



**SOCIAL INEQUALITY AND WHY IT MATTERS FOR THE
ECONOMIC AND DEMOCRATIC DEVELOPMENT OF
EUROPE AND ITS CITIZENS: POST-COMMUNIST CENTRAL
AND EASTERN EUROPE IN COMPARATIVE PERSPECTIVE**

**DELIVERABLE 2
DESK RESEARCH**

CZECH REPUBLIC

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Introduction

1. Objective indicators of social inequality

Basic sources of information on economic and social development in the Czech Republic have been statistical reports produced mostly by the Czech Statistical Office (CSO), the main results of which are published annually in Annual Statistical Yearbooks. Fundamental information on the population is derived mainly from periodic public censuses (the last one being organized in 2001) and annual overviews of population trends (births, marriages and deaths). Many issues, included normally under the "social inequality" field, need further researches and data sources discussed in detail in following paragraphs (besides aforementioned general summary information sources).

A. The current social structure of the Czech society

The society's social structure is recorded basically in the following dimensions:

- Socio-economic structure of the population (categories: entrepreneurs, self-employed persons, employees, pensioners, students, unemployed people etc.);
- Socio-professional structure of economically active people under the KZAM classification (a slightly modified national version of the ISCO88 classification);
- Branch structure of economically active people under the ISIC classification (internationally adopted branch classification of economic activities);
- Educational structure of the population under the international ISCED classification, often specifying the field of education under the international trade classification.

All information is updated regularly (quarterly) through the Specific Research on Human Resources (SRHR) carried out by the CSO using the Eurostat methodology (since 1992). This research is carried out on a stratified random population sample (random selection of approximately 25 thousand households from the housing registry; information on all household members). The examined sample is tied to population movements. The research is prepared for individuals on national level and for NUTS2. Selected data are published at the CSO web pages and in the "Employment and Unemployment in the CR under the SRHR Scheme" bulletin.

The above mentioned classifications are used also in many other special surveys and in expert researches of academics as well as in public opinion polls and commercial researches (ratings and market surveys etc.).

B. Incomes of employees / economically active persons

Employment incomes (data from employers' database) are categorized according to professions, professional groups, education, sex etc. This information is collected in the so-called Information System on Average Income administered by the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs (MLSA). Originally, this was a commercial research of the Trexima company collecting hereby information on (regional) price of work (since 1994); slowly, it gained the status of an official research in the area of income carried out under the

competence of CSO. Since 2005, it includes all organizations from the non-business field and a large, representative sample of business organizations. The database allows to retrieve information on income in specific professions (under the KZAM) in both business and non-business field and information on income differences by age, education, sex and regions.

Overall annual income in individual sectors (ISIC classification). The database has been established using the so-called "company method" (all companies with more than 25 workers are obliged to provide information on the amount of salaries paid). Companies with less than 25 employees are contacted on ad hoc basis; however, the selected ones are obliged to provide the requested information.

C. Total income of individuals and households (and structured expenses of households)

Official sources of information in this area include:

A) Income micro-censuses:

Income micro-censuses have been carried out since 1970's and have been implemented twice in between large censuses (0.5-1.0% of households before 1989). After 1989, they were carried out on smaller samples (the last income micro census (2003), entitled MC 2002 as it focused on 2002 incomes, worked with data from approximately eight thousand households (random stratified selection using housing registry data)). Under this survey, all household members responded. Income researches take into account salaries, pension benefits, social support benefits, financial presents, heritage incomes etc. Data can be analysed either per individuals or per households. With regard to individuals, standard socio-demographic data are collected: age, sex, education, social and economic status, management status, KZAM, ISIC. Also, the composition of households and relations between individual persons are examined in detail.

B) Family accounts:

Since 1970's: incomes and expenditures of households, ongoing (panel) research. Quota selection. The current size of the corpus - 3,500 households. Both the level/structure of household incomes and the level/structure of expenditures are examined.

D. Data from extensive (academic) researches focusing on social structure, stratification and mobility

For detailed studies and analyses of the social structure (social inequalities, their internal and inter-generation reproduction, inequality in the living standard and lifestyle level etc.) Czech sociologists use series of surveys carried out on large representative samples of the adult population (data archives of the Institute of Sociology of the Czech Academy of Science)

1978 - 12,000 individuals

1984 - 11,000 individuals
1992 - 5,000 individuals
1999 - 4,200 individuals
2005 - 3,700 individuals.

Set of characteristics: age 18-69, random stratified selection, base for the selection: income micro censuses or housing registry.

Main topics of the research: educational and professional (life) career, inter-generation mobility (educational, socio-professional), spatial mobility, household composition (demographic, social), living standard (income, facilities, housing etc.), free-time activities. The last two surveys have focused also on attitudes, value orientations and election preferences.

2. The current status and development of social inequality in the CR

2.1. Inequality in the social structure

In order to better understand processes taking place within the social structure of the Czech society, we need basic information on the population (demographic data) and basic facts on the economic development. Besides reflecting the current situation, this information should also provide data on the potential dynamics of changes or indicate expected development trends. We may ask how far ahead we need to look, how near future should be taken into account in our reflections and prognoses. This depends on the subject examined – some areas of life are influenced by more distant events, some areas are not embedded very deep in the past. Similar principle applies also to the estimates of future developments – these can be determined by the current situation and current development trends in such a degree that estimates for several decades make sense, but some changes are hard to foresee even five years ahead as they depend purely on external factors.

a) Population and changes in demographic behaviour

Demographic data reflect changes, which have occurred in the demographic behaviour of the young generation in 1990's: lower birth rate accompanied with a significant drop in the marriage rate (or vice versa), higher divorce rate. Changes in the birth rate together with longer life expectancy resulted in general aging of the population. Estimates for 2020 and 2040 (see graphs below) should alert us – unless there is an increase in the birth rate or unless the population age structure changes significantly through migration, within thirty years 21 - 23 % of the Czech population will be aged over 65 years (nowadays 14 %), 63 -67 % will be of productive age and children (71 % now) under 18 years will constitute 12 – 14 % of the population.

Table 2.1.1 Basic population data: number, age structure, birth/death rate, marriage/divorce rate

Indicator	Measurement unit	1970	1980	1990	1995	2000	2002	2004
<i>Mid-year population</i>	<i>thousand persons</i>	9 805	10 326	10 362	10 331	10 272	10 201	10 207
Female	<i>thousand persons</i>	5 056	5 315	5 326	5 311	5 273	5 236	5 235
Aged: 0-14	<i>thousand persons</i>				1 921	1 685	1 605	1 539
15-64	<i>thousand persons</i>				7 044	7 165	7 180	7 240
65+	<i>thousand persons</i>				1 366	1 422	1 416	1 428
<i>Life expectancy at birth</i>								
Male	<i>years</i>	66,1	66,8	67,5	70,0	71,7	72,1	72,6
Female	<i>years</i>	73,0	73,9	76,1	76,9	78,4	78,5	79,0
<i>Live births per 1 000 persons</i>	<i>‰</i>	15,1	14,9	12,6	9,3	8,8	9,1	9,6
<i>Deaths per 1 000 persons</i>	<i>‰</i>	12,6	13,1	12,5	11,4	10,6	10,6	10,5
<i>Natural increase/decrease per 1 000 persons</i>	<i>‰</i>	2,5	1,8	0,1	-2,1	-1,8	-1,5	-0,9
<i>Marriages per 1 000 persons</i>	<i>‰</i>	9,2	7,6	8,8	5,3	5,4	5,2	5,0
<i>Divorces per 1 000 persons</i>	<i>‰</i>	2,19	2,64	3,09	3,01	2,89	3,11	3,24
<i>Divorces per 100 marriages</i>	<i>%</i>	23,7	34,7	35,2	56,7	53,7	60,2	64,3

Remarks on marriage rate, partnership relations durability and breakdown of the traditional nuclear family:

The drop in the marriage rate is certainly connected with the decrease of the birth rate, even though approximately one third of children are born outside marriage (in 1980's, this number was approximately 7 – 8 %). The divorce rate has not risen dramatically: alarming information on the divorce rate (per 100 marriages) has in certain extent been affected by the low marriage rate. Information on how many children grow up in single-parent family, in substitute families or with unmarried parents are affected by many factors (place of permanent residence, common household, requirements for gaining social support), which complicate the quantification on how many "complete" families of unmarried couples actually exist.

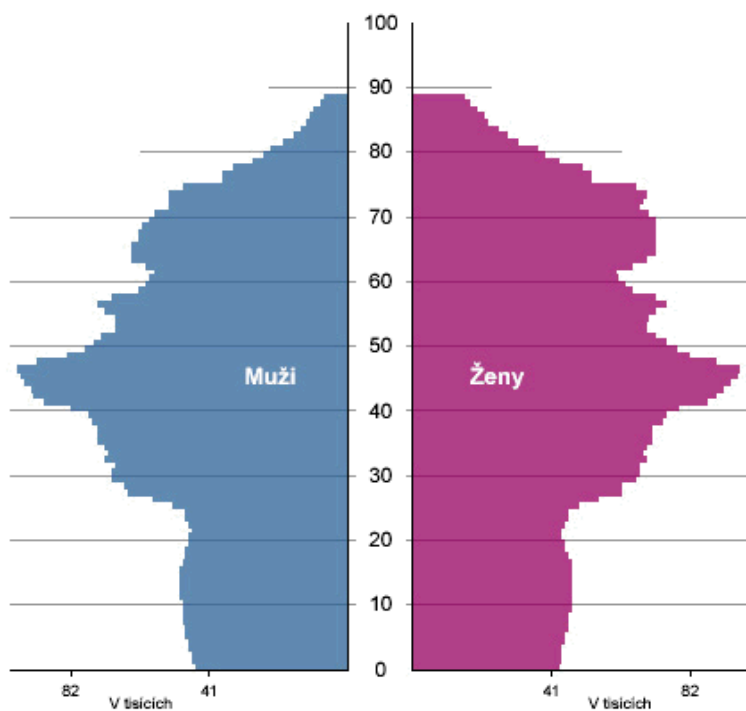
Important moments of the demographic behaviour include the higher average age of mothers at the time of first child birth (23 years in 1980's, 27 years now), decrease of the overall fertility to 1.2 child (the lowest number in Europe), significant decrease of the birth rate of second/third etc. child in the family, higher age of partners entering in first marriage (both men and women), decrease in the number of second/third etc. marriages, increase in the number of people living their whole life outside marriage.

Besides immediate impacts on the demographic development, the above described changes of the population family behaviour have many other (social) consequences, which demonstrate themselves in short- or long-term perspective: low number of youngest age groups (school capacities etc.), inter-generation solidarity in the social and pension system (who will support the pension payments for strong population years (the beginning of 1970's), care for aging population within wider/nuclear family etc.).

Population in 2020: Age-structure, Czech Republic

Věková skladba obyvatelstva: 2020

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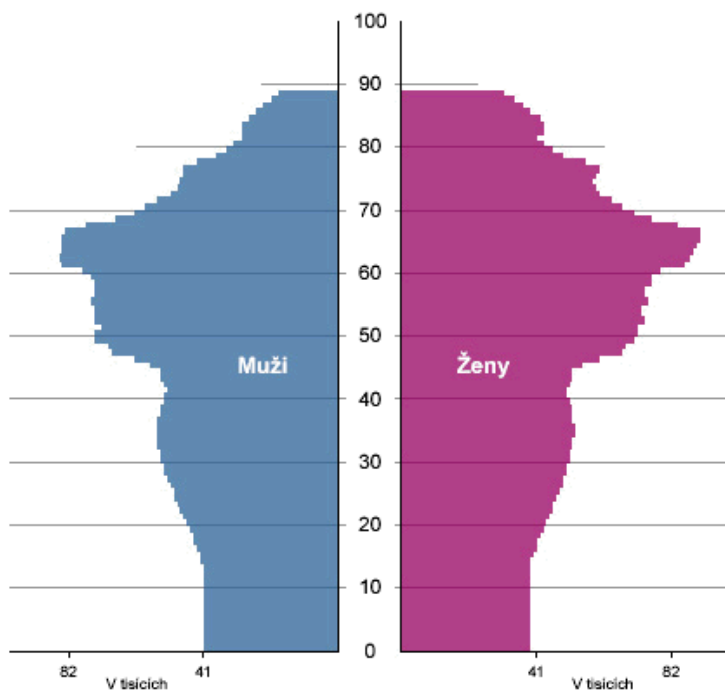


Men (blue, in thousands)/Women (red, in th.)

Population in 2040: Breakdown by age, the Czech Republic

Věková skladba obyvatelstva: 2040

Česká republika



. Economic developments during the past decade (including the development of the job market)

The following three tables characterize the dynamics of the Czech Republic's development within the past decade using the basic economic indicators. From the social inequalities perspective (the focus of our research), they describe the overall social context, which undoubtedly affects processes taking place on the level of individuals and their households.

Table 1.2 includes standard summary information reflecting the development of the Czech economy during the last decade. Individual data show that basic economic indicators have been rising during the past decade without major multi-annual fluctuations. An important finding is that the economic progress went hand in hand with the rise of the work productivity. The Czech Republic (together with Slovakia and Slovenia) belongs to countries with the highest annual increase of the GDP (during past two years); however, the productivity of the Czech economy remains significantly lower than in countries of the original Fifteen (with the exception of Portugal and Greece).

Table 2.1.2: Summary information on the development of economic indicators during the past decade:

Indicator	Measurement unit	1995	1998	2000	2002	2004	2005
<i>Output</i> (previous year = 100)	bill. CZK, b. c.	3 500,4	4 763,6	5 379,0	6 033,2	7 043,0	7 543,0
	%, s. c.	109,0	102,6	105,5	103,1	106,6	105,7
<i>Intermediate consumption</i> (previous year = 100)	bill. CZK, b. c.	2 174,2	2 950,7	3 395,5	3 793,1	4 547,0	4 872,3
	%, s. c.	111,4	104,6	106,5	103,4	108,1	105,2
<i>Gross domestic product²⁾</i> (previous year = 100)	bill. CZK, b. c.	1 466,5	1 996,5	2 189,2	2 464,4	2 781,1	2 978,2
	%, s. c.	105,9	99,2	103,6	101,9	104,2	106,1
<i>Gross national income</i> (previous year = 100)	bill. CZK, b. c.	1 463,5	1 959,3	2 139,7	2 352,1	2 621,9	2 843,7
	%, s. c.	.	102,3	101,9	102,8	103,0	.
<i>Gross disposable income</i> (previous year = 100)	bill. CZK, b. c.	1 477,1	1 976,8	2 152,6	2 365,1	2 621,2	2 839,1
	%, s. c.	.	102,5	101,5	102,7	102,9	.
<i>Gross domestic product per capita in purchasing power parity</i>	PPS ³⁾	10 668	11 979	13 033	14 595	16 013	17 355
<i>Household final consumption expenditure</i> (previous year = 100)	bill. CZK, b. c.	736,0	1 037,2	1 134,7	1 248,1	1 391,1	1 449,0
	%, s. c.	.	99,2	101,3	102,2	102,5	104,2
<i>Gross national saving</i>	bill. CZK, b. c.	424,8	525,5	542,4	553,3	588,2	707,6
<i>Gross national saving rate⁴⁾</i>	%	28,8	26,6	25,2	23,4	22,4	24,9
<i>Gross fixed capital formation</i> (previous year = 100)	bill. CZK, b. c.	461,8	562,4	612,5	677,8	729,3	758,7
	%, s. c.	119,8	99,1	105,1	105,1	104,7	103,6
<i>Investment rate⁵⁾</i>	%	31,5	28,2	28,0	27,5	26,2	25,5
<i>Fixed assets: 31 December</i>	bill. CZK, b. c.	6 339,3	8 834,0	9 838,6	10 618,7	11 503,8	.
<i>Workers⁶⁾</i>	thous. persons	5 115,3	5 070,7	4 922,3	4 950,1	4 903,0	.
<i>Total labour productivity</i> (previous year = 100) ⁶⁾	%	.	100,9	104,1	101,6	104,1	105,4
<i>Unit labour cost</i> (previous year = 100) ⁷⁾	%	.	106,6	101,7	103,7	102,1	99,8

²⁾ 1993 – 2004 figures are obtained from annual national accounts; 2005 figures are the sum of GDP quarterly estimates

⁴⁾ Gross national saving to gross disposable income

⁵⁾ Gross fixed capital formation to GDP

⁶⁾ Data were used on numbers of full time positions filled as laid down in the ESA 95 methodology, i.e. included are first and second job holders, foreign workers (both employees and employers) and estimated number of workers for statistically unreflected economy

⁷⁾ Ratio of the index of compensation of employees and mixed income of households per worker to the index of total labour productivity

Continuation of Table 2

Indicator	Unit	1995	1998	2000	2002	2004	2005
Annual average exchange rate CZK/EUR		34,3	36,2	35,6	30,8	31,9	29,8
Inflation rate ⁵⁾	increase, %	9,1	10,7	3,9	1,8	2,8	1,9
Consumer price index, total ⁷⁾	%	252,5	329,7	349,9	372,9	383,8	391,1
Cost-of-living index for households of							
Employees	%	247,5	321,3	340,1	360,8	370,5	376,8
Pensioners ³⁾	%	251,6	343,5	368,2	400,1	414,6	424,6

Second part of the table includes data illustrating the reflection of the macroeconomic development in everyday life (inflation, the strength of Czech crown, higher consumption of households).

Table 1.3 includes basic information on developments in the employment area during the past decade. It reflects economic processes during the national economy restructuralization, its integration into European/global economy and foreign investments into basic employment structures (by basic production sectors). Special attention is paid to developments in the area of unemployment. In this context, it is necessary to take into account the full employment level in the CR during long post-war years (until 1989). Every citizen of productive age was obliged to have an employment (with the exception of students, married women in households; everyone had his right to work guaranteed by the Constitution). The rate of (full-time) employment of married women was among the highest ones in Europe. The planned-economy system had been constantly suffering from the lack of labour force (low productivity, artificial increase of demand for labour force, poor use of capacities as well as working hours etc.).

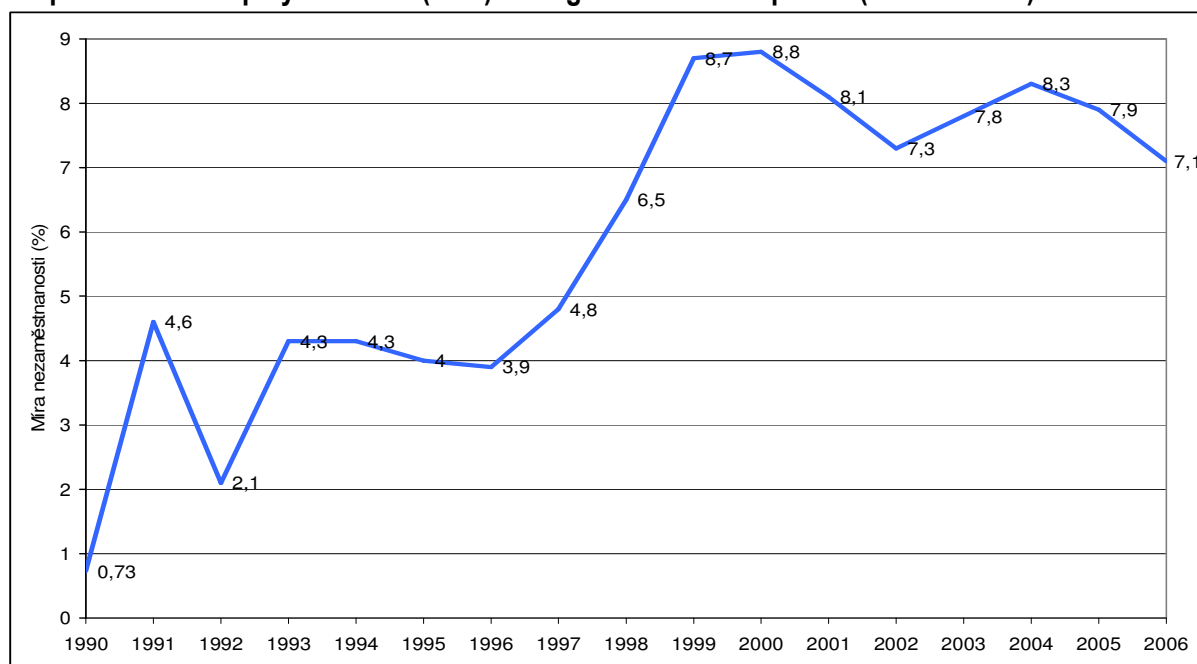
After 1989, this "over-employment" or artificial employment quickly disappeared. In the beginning of 1990's, changes introduced did not lead to high unemployment rate (unlike in other transforming economies). People who lost their jobs because of national economy restructuralization or the closure of ineffective companies/whole sectors etc. lost their positions, but found opportunities in the underdeveloped services sector (approximately one million licenses were issued in just two years) or opted for an early retirement. This significantly lowered the number of employed pensioners (see the attached Table P1), whose positions were made available to people of productive age.

Table 2.1.3: Summary information on the development in the area of employment during the past decade

Indicator		Unit	1995	1998	2000	2002	2004	2005
Average number of employees in the national economy ²⁾		thousand persons	4 524,6	4 250,0	4 058,6	4 049,5	4 011,6	.
Out of this:	Agriculture and hunting, forestry	thousand persons	265,3	215,4	180,7	169,3	150,8	.
	Industry, total	thousand persons	1 540,8	1 460,4	1 374,5	1 352,7	1 313,6	.
	Construction	thousand persons	379,1	333,7	283,3	257,9	256,1	.
Registered unemployment rate		%	2,93	7,48	8,78	9,81	³⁾ 9,47	³⁾ 8,88
Unemployed job applicants		persons	153 041	386 918	457 369	514 435	541 675	510 416
Job vacancies		vacancies	88 047	37 641	52 060	40 651	51 203	52 164
Average monthly gross nominal wage per employee in the national economy ³⁾		CZK	8 010	11 371	12 918	14 999	17 030	.
Out of this:	Agriculture and hunting, forestry	CZK	6 777	9 202	10 307	11 493	12 772	.
	Industry, total	CZK	7 934	11 587	13 170	15 025	17 014	.
	Construction	CZK	8 835	11 535	12 509	14 188	16 039	.
Real income index (in the national economy) ⁵⁾		%	.	97,8	102,2	105,3	104,0	.

A sudden rise of the unemployment rate occurred only in 1997-98 in connection with the limits of the tertiary sector capacities being reached as well as in connection with the ongoing restructuralization, the failure of the "Czech privatization road" and the then relatively low foreign investment influx. After this sudden rise, it has stabilized at the turn of the centuries at approximately 10%. Thanks to the higher level of foreign capital influx (especially in the car industry) and the overall economic progress, the unemployment rate has gradually decreased during the past two or three years. More detailed unemployment structure (status as of 2005) is reflected in the attached Table P3, P4 (short-term/long-term unemployment, breakdown by age and education, breakdown by last profession). An important feature in this context is the high rate of long-term unemployment (more than one third of unemployed people were jobless for over two years and one fifth were unemployed for over one year - both men and women). Most unemployed people, as can be expected, are people with lower education and qualifications (half-qualified and unqualified manual professions plus holders of low-qualified clerical positions among women). A relatively high unemployment rate can be seen also among young graduates from lower school types, women with small children as well as pre-pension age people. The unemployment level of women is higher by approximately 10% than the one of men.

Graph No. 3: Unemployment rate (in %) during the monitored period (source: CSO)



Information included in the following table completes the above mentioned analysis and looks at the speed of the social transition towards educational society. The table reflects development trends in the number of pupils and students during the past decade. Pre-school establishments and first grades of primary schools have registered the weakest birth-rate years in history. Also other school-related data illustrate the extent within which the system (as well as parents and children themselves) reacted to the needs of the educational society, i.e. the process of the educational capital (potential) creation. We can see a sharp decline in the numbers of labour professions trainees and a steep rise in the numbers of university students. Even though the number of university student is lower compared to many developed countries, we can say that the Czech Republic has reached an average European level in this area: annually, approximately half of young people of the relevant year enter universities.

Table 2.1.4: Summary data on educational trends during the past decade

Indicator		Measurement unit	1995	1998	2000	2002	2004	2005
<i>Children, pupils and students at schools¹⁾</i>								
	<i>Nursery</i>	<i>Persons</i>	333 433	302 856	279 838	278 859	280 487	282 183
	<i>Primary</i>	<i>Thousand persons</i>	1 005	1 082	1 057	994	918	917
	<i>Grammar</i>	<i>Persons</i>	133 093	126 137	137 777	142 069	143 238	144 605
	<i>Secondary technical</i>	<i>Persons</i>	229 909	191 512	211 399	213 390	225 250	227 418
	<i>Secondary vocational</i>	<i>Persons</i>	201 150	171 575	190 186	196 015	193 389	205 582
	<i>Higher professional</i>	<i>Persons</i>	-	29 566	26 605	27 584	29 759	28 792
	<i>Universities incl. PhD. programmes, total</i>	<i>Persons</i>	148 433	187 148	215 207	248 756	298 196	321 164
Includes:	<i>CZ citizens</i>	<i>Persons</i>	145 148	182 745	207 721	236 678	279 800	298 525
	<i>Other citizens</i>	<i>Persons</i>	3 285	4 403	7 486	12 078	18 396	22 639
Includes:	<i>Full-time study</i>	<i>Persons</i>	129 440	160 648	177 137	199 610	231 420	245 457
	<i>Distance and combined study</i>	<i>Persons</i>	18 993	26 500	38 070	49 146	66 776	75 707

c. Socio-economic, socio-professional and sectoral structure of the CR in 2005

The socio-economic, socio-professional and sectoral structure of economically active population in 2005 (reflected in the following two tables) has been developing in the Czech Republic long before 1989: during the industrialization period of 1950's and 1960's, the stagnation of the industrial society during the normalization period and the moderate modernization during the last socialistic years as well as during the re-introduction of private ownership and market economy (see Table P.1 in the Statistical Appendix reflecting years 1948-2003). The Czech Republic belongs to EU countries with the highest rate of people employed in industrial sectors (and also the largest rate of people working in labour professions) and countries with a low number of people in agricultural production. Extensive revitalization of private entrepreneurship in the beginning of 1990's (often of individual or family nature) places the Czech Republic among countries with the highest degree of self-employed people in Europe (see Table P.2 in the attachment: development of the numbers of entrepreneurs and the gradual stabilization of their socio-economic status).

Table 2.1.5: Employees with (main) employment in the national economy according to the employment classification (KZAM) and status at work in 2005

	<i>One (main) job holders</i>		<i>Incl. female</i>		
	<i>Thousand persons</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Total (thous. persons)</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>On maternity leave (thous. persons)</i>
Total	4 764,0	100,0	2 058,5	100,0	24,1
Status in employment by CZ-ICSE:					
<i>Employees</i>	3 979,5	83,5	1 838,0	89,3	22,8
<i>Employers</i>	177,1	3,7	41,0	2,0	0,1
<i>Self-employed workers</i>	551,1	11,6	147,5	7,2	1,1
<i>Members of production cooperatives</i>	21,3	0,4	6,3	0,3	-
<i>Family workers</i>	35,0	0,7	25,7	1,2	0,1
<i>Not identified</i>	0,1	0,0	-	-	-
Occupation by CZ-ISCO-88:					
<i>Law makers, senior officials and managers</i>	294,2	6,2	87,2	4,2	0,7
<i>Professional Technicians and associate professional</i>	515,7	10,8	258,3	12,5	3,6
<i>Clerks</i>	357,8	7,5	275,3	13,4	2,9
<i>Service workers and shop and market sales workers</i>	575,4	12,1	371,2	18,0	4,8
<i>Skilled agricultural and forestry workers</i>	76,0	1,6	28,3	1,4	0,4
<i>Draft and related trades workers</i>	888,3	18,6	110,2	5,4	1,4
<i>Plant and machine operators and assemblers</i>	655,3	13,8	167,8	8,2	2,2
<i>Elementary occupations</i>	344,9	7,2	204,9	10,0	0,8
<i>Armed forces</i>	14,8	0,3	1,6	0,1	-
<i>Not identified</i>	2,3	0,0	1,0	0,0	-

Table 2.1.6: Employees with one (main) employment (sectoral classification)

	<i>One (main) job holders</i>		<i>Incl. female</i>	
	<i>Thousand persons</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Thousand persons</i>	<i>%</i>
Total	4 861,7	100,0	2 096,1	100,0
<i>Agriculture, hunting and forestry</i>	172,8	3,6	52,7	2,5
<i>Fishing</i>	3,5	0,1		
INDUSTRY, TOTAL	1 503,8	31,0	529,8	25,2
<i>Mining and quarrying</i>	58,0	1,2	7,0	0,3
<i>Manufacturing</i>	1 369,7	28,2	507,5	24,2
<i>Electricity, gas and water supply</i>	76,1	1,6	15,3	0,7
<i>Construction</i>	437,8	9,0	34,6	1,7
<i>Wholesale and detail trade; repair of motor vehicles, motorcycles and personal and household goods</i>	613,7	12,6	331,3	15,8
<i>Hotels and restaurants</i>	185,9	3,8	102,5	4,9
<i>Transport, storage and communications</i>	363,1	7,5	99,5	4,7
<i>Financial intermediation</i>	94,4	1,9	60,4	2,9
<i>Real estate, renting and business activities</i>	329,4	6,8	139,0	6,6
<i>Public administration and defence; compulsory social security</i>	329,5	6,8	159,9	7,6
<i>Education</i>	286,0	5,9	211,4	10,1
<i>Health and social work</i>	339,2	7,0	271,1	12,9
<i>Other community, social and personal service activities</i>	197,8	4,1	99,7	4,8

Both tables include data for the total of economically active population and data on economically active women. As mentioned above, the employment of women in the Czech Republic is very high and the majority of them (90%) work full-time. This puts the Czech Republic on one of the top positions in this area globally. The structure of employed women differs from the overall information on economically active persons (and the difference is still larger when comparison is made with men and not the economically active population in general). Women are significantly less frequently found among entrepreneurs and self-employed people (in comparison with men, the number of businesswomen is lower by one third); significantly higher is the number of women among experts with middle-level education (nurses, primary school teachers), lower non-manual workers (clerks, cashiers) as well as in the group of non-qualified professions (cleaning ladies, shop-assistants etc.). Men constitute large majority in labour professions as well as in the group of senior officials and managers (there are approximately 10% of women at the top management level).

d) *Income inequalities in individual sectors and employment categories in 2005*

In the end of 1980's, income differences between professional groups and many other sectors (with the exception of mining and heavy industry) were minimal. The nivelization of salaries was caused by the redistribution of income for the benefit of labour professions (with the exception of female workers in light industry) and by the planned, non-market economy, which produced so-called "table salaries" and a system of bonuses related to the fulfilment of annual plans. During the transformation period, significant income differentiation based on the qualification, education and performance took place; however, really significant differences could be seen only in salaries of top managers (see detailed comparison in Table xxx.5 in the attachment).

Current differences in gross monthly income between individual sectors (with the exception of bank and insurance industry) are not very significant. They partly reflect the educational and professional composition of workers in individual sectors, the rate of representation of men and women and certain long-standing relations between these sectors. The significantly higher income in the banking and insurance sector results from the fact that many banks and insurance companies are run by large foreign institutions; this affects the level of salaries of middle and high management (mainly men - see differences in salaries of men and women in this sector).

Table 2.1.7: Medians of gross monthly income according to sector groups (ISIC), separate for men and women

Code letter		Absolute data			Relation (%) F/M
		Total	Male	Female	GPG (%)
A-B	Agriculture, hunting and forestry	14 667	15 465	12 781	17,4
C-E	Industry overall	18 105	20 139	14 393	28,5
F	Construction	18 660	18 824	17 543	6,8
G	Wholesale and retail trade, Repair of motor vehicles	16 898	19 890	13 565	31,8
H	Hotels and restaurants	12 204	14 505	11 217	22,7
I	Transportation, storage, postal service, telecommunications	19 635	20 420	18 104	11,3
J	Financial and insurance services	28 714	40 229	25 420	36,8
K	Real estate activities, services for entrepreneurs, research	19 692	22 037	16 581	24,8
L	Public administration, defence, compulsory social insurance	22 534	25 862	20 162	22,0
M	Education	19 819	22 579	18 884	16,4
N	Health and social work, veterinary activities	17 452	19 660	17 105	13,0
O	Other community, social and personal service activities	16 344	16 721	15 570	6,9
A-O	Total	18 589	20 265	16 443	18,9

Income differences between nine main professional groups reflect the aforementioned exceptional status of middle and top management (separate for national or international companies, breakdown by the size of the company and by the activity sector). Management functions require mostly university degree and also in other positions, the level of income is affected by education (university degree for top experts, university degree/completed secondary education typical for technicians).

Table 2.1.8: Average gross monthly income*: breakdown by CZ-ISCO-88 major groups

Occupation	2004			2005		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Total	20 545	23 044	17 256	21 674	24 271	18 221
CZ-ISCO-88:						
<i>Law makers, senior officials and managers</i>	42 018	48 236	28 733	43 583	49 853	30 365
<i>Professional</i>	27 198	31 733	23 376	28 979	33 920	24 758
<i>Technicians and associate professionals</i>	22 153	25 488	19 189	23 641	27 300	20 353
<i>Clerks</i>	16 442	18 965	15 733	17 498	20 332	16 648
<i>Service workers and shop and market sales workers</i>	12 956	15 370	11 547	13 718	16 154	12 229
<i>Skilled agricultural and fishery workers</i>	13 090	13 995	12 141	13 547	14 426	12 666
<i>Craft and related trade workers</i>	16 965	18 026	12 504	17 824	18 836	13 216
<i>Plant and machine operators and assemblers</i>	16 943	18 210	13 769	17 624	18 930	14 329
<i>Elementary occupations</i>	11 831	13 479	10 486	12 261	14 018	10 814

* In 2005, the minimum wage was 7,185 CZK.

As far as income differences between men and women are concerned, salaries of women working full-time are on average by one fifth lower than it is the case for men. More detailed analyses indicate that this difference (for comparable education and qualification levels) is caused by the higher number of men in management functions on all levels, by the sectoral income differentiation (some sectors with high concentration of female workers have lower wages in comparison to sectors with mostly male workers), by internship in the company, by the employers' efforts to attract male workers to certain sectors (e.g. teachers in primary schools), by overtime work and some other factors (see Tables 1.9a and 1.9b). A special research of salary conditions of men and women carried out by the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs in 2002 came to the conclusion that only 2-3% of the difference in salaries (i.e. one tenth) could be considered as unfounded. Gender-related inequalities are discussed in sub-chapter 2.8.

Table 2.1.9a: Average amount of working hours - full-time employment, 2nd quarter 2006

	Average week			Reference week		
		Male	Female			
Employees	41,2	41,9	40,4	40,3	40,1	40,4
Entrepreneurs	50,6	51,9	46,6	48,9	50,5	44,1

Table 2.1.9b: Organization of work (in %) - 2nd quarter 2006

	Shift schedule	Evening*	Night*	Saturday*	Sunday*
Male	24,2	47,6	24,0	52,2	35,6
Female	26,5	36,2	16,9	39,5	27,2

* At least sometimes

	Evening*	Night*	Saturday*	Sunday*
Employees	39,2	21,8	41,5	29,1
Entrepreneurs	59,8	17,5	73,3	46,7

e. *The demographic and social structure of households*

Data on the demographic behaviour themselves tell us little on the current structure of families and households. Marriage, divorce, birth and fertility rates certainly affect the size and composition of households, however, this is true over a long-time period. The current demographic structure of families (households) reflects the demographic behaviour of three generations. The majority of adult population follow the traditional life cycle: approximately 95% of people over 35 years have entered into marriage, nearly everyone has lived at least part of his life in a complete family, most people have/had a sibling and a network of relatives. This situation will gradually change together with the decline in the marriage rate, the number of children in families etc.

Table 2.1.10: The structure of households (according to 2002 income micro census, N=7973 of economically active households, projection for the population)

a. Type of household

Household composition	%	In thousand
Complete family	49,7	2012
Complete mixed family	13,2	534
Incomplete family with children	5,6	225
Incomplete mixed family with children	6,7	270
Non-family household	0,8	31
Individual - man	9,2	327
Individual - woman	14,9	605
Total		4053

b. Type of household EU

	%	In thous.
Individual under 65 years	12,9	521
Individual over 65 years	11,3	457
Couple, both under 65 years	16,3	662
Couple, at least one over 65 years	8,4	341
Couple, one dependent child (under 18 years)	9,3	378
Couple, two dependent children	12,9	523
Couple, three dependent children	2,4	99
Couple, more children, at least one dependent and one independent	3,3	132
Incomplete family	5,5	224
Others	17,6	713
		4053

c. Social group (according to the head of the family)

	%	In thous.
Worker	24,5	994
Self-employed	12,5	507
Employee	25,0	1014
Self-employed - agriculture	0,3	11
Farmer	0,2	8
Pensioner + EA	3,9	157
Pensioner without EA	27,5	1113
Unemployed	4,5	184
Others	1,5	61
		4053

Table 1.10a reflects the structure of households divided into family/non-family households and table 1.10b shows the structure of families according to the number of dependent children (separating one-member households by age). Here, it must be noted that typical family (parents with two children) constitutes in fact only 13% of the current number of households (even though this typical situation has been experienced by over half of people born after the WWII). We must take into account also the high number of

single old-age pensioners households, couples whose children left the family, single-parent families etc. Most of these households (and also households with a family member (often the head of the family) unemployed over a long period time) find themselves in unequal position (living standard, basic needs fulfilment, specific support needs, ability to care for them at time of illness).

2.2 Inequality in the social structure with special emphasis on the economically active population

After the fall of the socialistic system, new social structure started to emerge in result of the removal of large part of nomenclature (through revolutionary developments, partial penalization (e.g. lustration legislation) or via democratic elections), the establishment of parliamentary democracy, the rise of a new power elite with internationally enforced concepts of economic reforms (amended by national policies of the new power elites) and in result of specific national political measures. After quick, sort of shock-type liberalization and market opening, the Czech Republic started to quickly privatize property (restitution processes, other types of property return to former owners, small privatization, large privatization using standard methods, including partial direct sale to foreign capital, as well as voucher privatization for the benefit of small share-holders and privatization funds) etc. State ownership was maintained in large extent in specific areas (state participation in large companies (e.g. banks), full state ownership of selected companies (e.g. railways) as well as most property within the budgetary sector).

The continued existence of social relationships inherited from the socialism times on one hand, and standard/specific privatization techniques on the other hand led to the coexistence of the following types of relationships:

a) Continuing egalitarianism, i.e. insignificant income differences between qualified workers and middle-class officials/experts with mostly high school/university education (especially those working in areas dependent on the restricted state budget). The inevitable impact of this phenomenon has been status inconsistency of a certain part of educated and cultural middle-class experts, whose low material and power status does not correspond to their qualifications, nature of the work and lifestyle (see Table xxx in the attachment illustrating the level of status consistency/inconsistency in 1999 from the perspective of income, education and participation on management and decision-making).

b) Higher status consistency - especially in case of experts with high school/university education in those areas and sectors of human activities, the importance of which has increased during the transformation (economic boom or governmental preferences). This applies especially to politicians and higher state officials and their support teams, managers and their collaborators, workers in financial and insurance field, media, entertainment, information technologies and certain well-developed and booming

industrial sectors - e.g. car industry, energy sectors as well as metal and minerals production. We have witnessed the strengthening of meritocratic stratification principle in part of the middle-class, which by itself does not generate resistance in the public opinion. The same applies also to a certain part of middle self-employed people and small craftsmen, licence holders and providers of modern services (e.g. in the information technology field). Similar features can be identified also in case of many qualified workmen.

c) Polarization of the social structure has occurred in much larger degree than during the previous decades (i.e. in 1939-1989):

ca) In many instances, the increase of income, property and power in the above mentioned sectors led to extreme disproportions between low and high incomes, clearly exceeding the principle of merit. This applies mainly to managers, bankers, politicians, certain part of lawyers as well as some popular artists and sportsmen etc. and especially businesspeople who gained extreme funds or uncontrolled power using illegal/immoral procedures during the privatization. In these instances, we can speak of the establishment of a new high class, which builds (as far as its sources are concerned) on traditions and experiences of the nomenclature and a narrow group of parvenus from the socialism times and which can be considered as an element of the newly emerging capitalistic social structure. For this elite parvenus' group, there are serious doubts about the consistency of many of their members' social status (taking into account the unproportionally high income, quick concentration of property as well as the lack of education and cultural background). Similar applies also to those middle-class members, whose missing qualifications were replaced by purely material and financial private ownership.

d) Another element of the newly emerging class structure is the occurrence of an extremely poor part of population including not only homeless people and other socially unadaptable groups, but as of 1998 also qualified workers from unpreferred sectors or sectors affected by crisis, people whose salaries were withheld by their employers and people unemployed over a long period of time. The income/property level and helplessness of these population groups together with low- and middle-class families with dependent children and a certain part of old-age pensioners (especially in rural areas) during the real income decrease period (end of 1990's) places these groups far from, if not in opposition to, the group described under paragraph b). We can speak of the formation of class relationship characteristic for current capitalistic societies. Both poles of this relationship are characterized by clear-cut status consistence on top/low level.

This concept of vertical social differentiations existing in the current Czech society is based in large extent on information derived from recent empiric researches. However, taking into account the development of the past three years, these must be considered as hypotheses, which need to be confirmed/rejected, specified/quantified and which must

take into account new data enabling the comparison of the situation at all stages of the development process.

Table 2.2.1: Class differentiation in 1988-2005 (in %)

	1988 (93)	1993	1999	2005
Entrepreneurs with employees	-	1,9	3,4	4,4
Top experts, including smaller groups of entrepreneurs with large number of subordinates	8,1	9,8	8,5	9,5
Self-employed licence holders	-	6,9	8,9	12,8
Middle experts (incl. craft masters)	21,0	19,3	19,2	17,2
Standard non-manual workers (clerks)	11,7	11,7	11,2	19,7
Qualified workers (incl. services sector)	22,0	18,8	17,1	14,3
Half-qualified and unqualified workers (including the service and agriculture sector)	37,2	33,6	30,7	22,0

Specific statistic researches focusing on work force indicate that between 1993 and 1998 the number of "employers" has grown, i.e. the number of self-employed people with employees has increased from 2.9% to 4.2% and the number of self-employed people without employees has risen from 6.5% to 9.6%. In 1998-2004, the number of employers did not increase while the number of self-employed people has risen by 2.8%. This trend roughly corresponds to our findings from specific researches focusing on the social structure and mobility.

The basic trend of the transformation development process is obvious: the group of self-employed persons (with or without employees) has emerged at the expense of workmen and agriculture workers representation (and partly also middle-class experts). The ratio of low officials remained approximately the same while the percentage of top experts has increased (this group, however, includes also "pure" experts and specialists - entrepreneurs and managers).

Whether on the basis of the above described development, increases in the status level (or shifts corresponding to the ideas about the emergence of capitalistic society and polarization of class relations) took place is yet to be confirmed by more detailed specification of categories of the so-called class structure with variables characterizing the vertical society differentiation. An analysis of the highest level of education, of the degree, in which the area of education corresponds to the area of work activities, the level of computer literacy as well as the lifestyle level revealed that in these "cultural" characteristics, the position of individual categories differs from the position corresponding to class-ownership principles, on the basis of which we have categorized them. Top and middle experts are much better positioned in the area of education, qualification and culture than self-employed people with or without employees. In this area, important cultural and status characteristics weaken the class nature of the schema used.

As far as income, property and power indicators are concerned, the order identified corresponds roughly to the order, in which our categories are listed (i.e. to the class-ownership principle). The category of top expert employees is on the same or slightly

lower level than the category of employers. However, internally it is a very heterogeneous group: it includes groups from both top and low material levels.

On mobility

Very important are our findings that the emerging group of self-employed persons (without employees) as well as the group of entrepreneurs with employees (employers) originates from all socio-professional categories in basically the same proportion (approximately 15% of departures). Exceptional is only the group of routine non-manual workers (lower clerks) formed mainly by women - here, only seven per cent have left this group in order to join the private entrepreneurs sector. Also, the group of farmers shows a lower number of employers as family farms are a frequent phenomenon in this field.

In the beginning as well as at the current stage of the transformation process, most economically active people were people with stable status. This means that the rate of the so-called gross mobility (i.e. the sum of those who have changed their status level upwards or downwards during the monitored period) was quite high. Two thirds of people moved upwards, one third downwards. The so-called structural mobility resulting from the occurrence of new employment opportunities (establishment of private sector, development of services sector and decline of the number of workers positions in industry) is approximately 20%. The rate of net mobility independent on structural changes, i.e. the fluctuation within the status structure existing already before 1989 (without businesspeople), reached about 11%. This is quite a significant shift comparable with the extent of mobility changes in the Czech society in the decade following 1948. From this perspective, the Czech society seems to have been relatively open in the past fifteen years, offering people chances for better personal self-fulfilment; at the same time, however, it pushed number of people's careers downwards (this number must be perceived in relation with the rise of unemployment and early retirements), which was caused, inter alia, by the decline of structural capacities of large industrial enterprises.

Taking into account all large movements of people leaving economic activities as well as significant arrivals of new workers, the overall open impression is even stronger.

The most lucid and sufficient system reflecting the objective mobility during the transformation decade seems to be the classification of mobility routes into three status levels: top, middle and low.

Table 2.2.2: Stability and mobility in 1988-1999 according to status levels (in %)

Stability at the top level in the group of top experts (1999 including entrepreneurs)	7,4
Move upwards into the group of top experts and entrepreneurs	8,7
Stability at the middle level, i.e. among middle experts and clerks	27,6
Move upwards to the middle level	9,0
Move downwards to the middle or low level	6,4
Stability at the low level (workers and manual professional groups)	40,9

2.3 Inequality in the educational structure and their key importance

The current scope and nature of educational differentiation and the related cultural lifestyle levels have been affected by several important factors in the past decades. One of them was the still existing post-war education boom typical for industrial societies, which has led to the significant increase of the Czech average education level and to the substantial decrease in the numbers of people with the lowest education (see the following Table 3.1 reflecting the development of educational structure in 1950-2001).

Table 2.3.1: Educational structure of the population (15 years and over)

	Primary	Vocational training	Secondary general	Secondary expert	University
1950	82,9	9,7	2,1	3,0	0,9
1961	80,4	7,6	2,8	6,1	2,2
1970	58,4	22,6	3,7	11,2	3,7
1980	44,5	32,4	3,5	13,5	5,0
1991	33,1	35,3	4,2	18,7	7,1
2001	23,4	37,9		27,1	8,9 (1,2)
Male					
1950	79,7	10,3	2,8	4,3	1,6
1970	39,2	39,9	3,2	11,5	5,1
1991	24,6	43,1	3,3	18,1	9,4
2001	16,9	45,3		24,3	10,8 (1,2)
Female					
1950	85,9	9,2	1,3	1,7	0,3
1970	65,6	18,8	3,4	8,9	1,8
1991	40,8	28,2	5,0	19,3	5,1
2001	26,6	30,1		29,8	7,1 (1,3)

Source: population census

For 2001, final results do not distinguish between "Secondary general" and "Secondary expert" education with GSCE; number in brackets in case of university education indicates the rate of post-secondary/bachelor education.

Educational expansion has been limited by the effects of the socialistic equalitarianism, which prevented the development of higher education in the quantity/quality corresponding to the needs of the commencing post-industrial era, and the higher reproduction rate of the social group with university education (both bachelor and master degree) in an extent common in developed countries. These restricted conditions entailed a paradox: the socialistic state did not succeed in its declared efforts to widen the social reproduction base of university graduates and from 1970's, it has in fact strengthened the inter-generational auto-reproduction (hereditary closure) of this population group. Regardless of the significant boom of secondary and university education in 1990's and today, the number of university graduates has not risen sufficiently and the trend of university education being closed especially for children of parents with primary education/vocational training has become even stronger after 1989 (see Table xxx.8 in the attachment). Another factor affecting the educational differentiation is the status inconsistency, which emerged already during the socialistic era and which was strengthened in 1990's (i.e. frequently low salaries of secondary schools and university graduates plus low education of self-employed persons and entrepreneurs). All these factors have led to serious dysfunctional social inequalities, i.e. social distance threatening the social cohesion and opening space for social dissociations. These inequalities include inequalities between a) groups of people with

maximum primary education (sometimes even unfinished primary education) and people with lower secondary expert education without GSCE (mostly vocational courses); b) large group of people without higher secondary education and people with GSCE, and c) between all these groups and university graduates.

As there is a mutual connection between the level of education and the cultural lifestyle level (including the level and quality of information), similar distances apply also for the basic types of lifestyles. The formula for their structuring can be verbally expressed in the following manner: a) lifestyle of relatively small groups of less educated people (primary or unfinished primary education) and socially excluded or potentially socially excluded groups (homeless people, part of the Roma population, certain part of handicapped people, people suffering of long-term illness and isolated/solitary people); b) lifestyle of people with elementary and lower cultural habits of trained workers (typical for unqualified workers in industry and agriculture or for other smaller groups, visible also in their families or households); c) lifestyle (culture) typical for qualified workers and agriculture workers as well as lower industrial workers, craftsmen and self-employed persons without GSCE and their families (mostly people with lower secondary education, differentiation to manual/non-manual professions); d) lifestyle of people with secondary education and GSCE (lower clerks and lower expert workers, qualified middle-class members generally and their households; likely internal differentiation related to the level of income); e) lifestyle typical for university graduates with internal differentiation according to the income level (dependent on the property/position status and the sector of activity and possibly also on the length of studies); f) lifestyle characteristic for rich, powerful and famous people, frequently (but not always) well educated, differentiated internally mainly according to the area of activity. Even though lifestyle is not directly and purely dependent on the level of education, the connection between the level of education and lifestyle is important in such an extent so as it makes sense to assign appropriate lifestyle characteristics to individual educational levels. (This is true even more so since the complexity and competence of work constitute part of the lifestyle and since desirable changes in professional and non-professional lifestyle can be in large extent secured by improving the education level). Moreover, cultural lifestyle of individuals is reflected also by the lifestyle of their households and families. These lifestyle differences confirm that gaps between groups with different education levels are not only a sort of a quantitative difference, but that they constitute also a qualitative social difference.

The current Czech educational structure is therefore characterized by the coexistence of large and insufficiently qualified mass of people with primary education and vocational training (without GSCE), the relatively numerous group of people with secondary education (with GSCE) insufficiently prepared for the Europeanization and modernization and a small group of people with tertiary education (dominated by relatively well-prepared graduates with full university degree). Bachelor degree graduates and graduates from post-secondary educational institutions constitute yet a relatively

unimportant part of this group. This stern division, which cannot be compared to change processes, which occurred in many industrial countries, becomes functionless especially as it cannot supply the Czech national economy (the production and service sector, administration and culture) with sufficiently qualified, independently thinking and well-prepared experts capable to compete with developed foreigner countries.

Table 2.3.2: Population structure - breakdown by education (2001 and 2005)

	2001				2005			
	Total	EA	Unemployed	Pensioners	Total	EA	Unemp.	Pension.
Total	10 260,4	4 750,2	421,0	2 196,8	10 229,3	4 764,0	410,2	2 212,3
Highest education attained:								
<i>Primary</i>	1 945,0	409,2	109,0	862,4	1 733,5	271,5	98,9	716,4
<i>Secondary vocational & technical</i>	3 122,7	2 010,1	185,9	736,6	3 283,1	2 026,8	198,7	861,4
<i>Secondary vocational with GCSE</i>	107,1	84,2	7,8	5,9	2 779,6	1 770,6	95,9	493,0
<i>Full secondary technical with GCSE</i>	2 130,0	1 467,3	81,6	370,6				
<i>Full secondary general with GCSE</i>	407,7	187,8	16,1	62,2				
<i>University</i>	750,0	586,1	14,7	110,6	907,1	694,6	16,6	130,9

The educational structure with its strong inertia force tends to lead to stagnation or even petrification emanating from conservative family traditions (conditioned however also by social status and material conditions) and from the conservative structure and behaviour of the educational system (affected by the State material conditions). On the outside, this situation is demonstrated by the aforementioned closing-in of groups of persons with university degree and their children (visible already in 1960's). This phenomenon, however, is in direct contradiction with the principle of equal opportunities as it shuts off the road forward for many capable people in the modernization process.

Taking into account the key importance of the education for work qualification, professional position and the stability/mobility of the life path (and also for the status of families and households) as well as its key role in the formation of lifestyle, the area of educational inequalities is one of the sources of many social divisions in the Czech society.

2.4. Inequality in the area of health and medical care

Summary data normally include information on the causes of death (see Table 2.4.1) as well as information related to the health care (number of medical doctors, number of people hospitalized, medical treatment costs etc. (see Table 2.4.2)). As far as death causes are concerned, multi-annual comparisons do not, and cannot, indicate any changes (true also in the next decade horizon).

Table 2.4.1: Deaths: breakdown by cause of death

Cause of death (International Statistical Classification of Diseases and Related Health Problems, ICD-10)		Deaths	
		2004	2005
Total		107 177	107 938
I.	Certain infectious and parasitic diseases	328	411
II.	Neoplasm	29 304	28 255
III.	Diseases of the blood and blood-forming organs and some disorders concerning immune mechanism	62	106
IV.	Endocrine, nutritional and metabolic diseases	1 416	1 486
V.	Mental and behavioural disorders	181	284
VI.	Diseases of the nervous system	1 975	2 071
VII.	Diseases of the eye and adnexa	-	-
VIII.	Diseases of the ear and mastoid process	-	1
IX.	Diseases of the circulatory system	55 042	55 155
X.	Diseases of the respiratory system	4 755	6 040
XI.	Diseases of the digestive system	4 537	4 823
XII.	Diseases of the skin and subcutaneous tissue	11	30
XIII.	Diseases of the musculoskeletal system and connective tissue	25	40
XIV.	Diseases of the genitourinary system	1 486	1 613
XV.	Pregnancy, childbirth and the puerperium	5	3
XVI.	Certain conditions originating in the perinatal period	207	188
XVII.	Congenital malformations, deformations and chromosomal abnormalities	82	116
XVIII.	Symptoms, signs and abnormal clinical and laboratory findings	770	940
XIX.	Injury, poisoning and some other consequences of external causes	6 991	6 376

Table 2.4.2: Summary information on medical care

Indicator	Unit	1995	1998	2000	2002	2004	2005
Population per physician (excl. dentists)	persons	321	318	287	275	281	273
Population per dentist	persons	1 630	1 591	1 527	1 505	1 478	1 469
Beds in health establishments per 1 000 population		11,4	10,8	10,9	11,1	11,1	11,0
In hospitals		7,2	6,7	6,6	6,5	6,4	6,3
Hospitalized patients, total	thousand persons	2 028	1 991	2 017	2 108	2 222	2 223
Days of treatment in hospitals, total	thousand days	20 580	17 421	17 488	17 572	18 020	17 708
Average time of treatment in hospital	days	10,2	8,8	8,6	8,3	8,1	8,0
Average duration of one case of incapacity for work due to disease or injury	calendar days	24,4	26,8	28,0	30,8	34,8	32,8
Average percentage of incapacity for work due to disease or injury	%	6,2	5,8	6,5	6,8	5,9	6,1
Expenditures on health service							
State budget ^{2,3)}	CZK mil.	.	7 477	6 923	14 952	8 591	8 787
Local budgets ^{3,4)}	CZK mil.	.	5 817	8 117	2 697	10 283	8 962
Health insurance companies ⁶⁾	CZK mil.	73 414	100 284	110 903	137 387	156 260	163 543
Sickness insurance benefits paid	CZK mil.	35 661	18 533	27 205	32 609	29 563	31 660
Sickness insurance benefit	CZK mil.	15 416	15 733	23 653	28 222	24 705	26 258
State social care support benefits paid	CZK mil.	25 531	29 637	31 855	33 700	32 669	32 954
Child benefit	CZK mil.	12 770	11 493	12 748	13 353	11 790	11 195
Pension insurance benefits paid ⁸⁾	CZK mil.	105 788	161 805	181 921	210 440	226 883	243 648
Number of pensions paid	thousand	3 057	3 147	3 210	3 227	3 250	3 269
Real old-age pension index ⁹⁾	%	106,0	97,7	99,5	105,0	99,8	103,3

The 10-year health care data series indicate that the health care system has become more effective over the past decade and that it has basically reached standard levels common in developed Western countries (number of medical doctors, length of hospitalization). The data also show a steep (global) rise of payments in the area of health care reflecting the higher level of complexity and quality of medical treatment, higher costs of new pharmaceuticals, arrival of new technologies etc. It also mirrors the process of the population aging (higher medical costs).

Currently, discussions on the health system reform are currently underway. The new system should help to provide more effective health services and to strengthen the personal responsibility element by establishing individual health accounts, introducing certain direct payments etc. Though we may wonder that this may result in greater inequality within the health sector (pensioners, people with low-income), it is necessary to take into account that the current system also does not ensure equal access to health services for everyone (different access to health care in different regions, concentration of specialists in specific central health institutions, private clinics, limited capacities (waiting lists for surgeries), higher prices for more sophisticated pharmaceuticals, social contacts networks etc.).

2.5. Inequality in consumption

Inequality in consumption reflect income inequality (differences in income according to education, profession, sector of activity, sex, age, place of work, size of company, level of pension benefits, social support etc.) as well as demographic and social characteristics of households (economically active households are units, to which the majority of standard expenses relates). There are of course also other factors, such as wider family, biography of the given household, property situation, place of residence.

In order to complete the overall picture, we have included information on the development of income/expenditures of Czech households resulting from family accounts surveys (panel research of approximately three thousand households) for 2000-2005. As the numbers indicate, the income of households has increased by approximately one fourth, which corresponds to the rise of income and valorisation of pension/some social benefits. The structure of households' income has not changed significantly - the ratio of income versus social benefits has remained the same (approximately 75:21).

As far as expenditures are concerned, housing costs (both rent and energy payments) went up, while food-related costs were lower. Taking into account the low inflation rate and the overall significant increase of income, the ratios included in the table slightly cover up the actual rise of the housing prices. We may ask whether the relative decrease of food costs results from the competition at the food market or whether it is caused by higher housing costs.

Table 2.5.1: Information on income and expenditures of households (survey of family accounts)

Indicator	2000	2002	2003	2004	2005
Financial income, total (CZK)	97 807	109 011	114 760	119 923	127 294
Structure (%):					
Income from work	75,3	74,1	75,1	75,4	74,1
Social income	20,6	21,5	20,6	20,6	21,3
Financial expenditures, total (CZK)	94 010	102 732	108 023	111 805	117 784
Structure (%):					
Income tax	6,8	6,8	7,0	7,3	7,3
Health and social security insurance	8,5	8,6	8,4	8,6	8,5
Net financial expenditures, total (CZK)	79 625	86 874	91 365	94 098	99 165
A. Consumption expenditures (CZK)	73 015	80 397	84 568	87 259	91 085
Structure (%):					
Food and non-alcoholic beverages	23,2	22,2	21,2	21,3	20,6
Alcoholic beverages, tobacco	3,3	3,1	3,0	2,9	2,9
Clothing and footwear	6,7	6,5	6,2	5,9	5,6
Housing, water, electricity, gas and other	18,5	19,8	19,7	19,3	20,1
out of this:					
Rentals and other services relating to the dwelling	6,1	6,4	6,5	6,5	6,8
Central heating, hot water	3,7	3,6	3,6	3,5	3,4
Electricity and gas	6,6	7,7	7,3	7,1	7,4
Furnishings, household equipment & routine maintenance of the house	7,2	6,9	6,7	6,5	6,7
Health	1,6	1,8	1,9	1,9	2,0
Transport	10,6	10,0	10,7	11,0	11,1
out of this: Purchase and operation of personal transport equipment	8,7	8,2	8,9	9,3	9,4
Communication	3,5	4,0	4,3	4,6	4,6
Recreation and culture	10,8	10,5	10,8	10,9	10,6
out of this: Package holidays	2,6	2,5	2,5	2,5	2,3
Education	0,6	0,6	0,6	0,6	0,5
Restaurants and hotels	5,2	5,1	5,2	5,3	5,1
Miscellaneous goods and services	8,8	9,5	9,7	9,8	10,2
Personal care	2,9	2,9	3,0	3,0	3,0
B. Other expenditures (CZK)	6 610	6 477	6 797	6 839	8 081
Purchase and reconstruction of housing	58,7	53,3	56,6	56,8	58,9
Number of households (N)	3 182	3 185	2 955	2 974	2 965

The level of equipment of Czech households with durable goods is basically the same as in other developed countries and it has been rising constantly over the past decade (see table. Specific data also indicate that these goods are upgraded frequently and that their quality increases (good-quality electronic equipment, cars etc.).

Table 2.5.2: Consumer durables in households (1995-2004)

	Number of durables per 100 households					
	1995	2000	2002	2003	2004	
Refrigerator incl. freezers	134,3	152,5	158,0	159,0	159,6	
Automatic washing machine	93,7	101,0	102,7	103,2	103,9	
Colour TV set	95,8	115,8	119,2	121,8	125,3	
Video recorder	28,5	47,7	54,1	57,8	60,6	
Personal computer	.	17,8	26,8	33,2	35,6	
Microwave oven	13,3	45,1	57,1	60,3	65,9	
Dishwasher	0,5	5,5	8,4	10,9	13,0	
Phone						
	fixed line	37,8	69,8	63,4	60,5	56,6
	cellular phone		39,7	99,5	121,4	140,1
Motor vehicle	64,6	69,5	69,3	69,5	70,6	
Motorbike	27,3	23,7	23,1	22,3	18,7	

Nevertheless, approximately 10% of households live below the poverty level (defined as 60% of all households' average income). The following table reflects the socio-demographic composition of low-income households; these include mainly households of unemployed people, single-parent families, families with two and more dependent children, people with low education. The table data relate to current incomes (so the households' equipment does not necessarily correspond to the income).

Table 2.5.3: Persons in households with income below poverty line¹⁾ (2004)

		Work activity		Dependent children	
		Households of working persons	Households of non-working persons	Households with no children	Households with children
Number of households (in thous.)	406,9	139,0	267,9	202,2	204,7
% of all households	10,1	5,1	20,8	7,9	14,0
Number of persons (in thous.)	1 011,1	461,3	549,8	271,2	739,9
% of all persons	10,0	5,8	25,0	5,8	13,7
Share of persons by selected characteristics (in %)					
Sex					
Male	45,6	49,2	42,5	45,4	45,6
Female	54,4	50,8	57,5	54,6	54,4
Age					
under 16	27,7	31,6	24,5	0,0	37,9
16 – 24	14,2	16,6	12,2	9,8	15,8
25 – 49	38,3	43,2	34,2	31,8	40,7
50 – 64	12,6	8,6	15,9	32,3	5,3
65+	7,2	0,0	13,2	26,1	0,3
Education level of household					
Low	20,6	13,8	26,4	33,3	16,0
Medium	76,1	81,9	71,3	63,3	80,8
High	3,3	4,3	2,4	3,3	3,2
Type of household					
One-member households, total	14,0	4,0	22,3	52,1	0,0
Male	5,5	2,1	8,4	20,6	0,0
Female	8,5	1,9	13,9	31,5	0,0
One-member households (people under 65)	8,6	4,0	12,4	32,1	0,0
One-member households (65+)	5,4	0,0	9,9	20,0	0,0
Childless couples	10,8	4,7	16,0	40,4	0,0
Both partners under 65	8,2	4,7	11,2	30,7	0,0
At least one partner 65+	2,6	0,0	4,8	9,7	0,0
Other households with no dependent children	2,0	3,6	0,6	7,5	0,0
Single-parent families, one or more dependent children	19,0	13,3	23,7	0,0	25,9
Parents with	47,1	62,6	34,3	0,0	64,4
1 dependent child	10,0	11,3	9,1	0,0	13,8
2 dependent children	24,0	36,1	13,8	0,0	32,7
3+ dependent children	13,1	15,2	11,4	0,0	17,9
Other households with dependent children	7,1	11,8	3,1	0,0	9,7

¹⁾ 60% of the median of equivalised income for all households

Educational and socio-professional homogamy of married couples and the living standard

Table 2.5.4: Educational homogamy/heterogamy of couples aged 18-69 out of total in 1999 (in %)

	FEMALE					
	Completed education	Primary	Vocational training	Full secondary	University	Total
M	Primary	3,7	1,7	0,6	0,0	6,0
A	Vocational training	7,4	30,6	15,0	0,7	53,7
L	Full secondary	1,4	5,6	18,1	2,5	27,6
E	University	0,1	1,1	6,3	5,2	12,7
	Total	12,6	39,0	39,0	8,4	

[Data 1999] N = 3 088, CN = 0,58, RS = 0,57

Over 57% of family households are educationally homogamous (see the diagonal sum of values in the table). Couples with large differences in partners' educational level are exceptional. In most heterogamous couples, the partners' education differs by just one level.

The educational level of parents of the current couples was often homogenous within the same degree as in the case of respondents. However, these were often couples, where both partners had primary education.

In mid-1980's, the situation has changed significantly. The degree of homogamy dropped to 45%, which was related to the relatively high ratio of women with primary education and low ratio of women with vocational training. Heterogamy usually took the form of a man with vocational training and woman with primary education, which constituted nearly no "social distance" at all.

Table 2.5.5: Social and class homogamy/heterogamy according to the EGP classification in 1989 (in %)

	FEMALE								
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Total
	1 Entrepreneurs	0,8	0,2	0,9	1,7	2,0	0,3	1,5	7,4
	2 Top experts	0,7	5,1	1,2	6,6	4,4	0,5	1,5	20,0
M	3 Self-employed with no employees	0,4	1,1	1,3	2,4	2,9	0,2	1,7	10,0
A	4 Middle-level experts	0,6	1,9	0,8	7,7	5,6	1,0	3,0	20,6
L	5 Standard non-manual workers	0,1	0,3	0,2	1,0	1,8	0,2	0,8	4,4
E	6 Qualified workers	0,5	1,0	1,2	4,3	4,7	2,4	8,0	22,2
	7 Half-qualified workers and non-qualified workers	0,3	0,6	0,7	2,6	2,9	1,7	6,6	15,4
	Total	3,4	10,2	6,4	26,3	24,4	6,3	23,2	100,0

[Data 1999]

The fact that in the end of 1990's all possible 49 combinations were represented in the Czech society, none of them being quite unusual, indicates that the distribution is highly variable. Socially homogenous couples (in the sense of EGP categorization) constitute 25,9% of the population (the sum of diagonal values).

The following Table 5.6 lists more summary types of combinations of EGP partners' categories, which form individual household categories. This typology of socio-professional (class) status of families will be further analyzed from the living standard perspective, i.e. we have decided to use the so-called combined classification for the social status of families (though some flexibility is maintained). In our opinion, it better reflects actual differences in the social status of households by distinguishing socially homogenous and non-homogenous couples.

Table 2.5.6: Overview of socio-class combination of couples in complete families (in %)

	Construction	Verbal characteristics	1993	1999
1	11 12 14 21 41	Couples of entrepreneurs employing other persons	1,8	2,7
2	22	Couples where both partners are working as top experts	2,8	3,6
3	33 31 32 13 23	Couples where both partner are self-employed, (mostly) experts	4,1	5,5
4	34 35 36 37 43 53 63 73	Households of (mostly) small entrepreneurs	9,7	11,0
5	24 42	Couples where both partners are top and middle experts	5,6	7,5
6	44	Couples where both partners are middle experts	6,6	5,2
7	55 25 52 45 54	Mixed couples: clerk + expert	9,4	12,0
8	46 47 64 74 56 65 57 75	Mixed couples: worker + clerk (middle experts)	23,0	21,2
9	66 67 76	One or both partners are qualified workers	22,0	19,3
10	77	Both partners are unqualified workers	15,1	12,0

[Data 1999] N = 1 951 [Data 1993] N = 1 889

In 1990's, the representation of individual household types underwent statistically important changes corresponding to shifts within the socio-professional structure of economically active population and to the differentiated rise of the unemployment rate. These differences are certainly influenced also by the socially differentiated marriage rate of the youngest generation.

Table 2.5.7: Assessment of the income situation* according to the socio-class type of households in 1999 (in %)

	Certainly	Rather yes	Rather no	Certainly no	Correlation to income	In 1989 Certainly yes
Household type						
1. Entrepreneur	65,4	30,8	3,8	-	0,39	20,0
2. Top experts	42,0	46,4	11,6	-	0,43	38,2
3. Independent (experts)	35,0	50,5	12,6	1,9	0,20	27,9
4. Small businessmen	27,1	52,9	12,6	3,4	0,35	24,2
5. Mixed: higher + middle experts	23,4	57,3	17,2	2,1	0,17	21,0
6. Middle experts	16,0	69,0	14,0	1,0	0,23	27,1
7. Middle expert + clerk	21,5	61,0	15,7	1,8	0,32	34,8
8. Mixed: worker + clerk	9,2	62,3	23,3	5,2	0,20	25,6
9. Qualified worker	5,1	53,9	37,0	4,0	0,24	23,6
10. Non-qualified worker	3,5	50,0	37,4	9,1	0,31	22,7
Total	16,6	55,9	23,6	3,9	0,33	26,0

*) "How do you manage (how did you manage in 1989) to make ends meet?"

[Data 1999] CN = 0,39 (in 1989 CN = 0,16)

Table 2.5.8: Feelings of income saturation/deprivation vis-à-vis family budget according to the socio-class type of the households in 1999 (in %)

Household type	No type (saturation)	1-2 types	3-4 types	5-6 types	7-8 types (deprivation)
1. Entrepreneur	66,1	13,2	9,4	11,3	-
2. Top experts	47,9	26,8	12,6	8,5	4,2
3. Independent (experts)	39,2	24,3	17,8	13,1	5,6
4. Small businessmen	31,8	30,4	22,4	9,3	6,1
5. Mixed: higher + middle experts	32,0	29,9	23,8	7,5	6,8
6. Middle experts	27,5	30,4	28,4	9,8	3,9
7. Middle expert + clerk	33,5	29,2	20,2	12,4	4,7
8. Mixed: worker + clerk	15,2	32,6	26,6	13,8	11,8
9. Qualified workers	13,7	19,9	27,1	19,1	20,2
10. Non-qualified workers	15,0	15,7	24,4	28,2	16,7
Total	24,7	26,0	23,6	14,9	10,8

[Data 1999] CN = 0,35

As far as the living standard indicator derived from the statements of respondents is concerned, several important facts can be observed. The ratio of well-off consumer households is growing and while the number of deprived households is decreasing with the growing level of class status (in line with the classical scheme), including consumption higher level in the case of employers in comparison to experts. However, feelings of having sufficient funds for consumption are not uncommon in all class categories, including part of half-qualified or unqualified workers and agricultural workers. Nevertheless, feelings of deprivation are indicated in the category of less qualified manual workers (one half) and in two thirds of those who have maintained their class positions permanently over the past fifteen years (one fifth of cases being qualified workers).

As sources of social tensions, respondents have listed first of all wealth (in other words, there is tension between really poor people, people at risk of poverty and people with income/property below the average level (including badly paid persons with middle and top expert qualification) and the relatively narrow group of very rich people). This is not only a polarized relationship between the rich and the poor (there are relatively few really poor people in the CR), it is a social relationship to people, who have in the past fourteen years gained exceptional income and property (many of them using their social rather than economic capital gained during the socialistic era). Strong egalitarian feelings within the Czech society (rooted way back in times of national renaissance, which have been greatly strengthened during the socialism) constitute only one of the factors nursing these sentiments. As indicated by the friendly attitudes towards scientists, intellectuals and "stars", this is not a resistance towards capable and hard-working people. All public opinion polls in the CR (since 1993) have registered strong and unceasing animosity against the newly emerging group of parvenus (identified sometimes with entrepreneurs generally, sometimes with managers and bankers, often with "tunnel-makers" and corrupters and frequently with politicians and high officials). This sentiment is certainly partly supported by the unjustified egalitarianism and the related tendency to unfounded

generalizations (and may reflect also sensational media stories). However, facts about the development of the Czech society since 1991 until today clearly indicate that this plebeian resistance shelters a very realistic perception of strong tendencies to unjustified enrichment (using illegal or immoral procedures tolerated for long time because of the lack of legal provisions during the privatization era as well as the lack of activity of law enforcing authorities) and of efforts of law-makers, executive power officials, economic administration and justice to follow their own interests at the expense of the wide public. For these reasons, it is not surprising to find out that nearly 80% of Czechs are convinced that the State should try to lower the difference between the rich and poor. One quarter of the Czech population think that this should be done by taxing high incomes, one tenth recommends social support. The remaining two thirds suggest the combination of both.

As far as the State responsibility for the well-being of individual citizens is concerned, the public opinion here is less strong (less paternalistic) than on the issue of rich-poor differences. About one-third of population accept personal responsibility for themselves and their family, one-quarter transfer this responsibility to the State; others understand that a combination of both approaches is necessary. Opinions on the State's interventions and the State responsibility for living standards are in certain extent conditioned by the social status, feelings of poverty and income level. Correlation values are 0.2-0.3 (10% of explicable variation). There is a strong difference between the opinions of unemployed, pensioners and unqualified workers, who require the State's intervention in order to diminish differences between the rich and poor more frequently and assign to the State the responsibility for people's well-being. Similar are opinions of discontent people as well as people whose living standards deteriorated in the past five years. As expected, opinions of people with left and right orientation differ significantly (0.40-0.45 correlation): communists and socialists supporters, socially-democrats (partly) and Christian-democrats supporters from other political parties' supporters.

2.6. Regional inequality

Membership in a regional society is not as "natural" thing as being a man or a woman or being young or old. Also, it is clear that the determination of "territorial affiliations" does not reach (at least in the current Czech environment) the intensity seen e.g. in the case of social status gained by education or training etc. This cannot be explained only by the relatively easy change of the territorial membership (e.g. by moving; spatial mobility is still larger than the professional, educational and social status mobility in the CR).

The status of territorial societies is influenced by a number of "internal" factors:

- The structure of economic activities at the given territory (the status within the territorial system of work division);
- Territorial and technical conditions existing at the given territory (natural environment, available technical, social and housing infrastructure);

- The social structure (relations between professional, educational, status etc. groups);
- Cultural traditions, behaviour patterns and lifestyle (urban, ethnographic and other conditions);
- Forms and intensity of the social communication (formal and informal relations within the community).

Besides the above mentioned factors, each territorial society experiences external pressures - technical and technological innovations, transfers of shared social values or social management acts. In result, no sufficiently large and well-defined territorial unit concentrates purely negative or purely positive factors. From this perspective, the differentiation is always relative - most important is the view-point of the assessment, the selection of the criteria for the assessment as well as the purpose, for which it is delimited. The disproportion between an objectively good or bad situation in concrete regions and the (prevailing) subjective assessment of the same by members of the given community can be substantial, even in the Czech conditions. Subjective perceptions of an objective situation are greatly affected by largely accidental factors (selective media influence, traditional reputation of the given region etc.); at the same time, there are also significant and non-accidental factors.

From the perspective of the social and economic development territorial differentiation, the Czech Republic is still one of the most homogenous units within Europe. This fact is certainly influenced by the relatively high population density; however, important was also the intentional nivelization policy of the previous regime. The large degree of the original even balance in the regional socio-economic development (the beginning of 1990's) is the result of the planned localization of production capacities as well social and technical infrastructure being built on the basis of "social" criteria (i.e. largely in egalitarian manner and certainly not in line with "market needs"). Such regional policies led to the nominal equality of individual locations and regions, however, it was more of an equality in poverty and lost chances. It is clear that regional and local development after 1989 reflected fundamental economic, social and environmental changes occurring in the Czech society. Developments of the last decade have been greatly structured also in their regional and local dimension. And "structured" here means also (inter alia) significantly differentiated.

Table 2.6.1: Selected indicators on areas (NUTS 2): 2005										
<i>Indicator</i>	<i>Unit</i>	ČR	Prague	Central Bohemia	South-West	North-West	North-East	South-East	Central Moravia	Moravia-Salesia
Population										
<i>Mid-year population</i>	<i>persons</i>	10 234 092	1 176 116	1 150 128	1 177 137	1 127 564	1 481 670	1 640 282	1 229 428	1 251 767
<i>Females</i>	<i>persons</i>	5 242 653	612 969	586 622	599 426	574 936	758 145	839 496	630 911	640 148
<i>Live births per 1 000 population</i>	<i>‰</i>	10,0	10,2	10,5	9,8	10,4	9,8	9,9	9,6	9,7
<i>Deaths per 1 000 population</i>	<i>‰</i>	10,5	10,8	11,2	10,4	10,6	10,2	10,6	10,4	10,4
<i>Migration increase/decrease</i>	<i>‰</i>	3,5	10,0	12,8	3,9	0,8	2,6	1,2	0,1	-1,3
Gross domestic product (2004 data)										
<i>Share in GDP, CR=100</i>	<i>%</i>	100,0	23,6	10,4	10,7	8,9	12,3	14,4	9,6	10,0
<i>GDP per capita in purchasing power parity</i>	<i>PPS</i>	16 013	33 115	14 940	14 876	12 935	13 602	14 395	12 780	13 047
<i>CR = 100</i>	<i>%</i>	100,0	206,8	93,3	92,9	80,8	84,9	89,9	79,8	81,5
<i>EU 25 = 100</i>	<i>%</i>	70,5	145,9	65,8	65,5	57,0	59,9	63,4	56,3	57,5
Labour										
<i>Registered unemployment rate (31 Dec)</i>	<i>%</i>	8,88	3,25	6,25	6,58	13,97	7,79	9,60	9,99	14,23
<i>Unemployed job applicants (31 Dec)</i>	<i>persons</i>	510 416	24 571	40 751	44 132	88 549	63 694	86 506	65 685	96 528
<i>Job vacancies (31 Dec)</i>		52 164	11 119	7 064	6 576	3 916	7 520	7 747	4 916	3 306
Agriculture										
<i>Agricultural land (31 Dec)</i>	<i>ha</i>	4 259 481	20 870	666 793	877 095	402 021	693 594	843 963	477 487	277 658
<i>Arable land</i>	<i>ha</i>	3 047 250	15 329	554 576	582 794	242 118	462 145	678 942	335 969	175 376
<i>Livestock (1 April 2006)¹</i>										
<i>Cattle</i>	<i>thous.pcs</i>	1 374		151,3	359,3	72,4	267,2	290,4	152,9	80,2
<i>Pigs</i>	<i>thous.pcs</i>	2 840		407,4	549,1	156,4	429,2	845,1	324,1	129,0
<i>Poultry</i>	<i>thous.pcs</i>	25 736		3 967,4	5 659,4	2 835,1	3 996,5	5 387,9	2 212,1	1 677,5
Construction										
<i>Dwellings started</i>		40 381	8 124	9 565	4 057	2 062	4 642	6 520	3 405	2 006
<i>Dwellings under construction (31 Dec)</i>		155 202	17 709	30 496	23 794	10 494	18 545	26 094	17 561	10 509
<i>Dwellings completed</i>		32 863	6 564	6 084	3 931	2 191	3 956	5 389	2 824	1 924
<i>Habitable floor area per completed dwelling</i>	<i>m²</i>	70,3	61	82	71,4	70,7	68,2	68,1	67,1	78,0
Health										
<i>Physicians in out-patient care establishments per 1 000 population</i>	<i>persons</i>	2,9	5	2	2,9	2,4	2,7	2,8	2,7	2,6
<i>Physicians in hospitals per 10 000 population</i>	<i>persons</i>	8,7	14,5	6,3	8,3	7,4	7,7	9,6	7,7	8,1
<i>Beds in hospitals per 1 000 population</i>		6,4	8,8	4,9	6,2	6,4	6,1	6,7	5,7	6,0
<i>Average incapacity for work</i>	<i>%</i>	6,126	4,706	5,673	6,505	6,030	6,532	6,454	6,914	7,225
Social security										
<i>Pension recipients, total (31 Dec)</i>	<i>persons</i>	2 645 100	295 502	295 208	302 098	277 268	389 035	438 161	322 251	325 577
<i>Old-age pension, total</i>	<i>persons</i>	1 388 959	173 442	151 135	158 501	144 338	202 712	228 525	167 424	162 882
<i>Average old-age pensions (31 Dec)</i>	<i>CZK</i>	7 744	8 291	7 748	7 668	7 704	7 619	7 614	7 550	7 806

¹Agricultural sector only

Three mutually interdependent trends were predominant in this context (Potůček 2001, pgs. 167-174): Firstly, we witnessed the strengthening of selective tendencies within regional developments deepening territorial differences on socio-economic level with clear impacts on relationships within settlement systems. These were of two types:

- a) The importance of the size of centres has diminished and their attractiveness became based on the quality of activities offered by the centre. Those settlement centres, which supported the development of tertiary sphere (qualified production), improved their comparative position, while centres, which did not change the quality of their economic and social activities, begun to lose.
- b) Ties within settlement centres were strengthened; this led to situations, where territorial polarization affected still larger territorial units. This phenomenon is a natural reaction to the previous closeness of administrative units (districts) during the socialistic era and has been going on regardless of the largely limited population migration. Shifts of territorial polarities were determined mainly by the mobility of other factors: investments into productive capital and information flows.

Secondly, during the past fourteen years tendencies changing the positions of successful and unsuccessful regions and locations were widespread. The previously preferred heavy industry areas (allegedly supporting the prosperity of the State) turned into main problematic regions. These areas include mainly mining regions (Ostrava region, Ústí region and partially also the district of Karlovy Vary and Sokolov). The necessary restructuralization processes in these regions were worsened by the lower level of work-force qualification and flexibility and by the lower social stability. The restructuralization of mining regions needed substantial support from the State and the EU, which, however, was provided in very limited extent and not very effective forms.

The dominant position of the Prague metropolitan area on the other hand has grown significantly. Its natural development dynamics (artificially suppressed until the end of 1960's) has been by far the largest of all Czech regional centres (it currently registers twice higher economic efficiency than other regions). Several factors were at work here:

- clear size dominance of the metropolitan agglomeration;
- favourable location;
- development of non-production and quaternary transaction activities;
- necessary work force quality;
- cultural and touristic attractions.

Thirdly, the key importance of the technical infrastructure within the Czech society and economy has been confirmed once again during the past decade. The inherited technical infrastructure was of course largely fixed in space and its changes were and are slow and costly. However, its impacts on the social structure and economy are far-reaching.

The first prerequisite for a successful use of an objective development potential is the availability of adequate territorial and technical facilities. From this perspective, regions at

risk can be divided into two large groups: a) old industrial areas (Krušné hory region and Central Bohemia) and b) economically underdeveloped regions with strong ratio of agricultural production (West Bohemia and Jeseníky region). In the first case, the technical infrastructure of the region is nominally superior (in comparison with the situation in the CR generally); however, its weak capacities and especially outdated nature oriented purely on mining and heavy industry constitutes a problem. In the second case, the obstacle is the lack and bad quality of infrastructure. Regions with favourable development potential are characterized by quantitatively and structurally adequate territorial and technical conditions on industrial and also post-industrial level.

Regions at risk and regions with favourable development potential differ greatly in the work-force quality field. Regions at risk are frequently regions with largely substandard ratio of university educated workers and large number of workers with primary education. This factor greatly complicates the implementation of structural manoeuvres within local economy and contributes to the rise of social tensions within the local communities (large unemployment rate, growth of number of socially excluded persons). On the contrary, the strongest argument of regions with exceptionally favourable conditions is their work force quality.

2.7. Sources of social tension, xenophobia and social exclusion as perceived by the Czech public

The predominant opinion of the Czech public on the degree of social cohesion is rather pessimistic - only 11% of respondents consider the Czech society to be mostly cohesive. Most frequent is the opinion on the majority society being cohesive and cooperative - over 40% of respondent see barriers only between (thin) top class and lowest social groups. More than one fourth of respondents perceive the Czech society as hierarchic (i.e. not quite cohesive), with distinct borders between individual layers; 20% of respondents perceive the society as divided to "us" and "them".

Table 2.7.1. Perception of the social hierarchy and its connection to social cohesion (in %) according to responses to the following question: "Which of the following descriptions of our current society reflects the reality best?"

The atmosphere of cohesion, trust and solidarity prevails. There are no significant barriers between individual groups; one can reach an agreement with people from quite different social groups.	10,7
The society consists of top, middle and low layers, which mutually have little in common.	26,4
It is possible to reach an agreement with most people. However, there are low and top groups of people, who have little in common with majority of the society.	42,2
There are two groups standing in opposition: ordinary people and thin top class.	20,7

[Cohesion 2003]

If we prescind the cohesion context (or the degree of possible consensus between individual population layers), we are left with an image of social stratification (the degree of stratification, class structure). The question implies that the majority of the Czech

public perceives their society as greatly stratified, especially in the case of its top/low groups.

What has been perceived as a source of social tension in the Czech society? Factors affecting social status include not only standard socio-professional and socio-demographic characteristics and living standard characteristics, but also characteristics less common in this context (such as space differentiation, nationality, religion, political affiliations and health) known to affect, under certain conditions, the level of social tension or cohesion. The analysis of the social structure development in recent years indicates that many characteristics used in the questions include social inequality (significant rise of income based on business success, high managerial position, specific sectors or regions, decline of living standard of unemployed persons, young families with children, single-parent families etc.). The objective was to find out whether the rise of social inequality generates feelings of social tension and which characteristics of social status are associated with social tension most frequently.

Table 2.7.2: What leads to social tension?

		Average	Strong tension (in %)	No tension (in %)	1.f	2.f	3.f	4.f
1.	Wealth	1,77	39,5	1,9	,74			
2.	Nationality, race	1,85	34,0	2,4				,71
3.	Managerial function	2,02	21,8	2,2	,73			
4.	Business activities	2,04	23,7	3,0	,74			
5.	Housing	2,12	21,3	4,8	,37	,47		
6.	Political orientation	2,21	20,8	6,2	,31			,62
7.	Unemployment	2,34	15,3	7,8	,37	,34	,39	
8.	Size of town	2,39	13,8	10,7			,76	
9.	Generation	2,45	10,0	8,7		,68		
10.	Health	2,53	12,0	12,4		,70		
11.	Sector	2,57	8,6	13,2	,39		,55	
12.	Education	2,58	6,8	11,2	,51		,36	
13.	Complete family	2,65	7,3	14,5		,74		
14.	Region	2,69	6,5	16,1			,80	
15.	Religion	2,83	8,2	24,8				,68
16.	Gender	2,99	3,9	29,9		,66		
					15,9	15,3	12,4	9,8

Scale: 1=leads to social tension, 2=leads to less serious social tension, 3=generate nearly no tension, 4=generate no tension at all

[Cohesion 2003]

As expected, most significant sources of social tension include factors leading to wide differences in power, income and property status and subsequently living standards of people - wealth, managerial functions and business activities (see also the results of the factor analysis). However, the second position of "nation and race" is a serious warning indicating that the status of Roma minority members and other national minorities (refugees, illegal migrants) must be addressed. At the same time, we should be aware that Czech adult population is aware, how much social cohesion can be disturbed by wide gaps between people with different political affiliations. Interesting is the emphasis put on housing (fifth position - it is considered more important than the also significant

unemployment factor) and the last position of gender differences (both sexes are currently relatively content with the traditional work division, their status on the job market and in society generally). The penultimate position of religion correctly points out to the prevailing religious tolerance of the Czech population (contrary to some other European countries).

The factor analysis has united socio-professional characteristics (first factor), socio-demographic characteristics (second factor), certain horizontal distributions such as sectors and regions (third factor) and political/religious affiliations and national issues (fourth factor). This means that the public (as well as sociologists examining the social structure) assign characteristics of social status in line with the standard scheme corresponding to the objective reality of social differentiations. Perhaps only the merging of nationality, religion and political affiliations into one factor may need certain explanation. Most probably, these outside-standard-status-schemes items are perceived similarly and people are aware (regardless of the importance they assign to them in the field of social tension) that they should not in fact lead to social tension.

Social tension factors have not been differentiated in a more significant manner - neither according to socio-demographic indications, nor according to political affiliations.

Relationship of the public towards national minorities (level of xenophobia)

From the nationality perspective, the Czech society is more less homogenous. Besides Slovak nationals, the only really numerous national (ethnic) minority are Roma people (approximately 3% of the population). It can be expected that higher influx of economic migrants from underdeveloped countries (especially from former Soviet Union regions) could disrupt the yet quite problem-free attitude to many nationalities and open a discussion on the multicultural coexistence and the need for their integration in the Czech society.

Table 2.7.3: What about nationalities?

	Average	In another country (in %)	Factor analysis
Slovaks	2,21	1,9	,72 (2)
Americans	2,64	5,4	,73 (2)
Germans	3,12	5,3	,78 (2)
Jews	3,30	6,5	,72 (2)
Africans	4,33	14,6	,56 (1), .50 (2),
Vietnamese	4,60	16,1	,75 (1), .31 (2)
Russians	4,82	20,6	,85 (1)
Arabs	4,92	23,3	,69 (1), .36 (2)
Ukrainians	5,01	23,6	,80 (1)
Romas	5,74	36,6	,81 (1)
			64,9% variance

* Scale: 1 = Could become my life partner, 2 = We could be friends, 3 = We could work together, 4 = We could be neighbours, 5 = We could be acquainted, 6 = I would not like them to live in my neighbourhood, 7 = I would like them to live in another country.

[Cohesion 2003]

The comparison of nationalities under the classical scale puts Slovaks on the first position, followed by Americans, Germans and Jews. Other groups follow in order

reflecting the Czech experiences from the mutual coexistence - including negative experiences (crime, conflict behaviour). At the same time, political prejudices (Russians and perhaps Ukrainians) or racial attitudes of xenophobic nature can also play a role. The relation to Romas clearly contains both negative motives. This is why this ethnicity is perceived by one degree worse than other problematic national minorities.

The factor analysis combines relationships to the above listed nationalities in two dimensions - relationship to (all) foreigners (first factor - dimension corresponding to the xenophobia level) and a specific relationship to not only foreign, but suspicious (criminal) groups or to otherwise unadaptable people (second factor - dimension, where nationality relates to positive or negative experiences with a certain behaviour). It is worth noticing that Arabs, Vietnamese and Africans can be found in both first and second dimension, which points out to their yet ambiguous status. Individual dimensions of national issues perception are in various degrees conditioned by social characteristics of the respondents. The first factor (xenophobia) greatly depends on age, education and the overall content level (older, less educated and discontent people are more xenophobic). As far as the second factor is concerned (relation to Romas, Russians and Ukrainians etc.), very negative reactions were displayed by nationalistic programmes supporters, very positive ones by radicals and anarchists. Otherwise, this type of opinion did not vary much.

The research, which used criteria reflecting possible practical contacts, has clearly shown that from the majority society perspective it's mainly Romas, whose status is close to social exclusion. Other unpopular groups do not generate such strong negative feelings. The relatively negative relationship of the population towards Ukrainians as potential immigrants would need a more detailed analysis.

Currently, no minority can threaten the dominant position of or become an equal partner for the Czech majority society. Nevertheless, it must be expected that other ethnic groups' presence will grow - either by migration or by natural reproduction (especially in case of Roma community). Many migrants might be people of Slavic origin from Central-East and Eastern Europe. We must also count with the natural tendency of migrating people to establish closed communities, with xenophobic attitudes and the occurrence of traditionally isolated Chinese and Vietnamese communities as well as with the continuing tendency to exclude people in social distress in the Roma population. We must also keep in mind the ongoing, though perhaps decreasing, xenophobia and ethnocentric attitudes of a large part of the majority society. In this context, supporters of integration (trying to establish common public space dominant vis-à-vis communal, local and private sphere) and multicultural society supporters, with their uniform but non-dominant public space ideas, will probably cross swords. The space in-between will serve as a place for the establishment of the European identity (for part of majority as well as minority population) and some parts of society will witness the renaissance of regional identity feelings. Unclear and conflict situations during the ethnical differentiation may in some cases be

strengthened by the accumulation of certain, originally non-ethnic, differences. This accumulation may push these minorities to social isolation and exclusion. Such development can currently be seen in the case of Roma community and it may in future concern also other migrating minorities or groups settling down in the CR.

Relationship of the public to socially problematic groups

The xenophobia level analysis indicated that certain nationalities are frequently associated with socially pathologic behaviour (and evaluated accordingly). Our research has included also other "socially problematic" groups and we have asked the respondents about the level of their social exclusion.

Table 2.7.4: Situation problematic groups

		In another country (in %)	Factor analysis
Poor people	2,00	1,1	,85 (1)
Unemployed	2,14	2,0	,72 (1)
Religious people	2,24	2,1	,77 (1)
Communists	2,29	11,1	,56 (1)*
Homosexuals	3,18	8,5	,53 (1)*
Homeless people	4,00	10,8	,43 (1), 0,47 (2)*
Prostitutes	4,13	17,5	,66 (2)
Anarchists	4,48	5,4	,70 (2)
Mafia members	5,20	57,7	,75 (2)
Skinheads	5,21	54,0	,81 (2)
			53,0% variance

Scale: 1=friend, 2=co-worker, 3=neighbour, 4=acquaintance, 5=did not live in my neighbourhood, 6= lived in another country

* low communality - it's another dimension

The first dimension (factor) includes socially weak (poor) groups, including also "religious people" - the level of their exclusion in the public opinion is negligible; opinion on these groups does not depend on the social status of the respondents. In this group, the factor analysis has included also communists and homosexuals, however, communality analysis indicated that these groups create their own dimension. Communists (similarly to homosexuals) are completely unacceptable for part of the society ("they should live in another country"); nevertheless, opinions on both groups differ: while the evaluation of communists does not vary in average from the first three groups ratings, the exclusion of homosexuals is higher by nearly one point.

The second dimension includes groups, which can be perceived as socially pathologic. The level of their exclusion in the perception (attitudes) of people is relatively high and it grows with the level of their social hazard potential. Opinions on these groups are affected by socio-demographic characteristics: they are strictly rejected by (cause fear of) older people, women and people with lower education (related to age?). Interesting is the ambiguous status of homeless people (poverty versus petty crime), whose level of social exclusion is comparable to prostitutes. We may ask in what extent this negative attitude is well-founded. The analysis should serve as an impulse for experts to better examine the issue of this greatly socially excluded group in order to find ways how to at last mitigate their currently extreme social status.

The relationship of the public to various parts of social elites

In the beginning of this part we have said that two fifth of the Czech public emphasizes the separation between top and low social groups from the majority population and that another one fifth perceives the Czech society as divided into ordinary people and a thin elite group, in other words, over 50% of the Czech population perceives the Czech society as socially divided into elites and the others. In this context, we must perceive responses to questions asking for the level of positive feelings towards individual elite groups (the list of sub-groups in the following table basically corresponds to the division of elites to political, economic and cultural groups).

Table 2.7.5: Positive feelings towards selected elite groups

	Average	Marking 1 and 2 (in %)	Factor analysis
Scientists	2,06	72,2	0,88 (2)
Famous sportsmen	2,31	65,3	0,68 (2), 0,32 (1)
Intellectuals	2,75	50,9	0,74 (2)
Pop stars	3,18	37,6	0,57 (1), 0,45 (2)
Entrepreneurs	3,41	29,2	0,78 (1)
Millionaires	4,37	15,4	0,82 (1)
High level politicians	4,57	9,9	0,76 (1)
Used variation			63,2 %

Scale: 1 high liking to 7 high dislike
[Cohesion 2003]

Positive feelings for political representatives are minimal; however, extensive wealth also does not generate great popularity. As expected, rich people are somehow understood to include also businesspeople. This is confirmed by the factor analysis: first factor - economic and political elite, while famous sport stars (undoubtedly rich as well) are perceived differently ("scoring" in both first and second factor representing cultural elite). Intellectuals are relatively well-liked and rated close to scientists (cultural elite includes partially also sport and pop stars).

The liking of elites is greatly affected by the respondents' social status: low income, low education or leftist affiliations mean less positive feelings not only towards economic elites (rich people), as could be expected, but also towards cultural elites (the traditional distance between "white" and "blue" collars).

2.8. Gender inequality

In the past years, gender differences have received a great deal of attention. Gender studies, examining gender-related issues, have been established in 1990's also in the Czech Republic. Issues related to the equal opportunities of men and women, sharing roles within the family etc. have been dealt with by the Government (or more precisely the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs). In 1990's, many publications focusing on the social status of men and women have appeared (Čermáková 2000, Kuchařová and

Zamykalová 2000) as well as works examining in wider perspectives the status of men and women within the family context (Maříková 2000, Čermáková 2002).

In public opinion polls (see Table 7.2), gender differences have been rated as a source of tension in the society on the last position. Important is also the reconcilable perception of these issues by both men and women; also, opinion differences between generations and people of different education level are minimal. Other surveys examining public opinions on the distribution of roles between men and women (in the society as well as within the family) indicate that most Czechs support the traditional model of family relations (man as the provider and woman as the caretaker). There is a general agreement that women with small children go to work but if necessary, they give priority to the family. These roughly described opinion borders (covering however a whole structure of social relations co-determining these opinions) have delimited the space for male and female status in the society for the past several decades.

In this context, some sociologists speak of a gender (family) contract (Čermáková, 2000), i.e. that within family, as well as at the job market, a sort of gentlemen's agreement is observed and welcomed by most people:

- The majority of men and women observe their traditional gender roles and find them satisfactory.
- Men and women do not compete at the job market. Natural characteristics together with the historically, socially and economically determined division of professions to male and female have led to the establishment of gender-differentiated interests in management functions and to income differences between certain professions/ sectors, which are considered more less acceptable.
- Professions, where competition could occur, have experienced certain gender divisions (female paediatricians x surgeons; male sport, maths, physics teachers x female language teachers).
- In the income area, man's role is to provide for the family.
- The gender distribution of professions is reflected and confirmed by differentiated interest in study subjects, here also the gender contract can be seen (mostly with no conflicts).

This, at first sight and for this moment idyllic, situation (which may explain the lower importance assigned to gender tensions by the public and the small interest in feminist movements) will probably have limited temporal existence. With the changing nature of the young generation family behaviour (marriage rate, unmarried couples living together, single people), higher education of women (the same ratio of male and female students at the universities), with the modernization of the national economy (development of tertiary and quaternary areas, higher competition of men and women at the job market) and other changes at the job market (higher unemployment in typically male professions) etc., gradual "corrosion" of the current gender contract will take place.

The current status of men and women in the society has been determined mainly by processes, which have occurred in the CR in 1950's and 1960's and which were directly or indirectly related to the so-called second wave of industrialization of the Czech lands and the collectivization of the agricultural production in Czech rural areas. These processes have led first of all to nearly 100% employment of women. At the time of industrialization (women replaced men in light industry, business as well as in unqualified and half-qualified professions in heavy industry), relations between income of various professional groups and income in different sectors motivating men to go to other areas occurred and have prevailed until today. The overall income and pricing policies have at the same time led to the need to have two incomes to support a family. Full-time employment, however, did not relieve women of their duty to care for the household and family (the so-called "second shift"), so the traditional distribution of roles has in facts remained unchanged. Family functioning has not been affected very much: in most households, women cooked, cleaned, washed cloths, shopped and took care of children. Men's participation in the household activities was significantly lower; their contribution focused mainly on house/flat maintenance and repairs. This was certainly affected by the lack of functioning services as well as by the closed attitude of people focusing on their family life.

This situation has not changed much after 1989. Changes at the job market and changes in income proportions have not stimulated the return of women to the households or changed the long-term functioning of families and "gender" strategies. On the contrary, restructuring of the national economy (heavy industry, electronic industry) and the development of income levels in the public sector supported the already existing gender relations.

Discrimination takes place below the surface, during the job offer, during the appointment process (even during competitions), during separations etc. In combination with data on the ratio of female representation in top management, economic, political, administrative and cultural positions and data on the gender-differentiated bonuses and capacities for overtime work, we must come to the conclusion that income discrimination of women (related to their discrimination at the job market), exists in the Czech Republic in a relatively large extent. The nature of its causes is such that salary inequality are in fact auto-reproduced (typical is the example of feminized sectors: low incomes lead to the lower interest of men to work there and since mostly women work in this sector, they can be paid lower salaries). Salary discrimination affects also the family roles, decisions on work careers etc. and petrifies the traditional family model assigning to the man the role of a bread-winner and to the woman the role of a caretaker.

We have already mentioned information on the current educational, socio-professional, sectoral and income situation of women – here we made an overall summary and put gender inequality into wider perspective.

Lets add also an international comparison from the EU sources (2005) reflecting the level of employment/unemployment of men and women, the level of female representation in management functions and the assessment of income differences between men and women. The comparison reveals that the situation in nearly all EU countries is very similar as far as gender differences are concerned and that differences registered are nation-specific and historically determined. It is not possible to claim that post-communistic countries vary significantly from other countries in this area.

Table 2.8.1: European comparison of the situation of men and women on the job market

	Unemployment rate 2005		Employment rate, 2005		Employment part-time as a ratio of total emp.		Ratio of female managers in total mag.	Gender pay gap
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men		
EU25	9,6	7,6	56,3	71,2	32,6	7,3	32,1	15
Belgium	9,7	7,6	54,1	67,7	40,7	7,1	32,9	6
Czech R.	9,6	6,3	56,0	73,3	8,4	2,1	30,3	19
Denmark	5,0	3,8	70,8	80,1	32,7	12,8	23,0	17
Germany	10,2	8,2	59,3	71,1	44,3	7,7	26,4	23
Estonia	6,2	6,2	63,5	66,5	10,4	4,9	37,5	24
Greece	15,5	6,4	46,2	74,5	9,1	2,1	25,8	10
Spain	11,0	6,6	51,2	75,0	24,9	4,7	32,3	15
France	10,1	8,3	57,9	69,0	30,9	5,7	37,1	12
Ireland	3,8	4,7	58,0	76,2	24,4	5,0	30,2	11
Italy	9,7	6,0	45,4	70,2	25,7	4,5	31,9	7
Cyprus	6,4	4,5	58,5	79,5	13,8	5,1	13,6	25
Latvia	7,8	8,5	59,4	66,9	11,6	7,6	44,3	15
Lithuania	7,3	6,6	59,2	66,3	8,5	4,6	42,7	16
Luxemburg	7,8	3,8	50,6	72,4	40,2	2,4	26,3	14
Hungary	7,5	7,0	50,9	60,3	6,1	2,9	34,3	11
Malta	9,8	6,9	33,6	73,5	19,3	4,7	14,5	4
Netherlands	5,0	4,3	66,4	79,9	75,3	22,6	25,6	19
Austria	5,6	4,9	61,7	75,1	38,7	5,9	27,0	18
Poland	1,1	15,6	46,4	58,2	14,2	7,7	32,5	10
Portugal	8,7	6,9	61,9	73,4	16,6	7,1	34,2	5
Slovenia	6,7	6,1	61,7	70,2	11,0	7,1	32,8	9
Slovakia	16,6	15,2	50,8	64,1	3,9	1,2	31,2	24
Finland	8,8	7,7	67,4	71,0	18,5	9,1	29,7	20
Sweden	6,3	6,4	70,5	74,6	39,9	11,8	28,8	17
United Kingdom	4,5	5,4	65,8	77,3	43,1	10,6	34,5	22

2.9. Perception of the social stratification

Up to now, our analyses and descriptions of the social structure focused mainly on objective information (facts). Even though we were aware of the various degree of their precision (truthfulness, objectivity), we have always considered them as statements on the objective reality. With few exceptions, we have not examined the reflection of the objective social structuralization in the social consciousness, the perception of social inequality and people's ideas about their own social status. However, such subjective structuralization of the society is relevant within at least the same extent as the objective structuralization. Here, more than anywhere else, what people think of the society matters - it becomes a social fact, which strongly influences their behaviour in many areas.

International comparison

Subjective perceptions of social layers or the stratification of the society became the focus of the ISSP "social inequality" social model in 1992 and 1999, which revealed the following:

- The perception of the social stratification in certain extent reflects the objective situation in the social stratification area; at the same time, it more less explicitly relates to the overall wealth and productivity level of the society;
- Different perceptions of social stratification in various social systems exists (retrospection);
- The ideal type of social stratification is, at least nowadays, universal all over Europe.

Table 2.9.1. "Self-placement on ten-point* social ladder" (in %)

		"top"				"low"	Does not know
Czech Republic**	1989 retro***	3,6	21,2	47,4	21,7	5,3	0,8
	1992	0,4	10,2	46,4	31,7	10,8	0,5
	1999	0,4	10,8	43,2	33,0	12,1	0,5
Poland	1989 retro	3,3	15,9	41,0	24,2	11,1	4,5
	1992	1,9	8,4	39,3	30,9	18,7	0,8
	1999	1,5	10,0	37,3	28,6	18,4	4,1
Norway	1989 retro	2,0	22,4	50,3	17,0	6,2	2,1
	1992	1,5	29,8	50,9	12,3	3,1	2,4
	1999	2,4	34,4	48,1	10,9	2,8	1,4
Canada	1989 retro	4,3	23,2	36,8	23,0	10,2	2,6
	1992	4,5	29,6	43,2	15,9	4,3	2,4
	1999	2,8	29,8	44,5	17,0	3,9	2,1

ISSP "Social inequality 1992" "Social inequality 1999"

Percentual distributions on the social ladder allowed to divide countries participating in the research into five groups and to title each group according to its "shape":

1. Australia, US, Canada, the Netherlands, Norway, Sweden (one third : one half : one tenth) - "a pear upside down";
2. France, original FRG countries, Northern Ireland (one fourth : one half+ : one eighth) - "an apple" oriented towards "a pear upside down";
3. United Kingdom, Spain, Slovenia, eastern countries of the FRG (one eighth : one half+ : one fourth) - "a pear" oriented towards "an apple";
4. Czech Republic, Poland, Portugal (one eighth : one half : one fourth+) - "a pear";
5. Bulgaria, Russia, Lithuania, Hungary (one tenth- : one third : one half+) - "a pyramid".

The result complies in a surprising degree to the generally shared idea on living standards in individual countries, on the size of their middle-class and also on certain specifics of the countries (e.g. the fall of the UK related to the traditional status of labourers).

The comparison of the retro-data indicates that system changes, which took place in the countries of Central and Eastern Europe in the beginning of 1990's, were in large degree reflected in the social status (position on the social ladder). We may wonder at the extent, in which percentage representations of individual groups on the "social ladder" in Eastern and Western countries are alike. The above verified link between the "wealth of nations" and the perceived social stratification does not apply here. In the end of 1980's, Western countries had undoubtedly had higher economic production, much higher living standard, modern employment structure and people on both sides of the iron curtain were well aware of it. Reasons, why the past seems to be so favourable for post-communistic countries, must be sought in the fall of the labour professions (decrease of real income) in the beginning of 1990's and in the overall egalitarian layout in socialistic countries in 1970's and 1980's. We may assume that people compare their past status to their current one. We must realize that lowest positions on the social ladder are not occupied by working people, but by the unemployed, pensioners (see the following table), people living outside the society (homeless people) and that professional groups affected by the aforementioned fall do not belong to these lowest levels.

Table 2.9.2: Comparison of self-placement: economically active/unemployed/pensioners (in %)

		"top"				"low"	Number
Czech Republic	Active	0,5	14,1	49,9	29,2	5,4	963
	Unemployed	1,5	4,4	23,6	38,2	32,4	68
	Pensioners		5,4	34,4	42,0	18,1	579
Norway	Active	2,7	36,6	50,4	8,0	0,9	811
	Unemployed	5,9	23,5	35,3	29,4	5,9	17
	Pensioners	2,2	25,3	53,4	10,1	7,9	178

ISSP "Social inequality 1999"

A slightly different image of the social stratification in European countries, than the one gained by comparing social ladders, is revealed by responses to questions suggesting certain social arrangements. Respondents were to decide, which stratifications scheme reflects their national society best and to mark the ideal one in their opinion.

As clearly indicated by the percentage representation of "sharp" and flat" pyramids (see Table 2.9.3), responses of Czechs and Poles (as well as Norwegians and Canadians) are in large extent affected by many more factors than during the self-placement on the social ladder. During the individual assessment of own status, the key element is probably a sober assessment of the living standard or the prestige of the profession and the overall scheme has the shape of a "pear" in communistic countries or a "pear upside down" in developed Western countries; however, when looking at the society generally, the power criterion dominates for most people and the division to rich and others, privileged and unprivileged, division to "us" and "them" occurs. We must not forget that social stratification results, prepared on the basis of self-placement of respondents on social ladder, do not include "underclass" respondents, as this part of the population lies beyond the reach of this type of research.

Table 2.9.3: "Which type best reflects our current society, the 1960's and what are your ideal expectations" (in %)

		Sharp pyramid	Pyramid	"Pear"	"Apple"	"Pear upside down"
Czech Republic	1960's	19,6	23,9	19,8	30,2	6,5
	1992	22,4	39,2	13,9	21,2	3,2
	1999	31,1	35,9	18,7	12,0	2,3
	Ideal 92	1,5	4,2	18,4	37,2	38,7
	Ideal 99	0,6	5,9	18,7	50,2	23,5
Poland	1960's	25,0	32,6	15,4	20,6	6,4
	1992	58,5	21,6	7,1	8,8	4,0
	1999	59,1	19,8	9,2	7,8	4,0
	Ideal 92	3,0	10,0	7,2	45,9	34,0
	Ideal 99	2,2	10,4	11,4	51,8	24,2
Norway	1960's	14,8	30,6	30,5	20,7	3,4
	1992	7,8	16,2	24,6	48,8	2,5
	1999	3,2	11,3	19,8	57,9	7,8
	Ideal 92	0,8	2,9	6,7	62,4	27,1
	Ideal 99	0,6	3,7	7,2	56,9	31,6
Canada	1960's	16,6	31,3	21,3	26,9	3,9
	1992	23,2	33,3	20,9	20,1	2,5
	1999	18,4	22,9	30,0	27,5	1,3
	Ideal 92	2,3	6,5	10,0	48,6	32,6
	Ideal 99	1,7	5,0	8,7	49,9	34,7

ISSP "Social inequality 1992" "Social inequality 1999"

N CSFR 1096/CR 1834 , Poland 1528/1136, Norway 1370/1268, Canada 924/974

* Czechoslovakia in 1992

Relations between objective status mobility and its subjective assessment

The relation between objective changes in social status and their perception or evaluation is fundamental for the determination of the importance of the subjective social status (self-placement) for the social stratification of the society. Such close relation indicates, in what extent objective social inequalities are reflected in the social consciousness and how much they affect each other. In times of social transformations, when the society is differentiated on the basis on completely new or newly used social inequality sources and people's perception of the society, social relations and basic social principles changes, relations between objective-subjective statuses are certainly much more complex and less univocal than in times of stability.

Table 2.9.4: Relations between objective status mobility and its subjective assessment

Objective	Subjective mobility 1989-1999 - overall status						
	STT	MVU	STM	UPM	DWL	STL	
STT	13,6	27,7	36,4	6,7	10,2	5,4	7,3
MVU	5,7	32,4	32,4	13,6	7,4	8,5	8,7
STM	6,8	8,7	47,8	6,8	14,4	15,5	27,7
UPM	8,3	5,5	42,6	16,0	12,7	14,9	9,0
MVD	6,8	12,1	41,8	6,8	24,2	8,3	6,5
STL	2,8	3,0	37,5	7,6	21,1	28,0	40,8
	5,7	9,8	40,6	8,5	16,7	18,7	100,0

Explanation: STT – Steadily top, MVU – Movement upwards, STM – Steadily middle, UPM – Movement to the middle, MVD – Movement downwards, STL – Steadily low.

CN = 0,39

[Data 1999], corpus of economically active people in both 1989 and 1999.

In connection with various indications related to objective/subjective social status, the general question of links between objective and subjective statuses becomes in various manners more specific. The following comparison shows differences in the perception of prestige, level of income and the overall status in connection with objective movements upwards, downwards or stability.

Table 2.9.5. Perception of status changes* (average)

	Prestige of the profession	Income	Overall status
Steadily top	0,49	1,14	1,05
Movement upwards	1,11	1,95	1,56
Steadily in the middle	-0,24	0,16	0,03
Movement to the middle	-0,05	0,39	0,20
Movement downwards	-0,49	-0,15	-0,31
Steadily low	-0,78	-0,71	-0,54
Total	-0,29	0,03	0,00

*) Difference between current (1999) a retrospective (1989) self-placement on the ten-point scale of prestige/level of income/overall status.

[Data 1999], corpus of economically active persons both in 1989 and in 1999

Important is mainly information on the overall status: the prestige of a profession came down by 0.3, but the income and the overall status remained the same. The decline of professional prestige is caused mainly by the decrease of the prestige of those who remained steadily on low/middle levels, i.e. by the decrease of prestige of labour professions and experts with secondary education (industry). (For an overview of gradual changes of the labourers and experts with secondary education prestige, see Table P.10 in the attachment.) Both relates to the overall change in how the society is perceived, to the public's diversion from ideologies emphasizing the role of labourers and the importance of industrial work. However, the decline of the prestige of people placed steadily on the middle level is not linked to the income decrease or the decrease of their overall status in the society. This means that the significant fall of the status and income of labour professions is compensated by groups, which have either maintained their high status or whose status has increased.

Another important finding indicates that changes of social status or the stability of the social status are very much reflected in the income. Differences in the assessment of the overall social status equals to the middle value between the perception of prestige changes and the income.

3. Political parties system, election results, political affiliations

After the first free democratic elections in 1990, the Czech Republic became a country with multi-party democratic system based on a spectrum of political parties and movements. Before 1989, there were two other political parties besides the Communist Party (KSC) - the Peoples' Party (CSL) and the Socialistic Party (CSS). However, these parties (together with other organizations) belonged to the so-called National Front and respected the leading role of the Communistic Party. Candidates in all election levels were only people approved by the appropriate Communistic Party bodies and listed on the National Front candidate list. The list copied, in certain extent, the socio-demographic

and professional structure of the society with key roles assigned to KSC members. The election participation was usually 95-98% and nearly 100% of the voters supported the National Front candidates.

An important participant in the first post-November elections was the "Civic Forum", the leading movement and main political representative of the Velvet Revolution born in the revolutionary times. Besides the Civic Forum (which gained nearly 50% of votes), other existing, more or less reconstructed parties participated in the 1990 election together with re-established or newly created parties (see Table 3.1 on election results and participation).

Table 3.1: Results of post-1989 elections to the Chamber of Deputies of the CR Parliament*

	1990	1992	1996	1998	2002	2006
ODS	-	29,7 (76)	29,6 (68)	27,7 (63)	24,5 (58)	35,4 (81)
CSSD	4,1 (0)	6,5 (16)	26,4 (61)	32,3 (74)	30,2 (70)	32,3 (74)
Communist Party (KSCM)	13,2 (32)	14,1 (35)**	10,3 (22)	11,0 (24)	18,5 (41)	12,8 (26)
Christian Democrats (KDU-CSL)	8,4 (19)	6,3 (15)	8,1 (18)	9,0 (20)	14,3 (31)**	7,2 (13)
Green Party	-	-	-	-	2,4 (0)	6,3 (6)
Civic Forum	49,5 (127)	-	-	-	-	-
Participation	96,8	85,1	76,4	73,9	58,0	64,5

The following parties were also elected into the Chamber of Deputies: 1990: HSD-SMS (10%); 1992: HSD-SMS (5.9%), LSU (6.5%), ODA (5.9%), SPR-RSČ (6.0%); 1996: ODS (6.4%), SPR-RSČ (8.0%); 1998: US (8.6%).

* In 1990 and 1992, Czech National Council; Chamber of Deputies since 1993.

** Coalition of KDU-CSL and US-DEU.

*** Left Bloc (coalition of left-wing parties led by KSCM).

By 1992, the Civic Forum disintegrated and several political parties were established on its place. By the end of 1990's, only one of them played an important role at the Czech political scene: the Civic Democratic Party (ODS) led by Václav Klaus. ODS was in the driving seat during most of the key economic moments of the transformation process in 1990's (voucher privatization, Czech privatization road, participation of (state) bank system, social peace). However, economic and political problems led to the fall of the government, early elections were organized and the socialists (CSSD) took over (see Table 3.1).

During 1990's, the political scene has crystallized (though in 2006 elections a total of 26 entities competed for public support; see Table 10 in the attachment). The current five parliamentary parties constitute the standard political spectrum known from many Western countries - two strong central parties (liberal ODS, right centre, and the socialistic CSSD, left centre), leftist KSCM, central Christian Democrats party (KDU-CSL) and the Green Party. There is no representative of the extreme right wing (SPR-RSC was represented in the Parliament only until mid-1990's) and no conservative central alternative to Christian Democrats. Closer analysis of parliamentary parties' programmes would probably reveal that the space for central political subjects has already been taken up by the current parties. Though many voters consider themselves centrist (see Table

3.2), most of them vote for the current parliamentary parties. In this context, important information is reflected in the last table in this section mapping the Czech public support for individual political programmes (Table 3.3).

The gradual decline of voters' interest to participate in the elections, registered between the tense, "revolutionary" 1990 elections and the already well-established elections of 1992, 1996 and 1998, is understandable; similar parallels can be found in other countries, which underwent democratic transformations. It reflects certain social and psychological difference between people interested in public matters (conditioned partly demographically and partly culturally) and other people, as well as regional and social differences leading some people away from interest in public matters. Moreover, some people were disappointed and unhappy with the results of the Government's work (see the difference between election participation in 1992 and 1996/1998). In this context, the 75% participation can be perceived as relatively high or at least satisfactory. However, the drop in the election participation registered between 1998 and 2002 is very high - the participation went down by one fifth and this phenomenon had no clear or easily understandable explanation.

Table 3.2: "People sometimes speak of left- and right-wing supporters in politics. Where would you place yourself on this scale?" (The graphic layout of the question was maintained)

Left											Right		
L	L	L	L	L	0	R	R	R	R	R			
A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K			
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	99	Year	
1,6	3,7	9,7	8,2	9,6	20,1	9,4	12,0	10,2	4,5	1,2	9,9	2004	
1,0	4,0	9,8	8,8	8,6	20,3	8,4	13,1	11,3	4,5	2,1	8,2	2005	
1,7	4,5	8,5	8,2	8,8	20,2	10,5	12,0	10,6	5,4	2,9	6,5	2006	
1,3	3,1	7,1	10,1	9,8	18,5	9,5	11,4	12,0	5,7	2,3	9,1	2007	

CVVM 10/2004, 11/2005, 11/2006, 2/2007.

In the end of 1990's, the seven-point political preference scale showed the following picture: 2% extreme left, 9% left, 13% left centre, 30-32% centre, 18% right centre, 15% right and 3% extreme right supporters (8-10% of respondents could not place themselves on the scale, CVVM 1998). All systems used (5-point, 7-point, 9-point or 11-point) and all parliamentary elections results have brought similar picture, the left-right orientation of the Czech society has always been similar. The Czech society is not polarized, people frequently take the middle position (with about 10% prevalence of the right-wing (right-centre) supporters). Similar stability of opinions can be seen also in the breakdown by preferences of concrete political programmes (this question has been included into researches only recently under the framework of the "Cohesion in Differentiated Society" project addressed by the Department of the Social Structure Studies, Sociology Institute of the Czech Academy of Science).

Table 3.3: Representation of groups supporting concrete political programs and their left/right orientation

	CVVM 11/2005		CVVM 10/2004	
	%	LR*	%	LR*
Conservative	12,9	7,53	12,2	7,17
Liberal	20,0	8,17	19,5	7,76
Social democratic	22,5	5,52	23,8	5,77
Socialistic	18,5	4,40	17,1	4,14
Communitic	4,0	3,16	4,0	3,45
Christian	5,2	6,66	5,6	6,53
Nationalistic	4,5	6,39	3,9	6,21
Environmental	7,1	6,60	5,6	6,75
Anarchist	0,8	6,50	0,3	5,67
Does not know	4,3	6,66	8,0	6,46
		6,22		6,12

* Average of left-right orientation in given groups (11-point scale)

- Conservative: emphasizing the responsibility of individuals, the importance of order and traditional values;
- Liberal: emphasizing freedoms of individuals and free market;
- Social democratic: connecting democracy with social-market economy;
- Socialistic: emphasizing solidarity and social assurances guaranteed by the State;
- Communitic: defending state socialism and interests of socially weak;
- Christian-democratic and Christian-social: emphasizing the importance of traditional Christian values;
- National and patriotic: emphasizing national ideas and putting national interests first;
- Environmental: emphasizing environmental protection;
- Radical/anarchist: supporting the idea of State abolishment and fundamental change of the system.

Section 4. Mechanisms for addressing social inequality

4.1. Social policies of the State

Tables included in this section illustrate developments in the area of the State expenditures in the social field during the past five years. Increased expenditures in individual areas correspond to demographic developments, developments in the area of income and rising living costs. During the monitored period, no major changes were registered in these areas (except the increase of child-related benefits). The reform of public finances, which is currently being prepared, should in certain extent restrict the "social state", it should change the taxation system and introduce payments for some services (e.g. in the health sector etc.).

Table 4.1: Medical insurance benefits expenditures: breakdown by groups of persons

CZK million

Indicators	2000	2002	2003	2004	2005
Expenditures on medical insurance benefits, total	27 205	32 609	34 307	29 563	31 660
<i>paid to:</i>					
<i>Employees of legal entities</i>	22 177	27 441	29 030	25 020	27 113
<i>Employees of natural persons</i>	3 626	3 708	3 752	3 155	3 108
<i>Members of cooperatives</i>	764	787	799	646	629
<i>Self-employed persons</i>	402	442	489	462	501
<i>Job applicants</i>	164	163	172	229	268
<i>Others</i>	72	68	65	51	41

Table 4.2: Pensions and pension insurance benefits paid (as of 31 December)

Indicators	2000	2002	2003	2004	2005
Pensions paid, total (thous.)	3 210	3 227	3 246	3 250	3 269
<i>Old-age, incl. proportional</i>	1 919	1 921	1 933	1 945	1 962
<i>Disability, incl. partial</i>	536	553	563	563	570
<i>Widow's</i>	619	612	607	600	595
<i>Widower's</i>	79	85	86	88	89
<i>Orphan's</i>	57	56	57	54	53
Pension insurance benefits paid, total (CZK mil.)	181 921	210 440	218 273	¹⁾ 226 883	243 648
<i>Old-age, incl. proportional</i>	130 932	150 772	156 272	163 026	175 669
<i>Disability, incl. partial</i>	33 425	38 723	40 667	42 350	45 602
<i>Widow's</i>	14 534	17 078	17 343	17 408	18 042
<i>Widower's</i>	1 055	1 368	1 487	1 532	1 651
<i>Orphan's</i>	1 975	2 499	2 504	2 567	2 684

Excl. CZK 2 655 million (extraordinary one-time contribution to old-age pensions)

Tab. 4.3: Average monthly amounts of new pensions granted

Type of pension	2004			2005		
	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females
<i>Old-age, total</i>	7 747	8 629	7 071	8 376	9 268	7 623
<i>Full old-age</i>	8 489	9 280	7 846	9 092	9 923	8 353
<i>Proportional old-age</i>	2 366	2 617	2 268	2 489	2 591	2 459
<i>Early old-age</i>	6 308	7 228	5 678	6 960	7 841	6 287
<i>by 2 years</i>	6 404	7 228	5 707	6 836	7 857	6 148
<i>by 3 years</i>	6 291	7 228	5 674	6 984	7 838	6 315
<i>Disability</i>						
<i>Full, total</i>	7 740	8 121	7 172	8 396	8 799	7 802
<i>Full</i>	7 780	8 170	7 200	8 446	8 860	7 835
<i>Full from childhood</i>	5 979	5 983	5 972	6 483	6 485	6 481
<i>Partial</i>	4 451	4 693	4 179	4 809	5 067	4 527
<i>Widow's</i>	4 801	x	4 801	5 119	x	5 119
<i>Widower's</i>	4 080	4 080	x	4 350	4 350	x
<i>Orphan's</i>	3 778	3 742	3 815	4 050	4 022	4 078

Tab. 4.4: State social support benefits paid (CZK million)

<i>Benefit</i>	2000	2002	2003	2004	2005 ¹⁾
State social support benefits	31 855	33 700	32 178	⁵⁾ 32 669	32 954
including:					
<i>Child benefit</i>	12 748	13 353	12 519	11 790	11 195
<i>Social benefit</i>	6 199	6 271	5 822	5 262	4 779
<i>Housing benefit</i>	2 518	3 028	2 835	2 548	2 458
<i>Transport benefit</i>	1 045	1 298	1 267	857	⁶⁾ -2
<i>Parental benefit</i>	7 691	8 022	7 964	10 425	12 627
<i>Providing-for benefit</i>	15	14	8	3	-
<i>Foster care benefits and grants</i>	339	394	407	427	467
<i>Birth grant</i>	581	791	807	832	895
<i>Funeral grant</i>	540	529	549	525	533

Tab. 4.5: Expenditures on social care services (CZK thousand)

<i>Indicators</i>	2000	2002	2003	2004	2005 ¹⁾
<i>Care for senior citizens, citizens with reduced capacity to work, and severely handicapped persons</i>	3 212 743	3 548 725	4 503 954	4 800 487	5 309 294
<i>Community care service</i>	840 632	705 090	1 027 022	1 149 504	1 176 621
<i>Institutional social care</i>	6 566 372	7 283 962	8 315 030	8 583 457	9 693 092

5.2. Civic associations, NGOs etc.

Report on the NGO sector in the Czech Republic describes four stages of the NGO sector development after 1989 (Vajdová 2004, pg. 10-11):

1. First stage (1990-1992): Revolutionary enthusiasm was reflected in the State's liberal policy vis-à-vis the NGO sector. The Government established the National Investment Fund. Arrival of foreign donors and significant influx of foreign funds supporting the development of the NGO sector from foreign sources.
2. Second stage (1963-1996): This period could be called the "hesitation period". Discussions between Václav Havel and Václav Klaus about the civic society. Reticent relationship of the State vis-à-vis the NGO sector. Constant support of the State on one hand, its unwillingness to distribute funds from the NIF on the other hand.
3. Third stage (1997-2001): The State paid increased attention to rules governing the NGO sector (foundations, church-related legal entities). Ministerial rules on subsidies distribution were made stricter. First funds from the NIF were distributed.
4. Fourth stage (2002-2006): Decentralization of the State administration affects the situation of NGOs in regions. Departure of foreign donors following the country's accession to the EU. Accession to the EU brought calls for the enforcement of the Partnership principle and efforts to use the EU Structural Funds.

Table 4.2.1: Numbers of NGOs in 1990-2006

Development stage	1st stage (1990-1992)			2nd stage (1993-1996)				3rd stage (1997-2001)	
	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Non-state non-profit organizations									
Civic associations	3879	9366	15393	21694	24978	26814	27807	30297	36046
Foundations			1551	2768	3800	4253	4392	5238	55**
Endowment funds									71**
Public benefit societies							1*	52	129
Church legal entities									
Organizational unit associations									
Total (without organizational unit associations)	3879	9366	16944	24462	28778	31067	32200	35587	36301

Development stage	3rd stage (1997-2001) cont.			4th stage (2002-2006)				
	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Non-state non-profit organizations								
Civic associations	38072	42302	47101	49108	50997	53306	54963	57270
Foundations	272	282	299	330	350	362	368	377
Endowment funds	695	735	784	825	859	898	925	937
Public benefit societies	560	557	701	762	884	1038	1158	1232
Church legal entities				4785	4946	4927	4605	4522
Organizational unit associations				30547	31509	32020	33178	30957
Total (without organizational unit associations)	39599	43876	48885	55810	58036	60531	62019	64338

Source: ICN, Český statistický úřad, Albertina – Firemní monitor.

* Act No. 248/1995 Coll., on Public Benefit Corporations came into effect on 1 January 1996.

** Act No. 227/1997 Coll., on Foundations and Endowment Funds came into effect on 1 January 1998

The following table illustrates the percentual representation of NGOs according to their main activity. Many organizations focus on sport and free-time activities (CSTV, Sokol and associations focusing on other free-time activities - fishing, hunting, modelling etc.) An important part of the NGO sector constitutes organizations providing social services. Many NGOs are active in the field of culture, arts, science and research. The number of charity organizations is small. In this context, however, it must be noted that the registration reflects only part of the main activities of organizations - many associations are active in several fields simultaneously.

Tab. 4.2.2: Number of NGOs: breakdown by the main field of activities (in %)

Main field of activity	%
Free-time activities and sport	17
Social services	15
Culture and arts	14
Education and research	13
Environment	9
Health	8
Community development and housing	5
Civic-legal education, human rights protection	4
Religion, churches	3
International activities	3
Trade unions, professional bodies and business associations	3
Charity	2
Other	5

Source: ČSU Odbor gešního zpracování, Oddělení zpracování statistiky neziskových organizací, Brno a Rada vlády pro nestátní neziskové organizace

Within the national accounts system, the Czech Statistical Office categorizes NGOs under the "Household serving NGO institutions" sector. The NGOs contribution to the GDP is not significant (approximately 0.35% of the GDP) and this ratio has not been rising. In 2003, the NGO sector was employing approximately 37,000 workers, i.e. 0.71% of the overall number of economically active population. However, the number of people working for NGOs has been rising steadily in recent years (by 60% between 1999 and 2003). Unlike in some Western European countries, where nearly one third of people working in the social area are employed by NGOs, in the Czech Republic this number is 10%. In the area of culture, sports and free-time activities, however, the situation is opposite: one third of workers are employed by NGOs in this field (one tenth in Western countries).

Membership in NGOs is not registered anywhere and can be therefore determined only on the basis of specific surveys (unlike information on the number of NGOs reflected in special registers). Last information from 2006 indicates that approximately 45% of Czechs are members of an NGO (decrease by approximately 11% in comparison with 2003, when nearly 56% of the Czech adult population had registered membership in an NGO). This drop can be explained by the continuous decline of the membership base of large (e.g. sport) organizations.

4.3 Justice, legitimacy and social problems as perceived by the Czech public

a) Rectitude of selected transformation solutions and political decisions

Responses to questions related to issues addressed during first years after November 1989, which together with the re-appearing Czech-German question constitute part of the current political discursus, have been included in the first part of the following table. Both parts of the table show that the public either agrees or disagrees with the rectitude and justice of the measures taken (second part of the table focuses on specific, frequently discussed political issues and problems). Public opinion has not been extremely polarized in any of the issues examined (extreme agreement or disagreement), although there are issues, where the measure concerned is perceived clearly positively/negatively (deregulation of prices, dependent child benefits); however, on these issues people take in fact the middle opinion. Should the scale offered include also a neutral response, most answers would probably be neutral. Interesting is the high percentage of "I don't know" answers (one fifth to one fourth of the respondents).

Table 4.3.1: "How fair had been or would have been:"

	Certainly yes	Rather yes	Rather no	Certainly no	I don't know	Average*
Removal of Germans	40,0	34,2	9,9	2,1	13,7	1,70
Small restitution	28,4	44,3	13,6	4,3	9,5	1,93
Large restitution	10,3	26,7	30,7	16,6	15,7	2,64
Lustration legislation	22,8	30,7	16,9	6,6	23,1	2,09
Voucher privatization	3,8	20,0	30,8	26,4	19,1	2,99
Deregulation of prices after 1989	5,6	27,7	27,5	14,0	25,2	2,67
Progressive taxation	25,5	37,8	18,4	7,6	10,7	2,09
Immunity of deputies	1,2	9,5	35,4	49,3	4,7	3,39
School fees at public schools	4,9	20,2	39,6	28,0	7,3	2,98
Restrictions for migrants	18,5	39,7	19,6	4,1	18,0	2,11
Dependent child benefits for all	13,9	33,1	28,0	13,2	12,0	2,46
Equal taxation	12,3	22,5	29,8	23,2	12,2	2,73
Rents for policemen	4,0	18,8	32,6	37,9	6,9	3,12
Pension benefits corresponding to earnings	23,0	47,4	16,0	5,6	7,9	2,05
Obligatory pension insurance	10,3	39,4	25,3	11,0	14,0	2,43
Tenure for clerks and officers	4,5	18,9	33,4	30,9	12,3	3,03
Death sentence for murderers	40,5	34,5	10,9	5,0	9,1	1,78
Separation of the Church from the State	31,0	31,3	13,9	4,7	19,1	1,91
Ban of the Communistic Party	16,1	17,9	26,4	23,6	16,1	2,68

* For specific responses (i.e. without "I don't know")

Sources: Naše společnost, January 2005, age 15+, N=1037, CVVM

Most people consider as just the following measures: removal of Germans, small restitution, progressive taxation, restrictions for migrants, pension benefits corresponding to earnings, death sentence for murderers and separation of the Church and State. As unjust are considered by most people: deputies' immunities, school fees at public schools, equal taxation, rent for policemen and tenure for clerks/officers. The opinions are in various degrees influenced by age, social status and especially political affiliations of the respondents (simplified here to left-right scale).

The above mentioned statements on the perception of just/unjust nature of decisions in certain areas complete the picture of responses to open questions seeking the opinions of respondents on what they consider most unjust nowadays:

17% - misuse of power (privileges of politicians, their contempt vis-à-vis ordinary people, corruption);

15% - social inequality (poverty, social differences, differences in income);

11% - lawfulness gaps (delays in court proceedings, small punishments, legal uncertainty);

8% - social policies (low benefits; however, in the opinion of one third of respondents the benefits are too generous);

6% - various forms of discrimination, exclusion (age, medical handicap, nationality etc.);

5% - conditions for business activities (taxes, legislation etc.);

3% - medical system (payments for medication or treatment);

2% - schooling system (lack of study opportunities);

2% - no reconciliation with the past.

b) Urgency of social problems (as perceived by the public)

Table 4.3.2: Responses to the question: "How urgent in your opinion it is to pay attention to the following issues this year?"

	Not urgent	Quite urgent	Very urgent	I don't know
Unemployment	3,6	25,6	70,4	,5
Corruption	3,6	25,7	67,2	3,5
Organized crime, mafia	4,1	27,3	65,8	2,8
Health sector	4,6	30,5	62,8	2,1
General crime	4,3	37,4	56,7	1,5
Social benefits	7,6	39,3	50,4	2,6
Establishment of a well-functioning legal system	7,3	37,0	48,9	6,8
Pension system reform	9,2	33,5	47,7	9,6
Economic reforms	4,2	43,6	45,4	6,8
Living standards	8,8	44,5	44,7	2,0
Housing related issues	11,4	41,1	40,4	7,1
Agriculture	10,5	39,5	36,5	13,4
Schooling	16,0	40,0	36,5	7,5
Environment	18,7	52,7	25,4	3,2
Social cohesion	24,9	41,0	18,7	15,4
Refugee related problems	27,8	42,4	17,0	12,8
Racism	41,6	31,4	16,4	10,6
Election system	49,6	24,6	13,0	12,8
Specification of the status and power of the President	66,2	16,7	5,7	11,5

Source: Naše společnost, January 2005, CVVM

c) Social cohesion

Experience shows that the public opinion can be easily manipulated, that it is governed by a number of prejudices, auto-stereotypes and external influences resulting from indoctrination efforts etc. However, here the public seems to perceive social cohesion issues in a very rational manner. This is confirmed also by the evaluation of various "policies" from the perspective of their effectiveness in the area of social cohesion.

The results (see Table 4.3.3) confirm that the public are well aware of the potential sources of tension and rate them according to their immediate relation to the everyday life; at the same time, they are aware of the corresponding "policies" mitigating the tension in the specific areas. The first place for "strengthening of the family" is not surprising (well-functioning family supports socialization, defines values, and offers feelings of security). It is followed by "policies" closely affecting all members of the society (legal regulations observation, security, development of civic rights) or targeting socially weak groups offering them support in difficult situations (social support, social care, decrease of unemployment) addressing hereby issues of social exclusion, poverty or issues related to unjust earnings not corresponding to work/qualification.

Table 4.3.3: "What helps to strengthen social cohesion?" (1=certainly helps, 2=quite helps, 3=neither yes, nor no, 4=does not really help, 5=certainly does not help)

	Average	Yes (in %)	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
Strengthening the family	1,81	81,9		0,43	0,39	
Observing legal regulations	1,90	77,3	0,74			
Increasing the education level	1,94	79,8			0,62	
Social benefits	1,96	77,4		0,70		
Security	1,97	75,9	0,59			
Increasing the quality of social care	1,99	77,8		0,75		
Development of civic rights and freedoms	2,02	73,7	0,66			
Economic development	2,04	73,6	0,68			
Lower unemployment	2,05	73,8		0,64		
Mitigating social differences	2,14	69,7		0,74		
Strengthening national awareness	2,31	61,2			0,73	
Environment	2,32	60,8	0,49			
Common values	2,38	57,6	0,36			0,33
Participation on decision-making on public issues	2,41	57,9	0,67			
Support of culture and arts	2,46	52,6			0,74	0,31
Co-existence of the major society with minorities	2,51	50,8	0,52			
Cultivation of media	2,51	49,9				0,53
Support of spiritual development	2,53	51,1	0,47		0,53	
Support of civic initiatives	2,58	47,2			0,36	0,44
Development of political culture	2,69	44,0	0,53			
Religiosity	3,11	24,9				0,80
Variance used			18,6 %	13,9 %	12,3 %	10,2 %

Source: Soudržnost 2003, STEM

The rather uneasy perception of policies supporting the co-existence between the major society and minorities only confirms what has been said previously about the relationship between the majority society and Romas/other national minorities. Opinions on the usefulness of such policies for social cohesion vary similarly to the opinions in the area of the Roma minority perception (Romas as privileged and at the same time excluded group).

The last position of "religiosity strengthening" corresponds to the low level of religiosity among the Czech population.

It is interesting to note the third position of "increasing the education level". It shows that people are aware of both immediate and indirect consequences of gaps existing within the education structure. However, this opinion is not quite in line with the controversial listing of "educational level" as a possible source of social tension.

The list of proposed 22 partial "policies", which could in various degree support social cohesion, has been categorized into four general dimensions (factors):

1st factor: Democracy, strengthening lawfulness, economic development;

- 2nd factor: Social policies
- 3rd factor: Education, social culture
- 4th factor: Importance of religion

The factor analysis has confirmed that the adult population's opinion on the possibilities of strengthening social cohesion within the society is well-founded. The public clearly distinguish between social policies' tools (2nd factor), which are considered important (this could be interpreted as a support to the idea of a strong social state), and the 1st factor (law, economy, politics and environment). The public perceive both fields as mutually interconnected areas, mutually interdependent and complementary "policies" and assign to them high importance in the area of social cohesion strengthening. This is not relying on the State (as in the case of social policies); these ideas are tied to the expected modernization of the State as an institution and the modernization of the whole society as such.

The third factor unites in one dimension the support of education, culture and arts together with the spirituality and national awareness. The common dominator here is the cultivation of the society; well cultivated society can guarantee social cohesion; we meet here with an ideal of harmonic development of free personalities and society consisting of such individuals. The importance of the items listed (with the exception of "increase of education level", which certainly reaches out to social mobility and stratification) is lower in comparison to average "policies" from the above mentioned factors; however, the conviction of most public is that supporting given areas will bring positive effects.

Conclusions

The analytic report maps the situation in the Czech Republic with a special emphasis put on the developments of the past decade. It is based largely on official information gathered and published by the Czech Statistical Office combined and complemented by data from specialized surveys carried out mostly by the Sociology Institute of the Czech Academy of Science under the framework of projects focusing on social structure and stratification, surveys examining the issue of social cohesion and social justice (see the introductory list of available data sources).

The results bring a quite positive picture of the current state of the Czech society, which is certainly related to the general economic prosperity of recent years (influenced, inter alia, also by the CR accession to the EU).

The level of existing social inequality is acceptable for most of the Czech population and it does not generate large social tensions. Even though the level of social cohesion and social trust is not very high, this (self-)reflexion does not lead to marked social tensions.

However, social and public policies have not succeeded to prevent the social exclusion of certain groups - Romas, immigrants, long-term unemployed and their families, single pensioners etc. Nevertheless, we may question the degree of this exclusion in comparison with the average population, e.g. in the area of living standards. The public opinion reflects the situation of these groups but, with few exceptions (relations to Romas, immigrants and socially unadaptable people), it continues to play the role of a passive observer.

Statistical Appendix

Table P.1: Changes in the employment structure since 1948 (in thousand)

Year	Productive age	EA total	EA in productive age	Unemployed	EA in post-productive age	Production sector	Non-production sector	
1948	5 440	3 953	3 545	-	300	3 439	545	
1960	5 391	4 447	3 891	-	484	3 720	730	
1970	5 611	4 834	4 322	-	452	3 880	1 045	
1980	5 836	4 983	4 484	-	484	3 884	1 178	
1990	6 029	5 436	4 588	39	518	3 938	1 483	
						Primary	Secondary	Tertiary
1990						819	2 241	2 290
1992	6 150	5 170	4 890	133	279	550	2 081	2 296
1994	6 212	5 155	4 878	166	276	440	1 962	2 480
1996		5 210		186		389	1 979	2 674
1998		5 246		386		340	1 921	2 612
2001		5 170		406	144*	291	1 847	2 626
2003		5 136		409	169*	261	1 807	2 659

Sources: Data from 1948-1980: Historical Statistical Yearbook, 1990-1998 : relevant Statistical Yearbooks, 2001, 2003: specific surveys on workforce

* 60 years and older

Note: EA include also women on maternity leave, unemployed registered at Employment Centres. The number of women on maternity leave in 1990 was approximately 300.000 and 150.000 in 1998.

Table P.2: Socio-economic status

	Total	Employees	Employers	Self-employed	Cooperative members	Helpers
1993/94	5 044	4 400	147	327	155	14
		87,2%	2,9%	6,5%	3,1%	0,3%
1998	4 802	4 052	203	462	59	25
		84,4%	4,2%	9,6%	1,2%	0,5%
2003	4 727	3 894	193	578	28	33
		82,4%	4,1%	12,2%	0,6%	0,7%
2004	4 700	3 881	188	573	25	31
		82,6%	4,0%	12,2%	0,5%	0,7%

Source: Selective surveys on work force in relevant years, CSO

Table P.3: Unemployed with previous work experience: CZ.ISCO-88, 2005

	Unemployed, total		Incl. female	
	Thousand persons	%	Thousand persons	%
Total	311,1	100,0	169,0	100,0
CZ- ISCO-88:				
<i>Law-makers, senior officials and managers</i>	6,0	1,9	2,7	1,6
<i>Professionals</i>	9,4	3,0	5,5	3,2
<i>Technicians and associate professionals</i>	32,6	10,5	21,9	13,0
<i>Clerks</i>	19,6	6,3	15,4	9,1
<i>Service workers and shop and market sales workers</i>	61,0	19,6	47,3	28,0
<i>Skilled agricultural and forestry workers</i>	7,8	2,5	3,9	2,3
<i>Craft and related trades workers</i>	56,0	18,0	15,6	9,2
<i>Plant and machine operators and assemblers</i>	45,3	14,6	19,9	11,8
<i>Elementary occupations</i>	72,5	23,3	36,6	21,7
<i>Armed forces</i>	0,5	0,2	-	-

Table P.4. Unemployed: distribution by their status before unemployment, period and mode of search for employment, 2005

	<i>Unemployed, total</i>		<i>Incl. female</i>	
	<i>Thousand persons</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Thousand persons</i>	<i>%</i>
Total	410,2	100,0	223,5	100,0
<i>Persons, who found job, but its commencement is fixed for later date</i>	14,2	3,5	6,7	3,0
<i>Persons seeking employment</i>	396,0	96,5	216,8	97,0
Duration of search for employment:				
<i>Up to and incl. 3 months</i>	58,8	14,3	30,7	13,7
<i>Over 3 to 6 months</i>	53,2	13,0	28,8	12,9
<i>Over 6 months to 1 year</i>	78,3	19,1	42,9	19,2
<i>Over 1 year to 2 years</i>	85,5	20,8	46,6	20,8
<i>Over 2 years</i>	134,2	32,7	74,4	33,3
Methods of seeking employment				
The person:				
<i>Contacted labour office to find work</i>	364,8	88,9	199,2	89,1
<i>Studied job advertisements</i>	345,7	84,3	190,8	85,4
<i>Asked friends, relatives</i>	354,2	86,4	193,9	86,7
<i>Applied to employers directly</i>	294,6	71,8	156,4	70,0
<i>Went for a test, interview or examination</i>	119,7	29,2	66,9	29,9
Activity status before seeking employment:				
<i>Employee, incl. producers</i>				
<i>Cooperative member</i>	250,6	61,1	128,1	57,3
<i>Self-employed, incl. family workers</i>	20,5	5,0	9,1	4,1
<i>Education or training</i>	52,4	12,8	23,0	10,3
<i>Maternity and paternity leave</i>	23,2	5,6	23,2	10,4
<i>Retirement</i>	8,2	2,0	5,3	2,4

Table P.5: Comparison of income differences for professional groups (ISCO)

	1984*	1992**	1996*	2001*	z-score
11 Law-makers and high officials	0,33	1,01	1,41	21465	0,81
12 Managers and heads of large organizations	1,18	1,15	2,02	33811	2,44
13 Managers and heads of small companies and organizations		1,20	1,45	23117	1,04
21 Scientists and expert in physical science, architects and technical engineers	1,04	0,78	0,83	22614	0,96
22 Scientists and experts in biology and medicine	1,03	0,44	0,97	21243	0,78
23 Expert pedagogic workers	-0,09	-0,05	0,22	14061	-0,14
24 Other experts	0,11	0,47	1,04	23514	1,08
31 Technicians in physical and technical areas	0,54	0,22	0,42	18349	0,40
32 Technicians in biology and medicine (nurses)	-0,41	-0,26	-0,05	13080	-0,26
33 Educators, instructors		-0,23	-0,08	11937	-0,42
34 Other technical workers		0,16	0,19	15670	0,06
41 Lower administrative workers	-0,40	-0,25	-0,15	12588	-0,34
42 Clerks in service field and business	-0,16	-0,10	-0,02	13095	-0,26
51 Attendants	-0,90	-0,15	-0,30	9894	-0,68
52 Shop assistants	-0,58	-0,28	-0,40	9876	-0,68
61 Qualified workers in agriculture and forestry	0,24	-0,32	-0,35	10096	-0,66
62 Other agriculture workers	-0,08	-0,56	-0,57		
71 Qualified workers in minerals production, construction workers	0,51	0,31	0,06	13385	-0,22
72 Qualified metal workers and machinery workers	0,20	-0,01	0,01	14250	-0,12
73 Qualified workers in art fields and polygraph	-0,27	0,02	0,04	12507	-0,34
74 Qualified workers in other industrial areas	-0,47	-0,21	-0,34	9779	-0,70
81 Attendant of industrial facilities		-0,10	-0,20	14200	-0,12
82 Attendant of stationary facilities and assemblage		-0,23	-0,29	11979	-0,42
83 Drivers and attendant of mobile machines	0,25	-0,02	-0,05	13223	-0,24
91 Assistant workers - sale and services	-0,63	-0,51	-0,68	7674	-0,98
92 Assistant workers - agriculture and forestry	-0,51	-0,50	-0,56	9349	-0,76

93 Assistant workers - industry, construction and transportation	-0,02	-0,46	-0,52	10390	-0,62
01 Army			0,53		
Average income in CZK	3100	4727	12341	15187	
Number of respondents	6594	14442	28530	355440	

Source: Income micro-census, 1984, 1992, 1996; Year 2000 – ISPV (Information system on the average income of employees), CSO, own calculation

* gross income, **net income

Note: Professional groups have been determined (as of 1992) by the 1st and 2nd ISCO classification code; in 1984, transfer from the original JKZ classification was made within extent possible

Table P.6: Results of regression analyses of the impact of selected variables on the natural logarithm on monthly work income form main employment - beta coefficient

	1978	1984	1993	1999
Sex	0,49	0,41	0,33	0,33
Education	0,13	0,11	0,15	0,19
Complexity of work	0,10	0,04	0,17	0,13
Status within management	0,14	0,14	0,17	0,20
Age	0,01	0,14	-0,04	-0,05
% of explained variation	29,3	28,2	31,2	33,0

Source: Surveys on Social Structure, Czech Academy of Science, quoted from: M.Tuček et al. Dynamika české společnosti a osudy lidí na přelomu tisíciletí, SLON, Praha 2003

Note: Because of the greatly asymmetric distribution of work income, it is common to apply regression model on natural logarithm .

Table P.7: Overview of groupings according to status patterns in 1999 (listed from the lowest to the highest)*

Pattern	%	Characteristics of social status	Size	Consistence
111	21,6	Low in all three dimensions	Large	Consistent
112+113	17,8	Low education; no decision-making, middle level income, exceptionally higher	Large	Inconsistent
121+131	3,8	Low education; middle (exceptionally higher) decision-making, middle level income	Small	Half-consistent
122+132	5,8	Low education; middle (exceptionally higher) decision-making, middle level income	Middle	Inconsistent
123+133	2,3	Low education; middle (exceptionally higher) decision-making, higher income	Small	Inconsistent
211	11,5	SGCE; no decision making; low income	Large	Inconsistent
212	10,7	SGCE; no decision making; middle income	Large	Half-consistent
223+213	3,9	SGCE; middle, sometimes no decision making; higher income	Small	Inconsistent
221+231	2,5	SGCE; middle (exceptionally higher) decision making; lower income	Small	Inconsistent
222+232	7,8	SGCE; middle, sometimes higher decision making; middle level income	Small	Consistent
311+321	2,1	University degree; no, sometime middle decision making; lower income	Small	Inconsistent
312+322	4,6	University degree; middle (exceptionally higher) decision making, middle income	Middle	Inconsistent
323+313	2,7	University degree; no or sometimes middle decision making; middle income	Small	Half-consistent
332+331	1,0	University degree; higher decision making; middle	Very small	Inconsistent

		(exceptionally lower) income		
333+233	1,9	University degree or SGCE; higher decision making; higher income	Small	Half-consistent

Sources: 10 Years of Transformation of the Czech Society, corpus of 4,750 persons aged 20-69, random selection, Institute of Sociology, Czech Academy of Science 1999; Social Stratification in the Eastern Europe, 1993

* As inconsistent have been marked patterns, where the deflexion in any two dimensions exceeds 1 and where income differs from education by at least one degree. As half-consistent are considered cases, where the participation in the decision-making process differs by one point from the education. We have marked in this manner groups of persons with the same level of education and income but with different level of participation in the decision making process. This type of differences corresponds to the steep nature of the pyramid in comparison with the oval scheme of education and the related distribution of work complexity. In pattern No. 15, half-consistence refers to the certain ratio of people with secondary education in otherwise consistent group.

Table P.8: Educational inter-generation stability (auto-reproduction); increase/decrease in the overall population aged 20-69 in ten-year age groups (in %)

	Total	1932-41	1942-51	1952-61	1962-71	1972-81*
<i>Stability</i>						
Lower	41,7	64,7	49,7	50,0	35,6	23,0
Secondary	14,5	4,5	9,9	9,7	19,6	22,7
Tertiary	4,7	1,2	2,5	2,8	5,2	9,2
	60,9	70,4	62,1	62,5	60,4	55,9
<i>Increase</i>						
Lower-secondary	16,6	17,2	21,7	17,2	15,1	13,0
Secondary-tertiary	4,6	3,3	3,9	3,4	5,3	6,1
Lower-tertiary	2,7	3,9	3,6	1,9	3,5	1,5
	23,9	24,4	29,2	22,5	23,8	20,6
<i>Decrease</i>						
Secondary-lower	8,3	3,8	4,6	10,4	9,1	10,9
Tertiary-secondary	5,4	0,6	3,2	3,1	5,0	11,5
Tertiary-lower	1,5	0,8	0,9	1,5	1,7	2,1
	15,2	5,2	8,7	15,0	15,8	24,5
N	4 340	513	882	954	826	1 165
RS	0,47	0,35	0,41	0,37	0,45	0,48

Source: 10 Years of Transformation of the Czech Society, corpus of 4.750 persons aged 20-69, random selection, Institute of Sociology, Czech Academy of Science

* Students aged 21 and more are considered as persons with university education.

Table P.9: resulting structure of professional prestige from surveys after 1989*

1990		1990	1992		2003		MPP
Position		Points	Points	Position	Points		
1.	Medical doctor in a large hospital	80,6	79,2	1.	88,2	1.	78
2.	Minister	77,5	77,9	2.	78,1	3.	64
3.	University professor	74,8	76,8	3.	79,5	2.	78
4.	Scientist	71,7	72,2	4.	75,9	4.	69
5.	Company manager	70,0	71,4	5.	74,0	5.	70
6.	Primary school teacher	66,8	66,3	7.	63,2	9.	57
7.	Nurse	66,3	63,4	8.	59,6	12.	44
8.	Lawyer, advocate	65,8	69,8	6.	72,2	6.	73

9.	Miner	63,4	51,2	18.	33,8	31.	34
10.	Agronomist	58,7	56,4	13.	53,7	14.	47
11.	Engineer	58,5	60,2	9.	62,0	11.	47
12.	Engineman	57,9	51,2	17.	46,4	22.	43
13.	Private farmer	54,5	48,2	20.	42,5	26.	38
14.	Writer	54,5	59,7	10.	62,4	10.	58
15.	Factory master	53,7	47,5	21.	44,1	23.	48
16.	Journalist	50,0	57,8	11.	57,6	13.	45
17.	Shop owner	48,7	49,9	19.	50,9	17.	46
18.	Professional sportsman	48,7	52,1	16.	66,6	8.	50
19.	Policeman	47,8	56,9	12.	53,4	15.	40
20.	Computer operator**	47,6	53,3	14.	66,7	7.	53
21.	Bricklayer	47,6	43,3	25.	35,5	29.	36
22.	Car mechanic	47,1	45,2	23.	39,8	27.	43
23.	Tractor driver	48,5	38,4	32.	27,8	36.	31
24.	Truck driver	45,4	40,6	28.	35,4	30.	33
25.	Lather	44,9	37,6	33.	30,6	35.	27
26.	Fitter	44,3	39,4	31.	33,7	33.	43
27.	Priest, clergyman	43,9	46,0	22.	50,2	20.	60
28.	Tailor	43,3	36,7	34.	31,6	34.	40
29.	TV mechanic	42,7	40,1	29.	36,5	28.	36
30.	Accountant	42,3	44,7	24.	50,6	18.	45
31.	Bank clerk	41,6	52,7	15.	43,9	24.	50
32.	Secretary	29,5	36,1	35.	42,7	25.	42
33.	Professional soldier	27,9	41,4	26.	50,7	19.	44
34.	Waiter	27,8	34,2	36.	33,7	32.	21
35.	District office worker	27,1	39,5	30.	49,1	21.	51
36.	Cleaning lady	24,0	19,4	38.	16,1	38.	21
37.	Unqualified worker	23,4	20,1	37.	18,9	37.	19
38.	Political party secretary	20,3	41,2	27.	53,1	16.	63
39.	Colporteur	18,7	14,7	39.	15,7	39.	24

Source: Social Differences and Professional Prestige, 1990, N(CR)=880, Establishment of Job Market 1992 (Institute of Social and Political Science, Charles University), N=1597, FF UK, Universitas, N=1560

* In 1992 and 2003, the list of professional was identical and included seventy professions; in 1991, a slightly amended list of professions included fifty professions. Here we use an overlapping set of professions.

** In 1990, computer programmers gained 54.6 points (13); in 1992, this profession has not been included. In 2003, operators have not been included.

*** MMP - international index of professional prestige established on the basis of approximately fifty researches from various developed countries in 1980's.

Table P.10: Elections into the Chamber of Deputies, 2 and 3 June 2006; election results

	Political party Name and number	Acronym	Number of votes	%	Seats	
1	Strana zdravého rozumu	SZR	24 828	0,46	-	<i>Common Sense Party</i>
2	České hnutí za národní jednotu	ČHNJ	216	0,00	-	<i>Czech Movement for National Unity</i>
3	Balbínova poetická strana	BPS	6 897	0,12	-	<i>Balbín's Poetic Party</i>
4	Liberální reformní strana	LiRA	253	0,00	-	<i>Liberal Reform Party</i>
5	Právo a Spravedlnost	PaS	12 756	0,23	-	<i>Law and Justice</i>
6	NEZÁVISLÍ	NEZ	33 030	0,61	-	<i>THE INDEPENDENT</i>
7	Česká pravice	ČP	395	0,00	-	<i>Czech Right</i>
8	Koruna Česká	KČ	7 293	0,13	-	<i>Czech Crown</i>
9	Občanská demokratická	ODS	1 892 475	35,38	81	<i>Civic Democratic</i>

	strana					Party
10	Česká strana sociálně demokratická	ČSSD	1 728 827	32,32	74	Czech Social Democratic Party
11	SNK Evropští demokraté	SNK ED	111 724	2,08	-	SNK European Democrats
12	Unie svobody - Demokratická unie	US-DEU	16 457	0,30	-	Freedom Union - Democratic Union
13	Helax-Ostrava se baví	HOB	1 375	0,02	-	Helax-Ostrava's Having Fun
14	Pravý Blok	PB	20 382	0,38	-	Right Block
15	4 VIZE - www.4vize.cz	4 VIZE	3 109	0,05	-	4 VISIONS - www.4vize.cz
16	Česká strana národně socialistická	ČSNS2005	1 387	0,02	-	Czech National Socialist Party
17	Moravané	M	12 552	0,23	-	Moravians
18	Strana zelených	SZ	336 487	6,29	6	Green Party
19	Humanistická strana	H.S.	857	0,01	-	Humanistic Party
20	Komunistická strana Čech a Moravy	KSCM	685 328	12,81	26	Communist Party of Bohemia and Moravia
21	Koalice pro Českou republiku	Koal_ČR	8 140	0,15	-	Coalition for the Czech Republic
22	Národní strana	NS	9 341	0,17	-	National Party
23	Folklor i Společnost	FiS	574	0,01	-	Folklore and Society
24	Křesťanská a demokratická unie - Československá strana lidová	KDU-ČSL	386 706	7,22	13	Christian Democratic Union - Czechoslovak People's Party
25	NEZÁVISLÍ DEMOKRATÉ	NEZ/DEM	36 708	0,68	-	INDEPENDENT DEMOCRATS
26	STRANA ROVNOST ŠANCI	SRS	10 879	0,20	-	EQUAL OPPORTUNITIES PARTY

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