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Foreword

From 1998 to 2003, the Institute for Macroeconomic Analysis and Development (IMAD) participated in the international project *Human Development Report*, directed by the United Nations. In this period, the IMAD issued four publications entitled *Human Development in Slovenia* (1998, 1999, 2000-2001, 2002-2003) introducing a broader view of the development of society in Slovenia. All four publications were welcomed by the Slovenian public as well as by the contracting authority; the Slovenian project was declared one of the best among 100 participating countries. The *Social Overview* continues to follow the established framework, though in a slightly modified form.

The current publication is a continuation of the first issue of the *Social Overview*, published in 2006. The main aim of the publication is to "draw an analytical portrait of the Slovenian society, the climate and conditions that prevail in it, along with the development trends that affect social cohesion," as was noted in the foreword two years ago. Through all its publications, the Institute for Macroeconomic Analysis and Development attempts to respond to other non-economic aspects of development, mainly its social dimension, as it is aware that development goes beyond economic growth. We know that an efficient economy is a necessary and indispensable part of human activity integrated into other human and societal activities; one cannot imagine social development without economic growth. We are also aware of the negative side effects of economic activity on society and the environment. With a view to drawing attention to the negative side effects, we focus our attention on factors besides economic growth which determine human life. The *Social Overview* is one of the publications seeking to highlight the social dimensions of development.

The current issue features two chapters: *The Way We Live* and *Mobility.* A statistical appendix is included. The first chapter entitled ***The Way We Live*** is a regular feature of the *Social Overview*. It seeks to present a picture of certain areas of Slovenian society as shown by statistical data and people's subjective perceptions of living conditions in Slovenia as revealed by opinion surveys. The chapter comprises seven interrelated sections which shed light on the living conditions of the Slovenian population. The section *Households and families* shows demographic changes in households, how ways of living together are changing in time, and differences and similarities in comparison with other European Union member states. A connection between a family or an individual and the economy is shown in the section *Labour market and employment*. This includes an analysis of employment and unemployment trends and changes in types of employment. The section *Population income and expenditure* shows how the material basis of everyday life of the population has changed over recent years. These data also provide background information on changes in social inequality, which are described in more detail in the subsequent section – *Socio-economic stratification*. The next section, *Accessibility of goods and services,* provides an insight into financial resources earmarked to meet certain basic societal needs. In the section *Social cohesion and poverty* we examine the part of the population living at the margins of social life and therefore requiring special attention. The first six sections reveal a picture of Slovenian society as measured by objective indicators (statistical data), while the last section, *Subjective perceptions of living conditions*, conveys people's opinions about their lives.

The second chapter is dedicated to the selected special topic – mobility. The chapter ***Mobility*** features an analysis of one of the most typical patterns of modern society as it undergoes substantial changes in its structure. Globalisation and differences in the quality of life between individual regions of the world influence people's desire to move. Throughout history, people's aspirations for a better life have encouraged their migration. As a rule, migration flows have run from areas with less favourable conditions for survival towards areas with better conditions. Today, the situation is similar: emigration takes place from underdeveloped countries to more developed countries or from less- to more-developed areas within individual countries. The aspirations of an individual are reinforced by social, personal, technological and political reasons and conditions. Significant disparities between regions of the world, between countries or between regions within a country represent one of the social causes for migration. Emigration is also caused by aspirations for a better life, which are influenced by new technologies enabling a comparison of life around the world, causing, in turn, migratory pressure to build. Exaggerated differences in the level of development frequently cause political or even military conflicts, which also trigger migration. Hence, migrations, legal and illegal, will continue.

Countries address the migration issue through various regulations and strategies. The EU adopts regulations, rules, recommendations and laws to limit migration, except for certain profiles of people which it needs (scientists, athletes, etc.). Often these measures prove insufficient, and the migration "policy" is carried out by the police and, in some places, even the army. An ethical question is raised about the right to prohibit people from moving to places where life is better while inviting individuals who we need for our development from these areas.

We have touched upon the global dimension of migration, but the main focus has remained on the developments in Slovenia and Slovenia's position in the international environment, particularly in the EU and Europe. We have made a distinction between two main migratory developments: international migrations in and out of Slovenia and migrations between regions within Slovenia. We have been particularly interested in the migration of highly-educated individuals, because knowledge is one of the most important factors for development. We would like to draw attention to the finding from the section *Migrations between regions by level of education*, which supports a hypothesis that Central Slovenia strongly attracts educated people from all other regions of the country. The sustainable aspect of migration is equally important and is described at the end of the chapter.

Indicators used in the statistical appendix and throughout the publication are based on statistical data collected and, in some cases, processed specifically for the purpose of this publication. They come from the Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia (SORS), the Statistical Office of the European Communities (EUROSTAT), the World Health Organisation (WHO), the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), the Public Opinion and Mass Communications Research Centre at the Faculty of Social Sciences of the University of Ljubljana, as well as public opinion pool data and some other sources. The calculations have been performed by colleagues from the IMAD and external collaborators, the authors of individual articles. The authors of the Social Overview are colleagues from the IMAD and external collaborators. In dealing with the issues of migration, we have largely used the data collected by the SORS. Therefore, we have used their definitions of migration, immigration and emigration. The Social Overview is largely based on data available at the end of September 2008.

Summary

This issue of the *Social Overview* contains two chapters: The Way We Live, a regular feature of the *Social Overview*, and a selected special topic – Mobility.

The chapter **The Way We Live** comprises an analysis of statistical data and subjective evaluations which aim at shedding light on areas significantly influencing the quality of life and standard of living of the Slovenian population.

The number of **households** and the number of **families** in Slovenia have been increasing, while their average size has been decreasing. In the period 1961-1991, a decrease in the average size of a household was mainly due to a decline in the number of five-(and more)member households, while in the period 1991-2002, it was also attributable to the increase in the number of single-member households. Most single-member households are found among elderly women aged up to 84 years. This is mainly due to the long life expectancy of women. The economic situation of single member households is deteriorating. The number of marriages shows a declining trend; an opposite trend is recorded in divorces – their number is on the rise. However, regarding marriage and divorce rates, Slovenia is ranked towards the bottom among EU countries.

The position of an individual in **the labour market** significantly affects his/her socio-economic status (including the risk of poverty); a special chapter is therefore dedicated to this issue. In the period 2000-2007, the unemployment rate declined, but the share of long-term unemployed has remained relatively high. At the same time, it became increasingly hard for people with a post-secondary vocational education or higher education to find employment; in relative and absolute terms, more people fall into this category in the Osrednjeslovenska region than elsewhere in Slovenia. The registered unemployment rate has decreased, whereas inter-regional relative differences in the registered unemployment rate have remained similar to those recorded in 2000. Despite the increasing employment rate in all age groups, the employment rate of the elderly remains one of the lowest in the EU. Slovenia's youth are extensively engaged in flexible forms of work and therefore face greater employment uncertainty, which may influence important life decisions, including a decision to start a family.

Wages represent the bulk of the **population's income** and affect the structure of consumption. The population's income increased by almost 25% in real terms in the 2000-2007 period. Turning to the structure of the population's income, the share of wages increased as a result of faster growth in salaries and the growing number of employed persons and, to a lesser extent, modifications in income tax. Inequality in the distribution of gross wages increased in the last two years, mainly due to a less favourable minimum wage adjustment mechanism. Changes in wage distribution are reflected in consumption since differences between the top and the lowest household consumption quintile have seen a strong upward trend. In 2006, the highest share of household expenditure on food and housing was recorded in the lowest consumption quintile (almost half of all expenditure). These households were not able to reduce this expenditure, since it covers daily household needs. We do not have (yet) an umbrella institution which would methodically deal with the problem of over-borrowing of households and individuals, i.e. which would measure the problem and draw up a plan aimed at helping over-extended individuals, as they are known abroad. The data available reveal a rather rapid growth in borrowing in the last four years, mainly due to purchases of housing units and durable goods. In 2008, the borrowing trend slowed slightly and the consumption of durable goods began to soften.

Analysis of the **socio-economic stratification of the population** shows some notable changes in the distribution of income when compared with previous years. In the 1998-2006 period the proportion of persons in the low and lower-middle income brackets decreased, while the proportion of persons in the upper-middle income bracket increased. The results of this analysis also confirm several findings set out in other sections: the worsening position of single-member households, particularly of the elderly, retired people and the unemployed. The analysis was carried out on the basis of data collected by the Household Budget Survey and using the methodology introduced in a previous issue of the *Social Overview* in which households are classified according to four income brackets (low, lower-middle, upper-middle and high). By doing this, we try to offer a different angle of observation of the changes in income distribution.

Health and social care indicators shed additional light on the quality of life of the population. Slovenia is well below the European average as regards the provision of **health** personnel. The number of practicing physicians per inhabitant is lower than in most European countries and employment projections show that the situation will get worse in the coming years. The trend of a rapid fall in the number of hospital beds per inhabitant continues; comparison with European countries shows that capacities in Slovenia are already relatively low. In 2006 and 2007, the granting of concessions within the public health service network was accelerated; the number of private medical specialists increased much faster than in previous years. The number of private health providers without a concession is still low. The share of Slovenian GDP earmarked for health care is approximately the same as the average in EU member states but total health expenditure expressed as a share of GDP decreased in the past few years due to a low real increase in public health expenditure. Private expenditure, in particular household direct expenditure, rose at a faster pace.

Due to the ageing of the population, the provision and accessibility of adequate long-term care for the elderly are becoming increasingly important. A **public network of social assistance services** has been expanding but still lags behind needs. The situation is of most concern in the area of long-term care services for the elderly where, in recent years, the enlargement of residential homes for the elderly has lagged behind the growing number of elderly persons. The number of rejected applicants has been increasing; a pressing demand for admittance adversely affects the introduction of other services, which would enable the elderly to receive quality care at home. Limited and unequal access and a higher risk of poverty among the elderly remain the key development issues in this area. Total **long-term care expenditure** has been increasing in real terms. Public expenditure has been rising at a significantly faster pace than private expenditure which, together with uncovered needs, already indicates the problem of long-term sustainability of public finances. Therefore, the existing system of long-term care increasingly requires systemic changes.

The possibility of attending kindergarten is very important from the viewpoint of reconciling professional and family life and from the viewpoint of the child's development. The share of children attending organised **pre-school education** is rising, but Slovenia still does not provide universal access to all children because of differences in territorial and financial accessibility. The number of pupils in **primary schools** and the number of primary schools have been decreasing due to demographic changes. This trend could aggravate the situation in depopulated areas. Having a higher degree of formal education reduces the likelihood of unemployment and the risk of poverty since persons with higher levels of education earn higher wages, which has a positive effect on their standard of living and quality of life. The level of enrolment in **secondary education** is high, but the reduction in the size of generations is causing a decrease in the number of young people in secondary schools which may, in the future, cause the number of teaching staff in secondary schools to decrease. Compared with other European countries, Slovenia has a high share of young people aged 20 to 24 enrolled in **tertiary education** and this share has increased significantly since 2000. The share of the adult population aged from 25 to 64 participating in various forms of **lifelong learning** (formal and non-formal) is higher than in most European countries. The knowledge so acquired is important from the viewpoint of individual career development and flexibility in the labour market. However, participation in life-long learning drops rapidly with age; participation of the low-skilled in life-long learning is still too low.

The quality of life of the population is also influenced by other social infrastructure. Accessibility of adequate **housing** has a significant impact on the quality of life. The stock of housing units is increasing as is their quality. Opportunities to rent an apartment (from a private landlord or non-profit organisation) remain scarce; this is one of the reasons for the high proportion of adult children living with their parents and can also be linked to late decisions to start a family. Acquisition of a privately-owned flat is the most common way of acquiring an apartment; in recent years, privately-owned apartments have increasingly assumed the function of an asset or savings for old age. The role of the state in ensuring adequate housing is insufficient; the family plays a much more important role.

The **Internet** provides access to information and data used by an individual in their daily and professional life. The rate of Internet accessibility of households is relatively high, in particular as regards broadband

access where Slovenia is ranked above the European average. These rather good technical conditions are not matched by the actual use of the Internet – the expansion of Internet use has slowed in recent years and the gap with the EU average has widened. A particularly poor inclusion share is recorded in some population groups, in particular the elderly and less-educated.

Participation in cultural and reading activities enhances the quality of leisure time and can broaden a person's general knowledge. In the area of **culture**, visits to museums, theatres and cinemas, as well as enrolment and visits to libraries have increased. In 2005, all libraries combined had a membership of more than one-half of the population, while one-quarter of the population was enrolled in general libraries.

Reading of newspapers and magazines can raise general awareness among people. The supply of **printed media** is becoming more diverse but analysis shows that interest in the printed media is diminishing, with the exception to this being free newspapers. We can conclude that this is mainly due to increasing use of the Internet since the data show that printed and electronic media are less favoured by persons who use the Internet more frequently. The situation does not deviate much from the EU average. Readers also respond weakly to new features in the printed media market; the order of priority of the most widely-read payable newspapers has not changed over several years.

Social inclusion/exclusion and exposure to poverty significantly influence the quality of life. We measure these using **social cohesion** indicators. Based on these indicators, Slovenia is placed very high when compared with other EU member states (we have the lowest income inequality and one of the lowest at-risk-of-**poverty rates**). Data on inequality of income distribution and the general at-risk-of-poverty rate show a very favourable picture which, however, does not feature some groups of the population that are seriously threatened by poverty (jobless households where no one works; single-member elderly households, in particular women; and the unemployed). In 2007, the position of some groups even worsened. Single-parent households with at least one dependent child, tenants and unemployed persons were affected the most. In 2005, non-monetary poverty in Slovenia was measured for the first time, using the EU-SILC statistical survey. In 2006, Slovenia earmarked 22.8% of its GDP for social protection; this is equal to 73% of the EU-25 level.

A review of **subjective perceptions** recorded by the Slovenian Public Opinion Poll supplements statistical data and indicators. This review reveals what people in Slovenia think about their lives and developments in society. Subjective perceptions of social trends and perceptions of own satisfaction are strongly influenced by the socio-economic status of an individual. At the personal and family level, data show that the share of those who consider themselves happy declined in the 1990s; later, the evaluations became more positive. There are differences between social groups: subjective evaluations of persons with higher education, higher income and younger persons are higher. Similarly, the evaluation of health is influenced by the personal position of the respondent. We have seen perceived increasing satisfaction in the evaluation of different social areas since the start of the 1990s. In 2007, the trend halted or even reversed. Citizens' trust in the majority of institutions is low.

In the chapter **Mobility** we analyse in more detail spatial mobility or migration (external and internal, daily and sustainable mobility). Even though spatial mobility often causes changes in the socio-economic status, we only paid scant attention to social mobility, since the social consequences of mobility demand at least equal attention as spatial mobility, but we point to some of the socio-economic characteristics of migrants. We have also established that Slovenia lacks a much-needed comprehensive analysis of social mobility. This would "measure" the openness of society that influences efficiency or the ability to adjust to the challenges of changed economic needs and fairness, which means that an individual can change his/her socio-economic status depending on abilities and not on rooted social relations. The main findings on spatial mobility analysis are set out below.

Spatial mobility or migration influence development significantly. They have positive and negative effects, both in the areas of emigration and immigration. If high-intensity migration occurs, the negative effects may overshadow the positive ones. **Immigration** to Slovenia is strongly linked to the structure and dynamics of the country's economic growth. Men aged 20 to 50 years prevail among immigrants. Available data show that

most emigrants are young. We observe a lack of information, data, analysis and research on external migrations, their causes and their consequences, notably the non-economic consequences of these migrations.

Migration is also closely linked to past and future demographic developments. Slovenia faces an aging population problem. Slovenia has recorded a negative natural increase in population and the overall population increase is only due to positive net migration into the country. According to the latest available Eurostat population projection data (EUROPOP 2008, convergence scenario), migrations into Slovenia are assumed to total approximately 6,000 per year (net) in the first period; a slow downward movement in numbers is then expected, with the total reaching 2,000 per year by 2060. It is also assumed that the total fertility rate will draw close to 1.5. External migrations will therefore contribute to a reduction in pressure on increasing public expenditure on the ageing population.

Internal migrations within Slovenia are relatively weak and are not triggered by the same causes as external migrations. Predominant migratory trends in Slovenia in the past involved movement from rural to urban areas (these trends were caused by de-agrarisation, industrialisation, and, as a result, urbanisation). Recently, the flow has reversed; migrations from urban areas have become predominant and sub-urbanisation has increased. A lack of adequate jobs in most regions, particularly for persons with a higher education, is one of the key factors propelling internal migrations. The unregulated housing market is becoming a powerful factor causing migrations from towns to suburban areas. As a rule, elderly people stay in towns while young families move (due to more favourable housing prices). We have also observed the first signs of a phenomenon of retirement migration into climatically favourable areas (such as the Obalno kraška region). All this has influenced sub-urbanisation, which is not harmonised with appropriate spatial planning programmes, and has put pressure on rational land use, public utility and increased traffic all leading to unsustainable development as a consequence of non-concerted spatial, family, housing, transport and environmental policies.

The chapter concludes by looking at the **challenges** in the area of mobility; these show that in the future this topic will require more attention than it has received to date.

the way we live

1 Households and families

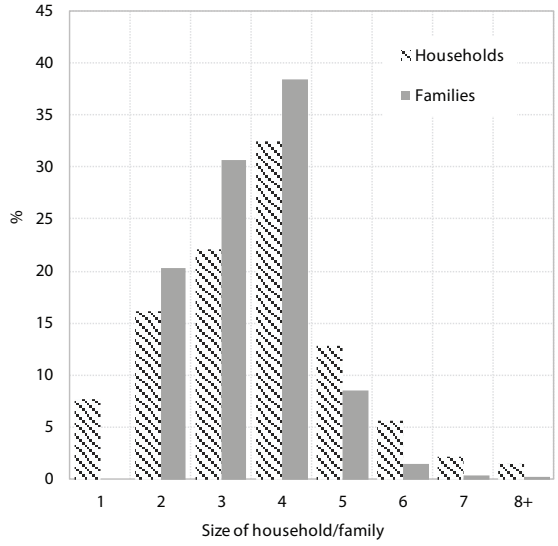
1.1 Households

Most residents of Slovenia do not live alone but in different types of living arrangements, statistically surveyed as households or families. According to data from the 2002 population census (the last exhaustive source of information about households and families), the average household in 2002 consisted of 2.8 members and the average family of 3.1 members. Like the number of households, the number of families is also rising, while the number of members of both is falling. The main reason for this is the growing number of single households. This is confirmed by data from the Household Consumption Survey which, *inter alia*, has been a source of information about household structure and size. This data also indicates that in the 1998–2006 period, the share of single households increased – by 3.5 percentage points (p.p.).

In 1931, the average household had five members, in 1991 it had three, and in 2002 already fewer than three members. In 1961–1991, the shrinking average household size mainly resulted from the declining number of five-member and larger households, and in 1991–2002 also from the increasing number of single households (from 6% to 7.6%).

A household can consist of one person or a group of two or more persons who may or may not be relatives. What is important is that they live together and together spend on the basic needs of life such as housing and food. Households comprising only one person are called single households. Institutional households made up of a fairly large number of non-relatives who are provided for by the institution in which they live are not included in this text.

Figure 1: **Proportions of population living in different-sized households/families, Slovenia, Census 2002, in %**

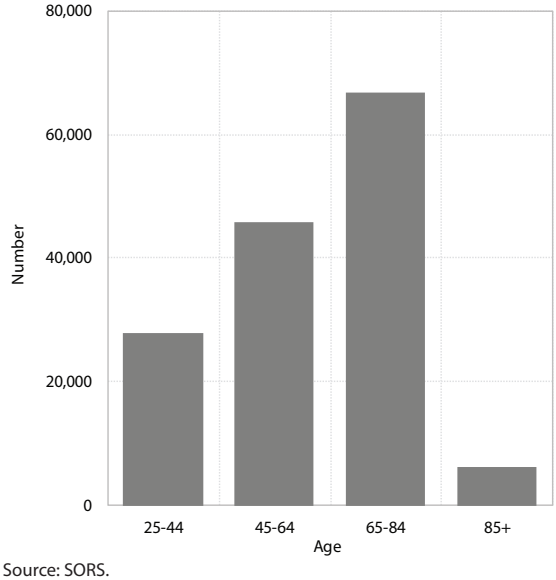


Source: SORS.

The number of people living alone increases with age. On the other hand, the gender composition of single households also changes with age. There are more young and middle-aged men than women living in single households, and more elderly women than men. Particularly after the age of 64, the share of female single households begins to increase very rapidly. In 2002, the percentage of women in the group of those living alone and aged over 64 in Slovenia was 83%. The main reason is the higher mortality rate of men than women, as well as age differences within couples, and the higher remarriage rates among men.

If Slovenia continues to follow in the footsteps of the countries of Northern and Western Europe, with an expanding share of single households, the average household size will further decrease. In 1996, the average household comprised fewer than three members in all EU countries except Spain, Portugal and Poland. The average household size will shrink further in Slovenia mainly due to a growing share of single households, since in Slovenia their current share is relatively small compared with other parts of Europe. In Sweden, where the share is largest, it amounted to 40% in 1996. In Slovenia it was only 21.9% in 2002.

Figure 2: **Single households by age groups, Slovenia, Census 2002, number**



Source: SORS.

1. 2 Families

The number of families in Slovenia is growing, but at an increasingly slower pace. The ratio of the number of families with children to those without children is also slowly changing: the share of families with children is declining while the share of families without children is rising. In 2002, almost one quarter of families had no children. These include couples that have no children yet and those whose children have already left home, having started either a single or multi-member household, or their own family. Those couples that do not yet have children include some that will never have any; their share, however, is small. According to fertility data, the proportion of women who have not given birth to any live-born child has hitherto amounted to less than 10%. The upward trend in the share of families without children may not be only attributed to the declining fertility but also to the growing age at which couples choose to have children and the lengthening of life.

Demographers have adapted the notion of family to the procedures of collecting statistical data in population censuses. The family has thus become a subgroup within the household, and hence mainly limited to the two-generation family.

According to the census methodology, a family may consist of a married or non-married couple without children, a married or non-married couple with children, or one parent with a child or children. A child continues to belong to the original family until starting his/her own family. The status of a child is not related with a person's age.

The union of a couple, which used to begin with marriage, ever more often begins with cohabitation without getting married. The birth of a child is also an event that is no longer dependent on marriage. In 2007, nearly one half of children were born outside marriage.[1] While it is mainly the young who choose to cohabit, there are also a number of cohabiting people who had previously been married: in 2002, no less than 14% of cohabiting women aged 15–49 were either divorced or widowed.

Over the course of the years, children gradually leave their parents' home, and hence in the age group 55–75, married couples without children become the most prevalent family type. Due to increasing mortality rates in higher age groups (75+), families gradually pass into single households or single-parent families consisting of one – rather old – parent and a child.

If families were only dissolved by death, a family started when the partners are around 30 would last for about 40 years. However, as families also dissolve on account of divorces and breakups of consensual units, their actual life is shorter. According to data for 2002–2006, every fourth marriage in Slovenia ends in divorce. For consensual units, whose number is on the increase, no comparable data are available.

As regards the frequency of marriages and divorces, Slovenia records one of the lowest figures in Europe.

As in Slovenia, the number of marriages is also declining in other EU countries, while the number of divorces is increasing. The same holds true for marriage[2] and divorce[3] rates. Countries differ from each other in levels of the two phenomena. As regards the frequency of entering marriage and the frequency of divorces, Slovenia records comparatively very low

In the 1990s, the average divorcing couple had been married for 14 years at the time of the divorce, which is the longest in Europe.

Table 1: **Family types, Censuses 1981, 1991 and 2002, Slovenia**

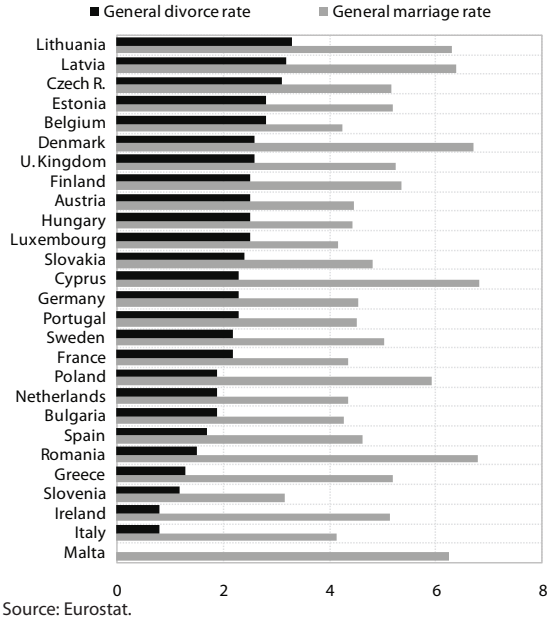
Family types	Census					
	1981		1991[1]		2002	
Total	522,314	100 %	543,766	100 %	555,945	100 %
Married couple without children	106,779	20.4	108,278	19.9	114,835	20.7
Non-married couple without children	4,595	0.9	4,932	0.9	12,807	2.3
Families without children	111,374	21.3	113,210	20.8	127,642	23.0
Married couple with children	330,530	63.3	322,091	59.2	294,726	53.0
Non-married couple with children	5,750	1.1	12,382	2.3	29,285	5.3
Mother with children	65,108	12.5	82,941	15.3	89,683	16.1
Father with children	9,552	1.8	13,142	2.4	14,609	2.6
Total single-parent families	74,660	14.3	96,083	17.7	104,292	18.8
Total families with children	410,940	78.7	430,556	79.2	428,303	77.0 %

Source: SORS.
Note: [1] Data relating to the census of 1991 differ somewhat from the previously published ones as they were re-calculated according to the methodology of the 2002 census when last published.

[1] Including single women.
[2] Marriage rate is defined as the number of marriages per 1,000 population.
[3] Divorce rate is defined as the number of divorces per 1,000 population.

figures; furthermore, the average duration of marriage upon getting divorced was 14 years in the 1990s, which is the longest in Europe. Of all European countries, Slovenia records the lowest first-marriage rate, and one of the lowest divorce rates. The latter indicator is lowest in Ireland and Italy, followed by Greece, Slovenia, Spain and Portugal. The frequency of marriages and divorces strongly depends on cultural traditions, religion and legislation. This is particularly true for divorces. In Ireland, for example, it has only been possible to get divorced since 1997.[4]

Figure 3: **Marriage and divorce rates, EU-27, 2006**

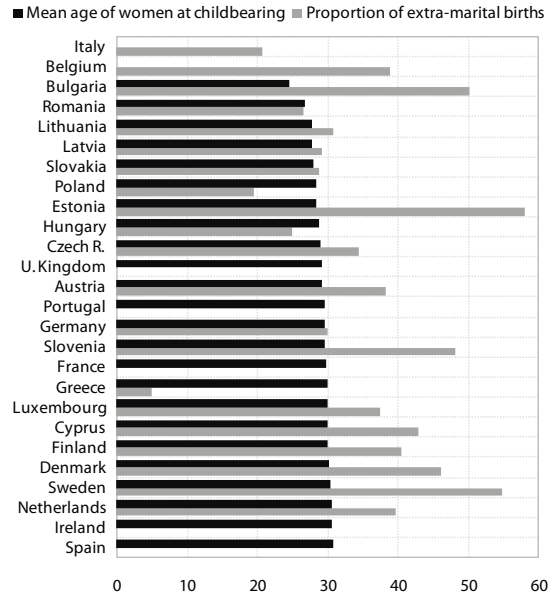


Source: Eurostat.

As concerns demographic phenomena related to family life (i.e. fertility, nupciality, divorciality and mortality), differences among EU countries are wide. The differences within Slovenia are also fairly substantial. The widest differences are those related with marital and non-marital (consensual) unions. The proportion of women living in consensual unions is largest in the Koroška region. In 2002, no less than 27% of women aged 25–34 cohabited there, while in the Goriška and Notranjska regions this figure was only 7%. Another specific feature of the Koroška region is that the proportion of cohabiting women sharply decreases with age. This is partly attributable to generational differences (cohabitating couples are more prevalent among young people) and partly to tradition. The average age of women at first marriage in the Koroška region is therefore also among

[4] The number of marriages and divorces and the values of different indicators of marriage and divorce rates also depend on the data collection methodology. Thus, for example, within EU countries the total marriage rate is far highest in Cyprus while the total divorce rate is among the lowest – Cyprus is therefore not cited in the text.

Figure 4: **Mean age of women at childbearing, in years, and proportion of extra-marital births, in %, EU-27, 2006**

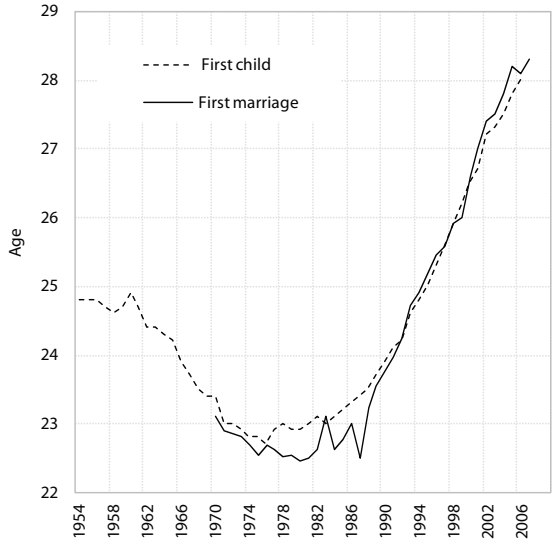


Source: Eurostat.

the highest in Slovenia. Women living in the Podravska region behave similarly to those in the Koroška region.

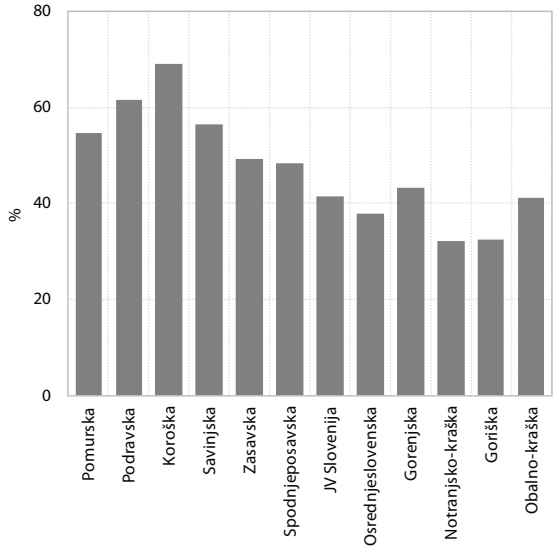
Cohabitation is related with extra-marital births. Their share has always been the highest in the Koroška and Štajerska regions, and the lowest in the southwest of Slovenia and Prekmurje. The past decade has shown changes that will possibly result in a decrease in the traditional differences among the regions and their replacement by new ones. That is to say, the proportion

Figure 5: **Mean age of women at birth of first child, and mean age of women at first marriage, Slovenia, 1954–2007, in years**



Souce: SORS.

Figure 6: **Proportions of extra-marital births by statistical regions, Slovenia, 2007, in %**



Source: SORS.

of non-marital births is growing more rapidly where it had been lower, and more slowly or not at all where it had been the highest (i.e. 60% and 70%, respectively). In Iceland, where this proportion is the highest in Europe, the growing trend has stopped at 65%. We expect that in Slovenia it will also stop somewhere close to this figure.

2 Labour market and employment

A person's position in the labour market has an important impact on his or her socioeconomic status in society. Labour market trends are closely related to economic growth, which in 2006 and 2007 increased significantly. In this section we present unemployment trends at the level of Slovenia and its regions, employment rates and flexible forms of employment. Labour market flexibility is often pointed out as an important mechanism for the economy's adjustment, and the exposure to flexible forms of employment has an impact on a person's income situation. Among flexibility indicators, part-time and temporary employment are shown, which can indicate the distinctive age segmentation of the labour market and the greater poverty risk for those in flexible forms of employment.

2.1 Unemployment trends

In Slovenia, unemployment is measured in two ways: with the Labour Force Survey, which yields internationally comparable data on economic activity of the population, and with data on registered unemployment, based on the unemployment register kept by the Employment Service of Slovenia (ESS). Because unemployment data from different sources enable analysis that is complementary in terms of content, unemployment trends are shown according to both methods of measurement.

2.1.1 Unemployment trends according to the Labour Force Survey

From 2000 to 2005, the unemployment rate decreased by 0.5 of a p.p., while 2006 and 2007 saw a major drop. Accelerated reduction in unemployment in these two years can be linked to the significant employment growth and economic growth recorded in 2006 (5.9%) and 2007 (6.8%).

Over the 2000–2007 period, the unemployment rate for men decreased by 2.8 p.p. and for women by 1.4 p.p. The difference between the female and male unemployment rate had been growing until 2006. Although in 2007 the difference between the two rates decreased, it was still much greater than in 2000, showing a deterioration of the relative position of women in the labour market.

In the 2000–2007 period the unemployment rate was decreasing, but not for everybody at the same rate: the unemployment rate for women decreased slower than that for men. The youth unemployment rate dropped the most, but it is still relatively high.

Differences between Labour Force Survey and registered unemployment

In measuring **unemployment according to the Labour Force Survey (LFS)**, which is internationally comparable, a person must meet three criteria in order to have the status of an unemployed person: (i) did not do any paid work in the week before the survey and is not employed or self-employed; (ii) actively sought work in the last four weeks before the survey; and (iii) is currently available for work immediately or within two weeks of the day of the survey. On the other hand, **registered unemployment** is measured by the number of registrations of unemployed persons at employment services.

In 2007, the average number of registered unemployed persons was 71,000. According to the LFS, 50,000 people were unemployed and 34,000 registered unemployed persons did not fulfil one of the criteria for LFS unemployment. Among the latter, 81.3% did not actively seek work, 13.4% did at least one hour of paid work and 5.3% were not available for work within two weeks of the day of the survey.

In addition to the differences in definition, the reasons for the relatively large gap between registered and Labour Force Survey unemployment include: (i) the "inactivity" of some of the registered unemployed persons who are not actively seeking work, which is closely related to the high share of the long-term unemployed who become passive, thinking that they cannot get work (*discouraged workers*); and (ii) the employment of registered unemployed people in the shadow economy or the work they do as unpaid family workers[1] in a family enterprise (craft industry, company, farm).

The large difference is definitely the result of: (i) the tying of certain rights in social security systems to the status of being an unemployed person, which the individual obtains by registering as unemployed, increases the incentive for the unemployed to register; and (ii) the unfavourable ratio between the number of employment counsellors to unemployed people, which makes it more difficult to intensively monitor and provide counselling to the unemployed on the one hand or monitor their activity on the other hand.

[1] Compared to EU Member States, Slovenia has a relatively high share of unpaid family workers among persons in employment.

In the 2000–2007 period, the youth unemployment rate (people aged 15–24) dropped by 6.5 p.p.; the decrease was slightly greater for women than for men. The youth unemployment rate is still twice as high as the total unemployment rate. The gap between the youth unemployment rate and the average is the result of the low employment rate among young people and the high participation of young people in education on the one hand and the organisation of vocational and professional education on the other hand. The decrease in the youth unemployment rate is also the result of the shrinking number of young people entering the labour market and increased participation in continuous education, which postpones labour market entry. As a measure of youth unemployment, a more appropriate indicator is the youth unemployment to youth population ratio. In 2006, the ratio for Slovenia was 5.6% and has been gradually decreasing since 2000, when it stood at 6.4%. In the Netherlands, which has one of the lowest youth unemployment rates (5.9% in 2007) in the EU,[5] the youth unemployment to youth population ratio was 4.6% in 2006 (Employment in Europe 2007).

The Labour Force Survey also shows the drop in the unemployment rate in the age group 50–64.

Table 2: **Unemployment rates according to the Labour Force Survey, Slovenia, 2000–2007, in %**

	Total	Men (2)	Women (3)	Difference between male and female unemployment rate in p.p. (3) - (2)
2000	7.0	6.8	7.3	0.5
2001	6.4	5.9	7.0	1.1
2002	6.4	5.9	6.8	1.1
2003	6.7	6.4	7.1	0.7
2004	6.3	5.5	6.4	0.9
2005	6.5	6.1	7.1	1.0
2006	6.0	4.9	7.2	2.3
2007	4.9	4.0	5.9	1.9
2000–2007 difference in p.p.	-2.1	-2.8	-1.4	+1.4

Source: SORS; IMAD's calculations.

Table 3: **Unemployment rates by age groups (according to the LFS), Slovenia, 2000–2007, in %**

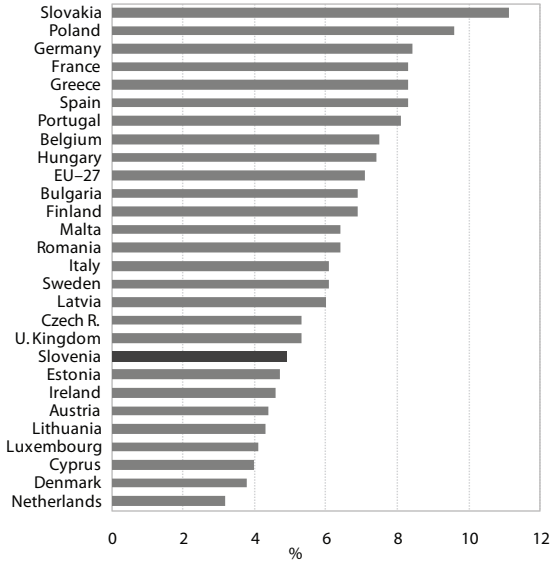
	15–24 years	25–49 years	50–64 years	Total
2000	16.8	5.7	6.2	7.0
2001	18.1	5.1	4.8	6.4
2002	16.7	5.4	4.3	6.4
2003	17.4	5.9	4.3	6.7
2004	16.3	6.8	4.3	6.3
2005	16.0	5.9	4.4	6.5
2006	13.9	5.6	3.8	6.0
2007	10.3	4.4	4.1	4.9
2000–2007 difference in p.p.	-6.5	-1.3	-2.1	-2.1

Source: SORS; IMAD's calculations.

[5] On average, in 2006 the youth unemployment to youth population ratio in the EU-27 was 7.7%, while the youth unemployment rate was 17.5%.

However, the rate is relatively low (compared to the total unemployment rate) also because older people frequently do not seek employment and thus do not meet all Labour Force Survey criteria for unemployment. In the entire 2000–2007 period, the unemployment rate in Slovenia was lower than the EU average, which in 2007 stood at 7.1%.

Figure 7: **Unemployment rates (according to the LFS), EU27, 2007, in %**



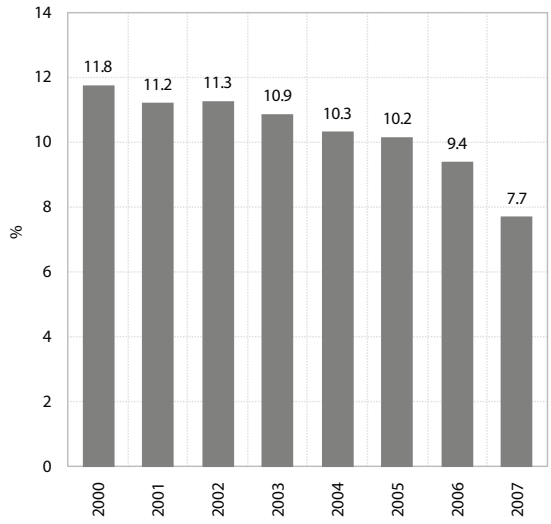
Source: Eurostat.

2.1.2 Trends in registered unemployment

The number of registered unemployed persons was decreasing through the entire 2000–2007 period as did the registered unemployment rate. The greatest drop in the number of registered unemployed persons and the registered unemployment rate was recorded in 2007. On average, 71,336 unemployed persons were registered in 2007, which was 16.9% less than a year before and 33.1% less than in 2000. After 1998, when the Employment and Insurance Against Unemployment Act (Official Gazette of the Republic of Slovenia, No. 69/98) was amended, which tightened the conditions for keeping unemployed persons on the unemployment register, the number of unemployed decreased also due to the elimination of the unemployed from the register for reasons other than that they found work. The outflow from unemployment due to employment was smaller than the inflow into unemployment. In the last three years, and especially in 2007, the number of unemployed persons fell also due to a smaller inflow into unemployment, which on the one hand is the result of the shrinking number of young people entering the labour market and on the other hand of fewer workers being laid off.

> The number of registered unemployed persons has been constantly falling since 2000.

Figure 8: **Registered unemployment rates, Slovenia, 2000–2007, in %**



Source: SORS.

In the 1990s, the basic structural problems were the increase in long-term unemployment, the increase in unemployment among people over 40, the increase in the number of unemployed persons with disabilities and the high unemployment of persons with lower educational attainment. The shares of the long-term unemployed, the unemployed aged 40+ and the unemployed with lower education were highest in 1999 and 2000; they then started to fall, partly due to targeted active employment policy measures, which, however, were most successful in decreasing the share of unemployed persons with lower educational attainment. The long-term unemployment rate reached the highest level in 2000 (4.1%). The share of unemployed persons with disabilities in the total number of registered unemployed persons was reduced in 2003 with a reclassification into a special record.[6]

> The structure of registered unemployed persons and structural problems were different in the 1990s from those today.

[6] Unemployed persons with disabilities who were receiving unemployment benefits from the Pension and Disability Insurance Institute of the Republic of Slovenia, who were registered at the Institute for at least two years, and who were during this time unable to find employment due to their employment-related disability despite being referred to the employers after the inclusion in the active employment policy programmes or for whom no appropriate jobs were available. The record is kept on the basis of the Rules on the Contents and the Method of Keeping Official Records in the Field of Employment, which was published on 4 October 2002 on the basis of amendments to the Employment and Insurance against Unemployment Act.

In contrast to the previous decade, when it was mostly those industries employing male labour (e.g. heavy industry and construction) that were failing or restructuring, in this decade the industries employing mostly female labour force (e.g. textile and other light labour-intensive industries) are experiencing problems. This is why in this decade the registered unemployment rate for women has been decreasing more slowly than the rate for men. On the other hand, unemployed persons with tertiary education are one of the categories of the unemployed whose number has been increasing in this decade. In 2006, their number reached 7,561, which was 58% more than in 2000, representing 8.8% of the total number of registered unemployed persons in 2006. In 2007, their number went slightly down (to 7,191), but their share in the total number of unemployed persons went up to 10.1%. The growing problem of employing people with tertiary education is also shown by the rise in the unemployment rate for people with tertiary education according to the Labour force Survey, which in 2000 was around 2% and was not statistically significant, but which had grown to 3.9% in 2007. The increase in the number of unemployed persons with tertiary education shows structural disparity in the labour market, which is related to the structure of enrolment in tertiary education where enrolment in social sciences predominates. The number of unemployed persons over 50 years of age, who represent 31.1% of all unemployed persons in the country, has increased for the third consecutive year. Older people have problems finding employment due to age as well as lack of skills.

In the 2000–2007 period, the main problems were the low employment rate for older people and the growing unemployment of people with tertiary education.

Amendments to the Employment and Insurance against Unemployment Act of 1998 tightened the conditions for receiving unemployment benefits, which resulted in a significant decrease in the number of recipients. By 2007, when on average only 15,041 or 21.1% of the total number of registered unemployed persons were receiving the benefit, compared with 1998 the number was almost halved.[7] Due to the shorter period of receiving unemployment benefits, the number of recipients had been increasing until 2005. In 2005 the average number was 6,201 (2,870 more than in 1998), while a year later the number fell to 5,477. With amendments to the Employment and Insurance against Unemployment Act of July 2006 (Official Gazette of the Republic of Slovenia, No. 79/06) unemployment benefits as one of the rights arising from insurance against unemployment were abolished and replaced by the right to receive social assistance in cash in line with the Social Security Act. Unemployment benefits can, until expiry of the right, be received only by people who had the right to receive this assistance before the mentioned changes came into force. In 2007, the number of recipients of unemployment benefits decreased to 1,542.

In the 2000–2007 period, the number and share of recipients of unemployment benefits increased.

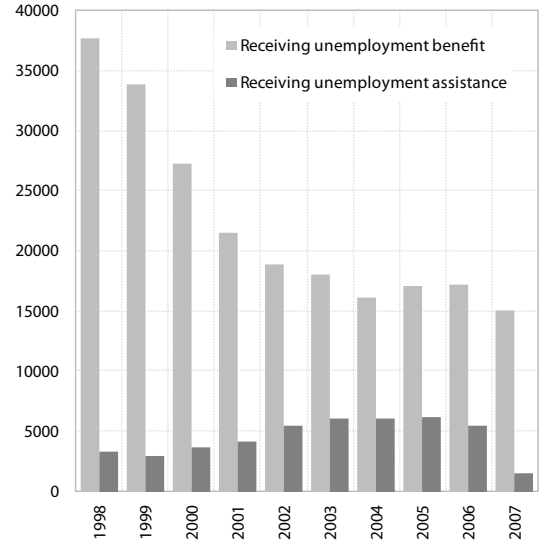
[7] In 2000, 27,264 or 25.6% of all unemployed persons were receiving unemployment benefit.

Table 4: **Selected groups of registered unemployed persons, 2000–2007, Slovenia, % of total unemployment**

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
Women	50.7	50.8	51.2	52.8	53.1	53.8	54.8	54.9
Young people (up to 26 years of age)	23.4	24.1	24.0	26.1	26.2	24.2	21.2	16.7
People over 40 years of age	51.7	50.5	49.4	44.1	42.8	43.6	46.3	52.1
Without professional education	47.2	47.0	47.0	44.2	41.6	40.8	39.3	39.3
Long-term unemployed (over 1 year)	62.9	58.9	54.4	48.6	46.2	47.3	48.8	51.2
Recipients of unemployment benefits	25.6	21.1	18.4	18.6	17.4	18.6	20.0	21.1

Source: ESS; IMAD's calculations.

Figure 9: **Number of recipients of unemployment benefits and unemployment assistance, 1998–2007**



Source: ESS.

2.1.3 Regional dimension of registered unemployment

Since 2000, the registered unemployment rate has decreased in most statistical regions, but in 2006 and 2007 it decreased in all of them. However, the drop in the

Since 2000, the registered unemployment rate has decreased in most regions, but in 2006 and 2007 it decreased in all of them.

Table 5: **Registered unemployment rate by regions, Slovenia, 2000–2007, in %**

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2007/2000 reduction	
									in p.p.	in %
SLOVENIA	11.8	11.2	11.3	10.9	10.3	10.2	9.4	7.7	–4.1	34.4
Osrednjeslovenska	8.8	8.0	7.7	7.5	7.5	7.6	7.2	5.9	–2.9	33.0
Obalno-kraška	8.8	8.7	8.3	8.0	7.9	7.5	7.2	6.3	–2.5	29.2
Gorenjska	9.7	8.7	8.2	8.0	7.6	7.3	6.4	4.9	–4.8	49.6
Goriška	5.9	5.6	6.1	6.3	6.7	6.5	6.2	4.9	–1.0	17.6
Savinjska	13.1	13.1	13.6	13.1	12.5	12.7	11.6	9.4	–3.7	28.3
Jugovzhodna Slovenija	10.4	9.6	9.7	8.4	8.2	8.8	8.6	7.0	–3.4	32.6
Pomurska	16.7	16.3	17.7	17.6	16.8	17.1	15.7	13.4	–3.3	19.6
Notranjsko-kraška	10.4	9.4	8.8	8.6	8.1	7.9	7.0	5.4	–5.0	47.9
Podravska	18.1	17.4	17.1	15.8	14.2	13.5	12.7	10.4	–7.7	42.7
Koroška	9.9	9.9	11.3	12.2	11.4	10.6	10.1	8.1	–1.8	18.4
Spodnjeposavska	13.4	13.9	14.1	14.6	12.7	11.5	10.5	8.9	–4.5	33.5
Zasavska	14.9	14.3	14.8	15.6	14.4	13.8	12.0	9.7	–5.2	34.9

Source: SORS; IMAD's calculations.

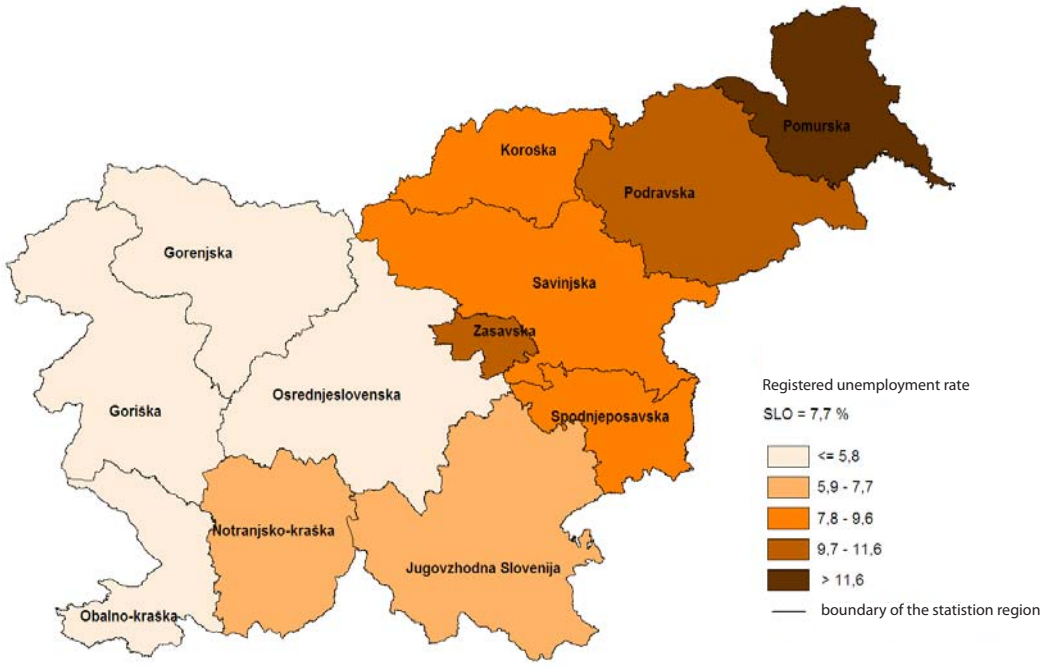
registered unemployment rate was not the same in all regions. In the 2000–2007 period, the unemployment rate decreased most in some regions with above average rates (Podravska, Zasavska) but also in some regions with below average rates (Notranjsko-kraška, Gorenjska). The rate decreased more than the national average also in the Spodnjeposavska region. Despite a more or less constant decrease in the registered unemployment rate, the relative ratios between regions and towards the national average did not change significantly. In 2007, the regions with above average unemployment rates were the same as in 2000: Pomurska, Podravska, Zasavska, Savinjska and Spodnjeposavska; and from 2002 on also Koroška. In 2007, the lowest unemployment rate was registered in Gorenjska, which thus for the first time after 2000 overtook Goriška as the region with traditionally lowest unemployment rate. Despite the drop in the registered unemployment rate, the difference between the least and most successful regions in terms of registered unemployment slightly increased. In 2007, Pomurska was the region with the highest unemployment rate; its rate was 2.7-times higher than in Gorenjska, which was slightly more than in 2006, when the least successful region had a 2.5-times higher rate than the most successful region (13.4% vs. 4.9%), and at the same time less than in 2000, when the difference was 3.1-times (16.7% vs. 5.9%). The

Table 6: **Selected groups of unemployed persons by regions, 2007 (% of total registered unemployment)**

	Unemployed with tertiary education (%)	People over 50 years of age (%)	Unemployed without an education (%)	Long-term unemployed (%)	Unemployed after fixed-term employment (%)
SLOVENIA	10.1	31.1	39.2	51.2	30.3
Osrednjeslovenska	14.0	34.3	36.6	52.8	30.4
Obalno-kraška	12.8	33.8	35.9	43.7	28.5
Gorenjska	12.0	42.5	38.0	38.3	31.9
Goriška	13.5	36.2	35.8	49.5	29.4
Savinjska	8.6	28.2	35.9	53.5	30.4
Jugovzhodna Slovenija	7.3	30.4	54.9	56.4	26.2
Pomurska	6.1	30.0	50.8	54.8	26.2
Notranjsko-kraška	13.1	34.8	37.5	42.6	33.6
Podravska	9.0	27.7	35.4	50.7	32.4
Koroška	11.3	24.9	33.4	50.6	33.7
Spodnjeposavska	8.0	34.7	43.1	53.1	29.6
Zasavska	7.0	23.0	42.4	49.8	30.9

Souce: SORS, ESS; IMAD's calculations.

Map 1: **Registered unemployment rate by regions, 2007, in %**



Source: SMARS, SORS, mapping by IMAD.

smaller increase in regional disparities is shown also by a slight increase in the coefficient of variation in 2007 (by 1.6 p.p. compared to 2006 and by 0.1 p.p. compared to 2000).

With the drop in the registered unemployment rate, structural unemployment is still a problem in all regions, even those with below average rates. A characteristic of 2007 was the increase in the share of the unemployed with tertiary education in all regions: the highest share was recorded in the Osrednjeslovenskia region (14%), but compared with 2006 it increased most in Notranjsko-kraška and Koroška regions. In most regions, the share of the long-term unemployed also went up; it is the highest in Jugovzhodna Slovenija (56.4% of all job seekers). Frequently, long-term unemployed people also have low educational attainment and are over 50 years old. The share of those in the structure of the unemployed is growing in all regions, most of all in Gorenjska, which records the highest share (42.3%). The number of unemployed persons seeking work because their fixed-term employment has been terminated is also on the rise. In most regions their share exceeds 30%, the highest being in Koroška and Notranjsko-kraška regions with over a third of all unemployed persons.

A major problem in all regions is structural unemployment.

2.2 Employment rate according to the Labour Force Survey

In the 2000–2007 period, the employment rate in the 15–64 age group[8] grew by 4.9 p.p.; for women it increased by 4.1 p.p. and for men by 5.5 p.p.[9] A faster increase came in 2004, together with higher economic growth. In the 2000–2007 period, the number in employment according to the LFS increased at the average annual rate of 1.4%, which was faster than in the EU (1.1%). In 2007, Slovenia recorded very high employment growth,[10] which accompanied strong economic growth (6.8%). In 2007, the employment rate increased to 67.8%, which is close to the Lisbon Strategy objective of 70%.

Both the number of employed persons and the employment rate are increasing in Slovenia.

In 2003, the employment rate in the 15–64 age group was close to the EU-25 average (63.0%), while in 2004

[8] In 2000, the European Commission adopted the employment rate in the 15–64 age group as the measure for the objective of increasing employment.

[9] This is shown in the growing difference between the male and female unemployment rate.

[10] In 2007, the number of persons in employment according to the Labour Force Survey increased by 2.5%, and the number of registered persons in employment increased by 3.5%, while employment according to national accounts statistics was higher by 2.7%.

it exceeded both the EU-25 and the EU-15 average. The employment rate continued to increase and is still above the EU-15 average (66.9%) and the EU-27 average (65.4%). Over the entire period, the female employment rate was higher than the average of the EU-15, while the male employment rate was lower than the EU-15 average.

In 2007, the employment rate for women was 62.6% and has been exceeding the Lisbon Strategy objective of 60% since 2004. Slovenia's female employment rate in the 25–54 age group is comparable with the female employment rate in the Scandinavian countries. However, for women above the age of 55 the employment rate in Slovenia rapidly falls to a very low level, which is the result of the relatively early retirement of women. In 2007, the rate in Slovenia was 22.2%, while the EU-27 average was 36.0%, and the figure for Sweden was 67%.

The employment rate for women is above the EU average and the Lisbon objective of 60%.

In the 2000–2007 period, the employment rate for men aged 15–64 increased by 5.5 p.p. to 72.7%, which is close to the EU-27 average (72.5%). As with the employment rate for older women (55–64 years), the employment rate for older men is among the lowest in the EU.

Table 7: **Employment rate by age groups, Slovenia, 2000–2007, in %**

	15–24 years	25–49 years	50–64 years	55–64 years	15–64 years
2000	33.6	85.6	37.3	22.5	62.9
2001	31.4	86.6	41.1	25	63.9
2002	29.2	86.3	41.3	24.4	63.4
2003	29.3	85.5	41.1	23.5	62.6
2004	34	86.3	45.8	29	65.3
2005	34.0	86.2	47.6	30.5	66.0
2006	35	86.3	49.1	35.5	66.6
2007	37.6	87.6	49.5	33.4	67.8
2007/2000 difference in p.p.	+4.0	+2.0	+12.2	+10.9	+4.9

Source: SORS.

Over the period observed, the employment rate among young people (15–24 years) increased, and by 2007 slightly exceeded the EU-27 average (37.2%). That there are "reserves" for increasing the youth employment rate is confirmed by the fact that in 2007 the employment rate for young people in Slovenia was still 30.8 p.p. lower than the employment rate for young people in the Netherlands, which has the highest youth employment rate and the lowest unemployment rate. This high youth employment rate is partly also the result of the organisation of vocational and professional education of young people in which education is combined with work.

The youth employment rate increased.

The employment rate for young people in Slovenia lags behind the EU-15 average (40.8%). A relatively low employment rate among youth (15–24 years) in Slovenia is the result of: a) high participation of young people in education, which generally improves possibilities for employment; but due to the discrepancy between the supply and demand for graduates, it is difficult for young people to enter employment and the number of unemployed persons with tertiary education is growing; b) the structure of enrolment and organisation of secondary vocational and professional education, in which education is not combined with work, and a relatively low share of pupils in vocational programmes.

Despite the increase, the employment rate for older persons (55–64 years) is still among the lowest in the EU and greatly lags behind the Lisbon Strategy objective of 50% by 2010. Among other things, the increase in the employment rate for older persons is the result of the pension reform of 2000. In the 2000–2007 period, the employment rate in the 50–64 age group increased by 12.2 p.p., while the employment rate in the 55–64 age group increased slightly less. In 2006, six EU Member States had lower employment rates for older men and only three had lower employment rates for older women.[11] The main reasons for the low employment rate for older persons in Slovenia are: a) mass early retirement at the beginning of the 1990s; b) the present lower average age at retirement compared to other countries; and c) structural unemployment that affects mostly the elderly who are less involved in lifelong learning. Along with the ageing of the population, the low employment rate for older persons causes a deterioration in the long-term public finance stability of the pension system. The relatively early withdrawal from the labour market in Slovenia, which shows in the low employment rate for older persons, indicates the need to change the pension system. The urgent need for additional adaptation of the pension system to demographic change is shown by the fact that after 2005 the increase in the average age at retirement slowed down significantly, and that in 2006 the average age at exit from the labour market in Slovenia was 1.2 years below the EU average.

The employment rate for older persons is increasing but remains relatively low.

2.3 Flexible forms of employment

At the EU level, the emphasis on labour market flexibility has been replaced by the so-called "flexicurity" concept in recent years, which should provide both labour market flexibility and income security for people in the labour market. For Slovenia, too, policy-making towards flexicurity is a challenge that is currently not tackled comprehensively enough (see Kajzer et al., 2008). Because part-time employment and temporary employment are

[11] In 2007 the employment rate for older women (55–64 years) in Sweden was three times higher than in Slovenia.

frequently used as partial measures of labour market flexibility, trends in this area are presented below.

Generally, part-time employment increases labour market flexibility in terms of supply and demand. Temporary employment increases the possibility for adjusting the scope of employment and reduces the costs of such adjustments. A relatively high share of temporary employment is usually also the result of high dismissal costs and difficulties related to dismissals. Malenfant, La Rue and Vezina (2007) claim that the effects of temporary work on people's well-being are as damaging as those of unemployment. This is confirmed by Eurostat data, which shows that in Slovenia the at-risk-of-poverty rate for people in temporary employment is almost three times as high as for people in permanent employment. The data for 2006 shows that the at-risk-of-poverty rate for people with regular employment was 4% while that for people in temporary employment was 11%. According to this data, part-time employment increases the at-risk-of-poverty rate in Slovenia slightly less than temporary employment. In 2006, the at-risk-of-poverty rate for people in full-time employment was 4% and for people in part-time employment 7%.

Flexible forms of employment increase labour market flexibility, but negatively affect income security and thus people's well- being.

2.3.1 Part-time employment

The share of part-time employment in total employment in Slovenia is increasing, which could be interpreted as a trend directed to an increase in labour market flexibility. Part-time employment increases labour market flexibility in terms of supply and demand. For an enterprise, the use of part-time employment increases the possibility of adjusting the number of hours done and thus the production volume and labour costs. In terms of labour force supply, part-time employment most frequently appears as a possibility for easier reconciliation of work and family life, increasing the options for people who might not be ready or capable of working full time. On the other hand, data show that in Slovenia part-time employment also increases the at-risk-of-poverty rate.

Table 8: **Part-time employment by age groups, Slovenia, 2000–2007, in % of persons in employment**

	15–24 years	25–49 years	50–64 years	15–64 years
2000	13.4	3.3	10	5.3
2001	15.8	3.3	8.2	5.3
2002	17.6	3.5	8.9	5.8
2003	21.8	3.3	7.9	5.8
2004	29.1	4.4	12	8.3
2005	30.1	4.3	9.5	7.8
2006	29.8	4.3	10.4	8.0
2007	29.8	3.9	11.6	8.1

Source: Eurostat.
Note: The figure for the age group 50–64 is statistically unreliable.

The increase in the share of part-time employment in Slovenia in the 2000–2007 period is mostly the result of an increase in the number of such jobs among young people (aged 15–24) and older people (aged 50–64). As regards young people in part-time employment, in 2007 their number was 155% higher than in 2000. As far as young people are concerned, this is probably due to an increase in the scope of student work, which puts Slovenia (29.8% in 2007) above the EU average (25.6%) in terms of the share of part-time employment among young people. As regards older people in part-time employment, in 2007 their number was 92% higher than in 2000. When it comes to older people, an important reason for the increase is an increase in the number of unpaid family workers. A higher increase in the use of part-time employment was recorded after 2003, which is probably linked to accelerated economic growth and, in particular with women, also to the possibility of taking advantage of the right to work with less working hours introduced by the Parental Protection and Family Benefit Act.

Part-time employment increased the most among the young and the elderly.

In 2007, 8.1% of people in employment aged 15–64 in Slovenia were in part-time employment (EU average: 17.6%). The share of women in part-time employment in Slovenia (10%) was well behind the EU average (30.7%), while the share of men in part-time employment (6.5%) has almost caught up with the EU average (6.9%). In the Netherlands, where part-time employment is the most widespread, as many as 74.7% of women and 22.7% of men are in part-time employment. However, the share of part-time employment in Slovenia is higher than the EU average among young women (aged 5–24) and stands at 40.8%, while the EU average is 34.5%.

2.3.2 Temporary employment

Due to the rapid growth in the share of temporary employment, Slovenia's ranking among the EU Member States is now higher.[12] In 2007, the share of temporary employment stood at 18.4% (EU average: 14.5%). It has more than doubled in the last ten years and has grown particularly quickly since 2003. Since employment protection was reduced in Slovenia in 2003 by the introduction of the

The share of temporary employment in Slovenia has been rapidly growing, especially after 2003.

[12] In terms of the share of part-time employment in total employment in the group aged 15–64, Slovenia ranked fourth in the second quarter of 2007 (behind Spain, Poland and Portugal) and overtook Finland, which was above Slovenia on this ranking in 2006.

Table 9: **Shares of temporary employment in total employment by age groups, Slovenia, 2000–2007, in %**

	15–24 years	25–49 years	50–64 years	15–64 years
2000	43.2	9.5	6.6	12.8
2001	51.0	8.8	4.8	13
2002	52.9	10.8	6.0	14.6
2003	53.0	10.2	4.4	13.5
2004	63.1	13.6	7.7	17.8
2005	62.5	13.5	6.2	17.2
2006	64.2	13.1	6.5	17.1
2007	68.3	14.0	6.7	18.4

Source: Eurostat.
Note: The figure for the age group 50–64 is statistically unreliable.

Labour Relationship Act, it might be expected that the share of temporary employment would not increase significantly. However, accelerated economic growth led to growth in employment and an increased share of temporary employment.

The share of temporary employment is especially high among the youth (aged 15–24). In the majority of countries, the proportion of young people in temporary employment is higher than the rate among other employed people. In terms of the proportion of young people in temporary employment, Slovenia ranked first among the EU Member States in 2007 with 66.5% of young persons in employment being in temporary employment (women: 76.8%, men: 62.5%). The high rate of temporary employment among young people in Slovenia is, to a certain extent, due to the occasional work of young people through student employment services, which are in the current arrangement attractive for employers from the aspect of quick adjustment of the number of working hours and employees and from the aspect of lower taxation of work through student employment services compared with regular employment. If student work is eliminated from temporary employment of young people aged 15–24, the share of temporary employment among young people falls to around 50%, which is on the level of the EU average. A high rate of temporary employment represents labour market segmentation by age. This means that young people are facing more uncertainty in terms of stability of employment, which can have an influence on important decisions in their lives, including the decision to start a family. From the aspect of flexicurity, the problem lies in the "strict" conditions for acquiring unemployment benefits, which makes it difficult for young people with frequent temporary employment to acquire unemployment allowances that would provide them with income security.

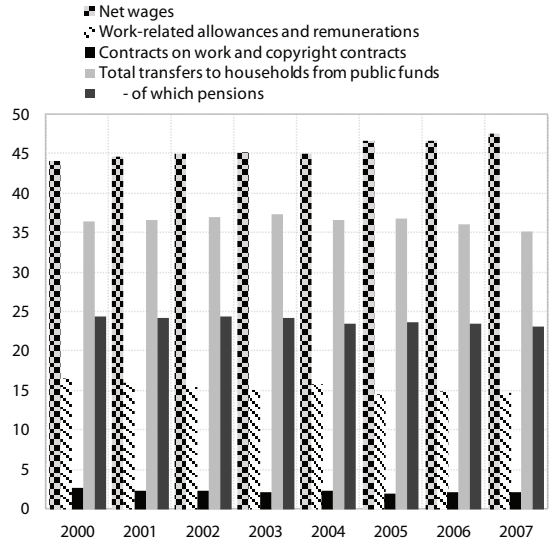
3 Household income and expenditure

The chapter on household income and expenditure presents the structure of money incomes of households and the developments of the main types of incomes i.e. wages and pensions. It examines the real growth of these two types of incomes and the disparities between the recipients in terms of their level of income. A more detailed analysis has been made of the changes in the purchasing power of the average gross wage, by presenting the working time required to buy goods and services. This detailed analysis for the wages of the first decile, median and the ninth decile has revealed the actual differences in the working time required to buy goods and services and is reflected also in the household expenditures by consumption quintile classes. Particular attention has been paid to the problem of household borrowing, which is expected to bear even graver consequences due to the current financial crisis and a rapid slowdown in the economic growth.

According to the statistical data (data by the Agency of the Republic of Slovenia for Public Legal Records and Related Services and the Ministry of Finance), the current net money incomes of households, less social security contributions and personal income tax, increased in real terms by 24.7% in the period 2000–2007 i.e. by 3.2% on average per year. The income from employment i.e. net wages and work-related allowances and remunerations accounted for

Net incomes of households increased in real terms by 24.7% in the period 2000–2007.

Figure 10: **Income structure of population in Slovenia, 2000–2007, in %**



Source: Agency for Public Legal Records and Related Services (AJPES), MF; calculations by IMAD.

60% of total income and were thus the most important income category. In this period, the proportion of the total net wage bill in revenues was constantly increasing. In 2000, it represented 44.2% of total revenues, whilst in 2007 this share rose to 47.7%. This was a result not only of a growth in average net wages, but also of a rise in employment and changes in the personal income tax in 2005 and 2007,[13] which contributed to two-p.p. higher growth in net wages compared to growth in gross wages. The share of work-related allowances and remunerations in total money incomes slightly narrowed from 16.6% in 2000 to 14.8% in 2007. Transfer payments to households accounted for around 36% of total money income, with pensions holding the largest share. Their share, however, recorded a slightly downward trend, falling from 24.5% in 2000 to 23.3% of total incomes in 2007. Pensions represent around two thirds of all transfer payments, followed by family allowances; child allowances and compensations for maternity leave account for around 10% of all transfer payments to households. Only the share of social benefits, wage compensations (for those temporarily unable to work) and sickness benefits for above 30 days recorded a slightly upward trend.

3.1 Wage developments

Apart from employment, a real rise in average wage is an important factor contributing to the standard of living of the population – wages and other incomes from work namely represent more than 60% of all current money incomes of households. The wage policy thus has to steer wage developments in the private and public sectors in such a way as to be in line with the achieved labour productivity in the long term. Thus, it will ensure a higher standard of living for the entire population based on healthy foundations and also contribute to employment growth. The minimum wage policy does not aim solely at assuring the minimum socially acceptable level of wages but also importantly affects the distribution of wages.

In the period 2000–2007, the real gross wage per employee rose on average by 2.2% per year. Since 2002, the gross wage per employee in the public sector has grown at a significantly slower rate than in the private sector; the real gross wage in the private sector rose on average by 2.5% and in the public sector by 1.4% per year. The reasons lie in the several-year-long negotiations aimed at abolishing wage disparities in the public sector.

Wages in the public sector grew more slowly than those in the private sector.

The aim of the statutory minimum wage is to prevent wages from falling below the agreed level of minimum wage, and thus provide essential security to the employed. The social partners agree on the level of minimum wage using the adjustment mechanism, which was until 2005 more favourable than that used for wages in general. Consequently, the minimum wage rose faster than the gross wage. By the Minimum Wage Act of 2006, the minimum wage adjustment mechanism was changed; it no longer assures the real value of the minimum wage. The changes in the adjustment mechanism policy for the minimum wage are also well reflected in the comparison of minimum wage and average wage in the private sector. At first, the ratio of minimum wage to average private sector wage rose, only to drop again in 2006, reaching the 2000 level in 2007.

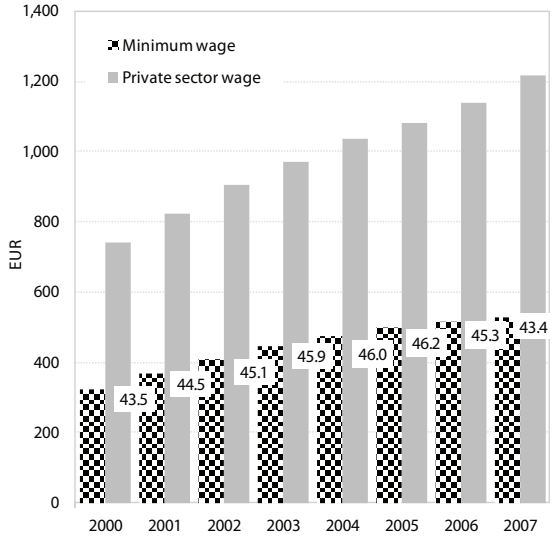
The statutory minimum wage was introduced by the 1995 Social Agreement.

Table 10: **Growth in real gross wage per employee in private and public sectors, Slovenia, 2001–2007, in %**

Year	Growth in gross wage per employee, in %		
	Total	Private sector	Public sector
2001	3.2	2.3	5.1
2002	2.0	2.3	1.1
2003	1.8	2.1	1.0
2004	2.0	3.1	-0.8
2005	2.2	2.8	0.9
2006	2.2	2.8	1.0
2007	2.2	3.2	0.5
2001–2007	2.2	2.7	1.3

Source: SORS; calculations of gross wages by sectors by IMAD (private sector – SCA categories from A to K, public sector – SCA categories from L to O).

Figure 11: **Minimum gross wage, average gross wage and the ratio of minimum wage to gross wage in the private sector, Slovenia, 2000–2007**



Source: SORS; calculations by IMAD for gross wages in the private sector (private sector – SCA categories from A to K).

[13] In 2005, the lowest bracket was reduced from 17% to 16% and there were some changes in reliefs. In 2007, three brackets were introduced instead of five, with the aim of disburdening the highest wages.

The changing ratio of minimum to average gross wage also resulted in the changing proportion of those employed on low wages (according to the OECD methodology, this category includes those employed with wages at or below the 2/3 median). In 2000, 13.9% of the employed received low wages; the appropriate wage and minimum wage policies contributed to this share dropping to 12.7% in 2005, only to rise again and reach as much as 15.6% in 2007, which is by far the highest percentage in this period.

Another factor affecting the distribution of the employed in terms of the level of gross wage is education. Around 35% of those employed in the public sector have completed higher education, compared to around 10% in the private sector. This is why in this period, the level of average gross wage in the public sector was 25% higher than that in the private sector, with consequent effects on the distribution of the employed in terms of the level of gross wage. According to the data for 2007, 10% of those employed with the lowest wages in the private sector received wages of EUR 588 or less (110% of the minimum wage), whilst in the public sector they received wages of EUR 743 or less (140% of minimum wage).

The problem of starting wages in the private sector has been constantly present and has strongly affected the distribution of wages (the distribution of the employed by the level of gross wage), as the levels of all starting wages regulated by the general collective agreement and collective agreements for activities have been very low. Another factor contributing to wage inequality was the fact that in the case of lower starting-wage brackets, the actual payments received were close to the level of the starting wages, and in the case of higher starting-wage brackets, the actual payments received were considerably higher than the level of starting wages. In most cases, the lowest brackets of starting wages (up to the fourth tariff class) did not reach the level of the minimum wage, despite the new "slower" adjustment mechanism for minimum wages in place since 2006. In the public sector, the problem of starting wages was previously solved by the additional benefits agreed upon in collective agreements. This method of bargaining resulted in the disparities in public sector wages. On the basis of the Salary System in the Public Sector Act of 2002, after extensive bargaining – wages in the public sector started to be paid according to the new system in September 2008 (with the difference accrued since May 2008) with the goal of abolishing the disparities by 2010.

The degree of wage inequality was approximately the same in both, private and public sectors; in the public sector, however, the distribution of wages was more even; this is understandable, given the structure of the employed in terms of education. According to the analysis of wage distribution, the ratio of the value of the median to the first decile was stable; in the private sector the median was around 60% higher than the first decile and in the public sector higher by around 80%. This stability was mostly achieved by the adjustment mechanism for the minimum wage, which applied a higher adjustment percentage for minimum wages than starting wages; consequently, the minimum wage rose faster. There are, however, other factors affecting wages, such as bonuses for business results of a company, individual's performance benefits, promotion, etc., which do not affect minimum wage growth. By applying such an adjustment percentage for the minimum wage, the minimum wage could rise

Gross wage inequalities rose in both sectors in the period 2002–2007.

Table 11: **Indicators of inequalities in the distribution of gross wages in the private sector, Slovenia, 2000–2007**

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
9. decile/1. decile	3.22	3.30	3.22	3.32	3.28	3.31	3.36	3.44
median/1. decile	1.61	1.61	1.60	1.63	1.59	1.58	1.60	1.66
9. decile/median	2.00	2.05	2.01	2.04	2.07	2.10	2.10	2.07
Gini coefficient	0.293	0.294	0.286	0.289	0.286	0.288	0.289	0.292
Gross wage /median*100	122.6	123.8	123.3	122.9	123.0	124.3	123.8	122.8

Source: SORS; calculations by IMAD.
Note: Based on the Standard Classification of Activities, categories from A to K are considered private sector and categories from L to O public sector.

Table 12: **Indicators of inequalities in the distribution of gross wages in the public sector, Slovenia, 2000–2007**

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
9. decile/1. decile	3.46	3.45	3.28	3.24	3.22	3.31	3.36	3.39
median/1. decile	1.85	1.87	1.80	1.81	1.77	1.78	1.79	1.83
9. decile/median	1.86	1.84	1.82	1.79	1.82	1.86	1.87	1.86
Gini coefficient	0.273	0.270	0.258	0.256	0.252	0.256	0.256	0.258
Gross wage /median*100	112.8	112.2	112.4	112.1	112.3	113.2	113.2	112.6

Source: SORS; calculations by IMAD.
Note: Based on the Standard Classification of Activities (SCA), categories from A to K are considered private sector and categories from L to O public sector.

Table 13: **Indicators of inequalities in the distribution of gross wages, Slovenia, 2000–2007**

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
9. decile/1. decile	3.46	3.51	3.46	3.57	3.51	3.47	3.48	3.61
median/1. decile	1.70	1.72	1.71	1.72	1.69	1.67	1.69	1.73
9. decile/median	2.04	2.04	2.03	2.08	2.08	2.08	2.06	2.08
Gini coefficient	0.295	0.299	0.293	0.292	0.288	0.289	0.289	0.291
Gross wage /median*100	122.1	122.7	122.1	121.3	121.1	122.3	121.9	121.3

Source: SORS; calculations by IMAD.

approximately in line with the lowest wages, which contributed to relatively stable ratios at the bottom of the wage distribution scale. However, with the new system introduced in 2006, the adjustment mechanism for the minimum wage became even less favourable than that for wages, and the minimum wage movements no longer followed the movements of the lowest wages. The gross wage of the first decile grew at a slower rate than the gross wage of the median. The ratio between them widened, in particular in the private sector.

In the distribution of the employed in terms of the level of wages, all wage recipients are taken into account i.e. those whose wages are determined by the collective agreement and also those whose wages are determined by individual agreements (managers). In this period, the level of wages in the ninth decile was affected by the growth in the gross wages of managers and high-skilled technical professionals. In past years, the highest wages, which are usually determined on the basis of individual contracts, were rising faster than the gross median wage and thereby contributed to inequalities in the upper part of the distribution scale, in particular in the private sector. In 2007, the growth of the highest wages slightly slowed, particularly in the private sector. The distribution of wages as a whole is consequently a result of distributions of both types of wages. The values of inter-decile coefficients for the distributions of wages are slightly higher, because the level of wages in the public sector is on average higher by around 25% than the average level of wages in the private sector. This is also true for the first and ninth deciles, whilst the median in the public sector is higher by around 40%. Those in middle management are paid much better in the public than in the private sector.

The calculations in deciles reveal deviations between the selected "points" in the wage distribution. Usually, the deviations between the ninth and the first deciles are measured, and the deviations of these two deciles from the fifth decile or a median. The gross wage of the ninth decile means that 10% of those employed with highest wages receive a gross wage equal to the ninth decile or higher. The gross wage of the first decile means that 10% of those employed with lowest wages receive a gross wage of the first decile or lower. The gross wage of the fifth decile or the median means that 50% of the recipients of wages receive a higher gross wage than the median, and 50% of them receive a lower wage than the median.

As a result of this method of measurement (comparison of certain "points"), the ratio between the first and the ninth deciles and the median fails to reveal the developments in the lowest and the highest 10% in the distribution scale of the employed in terms of level of wages. This is why two additional indicators of inequality were applied i.e. the comparison of gross wage per employee and gross wage of the median and the assessment of the Gini coefficient (a value of 0 means that there is no inequality in the distribution, and a value of 1 means the largest inequality in the distribution).

3.1.1 Working time needed to buy goods and services

A comparison of the working time needed to buy goods and services can serve as the clearest indicator of changes in the purchasing power of a gross wage. It is calculated using an hourly gross wage compared to retail prices of goods and services in September each year. Some structural changes have been perceived over a longer period of time. A very obvious downward trend has been observed regarding the working time needed to buy goods, a less obvious downward trend regarding the time needed to pay for services, and even an upward trend regarding payment of infrastructural services.

Regarding the working time needed to buy food, a considerable drop has been recorded in the time needed to buy products of processed food, except for bread; the time needed to buy agricultural products was largely affected by the quality of yield (good or bad yield) of certain products (e.g. apples, potatoes, lettuce) and consequently varied considerably.

There has been a general increase in the time needed to buy the goods related to housing. Time needed to pay for utility services and fuel has also been up, but it has decreased as regards electricity and water for households. The largest drop was recorded for the time needed to buy industrial products of housing equipment. Thanks to a rapid technological development, the prices of comparable high-technology industrial products have dropped considerably.

Table 14: **Working time to buy food, of hourly gross wage, Slovenia, in 1997, 2000, 2003 and 2007**

	1997	2000	2003	2007	2007/1997
Brown bread (t-850) [kg]	11 minutes	15 minutes	16 minutes	16 minutes	143.4
Unboned beef [kg]	1 hour 16 minutes	1 hour 8 minutes	1 hour 2 minutes	56 minutes	73.7
Fresh milk, 3.5% milk fat [l]	6 minutes	7 minutes	6 minutes	5 minutes	77.8
Apples, table [kg]	10 minutes	8 minutes	10 minutes	8 minutes	82.6
Frozen mixed vegetables [kg]	49 minutes	45 minutes	30 minutes	22 minutes	44.2

Source: SORS; calculations by IMAD.

Table 15: **Working time to buy goods and services related to housing, of hourly gross wage, Slovenia, in 1997, 2000, 2003 and 2007**

	1997	2000	2003	2007	2007/1997
Non-profit rent [m2]	17 minutes	16 minutes	19 minutes	19 minutes	108.0
Water for households [m3]	6 minutes	7 minutes	8 minutes	4 minutes	77.4
Sewage system fee [m3]	4 minutes	4 minutes	7 minutes	8 minutes	203.2
Fuel oil, extra light [l]	3 minutes	6 minutes	4 minutes	5 minutes	149.8
Electricity, day time tariff [10 kWh]	10 minutes	11 minutes	10 minutes	8 minutes	81.0
Natural gas, for heating [sm3]	3 minutes	4 minutes	4 minutes	4 minutes	138.5
Vacuum cleaner, 1600–1800 W [piece]	22 hours 33 minutes	22 hours 24 minutes	18 hours 56 minutes	15 hours 32 minutes	68.9
Washing machine, 5–7 kg, 800–1300 rpm	78 hours 17 minutes	81 hours 50 minutes	73 hours 36 minutes	61 hours 3 minutes	78.0

Source: SORS; calculations by IMAD.

Table 16: **Working time to buy goods and services related to transport, of hourly gross wage, Slovenia, in 1997, 2000, 2003 and 2007**

	1997	2000	2003	2007	2007/1997
Passenger car Renault Clio [piece]	12 months	10 months 3 weeks	9 months 1 week	8 months 3 weeks	73.4
Compulsory car insurance, 31–40 kW	37 hours 55 minutes	42 hours 49 minutes	47 hours 23 minutes	41 hours 39 minutes	109.9
Women's bicycle (ctb), about 26 gears	38 hours 56 minutes	31 hours 8 minutes	27 hours 40 minutes	23 hours 26 minutes	60.2
Petrol unleaded, 95-oct. [l]	6 minutes	8 minutes	8 minutes	8 minutes	120.0
Urban passenger transport by bus	8 minutes	9 minutes	10 minutes	8 minutes	94.3

Source: SORS; calculations by IMAD.

Table 17: **Working time to buy clothing and footwear and goods related to hygiene, cosmetics and health, of hourly gross wage, Slovenia, in 1997, 2000, 2003 and 2007**

	1997	2000	2003	2007	2007/1997
Women's raincoat, lined	41 hours 20 minutes	36 hours 31 minutes	31 hours 42 minutes	16 hours 1 minutes	38.8
Men's suit, predominantly wool	41 hours 26 minutes	46 hours 8 minutes	35 hours 34 minutes	30 hours 10 minutes	72.8
Children's trousers, jeans, size 12–14	5 hours 9 minutes	4 hours 35 minutes	4 hours 19 minutes	3 hours 46 minutes	73.1
Laundry detergent, powder, for washing machines [kg]	21 minutes	18 minutes	20 minutes	23 minutes	109.9
Aspirin, 20 tablets	22 minutes	26 minutes	28 minutes	27 minutes	120.1
Mercury thermometer	36 minutes	34 minutes	30 minutes	18 minutes	50.5

Source: SORS; calculations by IMAD.

Goods related to transport nowadays play an important role in job and family obligations. This is why purchasing power in this area is very important. Although the trend for means of transport has been the same as that for industrial goods in general i.e. the working time required to buy them has been decreasing, there has been an obvious rise in the time needed to pay for services related to individual transport, and for fuel, which accounts for the prevailing share of this type of expenditure.

Table 18: **Working time to buy services and for eating out, of hourly gross wage, Slovenia, in 1997, 2000, 2003 and 2007**

	1997	2000	2003	2007	2007/1997
Dry-cleaning a suit	1 hour 45 minutes	1 hour 47 minutes	1 hour 40 minutes	1 hour 28 minutes	84.3
Fashionable men's haircut	1 hour 39 minutes	1 hour 44 minutes	1 hour 35 minutes	1 hour 38 minutes	99.1
Painting of rooms [m2]	17 minutes	18 minutes	16 minutes	16 minutes	91.6
Regular theatre performance	2 hours 11 minutes	1 hour 58 minutes	1 hour 46 minutes	1 hour 40 minutes	76.4
Pizza (classic)	41 minutes	39 minutes	37 minutes	40 minutes	96.7

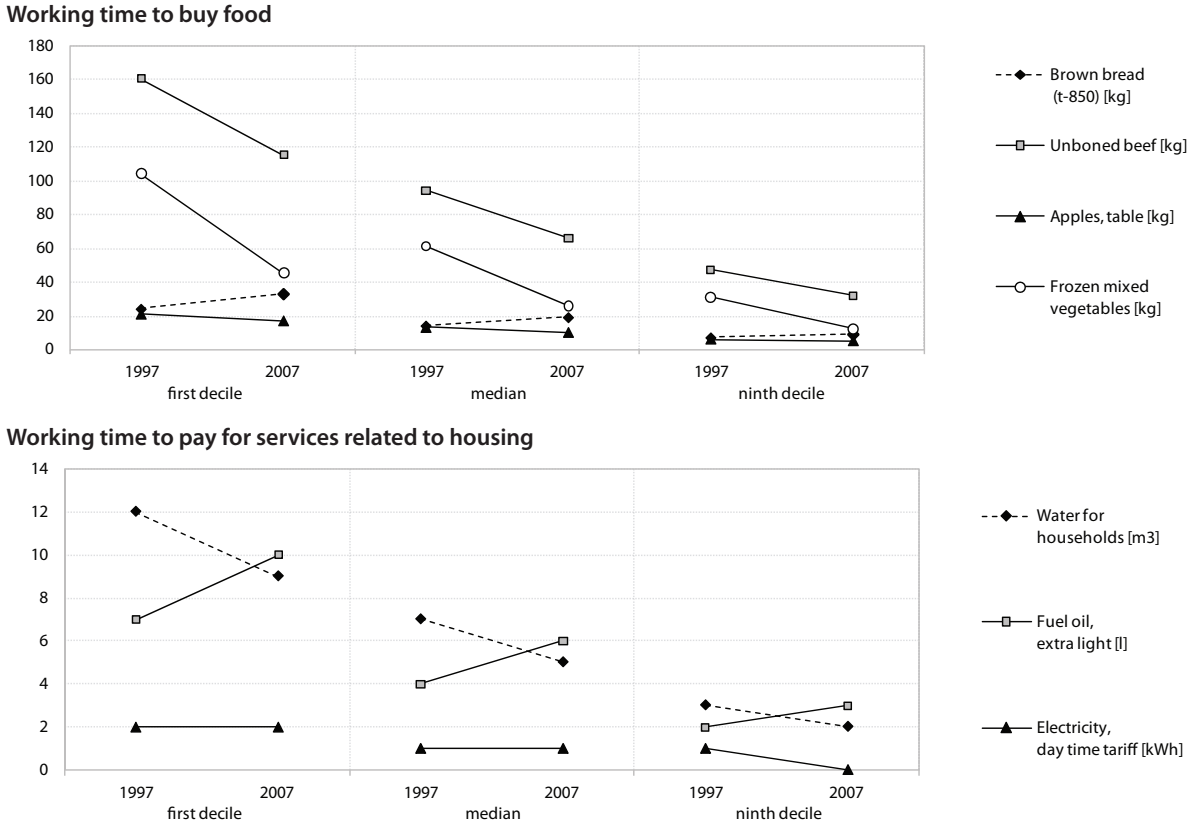
Source: SORS; calculations by IMAD.

It is typical for the above goods and services related to food, housing and transport that their consumption is to some extent non-elastic; in other words, everyone needs to eat, pay the bills for electricity, gas and somehow get to work and back. The consumption of the groups of goods that follow is somewhat more flexible. The working time needed to buy most goods in the groups "clothing and footwear" and "hygiene and cosmetics" has decreased in this period.

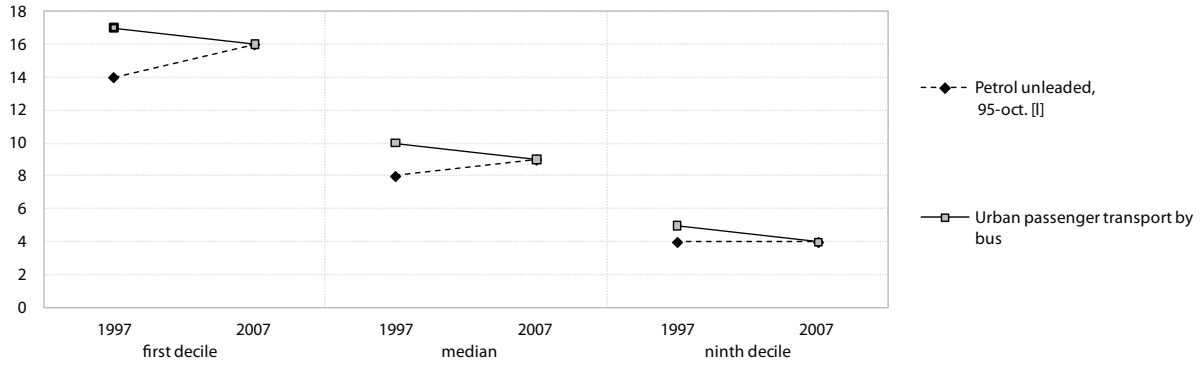
The working time needed to pay for various household and housing services and personal care, goods related to culture, recreation and education, as well as for eating out, has dropped less markedly than the time for the two groups of goods above. The consumption of these goods can also be adapted to the level of one's gross wage.

The above analysis used as a reference the average hourly gross wage. However, it is also interesting to compare the working time required to buy goods and services in terms of the hourly gross wages of the first decile, median and the ninth decile. The comparison was made for 1997 and 2007 data. The analysis has to take into account that the distribution of the employed has been very densely clustered at the right-hand side of the scale (lowest wages), which means that for wages lower than the gross wage of the first decile, the time required to buy goods has been longer, but the differences were not so obvious because of the high density of wages at this part of the scale. The wages above the ninth decile, however, are much more dispersed, which means that the working time needed to buy goods for these wages could also be considerably shorter. The comparison of 2007 and 1997

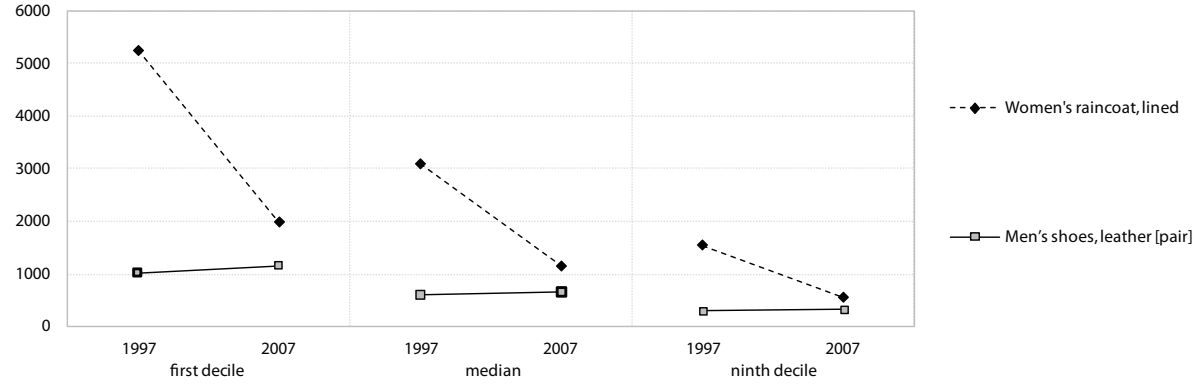
Figure 12: **Working time to buy goods and services by recipients of first decile, median and ninth decile gross wages, Slovenia, in 1997 and 2007**



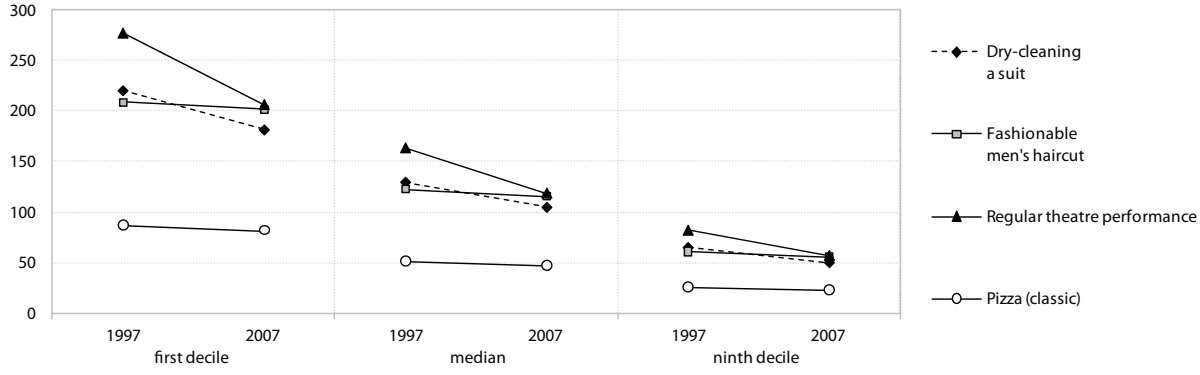
Working time to buy goods related to transport



Working time to buy clothing, footwear and goods related to hygiene and health



Working time to pay for services and eating out



Source: SORS; calculations by IMAD.

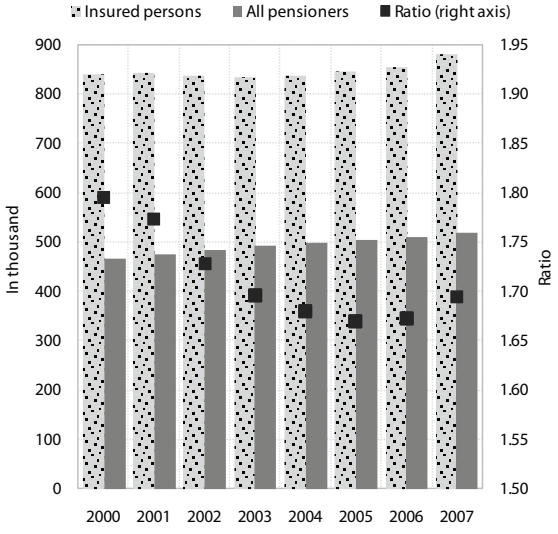
additionally reveals certain changes that occurred in this decade. If the working time required to buy a certain good increased, purchasing power was decreased, as is the case with black bread, for the purchase of which a recipient of a gross wage of the first decile had to work for 24 minutes in 1997 and 33 minutes in 2007, which is a rise of around 40%; for a recipient of the median decile wage, this time increased by 37% (from 14 minutes in 1997 to 19 minutes in 2007), and for a recipient of the ninth decile wage, it increased by 32 % (7 minutes in 1997 and 9 minutes in 2007). If, on the other hand, the working time needed to buy a certain good decreased, purchasing power increased, as is the case with beef, for the purchase of a kilo of which a recipient of gross wage of the first decile needed to work for 2 hours 40 minutes in 1997 and 1 hour 55 minutes in 2007 (down by 28%), compared with a 30% reduction of the required working time for a recipient of the median decile gross wage (1 hour 34 minutes in 1997 and 1 hour 6 minutes in 2007), and for a recipient of the ninth decile wage, a reduction of 32% (47 minutes 1997 and 32 minutes 2007). It can be concluded that in those cases where the purchasing power decreased, it decreased more for the gross wage of the first decile than for that of the ninth decile; and when the purchasing power increased, it increased less for the gross wage of the first decile than it did for the gross wage of the ninth decile. This is a more detailed analysis of the consequences of increasing disparities between the recipients in terms of the level of gross wages; it is also revealed in the Figure 12.

3.2 Pensions

In the period 2000–2007, the number of all types of pensioners has been constantly on the rise at an average annual rate of around 1.5%; in 2007, it reached on average 518,805 persons. As a consequence of a more rapid rise in the number of pensioners than the employed who contribute to the pension fund, the employed to pensioners ratio deteriorated up to 2006; it dropped from 1.80 employed per pensioner in 2000 to 1.67 employed per pensioner in 2006. Thanks to increased employment, this figure slightly improved to 1.69 in 2007.

The number of pensioners is rising faster than the number of employed people.

Figure 13: **The number of employed and pensioners, employed to pensioners ratio, Slovenia, 2000 and 2007**



Source: Pension and Disability Insurance Institute of the Republic of Slovenia.

The 2000 pension reform importantly contributed to the employed to pensioners ratio although this was less noticeable. By gradual toughening of retirement conditions (increasing the full pensionable age and prolonging the qualifying period for pensions, allowing retirement before the full pensionable age), the age structure of new pensioners has changed. In the structure of women pensioners, the most obvious was a drop in the share of pensioners aged up to 54 and a rise in the share of pensioners aged up to 60. In the structure of men pensioners, the share of pensioners aged up to 60 dropped and the share of those aged up to 65 increased. Similar trends were also perceived in other groups of pensioners. Raising the pensionable age contributed to slower dynamics of new retirements and thereby also the growth in the total number of pensioners eased; in the long-term, this also holds back the deterioration of the employed to pensioners ratio.

The age of new pensioners has increased because of the pension reform.

Table 19: **Structure of new old-age pensioners by age groups, Slovenia, 2000 and 2007, in %**

	Female		Male	
	2000	2007	2000	2007
Up to 54	57.3	7.3	9.3	6.6
55 to 59	36.2	67.9	56.2	26.6
60 to 64	5.6	22.2	29.9	57.7
above 65	0.9	2.6	4.6	9.1
Total	100	100	100	100

Source: Pension and Disability Insurance Institute of the Republic of Slovenia.

Compared to net wages, the level of net old-age pensions has decreased, as throughout the period pensions grew at a slower rate than net wages. The trends in other types of pensions i.e. disability and survivors' pensions have been similar. Recently, they have also been affected by the amendments to the Personal Income Act for 2005 and 2007. In 2005, personal income tax was cut by approximately the same amount for all and consequently the net wage rose by 2 p.p. more than the gross wage. In 2007, mostly high wages were disburdened by the personal income tax, but on average the net wage still rose by 2 p. p. more than the gross wage. As the adjustment mechanisms did not foresee the adjustment of the pension rating base and pensions to the changed average income brackets, the ratio of net pension to net wage deteriorated even further.

In the period 2000–2007, the level of pensions decreased compared to wages.

The distribution of beneficiaries of gross old-age pensions in terms of the level of pensions reveals smaller disparities than were recorded for wages; at the end of 2007, the inter-decile coefficient for

Inequality in pensions is smaller than inequality in wages.

Table 20: **Average nominal net old-age pensions and net wages, Slovenia, 2000–2007, in EUR**

	Net old-age pension	Annual growth rates, %	Net wage	Annual growth rates, %	Ratio of net old-age pension to net wage
2000	379	-	504	-	75.3
2001	412	8.6	563	11.7	73.2
2002	449	9.0	617	9.7	72.8
2003	472	5.0	664	7.5	71.1
2004	492	4.4	702	5.7	70.2
2005	508	3.2	736	6.1	69.1
2006	531	4.4	773	5.1	68.6
2007	560	5.4	835	7.9	67.1

Source: SORS.
Note: As of 2005, the coverage of wage beneficiaries expanded to include also the employed at the employers with 1–2 employees.

pensions was 2.6 (for wages – 3.4). The Gini coefficient was a mere 0.21. Besides, the distribution is more even for pensions: i.e. it is not so dense at the lower part (low pensions) of the distribution scale, as the average pension is higher by a mere 10% than the median value. This results from the fact that the highest pension-rating base is set at four times the value of the lowest.

3.3 Household expenditures

The structure of household expenditures has been slowly changing. Up to 2004, food held the largest share in the structure of consumption expenditure;[14] since 2004, however, households have on average used the largest proportion of their expenditures for transport. This is partly related to increased purchases of cars (from the end of 2002 to the second half of 2004 and since the second half of 2006[15]) and a rise in oil prices. In the quintile distribution of households in terms of expenditure level, the share of expenditure for transport is the highest only in the top two quintiles (i.e. those with highest consumption), where it represents more than 20% of total expenditure, whereas in the first three quintiles of households, it averages below 14%. In the first two quintiles, most expenditure goes on food (in the first quintile, as much as 23% of consumption expenditure), followed by expenditures on dwelling (because of non-elasticity of these expenditures and higher prices of energy), whilst expenditure on transport is only third.

There have been considerable changes in the structure of household consumption in terms of expenditure level: in 2006, the first quintile of households (those with the lowest consumption) spent as much as 42.8% of total consumption expenditure for food and housing, whereas the fifth quintile (those with the highest consumption) spent only 22.4%. In the period 2000–2006, the proportion of this expenditure has been shrinking for all households; in 2000, the fifth quintile spent 24.6% on food and dwelling and the first quintile as much as 44.3% of total consumption expenditure.

However, there has been a trend of increasing differences in total consumption between the lowest and the top quintiles. In 2000, households in the top quintile allocated on average SIT 4.5 million for consumption expenditure, which was 3.6 times more than households in the lowest quintile, whereas five years later they spent 4 times more (SIT 6.2 million). Although the households in the top quintile spent twice as much on food (SIT 835 thousand) than those in the lowest quintile, this expenditure represented a considerably smaller share in their total expenditure (only 13.4% compared to 22.9% in the first quintile). The difference between the expenditures of first and the fifth quintiles is the smallest in terms of dwelling expenditures (the fifth quintile used 1.8 times more i.e. SIT 560 thousand in 2006), as a large part of these costs is fixed and compulsory for households. The discrepancy was, however, largest in expenditure on education, as the fifth quintile households used over 20 times more (in 2000, 10 times more) money than those in

Table 21: **Structure of consumption expenditure by five consumption quintiles, Slovenia, 2000 and 2006, in %**

Type of expenditures	Share of selected types of expenditures (%)											
	2000	2006	2000	2006	2000	2006	2000	2006	2000	2006	2000	2006
Quintile	I		II		III		IV		V		Total	
Food and non-alcoholic beverages	28.0	22.9	24.7	19.8	21.6	17.9	19.3	15.9	16.3	13.4	20.2	16.6
Alcoholic beverages and tobacco	2.7	3.6	2.7	3.5	2.1	3.0	2.2	2.5	1.7	1.6	2.1	2.5
Clothing and footwear	6.4	4.7	7.1	6.5	8.9	8.0	9.4	8.1	10.7	9.3	9.0	8.0
Housing, water, electricity, gas and other fuels	16.3	19.9	13.6	16.8	12.4	13.7	10.9	11.1	8.4	9.0	11.2	12.4
Furnishings, household equipment	8.3	6.6	7.3	7.8	7.7	7.9	7.6	7.4	7.7	7.7	7.6	7.6
Health	2.5	2.0	2.1	2.0	1.8	1.9	1.7	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.8	1.8
Transport	8.9	9.9	13.6	13.8	16.0	15.9	18.0	21.0	23.0	22.9	17.8	18.7
Communication	3.5	6.2	3.3	5.6	3.2	5.6	3.2	5.1	3.0	4.7	3.2	5.2
Recreation and culture	8.3	9.1	8.4	9.4	9.0	9.2	9.9	10.7	10.4	12.3	9.5	10.7
Education	0.4	0.3	0.7	0.6	0.8	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.6	0.9	1.1
Restaurants and hotels	3.3	3.1	5.7	3.4	5.3	3.7	5.7	4.2	5.6	4.8	5.8	4.1
Miscellaneous goods and services	11.5	11.7	10.8	10.9	11.3	12.0	11.0	11.4	10.5	11.1	10.8	11.4
Total consumption expenditure	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: SORS – Household Budget Survey; calculations by IMAD.
Note: Excluding the money value of own production; quintile I represents 20% of households with the lowest consumption, quintile V represents a fifth of households with the highest consumption.

[14] They on average account for 85% of total expenditure according to Household Budget Survey.
[15] The data from the Household Budget Survey for the reference year (e.g. 2006) are calculated using the data from the three consecutive years (e.g. 2005–2007).

the first quintile (a mere SIT 4,200, in nominal terms less than six years ago). Discrepancies are also considerable in expenditure on transport for which the first quintile households spent SIT 154 thousand, and the fifth quintile as much as SIT 1.4 million, and expenditure on clothing, where the amount of money spent by the first quintile households (SIT 73 thousand) was 7.9 times smaller than that of the fifth quintile.

Households earmarked increasing amounts for investment on housing and for social security. In the structure of expenditure, the proportion of funds spent on items other than consumer goods has been increasing, reaching as much as 14.9%, which is up by 4.8 p.p. from six years ago, with expenditure rising by more than a half since 2000. Recently, households have spent more on building houses and renovating flats, which has been reflected in higher housing loans. Consequently, in view of the limited resources of households, the percentage of more "flexible" expenditures is expected to shrink. Since 2003, the share of expenditure related to providing a higher quality of life has contracted, such as expenditure on recreation and culture, hotels, bars and restaurants, as this can be more easily given up.

Households also raised their expenditure on social and old-age security, as they have increasingly become a responsibility of each individual; this is also reflected in the higher proportion of "other expenditures", rising from 2.8% to 4.1% in the six-year period.

In the period 2000–2006, it was thus typical for the structure of expenditure per member of a household that the proportion of expenditures used for food decreased, but not to such an extent as the working time required to buy food; the reason is that the households with higher incomes tend to buy higher quality and therefore costlier food. Changes in the structure of other groups of expenditure were not so linear, but it is obvious that the share of expenditure on housing and transport remained more or less unchanged, as there was not so much opportunity for adjustment.

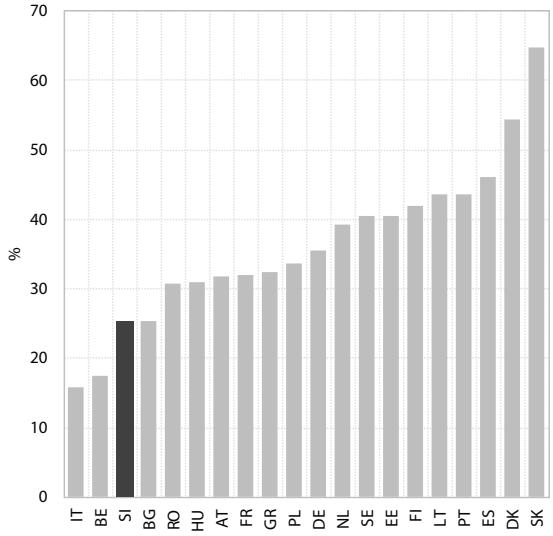
> By a long-term increase in the standard of living, the personal consumption structure changes as well: the share of expenditure on food declines and the share of expenditure on services, recreation and culture, education and visits to hotels and restaurants rises. Levels of other expenditures remain largely unchanged.

3.4 Borrowing

Household borrowing in Slovenia has been on the rise since 2004. This has been the result not only of the positive macroeconomic situation in the country, but also of declining interest rates, the release of assets from the National Housing Saving Scheme and the easing of loan conditions, as well as the development of the financial market.

Despite relatively high borrowing in the past few years, Slovenian households are ranked among the least indebted households in the EU, as reflected in a relatively low share of liabilities in households' financial assets. Although loans have recently been taken largely for housing, non-housing loans still prevail in the loan structure (in the euro-area countries, the proportion of housing loans in total loans is above 70%, while in Slovenia it is 40%).

Figure 14: **Share of liabilities in the households' financial assets and NPISH, selected countries, 2006, in %**



Source: Eurostat, financial accounts.
Note: NPISH – non-profit institutions serving households.

The Household Budget Survey also reveals that household borrowing has recently been largely related to solving the housing problem.[16]

The ratio of allocated to available assets per household increased in 2004; in the years from 2004 to 2006, households spent around 5% more assets than they earned[17] (calculated using nominal data). This ratio was the highest in 2000 (households spent 10.1% more assets than they earned), but this could have been the influence of high borrowing in 1999, before the introduction of VAT.[18] By 2003, it had fallen to 3.7%.

Since 2004, there has been a strong increase in the share of other expenditure (other than consumption expenditure), which reached 14.9% in 2006 (4.8 p.p. higher than in 2000 and 3.9 p.p. higher than in 2003); in real terms, these expenditures soared by a half.

[16] The analysis includes data per household, excluding the money value of own production.
[17] It should be noted that the category "other expenditure" includes also savings, and is as such not an actual expenditure of a household.
[18] The data from the Household Budget Survey for the reference year (e.g. 2006) are calculated using the data from the three consecutive years (e.g. 2005–2007).

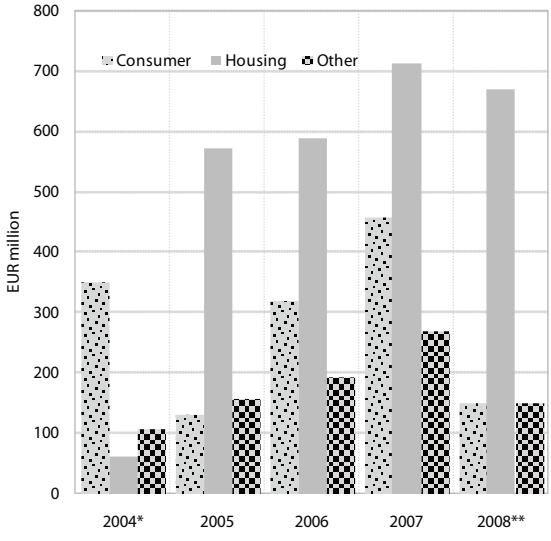
Table 22: **Allocated assets per household, Slovenia, 2000–2006**

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Allocated assets	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
Consumption expenditures	**89.9**	**90.0**	**89.5**	**89.0**	**87.7**	**86.9**	**85.1**
Food and non-alcoholic beverages	18.2	17.8	17.4	16.3	15.2	14.5	14.1
Alcoholic beverages	1.9	1.8	1.9	2.0	2.1	2.1	2.2
Clothing	8.1	8.0	7.9	7.7	7.3	7.0	6.8
Housing, water, electricity, gas and other fuels	10.0	10.5	10.4	10.4	10.3	10.5	10.6
Furnishings, household equipment	6.8	6.7	6.3	6.1	6.1	6.3	6.4
Health	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.6	1.6	1.5	1.5
Transport	16.1	15.2	14.2	15.2	16.2	16.6	15.9
Communication	2.9	3.4	3.9	4.1	4.1	4.3	4.4
Recreation and culture	8.5	8.9	9.5	9.8	9.7	9.5	9.1
Education	0.8	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.9	0.9	0.9
Restaurants and hotels	5.2	5.2	5.4	5.2	4.5	4.1	3.5
Miscellaneous goods and services	9.7	9.8	9.9	9.8	9.7	9.6	9.7
Other non-consumption expenditures	**10.1**	**10.0**	**10.5**	**11.0**	**12.3**	**13.1**	**14.9**
Expenditures on dwelling, house	7.2	7.0	7.3	7.6	8.7	9.5	10.7
Other expenditures	2.9	3.0	3.2	3.4	3.6	3.6	4.2
Ratio of allocated to available assets	1.101	1.063	1.048	1.037	1.057	1.047	1.052

Source: SORS – Household Budget Survey; calculations by IMAD.

The National Accounts data (which are slightly more up-to-date, since they are available for 2007) reveal increased expenditures for consumer durables since 2003 (excluding dwellings, houses, as they belong to investment category, not consumption). Expenditures for this type of goods increased most markedly in 2007 (in real terms by as much as 16%), which can be attributed to the economic upturn and the growth in the total wage bill. Thus in 2007, households spent one fifth more on vehicles, and around one tenth more on household appliances and furnishing than in the year before. The latter increase was, of course, also related to a rise in the number of bought dwellings since 2005; housing loans of almost EUR 2 billion were raised in the period from 2005 to 2007.

Figure 15: **Households loans and NPISH, Slovenia, 2004–2008**



Source: BS; calculations by IMAD.
Note: *Data for 2004 do not include January and are not entirely comparable to data for other years. ** Data for 2008 are only available by November. The value of loans taken is expressed in the net flow of loans i.e. the difference between the two states. NPISG – non-profit institutions serving households.

In 2008, there was a slowdown in household borrowing and consequently also in expenditure on consumer durables; this was particularly true in the second half of the year as a result of a normal cyclical slowdown in durable purchases as well as a crisis. In November, households took on 70% less consumer loans than in the same period in the year before and approximately the same level of housing loans (note: this is not seen from the figure, as it shows the flows by December and not by November 2007).

When households find themselves in a situation where they can no longer repay their debts, they become over-indebted. The problem of over-indebtedness in Slovenia has not yet been analysed systematically.[19] Indicators for measuring (over)indebtedness still need to be developed. An indicator of debt repayment (called household debt service ratio) that would reveal the repayment of loans in relation to disposable income over a certain period of

[19] Good practice from abroad – see Ferk, Barbara: Indebtedness and Overindebtedness of Households, Working paper IMAD 1/2007

time and would show an actual burden of loan repayment (annuities) on household income is not available. In 2008, banks and saving banks established a SISBON system, which will allow the exchange and processing of data on natural persons – clients. The Financial Operations, Insolvency Proceedings and Compulsory Dissolution (personal bankruptcy) Act entered into force in October 2008. There is also a need to establish comprehensive statistics allowing monitoring of over-indebtedness i.e. the measures for analysing over-indebtedness as well as for its prevention. Particular attention should be given to socially weak groups of population, which are not "creditworthy" and are thus forced to take more expensive and risky loans. Consumers should be properly informed about all available financial products. Borrowing is not a negative phenomenon if consumers are properly informed about financial products and do not overestimate their capacity to repay loans.

4 Socio-economic stratification of the population in 1998, 2002 and 2006

Methodology

The economic situation of the population of Slovenia was analysed based on data from the Household Budget Surveys (HBSs) conducted by the Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia. The samples included 3,867 households with 11,693 members in 1998, 3,687 households with 10,556 members in 2002, and 3,709 households with 9,826 members in 2006. In fact, three consecutive annual surveys were merged in order to produce individual datasets: 1997–1999 at May 1998 prices, 2001–2003 at May 2002 prices, and 2005–2007 at May 2006 prices. Data for each period have been named after the medium year of that period (i.e. 1998, 2002, and 2006, respectively).

Definition of income and income brackets

Income is defined as current monetary disposable income. It includes income from employment,[1] income from occasional work (on the basis of a contract[2] and direct payments, or through the student work brokerage service), income from self-employment,[3] pensions,[4] social[5] and family[6] benefits, income from property,[7] and financial support and gifts.[8] Total current income is reduced by the transfers made (i.e. dependent child, former spouse and elderly parent maintenance payments, monetary gifts and voluntary contributions). Household income thus defined does not include one-off large amounts of income,[9] the value of the household's own production consumed in the household, imputed rent (in the case of owner-occupied housing units), savings withdrawals, or received loans. Household income is a net income i.e. the income after all social security contributions and personal income taxes have been paid.

In order to allow comparisons across people living in households of a different size and composition, the household income is divided by the number of its equivalent adult members. The resulting equivalised household income is also the equivalised income of the people in a particular household. The number of equivalent persons (adults) was calculated using the modified OECD equivalence scale, which is also used by Eurostat and SORS. The first adult in a household is assigned a weight of 1, each further adult a weight of 0.5, and each child below 14 years of age 0.3. The sum of weights assigned to the members of a certain

household produces the number of equivalent adults, or equivalised household size.

Households were classifies by their equivalised income into 4 income brackets:

1. **Low** – with equivalised income below 60% of the median equivalised income of persons in Slovenia, i.e. below the at-risk-of-poverty threshold as defined by Eurostat.
2. **Lower-middle** – iwith equivalised income higher than the at-risk-of-poverty threshold but below 1.2 of the median equivalised income.
3. **Upper-middle** – with equivalised income between 1.2 and 2 times the median.
4. **High** – with equivalised income higher than 2 times the median equivalised income.

[1] Income from employment includes salaries and wages (both home- and foreign-earned ones), holiday allowance, meal allowance, transport allowance, and other cash benefits received from the employer.
[2] Either copyright or work contract.
[3] i.e. income from farming, income from an independent commercial activity, an entrepreneur's salary, and holiday, meal and transport allowances.
[4] Including recreation allowance and pensions earned abroad.
[5] Social benefits include unemployment benefit, other social security benefits, financial social assistance, rent subsidy, disability and war-related disability allowances, and educational grants.
[6] Family benefits include child allowance, parental leave benefit, parental allowance, birth grants in money or equipment, and child care allowance.
[7] i.e. net income from renting out an apartment, house, garage or other real property, dividends, interest, and royalties from patents, licences and other intellectual property rights.
[8] i.e. alimony and/or child support received from the former spouse, regular financial support, dependent elderly person support, and monetary gifts.
[9] e.g. income from the sale of real or personal property or of securities or other capital shares, compensation for nationalised or dispossessed property, gambling winnings, inheritance, life insurance money, or property damage compensation.

The observed period saw shifts in the distribution of persons across the income brackets thus defined. On the one hand, it recorded a drop in the share of persons in the low bracket from 1998 to 2002, and a drop in the share of persons in the lower-middle bracket in 1998–2006, with the total drop slightly exceeding 3 p.p. On the other hand, the upper-middle bracket increased (by 3.5 p.p.). This is also evident from indicators of social cohesion: in 1998–2002, the relative at-risk-of-poverty rate and the Gini coefficient (i.e. the indicator of inequality of income distribution) decreased, while from 2002 onward, both indicators have remained unchanged.

Table 23: **Distribution of persons across income brackets, Slovenia, 1998, 2002 and 2006, %**

Income bracket	Share of total population, %		
	1998	2002	2006
Low	14.0	11.9	11.8
Lower-middle	54.1	55.0	53.1
Upper-middle	26.9	28.2	30.4
High	5.1	4.9	4.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: SORS, HBS data files 1998, 2002 and 2006; calculations by Stropnik.

4.1 Household size

In 1998–2006, the share of persons living in either a single or two-person household was increasing (by 3.5 and 5.6 p.p., respectively, in the total period), while the

Table 24: **Distribution of persons across households of different size, by income brackets, Slovenia, 1998, 2002 and 2006, %**

Number of household members	% of persons in income bracket				Total (all persons)
	Low	Lower-middle	Upper-middle	High	
1998					
1	12.9	5.1	2.3	2.1	5.3
2	20.0	14.3	14.5	22.4	15.5
3	18.2	17.9	30.7	32.8	22.1
4	19.8	35.4	37.0	31.2	33.5
5	12.9	14.6	11.2	10.2	13.2
6 or more	16.4	12.7	4.3	1.2	10.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
2002					
1	21.5	6.3	3.4	4.4	7.2
2	19.7	15.6	16.5	22.3	16.6
3	14.6	19.1	28.3	36.8	22.0
4	21.3	33.0	38.1	30.7	32.9
5	10.8	15.8	10.0	4.3	13.0
6 or more	12.2	10.2	3.8	1.6	8.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
2006					
1	31.3	6.7	4.1	6.6	8.8
2	21.2	21.8	20.0	20.5	21.1
3	14.3	21.9	26.9	42.6	23.5
4	19.1	31.0	37.6	24.4	31.3
5	6.7	10.7	8.3	4.6	9.2
6 or more	7.4	8.0	3.2	1.2	6.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: SORS, HBS 1998, 2002 and 2006 data files; calculations by Stropnik.

share of those living in a household of four and, particularly, of five or more persons was decreasing (the latter decreased by about 4 p.p.). In each four-year period, the share of persons in single households rose by about 9–10 p.p. in the low-income bracket – a fact that points to a considerable deterioration of such households' economic situation, resulting from the worsening of the income situation of persons aged over 65. The share of persons living in a single household who are classified by their income as belonging to the low-income bracket has also been on the rise. In 2002, this share (35.7%) was 3 times higher than the average share of such persons in Slovenia (11.9%), while in 2006 it was as much as 3.6 times higher (42.2%, compared to the average of 11.8%). Two further groups over-represented in the low-income bracket were those of people from a household of two and, particularly, of six or more persons. With regard to single-person households, their increased share in the low-income bracket is mainly attributable to their decreased share in the lower-middle bracket. It should be noted that in each four-year period, more single households were classified not only in the low-income bracket but also to the upper-middle and high brackets.

The economic situation of single-person households worsened the most.

In the high-income bracket, the shares of persons from a household of two (except in 2006) and of three persons are above average. In 1998–2006, the share of those living in a three-person household increased (by about 10 p.p.), in particular, in this income bracket.

Table 25: **Distribution of persons across income bracketes, by household size, Slovenia, 1998, 2002 and 2006, %**

Number of household members	% of persons in income bracket				Total (all persons)
	Low	Lower-middle	Upper-middle	High	
1998					
1	33.9	52.3	11.7	2.0	100.0
2	17.9	49.6	25.1	7.3	100.0
3	11.4	43.7	37.3	7.5	100.0
4	8.2	57.2	29.8	4.7	100.0
5	13.6	59.7	22.8	3.9	100.0
6 or more	22.1	66.2	11.1	0.6	100.0
Total	14.0	54.1	26.9	5.1	100.0
2002					
1	35.7	48.1	13.2	3.0	100.0
2	14.1	51.5	27.9	6.5	100.0
3	7.9	47.7	36.3	8.1	100.0
4	7.7	55.2	32.6	4.5	100.0
5	9.9	67.0	21.6	1.6	100.0
6 or more	17.7	68.4	13.0	0.9	100.0
Total	11.9	55.0	28.2	4.9	100.0
2006					
1	42.2	40.2	14.0	3.6	100.0
2	11.9	54.8	28.7	4.6	100.0
3	7.2	49.5	34.8	8.6	100.0
4	7.2	52.6	36.5	3.7	100.0
5	8.6	61.7	27.3	2.4	100.0
6 or more	14.1	68.9	16.0	0.9	100.0
Total	11.8	53.1	30.4	4.7	100.0

Source: SORS, HBS 1998, 2002 and 2006 data files; calculations by Stropnik.

4.2 Household types

The worsening of the income situation of single households of persons aged 65 or more is the main reason for the increasing share of single-person households in the low-income bracket. The share of this group in the low-income bracket was more than 4 times higher than its average share in the total population in 2006 (in 1998 it was 2.7 times higher). In 2006, nearly half such single households were in the low-income bracket, and a further 41% in the lower-middle bracket.

The income situation of single households of persons aged over 65 and the young below 30 worsened the most.

Between 1998 and 2002, an increase in the share of single households of the young (i.e. persons below 30 years of age)[20] at the bottom of the income distribution was registered. This may be explained by the Social Assistance Act, according to which eligibility for financial social assistance is determined based on the total household income. If a grown-up child without his/her own income or with a low income had registered an independent household, he or she was likely to be eligible for financial social assistance, while this would not have been the case had the person been registered as a member of the parents' household. The Act thus encouraged young people without income to register their own single household. Primarily because conditions for eligibility to receive financial social assistance were made stricter in 2001, the incentive for young people to register an independent household sharply decreased, and the share of single-person households aged up to 30 in the low-income bracket accordingly dwindled until 2006.

The income situation of couples with one child improved the most.

On the other hand, the share of people aged 30–64 who live alone came to exceed the average share of the total population in the high-income bracket in 1998–2002. One further share in the high-income bracket that had risen considerably by 2006 was couples with one child below 18, while there had been an important drop in

[20] One third of those persons were employed, one third were unemployed, and one third were students.

the share of couples with two children below 18, and of other households made up of relatives. Couples with one child below 18 and couples with at least one child over 18 accounted for a more than proportional share in the upper-middle and high-income brackets.

In addition to single households, single-parent households of one adult and children below 18 also represented a high share in the low-income bracket in 2006. Persons from all household types except single households of persons aged over 65, were most frequently in the lower-middle bracket.

4.3 Formal (employment) status of head of household

To a significant extent, the income situation of a household is a result of the formal (employment) status of the head of the household. In 1998, only 38.1% of people in the low-income bracket lived in a household with an employed household head, while in other income brackets this figure was between 71.7% and 80.0%. In the period up to 2006, the share of people from such households was decreasing in the low-income bracket while increasing in the high-income bracket, which clearly reflects the positive effect of the head's employment on a household's income situation. Converse trends have been recorded as concerns people from households with a retired head: there are increasing numbers of them in the low-income bracket, and increasingly fewer in the high-income bracket. It is only in the low-income bracket that there is also a significant share (13–14%) of people from a household with an unemployed head. Two thirds of such people were in the low-income bracket.

The income situation of households with an employed head was improving, while it was worsening in cases of a retired or unemployed head.

In 1998, more than one third of people in the low-income bracket lived in a household with a retired head; this share already amounted to 40.5% in 2002, and 43.3% in 2006.[21] The share of people from such households decreased with each further income bracket.

4. 4 Income distribution, and real change in income

The differences between the share of the total population and the share of the total current monetary disposable income of people across income brackets, are indicators of income inequality. In 1998, people in the low-income bracket accounted for 14.0% of the total population, whilst having at their disposal only 6.1% of the total income. On the other hand, the 5.1% of persons classified as belonging to the high-income bracket had 12.2% of the income at their disposal. By 2002, the situation in the low-income bracket had improved, and in 2006 the difference between the shares of the population and of the income amounted to 6.1 p.p. This difference has also narrowed in the high-income bracket, meaning that income inequality has been declining. Unlike those positive trends, however, the differences between the shares of the population and of income in the lower-middle and upper-middle brackets of around 10 p.p. have remained unchanged.

Table 26: **Distribution of persons and of income across income brackets, Slovenia, 1998, 2002, 2006, %**

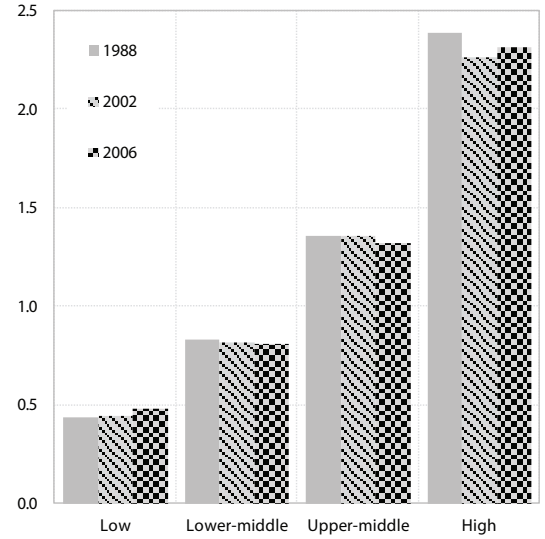
Income bracket	1998		2002		2006	
	Persons	Income	Persons	Income	Persons	Income
Low	14.0	6.1	11.9	5.3	11.8	5.7
Lower-middle	54.1	45.1	55.0	45.2	53.1	43.2
Upper-middle	26.9	36.5	28.2	38.3	30.4	40.2
High	5.1	12.2	4.9	11.1	4.7	10.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: SORS, HBS data files 1998, 2002 and 2006; calculations by Stropnik.

According to the HBS data, the current monetary disposable income per person in Slovenia increased by

In 2002–2006, income per person in the high- and low-income brackets increased more than the average income.

Figure 16: **Ratio of the share of income to the share of persons, by income brackets, Slovenia, 1998, 2002, 2006**



Source: SORS, HBS data files 1998, 2002 and 2006; calculations by Stropnik and IMAD.

[21] In the same period, the average share of persons from a household with a retired head increased by less than one percentage point.

14.7% in real terms (49.6% in nominal terms) in the period 1998–2002, and by 19.6% (33.1% in nominal terms) in 2002–2006. The income per person that increased the most was that in the low-income bracket, by 17.5% and 29.4%, respectively. In the high-income bracket, income per person rose by only 6.4% in 1998–2002,[22] while it rose more than the average income in 2002–2006 (by 21.4%).

Table 27: **Increase in the nominal and real income, Slovenia, 1998–2002 and 2002–2006, index**

Income bracket	1998–2002		2002–2006	
	Index of increase in income per person			
	nominal	real	nominal	real
Low	152.4	117.5	142.9	129.4
Lower-middle	147.3	112.4	131.7	118.2
Upper-middle	150.0	115.1	129.6	116.1
High	141.3	106.4	134.9	121.4
Total	149.6	114.7	133.1	119.6

Source: SORS, HBS data files 1998, 2002 and 2006; calculations by Stropnik.

4.5 Structure of income sources

Results of the survey indicate that only minor changes took place in the structure of income sources in 1998–2006. Of all sources, 59–60% of current monetary income was derived from employment, around 6% from self-employment, 25–26% from pensions, 2–3% from social benefits, about 3% from family benefits, etc.

In the low-income bracket, income from employment only accounts for one fifth of total income.

Income from employment accounts for a substantially smaller share of the disposable income in the low-income bracket (19.9% in 2006) than on average (60.1%). Moreover, the share of income from employment in the income of the low-income bracket dropped in 1998–2006. For pensions, the opposite is the case.

4.6 Importance of social and family benefits

Of all social and family benefits, the largest share of persons in Slovenia is receiving child allowance: about 12%. Child allowance is followed by educational grants and unemployment benefits received by 2–3% of persons.

In the period 1998–2002, the share of child allowances both in the aggregate of social and family benefits and in the aggregate of current monetary disposable income increased, which was a consequence of the significant rise in child allowances of May 1999. In 2002–2006, the relative importance of child allowances declined somewhat.

In 2002–2006 the importance of financial social assistance increased fairly significantly.

Another fairly noticeable change in the observed period (especially in 2002–2006) occurred in financial social assistance: due to the rise in minimum income, the range of eligible persons increased, and hence also the level of state budget expenditure and the importance of this income within family income.

Table 28: **Relative importance of social and family benefits in the aggregate of social and family benefits, Slovenia, 1998, 2002 and 2006, %**

	1998	2002	2006
Financial social assistance	3.5	4.7	10.0
Other social benefits	4.7	8.3	7.1
Disability and war-related disability allowances	2.7	2.6	2.6
Unemployment benefit	20.3	16.4	14.2
Educational grants	13.0	14.8	13.6
Child allowance	22.7	35.9	33.7
Parental leave benefit	12.4	16.2	17.3
Parental allowance	0.2	0.4	0.6
Birth grant or package	0.2	0.6	0.8
Child care allowance	20.4	0.1	0.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: SORS, HBS data files 1998, 2002 and 2006; calculations by Stropnik.

[22] This data raises doubts as to whether all income of those in the high-income bracket was considered in the 2002 survey; particularly because in the upper-middle bracket, income per person grew more than the average income.

5 Access to goods and services

The development and modernisation of social and health care services lie at the heart of contemporary European policies. These are sectors that are developing rapidly and creating new jobs, their importance on the ascent owing to changing demographics. European policies place emphasis on improving the quality and accessibility of these services while preserving the sustainability of public finances. While pursuing these general objectives, individual countries opt for different policies. But there are some shared characteristics such as decentralisation (organising services at local or regional levels), transfer of service provision from the public to the private sector, development of public-private partnerships and the use of forms of funding other than public financing. Some of these trends are being implemented in Slovenia and are having a significant impact on the accessibility of services.

The modernisation of social and health services lies at the heart of contemporary European policies.

Like previous editions of the Social Overview, this edition therefore brings a short presentation of the current accessibility and development of certain goods and services in Slovenia that are vital for the population. The focus is on the accessibility of general social and health services, which a European Commission communication of 2006[23] highlights as being among the pillars of European society and the economy and having a special place in the Community "primarily as a result of their contribution to several essential values and objectives of the Community, such as achieving a high level of employment and social protection, a high level of human health protection, equality between men and women, and economic, social and territorial cohesion. Their value is also a function of the vital nature of the needs they are intended to cover, thus guaranteeing the application of fundamental rights such as the dignity and integrity of the person." This is complemented with the accessibility of education, housing, the Internet, culture and media, which are also essential components of people's standard of living and social inclusion.

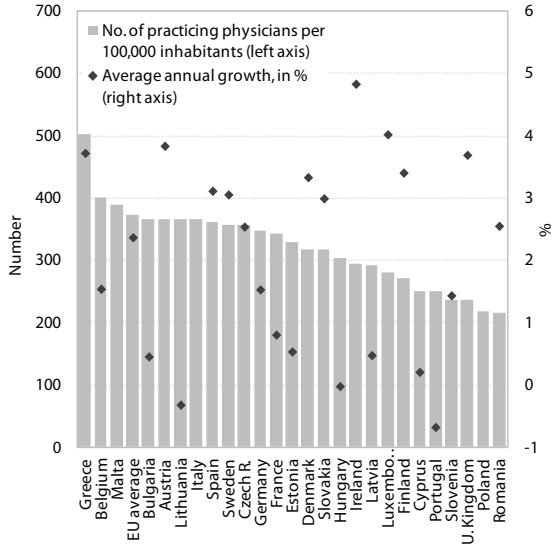
5.1 Access to health care

5.1.1 Health care resources

Slovenia lags behind the European average in indicators of health personnel. Due to the fast-growing demand for health services, which is the result of rising income, advances in medicine and medical technology, awareness of the importance of health and the ageing of the population, most European countries face a lack of physicians and nurses. In Slovenia the ratio of practising physicians to 100,000 inhabitants is worse than in the majority of EU countries: in 2007, Slovenia had 247[24] practising physicians per 100,000 inhabitants, compared to the EU average of 326. The number of practising physicians in Slovenia increased by an average of only 1.4% a year in the period 1996–2006, whereas the average increase in the EU was 2.4%. In recent years (2001–2006) growth in the number of practising physicians picked up, to an average of 1.7% a year. Analysis by the Institute of Public Health (IVZ) shows a particularly pressing lack of physicians at primary level in some parts of the country, and a general shortage of paediatricians.[25] According to staffing projections,[26] the number of doctors should increase by 11.4% in the period 2008–2013. The number of dentists reached 62.8 per 100,000 inhabitants in 2007,

Slovenia is at the bottom of EU rankings on number of doctors per 100,000 inhabitants, on a par with the EU average on number of dentists and above the EU average on number of nurses.

Figure 17: **Number of practising physicians per 100,000 inhabitants in 2006 and average annual rate of growth in the number of practising physicians in the period 1996–2006, EU-27**



Source: Eurostat, 2008 and WHO Database, 2007; calculations by IMAD.

[23] Communication from the Commission. Implementing the Community Lisbon Programme: Social services of general interest in the European Union, Brussels, 26 April 2006.

[24] According to data by the Institute of Public Health of the RS (IVZ), there were 4,981 practising physicians in Slovenia in 2007 (this includes specialists, interns and trainees).

[25] Estimate of the Institute of Public Health of the RS (IVZ) based on HIIS data on policy holders who have selected their personal physicians (IVZ, 2006).

[26] Resolution on a National Plan of Health Care 2008–2013 (OGRS, No. 72/08). Projections account for the demographics of physicians (graduates, retirement, emigration, immigration, death rate and retrospective trends).

which is around the EU-27 average. At present, over a fifth of all health insurance policy-holders do not have a selected dentist. Projections until 2013 suggest that the situation will get worse as dentists retire but not enough graduates replace them. The number of nurses reached 791 per 100,000 inhabitants in 2007, which is relatively favourable compared to other European countries (EU in 2005: 736). However, the share of nurses with higher education is much lower than in other European countries, although it has been increasing rapidly over the last few years.

The per-capita number of hospital beds continues to drop rapidly in Slovenia even though a comparison with European countries shows that capacity is already relatively low. In 2007, Slovenia had 466 hospital beds per 100,000 inhabitants[27] (2006: 476), whereas the EU average was 590 in 2005. For years, this trend has been underpinned by shorter average length of hospital stays and the expansion of outpatient treatment. However, in the 2000–2006 period, the number of hospital beds per 100,000 inhabitants plunged by 15.6% whereas in the EU it dropped by just under a tenth in the 2000–2005 period.

Waiting lines for acute and non-acute treatment were reduced slightly following the introduction of a new financing model: since 2003, acute hospital treatment has been paid based on diagnosis-related groups and 2004 saw the introduction of a model for payment of non-acute inpatient treatment on the basis of bed days. The new models improved the quality of data which form the basis for the disbursement of funds in the acute inpatient treatment programme, changed the definitions of programmes and their restructuring, and provided ongoing monitoring of financial savings on individual programmes. According to a study (Ceglar and Marušič, 2007), the number of acutely treated patients rose by a tenth in the 2003–2006 period and the scope of the realised programme in non-acute treatment by as much as 256%. The number of patients waiting for acute treatment dropped by nearly a fifth between 2003 and 2006. The average length of hospital stay also continued to drop, falling by 9% in this period. This improved the cost efficiency of providers as it reduced the losses of hospitals.

In 2006 and 2007, the awarding of concessions in the public health care network accelerated, but there are still few private practitioners without a concession.

According to the Health Insurance Institute (HII) data, the share of private providers among general practitioners rose to over a quarter (26.8%) by 2007. In 2007, there were 1,262 private providers with a concession (doctors and dentists) and 192 without a concession. The share of private general practitioners (paediatricians excluded) increased most, from 18.7% in 2005 to 25.1% in 2007. The increasing share of private practitioners is a consequence of the falling number of practitioners in public institutions as well as the rising number of private practitioners. Last year, the number of private specialists in particular increased more than in the previous years: the share of private practitioners among all specialists rose from 9.8% in 2006 to 11.3% in 2007.[28] The number of private providers without a licence (192) has increased by 20 since 2002 (most work in dental medicine), which indicates that Slovenia does not offer appropriate opportunities for the expansion of purely private health care provision. Data by the HII also indicate that private practice has been expanding in the public health care network over the recent years. The number of contracts with private providers rose by 110 between 2006 and 2007, whereas the average annual increase was 46 in the 2000–2004 period. Private providers accounted for 13.1% of expenditure on health programmes in 2007. This share has jumped by 4.5 p.p. in the last five years. The expansion of private health care provision was expected to have a positive impact on the accessibility of health services, competition and the efficiency of providers. But if concessions continue to be granted without the existence of a defined network of public health care providers – which would help determine where in the country concessionaires are indeed needed – and given the lack of an appropriate system that would make the granting of concessions transparent, access to health care services at the primary and secondary levels could be jeopardised.

If the awarding of concessions continues in the absence of a defined network of public health care providers, access to health services at primary and secondary level may worsen.

5.1.2 Expenditure on health

Slovenia's expenditure on health as a share of GDP is slightly above the EU-27 average. Total expenditure on health amounted to 8.3% of GDP[29] in 2006, compared to 8.2% for the EU-27. In 2006, a total of 13 EU-27 countries had higher health expenditure than Slovenia.

Between 2001 and 2006, the average annual increase in total health expenditure in Slovenia was 3.2%, which is substantially below average annual GDP growth (4.3%). In this

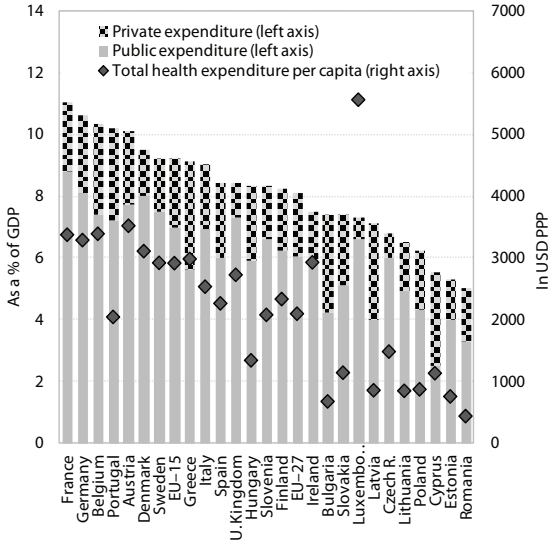
The growth in total health expenditure as a share of GDP is slower than in most EU countries.

[27] Data refer to the number of all hospital beds (not only acute) and include the Diagnostic Centre Bled and MC Medicor (IVZ).

[28] Data by the Medical Chamber of Slovenia show the number of doctors as it is (including interns), not the number based on working hours, so they differ from the HII data. However, the trends are similar.

[29] Health Expenditure and Sources of Funding (SORS), 23 October 2008. Health expenditure data are collected according to the internationally comparable system of health accounts (the SHA methodology being introduced by Eurostat, OECD and WHO members).

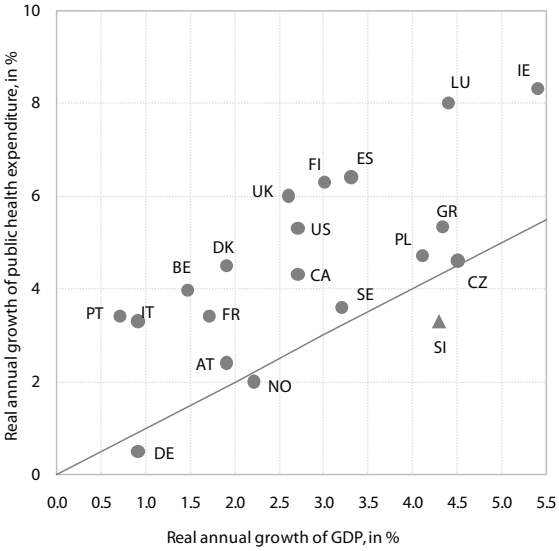
Figure 18: **Total (public and private) health expenditure as a share of GDP, in USD PPP per capita, EU-27, 2006, in %**



Source: OECD Health Data 2008 for all countries except Bulgaria, Cyprus, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta and Romania; data for these countries are from WHO The World Health Report, 2008; data for Slovenia from SORS, Health Care Expenditure (First release, 23 October 2008); EU-27 and EU-15 average for private and public expenditure calculated by IMAD.
Note: Data for Bulgaria, Cyprus, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta and Romania are for 2005 and per-capita expenditure in USD PPP for 2004; EU-27 and EU-15 averages in USD PPP are for 2004.

period, public health expenditure rose by an average of 3.3% a year and private expenditure by 4.0% a year in real terms. In most other countries for which data are available (OECD members), the average real annual growth of public health care expenditure outpaced GDP growth in this period. In Slovenia, the moderate growth of public expenditure on health is partially attributed to the streamlining of certain health care programmes and measures to reign in expenditure on drugs, but it is mostly a result of very low salary increases in the sector and slow growth of investment.[30] Yet, these trends are coupled with staffing problems, worn-out medical equipment and delays in the introduction of the latest medical technology and new medicines.

Figure 19: **Average real annual growth in public expenditure on health as a share of GDP, selected countries, 2001–2006, in %**

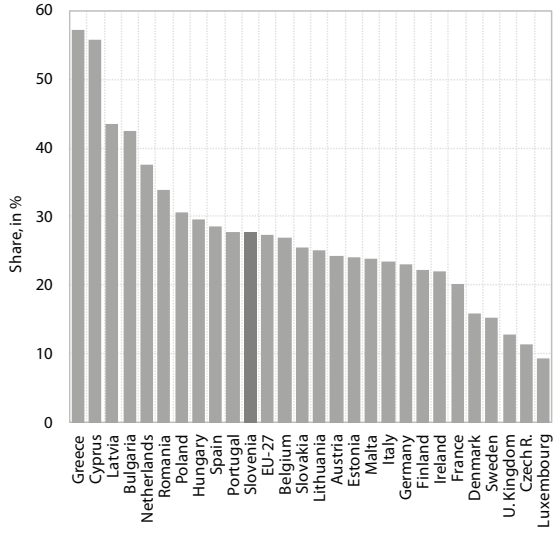


Source: *OECD Health Data* 2008; for Slovenia: SORS, *Health Care Expenditure* (First release, 23 October 2008).
Note: Data for Belgium is for the period 2000–2005.

Private health expenditure accounted for 27.7% of total expenditure in 2007, which is marginally less than in 2005 (28.0%) and approximately on a par with the EU-27 average (27.4%). Nine EU-27 countries had a higher share of private health expenditure than Slovenia in 2006, with the highest shares recorded in Greece, Cyprus, Latvia and Bulgaria. Voluntary health insurance accounts for 47.0% of private health expenditure[31] in Slovenia. Direct household out-of-pocket expenditure is

> With public expenditure on health care increasing only incrementally, the share of private expenditure is rising.

Figure 20: **Private expenditure as share of total health expenditure, EU-27, 2006, in %**



Source: *OECD Health Data* 2008 for all countries except Bulgaria, Cyprus, Estonia, Latvia, Malta and Romania; data for these countries from *WHO,* 2008; data for Slovenia from SORS, *Health Care Expenditure* (First release, 23 October 2008); EU-27 and EU-15 averages calculated by IMAD.
Note: Data for the EU-27, Bulgaria, Cyprus, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Romania and Luxembourg are for 2005.

[30] The compensation of employees was increasing by an average of only 0.9% a year in real terms in the period 2001–2006 and gross fixed capital formation by 3.1% (General Government Expenditure by Function (SORS), 28 December 2007).

[31] According to the System of Health Accounts methodology, private expenditure also includes corporate expenditure, which accounted for 10.5% of total private expenditure in Slovenia in 2006 (0.2% of GDP), and expenditure of non-profit organisations, which at 0.04% of total private expenditure is probably still underestimated.

low compared to EU countries as it accounted for 42.5% of private expenditure (nearly 80% in the EU-27), but it has been rising faster than spending on voluntary health insurance.

5.2 Access to social welfare services

5.2.1 Social welfare network

The capacity (number of places) of social welfare institutions in the public network and the number of users of their services has increased substantially since 2000. Between 2000 and 2007, the number of people in care rose by 16.4% in old people's homes, by 49.8% in special social welfare institutions[32] and by 32.6% in centres for protection and training. The rise was particularly fast in the 2000–2005 period, but it has slowed down in the last two years. Moreover, there have been no changes to the system in the recent years that would have an influence on accessibility (e.g. admission criteria, services becoming free or requiring payment, exemption of payment for payable services). Neither were there any major changes in the territorial distribution of the network of public institutions: there were no changes for social work centres, whereas other institutions have seen minor changes in the past two years that indicate a continuation of recent trends. Protection and training centres, and centres for training and work of children and adults with special needs, have developed towards smaller residential communities; in special social welfare institutions for the institutional care of adults with special needs, the policy of deinstitutionalising also continues. Several new old people's homes have opened, most of them as units of existing institutions, but the scope of services in home care, day care centres, sheltered housing and other long-term elderly care services remained the same.

In 2006 and 2007, access to social welfare services remained on a par with 2005.

Although the capacities of old people's homes have been increasing, waiting lists for admission have been getting longer: in 2007 as many as 14,565 applicants were turned down (there were 13,856 people in care in old people's homes that year). In accordance with the Resolution on the national social assistance programme until 2010, at least 5% of those aged 65 or above should be in old people's homes until 2010, but in recent years Slovenia has not come any closer to meeting this objective. The closest was in 2003, when 4.5% of the elderly were in old people's homes, but since then the participation rate has been gradually dropping.

Even though the capacity of old people's homes is increasing, it is still not keeping up with the demand from the elderly.

Table 29: **Number of people aged 65 or above in old people's homes, Slovenia, 2000–2007**

Year	Number of people in care	Size of population 65 or above	Per 100 inhabitants aged 65 or above
2000	11,905	281,406	4.2
2001	12,346	288,548	4.3
2002	13,051	294,654	4.4
2003	13,498	300,155	4.5
2004	13,098	306,484	4.3
2005	13,641	312,874	4.4
2006	13,699	319,631	4.3
2007	13,856	326,847	4.2

Source: SORS; calculations by IMAD.
Note: Until 2003, people in care in old people's homes' units for special forms of adult care were statistically counted as being in old people's homes, but since 2004 SORS has shifted them to special social welfare institutions. This consequently reduced the number of people in care at old people's homes in 2004 and caused a jump in the number of people in care at special social welfare institutions. The figures for elderly care capacities until 2003 are therefore somewhat overrated.

In the period 2000–2007, the increase in the number of people in care at old people's homes typically outpaced the increase in the number of the elderly (the seeming decrease in the number of people in care in 2004 is a consequence of a change in methodology). The capacities of old people's homes rose quickly in the first part of this period, but since then the expansion has lagged behind the rise in the number of the elderly. The structure of people in care is also changing: an increasing number are over 80 (56% in 2006) and an ever-growing share is admitted due to sickness (78% in 2006). The growing need for long-term care is also evident in the swelling ranks of recipients of the assistance and attendance allowance pursuant to regulations on pension and disability insurance: on a year-on-year comparison (December), the number of recipients rose by 1.9% in 2005, 2.3% in 2006 and 4.6% in 2007. There were 29,288 recipients in December 2007, with the average number increasing by 4.1% over 2006 that year. The number of the recipients of this allowance with the highest degree of dependence increased the most (18.8%).[33]

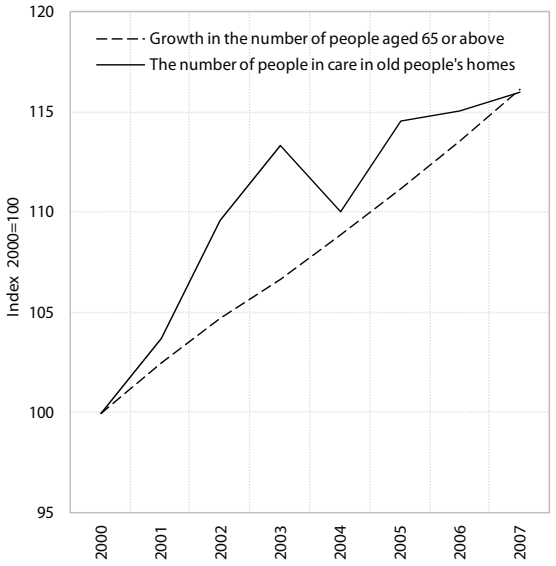
Demand for long-term care is rising: most people are admitted to old people's homes because of illness and the number of recipients of the assistance and attendance allowance.

The rights comprising the system of long-term care are still derived from multiple systems (social security, health, pension and disability insurance), but a new system is being prepared. According to plans, it would introduce

[32] The actual increase in the number of people in care in old people's homes was bigger, about 25%, while the increase in special social welfare institutions is merely a result of a change in statistical methodology (see note to Table 29).

[33] The Slovenian Pension and Disability Insurance Institute, Monthly Statistical Overview, December 2007.

Figure 21: **Growth in number of people 65 or above and number of people in care in old people's homes, Slovenia, 2000–2007**



Source: SORS.
Note: The reduction in 2004 is a result of a change in statistical methodology.

A new system of long-term care, which is under consideration, will have to improve equality of access and financial sustainability.

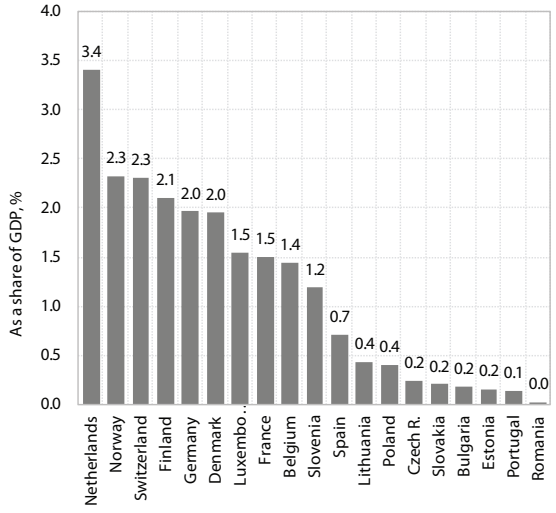
a new branch of social insurance – dedicated insurance for long-term care. In accordance with the proposal in public discussion, it would comprise compulsory and voluntary insurance. Compulsory insurance would be based on solidarity and mutuality, providing coverage of a prescribed scope of long-term care services. Voluntary insurance would be optional for coverage of long-term care expenses not covered by compulsory insurance. The new system would have to improve equality of access to services and other rights; it is therefore reasonable to expect that it would contribute to an increase in the number of beneficiaries (which would anyway rise due to demographic changes). The designers of the system will face a challenge in making it financially sustainable.

5.2.2 Expenditure on long-term care

Total expenditure on long-term care stood at 1.15% of GDP in 2006, down from 1.19% in the year before, of which 0.66% of GDP was expenditure on long-term health care and 0.49% of GDP expenditure on long-term social care. Slovenia's total expenditure on long-term care as a share of GDP is approximately at the level of the 19 European countries (1.2% of GDP in 2006) for which comparable data are available. Old EU Member States typically spend more on long-term care than those which joined more recently.

Long-term care includes health and social care services.

Figure 22: **Total expenditure on long-term care[1] as a share of GDP, selected countries, 2006[2], in %**



Source: Eurostat Portal (January 2009) and OECD Health Data 2008 (for the Netherlands, Finland, France, Spain, Poland and Slovakia); for Slovenia SORS: *Expenditure on Health Care (released on 23 October 2008)*.
Note: [1]Total expenditure on long-term care according to the international methodology for the System of Health Accounts includes expenditure on long-term health care (HC.3) and expenditure on long-term social care (HC.R.6.1.). [2]Data for Slovenia and for countries for which the source is the OECD Health Data 2008 are for 2006; for the remaining countries the data are for 2005.

Table 30: **Expenditure on long-term care by source of financing and function, Slovenia, 2003–2006**

	In EUR 1,000				Share of GDP, in %				Structure, in %				Index of real growth
	2003	2004	2005	2006	2003	2004	2005	2006	2003	2004	2005	2006	2006/2005
Long-term care	276	304	342	358	1.10	1.12	1.19	1.15	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	119.0
of which:													
Public sources	214	239	273	281	0.85	0.88	0.95	0.91	77.5	78.6	79.7	78.7	120.8
Private sources	62	65	69	76	0.25	0.24	0.24	0.25	22.5	21.4	20.3	21.3	112.9
of which:													
Long-term health care	157	176	200	206	0.62	0.65	0.70	0.66	56.7	57.8	58.5	57.6	120.9
Long-term social care	120	128	142	152	0.48	0.47	0.49	0.49	43.3	42.2	41.5	42.4	116.5

Source: SORS, Expenditure on Health Care (First release, 23 October 2008).

In the period 2003–2006, total expenditure on long-term care in Slovenia rose by nearly 19% in real terms, primarily due to public expenditure (state, municipalities, HIIS and PDII), which jumped 20.8% in real terms in this period, while private expenditure rose by 12.9%. As a result, the share of private expenditure shrank, in particular in the financing of long-term social care (from 44.6% to 41.0%). In long-term social care, the ratio between public sources (state and municipal budgets) and private sources (mostly out-of-pocket expenditure – co-payments for accommodation and food at residential homes for the elderly or other forms of institutional care) thus stood at 59.0:41.0 in 2006. Long-term health care services are mostly (93.2% in 2006) financed from public sources,[34] but the share of private sources rose compared to 2003 (from 5.6% to 6.8%).

5.3 Access to childcare and education

The accessibility of childcare and education depends on admission numbers at each level of education, the territorial distribution of childcare and education institutions, the funding of these institutions, and financial and non-financial aid. In international publications, the most commonly used indicator of the accessibility of childcare and education is the participation rate[35] of the population in the selected level of education. Yet, whether or not an individual will enrol in the selected level of education also depends on his or her preferences and abilities, and the fulfilment of formal admission criteria.

Children derive many benefits from pre-school education, especially children from underprivileged backgrounds.

The participation of children in organised pre-school programmes has a multitude of positive effects: it improves learning ability in later stages of life, has a positive impact on learning achievements and reading literacy at the end of primary school, and improves the equality of opportunity for participation in higher levels of education (Starting Strong II: Early Childhood Education and Care, 2006; Wossman, Schultz, 2006, p.27. Pre-school programmes typically offer socially underprivileged children better opportunities for developing their abilities and acquiring skills and competences than their families can provide. With the help of incentives in pre-school, these children start primary school on a more equal footing with children from more privileged backgrounds and their attainment improves, which in turn improves their access to tertiary education. By enrolling children in organised forms of pre-school education, the state thus also improves equality in the formal education system (Wossman, Schultz, 2006, p. 14, 19). The many benefits of putting children in kindergarten have led the OECD to recommend universal access to organised pre-school education. This does not necessarily mean that all children need to be enrolled in organised pre-school programmes – demand for pre-school education depends on family circumstances – but all children should have the opportunity to attend kindergarten if parents so desire (Starting Strong II: Early Childhood Education and Care, 2006).

The share of children in organised forms of pre-school education has been rising in recent years and is approaching the EU-27 average.

The share of pre-school-aged children attending kindergartens rose between 2006/07 and 2007/08. In 2007/08, 44.6%[36] of children aged 1–2 and 82.6% of children aged 3–5 were in kindergarten, which is a continuation of the positive trend recorded since 2000/2001. Between 2006/2007 and 2007/2008, the number of kindergartens rose as well, but it is still lower than it was in 2000/01. In 2006, Slovenia almost reached the European average (school year 2005/06) in terms of participation of children aged 3–5 in pre-school programmes; indeed, the share of children enrolled in organised pre-school programmes rose faster in the 2000–2006 period than in most other European countries. Yet, despite this positive trend, universal access has not been guaranteed, as there are problems with local and financial accessibility. In some parts of the country, kindergartens cannot meet demand from parents and some parents do not enrol their children in pre-schooling because it is too expensive for them. This problem will be at least partially alleviated by a law that provides free kindergarten for the second child in families where an older sibling also attends kindergarten. The Act Amending the Pre-School Institutions Act (ZVrt-D)[37] stipulates that if more than one child in a family is in kindergarten, the fee for the older child is one bracket below what it would otherwise be, and the fee for younger children is waived altogether. However, the fact that not all children can attend kindergarten due to insufficient capacity remains a problem.

Access to childcare institutions is hampered by insufficient places relative to demand.

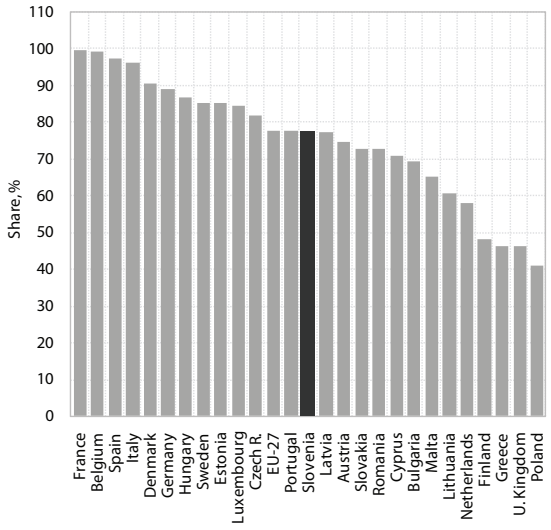
[34] HIIS funding earmarked for long-term care services in old people's homes, special social welfare institutions, extended hospital care and long-term home nursing, and PDII funds for assistance and attendance allowance.

[35] The most commonly used indicators of access to education are gross participation rate in selected level of education and net participation rates of selected age groups in selected levels of education. Gross rate of participation in education: (number of persons participating in selected level of education / number of people in 20–29 age group) * 100. Net rates of participation in education: (number of persons participating in selected level of education in selected age group / number of people in selected age group) * 100.

[36] Relative to population size as on 30 June 2007.

[37] Act Amending the Pre-School Institutions Act (ZVrt-D), OGRS, No. 25/08.

Figure 23: **Share of children aged 3–5 in organised forms of pre-school education[1], EU-27, 2006, in %**



Source: Eurostat; calculations by IMAD.
Note: [1] ISCED 0.

The number of children in primary schools as well as the number of primary schools is dropping.

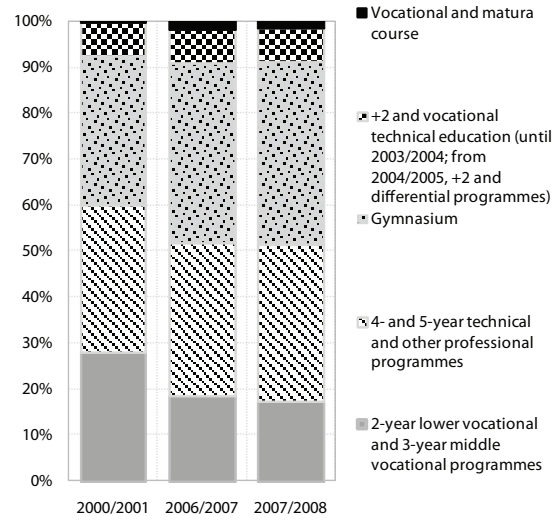
The number of pupils in primary schools reached 163,208 in 2007/08, which is a slight drop on the year before and a continuation of the negative trend recorded in recent years. Due to the declining number of births, the number of primary schools dropped from 816 in 2000/01 to 792 in 2007/08. In the same period, the number of subsidiary primary schools dropped,[38] also as a result of younger people moving out of the countryside. The young also moved out of urban centres to suburban areas, which reduced the number of single-site schools, while the number of central primary schools increased.

The number of young people in secondary schools is declining. The share of youths participating in secondary education is among the highest in EU-27 countries. The share of young people completing secondary programmes which provide direct access to tertiary education is also increasing.

Generation sizes are shrinking, which means fewer young people are enrolling in secondary schools. A total of 91,623 students were enrolled in upper-secondary school in the school year[39] 2007/08, a drop of 4.9% over 2006/07. Slovenia has the highest participation rate of those aged 15–19 in secondary education in the EU. In 2006, 79.5% of those aged 15–19 were enrolled in secondary school (EU-27: 57.0%), with the increase in participation in secondary education outpacing the EU average in the 2000–2005 period.

The share of admissions in secondary programmes also affects access to tertiary education in that it is important what share of youths enrol in and complete programmes which provide (direct) enrolment in tertiary programmes. Relative enrolment in different secondary programmes has been gradually changing: the share of young people enrolled in or completing programmes which provide direct access to tertiary education has been rising.[40]

Figure 24: **Share of youths participating in secondary education by type of programme, 2000/01–2007/08**



Source: SORS; calculations by IMAD.

The network of post-secondary vocational schools and higher education institutions is still expanding.

The founding of post-secondary vocational schools and higher education institutions across Slovenia has had a positive impact. For the young people this has reduced the need for student halls of residence and other kinds of accommodation and the need to commute, the result being lower costs of study. For adults, whose main obstacles in pursuing education include distance from place of residence or work to place of education and a lack of appropriate locally available programmes,

[38] **Elementary school** provides basic care and general primary education (Elementary School Act, OGRS, No. 12/96). Educational institutions are organised as **single site** schools, **central** schools or **subsidiary** schools. A subsidiary school is an off-site part of a central elementary school, under the professional guidance of which it operates.

[39] Data at the start of the school year.

[40] To pursue tertiary education, a student needs to pass the general or professional "matura" graduation exam or a final exam following a four-year upper-secondary programme. Enrolment in university programmes requires students to pass a general matura, but some study programmes also admit students with professional matura following an appropriate secondary course plus exam in one matura subject. Secondary programmes which allow students to enrol in tertiary programmes include: gymnasium programme, 4- and 5-year upper-secondary technical and other vocational programmes, vocational technical programmes, vocational courses and matura courses (calls for enrolment in the first year of university study in the academic year 2008/09; calls for enrolment in the first year of post-secondary vocational study in the academic year 2008/2009).

the founding of post-secondary vocational schools and higher education institutions in their region improves their educational prospects. In 2006/2007, Slovenia had 63 higher education institutions and 50 post-secondary vocational schools, their number rising rapidly in the period 2000/01–2000/07. The number of cities with a post-secondary vocational school or higher education institution has also been increasing, which has improved the local and regional accessibility of tertiary education. This accessibility has also been boosted by offering study programmes not only within main higher education premises, but also in premises elsewhere.

In the period 2000/01–2007/08, the number of applications exceeding admissions[41] in post-secondary vocational and university programmes dropped: in 2007/08 it was 1.2%, down from 4.0% in 2006/2007 and 13.0% in 2000/01. Between 2006/07 and 2007/08 admissions as well as applications declined.

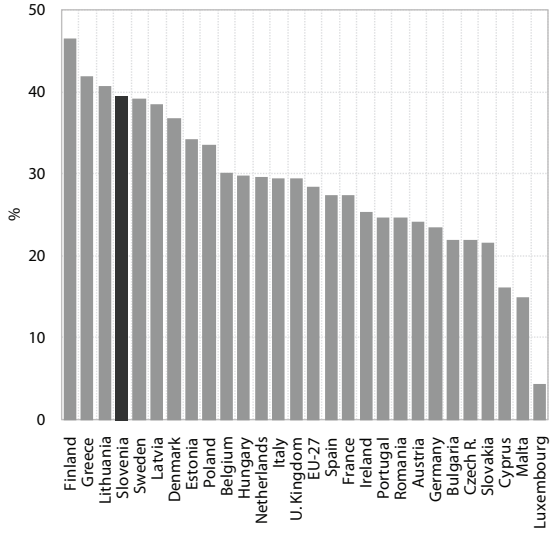
The excess of applications over admissions in undergraduate programmes dropped significantly in the period 2000/01–2007/08.

In the academic year 2007/08, 115,445 students were enrolled in tertiary education,[42] of which 16,424 were in post-secondary vocational programmes, 89,337 in higher professional and university programmes and 9,684 in post-graduate programmes. The number of students dropped slightly compared to 2006/07 due to lower enrolment in undergraduate programmes, which reversed the positive trend registered in the period 2000/01–2006/07. Between 2006/07 and 2007/08, the ratio of full-time students to the total population aged between 19 and 23 improved, from 56.2% to 57.3%.

Participation in tertiary education is among the highest in the EU, and it has been rising faster.

In 2007/08, the ratio[43] between the number of students enrolled in tertiary education and the total population in the 20–29 age group was 39.9. This places Slovenia among the leading European countries and in the period 2000–2006 the rise in the ratio outpaced the growth of the European average (Slovenia: by 11.2 p.p.; EU-27 by 4.7 p.p.). Compared with other European countries, Slovenia

Figure 25: **Ratio of the number participants in tertiary education to the number of population aged 20–29, EU-27, 2006**



Source: Eurostat; calculations by IMAD.

Table 31: **Participation in tertiary education and structure of students by type of programme, Slovenia, 2000/01–2007/08**

	Number 2007/08	Growth in number of students, in %		Participation by type of programme, in %		
		2007/08 / 2006/07	2007/08 / 2000/01	2000/01	2006/07	2007/08
Total	115,445	–0.4	26.2	100.0	100.0	100.0
Post-secondary vocational	16,424	3.7	240.7	5.3	13.7	14.2
Higher professional (adjusted to Bologna Declaration-compliant and old programmes)	36,912	–5.4	–7.0	43.4	33.6	32.0
University (adjusted to Bologna Declaration-compliant and old programmes)	52,425	0.0	21.7	47.1	45.2	45.4
Specialist	495	–28.8	160.5	0.2	0.6	0.4
Master's (adjusted to Bologna Declaration-compliant and old programmes)	7,607	12.8	103.8	4.1	5.8	6.6
Doctoral	1,582	26.6	–	–	1.1	1.4

Source: SI-Stat data portal – Demography and social statistics – Education (2008); Student enrolment in tertiary education in the academic year 2007/08, First release (2008); calculations by IMAD.

[41] First application period.
[42] Tertiary education includes higher professional programmes and undergraduate and postgraduate higher education programmes.
[43] The main indicator that the European Commission uses to measure access to tertiary education is gross rates of participation in tertiary education. The indicator measures the capability of the educational system for participation in a selected level of education (Otero, McCoshan, 2005). It measures the general participation rate of the population by selected level of education. Calculation of the indicator: (number of all enrolments in tertiary education / number of people in 20–29 age group) * 100.

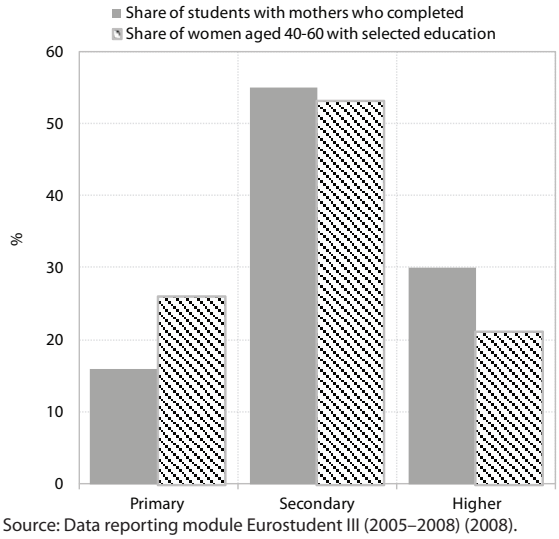
has a high share of the population aged 20–24 enrolled in tertiary education: in 2006, it was the leading European country, with 45.1%, which was significantly above the European average (28.2%); compared to 2000 the share soared (Slovenia: by 12.9 p.p.; EU-27: by 4.2 p.p.).

Profession, activity status, income and education – in addition to factors such as personal preference – affect an individual's decision on whether or not to enrol in higher education. Research (Asplund, 2007) shows that there is a correlation between the completed education of parents and attainment in primary and secondary school, which also affects the prospects of enrolment in tertiary education. The probability that they will enrol in higher education programmes is higher for children from higher social classes. Socio-economic status is thus an indirect factor in the decision to enrol in a higher education programme, which also has a long-term impact on the inter-generational transfer of income (Asplund, 2007, p. 133).

Whether an individual will enrol in a higher education programme also depends on their socio-economic status, which in turn is determined by parents' education.

In Slovenia, there are differences in participation in higher education depending on the profession and completed education of the parents,[44] but they are relatively small compared to other European countries. The Eurostudent III study, which was carried out between 2005 and 2008 in 23 European countries,[45] included an analysis of the socio-economic status of students (participation rate by education and profession of mother/father). The results suggest that the mother's education is a factor in the higher education[46] participation rate in Slovenia, but in many European countries the differences are much bigger. Compared to other European countries, the participation rate of individuals from families where the mother has a job involving manual labour is relatively good.[47] The father's education has a similar impact. It should be noted that higher admissions in higher education in the past has improved the absolute prospects for the enrolment of individuals from lower social classes. The state has been improving access to tertiary education for people at social risk with national scholarships; in 2007, 12,483 students enrolled in tertiary education received a national scholarship, which is a drop of 4.4% on the year before but still 12.0% more than in 2000. The share of students receiving a national scholarship stood at 10.8% in 2007.[48]

Figure 26: **Share of students by mother's education and educational structure of women aged 40–60, Slovenia, 2006/07, in %**



Source: Data reporting module Eurostudent III (2005–2008) (2008).

Participation of adults in education is also vital. In 2007, 14.8% of the population aged 25–64 was participating in various forms of lifelong learning[49] (formal and informal education). This is significantly above the EU-25 average of 9.7%, but still far behind some northern European countries. Moreover, as people get older, participation in lifelong learning quickly drops, which, like the low participation of the poorly educated, constitutes a development problem.

The participation rate in lifelong learning is above the EU average.

5.3.1 Expenditure on education

In 2006, total public expenditure on education dropped to 5.72% of GDP (5.74% of GDP in 2005),[50] after having already fallen somewhat in the period 2000–2004. This places Slovenia substantially above the EU-27 average

[44] In international publications, the participation rate in higher education by socio-economic status is commonly measured with the share of students by parents' education and profession, which indicates the relative accessibility of higher education. In the absolute sense, access to higher education by income is measured with an index indicating growth in the number of students from the selected income bracket.

[45] In the United Kingdom, England and Wales were included in the survey together and Scotland separately. All other countries were analysed as a whole.

[46] The international study included full- and part-time students of academically-oriented programmes classified under Isced 5a (Orr, 2008). In Slovenia, this includes undergraduate and masters programmes.

[47] Professions from 5 to 9 in the Standard Classification of Occupations.

[48] Includes full- and part-time students.

[49] The indicator of participation in lifelong learning measures the share of the population in the 25–64 age group participating in education or training in the four weeks prior to the carrying out of the study. Data for the indicator are derived from the Labour Force Survey. In 2006, the methodology for the calculation of the indicator improved. The indicator, which was previously calculated from one quarterly set of data, is now calculated from annual averages of quarterly data. The data have also been calculated anew for the previous period.

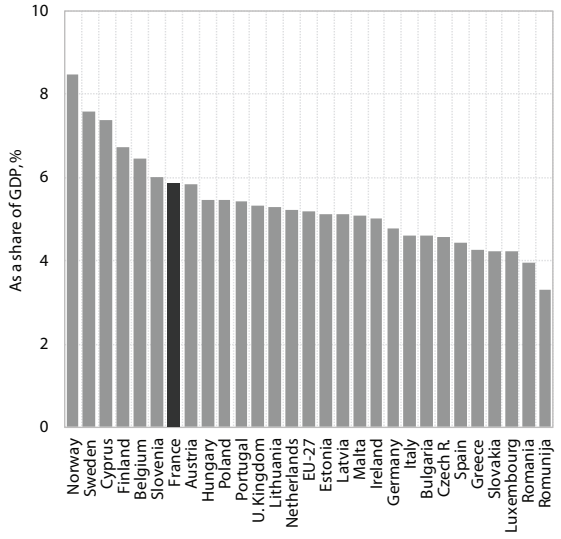
[50] GDP as provided in the release of September 2008 (National Accounts – SORS, Sept. 2008).

of (5.09% in 2004), which is largely a result of the high participation rate. In Europe, most countries allocate between 4% and 6% of GDP for education. But some northern European countries spend far above the average, in particular Denmark, Sweden and Norway, which spend 7%–8% of GDP. According to data for 2001–2004, public expenditure on education rose in most EU countries (the EU-27 average increased by 0.12 p.p.), in particular at secondary and tertiary level (by 0.04 and 0.08 p.p respectively), which is also in line with the objectives of the Lisbon Strategy. The size of public expenditure on education is determined by a variety of factors, foremost among them the participation rate, demographics, teaching staff salaries, the organisation of the education system and the system of funding.

Public expenditure on education as a share of GDP has remained high in the past few years.

In Slovenia, the share of expenditure on pre-school and upper secondary education rose in 2005 and 2006, while relative expenditure on elementary and tertiary education dropped. In 2006, the real growth of public expenditure on formal education was slightly higher than in previous years, 5.2% compared to an average of 3.4% in 2000–2005. In 2006, expenditure increased the most on pre-school (13.5%) and secondary (8.3%) education, mostly due to a rapid growth in investment. In tertiary education, real growth in 2006 was 4.0% (average annual growth was 3.2% in 2000–2005), whereas expenditure on elementary education slowed most notably for the second year in a row (2.6% in 2006, 3.0% in 2005; 2000–2005 annual average 4.5%).[51]

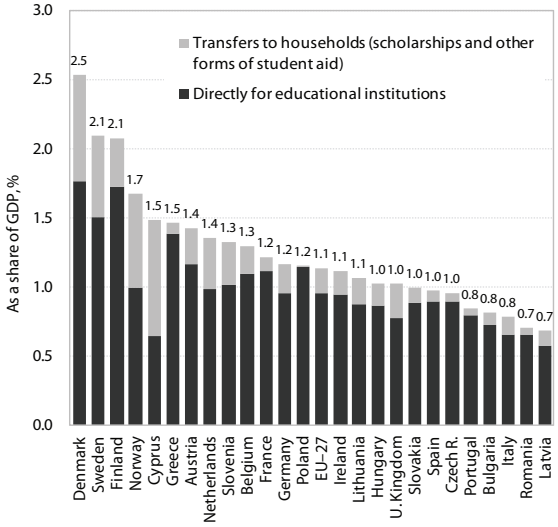
Figure 27: **Total public expenditure on formal education (all levels) as share of GDP; EU-27, in %**



Source: Population and social condition – Eurostat Queen Tree (2007); for Slovenia: Expenditure on Formal Education, Slovenia – SORS (7 Dec. 2007).

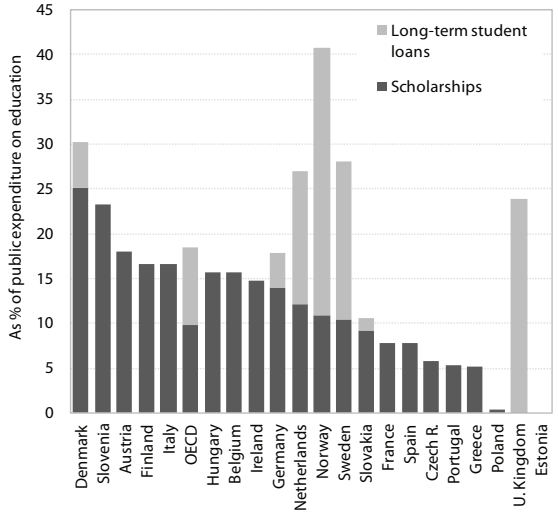
[51] Funding increased substantially at pre-school level because municipalities were covering an ever-greater share of price increases in public kindergartens in the years analysed.

Figure 28: **Total public expenditure on formal tertiary education (all levels) as share of GDP and by function; EU-27, 2004, in %**



Source: Population and social condition – Eurostat Queen Tree (2007); for Slovenia: Expenditure on Formal Education, Slovenia – SORS (7 Dec. 2007).

Figure 29: **Share of transfers to households in total public expenditure on tertiary education, 2006 (2004), in %**



Source: Education at a glance 2007; for Slovenia: Expenditure on Formal Education, Slovenia – SORS (7 December 2007).
Note: Data for Slovenia is for 2006, data for other countries is for 2004.

The share of private expenditure[52] has been shrinking in Slovenia since 1995 (to 12.9% of the total or 0.8% of GDP in 2006), but it is still above the EU-27 average (11.5%).[53]

[52] Private expenditure includes expenditure by households and other private entities paid directly to educational institutions (tuition fees, lunch, school trips, accommodation in dormitories).
[53] Includes all dwellings in Slovenia. According to SORS methodology, a dwelling is any structurally unified whole intended for residence, with one or more rooms, with or without appropriate auxiliary spaces, and with at least one separate entrance.

5.4 Housing

At the end of 2007, 820,400 dwellings were registered in Slovenia, up 5.5% on the 2002 census and 1% more than in 2006. In the last three years, the number of dwellings under construction has been constantly rising, as has the number of completed dwellings (8,357 in 2007, by far the highest number since 2002). The average useful floor space has also been on the increase: in 2007, it was 76.6 m^2 for all types of dwellings, up 2 m^2 compared to the 2002 census; the average newly built dwelling is now 111 m^2 in size. Dwellings in non-urban settlements are just over 10 m^2 bigger on average than those in urban settlements. A total of 20% of all dwellings were without central heating and 7% did not have a bathroom.

In Slovenia the housing standard has been improving steadily for the majority of the population.

The share of rental housing is a modest 10% (in the EU-15 it stands between 25% and 50%[54]). Of all occupied dwellings, 6.6% were non-profit and social housing units at the 2002 census (the latest year with data available).[55] Between 1995 and 2007, only 6,308 new non-profit housing units were obtained, which shows just how difficult it is to rent a non-profit dwelling. At the same time, a relatively high share of dwellings lie unoccupied. According to the 2002 census, 86% of all dwellings were occupied, which indicates poor utilisation of the housing fund (10% were unoccupied and 4% were intended for occasional use).

Most Slovenian households own or co-own their homes.

Housing prices fell in 2003, but in 2004 they started to increase rapidly. According to the data of the Surveying and Mapping Authority, apartment prices rose by about 80% in the 2003–2007 period and house prices by about 100%. The growth in apartment prices slowed down in 2007, but house prices showed no sign of abating. Yet, house prices stalled in the first half of 2008 (Surveying and Mapping Authority data show moderate growth for this period but SORS data suggest a significant drop in house prices). Housing prices dropped as a result of a shift in the demand and supply dynamics: although supply remained level in 2007, demand had already dropped (higher inflation, higher interest on long-term loans). The first half of 2008 was thus already marked by a significant drop in the number of transactions.

Apartment and house prices soared after 2003. Apartment prices cooled off in 2007 and house prices

Measures have been taken to improve the prospects of people being able to purchase housing units and to secure an appropriate number of non-profit rental housing (long-term loans for purchase, construction or renovation,[56] combined with financial incentives in the national housing saving scheme; subsidising of non-profit rent; subsidies for first-time home buyers or builders, subsidies for rental housing). But the young still largely depend on their families helping out with a housing purchase[57] or free use of the (second) dwelling of their parents and other relatives (in Slovenia more households live in dwellings owned by relatives than in non-profit housing). Limited rental options, high rents

Over the last period, there has been an upward trend in the share of home ownership. Housing is becoming an increasingly important form of property and security for old age. The increase in home ownership and the importance of housing as an investment or asset for old age is one of the answers to the problem related to the ageing of the population, but also one of its causes, as it has significant demographic implications. Housing as an asset may be another form of additional pension or health insurance and an additional source of social security for old age. At the same time, the orientation of the young towards owning one's dwelling, particularly in the absence of other alternatives, means cutting other costs and increasing income by harder work, which has an impact on their decisions to start a family.

Home ownership is accessible to only few young people.

The function of a dwelling as an investment or asset is also visible in Slovenia. According to the Census of Households and Housing in 2002, 8% of all dwellings are in private ownership; however, they are not used by the owner, but by a relative or some other user who does not pay the rent. The majority of these dwellings are formally owned by the older generation (which, due to the favourable developments in the past, managed to acquire more dwellings than it actually uses) and given to adult children to use as a transient solution (they have few possibilities of entering into a rental relationship and relatively unfavourable possibilities for obtaining housing loans). The ownership of dwellings enables the older generation to use its property later as a source of "additional pension" or to cover medical expenses. However, this opens a question of the existence of the traditional direction of intergenerational transfers from the older generation to the younger, an important part of which is also real estate inheritance.

(Srna Mandič)

[54] Mandič, 2006.
[55] Slovenia distinguished between non-profit and social dwellings until 2003. With the implementation of the new Housing Act (OGRS, No. 69/03), the previously separated categories were merged into "non-profit rental housing".
[56] From its inception in 1991 until 2006, the Housing Fund of the Republic of Slovenia granted 30,997 long-term loans (69% of the 44,743 applications), of which 60.7% were for young families.
[57] According to the Housing Survey 2005, in the 1998–2005 period, in 36.5% of all cases financial aid by relatives was one of the sources of funding for purchase or construction and in 54.6% of cases, land or building for expansion was provided by relatives.

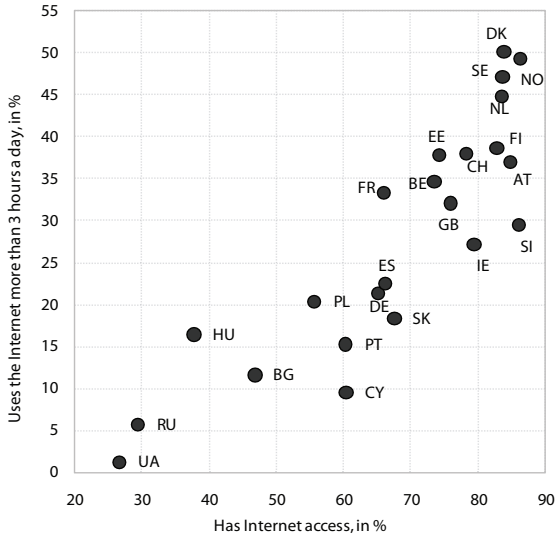
and expensive home ownership are undoubtedly the reason why 48% of men and 39% of women aged 18–34 still live with their parents, the second highest share among the new EU Member States.[58]

Supply, as well as the standard of housing, thus largely depends on people's own resources. The state's commitment in housing is minimal in terms of social objectives, the levelling of market disturbances and in making it easier for people to enter the housing market. In Europe, Slovenia ranks among the countries with minimalist housing policies, as it has the lowest share of housing subsidies in the EU-25, the second lowest share of public funding of housing and the third lowest percentage of households living in rental housing (Mandič, 2007), all of which is the consequence of the way socially-owned housing had been privatised and of favourable loans in the past. Family has a much bigger role than the state, which is also evident in the age at which the young leave their parents' homes. One part of the explanation is that housing and career are interconnected: the young live with their parents until they have reached a point in their career when they become "insiders" on the labour market. This is essential for the dominant housing status in Slovenia – home ownership: being an "insider" on the labour market is necessary to accumulate savings and for access to housing loans and the insurance for them (part-time employees are still discriminated in access to housing loans, which disproportionately affects the young, the age group with the highest share in part-time employment).

5.5 Internet

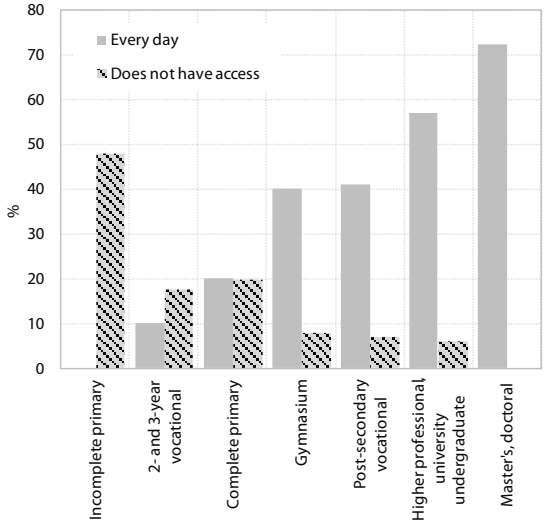
The rate of Internet use in Slovenia is slightly below the EU average, the biggest problems being lacklustre growth in the number of older and less educated Internet users. In 2008,[59] 56% of people aged 16–74 used the Internet[60] in Slovenia, which is below the EU-27 average of 61% that year (EU-15: 66%). Internet uptake was slower than in the EU in the last two years, hence the widening gap to the EU average, which had been narrowing after 2004, the first year for which comparable data are available. Comparisons with the EU indicate that Slovenia has ample scope for the expansion of Internet use among the older population; compared to the EU, progress has also slowed in the middle-aged population over the last two years. In Slovenia, the rate of Internet use is dropping faster with age than it does in the EU, but among young people (16–24), the share of Internet users is higher than in the EU.[61] Whereas Internet uptake among young people is still relatively high above the EU average, data for the 25–45 age group show the advantage registered in 2006 turning into a gap in the last two years. Slovenia is farthest behind the EU in those aged over 55; the gap stopped widening last year, but not for the oldest population (over 65). In the middle-aged population (25–54), the gap behind the EU is wider for those with lower levels of education, but in the last two years it widened for all age groups relative to the EU, notwithstanding education. However, in the over-55 age group the difference to the EU in Internet use is smallest

Figure 30: **Internet access and use, selected European countries, 2006, in %**



Source: ESS.

Figure 31: **Internet access and use by education, Slovenia, 2006**



Source: Centre for Public Opinion and Mass Media Research, 2006.

[58] See Mandič, 2007, Odhod v prvo samostojno stanovanje.
[59] Data refer to the first quarter of the year.
[60] Those who used the Internet in the last three months.
[61] The fact that Internet use among the youth in Slovenia is more widespread than in the EU corresponds to the finding that Internet use for various educational purposes is above the EU average, but the Internet is used less frequently than in the EU for certain everyday activities (such as online banking and searching for information on goods and services) and for more advanced communication services.

for the least-educated population and biggest for those with secondary education.

Slovenia is better developed in terms of households' access to the Internet, which has been rising rapidly in the recent years. In the first three months of 2008, 59% of Slovenian households had an Internet connection, one p.p. below the EU-27 average. The share of households with the Internet has been buoyed in the recent years by rapid broadband penetration,[62] which is attributed to improved access to broadband as a result of fiercer market competition after 2005.[63] In broadband access, Slovenia has already exceeded the EU average (Slovenia 50%, EU 48%). International comparisons show that the difference in Internet access between urban and rural areas is marginally smaller in Slovenia than in the EU; despite the higher share of households with Internet access in densely populated areas, Internet access in sparsely populated areas[64] is above the EU average and roughly on a par with the EU-15 average.

5.6 Culture

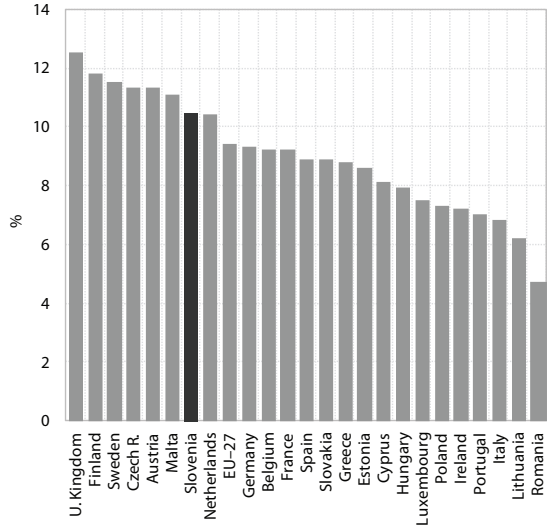
Leisure time is an important part of life, which an individual can spend in pursuit of a variety of activities (culture, sports, etc.). Participation in cultural activities has a positive impact on quality of life, but it also affects individuals' viewpoints and values and their understanding of society, influences interpersonal relations, promotes social inclusion and the development of society, and creates social cohesion. Which activity an individual will pursue depends mainly on their preferences, financial situation and the scope and quality of the activities on offer locally.

Participation in cultural and sports activities improves the quality of life.

The share of expenditure[65] that Slovenian households allocate for culture and recreation[66] is above the EU average, and unlike the EU average it rose in the 2000–2006 period. It stood at 10.5% in 2006 (2005: 10.7%), which places Slovenia in the upper half of the European standings. In the period 2000–2006, expenditure on culture and recreation rose by 0.4 p.p., outpacing growth in most European countries (in several countries, it even shrank) and exceeding the EU-27 average, which fell 0.2 p.p. in the same period.

The number of theatres increased in the period 2000–2006, whereas the number of cinemas, museums and exhibition grounds dropped.

Figure 32: **Household expenditure on culture and recreation as share of total household expenditure, Slovenia and EU-27, 2006, in %**



Source: EUROSTAT; calculations by IMAD.

The opportunities of the local population to participate in cultural activities can be inferred from data on the number of museums, galleries, theatres, cinemas and other performers.[67] In 2006, there were 38 theatres in Slovenia, which is fewer than in 2005 (42) but an increase over 2000. However, despite the increase in the overall number of theatres, there are significant regional differences. Only half of the Slovenian regions had theatres in 2006 and, as expected, the majority, 26 of the 38, were in the central Osrednjeslovenska region, whereas the Jugovzhodna Slovenija, Pomurska, Notranjsko-kraška, Spodnjeposavska and Zasavska regions did not have a theatre. The number of cinemas, meanwhile, dropped in the period 2000–2006, to 57. However, their regional distribution was much better

Table 32: **Visitors to museums, theatres and cinemas, Slovenia, 2000–2006**

	Visitors (number)	Per capita visits		
	2006	2000	2005	2006
Museums[1]	2,349,652	1.1	1.1	1.2
Theatres[2]	842,256	0.4	0.5	0.4
Cinemas	2,685,324	1.1	1.2	1.3

Source: SORS, CENEX, Film Fund of the Republic of Slovenia; calculations by IMAD.
Notes: [1] Museums, museum collections, art exhibition grounds and galleries.
[2] Includes professional and experimental theatres, amateur theatres, independent theatre groups and theatre production companies.

[62] The share of households with broadband Internet access, which nearly doubled in 2006 (data for the first quarter of the year), rose by another 10 p.p. to 44% in 2007, which is just above the EU average and slightly below the EU-15 average. Data for the first quarter of 2008 show a continued rise of broadband penetration (half of Slovenian households had a broadband connection).

[63] The unbundling of the ISDN-ASDL loop in September 2005 made it possible for new providers to enter the xDSL market. In 2008, the highest expansion was recorded for broadband access via cable.

[64] Sparsely populated areas with less than 100 inhabitants per km^2.

[65] According to the national accounts methodology.

[66] According to the COICOP-HBS methodology.

[67] Data shown thereafter include only museums, galleries and theatres that reported to the SORS.

Table 33: **Library membership, total and public libraries, 2000–2005, Slovenia, in %**

	2000	2004	2005
Libraries[1] total[2]			
Share of population with library membership	50.3	52.4	52.2
Number of library visits per member	14.3	15.2	15.3
Per capita visits	7.2	8.0	8.0
Number of loaned units[1] per member	23.3	23.1	23.0
Per capita number of loaned library units	11.7	12.1	12.0
Public libraries			
Share of population with public library membership	24.7	26.9	25.7
Number of library visits per member	15.1	16.7	17.3
Per capita visits	3.7	4.4	4.5
Number of loaned library units per member	39.3	38.4	40.6
Per capita number of loaned library units	9.7	10.2	10.4

Source: SORS, NUK; calculations by IMAD.
Notes: Library material includes books and other library material.[1] Total number of libraries includes the National and University Library, university libraries, special libraries and school libraries. Surveys of school libraries are made only every several years; data for 2000 are therefore actually from 2002 and data for 2004 and 2005 from 2006.

as every region had a cinema. The number of museums, museum collections, art exhibition grounds and galleries also dropped, to 177 in 2006.

The number of museum[68], theatre and cinema[69] visitors increased in the 2000–2006 period. The number of cinema visitors rose at the fastest pace. Cinema visits rose by 21.1% in this period and museum visits by 7.2%; the slowest increase (2.7%) was recorded for theatres. Between 2005 and 2006, visitor numbers dropped in theatres while in museums and cinemas they increased.

The reading of trade publications, literature and other publications improves literacy. In the international study Literacy in the Information Age (2000), literacy is defined as the capability to understand and use printed information in everyday activities at home and in the community in order to achieve goals and develop knowledge and capabilities which benefit the individual and society as a whole. Countries with big differences in (functional) literacy also tend to have more unequal income distribution (Learning a Living, 2005; Literacy in the Information Age, 2000). In addition, reading can broaden people's horizons, strengthen their mental capacities and improve critical thinking.

Library membership, number of library visits and book loans have been on the rise.

Membership of libraries and library visits increased in the 2000–2005 period. Slovenia has different types of libraries (one National and University Library (NUK), university libraries, special libraries and public libraries). In 2005, 52.2% of the population were members of a library and 25.7% had public library membership. Library membership, visits, total loans and the number of library units loaned have been on the increase. Yet despite the positive trend, a significant proportion of the population are not library members.[70]

A half of Slovenia's population are library members.

5.7 Media

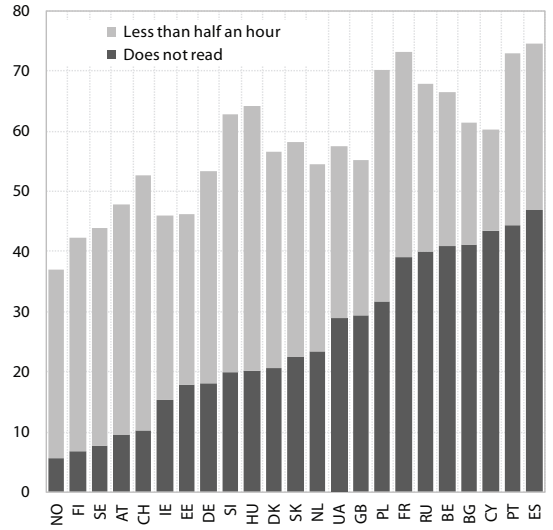
The choice of **print media** keeps expanding in Slovenia every year. The latest National Readership Survey,[71] which analyses the average reach of print media in the first half of 2008, included 150 print media with sales of at least 10,000 copies (in the first half of 2002, when the first such survey was done, 138 print media had sufficient readership to be included). The survey included eight paid-for daily newspapers and one free daily. These newspapers come with a total of 20, mostly weekly, supplements. There are also four newspapers that are published several times a week, 18 weeklies (one of which had not yet been included in the survey) and nine fortnightly papers. Monthly magazines account for the bulk of serial publications (64) and there are four bimonthly or less frequent magazines and 23 free non-daily publications.

The latest data on the circulation of print media[72] show that in the first quarter of 2008, the most popular daily had a circulation of just under 100,000 copies, followed by newspapers with just over 70,000, 60,000 and 50,000 copies respectively. A free daily also entered the market and in the first quarter had a higher circulation (103,545) than any paid-for daily newspaper. The most popular weekly has a circulation of just over 130,000 copies, whereas those in second and third place sell about 50,000 each. The circulation of fortnightly publications is smaller – 25,000 copies or less. The situation is similar for monthly magazines. Circulation-wise, various weekly supplements stand out above the rest, but they cannot be regarded as independent publications.

Despite the better choice of print media, analysis of their reach nevertheless shows that interest in the print editions of newspapers and magazines is dwindling. The reach had increased steadily until 2005, but it started dropping thereafter. The drop was particularly pronounced in 2007 and in the first quarter of 2008. In general, supplements attached to multiple newspapers by the same publisher have the highest reach, followed by weeklies. Despite the falling reach, however, the top three in the categories newspapers, supplements and weeklies have remained virtually unchanged.

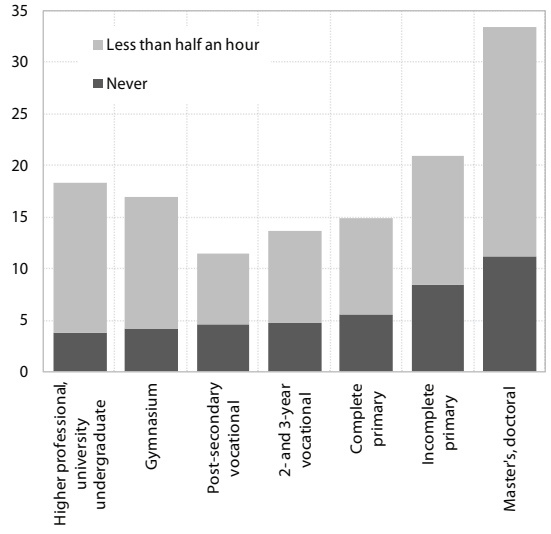
[68] Includes museums, museum collections, art exhibition grounds and galleries.
[69] Includes institutions that reported on their activities.
[70] Data on the reading habits of people who do not have library membership and do not loan library materials are not available.
[71] Valicon, July 2008.
[72] Slovenian Advertising Chamber, May 2008.

Figure 33: **Reading of newspapers, selected European countries, 2006**



Source: ESS.

Figure 34: **TV watching by education, Slovenia, 2006**



Source: Centre for Public Opinion and Mass Media Research.

According to the Slovenian Public Opinion[73] survey, the number of people who do not read newspapers at all rose between 2004 and 2006, and the number of those who spend less than half an hour a day reading papers remained almost level. Slovenian readers have similar habits to their peers in the EU, where the majority spend less than half an hour a day on newspapers, followed by those who read them for an hour at most and people who do not read newspapers at all. Likewise, readers in Slovenia, as those elsewhere in the EU, show little interest in politics and other serious topics.

People dedicate less and less time to news, politics and current affairs. Even though the trend is general, there are differences between urban, suburban and rural areas. Regardless of residence, the largest share of people spend less than half an hour a day reading newspapers (city: 33.1%, suburbs: 41.9%, village: 49.2%). People with an incomplete primary school education read newspapers the least, as the majority of them do not spend any time reading newspapers at all. On average, people with two years of post-secondary vocational education spend the most time reading newspapers (up to one hour), while the majority of other respondents, regardless of education, said they spent half an hour a day at most.

The **electronic media**[74] market included 63 radio stations and 51 TV channels in 2006, an increase of 2 and 1, respectively, over the year before. There were 41 radio stations of special importance[75] (public programmes, local programmes or regional programmes of special importance) and 24 such TV channels.

The Slovenian Public Opinion survey suggests that most people (a quarter) watch TV between half an hour and an hour on a typical day, but the share of those who do not watch TV at all has been rising. Most respondents spend less than half an hour a day watching news, political and current affair shows, followed by those who spend between half an hour and an hour watching such programmes. The share of those who do not watch such shows at all has risen. In the EU, interest in such programming is higher, on average, as the share of those who do not watch such shows at all is lower and most people spend an hour a day watching them.

The urban population spends the most time watching TV. The share of those who do not watch TV at all is lowest in cities (2.9%; suburbs: 5.5%, villages, 5.6%), where, conversely, the share of people who watch TV for more than two and a half hours a day is the highest (25%; suburbs: 16%, villages: 15.4%).

As for radio, the biggest share of respondents listened to the radio for over three hours a day. Nevertheless, the share of people who do not listen to the radio at all increased, to 12.5% in 2006 from 11.1% in 2004. The time spent listening to the radio drops with educational attainment. As many as 25.3% (EU average: 17.4%) of the respondents said they did not listen to news, political and current affairs radio shows at all, whereas the biggest share spent less than half an hour a day listening to this kind of programme.

[73] Faculty of Social Sciences – Institute of Social Sciences, Centre for Public Opinion and Mass Media Research. Slovenian Public Opinion 2006/1, European Social Survey, Ljubljana, December 2006.

[74] SORS, Broadcasting, Slovenia, 2006, 11 December 2007.

[75] Pursuant to the Media Act (OGRS, No. 110/07 – OCT1), these are radio and television programmes broadcast by RTV Slovenija, local radio and TV stations, regional radio and TV stations, student radio and TV stations and non-profit radio and TV programmes. The activities of these broadcasters, which are of special importance for Slovenian culture, are supported by the state with budgetary funds.

6 Social cohesion and poverty

Social cohesion

The term social cohesion, which was comprehensively defined in Social Overview 2006, refers to all aspects of life in society, in particular primary bonds, solidarity, shared values, commitment to society and trust in society. Thus broadly defined, it combines the concepts of social exclusion and social capital.

Since social exclusion/inclusion is an aspect of social cohesion, the two terms are often fuzzily defined in expert and, in particular, political use, and therefore frequently used as synonyms. Hence the selection of seven structural indicators adopted at the European Council in Laeken. They are called social cohesion indicators and show social exclusion and monetary poverty. Of the seven indicators, five are available (i.e. calculated) for Slovenia: inequality of income distribution (80/20 quintile share ratio), at-risk-of-poverty rate (after social transfers), percentage of children (18–24 years) not in education or training, long-term unemployment rate (proportion of people unemployed for 12 months or more) and non-working households (households in which no person aged between 18 and 59 is working). The social cohesion indicators for Slovenia are favourable compared to the EU.[76]

Table 34: **Social cohesion indicators for Slovenia, comparison with the EU-25, 2006**

	Slovenia	EU-25
At-risk-of-poverty rate (%)	12.0	16.0
Share of children not in education or training (%)	5.2	15.2
Long-term unemployment rate	2.9	3.7
Non-working households (%)	7.2	9.8
Quintile share ratio (80/20)	3.4	4.8

Source: Eurostat.

The share of children (0–17 years) who live in non-working households (which is otherwise not an indicator of social cohesion) is also very low in Slovenia; in 2007 it stood at 2.5% (EU-27: 9.4%) Since unemployment – inactivity – is the biggest factor of poverty, the at-risk-of-poverty rate for children in Slovenia is also relatively low (2006: 12%; EU-25: 19%).

[76] These indicators do not include people's property.

6.1 Poverty

Despite methodological changes,[77] the at-risk-of-poverty rate dropped gradually in the 2000–2007 period (in 2000 it was 13% and in 2007 11.5%). In the EU-25, on the other hand, the at-risk-of-poverty rate has remained static[78] (16%). The latest data suggest that in 2007 the at-risk-of-poverty rate edged lower compared to the year before (from 11.7% to 11.5%). In 2007, about 233,000 people thus lived below the at-risk-of-poverty threshold, which was set at 495 euros per month.[79] Taking into account non-cash income, the at-risk-of-poverty rate was even lower (11%). Yet in 2007, poverty grew more severe compared to the year before. The relative at-risk-of-poverty gap, which indicates how far individuals are removed from the at-risk-of-poverty threshold, increased marginally (from 18.5% in 2006 to 19.4% in 2007).[80]

The preservation and improvement of living standards is provided in the framework of the welfare state through a variety of social insurance and income redistribution mechanisms. This ensures a decent living for individuals and families, and reduces poverty. This is the aim of social transfers, which are very efficient in Slovenia, as the at-risk-of-poverty rate excluding such transfers (welfare and family benefits) would be twice as high (23.1%). In Slovenia, the impact of social transfers on poverty alleviation is above the EU average, which is due to the fact that welfare benefits are well targeted and allocated to the most exposed social groups.

Data on income distribution inequality show Slovenia in a fairly favourable position, as it ranks among the EU countries with the lowest income inequality and one of the lowest at-risk-of-poverty rates.

Even though the income inequality data for Slovenia – the Gini coefficient[81] (23.2%), quintile share ratio[82] (3.3) and average at-risk-of-poverty rate (11.5%) – show a

[77] From 2005, when administrative sources and a bigger sample in particular made the data more statistically valuable.

[78] The period 2000–2006; by 31 December 2008, data for 2007 for the EU-25 was not yet available.

[79] For a four-member family with two adults and two children, the at-risk-of-poverty threshold was 1,040 euros. A family with a monthly disposable income lower than that was considered relatively poor. Slovenia as well as the EU uses the concept of relative poverty, where the measure of poverty is the share of persons whose income is lower than the at-risk-of-poverty threshold (60% of median equivalent disposable income in the country).

[80] All figures on poverty herein exclude income in kind. In the Social Overview 2006, however, the published figures included income in kind. The change was made by the European Statistical Office.

[81] The Gini coefficient is a measure of the concentration of income. The higher it is, the greater is the income inequality. If it were 0%, income equality would be perfect.

[82] The quintile share ratio (80/20) shows the ratio between mean equivalent income in the highest and lowest of the five income brackets.

Table 35: **At-risk-of-poverty rate and income inequality (EU-SILC calculations), Slovenia, 2005, 2006 and 2007**

	Income excluding income in kind			Income including income in kind		
	2005	2006	2007	2005	2006	2007
Mean equivalised disposable monthly income, in euros	9,535	10,109	10,719	9,886	10,371	10,941
At-risk-of-poverty rate, in %	12.1	11.7	11.5	11.4	11.1	11.0
At-risk-of-poverty threshold, in euros	440	466	495	460	480	509
At-risk-of poverty threshold for household consisting of two adults and two children – monthly, in euros	924	978	1.040	965	1.009	1.069
At-risk-of-poverty rate before social transfers (old-age pensions and family pensions included as income), in %	25.8	24.2	23.1	24.8	23.2	22.8
At-risk-of-poverty rate before all social transfers,1 in %	42.2	40.7	39.7	40.9	39.3	39.2
At-risk-of-poverty rate for men, in %	10.6	10.3	10.1	9.6	9.5	9.4
At-risk-of-poverty rate for women, in %	13.6	13	12.9	13.2	12.6	12.4
At-risk-of-poverty rate for children (0–15 years)	11.9	11.8	11.7	11	11.1	11.0
At-risk-of-poverty rate for the youth (16–24 years)	10.4	9.1	9.2	10	8.9	8.7
At-risk-of-poverty rate for the active population (16–54 years)	10.4	9.8	9.8	9.9	9.3	9.3
At-risk-of-poverty rate for the elderly (65 and older)	20.4	20	19.4	19.2	19	18.5
Income distribution inequality – quintile share ratio (80/20)	3.4	3.4	3.3	3.3	3.3	3.2
Income distribution inequality – Gini coefficient, in %	23.8	23.8	23.2	23	23	22.6

Source: SORS.
Note: [1] Social transfers include old-age and family pensions.

favourable picture for Slovenia, this is not true for those groups which are most affected by poverty.

The groups most at risk of poverty include non-working households with dependent children (54.5%), one-person households aged 65 or older (47.1%), the unemployed (35.9%), single-parent households with at least one dependent child (28.6%) and tenants (25.7%). The at-risk-of-poverty rate is nearly 3 p.p. higher for women than for men. Data suggest that women are at greater risk of poverty than men in most of the structural categories described below. Age-wise, it is women over 65 who are the most likely to suffer poverty, as their at-risk-of-poverty rate is as high as 24.9%. At this age, the difference between men and women is greatest, as the at-risk-of-poverty rate for older men is below average (10.8%). Broken down by activity, the highest at-risk-of-poverty rates have been recorded for the unemployed (35.9%; men 38.2%, women 34%), other inactive persons (19.1%; men 20%, women 10.3%) and retirees (16.6%; men 11.2%, women 20.1%). As for type of household, one-person households aged 65 or more are at greatest risk of poverty (43.8%), whereas for those who are younger than 65 but also live alone, the at-risk-of-poverty rate is 33.6%. They are followed by single-parent households with at least one dependent child (28.6%) and households with two adults and at least three dependent children (big families) (15.2%). With regards to accommodation tenure status, female tenants are the most materially exposed group; their at-risk-of-poverty rate stands at 29.3% (male tenants: 21.9%).

> Although the data on inequality of income distribution and the overall at-risk-of-poverty rate show Slovenia in a favourable position, there are certain groups which are at high risk of poverty (see Statistical Appendix).

6.1.1 Non-monetary poverty

Poverty may be monetary or non-monetary. Living conditions such as housing, the immediate living environment, health, education and the social support network have a crucial impact on non-monetary poverty. For Slovenia, non-monetary poverty was calculated for the first time in 2005 with the new statistical survey EU-SILC.[83] The indicators used in this survey also aimed to find how people live and how they are integrated in society.

Some indicators of non-monetary poverty suggest that the living standard of people deteriorated between 2005 and 2007, but others indicate that it improved.

[83] The SORS acquired the data on material and social conditions in Slovenia with the Survey on Living Conditions (EU-SILC). The EU-SILC (the at-risk-of-poverty rate is calculated as part of the survey based on administrative data) includes a questionnaire that produces a series of data sets on non-material poverty, but these data have not yet been processed and comparisons with other EU countries are not yet possible. The sample is representative and includes 13,496 households. The survey has already produced some data, which the SORS released in April 2007, January 2008 and December 2008. The data are for the year in which the survey was carried out (2005, 2006, 2007).

But the differences are not large and the time frame is too narrow for significant changes to have taken place. In 2007, 13% of the surveyed households did not have adequate food,[84] up from 11% in 2005, 32% of the households could not afford a one-week vacation (2005: 35%) and 54% of the households were unable to pay unexpected expenses[85] (2005: 56%). But the differences between income quintiles are significant. In the lowest income quintile a quarter of the households did not have adequate food, 63% could not afford a vacation and 69% could not cover unexpected expenses.

A total of 18% of Slovenian households lived in inappropriate dwellings (leaking roof, damp walls or foundations, rotten window frames or floor). One-parent households with at least one dependent child lived in the worst conditions, as 29% had inappropriate dwellings. Despite the poor housing conditions, housing costs represent the biggest burden for these households compared to other households.

Data on how households make do with their incomes hardly changed in the observed period, but it is clear that one-person households and one-parent households with at least one dependent child find it hardest to cope.

Households' problems regarding the living environment remained roughly the same. A fifth of the households included in the survey named problems with pollution, dirt and other environmental problems caused by transport and industry. About a tenth of those polled meanwhile complained about crime in their environment. Respondents' opinions on their health also remained almost the same. In 2007, 17% of the respondents said their health was very good and 3% said it was very bad.

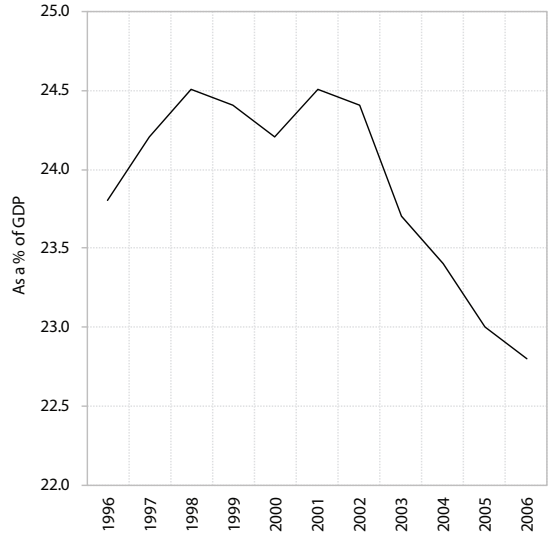
6.1.2 Social protection

The social protection system provides services and income that preserve and improve the quality of life. In this system, social protection programmes are divided into eight functions[86] – the beneficiaries of services and receipts aimed at alleviating the burden of certain risks or satisfying particular needs.

In 2006, Slovenia allocated 22.8% of GDP for social protection, down from 23.0% of GDP in 2005. In real terms, social protection expenditure increased by 4.1%. Slovenia's social protection expenditure is 4.1 p.p. below the EU-27 average. In the EU, the differences are significant, with expenditures ranging from 12.4% in Estonia to 31.1% in France.

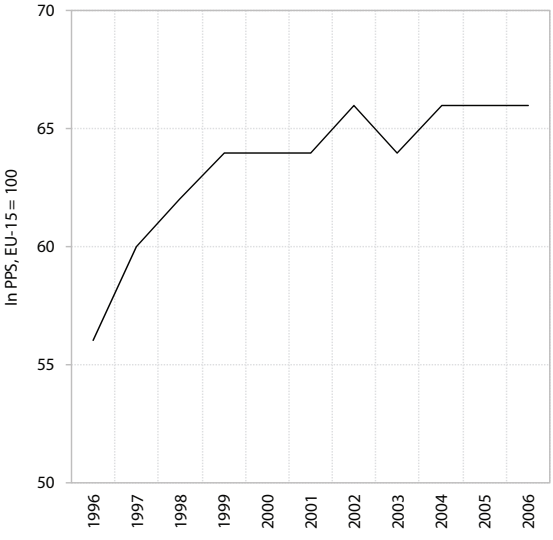
Like other EU countries, Slovenia earmarked the bulk of social protection expenditure in 2006 for old age (37.9%) and sickness and health care (32.1%), followed by expenditure on children and family, and on people with disabilities. Unemployment benefits, expenditure on survivors and expenditure on other forms of social exclusion represent a smaller share of total social protection expenditures.

Figure 35: **Social protection expenditure as a share of GDP, Slovenia, 1996–2006, in %**



Source: Eurostat, ESSPROS.

Figure 36: **Per capita social protection expenditure in Slovenia, in PPS, 1996–2006, EU-15 = 100**



Source: Eurostat, ESSPROS.

[84] In the Survey on Living Conditions, adequate food is defined as meat every other day or equivalent vegetarian food.
[85] For 2007, unexpected expenses were set at 440 euros.
[86] In accordance with the European Statistics Office's ESSPROS (European System of integrated Social Protection Statistics); these functions are: sickness and health care, disability, old age, survivors, family and children, unemployment, housing (pre-2004 data for Slovenia is not available) and other forms of social exclusion.

Table 36: **Per capita social protection expenditure by function, Slovenia and EU-25 average, 2000 and 2006 (in PPS)**

Social protection function/year	Slovenia		EU-25		Slovenia/ index	
					EU-25 = 100	
	2000	2006	2000	2006	2000	2006
Total[1] social protection expenditure	3,588.7	4,681.6	5,084.5	6,375.2	71	73
Sickness and health care	1,100.1	1,501.4	1,394.9	1,860.6	79	81
Disability	323.6	395.9	403.3	477.1	77	83
Old age	1,551.7	1,774.6	2,046.6	2,548.3	76	70*
Survivors	71.0	349.8	336.0	394.6	21	89*
Children and family	330.6	400.4	420.9	509.4	79	79
Unemployment	153.0	142.1	312.9	357.5	49	40
Housing	N/A	3.3	110.6	144.9	N/A	2
Other forms of social exclusion	58.8	114.1	59.2	82.9	99	138

Source: Eurostat/ ESSPROS, Social benefits per head of population by function, EU portal; calculations by IMAD.
Notes: PPS – purchasing power standards; N/A – not available; * change of methodology. [1]Figures exclude administrative costs.

The share of GDP spent on individual functions remained roughly level in the 2000–2006 period, with the exception of old age and survivors, where expenditures dropped and increased, respectively, due to methodological changes.

Per capita social protection expenditure, expressed in purchasing power standards (PPS), reached 73% of the EU-25 average. The figure has been rising since 2000 although Slovenia's rating is not the same across all areas.

7 Subjective perceptions of living conditions

In addition to statistical indicators of a population's living conditions, an important aspect of assessing quality of life and the effectiveness of policies is the subjective perception of the situation in different social spheres. The first level of analysis is perceptions of the personal and family situation, measured by indicators of subjective happiness and satisfaction with life, health, life optimism, social inclusion, and feelings of security, and the household's material situation. The second level is subjective assessments of the functioning of the key social systems, primarily the political, economic, social-welfare, health-care and educational systems. Clearly, the two levels are not separate, as an individual's and his or her family's social situation is the lens through which developments in the society at large are viewed. Conversely, general developments in society are reflected in the most private domains, such as feelings of happiness and health. The indicators chosen for analysis are up-to-date where possible,[87] mainly focused on observing national opinion trends and partly on general comparisons of Slovenia within Europe.

7.1 Individuals' personal and family situation

7.1.1 Happiness and satisfaction with life

Although happiness may seem a highly subjective feeling, it is, according to Durkheim (1972), primarily a collective feeling within a certain social environment. Research over the past decades has indicated that in economically less developed societies – as compared with developed ones – people "are aware of being deprived, worry much more about how to meet the demands of everyday life, and are generally less likely to feel satisfied with life or happy in life" (Inkeles,

In economically less developed countries, happiness and satisfaction primarily depend on economic welfare, while in relatively prosperous societies they depend on gender and income equality, human rights and political freedom, and access to knowledge and information.

[87] The main data sources have been the surveys conducted by the Centre for Public Opinion Research (CJMMK), Faculty of Social Sciences (FDV) in autumn 2006/1 (ESS – European Social Survey 2006) and spring 2007 (SJM – Slovenian Public Opinion 2007), respectively, while data from a considerable number of previous SJM surveys has also been used. The sources of international comparisons are ESS 2002 and ESS 2004.

Table 37: **Subjective feelings of happiness, Slovenia, 1997–2007, %**

Year	97	98	99	00	01	02	03	04	05	06	07
not happy (0–3)	6.6	9.6	4.3	5.3	5.1	5.7	5.5	4.1	4.1	4.9	4.3
medium (4–6)	43.6	43.8	36.1	36.6	35.6	31.3	35.9	28.2	28.8	34.1	26.9
happy (7–10)	48.3	45.5	59.4	57.2	58.7	62.3	57.6	67.0	66.0	59.7	67.1

Source: Slovenian Public Opinion 1997–2007, Faculty of Social Sciences (FDV) – CJMMK.
Note: The question asked was: Please use a 0–10 scale to assess your feelings as to your personal happiness in general, with 0 meaning that you are not happy at all and 10 that you are very happy (SJM, 2005).

1993). In Western societies, happiness strongly depends on the quality of intimate bonds, physical health and the feeling of having control over the environment. However, differences in the degree of happiness by no means simply reflect different levels of economic development, as in economically highly developed countries, the correlation between economic prosperity and mental wellbeing is weaker than in less developed environments (Bernik, 2004). Within Europe, Slovenia ranks in the bottom third of countries according to assessments of subjective happiness and satisfaction, together with other transitional and South-Mediterranean states. This is a group of states with lower averages compared with Scandinavian and Western-European societies.

At the level of the national sample of adult residents of Slovenia, the figures initially indicate a downward trend of happiness, particularly in the late 1990s i.e. a period still characterised by the transitional wave of redundancies, massive retirements and a stronger presence of socio-economic risks and shocks in general. Beginning with 1999, however, the trend turned upwards, roughly corresponding with the developments in economic and social conditions, where the situation – primarily as concerns the threat of unemployment – was gradually improving. The group of the "non-happy" had dropped to below 5% by 2004, while the group of the "happy", notwithstanding certain fluctuations, has come to almost total 70% in recent measurements. This description seems to confirm that macro-social factors are related with subjective happiness, from which it naturally follows that a reverse trend may be expected when economic and – primarily – social conditions deteriorate.

Other analyses of personal happiness in Slovenia indicate that of all factors, the most crucial two are self-assessed health and marital status (Bernik, 2004). People who assess their health as poor also assess their happiness and life satisfaction substantially worse, as this is something that most directly affects the entirety of an individual's life. On the other hand, an equally important factor of satisfaction is the family situation or the level of harmony in the family, and the quality and density of social bonds in general. Here it is the group of the old that is most "deprived", experiencing a gradual loss of social bonds because of retirement-related loss of social contacts and the deaths of those close to them, stronger feelings of a lack of safety and a worse material situation, which also entails reduced mobility. The average assessment of subjective happiness is higher in groups with higher education or income, as well as in the employed over the unemployed. Retired persons score worse than those who are employed but better than the unemployed, which confirms that these two statuses are factors in declining subjective satisfaction.

Factors involved in a low assessment of personal happiness include poor health, disharmony in the family, lack of social bonds, low educational attainment and lack of socio-economic security.

7.1.2 Health

The relation of health to social inequality has already been empirically confirmed many times, as in almost every country, health statistics indicate higher disease and death rates in lower social classes for all medical conditions, higher incidence of all chronic diseases, shorter life expectancy and lower birth weight. Stress-related life events, on the other hand, are not necessarily economic in nature (e.g. low standard of living and related worries, or unemployment and fear of the future), but may also be personal (i.e. family problems, death of a close person, accidents, etc.). Some of the research also suggests a link between gender roles and the medical consequences of certain causes of stress. A similar event can produce different levels of stress in different people, depending on how important it is for them with respect

Table 38: **Assessed health, and chronic disease as a hindrance, Slovenia, 2002, 2004, 2006**

Assessed health[1]				Chronic disease as a hindrance[2]			
	ESS02	ESS04	ESS06		ESS02	ESS04	ESS06
Good	56.3	54.1	55.2	yes, rather	10.4	9.4	11.4
Satisfactory	31.8	33.8	33.9	yes, to some extent	22.1	24.2	21.3
Bad	11.7	12.0	10.7	no	67.2	66.1	66.9

Source: European Social Survey 2002–2006, Faculty of Social Sciences (FDV) – CJMMK.
Notes: [1] How would you assess your health in general? Would you say that it is … … 1 – very good, 2 – good, 3 – satisfactory, 4 – bad, 5 – very bad (ESS 2002–2006). [2] Are you hampered in your daily activities in any way by any longstanding illness, or disability, infirmity or mental problem? 1 – yes, rather, 2 – yes, to some extent, 3 – no (ESS 2002–2006).

to their status or role. Changes in their social network (e.g. loss of a close person, divorce, etc.) are thus generally more stressful for women, while changes in work status (actual or imminent unemployment, low income) are more stressful for men.

Between-group comparisons reveal that according to the measurement of 2006, the share of those assessing their health as good (i.e. either as "very good" or "good") totals 55.2% in Slovenia, while assessments differ by sub-groups of respondents. More men than women give positive assessments, a fact partly attributable to women's higher average age due to their longer life expectancy and partly to the workings of social stereotypes, as women are considerably more ready to admit health problems than men.

Self-assessment of health mainly depends on age and education: it is deteriorating with age while improving with education.

As expected, differences in health assessments are widest across age groups, since 60–80% of those aged under 45 assess their health as good, while only 20–25% of those aged over 60 do so. On the other hand, the relation between an individual's self-assessment of health and his/her age is more complex than it seems at the first glance, as it is strongly affected by factors such as education and income. Respondents with higher education and income thus assess their health as substantially better in all age groups. That is to say, self-assessed health, as expected, deteriorates in higher age groups, but it does so to a substantially lesser extent in respondents with a more favourable social position as regards material income and cultural capital, which is generally associated with education.

7.1.3 Social networks

In addition to trust, social networks are a further key factor of social capital, as a source of social support for individuals as well as social inclusion. Social support plays a vital role in stress-related diseases, supposedly protecting against stressful environmental factors as well as having positive effects on mental and physical health in general; however, it is the subjective perception of its existence or availability that is especially important here. There are several types of social support. Instrumental or material support is aid in the material sense (e.g. lending money or tools, helping in the household). Information support relates to information for a person (e.g. when moving house or looking for a job). Emotional support is help provided in major or minor life crises (e.g. death of a close person, divorce, problems in the family or at work). The final form of support is socialising (Hlebec, Kogovšek, 2003). Empirical research indicates that mental wellbeing crucially depends on the boundary line between those who have at least one intimate person in their network and those who do not. In analysing the availability of social support, it is important to also consider certain characteristics of the network, such as its size, density and strength of the bonds, as it is not only the number but also the quality of bonds, or the content of relationships that counts. What is also characteristic of a network is the "specialisation" of types of support. Emotional support and socialising are thus generally provided by those people who are the closest to an individual (i.e. partner and closest relatives and friends).

As mentioned, people's mental wellbeing shows the results of a crucial boundary between those who have at least one person to talk to about personal things and those who do not. In the measurement of 2006, 90% of the respondents affirmed that they did have such a person. Hence, according to their own reports, around 10% of people aged over 15 do not have a confidential person, thus lacking access to an important segment of social support. However, this percentage varies across population groups. It is thus substantially higher in the group of those aged over 60 (totalling around 20%) than in other age categories (where it is has stayed below 10%). It is also higher in the unemployed than in the employed. Age and unemployment thus more frequently entail absence of a confidential relationship, which is a further aspect of marginalisation and – indirectly – of social exclusion of those population categories.

The other indicator measures the frequency of an individual's socialising with friends, relatives or work associates. On all three measurements, the socialising pattern of one-third of the respondents was found to be very intense (almost everyday). A typical representative of this group is rather young or middle-aged, employed, with an active rhythm of work and intense contacts with relatives. The socialising pattern of one-half of the population was found to be somewhat less intense

Table 39: **Social support and social networks, Slovenia, 2002, 2004, 2006**

Existence of a confidential person[1]				**Frequency of socialising[2]**			
	ESS02	**ESS04**	**ESS06**		**ESS02**	**ESS04**	**ESS06**
yes	88.9	90.4	89.8	less than once a month	13.4	11.1	12.0
no	10.2	8.5	8.6	several times per month	51.6	51.7	55.6
				almost every day	34.8	36.9	32.1

Source: European Social Survey 2002–2006, Faculty of Social Sciences (FDV) – CJMMK.
Notes: [1] Do you have anyone with whom you can discuss intimate and personal matters? (ESS 2002–2006). [2] Please assess how often you meet friends, relatives or colleagues for the purposes of socialising? 1 – never, 2 – less than once a month, 3 – once a month, 4 – several times per month, 5 – once a week, 6 – several times per week, 7 – every day (ESS 2002–2006).

(several times per month), which may also result from their lack of time or being "overburdened" with work or family. Especially problematic, however, is the group with very infrequent social contacts (less than once per month), comprising a disproportionally large share of elderly and/or retired persons, who have characteristically lost their work bonds and are losing their family and friendship bonds.

7.1.4 Criminality, feelings of lack of safety

An important aspect of the quality of an individual's life is a feeling of personal safety or its absence. There are two different levels of criminality in a society – the one objectively measured out and the one subjectively perceived. And it is primarily the latter that influences the quality of life in the aspect of personal satisfaction and feelings of safety.

Around 10% of all the respondents feel unsafe when walking alone around their neighbourhood at night. The share of those reporting actual experiences of criminality is roughly the same. We may undoubtedly conclude that for this one-tenth, movement outside of home is partly limited, and that because of their fear of attack they are self-excluded from certain social activities. Feelings of a lack of safety are somewhat more typical of women than men, of the elderly than the young, as well as of the lowest income bracket and those primarily engaged in housework.

7.1.5 Families' material situation

The material situation of a family depends, of course, on its position in the social class system, and it is the most direct "lever" ("case") in translating macro-social developments and risks – especially socio-economic ones – onto the family or the personal level, where they are reflected in "soft" indicators, such as personal happiness and life satisfaction. Measures relating to families' material situation are the lever through which a state has the greatest power to influence the level of its citizens' satisfaction. The table below presents the respondents' assessments of their general satisfaction with the material circumstances of their families in the last decade.[88] The figures indicate that satisfaction has notably increased, especially between 1997 and 2006, when the share of those on the "satisfied" end of the scale (values 7–10) grew from 29.35% to 51.9%. On the level of this indicator, we may thus conclude that the average household's material welfare improved in those years. The figure for 2007, however, indicates a satisfaction drop, but it will take at least one more measurement to become clear whether this is a change in the trend or just a short-term fluctuation.

Households' satisfaction with their material circumstances was growing in the past ten years. In 2007, however, a drop in satisfaction was recorded.

Notwithstanding the conclusion on a general growing trend of satisfaction in the past ten years, considerable differences have persisted among particular social groups. Characteristically, satisfaction with his/her family's material circumstances grows with the respondent's education and income, and it is higher in the employed than in the unemployed.

Relative deprivation does not so much depend on want of basic material goods, but rather on whether the household can afford things considered as normal in the context of a certain society or at least within a particular reference group.

The next indicator measures a family's material situation more concretely, with the respondents reporting where – if anywhere – their family has to economise in their consumption.[89]

Table 40: **Criminality in Slovenia; feelings of lack of safety and actual experience of criminality, 2002, 2004, 2006, %**

Feelings of unsafety[1]				Actual experience of criminality[2]			
	ESS02	ESS04	ESS06		ESS02	ESS04	ESS06
very safe	29.0	28.3	27.0	yes	11.5	11.8	13.5
safe	60.5	61.0	61.3	no	88.5	87.9	86.2
unsafe	8.9	8.5	9.2				
very unsafe	0.9	1.0	1.0				

Source: European Social Survey 2002–2006, Faculty of Social Sciences (FDV) – CJMMK..
Notes: [1] How safe do you feel (would you feel) when you walk (or if you walked) alone around your neighbourhood at night? (ESS 2002–2006). [2] Have you yourself or any member of your household been a victim of burglary or assault in the last five years? (ESS 2002–2006).

[88] How do you assess the material circumstances in which you and your family live? Assess them on a 1–10 scale (SJM 1997–2007).
[89] Could you say for you and your family that …
1 – you want nothing in particular, do not specifically economise on anything
2 – you do tend to economise, but only on less important things like luxury
3 – you have to spend very cautiously to make ends meet, economising on clothing and similar
4 – you strongly restrain yourself in consumption, also economising on food
5 – you live in want of basic goods
6 – you live in poverty (SJM 2005/1)

As is clear from the table (Could you say for you and your family that you...), the last seventeen years have seen a positive shift, with the share of those reporting that they do not restrain themselves in their consumption or only economise on luxury goods having grown from 35.1% to 64.6%. This rise is mainly attributable to the mid-1990s, while the rise of the last decade amounts to around 8 p.p. The figures for 2007 indicate that two-thirds of families live in a relative material prosperity and that relative deprivation is not very widespread. Conversely, the share of households that must spend very cautiously to survive dropped from one half to one fourth in a fifteen-year period, while the share of those close to or below the at-risk-of-poverty threshold dropped from 14.1% to 4.9%. The latter share primarily decreased in the mid-1990s, but has remained unchanged during the past decade. Between-group comparisons reveal the expected education- and income-related differences. Within the favourable general trend, relative differences are persisting and may even be widening.

A comparison based on relative differences within a social environment is also found in Wilkinson's study (in Annandale 1998), revealing that there is a threshold beyond which an absolute rise in a certain society's standard of living no longer results in a prolongation of the individual's

Unrealistic assessments of the general economic trends and the extent of poverty. From where?

It is clear from respondents' answers that they subjectively perceive their household's material situation rather favourably. On the other hand, they typically assess the general economic trends in the country significantly worse, while generally also considerably overestimating the percentage of the poor.

The first possible explanation is the patterns of how members of different social groups classify themselves into social classes or stratums *(Which social group – stratum or class – would you say you belong to? Is it the bottommost, the working, the middle, the upper-middle, or the upper social class or stratum? (SJM-ISSP, 1998)*. What particularly stands out here is the fact that materially rather diverse social groups position themselves as the middle class: the modal social class position in all education, vocation and income groups is in the middle. Self-positioning seems not to be based on "objective" knowledge of income distribution or class structure but rather on non-objective, non-universal reference points, reaching in a disproportionately large number into the respondent's own living environment and social bonds. **An individual generally has a rather limited empirical overview of the living experience of other social groups and thus generalises the experience of his/her own social environment (family, friends, colleagues), perceiving it as "typical" i.e. characteristic of the majority, or the middle.**

The other possible explanation is mental pictures of the general society's stratification, or the way in which the respondents perceive the contemporary Slovenian society in terms of its "social shape". Is it pyramid-like (with the majority of the people at the middle or bottom of the social scale) or is its most extensive (majority) stratum the middle? It turns out that over one-half of the respondents perceive the Slovenian society to be pyramid-shaped, and less than one-half as most extensive in its middle stratum, even though most position themselves in the middle. Where, then, does this gap between the "pyramid-like" perception of society and self-positioning in the middle stem from, or why is the image of the number of those at the bottom "overinflated" relative to objective income data as well as to subjective positioning into a class?
Primarily, the answer must be sought in an analysis of from where and how the respondents actually gain experience of the form of stratification or the structure of society in general. We may assume that this experience is mainly indirect, mediated by the media. What indicates that the selection of a picture of society involves mediation is the mentioned fact that only a minority of those who choose elitist pictures of the Slovenian society position themselves at the bottom rather than – like the large majority – in the middle of those pictures. So it is not themselves who they place at the bottom; they mainly ascribe this to others. However, more direct, empirical evidence for this thesis could only be provided by way of analysing the substance of media reporting on the topic of social inequalities, or the discourse and tone used, as well as the audience and the way in which the messages are received. Could the reason for the predominant pyramid-like image be that the media mainly present this topic through "excesses" at the two extreme poles of the stratification scale (i.e. extreme poverty and exploitation versus extreme wealth, missappropriation, corruption, and "tycoons"), which results in a picture of dramatic differences and an elitist structure of the society? Are the two extreme social classes, due to the logic of drawing the audience, more attractive for the media than the middle, "average" one? Is this the reason why most respondents see themselves in the middle, while assuming that there are a multitude of the poor?

The empirical data level only provides us with some indirect suggestions of a wider cluster of the respondents' images or beliefs relating to social inequalities and their origins. Those who see Slovenian society as elitist in the mentioned survey also agree more with the statement that in Slovenia one may only come to the top through corruption, as well as agreeing more with a need of the "common people" to radically do away with inequalities, perceiving a stronger presence of conflicts between "the poor" and "the rich" or "the top" and "the bottom" of society, as well as having less trust for social institutions (the national assembly, the economy, the judiciary), all of which points to the probable existence of a wider cluster of beliefs relating to a non-egalitarian society and unjust mechanisms of wealth distribution.

Table 41: **How do you assess the material circumstances in which you and your family live? Slovenia, 1997–2007, %**

Year	97	98	99	00	01	02	03[2]	04	05	06	07
dissatisfied (0,1–4)	19.8	25.7	22.2	16.8	14.7	15.1	14.5	–	14.8	14.9	22.6
medium (5–6)	49.5	42.0	45.4	38.6	40.5	45.5	39.2	–	34.4	32.9	34.7
satisfied (7–10)	29.3	31.4	30.9	43.8	44.0	37.4	45.8	–	50.3	51.9	41.3

Source: Slovenian public opinion 1997–2007, Faculty of Social Sciences (FDV) – CJMMK.
Notes: The question asked was: How do you assess the material circumstances in which you and your family live? Assess them on a 1–10 scale (SJM 1997–2007). 1 Since 2003, a 0–10 scale (unlike the previous 1–10 scale).

Table 42: **Could you say for you and your family that you …, Slovenia, 1990–1997, %**

%	1990	1992	1997	1999	2001	2003	2005	2007
want nothing	5.5	9.5	16.9	11.6	13.6	17.6	19.4	19.9
only economise on luxury	29.6	33.6	40.1	47.8	46.3	48.6	48.9	44.7
economise on clothing	49.7	45.7	37.1	33.3	35.0	29.4	26.0	28.8
economise on food, basic goods, live in poverty	14.1	9.8	4.4	4.6	4.9	3.6	4.9	4.9

Source: Slovenian public opinion 1990–2007, Faculty of Social Sciences (FDV) – CJMMK.

life expectancy. Even if the standard continues to improve, life expectancy will not rise anymore. The reason is that in societies having surpassed a certain threshold of welfare, the key factor for health (and people's general mental wellbeing) comes to be relative social differences i.e. an individual's and his/her family's standard of living compared with others in the society.

> Empirical research confirms that it is precisely relative comparisons with the environment (i.e. relative socio-economic differences) in an individual that result in negative psycho-social effects or stress, the feeling of being deprived and without prospects, frustrations, fear of the future, and the feeling of being poor.

Comparisons of the population's health in developed countries (which all have a high absolute standard) point to a very interesting fact: the most healthy people are not those in the wealthiest states (with respect to GDP), but rather those in the most egalitarian ones. This finding has a high political relevance, indicating that despite a satisfactory absolute material standard, social inequality in fact continues to be an important variable in, say, accounts of the social distribution of health. Not counting the situation of absolute deprivation, which the majority of the developed countries have already surpassed, the main predictor of effects harmful for health (and mental wellbeing) is precisely the level of social inequality in those societies. It seems that something similar holds for feeling poor in a certain society. In Slovenia, the increasing trend towards wealth and the wealthy (strongly emphasised primarily by the media) has thus resulted in a general feeling that poverty is increasing – as, according to Townsend (in Scott, 1994), poverty (or deprivation) is defined in relation to the average expectations. With individuals becoming rich, average expectations become increasingly more discordant with the socio-economic situation of the observer, who experiences this as a lack of capability and opportunities for him- or herself.

7.2 Subjective assessments of, and satisfaction with, developments in the society in general

What follows is an analysis of respondents' subjective assessments of the functioning of social systems, from the political, economic and social-welfare systems to health-care and educational systems. As mentioned, the levels of an individual and of society in general are interrelated, as the social situation of a respondent in a Slovenian Public Opinion survey is the lens through which he/she largely judges general social developments.

7.2.1 Perceptions of trends in social systems (1997–2007)

The SJM survey provides a series of retrospective indicators on which respondents assess middle-term trends in different social spheres from the current time point, comparing the situation as it is now with the situation as they believe it was a certain number of years ago.[90] The comparisons cover the majority of the key spheres of social life, especially those related to people's socio-economic situation and the functioning of democracy.

Figures indicate that in 1997–2007, the largest average share of perceived positive shifts was recorded in education (47.4%), followed by the democratic character of decision-making (29%). In 2007, however, perceptions

[90] ... If you compare life in Slovenia today with the circumstances of around five years ago, do you judge the circumstances with respect to the enumerated things as considerably better, better, approximately the same, worse or considerably worse today? (SJM 1997–2007)
... If you compare life in Slovenia today with the circumstances of around ten years ago. (SJM 2005)

Table 43: **Perceptions of changes in the level of democracy and in social conditions, Slovenia, 1997–2007, %**

Sum of answers "considerably better today" and "better today"	1997	1999	2001	2003	2005[1]	2007	Negative assessment in 2007[2]
availability of education	38.7	36.9	52.1	53.9	-	47.4	13.1
democratic character of decision-making	40.3	29.0	27.2	27.6	-	22.3	26.2
respect of human rights	34.7	24.6	25.4	24.6	-	23.3	28.9
health care	17.4	17.4	24.0	19.2	-	16.7	42.4
how people live	15.9	18.5	20.6	19.2	-	19.1	46.6
legality	14.9	11.9	13.9	12.1	-	11.1	30.4
influence of expertise on governmental decisions	15.1	7.5	13.5	11.7	-	10.5	34.5
having and sustaining children	7.5	8.1	12.5	11.9	-	12.8	50.9
availability of employment	2.8	7.2	7.8	5.2	-	6.4	64.9
availability of housing	4.2	7.5	7.6	6.5	-	10.2	71.4

Source: Slovenian Public Opinion 1990–2007, Faculty of Social Sciences (FDV) – CJMMK.
Note: [1] A non-comparable measurement, as here the time period covered by retrospective comparisons was longer (10 years). [2] A negative assessment is defined as the sum of the shares of the assessments "considerably worse today" and "worse today".

Table 44: **Satisfaction with social (sub)systems, current measurements, Slovenia, 2002, 2004 and 2006, %**

Economic situation				Functioning of democracy			
	ESS02	ESS04	ESS06		ESS02	ESS04	ESS06
dissatisfied (0–3)	40.1	32.8	25.9	dissatisfied (0–3)	34.6	29.2	30.2
medium (4–6)	41.8	46.8	44.9	medium (4–6)	41.7	46.8	41.6
satisfied (7–10)	16.1	17.5	25.4	satisfied (7–10)	19.5	18.2	21.6
Situation in education				**Situation in health care**			
	ESS02	ESS04	ESS06		ESS02	ESS04	ESS06
bad (0–3)	21.0	24.0	19.8	bad (0–3)	31.4	29.3	25.9
medium (4–6)	38.8	42.7	41.5	medium (4–6)	39.2	42.6	40.4
good (7–10)	34.7	26.7	32.1	good (7–10)	27.5	27.1	32.4

Source: ESS 2002–2006.
Note: The question asked was: How satisfied are you in general with the current economic situation in Slovenia?
How satisfied are you in general with the functioning of democracy in Slovenia? highly dissatisfied 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 highly satisfied
How good do you judge the general situation in education/health care in Slovenia to be today? extremely bad 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 extremely good

of improvements declined in all spheres. The shares of those perceiving positive trends remained unchanged or in some cases had slightly dropped (education) or slightly grown (availability of housing).

Taken in general, we may thus say of collective perceptions of trends that the public is perceiving positive shifts primarily in education and democratic rights, but not in other social spheres, a fact that may seem inconsistent with the cited data on the relative welfare of two thirds of the population. One reason for this inconsistency is the very methodology of the surveys, as positive shifts are less likely to be reflected in respondents' subjective retrospective assessments, as their perspective is too strongly marked by the presence of current problems which, being nearby, always make the picture of the current moment worse, resulting in an unfavourable starting point for retrospective comparisons. On the other hand, however, such indicators disclose trends in the public's collective perceptions, which are also an important social fact, which may be even more important, politically, than the statistically established trends. Actual positive shifts, however, are better determined by a sequence of current measurements, where respondents assess the current circumstances.

Prospective measurements of people's views, in which respondents report their satisfaction with the current situation, reveal a somewhat different picture than retrospective assessments. As concerns assessments of the situation in the economy in 2002–2006, the group of the dissatisfied thus significantly shrank, reflecting a positive trend of public perceptions. Proportionally, the medium group remained the largest throughout the time, while for the two extreme groups, there was a considerable "migration" to the benefit of the satisfied group.

Table 45: **Trust in institutions, Slovenia, 2002, 2004 and 2006, %**

National Assembly				Legal system			
	ESS02	ESS04	ESS06		ESS02	ESS04	ESS06
does not trust (0–4)	40.3	39.8	35.8	does not trust (0–4)	38.5	46.0	39.5
medium (5–6)	39.8	39.1	42.5	medium (5–6)	35.3	33.9	36.7
trusts (7–10)	15.9	17.3	16.8	trusts (7–10)	21.9	15.6	18.4
Police				**Politicians**			
	ESS02	ESS04	ESS06		ESS02	ESS04	ESS06
does not trust (0–4)	30.9	32.7	29.7	does not trust (0–4)	57.0	57.4	56.0
medium (5–6)	37.8	38.3	37.9	medium (5–6)	34.3	33.5	32.9
trusts (7–10)	29.1	26.2	29.8	trusts (7–10)	6.1	6.2	8.1

Source: European Social Survey 2002–2006, Faculty of Social Sciences (FDV) – CJMMK.

Between-group comparisons based on the Slovenian sample indicate that the situation in the economy is being assessed much more positively by the younger, the educated, the employed and those in higher income brackets i.e. groups generally considered the winners of transition, whose personal economic situation is typically above-average.

In assessments of the functioning of democracy, shifts have been less pronounced or non-systematic. The medium group has predominated here as well, while the two extreme groups have remained approximately equally large. This distribution pattern keeps Slovenia in the group of transitional countries, as international comparisons indicate that in most of the countries included in the European Social Survey, the average figure reflects satisfaction rather than dissatisfaction, with the Scandinavian countries and Switzerland – with average assessments totalling between 6 and 8 – holding the lead. In the four transitional countries (i.e. Poland, Slovenia, Hungary and the Czech Republic), however, the situation is different, with the average assessment totalling less than 5, meaning that non-satisfaction is predominant. The problem of democratic systems in transitional countries is not so much that they lack a long tradition but rather that they do not (yet) function in accordance with expectations, with both factors being, of course, at least partly interdependent.

The situation in education also does not demonstrate a clear trend, which may be attributed either to the short period covered by the comparisons or to the rapidly changing systemic solutions. Part of the problem is also that education is being assessed as a whole, while the educational system in fact consists of relatively independent subsystems – particularly as concerns higher education – and respondents may be assessing trends in one subsystem differently from those in another. According to the last measurement, in 2006, the medium group predominates here as well, while the group of the satisfied is larger than that on the other side. More clearly defined is the trend recorded for health care system assessments, which have been improving since 2002, with the group of the dissatisfied shrinking to the benefit of that of the satisfied. This trend has not been very pronounced, however, and the measurement of autumn 2008 will show whether it will persist.

The final group of indicators of satisfaction with the functioning of the democratic system is trust in certain important institutions,[91] and strong trust from citizens is, naturally, one of the key bases of institutions' legitimacy.

Trust in the above institutions is not exceptionally strong while it is also not so weak that it would entail a threat to the democratic system's legitimacy. In this respect, it is, however, in every way desirable that trends in the middle and long terms should be positive.

[91] Assess on a 0–10 scale how much you personally trust each of the below institutions, 0 indicating that you do not trust it at all and 10 that you trust it completely.

mobility

Introduction

"*By social mobility is understood any transition of an individual or social object or value – anything that has been created or modified by human activity – from one social position to another,*" the pioneer of the scientific analysis of mobility Pitirim A. Sorokin wrote eighty years ago in his book Social and Cultural Mobility (Sorokin, 1927). Sorokin distinguishes between *horizontal* and *vertical* social mobility. The first refers to transitions within the society – a change of role without any simultaneous change of social position (e.g. transition from Catholicism to Protestantism, from one family to another, etc.), while vertical social mobility involves a change of social status (e.g. promotion at work, additional education).

If social mobility (horizontal and vertical) means transitions within the social environment, the other type of mobility refers to transitions within the geographic environment. The latter is referred to as migration. Although the two cases of mobility are interconnected, often even intertwined, they cannot be considered the same. In migration, a territorial transition (such as change of residence) is essential and often implies a transition in the social hierarchy, while social mobility is characterised by a change in social interactions, which do not necessarily involve territorial transition.

This publication will focus on spatial mobility, particularly migration. Although this type of mobility often also implies a change of social position, social mobility will only receive partial consideration as the indirect social consequences of migration require at least as much attention.

Although migration is not a new phenomenon, it has been particularly strong over the last decades, mostly owing to globalisation. If in the past migration was restricted to the geographical aspect (e.g. migration from Europe to America) or occurred as a result of (natural) disasters (e.g. escaping the famine in Ireland through emigration to the USA), migrations are now present anywhere and at any time. Generally speaking, migration patterns may be seen as a reflection of the rapid change of economic, political, and cultural ties among countries (Gidens, 2001). They are, however, driven by different factors and are thus classified differently by different researchers. On the one hand, there are reasons attracting people to another place, while on the other there are those pushing them away (push-pull theory; push-pull factors). It may be said that some reasons are linked to individual or family wishes for a better life in a different place – i.e. personal reasons – while others involve a threat to their lives or life styles in their place of residence, such as unemployment, war, hunger, etc. These are known as social reasons.

The classification of migration differs from expert to expert. The basic classification involves two categories of migration: *security* (natural disasters, conflicts, threats to personal security, poor political perspective) and *economy* (poor economic situation). Gidens distinguishes four basic models that exist since 1954. The *classic model* of migration applies to the more or less mass emigrations to overseas countries, such as the Unites States, Canada and Australia, which have developed as *nations of immigrants*. In such cases, immigration

International studies usually define the reasons for leaving a certain area (push factors) and the reasons for migrating to a specific area (pull factors) pursuant to the push-pull theory. Essentially, the push-pull factor model is economic, as it is dominated by economic factors. However, this model has been increasingly shaped by other factors as well, particularly the political situation and the socio-psychological and cultural-ethnic factors characterising the individual or the society in a certain moment. The main push factors include: inadequate number and structure of jobs in the home community, better pay for the same job, interest in working abroad, additional income, availability and qualification of the population. Moreover, the reasons for migration may be linked to study possibilities, lower housing prices in the target community, a cleaner and more pleasant environment, religious intolerance, etc.

The push factors relate to the country or place of emigration, while the pull factors relate to the country or place of immigration. Some factors may involve both e.g. education, industry, etc. Since different researchers list different factors, a summary of all is given below.

Push factors:
- not enough jobs,
- few opportunities,
- political fear,
- violence and wars,
- poor medical care,
- not being able to express religious belief,
- loss of wealth,
- natural disasters,
- death threats,
- slavery,
- pollution,
- poor housing,
- landlords,
- poor chances of finding courtship.

Pull factors:
- job opportunities,
- better living conditions,
- political and/or religious freedom,
- enjoyment,
- education,
- better medical care,
- security,
- family links,
- better chances of finding courtship.

was largely encouraged by the promise of citizenship to newcomers, although annual quotas applied. The *colonial model*, pursued by former colonial countries such as France or the United Kingdom, tends to favour immigrants from former colonies. The third policy is the *guest workers model*, followed by Germany, Switzerland, Belgium, and other Western European countries, which needed new workers to keep up with the rapid economic growth. Under such a scheme, immigrants are admitted on a temporary basis in order to fulfil demands within the labour market, but do not receive citizenship, even after long periods of settlement. The final model refers to *illegal forms* of immigration. Moreover, other classifications exist, based on the emphasis given to migration by individual authors.

The consequences of migration may vary as well. The main consequence is demographic (changes in the population structure) and affects the countries of emigration and immigration. In addition to the desired and undesired demographic consequences, a number of other political, social, and cultural changes occur that are both positive and negative. An example thereof is the strengthening of populist and racist movements in Europe, tending to attribute social problems to the newcomers. There are also other issues, such as integration or assimilation, intolerance and discrimination, exploitation of foreign labour, mixing, co-existence or conflict of different cultures, social mobility of immigrants, etc.

Some migration classifications

Malačič (2003)
- permanent/temporary
- primary/secondary/return
- rural/urban
- individual/group
- voluntary/forced
- invasions

Klinar (1976)
- modern
- contemporary
- economic
- political
- voluntary (work, education, family unification)/forced (refugees and asylum seekers, migrations due to environmental change)
- permanent/temporary
- organised/non-organised
- conservative/innovative
- brain-drain

Classification based on borders
- external (international)
- internal (national)

Classification based on duration
- permanent
- temporary
- daily (commuters)

Textbooks most often describe migration as a positive process and a reflection of the increasing mobility of contemporary society. Only illegal migration is regarded as a problem and thus negative, yet in some parts of the world it is secretly welcome as it enables certain activities which could otherwise not be pursued. This applies in particular to US immigrations from Latin America, and in part also to migration from Africa to individual Western European countries. Another problem is the excessive scope of migration, which may lead to major political and cultural-identification pressures in the immigration countries.

When dealing with migration, double criteria apply. On one hand, some experts favour immigration and consider it equal to migration, while on the other – particularly in international migration – no mention is made of the problem of depopulation in the countries of origin. At the same time, all countries consider depopulation of their territories as very critical and adopt measures to halt it. Particular emphasis is put on the out-migration of the young and educated population. Slovenia is no exception, regretting the emigration of young and educated people while at the same time trying to impose selection on immigrants.

Nevertheless, migration brings a certain flow of information and ideas and is – if two-way – indeed positive. Generally speaking, migration is positive for target destinations, and therefore the most positive evaluations of migration come from immigration areas, which is particularly true for international migration. In this context, the EU makes considerable efforts to introduce circular migration and mobility partnerships with third countries. Migration would thus actually become a useful process, and there would be no more classic areas of in- and out-migration.

In evaluating migration, particular mention needs to be made of the demographic transition i.e. decrease in mortality and fertility. As in the first stage mortality decreased much faster than fertility, a high natural increase enabled heavy emigration from Europe without posing a significant demographic threat to the old continent. This of course led to a faster development of newly settled territories (America, Australia, etc.). Emigration slowed down Europe's development, yet at the same time represented a solution since Europe was unable to employ the growing new population and – in the most extreme cases – even to feed it (as seen in the famine in Ireland and other parts of Europe during crises).

When fertility fell, too, these countries no longer recorded a demographic deficit, migration slowed down and returned to classic economic migration – in search for jobs and/or better pay. Initially, this was only meant as temporary migration, enabling faster earnings abroad and then return and faster development at home. Eventually, it resulted in permanent emigration, which

is also true for Slovenian expatriates and immigrants to Slovenia from other parts of former Yugoslavia.

Since the fertility decline did not stop at the demographic threshold (when fertility still allows population renewal) and the number of deaths slowly began to exceed the number of births, the affected areas developed the wish (or need) for immigration. Here, the second stage of the demographic transition begins, when the natural increase becomes negative and along with extended life expectancy gradually undermines the balance between the active and inactive population. It needs to be said that both Europe and Slovenia will soon face the most critical period of this transition.

In Slovenia, the problem is not merely the decrease in the population, but the reasons for such. When total fertility fell below two children per woman, a backward trend in population was to be expected in the long run. This demographic process began in the early 1980s but was then still not considered a problem. Only the negative increase in the 1990s raised interest in the demographic future, eventually becoming an issue when the less numerous generations began to enter the active population and an increasing number of elderly people became inactive. Today, Slovenia is just at the beginning of this process, particularly if we focus on economic issues and somewhat disregard the demographic aspect.

In terms of inter-generational solidarity, Slovenia will face a very critical period when the numerous generations born after the Second World War will begin to retire, together with the immigrants from the republics of former Yugoslavia, and the less numerous generations born after 1980 will enter active employment. This critical period will only end when the latter will start to retire, which means no sooner than in the 2040s. Since Slovenia also experienced a baby boom after the Second World War and has had high and positive net migration, these problems will be even more pronounced. Considering the population living in Slovenia today and the current figures in individual population age groups, the least favourable demographic age structure is expected between 2020 and 2050, at which point the number of old people should start to decrease as a result of the ageing of less numerous generations.

To solve problems of this kind, countries have adopted various measures, including the encouragement of immigration, which should improve the ratio between active and inactive population, stimulate economic growth, and partly contribute to a higher number of births, providing a new demographic impetus. Such measures may, however, have short- and long-term economic, demographic and social implications.

The strong migration flow from Slovenia prior to the Second World War was one of the main reasons for the

Key terms:

1. **Migration vs. mobility.** Migration is only one aspect of spatial mobility, which implies the movement of the population through space and time. Besides the term migration, international textbooks also refer to mobility. The main difference between them is that migration is, as a general rule, permanent, while mobility designates a temporary change of residence (Key issues for the European higher education area, 2007, p. 10). However, a temporary change of residence may well turn into a permanent one, while a "permanent" change of residence may (after a certain period of time) also turn into a temporary one.
2. **International migration** – according to the Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia (SORS), international migration is spatial movement where previous or next residence of the migrant is in another country. This type of migration is characterised by the crossing of a state border. The term international migration may be replaced with external migration (as used hereinafter).
3. **New definition of population.** The European Commission drafted a Regulation on Community statistics on migration and international protection, which should provide a uniform definition of population to apply throughout the European Union. The regulation entered into force in July 2007 and has been gradually introduced into Member States' national statistics since 2008. SORS, too, is assuming this uniform definition of population. The first data as of 31 December 2008 are expected to be published in the first half of 2009. In this way, the entry of data on those considered to be migrants will also change. According to the new definition, migrants are people who move for at least a year (now: 3 months). Estimates on migration will thus become much more real. Given the one-year residence requirement, migration flows will no longer include seasonal migration, which is most often related to temporary and inadequate housing and actually means an intermediate stage between daily commuting and migration.
4. Migration includes **emigration** and **immigration**, defined by the place of departure and the place of arrival.
5. **Net migration or migration balance** is the difference between the number of people who arrived in a given area within one calendar year (immigrants) and the number of those who left such area in the same calendar year (emigrants).
6. **A foreigner** is a person with foreign citizenship or a person without established citizenship or without citizenship, who has, on the basis of valid permission for residing in Slovenia or a valid work permit or business visa, registered permanent or temporary residence in Slovenia.

slower development in that period. From a contemporary perspective, however, this means that for longer periods of time the shares of older population were much lower than in the countries with less emigration. Post-war immigration thus certainly speeded up economic development in that period.

Considering the expected demographic development, which presents significant problems of inter-generational solidarity, current migrations also need to be evaluated. Immigration is indeed favourable for Slovenia, enabling relatively fast economic development. Also quite understandable is the desire for immigration of highly skilled labour, possibly close to Slovenian culture and values. The regulations on employment of foreign labour (for non-EU countries) are therefore constantly changing. Slovenia is also trying to adjust its regulations on work permits so as to facilitate easier entry and social integration of skilled immigrants. This is also made possible by EU law, which guarantees the principle of subsidiarity to all its Member States.

According to Eurostat's population projections (EUROPOP 2008, convergence scenario), the migration balance in Slovenia is estimated at approximately 6,000 per year in the first period and is expected to fall to 2,000 per year by 2060. Simultaneously, total female fertility is expected to come close to 1.5. Given such trends, the population in Slovenia is estimated to decrease below 1.9 or even 1.8 million by 2060.

This should serve as a basis for Slovenian migration policy. It also needs to be noted that immigration brings social and societal costs. Hitherto, demographic development indicates that highly intense migrations have long-term consequences, and that migration policy should therefore not disregard the integral population policy. In a situation where the natural increase is down to zero, any increase in the population depends exclusively on migration.

Below is a presentation based on available statistical and other data and indicators of migration in Europe, external migration in Slovenia (migration between Slovenia and other countries), internal migration between regions, inter-municipal migration (based on the example of the Municipality of Ljubljana), international student mobility, and sustainable mobility.

1 Migration in Europe

From a historical point of view, Europe had been marked by emigration until some years after the Second World War. Europeans inhabited Australia, North America and partly South America, less of Africa, and practically none of Asia (with the exception of Russians in Siberia). A high natural increase of the population in this period (the demographic transition) made emigration possible without any major demographic and economic consequences. Given this emigration overseas, migration in Europe was less intense. Until the late 1970s, more people emigrated than immigrated from the majority of European countries.

Not earlier than in the 1970s, when more and more European countries completed the demographic transition and thus exhausted their emigrating potential, countries changed progressively from predominantly emigrant to predominantly immigrant countries. In the 1990s, immigration outnumbered emigration even in Southern Europe and Ireland. Most Eastern European countries achieved a similar level of migration potential exhaustion. Their migration increase is not yet positive, although they have become more interesting for immigrants from the Far East as an intermediate station on their way to the West. When the population of Eastern European countries gained the freedom of movement in 1989, it was expected that migration in the east-west direction would strongly increase. It did increase but has never achieved the predicted extent.

Post-war migration in Europe may be divided into three main periods. The period 1950–1975 was marked by strong economic migration from less developed parts of Europe to the more developed areas. This was classic economic migration, influenced by push and pull factors and generally directed from the South to Central and Western Europe. Eastern Europe (except Yugoslavia and illegal migration) was excluded from these migrations owing to its political situation.

The second period was characterised by a decrease in migration, as individual marginal areas were already demographically exhausted, while on the other hand they started to develop themselves. It is possible, however, that a certain share of migration from Asia and Africa was not taken into account because it was illegal.

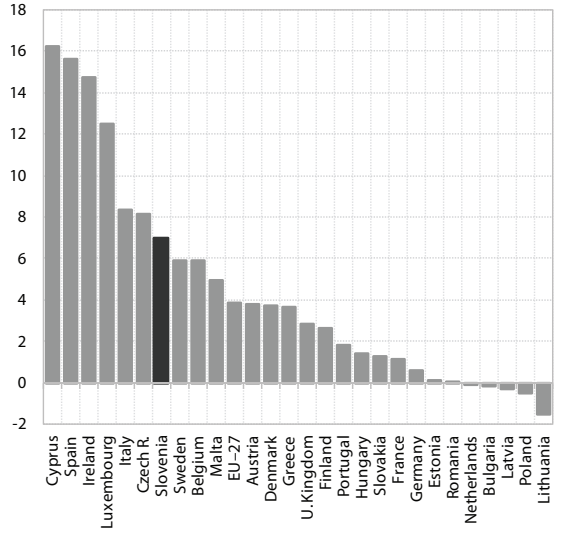
The third period began in the early Nineties following the fall of the Iron Curtain and was dominated by migration from Eastern to Western Europe. Despite the ever-stricter conditions imposed by the EU, the scope of migration from non EU-countries is increasing. The same is true for illegal immigration.

Considering the current demographic situation in Europe, the latter needs high and positive net migration in order to maintain the same population. According to

Eurostat's population projections 2008–2060 (EUROPOP 2008, convergence scenario), the necessary annual net migration in the EU-27 together with Norway and Switzerland is around 700,000 and should reach over 2.2 million by 2050 to maintain the existing population.

In terms of net migration from abroad per 1,000 population, Slovenia ranked in the upper third of the EU-27 in 2007. Net migration per 1,000 population increased between 2004 and 2007.

Figure 37: **Net migration from abroad per 1,000 population, EU-27, 2007**



Source: Eurostat.

The nature of immigration in Europe has been changing. In the first years after the end of the Second World War, displaced persons and refugees from Eastern Europe as well as the return immigrants from former colonies immigrated particularly to Western Europe. In the 1960s and early 1970s, temporary working migrants started to come to Western, Central and Northern Europe, first from Southern Europe along with former Yugoslavia, and then also from Turkey and North Africa. This was a period of economic prosperity, which coincided with the less numerous war generations reaching working age. The oil crisis in the 1970s and xenophobic reactions of the domestic population to foreigners who wanted to settle in their host countries for good resulted in the adoption of restrictive policies which limited immigration to immigration through a family member, to political refugees and asylum applicants. The size of immigration flows has been consequently falling since the second half of the 1970s. The immigration structure consists of ever more refugees, asylum-seekers and illegal migrants.

In 2007, 5.8% of the population in the EU-27 were foreigners. In Slovenia, the share is low compared to other EU countries although growing (accounting for 2.7% in 2007). Slovenia thus ranks among the countries with the lowest share of foreigners.

Table 46: **Share of foreigners, EU-27, 2004–2007**

	Number of foreigners	Increase in the number of foreigners, in %	Share of foreigners compared to total population, in %	
	2007	2004–2007	2004	2007
EU-27	28,913,543	40.9	5.6	5.8
Austria	826,013	7.9	9.4	10.0
Belgium	932,161	8.4	8.3	8.8
Bulgaria	25,500	–	–	0.3
Cyprus	118,100	41.4	11.4	15.2
Czech Rep.	296,236	51.6	1.9	2.9
Denmark	278,096	2.5	5.0	5.1
Estonia	236,400	–	–	17.6
Finland	121,739	13.8	2.0	2.3
France	3,650,100	–	–	5.8
Greece	887,600	–0.4	8.1	7.9
Irland	452,300	127.6	4.9	10.5
Italy	2,938,922	47.7	3.4	5.0
Latvia	432,951	–15.9	22.2	19.0
Lithuania	39,687	–	–	1.2
Luxembourg	198,213	13.8	38.6	41.6
Hungary	167,873	29.0	1.3	1.7
Malta	13,877	26.2	2.8	3.4
Germany	7,255,949	–1.1	8.9	8.8
Netherland	681,932	–2.9	4.3	4.2
Portugal	434,887	–	–	4.1
Romania	26,069	1.7	0.1	0.1
Slovakia	32,130	7.6	0.6	0.6
Slovenia	53,555	18.2	2.3	2.7
Spain	4,606,474	66.2	6.6	10.4
Sweden	491,996	3.3	5.3	5.4
U.K.	3,659,900	24.4	5.0	6.0

Source: EUROSTAT; calculations by IMAD.

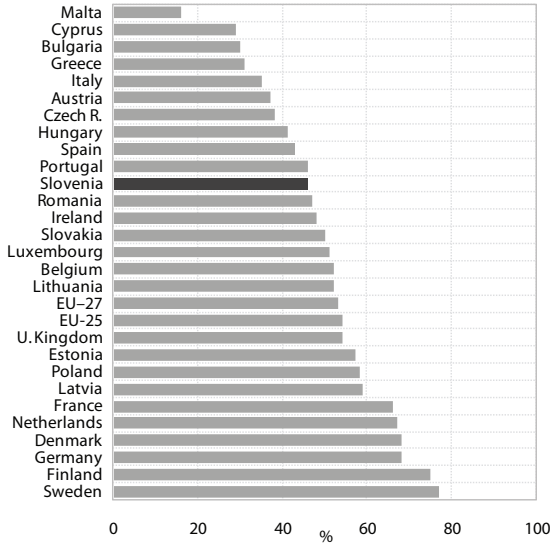
Between 2004 and 2007, the number of foreigners in Slovenia increased by 18.2%. At the EU level, the highest increase was recorded in Ireland, while Latvia recorded the most significant drop. In 2006 and 2007, the share of foreigners in Slovenia grew by almost one tenth, which is above the EU-27 average.

Migration does not bring only demographic changes. Migrants bring along all their personal features, including the colour of the skin, character, education, religion, philosophy, virtues and vices, etc. New cultural and social forms are thus introduced in the immigration

area and migration cannot be considered merely as an economic, demographic or spatial phenomenon, but also as a linguistic, cultural or social one. This also affects the attitude of the people, whose feelings about international migration are often mixed and contradictory.

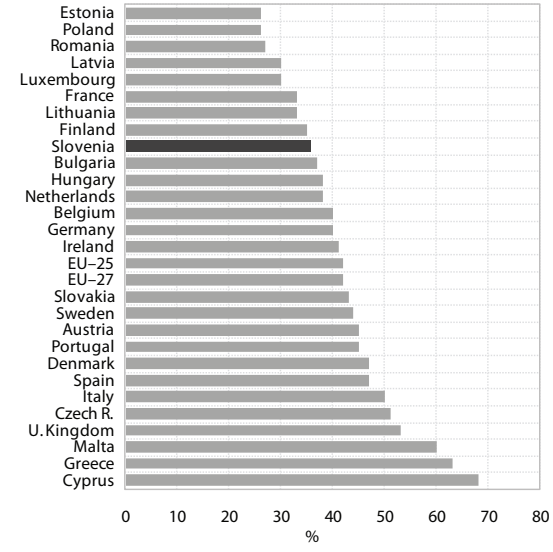
People's attitude towards immigrants is revealed by the Social Reality survey carried out in 2007. Almost half of the interviewed thought that immigrants were needed to work in certain sectors of economy, while 46% believed that the presence of people from other ethnic groups increased unemployment. If most people believed that persons from other ethnic groups enriched the cultural life of the country, two fifths of the interviewed were convinced that immigrants from other ethnic groups were a cause of insecurity. Almost half of the Europeans disagreed that the arrival of immigrants could efficiently solve the problem of Europe's ageing population. The most positive attitude towards immigrants was recorded in Finland, Sweden and Denmark, while the least positive was seen in Malta, Greece and Cyprus.

Figure 38: **Share of people who agree that people of different ethnic origin enrich the culture of their country, EU-27, 2006, in %**



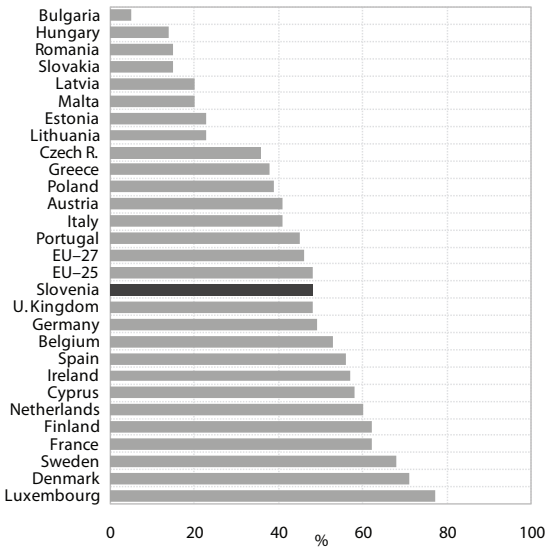
Source: Social Reality – attitude towards immigrants.

Figure 39: **Share of people who agree that the presence of people of different ethnic origin is a cause of insecurity, EU-27, 2006, in %**



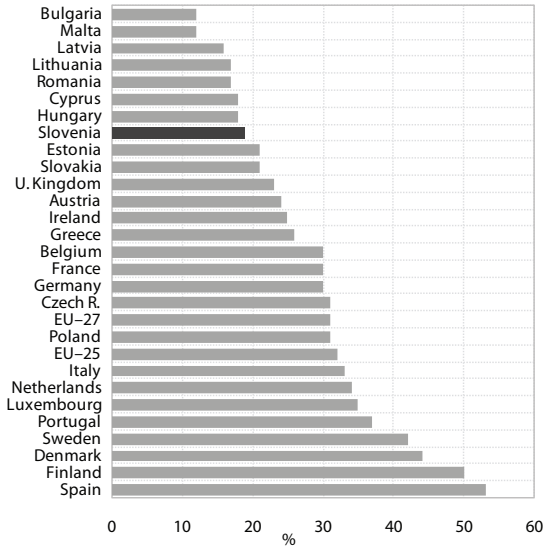
Source: Social Reality – attitude towards immigrants.

Figure 40: **Share of people who agree that immigrants are needed to work in certain sectors of economy, EU-27, 2006, in %**



Source: Social Reality – attitude towards immigrants.

Figure 41: **Share of people who agree that the arrival of immigrants in Europe can efficiently solve the problem of Europe's ageing population, EU-27, 2006, in %**



Source: Social Reality – attitude towards immigrants.

Similarly to the EU-27, almost half of Slovenians thought immigrants were needed to work in certain sectors of economy; on the other hand, 39% believed that people from other ethnic groups increased unemployment. 46% of Slovenians were of the opinion that people from other ethnic groups enriched the cultural life of their country, and 36% thought that they represented a cause of insecurity. As much as 81% of Slovenians disagreed with the statement that the arrival of immigrants could efficiently solve the problem of ageing.

2 External Migration in Slovenia

2.1 External migration in pre-independence Slovenia

In the chapters on external migrations, greater attention will be given to the immigration of foreigners arriving in Slovenia and less to the immigration of Slovenian citizens, which is quite weak. As far as the emigration of Slovenian citizens is concerned, the focus will be on the reasons of emigration. Moreover, we shall try to establish the gains and losses of immigration for Slovenia.

External migration in Slovenia needs to be examined particularly in terms of past and future demographic development. Ever since the first census in 1857, the population of Slovenia slowly yet continuously increased up until the early 1960s. Slovenia (the current territory) then had a population of 1,101,854, reaching 1,591,523 in 1961. The period of demographic transition after 1961 was characterised by a decline in fertility and mortality. This coincided with the shift from a traditional to a modern society. Another characteristic was that mortality declined first and was later followed by fertility. Thus, the demographic transition presented a typically fast growth of the population, which also enabled strong international migration. While the population grew significantly in most European countries, the number of inhabitants in Slovenia increased by less than a half. The reason for this was heavy emigration to Western Europe and overseas countries. At the turn of the 19th century, net migration per 1,000 population was negative – around six, and later until the end of the Second World War above four. Given that net migration rates[92] ranged between five and ten, it is obvious that at least half of the "natural increase" moved out.

Given the extended duration of these demographic processes, the consequences are still visible today. Slovenia typically has a very small share of population aged over 80 years. These are the people born before 1930; particularly weak is the group born around 1920, which was also the most affected by the Second World War.

Particular mention needs to be made of emigration between the two World Wars, directly affecting today's natural increase. While the number of births depends on the demographic conditions in a given year, the number of deaths depends on past demographic trends. The

[92] *Natural increase* is the difference between births and deaths and is calculated for each year separately as the difference between births and deaths in a certain year. This may also be expressed per 1,000 population as the rate of natural increase.

number of births between the two wars was between 30,000 and 40,000. As a result of emigration and wars, these generations were practically halved and the number of deaths in Slovenia today is not 30,000–40,000 but has since 1975 only reached 18,000–20,000. In two years, the first post-war generations will enter the 65 and over age group and in twenty years we can expect an annual increase of deaths to around 30,000. After the Second World War, the number of births long exceeded 30,000 per year (reaching almost 36,000 in 1950). These generations further increased with the arrival of peers from other former Yugoslav republics during the period of heaviest migration to Slovenia (early 1960s to late 1980s). Thus, the natural increase in Slovenia will certainly be negative not only because of a lower number of births but also or mainly because of a higher number of deaths.

Migration in Slovenia after the Second World War and prior to independence is thus considered mainly from a demographic point of view, as today's consequences are explicitly demographic (in particular, the impact on the number and share of population aged over 50 years) and only indirectly economic (retirement).

In 1957, Slovenia became an immigration society[93] for the first time in its history. Immigration reached a first peak in the mid 1960s (positive net migration was around 4,000 people per year), and a second, higher peak, between 1976 and 1979, when the annual values totalled around 8,000. After that, immigration slowed down slightly, yet still remained very high – about 4,000 per year until 1988.

The reasons for immigrating to Slovenia were explicitly economic, just as between the developed Western Europe and the less developed South. The Republic of Slovenia was the most developed economy and thus needed labour. In the first period, male immigrants prevailed, with women reaching the same share only at a later stage. These were not international migrations although they are considered as external. Slovenia had very little real international migration with foreign countries, and the flow was negative, at least officially, given that in the period of the most intense emigration, 50,000 people actually left Slovenia for »temporary« work abroad. According to the statistical methodology then in use, these people were temporarily working abroad and were regarded and recorded as residents of Slovenia. Only with the new definition of population (SORS 1995) did these people (known as »zdomci« or »migrant workers«) disappear from the Slovenian population and the estimates of population then presented a clearer picture.

Immigration from other Yugoslav republics increased further the already-numerous Slovenian post-war generations. Immigration was so intense that it demographically neutralised the high number of work emigrants. The official positive migration balance of Slovenia between 1960 and 1990 was close to 120,000 and even if the 50,000 work emigrants are deducted, migration still contributed about 70,000 to the total population.

Given declining fertility, migration became an increasingly important factor in Slovenia's demographic development. In the period 1961–1971, net migration accounted for 16% of the total population increase, reaching over 30% in the 1970s and 38% in 1988, mostly due to the declining natural increase in Slovenia.

2.2 External migration in post-independence Slovenia

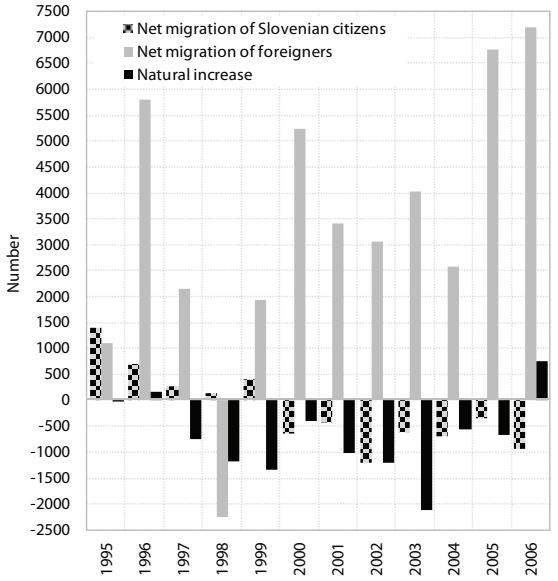
The dissolution of Yugoslavia and the independence of Slovenia led to individual population movements. External migration in the post-independence period should also be included in the framework of Slovenia's demographic development. The natural increase in Slovenia in the period 1997–2005 was negative. Despite positive natural growth in 2006 and 2007, a negative natural increase may be expected in a few years from now, as seen in the chapter on external migration prior to independence. The external migration of Slovenian citizens in the period 1995–1999 was rather positive but this was followed by a constantly negative trend. Considering the period as a whole, negative natural growth was slightly below 2,000 while the negative balance of external migrations of Slovenian citizens was above 8,000, meaning that the total population decreased by over 10,000. At the same time, positive net migration of foreigners exceeded 41,000. Net migration of foreigners was positive throughout the period 1995–2006, with the exception of 1998.[94] If Slovenia had not had a positive migration balance of foreigners, its population would have been decreasing since 1997.

Up to 2004, positive net migration in Slovenia was not very high compared to migrations in the period 1960–1990. A significant positive balance was recorded in 1996 (6,510) and a slightly lower positive balance in 2000 (4,626), while for the rest of the period it ranged between 2,000 and 3,000. Exceptional net migration has been seen in the last two years, exceeding 6,000 people. Generally speaking, all migration flows increased considerably. While, prior to 2000, the number of migrants almost never exceeded 10,000, it reached nearly 20,000 in 2004 and 35,000 in 2006. Migration of foreigners is thus

[93] *Immigration society* – the number of immigrants exceeds the number of emigrants; e*migration society* – the number of emigrants exceeds the number of immigrants.

[94] In 1998, state bodies' records were re-examined, resulting in a formal increase in the number of emigrated foreigners who had actually left the country long before but had not been erased from the records. As a matter of fact, net migration of foreigners was positive also that year.

Figure 42: **Impact of individual factors on Slovenia's population numbers: migration of Slovenian citizens, migration of foreigners, and natural increase, 1995–2006**



Source: SORS and Ministry of the Interior.

becoming increasingly important. Migration in 1995 involved around 9,000 foreigners and 3,000 Slovenian citizens, while in 2006 migration of Slovenian citizens accounted for less than 15% of foreign migration.

The extent of migration and the level of positive migration balance of foreigners are significantly higher than for Slovenian citizens, but they also vary a lot more. Net migration is constantly positive, except in 1998 when state administration bodies' records were re-examined, featuring a considerable increase over the last two years. The large numbers involved in migration are another reason to assume that in the case of foreigners, migration is related to some kind of temporary employment. Given the great increase in the number of immigrants and emigrants, it is of course possible that a certain share of the population is "involved" in migration even more than once a year, as migration is established based on registration and deregistration by individual employers. Only migration in the coming years will show the extent of the turnover and the actual number of immigrants.

Table 47: **Slovenia's immigration profile**

Share of third country nationals in the population of Slovenia (2006)	2.3% (46,428 people)
Share of Slovenian population born abroad (2004)	10.9%
Cities with most third country nationals (2001)	Ljubljana (4%), Maribor (2%)
Countries of origin of the three largest groups of immigrants	Bosnia and Herzegovina, Serbia and Montenegro, Croatia
Largest category by reason of migration (2004)	Work (69.3%)
International students (2004)	1,230
Migrants' employment rate (2006)	57.1%

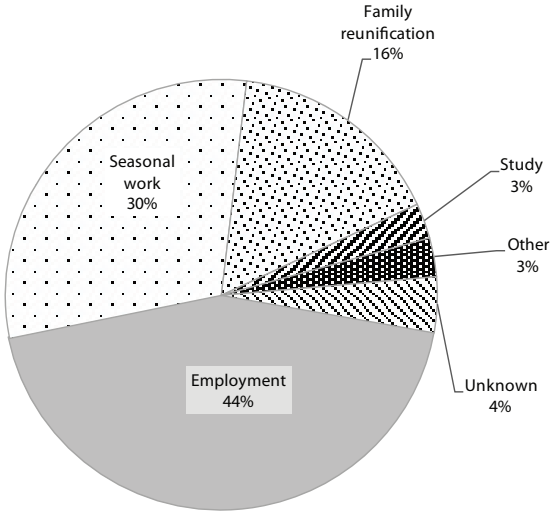
Source: Niessen et al., 2007.

A turning point in the external migration of Slovenian citizens was 2000, when hitherto positive net migration became negative. After 2000, negative net migration from abroad has ranged between 500 and 1,000. The volume of migration flow is also rather stable and has not yet exceeded 2,000 per year in immigration, while in emigration it exceeds 2,000 but still remains below 3,000.

2.2.1 Immigrants by age and sex structure and country of origin

The age and sex structure of foreign immigrants reveals that an active population arriving in Slovenia for work for short or long periods of time predominates among immigrated foreigners (men aged 20–50, in particular). In the period 1995–2006, this trend is increasing although it mainly relates to temporary import of labour and only in part to actual immigration.

Figure 43: **Immigrants by reason of immigration, Slovenia, 2006**



Source: SORS; calculations by IMAD.

The share of men in the total number of foreign immigrants has constantly exceeded 65%, reaching 75% after 2004 and over 80% in 2006, which is mostly related to the increasing needs for labour in the construction industry. The predominance of men is even greater than in the 1960s when the intensive industrial development of Slovenia generated a need for a mostly young male labour force to work in the new factories. There is a big difference between the two periods, though. In the 1960s, practically any employment was fixed-term employment (above all in the factories). This means that a large share of those immigrants stayed in Slovenia for good (or for a very long time). Today, on the contrary, the sectors that employ most foreigners (construction,

Table 48: **Immigrants to Slovenia (by country of origin), 1995–2006**

Year	Total	Country of origin					
		Non-European countries	European countries	Non-EU-27 European countries and countries of former Yugoslavia	EU-27 countries	Countries of former Yugoslavia	EU-15 countries
1995	3,688	173	3,515	131	238	3,146	-
1996	7,995	346	7,649	313	420	6,916	-
1997	6,796	318	6,478	343	285	5,850	-
1998	3,746	213	3,533	330	355	2,848	-
1999	3,579	78	3,501	266	136	3,099	-
2000	5,250	176	5,074	344	272	4,458	182
2001	6,773	338	6,435	492	552	5,391	330
2002	7,702	303	7,399	538	585	6,276	308
2003	8,011	400	7,611	528	638	6,445	368
2004	8,597	304	8,293	500	407	7,386	180
2005	13,294	370	12,924	603	2020	10,301	1.025
2006	18,251	355	17,896	594	1741	15,561	737

Source: SORS, Ministry of the Interior; calculations by Jakoš, IMAD.

tourism) almost never offer fixed-term contracts and the turnover is considerable. Since migrations in the 1960s took place within the same country, although between different republics, migration was also easier and more open for women. Thus, also the decision to establish a family "abroad" must have been easier.

Most immigrants fall into the category of the most active population. There are very few children and elderly people. In 2006, for example, less than 10% of immigrants were aged over 50 years. This downward tendency of the share of young and older immigrants has been increasing since 1995 and continued towards 2006. Considering the age and sex structure of immigrants, it may be concluded that among immigrants there are very few families.

The share of foreign immigrants from outside Europe is very low. On average, around 300 immigrate to Slovenia every year (and many emigrate further). Their number has not changed much in the last two years, although total immigration doubled. While Italy and Spain, for example, experience mass illegal migrations from across the Mediterranean, in Slovenia, even the pressure on the Eastern land border has diminished. Likewise, there are no heavy migrations from Asia. Among the immigrants from Europe, most come from the territories of former Yugoslav republics.

In terms of educational structure, there are no significant differences between foreigners and Slovenian citizens. Immigrants present a slightly larger share (31.2% compared with 27.7% of Slovenians) of the population with only primary education or less, but there are practically no older immigrants who would increase the share of this group. Following independence, EU accession and entry into the Schengen area, entering Slovenia has become more complicated. There are certain conditions that need to be met for employment and there are no more of the educational centres that once specialised in teaching young immigrants (such as the Litostroj Educational Institution, etc.), and therefore more than a half of foreign immigrants have at least secondary education. The share of immigrants with higher or university education (13.6%) is below the Slovenian average (16.6%), although the difference is not considerable. In Slovenia, highly skilled immigrants from the territory of former Yugoslavia are very welcome and many have also found employment (e.g. in health care).

The number of immigrants from former Yugoslav republics is similar to that recorded in the period of the largest migrations to Slovenia in the previous century. At the same time, emigration is also strong and the positive migration balance with former Yugoslavia is thus lower. The shares of immigrants from the territory of former Yugoslavia account for more than 80% or even 90% of the total number of immigrants from Europe. While the number of immigrants from the EU-27 rarely exceeded 500 per year, the above immigrations involved even slightly over 2,000 people in 2005 and around 1,750 in 2006. With regard to the type of employment, this is a different group of immigrants yet, given the expected length of their stay in Slovenia, they do not differ considerably from the explicitly seasonal employment of immigrants from former Yugoslavia (this, however, does not apply to the permanent number of immigrants from the EU known in previous years).

Considering historical developments, it is expected that citizens of former Yugoslav republics strongly prevail among foreign immigrants to Slovenia, although entry to Slovenia today is much more administratively complicated

than it the time of Yugoslavia. Immigration from EU-15 and EU-27 countries is rare, and most immigrants have been recorded in the last two years. A detailed analysis by individual European countries indicates that, besides a certain number of Slovaks in 2005 and 2006, there has been no significant immigration to Slovenia from other EU Member States.

2.2.2 Employment and work of foreigners in Slovenia

Between 2006 and 2008, the number of work permits issued to foreigners increased considerably. According to the Employment Service of Slovenia, the number of valid work permits grew compared to the previous years on average by 16.1% in 2006, 24.7% in 2007, and 32% in the first half of 2008. By 31 August 2008, valid work permits totalled 86,668 and accounted for about 10% of the formally active population (employed and self-employed) of Slovenia.

Most work permits are issued in construction and for construction professions. This applies to all types of work permits. In the total number of work permits, construction and construction professions account for about a half of all known definitions by profession and activity. Other numerous categories of professions and activities include metal workers (about 10%), mechanics and mechanical engineers (about 5%), and processing activities and business services[95] (13% and 7%, respectively).

As a result of this, the educational structure of foreigners with work permits employed in Slovenia is low, although the share of those with a primary education is gradually giving way to the share of foreigners with a secondary education. On 30 June 2008, foreign workers with primary education only accounted for 57.3% (64.1% in 2001), and those with secondary education for 39.7% (31.1% in 2001). Only 3% of foreign nationals employed or working in Slovenia have higher or university education.

Most (over 95%) work permits are still issued to the citizens of former Yugoslav republics, mainly from Bosnia and Herzegovina, whose number continues to grow (on 30 June 2008, it reached 43,263, accounting for 53% of all foreigners employed in Slovenia). The number of citizens of Macedonia, Serbia and Montenegro is also increasing.

Regulation of the employment of foreigners in Slovenia

The employment and work of foreigners in Slovenia is regulated by the Employment and Work of Aliens Act that entered into force in January 2001 (Official Gazette of the Republic of Slovenia No. 66/2000, 101/2005 and 4/2006). As a rule, foreigners may be employed in Slovenia exclusively on the basis of a work permit and only exceptionally based merely on a work registration certificate. The work permit is issued as a personal work permit, a permit for employment, or a permit for work. A personal work permit is a renewable or permanent form of work permit which, throughout its period of validity, provides the foreigner with free access to the labour market. Exceptions to this rule are one-year personal work permits to represent one's own company or to carry out an independent activity. A permit for employment is linked to the employment needs of specific employers. As a rule, such a permit is issued for a period of up to one year exclusively based on an application submitted by the employer, provided that the latter fulfils the legally prescribed conditions and that the foreigner's employment does not have negative effects on the domestic unemployment situation. A permit for work enables the foreigner to obtain temporary employment or work in the Republic of Slovenia with a previously determined time limit, depending on the purpose for which such a permit is issued. The permit for work may relate to: training and advanced training of foreigners; seasonal labour of foreigners; work performed by seconded foreign workers; work performed by foreign managers, and individual services provided by foreigners. A permit for work is issued on the basis of an application submitted by the employer or other legal person specified in the Act.

The above Act does not apply to certain specifically listed categories of foreigners, including citizens of EU Member States. In fact, on the Slovenian labour market, citizens of EU Member States and their family members are granted equality with Slovenian citizens. A register is kept by the Employment Service of Slovenia, which is also in charge of issuing the relevant work permits.

The Act also introduced quotas and other limitations for issuing work permits. The Slovenian Government adopts a policy on employment and work of foreigners, which serves as the basis to conclude treaties on the movement of labour and services among the countries, adopts measures to protect the domestic labour market, and – in accordance with its immigration policy and taking into account the conditions and fluctuations on the labour market – annually determines a quota of work permits, thus restricting the number of foreigners on the labour market. The quota may not exceed 5% of Slovenia's active population. The quota does not include: EU Member States' citizens, foreigners for whom the Act does not prescribe that they must obtain a work permit, foreigners in possession of a personal work permit, representatives and seconded foreign workers undergoing additional training.

[95] The share of foreigners in business services is particularly high as it also includes job brokerage agencies.

On 30 June 2008, 8,459 or 10.4% of all foreign workers were Croatian citizens.

The share of women among foreign citizens employed or working in Slovenia is only about 12%. Slightly less than 60% of foreigners fall in the 25–44 age group, 14% are younger than 25 , and about one third are older than 45. Their average age decreased in the last two years from approximately 40 to 37.5.

Below is a presentation of Slovenia's MIPEX for 2006 (Migrant Integration Policy Index, 2007).

Table 49: **Valid work permits by level of education, 30 June 2008**

	Total WP	%
Total	8,1571	100
Unknown	2,232	2.74
Level I	34,710	42.55
Level II	10,715	13.14
Level III	398	0.49
Level IV	26,222	32.15
Level V	4,884	6
Level VI	612	0.75
Level VII	1,715	2.10
Level VIII	58	0.07
Bologna programmes	25	0.03

Source: Employment Service of Slovenia; calculations by IMAD.
Note: Code table of vocational and technical education of the Employment Service of Slovenia.

Level of education	Level of education prior to the reform	Level of education after the reform
1	Primary education	–
2	Primary education with two-year vocational courses (adult training programmes)	Secondary vocational education
3	Two-year vocational or technical education	Secondary vocational education
4	Three- year vocational or technical education	Upper secondary vocational education
5	Four- or five-year secondary education	Secondary general education, upper secondary vocational-technical education, upper secondary technical education
6	Two- or three-year higher education	Post-secondary education
7	Four- or five-year university education, post-graduate studies (master's degree)	Higher education - professionally oriented, university graduate education, university post-graduate education (Master's)
8	Doctoral	Doctoral
		Education attained under the Bologna programme

MIPEX

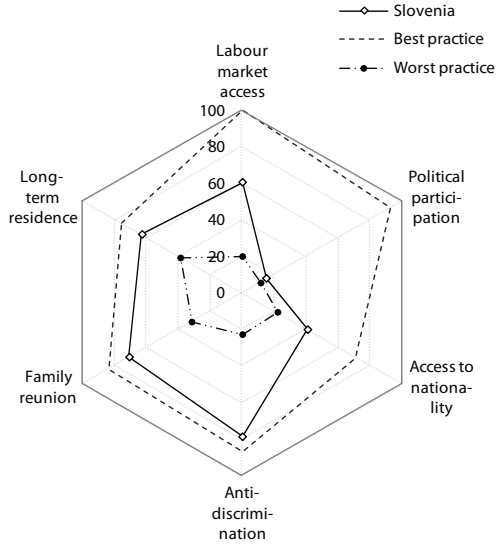
MIPEX (the Migrant Integration Policy Index) is produced by 25 European organisations, including universities, research institutions, foundations, NGOs, and equality bodies. Its aim is to assess the integration policies of European countries. The index has been produced biannually since 2004. MIPEX measures integration policies for immigrants in the EU-25 and in three non-EU countries. It analyses over 140 indicators, forming a multi-dimensional picture of the possibilities for immigrants' participation in European societies. MIPEX covers six policy areas that shape a migrant's integration into the society: labour market access, family reunion, long-term residence, political participation, access to nationality, anti-discrimination.

The optimal result of each indicator is the value set by Council of Europe conventions or Community directives. Since the policies of all relevant countries are measured against the same standard, MIPEX is also used for benchmarking.

According to MIPEX, most migrants in Slovenia still have strong ties with fellow citizens of former Yugoslavia. In 2004, the Slovenian Government first adopted quotas for migrant workers. Migrants have an employment rate 10.1% lower than Slovenians. They are more than twice as likely as Slovenians to be in temporary work.

Although Slovenia receives rather average scores compared to all 28 MIPEX countries, it often leads the EU-10 (2004 enlargement). Policies on **long-term residence** are third best, those on **labour market access** and **anti-discrimination** are second best, whilst **family reunion** policies rank first of the EU-10. However, in the

Figure 44: **Six policy areas shaping the migrant's integration into society, 2006**



Source: Nissen et al., 2007.

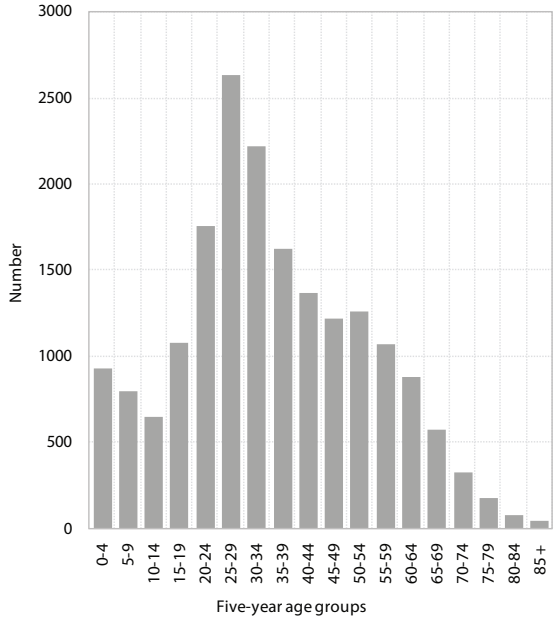
weakest area – **political participation** – it ranks 5th from the bottom of the 28 MIPEX countries. Policy debates revolve around rights for refugees, the enforcement of anti-discrimination law, and two Constitutional Court decisions on the "erased".

2.2.3 Emigration of Slovenian citizens

As mentioned above, in terms of population involved in migrations and the level of net migration, the emigration of Slovenian citizens is considerably lower than foreign migration. Another difference is the fact that since 2000, net migration of Slovenian citizens from abroad has been negative, while net migration of foreigners in Slovenia has remained positive. However, the number of citizens emigrating from and immigrating in the country is slowly growing, thus increasing negative net migration.

At first glance, the age structure of emigrants is very similar to the usual age structure of the migrant population. The prevailing age group is 20–50 (60%), while the share of emigrants aged over 65 is very low (6%). However, there are differences, as well. Among foreign immigrants, the most numerous age group is 20–30, while emigrants seem to leave the country most when aged 25–35. Another difference is the relatively large share of children. Considering the age structure of the emigrating population, it may be assumed that they are parents with children who are not on a "job search" but aim at a specific position abroad, with little probability of return. Although the main reasons are economic (as in the case of foreign immigrants), Slovenian emigrants are mostly seeking a better standard of living rather than just any job. Although the negative net migration does not (at least for currently) jeopardise the existing demographic situation in Slovenia, its further increase and long-term continuation would indeed cause a demographic problem.

Figure 45: **Number of emigrants by age group in the period 1995–2006**



Source: SORS, processed in June 2008, Ministry of the Interior; calculations by Jakoš.

Emigrants were analysed in terms of emigration to the EU-27 countries, countries of former Yugoslavia, and the rest of Europe. Emigration to non-European countries is weak yet increasing. At the beginning of the period concerned (1995–1996), its share was about 10% or less than 100 people per year. Their number however increased quite

Table 50: **Emigration of citizens of the RS to other countries (areas), 1995–2006**

Year	Total	COUNTRY – AREA OF EMIGRATION				
		Non-European countries	European countries	Non-EU-27 European countries and countries of former Yugoslavia	EU-27 countries	Countries of former Yugoslavia
1995	776	84	687	36	401	250
1996	803	80	723	56	345	322
1997	807	55	749	92	381	276
1998	705	62	642	49	372	221
1999	963	121	842	72	557	213
2000	1,559	243	1,316	114	882	320
2001	1,442	209	1,232	114	798	320
2002	2,624	273	2,351	195	1,666	490
2003	1,887	295	1,582	131	1,016	435
2004	2,265	251	2,006	139	1,362	505
2005	2,077	340	1,730	136	1,217	377
2006	2,703	402	2,293	205	1,668	420

Source: SORS, processed in June 2008, Ministry of the Interior; calculations by Jakoš.

Table 51: **Emigration of citizens of the RS by age and education, 2005 and 2006**

Age	Total		At most primary education		Secondary education		Post-secondary vocational and higher and university education		Unknown	
	2005	2006	2005	2006	2005	2006	2005	2006	2005	2006
Total	2.077	2.703	227	303	546	765	384	472	920	1.163
Under 20	357	488	-	-	-	-	-	-	357	488
20–29	450	603	68	97	178	238	110	142	94	126
30–49	745	975	85	118	262	375	219	265	179	217
50 and over	525	637	74	88	106	152	55	65	290	332

Source: SORS, Ministry of the Interior – Central Population Register.

rapidly, reaching 15% in 2000 and remaining at this level ever since. This means that in absolute terms, the share of non-European emigration increased parallel to the total number of emigrants. 85% of migrants emigrated to European countries, amounting to just over 2,000 people in 2006.

Except in 1996, emigration to EU-27 countries has always accounted for more than 50% and even exceeded 70% of the total in the last few years. Above all, this increase is due to the relative decline in emigration to the countries of former Yugoslavia. Emigration to this region has not changed much over the last couple of years, yet it may be assumed that it mainly involves persons who have Slovenian citizenship, but in terms of nationality belong to one of the nations of former Yugoslavia. Given the lack of detailed data, it is not clear whether they are immigrants returning to their country of origin upon retirement or entire families. Emigration to the EU-27 is increasing. Considering the age structure of the emigrated population, it may be assumed that they are young families with little probability of return.

In 2005 and 2006, 751 Slovenian citizens with at least a higher education left Slovenia. Adding the population with post-secondary vocational education, this number rises to 856. Most 20–50, and this may turn into a development problem for Slovenia. At the same time, it might be seen as a development opportunity, provided that such migration is circular i.e. aimed at the exchange of knowledge.

Table 51 also shows a large share of young people (no data on their education is available), which testifies to the emigration of entire families and not only individuals with higher education. This could mean that emigration is long-term (permanent) and planned. This category probably does not include only post-graduate students continuing their studies abroad. In the latter case, the share of potential emigrants is much higher, as established by Bevc (2006), who surveyed 1,434 researchers with a master's degree or PhD and found that 71% would potentially emigrate abroad for more than one year (under certain conditions) while 34% would emigrate on a medium- or long-term basis. The typical potential emigrant is single male or female with a PhD, aged 30 years or less, and has attained his/her most recent educational qualification abroad.

2.2.4 External migration by regions

In the period 1999–2006, all regions recorded a positive balance of foreign external migration. The only exception was the Pomurska region, where the balance was negative in three years, although overall this region also recorded a positive balance.

The importance of external migration for individual regions was evaluated based on the total population by region in 2006. The highest absolute positive external migration balance (almost one third) was recorded by the Osrednjeslovenska region, which accounts for 25%

Table 52: **Net migration of foreigners or migration balance by region, 1999–2006**

Region	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	1999–2006
SLOVENIA	1.936	3.239	3.404	3.057	4.031	2.593	6.766	7.205	3.2231
Pomurska	–34	–71	26	75	45	–4	149	114	300
Podravska	35	327	616	326	321	327	776	939	3.667
Koroška	30	27	0	11	30	73	153	146	470
Savinjska	234	375	314	510	589	299	986	1.153	4.460
Zasavska	33	52	96	70	79	2	122	14	468
Spodnje-posavska	79	210	129	200	280	80	234	288	1.500
Jugovzh. Slovenija	112	115	87	222	226	205	450	436	1.853
Osred-njesloven.	576	1.391	1.328	691	1.172	1.074	2.161	2.151	10.544
Gorenjska	237	71	251	184	203	104	472	450	1.972
Notranjsko-kraška	74	95	102	94	174	84	124	233	980
Goriška	306	251	76	244	344	215	421	560	2.417
Obalno-kraška	254	396	379	430	568	134	718	721	3.600

Source: SORS, processed in June 2008, Ministry of the Interior; calculations by Jakoš.

Table 53: **Net migration (migration balance) of foreigners and total population by region, 1999–2006**

Region	Net migration of foreigners, 1999–2006	Total population, 2006	Migration balance in net migration of Slovenia, 1999–2006, in %	Share in population of Slovenia, 2006, in %	Net migration, 2006	Migration balance in net migration of Slovenia, 2006, in %
SLOVENIA	32,231	2,008,516	100.0	100.0	7205	100.0
Pomurska	300	122,198	0.9	6.1	114	1.6
Podravska	3,667	319,530	11.4	15.9	939	13.0
Koroška	470	73,729	1.5	3.7	146	2.0
Savinjska	4,460	258,684	13.8	12.9	1153	16.0
Zasavska	468	45,311	1.5	2.3	14	0.2
Spodnjeposavska	1,500	70,044	4.7	3.5	288	4.0
Jugovzhodna Slovenija	1,853	140,119	5.7	7.0	436	6.1
Osrednjeslovenska	10,544	502,100	32.7	25.0	2151	29.9
Gorenjska	1,972	199,626	6.1	9.9	450	6.2
Notranjsko-kraška	980	51,386	3.0	2.6	233	3.2
Goriška	2,417	119,632	7.5	6.0	560	7.8
Obalno-kraška	3,600	106,157	11.2	5.3	721	10.0

Source: SORS, processed in June 2008, Ministry of the Interior; calculations by Jakoš.

of the total population of Slovenia. A much higher share in the positive external migration balance than its share in the total population of Slovenia was also recorded by Obalno-kraška region. A minor share was observed in far north-eastern Slovenia (Pomurska, Podravska and Koroška regions). Most discrepancies were observed in the Pomurska region.

2.2.5 Slovenians' attitudes towards emigration

The results of the survey on mobility of Slovenian workers searching for a job in the EU countries (CJMMK, 2006) indicate that the most likely to move – either to a different place in Slovenia or abroad – are young, more educated respondents, men, and respondents from large cities. More than a third of the respondents have thought about moving abroad. People who are very unsatisfied with their current jobs are more likely to consider emigration than those very satisfied with their current employment.

Table 54: **Have you ever thought about moving abroad and about satisfaction with your current employment, 2006, in %**

	Have you ever thought about moving abroad?	
N = 643	**YES (n = 228) 35.7 %**	**NO (n = 411) 64.3 %**
How satisfied are you with your current employment? (in %)		
Very unsatisfied	56.7	43.3
Quite unsatisfied	32.0	68.0
50 : 50	38.9	61.1
Quite satisfied	30.5	69.5
Very satisfied	38.2	61.8

Source: Public Opinion and Mass Communication Research Centre – CJMMK, 2006.

An important factor influencing decisions about moving abroad is having a partner or family. The least willing to move are married people, followed by those living in extra-marital union or having a partner, while the most likely to move are single people. Likewise, people with children are less willing to move.

Slightly more willingness to move for a long period of time or for good is shown by those who already have relatives or friends abroad. Another decisive factor is an actual job offer; those who have already received such an offer are also more willing to move to another country. The most desired target countries are Germany, Austria and the United Kingdom, and Western Europe in general.

On the other hand, the results of the European Social Reality Report (2007) reveal that Slovenians are well above the EU average in terms of satisfaction with their quality of life, free time and free time facilities, local school services, and child-care services. This is probably also why Slovenians are less favourable towards emigrating abroad, and this fact could eventually be used to attract potential immigrants.

Motives for emigrating abroad differ depending on the level of education. Respondents with an upper secondary education rely more on the experience of friends and acquaintances that have already worked abroad than respondents with post-secondary vocational or higher education. The latter, on the other hand, are more encouraged by an actual job offer

abroad. Older respondents are also less stimulated by job offers and educational possibilities abroad than younger ones.

According to the survey, experts with special skills and individuals with rich work experience have the greatest advantage for being employed abroad. A high level of education and language skills are not seen as an advantage but rather as a condition to obtaining employment in another country; almost 90% of all respondents are in fact fluent in at least one foreign language.

When moving abroad, potential emigrants face various obstacles. These are either systemic (complex administrative procedures, acquisition of permits, the actual process of moving, lack of foreign language knowledge) or personal obstacles (e.g. attachment to partner, children, etc.). It seems that respondents who are considering moving abroad and/or are more willing to do so see fewer systemic and personal obstacles, yet in general deem personal obstacles to be more significant. The survey shows that the most important obstacles for mobility are personal factors and not systemic obstacles which can be influenced by the state.

Likewise, personal factors are also important when it comes to incentives. The strongest incentive is a partner or family living abroad. The most likely to move are young educated men who are less attached to their partners. This is also shown by data on international mobility in education.

2.2.6 International mobility in tertiary education

Student mobility is the most frequent form of international mobility in tertiary education, providing various benefits to students studying abroad, domestic students, teaching staff, higher education institutions, the system of higher education and the state. For students, the possibility of studying abroad also implies better access to quality study programmes and programmes not available at home. Students improve their technical and language skills, as well as their knowledge of foreign countries and cultures, thus increasing their employment potential. In addition, the experience of studying abroad has a positive impact on the student's personal development.

If completing a study programme in which there is a lack of graduates in the home country, students who have studied abroad contribute to eliminating the imbalances between tertiary skilled staff supply and demand in the labour market. However, the consequences can also be quite negative if there is a lack of tertiary skilled labour in the country and students studying abroad eventually find employment in the host country. In addition, the international mobility of students in the EU encourages the free movement of people. There is in fact a significant possibility that students who have studied abroad eventually find employment there. Those who decide to study abroad also more often work abroad than students who study within a country. Thus, the international mobility of students and teaching staff indirectly encourages the creation of a single European labour market and represents a way to raise European awareness.

Students' inclusion in international mobility depends on various factors. The low share of foreign students in Slovenia is due to the modest overall recognisability of Slovenia abroad and lack of knowledge among foreign students of available study programmes, the low (perceived) quality of the higher education system, and limited programmes available in a foreign language. A common factor negatively influencing the decision to study abroad among Slovenian students is poor support to mobility at home. Students participating in the Eurostudent survey (2007) indicate that the most frequent reason affecting international mobility is lack of support for mobility at home (58% of respondents), including access to information, recognition of educational credits and qualifications achieved abroad, expected halt in studies, poor appreciation of education attained abroad, and limited access to mobility programmes. The second reason is financial insecurity (37%), since the decision whether or not to study abroad depends on the amount of the expected costs of study (tuition and accommodation fees) and available financial resources. Financial insecurity affects mainly students from lower social classes. Poor knowledge of foreign languages is ranked third (21%). Other factors negatively influencing the decision to study abroad are lack of personal motivation (19%) and lack of support for mobility in the host country (15%).

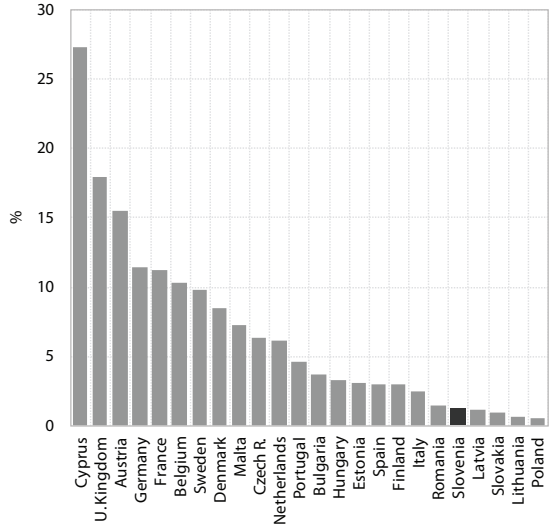
International mobility of students is either long-term or short-term, also known as mobility of credit points. The European Commission distinguishes between the above types of mobility based on the duration of a student's participation in studies abroad. Long-term student mobility (diploma mobility) means that the student goes abroad for a longer period of time (generally for the entire duration of the programme of study) and also obtains a diploma abroad. On the contrary, mobility of credit points means that the student studies abroad for a shorter period of time (a few months, a semester, a year), meets the relevant study requirements, obtains the relevant number of credits to be recognised by the home educational institution, and continues their studies in the home country.

The share of foreign students in the total number of students in tertiary education[96] in Slovenia is one of the lowest in Europe. There were 1,674 foreign students (students with foreign citizenship) in tertiary education

[96] Methodology for calculating this indicator: number of foreign students in tertiary education / total number of students (national and foreign) in tertiary education * 100.

in Slovenia in the academic year 2007/08, which was 10.8% more than in 2006/07, indicating a continuation of the positive trend recorded in 2000/01–2006/07. In the period 2000/01–2007/08, the number of foreign students increased by 93.8%. In 2006, they accounted for 1.2% (1.5% in 2007/08), ranking Slovenia near the bottom of European countries. Between 2005 and 2006, and in the period 2000–2006, the number of foreign students increased at a much slower pace than in most European countries.

Figure 46: **Share of foreign students in the total number of students in tertiary education, EU-27, 2006, in %**



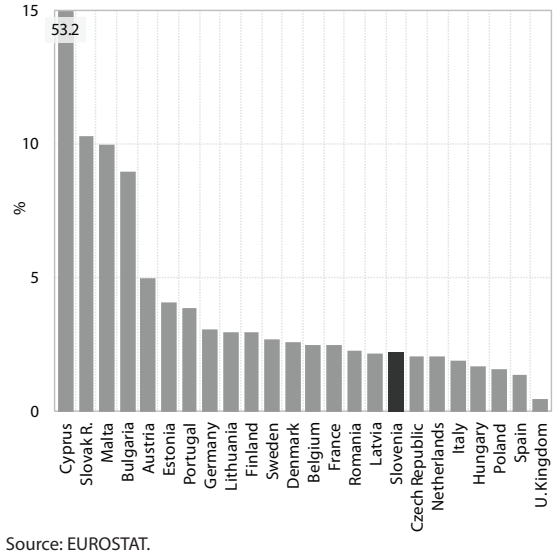
Source: EUROSTAT.

In 2006,[97] the number of Slovenian students (i.e. students with Slovenian citizenship) participating in long-term international mobility abroad was 2,505 and increased by 8.9% compared with 2005 (and by 19.6% in the period 2000–2006). The share of students studying abroad was thus 2.2%, but was still below the European average. The largest shares of students studying abroad are generally recorded by countries with small populations, and Slovenia lags considerably behind in this respect. As a rule, students from smaller countries opt more often for study abroad owing to the weaker range of study programmes on offer compared to large countries.

Students from the countries of former Yugoslavia prevail in the structure of foreign students in Slovenia, while most Slovenians studying abroad may be found in Western European countries. In the year 2007/08, 75.4% of foreign students came from former Yugoslavia, mostly with Croatian citizenship. The large share of students from this region depends on cultural, historical, geographic, economic, and other ties, and on similarity of language; according to the OECD, all these factors

[97] Latest available data on the number of students studying abroad refer to 2006 (academic year 2005/06).

Figure 47: **Share of students in tertiary education studying abroad, EU-27, 2006, in %**



Source: EUROSTAT.
Note: Methodology for calculating this indicator: number of students from selected country studying abroad / number of students from selected country studying at home and abroad (foreign students studying in selected country excluded) * 100.

contribute to the number of foreign students in a certain country. Among the students from EU-27 countries, most come from nearby Italy (6.0 %). In 2006, Slovenian students mainly studied in Germany (23.6%), Austria (22.0%), Italy (15.8%) and the UK (12.8%). The large share of Slovenian students in the first three countries of the list most probably depends on geographic vicinity, cultural similarities in mentality (Germany, Austria), and language skills.

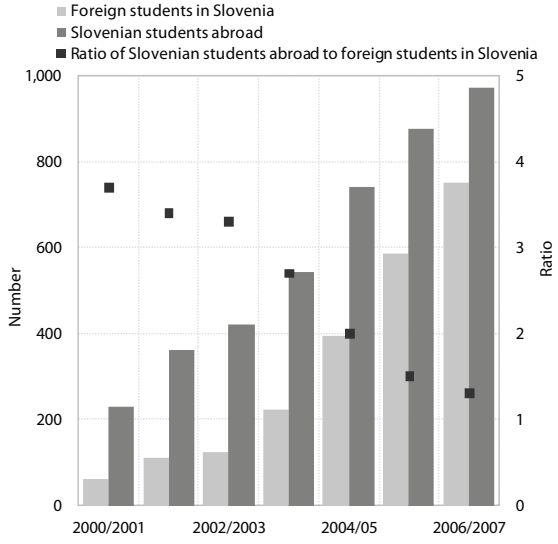
The main EU mobility programme in education and training is Erasmus, launched in the academic year 1987/88. The programme, which in addition to EU Member States also covers certain other European countries,[98] was joined by Slovenia in the year 1999/00. The programme aims to improve the quality of higher education, enhance the European dimension of higher education, and increase student and teaching staff mobility. Its main purpose is to increase the international mobility of students, in order to improve technical and language skills, acquire cultural experience, promote co-operation among institutions in tertiary education, etc. Students may stay abroad for a period of minimum three months and a maximum of one year and meet part of their study requirements there.

The number of foreign Erasmus students in Slovenia and Slovenian Erasmus students abroad is increasing, with the first group growing much faster in absolute terms than the second in 2006/07. Between 2005/06 and 2006/07, the number of foreign Erasmus students

[98] In addition to the EU-27 also Iceland, Liechtenstein, Norway and Turkey.

in Slovenia rose by 27.7%, while the number of Erasmus students from Slovenia rose by only 10.6%, which testifies to the continuation of the positive trend recorded in the period 2000/01–2005/06. The faster growth in the number of foreign Erasmus students compared to Slovenian Erasmus students abroad contributed to a lower difference in their numbers and to a lower ratio between students studying abroad and foreign students in Slovenia.

Figure 48: **Number and growth of foreign students in Slovenia and number of Slovenian students abroad participating in the Erasmus programme, 2000/01–2006/07**



Source: Education and training – Erasmus – statistics (2008); calculations by IMAD.

3 Internal migration in Slovenia

Since migration is classified by the borders crossed by migrants, migration in Slovenia subject to this overview only relates to that which occurs between regions and, partly, municipalities. If minor localities (e.g. settlements) were to be considered, the volume of migrations would be much higher. Moreover, data on internal migration only covers the migration of Slovenian citizens and does not include other residents of Slovenia (foreigners with various statuses).

The volume of internal migration depends on which administrative border is taken to define the migrant. If migration between settlements were considered, more than half of the Slovenian population would be migrants. According to the 2002 population census, only 45% of the population live in their place of birth while 1,076,023 people are migrants (i.e. not living in their place of birth). Such a large share of migrants is mainly a consequence of the country-specific system of settlement, in which Slovenia – with a population of only two million – has about 6,000 settlements. Thus, at the settlement level (foreign migrations excluded), 935,000 persons may be considered migrants. At the level of municipalities and regions, this number drops to 590,000 and 218,000 respectively. This, however, is only a theoretical estimate – the actual volume of migration is considerably higher, since many people move several times and the annual data reveal much higher values.

3.1 Internal migration in pre-independence Slovenia

After the Second World War, internal migration in Slovenia was marked by de-agrarisation, industrialisation, and urbanisation. These processes resulted in heavy migration from rural to urban areas (although the situation in the Primorska region where migration was heaviest was different). Initially, the fastest growth was recorded in large urban centres, mainly due to the de-agrarisation of rural areas. In the 1970s, a polycentric development policy was promoted which, although never formally adopted, allowed for the development of several centres. Then a period of concentration at the regional level began and more balance was achieved, at least in regional demographic development, also reducing the volume of inter-regional migration. Finally, concentration occurred at the municipal level and negative net migration in municipalities only exceptionally exceeded their own natural increase. Given the purely local nature of such migration, it was also not fully covered by the statistics on inter-municipal migration. A greater volume of migration could have been expected mainly because of de-agrarisation, but

was significantly reduced by better access to cars and by the appearance of a specific social class – "semi-farmers". Daily commuting thus partially replaced permanent migration. The consequences of internal migration in Slovenia that lasted almost half a century are nowadays seen in the weaker demographic structure of certain traditionally immigration areas compared to traditionally emigration areas. In major towns, for example, the share of people aged over 65 years is near 20% while in rural areas it only slightly exceeds 10%.

3.2 Internal migration between statistical regions, 1991–2006

Before Slovenia became independent, migration occurred as a result of the classical push and pull factors (de-agrarisation and urbanisation) and was practically an economic necessity. Nevertheless, it should be said that Slovenians are not very likely to move. According to a survey[99] carried out among the unemployed, only 53% of the respondents were willing to move, while almost 80% were willing to commute to work every day. Other responses, too, showed a strong attachment to the home location, and many respondents stated that they did not mind commuting every day. One of the questions of the survey related to housing – if the unemployed were given a place to live, almost 80% would be willing to move. Housing was also the main reason why the unemployed would not move to another place, even if they found employment there.

Housing isthe main reason of migration also in contemporary migration flows, characterised by a "flight from the cities" as opposed to the previous flight from the land. As a rule, Slovenians do not move for work unless the housing problem is also solved. In other words, housing as a motive for migration is as strong as (or perhaps even stronger than) employment, which was also typical in the past (see survey) and is proven by the rapid urbanisation after the Second World War, when rural populations moved to the cities only when they had found a decent place to live. Slovenian cities thus never had any true slums of illegal immigrant workers; those that nevertheless emerged were a result of external migration.

The total number of regional internal migrants in the period 1991–2006 was slightly less than 100,000 (on average 6,243 per year). Most migration occurred in 1992, as a result of Slovenia's independence. Thereafter, the annual volume of migration ranged between 5,300 and 6,000, until 2000 when it first exceeded 6,000, growing by 2005 to 7,000. The last year was also exceptional as migration reached 8,500. According to estimates, the

An emigrant to another region is a citizen of the Republic of Slovenia who emigrated to another region of Slovenia and registered his/her permanent residence there.
An immigrant from another region is a citizen of the Republic of Slovenia who immigrated from another region of Slovenia and registered his/her permanent residence here.

Table 55: **Internal migration between regions, 1991–1998, 1997–2006 and 1991–2006**

Region	Emigration		Net migration		Yearly average		Emigration	Net migration	Yearly average
	1991–1998	1997–2006	1991–1998	1997–2006	1991–1998	1997–2006	1991–2006	1991–2006	1991–2006
Pomurska	2,626	3,310	–110	–424	–14	–53	5280	–507	–32
Podravska	5,708	6,936	–247	83	–31	10	11217	–102	–6
Koroška	2,004	2,543	–578	–953	–72	–119	4046	–1387	–87
Savinjska	5,499	7,368	–418	–932	–52	–117	11492	–1246	–78
Zasavska	1,722	2,573	–278	–381	–35	–48	3865	–590	–37
Spodnjeposavska	2,373	2,787	35	135	4	17	4567	161	10
Jugovzhodna Slovenija	2,772	4,558	451	734	56	92	6637	1072	67
Osrednjeslovenska	12,793	18,349	326	910	41	114	27944	1155	72
Gorenjska	4,783	7,229	531	–461	66	–58	10816	–63	–4
Notranjsko-kraška	1,445	2,137	468	809	59	101	3221	1160	73
Goriška	2,335	3,317	-544	-909	-68	-114	5068	-1317	-82
Obalno-kraška	2,659	3,601	364	1,375	46	172	5595	1648	103

Source: SORS, Bevc 2000; calculations by Jakoš.

[99] In 1993, the Urban Planning Institute of Slovenia carried out the project on External and Internal Migration in Slovenia (Jakoš 1993), comprising a survey of the unemployed as to their willingness to move. The survey involved 1094 persons registered at the employment offices of Ljubljana, Škofja Loka and Velenje. The questions were: "Are you willing to move permanently to another place if you found employment there?" and "Are you willing to commute to another place on a daily basis if you found employment there?"

Table 56: **Internal migration, 1997–2006**

	Region of immigration												
Region of emigration	**POM**	**POD**	**KOR**	**SAV**	**ZAS**	**SPO**	**JV- SLO**	**OSR**	**GOR**	**NOT**	**GOR**	**OBA**	**SLO**
Pomurska (POM)	0	1,676	58	208	16	45	73	910	94	46	60	124	3,310
Podravska (POD)	1,619	0	533	1,580	69	157	176	1,862	287	72	152	429	6,936
Koroška (KOR)	86	773	0	661	20	38	54	648	81	26	46	110	2,543
Savinjska (SAV)	209	1,974	643	0	385	584	247	2,408	292	76	129	421	7,368
Zasavska (ZAS)	16	120	21	675	0	213	91	1,165	112	22	34	104	2,573
Spodnjeposavska (SPO)	54	192	25	508	79	0	752	856	122	28	60	111	2,787
Jugovzhodna Slovenija (JV-SLO)	34	173	22	208	64	761	0	2,658	222	103	95	218	4,558
Osrednjeslovenska (OSR)	550	1,191	180	1,780	1,379	746	3,147	0	4,863	1,768	818	1,927	18,349
Gorenjska (GOR)	177	378	65	387	97	222	428	4,518	0	171	373	413	7,229
Notranjsko-kraška (NOT)	26	76	2	71	21	37	88	1,093	95	0	149	479	2,137
Goriška (GOR)	43	167	18	140	22	33	106	1,582	388	176	0	642	3,317
Obalno-kraška (OBA)	72	299	23	218	40	86	130	1,571	212	458	492	0	3,601
SLOVENIA (SLO)	2,886	7,019	1,590	6,436	2,192	2,922	5,292	19,271	6,768	2,946	2,408	4,978	64,708

Source: SORS; calculations by Jakoš.

slightly larger volume of inter-regional migrations has a significant effect on the unregulated housing market in Slovenia.

The regional disparities in net migration indicate that in the periods 1991–1998 and 1997–2006, five regions recorded positive net migration, while five recorded a negative migration balance. In the Podravska region, net migration was negative in the first period and slightly positive in the second. A significant shift was recorded by the Gorenjska region, turning from a highly positive migration balance in the first period to a highly negative one in the second. In the first period, inter-regional internal migration was less accelerated and the biggest annual change in migration balance was only 72 inhabitants (Koroška), while in the second period a change of over 100 inhabitants per year was observed in six regions. In the second period, the volume of migration increased in both the negative and positive sense in all regions (except Podravska and Gorenjska). In all five regions that posted negative net migration in the first period, the yearly average was even more negative in the second; likewise, in all five areas with positive net migration, the yearly average was more positive in the second period than in the first. All this points to a higher degree of polarisation of internal migration at the regional level.

Looking at the period as a whole (1991–2006), seven regions had a negative and only five regions a positive balance of inter-regional migration. From the geographic aspect, the situation was worst in northeast and northwest Slovenia, and best in central and south Slovenia. This was a considerable shift from the migration of the second half of the 20th century, when the areas of heaviest emigration were first southwest Slovenia and later all of south Slovenia. A significant difference was also observed in the Gorenjska region, long attractive to immigrants but nowadays marked by emigration. Only northeast Slovenia has always been characterised by emigration, although it has not exceeded the region's own natural increase since the 1970s, with the population more or less stagnating ever since.

Table 56 shows total migration between regions in the period 1997–2006. Given its size, the Osrednjeslovenska region has the largest volume of migration with most regions, although these are not one-way migrations and the region does not record the highest positive net migration in Slovenia. Strong inter-regional migration flows exist between neighbouring regions (e.g. between Pomurska and Podravska). The strongest migration flows are observed in Central Slovenia between Osrednjeslovenska region, Jugovzhodna Slovenija and Gorenjska regions, whereby the migration flow between Jugovzhodna Slovenija and Gorenjska is smaller. Immigration and emigration between Osrednjeslovenska and the other two regions amounts to more than 2,500 to almost 5,000 migrants over a period of ten years. It should be noted that no other inter-regional migration flow in Slovenia reaches 2,500.

In the past ten years, internal migration at the regional level has involved a higher number of women, meaning that internal migration in Slovenia has much different causes and effects than external migration. Given the great disparities among the regions in terms of the number of population (from less than 50,000 to over 500,000), the volume of such migration at the regional level and their significance for further demographic development are better explained in Table 57.

Table 57: **Impact of internal migration on the change in the number of population by region, 1997–2006**

	Population		Difference in the number of population	Difference in the number of population, in %	Net migration	Net migration by 1,000 population	Net migration compared with change in the number of population over the period,*in %
	1997	2006	1997–2006		1997–2006		1997–2006
Pomurska	125,957	122,198	–3,759	–3.1	–424	–0.4	11.3
Podravska	320,072	319,530	–542	–0.2	83	0.0	–15.3
Koroška	73,973	73,729	–244	–0.3	–953	–1.3	390.6
Savinjska	256,965	258,684	1719	0.7	–932	–0.4	–54.2
Zasavska	46,894	45,311	–1,583	–3.5	–381	–0.8	24.1
Spodnjeposavska	70,359	70,044	-315	–0.5	135	0.2	–42.9
Jugovzhodna Slovenija	134,724	140,119	5,395	3.9	734	0.5	13.6
Osrednjeslovenska	488,291	502,100	13,809	2.8	910	0.2	6.6
Gorenjska	195,823	199,626	3,803	1.9	–461	–0.2	–12.1
Notranjsko-kraška	50,431	51,386	955	1.9	809	1.6	84.7
Goriška	120,439	119,632	–807	–0.7	–909	–0.8	112.6
Obalno-kraška	102,920	106,157	3,237	3.1	1375	1.3	42.5

Source: SORS, calculations by Jakoš.
Note: * This column should be regarded in absolute (mathematical) terms, as it shows the absolute impact on the change regardless of the mathematical sign (e.g. minus ÷ minus = plus).

In six regions, total population increased and in the other six decreased. The changes in population at the level of regions depend on the natural population dynamics (births, deaths) in each region, internal inter-regional migration (foreigners excluded), and migration with other countries. Over the last ten years, the number of population changed by over 3% in as many as four regions. However, this change was not particularly affected by regional migration as this accounted for over 1% of the changes in the total population in only three regions.

In absolute terms, the highest net internal migration was observed in the Obalno-kraška region (+1,375). Values above 900 were also recorded by Koroška, Savinjska and Goriška (negative), and by the Osrednjeslovenska regions (positive). Compared with the total number of population (in relative terms), the impact of net internal migration was strongest in the Notranjsko-kraška region (1.6%), followed by the Obalno-kraška region where total population increased by 1.3% only because of internal migration (the overall increase was even higher: 3.1%). Internal migration has a strong impact also in Koroška where negative net migration accounted for 1.3% of the population in 2006.

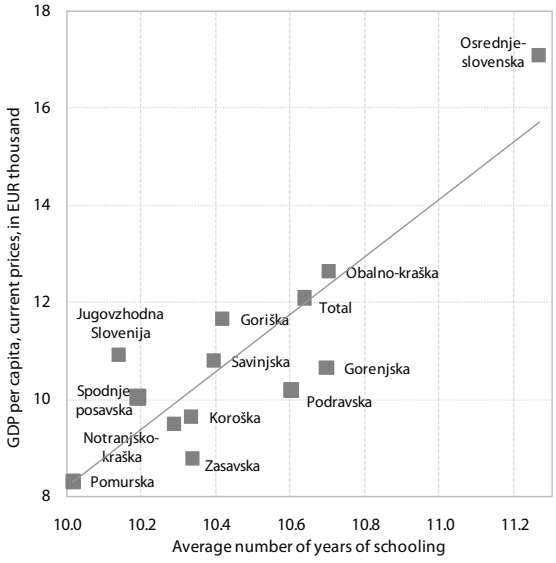
The last column in Table 57 indicates a relative significance of the internal migration balance at the regional level for the change in the total number of population. The impact of internal migration is, of course, relatively more important in areas with no major changes in the total population, such as Koroška, where in the period 1997–2006, the number of inhabitants – taking into account only the region's own natural growth and external migration – rose by over 700, yet overall it actually decreased by 244 owing to a very negative inter-regional balance of internal migration. Second, in terms of impact of internal migration on the change in the number of population, is Goriška. Here, too, owing to internal inter-regional migration, the number of the region's population did not increase by over 100 but actually fell by over 800. Inter-regional migration has a greater impact on the total population than the natural increase and external migration also in the Notranjsko-kraška region (about 85%) where without inter-regional migration the number of inhabitants would practically stand still, but the region thus ranks fifth among the twelve in terms of population growth. The impact of internal migration is also significant (somewhat over 50%) in the Savinjska region, where it is especially negative, and in the Spodnjeposavska and Obalno-kraška regions. The difference between the latter two is that values in the Spodnjesavska region are low in absolute terms, while in the Obalno-kraška region they are fairly high.

Inter-regional migration in Slovenia is not particularly strong. For example, in the last ten years, the highest positive internal migration balance (in the Obalno-kraška region) was only 1,375 inhabitants. At the same time, inter-municipal internal migration was stronger, although the trend was eventually completely reversed. The population started to move out of the major cities, owing mostly to the lack of housing or the extremely high prices thereof. This trend is mostly observed in Ljubljana (for more information see Internal migration at the municipal level – the case of Ljubljana). Another important reason for internal migration is the search for adequate jobs, as explained on the following pages.

3.2.1 Migration between regions by educational structure of the population, 1991–2002

Human capital is, in addition to natural resources, infrastructure, etc., a decisive factor of regional development. Regions with a better educated population (longer average duration of formal education, higher share of people with a high education) supposedly have higher GDP per capita, individuals with higher education have higher incomes, and there are also certain benefits for the region (a better state of health of the population, etc.). At the 2002 census, the highest average number of years of schooling of the population aged 15 or over was achieved by the Osrednjeslovenska region (see Figure 13), which also had the highest GDP per capita among all Slovenian regions; the other extreme was Pomurska. The Osrednjeslovenska region had the largest share of population with a higher education and the lowest share of population that attained only a primary education or less.

Figure 49: **Average number of years of schooling of the population aged 15 or over (2002 census) and GDP per capita by region, 2002**



Source: SORS; calculations by IMAD.

The correlation coefficient between GDP per capita and the average number of years of schooling shows that the two are strongly related (R^2 = 0.7485). The relation between the availability of highly educated labour and the regional economy is mutual. The economy's demand for highly educated labour force in a certain region attracts this population to move to such a region, while the need to establish educational institutions and programmes in the region may be very attractive for the business sector.

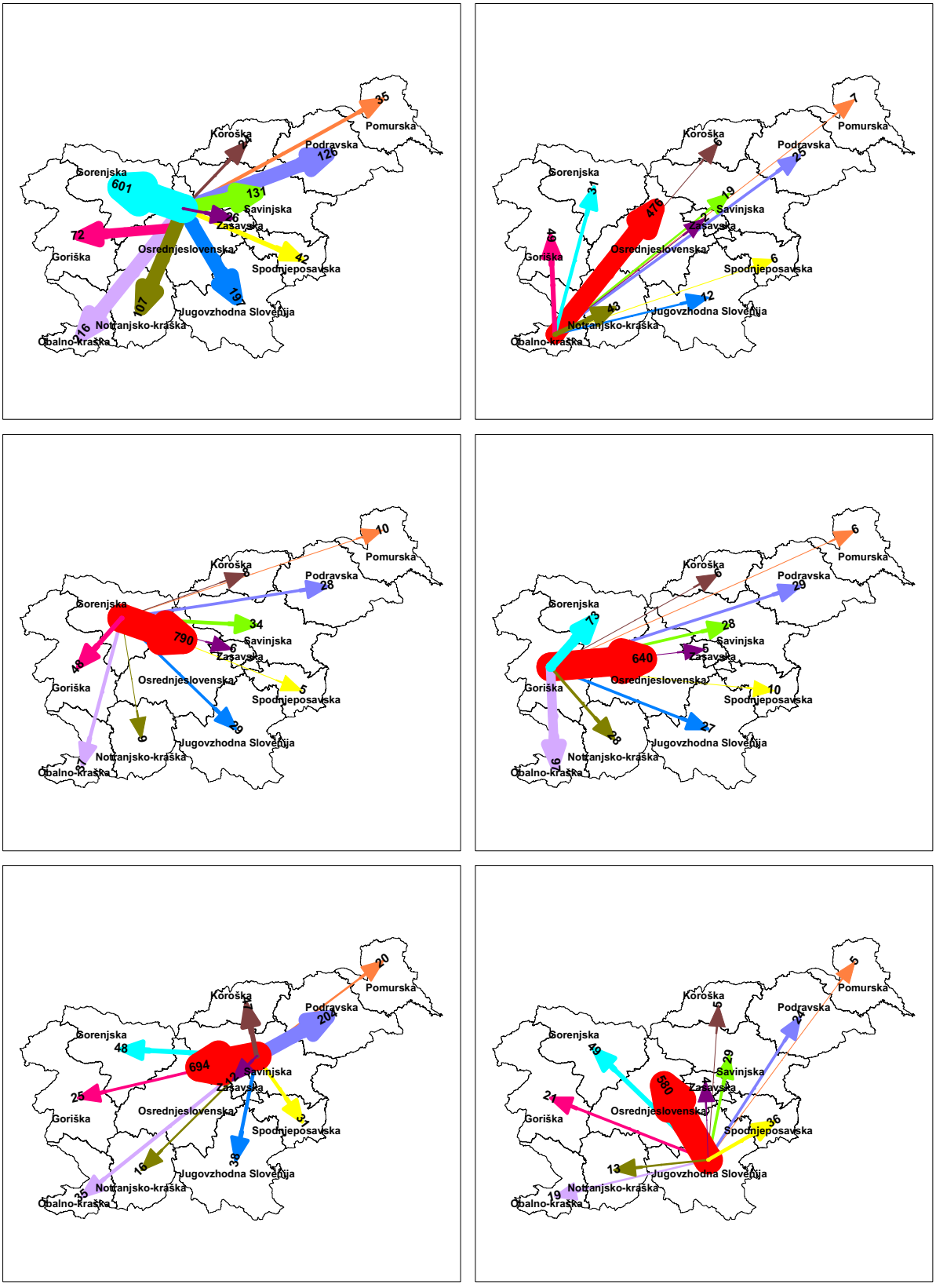
At the regional level, there may be disparities between the availability of and demand for staff with a certain level of education (primary, secondary, or higher education), which (may) result in inter-regional migration of differently skilled staff. The effects of migration vary. A study by Pekkala and Kangasharju (1998) for the Finnish regions reveals that a high level of education of migrants has a positive impact on the region of immigration and a negative impact on the region of emigration. A similar yet opposite impact is observed in the case of less educated migrants (Grčar 2006, p. 5). Below is a presentation of inter-regional migration flows by attained level of education between the last two population censuses (1991 and 2002).

In the period concerned, the Osrednjeslovenska and Koroška regions lost some people with at most primary education (about 1.5% and less than 0.5%, respectively), while all other regions gained them, mostly the Spodnjeposavska region (more than 2%), Jugovzhodna Slovenija and Notranjsko-kraška region (about 1% each). Other regions attracted considerably fewer people with lower levels of educational attainment. If only the population without education is taken into account, the only region that lost this section of population was the Osrednjeslovenska region, while most were attracted to Spodnjeposavska and Pomurska regions and to Jugovzhodna Slovenija. Most people with lower levels of education stayed in the Goriška and Pomurska regions.

For the population with at least a post-secondary vocational education, the situation is usually the opposite. The only regions that attracted this population were Osrednjeslovenska and Gorenjska; if only persons with a higher education are considered, the only region of immigration was Osrednjeslovenska. The region that recorded the greatest loss of the section of population with a post-secondary or higher education was Zasavska (over 10%), their destination most often being the Osrednjeslovenska region. The latter is always the first choice of highly educated migrants, while the second choice is normally the geographically neighbouring region (e.g. for the population of Pomurska, the preferred destination is Osrednjeslovenska regions, followed by the neighbouring Podravska region). This of course applies to the more educated population. The Osrednjeslovenska region retains the largest share (96%) of highly educated persons who do not emigrate elsewhere, while the Spodnjeposavska region offers fewer jobs for the local highly educated population and only retains 86% of this section of the population, which is the lowest share among the regions. Osrednjeslovenska is the only region with more highly educated immigrants than emigrants between 1991 and 2002, having attracted 7.8% of the population with a higher education and lost the largest share of the section of the population with only a primary education.

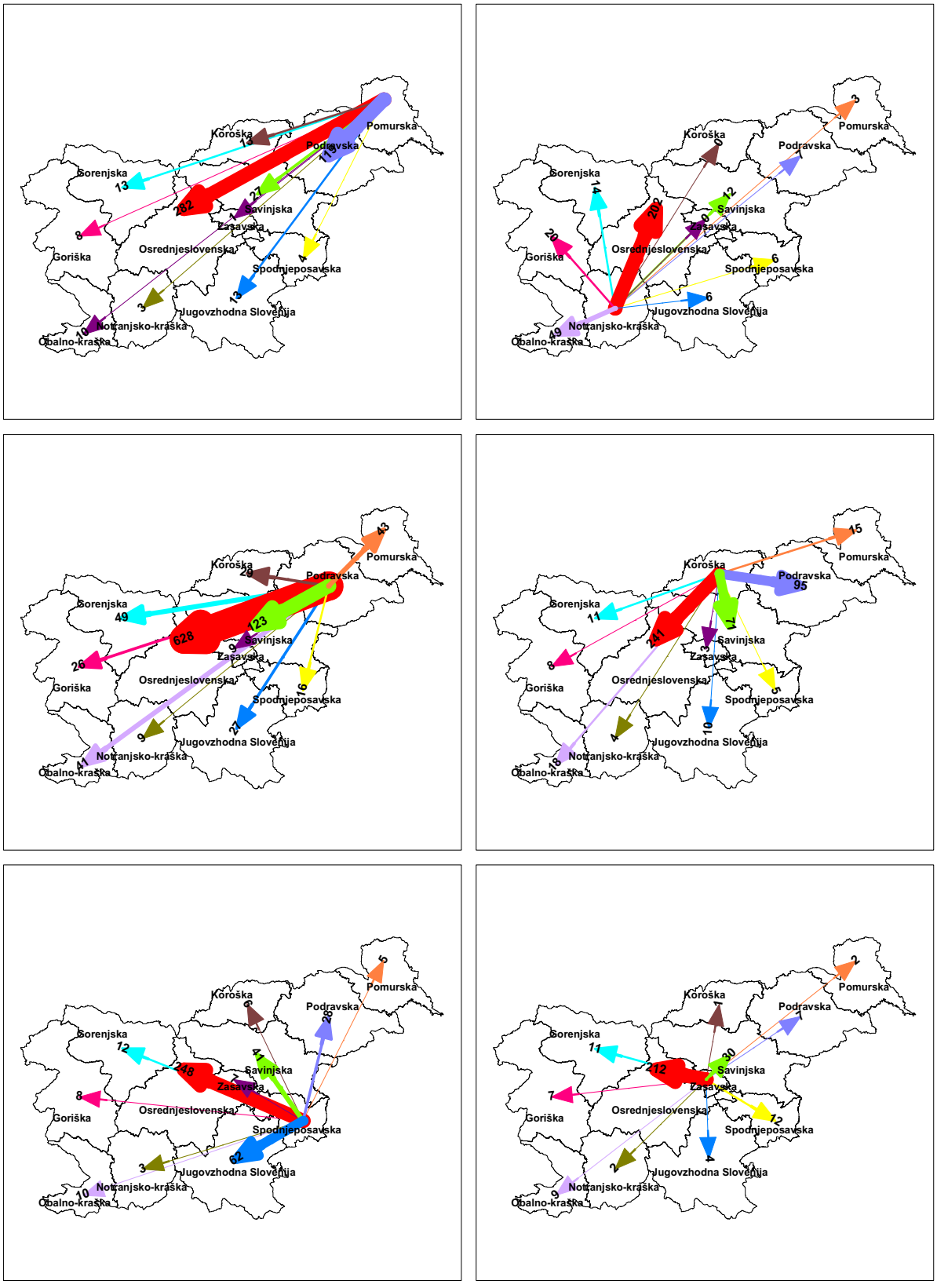
Data on migrations by educational structure between the last two censuses reveal an increased immigration of highly educated population to the Osrednjeslovenska region, which is no surprise. Even before 2002, this region

Map 2: **Emigration of the population with higher education between the 1991 and 2002 censuses by region (population aged over 15 covered by both censuses)**



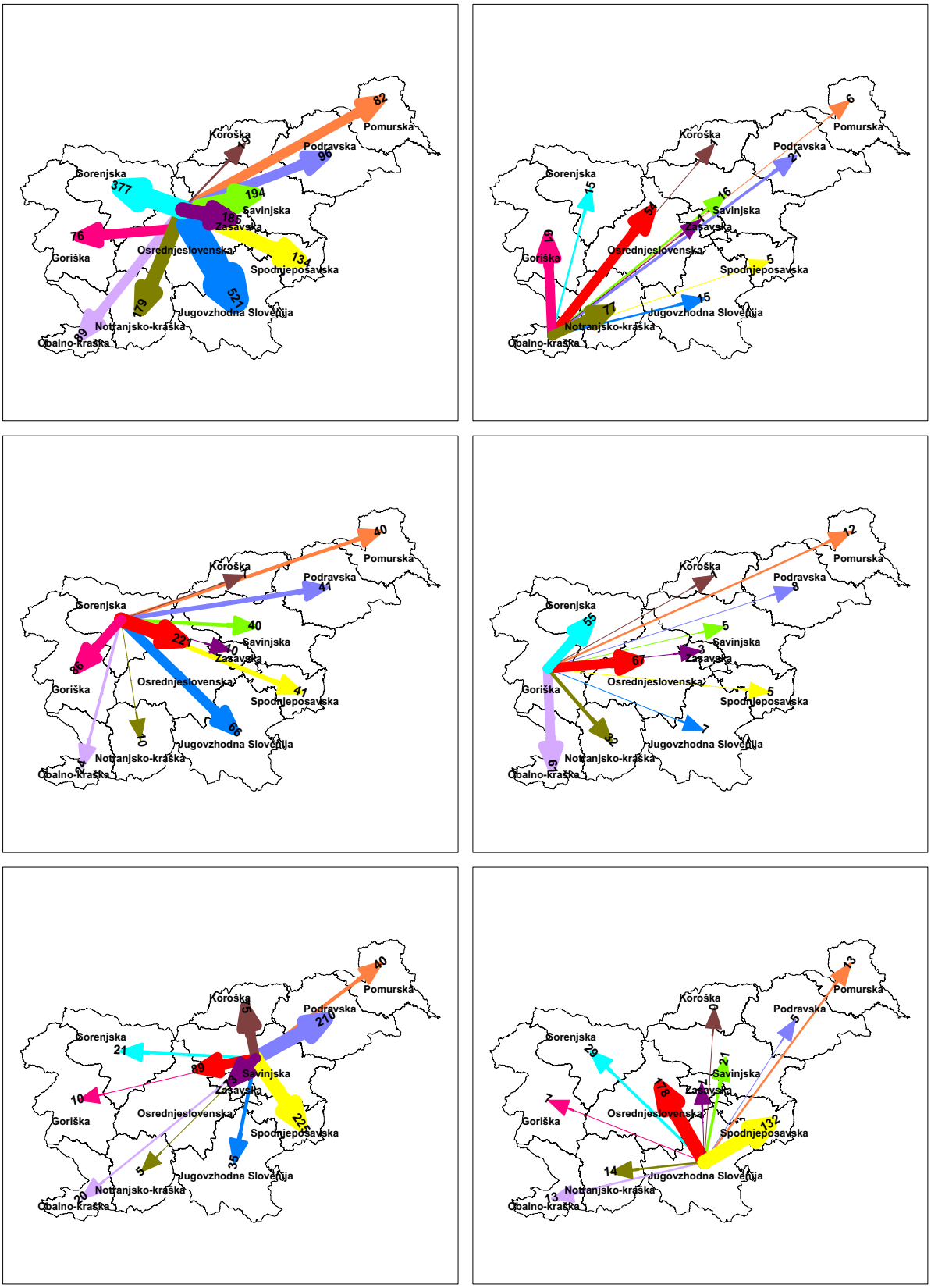
Source: SORS, SMARS, calculations and mapping by IMAD.

Map 2: **Emigration of the population with higher education between the 1991 and 2002 censuses by region (population aged over 15 covered by both censuses)**



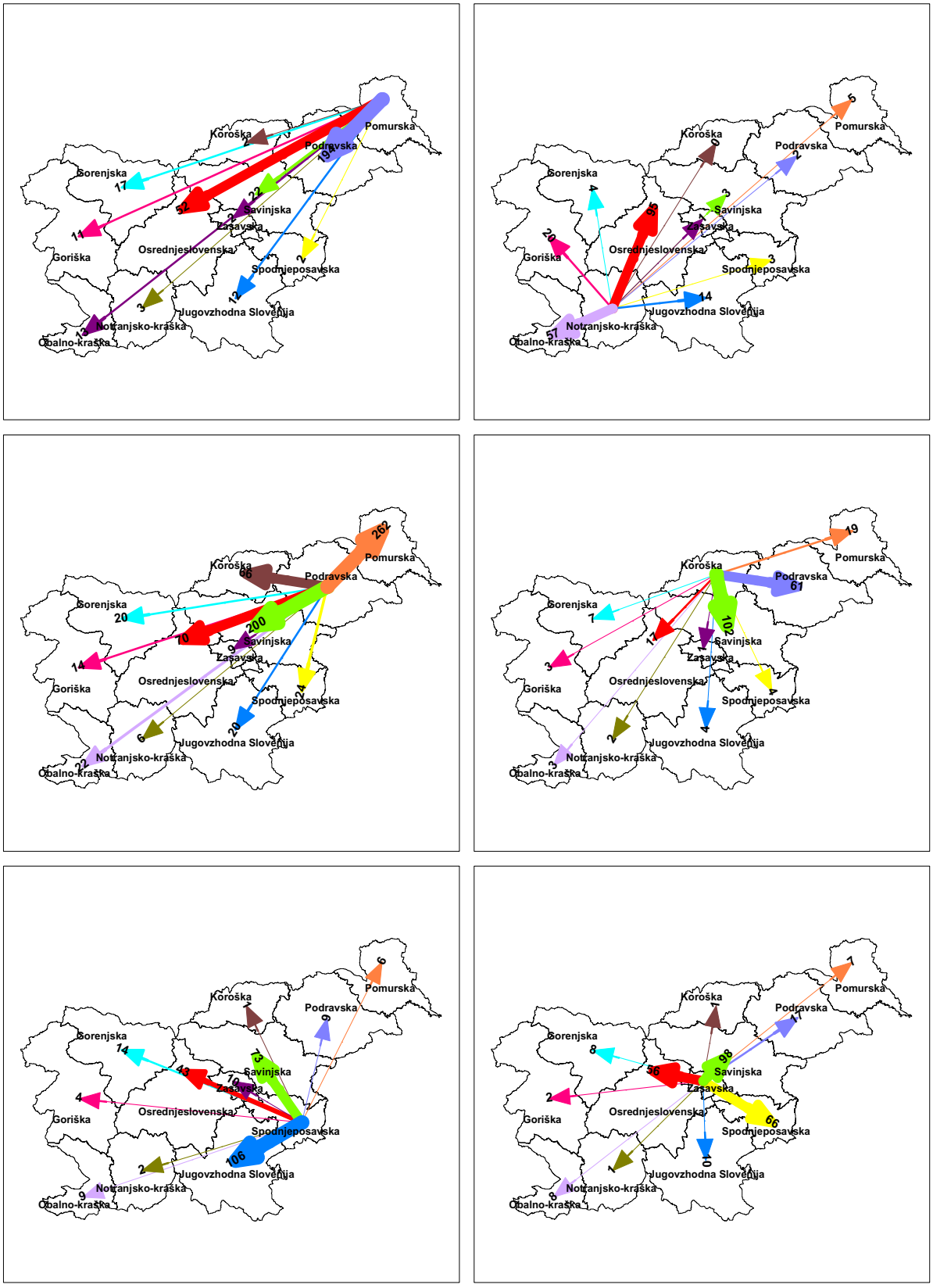
Source: SORS, SMARS, calculations and mapping by IMAD.

Map 3: **Emigration of the population with at most primary education between the 1991 and 2002 censuses by region (population aged over 15 covered by both censuses)**



Source: SORS, SMARS, calculations and mapping by IMAD.

Map 3: **Emigration of the population with at most primary education between the 1991 and 2002 censuses by region (population aged over 15 covered by both censuses)**



Source: SORS, SMARS, calculations and mapping by IMAD.

Table 58: **Migration of population with post-secondary vocational and higher education between the 1991 and 2002 censuses, by region**

	Population that stayed in the region	Emigration	Immigration	Net migration	Net migration, in %
Pomurska	7,269	638	248	–390	–4.9
Podravska	2,6773	1,292	963	–329	–1.2
Koroška	5,316	628	217	–411	–6.9
Savinjska	18,811	1,520	802	–718	–3.5
Zasavska	3,241	405	127	–278	–7.6
Spodnjeposavska	4,257	579	281	–298	–6.2
Jugovzhodna Slovenija	9,476	1,039	620	–419	–4.0
Osrednjeslovenska	63,732	2,401	6,184	3,783	5.7
Gorenjska	18,268	1,323	1,340	17	0.1
Notranjsko-kraška	3,653	431	395	-36	-0.9
Goriška	10,555	1,195	439	-756	-6.4
Obalno-kraška	10,622	915	750	-165	-1.4

Source: SORS; processed in 2008; calculations by IMAD.
Note: Population covered by both censuses and aged over 15.

Table 60: **Migration of the section of the population with at most a primary education between the 1991 and 2002 censuses by region**

	Population that stayed in the region	Emigration	Immigration	Net migration	Net migration, in %
Pomurska	35,051	330	492	162	0.5
Podravska	62,623	713	664	–49	–0.1
Koroška	15,833	223	173	–50	–0.3
Savinjska	55,176	803	774	–29	–0.1
Zasavska	10,074	274	302	28	0.3
Spodnjeposavska	16,084	277	641	364	2.2
Jugovzhodna Slovenija	32,460	419	810	391	1.2
Osrednjeslovenska	69,243	1,952	942	–1,010	–1.4
Gorenjska	35,917	586	567	–19	–0.1
Notranjsko-kraška	11,577	204	331	127	1.1
Goriška	28,129	256	294	38	0.1
Obalno-kraška	19,222	272	319	47	0.2

Source: SORS; processed in 2008; calculations by IMAD.
Note: Population covered by both censuses and aged over 15.

saw an intense concentration of economic activities which is still in progress today, making the region very attractive for immigration. The Osrednjeslovenska region has more jobs on offer (in 2002 it accounted for about 30% of all jobs in Slovenia) and is easily accessible for traffic (e.g. from the Zasavska region), which in the short term increases daily commuting and in the long term even results in permanent emigration. The intense concentration of economic activities[100] in the Osrednjeslovenska region is also demonstrated by other data. In 2002, about 45% of the companies had their registered seats in the Osrednjeslovenska region, employing almost one third of the labour force, and generating over 42% of the total revenue of Slovenian companies and over 46% of net profit for the financial year. The consequence of such

Table 59: **Destination preferred by the population with post-secondary vocational and higher education**

	First preference		Second preference	
Region	**destination**	**in %**	**destination**	**in %**
Pomurska	Osrednjeslovenska	4.4	Podravska	2.3
Podravska	Osrednjeslovenska	2.6	Savinjska	0.6
Koroška	Osrednjeslovenska	5.0	Podravska	2.1
Savinjska	Osrednjeslovenska	4.1	Podravska	1.3
Zasavska	Osrednjeslovenska	7.7	Savinjska	1.3
Spodnjeposavska	Osrednjeslovenska	6.3	Jugovzhodna Slovenija	1.8
Jugovzhodna Slovenija	Osrednjeslovenska	7.2	Gorenjska	0.6
Osrednjeslovenska	Gorenjska	1.4	Jugovzhodna Slovenija	0.5
Gorenjska	Osrednjeslovenska	5.2	Goriška	0.3
Notranjsko-kraška	Osrednjeslovenska	6.4	Obalno-kraška	1.8
Goriška	Osrednjeslovenska	6.5	Obalno-kraška	1.1
Obalno-kraška	Osrednjeslovenska	5.1	Goriška	0.8

Source: SORS; processed in 2008; calculations by IMAD.
Note: Population covered by both censuses and aged over 15.

[100] Such high values are also due to the manner in which data on companies are gathered, based on the company's registered seat.

Table 61: **Destination preferred by the section of the population with at most a primary education**

Region	First preference	%	Second preference	%
Pomurska	Podravska	0.6	Osrednjeslovenska	0.2
Podravska	Pomurska	0.4	Savinjska	0.3
Koroška	Savinjska	0.6	Podravska	0.4
Savinjska	Posavska	0.4	Podravska	0.4
Zasavska	Savinjska	1.0	Spodnjeposavska	0.6
Spodnjeposavska	Jugovzhodna Slovenija	0.7	Savinjska	0.5
Jugovzhodna Slovenija	Osrednjeslovenska	0.5	Spodnjeposavska	0.4
Osrednjeslovenska	Jugovzhodna Slovenija	0.7	Gorenjska	0.5
Gorenjska	Osrednjeslovenska	0.6	Goriška	0.2
Notranjsko-kraška	Osrednjeslovenska	0.8	Obalno-kraška	0.5
Goriška	Osrednjeslovenska	0.2	Obalno-kraška	0.2
Obalno-kraška	Notranjsko-kraška	0.4	Goriška	0.3

Source: SORS; processed in 2008; calculations by IMAD.
Note: Population covered by both censuses and aged over 15.

concentration of economic activities is seen in the above-average value added per employee in this region, which in 2002 exceeded the Slovenian average by almost one fifth, while value added per capita exceeded the national average by about 60% and was four times higher than in the least favourable region, Pomurska. The basis for assessment of the income tax base – another indicator of the economic power of the population – was one fifth higher than in other regions. Gross wages per employee were also the highest in Slovenia, exceeding the national average by over 16%.

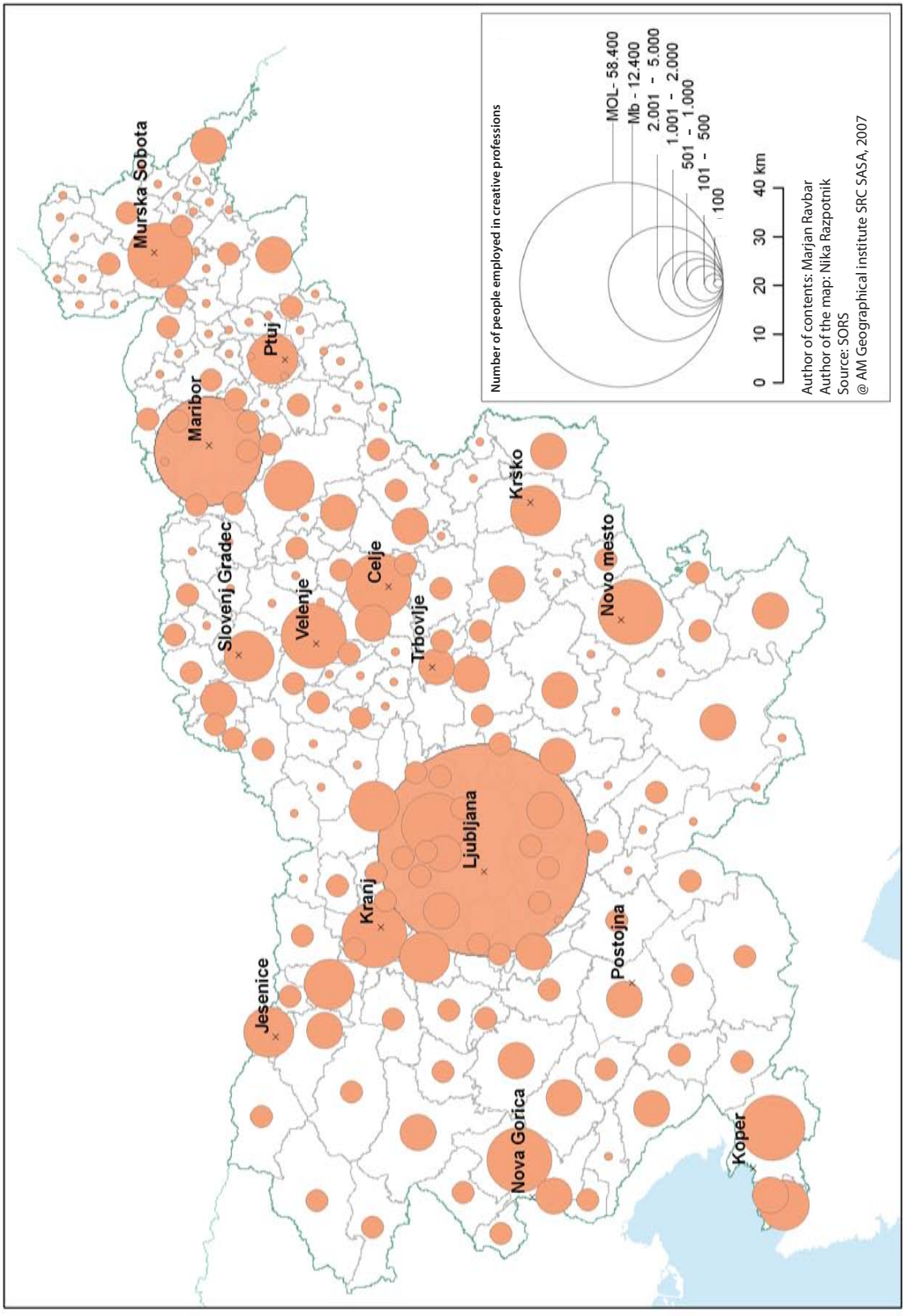
In the period between the two censuses, in addition to the concentration of economic activities, the Osrednjeslovenska region was also attractive to the section of the population with a higher education because of the concentration of higher education institutions and their enrolment capacity. For this reason, many young people immigrated to the region during their studies, further increasing the possibility that after their studies they would find employment and stay in the region. In the last few years, the network of higher education institutions has been expanding outside the Osrednjeslovenska region and the number of towns with such an institution, a branch thereof, or a study centre is increasing, thus offering the possibility for the local population to study in their home region. It needs to be stressed, however, that the decision to study in the home region is influenced by several factors besides physical nearness, such as the range of study programmes on offer in the home and other regions, the quality of study programmes, etc. Thus, in order to keep graduates in the home region, the range of higher education programmes offered should be adapted to the existing and future needs of the region's economy.

3.2.2 Creativity and migration

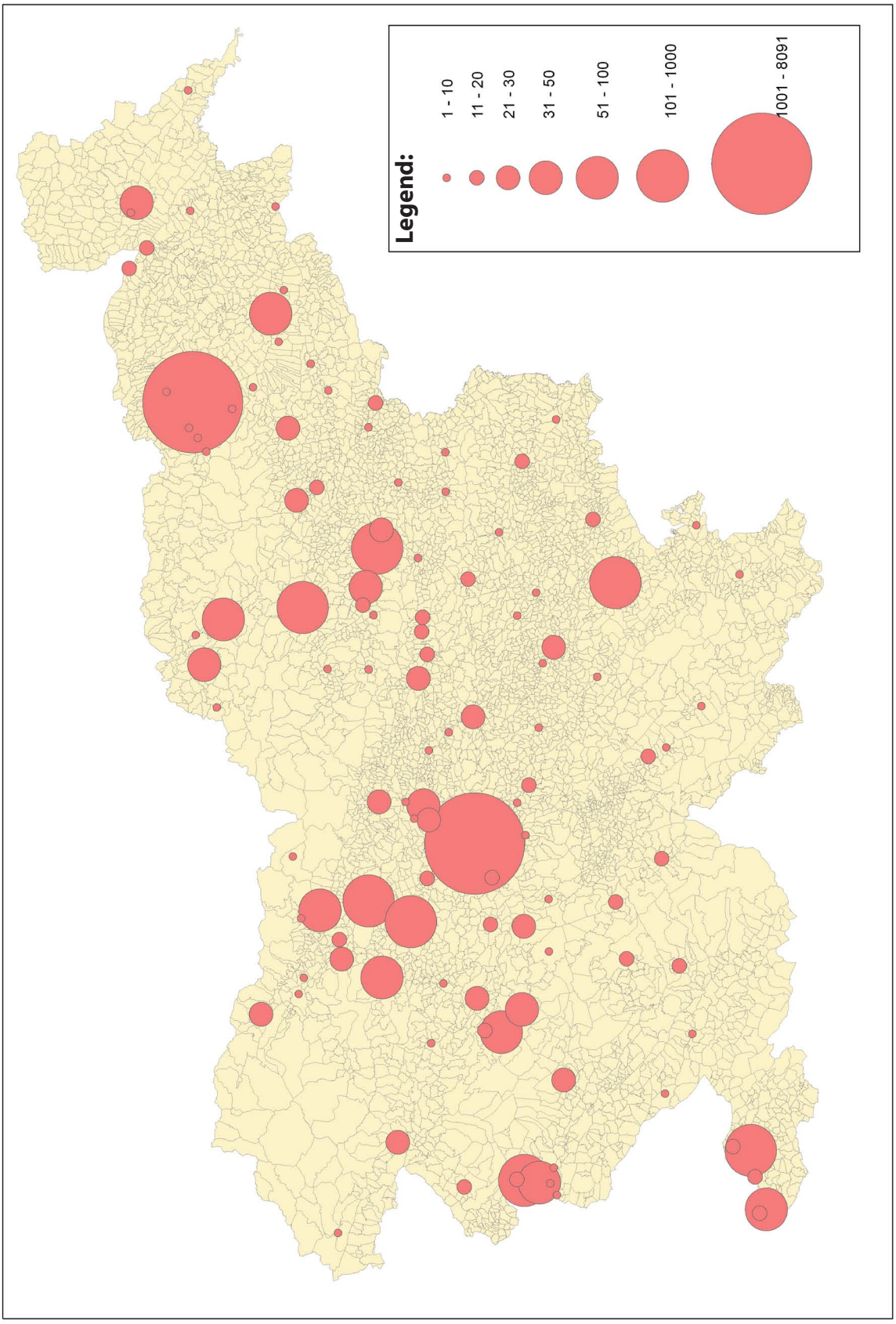
Creativity (from the Latin "creatio") stands for effective and innovative performance of various tasks in society and is not in the exclusive domain of scientists or artists. The creative classes are very hard to identify as their activities vary considerably. In particular, it is difficult to spot the "content" of creativity. In principle, these are groups of people able to identify a certain problem and based on this to develop new ideas or combine them in their own unique manner to create new products. They come from different social classes (the "creative core") and have an influence on various areas of social life. The creative core is composed of people creating new knowledge. Florida (2004) identified three interrelated types of creativity: (1) "technological creativity or innovation" including engineers, scientists, physicians, teachers, and researchers in the economy, medicine, humanities, and technical, natural and social sciences, driven by socio-economic and technological development; (2) "economic creativity or entrepreneurship", e.g. managers, high state officials, and experts active in various economic, educational and healthcare activities supporting economic development and thus indirectly establishing interactions with other professions (economic sciences, law, etc.); and (3) "artistic or cultural creativity", including musicians, publishers, writers, painters, etc. who do not register new patents yet undertake activities which are important indicators of the openness, identity and differentiation of the land. They are also very attractive for the first two classes of creative professions.

The distribution of creative professions by development region shows a marked concentration in the Osrednjeslovenska region, with almost a half of all jobs in creative professions in Slovenia (although the region accounts for "only" 32% of jobs).

Map 4: **Number of people employed in creative professions by municipality, Slovenia, 2006**



Map 5: **Number of researchers by location, Slovenia, 2007**

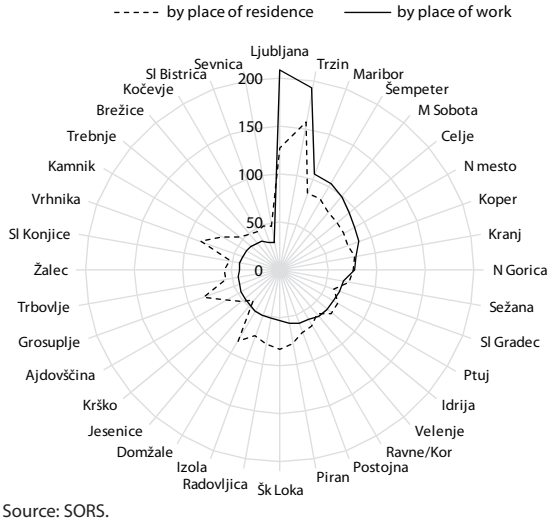


Given this figure, the share of creative professions in the total population of all other development regions is below the national average. Podravje thus features almost three times fewer creative professions (13%), followed by Savinjska and Gorenjska. About 5% of those in creative professions are found in the Obalno-kraška region, as well as in Dolenjska and Goriška. In other regions, their shares range between 1% and 3%.

A comparison between the share of those in creative professions by place of work and place of residence reveals that all regions except Osrednjeslovenska (with a surplus of 13,685) record fewer jobs in creative professions than indicated by statistical data on creative professions by place of residence. This testifies to the significant inter-regional forms of daily commuting towards Ljubljana, with figures exceeding those for other groups of professions. Thus, Ljubljana records a "surplus" of jobs in creative professions amounting to 21,825, while the municipalities in its immediate surroundings (e.g. Grosuplje, Medvode, Kamnik, Vrhnika, Domžale) all show a "deficit" of over 2,000. Empirical examples demonstrate an above-average level of daily commuting from the above municipalities to Ljubljana, which is also much higher than for other educational groups of the active population.

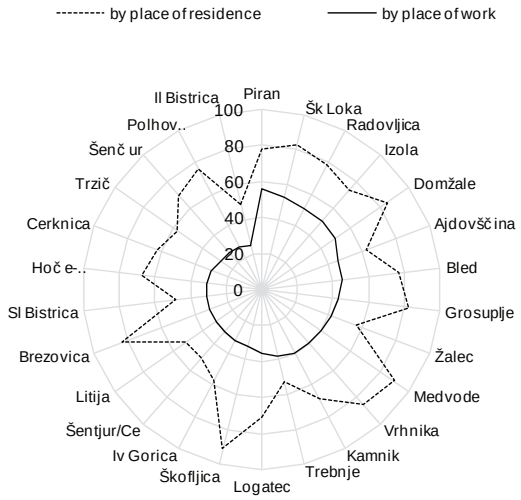
Furthermore, studies show a relation between the number of those in creative professions and the quality of the residential environment. In Slovenian circumstances, this relation is mainly grounded by insufficient regulation of the real estate market of the labour force when choosing a place of residence. In the case of Slovenia, this hypothesis is supported by the great differences in the number of creative professionals between the place of residence and the place of work in small peripheral municipalities (without a significant number of jobs) in developing urban regions. The largest group of municipalities near Ljubljana with a high level

Figure 50: **Number of creative professions by place of residence and place of work by 1,000 population in municipalities with over 5,000 jobs**



Source: SORS.

Figure 51: **Number of creative professions by place of residence and place of work by 1,000 population in municipalities with the largest share of daily commuters**



Source: SORS.

of daily commuting includes Grosuplje, Vrhnika, Polhov Gradec, Medvode, Brezovica, Škofljica, Litija, Ivančna Gorica, Domžale, Kamnik, Logatec, Cerknica, Škofja Loka, as well as Šenčur, Radovljica, Tržič and Bled; near Celje: Žalec, Šentjur and Slovenske Konjice; near Maribor: Slovenska Bistrica and Hoče-Slivnica, etc.

The main hypothesis is that in modern socio-economic conditions, the creative labour force does not migrate in order to find a job (people follow jobs) but moves where the residential conditions are creativity-friendly (jobs follow people). Florida (2004) thus agrees with the promoters of the new development theory pointing to a decisive role of those cities and urban agglomerates that have a decisive role in the competitiveness of national economies. A particular emphasis is placed on interrelation and human contacts where tolerance is high (and also for ethnic diversity). Such background levers encourage new combinations of creative skills and innovations, and the creation of new companies and new creative jobs.

3.3 Internal migration at municipal level – the case of the Municipality of Ljubljana (MOL)

Local migration flows between municipalities or even smaller urban units are increasing and already pose problems in terms of their intensity and definition. These flows may, however, rapidly change and take the completely opposite course, or present different motives based on the push and pull theory.

Ljubljana was a classic area of immigration from the Second World War to the early 1980s, when the period of construction of great neighbourhoods came to an end. This urban municipality therefore seems the perfect case for our analysis. The life expectancy of the population has significantly increased to date, and the large housing stock built in Ljubljana in the 1960s and 1970s can not be transferred to the new generation as the units are too small to accommodate two households and the "parents are too young" to leave the home to the young. Thus, given elevated housing prices, the young educated population is moving out of Ljubljana, and these migration flows are very strong. For example, Ljubljana's negative net migration with Domžale in the period 1995–2005 was over 2,000. Table 61 indicates inter-municipal migration balance between Ljubljana and 25 municipalities where negative net migration is the highest. In only seven years (1999–2005), Ljubljana's negative net migration amounted to almost 12,000, meaning that these migration flows were ten times stronger than at the regional level. In this case, however, inter-regional migration flows can not be assessed since only 3 out of the 25 municipalities lie outside the Osrednjeslovenska region. If the local government reform of 1995 and the consequent fragmentation of municipalities were not taken into account, Ljubljana's negative net migration would be lower by 5,000 i.e. by the number of people who moved to the new municipalities established on the territory of what were once 5 Ljubljana municipalities (10 out of 25). Thus, these are very strong yet territorially limited internal migrations.

Since its establishment as an urban municipality in 1995, Ljubljana has lost over 20,000 inhabitants owing to emigration to neighbouring suburban municipalities. The standstill recorded in major Slovenian cities indicates that this is not an exception. Yet, because inter-regional migration is weak, most migration seems to

Table 62: **Net migration between Ljubljana and other municipalities in the periods 1995–1998 and 1999–2005**

Period 1995–1998 (147 municipalities in Slovenia)			**Period 1999–2005 (193 municipalities in Slovenia)**		
25 municipalities	**Net**	**Yearly**	**25 municipalities**	**Net**	**Yearly**
Domžale	–703	–176	Domžale	–1.299	–186
Škofljica	–561	–140	Grosuplje	–1.149	–164
Grosuplje	–530	–133	Škofljica	–1.146	–164
Vrhnika	–509	–127	Vrhnika	–860	–123
Brezovica	–440	–110	Brezovica	–723	–103
Ivančna Gorica	–412	–103	Medvode	–632	–90
Medvode	–408	–102	Ivančna Gorica	–622	–89
Logatec	–358	–90	Ig	–590	–84
Litija	–337	–84	Kamnik	–588	–84
Kamnik	–320	–80	Logatec	–484	–69
Ig	–241	–60	Dol pri Ljubljani	–455	–65
Škofja Loka	–234	–59	Litija	–432	–62
Dol pri Ljubljani	–186	–47	Dobrova - Polhov Gradec	–427	–61
Velike Lašče	–183	–46	Trzin	–398	–57
Kranj	–178	–45	Trebnje	–306	–44
Dobrova - Horjul - Polhov Gradec	–177	–44	Velike Lašče	–300	–43
Trebnje	–148	–37	Mengeš	–268	–38
Mengeš	–97	–24	Vodice	–216	–31
Postojna	–91	–23	Cerknica	–196	–28
Trbovlje	–89	–22	Dobrepolje	–158	–23
Cerknica	–84	–21	Borovnica	–142	–20
Vodice	–83	–21	Lukovica	–142	–20
Ribnica	–74	–19	Piran	–128	–18
Moravče	–63	–16	Moravče	–124	–18
Lukovica	–59	–15	Komenda	–90	–13
TOTAL	–6,565	–66	TOTAL	–11,875	–68

Source: SORS; calculations by Dolenc, Jakoš.

be directed towards nearby suburban municipalities. This phenomenon is negative in terms of the utilisation of space at the national level as the population moves from areas of high concentration to areas of dispersed individual buildings. The city is also losing its functions. Given the geographical position of the largest cities (Ljubljana, Maribor, Celje, etc.) on flat (basin) land, migration from areas of high concentration also means loss of some of the best agricultural land, as well as increased commuting since jobs stay in the cities.

The situation in internal migrations has changed considerably in Slovenia. People no longer move to the cities to follow jobs, but rather stay at home and commute on a daily basis. Housing has practically replaced employment as a motive for migration. While in past periods, people moved to follow jobs, they now move to follow housing. The population is in fact moving out of large cities and the opposite course of migration is seen. This expands the volume of commuting and increases housing problems shown in both emigration and immigration areas.

4 Daily mobility

Daily mobility is a form of spatial (horizontal) mobility that distinguishes itself from migration by the fact that it refers to regular travel (every day or several times a week) from the place of residence to another place, with the place of permanent residence remaining unchanged. Most often, it relates to daily commuting to work or school and back home. In addition to daily mobility, there are other forms of mobility such as temporary mobility, seasonal mobility or mobility based on tourist, recreational or other motives.

The beginnings of daily mobility date back to early industrialisation, when jobs were no longer linked to the place of residence (as is typical for farming activities), but to the place where industrial activities were pursued. The birth of large employment centres and the overpopulation of the countryside on the one hand and the development of the transportation infrastructure on the other resulted in daily streams of workers from their place of residence to their place of work. The first widely used means of transporting commuters was the train, followed by buses and later by the automobile. The latter fundamentally changed the patterns of daily mobility: automobiles became generally accessible and the distances commuters travelled greatly increased. Study of the flows of daily commuters is important as it covers several important geographical fields: the labour market, regional development or regional flows, the hierarchy of central settlements, the distribution of the working population, economic characteristics, the educational structure, and last but not least, it is important from the point of view of traffic arteries and balanced regional development.

The characteristics of regular daily mobility are thus a reflection of economic, spatial, and cultural conditions in the society. The patterns of daily mobility are closely related to the overall social development and can be interpreted from this point of view. The employment structure of the population indicates that Slovenia entered the post-industrial socio-economic stage two decades ago, and in some regions and cities even earlier.

The above socio-economic conditions also influence the daily mobility of the population. Overcoming distance in space has become more frequent, as the contemporary, "individual" lifestyle calls for greater daily mobility than in the past. In addition to the need for travel, the spatial structure has also changed, which leads to ever-increasing separation of activities in space, thus enhancing the need for travel. This was explained by the German town planner T. Sieverts (2003) with his scheme of daily activities. In industrial cities, the majority of all activities (labour, education, care, recreation, etc.) are carried out in the city centre, while in modern cities these activities are spatially more dispersed. Shopping centres are built in the suburbs, business and industrial

In foreign literature, the expression **daily mobility** is unambiguous and clearly differs from related and similar expressions. For specific historical reasons, Slovenian geographical science equates this phenomenon with a number of expressions, the majority of which touch on the phenomenon of migration. Articles mentioning the spatial mobility of the population thus include various studies of population movement, i.e. migration. In this chapter, the term mobility is used in connection with overcoming distances in space by an individual or a group whose permanent residence does not change. Migration, on the other hand, denotes the change of residence of individuals or groups of people (Bole 2004). Taking these concepts into consideration, the terms "daily migrant" and "daily migration" are less suitable, in spite of the fact that forms of work today are very diverse. Therefore, English geographers use the term commuter, while Germans use pendler to name a person travelling to work or school on a daily basis.

According to **statistical definitions**, a commuter is a person travelling to work or school every day, while the place of residence and the place of work/schooling differ (Population census, 2002). A commuter is not a person who resides and works/studies in the same place, but one who needs to cross the border of his/her settlement to comply with the statistical definition of daily commuter. There is also some confusion as to the definition of "every day" travel. Given the instructions used for the census, a daily commuter is a person who travels to work/school regularly, at least two times a week or more.

zones appear in rural suburban areas, satellite towns strengthen their residential role, while administrative services stay in city centres. Such separation of activities, also known as "decentralisation and de-concentration of living and working functions" requires a high level of mobility and creates greater needs for travel than in the past (Ravbar 2002).

4.1 Volume and characteristics of daily mobility in Slovenia

The situation in internal migration has changed considerably in Slovenia. People no longer move to the cities to follow jobs, but rather stay at home and regularly commute to work. This increases the volume of daily mobility, resulting in greater spatial problems. A study carried out by CJMMK revealed the considerable willingness of the population to commute outside their place of residence, as only one tenth declared themselves unwilling to do so.

Table 63: **Where would you be willing to commute, by marital status and age, 2006, in %**

	To the nearby major town	To the other part of Slovenia	Outside Slovenia, abroad	Not willing to commute
Total	47.9	14.5	30.0	7.6
Marital status				
married	52	12.3	25.5	10.2
extra-marital union	49.3	12.7	29.1	9
partners, not living together	46.1	17.6	32.4	3.9
single, never married	44	16.3	34.1	5.5
Age				
18-25	43.5	18.1	36.3	2.1
26-30	47.1	14.7	30.4	7.8
31-40	51.5	13.4	27.2	7.9
41-45	46.8	12.2	26.8	14.1

Source: Mobility of Slovenian workers in search of employment in EU/EEC countries, CJMMK, 2006.

At the 2002 census, Slovenia had 658,911 daily commuters, two thirds of which were workers (440,299) and one third schoolchildren and students (218,612), which includes the population attending elementary and secondary schools and universities. Compared to the 1991 census, the number of daily commuters grew by 50,000, or by slightly more than 7.5%. The largest increase was recorded by commuters travelling to school (by over 23%), while the number of commuting workers stayed more or less the same. The higher number of commuters is thus a result of the greater daily mobility of school children and increasing participation in tertiary education.

The level of daily mobility is also a reflection of the urbanisation of a certain region. In the municipalities of the Osrednjeslovenska region, on average two thirds of the total working population are daily commuters, compared with less than half of workers in the Pomurska region.

The highest number of daily commuters is recorded in the Osrednjeslovenska statistical region, as it also has the largest number of population. For sustainable development, an important indicator is the mode of travel or modal split *(see also the chapter on Sustainable mobility)*. The past period was characterised by widespread use of public transport, which in 1991 accounted for almost 54% of travel. By 2002, this proportion had fallen by almost a half, as only one quarter of commuters travelled to work/school by bus or train. The largest use of public transport was observed in the Zasavska region, which is by tradition strongly attached to train travel; the use of public transport was also above the national average in the regions of eastern Slovenia (Pomurska, Spodnjeposavska, Savinjska, Podravska). In contrast, the regions of the western half of the country

Table 64: **Number and proportion of daily commuters by mode and time of travel, 2002 census**

Region	Number of daily commuters	Mode of travel, %			Time of travel, %				
		Passenger car	Public transport	Other	Up to 15 minutes	15–30 minutes	30–45 minutes	45–60 minutes	60 minutes or more
Goriška	44,342	74.0	18.9	7.1	49.6	32.9	6.6	5.9	5.0
Pomurska	42,582	66.9	25.3	7.8	50.5	34.2	6.5	5.4	3.4
Gorenjska	80,816	69.3	24.6	6.2	39.5	33.8	11.6	11.0	4.1
Osrednjeslovenska	127,821	70.1	23.7	6.2	26.7	43.4	14.8	11.2	3.9
Spodnjeposavska	26,846	69.0	25.3	5.7	45.9	34.2	7.5	6.1	6.2
Savinjska	89,455	66.6	26.7	6.7	38.8	36.8	9.9	9.0	5.5
Notranjska	19,397	71.4	24.0	4.6	46.2	24.7	11.0	13.1	5.0
Koroška	27,707	72.3	20.8	6.9	43.0	36.2	8.3	7.7	4.9
Jugovzhodna	51,218	68.8	25.6	5.6	44.5	32.7	7.9	9.7	5.2
Podravska	97,124	67.8	26.8	5.4	34.2	41.9	10.9	8.2	4.9
Obalno-kraška	36,786	80.2	15.0	4.8	52.0	33.9	5.9	4.5	3.7
Zasavska	14,817	61.6	33.2	5.2	32.4	29.4	7.2	19.6	11.4
Total	658,911	69.8	24.3	6.1	39.1	36.9	10.2	9.1	4.7

Source: SORS, calculations by Bole.

mainly use personal transport (as drivers or passengers in a car) – the shares of public transport in the Obalno-kraška and Goriška regions are only 15% and less than 19%, respectively.

The time of travel also depends on geographical factors. The most urbanised region of Slovenia (Osrednjeslovenska) thus features longer travel times to work/school than the rest of the country; a similar situation is observed in certain other regions that are more distant from major employment centres. Zasavska records a significant proportion of those daily commuting for over one hour, which corresponds to the average time distance to the nearest centre – Ljubljana. The Obalno-kraška region, on the other hand, records short travel times mostly owing to good transport links and the geographic distribution of employment centres in minor towns (Koper, Sežana, as well as Izola and other municipal centres).

Schoolchildren more often use public transport than workers – the proportion among the first is over 53%, compared to less than 10% among the workers. This means that in 2002, public transport was used by over 116,000 school children and only 43,400 workers. To a certain extent, this confirms the results of the survey showing that public transport is used only by those who do not hold a driving licence (including those at elementary and secondary school), the retired, and those who cannot afford a car. Likewise, the comparison of travel times between school children and workers also shows that schoolchildren travel longer than the working population. In the category of 60 minutes or more travel time, 9.3% of daily commuters are schoolchildren and only 2.5% workers.

4.2 Attraction of individual centres in Slovenia

An important indicator of daily mobility is the attraction of individual cities and, indirectly, the movement and spatial interactions of the population. The attraction of individual centres is an effective indicator of the hierarchic concept of space as well as of regional loyalty. Some Slovenian cities became strong employment centres and acquired numerous other functions that are the foundation for the reproduction of social and regional awareness (Paasi 1986); other urban settlements lost these functions, and with them also their own identity. With the distribution of labour and the daily commuting of large numbers of the population from the country to the city, patterns of communication have changed, local traditions have disappeared, and new forms of regional awareness have developed (Bole 2004).

Map 6 shows the employment hinterland of municipalities that have at least 6,000 jobs (most urban municipalities are thus selected) and attract workers from at least one or several municipalities. The figure indicates the strong hinterland of Ljubljana, which features as an important employment centre up to Bohinj to the north, Loški Potok to the south, Žiri to the west, and Hrastnik to the east. The hinterland also includes some regional centres, such as Kranj, Postojna and Trbovlje. A wide hinterland of commuting workers is observed for Maribor, which extends its influence to Ptuj, while the hinterlands of other employment centres are more uniform. Other cities often regarded as regional centres do not have such a hinterland. Trbovlje mostly gravitates towards Ljubljana, and similarly weak is the hinterland of Postojna. The Gorenjska region has a special structure of

Map 6: **Employment hinterland of selected municipalities in Slovenia**

Author of the map: David Bole, AMGI, 2004 (c).

Table 65: **Towns attracting over 1,000 schoolchildren – daily commuters**

Rank	City	Number	Rank	City	Number
1	Ljubljana	45,187	20	Sežana	2,071
2	Maribor	24,350	21	Kamnik	2,038
3	Celje	11,400	22	Slovenska Bistrica	1,889
4	Kranj	9,331	23	Trebnje	1,867
5	Novo mesto	8,193	24	Ivančna Gorica	1,817
6	Nova Gorica	5,192	25	Ravne na Koroškem	1,785
7	Koper/Capodistria	4,659	26	Litija	1,719
8	Murska Sobota	4,654	27	Jesenice	1,673
9	Škofja Loka	3,543	28	Ajdovščina	1,569
10	Ptuj	3,314	29	Šentjur pri Celju	1,470
11	Piran/Pirano	3,049	30	Ormož	1,455
12	Radovljica	2,874	31	Črnomelj	1,400
13	Brežice	2,845	32	Kočevje	1,331
14	Slovenj Gradec	2,802	33	Ljutomer	1,325
15	Krško	2,771	34	Sevnica	1,316
16	Velenje	2,619	35	Slovenske Konjice	1,205
17	Postojna	2,189	36	Zagorje ob Savi	1,161
18	Domžale	2,162	37	Trbovlje	1,153
19	Žalec	2,160			

Source: SORS; calculations by Bole.

work places since the flows of commuting workers are widely spread among Ljubljana, Kranj, and minor yet important employment centres (Škofja Loka, Radovljica, Tržič). Such distribution is typical for highly urbanised areas with a polycentric spatial structure in which no explicit employment centres exist.

The attraction of individual centres for schoolchildren is more complex. Table 65 shows the municipalities daily accessed by over 1,000 commuters – schoolchildren. The most outstanding are the cities hosting institutes of higher education (Ljubljana, Maribor, Celje) and secondary schools. Given that data refer to 2002, they do not show the attraction of certain new university centres established after 2002, such as Koper or Nova Gorica. Regional centres generally rank higher, although Trbovlje and Postojna appear to be less attractive; a high rank is also achieved by cities with individual higher education programmes, e.g. Piran and Radovljica.

If we agree that daily commuting is always a good indicator of regional loyalty in spite of modern trends toward working from home and communications, we can observe certain changes in the functionality of the regions. Postojna, the traditional centre of Notranjska, has been greatly weakened by the increasingly strong influence of Ljubljana, which reaches all the way to Cerknica. Local centres such as Vipava, Sežana and Divača also present strong competition for Postojna, which therefore can no longer claim to have an extensive employment hinterland. As more and more Postojna residents commute daily to Ljubljana, Postojna itself is gradually becoming functionally part of Ljubljana's hinterland. Trbovlje, once a strong employment core in the Zasavje region, has also shrunk to practically nothing and it now only attracts barely a quarter of all commuters from Hrastnik and under a fifth of those from Zagorje ob Savi. In addition, it is also a weak educational centre, "only" 37th in Slovenia (Bole 2004).

According to Ravbar (1997), the daily mobility of the population is an important functional indicator of suburbanisation as a cultural, social, and above all physical change in space. Actually, the number of commuters may be used as a good indicator of the process of suburbanisation: more than half of the active population of the municipalities of Škofljica, Ig, Brezovica, Dol pri Ljubljani, Trzin, Dobrova – Polhov Gradec, and Velike Lašče commutes daily to Ljubljana, and these municipalities in fact comprise its suburban area *(see Internal migration at municipal level – the case of the Municipality of Ljubljana)*. At the same time, they are resettlement destinations for many migrants from larger city centres, who remain functionally and culturally bound to urban areas and lifestyles. This new pattern of commuting and dependency on the city is reflected in the appearance of urban lifestyles and architecture in the previously rural space (Bole 2004).

4.3 External daily mobility

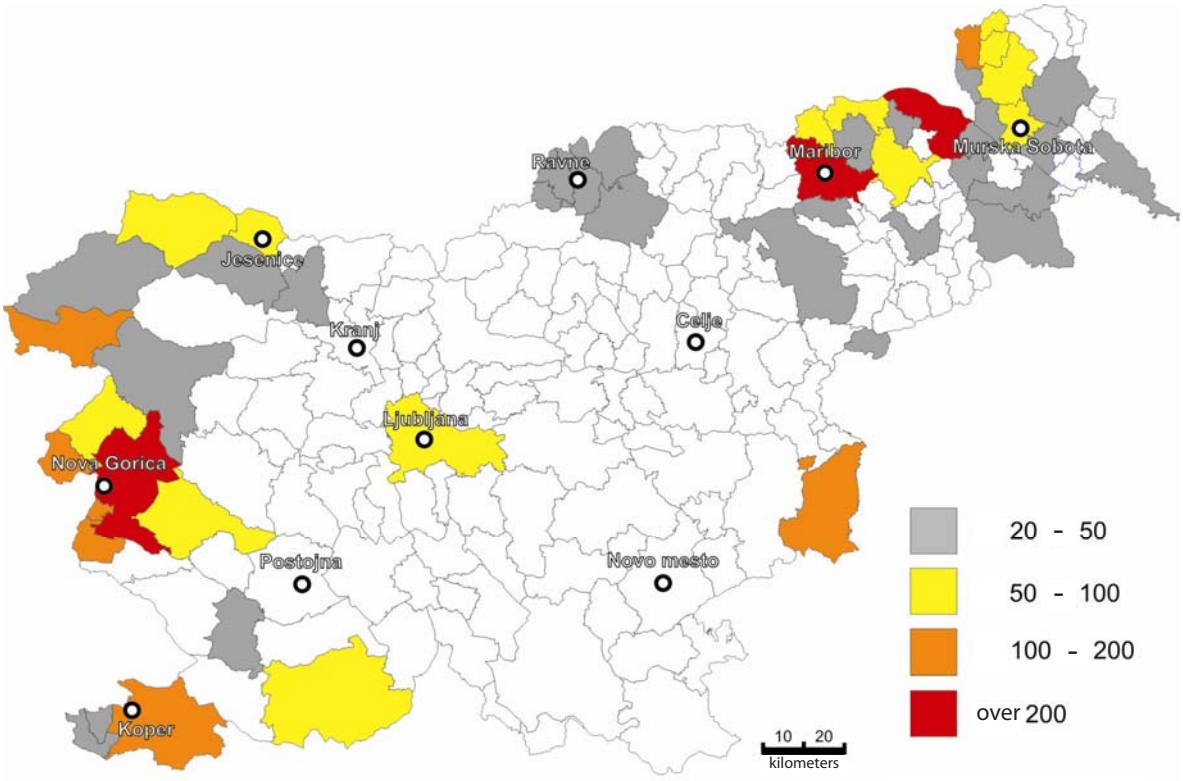
External daily mobility is a seldom-mentioned phenomenon although Slovenians have a long tradition of daily cross-border travel. Zupančič (2000) speaks about the merchants, smugglers and carriers who have been making a living out of such parallel activity ever since the Middle Ages. Borders have long been a physical barrier in space, and a good example of this is the Schengen border. In the European Union, border areas often present themselves as open borders, areas of free movement of persons, capital and information, areas where the border itself encourages politicians and residents towards communication and eventual integration.

High external daily mobility is the expression of "integrated borders", characterised by the fact that the economies on the two sides of the border are united and the free movement of persons and capital between the two countries runs smoothly. The population on both sides of the border considers itself part of the same social system (Maier and Dittmaier 1996).

The 2002 census data indicates that about 4,000 people commuted from Slovenia every day. Map 7 shows that three regions were particularly affected by cross-border commuting – Goriška, Štajerska and Prekmurje. Most people commuted from Nova Gorica (421), Gornja Radgona (254) and Maribor (208). Slightly weaker areas of origin of cross-border commuters were the Obalno-kraška and the Koroška regions, as well as individual municipalities, such as Brežice, Ljubljana, Jesenice and Kranjska Gora. External daily commuters were almost exclusively workers, while the number of schoolchildren commuting abroad was low.

The main push factors include (Zupančič 2000) the inadequate number and structure of jobs in the home community, better pay for the same job, interest in working abroad, additional income, availability and the qualifications of the population. The reasons for commuting abroad vary from area to area. In the Obalno-kraška region, many young retired women commute to nearby Trieste daily to work as cleaners, chambermaids or babysitters, thus improving their monthly income (pension). The extent of daily mobility is also reflected in the occupancy of buses linking Koper and Trieste (Bole 2005). In the Goriška region, the situation is slightly different – here, too, women prevail, yet they are younger and find employment in service activities (tourism, personal services). In the area of Jesenice, on the other hand, most commuters are men looking for employment in wood processing and other industries (Zupančič 2000). In the Koroška region, the prevailing category of commuters includes less qualified men employed in the Austrian public utility services and forestry. In Štajerska and Prekmurje, most commuters are less qualified, and looking for a job in farming, forestry and public utility services. Seasonal mobility in farming is also important in

Map 7: **Official data on external daily commuters – workers by municipality, 2002 census**



Author of the map: David Bole, AMGI, 2004 (c).

this part of Slovenia. A minor exception is Maribor, where daily commuters are better qualified – a section of this group forms what is known as "technical intelligence" from Maribor's industry (Zupančič 2002).

The number of daily commuters is probably much higher than identified in the census. Zupančič (2000) estimates that there were almost 13,000 commuters in 2000, mostly without formal status (undeclared work). In fact, in 2002, the official statistics of the Autonomous Region of Friuli Venezia Giulia reported only 106 registered workers from Slovenia, yet estimated that the actual number was much higher (about 7,400). Zupančič (2000) mentions the social effects of the border, as the daily mobility of the population mitigates social problems on one side of the border (particularly in areas with high unemployment rates and low incomes: Upper Posočje, Kras, Slovenske gorice, Prekmurje), while on the other it provides a valuable labour force – particularly in Trieste and Gorizia where unfavourable demographic conditions have resulted in the lack of a labour force for jobs requiring low skills or qualifications. Eventually, the situation is beneficial to both sides. There are also quite direct economic gains, mostly from the viewpoint of transport companies. Croatia and Hungary remain relatively unattractive for daily commuters from Slovenia, barring some rare exceptions. However, daily mobility streams may easily change course or terminate for various reasons (e.g. the financial crisis).

According to data, daily mobility is increasing, particularly among the young, school-age population. The new characteristics of daily mobility reflect the situation in Slovenian society as a whole, which is increasingly based on embracing individuality. The latter also explains the main characteristic of commuters from Slovenia, namely a predominant use of personal transport, while public transport is used by the "typical" social strata, i.e. pensioners, young school-age children, and the economically weaker population. Diversities in daily mobility are present at the regional level, too – the population of central and western Slovenia is generally "more mobile" as they make greater use of the automobile and record longer travel times. Daily commuting is also an indicator of regional development and of the hierarchy and centrality of individual regional cores. Slovenia is characterised by centralisation – the influence of Ljubljana is explicit and extending to some "traditional" regional centres that thus become more and more part of Ljubljana's suburban area. Some regional centres, on the other hand, lose their hinterland of workers and schoolchildren. Special consideration also needs to be given to external daily mobility, which is estimated to be much higher than stated by the official data (officially 4,500, unofficially 13,000), mitigating social problems in economically less successful areas (Prekmurje, Upper Posočje, Slovenske gorice) and providing a labour force for areas on the other side of the border.

5 Sustainable mobility

Motorised daily mobility has negative impacts on the environment, quality of life, energy consumption, etc.

Sustainable mobility is a term cited as a starting point in numerous policy documents and debates. Below is the definition taken from the European strategic document Integrating the Environmental Dimension (1999):

»A sustainable transport system:

- allows basic access needs and the development of individuals, companies and societies to be met safely and in a manner consistent with human and ecosystem health, and promotes equity within and between generations;
- is affordable, operates efficiently, offers a choice of transport mode, and supports a vibrant economy, and regional development;
- limits emissions and waste within the planet's ability to absorb them, uses renewable resources at or below their rates of regeneration, and, uses non-renewable resources at or below the rates of development of renewable substitutes and minimises land use and the production of noise." (Sustainable Mobility Plan ..., 2006).

Although lacking a clear definition of sustainable mobility, the Resolution on Transport Policy of the Republic of Slovenia (RePPRS, 2006) lists public awareness and information about sustainable mobility among its 15 general objectives. Sustainable mobility is also one of the development projects pursued by the Resolution of the Government Office for Growth on National Development Projects for the Period 2007–2023. The project objectives include introducing a single transportation pass and passenger information in the public transportation system, intermodal nodes, and designing intelligent transportation systems (Resolution, 2006).

Sustainable mobility should present the following characteristics (Plevnik et al. 2003):

- "it is carried out in an environmentally friendly manner;
- it makes sure that the external costs of transport become part of transport costs;
- it does not grow beyond control at the expense of the environment;
- it is carried out in the most economical manner;
- it provides adequate access to mobility for all population groups throughout the country."

In order to meet the objectives of sustainable mobility, steps should be taken in the following order (Lep, Blaž, Mesarec 2005):

1. »reduce travel demand (through spatial planning);
2. influence the selection of the destination (through physical accessibility, spatial planning, etc.);
3. influence the selection of the transport mode (through more attractive options for pedestrians, cyclists, public passenger transport, etc.);
4. influence the travel time and modal split;
5. better organise transport on existing traffic routes;
6. build new road infrastructure and parking garages."

Any travel other than walking or cycling has negative environmental impacts. Transport in the European Union accounts for 30% of total energy consumption, with 98% of the transport sector depending on oil. In this context, promoting mobility as the main objective of transport policy (European Commission, 2006) raises some concern. Mobility should not be a value *per se*, but merely a means to achieve various goals. Policies should facilitate accessibility to the place of work, study, recreation, etc., and such accessibility should be achieved with the minimum need for travel. The principles of sustainable traffic control thus place increasing importance on reduction of the need for travel. Likewise, according to the above-mentioned document (Integrating the Environmental Dimension 1999), an important task is to find policy instruments that reduce transport demand without unduly affecting economic prosperity and equity. Knoflacher (1997) states that, in the past, people aimed at organising life in such a manner as to avoid unnecessary mobility. This same spirit is enshrined in a famous Slovenian saying which could be translated as "empty head, busy feet". After the invention of the railway and automobile, such conduct suddenly changed, and mobility and speed of travel began to be considered values *per se*.

5.1 External costs of transport

The external costs of transport are a good starting point to evaluate which mode of transport is more sustainable. According to Elvik, external costs are any (adverse) impacts of production or consumption that are not in the utility function of the producer or the consumer. The producer or the consumer whose activity generates external costs in the above sense has no liability whatsoever to cover such costs.

The external costs of transport include traffic accidents, noise, emissions (also greenhouse gas emissions), and congestion. Moreover, there are additional costs for the natural world and landscape, those of separation and scarcity of space in urban areas, and those of setting up, maintaining and decommissioning transport system components. The average external costs are calculated as units of parts of transport (i.e. passenger kilometre) by mode of transport. Such a calculation provides important information for transport policy measures: the lower the external costs per passenger kilometre for

individual transport mode, the more sustainable the use of the mode of transport. Evaluating the adverse impacts of transport merely through economic indicators (costs of treatment of illnesses caused by traffic emissions, reduction of land value owing to noise caused by traffic, etc.) is of course questionable, and the results may vary depending on the methodology applied. They are nevertheless a good basis on which to evaluate which modes of transport are more sustainable.

Table 66: **Average external costs of passenger transport in Slovenia in 2002, in EUR by 1,000 passenger kilometres**

	Passenger car	Motorcycle	Bus	Train
Accidents	32.5	881.5	1.4	0.0
Noise	4.6	7.8	1.2	2.9
Emissions	13.8	8.7	19.3	14.2
Congestion	3.5	2.2	3.8	0.0
Climate change	18.9	12.3	8.7	4.3
Set-up and decommissioning	8.8	5.7	4.2	7.4
Total	82.1	918.2	38.6	28.8

Source: Lep et al. 2004.
Note: For railways, emissions of electric traction refer to the emissions caused by power plants; the high value is a result of the emissions of the Šoštanj and Trbovlje power plants according to 2002 data.

External costs are calculated based on the technical specifications of vehicles used in Slovenia in 2002 and their average occupancy. A change in the average occupancy of a vehicle can of course significantly alter the results. A passenger riding in an empty train thus causes higher external costs than a passenger in a full automobile. On the other hand, a large proportion of fare-dodgers who have not purchased a ticket and are not included in the calculation "increase" the external costs by passenger kilometre. Nevertheless, it may be established that daily commuting by car for 29 km is as sustainable (or unsustainable) as commuting by train for 82 km.

5.2 The travelling habits of Slovenians

There are two sources of information about travelling habits and the choice of mode of transport in Slovenia. First, there are periodic surveys based on more or less numerous samples of respondents that help in obtaining data on the travelling habits of the population of certain cities or regions. Second, there are the population censuses. One of the questions of the censuses of 1981, 1991 and 2002 in fact referred to mode of transport to work or school. The advantage of the first source is that it provides a wide range of information on modes of travel for any purpose, considering the entire travel chain. The second source only covers travel to work and school, yet it allows regional and time-related comparisons.

We compared the travelling habits of the population in the Ljubljana region, the Municipality of Ljubljana, and Germany.

Table 67: **Modal split in the Municipality of Ljubljana and the Ljubljana region (2003) and Germany (2002), in %**

	Municipality of Ljubljana	Ljubljana region*	Germany
Passenger car	58	74	60
Public transportation	13	8	8
Bicycle	10	4	9
On foot	19	13	23

Source: Surveys ... 2003; Nuhn, Hesse 2006.
Note: see note 101 in the text.

At first glance, table 67 shows predominant use of the automobile for different purposes (work, school, shopping, etc.) both in Slovenia and in Germany. It is also understandable that major cities have a larger share of public transportation users owing to congestions and problems with parking. The Ljubljana region[101] and Germany are comparable in terms of the choice of the mode of transport, as both include urban and rural areas, although in Germany a higher number of people reside and work in large cities. There is a significant difference in the choice of the means of transport between Ljubljana and other European cities which vigorously pursue a sustainable transport policy and have similar population numbers. The population in cities of this type more often opts for non-motorised travel or travel by public passenger transport. The choice of means of transport differs according to purpose of travel. Travel for educational purposes logically records a smaller use of passenger car (Ljubljana region 35%, Ljubljana 26%) and a larger share of public transportation (Ljubljana region 36%, Ljubljana 30%). Travel by passenger car accounts for 85% of all travel for work purposes in the Ljubljana region and for 96% of business travel. Most analyses of the daily mobility of the population refer to travel for work and study (e.g. Bole 2004, Gabrovec, Pavlin, Sluga 2000), yet these account for only one third of the total travel or even only one fifth in Germany (Nuhn, Hesse 2006). The purpose of most travel is therefore shopping and free-time activities. Thus it seems that the Slovenian legislation and transport policy place too much emphasis on only work or study travel. According to the Road Transport Act (ZPCP-2, 2007, Art. 52), "the exercise of public utility service provides mainly for transport aimed at redirecting passengers from personal transportation to public transportation ... in this way particular attention is

[101] The study covered the entire gravitational hinterland of Ljubljana, from Jesenice in the northwest to Kočevje in the southeast.

given to the categories of passengers in daily migration, namely students in secondary and tertiary education, workers, and passengers from demographically disadvantaged areas."

More than the existing ratios in choice of means of transport, particular concern is raised in Slovenia by the changing trends in the last two decades.

Table 68: **Travellers by modal split in Slovenia, 1981, 1991 and 2002, in %**

Modal split of journey to work	1981	1991	2002
Passenger car	27	44	85
Bus	54	43	8
Train	4	3	2
On foot or by bicycle	13	8	4

Source: Population censuses, SORS, Pelc 1988.

Table 68 indicates a rapid increase in the use of the automobile for commuting to work at the expense of more sustainable forms, such as public transportation and non-motorised means of transport. Particularly fast were the changes in the 1990s, when the use of cars doubled at the expense of public passenger transport, which lost four fifths of its daily commuters. In railways, the decrease was less pronounced, mainly owing to lower prices compared to buses. The 2002 census also revealed an unfavourable ratio between drivers and passengers in cars (10:1).

Such a decline in the number of public transport users and non-motorised modes of travel is a result of transport policy in the said period, which focused on the construction of a new road infrastructure and neglected railway infrastructure and public passenger transport, pursuing sustainable forms of transport at a declaratory level only. As a consequence, the use of public transport gained a negative connotation and is regarded by most Slovenians as a service intended for minors and the poor who cannot afford a car. This was confirmed by the Eurobarometer survey in which EU citizens were asked whether they would make less use of private car if fuel prices doubled. A total of 22% of respondents said that they would travel much less, 31% replied that they would travel slightly less, while 26% answered that they would travel the same amount. Among all Europeans, Slovenians appeared to be the least willing to change their habits, as only 9% of the respondents would travel much less and 47% would travel the same. Slovenians are less favourable to using public transport as an alternative to private transport (only 26% compared to 37% in Europe), but are more willing (in principle) to travel together with relatives, friends or neighbours (23% compared to 10%).

More willingness to use public transportation was shown in Europe by residents of larger cities and by more educated persons. This testifies to the greater environmental awareness among educated people as well as to the better reputation of public passenger transport. In Slovenia, operators adapt their services only to users who have no other choice. On most routes, public transport services are – from the viewpoint of workers with variable working hours – considered so bad that that they are only conditionally usable. Slovenia's transport policy attributes great importance to public transport at a declaratory level, but pays very little attention to it in practice; larger projects in this context started only as late as 2007.

Considering the above, there is an interesting ratio between travelling habits and education. The ratio between the educational structure of daily commuters and choice of mode of transport is presented in the Table 69.

The share of daily commuters travelling to work by public transport or as passengers in a private car is inversely proportional to education. Specifically, the share of those who in 2002 travelled to work as drivers of a private car is almost twice as large among the highly educated population than among commuters with an incomplete basic education. Thus, in Slovenia, high education by no means implies better environmental awareness, which would influence the choice of a more sustainable form of mobility.

The choice of means of transport depends, in addition to accessibility and development of public transportation, the age structure and standard of living of the population, population density, etc., also on personal factors (individual values and beliefs, the degree of awareness of the environmental impacts caused by the use of different types of transport, etc.) (Environmentally Sustainable Transport, 2002; Towards Sustainable Transportation, 1996).

On the contrary, higher education means higher income and more automobiles per household. Moreover, jobs requiring higher education have more variable working hours, which often makes the use of public transport impossible. For this reason, the increasing level of

However, a more sustainable transport policy might have a positive impact on the travelling habits of the population, as in the case of Graz, Austria. Here, in the period 1982–2004, the share of travel by public passenger transport stayed at the same level and even slightly rose (18.1 or 19.3%), while the share of travel by private car recorded only a minimal increase (33.8 or 38.2%) (Plevnik et al. 2008). This is a completely opposite trend to that observed in Ljubljana between the last two censuses, where the share of persons using a private car more than doubled at the expense of public transport. The two cities are comparable in terms of number of inhabitants and gravitational hinterland. Similar examples of good practice and efficient transport policy may be found in other European cities (e.g. Almere in the Netherlands, Brighton & Hove in the UK, and Larissa in Greece) (Eltis 2008).

Table 69: **Daily commuters by modal split and education, Slovenia, 2002, in %**

Education	Total	On foot or bicycle	Motorcycle	Passenger car as driver	Passenger car as passenger	Bus	Train	Other
Total	100.0	14.9	0.3	67.7	6.3	8.9	1.3	0.6
Without education	100.0	27.6	1.2	35.3	11.1	21.5	1.7	1.7
Incomplete	100.0	23.3	1.8	41.7	10.1	19.6	2.2	1.2
Basic	100.0	20.3	0.8	50.0	9.9	16.6	1.4	0.9
Secondary	100.0	13.6	0.3	70.5	5.8	7.9	1.3	0.6
Higher	100.0	14.6	0.1	73.1	5.3	5.6	1.1	0.2
University	100.0	13.9	0.1	74.5	4.3	5.8	1.3	0.2

Source: SORS, 2002 census.

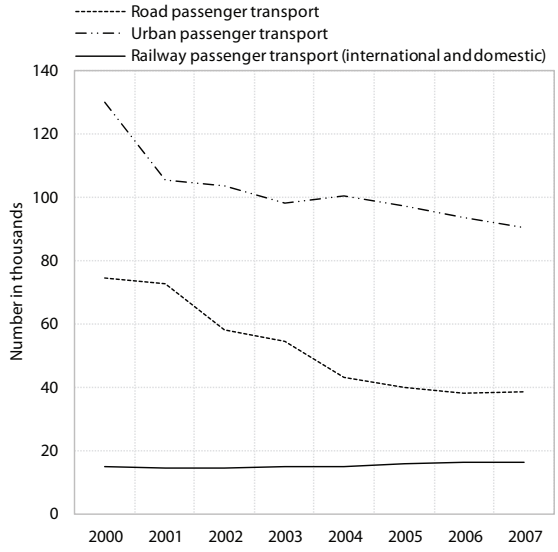
education in Slovenia is expected to reduce the use of this transport option further, should no change occur as to the offer of public passenger transport. The above table shows a slightly better picture in railway transport, which is still modestly, yet relatively better used among the highly educated population. An analysis by region even revealed an above-average use of the train among highly educated persons in those regions with a good offer of railway transport (e.g. Zasavje and Gorenjska).

The fact that the travelling habits of Slovenians, in terms of the use of public transport, changed after 2000 is indirectly demonstrated also by the data on the number of passengers. Between 2000 and 2007, the number of public transport[102] users dropped by almost a half; according to SORS, their number fell by 30.3% in urban passenger transport[103] and increased by 7.4% in railway passenger transport. In the latter case, the number of passengers increased both in international and domestic travel. The period 2001–2006 also saw an increase in passenger kilometres in railway transport and road transport by private car (in public passenger road transport, the number of passenger kilometres fell). Another proof of the increasing use of private cars is the rise in the number of private cars, which in 2006 reached 487.6 per 1,000 population.

Average travel times are also changing or, more precisely, the same travel time is used for longer distances. According to the censuses of 1991 and 2002, daily migrants employed in Slovenia spent about half an hour on average to travel to work (one-way). Over a period of ten years, the average travel time shrank by approximately 5 minutes, mainly at the expense of a greater use of the private car. For the users of individual transport, the average time of travel to work practically did not change. In both years, drivers of private cars on average travelled 25 minutes to work, bus passengers spent 40 minutes, and train passengers over 50 minutes (the average time decreased for pedestrians and cyclists as the share of those willing to walk or ride a bicycle for more than half an hour fell by 50%). In the 1990s, the Slovenian road infrastructure improved, and on many routes a longer distance can now be travelled in the same time compared with 1991. In other words, over a certain period of time travel times do not change; what changes continuously is the distance travelled every day. A similar trend is observed for foreign studies. The increasing daily distance travelled is contrary to the principles of sustainable mobility and disputable from the environmental and economic point of view. Spatial planners should therefore endeavour to bring areas of residence, work, education and care closer, instead of creating functionally homogeneous zones.

The main motives for using a private car rather than public transport or non-motorised forms of travel are comfort and less time spent travelling (given the unsustainable transport policy of Slovenia in the last decades, the difference in travel times between public and private

Figure 52: **Number of passengers by type of public transportation, Slovenia, 2000–2007, in thousand**

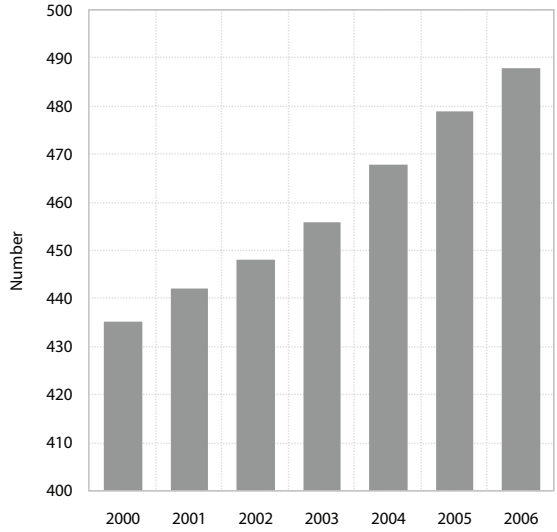


Source: SORS; calculations by IMAD.

[102] Public transport is a mode of transport that is accessible to all users of transport services under equal conditions.

[103] Data on urban passenger transport relate to transport in Ljubljana and Maribor; since 2004, they also relate to other cities with urban passenger transport.

Figure 53: **Number of private cars by 1,000 population, Slovenia, 2000–2006**



Source: SORS; calculations by IMAD.

transport continues to increase). Economic analyses examining the costs of travel by various modes of travel usually consider the time spent for travelling as a cost, meaning that longer travel times are more expensive. They however neglect the fact that travel time could be used more efficiently, either for working, talking, reading or resting. In this sense, users of public transport or passengers in a private car certainly have an advantage over the car driver. A UK analysis among railway passengers showed that a considerable proportion efficiently uses the time of travel. This could be an important argument for promoting sustainable modes of travel. Travel time may be considered a gift rather than a burden, a gift to ourselves in the form of a daily rest or a gift to future generations if we take more time for a more sustainable mode of transport.

Mobility – challenges

Mobility designates any individual or group change of place of residence or of status in the social structure. We distinguish between spatial and social mobility. Spatial mobility is the capacity of the population to overcome distances in space. Mobility is often associated with migration, yet this is not professionally correct. Social mobility, on the other hand, implies a change of an individual's or group's status in the system of social relations. Both spatial and social mobility relate to individuals' wish to improve their social position. As a rule, spatial mobility implies a change of social status, while social mobility is not necessarily related to spatial mobility.

The present analysis of mobility focuses only on spatial mobility or migration. Its results point to several problems and challenges, which are currently faced by Slovenia and to which greater attention will have to be devoted in the future. They can be summarised as follows:

Slovenia needs a comprehensive analysis of social mobility in order to "measure" the openness or otherwise of the society, which has an impact on both the efficiency or ability of adapting to changed economic needs and justice, meaning that individuals are able to change their socio-economic status depending on their abilities rather than entrenched past relations.

It is necessary to modernise statistical monitoring of mobility in order to provide more information in the area of social mobility. Within Slovenia, there is no real information about the causes and extent of "brain and brawn drain" that would help design an adequate policy. Statistical and other data about who is emigrating, why, and for how long, and about the career paths of emigrants are insufficient.

The emigration of the young in their working age is indeed a loss for the country, both demographically and in terms of human capital. When dealing with international migrations, the state takes up a dual approach. Like other countries, Slovenia adopts various measures to attract young and educated migrants from abroad and to keep its own young and educated people in the country. At the same time, the emigration of young educated Slovenians is an opportunity for the integration of Slovenian and world knowledge. Slovenian emigrants are a great development advantage, provided that they keep contact with their home environment and knowledge, and **Slovenia should therefore play a more active part in EU efforts to enhance circular migration and the partnership for mobility between the EU and third countries.**

It is absolutely necessary to supplement the existing draft Strategy of Economic Migration for Slovenia in order to achieve a comprehensive migration

strategy that would feature as the basic document in the area of migration and whose principles would be enshrined in other development documents as appropriate. Slovenia does not have a comprehensive migration policy able to solve open issues and problems in this area. A draft Strategy of Economic Migration for Slovenia has been prepared, but has not yet been adopted. The Strategy pursues the priority objectives of European migration policy i.e. control (management) of migration flows and providing for a decent life (integration) for legal immigrants.

The development documents and policies in individual areas should, in relation to a comprehensive migration policy, pursue the following objectives:

It is necessary to provide conditions to create jobs for highly educated people in all regions, which would also reduce educational deficits. The analysis of migration by region and education has confirmed the hypothesis that, in terms of education, the Osrednjeslovenska region represents an above-average attraction for highly educated population from the rest of the country, which is a consequence of the lack of adequate jobs for the highly educated in other regions.

It is necessary to design an adequate housing policy, which should be consistent with spatial planning policy and provide access to housing for young people. Given its intensity and inconsistency with spatial planning, increasing suburbanisation poses problems in both emigration and immigration areas. The fact is that since the beginning of the 1980s, no large city in Slovenia has recorded significant population growth while the population in small municipal centres has almost doubled. Given the rapid growth of cities after the Second World War, which came to a standstill in the 1980s, the share of older population in the cities is well above the Slovenian average, and continues to increase due to the moving out of the young.

In immigration areas, an adequate spatial planning policy should rationalise the use of physical space and adapt municipal and social infrastructure to growing immigration. People are moving from urban areas with high population density to areas of explicitly dispersed settlement. Individual building implies an abnormal expansion of municipal infrastructure, while its dispersion prevents any kind of economic viability. Currently, such flows are suitable to and supported by suburban municipalities. This is further encouraged by the Slovenian system of financing municipalities, as incoming population brings funds to municipalities in the form of poll taxes. Such an approach is, however, very narrow and short-term. Municipalities will need to provide adequate urban infrastructure as that which exists does not fit to the increased number of population. In many areas, current facilities cannot be expanded infinitely and new ones will need to be built. Suburbanisation as such would not be a problem if the construction of the housing stock took into account rational use of land and provided adequate municipal and social infrastructure for the growing population.

Spatial planning should aim at bringing the places of residence and work, education and care closer (teleworking being the extreme form of this) rather than creating functionally homogeneous zones. Jobs do not follow people but stay in the cities, thus increasing daily mobility and the use of private cars. Dispersed building is another factor discouraging greater use of public transport. In the long term, it also prevents any serious consideration of suburban railways which could reduce traffic.

Strengthening public transport is a key element of sustainable mobility and a challenge for transport policy. One aspect of accessibility is spatial accessibility, a prerequisite for adequate social integration and social justice. For various reasons, certain population groups do not have the opportunity of using a private car and should be granted adequate access to public passenger transport. The latter will only be economically sustainable if it is also able to attract a number of those commuters now using the car. However, they will change their mode of travel only if we are able to provide adequate quality and/or raise their environmental awareness. The first steps in this direction have already been made.[104] Strengthening of public transport should be supported by promotional activities among the public, to influence the travelling habits of the population.

[104] The norm to evaluate access to public passenger transport may also be the maximum distance from a site of public transport access with adequate frequency of service (Farrington, Farrington 2005). Accessibility is also a standard for granting concessions to bus operators envisaged by the existing Road Transport Act (ZPCP-2, 2007). Such draft standards have been elaborated for Slovenia at the request of the Ministry of Transport (Gabrovec, Bole 2006).

statistical appendix

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THE WAY WE LIVE

POPULATION, HOUSEHOLDS AND FAMILIES

Table 1: **Number and share of population by selected age groups, Slovenia, 2000–2008, %**

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Population (on 30 June)	1,990,272	1,992,035	1,995,718	1,996,773	1,997,004	2,001,114	2,008,516	2,019,406	2,039,399
Shares as on 30 June, %:									
0–14 years	15.9	15.6	15.2	14.8	14.5	14.2	14.0	13.9	13.8
15–64 years	70.1	70.1	70.2	70.4	70.4	70.3	70.2	70.1	70.0
65 and over	14.0	14.3	14.6	14.9	15.2	15.5	15.7	16.0	16.2
80 and over	2.3	2.4	2.6	2.8	2.9	3.1	3.3	3.5	3.6

Source: SORS.

Table 2: **Population projections,[1] Slovenia, 2008–2060**

2008	2009	2010	2020	2030	2040	2050	2060
2,022,644	2,028,743	2,034,220	2,058,003	2,022,872	1,957,942	1,878,003	1,778,573

Source: SORS, Eurostat.
Notes: [1]The term "**population projection**" refers to the calculation of the future size and characteristics of the population based on hypotheses about future developments in fertility, mortality and migration. Eurostat made projections of the Slovenian population for 2008–2060.

Table 3: **Mean age of population[1] and ageing index,[2] Slovenia, 2000–2007**

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
Average age (in years)	38.8	39.1	39.5	39.8	40.1	40.4	40.7	40.9
Ageing index	87.8	91.9	96.4	100.8	104.9	108.7	112.4	115.1

Source: SORS.
Notes: [1]**The average age of the population** is the weighted arithmetic mean of age of a certain population group. [2]**The ageing index** is the ratio of old population (aged 65 and over) to young population (aged 0 to 14) multiplied by 100.

Table 4: **Number and age structure of population by age, and the growth index of total population, by region, 2000–2008**

	Population[1]	Growth index of total population	Age structure of population,[1] %		
			Aged 0–14	Aged 15–64	Aged 65 or over
	2008	2000–2008	2008	2008	2008
Slovenia	2,039,399	102.5	13.8	70.0	16.2
Pomurska	121,812	97.6	13.1	70.6	16.4
Podravska	321,730	100.6	12.9	70.3	16.7
Koroška	73,850	99.7	14.0	70.9	15.2
Savinjska	263,216	102.5	14.1	70.8	15.1
Zasavska	45,367	97.8	12.7	70.2	17.1
Spodnjeposavska	70,939	101.6	13.6	70.0	16.4
Jugovzhodna Slovenija	142,899	103.6	14.8	69.9	15.3
Osrednjeslovenska	514,443	105.1	14.5	69.5	16.0
Gorenjska	202,485	102.9	14.8	68.9	16.2
Notranjsko-kraška	52,512	103.9	13.6	69.6	16.8
Goriška	121,000	100.7	13.3	68.9	17.9
Obalno-kraška	109,146	105.2	11.9	70.9	17.2

Source: SORS.
Note: [1]as of 30 June.

Table 5: **Some basic data on population, EU-27, 2000–2007**

	Number (1 January)	Population growth, %		Age structure of population, %			Ageing index[1]
				Aged 0–14	Aged 15–64	Aged 65 and over	
	2007	2000–2007	2006–2007	2007	2007	2007	2007
EU-27	495,128,529	2.6	0.4	15.8	67.3	16.9	107.1
Austria	8,298,923	3.7	0.4	15.6	67.5	16.9	108.4
Belgium	10,584,534	3.4	0.7	17.0	65.9	17.1	100.7
Bulgaria	7,679,290	-6.2	-0.5	13.4	69.3	17.3	128.4
Cyprus	778,684	12.8	1.6	17.9	69.8	12.3	68.5
Czech Republic	10,287,189	0.1	0.4	14.4	71.2	14.4	100.2
Denmark	5,447,084	2.2	0.4	18.6	66.1	15.3	82.3
Estonia	1,342,409	-2.2	-0.2	14.9	68.0	17.1	114.7
Finland	5,276,955	2.0	0.4	17.1	66.4	16.5	96.4
France	63,392,140	4.7	0.6	18.6	65.2	16.2	87.4
Greece	11,171,740	2.5	0.4	14.3	67.1	18.6	129.9
Ireland	4,314,634	14.2	2.5	20.3	68.6	11.1	54.5
Italy	59,131,287	3.9	0.6	14.1	66.0	19.9	141.5
Latvia	2,281,305	-4.2	-0.6	14.0	68.9	17.1	122.5
Lithuania	3,384,879	-3.6	-0.5	15.9	68.5	15.6	98.0
Luxembourg	476,187	9.8	1.5	18.3	67.7	14.0	76.6
Hungary	10,066,158	-1.5	-0.1	15.2	68.9	15.9	104.9
Malta	407,810	7.3	0.7	16.7	69.5	13.8	82.5
Germany	82,314,906	0.2	-0.1	13.9	66.3	19.8	142.5
Netherlands	16,357,992	3.1	0.1	18.1	67.4	14.5	80.0
Poland	38,125,479	-1.4	-0.1	15.8	70.8	13.4	85.0
Portugal	10,599,095	4.0	0.3	15.5	67.2	17.3	111.7
Romania	21,565,119	-4.0	-0.2	15.4	69.7	14.9	96.5
Slovakia	5,393,637	-0.1	0.1	16.1	72.0	11.9	73.5
Slovenia	2,010,377	1.1	0.4	14.0	70.1	15.9	113.7
Spain	44,474,631	11.0	1.6	14.5	68.8	16.7	114.7
Sweden	9,113,257	2.8	0.7	17	65.6	17.4	102.1
United Kingdom	60,852,828	3.5	0.8	17.6	66.4	16.0	90.9

Source: EUROSTAT.
Note: [1]**The ageing index** is the ratio of old population (aged 65 and over) to young population (aged 0 to 14) multiplied by 100.

Table 6: **Selected indicators on births, Slovenia, 2000–2007**

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
Live births	18,180	17,477	17,501	17,321	17,961	18,157	18,932	19,823
Live births per 1,000 population	9.1	8.8	8.8	8.7	9.0	9.1	9.4	9.8
Total fertility rate[1]	1.26	1.21	1.21	1.20	1.25	1.26	1.31	1.38
Net reproduction rate[2]	0.60	0.58	0.58	0.57	0.61	0.60	0.63	0.67
Live births outside marriage	6,746	6,881	7,037	7,354	8,053	8,475	8,943	10,071
Share of live births outside marriage, %	37.1	39.4	40.2	42.5	44.8	46.7	47.2	50.8

Source: SORS.
Notes: [1]**The total fertility rate** is the average number of children per one woman in reproductive age (15–49 years) in the calendar year. It is obtained by adding all values of age-specific general fertility rates in the calendar year. [2]**The net reproduction rate** for a given year of observation is the average number of live-born girls which a generation of women of reproductive age (15–49 years) would give birth to if their age-specific fertility and mortality rates remained equal to those in the observed year.

Table 7: **Crude marriage rates and mean age of mother at first birth, Slovenia, 2000–2007**

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
Crude marriage rates (marriages per 1,000 population)	3.6	3.5	3.5	3.4	3.3	2.9	3.2	3.2
Mean age of bride at first marriage (in years)	26.6	27.0	27.4	27.5	27.8	28.2	28.1	28.3
Mean age of groom at first marriage (in years)	29.4	29.6	30.1	30.1	30.3	30.6	30.6	30.9
Mean age of mother at first birth (in years)	26.5	26.7	27.2	27.3	27.5	27.8	28.0	28.2

Source: SORS.

Table 8: **Selected family and fertility indicators, EU-27, 2006 (2007)**

	Marriages per 1,000 population	Divorces per 1,000 population	Share of live births outside marriage, %	Mean age of mother at first birth	Total fertility rate[1]
	2007	2007	2007	2006	2007
Austria	4.33	2.4	38.2	29.2	1.38
Belgium	4.28	2.9	39.0	–	1.81
Bulgaria	3.87	2.1	50.2	24.6	1.42
Cyprus	7.5	2.1	–	29.8	–
Czech Republic	5.53	3	34.5	28.9	1.44
Denmark	6.7	2.6	46.1	30.3	1.846
Estonia	5.23	2.8	58.1	28.4	1.64
Finland	5.58	2.5	40.6	30	1.83
France	4.19	–	–	29.7	1.98
Greece	5.16	1.2	5	29.9	1.38
Ireland	–	–	–	30.7	–
Italy	4.21	0.8	20.7	–	1.34
Latvia	6.8	3.3	43.0	27.8	1.42
Lithuania	6.83	3.4	29.2	27.7	1.35
Luxembourg	4.1	2.3	30.7	29.9	1.61
Hungary	4.06	2.5	37.5	28.7	1.32
Malta	6.06	–	24.9	–	1.3
Germany	4.48	–	30.0	29.6	1.39
Netherlands	4.49	2	39.7	30.6	1.71
Poland	6.52	1.7	19.5	28.3	–
Portugal	4.37	2.4	33.6	29.5	1.3
Romania	8.78	1.7	26.7	26.8	1.29
Slovakia	5.08	2.3	28.8	27.9	1.25
Slovenia	3.17	1.4	48.1	29.6	1.38
Spain	–	–	–	30.9	1.38
Sweden	5.24	2.3	54.7	30.5	1.85
United Kingdom	–	–	–	29.2	–

Source: EUROSTAT, SORS.
Notes: [1]**The total fertility rate** is the average number of children per woman of reproductive age (15–49 years) in the calendar year. The table presents calculations of the national statistical offices.

Table 9: **Some basic data on deaths, Slovenia, 2000–2007**

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
Deaths	18,588	18,508	18,701	19,451	18,523	18,825	18,180	18,584
Deaths per 1,000 population	9.3	9.3	9.4	9.7	9.3	9.4	9.1	9.2
Mean age at death (in years), total	71.8	71.7	72.3	72.5	72.5	73.3	73.2	73.6
Men	67.2	67.3	67.9	68.2	68.3	68.9	68.5	69.1
Women	75.6	76.6	77.0	77.2	76.9	77.8	78.1	78.2

Source: SORS.

LABOUR MARKET AND EMPLOYMENT

Table 10: **Employment rate[1] by school attainment, total and by gender, 2000–2007, Slovenia, %**

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
Total	53.9	54.5	53.8	52.8	55.3	55.4	55.8	56.8
Without education, incomplete primary education	21.8	22.2	20.3	18.5	19.5	16.4	18.8	18.7
Primary education	35.2	36.2	34.2	32.9	35.1	34.8	33.9	35.4
Secondary education	61.6	61.7	60.6	59.1	61.5	61.7	61.3	61.8
Post-secondary education (not higher education)	72.5	72.1	70.7	69.2	68.7	66.5	66.8	69.2
Higher professional and university education	79.2	79.7	81.4	81.2	81.6	81.7	82.8	82.7
Post-graduate education (specialisation, master's and doctor's degree)	80.2	81.9	83.7	88.4	88.7	86.3	85.6	85.5
Men	60.2	61.3	60.3	59.4	62.0	62.0	62.5	63.7
Without education, incomplete primary education	32.1	32.1	31.1	27.9	29.6	26.0	28.0	(25.8)
Primary education	41.8	44.9	42.0	41.7	44.5	44.2	43.2	46.4
Secondary education	66.6	66.7	65.6	64.3	66.6	66.8	67.0	67.7
Post-secondary education (not higher education)	67.6	69.7	68.2	68.2	70.0	67.5	67.9	69.2
Higher professional and university education	75.9	75.1	77.9	77.0	77.9	77.6	80.0	79.2
Post-graduate education (specialisation, master's and doctor's degree)	82.4	82.6	79.7	86.1	86.9	(85.2)	(83.7)	85.7
Women	48.0	48.2	47.7	46.5	48.9	49.2	49.4	50.2
Without education, incomplete primary education	14.8	15.7	13.9	12.7	13.4	10.6	12.7	(14.4)
Primary education	31.0	30.7	29.0	27.0	29.0	28.6	27.6	28.1
Secondary education	55.8	55.7	54.6	53.0	55.4	55.8	54.8	54.8
Post-secondary education (not higher education)	76.1	73.8	72.5	70.1	67.6	65.7	66.0	69.2
Higher professional and university education	82.6	83.9	84.5	84.8	84.7	85.0	85.2	85.4
Post-graduate education (specialisation, master's and doctor's degree)	(77.2)	(80.7)	(90.9)	92.0	91.0	(87.8)	(88.4)	(85.4)

Source: SORS, Labour Force Survey.
Notes: less precise estimate (10<=CV<20). [1]**The employment rate** represents persons in employment as a percentage of the labour force. Persons in employment are those who during the reference week (from Monday to Sunday) did any work for payment (in cash or in kind), profit or family gain, or those employed or self-employed persons who were not working because they were temporarily absent. Unpaid family workers, persons on maternity leave and workers on temporary or permanent lay-off i.e. until the termination of their employment are included in persons in employment. Unpaid family workers are people who are neither formally employed nor self-employed but who, in the week prior to the survey, worked on a family farm, were engaged in a family craft or enterprise or any other form of family gainful activity and did not receive regular payment for their work. The working age population comprises all persons aged 15 or more.

Table 11: **Unemployment rate[1] by educational attainment of the unemployed,[2] Slovenia, 2000–2007, %**

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
Total	7.0	6.4	6.4	6.7	6.3	6.5	6.0	4.9
Without education, incomplete primary education	(10.7)	(14.2)	(9.5)	(11.9)	(9.7)	(9.1)	(9.7)	(10.9)
Primary education	10.4	8.7	9.0	9.1	9.0	9.4	7.4	6.2
Lower or middle vocational education	7.5	6.9	7.5	8.2	7.5	7.3	6.6	4.5
Secondary technical education	6.6	5.9	5.5	5.9	5.7	6.3	6.2	5.2
Secondary general education	7.5	(7.0)	(7.5)	(6.4)	(7.1)	(8.4)	(8.3)	(6.7)
Post-secondary education (not higher education)	(2.3)	(2.2)	(2.3)	(2.7)	(3.6)	(3.1)	(3.6)	(2.5)
Higher professional and university education	(2.4)	(2.7)	(3.0)	(3.7)	(2.9)	3.4	3.4	3.9
Post-graduate education (specialisation, master's and doctor's degree)	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A

Source: SORS, Labour Force Survey.
Notes: ( ) less precise estimate (10<=CV<20) [1]**The unemployment rate** represents unemployed persons as a percentage of the labour force. The labour force includes persons in employment and unemployed persons. [2]**Unemployed persons** are those who during the last week prior to the interview did not work (they were not employed or self-employed and did not do any paid work), but were actively seeking work (specific steps were taken in the past four weeks to seek paid employment or self-employment etc.) and were currently available for work. Persons who had found a job to start later are also included among unemployed persons.

Table 12: **Employment and unemployment rates (people aged 15–64) according to Labour Force Survey, EU-27, 2000–2007, %**

	Employment rates, %			Unemployment rates, %		
	2000	2006	2007	2000	2006	2007
EU-27	62.1	64.5	65.4	9.4	8.3	7.2
Austria	67.9	70.2	71.4	4.7	4.8	4.5
Belgium	60.9	61.0	62.0	6.6	8.3	7.5
Bulgaria	51.5	58.6	61.7	16.4	9.0	6.9
Cyprus	65.4	69.6	71.0	5.1	4.7	4.0
Czech Republic	64.9	65.3	66.1	8.8	7.2	5.4
Denmark	76.4	77.4	77.1	4.5	4.0	3.8
Estonia	60.3	68.1	69.4	13.4	6.0	4.8
Finland	68.1	69.3	70.3	11.2	7.8	6.9
France	61.7	63.8	64.6	10.3	8.8	8.0
Greece	56.6	61.0	61.4	11.5	9.0	8.4
Ireland	64.5	68.6	69.1	4.4	4.4	4.6
Italy	53.4	58.4	58.7	11.0	6.9	6.2
Latvia	57.4	66.3	68.3	14.5	7.0	6.1
Lithuania	59.6	63.6	64.9	16.3	5.7	4.4
Luxembourg	62.7	63.6	64.2	2.4	4.7	4.1
Hungary	55.9	57.3	57.3	6.6	7.5	7.4
Malta	54.5	53.6	54.6	6.4	6.9	6.5
Germany	65.3	67.5	69.4	8.0	10.3	8.7
Netherlands	72.9	74.3	76.0	2.7	3.9	3.2
Poland	55.1	54.5	57.0	16.6	14.0	9.7
Portugal	68.2	67.9	67.8	4.0	8.1	8.5
Romania	64.2	58.8	58.8	7.7	7.6	6.8
Slovakia	56.3	59.4	60.7	19.1	13.4	11.2
Slovenia	62.7	66.6	67.8	7.1	6.1	5.0
Spain	56.1	64.8	65.6	13.9	8.6	8.3
Sweden	71.1	73.1	74.2	5.5	7.1	6.2
United Kingdom	71	71.6	71.5	5.6	5.4	5.4

Source: EUROSTAT.

Table 13: **Temporary employees as percentage of total number of employees for age group 15–64, according to Labour Force Survey, EU-27, 2000–2007, %**

	Total			By gender	
				Men	Women
	2000	2006	2007	2007	2007
Austria	8.0	9.0	8.9	8.8	9.0
Belgium	9.0	8.7	8.6	6.8	10.8
Bulgaria	–	6.1	5.1	4.8	5.4
Cyprus	10.7	13.2	13.3	7.6	19.2
Czech Republic	7.2	8.0	7.8	6.5	9.4
Denmark	10.2	8.9	8.6	7.4	9.9
Estonia	2.3	2.7	2.2	2.8	–
EU-27	12.2	14.4	14.4	13.8	15.2
Finland	17.7	16.3	15.9	12.3	19.4
France	15.4	14.1	14.3	13.3	15.5
Greece	13.8	10.7	10.9	9.3	13.2
Ireland	5.3	3.3	7.2	6.0	8.6
Italy	10.1	13.1	13.2	11.2	16.0
Latvia	6.7	7.2	4.2	5.6	2.8
Lithuania	3.8	4.5	3.5	4.8	2.3
Luxembourg	3.4	6.1	6.8	6.2	7.6
Hungary	6.8	6.7	7.3	7.7	6.8
Malta	3.9	3.7	5.1	3.7	7.7
Germany	12.8	14.5	14.6	14.7	14.5
Netherlands	13.8	16.4	17.9	16.4	19.5
Poland	5.6	27.3	28.2	28.4	27.9
Portugal	19.8	20.6	22.4	21.8	23.0
Romania	2.9	1.8	1.6	1.7	1.5
Slovakia	4.0	5.0	5.0	4.9	5.1
Slovenia	12.8	17.1	18.4	16.3	20.7
Spain	32.4	34.1	31.7	30.6	33.1
Sweden	14.3	17	17.2	14.7	19.7
United Kingdom	6.6	5.7	5.7	5.1	6.4

Sourcer: EUROSTAT.

HOUSEHOLD INCOME AND EXPENDITURE

Table 14: **Personal income tax base per capita by region, indices (Slovenia=100), 2000–2006**

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Slovenia	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Osrednjeslovenska	123.5	122.3	122.3	119.1	121.7	121.9	121.5
Obalno-kraška	110.9	111.5	111.4	111.3	109.1	107.1	107.2
Gorenjska	101.5	102.2	101.8	103.2	101.7	102.4	101.8
Goriška	110.1	110.4	108.8	109.3	108.2	104.4	103.6
Savinjska	89.6	90.2	86.8	91.2	90.7	90.8	90.8
Jugovzhodna Slovenija	90.8	94.2	95.0	96.0	95.8	95.6	95.9
Pomurska	75.2	74.0	80.3	74.6	74.4	74.2	75.5
Notranjsko-kraška	101.5	99.8	100.6	101.1	99.7	98.1	99.6
Podravska	84.6	84.5	85.5	86.9	86.4	86.7	86.8
Koroška	86.1	86.4	85.5	86.9	86.0	89.1	88.8
Spodnjeposavska	85.8	86.0	85.6	85.9	85.4	85.7	86.6
Zasavska	94.6	92.7	91.5	91.9	89.2	91.3	90.5

Source: Tax Administration of the Republic of Slovenia; calculations by IMAD.

Table 15: **Average allocated assets of households1 (without money value of own production[2]), by quintiles,[3] Slovenia, 2004 –2006[4]**

		2000		2005		2006	
		Average per household, SIT	Structure, %	Average per household, SIT	Structure, %	Average per household, SIT	Structure, %
ALLOCATED ASSETS	Quintile – TOTAL	3,069,535	100	4,125,412	100	4,319,879	100
	1. quintile	1,327,611	100	1,704,207	100	1,715,916	100
	2. quintile	2,256,664	100	2,868,969	100	2,942,370	100
	3. quintile	2,876,942	100	3,909,894	100	4,128,827	100
	4. quintile	3,632,984	100	4,944,294	100	5,201,285	100
	5. quintile	5,163,040	100	7,196,675	100	7,609,484	100
Consumption expenditure5	Quintile – TOTAL	2,760,406	89.9	3,584,113	86.9	3,674,104	85.1
	1. quintile	1,254,359	94.5	1,538,574	90.3	1,556,213	90.7
	2. quintile	2,049,892	90.8	2,594,733	90.4	2,616,358	88.9
	3. quintile	2,613,032	90.8	3,388,600	86.7	3,476,302	84.2
	4. quintile	3,269,941	90.0	4,350,000	88.0	4,492,790	86.4
	5. quintile	4,524,239	87.6	6,046,200	84.0	6,227,686	81.8
Food and non-alcoholic beverages	Quintile – TOTAL	557,681	18.2	596,360	14.5	608,864	14.1
	1. quintile	350,727	26.4	358,828	21.1	356,267	20.8
	2. quintile	506,219	22.4	499,720	17.4	517,349	17.6
	3. quintile	564,667	19.6	626,807	16.0	623,052	15.1
	4. quintile	631,400	17.4	686,556	13.9	712,307	13.7
	5. quintile	735,521	14.3	809,560	11.3	835,213	11.0

Table 15: **Average allocated assets of households[1] (without money value of own production[2]), by quintiles,[3] Slovenia, 2004 –2006[4]**– *continue*

		2000		2005		2006	
		Average per household, SIT	Structure, %	Average per household, SIT	Structure, %	Average per household, SIT	Structure, %
Alcoholic beverages and tobacco	Quintile – TOTAL	58,484	1.9	86,979	2.1	93,154	2.2
	1. quintile	33,424	2.5	54,552	3.2	55,948	3.3
	2. quintile	55,719	2.5	84,198	2.9	91,704	3.1
	3. quintile	56,080	2.0	89,481	2.3	104,581	2.5
	4. quintile	70,604	1.9	105,675	2.1	111,017	2.1
	5. quintile	76,613	1.5	100,962	1.4	102,504	1.4
Clothing and footwear	Quintile – TOTAL	249,599	8.1	287,542	7.0	293,055	6.8
	1. quintile	80,052	6.0	77,364	4.5	72,872	4.3
	2. quintile	145,990	6.5	173,744	6.1	168,873	5.7
	3. quintile	231,309	8.0	273,220	7.0	279,113	6.8
	4. quintile	307,096	8.5	351,957	7.1	365,076	7.0
	5. quintile	483,646	9.4	561,151	7.8	579,211	7.6
Housing, water, electricity, gas and other fuels	Quintile – TOTAL	308,405	10.1	435,083	10.6	456,933	10.6
	1. quintile	204,243	15.4	287,914	16.9	309,658	18.1
	2. quintile	279,583	12.4	412,244	14.4	440,596	15.0
	3. quintile	322,725	11.2	461,394	11.8	477,191	11.6
	4. quintile	356,444	9.8	472,153	9.6	497,844	9.6
	5. quintile	379,098	7.3	541,581	7.5	559,278	7.4
Furnishings, household equipment	Quintile – TOTAL	209,738	6.8	260,605	6.3	278,214	6.4
	1. quintile	104,160	7.9	98,449	5.8	103,216	6.0
	2. quintile	148,839	6.6	184,843	6.4	203,510	6.9
	3. quintile	200,982	7.0	247,517	6.3	275,005	6.7
	4. quintile	248,001	6.8	317,413	6.4	330,339	6.4
	5. quintile	346,769	6.7	454,615	6.3	478,893	6.3
Transport	Quintile – TOTAL	50,686	1.7	61,079	1.5	65,118	1.5
	1. quintile	31,921	2.4	25,120	1.5	30,636	1.8
	2. quintile	42,905	1.9	48,613	1.7	51,429	1.8
	3. quintile	47,733	1.7	64,131	1.6	66,940	1.6
	4. quintile	55,667	1.5	68,352	1.4	73,804	1.4
	5. quintile	75,214	1.5	99,139	1.4	102,760	1.4
Communication	Quintile – TOTAL	87,532	2.9	179,244	4.3	191,945	4.4
	1. quintile	44,251	3.3	93,917	5.5	97,024	5.7
	2. quintile	68,073	3.0	135,569	4.7	147,685	5.0
	3. quintile	84,575	2.9	177,359	4.5	193,149	4.7
	4. quintile	103,983	2.9	212,069	4.3	228,862	4.4
	5. quintile	136,804	2.7	277,188	3.9	292,957	3.9
Recreation and culture	Quintile – TOTAL	261,173	8.5	390,236	9.5	391,351	9.1
	1. quintile	104,148	7.8	140,461	8.2	141,841	8.3
	2. quintile	172,000	7.6	241,504	8.4	247029	8.4
	3. quintile	234,105	8.1	335,937	8.6	320,365	7.8
	4. quintile	325,309	9.0	466,964	9.4	482,753	9.3
	5. quintile	470,409	9.1	766,021	10.6	764,618	10.1

Table 15: **Average allocated assets of households1 (without money value of own production[2]), by quintiles,[3] Slovenia, 2004 –2006[4]** – *continue*

		2000		2005		2006	
		Average per household, SIT	Structure, %	Average per household, SIT	Structure, %	Average per household, SIT	Structure, %
Education	Quintile – TOTAL	25,017	0.8	37,497	0.9	39,903	0.9
	1. quintile	4,653	0.4	4,568	0.3	4,204	0.2
	2. quintile	13,874	0.6	15,325	0.5	14,579	0.5
	3. quintile	21,290	0.7	31,239	0.8	36,579	0.9
	4. quintile	35,916	1.0	44,175	0.9	45,097	0.9
	5. quintile	49,370	1.0	92,134	1.3	99,029	1.3
Restaurants and hotels	Quintile – TOTAL	160,247	5.2	167,384	4.1	150,547	3.5
	1. quintile	41,592	3.1	46,688	2.7	48,421	2.8
	2. quintile	116,550	5.2	146,424	5.1	88,186	3.0
	3. quintile	137,981	4.8	131,180	3.4	128,468	3.1
	4. quintile	187,875	5.2	205,133	4.2	188,196	3.6
	5. quintile	255,183	4.9	307,466	4.3	299,404	3.9
Miscellaneous goods and services	Quintile – TOTAL	299,126	9.8	395,592	9.6	417,225	9.7
	1. quintile	144,175	10.9	172,495	10.1	181,720	10.6
	2. quintile	222,076	9.8	277,310	9.7	284,592	9.7
	3. quintile	293,990	10.2	396,038	10.1	417,793	10.1
	4. quintile	359,472	9.9	492,181	10.0	513,390	9.9
	5. quintile	476,014	9.2	639,604	8.9	688,509	9.1
Expenditure for a dwelling, house – major works and renovations	Quintile – TOTAL	220,719	7.2	391,345	9.5	462,739	10.7
	1. quintile	44,120	3.3	91,585	5.4	98,936	5.8
	2. quintile	155,232	6.9	188,480	6.6	226,996	7.7
	3. quintile	185,879	6.5	389,409	10.0	497,005	12.0
	4. quintile	251,189	6.9	413,873	8.4	497,653	9.6
	5. quintile	467,272	9.1	872,943	12.1	992,846	13.1
Other expenditure	Quintile – TOTAL	88,410	2.9	149,955	3.6	183,036	4.2
	1. quintile	29,132	2.2	74,048	4.4	60,767	3.5
	2. quintile	51,540	2.3	85,756	3.0	99,017	3.4
	3. quintile	78,031	2.7	131,885	3.4	155,520	3.8
	4. quintile	111,854	3.1	180,421	3.7	210,841	4.1
	5. quintile	171,529	3.3	277,532	3.9	388,952	5.1

Source: SORS.
Notes: [1]COICOP: Allocated assets comprise value of consumption expenditure, expenditure on dwelling, house and other expenditure. [2] Value of own production covers value of own agricultural products and goods consumed within a household during the year (food, beverage, heating). [3]Quintile: Households are split into quintiles regarding the total allocated assets. The first quintile consists of the 20% of households with the lowest consumption and the fifth quintile of the 20% of households with the highest consumption. [4]Data from three consecutive years (e.g. 1999–2001) are calculated to the middle year (e.g. 2000) as the reference year. [5]Consumption expenditure (the concept of expenditure) is classified by the COICOP – Classification of Individual Consumption by Purpose.

Table 16: **Number of minutes worked by recipients of first decile, median and ninth decile gross wages to buy goods and services, Slovenia, 1997 and 2007**

	First decile		Median		Ninth decile	
Goods and services	1997	2007	1997	2007	1997	2007
Food						
Brown bread (t-850) [kg]	24 minutes	33 minutes	14 minutes	19 minutes	7 minutes	9 minutes
Roll, small [piece]	4 minutes	6 minutes	2 minutes	3 minutes	1 minute	2 minutes
Unboned beef, joint [kg]	2 hours 40 minutes	1 hour 55 minutes	1 hour 34 minutes	1 hour 6 minutes	47 minutes	32 minutes
Frankfurt sausage [kg]	2 hours 54 minutes	1 hour 33 minutes	1 hour 43 minutes	53 minutes	51 minutes	26 minutes
Fresh milk, 3.5% milk fat, tetrapack [l]	13 minutes	10 minutes	7 minutes	5 minutes	4 minutes	3 minutes
Apples, table [kg]	21 minutes	17 minutes	13 minutes	10 minutes	6 minutes	5 minutes
Potatoes [kg]	7 minutes	9 minutes	4 minutes	5 minutes	2 minutes	2 minutes
Garden salad (endive) [kg]	25 minutes	34 minutes	15 minutes	20 minutes	8 minutes	9 minutes
Frozen mixed vegetables [kg]	1 hour 44 minutes	45 minutes	1 hour 1 minute	26 minutes	31 minutes	12 minutes
Non-profit rent [m2]	37 minutes	39 minutes	22 minutes	22 minutes	11 minutes	11 minutes
Municipal services						
Water for households [m3]	12 minutes	9 minutes	7 minutes	5 minutes	3 minutes	2 minutes
Sewage system fee [m3]	9 minutes	17 minutes	5 minutes	10 minutes	3 minutes	5 minutes
Refuse collection [m3]	1 minute	4 hours 32 minutes	1 minute	2 hours 37 minutes	0 minutes	1 hour 16 minutes
Fuel and energy						
Brown coal, 4,000 cal [t]	46 hours 24 minutes	75 hours 17 minutes	27 hours 20 minutes	43 hours 26 minutes	13 hours 40 minutes	20 hours 53 minutes
Fuel oil, extra light [l]	7 minutes	10 minutes	4 minutes	6 minutes	2 minutes	3 minutes
Electricity, day time tariff [kWh]	2 minutes	2 minutes	1 minute	1 minute	1 minute	0 minutes
Electricity, night time tariff [kWh]	1 minute	1 minute	1 minute	1 minute	0 minutes	0 minutes
Natural gas, for heating [sm3]	6 minutes	8 minutes	4 minutes	5 minutes	2 minutes	2 minutes
Furniture, furnishing and other						
Bedroom [set]	507 hours 7 minutes	335 hours 33 minutes	298 hours 43 minutes	193 hours 39 minutes	149 hours 21 minutes	93 hours 8 minutes
Sofa, three seats, expandable [piece]	197 hours 56 minutes	126 hours 21 minutes	116 hours 36 minutes	72 hours 55 minutes	58 hours 18 minutes	35 hours 4 minutes
Quilt, artificial thick filler, 130 (140) x 200 (220) cm [piece]	21 hours 39 minutes	15 hours 13 minutes	12 hours 45 minutes	8 hours 47 minutes	6 hours 23 minutes	4 hours 13 minutes
Built-in glass-ceramic plate, 4 cooking zones [piece]	129 hours 43 minutes	120 hours 20 minutes	76 hours 25 minutes	69 hours 26 minutes	38 hours 12 minutes	33 hours 24 minutes
Vacuum cleaner, 1,600–1,800 W [piece]	47 hours 44 minutes	32 hours 3 minutes	28 hours 7 minutes	18 hours 30 minutes	14 hours 3 minutes	8 hours 54 minutes
Washing machine, capacity 5–7 kg, 800–1,300 rpm [piece]	165 hours 41 minutes	125 hours 59 minutes	97 hours 36 minutes	72 hours 42 minutes	48 hours 48 minutes	34 hours 58 minutes
Steam iron with extra steam shot, integrated self-clean, 2,000 W [piece]	24 hours 19 minutes	21 hours 22 minutes	14 hours 19 minutes	12 hours 20 minutes	7 hours 10 minutes	5 hours 56 minutes
Colour TV, 70–75 cm screen [piece]	288 hours 50 minutes	-	170 hours 8 minutes	-	85 hours 4 minutes	-
Transport and communications						
Passenger car, Renault Clio [piece]	25 months 2 weeks	18 months 1 week	15 months	10 months 2 weeks	7 months 2 weeks	5 months
Compulsory car insurance, 31–40 kW, without reductions [premium]	80 hours 14 minutes	85 hours 57 minutes	47 hours 16 minutes	49 hours 36 minutes	23 hours 38 minutes	23 hours 51 minutes
Women's bicycle (ctb), about 26 gears [piece]	82 hours 23 minutes	48 hours 22 minutes	48 hours 32 minutes	27 hours 55 minutes	24 hours 16 minutes	13 hours 25 minutes
Petrol, unleaded, 95-oct. [l]	14 minutes	16 minutes	8 minutes	9 minutes	4 minutes	4 minutes
Vehicle check-up [annual fee]	7 hours 17 minutes	8 hours 30 minutes	4 hours 17 minutes	4 hours 54 minutes	2 hours 9 minutes	2 hours 21 minutes
Urban passenger transport by bus, cash [ticket]	17 minutes	16 minutes	10 minutes	9 minutes	5 minutes	4 minutes

Table 16: **Number of minutes worked by recipients of first decile, median and ninth decile gross wages to buy goods and services, Slovenia, 1997 and 2007** – *continue*

	First decile		Median		Ninth decile	
Goods and services	1997	2007	1997	2007	1997	2007
Clothing and footwear						
Cloth for men's suits and women's costume, predominantly wool, 140–150 cm wide [m]	8 hours 53 minutes	4 hours 25 minutes	5 hours 14 minutes	2 hours 33 minutes	2 hours 37 minutes	1 hours 14 minutes
Women's raincoat, lined [piece]	87 hours 28 minutes	33 hours 4 minutes	51 hours 31 minutes	19 hours 5 minutes	25 hours 46 minutes	9 hours 11 minutes
Men's suit, predominantly wool [piece]	87 hours 42 minutes	62 hours 14 minutes	51 hours 39 minutes	35 hours 55 minutes	25 hours 50 minutes	17 hours 16 minutes
Children's trousers, jeans, size 12–14 [piece]	10 hours 55 minutes	7 hours 47 minutes	6 hours 26 minutes	4 hours 29 minutes	3 hours 13 minutes	2 hours 9 minutes
Men's shoes, leather [pair]	16 hours 60 minutes	19 hours 6 minutes	10 hours 1 minute	11 hours 1 minute	5 hours 0 minutes	5 hours 18 minutes
Women's ankle-high shoes, leather [pair]	22 hours 28 minutes	18 hours 27 minutes	13 hours 14 minutes	10 hours 39 minutes	6 hours 37 minutes	5 hours 7 minutes
Children's shoes, leather, rubber sole [pair]	11 hours 14 minutes	10 hours 56 minutes	6 hours 37 minutes	6 hours 18 minutes	3 hours 19 minutes	3 hours 2 minutes
Hygiene, cosmetics and health						
Laundry detergent, powder, for washing machines, 2.6–4.2 kg [kg]	44 minutes	47 minutes	26 minutes	27 minutes	13 minutes	13 minutes
Dish-washing liquid, 500–1,000 ml [l]	56 minutes	26 minutes	33 minutes	15 minutes	16 minutes	7 minutes
Toilet soap, piece, 100–150 g [kg]	2 hours 35 minutes	1 hour 28 minutes	1 hour 31 minutes	51 minutes	46 minutes	24 minutes
Shampoo (normal hair), about 200–300 ml [l]	2 hours 57 minutes	2 hours 39 minutes	1 hour 44 minutes	1 hour 32 minutes	52 minutes	44 minutes
Aspirin, 20 tablets [box]	47 minutes	55 minutes	28 minutes	32 minutes	14 minutes	15 minutes
Mercury thermometer [piece]	1 hour 16 minutes	38 minutes	45 minutes	22 minutes	23 minutes	10 minutes
Services						
Sewing a skirt [piece]	12 hours 9 minutes	9 hours 6 minutes	7 hours 9 minutes	5 hours 15 minutes	3 hours 35 minutes	2 hours 31 minutes
Dry-cleaning a suit [2 pieces]	3 hours 41 minutes	3 hours 2 minutes	2 hours 10 minutes	1hour 45 minutes	1 hour 5 minutes	50 minutes
Soling men's shoes, work + material [pair]	3 hours 27 minutes	4 hours 0 minutes	2 hours 2 minutes	2 hours 19 minutes	1 hour 1 minute	1 hour 7 minutes
Fashionable men's haircut [haircut]	3 hours 29 minutes	3 hours 22 minutes	2 hours 3 minutes	1 hour 56 minutes	1 hour 1 minute	56 minutes
Fashionable women's hairstyle [haircut]	7 hours 27 minutes	6 hours 45 minutes	4 hours 23 minutes	3 hours 54 minutes	2 hours 12 minutes	1 hour 52 minutes
Painting rooms, one coat, work + material [m2]	37 minutes	33 minutes	22 minutes	19 minutes	11 minutes	9 minutes
Culture, recreation and education						
Cinema performance, feature-length film, evening performance [ticket]	1 hour 18 minutes	1 hour 14 minutes	46 minutes	43 minutes	23 minutes	20 minutes
Regular theatre performance [ticket]	4 hours 38 minutes	3 hours 27 minutes	2 hours 44 minutes	1 hour 59 minutes	1 hour 22 minutes	57 minutes
Radio and TV subscription [monthly fee]	4 hours 28 minutes	2 hours 55 minutes	2 hours 38 minutes	1 hour 41 minutes	1 hour 19 minutes	48 minutes
Daily newspaper [copy]	14 minutes	13 minutes	8 minutes	8 minutes	4 minutes	4 minutes
Foreign language course (Eng.,Ger.), 80–100 hours, for beginner's [course]	151 hours 3 minutes	121 hours 21 minutes	88 hours 59 minutes	70 hours 2 minutes	44 hours 29 minutes	33 hours 41 minutes
Eating out						
Pizza (classic), large [portion]	1 hour 27 minutes	1 hour 22 minutes	51 minutes	47 minutes	26 minutes	23 minutes
Ice cream with cream [portion]	-	41 minutes	-	24 minutes	-	11 minutes
Coffee, express [cup]	-	15 minutes	-	9 minutes	-	4 minutes

Source: SORS; calculations by IMAD.

Table 17: **Working time to buy[1] goods and services, 1997–2007**

	1997	2000	2003	2007	2007/1997
Food					
Brown bread (t-850) [kg]	11 minutes	15 minutes	16 minutes	16 minutes	143.4
Roll, small [piece]	2 minutes	2 minutes	3 minutes	3 minutes	161.2
Unboned beef, joint [kg]	1 hour 16 minutes	1 hour 8 minutes	1 hour 2 minutes	56 minutes	73.7
Frankfurt sausage [kg]	1 hour 22 minutes	1 hour 11 minutes	54 minutes	45 minutes	54.5
Fresh milk, 3.5% milk fat, tetrapack [l]	6 minutes	7 minutes	6 minutes	5 minutes	77.8
Apples, table [kg]	10 minutes	8 minutes	10 minutes	8 minutes	82.6
Potatoes [kg]	3 minutes	3 minutes	7 minutes	4 minutes	122.2
Garden salad (endive) [kg]	12 minutes	18 minutes	24 minutes	17 minutes	137.4
Frozen mixed vegetables [kg]	49 minutes	45 minutes	30 minutes	22 minutes	44.2
Rent					
Non-profit rent [m2]	17 minutes	16 minutes	19 minutes	19 minutes	108.0
Municipal services					
Water for households [m3]	6 minutes	7 minutes	8 minutes	4 minutes	77.4
Sewage system fee [m3]	4 minutes	4 minutes	7 minutes	8 minutes	203.2
Refuse collection [m3]	-	-	1 hour 51 minutes	2 hours 12 minutes	118.5
Fuel and energy					
Brown coal, 4000 cal [t]	21 hours 56 minutes	24 hours 25 minutes	25 hours 52 minutes	36 hours 29 minutes	166.4
Fuel oil, extra light [l]	3 minutes	6 minutes	4 minutes	5 minutes	149.8
Electricity, day time tariff [kWh]	1 minute	1 minute	1 minute	1 minute	81.0
Electricity, night time tariff [kWh]	1 minute	1 minute	1 minute	1 minute	85.7
Natural gas, for heating [sm3]	3 minutes	4 minutes	4 minutes	4 minutes	138.5
Furniture, furnishing and other					
Bedroom [set]	239 hours 38 minutes	203 hours 38 minutes	190 hours 37 minutes	162 hours 37 minutes	67.9
Sofa, three seats, expandable [piece]	93 hours 32 minutes	72 hours 31 minutes	74 hours 9 minutes	61 hours 14 minutes	65.5
Quilt, artificial thick filler, 130 (140) x 200 (220) cm [piece]	10 hours 14 minutes	9 hours 18 minutes	8 hours 5 minutes	7 hours 22 minutes	72.1
Built-in glass-ceramic plate, 4 cooking zones [piece]	61 hours 18 minutes	73 hours 28 minutes	66 hours 34 minutes	58 hours 19 minutes	95.1
Vacuum cleaner, 1,600–1,800 W [piece]	22 hours 33 minutes	22 hours 24 minutes	18 hours 56 minutes	15 hours 32 minutes	68.9
Washing machine, capacity 5–7 kg, 800–1,300 rpm [piece]	78 hours 17 minutes	81 hours 50 minutes	73 hours 36 minutes	61 hours 3 minutes	78.0
Steam iron with extra steam shot, integrated self-clean, 2,000 W [piece]	11 hours 29 minutes	12 hours 48 minutes	11 hours 28 minutes	10 hours 21 minutes	90.1
Colour TV, 70–75 cm screen [piece]	136 hours 29 minutes	103 hours 20 minutes	117 hours 44 minutes	-	-
Transport and communications					
Passenger car, Renault Clio [piece]	12 months	10 months 3 weeks	9 months 1 week	8 months 3 weeks	73.4
Compulsory car insurance, 31–40 kW, without reductions [premium]	37 hours 55 minutes	42 hours 49 minutes	47 hours 23 minutes	41 hours 39 minutes	109.9
Women's bicycle (ctb), about 26 gears [piece]	38 hours 56 minutes	31 hours 8 minutes	27 hours 40 minutes	23 hours 26 minutes	60.2
Petrol, unleaded, 95–oct. [l]	6 minutes	8 minutes	8 minutes	8 minutes	120.0
Vehicle check-up [annual fee]	3 hours 26 minutes	3 hours 47 minutes	3 hours 42 minutes	4 hours 7 minutes	119.7
Urban passenger transport by bus, cash [ticket]	8 minutes	9 minutes	10 minutes	8 minutes	94.3

Table 17: **Working time to buy[1] goods and services, 1997–2007** – *continue*

	1997	2000	2003	2007	2007/1997
Clothing and footwear					
Cloth for men's suits and women's costume, predominantly wool, 140–150 cm wide [m]	4 hours 12 minutes	3 hours 20 minutes	3 hours 18 minutes	2 hours 8 minutes	51.0
Women's raincoat, lined [piece]	41 hours 20 minutes	36 hours 31 minutes	31 hours 42 minutes	16 hours 1 minute	38.8
Men's suit, predominantly wool [piece]	41 hours 26 minutes	46 hours 8 minutes	35 hours 34 minutes	30 hours 10 minutes	72.8
Children's trousers, jeans, size 12–14 [piece]	5 hours 9 minutes	4 hours 35 minutes	4 hours 19 minutes	3 hours 46 minutes	73.1
Men's shoes, leather [pair]	8 hours 2 minutes	8 hours 12 minutes	7 hours 51 minutes	9 hours 15 minutes	115.2
Women's ankle-high shoes, leather [pair]	10 hours 37 minutes	11 hours 5 minutes	8 hours 1 minute	8 hours 57 minutes	84.2
Children's shoes, leather, rubber sole [pair]	5 hours 19 minutes	4 hours 45 minutes	5 hours 33 minutes	5 hours 18 minutes	99.7
Hygiene, cosmetics and health					
Laundry detergent, powder, for washing machines, 2.6–4.2 kg [kg]	21 minutes	18 minutes	20 minutes	23 minutes	109.9
Dish-washing liquid, 500–1,000 ml [l]	26 minutes	20 minutes	19 minutes	13 minutes	47.5
Toilet soap, piece, 100–150 g [kg]	1 hour 13 minutes	1 hour 1 minute	1 hour 1 minute	43 minutes	58.4
Shampoo (normal hair), about 200–300 ml [l]	1 hour 23 minutes	1 hour 24 minutes	1 hour 48 minutes	1 hour 17 minutes	92.1
Aspirin, 20 tablets [box]	22 minutes	26 minutes	28 minutes	27 minutes	120.1
Mercury thermometer [piece]	36 minutes	34 minutes	30 minutes	18 minutes	50.5
Services					
Sewing a skirt [piece]	5 hours 44 minutes	5 hours 21 minutes	4 hours 49 minutes	4 hours 24 minutes	76.8
Dry-cleaning a suit [2 pieces]	1 hour 45 minutes	1 hour 47 minutes	1 hour 40 minutes	1 hour 28 minutes	84.3
Soling men's shoes, work + material [pair]	1 hour 38 minutes	1 hour 27 minutes	1 hour 34 minutes	1 hour 56 minutes	119.0
Fashionable men's haircut [haircut]	1 hour 39 minutes	1 hour 44 minutes	1 hour 35 minutes	1 hour 38 minutes	99.1
Fashionable women's hairstyle [haircut]	3 hours 31 minutes	3 hours 41 minutes	3 hours 26 minutes	3 hours 16 minutes	93.1
Painting rooms, one coat, work + material [m2]	17 minutes	18 minutes	16 minutes	16 minutes	91.6
Culture, recreation and education					
Cinema performance, feature-length film, evening performance [ticket]	37 minutes	39 minutes	38 minutes	36 minutes	96.4
Regular theatre performance [ticket]	2 hours 11 minutes	1 hour 58 minutes	1 hour 46 minutes	1 hour 40 minutes	76.4
Radio and TV subscription [monthly fee]	2 hours 6 minutes	2 hours 2 minutes	1 hour 45 minutes	1 hour 25 minutes	66.9
Daily newspaper [copy]	7 minutes	6 minutes	7 minutes	6 minutes	96.8
Foreign language course (Eng.,Ger.), 80–100 hours, for beginners [course]	71 hours 23 minutes	73 hours 3 minutes	67 hours 59 minutes	58 hours 49 minutes	82.4
Eating out					
Pizza (classic), large [portion]	41 minutes	39 minutes	37 minutes	40 minutes	96.7
Ice cream with cream [portion]	–	–	20 minutes	20 minutes	102.0
Coffee, express [cup]	–	–	7 minutes	7 minutes	101.9

Source: SORS; calculations by IMAD.
Note: [1]with the hourly average gross wage (September).

Table 18: **Structure of household consumption[1] according to COICOP,[2] EU-27, 2005**

	Total	01[3]	02[4]	03[5]	04[6]	05[7]	06[8]	07[9]	08[10]	09[11]	10[12]	11[13]	12[14]
EU-27	100	12.8	3.6	5.8	21.7	6.3	3.5	13.5	2.8	9.5	1.0	8.9	10.7
Austria	100	10.7	2.9	6.4	20.5	7.4	3.2	13.2	2.7	11.6	0.6	12.0	8.7
Belgium	100	13.3	3.6	5.4	23.0	5.5	4.3	14.7	2.3	9.3	0.6	5.2	12.9
Cyprus	100	15.2	6.0	6.2	12.7	6.7	3.9	14.2	2.0	8.0	3.0	12.4	9.8
Czech Republic	100	16.1	7.9	4.9	22.2	5.2	1.9	11.5	3.5	11.6	0.7	6.6	8.0
Denmark	100	11.2	3.5	5.3	24.2	6.9	4.7	13.8	2.8	9.4	0.7	5.4	12.2
Estonia	100	18.3	8.1	7.3	18.5	5.6	2.9	12.7	3.1	8.3	1.0	6.9	7.4
Finland	100	12.5	5.0	4.8	25.3	5.5	4.2	12.9	2.8	11.4	0.4	6.5	8.7
France	100	13.7	3.1	4.8	24.4	6.0	3.4	14.8	2.8	9.3	0.7	6.2	10.9
Ireland	100	8.3	5.2	4.7	19.7	6.8	3.6	10.6	3.5	7.2	1.3	13.3	12
Italy	100	14.8	2.6	8.0	20.6	7.7	3.2	13.4	2.8	6.9	0.9	9.8	9.4
Latvia	100	22.2	7.0	7.1	21.0	3.6	4.1	11.2	4.2	7.6	2.6	5.4	3.8
Lithuania	100	26.5	6.6	8.1	14.1	5.6	5.0	14.9	2.6	6.4	0.8	3.1	6.4
Luxembourg	100	9.3	10.6	3.7	21.1	8.1	1.5	19.0	1.4	7.9	0.3	7.4	9.8
Hungary	100	16.8	8.3	3.6	18.5	6.7	3.7	15.8	4.5	7.9	1.2	5.0	8.1
Malta	100	16.2	3.1	6.1	10.9	8.8	2.5	13.8	4.7	10.7	1.2	13.2	8.8
Netherlands	100	10.6	2.8	5.3	22.2	6.3	5.3	11.5	4.5	10.0	0.5	5.1	15.8
Poland	100	21.1	6.6	4.6	23.8	4.4	4.0	8.7	3.4	7.6	1.3	2.9	11.8
Slovakia	100	18.0	5.2	4.2	25.5	5.4	3.2	8.6	3.6	8.9	1.5	6.7	9.1
Slovenia	100	14.6	5.0	5.8	19.0	6.0	3.6	15.8	3.5	9.8	1.1	6.5	9.2
Spain	100	14.1	2.9	5.5	16.2	5.2	3.5	11.6	2.6	9.1	1.5	18.9	8.9
Sweden	100	12.0	3.7	5.3	28.3	5.2	2.7	13.2	3.1	11.8	0.3	5.1	9.3
United Kingdom	100	9.0	3.7	5.9	19.6	5.8	1.6	15.1	2.2	12.6	1.4	11.9	11.1

Source: Eurostat.
Notes: [1]According to the national accounts methodology. [2]COICOP is a classification of individual (final) consumption (of households) by purpose. [3](01) Food and non-alcoholic beverages. [4](02) Alcoholic beverages, tobacco and narcotics. [5](03) Clothing and footwear. [6](04) Housing, water, energy. [7](05) Furnishings, household equipment and routine household maintenance. [8](06) Health. [9](07) Transport. [10](08) Communications. [11](09) Recreation and culture. [12](10) Education. [13](11) Hotels and restaurants. [14](12) Miscellaneous products and services.

SOCIO-ECONOMIC STRATIFICATION OF THE POPULATION IN 1998, 2002 AND 2006

Table 19: **Distribution of persons by household type, Slovenia, 1998, 2002 and 2006, %**

Household type	% of persons in income bracket				Total (all persons)
	Low	Lower middle	Upper middle	High	
1998					
One person household, 65 years and over	8.0	3.0	1.1	0.4	3.0
One person household, 30–64 years	4.4	1.9	1.2	1.7	2.1
One person household, under 30 years	0.4	0.2	0.1	0.0	0.2
Couple, no children, oldest member 65 and over	6.6	4.6	4.3	5.4	4.9
Couple, no children, oldest member under 65 years	4.9	4.8	6.7	12.3	5.7
One person household, children under 18 years	2.2	1.5	0.6	0.0	1.3
Couple, one child under 18 years	7.3	7.3	12.7	11.8	9.0
Couple, two children under 18 years	10.0	17.8	18.0	14.7	16.6
Couple, three children under 18 years	6.7	4.4	2.6	2.4	4.1
Single parent, at least one child 18 and over	6.3	4.5	3.9	5.0	4.6
Couple, at least one child 18 and over	14.3	23.5	29.7	30.6	24.2
Other households, all members related	28.0	25.4	18.7	13.2	23.3
Other households, at least one member not related	0.8	1.0	0.6	2.6	1.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
2002					
One person household, 65 years and over	13.3	4.1	1.0	0.8	4.2
One person household, 30–64 years	6.4	1.9	2.0	3.5	2.6
One person household, under 30 years	1.7	0.2	0.4	0.0	0.4
Couple, no children, oldest member 65 and over	8.4	5.2	5.8	5.3	5.8
Couple, no children, oldest member under 65 years	4.5	5.0	6.9	11.5	5.8
One person household, children under 18 years	2.5	1.8	0.7	0.0	1.5
Couple, one child under 18 years	4.6	6.8	8.9	16.9	7.6
Couple, two children under 18 years	8.6	16.5	15.8	15.9	15.3
Couple, three children under 18 years	6.6	5.0	1.4	3.6	4.1
Single parent, at least one child 18 and over	5.8	5.0	4.2	3.5	4.8
Couple, at least one child 18 and over	19.6	26.6	35.7	28.8	28.4
Other households, all members related	17.1	20.4	16.7	10.2	18.4
Other households, at least one member not related	1.0	1.5	0.6	0.0	1.1
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
2006					
One person household, 65 years and over	18.4	3.4	1.2	1.0	4.4
One person household, 30–64 years	11.1	2.8	2.1	4.9	3.7
One person household, under 30 years	1.8	0.5	0.7	0.7	0.7
Couple, no children, oldest member 65 and over	8.3	8.4	5.7	4.4	7.4
Couple, no children, oldest member under 65 years	4.0	6.4	9.0	14.1	7.3
One person household, children under 18 years	4.0	2.9	0.6	0.0	2.2
Couple, one child under 18 years	5.4	7.0	10.3	23.4	8.6
Couple, two children under 18 years	8.9	14.8	18.1	9.4	14.8
Couple, three children under 18 years	2.3	5.2	3.1	2.1	4.1
Single parent, at least one child 18 and over	6.8	5.5	4.6	2.5	5.2
Couple, at least one child 18 and over	12.5	25.2	31.1	30.7	25.8
Other households, all members related	14.9	16.3	12.2	5.8	14.4
Other households, at least one member not related	1.8	1.7	1.3	0.8	1.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: SORS, HBS files 1998, 2002 and 2006; calculations by Stropnik.

Table 20: **Distribution of persons in income brackets by household type, 1998, 2002 and 2006, %**

Household type	% of persons in income bracket				Total (all persons)
	Low	Lower middle	Upper middle	High	
1998					
One person household, 65 and over	37.0	52.8	9.5	0.7	100.0
One person household, 30–64 years	29.8	50.7	15.3	4.2	100.0
One person household, under 30 years	28.9	62.7	8.4	0.0	100.0
Couple, no children, oldest member 65 and over	19.0	51.4	23.9	5.7	100.0
Couple, no children, oldest member under 65 years	11.9	45.7	31.6	10.9	100.0
One person household, children under 18 years	24.8	63.1	12.1	0.0	100.0
Couple, one child under 18 years	11.4	43.9	38.0	6.7	100.0
Couple, two children under 18 years	8.4	57.9	29.2	4.5	100.0
Couple, three or more children under 18 years	22.6	57.4	17.0	2.9	100.0
Single parent, at least one child 18 and over	19.0	53.0	22.6	5.5	100.0
Couple, at least one child 18 and over	8.2	52.4	32.9	6.4	100.0
Other households, all members related	16.7	58.9	21.5	2.9	100.0
Other households, at least one member not related	11.9	57.3	17.4	13.4	100.0
Total	14.0	54.1	26.9	5.1	100.0
2002					
One person household, 65 and over	38.1	54.1	6.8	1.0	100.0
One person household, 30–64 years	29.9	41.7	21.6	6.7	100.0
One person household, under 30 years	47.8	27.1	25.1	0.0	100.0
Couple, no children, oldest member 65 and over	17.4	50.0	28.1	4.5	100.0
Couple, no children, oldest member under 65 years	9.2	47.6	33.5	9.6	100.0
One person household, children under 18 years	20.2	66.5	13.3	0.0	100.0
Couple, one child under 18 years	7.2	49.0	33.0	10.8	100.0
Couple, two children under 18 years	6.7	59.1	29.1	5.0	100.0
Couple, three or more children under 18 years	19.0	67.0	9.9	4.2	100.0
Single parent, at least one child 18 and over	14.4	57.4	24.6	3.5	100.0
Couple, at least one child 18 and over	8.2	51.5	35.3	4.9	100.0
Other households, all members related	11.0	60.7	25.5	2.7	100.0
Other households, at least one member not related	10.5	74.3	15.1	0.0	100.0
Total	11.9	55.0	28.2	4.9	100.0
2006					
One person household, 65 and over	49.7	40.9	8.3	1.1	100.0
One person household, 30–64 years	35.6	40.5	17.6	6.2	100.0
One person household, under 30 years	29.9	34.7	30.4	5.0	100.0
Couple, no children, oldest member 65 and over	13.3	60.3	23.6	2.9	100.0
Couple, no children, oldest member under 65 years	6.5	46.8	37.5	9.2	100.0
One person household, children under 18 years	21.2	70.0	8.8	0.0	100.0
Couple, one child under 18 years	7.5	43.1	36.4	12.9	100.0
Couple, two children under 18 years	7.1	52.9	37.0	3.0	100.0
Couple, three or more children under 18 years	6.6	67.6	23.3	2.5	100.0
Single parent, at least one child 18 and over	15.3	56.0	26.5	2.2	100.0
Couple, at least one child 18 and over	5.8	52.0	36.6	5.6	100.0
Other households, all members related	12.2	60.1	25.7	1.9	100.0
Other households, at least one member not related	13.5	58.8	25.3	2.4	100.0
Total	49.7	40.9	8.3	1.1	100.0

Source: SORS, HBS files 1998, 2002 and 2006; calculations by Stropnik.

Table 21: **Distribution of population by formal (employment) status of the head of household in which they live, Slovenia, 1998, 2002 and 2006, %**

Formal (employment) status of head of household	% of persons in income bracket				Total (all persons)
	Low	Lower middle	Upper middle	High	
1998					
Employed	38.1	71.7	80.0	79.3	69.6
Self-employed	8.6	5.3	3.6	8.6	5.5
Unpaid family worker	2.1	0.4	0.1	0.0	0.5
Occasional work	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.2
Unemployed	13.9	1.1	0.6	0.0	2.7
Pensioner	34.5	21.1	15.4	11.8	21.0
Other[1]	2.5	0.2	0.1	0.0	0.5
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
2002					
Employed	32.6	69.7	78.9	81.3	68.4
Self-employed	7.3	6.6	5.0	7.4	6.3
Unpaid family worker	2.0	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.4
Occasional work	0.8	0.3	0.1	0.3	0.3
Unemployed	12.6	1.2	0.5	0.7	2.4
Pensioner	40.5	21.7	15.3	10.3	21.6
Other[1]	4.1	0.2	0.4	0.0	0.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
2006					
Employed	28.4	70.6	79.9	84.1	69.1
Self-employed	6.9	3.7	5.7	8.4	4.9
Unpaid family worker	0.7	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.1
Occasional work	2.9	0.9	0.4	0.8	0.9
Unemployed	13.1	1.2	0.4	0.4	2.3
Pensioner	43.4	23.1	13.5	6.4	21.8
Other[1]	4.7	0.4	0.2	0.0	0.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: SORS, HBS files 1998, 2002 and 2006; calculations by Stropnik.
Note: 1 "Other" includes pupils/students, housewives, persons incapacitated for work, etc.

Table 22: **Distribution of population in income brackets by formal (employment) status of the head of household in which they live, Slovenia, 1998, 2002 and 2006, %**

Formal (employment) status of head of household	% of persons in income bracket				Total (all persons))
	Low	Lower middle	Upper middle	High	
1998					
Employed	7.6	55.7	30.9	5.8	100.0
Self-employed	21.8	52.4	17.8	8.0	100.0
Unpaid family worker	56.6	37.7	5.6	0.0	100.0
Occasional work	27.1	40.6	21.8	10.4	100.0
Unemployed	71.4	22.6	6.0	0.0	100.0
Pensioner	22.9	54.4	19.8	2.8	100.0
Other[1]	68.8	24.0	7.3	0.0	100.0
Total	14.0	54.1	26.9	5.1	100.0
2002					
Employed	5.7	56.0	32.5	5.8	100.0
Self-employed	13.9	58.2	22.3	5.7	100.0
Unpaid family worker	58.0	42.0	0.0	0.0	100.0
Occasional work	33.3	55.4	6.0	5.3	100.0
Unemployed	64.0	28.9	5.7	1.5	100.0
Pensioner	22.4	55.3	19.9	2.3	100.0
Other[1]	69.7	15.9	14.4	0.0	100.0
Total	11.9	55.0	28.2	4.9	100.0
2006					
Employed	4.9	54.3	35.1	5.8	100.0
Self-employed	16.7	40.1	35.1	8.1	100.0
Unpaid family worker	63.8	36.2	0.0	0.0	100.0
Occasional work	36.5	48.3	11.4	3.8	100.0
Unemployed	66.2	27.7	5.2	0.9	100.0
Pensioner	23.5	56.3	18.8	1.4	100.0
Other[1]	66.0	26.2	7.7	0.0	100.0
Total	11.8	53.1	30.4	4.7	100.0

Source: SORS, HBS files 1998, 2002 and 2006; calculations by Stropnik.
Note: [1] "Other" includes pupils/students, housewives, persons incapacitated for work, etc.

Table 23: **Structure of income sources by income brackets, Slovenia, 1998, 2002 and 2006, %**

Source of income	Share of income source in current monetary disposable income,[1] by income brackets, %				
	Lower	Lower middle	Upper middle	High	Total (all persons)
1998					
Income from employment[2]	28.0	55.5	67.8	67.4	59.7
Contracts[3] and direct payments	2.7	1.2	1.1	3.2	1.5
Student employment brokerage service	0.2	0.4	0.7	0.4	0.5
Self-employment[4]	9.5	6.6	4.7	8.8	6.4
Pensions[5]	40.5	28.5	21.7	16.7	25.3
Unemployment benefit	5.9	1.8	0.7	0.2	1.4
Other social benefits[6]	6.0	2.1	0.9	0.6	1.7
Child allowance	4.8	2.2	0.9	0.1	1.6
Other family benefits[7]	1.0	1.0	0.7	1.2	0.9
Income from propertiy[8]	0.1	0.3	0.4	1.3	0.4
Financial benefits and gifts[9]	1.2	0.5	0.3	0.1	0.4
Total current monetary disposable income	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
2002					
Income from employment[2]	24.8	53.7	66.8	70.7	59.1
Contracts[3] and direct payments	2.4	1.2	0.9	3.0	1.4
Student employment brokerage service	0.5	1.0	1.0	0.7	0.9
Self-employment[4]	6.7	6.8	5.5	6.7	6.3
Pensions[5]	46.1	28.9	22.4	14.3	25.7
Unemployment benefit	4.3	1.1	0.5	0.2	0.9
Other social benefits[6]	7.0	2.1	0.9	0.8	1.7
Child allowance	6.4	3.1	0.7	0.4	2.1
Other family benefits[7]	0.8	1.3	0.5	1.4	1.0
Income from propertiy[8]	0.2	0.3	0.3	1.5	0.4
Financial benefits and gifts[9]	0.8	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.5
Total current monetary disposable income	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
2006					
Income from employment[2]	19.9	53.7	69.0	73.6	60.1
Contracts[3] and direct payments	3.7	1.3	1.5	4.9	1.9
Student employment brokerage service	1.0	1.1	1.0	0.7	1.0
Self-employment[4]	5.3	5.1	5.8	8.4	5.7
Pensions[5]	51.6	31.0	19.0	8.7	24.9
Unemployment benefit	3.2	1.1	0.2	0.1	0.7
Other social benefits[6]	7.8	2.0	1.0	0.4	1.7
Child allowance	5.0	2.7	0.7	0.1	1.8
Other family benefits[7]	0.8	1.1	0.8	1.4	1.0
Income from propertiy[8]	0.2	0.3	0.7	1.2	0.6
Financial benefits and gifts[9]	1.6	0.7	0.4	0.5	0.6
Total current monetary disposable income	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: SORS, HBS data files 1998, 2002 and 2006; calculations by Stropnik.

Notes: [1]**Current monetary disposable income** covers income from employment, income from occasional work (against contracts and direct payments and through the student employment brokerage service), income from self-employment, pensions, social and family benefits, income from property and financial benefits and gifts. Current income is reduced by given transfers (alimony, maintenance allowance, pecuniary gifts and voluntary contributions). The household income thus defined does not include one-off income, the value of own production spent in the household, unpaid rents (for proprietary housing), reduction in income or loans taken out. Household income is net income (after social security contributions and personal income tax). [2]**Income from employment** includes wages (also from abroad), holiday allowance, allowance for meals, travel reimbursement and other cash benefits from the employer. [3]**Contracts** are copyright contracts and contracts on work. [4]**Income from self-employment** is income from farming activities, income from other activities, wage of entrepreneur, holiday allowance, allowance for meals and travel reimbursement. [5]**Pensions** also include recreation allowances and pensions from abroad. [6]**Other social benefits** include financial social assistance, housing rent subsidy, disability and recognition allowances with bonuses, scholarships, etc. [7]**Other family benefits** are parental leave benefit, parental allowance, birth grant and child care allowance. [8]**Income from property** is net income from renting apartments, houses, garages and other real property, dividends, interests and income relating to patients, licences and other rights. [9]**Financial benefits and gifts** include maintenance from a former spouse and for a child, regular financial assistance, maintenance allowance for elderly people and pecuniary gifts.

Table 24: **Structure of expenditure on consumer goods by income brackets, Slovenia, 1998, 2002 and 2006,%**

Income bracket	Share of separate types of expenditure, %				Total (all persons)
	Low	Lower middle	Upper middle	High	
1998					
Food	26.0	21.2	17.6	14.4	19.7
Non-alcoholic beverages	3.3	2.7	2.2	1.8	2.5
Alcoholic beverages and tobacco	3.3	2.4	2.1	1.7	2.3
Clothing and footwear	7.5	8.9	9.7	10.4	9.2
Housing and utilities	13.4	11.3	9.1	7.6	10.4
Furnishings, household equipment and routine maintenance	7.0	7.4	7.0	8.3	7.3
Health	1.6	1.8	1.8	2.1	1.8
Transport	12.0	16.6	20.7	20.9	18.0
Communications	2.8	2.4	2.0	2.0	2.2
Recreation and culture	7.7	8.5	10.2	12.6	9.4
Education	0.5	0.6	0.8	1.2	0.7
Hotels, cafes and restaurants	4.3	6.0	7.0	7.0	6.3
Miscellaneous goods and services	10.6	10.3	9.9	9.8	10.1
Total expenditure on consumer goods	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
2002					
Food	23.4	18.9	15.7	12.2	17.5
Non-alcoholic beverages	2.4	2.1	1.7	1.3	1.9
Alcoholic beverages and tobacco	2.4	2.3	1.9	1.8	2.1
Clothing and footwear	6.7	8.3	9.5	10.9	8.9
Housing and utilities	14.4	12.8	10.3	8.6	11.6
Furnishings, household equipment and routine maintenance	6.5	6.7	7.2	9.1	7.1
Health	1.8	1.8	1.8	2.4	1.9
Transport	12.4	14.9	17.6	17.3	15.9
Communications	4.9	4.5	4.1	3.9	4.3
Recreation and culture	8.4	9.5	11.6	14.3	10.6
Education	0.8	0.9	1.1	1.0	1.0
Hotels, cafes and restaurants	4.9	5.6	6.6	7.3	6.1
Miscellaneous goods and services	11.0	11.6	10.8	10.1	11.1
Total expenditure on consumer goods	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
2006					
Food	19.6	16.2	13.5	10.8	15.0
Non-alcoholic beverages	2.1	1.8	1.4	1.1	1.6
Alcoholic beverages and tobacco	3.5	2.8	2.2	1.5	2.5
Clothing and footwear	5.4	7.5	8.4	10.6	8.0
Housing and utilities	17.8	13.9	10.6	8.0	12.4
Furnishings, household equipment and routine maintenance	7.0	7.4	7.5	9.0	7.6
Health	1.7	1.8	1.7	2.2	1.8
Transport	13.8	17.3	20.8	22.0	18.7
Communications	6.3	5.6	4.8	4.1	5.2
Recreation and culture	7.8	9.5	11.8	14.1	10.7
Education	0.4	0.9	1.4	1.3	1.1
Hotels, cafes and restaurants	3.5	3.7	4.5	5.0	4.1
Miscellaneous goods and services	11.0	11.6	11.3	10.3	11.4
Total expenditure on consumer goods	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: SORS, HBS files 1998, 2002 and 2006; calculations by Stropnik.

ACCESS TO HEALTH CARE

Table 25: **Expenditure on health care, EU-27, 2000 and 2006**

	Total expenditure on health as share of GDP,[4] %		Public expenditure on health, as share of GDP,[3] %		Private expenditure, share of total expenditure, %		Health expenditure per capita, in USD PPS
	2000	2006	2000	2006	2000	2006	2006
EU-27	7.3	8.2	5.3	6.0	27.5	27.4	2,093[1]
Austria	9.9	10.1	7.5	7.7	24.1	24.3	3,519
Belgium	8.6	10.3	6.5	7.4	24	27	3,389
Bulgaria	6.2	7.4	3.7	4.2	40.6	42.4	671[1]
Cyprus[1]	5.7	5.5	2.4	2.5	58.4	55.7	1,128[1]
Czech Republic	6.5	6.8	5.9	6.0	9.7	11.4	1,479
Denmark	8.3	9.5	6.8	8.0	17.6	15.9	3,108
Estonia	5.3	5.3	4.1	4.0	22.5	24.0	752[1]
Finland	7.0	8.2	5.1	6.2	24.9	22.2	2,331
France	10.1	11.0	8.0	8.8	21.7	20.2	3,374
Greece	7.8	9.1	4.7	5.6	55.8	57.2	2,981
Ireland	6.3	7.5	4.6	5.9	27.1	22	2,926
Italy	8.1	9.0	5.8	6.9	27.5	23.4	2,532
Latvia	5.9	7.1	3.2	4.0	46.1	43.4	852[1]
Lithuania	6.5	6.5	4.5	4.9	30.3	25.0	843[1]
Luxembourg	5.8	7.3	5.2	6.6	10.7	9.3	5,563
Hungary	6.9	8.3	4.9	5.9	29.3	29.5	1,337[1]
Malta[1]	7.5	N/A	5.6	7.0	25.8	23.9	1,733[1]
Germany	10.3	10.6	8.2	8.1	20.3	23.1	3,287
Netherlands[1]	8.0	N/A	5.0	5.5	36.9	37.6	3,094[1]
Poland	5.5	6.2	3.9	4.3	30	30.6	867
Portugal	8.8	10.2	6.4	7.2	27.5	27.7	2,041
Rumania	5.1	5.0	3.4	3.3	32.7	33.9	433[1]
Slovakia	5.5	7.4	4.9	5.1	10.6	25.6	1,137
Slovenia[2]	8.3	8.3	6.1	6.6	26	27.7	2,076
Spain	7.2	8.4	5.2	6.0	28.4	28.6	2,261
Sweden	8.2	9.2	7.0	7.5	15.1	15.4	2,918
United Kingdom	7.2	8.4	5.8	7.3	19.1	12.9	2,724

Source: OECD Health Data 2008 for all countries except Belgium (OECD Health Data 2007) and Bulgaria, Cyprus, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta and Romania; source for these countries WHO World Health Report 2007; source for Slovenia for 2006 Health expenditure (SORS), 23 October 2008, and for 2000 SORS calculation according to the OECD methodology, based on data from state and local government budgets, HIIS, PDII and SORS; EU-27 averages calculated by IMAD, except for average for expenditure in USD PPS.
Notes: [1]2004; [2]2005; [3]data collected by the new international methodology SHA (A System of Health Accounts – OECD, 2000); [4]taking account of the GDP revision in September 2008; N/A – not available.

Table 26: **Number of (acute)[1] hospital beds and number of inhabitants per acute hospital bed, by region, 2000–2006**

	Number of (acute)[1] hospital beds			Number of persons per acute hospital bed		
	2000	2005	2006	2000	2005	2006
Slovenia	8,868	7,754	7,701	224	258	261
Osrednjeslovenska	3,031	2,687	2,695	162	185	186
Obalno-kraška	632	536	534	164	196	199
Gorenjska	614	660	608	320	301	328
Goriška	446	459	459	269	260	261
Savinjska	986	848	835	260	304	310
Jugovzhodna Slovenija	454	336	338	304	415	415
Pomurska	480	279	279	260	439	438
Notranjsko-kraška	54	54	54	936	947	952
Podravska	1,542	1,353	1,356	207	236	236
Koroška	344	308	308	215	240	239
Spodnjeposavska	127	127	126	550	551	556
Zasavska	158	107	109	293	425	416

Source: Training Institutions Report (No. 3-21-60), Public Health Institute of the Republic of Slovenia.
Notes: [1]**Acute hospital bed** (based on WHO definitions) is a regularly maintained and cared for hospital bed for the accommodation and 24-hour treatment and care of inpatients, located in a hospital ward or other part of the hospital where inpatients are provided with continuous medical care. Acute hospital beds do not include hospital beds intended for long-term psychiatric treatment, patients with tuberculosis, elderly persons and other patients with long-term medical treatment. Nor do they include: hospital beds for new-borns without diseases or disorders, day beds, provisional and makeshift beds and beds for special purposes, such as dialysis, special beds in obstetrics departments, and beds belonging to specific medical devices.

Table 27: **Physicians at primary level by region, 2003–2006**

	Physicians in primary health care network[1]									
	Number			Number per 1,000 inhabitants			Index (SI=100)			Growth index
	2003	2005	2006	2003	2005	2006	2003	2005	2006	05–06
Slovenia	1,533	1,500	1,499	0.77	0.75	0.75	100	100.0	100.0	99.6
Osrednjeslovenska	464	450	443	0.94	0.90	0.88	122.3	120.5	118.2	97.7
Obalno-kraška	90	90	91	0.86	0.85	0.86	111.6	114.0	114.9	100.3
Gorenjska	146	139	143	0.74	0.70	0.72	96.1	93.3	96.0	102.4
Goriška	105	102	97	0.88	0.85	0.81	114.2	113.8	108.6	95.0
Savinjska	185	181	186	0.72	0.70	0.72	93.6	93.8	96.3	102.3
Jugovzhodna Slovenija	102	106	104	0.73	0.76	0.74	95.7	101.4	99.5	97.6
Pomurska	94	88	85	0.76	0.72	0.70	99.3	95.8	93.2	96.8
Notranjsko-kraška	36	41	37	0.71	0.80	0.72	92.2	107.0	96.5	89.8
Podravska	177	174	180	0.55	0.54	0.56	72.2	72.7	75.5	103.4
Koroška	43	43	43	0.58	0.58	0.58	75.8	77.6	78.1	100.2
Spodnjeposavska	50	50	50	0.71	0.71	0.71	92.7	95.4	95.6	99.9
Zasavska	41	36	40	0.89	0.79	0.88	116.4	105.6	118.3	111.5

Source: Training Institutions Report (No. 3-21-60), Public Health Institute of the Republic of Slovenia; calculations by IMAD.
Note: [1]Health care centres and private providers.

Table 28: **Hospitalisations[1] due to diseases by main causes for admission, by age and gender, Slovenia, 2006**

By diagnosis ICD- 10[2]	Number of hospitalisations per 1,000 persons			
	Total	By age		
		0–19 years	20–64 years	65+
Total				
Total diseases	136.35	105.88	101.53	317.06
Neoplasms	18.69	2.37	15.36	53.06
Circulatory diseases	20.41	1.49	11.79	79.63
Respiratory diseases	12.39	22.34	5.16	29.17
Digestive system diseases	14.67	9.07	12.05	32.45
Musculoskeletal diseases	9.33	3.21	8.28	21.42
Men				
Total diseases	125.30	109.35	85.05	370.18
Neoplasms	18.29	2.36	13.24	72.78
Circulatory diseases	21.82	1.78	14.27	96.87
Respiratory diseases	14.43	25.24	6.29	40.03
Digestive system diseases	15.71	8.98	13.37	39.84
Musculoskeletal diseases	8.37	3.14	8.35	17.40
Women				
Total diseases	147.00	102.20	118.66	283.93
Neoplasms	19.08	2.38	17.56	40.77
Circulatory diseases	19.04	1.17	9.22	68.88
Respiratory diseases	10.42	19.26	3.99	22.39
Digestive system diseases	13.66	9.17	10.67	27.84
Musculoskeletal diseases	10.26	3.27	8.21	23.93

Source: Public Health Institute of the Republic of Slovenia.
Notes: [1]**Hospitalisation** means uninterrupted, more than 24-hour period (or at least overnight) health care of a person in a bed unit of a hospital. It commences with admission, continues with one or more episodes and ends with release from hospital. [2]**International statistical classification of diseases and related health problems, 10th revision –– ICD-10** is a system of categories or groups classifying diseases according to a scheme that complies with the epidemiological objectives and evaluation of health care. ICD is published by the WHO.

Table 29: **Diagnostic related groups (DRG),[1] cases of acute care[2] per 1,000 inhabitants and average weight[3] by age groups, Slovenia, 2005 and 2006**

	Total population				Men				Women			
	Total	0–19	20–64	65+	Total	0–19	20–64	65+	Total	0–19	20–64	65+
2005												
Number of DRG	340,861	55,719	178,816	106,326	145,192	30,240	68,693	46,259	195,669	25,479	110,123	60,067
Cases of acute care per 1,000 inhabitants	170.14	137.34	139.18	339.84	147.93	145.07	105.12	386.98	191.48	129.17	174.44	310.69
Average DRG weight	1.37	1.06	1.19	1.84	1.56	1.09	1.51	1.93	1.23	1.03	0.99	1.77
2006												
Number of DRG	338,149	55,209	171,672	111,268	142,574	29,935	64,102	48,537	195,575	25,274	107,570	62,731
Cases of acute care per 1,000 inhabitants	168.20	137.80	133.07	348.11	144.45	145.25	97.47	393.86	191.10	129.90	170.09	319.41
Average DRG weight	1.37	1.01	1.18	1.84	1.57	1.02	1.54	1.93	1.23	0.99	0.97	1.76

Source: Public Health Institute of the Republic of Slovenia.
Notes: [1]**Diagnostic related cases (DRG)**: Acute hospital care is categorised in diagnostic related groups based on the complexity of treatment, which includes diagnostic and therapeutic procedures carried out. [2]**Acute hospital care** means all activities (observation, diagnostic, treatment) relating to the entire acute health care of a person in hospital. It commences with admission for the first of hospital health services providing acute care and ends with release from hospital, transfer to the health service of the same hospital that does not provide acute hospital care, or death of the patient. Persons in acute care are those admitted to hospital due to a new (suddenly) incurred disease or injury, aggravation of a chronic disease or other illness, planned or unplanned surgery, or diagnostic. [3]**Weight**: each diagnostic related group has a certain weight that serves as a basis for the payment of hospital services.

ACCESS TO SOCIAL SERVICES

Table 30: **People in old people's homes[1] and structure by reason for admission, %, Slovenia, 2000–2007**

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004[2]	2005[2]	2006	2007
Number of people in care	11,905	12,346	13,051	13,498	13,098	13,641	13,699	13,856
Structure of by reason for admission, %:								
Age	59.0	57.2	58.6	59.5	66.0	64.3	66.8	67.5
Unsettled housing conditions	5.2	4.7	4.7	4.5	4.7	4.1	3.7	3.2
Unsettled family conditions	4.6	4.9	4.4	4.4	4.2	3.7	3.2	2.6
Serious illnesses	26.3	27.4	26.7	26.6	20.5	22.2	22.0	22.4
Other	4.9	5.8	5.7	4.9	4.6	5.6	4.3	4.3

Source: SORS; calculations by IMAD.
Notes: [1]Includes public old people's homes only. [2]In 2004, 2005 and 2006, SORS included people in care in eight units of old people's homes providing special forms of care for adults with mental and physical disabilities and seven social welfare institutions. Until 2003, people in care in special units of old people's homes were counted together with people in old people's homes or combined social welfare institutions. Such a change in the classification in 2004 brought about a decrease in the number of people in care in old people's homes compared with 2003.

Table 31: **People in old people's homes by mode of payment for care, 2000–2007, %**

Mode of payment for care	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004[2]	2005[2]	2006	2007
People in care	36.0	36.2	35.2	36.1	36.9	34.3	35.7	35.6
Relatives	6.5	6.5	6.7	7.1	9.9	10.9	11.4	10.8
People in care, relatives	24.3	26.3	28.2	29.5	29.8	31.7	31.0	32.7
People in care, municipality	22.9	22.8	23.0	21.5	18.3	17.1	16.8	15.9
Relatives, municipality	1.0	0.8	1.0	0.4	0.4	0.7	0.5	0.5
People in care, relatives, municipality	2.3	2.1	1.8	2.1	2.4	2.4	2.1	2.4
Municipality	7.1	5.2	4.0	3.3	2.3	2.9	2.5	2.2

Source: SORS; calculations by IMAD.

ACCESS TO CHILDCARE AND EDUCATION

Table 32: **Share of children attending kindergartens, by age, Slovenia, 2000/2001–2007/2008, %**

	2000/2001	2001/2002	2002/2003	2003/2004	2004/2005	2005/2006	2006/2007	2007/2008
1–3 years	29.2	29.8	32.7	36.8	37.4	38.5	40.8	43.7
3–5 years	67.9	70.3	72.0	76.2	75.5	77.6	79.5	82.1

Source: SORS; calculations by IMAD.

Table 33: **Participation rate of young people in secondary schools, total and by type of education programme, Slovenia, 2000/2001–2007/2008, %**

	Number	Growth of the number of enrolled pupils, %		Structure of enrolled pupils, %		
	2007/2008	2000/2001–2007/2008	2006/2007–2007/2008	2000/2001	2006/2007	2007/2008
Total	91,623	-12.6	-4.9	100.0	100.0	100.0
2-year lower vocational programmes	1,320	-61.6	-18.8	3.3	1.7	1.4
3-year middle vocational programmes	14,381	-43.9	-9.8	24.4	16.5	15.7
2- and 3-year lower and middle vocational programmes	15,701	-46.0	-10.6	27.7	18.2	17.1
4- and 5-year technical and other professional programmes and grammar schools	67,725	0.3	-3.2	64.4	72.6	73.9
3+2 model and differential programmes, +2 and vocational technical programmes	6,564	-15.4	-6.9	7.4	7.3	7.2
Vocational and matura preparatory courses	1,633	245.2	-7.8	0.5	1.8	1.8

Source: SORS; calculations by IMAD.

Table 34: **Participation rate of population in tertiary education,[1] Slovenia, 2000/2001–2007/2008, %**

	2000/2001	2001/2002	2002/2003	2003/2004	2004/2005	2005/2006	2006/2007	2007/2008
Full-time students[2] as share of population aged 19–23	39.9	42.6	44.2	46.8	50.8	53.1	56.2	57.3
Tertiary education students as share of population aged 20–29	30.9	33.1	33.8	34.9	37.9	38.9	39.8	39.9

Source: SORS; calculations by IMAD.
Notes: [1]Tertiary education includes post-secondary vocational studies, higher undergraduate studies and postgraduate studies. [2]Full-time students together with full-time graduation candidates and postgraduate students in full-time programmes.

Table 35: **Gross enrolment ratios of population aged 20–29 in tertiary education,[1] participation rate of young people aged 20–24 in tertiary education and share of total public expenditure on education allocated for financial assistance to students and transfers,[2] EU-27, 2000–2005 (2006), %**

	Gross enrolment ratios of population aged 20–29 in tertiary education,[1] %			Enrolment of young people aged 20–24 in tertiary education, %			Share of total public expenditure on education, allocated for financial assistance transfers,[2] %
	2000	2005	2006	2000	2005	2006	2005
EU-27	23.7	28.1	28.4	24.0	27.8	28.2	–
Austria	25.4	23.5	24.1	20.1	21.5	22.3	16.8
Belgium	26.9	29.9	30.1	29.5	31.0	31.2	15.2
Bulgaria	22	21.3	22	24.8	26.7	27.1	10.8
Cyprus	10.5	16.4	16.1	10.5	17.4	16.9	57.6
Czech Republic	14.8	21.3	21.9	17.5	27.9	28.6	5.9
Denmark	26.4	36.8	36.8	23.7	28.3	28.2	30.8
Estonia	28.3	34.3	34.2	27.2	30.6	30.7	8.2
Finland	42.7	46	46.5	38.0	40.0	40.1	16.6
France	24.8	27.4	27.3	29.2	28.8	29.0	7.9
Greece	25.1	40.6	41.9	22.4	38.0	39.2	1.4
Ireland	26.5	26.6	25.4	20.9	23.1	23.0	14.8
Italy	22.2	28.6	29.4	24.8	29.7	30.2	16.8
Latvia	28	38.9	38.5	23.3	32.4	32.5	9.4
Lithuania	25.3	40.6	40.6	26.2	38.2	38.4	17
Luxembourg	4.3	–	4.5	–	–	5.7	–
Hungary	19.2	28.8	29.8	20.5	29.7	30.6	15.7
Malta	11.3	15.6	15	13.1	15.4	18.3	–
Germany	21.3	23.5	23.5	18.4	22.4	22.7	19.1
Netherlands	23.1	28.8	29.6	27.1	29.9	30.7	27.7
Poland	26.7	33.1	33.5	29.0	38.4	39.5	1.1
Portugal	23.5	24.8	24.6	24.9	26.3	25.8	8.9
Romania	12.9	21.7	24.6	14.5	23.4	25.8	5.6
Slovakia	15.1	19.7	21.6	16.8	23.1	25.3	13.7
Slovenia	28.3	38.2	39.5	32.2	43.3	45.1	23.7
Spain	27.7	27.3	27.3	30.7	29.4	29.2	8.2
Sweden	31.2	39.9	39.1	26.9	30.7	30.1	27.1
United Kingdom	26.8	29.7	29.4	19.3	19.9	19.7	25.8

Source: Eurostat.
Notes: [1]Calculation of the indicator: the number of full-time and part-time students in all levels of tertiary education/the number of the population aged 20–29 years*100. [2]Total public expenditure on tertiary education includes funds paid directly to educational institutions and public transfers, payments to households and other private entities. Public transfers for households and other private entities comprise: financial assistance to students (scholarships, child benefits in the part where an additional condition for payment is participation in education, student loans) and transfers and payments to other private entities (subsidies to transport operators for cheaper tickets, subsidies for textbooks, professional literature, etc.).

Table 36: **Structure of population aged 25 or over by educational attainment, Slovenia, 2000–2007, %**

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
Total (in thousand)	1,378	1,392	1,403	1,415	1,431	1,447	1,462	1,478
Structure of population aged 25 or over by educational attainment, %:								
Without education, incomplete primary education (1–3 years)	1.2	0.8	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.1
Incomplete primary education (4–7 years)	5.5	5.3	5.2	5.6	5.3	4.9	4.2	3.8
Primary education	24.4	24.4	23.3	22.3	21.0	20.7	20.0	19.9
Lower or middle vocational education	26.4	26.9	27.1	27.3	27.0	26.8	26.8	27.0
Secondary technical education	22.9	23.7	24.4	24.0	24.9	24.8	24.9	25.0
Secondary general education	5.2	4.3	4.1	4.2	4.1	3.9	4.0	3.7
Post-secondary education (not higher education)	6.7	6.2	6.1	6.0	5.9	6.1	6.4	6.1
Higher education, professionally oriented	1.9	1.9	1.9	1.9	2.4	2.7	3.2	3.4
Higher education, academic type	5.1	5.7	6.4	6.9	7.5	8.0	8.2	8.7
Post-graduate education (specialisation, master's and doctor's degree)	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.3	1.4	1.5

Source: SORS; calculations by IMAD.

Table 37: **Education structure of population aged 25–64, 2000–2008 (2nd quarter), EU-27, %**

	Education structure of population aged 25–64, %					
	Lower education[1]	Secondary education[2]	Tertiary education[3]	Lower education	Secondary education	Tertiary education
	2000	2000	2000	2008	2008	2008
EU-27	34.6	43.5	18.9	28.6	47.0	24.1
Austria	23.8	61.7	14.5	19.0	62.9	18.1
Belgium	41.7	31.2	27.1	30.3	37.7	31.9
Bulgaria	32.9	48.7	18.4	22.6	54.6	22.8
Cyprus	38.5	36.4	25.1	26.5	38.9	34.6
Czech Republic	13.9	74.5	11.5	9.0	76.7	14.3
Denmark	19.8	52.8	25.2	21.8	42.0	34.3
Estonia	15.3	55.8	28.9	12.0	54.5	33.5
Finland	26.6	40.2	32.3	19.3	45.1	35.6
France	–	–	–	30.3	42.5	27.2
Greece	48.6	34.5	16.9	39.1	38.4	22.5
Ireland	41.8	34.9	21.2	29.8	34.1	32.7
Italy	53.3	34.6	9.4	47.1	38.6	14.3
Latvia	16.9	65.1	18.0	14.2	61.6	24.2
Lithuania	15.8	42.4	41.8	9.5	60.0	30.5
Luxembourg	38.3	41.7	17.9	28.7	42.9	28.4
Hungary	30.7	55.3	14.0	20.4	60.5	19.1
Malta	81.8	12.8	5.4	71.8	14.9	13.3
Germany	17.7	54.2	22.5	15.1	59.8	25.1
Netherlands	33.8	41.9	24.0	26.7	40.2	30.9
Poland	20.3	68.3	11.4	12.8	67.6	19.6
Portugal	80.4	10.6	9.0	71.9	14.0	14.2
Romania	30.7	60.1	9.2	24.8	62.3	12.9
Slovakia	16.4	73.3	10.2	10.3	75.1	14.6
Slovenia	25.2	59.1	15.7	18.4	59.7	21.9
Spain	61.7	15.8	22.5	49.1	21.6	29.3
Sweden	22.7	47.3	29.5	14.9	52.7	31.9
United Kingdom	31.3	31.1	24.3	26.6	41.1	31.6

Source: Eurostat; calculations by IMAD.
Notes: [1]Isced 1,2, [2]Isced 3,4, [3]Isced 5,6 according to the international classification of education Isced 97.

Table 38: **Participation rate of population aged 25–64 in lifelong learning,[1] Slovenia, 2001–2007, %**

	2001	2002	2003[2]	2004	2005	2006	2007
Total	7.3	8.4	13.3	16.2	15.3	15.0	14.8
By gender:							
Men	6.7	7.9	12.0	14.8	13.6	13.8	13.5
Women	7.9	8.9	14.7	17.6	17.2	16.3	16.1
By age:							
25–39	15.1	14.3	16.7	25.2	27.8	24.4	23.9
40–49	5.9	4.3	6	12.1	14.8	12.4	12.7
50–64	2.5	1.9	2.2	5.4	8.6	6.9	6.6
25–39	15.1	14.3	16.7	25.2	27.8	24.4	23.9

Sources: SORS, Eurostat, Labour Force Survey.
Notes: [1]The value of this indicator represents the percentage of the population aged 25–64 years who were involved in any kind of education or training in the four weeks before the survey. [2]In 2003, the methodology for calculating the indicator was changed.

Tabela 39: **Total public expenditure on formal education[1] as share of GDP[2] by level of education,[3] Slovenia, 2000–2006, %**

	Public expenditure on formal education[1] as share of GDP, %						
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Total	5.78	5.89	5.78	5.82	5.76	5.74	5.72
Pre-school education	0.46	0.57	0.57	0.54	0.48	0.47	0.51
Primary education	2.51	2.42	2.51	2.57	2.64	2.62	2.56
Secondary education	1.54	1.62	1.42	1.41	1.34	1.38	1.42
Tertiary education	1.27	1.28	1.27	1.30	1.31	1.25	1.24

Source: SORS.
Note: [1]Total public expenditure on formal education (by UOE methodology – Unesco, OECD, Eurostat) comprises the total budget expenditure on the formal education of youth and adults at the national and municipal levels; [2]shares of GDP are calculated according to the released data on GDP. [3]The criterion for distribution by level of education is expenditure at the level of the educational institution.

Table 40: **Public expenditure on formal education (all levels) as share of GDP, total and by level of education, EU-27, 2000–2005, %**

	Public expenditure on formal education as share of GDP, %						
	Total			By level of education			
				Pre-school[1] education	Lower[2] education	Secondary[3] education	Tertiary[4] education
	2000	2004	2005	2005	2005	2005	2005
EU-27	–	5.07	5.05	0.48	1.16	2.25	1.16
Austria	5.66	5.44	5.44	0.4	1.03	2.52	1.48
Belgium	–	5.99	5.95	0.69	1.4	2.56	1.29
Bulgaria	4.19	4.51	4.51	0.76	0.92	2.08	0.76
Cyprus	5.44	6.7	6.92	0.34	1.89	3.11	1.58
Czech Republic	4.04	4.37	–	–	–	–	–
Denmark	8.28	8.43	8.28	0.97	1.93	3.01	2.38
Estonia	5.57	4.98	–	–	–	–	–
Finland	6.08	6.42	6.31	0.35	1.31	2.64	2.01
France	5.83	5.81	5.67	0.64	1.15	2.68	1.2
Greece	3.71	3.84	3.98	–	1.13	1.41	1.44
Ireland	4.29	4.72	4.77	–	1.6	2.05	1.11
Italy	4.47	4.58	4.43	0.46	1.09	2.12	0.76
Latvia	5.64	5.07	5.06	0.63	0.79	2.76	0.88
Lithuania	5.63	5.2	4.95	0.6	0.74	2.57	1.04
Luxembourg	–	3.87	3.81	–	2.06	1.75	–
Hungary	4.5	5.43	5.45	0.97	1.09	2.35	1.03
Malta	4.52	4.85	2.93	0.6	0.6	1.27	0.46
Germany	4.45	4.59	4.53	0.47	0.65	2.27	1.14
Netherlands	4.86	5.16	5.19	0.36	1.37	2.09	1.37
Poland	4.87	5.41	5.47	0.54	1.69	2.04	1.19
Portugal	5.42	5.29	5.4	0.57	1.65	2.2	0.98
Romania	2.88	3.29	3.48	0.65	1.26	0.77	0.81
Slovakia	4.15	4.19	3.85	0.5	0.66	1.88	0.81
Slovenia	5.86	5.85	5.83	0.48	2.67	1.41	1.27
Spain	4.28	4.25	4.23	0.52	1.09	1.67	0.95
Sweden	7.31	7.18	6.97	0.54	1.83	2.68	1.92
United Kingdom	4.64	5.25	5.45	0.32	1.44	2.47	1.21

Source: Eurostat.
Notes: [1]Pre-school education includes (according to the Slovenian education system): education in kindergartens for children of the second age period; [2]lower education includes (according to the Slovenian education system) education at the lower level (grades 1–4) of 8-year primary schools or the first and second cycles of 9-year primary schools. For Slovenia, expenditure on primary education is included within the primary education; [3]secondary education includes (according to the Slovenian education system): education at the higher level (grades 5–8) of 8-year primary schools or the 3rd cycle of 9-year primary schools and total secondary school education (lower, middle vocational, professional, general). For Slovenia, expenditure on secondary school education is included within secondary education. [4]Tertiary education includes (according to the Slovenian education system): post-secondary vocational and higher undergraduate and postgraduate education.

DWELLINGS

Table 41: **Share of households with own housing by available assets, Slovenia, 2000–2006, %**

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Total households	92.7	93.2	93.3	93.4	93.2	93.1	93.2
Households with income of less than 60% compared to median actual current income	89.5	90.7	89.3	88.6	88.4	88.9	89.7
Households with income of 60–100% of median actual current income	91.0	91.1	91.3	92.0	91.7	91.8	91.3
Households with income of 100–140% of median actual current income	94.0	94.7	95.3	95.2	94.9	93.5	94.1
Households with income higher than 140% of median actual current income	96.0	96.3	97.0	97.5	97.4	97.7	97.4

Source: SORS, Household Budget Survey.

Table 42: **Average number of rooms by person by tenure status, Slovenia, 2000–2006**

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Total	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.6
Owners	1.6	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.7
Tenants	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1

Source: SORS, Household Budget Survey.

INTERNET

Table 43: **Internet users[1] by age, Slovenia, 2004–2008, %**

	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
16–74 years	37	47	51	53	56
16–34 years	62	77	81	84	88
35–54 years	33	45	50	53	56
55–74 years	((8))	(11)	14	14	17

Source: SORS.
Note: Data refer to the first quarter of the year. ( ) less accurate estimate, (( )) inaccurate estimate. [1]**Internet users** are individuals who have used the Internet in the last three months. This is the share of the population in the selected age group using the Internet.

Table 44: **Internet users[1] by type of settlement, Slovenia, 2004–2007, %**

	2004	2005	2006	2007
Densely populated settlements (more than 500 inhabitants/km2)	52	56	68	60
Intermediate settlements (100–499 inhabitants/km2)	39	46	49	58
Sparsely populated settlements (less than 100 inhabitants/km2)	30	44	45	47

Source: SORS.
Notes: [1]**Internet users** are individuals who have used the Internet in the last three months

Table 45: **Share of households with Internet access and Internet users, Slovenia and EU-27, 2004–2007, %**

	Share of households with Internet access, %				Regular Internet users,[1] %			
	2004	2005	2006	2007	2004	2005	2006	2007
EU-27	40	48	49	54	36	43	45	51
Belgium	–	50	54	60	–	53	58	63
Bulgaria	10	–	17	19	13	–	22	28
Czech Republic	19	19	29	35	25	26	36	42
Denmark	69	75	79	78	70	73	78	76
Germany	60	62	67	71	50	54	59	64
Estonia	31	39	46	53	45	54	56	59
Ireland	40	47	50	57	27	31	44	51
Greece	17	22	23	25	17	18	23	28
Spain	34	36	39	45	31	35	39	44
France	34	–	41	49	–	–	39	57
Italy	34	39	40	43	26	28	31	34
Cyprus	53	32	37	39	28	26	29	35
Latvia	15	31	42	51	27	36	46	52
Lithuania	12	16	35	44	26	30	38	45
Luxembourg	59	65	70	75	59	63	65	72
Hungary	14	22	32	38	21	34	42	49
Malta	–	41	53	54	–	34	36	43
Netherlands	–	78	80	83	–	74	76	81
Austria	45	47	52	60	46	49	55	61
Poland	26	30	36	41	22	29	34	39
Portugal	26	31	35	40	25	28	31	35
Romania	6	–	14	22	10	–	18	22
Slovenia	47	48	54	58	33	40	47	49
Slovakia	23	23	27	46	40	43	43	51
Finland	51	54	65	69	63	62	71	75
Sweden	–	73	77	79	75	76	80	75
United Kingdom	56	60	63	67	49	54	57	65

Source: Eurostat.
Note: Data refer to the first quarter of the year. [1]Regular internet users are individuals who used the Internet at least once a week.
Data refer to the first quarter of the year.

CULTURE

Table 46: **Household expenditure on culture and recreation[1] as share of total household expenditure, EU-27, 2000–2006, %**

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
EU-27	9.7	9.6	9.6	9.5	9.6	9.5	9.4
Austria	11.9	11.9	11.8	11.6	11.5	11.3	11.3
Belgium	10.1	9.8	9.3	9.3	9.3	9.3	9.2
Bulgaria	4.8	3.9	4.5	4.6	5.2	5.4	–
Cyprus	7.6	7.7	7.8	7.9	8.1	8	8.1
Czech Republic	11.1	11.5	11.5	11.7	11.6	11.7	11.3
Denmark	11	10.9	10.8	11.3	10.6	–	–
Estonia	8.2	8.3	8.5	8.4	8.6	8.8	8.6
Finland	11.3	11.2	11	11	11.2	11.4	11.8
France	9.1	9.1	9.3	9.3	9.4	9.3	9.2
Greece	6.7	7.6	7.5	7.3	7.5	7.6	8.8
Ireland	7.4	7.6	7.2	7.1	7.5	7.4	7.2
Italy	7.3	7.2	7.2	7	7.2	6.8	6.8
Latvia	6.7	7.5	7.4	7.8	8.3	7.6	–
Lithuania	5.8	6.7	6.5	6.6	6.7	6.4	6.2
Luxembourg	7.8	8.1	8.2	8	7.9	7.6	7.5
Hungary	7.4	7.5	7.5	7.6	7.7	7.9	7.9
Malta	10.4	11	10.6	10.4	10.7	10.6	11.1
Germany	10.1	9.9	9.7	9.5	9.5	9.4	9.3
Netherlands	11.1	11	10.9	10.5	10.3	10.1	10.4
Poland	8.9	7.7	7.3	7.7	7.8	7.6	7.3
Portugal	6.4	6.3	6.5	6.4	6.5	6.9	7
Romania	5	4.4	4.3	4.6	5	4	4.7
Slovakia	8.8	9.4	8.9	8.7	8.7	8.9	8.9
Slovenia	10.1	10.2	10.4	10.5	10.8	10.7	10.5
Spain	9.1	9.1	9.1	9.2	9.1	9.1	8.9
Sweden	11.6	11.6	11.5	11.6	11.5	11.2	11.5
United Kingdom	11.8	11.8	12.1	12.3	12.6	12.6	12.5

Source: EUROSTAT.

MEDIA

Table 47: **Structure of respondents by time devoted to reading newspapers and watching television, daily, 2006, selected European countries, %**

	Structure of respondents by time devoted to reading newspapers, daily, %				Structure of respondents by time devoted to watching television, daily, %			
	No time	Less than ½ hour	½ to 3 hours	3 or more hours	No time	Less than ½ hour	½ to 3 hours	3 or more hours
Austria	9.5	38.3	50.9	1.3	3.9	9.2	74.9	12.0
Belgium	40.7	25.8	33.0	0.6	2.6	5.2	71.5	20.7
Bulgaria	41.0	20.3	38.3	0.4	3.2	1.5	60.1	35.3
Switzerland	10.2	42.3	47.2	0.3	8.1	12.9	71.2	7.8
Cyprus	43.3	16.8	39.4	0.4	0.9	5.7	63.3	30.1
Germany	18.0	35.2	46.5	0.3	3.5	4.9	75.5	16.1
Denmark	20.6	35.8	43.3	0.3	1.2	4.7	78.3	15.8
Estonia	17.7	28.5	52.3	1.5	3.4	4.7	69.6	22.2
Spain	46.9	27.6	25.3	0.2	2.0	5.7	76.1	16.2
Finland	6.6	35.6	57.3	0.5	3.8	4.7	76.9	14.5
France	39.0	34.2	26.6	0.2	3.7	6.0	71.1	19.2
United Kingdom	29.3	25.9	42.0	2.7	2.6	3.7	58.9	34.7
Hungary	20.1	44.0	35.8	0.1	2.0	6.4	73.7	18.0
Ireland	15.3	30.6	50.9	3.2	2.0	5.0	72.9	20.2
Netherlands	23.3	31.1	44.9	0.7	2.7	4.9	73.8	18.7
Norway	5.5	31.4	62.2	0.9	1.9	6.9	81.2	10.0
Poland	31.7	38.4	29.1	0.8	4.2	6.5	71.3	18.0
Portugal	44.2	28.8	25.7	1.3	1.3	6.8	70.6	21.4
Russia	40.0	27.8	31.3	1.0	3.9	5.2	68.8	22.2
Sweden	7.6	36.2	56.1	0.2	2.4	7.9	79.8	9.8
Slovenia	19.7	43.0	36.8	0.4	4.8	11.0	74.3	9.8
Slovakia	22.3	35.8	41.1	0.8	2.6	5.1	74.0	18.4
Ukraine	28.9	28.5	41.7	0.9	6.4	5.3	68.0	20.3

Source: European Social Survey.

SOCIAL COHESION AND POVERTY

Table 48: **At-risk-of-poverty rates (excluding income in kind) after and before social transfers, EU-25, 2000–2007, %**

	At-risk-of-poverty rate after social transfers								At-risk-of-poverty rate before social transfers (pensions included in income)							
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
EU-25	16[1]	16[1]	N/A	15[1]	16[1]	16[1]	16[1]	N/A	23[1]	24[1]	N/A	25[1]	26[1]	26[1]	26[1]	N/A
Austria	12	12	N/A	13[3]	13	12	13	12	22	22	N/A	25[3]	25[2]	24	25	25
Belgium	13	13	N/A	15[3]	15[2]	15	15	15	22	23	N/A	24[3]	25	24	25	28
Bulgaria	14	16	14	14	15	14	14	N/A	18	19	17	N/A	18	17	17	N/A
Cyprus	N/A	N/A	N/A	15	N/A	16[3]	16	16	N/A	N/A	N/A	20	N/A	22[3]	22	21
Czech Republic	N/A	8	N/A	N/A	N/A	10[3]	10	10	N/A	18	N/A	N/A	N/A	21[3]	22	20
Denmark	N/A	10	N/A	12[3]	11	12	12	12	N/A	29	N/A	32[3]	30	30	28	27
Estonia	18	18	18	18	20[3]	18	18	19	26	25	25	25	26[3]	24	25	25
Finland	11	11[3]	11	11	11[3]	12	13	13	19	29[3]	28	28	29[3]	28	29	29
France	16	13[3]	12	12	13[3]	13	13	13	24	26[3]	26	24	26[3]	26	25	26
Greece	20	20	N/A	21[3]	20	20	21	20	22	23	N/A	24[3]	23	23	23	24
Ireland	20	21	N/A	20[3]	21	20	18	18	31	30	N/A	31[3]	33	32	33	33
Italy	18	19	N/A	N/A	19[3]	19	20	20	21	22	N/A	N/A	24[3]	23	24	24
Latvia	16	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	19[3]	23	21	22	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	26[3]	28	27
Lithuania	17	17	N/A	N/A	N/A	21[3]	20	19	23	24	N/A	N/A	N/A	26[3]	27	26
Luxembourg	12	12	N/A	11[3]	12	13	14	14	23	23	N/A	23[3]	22	23	24	23
Hungary	11	11	10	12	N/A	13[3]	16	12	17	17	15	17	N/A	29[3]	30	29
Malta	15	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	15[3]	14	14	19	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	21[3]	22	22
Germany	10	11	N/A	N/A	N/A	12[3]	13	15[2]	20	21	N/A	N/A	N/A	23[3]	26	25[2]
Netherlands	11	11[2]	11[2]	12[2]	N/A	11[3]	10	10	22[2]	22[2]	22[2]	23[2]	N/A	22[3]	21	21
Poland	16	16	N/A	N/A	N/A	21[3]	19	17	30	31	N/A	N/A	N/A	30[3]	29	27
Portugal	21	20	20[2]	19[2]	20[3]	19	18[2]	18	27	24	26[2]	26[2]	27[3]	26	25[2]	24
Romania	17	17	18	17	18	18	19	19[2]	21	22	23	22	23	24	24	24[2]
Slovakia	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	13[3]	12	11	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	22[3]	20	18
Slovenia	11	11	10	10	N/A	12[3]	12	12	18	17	16	16	N/A	26[3]	24[4]	23
Spain	18	19	19[3]	19	20[3]	20	20	20	22	23	22[3]	22	25[3]	24	24	24
Sweden	N/A	9	11	N/A	11[3]	9	12	11	N/A	17	29[3]	N/A	30[3]	29	29	28
United Kingdom	19[3]	18	18	18	N/A	19[3]	19	19	29[3]	28	28	29	N/A	31[3]	30	30

Sources of data: At-risk-of-poverty rate after social transfers – total and at-risk-of-poverty rate before social transfers – total (Eurostat EU-SILC), December 2008.
Notes: [1]Eurostat estimate; [2]preliminary data; [3]break in series; [4]data for 2005, N/A – not available; [5]data for 2000, 2001, 2002 and 2003 also include income in kind. The income data from the EU-SILC survey refer to the year before the conducting of the survey. For most countries, the figures for 2004 and 2005 are thus provided by a note – "break in series", or, "not available" and moved one year forward. The same holds true for Slovenia. From 30 December 2008 onwards, the SORS method of presenting data is harmonised with Eurostat recommendations.

Table 49: **Social protection expenditure as share of GDP, EU-25, 2000–2006, %**

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
EU-25	26.5	26.7	27.0	27.3	27.2	27.3(p)	27.0(p)
Austria	28.4	28.8	29.2	29.7	29.3	28.8	28.5
Belgium	26.5	27.3	28.0	29.1	29.3	29.7	30.1
Bulgaria	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	16.1	15.0
Cyprus	14.8	14.9	16.3	18.4	18.1	18.4	18.4
Czech Republic	19.5	19.4	20.2	20.2	19.3	19.1	18.7
Denmark	28.9	29.2	29.7	30.9	30.7	30.2	29.1
Estonia	14.0	13.1	12.7	12.6	13.0	12.7	12.4
Finland	25.1	24.9	25.6	26.5	26.6	26.7	26.2
France	29.5	29.6	30.4	30.9	31.3	31.4	31.1(p)
Greece	23.5	24.3	24.0	23.6	23.5	24.	24.2
Ireland	13.9	14.9	17.5	17.9	18.2	18.2	18.2
Italy	24.7	24.9	25.3	25.8	26.0	26.3(p)	26.6(p)
Latvia	15.3	14.3	13.9	13.8	12.9	12.4	12.2(p)
Lithuania	15.8	14.7	14.0	13.5	13.3	13.1	13.2(p)
Luxembourg	19.6	20.9	21.6	22.1	22.2	21.7	20.4
Hungary	19.3	19.3	20.4	21.1	20.8	21.9	22.3
Malta	16.9	17.8	17.8	18.2	18.6	18.4	18.1
Germany	29.3	29.4	30.1	30.4	29.8	29.7	28.7(p)
Netherlands	26.4	26.5	27.6	28.3	28.3	27.9	29.3(p)
Poland	19.7	21.0	21.1	21.0	20.1	19.7	19.2
Portugal	21.7	22.7	23.7	24.1	24.7(p)	20.2	25.4
Romania	13.2(p)	13.2(p)	13.4(p)	12.6(p)	15.1(p)	14.2	14.0(p)
Slovakia	19.4	19.0	19.1	18.2	17.2	16.7	15.9(p)
Slovenia	24.2	24.5	24.4	23.7	23.4	23.0	22.8(p)
Spain	20.3	20.0	20.4	20.6	20.7	21.1	20.9(p)
Sweden	30.1	30.8	31.6	32.5	32.0	31.5	30.7(p)
United Kingdom	26.4	26.8	25.7	25.7	25.9	26.3	26.4(p)

Source: Eurostat, ESSPROS.
Notes: p) – preliminary data; N/A – not available

Table 50: **Social protection expenditure[1] by function as share of GDP,[2] Slovenia, 2000–2006, %**

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Social protection expenditure	25.2	24.5	24.4	23.7	23.4	23.0	22.8
Social benefits expenditure[3] by function:	24.6	23.9	23.8	23.2	22.8	22.5	22.2
Sickness/health care	7.5	7.5	7.5	7.5	7.5	7.3	7.1
Disability	2.2	2.1	2.1	2.0	1.9	1.9	1.9
Old age	10.6	10.4	10.4	10.6	10.0	9.5	8.4
Survivors	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	1.7
Family/children	2.3	2.1	2.1	2.0	2.0	1.9	1.9
Unemployment	1.0	0.9	0.9	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7
Housing	N/A	N/A				0.0	0.0
Social exclusion not classified elsewhere	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.5

Source: SORS, calculations by IMAD.
Notes: [1]**Social protection** by ESSPROS methodology encompasses all intervention from public and private bodies intended to relieve households and individuals of the burden of a defined set of risks or needs, provided that there is neither a simultaneous reciprocal nor an individual arrangement involved. The risk or needs, or the functions, are: Sickness/health care, Disability, Old age, Survivors, Family/children, Unemployment, Housing, and Social exclusion not elsewhere classified. Data on social protection expenditure is slightly different from data on social benefits in total as the first also covers administrative and manipulative costs of distribution. [2]Gross domestic product, main aggregates of national accounts and employment, Slovenia 2000–20007, Corrected version, SORS, 24 September 2008. [3]**Social benefits** is the main category of expenditure on social protection schemes. These include transfers in cash or in kind by social protection schemes to households and individuals to relieve them of the burden of a defined set of risks or needs.

Table 51: **Social protection per capita in PPS,[1] Slovenia, 2000–2006**

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Social protection per capita in PPS	3,683.8	3,860.9	4,109.9	4,103.8	4,366.5	4,556.9	4,792.9

Source: Eurostat.
Note: [1]Purchasing Power Standard (PPS).

Table 52: **Gini coefficient[1] (%), income quintile share ratio (80/20),[2] Slovenia, 2000–2007**

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004(ps)	2005	2006	2007
Gini coefficient, %	22.3	22.0	21.9	22.1	22.4	23.0	23.0	22.6
Income quintile share ratio (80/20)	3.2	3.1	3.1	3.1	3.2	3.3	3.3	3.2

Source: SORS: Household Budget Survey; data from 2005 onwards are taken from the Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EUSILC) and are not totally comparable with the previous period due to methodological changes.
Notes: The Gini coefficient and the income quintile share ratio (80/20) are calculated for income including income in kind. [1]**The Gini coefficient** is the measure of income concentration. The higher it is, the greater the income inequality. [2]**The income quintile share ratio** (80/20) is the ratio between the average equivalent household income of the top quintile and the average equivalent household income of the lowest quintile. (bs) Break in series.

Table 53: **At risk of poverty rate[1] by gender and age, Slovenia, 2000–2007, %**

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004(ps)	2005	2006	2007
Total	11.3	10.6	9.9	10.0	10.4	11.4	11.1	11.0
Men	10.5	9.6	8.5	8.6	8.9	9.6	9.5	9.4
Women	12.0	11.6	11.2	11.4	11.8	13.2	12.6	12.4
Children (aged 0–15)	9.3	8.7	7.4	8.8	7.9	11.0	11.1	11.0
Youth (aged 16–24)	10.3	10.3	10.0	10.6	10.0	10.0	8.9	8.7
Men	10.7	10.4	10.2	9.8	9.6	9.0	8.3	8.0
Women	9.9	10.3	9.9	11.6	10.4	11.0	9.6	9.4
Employed (aged 16–64)	9.8	9.2	8.5	8.5	8.7	9.9	9.3	9.3
Men	10.1	9.2	8.7	8.3	8.9	9.5	9.2	9.2
Women	9.5	9.2	8.4	8.7	8.5	10.3	9.3	9.4
65+	21.2	19.5	19.2	18.5	20.5	19.2	19.0	18.5
Men	14.0	12.9	10.8	11.1	10.3	9.2	9.7	9.2
Women	25.4	23.5	24.1	22.9	26.6	25.5	24.7	24.4

Source: SORS, Household Budget Survey; data from 2005 onwards are taken from the Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC) and are not totally comparable with the previous period due to methodological changes.
Notes: [1]**The at-risk-of-poverty rate** is the percentage of persons living in households where the equivalised net household income is below the at-risk-of-poverty threshold. The at-risk-of-poverty rate is calculated for income including income in kind. **Income** including **income in kind** means that income in cash is supplemented by income in kind i.e. one's own production and other non-monetary forms of income. The calculations are based on yearly income. (bs)Break in series.

Table 54: **At-risk-of-poverty threshold[1] (in SIT, EUR), Slovenia, 2000–2007**

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004(ps)	2005	2006	2007
At-risk-of-poverty threshold for one person:								
SIT/month	71,414	79,180	86,291	92,407	98,839	109,909	115,095	N/A
EUR/month	346	363	382	395	413	460	480	509
At-risk of poverty rate for a four-member household:[2]								
SIT/month	149,969	166,278	181,212	194,056	207,561	230,809	241,700	N/A
EUR/month	726	763	802	830	868	965	1,009	1,069

Source: SORS; Household Budget Survey; data from 2005 onwards are taken from the Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC) and are not totally comparable with the previous period due to methodological changes.
Notes: [1]The-at-risk-of-poverty threshold is defined for one person. It is calculated for income including **income in kind.** The **at-risk-of-poverty threshold** is defined as 60% of the median **equivalised net income** of all households using the OECD modified equivalence scale. The equivalised net income of a household is obtained by dividing the household income by the number of its members. The number of equivalent members is calculated using the OECD modified equivalence scale: the fist adult in the household has a weight of 1, every other adult person has a weight of 0.5, and every child under 14 a weight of 0.3. The sum of all weights of the members of a household is the number of equivalent members. The OECD modified equivalence scale is used by SORS and Eurostat. [2]This is the at-risk-of-poverty threshold for a household consisting of two adults and two children. (bs)Break in series, N/A – not available.

Table 55: **At-risk-of-poverty rate with breakdown by most common activity status,[1] total and by gender, Slovenia, 2000–2007, %**

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004(ps)	2005	2006	2007
Persons in employment	5.2	4.8	3.7	3.6	3.9	4.4	4.7	3.6
Men	5.6	5.4	4.1	3.8	4.1	4.5	5.0	4.1
Women	4.8	4.1	3.3	3.3	3.8	4.2	4.3	3.0
Unemployed	42.1	40.8	38.4	38.4	37.3	25.4	33.1	35.9
Men	41.6	36.9	39.3	38.8	41.2	23	34.9	38.4
Women	42.8	45.8	37.5	38.1	34.0	27.8	31.5	33.9
Pensioners	15.0	14.5	15.3	14.4	16.0	16.0	16.0	15.8
Men	12.3	11.7	12.1	11.3	11.0	9.3	9.8	9.8
Women	16.9	16.4	17.4	16.4	19.1	20.2	19.9	19.9

Source: SORS: Household Budget Survey for 2000–2004; data from 2005 onwards are taken from the Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC) and are not totally comparable with the previous period due to methodological changes.
Notes: The at-risk-of-poverty rate is calculated for income including **income in kind**. [1]The at-risk-of-poverty rate broken down by most common activity status is based on the current activity status and calculated for persons aged 16 years and under. (bs)Break in series.

Table 56: **At-risk-of-poverty rate with a breakdown by household type, Slovenia, 2000–2007, %**

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004(ps)	2005	2006	2007
Households without dependent children	14.8	13.6	13.8	13.1	14.4	14.8	14.9	14.0
Households with dependent children[1]	9.2	8.7	7.5	8.1	7.6	9.3	8.7	8.9
Single-parent household, one or more dependent children	21.1	19.8	17.2	24.5	21.4	24.8	22.0	28.9
Single household, persons aged 65 and over	42.4	39.8	40.2	39.9	46.0	45.9	46.2	44.6

Source: SORS, Household Budget Survey; data from 2005 onwards are taken from the Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC) and are not totally comparable with the previous period due to methodological changes.
Notes: The at-risk-of-poverty rate is calculated for income including income in kind. Survey data for three consecutive years are combined and calculated for the medium year used as the reference year. [1]Households without dependent children include single households with a high at-risk-of-poverty rate. Therefore, the at-risk-of-poverty rate in households without dependent children is higher than in households with dependent children. (bs)Break in series.

Table 57: **Relative importance of social and family benefits by income bracket, Slovenia, 1998, 2002 and 2006, %**

	Recipients (% of all persons)			Share of individual social and family benefits					
				In total of social and family benefits, %			In current monetary disposable income, %		
	1998	2002	2006	1998	2002	2006	1998	2002	2006
Financial social assistance	1.0	1.0	2.2	3.5	4.7	10.0	0.2	0.3	0.5
Other social benefits	1.1	1.5	1.4	4.7	8.3	7.1	0.3	0.5	0.4
Disability and recognition allowances with bonuses	0.7	0.9	1.0	2.7	2.6	2.6	0.2	0.2	0.1
Unemployment benefit	3.0	2.0	1.9	20.3	16.4	14.2	1.4	0.9	0.7
Scholarships	3.4	3.3	2.8	13.0	14.8	13.6	0.9	0.8	0.7
Child allowance	12.2	12.3	11.7	22.7	35.9	33.7	1.6	2.1	1.8
Maternity leave benefit	1.1	1.1	1.3	12.4	16.2	17.3	0.9	0.9	0.9
Paternal allowance	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.6	0.0	0.0	0.0
Layette assistance	0.1	0.8	1.1	0.2	0.6	0.8	0.0	0.0	0.0

Source: SORS, HBS 1998, 2002 and 2006; calculations by Stropnik.

Table 58: **Persons[1] entitled to financial social assistance[2] by region, (December) 2001–2007, %**

	Share of population entitled to financial social assistance in region, %							Eligible persons per 1,000 inhabitants	
								Index (SI=100)	Growth index
	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2007	2001–2007
Slovenia	2.1	3.5	4.4	4.7	4.7	4.2	3.2	100.0	151.9
Osrednjeslovenska	1.0	1.6	2.2	2.5	2.6	2.3	1.7	53.3	174.1
Obalno-kraška	1.3	2.1	2.7	3.0	3.0	2.9	2.3	71.5	178.4
Gorenjska	1.3	2.0	2.4	2.6	2.6	2.0	1.5	46.5	113.2
Goriška	0.5	1.1	1.5	1.9	1.9	1.5	1.2	38.2	235.5
Savinjska	3.2	5.2	6.2	6.6	6.5	5.8	4.5	138.5	138.0
Jugovzhodna Slovenija	1.8	3.3	4.0	4.4	4.6	4.3	3.5	109.6	197.6
Pomurska	4.5	8.0	8.8	9.1	8.8	7.8	6.4	200.0	142.2
Notranjsko-kraška	1.3	1.9	2.9	2.8	2.7	2.2	1.8	56.9	137.5
Podravska	3.4	5.7	6.9	7.4	7.6	7.0	5.3	163.2	156.7
Koroška	2.2	3.4	4.4	4.9	4.6	4.2	3.0	92.0	133.6
Spodnjeposavska	2.9	5.3	6.5	6.5	6.1	5.6	4.3	132.3	149.1
Zasavska	3.0	5.5	6.4	6.5	6.5	5.7	4.3	134.8	144.8

Source: Ministry of Labour, Family and Social Affairs; calculations by IMAD.
Notes: [1]**Persons entitled to financial social assistance** are persons who received financial social assistance because they were not able to provide for themselves or their family members funds equal to the minimum income for reasons over which they have had no influence. [2]**Financial social assistance** is a cash benefit intended to satisfy the minimum living needs in the amount that enables survival in accordance with the Social Security Act. The table presents data on the persons entitled to the basic financial social assistance, extraordinary cash social assistance and permanent cash social assistance as well as the persons entitled to attendance allowance (home care).

MACROECONOMIC INDICATORS OF DEVELOPMENT

Table 59: **GDP, Slovenia, 2000–2007**

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
GDP in EUR m (fixed exchange rate 2007, current prices)	18,480.7	20,654.3	23,128.5	25,114	27.073.4	28,703.6	31,008	34,470.9
GDP (constant previous-year prices)	17,544.4	19,007.2	21,475	23,784.2	26,190.6	28,250.7	30,397.9	33,105.5
GDP growth rates (constant previous- year prices), %	4.4	2.8	4	2.8	4.3	4.3	5.9	6.8
GDP, EUR m (current exchange rate)	21,600	22,790	24,500	25,752	27,162	28,704	31,013	34,471
GDP per capita, EUR (current exchange rate)	10,858	11,441	12,281	12,900	13,599	14,346	15,446	17,076
GDP per capita, USD	9,997	10,236	11,564	14,556	16,885	17,840	19,373	23,403
GDP per capita (PPS)	15,200	15,800	16,800	17,300	18,700	19,800	21,000	22,600
GDP per capita (PPS) (EU-27=100)	79	79	81	82	85	87	88	89

Source: SORS, EUROSTAT.

Table 60: **GDP per capita (EUR, fixed exchange rate 2007), Slovenia, by region, 2000–2005**

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
Slovenia	10,701	11,298	12,084	12,695	13,400	14,116
Zahodna Slovenija	12,629	13,532	14,468	15,362	16,133	17,018
Obalno-kraška	11,108	11,739	12,623	13,189	13,748	14,616
Goriška	10,612	11,086	11,654	12,061	12,689	13,496
Gorenjska	9,334	10,011	10,637	10,984	11,488	12,018
Osrednjeslovenska	14,747	15,923	17,079	18,377	19,327	20,364
Vzhodna Slovenija	9,054	9,411	10,066	10,432	11,073	11,637
Notranjsko-kraška	8,422	8,828	9,489	9,698	10,194	10,514
Jugovzhodna Slovenija	9,682	10,297	10,909	11,435	12,205	12,914
Spodnjeposavska	9,030	9,502	10,031	9,937	10,564	11,319
Zasavska	8,758	8,517	8,782	9,047	9,558	9,962
Savinjska	9,665	9,977	10,786	11,234	11,852	12,556
Koroška	8,849	9,203	9,634	9,811	10,256	11,029

Source: SORS.

Table 61: **GDP per capita, index (Slovenia=100), by region, 2000–2005**

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
Slovenia	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Osrednjeslovenska	137.8	140.9	141.3	144.8	144.2	144.3
Obalno-kraška	103.8	103.9	104.5	103.9	102.6	103.5
Gorenjska	87.2	88.6	88.0	86.5	85.7	85.1
Goriška	99.2	98.1	96.4	95.0	94.7	95.6
Savinjska	90.3	88.3	89.3	88.5	88.4	88.9
Jugovzhodna Slovenija	90.5	91.1	90.3	90.1	91.1	91.5
Pomurska	71.2	69.7	68.7	68.0	68.5	66.6
Notranjsko-kraška	78.7	78.1	78.5	76.4	76.1	74.5
Podravska	84.4	83.4	84.3	83.6	84.7	83.8
Koroška	82.7	81.5	79.7	77.3	76.5	78.1
Spodnjeposavska	84.4	84.1	83.0	78.3	78.8	80.2
Zasavska	81.8	75.4	72.7	71.3	71.3	70.6

Source: SORS.

Table 62: **GDP per capita in PPS, EU-27=100, Slovenia and EU-27, 2000–2007**

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
EU-27	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Austria	132	125	127	127	127	128	127	127
Belgium	126	124	125	123	121	121	120	118
Bulgaria	28	29	31	33	34	35	37	38
Cyprus	89	91	89	89	91	92	92	93
Czech Republic	69	70	71	74	75	76	78	82
Denmark	132	128	129	124	126	126	126	123
Estonia	45	46	50	55	57	63	68	72
Finland	118	116	116	113	117	115	117	117
France	116	116	116	112	110	112	112	111
Greece	84	87	91	92	94	96	97	98
Ireland	131	133	138	141	142	144	145	146
Italy	117	118	112	111	107	105	103	101
Latvia	37	39	41	43	46	50	54	58
Lithuania	39	42	44	49	50	53	56	60
Luxembourg	244	235	241	247	253	264	279	276
Hungary	56	59	62	63	63	64	65	63
Malta	84	78	80	79	77	77	77	77
Germany	119	117	115	117	117	115	114	113
Netherlands	134.6	134.1	133.7	129.7	129.5	132.1	131.7	132.6
Poland	48.4	47.7	48.4	49	50.7	51.2	52.3	53.8
Portugal	78	78	77	77	75	75	74	75
Romania	26	28	29	31	34	35	39	41
Slovakia	50	52	54	56	57	60	64	69
Slovenia	79	79	81	82	85	87	88	89
Spain	98	98	101	101	101	103	105	107
Sweden	127	122	121	123	125	124	124	126
United Kingdom	117	118	119	120	122	119	118	116

Source: EUROSTAT.

COMPOSITE INDICATORS OF DEVELOPMENT

Table 63: **Development Deficiency Index[1] by region, 2007–2013**

	Index	Rank
Osrednjeslovenska	8.7	12
Obalno-kraška	82.4	11
Gorenjska	83.1	10
Goriška	93.8	8
Savinjska	92.3	9
Jugovzhodna Slovenija	101.7	7
Pomurska	159.5	1
Notranjsko-kraška	127.0	2
Podravska	116.8	3
Koroška	103.9	6
Spodnjeposavska	116.8	4
Zasavska	113.9	5

Source: SORS, Tax Administration of Slovenia, Agency for Public and Legal Records and Services, Ministry of the Environment and Spatial Planning; calculations by IMAD.
Note: [1]**The Development Deficiency Index** is a composite index calculated on the basis of 11 indicators (indicators of development, development deficiency and development possibilities). Its primary purpose is to rank regions by development deficiency level. It is also a criterion for regional incentives.

Table 64: **Human Development Index, EU-27, calculations 2000–2005**[1]

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
EU-27[2]	0.892[3]	0.885	0.892	0.899	0.905	0.910
Austria	0.933	0.929	0.934	0.936	0.944	0.948
Belgium	0.949	0.937	0.942	0.945	0.945	0.946
Bulgaria	0.800	0.795	0.796	0.808	0.816	0.824
Cyprus	0.883	0.891	0.883	0.891	0.903	0.903
Czech Republic	0.857	0.861	0.868	0.874	0.885	0.891
Denmark	0.932	0.930	0.932	0.941	0.943	0.949
Estonia	0.833	0.833	0.853	0.853	0.858	0.860
Finland	0.940	0.930	0.935	0.941	0.947	0.952
France	0.932	0.925	0.932	0.938	0.942	0.952
Greece	0.895	0.892	0.902	0.912	0.921	0.926
Ireland	0.929	0.930	0.936	0.946	0.956	0.959
Italy	0.921	0.916	0.920	0.934	0.940	0.941
Latvia	0.812	0.811	0.823	0.836	0.845	0.855
Lithuania	0.828	0.824	0.842	0.852	0.857	0.862
Luxembourg	0.929	0.930	0.933	0.949	0.945	0.944
Hungary	0.843	0.837	0.848	0.862	0.869	0.874
Malta	0.874	0.856	0.875	0.867	0.875	0.878
Germany	0.927	0.921	0.925	0.930	0.932	0.935
Netherlands	0.939	0.938	0.942	0.943	0.947	0.953
Poland	0.845	0.841	0.850	0.858	0.862	0.870
Portugal	0.898	0.896	0.897	0.904	0.904	0.897
Romania	0.780	0.773	0.778	0.792	0.805	0.813
Slovakia	N/A	0.836	0.842	0.849	0.856	0.863
Slovenia	0.884	0.881	0.895	0.904	0.910	0.917
Spain	0.918	0.918	0.922	0.928	0.938	0.949
Sweden	0.958	0.941	0.946	0.949	0.951	0.956
United Kingdom	0.948	0.930	0.936	0.939	0.940	0.946

Source: Human Development Report 2002–2007 (UNDP).
Notes: [1]United Nations Development Programme measures HDI annually, using data with a two-year time lag due to data availability. The most recent calculations were released in 2007. The index has values in an interval of 0–1. [2]Non-weighted average. [3]Value excluding data for Slovakia.

Table 65: **Human Development Index (HDI) and structural indicators, Slovenia, 2000–2005**

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
HDI	0.879	0.881	0.895	0.904	0.910	0.917
Rank (no. among countries covered)	29 (173)	29 (175)	27 (177)	26 (177)	27 (177)	27 (177)
Life expectancy at birth (years)	75.5	75.9	76.2	76.4	76.6	77.4
LE index	0.84	0.85	0.85	0.86	0.86	0.87
Gross enrolment ratio,[1] %	83.0	83.0	90.0	95.0	95.0	94.3
Education index	0.94	0.94	0.96	0.98	0.98	0.97
GDP per capita (PPP, USD)	17,367	17,130	18,540	19,150	20,939	22,273
GDP index	0.86	0.86	0.87	0.88	0.89	0.90

Source: (2001–2007) Human Development Reports. UNDP, Oxford University Press: New York, Oxford.
Notes: [1]All persons participating in primary, secondary and tertiary education as a percentage of the population theoretically eligible for enrolment.

Calculating the Human Development Index

HDI (as the average sum of all three indices) = 1/3 (life expectancy index) + 1/3 (education index) + 1/3 (GDP index)

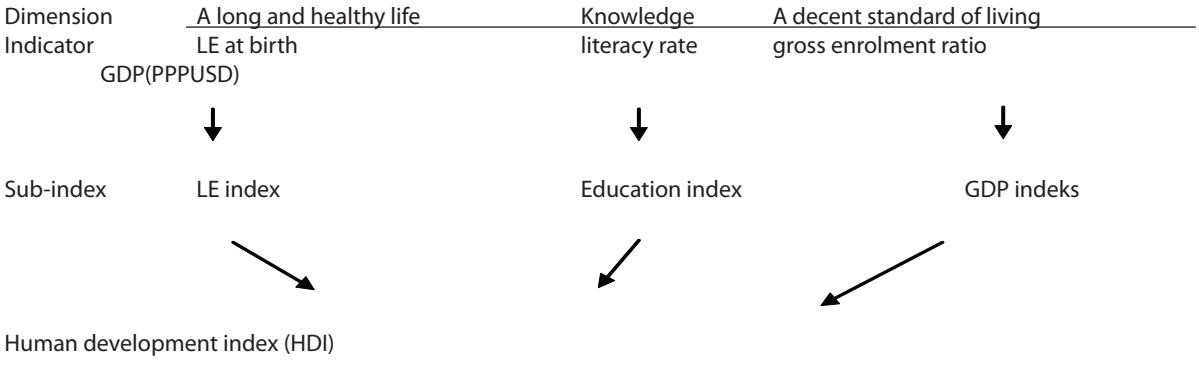

Table 66: **Gender-related Human Development Index (GDI) and structural indicators, Slovenia, 2000–2005**

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
GDI[1]	0.877	0.879	0.892	0.901	0.908	0.914
Rank (no. among countries covered)	27 (146)	29 (144)	26 (144)	25 (140)	24 (136)	25 (157)
Life expectancy (years)						
Men	71.7	72.2	72.5	72.7	72.9	73.6
Women	79.1	79.5	79.7	80.0	80.2	81.1
Gross enrolment ratio,[2] %						
Men	80	80	86	92	91	90
Women	85	85	94	99	100	99
GDP per capita (PPP, USD)	17,367	17,130	18,540	19,150	20,939	22,273
Estimated earned income (PPP, USD)[3]						
Men	21,642	21,338	22,832	23,779	26,129	27,779
Women	13,327	13,152	14,082	14,751	15,992	17,022
Difference between GDI and HDI[4]	-0.002	-0.002	-0.003	-0.003	-0.002	-0.003

Source: (2007–2001) Human Development Report. Oxford, New York: Oxford University Press, UNDP.
Notes: [1]The GDI is composed of the same indicators as the HDI except that they are gender-adjusted (including the indicators representing the three areas of development). The GDI and its indicators reflect (in)equalities in the distribution of goods needed for (quality) living – health, income and education – between men and women. The main idea of the GDI is: the more a country's GDI approaches its HDI, the smaller the gender gap in benefiting from basic human resources. As the gender gap widens, the GDI falls (in an interval of [0–1]). Since inequality (in opportunities) exists in all countries, the GDI tends to be lower than the HDI; this does not necessarily indicate a country's lower ranking. In calculating the GDI, each of the structural gender-disaggregated values is combined into equally distributed indices, which give a harmonic mean. The GDI is calculated by combining those indices in which each index has a weight of one-third. The methodology "penalises" differences in achievement between men and women. [2]The number of students enrolled in primary, secondary and tertiary level of education regardless of age, as a percentage of the eligible official school-age population. [3]The UNDP methodology takes into account the total male and female population, male and female shares of the economically active population, the ratio of the female to male non-agricultural wage, and GDP per capita (PPP, USD). [4]Negative values indicate that the GDI is lower than the HDI.

Table 67: **Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM)[1] and structural indicators, Slovenia, 2000–2005**

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
GEM	0.585	0.582	0.584	0.603	0.603	0.611
Rank (no. among countries covered)	25 (*66*)	27 (*70*)	31 (*78*)	30 (*80*)	32 (75)	41 (93)
Seats in parliament held by women (as % of total)	12.2	12.2	12.2	12.2	10.8	10.8
Senior officials and managers (as % of total)	31.0	31.0	29.0	33.0	34.0	33.0
Female professionals and technical workers (as % of total)	51.0	54.0	55.0	56.0	57.0	57.0
Ratio of estimated female to male earned income	0.62	0.62	0.62	0.62	0.61	0.61
Difference between GEM and HDI	-0.294	-0.299	-0.311	-0.301	-0.307	-0.306

Source: (2007–2001) Human Development Report. Oxford, New York: Oxford University Press, UNDP.
Note: [1]**The Gender Empowerment measure (GEM)** measures women's active participation in the public sphere. It captures (in)equality in opportunities in three areas: the representation and participation of women in politics (measured by the share of parliamentary seats held by women); employment and the power of decision-making (measured by the share of women in senior and executive positions and the share of women in professional and technical positions); and the availability of economic resources (the estimated income ratio). The GEM has values in an interval of [0–1], while its total value shows the differences in empowerment between women and men. A value of 1 indicates that women and men are equally empowered, with the shares of men and women equal in all key indicators.

MOBILITY

MIGRATIONS IN EUROPE

Table 68: **Net migration[1] and net migration from abroad per 1,000 population, EU-27, 2000–2007**

	Net migration (number)			Net migration from abroad per 1,000 population		
	2000	2006	2007	2000	2006	2007
EU-27	724,615	1,639,202	1,907,561	1.5	3.3	3.8
Austria	17,272	29,379	31,382	2.2	3.5	3.8
Belgium	14,349	53357	62,327	1.4	5.1	5.9
Bulgaria	0	0	-1,397	0.0	0.0	-0.2
Cyprus	3,960	8,666	12,784	5.7	11.2	16.3
Czech Republic	6,539	34,720	83,945	0.6	3.4	8.1
Denmark	10,094	10,118	20,229	1.9	1.9	3.7
Estonia	224	164	160	0.2	0.1	0.1
Finland	2,410	10,600	13,877	0.5	2.0	2.6
France	158,266	90,115	71,000	2.6	1.4	1.1
Greece	29,401	39,995	41,000	2.7	3.6	3.7
Ireland	31,812	66,749	64,394	8.4	15.7	14.7
Italy	49,526	377,458	494,315	0.9	6.4	8.3
Latvia	-5,504	-2,451	-642	-2.3	-1.1	-0.3
Lithuania	-20,306	-4,857	-5244	-5.8	-1.4	-1.6
Luxembourg	3,431	5,353	6,001	7.9	11.3	12.5
Hungary	16,658	21,309	14,042	1.6	2.1	1.4
Malta	9,763	2,135	2,014	25.3	5.3	4.9
Germany	167,863	25,814	47,802	2.0	0.3	0.6
Netherlands	57,033	-25,903	-1,644	3.6	-1.6	-0.1
Poland	-409,924	-36,134	-20,485	-10.7	-0.9	-0.5
Portugal	47,000	26,044	19,500	4.6	2.5	1.8
Romania	-3,729	-6,483	745	-0.2	-0.3	0.0
Slovakia	-22,301	3,854	6,793	-4.1	0.7	1.3
Slovenia	2,615	6,250	14,134	1.34	3.1	7.1
Spain	389,774	604,902	701,948	9.7	13.7	15.6
Sweden	24,386	50,769	53,978	2.7	5.6	5.9
United Kingdom	14,3871	247,262	174,603	2.4	4.1	2.9

Source: Eurostat, SORS
Note: [1]**Net migration or net migration from abroad** is the difference between the number of immigrants from abroad and the number of emigrants to abroad for a given area in the calendar year. Immigrants and emigrants can be foreigners or nationals of the selected country.

INTERNATIONAL MIGRATIONS

Table 69: **International migrations, Slovenia, 2000–2007**

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
Immigrants from abroad[1]	6,185	7,803	9,134	9,279	10,171	15,041	20,016	29,193
Emigrants to abroad[2]	3,570	4,811	7,269	5,867	8,269	8,605	13,749	14,943
Net migration from abroad[3]	2,615	2,992	1,865	3,412	1,902	6,436	6,267	14,250
Immigrants from abroad per 1,000 population	3.1	3.9	4.6	4.6	5.1	7.5	10.0	14.5
Emigrants to abroad per 1,000 population	1.8	2.4	3.6	2.9	4.1	4.3	6.8	7.4
Net migration per 1,000 population[4]	1.3	1.5	0.9	1.7	1.0	3.2	3.1	7.1

Source: SORS.
Notes: [1]**An immigrant from abroad** is a resident of Slovenia who immigrated from abroad and registered his/her residence in Slovenia. [2]**An emigrant to abroad** is a resident of Slovenia who emigrated from Slovenia. [3]**Net migration** is the difference between the number of immigrants from abroad and the number of emigrants to abroad for a given area in the calendar year. [4]**Net migration per 1,000 population** is the ratio between the net migration (with foreign countries) in the calendar year and the mid-year population of the same year for a given area, multiplied by 1,000.

Table 70: **Immigration and emigration of citizens of the Republic of Slovenia and foreigners and net migration, 1995–2006, number**

	Total (citizens of the RS and foreigners)			Citizens of the RS			Foreigners		
	Immigrants	Emigrants	Net migration	Immigrants	Emigrants	Net migration	Immigrants	Emigrants	Net migration
1995	5,879	3,372	2,507	2,191	776	1,415	3,688	2,596	1,092
1996	9,495	2,985	6,510	1,500	803	697	7,995	2,182	5,813
1997	7,889	5,447	2,442	1093	807	286	6,796	4,640	2,156
1998	4,603	6,708	2,105	857	705	152	3,746	6003	-2,257
1999	4,941	2,606	2,335	1,362	963	399	3,579	1643	1,936
2000	6,185	3,570	2,615	935	1,559	-624	5,250	2,011	3,239
2001	7,803	4,811	2,992	1,030	1,442	-412	6,773	3,369	3,404
2002	9,134	7,269	1,865	1,432	2,624	-1,192	7,702	4,645	3,057
2003	9,279	5,867	3,412	1,268	1,887	-619	8,011	3,980	4031
2004	10,171	8,269	1,902	1,574	2,265	-691	8,597	6,004	2,593
2005	15,041	8,605	6,436	1,747	2,077	-330	13,294	6,528	6,766
2006	20,016	13,749	6,267	1,765	2,703	-938	18,251	11,046	7,205

Source: SORS.

Table 71: **Immigrants to Slovenia by country of origin, 1995–2006, %**

	Country of origin						
	Total	**Non-European countries**	**European countries**	**EU-27 countries**	**Countries of former Yugoslavia**	**Non-EU-27 European countries and countries of former Yugoslavia**	**EU-15 countries**
1995	100.0	4.7	100.0	6.8	89.5	3.7	–
1996	100.0	4.3	100.0	5.5	90.4	4.1	–
1997	100.0	4.7	100.0	4.4	90.3	5.3	–
1998	100.0	5.7	100.0	10.0	80.6	9.3	–
1999	100.0	2.2	100.0	3.9	88.5	7.6	–
2000	100.0	3.4	100.0	5.4	87.9	6.8	3.6
2001	100.0	5.0	100.0	8.6	83.8	7.6	5.1
2002	100.0	3.9	100.0	7.9	84.8	7.3	4.2
2003	100.0	5.0	100.0	8.4	84.7	6.9	4.8
2004	100.0	3.5	100.0	4.9	89.1	6.0	2.2
2005	100.0	2.8	100.0	15.6	79.7	4.7	7.9
2006	100.0	1.9	100.0	9.7	87.0	3.3	4.1

Source: SORS, Ministry of the Interior; calculations by Jakoš, IMAD.

Table 72: **Emigration of citizens of the Republic of Slovenia to other countries (areas), 1995–2006, %**

	Country/area of emigration						
	Total	**Non-European countries**	**European countries**	**EU-27 countries**	**Countries of former Yugoslavia**	**Non-EU-27 European countries and countries of former Yugoslavia**	**EU-15 countries**
1995	100.0	10.8	88.5	100.0	58.4	36.4	5.2
1996	100.0	10.0	90.0	100.0	47.7	44.5	7.7
1997	100.0	6.8	92.8	100.0	50.9	36.8	12.3
1998	100.0	8.8	91.1	100.0	57.9	34.4	7.6
1999	100.0	12.6	87.4	100.0	66.2	25.3	8.6
2000	100.0	15.6	84.4	100.0	67.0	24.3	8.7
2001	100.0	14.5	85.4	100.0	64.8	26.0	9.3
2002	100.0	10.4	89.6	100.0	70.9	20.8	8.3
2003	100.0	15.6	83.8	100.0	64.2	27.5	8.3
2004	100.0	11.1	88.6	100.0	67.9	25.2	6.9
2005	100.0	16.4	83.3	100.0	70.3	21.8	7.9
2006	100.0	14.9	84.8	100.0	72.7	18.3	8.9

Source: SORS, Ministry of the Interior; calculations by Jakoš, IMAD.
Note: As the country of emigration is not always known, the figures do not always add up.

INTERNATIONAL MOBILITY OF STUDENTS IN TERTIARY EDUCATION

Table 73: **Number and growth in the number of foreign students[1] in tertiary education and students studying abroad by country, EU-27, 2000–2006**

	Foreign students			Students studying abroad			Difference: students abroad - foreign students in the country	Ratio: students abroad/foreign students in the country
	Number	Growth, %		Number	Growth, %			
	2006	2000–2006	2005–2006	2006	2000–2006	2005–2006	2006	2006
Austria	39,329	9.6	14.0	11,168	9.7	5.4	-28,161	0.3
Belgium	40,607	–	6.2	9,219	8.6	-4.6	-31,388	0.2
Bulgaria	8,996	10.8	3.6	23,131	108.3	3.6	14,135	2.6
Cyprus	5,630	178.0	14.9	16,985	84.3	-13.8	11,355	3.0
Czech Republic	21,395	275.5	15.5	6,715	61.9	13.9	-14,680	0.3
Denmark	19,123	48.6	9.7	5,616	-5.2	10.5	-13,507	0.3
Estonia	2,151	149.2	–	2,862	77.1	12.5	711	1.3
Finland	8,955	60.8	6.1	9,244	-2.8	12.7	289	1.0
France	247,510	–	–	50,779	24.3	12.8	-196,731	0.2
Greece	–	–	–	37,131	-40.3	-7.7	–	–
Ireland	–	–	–	27,704	62.4	54.4	–	–
Italy	48,766	95.6	8.6	39,120	16.6	12.3	-9,646	0.8
Latvia	1,423	-76.2	–	2,975	108.2	40.2	1,552	2.1
Lithuania	1,226	127.5	43.1	6,153	132.5	20.9	4,927	5.0
Luxembourg	–	–	–	6,831	29.6	-2.9	–	–
Hungary	14,491	46.3	6.5	7,318	11.0	8.0	-7,173	0.5
Malta	638	79.2	5.5	922	54.7	22.3	284	1.4
Germany	261,363	39.7	6.2	65,809	51.7	22.5	-195,554	0.3
Netherlands	35,374	152.5	12.0	11,734	6.9	18.1	-23,640	0.3
Poland	11,365	85.5	11.6	34,230	108.5	21.5	22,865	3.0
Portugal	17,077	52.8	0.4	14,399	54.9	21.2	-2,678	0.8
Romania	11,790	-6.4	–	19,432	109.7	8.3	7,642	1.6
Slovakia	1,733	10.4	3.3	22,494	382.7	31.6	20,761	13.0
Slovenia	1,390	78.7	13.0	2,505	19.6	8.9	1,115	1.8
Spain	51,013	100.0	117.0	24,455	-0.9	12.6	-26,558	0.5
Sweden	41,410	62.1	5.4	10,621	-22.0	15.4	-30,789	0.3
United Kingdom	418,353	87.7	6.0	9,566	-48.9	-0.2	-408,787	0.0

Source: Eurostat; calculations by IMAD.
Note: [1]non-citizens.

Table 74: **Number of students in tertiary education participating in the international student exchange programme Erasmus, EU-27, 2000/2001–2006/2007**

	Foreign Erasmus students			Erasmus students studying abroad			Domestic Erasmus students/foreign Erasmus students	
	Number	Growth, %		Number	Growth, %		Difference: students abroad - foreign students in the country	Ratio: students abroad/foreign students in the country
	06/07	00/01–06/07	05/06–06/07	06/2007	00/01–06/07	05/06–06/07	06/07	06/07
Austria	3,776	55.7	1.1	4,032	33.3	1.5	256	1.1
Belgium	5,308	41.0	4.3	5,119	15.6	3.0	–189	1.0
Bulgaria	296	1.038.5	-54.7	938	135.7	6.3	642	3.2
Cyprus	211	–	68.8	129	–	-3.0	–82	0.6
Czech Republic	3,059	454.2	17.1	5,079	153.8	7.5	2,020	1.7
Denmark	4,545	86.7	4.3	1,587	–9.3	-5.6	–2,958	0.3
Estonia	489	482.1	31.5	572	124.3	11.9	83	1.2
Finland	5,998	68.7	4.6	3,773	14.8	-2.0	–2,225	0.6
France	20,673	17.2	-3.5	22,981	33.9	2.1	2,308	1.1
Greece	1,841	41.4	-3.1	2,465	32.0	-9.2	624	1.3
Ireland	4,012	26.7	3.7	1,524	–7.5	-2.7	–2,488	0.4
Italy	14,779	67.3	1.3	17,195	29.7	4.9	2,416	1.2
Latvia	373	809.8	44.6	807	343.4	18.5	434	2.2
Lithuania	808	1.342.9	29.1	2,082	233.7	9.0	1,274	2.6
Luxembourg	24	–29.4	60.0	170	34.9	16.4	146	7.1
Hungary	1,708	174.2	9.9	3,028	51.3	13.9	1,320	1.8
Malta	331	394.0	12.2	125	35.9	-16.1	–206	0.4
Germany	17,878	17.0	0.0	23,884	50.5	0.2	6,006	1.3
Netherlands	6,914	18.4	-0.7	4,502	8.2	0.2	–2,412	0.7
Poland	3,730	507.5	21.8	11,219	204.0	12.5	7,489	3.0
Portugal	4,787	87.0	5.4	4,424	72.2	2.6	–363	0.9
Romania	792	298.0	21.3	3,350	76.4	2.7	2,558	4.2
Slovenia	752	1.112.9	27.7	972	328.2	10.6	220	1.3
Slovakia	655	1.029.3	28.9	1,346	166.5	15.5	691	2.1
Spain	27,464	61.8	3.2	22,322	30.1	-2.5	–5,142	0.8
Sweden	7,359	65.8	4.4	2,532	–7.1	0.1	–4,827	0.3
United Kingdom	16,508	–14.6	0.7	7,235	–19.8	1.5	–9,273	0.4

Source: Education and training – Erasmus – statistics, (2008); calculations by IMAD.

INTERNAL MIGRATIONS

Table 75: **Net migration and net migration between regions per 1,000 population, 2000–2006**

	Net migration			Net migration between regions per 1,000 population		
	2000	2005	2006	2000	2005	2006
Pomurska	-46	-51	-6	-0.4	-0.4	0.0
Podravska	30	29	21	0.1	0.1	0.1
Koroška	-85	-150	-175	-1.1	-2.0	-2.4
Savinjska	-123	-105	-120	-0.5	-0.4	-0.5
Zasavska	0	-66	-87	0.0	-1.5	-1.9
Spodnjeposavska	-19	71	29	-0.3	1.0	0.4
Jugovzhodna Slovenija	108	70	19	0.8	0.5	0.1
Osrednjeslovenska	-188	336	591	-0.4	0.7	1.2
Gorenjska	51	-152	-180	0.3	-0.8	-0.9
Notranjsko-kraška	130	89	28	2.6	1.7	0.5
Goriška	-50	-134	-262	-0.4	-1.1	-2.2
Obalno-kraška	178	63	142	1.7	0.6	1.3

Source: SORS.

Table 76: **Internal migration between municipalities, 2000–2006**

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Number	19,674	20,450	22,259	19,201	20,657	22,156	26,460

Source: SORS.

Table 77: **Structure of population aged 15 or over, regions, 2002 census**

	Without education, incomplete primary education or primary education	Lower or middle vocational education	Secondary technical education	Secondary general education	Post-secondary education (not higher education)	Higher education, professionally oriented, higher education, academic type, specialisation, master's and doctor's degree
Slovenia	27.7	24.9	24.7	6.0	5.5	11.1
Osrednjeslovenska	21.1	19.9	25.4	9.7	6.1	17.8
Obalno-kraška	26.5	22.5	26.2	6.4	6.7	11.7
Gorenjska	25.4	26.2	26.7	6.3	5.5	9.9
Goriška	29.5	23.4	24.1	5.9	5.1	12.0
Savinjska	31.9	31.2	22.1	2.7	5.0	7.2
Jugovzhodna Slovenija	31.9	28.5	21.3	4.2	4.6	9.4
Pomurska	36.9	25.9	23.4	2.7	3.8	7.3
Notranjsko-kraška	29.0	23.5	21.0	6.1	6.9	13.4
Podravska	28.4	25.6	25.8	5.6	5.9	8.6
Koroška	28.7	30.5	23.7	4.7	4.7	7.8
Spodnjeposavska	32.2	22.2	30.1	4.6	4.5	6.5
Zasavska	31.0	27.8	26.5	5.1	3.9	5.6

Source: SORS; calculations by IMAD.

DAILY AND SUSTAINABLE MOBILITY

Table 78: **Number and proportion of daily commuters[1] (workers) by mode and time of travel, Slovenia, 2002 census**

Region	Number of daily commuters (workers)	Mode of travel, %			Time of travel, %				
		Passenger car	Public transport	Other	Up to 15 minutes	15–30 minutes	30–45 minutes	45–60 minutes	60 minutes or more
Goriška	31,227	85.5	8.2	6.3	54.2	34.3	5.4	4.2	1.9
Pomurska	28,480	83.4	9.0	7.6	55.1	36.0	4.9	2.8	1.1
Gorenjska	52,647	84.6	9.9	5.5	44.4	35.5	10.2	8.0	2.0
Osrednjeslovenska	85,242	84.5	11.3	4.2	28.8	46.6	13.8	8.6	2.3
Spodnjeposavska	17,637	87.8	7.4	4.7	50.7	37.1	5.5	3.9	2.8
Savinjska	58,996	84.3	10.0	5.6	44.7	39.6	7.3	5.6	2.8
Notranjsko-kraška	13,684	84.3	10.5	5.2	51.7	27.0	9.5	9.0	2.8
Koroška	19,057	85.6	8.7	5.7	49.3	38.0	6.5	4.4	1.8
Jugovzhodna Slovenija	33,254	85.8	9.8	4.4	48.3	34.1	6.7	7.9	3.0
Podravska	64,375	84.5	10.4	5.0	37.9	44.3	8.9	5.9	3.0
Obalno-kraška	25,800	90.3	4.9	4.8	56.9	34.1	4.2	3.1	1.7
Zasavska	9,900	75.8	19.0	5.2	40.0	30.2	5.7	16.9	7.2
Total	440,299	84.9	9.9	5.2	43.5	39.0	8.5	6.5	2.5

Source: SORS; calculations by Bole.
Note: [1]without daily migrants to abroad.

Table 79: **Number and proportion of daily commuters[1] (school children) by mode and time of travel, Slovenia, 2002 census**

Region	Number of daily commuters (school children)	Mode of travel, %			Time of travel, %				
		Passenger car	Public transport	Other	Up to 15 minutes	15–30 minutes	30–45 minutes	45–60 minutes	60 minutes or more
Goriška	13,115	46.5	44.5	9.1	38.7	29.5	9.7	9.8	12.4
Pomurska	14,102	33.6	58.0	8.4	41.1	30.6	9.6	10.7	8.0
Gorenjska	28,169	40.7	52.0	7.3	30.5	30.5	14.4	16.7	7.9
Osrednjeslovenska	42,579	41.3	48.6	10.1	22.5	37.0	17.0	16.3	7.1
Spodnjeposavska	9,209	32.8	59.5	7.7	36.7	28.5	11.5	10.5	12.8
Savinjska	30,459	32.2	58.9	8.9	27.3	31.4	14.9	15.8	10.6
Notranjska	5,713	40.6	56.3	3.1	33.1	19.4	14.4	23.0	10.1
Koroška	8,650	42.9	47.4	9.7	29.0	32.3	12.1	14.9	11.7
Jugovzhodna Slovenija	17,964	37.5	54.7	7.8	37.4	30.1	10.2	13.0	9.3
Podravska	32,749	35.0	59.0	6.0	27.0	37.1	14.8	12.6	8.5
Obalno-kraška	10,986	56.5	38.8	4.7	40.4	33.5	9.6	8.0	8.4
Zasavska	4,917	32.9	62.0	5.2	17.2	27.9	10.3	24.9	19.8
Total	218,612	38.8	53.3	7.9	30.2	32.6	13.6	14.4	9.3

Source: SORS; calculations by Bole.
Note: [1]without daily migrants to abroad.

Table 80: **Urban passenger transport and road public transport, Slovenia, 2000–2007**

	Urban passenger transport[1]			Road public passenger transport[2]		
	Number	Change, %		Number	Change, %	
	2007	2000–2007	2006–2007	2007	2000–2007	2006–2007
Kilometres travelled (in thousand)	16,057	-41.4	0.0	60,177	-14.7	-0.7
Passengers carried (in thousand)	90,654	-30.3	-3.5	38,532	-48.3	1.5

Source: SORS; calculations by IMAD.
Notes: [1]Data on urban passenger transport relate to transport in Ljubljana and Maribor; since 2004, they also relate to other cities with urban passenger transport. [2]Public transport is a mode of transport which is accessible to all users of transport services under equal conditions. It only comprises scheduled transport for hire or reward. Transport of passengers by independent transport operators, taxies and cars is not included.

Table 81: **Number of passengers in rail transport (in thousand), Slovenia, 2000–2007**

	Number	Change, %	
	2007	2000–2007	2006–2007
Total	16,123	7.4	0.0
National transport	15,232	7.5	-0.3
International transport	891	6.2	4.1

Source: SORS; calculations by IMAD.

Table 82: **Passenger kilometres (in million), by mode of transport, Slovenia, 2000–2007**

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
Road public transport	1,581	1,469.6	1,142.8	1,065	1,000.3	862	850.3	817.1
Road transport by passenger cars	20,325	20,801	21,287	21,331	22,042	22,509	23,018	–
Rail transport	715.3	715.3	749.4	777.3	763.6	776.6	793.2	812.3

Source: SORS
Note: **Passenger kilometres (pkm)** are the aggregate product of the number of passengers multiplied by the distances they have travelled.

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Abbreviations / Acronyms

AJPES – Agency for Public Legal Records and Related Services
HBS – Household Budget Survey
GDP – gross domestic product
CJMMK – Public Opinion and Mass Communications Research Centre
COFOG – classification of the functions of government
COICOP – classification of individual (final) consumption (of households) by purpose
DO – long-term care
DURS – Tax Administration of the Republic of Slovenia
ESS – European Social Survey
ESSPROS – the European System of Social Protection Statistics
EU – European Union
EURES – the European Job Mobility Portal
EUROPOP – Eurostat's Population Projections for Slovenia
EUROSTAT – the Statistical Office of the European Communities
EU-SILC – the European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions
SMARS – the Surveying and Mapping Authority of the Republic of Slovenia
HBS – Household Budget Survey
ISCED – International Standard Classification of Education
IVZ – Institute of Public Health of the Republic of Slovenia
MDDSZ – Ministry of Labour, Family and Social Affairs
MF – Ministry of Finance
MIPEX – Migrant Integration Policy Index
MMC – multimedia centre
MNZ – Ministry of the Interior
MOL – Municipality of Ljubljana
MOSS – Measurement of website traffic
NPISH – non-profit institutions serving households
NSVS – National Housing Savings Scheme
p.p. – percentage points
OECD – Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PPP – purchasing power parity
PTI – vocational technical programmes
RePPRS – Resolution on Transport Policy of the Republic of Slovenia
SEM – Strategy of economic migration
SJM – Slovenian Public Opinion
PPS – purchasing power standard
SORS – Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia
UIRS – Urban Planning Institute of the Republic of Slovenia
IMAD – Institute of Macroeconomic Analysis and Development
WHO – World Health Organization
ZPCP – Road Transport Act
PDII – Pension and Disability Insurance Institute of the Republic of Slovenia
ESS – Employment Service of Slovenia
HIIS – Health Insurance Institute of Slovenia

Acronyms of countries

AT- Austria
BE- Belgium
BG- Bulgaria
CZ- Czech Rep.
CY- Cyprus
DE- Germany
DK- Denmark
EE- Estona
ES- Spain
FI- Finland
FR- France
EL- Greece
HU- Hungary
IE- Irland
IT- Italy
LU- Luxembourg
LT- Lithuania
LV- Latvia
EU – European Union
MT- Malta
NL- Netherland
PL- Poland
PT- Portugal
RO- Romania
SE- Sweden
SI- Slovenia
SK- Slovakia
UK- United Kingdom
NO- Norway
ZDA- United States of America
CA- Canada
BiH- Bosnia and Hercegovina
ČG- Montenegro
YU- Yugoslavia
SFRJ- Socialistic Federal Republic of Yogoslavia
EGS-European Economic Community

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