

Statistical Division, United Nations Economic Commission for Europe

**THE STATISTICAL IMPLICATIONS OF THE SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT
SUMMIT : FIVE YEARS ON**

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	<u>Paragraphs</u>
Preface	
Executive summary	
I. Introduction: statistical implications of the Summit	
a) <u>Monitor and evaluate</u>	4-8
b) <u>Design and develop appropriate statistical measures and indicators</u>	9-13
c) <u>Inform and disseminate</u>	14-17
II. The statistical challenges of Copenhagen 1995 and Geneva 2000	
A. <i>Conceptual problems</i>	
a) <u>Statistical requirements of monitoring</u>	18-23
b) <u>Formulating statistical measures</u>	24-26
c) <u>The use of global or specific lists</u>	27-28
d) <u>Integrated systems of social statistics</u>	29
B. <i>Technical problems</i>	30-34
III. Progress made in implementing the statistical recommendations of the Social Development Summit	
A. <i>Monitor and evaluate</i>	35-41
B. <i>Design and develop:</i>	
a) <u>Indicator lists and their co-ordination at an inter-agency level</u>	42-49
b) <u>Work on sectoral statistics</u>	50-51
(i) Incomes, poverty, social exclusion.....	52-55
(ii) Labour market.....	56-57
(iii) Health.....	58
(iv) Education.....	59
(v) Disaggregated data.....	60-61
c) <u>Other initiatives (training and research)</u>	62-64
C. <i>Inform and disseminate</i>	65-69
IV. Remaining gaps	70-71
V. Proposals for future work: Towards a system for monitoring social development	72 - 81

ANNEX A. 'Quantifiable' goals in the Summit Programme of Action

ANNEX B. Poverty monitoring in Europe - an application

A. <i>Poverty in Eastern Europe</i>	1-31
B. <i>Poverty in Western Europe</i>	32-38

PREFACE

At the time of the World Summit for Social Development that met in 1995 in Copenhagen the Conference of European Statisticians (43rd Plenary Session, 1995) issued a Declaration on Statistics for Social Progress. It described the need for statistical information and illustrated its importance by examples from two countries. The General Assembly has now organised a meeting – Geneva 2000¹ – to review progress towards the goals of the Summit.

The Statistical Division of the Economic Commission for Europe offered to prepare a paper for Geneva 2000 reviewing progress in the relevant statistics in the European region.

At its 31st Session, in February 2000, the Statistical Commission “expressed support ... for this initiative to strengthen capacity building in social statistics in connection with the forthcoming Geneva 2000 Special Session on Social Development.”

The paper, prepared by staff of the ECE Statistical Division, was discussed with the United Nations Statistics Division whose advice is gratefully acknowledged. The paper has benefited from comments at a seminar for ECE staff and those of external readers. However, ECE’s Statistical Division takes full responsibility for the contents.

¹ In Geneva, June 2000.

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

At the 1995 World Summit for Social Development (WSSD), countries pledged themselves to policies to alleviate poverty, enhance productive employment, and improve social integration. Governments and international organisations were requested to supply statistics and other information in support of these policies.

The General Assembly of the United Nations has now organised a meeting – ‘Geneva 2000’ – to take place in June 2000 to review progress towards the attainment of these goals, including progress with the required statistics.

As noted in Section I, four factors were identified at the Summit as especially relevant to social development:

- (i) The economic, political, social, cultural and legal environment;
- (ii) Poverty, broadly defined in terms of living standards;
- (iii) Productive employment and unemployment;
- (iv) Social integration.

Statistical work in each of these was recommended in order to (a) monitor and evaluate progress, to this end (b) design appropriate measures and indicators, and (c) to ensure that findings were disseminated.

The challenges of the Summit to statisticians are reviewed in Section II. They include the need to:

- a) Identify the statistical requirements of policy monitoring, including both intermediate processes eventually leading to social development and final outcomes.
- b) Improve formulation of the concepts, measures and indicators (including the measurement of poverty, productive employment or social integration in respect of which countries and agencies have so far very different conceptual approaches).
- c) Compile indicator lists that meet regional as well as global concerns.
- d) Pursue work to integrate social statistics within a unified framework.
- e) As appropriate, improve data collection and analysis.

An attempt is made in Section III to list the major activities relevant to the Summit by international organisations, at global level and within the ECE region. Compiling global indicator lists and co-ordinating this effort among the agencies has received priority. Effort has been put also into improving selected sectoral (for example education) statistics, reflecting the direction of social concerns in Europe and elsewhere.

Large gaps remain (described in Section IV) that become the more apparent when an attempt is made, as in Annex B of this report, to deploy commonly used indicators to monitor recent change. The main issues include:

- a) Lack of a conceptual framework linking Summit goals and strategies to data requirements, not only for final outcomes (such as greater social integration or reduced poverty) but also in respect of intermediate steps.

- b) The addition of regional indicators to global lists.
- c) Lack of agreement among countries and agencies on how some of the principal concepts (such as poverty) might be defined and measured.
- d) Inability so far to measure some essential but complex phenomena in the social development process, such as maintenance of the rule of law or degree of corruption; some of the qualitative elements in such sectors as education or health, similarly, are not so far well defined or measured.
- e) Serious problems remain, for reasons of conceptualisation or data quality, in measuring common phenomena such as the shadow economy, underemployment or even infant mortality (because of a recent change in definition in the eastern part of the ECE region, because of increasing births that take place outside institutions, etc.).
- f) Lack of integration within some national statistical offices of data from different sources, thus precluding communality of concepts, definitions and classifications.
- g) Lack of valid statistics generally, resulting in part from financial and staffing constraints in some national statistical offices.
- h) Insufficient disaggregation of data, for example by sub-national region or in respect of minorities.
- i) Insufficient attention in some countries to data segregation by gender.
- j) Inadequate dissemination of data to potential users.

The report closes, in Section V, with proposals for future work related to the statistical requirements of the Summit. Governments were entrusted with monitoring . However, an international framework is necessary to co-ordinate and support national work. ECE, in close collaboration with the main national and international statistical agencies and the Conference of European Statisticians, could provide support to countries of the region as follows:

- I. Reviewing Summit recommendations and identifying data requirements;
- II. Assisting with the selection of measures and indicators appropriate to the region, supplementing global lists.
- III. Helping with the measurement of concepts that, in the past, have been difficult to measure.
- IV. Assisting with standardisation of definitions, concepts and classifications.
- V. Continued assistance with guidelines for integrated systems of social statistics (including 'social accounts').

VI. Assisting those countries that request it with data collection, analysis and dissemination.

If agreement is reached and sufficient support provided, a “social benchmark programme” would be launched. This would require a review of available social data in the countries of the region and identification of gaps, followed, as appropriate, by data collection and analysis. The benchmark data would make it possible, with ECE assistance if requested, to set social development objectives and targets. Considering the specific needs of the countries involved, this project is best placed at the regional level. However, as experience is gained it could be extended to other regions if they so desire.

The activities would be carried out in conjunction with other international organisations, non-governmental organisations and others concerned with the same production and use of data for social development.

I. Introduction: statistical implications of the Summit

1. Heads of State at the Summit committed themselves to an increase in, and better utilisation of, resources for social development. Policies to eradicate poverty, enhance productive employment, reduce unemployment, and improve social integration were selected as priorities. Governments and international organisations were requested to supply statistics and other information in support of these policies.

2. That was five years ago. The General Assembly of the United Nations has now organised a meeting – ‘Geneva 2000’ – to take place in June 2000, to review progress towards the attainment of these goals. The question for the statistical community is to what extent the statistical recommendations outlined at the 1995 WSSD have been followed. This paper attempts to answer this question, making specific reference to the region of the Economic Commission for Europe, while also touching upon related work elsewhere.²

3. Three areas of action for statistical work were identified in the Copenhagen Declaration on Social Development and the Programme of Action: monitoring and evaluation, design and development of statistical measures, and data dissemination. All focused on implementing the commitments underwritten at the World Summit, some addressing more technical aspects such as the development or amelioration of disaggregated indicators, others reflecting mainly the need to create stronger ties between social statistics and the general public.

a) Monitor and evaluate

4. According to the Programme of Action, Governments and international organisations should ensure that the goals and targets outlined in Copenhagen are met. This calls for monitoring and evaluation at all appropriate levels through the publication of periodic reports, emphasising the successes, problems and obstacles encountered.³

5. Four factors were identified at the Summit as particularly relevant to social development:

- (i) The economic, political, social, cultural and legal environment;
- (ii) Poverty, broadly defined in terms of living standards;
- (iii) Productive employment and unemployment;
- (iv) Social integration.

6. The formulation of integrated strategies to achieve Summit goals was left to governments in the context of their specific opportunities and constraints. The

² The Economic Commission for Europe comprises 55 states, conveniently classified into west (or western Europe in the text) and east (or eastern Europe in the text). ‘West’ includes the states of western Europe and a few outside Europe, such as the USA and Canada. ‘East’ here includes the 15 member states of the former Soviet Union (including the Baltic states and the countries of central Asia), those of the former Yugoslav Federal Republic, as well as the central and south-eastern European states.

³ World Summit for Social Development, Programme of Action, 2/C/36/n and 5/A/ 83/j.

Programme of Action, however, provided quantifiable goals, listed in Annex A, in the domains of education, health (including reproductive health), nutrition, safe water and shelter. The target date was mainly the year 2000 (with 2005 or 2015 as alternatives in some cases).

7. Governments were encouraged to monitor and evaluate both qualitatively and quantitatively changes in poverty levels, persistence of, and vulnerability to, poverty, focusing on household income and access to resources and services.⁴ Specific attention was paid to strengthening the capacity of developing countries in this respect.⁵

8. Emphasis was placed also on monitoring employment trends, including the impact of labour policies, skill shortages and surpluses.^{6,7} The Programme of Action stressed the need to analyse the underlying causes of long-term unemployment.⁸ Analysing and reviewing macroeconomic, microeconomic and sectoral policies and their impact on poverty and employment was also encouraged.⁹

b) Design and develop appropriate statistical measures and indicators¹⁰

9. One of the main goals for statistics, addressed at the World Summit, was the need to design and develop authoritative indicators and other statistical information. The growing interdependence between sustained economic growth, social development and ecological protection¹¹, has increased the demand for a wide range of data and their integration in consolidated frameworks.¹²

10. Income and its distribution, wealth, nutrition, physical and mental health, education, literacy, family conditions, underemployment, social exclusion and isolation, homelessness, landlessness, women's unremunerated work, the informal

⁴ idem, Programme of Action 2/ A/29/b

⁵ idem, Programme of Action 2/A/30/c

⁶ World Summit for Social Development, Copenhagen Declaration on Social Development, C/3.

⁷ Programme of Action 3/B/53/a

⁸ idem 3/A/49/f

⁹ idem 5/A/83/a

¹⁰ There is confusion over the term indicator as distinct from statistics. The term indicator was coined in the 1950s as part of a logical process of relating measurement to a very specific purpose. The process consists of identifying the concept or component that is to be measured, for example 'health', or 'participation' or 'total population'. The latter can be measured directly. Health and participation cannot. It is therefore necessary, if health or participation are to be measured, to identify indirect measures. In the case of health (first distinguishing sub-components, such as health care services, health status, etc.) this could be infant mortality, the prevalence of specific diseases, or immunisation coverage, for instance. The challenge is to measure a component as comprehensibly and validly as possible, using the least number of indicators (Cf. 'Social Indicators' in *The Social Science Encyclopedia*, Routledge and Kegan Paul, London, Boston and Henley, 1985). The emphasis in this approach is on the relationship of indicators to what they are intended to indicate. The intention must first be clearly stated and indicators matched to them. The alternative, which is to draw up a list of available indicators and then ask what they could possibly indicate, is not recommended.

¹¹ Copenhagen Declaration on Social Development, Introduction/6

¹² Programme of Action 5/A/83/h

economy and sustainable livelihoods, access to social services, productive employment and unemployment, access to social services, productive employment and unemployment were identified as related to poverty, and data for these items should be made available.¹³

11. The production of disaggregated data by gender¹⁴ was strongly encouraged for each of these areas. Attention was also given to collecting data for certain disadvantaged socio-economic categories such indigenous people, the poor, the elderly, the disabled, homebound, refugees and other asylum seekers, children and young persons. Gender so far has received special attention. The Copenhagen World Summit anticipated some of the issues that were later dealt with at the 4th World Conference on Women, including the need to reduce and monitor discrimination against women and girl-children, as well as the obligation to improve their access to income, resources, education, health care and nutrition.¹⁵

12. Governments were encouraged to develop measurements, criteria and indicators for determining the extent and distribution of absolute poverty in their country and 1996 was set as the target year.¹⁶

13. The World Summit on Social Development acknowledged the urgency of improving data collection methods. Collaboration with academic and research institutions for this purpose was also encouraged.

c) Inform and disseminate

14. A final aspect, which received considerable attention in Copenhagen, was dissemination of information.¹⁷ Two issues were stressed: first, data dissemination is essential for policy makers to design policy programmes and possibly reorient them. Second, access to data is increasingly necessary in order to help the general public make informed decisions and thus build an open political and economic system based on human rights and fundamental freedoms.¹⁸ In this sense data dissemination is a first step in institution building.

15. Countries were reminded in the Programme of Action of their responsibility to ensure maximum public access to information on policy issues and initiatives of collective interest.¹⁹ Moreover attention was drawn to facilitating and promoting the exchange of knowledge and experience, especially among developing countries, through sub-regional and regional organisations.²⁰

16. The following section describes some of the problems in meeting the statistical recommendations. Section III describes the work to date by the international community. Crucial data gaps are identified in Section IV. Section V makes

¹³ idem, 2/A/29/a

¹⁴ idem, r1/B/16/e

¹⁵ Declaration on Social Development, Current Social Situation and Reasons for Convening the Summit, Paragraph 15/b

¹⁶ idem, 2/A/26/d

¹⁷ Programme of Action 1/B/15/b

¹⁸ Programme of Action of the World Summit for Social Development, 1/B/15/b.

¹⁹ idem, 4/A/71/c

²⁰ idem, 2/A/29/f

proposals for the future. Annex B describes the results of an exercise in which global indicators, proposed for the measurement of Summit goals, are tested in the context of eastern Europe.

II. The statistical challenges of Copenhagen 1995 and Geneva 2000

17. The Copenhagen Commitments and Programme of Action have far-reaching implications for national statistical systems and international statistical work. These implications point to the need for a fundamental review and upgrading of statistical infrastructures in support of social development policies. Statistical concepts, definitions and classifications need to be strengthened and adjusted. National and international standards have to be provided and implemented. Analytical frameworks for data production and use have to be reviewed so as to incorporate new concepts and methodological tools. Data from different sources have to be integrated so as to create a system of social development statistics suited to policy analysis and decision making. The issues, reviewed below, are in part conceptual, in part technical.

A. Conceptual problems

a) Statistical requirements of monitoring

18. Policy makers are generally unable to formulate a clear and timely set of requirements for social statistics. The reasons for this are several and varied. Some are linked to the lack of familiarity with statistics, which is a highly technical subject. Others have to do with the long gestation time required for a comprehensive and flexible system of social statistics to be fully operative. Some politicians are reluctant to be bound by, and assessed on the basis of, transparent and unambiguous figures. In many cases, therefore, statisticians must themselves develop programmes, engaging in a regular dialogue with users and anticipating the main thrust of political issues and responses.

19. The Summit provided the essential elements of a conceptual framework. The statistical requirements, however, remained in great part implicit and need to be brought out. The first challenge, therefore, is to clarify what is needed to satisfy potential demand, distinguishing between statistical and non-statistical information.

20. To give an example, in Para. 32 of the Programme of Action it is said that rural poverty would be addressed by:

“Expanding and improving land ownership through such measures as land reform and improving the security of land tenure, and ensuring equal rights of women and men in this respect, developing new agricultural land, promoting fair land rents, making land transfers more efficient and fair, and adjudicating land disputes.”

21. To monitor implementation, the required actions should be listed in sequential (or some other logical) order, beginning perhaps with institutional change (formulating new laws, setting up institutions such as land tribunals, credit banks, providing roads and other means of communication, etc.). These actions could be followed by land

redistribution and improved production. This should result in higher outputs and household incomes and – as a final outcome - in reduced rural poverty.

22. If poverty failed to decline (or has increased) evaluation should attempt to give the reasons, that is identify the steps where the strategy failed so that corrective measures can be taken. Each step should be monitored and evaluated for its impact. Many of the steps would require qualitative statements and descriptions (drafting of laws, for example) to accompany, or in the place of, statistical data.

23. The process is complex, requiring attention to the following:

- (i) It is important to measure not only inputs but also outputs of policy programmes;
- (ii) measurement should take into account medium- and long- term as well as short- term changes. Policies may take time to become effective; there may be no decline in poverty in the short run (say the first five years) while the necessary institutions are put in place for the future;
- (iii) measurement and analysis should focus not only on the static but also the dynamic aspects of social development, following individuals along their life cycle, or considering poverty traps, vicious and virtuous circles;
- (iv) the indirect as well as direct consequences of strategies should be measured;
- (v) some of the impacts are more suitably expressed in terms of qualitative statements or descriptions than as numbers. However, measurement should be attempted, where possible;²¹
- (vi) it is difficult to construct measures and indicators relative to a policy ex-post. To be effective, measurement has to be built into the design and framework of the policy. This implies involving statisticians from the beginning;
- (vii) monitoring requires a certain degree of independence and objectivity. Credibility implies that monitoring is impartial and not controlled by the policy makers who may have a vested interest in the success or failure of a programme;
- (viii) data for analysis of a specific programme should not be collected in a pure ad-hoc fashion. It should on the contrary contribute to institution-building and the development of statistical capacity in the field of social development.

b) Formulating statistical measures

24. Once the goals, targets and steps to reach them have been identified, the problem remains of devising suitable measures and indicators. For example, recommendations in the Summit are for the measurement of poverty in absolute (rather than relative) terms. However, especially in western Europe, the tendency has been to make use of relative concepts (for example, households with incomes below 50 - or some other figure - per cent of median national household income). Which of the concepts is

²¹ It is sometimes believed that certain impacts are more suitably expressed as qualitative statements or descriptions than as numbers or quantitative indicators. This is because often there has not been a sufficient investment in measurement and indicators that are expected to trickle down as automatic by-products of the administrative process.

used depends on the policy – whether for example this is to assist the lowest five per cent of earners (because a government may lack the resources to help a larger proportion), in which case a relative line is appropriate, or to assist all persons with incomes below an absolute minimum.

25. A related question is whether for *purposes of analysis* poverty should be identified in terms of income (or consumption expenditure as a substitute for income) or more broadly in terms of a spectrum of welfare measures that may or may not be associated with low-income. Absence of good health or education might be related to income-poverty – as associated factors, causes or consequences – but are not necessarily the same as (or even highly correlated with) income-poverty. For purposes of analysis it is usually preferable to keep them separate. For policy purposes, similarly, the distinction between income-related poverty and poverty associated with illiteracy or other welfare condition is crucial. Policies to supply minimum incomes are generally quite different from those to supply basic health care or primary education.

26. A major challenge relates to qualitative concepts and how they should be measured. Some of the goals, or conditions on which goal achievement depend, are stated in terms of concepts such as freedom or other human right, for which no evident measures exist as yet. This is not to say that they cannot be quantified, but rather that work is required to find appropriate indicators.

c) The use of global or specific lists

27. There is the broader question whether it makes sense to recommend a single, global list of measures. Whether for example measures suitable in conditions of equatorial Africa are adequate also in eastern Europe. Measurement should be carefully tailored to a specific purpose. All-purpose lists are rarely appropriate because of differences between countries and regions in socio-economic and cultural conditions, but also because of different capacities for data collection. This is the more so where the issues are as complex as in the integrated strategies proposed within the Summit Programme of Action, requiring carefully selected measures.

28. However, there is an increasing need to analyse and compare the different aspects of social development across time and space. Social development remains an issue even in the most advanced and countries. Frameworks should be the object of international dialogue, exchange of experience and ideas. Successes and failures should be compared so that best practises can be identified. International standards are required for this in the field of social development. It is not simply a matter for national concern and policy, but should become also a priority in the international agenda. The challenge is to combine specific national needs with international standards.

d) Integrated systems of social statistics

29. Attempts are underway to further refine statistical tools so as to link social data sets one with another, and with economic data. Integrated systems of social and demographic data, social accounting matrices (SAMs) or satellite accounts all serve to ensure compatibility in concepts, definitions and classifications. They are useful tools that might be developed further to monitor Summit strategies requiring linkages

between economic accounts and social phenomena (associating for example public expenditure to outputs in terms of educational achievement or labour force participation or improved health). If so far little use has been made of such systems it is because they require more complex data than are normally available to statistical offices.

B. *Technical problems*

30. A report by the United Nations Secretary-General to the Economic and Social Council gives an account of some of the main difficulties associated with quality and availability of data.²² Given that statistical activities are often inadequately funded, statistical systems suffer from resource constraints and lack of skilled personnel. Particularly in the field of social development the coverage is in some cases limited to topics for which there is a long history of data collection, and international standards and recommendations are available. The national demand for data on specific topics is relatively new and there is either limited experience on how data are to be collected (e.g., poverty, social exclusion, violence against women, environment) or relevant concepts and methods have been neither developed nor adequately tested.

31. The quality and quantity of statistics on social development vary widely within the region of the ECE. Countries of the Commonwealth of Independent States and some of those of former Yugoslavia are the most affected by the lack of basic data. Only five of the 12 CIS countries have had a population census in the past 11 years and in four of them virtually no data have yet been issued on population and social conditions. The data from establishments and registers, on which statisticians in the former Soviet Union relied in the past, have deteriorated. Surveys, which provide in the West adequate data on issues such as poverty and living standards, are being gradually introduced, but are still insufficient both in breadth and quality.

32. Concepts such as unemployment, underemployment, and poverty are quite new concepts in the newly independent CIS countries and there is little experience in the collection of the data. In more traditional areas, such as employment, health and migration, countries are managing to cope with harmonising their statistical system with standard international definitions and classifications. However, the implementation of such standard classifications in data collection lags behind. Comparisons over time and between countries are therefore still hazardous.

33. In conclusion, the challenges in providing an adequate framework of statistics and indicators for monitoring and supporting the Summit are wide-reaching. Addressing them requires a considerable effort and a concerted approach from the many technical and policy players: the community of statisticians in governments and elsewhere, policy analysts, media, the public. The difficulties cover the entire process, from definitions and concepts, via data collection processing, dissemination and analysis to the revision of the conceptual frameworks required by data production. These difficulties are not only technical. They include also organisational and institutional aspects, for instance how to make a complex and pluralist statistical system work, and

²² United Nations Economic and Social Council, *Integrated and co-ordinated implementation and follow-up of major United Nations conferences and summits: a critical review of the development of indicators in the context of conference follow-up (sic)*, Report of the Secretary-General, E/1999/11, 7 April 1999.

how to ensure that the many actors engaged in social development in government and civil society co-operate. There are also major financial difficulties associated with the high cost of data collection and data quality. This is the case particularly for the poor countries most affected by social disequilibria and distress. Social measurements and indicators are not a free commodity. They require much work, money and a considerable effort and commitment.

34. Possibly, the extent and scope of the statistical challenges underlying the Copenhagen commitments have been underestimated. The efforts made in addressing these difficulties, and the corresponding investments made by the national and international communities may have been insufficient. Certainly, without addressing these statistical challenges in the future, following Geneva 2000, there will be no possibility of reaching the goals set for the next decade and 2015. Indeed, we will not even be able to say whether we are moving in the right direction, or whether we are moving at all.

III. Progress made in implementing the statistical recommendations of the Social Development Summit

35. This section reviews statistical work by international organisations on major concerns raised at the Summit.²³ The framework used here is the same as in Section I. The first sub-section (monitor and evaluate) focuses on social change since the Summit. Given the short time since the Summit and the formidable challenges involved, there is so far relatively little to report under this heading. Most of the work achieved to date has been under the second heading (design and develop). Lists of indicators relating to WSSD as well as other major Summits and conferences have been drafted, while individual organisations have worked on measurement in their own spheres of competence. Sub-section C, finally, contains a brief account of attempts to involve the public through dissemination of information and reports.

A. Monitor and evaluate

36. As mentioned above, actual monitoring and evaluation of progress since the Summit is limited to one global report. A number of reports cover social progress in other contexts at both the global and European levels.

37. A report by the Secretary-General of the United Nations: *Comprehensive report on the implementation of the outcome of the World Summit for Social Development*, (A/AC.253/13 – E/CN.5/2000/2, 14 December 1999) summarises 74 national submissions. These were national responses available by 1999 to the Summit organisers who had requested Governments to monitor implementation. They served as the basis of a global review of social progress. Statistics play a marginal role in the Secretary-General's report.

38. The Population Division of the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs recently issued a report *Charting the Progress of Nations* (United Nations, 2000) which brings together data on 12 variables (broadly matching the goals

²³ Since this paper originated in the Economic Commission for Europe, it is work in this region as well as related global work that is reviewed here.

of the Programme of Action listed in Annex A) to support the charting of Summit implementation.²⁴ In spite of the title, suggestive of time-series, the report supplies data for only one point of time (for most of the variables it is between 1990 and 1996). In this sense, there is no evaluation of change.

39. The Social Watch, an NGO set up to monitor implementation of United Nations Summits, maintains only a limited database for monitoring purposes. However, it signals the increasing interest of NGOs in monitoring social development.

40. Although there is no systematic monitoring of social conditions in the European region as a whole, various reports exist at the sub-regional level. In its annual Regional Monitoring Report, UNICEF provides an account of recent changes in eastern Europe and the CIS (each annual issue of the report specialises on one topic, such as gender or education, but time series for many crucial variables are added in an annex to each report). A report on recent changes in social conditions in eastern Europe, the Baltics and the CIS is available also from the United Nations Research Institute for Social Development (UNRISD). UNRISD is a key agency in the preparations for Geneva 2000. Statistics are not one of its priorities, nonetheless the report was issued as a contribution to monitoring. It deals critically with conceptual issues of measuring recent social change in the region (for example the relevance of traditional indicators in local conditions) confronted with severe problems of poverty and social development generally.²⁵

41. The United Nations and specialised agencies systematically collect relevant data (including data for European countries) for publication in annual statistical yearbooks. Other publications with statistical data directly applicable to monitoring WSSD in the European region include (the list is not exhaustive) UNDP's annual national *Human Development Reports* available for virtually all countries in eastern Europe and the Commonwealth of Independent States (with textual information on issues directly relevant to WSSD, as well as statistical data), the Economic Commission for Europe's *Economic Survey of Europe* (with mainly economic and socio-economic data) and *Trends in Europe and Northern America*, the Council of Europe's annual *Recent Demographic Developments in Europe*, EUROSTAT's *Social Portrait of Europe*.

B. Design and develop

42. As noted in the opening paragraph, most recent statistical work by international organisations related to the Summit has been conceptual. It is presented here under three headings. The first covers multi-purpose lists of indicators emanating from concerns of WSSD and other major conferences, the second reviews work in specific sectors. The third describes other relevant activities.

²⁴ Total population, access to health services, contraceptive prevalence, underweight prevalence among pre-school children, maternal mortality, infant and child mortality, life expectancy at birth, school enrolment, adult literacy, access to safe water, access to sanitation, floor area per person.

²⁵ Wolf Scott, *Recent social trends in eastern Europe, the Baltic States and the Commonwealth of Independent States*, United Nations Research Institute for Social Development, Discussion Paper, Geneva, 2000.

a) Indicator lists and their co-ordination at an inter-agency level

43. In response to the demand of international conferences, many international organisations have expanded their work to include additional indicators for assessing progress toward conference goals²⁶. An example is the indicators set developed within the United Nations Development Assistance Framework (UNDAF) for use in the Common Country Assessment (CCA). This contains about 50 indicators relevant to recent international conferences and summits. It includes quantitative and qualitative indicators on demographic, social, environmental and economic issues as well as human rights and governance.

44. Others indicator sets developed for the same purpose include the Minimum National Social Data Set (MNSDS) and a joint OECD/UN/World Bank set. The MNSDS was developed by an Expert Group that met in 1995 to discuss the statistical implications of recent major conferences²⁷ and was approved by the Statistical Commission in 1997. The OECD/UN/World Bank set includes 21 indicators to monitor progress toward a selection of conference goals as presented in *Shaping the 21st Century: The contribution of Development Co-operation*.

45. Because of the risk of overlapping and duplicating work, work has been undertaken at an inter-agency level to harmonise these various lists. In particular the process of revising the CCA framework has significantly improved the match between the CCA indicators, the largest list, and other indicator sets. As a result the CCA set incorporates most of the indicators of the joint set.

46. The United Nations Statistics Division, in close co-operation with other bodies, has prepared a comprehensive and analytic report 'Basic indicators to measure progress towards the implementation of the integrated and co-ordinated follow-up of all aspects of the major United Nations conferences and summits', as well as another report 'Harmonisation and rationalisation of development indicators in the United Nations system'.²⁸

47. The Economic and Social Council at its substantive session in July 1999 recognised "the importance of relevant, accurate and timely statistics and indicators for evaluating the implementation of the outcomes of the United Nations conferences and summits at all levels".²⁹ In response, the United Nations Statistics Division designed a database framework and constructed a development indicator web-site to identify common international sources of indicators and provide a comprehensive reference system.

²⁶ See *Integrated and co-ordinated implementation and follow-up of major United Nations conferences and summits, a critical review of the development of indicators in the context of conference follow-up*, ECOSOC Substantive session of 1999, E/1999/11.

²⁷ See report of the Expert Group on the Statistical Implications of Recent Major United Nations Conferences (E/CN.3/AC.1/1996/R.4, annex).

²⁸ United Nations Economic and Social Council, *Integrated and co-ordinated implementation and follow-up of major United Nations conferences and summits: a critical review of the development of indicators in the context of conference follow-up (sic)*, Report of the Secretary-General, E/1999/11 (7 April 1999), and Economic and Social Council, Statistical Commission, *Harmonisation and rationalisation of development indicators in the United Nations system*, Report of the Secretary-General, E/CN.3/2000/15 (11 January 2000).

²⁹ E/1999/L.57

48. The Conference of European Statisticians is working on social frameworks so as to more fully integrate the various social sectors, as well as social with economic sectors. The stated objective ‘over the next several years’ is a:

“Renewed effort to develop a coherent framework of internationally comparable social indicators in selected fields ... building selectively on the ideas developed in the 1960s and 1970s, and taking cognisance of the reasons for the failure of efforts at that time.” (Section 4.1)

49. Frameworks are especially valuable in helping to standardise concepts and in establishing international classifications as a basis of cross-national comparison in the Summit follow-up process. Most specialised agencies have contributed to work on such classifications in their domain (such as WHO on the international classification of diseases and of disability, UNESCO on education).

b) Work on sectoral statistics

50. Considerable work is carried out by the international organisations in respect of sectoral statistics. In the ECE region it is summarised in an ‘Integrated Presentation’ provided by the ECE secretariat to the annual sessions of the Conference of European Statisticians (CES), in co-operation especially with OECD and EUROSTAT. Although the work of the international organisations is described in the European context, much of it (and especially that of the specialised agencies, which are global in character) has global as well as regional application. Only selected aspects, particularly relevant to WSSD, are noted below. A full account is provided in the relevant CES documents.³⁰

51. The most recent report at the time of drafting the present document (CES/1999/30/ and additions) dated 24 August 1999³¹, covering the 47th Plenary Session of the Conference, contains a detailed work programme in social and demographic statistics under 14 headings.³² Implementation of WSSD or other Summits is barely mentioned in the document, but much of the proposed work (in the two-year period from mid 1999 to mid 2001 covered by the document) has a direct bearing on Summit recommendations. Only the items most relevant to the Summit (income, poverty, employment, education and health) are noted here:

(i) Incomes, poverty, social exclusion

³⁰ Economic and Social Council, Conference of European Statisticians, *Programme of International Statistical Work in the ECE Region, 1999/2000 and 2000/2001: An Integrated Presentation*, CES/1999/30 and additions, August 1999.

³¹ A more recent report, covering the 48th Plenary Session has since become available.

³² Social indicators and frameworks, gender statistics, multi-purpose social surveys, registers and administrative records for social and demographic statistics, population and housing censuses, health, crime and criminal justice, education and training, culture, labour, demography (including projections, migration, fertility and families and households), human settlements and housing, household income and expenditure (including welfare, poverty and income inequality), population groups of special interest (CES/1999/30/Add.4)

52. Linking data more closely to policies is a concern of several of the agencies. In the programme element in the Integrated Presentation concerned with incomes and poverty, the objectives is:

“To facilitate the development of comprehensive, comparable, reliable and timely statistics describing the distribution of the capacity of individuals, families and households to acquire goods and services; to identify the sources of inequality in incomes; to understand processes of social exclusion; to assess the need for intervention in the distribution of incomes; to target interventions deemed necessary and to monitor the effectiveness of such interventions.”
(op.cit., Section 4.13)

52. There has been increased interest in recent years in poverty and social exclusion in the European Union, and this is reflected in work at EUROSTAT, the statistical office of the Union, on conceptual issues in the measurement of poverty and social exclusion.³³ A Task Force appointed to examine the methods of income-related poverty preferred relative to absolute measures of poverty for the region (while acknowledging the preference by other agencies and governments for *absolute* poverty lines). The preferred choice by the Task Force was for several, alternative poverty lines respectively 40, 50 and 60 per cent of median national household income. Using data from national household surveys, the Task Force also examined other methodological alternatives, such as various units of measurement, equivalence scales, the use of mean rather than median income, the inclusion of imputed rents and non-cash income.

53. As regards social exclusion, the Programme Committee reported that:

“Generally accepted definitions for policy purposes are not available. The Task Force decided not to define social exclusion.”

However, because – the Committee said - in the long run a statistical concept must be defined, it examined alternative approaches to future work on the subject.

54. Other work on income reported in the Integrated Presentation includes a social expenditure database at OECD; an information system on social exclusion and poverty by EUROSTAT; compilation of data on household income and expenditure by ILO; collection, processing and analysis of income and expenditure data by the Interstate Statistical Committee of the CIS, as well as work on standards on conceptual and practical issues by the Canberra and Luxembourg Income Study Groups.

55. The World Bank’s work on poverty at both global and national levels, including poverty reduction strategies (PRS) and Common Development Framework (CDF) should be noted in this context.

³³ See for example: EUROSTAT, Report on the 31st Meeting of the Statistical Programme Committee, Recommendations on Social exclusion and poverty statistics, Luxembourg, November 1998.

(ii) Labour market

56. Employment strategies have been a major concern in the European Union between 1995 and 2000. Agencies have collaborated to provide the data (through continuous labour force surveys, for example) to describe labour market conditions and to identify the underlying causal conditions. This includes development of a labour accounting system as a link to the system of national accounts, as well as instruments of measuring skills of workers (op.cit., 4.10). Data dissemination through publication and on websites is a stated objective of most of the agencies.

57. For example, the International Labour Office (ILO) published the World Employment Report 1998-99 *Employability in the Global Economy: How Training Matters* was published by the (ILO) as an answer to the concern about “sustainable livelihoods” raised at the World Summit for Social Development. To assist with conceptual work, ILO also identified a set of 18 issues related to the labour market including, among others, labour force, employment, unemployment, part time employment, hours of work, the urban informal sector, long duration of unemployment. OECD has been reviewing and improving the contents of its database on labour force statistics to enhance the relevance of the database for analysis. Methodological work on unemployment rates by OECD and EUROSTAT is also directly relevant to WSSD.

(iii) Health

58. The World Health Organisation collects a data set for Europe to guide the evaluation of the Health for All strategies. UNICEF has designed multiple indicator cluster surveys (MICS) to assist countries in reviewing the implementation of the recommendations of the 1990 World Summit for Children in the fields mainly of health and education. Health accounting is a concern of several agencies, including OECD, EUROSTAT, WHO and the World Bank. Many of the agencies, including WHO and EUROSTAT are reviewing health measures and indicators as well as classifications of diseases and disability.

(iv) Education

59. OECD has attempted novel work, described for example in the 1997 publication *Education at a Glance: OECD Indicators* (OECD, Paris,1997), in respect of education statistics. Literacy surveys were conducted in a number of European and other industrialised countries to establish indices of functional literacy. UNESCO is continuing work on the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED 1997) and publications. EUROSTAT similarly reports through its annual *Education across the European Union*.

(v) Disaggregated data³⁴

60. Collection and dissemination of disaggregated data was a major concern in Copenhagen, and one that has resulted in prompt action, especially as regards gender.

³⁴ The title in the Integrated Presentation is ‘Statistics on population groups of special interest’. Gender statistics are discussed in the presentation under a separate heading.

An entire programme element is devoted to gender statistics in the Integrated Presentation covering a wide range of activity in all agencies to present all appropriate data segregated by gender. Thus, OECD has extended the coverage of unemployment rates by supplying data disaggregated by gender and age (in co-operation with EUROSTAT). EUROSTAT is working on time use surveys especially in relation to gender issues, including: equal opportunity policies; information on the gender division of unpaid work (housework, care of children, sick, disabled persons or elderly, voluntary work) and volume and value of unpaid work. ECE has worked on a publication: *Women and Men in the ECE Region*, UNSD is preparing a fourth version of its WISTAT database.

61. Gender apart, the OECD's Territorial Development Service is developing a procedure for collecting data for sub-national regions at two levels: big regions (the first sub-national administrative level) and small regions (the second sub-national level). Statistics on settlement and economic structure as well as some social aspects are becoming available at both these levels. ECE's Population Activity Unit is working on population ageing and the status of older persons, ILO on child labour, the Council of Europe on the demographic situation of national minorities.

c) Other initiatives (training and research)

62. For many years international organisations have provided assistance to countries to strengthen their capacity to provide data. Funding agencies such as UNFPA and UNDP have been particularly active in supporting data collection activities such as censuses and reproductive health and living standards surveys. UNDP has trained country staff in human development reporting and has given considerable help in the formulation of poverty strategies in eastern Europe.

63. In the ECE region, various organisations have provided financial as well as technical support. For example, the Statistical Division of ECE (with financial support from UNDP, UNFPA and the Council of Europe) has been active in training statisticians in the ECE region in various social, as well as economic, domains. Research on social statistics has been assisted, under the auspices of the Conference of European Statisticians, by the Siena Group for Social Statistics and by ECLAC through the Rio Group for poverty statistics who have focused on topics such as:³⁵

- Income distribution and poverty;
- Calculation of poverty lines;
- Poverty alleviation policies and vulnerable groups;
- National accounts, economic analysis and social statistics;
- Social reporting and social accounting;
- Monitoring social exclusion in education and labour markets;
- Intergenerational relations and social mobility;
- On the way to a multicultural society;
- Families at the end of the twentieth century;
- Accounting in social statistics and indicators for social development (E/CN.3/2000/14).

³⁵ These groups includes experts from countries and international organisations. These groups report to the Statistical Commission.

64. The International Summer School on Social Statistics, founded by the Siena Group in co-operation with the Training Institute for European Statisticians and the University of Siena, has selected as topics “Inequality and equity” and “Participation, discrimination and exclusion”,³⁶ topics that received special attention in Copenhagen.

C. *Inform and disseminate*

65. As noted in Section I, two potential audiences for data dissemination were identified at the Summit: first, policy makers, second the general public, including the poor and other targeted audiences.

66. Traditionally data are disseminated by means of printed publications of which a number of relevant examples were previously cited. The United Nations secretariat and specialised agencies within the United Nations system have always contributed to the dissemination of statistical information through publications. Relevant examples are UNDP’s *Human Development Report*, the *World Development Report*, ILO’s *World Employment Report*, UNICEF’s *The State of the World’s Children*, UNSD’s five-yearly *The World’s Women, Year 2000 Assessment*.

67. In data dissemination, international standards should be observed. Guidance is provided in another context by the International Monetary Fund through the SDDS (Special Data Dissemination System) and GDDS (General Data Dissemination Systems) IMF have stressed the importance of metadata (explanatory information on definitions, collecting and processing methods, dissemination calendars, etc.).

68. It is difficult to assess the extent to which information in these reports reaches the public. Many reports have very limited circulation, although some of the information in them reaches a wider audience through the media.

69. The Internet has the potential for improving the situation. All international organisations and agencies have web-sites, which may greatly increase the access to data and information both for the general public and NGOs. Again, the extent to which they reach their audience is largely unknown.

IV. Remaining gaps

70. Since Copenhagen, the awareness of the importance of social development statistics has been growing among statisticians and in policy circles.

71. Much remains to be done, however. The situation varies among countries, a fact that is reflected in the Secretary-General’s report on implementation of the WSSD.³⁷ A reader seeking an answer globally as to progress in social conditions, or more precisely on the recommendations of WSSD, would have reason to feel disappointed

³⁶ E/CN.3/2000/14.

³⁷ General Assembly and Economic and Social Council, *Comprehensive report on the implementation of the outcome of the World Summit for Social Development*, Report of the Secretary-General, A/AC.253/13 and E/CN.5/2002/2, 14 December 1999.

in the statistical information available so far. The situation is possibly better in the ECE region than some other regions, but gaps remain even there:

a) The conceptual framework linking Summit goals and strategies to requirements for data is still largely implicit. Strategies need to be spelt out in terms of sequential steps that eventually lead to final outcomes (such as poverty reduction in a specific areas or socio-economic groups), so that each sequence can be adequately monitored and evaluated.

b) Global lists of indicators and global goals do not necessarily fit the specific needs of regions and sub-regions. In the ECE region where concerns vary widely as between sub-regions (east and west) and are very different in part from those in other regions, the need is felt for a targeted regional approach or a stronger regional component in the overall strategy. This is illustrated in Annex B in which concepts and indicators were tested in the eastern part of the ECE region (including eastern Europe, the Baltics and the CIS). The Summit goals relating to adult literacy or primary enrolment, for example, are not relevant to conditions in eastern Europe.

c) Some of the key items are insufficiently defined or are subject to disagreement among agencies and governments. There is no agreement yet globally, even within the ECE region, for example, on how to measure poverty in relation to given objectives. Clarification is required, similarly, on social integration (or social exclusion) as a concept, exactly what this is and how it might be measured.

d) Difficulties have arisen in the measurement of quality (rather than quantity) in education or health and other aspects of levels of living. The problem in many parts of eastern Europe or the CIS, for example, is not so much low school enrolment than the quality of what is taught and the condition of schools. In health, it is less the number of beds and doctors that counts than the quality of health care provided (and the relatively high cost of services in terms of incomes).

There is growing interest in such structural or qualitative characteristics that, although they are not part of traditional 'development assets', are increasingly considered as crucial for sustainable social and economic development. Examples are the quality of governance, the protection of human rights or the respect of the rule of law.³⁸

The term 'social capital' (another example of a qualitative concept) was introduced to describe the benefits of association among people and organisations, in their relationship for example to participation in government and public institutions generally. Even if ongoing work is promising, it is not clear at present how this and similar concepts fit into the models of WSSD strategies.

e) Data collection remains a problem more for transition and developing countries than for western Europe and other advanced OECD countries. Most OECD countries have regular census programmes and established systems of social surveys, as well as

³⁸ The UN/WB/OECD working group on indicators speaks of "effective democratic and accountable governance, the protection of human rights and respect for the rule of law as a goal (Economic and Social Council, Statistical Commission, *Harmonisation and rationalisation of development indicators in the United Nations system*, Report of the Secretary-General, E/CN.3/2000/15).

the use of administrative registers. This is not necessarily the case in transition and developing countries. The census programme of CIS countries, for instance, is well behind schedule. Census data are by now 11 years old or older and, because of major shifts of population in recent years, invalid in many cases. Because of the prevailing economic austerity in much of eastern Europe and in some cases absence of central direction, moreover, administrative sources have become outdated and unreliable. Absence of data on crucial elements in certain key sectors, such as housing, safe water or sanitation, is a major problem in some of these countries. Data may exist, but they may not be relevant. Thus, habitable space per person, for which data are sometimes available, is less important for example than the degree of maintenance of houses or the provision of services such as electricity and safe water, on which few data exist.

f) Annex B also demonstrates deficiencies in many commonly used indicators for conceptual reasons or data quality. The following are examples:

- (i) Production (GDP) data are highly sensitive in the eastern European region to variations in the shadow (mainly unrecorded) economy, which is probably larger in eastern Europe than in the West.
- (ii) Underemployment appears as a much greater problem than unemployment in the region. It was policy for example in some of the countries of the CIS to maintain the labour force at high levels, irrespective of production, but without or with only nominal wages and with arrangements involving part-time work.
- (iii) Since employment at low wages is a major cause of poverty in the region, employment as such is only one factor to consider. It should be combined with wage data, and both related to households rather than individuals.
- (iv) Measurement of infant mortality in the region is still in practice influenced in some of the countries by outdated definitions.
- (v) Maternal mortality is subject in the smaller countries to considerable random fluctuation, etc.

g) Many of the data are insufficiently disaggregated, for example by gender, but also in respect of other significant socio-economic categories and by regions.

h) In spite of considerable progress in recent years, much remains to be done in respect of data dissemination, so as to inform as broad a public as possible, satisfying the criteria of comprehensiveness, timeliness, accessibility and user-friendliness. These difficulties have long been underestimated by the statistical community, a cause of sometimes difficult relationships between statisticians, policy-makers and the public at large.

V. Proposals for future work: towards a system for monitoring social development

72. Geneva 2000 provides a much needed platform to review what has been accomplished and identify what remains to be done to improve statistics for social development.

73. The proposals below, which are linked to the results and gaps identified in previous sections, aim at developing a process to monitor and evaluate on a regular basis the implementation of the statistical recommendations of the Social Summit. They cover conceptual issues as well as data collection, dissemination and analysis.

74. Monitoring and evaluating progress towards social development was entrusted at the Summit to governments, to be assisted by international organisations. The work, therefore, should be promoted first and foremost at the national level, but an international framework is required to co-ordinate the work and provide technical support. The Statistical Division of the Economic Commission for Europe is particularly well placed to contribute to the development and implementation of such a framework, based on the work of the Conference of European Statisticians and the role the Conference plays in international statistical co-operation.

75. Although the proposals are made here in respect of the European region of the United Nations they might apply equally to the other regions. In this sense, the European case would serve as a case-study from which other regions might wish to draw relevant lessons.

76. The main steps of the process would be as follows:

- (i) Review the Summit recommendations to identify their stated and implicit statistical requirement. These would include statistical data not only in respect of the end-products (such as poverty-reduction) but also for the intermediate, supportive phases in strategies (such as improved communications and other infrastructure), since many of these also require data. This review would parallel and as appropriate serve as a model for, national strategy reviews.
- (ii) Assist with the selection of measures and indicators appropriate to the region, supplementing global lists.
- (iii) Help with the measurement of concepts that, in the past, have been difficult to measure. Examples were given in Section 4 above. What, for example is meant by social integration (a key objective in Copenhagen), and how, once defined, can it be measured? What is meant by productive employment and how is it measured in relation to poverty? How are key factors in social development, such as active participation, human rights or corruption defined and measured? Which of these or similar concepts might be covered by descriptive or ordinal methods rather than cardinal quantification?
- (iv) Assist with standardisation of definitions, concepts and classifications. For example, a standardised concept of poverty is required for international comparability. There are two problems: first to reach agreement among countries on concepts appropriate for example to poverty strategies (absolute or relative poverty, income-related or broader concepts of poverty, etc.), secondly to agree on techniques to match the concept or concepts.
- (v) Continue to assist with guidelines for integrated systems of social statistics (including 'social accounts'), covering a variety of social domains and sources, including the required institutional infrastructure for this purpose.

- (vi) Assist those countries that request it, with data collection, analysis and dissemination.

77. Governments and international organisations might consider a “social benchmark programme” to consolidate the statistical infrastructure of social development. Under this programme, a first step would be to establish in each participating country what relevant data are available in the required validity and degree of disaggregation. Data gaps would be identified and reasons for the absence of data noted. Analysis of national monitoring reports submitted so far by 74 governments suggests that countries in the region have very uneven resources and capabilities. The causes of such difficulties are relatively minor in some cases, but serious in others.

78. In so far as these difficulties can be overcome countries would need to newly collect, evaluate and analyse the previously missing data, which would be used to describe current social conditions as a benchmark for future monitoring.

79. Once the benchmarks are identified, countries should be assisted also with the formulation of goals and targets, appropriate to regional and sub-regional (rather than global) conditions.

80. The above should be done in co-operation among the main international agencies, non-governmental organisations and others engaged as producers or users of data related to social development.

80. Assistance by international organisations would be rendered through:

- Publications describing technical work under (i) to (v) above,
- Workshops and technical seminars,
- Direct in-country technical assistance.
- Direct assistance with the collection and evaluation of the benchmark data.

81. Given their expertise and tradition of mutual collaboration and exchange, national statistical agencies should play a key role in this programme, also acting as intermediaries between national non-statistical and international organisations.

Annex A. ‘Quantifiable’ Goals in the Summit Programme of Action

- a) “By the year 2000, provide universal access to basic education and completion of primary education by at least 80 per cent of primary school children; closing the gender gap in primary and secondary school education by the year 2005; universal primary education in all countries before the year 2015;
- b) By the year 2000, achieve life expectancy of not less than 60 in any country;
- c) By the year 2000, reduction of mortality rates of infant and children under five years of age by one third of the 1990 level, or 50 to 70 per 1,000 live births, whichever is less; by the year 2015, achievement of an infant mortality rate below 35 per 1,000 live births, and an under-five mortality rate below 45 per 1,000;
- d) By the year 2000, a reduction in maternal mortality by one half of the 1990 level; by the year 2015, a further reduction by one half;
- e) Achieving food security by ensuring a safe and nutritionally adequate food supply, at both the national and internationally levels, a reasonable degree of stability in the supply of food, as well as physical, social and economic access to enough food for all, while reaffirming that food should not be used as a tool for political pressure;
- f) By the year 2000, a reduction of severe and moderate malnutrition among children under five years of age by half of the 1990 level;
- g) By the year 2000, attainment by all peoples of the world of a level of health that will permit them to lead a socially and economically productive life, and to this end, ensuring primary health care for all;
- h) Making accessible through the primary health care system reproductive health to all individuals of appropriate ages as soon as possible and no later than the year 2015, in accordance with the Programme of Action of the International Conference on Population and Development, and taking into account the reservations and declarations made at that Conference, especially those concerning the need for parental guidance and parental responsibility;
- i) Strengthening efforts and increasing commitments with the aim, by the year 2000, of reducing malaria mortality and morbidity by at least 20 per cent compared to 1995 levels in at least 75 per cent of affected countries as well as reducing social and economic losses due to malaria in the developing countries, especially in Africa, where the overwhelming majority of both cases and deaths occur;
- j) By the year 2000, eradicating, eliminating or controlling major diseases constituting global health problems;
- k) Reducing the adult literacy rate – the appropriate age group to be determined in each country – to at least half its 1990 level, with an emphasis on female literacy; achieving universal access to quality education, with particular priority being given

to primary and technical education and job training, combating illiteracy and eliminating gender disparities in access to, retention in, and support for, education;

- l) Providing, on a sustainable basis, access to safe drinking water in sufficient quantities, and proper sanitation for all;
- m) Improving the availability of affordable and adequate shelter for all in accordance with the Global Strategy for Shelter to the Year 2000.

Annex B. Poverty monitoring in Europe - an application

1. As noted above, work especially by UNICEF, ECE, UNDP and UNRISD have resulted in a respectable body of data that can be used to monitor change in the more poverty-vulnerable eastern part of the ECE region.³⁹ The brief account that follows is intended to highlight some conceptual and practical problems - for example the use of global lists of indicators or global goals as applied to specific requirements of particular regions. The focus is on the countries of the ECE; but some of the underlying difficulties and gaps can be considered to have broader application and interest.

Poverty in Eastern Europe

2. Monitoring requires a comprehensive scenario capable of conceptually linking the various aspects of economy and society relevant to the process of social development. In the highly simplified scenario presented below only a few of the possible links are specified by way of example. Thus, the level of production provides the background. The link between production and levels of living (expressed here in terms of income, nutrition, health and education) is provided by public social expenditure, employment (and unemployment and underemployment), wages and public welfare benefits.

3. Many of the examples are taken from countries of the CIS in some of which poverty is more pronounced, and recent changes less positive, than elsewhere in the region.

4. The figures in Table 1 provide the basic economic background. They show: (a) the dramatic fall in production after 1989, especially in the CIS (Caucasus, Western CIS and Central Asia in the table); (b) the differences in the degree of decline among the sub-regions (central Europe being consistently less affected than the rest); (c) stabilisation around the middle of the decade and the beginning of recovery; (d) the fact that as of 1998 all but three countries had production still below their 1989 levels, some of them substantially below.

³⁹ 'Eastern Europe' is used in this Annex to include central and south-east Europe, the Baltic states and the twelve republics of the CIS (including the central Asian republics).

Table 1
Growth/decline in real GDP/NMP* 1985 to 1998 (1989=100)

	1985	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Central Europe	92	100	92	83	82	84	87	93	97	103	106
Croatia**	100	100	93	73	64	59	63	67	71	76	78
Czech Republic	91	100	99	87	85	85	87	93	96	98	95
Hungary	94	100	97	85	82	82	84	86	87	91	95
Poland	90	100	88	82	84	88	92	99	105	112	117
Slovakia	91	100	98	83	78	75	79	84	90	96	100
Slovenia	101	100	92	84	79	81	86	89	92	97	101
S.E. Europe	98	100	93	81	71	67	69	74	75	72	70
Bulgaria	90	100	91	83	77	76	78	80	72	67	69
Romania	103	100	94	82	75	76	79	85	88	82	76
Albania	88	100	90	65	60	66	71	81	88	82	89
FYR Macedonia	96	100	90	84	77	70	69	68	68	69	71
Yugoslavia	99	100	92	81	59	41	42	44	47	50	52
Baltics	81	100	98	90	68	58	55	56	59	63	66
Estonia	86	100	92	83	71	65	64	66	69	77	80
Latvia	81	100	103	92	60	51	52	51	53	56	58
Lithuania	80	100	97	91	72	60	54	56	59	62	65
Caucasus	99	100	89	80	55	42	37	36	38	40	43
Armenia	96	100	95	83	49	44	47	50	53	54	58
Azerbaijan	99	100	88	88	68	52	42	37	37	40	44
Georgia	100	100	85	67	40	26	23	24	27	30	31
Western CIS	90	100	97	91	79	71	60	56	54	55	53
Belarus	85	100	98	97	88	81	71	63	65	72	79
Moldova	83	100	98	81	57	57	39	38	35	36	33
Russian Fed.	91	100	97	92	79	72	63	60	58	59	56
Ukraine	89	100	96	88	79	68	52	46	41	40	39
Central Asia	89	100	100	95	83	78	69	66	67	69	71
Kazakstan	91	100	99	88	83	76	66	61	61	62	61
Kyrgyzstan	83	100	105	97	83	70	56	53	57	63	64
Tajikistan	92	100	100	92	62	52	41	36	30	30	32
Turkmenistan	90	100	102	97	83	84	69	64	69	61	64
Uzbekistan	88	100	99	99	88	86	81	81	82	86	90

* NMP (Net material product, as used instead of GDP in the Soviet era) in countries of the former Soviet Union 1985 to 1990 (1992 in Turkmenistan). To ensure continuity in comparisons these data were chain linked to GDP data as from 1990.

** Gross material product 1985 to 1989

Source: UNECE, Economic Survey of Europe 99/1

E1/1

5. The figures in Table 1 however may not take sufficiently into account the size and role of the shadow economy, covering a wide range of informal activities that has enabled people to survive, but fail to be properly registered and valued in the official accounts.

6. The next question is how factors such as public expenditure, employment, wages or social benefits have fared:

“Have recent economic gains (i.e., gains in GDP where they took place) been translated into social benefits? Links between economic growth and social change are complex. At its simplest, the turmoil of the first years of independence - as production and trade declined massively, and factories closed for lack of markets or

ready sources of raw-materials, while in some of the countries armed conflict exacerbated an already disastrous economic situation - left many unemployed and an even larger number of persons still nominally employed, but with derisory remuneration. Tax revenues declined to a degree that governments were unable to pay adequate social welfare benefits. Pensioners and others saw their incomes reduced to a pittance. Services, such as health and education, that were financed mainly from central budgets or by now defunct enterprises, declined in quantity and even more in quality.” (Scott, op.cit., p.6)

7. “To take one, fairly typical, example, public expenditure on health in Georgia declined between 1990 and 1998 from about 4 to 0.7 per cent of GDP, on education from 5 to 1.5 per cent. When account is taken of the more than three-fold decline in GDP, this amounts to a decline in real terms to 1/18th in health and 1/17th in education”⁴⁰ (Table 2)

Table 2
Proportion of GDP spent on public education, selected countries, 1989 to 1996 (standardised for changes in GDP)

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996
Czech Republic	4.0	4.1	3.7	4.1	4.8	5.1	5.2	5.6
Albania	4.0	3.9	4.1	3.4	2.9	2.6	3.3	2.8
Bulgaria	...	4.6	4.1	4.5	4.2	3.6	3.1	2.4
Latvia	5.8	4.9	3.9	2.8	3.1	3.1	3.4	3.4
Russian Fed.	...	3.6	3.3	2.8	2.9	2.8	2.1	2.1
Georgia	5.2	5.2	4.3	1.5	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.3
Kyrgyzstan	7.5	8.4	1.3	0.8	2.9	3.4	3.5	3.1

Basic figures before adjustment: UNICEF, MONEE

E2/11

8. Unemployment and, possibly even more so, insufficiently remunerated employment are crucial factors affecting poverty in Eastern Europe. That employment (Table 3) did not decline in the CIS to the same extent as production (the relative decline was much greater in central Europe) was a matter of social policy more than economic necessity (Charts 1 and 2). Staff was maintained often with little or no pay (on unremunerated leave, for example). These are conditions of underemployment, not far removed from outright unemployment, inadequately described in currently available statistics.

⁴⁰ Scott, op.cit., p.10.

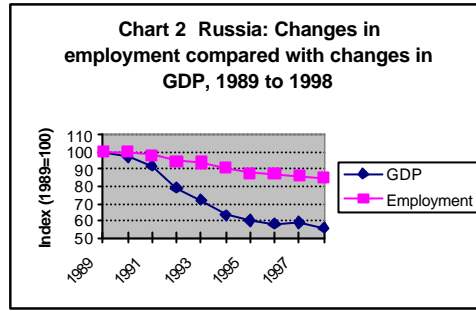
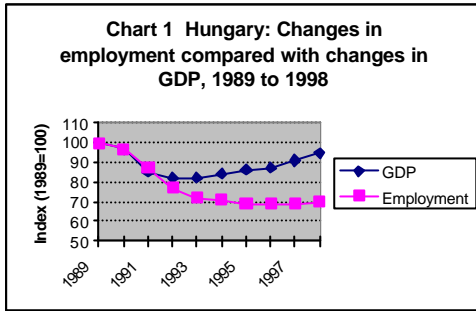
Table 3
Employment, 1989 to 1998 (index numbers, 1989=100)

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Central Europe										...
Croatia	100	97	89	78	76	75	74	74	73	...
Czech Republic	100	99	94	91	90	90	93	93	92	90
Hungary	100	97	87	77	72	71	69	69	69	70
Poland	100	96	90	86	84	85	87	88	91	91
Slovakia	100	98	86	80	80	79	81	81	81	81
Slovenia	100	96	89	84	81	79	79	79	79	79
S.E. Europe										...
Bulgaria	100	94	82	75	74	74	75	75	73	71
Romania	100	99	99	96	92	92	87	86	82	81
Albania	100	99	98	76	73	81	79	78	77	77
FYR Macedonia	100	99	96	91	86	82	74	71	67	65
Yugoslavia	100	97	94	91	88	87	85	85	89	90
Baltics										
Estonia	100	99	96	91	85	83	78	77	77	76
Latvia	100	100	99	92	86	77	74	72	74	74
Lithuania	100	97	100	98	93	88	86	87	88	87
Caucasus										
Armenia	100	102	105	99	97	94	93	90	86	85
Azerbaijan	100	101	106	101	101	99	99	101	101	101
Georgia	100	102	93	74	66	65	79	79	83	83
Western CIS										
Belarus	100	99	97	94	93	90	85	84	84	85
Moldova*	100	99	99	98	81	80	80	79	79	78
Russian Fed.	100	100	98	95	94	91	88	87	86	85
Ukraine	100	100	98	96	94	91	93	91	89	88
Central Asia										
Kazakstan	100	101	100	98	90	85	85	85	84	82
Kyrgyzstan	100	101	100	106	97	95	94	95	97	98
Tajikistan	100	103	105	102	99	99	99	92	95	96
Turkmenistan	100	103	105	105	110	112	112	111	112	...
Uzbekistan	100	104	109	109	109	110	111	112	114	115

Source: UNECE, Economic Survey of Europe 99/3

* Figures without Transnistria since 1993.

E1/13



Source: Scott, op.cit., based on data from *Economic Survey of Europe*, 1999/1 E2/10

9. The unemployment figures vary greatly, depending on whether their source is registration or labour force surveys.

Table 4
Alternative unemployment rates, 1995 to 1998
 (% of economically active)

	Registered unemployed					Survey or estd. data 1996/97/98
	end year (%)				change (%) 1998 over 1997	
	1995	1996	1997	1998		
Central Europe						
Croatia	17.6	15.9	17.6	18.6	1.0	...
Czech Republic	2.9	3.5	5.2	7.5	2.3	5.7
Hungary	10.4	10.5	10.4	9.1	-1.3	8.6
Poland	14.9	13.2	10.5	10.4	-0.1	11.5
Slovakia	13.1	12.8	12.5	15.6	3.1	11.6
Slovenia	14.5	14.4	14.8	14.6	-0.2	7
S.E. Europe						
Bulgaria	11.1	12.5	13.7	12.2	-1.5	15.7
Romania	9.5	6.6	8.8	10.3	1.5	...
Albania	13.1	12.1	14.9	17.6	2.7	...
FYR Macedonia	37.2	40.0	43.0	31.9
Yugoslavia	24.7	26.1	25.6	27.2	1.6	17.7
Baltics						
Estonia	5.0	5.6	4.6	5.1	0.5	10.5
Latvia	6.6	7.2	6.7	9.2	2.5	14.4
Lithuania	7.3	6.2	6.7	6.9	0.2	14.1
Caucasus						
Armenia	8.1	9.7	11.0	8.9	-2.1	26
Azerbaijan	1.1	1.1	1.3	8.9	7.6	20-26
Georgia	3.4	3.2	2.6	2.3	-0.3	15**
Western CIS						
Belarus	2.7	4.0	2.8	1.4	-1.4	14
Moldova	1.4	1.5	1.7	1.9	0.2	18-20
Russian Fed.	3.2	9.3	9.0	12.4	3.4	9.5
Ukraine	0.6	1.5	2.8	4.3	1.5	10.7
Central Asia						
Kazakstan	2.1	4.1	3.9	3.7	-0.2	10-11
Kyrgyzstan	3.0	4.5	3.1	3.1	0.0	11
Tajikistan	1.8	2.4	2.8	2.9	0.1	14
Turkmenistan	28
Uzbekistan	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.1	12-14

Sources: Registration data: UNECE, *Economic Survey of Europe*, 98/1; survey etc. data from UNDP, NHDRs, various dates.

* Data from surveys or estimates.

**1998

E1/10

10. In eastern Europe, poverty is closely linked to low wages as well as unemployment. In many cases, moreover, a single earner must support a large household. It would be useful, therefore, to combine wage with employment data, and in turn with numbers of earners in households. In other words, employment and wage data, now available for individuals, should thus be related to households, which are the ultimate unit of consumption and the unit also for which poverty is normally calculated.⁴¹

⁴¹This is so even if the nominal unit in poverty measurement is the individual.

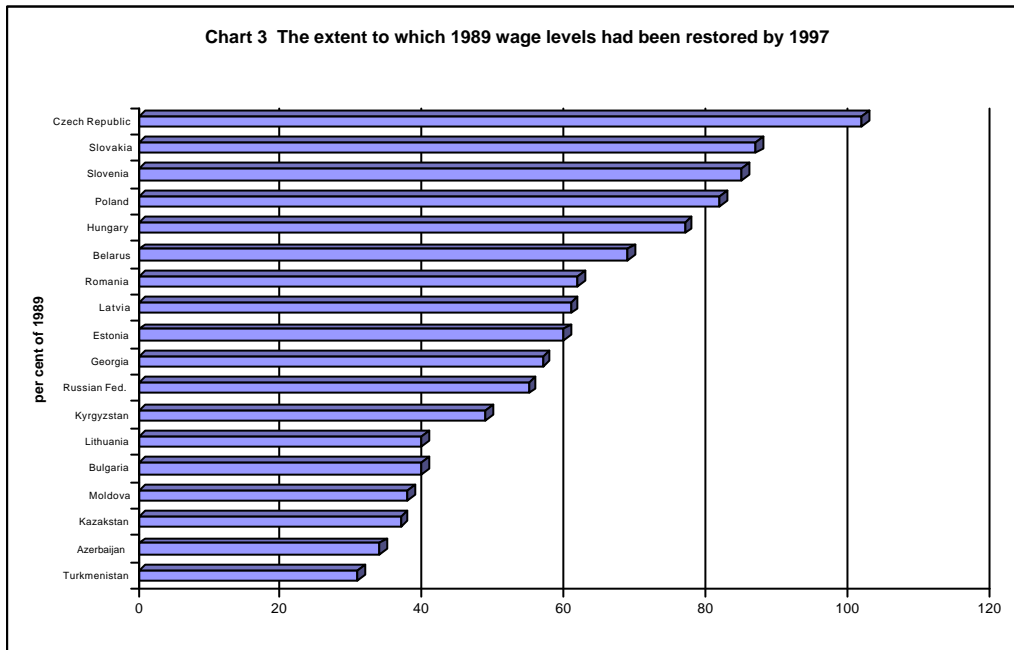
Table 5
Growth in real wages, 1996 to 1998

	Real wages		
	% growth over previous year		
	1996	1997	1998
Central Europe			
Croatia	10.9	6.5	14.4
Czech Republic	12.2	6.9	5.1
Hungary	-0.7	0.6	4.4
Poland	11.3	7.0	7.2
Slovakia	10.3	4.5	5.2
Slovenia	6.8	5.5	4.6
S.E. Europe			
Bulgaria	-10.0	9.4	-2.9
Romania	5.7	-20.1	16.1
FYR Macedonia	3.7	-1.8	...
Yugoslavia	2.4	1.2	8.6
Baltics			
Estonia	9.1	10.0	11.4
Latvia	5.7	13.8	15.7
Lithuania	10.6	16.8	17.6
Caucasus			
Armenia	8.8	-0.3	27.1
Azerbaijan	-14.8	27.9	46.4
Western CIS			
Belarus	18.3	-1.0	20.0
Moldova	2.2	-4.8	14.3
Russian Fed.	-1.1	4.2	5.9
Ukraine	22.5	1.2	-4.9
Central Asia			
Kazakstan	8.8	8.6	12.0
Kyrgyzstan	-12.2	...	14.3
Tajikistan	-19.1	-14.9	39.7
Turkmenistan	...	-12.8	113
Uzbekistan	-10.7	10.0	7.1

Source: UNECE, Economic Survey of Europe, 99/1
Nominal wages deflated by producer price index.
Jan-Sep 1998 over the corresponding period in
1997 except in Poland, Romania, Slovakia,
Lithuania, Belarus, Kyrgystan and the Russian
Federation.

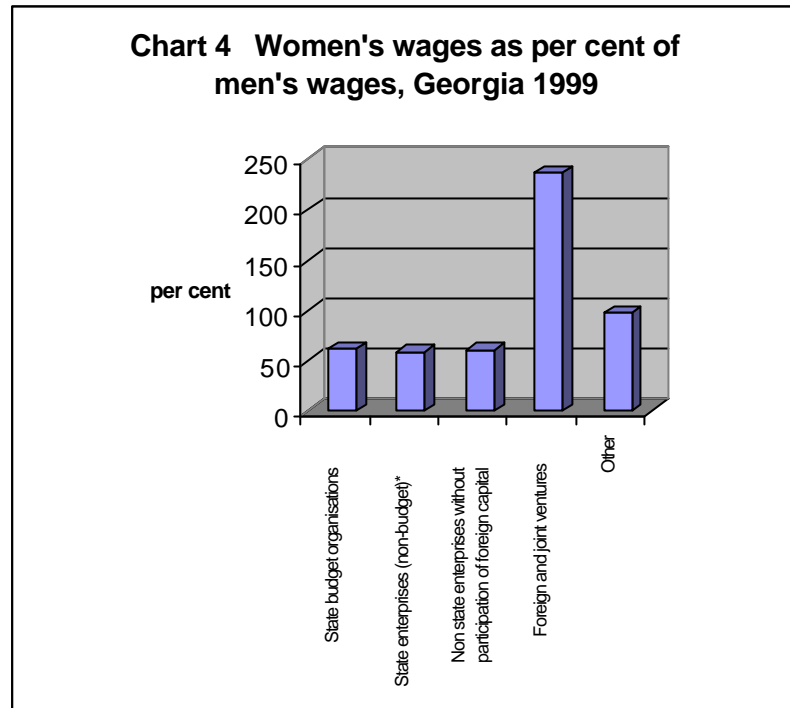
E1/12

11. As Table 5 shows, wages rose in most of the countries between 1996 and 1998. They have nonetheless continued to be relatively low. Chart 3 suggests, however, that 1989 levels had been restored by 1997 in only a single country.



Source: Economic Survey of Europe 1999/1
E2/12

12. The need for greater equality of opportunities between men and women was repeatedly stressed at the Copenhagen, as well as the Beijing, Summits. Indeed, women's wages are consistently lower than men's in Eastern Europe, as well as elsewhere. Georgia provides a good example of the substantial differences still remaining in 1999 (Chart 4). Only in the sector with foreign capital did women appear to predominate as regards wages, but this is only one more example of the need to scrutinise the data carefully. In this case, women's wages *appear* relatively high because the best paid positions in this sector were filled by (male) foreigners, excluded from the statistics.



* Without foreign capital

Source: Georgia, State Department of Statistics

E2/3

13. The critical economic situation in so many of the countries precluded the payment of adequate pensions, unemployment and other social benefits. To quote the UNDP 1997 Human Development for Croatia as an example:

“A sudden increase in the number of pensioners occurred in recent years, mostly due to early retirement. In this way companies and institutions shed part of their surplus labour. The ratio of people in work to pensioners is now 1.7:1 which is a highly unfavourable ratio ... In 1993 a crisis arose in the pension funds: a large difference appeared between the legal liabilities to pensioners and the amount of money available to the pension funds. In response, the Government issued an order, which practically suspended the legal requirement to adjust pensions according to salaries. As a result, the average pension as a proportion of the average salary fell from 64% in January 1992 to 49% in December 1996.” (p.41)

14. High unemployment and underemployment, combined with low wages and social benefits, translate into inadequate household incomes and relative high poverty rates. It is in the measurement of income and poverty that the database is particularly weak in these countries. Table 6 summarises available statistics on the level of poverty. The figures appear to be no more than approximations, dependent on widely varying national definitions of poverty and methods of calculation.

Table 6
Poverty estimates from various sources*
(latest available date)

	Basis of estimate	Per cent in poverty	Year of estimate
Central Europe			
Czech Republic	legally established minimum	3.7% households	1996
	50% of average expenditure	3.9% households	1996
	subjective assessment	28% households	1996
Hungary	"Legal" (minimum old age pension)	12.1% persons	1995 1/
	"Minimum subsistence"	34.6 % persons	1995 1/
	Subjective	27.7% persons	1995 1/
Poland	"Existence minimum"	4.5% persons	1996
	50% average cons. expenditure	14% persons	1996
	"social minimum"	43-47% persons	1994/96
	"Leyden" method (subjective)	33% persons	1994
Slovakia	"Living conditions index"	13.4% households	1995 1/
	60% of median income	12.1% households	1995 1/
Slovenia	50% of median expenditure	14.9% (?)	1996 1/
S.E. Europe			
Albania	private calculation (below 14,000 leks)	80% persons	1995
	\$1 per cap/day	26% persons	1994 1/
Bulgaria	Food basket	44% households	19981/
	50% of median income	6.7% households	19981/
FYR Macedonia	50% of median income	7.7% ****	1995 1/
	basket based on 2400 calories	15.8% ****	1995 1/
Romania	60% of av. cons. expenditure per adult equivalent =71,000 lei	23% persons	1996
Yugoslavia	\$120 ppp per equivalent household unit	23% persons	1994
Baltics			
Estonia	"official poverty line"	estd. 7-8% households	Sep-94
	50% of average income	6.8% households	1998 ^{1/}
Latvia	50% of average income	17% persons	1998 ^{1/}
Lithuania	50% of average cons. expenditure	13 to 16% persons	1998 ^{1/}
	a modified "real" MCB	5 to 7%****	1998 ^{1/}
Caucasus			
Armenia	below \$35 ppp/cap.**	47-87%****	uncertain
Azerbaijan	World Bank estimate	62% persons	1995
Georgia	Government estimate - absolute	53% households	1999 ^{1/}
Western CIS			
Belarus	60% of MCB	63% persons	Jan-95
Moldova	MCB	90% persons	1994
Russian Fed.	Off. subsistence minimum	21-35% persons	1994 or 1995
	ARSLC estd.	40% persons	1994
	Ministry of Labour	60-70% persons	uncertain
Ukraine	modified MCB	30% h'lds, 32% persons	mid 1995
Central Asia			
Kyrgyzstan	MCB	circa 90% persons	Sep-95
Kazakstan	MCB	31% persons	1996
Taiikistan	MCB	80% persons	1996
Turkmenistan***	MCB or physiological sub- subsistence or 19 food items	48% ****	1993/94
Uzbekistan	assessment by local admin.	12% persons	uncertain

* Except items marked 1/, which were communicated by the national statistical offices.

** Definition unclear or value uncertain.

*** It is uncertain to which of the three possible definitions the value applies.

**** Not known whether persons or households.

Source: W. Scott, Poverty in Transition in Eastern Europe and the Commonwealth of Independent

States: Conceptual Issues and Some Findings, Statistical Journal of the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe 14(2), 1997. The table from that paper has been updated.

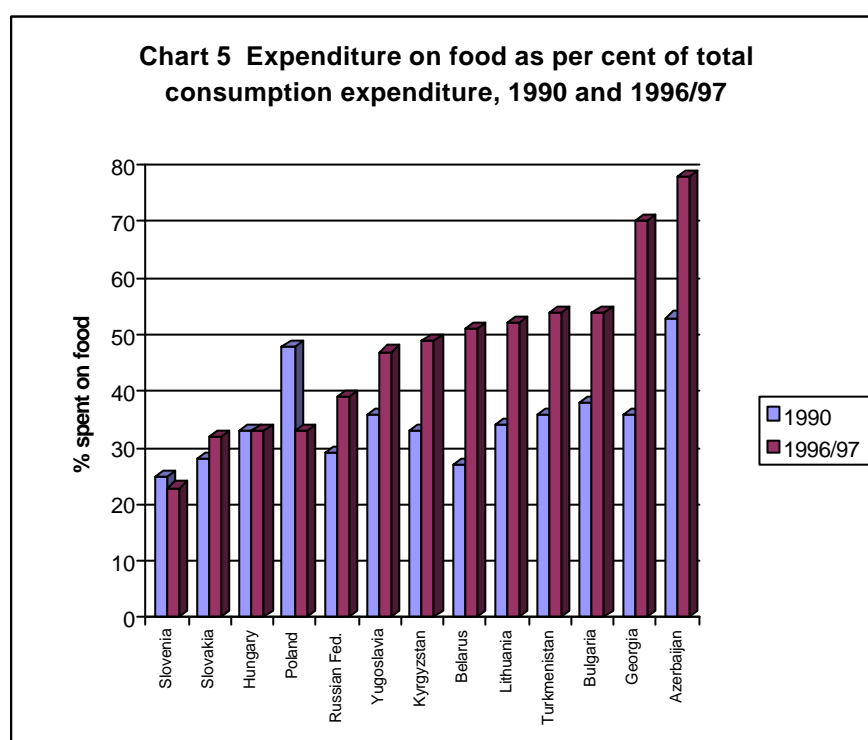
MCB=Minimum consumption basket, the least possible consumption consistent with the maintenance of a normal lifestyle, as estimated by each government separately.

E1/4

15. The figures illustrate the lack of robustness of poverty measurement. Values fluctuate widely, depending on the type of criterion (for example three types of absolute measurement in Russia, with widely different degrees of poverty or, as regards Lithuania and Poland, between absolute and relative lines).⁴²

16. Only a few comparable figures are available in individual countries for the period after 1995. The quarterly estimates of poverty in Georgia, from 1997 to end 1999, for example, suggest stability at a high level of poverty, rather than improvement.

17. Expenditure on food as a ratio of total consumption expenditure is an alternative indicator of poverty. Chart 5 illustrates the decline between 1990 and 1996/97, but no figures are available for later years.



Source: National Human Development Reports

E1/5

18. Apart from poverty reduction, for which no specific target was set globally at the Summit (although halving poverty by the year 2015 was a target decided in a later meeting of members of the DAC group in OECD) specific goals were set in Copenhagen for related aspects of levels of living: health, nutrition, education, housing, water and sanitation. Gender equality was included in one of the targets.

19. Data emanating especially from UNICEF show changes during the 1990s, and for three years since the Summit in 1995. Problems as regards the 13 goals in eastern Europe include (a) the unclear definition of some of them, (b) a lack of relevance to conditions in the sub-region, (c) lack of data, especially data for the baseline. The distinction between quantity and quality of education, health, housing, public services,

⁴² Poverty can be reduced by judicious choice of criterion, for example by choosing 60 per cent rather than a smaller percentage of the median.

etc. is particularly relevant to many parts of Eastern Europe. The health system has not greatly changed as regards the number staff or beds, but the quality has critically deteriorated. Much the same is the case in education, nutrition and housing. Indicators of quality are badly needed.

20. Reduction of malnutrition in children under five was one of the goals of the Social Summit, although it is not clear from the formulation there how it was to be defined. Table 7 suggests the virtual absence of acute malnutrition (low weight for height) in eastern Europe even in countries with great poverty. However, stunting (low height for age) is fairly common, probably indicative of relatively deficient quality food in the post-weaning period. Again, no time series are available, nor data for the baseline in 1990.

Table 7
Proportion of children with relatively low weight for height and height for age
(countries with data for 1993 or later)

National samples unless otherwise stated	Year	sample size	Age group months	weight/height	height/age
				% with 2 SD below median	
Amenia - total	1993	1 435	6-59	0.8	11.9
- non-refugees		724	6-59	0.8	12.6
- refugees		711	6-59	0.8	11.3
Armenia - total	1998	3 080	0-59	3.5	12.3
- male		1 679	0-59	4.6	11.4
- female		1 401	0-59	2.1	13.3
Azerbaijan - total	1996	500	6-59	2.9	22.2
- non-IDPs		261	6-59	3.0	21.5
- IDPs		239	6-59	1.3	30.5
Georgia - total	1999	3 337	0-59	2.3	11.7
Kyrgyzstan	1993	1 415	12-84	7.0	...
	1997	1 015	0-36	3.4	24.8
Croatia (kindergarten)	1993/94	34 486	12-72	1.1	0.7
	1994/95	17 734	12-72	1.2	0.9
	1995/96	26 036	12-72	0.8	0.8
Kazakstan	1995	717	0-36	3.3	15.8
Russian Federation -total	1993	736	0-59	3.5	17.0
- male		349	0-59	4.0	16.1
- female		387	0-59	3.1	17.8
Russian Federation -total	1995	562	0-59	3.9	12.7
- male		288	0-59	3.8	12.1
- female		274	0-59	4.0	13.2
Tajikistan - total	1994	1 165	0-59	3.5	30.0
- selected districts*	1996	1 416	0-59	10.0	40.7
Uzbekistan - total	1996	989	0-36	11.6	31.3
- male		509	0-36	12.6	33.9
- female		480	0-36	10.6	28.5
Yugoslavia - total	1996	3 226	0-59	2.1	6.8
- male		...	0-59	2.3	6.8
- female		...	0-59	2.0	6.8

Source: Mercedes de Onis and Monika Bloessner, WHO Global Database on Child Growth and Malnutrition, WHO, Programme of Nutrition, Geneva, 1997, and updates.

*Leninabad and regions under Republican control: Faisobad, Garm, Kofarnihon, Komsomolabad, Rogun, Tajikabad, Varzob.

E1/8

21. Achievement of sound health by all is a Summit goal (see Annex A) that in the context of Europe requires careful definition. The problem may be illustrated by reference to the case of Azerbaijan, which can be considered typical (see Table 8). The situation is that health care services in many parts of the CIS continue to exist (the beds and doctors are still there). However, their quality has declined and the cost to patients has increased to an extent that much less use is made of the facilities than in the past. The patient/bed ratio (in this case a good indicator of the perceived quality of health care) has declined dramatically in some of the countries since transition.

22. Health status, as expressed for lack of better indicators by mortality, declined in the early years of transition but, especially in central Europe, has to some degree recovered or stabilised since 1994.

Table 8			
Azerbaijan: Reasons for not seeking treatment at official health facilities when sick, 1996			
	Residents	IDPs	Total*
	- per cent of respondents -		
Not enough money	86	91	86
Lack of transport	3	3	3
Lack of trust	3	3	3
Other	8	3	7
Total - per cent	100	100	100
- number	156	204	360
* weighted according to numbers in population			
Azerbaijan: Health and Nutrition Survey 1996			
E2/8			

Source: Azerbaijan, Health and nutrition survey, 1996

E2/8

23. Every country in the ECE region had an average expectation of life above the WSSD global goal of 60. A different goal would be required for this region. The goal for infant and child mortality, on the other hand – one third reduction by the year 2000 from the 1990 level - is likely to be achieved in some of the countries only. However, the change in definition of infant mortality during transition in countries of the former Soviet Union precludes precise calculation.⁴³ In view of partly large annual fluctuations the result is affected also by the choice of base year, whether for example this is taken as 1990 or an average of several years around 1990.

⁴³ Most of the countries have since adopted the WHO definition, but implementation of the decision has been slow and inconsistent, affecting the statistics.

24. Thanks to a renewal of the immunisation programme, eradication of major diseases, another Summit goal, has made progress in eastern Europe since 1995. Diphtheria has declined from earlier high levels; measles, pertussis and polio appear to be under control. On the other hand, malaria has re-emerged in some countries, such as Azerbaijan. As Table 9 shows, similarly, except in central and south-eastern Europe, tuberculosis rates have risen sharply (and strains have become more difficult to eliminate). Improvements in reporting may have played a role, but is unlikely to have accounted for the entire rise. This indicator, perhaps more than the mortality rates, reflects the continuing adverse socio-economic conditions.

Table 9
Incidence of tuberculosis, New cases per 100,000 population

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Central Europe										
Croatia	60	54	45	46	49	47	45	47	44	45
Czech Republic	19	19	20	19	18	19	18	19	18	...
Hungary	36	35	35	38	41	41	42	42	41	40
Poland	43	42	43	43	44	43	41	40	36	34
Slovakia	27	26	30	33	34	33	29	28	28	...
Slovenia	31	34	32	26	23	20
S.E. Europe										
Bulgaria	26	26	30	38	38	38	40	37	41	50
Romania	58	65	62	73	82	87	95	99	98	101
Albania	22	20	19	17	20	17	21	22	20	...
FYR Macedonia	33	30	34	36	40	...	35	31
FR Yugoslavia	48	39	43	36	37	34	40	43	38	28
Baltics										
Estonia	23	21	21	21	29	35	35	40	43	45
Latvia	27	27	29	29	34	44	51	59	68	74
Lithuania	33	40	42	43	51	63	64	70	79	81
Caucasus										
Armenia	18	17	20	16	16	19	22	24	28	37
Azerbaijan	41	35	37	37	39	37	39	48	55	55
Georgia	28	28	28	23	22	53	60	103	101	83
Western CIS										
Belarus	31	30	31	34	37	42	44	49	53	55
Moldova	45	40	44	43	45	51	55	57	64	70
Russian Federation	38	34	34	36	43	48	58	67	74	76
Ukraine	34	32	32	35	38	40	42	46	49	55
Central Asia										
Kazakhstan	74	67	66	66	64	62	70	87	94	123
Kyrgyzstan	50	53	57	58	55	60	73	87	113	124
Tajikistan	47	44	39	30	32	35	29	28	34	40
Turkmenistan	59	63	60	53	54	45	43	45	72	79
Uzbekistan	50	46	46	44	45	44	44	52	56	59

Source: UNICEF, MONEE

E2/6

25. Maternal mortality according to the Summit goals, should be halved in the year 2000 compared to the rate in 1990. Maternal mortality rates (Table 10) are difficult to interpret. In small countries, with small absolute numbers of maternal deaths, the rates

tend to fluctuate randomly. Much depends also on proper diagnosis and reporting, for example which of several possible causes of death is entered in the death certificate. Given the fluctuations from one year to another the measurement of change over time is also affected by the choice of baseline. What is fairly clear from the data is that the rates are unacceptably high in most of the countries (Central Europe excepted), and that there has been no improvement in recent years. The goal is unlikely to be achieved in the majority of the countries.

Table 10
Maternal mortality, 1989 to 1998
(maternal deaths per 100,000 live births)

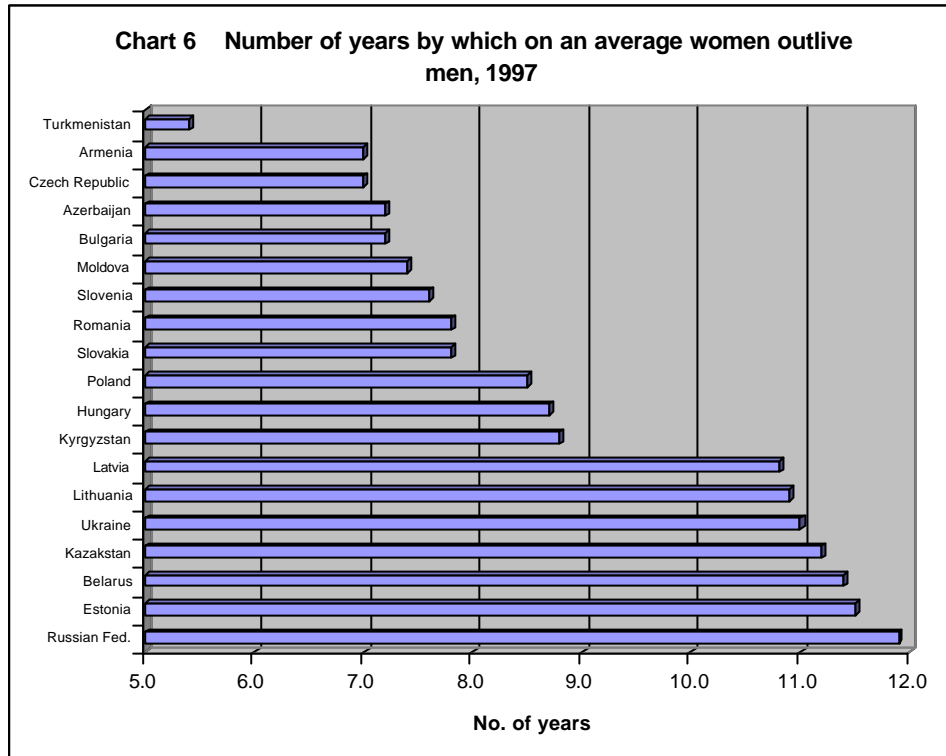
	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Central Europe										
Croatia	4	2	8	4	10	10	12	2	11	6
Czech Republic	9	8	13	10	12	7	2	6	2	6
Hungary	15	21	13	10	19	10	15	11	21	6
Poland	11	13	13	10	12	11	10	5	...	5
Slovakia	10	6	14	1	12	6	8	5	5	9
Slovenia	4	0	5	5	10	10	5	27
S.E. Europe										
Bulgaria	19	21	10	21	14	13	20	...	19	...
Romania	169	84	67	60	53	60	48	41	41	40
Albania	50	38	30	25	16	40	33	28	...	22
FYR Macedonia	17	11	12	9	6	12	22	0	3	3
Yugoslavia	17	11	13	9	18	13	12	7	14	14
Baltics										
Estonia	41	31	31	22	33	56	52	0	16	16
Latvia	46	24	32	41	30	58	37	40	43	43
Lithuania	29	23	20	21	13	16	17	13	16	16
Caucasus										
Armenia	35	40	23	14	27	29	35	21	39	25
Azerbaijan	29	9	11	18	36	44	37	44	31	41
Georgia	41	38	33	34	32	40	55	58	70	68
Western CIS										
Belarus	25	22	31	21	20	19	14	22	26	28
Moldova	34	44	26	37	33	18	12	41	48	36
Russian Fed.	49	47	52	51	52	52	53	49	50	44
Ukraine	33	32	30	31	33	31	32	30	25	27
Central Asia										
Kazakstan	53	55	48	57	50	48	57	53	59	55
Kyrgyzstan	43	63	56	50	45	43	44	32	63	36
Turkmenistan	55	42	46	59	44	46	48	38	19	16
Uzbekistan	43	34	33	30	24	17	19	12	10	10

Source: UNICEF, MONEE, except for Georgia where the Ministry of Health is the source.

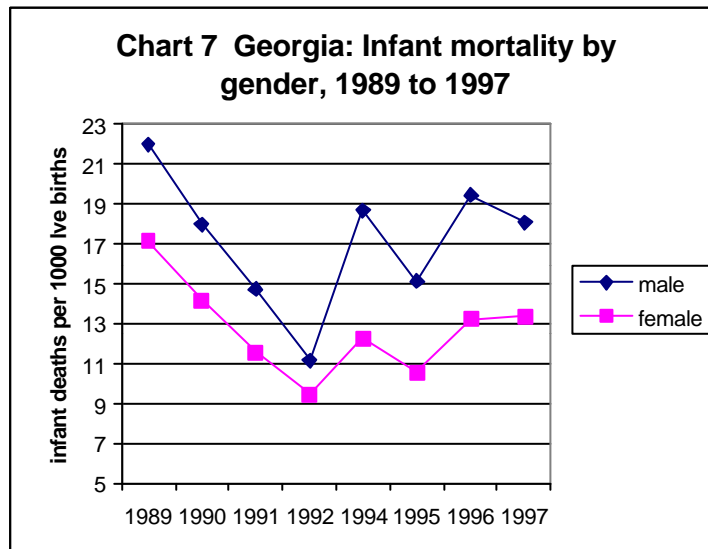
E2/2

26. As regards the requirement for separate data on gender, Chart 6 below shows that women consistently outlive men, in eastern Europe by wide margins, rising to as much as 12 years in the Russian Federation. Chart 7 suggests, similarly, that, taking Georgia as an example, infant mortality is higher for boys than girls (in part a genetic

condition common to most countries of the world), and that the differential did not change significantly during the 1990s.



Source: UNICEF, MONEE
E1/1



Source: Georgia, State Department of Statistics
E2/4

27. Real changes in education in eastern Europe, where problems beset the content and quality of current education, are not well documented. The two Summit goals in education - reduction of illiteracy by half and provision of primary education to at least 80 per cent of children - are met in all the countries of eastern Europe and therefore irrelevant.⁴⁴ Enrolment ratios (Table 11) commonly used as an indicator of current education (and the same applies to literacy rates since these measure past rather than present education), say little about the quality of present education.

⁴⁴ In the sense, at least, that adult literacy was already virtually universal in 1990.

Table 11
Gross enrolment ratios in basic education, 1989 to 1998
 (per cent of age group, resp. 6/7 - 14/15)

	Age group	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Central Europe											
Croatia *	7-14	96	94	81	79	85	89	88	89
Czech Republic	6-14	98	99	99	99	99	100	99	99	99	98
Hungary	6-14	99	99	99	99	99	99	99	99	99	99
Poland**	7-14	98	98	97	97	97	97	97	97	98	98
Slovakia	6-14	96	96	97	96	95	94	94	93	...	94
Slovenia	7-14	96	97	97	98	98	97	97	100	100	98
S.E. Europe											
Bulgaria	6-14	98	99	97	95	94	94	94	94	95	94
Romania	7-14	94	90	89	90	90	91	93	94	95	97
Albania	6-13	91	91	89	86	87	88
FYR Macedonia	7-14	...	89	87	86	86	87	87	87
Yugoslavia** ***	7-14	95	95	94	73	74	73	72	73	72	69
Baltics											
Estonia	7-15	96	95	94	92	92	91	92	93	94	95
Latvia	7-15	96	96	95	91	89	89	90	90	91	91
Lithuania	7-14	94	93	93	93	92	92	93	94	96	96
Caucasus											
Armenia	7-14	96	95	92	91	86	82	81	83	83	83
Azerbaijan	7-15	90	91	91	91	92	94	94	95	97	92
Georgia*****	7-15	95	95	92	83	82	81	80	81	...	82
Western CIS											
Belarus	7-15	96	95	94	94	94	94	94	94	94	96
Moldova****	7-14	96	96	94	80	80	79	80	79	79	93
Russian Fed.	7-15	93	94	94	93	92	91	91	91	91	89
Ukraine	7-15	93	92	92	91	90	91	91	91	91	89
Central Asia											
Kazakstan	7-15	94	93	93	92	92	91	91	90	89	93
Kyrgyzstan	7-15	93	92	91	90	90	89	89	89	89	90
Tajikistan	7-15	94	94	94	90	85	86	87	85	86	88
Turkmenistan	7-15	94	95	93	92	92	92	84	83	83	...
Uzbekistan	7-15	92	91	88	88	88	89	...	89	90	...

Source: UNICEF, MONEE

Gymnasia, dance and vocational schools excluded in some countries

* some areas not reported in 1991-1995

** net rates

*** excludes ethnic Albanians in Kosovo-Metohija in 1991/92-1995.

**** excludes Transnistria in 1992-1996.

***** excludes Abkhazia and Tskhinvali

E1/11

28. Attendance would be a more sensitive indicator than enrolment, and net enrolment ratios would be more useful than gross ratios, but data are available for neither for most of the countries. The number of children in schools on a shift basis would provide some indication of quality. Pupil/teacher ratios, sometimes used to indicate quality of teaching, are in countries of the former Soviet Union affected by part-time teaching and extra-curricular activities. Similarly, levels of pre-school

education are possibly a better indicator of the state of current education than enrolment at higher levels. They declined sharply in the early years of transition, in line with the fall in government revenue and private incomes., and recovery in many of the countries has been modest.

29. Differences between boys and girls are small as regards enrolment. Taking Azerbaijan as a fairly typical example, slightly more girls than boys enrolled at the upper secondary level and in vocational schools, more boys in technical schools (Table 12).

Table 12
Azerbaijan: Gross enrolment ratios by gender, 1990 to 1998

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Primary (ages 6-9)									
Boys	86	85	86	89	85	98	105	102	98
Girls	85	85	84	84	94	105	101	100	99
Lower Secondary (ages 10-14)									
Boys	92	92	95	94	89	79	80	83	86
Girls	93	93	93	93	98	87	80	84	87
Upper secondary general (ages 15-17)									
Boys	44	44	41	38	33	32	26	38	43
Girls	47	47	45	36	36	35	46	44	46
Vocational (ages 15-17)									
Boys	17	17	13	9	6	6	6	5	6
Girls	13	13	11	8	8	10	11	11	11
Technical (ages 15-17)									
Boys	26	25	20	16	13	9	7	9	8
Girls	14	12	12	9	7	3	4	2	2
Kindergarten (ages 3-5)									
Boys	...	36	34	34	29	26	24	23	22
Girls	...	30	29	29	25	23	21	19	19

Source: UNICEF, MONEE

E2/5

30. No reliable data exist in eastern Europe in respect of the remaining WSSD goals. Water is supplied to most urban and many rural homes, but because of insufficient maintenance and control its quality and level of safety are suspect. Absence of systematic water control precludes quantification.

31. Similarly, in the absence of censuses in most of the countries over the last eleven years, housing conditions are very imperfectly known. The problems in any case are not in respect of housing space (which is what is usually measured), but poor maintenance and lack of associated services, such as gas and electricity, and high cost for especially young families requiring new housing. Food security, another goal, is insufficiently recorded. In general, such security in eastern Europe depends on employment and income to purchase food, which in most of the countries are highly uncertain.

32. . This section is included here as an example of the prevailing uncertainty as to the best methods of measuring poverty in the region.

33. Many of the targets and benchmarks for social development which were underwritten at the WSSD, focused on the needs of developing countries and transition economies. The MNSDS and CCA sets of indicators, which were created partly in response to the 1995 WSSD, are an example. Indicators such as the percentage of the population earning less than one dollar a day offer little insight into conditions in western Europe which, as Table 13 shows, differ sharply from those in the East as regards per capita GDP, even in terms of purchasing power parity.

Table 14
Per capita GDP, \$ppp*, 1996

1,000 - 2,499	2,500 - 4,999	5,000 - 9,999	10,000- 14,999	15,000 - 19,999	20,000 - 29,999	30,000 -
Kyrgyzstan	Bulgaria	Hungary	Spain	Sweden	USA	Luxembourg
Moldova	Kazakstan	Slovakia	Portugal	UK	Norway	
Uzbekistan	FYR Macedonia	Poland	Greece	Finland	Switzerland	
Armenia	Ukraine	Russia	Slovenia	Ireland	Japan	
Azerbaijan	Turkmenistan	Estonia	Czech Rep	New Zealand	Iceland	
Mongolia	Georgia	Romania		Israel	Denmark	
Tajikistan	Albania	Croatia		Spain	Canada	
		Lithuania			Belgium	
		Belarus			Austria	
		Latvia			Germany	
					Australia	
					Netherlands	
					France	
					Italy	

*Purchasing power parities that, in converting national currencies into dollars, take into account the purchasing power of a country's currency rather than the official exchange rate.

Source: ECE database

E2/13

34. This, however, does not imply that industrialised countries are not faced with serious challenges where many groups and areas still experience poverty, social exclusion and discrimination. The countries have tried to address these issues both by developing more specific statistical measures and by improving the production of disaggregated data. Over the past five years the European statistical community has made considerable headway in many of these areas.

35. Attention given to the eradication of poverty is an example. Various agencies have attempted to quantify and monitor poverty. The methodology varies among agencies, and is not necessarily consistent with the WSSD recommendations.

⁴⁵ As noted in the introductory paragraphs, the term 'Western Europe' in the context of the ECE region includes also some of the industrialised countries outside Europe.

EUROSTAT, for example, has chosen a relative definition of poverty, using as poverty lines respectively 40, 50 and 60 per cent of median national household income, rather than absolute lines.⁴⁶

36. The use of this definition of poverty precludes comparison of absolute poverty among countries or over time. What is being compared is national median income, on the one hand, and the distribution of income below this line, on the other hand. In Luxembourg, for example, where there is a high median income, the poor may be much better off, in absolute terms, than the poor in, say, the Netherlands, although the reported poverty rate is 10 per cent in Luxembourg and only 5 per cent in the Netherlands. When a common, 'European', median line is used, the proportion of poor individuals below 50 per cent of this median is 1.0 per cent in Luxembourg, 8 per cent in the Netherlands (Table 14).⁴⁷

Table 14
EU member states: mean incomes, poverty lines and percentage of persons in poverty, 1993 and 1994

		1993				% persons in pov. below 50% of mean	1994				1995	
		mean income		poverty line			mean income per ad. equiv.	poverty line 50% of mean	% persons in poverty below 50% of:			"can't make ends meet"
		per adult equivalent		50% of equivalent mean income					mean	median		
		nat. currency	pps**	nat. currency	pps		pps	pps				mean
Belgium	bf	535 680	12 960	267 840	6 480	13	13 553	6 777	16	11	42	
Denmark	dk	127 872	12 648	63 936	6 324	6	14 119	7 060	6	4	31	
Germany	mark	29 952	13 488	14 976	6 744	11	13 851	6 926	15	11	30	
Greece	drachma	1 630 560	7 800	815 280	3 900	22	8 803	4 402	21	15	78	
Spain	pesetos	1 154 160	9 048	577 080	4 524	20	10 375	5 188	21	15	63	
France	ff	89 184	12 384	44 592	6 192	14	13 500	6 750	14	10	51	
Ireland	£I	7 056	9 672	3 528	4 836	21	11 043	5 522	25	9	60	
Italy	lira	16 022 400	9 864	8 011 200	4 932	20	10 017	5 009	17	13	68	
Luxembourg	bf	930 000	23 760	465 000	11 880	15	22 124	11 062	15	10	17	
Netherlands	g	28 200	12 384	14 100	6 192	13	13 060	6 530	8	5	31	
Austria	shilling	13 810	6 905	15	12	54	
Portugal	escudos	1 021 920	7 464	510 960	3 732	26	773	387	24	16	78	
UK	£	9 072	12 984	4 536	6 492	22	13 139	6 570	23	12	62	

* except with difficulty

** dollars converted at purchasing power parities

Source: Eurostat (Directorate E)

PS 12

37. The UNDP approach, described in the *Human Development Report*⁴⁸, is quite different. It makes use of macro-indicators to describe the poverty of countries rather than individuals. Poverty is defined as a multi-dimensional phenomenon, where life expectancy, literacy, employment and income are given equal importance. The indicator values are listed in Table 15 below for the countries with available data.

⁴⁶ EUROSTAT, op.cit.

⁴⁷ Idem, p.22

⁴⁸ United Nations Development Programme, *Human Development Report 1999*, Oxford University Press, New York and Oxford

Table 16
Selected industrialised countries: the UNDP poverty index
 (data between 1989 and 1997, lowest value equals least poverty)

	Index value	Indicators			
		Probability of dying before 60	Adult illiteracy*	Long-term unemployed**	% persons in poverty***
		1997	1995	1997	1989-1994
Sweden	7.0	8.7	7.5	1.4	6.7
Netherlands	8.3	9.3	10.5	3.3	6.7
Germany	10.4	10.7	14.4	4.3	5.9
Norway	11.3	9.1	18.8	0.8	6.6
Italy	11.6	9.0	16.8	8.1	6.5
Finland	11.9	11.3	16.8	6.4	6.2
France	11.9	11.3	16.8	4.8	7.5
Canada	12.0	9.3	16.6	1.3	11.7
Japan	12.0	8.2	16.8	0.7	11.8
Denmark	12.2	12.8	16.8	1.8	7.5
Belgium	12.4	10.1	18.4	5.8	5.5
Australia	12.5	8.9	17.0	2.4	12.9
New Zealand	12.8	11.1	18.4	1.3	9.2
Spain	13.0	10.1	16.8	12.5	10.4
UK	15.1	9.8	21.8	3.3	13.5
Ireland	15.3	10.0	22.6	7.1	11.1
USA	16.5	12.6	20.7	0.5	19.1

Source: UNDP, Human Development Report 1999

* Adult illiteracy on the basis of a functional literacy test

** 12 months or more, per cent of economically active

*** Per cent with incomes less than one half national median income

E2/9

38. The results differ sharply from those of EUROSTAT, which used a relative poverty line approach. For example Denmark in Table 15 has apparently greater poverty than for example Italy, whereas the opposite is the case by a considerable degree when the EUROSTAT figures are used. The best method to use in calculating poverty (and there are many other alternatives) depends largely on the purpose of the measurement, and this should be clearly stated.
