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POLICY DEPARTMENT
STRUCTURAL AND COHESION POLICIES **B**

Agriculture and Rural Development



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**SOCIAL INCLUSION IN
EU PUBLIC TRANSPORT**

STUDY





DIRECTORATE-GENERAL FOR INTERNAL POLICIES
POLICY DEPARTMENT B: STRUCTURAL AND COHESION POLICIES

TRANSPORT AND TOURISM

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STUDY

This document was requested by the European Parliament's Committee on Transport and Tourism.

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POLICY DEPARTMENT B: STRUCTURAL AND COHESION POLICIES

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Abstract

This report describes the links between transport and social inclusion according to the recent literature and provides evidence regarding the population groups at greater risk of social and transport exclusion. It also provides examples of good practice in improving public transport accessibility for the most vulnerable users, in order to derive some indications for improvement of the EU role in facilitating the mainstreaming of social inclusion issues in public transport policies.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AROPE	At risk of poverty or social exclusion
CTP	Common Transport Policy
DfT	Department for Transport
EC	European Commission
EIGE	European Institute for Gender Equality
EP	European Parliament
ERDF	European Regional Development Fund
ESF	European Social Fund
EU	European Union
EU-SILC	European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions
HR	Croatia
ISCED	International Standard Classification of Education
ITS	Intelligent Transport System
MEPs	Members of the European Parliament
NEET	Not in Education, Employment and Training
NGOs	Non-governmental organizations
PT	Public Transport
TRIP	Transport Research & Innovation Portal
UITP	International Association of Public Transport

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

For a long time the social dimension of public transport has received relatively little attention in the academic literature and policy-making. In the near future the social and transport challenges represented by demographic ageing, poverty, migration and geographical disadvantage will increase. The social role of transport needs to be incorporated into transport policies, with closer attention to the specific mobility needs of the most vulnerable user groups. Improved accessibility for the elderly and people with reduced mobility, as well as higher quality services and lower fares for all, must be considered, together with improved efficiency to keep public transport financially viable. In addition, new environmentally and energy-efficient public transport services and the promotion of their use are essential in order to reduce the negative impact of car use.

This report provides an overview of the literature and empirical evidence of the links between public transport and social inclusion. The main results are the following:

- Public transport plays a crucial role in exacerbating or mitigating the social exclusion of vulnerable and disadvantaged groups, affecting their access to basic services, as well as employment and social relationships. The negative effects of the transport system on the environment, safety and public health are also likely to affect disadvantaged groups disproportionately.
- The disadvantaged/vulnerable groups present different needs (access to education, work, healthcare, etc.), and are affected in different ways by the existing transport barriers. Public transport policies/actions must therefore be specifically tailored to user needs and criticalities. There is, however, still too little research on and attention to the mobility needs of disadvantaged population groups.
- Public transport is not the only way to reduce the mobility problems of disadvantaged groups. Addressing mobility issues related to social inclusion requires interaction between transport and welfare policies, which could mean more complex and lengthy decision-making processes.
- New transport technologies may support public transport policies in mitigating social exclusion and provide flexible cost-effective services. Increasing the involvement of private providers and NGOs with voluntary work may also yield low-cost solutions to specific needs.
- Given the increasing demand for greater attention towards the mobility and accessibility needs of disadvantaged population groups and territorial areas, there is greater awareness at EU and national/local level of the importance of transport to social inclusion. Some measures have been implemented in recent years to address the specific needs of these groups, in most cases with the support of EU funds and programmes.

In order to develop an inclusive public transport system it is necessary for accessibility, safety and comfort in transportation modes to become a priority in transport policy. This means improving:

- all stages of the journey, including the walking environment, so that people with mobility impairment can reach and use public transport services;
- the design of transport facilities, addressing the specific needs of vulnerable groups;

- safety and security in public transport, crucial issues which disproportionately affect women and the elderly. The issue of safety should also be considered with regard to the design of car parks and transport stations;
- service provision and pricing structures;
- the capacity of the public authorities to find innovative solutions for transport services, activating and coordinating different transport operators at different levels in order to provide integrated and flexible transport services reaching different destinations and enabling the most vulnerable user groups to arrange both short- and long-distance and cross-border travel;
- technological devices to support networking and coordination activities and improve transport efficiency and flexibility in responding to different mobility needs and patterns at relatively low cost.

The EU institutions can play a very important role in addressing all these issues:

- The EU institutions could play a more prominent coordination role in the field of social and transport policies on the basis of Article 9 of the Lisbon Treaty (TFEU), e.g. the horizontal social clause of the Lisbon Treaty calling for intensified focus on the social dimension of EU policies.
- They can mainstream an inclusive approach in public transport by supporting capacity-building with specific guidelines and common EU standards, and by developing an accessibility certification system for vehicles, transport infrastructure, information and transport pricing.
- They can promote and financially support awareness-raising measures and the exchange of good practices.
- They can improve the European statistical system with data disaggregated by type of transport user in order to monitor the evolution of public transport systems, and support technical and policy evaluation research designed to assess the economic and social benefits (costs) of public transport in European countries.
- Finally, they should promote participation by citizens in decision-making in order to take into account the needs of groups and areas at risk of marginalisation and social exclusion. It is essential to involve them in consultation, project-planning and decision-making processes, at least in the procedures applicable to projects/programmes co-financed with European funds.

Various tools are available to support these policies, for example:

- Legislation may require accessibility to be considered in transport regulation, and EU standards could become mandatory when European Funds are being used, as in the case of the Structural Funds, where legal requirements include accessibility as a non-negotiable condition of funding.
- European Structural Funds can be used to promote integrated planning of transport and social inclusion policies and to support pilot programmes/projects addressing the accessibility needs of disadvantaged groups and areas. EU programmes for innovation in the transport system (e.g. Horizon 2020) could prioritise EU funding to transport-related research projects aimed at enhancing transport accessibility for vulnerable groups and promoting the dissemination of applied research results on transport planning.

1. INTRODUCTION

Efficient transport is of strategic importance for competitiveness, economic growth and job creation. Transport is also vital to the quality of our daily lives, making places accessible and bringing people together (European Commission, 2014e). Hundreds of millions of passengers currently travel across Europe every year by different modes of collective transport¹; thus transport plays a key role in people's mobility, access to job opportunities, distribution of goods and civic participation, as well as areas such as leisure and tourism and access to knowledge and training. It is also fundamental for social interactions with family and friends which, in turn, are important to health and wellbeing.

Public transport not only reduces urban congestion and damage to the environment, but also contributes to social and territorial cohesion within the European Union. However, for a long time the social dimension of public transport has received relatively little attention in the academic literature and policy-making.

Access to public transport is particularly important for the many people who do not own or cannot use a car, such as the disabled, the elderly, children and young people, women and people on low incomes. For these user groups the availability, accessibility and affordability of public transport has a major role to play in improving their quality of life and social inclusion, especially if they live in peripheral urban areas. Problems of poor access to transport are also particularly severe in rural, mountain and remote areas, where a "circle of decline" (OECD, 2006) is observed, driven by a number of interacting factors that can impede local development and employment and make it difficult to establish sustainable basic services.

The importance of transport for social inclusion has recently been considered in a number of transport policies. In the near future the challenges related to demographic trends (ageing and migration, to begin with), increasing poverty and environmental sustainability will become even more demanding for public transport. The social role of transport must be internalised in transport policies, with closer attention to the specific mobility needs of the most vulnerable user groups. Improved accessibility for the elderly and people with reduced mobility, as well as higher-quality services and lower fares for all, need to be considered, together with improved efficiency in order to keep public transport financially viable. In addition, new environmentally and energy-efficient public transport services and the promotion of their attractiveness are essential to reducing the negative impact of car use (European Union, 2013).

This report provides a synthetic review of the literature and empirical evidence of the links between public transport and social inclusion. Following this introduction, Chapter 2 describes the links between transport and social inclusion according to the recent literature and provides evidence regarding the population groups at greater risk of social and transport exclusion. Chapter 3 provides examples of good practice in improving public transport accessibility for the most vulnerable users. The concluding Chapter 4 summarises

¹ The latest data provided by the UITP (2014) show that local public transport carried nearly 57 billion passengers in 2012 in the EU and made about 182 million journeys in the average working day. According to these figures, there were 150 annual public transport journeys per urban inhabitant in the EU: on average 3 journeys every week per inhabitant. The majority of public transport journeys are undertaken via urban and suburban bus systems (56% of the total), while the rest is made up by rail-based modes: trams or light rail systems account for 14%, metro systems for 16%, while suburban railways make up the remaining 14% of the total of journeys. There is, however, a wide variation across EU Member States both in the demand for transport and in the share of the modal split.

the evidence on exclusion factors and policy responses with a view to deriving some indications for improvement of the EU role in facilitating the mainstreaming of social inclusion issues in public transport policies. The report is completed with the three annexes, which provide additional data on poverty and social exclusion (Annex 1), a summary of EU policy documents and regulations addressing the social dimension of transport policies (Annex 2) and a list of EU projects on transport and social inclusion (Annex 3).

2. MAIN ISSUES OF TRANSPORT-RELATED SOCIAL INCLUSION/EXCLUSION

KEY FINDINGS

- The role of transport as a potential determinant and contributing factor in creating social exclusion or supporting social inclusion is well documented in the socioeconomic literature.
- The groups more at risk of social exclusion (disabled people, the elderly, families with children, low-income people, migrants, women) are particularly vulnerable to transport disadvantage.
- People facing transport or social disadvantage, or both, may have difficulties with accessing services, goods, work and education, and hence find themselves most at risk of social exclusion.
- Transport-related problems vary according to the type of area (urban or rural) and affect socially disadvantaged groups in different ways and measure.
- For children and young people living in rural or disadvantaged areas and from low-income families, poor availability and high costs of public transport may prevent access to education, job opportunities, friends and social activities.
- For older people, especially those living in rural areas, availability and easy access to public transport plays a crucial role in reducing social isolation, supporting an independent life, and giving access to healthcare and basic services.
- For disabled people, public transport is often experienced as inaccessible due to the lack of accessible vehicles and transport stations, the poor quality of pedestrian environments, and inadequate transport information systems.
- For women, safe/secure, affordable and reliable transport services play a crucial role in empowerment, access to job opportunities and independence.
- Migrants rely heavily on public transport in everyday life. Language barriers and discrimination, together with poor transport availability, are the main barriers encountered by migrants and ethnic minorities.
- For people on low incomes and the unemployed, and especially those living in deprived areas, availability of public transport and affordable fares affect employment opportunities and access to basic services.
- People living in remote, low-density and rural areas usually have to cope with poor and infrequent public transport services. The provision of public transport services to these areas enables the local population to retain their independence and access basic services and facilities, limiting the risk of depopulation.

2.1 Social inclusion/exclusion: a definition

Social inclusion is a firmly rooted concept in EU policies and the fight against poverty and social exclusion is at the heart of the Europe 2020 strategy for smart, sustainable and inclusive growth (COM(2010) 2020 final 3.3.2010)².

² Among the key objectives (headline targets) of the EU 2020 strategy is the reduction of the number of people at risk of poverty or social exclusion by 20 million by 2020 (COM(2010) 2020 final 3.3.2010).

Social inclusion is a multidimensional concept, involving many different aspects and usually addressed with a view to overcoming social exclusion. The socioeconomic literature abounds in studies analysing the determinants and effects of social exclusion. In particular, a number of definitions of social exclusion (and of social inclusion) have been developed to analyse time- and context-specific issues related to exclusion. All definitions emphasise the multidimensionality of social exclusion, which goes beyond material poverty to encompass other forms of social disadvantage such as a lack of regular and equal access to education, employment, healthcare and societal participation.

A clear definition of social inclusion and social exclusion is provided by the European Commission in the 2004 Joint report on Social Inclusion, as shown in the box below.

Box 2.1: Social inclusion/exclusion, European Commission definitions

In the Joint Report on Social Inclusion (2004), the European Commission provided the following definitions of social inclusion and social exclusion:

Social inclusion "is a process which ensures that those at risk of poverty and social exclusion gain the opportunities and resources necessary to participate fully in economic, social and cultural life and to enjoy a standard of living and well-being that is considered normal in the society in which they live. It ensures that they have greater participation in decision making which affects their lives and access to their fundamental rights."

Social exclusion "is a process whereby certain individuals are pushed to the edge of society and prevented from participating fully by virtue of their poverty, or lack of basic competencies and lifelong learning opportunities, or as a result of discrimination. This distances them from job, income and education opportunities as well as social and community networks and activities. They have little access to power and decision-making bodies and thus often feeling powerless and unable to take control over the decisions that affect their day to day lives."

Source: Council (2004), joint report by the Commission and the Council on social inclusion, Council document 7101/04, March 2004, Brussels.

Burchardt, et al. (1999) identify four dimensions of exclusion: (i) the inability to purchase goods and services; (ii) the inability to participate in economically or socially valuable activities; (iii) the lack of involvement in local or national decision-making; and (iv) the lack of interaction with friends, family and community.

The UK Social Exclusion Unit SEU (2003)³ states that "social exclusion is what can happen when people or areas suffer from a combination of linked problems such as unemployment, poor skills, low incomes, poor housing, high crime, poor health and family breakdown."

Particularly interesting for our purposes is the definition of social exclusion provided by Kenyon et al. (2003)⁴, which stresses the key role of mobility in contemporary societies: "social exclusion is the process by which people are prevented from participating in the economic, political and social life of the community because of reduced accessibility to opportunities, services and social networks, due in whole or part to insufficient mobility in a society and environment built around the assumption of high mobility."

³ Social Exclusion Unit (2003), Making the connections: final report on transport and social exclusion, Stationery Office, London.

⁴ Kenyon, K., Lyons G., Rafferty, J. (2003), Transport and social exclusion: investigating the possibility of promoting social exclusion through virtual mobility, Journal of Transport Geography, vol. 10, pp 207-219.

Moreover, the Nobel Laureate economist Amartya Sen, drawing attention to the fundamental link between development and freedom, emphasised that poverty must be seen as the deprivation of basic capabilities rather than merely as lowness of income (Sen, 2000).

2.2 The role of transport in social exclusion

In socioeconomic research there is a wide consensus on the key role that mobility plays in social inclusion/exclusion. The role of transport as a potential determinant and contributing factor in creating social exclusion or supporting social inclusion is also well accepted and documented⁵. Several authors have identified the spatial, temporal, personal, psychological, cost and information barriers with which transport provisions can impact on social exclusion⁶. In particular Church et al. (2000) identify seven transport-related categories of social exclusion, described in Box 2.2.

Box 2.2: Transport-related categories of social exclusion

1. Physical exclusion: whereby physical barriers, such as vehicle design, lack of disabled facilities or lack of timetable information hamper the accessibility of transport services.
2. Geographical exclusion: living in rural areas or in peripheral urban estates can prevent access to transport services.
3. Exclusion from facilities: distance from key facilities such as shops, schools, healthcare or leisure services can impede access to them.
4. Economic exclusion: the high monetary costs of travel can prevent or limit access to facilities or employment and thus impact on incomes.
5. Time-based exclusion: combined demands on time, such as combined work, household and child-care duties, reduce the time available for travel (often referred to as time-poverty in the literature).
6. Fear-based exclusion: fears for personal safety can preclude the use of public spaces and/or transport services.
7. Space exclusion: inadequate security or space design/management can prevent certain groups from accessing public spaces, e.g. first-class waiting rooms at stations.

Source: Church et al. (2000) cited in Lucas (2012), *Transport and Social Exclusion: Where Are We Now?*, *Transport Policy*, vol.20, pp 105–113.

Other studies have focused on the main social dimensions affected by mobility, transport provision and accessibility.

For example, the UK Social Exclusion Unit (SEU, 2003) evidenced that problems with transport and the location and delivery of services may contribute to and exacerbate social exclusion by preventing people from participating in work or learning and from accessing healthcare, food shopping and other local activities. Moreover the SEU emphasised that

⁵ See for example: Social Exclusion Unit (2003), *Making the connections: final report on transport and social exclusion*, Stationery Office, London; Church, A., Frost, M., Sullivan, K. (2000), *Transport and social exclusion in London*, *Transport Policy*, 7; Kenyon, K., Lyons G., Rafferty, J. (2003), *Transport and social exclusion: investigating the possibility of promoting social exclusion through virtual mobility*, *Journal of Transport Geography* vol.10; European Parliament (2010), *The future of sustainable passenger transport - Note presented and discussed in a workshop on 'The Future of Transport' held on 2 December 2009*, available at [http://www.europarl.europa.eu/RegData/etudes/note/join/2010/431579/IPOL-TRAN_NT\(2010\)431579_EN.pdf](http://www.europarl.europa.eu/RegData/etudes/note/join/2010/431579/IPOL-TRAN_NT(2010)431579_EN.pdf)

⁶ Hine, J. And Mitchell, F. (2003), *Transport Disadvantage and Social Exclusion: Exclusionary Mechanisms in Transport in Urban Scotland Aldershot, United Kingdom*: Ashgate; Halden, D., Jones, P, Wixey, S. (2005), *Measuring accessibility as experienced by different socially disadvantaged groups*, *Accessibility Analysis Literature Review Working Paper 3*.

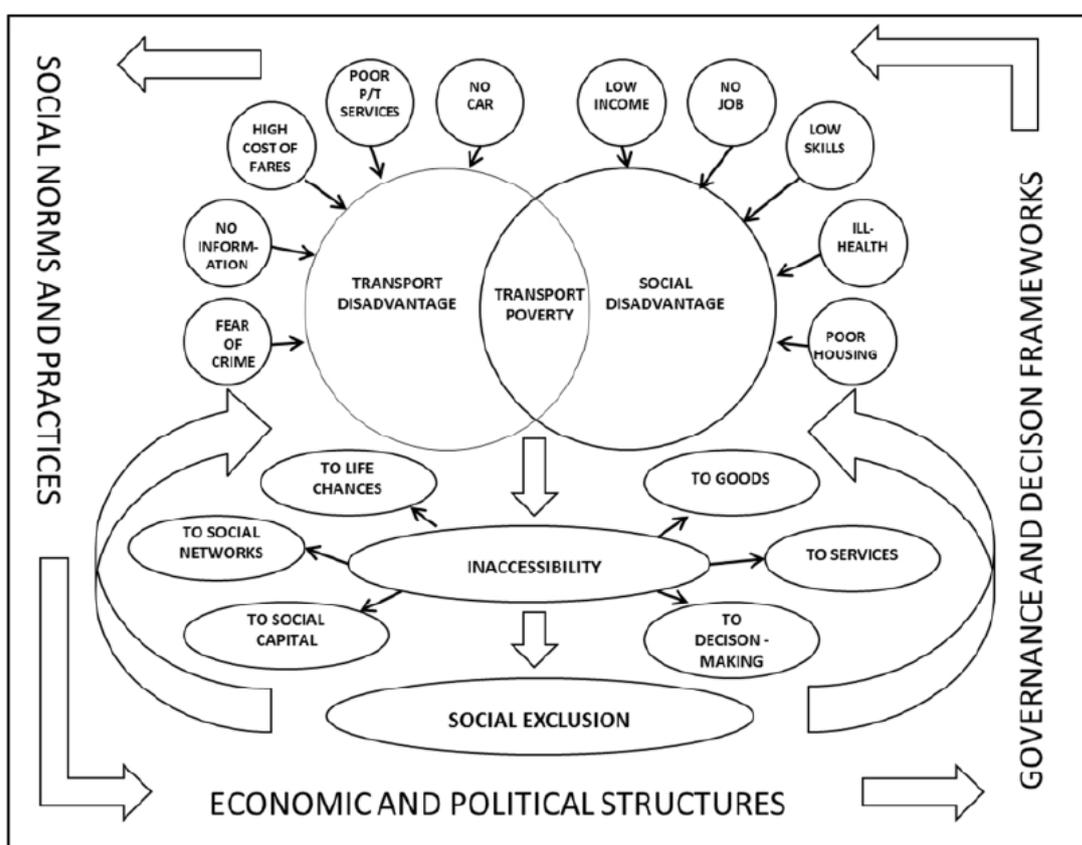
problems can vary according to the type of area – urban or rural – and across different groups of people (disabled people, the elderly, families with children, etc.).

The World Bank (2002) stresses the importance of transport accessibility for social interactions: “accessibility is important, not only for its role in facilitating regular and stable income-earning employment but also for its role as part of the social capital that maintains the social relations forming the safety net of poor people in many societies”.

For a better understanding of the contributing factors and interactions between transport disadvantage, social disadvantage and social exclusion it is useful to refer to the conceptual framework provided by Lucas (2012)⁷ and shown in Figure 2.1.

The figure identifies the main transport-related barriers which affect mobility, and the main socioeconomic determinants of social disadvantage. People facing transport or social disadvantage, or both, may thus have difficulty in accessing services, goods, work or education, and hence find themselves most at risk of social exclusion.

Figure 2.1: Relationship between transport disadvantage, social disadvantage and social exclusion



Source: Lucas (2012), cited in Moore et al. (2013)

⁷ Lucas K., Transport and social exclusion: Where we are now? Transport Policy (2012) doi:10.2016:j.tranpol.2012.01.013

2.3 Groups at greater risk of social and transport exclusion

In the socioeconomic literature there is general agreement on the key factors determining a higher risk of social exclusion and poverty and on the groups at higher risk.

The main risk factors affecting social exclusion and poverty are: employment conditions, education level, household composition and the level of urbanisation of the area of residence.

Unemployment or a poor-quality job (low-paid, precarious, part-time) may mean an inadequate income, preventing people from participating in social activities. Low levels of education, training and skills limit people's access to quality, well-paid jobs, and are also related to bad health conditions and poor survival rates. Household composition may also have an impact on social exclusion, in that lone parents and large families tend to be at greater risk of poverty. People living in remote or deprived areas have less access to services and job opportunities; furthermore, deprived areas often present higher rates of crime and bad health.

Bradshaw et al. (2004) single out three main macro drivers for social exclusion in the recent past listed in Box 2.3.

Box 2.3: The macro drivers of social exclusion

- (i) demographic factors – such as large youth cohorts, ageing and increased dependency ratios, and family change, particularly the increase in lone-parent families;
- (ii) labour-market factors – increased unemployment and flexibility in the labour market, the dispersion of earnings and concentration of work;
- (iii) policy factors – consisting in the failure of policy in protecting against social exclusion, particularly the failure to uprate benefits in line with the growth in earnings, the abolition of some benefits, a regressive tax system and cuts in expenditure on social services.

Source: Bradshaw et al. (2004), p 100.

In addition, certain intrinsic personal characteristics make some individuals more at risk of social exclusion: disability and illness, belonging to a minority ethnic group or having a migrant background; also at greater risk are women and people with low educational qualifications.

Disability or illness can reduce access to education and employment and to full participation in society. The fact of being a migrant or a member of a minority ethnic group may increase the risks of marginalisation and poverty: discrimination, racism, and cultural and language problems reduce access to good-quality jobs and education, and increase the probability of living in deprived areas. Women face higher risks of poverty than men since they are less likely to be in employment because of care responsibilities, and when they are in work they are usually segregated in low-paid or part-time jobs. The poorly educated are more likely to hold low-paid jobs or to be unemployed.

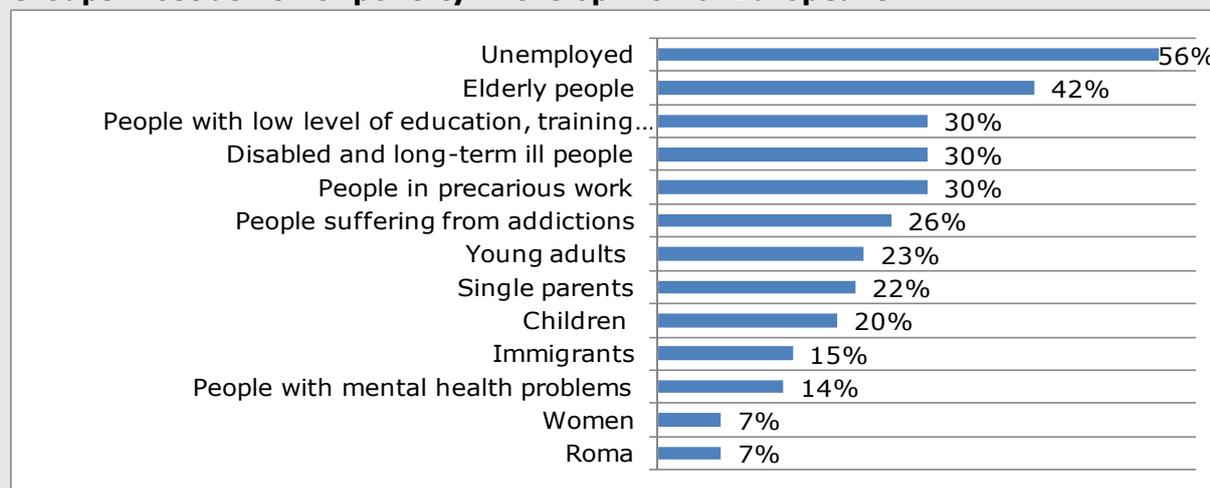
Box 2.4 presents the groups most at risk of poverty according to the answers to a 2010 Eurobarometer Survey.

Box 2.4: Groups most at risk of social exclusion according to popular sentiment

According to popular sentiment, social exclusion and poverty are a widespread phenomenon in contemporary society: 76% of Europeans feel that poverty in their country is widespread. There is, however, a great variation across EU countries: a maximum peak is registered in Hungary, Bulgaria and Romania, where more than 90% of citizens perceive it to be widespread, while the lowest values are registered in Denmark and Cyprus (38%) and in Sweden (33%).

When asked which are the groups most at risk of poverty, Europeans answered that the groups most likely to suffer poverty are the unemployed (56%) and the elderly (42%). Moreover, almost one third of the respondents (30%) consider most at risk of poverty people with low levels of education, those in precarious employment and people with disabilities or suffering from some form of long-term illness. Significant numbers believe other social categories, such as people suffering from addictions (26%), young adults (23%), single parents (22%), children (20%) and immigrants (15%) are at risk as well.

Groups most at risk of poverty in the opinion of Europeans *



*QA10 In your opinion, among the following groups of the population in (our country), which are those most at risk of poverty? (MAX. 4 ANSWERS)

Source: IRS adaption from European Commission (2010), Poverty and Social Exclusion – Report, Special Eurobarometer 355 / Wave 74.1 – TNS Opinion & Social.

The groups more at risk of social exclusion are also particularly subject to transport disadvantage, according to the transport-related literature. Indeed, the affordability and accessibility of public transport may contribute to creating or exacerbating the risk of social exclusion of already disadvantaged groups (e.g. the disabled, the unemployed and the elderly). In their recent study, Moore et al. (2013) classify vulnerable people according to the multidimensionality of social exclusion and classify vulnerable groups as socially disadvantaged and/or transport-disadvantaged, as shown in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1: Population groups more vulnerable to social and transport exclusion

VULNERABLES SEGMENTS		
SOCIALLY DISADVANTAGED	TRANSPORT-DISADVANTAGED	OTHER
Low-income	No car	Women
Unemployed	Rural population	Students
Unskilled	People with disabilities	Children
Single parents	Poor access	
Ethnic minorities		
Elderly		

Source: Moore et al. (2013).

Currie (2011), in reviewing the main literature on transport-related social exclusion, identifies the groups of people typically defined as transport-disadvantaged (Table 2.2). The elderly, young people, the disabled and migrants are the groups most cited. However, other, more specific categories of people are also identified as transport-disadvantaged (e.g. the unemployed and people on low incomes, women, people with limited or no car access)⁸.

Table 2.2: Groups of people typically defined as transport-disadvantaged

GROUP	Clifton and Lucas (2004)	Murray and Davis (2001)	Dodson et al. (2004)	Wixey et al. (2005)	Hurny (2007)	Curries (2004)
No/limited car access	X	X				X
Low-income	X		X	X		X
Unemployed			X	X	X	X
Women	X		X			
Single parents	X				X	
Parents travelling with children				X		
Ethnic minorities	X	X	X	X		
Elderly	X	X	X	X		X
Youth		X	X	X	X	
Students						X
Disabled		X	X	X		X
Outer-urban dwellers			X			
Shift workers				X		

Source: adapted from Currie (2011), table 2.1.2 pp. 20.

⁸ It is to be noted that some people may belong to more than one group identified as transport-disadvantaged. For example, unemployed people could also be on a low income, have no access to a private car and live outside urban areas.

2.4 Statistical evidence on transport modes, poverty and social exclusion

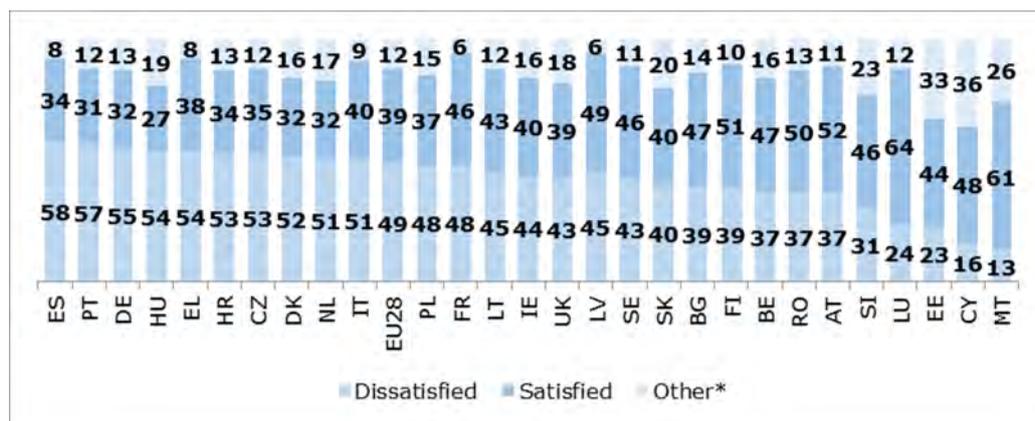
2.4.1 The use of public transport

According to a recent Flash Eurobarometer survey (EC, 2014)⁹, 76% of Europeans have used urban public transport at least once in their lives. Nevertheless, the share of people using public transport frequently is much lower: only 32% use public transport at least once a week. Moreover, the data show an uneven distribution across population groups and areas, students (67% using public transport at least once a week) and inhabitants of large towns (51%) being the most frequent users.

When looking at the daily mobility of Europeans (European Commission, 2013)¹⁰, cars tend to be the prevalent means of transport: half of Europeans use a car every day (50%), which is more than the proportion of those using public transport (16%) or bikes (12%) combined. Daily car use is more common among residents of small towns and rural areas (around 53% use a car at least once a day, as compared to 38% of those who live in large towns) and among large households (59%) or households with children (64%). For those who can afford car expenses, the car appears to be the preferred transport mode to manage work needs and care responsibilities. The daily use of cars is closely related to income levels: respondents who hardly ever have difficulty paying bills are more likely to use a car on a daily basis (52%) than those who have difficulty paying their bills most of the time (37%). As consequence, for low-income people who cannot afford a car, public transport plays a crucial role in daily mobility.

Fares are a matter of concern for public transport users in the majority of EU countries: only 39% of Europeans stated satisfaction with public transport fares and only 12 Member States have relatively high shares of people satisfied with urban transport fares; the countries with the highest rates of dissatisfaction with fares being Spain (58%), Portugal (57%), Germany (55%), Hungary and Greece (54%) (see Figure 2.2).

Figure 2.2: Satisfaction with public transport fares (% of responses)



* Includes no response, don't know, other spontaneous responses

Source: adapted from European Commission (2014), *Europeans' satisfaction with urban transport*, Flash Eurobarometer 382b, p.96- T16.

⁹ European Commission (2014), *Europeans' satisfaction with urban transport*, Flash Eurobarometer 382b.

¹⁰ European Commission (2013), *Attitudes of Europeans towards urban mobility. Report*, Special Eurobarometer 406/ Wave EB79.4 – TNS Opinion & Social.

2.4.2 Indicators of poverty and social exclusion¹¹

A set of poverty and social exclusion indicators is provided by Eurostat in the framework of the Europe 2020 strategy – Communication from the Commission. Europe 2020 – A strategy for smart, sustainable and inclusive growth,¹². The AROPE rate (i.e. the share of the total population which is at risk of poverty or social exclusion) is the headline indicator for monitoring the EU 2020 Strategy poverty target. It is to be noted that in 2010 the European Council decided that the mid-term review of the EU headline target in 2015 would include a review of the indicators. The AROPE rate refers to the situation of people either at risk of poverty or severely materially deprived or living in a household with very low work intensity. Box 2.5 describes the main dimensions considered in the AROPE rate indicator.

Box 2.5: The AROPE indicator

The AROPE rate corresponds to the total number of people who are: (i) at risk of poverty or (ii) severely materially deprived or (iii) living in households with very low work intensity. **People are only counted once** even if they are present in several of the abovementioned sub-indicators.

(i) The at risk of poverty indicator is the share of people with an equivalised disposable income¹³ (after social transfer) below the at-risk-of-poverty threshold, which is set at 60% of the national median equivalised disposable income after social transfers.

(ii) The material deprivation rate is an indicator in the EU-SILC¹⁴ database that expresses the inability to afford some items considered by most people to be desirable or even necessary in order to lead an adequate life. Severely materially deprived people have living conditions severely constrained by lack of resources, and experience at least 4 of the following 9 forms of deprivation: they cannot afford 1) to pay rent or utility bills, 2) to keep their home adequately warm, 3) to face unexpected expenses, 4) to eat meat, fish or a protein equivalent every second day, 5) a week's holiday away from home, 6) a car, 7) a washing machine, 8) a colour TV, or 9) a telephone.

(iii) The indicator "persons living in households with low work intensity" is defined as the share of people living in a household showing work intensity below a certain threshold. In particular, people living in households with very low work intensity are those aged 0-59, living in households where the adults (aged 18-59) worked less than 20% of their total work potential during the past year.

Source: Eurostat glossary, available at: [http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/Glossary:At_risk_of_poverty_or_social_exclusion_\(AROPE\)](http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/Glossary:At_risk_of_poverty_or_social_exclusion_(AROPE))

¹¹ Unless otherwise specified, the data presented in the tables and figures in this section were drawn from the Eurostat database (<http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/data/database>) during the month of December 2014. In particular: the data refer to EU27 countries plus Croatia; detailed statistics disaggregation relies on Eurostat categories present in metadata which are not the same for all statistics and indicators (therefore among indicators the age bracket of the group may differ). Finally, it has been decided to present, when yearly data were available, 2012 data for the following reasons: (i) for many indicators or statistics 2013 information was not available or was only estimated; (ii) homogeneity of the data presented in the table(s). For statistics based on an ad-hoc module of a survey or surveys not conducted on a yearly basis, the last available year was used.

¹² The Europe 2020 strategy (Commission Communication COM(2010) 2020 final 3.3.2010) promotes social inclusion, in particular through the reduction of poverty, by aiming to lift at least 20 million people out of the risk of poverty and social exclusion. It was adopted in June 2010 by the European Council.

¹³ Equivalised disposable income is the total income of a household, after tax and other deductions, that is available for spending or saving, divided by the number of household members converted into equalised adults; household members are equalised or made equivalent by weighting each according to their age, using the modified OECD equivalence scale (Eurostat). For further details see Eurostat: http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/Glossary:Equivalised_disposable_income

¹⁴ The EU-SILC database is a cross-sectional and longitudinal sample survey, coordinated by Eurostat, based on data from the EU Member States. EU-SILC provides data on income, poverty, social exclusion and living conditions in the European Union. EU-SILC stands for 'European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions.'

According to the AROPE indicator, in 2012 more than 124 million people (or 24.8% of the population) in the EU27 plus Croatia were at risk of poverty or social exclusion. As a result of the economic crisis and fiscal consolidation¹⁵ policies in most (21 out of 27) of the EU countries, the number of people at risk of poverty and social exclusion has increased, the highest increase being observed in Greece (+7 percentage points), Italy (+5.2 p.p.), Ireland (+4.3 p.p.) and Spain (+3.7 p.p.) (detailed values are reported in Annex 1, Table A.1.3).

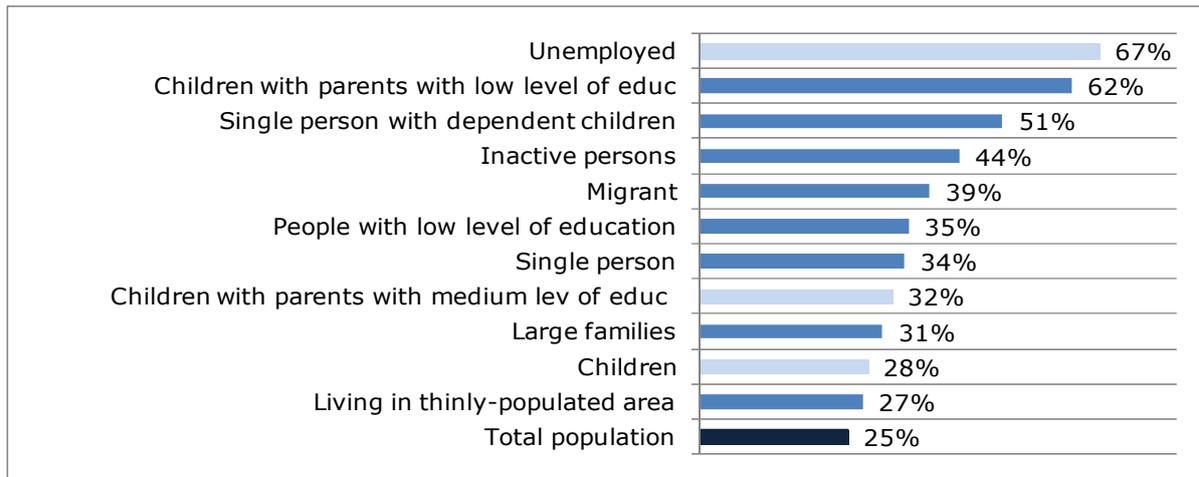
On average, at EU27 level, between 2009 and 2012 the number of individuals at risk of poverty and social exclusion increased by about 8.6 million. Thus, as evidenced by the Commission Communication, *Taking stock of the Europe 2020 strategy for smart, sustainable and inclusive growth* (EC, 2014)¹⁶: “the EU has drifted further away from the EU 2020 target (equivalent to a number of 96.4 million people by 2020) and the number of people at risk of poverty might remain close to 100 million by 2020. The situation is particularly aggravated in certain Member States and has been driven by increases in severe material deprivation and in the share of jobless households. The crisis has demonstrated the need for effective social protection systems”.

As far as the groups of people most exposed to the risk of poverty and social exclusion are concerned, according to the 2012 AROPE rate they were: the unemployed (67% of the unemployed are at risk of poverty or social exclusion); children, especially those with parents with low levels of education (62%); single persons, and especially single parents (51%); inactive people (44%); migrants (39%); large families (31%) and people living in thinly populated areas (27%) (see Figure 2.3).

¹⁵ A recent study requested by the Committee on Employment and Social Affairs of the European Parliament (European Parliament, Directorate-General for Internal Policies/Policy Department A: Economic and Scientific Policy (2014) *Austerity and Poverty in the European Union. Study for the Committee for Employment and Social Affairs of the European Parliament,*) provides evidence of the possible links between poverty and fiscal consolidation policies (i.e. usually a combination of lay-offs in the public sector, cuts in various headline expenditures and increases in taxes and other contributions). In particular, the study recalls the fact that fiscal consolidation typically shows significant distributional effects by raising income inequality (Ball et al., 2013; Wo et al., 2013) and thus may increase poverty among the population. Moreover, in analysing EU country data, the study provides evidence of a significant positive correlation (not causality) between the change in the material deprivation rate and the fiscal adjustment (measure by the cumulative Discretionary Fiscal Effort).

¹⁶ European Commission (2014), Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament, the Council, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions, *Taking stock of the Europe 2020 strategy for smart, sustainable and inclusive growth*, COM(2014) 130 final/2, Brussels, 19.3.2014

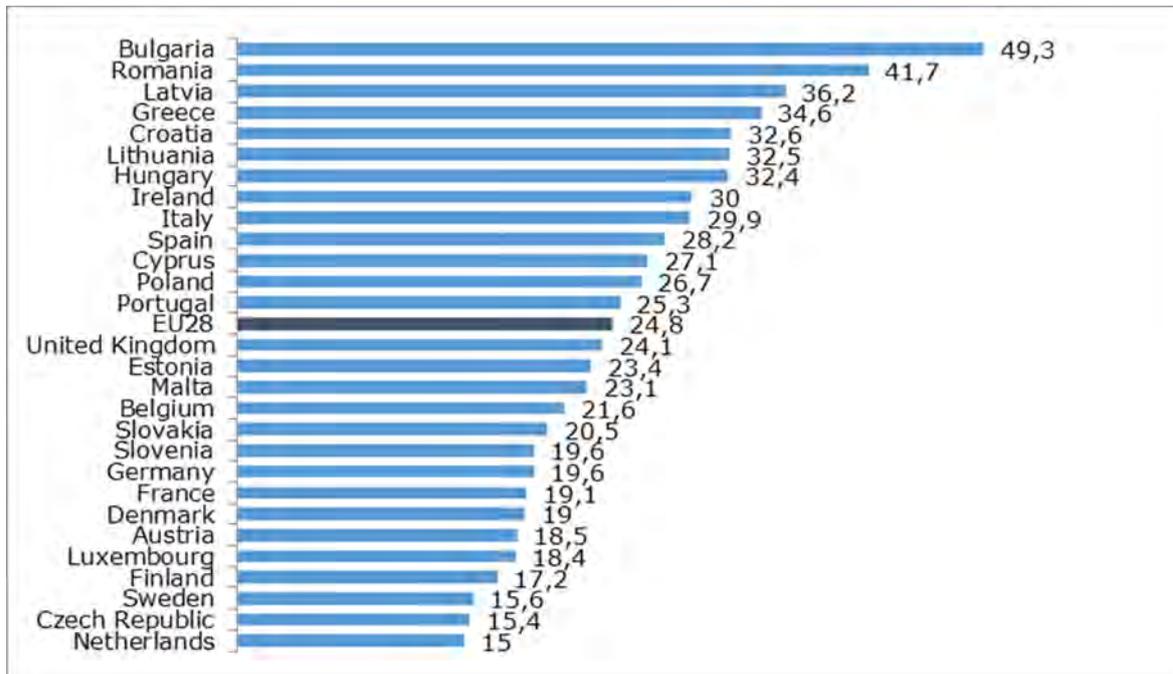
Figure 2.3: People at risk of poverty or social exclusion by characteristics⁽¹⁾, EU27+HR- 2012



Note: (1) Share of people at risk of poverty or social exclusion on total population of the same group. Low level of education: ISCED 0-2; Medium level of education: ISCED 3-4; Children: less than 18 years of age; Migrant: born in a non-EU28 country; Large families: 2 adults with 3 or more dependent children.
Source: EUROSTAT, extraction date 01.12.2014.

However, as shown in Figure 2.4, there is great variation in the share of people at risk of poverty and social exclusion across the EU countries: the Member States with the highest AROPE rates in 2012 were Bulgaria (49.3%), Romania (41.7%), Latvia (36.2%), Greece (34.6%), Lithuania, Hungary and Croatia (all three with a rate around 32.0%). At the other extreme, the lowest shares of the population at risk of poverty or social exclusion were shown by the Netherlands (15%), the Czech Republic (15.4%) and Sweden (15.6%). See also Annex 1 Table A.1.2.

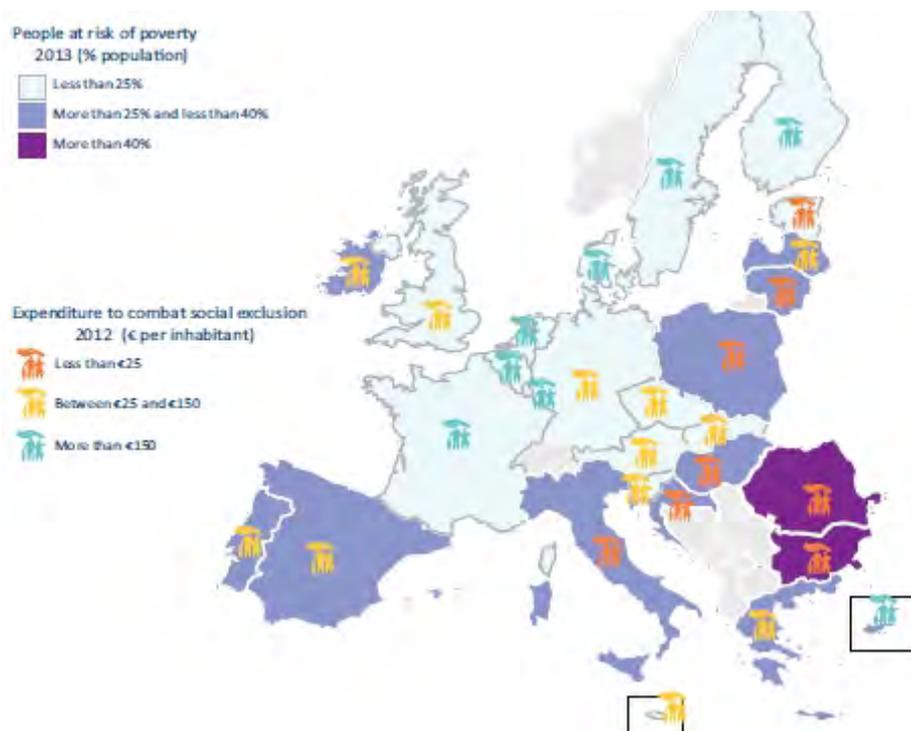
Figure 2.4: AROPE rate in the European countries, 2012



Source: EUROSTAT, extraction date 01.12.2014.

Recent data presentation by the European Parliamentary Research Service (2014)¹⁷ includes an infographic on the share of population at risk of poverty in 2013 in the EU28 MSs (see Figure 2.5). Apart from the significant variation in the share of population exposed to the risk of poverty across EU countries, the figure clearly shows the (negative) correlation between the country's expenditure in fighting social exclusion and the share of people exposed to the risk of poverty.

Figure 2.5: At-risk-of-poverty rate and social exclusion benefits*



*The at-risk-of-poverty rate refers to people with an income below 60% of the national median. The table overlaid shows for each EU country the at-risk-of-poverty rate in 2013 (Ireland and Austria: 2012), 1) as a percentage of all households, 2) as the share of those at risk among children and young people under 18, and 3) as a percentage of persons in the working population, with different levels of education.

Expenditure to combat social exclusion shows benefits in cash or in kind (other than healthcare) for 2012.

Eurostat data, extracted in November 2014

Source: European Parliamentary Research Service (2014), *Poverty risk, inequality and social exclusion, At a glance*, INFOGRAPHIC - December 2014

As already mentioned, social exclusion involves not only poverty and material deprivation, but also other dimensions, such as lack of employment, social isolation, lack of community and political participation, high risk of crime and of bad health, etc. These dimensions affect socio-demographic groups in different ways. The following sections present, for socially disadvantaged groups, updated statistics and relevant information on the factors that put them at higher risk of social exclusion.

Low-income people and the unemployed

According to Eurostat data¹⁸, low-income people and the unemployed are at higher risk of poverty and social exclusion than the rest of the population: in 2012 in the EU27+Croatia

¹⁷ European Parliamentary Research Service (2014), *Poverty risk, inequality and social exclusion, At a glance*, INFOGRAPHIC - December 2014

¹⁸ Eurostat (2014), *Income distribution statistics*, available at http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/Income_distribution_statistics#Further_Eurostat_information

(HR) 86.5% of individuals in the lowest income group¹⁹ were at risk of poverty and social exclusion, and 66.9% of the unemployed (as compared to 13.5% of the employed).

However, even among the employed there is a high risk of social exclusion for workers with poor-quality jobs (precarious, low-paid, part-time jobs) resulting in low or no income and a high risk of falling into poverty and material deprivation. Figure 2.6 shows how precarious job positions (temporary and part-time jobs, low work intensity) affect disposable income and increase the risk of poverty. In particular, it presents the share of workers who have an equivalised disposable income below the risk-of-poverty threshold (i.e. 60% of the national median equivalised disposable income, after social transfers).

Figure 2.6: In-work at-risk-of-poverty rate by job characteristics*, EU27+HR- 2012



*Share of people who are at work and have an equivalised disposable income below the risk-of-poverty threshold, which is set at 60% of the national median equivalised disposable income (after social transfers).

Source: EUROSTAT, extraction date 01.12.2014.

Poverty may cause social isolation (e.g. people cannot afford to go out with friends or invite them to their homes), and social isolation in turn may reinforce the poverty risk (e.g. friends and acquaintances can provide useful support in finding jobs). Eurostat (2010) has calculated that in 13 of the 23 EU countries analysed, the share of people with no friends among those at risk of poverty is twice as high as that of people with higher incomes.

Migrants and ethnic minorities

According to Eurostat data²⁰ relative to 1 January 2013, in the EU27 there were 20.4 million people with non-EU citizenship, equivalent to 4.1% of the EU27 population. In addition, there were 13.7 million people living in a EU27 Member State with the citizenship of another EU27 Member State.

The largest numbers of non-nationals living in the EU are found in the largest EU Member States: Germany, Spain, the UK, Italy and France. These five countries concentrate 77% of the total number of non-nationals living in the EU27, compared to 63% of the total EU population. In relative terms, however, the EU27 Member States with the highest share of

¹⁹ Specifically, individuals belonging to the first income quintile.

²⁰ Eurostat (2014), *Migration and migrant population statistics*, available at:

http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/Migration_and_migrant_population_statistics#

non-nationals are Luxembourg (44% of the total population), Cyprus, Latvia, Estonia, Ireland, Austria, Belgium and Spain (with a share of non-nationals of at least 10% of the resident population).

In most EU Member States²¹, the majority of non-nationals are non-EU citizens.

Foreign-born non-EU citizens face a higher risk of poverty and social exclusion (the AROPE rate is 32.8% in 2012) than nationals (23.2%), as a result of worse labour market conditions (e.g. the unemployment rate is 5 percentage points higher), lower income and lower participation in education (46.6% vs 54.1%), foreign women being the most disadvantaged (Eurostat 2012, data, for more details see Annex 1, Table A.1.4).

The children of immigrants are particularly at risk of poverty compared with nationals. In 2012 the AROPE rate is almost 10 percentage points higher for adult immigrants and 13% higher for their children (aged 0-17) than for those born in the countries concerned.

Immigrants also present a higher risk of social exclusion because of lower participation in training and education. Young migrants are generally at greater risk of dropping out from education and training without having obtained upper secondary qualifications. In 2012, at the EU27+HR level, the share of early leavers from education and training aged 18-24 among the foreign-born population was almost 14 percentage points higher than for young nationals, and the NEET rate of foreign-born young people aged 18-24 was almost 9% higher than that of young nationals.

In relation to labour market conditions, in 2012 the unemployment rate of non-nationals in the EU27+HR (15.5%) was much higher than the total population's (9.9%). Moreover, the proportion of part-time (24.6%) and temporary employment (17.1%) among foreign-born people is far higher than for nationals (18.4% part-time; 13.2% temporary EU27+HR employment).

Children and young people

As evidenced by Figure 2.3, children (aged 0-17) are the age group with the highest risk of poverty or social exclusion in the EU28. The main factor affecting child poverty is the labour market situation of their parents, which is linked to their level of education and the composition of the household in which they live. Moreover, as already noted, children with a migrant background tend to be more exposed to poverty than the total child population (Eurostat, 2013).

Social research shows that experiencing poverty and social disadvantage at an early age may not only have immediate consequences in terms of health and education, but also affects health conditions and economic well-being later in life (Marmot, 2010, Brooks-Gunn and Duncan, 1997; The children society, 2012). As reported by the EU Social Protection Committee²² (SPC, 2012), children growing up in disadvantaged socioeconomic conditions are less likely to do well in school, enjoy good health and realise their full potential later in life, showing higher risks of unemployment and of being socially excluded themselves.

²¹ Except for Luxembourg, Slovakia, Ireland, Cyprus, Belgium, Malta, Hungary and the Netherlands.

²² The Social Protection Committee (SPC) is an EU advisory policy committee for Employment and Social Affairs Ministers in the Employment and Social Affairs Council (EPSCO), established by the Treaty on the Functioning of the EU (Article 160 TFUE).

Young Europeans between 15 and 24 years of age also suffer severe disadvantages in the labour market. Recent Eurostat statistics show that in 2013 the unemployment rate among young people (15-24) in the EU28 was more than twice that of the adults (23.6% vs 9.5%), and the share of young people who were neither in employment nor in education (the so called NEET rate) was 13%. Moreover, when young people do work, their jobs tend to be precarious: in 2013, 42.6% of young employees were working on a temporary contract (four times as many as adults – 10.7%) and 32% part-time (13% being the share of part-time employment among adults)(see Annex 1 Table A.1.5).

The elderly

Although, according to the AROPE rate the elderly face a lower risk of poverty than the overall population, both at EU-28 level (19.3% as opposed to 24.8%) and in 20 out of the 27 Member States²³, there are other factors that make older people a group at risk of social exclusion, such as: long-term illness or disability, social isolation and lack of independence.

Social isolation tends to increase with age. A recent Eurostat working paper (2010) shows that in all the EU countries the share of people with no friends tends to increase with age. In half the countries analysed, over 1 in 10 people aged 65 or over has no interaction whatsoever with friends, either personally or in other ways. This number rises to over 1 in 4 in the case of Hungary and Latvia.

Older people are also more exposed to poor health, which can limit their autonomy and independence. In fact, the longer people live, the more likely they are to become disabled to some degree. In old age disability may come in the form of physical and sensory impairment, such as hearing and vision loss, and/or reduced capacity in terms of mobility and walking. Moreover, the elderly face an increased risk of mental health problems and cognitive impairment, reducing their independence and mobility. Indeed, old people belong to the category of people typically defined as transport-disadvantaged in the transport-related literature.

Table 2.3 below presents some indicators of self-perceived health among the elderly in the EU27+HR, based on Eurostat data.

Table 2.3: Older people health indicators by age class, EU27+HR- 2012

Indicator	Population aged 55-64	Population aged 65-74	Population aged 75+	Total population
Share of people having a longstanding illness or health problem**	42.5	53.1	67.7	31.5
Share of people perceiving some or severe longstanding limitations in usual activities due to health problem*	34.1	44.5	65.6	26.1
Share of people perceiving a bad or very bad health***	13.0	17.4	31.2	9.9

*Self-perceived longstanding limitations in usual activities owing to a health problem

**People having a longstanding illness or health problem

***Self-perceived health

Source: Eurostat.

²³ The income situation of the elderly depends closely on the features of the national pension systems and the national social welfare systems.

Disabled people

Disability is a multi-dimensional concept, arising from the interaction of health conditions and the environment (World Health Organisation, 2001). It may take many forms – physical, sensory and cognitive – which may affect people’s ability to move on their own. According to Eurostat data (2011)²⁴, 14% of Europeans aged 15-64 report a basic activity difficulty (such as seeing, hearing, walking, communicating), usually accompanied by other longstanding health problems²⁵, while another 14.6% report a longstanding health problem. The share of people affected by disability or longstanding health problems tends to rise with age (see Annex 1, Table A.1.6 and Table A.1.7).

Piachaud et al. (2009) summarise the main links between disability and social exclusion emerging from an extensive review of the literature:

- As children and adults, disabled people are more likely to experience income poverty and material hardship than their non-disabled peers.
- Disabled adults have significantly reduced employment opportunities.
- Disabled people are less likely than their peers to vote or otherwise participate in the political and civic life of their communities.
- People with disabilities experience significantly poorer health outcomes, leaving aside their disability, than their non-disabled peers.
- As children and adults, disabled people are more likely to have restricted social networks, have looser ties to their local community, experience bullying and be victims of crime.

Moreover, for those born with a disability, difficult access to public transport is a major contributory factor to poverty. As noted by Frye (2011): “in many cases at the root of the problem of lack of education and lack of employment is simply lack of access and mobility. If disabled children cannot get to school or disabled adults to employment, the spiral of disability and poverty is likely to continue.”

Table 2.4 compares the main labour market and education indicators for people affected by some kind of disability and those who are not. As might be expected, disabled people have more difficulties in the labour market and poorer chances of participating in education. The high rates of early school leavers among the disabled might indicate problems related to accessibility and the lack of specific educational programmes.

²⁴ In 2011, the European Union Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS) included an ad hoc module (AHM) on employment of disabled people.

²⁵ According to the Eurostat ad hoc module (AHM) questionnaire, by longstanding health problem was meant a health condition or disease which has lasted or is likely to last for at least 6 months. The main characteristics of a longstanding condition or disease are that it is permanent and may be expected to require a long period of supervision, observation or care. (see Eurostat: http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/cache/metadata/en/hlth_dsb_prv_esms.htm)

Table 2.4: Main labour market and education indicators by disability status, EU27+HR– 2011

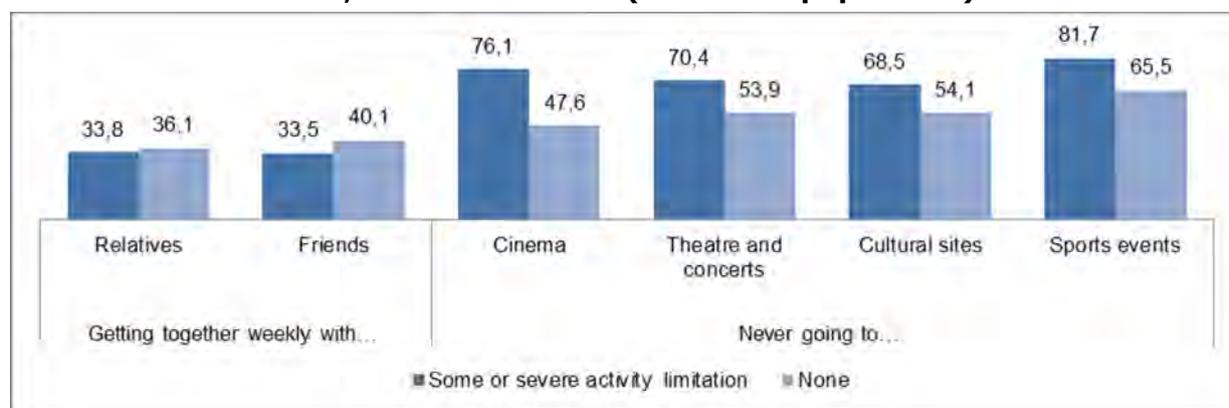
Indicator	Difficulty in basic activities	No difficulty in basic activities
Employment rate (15-64)	47.3	66.9
Unemployment rate (15-64)	12.1	9.6
Activity rate (15-64)	53.8	74.1
Early leavers from education and training (15-64)*	25.1	12.4
Tertiary educational attainment (30-34)	23.9	35.8
NEET rate (15-24)	23.9	12.3

*Share of population fulfilling the following two conditions: first, the highest level of education or training attained is below upper secondary education (ISCED 0, 1, 2 or 3c short); second, respondents stated they had not received any education or training in the four weeks preceding the survey (numerator).

Source: Eurostat.

According to Eurostat data, in 2012, at EU27+HR level, around 30% of people with disabilities aged 16 or more are at risk of poverty or social exclusion, compared with 22% of those without a disability in the same age group.

Moreover as shown in Figure 2.7, disabled people have poorer chances of meeting their friends frequently: 33.5% get together with friends on a weekly basis, as compared to 40% of people without disabilities. Moreover, among the disabled, the percentage of people never participating in cultural and social activities (e.g. cinema, theatre, sports events) is very high (over 70%).

Figure 2.7: Social interaction and participation indicators by level of activity limitation, EU27+HR - 2006 (% of total population)*

* Data refer to people aged 16 or more

Source: Eurostat.

Women

Women are socially disadvantaged in many respects. They are less likely to participate in the labour market and, for those in employment, significant gender gaps exist in terms of salary and segregation into low-skilled and part-time occupations, although on average women show higher educational attainment than men. Lower earnings among women lead to a greater risk of poverty than for men. Inequalities in the gender division of unpaid household and caring activities lead to interrupted work patterns and careers, which have negative effects on pension benefits and increase the risk of poverty in old age.

Furthermore, there is still a large gender imbalance in the EU political and economic decision-making system, together with a lack of suitable indicators to measure social power.

Table 2.5 presents the latest figures of the Gender Equality Index (GEI), calculated by the European Institute for Gender Equality (EIGE, 2013) for the EU27. The index is a composite indicator based on six core domains: work, money, knowledge, time, power and health, and measures how far the EU and Member States are from (or how close they are to) achieving complete gender equality (scores vary between 1, total inequality and 100, full equality).

Table 2.5: Gender Equality Index and principal components, EU27

	MAIN MEASURES of GENDER GAPS	VALUES – EU27
GEI	Gender Equality Index- composite indicator	54
Work	Participation in the labour market, duration of working life, sectoral segregation; quality of work such as flexibility of working time, training at work and health and safety.	69
Money	Earnings and income, not being at risk of poverty and income distribution.	68.9
Knowledge	Participation in tertiary education, segregation and lifelong learning	48.9
Time	Time spent on unpaid activities (childcare, domestic activities), on cultural and leisure activities	38.8
Power	Representation in the political and economic spheres	38
Health	Self-perceived health, life expectancy, healthy life years, fulfilment of medical and dental needs	90.1

Source: EIGE (2013), Gender Equality Index Report, available at <http://eige.europa.eu/>

People living in rural areas

People living in rural or remote and sparsely populated areas that are difficult to access (e.g. mountain districts) are more exposed to the risk of poverty and social exclusion, as well as severe material deprivation, than inhabitants of densely populated areas, as documented by the Commission's indices of social exclusion. This is because thinly populated and rural areas may be subject to a "circle of decline" (OECD, 2006) driven by a number of interacting factors that can impede local development and employment. Low population density generates a lack of the critical mass needed for service infrastructure and business development, which in turn determines lower business creation, fewer jobs and less career potential. The lack of reliable transport links often makes commuting impracticable and this, together with the lack of jobs, gives rise to out-migration flows, leading to depopulation and a higher incidence of older people (especially elderly women living alone) than in other areas. The problems connected to ageing are further accentuated in these areas by isolation and distance from basic services (usually concentrated in urban areas). Remoteness can therefore impact on the quality of life of groups already at risk of social exclusion and on transport-disadvantaged groups, such as non-car owners, the unemployed and low-income people, the elderly, women, migrants and young people. Indeed, in rural and thinly populated areas young people are more likely to suffer from restricted opportunities in training and employability. With respect to densely populated areas, participation in education and training among young people (aged 18-24) is much lower (47.4% vs 58.8%) and there is a higher rate of early school leaving (13.9% vs 11.6%), as well as a higher NEET rate (14.2% vs 12.5%). Detailed statistics on social

exclusion, labour market and education indicators according to the degree of urbanisation are reported in Annex 1, Table A.1.8.

2.5 Impact of the public transport system on socio-economic disadvantages: evidence from the literature review

There is a large body of research on transport-related social exclusion and on the impact of transport on social issues such as poverty, employment, social isolation, health-related problems, noise, congestion, etc.²⁶. However, a large number of the published studies relate to research conducted on Anglo-Saxon countries (see Table 2.6). Although based on a non-exhaustive literature review, the table below summarises (by the country on which the empirical study is based) the number of transport-related studies surveyed by Markovich and Lucas (2011) in their work "The Social and Distributional Impacts of Transport: A Literature Review"²⁷.

As regards research on European countries, UK-based studies on the impact of transport on social issues are by far the most widely represented. The reason for the particular attention devoted to the role of transport in social issues by UK academics lies with the early recognition by the UK Government of the importance of transport in relation to the social exclusion of low-income and disadvantaged groups in the UK. Indeed, since the early 2000s the Social Exclusion Unit (SEU) and the Department of Transport have funded a series of studies on transport-related social issues²⁸.

It is worth noting, moreover, as pointed out by Stoke and Lucas (2011)²⁹, that "there are still numerous gaps within the evidence base, particularly in relation to the measurement and assessment of transport-related exclusion, evaluation methodologies for intervention programmes, delivery processes, engagement and the transference of good practice (especially to stakeholders outside of the transport arena) and the development of new financial models."

²⁶ For an extensive review of the literature see for example: Markovich, J., Lucas, K (2011), *The Social and Distributional Impacts of Transport: A Literature Review*, Transport Studies Unit – School of Geography and the Environment, WP n. 1055; Lucas, K. (2012), *Transport and Social Exclusion: Where Are We Now?*, Transport Policy, vol. 20; Shergold, I., Parkhurst, G. (2009), *Literature Review – The Treatment of Social and Distributional Impacts in Appraisal and Evaluation. Final Report*, The Centre for Transport & Society – University of the West of England, Bristol, available at <http://webarchive.nationalarchives.gov.uk>; Campaign for Better Transport (2007): 'Buses Matter', cited in Department for Transport (2013), *Valuing the social impacts of public transport: Final report*, January 2013. Document reference: 302148/ITD/ITN/07A; Moore, J., Lucas, K., Bates, J. (2013) *Social disadvantage and transport in the UK: a trip-based approach*, Transport Studies Unit, University of Oxford, WP n 1063.

²⁷ In particular, the review focused on recent (2000 – 2011) academic studies, policy documents and practitioner reports (English-language texts) regarding the social and distributional impacts of transport, transport disadvantage for particular social groups, and wider interactions with transport poverty and social exclusion.

²⁸ In 2003 the SEU published the seminal report "Transport and Social Exclusion – Making the Connections". The UK Department for Transport in the context of its policies (Making transport more accessible to all; Improving local transport) produced reports and case studies on accessibility of transport (DfT: <https://www.gov.uk/government/policies?departments%5B%5D=department-for-transport>)

²⁹ Gordon, S., Lucas, K. (2010), *Travel behaviour of low income households – an analysis of the 2002-2008 National Travel Survey*, TSU Working Paper Series WP 1053, School of Geography and the Environment, Oxford.

Table 2.6: Studies in transport-related social issues by country*

European countries	Number of studies	Non European countries	Number of studies
United Kingdom	66	USA	23
Netherlands	5	Australia	17
France	3	Canada	7
Germany	2	New Zealand	3
Spain	2	Japan	2
Belgium	1	China	1
Finland	1		
Greece	1		
Italy	1		
Lithuania	1		
Sweden	1		
EU cross country analysis	4		
Norway	1		
TOTAL	89		53

* Only studies reporting empirical research are counted. Country refers to the country where the research is conducted.

Source: IRS adaptation from the database "Social Impacts of Transport Database (21 July 2011)" produced by Markovich and Lucas in relation to the WP "The Social and Distributional Impacts of Transport: A Literature Review" under the research project "Social Impacts and Social Equity Issues in Transport". The database was downloaded in December 2014 from the website <http://www.tsu.ox.ac.uk/research/uktrcse/>

The following sections report the evidence-based findings on the main transport-related issues faced by the groups most at risk of social exclusion in the EU. Although the evidence provided on the social impacts of transport largely relies on UK-based studies (for the abovementioned reason), the main findings can be extended, with a fair degree of certainty, to most of the EU Member States. In fact, the transport-related social issues emerging from the literature reviewed in the following sections show points in common with the findings of research based on non-European developed countries (e.g. the United States, Australia, Canada) and are corroborated by background studies and pilot project intervention by EU-funded research projects on transport-related social issues.

2.5.1 Children and young people

Young people, especially students, rely heavily on public transport, of which they are the most frequent users: 67% of European students use public transport at least once a week (as compared to a total population average of 32%) and 49% every day (against a total population average of 16%)³⁰.

Public transport can affect children and young people social disadvantage on many aspects. Indeed, poor availability and high public transport fares may hamper access to education, cultural and leisure activities, and indeed jobs.

A recent study commissioned by the UK Department for Transport (Department for Transport, 2013) provides an example of these constraints, on the basis of the UK, by estimating the proportion of journeys that would not have been made if buses had not been available. The results show that between 15.0% and 18.3% of the journeys (depending on the area) would not have been made in the absence of public transport.

³⁰ European Commission (2014), *Europeans' satisfaction with urban transport*, Flash Eurobarometer 382b; European Commission (2013), *Attitudes of Europeans towards urban mobility. Report*, Special Eurobarometer 406/ Wave EB79.4 – TNS Opinion & Social.

Table 2.7: Proportion of journeys that would “not go” with no bus available, by purpose of journey and concessionary travel pass status (%)

JOURNEY PURPOSE	CONCESSIONARY PASS STATUS	
	HOLDER	NON-HOLDER
Shopping and Leisure	37.3	30.9
Commuting	5.7	4.4
Education	17.5	13.8
Healthcare	9.0	6.9
Personal Business	19.8	15.6
Visiting Friends or Relatives	28.0	22.6

Source: IRS adaption from Department for Transport (2013), Monetising the social impact of bus travel, March 2013.

Table 2.7 shows the results obtained for non-car-owners broken down by reason for travelling and concessionary pass status³¹. As could be expected, the travel demands of people holding concessionary passes, as well as journeys for shopping and leisure purposes, are more sensitive to the availability of buses. What is notable, however, is the impact that the absence of buses could have on travel decisions for education purposes (the reduction varying between 17.5% and 13.8% for holders and non-holders of concessionary passes respectively), for personal business trips (showing an estimated respective reduction of 19.8% and 15.6%) and, especially, for travelling to visit friends and relatives (showing an estimated respective reduction of 28% and 22%).

Indeed, public transport plays a key role in **access to education**, especially for children and young people living in rural and deprived areas and for those with a low-income and/or disadvantaged background. Connectivity is particularly important to secondary school attendance, since secondary schools tend to be more sparsely provided than primary ones (Kenyon, 2011). Thus, among other factors such as the location of schools, enrolment in secondary and further education is contingent on the pupils' proximity to school and mobility potential (Cook et al., 2005)³². Moreover, the evidence shows that children from low-income families travel a shorter distance to school than their high-income counterparts. Storey and Brannen (2000)³³ found that young people in rural areas had particular problems in accessing education and maintaining a social life.

The availability and affordability of public transport are also a matter of concern for young people in relation to **job access**. Young people usually have less access to private transport, and low incomes, if any at all: those aged 15-24 are the most likely to use urban public transport (35% vs 19%)(EC, 2014)³⁴. The evaluation of the UK New Deal for Young People provides an example of the relative importance of transport compared with other factors that impede movement into work: the two most common problems experienced in finding or keeping a job indicated by interviewees relate to mobility: “no jobs nearby” 29%, and “lack of personal transport” 25%. (SEU, 2003).

³¹ Concessionary passes enable eligible people (e.g. the elderly, young and disabled) to travel on reduced fares or free.

³² Cited in Department for International Development (2013), Social Dimensions of Transport – a resource for Social Impact Appraisals.

³³ Storey, P. and Brannen, J. (2000), cited in Bradshaw, J., Kemp, P., Baldwin, S. and Rowe, A. (2004) The drivers of social exclusion: A review of the literature for the Social Exclusion Unit in the Breaking the Cycle series, London: SEU/ODPM.

³⁴ European Commission (2014a), Quality of transport. Report, Special Eurobarometer 422a / Wave EB82.2 – TNS Opinion & Social.

There are also other transport-related issues that impact adversely on the quality of life of children and young people.

Vaganay et al. (2003) underline the role of transport traffic on **children's safety** and injuries. The evidence shows that traffic injuries are the leading cause of severe childhood injuries in the developed countries (Turz et al., 2001). Most of these are caused to children as motor-vehicle passengers, followed closely by child pedestrians (CAPT, 2002). SEU (2003) reports that in the UK children belonging to the lowest social group appear to be five times more likely to die in road accidents than those from the highest; and more than a quarter of child pedestrian casualties happen in the most deprived areas.

Public transport can help to reduce the risk of obesity and other **health problems** related to sedentary lifestyles and car users in urban areas. Lopes et al. (2014) find that in Portugal the level of urbanisation is correlated with a decrease in independent active school-home travel and leisure-time activities among children, and Vaganay (2010) reports literature findings showing that reduced independent mobility and children's walking activity in urban areas have several impacts on children's present and future physical and mental health, such as higher obesity levels, increased risk of heart diseases as adults and depression. The evidence resulting from the Australian Victorian Integrated Survey of Travel and Activity (Department of Transport Victoria, 2007) shows that people who used public transport on a given day also spent an average of 41 minutes walking or cycling as part of their travel, as compared to only 8 minutes in the case of private transport users.

2.5.2 The elderly

Like the other vulnerable groups, the elderly rely heavily on public transportation: among Europeans aged 55+ only 37% use a car every day either as driver or passenger, compared to 61% among those aged 25-54 (EC, 2014)³⁵. Moreover, as stressed by the European Commission³⁶, although the elderly generally travel less than young people, there is a general tendency towards increased transport demand on the part of elderly people resulting from improved health, more travelling options and better foreign-language skills.

Older Europeans are likely to use urban public transport in particular for leisure activities (e.g. shopping, visiting friends and relatives)(EC, 2014)³⁷; they also use public transport to take children to school and to other after-school activities (Department for International Development, 2013; SIZE, 2006) and to access healthcare facilities.

The availability of public transport is thus of primary importance for the quality of life of the elderly. According to a European opinion survey, improvements in public transport are cited among the most important factors needed to make local areas more "age-friendly", especially among rural respondents (EC, 2011). A UK study conducted by Engles and Liu (2011) in a middle-distant municipality with a large concentration of seniors with limited access to private transport reveals that the social exclusion of non-car-driving seniors is reinforced by a regional public transport system that does not adequately serve the entire municipality. Another study analysing the mobility behaviour of the elderly living in the

³⁵ European Commission (2013), Attitudes of Europeans towards urban mobility. Report, Special Eurobarometer 406/ Wave EB79.4 – TNS Opinion & Social.

³⁶ European Commission (2009b), *A sustainable future for transport: Towards an integrated, technology-led and user-friendly system*, COM(2009)0279 final.

³⁷ European Commission (2014), Europeans' satisfaction with urban transport, Flash Eurobarometer 382b.

suburban area of Berlin (Giesel, F. and Rahn)³⁸ shows that older women (70+) in suburbia make over 50% of their journeys on foot and only a small proportion drive cars by themselves, thus relying on the nearby services and living environment.

Another matter of concern for the elderly is **physical access** to public transport. Mobility problems, as well as sight, hearing and cognitive impairments, make older people more sensitive to poor-quality transport services and vehicle design (e.g. high steps to access trains and buses, lack of elevators or moving stairs in transport stations, timetables and information written in excessively small letters, etc.).

A study conducted by He et al. (2012) on patterns of travel in the UK shows that a higher percentage of elderly people experience difficulties in using buses relative to other modes of transport, women being the most affected (see Table 2.8).

Table 2.8: Difficulties in using various forms of transport for persons over 60 by gender - UK (%)

GENDER	AGE	DIFFICULTY IN USING TRANSPORT			
		BUS	TAXI	TRAIN	CAR
Male	60 – 69	18.9	6.0	13.8	6.4
	>70	26.0	10.3	19.7	10.1
Female	60 – 69	24.3	9.6	18.5	9.5
	>70	40.3	16.9	25.8	15.4

Source: He L., Raeside R., Chen T., Mc Quaid R.W. (2012), *Population ageing, gender and the transportation system*, Research in Transportation Economics.

The results from interviews conducted with senior citizens in eight EU countries³⁹ (SIZE project, 2006) emphasised that the mobility of elderly people is also affected by a wide range of factors connected with overcrowded buses and personal security, especially by night, and a hesitant attitude towards novelty and new technologies and devices.

For older people, limited mobility (in terms of limited access to both private and public transport) may contribute to **social isolation and exclusion**, particularly in rural areas, as observed by Dwyer and Hardill (2011), and this may affect the health of elderly people. As reported in the Marmot Review (2010), social networks and social participation have beneficial effects on the mental health of the elderly: they act as protective factors against dementia and cognitive decline over the age of 65. Individuals who are socially isolated are between two and five times more likely than those who have strong social ties to die prematurely. Moreover, low levels of social integration, and loneliness, significantly increase mortality.

2.5.3 The disabled

Access to transport is increasingly recognised as having a significant impact on the quality of life and independence of people with disabilities, as they have specific mobility problems. The disabled may be less likely to benefit from access to standard means of transport if

³⁸ Giesel, F. and Rahn, C. Mobility and Social Participation of the Elderly in Suburbia: a Gender-related Analysis in Berlin and Its Hinterland, Association for European Transport, downloaded in December 2014 from the AET Papers Repository: <https://abstracts.aetransport.org/>

³⁹ In total 487 seniors participants from: Austria, Spain; Ireland; Italy; Germany; Czech Republic; Poland; Sweden.

they are not designed taking their needs into account (Department for International Development, 2013). In fact, the single most frequently used mode of transport by disabled people is the car as passenger (DPTAC, 2002), while public transport is less used, as shown by a recent Eurobarometer survey (EC, 2014)⁴⁰.

Since 2004 the European Institutions have introduced regulations on **passengers' rights** for users of air, rail, ship or ferry and coach transport services⁴¹, with specific focus on the rights of disabled persons and persons with reduced mobility: non-discrimination, free-of-charge assistance, handling of mobility equipment. However, according to another recent Special Eurobarometer survey (EC, 2014)⁴², only 7% of Europeans state that they have requested assistance for themselves or another person for reasons relating to disability or reduced mobility when travelling. This low figure may be due to the reduced use of transport by people with a disability, but it may also be attributable to a scant awareness of their rights. Indeed, according to the same survey, only 29% of total respondents said that they had heard about passenger rights.

Apart from vehicle design, there are other barriers to accessing transport services for people with disabilities. For example, physical accessibility may also be hindered by inaccessible **transport stations** and poor-quality **pedestrian environments** around stops. A survey conducted by the Disabled Persons Transport Advisory Committee (DPTAC, 2002) on disabled people in England and Wales shows that poor condition of pavements and roads was of greater concern than dissatisfaction with public transport. Improvements therefore need to be made at all stages of travel, including the walking environment, so that (disabled) people can reach and use public transport services (DPTAC, 2002).

In addition, **accessible transport information systems** are of paramount importance for disabled people with sensory impairment or learning disabilities. The SEU study (2003) notes the often very small print used for timetable information, which can also be complicated and difficult to understand. Lamonta et al. (2013) also underline the importance of accessible transport information systems for people affected by dyslexia. Furthermore, transport staff are sometimes unaware of the needs of disabled people and may not always be available or able to provide the required support.

2.5.4 Women

Women are more likely to use public transportation than men (22% vs 15%), since in general they have less access to private vehicles (49% vs 59%) (EC,2014)⁴³. A study conducted among the elderly in Finland (Siren et al., 2006) found that older women have less access to cars than men and consequently have poorer overall mobility and are more dependent on being in good health and on getting help from other people for their personal mobility.

Research also shows that there are significant **gender differences in mobility patterns** and travel behaviour. A study for the European Parliament (2012)⁴⁴ provides literature

⁴⁰ European Commission (2014), *Europeans' satisfaction with urban transport*, Flash Eurobarometer 382b.

⁴¹ Regulation (EC) No 261/2004 (by air); Regulation (EC) No 1107/2006 (by air); Regulation (EC) No 1371/2007 (by train); Regulation (EU) No 1177/2010 (by boat); Regulation (EU) No 181/2011 (by coach).

⁴² European Commission (2014), *Passenger Rights report*, Special Eurobarometer 420 / Wave EB82.1 – TNS Opinion & Social.

⁴³ European Commission (2014), *Quality of transport. Report*, Special Eurobarometer 422a / Wave EB82.2 – TNS Opinion & Social.

⁴⁴ European Parliament (2012), *The role of women in the green economy: The issue of mobility*, European Parliament's Committee on Gender Equality, available at: [http://www.europarl.europa.eu/RegData/etudes/note/join/2012/462453/IPOL-FEMM_NT\(2012\)462453_EN.pdf](http://www.europarl.europa.eu/RegData/etudes/note/join/2012/462453/IPOL-FEMM_NT(2012)462453_EN.pdf)

evidence on the mobility patterns of women, showing that besides using public transportation more than men (Rosenbloom, 2006), women are also more likely to engage in non-work travel (Vance and Iovanna, 2007), to make more multi-stop journeys, to run household errands and to accompany other dependent passengers (usually children or the elderly)(Murakami and Young, 1997; Root, 2000; McGuckin and Nakamoto, 2005).

For women, public transportation plays a crucial role in **empowerment, access to opportunities and independence**. Research shows that poor mobility and access to transport can prevent women from entering the labour market or lead women to choose less profitable jobs because they are closer to home or easier to travel to, even in the case of self-employment (Hanson, 2003). Women usually have less free time than men, being engaged in childcare, domestic work and caring for elderly, sick or disabled relatives, and are therefore more likely to work part-time, take on jobs nearer or better connected to home (even if low-paid), or to decide not to work at all. Indeed, women are less likely than men to engage in 'extreme commuting', defined as a one-way commute of 90 minutes or more. When women start businesses, they locate them closer to home than men do. Drobbs (2005 and 2007)⁴⁵ show how poor access to public transport in north-east England has posed problems for women in accessing employment opportunities.

For women, mobility is affected not only by availability and access to public transport; safe/secure, affordable, reliable and efficient transport services are crucial in relieving the time burden of their workload and facilitating their economic empowerment. In particular, **personal safety** is a key concern for them. Women can be deterred from using public transport if they do not feel safe. They may not want to wait for public transport for fear of harassment and are therefore less likely to use transport services with a random or unreliable schedule and at night (Department for International Development, 2013).

2.5.5 Migrants and ethnic minorities

As noted by the EU project "Together on the Move"⁴⁶, little research has been carried out on the travel behaviour of immigrants and their attitudes toward different travel modes in Europe. This is because the data and information are limited, especially in the case of eastern and southern European countries.

Desk research conducted in the project partners' countries⁴⁷ evidences the following characteristics of **immigrant travel behaviour** (Assum et al., 2011)⁴⁸:

- immigrants are less likely to own a car than natives, owing to their less favourable economic conditions (buying a car and getting a driver's licence is costly);
- car access is lower among female immigrants than among males, the gap being wider than that observed in the case of natives;
- immigrants are thus more likely to walk and to use public transport than natives;
- cycling appears to be more popular among natives than among immigrants, especially immigrant women.

⁴⁵ Cited in Markovich, J., Lucas, K (2011), *The Social and Distributional Impacts of Transport: A Literature Review*, Transport Studies Unit – School of Geography and the Environment, WP n. 1055.

⁴⁶ The project, funded by the "Intelligent Energy Europe Programme", ran from 1/2011 to 1/2014. "Together on the move" offers energy-efficient transport training for immigrants and develops teaching and training materials for sustainable mobility forms such as walking, cycling, public transport and greener car use. More information and deliverables can be found at the following websites: www.transport-research.info/web/projects/project_details.cfm?id=47196; www.together-eu.org

⁴⁷ Austria, Belgium, Norway, Sweden, United Kingdom.

⁴⁸ Assum, T. et al. (2011), *Immigrants in Europe, their travel behaviour and possibilities for energy-efficient travel*, Deliverable D2.1, Together on the Move project, available at: www.together-eu.org

The “Together on the Move” project also conducted a series of focus groups with immigrants living in Austria, Belgium and Norway to identify the transport needs of immigrants and the advantages/barriers they experience with different modes of transport. In relation to the use of public transport, the following **barriers** emerged:

- Language barriers. Many immigrants experienced problems with using public transport caused by difficulties in: understanding transport information (e.g. cancellations, brochures and timetables), buying tickets and understanding where to go and which route to take. For these reasons, the use of public transport tends to be related to the immigrants’ level of integration and language skills.
- Availability, accessibility. Like natives, immigrants and ethnic minorities complain about difficulties in the use of public transport in terms of availability (e.g. lack of good connections, especially when living on the outskirts of a city; low frequency, especially in the evenings / at weekends; time-consuming when delivering children to one place and then travelling to work elsewhere), and physical access (e.g. buses are too crowded during rush hours; problems with getting on and off a bus with a pushchair or when accompanying elderly or disabled people; difficult to handle heavy shopping loads).
- Costs. Some immigrants consider that public transport is too expensive to use.
- Racial and religious discrimination. Young immigrants or ethnic minorities and immigrant women wearing headscarves complain that are often checked first at inspections.

2.5.6 Low-income and unemployed people

Low-income people and the unemployed are particularly reliant on local public transport services, since in many cases they cannot afford a private car or other means of transport. According to Eurobarometer data (EC, 2013)⁴⁹, in fact, the **use of private transport modes is closely related to income levels**: only 37% of respondents who report difficulties in paying their bills most of the time use a car on a daily basis, as opposed to 52% of those who almost never have difficulties paying bills. And the unemployed are the most likely to use urban public transport: 23% against an average of 19% (EC, 2014)⁵⁰.

For low-income or unemployed people public transport plays a crucial role in deciding whether to apply for, accept or stay in employment (Department for Transport, 2013). In a study based on three US metropolitan areas (Boston, San Francisco and Los Angeles), Kawabata (2003) finds that improving transport access for low-skilled workers with no car significantly enhances their employment probability, especially in large and highly auto-dependent areas. Moreover, as noted by the UK DfT (2013), increased provision of public transport could create new jobs and directly benefit unemployed people.

Another problem for low-income and unemployed people is the **cost of transport**: 81% of the unemployed believe that travelling costs are an important problem within cities, as compared to an average figure of 74% (EC, 2013)⁵¹. A recent study by Goodman and Cheshire (2014) evidences that the increase in the price of the London bike-sharing system

⁴⁹ European Commission (2013), *Attitudes of Europeans towards urban mobility. Report*, Special Eurobarometer 406/ Wave EB79.4 – TNS Opinion & Social.

⁵⁰ European Commission (2014), *Quality of transport. Report*, Special Eurobarometer 422a / Wave EB82.2 – TNS Opinion & Social.

⁵¹ European Commission (2013), *Attitudes of Europeans towards urban mobility. Report*, Special Eurobarometer 406/ Wave EB79.4 – TNS Opinion & Social.

(LBSS) has disproportionately discouraged casual-use trips among residents of the poorer areas.

Low-income people are also more likely to face problems of physical access to transportation, given that, according to social research, low-income people are more likely to be physically disabled or to have children (Bradshaw, 2004).

2.5.7 People living in rural and deprived areas

According to the often cited Eurobarometer survey (EC, 2014)⁵², almost one in three Europeans uses public transport at least once a week. However, there is wide variation in its use with respect to the level of urbanisation: respondents in large towns (51%) are almost twice as likely to use urban public transport weekly as those in small to middle-sized towns (27%) or in rural villages (20%). In rural areas mobility needs are mostly satisfied by the use of cars (.). Indeed, on a typical day 64% of Europeans living in rural villages use a car as compared to 38% in large towns⁵³.

Observed differences in the use of public transport across areas with different levels of urbanisation reflect not only the availability, but also the **accessibility, of public transport** in terms of proximity to bus, metro or tram stations. The distance from stations varies according to the urbanisation level: in rural villages only 65% of people live less than 10 minutes away from nearest station or bus stop, while in large towns this percentage rises to 87% (see Table 2.9).

Table 2.9: Accessibility of public transport in the EU 28 by level of urbanisation, 2013 (1)

Subjective urbanisation	Less than 10 min.	10-30 min.	30 min-1 hour	More than 1 hour	Don't know
EU28 average	77%	18%	2%	2%	1%
Large town	87%	12%	1%	0%	0%
Small/Mid-size town	78%	18%	2%	1%	1%
Rural village	65%	25%	5%	3%	2%

Source: IRS adaption from European Commission (2014), Europeans' satisfaction with urban transport, Flash Eurobarometer 382b.

Note: (1) Q3b How long does or would it take you to get to the nearest bus, metro or tram station or stop from your home?

Dispersed population and low demand can often result in rural areas being served by infrequent public transport or by none at all. Indeed, satisfaction with urban public transport of Europeans living in rural areas is lower than that registered for people living in large towns (52% and 56% respectively)(EC, 382b)⁵⁴.

The accessibility indicator developed by the UK Department for Transport shows the gap in having good transport access to key services and work between inhabitants of rural and urban areas in England (see Table 2.10).

⁵² European Commission (2014), Europeans' satisfaction with urban transport, Flash Eurobarometer 382b.

⁵³ Data refer to answers to the question: "On a typical day, which mode of transport do you use most often?"; European Commission (2014), *Quality of transport. Report*, Special Eurobarometer 422a / Wave EB82.2 – TNS Opinion & Social.

⁵⁴ European Commission (2014), Europeans' satisfaction with urban transport, Flash Eurobarometer 382b.

Table 2.10: Households with good transport access to key services or work by rural and urban areas, England, 2013 (Index: 2011 England=100)

Urban	Town + Fringe	Village	Hamlet + Isolated Dwellings
114	86	46	42

Source: IRS adaption from Table ACS0109, Department for Transport statistics (2013), available at: <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/households-with-good-transport-access-to-key-services-or-work--2>

Limited transport infrastructure in many rural and remote regions increases the **social isolation** of those who do not own a car, in particular in areas characterised by considerable dispersion of population and many small villages, making the provision of traditional public transport services difficult and very expensive. These problems appear particularly relevant in some eastern countries such as Romania, Bulgaria and Poland (EC, 2008).

Lack of, or poor, transport provision can be a major barrier for people living in rural areas in accessing training, education and employment opportunities, and rural circumstances may **exacerbate the social disadvantage** of the most vulnerable groups. Assessing the benefits of public transport, UITP (2009) reports that transport schemes have indirect benefits for deprived areas in that they provide access to large centres of employment, healthcare and other essential services such as education. A relatively small addition to the transport network can have a large impact on the opportunities and choices available to residents. Markovich and Lucas (2011) find that availability of, and physical access to, public transport in rural areas have been recognised as being particularly important for the population groups more at risk of social exclusion, namely the elderly (Dwyer and Hardill, 2011; Park et al., 2010); women (Noack, 2011), young people (SEU, 2003) and rural residents more generally (SEU, 2003). Young people in rural areas have particular problems in reaching schools and in maintaining a social life, according to Storey and Brannen (2000)⁵⁵.

In rural or marginal areas characterised by a limited range of jobs, transportation facilities supporting work commuting may also be an important way to reduce **out-migration** and depopulation. An analysis conducted by Bjarnason (2014) in Iceland, a country characterised by considerable dispersion of the rural population, shows the positive impact on the mobility of rural residents of a large-scale road infrastructure improvement (a tunnel) connecting rural areas. The tunnel increased work travel irrespective of age and education, in particular among women with children.

The **affordability of travel** for work and education and training is also particularly important in remote areas. For example, in their study on the Highlands and Islands Coleman and Gleave (2010) reveal that high travel costs have impacts on employment decisions (reduced numbers of interviews, giving up jobs, not being able to take on part-time jobs) and education decisions (studying at home rather than undertaking study at college).

⁵⁵ Storey and Brannen (2000), cited in Bradshaw (2004).

3. TRANSPORT AND SOCIAL INCLUSION: EXAMPLES OF GOOD PRACTICE

KEY FINDINGS

- At the EU, national and local level there is an increasing awareness of the importance of transport for the social inclusion of disadvantaged population groups.
- The past decade has seen growing attention on the part of the European Institutions to transport-related social issues, and increased emphasis has been placed on accessibility and service quality issues, as well as the protection of passenger rights across all modes of travel.
- At the national and local level many measures have been implemented to address the specific needs of socially and transport-disadvantaged groups, often with the support of EU funds and programmes. These measures provide good examples of how the transport systems could be enhanced or redesigned in order to support social inclusion of the most vulnerable groups.
- Many of the good practices implemented do not require large investments, but above all internalisation of the social inclusion perspective in all transport policies and finding ways to combine efficiency with equity by prioritising research and public spending on those measures that appear to be more effective in supporting social inclusion at lower cost.

3.1 What has been done so far at the EU level: state of the art

Transport policy has been one of Europe's first common policy areas. However, despite the Commission's efforts, the common transport policy made only stuttering progress until the second half of the 1980s⁵⁶. Initially, EU priorities were mainly focused on economic concerns, e.g. developing a competitive internal market for transport through market opening and liberalisation, facilitation of investment in prioritised transport infrastructure and revision of infrastructure pricing and taxation to incentivise a more efficient use of transport infrastructure⁵⁷.

In recent years the EU common transport policy has evolved, extending in scope to other dimensions in line with the concept of sustainable and inclusive growth, with a focus on the social and environmental impact of transport systems. The social issues addressed have mainly been related to harmonisation of national legal and administrative regulations to improve working conditions for transport workers⁵⁸ and the quality and security of the transport system, as well as passengers' rights⁵⁹. In more recent years some measures

⁵⁶ European Parliament, Fact Sheets on the European Union- Transport Policy General.

http://www.europarl.europa.eu/aboutparliament/en/displayFtu.html?ftuId=FTU_5.6.1.html

⁵⁷ This objective has largely been achieved, apart from rail transport, for which the single market has been achieved only in part (European Parliament Fact Sheets on the European Union - Transport Policy: General http://www.europarl.europa.eu/aboutparliament/en/displayFtu.html?ftuId=FTU_5.6.1.html).

⁵⁸ On the social and working conditions of the road transport haulers, see the European Parliament 2013 study : [http://www.europarl.europa.eu/RegData/etudes/etudes/join/2013/495855/IPOL-TRAN_ET\(2013\)495855\(SUM01\)_EN.pdf](http://www.europarl.europa.eu/RegData/etudes/etudes/join/2013/495855/IPOL-TRAN_ET(2013)495855(SUM01)_EN.pdf)

⁵⁹ For an evaluation of the evolution of the European Common Transport Policy see "Evaluation of the Common Transport Policy (CTP) of the EU from 2000 to 2008 and analysis of the evolution and structure of the European Transport System sector in the context of the long-term development of the CTP – Final Report, prepared by Steer Davies Gleave for the EC DG Energy and Transport in August 2009. http://ec.europa.eu/transport/themes/strategies/studies/doc/future_of_transport/20090908_common_transport_policy_final_report.pdf

have been implemented to address the specific needs of disadvantaged groups, often with the support of EU funds and programmes.

As shown in Annex 2, Table A.2.1, since the beginning of the 2000s the EU has produced a comprehensive body of regulations covering passenger rights in all transport modes, and these regulations are going to be further consolidated in the coming years. Moreover, a large number of European projects have focused on the transport needs of the elderly and people with disabilities (see Annex 3, Table A.3.1).

Furthermore, improving the quality of public transport is a key objective of EU-funded research in relation to all modes of local and regional transport (e.g. rail and bus), as well as long-distance services (e.g. rail, air, sea and inland waterways). The aim is to develop measures to meet the goals of transport efficiency, sustainability and equal access for all, and to establish innovation targets in terms of technology, organisation and decision-support systems. In meeting targets for high-quality public transport, increasing attention is being paid to analysis of the needs and behaviour of users, and of technologies and management systems, and to the development of new concepts in transport services.

Mobility substitutes, such as telecommunications and delivery services are also considered, as they can provide greater access to various types of products and services, particularly those involving the provision of information allowing for better journey planning. However, equity and accessibility for older people and disadvantaged communities are still open issues requiring further investment and more efficient, speedier implementation of services. Research needs to consider the issue of providing these groups with user-friendly and low-cost technologies which can facilitate arranging journeys.

The role of the European Commission

The White Paper on "The Future Development of the Common Transport Policy: A Global Approach to the Construction of a Community Framework for Sustainable Mobility" adopted by the Commission on 2 December 1992 (COM(92)0 494final) marked the turning point towards an integrated approach based on a 'sustainable mobility' model. This approach was further developed in the subsequent Commission White Paper of 22 July 1998 "Fair payment for infrastructure use: a phased approach to a common transport infrastructure charging framework in the EU" (COM(1998)0466 final), drawing attention to the considerable differences between Member States in charging for transport services, and to the fact that the existing charging systems did not take sufficiently into account the environmental and social aspects of transport. The importance of the accessibility of transport systems was underlined also in the Green paper "The citizens' network- Fulfilling the potential of public passenger transport in Europe " (COM (95) 601 final) , while the 1993 "Community Action Programme for Accessible Transport" laid down specific measures to increase transport-friendliness for people with reduced mobility⁶⁰.

In the White Paper "European Transport Policy for 2010: Time to decide" (COM(2001)0370), the Commission reviewed the problems and challenges of European transport policy, with regard in particular to the eastward enlargement of the EU. In order to contribute to the creation of an economically efficient and environmentally and socially responsible transport system, the Commission put forward a package of 60 measures. The

⁶⁰ European Commission (1993), *Community Action Programme on the Accessibility of Transport. Action Programme*. [COM(93) 433 final].

proposed measures aimed at reviving rail transport, promoting sea and inland waterway transport and interlinking all the modes of transport. Furthermore, the Commission called for a revision of the guidelines for Trans-European Networks, with a view to adapting them to the enlarged EU and eliminating cross-border 'bottlenecks'. The White Paper also made provision for an action plan on road safety, and the harmonisation of charging principles⁶¹.

Many of the measures announced in the 1992 and 2001 White Papers have since been implemented or introduced. Furthermore, the EU launched some ambitious large-scale technological projects in this period⁶² to contribute to more efficient and safer traffic management in the future. However, a provisional mid-term review of the White Paper⁶³ in 2006 (recognised that the measures planned in 2001 were not sufficient to achieve the objectives. For this reason, the Commission launched further measures to reach these goals in form of Communications and Opinions: (i) Action Plans for goods transport logistics⁶⁴, for the Deployment of Intelligent Transport Systems in Europe⁶⁵ and for Urban Mobility⁶⁶, (ii) an Integrated European Action Programme for inland waterway transport⁶⁷, and (iii) opinion on strategic goals and recommendations for the EU's Maritime Transport Policy until 2018⁶⁸. Both the Mid-Term Review of the 2001 Transport White Paper (2006) and the European Commission's Action Plan on Urban Mobility⁶⁹ show an increased emphasis on accessibility and service quality issues, as well as protection of passenger rights across all travel modes.

In July 2008 the Commission presented its 'Greening Transport' package to help the EU achieve its climate and energy goals through a series of communications and a strategy for internalisation of the external costs of all transport modes. The package represents a first step in the direction of an intermodal effort to tackle the problem of external costs, which is still one of the most difficult and controversial problems currently facing European transport policy.

In its 2011 White Paper 'Roadmap to a Single European Transport Area – Towards a competitive and resource efficient transport system'⁷⁰, the Commission describes the transition between old and new challenges for transport and sets out ways to meet these

⁶¹ European Parliament, Fact Sheets on the European Union- Transport Policy General.

http://www.europarl.europa.eu/aboutparliament/en/displayFtu.html?ftuId=FTU_5.6.1.html

⁶² The European satellite navigation system Galileo, the European Rail Traffic Management System (ERTMS) and the SESAR programme to improve air traffic control infrastructure.

⁶³ European Commission (2006), *Keep Europe moving - Sustainable mobility for our continent - Mid-term review of the European Commission's 2001 Transport White paper*. Communication from the Commission to the Council and the European Parliament, (COM(2006) 314 final)

⁶⁴ European Commission (2007a), *Freight Transport Logistics Action Plan*. Communication from the Commission, (COM(2007) 607 final)

⁶⁵ European Commission (2008), *Action Plan for the Deployment of Intelligent Transport Systems in Europe*. Communication from the Commission, (COM(2008) 886 final)

⁶⁶ European Commission (2009a), *Action Plan on Urban Mobility*. Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament, the Council, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions, (COM(2009), 490 final)

⁶⁷ European Commission (2006c), *An Integrated European Action Programme for Inland Waterway Transport*. Communication from the Commission on the promotion of Inland Waterway Transport "Naiades", (COM(2006) 6 final)

⁶⁸ European Commission (2009e), *Strategic goals and recommendations for the EU's maritime transport policy until 2018*. Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament, the Council, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions, (COM(2009) 8 final)

⁶⁹ European Commission (2009a), *Action Plan on Urban Mobility*. Communication of the European Commission to the European Parliament, the Council, the European and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions, (COM (2009) 490 final), [http://ec.europa.eu/transport/themes/urban/doc/ump/com\(2013\)913_en.pdf](http://ec.europa.eu/transport/themes/urban/doc/ump/com(2013)913_en.pdf)

⁷⁰ European Commission, White Paper 'Roadmap to a Single European Transport Area – Towards a competitive and resource efficient transport system' COM(2011)0144, 28 March 2011

challenges. The objective is to reduce greenhouse gas emissions without curbing transport growth and impairing mobility. The Commission details its vision of the future transport system in 10 objectives: a Single European Transport Area, giving as benchmarks the Single European Sky, Single European Railway Area, a 'Blue Belt' in the seas around Europe; opening the markets in combination with quality jobs and good working conditions; improved security and transport safety; better guarantees of passenger rights across all modes of transport and better infrastructure accessibility.

The abovementioned 2009 Action Plan on Urban Mobility outlines the need for an integrated approach to the development of transport infrastructure and services, with the focus on links between transport systems and environmental protection, health, land-use planning, housing, the social aspects of accessibility, and mobility and industrial policy.

In 2013 the European Commission defined an Urban Mobility Package that addressed some of the White Paper initiatives⁷¹: Initiative 31 for procedures and EU financial support mechanisms for Urban Mobility Plans; Initiative 32 for urban road-user charging and access restriction schemes; Initiative 33 for the definition of good practice guidelines to monitor and manage urban freight flows.

The European Structural Funds and Cohesion Funds are the single most important sources of EU funding for urban transport and mobility projects, as well as projects to improve transport links in underprovided and remote territories across Europe.

The role of the European Parliament⁷²

Until the Treaty of Maastricht came into force, legislation concerning transport came under the consultation process. Subsequently, the cooperation procedure was used for nearly all aspects of the common transport policy (the co-decision procedure was used to establish the guidelines for trans-European transport networks). Since the Treaty of Amsterdam, European legislation on transport policy (apart from a few exceptions) has been adopted using the co-decision procedure.

The actions taken by the European Parliament helped to bring greater attention to bear on an integrated global approach to the Common Transport Policy. Alongside support for the liberalisation of the transport markets, the European Parliament has continued to stress the need to implement this, alongside all-embracing harmonisation of the prevailing social, tax and technological conditions, and indeed of safety standards. Moreover, it has regularly supported the model of sustainable mobility with specific proposals and demands.

On 12 February 2003 the European Parliament adopted a resolution on the Commission's White Paper 'European Transport Policy for 2010: a time to decide'. The resolution stressed that the idea of sustainability must be the foundation and the standard for the European

⁷¹ EC Communication *Together towards competitive and resource-efficient urban mobility* COM(2013)0 913 of 17 December 2013 [http://ec.europa.eu/transport/themes/urban/doc/ump/com\(2013\)913_en.pdf](http://ec.europa.eu/transport/themes/urban/doc/ump/com(2013)913_en.pdf)
The Urban Mobility Package consists of Staff Working Documents (SWD): SWD 524 - A call to action on urban logistics; SWD 525 - Targeted action on urban road safety; SWD526 - A call for smarter urban vehicle access regulations; SWD 527 - Mobilising Intelligent Transport Systems for EU See: www.dgt.es/.../UrbanMobilityPackage-Capital-visit-Madrid-12-June-2013

⁷² This paragraph is largely based on information provided in the European Parliament Fact Sheets on the European Union - Transport Policy: General
http://www.europarl.europa.eu/aboutparliament/en/displayFtu.html?ftuId=FTU_5.6.1.html

transport policy. Parliament stressed the importance of creating an integrated global transport system and demanded that transport should be given the political and budgetary consideration warranted by its strategic character and its role as a service of general interest. Parliament supplemented this general approach with a multitude of specific demands and proposals for each individual mode of transport regarding transport safety and the scheduling and financing of the European transport network, as well as better coordination with other EU policy areas. Parliament's demands and proposals also extended to the transport-related topics of intermodality, research, development and new technologies. The Commission has already taken up many of these themes in its most recent legislative proposals.

In its resolution of 12 July 2007 on the mid-term review of the transport White Paper, the European Parliament acknowledged the achievements in some transport policy fields and welcomed in principle the further measures envisaged by the Commission in this mid-term review. However, it also pointed out numerous existing challenges for EU transport policy and drew up a comprehensive list of measures.

In its resolution of 11 March 2008 the European Parliament drew up numerous recommendations for environment and energy-policy action under European transport policy. The Parliament proposed a policy mix of technological improvements, market-based tools and measures to reconcile environmental, transport and energy policies.

The most interesting parliamentary action in relation to social issues is the European Parliament Resolution of 9 July 2008⁷³ on the Commission's Green Paper 'Towards a new culture for urban mobility'. Parliament called, among other things, for development at the European level of an integrated global approach to urban mobility intended to serve as a common frame of reference for European, national, regional and local players (municipalities, citizens, businesses and industry). It highlighted the importance of integrated and comprehensive long-term Sustainable Urban Mobility Plans (SUMPs), and called for specific European rules on the standardisation and harmonisation of mobility for people with disabilities, the elderly, people with young children and the least affluent.

Parliament also recommended launching a programme for the upgrading of statistics and databases on urban mobility and for setting up an Urban Mobility Observatory. Moreover, it called for greater financial support from the EU in this area. Many of these calls were taken up shortly afterwards by the Commission in its Action Plan on Urban Mobility (COM(2009)0490). On this basis, the European Parliament adopted a Resolution on 23 April 2009 on an Action Plan on Urban Mobility (P6_TA(2009)0307)⁷⁴. Furthermore on 11 March 2009 Parliament adopted a resolution on the 'Greening of transport', in which it criticised the Commission for its lack of a comprehensive strategy. Parliament called on the Commission to submit an integrated plan for the greening of transport, together with specific legislative proposals.

⁷³ European Parliament Resolution P6_TA(2008)0356 on the Commission's Green Paper '*Towards a new culture for urban mobility*'. EP Legislative Observatory 2008/2041 (INI)
[http://www.europarl.europa.eu/oeil/popups/ficheprocedure.do?lang=en&reference=2008/2041\(INI\)](http://www.europarl.europa.eu/oeil/popups/ficheprocedure.do?lang=en&reference=2008/2041(INI))

⁷⁴ See EP Legislative Observatory INI 2008/2217 (INI)
<http://www.europarl.europa.eu/sides/getDoc.do?pubRef=-//EP//TEXT+TA+P6-TA-2009-0307+0+DOC+XML+V0//EN>

In its resolution of 6 July 2010 on a sustainable future for transport, Parliament responded to the Commission's communication on preparing the new 2011 White Paper with a wide-ranging list of demands. Parliament's main demands were as follows⁷⁵:

- establishment of a common European reservation system in order to enhance the effectiveness of the various modes of transport and simplify and increase their interoperability;
- increasing the funding currently available for transport and mobility, and the creation of a transport fund and a budget commitment for transport policy under the multiannual financial framework;
- setting of and compliance with clearer, more measurable targets to be achieved in 2020 (with reference to 2010). In particular, Parliament called for: (a) a doubling of the number of bus, tram and rail passengers and a 20% increase in funding for pedestrian- and cycle-friendly transport; (b) a 20% reduction in CO₂ exhaust emissions from road passenger and freight traffic, and a 30% reduction in CO₂ emissions from air transport by 2020; (c) carbon-neutral growth in air transport after 2020; (d) a 40% reduction in the number of deaths of, and serious injuries to, active and passive road transport users.

In a further resolution of 11 December 2011 (T7-0584/2011)⁷⁶ the European Parliament:

- “[...] *calls on the Commission and the Member States to submit by 2013 proposals to develop initiatives that promote environmentally friendly public transport, walking and cycling, especially in towns and cities, with the aim of doubling their number of users*” [omissis] *“recalls that accessibility and affordability of transport is crucial for social mobility and that greater attention should be paid to reconciling sustainability aims with social needs when planning the transport policies of the future”* (p.17);
- *“Believes that the basic rules on passengers' rights should be laid down in a Charter of Passengers' Rights covering all forms of transport, and therefore expects the Commission to put forward, at the latest at the beginning of 2012, a corresponding proposal which takes account of both the specific characteristics of each transport mode and past experience and contains a chapter on the rights of passengers with disabilities; calls, at the same time, for uniform interpretation and consistent application, implementation and enforcement of these rights, on the basis of clear definitions and guidelines, and transparency regarding their management;”* (p.18).

To summarise, the main intervention tools of the Common Transport Policy that are of relevance for social inclusion are⁷⁷ (European Parliament, 2011):

- Passenger rights: since the 2001 White Paper, the rights of passengers with specific needs have been addressed. Regulations (EC)1107/2006 and (EU) 1177/2010 are particularly important in this respect, regulating accessibility for people with reduced mobility when travelling by air and waterway transport.

⁷⁵ As indicated in the EP (2014) Facts Sheets on Common Transport policy

http://www.europarl.europa.eu/aboutparliament/en/displayFtu.html?ftuId=FTU_5.6.1.html

⁷⁶ EP Legislative observatory 2011/2096 (INI)

[http://www.europarl.europa.eu/oeil/popups/ficheprocedure.do?reference=2011/2096\(INI\)&l=en](http://www.europarl.europa.eu/oeil/popups/ficheprocedure.do?reference=2011/2096(INI)&l=en)

⁷⁷ See: European Parliament Facts Sheets on Common Transport Policy

http://www.europarl.europa.eu/aboutparliament/en/displayFtu.html?ftuId=FTU_5.6.1.html and European Parliament (2011), *Structural and cohesion policies and the fight against poverty* - Note www.europarl.europa.eu/studies

- Urban mobility: the 2009 Action Plan on Urban Mobility, strongly supported by the European Parliament, also addresses the mobility rights of people with reduced mobility.
- Intelligent Transport Systems (ITS) may be very useful for tailoring transport information to the needs of vulnerable people. Directive 2010/40/EU calls for the adoption of specifications, establishment of standards, and selection and development of ITS applications and services with the aim of greater equality of access for vulnerable users.
- It is also important to underline the role of the EP Citizen's Agora on Crisis and Poverties of 2011, which highlighted the fact that social inclusion policies should meet the mobility and accessibility needs of people in situations of precariousness⁷⁸.

3.2 Supporting social inclusion in transport policies: good practice examples

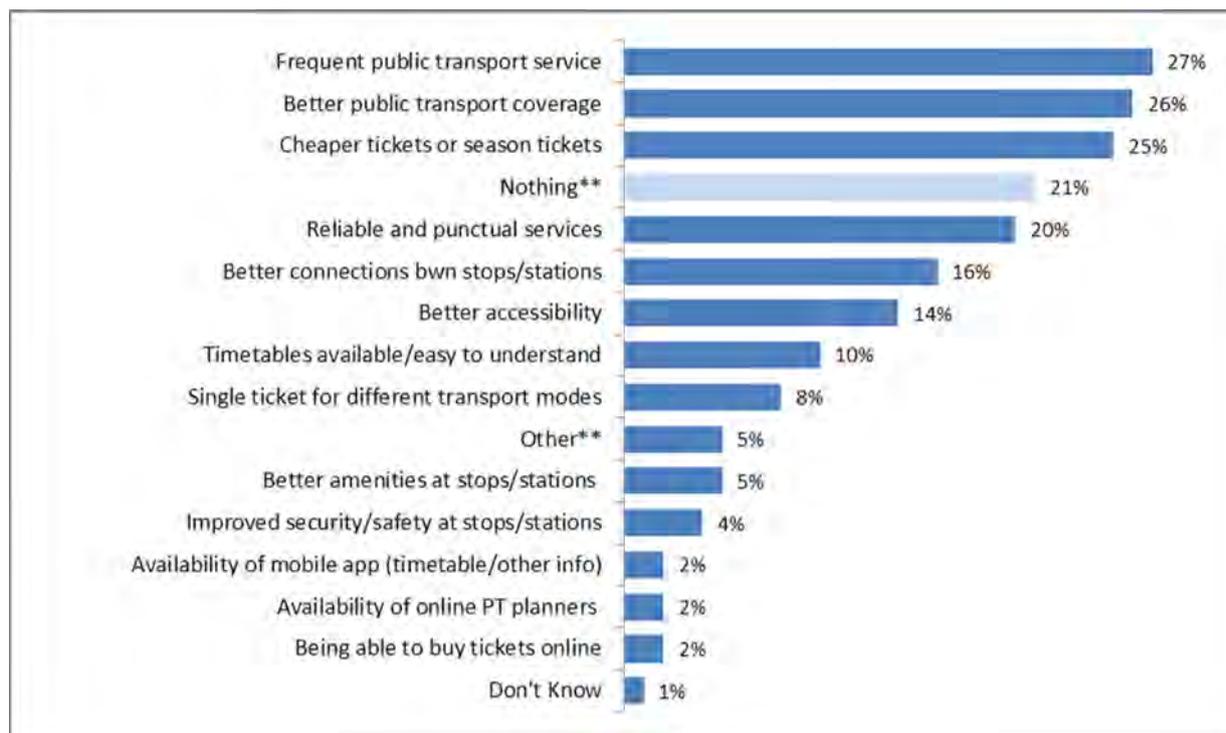
The analysis conducted in the previous chapter has demonstrated the crucial role that public transport plays in the process of social inclusion/exclusion. Social inclusion is significantly related to accessibility of public transport for those without a car or whose mobility is impaired.

A recent Eurobarometer survey (EC, 2014)⁷⁹, commissioned by DG MOVE, investigated the main barriers perceived by European citizens in using public transport and what would encourage users of private transport modes to use public transport more often. Availability (frequent service, better coverage, reliability) and costs (cheaper fares) were, in general, the improvements in public transport most often mentioned as being needed to encourage Europeans to use public transport more often (see Figure 3.1, which report average results for the whole sample of respondents). However, when analysing responses of specific population groups, there emerge differences with respect to the average results: young Europeans (15-24) are more interested in cheaper fares (35% mentioned this option) and reliable or punctual services (28%), whereas people living in rural areas are more interested in the frequency and coverage (both 29%) of public transport.

⁷⁸ See http://www.cedag.eu/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=71:third-citizens- agora&catid=12:news&Itemid=25

⁷⁹ European Commission (2014), *Quality of transport. Report*, Special Eurobarometer 422a / Wave EB82.2 – TNS Opinion & Social.

Figure 3.1: Ways of encouraging the use of public transport*



*Question: What would encourage you to use public transport more often?

**Spontaneous answer

Source: IRS adaption from EC (2014), *Quality of transport. Report*, Special Eurobarometer 422a / Wave EB82.2 – TNS Opinion & Social.

These barriers are particularly important for some user groups. and poor public transport services may exacerbate the disadvantage that more vulnerable groups (e.g. the poor, the unemployed, the elderly, the disabled) already face, aggravating the risk of social exclusion. However, socially disadvantaged groups have different mobility behaviours and needs and face diverse transport barriers. Table 3.1 shows the main transport-related issues for the groups most at risk of social exclusion, while the following sections summarise the main transport-related needs emerging from the analysis conducted in Chapter 2 for each disadvantaged group and provide information on and examples of measures and actions taken in EU countries to meet those needs. Most of the examples provided were collected from good-practice reports produced in the framework of European-funded projects. A (non-exhaustive) list of EU-funded projects is provided in Annex 3.

Table 3.1: Transport barriers and groups at risk of social exclusion

GROUPS AT RISK OF SOCIAL EXCLUSION	MAIN BARRIERS TO PUBLIC TRANSPORT USE				
	AVAILABILITY (Spatial; Temporal)	PHYSICAL ACCESS	INFORMATION	COST	SAFETY AND SECURITY
Children and young people					
Elderly					
Disabled					
Women					
Migrants and ethnic minorities					
Low income and unemployed					
Population living in rural and deprived Areas					

Source: IRS own elaboration.

3.2.1 Children and young people

Empirical and social research show that poor availability of public transport and high fares may prevent young people from having access to secondary and tertiary education, to work and to social interactions, especially for those living in rural and poorly transport-connected areas and/or low-income families. Moreover, there is empirical evidence on the negative impact on children's health and safety of increased traffic congestion and reduced independent mobility and walking.

Over the past decade increasing attention has been paid to the impact of the transport system on the quality of life of children and young people. In particular, a number of pilot projects financed by European funds have been implemented to:

- increase the provision of home-to-school public transport (minibuses) in rural and sparsely populated areas;
- increase the use of healthier transport modes for travel to school and reduce the use of cars;
- enhance road safety and security for pupils going to school;
- promote the use of public transport at night among young people;
- reduce the burden of public transport costs by introducing special fares for students and young people.

In addition to public measures and interventions, the increased availability and use of internet and mobile technologies has given rise to new forms transport mobility and car pooling, especially among young people (see Box 3.1).

Box 3.1: Bla Bla Car

BlaBlaCar, set up in France in 2009 and now available in many EU countries, is an online community marketplace that connects drivers with empty seats to passengers looking for a ride. It works on a web and mobile platform with dedicated customer service and a community of users. BlaBlaCar seeks to ensure security by asking drivers and passengers to build a profile. Users must verify their mobile phone number, and BlaBlaCar keeps a record of bank and credit card details. Female drivers can opt to transport only women. The business has proved very popular among students and young people.

Source: <http://www.blablacar.com/>

Table 3.2 below presents some examples of good practice implemented in various Member States to address some of the transport-related needs described in chapter 2.

Table 3.2: Children and young people: examples of measures and practices

TRANSPORT RELATED NEEDS	EXAMPLE OF GOOD PRACTICE
Improving access to education and work	Wheels to Work (W2W) and Wheels to Learning (W2L) schemes play an active role in overcoming transport barriers and opening up access to employment, training or education, particularly for people in remote areas where there is limited access to transport. These schemes provide loans of a personal mode of transport (e.g. motorcycle, scooter or moped, electric bike or bicycle) for a short period, until a longer-term solution can be found. The scheme is offered to people of all ages but experience shows that young people in rural areas tend to benefit the most. The scheme, originally trialled in Shropshire some 15 years ago with 50 bikes, gained national prominence. Since then, W2W programmes have been established in a number of local authority areas around the UK and supported via grants from the Countryside Agency and the Local Sustainable Transport Fund. [Wheels 2 work]
	The Municipality of Rouvas in the Messara Valley in Southern Crete has put into full service an owned mini-bus to transport local students to elementary and secondary school in the main village. Previously parents had to drive their children to school or students had to use the regular bus service. At the same time, inhabitants living in outer settlements can use the empty seats for trips to the shops or to other services. [ARTS - Rural Transport Handbook)
Increasing safety	The Child Accident Atlas (published by the German Federal Highway Research Institute) provides information about the scale on which children are involved in road accidents in a specific area. By analysing the accident data at regional level, it is possible to identify and analyse local and regional blackspots and take local action to address them. The Federal Ministry of Transport, Building and Urban Development will compile the atlas at regular intervals and make it available to the federal states and local authorities as an aid for the purpose of implementing local measures. [Federal Ministry of Transport, Building and Urban development, 2012)
Increasing use of healthier mobility modes	The project Pedibus , implemented by the Municipality of Macerata (Italy), is a form of group transport for schoolchildren. It involves schools organising collective walks from home to school following pre-defined routes, and includes collecting schoolchildren from their home; the groups are accompanied by adult volunteers. It helps children and their parents to travel in a healthy and inexpensive manner. [MMOVE Best Practice Report, 2011)
	Bicibus in Reggio Emilia (IT) consists in groups of primary school children travelling to school by bicycle accompanied by at least two adults (parents, volunteers, grandparents). Each group travels along a predefined route which has been made safe and delineated by road surface markings and '(bike) bus stops'. In 2010, 565 schoolchildren and 18 primary schools were involved in the Bicibus project. This kind of good practice is easily transferable and has already been emulated in many countries such as Austria, France, Germany and the United Kingdom. [MMOVE Best Practice Report, 2011)

Sources: Wheels 2 work website: www.wheels2workassociation.org/
 ARTS Project, Rural Transport Handbook, available at: www.rural-transport.net
 MMOVE Best Practice Report (2011), available at: http://www.mmove.eu/Reggio_Emilias/upload_material/MMOVE_BP_report_def.pdf
 Federal Ministry of Transport, Building and Urban development (2012), Road Safety Programme 2011, available at: <http://www.unece.org>

3.2.2 Elderly people

Older people experience mobility limitations caused by increasing cognitive problems and physical impairments. Public transport plays a crucial role in elderly mobility, especially in rural areas, supporting an independent life and access to basic services, and indeed reducing social isolation. In using public transport the elderly face many transport-related barriers linked to difficulties in reaching bus stops or accessing vehicles, fear of falling and apprehensions about personal security, difficulties in reading timetables and destinations, etc.

Recognising the needs of a growing population of older people, various measures have been taken at national and local level to improve accessibility to public transport with the support of European Programmes such as the 5th, 6th, and 7th Framework Programmes (e.g. GOAL, SIZE, TRACY, OASIS)⁸⁰.

The measures and schemes implemented have addressed a number of transport-related issues and needs, such as:

- reducing physical barriers in public transport vehicles, at bus stops and in the street;
- enhancing travel information for the elderly;
- providing training and awareness-raising for drivers and other public transport staff on how to deal with the needs of elderly people;
- providing door-to-door and flexible on-demand transport;
- introducing lower senior fares or free travel schemes.

Some examples of good practice are presented in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3: The elderly: examples of measures and practices

TRANSPORT RELATED NEEDS	EXAMPLE OF GOOD PRACTICE
Promoting travel training and information	Promoting public transport use by older people (Salzburg, Austria). This is an integrated project, run by the local transport operator (StadtBus) and the Centre for Generations and Accessibility (ZGB). The scheme comprises a wide range of activities: e.g. travel training for older passengers; training for drivers; a brochure on safe mobility on the bus; larger maps of the network and timetables; information about the fares for older people; a telephone hotline for older people to report their daily living problems. [MEDIATE Good Practice Guide]
Improving physical access	Universal accessibility for all public transport users. In Spain, Burgos is showing the way with a system designed to be easily accessible to all, including older and disabled people. The project covers the whole city with a bus network, with all vehicles equipped for ramp access – as well as for on-board audio and visual information provision. Real-time information is also available at 80% of the bus stops. New routes have been developed, drivers given special training, and timetables and frequencies increased to make public transport a more attractive option. The intention is to add more lines, and to further improve the infrastructure for intermodal exchange. Bus use by the elderly and disabled target groups rose by more than 8% after 18 months of operation. [MEDIATE Good Practice Guide]

⁸⁰ GOAL- Growing Older, stAying mobile: The transport needs of an ageing society: www.goal-project.eu; TRACY – Transport needs for an ageing society: www.tracy-project.eu; SIZE – Life quality of senior citizens in relation to mobility conditions: www.size-project.at; OASIS – Open architecture for Accessible Services Integration and Standardization: www.oasis-project.eu.

Improving availability	Ring and Ride provides door-to-door accessible transport for people with mobility difficulties in the West Midlands (UK). Ring and Ride is operated by Special Needs Transport Ltd – a registered charity. Moreover, a Rural Taxibus service has been implemented in the Heart of England area. This is a widespread service provided by several communities and municipalities in England: e.g. London Dial-a-Ride service for the disabled and elderly (door-to-door transport services) [PTEG Good Practice Guide]
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Sources: MEDIATE – Good practice guide, available at: <http://www.mediate-project.eu/fileadmin/Deliverables/GoodPracticeGuide.pdf>
PTEG Good Practice Guide, available at http://www.pteg.net/system/files/general-docs/TransportandSocialInclusionGoodPracticeGuide2005_0.pdf

3.2.3 People with disabilities

People with disabilities are more likely to be dependent on lifts from family and friends and on community transport. Public transport is often experienced as inaccessible and poor transport services become a barrier to social inclusion, making it difficult to access education, employment, services and social networks.

The mobility of disabled people is often limited by the lack of accessible vehicles and transport stations, the poor quality of pedestrian environments, and inaccessible transport information systems. Moreover, people with physical disabilities or cognitive impairments usually experience a lack of confidence in being able to complete journeys without support, and the attitude of public transport staff plays a crucial role in affecting the willingness and ability of many disabled and older people to travel.

In the past decade a number of measures have been taken to enhance the mobility rights of disabled persons and in recent years the EU has raised awareness of disability issues⁸¹. Legislation on disabled passengers' rights and obligations has been implemented at European and national level, and many projects aimed at enhancing disabled access to public transport have been financed under EU Framework Programmes (e.g. ACCESS2ALL, MEDIATE, EUROACCESS, PTACCESS, UNIACCESS)⁸². Moreover, a number of national measures and actions have been implemented in Member States:

- staff training on addressing the needs of passengers with disabilities and impairments;
- travel training for passengers with disabilities;
- passenger feedback and monitoring systems;
- accessible information and communication systems for passengers with sight and hearing limitations;
- reduction of physical barriers in vehicles and at bus stops;
- reduction of mobility barriers in infrastructure and pedestrian environments.

Table 3.4 shows some examples of good practice in these fields.

⁸¹ As shown, for example, by the launch in 2010 of the EU Disability Strategy 2010-2020 and the mandate to Eurostat to develop specific statistics on disability.

⁸² ACCESS 2 ALL – Mobility Schemes Ensuring Accessibility of Public Transport for all Users: www.access-to-all.eu; MEDIATE – Methodology for describing the accessibility of transport in Europe, www.mediate-project.eu and www.aptie.eu; UNIACCESS – Design of Universal Accessibility Systems for Public Transport.

Table 3.4: Disabled: examples of measures and practices

TRANSPORT RELATED NEEDS	EXAMPLE OF GOOD PRACTICE
Increasing awareness and information of PT staff	<p>Disability awareness training for drivers and managers (Transdev, France). The scheme aims to deliver training for drivers and managers across all Transdev companies, but initially those in France (more than 400 contracts), in understanding disability and disabled people's needs. [MEDIATE Good Practice Guide]</p> <p>A disability awareness training session for railway staff (Luxembourg), including theoretical information and practical exercises to give staff experience of the real-life situations faced by people with reduced mobility and people with cognitive and sensory disabilities. The scheme is officially integrated into routine staff training and takes place three or four times a year; it is run by five disability association focusing on mobility and cognitive, hearing and visual impairment. [MEDIATE Good Practice Guide]</p>
Improving access by reducing physical barriers	<p>The Easy access in Stockholm project (Sweden), run by the city of Stockholm, aims to deliver improved accessibility to the built-up outdoor environment (streets, pavements and public areas) and to public buildings by removing barriers. The strategy is based on accessibility plans for each part of the city, starting with an inventory of barriers that need to be removed; the plans are then developed into annual programmes of specific measures and investment. Disabled people and other stakeholders are closely involved in the process through municipal disability advisory boards. [MEDIATE Good Practice Guide]</p> <p>Design of ticket vending machines that are usable by visually impaired people and other passengers with disabilities by TMB – the public transport operator in Barcelona (Spain). Disabled people were involved from the initial interviews to determine needs, through validation of the technical and functional requirements during the design process, and on to approval of the final product. [MEDIATE Good Practice Guide]</p> <p>TfL Transport for London provides a full range of information and accessibility guides for people with disabilities, for instance: audio maps, large-print maps, step-free guides, station accessibility information for the disabled and elderly. Moreover, every London bus route is wheelchair accessible, with automatic ramps and designated wheelchair spaces. [Transport for London]</p>
Increasing travel independence	<p>Les Compagnons de Voyage is an association set up jointly by the RATP (the Paris/Ile-de-France transport authority) and the SNCF (French Railways) to provide assistance to anyone with a permanent or temporary disability. There are more than 100 trained companions with experience and understanding of a wide range of disabilities. They are trained in sign language, guiding techniques for blind people and working with people with dementia. Clients of the service comprise people who have physical, sensory or cognitive impairments, including "vulnerable" older people. Both adults and children use the service. There is an average of 150 accompanied journeys every day in the city of Paris and its suburbs. [MEDIATE Good Practice Guide]</p> <p>Mentoring service (TfL Transport for London). The key objective of the service is for more disabled people to become independent travellers. This enables them to broaden their travel and personal horizons and to reduce their dependence on door-to-door services. This free service helps individuals to plan accessible routes and journeys, and provides a mentor to travel with them until they have the confidence to make the journey independently. There is a limit of 10 accompanied journeys, but most people need far fewer. The service is available to people with any kind of physical, sensory or cognitive impairment. [MEDIATE Good Practice Guide]</p> <p>Training and familiarisation sessions (Stuttgart, Germany). Passenger training for people with mobility or visual impairments. The key objective is to help disabled people who use public transport. The training is provided by SSB, the public transport provider in the region. Half-day sessions are run on a regular basis four times a year. [MEDIATE Good Practice Guide]</p>

TRANSPORT RELATED NEEDS	EXAMPLE OF GOOD PRACTICE
	The Motability Scheme enables disabled people to use their government-funded mobility allowance to lease a new car, scooter or powered wheelchair. Adaptations to help with driving, stowing the wheelchair or scooter, or getting in and out of the car are available. The scheme was set up in 1978 and has helped over 3 million people get mobile with a new vehicle. [Motability, UK]
Increasing availability	Flexlinjen is an on-demand transport service that runs throughout Göteborg (Sweden) and links with accessible public transport. Flexlinjen is public transport open for all passengers, but trips must be booked in advance. It stops only when passengers need it to and goes close to the destination (max 150 m away) but not exactly door to door. Because of the booking system, a seat and available space for mobility equipment (wheelchair, wheeled walker etc. or heavy luggage) will always be available. [MEDIATE Good Practice Guide]

Sources:

MEDIATE – Good practice guide, available at:

<http://www.mediate-project.eu/fileadmin/Deliverables/GoodPracticeGuide.pdf>

PTEG Good Practice Guide, available at

http://www.pteg.net/system/files/general-docs/TransportandSocialInclusionGoodPracticeGuide2005_0.pdf

Transport for London website: www.tfl.gov.uk

Motability website: <http://www.motability.co.uk>

3.2.4 Women

Research has provided evidence that women’s travel patterns differ from men’s in many ways: women are more likely to use public transportation, to travel shorter distances than men, to travel outside rush hours and to make more multi-stop trips, to run household errands and to escort other passengers (usually children or dependent elderly people).

The availability of public transportation outside rush hours, the physical and financial accessibility of transport facilities for women accompanying small children or old and disabled people,, as well as safety and security conditions on vehicles and at transport stations, are hence the main aspects to be considered in responding to women’s transport needs.

Over the last few years, women-friendly transport measures and gender-based surveys on mobility needs have been implemented in a number of EU and non-EU countries at local and national level. On the whole, these measures concern:

- the provision of flexible services, including demand-response transport;
- improvements in the layout of vehicle interiors to facilitate access and provide space for pushchairs;
- new mobility services, such as car-pooling schemes reserved for women;
- night taxi services reserved for women, with fare discounts;
- parking facilities restricted to women;
- adequate lighting and visibility at transport stops and stations and the presence of police officers.

However, as stressed by a recent publication on women’s issues in transportation, commissioned by the European Commission (DG MOVE), entitled 'She moves – Women’s Issues in Transportation, further efforts and policy measure are needed to achieve gender-neutral transport systems: “While many of the issues in gender mobility and travel patterns

have been extensively researched, they have received limited attention in developing gender-specific policies, programmes, and mandates. Studies are needed to explore methods for translating the findings of gender research into policy” (EC, 2014)⁸³.

Table 3.5: Women: examples of measures and practices

TRANSPORT-RELATED NEEDS	EXAMPLES OF GOOD PRACTICE
Increasing safety and security	Dinamica Donna provides a series of transport measures which facilitate mobility for women in Parma (Italy). The project was carried out after an ad hoc survey on women’s mobility needs by the municipality of Parma. Some of these measures regard urban transport services, such as the pink taxis, thanks to which women can travel by night in safety, or special licences issued to pregnant women for access to restricted traffic zones or parking zones reserved to women. Similar measures have been implemented in other Italian cities. Pink taxis are available in Milan, Florence, Bolzano, Mestre, etc. Also, pink car parks are available in major Italian cities such as Turin, Milan and Florence. Escort services which guarantee safety mainly for women travelling alone are provided in Bologna and Cagliari.
Improving accessibility	Regulation for travellers for the provision of spaces for strollers in local buses. The legislative measure introduced in 2008 modifies the Madrid Interurban Transport Regulation for Commuters and the Regulation of the Municipal Transport Company of Madrid. This responds to the demands of groups of women who called for larger spaces in the local buses to enable them to travel with children in pushchairs.
Mainstreaming gender equality	In France, transport policy measures based on women’s needs are structurally integrated into the public transport system and territorial and mobility planning processes. Since 1995 national statistics on urban transport have specifically focused on women’s mobility patterns. Surveys on mobility demand and local planning measures are systematically based on gender differences.

Sources: European Parliament (2012), The role of Women in the green economy, European Parliament Committee on Gender Equality, available at [http://www.europarl.europa.eu/RegData/etudes/note/join/2012/462453/IPOL-FEMM_NT\(2012\)462453_EN.pdf](http://www.europarl.europa.eu/RegData/etudes/note/join/2012/462453/IPOL-FEMM_NT(2012)462453_EN.pdf)

3.2.5 Low-income and unemployed people

The data show that the unemployed and, more generally, low-income people have less access to private modes of transport and are more likely to use public transport. People on low incomes travel shorter distances and are more sensitive to public transport fares. Furthermore, they are more likely to experience other social disadvantages, such as living in rural and deprived areas (less well served by public transport) or suffering from some kind of disability or physical impairment.

The most common measures implemented in Member States to address the needs of low-income and unemployed people is the provision of reduced fares or free passes, as well as specific services for deprived areas as shown in Table 3.6 below. Moreover, these measures may help homeless people⁸⁴, who are usually unemployed and with poor access to transport, in job-seeking. Indeed, in recent years the economic crisis is exposing more people to longer periods of homelessness; deepening poverty and a sharp increase in unemployment have increased the general risk for homelessness in EU countries (EC, 2013)⁸⁵.

⁸³ European Commission (2014), *She moves – Women’s Issues in Transportation*, European Union, 2014,

⁸⁴ In 2008 the European Parliament adopted a written declaration calling on the Council to agree on an EU-wide commitment to end street homelessness by 2015 (European Parliament, Written declaration on ending street homelessness, P6_TA(2008)0163, adopted on 22 April 2008). The declaration calls on the Commission to develop a European framework definition of homelessness, gather comparable and reliable statistical data, and provide annual updates on action taken and progress made in EU Member States towards ending homelessness.

⁸⁵ European Commission, *Confronting Homelessness in the European Union – Commission Staff Working Document*, Accompanying the document “Communication from the Commission to the European Economic and

Table 3.6: Low-income and unemployed: examples of measures and practices

TRANSPORT-RELATED NEEDS	EXAMPLES OF GOOD PRACTICE
Reduced public transport fares	Workwise project. West Midlands (UK). Public transport supports jobseekers (unemployed and not on a Work Programme) on their journey to work by providing free tickets for travel to job interviews and free travel passes to get to new jobs for eight weeks. [PTEG Good Practice Guide]
Increasing availability of PT in deprived areas	<p>Buster Werkenbak is a demand-responsive bus service running between key employment areas in Solihull and East Birmingham. It provides a service in an area where conventional public transport is not available and is operated by a not-for-profit company. To meet licensing requirements, all service-users are members of the Buster Werkenbak "Travel Club", obtained through their employers (who are actively encouraged to make contributions). 25% of users were previously unemployed. [PTEG Good Practice Guide]</p> <p>Crosslink provides two of the most deprived communities in England with enhanced access to Parsons Cross College and the Northern General Hospital. It uses fully accessible minibuses for a very low flat-rate fare. [PTEG Good Practice Guide]</p> <p>Joblink, operating across Merseyside, Halton and Deeside (UK), uses timetabled bus services to link deprived residential areas of high unemployment to key employment sites. Additionally, where no fixed route service is in operation, a demand-responsive, door-to-door service is offered to people referred by key partner organisations. Moreover, a training company, 'Standguide', has been contracted to deliver weekly Employer Explorer trips for jobseekers, in order to promote employment and training opportunities across the strategic investment areas of Wirral, Cheshire and Deeside. [PTEG Good Practice Guide]</p> <p>Wythenshawe and Salford Local Link (UK) is a demand-responsive service operating in very deprived areas. It provides transport for visits to the local hospital, employment centres, doctors, supermarkets, crèche facilities and the local college, as well as post offices, banks and local leisure facilities. [PTEG Good Practice Guide]</p>

Sources: PTEG Good Practice Guide, available at

<http://www.pteg.net/resources/types/reports/social-inclusion-and-transport-pteg-good-practice-guide>

3.2.6 People living in rural or remote areas

In remote, low-density and rural areas, dispersed population and low demand are often associated with poor and infrequent public transport services resulting from public budget constraints. The provision of public transport services to these areas is important as it enables the local population to retain their independence and access basic services and facilities, limiting the risk of depopulation.

In the past few years many initiatives have been implemented at local level by public authorities and the third sector to improve transport connections in disadvantaged and rural areas. On the whole, the main initiatives relate to:

- flexible demand-responsive transport services;
- door-to-door transport services for people with mobility difficulties;
- integration of transport services.

Table 3.7: People living in rural areas: examples of measures and practices

TRANSPORT-RELATED NEEDS	EXAMPLES OF GOOD PRACTICE
Flexible-demand transport	<p>Community Transport (UK) provides door-to-door transport to people in local communities who cannot use mainstream public transport, allowing them to access work, training and social activities. Community Transport providers use a range of vehicles and community car-share schemes, using both professional and volunteer drivers. Operators are local community-based organisations and the type of transport offered varies from borough to borough. [Transport for London]</p>
	<p>Dorfmobil is a demand-responsive transport project. In the Municipality of Klaus (Austria), a thinly populated and mountainous area, local residents formed a non-profit association with the object of offering a door-to-door transport service for those who do not have access to a car, cannot drive or simply do not want to drive. The Dorfmobil minivan operates from Monday to Friday and takes passengers to the grocery store, the doctor's surgery, the bank, the railway station etc. The Dorfmobil service is still operating, having become very important for the municipality and especially for persons having no access to a car. [ARTS - Rural Transport Handbook]</p>
	<p>The Flipper project developed an interesting tool for evaluating the applicability of Flexible Transport Systems (demand-responsive) including: a methodology for benchmarking and evaluating flexible services; guidelines for planning and designing the Flexible Transport Systems, carrying out tenders, and optimising the service; an analysis of the regulatory framework for Flexible Transport Systems in the various project states. Flipper is European Territorial Cooperation project funded under the Interreg IVC EU Programme. [Flipper Project]</p>
Transport integration	<p>Integration of School and Regular Transport in Rural Areas – RUTO. The pilot project took place in Galicia (Spain) in three municipalities of a very rural and sparsely populated area, where more than half the population is over 60 years old, and schools are available only in the main towns. The services permitted all types of passengers to travel to the three main villages, arriving early in the morning and leaving in the afternoon, according to school timetables. [ARTS - Rural Transport Handbook]</p>
	<p>KombiBUS - KB (Brandenburg- GERMANY) combines the transport of passengers and public goods in an integrated logistical solution. Offering multiple services with the same vehicles and to the same location, special buses equipped for transporting both passengers and goods serve low-demand areas and reduce costs. This practice is easily transferrable because it does not require very complex organisation or significant investment and can contribute to increasing mobility in rural areas. [ITERREG IVC Good Practice database]</p>
	<p>MobilSAM (Ulm - Germany) is a taxi, completing the bus and tram network on corridors with a lower demand, especially off peak. The taxi runs on a timetable between regular bus stops and the passengers' doorstep. [MMOVE Best Practice Report, 2011]</p>
Monitoring and planning	<p>Rural transport Handbook The ARTS project, financed under the 5Framework Program, designed a toolbox to assist transport planners and key stakeholders in the future design, implementation and evaluation of rural transport systems. [ARTS - Rural Transport Handbook]</p>
	<p>Transport Accessibility statistics (UK). Since 2012 the UK Department for Transport has been publishing a set of statistics and indicators to help local authorities in accessibility planning and monitoring of developments. In particular, accessibility statistics provide a local-level measure of the availability of transport to key services (covering food stores, education, healthcare, town centres and employment centres) for the populations who use them. Travel-time, destination and origin indicators to key sites and services are calculated. Moreover, an impact indicator for measuring households with good transport access to key services or work is estimated annually. The measure combines accessibility data with car ownership data to give an indication of those areas where there is the greatest need to improve public transport accessibility. Statistics and index estimates span from 2007 to 2013 and cover different geographical levels (regions, local authorities, by degree of urbanisation). [Department for Transport]</p>

Sources: Transport for London website: www.tfl.gov.uk

ARTS Project, Rural Transport Handbook, available at: www.rural-transport.net

Wheels 2 work website: www.wheels2workassociation.org/

ITERREG IVC Good Practice database, available at: <http://www.interreg4c.eu/good-practices>

Department for Transport website: www.dft.gov.uk/statistics/series/accessibility

Flipper Project website: <http://www.interreg4cflipper.eu/>

3.2.7 Migrants and ethnic minorities

Immigrants (especially women) do not usually own a car and mostly rely on public transport, and indeed on walking. However, there is scant documentation on the travel behaviour of, and the social impact of transport on, immigrants and ethnic minorities in European transport-related social research, and improvement is called for.

The results of an EU-funded project (“Together on the move”) show that the main transport-related issues for immigrants are language barriers and racial/religious discrimination. The production of multi-language travel information, as well as increased availability of transport connections in deprived areas and improved accessibility for women accompanying children, are hence among the main aspects to be considered in responding to immigrants’ and ethnic minorities’ transport needs. However, there are few examples of transport measures specifically targeting migrants and ethnic minorities.

Table 3.8: Migrants and ethnic minorities: examples of measures and practices

TRANSPORT - RELATED NEEDS	EXAMPLES OF GOOD PRACTICE
Training and information	<p>The Independent Travel Training Package developed by Warrington Borough Council in the north-east of England aims to assist in particular people with learning disabilities and visual impairments but also people who cannot read and those from ethnic minorities. The package basically consists of five measures. Besides a training manual, a travel game, videos and DVDs, a “travel wallet” is supplied, containing documentation to help the driver and user communicate on the details of a desired trip. [ECLIPSE – European good practice review]</p> <p>TOGETHER on the move is a 3-year project, started in 2011 and funded by the Commission’s “Intelligent Energy Europe Programme”. The project has been developed and implemented by partner organisations in Austria, Belgium, Norway, Sweden and the UK. It offers energy-efficient transport training for immigrants and develops teaching and training materials for sustainable mobility. Furthermore, opinion leaders from migrant institutions and associations are encouraged and trained to address the issue of mobility in their formal and non-formal integration courses and activities. These activities seek to enhance the quality of life of immigrants and to facilitate social inclusion, as well as conserving essential energy resources for future generations. The project has now ended, but training materials in several European languages (English, Dutch, Norwegian, German, Swedish and French) can be downloaded from the project website. [TOGETHER ON THE MOVE]</p>
Foreign-language information	<p>GMPTE – the Greater Manchester Passenger Transport Executive (UK) implemented Language Line, a telephone service which enables customers to talk to staff through translators in almost 200 languages. Language Line helps tourists and visitors but also deals with the county’s local language needs. In fact, there are 54 languages spoken in Greater Manchester, and consultation with black and minority ethnic groups revealed that many experienced difficulties when trying to access information about public transport. [PTEG Good Practice Guide]</p> <p>London public transport provides public transport information (guides, maps, etc.) in several languages, including Arabic, Turkish, Punjabi, Hindi and Urdu. [Transport for London]</p>

Sources: PTEG Good Practice Guide, available at <http://www.pteg.net/resources/types/reports/social-inclusion-and-transport-pteg-good-practice-guide>
 ECLIPSE, European good practice review http://www.eltis.org/sites/eltis/files/case-studies/documents/bucharest_eu_3.pdf
 Transport for London website: www.tfl.gov.uk
 TOGETHER ON THE MOVE website <http://www.together-eu.org/>

4. CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR IMPROVEMENT OF THE EU ROLE

The report has brought out the following main issues:

1. Public transport plays a crucial role in exacerbating or mitigating the social exclusion of vulnerable and disadvantaged groups, affecting their access to basic services, employment and social relationships. The negative effects of the transport system on the environment, safety and public health are also likely to affect disadvantaged groups disproportionately.
2. Disadvantaged/vulnerable groups present different needs (access to education, work or healthcare, etc.) and are affected in different ways by the existing transport barriers. Public transport policies/measures must therefore be specifically tailored to user needs and criticalities. There is, however, still too little research on and attention to the mobility needs of disadvantaged population groups.
3. Public transport is not the only way to reduce the mobility problems of disadvantaged groups. Addressing mobility issues related to social inclusion requires interaction between transport and welfare policies, which could make the decision-making process more complex and lengthy.
4. In the near future the transport challenges represented by demographic ageing, poverty, migration and geographical disadvantage will be increasing.
5. New transport technologies may support public transport policies in mitigating social exclusion and provide flexible cost-effective services. Also, increasing involvement on the part of private providers (e.g. car owners, rural or collective taxis), NGOs and voluntary work may represent low-cost solutions to specific needs.
6. Given the increasing demand for greater attention to the mobility and accessibility needs of disadvantaged population groups and territorial areas, at EU and national/local level there is an increasing awareness of the importance of transport for the social inclusion of disadvantaged population groups. Some measures have been implemented in recent years to address the specific needs of these groups, in most cases with the support of EU funds and programmes.

Suggestions and recommendations for improvement of the EU role

The measures implemented to address the needs of vulnerable transport users provide some examples of how transport systems could be redesigned to favour social inclusion. Many of these measures are, however, heavily dependent on EU financial support, and some are difficult to incorporate into ordinary public transport policies at local, regional and national level owing to public budget constraints, especially in the southern and eastern Member States worst hit by the crisis.

However, some of the measures implemented do not require large-scale investment, but rather, above all, mainstreaming of the social inclusion perspective in transport policies and finding ways to combine efficiency with equity by prioritising research and public spending on those measures that appear to be most effective in supporting social inclusion at lower costs.

In order to develop an inclusive public transport system it is necessary for **accessibility, safety and comfort** in transportation modes to become a priority in transport policy. This means improving:

- all the stages of the journey, including the walking environment, so that people with mobility impairment can reach and use public transport services. Pedestrian ways and crossings in cities should be improved in terms of both safety and quality; bus stops and transport stations and the paths leading to them must take account of the needs of women, the elderly and the disabled, with the focus on accessibility to vehicles and safety.
- The design of transport facilities addressing the specific needs of vulnerable groups. Access to transport modes must be facilitated by providing sufficiently wide doors and avoiding steps, besides providing adequate seating and space for small children, the disabled and the elderly.
- Safety and security in public transport, crucial issues which disproportionately affect women and the elderly. To take account of safety problems, women should be allowed to use public transportation bringing them closer to their final destination, even if outside normal bus stops, in the evening and at night. The provision of adequate lighting is also particularly important from this point of view. Awareness campaigns targeting public transport drivers and passengers should be promoted in order to improve passenger safety. The safety aspect should also be considered with regard to the design of car parks and transport stations.
- Service provision and pricing structures. Whereas public transport services are in most cases designed for travel towards the city centre during rush hours, women, the elderly, young people and the disabled also need transport services in their local neighbourhood outside rush hours to allow them to make short but linked journeys. In addition, the pricing structure of public transport services should take account of the fact that these groups make journeys which in most cases call for the use of several tickets.
- The capacity of the public authorities to find innovative solutions for transport services, including activating and coordinating different transport operators (e.g. public and private operators, NGOs and voluntary organisations) at different levels (local, regional, national and European) in order to provide integrated, flexible transport services reaching different destinations and enabling the most vulnerable user groups to arrange both short- and long-distance journeys, as well as cross-border travel⁸⁶. The public authorities at local level could, for example, activate and coordinate private car owners and NGOs for the purposes of specific transport services targeting vulnerable groups or areas, and define specific agreements and/or conventions with taxi drivers for the provision of on-demand transport services for the elderly, or with NGOs and voluntary organisations for transport services for the disabled, or support the development of secure web-based networks matching the demand and supply of transport, especially in rural and remote areas (an example being the Bla Bla Car network described , in particular in Box3.1 of this report).
- Technological devices could be developed to support networking and coordination activities and improve transport efficiency and flexibility in responding to different mobility needs and patterns at relatively low cost. Their use for social inclusion should be further enhanced. For example, the greatest benefit of low-floor vehicles is that it has significantly increased the use of public transport among people

⁸⁶ A 2004 report produced jointly by the ECMT and the International Association of Public Transport (UITP) provides interesting inputs in this respect. In particular, the report analysed four cities (Grenoble, Prague, Göteborg and Liverpool-Merseyside) which have demonstrated the value of collaborative work (between local authorities and public transport operators) to address the needs of disabled and older people more effectively (cited in Frye, 2011).

travelling with small children and the elderly. Similarly, where real-time audio and visual on-bus announcements have been introduced, people with hearing or vision loss have been able to regain the freedom to travel (Frye, 2011).

The EU Institutions can play a very important role in addressing all these issues. In particular:

- They can mainstream an inclusive approach in public transport by supporting capacity building with specific guidelines and common EU standards and by developing an accessibility certification system for vehicles, infrastructure, information and transport pricing. One example is the use of audible and tactile signals at pedestrian crossings to help blind people move in safety; currently the systems are widely diverse among the EU countries, making it difficult for blind people to travel from one country to another. The EU Institutions could support the development of a common EU system and provide funding for the harmonisation of national systems. As for the development of an EU accessibility certification system, the UNIACCESS project⁸⁷ outlines a set of five institutional targets to be met by EU policy in order to harmonise the standards and laws on transport accessibility across the European Union: (i) conducting a comprehensive review of existing national/regional rules and regulations, as well as enforcement measures and recommendations based on best practice for national/regional legislators/authorities; (ii) creating a complete set of EU standards for accessible vehicles, infrastructure, information provision and ticketing; (iii) creating EU-wide non-discrimination legislation to cover all aspects of discrimination and all groups of people; (iv) creating a European-level central agency on non-discrimination; (v) developing accessibility certification for public transport products and services (vehicles, infrastructure, information and ticketing, etc.).
- The EU Institutions can promote and financially support awareness-raising measures and the exchange of good practice. They can also improve the European statistical system with data disaggregated by types of transport users for the purpose of monitoring the evolution of public transport systems, and support technical and policy evaluation research in assessing the economic and social benefits (costs) of public transport in European countries.
- The EU Institutions can use the Structural Funds to promote integrated planning of transport and social inclusion policies and support pilot programmes/projects addressing the accessibility needs of disadvantaged population groups and geographical areas⁸⁸. Here closer integration may be required between ESF and ERDF use in national and regional Operational Programmes, and it will be necessary for co-financed transport projects/programmes to address the social inclusion issue.
- The EU Institutions could play a more prominent role as coordinators in the field of social and transport policies on the basis of Article 9 TFEU; for example, the horizontal social clause of the TFEU calls for an intensified focus on the social dimension of EU policies.

⁸⁷ UNIACCESS – Design of Universal Accessibility Systems for Public Transport is a European project funded under the 6th RTD Framework Programme. The Transport Research and Innovation Portal (TRIP) (www.transport-research.info) provides deliverables and results of the project (direct link : http://www.transport-research.info/web/projects/project_details.cfm?id=36287)

⁸⁸ For example, Article 7 of the ERDF Regulation relating to overall investment priorities (Reg. (EU) 1301/2013) states that: "The ERDF shall support, within operational programmes, sustainable urban development through strategies that set out integrated actions to tackle the economic, environmental, climate, demographic and social challenges affecting urban areas, while taking into account the need to promote urban-rural linkages."

- Finally, the EU Institutions should promote citizens' participation in decision-making in order to take into account the needs of groups and areas at risk of marginalisation and social exclusion. It is essential to involve them in consultation, project-planning and decision-making processes, at least in the procedures applicable to projects/programmes co-financed with European funds.

Various **tools** are available to support these policies:

- legislation may be used to require accessibility issues to be included in transport infrastructure and vehicles. EU standards could become mandatory when European Funds are used: for example, the European Commission has now introduced a legal requirement in the general Regulation on the European Regional Development Fund, the European Social Fund and the Cohesion Fund⁸⁹ to include accessibility as a non-negotiable condition for funding. To support this requirement, the Commission produced a Toolkit in 2009⁹⁰ for those using European Union Structural and Cohesion Funds (Frye, 2011).
- EU programmes for innovation in the transport system (e.g. Horizon 2020) could prioritise EU funding for transport-related research projects designed to enhance transport accessibility for vulnerable groups and promote the dissemination of applied research results on transport planning.

The European Parliament (EP) has a crucial role in this respect, representing the interests of European citizens. In this respect the parliamentary committees directly involved in transport (TRAN) and social policies (EMPL) could work together in order to:

- stimulate debate and awareness-raising – inside and outside the EP – on specific aspects of the social impact of transport policies that are overlooked or underestimated. In this context, specific attention should be focused on communication – inside and outside the EP – by organising events and consultations with stakeholders whenever possible. It is also important to mobilise NGOs and interest associations to support the design and implementation of socially inclusive transport systems.
- Support the introduction of systematic Social Impact Assessments in the work of Parliament on transportation and social policies with the aim of improving regulatory quality and bringing more attention to bear on social impacts in the legislative process.
- Strengthen EU institutional capacity in assessing the social impacts of transport policies by providing specific awareness-raising and training measures for the Members and permanent staff.

⁸⁹ Council Regulation (EC) No 1083/2006 of 11 July 2006, laying down general provisions on the European Regional Development Fund, the European Social Fund and the Cohesion Fund and repealing Regulation (EC) No 1260/1999

⁹⁰ Ensuring Accessibility and Non-discrimination of People with Disabilities: Toolkit for Using EU Structural & Cohesion Funds, 2009.

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ANNEX 1: POVERTY AND SOCIAL EXCLUSION - ADDITIONAL DATA

According to Eurostat statistics, in 2012 124.5 million people (24.8% of the population) in the EU-27+HR were at risk of poverty or social exclusion. In particular, in terms of the three elements contributing to risk of poverty or social exclusion: 10.5% of the population were living in households with very low work intensity; 16.9% of the population were at risk of poverty after social transfers (i.e. their disposable income was below their national at-risk-of-poverty threshold); 9.9% of the population were severely materially deprived (i.e. their living conditions were severely affected by a lack of resources).

Table A.1.1: People at risk of poverty and social exclusion in the EU27+HR, 2012

INDICATOR	PEOPLE (MLN)	% OF TOTAL POPULATION
People at risk of poverty or social exclusion AROPE ⁽¹⁾	124.5	24.8%
People living in households with very low work intensity	39.6	10.5%
People at risk of poverty after social transfers	84.9	16.9%
People severely materially deprived	49.7	9.9%

Note: (1) People are counted only once even if they are present in more than one sub-indicator

Source: EUROSTAT, extraction date 01.12.2014.

Table A.1.2: People at risk of poverty and social exclusion by country and indicator, 2012

COUNTRY	% OF TOTAL POPULATION			
	People at risk of poverty or social exclusion AROPE (1)	People living in households with very low work intensity (2)	People at risk of poverty after social transfers (3)	People severely materially deprived (4)
EU27+HR	24.8	10.5	16.9	9.9
Belgium	21.6	13.9	15.3	6.3
Bulgaria	49.3	12.5	21.2	44.1
Czech Republic	15.4	6.8	9.6	6.6
Denmark	19	11.3	13.1	2.8
Germany	19.6	9.9	16.1	4.9
Estonia	23.4	9.1	17.5	9.4
Ireland	30	23.4	15.7	9.8
Greece	34.6	14.2	23.1	19.5
Spain	28.2	14.3	22.2	5.8
France	19.1	8.4	14.1	5.3
Croatia	32.6	16.8	20.4	15.9
Italy	29.9	10.3	19.4	14.5
Cyprus	27.1	6.5	14.7	15
Latvia	36.2	11.7	19.2	25.6
Lithuania	32.5	11.4	18.6	19.8
Luxembourg	18.4	6.1	15.1	1.3
Hungary	32.4	12.8	14	25.7
Malta	23.1	9.0	15.1	9.2
Netherlands	15	8.9	10.1	2.3

Austria	18.5	7.7	14.4	4
Poland	26.7	6.9	17.1	13.5
Portugal	25.3	10.1	17.9	8.6
Romania	41.7	7.4	22.6	29.9
Slovenia	19.6	7.5	13.5	6.6
Slovakia	20.5	7.2	13.2	10.5
Finland	17.2	9.3	13.2	2.9
Sweden	15.6	5.7	14.1	1.3
United Kingdom	24.1	13.0	16	7.8

(1) The indicator sums up the number of people who are at risk of poverty, severely materially deprived or living in households with very low work intensity. Individuals present in several sub-indicators are counted only once.

(2) People are considered to be living in households with very low work intensity if they are aged 0-59 and the working-age members in the household worked less than 20% of their potential during the past year.

(3) People at risk of poverty have an equivalised disposable income below 60% of the national median equivalised disposable income after social transfers.

(4) Material deprivation covers indicators relating to economic strain and durables.

Source: EUROSTAT, extraction date 01.12.2014.

Table A.1.3: People at risk of poverty and social exclusion by country: absolute value and as a percentage of total population (AROPE rate), 2009-2012 and variations

COUNTRY	PEOPLE (in thousands)			AROPE RATE*		
	2009	2012	VARIATION abs values	2009	2012	VARIATION p.p
EU28	na	124,523	-	na	24.8	-
EU27	114,457	123,139	8,682	23.3	24.8	1.5
Belgium	2,145	2,356	211	20.2	21.6	1.4
Bulgaria	3,511	3,621	110	46.2	49.3	3.1
Czech Republic	1,448	1,580	132	14	15.4	1.4
Denmark	962	1,057	95	17.6	19	1.4
Germany	16,217	15,909	-308	20	19.6	-0.4
Estonia	312	311	-1	23.4	23.4	0
Ireland	1,150	1,378	228	25.7	30	4.3
Greece	3,007	3,795	788	27.6	34.6	7
Spain	11,232	13,090	1,858	24.5	28.2	3.7
France	11,200	11,760	560	18.5	19.1	0.6
Croatia	na	1,384	-	na	32.6	-
Italy	14,835	18,194	3,359	24.7	29.9	5.2
Cyprus	188	234	46	23.5	27.1	3.6
Latvia	808	731	-77	37.9	36.2	-1.7
Lithuania	943	975	32	29.6	32.5	2.9
Luxembourg	85	95	10	17.8	18.4	0.6
Hungary	2,924	3,188	264	29.6	32.4	2.8
Malta	82	94	12	20.3	23.1	2.8
Netherlands	2,483	2,492	9	15.1	15	-0.1
Austria	1,577	1,542	-35	19.1	18.5	-0.6
Poland	10,454	10,128	-326	27.8	26.7	-1.1
Portugal	2,648	2,667	19	24.9	25.3	0.4
Romania	9,112	8,907	-205	43.1	41.7	-1.4
Slovenia	339	392	53	17.1	19.6	2.5
Slovakia	1,061	1,109	48	19.6	20.5	0.9
Finland	886	916	30	16.9	17.2	0.3
Sweden	1,459	1,519	60	15.9	15.6	-0.3
United Kingdom	14,069	15,099	1,030	22	24.1	2.1

* As a percentage of total population

Source: EUROSTAT, extraction date 01.12.2014.

Table A.1.4: Main labour market, education and poverty indicators by country of birth and gender, EU27+HR- 2012

Indicator	Foreign-born			National-born		
	TOTAL	M	F	TOTAL	M	F
AROPE rate +18 yrs old	32.8	31.7	33.8	23.2	21.9	24.3
AROPE rate for children (0-17)*	31.8	na	na	18.3	Na	na
Participation rate in education and training (18-24)	46.6	46.3	46.9	54.1	51.3	57.1
NEET rate (15-24)	21.3	18.4	24.0	12.5	12.6	12.5
Early leavers from education and training (18-24)	25.2	26.3	24.3	11.6	13.5	9.6
Activity rate (15-64)	72.9	82.4	64.2	71.5	77.3	65.7
Unemployment rate (15-64)	15.5	15.4	15.7	9.9	9.9	10.0
Employment rate (15-64)	61.6	69.7	54.1	64.4	69.6	59.2
Part-time employment share (15-64)	24.6	11.8	39.7	18.4	7.9	30.9
Temporary employment share (15-64)	17.1	16.9	17.4	13.2	12.6	13.8

*Foreign-born children: i.e. with at least one foreign-born parent.

Source: Eurostat.

Table A.1.5: Main labour market indicators by gender and age, EU27+HR- 2013

Indicator	15-24			25-64		
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Employment rates	34.1	30.4	32.3	76.9	64.5	70.6
Unemployment rate	24.0	22.6	23.4	9.5	9.7	9.6
Part-time employment (share)	24.8	40.3	31.9	7.3	31.3	18.3
Temporary employment (share)	42.6	42.5	42.5	10.0	11.3	10.7

Source: Eurostat.

Table A.1.6: Main Prevalence of the main basic activity difficulties by age, EU27+HR- 2011 (% of total population)

Main difficulty	Total	Age Class				
		15-24	25-34	35- 44	45-54	55- 64
Seeing	1.9	0.8	1.0	1.3	2.9	3.6
Hearing	1.2	0.3	0.6	0.9	1.5	2.6
Walking	3.8	0.6	1.1	2.1	4.8	10.3
Remembering or concentrating	1.6	1.3	1.2	1.4	1.8	2.2
Sitting or standing	2.3	0.5	1.0	1.7	3.1	5.1
Lifting and carrying	5.0	1.0	1.9	3.7	6.9	11.4
Bending	2.9	0.6	1.3	2.1	3.9	6.5

Source: Eurostat.

Table A.1.7: People reporting a longstanding health problem or a basic activity difficulty by age, EU27+HR– 2011 (% of total population)

Health status	Total	Age Class				
		15-24	25-34	35- 44	45-54	55- 64
Only a longstanding health condition	14.6	8.5	10.9	14.4	17.5	21.2
Only a basic activity difficulty	2.0	1.3	1.6	1.7	2.6	2.8
Both a longstanding health condition and a basic activity difficulty	12.0	3.3	5.2	8.7	16.0	26.4

Source: Eurostat.

Table A.1.8: Indicators of social exclusion by type of area, EU27+HR– 2012

Indicator	Densely-populated	Intermediate urbanised**	Thinly-populated
Old-age-dependency ratio*	0.25	0.27	0.29
Risk of poverty or social exclusion rate (AROPE)	24.7	22.6	27.3
Severe material deprivation rate	9.9	9.2	10.7
Mean equivalised net income (absolute value in €)	18,673	17,915	15,218
Participation rate in education and training (18-74)	15.9	12.3	10.4
Participation rate in education and training (18-24)	58.8	51.5	47.4
NEET rate (15-24)	12.5	13.1	14.2
Early leavers from education and training (18-24)%	11.6	13.1	13.9
Employment rates Males (15-64)	68.9	70.7	69.5
Employment rates Females (15-64)	59.5	58.6	57.0
Unemployment rate (15-64)	11.4	9.9	10.2

* This indicator is the ratio between the total number of elderly people of an age when they are generally economically inactive (aged 65 and over) and the number of people of working age (from 15 to 64).

** To define the degree of urbanisation of areas where people live, Eurostat uses the following categorisation. Densely populated area: refers to a set of closely related local units, each of them with a density greater than 500 inhabitants per km², and a total population of at least 50 000 inhabitants. Intermediate area: refers to a set of closely related local units that do not pertain to a densely populated area, each of them with a density greater than 100 inhabitants per km², and a total population of at least of 50 000 inhabitants, or a set of units adjacent to a highly populated area. Thinly populated area: refers to a set of closely related local units that are not part of a densely populated area, or of an intermediate area.

Source: Eurostat.

ANNEX 2: EU POLICY DOCUMENTS ON SOCIAL TRANSPORT-RELATED ISSUES AND EU REGULATION ON PASSENGERS' RIGHTS

Table A.2.1: EU policy documents on transport social related issues

EU documents and Regulations	Main content/purpose
The citizen's network - Fulfilling the potential of public passenger transport in Europe COM(95)0601, November 1995	The Commission sets out the options for making public passenger transport more attractive. Its aim is to create a network of public passenger transport systems, connecting long-distance and local transport networks and turning public transport into a service open to all citizens: accessible, affordable and available. The overriding aim of passenger transport policy should be to find the most efficient way of meeting the growing demand for transport services, achieving economic, social and environmental objectives at the same time. It also points out that much of the action should be taken at the local, regional and national level. Initially the European Union can only create the framework and encourage developments.
"Developing the citizens' network - Why local and regional passenger transport is important and how the European Commission is helping to bring it about" [COM(1998)0431 final]	This Communication outlines a system of local and regional passenger transport which would be achieved by providing the public authorities, operators and user groups with appropriate tools and establishing a policy framework which promotes sustainable mobility.
Communication from the Commission to the Council, the European Parliament, the Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions of 14 January 1999: "Cohesion and Transport" [COM(1998)0806 final]	This Communication aims to develop an efficient and sustainable European transport system taking account of economic development prospects at the regional level, the enlargement of the Union to include new States and the importance of public transport.
GREEN PAPER – Towards a new culture for urban mobility [COM(2007)0551 final]	The Green Paper addresses 5 themes: 1. Free-flowing towns and cities; 2. Greener towns and cities; 3. Smarter urban transport; 4. Accessible urban transport, and 5. Safe and secure urban transport. In addition, the Green Paper looks at means to help the creation of a new culture for urban mobility, including knowledge development and data collection, and addresses the issue of financing.
Action Plan on Urban Mobility [COM(2009)0490]	The Action Plan proposes twenty measures to encourage and help local, regional and national authorities in achieving their goals for sustainable urban mobility. With the Action Plan, the European Commission presents for the first time a comprehensive support package in the field of urban mobility.
EU Disability Strategy 2010-2020 [COM(2010)0636]	Includes an initial plan to support implementation of the UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities in the EU
Roadmap to a Single European Transport Area – Towards a competitive and resource efficient transport system [COM(2011)0144 final]	The strategy defines 10 very challenging goals designed to guide policy actions and measure progress – including phasing out conventionally fuelled cars from cities by 2050, and a 50% shift in middle distance passenger and longer distance freight journeys from road to other modes by the same date – to achieve a 60% reduction in CO ₂ emissions and comparable reduction in oil dependency. These are underpinned by 40 concrete initiatives to be developed over this decade.
Regulation (EC) No 261/2004 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 11 February 2004 establishing common rules on	The action taken by the EU in the field of air transport aims, among other things, at ensuring a high level of protection for passengers. This regulation establishes common rules on compensation and assistance to passengers in the event of

<p>compensation and assistance to passengers in the event of denied boarding and of cancellation or long delay of flights, and repealing Regulation (EEC) No 295/91.</p>	<p>denied boarding, cancellation or long delay of flights.</p>
<p>Regulation (EC) No 1107/2006 of the Parliament and of the Council of 5 July 2006 concerning the rights of disabled persons and persons with reduced mobility when travelling by air.</p>	<p>This regulation is part of a general plan to reinforce passenger rights on all forms of transport. Persons placed at a disadvantage by reduced mobility, whether caused by disability, age or another factor, should have opportunities for air travel comparable to those of other citizens.</p>
<p>Regulation (EC) No 1371/2007 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 23 October 2007 on rail passengers' rights and obligations.</p>	<p>Under this regulation common minimum rules will apply throughout Europe, for instance in cases of delays or cancellation of trains.</p>
<p>Regulation (EU) No 1177/2010 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 24 November 2010 concerning the rights of passengers when travelling by sea and inland waterway.</p>	<p>This regulation establishes rules for the rights of passengers when travelling by sea and inland waterway transport. It covers non-discrimination between passengers regarding transport conditions offered by carriers, non-discrimination and assistance for disabled persons and persons with reduced mobility, rights of passengers in cases of cancellation or delay, minimum information to be provided to passengers, as well as the handling of complaints and general rules on enforcement.</p>
<p>Regulation (EU) No 181/2011 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 16 February 2011 concerning the rights of passengers in bus and coach transport</p>	<p>This regulation establishes rules for the rights of passengers when travelling by bus and coach transport. It covers non-discrimination between passengers regarding transport conditions offered by carriers, rights of passengers in the event of accidents, non-discrimination and assistance for disabled persons and persons with reduced mobility, rights of passengers in cases of cancellation or delay, minimum information to be provided to passengers, as well as the handling of complaints and general rules on enforcement.</p>

ANNEX 3: EU PROJECTS ON TRANSPORT AND SOCIAL INCLUSION

Table A.3.1: List of EU projects on transport and social inclusion

Project title	Brief description	EU – Programme	Project website
ACCESS2ALL	The project (New mobility concepts for passengers ensuring accessibility for all) aims at defining concrete mobility schemes, guidelines and policy recommendations, ensuring accessibility of public transport to ALL users, through the coordination of current research efforts, production of common research roadmaps, identification of best-practice models and appropriate use of ICT aids and networks.	FP7	www.access-to-all.eu
ANEAS	Attaining Energy-Efficient Mobility in an Ageing Society is a European project in the framework of the Intelligent Energy Europe (IEE) programme. The main objective of the project has been to encourage a shift towards energy-efficient mobility in an ageing society by: implementing soft measures in the AENEAS cities; providing good-practice examples and an implementation guide, raising awareness of the challenges of urban mobility and ageing.	IEE	www.aeneas-project.eu
ARTS	Action on the integration of Rural Transport Services provided a classification of barriers that hinder the development and integration of transport services in rural areas. The project produced a handbook summarising three types of recommendations, technical, organisational and policy-related, providing linkage among strategies/measures and impacts/indicators.	FP5	www.rural-transport.net
EBSF	European Bus System of the Future analysed stakeholder needs, defined an innovative high-quality bus system that is fully integrated in the urban environment, and developed innovative designs for vehicles, infrastructure, and operations. The focus was on aspects essential to passengers, drivers, and operation systems, such as accessibility, ergonomics, information systems, environment protection and energy savings.	FP7	www.ebsf.eu
EuroAccess	The Euro Access project (For a European Accessibility of Public Transport for People with Disabilities) aims to raise awareness about the transport needs of disabled people and best practices in the EU countries and two EFTA countries, allowing all countries to learn from the best practices. Transferability analysis is performed to identify how best to disseminate and apply the results, at both the political and operational levels.	FP6	www.accessibletourism.org/resources/ea_leaflet_english.pdf
FLIPPER	Flexible Transport Services and ICT platform for Eco-Mobility in urban and rural European areas is a European Territorial Cooperation project funded under the Interreg IVC EU Programme. The overall objective of FLIPPER is transfer of experience, knowledge and good practices about Flexible Transport Services (FTS) among different European regions with the aim of increasing the social inclusion of disadvantaged citizens groups and/or areas, and reducing energy consumption and environmental impacts, thus encouraging sustainable social/economic growth.	Interreg IVC	www.interreg4cflipper.eu
GOAL	Growing Older, stAying mobiLe – The transport needs of an ageing society. The aim of GOAL was to provide an action plan for innovative solutions to fulfil the transport needs of an ageing society. This action plan was developed on the basis of state-of-the-art reviews, identification of possible and relevant societal developments and alternatives to transport.	FP7	www.goal-project.eu
MEDIATE	Methodology for describing the accessibility of transport in Europe had the objective of establishing a common European methodology for assessing, describing and measuring accessibility to transport. In particular it has developed a series of tools to help cities and transport operators improve accessibility in public transport: a set of common European indicators for measuring accessibility of urban public transport and allowing for a common understanding between different stakeholders at European and local level; a self-assessment tool helping stakeholders to evaluate strengths and weaknesses of the transport system and define appropriate actions; a Good Practice Guide presenting examples of	FP7	www.mediate-project.eu www.aptie.eu

Project title	Brief description	EU – Programme	Project website
	measures implemented throughout Europe over a range of themes; the APTIE (Accessible Public Transport In Europe) website, a 'one-stop shop' on accessible public transport.		
MMOVE	Mobility Management Over Europe is a project aiming at improving the effectiveness of sustainable mobility policies implemented by local authorities in small and medium-sized towns in Europe and at enhancing awareness amongst regional level policy-makers of the importance of supporting these policies within regional development frameworks, the main objectives being identification, collection, analysis and exchange of good practice in mobility management, followed by study visits and feasibility/transferability studies.	Interreg IVC	www.mmove.eu
OASIS	Open architecture for Accessible Services Integration and Standardisation is a European Integrated Project with the aim of revolutionising the interoperability, quality, breadth and usability of services for all daily activities of older people, notably in the field of mobility. More specifically, OASIS aims to utilise ICT and other key technologies to provide holistic services to older people to support their physical and psychological independence, stimulate their social or psychological engagement and foster their emotional well-being. In doing so, OASIS addresses key areas of their activities encompassing independent living and socialising, autonomous mobility, and flexible work-ability.	FP7	www.oasis-project.eu
PTaccess	Public Transport System Accessibility for People with Disabilities in Europe, is a European project assessing the accessibility of public transport systems in Europe and identifying good solutions for making public transport accessible.	FP6	www.eltis.org/sites/eltis/files/PTaccess_-_good_practice_2009_6.pdf
PUBTRANS4 ALL	Public Transportation - Accessibility for All developed a prototype for a vehicle-based boarding assistance system for new rail vehicles and retrofitted rail vehicles to improve accessibility, especially for persons with reduced mobility. Investigations showed that a swivel lift is the only reasonable boarding assistance system that can be used in UIC wagons. A prototype was designed, factory-tested, and incorporated in a UIC wagon of the Bulgarian State Railways.	FP7	cordis.europa.eu/result/rcn/57685_en.html
SAFeway2SCHOOL	Integrated system for safe transportation of children to school designed and evaluated technologies for safe transport from home to school. The design includes optimal route planning and re-routing for school buses to maximise safety on the road, on-board safety applications, intelligent bus stops, and effective warning and information systems for bus drivers, children, parents and the surrounding traffic.	FP7	http://safeway2school-eu.org/
SIZE	SIZE- Life quality of senior citizens in relation to mobility conditions – the project aims were: (i) to explain and describe the present mobility and transport situation, the problems, needs and wishes of different groups of senior citizens from their own perspective compared with experts' points of view; (ii) to motivate action by the authorities and other relevant groups in society who are, or feel, responsible in this area, among other things by making discrepancies in problem identification transparent; (iii) to identify relevant solutions for existing problems and to provide guidance for setting up and implementing policies aimed at "keeping the elderly mobile".	FP5	www.size-project.at
TRACY	TRAnsport needs for an ageing soCietY - The project's main aim is to develop an action plan that can help tackle the challenges of providing transport in an ageing society, and in particular, to provide a systematic and comprehensive study of current activity, and use the results of this study to analyse the present situation, identify research gaps and contribute towards a strategy to tackle the challenge of transport in an ageing society.	FP7	www.tracy-project.eu/

Project title	Brief description	EU – Programme	Project website
UNIACCESS	<p>Design of Universal Accessibility Systems for Public Transport – addressed accessibility of public transport for groups with various degrees of mobility (the young, the elderly, people with disabilities, people carrying infants or shopping, pregnant women). A comprehensive review of accessibility in public transport was made in terms of infrastructure, vehicles, and legislation and standards. A roadmap was developed identifying R&D needs with regard to travel information and bookings, design of terminals/ bus stops, and platforms, boarding assistance systems, and information during a journey. A methodology was designed to stimulate collaboration between stakeholders in the innovation process.</p>	FP6	http://www.transport-research.info/web/projects/project_details.cfm?id=36287

Source: IRS.

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