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Approaches to Measuring Social Exclusion

Prepared by UNECE Task Force on the Measurement of Social Exclusion

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1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 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. The measurement of social exclusion complements poverty measurement and adds insights beyond what might be gained by looking at monetary poverty alone. Similar to multidimensional poverty, a social exclusion focus can help to identify groups that are not in poverty but may be excluded in other ways, or who are experiencing multiple forms of exclusion. It can also draw attention to the deprivations and disadvantages that limit participation, rather than the outcomes of these limitations, which may lead to insights on appropriate interventions.

3. 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.

4. The CES Bureau approved the Task Force's terms of reference in June 2018. The Task Force consisted of statistical experts from UNECE member countries, other countries participating in the work of the Conference of European Statisticians, international organisations and academia. The experts worked through 2019-2021 to develop the present document on measuring social exclusion.

5. This document 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 organizations are currently doing in the 'social exclusion' space. In addition, during the consultation with the CES member countries in March-April 2021, the following countries provided their national experiences in measuring social exclusion (or related concepts) by filling a country practice questionnaire and templates: Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Croatia, Finland, France, Georgia, Hungary, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Mexico, Russian Federation, Serbia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, and Turkey. The results from the country respondents can be found in chapters 4, 5 and 7. Furthermore, during the consultation with the CES member countries in 2021, we received 19 more country practices[1] in addition to the 12 Task Force countries covered initially. As a result, the document now contains experiences from 31 countries.

[1] Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Croatia, Finland, France, Georgia, Hungary, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Mexico, Russian Federation, Serbia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden and Turkey.

6. 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'.

7. 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'.

8. 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 document.

9. 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 well-being 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.

10. 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 document 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. It focuses on how measurement of progress towards Sustainable Development Goals could provide insights into social exclusion and offer a wider, unifying framework to facilitate comparisons across regions. Ultimately, our goal is to promote knowledge sharing, and to do this, we draw on practical examples from countries which participated in the work and more widely to learn from each other.

11. The provision of sufficient means and statistical capacity for measuring social exclusion is crucial. The document aims to inspire their best possible use and not to substitute for the relevant legal and policy processes. The document addresses the entire UNECE region, giving the opportunity to countries to learn from best practices.

1.2 Outline of the Document

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

13. Chapter 3 considers why we may want to measure inclusion or exclusion, equalities and well-being, or leaving no one behind, using specific policy examples from across the world which have provided the impetus for measurement.

14. In Chapter 4, 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.

15. In Chapter 5, 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.

16. Chapter 6 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.

17. Chapter 7 considers where countries participating in this work 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.

18. Finally, Chapter 8 presents an overview of the issues that would be a priority in the future work on measuring social exclusion.

2 WHAT IS SOCIAL EXCLUSION? A BRIEF REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

19. Social exclusion as a concept has existed since the late 1970s, when it was first coined to recognise and capture marginalisation in French society. Throughout the decades, its meaning expanded to include various excluded groups such as minorities or the so-called 'underclass', and from the 1990s and 2000s onwards, it evolved into a broad and popular concept describing complex, systematic disadvantages, and as a result, came to be used interchangeably with poverty (Hickey & du Toit, 2007). As of today, there is yet to be a consensus on its exact definition, its relation to poverty, and its utility as an analytical term (Hartley, 2016). This review will set out a synthesis of the literature on social exclusion with emphasis on key characteristics of the concept, its relation to other concepts such as poverty, some examples of working definitions, and finally, a short explanation on the benefits of measuring social exclusion and some existing examples of measurement.

20. Room (2000) argues that the introduction of "social exclusion" represents a noticeable theoretical shift away from poverty as traditionally understood, that is purely confounded with monetary shortfalls. This change embraces the focus on multidimensionality, on collective resources as opposed to individual ones, on the relational nature of deprivation compared with simple distributive stratification, on the process by which it is formed and its dynamic nature, and lastly, on

the extent to which some individuals and communities are chronically isolated through systematic barriers to resources and opportunities and cultural degradation. This shift aligns with Sen (2000), who suggests that a juxtaposition of the concept with income poverty broadens the definition of capability deprivation to capture the different and multiple deprivations faced by individuals. While exclusion does not add significantly to the idea of multidimensional poverty, it can provide a focus on the multiplicity of deprivations faced by the most vulnerable and the relational nature of the process by which these deprivations are formed. Contrary to Sen, Abrahamson (1995) argues that social exclusion's introduction to the field of social science did not terminate or alter the concepts of poverty and deprivation, which resulted in overlapping use of the terms and confusion on the differences and similarities of the two concepts. As we will see, debate continues on the utility of such broad conceptualisation, with some regarding it as beneficial to operationalisation of a multifaceted notion of poverty as it allows for definition in relation to a specific country or community context (Burchardt, 2000), while others regard it as yet another term to describe systematic disadvantage and deprivation among members of society (Abrahamson, 1995). Finally, some believe that the two concepts cannot and should not be separated as they are intrinsically linked and contain elements of each other, leading to overlap in the poor and the socially excluded populations (Madanipour et al., 2015), while others believe that one can indeed be poor and not excluded, and vice versa (Atkinson &Hills, 1998).

21. Like poverty, the concept of social exclusion includes the juxtaposition of those who have and those who lack. The term can refer to specific aspects of life, such as exclusion from the labour force, consumption, or social rights, or more general forms of exclusion across multiple or all spheres of society. Social exclusion may concern individuals, groups or communities. Exclusion can arise from individual vulnerabilities, or structural conditions such as discrimination where individuals are excluded due to membership in group (actual or ascribed). Both forms of exclusion can apply to single or multiple disadvantages and can compound overtime or as a result of shocks.[2]

22. Social exclusion can also appear in the geographical context, where certain areas – villages and towns, or regions – are 'excluded' from national services, public discourse, or the political arena. Thus, an important characteristic of exclusion may be its relativity to time and place, as it can operate at multiple levels (individual, family, community, country or world region) at the same time and has the potential to evolve with time as the composition of society, the economy, or the political landscape changes (Burchardt et al., 2002). At the same time, social exclusion may also be evident when the impoverishment is due to an exogenous shock, rather than discrimination, but the policy response inequitably favours some affected groups more than others.

23. Compared to poverty, which highlights an outcome – a state of disadvantage – social exclusion draws attention to both the outcome and the process by which individuals or groups become or remain systematically disadvantaged (Room, 1995; Hartley, 2016; Madanipour et al., 2015). Most definitions of social exclusion used by governmental organisations and research centres emphasise this procedural element. For instance, the United Kingdom's Department for International Development (DFID) defines social exclusion as "a process by which certain groups are systematically disadvantaged because they are discriminated against" based on a particular characteristic (Khan et

[2] Social exclusion can be measured at the individual level and aggregated to identify groups and communities who are most excluded. This creates the possibility to explore intra-group differences. Measurement at the community levels is also possible but does not permit analysis of intra-group differences and therefore, might conceal important differences.

al., 2015, p3). Among those at particular risk of social exclusion are groups such as the elderly and retired, young adults, lone parents and the sick and disabled (Barnes et al., 2002).

24. Besides emphasis on social exclusion as a process rather than an outcome, a strand of the related scholarship focuses on the distance from 'everyday customs and necessities' of life produced by exclusion. In their work, Levitas et al. (2007) describe social exclusion as "the lack or denial of resources, rights, goods and services, and the inability to participate in the normal relationships and activities, available to the majority of people in a society". This definition nods to the notion of relative poverty conceptualised by Peter Townsend - a definition that formed the basis for the Breadline Britain studies and the Poverty and Social Exclusion Survey - who describes the poor as those who lack the means and access to everyday customs of life, and who are therefore excluded from "ordinary living patterns, customs and activities" (Townsend, 1979, p31). Relative poverty can thus be understood as a form of social exclusion, but it is conceptually different from the perhaps wider-spread public notion of absolute poverty. The former combines individual well-being shortfalls (i.e. absolute poverty) with the overall welfare level in a given society. Thus, it brings in the notion of inequality into the poverty measurement exercise. Both approaches to poverty are seen as distinct and are often compared to each other yielding long-standing debates in the economics scholarship (see for instance Chen & Ravallion, 2012). Note, however, that in the space of capabilities to overcome a social disadvantage does not necessarily translate into the use of an absolute poverty threshold. As Sen observes astutely, poverty may be absolute in the space of capabilities but relative in the space of commodities. He gives the example by Adam Smith that while Greek and Romans lived very comfortably without linen, in richer societies, i.e. 18th century Scotland, in order to enjoy 'the ability to go about without shame' (an absolute capability) a man required leather shoes and a linen shirt (relative attainments in the space of commodities) (Sen, 1983).

25. Despite the different focus on process versus outcome, if one considers poverty to include non-economic deprivations such as access to basic services, health, and even social connectedness in some cases (Alkire & Foster, 2011), then the poor and socially excluded populations likely overlap to a great extent. As a result, in some contexts of particularly low overall levels of development, social exclusion has been used interchangeably with poverty, especially multidimensional poverty, as both are concerned with systematic disadvantage and the exclusion of an individual or group from multiple domains of life (Madanipur et al., 2015). Even if the measured phenomenon is the same, an added benefit of the term 'social exclusion' in some contexts is obtained if the word 'poverty' generates shame, blame or guilt. If the word social exclusion is used, the effect may be to insinuate that basic responsibility is assumed to rest with structures of injustice rather than with the person identified as poor. In that sense, the term social exclusion may invite greater public attention.

26. In the case of social exclusion, this systematic distancing from everyday social structures refers to limited or denied access to resources, opportunities, rights, and relations that prevent full societal participation and often leads to disadvantages over a life course. Social exclusion can happen in various areas of life, with the literature identifying key sites of exclusion as the labour market, public institutions and services, consumption, production, political engagement, and social relations (Burchardt et al., 2002; Suppa, 2018). The Poverty and Social Exclusion Survey administered in the United Kingdom defines exclusion in four different domains: "impoverishment or exclusion from adequate income or resources (poverty); labour market exclusion; service exclusion (lack of access to services inside or outside the household); and exclusion from social relations (non-participation in common social activities, isolation, lack of support, disengagement, confinement)". The Survey

categorises the latter three dimensions of social exclusion as being characteristically distinct from (monetary) poverty (Gordon et al., 2000). However national measures of multidimensional poverty regularly encompass the first three domains although the fourth only appears in a few official measures (UNDP and OPHI 2019). Furthermore, scholars debate whether lack of access in the different spheres is of equal importance, with some arguing that exclusion in the social sphere requires more attention and response as it is rarely measured or captured in similar concepts such as poverty (Gordon et al., 2000; Samuel et al., 2014; Suppa, 2018). From a practical perspective, this may be due to the fact that social exclusion has a more intrinsically abstract nature and may be very dynamic due to its emphasis on process. This makes it difficult to capture in a survey, where only a limited number of questions are used as measurement tools. No doubt, this also plagues poverty measures today, but there seems to be a larger, more explicit strand of literature and policy effort aimed at solving these issues in poverty measurement (Atkinson, 2019).

27. Overall, there is no clear or straightforward definition of social exclusion. The term encompasses issues ranging from material or multidimensional poverty, to systematic discrimination, or social isolation (Levitas, 2006; Room, 1995); however, most definitions of poverty in Europe, some of which are presented below, include social exclusion as a concept underpinned by poverty. For instance, the definition adopted by the European Union in 1975, which forms the basis for its social inclusion strategy, states that "people are said to be living in poverty if their income and resources are so inadequate as to preclude them from having a standard of living considered acceptable in the society in which they live" (Nolan & Whelan, 2010). Despite the similarities in definitions and use, the EU introduced a distinction between the two terms by linking social exclusion to denial of social rights and positioning it in "broader cultural terms in contrast to the understanding of poverty as insufficient income" (Abrahamson, 1995 p134), even though the terms are often not separated in everyday language.

28. Nonetheless, measuring social exclusion should be a priority, as it enables policy-makers to identify individuals and communities suffering from systematic disadvantage and the process by which their exclusion takes place. The difficulty in defining and therefore measuring social exclusion is that, unlike poverty, it often does not specify a definite threshold. In practice, it can be difficult to pinpoint a clear-cut line whereby a person or group experiences social exclusion. As a result, some argue that people live on a scale of exclusion – ranging from fully included to fully excluded – and social exclusion develops by an "accumulation of dimensions of exclusions" (Silver, 2007), an idea similar to the accumulation of deprivations theorised by multidimensional poverty measures (Alkire & Foster, 2011). Room (2000) and Buchardt et al. (2002) offer some guidance on operationalising the concept for measurement, as their measure encapsulates the multidimensional nature of exclusion by focusing on exclusion in key activities relative to one's surroundings.

29. Given the different factors that contribute to social exclusion and the different levels it inhabits, naturally, policy-makers and scholars have developed a variety of approaches on how to improve people's lives, such as focusing on who is excluded or at risk of exclusion, how or in what way they are excluded, why are they excluded and who is driving the exclusion, and what are the negative impacts of their exclusion (Khan et al., 2015). Examples of measurement at the national level include the Poverty and Social Exclusion Survey in the United Kingdom (Gordon et al., 2000), the material deprivation, quasi-joblessness, and income poverty components of the annual EU-SILC surveys by the European Union (Guio et al., 2016) and the Quality of Life, Social Capital, Poverty and Social Exclusion in Poland report (Statistics Poland, 2014).

30. Based on this discussion, one may posit that poverty and social exclusion have often been operationalised at different levels of analysis. Based on Sen (1976), any poverty measurement exercise (monetary or otherwise) begins by identifying individuals who suffer this condition. No doubt, poverty status holds complex links with society, but this identification step accounts only tangentially for social relations. Social exclusion, in generating the conditions of disadvantage, takes into account more explicitly the social tissue and human interconnections and inequalities. In practice, the set of poor people and those facing social exclusion often tend to overlap, which may have led to perceptions that the two concepts are interchangeable. However, when social exclusion includes additional aspects of people's lives such as relational deprivations or violence, then clearly it is broader than poverty, and additional actions are required to end it. For instance, conditional cash transfers or other forms of targeting are unlikely to be an adequate way to terminate social exclusion, even if they may be an effective policy action against some forms of poverty and under precise conditions.

3 WHY MEASURE SOCIAL EXCLUSION?

31. This chapter focuses on the reasons why it may be helpful to measures social exclusion, highlighting a range of ways in which measurement of social exclusion may contribute to important policy goals. We provide examples from across the world of policy initiatives that have as one of their goals the reduction of social exclusion or improvement of social inclusion. These examples serve to illustrate that the imperative to measure social exclusion or inclusion does not necessarily arise from policies with a sole or explicit aim of reducing social exclusion itself. Rather, they may be policies with other stated goals, such as improving well-being, reducing poverty or improving social cohesion, but as part of achieving this, social exclusion or inclusion must also be addressed.

32. A range of policy goals linked to social exclusion or inclusion are presented in Box 3.1. These are drawn from examples of national and international policy statements.

Box 3.1: Examples of policy aims linked to social exclusion

Policy aims linked to social exclusion

An aspiration to promote:

Equity and fairness of opportunities between individuals, groups and areas**; levelling up**
Everyone contributing to the economy
Inclusive growth- widely shared benefits of jobs and growth
Full participation in society for all; **social inclusion**; dignity; empowerment; **well-being;** resilience
Social cohesion; unity
National **security and stability**
Social justice; **Leaving no one behind**
Social mobility and giving everyone opportunities to progress

A desire to limit:

Inequalities between individuals, groups and geographical areas
Intergenerational transmission of disadvantage
Perceived **social divisions**
Threats to growth and prosperity
Radicalisation linked to social and economic inequalities

3.1 NATIONAL POLICY INITIATIVES INCORPORATING SOCIAL EXCLUSION OR INCLUSION

3.1.1 Social inclusion in Australia

33. In his foreword to the report, *Social Inclusion in Australia, How Australia is Faring* (2012), the then Minister for Social Inclusion, Mark Butler, Member of Parliament, highlighted a range of reasons why Australia chose to measure social inclusion and created the Australian Social Inclusion Board. Among these, he highlighted that the lens of social inclusion can provide a way to understand complex social policy issues such as intergenerational transmission of disadvantage, the circumstances of left behind places and of the most vulnerable and disadvantaged people in society. He framed this as both about social equity and about an inclusive vision of economic prosperity and growth. By investing in people and communities that are least socially included, and taking a joined-up approach to targeting services where they are most needed, all of Australia would reap the benefits of greater prosperity.

> *"Achieving lasting and comprehensive social inclusion in Australia is one of our most complex social policy challenges. That is partly due to the scale of our ambition: social inclusion policy focuses on the most vulnerable and disadvantaged, those who need more effective social supports and need them the most. It is focussed on entrenched deprivation: deprivation that can span generations and forms part of a cycle of disadvantage from which it is difficult to break free. Such disadvantage can also become concentrated in particular locations, and resistant to traditional approaches. Tackling social exclusion therefore is not just an issue of equity, it is also an economic necessity. Strong prosperity and growth across our nation requires that everyone who can participate economically has the resources and opportunities to do so. [The social*

inclusion agenda] creates a national framework for effectively investing in our communities and in our people. But this is not simply about more money. This is about different government agencies, policy areas and sectors of the economy working together to provide joined up and targeted services for those missing out on the opportunities which most of us take for granted." (Rt. Hon. Mark Butler MP, Minister for Social Inclusion, Australia, 2012)

3.1.2 Opportunity for All in Canada

34. In Canada, a new poverty reduction strategy, Opportunity for All, introduced in 2018 provides another example of how social inclusion may be viewed as a key policy goal beyond poverty reduction. In his foreword to the strategy document, Jean-Yves Duclos, Minister of Families, Children and Social Development described the aims of the strategy and how they were informed by consultations undertaken with Canadians across the country, including those with lived experience of poverty:

> *"…Canadians spoke of the importance of providing opportunity for all; they spoke about dignity, inclusion, security, resilience and empowerment; and they spoke about the damages of "us versus them" attitudes, language and policies.*
>
> *It is my great honour and privilege to take the stories, concerns and accomplishments that Canadians shared with us and use them as the basis for developing a strategy that reflects the fundamental needs and the highest aspirations of all Canadians—a strategy built on the same pillars that enable our middle class to succeed: living in dignity; providing opportunity and inclusion; and enhancing resilience and security.*
>
> *Canada's first-ever Poverty Reduction Strategy is built on the vision that whoever they are, and wherever they originally came from, all Canadians should be able to live in dignity. Canada's first-ever poverty reduction strategy is built on the belief that all Canadians deserve to be treated fairly and to have the means and the abilities to grow and fully participate in the development of their communities. And Canada's first-ever poverty reduction strategy is built on the vision that all Canadians should have a sense of security and be hopeful that tomorrow will be better than today for them, for their loved ones and for the generations to come."*

3.2 INTERNATIONAL INITIATIVES AND SOCIAL EXCLUSION MEASUREMENT

35. Beyond national policy examples, international agreements, conventions and initiatives can also provide the impetus to measure social exclusion or inclusion and equalities, both within individual nations and as part of the wider international context.

3.2.1 The Sustainable Development Goals

36. Agenda 2030, the Sustainable Development Goals, is perhaps the most ambitious and far-reaching current example, with the vision for social and economic inclusion set out in the following way:

> *"…We envisage a world of universal respect for human rights and human dignity, the rule of law, justice, equality and non-discrimination; of respect for race, ethnicity and cultural diversity; and of equal opportunity permitting the full realization of human potential and contributing to shared prosperity. A world which invests in its children and in which every child grows up free from violence and exploitation. A world in which*

every woman and girl enjoys full gender equality and all legal, social and economic barriers to their empowerment have been removed. A just, equitable, tolerant, open and socially inclusive world in which the needs of the most vulnerable are met.

We envisage a world in which every country enjoys sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth and decent work for all..."

(Transforming our world: the 2030 agenda for sustainable development, extract from the declaration by Heads of State and Government and High-Level Representatives at the United Nations Sustainable Development Summit, 25 September 2015)

37. In implementing this vision, special emphasis is placed on 'leaving no one behind', starting with addressing the needs of those furthest behind first. This means clearly identifying who is most disadvantaged and least able to reap the benefits of sustainable social and economic development. As part of this, the leaving no one behind agenda requires data disaggregated by a range of characteristics and circumstances to provide clear insights into who is most disadvantaged and how.

"…By adopting the 2030 Agenda, Member States have committed to leave no one behind in their implementation of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs)…Within countries, all people, regardless of their backgrounds, have rights and responsibilities to fulfil their potential in life, and lead decent, dignified and rewarding lives in a healthy environment. This means that goals and targets need to be met for all segments of society. Those often left behind are people living in poverty and other vulnerable situations, including children, youth, persons with disabilities, people living with HIV/AIDS, older persons, indigenous peoples, refugees and internally displaced persons and migrants. Their voices must be heard, and their active participation as agents of change needs to be promoted…To achieve the objectives of the 2030 Agenda, we need holistic and coherent cross-sectoral policies supported by disaggregated data and evidence-based policymaking. We need to identify those who are left behind and the circumstances that prevent their full participation in the benefits of development."

3.2.2 How social exclusion measurement can contribute to monitoring progress towards the Sustainable Development Goals

38. The Task Force also considered how measurement of social exclusion could contribute to the SDG principle of 'leave no one behind' (LNOB). About two-thirds of country respondents said that they measure social exclusion, but a third said they measure 'leaving no one behind' in relation to the SDGs.

39. 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'.

40. 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). Conversely, of the 232 unique SDG indicators, 99 (43%) closely relate to a measure of social exclusion.

41. 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

42. Table 3.1 summarises the findings of the mapping exercise, highlighting that each dimension of social exclusion relates to multiple SDG indicators.

Table 3.1: 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

43. 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 disaggregations required to highlight who may be at risk of being left behind.

44. Each of the 193 member states that have signed up to the SDGs are committed to submitting a Voluntary National Review (VNR) outlining their progress towards the Goals. Central to VNRs are the principles that underpin SDGs, with 'leave no one behind' being one of these. Of the 47 countries that submitted a VNR in 2019, most countries expressed their commitment to 'leave no one behind' and roughly 40% of countries included a chapter or sub-chapter on this topic. Some countries also referred to the measurement of social exclusion or inclusion as a valuable contribution to monitoring the SDGs. For example, Cameroon, noted that they monitored 'leave no one behind' using measures designed to promote social inclusion; Bosnia and Herzegovina also partially explored 'leave no one behind' through measures of social inclusion and protection.

45. These findings suggest that measuring social exclusion or inclusion can provide further insight in monitoring progress towards the SDGs, particularly in relation to education, access to resources, poverty and inequalities. It supports the principle of 'leave no one behind' and can help to highlight those who are vulnerable and marginalised.

Figure 3.1 Leave No One Behind Targets of the Sustainable Development Goals

3.2.3 EU 2020 Strategy

46. The Europe 2020 strategy is the EU's agenda for growth and jobs, implemented in 2010 and extending to 2020. It was introduced to provide a strategy and targets intended to guide the EU through the financial crisis of 2008 and its aftermath, to emerge better and stronger. In the preface to the strategy document, José Manuel Barroso noted both short- and long-term objectives:

> *Economic realities are moving faster than political realities, as we have seen with the global impact of the financial crisis. We need to accept that the increased economic interdependence demands also a more determined and coherent response at the political level.*
>
> *The last two years have left millions unemployed. It has brought a burden of debt that will last for many years. It has brought new pressures on our social cohesion. It has also exposed some fundamental truths about the challenges that the European economy faces.*
>
> *And in the meantime, the global economy is moving forward. How Europe responds will determine our future. The crisis is a wake-up call, the moment where we recognise that "business as usual" would consign us to a gradual decline, to the second rank of the new global order.*
>
> *This is Europe's moment of truth. It is the time to be bold and ambitious. Our short-term priority is a successful exit from the crisis. It will be tough for some time yet, but we will get there. Significant progress has been made on dealing with bad banks,*

correcting the financial markets and recognising the need for strong policy coordination in the eurozone.

To achieve a sustainable future, we must already look beyond the short term. Europe needs to get back on track. Then it must stay on track. That is the purpose of Europe 2020. It's about more jobs and better lives. It shows how Europe has the capability to deliver smart, sustainable and inclusive growth, to find the path to create new jobs and to offer a sense of direction to our societies.

47. To reach the objectives of the Europe 2020 strategy, the EU adopted five headline targets to be reached by 2020 focusing on: employment; research and development; climate change and energy; education; and poverty and social exclusion.

48. The specific target in relation to poverty and social exclusion is: "At least 20 million people fewer at risk of poverty or social exclusion" across the EU by the end of the decade. This is an example of where the policy goal is to promote inclusive growth rather than a reduction in social exclusion per se, but a reduction of poverty and social exclusion are seen as fundamental to achieving inclusive growth. Flagship policy initiatives were also developed to promote inclusive growth focusing on new jobs and skills development and the European platform against poverty. In the Europe 2020 strategy document, these were described in the following way:

An agenda for new skills and jobs: "to modernise labour markets and empower people by developing their skills throughout the lifecycle with a view to increase labour participation and better match labour supply and demand, including through labour mobility.

European platform against poverty: "to ensure social and territorial cohesion such that the benefits of growth and jobs are widely shared and people experiencing poverty and social exclusion are enabled to live in dignity and take an active part in society."

49. The aggregate EU target translates into specific national targets for EU member states on the reduction of poverty and social exclusion expected in each country. To monitor progress towards this target, Eurostat recommended an approach to measurement used by countries across the EU to keep track of national progress and report back. A report (Smarter greener, more inclusive? Indicators to support the Europe 2020 strategy) is published annually monitoring progress against the headline targets and a mid-term review was also published in 2014 (European Commission, Taking Stock of Europe 2020, a strategy for smart, sustainable and inclusive growth, 5th March 2014). The EU has therefore provided both a policy rationale for the measurement of social exclusion as well as an approach to measurement and regular monitoring and reporting of progress.

50. Further details of the approach used to measure poverty and social exclusion in the EU are available in Chapter 4, Section 4.4.2 European Commission indicators of social exclusion: AROPE and Laeken.

3.2.4 Europe 2020 strategy and the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development

51. Even before its adoption, the European Union recognized the importance of the 2030 Agenda and took a major role in shaping the Sustainable Development Goals. Sustainable development is at the heart of the EU project and firmly anchored in the Treaties.

52. The EU 2020 Agenda and critical EU Acquis negotiation chapters for the Balkan states accession process, as well as EU Action Plans for Eastern Partnership countries in the framework of

the European Neighbourhood Policy (Ukraine, Republic of Moldova and Georgia), are identified as points of acceleration, which warrant more attention in the 2030 Agenda. Figure 3.2 visualises how some of the EU Acquis chapters overlap with some of the Sustainable Development Goals.

Figure 3.2 EU Acquis 2020 and Sustainable Development Goals 2030 Venn Diagram

53. In reviewing the EU Agenda, it is clear that European Union puts an emphasis on economic dimensions, such as conditions for the functioning of a free and fair internal market or competitive market economy. These principles, while included, are not the priority of the 2030 Agenda, where the emphasis is placed on peoples' rights, addressing social exclusion and balancing the objectives of environmental sustainability. Nonetheless, protecting the environment, investing in education and skilled workforce are well reflected in the Sustainable Development Goals, and are contributing to achieving the country's aspirations to the EU membership.

54. The European Union's advocacy for the Sustainable Development Goals further reinforced the interconnectedness of the two agendas. An early communication from the European Parliament on the "Next steps for a sustainable European future – European action for sustainability" notes that the European Union is fully committed to be a frontrunner in implementing the 2030 Agenda and the SDGs, in line with the principle of subsidiarity, and that many of the SDGs are at the heart of the highest political priorities of the European Commission. The EU will continue to play a leading role as we move into the implementation of this ambitious, transformative and universal agenda that delivers poverty eradication and sustainable development for all.

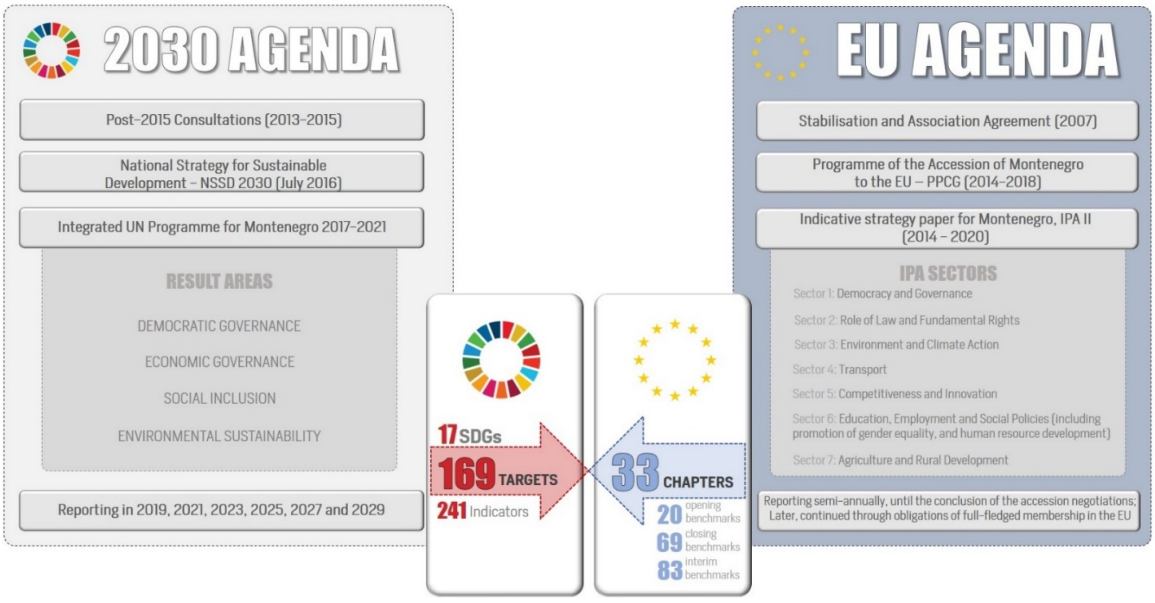
55. The EU has adopted a "two-stream approach" for implementation, including the undertaking of an initial mapping exercise to illustrate how each of the 17 SDGs has been addressed in European Union policies. This exercise identified the EU policies, mechanisms and tools that are available once a country joins the European Union.

Box 3.2 Montenegro's 2030 Agenda and EU agenda: goals, strategic documents, priority areas and reporting dynamic

Montenegro was among the first countries to nationalize the SDGs through the National Strategy for Sustainable Development until 2030 (NSSD), adopted by the National Council for Sustainable Development, Climate Change and Integrated Coastal Zone Management. The country had invested efforts in preparing the national institutional set-up for reporting on 525 NSSD indicators that include 241 SDG indicators, 102 measures and 602 NSSD sub-measures for achievement of sustainable development principles. Reporting on indicators should gather 26 institutions identified as NSSD data producers through UNEP's existing online reporting system (Indicator Reporting Information System – IRIS).

Figure 1 below represents the multilayer connectivity of EU Agenda 2020 and the 2030 Agenda through the set of both global/general and Montenegro country-specific strategic documents. In essence, they both aim for similar goals but with slightly different focus and scope.

Figure 1. The 2030 Agenda and EU Agenda implemented through the country example of Montenegro



Source: "Unravelling connections: EU Accession and the 2030 Agenda", Case of Montenegro (UN 2019)

3.3 LOCAL POLICY INITIATIVES TO IMPROVE INCLUSION

3.3.1 Inclusive London: The Mayor's Equality, Diversity and Inclusion Strategy

56. In his foreword to the strategy document, Inclusive London, the Mayor of London, Sadiq Khan explained why social inclusion matters to the success of the city and its residents. The reasons he gave were wide ranging including: equality and fairness, social cohesion and unity, crime and security, and ensuring opportunities for everyone to reach their potential. The strategy sets out 39 equality, diversity and inclusion objectives, setting an agenda for change over a four-year period.

> *In the past few years, I have broken my fast in a London synagogue and marched in solidarity with members of our city's LGBT+ community. It has me realise that a*

commitment to diversity is at the very core of our identity as Londoners. But I also know that we are not perfect and more needs to be done to build bridges between our communities, and to strengthen the bonds between people from different walks of life.

This task is even more pressing following the Brexit vote and with London facing some huge challenges – from the widening gap between rich and poor and the rise in the number of hate crimes, to the growth of online radicalisation and the continued threat of terrorist attacks. It also takes on an even greater urgency in the wake of the tragic fire at Grenfell Tower, which highlighted some of the stark inequalities that still exist in our city, despite it being one of the richest in the world. I am more determined than ever not only to The Mayor's equality, diversity and inclusion strategy ensure justice is done in the aftermath of this horrific fire, but to implement the changes we need to create a fairer, more inclusive and more equal city.

Now, more than ever, we must build strong, thriving and connected communities and I will be seeking to engage all Londoners in pursuit of this vital goal. We rightly take pride in our city's reputation for tolerance, respect and unity but we must not take this for granted – we must remain vigilant to new threats and challenges to our social fabric. As Mayor, I want us to do everything we can to overcome the barriers and inequalities that still hold back too many Londoners, including racism, sexism, homophobia, transphobia and all other forms of discrimination including on disability, age, faith or family status. My vision is for a city where everyone can reach their full potential, and I am confident we can make real progress in the years ahead. Together, we can create a more equal, integrated city – a city that works for all Londoners.

3.4 INITIATIVES TO IMPROVE INCLUSION AND OPPORTUNITIES AMONG SPECIFIC POPULATION GROUPS

3.4.1 New Zealand's Child and Youth Well-being Strategy

57. New Zealand's Child and Youth Well-being Strategy introduced in August 2019 is another policy which embeds social inclusion as an important goal in a wider vision to 'make New Zealand the best place in the world for children and young people.'

58. The strategy is in part a response to the United Nations Committee on the Rights of the Child which in 2016 noted that in New Zealand, disparities were evident in access to education and health services for Māori and Pacific children and their families and a disproportionate number of Māori and Pacific People were living in poverty and material hardship. Young people in New Zealand were identified as having mental health inequalities; high youth suicide rates, and young Māori, Pacific and LGBTQIA+ people were disproportionately represented. New Zealand's Child and Youth Well-being Strategy includes a specific focus on outcomes for Māori children, with emphasis on improving services and support for all those with greatest needs.

59. In her role as Minister for Child Poverty Reduction, Jacinda Ardern noted that the strategy encompasses much more than addressing poverty and material deprivation, and is about engaging in a cross-government way to ensure that children have what they need to thrive. The strategy places

greatest priority on those who are most disadvantaged and focuses on addressing the needs of all of New Zealand's children, including those from indigenous communities.

> *"Our vision for the Child and Youth Well-being Strategy is a bold one - that New Zealand be the best place in the world for children and young people. We engaged thousands of New Zealanders, who overwhelmingly supported the development of the Strategy, and urged us to place initial focus on children and young people with greater needs. Our intention is that this Strategy will coordinate and catalyse change and help provide the focus and momentum needed to achieve well-being for all our children and young people.*
>
> *The Government has made a firm commitment to achieving the outcomes contained in this Strategy. Our recent Well-being Budget and current work across government is targeted at addressing child poverty, family violence, and inadequate housing, and improving early years, learning support and mental well-being for children, young people and their families and whānau. We are committed to continuing to build on this work as well as supporting the vital work of other sectors…*
>
> *Ensuring we love, care and nurture all our children and young people throughout their lives is the most important task we have. This Strategy is our collective call to action."*

4 APPROACHES TO MEASURING SOCIAL EXCLUSION

4.1 HOW IS SOCIAL EXCLUSION MEASURED?

60. As suggested in the introduction and Chapter 1, social exclusion means many things to many people. This is in part because it is a culturally specific and normative concept, which must be defined in relation to the local and historical context. Beyond this, the term 'social exclusion' is used both to refer to the process by which one becomes excluded as well as to specific outcomes thought to indicate when one is 'excluded'. The term is used liberally and interchangeably to signify the space beyond poverty, a lack of social or economic inclusion, social and economic inequalities, a lack of social cohesion and the antithesis of well-being and thriving. It is measured both when we want to understand social exclusion itself and when we want to understand a range of other phenomena considered to be either its opposite or its correlates.

61. Given the apparent complexities surrounding social exclusion measurement, the Task Force on the Measurement of Social Exclusion took a pragmatic approach and asked its members of what broad domains they use to measure social exclusion. Beyond this, the Task Force also looked at the domains, or areas of life, used to measure social exclusion in a range of other published frameworks. This provides a range of examples of how social exclusion is measured in practice and for those hoping to measure social exclusion themselves, which to guide on how others have approached the task.

4.2 DOMAINS COMMONLY USED TO MEASURE SOCIAL EXCLUSION

62. Typically, those measuring social exclusion or inclusion focus on particular domains or areas of life linked either to particular theories of social exclusion, to policy goals or both. Within each domain, specific indicators are used to measure aspects of that domain.

63. Across countries respondents and in the wider literature, Table 4.1 summarises the domains used to measure social exclusion and examples of measurement frameworks where they are used. As the table highlights, many frameworks include poverty and material living conditions as key domains, but social exclusion or inclusion measurement can also take in a range of other areas of life including: labour market participation, educational and skills opportunities and attainment; health and disability; access to healthcare, public services and essential infrastructure like transport; and social, political and civic engagement.

Table 4.1: Domains commonly used to measure social exclusion or inclusion

Domain	Focus	Frameworks where included
Material resources/ Material deprivation/ Livelihood/ Material conditions/ Basic needs	Material living conditions, resources and deprivations	Social Exclusion Monitor; EU AROPE; German well-being indicators; UNDP social exclusion framework (2012); UNDP social inclusion framework (Bosnia and Herzegovina); Netherlands social exclusion index; Bristol social exclusion matrix; Progress report on poverty, inequality and social exclusion (Quebec); Albania social exclusion framework; Households Below Average Income (HBAI) measure; Canada's Community Well-being Index; Bhutan's Gross National Happiness Index; Belarus's study of the material deprivation of the population (households); Global Multi-dimensional Poverty Index; Multidimensional Inequality Framework; Individual Deprivation Measure (International Women's Development Agency); Mexico's National Survey on the Dynamics of Household Relationships (ENDIREH); Italy's survey on homelessness and conditions of extreme poverty and survey on inclusion of Roma, Sinti and traveller people (with specific focus on housing).
Monetary poverty/ Economic exclusion/ Income poverty	Income based poverty	EU AROPE indicator; EU Laeken; German well-being indicators; UNDP social exclusion framework (2012); Albania social exclusion framework; Romania, Hungary and Albania Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC); Armenia Twinning Programme in-depth study of poverty; Switzerland's social exclusion framework; Canada's Community Well-being Index; Bhutan's Gross National Happiness Index; Multidimensional Inequality Framework; Individual Deprivation Measure (International Women's Development Agency); Mexico's National Survey on the Dynamics of Household Relationships (ENDIREH)
Employment/ low work intensity/ livelihood/ Work and employment/ Employment and skills/ Labour Force Activity	Exclusion or inclusion in relation to labour market participation, quality of work, and skills	Social Exclusion Monitor; EU Laeken; German well-being indicators; UNDP social exclusion indicators (2012); Bristol social exclusion matrix; Progress report on poverty, inequality and social exclusion (Quebec); Albania social exclusion framework; Canada's Community Well-being Index; Bhutan's Gross National Happiness Index; Multidimensional Inequality Framework; Individual Deprivation Measure (International Women's Development Agency); Italy's survey on the inclusion of LGBT people in accessing work and in the workplace.
Education and skills/ Education and training	Basic skills competencies (literacy, numeracy, language); educational attainment; NEET	Social Exclusion Monitor; EU Laeken; German well-being indicators; UNDP social exclusion indicators (2012); Bristol social exclusion matrix; Progress report on poverty, inequality

		and social exclusion (Quebec); Albania social exclusion framework; Canada's Community Well-being Index; Bhutan's Gross National Happiness Index; Global Multidimensional Poverty Index; Multidimensional Inequality Framework; Individual Deprivation Measure (International Women's Development Agency);
Health and disability/ Health	Objective and subjective health; disability status individually and for other household members	Social Exclusion Monitor; EU Laeken; German well-being indicators; UNDP social exclusion framework (2012); Progress report on poverty, inequality and social exclusion (Quebec); Albania social exclusion framework; Bhutan's Gross National Happiness Index; Turkey National Indicators for the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (under the Convention of the Rights of Persons with Disabilities); Global Multidimensional Poverty Index; Multidimensional Inequality Framework; Individual Deprivation Measure (International Women's Development Agency); Mexico's National Survey on the Dynamics of Household Relationships (ENDIREH)
Exclusion from public services/ Access to services/ Infrastructure/ Inadequate access to basic social rights and institutions	Adequacy of plumbing, heating, housing quality; local environmental/ noise pollution; vandalism, crime, violence; access to transport; sufficient access to healthcare; sufficient resources for school; assistance with information, jobs search.	UNDP social exclusion framework (2012); UNDP social inclusion framework (Bosnia and Herzegovina); Netherlands social exclusion framework; Bristol social exclusion matrix; Progress report on poverty, inequality and social exclusion (Quebec); Bhutan's Gross National Happiness Index; Multidimensional Inequality Framework; Individual Deprivation Measure (International Women's Development Agency); Mexico's National Survey on the Dynamics of Household Relationships (ENDIREH)
Exclusion from civic and political participation/ Participation/ Limited social participation/ Participation and human rights	Social contacts/ social capital; adequacy of resources for socialising or cultural activities; extent of social, political, civic participation; decision-making; experience of violence	UNDP social exclusion framework (2012); UNDP social inclusion framework (Bosnia and Herzegovina); Netherlands social exclusion index; Bristol social exclusion matrix; Progress report on poverty, inequality and social exclusion (Quebec); Albania social exclusion framework; Bhutan's Gross National Happiness Index; Multidimensional Inequality Framework; Individual Deprivation Measure (International Women's Development Agency); Mexico's National Survey on the Dynamics of Household Relationships (ENDIREH)

Note: For further details of domains included in the national Multidimensional Poverty Indices of a range of different countries, please see https://mppn.org/applications/national-measures/

4.3 THRESHOLDS FOR DEFINING SOCIAL EXCLUSION OR INCLUSION

64. As there are many approaches to defining social exclusion, so there are many approaches to defining whether and when a person, household, population group, or community is more or less socially excluded compared to others in that society. In looking at a range of examples from the country respondents and in the literature, three basic approaches have been identified:

- A **single threshold** approach setting a bar beyond which one is defined as excluded or 'at risk' of exclusion:
  - Social exclusion may be conceived primarily as an accumulation of deprivations or lacks
  - The distribution relates to being more or less 'excluded'
  - A particular threshold of deprivations may be defined, without considering the relative position of exclusion as part of a wider distribution
- A **multiple threshold approach**, defining greater or lesser inclusion or exclusion, possibly incorporating different thresholds for inclusion or exclusion:
  - Social exclusion may be conceived as a full distribution ranging from highly 'included' to highly 'excluded'
- **No** thresholds **are set** or considered explicitly for social exclusion or inclusion:
  - The measurement focus is on another concept such as well-being or social cohesion, with social exclusion indicators included but no threshold for exclusion explicitly defined

65. A summary of the approaches found and the measurement frameworks where they are used is provided in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3 Use of thresholds for defining social exclusion or inclusion

Threshold for social exclusion/ inclusion	Approach to conceptualising Social Exclusion	Framework, index or tool using this approach
Scores are accumulated across indicators on the framework with a set threshold defined for 'exclusion; or graduated scores indicating levels of exclusion	Exclusion based on the idea of **accumulated deprivations**	Social Exclusion Monitor (Australia); Monitoring Poverty and Social Exclusion report (Joseph Rowntree Foundation, United Kingdom); Netherlands Social Exclusion Index; Multidimensional measurements of social exclusion (Switzerland); Global and National Multidimensional Poverty Index Methodology (not necessarily called Exclusion); Bhutan's Gross National Happiness Index
The threshold for exclusion is defined as meeting the criteria for deprivation in any one of the domains; no graduated scoring for multiple deprivations	**Deprivation** in any domain **implies 'risk' of poverty and/ or social exclusion**	EU AROPE; German Well-being framework (incorporates AROPE); Albania, Czechia, and Romania use AROPE indicator for social exclusion measurement
Scores are accumulated across the domains and are presented on a continuum ranging from highly included to highly excluded	**Full distribution** considered from **highly included** (more resources/ capabilities) **to highly excluded** (more deprivations/ fewer capabilities)	UNDP Social Inclusion Index (Bosnia and Herzegovina)

No specific threshold defined in relation to social exclusion	**Poverty** focus: Low income thresholds are defined in relation to household composition, with **poverty associated with social exclusion.**	Progress report on Poverty, Inequality and Social Exclusion (Quebec); Households Below Average Income (United Kingdom)
	Social cohesion focus: **social exclusion forms part** of the definition of **social cohesion.**	EU Laeken indicator
	Multiple deprivation focus: **deprivations** used as **indicators of social exclusion** but no threshold for exclusion is defined.	Bristol Social Exclusion Matrix; Belarus framework; Armenia framework
	Each community is given an index score from 0 to 100 representing **well-being**, based on scores in each domain.	Community Well-being Index (Canada)

4.4 MEASUREMENT TOOLS AND INDICATOR FRAMEWORKS

66. 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.

4.4.1 Measurement of multi-dimensional poverty and multi-dimensional inequality

4.4.1.1 Multi-dimensional poverty indices

67. On a practical level, it is now commonly recognised that poverty has implications beyond material conditions. The UNECE Guide on Poverty Measurement (2017) sees poverty as a 'multidimensional phenomenon', requiring measures capable of showing 'interconnected deprivations' with a chapter devoted to multidimensional poverty indices. The latter may focus on deprivations in a wide range of areas of life, including: income, employment, material deprivation, education, the environment, health, quality of housing, social participation, and social rights. Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI) data are commonly used to identify the extent of the population that may be 'poor' in other areas of life. This may overlap but does not coincide with income poverty and indeed mismatches are often sizeable. For individuals, social exclusion can form part of the lived experience of deprivation in multiple areas of life and for society as a whole, thereby highlighting who may be left behind or areas in which a society may need to 'level up'.

68. MPI methodology is based on the work by Alkire & Foster (2011). There is flexibility in the indicators used to fit the specific requirements and policy priorities of each country. There are two different types of MPIs: national and regional or global. National MPIs reflect national priorities, use national data, are similar to national monetary poverty measures but cannot be compared across countries. Regional or global MPIs are comparable, for example in 2021 the global MPI is available for

109 countries and 5.9 billion people. National MPIs are also used by countries to report on target 1.2 and indicator 1.2.2 of the Sustainable Development Goals.

69. Many countries are developing National MPIs as official national poverty statistics. They are used alongside official monetary poverty statistics in Armenia, Bhutan, Colombia, Chile, Costa Rica, the Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Ecuador, Ghana, Honduras, Maldives, Mozambique, Namibia, Pakistan, Palestine, Panama, Paraguay, and others. Mexico has a single official poverty measure covering income and six non-income components. The United States has released an MPI as an alternative poverty measure and German academics are exploring MPIs. Belarus use a deprivation approach to capture the multiple nature of deprivation and identify social exclusion in a particular society. The study of deprivation is the official statistical methodology for assessing the standard of living in the Republic of Belarus, allowing analysis of the economic situation of the population based on non-monetary criteria. As a result of the flexibility in indicators in the Alkire & Foster (2011) methodology, different countries are using MPIs that reflect their national priorities and agendas, as shown in Table 4.4 below.

Table 4.4: A Selection of national MPI dimensions and where they are used

Country	Dimensions
Armenia	(1) Education, (2) Health, (3) Labour, (4) Basic Needs, (5) Housing
Chile	(1) Education, (2) Health, (3) Work and social security, (4) Basic standard of living
Costa Rica	(1) Education, (2) Health, (3) Work and social security, (4) Basic standard of living
Colombia	(1) Education, (2) Childhood and youth, (3) Work, (4) Health care, (5) Housing and public services
Dominican Republic	(1) Education and childcare, (2) Health, (3) Work and Livelihood (4) Housing and environment (5) Digital Divide and Social Relations
Ecuador	(1) Education, (2) Health, water and nutrition, (3) Work and social security, (4) Housing and public services
El Salvador	(1) Education and childhood, (2) Health and food security, (3) Work, (4) Housing, (5) Security and environment
Mexico	(1) Education, (2) Access to health care, (3) Access to food, (4) Access to social security, (5) Housing, (6) Basic home services, (7) Income
Panama	(1) Health, (2) Education, (3) Work, (4) Housing, Basic Services & Internet Access, (5) Environment and Sanitation
ECLAC	(1) Housing, (2) Basic Services, (3) Living Standards, (4) Education, (5) Employment and Social Protection
Pakistan	(1) Education, (2) Health, (3) Living Standards

Note: For further details of domains included in the national Multi-dimensional Poverty Indices of a range of different countries, please see https://mppn.org/applications/national-measures/

70. The UNECE Guide on Poverty Measurement (UNECE, 2017) recommends that countries develop MPIs based on their policy requirements and data sets. Indicators covering living standards, services, health, education, work and the lived environment should be used with the long-term aim of harmonising a core subset of indicators across UNECE counties. Each dimension should hold equal weighting and parameters should be assessed for robustness. For example, the global MPI was developed by the Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative (OPHI) with UNDP's Human Development Report Office. It focuses on acute poverty and therefore uses indicators relevant to this, available for more than 100 developing countries.

Table 4.5: Dimensions, indicators, deprivation cut-offs and weights of the Global MPI

Poverty dimension	Indicator	Deprived if…	Weight
Education	Years of schooling	No household member aged 10 years or older has completed six years of schooling	1/6
	Child school attendance	Any school-aged child is not attending school up to class 8	1/6
Health	Child mortality	Any child has died in the family in the five-year period preceding the survey	1/6
	Nutrition	Any adult aged 70 or younger or any child for whom there is nutritional information is undernourished	1/6
Living standards	Electricity	The household has no electricity	1/18
	Improved sanitation	The household's sanitation facility is not improved, or it is improved but shared with other households	1/18
	Improved drinking water	The household does not have access to improved drinking water (according to MDG guidelines) or safe drinking water is at least a 30-minute walk from home, roundtrip	1/18
	Housing	The floor is natural, or the walls or roof are made up of natural or rudimentary materials	1/18
	Cooking fuel	The household cooks with dung, wood or charcoal	1/18
	Asset ownership	The household does not own more than one radio, TV, telephone, animal cart, bike, motorbike, computer or refrigerator and does not own a car or truck	1/18

71. There are some interesting advantages to using MPIs. Using an MPI as a headline indicator of poverty across multiple dimensions allows for assessment of whether poverty has increased or decreased; the way data are aggregated also highlights the links and overlaps between the different indicators for each person. Therefore, it can help to inform policies across multiple dimensions of poverty and track changes in real time. Additionally, collecting data for MPIs tend to be cheaper and less time consuming, and take less than 10% of survey questions than monetary poverty measures. An MPI can identify different sections of the population that are deprived but are not captured using monetary measures. For example, a study from the Ministry of Social Development - Government of Chile (2015) found that 14.4% of people were income poor, 20.4% were MPI poor, but only 5.5% were poor according to both national measures. Also, MPIs are usually reported with two or more poverty cut-offs, creating a gradient. For example, the global MPI considers persons deprived in 50% or more of the dimensions to be in 'severe' poverty, 33% or more to be poor, and 20-33% to be 'vulnerable'. Alternative deprivation thresholds can also be applied. For example, the global MPI considers a person

destitute if they are deprived in one-third of the dimensions according to the same 10 indicators but now coded to reflect destitution – for example considering severe undernutrition, open defecation, no adults have completed more than one year of schooling, and so on.

72. Moreover, MPI data are easy to communicate and can create powerful stories about human experiences. The data can be disaggregated easily to identify those who are being left behind, in line with the key principle of SDGs. The data work well in visualisations, charts and maps; and can be presented alongside dashboards consisting of all the indicators, showing the deprivation level in each of these and published with confidence intervals and error measures. Finally, MPIs can allow for comparisons across regions or countries without having to make adjustments. Thus, MPIs are a key instrument to measure social exclusion, because they can summarise both the level or trends in one rigorous statistic, and can also be disaggregated by population groups and broken down by indicator to provide actionable information to inform policy responses.

73. The Individual Deprivation Measure (IDM), developed by the International Women's Development Agency in partnership with the Australian National University and the Australian Government, is another approach to the measurement of multi-dimensional poverty. It is a gender-sensitive measure focusing on poverty at the individual rather than household level. It uses 15 indicators of poverty across a range of areas of life drawing on more traditional indicators of multi-dimensional poverty such as employment and education, as well as a range of other measures that help to highlight the specific ways in which women may experience poverty. The full range of measured topics include: food/ nutrition; water; shelter; health care/ health; education; energy/ cooking fuel; sanitation; family relations; clothing/ personal care; violence; family planning; environment; voice; time use; and work.

74. Mexico's National Survey on the Dynamics of Household Relationships (ENDIREH) generates information on the experiences of violence that women aged over 15 years have faced, including the type of violence (physical, sexual, economic, psychological) and the ambits in which it arises (in the couple, family, school, work and community). Violence against women represents a form of exclusion, since it limits women's personal autonomy, health, income and development in general, that is, it limits their human rights. Likewise, when crossing the information on violence with specific information referring to particular characteristics of different groups also exposed to exclusion (captured within the survey), such as: low-income, speakers of indigenous languages, the elderly population with disabilities, indicators that combine various types of social exclusion can be obtained.

4.4.1.2 Multi-dimensional Inequality Framework

75. An alternative to the idea of multi-dimensional poverty is the notion of multi-dimensional inequality. In common with the concept of multi-dimensional poverty, it is based on Sen's (1993) capability approach but rather than focusing on capability-deprivation, the emphasis is on capability-inequality. This encompasses both advantage and disadvantage in evaluating quality of life and individual well-being. The Multi-dimensional Inequality Framework, developed by a collaboration of experts from The International Inequalities Institute at the London School of Economics, Centre for the Analysis of Social Exclusion, SOAS, and Oxfam, includes seven domains of life described as reflecting 'core capabilities critical to well-being'. The domains used are similar to those in the MPI, but focus on capabilities rather than deprivations. Table 4.6 provides an overview of the domains of the Multi-dimensional Inequality Framework.

Table 4.6 Domains of the Multi-dimensional Inequality Framework

Domains of the Inequality Framework

Domain 1	Life and health	Inequality in the capability to be alive and to live a healthy life
Domain 2	Personal safety and security	Inequality in the capability to live in physical and legal safety and security
Domain 3	Education and learning	Inequality in the capability to be knowledgeable, to understand and reason, and to have the skills to participate in society
Domain 4	Financial security and dignified work	Inequality in the capability to achieve financial independence and security, enjoy dignified and fair work, and recognition of unpaid work and care
Domain 5	Comfortable, independent and secure living conditions	Inequality in the capability to enjoy comfortable, independent and secure living conditions
Domain 6	Participation, influence and voice	Inequality in the capability to participate in decision-making, have a voice and influence
Domain 7	Individual, family and social life	Inequality in the capability to enjoy individual, family and social life, to express yourself and have self-respect

Source: https://medium.com/@CASE_LSE/an-inequality-framework-designed-to-measure-multidimensional-inequality-4d0ae2c48bd9

76. The authors suggest that the focus on inequality rather than deprivation enables a better understanding of well-being across the full distribution in each of the domains.

77. Many of the indicators and measures suggested in each domain are related to the SDG framework to provide a degree of international comparability and a toolkit has also been created to help tailor the indicators used to the context in individual countries.

4.4.1.3 The measurement of multi-dimensional poverty throughout the COVID-19 pandemic

78. During the COVID-19 pandemic, Canada explored innovative ways of helping policy-makers to appropriately target interventions, aiming to ensure that data reflected experiences of deprivation throughout the pandemic. The Statistical Geomatics Centre released a new geospatial dissemination tool, the Canadian Statistical Geospatial Explorer, which allows users to find, explore, visualise in maps or charts, and export data relevant to understanding and responding to the pandemic in Canada. The Explorer includes indicators related to health, labour, demographics, housing and society, and the Canadian Index of Multiple Deprivation. The Canadian Index of Multiple Deprivation, developed by Statistics Canada with significant academic involvement, is a geographically-based index of deprivation and marginalization which is designed to describe elements of deprivation at a local geographic level. This captures multiple dimensions of deprivation including: residential instability, economic dependency, situations vulnerability and ethno-cultural composition.

79. Additionally, Mexico adapted their National Survey on Civic Culture to account for the social extension of the pandemic. The survey now includes two questions on discrimination which address perceptions and experiences of people who have or had COVID-19, among other characteristics, such as sex, age, social class and skin tone. The indicator can be disaggregated according to sociodemographic characteristics that can account for whether the manifestation of the phenomenon is more pronounced among vulnerable groups. Other uses of National MPIs include targeting. For

example, Honduras used its MPI to target individual households most at risk and used the deprivation profile of each household to decide which benefits to offer that household, while Colombia merged recent census, health records, vulnerability and institutional data at the very local level to identify areas most at risk of pandemic impacts. Some countries simulated potential poverty increases due to the pandemic's impact on food security, employment, and school attendance, while other countries used either existing or high frequency remote data to construct multidimensional vulnerability indices for emergency response. At least six countries have updated their national MPIs post-pandemic, with results ranging from minor decrease to increases of two percentage points in the incidence of MPI.

4.4.2 European Commission indicators of social exclusion: AROPE and Laeken

4.4.2.1 The AROPE indicator

80. 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 the 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).

81. The AROPE indicator consists of three sub-indicators (see Figure 4.1):

- **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.

82. The last two components of the AROPE indicator (severe material deprivation and very low work intensity) are being revised. The following definitions are planned for 2021 onwards:

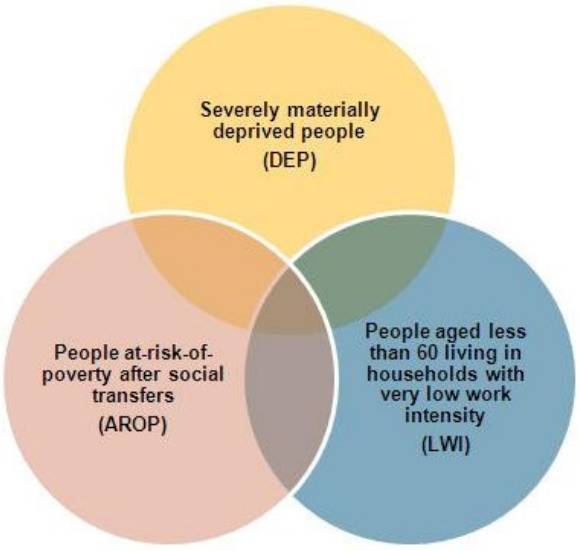
- **Persons severely materially deprived** - living conditions are severely constrained by a lack of resources; seven out of the thirteen following deprivation items are experienced: cannot afford i) to pay rent or utility bills, ii) keep home adequately warm, iii) face unexpected expenses, iv) eat meat, fish or a protein equivalent every second day, v) a week holiday away from home, vi) a car, vii) replacing worn-out furniture, viii) having internet connection, ix) replacing worn-out clothes by some new ones, x) having two pairs of shoes, xi)spending a small amount of money each week on him/herself, xii) having regular leisure activities, or xiii) getting together with friends/family for a drink/meal at least once a month.
- **Persons living in households with very low work intensity** - people from 0-64 years living in households where the adults (those aged 18-64, but excluding students aged 18-24 and

people who are retired according to their self-defined current economic status or who receive any pension (except survivors pension), as well as people in the age bracket 60-64 who are inactive and living in a household where the main income is pensions) worked for a time equal or less than 20% of their total combined work-time potential during the previous year.

83. The current AROPE will be used for monitoring the EU 2020 strategy while the revised AROPE will be used as the headline indicator for monitoring poverty and social exclusion for future strategies, such as Europe 2030 targets.

84. 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 4.1 The EU 2020 indicator of people at risk of poverty or social exclusion (AROPE)



85. 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.

86. While some countries, such as Albania, use the AROPE indicator as their principal 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.

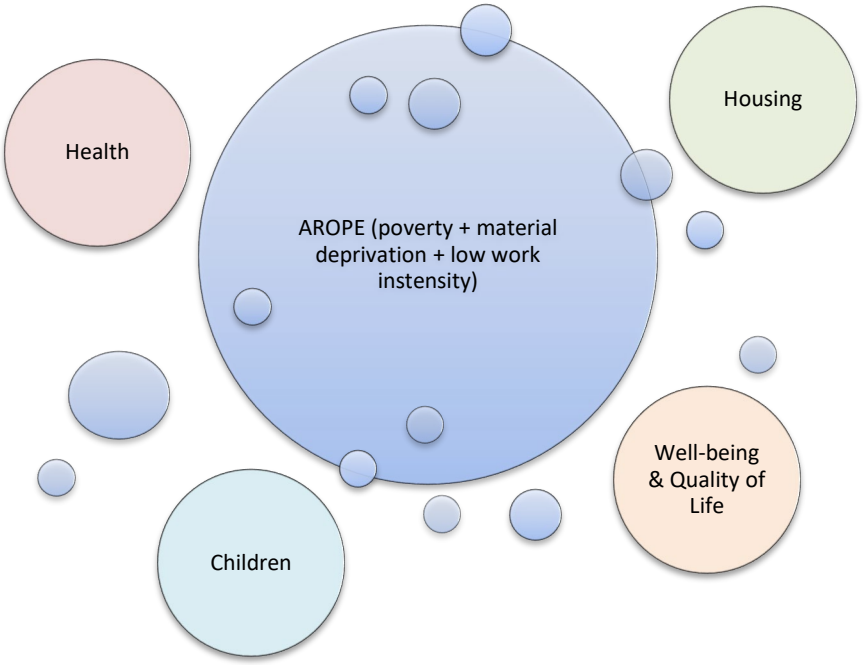
87. For example, Armenia developed a special survey module on social exclusion initially in their Integrated Living Conditions Survey in 2016 which is now part of an annual survey. The focus of their measurement is material exclusion from access to the goods or services considered to reflect an acceptable 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.

88. Albania also conduct an annual survey since 2017 which uses multidimensional measures of social exclusion based on EU-SILC, with indicators of income, poverty and social exclusion. This enables national-level data insights, as well as comparability among EU and regional countries.

89. Romania uses the AROPE indicator, comprising three sub-indicators: material deprivation, monetary poverty and "persons living in households with low work intensity", in the context of the Europe 2020 Strategy to measure social exclusion. SILC indicators for the country are disseminated via NIS Romania and Eurostat, and reflected in various publications such as: “Living conditions of Romanian population”; Eurostat's annual monitoring reports: on Sustainable development in the EU (progress towards SDGs in the EU context); and the Europe 2020 strategy 'Smarter greener, more inclusive? - Indicators to support the Europe 2020 strategy.

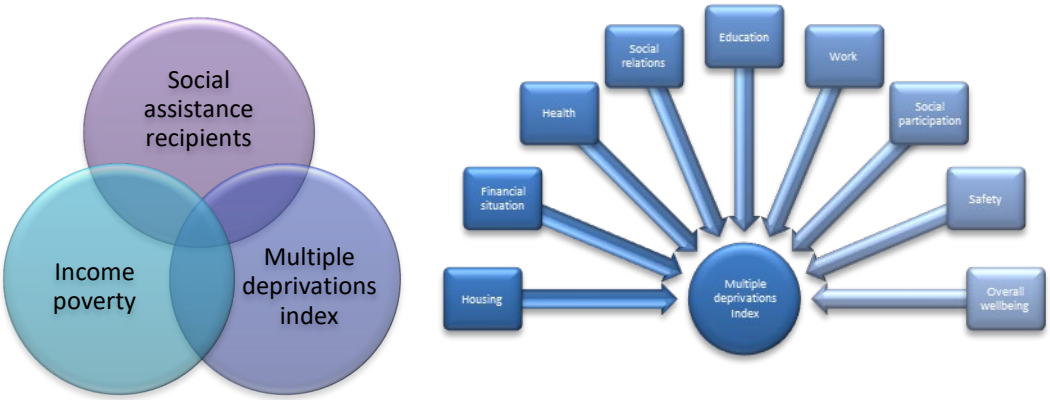
90. Similarly, Germany’s approach starts with the AROPE indicator and includes additional indicators relating to housing, health, well-being and quality of life, and special indicators for children (see Figure 4.2). AROPE is used as the basis for measuring those at risk of poverty and social exclusion within a broader measurement framework capturing both objective circumstances of life, as well as subjective perceptions.

Figure 4.2 Key elements of social exclusion measurement in Germany



91. 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 nine areas of life and incorporating both objective and subjective measures (see Figure 4.3). Using their approach, people are defined as suffering from multiple deprivation if they accumulate three or more 'objective problems' and three or more 'subjective problems' from across the indicators measured.

Figure 4.3 Key elements of social exclusion measurement in Switzerland



4.4.2.2 The Laeken Indicators

92. The Laeken indicators were developed in 2001 to measure poverty and social exclusion under the Lisbon Strategy of the European Commission. When the Lisbon Strategy was replaced by the Europe 2020 Strategy, the longer set of Laeken indicators was replaced by the AROPE indicator. However, the Laeken indicators still provide a useful measurement framework covering four dimensions of social exclusion: financial poverty, work, education, and health (see Table 4.7). The Laeken Indicators encompass a wider range of issues than the AROPE indicator and move beyond a focus solely on economic and labour market aspects of social exclusion.

Table 4.7: The Laeken indicators and their dimensions

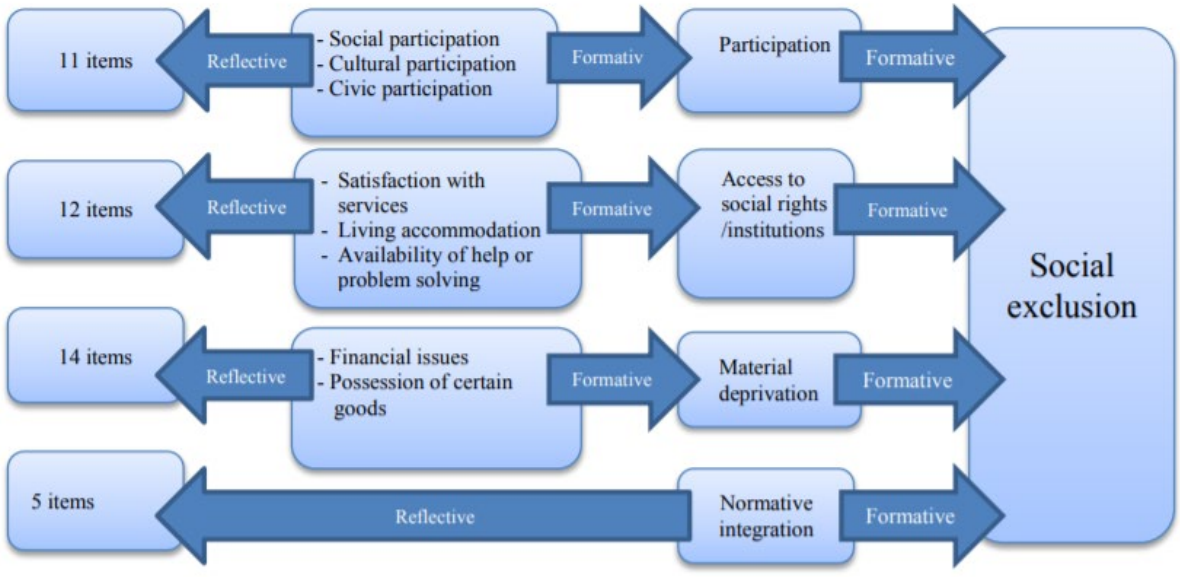
Dimension	Indicator number	Primary indicators	Indicator number	Secondary indicators
Financial poverty	1	Low income rate after transfers with low income threshold 60% of median income (broken down by gender, age, most frequent activity status, household type and tenure status; as illustrative examples, the values for typical households)	11	Dispersion around the 60% median low-income threshold
			12	Low income rate anchored at a point in time
	2	Distribution of income (income quintile ratio)	13	Low income rate before transfers
	3	Persistence of low income	14	Distribution of income (Gini coefficient)
	4	Median low-income gap	15	

				Persistence of low income (based on 50% of median income)
Work	5 6 7	Regional cohesion Long term unemployment rate People living in jobless households	16 17	Long term unemployment share Very long-term unemployment rate
Education	8	Early school leavers not in further education or training	18	Persons with low educational attainment
Health	9 10	Life expectancy at birth Self-perceived health status		

4.4.3 The Netherlands Social Exclusion Index

93. 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 4.4. In 2020, the social exclusion index was updated, using data from EU-SILC 2018. Although the main concepts, dimensions and indicators did not change, on the level of the item some minor adjustments have been applied.

Figure 4.4 Theoretical framework of social exclusion (Netherlands)



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

94. 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.

4.4.4 Social inclusion measurement in Bosnia and Herzegovina

95. 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.

96. 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 on the change over time.

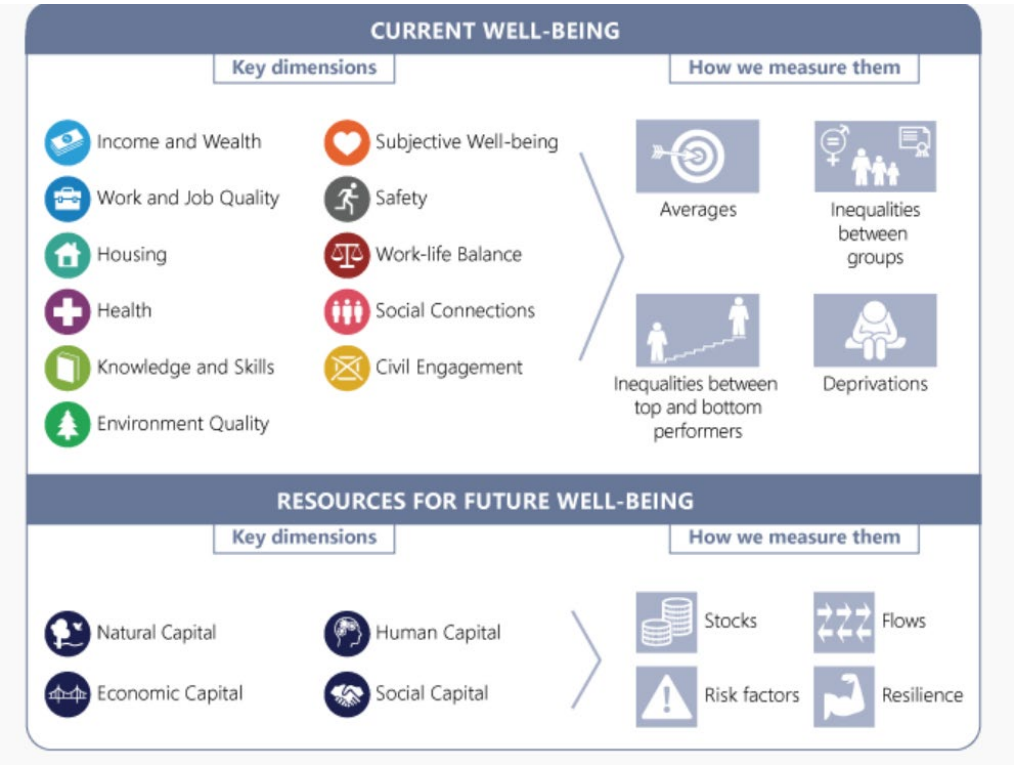
97. The 2019 survey included questions in a range of domains relevant to social inclusion such as social interactions and perceptions; and assessment of the quality and availability of a range of community services. The findings were presented using a range of disaggregations to help shed light on the 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* (UNDP, 2021).

4.4.5. Well-being frameworks and indices

4.4.5.1 OECD's Well-being Framework

98. 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 (see Figure 4.5).

Figure 4.5 The OECD Well-being Framework



99. 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:

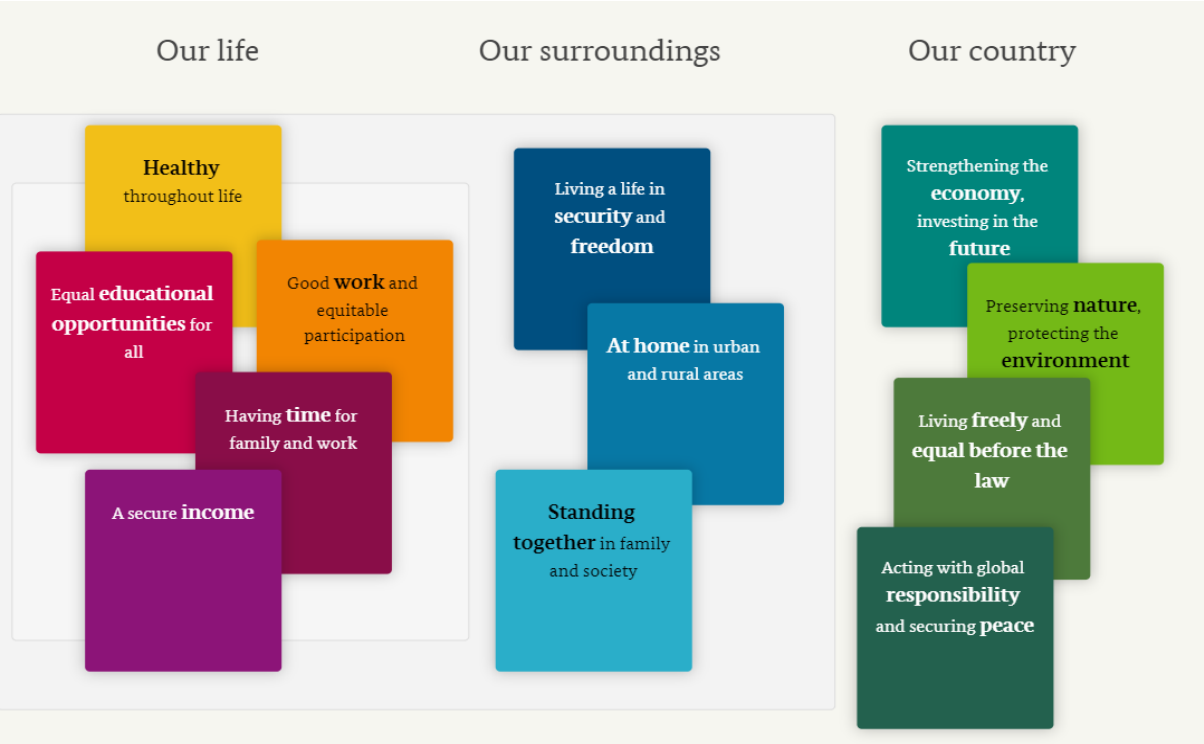
- gaps between population groups (horizontal inequalities);
- gaps between those at the top and those at the bottom of the achievement scale in each dimension (vertical inequalities);
- deprivations (i.e. the share of the population falling below a given threshold of achievement).

100. 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.

4.4.5.2 Well-being in Germany

101. As part of its government strategy, "Well-being in Germany – what matters to us", well-being was put at the centre of German policy in 2017. The German Federal Government defines well-being as pursuing economic, social and ecological objectives simultaneously. After a six-month consultation process with 15,750 people participating in the national dialogue on well-being, 12 dimensions of well-being were selected (see Figure 4.6). 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 4.6 Areas and dimensions of well-being in Germany



102. 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 will be produced making it possible to examine the significance of new social trends, political challenges and scientific findings about well-being in Germany. When observed over time, the indicators will highlight whether specific aspects have improved, remained the same or worsened and can be used to identify areas for policy interventions.

4.4.5.3 Italian measures of well-being

103. Italy also use a suite of indicators to measure well-being. 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

104. 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.

4.4.6 Social capital and social cohesion measurement

105. 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.

4.4.6.1 The United Kingdom social capital framework

106. 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 4.8). 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 4.8: 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

107. 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.

4.4.6.2 The Netherlands social capital framework

108. The Netherlands measure both social capital and social cohesion. Beuningen & 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 4.7):

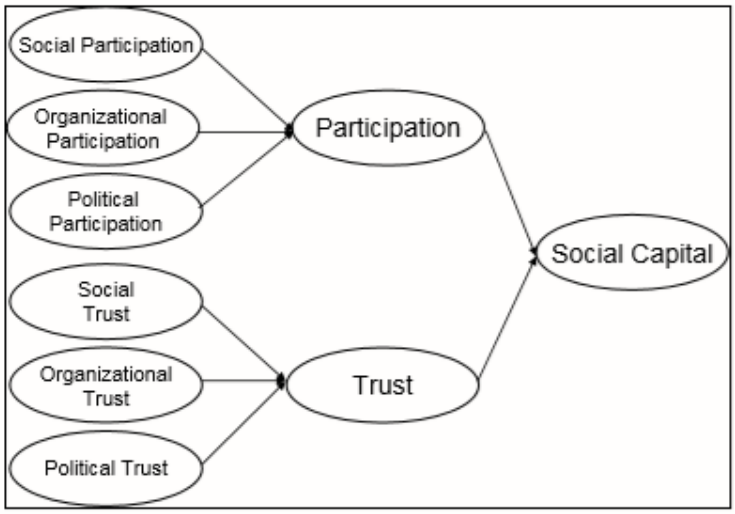
Participation

- 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.

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 4.7 Dutch model of social capital index



4.4.6.3 Netherlands social cohesion framework

109. 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 te 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)."*

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

111. 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.

112. 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.

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

114. 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.

4.4.6.4 Netherlands Personal Well-being Index

115. 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).

116. The model for composite subjective well-being 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 Well-being 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 well-being index has been compiled annually since 2013.

117. The index uses data collected by Statistics Netherlands in the survey on Social Cohesion and Well-being (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.

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

118. 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 multiple 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 well-being among those at particular risk of disadvantage.

4.4.7.1 New Zealand child and youth well-being measurement

119. In New Zealand, the Child and Youth Well-being 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 (see Figure 4.8).

Figure 4.8 Six domains of children and young people's well-being in New Zealand

120. 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 well-being.

4.4.7.2 The Roma Multi-dimensional Poverty Index in the Western Balkans

121. The United Nations Development Partnership (UNDP) created a multi-dimensional index specifically for measuring poverty and deprivation among Roma people in the Western Balkans. The aim of the index was to build a better picture of the determinants of poverty among these groups, enabling more targeted policy intervention. Data for the index were collected on the Regional Roma Survey in 2011 and 2017, providing insight into experiences of Roma communities in this part of Europe. Use of a tailored survey meant that specific issues of relevance to the Roma population could be explored in detail, for example limited opportunities to participate in political processes, poor access to social and medical services, and having personal identification documentation.

122. The index is designed to reflect the status of the individuals (and their characteristics) living in households (with their characteristics) and facing a number of deprivations. It combines 12 equally weighted indicators which reflect their status in six critical dimensions based on a human development perspective (basic rights, health, education, housing, standard of living, and employment). Table 4.9 summarizes the specific indicators, dimensions, and areas as well as the information required for the individual indicators (individual or household).

123. The status of the individual in each dimension is tracked with two indicators per dimension. The first three dimensions cover "human capabilities" of which basic rights, education, and health emerge as particularly important. The second group covers the major aspects of "material well-being."

124. The index is calculated on the basis of the "individual status of each member of the household". This status reflects either the personal characteristics of the individual in question, or the condition of the entire household shared by all its members and extrapolated as an individual parameter to each household member.

125. In determining multidimensional poverty status, one cut-off line with two levels was applied: one for "multidimensional poverty" and one for "severe multidimensional poverty". People experiencing five to seven deprivations were considered "multidimensionally poor"; those experiencing eight or more deprivations were considered "severely multidimensionally poor".

126. This methodology allows for integrating in a single index the poverty rate (the share of people experiencing five or more deprivations) and the severity of poverty (the average number of deprivations experienced by those in poverty). The MPI is the share of the multidimensionally poor multiplied by the average number of deprivations they experience.

Table 4.9: Roma multidimensional poverty index

Area	Dimension and weight	Indicators	Criterion of deprivation and threshold	Level of observation
Human capabilities	Basic rights (1/6)	Civil status	Having an ID - yes/no (personal document, birth certificate, etc.)	I
		Discrimination	HH member lives in a HH where a member has been discriminated against while looking for a job	P
	Health (1/6)	Self-declared health status	HH member has bad/very bad health in general	I
		Limited access to medical services	Any HH member living in a HH responding "yes" to the question whether they could not see a doctor or specialist when needed	P
	Education (1/6)	Highest completed education	For adults: any HH member above schooling age who hasn't completed primary education or lower secondary. For children: children of school age who are not in school	I
		Self-declared illiteracy rate	Any HH member stated as unable to read and write	I
Material well-being	Housing (1/6)	Access to basic infrastructure	A composite indicator - any HH member living in a HH without two of the three (toilet or bathroom inside the house; running water; electricity)	H
		Shares of the population not having access to secure housing	Any HH member living in "ruined houses" or "slums"	H
	Standard of living (1/6)	Extreme poverty	Any HH member living in a HH that experienced that in the past month somebody ever went to bed hungry because they could not afford enough food for them	H
		Access to various HH amenities	Any HH member living in a HH, which doesn't posse four of six categories falling in "UNDP material deprivation" index	H
	Employment (1/6)	Unemployment	Any HH member living in a household with none of the adult HH members employed (16+)	H
		Lack of working experience	Any HH member living in a HH in which the HH head or his/her spouse has no working experience	H

Note: Level of observation of the respective indicators: **I** individual status of each household member; **P** the experience and perception of the main respondent extrapolated to all household members; **H** the status (vulnerability) of the household along a certain parameter extrapolated to all household members
Source: Ivanov, A., & Kagin, J. (2014)

4.4.7.3 Approaches to measuring discrimination and social exclusion among population groups in Italy

127. Italy has several surveys in place which aim to capture the experiences of certain groups who may be at particular risk of exclusion. Homelessness survey, inclusion of LGBT people in accessing work and in the workplace, and inclusion of Roma, Sinti and traveller people.

128. The survey on inclusion of Roma, Sinti and Travellers (RST) people was carried out from September 2019 to January 2020 to improve statistical knowledge on Roma population in Italy and it is intended to be the first step of a regular monitoring of living conditions of this specific group of population, by developing a system of indicators to assess the results of inclusion policies, starting from a specific focus on housing.

129. The survey involved all Italian municipalities with 15,000 inhabitants and over, with the aim of collecting information on housing transition projects targeting Roma population. Questionnaire was sent to 745 municipalities. A short version of the questionnaire was also sent to Regions and Associations belonging to the Roma National Platform (79 associations). Data collection was done by means of CAWI (Computer Assisted Web Interview) technique.

130. The second step, scheduled in 2021, will consist in interviewing Roma, Sinti and Travellers who left their settlements in 2012-2020 and live in adequate houses. The third step aims at comparing the degree of inclusion of Roma people that left settlements and live in adequate houses with those who are still living in settlements.

5 MEASURING SOCIAL EXCLUSION AMONG GROUPS AT RISK OF MULTIPLE DISADVANTAGE

131. The SDG principle of leaving no one behind creates an imperative to be as inclusive as possible in how we collect and analyse data to ensure we provide relevant insights into how everyone is affected by an issue. This is especially relevant and challenging in relation to a topic like social exclusion which by definition, may affect some of the most marginalised and hard-to-reach groups in society.

132. The United Nations Inclusive Data Charter is a response to the need to have disaggregated statistics to ensure that the SDG goals of "leaving no one behind" can be met. The charter is based around five principles: 1. All populations should be included in the data, 2. All data should, wherever possible, be disaggregated in order to accurately describe all populations, 3. Data should be drawn from all available sources, 4. Those responsible for the collection of data and production of statistics must be accountable, 5. Human and technical capacity to collect, analyse, and use disaggregated data must be improved, including through adequate and sustainable financing. It aims to spur countries and organisations to accelerate action on data disaggregation.

5.1 THE CHALLENGES OF SURVEYING GROUPS AT RISK OF SOCIAL EXCLUSION

133. The population at risk of social exclusion may tend to be concentrated among groups that have traditionally been difficult to measure in sample surveys. There are many possible reasons for this under-coverage. The at-risk group could represent a small proportion of the overall population and so many survey designs might not produce responses in sufficient numbers for statistical inference to be conducted. There may be issues related to geographic location or dispersion, such as in Canada where northern territories are often excluded due to their remoteness and the fact that the population is dispersed across a wide geographic area. It may also be related to an unwillingness to participate in surveys or mistrust of survey administrators among some people. For some, accessibility considerations may be important, as when persons are unable to respond to an electronic questionnaire (EQ) application because they do not have a computer or are missed because they do not have a usual place of residence. For these and various other reasons, extra effort must be taken to gather information on populations at higher risk of social exclusion.

134. The UNECE publication *Poverty Measurement: Guide to Data Disaggregation* (UNECE, 2020), features a chapter on including hard to reach groups in poverty measurement. That chapter contains explanations for this potential under-coverage, examples of programmes that attempt to mitigate under-coverage and recommendations to improve coverage that are pertinent for the measurement of social exclusion. The main conclusions are summarised in Table 5.1, while other considerations raised in that chapter are summarised below. Reasons given for under-coverage provided in the Guide include those mentioned in the previous paragraph, as well as language barriers which hamper survey participation, the lack of an adequate sample frame, and that the group may live (at least partially) outside of the sampling frame, such as in institutions or collective dwellings. United Nations (2005) also provides a useful reference to developing household surveys.

Table 5.1: Improving inclusiveness of surveys

Improving inclusiveness of surveys, recommendations from UNECE (UNECE, 2020).
• **Assess possible under-coverage.** Countries are encouraged to first identify, and then quantify, parts of the population not sufficiently covered. This assessment should especially address ethnic minorities, persons who are homeless, live in institutional households or have disabilities. • **Develop methods to make it easier to participate.** Countries should develop suitable methods to facilitate participation of hard-to-reach households in their survey programmes. The principle of self-identification or the use of survey instruments in different languages are simple examples for some basic measures, which aim to establish trust and improve accessibility. • **Consider developing targeted surveys.** If it is not feasible to include hard-to-reach groups on existing survey programmes, countries should develop targeted surveys to collect data on poverty and social exclusion specific to the groups, to be run at least every five years. • **Use censuses and large-scale surveys as sources of sampling frames.** Censuses and large-scale surveys should include questions on self-identification of ethnicity, which allow for multiple identities. It helps to establish sampling frames which are needed to target ethnic minorities and hard to reach groups. This requirement is critical for the objective of leaving no one behind and to disaggregate survey data and poverty statistics for vulnerable groups. • **Consider cultural aspects at all stages.** Interviewer training for surveying minority groups should address cultural and group-specific aspects. Persons of the target populations should be involved in the set-up and development of fieldwork materials. • **Investigate new ways to gather data.** Further research is needed to explore the possibilities for alternative sampling approaches, such as non-probability designs including online surveys, to measure poverty in hard-to-reach populations. Other possibilities include alternative sampling approaches, such as location sampling or respondent driven sampling, and using qualitative information such as through the use of micronarratives (UNECE, 2020, pp.83-86, Box. 3.9 “UNDP’s collection of micronarratives from Roma in the Western Balkans”).

5.2 IMPROVING COVERAGE OF HARD TO REACH GROUPS THROUGHOUT THE SURVEY PROCESS

135. There are a range of methods to improve coverage of hard to reach populations that can be applied during all stages of the survey process. Consultation with at-risk groups through all survey stages helps to identify inherent biases, understand the perspective of the group being interviewed, and to improve buy-in at the survey stage. During questionnaire design, considerations should be made ranging from the terminology used in the questions, to survey mode considerations, or if standard CATI, CAPI or EQ approaches need to be adapted for some groups. Interviewer training and fieldwork materials may need to be customised to reflect the specific challenges of the group being surveyed. Accessibility should also be an important consideration, as language of the target group, as well as hearing, sight or writing impairments might be important. In some cases, instruments might be supplemented, or proxies might be developed to replace standardised measures that may not be appropriate to certain subgroups. For example, standardised income sources may miss sources important to some groups, such as income from begging or panhandling, and simplified proxies could be developed, for example, for groups who may not be able to easily estimate their annual income (UNECE, 2020).

136. In addition to those difficulties that may arise in ensuring that populations are represented in data collected on social exclusion, it is also important that variables exist on the database that permit disaggregation of results by those at-risk groups. For groups that are hard to identify, or who may be reluctant to self-identify, consultation with representatives of these groups before and during instrument design can help lead to ways to facilitate self-identification. Also, questions should allow for the identification of multiple identities.

137. For example, in the 2017 UNDP-World Bank-EU Roma Regional Survey, UNDP used a Human Rights Based Approach to Data (HRBAD) in the data collection of hard-to-reach Roma communities in the Western Balkans (UNDP 2018). The HRBAD Principle of Participation requires participation of the relevant population groups during all survey stages, including the planning, data collection, dissemination, and analysis stages. UNDP employed a self-identification method when collecting ethnicity data in the survey in line with the principle of "do-no-harm" (that data collection should not have a negative impact on those providing the data, United Nations 2018) and respondents were given the option to define their main ethnicity (nationality) and their ethnic origins in a follow-up question. Innovative strategies for sampling, identifying, locating, contacting and interviewing respondents. For example, due to the challenges of census data in the former Yugoslavia, with outdated and contested results and under-estimation of Roma populations, UNDP and its partners employed innovative sampling strategies – sampling Roma settlements based on higher density, using both census and non-government organisations' (NGO) lists of Roma households, and using a sub-sample of non-Roma living in close proximity to the Roma sample. In addition, interviewers or interviewer assistants of Roma origin were hired to assist with access to communities for face-to-face interviews. Such processes helped to ensure that the marginalised Roma communities were included in the data collected for the survey.

5.2.1 Sampling methods

138. In some cases, strategies to oversample population groups may be adopted, or a special survey program to gather information from the group could be designed. If no appropriate sampling frame is available, but information on the geographic density of the target population is available, a multistage sampling method may be adopted to screen households for members of the target population. In some cases, non-probability samples may be adopted to gather useful information, although the results cannot be inferred to be representative of the whole population.

5.2.1.1 Stratified sampling

139. The 2018 Canadian Housing Survey (CHS) was designed to provide data on households living in social and affordable housing, as well as households living in other private dwellings (Statistics Canada, 2019). The survey provides data on social inclusion indicators, including views and motivations of Canadians related to housing and neighbourhoods, and provides on housing affordability data for smaller areas of geography than is the case in most sample surveys. Since social and affordable housing (SAH) represents only about 5% of the housing stock in Canada, the sample for the CHS was designed to include a higher proportion of SAH units than is present in the housing stock (approximately 20% in the sample). This oversample provides more survey responses in order to produce accurate statistics on this key group of interest.

140. The CHS was designed using a dwelling frame which had been merged with a new data file indicating addresses of social housing units, which allowed social and affordable housing to be

classified as a separate stratum in the frame. The data file on SAH was built using data from the government department responsible for housing, and the 2011 and 2016 census programs.

141. The advantages of using a stratified sample is that the survey can sample the SAH dwellings at a higher rate, allowing estimates to be made for each strata using a smaller sample than would be the case with a simple random sample. A disadvantage of this method is that survey weights become more complicated to generate, and problems can arise when the strata are not completely accurate, as when a dwelling was incorrectly classified as SAH (or vice versa). These cases are known as "stratum jumpers" and they can cause large variances especially in the smaller SAH strata. These stratum jumpers can be dealt with statistically, but it is best to start with strata that are as accurate as possible.

5.2.1.2 Non-probability samples

142. In some cases, timely data on sub-populations of interest can be generated using non-probability samples. For example, in response to needing a better understanding of the social impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic, Statistics Canada initiated a number of "crowdsourcing surveys". These Electronic Questionnaire (EQ) surveys, which are based upon self-selection and voluntary participation, have resulted in valuable insights on the experiences of people at risk of social exclusion. However, because they are not based upon sampling principles, they cannot be used to create inferences for the entire population. The surveys are often developed hand in hand with government policy departments in a very short period of time, often in a matter of days, resulting in relevant, timely policy information.

143. The surveys were launched on Statistics Canada's website and are generally open to all persons. They are advertised using social media campaigns, and social media contacts are invited to share the notifications with their own networks to increase participation. An April 2020 crowdsource survey received more than 100,000 responses from post-secondary students, and gathered information on academic impacts, job prospects and student's concerns about their studies, financial situations and jobs.

5.2.1.3 Homeless people and the population in shelters

144. As noted in the introduction, certain topics which focus on groups at high risk of social exclusion may require specially developed strategies for gathering information. For example, it can be difficult to gather information on populations at risk of social exclusion who live outside private households, such as homeless people, or persons in shelters, hotels, hospitals, or long-term care homes.

145. Homelessness can be split into two categories: hidden (concealed) homelessness, and absolute homelessness. Hidden homelessness refers to those who, for example, are couch-surfing or living in their car, for example (Rodrigue, 2016). In some cases it is possible to adapt surveys of residents of private dwellings to gather past experiences of social exclusion, such as with collection of "hidden forms of homelessness" in EU-SILC (UNECE, 2020,) (see also Box 5.1 **"Measuring hidden homelessness"**). Absolute homelessness refers to those who are currently living in a shelter or in a public area and have no designated residence (Rodrigue, 2016). Census data for the population living in shelters can be used to describe a segment of absolute homelessness.

146. Censuses, surveys and other administrative information on the population living outside of the private dwelling universe can provide important insights into the population at risk of social exclusion. In Canada, the quinquennial Census gathers information on the population in the non-

private dwelling universe including collective dwellings. These may include dwellings of a commercial, institutional or communal nature, including lodging or rooming houses, hotels, motels, tourist establishments, nursing homes, hospitals, staff residences, military bases, work camps, jails, group homes, and so on. However, those living unsheltered, such as in parks, would not be covered in this way (see Box 5.2 "Co-ordinated point-in-time counts of homelessness in Canada"). The Census is not designed to measure all aspects of homelessness in Canada; however, the Census can provide a reasonable overview of certain homeless sub-populations that are not normally included in the target population of surveys, due to their transient lifestyle.

5.2.1.4 The population living in shelters

147. In the Canadian census, shelters are subcategorised into three types: shelters for persons lacking a fixed address, hereafter referred to as no fixed address shelters, shelters for abused women and their children, and other shelters and lodgings with assistance, such as halfway houses (McDermott et al., 2019).

148. Over time, the Census enumeration process for counting those living in shelters has evolved. It was not until 1981 that shelters were considered as a separate collective dwelling sub-category. Statistics Canada has also tested different types of enumeration methods in the past to count the individuals who were not living in a dwelling. The 2016 Census enumerated people who spent the night between May 9th and 10th in shelters and similar facilities, which represents an important segment of the absolute homeless population. Data were collected using administrative records or Census forms with the assistance of administrators. This means that many individuals who were counted at shelters were not required to self-enumerate. People who were part of the absolute homeless population had the ability to call into the Census to make sure they were counted and were enumerated at nearby (existing) shelters. This practice may have led to population counts at certain shelters being above their physical capacity.

149. High imputation rates among usual residents at shelters could raise concerns regarding data quality for certain variables. The item non-response in shelters was higher than that of the general population which led to higher imputation rates for those living in shelters. In 2016, marital status was imputed for 65.5% of shelter residents while only being imputed for 4.3% of the total population. The imputation rates for age and sex of shelter residents were 11.9% and 12.3% respectively, which were almost 10 percentage points higher than those for the total population. The Canadian Census was linked to administrative data from the tax system, and the administrative data record linkage rate for shelter residents was 69.0% while for the general population the linkage rate was 94.8%.

Box 5.1 Measuring hidden homelessness

The Canadian Observatory on Homelessness (2012) defines homelessness as "the situation of an individual or family without stable, permanent, appropriate housing, or the immediate prospect, means and ability of acquiring it." The Canadian Observatory on Homelessness categorises the homeless population into three main categories: the unsheltered, the emergency-sheltered, and the provisionally accommodated. The provisionally accommodated are people who access accommodation with no prospect of permanent housing and are therefore still technically homeless with no permanent shelter. A recent study from Statistics Canada looks at the incidence of "hidden homelessness" a portion of the provisionally accommodated homeless population (Rodrigue, 2016).

Hidden homelessness was defined in this study as ever having had to live temporarily with family, friends or in their car because they had nowhere else to live. More specifically, respondents who

answered yes to “have you ever had to temporarily live with family or friends, in your car or anywhere else because you had nowhere else to live?” were considered to be “hidden homeless”. The study found that nearly 1 in 10 Canadians had experienced hidden homelessness. Some population groups were more likely to have experienced hidden homelessness. For example, the Indigenous population was over-represented among those who have experienced hidden homelessness. Canadians with this experience are also more likely to have been the victim of childhood abuse and recent criminal incidents. Canadians with disabilities, and particularly those with multiple types of disabilities, were more likely to have experienced hidden homelessness.

This study used data from a 2014 general population telephone survey of the non-institutionalised Canadian population. Therefore, the problem of gathering information from homeless people, who often live outside of the private dwelling universe is partly solved by examining past experiences of homelessness. Unfortunately, this excludes many currently homeless people, as well as those who experienced other types of homelessness in the past, such as homelessness in streets and shelters.

Box 5.2 Co-ordinated point-in-time counts of homelessness in Canada

A shortcoming of using the Canadian Census to homelessness is that it can miss people outside of the dwelling universe, such as homeless people living outside of dwellings such as in parks. To gather information on the size and needs of this population another solution is therefore required. To help fill the data gap, in Canada, 61 communities participate in a program called “Everyone counts”, a nationally coordinated “point in time” count (PiT) of homeless people in these communities (Employment and Social Development Canada, 2020).

PiT Counts provide a one-day snapshot of homelessness in a community, including people experiencing homelessness in shelters, unsheltered locations, and transitional housing. The most recent PiT count found that between March 1 and April 30, 2018, on a given night 25,216 people across 61 communities were experiencing absolute homelessness in shelters or unsheltered locations. An additional 6,789 people were in a transitional program.

Nearly one third (30%) of respondents identified as Indigenous, with the majority identifying as First Nations. In contrast, approximately 5% of the Canadian population identifies as Indigenous in the 2016 census, suggesting an over-representation of Indigenous Peoples experiencing homelessness. The PiT count programs occurred in 2016 and 2018.

Box 5.3 Estimating Homelessness in the Netherlands Using a Capture-Recapture Approach

In the Netherlands, the government and local authorities increasingly acknowledge the necessity to distinguish and to assess factual homeless people, residentially homeless people and marginally housed people. Consensus also emerged in other European countries, and led to the European Typology of Homelessness and Housing Exclusion (ETHOS), which is classified on the basis of living situation. This typology, also adopted by Statistics Netherlands, consists of the four dimensions: roofless, houseless, insecure accommodation, and inadequate accommodation.

The roofless and houseless dimensions together define homelessness; insecure and inadequate accommodation refer to housing exclusion (Amore et al., 2011).

This study focused on roofless people, whom were defined in accordance with Wolf et al. (2002) as individuals who had no permanent accommodation on the reference date.

Also, in line with Wolf et al. (2002), the following categories were distinguished:

- people who sleep outdoors, either in the open air or in covered public spaces such as doorways, bicycle sheds, railway stations, shopping centres or cars;
- people who spend the night indoors in transient accommodation run for the homeless,
- including emergency shelters;
- people who sleep indoors in the homes of friends, acquaintances or relatives, without knowing where they can sleep the following night.

In the Dutch institutional setting this population is mainly served by so called low threshold services according to their basic needs such as a need for food, shelter and a safe haven during the day or night. These shelters also include drop-in services and night shelters. In addition, workers of outreach services make contact with this marginalised category on the streets and support them in finding services that match their needs.

This study focuses on homeless people in the Netherlands, as an indicator of social exclusion. By applying the capture-recapture (CRC) methodology to three registers, not only the size of the homeless population could be estimated, but also its composition in terms of gender, age, place of living, and origin could be depicted. Because of the use of three registers and the availability of background characteristics for each of the registers, the usual stringent assumptions of capture recapture methodology is circumvented. This advanced application of CRC to estimate the number of homeless people on the national level, has led to official figures for 10 subsequent reference dates (January 1st of 2009 to 2018). In 2009 the size of the total homeless population in the Netherlands was estimated at 17.8 thousand, of which 5169 were registered on one of the three lists. Between 2009 and 2018 the estimated size of the population largely increased to 39.3 thousand. In 2020 the homeless population is estimated on 36.4 thousand.

For all reference dates, the composition of this population showed that generally more men than women were registered and that homeless people in the age category of 30–49 years old were registered more than the younger or older age groups. Compared to the general Dutch population, homeless people include relatively more men, many people aged 30–49 years and people with a non-western background.

5.2.2 Reaching hard to reach groups with the Census

150. Statistics Canada adopted several special procedures for enumerating the Indigenous population in Canada who lived in First Nations communities, Inuit communities, and Metis Settlements for the 2016 Census. In 2016, there were 1,673,785 Indigenous people in Canada (First Nations people, Métis and Inuit), accounting for 4.9% of the total population. There were 339,595 First

Nations people living on-reserve, 47,330 Inuit living in Inuit Nunangat, and 3,780 Métis living in Metis Settlements (Statistics Canada, 2017). The Canadian Census is a valuable opportunity to provide data to and about this population as no other sources of information can provide detailed socioeconomic information for such small domains of interest.

151. While most Canadians were given three options to fill out their census – an online questionnaire, a paper questionnaire and an interview with a Statistics Canada enumerator - those in First Nations and Inuit communities, as well as those living in Metis Settlements had only the interviewer response option. The questionnaires were completed in person with an enumerator to increase the likelihood that there would be sufficient data available for the smaller Indigenous communities. There are many benefits to tailoring the survey mode according to the situation and preferences of the target respondents. Canadian experience has shown that respondents in the northern territories are more likely to participate in surveys when they are administered in person. However, survey designers need to be aware of possible "mode effects" which could create differences in responses across survey modes.

152. In some northern and remote areas of Canada, enumeration was conducted before Census Day from February to May 2016 because of seasonal climate variations or other travel impediments, and to reach respondents before they migrated to hunting and fishing camps for the summer. When enumeration occurred before Census Day (May 10, 2016), the date on which the household was enumerated was used as the reference date.

153. For enumeration in First Nations communities, the chief and council were contacted prior to collection to obtain permission to conduct the 2016 Census. As much as possible, community members were hired as crew leaders, enumerators, guides or translators to help with enumeration.

154. The Canadian census has a short form, given to three out of four dwellings, and a long form given to one in four. However, in First Nations and Inuit communities and Metis Settlements, all dwellings were invited to fill out a modified version of the long form designed for this population. This version asked the same questions as the long form questionnaire; however, some examples were changed to better suit the population it enumerates. Also, in this version of the Census questionnaire, people living in First Nations communities were instructed to skip questions on citizenship, landed immigrant status and year of immigration.

155. In addition to English and French, the 2016 Census questions and the explanations of why the questions were asked were available in 11 Indigenous languages, in 11 immigrant languages, in Braille, in an audio version and as a sign language video. It is important to note that the questions were translated for reference purposes only—the Census questionnaire had to be completed in either English or French, online or on paper.

156. Some First Nations communities did not participate in the census because enumeration was not permitted or was interrupted before completion. In 2016, 14 of 836 communities were 'incompletely enumerated' in the census, in most cases because permission was not given for census enumerators to access the communities. For these communities, census data are not available.

5.2.2.1 Post-censal surveys on disability and Indigenous people

157. UNECE (UNECE, 2020) described the importance of including variables on Census and large surveys so that these data sources can then be used as survey frames for the purpose of re-contacting these respondents in more targeted surveys. In Canada, one can highlight two post-censal surveys

that are administered to people at risk of social exclusion: the Canadian Survey on Disability and the Aboriginal Peoples Survey.

5.2.3 Surveys focusing on hard-to-reach groups

158. This section summarises the approach used to surveying two hard-to-reach groups in Canada. Box 5.4 provides further examples from around the world.

5.2.3.1 The Canadian Survey on Disability

159. The 2017 Canadian Survey on Disability (CSD) is a national survey of Canadians aged 15 and over whose everyday activities are limited because of a long-term condition or health-related problem (Cloutier, Grondin and Lévesque, 2018). The CSD provides a range of data on 10 different disability types, focusing on activity limitations related to hearing, vision, mobility, flexibility, dexterity, pain, learning, mental health, memory and developmental disabilities. Different levels of severity are also measured. The survey includes data on the use of aids and assistive devices, daily help received or required by respondents, and the use of various therapies and social service supports. Survey content also addresses the education and employment experiences of persons with disabilities. Requirements and unmet needs for accommodations in these areas are included. Detailed indicators of labour market participation are captured as well as data related to labour force discrimination. Sources of income are also included. In addition, information on Internet usage and methods used to access government services are measured. Data for veterans of the Canadian Armed Forces with disabilities were also available for the first time on the 2017 CSD.

160. The 2017 CSD sample frame was based on responses from those 15 years and older to a short set of filter questions on the Census long form. In Canada, three in four private households get a short census form and one in four (25%) get a long form. Therefore, the sample design was a two-phase stratified design - the first phase, the census itself, was the selection of the sample of households that received the long-form census questionnaire, and the second phase involved the selection of people for the CSD sample. Strata were related to province, age, and potential disability severity (assessed using the census filter questions). New questions added in 2017 were based on the results of a consultative process including with a technical advisory group on persons with disabilities. Testing of the questionnaire included 47 in-depth cognitive interviews held across Canada.

161. In order to use this data to assess probability of disability, a representative sample of persons without a disability was also included in the analytical file, i.e. people who answered “no” to all the filter questions included in the long-form census questionnaire. The underlying assumption here is that the members of the census who answered “no” to all of the filter questions are less likely to have a disability, or that if they have a disability, it is very mild.

162. Collection for the 2017 CSD was done using an Internet-based electronic questionnaire (EQ). In addition, telephone interviews were used at the start of collection with people who were less likely to respond online, as well as in the middle and at the end of collection for non-response follow-up. Interviewers were asked to make every effort to conduct the interview with the selected person. However, in some circumstances, such as when the selected person was unable to participate because of mental or physical health conditions, or for younger and older respondents, a proxy interview was acceptable.

5.2.3.2 The Aboriginal Peoples Survey

163. The Aboriginal Peoples Survey (APS) is a national survey on the social and economic conditions of First Nations people living off reserve, Métis and Inuit (Vongdara, Léger, Latendresse and Budinski, 2017). The objectives of the APS are to identify the needs of these Indigenous groups and to inform policy and programs aimed at improving the well-being of Indigenous peoples. Like the Canadian Survey on Disability, the APS is a postcensal survey, designed to follow and complement the Census of Population.

164. Most recently conducted in 2017, the survey design allowed for the production of reliable data for Canadian provinces and territories (Atlantic provinces were grouped), as well as for each of the four Inuit regions: Nunatsiavut (Northern coastal Labrador), Nunavik (Northern Quebec), the territory of Nunavut and the Inuvialuit region of the Northwest Territories. The survey also targeted three age groups: 18 to 24, 25 to 54, and 55 and over. Separate analyses on these dimensions are possible for each Indigenous group: First Nations people living off reserve, Métis and Inuit. In order to produce reliable estimates for the different Indigenous groups, regional and age domains mentioned above, a sample stratification method was used in which 72 target domains of estimation and 60 supplementary domains of estimation were created, for a total of 132 domains of estimation.

165. The universe or target population for the 2017 APS are persons who meet the definition of Indigenous identity. The survey frame is built from respondents to the 2016 that have self-reported as being an Indigenous person and/or they saw themselves as belonging to one or more Indigenous groups, being a Status Indian, that is, a Registered or Treaty Indian as defined by the Indian Act of Canada, and/or a member of a First Nation or Indian band. In addition to this, persons who had identified as having Indigenous ancestry, but not Indigenous identity on the 2016 Census, were also included in the frame, as in the past, about one-third of this population identifies as Indigenous in the APS even though they did not do so in the census.

166. In the 2017 APS, CAPI was used for all Inuit regions, the Northwest Territories (excluding parts of Yellowknife) and in some parts of the Yukon while CATI was the primary mode of collection for dwellings in the provinces. Respondents were interviewed in English or French. For Inuit regions, the questionnaire was translated as a paper copy into Inuktitut and Inuinnaqtun. On-screen help instructions were also available in the Inuit languages.

167. In the months leading up to data collection, efforts were made to raise awareness of the 2017 APS and to encourage participation. The communications strategy included the development of an APS brochure and posters. Statistics Canada has a team of Indigenous Liaison Program Advisors who served as contacts for the APS in regions across the country. They promoted awareness of the APS and encouraged participation using the materials provided. They met with local and provincial organisations and Friendship Centres across Canada.

168. Prior to collection, introductory letters and identity-specific brochures were mailed to selected respondents outlining the purpose of the survey and emphasizing the importance of their participation. These were available in English, French, Inuktitut and Inuinnaqtun. Public Service Announcements were prepared for broadcast over local radio stations in the Northern provinces and territories. Newspaper advertisements were run in communities to coincide with collection plans; therefore, they would be advertised in the weeks prior and during the collection period within that community. They briefly announced the arrival of the survey in the community and explained that a Statistics Canada interviewer could be coming to their door. Social media was a significant tool in

raising awareness of the 2017 APS. Facebook posts and tweets were posted every two weeks during the collection period to raise awareness of the survey. Indigenous organisations were encouraged to repost and share social media posts.

5.2.3.3 New Social Inclusion Framework for Canada

169. In 2018, the Canadian government allocated funding to Statistics Canada to establish a Centre for Gender, Diversity and Inclusion Statistics to enhance the collection and dissemination of diversity and inclusion data and statistical information. Furthermore, in 2019, a national anti-racism strategy (Building a Foundation for Change: Canada's Anti-Racism Strategy 2019-2022) was released. Through this Strategy, more funding was allocated to Statistics Canada to bolster the collection of data that provides insights into various population groups' experiences of social, economic and political exclusion. To support these two initiatives, Statistics Canada is developing a conceptual framework and indicators to measure inclusion and diversity.

170. As a starting point, Statistics Canada identified existing equity, diversity and inclusion policies and legislations that provide a blueprint for how diversity and social inclusion could be conceived in Canada. Using the Canadian legal framework as a guide, international frameworks on social inclusion and other related phenomena (e.g., social integration, social exclusion, etc.,) were reviewed. Statistics Canada's proposed conceptual framework draws from the Commission of the European Communities' definition of social inclusion and the Bristol Social Exclusion Matrix. Inclusion is being defined as a process which ensures that members of the society have the ability to access, regardless of ethnocultural origin [and other social identities], the opportunities and resources necessary to participate, barrier-free, in the economic, social and political life of society.

171. Statistics Canada's data holdings and relevant literature were also reviewed to identify inclusion indicators that could track diverse population groups' participation in various spheres of Canadian life. In addition to this, Statistics Canada is consulting with key data users to identify data gaps and meaningful social identity categories to disseminate statistical information that informs evidence-based policies and the implementation of social inclusion initiatives.

Box 5.4 Examples of surveys among groups at higher risk of social exclusion

The UNECE publication *Poverty Measurement: Guide to Data Disaggregation* (UNECE, 2020), features several country examples on conducting surveys on socially excluded populations. Some of these examples are summarised here. For further information on these examples, refer to the UNECE publication.

Surveying respondents in areas controlled by organised crime in Mexico: Cartels control access to several areas of Northern Mexico, creating challenges for survey organisations. The cartels may require permission to access certain areas, as well as restrict access to specific numbers of people, or to specific times. Police escorts may be needed to escort interview teams to certain towns.

Surveying Roma communities in Slovakia: To survey marginalised Roma communities (MRC) in Slovakia, a specific EU-SILC survey module was developed (EU-SILC MRC). The EU-SILC MRC used questions form EU-SILC, adapted for the marginalised Roma communities.

Surveying marginalised communities in Bulgaria: A multi-topic survey with a large sample, designed by the National Statistical Institute Bulgaria, in partnership with the EU Agency for Fundamental Rights, is to generate representative data on the situation of Roma, children at risk,

old-age persons and people with disabilities. An important component of the program will be to test methods to integrate data from administrative records.

Surveying persons with disabilities in Germany: A large-scale survey was developed targeting persons with a disability, and to provide comparisons, a control group of persons without a disability was also included. The survey involves a large-scale screening survey to identify persons with activity limitations who could provide a frame for a face-to-face follow up. In parallel, persons with disabilities in institutions were also surveyed, drawn from a sample of institutions. Measures to ensure accessibility included easy reading material and videos.

Surveying the homeless in Italy: Surveys were conducted among users of soup kitchens and night shelters.

Sampling approaches in Roma Surveys - innovative strategies: Capturing those who are difficult to sample, identify, contact, persuade or interview often requires the development of innovative strategies. The UNECE publication *Poverty Measurement: Guide to Data Disaggregation* (UNECE, 2020, pp.79-80, Box 3.7 "UNDP- Sampling approaches in Roma Surveys") outlines various sampling approaches and identification techniques employed in several Roma surveys. Techniques mentioned include multi-stage sampling, random start and equal random walk designs. Innovative methodologies were developed especially during the second European Union Minorities and Discrimination survey (EU-MIDIS II), which was launched by the European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights (FRA) in 2015/16, the Regional Roma survey conducted by UNDP and World Bank in 2017[1], as well as previous Roma surveys conducted by UNDP or FRA.

Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys: To better monitor equity and inclusion of Roma children, Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys (MICS) have been conducted for Roma Settlements. The Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys (MICS) is an international household survey programme developed by UNICEF in the 1990s. Since then, close to 330 surveys have been implemented in over 115 countries. MICS is designed to collect statistically sound, internationally comparable estimates of about 130 indicators to assess the situation of children, women and men in the areas of health, education, and child protection.

[1]: Regional Roma Survey 2017 technical report | UNDP in Europe and Central Asia, available at: https://www.eurasia.undp.org/content/rbec/en/home/library/roma/regional-roma-survey-2017-technical-report.html

6 APPROACHES TO PRESENTING SOCIAL EXCLUSION FINDINGS

172. This chapter considers different approaches taken to analysis and presentation of social exclusion findings. The choice of approach to presentation may vary depending on the intended purpose of measurement, ease of communication, or pragmatic considerations such as the type and granularity of data available. Thus, a range of approaches have been used in different counties across the world to analyse and present social exclusion findings.

6.1 LEVELS OF ANALYSIS

173. In the examples of measurement frameworks throughout this report, it is clear that analysis of social exclusion may involve different units of analysis including:

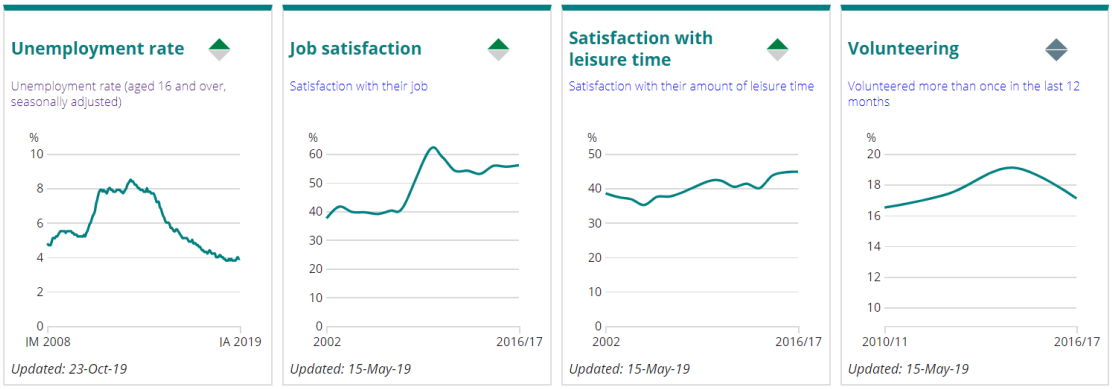
- **National aggregate estimates** of poverty, social exclusion, material deprivation, inequalities or well-being for the purposes of national monitoring over time, international comparison or aggregation across larger areas or entities such as the European Union or OECD member states. Examples of national estimates of social exclusion or inclusion, well-being and related concepts are provided in Box 6.1.
- **Local area estimates** for monitoring local policies such as the Inclusive London strategy or for comparing circumstances in one local area to others such as the Canadian Community Well-being Index and Netherlands social cohesion measurement work. For further examples, see Box 6.2.
- **Household estimates** for shedding light on the extent to which households experience social exclusion, including which types of households are at greater risk of exclusion. While household level analysis can provide a useful indication of how different types of households are affected overall, it may obscure differences within households particularly if the analytical assumption is that everyone within the household shares equally in the resources and circumstances of the household. Belarus provided an example of household level of analysis of social exclusion (see Box 6.3).
- **Individual estimates** for highlighting the personal characteristics and circumstances of those at greater or lesser risk of social exclusion affecting different areas of their lives. Individual level longitudinal data can also be used to monitor the dynamics of social exclusion and trajectories of social exclusion throughout the life course or passed on from one generation to the next (see Box 6.4).
- **Population sub-group estimates** for understanding how specific groups fare in relation to social inclusion or exclusion, well-being and equalities and how this varies in relation to personal characteristics or circumstances like sex, race or ethnicity, age, disability, migratory status and income. These are fundamental to the data disaggregations required as part of the leave no one behind agenda of the SDGs and can also provide particularly useful information to enable targeting policy initiatives more strategically. Additionally, a focus on population sub-groups can be helpful in considering the circumstances of harder-to-reach populations such as indigenous communities, migratory groups, refugees, homeless people and those living in collective establishments, as discussed in Chapter 5 (see Box 6.4).

Box 6.1 Examples of national level analysis of social inclusion, exclusion and related concepts: United Kingdom measurement of national well-being

Measurement of national well-being in the United Kingdom includes analysis of 43 indicators in aggregate across 10 domains including: personal well-being, our relationships, health, what we do, where we live, personal finance, economy, education and skills, governance, and the environment. It tracks how the United Kingdom is doing across these areas of life that the United Kingdom public said matter most to them, focusing on change and progress over time. The findings are presented in a dashboard covering headline indicators for each domain to make them more accessible to the public and policy-makers, as shown below.

What we do

Includes work and leisure activities and the balance between them.



Box 6.2 Example of local and community level analysis of social exclusion and related concepts: Canadian indigenous communities

The Community Well-Being (CWB) index CWB is constructed by Canada's Indigenous Services Department using data from the Canadian Census to compare and track socio-economic well-being over time across Canadian indigenous communities, a group at high risk of social exclusion. The index has four dimensions: education, labour force activity, income and housing, which are combined using weights into a single index to provide each community with a well-being "score." The indicators for each dimension are:

Education:

- the proportion of a community's population, 20 years and over, that has obtained at least a high school certificate
- the proportion of a community's population, 25 years and over, that has obtained a university degree at the bachelor's level or higher

Labour force activity:

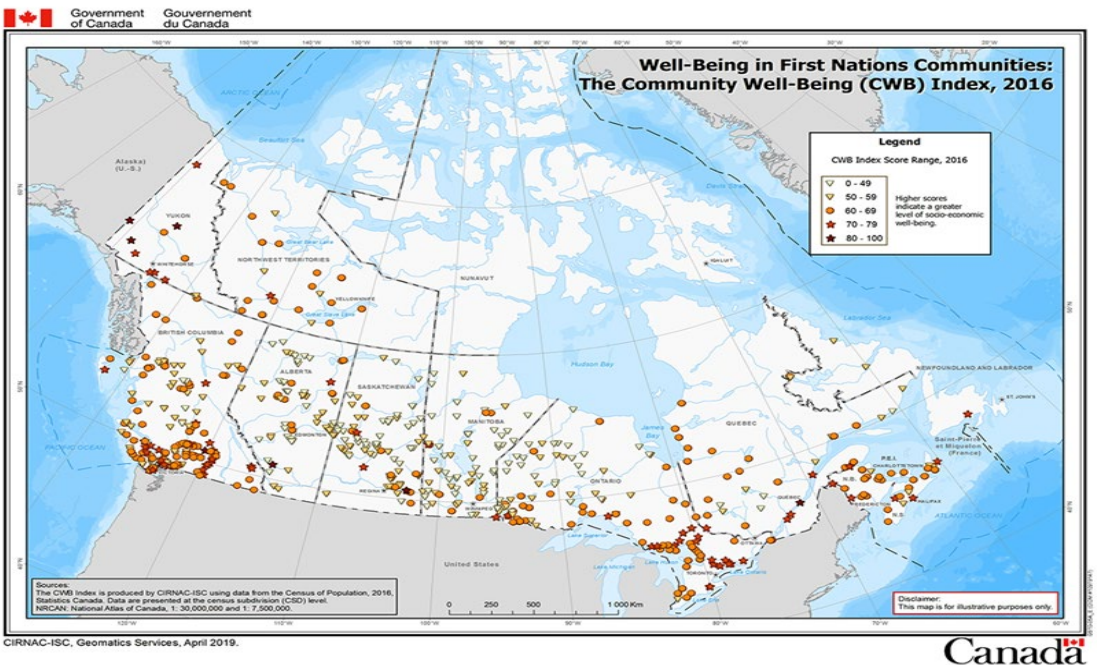
- labour force participation: the proportion of a community's population, aged 20 to 64, that was involved in the labour force during the week preceding census day, that is census reference week
- employment: the percentage of a community's labour force participants, aged 20 to 64, that were employed during census reference week

Income per capita

Housing:

- the proportion of a community's population living in dwellings that are not crowded as measured by having no more than one person per room
- the proportion of a community's population living in a dwelling that is not in need of major repairs

As the CWB is based on Census data, it can be updated each five years, has a high level of granularity, and can report on geographic areas relevant to the Canadian Indigenous community.



Box 6.3 Examples of household level analysis of social exclusion, inclusion and related concepts: Household analysis of material deprivation in Belarus

Multi-dimensional poverty is examined in Belarus focusing on material deprivations, as materially deprived households are considered to be excluded from the '*common way of living in the country*'. A household is defined as at risk of poverty due to material deprivation if they have at least four deprivations from an agreed list. It currently includes 14 items across three domains:

- Housing – including lack of central heating, ability to buy fuel
- Material security – including lack of money for essentials such as food and medicine
- Households with children – including lack of money for specific items required among households with children including clothing, food, ability to attend cultural events and clubs

The list of relevant deprivations is updated every five years via a survey which includes an extended list of possible deprivations and asks respondents to assess whether each is an attribute of poverty in Belarusian society. To be included on the list of agreed deprivations, at least 85% of respondents must say that it is a feature of poverty in the country. Belarus also collects information on items used by Eurostat in the AROPE indicator to enable cross-country comparisons. These items are included on their sample Survey on Household Living Standards designed to monitor living conditions, welfare, poverty, social inequality income and access to social benefits. The survey provides insight into the situation of households but is not able to identify individuals experiencing multiple deprivations.

Box 6.4 Example of individual level analysis of social exclusion: Use of individual longitudinal data to examine life course trajectories of social exclusion

An understanding of the effects of social exclusion on individuals over time can be obtained through longitudinal research – tracking the progress of the same people throughout their lives. This can shed light on how early experiences can contribute to social exclusion in later life and can potentially be used to predict which children are at greatest risk of subsequent exclusion. It is also helpful for exploring the extent and nature of inter-generational transmission of social exclusion and social mobility.

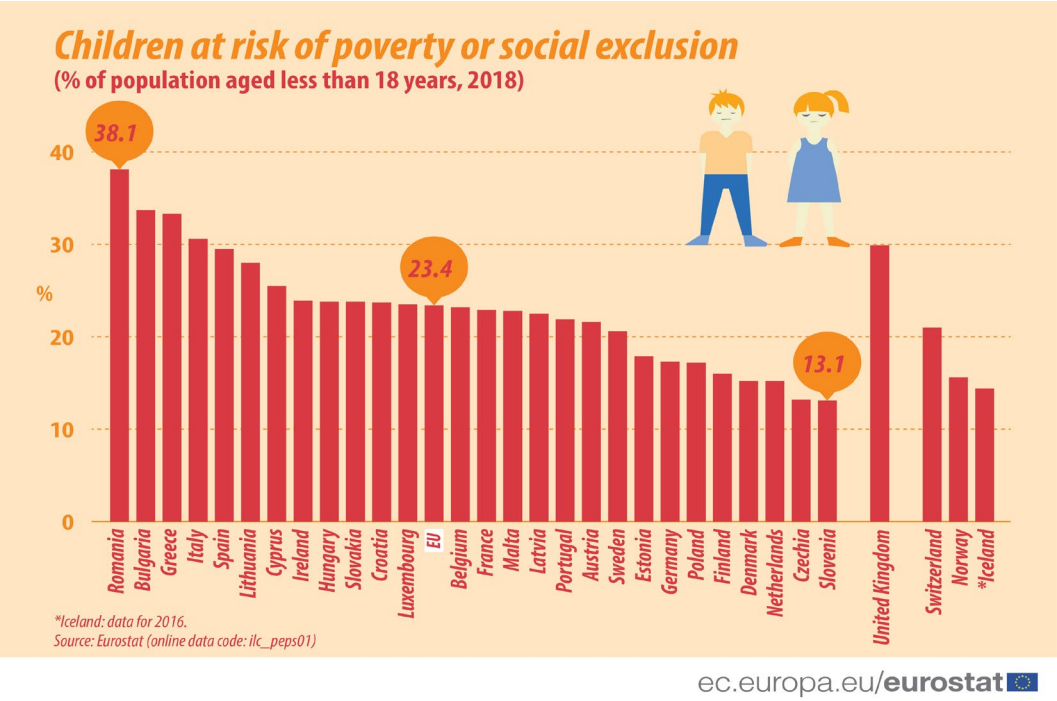
A study by Bynner (1999) explored studies across the United Kingdom, United States, New Zealand and Scandinavia using longitudinal data to look at individual life course trajectories of social exclusion. He found no linear path to social exclusion but a set of interacting complex circumstances, with critical ages and stages where the impact of personal circumstances on social exclusion is most prominent. His findings on childhood risk factors associated with social exclusion are summarised below.

Childhood risk factors for social exclusion outcomes

Child factors	**Economic factors**	**Parent factors**	**School factors**
Low birth weight	Poor living conditions	Low aspirations for child and lack of interest	Pre-school support poor or absent
Physical and mental disability	Rented social housing in economically rundown areas	Troubled relationships within family, especially between parents, between parents and children, and family break-up	Inadequate transition from pre-school to primary school
Poor visual-motor skills	Overcrowding	Lack of adult role models for child	Home-school relations weak
Poor early cognitive development	Free school meals for children	Lack of social controls	Poor leadership
Poor grasp of basic skills: reading and number work	Low family income	Frequent changes of carer and parental absence	Low teacher commitment to child
Temperamental difficulties - hyperactivity, impulsiveness and attention disorder and aggressivity		Father long-term unemployed	Manual working-class intake
Lack of attachment to adult role models		Lone parent	Council estate intake
Behavioural problems		Parents with alcohol, drug or psychiatric problem	Poor monitoring of children's progress
Poor school attendance			
Low self-esteem			

Box 6.5 Examples of population sub-group analysis of social exclusion, inclusion and related concepts

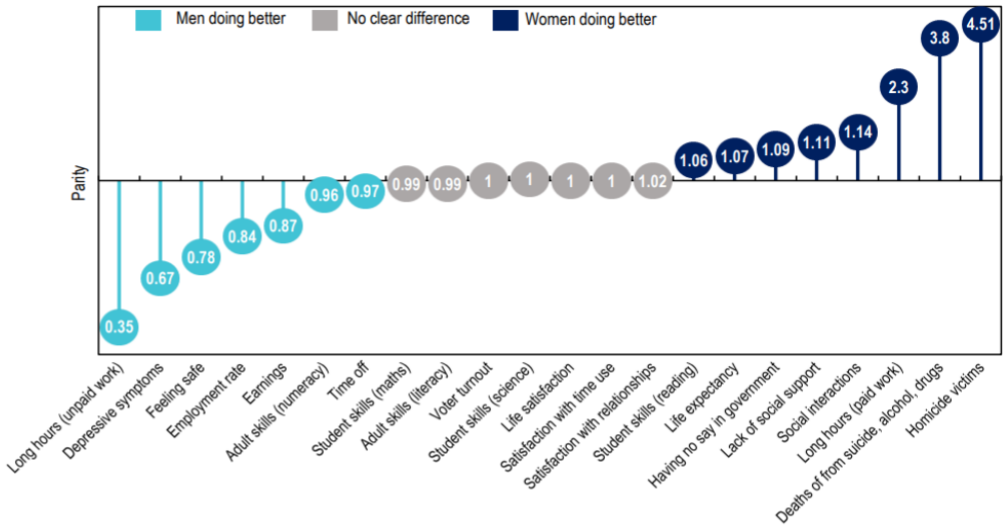
The EU provides analysis of the AROPE indicator of those at risk of poverty and social exclusion disaggregated by age and country to enable insights into how children and young people are faring across the member states of the EU.



ec.europa.eu/eurostat

The OECD has explored differences by sex in relation to the indicators of the OECD Well-being Framework to identify specific areas where men or women are doing better, worse or equally well across OECD member states (OECD, 2020).

OECD average gender ratios (distance from parity)



6.2 APPROACHES TO PRESENTING FINDINGS

174. Across the literature and among Task Force members, social exclusion findings tend to be presented as an index, a dashboard, or both.

175. An index is the presentation of a composite measure that aggregates multiple indicators of social exclusion. The domains and indicators within the index may be weighted to reflect the perceived importance of particular issues or may be unweighted if all factors are considered to be of equal importance or the relative importance of each factor is not clear. An index presents the findings from all the domains and indicators as a single number. Separate headline numbers for each domain may also be reported.

176. A dashboard is an alternative form of presentation where the findings from the measurement framework are not combined into a single number. Instead, the dashboard may be based on findings from headline indicators in each domain considered to be particularly important. A dashboard displaying results for key measures can help to communicate findings from large indicator sets in a succinct way to give a sense of the bigger picture.

6.2.1 Using indices for social exclusion

177. Using indices to measure and present social exclusion data can have both advantages and disadvantages, as summarised in Table 6.1.

178. Among the benefits of creating a single score across an index is that it may be easier to compare population sub-groups and to monitor trends over time than when using separate estimates for each domain. In terms of disadvantages, the index approach can hide underlying differences and sub-groups may differ both across the specific domains of the index as well as across the indicators. These issues can be addressed by providing both the headline results based on the four single domains as well as the overall index number.

179. Another possible drawback is that indices may require all the data to be gathered in the same survey, possibly requiring special data collection. This entails additional expense which may be difficult to sustain on an ongoing basis to monitor change over time. An alternative is that it may be possible to use administrative or register data to create objective estimates of social exclusion or inclusion, potentially linking this to survey data for the same individuals.

Table 6.1: Advantages and disadvantages of using an index

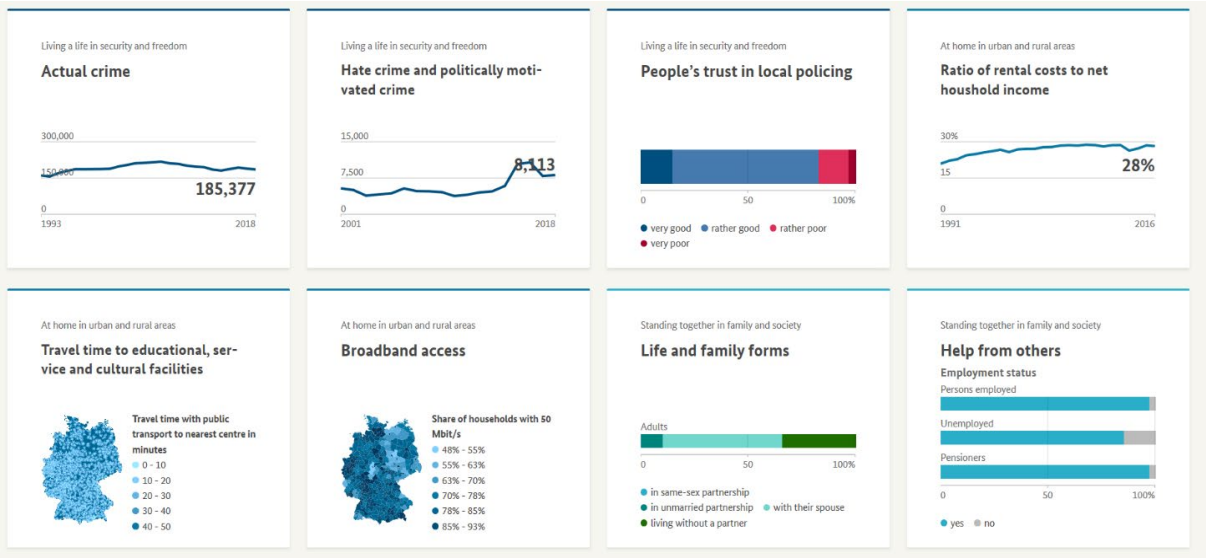
Advantages	Disadvantages
Makes it easier to compare sub-groups within the population	Can hide underlying differences between groups
Easier to monitor trends	Methodological decisions need to be made regarding weighting of domains
May enable an examination of the depth of exclusion for certain groups	Not all surveys are detailed across all domains – granularity may be an issue
Can provide a 'big picture' viewpoint	May draw conclusions that are too simplistic
Provide easy information for people to understand	Could be misleading if poorly constructed
Summarises complex, multidimensional factors	May obscure findings within individual domains that could be valuable to decision-makers

6.2.2 Using dashboards for social exclusion

180. The second common way of reporting and presenting information on social exclusion and related concepts is using a dashboard.

181. For example, in Germany, well-being is measured using 46 indicators across 12 dimensions (see Figure 6.1). Each indicator is considered equally important, an no attempt is made to weight them or organise them into a hierarchy. Similar to the previous example in the United Kingdom, German well-being measures are also presented using an interactive dashboard. Different types of data visualisations are used to show the findings, as shown in the example below.

Figure 6.1 Examples of different data visualisations on Germany's dashboard measuring well-being



182. At the European Union level, a European Statistical Recovery Dashboard[3] has been setup in response to the Covid-19 pandemic. It provides monthly or quarterly indicators to track the economic and social developments during the recovery from the Covid-19 outbreak in the Member States and EU as a whole. The dashboard focuses primarily on economic indicators, however, includes also indicators on economic activity in particular unemployment and NEET rate.

183. Using a dashboard to measure and present social exclusion data can have both advantages and disadvantages; some of these are explored in Table 6.2 below.

184. Switzerland's approach involves a multidimensional measurement of social exclusion combining three indicators, one of which is an index. The indicators are: social assistance recipients, income poverty and multiple deprivations in different areas of life. Multiple deprivation is measured as a composite indicator comprised of the number of problems individuals accumulate across key areas of life such as financial situation, health, housing, social relations, education, work, social participation and overall well-being.

[3] More information available at https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/cache/recovery-dashboard/

Table 6.2: Advantages and disadvantages of using a dashboard

Advantages	Disadvantages
Allows users to immediately see long-term and short-term trends for each indicator	Longer development process due to technology and skills needed
Allows for a more complete overview of all measures	Can feel cluttered with a lot of information available
May allow for a 'live' and interactive product	Considerations needed for accessibility, for example with screen readers or access on a mobile phone
Can use different data visualisations	Can only use the data on the dashboard for further analysis if there is a download option
Can easily show disaggregation as well as headline indicators	
Can use a variety of data sets	

7 TAKING STOCK OF WHERE WE ARE NOW

7.1 MEASUREMENT OF SOCIAL EXCLUSION AND OTHER RELATED CONCEPTS AMONG RESPONDENT COUNTRIES

185. We asked national statistical offices 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 two-thirds of respondents said their country does measure social exclusion and some of those also said they measure social inclusion.

186. Multi-dimensional poverty from the SDGs was also mentioned as being measured by at least a third of the respondent countries. 'Leave no one behind', also from the SDGs, was mentioned by just under a third of responding countries. The findings are presented in Table 7.1.

Table 7.1: Measurement of multi-dimensional concepts linked to social exclusion among respondent 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.	21	Albania, Armenia, Austria, Belarus, Belgium, Bulgaria, Czechia, Finland, Germany, Hungary, Lithuania, Malta, Mexico, Netherlands, Romania, Slovenia, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, Ukraine, 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.	7	Albania, Armenia, Finland, Hungary, Netherlands, Sweden, Turkey
Social cohesion: Social cohesion refers to efforts to work towards the well-being of the population, reducing marginalisation, fostering belonging and trust, and providing opportunities for upward social mobility.	6	Armenia, Hungary, Netherlands, Sweden, Turkey, 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.	13	Albania, Armenia, Belarus, Belgium, Bulgaria, Hungary, Italy, Mexico, Netherlands, Russian Federation, Sweden, Turkey, 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)	10	Armenia, Belarus, Hungary, Mexico, Netherlands, Russian Federation, Sweden, Switzerland, Ukraine, United Kingdom
Other indicators	10	Croatia, Georgia, Germany, Hungary, Romania, Serbia, Spain, Switzerland, Ukraine, United Kingdom

187. Although many respondent 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. Some countries (Belarus, Canada, Hungary, Malta, 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.

188. A number of respondent countries (Germany; Hungary; Italy; Sweden) highlighted that current measures of social exclusion may disproportionately exclude those likely to be at higher risk of social exclusion, such as vulnerable or disadvantaged subgroups and non-household populations, due to current data collection methods. Italy, Slovenia and Ukraine also suggested the possibility to utilise administrative data and data linkage to further improve the measurement of social exclusion. Lithuania noted that one social exclusion indicator may be problematic and not contextually applicable in all countries, as each country will have "specific domains which are of importance for them".

189. Rather than attempting to align on a harmonised standard, the Task Force took a pragmatic approach, 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, international initiatives can encourage countries to begin measuring things they did not previously measure. 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.

7.2 DATA AVAILABLE FOR MEASURING SOCIAL EXCLUSION

190. 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 important for making further progress nationally and internationally.

191. In April 2019, and again in April 2021, the Task Force on the Measurement of Social Exclusion circulated a brief survey among countries participating in the Conference of European Statisticians on national practices in relation to the following:

(1) Concepts and frameworks for measuring social exclusion at the national level
(2) Indicators used for measuring social exclusion
(3) Measures of emerging aspects and forms of social exclusion
(4) Dissemination and communication of measures of social exclusion

192. The first part of the questionnaire identifies the extent to which national statistical offices and other relevant organisations collect data 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 well-being; living environment; and crime, harm and criminalisation. The second part of the questionnaire asked the countries 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.

7.2.1 Data availability across the domains of social exclusion

193. 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. Almost all countries 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 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 respondent countries at the subnational level.

194. All countries collect some data on **economic participation**. For example, all countries reported collecting data on labour force participation and employment status at least on an annual basis (with some reporting quarterly or monthly collection), and for most countries these data are available sub-nationally. However, with respect to other indicators of economic participation, the experience of countries was mixed, with all countries 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, most are available at the subnational level.

195. Experiences in 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. All countries reported collecting data on internet access, with only 5 countries reporting that this data was not available at a sub-national level. Several countries collect data reflecting access to other private and public services at the subnational and national level. Austria, Belgium, Belarus, Canada, Czechia, Finland, Italy, Lithuania, Switzerland and the United Kingdom stand out as collecting a comprehensive set of indicators at both the national and subnational levels. However, not each country collects them annually. About a quarter of countries did not report collecting data on indicators of access to services, with the exception of internet access.

196. Most respondent 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. The respondent countries were more uncertain as to data collection on children in foster or residential care, with only a third of countries collecting these data.

Typically, data on children in foster and residential care come from a different source than other indicators of social exclusion.

197. All respondent countries collect data on **education and skills**, as measured by educational attainment. Subnational data on educational attainment are available in most countries (23 out of 29 responding countries). While most countries report collecting these data at least annually, Belarus and Georgia collect data on educational attainment once every 10 years and 5 years respectively. In terms of other indicators of education and skills, the experience among respondent countries is more mixed. Austria, Belarus, Canada, Finland, Georgia, Italy, Mexico, North Macedonia, Sweden, Switzerland and the United Kingdom collect data on cognitive skills attainment. The same countries, also Belgium, collect data on competence in official language and school attendance, absence and/or expulsion or suspension. In ten countries, these data are available sub-nationally. Switzerland and the United States also collect data reflecting competence in the official language at subnational level.

198. With respect to **social, political and civic participation**, most respondent countries (26 out of 31 responding countries), 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, Finland, Italy, Mexico, North Macedonia, Sweden and Switzerland (the United Kingdom and United States also collect voter turnout and/or registration and turnout; Belarus collects voter eligibility). Austria, Canada, Finland, Hungary, Mexico, North Macedonia, Switzerland and the United Kingdom collected subnational data reflecting trust in government. Most countries (28 out of 31 responding countries) 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.

199. The respondent countries also reported collecting data on indicators of **health and well-being**. For example, all but two countries report life expectancy data. Twenty-five countries collect a measure of self-reported physical health and twenty-four collect data on mental health. Twenty-six out of 31 respondent countries collect disability data. Substance dependence data are collected in twenty-one countries. Twenty-six countries collect at least one measure of health sub-nationally, whilst Austria, Belarus, Germany, Italy, Latvia, Spain and the United Kingdom have all health measures available sub-nationally. Data on life satisfaction and subjective well-being are collected by 26 countries except for Armenia, Croatia, Russian Federation, Ukraine and the United States. While most other countries reported collecting indicators of health and well-being at least annually, Romania, reports collecting these data on an ad hoc basis. Albania and North Macedonia also collect life satisfaction and subjective well-being measures once every five years.

200. In terms of indicators measuring **living environment**, most countries report data on housing quality and neighbourhood issues (including litter, vandalism and graffiti) except Serbia (both housing quality and neighbourhood issues), Latvia (neighbourhood issues), Georgia (housing quality), Croatia (neighbourhood issues) Czechia (housing quality), Belarus (neighbourhood issues), and Armenia (neighbourhood issues). Twenty-three countries also collected data on environmental risks. However, subnational estimates are not available in Albania, Romania and Turkey for these three indicators (housing quality, neighbourhood issues, and environmental risk) or in the United States for housing quality. Fourteen countries report collecting data on self-reported neighbourhood satisfaction, with data available at a subnational level. Data on homelessness is mixed, with fourteen countries reporting

collecting these data and subnational estimates being available in eleven of these countries. However, it is not clear whether this captures experience of homelessness retrospectively or captures current homelessness. Only five countries – Canada, Czechia, Italy, Spain and the United Kingdom - collected data on access to open space, and these data were collected sub-nationally. Belgium, Italy and the United Kingdom collect data on both traffic density and road accidents. Malta and North Macedonia also collects data on road traffic accidents. Most countries reported collecting these measures at least annually, except for Canada which collects them less frequently.

201. Some respondent 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. Fourteen countries reported measuring the crime rate and imprisonment; eight countries measured rates of victimisation and reported collecting data on self-reports of fear of crime. Subnational data for all four of these indicators were only available in Belarus, Italy, Mexico, and the United Kingdom. Subnational data were also available for more than one of these indicators in Austria (crime rate, self-reported fear of crime, and imprisonment), Canada (victimisation rate, self-reported fear of crime, and imprisonment), Lithuania (crime rate, self-reported fear of crime, and imprisonment) as well as Albania (crime rate and imprisonment). Spain, Slovenia, Serbia, Russian Federation, Malta, Latvia, Hungary and Finland reported only one indicator on sub-national level. Most 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.

7.2.2 Sources of data for measuring social exclusion

202. Most respondent 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. Eleven countries also reported supplementing survey data with administrative records to measure indicators.

203. All the respondent 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. 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.

7.2.3 How inclusive are our data?

204. 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.

205. 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 for homeless people: Canada for a sub-set of all homeless, i.e., people living in shelters, Netherlands, Switzerland and the United Kingdom. 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 countries do not have data available to measure social exclusion for the non-household or homeless populations.

206. 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 respondent countries collect data on immigrants (Armenia, Canada, 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 respondents 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.

207. 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.

208. 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.

209. 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.

7.3 CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

210. 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 has multidimensional poverty, and use the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development as a unifying framework for the different approaches.**

211. 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.**

212. The groups most at risk of social exclusion may be not covered in the measurement due to a 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 populations, and consider methods of data linkage across sources or cross-survey imputation.** In doing so, it is important to consider the circumstances in which these methods may be appropriate for maximising insights and producing robust findings. Collecting information in private households on past experiences of homelessness or imprisonment might be also considered.

213. 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. It is important to consolidate indicators into counting-based multidimensional measures. 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.** We would also recommend consideration of the circumstances in which these methods may be more or less appropriate for maximising insights and producing robust findings.

214. 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 well-being are not collected on an annual basis in many countries. It is recommended to **consider alternative data sources, such as administrative records and increase frequency of data collection where necessary and feasible.**

215. 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.**

8 FUTURE WORK

216. The agreed scope of the Task Force was to highlight different ways in which social exclusion and related concepts have been measured, with country examples and links to further information. The Task Force have also mapped how specific measures are used in a range of indicator frameworks to enable greater understanding of the similarities and differences between different approaches to measurement. The Task Force agrees with the importance of the issues raised during the country consultation in March-April 2021 for further analysis such as the use of administrative records and comparison between measurement tools and indicator frameworks, which would be valuable for identifying best practice. This chapter gives an overview of the issues that would be a priority in the future work on measuring social exclusion.

8.1 DEFINITION ON "SOCIAL EXCLUSION"

217. The document notes that social exclusion is measured and defined in a range of ways in keeping with different social contexts. Because of these varying circumstances, building consensus for a common internationally agreed definition would be a challenging effort. Thus, the document does not position itself as a "guide" to follow, but rather a summary of international experiences and practices with specific examples and links to further information as a source of inspiration and consideration. It also notes that the policy focus in recent years has been more on how to promote inclusion, equalities and well-being across society and social groups. Fundamentally, whether framed as social exclusion, inclusion or well-being, the aim is to achieve similar outcomes – a fairer society in which everyone is better able to live the life they value. Indeed, these distinct concepts have converged over time due to global and societal changes (e.g., change in attitudes, paradigms and policies, introduction of equality and equity legislations, etc.).

218. Even though the report does not arrive at a specific definition of social exclusion, it should not be concluded that the measurement of social exclusion can be treated arbitrarily. In future work, it may still be useful to clearly specify minimum criteria for a working definition of social exclusion. For example, minimum criteria could include the persistent lack of material resources (such as money, housing, employment, education and health), as well as consideration for immaterial resources (such as safety, social relationships, citizen rights and political rights, access to services and a natural and living environment). Other minimum criteria could speak to the need for social exclusion measurement to be based on a coherent social policy framework such as the Sustainable Development Goals (as suggested in chapter 7).

8.2 USE OF ADMINISTRATIVE RECORDS

219. The increased use of administrative data for statistical purposes offers several benefits such as reduced data collection costs and respondent burden. Existing administrative data sources that provide information on the components or indicators typically incorporated into the measurement of social exclusion include population registers, tax registers, social security data, public benefits, health and education records.

220. Administrative data on hard-to-reach populations have the potential to supplement survey data collection, including any lists or registers of the homeless population or other vulnerable populations. However, more research is needed to assess whether existing administrative data

sources adequately capture specific hard-to-reach populations. Comparability of these sources across geographies also remains an issue.

221. Registers and other administrative records may not provide enough information on individuals to assess social exclusion and may need to be complemented with additional information from surveys, including demographic information.

222. Future work should facilitate exchange of information on whether, the extent to which and how countries utilize administrative records in the measurement of social exclusion or its domains. It should further address privacy concerns arising from use of administrative records.

8.3 COMPARISON BETWEEN MEASUREMENT TOOLS AND INDICATOR FRAMEWORKS

223. The document described a number of social exclusion measurement frameworks built upon indicators. For example, the Netherlands Social Exclusion Index described in section 4.4.3 combines 42 indicators across four dimensions of social exclusion, and indicators can be statistically combined to produce scores for each of the four dimensions, plus a score for overall social exclusion. Further work could develop a deeper comparison of indicator frameworks across countries, presenting differences and similarities as well as advantages and disadvantages of each, to make it easier for countries and statistical offices interested in measuring social exclusion to decide in what direction they would like to proceed.

8.4 ENVIRONMENT DIMENSION

224. Some population groups are at greater risk of exposure to weather and climate events. Factors associated with this may include geography, socioeconomic status and resources, education, sex, age, disability and health. All of these may contribute to the ability of different groups to resist or adapt to adverse events. An individual's access to social networks or social support can also mitigate or aggravate the risk of disadvantage irrespective of the type of hazard. Improving the measurement of how environmental factors relate to social exclusion can provide useful insights to target policies and practices more effectively. Measurement could focus, for example, on groups most prone to natural and human-induced environmental degradation, pollution and contamination, climate change, etc. Future work could consider how environmental risks are experienced by different groups and how this relates to social exclusion. Any future work in this area should consider and build on current international guidance such as the *CES Recommendations on the Role of Official Statistics in Measuring Hazardous Events and Disasters*, for example.

8.5 SUBGROUP ANALYSIS

225. There are a range of ways in which access to more granular data could enable better insights into social exclusion. For example, more detailed analysis into the circumstances and characteristics of families and children at greater risk of social exclusion is possible if we regularly collect more data about these groups, such as the number of children in the household and other aspects of family life. Similarly, further granularity of data at the individual level could enable more detailed analysis of the situations of people across age groups, those with disabilities and people with other personal characteristics or circumstances associated with greater risk of disadvantage or social exclusion. Such an approach would help to shed light on who experiences social exclusion most within society and if

monitored regularly, how these groups fare over time. It would also enable more insightful analysis of the factors most strongly associated with social exclusion. Geographically granular data could also provide greater understanding of where social exclusion is more or less prevalent to enable better targeting of responses and resources. Future work could explore these and other ways in which granularity could be improved in the measurement and analysis of social exclusion.

8.6 LONGITUDINAL DATA

226. The longitudinal perspective is of great importance to understand the process of social exclusion and persistence of disadvantage. Collection of longitudinal data which records individual trajectories helps to assess the trends and transitions in and out of social exclusion. It provides insights on the profile of the socially excluded individuals, i.e., who are the groups that are likely to experience more lengthy spells of social exclusion, whether these are the same individuals from one year to another, what events drive people in and out of social exclusion and to what extent the exclusion is a recurrent phenomenon.

227. However, only panel data collected from the same individuals over time can provide information on individual trajectories of social exclusion. Although some indicators currently incorporated into measures of social exclusion are collected at regular intervals (e.g., annually), they are not collected in a panel survey framework, or panels are not of sufficient length or sample size to examine long-term trajectories. For example, the EU-SILC design includes a short panel duration and a small sample size for the panel component of the survey, with a larger sample for the cross-sectional component. Many indicators are therefore not available in existing panel surveys.

228. Dynamic longitudinal measures can help policymakers adopt better safety nets or other inclusion policies and to identify ways in and out of social exclusion. Collection of longitudinal data is important and its inclusion in future work should be considered when more specific (and agreed upon) criteria for best practice in the measurement of social exclusion are developed.

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