United Nations

Economic and Social Council

ECE/CES/2021/5

Distr.: General
12 April 2021

Original: English

Economic Commission for Europe

Conference of European Statisticians

Sixty-ninth plenary session

Geneva, 23–25 June 2021

Item 7 (d) of the provisional agenda

Reports, guidelines and recommendations prepared under the umbrella of the Conference:

Approaches to measuring social exclusion

Approaches to measuring social exclusion

Prepared by the Task Force on the measurement of social exclusion

Summary

The document was prepared by the Task Force on the measurement of social exclusion, composed of representatives from the United Kingdom (chair), Albania, Armenia, Belarus, Canada, Czechia, Germany, Netherlands, North Macedonia, Romania, Switzerland, United States, Eurostat, OECD, UNDP Istanbul Regional Hub, UNECE and Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative.

The current short version of the document is prepared for translation purposes and contains most of the country experiences as well as the conclusions and recommendations. It includes section I "Introduction" (corresponding to the "Introduction" of the full document), section II "Approaches to measuring social exclusion" (corresponding to chapter 4 of the full document) and section III "Taking stock of where we are now" (corresponding to chapter 7 of the full document).

The full text of the document was sent to all members of the Conference of European Statisticians (CES) for electronic consultation in March-April 2021 and is available at the Conference webpage at https://unece.org/statistics/events/CES2021. Summary of the feedback form the consultation will be provided in document ECE/CES/2021/5/Add.1.

Subject to a positive outcome of the consultation, the CES plenary session will be invited to endorse the document.

Please recycle

I. Introduction

A. Background

1.   Social exclusion is a broad concept for which no exact or widely accepted definition exists. As the methodology changes based on the definition used, this makes it challenging to quantify the number of people who face social exclusion, or the degree to which people are at risk of social exclusion. While many countries measure different aspects of social exclusion, very few surveys or statistical methods are specifically designed for this. Most numeric measurements of social exclusion rely heavily on methods that measure material and social deprivation, and then interpret an individual's level of social exclusion.

2.   In February 2018, the Bureau of the Conference of European Statisticians (CES) conducted an in-depth review on measuring social exclusion. Statistics Canada and the National Institute of Statistics and Geography of Mexico (INEGI) prepared a paper summarizing the international activities in this area, which provided the basis for the review. The Bureau asked the UNECE Secretariat together with the Steering Group on Measuring Poverty and Inequality, to prepare a proposal for follow up work to address the priority areas raised in the in-depth review for the next CES Bureau meeting.

3.   The CES Bureau approved the Task Force's terms of reference in June 2018. The Task Force consisted of 28 statistical experts from UNECE member countries, other countries participating in the work of the Conference of European Statisticians, international organizations and academia. The experts worked through 2019–2020 to develop the present Guide on Measuring Social Exclusion.

4.   This guide started initially from the idea that it would be helpful to look beyond poverty to the wider concept of social exclusion and to explore the different ways in which social exclusion is measured across a range of countries. The work therefore started with a survey among Task Force members to explore what different countries and organisations are currently doing in the 'social exclusion' space. The results can be found in the full document in Chapter 4 and in further detail, in Annex 1.

5.   What was discovered through that exercise is that social exclusion is defined and measured in a range of ways in keeping with the different social contexts in which it is measured. There is a lack of clarity about what is meant by the term social exclusion and that it may be used interchangeably or in overlapping ways with other terms such as 'social inclusion', 'multi-dimensional poverty', 'multiple inequalities' or even 'well-being'.

6.   It was also noted that in recent years, social exclusion seems to be less prominent in policy discourse in many countries. Instead, the focus may be on the space beyond poverty to look at how people's lives are affected by the experience of marginalisation, inequalities and being 'left behind'. Looking at this from the perspective of a glass half full, the policy discourse surrounding these issues may relate to a desire to promote inclusion, equalities and well-being across society and social groups. It can also be summarised in the language of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) which highlights the importance of achieving sustainable progress while 'leaving no one behind'.

7.   Within the past year, the world has been dramatically changed by the COVID-19 pandemic, and increasing calls are heard for inclusiveness in relation to responses to the pandemic and 'building back better'. To understand the extent to which policy responses to social and economic recovery are inclusive will require monitoring of precisely the types of issues captured in the social exclusion and related measurement frameworks described in this guide.

8.   Fundamentally, whether framed as social exclusion or inclusion, a reduction of inequalities or promotion of equalities and well-being aims for similar outcomes – a fairer society in which everyone is better able to live the life they value. In all these examples, the focus of attention is on a broader range of aspects of life than material resources. Financial wellbeing is one aspect of this bigger picture but is not the only nor necessarily the most important consideration. There are a range of factors which can empower or disempower us from leading the lives we value.

9.	So, from the original focus on social exclusion, the Task Force has broadened the horizons to reflect more of the current policy and measurement landscape. This guide is intended to showcase some of the different ways in which we can and are measuring how equitable, and inclusive our societies are. We also discuss how different approaches can provide greater clarity about who is being left behind, in which ways and why. Ultimately, our goal is to promote knowledge sharing, and to do this, we draw on practical examples from countries involved in the Task Force and more widely to learn from each other.

## B.	Outline of the Guide

10.	Chapter 2 of the full document focuses on concepts of exclusion or inclusion, equalities and wellbeing, acknowledging that these ideas are defined differently in the context of individual societies and may also change over time even within the same society.

11.	Chapter 3 of the full document considers why we may want to measure inclusion or exclusion, equalities and wellbeing, or leaving no one behind, using specific policy examples from across the world which have provided the impetus for measurement.

12.	In Chapter 4 of the full document, we focus on different approaches to measuring these concepts, looking at what tends to be measured most often, highlighting the variation that inevitably exists across contexts. We also provide examples of a range of different measurement frameworks which others have used to measure social exclusion, social inclusion, multiple deprivations or multiple inequalities, and well-being. Finally, we consider how the measurement of social exclusion may contribute to the 'leave no one behind' agenda of the Sustainable Development Goals.

13.	In Chapter 5 of the full document, we look at how to be as inclusive as possible in our measurement itself and examples of how more marginalised groups, including those frequently left out of our statistical measurement, can be included.

14.	Chapter 6 of the full document focuses on how findings from social exclusion may be presented, highlighting different levels of analysis used in the measurement of these concepts and different approaches to analysing the findings. This may depend both on pragmatic considerations such as the comprehensiveness of data available and data sources as well as considerations of how best to present progress towards specific policy goals in clear and accessible ways.

15.	Finally, Chapter 7 of the full document considers where Task Force member countries are in relation to the measurement of social exclusion, including data currently available in different countries, and how inclusive, granular and comprehensive it is. Based on that assessment, we also suggest recommendations for the way forward.

## II.	Approaches to measuring social exclusion

## A.	Measurement tools and indicator frameworks

16.	This section moves on to consider a range of specific measurement frameworks which incorporate social exclusion or inclusion in different ways. They may provide inspiration to others seeking to measure social exclusion and provide guidance on where and how others have approached the task.

### 1.	European Commission indicators of social exclusion: AROPE and Laeken

The AROPE indicator

17.	The at risk of poverty or social exclusion (AROPE) indicator is the approach recommended by Eurostat to measure the poverty and social exclusion targets associated with Europe 2020 Strategy. The policy objective is to deliver inclusive growth and lift at least 20 million people across the European Union out of poverty and social exclusion between 2010 and 2020. This is monitored in part by tracking poverty and social exclusion across EU

member states, often using data collected for the EU Survey of Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC).

18.   The AROPE indicator consists of three sub-indicators (see Figure 1):

- *At risk of poverty after social transfers* – persons with an equivalised disposable income below the risk-of-poverty threshold, which is set at 60% of the national median equivalised disposable income;

- *Persons severely materially deprived* – living conditions are severely constrained by a lack of resources; four out of the nine following deprivations items are experienced: cannot afford i) to pay rent or utility bills, ii) keep home adequately warm, iii) face unexpected expenses, iv) eat meat, fish or a protein equivalent every second day, v) a week holiday away from home, vi) a car, vii) a washing machine, viii) a colour TV, or ix) a telephone;

- *Persons living in households with very low work intensity* – those aged 0–59 living in households where the adults (aged 18–59) work 20% or less of their total work potential during the past year.

19.   An individual is considered at risk of poverty or social exclusion if they meet the conditions for at least one of the three sub-indicators and they are only counted once even if they meet the criteria for more than one of the sub-indicators. The rationale behind this perhaps relates to the policy objective of lifting a target number of individuals out of poverty and social exclusion, rather than identifying the depth of poverty or social exclusion experienced by them.

Figure 1
The EU 2020 indicator of people at risk of poverty or social exclusion (AROPE)
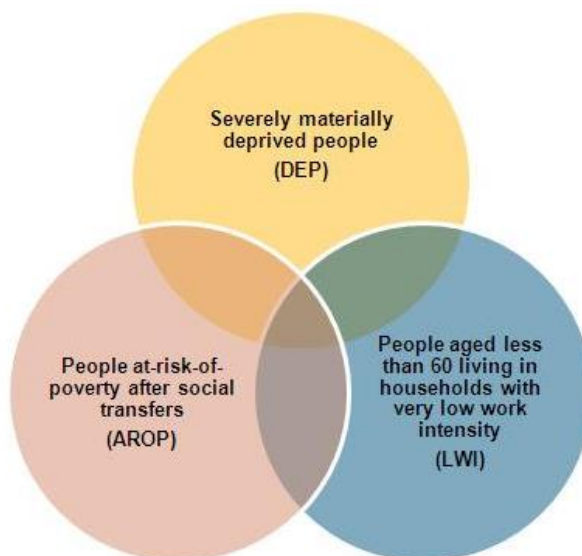
20.   The AROPE indicator creates a comparable approach to the measurement of social exclusion across EU member states and has helped to ensure regular measurement of those at risk of poverty and social exclusion across much of Europe. Some possible disadvantages of the AROPE indicator are that:

- The specified deprivations of the indicator may not be equally relevant across all cultures and societies of the EU; and

- It has a narrower focus than many other measurement frameworks, concerned solely with economic and labour market exclusion and material deprivation rather than exclusion experienced in other aspects of life.

21.   While some countries, such as Albania, use the AROPE indicator as their principle measure of social exclusion, others use it as a foundation on which to build, supplementing it with a range of other locally relevant domains or indicators. This approach enables tailoring

of the measurement to capture local circumstances while still enabling comparisons between countries.

22.   For example, Armenia developed a special survey module on social exclusion initially in their Integrated Living Conditions Survey in 2016 which is now part of an annual survey. The focus of their measurement is material exclusion from access to the goods or services considered to reflect an acceptable living standard. It also includes a distinction between those who cannot afford these things and those who do not consider that they want or need these things. Domains included in their model of social exclusion are: poverty, education, health, and housing and living conditions. These domains incorporate components of both the AROPE indicator and some of the Laeken indicators as well as subjective measures of desirability versus affordability of goods and services.

23.   Similarly, Germany's approach starts with the AROPE indicator and includes additional indicators relating to housing, health, wellbeing and quality of life, and special indicators for children (see Figure 2). AROPE is used as the basis for measuring those at risk of poverty and social exclusion within a broader measurement framework capturing both objective circumstances of life, as well as subjective perceptions.

Figure 2
Key elements of social exclusion measurement in Germany
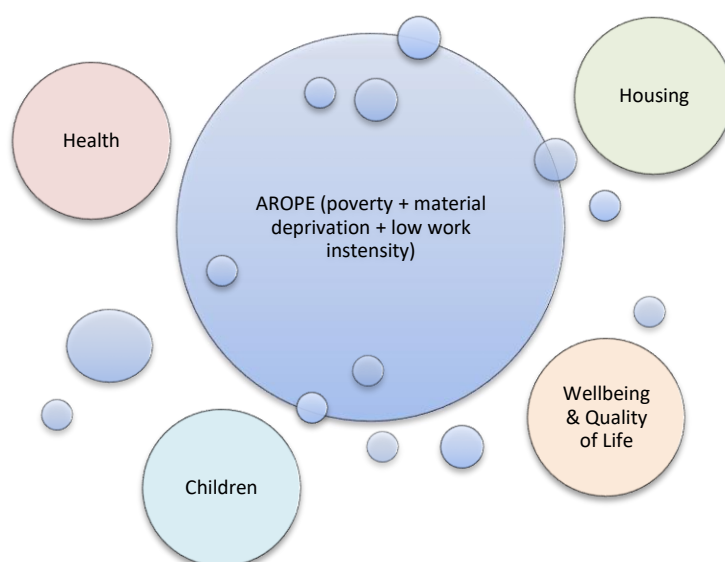
24.   Other countries have broadened the scope further, building on measures included in the AROPE indicator to look at a wider range of areas of life. For example, Switzerland recently extended their measurement of social exclusion to three domains, one of which is based on multiple deprivations covering eight areas of life and incorporating both objective and subjective measures (see Figure 3). Using their approach, people are defined as at risk of social exclusion if they accumulate three or more 'objective problems' from across the indicators measured.

Figure 3
Key elements of social exclusion measurement in Switzerland
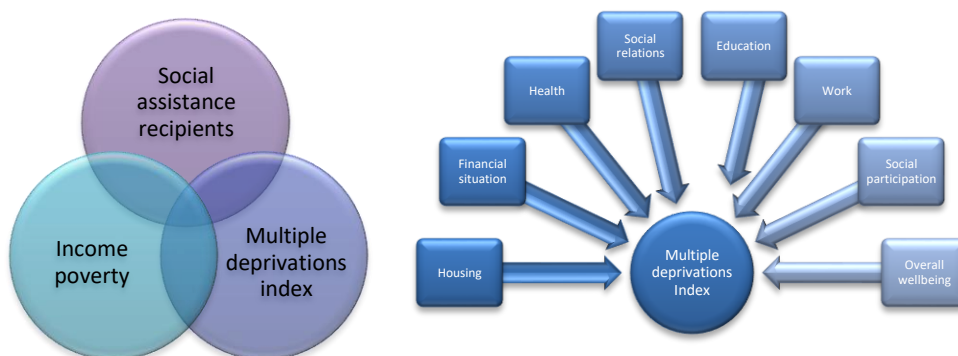
2. The Netherlands Social Exclusion Index

25. The Netherlands developed a social exclusion index (Coumans & Schmeets, 2014) with the aim of calculating the number of socially excluded people in Dutch society. They included a special module on their Survey of Incomes and Living Conditions (EU-SILC) to measure 42 items across four dimensions of social exclusion: limited social participation; inadequate access to basic social rights and institutions; material deprivation; and lack of normative integration. An overview of their conceptual and empirical approach is provided in Figure 4.

Figure 4
Theoretical framework of social exclusion (Netherlands)

Source: Coumans & Schmeets (2014), p. 7.

26. Coumans and Schmeets (2014) described their approach as firstly calculating an index score for each dimension with a low score referring to a low level of exclusion and a high score to a high level of exclusion. These are then redistributed into quartile scores whereby individuals can score 0–3 for each of the four domains. These quartile scores are then summed up resulting in one sum score ranging from 0–12. A score of 0 indicates no exclusion at all, while a score of 12 indicated maximal exclusion on all four dimensions. Individuals with sum scores of 10–12 and a high score in at least two dimensions are considered to be socially excluded.

3. Social inclusion measurement in Bosnia and Herzegovina

27. The United National Development Programme (UNDP) worked with the government of Bosnia and Herzegovina to develop measures of social inclusion relevant to the local context and in keeping with the European Commission's definition of the concept. That is, that people should be able to participate fully in economic, social and cultural life, to enjoy

a standard of living and well-being that is considered normal in the society in which they live, and to participate in making the decisions that affect their lives.

28.   A multi-stage process was to develop a holistic understanding of social inclusion, including:

  • Mapping facility and service locations and public transport rates to identify gaps in provision and coverage;

  • Workshops with local stakeholders to understand what they saw as the most important issues affecting social inclusion in Bosnia and Herzegovina and in their own areas;

  • A household survey carried out in 2019 which replicated many of the measures of a previous survey conducted in 2009, providing insights into change over time.

29.   The 2019 survey included questions in a range of domains relevant to social inclusion such as social interactions and perceptions; and assessment of the quality and availability of a range of community services. The findings were presented using a range of disaggregations to help shed light on the perceptions and experiences of these aspects of social inclusion among different groups within the population. The results are included in *Social Exclusion in Bosnia and Herzegovina: 2020 National Human Development Report* (forthcoming).

4.   Well-being frameworks and indices

A.   *OECD Well-being Framework*

30.   The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) measures well-being as part of the Better Life Initiative, as a key priority. The OECD Well-being Framework covers 11 dimensions that reflect essential aspects of current well-being and four areas relating to future well-being.

Figure 5
The OECD Well-being Framework
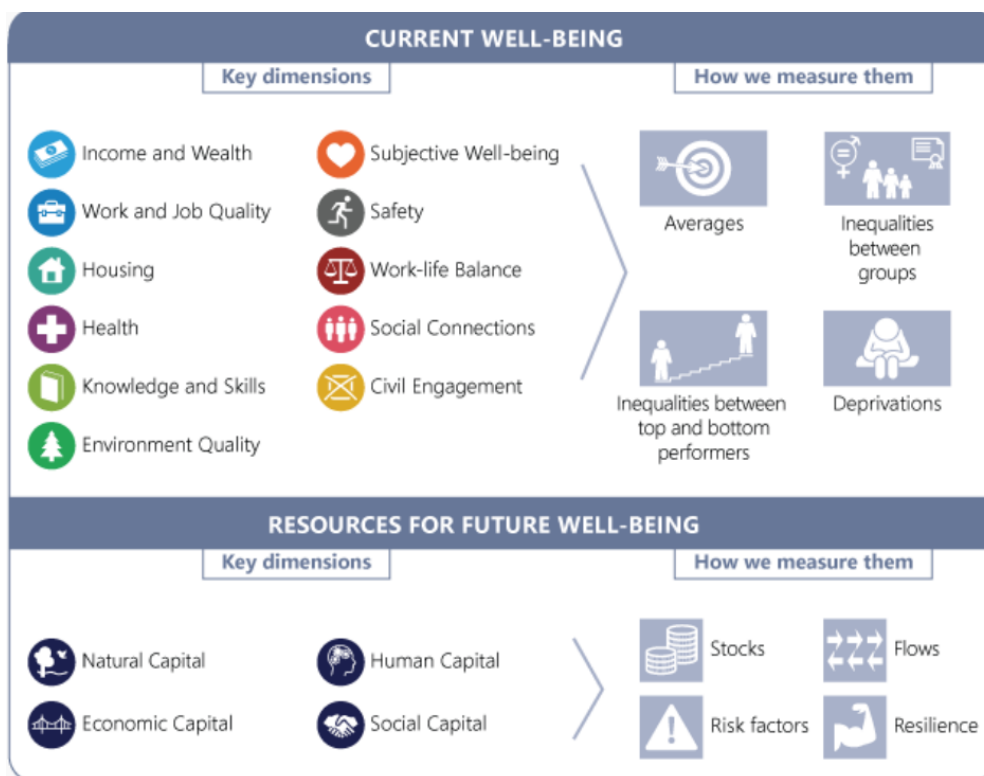
31.   Each well-being dimension is underpinned by a number of indicators, with over 80 in total, which are used to monitor what life is like for people in 37 OECD countries and four partner countries (OECD, 2020). The distribution of current well-being is examined by looking at three types of inequality:

- Gaps between population groups (horizontal inequalities);

- Gaps between those at the top and those at the bottom of the achievement scale in each dimension (vertical inequalities);

- Deprivations (i.e. the share of the population falling below a given threshold of achievement).

32.   Through examining these types of inequalities and current and future well-being, it helps to identify where disparities may lie within and across areas, overall well-being patterns, and where policies may improve these disparities.

B.   *Well-being in Germany*

33.   As part of its government strategy, "Wellbeing in Germany – what matters to us", wellbeing was put at the centre of German policy in 2017. The German Federal Government defines wellbeing as pursuing economic, social and ecological objectives simultaneously. After a six-month consultation process with 15,750 people participating in the national dialogue on wellbeing, 12 dimensions of well-being were selected (Figure 6). The dimensions are grouped into three broad areas: our life, our surroundings, and our country, with 46 indicators chosen to enable monitoring of progress.

Figure 6
Areas and dimensions of wellbeing in Germany
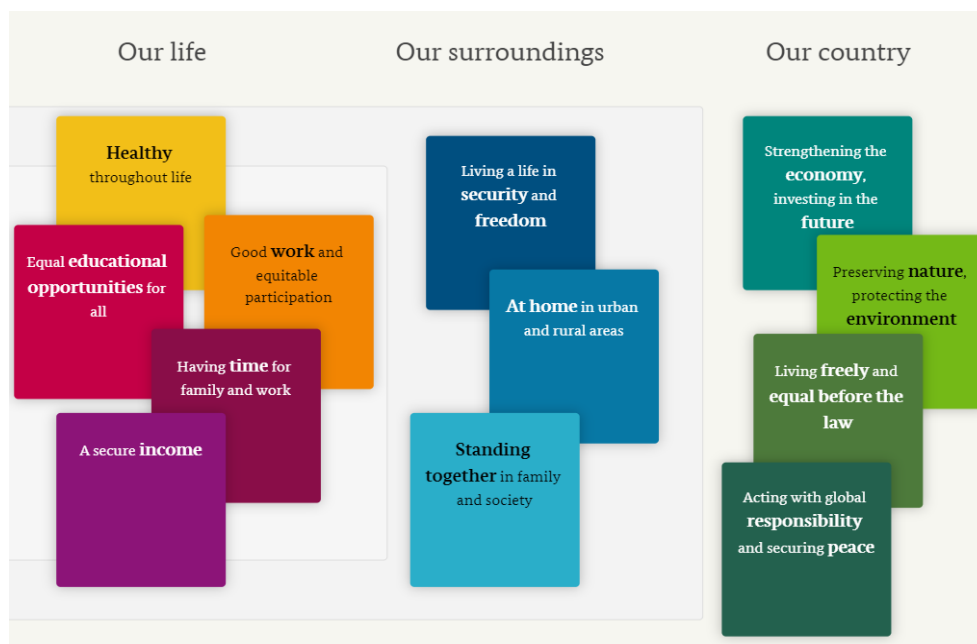
34.   The data are reported on an interactive portal where charts, maps, and reports are used to assess progress. All dimensions and indicators are viewed as equally important and the government intentionally avoided weighting them or organising them in a hierarchy. In each parliamentary term, a report on wellbeing in Germany will be produced making it possible to examine the significance of new social trends, political challenges and scientific findings about wellbeing in Germany. When observed over time, the indicators will highlight whether specific aspects of wellbeing in Germany have improved, remained the same or worsened and can be used to identify areas for policy interventions.

C.   Italian measures of well-being

35.   Italy also use a suite of indicators to measure wellbeing. A multidimensional approach was created to measure "equitable and sustainable well-being" (Bes). Measuring dimensions of well-being, inequality, and sustainability alongside the indicators related to production and economic activity enables inequalities across different areas to be more easily identified. A total of 130 indicators are used to measure 12 well-being domains:

- Economic well-being

- Education and training

- Environment

- Health

- Innovation, research and creativity

- Landscape and cultural heritage

- Politics and Institutions

- Quality of services

- Safety

- Social relationships

- Subjective well-being

- Work and life balance.

36.   Data are disseminated annually via a report and dashboard with breakdowns by region of Italy, sex, age, and level of education. In Italy, well-being is considered a starting point for policies to improve the quality of life of citizens. The national well-being goals in Italy also represent an essential part of the Sustainable Development Goals as the two frameworks overlap. Together, they allow greater understanding of societal issues and demonstrate where inequalities may lie. They help to facilitate the design and implementation of good, evidence-based, sustainable and equitable public policies.

5.   Social capital and social cohesion measurement

37.   Social capital examines the value of social connections in terms of economic aspects and well-being. It demonstrates that behaviours, attitudes and relationships between people have a fundamental value in improving aspects of an individual's life. It includes values such as trust, safety and a sense of belonging. The benefits of social capital can be individual, such as family support, or at community level, such as volunteering and there are associations between levels social capital and economic growth, sustainability and well-being.

A.   The United Kingdom social capital framework

38.   In the United Kingdom, measurement of social capital covers four different domains: personal relationships, social network supports, civic engagement, and trust and cooperative norms (see Table 1). Within these domains, there are 25 indicators used to measure social capital. The majority of data for the social capital indicators are sourced from a range of existing surveys. The indicators are closely related to the United Kingdom measures of national well-being and some indicators within the Sustainable Development Goals. They are also aligned to the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development's (OECD's) framework for measuring social capital.

Table 1
Domains of social capital in the United Kingdom measurement framework

Aspect of social capital	Definition
Personal relationships	This aspect of social capital refers to the "structure and nature of people's personal relationships" (Scrivens & Smith, 2013), and is concerned with who people know and what they do to establish and maintain their personal relationships.
Social network support	This refers to "the level of resources or support that a person can draw from their personal relationships" (Scrivens & Smith, 2013), but also includes what people do for other individuals on a personal basis.
Civic engagement	This refers to "the actions and behaviours that can be seen as contributing positively to the collective life of a community or society" (Scrivens & Smith, 2013). It includes activities such as volunteering, political participation and other forms of community actions.
Trust and cooperative norms	This refers to the trust and to the cooperative norms or shared values that shape the way people behave towards each other and as members of society. Trust and values that are beneficial for society as a whole (such as for example solidarity and equity) can determine how much people in a society are willing to cooperate with one another.

Source: ONS – Measuring Social Capital in the United Kingdom, July 2014.

39. Social capital is also measured by the United Kingdom's Devolved Administrations. In Scotland, the social capital index is part of Scotland's National Performance Framework. Since 2013, it has monitored aggregate changes in social capital levels through: social networks, community cohesion, community empowerment and social participation. Wales assesses progress towards their seven well-being goals, for example by measuring loneliness, volunteering and influencing decisions at a local level. The National Survey for Wales collects further data on social capital. In Northern Ireland, the Continuous Household Survey collects data on social capital, for example trust in people, perceptions of the local area, and action taken to solve problems affecting local people.
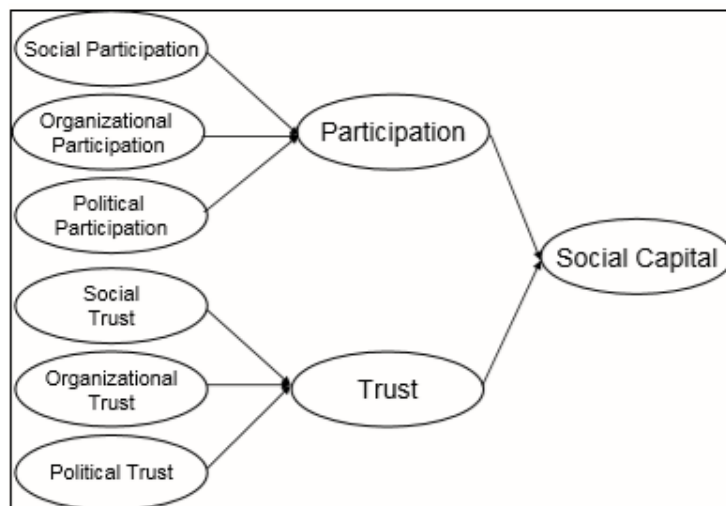
B.   *The Netherlands social capital framework*

40. The Netherlands measure both social capital and social cohesion. Beuningena & Schmeets (2013) aimed to produce an overview of social capital in the Netherlands. They suggest social capital consists of two dimensions: participation and trust. In each of these dimensions, three further sub-levels are measured: social, organisational, and political (see Figure 7):

(i)   Participation

- Social participation: having social contacts with relevant others;

- Organisational participation: memberships of organisations and attendance of events, and participation in the labour force or education;

- Political participation: involvement in politics, for example voting, memberships of political parties or taking political action.

(ii)   Trust

- Social trust: forming positive, reciprocal ties with others and increases the willingness to act in favour of the community;

- Organisational trust: trust in general institutions such as the police, the legal system, and the press; this trust may vary due to an individual's membership of an organisation;

- Political trust: trust in political institutions in particular, such as the Dutch Parliament.

Figure 7
Dutch model of social capital index 3

C. *Netherlands social cohesion framework*

41. Social cohesion is a similar concept to social capital. In 2008, Statistics Netherlands started a research programme focusing on social cohesion. The goal, to improve social cohesion in the Netherlands was summarised by Schmeets and Riele (2010, p. 5) in the following way:

"Social cohesion will increase if various groups – e.g.: lower and higher educated people, lower and higher income groups, natives and ethnic minorities, religious and non-religious people – have contacts and trust each other. In terms of social capital: not only bonding social capital (within groups) is a prerequisite for social cohesion, but also bridging social capital (between groups)."

42. A measurement framework was developed to monitor social cohesion using three dimensions: participation, trust, and integration.

43. Within participation dimension, three further levels were identified:

- Social: social contacts of people, including supporting and helping others;

- Civic: participation in organisations: membership, volunteering and participation in the labour market;

- Political: activities to influence politics including voting.

44. The 'trust' dimension focused on the quality of networks and relationships between people and institutions and also identified three further levels focusing on social, civic and political trust: social trust, trust in institutions, and trust in politics.

45. The 'integration' dimension measured participation and trust across everyone in society, within and across groups of people.

46. At the end of 2019, a large-scale study on social cohesion in Heerlen (a city and a municipality in the southeast of the Netherlands) was launched with baseline measurement by Statistics Netherlands showing that Heerlen has lower social cohesion than 40 similar cities. By identifying areas with lower social cohesion, the aim is to work strategically to engage local people with the city, improve levels of trust, and encourage people to be more politically active through voting for example.

D. Netherlands Personal Wellbeing Index

47.   In the Netherlands also a Personal Well-being Index (PWI) has been developed. More information on this can be found in Chapter 6 of the Guidelines on producing leading, composite and sentiment indicators (UNECE, 2019).

48.   The model for composite subjective wellbeing consists of eight dimensions which are considered relevant for the quality of life. These dimensions, which are based on perceptions, such as satisfaction, are: (1) Material living conditions; (2) Education and work; (3) Economic risks; (4) Health; (5) Social relations; (6) Participation and trust; (7) Safety; and (8) Environment. These dimensions are based on the recommendations and the dimensions distinguished by Stiglitz, Sen & Fitoussi (2009). The calculation of the Personal Wellbeing Index has 3 steps. In the first, each dimension gets a score: when there is only one indicator, the dimension-score and the indicator-score are identical. When there are more indicators, the dimension-score is the average score of the indicators. Each indicator is a number between 1 and 10. In the second step, the dimension-scores are added into the index-score; thus, this index has a minimum of eight and a maximum of 80. In the third step, the index-score is divided by eight, to get a score between 1 and 10 again. All eight dimensions are equally weighted when calculating the overall composite indicator. The composite subjective wellbeing index has been compiled annually since 2013.

49.   The index uses data collected by Statistics Netherlands in the survey on Social Cohesion and Wellbeing (7,300 respondents), based on a representative sample of the Dutch population 18 years or older. The website also provides a possibility for users to calculate their personal happiness score by rating their satisfaction within eight dimensions of their lives (including financial situation, health, and social life) which can be compared with the average score of the Dutch population or of a specific population group.

6.   Frameworks and indices measuring social exclusion or inclusion among groups at particular risk of disadvantage

50.   Population groups considered to be at greater risk of disadvantage are an important focus of measurement in relation to social exclusion and inclusion, and well-being. Highlighting where multiply disadvantaged groups may face inequalities and social exclusion or are at risk of being left behind can help to target policy interventions more strategically. Although disadvantaged groups may be included in wider measurement initiatives, to get a deeper understanding of the issues they face and how best to address them may require bespoke solutions to ensure the relevant groups are included in sufficient numbers and depth to provide robust findings. In this section, we have provided some examples of measurement frameworks focusing on social exclusion and wellbeing among those at particular risk of disadvantage.

New Zealand child and youth wellbeing measurement

51.   In New Zealand, the Child and Youth Wellbeing Strategy was launched in 2019 which is underpinned by nine principles promoting well-being and equity for all young people. The Strategy provides a unifying framework to measure children's well-being and what makes a good life for children that will be refreshed every three years to ensure it remains current and responsive to any societal changes. A set of six interconnected domains were developed to reflect what children and young people feel are important to them (Figure 8).

Figure 8
Six domains of children and young people's well-being in New Zealand

52.   Within these domains are 36 indicators which are used report on children's well-being and within this, specific measurement focuses on outcomes for Māori children. The choice of indicators aims to recognise and reflect that children and young people are experts in their own wellbeing.

III.   Taking stock of where we are now

A.   Measurement of social exclusion and other related concepts among task force members

53.   We asked Task Force members whether their country or organisation measures social exclusion directly or derives any indicators, indices or a series of indicators of other concepts related to social exclusion. About three-quarters of the Task Force members said their country does measure social exclusion and some of those also said they measure social inclusion.

54.   Multi-dimensional poverty and 'leave no one behind' from the SDGs were also mentioned by at least a third of the responding members of the Task Force. The findings are presented in Table 2.

Table 2
Measurement of multi-dimensional concepts linked to social exclusion among social exclusion Task Force member countries

Does your organisation/country derive any indicators, indices or series of indicators related to social exclusion using the following labels?	*Number agreeing*	*Countries measuring each concept*
Social exclusion: People are socially excluded if they are limited in their ability to fully participate in society.	8	Albania, Armenia, Czechia, Germany, Netherlands, Romania, Switzerland, United Kingdom
Social inclusion: People are socially included if they have the opportunity to fully participate in society in economic, social, psychological and political terms.	2	Albania, Netherlands
Social cohesion: Social cohesion refers to efforts to work towards the wellbeing of the population, reducing marginalisation, fostering belonging and trust, and providing opportunities for upward social mobility.	3	Albania, Netherlands, United Kingdom
Multi-dimensional poverty: People experience multi-dimensional poverty if they experience multiple deprivations at the household and individual level in terms of health, education and standard of living.	5	Albania, Armenia, Belarus, Netherlands, United Kingdom
Leaving no one behind: People are left behind when they do not have the opportunity to benefit from development progress (see UN 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development)	4	Belarus, Netherlands, Switzerland, United Kingdom
Other indicators	4	Germany, Romania, Switzerland, United Kingdom

55.   Although many Task Force countries are measuring social exclusion and related concepts, they also indicated lack of clarity in terms of the definition of social exclusion and the lack of a common framework for measuring it. Despite this, there was no consensus on what should be included. Several countries (Canada, Netherlands, Switzerland, and United States) highlighted the importance of having several indicators or a multidimensional approach which capture the various dimensions (social as well as economic) of social exclusion. Czechia also advocated for redefinition and rethinking of existing measures of deprivation. Germany highlighted the importance of a harmonised measure across countries which EU-SILC provides. The United Kingdom encouraged use of subjective and objective measures as good practice, although Czechia did not favour subjective questions.

56.   Rather than attempting to alight on a harmonised standard, we have taken a pragmatic approach in this report, exploring a range of measurement frameworks to highlight different ways in which social exclusion has been measured. Each may have value depending on the reason for measuring social exclusion and the context in which it is measured. However, we do also note the power that international initiatives can have in encouraging countries to begin to measure things they did not previously measure and in ways that offer insights about circumstances both within individual countries and between them. The introduction of the AROPE indicator of 'at risk of poverty and social exclusion' associated with the Europe 2020 Strategy is one example and the measurement of the Sustainable Development Goals and indicators is another. In both cases, concerted efforts have been made to define priorities for what is to be explored, how this can be tailored to local circumstances, and how partnerships can be created across countries to share approaches, knowledge and expertise. These initiatives have certainly provided the basis for more comparable measurement and analysis.

B.   Data available for measuring social exclusion

57.   Having considered how we are currently measuring social exclusion (and other related concepts), it is also important to consider why that may be the case and what else may be possible in future. This section considers the data landscape in different countries, the resources currently available for the measurement of social exclusion, and the areas which Task Force members think are important for making further progress nationally and internationally.

58.   In April 2019, the Task Force on the Measurement of Social Exclusion circulated a brief survey among member countries in order to collect national practices in relation to the following:

    (a)   Concepts and frameworks for measuring social exclusion at the national level;

    (b)   Indicators used for measuring social exclusion;

    (c)   Measures of emerging aspects and forms of social exclusion;

    (d)   Dissemination and communication of measures of social exclusion.

59.   The first part of the questionnaire identifies the extent to which national statistical institutes and other relevant organisations collect data on a range of topics across dimensions of social exclusion defined by the Bristol Social Exclusion Matrix (B-SEM). The Task Force selected this as a relevant framework for asking about the social exclusion data landscape in each country as it is particularly comprehensive. The domains in the B-SEM include material and economic resources; access to public and private services; social support, economic participation; education and skills; social, political and civic participation; health and wellbeing; living environment; and crime, harm and criminalisation. We focus here on the results from Part I of the questionnaire which asked all Task Force members about potential data sources available for the measurement of social exclusion, regardless of whether they currently do measure social exclusion. This helps to shed light on what is currently possible.

1.   Data availability across the domains of social exclusion

60.   Task Force countries collect data on a variety of indicators measuring the economic dimensions of social exclusion, such as material and economic resources and economic

participation. With some exceptions, data reflecting material *and economic resources* are available for most indicators at the subnational level, suggesting their utility in a framework for measuring social exclusion. For example, all countries collect data on household income, as well as low income, or poverty status. All countries, with the exception of Armenia, collected data on benefits take up and at least one measure of material deprivation, and most countries also reported collecting other measures of material and economic resources that are widely considered as indicators of social exclusion, such as homeownership, rent-to-income ratio or shelter costs, assets and debt. Further, most Task Force countries collect indicators of economic resources at regular intervals (annually). Common measures – such as household income and low income/poverty data – are available in most Task Force countries at the subnational level. However, subnational data are not available for homeownership, assets, debt, benefits take-up in Albania and Romania.

61.   All Task Force countries collect some data on *economic participation*. For example, all Task Force countries reported collecting data on labour force participation and employment status at least on an annual basis (with some reporting quarterly or monthly collection). With the exception of Albania and Romania, these data are available sub-nationally. However, with respect to other indicators of economic participation, the experience of Task Force member countries was mixed, with all counties collecting at least one other indicator (for example, provision of unpaid care, in-work poverty, job insecurity and overqualification). In general, where indicators are available, they are available at the subnational level except for in Albania and Romania.

62.   In general, Task Force member countries reported mixed experiences collecting data on indicators measuring *access to public and private services*, such as access to care, access to utilities, access to public transportation, internet access, and commuting distance. Nearly all counties (except Armenia) reported collecting data on internet access, although only six countries reported that these data were available at the subnational level (Belarus, Canada, Czechia, North Macedonia, Switzerland, the United Kingdom and the U.S.). Several Task Force countries collect data reflecting access to other private and public services at the subnational and national level. Again, Belarus, Canada, Czechia, Switzerland and the United Kingdom stand out as collecting a comprehensive set of indicators at both the national and subnational levels. However, these data are collected only once every three to five years in Belarus, Canada, and for some indicators, Switzerland. About half of the Task Force countries did not report collecting data on indicators of access to services, with the exception of internet access.

63.   With the exception of Albania, Armenia, Romania and United States, Task Force member counties collect data on *social support*, as measured by the frequency of and quality of contact with family members, friends and co-workers. Where these data are collected, they are available at the subnational level. However, although data are collected annually in Czechia, Germany and the United Kingdom, they are collected less frequently in Canada, North Macedonia and Switzerland. Task Force member countries were more uncertain as to data collection on children in foster or residential care. Only Albania, Belarus, Germany, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom collect these data. Some United States household surveys indicate where children are in foster care, but not children in residential care. Data are available sub-nationally in these countries. Typically, with the exception of Albania, data on children in foster and residential care come from a different source than other indicators of social exclusion.

64.   All countries collect data on *education and skills*, as measured by educational attainment. Subnational data on educational attainment are available in Belarus, Czechia, Germany, Switzerland, the United Kingdom and United States. While most countries report collecting these data at least annually, Belarus collects data on educational attainment once every 10 years. In terms of other indicators of education and skills, the experience among Task Force countries is more mixed. Belarus, Canada, North Macedonia, Switzerland and the United Kingdom collect data on cognitive skills attainment, competence in official language and school attendance, absence and/or expulsion or suspension. These data are available sub-nationally only for Belarus, Canada and the United Kingdom, and are collected once every five years in Canada. Switzerland and the United States also collect data reflecting competence in the official language at subnational level.

65.   With respect to *social, political and civic participation*, most Task Force countries, with the exception of Armenia and the United States, collect data on participation in common social activities. National and subnational data on voter turnout and/or registration as well as voter eligibility are collected by Canada, North Macedonia and Switzerland (the United Kingdom and United States also collect voter turnout and/or registration and turnout; Belarus collects voter eligibility). Canada, North Macedonia, Switzerland and the United Kingdom collected subnational data reflecting trust in government. Most countries, with the exception of Albania, North Macedonia and the United States collect data on volunteerism, with some countries reporting these data for subnational geographies. However, except for the United Kingdom which reports more frequent collection, these indicators are collected roughly every five years or on an ad hoc basis in most countries.

66.   Task Force member countries also reported collecting data on indicators of *health and wellbeing*. For example, all Task Force countries report life expectancy data except Czechia and Armenia. Nine Task Force countries collect a measure of self-reported physical health and eight collect data on mental health. All countries with the exception of Armenia and North Macedonia collect disability data. Substance dependence data are collected in seven countries. For most health measures, subnational data are available for Belarus, Czechia, Germany, and the United Kingdom; disability indicators are also available sub-nationally in the United States. Data on life satisfaction and subjective wellbeing are collected by all countries except for Armenia and the U.S. While most other Task Force countries reported collecting indicators of health and wellbeing at least annually, Romania reports collecting these data on an ad hoc basis. Albania and North Macedonia also collect life satisfaction and subjective wellbeing measures once every five years.

67.   In terms of indicators measuring *living environment*, all countries report data on housing quality and neighbourhood issues (including litter, vandalism and graffiti) except Czechia (housing quality), Belarus (neighbourhood issues), and Armenia (both housing quality and neighbourhood issues). Eight countries also collected data on environmental risks. However, subnational estimates are not available in Albania, Romania for these three indicators (housing quality, neighbourhood issues, and environmental risk) or in the United States for neighbourhood issues. Six countries report collecting data on self-reported neighbourhood satisfaction, with data available at a subnational level. Data on homelessness is mixed, with Canada, Netherlands and the United Kingdom reporting collecting these data, and subnational estimates being available in Canada and the United Kingdom. However, it is not clear whether this captures experience of homelessness retrospectively or captures current homelessness. Only three countries – Canada, Czechia and the United Kingdom – collected data on access to open space, and these data were collected sub-nationally. The United Kingdom is the only country that collects data on both traffic density and road accidents. North Macedonia also collects data on road traffic accidents. Most Task Force countries reported collecting these measures at least annually, except for Canada which collects them less frequently.

68.   Some Task Force countries also reported collecting data on *crime, harm and criminalisation*, although for many countries these data were collected from different sources from most other indicators. Seven Task Force countries reported measuring the crime rate and imprisonment; six countries measured rates of victimisation and reported collecting data on self-reports of fear of crime. Subnational data for these indicators were only available in Belarus and the United Kingdom, Canada (victimisation rate, self-reported fear of crime, and imprisonment) as well as Albania (crime rate and imprisonment) and the United States (crime rate). Most Task Force countries report collecting these data at least annually. Victimisation, self-reported crime and imprisonment data are collected less frequently (every five years or less) in the United States.

69.   A full break-down of the findings is available in Annex 2 of the full document.

2.   Sources of data for measuring social exclusion

70.   Most Task Force countries reported using survey data to measure some of the indicators across the dimensions of social exclusion, with most but not all countries indicating that many indicators could be derived from the same survey, with the exception of indicators of crime, harm and criminalisation. Some countries reported reliance on one data source for

most, if not all, of the indicators measured across the dimensions of social exclusion. For example, Albania, Czechia, Germany, North Macedonia and Romania rely heavily on the EU-SILC as the source for most of the indicators. Five countries also reported supplementing survey data with administrative records to measure indicators.

71.   All 12 Task Force member countries reported that indicators could be linked across at least two of the dimensions of social exclusion, either being collected in the same survey or as a result of record linkages. Canada and the United Kingdom reported that all nine of the social exclusion dimensions are integrated, while Albania, Czechia, Germany, the Netherlands, Switzerland, and the United States recording that eight of the nine measures are integrated. Material/economic resources, access to public and private services, and economic participation were the most commonly integrated measures with 11 countries recording them as integrated. The least integrated measure is crime, harm and criminalisation and social support, recorded as integrated by five countries (Armenia, Canada, the Netherlands, and the United Kingdom). Most integration is achieved by collecting data on the same survey, though there are some cases where data linkage is used.

3.   How inclusive are our data?

72.   There was general consensus among members of the Task Force that groups most vulnerable to social exclusion are not covered due to a lack of timely data, lack of data granularity, because these groups may not be covered in household surveys, or because linkages between surveys is difficult.

73.   For example, just four countries have data covering the non-private household population for at least one of the dimensions of social exclusion (Canada, Switzerland, the United Kingdom and the United States), with Canada and the United Kingdom having the most comprehensive coverage (indicators in four out of the nine dimensions) for this group. There are plans at the EU level to develop pilot studies covering the non-private household population in social surveys, starting in the area of health and disability (EHIS survey), however currently there is lack of such data. Similarly, only four countries could analyse at least one dimension of social exclusion (Canada, the Netherlands, Switzerland and the United Kingdom) for homeless people. With the exception of Canada, the only dimension covered was material/economic resources. Homeless people are not generally captured in household surveys. The need for such data is recognised at the EU level. Information on past experience of homelessness is planned to be collected on regular basis across the EU countries from 2023 onwards, after a test in 2018. However, while it will provide important information for policy makers on reasons for past homelessness and what allowed exiting homelessness, it cannot replace data collection from current homeless persons. Other Task Force countries do not have data available to measure social exclusion for the non-household or homeless populations.

74.   Most countries also have difficulty measuring social exclusion among members of vulnerable groups that may be covered in household surveys. For example, six of the Task Force countries collect data on immigrants (Armenia, Canada, the Netherlands, Switzerland, the United Kingdom and the United States) and three countries collect data for refugees (Canada, Netherlands and the United Kingdom) for at least one of the dimensions of social exclusion, with Canada collecting data on all nine for both immigrants and refugees. As before, material/economic resources is the dimension with the most coverage for both immigrants and refugees. Other countries do not have available data to measure social exclusion for the immigrant and refugee populations. The need for such data is recognised at the EU level. Consequently, information on respondent's country of birth and citizenship as well as county of birth of father and mother will be collected annually from 2021 onwards. Those variables are standardized across all EU social surveys.

75.   In the EU, the Fundamental Rights Agency (FRA) carries out dedicated surveys on hard to reach and most vulnerable groups and minorities, like on Immigrants and descendants of immigrants, LGBTI, Roma, etc. However, despite collaboration, they are not carried out in the context of the general population surveys of the European Statistical System.

76.   Among countries which measure the LGBTQ+ population, data on sexual orientation and gender identity are generally collected in separate surveys from those that contain

questions regarding social exclusion, and there are challenges to linking data across surveys. Canada, Netherlands, United Kingdom and United States report limited coverage of the LGBTQ+ population.

77.   Thus, the biggest challenges relate to coverage of vulnerable populations in existing data sources and data linkage. To the extent that countries collect data on vulnerable populations listed, these data are often not in the same sources as measures of social exclusion, and data linkages are often not possible. Limited coverage of some groups may be available in administrative records but linkages to survey data may be difficult. With respect to best practices, it might be useful to consider the experiences of Canada, Netherlands and Switzerland. It may also be worth considering methods to reach hard-to-reach populations and explore methods for survey-administrative record linkage or cross-survey imputation.

C.   How social exclusion measurement can contribute to monitoring progress towards the sustainable development goals

78.   The Task Force also considered how measurement of social exclusion could contribute to the SDG principle of 'leave no one behind' (LNOB). As shown in Table 2, about three-quarters of Task Force members said they measure social exclusion, but only about a third said they measure 'leaving no one behind' in relation to the SDGs.

79.   Social exclusion and SDGs are similar in their focus on poverty, inequalities and people who are disadvantaged either through personal characteristics, circumstances or geographical context. These synergies suggest it may be possible to use data gathered for the measurement of social exclusion to monitor progress towards 'leaving no one behind'.

80.   To explore this further, we mapped the common dimensions of social exclusion, and sub-topics within them to the Sustainable Development Goals to determine the extent to which they overlap. All of the social exclusion dimensions and the majority of sub-topics corresponded to at least one SDG target or indicator (see Annex 3 of the full document). Conversely, of the 232 unique SDG indicators, 99 (43%) closely relate to a measure of social exclusion.

81.   Some dimensions of social exclusion are also related to multiple SDG indicators across different goals. For example, 'household income' aligns with the following SDG indicators:

- 1.2.1 – Proportion of population living below the national poverty line, by sex and age

- 2.3.2 – Average income of small-scale food producers, by sex and indigenous status

- 3.8.2 – Proportion of population with large household expenditures on health as a share of total household expenditure or income

- 10.1.1 – Growth rates of household expenditure or income per capita among the bottom 40 per cent of the population and the total population

- 10.2.1 – Proportion of people living below 50 per cent of median income, by sex, age and persons with disabilities

82.   Table 3 summarises the findings of the mapping exercise, highlighting that each dimension of social exclusion relates to multiple SDG indicators.

Table 3
The number of unique SDG indicators that relate to each dimension of social exclusion

Measure of social exclusion dimension	Number of related SDG indicators
Education and skills	23
Economic participation	21
Living environment	21
Material/economic resources	18
Crime, harm and criminalisation	16
Access to public and private services	15
Social, political and civic participation	8
Social support	8
Health and well-being	3

83. Even where they are not directly related to SDG indicators, the social exclusion measures can help to identify those at risk of being left behind. For example, collecting data on 'competence in official language' as part of the social, political and civic participation domain in social exclusion measurement highlights people who could experience, or are at risk of, inequality and exclusion because of a language barrier. Additionally, the measurement of 'disability' which is frequently part of social exclusion measurement frameworks is also one of the key SDG data disaggregation required to highlight who may be at risk of being left behind.

D. Conclusions and recommendations

84. The ways how social exclusion is defined and measured vary greatly and it is not obvious which measurement framework might be best to use. It is recommended to *share good practices on the measurement of social exclusion and linked phenomena, such as multidimensional poverty, and use the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development as a unifying framework for the different approaches.*

85. The measurement of the social dimensions of social exclusion varies and the use of indicators of social support or social, *political* and civic participation in measures of social exclusion is rare. It is recommended to *improve measurement of the social dimensions of social exclusion and incorporate indicators of social support or social, political and civic participation into the measurement practices.*

86. The groups most at risk of social exclusion may be not covered in the measurement due to a lack of timely data, lack of data *granularity*, because these groups may not be covered in household surveys (such as those who are homeless, in prison, or living in communal establishments), or because linkages between surveys are difficult. It is recommended to *explore methods for more inclusive data collection on hard-to-reach population and consider methods of data linkage across sources or cross-survey imputation. In certain cases, collecting information in private households on past experiences, e.g., of homelessness, imprisonment, might be also considered.*

87. The measurement of social exclusion must capture many aspects of an individual's life. Substantial variation exists both in the breadth of coverage of social exclusion indicators and in the extent to which relevant indicators are available from the same source. Linking survey and administrative data to provide a wider range of data on the same individuals may be a helpful way forward. It is recommended to *explore methods to link survey data to administrative records and register data; explore methods for cross-survey imputation or model-based estimates for small populations or for subnational estimates where these data are not available.*

88. While data are collected annually for most dimensions of social exclusion, indicators for several dimensions may be collected less frequently. For example, indicators measuring access to services, social support (particularly frequency of contact), social, political and

civic participation and subjective measures of health and wellbeing are not collected on an annual basis in many member countries. It is recommended to *consider alternative data sources, such as administrative records and increase frequency of data collection where necessary and feasible.*

89.   It was revealed that the time lag between data collection and dissemination is often longer than one year for indicators across several dimensions of social exclusion. It is recommended to *consider implications of time from collection to dissemination for measurement and reporting of social exclusion.*

—————————