QUALITY OF LIFE IN TURKEY: A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS WITH THE EUROPEAN UNION MEMBER STATES

A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES OF MIDDLE EAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

BY

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IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF SCIENCE IN THE DEPARTMENT OF SOCIOLOGY

DECEMBER 2006

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ABSTRACT

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December 2006, 102 pages

This study aims to describe the quality of life of Turkey in comparison with the European Union Member States including the other candidate countries Bulgaria and Romania. The main question in the study is to determine where Turkey stands in terms of quality of life domains in the membership process to the European Union.

For this aim, "The European Quality of Life Survey" that has been launched in 2003 including 28 countries in Europe has been used. The survey consists of eight life domains including different objective and subjective indicators to measure the quality of life in these countries.

The findings revealed that although Turkey displays similar patterns with the other candidate countries, it lags behind the European Union Member States in most of these eight quality of life domains.

Keywords: quality of life, objective and subjective indicators, life satisfaction, subjective well-being

TÜRKİYE'DE YAŞAM KALİTESİ: AVRUPA BİRLİĞİ ÜYE ÜLKELERİYLE KARŞILAŞTIRMALI BİR ANALİZ

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Aralık 2006, 102 sayfa

Bu çalışma, Türkiye'deki yaşam kalitesini diğer Avrupa Birliği aday ülkeleri olan Bulgaristan ve Romanya'yı da içerecek şekilde Avrupa Birliği Üye Ülkeleri ile karşılaştırmalı bir şekilde tanımlamayı amaçlar. Çalışmadaki ana sorun, yaşam kalitesi alanlarında Avrupa Birliği üyelik sürecinde Türkiye'nin nerede durduğunu saptamaktır.

Bunun için, 2003'te başlatılan ve Avrupa'nın 28 ülkesini içeren "Avrupa Yaşam Kalitesi Anketi" kullanılmıştır. Anket, bu ülkelerdeki yaşam kalitesini ölçmek için farklı öznel ve nesnel göstergeleri içeren sekiz yaşam alanından oluşur.

Sonuçlar, Türkiye'nin diğer aday ülkelerle benzer durumda bulunmasına rağmen, bu sekiz yaşam kalitesi alanının çoğunda Avrupa Birliği Üye Ülkelerinin gerisinde kaldığını ortaya çıkarmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: yaşam kalitesi, nesnel ve öznel göstergeler, yaşam memnuniyeti, öznel refah

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my appreciation and thanks to my supervisor Prof. Dr. Yusuf Ziya Özcan for his encouragement and tolerance throughout this study. I am also grateful to my Examining Committee Members Assoc. Prof. Dr. Ayşe Gündüz-Hoşgör and Assoc. Prof. Dr. Halil İbrahim Bahar for their precious critics and comments.

I am grateful to Özlem Lökçü for her encouragement, motivation and love that have always given me strength to carry on with this thesis. I also owe very special thanks to Özgür Arun and my colleagues for their support and help.

I offer my special gratitude to my family for their constant support, encouragement and patience throughout my work.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

- **CC3** : 3 Candidate Countries (Bulgaria, Romania, Turkey)
- **EQLS :** European Quality of Life Survey
- EU : European Union
- EU15 : 15 Previous European Union States (Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Portugal, Spain, Sweden, United Kingdom)
- **GDP** : Gross Domestic Product
- HDI : Human Development Index
- NM10: 10 New Members which joined the European Union in May 2004 (Greek Cypriot Administration, Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, Slovakia, Slovenia)
- **PPS** : Purchase Power Standards
- **QOL** : Quality of Life
- **SWB** : Subjective Well-Being

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

In last decades, it is widely understood that economic growth alone does not necessarily reflect itself in the overall development of a society and as a result in the quality of life of people in many countries. The dissatisfaction with the monetary measures of quality of life has led to the development of new measurement instruments all over the world. Not only the objective indicators that mainly focus on the material conditions of people, but also the subjective indicators that consider the evaluations of people have been also suggested to be used in the measurement of quality of life. In this respect, many approaches have been discussed considering quality of life as a multi-dimensional concept in several disciplines. Additionally, monitoring, evaluating and social reporting of people's quality of life in many countries as well as in Europe, especially in the enlargement process of the European Union have gained significant importance. Several studies and research programmes have been launched to trace the changes in welfare of people and to promote the overall quality of life in Europe to sustain the social cohesion and integration among European countries.

The main concern of this study is to describe the main differences in the quality of life issues between Turkey and European Union Member States in the enlargement process of the European Union. In this respect, determining the quality of life in Turkey in this membership process constitutes the main question of this study. The study will be based on data of the European Quality of Life Survey which was launched in 2003 in 28 European countries, including Turkey as a candidate country.

Although the membership of Turkey to the European Union seems to be continuing on a political arena, it is important to approach the issue from a sociological point of view to see not only the differences but also the similarities in the quality of life domains between Turkey and the European Union. Knowing the differences in the quality of life aspects will also bring the solutions to the problems encountered in these issues and this study attempts to contribute also to this process by describing the quality of life situation in Turkey in a comparative way. Since the data and comparisons include Bulgaria and Romania as the other candidate countries, the study enables a comparison to be made between candidate countries as well. Thus, it will be useful to see the main differences in quality of life aspects among candidate countries since their GDP per capita incomes are closer to each other than that of European Union Member States.

The second chapter will attempt to provide a conceptual framework for the study and will try to define quality of life as a multi-dimensional concept. In fact, quality of life is a very broad concept that is studied by many disciplines such as sociology, psychology, economics, political science, environmental sciences and health related sciences. Many different views and concepts related to quality of life will be outlined in this chapter but it is beyond the scope of this thesis to cover all aspects of the term discussed in the literature. So, the different but sociologically related theories and approaches in the literature will be examined to help understanding the theoretical background of several quality of life domains analyzed in this thesis.

The third chapter will mainly focus on the measurement issues of quality of life. First, the brief history of the social indicators movement and the reasons behind this movement will be discussed. The social indicators movement has a significant importance in the birth of quality of life studies. The movement has led some arguments for the measurement of quality of life. The use of objective and subjective indicators to measure quality of life is the second main issue in that chapter. Both the objective and subjective indicators will be elaborated in a detailed way and strengths and weaknesses of these indicators will be discussed. Third, the human development approach and United Nations' human development indicators will be discussed as a global measurement of quality of life. The *Human Development Index* of the United Nations can be considered as an important indicator concerning non-monetary aspects of human life so as to compare quality of life in Turkey as a candidate country to the

European Union, the measurement issues and indicators used in European social welfare studies will be the next issue discussed in order to be familiar with the European approach. The survey used in this thesis is one of the most recent researches in the quality of life topic in Europe, so the development of indicators and history of social reporting will give a background for this study. As the last issue, several criticisms to the measurement of quality of life will be argued in the final section of the third chapter. These criticisms will also provide a general perspective to reveal the complexity of the quality of life concept.

The fourth chapter will explain the methodology of the survey. The European Quality of Life Survey (EQLS) will be used in this thesis to compare Turkey, Bulgaria and Romania as candidate countries and European Union Member States in several quality of life domains. It is important to take reference countries to make comparisons meaningful and to see the main differences between countries. So, Bulgaria and Romania have been taken as reference candidate countries for Turkey. In order to avoid seeing expected large differences between candidate countries and member states and to make the comparisons more useful for Turkey, European Union Member States have been also divided into two groups as new members which have joined the European Union in 2004 and earlier member states. The results of indicators for new member states can be considered as critical for Turkey to catch up with European Union countries in quality of life domains. The reference countries will also provide useful insights for Turkey to see which aspects of quality of life have to be developed in the membership process. The EQLS as the most recent quality of life survey covering 28 countries in Europe including Turkey has several strengths. First of all, the EQLS enables comparisons for all European Union Member States and candidate countries. Additionally, it includes several domains of quality of life in its questionnaire and measures them in several different indicators. The sample of EQLS has been compared with Turkish Statistical Institute's statistics in order to check the representativeness of the data for Turkey. Although minor differences have been encountered in some variables, the data has been seen as convenient to reveal core patterns in quality of life for Turkey.

The fifth chapter will show the results of comparisons between Turkey and other candidate countries and European Union Member States in eight quality of life domains. Those domains are Economic Situation; Housing and Local Environment; Employment, Education and Skills; Household Structure and Family Relations; Work-Life Balance; Health and Health Care; Subjective Well-Being; and Perceived Quality of Society. In order to highlight the main differences and core points between countries, all statistical analyses will be descriptive. The more extensive and detailed analyses for the relationships between variables are beyond the scope of this thesis since the main aim of this thesis to reveal basic differences between countries. However, the large differences in figures related to Turkey will be tried to be explained sociologically based on empirical findings in other studies carried out in Turkey in those aspects. Additionally, the most significant similarities and dissimilarities will be emphasized to indicate the immediate measures and developments required in quality of life domains in Turkey.

Lastly, this thesis is expected to fill an important gap in the literature regarding the issue of quality of life in Turkey. The major contribution of this thesis will be to reveal the diversities in core quality of life domains between Turkey as a candidate country and European Union Member States. Moreover, this thesis will enable researchers to be familiar with quality of life issues in both Turkey and Europe in the enlargement process of the European Union.

CHAPTER 2

THE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Defining Quality of Life

As an interdisciplinary concept, Quality of Life (hereafter referred to as QOL) has gained significant importance as a research topic in sociology as well as in several other disciplines in the last decades. Defining and measuring quality of life is a considerable problem since it is a vague and broad concept that can be approached from many different scientific areas including economics, psychology, political science, and sociology. In the literature, there are various studies and approaches to quality of life and this broadness of the concept resulted in several definitions that are not precise or universally accepted. Cambridge International Dictionary of English (1995) defines the term "quality" as the standard of excellence of something, often a high standard. Additionally, the term "life" is also defined as the period between birth and death; the experience or state of being alive. From the definitions, it is not difficult to constitute an abstract notion of QOL but when it is attempted to be defined in concrete terms, problems arise in the measurement issues.

If the concept of quality of life as a relatively new term in the literature is searched in various scientific resources, it is seen that the quality of life concept has been used in many studies interchangeably with concepts such as well being, life satisfaction, welfare, and happiness. In fact, QOL is a broad concept and includes all those terms in its content so it should be evaluated as an umbrella which covers all those aspects of life. Schuessler and Fisher (1985) give several definitions of the concept according to different scholars and perspectives. Schuessler and Fisher (1985) indicate that the concept of quality of life is also used for referring to satisfaction from many different domains such as the quality of urban life, the quality of work life and the quality of family life because of the concerns for public policy. However, the most common term

used for quality of life is well-being in many studies. While OECD (1976) uses the term "social well-being" for referring to well-being of a group of individuals in its publications, "societal well-being" is used when evaluating the institutional structures of society. In their studies, while psychologists prefer satisfaction and happiness, economists use the term utility to refer to well-being of humans (Rahman et. al, 2005). The change of term from discipline to discipline is understandable since the concept of QOL inevitably refers to all of them. Rapley (2003), in his book, uses a quotation from Bob Cummins who is a well-known QOL researcher that summarizes the situation: "the literature is now too vast for any individual researcher to fully assimilate". The conceptual framework for the analysis of quality of life will be attempted to be defined by the selected theories and approaches from the literature in this study.

2.2 Theories and Approaches Related to Quality of Life:

In the literature, there are many different theories and approaches related to quality of life but none of them can explain the quality of life as a whole picture. In fact, Schuessler and Fisher (1985) claim that discussing about those theories and approaches separately may be misleading, since they overlap considerably. It has been also argued in the literature that quality of life researchers have to remain neutral among the theories but it is inevitable to make a selection among them to be able to constitute a concrete concept in order to measure it. The following theories and approaches are the most compatible with the quality of life concept defined and measured in this study among all those discussed in the literature.

2.2.1 Individual vs. Transcendental Approach:

Throughout history and in the social sciences, the dualism between individual and society takes great place in many sociological arguments. While some philosophers and scholars emphasize the role of the individual, some others insist on the primacy of social structure. Gerson (1976) defines these two approaches as the individualist and transcendental approaches to explain the quality of life issue.

While the individualist approach see people's desires and behaviors as prior to the social order which should guarantee the physical security of the individual, the transcendental approach tends to stress on the importance of loyalty and the interest of the community at large. In transcendental conceptions of quality of life, individuals are expected to work in the interest of the community and receive their satisfaction from this work (Gerson, 1976).

Gerson (1976) criticizes both approaches because of their inadequacies in defining quality of life in self consistent terms. He stresses the need for a new approach which assumes a mutual dependence and negotiations between the individual and society. These commitments between individual and society may take place on relatively small or on large scales but they are measured as a joint allocation of money, time, skill and sentiment. To make them clearer, he gives an example of chronic illness and morbidity. Although the example seems to be related with health as a quality of life domain, in fact, it notes the unlimited borders of QOL as a whole. In his example, Gerson (1976, p.804) states that the treatment of a chronic illness requires a very different pattern of skills, emotional involvements, schedules and budgets than those needed for the treatment of an acute illness. Medical staff has to have much more comprehensive knowledge on chronic illness and should devote a larger amount of time to patients on a continuing basis which requires larger budgets for administration. If the medical services do not organize themselves adequately to provide these additional resources, the patients will suffer from relatively poor medical care and medical staff will also suffer from continuing frustration, overwork and inadequate facilities. In turn, this situation will impose additional constraints on hospitals, funding agencies and other organizations involved with the organization and delivery of health care. Lastly, it will affect the overall quality of life of both individuals and society and will result in a vicious circle.

Gerson shows with this example that individual and social cannot be separated to measure the quality of life and he suggests that it is possible to compare apples and oranges in terms of the difference they make to individual or society as a general in terms of available resources of the population. This individual and social dialectic in quality of life approaches can also be traced in some welfare theories to explain the components of a good life.

2.2.2 Welfare Concepts and Theories:

Many different notions and discussions on what constitutes the well-being of a person have been developed in the literature. In fact, it is beyond the scope of this paper to discuss all welfare theories. So, the most relevant theories with human well-being are selected from the literature.

Bognar (2005) argues that welfare theories can be classified in two parts as subjective and objective. As a general rule, subjective welfare theories maintain that if a person has some attitudes in favor of a thing, it is good for that person. However, subjective theories also differ in their specification in terms of enjoyment, happiness, satisfaction, desire or preference. On the contrary, objective theories are not interested in person's attitudes towards goods but propose normative ideals. Objective theories specify certain goods that make a person's life better. Among those welfare theories, Bognar (2005) examines three of them as preference satisfaction, objective accounts and the hedonist theories.

In preference satisfaction theories, something is good for a person if that person prefers that thing and preference is understood as a disposition to choose. However, philosophers argue that it should be examined in two versions: *actual preference satisfaction theory* and *the informed preference satisfaction theory*. In the actual preference satisfaction theory, the person's welfare is promoted by the satisfaction of the preferences the person has. Basically it means that what is good for the person is getting what she wants. Many philosophers reject this theory since people can be mistaken about what is good for them. Hence, they suggest the informed preference satisfaction of the preferences that theory, what is good for the person is the satisfaction of his/her preferences that they are informed about in advance (Bognar, 2005: p.568).

Objective welfare theories claim that something is good for a person independently of the person's positive or negative attitudes toward that good. That good may be not only worthwhile for human beings but also a contribution to life for human beings to live. However, this does not mean that objective theories necessarily propose what goods or normative ideals are good for a person's welfare (Bognar, 2005: p.568).

Lastly, hedonic theories see the conscious mental state as the constituting element of welfare. Although hedonism is considered as a subjective theory of welfare, in fact, it has both objective and subjective versions. Whether it is subjective or objective depends on how the pleasure as mental state is constructed. In hedonic theories, how good a person's life is depends on whether the person enjoys it, whether s/he is happy, whether s/he is satisfied with it, and so on (Bognar, 2005).

Other than the psychological explanations of welfare theories in the literature, Noll (2002) discusses Zapf's (1984) typology of welfare positions. This approach, which is based on the German notion of quality of life, combines objective living conditions and subjective well-being across different life domains. While objective living conditions refer to observable living circumstances such as life standards, working conditions and the state of health, subjective well-being considers the general evaluations of living conditions of people. Zapf (1984) distinguishes the differences between objective living conditions and subjective well-being to the positive or negative conditions and suggests a typology of welfare positions (see Table 2.1):

Objective living	Subjective well-being	
conditions	Good	Bad
Good	Well-being	Dissonance
Bad	Adaptation	Deprivation

Table 2.1: Zapf's Typology of Welfare Positions

Source: Noll, 2002: p.51

As seen from the Table 2.1, if both the objective living conditions and subjective wellbeing are positive, it refers to well-being. However, while the objective living conditions are good but subjective well-being is bad, it is called dissonance. If the objective living conditions are poor but subjective well-being is high, it means adaptation. And finally, deprivation is described as the negative conditions in both objective living conditions and subjective well-being (Noll, 2002: pp.51-52).

Veenhoven (2000) criticizes the typology of Zapf because his typology is based on mostly observations than substance and fails to explain much about quality of life. Instead of using vague concepts such as objective and subjective, Veenhoven (2000) suggests the constellation of *chances* and *outcomes* in one direction and the *outer* and *inner qualities* in the other direction in typology (see Table 2.2)

To Veenhoven (2000), while the *chances* refer to opportunities for a good life, *outcomes* indicate the good life itself. Similarly, *outer qualities* are seen as the quality in the environment and inner qualities are assumed as the quality in the individual.

 Table 2.2 Veenhoven's Four Qualities of Life Typology

	Outer qualities	Inner qualities
Life chances	Livability of	Life-ability of the
	environment	person
Life results	Utility of life	Appreciation of life

Source: Veenhoven, 2002: p.6

In Veenhoven's typology, *livability of environment* means the good living conditions in terms of environmental quality and the opportunities for a good life as life chances. *Life-ability of a person* denotes how well the person is equipped to cope with the problems of life. Additionally, the left bottom quadrant which is the *utility of life* can be described as the meaning of life and this external utility does not require inner awareness of a person. The last quadrant as *appreciation of life* represents the inner outcomes of life and it can be interpreted as subjective well-being, life satisfaction or happiness that are discussed in literature (Veenhoven, 2000).

Veenhoven discusses the components of quality of life in a much more detailed way but it can be considered as sufficient to give us a perspective on how quality of life can be approached from different views with his typology. Welfare theories related to quality of life indicate that welfare is not only about material conditions but also related with subjective evaluations of people. It can also be examined from individual or environmental points of views. There also some other theories that focus on human needs in quality of life studies.

2.2.3. Satisfaction of Human Needs:

Hagerty (1999) approaches Maslow's hierarchical theory of human needs from the quality of life perspective. In his theory, Maslow (1970) aims to explain that (as cited in Hagerty, 1999) as humans meet 'basic needs', they seek to satisfy successively 'higher needs' that occupy a set of hierarchies. To this theory, all of human strivings are seen as an attempt to fill one of five needs. Maslow labels the first need as physiological, such as air, water, and sufficient calories and nutrients to live. Safety is the second need which includes safety from assault, from murder, and from chaos. The third need is belongingness and love, including friends, a family, a community, and "having roots". The fourth need is esteem, where a person is valued as a wise decision-maker, has a certain status and confidence. The fifth need is self-actualization, where each individual makes maximum use of his or her individual gifts and interests. Maslow arranges these 5 needs in a *hierarchy*, where their fulfillment follows a fixed

sequence. The physiological needs are filled first. When they are missing, almost all effort goes to filling these more basic needs. Once these are nearing complete satisfaction, effort is allocated to the next level of the hierarchy to the safety. Once the safety need is satisfied, then effort is allocated to the next level, and so on for each of the higher needs. Maslow offers this as a theory of individual need fulfillment, but in his study, Hagerty (1999) extends it to describe the need fulfillment of nations. By observing the development of nations through time, Hagerty (1999) tests Maslow's theory's implications in nations and tries to examine the quality of life through this theory. Table 2.3 shows the variables that are used for testing Maslow's theory in the country level.

Maslow's Need Hierarchy	Measures for a Country	
1 Dhysicle sizel	Daily calories available per person	
1. Physiological	GDP per person	
	Safety from War (1-War rate)	
2. Safety	Safety from murder (1-Homicide rate)	
_	High Life Expectancy	
2 Delensingness and Laws	Low divorce rate (1-Divorce rate)	
3. Belongingness and Love	Low child death rate (1-Infant mortality rate)	
4 Esteem	Political rights	
4. Esteem	Women's participation in work for pay	
	Tertiary education enrollment	
5. Self Actualization	Secondary Education enrollment	
	Primary Education enrollment (?)	

Table 2.3: Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, With Measures of a Country's Status onEach Need

Source: Hagerty, 1999: p.253

In the end of the study, Hagerty (1999) finds a significant correlation between the sequence of actual need fulfillment in nations and Maslow's hierarchical predictions. However, the study disconfirms the suggestion of Maslow that growth in one need area must slow when the country focuses on growth in another area. In fact, figures indicate that growth in one need area is correlated positively with growth in other need areas. Additionally, Hagerty (1999) also states that when it is applied to nations' QOL, theory of Maslow fails to consider conditions outside the individual such as environmental

health or poverty in minority groups. These findings of Hagerty about QOL of nations also confirm Veenhoven's welfare typology discussed previously which includes environmental conditions as well to evaluate the overall quality of life both for individuals and societies.

Satisfaction of human needs to signify QOL is also used by Allardt (1993) as an approach. Allardt (1993) considers the three necessities for the conditions of human development as *having*, *loving* and *being* needs. To him, achievement of QOL depends on the satisfaction of these basic needs. Having needs are considered as the material conditions necessary for human beings in order to survive and avoid misery. Those needs are related to economic resources, housing conditions, employment, working conditions, health and education. Allardt (1993) suggests *loving needs* as the needs for relationships with other people and forming social identities in the society. Attachments and contacts in the local community, friendship, socializing with fellow members in organizations and relationships with work mates are the examples of such needs. Lastly, Allardt (1993) defines being needs as the needs for integration into society and to live in harmony with nature. To him, while personal growth can be characterized as the positive side of being, alienation refers to negative side of it. Measures of being needs are proposed by Allardt as the participation in decisions and activities influencing one's life; political activities; opportunities for leisure-time activities; the opportunities for meaningful work life and opportunities to enjoy nature by doing activities such as walking, gardening or fishing.

By proposing Having, Loving and Being needs, Allardt also combines both objective and subjective indicators as seen from Table 2.4:

Approach		
	Objective indicators	Subjective indicators
Having	1. Objective measures of the level of living and environmental conditions	4. Subjective feelings of dissatisfaction/satisfaction with

 Table 2.4: Use of Different Indicators From Allardt's Having, Loving, Being

	1. Objective measures of the level of	4. Subjective feelings of
Having	living and environmental conditions	dissatisfaction/satisfaction with
		living conditions
	2. Objective measures of	5. Unhappiness/ happiness –
Loving	relationships to other people	subjective feelings about social
		relations
Being	3. Objective measures of	6. Subjective feelings of alienation/
20115	relationships to society and nature	personal growth

Source: Allardt, 1993: p.93

The theories and approaches related to QOL that consider the satisfaction of human needs as primary, approach the issue from an individualistic perspective. They maintain that the satisfaction of human needs has to be the primary objective to achieve an overall quality of life. There are also some other theories and approaches that propose the importance of subjective well-being of people to explain the quality of life.

2.2.4 Subjective Well-being:

Subjective well-being (SWB) has been also a very popular research area over the last decades in the QOL studies. The associations between subjective well-being and quality of life or the measures of well-being are the main questions for many researchers and scholars in that area.

Before discussing what brings subjective well-being or happiness, the relationship between money or material conditions and well-being can be argued. Seghieri et. al. (2006) proposes four leading theories that enable us to understand why economic variables are not enough to explain happiness or subjective well-being: Relative theory, absolute theory, adaptation theory and aspiration theory

To the relative theory which is introduced by Easterlin (2001), happiness is relative because people make a comparison between themselves and their neighbors. To him,

SWB is positively but weakly correlated with income and negatively correlated with individual material aspirations. Easterlin (2001) claims that income growth does not cause well-being to rise either for higher or lower income persons, because it generates equivalent growth in material aspirations. So the negative effect of the latter on SWB undercuts the positive effect of the former.

In the absolute theory, Venhoveen (1992) suggests that there is a positive relationship between income and SWB since people with higher income levels can satisfy all their basic needs and can therefore feel happier. However, the relationship between income and subjective measures is not linear. As soon as the basic needs are satisfied, income has a diminishing effect on happiness. The theory suggests that increase in income after an existing threshold may impact subjective well-being only marginally, or even not at all.

Brickman and Campbell (1971) stress (as cited in Seghieri et. al., 2006) the adaptation of individuals to their income levels in the adaptation theory. Initially, additional income and material goods provide extra subjective well-being but this rising income leads aspiration to rise and lower the utility individuals get from it. Thus, what is important is the ability of adaptation of persons to positive and negative events.

Michalos (1985) states that to the aspiration theory, the degree of satisfaction of individuals relates to the gap between what people desire and the level they actually achieve. Those who believe that their desires are fully satisfied tend to be happier than those who have unsatisfied desires, regardless of their income levels.

Explaining the relationship between the economic indicators and subjective well-being is not so easy since it requires a multidimensional measure of psychological and emotional feelings of individuals (Seghieri et. al. 2006).

There are lots of theories related to subjective well-being in the literature but since the main topic of this thesis is limited to the quality of life, it is more appropriate to discuss

about happiness and life satisfaction instead as the factors contributing to the quality of life of people. Before discussing the happiness and life satisfaction, the difference between them should be considered first. Sirgy (2001) distinguishes that as happiness is an affective construct, life satisfaction is a cognitive one. Happiness is an affective construct because people simply report it as an emotional response whether they are happy or not. Kozma and Stones (1992) theorize happiness (as cited in Sirgy, 2001) as a direct function of two psychological states referring to short and long term happiness. Both short and long term states are affective states including both positive and negative aspects. However, while the short term state is influenced mostly by environmental conditions, long term state is influenced less by them (Sirgy, 2001).

Different than happiness, life satisfaction refers to one's evaluations about one's life or life accomplishments against some standards which requires a cognitive process for people. Haybron (2001) considers life satisfaction theories more appealing than happiness theories because life satisfaction is based on people's reasoned and holistic verdicts about how well their lives meet their standards. Additionally, he sustains that the best measure of a good life is an evaluation of life as a whole in terms of satisfactions. Sirgy (2001) notes that as the determinants of subjective well-being, absence of ill being is also proposed by Argyle (1996a). Sirgy (2001) states that happiness, life satisfaction and absence of ill being can be considered as the three components of subjective well-being which results in the quality of life as a general (see Figure 2.1)



Figure 2.1: Components of Quality of Life

The theories and approaches mentioned in this chapter prove that the quality of life concept is a multidimensional one that can be approached from many different views. Some scholars prefer explaining quality of life from the individual and societal dimensions, some others prefer discussing it from the objective living conditions and subjective well-being dimensions. In fact, the measuring of the quality of life and the components of a good life may vary due to researcher's interests. In this thesis, quality of life will be elaborated in two dimensions. Firstly, by acknowledging the multidimensionality of the quality of life concept, it is assumed as the overall human well-being considering several life domains. Secondly, as both the objective and subjective indicators are used to measure the well-being of people. The measurement of quality of life is also a controversial issue as in defining the term. The third chapter discusses the general arguments about measurement of quality of life and presents the indicators that are used by several organizations, programmes or studies that try to measure quality of life. The importance of social reporting and approaches to

measuring the quality of life in Europe is examined in detail since the main focus of this thesis is the quality of life in Turkey as a candidate country to the European Union.

CHAPTER 3

THE MEASUREMENT OF QUALITY OF LIFE

3.1 Social Indicators Movement:

Philosophers have thought about a desirable society and the concepts of what constitutes a good society for centuries. For instance, Aristotle's concept of *eudaimonia* refers to individuals' realization of their full potentials in order to achieve a "good life". Differently, in Eastern cultures thinkers emphasized the virtue of restraining individual desires and they suggested distributing resources equally among people in a society to reach an idealized society. As a Western philosopher, Emanual Kant put the conditions of a good society as the individuals acting in a moral way that could form the basis of universal laws. (Diener & Suh, 1997). For centuries, the notion of human well-being has been discussed by many scholars from different scientific areas who have designed scientific ways to measure it.

People across cultures and time constantly change their economic, socio-political and natural environment in order to satisfy their wants and needs. On one hand, the necessity of improving quality of life of deprived social classes in the 19th century brought the communist revolution in the first half of the 20th century which culminated in the formation of communist and socialist countries in Europe and China after World War II (Matutinovic, 1998). The thought of a new equitable and materially productive society made people believe they could improve their quality of life substantially.

On the other hand, mostly rich and industrialized countries of the world have tried to solve the same problem of improving the quality of life and well-being of their citizens by relying on market forces and government welfare measures (Matutinovic, 1998). Since Adam Smith's *Wealth of Nations*, economists in those countries equated material prosperity with the advance of civilization and enhancement of human well-being.

Economic growth and prosperity have become an individual motive in those societies. However, materialist culture has begun to be criticized substantially in those countries. There are claims that materialism distracts people from more important values such as justice and altruism. It has also been criticized by those concerned about the degradation of the environment with increasing prosperity and by those who maintain that material prosperity does not improve happiness (Diener & Diener, 1995).

Schuessler and Fisher (1985) claims that the views on wealth and well-being of people have begun to be challenged since the 1960s. Bauer (1966) states (as cited in Schuessler & Fisher, 1985) that in the United States of America, QOL as a research field has began to be studied to reveal the secondary effects of the national space program on American society and discussions on this issue have given the impetus to the emergence of QOL. Campbell (1981: 4) quotes the late President Johnson as saying in 1964:

The Task of the Great Society is to ensure our people the environment, the capacities, and the social structures which will give them a meaningful chance to pursue their individual happiness. Thus, the Great Society is concerned not with how much, but with how good – not with the quantity of goods but with the quality of our lives.

These developments in the United States of America showed that economic indicators are not enough to measure overall quality of life in a country. As the insufficiency of economic indicators to describe and evaluate the real life standards were seen, it has been argued that the systematic collection of data on social indicators would be useful to evaluate society. This attempt of redirecting the research focus from economic to social indicators is known as the *social indicators movement* (Bognar, 2005).

After this time, many governments and organizations began to publish social reports more often which contained statistics and analyses of social change and trends to monitor developments in their countries. They began to collect data on different areas such as income, education, housing, health, environment and crime. Social reporting for different aspects of society has gained importance in many countries due to dissatisfaction with the economic indicators' insufficiency to explain the quality of life in society (Bognar, 2005).

However, social indicators researches have brought some problems with its haphazard development in terms of definition of problem, subject choice and data collection. It became a wide and diverse field with significant differences in conceptual approach, methodology and objectives. In the social indicators movement, research was mainly focused on *objective social indicators* that register frequencies or occurrences of observable events. Frequencies of illnesses related to health, registering the level of environmental pollution, the occurrence of crimes, the numbers of schools, possessions related to households are the focus of objective social indicators. But some researchers have begun to criticize them since they are unable to reflect the people's own evaluations about their living conditions. They suggested using subjective social indicators to measure the welfare adequately. To them, people's happiness and life satisfactions have also to be assessed in order to measure welfare adequately. (Bognar, 2005).

3.2 Objective and Subjective Social Indicators:

The distinction between objective and subjective social indicators became concrete in two views in the social indicators movement. While the Scandinavian view focuses exclusively on objective indicators, the American view stresses subjective indicators to measure welfare (Rapley, 2003).

In the Scandinavian view, welfare is considered as people's access to resources in order to achieve to live as they want and desire. People are in an active position to manage resources and resources are the means for the objectives of people. These resources can be money, possessions, knowledge, psychological and psychical energy, safety or so on. In this view, objective conditions are measured to evaluate the welfare of people (Rapley, 2003).

Amartya Sen's capability approach is based on this view. Sen sees human "capabilities" as the main driver of quality of life. In his approach, the characteristics of each person enable him/her to function in the world and lead a full life. Sen maintains that QOL derives from states of being and opportunities of doing instead of having experiences (Cobb, 2000).

Instead of focusing on objective conditions as in the Scandinavian view, the American view tries to measure quality of life with the satisfaction and evaluations of people of their own lives. The aim is not to achieve resources but to perceive life as good for people. The American view is mainly based on social psychology in its origin (Rapley, 2003).

Erikson (1993) suggests using 'descriptive' and 'evaluative' terms instead of objective and subjective respectively. While descriptive indicators are asked for describing the resources and conditions, evaluative indicators are asked to evaluate the conditions. A typical question to descriptive indicator would be 'How much do you receive as monthly salary?'. However, evaluative indicator asks the same question as 'Are you satisfied with your salary?'. Erikson (1993) notes that the difference between the two types of indicator should not be exaggerated since descriptive indicators contain some evaluative elements.

3.2.1 Strengths and Weaknesses of Objective Indicators:

Many quality of life researchers agree that if quality of life is to embrace the totality of human life, then both objective and subjective dimensions must be included in a measurement. There are, of course, many strengths and weaknesses of both indicators, so they should be used together to incorporate the strengths of each perspective. In their study, Diener and Suh (1997) indicate several advantages and disadvantages to using objective and subjective indicators.

Objectivity is the first strength of objective indicators because they are not based on individual perceptions. So, it is convenient to compare nations, regions, and demographic data with objective indicators. "Objectivity" means that the characteristics can be measured with great precision and with little measurement error. For instance, infant mortality is something that can be easily defined and accurately measured as an objective indicator (Diener & Suh, 1997: 193).

Reflecting the normative ideals of a society is another strength of objective indicators. People generally value absence of crime and fresh air regardless of whether they influence their happiness. Hence, social quality can also be measured based on shared social values without individual differences (Diener & Suh, 1997: 194).

Objective indicators also provide valuable data not only for individuals but also for various life domains by assessing global problems such as human rights, deforestation, global warming. So, they highlight the important problems globally and provide opportunities to solve these problems by assessing the degree of problems as well (Diener & Suh, 1997: 194).

There are also some weak points in objective indicators. One weakness of objective indicators is they are fallible. If rape is considered as a social problem, it is known that rape incidents are mostly underreported to the police and the reporting may change across cultures. So, it threatens the usefulness of figures to make comparisons. Additionally, it is also very difficult to measure infant mortality in nations where most infants are born at home. Hence, objective indicators may be contaminated by measurement problems although they are thought to be "objective" (Diener & Suh, 1997: 194).

Selection of variables in an ad hoc fashion is another weakness of objective indicators. Depending on the research topic, a researcher decides how to choose the variables and how to weigh them. An academician and a politician may choose totally different variables to measure the same topic. So selection of variables may totally change the
results to be reached. Additionally, the procedure for resolving how to weigh the indicators is also lacking since different people give differential importance to various indicators (Diener & Suh, 1997: 197).

Probably the weakest point of objective indicators is that they do not reflect people's experience of well-being. Individuals' perception of well-being and experience of life are more complex issues than can be assessed by descriptive indicators based on external conditions in a society (Diener & Suh, 1997: 199).

3.2.2 The Strengths and Weaknesses of Subjective Indicators:

One major advantage of subjective indicators is that they measure the experiences of people that are important to them. Subjective indicators provide an additional assessment of the evidence summarized by objective indicators. So the convergence of both indicators enables the researcher to make more definitive conclusions and deeper analyses in his/her research (Diener & Suh, 1997: 205).

Another strength of subjective indicators is that they are easier to modify in later studies according to changes in conditions when they are proven inadequate. Additionally, subjective indicators can easily be compared across domains since they measure the experience of well-being on a common dimension such as degree of satisfaction. Thus, it is theoretically possible to create a valid national indicator that can be used in international comparisons (Diener & Suh, 1997: 205).

However, subjective indicators also include some weaknesses in their measurement. Despite the validity and reliability of self-reported measures of well-being, every individual's responses cannot be assumed as valid and accurate. It is quite possible for individuals to use different mental scales, so it is difficult to be sure whether comparisons are carried out properly or not between individuals (Seghieri et. al., 2006). Therefore, subjective well-being should be measured by multiple methods to avoid common methodological shortcomings (Diener & Suh, 1997: 206).

Another weakness of subjective indicators is that they may not fully reflect the objective quality of community life since they may be more dependent on temperament and personal relationships than on societal factors. Additionally, individuals' subjective well-being may be affected by their adaptation to their environment and social expectations (Diener & Suh, 1997: 206). To the adaptation theory, as people adapt to improved circumstances, their initial gain in satisfaction tends to disappear; hence, the rising standards of living may not lead to higher reported levels of satisfaction. Similarly, if people's conditions deteriorate, they tend to adapt to them and then they may become satisfied with less (Bognar, 2006).

3.3 Measuring Human Development

The concept of human development was first introduced by Miles (1985) as a framework of a development project of the United Nations University (Noll, 2002). It was elaborated and developed by Amartya Sen and Mahbub ul Haq and began to be used in the context of the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). Since then, "human development" has been accepted as a term that represents the expansion of human capabilities, a widening of choices, an enhancement of freedoms and a fulfillment of human rights in the development economic literature (Parr and Kumar, 2003). In the human development framework, rising incomes and expanding outputs are seen as *means*, not the *ends* of development. Since the 1990s, in the Human Development Reports published by UNDP, the central focus of the outcome of development has been people's well-being.

The considerable dissatisfaction with gross national product (GNP) as a measure of human well-being resulted in searching for new measures in the UNDP (Haq, 2003). The measure of GNP failed to capture the cultural, social, political and many other choices of people and it revealed little about how people in a society live. To eliminate the drawbacks of the GNP measure, the Human Development Index (HDI) was introduced as a new composite index of socio-economic progress by the UNDP.

The HDI has three key components to measure human development: longevity, knowledge and income. While longevity is measured by life expectancy at birth, knowledge is measured by two education variables: adult literacy and mean years of schooling. Although the income variable is criticized for being a *mean* of development, the HDI uses income as a proxy for a bundle of goods and services needed for the best use of human capabilities (Haq, 2003).

However, HDI does not replace the GNP, but it provides a better understanding of society in several respects. The disadvantage of using only economic measures can be understood easier when both HDI and GDP are used as measures of human development. When the Table 3.1 is examined, the GDP figures of Turkey in 2003 reveal that the human well-being can be assumed to be better in Turkey than in Bulgaria and Romania. However, the HDI indicates the reverse since Bulgaria has the lowest GDP per capita (\$ 2.539) but in the highest rank in terms of HDI (57) among Turkey and Romania. Human Development Reports also enable one to make comparisons across time as well. So, the performance of governments can also be traced in terms of human development in their countries. Here, the Table 3.1 displays that although Turkey's GDP increased twice in 2003 when compared to that of 2001, there was only little increase in its HDI (from 96 to 94). What is more striking in the table is that although Bulgaria has the biggest increase in GDP from 2001 to 2003, Romania is the country which makes the best performance in HDI by rising in the rank from 72 to 64.

	HDI rank 2003*	GDP per capita (PPP US\$) 2001*	HDI rank 2005**	GDP per capita (PPP US\$) 2003**
Turkey	96	\$ 3,399	94	\$ 6,772
Bulgaria	57	\$ 2,539	55	\$ 7,731
Romania	72	\$ 2,619	64	\$ 7,277

Table 3.1: HDI and GDP Rankings of Turkey, Bulgaria and Romania

* Human Development Report, 2003

** Human Development Report, 2005

These differences in comparisons in terms of GDP and HDI measures display the development strategies of countries (Haq, 2003). While some countries give a high priority to the provision of basic social services in the society, some countries prefer focusing on economic indicators more. So, the comparison of HDI and GDP rankings give some clues to the policy makers as to which one should be considered more in order to improve the human well-being and the overall quality of life in a country. Additionally, HDI can also be used to compare regions or groups within a single nation (Cobb, 2000). So, HDI enables one to see the existing inequalities within a nation that reveal more than a simple average of a nation.

The human development approach also emphasizes concerns such as freedom, security, empowerment and participation of people that are largely ignored by other approaches to measure the quality of life (Noll, 2002). However, it is also criticized for ignoring some domains of life such as relationship with family and friends, emotional wellbeing, work and productivity, personal safety and quality of environment (Rahman et. al., 2005). As a general problem in measuring quality of life, use of different indices of well-being may give different rankings of countries and can lead to potentially misleading policy recommendations (Rahman et. al., 2005).

3.4 Measurement of Quality of Life in Europe

A rising interest for monitoring and reporting the social welfare around the world with the social indicators movement has also gained importance in Europe. The increasing need for a permanent monitoring of welfare development and the quality of life among the countries and regions of Europe has given rise to social reporting activities in the European Union. The enlargement process of the EU has also accelerated the reporting activities not only at the supranational but also at national and sub-national levels (Noll, 2002).

As stated in the Maastricht treaty, the European Union has to improve the quality of life and the living conditions in the member states. To realize this objective on a scientific basis "European System of Social Indicators" was developed (Noll, 2000). However, development of the conceptual framework of a European System of Social Indicators should not only be dealt with on a conceptual level within the social sciences but also consider the objectives and goals of current European Union policies. As Noll (2000) noted in his article, those political goals of the European Union focus on three main frameworks:

- 1. Economic and social progress that aims to improve the living conditions and quality of life concerning employment, education, standard of living, health, social protection and security, public safety and crime, transport and environment issues.
- 2. Strengthening of economic and social cohesion that aims to reduce the economic and social disparities between regions and social groups.
- 3. Sustainability which aims to promote more efficient use of energy and resources, to support the development of "clean" technologies, to increase the share of renewable energy resources and to promote the concept of sustainable mobility.

Where those political goals of the European Union are concerned, The European System of Social Indicators serves as a tool for not only measuring welfare and goal achievement but also for monitoring social change and registering progress in terms of those issues (Noll, 2000). In order to cover all those broad issues, the European System of Social Indicators includes the following life domains:

- Population
- Household and Family
- Housing
- Transport
- Leisure, Media, Culture
- Social and Political Participation and Integration
- Education and Vocational Training

- Labor Market and Working Conditions
- Income, Standard of Living, Consumption Patterns
- Health
- Environment
- Social Security
- Public Safety and Crime
- Total Life Situation

In addition to the 13 life domains included in the European System of Social Indicators presented above, total life situation was also added to cover comprehensive measures such as welfare indices and global evaluations (Noll, 2000).

In addition to the European System of Social Indicators, there is also a research initiative that is called *Euromodule* that was set up in 1998 by 19 nations across Europe including Turkey (Delhey et. al., 2002). The aim of Euromodule is to monitor and systematically analyze the existing and changing living conditions and quality of life in a cooperative perspective in Europe. According to Delhey et. al. (2002) what distinguishes the Euromodule project from other international or European social surveys is its inclusion of non-EU-countries such as Switzerland and Turkey as well as its inclusion of a broad range of quality of life indicators.

As indicated in Table 3.2, Euromodule consists of three kinds of welfare concepts including objective living conditions, subjective well-being and (perceived) quality of society.

	Objective	Subjective
Individual Level	Objective living conditions (e.g. income)	Subjective well-being (e.g. income satisfaction)
Societal Level	Quality of society (e.g. income distribution)	Perceived quality of society (e.g. perceived strength of conflicts between rich and poor)

Table 3.2: Different Aspects of Welfare Covered by Euromodule

Source: Delhey et. al (2002: 170)

The Euromodule has been carried out in eight countries so far: in Germany, Hungary, Slovenia and Sweden (all in 1999), Spain, and Switzerland (2000), Italy and Turkey (2000) (Delhey et. al, 2002).

Delhey et al. (2002) lists the indicators used in Euromodule as the following:

1. Objective living conditions:

- Housing
- Household composition
- Social Relations
- Participation
- Standard of living
- Income
- Health
- Education and Work

2. Subjective well-being:

- Domain satisfaction
- General life satisfaction
- Happiness
- Anxieties and anomia
- Subjective class position

- Importance of various life domains
- Optimism / pessimism for various social concerns
- Evaluation of their own living conditions

3. (Perceived) quality of society:

- Social conflicts
- Trust in other people
- Degree of achievement of public goods (freedom, security, social justice)
- Living conditions in various European countries in comparison to their own country
- Preconditions for social integration

With the joining of South Korea to the network in 2001 and South Africa's preparation to adapt the Euromodule questionnaire, the Euromodule data makes an international comparison possible in terms of several quality of life domains.

In the enlargement process of the European Union, the last study was carried out by the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions in 2003. The "European Quality of Life Survey" (EQLS) is the first pan-European survey conducted in all Europe covering not only the member states but also the acceding and candidate countries. (European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions, 2004). The 12 domains used in the EQLS are as following:

- Economic resources
- Knowledge, education and training
- Households and family life
- Health and access to health care
- Employment and working conditions
- Housing and living environments
- Social relationships, participation and integration

- Transport
- Local environment and amenities, recreation and leisure activities
- Public safety and crime
- Culture, social quality
- General life satisfaction

In the data of EQLS, each domain contains between 10 and 20 indicators that enable both descriptive and analytical monitoring to understand the relationships between domains and changes in indicators over time (Annual Report, 2003).

If Turkey is taken separately, the Turkish Statistical Institute conducted a "Life Satisfaction" survey in 2003 and published the results in 2004 (DİE, 2004). The survey consists of four parts. While the first part examines the household living standards, the second part focuses on happiness and life satisfaction from various life domains. The third part includes indicators of satisfaction from public services to the demographic and socio-economic variables. The fourth and last part contains variables such as expectations and optimism about the future, perceived welfare levels and opinions on the European Union. Since the "Life Satisfaction" survey of Turkish Statistical Institute contains limited data on quality of life domains and the questions were not organized according to European based surveys, it does not allow comparisons with EQLS data. So, it is not used in this study to compare the results.

3.5 Criticisms Related to Measures of Quality of Life:

Since there is no an agreement on the definition and measures of quality of life, many criticisms are made on the issue of measurement of quality of life. Nussbaum and Sen (1993) indicate that assessment of quality of life of people in a local or universal level is a difficult decision to make. While evaluating the quality of life in a country or region, which one is more convenient: to look for local traditions and most essential elements of that culture or to seek some more universal account of good human living, assessing the various local traditions against it? Nussbaum and Sen (1993) claim that

the question should be approached carefully but there are problems in both levels as well. If the researcher sticks to the local traditions, it seems to have the advantage of giving the researcher a clear way of knowing that culture in its context. The researcher has also the advantage of understanding the difference rather than seeking the same patterns in distant cultures. On the other hand, some traditions may contain elements of injustice and oppression which are deeply rooted in culture and it is hard for the researcher to find a basis for criticism of these inequalities without thinking in a universal way about human functioning. It is a very complex issue to choose the right assessment tool in terms of quality of life in different cultures of the world.

Similarly, another critique to the measurement of quality of life is made by Orwig and Fimmen (2005) from a cultural perspective again. They claim that quality of life can only be defined within the individuals' own contextual experiences. However, this does not mean that quality of life is relative, since there are basic needs of individuals to have a good quality of life all over the world. Adequate food, medical treatment, shelter and clothing are the basic needs of people. However, Orwig and Fimmen (2005) also claim that beyond these basic needs, the setting of priorities that rise above values, ideologies and political agendas should be considered in those cultures. So, quality of life can only be realized when people are asked what is important to them since they experience that life. Hence, imposing the values of one culture to another one does not reflect the real conditions of those people in terms of quality of life.

Schuessler and Fisher (1985) also criticize that the quality of life measures which imply policies may be controversial. They give an example from Horowitz (1979) that more air conditioning may improve the QOL indoors, while less air conditioning may improve the QOL outdoors. This paradox is a serious issue in the measurement of quality of life. It should be kept in mind that QOL of a small group may affect others negatively in terms of environmental concerns, so the policies related to improvement of QOL should be reached in caution.

CHAPTER 4

METHODOLOGY

4.1 Data

In this study, the data of the European Quality of Life Survey (EQLS) was used. The EQLS was carried out by Intomart GfK in 28 countries in Europe. The EQLS was launched in 2003 and it has been the most recent survey carried out in all EU Member States and three candidate countries in quality of life research so far. In this thesis, the countries are clustered to their membership status to EU. In this respect, they are categorized as 15 EU Member States that joined before May 2004 (EU15); the 10 newly joined Member States of May 2004 (NM10); and the three candidate countries Bulgaria, Romania and Turkey (CC3).

4.2 Methodology of the Survey

In the methodology of the survey, around 1000 persons aged 18 and over were interviewed in each country except for less populated countries such as the Greek Cypriot Administration, Estonia, Luxembourg, Malta and Slovenia. In those countries, around 600 interviews were conducted. The questionnaire (see Annex) including several life domains such as employment, working conditions, housing, family relations, social participation, perceived quality of society and subjective well-being was developed by a research consortium and the data is processed by the Social Science Research Center in Berlin (WZB) (European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions, 2004: pp.2-3).

4.3 Data Analysis

This thesis aims to illustrate the results of quality of life indicators for Turkey in comparison with the Member States of European Union and other candidate countries Bulgaria and Romania. Before statistical analyses are applied, the data is recoded into five cross-country groups as Turkey, Bulgaria, and Romania which are candidate countries, 10 new members of European Union as NM10 and former 15 EU Member States as EU15. In the data analysis process, population-weighted averages of NM10 and EU15 countries are calculated to represent the average of country groups.

NM10 countries include the Greek Cypriot Administration, Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, Slovakia, and Slovenia. In the thesis, although these countries have been members of the European Union since 2004, they were separated from the EU15 countries in the analysis because of constituting a reference point for candidate countries. To be clear, putting a reference point between candidate countries (CC3) and 15 former EU Member States (EU15) is important because of huge differences existing in almost all aspects of quality of life in those countries. So, NM10 countries represent a mid-point to reveal the differences between not only CC3 and NM10 but also NM10 and EU15 countries as a whole.

The former 15 members of the European Union are Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Portugal, Spain, Sweden, and United Kingdom. The population-weighted averages of these countries are represented as EU15 in data analysis of the study.

Bulgaria and Romania were taken separately instead of calculating averages of their data into one category as other candidate countries. The reason of adding Bulgaria and Romania separately into data analysis is to take them as reference countries for Turkey. So, it is much easier to grasp to what extent these candidate countries resemble each other in terms of quality of life indicators.

In this thesis, Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used. All analyses are descriptive which means that tables and figures related with frequencies show how Turkey, other candidate countries and EU Member States differ in some respects from each other. However, extensive attempts to explain why such differences arise statistically were avoided due to limitations of the data available and categorization of countries would make it difficult to interpret the data. Yet, differences in figures related to Turkey were attempted to be explained sociologically based on empirical findings in other studies carried out in Turkey in those aspects. In most of the analyses, crosstabulations are produced to see the basic ratio differences among country groups. Since the major purpose is to emphasize core results and differences and to give an overview on quality of life both in Turkey and in Europe, the crosstabulations were seen to be adequate in the analyses. However, it should be noted that since the statistical analyses conducted in this thesis did not aim to explain the significant differences between groups, interpretations of results should be approached carefully due to the risk of reporting significant differences in ratios between countries although there is none.

Throughout the analyses, it should also be kept in mind that the EU15 and NM10 group averages are computed on the base of population adjusted weights. It means that the countries which have relatively big populations have more influence to their group average than other countries in the same group. Nevertheless, this influence is not a problem in weighting since the group average represents the number of individuals living in these countries as a group. So, in fact, they represent all individuals' conditions in terms of quality of life in countries surveyed but differences between groups should not be generalized to all countries included in the specific group.

4.4 Strengths and Limitations of the Survey

The strengths of the EQLS are that it has been the most recent survey covering all 28 countries (categorized in this study) as both European Union members and candidate countries and it contains several questions in terms of quality of life in several life

domains which allow making comparisons in many aspects of quality of life between countries (European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions, 2004: p.11).

Limitations of the data are the low response rates for some countries and modest sample sizes. While the overall response rate of survey is 58.4 %, the response rate of Turkey is 38 % with the sample size of 996 cases (European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions, 2004). Although, the sample size with 996 cases for Turkey is adequate to provide general population profiles, it is not enough to make in depth analyses for sub-groups. Nevertheless, when the geographical scope and range of topics are considered, those limitations of the survey do not weaken the overall value of the data. But the results and interpretations should be approached carefully (European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions, 2004).

4.5 The Representativeness of the Data

In order to check the representativeness of the EQLS data for Turkey, sample statistics (frequency distribution in this case) with population parameters were compared along some important variables. Statistics of Turkish Statistical Institute (TÜİK) serve here as parameters and the EQLS as sample. The following tables are the comparisons of statistics taken from TÜİK's website and calculated from EQLS data.

		TUİ		EQLS 2003		
Regions	Total	Urban	Rural	% of Population	N	% of Population
Mediterranean	8.723.839	5.239.500	3.484.339	12,8585	117	11,7
East Anatolia	6.147.603	3.267.692	2.879.911	9,06126	89	8,9
Aegean	8.953.375	5.517.724	3.435.651	13,19683	145	14,6
South-East Anatolia	6.604.205	4.154.558	2.449.647	9,734268	80	8,0
Central Anatolia	11.625.109	8.046.723	3.578.386	17,13483	177	17,8
Black Sea	8.439.355	4.143.669	4.295.686	12,43919	129	13,0
Marmara	17.351.417	13.739.470	3.611.947	25,57512	259	26,0
Total	67.844.903	44.109.336	23.735.567	100	996	100,0
Source: DİE (TUIK)	100,0	65,01	34,99			

Table 4.1: Populations of Regions by TÜİK and EQLS Data

When the frequency distribution of regions in EQLS and census data (2000) are examined, the figures are fairly close.

Table 4.2: Rural – Urban Populations by TÜİK and EQLS Data

	Urban %	Rural %	
TUIK * (2000)	65.01	34.99	
EQLS (2003)	75,00	25.00	
* http://www.tuik.gov.tr/PreIstatistikTablo.do?istab_id=193			

Frequency distributions along the rural-urban dimension seem to be a little problematic. It is understood that there is under-sampling in the rural areas in EQLS data. However, since the date of data collected for TÜİK is the year 2000, percentages for urban and rural areas would be closer in 2003 due to increasing migration from rural to urban areas.

Table 4.3: Proportion of Illiterate and Literate Populations by TÜİK and EQLSData

	Illiterate %	Literate %			
TUIK * (2000)	12.68	87.32			
EQLS ** (2003)	8.30	91.60			
* http://www.tuik.gov.tr/PreIstatistikTablo.do?istab_id=198					
** Q47 "None" assu	** Q47 "None" assumed as illiterate				

Frequency distributions of education in EQLS and TUİK statistics use different categories which make the comparison impossible. The best approach then is to select certain categories that have the same meaning across both data sets. For the sake of comparison, 'illiterates' and 'literates' were taken as a base. There seems to be a sizable difference between EQLS and TUİK data regarding the percentage of illiterates which is significant. A lower percentage of illiterates in the EQLS data may well be due to undersampling of rural areas where more illiterate people tend to live.

As for age, the distributions are very similar.

Age groups	EQLS %	TUİK % [*]	
0-14	30,40	29,8	
15-64	64,30	64,5	
65+	5,30	5,8	
*Source: TUİK 2000 Census			

Table 4.4: Proportion of Age Groups by TÜİK and EQLS Data

Except for little differences in some figures, the EQLS data seems representative for Turkey.

CHAPTER 5

THE QUALITY OF LIFE COMPARISONS BETWEEN TURKEY AND EUROPEAN UNION MEMBER STATES

The quality of life comparisons between Turkey and other candidate and member states focus on mainly eight key issues concerning economic situation, housing and local environment, employment, education and skills, household structure and family relations, work-life balance, health and health care, subjective well-being and perceived quality of society. Those life domains contain several indicators to measure the quality of life aspect in the countries surveyed. The variables were selected from both objective and subjective measures of quality of life in order to grasp the whole picture. While the variables related with first six issues are mainly the objective measures, the last two issues include variables at subjective perception.

5.1 Economic Situation

In the literature, many studies on quality of life indicate that the relation between income and subjective well-being is positive but weak within nations (Schyns, 2002: 5). However, between-nation data show a much stronger relationship between the wealth of a nation and the average subjective well-being. It means people in wealthier nations are more satisfied with their lives than people in poor countries (Schyns, 2002: 6). Nevertheless, the relationship between wealth and subjective well-being is not so clear when other variables are included such as democratic life experiences, civil rights and freedom, and cultural determinants. When people speak about their level of happiness, they think for the short-term and make connections more easily between money and happiness since they need money for their immediate needs. However, it is noticeable that despite the regular increase of income in developed countries, it does not necessarily bring more happiness to people. Myers and Diener (1993) claim that

although income increased twice between 1950 and 1990 in United States of America, the proportion of people who reported themselves as "very happy" decreased from 35% to 30% at that time. These findings can be generalized to almost all societies. Easterlin (2004) explains that when income increases, the internal norms used to evaluate life satisfaction also increase at the same time and people mistakenly conclude that more money will make them happier.

When countries are compared in a macro-level indicator using GDP per capita, all three candidate countries have the lowest level of economic output among both ten newly member states and fifteen European Union Member States (see Figure 5.1). As seen in Figure 5.1, Turkey, Bulgaria and Romania have the lowest standard of living among all EU countries in terms of GDP per capita. It is dramatic that the gap between candidate countries and newly member states is almost two times, while it is even worse when compared to EU members. Mean GDP per capita of an EU member country is almost four times higher than Turkey. However, there is a little differentiation within the candidate countries.



Figure 5.1: Level of Annual GDP Per Capita (€ PPS)

When moved from macro level analysis to micro level, households' net monthly incomes can be examined to see the economic situation from a closer perspective. In order to make data comparable between countries, households' net monthly incomes have been converted into "Purchasing Power Standards (PPS^{*})" by the EQLS. In 2003, the average net equivalised household income in Turkey was slightly higher than Bulgaria and Romania (see Figure 5.2) but there seems to be a considerable variation among CC3, NM10 and EU15 countries. All candidate countries' median household monthly incomes are below 300 Euro and the figures indicate that Turkey has only about half of the average income level of the newly member states and less than a fourth of the EU15 average.



Figure 5.2: Median Household Monthly Equivalised (Modified OECD) Incomes

The median household monthly equivalised incomes by country groups reveal the gaps among CC3, NM10 and EU15 countries but there is no clue about within country income inequalities in those figures. In fact, the income inequalities between poor and

^{*} Purchasing Power Standards (PPS) is an artificial common currency that eliminates differences in price levels between countries (Eurofound, 2004).

rich people in a country reveal the healthiness of both the economy and society in terms of the development level of that country. Income inequalities in a country enable us to understand how the benefits of economic growth are distributed among income quartiles within a country. If the gap between rich and poor increases with economic growth, it means income inequalities also increase as well as tensions between social groups. Figure 5.3 shows that there are quite large income inequalities within candidate countries but especially in Turkey. The median household income in the highest quartile is around eight times higher than that in the lowest quartile, while in EU15, it was around four times higher than the average income in the lowest quartile. Among all the countries in Europe including Bulgaria and Romania, Turkey is the worst case in terms of income inequalities within country.



Figure 5.3: Distribution of Income Levels

Throughout the analyses, quality of life indicators in Turkey should be examined carefully because of high income inequalities. Since the figures represents the averages

within the country, in fact, the situation may be much worse in the lowest quartiles than expected. So, it requires further detailed analyses to make interpretations for different income quartiles in Turkey.

Other than income variables, deprivation level in households also gives important clues to the quality of life of households. In the survey, deprivation of households was measured by six items which are keeping the home adequately warm; having a week's holiday away from home; having a meal with meat every second day if they want; replacing worn-out furniture; buying new rather than second-hand clothes; having friends or family visit for a drink or meal at least once a month. The percentages of reported deprivation items are lower in Turkey than in Bulgaria and Romania but when it is looked at from a broader perspective, all three candidate countries display a high level of deprivation in their standard of living as compared to NM10 and EU15 countries (see Figure 5.4). The deprivation index is an important measure to determine the poverty level and therefore the quality of life in a country. Unfortunately, the survey reveals that many people in Turkey are unable to meet these six basic needs.

Percentages of six items (1) Keeping your home adequately warm; (2) paying for a week's annual holiday; (3) replacing any worn-out furniture; (4) having a meal with meat every second day if you wanted; (5) buying new, rather than second hand clothes; (6) having friends or family for a drink or meal at least once a month - of which people are deprived, in a sense that they cannot afford it (Question 20).



Figure 5.4: Deprivation Items by Country Group

In her article, Erman (2003) states that when the poor families cannot afford their basic needs (as indicated in deprivation index of Figure 5.4), they tend to restrict their food consumption more than other needs. The reason of limiting food consumption first in poor families is having no money to spend on clothing and furniture anyway. In such situations, it is common that households deprived by economic strain grow vegetable or fruits or keep poultry or livestock in order to meet their food needs. To the EQLS data, in Turkey, 30% of the households in the lowest income quartile rely on their own food production activities to meet the household's needs for food. The ratio is more than two times higher in Bulgaria and Romania as 64% and 76% respectively. Especially in urban areas of Turkey, gecekondu gardens are used to produce fruit and vegetables to contribute to the economic survival of the family. However, as time spent in the city increases, food production in gardens tends to decrease. Erman (2003) reveals the figures that while 61.3% of the gecekondu households had gardens, only 24.5% grew vegetables in their gardens. It should also be acknowledged that although the apartmentization process going on in many gecekondu settlements restricts the production of food for the urban poor (Erman, 2003), many rural migrants in urban areas still keep their ties with their natal villages from which they get foodstuffs in order to avoid problems especially in periods of crisis.

The corresponding figures of own food production for EU15 countries are significantly lower, with 11% of households in the lowest income quartile producing their own food to satisfy the household's food needs. Although, subsistence agriculture seems to be a solution to the difficult living conditions in both urban and rural areas for especially poor families, governments and policy makers should take measures to improve the living conditions of those people immediately since the dramatic increases in urban populations make food production impossible in the long run due to lack of space (Erman, 2003).

In Turkey, 78% of the lowest quartile income households declare that they have difficulties in making ends meet (Table 5.1). In the highest quartile income households, this figure drops to 14% which is almost the same with the average of new member

countries. It is interesting that in Bulgaria, 41% of the highest quartile income households are even larger than the proportion of households claiming difficulty in the lowest quartile income households in EU15. Similarly, for a household in the lowest income quartile in Turkey, the rate is almost four times higher than that in EU15. So, the figures displays that there is a sharp difference both between and within countries.

Income quartiles	Country group	Having difficulty in making ends meet (%)
Lowest quartile	TR	78
-	BG	88
	RO	64
	NM10	54
	EU15	23
Highest quartile	TR	14
	BG	41
	RO	12
	NM10	13
	EU15	3

Table 5.1: Having Difficulty in Making Ends Meet by Income Quartiles

As a general rule, when economic conditions are considered as an important factor of quality of life, it seems that there is a huge gap between candidate countries including Turkey and EU15 countries. Although the analyses are descriptive, they give important clues about the economic conditions both in European Union Member States and candidate countries. In order to catch up with European Union countries and to decrease the gap in income inequalities in Turkey, resources should be rearranged in terms of access to people from all income quartiles. Additionally, economically vulnerable people should be paid more attention to since they are in a disadvantaged position in society. One solution is to create new job opportunities by increasing the growth in production outside the agriculture sector (Özcan, 2003).

5.2 Housing and the Local Environment

The ownership structure of accommodation in Europe displays different variations as the figures examined. The policies and conditions to have accommodation may differ significantly in all countries, so the results should be interpreted with caution to assume as a quality of life indicator. In Turkey and other candidate countries, the rates of accommodation ownership without mortgage are higher than the EU15 countries (see Table 5.2). The reason of this in Turkey can be explained by high home-ownership in the shanty towns in cities. Similar results can be traced in a research conducted in Ankara (METU, 2000) which indicates that 87.3% of the respondents owned their own houses/apartments, while 23.3% of respondents rented them, and 16% lived in the houses owned by their relatives without paying rent. In developing countries with an unstable economy such as Turkey, home-ownership is perceived as life-long security by people and Şenyapılı (1998) claims that until recently many poor people in urban areas have hoped to build their own gecekondus that were tolerated by governments. This is an important factor that keeps the urban poor optimistic about the future and prevents them from falling into fatalism in Turkey (Erman, 2003)

The reasons of high ownership of accommodation rates in Bulgaria and Romania are different than Turkey. Precupetu (2006) indicates that privatization of social housing after the collapse of communism in these countries enabled people to become house owners instead of remaining as tenants.

	Own without mortgage	Own with mortgage	Tenant, paying rent to private landlord	Tenant, paying rent in social/ voluntary/ municipal housing	Accommo dation is provided rent free	Other
TR	54,1 %	1.7 %	28,0 %	1,6 %	14,0 %	0,6 %
BG	87,7 %	0,1 %	2,5 %	1,2 %	5,5 %	3,0 %
RO	85,3 %	1,2 %	3,3 %	1,0 %	8,3 %	0,9 %
NM10	67,9 %	7,2 %	6,2 %	12,9 %	4,0 %	1,8 %
EU15	35,9 %	26,6 %	18,5 %	15,0 %	2,7 %	1,4 %

 Table 5.2: Tenure Status According to the Accommodation

Q18: Which of the following best describes your accommodation?

The high rates of home ownership in candidate countries raise the question of quality of housing. As seen from the Table 5.3, the conditions in those houses are worse than that in EU15 countries. Especially in Turkey, the proportion of households declaring problems with their accommodation from all aspects is higher than the candidate countries except lack of indoor flushing toilet. Shortage of space is also a common problem among candidate countries as compared to EU15. In Turkey, 34% of households have problems with shortage of space, 32% have problems with rotting windows, 33% have problems with damp and leaks, while only 11% of households have no indoor flushing toilet. From all those figures, it can be easily derived that houses are less comfortable in CC3 countries despite the high rates of home ownership.

	Shortage of space	Rot in windows, doors or floors	Damp/leaks	Lack of indoor flushing toilet
Turkey	34,3 %	31,8	32,3 %	11,6 %
Bulgaria	22,1 %	21,7	25,5 %	29,3 %
Romania	27,6 %	29,9	29,3 %	41,4 %
NM10	19,7 %	26,4 %	19,8 %	11,1 %
EU15	18,1 %	8,2 %	13,6 %	1,8 %

 Table 5.3: Proportion of Households Declaring Problems with Accommodation

Q19: Do you have any of the following problems with your accommodation? (1) Shortage of space; (2) Rot in windows, doors or floors; (3) Damp/leaks; (4) Lack of indoor flushing toilet.

Although, there are high rates of complaints about the objective conditions of accommodations especially in candidate countries, subjective satisfaction points given for accommodation do not seem quite different. Respondents in Turkey give on average 6.4 points out of 10 for the satisfaction with their accommodation and it can be assumed as above the moderate satisfaction (see Figure 5.5). Measuring quality of life with both objective and subjective indicators is so important to interpret the results because how people evaluate their accommodations is also an important indicator. High rates for ownership of accommodation in Turkey may result in giving moderate points instead of giving much lower points.

Q41d: Could you please tell me on a scale of 1 to 10 how satisfied you are with each of the following items, where 1 means you are very dissatisfied and 10 means you are very satisfied?... d) Your accommodation.



Figure 5.5: Satisfaction of Respondents with Their Accommodation

While discussing the quality of housing, the quality of the local environment should also be considered. The EQLS asks about complaints regarding the local environment in four aspects: noise; air pollution; lack of access to green areas and water quality (Table 5.4). Since complaints about local environmental problems may vary in rural and urban areas, it is better to analyze the problems in this dimension. With regard to environmental problems, there is a clear difference between the findings for Turkey and other country groups. The rates of complaints of the respondents in Turkey for all problems of their local environment in both rural and urban areas are higher than the EU member countries. As expected, the people who live in urban areas declare their dissatisfaction with environmental conditions more frequently than inhabitants of rural regions. Lack of access to recreational and green space areas is a significant problem for Turkey both in rural and urban areas. As seen from the Table 5.4, 44% of those living in rural areas and 48% living in urban areas complain about this problem. While the rates of problems about environmental conditions in CC3 countries are closer to NM10 countries, the rates in EU15 countries are much lower as expected. In relation to housing and the local environment, Turkey should improve the conditions in all those environmental problems to catch up with the EU15 countries.

		Noise	Air pollution	Lack of green space	Water quality
Rural	TR	20 %	14 %	44 %	36 %
	BG	9 %	11 %	13 %	20 %
	RO	12 %	15 %	8 %	15 %
	NM10	13 %	13 %	9 %	19 %
	EU15	11 %	9 %	8 %	10 %
Urban	TR	33 %	34 %	48 %	43 %
	BG	29 %	37 %	21 %	42 %
	RO	29 %	40 %	28 %	29 %
	NM10	25 %	30 %	22 %	28 %
	EU15	19 %	19 %	17 %	13 %

Table 5.4: Proportion of Respondents Who Complain about EnvironmentalProblems by Region

Q56: Please think about the area where you live now -I mean the immediate neighborhood of your home. Do you have very many reasons, many reasons, a few reasons, or no reason at all to complain about each of the following problems: noise, air pollution, lack of access to recreational or green areas, and water quality? - Dimension: very many reasons and many reasons

In terms of housing and local environment, there are two striking results that can be used to summarize the quality of life in Europe. The first is that home-ownership without mortgage is more prevalent in the CC3 and NM10 countries as compared to EU15 countries for different reasons for Turkey and other countries. However, as a second result, quality of housing and local environment is much better in EU15 countries. Despite the differences in many indicators between European Union Member States and candidate countries, there are also many overlaps in all countries in terms of the complaints about the quality of housing and local environment. Therefore, those high rates of complaints should be taken as the demands of people from their governments to improve their living conditions as well as the quality of life.

5.3 Employment, Education and Skills

To the report of European Commission (as cited in Eurofound, 2004), the goals of more and better jobs and reduced unemployment are major elements of the EU's Lisbon strategy. There is a relatively high concentration of employment in the agricultural sector in Turkey. According to TÜİK statistics, 37% of employment was found in the agricultural sector, 17% in industry and 45% in service sectors in 2003. To the report of Eurofound (2004), in 2002, 13 % of employment was found in the agricultural sector in the NM10, compared to 4 % in the EU15. Unemployment rate in NM10 in 2002 was 15 %, compared to 8 % in the EU15. In Turkey, economic crisis affected many sectors negatively in 2001 and unemployment rates as well.

The EQLS provides many valuable data in terms of seeing the general picture in the areas of employment, education and skills. If the employment statuses of respondents are examined, the high rate of homemakers in Turkey is very significant (see Table 5.5). One reason for the high rate of homemakers may be the dominant patriarchal structure prevailing in Turkey. Another significant figure displays itself in the retired category. The rates for retired are almost two times higher in EU15 than in Turkey. Turkey's having a large young population compared to Europe also shows itself in the category of "still studying". The rate for "still studying" category is relatively higher than in all other CC3, NM10 and EU15 countries.

	(Self)	Homemaker	Unemployed	Retired	Still	Other
	Employed				studying	
Turkey	32,9 %	35,4 %	7,9 %	12,9 %	7,4 %	3,4 %
Bulgaria	38,1 %	2,2 %	13,0 %	44,0 %	1,8 %	0,9 %
Romania	37,2 %	13,9 %	4,7 %	36,0 %	6,2 %	2,0 %
NM10	48,1 %	4,8 %	7,7 %	32,7 %	5,4 %	1.3 %
EU15	48,8 %	11,0 %	5,4 %	27,4 %	6,1 %	1,4 %

Table 5.5: Respondent's Employment Status

The EQLS data reveals that people in Turkey and Romania work longer hours than people in the EU15. While a person in Turkey works on average 51 hours per week, it is less than 40 hours for a person living in EU15 (see Figure 5.6). These figures show that people in candidate countries but especially in Turkey have to work longer hours to earn his/her living. However, the economic situation also shows that people in Turkey work much more but earn less as compared to NM10 and EU15 countries. Turkey is a country that has a high rate of informal economy which is characterized by low pay, poor working conditions, absence of flexible working time arrangements, high job insecurity and a low level of protection for employees in relation to working time. Demir (2003) in his study claims that when families experience poverty due to a decrease in the household income, one of the coping strategies to survive is to increase the number of household members that participate in the labor force. Thus, to increase the household income, not only men but also women, children and even the elderly start working outside the home. In this period, men take on a second, or a third job if possible.

Q7: How many hours do/did you normally work per week (in your main job), including any paid or unpaid overtime?



Figure 5.6: Number of Hours Worked per Week

Job security is also a serious problem in developing countries which affects the quality of life of people. Since the formal sector cannot provide enough employment positions to meet the increase in labor supply, many people end up working in the informal sector for little pay without job contracts and job security (Demir, 1993).

Moreover, weak labor market conditions experienced in Turkey has resulted in high unemployment rates. Additionally, reforms in the local economy in order to revise it according to global standards affect not only unemployed people but also the employed people. Hence, most people feel insecure in their jobs, perceiving the likelihood of losing jobs due to the unstable economy. Table 5.6 shows what proportion of respondents feel themselves insecure in their jobs. In Turkey, one third of the respondents reported that they may lose their jobs in the next 6 months, the rate being even worse in Bulgaria at 52 %. When compared with EU15, the perceived likelihood of losing one's job in next six months is four times higher in Turkey and it seems to be quite a high rate in terms of job insecurity.

 Table 5.6: Perceived Likelihood of Losing One's Job in Next Six Months Among

 Employed Respondents

	Very or quite likely
Turkey	28 %
Bulgaria	52 %
Romania	18 %
NM10	18 %
EU15	7 %

Q11: How likely do you think it is that you might lose your job I the next 6 months? – Dimension: Very likely and quite likely

As a subjective evaluation of the present job, Turks have the lowest satisfaction with their jobs as compared to other EU countries. Figure 5.7 indicates that respondents gave 6.3 points out of 10 for their job satisfactions in Turkey, while it was 7.5 points in EU15 countries. Job insecurity, low wages and long working hours affect satisfaction rates inevitably and it reflects itself in these figures.

Q41b: Could you please tell me on a scale of 1 to 10 how satisfied you are with each of the following items, where 1 means you are very dissatisfied and 10 means you are very satisfied?... b) Your present job.



Figure 5.7: Satisfaction of Respondents with Their Present Jobs

Education is another important indicator which contributes to the quality of life in a country, and is also one of the three criteria used by the UNDP to develop the 'Human Development Index'. To Kağıtçıbaşı (1998), education of women is very important since they raise the children. If the women's education is not paid attention to, it also results in the failure of education of children that are seen as the investments of society.

When education variables in the EQLS data are examined, the disadvantaged position of Turkey is evident due to the highest rate of maximum years of completed full-time education being only 15 years. Almost half of the respondents in Turkey declare that they have completed their full-time education up to 15 years (see Table 5.7). The rate is quite higher in Europe and it reveals the prevalence of lack of education in Turkey. Although the level of education in Turkey has been increasing (the 5-years compulsory education has become 8 years in 1997), there are still significant inequalities in terms of access to educational facilities between urban and rural areas (Erman, 2003)

	up to 15 years	16-19 years	20+ years	still studying
Turkey	53,5 %	22,0 %	15,9 %	8,6 %
Bulgaria	20,8 %	46,5 %	31,1 %	1,6 %
Romania	27,3 %	39,5 %	28,6 %	4,6 %
NM10	17,2 %	52,8 %	24,2 %	5,8 %
EU15	24,4 %	37,4 %	31,6 %	6,7 %

 Table 5.7: Proportion of Completed Full-Time Education

Education is one of the most problematic areas to improve the quality and quantity of schools in Turkey. Even though the rate of population increase is slowing down and coming closer to world averages in Turkey, it still produces bigger absolute increases in total population due to its high population. The high young population rates in Turkey may turn into an advantage in the long run but it brings the problems together as well. For instance, in the study of Sönmez (1996), every year 60.000 children reach school age due to population increases or migrations in Istanbul and about 1500 classes have to be built to satisfy this demand. In such conditions, it is hard to speak about the quality of education as well as the sufficient quantity of schools in Turkey (Erman, 2003).

Other than the quality of education, respondents in Turkey reported that they are also dissatisfied with their education (see Figure 5.8). Increasing demand for skilled labor and well-educated people and increasing unemployment rates make university and even higher diplomas more necessary to find a good job. Additionally, while people had a chance to find a job in the job market with their primary school diplomas in the past; it is very hard now for even university graduates. Hence, people feel the lack of education more and more these days. Figure 5.8 displays that Turks are really dissatisfied with their education and they gave 5.3 points on average for their satisfaction from education. It is significantly lower than all other countries' satisfaction levels. Even in the candidate countries Bulgaria and Romania, satisfaction points are above 6.5. In fact, surprisingly, people in Romania are the most satisfied for their education among all EU country averages.

Q46: How old were you when you completed your full time education? (Recoded from variable Q46 into four categories)

Q41a: Could you please tell me on a scale of 1 to 10 how satisfied you are with each of the following items, where 1 means you are very dissatisfied and 10 means you are very satisfied?... a) Your education.



Figure 5.8: Satisfaction of Respondents with Their Education

Lifelong learning is very crucial in today's world due to increasing demands for trained and well-educated people for the job market (Eurofound, 2004). Education and training of people has a significant importance for a country to compete in a globalizing world. Necessity for training, knowing English and internet use are becoming inevitable for lots of sectors in a country. For all of these reasons, decision-makers in Turkey should pay attention to these issues in a more proactive way and aim to create appropriate conditions for people to equip themselves in necessary knowledge.

In relation to training, the EQLS data indicate that only 13 % of employees in Turkey have undertaken training or participated in a course of some kind over the past year. This is quite low compared with the EU15 average of 25 % (see Figure 5.9). However, Turkey is in a better condition when compared to other candidate countries. In fact, these figures are important indicators for candidate countries to see their situations in the competitive European economies. In order to catch them, Turkey and other candidate countries should provide better education opportunities and more training for their people. Moreover, the developments in education and training facilities can also be considered as an important factor for enabling people to access good quality jobs.



Q48: Have you taken an education or training course at any time with the last year?

Figure 5.9: Proportion of Respondents Who Have Taken an Education or Training Course Over the Previous Year

The proportion of population who can read English either very well or quite well is nearly four times higher in the EU15 (49%) than in Turkey (12%) (see Figure 5.10). In all three candidate countries, the proportion of respondents who can read English is quite low compared to EU15.

Q51: How well do you read English? (1) Very well; (2) Quite well; (3) Not very well; (4) Not at all; (5) Do not know



Figure 5.10: English Reading Ability by Country Group

The use of the Internet is also another aspect of skills and resources that is important in competitive economies. In this instance, conditions to access the appropriate

technologies are as important as the ability to use the technology. The EQLS data show that, as a whole, the percentage using the Internet more than weekly in the EU15 (35%) is roughly twice that in Turkey (17%) (see Table 5.8).

	Used it	Used the	Used the	Did not use
	everyday or	internet a couple	internet	the internet
	almost every	of times a week	occasionally	at all
	day		(once a month	
			or less)	
Turkey	8 %	9 %	9 %	74 %
Bulgaria	2 %	4 %	6 %	88 %
Romania	4 %	5 %	8 %	83 %
NM10	11 %	8 %	9 %	72 %
EU15	21 %	14 %	11 %	54 %

Table 5.8: Proportion of Respondents' Internet Use

Source: EQLS 2003

The high rate of young population in Turkey can be considered as an advantage since it is easier to be familiar with the Internet in the schools. As primary schools are equipped with computers and provided with access to the Internet, a sharp increase in the percentages can be expected in Turkey in the near future.

5.4 Household Structure and Family Relations

In Turkey, households are relatively large with an average of 4,02 persons, compared with the EU15 average of 2,49 persons per household (see Table 5.9). The figures reveal that there is still relatively high proportion of extended families in Turkey, where children, parents and grandparents live in the same house. The mean number of children in an household is 1,86 in Turkey while in EU15 it is 1,57. In Turkey, there are several reasons affecting the household pattern. The economic reason is the lack of income due to high unemployment rates or low wages in the job market. So, young people in Turkey are compelled to stay longer in their parental houses in order to live on. Additionally, the high solidarity and dependence between family members keeps them together including elderly in some conditions. However, the situation is not the same in EU15 countries where many young people leave their parental home earlier.

	Persons per
	household
Turkey	4,02
Bulgaria	2,86
Romania	2,78
NM10	2,85
EU15	2,49

Table 5.9: Average Number of People Live in a Household

One other reason for the relatively high proportion of extended families especially in the urban areas in Turkey is the lack of sufficient social services. In an extended family, while elderly people are cared for by the family, they care for children when the parents work. So, the extended family form is a coping strategy in developing countries such as Turkey since larger families are better able to cope with economic problems because of the support offered by family members during difficult times.

In Turkey, great importance is given to the family institution and marriages are encouraged for young singles. Table 5.10 shows that almost 70% of respondents of households are married or living with a partner. It is the highest ratio when compared to other country groups in the study. The low divorce rates in Turkey reflect itself in the second column in Table 5.10 with the rate of 2% which is also the lowest rate in the table this time. In the difficult life conditions of Turkey, marriages may be considered as a survival strategy for low income families if both man and woman work. Turkey differs significantly with its family structure statistics from the rest of member and candidate countries.
	Married or living with partner	Separated or divorced and not living with	Widowed and not living with partner	Never married and not living with partner
		partner		
Turkey	70,3 %	2,0 %	4,5 %	23,2 %
Bulgaria	67,2 %	5,6 %	17,9 %	9,4 %
Romania	66,8 %	6,6 %	12,9 %	13,7 %
NM10	58,9 %	9,7 %	14,1 %	17,4 %
EU15	58,2 %	10,2 %	11,3 %	20,4 %

 Table 5.10: Distribution of Marital Status by Country Group

Generally, the family is the main source of social integration and support in Turkey. People largely depend on the support of family members in difficulties (see Table 5.11). In relation to relying on support from friends, Turkey differs from EU15 countries in this respect, as people in Turkey appear to be less dependent on friends in comparison with the EU15 countries. The social life of especially poor people in Turkey is characterized by relationships within family. Ayata and Ayata (2003) state that poor people tend to minimize their relationships with friends, neighbors, and relatives in Turkey because they feel ashamed for their deprived situation and dependence on other people. So, it is evident that providing support in any type to a family member is among the important roles of the family in Turkey.

If you need €1000¹ in an If you need help when ill emergency others 2 others² family family nobody nobody Turkey 87 % 9% 4 % 61 % 19 % 20 % Bulgaria 83 % 13 % 4% 34 % 32 % 34 % 2 % Romania 85 % 13 % 44 % 24 % 32 % NM10 86 % 12 % 2% 59 % 23 % 18 % **EU15** 18 % 2 % 69 % 80 % 21 % 10 %

 Table 5.11: Proportion of Households From Where Get Support

 by Country Group

¹ In NM10 and CC3 countries, the reference is \in 500.

² 'Others' refers to: 'work colleagues', 'friends', 'neighbors', 'someone else'.

Q36a, 36d: From whom would you get support in each in the following situations? From each situation, choose the most important person ... a) if you needed help around the house when ill, d) if you needed to urgently raise $\notin 1000/\notin 500$ to face an emergency.

Since the family members are the first helpers in an emergency in economic or health related problems, respondents in Turkey rated 7.8 points for their satisfaction with their family lives. In fact, the lowest one is 7.0 points in Bulgaria and it seems that most of households are satisfied with their family life in Europe since satisfaction points on average are much above the satisfaction levels of other domains in all countries.

Q41e: Could you please tell me on a scale of 1 to 10 how satisfied you are with each of the following items, where 1 means you are very dissatisfied and 10 means you are very satisfied?... e) Your family life.



Figure 5.11: Satisfaction with Family Life

5.5 Work-Life Balance

The survey results indicate that work and family life have considerable problems in candidate countries. Almost one third of the survey respondents in Turkey reported that they were too tired after coming home from work to carry out any household tasks (see Table 4.12). Similarly, a higher proportion of people (28%) in Turkey, compared with other CC3, NM10 (15%) and EU15 (8%) countries reported that they had difficulties fulfilling family responsibilities because of spending too much time at work. Working for long hours to get sufficient income for the household leaves people in Turkey less time for their social activities as compared with people in any of the EU countries.

Table 5.12: Proportion of Employed Persons Who Have Difficulties Reconciling

	Too tired to do	Difficulties in	Difficulties in
	household jobs	fulfilling family	concentrating at
	(a)	responsibilities	work
		(b)	(c)
Turkey	36 %	28 %	12 %
Bulgaria	37 %	20 %	4 %
Romania	37 %	17 %	2 %
NM10	31 %	15 %	4 %
EU15	20 %	8 %	3 %

Work and Family Life Several Times a Week by Country Group

How often has each of the following happened to you during the last year? Q13a: I have come home from work too tired to do some of the household job which need to be done.

Q13b: It has been difficult for me to fulfill my family responsibilities because of the amount of time I spend working.

Q13c: I have found it difficult to concentrate at work because of my family responsibilities.

Categories for all questions are: several times a week, several times a month, several times a year, less often, never.

The balance between work and family life is very crucial in terms of quality of life since both of them are the main determinants for life satisfaction for most people. When the average hours spent at work weekly for both men and women are considered in Turkey, it is seen that both spent more time at work as compared to EU15 countries (see Figure 5.12). It is dramatic that while women work on average 47 hours per week in Turkey, men work on average 43 hours per week in EU15 countries. In Turkey, women in particular face a high burden in this respect. Both men and women in employment in Turkey work an average of 10 hours longer per week when compared to EU15 countries.

Q7: How many hours do/did you normally work per week (in your main job), including any paid or unpaid overtime?



Figure 5.12: Weekly Working Hours by Sex and Country Group

Moreover, due to prevailing gender roles and patriarchal relations within both family and society, women in Turkey also devote more time to housework than men do (see Figure 5.13). They are also considered as more responsible for childcare and care of elderly people. However, Erman's study (1997a) notes that although women were kept inside home for family honor in many rural migrant families, the increasing poverty has forced them to seek paid employment outside the home (Erman, 2003). All the figures in this aspect reveal that women have a great burden both at work and home in all EU countries but it is more valid for candidate countries. So, the governments should support women more by providing different care services. The conditions of women at work can be improved by offering more flexible working time arrangements and paid maternal leave. Thus, women can combine their family responsibilities and their professional careers easier (Precupetu, 2006).

Q38b: How many hours a day are you involved in...? b) Housework.



Figure 5.13: Daily Hours for Doing Housework by Sex

As a result, in the light of these figures it is clear that if the work-life balance of people is not improved by some social reforms, the low satisfaction rates from those life domains will continue to increase in society and consequently they result in low quality of life and living standards among all people. Therefore, decision-makers should consider creating and offering new possibilities for balancing work, family and social life in Turkey. If people are offered greater choice in arranging their work schedules with flexible working time and women are given more opportunities to enter or remain in the labor market, it will inevitably increase the overall quality of life in a country.

5.6 Health and Health Care

There is a consensus among scholars in the literature that being in good health is an essential precondition for a high quality of life. According to the EQLS, the proportion of respondents reporting their health as poor is 7% and it seems rather low compared to

other candidate countries Bulgaria and Romania. The striking point in the figures of Turkey is that the rate is the same with that reported in EU15 countries (see Table 5.13). Additionally, those who reported their health status as 'excellent' or 'very good' in Turkey have a proportion of 25% which is also a rate above candidate countries but lower than that of EU15 (40%). These figures, of course, do not mean that people in Turkey experience less health problems than other candidate countries since the complaint rates are quite similar with them.

	Poor	Excellent or very good
Turkey	7 %	25 %
Bulgaria	19 %	22 %
Romania	18 %	15 %
NM10	15 %	25 %
EU15	7 %	40 %

 Table 5.13: Proportion of Respondents Reporting Their Health Status

When the long-standing illness or disability problems are asked to respondents, rates in countries vary according to age groups. For example, while the proportion of people who reported having a long-standing illness or disability that prevents them from leading an active and independent life is lower in Turkey (8%) as compared to EU15 and MN10 countries, the rate increases dramatically to 16 % in people between the ages of 25-34 which is higher figure than all other reference countries (see Table 5.14). Almost in all age groups, the rates of long-standing illness or disability ratings in Turkey are above the rates of EU15 countries

Q43: In general, would you say your health is: Excellent, very good, good, fair, or poor?

	18-24	25-34	35-49	50-64	65+
Turkey	8	16	23	31	55
Bulgaria	9	9	17	35	54
Romania	3	9	23	39	52
NM10	11	11	21	40	59
EU15	10	10	17	30	40

Table 5.14: Long-standing Illness or Disability in Relation to Age

Q44: Do you have any long-standing illness or disability that limits your activities in any way? By long-standing, I mean anything that has troubled you over a period of time or that is likely to affect you for a period of time. – Categories: Yes

When the health status is analyzed according to regions and income quartile groups, as expected, inhabitants of rural areas and respondents in the lowest income quartile report lower health status almost in all countries. Insufficient health services in rural as compared to urban areas makes it more difficult for people to access those services. In relation to health services, people living in Turkey report more problems accessing such services than people in the EU15. Turks complain most about the cost of seeing the doctor: one out of three respondents found it 'very difficult' to afford seeing the doctor when they needed (see Table 5.15). In Turkey, when people are asked, one third of respondents complained about not only the problem of distance to doctor/hospital/medical services but also difficulties in getting appointment and longer hours to see a doctor on the day of appointment. The rates of respondents about health services are quite above the rates in EU15 countries.

	Distance to doctor/ hospital	Delay in getting appointment	Waiting time to see doctor on day of	Cost of seeing the doctor
			appointment	
Turkey	29 %	30 %	31 %	34 %
Bulgaria	41 %	41 %	34 %	33 %
Romania	16 %	15 %	24 %	30 %
NM10	8 %	13 %	18 %	16 %
EU15	4 %	10 %	10 %	8 %

Table 5.15: Proportion of Reporting Access to Health Services as 'Very Difficult'

Q45: On the last occasion you needed to see a doctor or medical specialist, to what extent did each of the following factors make it difficult for you to do so: distance to doctor's office/hospital/medical centre; delay in getting appointment; waiting time to see doctor on day of appointment; cost of seeing the doctor? – Very difficult

All the problems experienced above are reflected in people's perceptions about the quality of health services. The perceived quality of health services in Turkey is below the moderate score (see Figure 5.14). While the average score is 3.8 points (on a scale of one to 10, where one means very poor quality and 10 means very high quality), it is almost twice that in EU15 (on average 6.5). At just 3.5 points, Bulgaria scored the lowest of all the countries studied.

Q54: In general, how would you rate the quality of each of the public services in [country]? Please tell me on a scale of one to 10, where one means very poor quality and 10 means very high quality – health services



Figure 5.14: Perceived Quality of Health Services

Health can be considered as one of the most critical elements contributing to the quality of life of people and society in general, so, problems in the health sector affect not only the patients but also the overall quality of life perception in society. If Gerson's example of the relationship between a chronic illness and quality of life is remembered, the importance of quality in health sector for all society is seen easily. This low score of perceived quality of health services in Turkey should take the attention of policy makers and immediate health reforms should be put into practice in order to catch up with EU Member States. Moreover, the conditions of health services

and working conditions of medical staff should also be improved to get utility from health services in the short run in Turkey. In order to prevent prevailing health related problems, people have to be given health education as well.

5.7 Subjective Well-Being

Subjective well-being of people is another important factor that determines quality of life in a society. Subjective quality of life consists of individual's evaluations of their life and a process that includes emotional responses, domain satisfactions and global perceptions of satisfaction (Diener, Suh, Lucas & Smith, 1999). There is a wide consensus in the literature that it is not enough to measure only the objective living conditions since they cannot grasp the evaluations of people of their lives. Having a car, house or luxury items does not necessarily bring happiness or life satisfaction in all conditions. So, knowing the subjective well being of people in a country enables policy and decision-makers to see to what extent the needs of the population are being met. Among the indicators of subjective well-being, while life satisfaction gives a more cognitive-driven evaluation of living conditions and life as a whole, overall happiness gives a more emotional assessment (Sirgy, 2001).

People living in Turkey have among the lowest standards of living of all the EU15 and NM10 countries. Lower living standards, in turn, negatively affect people's subjective feelings about their lives as a whole and about various aspects of their lives. As a candidate country to the European Union, the respondents in Turkey reported low levels of subjective well-being. Low quality and relatively worse objective living conditions in Turkey inevitably affect people's evaluations negatively about their lives. Not surprisingly, Turkey lags behind the EU15, NM10 countries in relation to subjective well-being (see Table 5.16).

	Satisfaction	Happiness
	mean	mean
Turkey	5,6	6,4
Bulgaria	4,4	5,7
Romania	6,2	7,0
NM10	6,1	6,9
EU15	7,4	7,7

Table 5.16: Life Satisfaction and Happiness by Country Group

Q31: All things considered, how satisfied would you say you are with your life these days? Scale from one 'very dissatisfied' to 10 'very satisfied'. Q42: Taking all things together on a scale of one to 10, how happy would you say you are? Here one means very unhappy and 10 means you are very happy.

In Turkey, the score for life satisfaction is the second lowest after Bulgaria among all the countries analyzed, at just 5,6 points (on a scale of one to 10, where one means very dissatisfied and 10 means very satisfied), compared with an average score of 6,1 for NM10 countries and an average of 7,4 points for the EU15 countries. When average happiness figures are examined by country in Table 5.16, there is a slight increase in scores in all countries as compared to average life satisfaction figures. The happiness scores are higher than life satisfaction scores as general because people think of happiness in the short term and they just report they are happy since it is an emotional response (Sirgy, 2001). So, life satisfaction scores give more important clues for the overall evaluation of life in a society.

Expectations of people from the future also give important clues about people's evaluations of their subjective well-being. Three fifths of the respondents in Turkey are optimistic in their responses about the future (see Table 5.17) while 40 % of the respondents are pessimistic. Although the figures about optimism about the future in Turkey are below that of EU15 again, it is a quite good rate when the low standard of living in Turkey is considered. One reason for this may be the common existence of the feeling of fatalism in people in Turkey who tend to thank God for their present situation because they know some other people living in worse conditions (Erman, 2003).

	Agree	Agree	Disagree	Disagree
	completely	somewhat	somewhat	completely
Turkey	26,5 %	36,6 %	19,2 %	17,7 %
Bulgaria	11,0 %	33,5 %	25,3 %	30,2 %
Romania	26,6 %	38,5 %	17,1 %	17,9 %
NM10	20,2 %	42,9 %	25,4 %	11,5 %
EU15	24,9 %	46,0 %	21,6 %	7,4 %

 Table 5.17: Optimism about the Future

Q30: Please tell me whether you agree completely, agree somewhat, disagree somewhat or disagree completely with the statement: I am optimistic about the future

Among the candidate countries, while the rates in Romania regarding optimism about the future display a similar pattern to that of Turkey, the rates in Bulgaria are much below both of those countries. Michalos (2003) claims that there is certainly no correlation between a country's economic strength or weakness and optimism, either positive or negative. To Michalos (2003), the best or worst economic performers are not all clustered at the top or the bottom in an optimism scale Although CC3 countries experience similar material conditions, different responses of people about optimism about the future in their countries can be explained by the reality that their assessment also includes their expectations and values, as well as their experiences from the past.

5.8 Perceived Quality of Society

Veenhoven (1996) suggests objective living conditions, subjective well-being and perceived quality of society as the three pillars of the multi-dimensional concept of quality of life. Perceived quality of society includes people's evaluations of social institutions as well as their perceptions of solidarity in society, and their perceptions of trust between social groups and individuals (Eurofound, 2004). The EQLS data provide some useful information about what people think about their societies.

Trust is an important factor affecting people's attitudes towards each other and it is the mirror of solidarity between people in a country. When Figure 5.15 is examined, unfortunately, it is seen that the respondents in Turkey reported the lowest level of trust to each other among all countries studied in the survey. While people giving 4.4 points

on average in the trust scale of the questionnaire in Turkey, it is 5,9 in EU15 countries. Although there seems to be little difference between points, it is important to keep in mind that trusting others completely can only be possible in small communities in which people know each other very well, and it is almost impossible at a country level. The figures about trust may also be the reason why people in Turkey get help mostly from their families when they need it when compared to other EU countries. Ayata and Ayata (2003: 134) see poverty as a reason of low trust among people in society. Even though people get considerable help from their relatives or other people, they express the feeling of mistrust for people around because of the irregular nature of benefits and the negative feelings for being dependent on other people.

Q28: Generally speaking, would you say that most people can be trusted or you can be too careful in dealing with people? Please tell me on a scale of 1 to 10, where 1 means you can not trust and 10 means that most people can be trusted.



Figure 5.15: Levels of Trust on Other People

Low trust level and low scores on subjective well-being can also be traced by people's overall evaluations about society. In Turkey, one third of people reported that in order to get ahead nowadays they are forced to do things that are not correct (see Table 5.18). The rate is more than three times as compared to EU15 countries (9%). The proportion

of respondents who feel left out of society is 10 % which is also quite higher than that of EU15. A striking result comes from the fourth item with a rate of 44% that is almost half of the society thinks that life has become so complicated that s/he almost cannot find her/his way. In most of the items, people in Turkey responded negatively to the statements which reflect the evaluations of people for their country in terms of perceived quality of society.

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Turkey	33 %	10 %	33 %	44 %
Bulgaria	27 %	15 %	24 %	34 %
Romania	23 %	7 %	20 %	19 %
NM10	20 %	6 %	22 %	15 %
EU15	9 %	3 %	12 %	8 %

 Table 5.18: Perceptions about Society

Q30: Please tell me for each statement whether you agree completely, agree somewhat, disagree somewhat or disagree completely with each statement.

(1) In order to get ahead nowadays you are forced to do things that are not correct.

(2) I feel left out of society.

(3) Good luck is more important than hard work for success.

(4) Life has become so complicated today that I almost cannot find my way

Proportion of people reporting 'agree completely'

When the respondents were asked about the extent to which they were aware of tensions between rich and poor, management and workers, men and women, old and young, and between different racial or ethnic groups, there are noticeable differences in the perceptions of such tensions between the CC3, NM10 and EU15. Especially in Turkey and Romania, people reported more in terms of tensions between social groups in their countries. Yet, tensions perceived by respondents were reported most in Turkey between all social groups. Almost three fifth of people in Turkey see tension between management and workers (see Table 5.19). Since the income of rich people is almost eight times higher on average than that of poor in Turkey, it definitely widens the social distance between the poor and the rich than in other countries. Those high rates also reflect the deep income inequalities in Turkey as discussed in the economic situation part of this chapter. The perceived tension between men and women is also

far behind the other countries studied. Additionally, the proportion of people who perceive tension between old and young people and different racial or ethnic groups are 34% and 46% respectively. These high rates of tensions reported especially in Turkey reveal that there are many unresolved conflicts between social groups and by investigating the source of tensions, measures should be taken in order to improve the perceived quality of life in society for Turkey.

	Poor and rich	Management	Men and	Old and	Different
	people	and workers	women	young people	racial or
					ethnic groups
Turkey	61 %	48 %	35 %	34 %	46 %
Bulgaria	54 %	37 %	10 %	18 %	12 %
Romania	53 %	49 %	18 %	30 %	32 %
NM10	48 %	40 %	9 %	17 %	34 %
EU15	29 %	29 %	13 %	15 %	46 %

 Table 5.19: Tensions between Social Groups

Q29: In all countries, tensions sometimes exist between social groups. In your opinion how much tension is there between each of following groups in [country]? – Proportion of people reporting 'a lot of tension'.

People's opinions about the quality of public services can be considered as more concrete since they experience it individually in their daily lives. Health services in Turkey are reported as the lowest quality among all other public services. People rated the quality of health services as 3.8 out of 10, which is a quite low when compared to the average rate of EU15 countries (6.5) (see Table 5.20). When the table is examined as a whole, all ratings in terms of public services are below five which is the medium point of scale. However, the least complaints are reported for public transportation with 4.9 points on average. In EU15 countries, all public services are rated above 6 on average except for the state pension system (5.8). The perceived low quality of public services in Turkey is a reflection of the low level of funding that is distributed to these areas from the national budget. If these public services were financed more with some arrangements, it would surely improve the overall quality of these services as well as the perceived quality of life of citizens in a country.

	Health	Education	Public	Social	State
	services	system	transport	services	pension
					system
Turkey	3,8	4,4	4,9	4,3	4,3
Bulgaria	3,5	4,2	4,8	3,7	3,5
Romania	5,6	6,6	6,2	5,6	5,3
NM10	5,2	5,9	5,4	5,0	4,7
EU15	6,5	6,7	6,3	6,4	5,8

Table 5.20: Perceived Quality of Public Services

Q54: In general, how would you rate the quality of each of the following public services in [country]? Please tell me on a scale of 1 to 10, where 1 means very poor quality and 10 means very high quality.

When all the figures and tables above are noticed, people's perception of the quality of society is really low in Turkey. There is a large proportion of people that see good luck as more important than hard work to success. Turks have little trust in others when compared to other countries and they often feel alienated and lost in society. All the sources and reasons of these of negative subjective feelings about the quality of society in Turkey requires in depth analyses in order to grasp the very core of the problem. So, it would be easier to find where to begin to develop solutions to improve the overall quality of life.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION

This study mainly aimed to define the quality of life with different approaches in the literature and attempted to make comparisons in quality of life domains between Turkey as a candidate country to the European Union and European Union Member States including Bulgaria and Romania that are expected to join the Union in 2007. It is supposed that the study will contribute to the gap in the literature of quality of life issues in Turkey in the membership process to the European Union.

The comparisons in eight quality of life aspects and in several indicators measuring these aspects were done by using the data of the European Quality of Life Survey which was launched in 2003 The survey covers 28 countries of European Union Member States including the candidate countries Turkey, Bulgaria and Romania.

When the results are examined in a comparative way by using crosstabulations, the annual GDP per capita incomes are quite low in all three candidate countries. An average annual GDP per capita of European Union Member States are almost four times higher than that of Turkey. In fact, it was an expected result to see such large gap between national incomes for European countries and Turkey but the striking result came with the analysis of household monthly equivalised income for the income quartiles in countries. The findings revealed that Turkey has the worst conditions in terms of income inequalities among all countries studied. The median household income in the highest quartile is around eight times higher than that in the lowest quartile and this gap is not bigger than four times for the EU Member States. This huge income inequality in Turkey can be considered as the biggest handicap in the membership process to the European Union in the quality of life issues. However, the deprivation of households from basic needs that is measured in six items displays similar patterns between candidate countries and they are reported more in Turkey, Bulgaria and Romania than in European countries.

According to the findings, the rates of accommodation ownership without mortgage is quite high among candidate countries for different reasons but the quality of housing is much higher in European Union Member States. The highest proportion of people that declared problems about their accommodation is in Turkey again. Although the accommodations have several problems in terms of quality in Turkey, people's satisfaction isn't as low as it is in some other countries. However, there are many similarities between countries in terms of problems with the local environment such as noise, air pollution and water quality. According to the figures, the highest proportion of respondents demanding more green areas for recreational use belongs to Turkey.

In the employment indicators, the high proportion of retired people in Europe was the most striking finding but the rate of retired people is the lowest in Turkey among all countries. However, people spend significantly longer hours for their work in Turkey than people in the European Union. Additionally, Turkish respondents scored the lowest points not only in the satisfaction from their jobs but also in the satisfaction from education scale. The findings showed that there are many problems with the working conditions and education system in Turkey. The rate of people who can read English is quite below the rate in EU Member States and use of the Internet is not as common as in European countries.

Another striking fact for Turkey is the low level of solidarity and trust among people. The analyses indicated that Turks trust their families most and they tend to get help from their families first. The rate of getting help from others is quite below the rates of other countries. In fact, this is an interesting finding since the solidarity among people is known as high in Turkey in general.

The problems related to health services were reported more in Turkey and Bulgaria and the biggest problem in the health domain is seen as the cost of seeing the doctor in Turkey. Additionally, the satisfaction from health is also quite low in Turkey. The results displayed that there are many problems in the health sector in Turkey and they affect negatively the quality of life of people.

In the life satisfaction and happiness scales, Bulgaria has the lowest satisfaction and happiness rates but Turkey is the second country following Bulgaria in low satisfaction of life and happiness in general. However, since the average points given to life satisfaction and happiness scales are above the mid point, people cannot be considered as unhappy in Turkey. The positively high rate of optimism about the future supports this finding in Turkey.

The findings about the perceived quality of society displayed that people experience significant tensions between social groups such as poor and rich, managers and workers, men and women, old and young or different racial or ethnic groups. The perceived quality of services are also quite below the average points in European countries.

To conclude, most of the results indicate that Turkey lags behind European Union Member States in these eight quality of life domains that include both objective and subjective indicators. The results reveal that although Turkey advances in economic measures of welfare, overall quality of life does not improve at the same level. So, in the membership process to the European Union, Turkey has to give more importance to social indicators that measure the quality of life in the country as a whole rather than only the economic indicators.

For further research, it may be recommended to focus on the peculiarities of Turkey to understand the very components of quality of life. It requires deeper analyses and more country specific questions to measure the quality of life in Turkey. A later study measuring the same indicators of quality of life would also enable monitoring the changes and trends in people's welfare and evaluations of their lives in Turkey.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: THE EUROPEAN QUALITY OF LIFE SURVEY

Q1. ASK IF RESPONDENT IS NOT IN PAID WORK (CODES 3-10 AT D IN HOUSEHOLD GRID)

Have you ever had a paid job?

1	Yes	\rightarrow Ask Q3
2	No	\rightarrow Go to Q14
3	Don't Know	\rightarrow Go to Q14

Q2. ASK IF RESPONDENT HAS PAID WORK (CODES 1-2 AT D IN HOUSEHOLD GRID)

What is your current occupation?

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q2 AND CODE IN THE GRID BELOW UNDER Q2)

Q3. ASK IF RESPONDENT HAD PAID WORK (CODE 1 AT Q1)

What was your last occupation?

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q2 AND CODE IN THE GRID BELOW UNDER Q3)

	Q2	Q3
	current	last
	occupation	occupation
SELF EMPLOYED		
Farmer	1	1
Fisherman	2	2
Professional (lawyer, medical practitioner, accountant, architect etc.)	3	3
Owner of a shop, craftsmen, other self-employed person	4	4
Business proprietors, owner (full or partner) of a company	5	5
EMPLOYED		
Employed professional (employed doctor, lawyer, accountant, architect)	6	6
General management, director of top management (managing directors, director general, other director)	7	7
Middle management, other management (department head, junior manager, teacher, technician)	8	8
Employed position, working mainly at a desk	9	9
Employed position, not at a desk but travelling (salesman, driver, etc.)	10	10
Employed position, not at a desk, but in a service job (hospital, restaurant, police, fireman, etc.)	11	11
Supervisor	12	12
Skilled manual worker	13	13
Other (unskilled) manual worker, servant	14	14

Q4. ASK IF EMPLOYEE (CODE 6 – 14 AT Q2 OR Q3)

ls/was your job ...

(INT.: READ OUT)

- 1 D On an unlimited permanent contract
- 2 D on a fixed term contract of less than 12 months
- 3 On a fixed term contract of 12 months or more
- 4 On a temporary employment agency contract
- 5 D On apprenticeship or other training scheme
- 6 D Without a written contract
- 7 🛛 Other
- 8 🛛 (Don't know)
- Q5. ASK IF RESPONDENT HAS PAID WORK (CODES 1-2 AT D IN HOUSEHOLD GRID) OR IF EVER PAID JOB (CODE 1 AT Q1)

Including yourself, about how many people are/were employed at the place where you usually work/worked?

(INT.: READ OUT)

- 1 🛛 Under 10
- 2 🛛 10 to 49
- 3 🛛 50-99
- 4 🛛 100-249
- 5 🛛 250-499
- 6 🛛 500-999
- 7 📮 1000 1999
- 8 🛛 2000 or more
- 9 🛛 (Don't know)
- Q6. ASK IF RESPONDENT HAS PAID WORK (CODES 1-2 AT D IN HOUSEHOLD GRID) OR IF EVER PAID JOB (CODE 1 AT Q1)

In your main job, do/did you have any responsibility for supervising the work of other employees?

- 1 🛛 Yes
- 2 🛛 No
- 3 🛛 Don't know
- Q7. ASK IF RESPONDENT HAS PAID WORK (CODES 1-2 AT D IN HOUSEHOLD GRID) OR IF EVER PAID JOB (CODE 1 AT Q1)

How many hours do/did you normally work per week (in your main job), including any paid or unpaid overtime?

(INT.: ENTER NUMBER OR 999 FOR DON'T KNOW)

Q8. ASK IF RESPONDENT HAS PAID WORK (CODES 1-2 AT D IN HOUSEHOLD GRID) OR IF EVER PAID JOB (CODE 1 AT Q1)

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q8)

In which of the following sectors of the economy does/did your company operate?

Please indicate <u>one</u> sector that accounts for the LARGEST part of your company's activities.

- 1 D Agriculture, hunting & forestry
- 2 🛛 Fishing
- 3 D Mining and quarrying
- 4 🛛 Manufacturing
- 5 📮 Electricity, gas and water supply
- 6 🛛 Construction
- 7 📮 Wholesale and retail trade; repair of motor vehicles, motorcycles and personal household goods
- 8 D Hotels and restaurants
- 9 D Transport, storage and communication
- 10 D Financial intermediation
- 11 D Real estate, renting and business activities
- 12 Public administration and defence; compulsory social security
- 13 🛛 Education
- 14 D Health and social work
- 15 D Other community, social and personal service activities
- 16 D Activities of households
- 17 Extra territorial organizations and bodies
- 18 🛛 Other
- 19 🛛 (Don't know)

Q9. ASK IF RESPONDENT HAS PAID WORK (CODES 1-2 AT D IN HOUSEHOLD GRID)

Apart from your main work, have you also worked at an additional paid job or business or in agriculture at any time during the past four (working) weeks?

1	Yes	\rightarrow Go to Q10
2	No	\rightarrow Go to Q11
3	Don't know	\rightarrow Go to Q11

Q10. ASK IF YES (CODE 1) AT Q9

About how many hours per week did you work in this additional job or business or in agriculture? Please give an average figure for the last 4 working weeks.

(INT.: ENTER HOURS PER WEEK OR 999 FOR DON'T KNOW)

Q12. ASK IF RESPONDENT HAS PAID WORK (CODES 1-2 AT D IN HOUSEHOLD GRID)

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q12)

How much do you agree or disagree with the following statements describing positive and negative aspects of your job?

(INT.: READ OUT THE STATEMENTS)

		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
		Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	(Don't know)
a.	My work is too demanding and stressful.						
b.	I am well paid.						
c.	I have a great deal of influence in deciding how to do my work.						
d.	My work is dull and boring.						
e.	My job offers good prospects for career advancement.						
f.	I constantly work to tight deadlines.						
g.	I work in dangerous or unhealthy conditions.						

Q13. ASK IF RESPONDENT HAS PAID WORK (CODES 1-2 AT D IN HOUSEHOLD GRID)

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q13)

How often has each of the following happened to you during the last year?

(INT.: READ OUT THE STATEMENTS)

		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
		Several times a week	Several times a month	Several times a year	Less often/ rarely	Never	(Don't know)
a.	I have come home from work too tired to do some of the household jobs which need to be done						
b.	It has been difficult for me to fulfil my family responsibilities because of the amount of time I spend on the job						
c.	I have found it difficult to concentrate at work because of my family responsibilities						

(INT.: ASK ALL)

Q14. Are you in your household, the person who contributes most to the household income?

1	Yes	\rightarrow Go to Q17
2	No	\rightarrow Go to Q15
3	Both equally	\rightarrow Go to Q17
4	Don't know	\rightarrow Go to Q17

- Q15. ASK IF CODE 2 AT Q14
- (INT.: SHOW CARD Q15)

What is the current occupation of the person who contributes most to the household income?

(INT.: CODE IN THE GRID BELOW UNDER Q15)

Q16. ASK IF CODE 2 AT Q14 AND CODE 1 – 4 AT Q15

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q16)

Did he/she do any paid work in the past? What was his/her last occupation?

	Q15	Q16
	current	last
	occupation	occupation
NOT WORKING		
Responsible for ordinary shopping and looking after the home, or without any current occupation, not working	1	
Student	2	
Unemployed or temporarily not working	3	
Retired or unable to work through illness	4	
SELF EMPLOYED		
Farmer	5	5
Fisherman	6	6
Professional (lawyer, medical practitioner, accountant, architect etc.)	7	7
Owner of a shop, craftsmen, other self-employed person	8	8

(INT.: CODE IN THE GRID BELOW UNDER Q16)

Business proprietors, owner (full or partner) of a company	9	9
EMPLOYED		
Employed professional (employed doctor, lawyer, accountant, architect)	10	10
General management, director of top management (managing directors, director general, other director)	11	11
Middle management, other management (department head, junior manager, teacher, technician)	12	12
Employed position, working mainly at a desk	13	13
Employed position, not at a desk but travelling (salesman, driver, etc.)	14	14
Employed position, not at a desk, but in a service job (hospital, restaurant, police, fireman, etc.)	15	15
Supervisor	16	16
Skilled manual worker	17	17
Other (unskilled) manual worker, servant	18	18
NEVER DID ANY PAID WORK		19

(INT.: ASK ALL)

Q17. How many rooms does the accommodation in which you live have, excluding the kitchen, bathrooms,

hallways, storerooms and rooms used solely for business?

(INT.: ENTER NUMBER OF ROOMS OR 99 FOR DON'T KNOW)

Q18. Which of the following best describes your accommodation?

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q18 AND READ OUT)

- 1 Own without mortgage (i.e. without any loans)
- 2 D Own with mortgage
- 3 D Tenant, paying rent to private landlord
- 4 D Tenant, paying rent in social/voluntary/municipal housing
- 5 D Accommodation is provided rent free
- 6 🛛 Other
- 7 🛛 (Don't know)

Q19. Do you have any of the following problems with your accommodation?

(INT.: READ OUT)

		(1)	(2)	(3)
		Yes	No	DK
1.	Shortage of space			
2.	Rot in windows, doors or floors			
3.	Damp/leaks			
4.	Lack of indoor flushing toilet			

Q20. There are some things that many people cannot afford, even if they would like them For each of the following things on this card, can I just check whether your household can afford it if you want it?

		(1)	(2)	(3)
		Yes, can afford if want	No, cannot afford it	Don't know
1.	Keeping your home adequately warm			
2. stay	Paying for a week's annual holiday away from home (not ving with relatives)			
3.	Replacing any worn-out furniture			
4. war	A meal with meat, chicken or fish every second day if you nted it			
5.	Buying new, rather than second-hand, clothes			
6. mor	Having friends or family for a drink or meal at least once a nth			

Q21. I am going to read some items a household can possess. Could you tell me whether your household

has it, your household does not have it because you cannot afford it, or your household does not have it because you don't need it?

(INT.: ONE ANSWER ONLY - READ OUT)

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	Household has it	Do not have it because you cannot afford it	Do not have because you don't need it	Don't know
a. Car or van for private use				
b. Home computer (PC)				
c. Washing machine				

Q22a. Do you rent or own land that you use for farming or productions of food?

(INT.: THIS DOES NOT INCLUDE A BIG GARDEN)

- 1 🛛 Yes
- 2 🛛 No
- 3 🛛 Don't know

Q22b. ASK IF COI

ASK IF CODE 1 AT Q22A

What is the size of this land? (INT.: ENTER 999999 FOR DON'T KNOW)

_____ square metres <u>OR</u> _____ acres <u>OR</u> _____ hectares <u>OR</u> 999999 DK

(INT.: ASK ALL)

Q23. Over the past month, have you ...?

(INT.: READ OUT)			
	(1)	(2)	(3)
	Yes	No	DK
 Attended a meeting of a charitable or voluntary organisation 			
b. Served on a committee or done voluntary work for a voluntary organisation			
Q24. Over the past <u>year,</u> have you?			
(INT.: READ OUT)			
	(1)	(2)	(3)
	Yes	No	DK
a. Attended a meeting of a trade union, a political party or political action group, attended a protest or demonstration, or signed a petition.			
 b. Contacted a politician or public official (other than routine contact arising from use of public services) 			

- Q25. Some people don't vote nowadays for one reason or another. Did you vote in the last [country] national election held in [month/year]?
 - 1 🛛 Yes
 - 2 🛛 No
 - 3 D Not eligible to vote
 - 4 🛛 Don't know
- Q26. Apart from weddings, funerals and other important religious events (e.g. baptisms, Christmas/Easter or other specific holy days), about how often do you attend religious services?

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q26 AND READ OUT)

- 1 D More than once a week
- 2 🛛 Once a week
- 3 D Once or twice a month
- 4 🛛 A few times a year
- 5 🛛 Once a year
- 6 🛛 Less than once a year
- 7 🛛 Never
- 8 🛛 (Don't know)

Q27. How much trust do you have in the ability of the following two systems to deliver when you need it?

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q27 AND READ OUT)

		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
		A great deal of trust	Some trust	Hardly any trust	No trust at all	(Don't know)
a.	State pension system					
b.	Social benefit system					

Q28. Generally speaking, would you say that most people can be trusted, or that you can't be too careful in dealing with people? Please tell me on a scale of 1 to 10, where 1 means you can't be too careful and 10 means that most people can be trusted.

(INT.: ENTER SCORE OR 11 FOR 'DON'T KNOW')

Q29. In all countries there sometimes exists tension between social groups. In your opinion, how much tension is there between each of the following groups in [this country]

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q29 AND READ OUT)

		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
		A lot of tension	Some tension	No tension	(Don't know)
a.	Poor and rich people				
b.	Management and workers				
c.	Men and women				
d.	Old people and young people				
e.	Different racial and ethnic groups				

Q30. Please tell me for each statement whether you agree completely, agree somewhat, disagree somewhat or disagree completely with each statement.

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q30 AND READ OUT)

		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
		Agree completely	Agree somewhat	Disagree somewhat	Disagree completely	(Don't know)
a.	I am optimistic about the future.					
b.	In order to get ahead nowadays you are forced to do things that are not correct.					
c.	I feel left out of society.					

d.	Good luck is more important than hard work for success.			
e.	Life has become so complicated today that I almost can't find my way.			

Q31. All things considered, how satisfied would you say you are with your life these days? Please tell me on a scale of 1 to 10, where 1 means very dissatisfied and 10 means very satisfied.

(INT.: ENTER SCORE OR 11 FOR DON'T KNOW)

Q32. Could I ask you about your current marital status? Which of the following descriptions best applies to you? Are you ...?

(INT.: READ OUT)

- 1 D Married or living with partner
- 2 Separated or divorced and not living with partner
- 3 D Widowed and not living with partner
- 4 D Never married and not living with partner
- 5 📮 (Don't know / No answer)
- Q33. How many children of your own do you have?

(INT.: ENTER NUMBER OF OWN CHILDREN, IF NONE ENTER '00')

Q34. On average, thinking of people living outside your household how often do you have direct (face-to-face) contact with...

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q34 AND READ OUT)

(INT.: IF E.G. SEVERAL CHILDREN THEN ANSWER FOR THE ONE WITH WHICH THE RESPONDENT HAS THE MOST CONTACT)

		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
		More than once a day	Every day of almost every day	At least once a week	Once or twice a month	Several time a year	Less often	(Don't have such relatives)	(Don't know)
a.	Any of your children								
b.	Your mother or father								

c.	Any of your friends or neighbours								
----	---	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

Q35. On average, how often do you have contact with friends or family by phone, email or by post?

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q35 AND READ OUT)

- 1 D More than once a day
- 2 📮 Every day or almost every day
- 3 🛛 At least once a week
- 4 D Once or twice a month
- 5 🛛 Several times a year
- 6 🛛 Less often
- 7 🛛 (Don't know)
- Q36. From whom would you get support in each of the following situations? For each situation, <u>choose the most important person</u>.

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q36 AND READ OUT)

		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
		Family member	Work colleagu e	Friend	Neighbour	Someone else	Nobody	(Don't know)
a.	If you needed help around the house when ill							
b.	If you needed advice about a serious personal or family matter							
c.	If you were feeling a bit depressed and wanting someone to talk to							
d.	If you needed to urgently raise € 1000 ¹ to face an emergency							

ASK ALL

.

Q37.How often are you involved in any of the following activities outside of paid work?

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q37 AND READ OUT)

(1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7)

¹ [In the candidate countries use 500 euros as a reference.]

		Every day	Three or four times a week	Once or twice a week	Once or twice a month	Less often	Never	(Don't know)
a.	Caring for and educating children							
b.	Housework							
c.	Caring for elderly/ disabled relatives							

Q38. ASK IF ANY CODE 1 AT Q37A-C

How many hours a day are you involved in....?

(INT.: READ OUT ITEMS WHERE RESPONDENT INDICATED 'EVERY DAY' - CODE 1 - AT Q37) (INT.: ENTER 99 FOR DON'T KNOW)

Enter number of hours

a.	Caring for and educating children	
	TT 1	

- b. Housework
- c. Caring for elderly/ disabled relatives

Q39. ASK IF HOUSEHOLD CONSISTS OF AT LEAST 2 PEOPLE AGED 18 OR OVER (SEE HOUSEHOLD GRID)

Do you think that the share of housework you do is...

(INT.: READ OUT)

- 1 \Box More than your fair share
- 2 📮 Just about your fair share
- 3 🗅 Less than your fair share
- 4 🛛 (Don't know)
- Q40. I am going to read out some areas of daily life in which you can spend your time. Could you tell me if you think you spend too much, too little or just about the right amount of time in each area.

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q40 AND READ OUT)

		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
		Too much	Just right	Too little	(Don't know)	(Not applicable)
a.	My job/paid work					
b.	Contact with family members living in this household or elsewhere					
c.	Other social contact (not family)					
d.	Own hobbies/ interests					
e.	Sleeping					

f.	Taking part in voluntary work or			
	political activities			

Q41. Could you please tell me on a scale of 1 to 10 how satisfied you are with each of the following items, where 1 means you are very dissatisfied and 10 means you are very satisfied?

(INT.: READ OUT; FOR EACH ITEM ENTER SCORE GIVEN OR 11 FOR DON'T KNOW)

a.	Your education	
b.	Your present job	
c.	Your present standard of living	
d.	Your accommodation	
e.	Your family life	
f.	Your health	
g.	Your social life	

Q42. Taking all things together on a scale of 1 to 10, how happy would you say you are? Here 1 means you

are very unhappy and 10 means you are very happy.

(INT.: ENTER SCORE GIVEN OR 11 FOR DON'T KNOW)

Q43. In general, would you say your health is

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q43 AND READ OUT)

- 1 D Excellent
- 2 🖵 Very good
- 3 🛛 Good
- 4 🛛 Fair
- 5 🛛 Poor
- 6 🛛 (Don't know)

Q44. Do you have any long-standing illness of disability that limits your activities in any way? By

long-standing, I mean anything that has troubled you over a period of time or that is likely to

affect you for a period of time.

- 1 🛛 Yes
- 2 🛛 No
- 3 🛛 Don't know
- Q45. On the last occasion you needed to see a doctor or medical specialist, to what extent did each of the following factors make it difficult for you to do so?

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q45 AND READ OUT)

			(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
			Very difficult	A little difficult	Not difficult at all	(Not applicable/ never needed to see doctor)	(Don't know)
	a.	Distance to doctor's office/ hospital/ medical center					
	b.	Delay in getting appointment					
	c.	Waiting time to see doctor on day of appointment					
	d.	Cost of seeing the doctor					
Q46.	6. How old were you when you completed your full-time education?						
	(INT.: IF STILL IN FULL-TIME EDUCATION ENTER 99) years old						irs old

Q47. What is the highest level of education you completed? Is this ...?

(INT.: READ OUT)

- 1 D Primary education
- 2 🛛 Secondary education
- 3 🛛 University
- 4 🛛 (None)
- 5 🛛 (Don't know/no answer)

Q48. Have you taken an education or training course at any time within the last year?

1	Yes	\rightarrow Ask Q49
2	No	ightarrow Go to Q51
3	Don't know	\rightarrow Go to Q51

Q49. ASK IF YES (CODE 1) AT Q48

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q49)

What kind of course is/was it?

(INT.: IF RESPONDENT TOOK MORE THAN ONE COURSE ASK FOR MOST IMPORTANT ONE)

- 1 General education (leading to formal certificate, diploma, degree)
- 2 🖵 Computer course
- 3 📮 Language course
- 4 **D** Training course related to your job or profession
- 5 Job training scheme offered in connection with social welfare/employment services (e.g. for unemployed, women returning to labour force)
- 6 D Cultural or hobby-related course (e.g. arts/crafts, dance, sports or other leisure related)
- 7 🛛 Other
- 8 🛛 (Can't remember)

Q50. ASK IF YES (CODE 1) AT Q48

How long is / was this course? Looking at this card, please tell me the number of days, regardless of

whether the course was spread out over several days, assuming that a full day amounts to 8 hours.

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q50 AND READ OUT)

- 1 Less than half a day (less than 4 hours)
- 2 D Half a day or more but less than 2 full days (4 15 hours)
- 3 2 full days or more but less than 10 full days (16 79 hours)
- 4 🔲 10 days or more but less than 40 days (80 to 319 hours)
- 5 🛛 40 days or longer (320 hours or more)
- 6 🛛 (Can't remember)

(INT.: ASK ALL)

Q51. How well do you read English?

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q51 AND READ OUT)

- 1 D Very well
- 2 🛛 Quite well
- 3 D Not very well
- 4 🛛 Not at all
- 5 🛛 (Don't know)
- Q52. Which of the following best describes your level of use of the internet over the past month?

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q52 AND READ OUT)

- 1 Used it every day or almost every day
- 2 Used the internet a couple of times a week
- 3 **U** Used the internet occasionally (once a month or less)
- 4 Did not use the internet at all
- 5 🛛 (Don't know)

Q53. About how much time in total does it take you to get to and from work or school using your usual mode of transportation?

(INT.: THIS ALSO INCLUDES TAKING CHILDERN TO SCHOOL AND PICKING THEM UP FROM SCHOOL)

(INT.: RECORD TOTAL TIME FOR ROUND TRIP IN MINUTES OR 998 FOR NOT APPLICABLE OR 999 FOR DON'T KNOW)

_____ minutes

Q54. In general, how would you rate the quality of each of the following public services in [country]?

Please tell me on a scale of 1 to 10, where 1 means very poor quality and 10 means very high quality.

(INT.: READ OUT; FOR EACH ITEM ENTER SCORE GIVEN OR 11 FOR DON'T KNOW)

a.	Health services	
b.	Education system	
c.	Public transport	
d.	Social services	
e.	State pension system	

Q55. Would you consider the area in which you live to be...

(INT.: READ OUT)

- 1 D The open countryside
- 2 D A village/small town
- 3 D A medium to large town
- 4 🛛 A city or city suburb
- 5 🛛 (Don't know)
- Q56. Please think about the area where you live now I mean the immediate neighbourhood of your home. Do you have very many reasons, many reasons, a few reasons, or no reason at all to complain about each of the following problems?

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q56 AND READ OUT)

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
	Very many reasons	Many reasons	A few reasons	No reason at all	(Don't know)
A. Noise					
B. Air pollution					
C. Lack of access to recreational or green areas					

D.	Water quality					
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Q57. How safe do you think it is to walk around in your area at night? Do you think it is...

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q57 AND READ OUT)

- 1 🛛 Very safe
- 2 🛛 Rather safe
- 3 🛛 Rather unsafe
- 4 🛛 Very unsafe
- 5 🛛 (Don't know)

Q58. A household may have different sources of income and more than one household member may

contribute to it. Thinking of your household's total monthly income, is your household able to make

ends meet....?

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q58 AND READ OUT)

- 1 D Very easily
- 2 🛛 Easily
- 3 🛛 Fairly easily
- 4 With some difficulty
- 5 🛛 With difficulty
- 6 D With great difficulty
- 7 🛛 (Don't know)
- Q59. Has your household been in arrears at any time during the past 12 months, that is, <u>unable to pay as scheduled</u> any of the following?

(INT.: READ OUT)

	(1)	(2)	(3)
	Yes	No	DK
A. Rent or mortgage payments for accommodation			
B. Utility bills, such as electricity, water, gas			

- Q60. Has your household at any time during the past 12 months run out of money to pay for food?
 - 1 🛛 Yes
 - 2 🛛 No
 - 3 🛛 Don't know

Q61. In the past year, has your household helped meet its need for food by growing vegetables or fruits or keeping poultry or livestock?

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q61 AND READ OUT)

- 1 🛛 No, not at all
- 2 I Yes, for up to one-tenth of the household's food needs
- 3 **D** Yes, for between one-tenth and a half of household's food need
- 5 🔲 (Don't know)
- Q62. In the past year, did your household give regular help in the form of either money or food to a person you know not living in your household (e.g. parents, grown-up children, other relatives, or someone not related)?
 - 1 🛛 Yes
 - 2 🛛 No
 - 3 🛛 Don't know
- Q63. In the past year, did your household receive regular help in the form of either money or food from a person not living in your household (e.g. parents, grown-up children, other relatives, or someone not related)?
 - 1 🛛 Yes
 - 2 🛛 No
 - 3 🛛 Don't know
- Q64. Have you or someone else in your household received any of the following types of income over the past 12 months?

(INT.: READ OUT)

		(1)	(2)	(3)
		Yes	No	DK
a.	Earnings from work (incl. income from self-employment or farming)			
b.	Pension			
c.	Child benefit			
d.	Unemployment benefit, disability benefit or any other social benefits			
e.	Other income (e.g. from savings, property or stocks, etc.)			

Q65. Using this card, if you add up all of these income sources (for all household members), which letter corresponds with your <u>household's total net income</u>, that is the amount that is left over after taxes have been deducted? If you don't know the exact figure, please give an estimate. Use the part of the card that you know best: weekly, monthly or annual income

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q65)

(INT.: PLEASE CIRCLE THE CODE THAT MATCHES THE LETTER GIVEN)

Letter	Q65
D	01
В	02
Ι	03
0	04
Т	05
G	06
Р	07
А	08
F	09
E	10
Q	11
Н	12
С	13
L	14
Ν	15
R	16
М	17
S	18
K	19
(Refused) 20	
(Don't know)	21