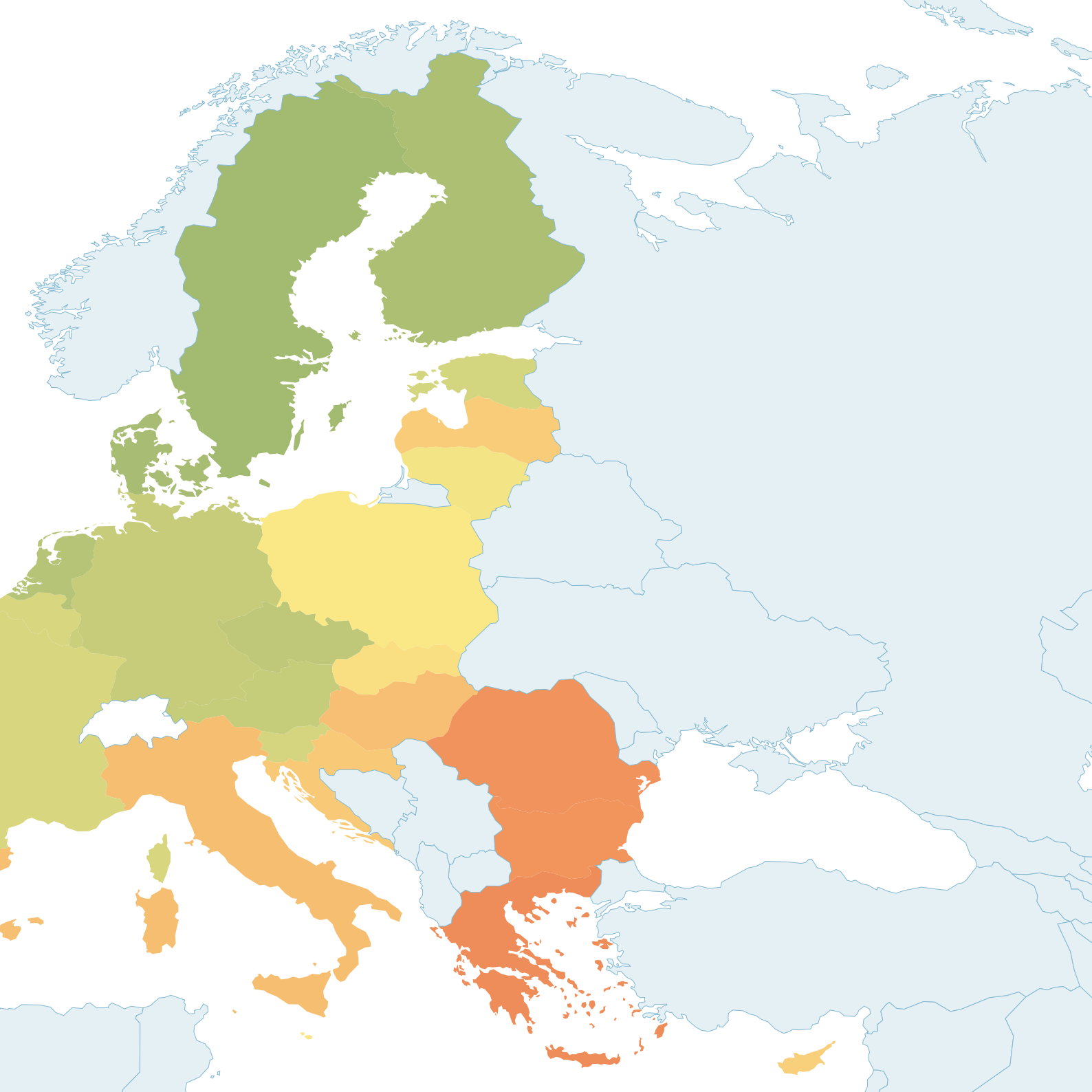
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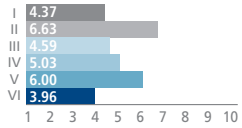
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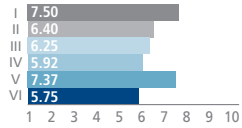
Annotation: Scores on a scale from 1 to 10. Higher Scores = better performance. For further information see "Methodology" (chapter 3). Source: Own calculations.



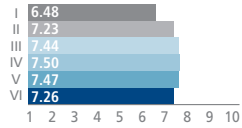
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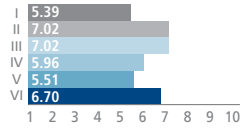
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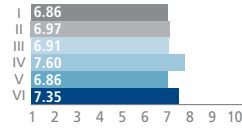
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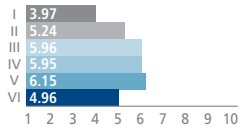
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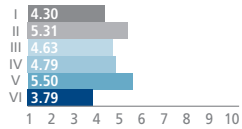
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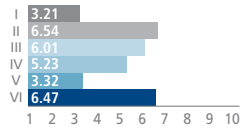
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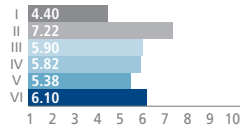
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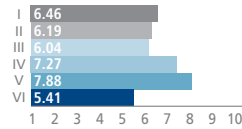
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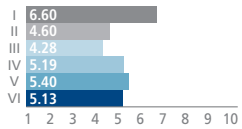
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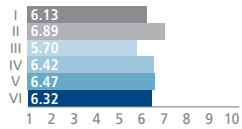
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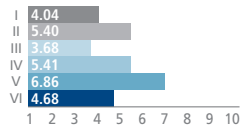
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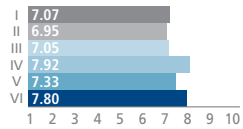
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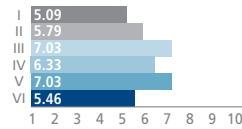
Spain



Sweden



United Kingdom



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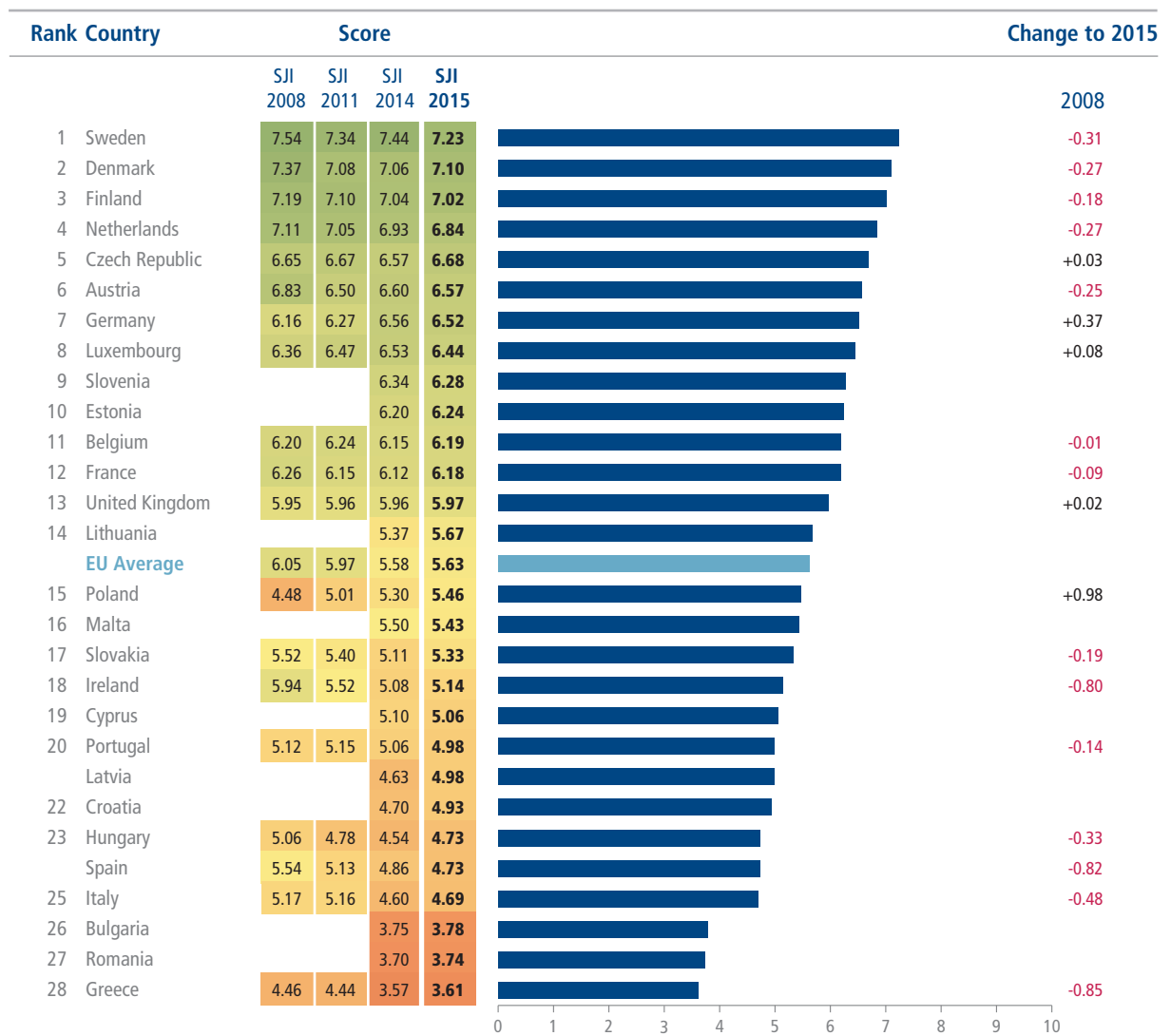
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I. Key findings, in brief

1. Social (in)justice in the EU – The low point seems to have been reached, but no comprehensive turnaround is evident

In the majority of EU countries, the extent of social justice relative to last year's edition of the Social Justice Index (SJI 2014) has at least avoided further deterioration. It appears that for the majority of countries, after several years of decline, the lowest point was reached between 2012 and 2014.

Figure 1: EU Social Justice Index (weighted)



Source: Own calculations.

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and 2014. This is in large part due to slight labor market improvements visible in the majority of countries after 2013. Nevertheless, a genuine and comprehensive turnaround in terms of social justice is not underway. To be sure, a certain stabilization with regard to economic affairs is evident in many countries, at least on the basis of some indicators. This is true even of crisis-battered European countries like Spain, Portugal and Ireland. However, only future SJI editions will show whether social justice in Europe can sustainably stabilize and improve again. Social conditions and participation opportunities for people in most EU countries remain considerably worse than in the pre-crisis period. In no less than 11 countries, among them Spain and Portugal, things have deteriorated once again compared to last year's survey.

Figure 2: SJI Dimensions and Indicators



Source: Own representation.

2. The extent of poverty and social exclusion are a continued cause of concern and the social gap between northern and southern Europe remains enormous

Nearly one-quarter of EU citizens (24.6%) are currently regarded as being at-risk-of poverty or social exclusion – an extremely high and worrisome value. Measured against today's total EU population, this corresponds to approximately 122 million people.

The gap between the northern European countries and the crisis-battered southern European countries remains enormous. In Spain, Portugal and Greece, the share of people threatened by poverty or social exclusion has increased once again in comparison to last year's survey. In Greece, 36 percent of the total population is at-risk-of poverty or social exclusion. In Spain, this figure is above 29 percent. For children and youth, these shares are even higher (for more detail, see below). In Portugal, the poverty rate within the total population has risen to 27.5 percent.

By contrast, Sweden, Denmark, Finland and the Netherlands stand at the top of the overall index. In comparison to the situation in 2007/8, these countries, too, have suffered an overall decline in terms of social justice. However, compared to the much more dramatic developments in southern Europe, these countries remain in a very comfortable position. Thanks to lower poverty rates and above-average results in the area of health, the Czech Republic follows at 5th place, while Austria, despite weaknesses in some areas (particularly education), still shows a high degree of social inclusion. Primarily thanks to its very good labor-market conditions, Germany has retained its 7th-place position, though problems in the areas of education access and intergenerational justice are evident. In addition, income inequality and the risk of poverty and social exclusion have again increased in comparison to last year's study (after a slight decline in the years before).

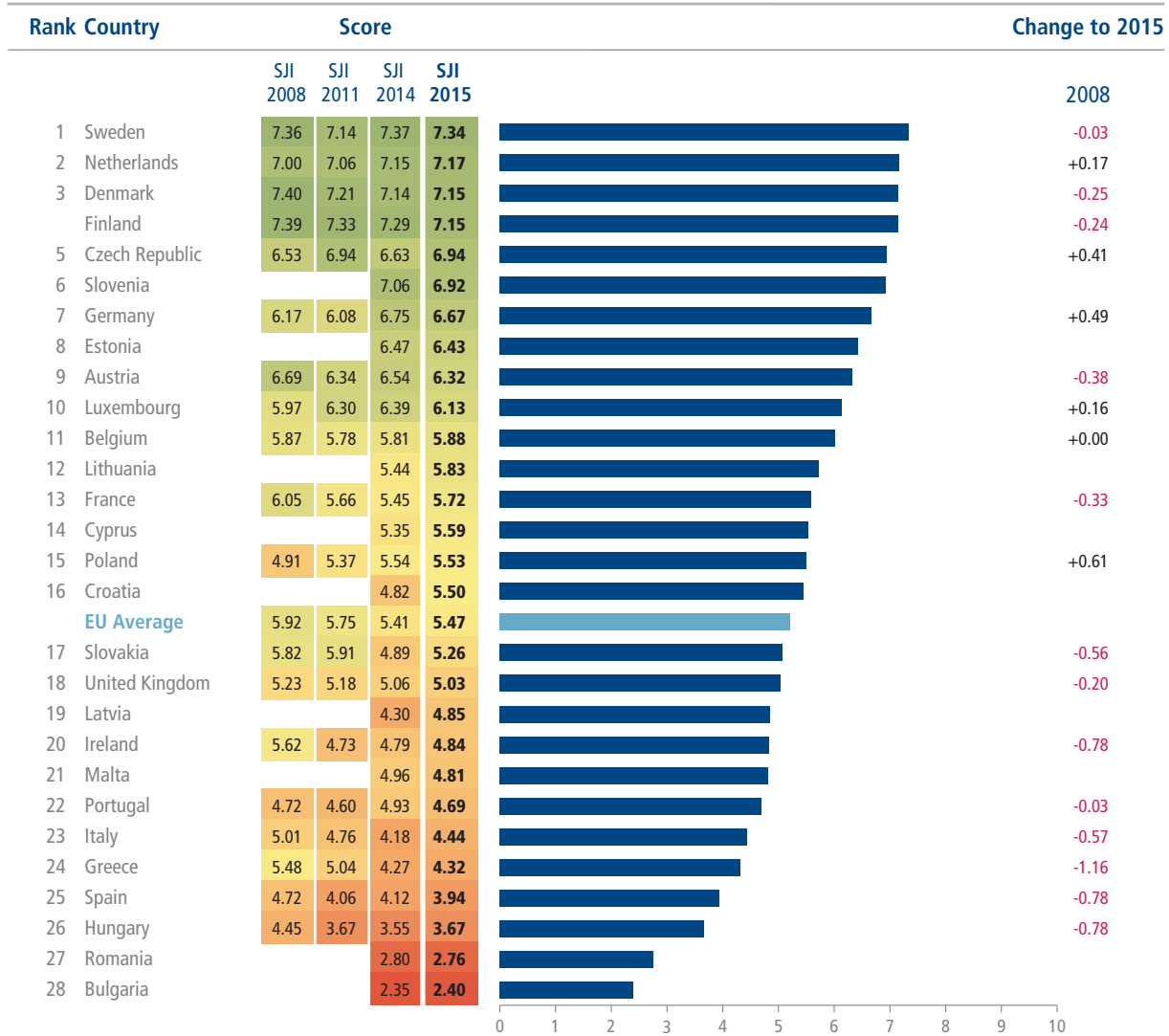
3. Children and young people have been disproportionately affected in recent years – the gap between old and young continues to grow

In the great majority of EU member states, social conditions for children and youth have deteriorated since 2007/8, in some cases significantly.¹ Even compared to last year's survey, which marks the lowest point of developments to date, 13 countries have shown still-further deterioration with regard to life opportunities for young people. The situation particularly in the crisis-torn southern European countries of Portugal, Italy, Greece and Spain remains critical.

¹ Four individual indicators were used to compose the sub-index presented here: At risk of poverty or social exclusion (< 18 years), impact of socioeconomic background on student performance, NEET rate, and the rate of early school leavers. For more details, see the chapter on methodology.



Figure 3: Child and Youth Opportunity



Source: Own calculations.

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Overall, the sub-index measuring the extent to which participation opportunities for children and youth are ensured clearly reflects the division of countries in the overall Social Justice Index. The best performers here are Sweden, the Netherlands, Denmark and Finland. The two top-placing countries have proved able to retain their very good level of performance throughout the crisis years. The Netherlands and several other countries, such as the Czech Republic and Poland, have even improved over this period.

The fact that the risk of poverty among children and youth in some crisis-battered southern European countries has again increased in comparison to last year's survey is very troubling. In Spain, 35.8 percent of children and youth are today at-risk-of poverty and social exclusion, while this rate is 31.7 percent in Portugal. In Greece, this ratio is an alarming 36.7 percent, while the share of children living under conditions of severe material deprivation has more than doubled from 9.7 percent in 2007 to today's 23.2 percent. The figures are also alarming in Hungary: 41.4 percent of children there are regarded as being at-risk-of poverty and social exclusion. This share is higher only in Romania and Bulgaria, although the trend in these countries is on the decline. The poor performance of the United Kingdom is also striking. Here, 32.6 percent of people under the age of 18 are at-risk-of poverty and social exclusion.

EU-wide, 27.9 percent of children and young people are threatened by poverty or social exclusion, which is clearly more than in 2007 (26.4%). However, such EU-wide averages are always difficult to interpret due to the differing population sizes of each country. When we look exclusively at the increase of poverty in the four crisis countries Spain, Greece, Portugal and Italy, then the average poverty rate of these four countries together has risen by more than 5 percentage points: from 28.7 in 2007 to today's 33.8 percent. In absolute numbers, this corresponds to an increase of 1.16 million children in these four countries alone.

Moreover, it is particularly troubling that the trend of a growing gap between generations, already evident in last year's survey, has continued. While the EU-wide share of children at-risk-of poverty or social exclusion has increased since 2007, the share of older people at-risk-of poverty or social exclusion declined in the same period, from 24.4 percent in 2007 to the current 17.8 percent (2013/14). This is in large part due to the fact that in most countries during the crisis, pensions and retirement benefits for older people were not reduced or were not reduced as much as were incomes for the younger population. This was particularly clear in Spain, for example. Here, the share of children and youth at-risk-of poverty and social exclusion has risen to nearly three times the corresponding level among older people.

Additionally, the proportion of children and youth that suffer from so-called severe material deprivation is significantly higher as a cross-EU average than the corresponding share of older people. The difference is more than four percentage points (11.1% as compared to 6.9%). Material deprivation means that the affected people cannot afford fundamental necessities of daily life (e.g., an appropriately heated apartment or a telephone) for financial reasons.

A North-South divide similar to that for the poverty distribution is also evident in the share of young people between 20 and 24 years of age not in school, work, or any kind of vocational training. This so-called NEET rate (not in education, employment or training), with a cross-EU average of 17.8 percent, is still extremely high, although the rate has declined slightly in comparison to last year's survey (18.6%). This indicator is a particularly clear reflection of problems in the transition between the education system and the labor market. Young people who participate neither in the



labor market nor the education system are in a very precarious situation that considerably limits their future participation opportunities. The situation is particularly dramatic in the southern European countries of Italy, Greece, Croatia, Cyprus and Spain. In Spain, around a quarter (24.8%) of young people are so-called NEETs, while in Italy, which brings up the survey's rear on this indicator, the rate is close to one-third (32%). Youth-unemployment rates in these countries are even higher: In Spain and Greece, youth unemployment is still well over 50 percent, and in Italy it has even risen again, to a rate of 42.7 percent. In contrast to the southern European countries, the lowest NEET rates are found in the Netherlands (7.8%), Denmark (8.4%) and Germany (9.5%). Germany is the only country that has substantially improved in comparison to 2008.

The distribution of countries with regard to the indicator measuring the influence of socioeconomic factors on educational performance is less uniform (in the sense of the repeatedly observed North-South gradient). Here, countries such as Finland and Estonia are traditionally very well positioned, as their education systems provide children even from socially disadvantaged family homes with prospects equal to those of children from socially better-off families. Notably, Cyprus and Italy also perform very well in this regard. However, the education quality in Finland and Estonia, as measured by students' Program for International Student Assessment (PISA) results, is significantly higher. These two countries show that equity and quality in the education system can in fact go hand in hand. By contrast, Hungary, France, Bulgaria and Slovakia show the greatest deficiencies with regard to the relationship between social background and educational achievements.

Positive developments can be noted for at least one indicator, as the number of early school leavers has declined across the EU in recent years. However, a few significant discrepancies are evident here: While Croatia, Slovenia, Poland, the Czech Republic and Lithuania all show a rate of under 6 percent, the corresponding values for Malta and Spain are around 20 percent. However, the long-term trend is positive, which means the early school leavers indicator is one of the few EU-2020 indicators for which such a statement can be made. With an EU-wide rate of 11.2 percent, the EU-2020 target of 10 percent is no longer out of reach.

4. With rising debt, aging populations and stagnating investments in the future – Europe must concern itself much more deeply with participation opportunities for children and youth

Overall, the country comparison shows that the EU and its member states must target specific areas in order to sustainably improve life opportunities for children and young people. Intergenerational equity has again worsened in the EU. In addition to the already-mentioned widening gap between young and old with regard to the risk of poverty and exclusion, and the still extremely high youth-unemployment and NEET rates, further increases in debt have exacerbated the injustice between the generations.

In this regard, despite a strong policy focus on budget consolidation, the overall debt of member states has again increased as a cross-EU average. The average level of national debt has risen from 62.5 percent of gross domestic product (GDP) in 2008 to a current level of 87.7 percent. The crisis-battered southern European states of Portugal, Italy and Greece now carry debt loads of between 130 percent (Portugal) and 177 (Greece) percent of their annual economic output, even though budget deficits have been scaled back through the implementation of harsh austerity policies. In Cyprus, the public-debt level more than doubled between 2008 (44.7% of GDP) and 2014 (107.1%). The fiscal burdens for today's young people as well as future generations in these countries are thus immense. At the same time, the average EU level of investment in research and development has not increased in comparison to last year's survey.

In many countries, demographic change is weighing heavily on the financial viability of social-security systems. Given this trend, it is increasingly urgent that pension systems be made fit for the future without losing sight of the need for intergenerational justice. Pension reforms like those carried out during the most recent review period in Germany come clearly at the expense of younger generations. For this reason, Germany is among the countries that have deteriorated most significantly relative to the last survey with respect to intergenerational justice.

5. The EU remains far from achieving a "Social Triple-A" rating. Policymakers need to acknowledge that social justice has a positive effect on growth – what can be done?

When taking office last year, President of the European Commission Jean-Claude Juncker called for Europe to once again achieve an AAA rating in social terms. As the current analysis shows, the EU remains far from this point. Both member-state and the EU-level policymakers must take seriously the fact that more social justice can promote growth. In recent years, a number of studies on this issue (e.g. OECD 2015, Ostry et al. 2014) have found that increasing levels of inequality in incomes and opportunities have a negative impact on long-term economic growth. The EU therefore needs an integrated long-term strategy that supports this potential positive-sum relationship. In the future, it will be important that – as announced by the new Commission – social indicators be given a greater weight in the context of macroeconomic-coordination processes at the European level.

Overall, a multidimensional approach is needed in order to ensure more just conditions for societal participation.² There is not one single recipe that would solve all problems. And given the uniqueness of each country's socioeconomic makeup and their diverse political cultures, governments always have to find context-sensitive solutions. However, the dimensions of our Social Justice Index can help those looking to identify policy areas essential to advancing social justice and facilitating inclusive growth in Europe. Policymakers should target the following areas in developing actionable measures:

² See in this regard also Schraad-Tischler 2015.



- **Poverty prevention:** Tackling child poverty must become a top priority in the EU and every member state. The Nordic countries show that low child poverty levels can be achieved when priorities are set and socially disadvantaged groups receive targeted support through a functioning tax and transfer system (e.g., effective child benefit and allowance schemes, housing benefits). However, combating poverty is not only a question of monetary support, it also depends on sound policies in other areas, such as education and employment.

- **Equitable education:** Investing in early-childhood education is a key component of efforts to level the playing field in this regard. Moreover, integrative school systems in which children are not separated early on according to their performance are a better alternative in terms of learning success and educational justice. Sending the best teachers to socially “problematic” schools and ensuring that students with learning problems receive individual support is also a promising way of improving quality and fairness of education systems. Generally, in order to limit the impact of socioeconomic factors on educational outcomes it is important that economically disadvantaged families receive targeted support to increase their opportunities to invest in education (e.g., reduced fees for child-care, early-childhood education, tertiary education).

- **Labor market access:** Creating incentives for high employment and enhancing upward mobility from non-standard to regular forms of employment are key challenges for almost all EU countries. Governments are well advised to invest in targeted qualification measures for low-skilled people and young people, who often find themselves in non-standard forms of employment. This is all the more important as low-skilled individuals are often also affected by long-term unemployment, which is one of the key drivers of poverty. The fact that there are still more than 12 million people in the EU who have been unemployed for over a year requires decisive political action. Between 2007 and 2014 the number of long-term unemployed doubled accounting for about half of the total number of unemployed.³ With regard to youth unemployment, which is a massive problem not only in the European crisis states, governments must seek to improve vocational training, reduce the number of early school leavers and improve the transition from the education system to the labor market. Often, there is a strong mismatch between labor market demands and the qualifications provided by the education system. Balancing supply and demand on the labor market by providing sufficient mobility of the labor force according to the needs of potential employers is therefore very important. The EU’s recently launched “Youth Employment Initiative” together with the so-called “Youth Guarantee” is certainly a step in the right direction. In this regard, the EU and its member states also need a much more efficient means of reducing the gap between vacant positions (which still exist) and the very high number of unemployed people – not only within a country but across EU countries. A strong cross-border approach (e.g., through the effective cooperation of national employment agencies) is needed. Reducing bureaucracy regarding the mutual recognition of qualifications and creating easier ways to transfer social security entitlements

3 See in this regard http://europa.eu/rapid/press-release_IP-15-5565_en.htm.

to another country is important as well in order to increase labor mobility. Finally: Next to the particularly vulnerable groups of low-skilled individuals and young people, inequalities in access to the labor market also often exist for women, people with a migrant background and elderly people. Measures that enable parents to combine parenting and work, legal provisions that preclude discrimination, efforts to enforce the principle of equal pay for equal work as well as creating incentives for lifelong learning are useful instruments to address such inequalities.

- **Social cohesion and non-discrimination:** Strong economic and social inequalities not only impede sustainable growth, they also have very negative implications for social cohesion. Effective anti-discrimination legislation (and its implementation) is thus one crucial element in reducing inequality of opportunity. Countries such as Ireland, Sweden and the Netherlands are role models in terms of their anti-discrimination policies. Sound integration and immigration policies are also imperative to addressing the common challenge of demographic change. Most EU countries are increasingly economically dependent on immigration to rebalance the negative economic effects of societal aging. Policies fostering the integration of migrants should therefore ensure equal access to the labor market and education, opportunities for family reunion and political participation, the right of long-term residence as well as effective pathways to nationality. If policies are designed well and EU countries act on the basis of solidarity, the current “refugee crisis” can – in the longer run – also turn into a chance for Europe. Finally, the problem of social segregation in cities (for instance in France) is often not only confined to people with an immigrant background, but to socially disadvantaged people more generally. Discriminatory urban zoning laws and practices that make certain neighborhoods increasingly unaffordable for less well-off people should therefore be revised. In this context, governments could also consider establishing specific rent control regulations and social housing programs.
- **Health:** Poor health conditions and health-related inequalities generate high social and economic costs. It is therefore important that health care policies aim at providing high-quality health care for the largest possible share of the population and at the lowest possible cost. These objectives are best achieved in countries such as Luxembourg, Netherlands and Belgium. Governments must strengthen preventive health measures and conditions of access. Doing so can save a lot of money and improve the state of individual health in a society. The latter aspect is important because opportunities for societal and economic participation may be constrained not only through structural injustices in a country’s health care system, but also as a result of individuals’ states of health.
- **Intergenerational justice:** Improving opportunities for families through investments in child-care infrastructure, reducing the level of public debt and increasing the share of renewable energy are important policy measures in terms of greater intergenerational justice. As highlighted above, governments need to pay more attention to the interests of younger generations while pursuing policies that are equally sound for the young and old alike. Generally, the Nordic countries stand out in this regard. When it comes to pro-young and family-friendly

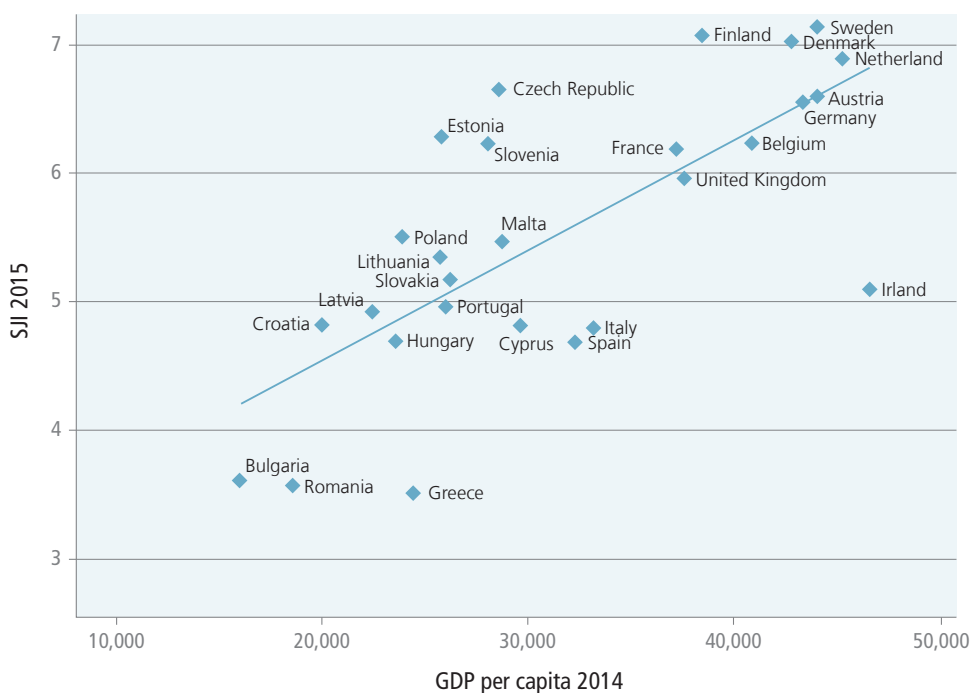


policies, the provision of day care and preschool facilities as well as generous parental-leave schemes is still exemplary in these countries. Their successful approach to combining parenting and the labor market can thus serve as an inspiration for policy reforms in other countries.

Generally, it is important to note that the different dimensions of social justice are strongly inter-related: Weak educational opportunities translate into weaker opportunities on the labor market and – as a consequence – into weaker opportunities to achieve higher incomes. There is a danger of a self-reinforcing process and vicious cycle. This is why the EU member states as well as the European institutions need to adopt a holistic view regarding the causes of social injustice, its impacts and potential political interventions. With regard to the latter aspect, it is interesting to see that it is indeed sound policymaking that matters for achieving greater social justice – and not only economic prosperity. This is underlined by the distribution of countries in the following two graphs:

Figure 4: Social Justice 2015 and GDP per Capita

Unit: SJI Score / GDP per capita, PPP

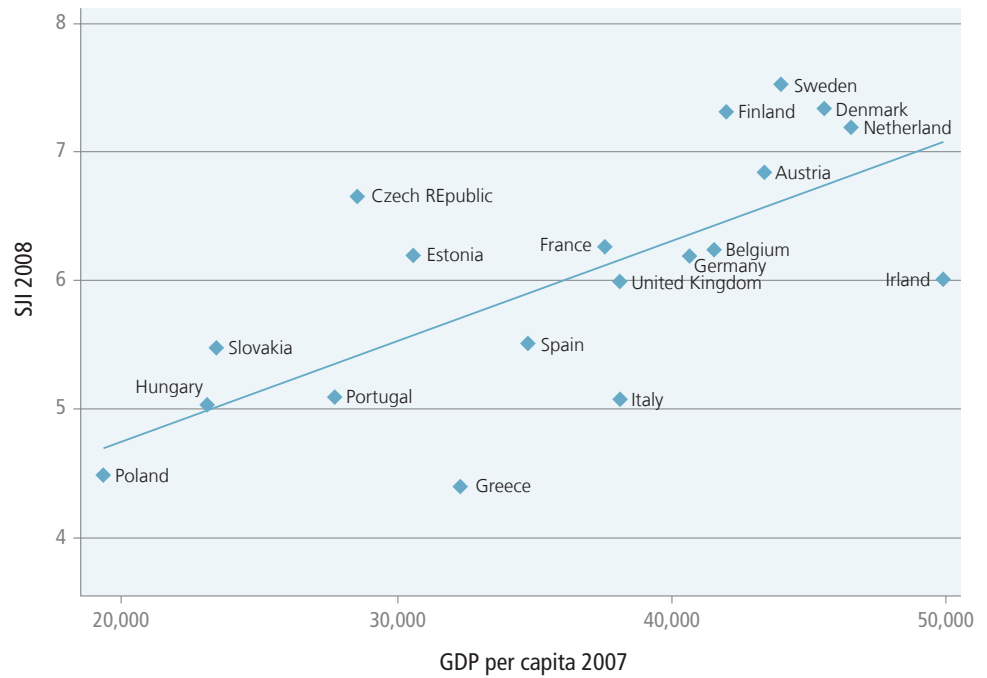


Source: Own calculations.

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Figure 5: Social Justice 2008 and GDP per Capita

Unit: SJI Score / GDP per capita, PPP



Source: Own calculations.

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A closer look reveals that countries such as the Czech Republic, Slovenia and Estonia achieve a comparably high degree of social justice, despite only having average economic performance levels. These countries illustrate the fact that social policy plays a critical role in achieving social justice. Estonia’s good performance is primarily driven by the areas of education and intergenerational justice, while the Czech Republic excels in poverty prevention. By contrast, a country like Ireland has a high GDP per capita but only performs below average in the Social Justice Index.

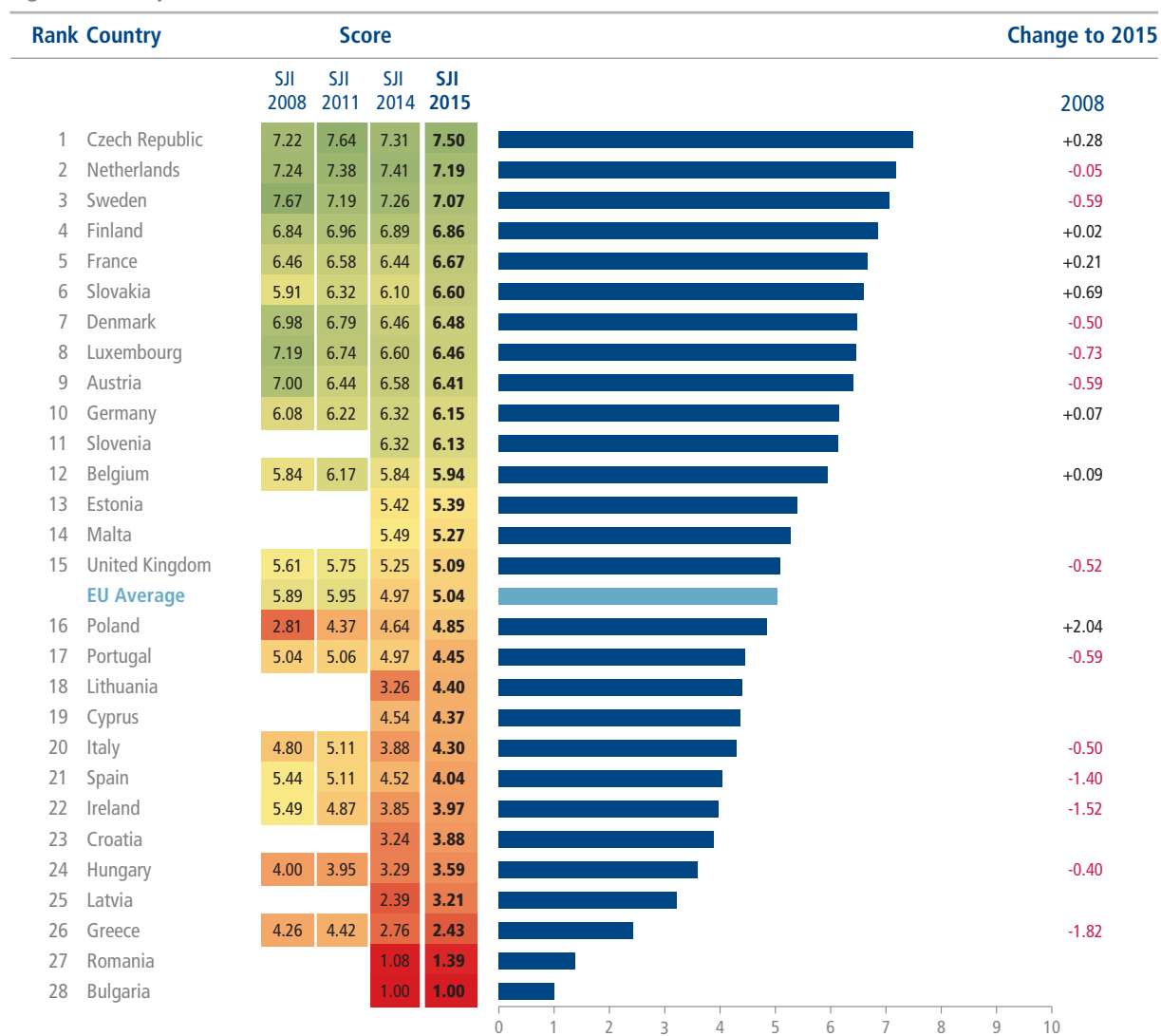


II. Dimensions of social justice: empirical findings 2015

1. Poverty prevention

The most recent Eurostat data suggests that the Czech Republic, the Netherlands, Sweden and Finland are the most successful in terms of preventing poverty, where “only” 14.6 to 17.3 percent of the population is at-risk-of poverty and social exclusion. Compared with other EU member states, these countries show the lowest share of individuals either at-risk-of relative income poverty or

Figure 6: Poverty Prevention



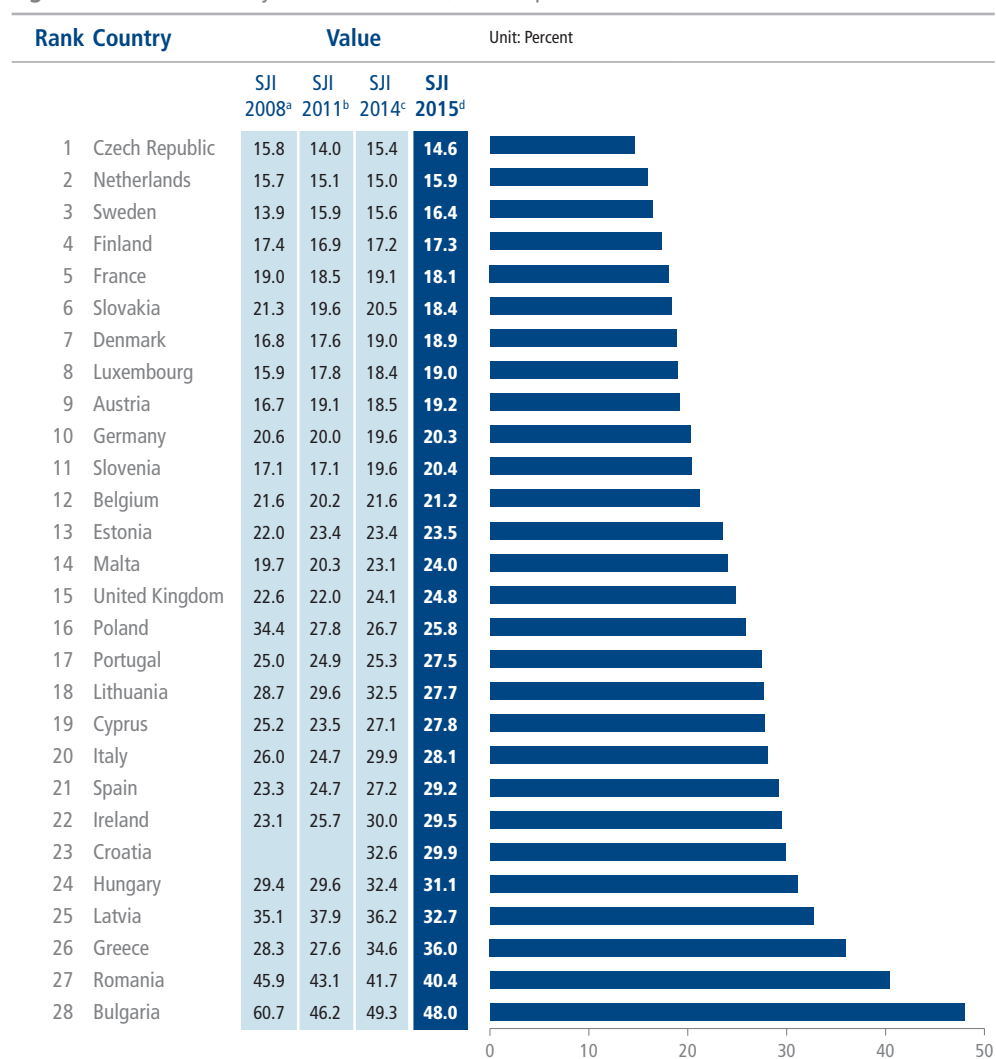
Source: Own calculations.

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affected by material deprivation (i.e., living in quasi-jobless households). In the three worst-performing countries in this regard – Greece, Romania and Bulgaria – the share ranges from 36 to 49 percent.

The fact that the risk of poverty and social exclusion has again increased in Greece since the 2014 Social Justice Index underscores the ongoing dramatic state of social affairs in the country. In Spain, where far-reaching structural reforms have yielded improvements in some economic indicators, the percentage of those at-risk-of poverty and social inclusion has nonetheless also increased to 29.2 percent (2012: 27.2%). The same is true for Portugal, which has shown an

Figure 7: At Risk of Poverty or Social Exclusion, Total Population



Source: Eurostat Online Database (data refer to a: 2007; b: 2009; c: 2012; d: 2013, 2014).

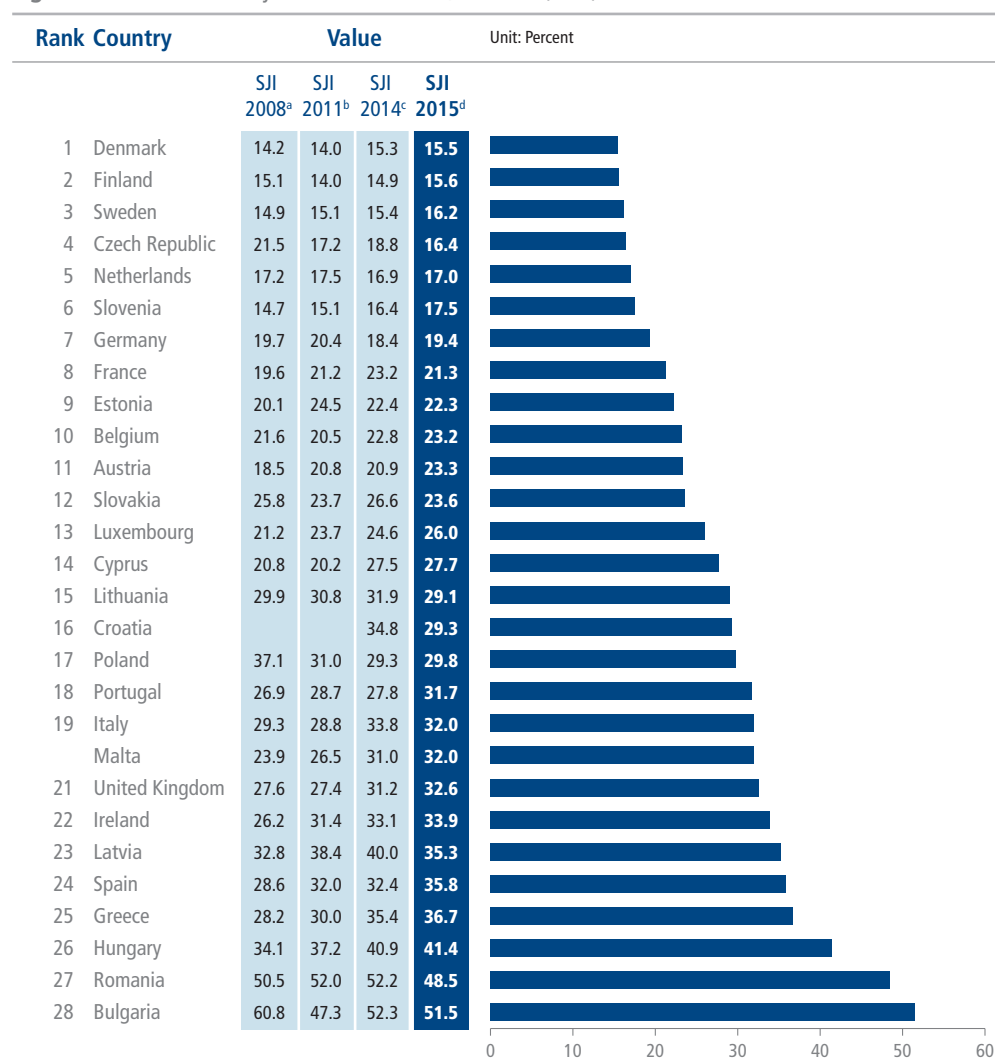
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increase from 25.3 to 27.5 percent since the last Social Justice Index survey. And the risk of poverty remains a persistent problem in Ireland where, despite slight improvements in this regard, the percentage remains relatively high at 29.5 percent. Hopes remain that the signs of economic stabilization observed to some extent in the EU's crisis-ridden countries will lead to a reduced rate of those at-risk-of poverty. To date, however, this has not been the case.

Developments in Poland are, by contrast, more positive. The risk of poverty rates across the population have been falling continually from 34.4 percent in 2007 to their current rate of 25.8 percent. Poland stands out as an exception among EU states in this regard.

Figure 8: At Risk of Poverty or Social Exclusion, Children (0-17)



Source: Eurostat Online Database (data refer to a: 2007; b: 2009; c: 2012; d: 2013, 2014).

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In Germany, the risk of poverty or social exclusion has increased in the last year after having fallen somewhat in years previous. Some 20.3 percent of the total population is currently at-risk-of poverty or social exclusion (2012: 19.6 percent).

Of particular concern is the fact that the risk of poverty among children and youth in most southern European crisis states has increased once again. In Greece, the share of children and youth at-risk-of poverty and social exclusion has reached 36.7 percent. In Spain, this figure is at 35.8 percent, and in Portugal 31.7 percent. In general, the EU-wide average rate for children and youth at-risk-of poverty and social exclusion rate is much higher than that for the total population.

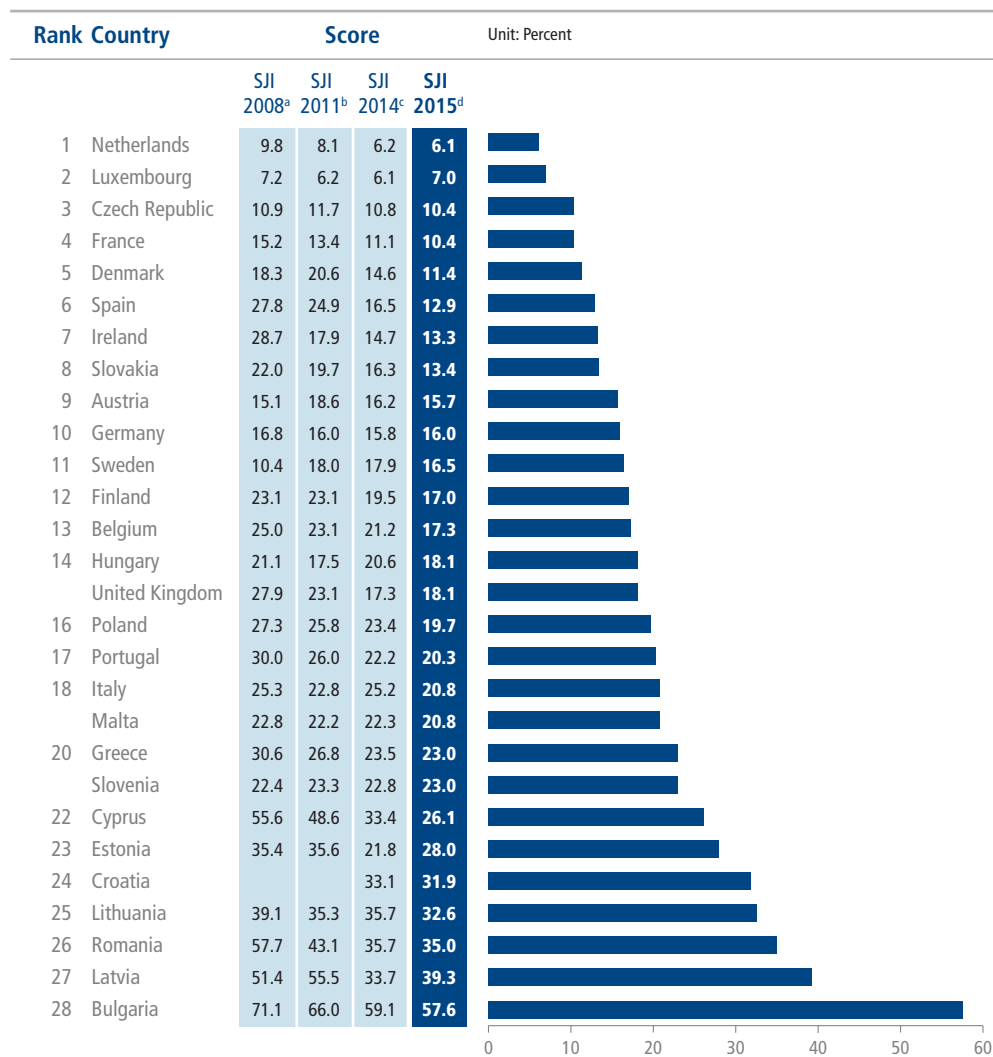
In the countries with the lowest rates for this indicator - Denmark, Finland and Sweden - we also see a slight negative trend since the last survey with figures ranging from 15.5 percent to 16.2 percent. Rates in Germany have increased as well from 18.4 percent (2012) to 19.4 percent (2013). As is the case in many other EU states, there are pronounced regional differences with regard to poverty rates for children in Germany. Children in single-parent households are disproportionately affected by poverty and social exclusion.

Also remarkable is the fact that stark generational imbalances - an issue addressed in the last SJI edition - have worsened: figures for the risk of poverty and social exclusion among the 65+ generation are once again far lower than those for children and youth.

Whereas an average of 17.8 percent senior citizens EU-wide are at-risk-of poverty and social exclusion, 27.9 percent of children and youth across the EU are at risk. This can be accounted for in part by the fact that throughout the crisis, pensions in most countries have not shrunk as much as incomes among younger generations. This can be seen most clearly in the case of Spain, where the share of children and youth at-risk-of poverty and social exclusion is almost three times that of senior citizens at risk. On this latter point, Spain is even doing relatively well in comparative terms; the country is at rank 6 with 12.9 percent. In many countries, the importance of intra-familial redistribution and cross-generational support should not be underestimated.



Figure 9: At Risk of Poverty or Social Exclusion, Seniors (65+)

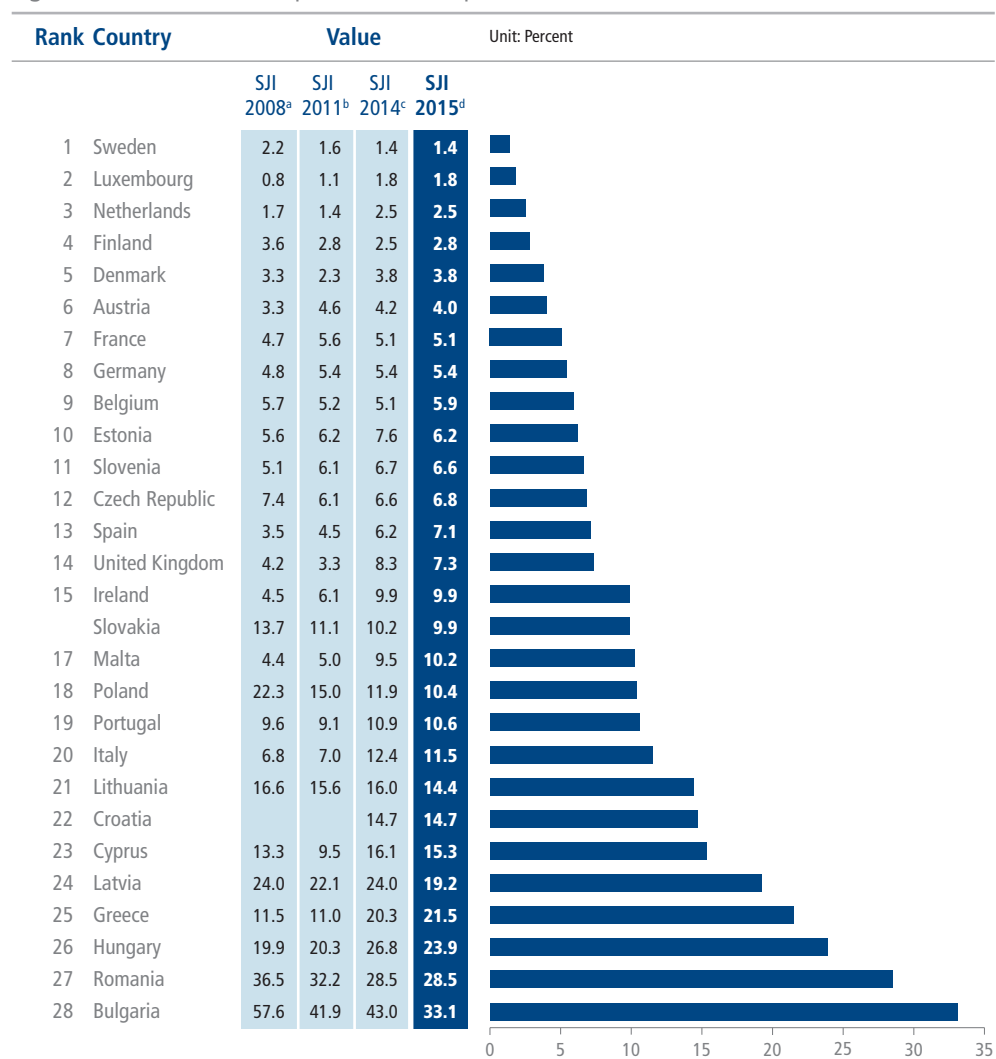


Source: Eurostat Online Database (data refer to a: 2007; b: 2009; c: 2012; d: 2013, 2014).

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If we look exclusively at the aspect of relative income poverty among senior citizens, Spain features a rate (11.4%) lower than countries such as Sweden (16.4%), Germany (14.9%) and Finland (16%). This example demonstrates how the figures for at-risk-of poverty and social exclusion – an EU headline indicator – are comprised of several indicators. It therefore makes sense to look more closely at the specific items comprising this composite indicator in order to gain a differentiated picture of the state of poverty in individual countries. It is particularly important to look at the aspect of severe material deprivation, which refers to the share of persons who cannot afford the basic goods and activities of daily life.

Figure 10: Severe Material Deprivation, Total Population



Source: Eurostat Online Database (data refer to a: 2007; b: 2009; c: 2013; d: 2013, 2014).

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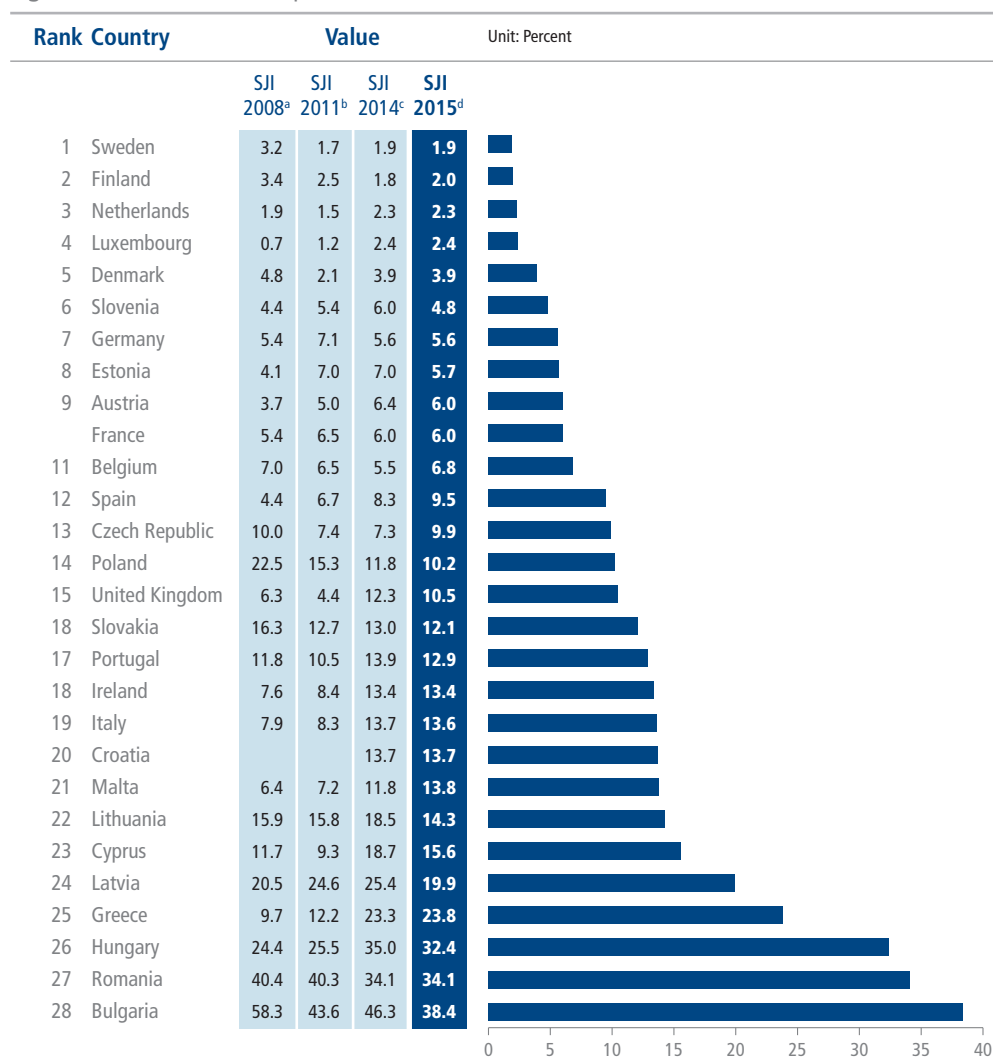
Notably, this problem is by far less pronounced in the wealthy states of northern Europe. In Sweden, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Finland and Denmark, the share of those subjected to severe material deprivation ranges from 1.4 percent to 3.8 percent. Over the last few years, these figures have remained rather stable in these countries. France, Germany and Belgium show a somewhat higher range of 5.4 percent to 5.9 percent. Estonia, Slovenia and the Czech Republic have also managed to keep the share of those suffering from severe material deprivation below 7 percent. It is striking that with regard to this key social indicator, Greece continues to lose ground. Since the onset of the crisis, the share of those affected by severe material deprivation in the country has nearly doubled and stands currently at a 21.5 percent.



There is, however, some encouraging news in Bulgaria on this issue, as the share of those subject to severe material deprivation has fallen considerably. Nonetheless, with a share of 33.1 percent (2013: 43%), the southeast European country ranks clearly at the bottom on this indicator.

A look at the rate of severe material deprivation for children and youth (i.e., 0-17 years of age) reveals similar findings and trends. Once again, the Nordic states as well as countries such as the Netherlands and Luxembourg number among the top-performers here. Slovenia, Germany and Estonia follow at ranks 6 to 8. Overall – and similar to the at-risk-of poverty or social exclusion indicator – the rate of severe material deprivation is higher among children and youth than it is

Figure 11: Severe Material Deprivation, Children (0-17)



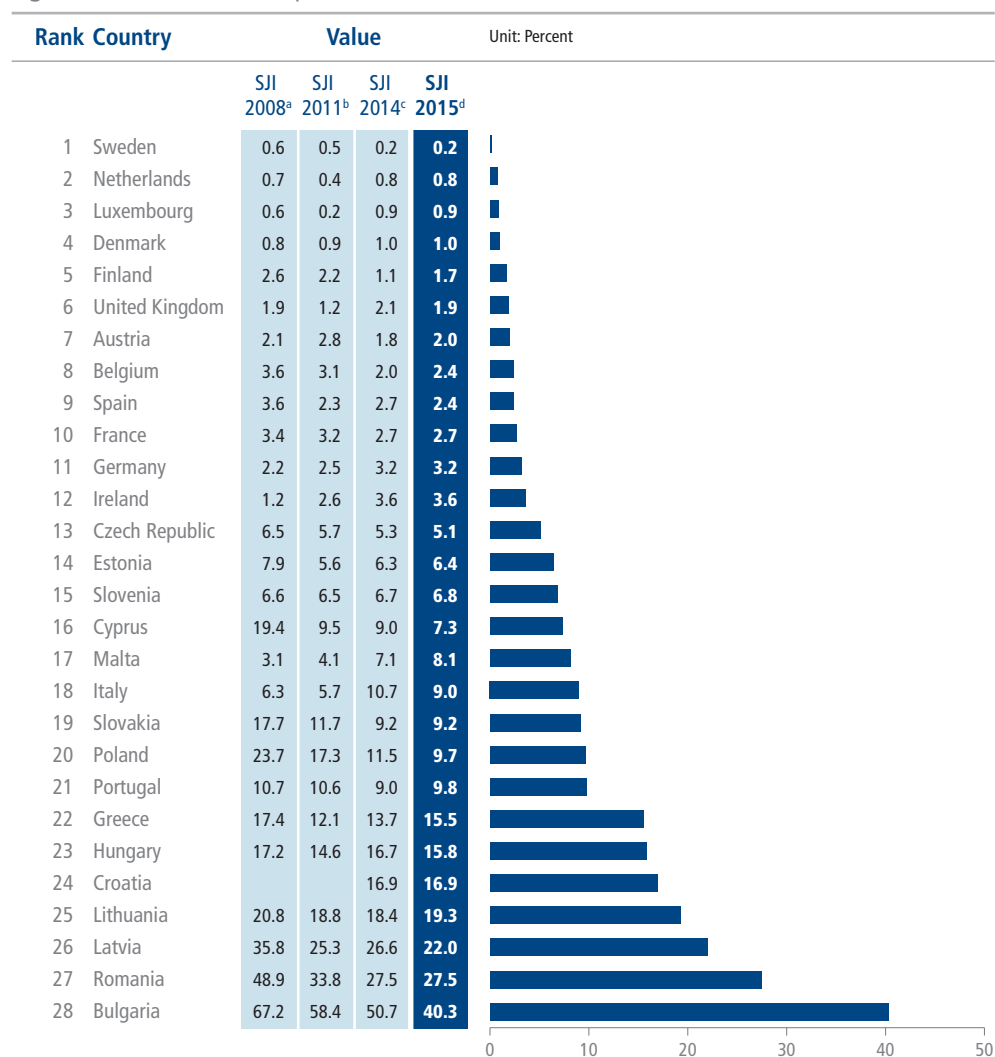
Source: Eurostat Online Database (data refer to a: 2007; b: 2009; c: 2013; d: 2013, 2014).

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among the total population. A slight decrease was registered EU-wide for this edition, but this is clearly not the case in every state. In Greece, for example, the rate among children and youth increased to a horrifying 23.8 percent this year. Hungary, Romania and Bulgaria fare even worse on this issue, though (as noted earlier) a palpable positive trend has been recorded in Bulgaria.

The average EU-wide rate of severe material deprivation among children and youth is significantly higher than the corresponding rate among senior citizens (11.1 % and 6.9 %, respectively). In countries such as Sweden, the Netherlands, Luxembourg and Denmark, material deprivation among senior citizens is rare with rates ranging between 0.2 percent and 1 percent. Greece, however,

Figure 12: Severe Material Deprivation, Seniors (65+)



Source: Eurostat Online Database (data refer to a: 2007; b: 2009; c: 2013; d: 2013, 2014).

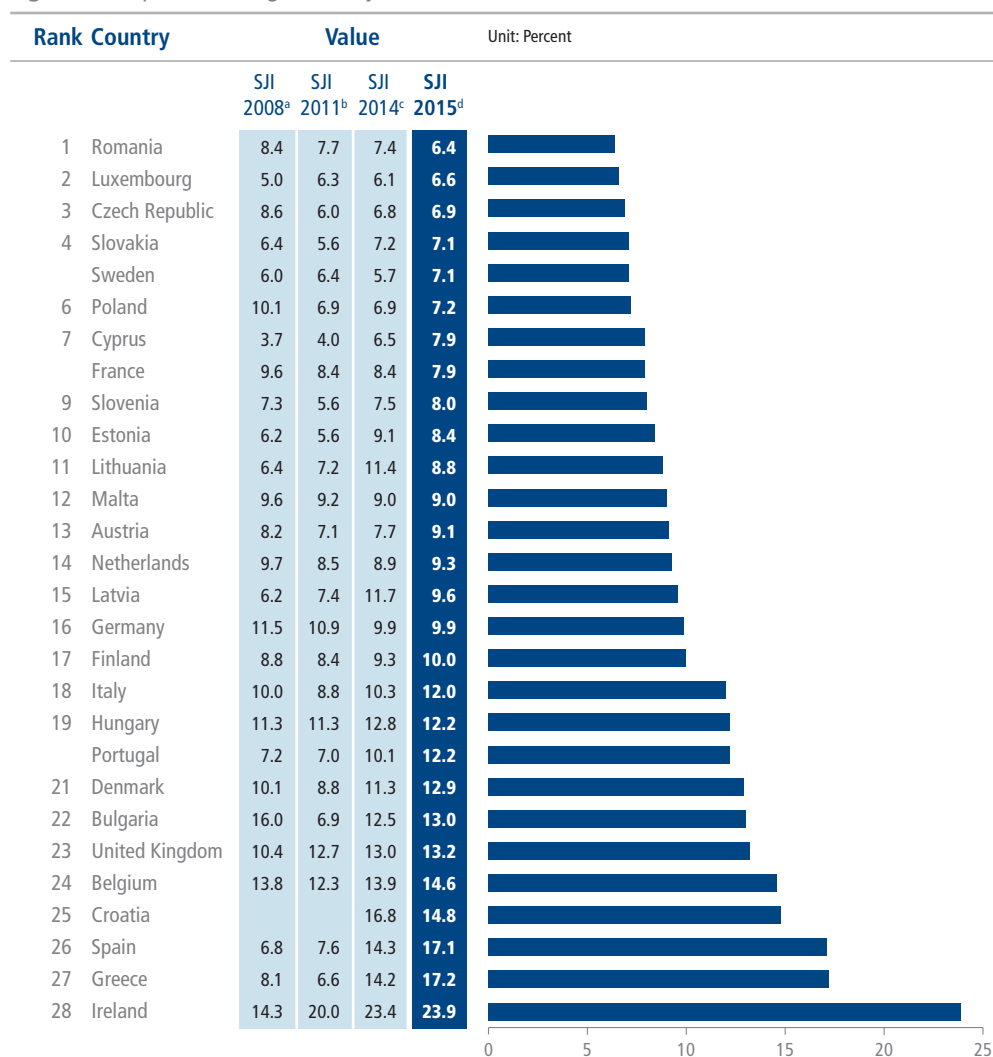
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records an increase in this indicator, with a rate of 15.5 percent. As already noted, the situation among children and youth is far worse. In Spain, more than three times as many children and youth as senior citizens face material deprivation. This demonstrates once again how Spain's older citizens have suffered less under the impact of the crisis and the government's austerity measures than have younger citizens.

Overall, we see no radical improvements across the EU with regard to poverty prevention. Approximately one-fourth of the total EU population continues to face the risk of poverty or social exclusion (= 122 million people). Both EU leaders and policymakers in individual EU member states

Figure 13: Population Living in Quasi-jobless Households



Source: Eurostat Online Database (data refer to a: 2007; b: 2009; c: 2012; d: 2013, 2014).

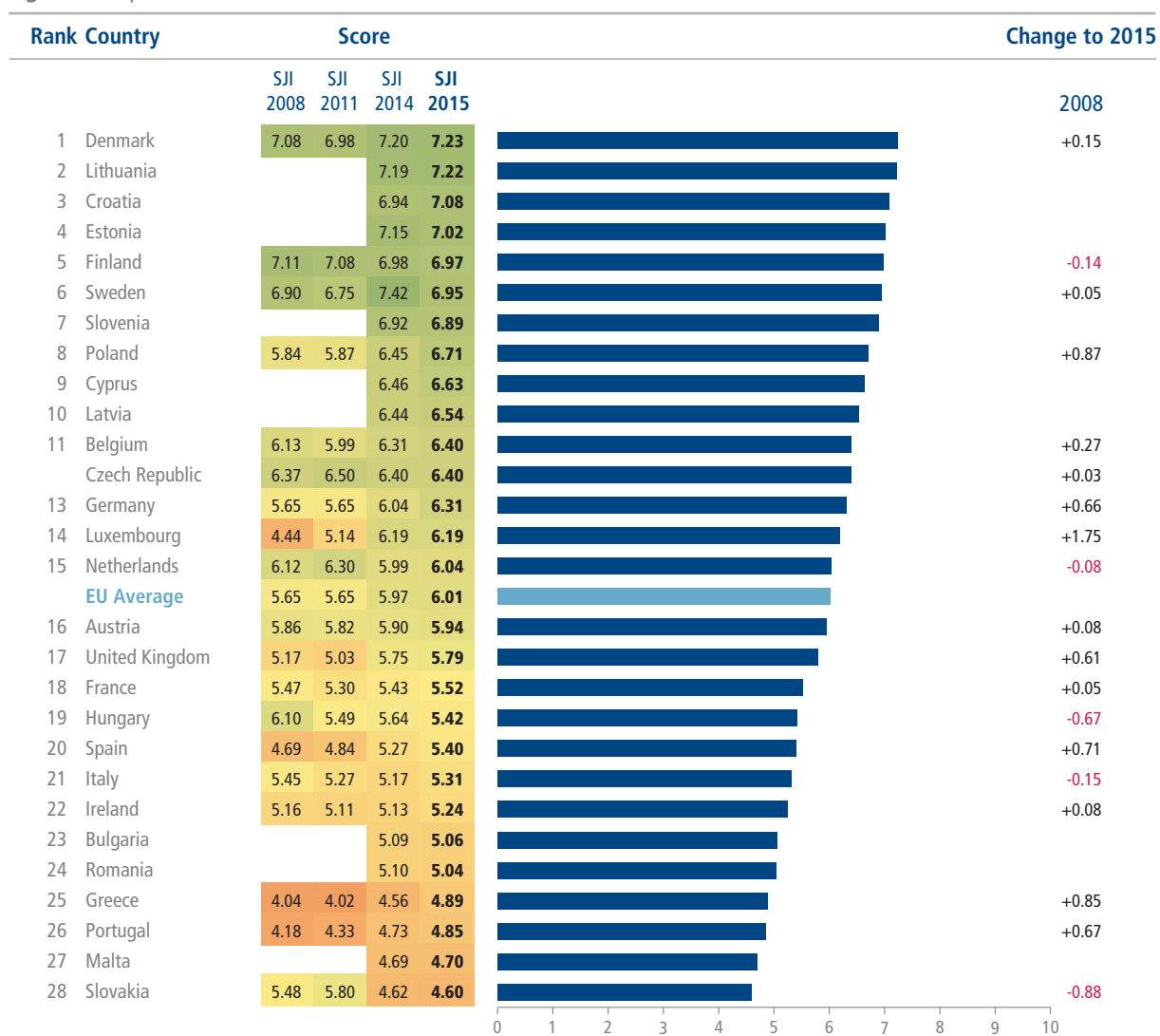
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should not accept the fact that the generational gap continues to widen and that the number of children living in poverty in southern Europe's crisis states has continued to grow.

2. Equitable education

In the area of access to education, there are relatively few changes in comparison to the previous year's study, in part because no new data is available in some cases. The northern European states of Denmark, Finland and Sweden, as well as Lithuania, Estonia and Croatia perform very well here.

Figure 14: Equitable Education



Source: Own calculations.

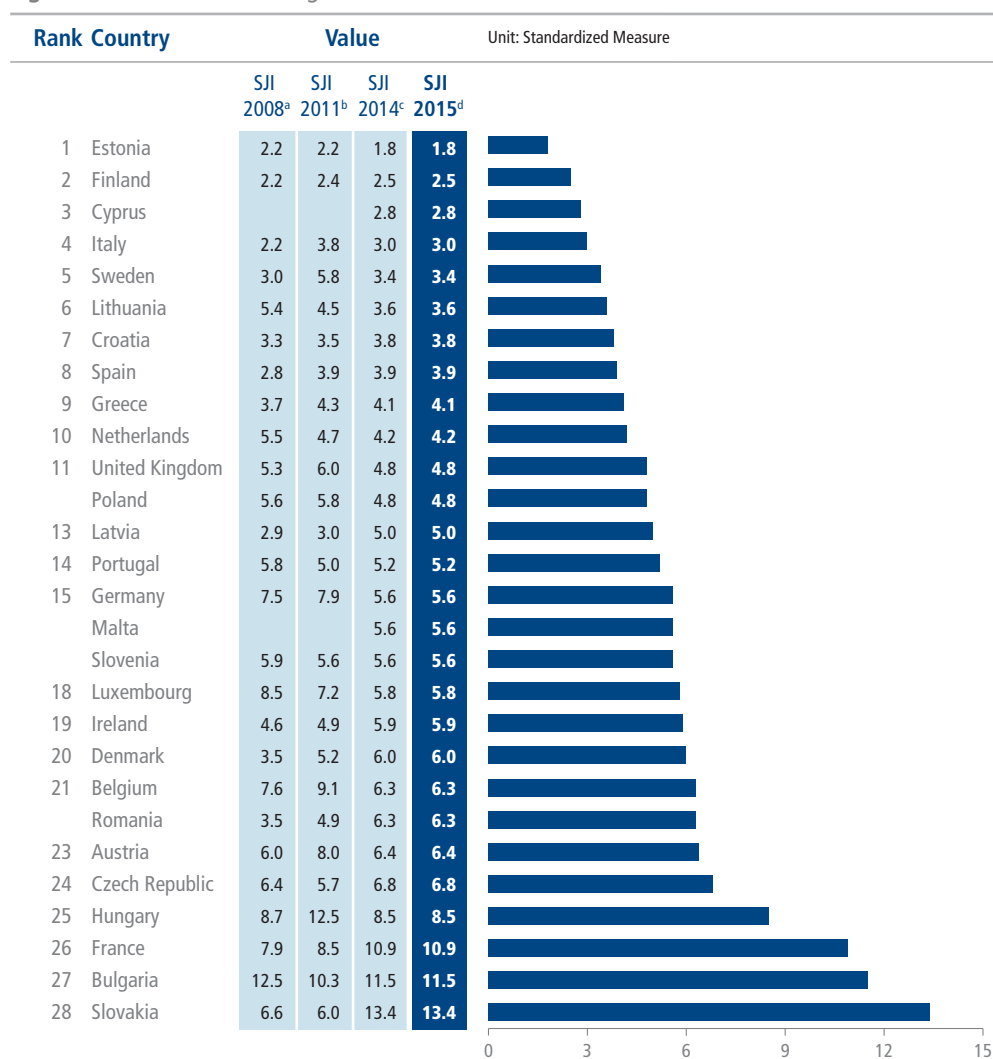
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However, it should be noted that significant differences in individual indicators exist across each of these countries. Students' socioeconomic background has the lowest degree of influence over learning success in Finland and Estonia. Sweden, Lithuania and Croatia also perform relatively well in this regard. Yet Finland and Estonia not only ensure that the conditions of access to education are quite fair, but also demonstrate equity of instruction quality within the education system as measured by students' proficiency levels.

Country experts highlight several strengths of Estonia's education system, including "the small number of low achievers and low school-level variance in student achievement. Enrollment rates

Figure 15: Socioeconomic Background and Student Performance

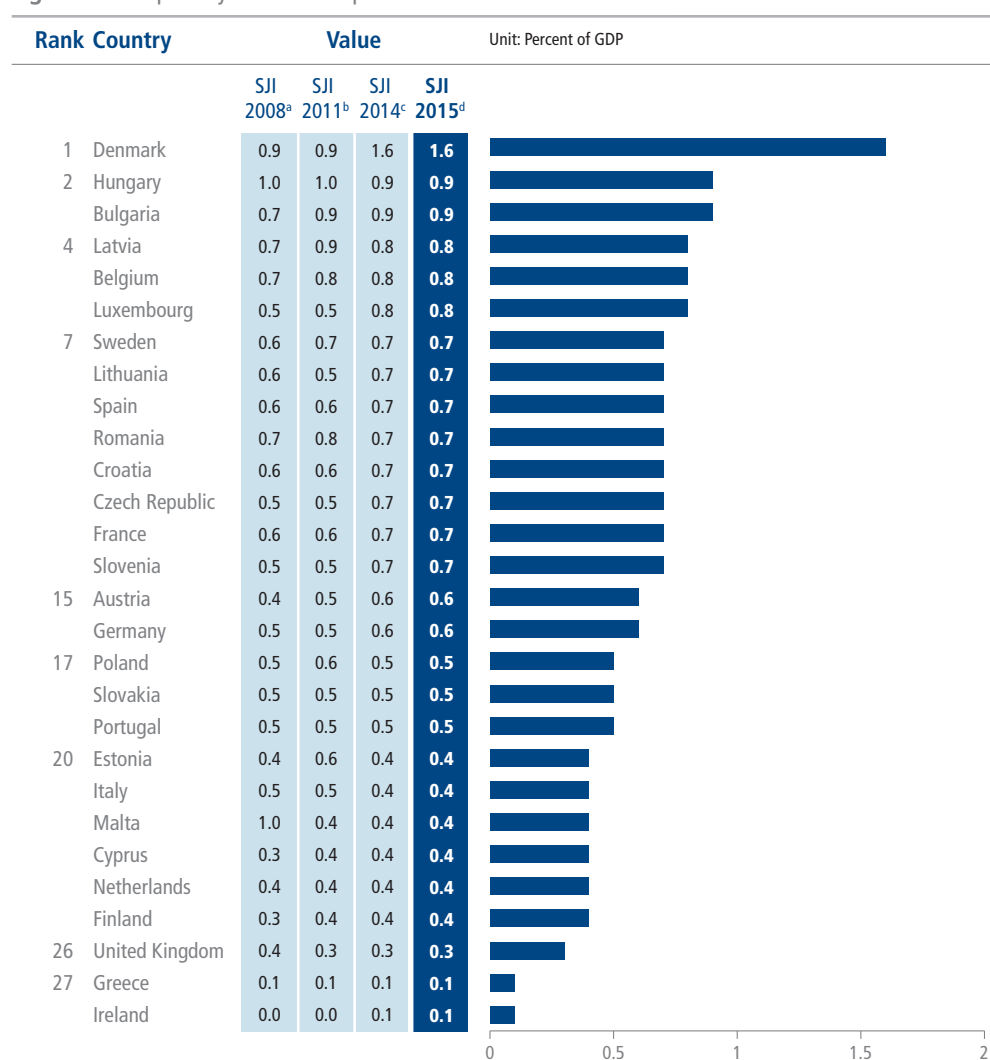


Source: OECD PISA (data refer to a: 2006; b: 2009; c: 2012; d: 2012).

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at various education levels, including lifelong learning courses, are above the international average. Moreover, Estonia has already reached some of the EU's Education and Training 2020 (ET 2020) headline targets, and is close to the target level in other areas.⁴ In Finland, we see a similar state of affairs: "Built on the principle of lifelong learning, education policy in Finland promotes and maintains a high standard of education. All people by law must have equal access to high-quality education and training, basic education is free and municipalities are responsible for providing educational services to all local children. (...) The Education and Research Development

Figure 16: Pre-primary Education Expenditure



Source: Eurostat Online Database (data refer to a: 2001, 2004, 2005, 2006; b: 2004, 2007, 2008; c: 2004, 2011; d: 2004, 2011). | BertelsmannStiftung

4 Toots/Sikk/Jahn (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.



Plan, revised every four years by the government, is the key document of education and research policy in Finland. It directs the implementation of education and research policy goals as stated in the Government Program. From 2011 to 2016, the plan will focus on the alleviation of poverty, inequality and exclusion.”⁵

With respect to public expenditure on early-childhood education, Denmark sits at the top of the EU-wide comparison. However, despite its very good position in the overall ranking, the country is not successful in every respect. For example, the country experts note that in the most recent PISA surveys, “immigrant students score markedly lower than Danish students, a problem particularly pronounced among boys. However, second-generation students do relatively better than first-generation students.”⁶

Croatia stands out with the EU’s lowest rate of early school leavers, but nevertheless shows some weaknesses with regard to the quality of educational outcomes. Especially in the area of vocational training, the country experts see significant room for improvement: “As in other former Yugoslavian countries, vocational education is very weak, and there is a high degree of mismatch between what is taught and the demands of employers. Thus, vocational education is not an assured route to a job.”⁷

Germany performs significantly better on this measure, a fact underscored by having the EU’s lowest youth-unemployment rate (see also the next chapter on labor-market access). However, a key problem in Germany remains the still-strong correlation between student’s social backgrounds and success in school: “Educational opportunities are particularly constrained for immigrants and children from low-income families. In comparison to other highly developed nations, German education structures also seem federalized and segmented. The most recent PISA results from 2012, however, show significant improvements (OECD 2013), reflecting possibly a catalytic effect of the ‘PISA shock’ in the early 2000s. Germany now ranks above the OECD average in mathematics, reading and science, and has made considerable progress on education equity over the last decade.”⁸ The worst performers with regard to the influence of socioeconomic background on students’ educational success are Hungary, France, Bulgaria and Slovakia.

In recent years, Poland has been one of the top gainers in the area of education: “The first Tusk government launched a number of education reforms that have gradually become effective, and have significantly increased the quality of education in the country. Although education expenditure in Poland is significantly lower than the average expenditure in the European Union more broadly, Polish students now achieve relatively good results at schools. The main aim of the Tusk government’s reforms was to reduce the system’s lack of synchronization with the labor markets.

5 Anckar/Kuitto/Oberst/Jahn (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.

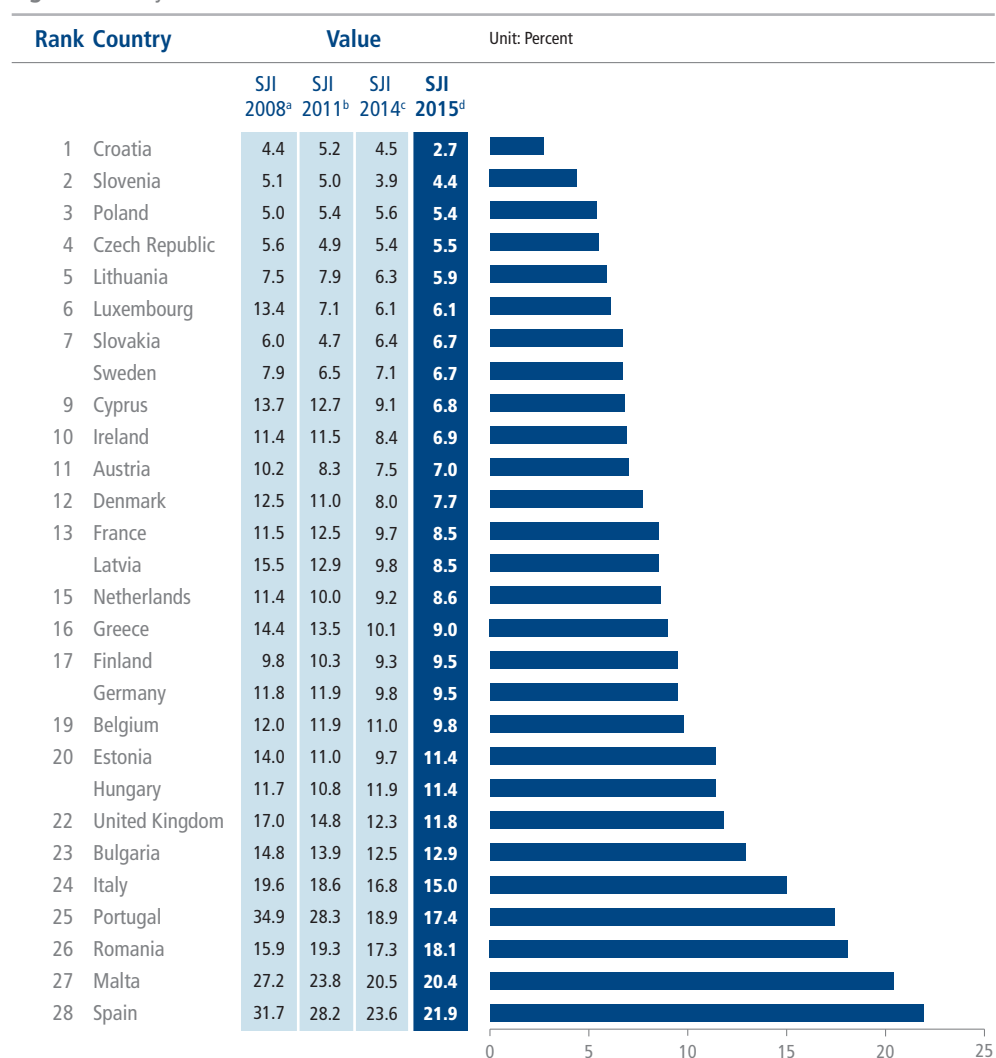
6 Laursen/Andersen/Jahn (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.

7 Petak/Bartlett/Bönker (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.

8 Rüb/Heinemann/Ulbricht/Zohlnhöfer (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.

Reforms have led to a greater emphasis in the curriculum on mathematics, science and technology; a strengthening of vocational education; attempts to attract more students to economically relevant areas; measures to improve the quality of research and teaching at universities; and the adoption of a national strategy for lifelong learning. In June 2014, the Ministry of Education announced a new reform package focusing on improving teaching quality in secondary education. Prime Minister Kopacz has placed a strong emphasis on the continuation of education reform.”⁹

Figure 17: Early School Leavers



Source: Eurostat Online Database (data refer to a: 2008; b: 2010; c: 2013; d: 2014).

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⁹ Matthes/Markowski/Bönker (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.



By contrast, Portugal, Malta and Slovakia demonstrate great need for reform. The country experts for Slovakia conclude in the new SGI report that “the quality of education and training in Slovakia has suffered both from low levels of spending and a lack of structural reforms. Spending levels on education are among the European Union’s lowest, and have fallen as a percentage of GDP since 2009. Minor increases in wages have not increased the motivation or morale of the often dissatisfied and frustrated teachers, but have instead been widely disregarded as a mere attempt to pacify them in the run-up to the 2016 parliamentary elections. While the second Fico government has sought to strengthen secondary vocational and tertiary technical education, the transition from school to the labor market has remained difficult for many. The fact that the head of the Ministry of Education, Science, Research and Sport changed twice in 2014 did not help improve education policy.”¹⁰

Malta has one of the highest dropout rates in the European Union, at 20.4 percent. Its rate of investment in early-childhood education is below the average, and the country is only in the middle of the pack with regard to the influence of socioeconomic background on students’ learning outcomes. For Portugal too, country experts see significant problems in the area of education, exacerbated in large part by the stringent austerity politics of recent years: “With regard to quality, the austerity measures and cuts have had an adverse impact on the already poor overall quality of education in Portugal, with schools and universities seeing their budgets slashed. Schools have lost teachers, with those leaving being selected not on the basis of merit, but rather on the basis of their contract terms. Universities have also seen a brain drain, with many professors going abroad, as a result of lower budgets and reductions in wages. Similarly, access has been affected both on the supply and demand sides. On the supply side, the cuts have sustained existing bottlenecks (e.g., in pre-schooling). The demand side has been constrained by the recession – a result of increasing unemployment and lower family incomes – as well as austerity, which has resulted in higher tuition fees and more limited financial aid for poorer students. While the number of university graduates has increased, Portugal remains far below the OECD average. Likewise, the high-school dropout rate is very high. Post-bailout, the pattern of austerity and cuts in education remains. In the 2015 budget, the Ministry of Education is the ministry with the biggest cut in its budget. A decline of 11 % was imposed on primary and secondary education, as compared to 2014. All this means that Portugal’s strong results in the most recent OECD PISA evaluation (PISA 2012, published in December 2013) are unlikely to be sustained in the near future.”¹¹

3. Labor-market access

The labor-market situation has again improved somewhat in the majority of EU countries. The EU-wide average employment rate now stands at 64.8 percent (2014), as compared to 64.1 percent the previous year. However, in this regard the EU is still very far from reaching its self-imposed

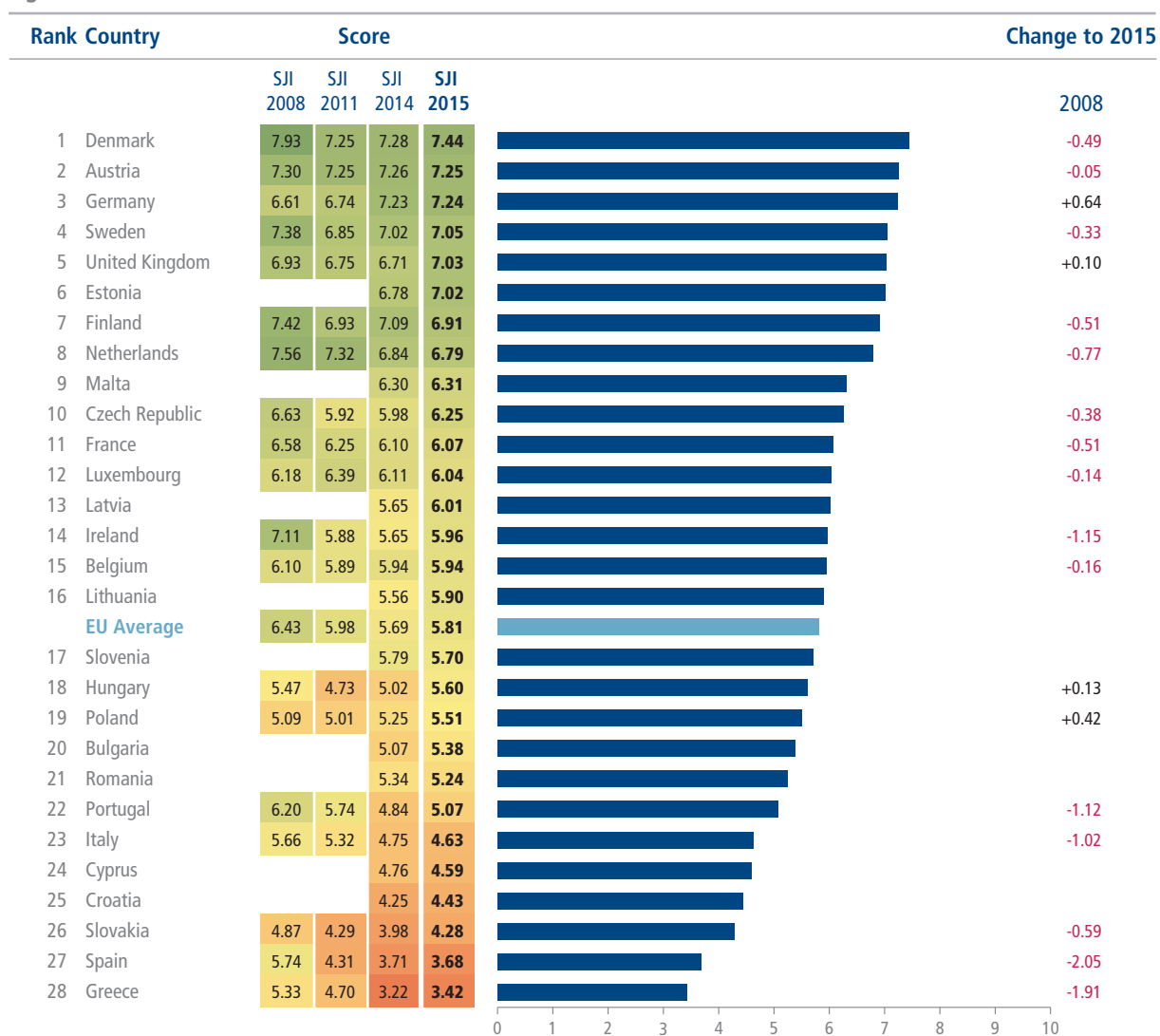
¹⁰ Kneuer/Malová/Bönker (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.

¹¹ Bruneau/Jalali/Colino (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.

goal of a 75 percent employment rate. Moreover, the rate remains below its pre-crisis level (2008: 65.7%). A similar finding appears in an examination of unemployment rates. The situation here has again recently improved somewhat. The EU average now stands at 10.4 percent, as compared to 11.0 percent a year previously. However, the 2008 level was just 7.1 percent.

Though for most countries the worst seems to be past, this is not true for all member states. Croatia and Cyprus, for example, have deteriorated compared to the previous year's survey. By contrast, Portugal and Ireland have been able to improve relatively significantly, even if the level

Figure 18: Labor Market Access



Source: Own calculations.

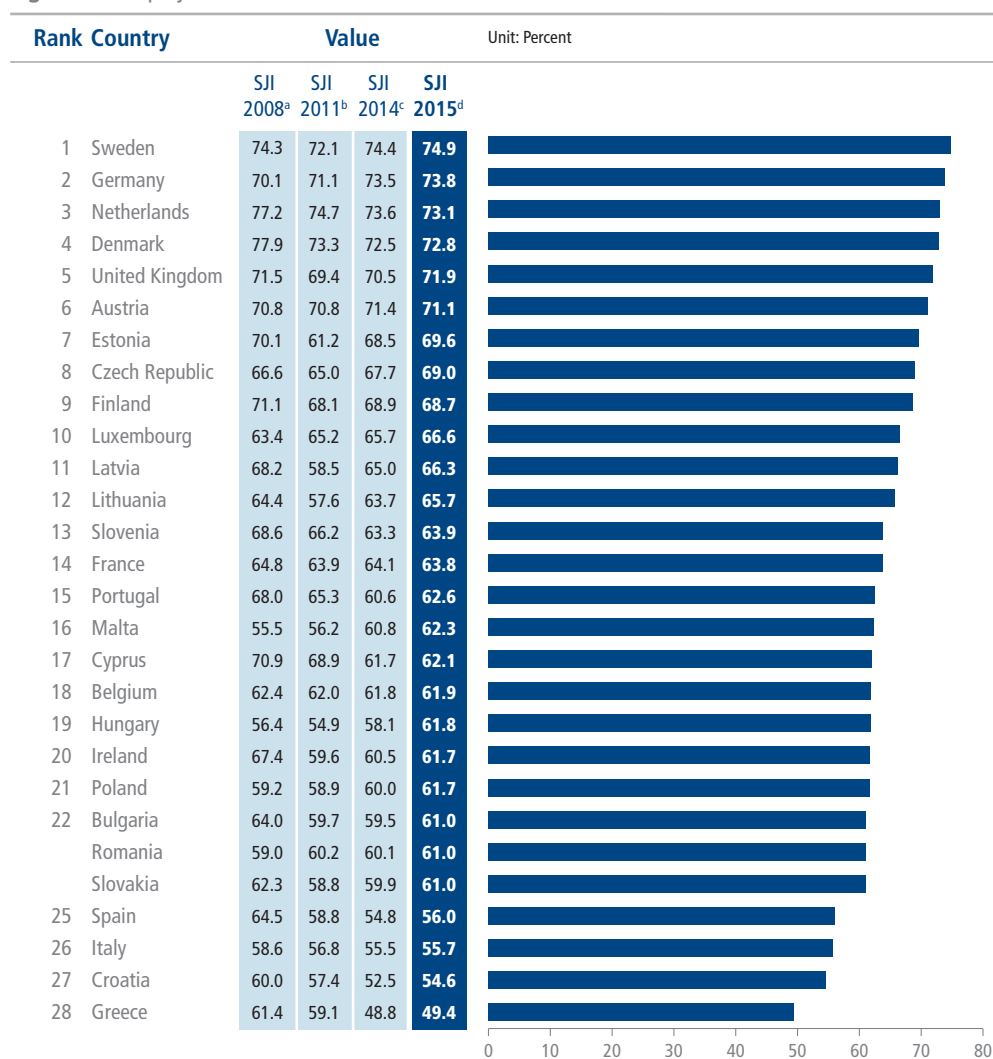
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achieved remains far from satisfactory and considerable problems persist, as will be explained in more detail below. In general, vast differences are evident between individual member states regarding opportunities to access the labor market. This becomes particularly clear in a closer examination of the individual indicators.

Overall and across all indicators, Denmark, Austria and Germany show the most successful performances. Bringing up the rear are Italy, Cyprus, Croatia, Slovakia, Spain and Greece.

Figure 19: Employment Rate

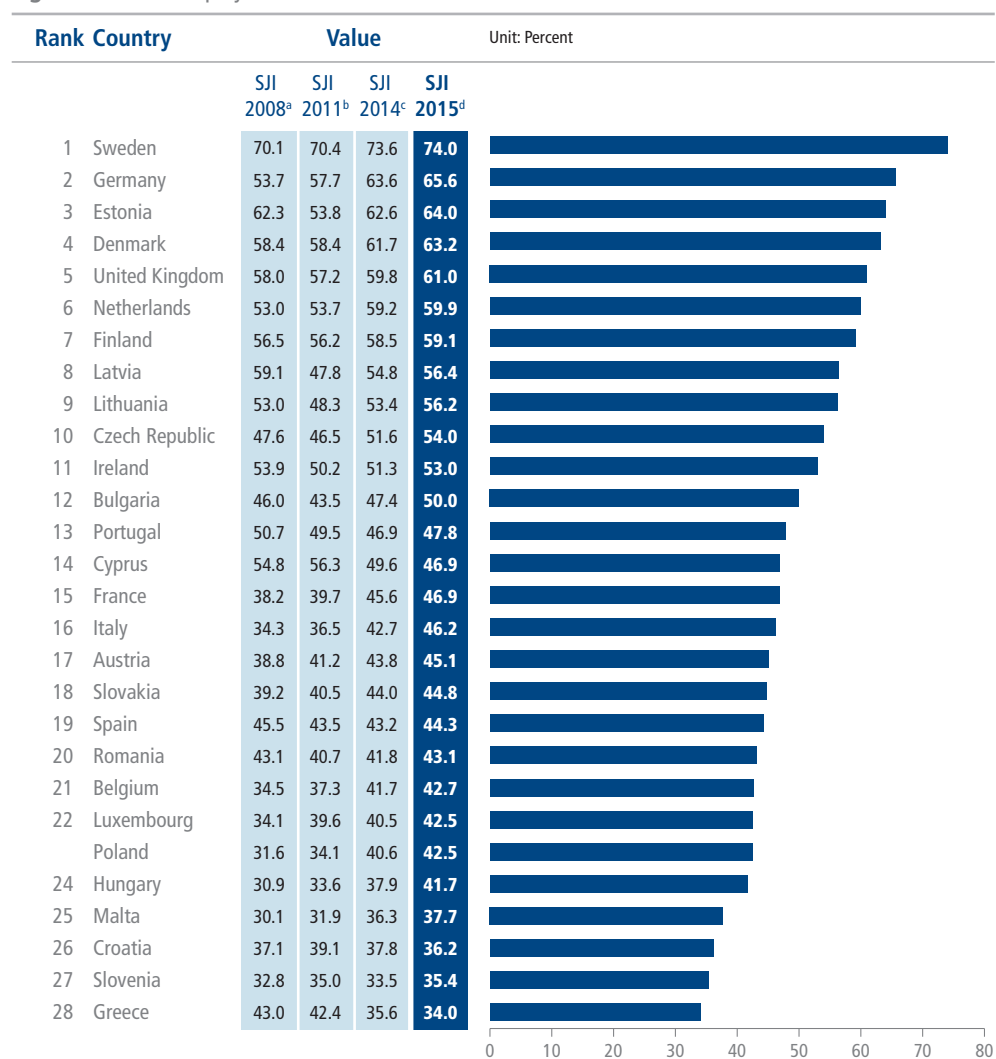


Source: Eurostat Online Database (data refer to a: 2008; b: 2010; c: 2013; d: 2014).

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With an employment rate of 73.8 percent, Germany has now risen on this measure almost to the level of the top-placed Sweden, which with 74.9 percent is the only country that has largely fulfilled the EU 2020 goal. Germany also shows the EU's lowest general-unemployment and youth-unemployment rates. In these areas, the country was even able to improve further relative to the previous year. Moreover, the employment rate among older people has risen particularly strongly in Germany as compared to the year before. Women's labor-market integration rate has also improved further.

Figure 20: Older Employment Rate



Source: Eurostat Online Database (data refer to a: 2008; b: 2010; c: 2013; d: 2014).

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However, a deterioration relative to the last SJI is evident in the “in-work poverty” indicator, which – as in other EU countries – indicates that the trend of a dual labor market has continued. In addition, the share of low-wage earners among Germany’s low-skilled workers is the EU’s largest. This is a sign that the transition from atypical forms of employment to normal working conditions needs to be improved. The significantly weaker job opportunities afforded to people not born in Germany represent a further weak point, despite recent mild improvements. Other countries that otherwise achieve good scores overall, such as the Netherlands, also have significant problems in this area. The Nordic countries of Sweden, Finland and Denmark also show major weaknesses on this point.

A look at the Nordic countries reveals interesting differences in the evolution of labor-market opportunities in recent years. Denmark, for example, has again stabilized at a very good level, even if it has not yet fully reached its pre-crisis values. In this regard, the SGI country experts too conclude that “several indicators suggest that the labor market has displayed substantial flexibility in coping with the crisis. First, wages have adapted to the new situation, and the deterioration in wage competition in the boom period prior to the crisis has to a large extent been eliminated. Second, although there has been some increase in long-term unemployment, the increase has not been as large as in previous crises, and there does not seem to be a trend increase in long-term unemployment. Finally, the high level of job turnover remains in place, implying that most unemployment spells are short, and that entry into the labor market is reasonably easy for the young. Youth unemployment has increased but it is still among the lowest in the OECD area.”¹²

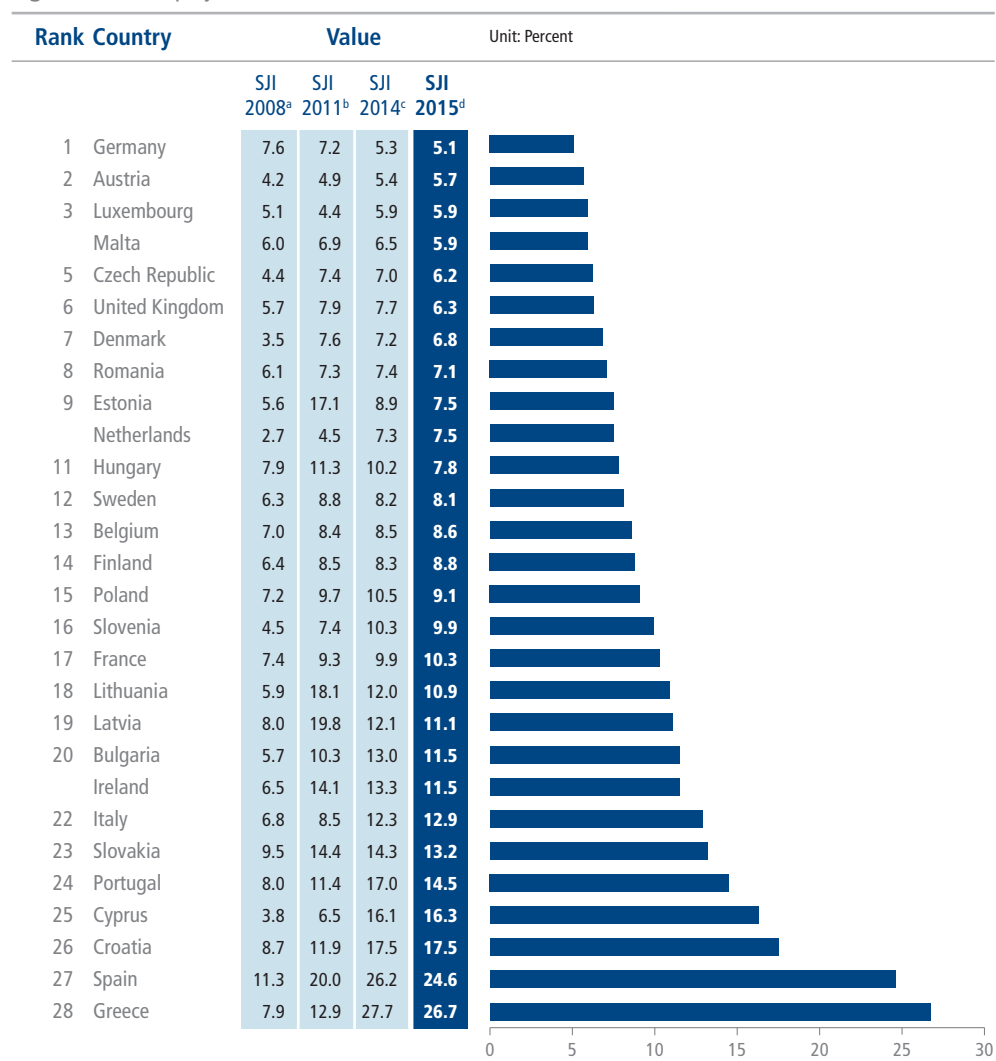
By contrast, Sweden and Finland – despite generally still-good overall performances – have had greater problems in regaining the very good results achieved before the crisis. While an upward trend is quite evident in Sweden, and the country even holds the European Union’s top place with regard to overall employment rate and labor-force-integration rate among older people, Finland is dealing with a number of structural weaknesses. The SGI country experts also come to this conclusion in their most recent report: “Comparatively, present achievements in stemming long-term unemployment, youth unemployment and low-skilled unemployment are not satisfactory. The high level of youth unemployment is a particular cause for concern.”¹³ In fact, the youth-unemployment rate stands at 20.5 percent in Finland. The overall unemployment rate has risen to 8.8 percent, while the unemployment rate among the low skilled has climbed to 18 percent – 5.2 percentage points more than in 2008.

The problems in the crisis-battered southern European countries, however, remain at a completely different level. In Greece, the employment rate sits under 50 percent, the unemployment rate is 26.7 percent, and the youth unemployment rate is 52.4 percent. To some extent, the worst also appears to be past here. For example, the youth-unemployment rate has fallen by nearly six per-

¹² Laursen/Andersen/Jahn (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.

¹³ Anckar/Kuitto/Oberst/Jahn (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.

Figure 21: Unemployment Rate



Source: Eurostat Online Database (data refer to a: 2008; b: 2010; c: 2013; d: 2014).

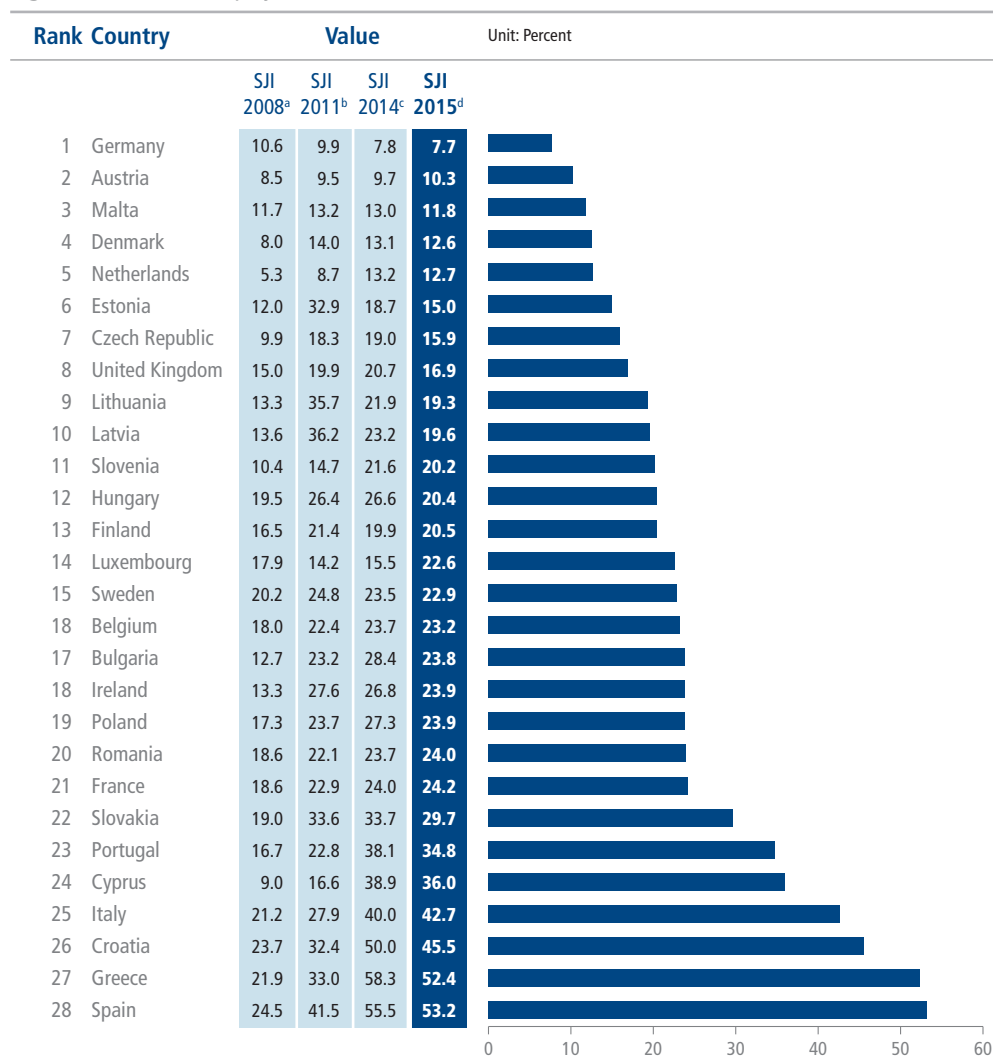
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centage points relative to the previous year. However, the situation remains disastrous. Long-term unemployment, one of the primary drivers of poverty and social exclusion, has even risen to a current level of 19.5 percent. This is a five-fold increase in comparison to 2008. In addition, the employment rate among older people has fallen, standing now at only 34 percent. Thus, Greece is clearly bringing up the rear in this regard.

Spain has shown some improvement in certain indicators. The overall unemployment rate has fallen to 24.6 percent, down from 26.2 percent in 2013, and the youth unemployment rate too has declined somewhat more than two percentage points to 53.2 percent. However, this figure



Figure 22: Youth Unemployment Rate

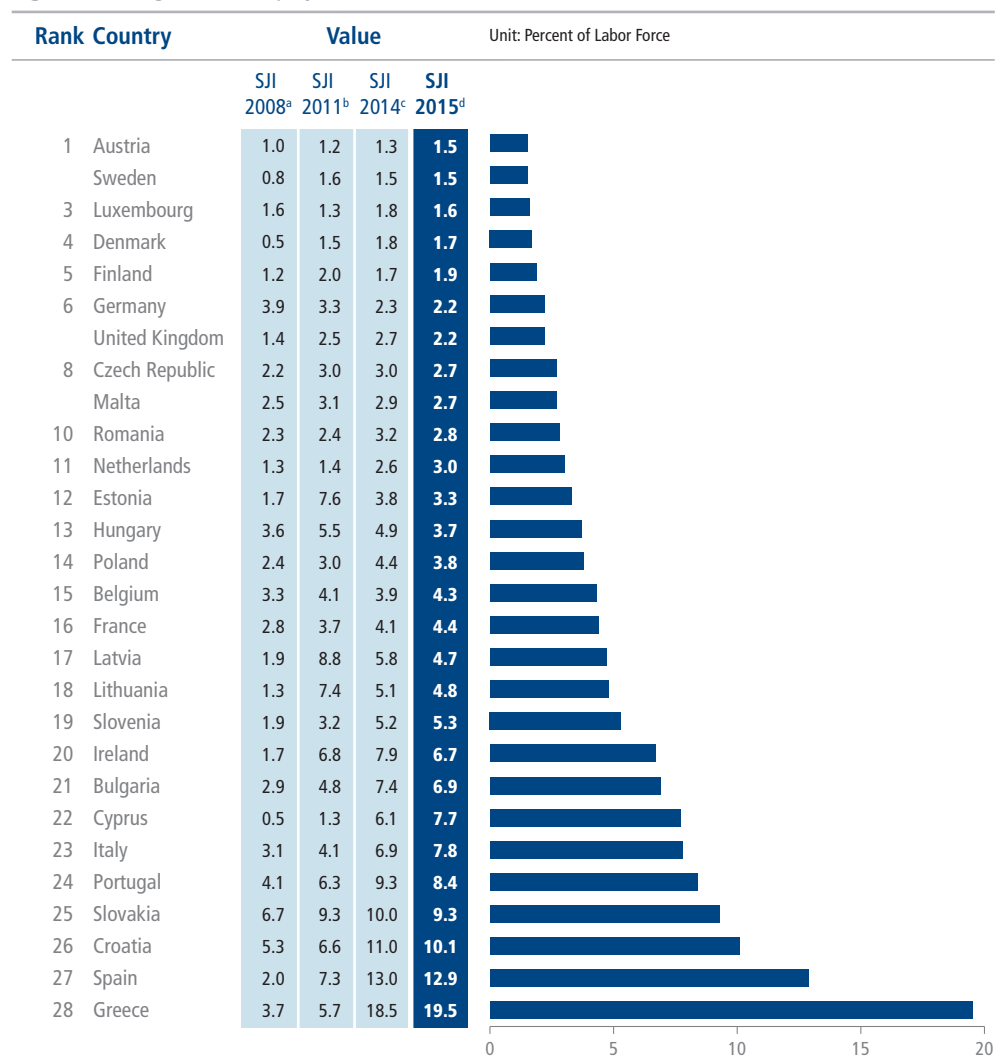


Source: Eurostat Online Database (data refer to a: 2008; b: 2010; c: 2013; d: 2014).

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leaves Spain at the very bottom of the cross-EU comparison. For young people, the labor-market situation thus remains more than critical. The same is true for the low skilled – among this group, the unemployment rate is 34 percent, which is still more than twice as high as at the beginning of the crisis. In addition, the risk of in-work poverty in Spain has increased to 10.2 percent. Moreover, with regard to people involuntarily in temporary employment, Spain sits with Cyprus at the bottom of the cross-country comparison, with more than 90 percent of people holding a temporary contract indicating that they are in this form of employment because they cannot find a permanent position. By comparison, this rate is just 8.8 percent in Austria, the top-placed country on this measure.

Figure 23: Long-term Unemployment Rate



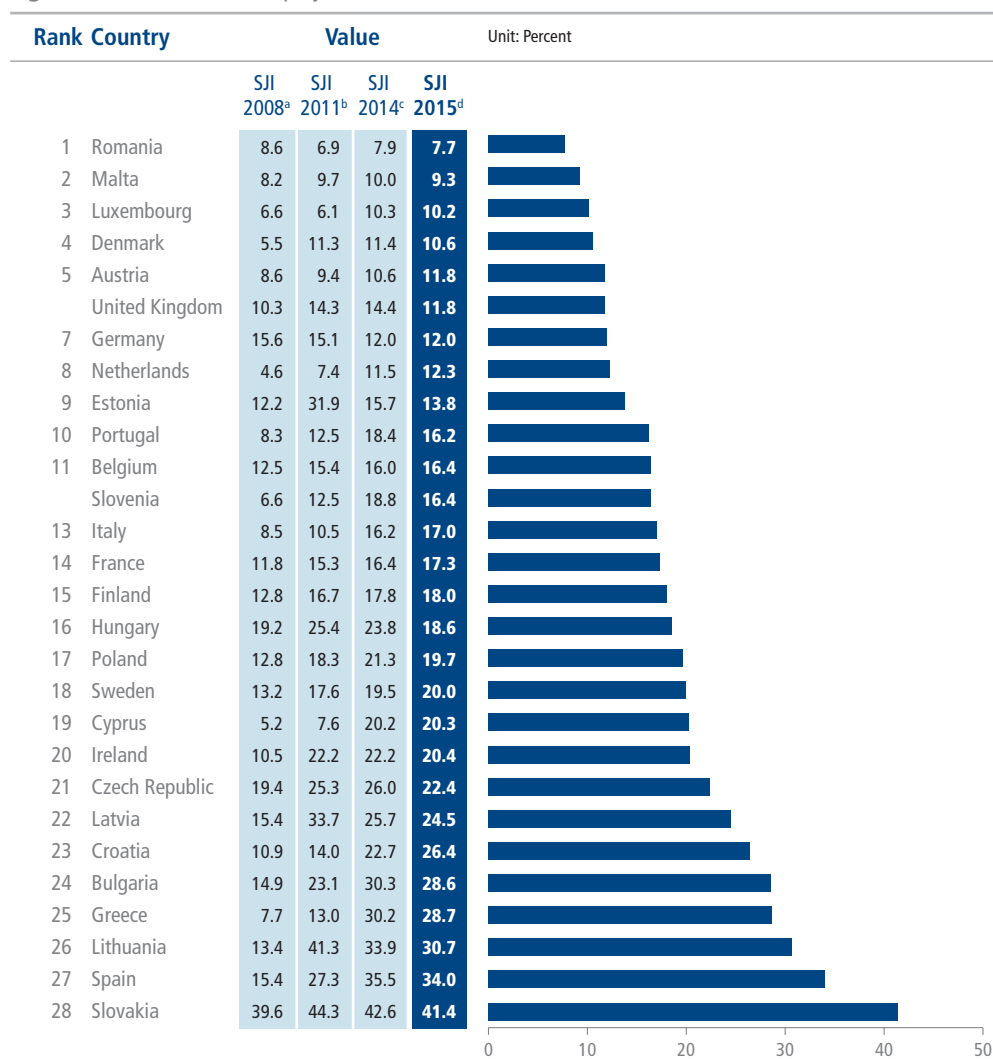
Source: Eurostat Online Database (data refer to a: 2008; b: 2010; c: 2013; d: 2014).

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Cyprus is one of the several countries to have deteriorated in comparison with the previous year's survey. The unemployment rate here has risen to 16.4 percent, and has hardened into a comparatively high long-term-unemployment rate of 7.7 percent (rank 22). In Croatia, a sharp increase in unemployment among the low-skilled population is particularly striking, while the overall unemployment level remains at the very high level of 17.5 percent. In considering the negative developments of recent years, the SGI expert renders the judgement that "labor-market policies in Croatia have been insufficient to tackle the rapid increase in unemployment. Spending on active labor-market policies is relatively minimal. Despite high rates of long-term unemployment, rela-



Figure 24: Low-skilled Unemployment Rate



Source: Eurostat Online Database (data refer to a: 2008; b: 2010; c: 2013; d: 2014).

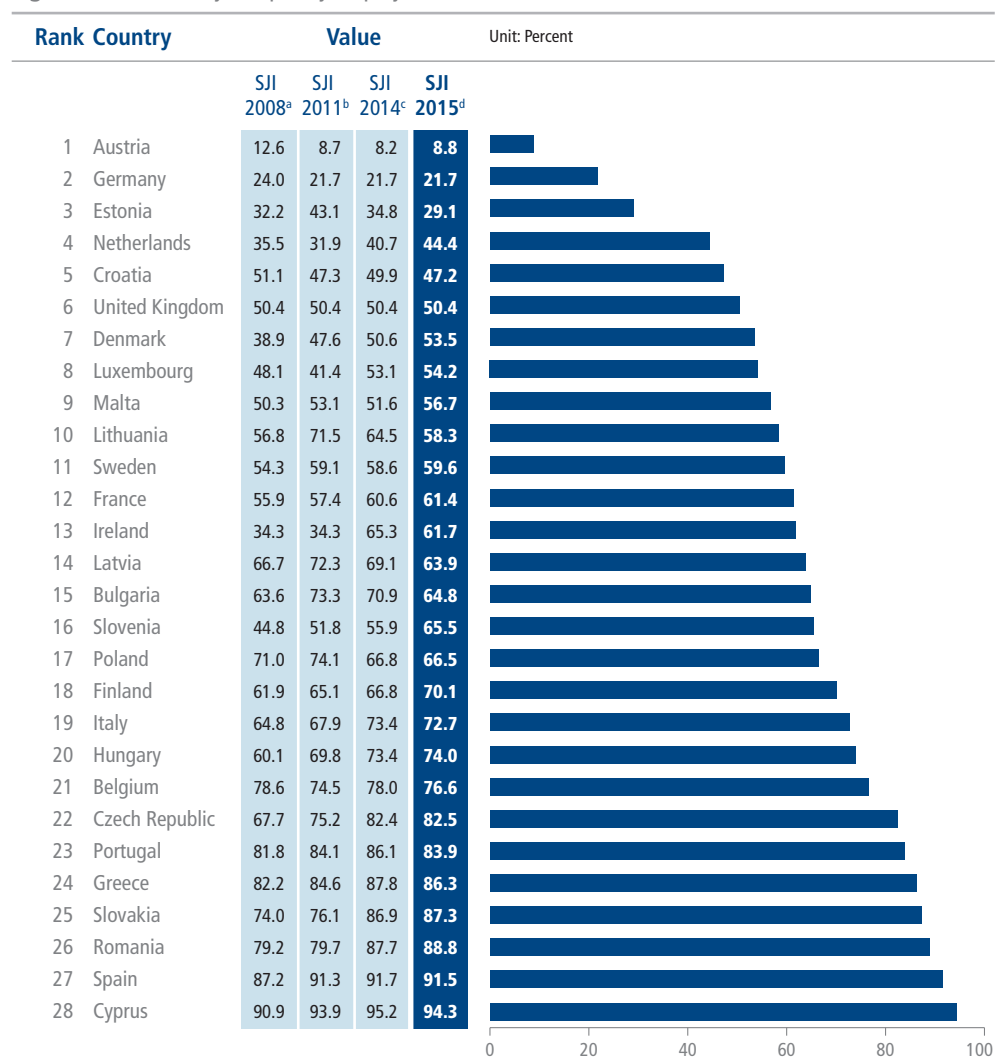
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tively little is spent on retraining, lifelong learning and adult education. Only 2.4 percent of the adult population receives training, compared to an average of 9 percent in the European Union more generally.”¹⁴

In Italy too – despite visible reform efforts made by the Renzi government – youth-unemployment and long-term-unemployment rates again increased. However, it must be hoped that the reforms

14 Petak/Bartlett/Bönker (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.

Figure 25: Involuntary Temporary Employment Rate



Source: Eurostat Online Database (data refer to a: 1999, 2003, 2008; b: 1999, 2003, 2009, 2010; c: 1999, 2009, 2013; d: 1999, 2009, 2014)

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will take effect in the coming years. In their latest report, the SGI country experts come to the following conclusion: “During 2014 (and with some delay with respect to the dramatic unemployment crisis), the current government has begun demonstrating its willingness to tackle this problem more resolutely. Starting with some more limited but immediate measures to make the hiring of youth easier, the government has launched a more systematic revision of the labor code aimed at encouraging firms to adopt more flexible but also stable and not precarious labor contracts. The law, which gives the government broad discretion in defining the specific norms (*legge delega*) in the months to come, is accompanied by fiscal measures that should make the hiring



of new workers more convenient for firms. The scheduled labor-market reforms, which will also introduce a general unemployment insurance, are ambitious and could lift Italy's labor-market policy to meet average EU levels."¹⁵

In contrast to countries such as Cyprus, Croatia and Italy, Portugal and Ireland were able to make further improvements in most labor-market indicators in comparison to the previous year. In this context, the SGI country experts certainly refer to the effects of the past years' reform policies, but other factors have also played an important role. With regard to Portugal, for example, the country experts note that the "decrease in unemployment is to a significant extent the result of growing emigration from Portugal. The National Statistics Institute (Instituto Nacional de Estatística, INE) estimates that some 128,000 Portuguese emigrated from the country in 2013, either temporarily or permanently. According to the OECD, this is on par with the levels seen during the mass-migration period of the 1960s and 1970s. Moreover, as in other parts of the European Union, youth-unemployment levels are much higher than overall unemployment, in the case of Portugal reaching 34.8 percent in May of 2014."¹⁶

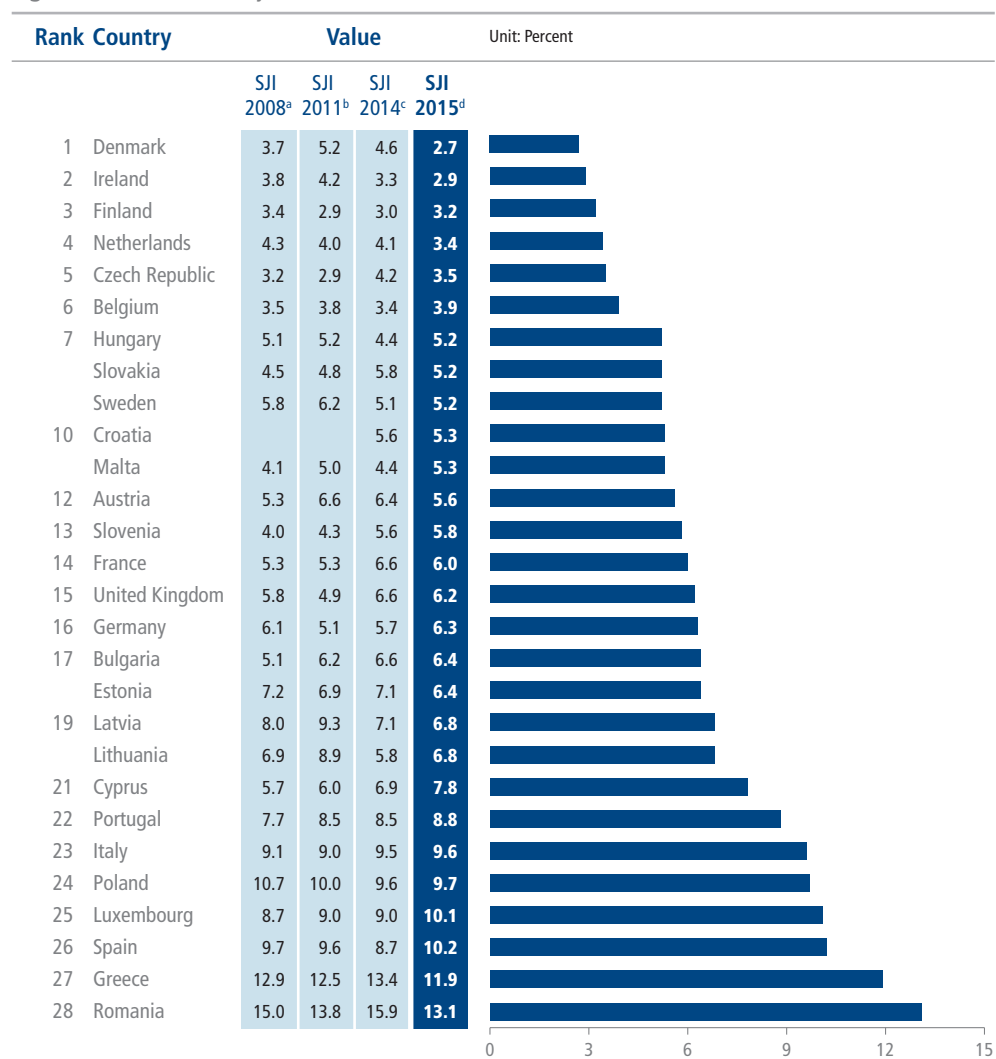
For Ireland too, the SGI experts offer a nuanced judgement regarding the effects of that country's reform policies on the labor market: "The bailout program established in agreement with the Troika placed considerable emphasis on structural labor-market reforms and activation measures such as reductions in the minimum wage, reforms within the unemployment-benefit system to increase incentives to move from unemployment to employment, reductions in poverty-welfare traps, and increased provision of training and education opportunities. There is evidence to suggest that these measures have been somewhat effective, but the continuing high level of long-term and youth unemployment points to the limited effectiveness of labor-market policies even as the economy improves."¹⁷

15 Cotta/Maruhn/Colino (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.

16 Bruneau/Jalali/Colino (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.

17 Walsh/Mitchell/Bandelow (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.

Figure 26: In-work Poverty Rate



Source: Eurostat Online Database (data refer to a: 2007; b: 2009; c: 2012; d: 2013, 2014).

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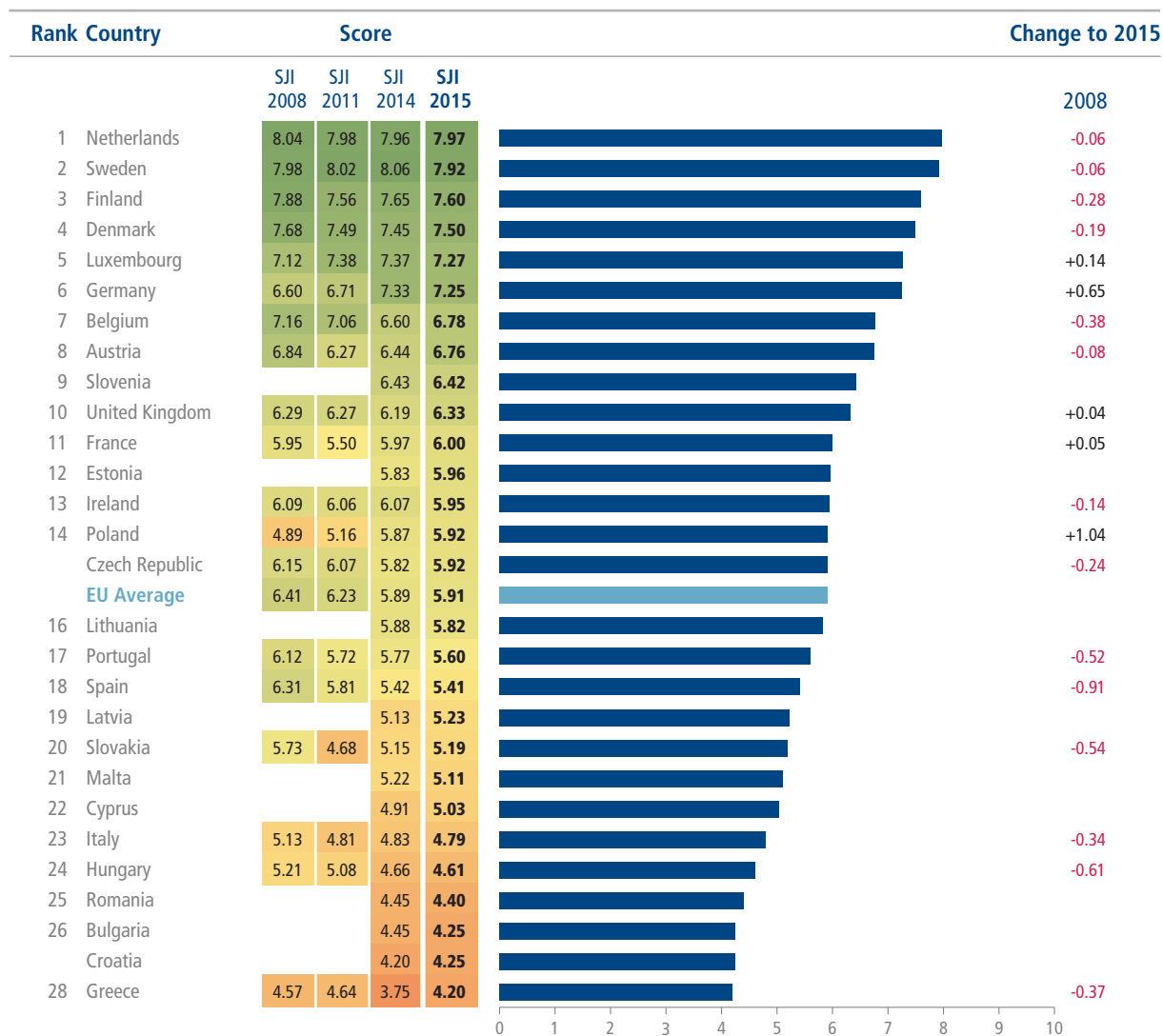
4. Social cohesion and non-discrimination

The Netherlands, Sweden and Finland sit at the top of the cross-EU comparison in the area of social cohesion and non-discrimination, followed by Denmark, Luxembourg and Germany. Romania, Bulgaria, Croatia and Greece bring up the rear. Hungary and Italy too show scores of under five points on this issue.

The poor performance of the four southeast European countries - Hungary, Romania, Croatia and Bulgaria - is in part due to their significant difficulties in preventing discrimination against



Figure 27: Social Cohesion and Non-discrimination



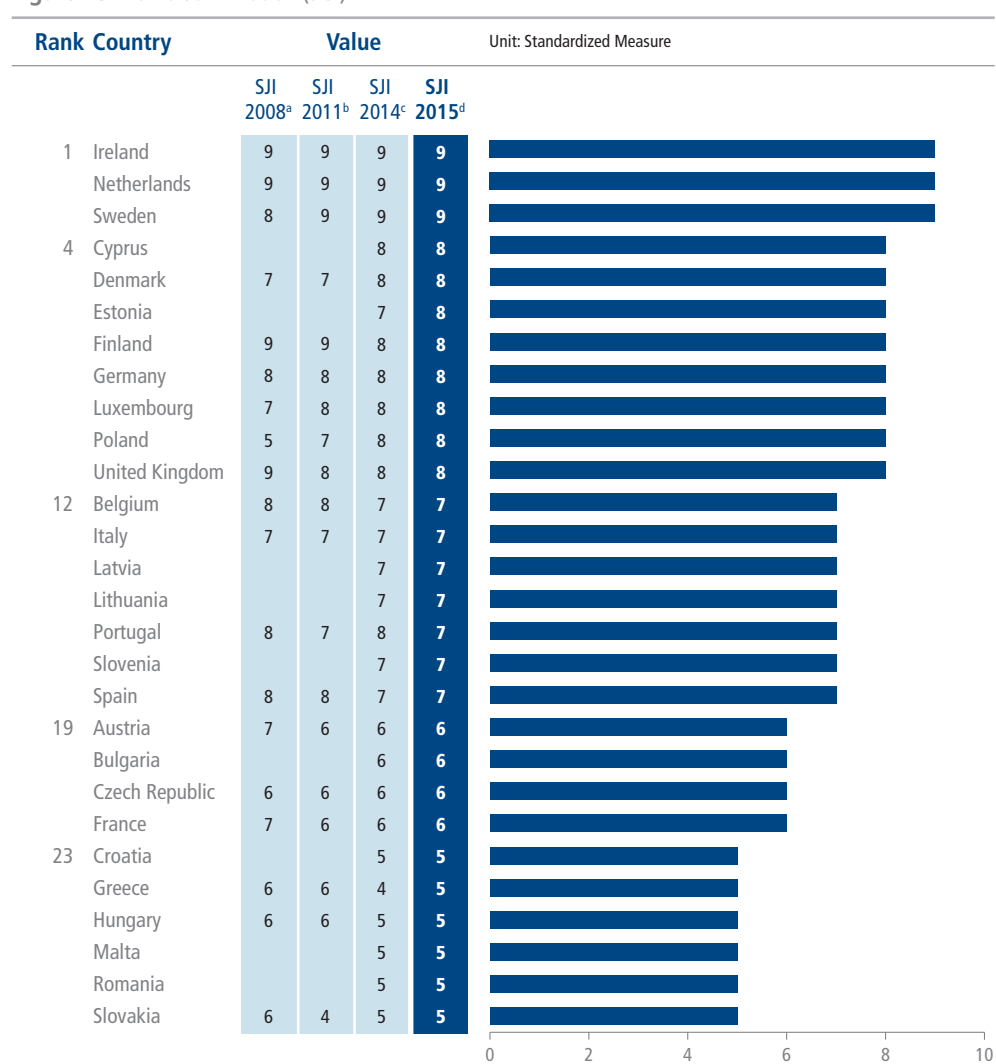
Source: Own calculations.

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certain societal groups. In Romania, for example, the country experts note that the state “has been ineffective in countering discrimination against a number of vulnerable groups, including members of the LGBT community, adults and children infected with HIV, people with disabilities, and the country’s large Roma minority. When President Basescu was fined for making a derogatory statement against the country’s Roma population in February 2014, the National Council for Combating Discrimination initially refused to exercise authority on grounds that the statement had been made outside Romania. However, the Supreme Court compelled it to take the case. The agency ultimately fined Basescu for having stated that the Roma people did not generally want

to work, preferring instead to live off stealing. The Civil Code still prohibits same-sex partnership and marriage, and fails to recognize any such marriages registered abroad. In March 2014, the Romanian parliament rejected a bill that would have legalized same-sex civil unions. The bill provided for the registration of both same-sex and heterosexual partnerships with rights of inheritance, mutual health insurance and joint mortgage.”¹⁸

Figure 28: Non-discrimination (SGI)



Source: Bertelsmann Stiftung (data from a: SGI 2009; b: SGI 2011; c: SGI 2014; d: SGI 2015).

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18 Wagner/Pop-Eleches/Bönker (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.



The experts reach a similar judgement in the case of Croatia: “Although discrimination is prohibited by the law, the legislation has not been fully implemented, and certain vulnerable groups still experience widespread discrimination. In particular, the Roma encounter discrimination in almost all areas of life, especially in education and employment. In addition, although Croatia has a good legal framework governing minority rights, Croatian citizens of Serbian ethnicity continue to experience discrimination.”¹⁹ Discrimination against the Roma minority also remains a serious social problem in Hungary and Bulgaria.

By contrast, the Netherlands, Ireland and Sweden have served as success stories and models for other countries with regard to effective non-discrimination policy: “The Netherlands is party to all the important international agreements against discrimination. A non-discrimination clause addressing religion, life philosophy, political convictions, race, sex and ‘any other grounds for discrimination’ is contained in Article 1 of the Dutch constitution. An individual can invoke Article 1 in relation to acts carried out by the government, private institutions or another individual. The constitutional framework has been specified by several acts that also refer to the EC directives on equal treatment. (...)”²⁰

In Ireland, the country experts stress the role of the so-called Equality Authority as a positive and well-functioning institutional example of anti-discrimination policy: “The Equality Authority is an independent body set up under the Employment Equality Act, 1998 to monitor discrimination. An independent equality tribunal was established under the same act to offer an accessible and impartial forum to remedy unlawful discrimination. These agencies have been active in recent years and successful in prosecuting cases on behalf of parties who felt they had been discriminated against.”²¹

Sweden achieves results at a similarly high level, although the country experts here point to a growing ethnic heterogeneity that has been expressed in problems with integration policy (see more on this below). Overall, however, Sweden remains one of the most egalitarian societies in the EU and OECD.

Finland’s slight deterioration in this area is interesting, as it too has been an example of extremely successful anti-discrimination policy for years. In discussing this decline, the country experts point in large part to the influence of the True Finns political party: “Rights of ethnic and religious minorities are as a rule well protected in Finland, and the criminal code discriminates against anyone who incites violence on racial, national, ethnic or religious grounds. The rights of the Swedish-speaking minority in Finland are widely respected, with Swedish also recognized as an official language. However, reforms to public administration at the local level, which are still pending, would violate some of the rights of the Swedish-speaking population. Meanwhile,

19 Petak/Bartlett/Bönker (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.

20 Hoppe/Woldendorp/Bandelow (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.

21 Walsh/Mitchell/Bandelow (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.

certain segments of the population, primarily represented by the True Finns Party, have turned hostile toward the Swedish-speaking population of Finland. The Åland Islands, whose inhabitants speak Swedish, have historically maintained extensive autonomy and a home-rule parliament as well as one permanent seat in the national legislature. In all, Finland has often been seen as a forerunner concerning its efforts to put forth an effective minority protection policy. Cases of discrimination are rather rare. However, ethnic minorities and asylum seekers report occasional police discrimination, and Finland has on occasion been found in violation of Article 6 of the European Convention on Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms. Roma individuals, who make up a small proportion of the population, are widely marginalized. The True Finns Party encourage discrimination of ethnic minorities and asylum seekers.”²²

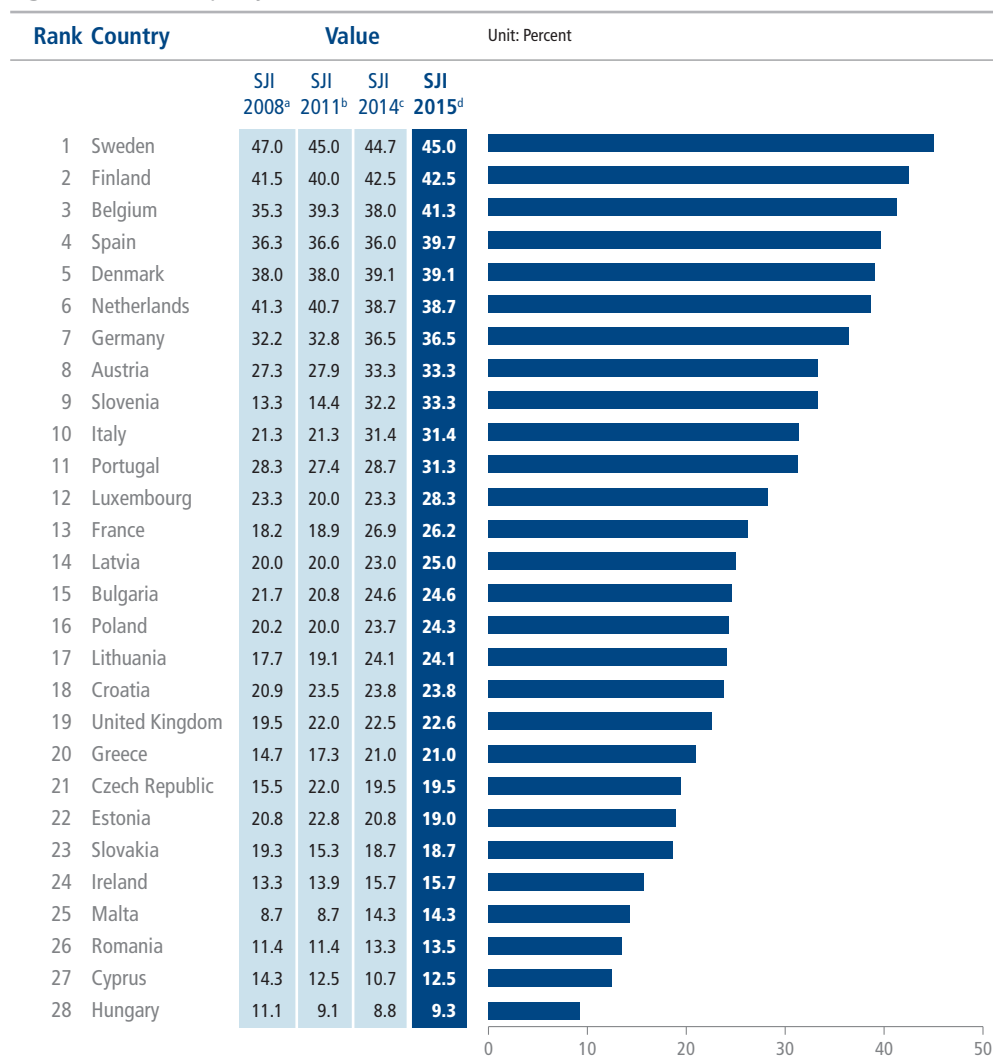
One aspect of successful anti-discrimination policy is the prevention of discrimination on the basis of gender. In many EU states, discrimination against women in particular continues to be an issue – whether with regard to the principle of equal pay for equal work or the question of women’s representation in leadership positions or political offices. If one considers the share of national parliamentary seats by gender as a proxy indicator for this issue, it is notable that no EU state has as many women as there are men serving as parliamentary deputies. The situation in Hungary is the worst in this regard. Here, fewer than 10 percent of deputies are women. Malta, Romania and Cyprus perform similarly badly on this measure, each with a share of under 15 percent. The most balanced ratio can be found in Sweden, where 45 of 100 deputies are women. In Finland and Belgium, the share is over 40 percent.

Overall, the Nordic countries still do the best job in relative terms in terms of preventing social exclusion. However, it is interesting that the lowest level of income inequality has for some time no longer been found in the north European countries, but rather in Slovakia, Slovenia and the Czech Republic. Sweden follows only in fourth place, with Finland at sixth and Denmark in ninth place. The level of income inequality in these countries is in this regard significantly higher than in 2007. Germany sits at 10th place, and has also shown an increase in income inequality as compared to the previous year. However, the EU’s highest levels of income inequality are evident in Spain, Bulgaria and Latvia.

²² Anckar/Kuitto/Oberst/Jahn (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.



Figure 29: Gender Equality in Parliaments

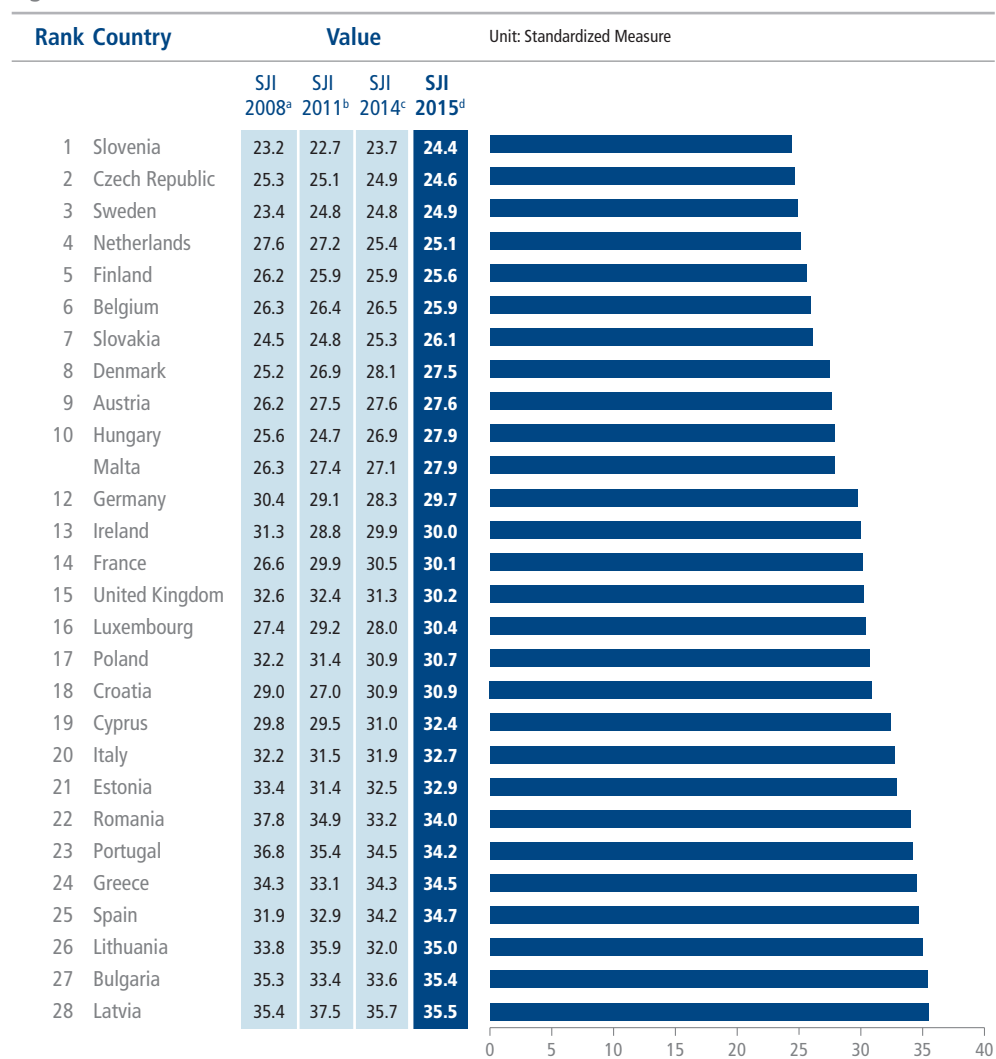


Source: World Bank Gender Statistics Database (data refer to a: 2008; b: 2010; c: 2013; d: 2014).

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In the area of integration policy too, the north European countries show certain weaknesses that tarnish otherwise very good performances overall across the issue of social inclusion. However, policy in these states is by no means inactive: Sweden has made diverse efforts in the area of immigration and integration, and like many other EU countries, today faces enormous challenges as a result of the current dramatic refugee situation: “Sweden has a generous immigration policy. The country has received a large number of refugees from Iraq and Syria and, in 1992, from former Yugoslavia. Indeed, there are individual local authorities (Södertälje) that have received more immigrants from Iraq than has the entire United States. In the European setting, Sweden,

Figure 30: Gini Coefficient



Source: Eurostat Online Database (data refer to a: 2007; b: 2009; c: 2012; d: 2013, 2014).

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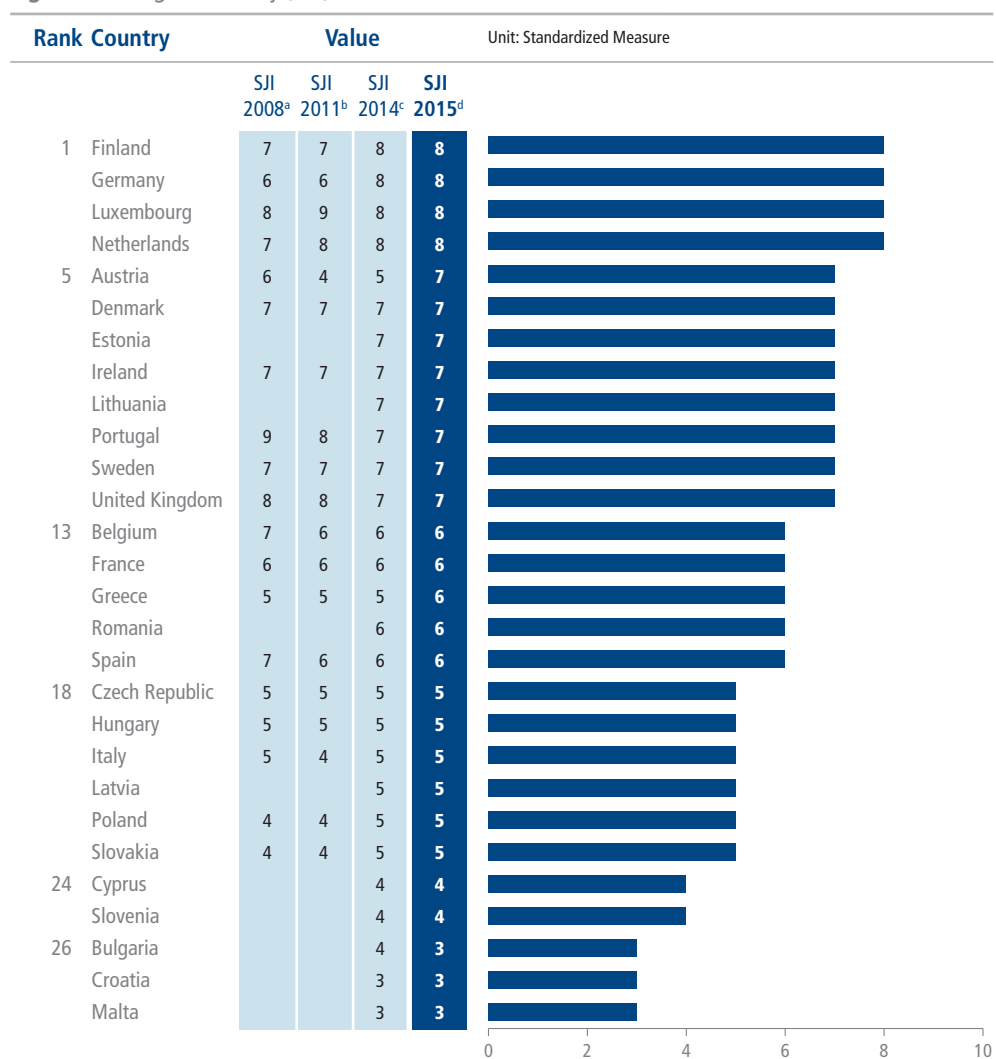
together with Germany, stands out as one of the most immigration-friendly countries. (...) The increasing immigration represents a significant challenge to Swedish integration policy. These policies cover a wide range of measures, from language training to supportive labor market and housing policies. Most of the policies are implemented locally. Given the great autonomy of Swedish local governments, the instruments vary regionally. There are now political signals that local autonomy should no longer prevent individual local authorities from being requested by central government to receive asylum seekers.”²³ However, the country experts find that it is “difficult

23 Pierre/Jochem/Jahn (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.



to argue that integration policy in Sweden has been successful. In terms of both educational attainment and employment, immigrants in Sweden find it much more difficult to integrate than immigrants in comparable countries. This is not to say that there is a lack of political or economic commitment to integration policy. To the contrary, integration policy remains a very important policy sector and related political activities are far reaching. The activities of the ombudsman and the minister for immigration and equality ensure that immigration issues have a high public salience. Sweden's lack of success in integrating immigrants, despite strong efforts otherwise, thus indicates the problem lies in the design and implementation of its integration policies. It is

Figure 31: Integration Policy (SGI)



Source: Bertelsmann Stiftung (data from a: SGI 2009; b: SGI 2011; c: SGI 2014; d: SGI 2015).

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possible that the same obstacles facing young people as they try to make their way into the labor market also discriminate against immigrants. There is some good news, however. Studies show that second-generation immigrants, particularly girls, perform well in secondary and tertiary education. However, for immigrants with low education, entry into a labor market with high standards seems more or less blocked.”²⁴

In Denmark’s case, the country experts come to similar conclusions with regard to current developments and challenges in the area of integration policy: “The employment rate of immigrants and their descendants (ages 16 to 64) is low, though it had been increasing from the mid-1980s until the onset of the financial crises. There is a substantial employment gap, taking into account the age distribution, immigrants from non-western countries have an employment rate which is 38% lower than that of ethnic Danes (for descendants the gap is 18%). The gap is particularly higher for women (43%) than for men (33%). For immigrants from Western countries the gap is about 20% (for descendants about 11%). The gaps in employment rates should also be seen in light of the fact that employment rates in Denmark are high for both men and women, and there are high qualification requirements to find a job and high minimum wages. Concerning educational achievements, immigrants and their descendants – especially girls – are making progress. In 2013, for the age group 30 to 39 about 47% of men and 64% of women had completed a labor market qualifying education. The corresponding numbers for ethnic Danes are 72% and 80%. For those 22 years old, 49% of male and 61% of female non-western descendants are in education, which is only two and three percentage points below the corresponding rates for ethnic Danes.”²⁵ Countries such as Belgium and France have significantly bigger problems. In discussing the situation in Belgium, the country experts emphasize that “there is a political will to help resident foreigners and second- or third-generation immigrants acquire Belgian citizenship, by providing adults with easy access to inexpensive or free training (including language, civic education and so on). However, Belgium keeps failing to adapt its education system, which is ill-adapted to non-native language students. In some urban areas, the proportion of these students is high, and schools are unable to provide adequate education. Natives do their best to avoid these schools, which reinforces segregation. The French Community (one of the sub-governments in Belgium) implemented reforms to force mixing, but with schemes that are so inefficient that they only seem to have exacerbated the situation. Labor-market discrimination remains high. The Center for Equal Opportunities and Opposition to Racism was formed to address such problems. And while there are several proactive policies in place, the deep education and employment gaps between Belgian nationals and residents of non-European origin persist.”²⁶

Similar problems are evident in France: “The integration of the so-called second (in fact, often the third) generation of immigrants, especially coming from Maghreb countries, is difficult for many reasons: education system failures; community concentration in urban/suburban ghettos; high

24 Pierre/Jochem/Jahn (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.

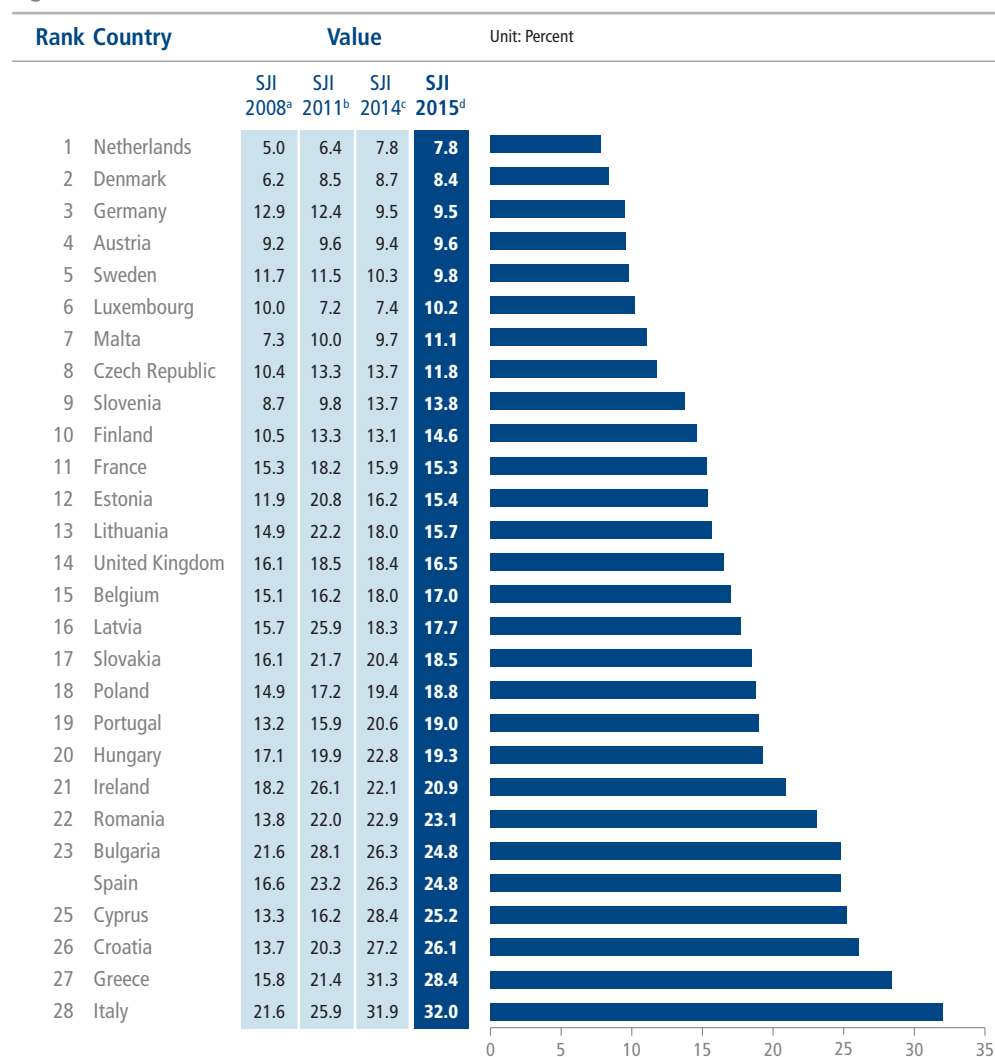
25 Laursen/Andersen/Jahn (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.

26 Castanheira/Rihoux/Bandelow (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.



unemployment; cultural identity issues, and so on. Add to this the challenges of illegal immigrants, many of whom moved to France more than 10 or 15 years ago yet have no regular job and thus do not contribute to the pension system. Although they have access to health care and their children can attend schools, the situation is often dramatic and inextricable as for many, it is impossible to fulfill the requirements for a residence permit. Immigrants must demonstrate that they have the required documents, such as tax records, employment contracts and housing contracts, while at the same time they are essentially forced into the labor and housing black market. Potential employers and landlords will not document that they employ or house illegal aliens, as this is a

Figure 32: NEET Rate



Source: Eurostat Online Database (data refer to a: 2008; b: 2010; c: 2013; d: 2014).

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crime. Under such conditions, integration is difficult, if not impossible. Immigration from Eastern Europe and the southern Balkans, the ‘migration of the poor,’ is also a sensitive subject.”²⁷

Finally, as another indicator in the social cohesion and non-discrimination dimension, we consider the so-called NEET rate, which refers to the share of youth that are neither in education nor employed. This indicator sheds light on a key aspect of social exclusion among young people. Here, as might be expected, the crisis-battered southern European states are the countries with the greatest problems. With a NEET rate that has risen to 32 percent, Italy brings up an unhappy rear in this regard. This rate is also nearly 30 percent in Greece and Croatia, which in both cases is around twice as high as in 2008. By contrast, the Netherlands, Denmark, Germany and Austria take the first four places in the comparison, showing the lowest NEET rates. In Germany, this rate even fell by more than three percentage points between 2008 and 2014 – more than in any other EU country.

5. Health

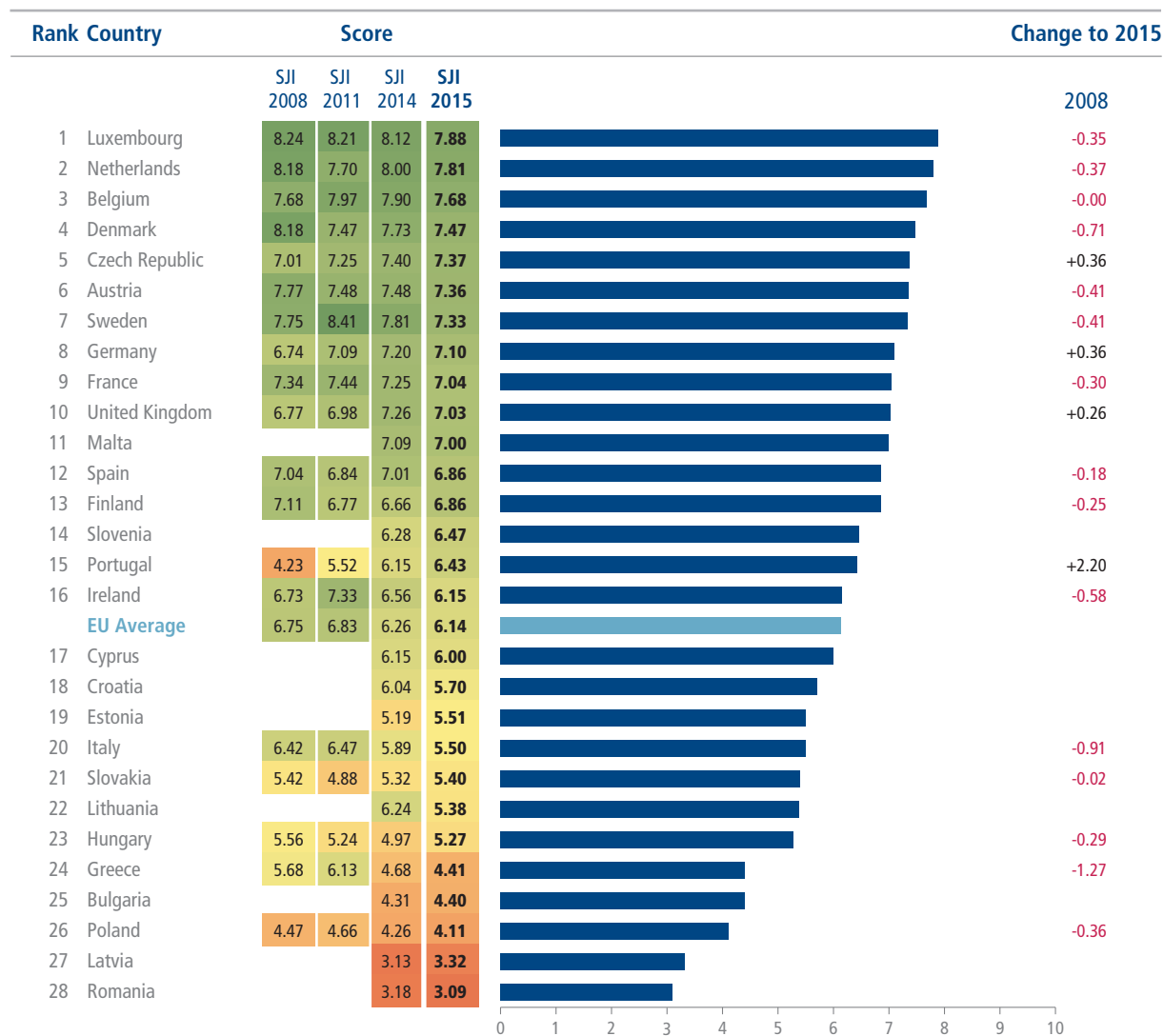
In the area of health, the Benelux countries, Denmark and the Czech Republic hold the top five places. Austria, Sweden and Germany also belong to the expanded top group. By contrast, conditions have deteriorated once again in Greece, which is five places from the bottom in the cross-EU comparison.

In most EU countries, the quality of health care is high. However, with regard both to quality and inclusivity in health care systems (equality of access), there are quite significant variations within the European Union. The greatest deficits are still to be found in Latvia and Romania. Country experts offer the following judgement in their most recent SGI report on Romania, which is also reflected in the quantitative indicators utilized here: “Romania has a public health-insurance system with claim to universal coverage. However, the quality and equity of Romania’s public-health system has been undermined by inadequate funding: Romania has the lowest health-budget allocation of any EU member state. Moreover, after a gradual increase from 3.5% of GDP in 2002 to 4.8% in 2010, health care spending declined again to 4.2% in 2014, and has been set at 4% in the 2015 budget despite rising health care demand. Due largely to this underfunding, the de facto availability of many medical services is severely limited, thereby leading to widespread bribe-giving by patients even for basic services. When an illness requires hospitalization, the Romanian patient typically has to bribe three or four health workers for sums often totaling a significant percentage of the family’s monthly income. Moreover, for many specialized procedures patients have to resort to private providers, which offer higher-quality services but are often quite expensive, thereby leading to significant inequities in medical-care access. Cost efficiency is undermined by the failure of the National Health Insurance Agency (CNAS) and local authorities to monitor hospitals’ performance and program investments in the sector. The complex and sometimes con-

27 Mény/Uterwedde/Zohlnhöfer (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.



Figure 33: Health



Source: Own calculations.

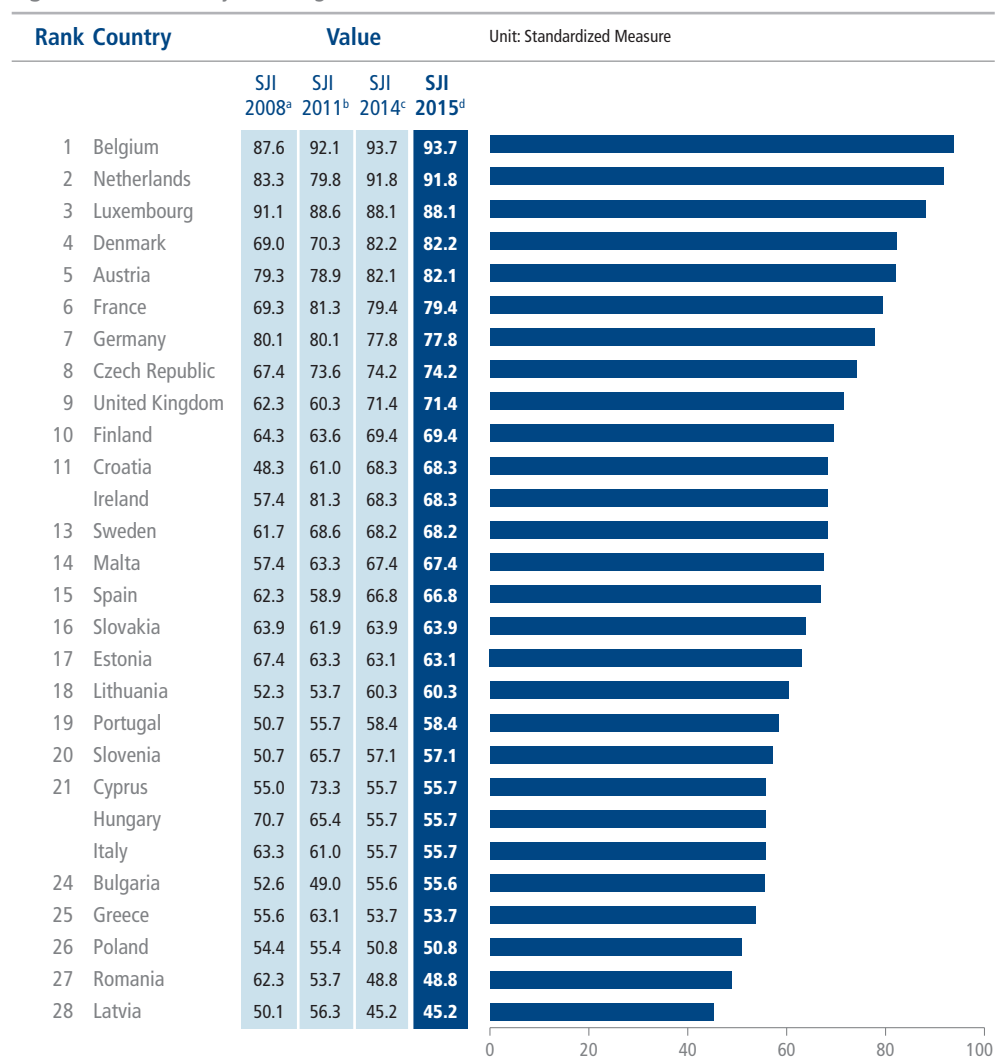
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tradictory set of regulations concerning the relationship between the private and the public sector further aggravates this problem.”²⁸

In Latvia too, problems of quality and equity in the health sector remain significant: “Health outcomes for Latvia continue to lag behind those of most EU member states and dissatisfaction

28 Wagner/Pop-Eleches/Bönker (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.

with the system remains high. Mortality rates for men, women and infants are higher than in most other EU countries. (...) The health care system is based on a residence principle. Residents have free access to a family physician, who approves state-paid further treatment. This system results in long queues. Health care benefits are available at state- and municipality-owned institutions as well as private inpatient and outpatient facilities. The large co-payment required to access services restricts access for low-income groups. The implementation of the Social Safety Net Strategy 2009 - 2011 sought to address this by introducing a compensation mechanism for low-income groups. Low-income and other at-risk patients receive full exemptions from co-payments and

Figure 34: Accessibility and Range


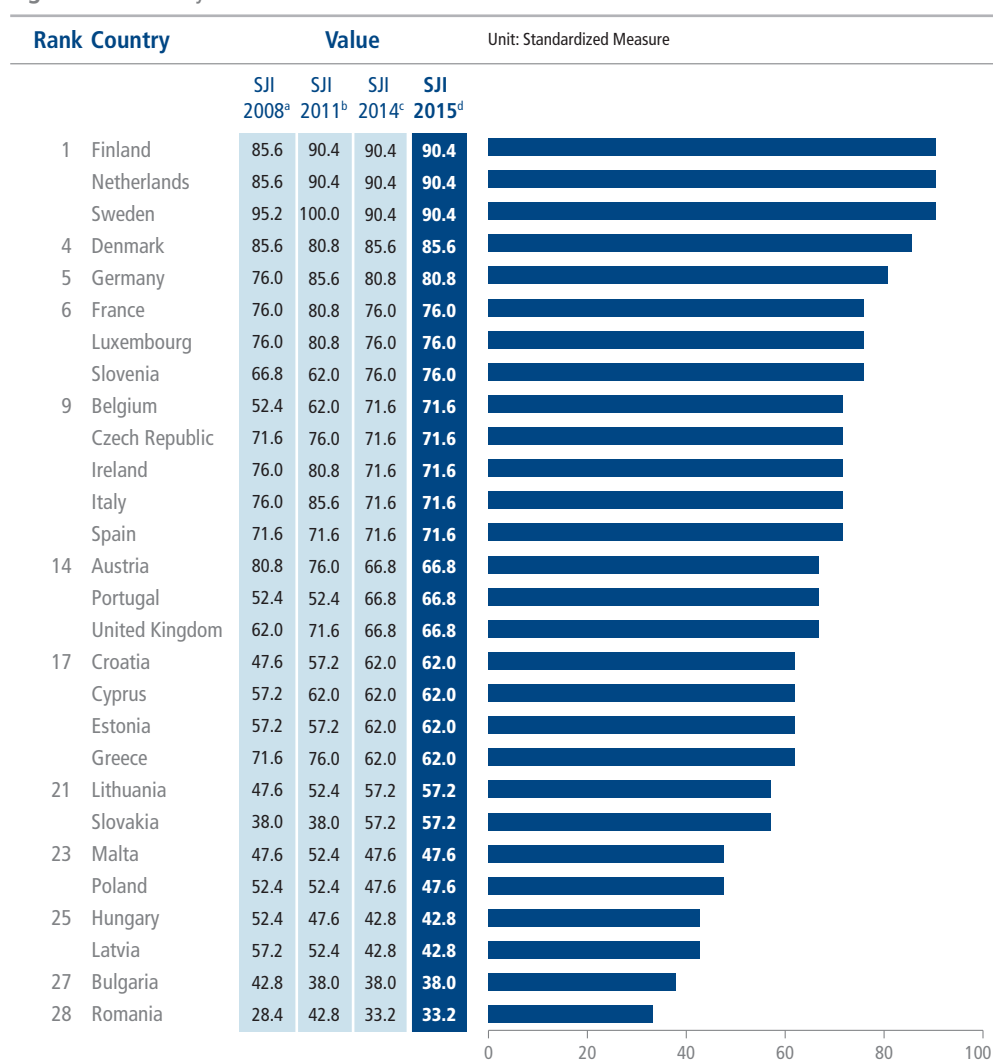
Source: Euro Health Consumer Index (data refer to a: 2008; b: 2009; c: 2013; d: 2013).

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pharmaceuticals charges. In total, 61,000 outpatient visits and 3,800 inpatient visits were covered for low-income and other at-risk patients under the program. However, lower income patients not qualifying for assistance continue to face steep co-payments and pharmaceutical charges, limiting access to care. Financial constraints focus public funding on the provision of emergency care, while creating long waiting times for non-emergency care.”²⁹

Figure 35: Health System Outcomes



Source: Euro Health Consumer Index (data refer to a: 2008; b: 2009; c: 2013; d: 2013).

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29 Terauda/Auers/Jahn (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.

Greece's further deterioration must be regarded and judged in the context of the ongoing crisis: "After the crisis erupted, public spending on health care was subjected to cuts similar to those effected in other welfare policies. Moreover, the restructuring of Greek public debt in February 2012 negatively affected the finances of health-insurance funds, which held parts of that debt. In other words, after 2010, the economic crisis became a severe crisis for health-insurance funds. Since 2010, pharmaceutical companies and suppliers of necessary goods and services to public hospitals have delayed making deliveries to such organizations. Additionally, the job motivation of doctors serving in public hospitals suffered from wage cuts imposed across the public sector. All this injured the capacity of the public health care system to meet demand for health care services. Some of this demand was met in various Greek cities by makeshift 'social clinics' providing services to patients free of charge. Such clinics were staffed by volunteer medical doctors and nurses and hosted by municipal authorities." One consequence of these developments has been a deterioration within the indicator of "Self-reported unmet need for medical help."³⁰ Between 2007 and 2013, the number of people who say they are unable to obtain needed medical care as a result of financial constraints, long waiting lists or geographical distances has risen from 5.4 percent to 9 percent. This is the most significant such increase within the entire European Union. In absolute terms, only Romania (10.4%) and Latvia (13.8%) are still behind Greece on this measure.

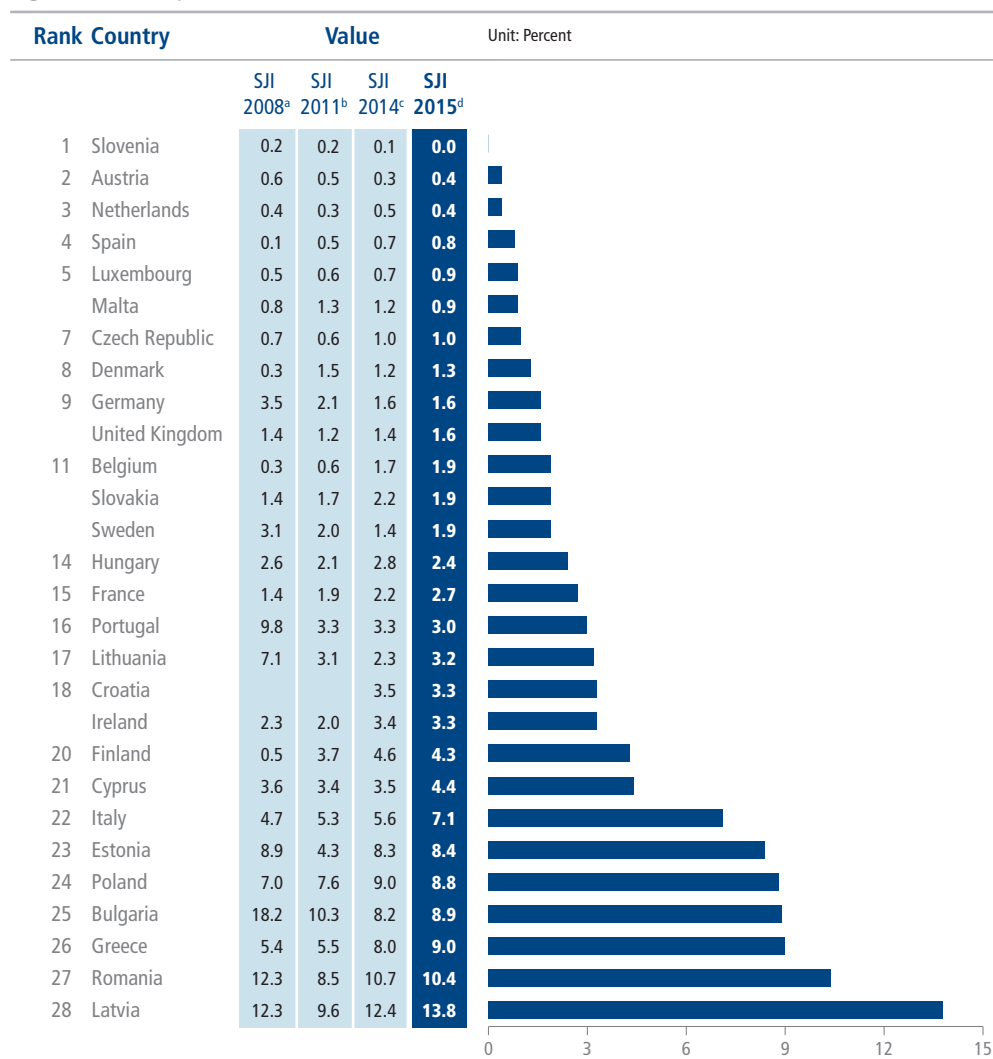
Despite these significant problems, Greece still has the fourth-best score on the issue of healthy life expectancy. People in Greece can expect an average of 64.9 healthy life (or disability-free) years. Only Malta, Ireland and Sweden perform better in this respect. Germany's poor outcome on this measure is somewhat surprising. Here, the average number of healthy life years is just 57.4, well below the EU average. The Netherlands and Denmark, each with a value of just under 60 years, also fall into the lower third with respect to this indicator. This suggests that for the number of expected healthy life years, it is not only the quality of and conditions of access to health care that are relevant, but also individual behavior in the sense of healthy or unhealthy lifestyles. In the case of Denmark, which has one of the most inclusive health care systems in the European Union, the country experts point out that "there has been a marked decline in smoking in recent years, but obesity rates have increased. The social gradient in health remains strong."³¹

30 Sotiropoulos/Featherstone/Karadag (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.

31 Laursen/Andersen/Jahn (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.



Figure 36: Self-reported Unmet Medical Needs

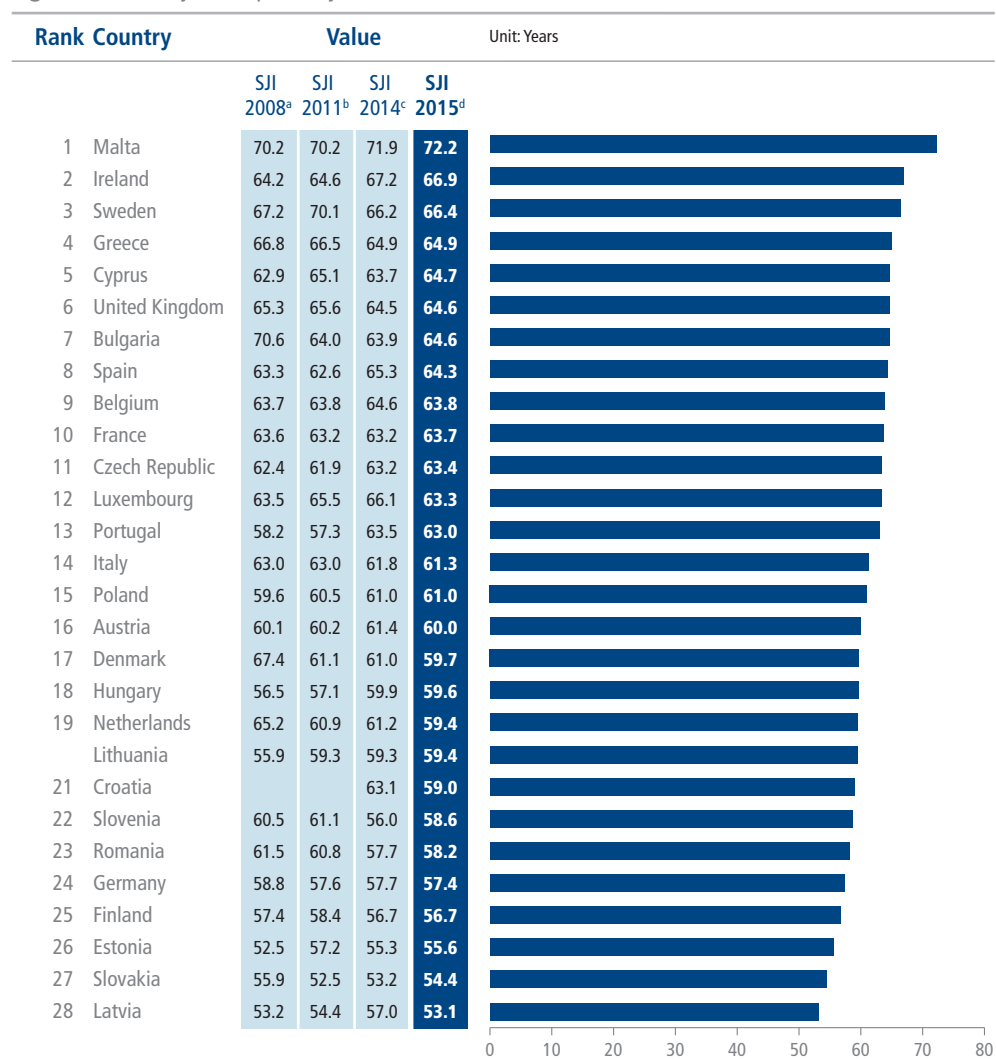


Source: Eurostat Online Database (data refer to a: 2007; b: 2009; c: 2011, 2012; d: 2013).

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Italy is among the countries to have deteriorated relatively significantly in recent years. Strong regional differences have had an effect on this outcome, and the SGI country experts do not provide an optimistic assessment of future prospects: “On average, the services provided achieve medium to high standards of quality (a recent Bloomberg analysis ranked the Italian system among the most efficient in the world), but, due to significant differences in local infrastructures, cultural factors, and the political and managerial proficiency of local administrations, the quality of public health care is not nationally uniform. In spite of similar levels of per capita expenditure, services are generally better in northern and central Italy than in southern Italy. In some areas of the south, corruption, clientelism and administrative inefficiency have driven up health care costs.

Figure 37: Healthy Life Expectancy



Source: Eurostat Online Database (data refer to a: 2007; b: 2009; c: 2011, 2012; d: 2012, 2013).

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In these regions, lower quality levels and typically longer waiting lists mean that wealthier individuals will often turn to private-sector medical care. Regional disparities also lead to a significant amount of health tourism heading north. Early moves in the direction of fiscal federalism are now stimulating efforts to change this situation through the introduction of a system of national quality standards (correlated with resources), which should be implemented across regions. Preventive health care programs are effective and well publicized in some regions such as Tuscany and other northern and central regions. However, such programs in other regions such as Sicily are much weaker and less accessible to the average health care user. As is the case in Greece, increasingly



more NGOs (e.g., Emergency) traditionally active in developing countries are providing services within Italy and providing essential health care to citizens who are falling through the cracks of the Italian public health care system. As household incomes are shrinking and citizens are increasingly burdened with additional medical-services costs (e.g., dental medicine and general prevention) not covered by the public health care system, overall public health is expected to decline in the coming years.”³²

6. Intergenerational justice

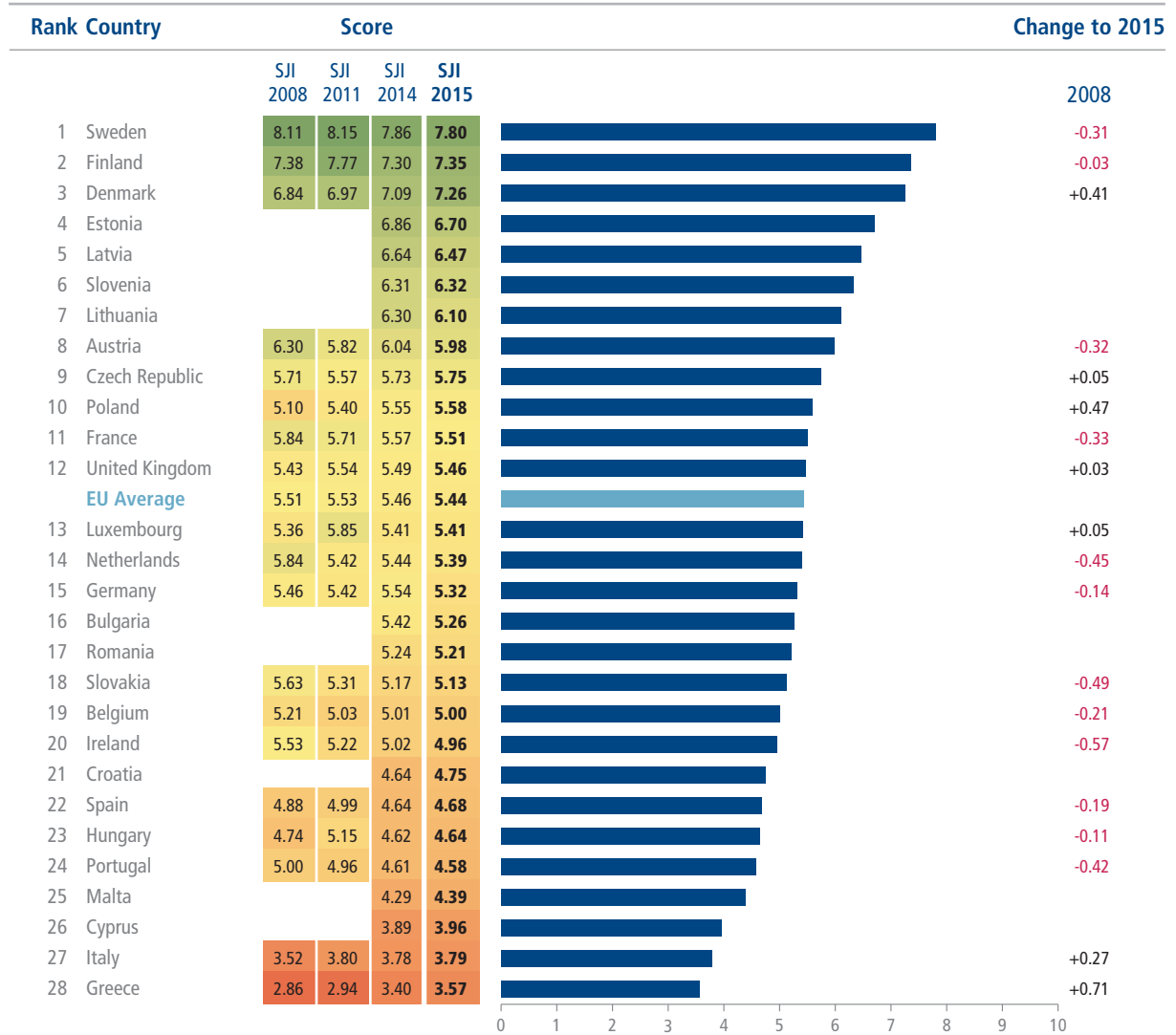
In the area of intergenerational justice, the Nordic and Baltic states in particular show themselves as best-situated to do justice to the issue’s complex and multidimensional challenges. Slovenia too is ranked among the top six. By contrast, the southern European countries of Portugal, Malta, Cyprus, Italy and Greece bring up the rear in the cross-EU comparison. Germany, which today sits only at 15th place, has declined relatively significantly, and now performs below the EU average.

Despite significant demographic pressures, the top-placing Nordic countries have best succeeded in keeping the interests of the younger generations in view, while pursuing policies that are equally sound for the young and old alike. In this regard, these countries continue to serve as a model for other EU states in the area of family policy. Sweden, for instance, “has been politically and economically committed to strong family policy for the past 50 years. Major features of Sweden’s policy have been the separation of spouses’ income and individual taxation, the expansion of public and private day-care centers and a very generous parental-leave program provided to both women and men, which has created much better possibilities to combine a professional career with parenthood.”³³ The same is true of Denmark and Finland – although France’s family policies also receive high marks from the SGI country experts.

32 Cotta/Maruhn/Colino (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.

33 Pierre/Jochem/Jahn (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.

Figure 38: Intergenerational Justice



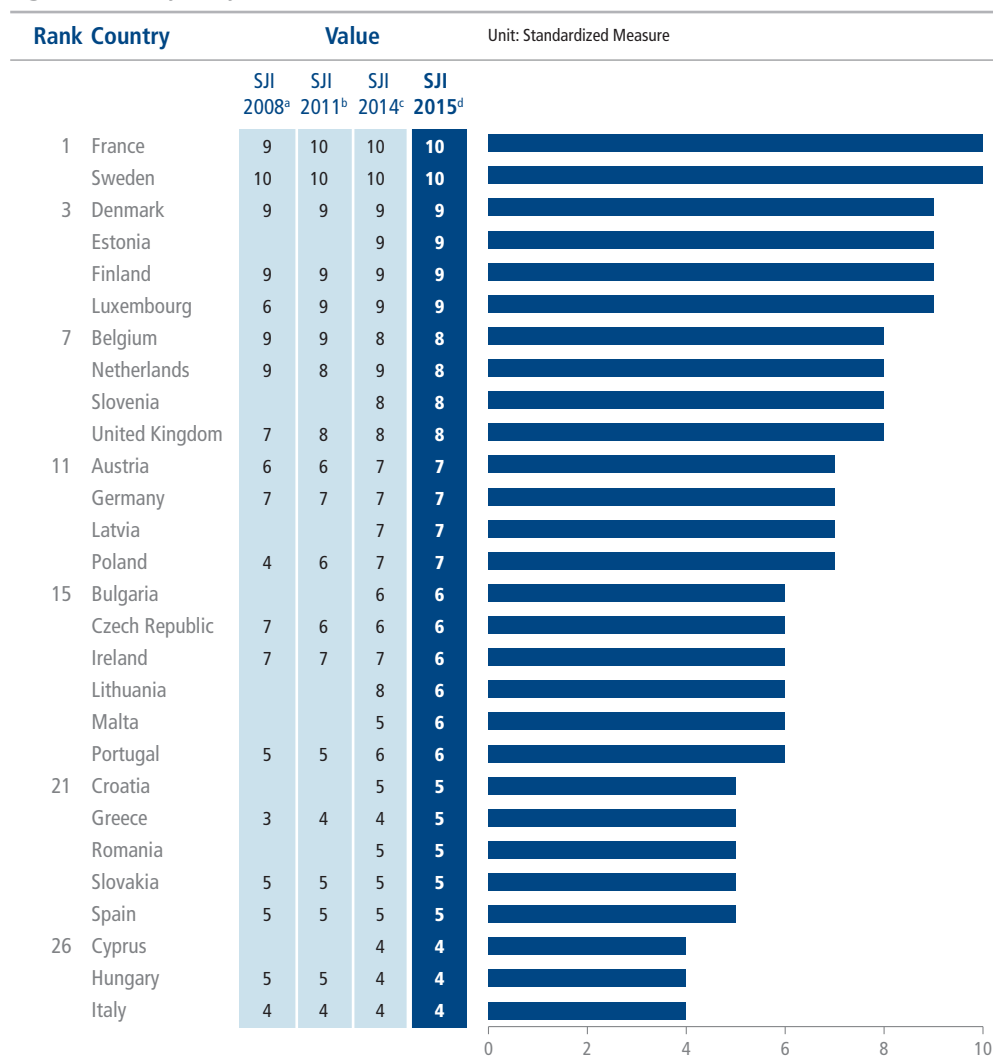
Source: Own calculations.

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Italy, by contrast, appears more problematic from the perspective of family policy: “Italian society has traditionally relied very much upon its very strong family institutions. The family (often in its extended version) remains even today a major provider of welfare for its weakest components – children, young couples with precarious jobs and elders. Within the family, significant amounts of economic redistribution take place, and important services are provided, such as the care of preschool age children by grandparents. Partly because of this reliance, family support policies have been generally weak. Apart from relatively generous rules on maternity leave (paid for by social insurance) and limited tax deductions for children, the state has not offered much. Public day-care facilities for preschool children are available on a limited scale and vary significantly



Figure 39: Family Policy (SGI)



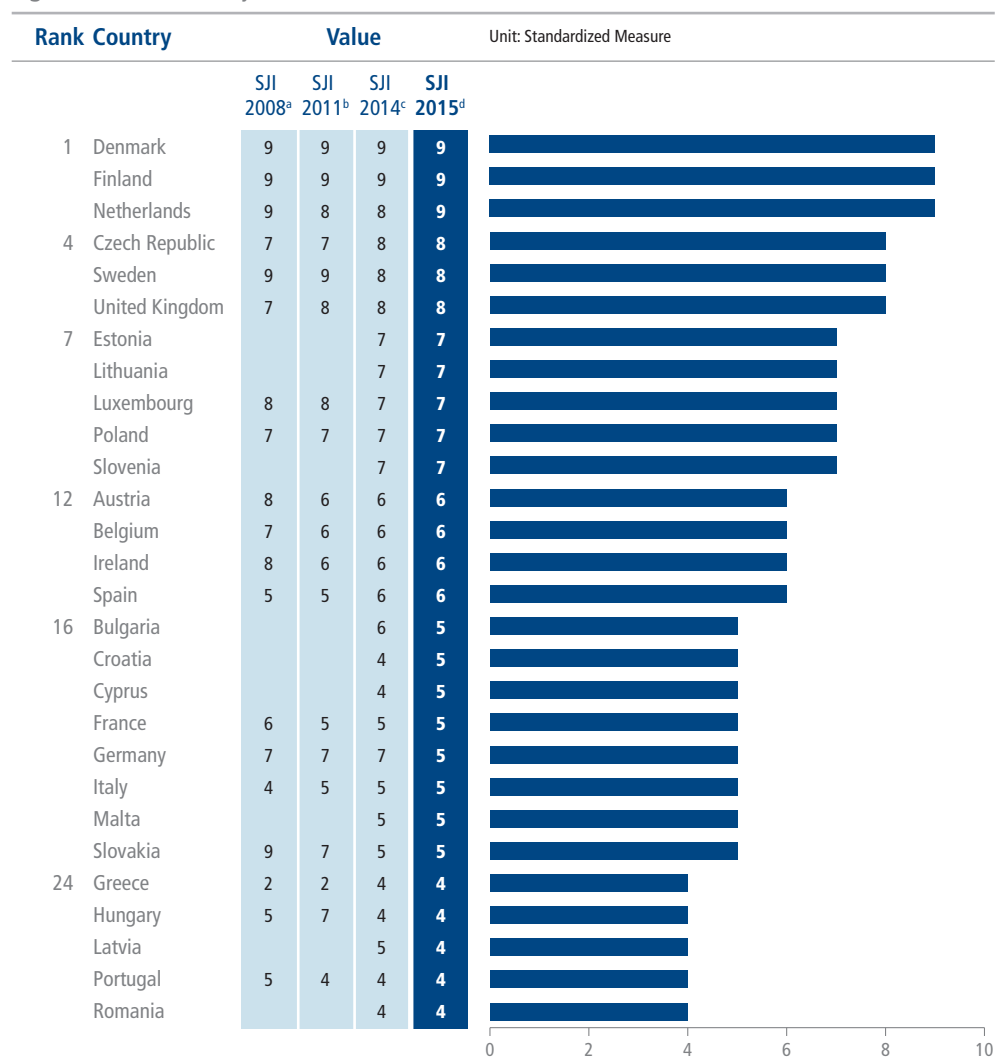
Source: Bertelsmann Stiftung (data from a: SGI 2009; b: SGI 2011; c: SGI 2014; d: SGI 2015).

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across regions. Private firms and public offices have only recently started offering similar services, with some support from the state. (...) New and innovative Scandinavian-style concepts (such as parental leave) which go beyond maternity allowance are not widely implemented. The whole child-care sector, and indeed the state of the public debate over the ability of women to combine work and children, lags behind that in the wealthier European countries. The decreasing transfers of financial resources to regions and municipalities during previous and current governments mean that many institutions and projects working in family support have run out of money and may have to cut back services significantly.”³⁴

34 Cotta/Maruhn/Colino (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.

Figure 40: Pension Policy (SGI)



Source: Bertelsmann Stiftung (data from a: SGI 2009; b: SGI 2011; c: SGI 2014; d: SGI 2015).

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The Nordic states' ability to serve as a model for other countries not only in family policy, but also with regard to the design of pension policies, is underlined particularly by Finland and Denmark. In recent years, these countries have carried out successful reforms aimed both at securing the financial sustainability of their pension systems and ensuring a high degree of social security and intergenerational justice within these systems. In Finland, "a reform of the pensions system between 2004 and 2005 sought to introduce greater flexibility into pension policy and create more incentives to encourage workers to stay in employment later in life. While these reforms were successful, further reforms are scheduled for 2017. In September 2014, social partners agreed on



a further gradual increase of the lowest retirement age to 65 (with exceptions for labor-intensive occupations at 63), flexible retirement and amendments of the accumulation rate. The results of these negotiations gives cause for cautious optimism regarding the financial sustainability of the pension system.”³⁵ Denmark too has done much in recent years to protect the future sustainability of its pension system: “The financial consequences of increasing longevity are large, and have been at the core of policy debates for some years. A so-called welfare reform was approved with broad parliamentary support in 2006. This scheme increases the statutory age for early retirement by two years over the period from 2019 to 2023, and the statutory pension age by two years over the period from 2024 to 2027. After these transition periods, the statutory ages are linked to longevity via an indexation mechanism targeting an average retirement period of 14.5 years plus a possible three years for early retirement. This reform is a significant response to the challenge of Denmark’s aging population, and in combination with other recent reforms, will ensure the sustainability of its public finances.”³⁶

By contrast, the biggest problems with regard to sustainable and intergenerationally just pension policies are evident in Greece, Hungary, Latvia, Portugal and Romania. In Portugal’s case, the country experts also point to the ambivalent effects of crisis-related austerity policies: “The pension program has been one of the most closely scrutinized aspects of government policy since the 2011 bailout, and has been one of the main areas in which the government has sought to reduce public expenditure. To that end, a number of cuts and modifications were enacted, and remained in place during the assessment period. While these cuts have hit the highest pension-drawers especially hard, they have also affected poorer pensioners – undermining the goal of preventing poverty among the elderly. A study indicated that in 2010 – 2011, three out of four pensioners in Portugal received a pension of €500 or less per month, and that the risk of poverty among the elderly is higher in Portugal than elsewhere in the European Union. This statistic was likely aggravated by subsequent cuts in pensions. However, the 2015 budget unveiled in October 2014 partially alleviates some of these cuts, especially for lower pensions, although it is as yet far from undoing all the cuts of the bailout period. The government has also sought to bolster the pension system’s fiscal sustainability. To that end, the retirement age was increased from 65 to 66 years beginning in 2014, and is expected to remain there through 2015. From 2015 on, the retirement age will increase every year depending on the evolution of average life expectancy. Thus, it is expected to increase by two months in 2016. However, as per the previous report, the diminishing population – as both birth and immigration rates fall – is putting additional pressure on the social security system.”³⁷

Germany is also an interesting case. The decline in the Federal Republic’s score with regard to intergenerational justice is among the European Union’s largest. In this regard, the SGI experts come to the following conclusion: “Far-reaching pension reforms were adopted by the new gov-

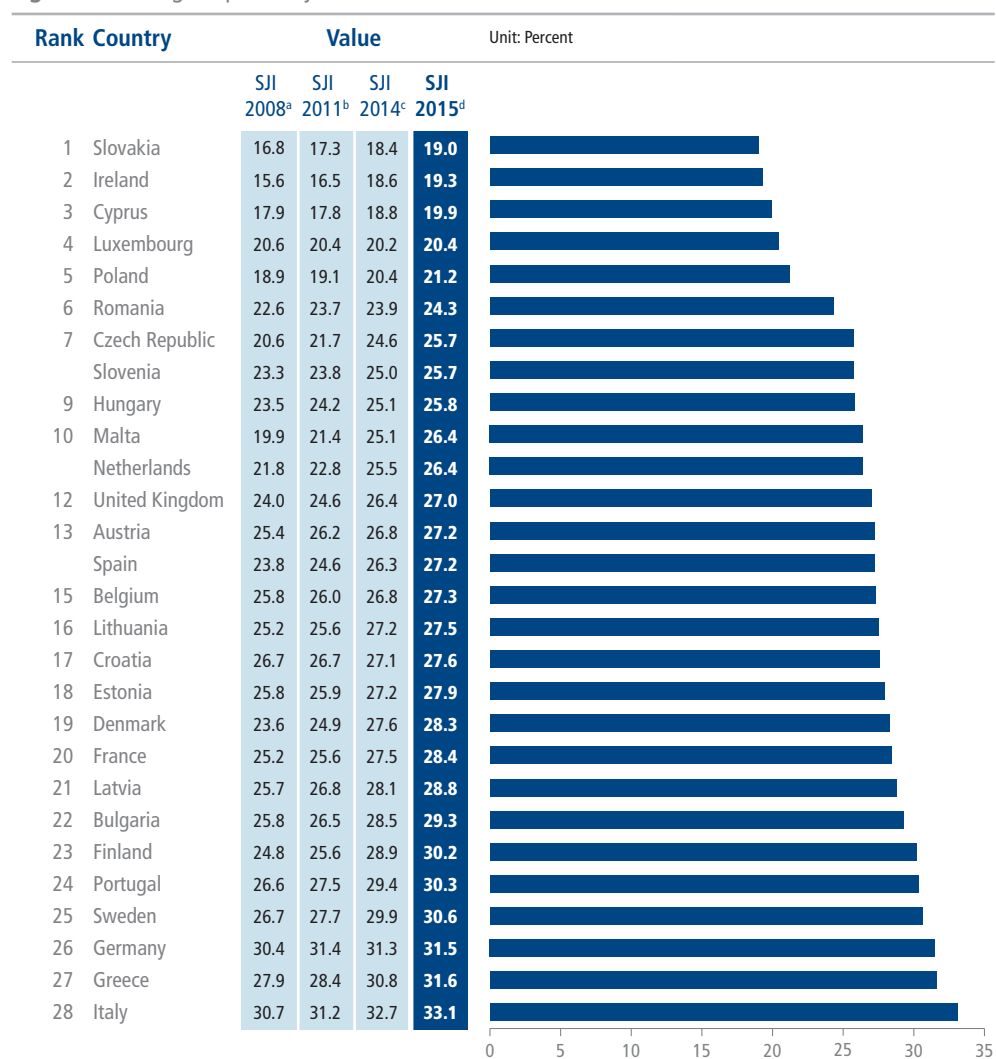
35 Anckar/Kuitto/Oberst/Jahn (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.

36 Laursen/Andersen/Jahn (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.

37 Bruneau/Jalali/Colino (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.

ernment in 2014 which have reversed the course of previous reforms (which had managed to preserve the pay-as-you-go system). The recent reforms were hotly disputed, with critics claiming they would undermine the long-term sustainability of the pensions system, lead to higher social security contributions, and burden younger generations and business with higher financial costs. First, the government reduced the retirement age from 65 to 63 for workers who have contributed to the pension system for at least 45 years. This allows workers to retire at 61, registering as unemployed for two years and then drawing a full pension at 63. Second, it provided a catch-up for housewives with children born before 1992 relative to those with children born after 1992. An additional pension point will be added to the former group, which now can claim two

Figure 41: Old Age Dependency Ratio



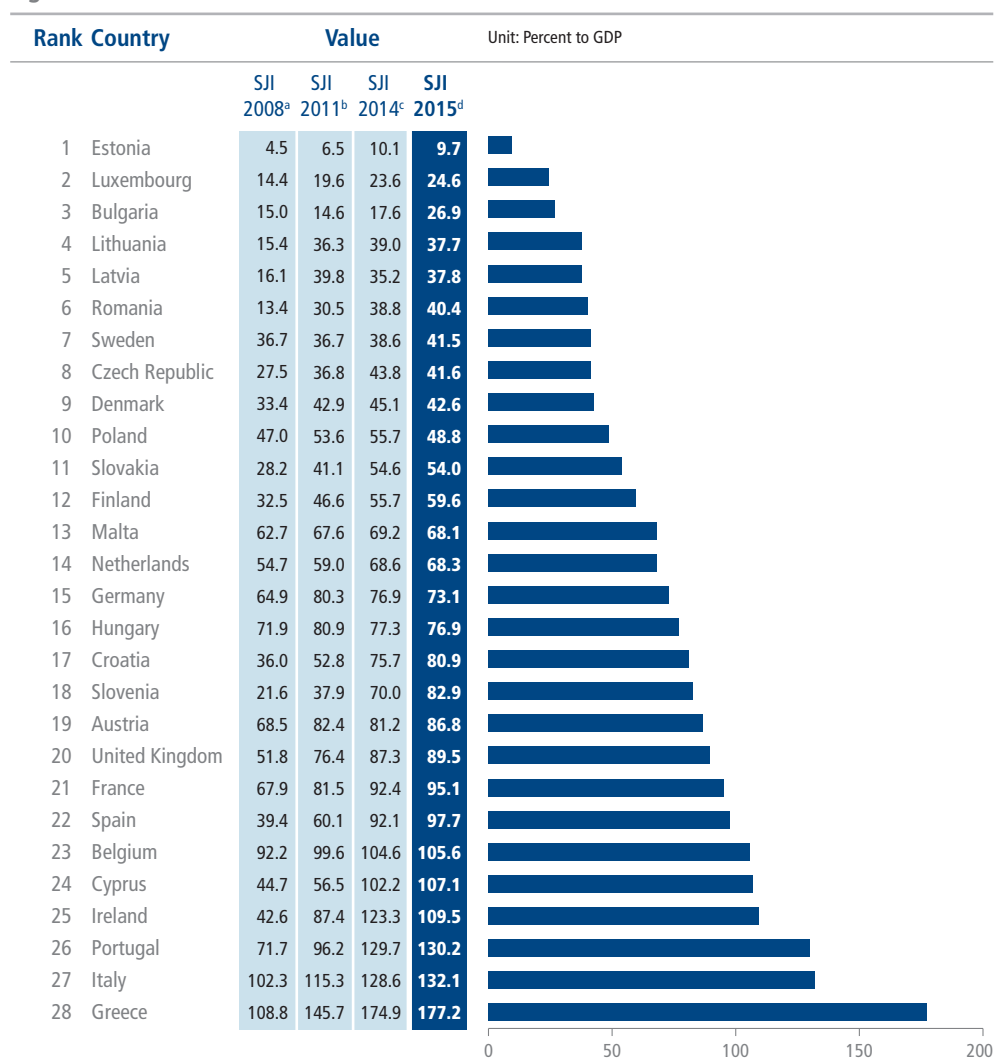
Source: Eurostat Online Database (data refer to a: 2008; b: 2010; c: 2013; d: 2014).

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points (instead of one), while the latter group can claim three. Finally, pensions for invalids were improved. The calculation will now include two additional years of (fictive) contributions. All in all, the costs of these reforms will amount to approximately €160 billion by 2030. Public subsidies for the pension fund will increase from €400 million to €2 billion euros in 2022. The reforms go against the measures undertaken in recent decades to raise the participation rate of older workers, reduce early retirement, moderate the increase of the contribution rate and balance the pay-as-you-go system for the future.”³⁸

Figure 42: Government Debt



Source: IMF World Economic Outlook Database (data refer to a: 2008; b: 2010; c: 2012, 2013; d: 2014).

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38 Rüb/Heinemann/Ulbricht/Zohlnhöfer (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.

Both in Germany and elsewhere, the dependency ratio is an indication of the strength of demographic pressure. The four demographically “oldest” countries are Sweden, Germany, Greece and Italy. Sweden’s performance in this respect is all the more surprising, as it manages to score very highly in terms of intergenerational justice despite the demographic pressure. This is a sign that the right social-policy steps have been taken in recent years.

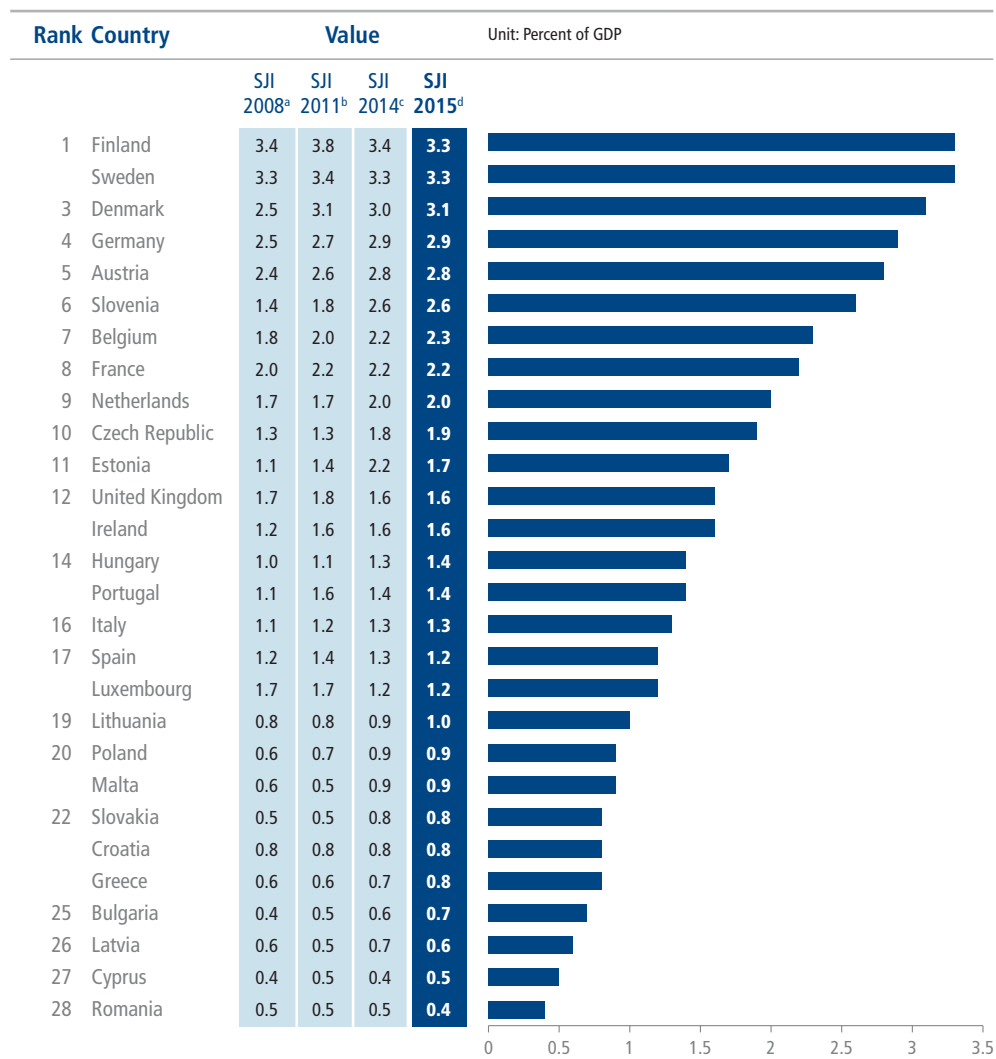
Sweden also performs well in the realm of financial sustainability, a further aspect of intergenerationally just policy. The country’s public-debt ratio of “only” 41.5 percent of GDP falls at seventh place in cross-EU comparison. However, Estonia again performs best on this measure, with debt totaling less than 10 percent of GDP. In this regard, Estonia holds a rather solitary position at the top of the ranking. Only 12 countries have debt ratios of less than 60 percent of their GDP, thus fulfilling the Maastricht criterion addressing this issue.

Following a strong increase in debt during the course of the crisis, only a few countries have returned to a positive trend. Germany is among these countries, as it was able to reduce its public debt to 73.11 percent of GDP (2010: 80.25%). Ireland too has reduced its debt from 123 percent of GDP in the previous year to only 109 percent – although this remains an alarmingly high level. National debt has again risen in the majority of EU member states. Thus, despite the strong policy focus on budget consolidation, the budgetary situation viewed as an average across the European Union has again worsened. The average debt level on a cross-EU basis has risen from 62.5 percent of GDP in 2008 to a current level of 87.7 percent. Conditions in the crisis-battered southeastern European states of Portugal, Italy and Greece are particularly dramatic, with debt ratios ranging between 130 percent (Portugal) and 177 percent (Greece) of annual economic output. In Cyprus, debt levels more than doubled between 2008 (44.7%) and 2014 (107.1%). The fiscal burden for future generations in these countries is thus immense.

By contrast, the average level of investments in the future has stagnated across the European Union, at least on the basis of the important indicator of expenditure on research and development. Only three countries – Finland, Sweden and Denmark – manage to achieve the EU-2020 goal of an investment ratio of 3 percent of GDP. At 3.3 percent, Finland is the best performer in cross-EU comparison. By contrast, with investment ratios of under 0.7 percent, countries such as Bulgaria, Latvia, Cyprus and Romania lie at the tail end of the ranking. In Romania, investment has even declined again in comparison to the previous year (0.48%) to just 0.39 percent. Country experts draw a sobering conclusion here: “Romania faces a crisis in the research sector characterized by a chronic shortage of active researchers (Romania had 2.09 researchers per 1,000 employees in 2012, compared to an EU average of 7.8). Resource scarcity has led to the massive migration of the most capable researchers to other sectors of the economy or other countries. At the same time, poor remuneration and uncertain prospects of professional advancement prevent the influx of young talent. Despite the Ponta government’s promise that the 2013 and 2014 budgets would be development-oriented, there were no significant increases in the public R&D budget. However, one positive development was the increase in the tax deductibility of R&D investments from 20%



Figure 43: Research and Development Spending



Source: Eurostat Online Database (data refer to a: 2007; b: 2007, 2009; c: 2012; d: 2012, 2013).

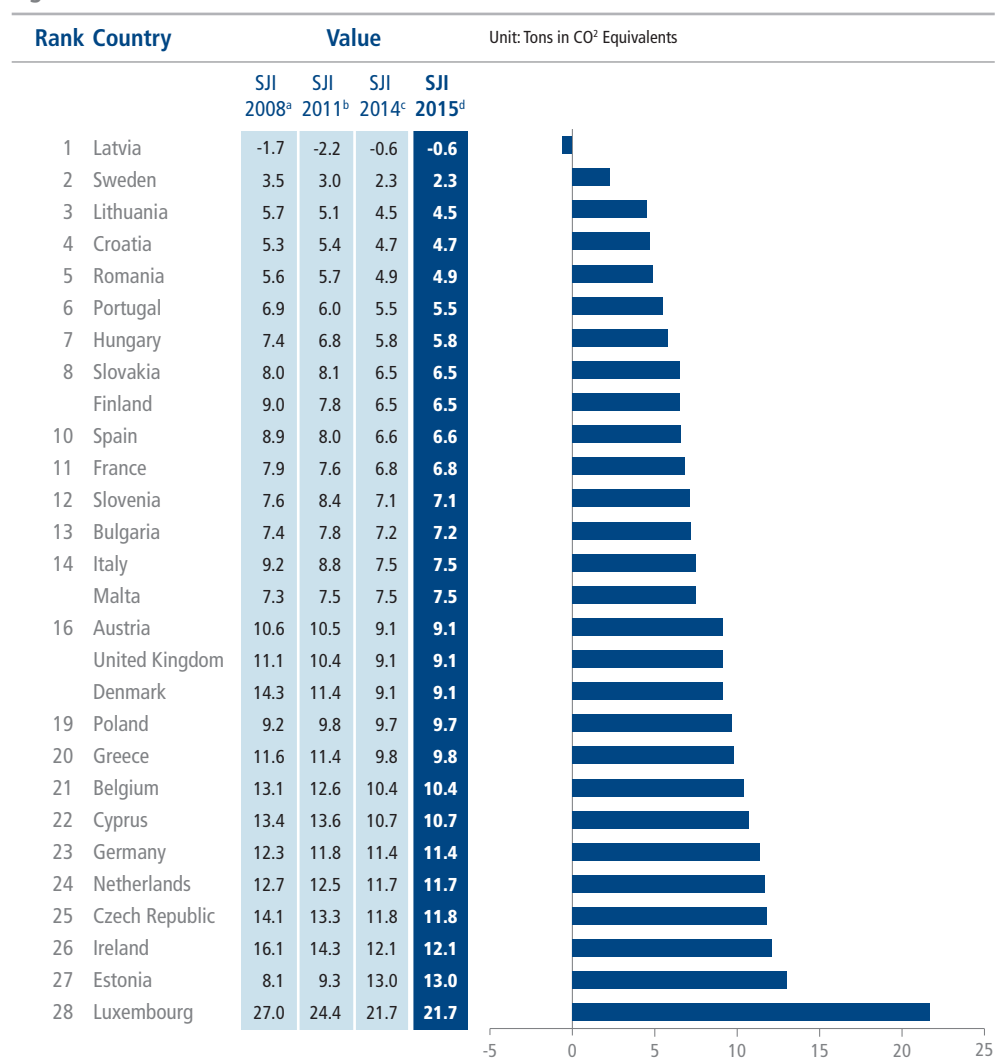
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to 50% in 2013. The National Council for Sciences and Technology Policy still lacks the executive ability to plan, prioritize and coordinate R&D in Romania.”³⁹

39 Wagner/Pop-Eleches/Bönker (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.

In addition to the Nordic and Baltic countries' generally future-oriented family, pension and budget policies, their strong performance with regard to intergenerational justice also derives from a relatively good record in the area of environmental sustainability. For example, Sweden has far and away the EU's highest share of renewable energy sources in its overall energy consumption (52.1%). Latvia and Finland follow at second and third place, each with a renewable energy share of about 37 percent. Denmark also places well with 27.2 percent. The EU average is 17.9 percent. This demonstrates how far behind countries such as Luxembourg, Malta, the Netherlands, and the United Kingdom remain. These four countries, with renewable-energy shares between 5.1 percent (UK) and 3.6 percent (Luxembourg), lie at the bottom end of the comparison.

Figure 44: Greenhouse Gas Emissions

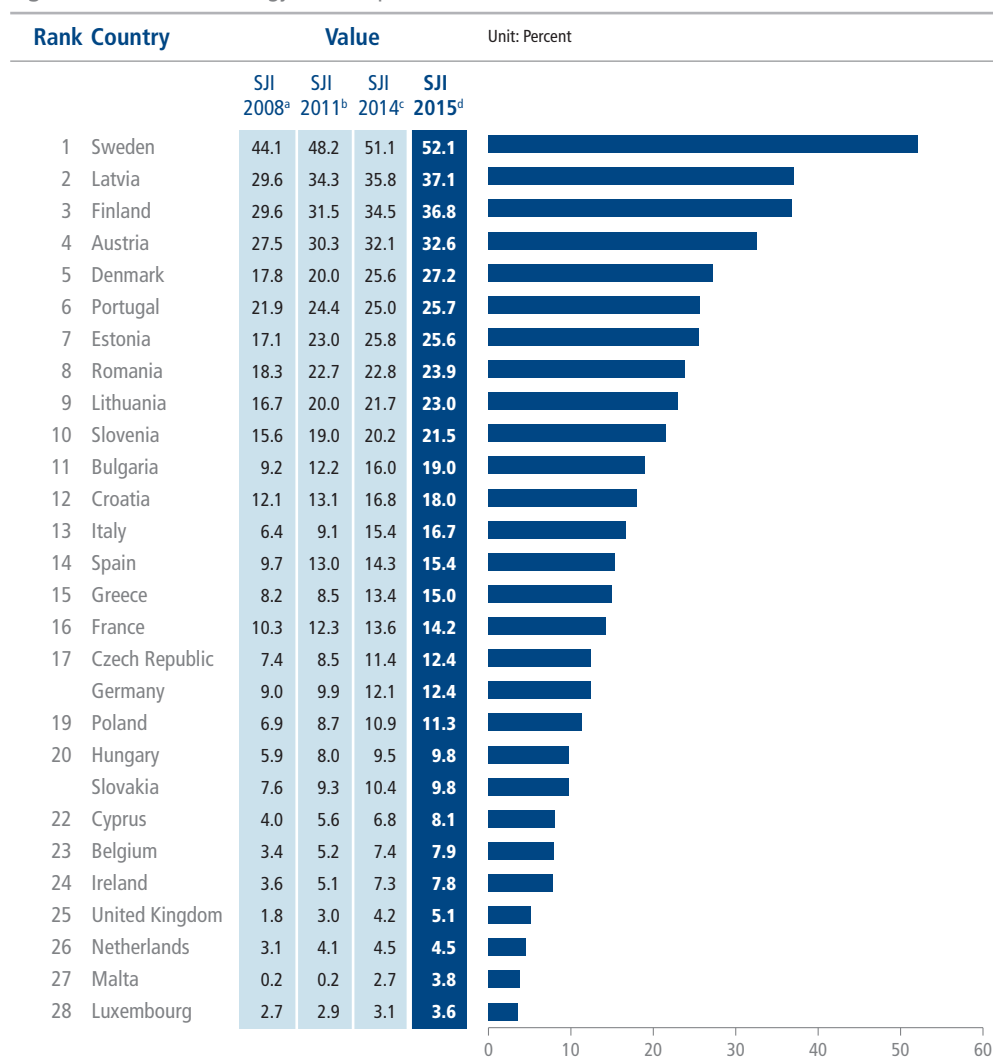


Source: Eurostat Online Database (data refer to a: 2007; b: 2009; c: 2012; d: 2012).

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Figure 45: Renewable Energy (Consumption)



Source: Eurostat Online Database (data refer to a: 2007; b: 2009; c: 2012; d: 2013).

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In terms of greenhouse-gas emissions, the northern European countries of Sweden, Latvia and Lithuania serve as models for the remainder of the EU member states. Ireland, Estonia and Luxembourg show the most significant deficits in this regard.

III. Methodology

“Social justice” is a central constitutive element of the legitimacy and stability of any political community.⁴⁰ Yet defining what social justice means and how best to achieve it is often subject to considerable controversy. The conceptual boundaries of social justice are continually in flux because the idea is a result of culturally and historically dependent value systems. Nevertheless, a modern concept of social justice that refers to the aim of realizing equal opportunities and life chances provides us a conceptual ideal able to garner the consensus needed for a sustainable social market economy. This paradigm suggests that establishing social justice depends less on compensating for exclusion than it does on investing in inclusion. Instead of an “equalizing” distributive justice or a simply formal equality of life chances in which the rules of the game and codes of procedure are applied equally, this concept of justice is concerned with guaranteeing each individual genuinely equal opportunities for self-realization through the targeted investment in the development of individual “capabilities.”⁴¹

Thus, within the scope of his or her own personal freedom, every individual should be empowered to pursue a self-determined course of life, and to participate in society more broadly. Specific social backgrounds, such as membership in a particular social group or demographic category would not, according to this concept of social justice, be allowed to negatively affect one’s opportunities to succeed in life.⁴² By focusing on opportunities for self-realization, such a concept avoids the blind spots of an efficient market-driven, simply formal procedural justice on the one hand and a compensatory distributional justice on the other, and thus ultimately establishes a bridge between rival political ideologies.⁴³

Government policies of redistribution function as an instrument of social justice and are conceived in terms of an investment rather than compensation. Within the conceptual framework of economic and social participation, redistributing resources within a community are a legitimate, if not essential, means of empowering all to take advantage of the opportunities around them. In this sense, social justice can be understood as a guiding principle for a participatory society that activates and enables its members. A sustainable social market economy able to combine the principles of market efficiency with those of social justice requires the state to take on a role that

40 This chapter and several other conceptual and methodological parts of this study contain elements of the previous publication “Social Justice in the OECD – How Do the Member States Compare” (Schraad-Tischler 2011) and “Social Justice in the EU – A Cross-national Comparison” (Schraad-Tischler/Kroll 2014).

41 See Sen (1993; 2009); Merkel (2001; 2007); Merkel/Giebler (2009), p. 192-194.

42 See Rawls (1971); on the underlying principles of “equal opportunity” see Roemer (1998: 1) who distinguishes between a ‘level-the-playing-field principle’ and a ‘nondiscrimination principle’: “An instance of the first principle is that compensatory education be provided for children from disadvantaged social backgrounds, so that a larger proportion of them will acquire skills required to compete, later on, for jobs against persons with more advantaged childhoods. An instance of the second principle is that race or sex, as such, should not count for or against a person’s eligibility for a position, when race or sex is an irrelevant attribute insofar as the performance of the duties of the position is concerned.” The concept of social justice applied in the present report covers both principles. It is important to note that the concept of social justice employed here emphasizes less the principle of equality per se than it does the principle of individual freedom, which can be exercised only when the state and a society establish the most level playing field possible for the pursuit of life chances. See in this regard Merkel/Giebler (2009: 193-195).

43 See Vehrkamp (2007), p. 11.



goes beyond that of a “night watchman.” It requires a strong state led by actors who understand the need for social equity as a means of ensuring participation opportunities.

The Social Justice Index presented here is informed by this paradigm and encompasses those areas of policy that are particularly important for developing individual capabilities and opportunities for participation in society. In addition to the fundamental issue of preventing poverty, the Social Justice Index explores areas related to an inclusive education system, labor market access, social cohesion, health and intergenerational justice.

In so doing, the Social Justice Index dovetails with current EU efforts to monitor social affairs in the member states as mandated in the ten-year strategy issued by the European Commission in 2010, “Europe 2020: A European Strategy for Smart, Sustainable and Inclusive Growth” (hereafter referred to as the Europe 2020 strategy). This includes those initiatives associated with the European Commission’s Social Protection Performance Monitor⁴⁴ and its recent recommendation to institute a Social Scoreboard that keep track of key employment and social indicators. As part of the European Semester, these instruments, which are applied through the Open Method of Coordination (OMC), are designed to chart progress made in expanding social inclusion within member states. The EU itself collects vast quantities of various data relevant to issues of social inclusion, all of which are open to public access through Eurostat, the EU’s statistical office.

While these efforts to institute regular reporting on key aspects of social inclusion in each member state are certainly worthwhile, there has not been – until now – an instrument that links features of social justice with specific indicators to deliver a conceptually cohesive and empirically meaningful statement on the state of social justice in each member state. The Social Justice Index presented here is designed to fill this gap and measure on a regular basis the progress made and the ground lost on issues of social justice in each EU member state. Together with the “Reform Barometer”, which is also under development by the Bertelsmann Stiftung, the Social Justice Index will help promote the social dimension of the Europe 2020 strategy by providing evidence-based analyses. In combination, these two tools will comprise a new instrument, the Social Inclusion Monitor Europe (SIM). Focused on the principle of participatory justice, the SIM will be used to assess and formulate concrete recommendations for policy reforms in individual member states and the EU as a whole.

This kind of instrument is necessary if the EU is to develop a truly integrated strategy for economic progress and social justice. To date, no such strategy exists, despite current EU efforts to foster reporting on social indicators. The Europe 2020 strategy clearly puts forth a social dimension in which key indicators such as risk of poverty, employment rate, or early school-leaving rates are considered. Nonetheless, the overriding goal of this strategy is to promote economic growth.

⁴⁴ See the recently published annual report of the Social Protection Committee (2014): Social Europe. Many ways, one objective.

Europe 2020's language is clear in stating the need to ensure that such growth be sustainable and conducive to social cohesion, and therefore in keeping with the goals of inclusive growth. This language represents a major step forward in contrast to a concept of growth focused exclusively on economic indicators such as gross domestic product (GDP). However, a conceptually cohesive strategy explicitly targeting social justice across the EU has yet to be formulated. In recent years, issues such as economic recovery and fiscal consolidation through debt reduction and austerity measures have headlined agendas in European policy circles. Reporting on social indicators has been conducted in parallel to these discussions, though much of these efforts have gone unnoticed by the broader public. Raising awareness among the public of developments in social justice are instrumental to creating genuine political leverage capable of affecting change. Regular benchmarking in the form of a clearly communicable ranking can be of great help in this matter. The Social Justice Index ought to function as an illustrative example of how this can be achieved.

The following section explains the methodology underlying the Social Justice Index and its features. The index is based on quantitative and qualitative data collected by the Bertelsmann Stiftung within the framework of its SGI project (www.sgi-network.org). The SGI survey (fourth edition published in June 2015), which draws on 140 indicators, provides a systematic comparison of sustainable governance in 41 OECD and EU member states. Individual SGI indicators have been selected and aggregated for use in the Social Justice Index following a tested procedure for measuring social justice.⁴⁵

Clearly, no set of indicators can be expected to fully represent the complexity of social reality on the ground. Creating an index involves, by definition, the condensation of vast amounts of information. It also demands, at times, that pragmatic decisions be made when selecting indicators, given the limitations set by the availability of comparable data. In-depth case studies of specific countries are therefore required in order to provide a more thick description of the state of affairs in each policy area while, at the same time, ensuring that findings are properly contextualized.

Concept and indicators of the Social Justice Index

Drawing upon Wolfgang Merkel's conceptual and empirical groundwork, we can differentiate several dimensions for measuring the construct of social justice.⁴⁶ The Social Justice Index is composed of the following six dimensions: poverty prevention, access to education, labor market inclusion, social cohesion and non-discrimination, health as well as intergenerational justice.

⁴⁵ The approach and procedure used here is derived from Merkel (2001; 2007) and Merkel/Giebler (2009).

⁴⁶ The methods of measuring social justice applied here are derived from those applied by Merkel (2001; 2007) and the approach and argument provided by Merkel/Giebler (2009). In contrast to Merkel/Giebler (2009), the index comprises six instead of seven dimensions to be measured. In addition, the weighting process and indicator set have been modified and supplemented. We are indebted to Dr. Margit Kraus (Calculus Consult) for providing important advice and feedback on statistical and technical issues, imputing missing values, and constructing Excel sheets for the aggregation of scores.



As a cross-national survey, the Social Justice Index comprises 27 quantitative and eight qualitative indicators, each associated with one of the six dimensions of social justice.⁴⁷ The data for the quantitative SGI indicators used in the Social Justice Index are derived primarily from Eurostat and the European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC). The qualitative indicators reflect the evaluations provided by more than 100 experts responding to the SGI's survey of the state of affairs in various policy areas throughout the OECD and EU (see www.sgi-network.de). For these indicators, the rating scale ranges from 1 (worst) to 10 (best). In order to ensure compatibility between the quantitative and qualitative indicators, all raw values for the quantitative indicators undergo linear transformation to give them a range of 1 to 10 as well.⁴⁸

According to Merkel and Giebler (2009), the first three dimensions of poverty prevention, access to education, and labor market access carry the most conceptual value, which is why they are each weighted more heavily in creating the index. For the purposes of comparison, in addition to the weighted Social Justice Index, a non-weighted ranking was created in which the six dimensions were treated equally.⁴⁹ The findings discussed here derive from the weighted Social Justice Index.

The effective prevention of poverty plays a key role in measuring social justice. Under conditions of poverty, social participation and a self-determined life are possible only with great difficulty. The prevention of poverty and social exclusion is in a certain sense a *conditio sine qua non* for social justice, and thereby takes precedence to the other dimensions from the perspective of justice theory. For this reason, the dimension of poverty prevention is weighted most strongly – in this case, given triple weight – in the overall ranking.

In line with the Europe 2020 strategy, the EU Social Justice Index uses the headline indicator “people at-risk-of poverty or social inclusion” to monitor poverty prevention. According to Eurostat, this indicator corresponds to the sum of persons who are “at-risk-of poverty or severely materially deprived or living households with very low risk intensity.”⁵⁰ At-risk-of-poverty is defined as those persons with an equivalized disposable income below the risk-of-poverty threshold, which is set at 60 percent of the national median equivalized disposable income (after social transfers). Material deprivation covers indicators relating to economic strain and durables. Severely materially deprived persons live in conditions severely constrained by a lack of resources. This means they cannot afford (and are therefore deprived of) at least four of the following nine items: 1) to pay rent or utility bills, 2) to keep their home adequately warm, 3) to face unexpected expenses, 4) to eat meat, fish or a protein equivalent every second day, 5) a week holiday away from home, 6) a car, 7) a washing machine, 8) a color TV, or 9) a telephone. People living in households with very low

47 A full list and description of individual indicators is provided in the appendix.

48 The period under review for the Sustainable Governance Indicators 2015 survey extends from May 2013 to November 2014 (www.sgi-network.org). The raw data for the Social Justice Index is provided in the appendix. In order to ensure comparability over time, we use the SGI's method of fixed minimum and maximum values for each indicator. See Schraad-Tischler/Seelkopf (2014).

49 See Figure 48 in the appendix, p. 175.

50 Definitions taken from Eurostat's “Dataset details” website at http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/portal/page/portal/product_details/dataset?p_product_code=T2020_50.

work intensity are those aged 0-59 living in households where the adults (aged 18-59) work less than 20 percent of their total work potential during the past year. Persons are only counted once even if they are present in several sub-indicators.⁵¹

Comprised of several sub-indicators, the conceptual reach of this headline indicator extends far beyond a simple measure of relative income poverty. Indeed, the inclusion of severe material deprivation points to the problem of measuring non-monetary poverty in highly developed industrial countries. In order to conduct an in-depth empirical analysis, we have included the relevant

Figure 46: SJI Dimensions and Indicators



Source: Own representation.

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51 Ibid.



sub-indicators of this particular headline indicator in the respective chapter on poverty prevention. In addition, age groups particularly at-risk-of poverty are accorded special attention, which is why poverty rates for children (0-17 years of age) and the elderly (over 65) are also considered in the analysis.

Equal access to good-quality education is another essential factor in providing equitable capabilities and opportunities for advancement (vertical mobility). Social, political and economic participation depends in large part on this public good. To this end, the state must take care that genuinely equal educational opportunities are available to every child. Social or cultural background must not be allowed to adversely affect educational success. The importance of such conditions is emphasized in the Social Justice Index by doubly weighting the access to education dimension. The dimension considers efforts to provide early-childhood education, the role of socioeconomic background in students' economic success (drawing on the latest PISA data as a basis), the rate of early school leavers and, finally, a qualitative expert assessment of educational policies, focusing particularly on the provision of high-quality education and equitable access opportunities.

Assuring equity in education opportunities is primarily an ethical imperative, since weak access to education and social poverty generate a vicious circle in which those lacking education access are denied opportunities for social betterment, and the socially disadvantaged are denied access to education. Breaking this vicious circle is a matter of solidarity and key to maintaining the social fabric of society. At the same time, it makes good economic sense to nourish and apply the talents and abilities of everyone in society, as much as is possible.

The labor market's degree of inclusiveness is likewise of considerable importance to social justice, as an individual's status is defined in large part by his or her participation in the workforce. Exclusion from the labor market substantially limits individual opportunities for self-realization, contributes to an increase in the risk of poverty, and can even lead to serious health stresses: "So long as gainful employment remains the primary means by which not only income, but also status, self-respect and social inclusion are distributed in developed societies, inclusion in the labor market must be a high priority for a just society" (Merkel/Giebler 2009: 198). This dimension is therefore also counted doubly in the overall ranking. In order to do even rudimentary justice to the complexity of this dimension, four indicators apiece were used in the representation of employment and unemployment. Alongside the overall employment rate, the specific rates for 55- to 65-year-old workers, for foreign-born workers as compared to natives, and for women as compared to men are considered. In addition, the labor market inclusion dimension examines the overall unemployment rate, and is supplemented by the long-term unemployment rate and the degree of labor market exclusion experienced both by young and by low-skilled workers. Finally, two further indicators addressing the problem of precarious employment are included in this dimension: in-work poverty and the percentage of those persons involuntarily employed on a temporary basis.

The dimension of social cohesion and non-discrimination examines the extent to which trends toward social polarization, exclusion and the discrimination of specific groups are successfully countered. This dimension is factored into the Social Justice Index with a normal weight. Income disparities, measured in terms of the Gini coefficient, are taken into account here as a potentially important factor of social polarization. However, from a social justice theory perspective, the issue of income inequality carries less conceptual salience relative to the first three dimensions of justice – namely poverty prevention, access to education and labor market inclusion.⁵² To capture progress made in terms of gender equality, the number of seats in national legislatures held by women compared to the number of seats held by men is also considered. This dimension includes three qualitative indicators, each based on expert assessments. One of these indicators assesses how effectively social policies preclude social exclusion and decoupling from society, a second examines how effectively the state protects against discrimination based on gender, physical ability, ethnic origin, social status, political views or religion, and a third evaluates how effectively policies support the integration of migrants into society. The latter question covers integration-related policies comprising a wide array of cultural, education and social policies in so far as they affect the status of migrants or migrant communities in society. The so-called NEET rate, which refers to the number of young persons aged 20 to 24 who are not in education, employment or training and therefore face limited opportunities of economic and societal participation, is also factored into this dimension.

The fifth dimension of the Social Justice Index covers questions of equity in the area of health. In 2008, the World Health Organization’s Commission on Social Determinants of Health pointed to dramatic differences in health within and between countries that are closely linked with degrees of social disadvantage: “These inequities in health, avoidable health inequalities, arise because of the circumstances in which people grow, live, work, and age, and the systems put in place to deal with illness. The conditions in which people live and die are, in turn, shaped by political, social, and economic forces. Social and economic policies have a determining impact on whether a child can grow and develop to its full potential and live a flourishing life, or whether its life will be blighted.”⁵³ Given these considerations, an assessment of social justice must also take into account the issue of health. However, identifying meaningful indicators for which data are available for all EU states is not an easy task. Nevertheless, there are some indicators giving us at least a basic impression of differing degrees of fairness, inclusiveness and quality between the EU countries’ health systems. We use three quantitative indicators and one qualitative indicator. The qualitative indicator from our SGI survey assesses to what extent policies provide high-quality, inclusive and cost-efficient health care. The rationale behind the question is that public health care policies should aim at providing high-quality health care for the largest possible share of the population, at the lowest possible costs. Of the three criteria – quality, inclusiveness and cost efficiency – quality and inclusiveness are given priority over cost efficiency. Two quantita-

52 See Merkel/Giebler (2009), p. 199 f.

53 Cf. at www.who.int/social_determinants/thecommission/finalreport/en/index.html.



tive indicators are drawn from the European Health Consumer Index (EHCI): the first captures the outcome performance of each country’s health system; the second addresses the question of accessibility and range of services. Finally, we also use the indicators “healthy life expectancy at birth” and “self-reported unmet need for medical help” as provided by Eurostat. As inequalities in health can be seen as being strongly determined by misguided developments in other areas, such as poverty prevention, education or the labor market, the health dimension is factored into the index with a normal weight.

The sixth dimension of the Social Justice Index approaches the issue of intergenerational justice. The issue at stake here is the need for contemporary generations to lead lives they value without compromising the ability of future generations to do the same. This dimension, which is factored into the index with a simple weight, is comprised of three components. The first component addresses policy support for both younger and older generations. The former is captured through the SGI’s qualitative “family policy” indicator, the latter through the “pension policy” indicator, which is also qualitative. In order to reflect each country’s specific demographic challenge, the old-age dependency ratio is also considered here. The second component focuses on the idea of environmental sustainability and measures this on the one hand with the help of a qualitative indicator for environmental and resource protection policy, on the other through two quantitative indicators: greenhouse-gas emissions in CO₂ equivalents per capita and the share of energy from renewable resources in gross final energy consumption. The third component, which is concerned with economic and fiscal sustainability, is comprised of two quantitative indicators. The first of which highlights public spending on research and innovation as an investment in future prosperity, and the second points to national debt levels as a mortgage to be paid by future generations.

Child and youth opportunity index

Social justice for children and youth is key to ensuring a sustainable society. It is without doubt ethically and morally right to provide all children and youth the greatest possible spectrum of participation opportunities. Every child, indeed every member of society should be in a position to make the most of their lives in the context of their individual potential and personal freedoms. Whether a child is born into poverty or wealth should play no role, for example, in their educational opportunity. Societies must therefore invest in the capabilities and potential inherent to individuals in order to expand opportunities for self-realization and decouple access to such opportunities from an individual’s socioeconomic background. This is an ethical-moral imperative. But there are also several economic reasons to promote equal access to opportunities for children and youth. The positive effects of a level playing ground on job prospects, income levels and even health have been clearly documented in evidence-based studies. And the positive impact these benefits have on financing social safety nets or facilitating a country’s innovation and productivity levels are obvious.

In order to compare across the EU the extent to which participation opportunities for children and youth are ensured, we created a Child and Youth Opportunity Index that draws on data from the Social Justice Index. Simple and transparent in design, this sub-index is comprised of four key indicators that are particularly relevant to issues associated with children and youth participation opportunities.

The first indicator, the EU headline indicator “at-risk-of poverty or social exclusion” for children and youth up to 17 years of age, is taken from the Social Justice Index’s poverty prevention dimension. This indicator is comprised of three further indicators: income poverty, severe material deprivation and people living in quasi-jobless households.

The second and third indicators are taken from the equitable education dimension: socioeconomic impact on educational performance and the number of early school leavers.

The fourth indicator, which tracks the so-called NEET rate, is from the labor market access dimension. This indicator, which measures the number of young people who are neither in the labor force nor education or training, highlights problems in education-to-work transitions. Young people who are not participating in either education or the labor market face a highly precarious situation with narrowing future opportunities.

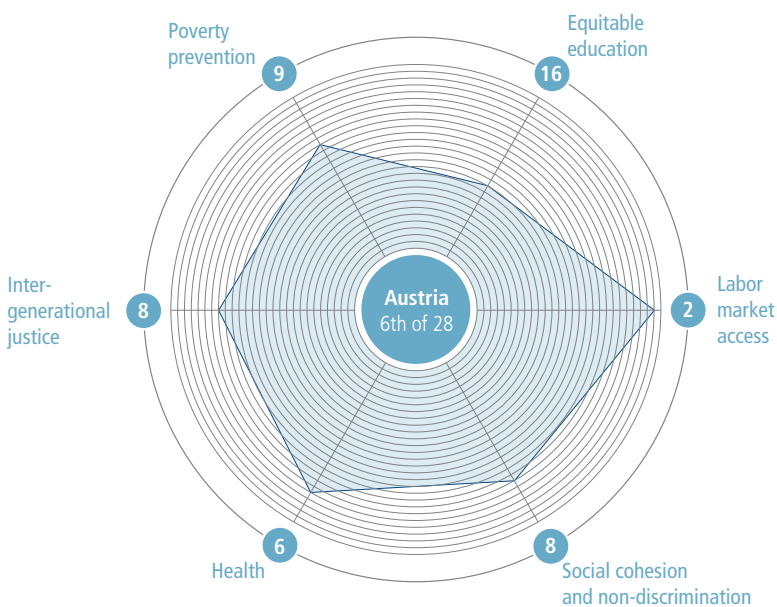
Following the Social Justice Index’s normative model, the poverty prevention indicator used in this sub-index is weighted more strongly than the other three. Comprised of three indicators, the poverty prevention indicator accounts for 50 percent of the total calculation whereas the other three indicators together account for the remaining 50 percent.



28 country profiles

Austria

EU Social Justice Index 2015



1	Sweden	7.23
2	Denmark	7.10
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	Spain	4.73
25	Italy	4.69
26	Bulgaria	3.78
27	Romania	3.74
28	Greece	3.61

Overall: Austria's overall performance on the Social Justice Index (SJI) has been relatively stable since the index's initial survey in 2008. With a score of 6.57, the country ranks 6th among the 28 EU countries, despite an overall slight decline over the last seven years. With regard to our focus on children and youth, Austria's score on this sub-index of 6.32 ranks it 9th.

Achievement: While Austria's overall performance on the SJI exceeds the EU average, it has excelled most at ensuring broadly inclusive access to its labor market. With a score of 7.25, the country ranks 2nd in this dimension, behind Denmark. Austria has the lowest long-term unemployment rate in the EU (1.5%), a distinction it shares with Sweden. Austria also has the lowest incidence of involuntary temporary employment. A comparatively small 8.8 percent of working-age Austrians are in temporary employment because they could not find a permanent position. In comparison, the rate in Germany, which ranks second place on this indicator, is 21.7 percent and the EU average for this indicator is 63.4 percent. Austria also features one of the lowest youth as well as total unemployment rates in our sample, ranking 2nd on both measures (this time trailing only behind Germany). A comparatively low 10.3 percent of youth are unemployed. In total, 5.7 percent of the working-age population are unemployed, which is far lower than the

EU average of 10.4 percent. The 2015 SGI report notes: “One factor contributing to these rather successful labor-market outcomes is the social partnership between the Austrian Trade Union Federation (Österreichischer Gewerkschaftsbund, ÖGB) and the Austrian Economic Chambers. Many labor-market policies in Austria are effectuated through the Public Employment Service, another institution key to the country’s employment successes. The Austrian dual system of vocational education, in which young people receive on-the-job vocational training while still attending school, has also been successful, and is increasingly drawing international attention.”⁵⁴

Achievement: Austria also performs well in the fifth dimension of the SJI, health. The country ranks 2nd, along with the Netherlands, showing a low percentage (0.4%) of self-reported unmet medical needs. This comparatively low rate suggests that Austrians are generally able to access health care services when needed. The Austrian government received a score of 8 from the SGI country experts for its health policies, the highest score awarded on this measure (a distinction it shares with seven other EU countries). They note that cooperation between the insurance providers, federal and state governments “seems to have succeeded in arresting the explosive rise in health care costs.”⁵⁵

Achievement: Given the country’s comparatively low NEET (not in employment, employment or training) rate of 9.6 percent (which ranks 4th in our sample), young Austrian adults (those between 20 and 24 years old) also fare better than most of their EU counterparts. Impressively, Austria’s low NEET rate has remained relatively stable throughout the crisis.

Challenge: Though the county does much to ensure social justice, it nonetheless faces specific challenges. Like many other EU countries, Austria has been witnessing a growing gap between the generations in recent years. The number of children and youth threatened by poverty or social exclusion has increased over the last years (from 18.5% in 2007 to 23.3% in 2014). However, the risk of poverty or social exclusion among senior citizens declined from 18.6 percent in 2009 to 15.7 percent in 2014. Furthermore, the country ranks among the bottom six EU countries with regard to the impact of socioeconomic factors on the PISA results of Austrian students. This poor rank pulls down Austria’s otherwise largely middling placement on the equitable education dimension. More importantly, it highlights a missed opportunity to sufficiently integrate children and youth at the margins of Austrian society: those from immigrant and poorer households. Also, access to tertiary level education among students from the middle and lower social strata should be improved. In addition, the country ranks below average on non-discrimination. Moreover, the SGI country experts scored Austria a 6 out of 10 for the effectiveness of state protections against various forms of discrimination. These experts comment that “particularly with reference to sexual orientation, Austrian policies retain a rather conservative orientation.”⁵⁶ The country also ranks below average on government debt. With a general government gross debt of 86.8 percent

54 Pelinka/Winter-Ebmer/Zohlnhöfer (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.

55 Ibid.

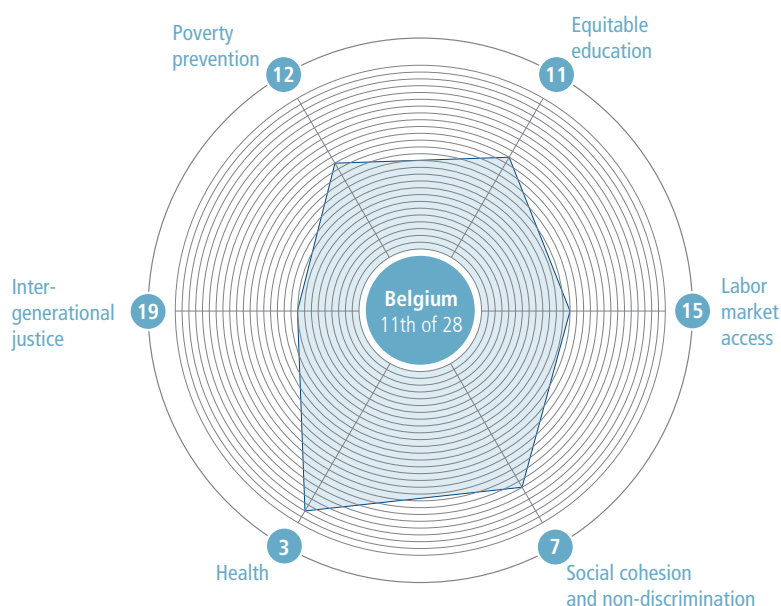
56 Ibid.



of GDP, Austria' debt level comes close to the already high EU average (87.7%) that is nine times higher than frontrunner Estonia. While not among the worst performing countries in our sample, both of these latter indicators show room for improvement.

Belgium

EU Social Justice Index 2015



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Overall: Belgium's SJI score of 6.19 places it 11th among the countries of the EU. The country's performance has remained generally stable since 2008, the first SJI assessment year. Belgium ranks among the top ten on two of the six dimensions in this study. It ranks a commendable 3rd in the health dimension as well as 7th in the social cohesion and non-discrimination dimension. With regard to our focus on children and youth, Belgium ranks 11th with a score of 5.88 on this sub-index.

Achievement and challenge: Among the 28 EU countries, Belgium ranks a laudable 3rd in the health dimension, behind Luxembourg and the Netherlands. According to the Euro Health Consumer Index, Belgian health policy has succeeded in achieving short wait times as well as a high range and reach of health services, ranking the country 1st in the EU. On this same index, the country ranks 9th on health system outcomes. This is particularly praiseworthy as the outcomes for Belgians have significantly improved since 2008. In addition, the country has the ninth highest healthy life expectancy and the Belgian government received a score of 7 out of 10 from the SGI country experts for its health policies. On average, Belgians can expect 63.8 healthy life years, which exceeds the EU average by more than two years. The SGI researchers find health care "coverage is broad and inclusive," that the system is efficient and health services "quite affordable,



thanks to generous subsidies.”⁵⁷ They note, however, that costs have been contained “in ways that do not seem viable for the future, even more so with an aging population.”⁵⁸ “Another issue is that Belgium does not emphasize prevention and spends more than similar countries on subsidized drugs, which generates a structural increase in health policy costs and hampers the long-run sustainability of the health care system.”⁵⁹

Achievement: Belgium has also ranked among the top ten for its policies strengthening social cohesion and combating discrimination. The country ranks 7th in this dimension, with a score of 6.78. The Belgian national parliament has the 3rd highest proportion of seats held by women in the EU. In addition, the SGI country experts awarded the government a score of 7 for its social inclusion policies and the country’s Gini coefficient places it 6th. With regard to income inequality as measured by the Gini coefficient, it should be noted that inequality has not significantly grown since 2007.

Challenge: The Belgian government does face policy challenges. Of most concern is the fact that 14.6 percent of Belgians live in households with very low work intensity. This trend has held somewhat constant since 2007 and is more than double the percentage of quasi-jobless households in Luxembourg (6.6%). Moreover, Belgium, like many other EU countries, has been witnessing a growing gap between the generations in recent years. The number of children and youth threatened by poverty or social exclusion has increased over the last years (from 20.5% in 2009 to 23.2% in 2014). However, the risk of poverty or social exclusion among senior citizens declined from 25 percent in 2007 to 17.3 percent in 2014. Inequality is comparatively low, but attempts to improve labor-market participation rates have not met targets. Pockets of high unemployment remain, while access to unemployment benefits is tightening.

Challenge: The country also ranks among the bottom third on several measures of intergenerational justice related to environmental protection and public debt. A low 7.9 percent of Belgian gross energy consumption comes from renewable sources. While this is more than double the percentage of renewable energy when compared to 2007, it still falls far short of many EU countries. The EU average is ten percentage points higher, and countries such as Austria, Latvia and Sweden exceed 30 percent renewables in their energy mix. The Belgium economy also emitted 10.4 tons of greenhouse gases per capita, ranking the country 21st in the EU. General gross government debt, which reached 105.6 percent of GDP in 2014 and exceeds the already high EU average by 17.9 percentage points, is also of considerable concern. Both this high level of public debt and the lack of progressive environmental policies tarnishes the Belgian government’s otherwise decent reputation regarding its policy work on intergenerational justice and threatens to saddle future generations with the excesses incurred today.

57 Castanheira/Rihoux/Bandelow (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.

58 Ibid.

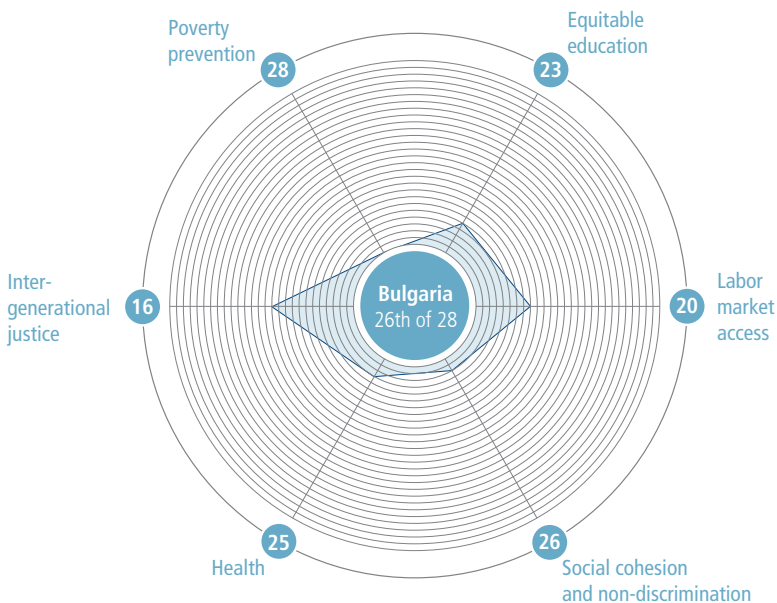
59 Ibid.

Challenge: The Belgian education system is also failing to deliver opportunities for some children and youth. The country ranks among the bottom third in terms of the impact socioeconomic factors have on PISA results. While educational outcomes are good on average, wide regional (Flanders and Wallonia) and income-based variation is evident, and tertiary-institution funding concerns are growing. In addition, 9.8 percent of Belgian 18-to-24 year olds dropped out of education and training in 2014. While an improvement over the previous survey years, this rate still places the country among the bottom third.



Bulgaria

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Overall: Bulgaria's overall performance on the SJI places it among the EU countries most urgently in need of policy reforms. With a SJI score of 3.78, the country ranks 26th. On three of the six dimensions in our study, Bulgaria ranks in the bottom five. Most worrying, the country ranks last in the dimension of poverty prevention. With regard to our focus on children and youth, Bulgaria's score on this sub-index of 2.40 ranks it last in the EU. On all four indicators of this sub-index, the country ranks in the bottom five.

Challenge: The Bulgarian government faces a number of major policy challenges, though none greater than keeping its population out of poverty. Despite declining poverty levels over the last years, a still alarming 48 percent of Bulgarians are at-risk-of poverty or social exclusion, the highest rate in the EU. This rate is nearly 8 percentage points higher than that seen in Romania, which ranks 27th, and exceeds the EU average by 20 percentage points. Within this at-risk population, 33.1 percent suffer from severe material deprivation. Of greatest concern is the fact that, among the population at risk, seniors and children are faring the worst. The average Bulgarian senior faces a situation worse than that faced by their counterparts in all other EU countries: 57.6 percent are at-risk-of poverty or social exclusion. Of these seniors, 40.3 percent suffer from severe material deprivation and 27.9 percent are at-risk-of poverty. Similarly alarming, 51.5 percent of Bulgarian children and youth are at-risk-of poverty or social exclusion, the highest rate in the EU.

Among this at-risk population under 18 years of age, 38.4 percent suffer from severe material deprivation and 28.4 percent are at-risk-of poverty. However, the rate of severe material deprivation, among the sub-groups as well as the total population, has markedly decreased since 2007. Most significantly, the rate among seniors decreased by nearly 27 percentage points.

Challenge: The fate of Bulgarian children and youth is particularly worrisome. In addition to bearing the highest rate of those at-risk-of poverty or social exclusion, the country also fares poorly on the other three indicators of this sub-index. The country ranks second to last (ahead of only Slovakia) with regard to the impact of socioeconomic factors on the PISA results of its students, underlining a missed opportunity to sufficiently integrate children and youth at the margins of Bulgarian society. In addition, 12.9 percent of Bulgarian 18-to-24 year olds dropped out of education and training in 2014. In comparison, this rate was 2.7 percent in Croatia and 4.4 percent in Slovenia for the same year. Given the previous figures, it may come as little surprise that Bulgaria's NEET rate also ranks it among the bottom five countries. In 2014, 24.8 percent of Bulgarians 20-to-24 years old were neither employed nor participating in education or training. These young adults are at-risk-of permanent exclusion from the labor market which, in the long term, threatens the very viability of the Bulgarian economy. "In general, Bulgaria's social policy is unsuccessful in including and integrating people with lower than secondary education, minorities, and foreigners (mainly refugees)."⁶⁰ With regard to the latter aspect the SGI country experts criticize recent xenophobic tendencies. However, given the strong negative demographic trend a more open attitude toward immigration – especially with a view to the EU's current refugee crisis – would clearly be in the country's long-term interest.

Achievement and challenge: Bulgaria has one of the lowest rates of government debt in the EU. With a general government gross debt in 2014 of 26.9 percent of GDP, a rate that has been steadily climbing over the last six years, Bulgaria has a debt level that remains well below the EU average of 87.7 percent. However, existing government expenditures seem insufficient in a number of areas: "Research and innovation continue to number among the country's main problem areas. Bulgaria is among the European Union's lowest spenders on research and innovation, and successive governments have concentrated on other issues while making little effort to develop active and sustainable policies. This dampens the positive effect of a recent increase in research and development spending by private businesses. Other serious problems include the relatively low-skilled labor force (low-skilled unemployment is among the highest in the EU) and the inability of the labor market within its present legal and policy framework to generate and maintain high levels of employment. Three main challenges in this area remain: reform of the education sector to produce a more adequate skill base for the 21st century; the negative demographic trend, which under the existing health care and pension systems will continue to increase pressure on the labor market; and the need to increase labor-market flexibility."⁶¹

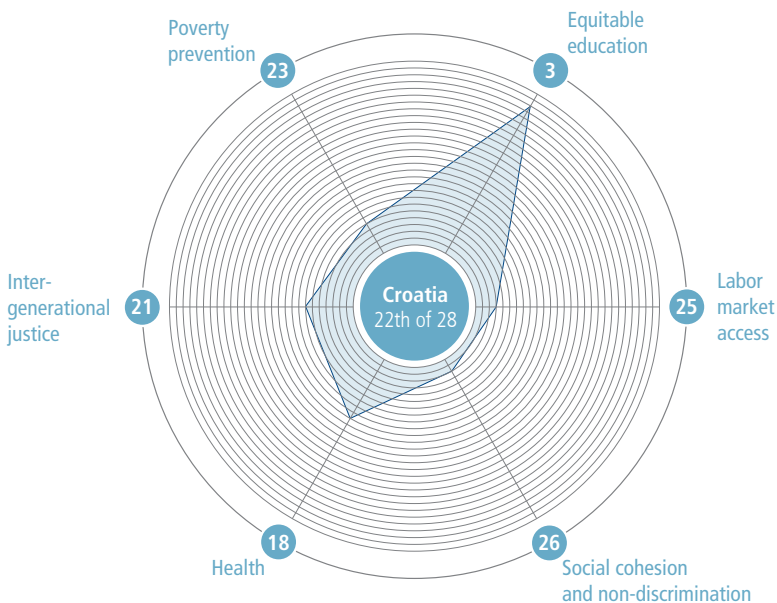
⁶⁰ Ganev/Popova/Bönker (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.

⁶¹ Ibid.



Croatia

EU Social Justice Index 2015



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Overall: Overall, Croatia's position on the SJI places it among the worst performing EU countries. The country's score of 4.93 ranks it 22nd and shows only a moderate improvement over the previous year's score. How Croatia measures up against the other EU-member countries varies greatly across our study's six dimensions. Particularly problematic is the country's performance in the areas of social cohesion and non-discrimination as well as labor market access. In these categories Croatia ranks in the bottom five. With regard to our sub-index on children and youth, Croatia comes in on place 16.

Achievement: With regard to equitable education, Croatia has a number of strengths; but in terms of education quality, there is still much room for improvement. The country can be lauded for featuring the lowest dropout rate in the EU (2.7% in 2014). The number of 18-to-24 year olds who leave education or training has nearly halved since peaking in 2010 at 5.2 percent. The education system has also done well to ensure that learning opportunities do not unfairly favor particular socioeconomic groups, ranking the country 7th in terms of socioeconomic background and student performance. However, education quality lags behind EU standards, as vocational education is decoupled from market demands and the country grapples with a major skills mismatch. As a percentage of GDP, public expenditure on pre-primary education totaled 0.7 percent in 2011 (the most recent reported year), placing the country 7th.

Challenge: Croatia faces several major social justice challenges. The first major challenge relates to labor market access. Overall, the Croatian labor market is in a precarious state. In 2014, only 54.6 percent of working-age Croatians were employed (the rate has fluctuated between 52.5 and 60% since the SJI 2008), ranking the country ahead of only Greece. In 2014, only 36.2 percent of older workers were employed. The overall unemployment rate hit 17.5 percent in 2013 and has since remained more or less constant and more than double the 8.7 percent seen in 2008. A near doubling can likewise be seen in the number of persons unemployed for a year or more. Whereas the 2008 long-term unemployment rate was at 5.3 percent, in 2014 the rate stood at 10.1 percent of the labor force. Those with less than upper secondary education were unemployed at a much higher rate: 26.4 percent (up from 10.9% in 2008). Youth, however, fare most poorly in labor market participation, with 45.5 percent of 15-to-24 year old Croatians unemployed in 2014. The plight of the young Croatian labor force has drastically worsened since 2008, with unemployment increasing by more than 20 percentage points. The SGI country report notes: “Those most affected by unemployment include youth up to 25 years of age, women above 45 and men above 50. The main reason for the increase in unemployment has been the fall in aggregate demand, but this has been exacerbated by skill mismatches and regional imbalances. Labor-market policies in Croatia have been insufficient to tackle the rapid increase in unemployment. Spending on active labor-market policies is relatively minimal. Despite high rates of long-term unemployment, relatively little is spent on retraining, lifelong learning and adult education. Only 2.4% of the adult population receives training, compared to an average of 9% in the European Union more generally.”⁶²

Challenge: Croatia faces a number of challenges associated with social cohesion and non-discrimination. The SGI country experts scored Croatia a 5 out of 10 on both its policy performance regarding non-discrimination and integration of migrants into society. In addition, the country’s NEET rate ranks ahead of only Italy and Greece. In 2014, 26.1 percent of Croatians 20-to-24 years old were neither in employment nor participating in education or training. This dramatic rise from the 13.7 percent reported in 2008 threatens the long-term viability of the Croatian economy. Policies that assertively reactivate these young adults are urgently needed. “A promising starting point for addressing these issues might be the 2013 Strategy for Education, Science and Technology. This links education and research and innovation policy, and contains a number of interesting proposals for increasing the match between the education system and the labor market.”⁶³

Challenge: In terms of intergenerational justice, Croatia also shows massive deficits (rank 21). As a consequence of the aging of the population, the low general employment rate and the decline in the effective retirement age from 61 in 2004 to 59 in 2013, the pension system is neither fiscally sustainable nor intergenerationally fair.⁶⁴

⁶² Petak/Bartlett/Bönker (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.

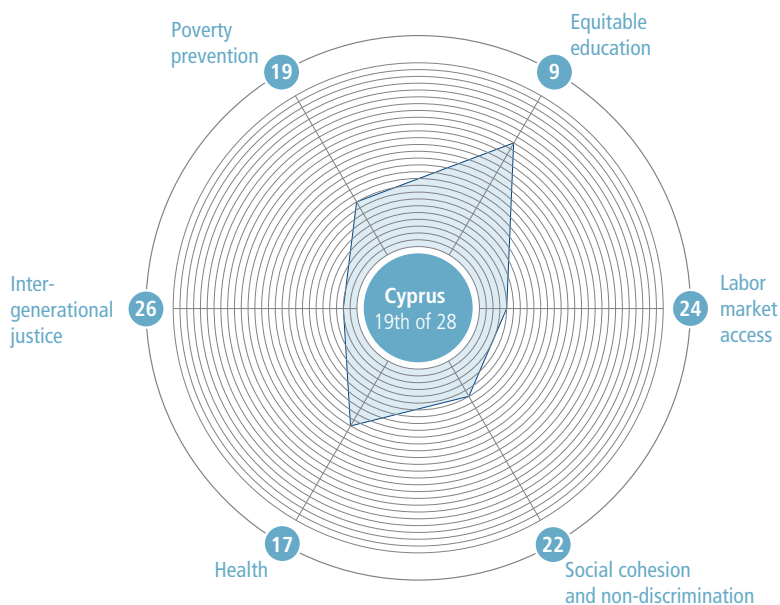
⁶³ Ibid.

⁶⁴ Ibid.



Cyprus

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Overall: Cyprus' current SJI score of 5.06 ranks the country 19th in the EU, a nominal worsening over SJI 2014. Particularly problematic is the country's performance in the areas of intergenerational justice and labor market access. Here, Cyprus finds itself in the bottom five. With regard to our focus on children and youth, Cyprus' score of 5.59 on this sub-index ranks it 14th.

Achievement and challenge: The country ranks 3rd for the comparatively low impact socio-economic factors have on the PISA results of Cyprian students. In addition, the education system has succeeded in halving the dropout rate since 2008. As of 2014, the number of 18-to-24 year olds who have left education or training has fallen to 6.8 percent, ranking the country 9th. Yet, Cyprus' policies for ensuring educational opportunities are equitable, while praiseworthy, have failed in one major aspect: quality. The average Cyprian student's PISA results were more than 75 points below those of students in Finland, Estonia and Poland, ranking the country 26th.

Challenge: Massive problems are still visible in the Cyprian labor market. The number of unemployed has increased by more than 400 percent since the SJI 2008, standing at 16.3 percent in 2014. Long-term unemployment even rose from 0.5 percent in 2008 to a current 7.7 percent. Younger workers, those 15-to-24 years old, have been hit disproportionately hard during this period. In 2014, 36 percent were unemployed, more than double the already high rate for the over-

all labor market, ranking the country 24th. More must be done to enable all Cypriots, particularly younger workers, to find opportunities for permanent employment. In addition, in 2014, the country had the highest incidence of involuntary temporary employment. A distressing 94.3 percent of working-age Cypriots were in temporary employment because they could not find a permanent position, a rate that has exceeded 90 percent since the inaugural SJI in 2008. In comparison, the rate across the EU averaged 63.4 percent.

Challenge: Cyprus also faces challenges in securing policies that are intergenerationally just. Like many other EU countries, the country has been witnessing a growing gap between the generations in recent years. The number of children and youth threatened by poverty or social exclusion has increased over the last years (from 20.2 percent in 2009 to 27.7 percent in 2013). However, the risk of poverty or social exclusion among senior citizens declined from 55.6 percent in 2007 to 26.1 percent in 2013. The country report notes: “Austerity policies and unemployment have increased the risk of poverty and exclusion, though a guaranteed-minimum-income policy is helping many households, especially among the elderly.”⁶⁵ In addition, the SGI country experts flagged Cyprian family policy as inadequate, scoring it 4 out of 10. “The low rate of enrollment in nurseries and child care centers is one symptom of Cyprus’ lack of adequate family policies. This creates obstacles to combining motherhood with employment.”⁶⁶ Intergenerational justice also requires a sustainable public budget. Cyprus, however, ranks among the bottom five EU countries in terms of public debt. With a general government gross debt of 107.1 percent of GDP (up from a reported 44.7 percent in 2008), Cyprus has a debt level well above the already high EU average (87.7%), ranking the country 24th. While public debt has risen, total expenditure on research and development is just 0.5 percent of GDP. This ranks the country 27th, ahead of only Romania, and undermines the economic dexterity necessary to maintain a high level of employment. Finally, a truly broad-based social justice strategy requires the sustainable management of natural resources and preservation of a country’s vital ecological habitats. However, Cyprus shows major weaknesses in this respect as well. “Small solar-energy production efforts have not sufficed to raise Cyprus’ last-place ranking within the EU in some environmental fields.”⁶⁷

65 Christophorou/Axt/Karadag (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.

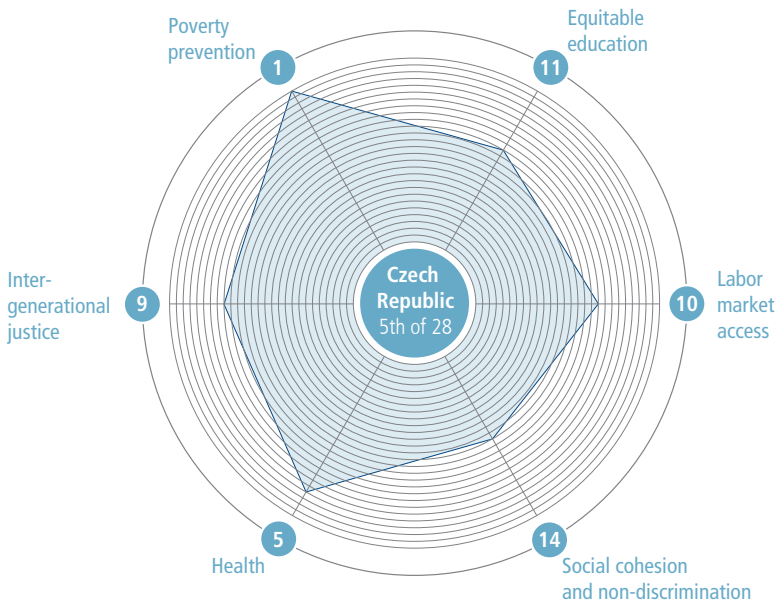
66 Ibid.

67 Ibid.



Czech Republic

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Overall: The Czech Republic ranks a commendable 5th overall on the current SJI. The country's performance has remained roughly stable since our first assessment in 2008. Across the six social justice dimensions, the Czech Republic ranks 1st among the 28 EU countries on poverty prevention. It also, ranks a noteworthy 5th on health and 9th on intergenerational justice. In terms of this edition's focus on children and youth, we see mixed performance. On three of the four measures, the Czech Republic ranks in the top ten and on one measure (socioeconomic influence on PISA results) among the bottom five.

Achievement: The Czech government can be lauded for several policy successes relating to social justice, in particular the prevention of poverty. At 14.6 percent, the country has the lowest percentage of the total population at-risk-of poverty or social exclusion in the EU (data from 2013, the latest year for which data were available). To put this in context, this rate averages 24.6 percent across the EU and was 15.8 percent in 2007. The contours of this policy achievement can be seen across a range of sub-indicators. The share of children and youth (under 18) at-risk-of poverty or social exclusion is 16.4 percent. Although higher than the rate for the total population, this is still far better than the 27.9 percent EU average. Those 65 or older fare particularly well, with a comparatively low 10.4 percent at risk. In terms of income poverty, a relative advantage can again be seen. The Czech population, as a whole, is at least risk of income poverty: only 8.6 percent receive

60 percent or less of the median income (after social transfers). Among the populations under 18 and 65 or older these rates respectively increase to 11.3 percent and decrease to 5.8 percent. The country also has one of the lowest percentage of households with very low work intensity. A comparatively low 6.9 percent of Czech were living in quasi-jobless households.

Achievement: The Czech government has also ranked among the top ten on a number of indicators assessing labor market access. In 2014, the country's unemployment rate of 6.2 percent was more than 4 percentage points lower than the EU average and ranks the country 5th. While the rate of unemployment is higher than the 4.4 percent seen in 2008, it is an improvement over the 7.4 percent seen in 2010. The percentage of unemployed who have been out of work for a year or more, 2.7 percent, likewise appears to be readjusting downwards toward pre-crisis levels. Youth unemployment, which has remained persistently higher, was 15.9 percent in 2014, a marked improvement over the 19 percent seen in 2013, but still 6 percentage points higher than the rate in 2008. In addition, the employment rate in 2014 was higher than it had been in 2008 (69% versus 66.6%). Yet, not all of our labor market measures paint a rosy picture. For instance, those in temporary employment involuntarily make up 82.5 percent of all temporary workers, a 14.8 percentage points increase over 2008. "There is also a need for increased support in developing a highly skilled labor force, including creating a more welcoming atmosphere for immigrants who might choose to call the Czech Republic home, and more emphasis on enabling a more harmonious coexistence of work and family life."⁶⁸

Achievement and challenge: In addition to the comparatively low rate of Czech children and youth at-risk-of poverty or social exclusion, this subgroup also fares among the top ten on two additional measures: NEET rate and early school leavers. The percentage of 20-to-24 year olds who are neither in employment nor participating in education or training has recently decreased somewhat to 11.8 percent. The rate of 18-to-24 year olds who dropped out of education or training has fluctuated nominally and stands at 5.5 percent. However, according to the OECD, the PISA performance of Czech students unduly depend on their socioeconomic background. In comparison with the 27 other EU countries, the Czech education system ranks 24th on this measure. In this context, "a long-standing and unresolved equity issue has been the process of inclusion of children into special schools, mostly attended by children of Roma descent or from the lower classes, individuals whose chances of returning to a more mainstream educational path is limited."⁶⁹ Addressing this injustice should be a top priority for the Czech government.

Challenge: Generally, despite the Czech Republic's overall good performance on preventing poverty, the social exclusion of specific groups, most notably the Roma, remains a problem. "The problem is most visibly manifested by the existence of socially excluded Roma localities that have arisen sometimes through the policy management of municipalities and sometimes sponta-

⁶⁸ Guasti/Mansfeldová/Myant/Bönker (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.

⁶⁹ Ibid.

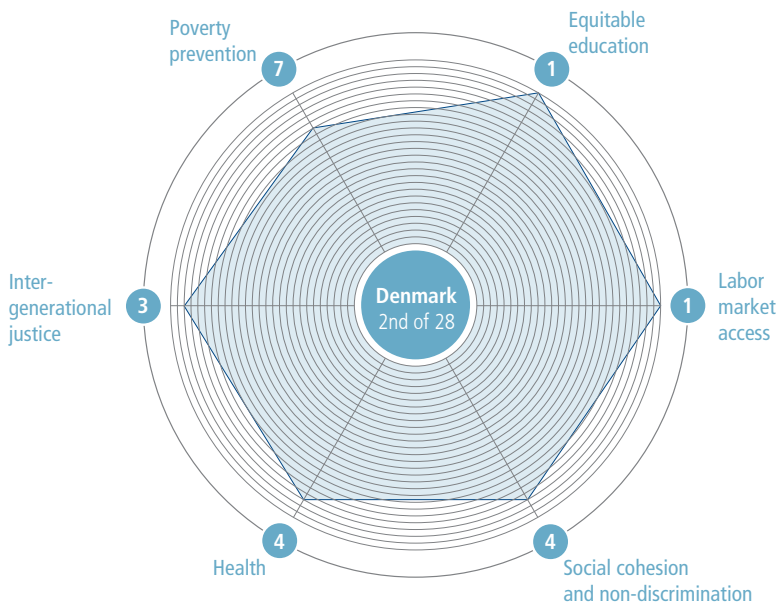


neously by the migration of Roma into particular areas. These are characterized by an accumulation of social problems, such as unemployment, housing insecurity, low education levels and poor health. In some cases, high crime rates, strong discrimination against Roma and anti-Roma demonstrations have become significant public order issues.⁷⁰

70 Ibid.

Denmark

EU Social Justice Index 2015



1	Sweden	7.23
2	Denmark	7.10
3	Finland	7.02
4	Netherlands	6.84
5	Czech Republic	6.68
6	Austria	6.57
7	Germany	6.52
8	Luxembourg	6.44
9	Slovenia	6.28
10	Estonia	6.24
11	Belgium	6.19
12	France	6.18
13	United Kingdom	5.97
14	Lithuania	5.67
	EU Average	5.63
15	Poland	5.46
16	Malta	5.43
17	Slovakia	5.33
18	Ireland	5.14
19	Cyprus	5.06
20	Portugal	4.98
	Latvia	4.98
22	Croatia	4.93
23	Hungary	4.73
	Spain	4.73
25	Italy	4.69
26	Bulgaria	3.78
27	Romania	3.74
28	Greece	3.61

Overall: Denmark is one of the most socially just countries in the EU. The country ranks 2nd, behind Sweden, with an overall score of 7.10. This score shows a slight improvement over the previous two SJI assessments, but a slight worsening since the initial SJI in 2008 (a score reduction of 0.27). Denmark's overall success is broad-based, with the country ranking in the top five on five of the six dimensions (it ranks a respectable 7th in the other dimension, poverty prevention). With regard to our focus on children and youth, Denmark's score of 7.15 on this sub-index ranks it 3rd.

Achievement: Danish public policy has successfully confronted a broad spectrum of social justice issues. One policy area worth highlighting relates to the country's success at promoting a well-functioning labor market. Denmark ranks 1st among the 28 EU-member countries on our dimension labor market access, scoring 7.44. The country's employment rate stood at 72.8 percent in 2014. While this is about 5 percentage points below the rate in 2008 (which was 77.9 percent), it surpasses the EU average of 64.8 percent. The employment rate of older workers (those 55-to-64 years old) has increased since 2010 to 63.2 percent (the 4th highest rate in our sample). In 2014, the unemployment rate sank somewhat to 6.8 percent after hitting a high of 7.6 percent in 2010. This rate, however, is still higher than the 3.5 percent reported in the first SJI in 2008. The long-term unemployment rate was 1.7 percent in 2014, which is likewise low in comparison to most other EU countries. Here again a very slight improvement can be seen over the previous year.



Nonetheless, the long-term unemployment rate has more than tripled since 2008, when it was one of the lowest in the EU (0.5 percent). The unemployment rate among workers with less than upper secondary education was likewise comparatively low, standing at 10.6 percent. Yet, here as well, we see a five percentage point increase over 2008. The unemployment rate of 15-to-24 year olds has also increased since 2008 (when it was 8%), rising to 14 percent in 2010 before falling to 12.6 percent in 2014. Most impressively, in-work poverty is the lowest in Denmark, with a relatively low 2.7 percent of workers at-risk-of poverty. These various measures, when taken as a whole, demonstrate that the Danish labor market, thanks to sound active labor-market policies, is effectively ensuring that employment benefits a broad spectrum of workers.

Achievement: In terms of intergenerational justice, Denmark ranks 3rd with a score of 7.26, behind only Sweden and Finland. The SGI country experts awarded the Danish administration scores of 9 out of 10 for its family, pension and environmental policies. The country experts note that the “country’s system of day care centers, preschools and kindergartens allow sufficient flexibility for both parents to work,” though some municipalities may lack the financial resources to offer quality, flexible day care.⁷¹ They also note that the pension system is well-diversified, but that current “means testing of public pension supplements has the effect that the net gain from additional pension savings or later retirements can be rather low for a broad segment of income earners.”⁷² With regard to the environment, the “government has set rather ambitious goals including that Danish energy production should be fossil free by 2050” and free of coal by 2030.⁷³ Based on the most recent Eurostat data, the country ranks 5th on renewable energy consumption. A laudable 27.2 percent of gross final energy consumption comes from renewable sources, nearly 10 percentage points more than the EU average. Denmark is also investing in the future, spending 3.1 percent of GDP on research and development. At almost double the EU average (1.6%), this ranks the country 3rd, behind Finland and Sweden.

Challenge: Although overall and child poverty levels are low in cross-EU comparison, Denmark, like many other EU countries, has been witnessing a growing gap between the generations in recent years. The number of children and youth threatened by poverty or social exclusion has slightly increased over the last years (from 14% in 2009 to 15.5% in 2013). However, in the same period of time, the risk of poverty or social exclusion among senior citizens declined from 20.6 percent in 2009 to 11.4 percent in 2013. Also, in terms of income inequality, Denmark is no longer one of those EU countries with the most equal distribution of income (as it used to be for many years). “Although, comparatively, inequality is low and social cohesion is high, Danish society is trending toward more disparity and inequality. This applies to immigrants as well as groups who are marginalized in the labor market, often due to insufficient job qualifications. (...) The hallmark of Danish society – and other Nordic countries – has been to balance low inequality and an extensive public sector with a well-functioning economy and high income level. It remains an ongoing challenge to reconcile these objectives.”⁷⁴

71 Laursen/Andersen/Jahn (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.

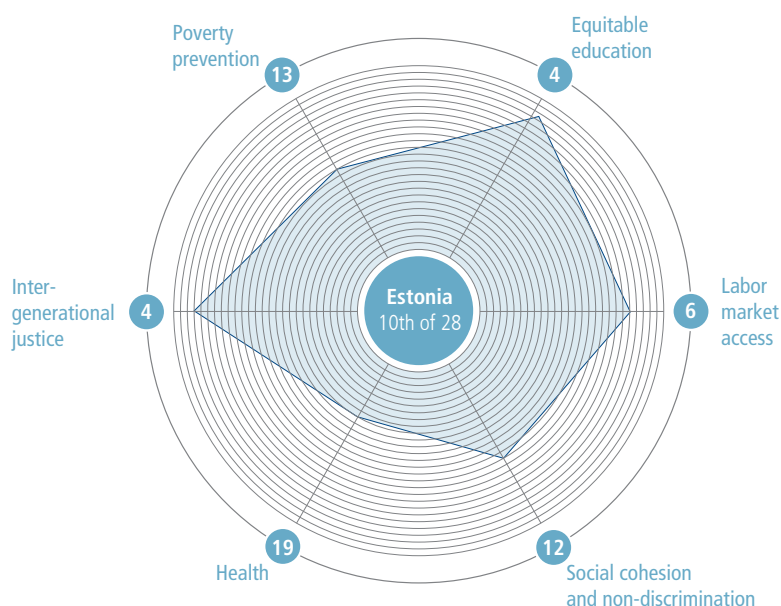
72 Ibid.

73 Ibid.

74 Ibid.

Estonia

EU Social Justice Index 2015



1	Sweden	7.23
2	Denmark	7.10
3	Finland	7.02
4	Netherlands	6.84
5	Czech Republic	6.68
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7	Germany	6.52
8	Luxembourg	6.44
9	Slovenia	6.28
10	Estonia	6.24
11	Belgium	6.19
12	France	6.18
13	United Kingdom	5.97
14	Lithuania	5.67
	EU Average	5.63
15	Poland	5.46
16	Malta	5.43
17	Slovakia	5.33
18	Ireland	5.14
19	Cyprus	5.06
20	Portugal	4.98
	Latvia	4.98
22	Croatia	4.93
23	Hungary	4.73
	Spain	4.73
25	Italy	4.69
26	Bulgaria	3.78
27	Romania	3.74
28	Greece	3.61

Overall: Estonia numbers among the better-performing EU countries in the current SJI. With an overall score of 6.24, the country ranks 10th. Across the six dimensions that comprise the index, Estonia ranks among the top ten in three dimensions (equitable education, intergenerational justice and labor market access). It places in the bottom third on the health dimension. With regard to this edition's focus on children and youth, Estonia ranks 8th with a score of 6.43 on this sub-index.

Achievement and challenge: The Estonian education system has had commendable successes in delivering high-quality, equitable opportunities and ranks 4th in this dimension. The country ranks 1st with respect to minimizing the effects of socioeconomic factors on PISA performance and 2nd in terms of overall PISA results (behind Finland). The average Estonian student scored about three points less than the average Finnish student and 34 points higher than the EU average. The government's education policy received a score of 9 out of 10 from the SGI country experts. While the country's educational outcomes are generally excellent, they note that higher educational attainment does not correlate with better employability as much as it does in other countries. To address this weakness, recent policy measures "have sought to ensure that the provision of education keeps pace with the changing needs of the economy" by "strengthening the links between education and training and the labor market, such as involving companies and social partners in VET (vocational education training) curricula development, including entrepreneurship skills in



university curricula, and providing adults with low-level skills better access to lifelong learning.⁷⁵ Estonia also ranks among the bottom third when it comes to pre-primary education expenditure, with the government spending just 0.4 percent of GDP. Although Estonia's rate of 18-to-24 year olds dropping out of education and training has fluctuated in recent years, it has remained relatively high and currently lingers at 11.4 percent. For this indicator, Estonia therefore achieves only place 20. If the Estonian labor market is to remain competitive, more must be done to keep these young adults in education or training.

Achievement and challenge: Compared with most other EU countries, Estonia generally performs well with respect to intergenerational justice (rank 4). The SGI country experts awarded the government scores of 9 out of 10 for both its family and environmental policies and a score of 7 for its pension policy. They observe that “Estonia has one of the most generous parental benefit systems in the OECD, entitling parents to benefits equal to her/his previous salary for 435 days.”⁷⁶ The government can be lauded for having maintained the lowest level of public debt in the EU throughout the crisis. Though currently higher than the level seen in 2008 (4.5% of GDP), the country's current general government gross debt of 9.7 percent of GDP has improved since the SJI 2014 (when the debt level reached a peak) and even outperforms 2nd-place Luxembourg by 15 percentage points. In comparison, the average public debt level in the EU is 87.7 percent of GDP and runs as high as 177.2 percent in crisis-torn Greece. Regarding environmental preservation, the country's share of renewable energy in gross final energy consumption has increased from 17.1 percent in 2007 to 25.6 percent in 2013, placing Estonia on rank 7 for this environmental indicator. Here, however, we see highly ambivalent policy performance. The country ranks second to last on greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions, ahead of only Luxembourg. Estonia emits an alarming 13 tons of climate-warming gases per capita (reported in CO₂ equivalents). Most worrying, while most other countries have lower emissions today than they did in 2007, Estonia is one of only two countries that have actually increased GHG emissions.

Challenge: Although poverty levels in Estonia do not exceed the EU average, the SGI country experts note that “income levels are much lower in rural and remote regions than in the capital area, reflecting great regional disparities. The absence of effective regional-policy measures has accelerated the emigration of the working-age population from these areas. This in turn puts an additional burden on families, and makes the formulation of sound social policy all the more difficult.”⁷⁷

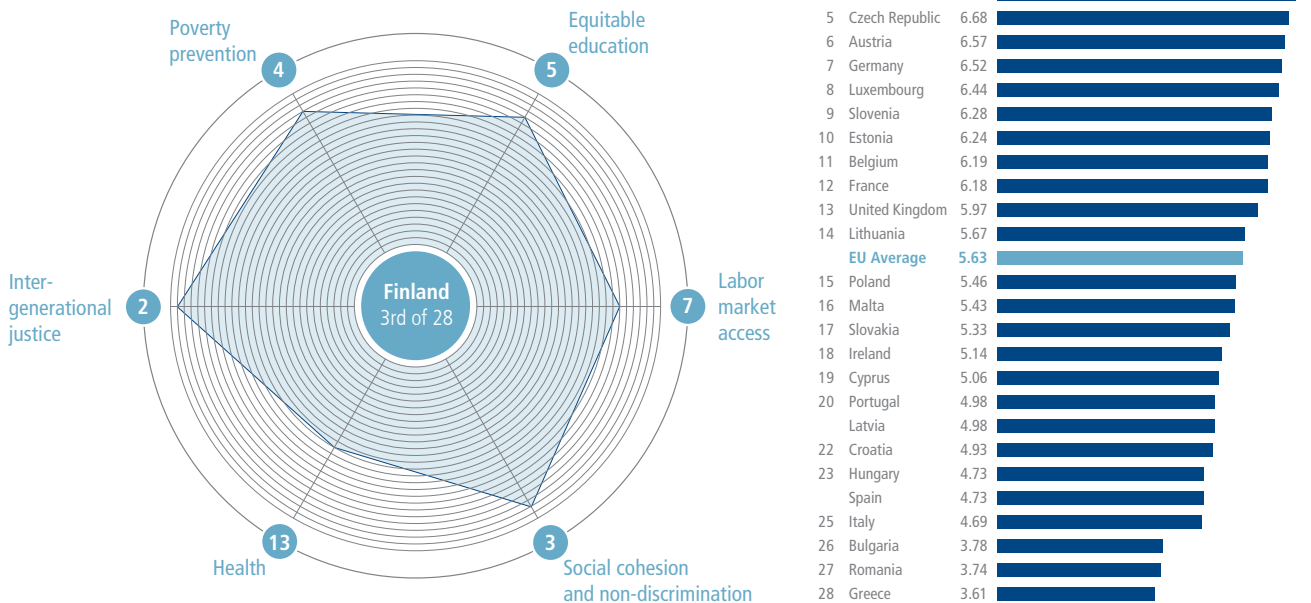
75 Toots/Sikk/Jahn (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.

76 Ibid.

77 Ibid.

Finland

EU Social Justice Index 2015



Overall: Since our first social justice assessment in 2008, Finland has consistently ranked as one of the best-performing countries in the EU. The country's current score of 7.02 is slightly lower than the 7.19 seen in 2008 and places Finland 3rd behind Sweden and Denmark. Noteworthy is that Finland ranks among the top half of countries in all SJI dimensions. In four of the six dimensions (poverty prevention, equitable education, social cohesion and non-discrimination, and intergenerational justice) it ranks among the top five. In terms of our special 2015 sub-index on children and youth, the country's performance varies. On two of the four measures comprising this sub-index, Finland ranks a laudable 2nd for its low rate of children and youth at-risk-of poverty or social exclusion as well as socioeconomic influence on PISA results.

Achievement and challenge: Finnish policies relating to intergenerational justice are some of the best seen in the EU. The country scores 7.35 in this dimension, ranking it 2nd behind Sweden. The SGI country experts award the Finnish government a score of 9 (out of 10 possible points) for its family and pension policies as well as an 8 for its environmental policies. However, the country's old age dependency ratio has steadily climbed in recent years, up from 24.8 in 2008 to 30.2 in 2014. With regard to the pension system, the SGI experts note that the country's aging population poses problems both in terms of labor force maintenance and fiscal sustainability, but that reforms agreed to in September 2014 give cause for cautious optimism. These reform policies will raise the



retirement age for most workers to 65, introduce flexible retirement and amend the accumulation rate. Finnish energy consumption has become more sustainable, with the share from renewable sources increasing from 29.6 percent in 2007 to 36.8 percent in 2013, the third-highest share in the EU. During this same period, greenhouse gas emissions have also declined, decreasing from 9 tons per capita (in CO₂ equivalents) in 2007 down to 6.5 tons per capita in 2012. In terms of investing in the future, Finland devotes a higher share of its GDP to research and development than any other EU country. Indeed, public and private expenditure totals 3.3 percent of GDP. The SGI country experts note, however, that “the focus of R&D has been on applied research to the disadvantage of basic research, and universities and other basic research institutes have not benefited. In fact, this has become even more accentuated of late. In the long run, this heavy bias in favor of applied research, given the dependence of applied research on developments in basic research, will have negative consequences for product development and productivity. Moreover, the technology transfer from universities to industry is below par and academic entrepreneurship is not well developed.”⁷⁸

Achievement and challenge: With a score of 7.60, Finland ranks at 3rd place behind the Netherlands and Sweden with regard to its policies strengthening social cohesion and combating discrimination. The SGI country experts gave the country a score of 8 for its social inclusion, non-discrimination and integration policies. Finland is also among the top performers with regard to gender equality in its unicameral parliament, in which 42.5 percent of seats are currently held by women. In comparison, the EU average is 27 percent. Finland’s Gini coefficient, a measure of income inequality, places the country 5th among the 28 countries in our study. The SGI experts note that the “rights of the Swedish-speaking minority in Finland are widely respected, with Swedish also recognized as an official language.”⁷⁹ Pending local government reforms, however, “would violate some of the rights of the Swedish-speaking population.”⁸⁰ In addition, “certain segments of the population, primarily represented by the True Finns Party, have turned hostile toward the Swedish-speaking population.”⁸¹

Challenge: Problems also persist on the Finnish labor market. Comparatively, present achievements in stemming long-term unemployment, youth unemployment and low-skilled unemployment are unsatisfactory. The high level of youth unemployment (20.5%) is a particular cause for concern. In addition, the rate of 20-to-24 year olds neither in employment nor participating in education or training was 14.6 percent in 2014, a 4 percentage point increase compared to 2008. These young adults are at-risk-of permanent exclusion from the labor market.

Challenge: Finally, although overall and child poverty levels are low in cross-EU comparison, Finland, like many other EU countries, has been witnessing a growing gap between the generations

78 Anckar/Kuitto/Oberst/Jahn (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.

79 Ibid.

80 Ibid.

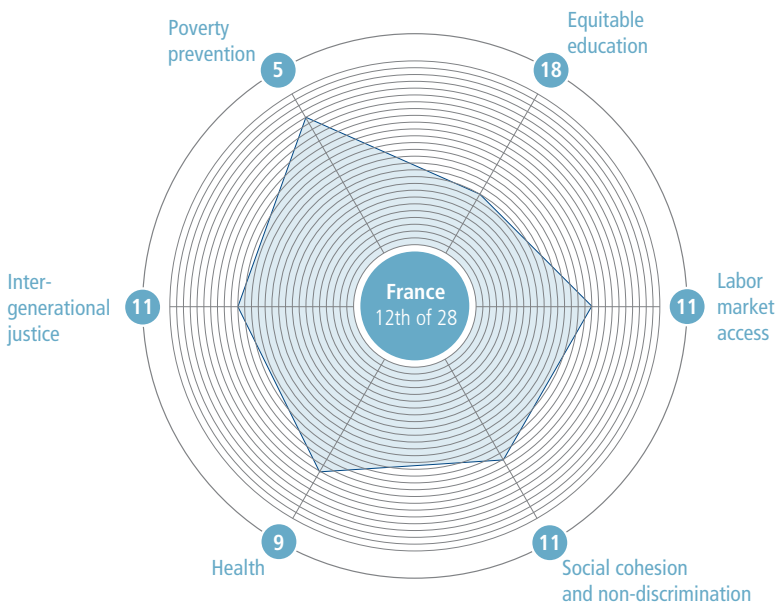
81 Ibid.

in recent years. The number of children and youth threatened by poverty or social exclusion has slightly increased in recent years (from 14% in 2009 to 15.6% in 2014). However, in the same period, the risk of poverty or social exclusion among senior citizens declined from 23.1 percent in 2009 to 17 percent in 2014.



France

EU Social Justice Index 2015



1	Sweden	7.23
2	Denmark	7.10
3	Finland	7.02
4	Netherlands	6.84
5	Czech Republic	6.68
6	Austria	6.57
7	Germany	6.52
8	Luxembourg	6.44
9	Slovenia	6.28
10	Estonia	6.24
11	Belgium	6.19
12	France	6.18
13	United Kingdom	5.97
14	Lithuania	5.67
	EU Average	5.63
15	Poland	5.46
16	Malta	5.43
17	Slovakia	5.33
18	Ireland	5.14
19	Cyprus	5.06
20	Portugal	4.98
	Latvia	4.98
22	Croatia	4.93
23	Hungary	4.73
	Spain	4.73
25	Italy	4.69
26	Bulgaria	3.78
27	Romania	3.74
28	Greece	3.61

Overall: France's overall performance on the SJI has remained relatively stable and within the midrange since the first assessment in 2008. In the current index, the country ranks a mediocre 12th in the EU with a score of 6.18, but ranks above average in the dimensions of poverty prevention and health. However, areas such as labor market access, integration and education policy exhibit massive shortcomings. With regard to our focus on children and youth, France's score of 5.72 yields it a 13th place ranking.

Achievement and challenge: France's score of 6.67 is at rank 5 in the dimension of poverty prevention. With 18.1 percent of the total population at-risk-of poverty or social exclusion, the French perform better than many of their EU counterparts. However, as is the case in many other EU countries, the gap between the young and old in terms of poverty prevention has widened over the last years. Several sub-indicators provide additional detail: The share of children and youth (under 18) at-risk-of poverty or social exclusion is 21.3 percent. While this is higher than the rate for the total population, it remains better than the 24.6 percent EU average. Those 65 or older fare especially well, with a comparatively low 10.4 percent at risk, and the rate has continually declined over recent years. Some 5.1 percent of the total population suffer from severe material deprivation, landing the country at rank 7 for this measure. Material deprivation does not, however, affect all segments of society equally. Again, French seniors are less likely to be materially

deprived (2.7%) whereas children and youth are more likely to suffer material deprivation (6%). In terms of income poverty, France ranks 6th. Among the total population, 13.7 percent receive 60 percent or less of the median income (after social transfers). Among the population segments under 18, this rate increases to 18 percent; for those 65 or older, this rate decreases to 8.7 percent.

Achievement and challenge: With a score of 7.04, France ranks 9th in the fifth dimension of the SJI, health. The French administration received a score of 7 from the SGI country experts for its health policies. They commend the country for having “a high-quality health system, which is generous and largely inclusive,” but note that the country’s spends 10 percent of GDP on health care, “one of the highest ratios in Europe.”⁸² France ranks 10th in healthy life expectancy. The average French citizen can expect 63.7 healthy life years, more than two years longer than the EU average. According to the Euro Health Consumer Index, French health policy has achieved shorter wait times as well as a higher range and reach of health services than many EU countries (rank 6). On this same index, the country also ranks 6th on health system outcomes.

Challenge: Requiring urgent policy action, France ranks an alarming 26th with regard to the impact of socioeconomic factors on the PISA results of French students. “There are persisting inequalities that effectively penalize students of working-class families at the university level, and flagrantly in accessing the elite schools (grandes écoles). Social, ethnic and territorial inequalities are often linked (as a result of a massive concentration of poor immigrant families in suburban zones).”⁸³ This poor result drags down France’s otherwise above-average placement in the equitable education dimension.

Challenge: The sclerotic labor market represents another major issue for reform. Labor-market policy has shown poor results during the review period. Specifically difficult problems include notoriously high youth unemployment figures (24.2%) and the fact that (especially young) French citizens with immigrant backgrounds face tremendous difficulties integrating into the labor market. The country ranks among the bottom six for the highly unequal ratio of employment outcomes achieved by foreign-born workers. Both of these measures highlight a missed opportunity to integrate into society children, youth and marginalized adults. According to the 2015 SGI country report “the reasons for such failure are numerous and complex. The high level of youth unemployment is linked to the French job-training system, which relies heavily on public schools; yet diplomas from such training are not really accepted in the industry at large, which hinders a potential worker’s transition from school to a job.”⁸⁴

Challenge: Directly linked to France’s poor results regarding equitable education and labor market access are massive shortcoming in the area of integration, “The traditional French model, based on an open policy toward immigrants acquiring French nationality and on the principle of equality

82 Mény/Uterwedde/Zohlnhöfer (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.

83 Ibid.

84 Ibid.

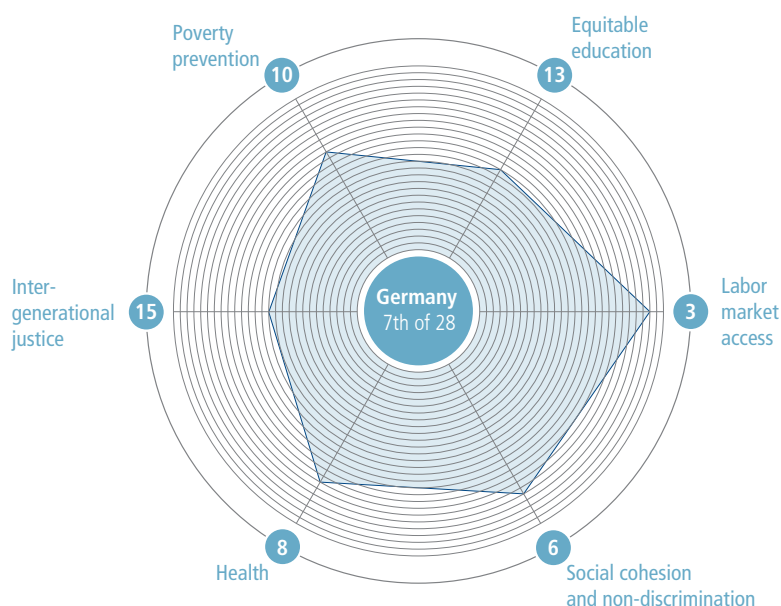


of all citizens, regardless of ethnic origins or religion, has lost its integrative power in the last 30 years. The former key instruments of the integration process (education, work, church, parties or trade unions) no longer work. The problem is complex: the high concentration of immigrants in the suburban zones leaves young people without much in the way of future prospects; the cultural awareness of young French citizens with a north African background, feeling rejected by society and faced with racism and discrimination, have created explosive situations in these areas. Conflicts have proliferated, such as suburban petty criminality and riots, so-called headscarf conflicts or violence between different (e.g., Muslim and Jewish) communities. This challenge needs answers involving multiple policies, in fields such as urban development, education, job training and employment. It should emphasize so-called soft policies such as education, social integration, ‘sociabilité,’ all of which require time and human resources beyond the financial involvement of public authorities. What is at stake is a political and social cohesion that derives from common national values and rules.”⁸⁵

85 Ibid.

Germany

EU Social Justice Index 2015



1	Sweden	7.23
2	Denmark	7.10
3	Finland	7.02
4	Netherlands	6.84
5	Czech Republic	6.68
6	Austria	6.57
7	Germany	6.52
8	Luxembourg	6.44
9	Slovenia	6.28
10	Estonia	6.24
11	Belgium	6.19
12	France	6.18
13	United Kingdom	5.97
14	Lithuania	5.67
	EU Average	5.63
15	Poland	5.46
16	Malta	5.43
17	Slovakia	5.33
18	Ireland	5.14
19	Cyprus	5.06
20	Portugal	4.98
	Latvia	4.98
22	Croatia	4.93
23	Hungary	4.73
	Spain	4.73
25	Italy	4.69
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28	Greece	3.61

Overall: With an overall score of 6.52 on the 2015 SJI, Germany ranks a respectable 7th in the EU. Though we observe a minor worsening compared to the previous SJI, the country has measurably improved since our first social justice assessment in 2008. Germany ranks among the top ten on four of the six dimensions that comprise the index. It ranks a commendable 3rd on the labor market access dimension as well as 6th on social cohesion and non-discrimination, 8th on health, and 10th on poverty prevention. In terms of this year's focus on children and youth, we see mixed performance. On this sub-index, Germany's score of 6.67 ranks it likewise 7th.

Achievement and challenge: With a score of 7.24, the country's labor market ranks 3rd in this dimension, behind Denmark and Austria. The overall employment rate in 2014, 73.8 percent, was one of the highest in our sample, placing Germany 2nd (just minimally) behind Sweden. The rate of employment has actually increased slowly throughout the crisis, especially among older workers (age 55 to 64). In 2014, 65.6 percent of this demographic in Germany were employed. This is the second highest rate in the EU and 12 percentage points more than Germany's 2008 rate. These high rates of employment are conversely reflected in the country's low unemployment figures. Germany has the lowest overall unemployment in the EU. In 2014, a comparatively low 5.1 percent of the labor force were unemployed. Here again we observe a steady improvement throughout the crisis (the unemployment rate was 7.6% in 2008). A similar positive trend can



be seen with youth unemployment: the rate has steadily decreased from 10.6 percent in 2008 to 7.7 percent in 2014. Germany today has the lowest youth unemployment rate in the EU. The number of people unemployed for a year or longer has also decreased. While in 2008, the rate of long-term unemployment stood at 3.9 percent, in 2014 that rate had been cut to 2.2 percent. However, the number of long-term unemployed who find it increasingly difficult to re-enter the labor market is still too high. The German labor market also does not meet all social justice standards. Indeed, as in many other countries, Germany's labor market has grown increasingly segmented in recent years. "The expansion of atypical employment contracts such as temporary employment programs (Leiharbeit), part-time and agency work may have been an advantage in terms of securing industrial flexibility over the past years. However, the government's approval of these less regulated contracts has created incentives for employers to use them with increasing frequency. This has potentially severe consequences for the social welfare system, in particular, and social justice, more generally. Furthermore, opportunities for advancement within this low wage labor market are few."⁸⁶ Nearly 40 percent of all employed persons in Germany work in non-standard forms of employment (as of 2013). With regard to wage gaps, the hourly wage for part-time men in temporary jobs is 33 percent (24% for women) lower than that for full-time standard workers (OECD 2015: 156). Also, a deterioration relative to the last SJI is evident in the "in-work poverty" measure, which suggests that the trend toward a segmented or dual labor market has gained traction, as it has elsewhere in the European Union. Creating incentives for high employment rates and enhancing upward mobility from non-standard to regular forms of employment and decent working conditions is therefore key to ensuring a socially just labor market. The significantly weaker job opportunities afforded to people not born in Germany represent a further weak point, despite recent moderate improvements. The foreign-born to native employment ratio in 2014 was 0.91, yielding the country a rank of 22 on this measure.

Achievement and challenge: Germany has made some progress in ensuring social cohesion and that members of society are free from discrimination. The country's score in this dimension of 7.25 places it 6th among all EU countries. The country's NEET rate of 9.5 percent in 2014 (rank 3 in our study), when compared to the EU average of 17.8 percent, demonstrates that young adult Germans are faring far better than most of their EU counterparts. Remarkably, this rate of 20-to-24 year olds neither employed nor participating in education or training has actually declined since the crisis began (the rate was 12.9% in 2008). Germany ranks among the top ten countries for the share of parliamentary seats held by women (36.5% in 2014). The SGI country experts award Germany a score of 8 out of 10 for both its integration and non-discrimination policies as well as a score of 7 for social inclusion. They note that "about 15 million people in Germany (20% of the population)" are immigrants or "come from an immigrant background."⁸⁷ In 2013, "net immigration amounted to 437,000 people, which is the highest figure since 1993."⁸⁸ "Integration of immigrants is smooth with respect to most migrant groups from other European countries.

⁸⁶ Rüb/Heinemann/Ulbricht/Zohlhörer (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.

⁸⁷ Ibid.

⁸⁸ Ibid.

The integration of Muslim migrants (especially from Turkey), however, has been more difficult, as evidenced by their lower educational achievement and higher unemployment rate compared to other immigrant groups.”⁸⁹ It is to be hoped that the recent positive developments in the area of integration policy will also continue in the context of the current refugee crisis.

Challenge: Germany shows major weaknesses in terms of social justice in the areas of intergenerational justice and education. With regard to the latter aspect, it must be noted that the influence of a student’s socioeconomic background on his or her educational success is still far too strong in Germany, although the country has made some progress over the last years in mitigating this dynamic. Germany places at 15th in this important measure of equity. With regard to intergenerational justice (also rank 15), Germany is among the countries that have deteriorated most significantly relative to the last survey. Many critics claim that the recent pension reforms “undermine the long-term sustainability of the pensions system, lead to higher social security contributions, and burden younger generations and business with higher financial costs. (...) The reforms go against the measures undertaken in recent decades to raise the participation rate of older workers, reduce early retirement, moderate the increase of the contribution rate and balance the pay-as-you-go system for the future.”⁹⁰ Finally, the number of children and youth threatened by poverty or social exclusion is at 19.4 percent (compared to 16% among the elderly), a surprisingly high figure for the largest economy in the EU.

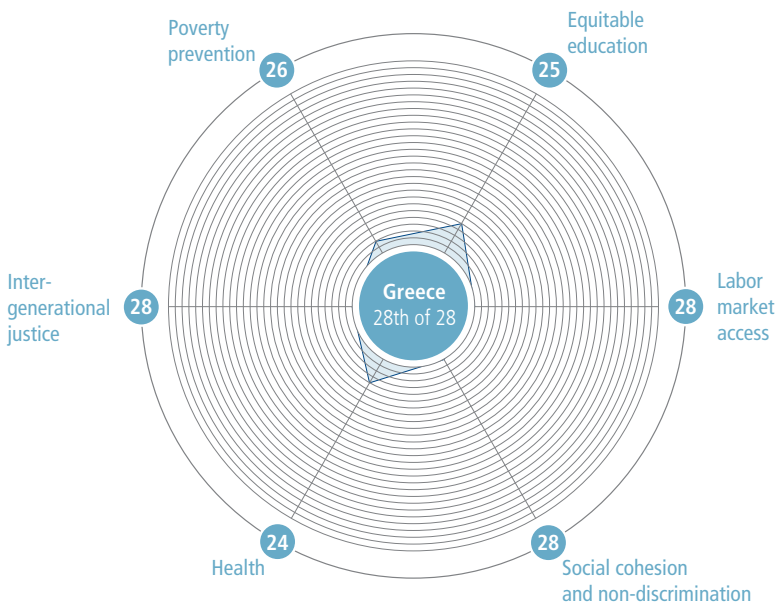
89 Ibid.

90 Ibid.



Greece

EU Social Justice Index 2015



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22	Croatia	4.93
23	Hungary	4.73
	Spain	4.73
25	Italy	4.69
26	Bulgaria	3.78
27	Romania	3.74
28	Greece	3.61

Overall: Greece ranks as the worst performing country in terms of social justice. The country finds itself among the bottom five in all six dimension that comprise this index and ranks last in three of these dimensions (labor market access, social cohesion and non-discrimination, and intergenerational justice). Regarding this edition's special sub-index on children and youth, the country comes in at place 24th.

Challenge: The crisis has had a devastating effect on poverty and social exclusion. The bailout package measures have aggravated existing social problems. The share of people threatened by poverty or social exclusion has increased once again in comparison to last year's survey: 36 percent of the total population is now at-risk-of poverty or social exclusion. The rate for children is at 36.7 percent, for older people it is at 23 percent. The gap between old and young in terms of poverty have strongly increased over the last years with young people harder hit by poverty and social exclusion. Moreover, the share of children living under conditions of severe material deprivation has more than doubled from 9.7 percent in 2007 to today's 23.8 percent. Cuts have also impaired health care services and quality, with mismanagement exacerbating problems.

Challenge: A thriving and socially just economy requires high employment rates in good, well-paying jobs. Greece, however, falls dauntingly far off the mark. The country's score of 3.42

in the dimension labor market access places it last among the 28-member EU. In 2014, only 49.4 percent of working-age Greeks were employed, the lowest rate in our sample. While this employment rate shows a moderate improvement over the previous year, it is 12 percentage points lower than the rate seen in 2008. Older Greek workers, those 55 to 64, have the lowest rate of employment in the EU, just 34 percent were employed in 2014. A worryingly steady decline in the number of these workers can be seen since the first SJI in 2008. The ratio of women to men active in the labor force is likewise low (0.71 in 2014, rank 27). Looking at the Greek labor market from the perspective of the unemployed, it becomes clear how much must still be done. The country's overall unemployment rate, 26.7 percent in 2014, is the highest in the EU. As with the employment rate, a moderate improvement can be seen over the previous year, but the number of unemployed is still nearly 19 percentage points higher than it was in 2008 and far higher than the EU average of 17.8 percent. The share of the long-term unemployed, those out of work for a year or more, has drastically climbed in recent years: from 3.7 percent in 2008 to 19.5 percent in 2014, which is the highest rate in our sample. These long-term unemployed are at greater risk of poverty and social exclusion. Young Greek workers face an uncertain future. The unemployment rate of these 15-to-24 year olds has more than doubled since 2008 to 52.4 percent (again, by far one of the highest rates in the EU). In addition, many of those who are employed find themselves in temporary employment. Indeed, 86.3 percent of Greeks in temporary work could not find a permanent placement.

Challenge: Greece also ranks last (with a score of 4.20) in the dimension of social cohesion and non-discrimination. In terms of the Gini coefficient, a measure of income inequality, Greece ranks 24th. In addition, Greece has the second highest NEET rate in the EU. In 2014, 28.4 percent of 20-to-24 year old Greeks were neither employed nor participating in education or training. This rate is modestly better than the 31.3 percent seen in 2013, but remains distressingly far from the 15.8 percent seen in 2008. If unresolved, this high rate of inactive young adults threatens to seriously destabilize the country over the long term. Given these already poor indications, it may come as little surprise that the country's social inclusion policies were assessed by the SGI researchers to be the worst performing in the EU (receiving a score of 3 out of 10). The experts determine that "past governments' negligence in anti-poverty measures and social exclusion policymaking have left those most vulnerable in Greek society unprepared to sustain the effects of the economic crisis."⁹¹ Social assistance NGOs and the Orthodox Church have intensified their charity work and "the traditional extended Greek family, often including family members over three generations who pool resources, has served as a solution of last resort for the poor and the socially excluded."⁹² Greece's non-discrimination policies fared little better, ranking 23rd with a score of 5. The experts point out that, though protections have been enacted both domestically and at the EU level, "legislation against discrimination has rarely been implemented. In the period under review the Greek state was unable to contain, let alone roll back, the outbursts of racial violence which

91 Sotiropoulos/Featherstone/Karadag (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.

92 Ibid.



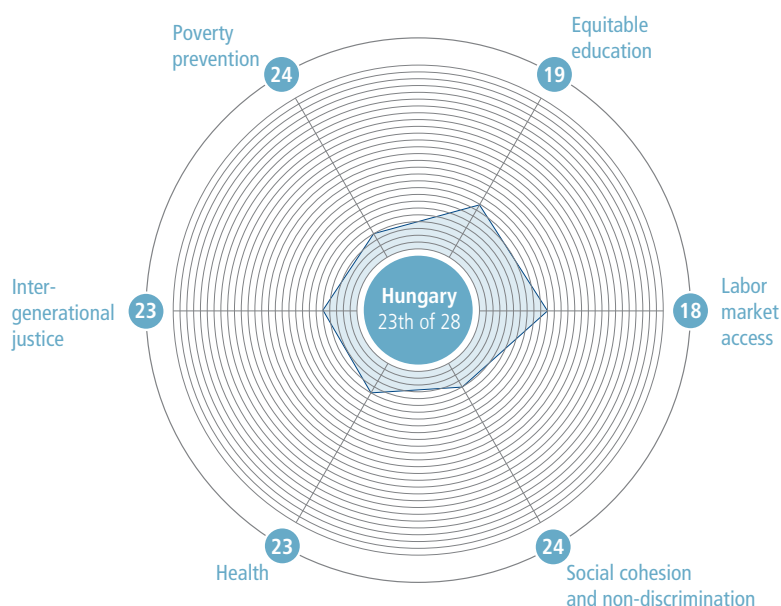
periodically spread through neighborhoods of Athens with a high concentration of migrants from South Asia and sub-Saharan Africa.”⁹³

Challenge: Greece also ranks at the bottom in terms of intergenerational justice. The country is one of the demographically “oldest” countries in the EU and carries also the highest public debt (177% of GDP). Although budget deficits have been scaled back through the implementation of harsh austerity policies, the debt level has risen again. The fiscal burdens for today’s young people as well as future generations are thus immense. At the same time, investment in research and development is very low (0.8% of GDP).

93 Ibid.

Hungary

EU Social Justice Index 2015



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Overall: Hungary's overall performance on the SJI has fluctuated somewhat since the first edition in 2008, but in terms of social justice specifically, the country has remained among the worst performers. The country's score of 4.73 ranks it 23rd in the EU. Hungary finds itself among the bottom half of countries in all six of the index's dimensions, and in two (poverty prevention and social cohesion and non-discrimination), the country numbers among the bottom five. With regard to this edition's focus on children and youth, Hungary ranks 26th with a score of 3.67 on this sub-index.

Challenge: Preventing poverty is a key priority of every modern state's social policy. Hungary still struggles to meet this fundamental policy goal: 31.1 percent of the total population are at-risk-of poverty or social exclusion (a rate that has shifted little since 2007). This ranks the country 24th among the 28 countries in the EU. Hardest hit are those under 18 years of age, with 41.4 percent at risk. Even more troubling, since 2007 (when 34.1 percent were at risk), the plight of Hungarian children and youth has clearly worsened. The share of Hungarians suffering with severe material deprivation, 23.9 percent of the total population, has moderately improved since 2013 (when it was 26.8 percent), but is still 4 percentage points higher than in 2007 and far above the EU average. As observed in other countries in our sample, a much larger share of children and youth suffer from this deprivation whereas seniors suffer the least: the share among those under 18 is



32.4 percent (an increase of 8 percentage points over 2007) and 15.8 percent for those 65 and older. The growing gap between generations is thus also evident in Hungary.

Challenge: Another major policy challenge confronting Hungary is strengthening social cohesion and combating discrimination. The country ranks 24th in this dimension, with a score of 4.61. The Hungarian National Assembly has the lowest proportion of seats held by women in the EU (just 9.3%). The country's NEET rate of 19.3 percent in 2014 (rank 20), exceeds the 17.8 percent EU average. The percentage of 20-to-24 year olds who are neither in employment nor participating in education or training has, however, decreased somewhat since 2013, but still exceeds the 17.1 percent seen in 2008. The SGI country experts awarded the government a score of 4 out of 10 for its social inclusion policy and scores of 5 for both its non-discrimination and integration policies. They note that "current household-consumption levels are still 10 percent below their 2008 level" and that the 2015 draft budget actually cuts social spending by 5 percent.⁹⁴ With regard to non-discrimination, the experts observe that "anti-discrimination efforts have shown only limited success," with "discrimination against women in the areas of employment, career and pay...exemplified by the small number of women in Hungarian politics."⁹⁵ In addition, anti-Semitism has been increasing and "homophobia remains a visible issue."⁹⁶ The greatest policy failure, however, can be seen with regard to the Roma. "About half of all Roma children in Hungary still live in segregated communities and receive substandard education. In many cases, court rulings against segregation are not enforced."⁹⁷

Challenge: Due to legislation that allows dual citizenship for ethnic Hungarians, the integration of ethnic Hungarians from neighboring countries - above all from Romania, Serbia and Ukraine - has been carried out with relatively few problems. By contrast, the integration of other migrants remains a controversial process, as the government does not allocate sufficient resources for their cultural and social integration.⁹⁸ Given the strong negative demographic trend, a more open attitude toward immigration - especially with a view to the EU's current refugee crisis - would clearly be in the country's long-term interest.

94 Ágh/Dieringer/Bönker (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.

95 Ibid.

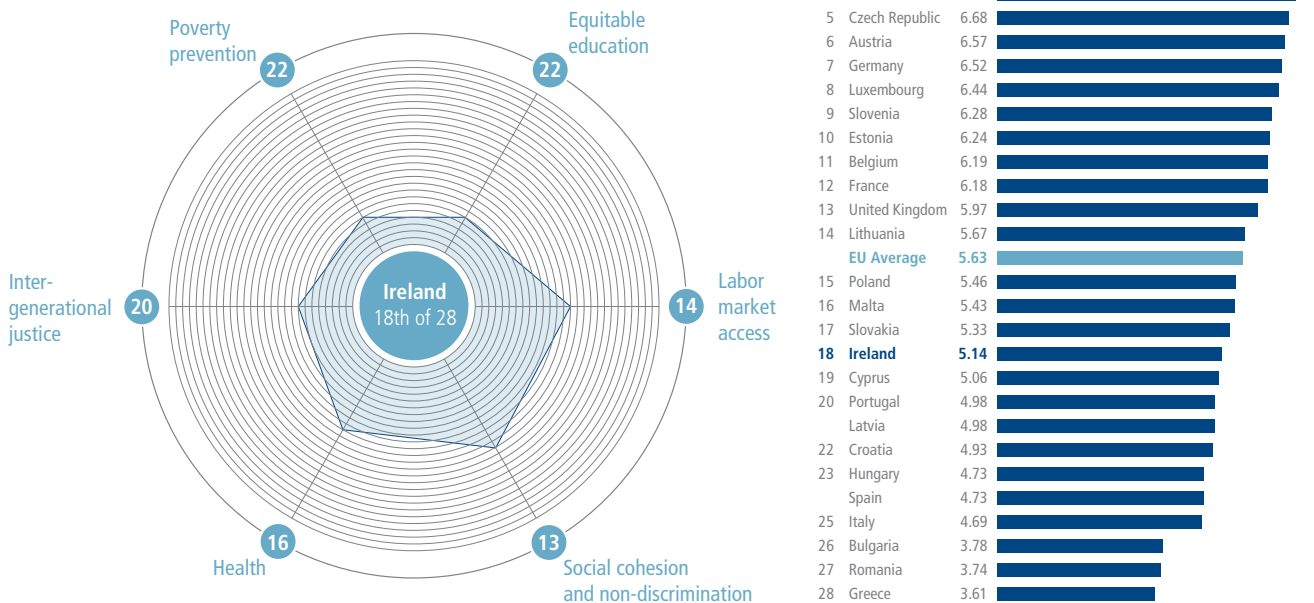
96 Ibid.

97 Ibid.

98 Ibid.

Ireland

EU Social Justice Index 2015



Overall: Ireland's overall score of 5.14 on the current SJI ranks it 18th in the EU. The country's policy performance on social justice tends toward below average. Across the six dimensions, it ranks in the bottom third on three dimensions. While it never rises to the top ten at the dimension level, it also never sinks to the bottom five. In terms of our focus on children and youth, we see below average performance (rank 20 with a score of 4.84 on this sub-index). On three of the four measures, Ireland ranks among the bottom third and on one measure (early school leavers) in the top ten.

Challenge and achievement: With specific regard to children and youth, Ireland largely performs below average. A comparatively high rate of Irish children and youth are at-risk-of poverty or social exclusion, 33.9 percent in 2013 (the most recent reported year). The share at risk has been growing since 2007, when it was 26.2 percent, and now places the country 22nd in our sample. Ireland's NEET rate also remains problematic. The percentage of 20-to-24 year olds who are neither in employment nor participating in education or training decreased to 20.9 percent in 2014 (down from an extreme high of 26.1 % in 2010), but remains above the 18.2 percent seen in 2008. With regard to education, OECD data show that the PISA performance of Irish students unduly depends on their socioeconomic background. The Irish education system ranks 19th among all 28 EU countries on this measure. Even with these challenges, Irish youth have largely remained in



education or training. The rate of 18-to-24 year olds who dropped out of education or training has fallen since 2008, reaching 6.9 percent in 2014.

Achievement and challenge: Although on the decline, the still-high level of unemployment (especially among young people) remains a major challenge for policymakers. Chronic long-term unemployment and the associated social deprivation call for innovative policy initiatives that have thus far been lacking. Economic recovery has manifest itself unequally across regions in Ireland, and the disparities in living standards between the greater Dublin area and the poorer regions of the north and west appear to be widening.⁹⁹

Achievement: The SGI experts awarded the Irish government a score of 9 (the highest score achieved in the EU) out of 10 for successfully fighting discrimination. They determine that Ireland's Equality Authority, an independent body set up to monitor discrimination, as well as its independent equality tribunal have offered "an accessible and impartial forum to remedy unlawful discrimination."¹⁰⁰ In May 2015, Irish voters approved a constitutional amendment by referendum to extend the right to marriage to same-sex couples. In addition, the employment of foreign-born workers has been on par with native workers for years (occasionally actually exceeding native employment, as in 2008), placing the country 1st among the 28 EU countries in this regard. However, the full state of integration in Ireland is more complex. The experts gave the government's integration policy a score of 7. They highlight that while "more than 70 percent of immigrants to Ireland have the right to reside, work and own property in the country by virtue of their EU citizenship," many are not employed "in occupations commensurate with their skills and education."¹⁰¹

Achievement and challenge: Some successes and challenges relating to health policy also deserve mention. Ireland has the second highest healthy life expectancy in the EU, trailing only Malta. The average Irish can expect 66.9 healthy life years, 5.5 years more than the EU average. This atypically good health could be attributed in part to the high quality of the country's health service provision. According to the Euro Health Consumer Index (EHCI), health system outcomes rank 9th among all EU countries. However, access remains a problem. The EHCI points to longer wait times and a smaller range and reach of health services than in some EU countries (rank 11).

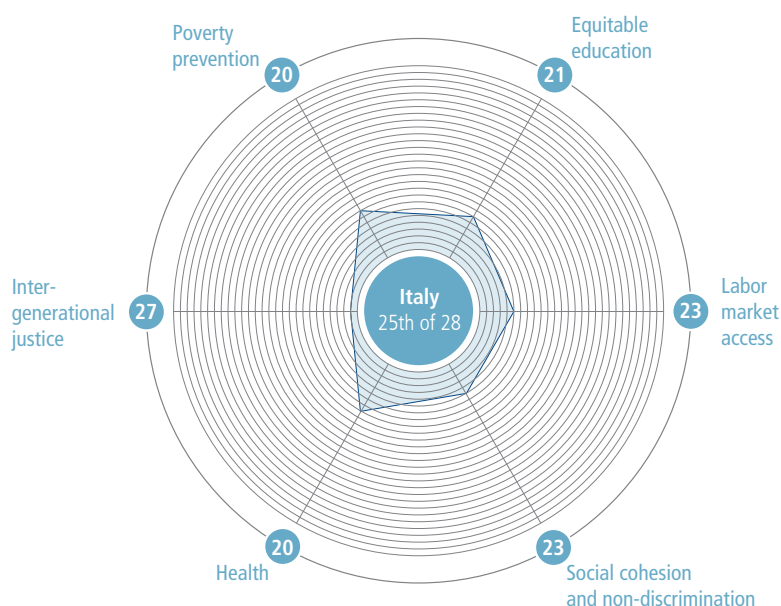
99 Walsh/Mitchell/Bandelow (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.

100 Ibid.

101 Ibid.

Italy

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Overall: Overall, Italy's position on the latest SJI at rank 25 places it among the worst-performing EU countries with a score of 4.69. Italy's performance in terms of social justice has fluctuated somewhat since 2008, and shows only a minimal improvement over its 2014 score of 4.60. How Italy measures up against the other EU-member countries varies somewhat across the six dimensions, though it consistently ranks among the bottom third in all six dimensions. It performs worst in terms of intergenerational justice, where it ranks second to last, and ranks 23rd in both labor market access as well as social cohesion and non-discrimination. With regard to our sub-index on children and youth, the country comes in on rank 23rd with a score of 4.44.

Challenge: With the highest old age dependency ratio in the EU, Italy is most in need of a well-functioning labor market with high employment. Yet the country's score of 4.63 on labor market access is emblematic of the poor performance seen on most of the indicators that comprise this dimension. In 2014, only 55.7 percent of the working age population was employed, which is one of the lowest employment rates in the EU (only Greece and Croatia had a lower rate). More troubling is that Italian employment levels have been anemic going back at least to 2008. The employment situation for women has somewhat improved since 2008, but still remains far below parity or the EU average. Full-time employment has not protected all workers from poverty. A grudgingly high 9.6 percent of Italians working full-time were at-risk-of poverty in 2014. Looking



at the Italian labor market from the perspective of the unemployed, it becomes clear how much must still be done. The overall unemployment rate has gone from 6.8 percent in 2008 to 12.9 percent in 2014. Since the crisis began, the long-term unemployed have seen their numbers more than double (from 3.1% in 2008 to 7.8% in 2014). Among youth, the unemployment rate has more than doubled since 2008. With 42.7 percent of 15-to-24 year olds unemployed (rank 25), the Italian administration faces a truly urgent policy challenge. Without rapid labor market activation, many of these youth are risk of being permanently shutout of stable employment and Italy will have to bear the long-term societal consequences. However, recent reforms point in the right direction. The country experts note that “the scheduled labor market reforms, which will also introduce a general unemployment insurance, are ambitious and could lift Italy’s labor-market policy to meet average EU levels.”¹⁰²

Challenge: Structural weaknesses also threaten social cohesion. Italy has a high level of income inequality, with a Gini coefficient that has remained high for years. The percentage of children and youth who are threatened by poverty or social exclusion (32%) clearly exceeds the share of older people (65 or older) at-risk-of poverty or social exclusion (20.8%). In addition, the country’s NEET rate is the highest in our survey. In 2014, 32 percent of Italians 20-to-24 years old were neither in education nor training (a 10.4 percentage point increase over 2008). As mentioned earlier, these young adults are at-risk-of permanent exclusion from the labor market. In addition, the SGI country experts scored Italian social inclusion policy 4 out of 10 points. They find that the tax system’s redistributive functions “have largely ceased to work,” having “been curtailed by the rise in tax rates and the erosion of benefits and deductions due to inflation.”¹⁰³

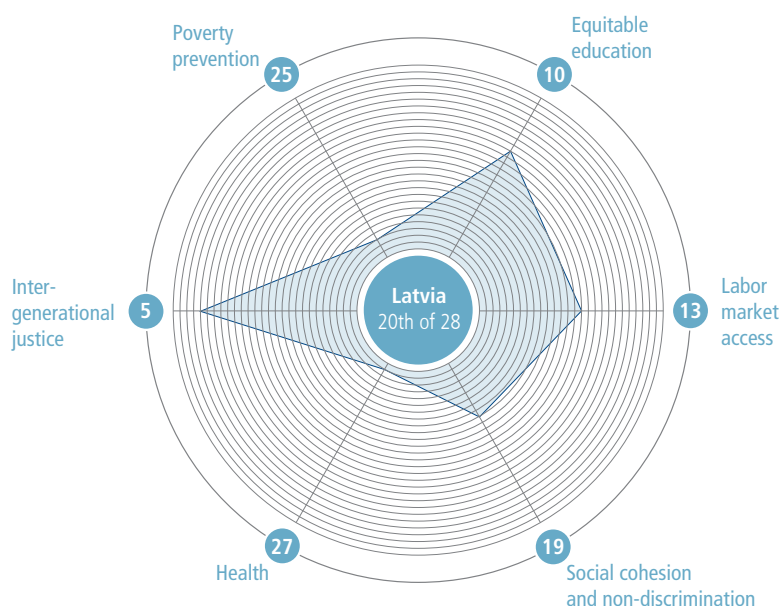
Challenge: Italy ranks second to last in terms of intergenerational justice. Aside from the poor prospects for young people on the labor market, the country is one of the demographically “oldest” countries in the EU and carries also one of the highest public debts (132% of GDP). The fiscal burdens for today’s young people as well as future generations are thus immense. At the same time, investment in research and development has remained low with only 1.3 percent of GDP.

¹⁰² Cotta/Maruhn/Colino (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.

¹⁰³ Ibid.

Latvia

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Overall: Latvia's SJI score of 4.98 places it 20th among the 28-member countries of the EU. For two of the six dimensions in our study (health and poverty prevention), Latvia ranks among the bottom five. It does, however, excel in terms of intergenerational justice, placing 5th. The country's performance in terms of children and youth is similarly mixed, though it tends toward the middle range (ranking 19th with a score of 4.85 of this sub-index).

Challenge: In targeting broad-based social justice, Latvia faces many challenges, particularly in the area of health policy. The country ranks second to last in the dimension of health, with a score of 3.32, and has the lowest healthy life expectancy in the EU. The average Latvian can expect just 53.1 healthy life years, which is 8 years less than the EU average and 19 years less than the average Maltese. Insufficient access to health services may well be the root cause of this figure, as Latvia also has the highest percentage of respondents self-reporting unmet medical needs. In 2013, 13.8 percent reported not getting medical attention because of cost, distance or long waiting lists. The Euro Health Consumer Index confirms this, reporting that Latvian health policy performs below average, with comparatively long wait times as well as a low range and reach of health services. In terms of health system outcomes (a measure for this index), the country ranks 25th. The country's government received only 4 out of 10 points from the SGI experts for its health policies. In so doing, they point to an evaluation by the European Observatory on Health Systems



and Policies regarding the allocative efficiency of Latvia's health sector which concluded that "the share of resources allocated to health care is inadequate" and that "the share of resources allocated to different types of services is not efficient, as evidenced by long waiting lists, a lack of attention to chronic conditions and a lack of focus on preventable lifestyle diseases."¹⁰⁴

Challenge: Poverty prevention continues to pose another major policy challenge. In 2014, 32.7 percent of the total Latvian population were at-risk-of poverty or social exclusion. In comparison, the average across the EU was 24.6 percent. The situation is particularly acute for seniors. Whereas senior citizens fare better than the overall population in many EU countries, in Latvia, they are worse off. In 2014, 39.3 percent of those 65 and older were at risk, placing 27th (ahead of only Bulgaria). In 2014, the number of seniors who received 60 percent or less of the median income (after social transfers) was 27.6 percent, the second highest rate in our sample. In addition, the percentage of seniors suffering from severe material deprivation, while much lower today than in 2007, remains high by EU standards: 22 percent of Latvian seniors today suffer from severe material deprivation. With a rate of 35.3 percent, the share of Latvian children at-risk-of poverty or social exclusion is also much too high.

Achievement: Ensuring that policies are intergenerationally just requires, in part, that they are environmentally sustainable. Here Latvia performs particularly well. The country has the lowest greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions in the EU. In recent years, net GHG emissions have actually been negative - Latvia is the only EU country that has taken more of these climate warming gases out of the atmosphere than it puts in. In recent years, the country has also steadily increased renewable energy use. The share of energy from renewable sources in gross final energy consumption increased from 29.6 percent in 2007 to a laudable 37.1 percent in 2013, the second highest rate in the EU (behind Sweden). Given these and additional successes in ecological stewardship, the SGI country experts awarded the Latvian government a score of 9 out of 10 on its environmental policy. They determine that the country's "environmental policy effectively ensures the sustainability of natural resources and protects the quality of the environment."¹⁰⁵ In terms of a low carbon footprint, they note that in 2011 "a total of 1,428 projects worth LVL 56.57 million were approved in areas such as energy effectiveness, technology development for reducing greenhouse gas emissions and switching from fossil to renewable energy sources."¹⁰⁶

Also in terms of fiscal sustainability Latvia performs well. The country's public debt level (37.8 percent) is well below the EU average (87.7 percent). However, in terms of spending on research and development, another important indicator in the dimension of intergenerational justice, Latvia still has a lot of catching up to do: total expenditures on research and development only amount to 0.6 percent of the country's GDP, one of the lowest investment rates across the EU.

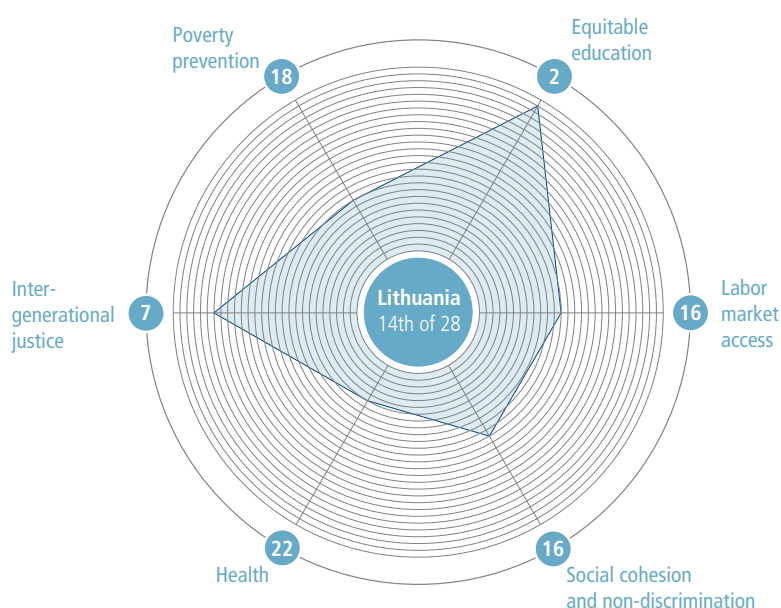
104 As cited in Terauda/Auers/Jahn (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.

105 Terauda/Auers/Jahn (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.

106 Ibid.

Lithuania

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Overall: Lithuania's current overall score of 5.67 places the country 14th in the EU, an improvement over SJI 2014. The country's performance across the six dimensions varies greatly, placing among the top five on one dimension (equitable education) and in the bottom seven on another dimension (health). With regard to this edition's focus on children and youth, Lithuania's performance is mixed but above average: the country ranks 12th with a score of 5.83 on this sub-index.

Achievement and challenge: The Lithuanian education system has seen considerable success at ensuring that educational opportunities are equitably distributed. The country ranks 2nd, after Denmark, in this dimension. Lithuania has one of the lowest dropout rates in the EU, placing it 5th among the 28 member states. In 2014, 5.9 percent of 18-to-24 year olds dropped out of education or training. The education system has also done relatively well to ensure that learning opportunities do not unfairly favor particular socioeconomic backgrounds (rank 6). As a percentage of GDP, public expenditure on pre-primary education in Denmark totaled 0.7 percent in 2011 (the most recent reported year), placing the country 7th within the EU. Much evidence has shown that these early investments in children's education yield significant, lifelong positive effects. Overall, the SGI country experts gave the Lithuanian government a score of 7 out of a possible 10 for its education policy. They note, however, several challenges to equity, including "an urban-rural divide and some disparities in educational achievements between girls and boys" as well as gaps in access to



education for “the Roma population and, to a certain extent, the migrant population.”¹⁰⁷

Challenge: One of the country’s principal social justice challenges is poverty. In 2014, 27.7 percent of the total population were at-risk-of poverty or social exclusion. Although this is a clear improvement compared to 2012 (32.5%), the country’s performance here (rank 18) is still below the EU average. Families with many children, people living in rural areas, youth and disabled people, unemployed people, and elderly people are the demographic groups with the highest poverty risk.¹⁰⁸ The rate of severe material deprivation among the general population was 14.4% in 2014. On this measure, Lithuanians 65 and over fare the worst, with 19.3 percent living in conditions of severe material deprivation.

Challenge: Although Lithuania’s labor market proved to be highly flexible during the financial crisis, unemployment rates remain high, especially among youth, the low-skilled, and the long-term unemployed. Low-skilled unemployment is at 30.7 percent. Only Spain and Slovakia perform worse on this indicator. In its 2014 report, the European Commission found that devising active labor-market measures of sufficient scope and quality continues to be a challenge in Lithuania. The Commission recommended that Lithuania place stronger focus on active labor-market measures and give a higher priority to offering high-quality apprenticeships in order to reduce unemployment within particular target groups. The country ranks 16th in the SJI’s labor market dimension.

Challenge: Lithuania shows major weaknesses in the area of health (rank 22). According to the 2015 SGI report, “the provision of health care services varies to a certain extent among the Lithuanian counties; the inhabitants of a few comparatively poor counties characterized by lower life expectancies (e.g., Tauragė county) on average received fewer health care services. Out-of-pocket payments remain high (in particular for pharmaceuticals), a fact that may reduce health access for vulnerable groups.”¹⁰⁹

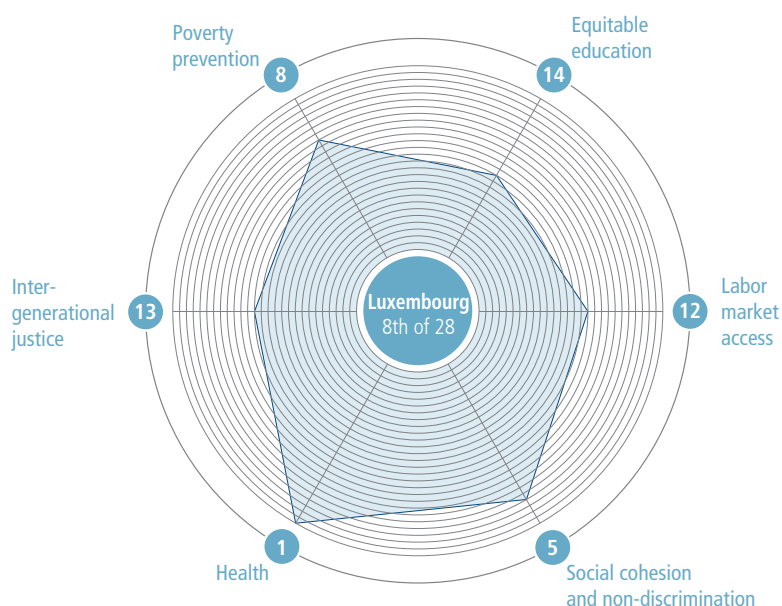
107 Nakrošis/Vilpišauskas/Jahn (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.

108 Ibid.

109 Ibid.

Luxembourg

EU Social Justice Index 2015



1	Sweden	7.23
2	Denmark	7.10
3	Finland	7.02
4	Netherlands	6.84
5	Czech Republic	6.68
6	Austria	6.57
7	Germany	6.52
8	Luxembourg	6.44
9	Slovenia	6.28
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19	Cyprus	5.06
20	Portugal	4.98
	Latvia	4.98
22	Croatia	4.93
23	Hungary	4.73
	Spain	4.73
25	Italy	4.69
26	Bulgaria	3.78
27	Romania	3.74
28	Greece	3.61

Overall: With an overall score of 6.44 on the SJI, Luxembourg ranks 8th in the EU. The country ranks among the top ten in three of the six dimensions. It is the top performer in the health dimension and ranks 5th in social cohesion and non-discrimination. With a respect to this edition's focus on children and youth, we see mixed performance: on two of the four measures (the NEET and dropout rates) Luxembourg ranks 6th. On this sub-index, the country's score of 6.13 ranks it 10th.

Achievement: With a score of 7.27 in terms of social cohesion and efforts to combat discrimination, Luxembourg ranks among the top five for its policies in this dimension. The country has one of the lower NEET rates, ranking 6th in the EU. In 2014, one in ten 20-to-24 year olds were neither employed nor participating in education or training. While low when compared to most of its European counterparts, this rate has actually increased by three percentage points since 2010. The SGI country experts awarded the government a laudable score of 9 out of 10 for its social inclusion policy and a score of 8 for both its non-discrimination and integration policies. These experts report that "Luxembourg's welfare system is possibly one of the most substantial and comprehensive in Europe."¹¹⁰ "Since 1986, Luxembourg has offered a guaranteed minimum

¹¹⁰ Schneider/Lorig/Bandelow (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.



income (revenu minimum garanti, RMG).¹¹¹ With respect to integration, they commend the 2010 introduction of “a national action plan to better integrate the immigrant populations as well as combat discrimination (Plan d’action national d’intégration et de lutte contre les discriminations)” and “improved consultation mechanisms with migrants.”¹¹² These include a recent policy requiring each municipality “to establish an integration commission (Commissions consultatives communales d’intégration, CCI) that accurately represents the region’s migrant mix.”¹¹³ Looking at discrimination, they note that since 92 percent of migrants are European and most of a Christian faith, “migration issues have caused fewer conflicts on ethnic concerns than in neighboring countries.”¹¹⁴

Achievement: Because illness undermines an individual’s capacity to fully achieve their potential, access to quality health services is considered a precondition for social inclusion. Luxembourg can be praised for leading the 28 EU-member countries in the health dimension with a score of 7.88. In 2013, a comparatively low 0.9 percent of Luxembourgers reported not getting medical attention because of cost, distance or long waiting lists. According to the Euro Health Consumer Index, Luxembourg’s health system is among the best performing (ranking 3rd in our sample), with comparatively few wait lists as well as a high range and reach of health services. On the same index, the country ranks 6th in terms of health system outcomes, behind the Netherlands and Germany. The government received a score of 8 out of 10 from the SGI experts for its health policy. Though it has many strengths, they point out that the country’s health care system is one of the most expensive in the OECD and that “the new government is expected to swiftly implement a comprehensive reform of the health-insurance system (for example, introducing digital patient files, a primary-doctor principle and state grants for sickness benefits) with the aim of improving the long-term budgetary sustainability of the health care and statutory nursing care systems.”¹¹⁵

Challenge: Despite its relatively overall strong performance in social justice, Luxembourg does face certain challenges across the various dimensions examined. The most significant challenge is found in the dimension of intergenerational justice. As of 2012 (the latest year for which data are available), Luxembourg has the highest rate of greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions and lowest share of renewable energy use in the EU. The country emits an alarming 21.7 tons of GHGs per capita (reported in CO₂ equivalents). In comparison, the top five countries on this measure each release less than 5 tons per capita. Luxembourg’s share of energy from renewable sources in gross final energy consumption has increased only marginally from 2.7 percent in 2007 to the current 3.6 percent. Climate change may well be the most significant challenge ever faced by humanity and, as such, aggressive interventions must come from countries large and small. Wealthy Luxembourg can and should take more policy action to combat this global threat.

111 Ibid.

112 Ibid.

113 Ibid.

114 Ibid.

115 Ibid.

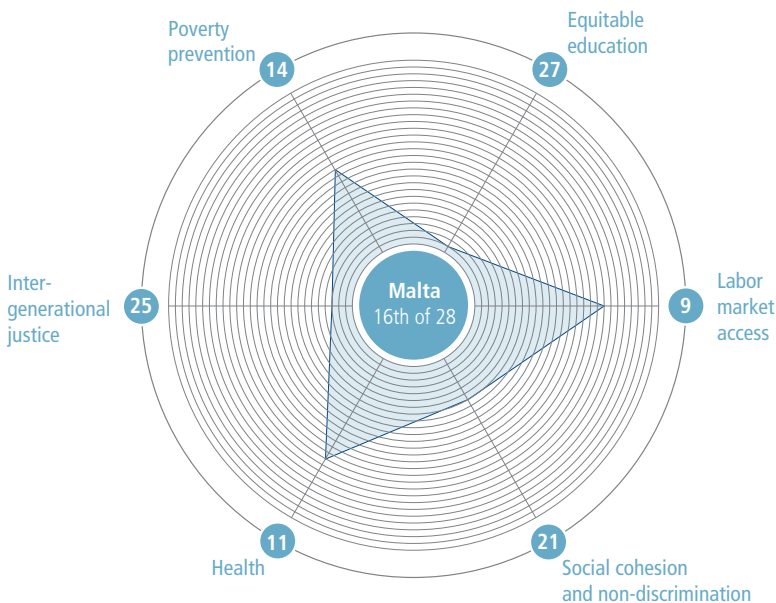
In the context of intergenerational justice, another problematic aspect deserves attention: The share of children and youth threatened by poverty or social exclusion has risen significantly since 2007 (from 21.2% to 26%) and is also much higher than the respective rate among elderly persons (7%). In addition, the most recent SGI report notes that “the poverty risk for single-parent families in Luxembourg has risen dramatically from 25.2% in 2003 to 46.9% in 2012.”¹¹⁶

¹¹⁶ Ibid.



Malta

EU Social Justice Index 2015



1	Sweden	7.23
2	Denmark	7.10
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	Latvia	4.98
22	Croatia	4.93
23	Hungary	4.73
	Spain	4.73
25	Italy	4.69
26	Bulgaria	3.78
27	Romania	3.74
28	Greece	3.61

Overall: Malta's overall performance on the SJI has remained stable and within the midrange since the 2014 edition of the SJI. In the current index, the country ranks 16th in the EU with a score of 5.43. Across the six dimensions of our index, Malta ranks among the top ten on one dimension (labor market access) and in the bottom five in two dimensions (equitable education and intergenerational justice). With regard to our focus on children and youth, Malta's score of 4.81 on this sub-index ranks it 21st.

Achievement and challenge: Malta ranks 9th in the labor market access dimension, with a score of 6.31. In 2014, 5.9 percent of working-age Maltese were unemployed, placing the country 3rd (on par with Luxembourg and only slightly behind Germany and Austria). The rate of long-term unemployment has fallen as well since peaking in 2010. In 2014, 2.7 percent of 15-to-64 year olds had been unemployed for a year or more. As in many other countries, unemployment affects the population aged 15-to-24 years by far the most. At its peak in 2010, 13.2 percent of Maltese youth were unemployed. Since then, this rate has steadily decreased to 11.8 percent (2014). Those with less than upper secondary education have fared comparatively well in Malta. With regard to the equitable distribution of employment opportunities, Malta shows strengths and weaknesses. In recent years, the employment of foreign-born workers has been relatively on par with that of native workers (in 2014, the ratio was 1.04). The employment opportunities of some other groups,

however, have been far less equitable. Women face the most exclusionary labor market in the EU. The ratio of women to men active in the labor force was 0.66 in 2014. This employment gap between men and women has slightly narrowed throughout the crisis, giving rise to cautious optimism. According to the SGI experts, “the recent introduction of free child care centers is expected to improve labor-force participation rates for women.”¹¹⁷ The country experts also note that the Maltese “labor market in general is not inclusive enough to offer sufficient opportunity for lower-skilled individuals who struggle to find employment.”¹¹⁸ In addition, older workers, those 55 to 64, fare poorly. In 2014, just 37.7 percent of this demographic were employed. Only Greece, Slovenia and Croatia perform worse on this measure. Here again, though we see a positive trend, the rate of older employment has steadily increased since the first SJI in 2008, when the rate was 30.1 percent.

Challenge: Malta also faces serious challenges within its education system. The country has the second highest rate of youth dropping out of education and training. While this rate has improved since 2008 (27.2%), 20.4 percent of 18-to-24 year olds dropped out in 2014. According to the SGI country experts, this “high rate of early school leaving contributes to youth unemployment and a weak domestic skills base. (...) Given these two factors, one can note a correlation between youth unemployment and a lack of basic skills. Economic restructuring has underscored this problem, creating a situation in which local youths fail to compete for jobs with other EU citizens.”¹¹⁹ Keeping young adults in education or training and improving targeted qualification measures as well as vocational training is thus of vital importance for the long-term viability of the Maltese labor market.

Challenge: Elements of intergenerational justice related to environmental sustainability are also posing a challenge for the Maltese government. The country has the second lowest rate of renewable energy use in our sample, ahead of only Luxembourg. Only 3.8 percent of gross final energy consumption came from renewable sources in 2013. While this is an improvement over the 0.2 percent seen in 2007, it remains alarmingly far below the 17.9 percent EU average. The SGI researchers awarded the government a score of 4 out of 10 for its largely insufficient environmental policy. They note that though “Malta is bound to fulfill key climate targets within the context of the Europe 2020 Strategy,” most of its energy is derived from foreign oil.¹²⁰ They also detail many new policies to protect biodiversity and the freshwater supply, but it will take some years before the results of these new efforts are realized.

117 Pirotta/Calleja/Colino (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.

118 Ibid.

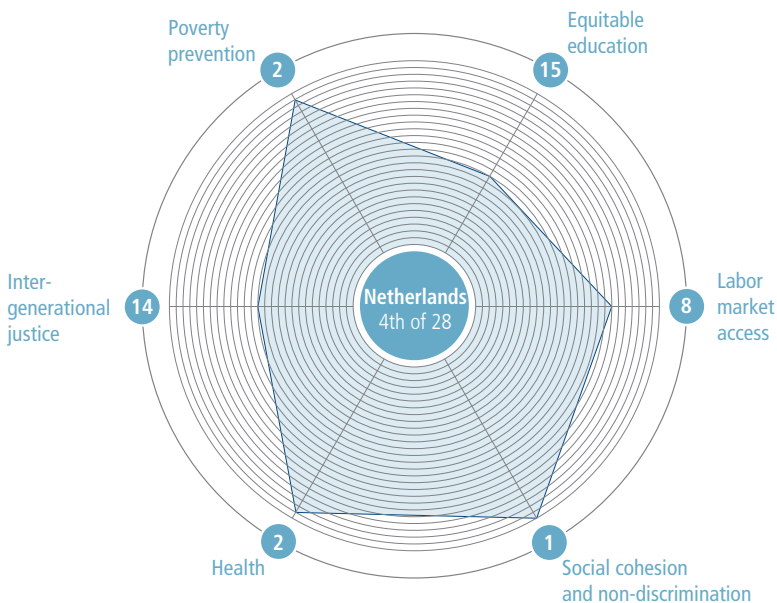
119 Ibid.

120 Ibid.



Netherlands

EU Social Justice Index 2015



1	Sweden	7.23
2	Denmark	7.10
3	Finland	7.02
4	Netherlands	6.84
5	Czech Republic	6.68
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19	Cyprus	5.06
20	Portugal	4.98
	Latvia	4.98
22	Croatia	4.93
23	Hungary	4.73
	Spain	4.73
25	Italy	4.69
26	Bulgaria	3.78
27	Romania	3.74
28	Greece	3.61

Overall: The Netherlands is one of the most socially just countries in the EU. The country ranks a laudable 4th, behind Sweden, Denmark and Finland with an overall score of 6.84. This score, however, has been in decline since our first social justice assessment in 2008. Most of this can be attributed to negative developments in the Dutch labor market during the crisis. The overall success, however, is broad-based, with the country ranking among the top five in three of the six dimensions. Most commendable, the Netherlands is number one within the EU in terms of social cohesion and non-discrimination. With regard to this edition's focus on children and youth, the Netherlands also excel with a score of 7.17, coming in second only to Sweden.

Achievement: With regard to poverty prevention, the Netherlands has the second lowest population share at-risk of poverty or social exclusion, 15.9 percent (2013). Possibly most impressive, the percentage at risk has remained relatively stable throughout the crisis. The rate among Dutch under 18 years of age, though higher (17%), has likewise remained relatively stable. Among seniors (65 and older) the percentage at-risk of poverty has actually decreased from 9.8 percent in 2007 to 6.1 percent in 2013. A growing gap between young and old in terms of poverty is thus also evident in the Netherlands. The rate of severe material deprivation, both for the total population and each of the aforementioned subgroups, shows a slight negative trend. The share of the total population suffering from deprivation increased from 1.7 percent in 2007 to 2.5 percent 2013.

The rate among children and youth as well as seniors rose in 2013, to 2.3 percent and 0.8 percent respectively.

Achievement: The Netherlands is successful in creating an inclusive society. The country achieves the highest score awarded – 7.97 – in the dimension of social cohesion and non-discrimination. Most laudable, the Netherlands has the lowest NEET rate in the EU. In 2014, only 7.8 percent of 20-to-24 year olds were neither in employment nor participating in education or training. While this rate is higher than the country’s 2008 and 2010 rates, it remains considerably below the 17.8 percent EU average. In addition, the country has the fourth lowest Gini coefficient in the EU. The SGI country experts awarded the Netherlands the highest score (8 out of 10) for its social inclusion and integration policies. Though the Netherlands appears to be doing several things right, the experts nonetheless identify several areas warranting further policy intervention. They note, for example, that wealth inequality “has plummeted since 2008, largely because of a decrease in the value of housing stock.”¹²¹ “Of 4.3 million home-owning households, 1.4 million had fiscal mortgage debts higher than the market value of their house.”¹²² They also fault the country for its continued high gender pay gap (men make 40% more than do women). The country experts note that integration policy was a “political bone of contention until 2008,” but that it has since been a relatively uncontroversial policy area.¹²³ In addition, these experts scored the country’s non-discrimination policy a 9 out of 10 (the highest score awarded to an EU country).

Challenge: One policy area where the Netherlands continues to lag behind is in the struggle against climate change. The country ranks 24th on greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions, one of our indicators in the area of intergenerational justice. In 2012 (the most recent reported year), the Dutch emitted 11.7 tons per capita of climate warming gases (in CO₂ equivalents). This is in large part a result of the country’s dismally low use of renewable energy. Whereas EU-wide, 17.9 percent of gross final energy consumption comes from renewable sources, renewables make up only 4.5 percent in the Netherlands. This ranks the country 26th, ahead of only Luxembourg and Malta. Vastly increasing the use of renewable energy would help the Netherlands significantly cut its GHG emissions and demonstrate far greater solidarity with the global community on climate change.

Challenge: The country experts also identify several weak spots on the Dutch labor market: “relatively low labor market participation of migrants; little transition from unemployment to new jobs; relatively few actual working hours; a growing dual labor market between insiders (with high job security) and outsiders (independent workers without employees and low to no job security); relatively high levels of discrimination on-the-job; and high work pressure.” In cross-national comparison, the Netherlands dropped from rank 2 to rank 8 among all EU countries in terms of labor market access.

¹²¹ Hoppe/Woldendorp/Bandelow (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.

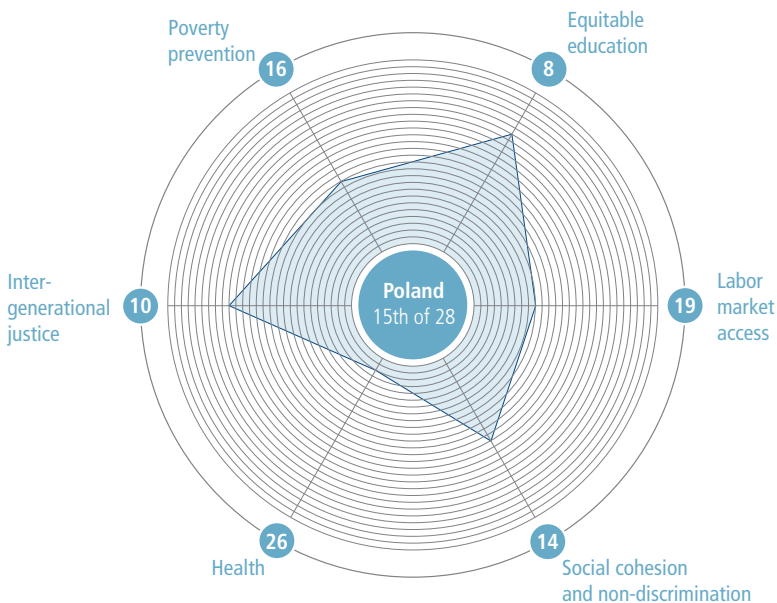
¹²² Ibid.

¹²³ Ibid.



Poland

EU Social Justice Index 2015



1	Sweden	7.23
2	Denmark	7.10
3	Finland	7.02
4	Netherlands	6.84
5	Czech Republic	6.68
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18	Ireland	5.14
19	Cyprus	5.06
20	Portugal	4.98
	Latvia	4.98
22	Croatia	4.93
23	Hungary	4.73
	Spain	4.73
25	Italy	4.69
26	Bulgaria	3.78
27	Romania	3.74
28	Greece	3.61

Overall: Poland's overall performance on the SJI has steadily improved since the first assessment in 2008. In the current index, the country ranks 15th in the EU with a score of 5.46. Across the six dimensions, Poland ranks in the top ten on two dimensions (equitable education and intergenerational justice) and among the bottom five in the health dimension. With regard to our focus on children and youth, Poland's score on this sub-index of 5.53 ranks it at 15th place.

Achievement: Social justice requires that all students be provided with high quality, equitably distributed education. Only then do all young people have an equal opportunity to achieve their potential. Poland has had some commendable policy successes at attaining this goal. The country's score of 6.71 in the dimension of equitable education (rank 8) is by no means perfect, but it does reflect the education system's comparative progress. Poland has consistently featured a low dropout rate. In 2014, 5.4 percent of 18-to-24 year olds had dropped out of education and training, placing the country 3rd (behind Croatia and Slovenia). According to the OECD's standardized student assessment, the Polish education system ranks 3rd in the EU (behind Finland and Estonia). The most recent PISA study in 2012 showed that the average Polish student scores 28.9 points higher than the EU average. In addition, socioeconomic background does have an impact on PISA scores, but to a lesser extent than it does in 16 other EU countries. The SGI country experts awarded the Polish administration a score of 7 out of 10 for its education policy. They report that

education reforms implemented by the first Tusk government “have gradually become effective and have significantly increased the quality of education in the country.”¹²⁴ The main focus of these reforms was to better align the skills of graduates with the needs of the labor market. The results of a new reform package, announced in June 2014, “focusing on improving teaching quality in secondary education,” have yet to be seen.¹²⁵

Challenge: While Poland ranked above average on two of the four measures used for our special sub-index on children and youth, it ranked moderately below average on the other two indicators. In 2013, 29.8 percent of children and youth (under 18) were at-risk-of poverty or social exclusion, placing the country at rank 17. While high, this rate is a substantial improvement over the share who were at risk in 2007 (37.1%). Poland’s NEET rate ranks below average (18th place). Over the past eight years, the number of youth neither in employment nor participating in education nor training has risen from 14.9 percent in 2008 to 18.8 percent in 2014. While Polish children and youth are surely in a better situation than some of their European counterparts, more can be done to ensure that all of them have the resources and support to achieve their potential.

Challenge: The greatest policy challenge affecting the general population is broad access to high-quality health care. Poland ranks 26th in our health dimension, with a score of 4.11. In 2013, 8.8 percent of Poles surveyed reported not getting medical attention because of cost, distance or long waiting lists. In comparison, the average across the EU is nearly half this rate. In addition, according to the Euro Health Consumer Index, the Polish health care system is one of the worst. The range and reach of health services is low and wait times are comparatively long, placing the country at rank 26. On this same index, the country ranks 23rd on health outcomes. The SGI researchers gave the government’s health policy a score of 5 out of 10. In their assessment, they note that while “public health insurance covers some 98 percent of Poland’s citizens and legal residents,” access is highly uneven and out-of-pocket costs are high.¹²⁶ “A 2012 survey found that only 11% of respondents had a positive opinion regarding the work of the country’s National Health Insurance Fund (Narodowy Fundusz Zdrowia, NFZ).”¹²⁷ Reforms announced in October 2012 by Health Minister Bartosz Arlukowicz have not yet materialized.¹²⁸

Challenge: Despite a slightly positive trend compared to last year’s edition, Poland labor-market performance shows some weak spots. The employment rate (61.7%) is among the lowest in the EU (rank 21). At the same time, there are massive regional variations, both between and within regions (voivodships).¹²⁹ Also, youth unemployment is still much higher today (23.9%) than in 2008 (17.3%).

¹²⁴ Matthes/Markowski/Bönker (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.

¹²⁵ Ibid.

¹²⁶ Ibid.

¹²⁷ Ibid.

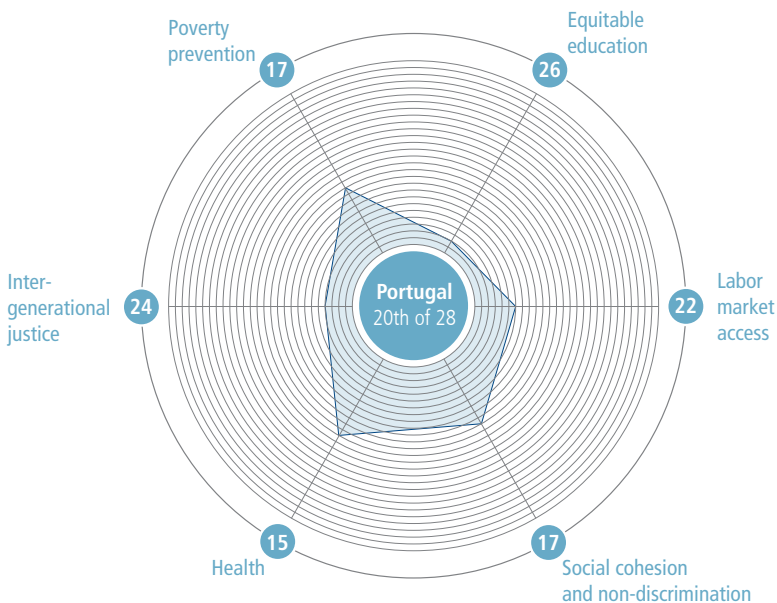
¹²⁸ Ibid.

¹²⁹ Ibid.



Portugal

EU Social Justice Index 2015



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	Spain	4.73
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28	Greece	3.61

Overall: Portugal's SJI score of 4.98 places it 20th among the 28 EU-member countries – a slight decline compared to last year's edition. In two of the six dimensions in our study (equitable education and intergenerational justice), the country ranks among the bottom five. The country's performance in terms of children and youth is similarly mixed, though it remains clearly below average (ranking 22nd with a score of 4.69).

Challenge: Portugal confronts a number of major policy challenges to achieving broad-based social justice. Unemployment rates have diminished slightly, but remain very high, particularly among youth (34.8%). Some of the gains have come from increased emigration. Poverty has increased once again. The share of the total population at-risk-of poverty or social exclusion has risen from 25 percent in 2007 to 27.5 percent, the respective rate for children has increased to 31.7 percent (2007: 26.9 percent). As is the case in other EU countries, the gap in poverty levels between the generations has been growing. Indeed, whereas child poverty has increased, senior citizen poverty has decreased (i.e., in 2007 30% of those 65 and older were at-risk-of poverty or social exclusion whereas only 20.3% of this group are today at risk).

Ensuring that educational opportunities reach all segments of society and are equitably distributed is another challenge. The country's score of 4.85 in the equitable education dimension places

Portugal 26th in our ranking, with only Slovakia and Malta performing worse. And although Portugal's dropout rate has been halved since 2008 – from 34.9 percent to 17.4 percent in 2014 – its rate is nonetheless one of the highest in the EU (rank 25). In order to ensure both social cohesion and long-term labor market success, more of these 18-to-24 year olds must remain in education or training. The SGI country experts give the government's education policy a score of 4 out of 10. These researchers point to a number of worrying trends. The Coelho government's reform efforts focused on strengthening technical and professional education as well as increasing student testing, but “there is little evidence that these measures have generated gains in terms of quality, access or efficiency.”¹³⁰ In addition, spending cuts associated with the austerity measures “have had an adverse impact on the already poor overall quality of education in Portugal.”¹³¹ These cuts in education have continued even with the bailout ended: the 2015 budget cuts resulted in a primary and secondary expenditure cut by 11 percent (compared to 2014).

Challenge: Ensuring that the public policy decisions taken today do not risk the well-being of future generations is another significant challenge facing Portugal. With a score of 4.58, the country ranks 24th in terms of intergenerational justice. Public debt has nearly doubled since 2008 – to 130.2 percent of GDP in 2014. As such, Portuguese gross government debt ranked the third highest in the EU, only Greece and Italy feature greater levels of debt. Add to this heavy burden one of the highest old age dependency ratios in our study (30.3% in 2014) and a wholly unsustainable picture emerges. The population is shrinking “as both birth and immigration rates fall.”¹³² Family policies are comparatively underdeveloped, with women having limited opportunity to combine parenting and work.

Achievement: Portugal is among the better performing countries on several social justice measures. One policy issue worth noting are those policies addressing climate change. The country ranks a respectable 6th both in terms of greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions and renewable energy use. In 2012 (the most recent reported year), the average Portuguese emitted 5.5 tons of climate warming gases (in CO₂ equivalents), nearly 3 tons less than the per capita average across the EU. In addition, the share of energy coming from renewable sources in gross final energy consumption has gradually increased from 21.9 percent in 2007 to 25.7 percent in 2013.

130 Bruneau/Jalali/Colino (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.

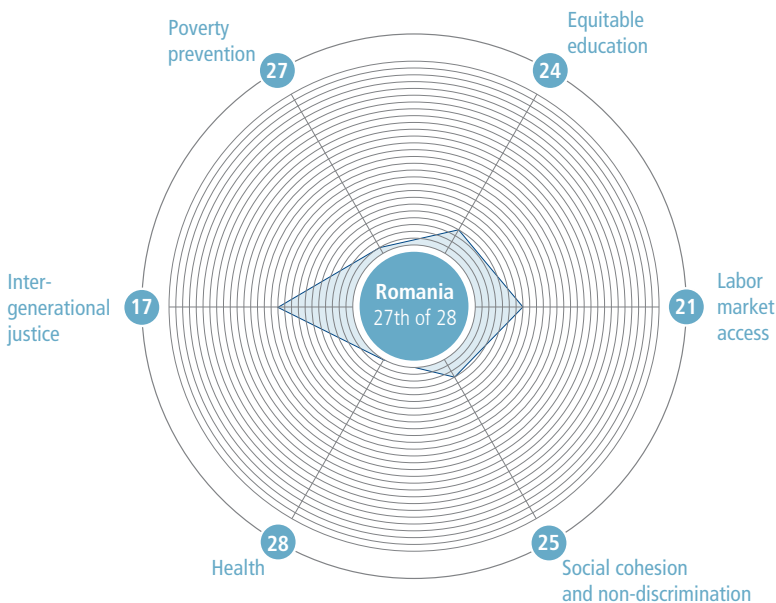
131 Ibid.

132 Ibid.



Romania

EU Social Justice Index 2015



1	Sweden	7.23
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Overall: Romania's overall performance on the SJI places it among the EU countries most urgently in need of policy reforms. With a score of 3.74, the country ranks 27th. Romania ranks among the bottom five performers in four of the six dimensions in our study. Most worrying, the country ranks last in the dimension of health and second to last in poverty prevention. With regard to our focus on children and youth, the country's score on this sub-index of 2.76 ranks it second to last in the EU.

Challenge: Because illness undermines an individual's capacity to fully achieve his or her potential, access to quality health services is considered a precondition for social inclusion. Romania, however, is failing to adequately provide this precondition to its citizens. With a score of 3.09, the country ranks last in the EU in our health dimension. According to Eurostat, in 2013, one in ten Romanians reported not getting medical attention because of cost, distance or long waiting lists (ranking the country 27th, ahead only of Latvia). According to Euro Health Consumer Index data, Romania's health system is the second worst performing, with long waiting times for treatment, a low range and reach of health services, and poor outcomes. Even more worrying, waiting times and the range and reach of services provided have each worsened progressively since 2008. Given these metrics, it should come as no surprise that the SGI country experts flagged Romanian healthy policy as inadequate, scoring it 4 out of 10. They credit inadequate funding with under-

mining the country's health system, which receives "the lowest health-budget allocation of any EU-member state."¹³³ "Due largely to this underfunding, the de facto availability of many medical services is severely limited, thereby leading to widespread bribe-giving by patients even for basic services."¹³⁴ They recommend better monitoring of cost efficiency, investments and a streamlined regulatory framework for the relationship between public and private health sectors.

Challenge and achievement: Another major policy challenge confronting the Romanian government is poverty prevention. In 2013, an alarming 40.4 percent of Romanians were at-risk-of poverty or social exclusion, the second highest rate in the 28-member EU. While this rate has gradually improved since 2007 (when 45.9% were at risk), it remains 15 percentage points higher than the EU average. 28.5 percent of the total population suffer from severe material deprivation (the second highest rate in the EU) and 22.4 percent are income poor (i.e., they receive 60 percent or less of the median income, after social transfers). Among those at risk, children fare the worst. With 48.5 percent of those under 18 at-risk-of poverty or social exclusion, the average Romanian youth faces conditions worse than their counterparts in 26 other EU countries. 34.1 percent of children and youth suffer from severe material deprivation. Seniors (65 and over) find themselves similarly worse off than most of their EU counterparts. Overall, 35 percent are at-risk-of poverty or social exclusion (rank 26). The government has made significant strides at reducing severe material deprivation among seniors – from 48.9 percent in 2007 to 27.5 percent in 2013 – but it remains the second highest rate in the EU (ahead of only Bulgaria). Clearly, across the spectrum of society, far more must be done in order to reduce the incidence of poverty.

Challenge: A major challenge is the situation of the Roma. According to the 2015 SGI country report, this specific minority "is particularly vulnerable to poverty and marginalization, as the community's economic and educational disadvantages are exacerbated by discrimination. The Romanian government still has a long way to go with respect to the establishment of an effective safety net for the poorest, as well as with the formulation and implementation of long-term strategies creating more equal education and employment opportunities for the marginalized. A long-term social-inclusion project, supported by the World Bank, which focused on improving living conditions among the Roma, persons with disabilities, children at risk and victims of domestic violence revealed strong institutional fragmentation and weak institutional capacities at the local level."¹³⁵

133 Wagner/Pop-Eleches/Bönker (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.

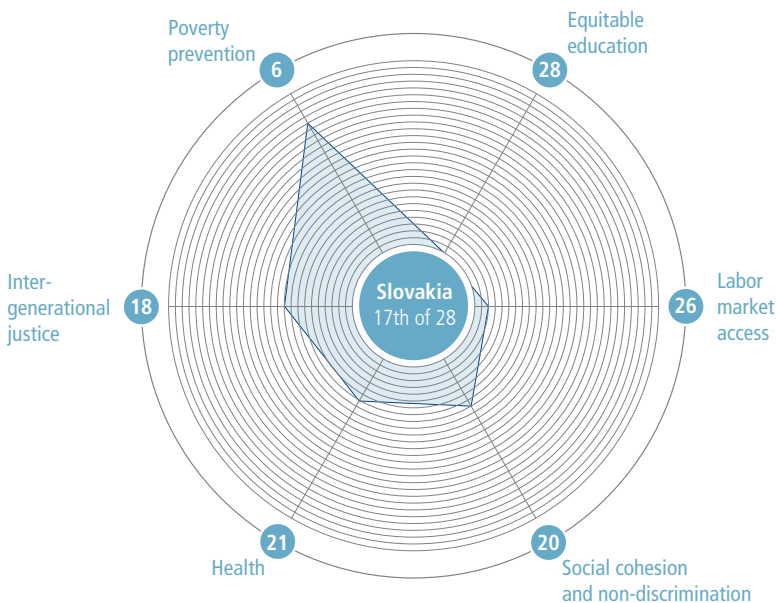
134 Ibid.

135 Ibid.



Slovakia

EU Social Justice Index 2015



1	Sweden	7.23
2	Denmark	7.10
3	Finland	7.02
4	Netherlands	6.84
5	Czech Republic	6.68
6	Austria	6.57
7	Germany	6.52
8	Luxembourg	6.44
9	Slovenia	6.28
10	Estonia	6.24
11	Belgium	6.19
12	France	6.18
13	United Kingdom	5.97
14	Lithuania	5.67
	EU Average	5.63
15	Poland	5.46
16	Malta	5.43
17	Slovakia	5.33
18	Ireland	5.14
19	Cyprus	5.06
20	Portugal	4.98
	Latvia	4.98
22	Croatia	4.93
23	Hungary	4.73
	Spain	4.73
25	Italy	4.69
26	Bulgaria	3.78
27	Romania	3.74
28	Greece	3.61

Overall: Slovakia's current SJI score of 5.33 ranks the country 17th in the EU, somewhat worse than in our inaugural assessment in 2008. The country's performance across the six dimensions varies greatly, placing it among the top ten in one dimension (poverty prevention) and in the bottom five in two dimensions (equitable education and labor market access). With regard to our focus on children and youth, the country's score of 5.26 on this sub-index ranks it 17th. Most worrying, Slovakia ranks at the very bottom in terms of the extent to which socioeconomic factors influence individual PISA results.

Achievement: Poverty prevention features as the first dimension in our index because it is such an essential factor in achieving broad-based social justice. Slovakia, in 6th place in this dimension, ranks relatively well mainly because of the country's comparatively even income distribution patterns. In 2014, 18.4 percent of the population were at-risk-of poverty or social exclusion. By comparison, the EU average was 6 percentage points higher for the same year. Particularly noteworthy, the poverty prevention has improved measurably for the country's seniors since 2007. Indeed, the share of seniors (65 and older) at-risk-of poverty or social exclusion has fallen from 22 percent in 2007 to 13.4 percent in 2014. By contrast, the respective rate among children and youth is much higher at 23.6 percent. Moreover, in terms of severe material deprivation, the country's performance is only mediocre. Some 9.9 percent of the total population is affected by severe

material deprivation, which means that these people do not have the financial means to afford fundamental necessities of daily life (e.g., an appropriately heated apartment or a telephone).

Challenge: The Slovak government faces possibly its most serious challenges within its education system. The country received the lowest score awarded in our equitable education dimension. According to the OECD's standardized student assessment, the Slovak education system ranks 24th in the EU. The most recent PISA study in 2012 showed that the average Slovak student scores 20 points below the EU average and more than 40 points below the average student in the top five countries (Finland, Estonia, Poland, the Netherlands and Italy). The OECD data also show that the PISA performance of Slovak students depends on their socioeconomic background more so than in any other EU country. As such, educational opportunities in the country are miserably far from being socially just. In assessing the administration's education policy, the SGI country experts awarded a score of 4 out of 10. They determine that "the quality of education and training in Slovakia has suffered both from low levels of spending and a lack of structural reforms," with spending levels on education, which "have fallen as a percentage of GDP since 2009," ranking among the lowest in the EU.¹³⁶

Challenge: A second major challenge relates to labor market access. Overall, the Slovak labor market is in a particularly precarious and unsustainable state. The country receives a score of just 3.28 in terms of labor market access, which places it third to last (rank 26). In 2014, only 61 percent of the working age population was employed (the rate has fluctuated between 58.8% and 62.3% since the 2008 edition of the SJI), placing Slovakia at rank 22. Low levels of employment have hit one group the hardest: women. With regard to the ratio of women to men active in the labor force, Slovakia ranks only 23rd. In this context, the country experts note that "mothers of children under two years of age rarely work, maternal employment rates are below the OECD average, and working women face an enormous double burden of both professional and domestic responsibilities. (...) Child care for children under three years of age in particular continues to be virtually unavailable."¹³⁷ The country also has one of the highest incidences of involuntary temporary employment. Since 2008, the share of working-age Slovaks in temporary employment because they could not find a permanent position has increased by more than 13 percentage points to the current 87.3 percent. In comparison, the rate in Austria, which ranks first place on this indicator, is 8.8 percent and across the EU averages 63.4 percent. The overall unemployment rate, 13.2 percent (2014), though lower than at its peak in 2010, remains significantly worse than the 9.5 percent seen in 2008. With regard to persons unemployed for a year or more, while in 2008 the rate was 6.7 percent, in 2014 the rate stood at 9.3 percent of the labor force. Those with less than upper secondary education suffer a much higher unemployment rate of 41.4 percent, the highest rate in our study. In addition, youth unemployment rates have remained high (29.7%) and the Roma minority continues to be largely excluded from the labor market.¹³⁸

¹³⁶ Kneuer/Malová/Bönker (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.

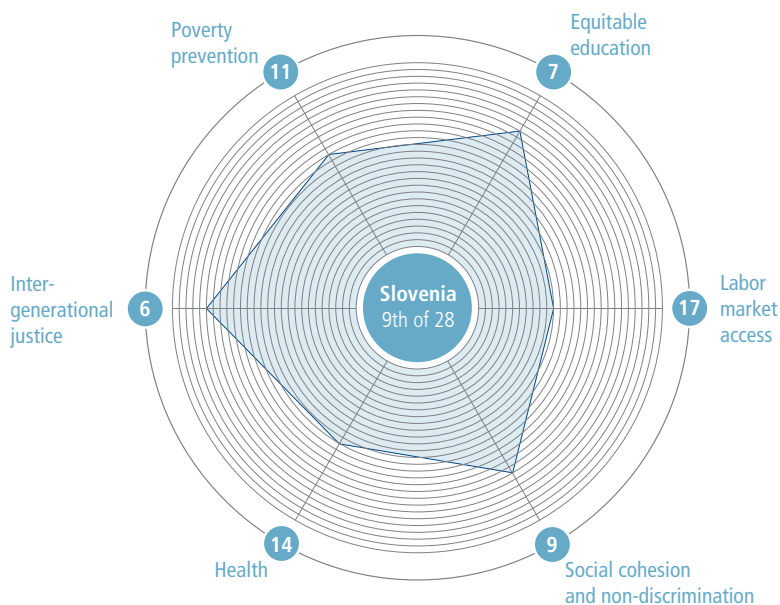
¹³⁷ Ibid.

¹³⁸ Ibid.



Slovenia

EU Social Justice Index 2015



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3	Finland	7.02
4	Netherlands	6.84
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8	Luxembourg	6.44
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11	Belgium	6.19
12	France	6.18
13	United Kingdom	5.97
14	Lithuania	5.67
	EU Average	5.63
15	Poland	5.46
16	Malta	5.43
17	Slovakia	5.33
18	Ireland	5.14
19	Cyprus	5.06
20	Portugal	4.98
	Latvia	4.98
22	Croatia	4.93
23	Hungary	4.73
	Spain	4.73
25	Italy	4.69
26	Bulgaria	3.78
27	Romania	3.74
28	Greece	3.61

Overall: Slovenia's SJI score of 6.28 places it 9th among the countries of the EU. Slovenia ranks among the top ten in three of the six dimensions in this study and, notably, on no dimension among the bottom third. It ranks 6th in the dimension intergenerational justice, 7th in equitable education, and 9th in the dimension of social cohesion and non-discrimination. With regard to our focus on children and youth, Slovenia ranks a commendable 6th with a score of 6.92 on this sub-index.

Achievement: Slovenia is performing comparatively well on policies affecting children and youth. In three of the four measures comprising our special sub-index, the country ranks in the top ten. Although on the rise over the last years, the percentage of children and youth at-risk-of poverty or social exclusion (17.5% in 2013) is actually lower than in the general population (20.4%). This bucks a trend seen in most EU countries, where the under-18 population is typically at greater risk. Also, the Slovenian education system can be commended for having the second lowest drop-out rate in our study (only Croatia performs better). In 2014, just 4.4 percent of Slovenian 18-to-24 year olds dropped out of education and training, whereas the EU average is more than double that (11.2%). Along with this, Slovenia continues to rank among the top ten for its comparatively low NEET rate. In 2014, 13.8 percent of 20-to-24 year olds were neither in education nor training. This rate, however, has climbed steadily since 2008 (8.7%), and additional policy interventions

appear necessary to keep more young adults activated. In addition, the country's performance is only middling when it comes to the influence socioeconomic background has on educational attainment (as measured by PISA).

Achievement: The Slovenian government, scoring 6.32 in terms of intergenerational justice, has proven more successful than many of its EU counterparts at ensuring that the policy decisions it takes today do not inequitably burden future generations. Since as early as 2007, the country has increasingly made use of renewable energy. In 2013, 21.5 percent of gross final energy consumption came from renewable sources, placing the country at rank 10. This sound investment in the future has been accompanied by another sound investment, research and development spending. Intramural research and development expenditure totaled 2.6 percent of GDP in 2013, the 6th highest in the EU. Impressively, the government actually increased spending on research and development throughout the crisis (in 2007, the share was 1.4% of GDP). The SGI country experts scored the government's environmental policy 8 out of 10 points. They commend the country's tradition of "close-to-natural forest management and...low-intensity farming" noting that "forests occupy approximately 62 percent of the total land area, about twice the OECD average."¹³⁹ They also praise the active role of environmental NGOs in environmental policymaking and management, pointing as well to their important watchdog role. The SGI experts scored the administration's family policy 8 out of 10 points, noting "At 75.5%, the employment rate among mothers with children under six years of age was the highest in the European Union in 2012. Reconciling parenting and employment is facilitated by a provision of child care facilities that exceeds the EU average, and meets the Barcelona targets both for children under three years of age and between three and five years of age."¹⁴⁰

Challenge: Some shortcomings persist in the area of labor market access (rank 17): At 63.9 percent, the overall employment rate is relatively low. The employment rate among elderly workers (55-64) is one of the lowest in the EU (35.4 percent, rank 27). In addition, youth unemployment is still nearly twice as high today (20.2%) as it was in 2008 (10.4%). The country experts note: "While Slovenia has a tradition of labor-market policy that dates back to Yugoslav times, existing programs and policies have not proven very effective."¹⁴¹

¹³⁹ Haček/Pickel/Bönker (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.

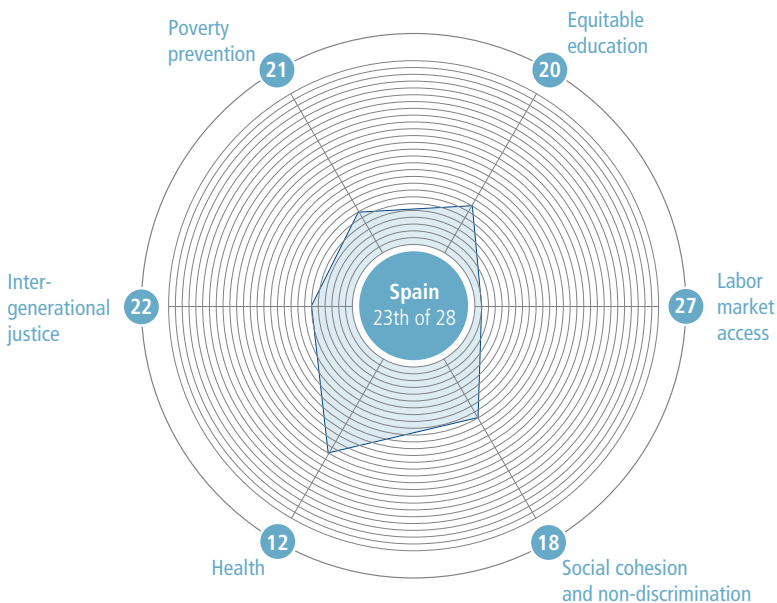
¹⁴⁰ Ibid.

¹⁴¹ Ibid.



Spain

EU Social Justice Index 2015



1	Sweden	7.23
2	Denmark	7.10
3	Finland	7.02
4	Netherlands	6.84
5	Czech Republic	6.68
6	Austria	6.57
7	Germany	6.52
8	Luxembourg	6.44
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	EU Average	5.63
15	Poland	5.46
16	Malta	5.43
17	Slovakia	5.33
18	Ireland	5.14
19	Cyprus	5.06
20	Portugal	4.98
	Latvia	4.98
22	Croatia	4.93
23	Hungary	4.73
	Spain	4.73
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Overall: Spain's overall performance on the SJI has progressively worsened since the first edition in 2008 and remains among the most poorly functioning countries when it comes to social justice. The country's score of 4.73 ranks it 23rd in the EU. Indeed, Spain ranks among the bottom third of countries in four of the six dimensions used in the index, and among the bottom five in terms of labor market access. With regard to this edition's focus on children and youth, Spain ranks 25th with a score of 3.94 on this sub-index.

Challenge: Children and youth fare comparatively poorly in Spain. On two of the four measures in our special sub-index, the country ranks among the bottom five. The fact that the risk of poverty among children and youth has again increased in comparison to last year's survey is very troubling. Some 35.8 percent of children and youth are today at-risk-of poverty and social exclusion. The overall share of people threatened by poverty or social exclusion currently amounts to 29.2 percent (23.3% in 2007). Moreover, while child poverty has strongly increased over the last years due to falling income levels, the poverty rate among senior citizens has fallen. Spain even has a comparatively low number of persons over 65 at-risk-of poverty or social exclusion (12.9% in 2014 compared to 27.8% in 2007). This underlines the dramatic challenge of a growing gap between the generations in Spain.

Challenge: Spain faces a number of major policy challenges to achieving broad-based social justice. Despite signs of recovery from a brutal recession, the greatest of these may be ensuring equitable labor market access. “High levels of structural unemployment affect primarily low-skilled workers, women and young people, and in particular those individuals living in southern regions. There is also a long-established pattern of severe mismatch between workers’ qualifications and job availability, with many highly skilled employees not making adequate use of their expertise and capabilities. During the years of crisis, unemployment increased dramatically, from 2.1 million jobless workers in December 2007 to a peak of 6 million in February 2013.”¹⁴² Beginning in early 2013, unemployment began to fall when the Spanish economy entered recovery. However, despite this positive trend, the country still ranks second to last (ahead only of Greece) in our dimension of labor-market inclusiveness. In 2014, only 56 percent of the working-age population was employed – one of the lowest employment rates in the EU (only Greece, Croatia and Italy had a lower rate). The country’s incidence of involuntary temporary employment, 91.5 percent, is one of the highest. In comparison, the rate in Austria, which ranks first place on this indicator, is 8.8 percent. Looking at the Spanish labor market from the perspective of the unemployed, the magnitude of the challenge becomes even clearer. The overall unemployment rate has increased from 11.3 percent in 2008 to 26.2 percent in 2013 before sinking in 2014 to 24.6 percent (only Greece has a higher rate). Since the crisis began, the long-term unemployed have seen their numbers increase from 2 percent in 2008 to an alarming 12.9 percent in 2014. Those with less than upper secondary education were unemployed at a much higher rate: 34 percent, the second highest rate in our study. Among youth, the unemployment rate has more than doubled since 2008. With 53.2 percent of 15-to-24 year olds unemployed (the highest rate in the EU), the Spanish government faces a truly urgent policy challenge.

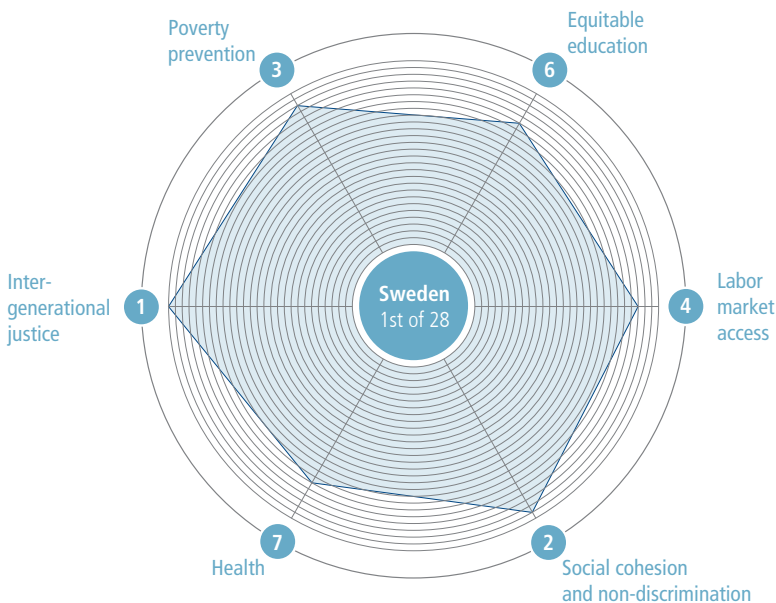
Challenge: The Spanish education system continues to face the highest dropout rate in the EU. In 2014, a distressing 21.9 percent of Spanish 18-to-24 year olds still dropped out of education and training. While this rate may be significantly lower than the 31.7 percent seen in 2008, it remains double the EU average (11.2%). Along with this, Spain ranks 23rd for its high NEET rate. In 2014, 24.8 percent of 20-to-24 year olds were neither in employment nor participating in education or training. Additional policy interventions are necessary to keep more young adults activated and prevent them from being permanently shutout of the labor market.

142 Molina/Homs/Colino (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.



Sweden

EU Social Justice Index 2015



1	Sweden	7.23
2	Denmark	7.10
3	Finland	7.02
4	Netherlands	6.84
5	Czech Republic	6.68
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13	United Kingdom	5.97
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16	Malta	5.43
17	Slovakia	5.33
18	Ireland	5.14
19	Cyprus	5.06
20	Portugal	4.98
	Latvia	4.98
22	Croatia	4.93
23	Hungary	4.73
	Spain	4.73
25	Italy	4.69
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28	Greece	3.61

Overall: Sweden is the most socially just country in the EU, ranking first on the 2015 SJI with an overall score of 7.23. While its performance has fluctuated somewhat since our first assessment in 2008, Sweden has consistently maintained its position as the best performing country, although there are problems in the areas of labor market access and integration. The success is nevertheless broad-based, with the country ranking in the top ten across all six dimensions, four of these being in the top five (intergenerational justice, social inclusion and non-discrimination, labor market, and poverty prevention). Most commendable, it is the best performer in the EU in the dimension of intergenerational justice. With regard to our focus on children and youth, Sweden is likewise the best performing country, with a score of 7.34 on this sub-index. The country ranks among the top 10 on each of the four measures used in this sub-index.

Achievement and challenge: Sweden has had the most success at ensuring its policies are equitable both for the current and next generations. With a score of 7.80, Sweden is the top-ranked country in terms of intergenerational justice. Sweden's greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions have steadily declined since 2007. The country now reports the second-lowest GHG emissions in the EU (only Latvia performs better) with 2.3 tons per capita (2012, in CO₂ equivalents). The use of renewable energy has likewise progressively improved since 2007. In 2013, an admirable 52.1 percent of gross final energy consumption came from renewable sources, which is the highest share in

the EU. In comparison, second place Latvia's share in the same year was 15 percentage points lower and the EU-wide average was 17.9 percent. Sweden's forward-looking policies also include strong investments in research and development. In 2013, the public and private sector invested a total of 3.3 percent of GDP on research and development, the highest rate in our study. Such expenditures are sound investments in the future, helping to ensure that the Swedish economy will remain globally competitive in the years and decades to come. At the same time, investments made today must not unduly burden future taxpayers with debt. While the government's gross debt has steadily risen since 2008, at 41.5 percent of GDP (2014), it remains among the lowest in the EU (rank 7). Sweden, however, faces an escalating policy challenge as a result of its aging population. The country's old age dependency ratio (30.6% in 2014), ranks as one of the most burdensome in the EU. In this context, the SGI country experts note optimism that recent major pension reforms, which strengthen capital-funded occupational and private pension schemes, have improved the system's stability and sustainability. They warn, however, that a high and persistent youth unemployment rate threatens equity in the long term. Moreover, the SGI country experts awarded the Swedish government's family policy a top score of 10. They conclude that the "major features of Sweden's policy have been the separation of spouses' income and individual taxation, the expansion of public and private day care centers and a very generous parental leave program provided to both women and men, which has created much better possibilities to combine a professional career with parenthood."¹⁴³

Achievement and challenge: The Swedish administration can also be praised for effectively promoting social inclusion and combating discrimination. With a score of 7.92 in this dimension, the country ranks 2nd. The Riksdag enjoys the highest gender equity of any national parliament in the EU, with 45 percent of seats being held by women (2014). Furthermore, Sweden's NEET rate has steadily declined since our first assessment in 2008. In 2014, a comparatively low 9.8 percent of 20-to-24 year olds were neither in education nor training (rank 5). In comparison, the EU average was 17.8 percent. The country's Gini coefficient (a measure of income inequality) ranks 3rd in our study, although income inequality has also grown significantly in Sweden since the mid-1980s. The SGI experts awarded the government a score of 7 for its non-discrimination policies and 8 for its social inclusion. They conclude that while discrimination of any kind is not officially tolerated, "ethnic segmentation in several suburbs of the metropolitan areas in Sweden increased" and remains an unresolved political challenge.¹⁴⁴ In terms of social cohesion, these experts warn that "data and recent developments suggest that Sweden is gradually losing its leading role...and is increasingly at par with other European countries in terms of its poverty levels and income distribution. If Sweden previously could boast of its record as an egalitarian and inclusive society, there is less reason to do so today."¹⁴⁵

143 Pierre/Jochem/Jahn (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org.

144 Ibid.

145 Ibid.



Challenge: Although Sweden is still in a comfortable position, there are several problems and challenges with regard to the country’s labor market (rank 4). According to the SGI country experts, the “current labor market statistics indicate that Sweden today does not differ in any significant way from comparable capitalist economies.”¹⁴⁶ Indeed, Sweden’s youth unemployment of 22.9 percent is comparatively high (rank 15). The country experts also highlight the fact that “immigrants to Sweden have severe problems successfully entering into the labor market. Sweden shares this problem with a large number of countries but it has proven to be exceptionally inept at this aspect of integration. The large number of unemployed immigrants erodes integration policies to a great extent and this will be a major challenge for policymakers in the future.”¹⁴⁷ Moreover, “employment protection legislation for precarious work does decline significantly. As in other European countries, in Sweden a dualization of the labor market is taking place, albeit at a slower speed than, for example, in Germany.”¹⁴⁸

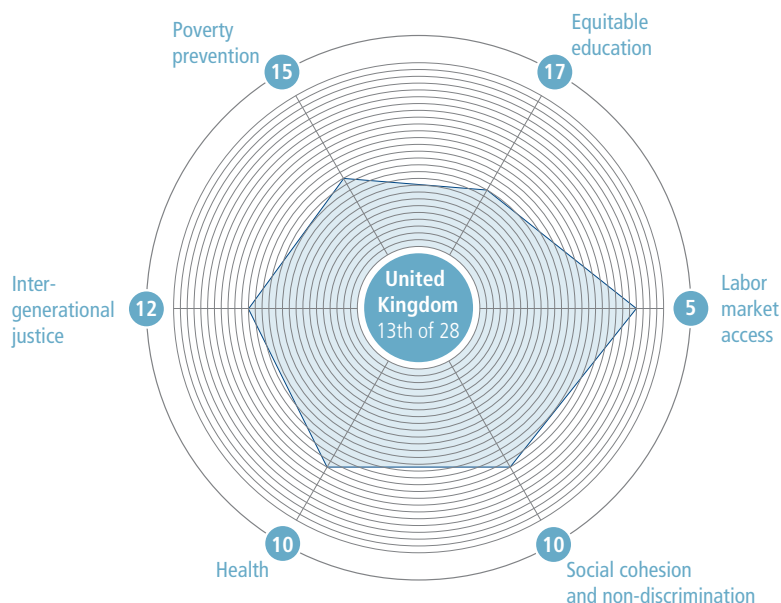
146 Ibid.

147 Ibid.

148 Ibid.

United Kingdom

EU Social Justice Index 2015



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4	Netherlands	6.84
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Overall: The United Kingdom's performance on the SJI has remained stable and within the mid-range since the first edition in 2008. In the current index, the country ranks a mediocre 13th in the EU with a score of 5.97. With regard to this edition's focus on children and youth, the country's score of 5.03 on this sub-index places it even below the EU average at 18th place.

Challenge: The UK faces major challenges with regard to the opportunities of children and young people. The share of children and youth threatened by poverty or social exclusion has risen to an extremely high 32.6 percent. This is much higher than the respective rate for the total population (24.8%). In addition, there is a massive gap between the generations. With 18.1 percent, the share of older people threatened by poverty or social exclusion is much lower than the respective rate for children. Furthermore, the SGI country report notes that "the high incidence of NEETs (young adults aged 20-24 not in employment, education or training), particularly in certain less prosperous cities, remains a problem, and the overall income of youths and young adults has started to fall behind the rest of the population. The ongoing housing crisis has exacerbated the situation of low-income households, and with pensioners, young adults, and the working poor in metropolitan areas having increasing difficulties making ends meet."¹⁴⁹

¹⁴⁹ Busch/Begg/Bandelow (2015), available at www.sgi-network.org



Challenge: In the area of education, further challenges are evident. Here, the UK only ranks 17th. According the most recent SGI report, “the socioeconomic composition of many of the country’s schools still poses a significant challenge for disadvantaged students and those with an immigrant background. (...) Cuts and reallocations in the education budget have further added to the problems of the sector.”¹⁵⁰

Achievement: The UK offers a relatively well-functioning labor market. With a score of 7.03, it ranks 5th in this dimension, behind Denmark, Austria, Germany and Sweden. The overall employment rate, 71.9 percent in 2014, has remained relatively stable since at least 2008 and ranks 5th among the 28 EU member states. Employment among older workers has increased since 2010. In 2014, 61 percent of this demographic were employed, the fifth highest rate in our study. These high rates of employment are conversely reflected in the country’s unemployment figures. In 2014, a comparatively low 6.3 percent of the labor force were unemployed. While this rate remains higher than in 2008 (when 5.7% of the labor force was unemployed), it is an improvement over the 7.9 percent peak reached in 2010. Also, the share of workers unemployed for a year or more, 2.2 percent in 2014, remains higher than before the crisis, but has moderately improved since 2013. A similar trend can be seen with youth unemployment: the rate peaked in 2013 at 20.7 percent, but has since fallen to 16.9 percent, though it remains higher than before the crisis.

According the most recent SGI country report, “there is a flip side to the strong employment figures in a period of significant economic adjustment, however. Real wages fell in the aftermath of the crisis in the United Kingdom, and have only recently started to increase again. There has been considerable controversy around so-called zero-hour contracts, under which an employee is not guaranteed specific paid work hours, as well as over the increasing use of unpaid internships for young people entering the labor market. (...) Landlords tend not to accept zero-hour contracts as collateral, which puts further pressure on the affected workers and worsens their situation within the housing market.”¹⁵¹

Achievement and challenge: The UK’s health sector also performs comparatively well. The country ranks 10th in this dimension, with a score of 7.03. The average British citizen can expect 64.6 healthy life years, placing the country at rank 6 within the EU on this measure. Though this is approximately one year less than that measured in 2009, it still exceeds the EU average by more than three years and the average Latvian by nearly 12 years. Furthermore, a comparatively low share of British citizens (1.6%) self-reported that the UK’s National Health Service had been unable to meet all of their medical needs. This comparatively low percentage illustrates that most people are generally able to access health care services when needed. The country’s performance, however, is much more mixed in the assessments of the Euro Health Consumer Index (EHCI). According to the EHCI measures used in our study, wait times as well as the range and reach of health services are above average (ranking 9th). Health system outcomes, however, are assessed by the EHCI as average, ranking 14th.

¹⁵⁰ Ibid.

¹⁵¹ Ibid.

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Appendix

Table 1a: Overview of results

Rank	Country	Weighted Index				Unweighted Index				Poverty Prevention				Equitable Education			
		2008	2011	2014	2015	2008	2011	2014	2015	2008	2011	2014	2015	2008	2011	2014	2015
6	Austria	6.83	6.50	6.60	6.57	6.85	6.51	6.62	6.62	7.00	6.44	6.58	6.41	5.86	5.82	5.90	5.94
11	Belgium	6.20	6.24	6.15	6.19	6.35	6.35	6.27	6.29	5.84	6.17	5.84	5.94	6.13	5.99	6.31	6.40
26	Bulgaria			3.75	3.78			4.22	4.23			1.00	1.00			5.09	5.06
22	Croatia			4.70	4.93			4.89	5.01			3.24	3.88			6.94	7.08
19	Cyprus			5.10	5.06			5.12	5.10			4.54	4.37			6.46	6.63
5	Czech Republic	6.65	6.67	6.57	6.68	6.52	6.49	6.44	6.53	7.22	7.64	7.31	7.50	6.37	6.50	6.40	6.40
3	Denmark	7.37	7.08	7.06	7.10	7.45	7.16	7.20	7.23	6.98	6.79	6.46	6.48	7.08	6.98	7.20	7.23
10	Estonia			6.20	6.24			6.21	6.27			5.42	5.39			7.15	7.02
2	Finland	7.19	7.10	7.04	7.02	7.29	7.18	7.09	7.09	6.84	6.96	6.89	6.86	7.11	7.08	6.98	6.97
12	France	6.26	6.15	6.12	6.18	6.27	6.13	6.13	6.14	6.46	6.58	6.44	6.67	5.47	5.30	5.43	5.52
7	Germany	6.16	6.27	6.56	6.52	6.19	6.31	6.61	6.56	6.08	6.22	6.32	6.15	5.65	5.65	6.04	6.31
28	Greece	4.46	4.44	3.57	3.61	4.46	4.48	3.73	3.82	4.26	4.42	2.76	2.43	4.04	4.02	4.56	4.89
25	Hungary	5.06	4.78	4.54	4.73	5.18	4.94	4.70	4.85	4.00	3.95	3.29	3.59	6.10	5.49	5.64	5.42
18	Ireland	5.94	5.52	5.08	5.14	6.02	5.75	5.38	5.37	5.49	4.87	3.85	3.97	5.16	5.11	5.13	5.24
24	Italy	5.17	5.16	4.60	4.69	5.16	5.13	4.72	4.72	4.80	5.11	3.88	4.30	5.45	5.27	5.17	5.31
23	Latvia			4.63	4.98			4.90	5.13			2.39	3.21			6.44	6.54
15	Lithuania			5.37	5.67			5.74	5.80			3.26	4.40			7.19	7.22
8	Luxembourg	6.36	6.47	6.53	6.44	6.42	6.62	6.63	6.54	7.19	6.74	6.60	6.46	4.44	5.14	6.19	6.19
14	Malta			5.50	5.43			5.51	5.46			5.49	5.27			4.69	4.70
4	Netherlands	7.11	7.05	6.93	6.84	7.16	7.02	6.94	6.87	7.24	7.38	7.41	7.19	6.12	6.30	5.99	6.04
16	Poland	4.48	5.01	5.30	5.46	4.70	5.08	5.33	5.45	2.81	4.37	4.64	4.85	5.84	5.87	6.45	6.71
20	Portugal	5.12	5.15	5.06	4.98	5.13	5.22	5.18	5.16	5.04	5.06	4.97	4.45	4.18	4.33	4.73	4.85
27	Romania			3.70	3.74			4.07	4.06			1.08	1.39			5.10	5.04
17	Slovakia	5.52	5.40	5.11	5.33	5.51	5.21	5.06	5.20	5.91	6.32	6.10	6.60	5.48	5.80	4.62	4.60
9	Slovenia			6.34	6.28			6.34	6.32			6.32	6.13			6.92	6.89
21	Spain	5.54	5.13	4.86	4.73	5.68	5.32	5.09	5.01	5.44	5.11	4.52	4.04	4.69	4.84	5.27	5.40
1	Sweden	7.54	7.34	7.44	7.23	7.63	7.56	7.57	7.36	7.67	7.19	7.26	7.07	6.90	6.75	7.42	6.95
13	United Kingdom	5.95	5.96	5.96	5.97	6.03	6.05	6.11	6.12	5.61	5.75	5.25	5.09	5.17	5.03	5.75	5.79

Source: Own representation.

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Table 1b: Overview of results

Rank	Country	Labor Market Access				Social Cohesion and Non-discrimination				Health				Intergenerational justice			
		2008	2011	2014	2015	2008	2011	2014	2015	2008	2011	2014	2015	2008	2011	2014	2015
6	Austria	7.30	7.25	7.26	7.25	6.84	6.27	6.44	6.76	7.77	7.48	7.48	7.36	6.30	5.82	6.04	5.98
11	Belgium	6.10	5.89	5.94	5.94	7.16	7.06	6.60	6.78	7.68	7.97	7.90	7.68	5.21	5.03	5.01	5.00
26	Bulgaria			5.07	5.38			4.45	4.25			4.31	4.40			5.42	5.26
22	Croatia			4.25	4.43			4.20	4.25			6.04	5.70			4.64	4.75
19	Cyprus			4.76	4.59			4.91	5.03			6.15	6.00			3.89	3.96
5	Czech Republic	6.63	5.92	5.98	6.25	6.15	6.07	5.82	5.92	7.01	7.25	7.40	7.37	5.71	5.57	5.73	5.75
3	Denmark	7.93	7.25	7.28	7.44	7.68	7.49	7.45	7.50	8.18	7.47	7.73	7.47	6.84	6.97	7.09	7.26
10	Estonia			6.78	7.02			5.83	5.96			5.19	5.51			6.86	6.70
2	Finland	7.42	6.93	7.09	6.91	7.88	7.56	7.65	7.60	7.11	6.77	6.66	6.86	7.38	7.77	7.30	7.35
12	France	6.58	6.25	6.10	6.07	5.95	5.50	5.97	6.00	7.34	7.44	7.25	7.04	5.84	5.71	5.57	5.51
7	Germany	6.61	6.74	7.23	7.24	6.60	6.71	7.33	7.25	6.74	7.09	7.20	7.10	5.46	5.42	5.54	5.32
28	Greece	5.33	4.70	3.22	3.42	4.57	4.64	3.75	4.20	5.68	6.13	4.68	4.41	2.86	2.94	3.40	3.57
25	Hungary	5.47	4.73	5.02	5.60	5.21	5.08	4.66	4.61	5.56	5.24	4.97	5.27	4.74	5.15	4.62	4.64
18	Ireland	7.11	5.88	5.65	5.96	6.09	6.06	6.07	5.95	6.73	7.33	6.56	6.15	5.53	5.22	5.02	4.96
24	Italy	5.66	5.32	4.75	4.63	5.13	4.81	4.83	4.79	6.42	6.47	5.89	5.50	3.52	3.80	3.78	3.79
23	Latvia			5.65	6.01			5.13	5.23			3.13	3.32			6.64	6.47
15	Lithuania			5.56	5.90			5.88	5.82			6.24	5.38			6.30	6.10
8	Luxembourg	6.18	6.39	6.11	6.04	7.12	7.38	7.37	7.27	8.24	8.21	8.12	7.88	5.36	5.85	5.41	5.41
14	Malta			6.30	6.31			5.22	5.11			7.09	7.00			4.29	4.39
4	Netherlands	7.56	7.32	6.84	6.79	8.04	7.98	7.96	7.97	8.18	7.70	8.00	7.81	5.84	5.42	5.44	5.39
16	Poland	5.09	5.01	5.25	5.51	4.89	5.16	5.87	5.92	4.47	4.66	4.26	4.11	5.10	5.40	5.55	5.58
20	Portugal	6.20	5.74	4.84	5.07	6.12	5.72	5.77	5.60	4.23	5.52	6.15	6.43	5.00	4.96	4.61	4.58
27	Romania			5.34	5.24			4.45	4.40			3.18	3.09			5.24	5.21
17	Slovakia	4.87	4.29	3.98	4.28	5.73	4.68	5.15	5.19	5.42	4.88	5.32	5.40	5.63	5.31	5.17	5.13
9	Slovenia			5.79	5.70			6.43	6.42			6.28	6.47			6.31	6.32
21	Spain	5.74	4.31	3.71	3.68	6.31	5.81	5.42	5.41	7.04	6.84	7.01	6.86	4.88	4.99	4.64	4.68
1	Sweden	7.38	6.85	7.02	7.05	7.98	8.02	8.06	7.92	7.75	8.41	7.81	7.33	8.11	8.15	7.86	7.80
13	United Kingdom	6.93	6.75	6.71	7.03	6.29	6.27	6.19	6.33	6.77	6.98	7.26	7.03	5.43	5.54	5.49	5.46

Source: Own representation.

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Table 2: Dimension I: Poverty Prevention

Indicator	Definition	Source
A1 At Risk of Poverty or Social Exclusion, Total Population	People at risk of poverty or social exclusion, total population (%)	Eurostat Online Database (data refer to a: 2007; b: 2009; c: 2012; d: 2013, 2014), extracted 24 August 2015
A2 At Risk of Poverty or Social Exclusion, Children (0-17)	People at risk of poverty or social exclusion, age less than 18 years (%)	Eurostat Online Database (data refer to a: 2007; b: 2009; c: 2012; d: 2013, 2014), extracted 24 August 2015
A3 At Risk of Poverty or Social Exclusion, Seniors (65+)	People at risk of poverty or social exclusion, age 65 years or over (%)	Eurostat Online Database (data refer to a: 2007; b: 2009; c: 2012; d: 2013, 2014), extracted 24 August 2015
A4 Population Living in Quasi-Jobless Households	People living in households with very low work intensity, 0 to 59 years (%)	Eurostat Online Database (data refer to a: 2007; b: 2009; c: 2012; d: 2013, 2014), extracted 24 August 2015
A5 Severe Material Deprivation, Total Population	Severe material deprivation rate, total population (%)	Eurostat Online Database (data refer to a: 2007; b: 2009; c: 2013; d: 2013, 2014), extracted 24 August 2015
A6 Severe Material Deprivation, Children (0-17)	Severe material deprivation rate, age less than 18 years (%)	Eurostat Online Database (data refer to a: 2007; b: 2009; c: 2013; d: 2013, 2014), extracted 24 August 2015
A7 Severe Material Deprivation, Seniors (65+)	Severe material deprivation rate, age 65 years or over (%)	Eurostat Online Database (data refer to a: 2007; b: 2009; c: 2013; d: 2013, 2014), extracted 24 August 2015
A8 Income Poverty, Total Population	At risk of poverty (cut-off point: 60% of median equivalized income after social transfers), total population (%)	Eurostat Online Database (data refer to a: 2007; b: 2009; c: 2012, 2013; d: 2013, 2014), extracted 24 August 2015
A9 Income Poverty, Children (0-17)	At risk of poverty (cut-off point: 60% of median equivalized income after social transfers), age less than 18 years (%)	Eurostat Online Database (data refer to a: 2007; b: 2009; c: 2012; d: 2013, 2014), extracted 24 August 2015
A10 Income Poverty, Seniors (65+)	At risk of poverty (cut-off point: 60% of median equivalized income after social transfers), age 65 years or over (%)	Eurostat Online Database (data refer to a: 2007; b: 2009; c: 2012; d: 2013, 2014), extracted 24 August 2015

Source: Own representation.

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Table 3: Dimension II: Equitable Education

Indicator	Definition	Source
B1 Education Policy (SGI)	Policy performance in delivering high-quality, equitable and efficient education and training	Sustainable Governance Indicators 2015, expert assessment "To what extent does education policy deliver high-quality, equitable and efficient education and training?"
B2 Socioeconomic Background and Student Performance	PISA results, product of slope of ESCS for reading and strength of relationship between reading and ESCS	OECD PISA (data refer to a: 2006; b: 2009; c: 2012; d: 2012) (Data for Malta are missing; imputed value=mean)
B3 Pre-primary Education Expenditure	Total public expenditure on education as % of GDP, at pre-primary level of education and not allocated by level (% of GDP)	Eurostat Online Database (data refer to a: 2001, 2004, 2005, 2006; b: 2004, 2007, 2008; c: 2004, 2011; d: 2004, 2011), extracted 9 June 2015
B4 Early School Leavers	Early leavers from education and training, age 18 to 24 years (%)	Eurostat Online Database (data refer to a: 2008; b: 2010; c: 2013; d: 2014), extracted 21 May 2015
B5 PISA Results	PISA results, mean score of reading, science and mathematics scale	OECD PISA (data refer to a: 2006; b: 2009; c: 2012; d: 2012) (Data for Malta are missing; imputed value=mean)

Source: Own representation.

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Table 4: Dimension III: Labor Market Access

Indicator	Definition	Source
C1 Employment Rate	Employment rate, age 15 to 64 years (%)	Eurostat Online Database (data refer to a: 2008; b: 2010; c: 2013; d: 2014), extracted 27 July 2015
C2 Older Employment Rate	Employment rate, age 55 to 64 years (%)	Eurostat Online Database (data refer to a: 2008; b: 2010; c: 2013; d: 2014), extracted 27 July 2015
C3 Foreign-born To Native Employment	Ratio of foreign-born to native-born employment rates, age 15 to 64 years	Eurostat Online Database (data refer to a: 2008; b: 2010; c: 2013; d: 2014), extracted 27 July 2015
C4 Employment Rates by Gender, Women/Men	Ratio of employment rates women/men, age 15 to 64 years	Eurostat Online Database (data refer to a: 2008; b: 2010; c: 2013; d: 2014), extracted 27 July 2015
C5 Unemployment Rate	Unemployment rate, age 15 to 64 years (%)	Eurostat Online Database (data refer to a: 2008; b: 2010; c: 2013; d: 2014), extracted 27 July 2015
C6 Long-term Unemployment Rate	Unemployment rate, unemployed greater than or equal to 1 year (% of labor force)	Eurostat Online Database (data refer to a: 2008; b: 2010; c: 2013; d: 2014), extracted 27 July 2015
C7 Youth Unemployment Rate	Unemployment rate, age 15 to 24 years (%)	Eurostat Online Database (data refer to a: 2008; b: 2010; c: 2013; d: 2014), extracted 27 July 2015
C8 Low-skilled Unemployment Rate	Unemployment rate, age 15 to 64 years, less than upper secondary education (%)	Eurostat Online Database (data refer to a: 2008; b: 2010; c: 2013; d: 2014), extracted 27 July 2015
C9 Involuntary Temporary Employment Rate	Main reason for temporary employment: Could not find permanent job, age 15 to 64 years (%)	Eurostat Online Database (data refer to a: 1999, 2003, 2008; b: 1999, 2003, 2009, 2010; c: 1999, 2009, 2013; d: 1999, 2009, 2014), extracted 27 July 2015
C10 In-work Poverty Rate	In-work at-risk-of-poverty rate, full-time workers (%)	Eurostat Online Database (data refer to a: 2007; b: 2009; c: 2012; d: 2013, 2014), extracted 24 August 2015
C11 Low Pay Incidence	Low-wage earners as a proportion of all employees (excluding apprentices), less than upper secondary education (%)	Eurostat Online Database (data refer to a: 2006; b: 2010; c: 2010; d: 2010), extracted 21 May 2015

Source: Own representation.

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Table 5: Dimension IV: Social Cohesion and Non-discrimination

Indicator	Definition	Source
D1 Social Inclusion (SGI)	Policy performance in strengthening social cohesion and inclusion	Sustainable Governance Indicators 2015, expert assessment "To what extent does social policy prevent exclusion and decoupling from society?"
D2 Gini Coefficient	Gini coefficient of equalised disposable income (%)	Eurostat Online Database (data refer to a: 2007; b: 2009; c: 2012; d: 2013, 2014), extracted 24 August 2015
D3 Non-discrimination (SGI)	Policy performance in protecting against discrimination	Sustainable Governance Indicators 2015, expert assessment "How effectively does the state protect against different forms of discrimination?"
D4 Gender Equality in Parliaments	Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments (%)	World Bank Gender Statistics Database (data refer to a: 2008; b: 2010; c: 2013; d: 2014), extracted 19 March 2015
D5 Integration Policy (SGI)	Policy performance in integrating migrants into society	Sustainable Governance Indicators 2015, expert assessment "How effectively do policies support the integration of migrants into society?"
D6 NEET Rate	Young people not employed and not participating in education or training, 20 to 24 years (%)	Eurostat Online Database (data refer to a: 2008; b: 2010; c: 2013; d: 2014), extracted 21 May 2015

Source: Own representation.

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Table 6: Dimension V: Health

Indicator	Definition	Source
E1 Health Policy (SGI)	Policy performance in providing high-quality, inclusive and cost-efficient health care	Sustainable Governance Indicators 2015, expert assessment "To what extent do health care policies provide high-quality, inclusive and cost-efficient health care?"
E2 Self-reported Unmet Needs for Medical Help	Self-reported unmet needs for medical examination; Reason: too expensive or too far to travel or waiting list (%)	Eurostat Online Database (data refer to a: 2007; b: 2009; c: 2011, 2012; d: 2013), extracted 21 May 2015
E3 Healthy Life Expectancy	Healthy life years at birth, total population	Eurostat Online Database (data refer to a: 2007; b: 2009; c: 2011, 2012; d: 2012, 2013), extracted 21 May 2015
E4 Accessibility and Range (based on EHCI)	Mean of standardized index values "waiting time for treatment" and "range and reach of services provided"	Euro Health Consumer Index (data refer to a: 2008; b: 2009; c: 2013; d: 2013)
E5 Health Systems' Outcomes (based on EHCI)	Standardized index values "outcome"	Euro Health Consumer Index (data refer to a: 2008; b: 2009; c: 2013; d: 2013)

Source: Own representation.

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Table 7: Dimension VI: Intergenerational Justice

Indicator	Definition	Source
F1 Family Policy (SGI)	Policy performance in enabling women to combine parenting with labor market participation	Sustainable Governance Indicators 2015, expert assessment "To what extent do family support policies enable women to combine parenting with participation in the labor market?"
F2 Pension Policy (SGI)	Policy performance in promoting pensions that prevent poverty, are intergenerationally just and fiscally sustainable	Sustainable Governance Indicators 2015, expert assessment "To what extent does pension policy realize goals of poverty prevention, intergenerational equity and fiscal sustainability?"
F3 Environmental Policy (SGI)	Policy performance in the sustainable use of natural resources and environmental protection	Sustainable Governance Indicators 2015, expert assessment "How effectively does environmental policy protect and preserve the sustainability of natural resources and quality of the environment?"
F4 Greenhouse Gas Emissions	Greenhouse gas emissions, including "land use", "land-use change" and "forestry", tons in CO ₂ equivalents per capita	Eurostat Online Database (data refer to a: 2007; b: 2009; c: 2012; d: 2012), extracted 27 July 2015
F5 Renewable Energy (Consumption)	Share of energy from renewable sources in gross final energy consumption (%)	Eurostat Online Database (data refer to a: 2007; b: 2009; c: 2012; d: 2013), extracted 15 March 2015
F6 Total R&D Spending	Total intramural R&D expenditure, all sectors (% of GDP)	Eurostat Online Database (data refer to a: 2007; b: 2007, 2009; c: 2012; d: 2012, 2013), extracted 21 May 2015
F7 General Government Gross Debt	General government gross debt (% of GDP)	IMF World Economic Outlook Database (data refer to a: 2008; b: 2010; c: 2012, 2013; d: 2014), extracted 26 May 2015
F8 Old Age Dependency Ratio	Old age dependency ratio (% of working-age population)	Eurostat Online Database (data refer to a: 2008; b: 2010; c: 2013; d: 2014), extracted 21 May 2015

Source: Own representation.

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Table 8a: SJI 2008 raw data

Country	A1	A2	A3	A4	A5	A6	A7	A8	A9	A10	B1	B2	B3	B4	B5
Austria	16.7%	18.5%	15.1%	8.2%	3.3%	3.7%	2.1%	12.0%	14.8%	14.0%	7	5.99	0.4%	10.2%	502.17
Belgium	21.6%	21.6%	25.0%	13.8%	5.7%	7.0%	3.6%	15.2%	16.9%	23.0%	7	7.59	0.7%	12.0%	510.54
Bulgaria*	60.7%	60.8%	71.1%	16.0%	57.6%	58.3%	67.2%	22.0%	29.9%	23.9%		12.47	0.7%	14.8%	416.49
Croatia*								18.0%	16.0%	30.0%		3.31	0.6%	4.4%	479.27
Cyprus*	25.2%	20.8%	55.6%	3.7%	13.3%	11.7%	19.4%	15.5%	12.4%	50.6%			0.3%	13.7%	
Czech Republic	15.8%	21.5%	10.9%	8.6%	7.4%	10.0%	6.5%	9.6%	16.6%	5.5%	7	6.43	0.5%	5.6%	501.81
Denmark	16.8%	14.2%	18.3%	10.1%	3.3%	4.8%	0.8%	11.7%	9.6%	17.7%	7	3.48	0.9%	12.5%	501.13
Estonia*	22.0%	20.1%	35.4%	6.2%	5.6%	4.1%	7.9%	19.4%	18.2%	33.2%		2.21	0.4%	14.0%	515.57
Finland	17.4%	15.1%	23.1%	8.8%	3.6%	3.4%	2.6%	13.0%	10.9%	21.6%	10	2.21	0.3%	9.8%	552.85
France	19.0%	19.6%	15.2%	9.6%	4.7%	5.4%	3.4%	13.1%	15.3%	13.1%	5	7.93	0.6%	11.5%	492.82
Germany	20.6%	19.7%	16.8%	11.5%	4.8%	5.4%	2.2%	15.2%	14.1%	16.2%	7	7.51	0.5%	11.8%	504.79
Greece	28.3%	28.2%	30.6%	8.1%	11.5%	9.7%	17.4%	20.3%	23.3%	22.9%	2	3.67	0.1%	14.4%	464.10
Hungary	29.4%	34.1%	21.1%	11.3%	19.9%	24.4%	17.2%	12.3%	18.8%	6.1%	5	8.71	1.0%	11.7%	492.41
Ireland	23.1%	26.2%	28.7%	14.3%	4.5%	7.6%	1.2%	17.2%	19.2%	28.3%	7	4.63	0.0%	11.4%	509.04
Italy	26.0%	29.3%	25.3%	10.0%	6.8%	7.9%	6.3%	19.8%	25.4%	21.9%	5	2.25	0.5%	19.6%	468.54
Latvia*	35.1%	32.8%	51.4%	6.2%	24.0%	20.5%	35.8%	21.2%	19.8%	35.6%		2.90	0.7%	15.5%	485.07
Lithuania*	28.7%	29.9%	39.1%	6.4%	16.6%	15.9%	20.8%	19.1%	22.1%	29.8%		5.43	0.6%	7.5%	481.48
Luxembourg	15.9%	21.2%	7.2%	5.0%	0.8%	0.7%	0.6%	13.5%	19.9%	7.2%	3	8.48	0.5%	13.4%	485.23
Malta*	19.7%	23.9%	22.8%	9.6%	4.4%	6.4%	3.1%	15.1%	19.8%	20.3%			1.0%	27.2%	
Netherlands	15.7%	17.2%	9.8%	9.7%	1.7%	1.9%	0.7%	10.2%	14.0%	9.5%	8	5.47	0.4%	11.4%	520.75
Poland	34.4%	37.1%	27.3%	10.1%	22.3%	22.5%	23.7%	17.3%	24.2%	7.8%	4	5.57	0.5%	5.0%	500.29
Portugal	25.0%	26.9%	30.0%	7.2%	9.6%	11.8%	10.7%	18.1%	20.9%	25.5%	5	5.85	0.5%	34.9%	470.92
Romania*	45.9%	50.5%	57.7%	8.4%	36.5%	40.4%	48.9%	24.8%	32.8%	30.6%		3.49	0.7%	15.9%	409.70
Slovakia	21.3%	25.8%	22.0%	6.4%	13.7%	16.3%	17.7%	10.6%	17.0%	9.6%	4	6.63	0.5%	6.0%	482.30
Slovenia*	17.1%	14.7%	22.4%	7.3%	5.1%	4.4%	6.6%	11.5%	11.3%	19.4%		5.91	0.5%	5.1%	505.89
Spain	23.3%	28.6%	27.8%	6.8%	3.5%	4.4%	3.6%	19.7%	26.2%	26.1%	5	2.82	0.6%	31.7%	476.40
Sweden	13.9%	14.9%	10.4%	6.0%	2.2%	3.2%	0.6%	10.5%	12.0%	9.9%	7	3.05	0.6%	7.9%	504.33
United Kingdom	22.6%	27.6%	27.9%	10.4%	4.2%	6.3%	1.9%	18.6%	23.0%	26.5%	6	5.25	0.4%	17.0%	501.77

*Countries not surveyed in SGI 2009.

Source: Own representation.

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Table 8b: SJI 2008 raw data

Country	C1	C2	C3	C4	C5	C6	C7	C8	C9	C10	C11
Austria	70.8%	38.8%	0.88	0.84	4.2%	1.0%	8.5%	8.6%	12.6%	5.3%	29.9%
Belgium	62.4%	34.5%	0.85	0.82	7.0%	3.3%	18.0%	12.5%	78.6%	3.5%	14.5%
Bulgaria*	64.0%	46.0%	0.88	0.87	5.7%	2.9%	12.7%	14.9%	63.6%	5.1%	26.1%
Croatia*	60.0%	37.1%	0.96	0.78	8.7%	5.3%	23.7%	10.9%	51.1%		
Cyprus*	70.9%	54.8%	1.03	0.79	3.8%	0.5%	9.0%	5.2%	90.9%	5.7%	33.9%
Czech Republic	66.6%	47.6%	1.00	0.76	4.4%	2.2%	9.9%	19.4%	67.7%	3.2%	39.1%
Denmark	77.9%	58.4%	0.86	0.91	3.5%	0.5%	8.0%	5.5%	38.9%	3.7%	17.8%
Estonia*	70.1%	62.3%	1.08	0.90	5.6%	1.7%	12.0%	12.2%	32.2%	7.2%	40.0%
Finland	71.1%	56.5%	0.92	0.94	6.4%	1.2%	16.5%	12.8%	61.9%	3.4%	8.2%
France	64.8%	38.2%	0.91	0.87	7.4%	2.8%	18.6%	11.8%	55.9%	5.3%	14.5%
Germany	70.1%	53.7%	0.86	0.85	7.6%	3.9%	10.6%	15.6%	24.0%	6.1%	38.5%
Greece	61.4%	43.0%	1.10	0.65	7.9%	3.7%	21.9%	7.7%	82.2%	12.9%	20.7%
Hungary	56.4%	30.9%	1.15	0.80	7.9%	3.6%	19.5%	19.2%	60.1%	5.1%	36.7%
Ireland	67.4%	53.9%	1.05	0.81	6.5%	1.7%	13.3%	10.5%	34.3%	3.8%	32.0%
Italy	58.6%	34.3%	1.12	0.67	6.8%	3.1%	21.2%	8.5%	64.8%	9.1%	16.1%
Latvia*	68.2%	59.1%	1.04	0.91	8.0%	1.9%	13.6%	15.4%	66.7%	8.0%	45.8%
Lithuania*	64.4%	53.0%	1.10	0.92	5.9%	1.3%	13.3%	13.4%	56.8%	6.9%	44.2%
Luxembourg	63.4%	34.1%	1.16	0.77	5.1%	1.6%	17.9%	6.6%	48.1%	8.7%	26.8%
Malta*	55.5%	30.1%	1.10	0.52	6.0%	2.5%	11.7%	8.2%	50.3%	4.1%	22.0%
Netherlands	77.2%	53.0%	0.86	0.85	2.7%	1.3%	5.3%	4.6%	35.5%	4.3%	36.5%
Poland	59.2%	31.6%	0.73	0.79	7.2%	2.4%	17.3%	12.8%	71.0%	10.7%	39.3%
Portugal	68.0%	50.7%	1.09	0.85	8.0%	4.1%	16.7%	8.3%	81.8%	7.7%	30.8%
Romania*	59.0%	43.1%	1.06	0.80	6.1%	2.3%	18.6%	8.6%	79.2%	15.0%	43.9%
Slovakia	62.3%	39.2%	1.09	0.78	9.5%	6.7%	19.0%	39.6%	74.0%	4.5%	52.2%
Slovenia*	68.6%	32.8%	1.00	0.88	4.5%	1.9%	10.4%	6.6%	44.8%	4.0%	39.3%
Spain	64.5%	45.5%	1.04	0.76	11.3%	2.0%	24.5%	15.4%	87.2%	9.7%	18.0%
Sweden	74.3%	70.1%	0.84	0.94	6.3%	0.8%	20.2%	13.2%	54.3%	5.8%	3.1%
United Kingdom	71.5%	58.0%	0.94	0.85	5.7%	1.4%	15.0%	10.3%	50.4%	5.8%	46.0%

* Countries not surveyed in SGI 2009.

Source: Own representation.

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Table 8c: SJI 2008 raw data

Country	D1	D2	D3	D4	D5	D6	E1	E2	E3	E4	E5
Austria	8	26.2%	7	27.3%	6	9.2%	9	0.6%	60.09	79.25	80.80
Belgium	8	26.3%	8	35.3%	7	15.1%	9	0.3%	63.70	87.58	52.40
Bulgaria*		35.3%		21.7%		21.6%		18.2%	70.59	52.58	42.80
Croatia*		29.0%		20.9%		13.7%				48.25	47.60
Cyprus*		29.8%		14.3%		13.3%		3.6%	62.95	55.00	57.20
Czech Republic	8	25.3%	6	15.5%	5	10.4%	7	0.7%	62.37	67.42	71.60
Denmark	9	25.2%	7	38.0%	7	6.2%	9	0.3%	67.40	69.00	85.60
Estonia*		33.4%		20.8%		11.9%		8.9%	52.53	67.42	57.20
Finland	9	26.2%	9	41.5%	7	10.5%	8	0.5%	57.41	64.33	85.60
France	6	26.6%	7	18.2%	6	15.3%	8	1.4%	63.63	69.25	76.00
Germany	7	30.4%	8	32.2%	6	12.9%	7	3.5%	58.80	80.08	76.00
Greece	3	34.3%	6	14.7%	5	15.8%	4	5.4%	66.81	55.58	71.60
Hungary	5	25.6%	6	11.1%	5	17.1%	5	2.6%	56.52	70.67	52.40
Ireland	7	31.3%	9	13.3%	7	18.2%	7	2.3%	64.25	57.42	76.00
Italy	5	32.2%	7	21.3%	5	21.6%	7	4.7%	62.99	63.33	76.00
Latvia*		35.4%		20.0%		15.7%		12.3%	53.24	50.08	57.20
Lithuania*		33.8%		17.7%		14.9%		7.1%	55.87	52.33	47.60
Luxembourg	9	27.4%	7	23.3%	8	10.0%	9	0.5%	63.46	91.08	76.00
Malta*		26.3%		8.7%		7.3%		0.8%	70.16	57.42	47.60
Netherlands	9	27.6%	9	41.3%	7	5.0%	8	0.4%	65.19	83.25	85.60
Poland	5	32.2%	5	20.2%	4	14.9%	4	7.0%	59.62	54.42	52.40
Portugal	4	36.8%	8	28.3%	9	13.2%	6	9.8%	58.19	50.67	52.40
Romania*		37.8%		11.4%		13.8%		12.3%	61.53	62.33	28.40
Slovakia	7	24.5%	6	19.3%	4	16.1%	6	1.4%	55.86	63.92	38.00
Slovenia*		23.2%		13.3%		8.7%		0.2%	60.53	50.67	66.80
Spain	5	31.9%	8	36.3%	7	16.6%	7	0.1%	63.35	62.25	71.60
Sweden	9	23.4%	8	47.0%	7	11.7%	9	3.1%	67.25	61.67	95.20
United Kingdom	6	32.6%	9	19.5%	8	16.1%	7	1.4%	65.31	62.25	62.00

*Countries not surveyed in SGI 2009.

Source: Own representation.

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Table 8d: SJI 2008 raw data

Country	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7	F8
Austria	6	8	8	10.65	27.5%	2.4%	68.5%	25.4%
Belgium	9	7	7	13.05	3.4%	1.8%	92.2%	25.8%
Bulgaria*				7.39	9.2%	0.4%	15.0%	25.8%
Croatia*				5.29	12.1%	0.8%	36.0%	26.7%
Cyprus*				13.35	4.0%	0.4%	44.7%	17.9%
Czech Republic	7	7	7	14.07	7.4%	1.3%	27.5%	20.6%
Denmark	9	9	8	14.26	17.8%	2.5%	33.4%	23.6%
Estonia*				8.15	17.1%	1.1%	4.5%	25.8%
Finland	9	9	7	9.02	29.6%	3.4%	32.5%	24.8%
France	9	6	7	7.95	10.3%	2.0%	67.9%	25.2%
Germany	7	7	8	12.27	9.0%	2.5%	64.9%	30.4%
Greece	3	2	3	11.62	8.2%	0.6%	108.8%	27.9%
Hungary	5	5	6	7.39	5.9%	1.0%	71.9%	23.5%
Ireland	7	8	5	16.13	3.6%	1.2%	42.6%	15.6%
Italy	4	4	4	9.18	6.4%	1.1%	102.3%	30.7%
Latvia*				-1.66	29.6%	0.6%	16.1%	25.7%
Lithuania*				5.73	16.7%	0.8%	15.4%	25.2%
Luxembourg	6	8	6	27.00	2.7%	1.7%	14.4%	20.6%
Malta*				7.34	0.2%	0.6%	62.7%	19.9%
Netherlands	9	9	6	12.72	3.1%	1.7%	54.7%	21.8%
Poland	4	7	6	9.23	6.9%	0.6%	47.0%	18.9%
Portugal	5	5	5	6.93	21.9%	1.1%	71.7%	26.6%
Romania*				5.59	18.3%	0.5%	13.4%	22.6%
Slovakia	5	9	4	8.04	7.6%	0.5%	28.2%	16.8%
Slovenia*				7.65	15.6%	1.4%	21.6%	23.3%
Spain	5	5	4	8.89	9.7%	1.2%	39.4%	23.8%
Sweden	10	9	8	3.50	44.1%	3.3%	36.7%	26.7%
United Kingdom	7	7	7	11.12	1.8%	1.7%	51.8%	24.0%

*Countries not surveyed in SGI 2009.

Source: Own representation.

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Table 9a: SJI 2011 raw data

Country	A1	A2	A3	A4	A5	A6	A7	A8	A9	A10	B1	B2	B3	B4	B5
Austria	19.1%	20.8%	18.6%	7.1%	4.6%	5.0%	2.8%	14.5%	17.1%	17.4%	7	7.97	0.5%	8.3%	486.84
Belgium	20.2%	20.5%	23.1%	12.3%	5.2%	6.5%	3.1%	14.6%	16.6%	21.6%	7	9.07	0.8%	11.9%	509.26
Bulgaria*	46.2%	47.3%	66.0%	6.9%	41.9%	43.6%	58.4%	21.8%	24.9%	39.3%		10.30	0.9%	13.9%	432.15
Croatia*								17.9%	18.7%	31.3%		3.52	0.6%	5.2%	474.02
Cyprus*	23.5%	20.2%	48.6%	4.0%	9.5%	9.3%	9.5%	15.8%	12.3%	46.4%			0.4%	12.7%	
Czech Republic	14.0%	17.2%	11.7%	6.0%	6.1%	7.4%	5.7%	8.6%	13.3%	7.2%	7	5.70	0.5%	4.9%	490.50
Denmark	17.6%	14.0%	20.6%	8.8%	2.3%	2.1%	0.9%	13.1%	10.6%	20.1%	7	5.22	0.9%	11.0%	499.18
Estonia*	23.4%	24.5%	35.6%	5.6%	6.2%	7.0%	5.6%	19.7%	20.6%	33.9%		2.20	0.6%	11.0%	513.63
Finland	16.9%	14.0%	23.1%	8.4%	2.8%	2.5%	2.2%	13.8%	12.1%	22.1%	10	2.42	0.4%	10.3%	543.49
France	18.5%	21.2%	13.4%	8.4%	5.6%	6.5%	3.2%	12.9%	16.8%	11.9%	5	8.52	0.6%	12.5%	496.88
Germany	20.0%	20.4%	16.0%	10.9%	5.4%	7.1%	2.5%	15.5%	15.0%	15.0%	7	7.88	0.5%	11.9%	510.16
Greece	27.6%	30.0%	26.8%	6.6%	11.0%	12.2%	12.1%	19.7%	23.7%	21.4%	2	4.25	0.1%	13.5%	473.00
Hungary	29.6%	37.2%	17.5%	11.3%	20.3%	25.5%	14.6%	12.4%	20.6%	4.6%	5	12.48	1.0%	10.8%	495.66
Ireland	25.7%	31.4%	17.9%	20.0%	6.1%	8.4%	2.6%	15.0%	18.8%	16.2%	7	4.91	0.0%	11.5%	496.92
Italy	24.7%	28.8%	22.8%	8.8%	7.0%	8.3%	5.7%	18.4%	24.4%	19.6%	5	3.78	0.5%	18.6%	485.93
Latvia*	37.9%	38.4%	55.5%	7.4%	22.1%	24.6%	25.3%	26.4%	26.3%	47.6%		2.99	0.9%	12.9%	486.60
Lithuania*	29.6%	30.8%	35.3%	7.2%	15.6%	15.8%	18.8%	20.3%	23.3%	23.9%		4.49	0.5%	7.9%	478.82
Luxembourg	17.8%	23.7%	6.2%	6.3%	1.1%	1.2%	0.2%	14.9%	22.3%	6.0%	3	7.20	0.5%	7.1%	481.72
Malta*	20.3%	26.5%	22.2%	9.2%	5.0%	7.2%	4.1%	14.9%	21.2%	19.7%			0.4%	23.8%	
Netherlands	15.1%	17.5%	8.1%	8.5%	1.4%	1.5%	0.4%	11.1%	15.4%	7.7%	8	4.74	0.4%	10.0%	518.82
Poland	27.8%	31.0%	25.8%	6.9%	15.0%	15.3%	17.3%	17.1%	23.0%	14.4%	4	5.77	0.6%	5.4%	501.12
Portugal	24.9%	28.7%	26.0%	7.0%	9.1%	10.5%	10.6%	17.9%	22.9%	20.1%	5	4.95	0.5%	28.3%	489.72
Romania*	43.1%	52.0%	43.1%	7.7%	32.2%	40.3%	33.8%	22.4%	32.9%	21.0%		4.90	0.8%	19.3%	426.57
Slovakia	19.6%	23.7%	19.7%	5.6%	11.1%	12.7%	11.7%	11.0%	16.8%	10.8%	4	5.99	0.5%	4.7%	488.13
Slovenia*	17.1%	15.1%	23.3%	5.6%	6.1%	5.4%	6.5%	11.3%	11.2%	20.0%		5.58	0.5%	5.0%	498.77
Spain	24.7%	32.0%	24.9%	7.6%	4.5%	6.7%	2.3%	20.4%	29.0%	23.8%	5	3.94	0.6%	28.2%	484.26
Sweden	15.9%	15.1%	18.0%	6.4%	1.6%	1.7%	0.5%	13.3%	13.1%	17.7%	7	5.76	0.7%	6.5%	495.60
United Kingdom	22.0%	27.4%	23.1%	12.7%	3.3%	4.4%	1.2%	17.3%	20.7%	22.3%	6	6.03	0.3%	14.8%	500.10

*Countries not surveyed in SGI 2011.

Source: Own representation.

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Table 9b: SJI 2011 raw data

Country	C1	C2	C3	C4	C5	C6	C7	C8	C9	C10	C11
Austria	70.8%	41.2%	0.90	0.86	4.9%	1.2%	9.5%	9.4%	8.7%	6.6%	35.2%
Belgium	62.0%	37.3%	0.83	0.84	8.4%	4.1%	22.4%	15.4%	74.5%	3.8%	13.0%
Bulgaria*	59.7%	43.5%	0.83	0.90	10.3%	4.8%	23.2%	23.1%	73.3%	6.2%	40.7%
Croatia*	57.4%	39.1%	0.94	0.83	11.9%	6.6%	32.4%	14.0%	47.3%		35.5%
Cyprus*	68.9%	56.3%	1.05	0.84	6.5%	1.3%	16.6%	7.6%	93.9%	6.0%	33.9%
Czech Republic	65.0%	46.5%	1.05	0.77	7.4%	3.0%	18.3%	25.3%	75.2%	2.9%	40.9%
Denmark	73.3%	58.4%	0.85	0.94	7.6%	1.5%	14.0%	11.3%	47.6%	5.2%	14.8%
Estonia*	61.2%	53.8%	0.97	0.99	17.1%	7.6%	32.9%	31.9%	43.1%	6.9%	44.1%
Finland	68.1%	56.2%	0.88	0.96	8.5%	2.0%	21.4%	16.7%	65.1%	2.9%	11.5%
France	63.9%	39.7%	0.89	0.88	9.3%	3.7%	22.9%	15.3%	57.4%	5.3%	11.9%
Germany	71.1%	57.7%	0.88	0.87	7.2%	3.3%	9.9%	15.1%	21.7%	5.1%	54.6%
Greece	59.1%	42.4%	1.09	0.68	12.9%	5.7%	33.0%	13.0%	84.6%	12.5%	18.3%
Hungary	54.9%	33.6%	1.19	0.84	11.3%	5.5%	26.4%	25.4%	69.8%	5.2%	40.8%
Ireland	59.6%	50.2%	0.99	0.88	14.1%	6.8%	27.6%	22.2%	34.3%	4.2%	30.9%
Italy	56.8%	36.5%	1.10	0.68	8.5%	4.1%	27.9%	10.5%	67.9%	9.0%	20.9%
Latvia*	58.5%	47.8%	1.02	1.02	19.8%	8.8%	36.2%	33.7%	72.3%	9.3%	42.6%
Lithuania*	57.6%	48.3%	1.08	1.04	18.1%	7.4%	35.7%	41.3%	71.5%	8.9%	44.1%
Luxembourg	65.2%	39.6%	1.16	0.78	4.4%	1.3%	14.2%	6.1%	41.4%	9.0%	33.7%
Malta*	56.2%	31.9%	1.08	0.54	6.9%	3.1%	13.2%	9.7%	53.1%	5.0%	29.5%
Netherlands	74.7%	53.7%	0.84	0.87	4.5%	1.4%	8.7%	7.4%	31.9%	4.0%	37.1%
Poland	58.9%	34.1%	0.86	0.81	9.7%	3.0%	23.7%	18.3%	74.1%	10.0%	44.9%
Portugal	65.3%	49.5%	1.06	0.87	11.4%	6.3%	22.8%	12.5%	84.1%	8.5%	25.3%
Romania*	60.2%	40.7%	1.30	0.77	7.3%	2.4%	22.1%	6.9%	79.7%	13.8%	49.4%
Slovakia	58.8%	40.5%	0.96	0.80	14.4%	9.3%	33.6%	44.3%	76.1%	4.8%	51.5%
Slovenia*	66.2%	35.0%	0.98	0.90	7.4%	3.2%	14.7%	12.5%	51.8%	4.3%	40.0%
Spain	58.8%	43.5%	0.97	0.81	20.0%	7.3%	41.5%	27.3%	91.3%	9.6%	22.4%
Sweden	72.1%	70.4%	0.82	0.93	8.8%	1.6%	24.8%	17.6%	59.1%	6.2%	4.2%
United Kingdom	69.4%	57.2%	0.94	0.87	7.9%	2.5%	19.9%	14.3%	50.4%	4.9%	34.6%

*Countries not surveyed in SGI 2011.

Source: Own representation.

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Table 9c: SJI 2011 raw data

Country	D1	D2	D3	D4	D5	D6	E1	E2	E3	E4	E5
Austria	8	27.5%	6	27.9%	4	9.6%	8	0.5%	60.17	78.92	76.00
Belgium	8	26.4%	8	39.3%	6	16.2%	9	0.6%	63.80	92.08	62.00
Bulgaria*		33.4%		20.8%		28.1%		10.3%	64.05	49.00	38.00
Croatia*		27.0%		23.5%		20.3%				61.00	57.20
Cyprus*		29.5%		12.5%		16.2%		3.4%	65.06	73.33	62.00
Czech Republic	7	25.1%	6	22.0%	5	13.3%	7	0.6%	61.91	73.58	76.00
Denmark	9	26.9%	7	38.0%	7	8.5%	9	1.5%	61.09	70.33	80.80
Estonia*		31.4%		22.8%		20.8%		4.3%	57.25	63.33	57.20
Finland	8	25.9%	9	40.0%	7	13.3%	8	3.7%	58.40	63.58	90.40
France	6	29.9%	6	18.9%	6	18.2%	7	1.9%	63.16	81.25	80.80
Germany	7	29.1%	8	32.8%	6	12.4%	7	2.1%	57.61	80.08	85.60
Greece	4	33.1%	6	17.3%	5	21.4%	5	5.5%	66.46	63.08	76.00
Hungary	5	24.7%	6	9.1%	5	19.9%	4	2.1%	57.11	65.42	47.60
Ireland	8	28.8%	9	13.9%	7	26.1%	6	2.0%	64.55	81.25	80.80
Italy	5	31.5%	7	21.3%	4	25.9%	7	5.3%	62.99	61.00	85.60
Latvia*		37.5%		20.0%		25.9%		9.6%	54.44	56.33	52.40
Lithuania*		35.9%		19.1%		22.2%		3.1%	59.35	53.67	52.40
Luxembourg	9	29.2%	8	20.0%	9	7.2%	8	0.6%	65.50	88.58	80.80
Malta*		27.4%		8.7%		10.0%		1.3%	70.20	63.33	52.40
Netherlands	8	27.2%	9	40.7%	8	6.4%	7	0.3%	60.89	79.75	90.40
Poland	5	31.4%	7	20.0%	4	17.2%	5	7.6%	60.47	55.42	52.40
Portugal	4	35.4%	7	27.4%	8	15.9%	7	3.3%	57.31	55.67	52.40
Romania*		34.9%		11.4%		22.0%		8.5%	60.77	53.67	42.80
Slovakia	5	24.8%	4	15.3%	4	21.7%	5	1.7%	52.50	61.92	38.00
Slovenia*		22.7%		14.4%		9.8%		0.2%	61.06	65.67	62.00
Spain	5	32.9%	8	36.6%	6	23.2%	7	0.5%	62.59	58.92	71.60
Sweden	9	24.8%	9	45.0%	7	11.5%	9	2.0%	70.15	68.58	100.00
United Kingdom	7	32.4%	8	22.0%	8	18.5%	7	1.2%	65.56	60.33	71.60

*Countries not surveyed in SGI 2011.

Source: Own representation.

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Table 9d: SJI 2011 raw data

Country	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7	F8
Austria	6	6	6	10.47	30.3%	2.6%	82.4%	26.2%
Belgium	9	6	6	12.62	5.2%	2.0%	99.6%	26.0%
Bulgaria*				7.83	12.2%	0.5%	14.6%	26.5%
Croatia*				5.42	13.1%	0.8%	52.8%	26.7%
Cyprus*				13.56	5.6%	0.5%	56.5%	17.8%
Czech Republic	6	7	7	13.32	8.5%	1.3%	36.8%	21.7%
Denmark	9	9	8	11.38	20.0%	3.1%	42.9%	24.9%
Estonia*				9.26	23.0%	1.4%	6.5%	25.9%
Finland	9	9	8	7.77	31.5%	3.8%	46.6%	25.6%
France	10	5	6	7.64	12.3%	2.2%	81.5%	25.6%
Germany	7	7	8	11.82	9.9%	2.7%	80.3%	31.4%
Greece	4	2	3	11.44	8.5%	0.6%	145.7%	28.4%
Hungary	5	7	7	6.83	8.0%	1.1%	80.9%	24.2%
Ireland	7	6	6	14.33	5.1%	1.6%	87.4%	16.5%
Italy	4	5	5	8.78	9.1%	1.2%	115.3%	31.2%
Latvia*				-2.20	34.3%	0.5%	39.8%	26.8%
Lithuania*				5.10	20.0%	0.8%	36.3%	25.6%
Luxembourg	9	8	7	24.39	2.9%	1.7%	19.6%	20.4%
Malta*				7.48	0.2%	0.5%	67.6%	21.4%
Netherlands	8	8	5	12.53	4.1%	1.7%	59.0%	22.8%
Poland	6	7	6	9.84	8.7%	0.7%	53.6%	19.1%
Portugal	5	4	6	6.05	24.4%	1.6%	96.2%	27.5%
Romania*				5.69	22.7%	0.5%	30.5%	23.7%
Slovakia	5	7	4	8.06	9.3%	0.5%	41.1%	17.3%
Slovenia*				8.43	19.0%	1.8%	37.9%	23.8%
Spain	5	5	5	7.98	13.0%	1.4%	60.1%	24.6%
Sweden	10	9	8	2.95	48.2%	3.4%	36.7%	27.7%
United Kingdom	8	8	7	10.41	3.0%	1.8%	76.4%	24.6%

*Countries not surveyed in SGI 2011.

Source: Own representation.

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Table 10a: SJI 2014 raw data

Country	A1	A2	A3	A4	A5	A6	A7	A8	A9	A10	B1	B2	B3	B4	B5
Austria	18.5%	20.9%	16.2%	7.7%	4.2%	6.4%	1.8%	14.4%	17.5%	15.1%	5	6.42	0.6%	7.5%	500.31
Belgium	21.6%	22.8%	21.2%	13.9%	5.1%	5.5%	2.0%	15.3%	17.3%	19.4%	6	6.30	0.8%	11.0%	509.77
Bulgaria	49.3%	52.3%	59.1%	12.5%	43.0%	46.3%	50.7%	21.2%	28.2%	28.2%	4	11.52	0.9%	12.5%	440.44
Croatia	32.6%	34.8%	33.1%	16.8%	14.7%	13.7%	16.9%	20.4%	23.3%	25.6%	6	3.75	0.7%	4.5%	482.35
Cyprus	27.1%	27.5%	33.4%	6.5%	16.1%	18.7%	9.0%	14.7%	13.9%	29.3%	7	2.83	0.4%	9.1%	442.11
Czech Republic	15.4%	18.8%	10.8%	6.8%	6.6%	7.3%	5.3%	9.6%	13.9%	6.0%	6	6.76	0.7%	5.4%	500.05
Denmark	19.0%	15.3%	14.6%	11.3%	3.8%	3.9%	1.0%	13.1%	10.2%	14.1%	6	5.99	1.6%	8.0%	498.21
Estonia	23.4%	22.4%	21.8%	9.1%	7.6%	7.0%	6.3%	17.5%	17.0%	17.2%	9	1.76	0.4%	9.7%	526.08
Finland	17.2%	14.9%	19.5%	9.3%	2.5%	1.8%	1.1%	13.2%	11.1%	18.4%	9	2.47	0.4%	9.3%	529.40
France	19.1%	23.2%	11.1%	8.4%	5.1%	6.0%	2.7%	14.1%	19.0%	9.4%	6	10.90	0.7%	9.7%	499.81
Germany	19.6%	18.4%	15.8%	9.9%	5.4%	5.6%	3.2%	16.1%	15.2%	15.0%	6	5.61	0.6%	9.8%	515.11
Greece	34.6%	35.4%	23.5%	14.2%	20.3%	23.3%	13.7%	23.1%	26.9%	17.2%	3	4.06	0.1%	10.1%	465.63
Hungary	32.4%	40.9%	20.6%	12.8%	26.8%	35.0%	16.7%	14.0%	22.6%	6.0%	4	8.47	0.9%	11.9%	486.60
Ireland	30.0%	33.1%	14.7%	23.4%	9.9%	13.4%	3.6%	15.7%	18.0%	12.2%	6	5.89	0.1%	8.4%	484.49
Italy	29.9%	33.8%	25.2%	10.3%	12.4%	13.7%	10.7%	19.4%	26.0%	16.3%	4	2.98	0.4%	16.8%	515.56
Latvia	36.2%	40.0%	33.7%	11.7%	24.0%	25.4%	26.6%	19.2%	24.4%	13.9%	5	5.00	0.8%	9.8%	489.54
Lithuania	32.5%	31.9%	35.7%	11.4%	16.0%	18.5%	18.4%	18.6%	20.8%	18.7%	7	3.56	0.7%	6.3%	493.82
Luxembourg	18.4%	24.6%	6.1%	6.1%	1.8%	2.4%	0.9%	15.1%	22.6%	6.1%	4	5.82	0.8%	6.1%	483.94
Malta	23.1%	31.0%	22.3%	9.0%	9.5%	11.8%	7.1%	15.1%	23.1%	17.3%	5	5.62	0.4%	20.5%	489.62
Netherlands	15.0%	16.9%	6.2%	8.9%	2.5%	2.3%	0.8%	10.1%	13.2%	5.5%	6	4.17	0.4%	9.2%	518.75
Poland	26.7%	29.3%	23.4%	6.9%	11.9%	11.8%	11.5%	17.1%	21.5%	14.0%	6	4.77	0.5%	5.6%	520.50
Portugal	25.3%	27.8%	22.2%	10.1%	10.9%	13.9%	9.0%	17.9%	21.8%	17.4%	4	5.18	0.5%	18.9%	488.03
Romania	41.7%	52.2%	35.7%	7.4%	28.5%	34.1%	27.5%	22.6%	34.6%	15.4%	4	6.33	0.7%	17.3%	440.31
Slovakia	20.5%	26.6%	16.3%	7.2%	10.2%	13.0%	9.2%	13.2%	21.9%	7.8%	4	13.39	0.5%	6.4%	471.87
Slovenia	19.6%	16.4%	22.8%	7.5%	6.7%	6.0%	6.7%	13.5%	13.5%	19.6%	7	5.62	0.7%	3.9%	498.86
Spain	27.2%	32.4%	16.5%	14.3%	6.2%	8.3%	2.7%	20.8%	27.9%	14.8%	5	3.92	0.7%	23.6%	489.57
Sweden	15.6%	15.4%	17.9%	5.7%	1.4%	1.9%	0.2%	14.1%	14.6%	17.7%	8	3.45	0.7%	7.1%	482.13
United Kingdom	24.1%	31.2%	17.3%	13.0%	8.3%	12.3%	2.1%	16.0%	18.0%	16.4%	7	4.75	0.3%	12.3%	502.46

Source: Own representation.

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Table 10b: SJI 2014 raw data

Country	C1	C2	C3	C4	C5	C6	C7	C8	C9	C10	C11
Austria	71.4%	43.8%	0.90	0.88	5.4%	1.3%	9.7%	10.6%	8.2%	6.4%	35.2%
Belgium	61.8%	41.7%	0.83	0.86	8.5%	3.9%	23.7%	16.0%	78.0%	3.4%	13.0%
Bulgaria	59.5%	47.4%	0.96	0.91	13.0%	7.4%	28.4%	30.3%	70.9%	6.6%	40.7%
Croatia	52.5%	37.8%	0.89	0.86	17.5%	11.0%	50.0%	22.7%	49.9%	5.6%	35.5%
Cyprus	61.7%	49.6%	1.09	0.85	16.1%	6.1%	38.9%	20.2%	95.2%	6.9%	33.9%
Czech Republic	67.7%	51.6%	1.03	0.79	7.0%	3.0%	19.0%	26.0%	82.4%	4.2%	40.9%
Denmark	72.5%	61.7%	0.85	0.93	7.2%	1.8%	13.1%	11.4%	50.6%	4.6%	14.8%
Estonia	68.5%	62.6%	1.00	0.92	8.9%	3.8%	18.7%	15.7%	34.8%	7.1%	44.1%
Finland	68.9%	58.5%	0.92	0.97	8.3%	1.7%	19.9%	17.8%	66.8%	3.0%	11.5%
France	64.1%	45.6%	0.87	0.89	9.9%	4.1%	24.0%	16.4%	60.6%	6.6%	11.9%
Germany	73.5%	63.6%	0.92	0.88	5.3%	2.3%	7.8%	12.0%	21.7%	5.7%	54.6%
Greece	48.8%	35.6%	0.97	0.69	27.7%	18.5%	58.3%	30.2%	87.8%	13.4%	18.3%
Hungary	58.1%	37.9%	1.17	0.83	10.2%	4.9%	26.6%	23.8%	73.4%	4.4%	40.8%
Ireland	60.5%	51.3%	1.00	0.86	13.3%	7.9%	26.8%	22.2%	65.3%	3.3%	30.9%
Italy	55.5%	42.7%	1.05	0.72	12.3%	6.9%	40.0%	16.2%	73.4%	9.5%	20.9%
Latvia	65.0%	54.8%	0.95	0.95	12.1%	5.8%	23.2%	25.7%	69.1%	7.1%	42.6%
Lithuania	63.7%	53.4%	1.08	0.97	12.0%	5.1%	21.9%	33.9%	64.5%	5.8%	44.1%
Luxembourg	65.7%	40.5%	1.19	0.82	5.9%	1.8%	15.5%	10.3%	53.1%	9.0%	33.7%
Malta	60.8%	36.3%	1.01	0.63	6.5%	2.9%	13.0%	10.0%	51.6%	4.4%	29.5%
Netherlands	73.6%	59.2%	0.81	0.88	7.3%	2.6%	13.2%	11.5%	40.7%	4.1%	37.1%
Poland	60.0%	40.6%	0.99	0.80	10.5%	4.4%	27.3%	21.3%	66.8%	9.6%	44.9%
Portugal	60.6%	46.9%	1.04	0.91	17.0%	9.3%	38.1%	18.4%	86.1%	8.5%	25.3%
Romania	60.1%	41.8%	0.99	0.78	7.4%	3.2%	23.7%	7.9%	87.7%	15.9%	49.4%
Slovakia	59.9%	44.0%	1.11	0.80	14.3%	10.0%	33.7%	42.6%	86.9%	5.8%	51.5%
Slovenia	63.3%	33.5%	0.95	0.88	10.3%	5.2%	21.6%	18.8%	55.9%	5.6%	40.0%
Spain	54.8%	43.2%	0.91	0.85	26.2%	13.0%	55.5%	35.5%	91.7%	8.7%	22.4%
Sweden	74.4%	73.6%	0.81	0.95	8.2%	1.5%	23.5%	19.5%	58.6%	5.1%	4.2%
United Kingdom	70.5%	59.8%	0.95	0.87	7.7%	2.7%	20.7%	14.4%	50.4%	6.6%	34.6%

Source: Own representation.

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Table 10c: SJI 2014 raw data

Country	D1	D2	D3	D4	D5	D6	E1	E2	E3	E4	E5
Austria	7	27.6%	6	33.3%	5	9.4%	8	0.3%	61.38	82.11	66.80
Belgium	7	26.5%	7	38.0%	6	18.0%	8	1.7%	64.61	93.67	71.60
Bulgaria	4	33.6%	6	24.6%	4	26.3%	4	8.2%	63.95	55.56	38.00
Croatia	4	30.9%	5	23.8%	3	27.2%	5	3.5%	63.09	68.33	62.00
Cyprus	7	31.0%	8	10.7%	4	28.4%	7	3.5%	63.71	55.67	62.00
Czech Republic	6	24.9%	6	19.5%	5	13.7%	8	1.0%	63.22	74.22	71.60
Denmark	8	28.1%	8	39.1%	7	8.7%	8	1.2%	61.00	82.22	85.60
Estonia	6	32.5%	7	20.8%	7	16.2%	8	8.3%	55.29	63.11	62.00
Finland	8	25.9%	8	42.5%	8	13.1%	8	4.6%	56.74	69.44	90.40
France	7	30.5%	6	26.9%	6	15.9%	7	2.2%	63.22	79.44	76.00
Germany	7	28.3%	8	36.5%	8	9.5%	8	1.6%	57.65	77.78	80.80
Greece	3	34.3%	4	21.0%	5	31.3%	3	8.0%	64.85	53.67	62.00
Hungary	5	26.9%	5	8.8%	5	22.8%	4	2.8%	59.88	55.67	42.80
Ireland	7	29.9%	9	15.7%	7	22.1%	5	3.4%	67.21	68.33	71.60
Italy	4	31.9%	7	31.4%	5	31.9%	7	5.6%	61.79	55.67	71.60
Latvia	5	35.7%	7	23.0%	5	18.3%	4	12.4%	56.99	45.22	42.80
Lithuania	6	32.0%	7	24.1%	7	18.0%	8	2.3%	59.30	60.33	57.20
Luxembourg	9	28.0%	8	23.3%	8	7.4%	8	0.7%	66.10	88.11	76.00
Malta	6	27.1%	5	14.3%	3	9.7%	7	1.2%	71.85	67.44	47.60
Netherlands	8	25.4%	9	38.7%	8	7.8%	7	0.5%	61.18	91.78	90.40
Poland	7	30.9%	8	23.7%	5	19.4%	5	9.0%	61.01	50.78	47.60
Portugal	5	34.5%	8	28.7%	7	20.6%	6	3.3%	63.51	58.44	66.80
Romania	4	33.2%	5	13.3%	6	22.9%	4	10.7%	57.65	48.78	33.20
Slovakia	5	25.3%	5	18.7%	5	20.4%	5	2.2%	53.25	63.89	57.20
Slovenia	7	23.7%	7	32.2%	4	13.7%	6	0.1%	56.05	57.11	76.00
Spain	5	34.2%	7	36.0%	6	26.3%	6	0.7%	65.31	66.78	71.60
Sweden	9	24.8%	9	44.7%	7	10.3%	8	1.4%	66.25	68.22	90.40
United Kingdom	7	31.3%	8	22.5%	7	18.4%	8	1.4%	64.55	71.44	66.80

Source: Own representation.

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Table 10d: SJI 2014 raw data

Country	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7	F8
Austria	7	6	6	9.07	32.1%	2.8%	81.2%	26.8%
Belgium	8	6	6	10.38	7.4%	2.2%	104.6%	26.8%
Bulgaria	6	6	6	7.24	16.0%	0.6%	17.6%	28.5%
Croatia	5	4	5	4.66	16.8%	0.8%	75.7%	27.1%
Cyprus	4	4	4	10.72	6.8%	0.4%	102.2%	18.8%
Czech Republic	6	8	7	11.82	11.4%	1.8%	43.8%	24.6%
Denmark	9	9	8	9.10	25.6%	3.0%	45.1%	27.6%
Estonia	9	7	9	13.01	25.8%	2.2%	10.1%	27.2%
Finland	9	9	7	6.50	34.5%	3.4%	55.7%	28.9%
France	10	5	6	6.83	13.6%	2.2%	92.4%	27.5%
Germany	7	7	8	11.43	12.1%	2.9%	76.9%	31.3%
Greece	4	4	4	9.76	13.4%	0.7%	174.9%	30.8%
Hungary	4	4	6	5.80	9.5%	1.3%	77.3%	25.1%
Ireland	7	6	7	12.09	7.3%	1.6%	123.3%	18.6%
Italy	4	5	4	7.45	15.4%	1.3%	128.6%	32.7%
Latvia	7	5	9	-0.65	35.8%	0.7%	35.2%	28.1%
Lithuania	8	7	8	4.51	21.7%	0.9%	39.0%	27.2%
Luxembourg	9	7	6	21.72	3.1%	1.2%	23.6%	20.2%
Malta	5	5	4	7.50	2.7%	0.9%	69.2%	25.1%
Netherlands	9	8	5	11.67	4.5%	2.0%	68.6%	25.5%
Poland	7	7	6	9.65	10.9%	0.9%	55.7%	20.4%
Portugal	6	4	5	5.52	25.0%	1.4%	129.7%	29.4%
Romania	5	4	5	4.89	22.8%	0.5%	38.8%	23.9%
Slovakia	5	5	5	6.48	10.4%	0.8%	54.6%	18.4%
Slovenia	8	7	7	7.08	20.2%	2.6%	70.0%	25.0%
Spain	5	6	4	6.56	14.3%	1.3%	92.1%	26.3%
Sweden	10	8	8	2.34	51.1%	3.3%	38.6%	29.9%
United Kingdom	8	8	8	9.07	4.2%	1.6%	87.3%	26.4%

Source: Own representation.

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Table 11a: SJI 2015 raw data

Country	A1	A2	A3	A4	A5	A6	A7	A8	A9	A10	B1	B2	B3	B4	B5
Austria	19.2%	23.3%	15.7%	9.1%	4.0%	6.0%	2.0%	14.1%	18.2%	14.2%	5	6.42	0.6%	7.0%	500.31
Belgium	21.2%	23.2%	17.3%	14.6%	5.9%	6.8%	2.4%	15.5%	18.8%	16.1%	6	6.30	0.8%	9.8%	509.77
Bulgaria	48.0%	51.5%	57.6%	13.0%	33.1%	38.4%	40.3%	21.0%	28.4%	27.9%	4	11.52	0.9%	12.9%	440.44
Croatia	29.9%	29.3%	31.9%	14.8%	14.7%	13.7%	16.9%	19.5%	21.8%	23.4%	6	3.75	0.7%	2.7%	482.35
Cyprus	27.8%	27.7%	26.1%	7.9%	15.3%	15.6%	7.3%	15.3%	15.5%	20.1%	7	2.83	0.4%	6.8%	442.11
Czech Republic	14.6%	16.4%	10.4%	6.9%	6.8%	9.9%	5.1%	8.6%	11.3%	5.8%	6	6.76	0.7%	5.5%	500.05
Denmark	18.9%	15.5%	11.4%	12.9%	3.8%	3.9%	1.0%	12.3%	8.5%	10.6%	6	5.99	1.6%	7.7%	498.21
Estonia	23.5%	22.3%	28.0%	8.4%	6.2%	5.7%	6.4%	18.6%	18.1%	24.4%	9	1.76	0.4%	11.4%	526.08
Finland	17.3%	15.6%	17.0%	10.0%	2.8%	2.0%	1.7%	12.8%	10.9%	16.0%	9	2.47	0.4%	9.5%	529.40
France	18.1%	21.3%	10.4%	7.9%	5.1%	6.0%	2.7%	13.7%	18.0%	8.7%	6	10.90	0.7%	8.5%	499.81
Germany	20.3%	19.4%	16.0%	9.9%	5.4%	5.6%	3.2%	16.1%	14.7%	14.9%	7	5.61	0.6%	9.5%	515.11
Greece	36.0%	36.7%	23.0%	17.2%	21.5%	23.8%	15.5%	22.1%	25.5%	14.9%	4	4.06	0.1%	9.0%	465.63
Hungary	31.1%	41.4%	18.1%	12.2%	23.9%	32.4%	15.8%	14.6%	24.6%	4.2%	3	8.47	0.9%	11.4%	486.60
Ireland	29.5%	33.9%	13.3%	23.9%	9.9%	13.4%	3.6%	14.1%	16.0%	10.1%	6	5.89	0.1%	6.9%	484.49
Italy	28.1%	32.0%	20.8%	12.0%	11.5%	13.6%	9.0%	19.6%	25.2%	14.7%	4	2.98	0.4%	15.0%	515.56
Latvia	32.7%	35.3%	39.3%	9.6%	19.2%	19.9%	22.0%	21.2%	24.3%	27.6%	5	5.00	0.8%	8.5%	489.54
Lithuania	27.7%	29.1%	32.6%	8.8%	14.4%	14.3%	19.3%	19.1%	23.5%	20.1%	7	3.56	0.7%	5.9%	493.82
Luxembourg	19.0%	26.0%	7.0%	6.6%	1.8%	2.4%	0.9%	15.9%	23.9%	6.2%	4	5.82	0.8%	6.1%	483.94
Malta	24.0%	32.0%	20.8%	9.0%	10.2%	13.8%	8.1%	15.7%	24.0%	14.9%	5	5.62	0.4%	20.4%	489.62
Netherlands	15.9%	17.0%	6.1%	9.3%	2.5%	2.3%	0.8%	10.4%	12.6%	5.5%	6	4.17	0.4%	8.6%	518.75
Poland	25.8%	29.8%	19.7%	7.2%	10.4%	10.2%	9.7%	17.3%	23.2%	12.3%	7	4.77	0.5%	5.4%	520.50
Portugal	27.5%	31.7%	20.3%	12.2%	10.6%	12.9%	9.8%	18.7%	24.4%	14.6%	4	5.18	0.5%	17.4%	488.03
Romania	40.4%	48.5%	35.0%	6.4%	28.5%	34.1%	27.5%	22.4%	32.1%	15.0%	4	6.33	0.7%	18.1%	440.31
Slovakia	18.4%	23.6%	13.4%	7.1%	9.9%	12.1%	9.2%	12.6%	19.2%	6.2%	4	13.39	0.5%	6.7%	471.87
Slovenia	20.4%	17.5%	23.0%	8.0%	6.6%	4.8%	6.8%	14.5%	14.7%	20.5%	7	5.62	0.7%	4.4%	498.86
Spain	29.2%	35.8%	12.9%	17.1%	7.1%	9.5%	2.4%	22.2%	30.5%	11.4%	5	3.92	0.7%	21.9%	489.57
Sweden	16.4%	16.2%	16.5%	7.1%	1.4%	1.9%	0.2%	14.8%	15.4%	16.4%	6	3.45	0.7%	6.7%	482.13
United Kingdom	24.8%	32.6%	18.1%	13.2%	7.3%	10.5%	1.9%	15.9%	18.9%	16.6%	7	4.75	0.3%	11.8%	502.46

Source: Own representation.

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Table 11b: SJI 2015 raw data

Country	C1	C2	C3	C4	C5	C6	C7	C8	C9	C10	C11
Austria	71.1%	45.1%	0.89	0.89	5.7%	1.5%	10.3%	11.8%	8.8%	5.6%	35.2%
Belgium	61.9%	42.7%	0.83	0.88	8.6%	4.3%	23.2%	16.4%	76.6%	3.9%	13.0%
Bulgaria	61.0%	50.0%	0.95	0.91	11.5%	6.9%	23.8%	28.6%	64.8%	6.4%	40.7%
Croatia	54.6%	36.2%	0.97	0.85	17.5%	10.1%	45.5%	26.4%	47.2%	5.3%	35.5%
Cyprus	62.1%	46.9%	1.13	0.89	16.3%	7.7%	36.0%	20.3%	94.3%	7.8%	33.9%
Czech Republic	69.0%	54.0%	1.04	0.79	6.2%	2.7%	15.9%	22.4%	82.5%	3.5%	40.9%
Denmark	72.8%	63.2%	0.86	0.92	6.8%	1.7%	12.6%	10.6%	53.5%	2.7%	14.8%
Estonia	69.6%	64.0%	0.97	0.91	7.5%	3.3%	15.0%	13.8%	29.1%	6.4%	44.1%
Finland	68.7%	59.1%	0.88	0.98	8.8%	1.9%	20.5%	18.0%	70.1%	3.2%	11.5%
France	63.8%	46.9%	0.87	0.90	10.3%	4.4%	24.2%	17.3%	61.4%	6.0%	11.9%
Germany	73.8%	65.6%	0.91	0.89	5.1%	2.2%	7.7%	12.0%	21.7%	6.3%	54.6%
Greece	49.4%	34.0%	1.02	0.71	26.7%	19.5%	52.4%	28.7%	86.3%	11.9%	18.3%
Hungary	61.8%	41.7%	1.14	0.82	7.8%	3.7%	20.4%	18.6%	74.0%	5.2%	40.8%
Ireland	61.7%	53.0%	0.99	0.85	11.5%	6.7%	23.9%	20.4%	61.7%	2.9%	30.9%
Italy	55.7%	46.2%	1.06	0.72	12.9%	7.8%	42.7%	17.0%	72.7%	9.6%	20.9%
Latvia	66.3%	56.4%	0.97	0.94	11.1%	4.7%	19.6%	24.5%	63.9%	6.8%	42.6%
Lithuania	65.7%	56.2%	1.06	0.98	10.9%	4.8%	19.3%	30.7%	58.3%	6.8%	44.1%
Luxembourg	66.6%	42.5%	1.17	0.83	5.9%	1.6%	22.6%	10.2%	54.2%	10.1%	33.7%
Malta	62.3%	37.7%	1.04	0.66	5.9%	2.7%	11.8%	9.3%	56.7%	5.3%	29.5%
Netherlands	73.1%	59.9%	0.82	0.87	7.5%	3.0%	12.7%	12.3%	44.4%	3.4%	37.1%
Poland	61.7%	42.5%	1.02	0.81	9.1%	3.8%	23.9%	19.7%	66.5%	9.7%	44.9%
Portugal	62.6%	47.8%	1.07	0.91	14.5%	8.4%	34.8%	16.2%	83.9%	8.8%	25.3%
Romania	61.0%	43.1%	0.90	0.78	7.1%	2.8%	24.0%	7.7%	88.8%	13.1%	49.4%
Slovakia	61.0%	44.8%	1.09	0.80	13.2%	9.3%	29.7%	41.4%	87.3%	5.2%	51.5%
Slovenia	63.9%	35.4%	0.90	0.89	9.9%	5.3%	20.2%	16.4%	65.5%	5.8%	40.0%
Spain	56.0%	44.3%	0.92	0.84	24.6%	12.9%	53.2%	34.0%	91.5%	10.2%	22.4%
Sweden	74.9%	74.0%	0.82	0.96	8.1%	1.5%	22.9%	20.0%	59.6%	5.2%	4.2%
United Kingdom	71.9%	61.0%	0.96	0.87	6.3%	2.2%	16.9%	11.8%	50.4%	6.2%	34.6%

Source: Own representation.

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Table 11c: SJI 2015 raw data

Country	D1	D2	D3	D4	D5	D6	E1	E2	E3	E4	E5
Austria	7	27.6%	6	33.3%	7	9.6%	8	0.4%	59.96	82.11	66.80
Belgium	7	25.9%	7	41.3%	6	17.0%	7	1.9%	63.85	93.67	71.60
Bulgaria	4	35.4%	6	24.6%	3	24.8%	4	8.9%	64.56	55.56	38.00
Croatia	4	30.9%	5	23.8%	3	26.1%	5	3.3%	59.05	68.33	62.00
Cyprus	7	32.4%	8	12.5%	4	25.2%	6	4.4%	64.66	55.67	62.00
Czech Republic	6	24.6%	6	19.5%	5	11.8%	8	1.0%	63.37	74.22	71.60
Denmark	8	27.5%	8	39.1%	7	8.4%	8	1.3%	59.74	82.22	85.60
Estonia	6	32.9%	8	19.0%	7	15.4%	8	8.4%	55.61	63.11	62.00
Finland	8	25.6%	8	42.5%	8	14.6%	8	4.3%	56.74	69.44	90.40
France	7	30.1%	6	26.2%	6	15.3%	7	2.7%	63.72	79.44	76.00
Germany	7	29.7%	8	36.5%	8	9.5%	8	1.6%	57.39	77.78	80.80
Greece	3	34.5%	5	21.0%	6	28.4%	3	9.0%	64.90	53.67	62.00
Hungary	4	27.9%	5	9.3%	5	19.3%	4	2.4%	59.62	55.67	42.80
Ireland	6	30.0%	9	15.7%	7	20.9%	5	3.3%	66.91	68.33	71.60
Italy	4	32.7%	7	31.4%	5	32.0%	7	7.1%	61.34	55.67	71.60
Latvia	5	35.5%	7	25.0%	5	17.7%	4	13.8%	53.06	45.22	42.80
Lithuania	6	35.0%	7	24.1%	7	15.7%	7	3.2%	59.39	60.33	57.20
Luxembourg	9	30.4%	8	28.3%	8	10.2%	8	0.9%	63.35	88.11	76.00
Malta	6	27.9%	5	14.3%	3	11.1%	7	0.9%	72.15	67.44	47.60
Netherlands	8	25.1%	9	38.7%	8	7.8%	7	0.4%	59.43	91.78	90.40
Poland	7	30.7%	8	24.3%	5	18.8%	5	8.8%	61.01	50.78	47.60
Portugal	4	34.2%	7	31.3%	7	19.0%	6	3.0%	63.01	58.44	66.80
Romania	4	34.0%	5	13.5%	6	23.1%	4	10.4%	58.24	48.78	33.20
Slovakia	5	26.1%	5	18.7%	5	18.5%	5	1.9%	54.40	63.89	57.20
Slovenia	7	24.4%	7	33.3%	4	13.8%	6	0.0%	58.56	57.11	76.00
Spain	4	34.7%	7	39.7%	6	24.8%	7	0.8%	64.29	66.78	71.60
Sweden	8	24.9%	9	45.0%	7	9.8%	7	1.9%	66.45	68.22	90.40
United Kingdom	7	30.2%	8	22.6%	7	16.5%	8	1.6%	64.60	71.44	66.80

Source: Own representation.

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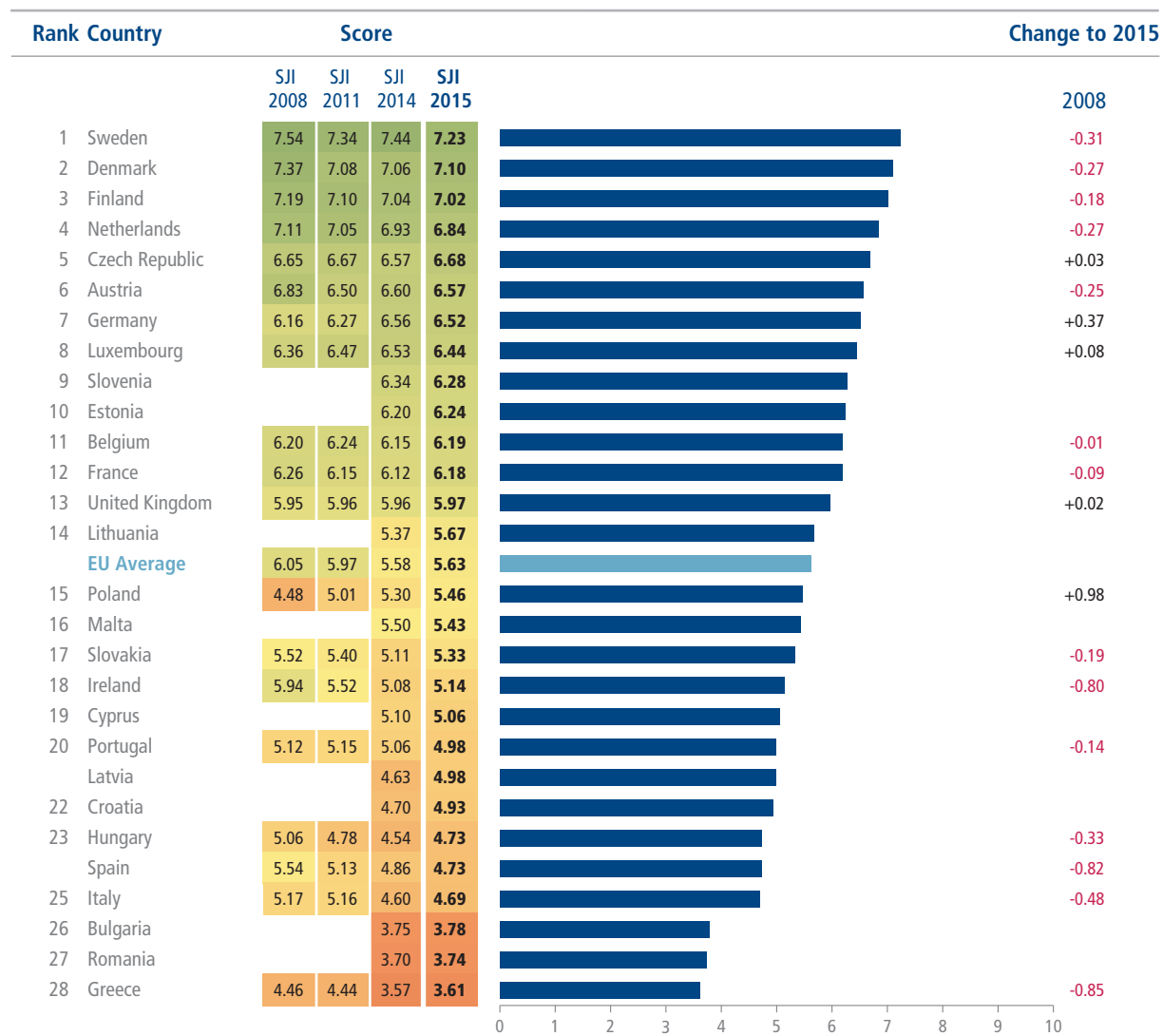
Table 11d: SJI 2015 raw data

Country	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7	F8
Austria	7	6	6	9.07	32.6%	2.8%	86.8%	27.2%
Belgium	8	6	6	10.38	7.9%	2.3%	105.6%	27.3%
Bulgaria	6	5	6	7.24	19.0%	0.7%	26.9%	29.3%
Croatia	5	5	5	4.66	18.0%	0.8%	80.9%	27.6%
Cyprus	4	5	4	10.72	8.1%	0.5%	107.1%	19.9%
Czech Republic	6	8	7	11.82	12.4%	1.9%	41.6%	25.7%
Denmark	9	9	9	9.10	27.2%	3.1%	42.6%	28.3%
Estonia	9	7	9	13.01	25.6%	1.7%	9.7%	27.9%
Finland	9	9	8	6.50	36.8%	3.3%	59.6%	30.2%
France	10	5	6	6.83	14.2%	2.2%	95.1%	28.4%
Germany	7	5	8	11.43	12.4%	2.9%	73.1%	31.5%
Greece	5	4	4	9.76	15.0%	0.8%	177.2%	31.6%
Hungary	4	4	6	5.80	9.8%	1.4%	76.9%	25.8%
Ireland	6	6	7	12.09	7.8%	1.6%	109.5%	19.3%
Italy	4	5	4	7.45	16.7%	1.3%	132.1%	33.1%
Latvia	7	4	9	-0.65	37.1%	0.6%	37.8%	28.8%
Lithuania	6	7	8	4.51	23.0%	1.0%	37.7%	27.5%
Luxembourg	9	7	6	21.72	3.6%	1.2%	24.6%	20.4%
Malta	6	5	4	7.50	3.8%	0.9%	68.1%	26.4%
Netherlands	8	9	5	11.67	4.5%	2.0%	68.3%	26.4%
Poland	7	7	6	9.65	11.3%	0.9%	48.8%	21.2%
Portugal	6	4	5	5.52	25.7%	1.4%	130.2%	30.3%
Romania	5	4	5	4.89	23.9%	0.4%	40.4%	24.3%
Slovakia	5	5	5	6.48	9.8%	0.8%	54.0%	19.0%
Slovenia	8	7	8	7.08	21.5%	2.6%	82.9%	25.7%
Spain	5	6	5	6.56	15.4%	1.2%	97.7%	27.2%
Sweden	10	8	8	2.34	52.1%	3.3%	41.5%	30.6%
United Kingdom	8	8	8	9.07	5.1%	1.6%	89.5%	27.0%

Source: Own representation.

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Figure 47: EU Social Justice Index (weighted)

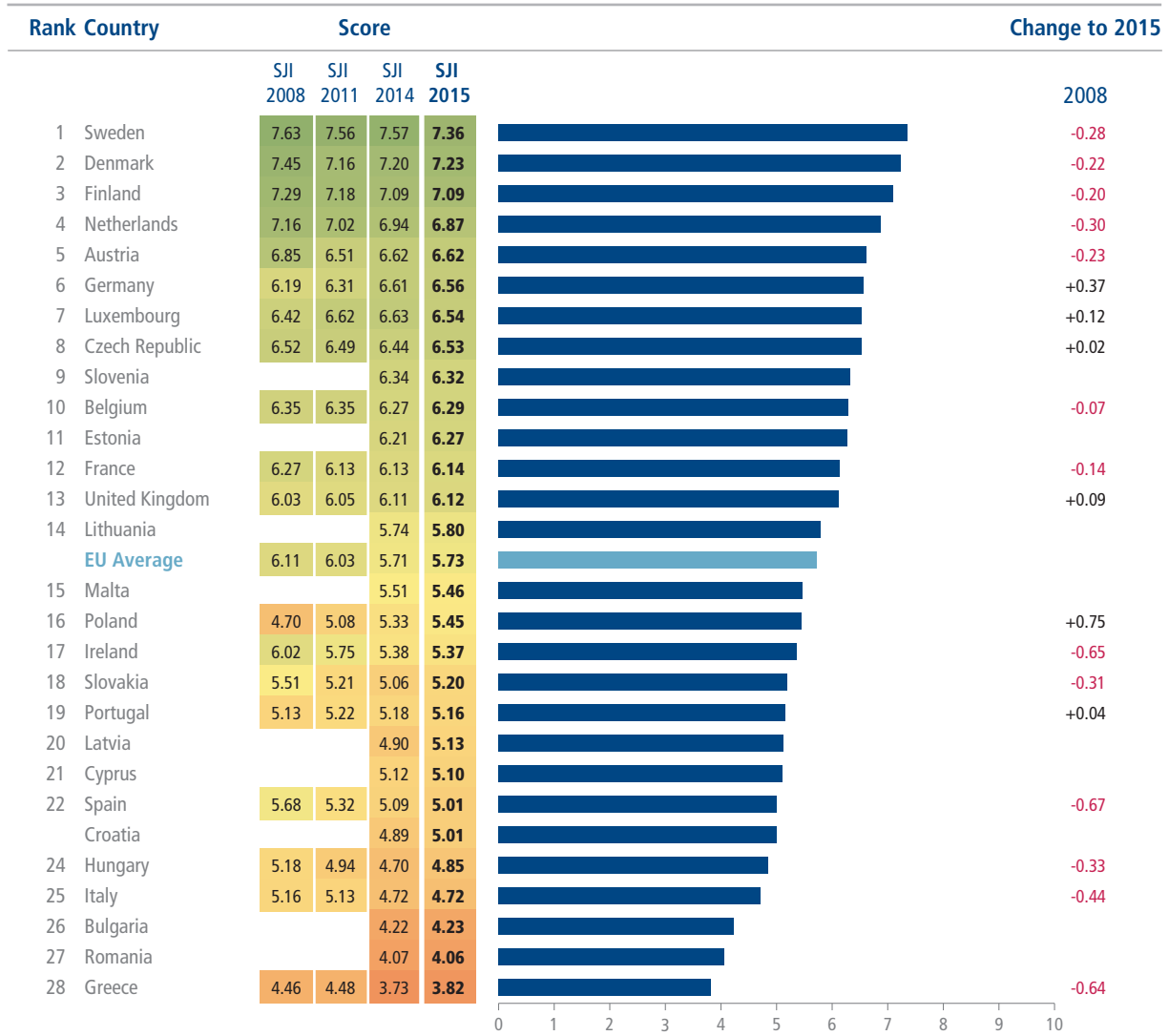


Source: Own calculations.

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Figure 48: EU Social Justice Index (unweighted)



Source: Own calculations.

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