

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN QUALITY OF LIFE AND
HAPPINESS IN TURKEY

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AYLİN ÇAKIROĞLU

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Approval of the Graduate School of Social Sciences

Prof. Dr. Sencer Ayata
Director

I certify that this thesis satisfies all the requirements as a thesis for the degree of Master of Science.

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Sibel Kalaycıođlu
Head of Department

This is to certify that we have read this thesis and that in our opinion it is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a thesis for the degree of Master of Science.

Prof. Dr. Yusuf Ziya Özcan
Supervisor

Examining Committee Members

Prof. Dr. Yusuf Ziya Özcan (METU, SOC) _____

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Ayşe Gündüz Hoşgör (METU, SOC) _____

Assoc. Prof. Dr. İsmail Aydıngün (Başkent University, ADM) _____

I hereby declare that all information in this document has been obtained and presented in accordance with academic rules and ethical conduct. I also declare that, as required by these rules and conduct, I have fully cited and referenced all material and results that are not original to this work.

Name, Last name : Aylin akirođlu

Signature:

ABSTRACT

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN QUALITY OF LIFE AND HAPPINESS IN TURKEY

Çakıroğlu, Aylin

M.S., Department of Sociology

Supervisor: Prof. Dr. Yusuf Ziya Özcan

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This study aimed to reveal the relationship between quality of life and happiness in a comparative manner, to underline the importance of happiness and enable researchers to familiarize themselves with happiness in the sociological context of Turkey.

Quality of life and happiness, which are multidimensional and interdisciplinary concepts, were firstly identified by looking at their treatment in different approaches. Then, they were analyzed by relating them to different variables in the European Quality of Life Survey (EQLS) data which allows for making comparisons among European Union countries and Turkey.

Our study is limited to four countries, namely Bulgaria, Denmark, Hungary and Turkey that were selected on the basis of two criteria; their average of happiness score and their membership status in the European Union. On the other hand, the independent variables of the study are “having” (material living conditions), “loving” (social relations), “being” (quality of society), “time pressure” (work-life balance), “alienation”, “environment”,

internet using, health and socio-demographic variables namely gender, age, region, employment status and educational level.

Consequently, improving quality of life resulted in happiness. In other words, the main aim of improving quality of life is to supply, improve and increase happiness.

Keywords: quality of life, happiness, Bulgaria, Denmark, Hungary, Turkey.

ÖZ

TÜRKİYE'DE YAŞAM KALİTESİ VE MUTLULUK ARASINDAKİ İLİŞKİ

Çakıroğlu, Aylin

Yüksek Lisans, Sosyoloji Bölümü

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Bu çalışma, yaşam kalitesi ve mutluluk arasındaki ilişkiyi karşılaştırmalı bir şekilde ortaya koymayı, mutluluğun önemini vurgulamayı ve “mutluluk” kavramını sosyolojik bir çalışma alanı olarak Türkiye’deki araştırmacılara tanıtmayı hedeflemektedir.

Çok boyutlu ve disiplinler arası kavramlar olan **yaşam kalitesi** ve **mutluluk** öncelikle, farklı yaklaşımlardaki uygulamalara bakılarak tanımlanmıştır. Daha sonra, bu iki kavram, Avrupa Birliği ülkeleri ve Türkiye arasında karşılaştırma yapmaya olanak tanıyan “Avrupa Yaşam Kalitesi Araştırması”ndaki farklı değişkenlerle ilişki kurularak analiz edilmiştir.

Çalışmamız “ortalama mutluluk puanı” ve ülkelerin “Avrupa Birliği’ne üyelik statüsü” kriterlerine göre seçilen Bulgaristan, Danimarka, Macaristan ve Türkiye olmak üzere dört ülkeyle sınırlandırılmıştır. Diğer taraftan, “maddi yaşam koşulları” (having), “sosyal ilişkiler” (loving), “toplum kalitesi” (being), “iş-yaşam dengesi” (time pressure), “yabancılaşma” (alienation), “çevre” (environment), internet kullanımı, sağlık ve sosyo-demografik değişkenler (cinsiyet, yaş, yaşanılan yer, çalışma durumu ve eğitim düzeyi) çalışmanın bağımsız değişkenleridir.

Sonu olarak, yařam kalitesinin yükseltilmesi mutluluk getirir. Bařka bir ifadeyle, yařam kalitesinin yükseltilmesindeki temel ama; mutluluęu saęlamak, geliřtirmek ve artırmaktır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: yařam kalitesi, mutluluk, Bulgaristan, Danimarka, Macaristan, Trkiye.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CC3:	Candidate countries in 2003: Bulgaria, Romania and Turkey
ECHP:	European Community Household Panel
EQLS:	European Quality of Life Survey
EU:	European Union
EU15:	15 member states that joined before May 2004: Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Portugal, Spain, Sweden and United Kingdom.
GDI:	Gender-related Development Index
GDP:	Gross Domestic Product
GDRC:	The Global Development Research Center
GEM:	Gender Empowerment Index
GNH:	Gross national happiness
HDI:	Human Development Index
ISQOLS:	International Society for Quality of life Studies
NASA:	National Aeronautics and Space Administration
NMS:	10 member states that joined in May 2004: Greek Cypriot Administration, Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, Slovakia and Slovenia.
SPSS:	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
UN:	United Nations
UNDP:	United Nations Development Program
WZB:	Social Science Research Center

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The main aim of this study is to describe the relation between quality of life and happiness. These two concepts are both multidimensional and interdisciplinary. They have been the focus of much discussion for centuries. Also, they are interrelated since quality of life is comprehensive to include not only key dimensions such as income, employment but also health care, happiness and social relations. Happiness is seen here as a subjective phenomenon which will be examined by societal factors. It should not be forgotten that every individual or country has different conditions that affect its happiness score. This thesis aims to unveil these similarities and dissimilarities in a comparative manner.

After the introduction in the first chapter, the second chapter will focus on quality of life, while the third chapter will focus on happiness.

The quality of life as a broad concept is an alternative concept for affluent society, which was increasingly questioned for its ability to measure society's wealth. Due to the multidimensional and interdisciplinary character of the quality of life concept, many disciplines such as psychology, sociology, economy, political sciences etc. have been studying the concept for years. Now, there are many theories and approaches to define quality of life. These theories and approaches related with sociology will be discussed in this chapter because other views are beyond the scope of the thesis. In addition, the second chapter will attempt to discuss the measurement issue of quality of life. In this respect, the social indicator movement that underlines the social indicators including objective and subjective indicators are important as economic indicators will be examined. Different measurement approaches will be

touched upon in this chapter. Finally, some quality life research will be mentioned to note the increasing interest in quality of life studies due to the rising importance of non-economic determinants of welfare.

The third chapter will attempt to define happiness as a broad concept which attracted the attention of social scientists for so long. Actually, it is a very popular term in our daily speech and makes up one of the main concerns of human beings. Despite all this attention by scientists and layman alike, there is not a universally accepted definition yet. The presentation in this chapter will review various theories and approaches that have tried to define happiness will be discussed. Especially psychology has dealt with happiness but after the social indicator movement, happiness has been studied by other disciplines such as sociology, medicine, and economy so on. Measurement of happiness as a subjective indicator will be the other concern of this chapter. The last part of this chapter will be reserved to display trends in happiness studies.

The fourth chapter will give details of the methodology of the thesis. In the study, The European Foundation's European Quality of Life Survey (EQLS) data were used for the reasons that it contains many questions in terms of both objective and subjective aspects of quality of life which allow making comparisons among countries and it has been the most recent quality of life research including 28 countries namely 27 EU member states and Turkey. However, our sample is limited to only four countries: Bulgaria, Denmark, Hungary and Turkey. These countries were selected by both their average of happiness and their membership status in the European Union. On the other hand, the variables were selected by Allardt's triad of "having, loving, being" since it indicates quality of life in a society and covers both objective and subjective indicators. While "having" is the objective dimension of the model, "loving" and "being" are the subjective dimensions of the model. Since happiness is affected by several variables including both objective-subjective and individual-societal domains, other variables should be used for the analysis. Therefore, in addition to Allardt's model, work-life balance called "time pressure", "alienation", "environment" were added to the triad of "having, loving, being" to understand happiness in modern society. In addition

to these indexes, socio-demographic variables namely gender, age, region, occupation, educational level are also used in the analysis of happiness. In sum, these indexes i.e. “having”, “loving”, “being”, “time pressure”, “alienation”, “environment” and other variables will be identified in this chapter. In the last part of the chapter, basic descriptive statistics about the independent variables will be defined and countries will be compared with respect to these selected variables. This part will give information about the quality of life of countries on the basis of these variables and indexes and their dimensions. In sum, this part will provide an overall picture of countries which will contribute considerably to the readability of the text.

The fifth chapter will mainly focus on the determinants of happiness by countries. To compare the determinant factors of happiness by countries, linear regression analysis was applied. The variables were categorized as “*socio-demographic characteristics*” including gender, age, region, employment status, educational level, “*individual source control*” covering “having”, “loving”, “time pressure” and internet using, “*quality of society*” including “being”, “alienation, and “*other variables*” including health and “environment” to easily evaluate them. The effect of each variable will be interpreted in the light of available literature for each country individually to render the most meaningful comparison possible.

This thesis is expected to fill an important gap in the literature regarding the relationship between quality of life and happiness in Turkey. Moreover, it should be kept in mind that sociology as a discipline, which emerged after the industrial revolution, has always tried to understand how harmony is possible after the chaotic periods such as wars, panics, social unrest and so on. Thus, it seems sociology itself has a longing for happiness i.e. its aim has been to make people happy (Smith, 1971: 28). One of the targets of this thesis is to underline the importance of happiness and enable researchers to familiarize themselves with happiness in the sociological context of Turkey.

CHAPTER 2

QUALITY OF LIFE

The main aim of the study is to examine the association between “quality of life” and “happiness”. However, neither concept has agreed upon definitions. Furthermore, because quality of life is a multidisciplinary concept when it is used for a research; it becomes an ambiguous term if it is not defined by the discipline (Wolfensberger, 1994).

First of all, it must be mentioned that “definition and measurement of quality of life is neither easy to resolve nor possible to ignore” (Baldwin et al., 1990:2). Thus, in the first part of this chapter, quality of life as a concept is attempted to be defined by a sociological view. In the second part, quality of life indicators and its measurement issues are discussed. In the last part, some quality of life research will be mentioned.

2. 1 Defining “quality of life”

Since quality of life has a complex composition, it is not surprising that there is neither a universal definition nor a standard form of measurement it (Cummins, 1997:6).

Whereas the quality of life as a complex concept is new, its content is not new. Many related concepts namely “well-being”, “welfare”, “good life” etc. have been discussed since early Greek philosophy and for centuries, the good life has been the aim of human beings (Bowling et al., 2001:55; Diener et al., 1997:189). In other words, actually the quality of life is “probably as old as civilization” (Schuessler et al., 1985:130).

Although the quality of life is a very popular term in our daily speech there is no agreement on its meaning like welfare, utility and so on (Culyer, 1990:9). However, there is an agreement that it is a multidimensional concept (Andre et al., 2001; Baldwin et al., 1990; Böhnke, 2005:3; Fahey et al., 2003; Hajiran, 2006; Luer, 1978; Matutinovic, 1998; Noll, 2004; Saraceno, 2004; Yetim, 2001). In other words, it is a set of dimensions. Moreover, it covers some objective components related with observable living conditions and some subjective components related with perception of individuals about their living conditions (Lawton, 1997).

Indeed, the quality of life as a concept has been attempted to be defined for a long time. While most scholars agree about the meaning of *quality* i.e. “*quality* notion has the same meaning as grade and that grade ranges from high to low, from better to worse” (Bowling et al., 2001:55; Schuessler et al., 1985:131) and “In contrast to quantity, i.e. the amount, number, size etc., quality is linguistically understood as a value attribute or the essential nature of objects or phenomena.” (Kovac, 2004:168), there is less agreement about the meaning of *life* as a concept. The meaning of life is usually limited only meaning of “mental life” that narrowly means “satisfaction and kindred states such as one’s sense of well-being, happiness or unhappiness” (Schuessler et al., 1985:131). As quality of life involves many domains such as life satisfaction, happiness, welfare, health, environment, trust, security, economy, freedom etc., it can be called an interchangeable concept (Anderson, 2004:4-5). Moreover, it can be defined as a total of material means which one has and nonmaterial means namely freedom, justice, security, trust and guaranties that cover today and tomorrow (Özcan et al., 2003:8). Therefore, the meaning of quality of life as a concept changes from individual to individual by their points of view.

In addition, to understand the meaning of quality of life, Kovac’s definition of quality in terms of etymology can be considered:

As you know, the word quality derives from the Latin term *quails*, i.e. what kind, sort, size, color etc.; therefore, *what is* this or that life and *what it may be*. But the adjective *quails*, has its origin in the pronoun *qui*; hence, we might also formulate our question as: Who has sort of life? Or else how does someone's life differ from that of others; and let us add, how does it differ here and there, now and formerly. (Kovac, 2004:168).

Therefore, according to Kovac, nowadays, quality of life in our “civilized countries” is mostly characterized by such values such as “good health, orderly family life, material possessions, eating standards, dressing, social standing, owing the gains of civilization, leisure and in general, the universal ‘deities’ of the world-money” (Kovac, 2004:168).

To continue with history of quality of life, actually since 1918 conditions of living of families have been the research subject of American sociologists. However, quality of life as a term was not used by them, although level of living, socioeconomic status and social status was used then. Moreover, some scholars namely F. S. Chapin, W. Sewell, McKain, Cottom, Hagood¹ searched the levels of living. These studies were the sign of measures of objective quality of life (Ferriss, 2004:40; Sirgy et al., 2006:367).

As a concept, it existed in the USA in the 1950s. At first, it was defined as “a good standard of living in the new consumer society: having modern appliances, cars and homes.” In other words, traditional economic theory defines quality of life as “objective variables” such as a household's income, GNP, employment etc. (Zhao et al., 2005:84). Later, leisure time, savings for holidays and recreation were added. However, the concept was not enough to define its meaning. In 1960, President Eisenhower's commission improved the quality of life concept to cover health, education, well-being, economy and industrial growth. Therefore, the concept came close to today's meaning (Andre et al., 2001:1). However, since the 1960s the quality of life concept has become more problematic to define and measure because of covering other domains of life which are hard to measure (Gerson, 1976:793-4). In other

¹ For further information about these researchers, see Abbott L. Ferriss (2004) and also M. Joseph Sirgy et al. (2006).

words, as post-industrial society is more complex, more variables are needed (Zhao et al., 2005:84).

For a long time, standard of living, which is defined as “a measurement of the quantity and quality of goods and services available to people, like the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per capita, the number of doctors per thousand people, the percentage of GDP spent on health and education, or the number of television sets and telephones per household” by The International Society for Quality of Life Studies (Andre et al., 2001:2), is used instead of quality of life. However, they are different from each other. While level of income and consumption, GDP per capita, and life expectancy can be called objective indicators that refer to standard of living, good feelings about one’s life and self and relationships with others refer to quality of life. For example, one can have a very high standard of living but a low quality of life and vice versa. Another good example is that because of the idea that people in urban areas have a high quality of life, rural areas are attempted to be made more like urban areas. As a result, standard of living is seen as quality of life. Moreover, since standard of living is more easily measured, the quality of life is ignored and less studied (Flora, 1998:99; GDRRC). Indeed, quality of life covers standard of living so quality of life is a broader concept (Andre et al., 2001:2). In addition, only using the standard of living defined by the economic domain of life as the main measure of a community’s well-being ignores the importance of other life domains, namely health, freedom, education, environment, safety, happiness, and life satisfaction. Nevertheless unlike the economic domain of life, the others are “intangible variables” (Hajiran, 2006:31).

As noted before, many scholars have defined quality of life as subjective well-being or overall well-being (Allardt, 1993; Altman et al., 2004; Aslaksen et al, 1999; Liu, 1975; Saraceno, 2004; Sirgy et al., 2006; Slottje, 1991; Smith, 1973; Yetim, 2001). At this point, the notion of well-being must be highlighted: It does not only mean living conditions but also both “control over resources across the full spectrum of life domains and the ways in which people respond and feel about their lives in those domains” (Fahey et al., 2003:14). According to Anderson (2004), well-being consists of many different

elements. Therefore, he explains the domains of well-being and he defines the domains of quality of life as follows: “*physical ‘well-being’* including health, fitness, mobility so on; *material ‘well-being’* including possessions, transport, security, privacy, housing quality so on; *social ‘well-being’* including family/household life, relatives, interpersonal relationship so on; *emotional ‘well-being’* including trust, self-esteem, satisfaction so on; *development and activity* including political freedom, job, education, economic freedom so on.” (Anderson, 2004:8-9).

2.1.1 Different Approaches and Theories of Quality of Life

As said before, quality of life includes many life domains as well as many levels, i.e. quality of life includes both societal and individual levels and also objective and subjective levels (Anderson, 2004:8; Delhey et al., 2002:170; Veenhoven, 2002) as seen in Table 2.1:

Table 2.1: Levels of Quality of Life

	Objective	Subjective
Individual Level (micro)	Objective living conditions (e.g. income)	Subjective well-being (e.g. satisfaction with income)
Societal Level (macro)	Quality of society (e.g. income disparities)	Perceived quality of society (perceived importance of disparities)

Source: Delhey et al., 2002:170.

As quality of life includes both micro i.e. individual and macro i.e. societal components, both of these levels have defined quality of life in terms of their views. Therefore, the scholars focus on it by means of objective i.e. income, educational level etc. and subjective i.e. subjective well-being, happiness etc. elements of quality of life (Bowling et al., 2001:56-58). Naturally, many approaches which have been trying to define, conceptualize

and theorize quality of life depend on these levels. Thus, differences among the approaches are the results of these levels on which the approaches depend. Here, in order to make clear both of these approaches to conceptualizing quality of life, these approaches are touched upon briefly:

2.1.1.1 Micro Level versus Macro Level Approaches

Many approaches depend on micro i.e. individual level to define quality of life. In general, these can be called *individualistic approaches* whose starting point is an individual's activities and position. The main argument is that the individual is over the society and order. Hence, it defines quality of life as "achievement of individuals", "dominance over their circumstances" and individual's freedom from all restrictions (Gerson, 1976:794). According to the approach, "quality of life is measured by the degree to which an individual succeeds in accomplishing his desires despite the constraints put upon him by a hostile or different nature, God or social order"(Gerson, 1976:794). For example, one of the individualistic approaches is hedonism. The central argument of hedonism is that the main aim of human being's activity is pleasure and anything giving pleasure is good. In short, this approach sees quality of life as relative and subjective as well as equaled with the degree of the achievement of anything giving pleasure (Rapley, 2003:22; Tekeli et al., 2004:9).

Another approach is utilitarianism. According to utilitarianism, the main aim of life is to increase the utility. The main argument is that any useful thing is good. Moreover, this view also depends on hedonism because the difference between pleasure and pain produces the utility of any activity. Thus, everyone has a different utility notion so scholars create a standard person to escape relativism (Sirgy, 2001:29; Tekeli et al., 2004:10). For instance, Bentham (1983), who is a utilitarian, maintains that quality of life is "the extent to which pleasure and happiness, and ultimately satisfaction with life, have been obtained" in the developed world in which the human needs are generally fulfilled (Bowling et al., 2001:56).

The third approach is desire theory. According to this theory, the quality of life can be identified and measure by how one achieves his/her desires (Diener et al., 1997:190; Tekeli et al., 2004:10-1).

Fourth is Maslow's popular "hierarchy of needs" theory. He delineates a need hierarchy that includes basic needs (physiologic needs) such as air, water, food, sleep etc.; safety needs; love and belongingness needs; self-esteem needs and self-actualization needs. Quality of life is about which step one has achieved (Tekeli et al., 2004:11).

Fifth is Sen's "capability" theory. His theory depends on the human capability that attempts to achieve the valuable things and states. According to him, life is a combination of "doing" and "being". Thus, quality of life is examined by this capability (Kajanoja, 2002:72-3; Noll, 2004:157; Phillips, 2006:91; Sen, 2003:4; Sirgy, 2001:72; Tekeli et al., 2004:11-2). Moreover, quality of life is "to be assessed in terms of capability to achieve valuable functionings", which vary from simple ones like being adequately nourished to very complex personal states such as "being able to take part in the life of the community and having self-respect" (Sen, 1998:75).

The sixth approach relates to Aristotle's philosophy. According to Aristotle, the basis of the good life is "to realize people's full potentialities". In other words, to achieve a good life, the potentiality in the individual should be noticed (Diener et al., 1997:189). Moreover, every human rational activity is toward "good" and "happiness" (Haybron, 2000a: 209; Tekeli et al., 2004:12-3). In brief, the main idea of Aristotle is that "if a human being has a function, or purpose (simply as a human being), then he will be in the best state when that purpose is achieved. If man's purpose is a kind of life, as it plausibly is, then his living the good life will consist in his achieving that purpose" (Megone, 1990:36).

The seventh is the basic needs approach, which is related to Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory. According to Hörnquist (1982), quality of life is related with human needs. In other words, they are basics of quality of life and quality of life is the degree of the fulfillment of the needs (Özcan et al., 2003:8).

Finally, it is Allardt's model² that defines quality of life in terms of "having, loving and being". "Having" refers to the satisfaction of basic needs. While "loving" deals with relationships among people, "being" deals with needs for personal growth and for harmony with nature, e.g. personal opportunities, leisure time etc. "Having" includes measures like access to child care, clean air and water so on. In addition, while "being" includes indices of access of cultural resources, nature and equity participation measure, "loving" includes measures like perceived racism, violence in family so on (Allardt, 1993:88-91; Fahey et al., 2003:15; Greenwood, 2004:339-340; Noll, 2002:50; Noll, 2004:159).

On the other hand, many approaches depend on the macro i.e. society level to define quality of life. These approaches which can be generally called *transcendentalist approaches* depend upon the order of community/society. According to this approach, in contrast to other one, community is prior to the individual. It defines quality of life as "the degree to which a person carries out his place in the larger social order". This view of quality of life was very popular during the medieval period but decreased after the Reformation and early modern times (Gerson, 1976:795; Sirgy, 2001:45; Veenhoven, 2001c). The larger order is needed to achieve quality of life. For instance, one of these approaches focuses on the "*normative ideals*" that are built on religious, philosophical or other systems e.g. helping each other is the basis of a good life since it is underlined by religious teaching (Diener et al., 1997:190). Another macro approach is socio-cultural characteristic trends that underline whole and permanent elements such as collective beliefs and values in the society (Yetim, 2001:42-3). Moreover, culture is not ignored to define and experience quality of life. It plays an important role for the quality of life concept because personal values such as family, region, education and work etc. are dictated by culture. For example, people in Iran define religion (Islam) as an important aspect in their quality of life, whereas personal success in occupation or income is more important for people in the USA. So they evaluate their quality

² Allardt's model will be also discussed in chapter 3.

of life by culture (Shek et al., 2005:2; Sirgy, 2001:65)³. Finally, according to Eastern scholars, the desires which block the equal distribution of limited resources in the community should be controlled for good life (Diener et al., 1997:189).

However, these approaches are not enough to identify quality of life since they divide individual and society. Thus, Gerson (1976) proposes another approach which depends on both individual and society. The main argument of this approach is that individual and society produce each other by means of “continuing process of negotiation” (Gerson, 1976:793-796). This process is made up of four parts: money, time, sentiment and skill (Gerson, 1976:799-802). In addition, he emphasizes the interaction among people and patterns that generate individuals as individual. He tries to define and measure quality of life by means of “defining community quality of life in individual terms and individual quality of life in communal term” (Gerson, 1976:797).

2.1.1.2 Objective Level versus Subjective Level Approaches

The other levels of quality of life are objective, i.e. income, life expectancy, GDP per capita, and so on and subjective, i.e. satisfaction, happiness, and so on. There are two polar views related with these levels:

The objective level is encouraged by the Scandinavian view that focuses on the notions of the good society and social well-being as a welfare issue that was seen as the “individual’s command over, under given determinants mobilisable resources, with whose help he/she can control and consciously direct his/her living conditions” (Noll, 2004:156). Thus, it deals with resources which are identified in terms of money, property, knowledge, security and social relations and objective living conditions.

Contrary to this perspective, the other view, known as American, focuses on subjective indicators. According to this approach, the most crucial indicators are satisfaction and happiness because these identify quality of life

³ For further knowledge, see M. J. Sirgy (2001), pp. 65-67.

as subjective well-being. (Delhey et al., 2002:168-9; Fahey et al., 2003:13-4; Noll, 2002:50; Noll, 2004:156-7; Rapley, 2003:5).

Zapf (1984) combined these levels in his typology that states the dimensions of the objective living conditions and subjective well-being as given in the table below:

Table 2.2: Dimensions of objective living conditions and subjective well-being

Objective Living Conditions	Subjective Well-being	
	Good	Bad
Good	Well-being <i>(The happy rich)</i>	Dissonance <i>(The unhappy rich)</i>
Bad	Adaptation <i>(The happy poor)</i>	Deprivation <i>(The unhappy poor)</i>

Source: Noll, 2002:51; Phillips, 2006:35; Rapley, 2003:31.

As seen from the table, the combination of good objective living conditions and good subjective well-being represents *well-being (happy rich)*. However, good objective living conditions and bad subjective well-being results in *dissonance (unhappy rich)*. On the other hand, bad objective living conditions and good subjective well-being means *adaptation (happy poor)* and the combination of bad objective living conditions and bad subjective well-being represents *deprivation (unhappy poor)*.

Differently, Sirgy et al. (2006:349-350) prefers to use the labels paradise and hell to describe these combinations. For example, the combination of good objective living conditions and good subjective well-being represents *Real Paradise*. Good objective living conditions and bad subjective well-being calls *Fool's Hell*. Bad objective living conditions and good subjective well-being means *Fool's Paradise*. Finally, the combination of bad objective living conditions and bad subjective well-being represents *Real Hell*.

Moreover, as Veenhoven said, “the phrase ‘quality of life’ suggests that life is good in all aspects.” (Veenhoven, 2001c). In other words, the combination of good objective living conditions and good subjective well-being, i.e. “well-being” or “Real Paradise”, means quality of life. He also explains his quality of life view in the following table:

Table 2.3: Veenhoven’s quality of life view

	Outer qualities	Inner qualities
Life chances	<i>Livability of environment</i> (good living conditions or habitability)	<i>Life-ability of the person</i> (how well we are equipped to cope with the problems)
Life results	<i>Utility of life</i>	<i>Enjoyment of life</i> (subjective well-being, life satisfaction and happiness)

Source: Veenhoven, 2000b; 2001c; 2001b; 2004b; 2004c.

According to Veenhoven, while “outer qualities” mean the outer aspects of individuals, “inner qualities” mean individual abilities and states. On the other hand, whereas “life chances” refers to the input for individuals, “life results” refers to the output of life.

He mixes all levels and introduces new concepts to the literature such as livability. In the sociological view, livability of environment means material welfare, social equality, close networks, strong norms and active voluntary associations. Moreover, it is likely seen as one’s position in the society (Noll, 2002:53; Veenhoven, 1996; 2000b; 2001b; 2004c).

Quality of life has not only been attempted to be defined by these levels but also by different disciplines. Therefore, the meaning of quality of life varies from discipline to discipline related to research field. For instance, medicine (medical researchers) focusing on the health domain of life, economics focusing on the economic domain of life and improving it and psychology focusing on intangible aspects of life including human emotions, etc. However,

all these and other disciplines maintain that their own areas are more important than others (Hajiran, 2006:31-32; Schuessler et al., 1985:141-143; Tekeli et al., 2004:15-7; Yetim, 2001:99). However, it should be which must be taken in mind that the quality of life is a multidimensional concept and all life domains namely health, economics, liberty, social relations, inequality, income, crime etc. Affect one's quality of life. Hence, quality of life depends upon this balance and harmony.

Although sociology is interested in all these domains, quality of life as a concept firstly gained its prominence in psychology, marketing, economics, political science and other disciplines, not in sociology. When we look at its status in sociology, it started to be used in the sociological research in the 1980s thanks to a rising social indicators movement referring to objective and subjective indicators/measures. However, although quality of life is known in sociology, as a concept it has not still gained its prominence in the discipline (Ferriss, 2004:37,49; Özcan et al., 2003:9). This study also aims to display the significance of quality of life for sociology.

Consequently, quality of life as a concept is hard to define and also explain. However, the following sentences may help to make better sense of the concept:

Quality of life, then, involves far more than income. You may be able to purchase the best medical care, but can't buy freedom from all illness. You may be able to purchase security measures for your home, but you can't buy total peace of mind when the newspapers regularly remind you of the pervasiveness of crime. You may be able to afford the best seats in the house, but that's meaningless if your community lacks cultural opportunities. You may live in the most expensive area available, but you can't shut out the polluted air that engulfs property. And so on. Money does not and cannot insure highest quality of life (Lauer, 1998:28).

2.2 Indicators of Quality of Life and Measurement Issues

In the previous part, the quality of life concept was attempted to be defined. However, as seen, it does not have a universal and agreed upon definition. Actually, if a thing does not have an agreed upon definition, it is hard to measure it or vice versa. Thus, every approach which has strained to define quality of life has the idea of its indicators and measurement method. In this sense, its indicators and measurement methods can help us to understand quality of life. In other words, the determinants used in defining quality of life can be used to measure it as well. Consequently, in this part, the indicators of quality of life and measurement issues will be discussed.

Firstly, an indicator can be defined as “a measurable or observable parameter, variable or value derived from these objectives that synthetically express the status of a particular system or phenomenon” (Andre et al., 2001:4). However, the data about social events and facts in a society are not indicators. They will be able to be indicators after working on them further.. However, a theory must be behind this process to determine useful indicators. Moreover, all facts are complex so all quality is not presented in the data. Thus, all presented data are selected and all selection is supported by a theory (Kajanoja, 2002:63; Tekeli et al., 2004:20).

In addition, there are many types of indicators namely positive, negative, unclear, input, output, economic and social indicators. Here, the indicators related with quality of life should be touched upon briefly:

Positive indicator means that if some indicator-value increases, some aspects of quality of life increase e.g. minority group's or young girls' educational attainment. On the contrary, *negative indicator* means that if some indicator-value increases, some aspects of life deteriorate e.g. infant mortality rate and suicide rates. It has been noticed that the increase or decrease does not define its status. In other words, what is important is whether increase or decrease in its value is desirable. In addition, there is another indicator called *unclear indicator* that is such that most people disagree whether a bigger indicator-value displays a better or worse state of an issue (Sirgy et al., 2006:345). For example, in the case of the increase of the number of students,

we can evaluate this in two different ways: one of them is that the increase is good because this means that the literacy rate in the country increases. The other is that the increase is bad because this means that there will be need for extra instruments such as schools, tables, teachers, etc.

Input indicators refer to some kind of inputs into a process or product such as the number of respondents etc. *Output indicators* refer to some kind of output of the process or product such as the research, the thesis, some articles published, etc. However, evaluating the indicator as input or output indicators depends on the purposes of the classification (Sirgy et al., 2006:346). For instance, from the point of view of one who graduated from university, having a job could be regarded as an output indicator measuring the effects of one's own achievement in the university. On the other hand, from the point of view of an employer, one who started to work for him could be regarded as an input indicator measuring the necessary investment made in the interest of the production process.

Economic indicators depend on macro level, economic welfare and economic development especially quantity indicators i.e. countable indicators such as GDP per capita. On the other hand, *social indicators* depend on not only economic indicators but also social indicators. In other words, "the term social indicator is used to denote a statistic that is supposed to have some significance for measuring the quality of life" (Sirgy et al., 2006:344). Social indicators that describe one's feeling, opinions or beliefs are called subjective indicators, while social indicators that describe the things that are relatively easily observable and measurable are called objective indicators, e.g. people's weight, level of income and so on (Sirgy et al., 2006:345). In other words, objective indicators deal with "hard" facts such as income, while subjective indicators deal with "soft" facts such as satisfaction with income and overall life. Moreover, the objective approach is related with the tradition of social statistics that goes back to the nineteenth century, while the subjective approach dates back to the 1960s (Sirgy, 2001:81; Veenhoven, 2002).

Social indicators' aims are to define society, general tendencies and to explain the operating of society (Yetim, 2001:45). In addition, there are several

strengths of social indicators as well as many weaknesses. For example, they are objective, monitor the normative ideals of society and they reflect society's many aspects which are not demonstrated by economic measures. On the other hand, they can be false. It means that, some official or non official reports can not show the true numbers. For example, the rape statistics are suspect or mortality rate can be false because many babies in some countries are born at home. Thus, it is insufficient to define longevity (Diener et al., 1997:195).

Indeed, in order to understand the distinction and 'conflict' between economic indicators and social indicators, the history of the *social indicator movement* should be touched upon.

2.2.1 Social Indicator Movement

After the Second World War, measuring the welfare of a society by using GDP per capita as a key measure was a growing interest. In the 1950s, the United Nations (UN) started to use the idea of social indicators. In other words, this was an alternative measurement to GDP which did not measure distribution of income or display other life domains like health, education, employment etc. (Kajanoja, 2002:63-4).

Moreover, governments and some private organizations have been announcing the annual social reports including consumption, income, education, and health etc. data. Thus, this data gathering has been systematic since the 1960s. However, there were some problems about the reports. Firstly, since the economic indicators were macro level, it was not sufficient to give information about the micro aspects of society. Secondly, as the report focused on the economic welfare⁴, it was not sufficient to describe and realize the whole picture of one's living conditions. Thirdly, it was seen that the economic aims were more crucial than social ones. In this respect, a new movement emerged, known as the *social indicators movement*, which underlined that the social indicators are as important as economic indicators in evaluating social policies, social change, the system over time and to predict the future. The

⁴ For discussion about welfare, see Bognar (2005) and Noll (2002)

social indicators research began to arise in the 1970s, although there was not agreement about the methodology and objectives (Bognar, 2005:561-2; Campbell, 1976:117-8; Ferriss, 2004:38; Hagerty et al., 2002:3; Özcan et al., 2003:1).

From this new trend emerged *quality of life research* including a focus on both objective and subjective indicators (Bognar, 2005:562). However, the discussions about indicators continued. For instance, Erikson (1993) prefers to use “descriptive” and “evaluative” indicators instead of objective and subjective indicators. Land (2001) expanded the subjective and objective indicators and claims three types of indicators: criterion indicators, descriptive social indicators and life satisfaction and/or happiness indicators. Veenhoven proposed another indicator: comprehensive social indicators or summary welfare indices, as well (Rapley, 2003:12).

Indeed, this debate may be defined as “the distinction between *descriptive* quality of life indicators and *evaluations*” (Bognar, 2005:563). It means that, because objective indicators are observable phenomena, they only express the conditions/positions. Conversely, the subjective ones depend on the individual’s feeling, evaluations so on. For instance, there can be wide differences in people’s evaluation about the same life conditions.

As the social indicators movement and the quality of life research have the same starting point, the quality of life indicators including objective and subjective indicators are called measures of quality of life. In the 1960s, social indicators gained their intellectual status thanks to the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA). NASA used them to understand and measure the space studies’ effects on the American public (Ferriss, 2004:38; Noll, 2002:50; Noll, 2004:151; Rapley, 2003:5; Sirgy et al., 2006:364). However, measures of quality of life began to be introduced in research in the 1970s and after nearly ten years sociological research on quality of life became stronger (Ferris, 2004:49; Özcan et al., 2003:9; Sirgy et al., 2006:376-7). Indeed, the origin of subjective indicators is the disciplines of sociology and social psychology which have been using them since the 1970s. The first scale

to measure the feeling about the environment was built up by Milbrath et al.⁵ in 1974. After improvement of the scale, the problem of validity occurred. In this respect, the investigators have depended on three methods: “comparing groups thought to differ in QOL; crossing methods and traits; and allocating the score variance to its components” (Schuessler et al., 1985:132-3).

Although the institutionalization process of the social indicators movement was not rapid or systematic, many countries conducted it. For example, the first comparative survey was applied by OECD with the participation of 7 OECD member states to reach national regular statistics for comparing those in the late 1970s (Hagerty et al., 2002:2; Noll, 2004:152). In the 1990s, the most developed countries built up information systems for monitoring the general living conditions of their respective countries (Hagerty et al., 2002:3). For example, since 1990 the United Nations Development Program (UNDP) has prepared an annual report, called Human Development Index (HDI), which consists of many indicators and comprehensive inquiries (Kajanoja, 2002:63-4). In 1994 the European Community Household Panel (ECHP) started the annual surveys in 12 member states that was the most comprehensive survey applied including employment, education and income. Moreover, the EUROMODULE project presented by Jan Delhey, Petra Böhnke, Roland Habich and Wolfgang Zapf firstly applied in 8 countries in Western and Eastern Europe and the Third World (Hagerty et al., 2002:8). Moreover, EUROMODULE, a continuation of the social indicator movement, is an enterprise to follow Europe’s living conditions and quality of life systematically and to compare the countries according to issues such as the impacts of European enlargement, modernization, and globalization on people and how social exclusion and social inequality can be avoided. The main interest of the memberships of EUROMODULE is to gain the comparable data for welfare and quality of life (Özcan et al., 2003:4-5). Additionally, The Quality of life Index (city ranking)⁶, The Economist: Quality-of-life index⁷ and

⁵ For details, see Milbrath et al. (1974).

⁶ For details, see <http://www.mercerhr.com/summary.jhtml/dynamic/idContent/1128760>

⁷ For details, see http://www.economist.com/media/pdf/QUALITY_OF_LIFE.pdf

Gross National Happiness⁸ etc. can be mentioned as other examples (Wikipedia, 2006). The last but not least, European Quality of Life Survey (EQLS) was carried out by European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions in 2003. In the enlargement process of the European Union, it included 28 countries namely the 15 EU Member states (EU15), the 10 acceding countries (now New Member states-NM10) and the three candidate countries at that time (Bulgaria, Romania and Turkey-CC3). This study used 8 life domains to evaluate the diversity and similarities of the countries. These are given below (Saraceno, 2004:1):

- Economic situation
- Housing and the local environment
- Employment, education and skills
- Household structure and family relations
- Work-life balance
- Health and health care
- Subjective well-being
- Perceived quality of society.

Consequently, the general social survey, social indicators and social reporting share the same three principles namely; “expanding the focus of social monitoring *beyond traditional economic indicators*, looking at *output* in terms of individual living conditions and providing *systematic facts on core issues of political debate and social planning*” which have been shared in common for 40 years (Hagerty et al., 2002:1).

2.2.2 Measurement of Quality of Life

It should not be forgotten that as quality of life has many faces, the indicators and measures are correlated each other. However, there is no agreement about the indicators which will be used to measure quality of life (Schuessler et al., 1985:135).

⁸ For details, see http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gross_National_Happiness

Firstly, “In order to measure quality of life, one must have a theory of what makes of a good life.” (Cobb, 2000:6). Since there are many theories and notions of what constitutes a ‘good life/society’, different concepts of welfare and quality of life have been expanded to measure it (Noll, 2004:156).

Quality of life can be measured by countable or *objective* indicators such as GDP per capita and infant mortality rate, and by uncountable or *subjective* indicators such as life satisfaction, happiness, individual perception of well-being. In other words, subjective indicators focus more on the subjective/individual side (Shackman et al., 2005:1). Additionally, Inkeles (1993) states that the most effective method is to use objective and subjective measures together. He defines objective measures as: “...those which can be ascertained and rated by an outside observer without reference to the inner states of the persons presumably affected by the conditions observed” (Inkeles, 1993:3). Moreover, objective measures are divided into those for which there is an obvious physical or material referent, such as how many children there are in a classroom, and those that indicate a social or political condition such as the legal rights to go to school. He also identifies 9 subcategories in physical and material factors, e.g. food, medicine and health, housing, education, communication and information, time, security including physical and social, environmental and ecological conditions. Besides, he proposes 6 categories for social and political conditions. These are freedom of movement, freedom of belief, freedom of association, freedom of political determination, economic freedom and freedom from discrimination and denigration (Inkeles, 1993:3). It is notable that social and political conditions are harder to measure. However, since 1973 the Freedom House⁹, founded by Raymond Gastil, has applied their scales to all countries and announced the “freedom rating” for each country.

On the other hand, subjective indicators are only accessible by asking people their feelings, opinions, beliefs and assessments about their life domains, life conditions or the conditions of others. In brief, whereas objective indicators give us information about freedom of individuals or physical/material conditions, subjective indicators tell us about individual’s

⁹ For details, see <http://www.freedomhouse.org/>

feelings and assessments about these material conditions (Inkeles, 1993:4; Özcan et al., 2003:1).

The objective indicators such as per capita income and unemployment do not take the individual's feelings into account. According to Inglehart's "post-materialist theory", people in the developed countries are affected more by non-material issues than income-related ones. For instance, whereas, in countries with low GNP, satisfaction with income levels can increase subjective satisfaction, in countries with high GNP, this effect may be little, opposite or negligible (Ahuvia, 2002:24; Andre et al., 2001:5; Diener et al, 1995:276; Haller et al., 2006:173; Inglehart, 1997; Phillips, 2006:29; Veenhoven, 2004b).

Objective indicators deal with the socio-economic situation. In other words, it is related with the objective well-being of the country. Therefore, it implies the overall national political and economic situation and/or policies. On the other hand, subjective indicators deal with hopes, expectations, sensations etc. What is important here that they are influenced by "cultural and historical factors, tradition, habit and in some cases, "resignation" that lead to a different perception of seemingly entrenched situations" (Petrucci et al., 2002:70).

According to Allardt, the distinction between subjective and objective indicators depends on the philosophy of distinction between needs and wants. It means that, whereas subjective indicators investigate an individual's wants, objective indicators investigate one's needs. Yet, sometimes the opposite can be possible (Allardt, 1993:92). The reason could be related to the research topic.

In addition, Veenhoven (2004c) claims an alternative measurement in that "quality of life in a society can be measured by how long and happy its inhabitants live". Thus, these indicators give us information about whether social modernization makes life better or worse. There are two views: according to the positive view that developed during the Enlightenment in the eighteenth century, life is getting better. For example, the standard of life of an average citizen is better than a king living a few centuries ago, the percentage

of untimely death has decreased and so on. On the other hand, according to the negative view that takes into consideration the social problems, life is getting worse. For example, drug uses in school, ethnic troubles, political terrorism and criminality have increased. This negative view is mostly affected by classical theory, such as Marx's *alienation* as a concept and Durkheim's *anomie* as a concept, as well as social reporting, such as statistics for suicide, drug abuse and poverty (Veenhoven, 2004c).

Veenhoven (1996, 2004c, 2005a) formalized this measurement as follows:

Happy-Life-Years = Life-expectancy at birth x 0-1 happiness

For example, life expectancy in a country is 60 years and the average happiness on a 0 to 10 step happiness scale is 5. Converted to a 0-1 scale, the happiness score is then 0,5. Therefore, happy-life-years is 30 (60 x 0,5) (Veenhoven, 2004c).

The practical range will be between about 20 and 75. A low happy-life-year means that the life of citizens is short and miserable, while high happy-life-year means that the life of citizens is long and desirable. On the other hand, medium level¹⁰ implies three things: "1- both moderate length-of-life and moderate appreciation-of-life, 2- long but unhappy life, 3- short but happy life" (Veenhoven, 1996, 2004c, 2005a). Moreover, happy-life-years is positively correlated with industrialization, informatization, urbanization, individualization and level of education. Hence, people live happier and longer in the most modern countries (Veenhoven, 2004c). For example, Switzerland is at top with 63 years, Moldova at the bottom with 20,5 years, China is in the middle with 46,7 (Veenhoven, 2005a).¹¹

¹⁰ Top level is higher than 58 years, middle range is between 58 and 30 and bottom is less than 30 years (Veenhoven, 2005a).

¹¹ In our thesis, Bulgaria, Denmark, Hungary and Turkey have been selected. The selection reasons will be given later in the text. However, according to Veenhoven calculation, their scores are like that: Turkey is 46,11 years, Denmark is 59,24 years, Bulgaria is 31,57 years and Hungary is 39,56 years (Veenhoven, 1996).

Related with this argument, there has been a concept in use since the 1960s: Gross national happiness (GNH), which was introduced as a concept in the political discourse in the late 1960s by the king of Bhutan, Jigme Dorji Wangchuck (Veenhoven, 2001a). It is better than Gross National Product (GNP) which only measures the standard of living to measure quality of life (Hajiran, 2006:41).

Another measurement is Allardt’s model. It combines objective and subjective indicators and measures quality of life in terms of “having, loving and being” as seen from Table 2.4:

Table 2.4: Use of different indicators to measure quality of life

	Objective Indicators	Subjective Indicators
Having (material and impersonal needs)	1. Objective measures of the level of living and environmental conditions	4. Subjective feelings of dissatisfaction/satisfaction with living conditions
Loving (social needs)	2. Objective measures of relationship to other people	5. Unhappiness/happiness-subjective feelings about social relationship
Being (needs for personal growth)	3. Objective measures of people's relation to (a) social and (b) nature	6. Subjective feelings of alienation/personal growth

Source: Allardt, 1993: 93.

Nowadays, the consensus is that the best measure of quality of life is to use both subjective and objective indicators together (Christoph et al., 2003:521; Noll, 2004:159; Saraceno, 2004:1; Sirgy, 2001:81). In other words, any quality of life study should have both an “internal” side, i.e. the satisfaction felt by individuals, and an “external” side, i.e. the physical object caused is related to the satisfaction (Andre et al., 2001:5; Yetim, 2001:103). Moreover, as quality of life research is an important tool for policymakers, policymakers

need both subjective and objective indicators. Veenhoven (2002) explains the reasons as:

- 1) Social policy is not limited with material goals.
- 2) Achievement of material goals can not be only measured objectively.
- 3) Inclusive measurement is problematic with objective means.
- 4) Objective indicators provide little information about public preferences.
- 5) Objective indicators do not give pure information about the public “needs”, “wants” and differences between these.

Consequently, quality of life is not only determined by objective indicators but also subjective ones. The objective indicators e.g. economic situation, housing and local environment, employment, education and skills, household structure and family relations, work-life balance, health and health care do not give a total picture about quality of life. The individual’s perception and evaluations e.g. subjective well-being and perceived quality of life are required for a total picture. Therefore, subjective indicators are as crucial as objective ones.

2.3 Quality of Life Research

The quality of life concept was born as an alternative to the material prosperity in an affluent society and it was recognized a new, more complex and multidimensional goal of social development (Noll, 2004:153). Therefore, nowadays, quality of life research has increased because of raising the importance of non-economic determinants of welfare (Bayless et al., 1982:421). Especially, such research is very popular in the field of social sciences in many countries (Noll, 2004:151). There are many investigations about the relation between quality of life and other variables: demographic and social variables i.e. age, gender, education, income, health etc.; psychological variables i.e. satisfaction with life, work and happiness etc.; and subjective assessment of quality in many specific life domains i.e. evaluation of family, work, relationships etc. (Zhao et al., 2005:83).

Actually, the quality of life research has two dimensions: One of them is *descriptive* e.g. one wants to know how many students graduated from university, what sort of departments exist and what the distribution in terms of gender is etc.. In other words, if one wants to know “the sorts, types or kinds of things rather than the mere number of things”, quality of life in this sense is used. On the other hand, the other dimension is *evaluative* e.g. one wants to know a person’s preference between more salary but more working hours versus more leisure time. In this sense, the exchange is between monetary and other values such as spending more time with family or friends. In other words, if one wants to know “the value or worth of things”, the quality of life in this sense is used to evaluate. Both of them are crucial for quality of life research and also should be used (Andre et al., 2001:1; Sirgy et al., 2006:346-7).

In short, there are two approaches to study quality of life. The first is to define an objective picture thanks to quantitative indicators. The other defines subjective evaluations about life and society. However, a combination of the objective and subjective approach is better to draw a total picture of quality of life.

For example, the United Nations Development Program’s Human Development Index, where GDP, longevity and literacy rate, which are regarded as unethnocentric, are measured, the best known quality of life scale and also descriptive research is provided. The countries are rated through measurement. Thus, it allows us to compare the country’s quality of life from year to year as well as compare the country with other countries (Shackman et al., 2005:2; Slottje, 1991:684; Tekeli et al., 2004:22-23).

Additionally, there are two approaches used in quality of life research. One of them is *social indicators research* focusing on what people need. The other is *conventional quality of life research* focusing on what the people want to improve regarding their quality of life (GDRC). However, although there is an agreement about improving the quality of life, there is less agreement about what promotes quality of life (Zhao et al., 2005:83).

Nowadays, there are two mainstream actors in the quality of life research and also social indicator movement: one is official and semi-official

social reporting at public institutions including national statistics institutes, sometimes ministers etc. with long-term public funding. On the other hand, the other is independent research tradition with temporary funding. This conducts problem oriented and temporary researches (Hagerty et al., 2002:4; Özcan et al., 2003:2-3).

CHAPTER 3

HAPPINESS

Like quality of life, happiness is another multifaced and interchangeable term in the literature. Actually, happiness has been an endless concern in philosophy and social sciences especially in three periods: Antique Greek philosophy, Post-Enlightenment West-European moral philosophy and current Quality of Life research (Veenhoven, 1991c, 2004a).

The social indicator movement has helped to improve the interest in happiness studies in countries and individuals that are regarded within the broader concept “quality of life” and “subjective well-being” (Chekola, 2007:53; Glatzer, 2000:501-2; Veenhoven, 1993, 1994, 2004a; Yetim, 2001:133). So there is a unique relation between quality of life and happiness and the studies on the relationships of these two concepts dates back half a century (Bowling et al., 2001: 57; Hajiran, 2006: 33).

Before taking up the relationship between quality of life and happiness, it will be useful to discuss happiness as a concept in this chapter. After a section on the definition of happiness, different approaches and theories will be reviewed along with some issues on measurement. In the last part, findings of some selected happiness research will be presented.

3.1 Defining “happiness”

Actually, it is quite difficult to simply define the concept of happiness since it has different meanings and is used in different contexts.

Looking at the etymology of the word could make a useful starting point: Happiness as an English word came from the noun “hap”: “what just happens, chance, luck-good or bad” so happiness means to have good hap. Today, it refers to both one’s situation (“one is fortunate”) and one’s state of mind (“one is glad, content”). Therefore, to be happy means to be glad or content with having a good measure which one regards as crucial in life (Griffin, 2007:140). In this sense, happiness is defined by the individual which explains why it varies from individual to individual. Therefore, it is a subjective concept. What is most important for happiness is whether one has the sort of life which one wants to live (Chekola, 2007:65). However, in general, happiness can be defined as “the degree to which an individual evaluates the overall quality of his life-as-a-whole positively” (Veenhoven 1984 as quoted in Veenhoven, 1989a, 1989b, 1991a, 1991b, 1991c, 1993, 1996, 1997, 2001b, 2001c, 2004a). In this view, happiness can easily be confused with “life satisfaction” but it should be noted that happiness is an “attitude” towards one’s whole life (Ferrer-i-Carbonell et al., 2004:641; Haybron, 2005; Uchida et al., 2004:223; Veenhoven, 1991a, 2001c). Moreover, happiness is related to all domains of life while satisfaction can be associated with only one domain of life e.g. satisfaction of education, health, family life and so on.

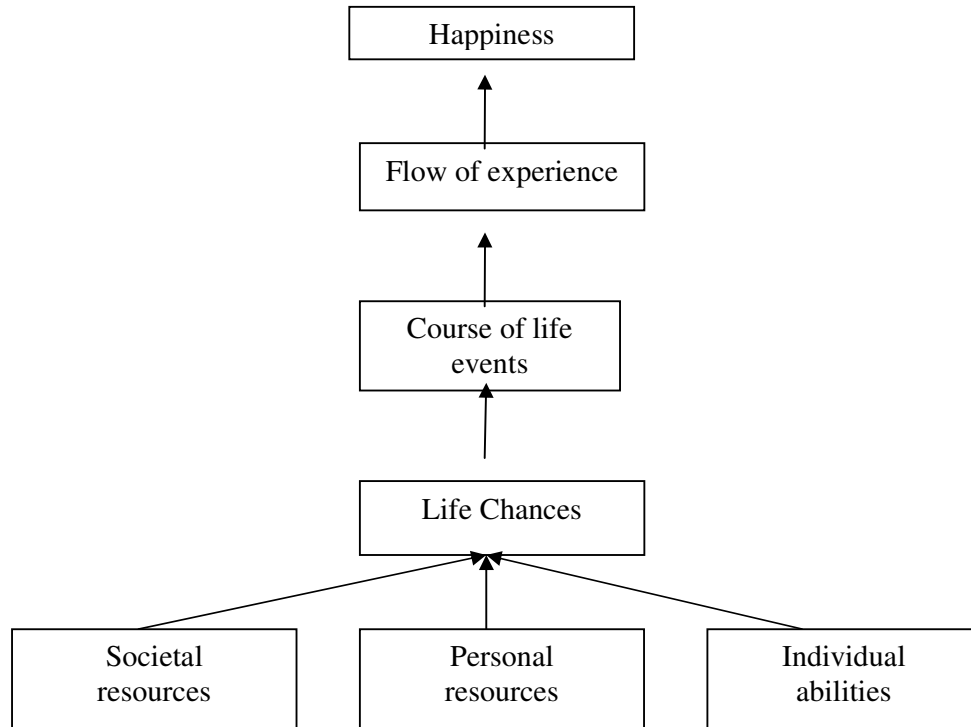
In order to evaluate the overall life, two sources of information are needed: how one feels generally and how suitably one compares to many standards of success. These sources are referred to as “components of happiness”: the affective component called “*hedonic level*” is “the degree to which the various affects a person experience are pleasant”, while the cognitive component called “*contentment*” is “the degree to which an individual perceives his aspiration to be met” (Bruni, 2004; Brülde, 2007b:17-20; Campbell, 1976: 119; Chekola, 2007:59; Haybron, 2000a: 215, 2000b, 2003:310, 2005; Kashdan, 2004:1226; Sirgy et al., 2006:387; Veenhoven, 1989b, 1991a; 1991c, 1996, 2001a, 2001b). Due to these two dimensions of happiness, Haybron (2000 as quoted in Chekola, 2007:51) defines happiness as having two parts: *psychological happiness* focusing on state of mind and

prudential happiness focusing on well-being. Indeed, happiness depends on both cognitive and emotional components. In this respect, it could be argued that happiness presents the individual as a whole.

Many words have been used instead of happiness. For example, wealth and mental health were used in the 1950s. However, nowadays, scientists escape from these words and try to conceptualize the concept (Veenhoven, 1991c). Especially after the social indicator movement, the concept of subjective well-being that is defined as the “degree to which an individual is well” has been used instead of happiness (Veenhoven, 2000a). Actually, subjective well-being is a much broader concept than happiness, including mutually interrelated components such as happiness, life satisfaction, sense of belonging, absence of ill-being, pleasant affect and unpleasant affect, the relative absence of anxiety and depression, “frequent and intense positive affective states”(Ahuvia, 2002:23; Allbright; Argyle, 1996 as quoted in Sirgy, 2001:32; Böhnke, 2005:8; Cummins, 1998:308; Diener et al., 1997:200; Diener et al., 1999:277; Easterlin, 2001:465; Easterlin, 2003:11176; Frey et al., 2000; Kashdan, 2004:1226; Myers et al., 1995:10-11-17; Phillips, 2006:15; Veenhoven, 1997, 2000a, 2001a, 2001c; Yetim, 2001:14,17).

Both psychologists and some sociologists have claimed that happiness is essentially stable because of the characteristic of happiness. According to psychologists, happiness is a “personal trait”, while sociologists claim that happiness is a matter of “cultural character”. According to the “personal trait” view, happiness is not affected by external conditions. On the other hand, according to the “cultural character” view, there are happy and unhappy countries in the world. For example, Italy is seen as “easygoing and lighthearted”, while Sweden is seen as having “a gloomy outlook” or Russian is seen as chronically unhappy. However, according to Veenhoven, the differences result from the living conditions such as security, equality, material comfort and so on, which the state supplies to the citizens (Glatzer, 2000:501; Haller et al., 2006:172; Veenhoven, 1993, 1994, 1997, 2001a, 2001b, 2004b). He defines these kinds of living conditions as “societal resources”. Moreover,

he added two resources i.e. personal resources and individual abilities to describe the determinants of happiness.



Source: Sirgy, 2001:71

Figure 3.1: Veenhoven's flow of life experience model

Veenhoven argued that happiness is influenced by flow of experiences, positive and negative life events and life chances that are supported by individual abilities, societal and personal resources. Societal sources include wealth, political freedom, equality and moral order. Individual sources are made up of social status, material possessions and family ties etc., while individual abilities cover social skills, physical fitness, etc. (Sirgy, 2001:70).

As it is seen, happiness is not an easy concept to define. To see how it is handled by researchers in different approaches, it is time to take up various theoretical approaches.

3.1.1 Different Approaches and Theories on Happiness

Happiness as a word generally presents feelings, moods, attitudes and life as in the examples of feeling happy, being in a happy mood, being happy with a job and living a happy life. Many theories have been trying to define happiness in terms of these words since ancient Greece.

As mentioned before, the philosophical origin of happiness goes back to ancient Greece when “*eudaimonia*” as a word was used instead of happiness. According to Aristippus, who is the pioneer of “*hedonic view*”¹², and Epicureans, the goal of life is maximization of pleasure that is the source of happiness (Bruni, 2004; Brülde, 2007b:3-4,17-20; Haybron, 2000a: 215; 2000b, 2003:310, 2005; Shmotkin, 2005:291; Sirgy et al., 2006:384, 355; Veenhoven, 2001a, 2001b; Yetim, 2001:23-206). In other words, happiness is seen as a favorable balance of pleasure and pain. The more pleasure and less pain involved, the better the life is, and the happier one is.

Related with the hedonic view, the main argument of the “*utilitarian view*” propounded by Jeremy Bentham and James Mill in the nineteenth century is that happiness is the greatest good/utility and we should multiply it as much as possible (Greatest Happiness Principle, “the greater happiness for the greatest number”) (Chekola, 2007:56; Diener et al., 1997:200; Frey et al., 2000; Glatzer, 2000:507; Haybron, 2000b; Nesse, 2004: 1333; Ott, 2005:397; Phillips, 2006:62; Shmotkin, 2005:291; Veenhoven, 1989b, 1991c, 2001a, 2001b, 2003, 2004b; Veenhoven et al., 2005:421-2; Yetim, 2001:23). Although this view sees happiness as a collection of utility or “the average of utility over a period of time”, happiness is beyond the utility.

Contrary to these views, Plato and Aristotle¹³ argued that “living a life of virtue, rather than a life in pleasure was key to reaching the desirable state of ‘*eudaimonia*’” (Sirgy et al., 2006:384). This view is called “*eudaimonic view*”¹⁴ or “Aristotelian view” that focuses on morality and virtue (Chekola,

¹² For further details, see Daniel M. Haybron (2001a) and see L. W. Sumner (1996).

¹³ For more information, see Anthony Kenny (1999).

¹⁴ For further information see David Phillips (2006)

2007:51-2). Aristotle claimed that *eudaimonia* is the heart of activity which is related to virtue because all activity is toward good and happiness (Chekola, 2007:56; Engstrom, 1996; Griffin, 2007:146; Haybron, 2003, 2005; Myers et al., 1995:10; Shmotkin, 2005:291; Yetim, 2001:257).

Related with this, the “*pure happiness*” theory claims that a good life causes happiness. The better one’s life, the happier one is. In other words, happiness is seen as positive final value (Brülde, 2007b:15-6).

On the other hand, according to “*need theory*” (Maslow) focusing on “universal and innate needs, the fulfillment of which can be greatly facilitated by possessions of socioeconomic resources”, happiness depends on the fulfillment of universal basic needs, rather than virtue and morality. This approach is usually used to explain the lower level of happiness in poor countries where basic needs such as food, shelter and safety are clearly less met because of insufficient economic prosperity that allows people to meet their needs (Allardt, 1993:88-9; Böhnke, 2005:6; Heady et al., 1991; Kim, 1998:1-2; Schyns, 1998:5-9; Sirgy et al., 2006:391-392; Veenhoven, 1989a, 1991a; Yetim, 2001:207).

According to “*telic theory*” focusing on aims, happiness is the achievement of desirable endpoints (or goals). In the theory, the progress toward the achievement of the goal produces a positive affect (happiness), while a lack of progress or failure to achieve a goal produces a negative effect (sadness) (Diener, 1999). Moreover, in general there are two types of goals: “intrinsic goals” such as personal growth, having satisfying relations with family and friends; and “extrinsic goals” such as being wealthy, being famous and looking attractive. While the former is associated with higher level of subjective well-being, the latter is not. Moreover, in individualist society, there is not pressure on meeting extrinsic goals i.e. these countries are free to meet intrinsic goals (Ahuvia, 2002:32). In addition, the relation between goals and happiness is complex because of characteristics of goals that vary by needs and socioeconomic structures (Sirgy et al., 2006:393; Yetim, 2001:207). For instance, one who saves money to buy house will be happy after buying

a house while one who wants to change the car will be happy after buying a newer car.

The process of comparison is also effective on determining goals and there is a theory that underlines the importance of this process called “*Multiple Discrepancies Theory*”. The scholars claim that the process of comparison is so crucial to defining and evaluating one’s quality of life and happiness. According to the theory, individuals compare themselves to multiple standards such as other people (“*social comparison theory*”), past conditions, desires or expectations to judge their level of satisfaction or happiness (Bruni, 2004; Fuentes et al., 2001:292-3 ; Glatzer, 2000:509; Haller et al., 2006:174 ; Kim, 1998:1-2; Ott, 2005:398; Rojas, 2005; Schyns, 1998:5-10; Shmotkin, 2005:292 ; Veenhoven, 1989a, 1991a, 1997, 2001a, 2001b; Yetim, 2001:263-267).

In the social comparison process, although most people have the idea of standard of living of distant groups, people compare themselves to reference groups which tend to be close such as same age and social class. The Other’s life is called reference or mirror. This social comparison focuses on observable and socially valuable aspects such as material living conditions, job prestige etc. If one perceives of him/herself as relatively better off than others, she/he feels happy. In other words, the difference between others makes people happy or unhappy. Today, this old idea is called the theory of “relative deprivation”.

When people compare their current conditions with those of the past, they evaluate the new conditions as better or worse. If one perceives improvement in the conditions, she/he is happy. When people compare their desires or expectations; if one thinks that all things, which one wants, were obtained, she/he is happy. However, people can be unhappy in ‘good’ conditions because they want more. People, on the other hand, can be happy in ‘bad’ conditions because they accept and adapt to the situation. These people are called “happy poor” who have false consciousness because they have a high level of deprivation but also a high level of happiness (Philips, 2006:39).

In sum, “The comparisons will result in decreased satisfaction if the comparison standard is higher than the individual’s current state (an upward

comparison), whereas if the current state of the individual compares favorably with the standard (a downward comparison), the comparison will result in increased satisfaction” (Sirgy et al., 2006:392-393). What is important for happiness is “the size of the deficiency-gap”.

Comparison is an arbitrary and personal process so happiness is relative (“*Relativist theory*”). Therefore;

- a. Happiness is not based on quality of life: It results from the arbitrary standard of comparisons and arbitrary judgments. One can be subjectively happy in bad objective conditions or vice versa. In other words, one can be “happy poor” or “unhappy rich” (Philips, 2006:39).
- b. Changes in living conditions to better or worse have only a short-lived effect on happiness: The reason of this is the adjustment of standards and average happiness score is almost the same everywhere.
- c. People are happier after hard times: Standards of comparisons depend on earlier experiences. Therefore, the worse early life was, the lower the standards and the more suitable the judgments of today.
- d. People are typically neutral about their life: Happy and unhappy periods of one’s life and happy and unhappy people in the world balance out each other (“*zero sum theory*”) so people are not completely positive or negative about their lives.

As it is seen, happiness is not based on objective goods, rather than on subjective comparisons. Therefore, there is little interest to advance happiness because of the idea that happiness is both an ambiguous and unimportant matter. However, relativist theory is not applicable in practice because at the micro level, all people try to improve their conditions to get happier and at the macro level, people want the welfare state “to maximize material comfort, legal protection and social security in the belief that such ‘social progress’ will make life more satisfying” (Veenhoven, 1991a). Moreover, when the

arguments of relativist theory have been investigated by many studies, it was found that these results are not valid. Because, people tend to be unhappy under undesirable conditions like poverty, war etc.; changes in some conditions affect happiness, earlier hardship does not encourage later happiness and people are not neutral about their lives, but positive. Consequently, happiness is neither relative nor an unimportant zero sum matter (Veenhoven, 1991a, 1991c, 1993).

All approaches mentioned above can be called “classical approaches” that still affect different views and studies. For example, there has been recently a comprehensive approach: Erik Allardt’s model which deals with both material and non-material basic needs without which one can not survive and avoid sadness. In this approach, three words are crucial in order to understand happiness, human existence and development: “having”, “loving” and “being” (Allardt, 1993:88-91; Böhnke, 2005:3):

“Having” refers to all material things/conditions one has to have to exist and avoid sadness. Allardt (1993:89) classifies them as follows:

- economic resources: income and wealth
- housing conditions: number of rooms, comfortable space
- employment or unemployment
- working conditions: physical conditions, pollution, stress
- health: illness, access to health care, medical aid
- education: years of formal education

However, what should be taken into account is that different countries, especially third world countries’, conditions can be quite different with regard to the availability of food, water or shelter (Allardt, 1993:89).

“Having” as a component of this approach refers to the material dimension, while “loving” and “being” presents the non-material dimension.

“Loving” refers to relationships with other people and social identities which can be evaluated by attachments to family, relatives, friends, workmates, neighbors etc. On the other hand, “Being” refers to integration into society, harmony with nature and “quality of society”. Moreover, it has two sides:

a positive side which supplies personal growth and a negative side which causes alienation. To what extent one can participate in decisions and activities influencing his/her life and the tension between social groups and the social security system are outlined by Allardt (Allardt, 1993: 91).

Consequently, there are different views about the sources and determinants of happiness. For example, some scholars claim that “happiness comes from living virtuous life”, others say that it comes from the collection of pleasures. Whereas some argued that its origin is to fulfill the basic needs, others argued that its origin is the process of comparison. Whereas some argued that it comes from the good life, others said that the achievement of goals causes happiness. It could be said that everyone has their own happiness theory.

3.2 Measurement of happiness

Happiness as a subjective measurement or indicator of quality of life is as important as objective indicators of quality of life and social progress. Happiness has been a concern for many and considerable theoretical work has been accumulated. However, empirical research on happiness is far from being satisfactory.

Can happiness be measured? This question is also very important for the happiness issue because “measurement” is understood as “objective”, “external” judgment (for example measurement of blood-pressure by a doctor). However, it is obvious that happiness can not be measured like blood-pressure (Veenhoven, 1991c, 1993, 2001a, 2001b, 2001c, 2004c). In this respect, there are many longstanding debates about the measurement of happiness.

Some scholars examine happiness as “intangible aspects of quality of life” so D. Kahneman, and A. Tversky introduced the concept of “objective happiness” to measure happiness. In their words: “objective happiness is a moment-based concept, which is operationalized exclusively by measures of the affective state of individuals at particular moments in time” (Kahneman et al., 2000:681; Phillips, 2006:15). In other words, objective happiness that

depends on the moment should be measured instead of subjective happiness that depends on the assessment of the past. However, subjective happiness has been a main concern of quality of life and subjective well-being studies rather than the objective one because they are interested in “enjoyment of life”.

The objective or moment-based happiness can be defined as “a net-sum of all pleasant feelings whenever the actual outcome from a positive life event matches or exceeds our expected outcome of that event (e.g. you expected to win 5-0 but won 8-0)”. Like in the case of positive life events, when the actual outcome is more than our expected outcome in the case of negative life events, we will feel neither happy nor “as sad” (expected to lose 0-5 but lose 0-1). As a conclusion, when the gap between expected and actual outcome is big, unexpected events may cause either good feelings or bad feelings. However, a moment-based happiness (a birthday) does not produce long-term happiness (Hajiran, 2006:35-6). Moreover, moment-based happiness is mostly influenced by environmental factors, while the long term one is less affected by environmental factors (Kozma and Stones, 1992 as quoted in Sirgy, 2001:31).

The phenomena that happiness is “the degree to which an individual evaluates the overall quality of his life-as-a-whole positively” can be measured by directly asking people how happy they are (Diener et al., 1997:206; Inkeles, 1993:4; Özcan et al., 2003:1; Schyns, 1998:11; Veenhoven, 1991b, 2001a). This question is generally used in quality of life surveys and the most well-known question is: “Taking everything together, how happy would you say you are? Would you say you are very happy, pretty happy, or not too happy?” However, although the response is as valid as other responses, there is a great doubt about the validity of self-reports of happiness.

Moreover, there is a noticeable gap among the happiness score of countries in cross-national studies (Allbright; Myers et al., 1995:12; Uchida et al., 2004:223; Veenhoven, 1993, 2001b). While one view examines this gap in terms of “*societal quality*” or “*livability of society*”, “being” i.e. social equality, better living conditions, economic prosperity, social security and political freedom. The other view called “cultural bias” identifies four reasons related to this phenomenon (Schyns, 1998:9; Veenhoven, 1991b, 1991c, 1993,

1996, 1997, 2001a, 2001b, 2001c, 2003, 2004b, 2005a; Veenhoven et al., 2005:432-5):

1. There is a translation problem: In cross-national surveys, the translation into different languages of questions causes the misunderstanding some words like happiness, satisfaction.
2. Social Desirability bias is important for happiness: Differences in moral appreciation of happiness cause the differences in countries. What is important here is whether happiness is a desirable emotion. If it is desirable, people tend to present themselves as happy because of social presentation and ego-defensive. For example, in the Latin nations, such as Colombia, pleasant emotions are seen as desirable. On the other hand, Confucian cultures such as China, unpleasant emotions are more acceptable than pleasant emotions (Allbright).
3. Characteristics of a country identify happiness: This argument is related with whether the country is individualistic or collectivistic. While, in collectivistic society, people tend to define themselves as average citizens, so they usually choose the midpoint of the scale, in individualistic society people define themselves as different from others. Moreover, cultural differences depend on “historically nurtured ideologies and religious ideas”. For example, in European-American culture, happiness results from the personal achievement and Protestant world view that encourages the “affirming the self as worthy, competent, true to the intent of God, and thus, as ‘select’” and “the construal of happiness as personal achievement and as a state that is contingent on the affirmation of personal self”. On the other hand, East Asian culture depends on Confucianism, Taoism and Buddhism that emphasize a “holistic word order where everything is assumed to be connected with everything else” and happiness results from “social harmony and social balance” (Uchida et al., 2004:227).
4. Happiness is a typical western concept: In non-western society, people are not familiar with happiness. Therefore, it is expected that

“no answer” and “do not know” in questionnaire must be more than the others.

In the light of these points, it is expected that:

- a. The average happiness must be lower in collectivistic society than that in individualistic society.
- b. The range of happiness must be smaller in the collectivistic societies.
- c. Happiness must be far from the midpoint in individualistic societies.

Because of problems about happiness as a word in the cross-national surveys, social status including age, gender, income, education, occupation, social participation and social ties is also used to measure happiness (Veenhoven, 1997, 2001a, 2001b, 2001c).

Therefore, as happiness has a complex structure, a comprehensive approach should be used to measure and define happiness.

3.3 Happiness Research

Although there have been some objections to the happiness studies due to problems in defining and measuring happiness, there has been a lot of research in different disciplines such as psychology, sociology, gerontology, medicine, economy after the 1950s (Glatzer, 2000:503; Sirgy et al., 2006:385; Veenhoven, 1997, 2001b, 2003, 2004b).

Although the studies have a short history, there have been three traditions over the last decades: the psychologists deal with the effects of personal traits on subjective well-being; while sociologists and social psychologists deal with the role of status, income, employment, social relations and economists¹⁵ deal with the effects of individual outputs and utility on subjective well-being. Moreover, most recently, some disciplines such as

¹⁵ For more about the happiness studies in economy, see Bruno Frey and Alois Stutzer (2005)

anthropology¹⁶ have started to deal with subjective well-being studies (Böhnke, 2005:5-6; Haller et al., 2006:172; Seghieri et al., 2006:456).

The studies of happiness have rapidly increased over the past few years. For example, many scholars formed the “International Society for Quality of Life Studies” (ISQOLS)¹⁷, there is a specific academic journal, *Journal of Happiness Studies*, and the research findings are presented in the “World Database of Happiness”¹⁸ which consists of a focused bibliography, a catalog of valid indicators, two catalogs of distributional findings, a catalog of correlation findings and a directory of investigators in this field. In the twentieth century, more than 3000 empirical studies have been carried out regarding happiness (Glatzer, 2000:503; Kalmijn et al., 2005: 358; Thin, 2005; Veenhoven, 2004a, 2004b, 2004c).

The study of happiness in sociology started through the social indicators movement focusing on objective and subjective indicators. Since happiness is “to understand the well-being of an individual” that is crucial to measuring directly the “individual’s cognitive and affective reactions” to her/his whole life and/or specific domains of life, happiness became a main subjective indicator of social system performance or quality of life (Andrews&Withey, 1976 and Campbell, 1981 as quoted in Veenhoven 2004b; Diener et al., 1997:200; Veenhoven, 1989b, 2003; Veenhoven et al., 2006:433).

As it is seen, there have been quite a number of studies in different disciplines about happiness but the relation between wealth and happiness has been the most popular subject in these studies: In the 1950s, the common idea was that improvement in the standard of living would cause a better life and then in the 1960s, Headly Cantril, who applied a worldwide survey involving 14 countries, reported that people in rich countries are happier and more satisfied from life than people in poor countries. He explained two reasons related with this result: Firstly, people in poor countries would be “objectively

¹⁶ For more information about the anthropology of happiness, see Neil Thin (2005).

¹⁷ For more details, see <http://www.isqols.org/>

¹⁸ For more details, see <http://www1.eur.nl/fsw/happiness/>

deprived”. In other words, the economic system is not enough to give minimal supplies. Secondly, people in poor countries would suffer from “subjective deprivation”. In other words, the idea that life is better in rich countries reduces their “appreciation of their own” (Cantril, 1965:193-195 as quoted in Veenhoven, 1989a; Veenhoven et al., 2006; Diener, 1993 as quoted in Sirgy et al., 2006:395).

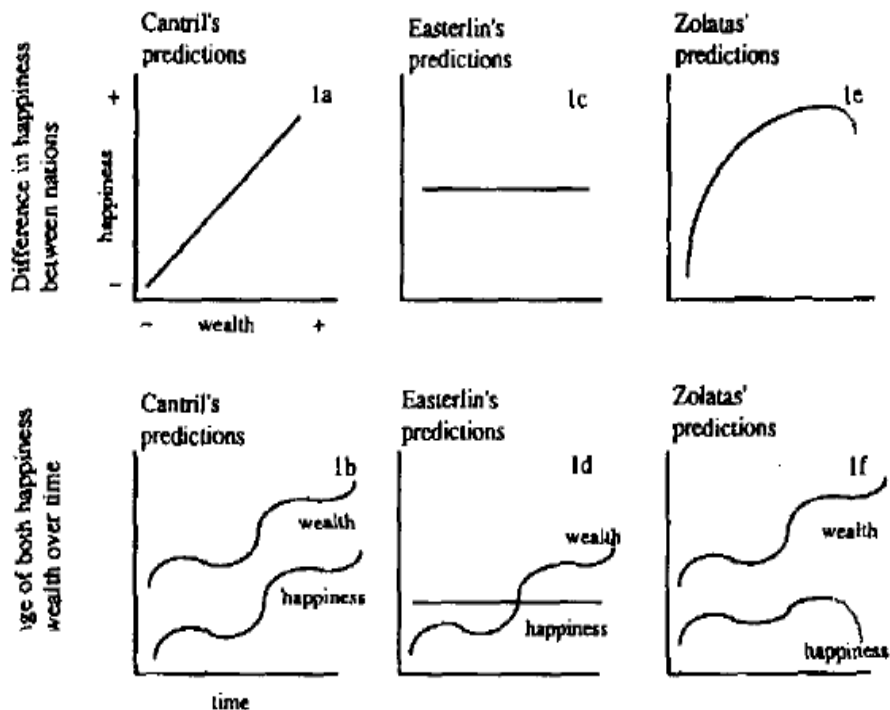
Contrary to Cantril’s view, in the 1970s, Easterlin argued that wealth does not buy happiness. He found a small difference in life satisfaction between poor and rich countries. In other words, according to Easterlin, happiness is relative. The enjoyment of life is not based on the objective living conditions, but rather “the degree to which one considers oneself better off than others, one’s compatriots in particular”. One, for example, is one and a half meters. He/she will consider himself/herself to be “short” among Europeans, but to be “tall” among Pygmies (Easterlin, 1973 as quoted in Veenhoven, 1989a). Some scholars also agreed with the Easterlin view. For example, van Praag and Kapteyn (1973) showed that the salary increases tend to raise desires but do not have a lasting affect on economic satisfaction. Additionally, Brickman, Coates and Janoff-Bulman (1978) showed that lottery winners are not happier than others.

There are many factors that affect this phenomenon: One of these factors is that people quickly adapt to a level of resources and experiences. Another is that external life conditions are not only affective conditions but also stable characteristics of an individual. The perception of a glass of water, for example, as either half-full or half-empty i.e. “happiness a matter of outlook”. Likewise, people perceive of their lives according to their personality¹⁹ (Blanchflower et al., 2005:307; Bognar, 2005:577; Böhnke, 2005:6; Diener et al., 1997:201-2; Easterlin, 2001:466, 2003:11176; Hagerty et al., 2003:1; Myers et al., 1995:13; Oswald, 1997; Veenhoven, 1989a, 1991a, 1993, 1996, 1997, 2001a, 2001b; Veenhoven et al., 2006).

Contrary to these views, in the early 80s, Xenophon Zolatas (1981) argued that in the rich countries, the cost of economic growth is more than its

¹⁹ For further information about the effects of personality on happiness, see M. Argyle (1994).

benefits. He suggested a curvilinear pattern that demonstrated a decreased yield of economic growth which many even turn to negative (Veenhoven, 1989a; Veenhoven et al., 2006). For example, increased income strongly influences the poor but the non-poor are not affected like poor (Ahuvia, 2002:24; Andre et al., 2001:5; Diener et al., 1995:276; Haller et al., 2006:173; Inglehart, 1997; Phillips, 2006:29; Veenhoven, 2004b). This is due to the fact that in poor countries, personal level of income and happiness are strongly related with each other but in rich countries they are not. The reason is that satisfying basic needs is more crucial than other domains in poor countries (Böhnke, 2005:6).



Source: Veenhoven, 1989a

Figure 3.2: Different approaches with regard to the relation between wealth and happiness

As seen in the figure above, Cantril claimed that there is a positive linear relationship between wealth and happiness, i.e. rich countries are happier than poor (1a). Moreover, comparison over time should show parallel variation

in economic increase or decrease and happiness in the countries (1b). For example, comparison over time in Western countries displays that economic growth was paralleled by an increase in happiness. In contrast, Easterlin claimed that there is a linear relationship, but this time a zero one, as symbolized by horizontal line in 1c, i.e. there is no differences between countries with respect to happiness. Moreover, comparison over time should show a similar horizontal line. In other words, happiness is insensitive to economic decrease or growth. On the other hand, Zolatas claimed that happiness follows a curvilinear pattern in both cases. The higher the level of affluence, the less its happiness returns, and at some point the effects is likely to become negative (1e-1f).

In addition, many researchers²⁰ found that the level of happiness is lower in developing or less developed countries than in rich developed/industrialized countries (Ahuvia, 2002:23; Böhnke, 2005:6; Kalmijn et al., 2005:358; Shmotkin, 2005:292; Veenhoven, 1989a, 1991b, 2005b). The lower happiness score of poor and developing countries has been explained by the fact that the wealth of nations is strongly correlated with human rights, equality, attainment of basic needs, political, economic and press freedom²¹ and cultural factors i.e. individualistic or collectivistic culture. For example, there is more schooling, more food, more clean drinking water, a great respect of human rights, more doctors per capita, equality income, greater longevity etc. in rich states (Allbright; Böhnke, 2005:6; Glatzer, 2000:504; Sirgy et al., 2006:396).

²⁰ These researchers are Buchanan and Cantril (1953) who made the first comparison of happiness in several nations in 1948, Cantril (1965) which is the second comparative survey including 14 nations, Inkeles (1960), Inglehart (1972) in his Eurobarometer surveys and Gallup et al. (1976) in reports of world surveys.

For further information, see W. Buchanan and H. Cantril (1953) *How Nations See Each Other. A Study in Public Opinion*, Urbana: University of Illinois Press; A. Inkeles (1960) "*Industrial Man: the Relation of Status to Experience, Perception, and Value*", American Journal of Sociology 66, pp.1-31; R. Inglehart (1972) *The Silent Revolution*, New Jersey: Princeton University Press; H. Cantril (1965) *The Pattern of Human Concern*, New Brunswick (NJ): Rutgers Univ. Press; G. H. Gallup and C.F. Kettering (1976) *Human Needs and Satisfaction-A Global Survey*, Research Report, C.F. Kettering Foundation & Gallup International Research Institutes.

²¹ For more information about the relation between happiness and freedom, see Jan Ott (2000).

In individualistic countries, the priority is the individual rather than the group while the priority in collectivistic countries is the group. Although individualistic countries have higher happiness scores, they also have higher rates of suicide and divorce than in collectivistic ones where the suicide rate is lower because the responsibility to family is more important than personal happiness (Allbright; Ahuvia, 2002:31; Diener et al., 1997:212; Glatzer, 2000:506; Myers et al., 1995:12; Ott, 2000; Veenhoven, 1999, 2004a; Yetim, 2001:193-4)

There are two reasons for the higher happiness scores of individualistic countries: “one reason is the variation of its life-style assortment” i.e. people in individualistic society have many chances to find things that suit individual needs and capacities. The second reason is that in individualistic society, the individual is free to enjoy life according to what he/she wants/desires, which is less possible in collectivistic society (Allbright; Diener et al., 1997:212; Glatzer, 2000:504-6; Myers et al., 1995:12; Ott, 2000; Veenhoven, 1999, 2004a).

However, some studies that disagree with these arguments state that there is low correlation between socio-economic variables and happiness. For example, Diener and Oishi (2000) find that there is a small relation between income and happiness within nations. The relationships are statistically significant but not very strong. Argly (1999) cites similar results that income has a complex and generally weak effect on happiness. However, “low correlations with some socio-economic variables do not mean that external conditions are always irrelevant to happiness”. For example, bad economic conditions in African and Asian countries have negatively affected happiness. Moreover, happiness depends on social ties with family and friends in Western societies (Phillips, 2006:27; Veenhoven, 1991c).

There have been not only wealth studies but also studies on different variables such as personal traits, religion, marital status, etc. These studies results’ are briefly summarized as follows:

...happy persons are more likely to be found in the economically prosperous countries, where freedom and democracy are held in respect and the political scene is stable. The happy are more likely to be found in majority groups than among minorities and more often at the top of the social ladder than the bottom. They are typically married and get on well with families and friends. In respect of their personal characteristics, the happy appears relatively healthy, both physically and mentally. They are active and open minded. They feel they are in control of their lives. Their aspirations concern social and moral matters rather than money making. In matter of politics the happy tend to the conservative side of the middle. (Veenhoven, 1991c).

Consequently, as happiness has been the main aim of human beings for centuries, there will be more studies with respect to happiness.

CHAPTER 4

METHODOLOGY

4.1 Questionnaire and Data

In the study, The European Foundation's European Quality of Life Survey (EQLS) questionnaire and data were used for the reasons that it is the most recent quality of life research including 28 countries and it contains many questions in terms of both objective and subjective aspects of quality of life which allow making comparisons among countries.

EQLS is actually a comprehensive survey. The questionnaire²² used includes 65 questions that cover many life domains namely employment and working conditions, education, housing and local environment, work-life balance, family relations, social support and social networks, social and political participation, health and health care, quality of society and subjective well-being.

The main aim of the EQLS is to get more information about how people live in different conditions and how they perceive their circumstances in the European Union and candidate countries. Thus, in this large and diversified Union, policy makers, governments and civil society actors have the goal to identify diversities and to decrease these diversities and gaps (Saraceno, 2004:1).

The EQLS was carried out by Intomart GfK in 28 countries namely 27 EU member states and Turkey in 2003. However, when it was applied, Bulgaria and Romania were not accepted to be members of the EU yet. Therefore, in the survey, Bulgaria, Romania and Turkey are called "candidate countries" (CC3). Moreover, in the research, other countries have been called

²² See Appendix, pp. 91-119.

EU15 (15 member states that joined before May 2004)²³ and NMS (10 member states that joined in May 2004)²⁴. An average of 1000 respondents were interviewed in each country, aged 18 and over, who were selected from a stratified random sample of the national population, but in the less populated countries such as Estonia and Malta, around 600 people were interviewed by national survey organizations coordinated by Intomart GfK. Therefore, a total of 26,257 face-to-face interviews were conducted in 2003. Finally, data was processed by the Social Science Research Center (WZB) in Berlin (Böhnke, 2005:10; Saraceno, 2004:2-3).

4.2 Sample

As it was mentioned before, EQLS covers many countries along with many life domains. However, our study is limited with an issue of happiness in four countries namely Bulgaria, Hungary, Denmark and Turkey.

All these countries, except Turkey, (where the average of happiness is 6,46), are selected by both their average of happiness and their membership status in the EU. Denmark was selected because of both having the highest average of happiness (8,32) and being the member of EU15; Hungary was selected because of both being in the middle of happiness average range (7,05) and being the member of NMS and Bulgaria was selected because of both being the lowest average of happiness (5,91) and the newest member state to compare with Turkey.

²³ These countries are Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Portugal, Spain, Sweden and United Kingdom.

²⁴ These countries are Greek Cypriot Administration, Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, Slovakia and Slovenia.

Table 4.1: Characteristics of countries selected

COUNTRY	NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS	AVERAGE OF HAPPINESS	MEMBERSHIP STATUS	HDI RANK in 2003
BULGARIA	1007	5,91	Joined in 2007 (the newest member)	55
DENMARK	999	8,32	EU15	14
HUNGARY	1001	7,05	NMS	35
TURKEY	996	6,46	Candidate country	94

Source: EQLS 2003 (mean value) and UNDP (2005).

Q.42: Taking all things together on a scale of one to 10, how happy would you say you are? Here one means you are very unhappy and 10 means you are very happy.

As it is known, the Human Development Index is a complex measurement including GDP, life expectancy and literacy rate. However, it has a disadvantage in that some countries have the same value. Thus, in the analysis, the index rank is preferred to use for comparing countries instead of index value (Böhnke, 2005:20). When we look at the ranks of the countries, we see that Denmark with a high level of happiness is 14th, Hungary with the second high level of happiness is 35th, Bulgaria with the lowest level of happiness is 55th and Turkey is 94th in the Human Development Index. It is clear that the happiness level is not the same with the HDI rank of a country.

All samples were selected from a stratified random sample of the national population. In addition, the total number of respondents interviewed from each country can be seen from the table above. Additionally, in Bulgaria, 1007 respondents were interviewed between 24 May and 12 June 2003, in Denmark 999 interviews occurred between 13 June and 3 July 2003, in Hungary 1001 respondents were interviewed between 17 May and 23 June

2003 and in Turkey 996 interviews occurred between 14 and 28 July 2003 (Ahrendt, 2003).²⁵

4.3 Variables

As discussed in the previous chapters, several variables including both objective-subjective and individual-societal domains affect happiness. Because of that, Allardt's approach which covers both objective-subjective and individual-societal is used in the analysis. Another reason is that the questionnaire allows for applying Allardt's model.

According to Allardt, having, loving and being affect both quality of life and subjective well-being. Having is related to material sources and standard of living such as income, basic goods, housing, affordability etc; loving is related to social needs of an individual such as social networks, emotional support etc.; being is related to the need of social integration into society, feelings of belonging or alienation.

In addition to Allardt' model, work-life balance in modern society called "time pressure", "alienation", "environment" can be added to the triad of "having, loving, being" to understand subjective well-being/happiness in modern society. In addition to these variables, socio-demographic variables namely gender, age, region, occupation, and educational level are also used in the analysis of happiness.

It is time to present indexes and variables that tap "having", "loving" and "being" as well as "time pressure", "alienation" and "environment". The following table presents the variables that make up the index measuring "having".

²⁵ For more details about fieldwork of the research, see Daphne Ahrendt (2003)

Table 4.2: Indicators for “having” (The material living conditions)

VARIABLE	QUESTION NO IN EQLS	INDICATORS
HAVING	Q.19	Problem with accommodation (shortage of space, rot in windows/doors/flats, damp/leaks, lack of indoor flushing toilet)
	Q.20, Q.21	Affordability of basic goods (keeping home adequately warm, holiday, furniture, meal with meat, clothes, having friends or family or a drink, car, home computer, washing machine)
	Q.58	Able to make ends meet
	Q.59	Solvency problems
	Having Index= Q.19_1+ Q.19_2+ Q.19_3 +Q.19_4 (yes) +Q.20_1+ Q.20_2+ Q.20_3 +Q20_4+ Q.20_5+ Q.20_6 (can not afford it)+ Q.21a+ Q.21b+ Q.21c (can not afford it)+ Q58 (with difficulty/with great difficulty)+ Q.59a+ Q.59b (yes)	
The having index ranges from 0 to 17.		
The higher the index value, the worse is the individual access to material sources.		

Source: Böhnke, 2005:42.

In creating an index, I transformed the response categories of all variables into binary format where 1 represents the characteristic sought while 0 absence of it. In theory, “having” which includes income, standard of living, and material living conditions appears to be the most important variable. Although income is the key dimension of “having”, it is not “a convincing indicator” because of difficulties in learning the true income of people (Böhnke, 2005: 42). To compensate for this problem, other aspects are used in the creation of the index which is instrumental to increasing the reliability of material living conditions. To this end, respondents were asked which goods are available to them, whether they can make ends meet, whether they have solvency problems and whether there is any accommodation problem such as shortage of space, lack of indoor toilet, etc. If one has several accommodation

problems; if one can not afford some things and conditions such as clothes, holiday, car, keeping home adequately warm; if one is in difficulty to make ends meet and if one has some solvency problems, one receives 1's for these items in the scale that indicates that one experiences "having" problems. In other words, the more the problems (higher index value), the worse the individual access to material resources, the lower the level of happiness. Therefore, the index has values ranging between 0 and 17 where lower values indicate absence of problems.

Table 4.3: Indicators for "loving" (The social relations)

VARIABLE	QUESTION NO IN EQLS	INDICATORS
LOVING	Q.34, Q.35	Contact with families and friends
	Q.36	Availability of support
	Q.33	Having children
	Q.32	Marital status
	Loving Index = Q.34a+Q.35b+Q.34c+Q.35 (several times a year/less often)+Q.36a+Q.36b+Q.36c+Q.36d (nobody)+Q.32 (separated, divorced, widowed, never married and not living with a partner)+Q.33 (no children)	
The loving index ranges from 0 to 13.		
The higher the index value, the more limited the social contacts and support.		

Source: Böhnke, 2005:48.

"Loving" which measures the level of the social support network is as important as having and is created the same way described above. Respondents were asked about their relations with other people especially family, friends and relatives. The questions are about how often one has contact with relatives, friends and family and from whom one would get support in case of emergencies. Moreover, marital status and having children are also important indicators for loving index. If one contacts with families and friends several times a year or less often; if there is nobody to help for support; if one is not married or living with a partner and if one has no children, one receives 1's that

indicates isolation from social life and non existence of social relations, i.e. one feels alone. In other words, the more limited the social contacts and support, the more one feels alone, the lower the level of happiness. So the index value varies from 0 to 13 where a lower value means the existence of a social support network while a higher value signals problems with social relations in general.

Table 4.4: Indicators for “being” (Quality of society)

VARIABLE	QUESTION NO IN EQLS	INDICATORS
BEING	Q.27	Trust in the ability of the following systems to deliver when you need it? a) State pension system b) Social benefit system
	Q.28	General speaking, would you say that most people can be trusted, or that you can not be too careful in dealing with people?
	Q.29	Tension between social groups: a) poor and rich people b) management and workers c) men and women d) different racial and ethnic groups
	Q.54	Quality of each of the following public services: a) health services b) education system c) public transport d) social services e) state pension system
	Being Index = Q.27a+Q.27b+(hardly any trust/no trust at all)+Q.28 (0-4)+Q.29a+Q.29b+Q.29c+Q.29d+Q.29e (a lot of tension) +Q.59a+.59b+Q.59c+Q.59d+Q.59e (0-5)	
The being index ranges from 0 to 15.		
The higher the index value, the lower people rate the quality of their society.		

Source: Böhnke, 2005:62.

The next construct is ‘being’ measured with 4 indicators which are related to the perceived quality of society and created the same way described above. The respondents were asked to evaluate the society and the questions are

related to the trust in state pensions, the social benefit system and other people; tension between social groups such as rich and poor, racial and ethnic groups; and quality of public services such as health, education and the transport system. If one has hardly or no trust in the state pension and social benefit system, if one is too careful in dealing with people i.e. one has no or little trust in people, if one perceives a lot of tension between social groups, if one defines the public services as bad or inadequate, one receives 1's that indicates lower satisfaction with the quality of society overall. In other words, the more the problems one perceives in the society where one lives, the lower one rates the quality of society, the lower the level of happiness. So the index has values ranging from 0 to 15 where a lower value means low quality of society and lower level of satisfaction with it while a higher value indicates high quality of society and high satisfaction with it.

Table 4.5: Indicators of “time pressure” (Work-life balance)

VARIABLE	QUESTION NO IN EQLS	INDICATORS
TIME PRESSURE	Q.13	Perception of work-life balance: come from work too tired to do some of the household chores; difficulties in fulfilling family responsibilities because of the amount of time spent on the job; difficulties concentrating at work because of family responsibilities
	Q.39	Perception of fair share of housework
	Q.40	Perception of amount of time spent in different areas of life (too much, just right, too little):job/paid work, contact with family members, social contact, hobbies/interest, sleeping, voluntary work or political activities
	Time pressure Index = Q. 13a+Q.13b+Q.13c+Q.39+Q.40a (several times a week/too much)+Q.40b+Q.40c+Q.40d+Q.40e+Q.40f (too little)	
The time pressure index ranges from 0 to 10.		
The higher the index value, the more time constraints people perceive.		

Source: Böhnke, 2005:71.

In modern society, one of the problems is “time using,” which means the balance between work and life, so this variable is related to quality of life as well as happiness. In order to measure the time pressure, employed respondents were asked how they are able to combine paid work and family responsibilities, whether they perceive difficulties in fulfilling family responsibilities and whether they spend too much or too little time engaged in some activities such as contact with family members, hobbies/interest, voluntary work or political activities. If one usually comes home too tired to do some of the household chores, if one does not fulfill family responsibilities because of the amount of time spent on the job or can’t concentrate at work because of family responsibilities, if one spends too little time in different areas and activities, one receives 1’s for these items in scale that indicates limited out of work time. In other words, one does not have enough time out of work or belonging to oneself. Thus, the less the time spent outside work and the more time limits people perceive, the lower the level of happiness. Therefore, the index, created the same way described above, varies from 0 to 10 where the lower level of value means that one perceives time pressure while a higher value signals absence of problems with time pressure.

Table 4.6: Indicators of “alienation”

VARIABLE	QUESTION NO IN EQLS	INDICATORS
ALIENATION	Q.30	Please tell me whether you agree completely, agree somewhat, disagree somewhat or disagree completely with each statement: a) I am optimistic about the future b) In order to get ahead nowadays you are forced to do things that are not correct c) I feel left out of society d) Good luck is more important than hard work for success e) Life has become so complicated today that I almost can not find my way.
	Alienation Index= Q.30a (disagree somewhat/disagree completely)+Q.30b+Q.30c+Q.30d+Q.30e (agree completely /agree somewhat)	
The alienation index ranges from 0 to 5.		
The higher the index value, the more the individual feels alienation.		

Source: Böhnke, 2005:16.

Alienation is another important variable for happiness in the literature so there is one question especially related to alienation in EQLS questionnaire. To calculate it, 5 dimensions are used and the alienation index was created in the same way described above. The respondents were asked whether they are optimistic about the future, whether they are forced to do things that are not correct to get ahead nowadays, whether they feel left out of society, whether they believe in good luck more than hard work and whether life is becoming too complex to find one’s way. If one is pessimistic about the future, if one agrees with the statement that to get ahead nowadays you are forced to do things that are not correct, if one feels left out of society, if one believes in good luck more than hard work and if one perceives that life has become so complicated that the right way to go cannot be found, one receives 1’s, which means that one feels alienation. In other words, the more one agrees to these phenomena, the more one feels alienation and the lower the level of happiness. So the alienation index has values ranging from 0 to 5 where the lower value indicates low level of alienation while the higher value means a high level of alienation.

Table 4.7: Indicators of “environment”

VARIABLES	QUESTION NO IN EQLS	INDICATORS
ENVIRONMENT	Q.56	Please think about the area where you live: a) noise b) air pollution c) lack of access to recreational or green areas d) water quality
	Environment Index= $Q.56a+Q.56b+Q.56c+Q.56d$ (very many reasons/many reasons/a few reasons)	
The environment index ranges from 0 to 8.		
The higher the index value, the lower the individual rates the quality of environment.		

This variable depends on the local environment in which one lives and an index is created the same way described above. Respondents were asked about the quality of their local area’s characteristics such as noise, lack of green areas and clean water. If one evaluates that the area has noise, air pollution, lack of green areas and lack of clean water, one receives 1’s, which means that one perceives a low quality of environment. In other words, the more problems there are in the environment, the lower the individual rates the quality of environment, the lower the level of happiness. Therefore, the environment index varies from 0 to 10 where the lower level of value displays absence of environment problems while the higher level of value indicates many problems with quality of environment.

In sum, the analysis is conducted under the following titles: “*socio-demographic characteristics*” including gender, age, region, employment status, educational level; “*individual source control*” including “having”, “loving”, “time pressure”, “internet using”; “*quality of society*” including “being”, “alienation”; and “*other variables*” including health and “environment”.

4.4 Data Analysis

The aim of the study is to illustrate the relationship between quality of life and happiness through comparing different countries with different averages of happiness. Therefore, these questions are attempted to be answered:

1. Why do the countries have different levels of happiness?
2. What are the factors determining happiness for each country?
3. Which factors are the most effective in each country and in general?
4. Is it possible to suggest new policies that depend on determinants to increase the average of happiness?

4.5 Basic Descriptive Statistics About Variables

Before analyzing the factors determining happiness for each country, it will be useful to identify basic statistics about variables in this chapter under the titles of gender, age, region, employment status, educational level, “having”, “loving”, “time pressure”, internet using, “being”, “alienation”, health and “environment” respectively.

4.5.1 Gender

When we look at the gender distribution of the sample, we see that 48,2 % of population is male and 51,8 % is female in Bulgaria while these percentages are respectively 48,9 % and 51,1 % in Denmark. On the other hand, 46,9 % of the population is male and 53,1 % is female in Hungary while these percentages are 50,7 % for male and 49,3 % for female in Turkey.

4.5.2 Age

The average age of Bulgaria (47,08), Denmark (47,41) and Hungary (46,11) is older than 45 years old, while the average age of Turkey (37,63) is younger than 40 years old.

In addition, we can identify the age categories that can be seen from figure below:

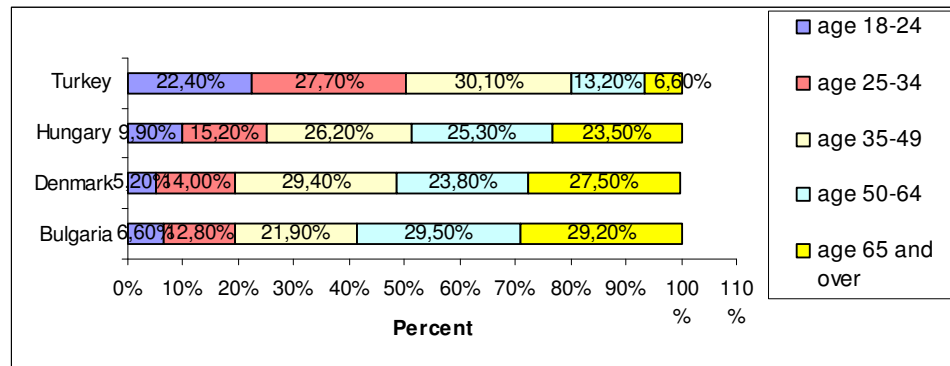


Figure 4.1: Age distribution of countries

The majority of people in Bulgaria are aged between 50 to 64 years old (29,50 %), whereas the majority of people in Denmark (29,40 %), Hungary (26,20 %) and Turkey (30,10 %) is aged between 35 to 49 years old. Moreover, Bulgaria, Denmark and Hungary have older populations than Turkey. That is, 29,2 % of Bulgaria, 27,5 % of Denmark and 23,5 % of Hungary is aged 65 and over as compared to 6,6 % of Turkey.

4.5.3 Region

The majority of people in Denmark (65,2 %) and Turkey (75,1 %) are living in urban areas while half of population in Bulgaria and Hungary is living in urban areas.

4.5.4 Employment Status

About half of the population in Bulgaria, Denmark and Hungary is working while this percentage is only 34% in Turkey. On the other hand, 17 % of Bulgaria is unemployed while this percentage is 5 % for Denmark, 6 % for Hungary and 8 % for Turkey. Moreover, 32 % of Bulgaria, 26 % of Denmark, 31 % of Hungary and 14 % of Turkey is retired and 2 % of Bulgaria, 0,4 % of Denmark, 3 % of Hungary and 32 % of Turkey is homemaker.

In general, Bulgaria (58 %), Hungary (56 %) and Turkey (66 %) have more people who are out of working life than in Denmark (45 %).

4.5.5 Educational Level

More than half of population of Bulgaria (60,6 %) and Hungary (58,1 %) completed secondary education, while about half of the respondents of Denmark (46 %) and Turkey (51,4 %) only completed primary education. Moreover, university educated people in Bulgaria make up about 20 % of the population while this percentage is about 10 % for other countries. On the other hand, uneducated people make up about 1 % of Bulgaria and Hungary while they make up 10 % of Denmark and 8 % of Turkey.

4.5.6 “Having” (The Material Living Conditions)

The material living conditions are examined by using the “having” index. As it was explained before, many questions about material living conditions such as accommodation problems, affordability of basic needs etc., were asked to the respondents and the “having” value of countries given below was calculated.

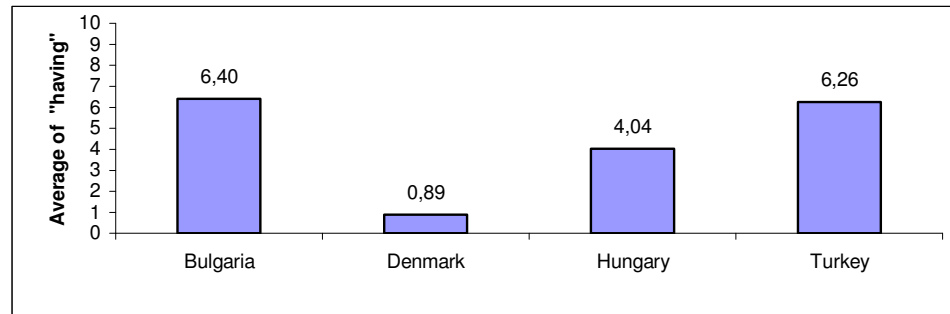


Figure 4.2: “Having” value by country

Bulgaria has the highest value (6,402 out of 17), whereas Denmark has the lowest one (0,888). The higher the index value, the worse the individual access to material sources. In this respect, people in Bulgaria face the most problems in accessing material sources, while people in Denmark have the least problem about the material sources. For example, only 2 % of people in Denmark can not afford basic goods such as holiday, meat, furniture and clothes etc. compared to 51 % of Bulgaria; 5 % of people in Denmark have difficulty making ends meet compared to 58 % of Bulgaria and 5 % of people in Denmark have accommodation problems compared to 19 % of Bulgaria.

On the other hand, the “having” value of Turkey is 6,256, which is the second highest value. That is, people in Turkey have more problems accessing material sources than the people in Denmark as well as in Hungary. For example, 44 % of people in Turkey can not afford basic goods such as holidays, meat, furniture and clothes etc. compared to 11 % of Hungary; 47 % of people in Turkey have difficulty making ends meet compared to 28 % of Hungary and 31 % of people in Turkey have accommodation problems compared to 24 % of Hungary.

Moreover, it should not be forgotten that being unable to make ends meet refers to a high poverty risk (Böhnke, 2005:44). In this respect, almost half of the population in Bulgaria and Turkey is at risk of poverty while few people are at risk in Denmark.

4.5.7 “Loving” (The Social Relations)

The social relations are attempted to be measured by the “loving” index where the questions are about social contacts, marital status, having children and availability of support; and the “loving” value of countries given in the figure below was calculated.

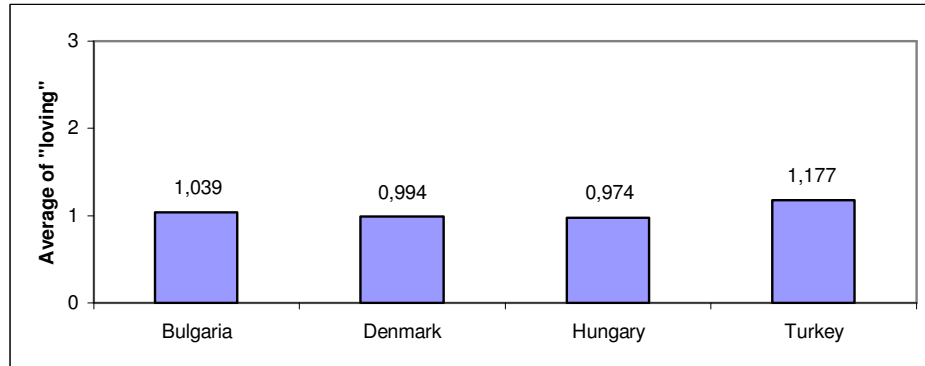


Figure 4.3: “Loving” value by country

Turkey has the highest value (1,177), whereas Hungary has the lowest one (0,974). However, there are small differences between the values of countries. The higher the index value is, the very limited the social contacts and support are. In this respect, Turkey is more limited while Hungary is better than other countries with respect to social contacts and support.

In order to identify this phenomenon, statistics of the “loving” domain of the four countries are compared:

Table 4.8: The distribution of contact and support (% of population)

	Contact with mother and father		Contact with friends or neighbors		No support available in case of ill, problem etc.	No support available if needed money
	More than once a day/every day or almost every day	Several times a year or less often	More than once a day/every day or almost every day	Several times a year or less often		
Bulgaria	46	17	73	5	5	33
Denmark	20	20	50	4	3	10
Hungary	51	12	61	7	3	15
Turkey	40	27	64	4	5	20

Frequency of contacts with other people especially parents, friends, children and neighbors is one of the dimensions of “loving”. Almost half of people in Bulgaria, Hungary and Turkey contact with their parents more than once a day/every day or almost every day whereas this percentage in Denmark is only 20 %. On the other hand, the percentage of people who contact with their friends and neighbors more than once a day/every day or almost every day increases in each country. This difference between contacts could be explained by sharing same living and working areas such as the apartment or office with friends and neighbors. For example, the neighbor across can be seen when the rubbish is given to the doorkeeper, while parents and relatives can be seen during some special days such as traditional feast days.

Moreover, in all countries, few people have the problem of being supported in case of illness, advice about a serious personal or family matter or feeling depression. However, when one needs money, this support decreases. For example, 33 % of people in Bulgaria have the problem of support in terms of money, while this percentage in Denmark is only 10 %. This phenomenon may be related to whether the people one turns to for support have enough money to do so.

Another dimension of “loving” is having children. The average number of children is 1,47 for Bulgaria, 1,71 for Denmark, 1,57 for Hungary and 1,86 for Turkey.

The last but not least dimension of “loving” is marital status. Married or living with partner made up 67 % and widowed, divorced and not living with partner made up 23 % of Bulgaria while married or living with partner made up 63,9 % and widowed, divorced and not living with partner made up 23 % of Hungary. On the other hand, married or living with partner made up 57,6 % and widowed, divorced and not living with partner made up 26 % of Denmark, and married or living with partner made up 70 % and widowed, divorced and not living with partner made up 7 % of Turkey. In brief, the majority of people in all these countries are married or living with partner. However, marriage does not depend on obligation but on love in individualistic society. Thus, the divorce rate is higher in individualistic society (Ahuvia, 2002:25). In this respect, available statistics offer that Turkey (2 %) is not evaluated as an individualistic society but Denmark is (11 %).

Consequently, less contact with parents and less support availability in the case of illness, money etc. may have played a role in the lower value score of Turkey because her statistics of other domains in this domain are better than those of other countries.

4.5.8 “Time pressure” (Work – life Balance)

The work – life balance is evaluated by using “time pressure” index. The questions are related to family and work responsibilities, hobbies, voluntary work, contact with family members etc. The values of countries are given below:

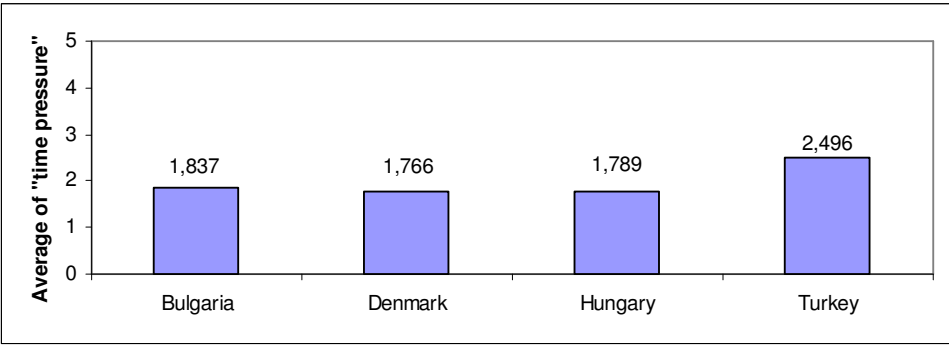


Figure 4.4: “Time pressure” value by country

Turkey has the highest index value (2,496 out of 10) and the other countries’ values are slightly different from each other. The higher the index value, the more time constraints people perceive. In this respect, people in Turkey do not perceive balance between work and private life. It means that people spend little time on “life”, while people in Bulgaria, Denmark or Hungary balance work and life.

In order to unveil the features of countries with respect to time usage, the following table was prepared which provides statistics of dimensions of “time pressure” to compare the countries:

**Table 4.9: The distribution of the dimensions of “time pressure”
(% of population)**

	Bulgaria	Denmark	Hungary	Turkey
Tired to do some of the housework several times a week	36,8	15,5	30,0	35,6
Difficult in fulfilling family responsibilities several times a week	19,9	5,2	14,1	27,0
Difficulty to concentrate at work because of my family responsibilities several times a week	5,4	0,9	3,6	11,3
Share of housework (more than your fair share)	19,5	9,1	18,1	42,5
Time spent on: my job/paid work (Too much)	29,4	26,5	32,4	65,1
Time spent on: contact with family members (Too little)	22,4	26,0	24,5	29,2
Time spent on: other social contact (not family) (Too little)	48,8	28,0	34,7	39,3
Time spent on: own hobbies/interests (Too little)	57,8	39,8	47,0	52,6
Time spent on: sleeping (Too little)	24,8	24,7	22,9	20,1
Time spent on: taking part in voluntary work or political activities (Too little)	39,2	36,7	26,6	63,6

Approximately 30 % of people in Bulgaria, Denmark and Hungary spend too much time on their job compared to 65 % of people in Turkey. Related with this, people normally are too tired to do housework and they have usually difficulty in fulfilling the family responsibilities. Thus, one of the members of family –generally woman- does more than their fair share of housework. For example, 82,3 % of people in Turkey who think that they do more than their fair share of housework (42,5 %) are women. Moreover, the gender imbalance in the completion of housework is linked to the perception of tasks such as preparing meals, cleaning and childcare, as the responsibility of women.

On the contrary, spending too little time with family members, friends, and neighbors, on hobbies, on sleeping, on voluntary work and political

activity is common in all countries. However, there are more people spending less time on voluntary work and political activity in Turkey (64 %), which can be related to the lack of “civil society” culture. In addition, there are more people spending less time on contact with family members in Turkey (29,2 %) compared to other countries.

4.5.9 Internet Using

As it is well known, technology has quickly improved in this era so the individual has difficulty dealing with this rapid progress. In this study, since there are not questions related to technology, “internet using” is used as an indicator to examine the relation between individual and technology.

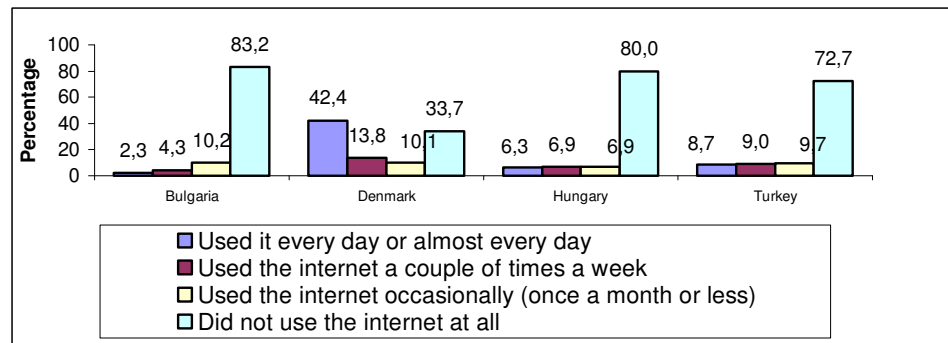


Figure 4.5: The distribution of internet using.

The majority of the population in Bulgaria (83,2 %), Hungary (80 %) and Turkey (72,7 %) have not used the internet at all whereas 42,4 % of population in Denmark uses it every day or almost every day.

4.5.10 “Being” (Quality of Society)

The quality of society is measured by “being” index which measures perception of quality of society by responses given to the questions on tensions between social groups, and trust and quality of public services such as health, education, pension system etc. The index values of countries are given below. Moreover, it should not be forgotten that this perception shows also one’s awareness of the society in which one lives.

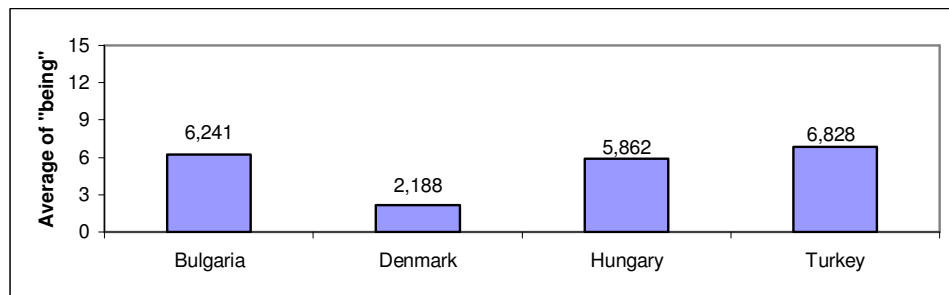


Figure 4.6: “Being” value by country

Turkey has the highest value (6,828 out of 15) while Denmark has the lowest one (2,188). The higher the index value, the lower people rate the quality of their society. In this respect, people in Turkey perceived more problems in terms of the quality of society. Moreover, the people in Bulgaria and Hungary rate the quality of their society low, too. In contrast, people in Denmark rate the quality of their society high.

In order to display the composition of countries with respect to quality of society, the following table was prepared which provides statistics of dimensions of “being” for the purpose of comparison:

Table 4.10: The dimensions of “Being”

		Bulgaria	Denmark	Hungary	Turkey
Low trust in	state pension system	62	39	53	35
	social benefit system	66	19	69	59
Average of trust in other people		4,4	6,9	5	4,5
A lot of tension between	Poor-rich	54	4	61	60
	Management-worker	39	6	47	48
	Men-women	8	7	11	34
	Old-young people	17	3	19	33
	Racial-ethnic groups	14	39	55	46
Low quality of	health care	3,7	7	5,3	3,9
	education	4,6	7,6	6,2	4,5
	Transportation	5	6,8	5,6	5
	social services	3,8	6,8	4,8	4,3
	state pension system	3,7	6,5	4,8	4,4

The majority of people in Bulgaria and Hungary have lower trust in their social pension and benefit systems. On the contrary, a minority of people in Denmark have little trust. Moreover, there is little trust in the benefit system but quite high trust in the pension system in Turkey

Related with social cohesion and integration, trust is an important concept for “being”. Denmark has the highest average of trust in other people (6,9 out of 10), while in other countries the average is 5. If 1 means that one should be careful to trust others and 10 means that most people can be trusted, 5 means that people in Bulgaria, Hungary and Turkey have neither trust nor distrust in other people. The available literature related with this phenomena claim that one of the results of low trust in people in a society is poverty. People do not trust other people because of irregular benefits and the negative

feelings about being dependent on other people so they depend upon their family and relatives (Ayata et al., 2003:134).

In addition, the majority of people in Bulgaria (54 %), Hungary (61 %) and Turkey (60 %) claim that there is much more tension between poor and rich people, rather than other tensions; while the majority of people in Denmark (55 %) claim that there is a lot of tension between racial and ethnic groups.

Another dimension of “being” is the quality of public services including health care, education, transportation, social services and the state pension system. All these public services were rated approximately 5 out of 10 in Turkey, almost 5,5 in Hungary and 4 in Bulgaria while the rate increases to 7 in Denmark. That is, people in Hungary and Turkey perceive all of these services as neither good nor bad. They are seen as bad in Bulgaria whereas they are perceived as good in Denmark.

4.5.11 “Alienation”

Alienation is measured by the index that employs the questions about whether one is optimistic about the future, one is forced to do things that are not correct to get ahead, one feels left out of society, one believes in good luck more than hard work and life has become so complex so as not to find the way. The index values of countries are as given below:

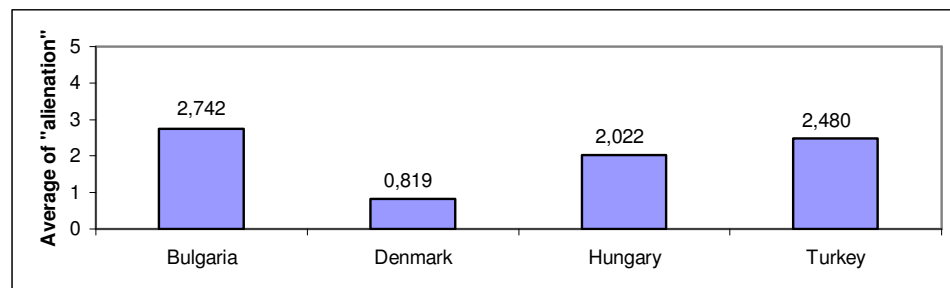


Figure 4.7: “Alienation” value by country

Bulgaria has the highest value (2,742 out of 5) while Denmark has the lowest one (0,819). The higher the index value, the more the individual feels alienation. In this respect, people in Bulgaria feel high “alienation”, whereas people in Denmark feel low alienation. On the other hand, people in Turkey and Hungary feel “alienation” at quite a high level.

When we look at the distribution of the statistics about dimensions of “alienation” to unveil this phenomenon, we see the picture given in the table below:

Table 4.11: The dimensions of “alienation” (% of population)

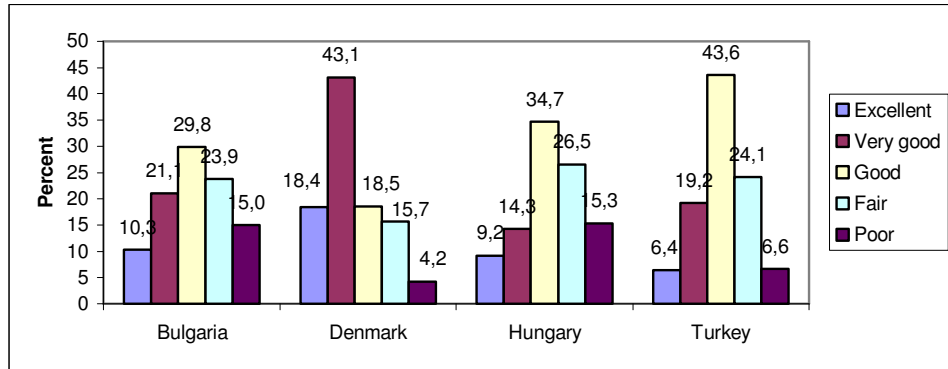
	Pessimism	Forced to do incorrect things	Exclusion	Luck is decisive	Life is too complicated
Bulgaria	51	68	68	65	64
Denmark	7	26	5	29	17
Hungary	40	63	9	62	33
Turkey	37	60	25	60	74

The majority of people in Bulgaria are pessimistic about the future (51 %), believe good luck is more determinant of success than hard work (65 %), think that they are forced to do incorrect things (68 %), feel out of society (68 %) and feel that life has become too complex (64 %). In contrast, a minority of people in Denmark agree with these statements. For example, only 7 % of them are pessimistic and 5 % of them feel out of the society. On the other hand, 37 % of people in Turkey are pessimistic but half of the population think that they are forced to do incorrect things (60 %), that good luck is more important than hard work for success (60 %) and that life has become too complex (74 %).

4.5.12 Health

Health consists of physical health and mental health which is more important for happiness than physical health (Veenhoven, 2004b). In the

questionnaire, this division is not employed but there are two questions about health: one of them wants one to evaluate individual health and the other asks whether one has any long-standing illness or disability limiting activities.



Q43. In general, would you say your health is

Figure 4.8: The evaluation of health by country

The evaluation in subjective terms is also important for the total picture of health. In Bulgaria (29,8 %), Hungary (34,7 %) and Turkey (43,6 %), the majority of people evaluate their health as “good” compared to people in Denmark’s “very good” (43,1 %). On the other hand, a minority of people in Denmark (4,2 %) and Turkey (6,6 %) perceived their health as “poor”; this proportion increases two times in Bulgaria (15 %) and Hungary (15,3 %)

When we look at the statistic of having long standing illness or disability, we see that less than one quarter of the people surveyed have long-standing illnesses or disabilities that limit their activities.

4.5.13 “Environment”

The knowledge of environment is attempted to be gained by the “environment” index that evaluates the local area with respect to environmental problems such as noise, clean water, and pollution.

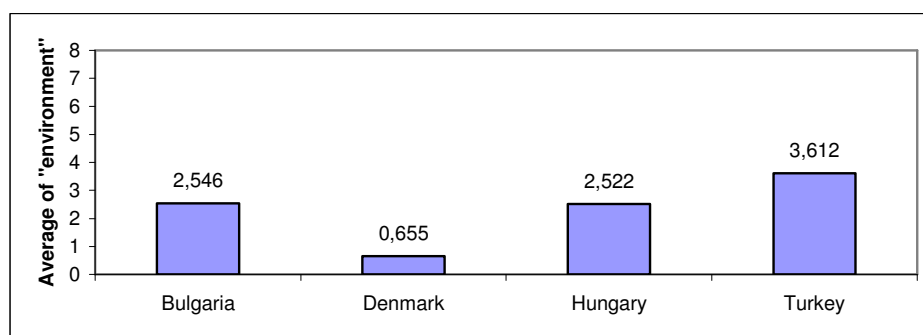


Figure 4.9: The average of “environment” value by country

Turkey has the highest value (3,612 out of 8), while Denmark has the lowest one (0,655). The higher the index value, the lower the individual rates the quality of environment. In this respect, more people in Turkey experience environmental problems, while few people in Denmark cite these problems. For example, almost 30 % of people in Turkey complain about air pollution compared to only 3 % of people in Denmark and 41 % of people in Turkey complain about water quality compared to only 1 % of people in Denmark. Moreover, people in Bulgaria (2,546) and Hungary (2,522) face relatively the same environmental problems. For example, air pollution and lack of green areas.

Table 4.12: The proportion of population who complain about environmental problems by country

	Noise	Air pollution	Lack of green place	Water quality
Bulgaria	18	23	18	28
Denmark	5	3	1	1
Hungary	21	22	13	18
Turkey	29	29	45	41

In sum, environmental problems vary from country to country. For example, there are more complaints of water quality in Bulgaria (28 %), of

noise in Denmark (5 %), of air pollution in Hungary (22 %) and of lack of green areas in Turkey (45 %).

CHAPTER 5

DETERMINANTS OF HAPPINESS

In this chapter, the determinants of happiness will be investigated by country. Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used for analysis. Moreover, linear regression analysis was applied in order to compare the determining factors and countries.

In Table 5.1, unstandardized (metric) regression coefficients and standardized regression coefficients (betas) along with their significance are given for Bulgaria, Denmark, Hungary and Turkey. The regression model used assumes direct effects of all independent variables on happiness. In order to easily and efficiently evaluate the variables, independent variables were categorized as “*socio-demographic characteristics*” including gender, age, region, employment status, educational level, “*individual source control*” covering “having”, “loving”, “time pressure” and internet using, “*quality of society*” including “being”, “alienation, and “*other variables*” including health and “environment”.

As the overall F test indicates variables included in the model are good enough to estimate happiness. ($F=131,68$, $p<0,001$).

This chapter tries to answer the question of what are the determinants of happiness for each country and which variables are the most important for each country.

5.1 Socio-demographic Characteristics

Happiness is the result of the combination of demographic factors, physical and social environment and the characteristics of the country where

one lives (DIE, 2005:11; Diener, 1993 as quoted in Sirgy et al., 2006:395). However, the findings show that socio-demographic characteristics such as age, gender and educational level are weakly correlated with happiness (Shmotkin, 2005:292; Veenhoven, 1991a, 2001a; Yetim, 2001:134). For example, Campbell et al.(1976) noted that socio-demographic factors account for less than 20 % of the variance of subjective well-being /happiness (Diener et al., 1997). Moreover, Kammann (1983) argued that these factors play “a negligible role” in understanding happiness (Trach et al., 2006:185).

In the light of available literature, factors are analyzed under the titles of gender, age, region, employment status and educational level respectively for Bulgaria, Denmark, Hungary and Turkey.

5.1.1 Gender

In theory, gender as a part of socio-demographic factors is related to happiness but weakly correlated with it and knowing one’s gender is not enough to evaluate one’s happiness level (Myers et al., 1995:10-17; Shmotkin, 2005:292; Sirgy et al., 2006:395; Veenhoven, 1991a, 2001a). Although several investigations about the relationship between gender and happiness claim that there is no relation between them, some findings claim that females are happier than males (Blanchflower et al., 2005:308; Inglehart, 2002: 391-408; Yetim, 2001:154). This argument is debatable because gender is not isolated from the social context. In other words, gender issues can not be evaluated only in terms of “sex”.

Although there is not a significant difference between average happiness of men and women (respectively 6,41; 6,52 out of 10, $t=-0,715$, $p>0,05$), gender is only significant for happiness in Turkey according to the regression coefficients reported in Table 5.1. In fact the women in Turkey are happier than the men. This may be a surprising result since the rank of Turkey in other indexes such as Gender-related Development Index (GDI)²⁶ and

²⁶ GDI which depends on gender equality is measured by life expectancy at birth, adult literacy rate, the student in primary and secondary school and income by male and female.

Gender Empowerment Index (GEM),²⁷ which have been prepared by United Nations Development Program (UNDP) since 1995, is lower than Bulgaria, Denmark and Hungary. In GDI, the ranks for Bulgaria, Denmark, Hungary and Turkey are respectively 70, 45, 13 and 31, whereas in GEM, the ranks are 76, 29, 2 and 44 respectively. Two factors can be considered to explain this phenomenon: women in other countries have better living conditions, are more satisfied in terms of objective living conditions and have higher gender equality than those in Turkey. This means that these countries have improved employment, household responsibilities or income situations so as to reduce gender differences.

In other words, these countries overcome the gender inequalities and provide equal opportunities to all citizens regardless of gender which may be called “genderless society”.

The higher happiness score for women in our case could be related to the fact that more women in Turkey are out of the paid labor force (65 %) which keeps them away from the stress of working life. This percentage is quite a bit lower in Bulgaria (4 %), Denmark (approximately 1 %) and Hungary (approximately 5 %). However, this should not be interpreted as housework is free of stress. Lower educational attainment of women, religion and submissive way of raising girls may also have played a role in this result²⁸. Fuller explanation of this seemingly contradictory finding deserves further investigation which goes beyond the scope of this thesis.

²⁷ GEM is calculated by seats in parliament held by women, female administrators and managers, female professional and technical workers and women’s real GDP per capita to measure the joining decision making process.

²⁸ Related with this issue, employment status, educational level, having and age that are related with happiness were investigated. However, interaction effect is not significant between gender and others. In other words, there is no significant difference in the effect of gender on employment (gender*employ: sig.=0.622), education (gender*education: sig.=0.707), having (gender*having: sig.=0.109) and age (gender*age: sig.=0.379).

Table 5.1: Determinants of happiness by country

Variables	BULGARIA		DENMARK		HUNGARY		TURKEY	
	Beta	Std. Beta	Beta	Std. Beta	Beta	Std. Beta	Beta	Std. Beta
Socio-demographic characteristics								
Gender ^a	0,056	0,012	-0,014	-0,005	-0,01	-0,002	0,521	0,106***
Age (18-99)	0,01	0,075	-0,006	-0,071	-0,028	-0,240***	-0,001	-0,008
Region ^b	0,354	0,075**	-0,059	-0,02	-0,183	-0,044	0,195	0,034
Employment status ^c								
Employed	-0,096	-0,02	0,05	0,018	0,563	0,134**	0,812	0,158***
Unemployed	-0,53	-0,103*	-0,298	-0,093	1,194	0,265***	0,68	0,095*
Other	0,631	0,078**	0,034	0,008	1,01	0,186***	0,459	0,093*
Educational Level ^d								
Secondary	0,686	0,141***	0,014	0,005	0,219	0,052	0,266	0,05
University	0,792	0,132***	-0,019	-0,004	0,539	0,088**	0,104	0,015
None	-0,29	-0,007	0,268	0,058*	0,177	0,009	-0,594	-0,059**
Individual source control								
Having	-0,126	-0,178***	-0,093	-0,101***	-0,103	-0,159***	-0,159	-0,263***
Loving	-0,497	-0,229***	-0,317	-0,214***	-0,488	-0,230***	-0,102	-0,046
Time pressure	-0,045	-0,032	-0,113	-0,129***	-0,088	-0,075**	-0,065	-0,047
Internet using ^e	-0,687	-0,110***	-0,058	-0,019	-0,109	-0,021	-0,167	-0,03
Quality of society								
Being	-0,047	-0,051*	-0,041	-0,060*	-0,058	-0,086***	-0,177	-0,229***
Alienation	-0,381	-0,232***	-0,196	-0,142***	-0,299	-0,188***	-0,387	-0,202***
Other variables								
Health ^f	-0,382	-0,072**	-0,284	-0,088***	-0,722	-0,157***	-0,501	-0,080***
Environment	-0,109	-0,118***	-0,076	-0,062**	-0,002	-0,002	-0,069	-0,073**

Bulgaria: n: 953, R=0,586, $R^2_{Adj}=0,331$, Std. Error=1,936;
Denmark: n: 963, R= 0,432, $R^2_{Adj}= 0,172$, Std. Error=1,275;
Hungary: n: 952, R= 0,535, $R^2_{Adj}=0,273$, Std. Error=1,785;
Turkey: n: 878, R= 0,574, $R^2_{Adj}= 0,317$, Std. Error=2,032.

* p<0,1; ** p<0,05; *** p<0,01

a: reference category: “male”; b: reference category: “rural”; c: reference category: “retired”; d: reference category: “primary education”; e: reference category: “using internet”; f: reference category: “having no long-standing illness or disability”.

5.1.2 Age

Like gender, age is a subject in the happiness studies and available literature offers mixed results. Many findings state that it is weakly related to happiness (Shmotkin, 2005:292; Sirgy et al., 2006:395; Veenhoven, 1991a, 2001a) while some others show that young people are happier than older ones (Argyle, 1994:95; Böhnke, 2005:33; Phillips, 2006:23; Yetim, 2001:152).

Hungary is the only country where age seems to be related to happiness (Table 5.1). As the following table indicates, there is a gradual decline in the happiness score as age increases, that is the older the person, the less happy he/she is.

Table 5.2: Age categories with respect to happiness in Hungary

	Mean	Std. Dev.	N
age 18-24	7,57	1,857	128
age 25-34	7,48	2,078	182
age 35-49	7,04	1,917	262
age 50-64	6,71	2,232	222
age 65 and over	6,7	2,242	187
total	7,05	2,102	981

Composition of age and health conditions of older people have to do something with the fact that more older people in Hungary for example suffer from bad health and they exceed the old people in numbers in other countries.

Consequently, contrary to our expectation, age is not a significant variable for happiness in Bulgaria, Denmark and Turkey, but it is for Hungary, regardless of the different composition of the population of the countries.

5.1.3 Region

Although, region is related to happiness in the literature, according to regression coefficients reported in Table 5.1, region is a significant variable

only in Bulgaria: where people in urban areas are happier than those in rural areas.

It is generally believed that people in urban areas have a higher quality of life than those living in rural areas. It seems that the urban areas set the standards for rural areas in terms of having higher quality of life which, by some people, is equated with a higher standard of living. That is why rural areas are encouraged to be similar to urban areas (Flora, 1998:99; GDRC). It is also perceived that people in urban areas are happier than those in rural areas due to the “higher standard of living” of urban areas.

Therefore, two things can be related and explained in regard to this phenomenon: income and value of “having” in Bulgaria.

There is a significant difference in Bulgaria between regions with respect to income: the average household monthly income for rural areas is 211,97 Euro and for urban 276,56 Euro and the difference is statistically significant ($t = -5,272$, $p = 0,0001$). Another variable is “having,” which will be discussed later in the text, related to material living conditions that can vary for every individual, urban, region and country. In Bulgaria, there is a significant difference between average “having” value for regions: 5,93 for urban and 6,86 for rural ($t = 4,463$, $p = 0,0001$). As mentioned earlier, the higher the value is, the worse the material living conditions are, so people in rural areas of Bulgaria have greater difficulty in accessing material living sources.

Table 5.3: Average “having” value by region

	Bulgaria	Denmark	Hungary	Turkey
rural	6,86	0,68	4,46	8,20
urban	5,93	1,01	3,62	5,59

However, when we compare the regions of Bulgaria with other countries as presented in the table above, we can see that the “having” average for rural Denmark is 0,66 and 1 for urban Denmark; it is 4,46 for rural and 3,62 for urban Hungary; while it is 8,2 for rural and 5,59 for urban Turkey. It is noticeable that although the values of Turkey are much higher than the values

of other countries, region is not a significant variable for Turkey. This could be explained by the existence of strong family ties and solidarity networks between rural and urban areas of Turkey. It is common for rural people to send foods like bulgur, chickpeas etc. to relatives in urban areas which contributes to the well-being of urban families.

5.1.4 Employment Status

Many investigations claim that employment status strongly affects happiness. For example, unemployment makes most people very unhappy because of both economic and social deprivation (Argyle, 1994:63; Blanchflower et al., 2005:308; Böhnke, 2005:56; Yetim, 2001:154). However, having a job is not enough to have a high level of happiness. In this respect, job satisfaction, income and working conditions play an important role. Evidence indicates that in the working life, people with a higher level of job satisfaction and better income have higher subjective well-being (Sirgy et al., 2006:396).

Results of our study support the findings of early studies: Employment status is a significant variable for all countries, except Denmark.

In the analysis, the status of being employed, unemployed and others including homemaker, assisting family and studying etc. were compared to being retired: While retired people are happier than unemployed but less happy than “other” in Bulgaria; employed, unemployed and “other” people are happier than retired in both Hungary and Turkey.

The lower happiness score for retired in Hungary and Turkey could be related to income, optimism about the future, “belongingness” and feeling “useful”:

As it is known, retired people get less income after being retired in Turkey. Hence, it is hard for them to make ends meet with the small pension they receive. On the contrary, unemployed people, who are young and generally live with their families, are usually supported by their family especially by parents which is considerably different than the case for the

retired people. Moreover, they have no responsibilities to make contributions to their family budget. .

Moreover, young people are much more optimistic about the future in general ($t=-5,664$, $p=0,0001$) so contrary to our expectation, unemployed young people are also optimistic about the future. Moreover, we can use also two terms i.e. “belongingness” and feeling “usefulness” to evaluate the lower happiness score of retired. In a general sense, “belongingness” is a basic need (Maslow) as well as an important term for people to feel good. After being retired, people do not feel “belonging” anymore that can cause a loss of feeling “useful” and an increase in depression.

Contrary to Hungary and Turkey, where sizable unemployed young populations are supported by their families which makes them happier, retired people in Bulgaria are happier than unemployed people. This could be associated with a regular pension for retired but insufficient social security allowance for unemployed people. That is, the average household monthly income of retired is higher than that of unemployed people (210,39 and 166,05 Euro respectively, $t=5,553$, $p=0,0001$).

Consequently, employment status has emerged as a determinant of happiness for all countries except Denmark, which has a strong social security system which protects all citizens regardless of employment status.

5.1.5 Educational Level

As mentioned before, education is one of the criteria of the Human Development Index as an indicator of quality of life. Therefore, education level is used as an important variable to evaluate the happiness (Andre et al., 2001). In the literature, happiness is found to be affected by educational level but its effect is less than other variables such as marital status or income. Inglehart and Rabier (1984) define education and gender as “stable conditions” and claimed that “stable conditions” affect happiness less than “variable conditions” such as income and marital status (Veenhoven, 1991a). Moreover, findings of some studies illustrate that people with a high level of education are

happier than those with a lower level of education (Blanchflower et al., 2005:308; Phillips, 2006:23; Zavisca et al., 2005). Nevertheless, educational level should not be thought of without its “outputs” or “utility” such as having a job, income and objective working and living conditions.

According to the regression coefficients reported in Table 5.1, educational level has emerged as a significant variable for all countries. In the analysis, secondary, university and non-educated people were compared to primary educated people: while secondary and university educated people are happier than primary educated in Bulgaria, only university educated people are happier than primary educated in Hungary. People with no education are less happy than primary educated in Turkey, they are happier than primary educated in Denmark.

The higher happiness score for people with no education compared to primary educated ones in Denmark could be related to employment status. For example, 5 % of non-educated people are unemployed compared to 7 % of primary educated ones and 54 % of them are retired compared to 24 % of primary educated ones. A regularly received pension may have played a role in this result.

As different from Denmark, the phenomenon in Turkey that lower happiness scores for non-educated people compared to primary educated ones could be related to employment status, and income. For example, 13 % of non-educated people in Turkey are unemployed compared to 7 % of primary educated ones and only 5 % of the non-educated are working compared to 32 % of the primary educated. Moreover, there is a significant difference between these groups with respect to average monthly income: It is 228,89 Euro for primary educated while it is 156,79 Euro for non-educated ($t=-4,040$, $p=0,001$).

It seems that, the nature of the relationship between education and happiness in Bulgaria, Hungary and Turkey supports the available findings: people with high level of education are happier than those with lower level of education. No need to mention that, employment status, income received, working and living conditions also play a role in this conclusion.

5.2 Individual source control

Knowing one's gender, age, area where one lives, educational level, occupation and income is not enough to evaluate the happiness level of that person. Better predictors of happiness are related more to material living conditions, close relations, work experiences, culture and personal traits which are the subject of psychology (Myers et al., 1995:10-17).

Happiness is also influenced by flow of experiences, positive-negative life events and life chances that are supported by *individual abilities* i.e. social skills, physical fitness etc., *societal resources* i.e. wealth, political freedom, equality and moral order and *individual resources* i.e. material possessions, social status, and family ties etc. (Sirgy, 2001:70). Moreover, limited resource controls, which can be called as "poverty", decrease the life chances and subjective well-being. People who have control over the material sources are happier than those who do not (Böhnke, 2005:41-46).

The relationship between happiness and individual source control will be evaluated under the sub-titles of "having", "loving", "time pressure" and internet using respectively.

5.2.1 "Having" (The Material Living Conditions)

As mentioned before, "having" refers to the variety of material living conditions such as income, housing conditions, and affordability of basic goods and being able to make ends meet etc. which are related to wealth.

The relationship between happiness and wealth has been the subject of intense debates in the literature. There seems to be two distinct views: the positive view claims that "wealth reduces suffering from hunger and illness to a great extent, softens inequalities, and opens the way to new satisfactions, not only in the sphere of leisure and consumption, but also in the realm of arts, science, and spiritual life." Contrary to this view, the negative view argues that "affluence undermines moral consciousness and social networks, and that material comforts do not provide real satisfaction, while their production

involves considerable alienation”. However, the effect of wealth on happiness is not clear²⁹ (Veenhoven, 1989a).

Although there is no agreement in the literature on the effects of wealth and material conditions on happiness, “having” is a significant determinant of happiness for all countries (Table 5.1) in our case.

As mentioned earlier, every country has different “having” scores which means that every country has different difficulties in accessing material resources. For instance Denmark has minimum problems while Bulgaria has maximum problems in accessing material resources. Despite differences among countries, “having” is found to be an important variable for happiness in all countries. In fact, it is the strongest determinant of happiness for Turkey. This could be related to being unable to fulfill the basic needs because almost half of the population is at the risk of poverty. The more risk groups, the lower happiness is (Böhnke, 2005:44).

Consequently, contrary to our expectation, “having” or the material domain has played an important role regardless of different locations of the countries in the “having” scale. This is quite important since having encompasses many domains most of which are essential for survival.

5.2.2 “Loving” (The Social Relations)

Another important variable for happiness is “loving,” which refers to relationships with other people especially close personal relationships with family, relatives, friends and neighbors; support received in case of illness and need for money, having children and marital status. In short, “loving” refers to social capital and social cohesion.

Especially, social relations are important aspects for quality of life (Flora, 1998:99) and happiness is more affected by aspects of “loving” (Allardt, 1993:91; Argyle, 1994:31; Böhnke, 2005:48; Haller et al., 2006:169; Sirgy et al., 2006:396).

²⁹ For discussion about income, see Chapter 3.

As Argyle notes “relationships increase happiness by generating joy, providing help, and through shared enjoyable activities. They buffer the effects of stress by increasing self-esteem, suppressing negative emotions and providing help to solve problems.” (Argyle, 1994:31).

Our study supports the argument in general that with the exception of Turkey, “loving” is a significant variable for happiness for all countries under investigation here. A rather unexpected result for Turkey can be related and explained by such factors as having more children, higher marriage rate, collectivistic culture and strong family ties.

Having children in terms of “social capital” is very crucial for “loving” and families in Turkey have more children than those in the other three countries: The average of Turkey is 1,86 children while it is 1,47 for Bulgaria, 1,71 for Denmark, 1,57 for Hungary.

The results of earlier studies illustrate that married people are happier than single, divorced and separated (Andre et al., 2001; Böhnke, 2005:7; Easterlin, 2003:11178; Frey et al., 2005; Glatzer, 2000:509; Myers et al., 1995:15; Nesse, 2004: 1334; Phillips, 2006:23; Sirgy et al., 2006:396; Veenhoven, 1989c, 1997; Zavisca et al., 2005). Indeed, the majority of the populations of countries are married or living with partner but there are more married people in Turkey (70 %) compared to other countries. The lower rate of divorced and separated in Turkey can be related to collectivistic culture where marriages depend on obligation rather than love (Ahuvia, 2002:25). Moreover, when it is considered that half of the population in Turkey is at the risk of poverty, marriages can be seen as a survival strategy for low income families which reduces happiness.

From a different perspective, where “post-materialism” (Inglehart), i.e. non-material aspects such as love and honor are more important than material aspects such as income, it can be seen that the phenomena of “loving” is significant for Bulgaria, Hungary and Denmark where “loving” is also the strongest variable. In this respect, Turkey can be called a “materialist country” while Denmark can be called a “post-materialist country”.

5.2.3 “Time pressure” (Work-life Balance)

“Time” can be defined as one of the important sources for people. However, it is not endless and is made up by work time, relations with family, friends, sleeping, hobbies and voluntary social or political activities. What is important here is that whether there is a balance between work and “life”.

Spending too much time on the job, spending little time on contact with friends and family and problems in combining work and life negatively affect subjective well-being (Böhnke, 2005:77). Moreover, the findings about time show that leisure time or out of work time is more important than work time for many people (Argyle, 1994:90).

According to the regression coefficients reported in Table 5.1, “time pressure” has emerged as a significant variable for Denmark and Hungary.

The majority of people of Denmark and Hungary are employed people who are aware of the importance of work –life balance. For example, there are more people spending too much time on the job in Bulgaria (29,4 %) and Turkey (65,1 %) compared to Denmark (27 %) and Hungary (32,4 %) while there are more people spending too much time on contact with friends and on hobbies in Denmark and Hungary compared to Bulgaria and Turkey.

It is likely that “work-life balance” has emerged as a significant variable for Denmark and Hungary where the balance between work and life is observed by people.

5.2.4 Internet using

As mentioned earlier, “internet using” was employed as a proxy for technology due to the lack of questions in the EQLS questionnaire probing relationships between happiness and technology.

According to regression coefficients reported Table 5.1, “internet using” is a significant variable for happiness only for Bulgaria where people who use internet are happier than others. Availability and widespread use of internet or technology may have played a role in these results. The available

literature on the relationship between technology and happiness offers that happiness is higher in a nation where technology and science are developed and are widespread (Glatzer, 2000:503). In this respect, technology is not developed and widespread in Bulgaria where the “internet using” rate is only 16,8 % compared to Denmark (66,3 %), Hungary (20 %) and Turkey (27,3 %). Therefore, the availability of internet or technology can be seen as a “privilege” in Bulgaria because of the limited availability of this technology and considerable income inequalities existing in the country. A slight improvement in internet technology may have caused this finding.

5.3 Quality of Society

“Quality of society” as a concept is another effort/approach to examine the differences in the average happiness scores of countries. According to the “social quality” view, the difference in living conditions provided by the state to the citizens promotes differences in the average happiness scores of countries (Campbell, 1976: 122; Veenhoven, 1991b, 1993).

Social quality or quality of society includes four domains: socio-economic security including financial resources, housing and environment, health and care, work and education; social inclusion involving citizenship rights, public and private services and social networks; social cohesion including trust, other integrative norms and values, social networks; and social empowerment covering personal skills, knowledge, self development, personal relations, access to decision-making process so on ³⁰ (Phillips, 2006:177-8; Veenhoven, 1991b, 1997, 2001a, 2001b, 2001c, 2003, 2005a, Veenhoven et al., 2005:432-5). Therefore, a high level of quality of society influences positively the people’s lives and their subjective well-being (VanOorschot et al. 1999 as quoted in Veenhoven, 2000a). Moreover, how people assess the political institutions, whether they trust other people or whether there are conflicts in the society shows the worries and insecurities that are related to personal welfare (Böhnke, 2005:61). However, according to Allardt (1993: 91), quality of

³⁰ For further information about social quality, see David Phillips (2006)

society has two faces: a positive side which supplies personal growth and a negative side which causes alienation.

5.3.1 “Being” (Quality of Society)

Quality of society as livability of environment or habitability is one of the aspects of quality of life (Veenhoven, 2000b:4; 2001a; 2001b; 2004b; 2004c). It also refers to integration into society and harmony with nature (Allardt, 1993: 91).

In this study, four dimensions of being are measured by subjective indicators such as: trust in state pension and social benefit system, trust in people, tension among groups and quality of public services such as education, transportation, health care so on. Quality of society as perceived by citizens includes citizens’ judgment of social institutions, solidarity in society and perception of trust and tension among some groups such as rich and poor, old and young, employed and employer etc. If quality of society is perceived highly, then citizens will feel satisfied with their society which in turn positively affects their happiness.

“Being” is also a significant variable for all countries regardless of different locations of the countries in the “being” scale in our study (see Table 5.1). It means that quality of society is important for happiness no matter how people perceive it.

Quality of society, i.e. high trust in state pension and social benefit system, high trust in other people, low degree of tension between social groups, high quality of public services, has played an important role for happiness level of people since the individual is a part of society and is affected by the conditions prevailing in the society in general.

5.3.2 “Alienation”

In general alienation expresses that an individual feels isolated from other people, certain circumstances and progress (Marshall, 1999:789). The reasons of alienation have been discussed by scholars some of whom claim that quality of society and material prosperity might promote alienation (Allardt, 1993:91; Veenhoven, 1989a).

The concept of alienation has been employed to define happiness by some researchers. In the work of these researchers happiness is defined as a condition “without pain” such as anxiety, alienation, illness (Glatzer, 2000:507). Moreover, countries with a high level of happiness do not have high levels of alienation (Böhnke, 2005:17). The lower the alienation is, the higher the happiness level is. Our study supports this argument: Denmark with the lower “alienation” score (0,819 out of 5) has the highest level of happiness (8,32).

According to regression coefficients reported in Table 5.1, “alienation” is significant for all countries regardless of their different locations in the “alienation” scale.

This phenomenon could be related to feeling of being part of society (belongingness) and trust in justice and society. Fuller explanation of this seemingly contradictory finding deserves further investigation.

5.4 Other variables

In this section, “environment” and health as they relate with quality of life are evaluated as determinants of happiness.

5.4.1 Health

There are many studies on whether healthy people are happy or happy people are healthy. There is an agreement on this point in a way that there is a

positive but complex relationship between health and happiness (Andre et al., 2001; Argyle, 1994:199; Sirgy et al., 2006:396; Trach et al., 2006:185).

Actually, there is similarity between health and happiness since both are viewed as “normal” conditions (Veenhoven, 1991c). Like the loss of health, the loss of happiness is seen as an “abnormal” situation so it must be “treated”. Nevertheless, like having wealth, having health is no guarantee for happiness but its absence promotes unhappiness (Myers et al., 1995:13; Shmotkin, 2005:292; Zavisca et al., 2005).

Health is a significant determinant of happiness for all countries according to regression coefficients reported in Table 5.1. Regression coefficients indicate that healthy people are happier.

5.4.2 “Environment”

As it was mentioned earlier, happiness has a complex structure affected by demographic factors, physical and social environment, material living conditions and the quality of society.

The “environment” as a concept in this study only deals with local area problems such as pollution, noise and clean water. It is generally believed that the fewer number of problems with the environment, the more happy people are. Environment as a term is also related with the quality of society (Phillips, 2006:177-8) or “livability” in Veenhoven’s words (Veenhoven, 2000b:4; 2001a; 2001b; 2004b; 2004c).

“Environment” is a significant variable for all countries except Hungary according to regression coefficients reported in Table 5.1. This could be related to the fact that Hungary has relatively fewer environmental problems than Bulgaria and Turkey.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION

This thesis aimed to unveil the relationship between quality of life and happiness in a comparative manner. The two concepts are interrelated in a way that if one wants to examine the overall judgment of “a happy life”, one defines “quality of life” (Griffin, 2007:141). These multidimensional and interdisciplinary concepts were firstly identified by looking at their treatment in different approaches. Then, they were analyzed by relating them to different variables in the EQLS data which allow making comparisons among European Union countries and Turkey.

Our thesis is limited to four countries namely Bulgaria, Denmark, Hungary and Turkey, which were selected on the basis of two criteria; their average of happiness score and their membership status in the European Union. On the other hand, the independent variables were “having”, “loving”, “being”, “time pressure”, “alienation”, “environment”, internet using, health and socio-demographic variables namely gender, age, region, employment status and educational level. The analysis where we have used descriptive statistics, t-test, ONE- and TWO-WAY ANOVA and multiple OLS regression show the following results:

The effects of socio-demographic variables on happiness vary across countries: Gender is only significant for Turkey i.e. women in Turkey are happier than men. Age is significant for Hungary i.e. older people in Hungary are less happy than younger people. Region is significant only in Bulgaria i.e. people in urban areas in Bulgaria are happier than people in rural areas. Employment status is significant for Bulgaria, Hungary and Turkey. Educational level is significant for all countries, i.e. generally, the higher the

education level, the higher the level of happiness. Actually, these variables are weakly correlated to happiness.

Individual source control variables more strongly affect happiness compared to socio-demographic variables: “Having” or material living conditions play an important role regardless of different locations of the countries in the “having” scale. For example Denmark faces minimum problems with material conditions while Turkey faces maximum problems. The reason of importance of “having” is that having encompasses many domains most of which are essential for survival. “Loving” or social relations affect happiness in Bulgaria, Denmark and Hungary. These countries have less limited social relations and support than Turkey. That is surprising because solidarity and social relations are known as high in Turkey. “Time pressure” or work-life balance is significant for Denmark and Hungary where there is much better balance between work and life. Internet using or availability of technology affects happiness in Bulgaria where there is a lack of social equality for availability of technology. In sum, individual source control, namely material conditions, social relations, work-life balance and internet using positively affects happiness.

Quality of life is another strong determinant: “Being” or quality of society, namely high trust in state pension and social benefit system, high trust in other people, low degree of tension between social groups, high quality of public services, and “alienation” have played an important role in happiness in all countries since the individual is a part of society and these factors interact in a very complex way.

In addition, health is another effective variable for all countries i.e. healthy people are happier. On the other hand, “environment” or environment problems of local area affect happiness in all countries except Hungary.

To conclude, educational level, material living conditions, quality of society, “alienation” and health have played an important role in happiness for all countries.

When the results are considered in a comparative way, it is seen that the determinants that affect the happiness score of countries vary. These determinants are given below from the most important to the least important:

The lower happiness score of Bulgaria is respectively related to “alienation”, social relations, material living conditions, educational level, “environment”, internet using, employment status, region, health and quality of society, while the higher happiness score of Denmark is respectively related to social relations, “alienation”, work-life balance, material living conditions, health, “environment”, quality of society and educational level. On the other hand, the happiness score of Hungary is respectively related to employment status, age, social relations, “alienation”, material living conditions, health, educational level, quality of society and work-life balance, whereas the lower happiness score of Turkey is respectively related to material living conditions, quality of society, “alienation”, employment status, gender, health, “environment” and educational level.

This lower score of Turkey could be examined by poverty, lack of satisfaction with public services, lack of trust in both other people and social security system, high feeling of alienation, higher proportion of people out of work, being women, being healthy, a proliferation of environmental problems and low educational attainment. On the other hand, Bulgaria and Hungary are quite similar to Turkey while Denmark with the highest happiness score has a different composition with respect to determinants affecting happiness compared to other countries, i.e. social relations are the strongest variable for happiness in Denmark.

Since happiness is a useful criterion for social policy, some social policies can be suggested in light of these results. The social security system should be improved to fight with poverty and to promote better overall living conditions. Public services including health care, education, transportation, social services and state pension system should be revised and improved for citizens. For example, since education and employment positively affect happiness, people should be provided opportunities for education and employment and health reform can improve the quality of life especially for

older people. In addition, since work-life balance has an important role on happiness, more flexible working time or part time working should be suggested to increase leisure time that contributes to social relations. Another suggestion with respect to leisure time, childcare services should be generalized and improved for working women. Finally, society should enable its citizens to enjoy their lives according to their basic needs and wants.

Consequently, improving quality of life causes happiness. In other words, the main aim of improving quality of life is to supply, improve and increase happiness. Therefore, for further studies, it can be recommended to focus on improving quality of life. Moreover, to understand the quality of life and happiness profile of Turkey, more extensive country specific research is needed.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: THE EUROPEAN QUALITY OF LIFE SURVEY

European Foundation
'Living Conditions and Quality of Life in 28 European countries'

QUALITY OF LIFE – MAIN INTERVIEW

HH0. (INT.: ENTER THE INTERVIEWNUMBER ON THE CONTACTSHEET)

CONTACTSHEETNUMBER: _____

HH1. I'd like to start by asking you a few questions about your household.
Including yourself, can you please tell me how many people live in this household?

ENTER NUMBER OF PEOPLE LIVING IN HOUSEHOLD : _____

HH2. (INT.: NOW OBTAIN INFORMATION THAT YOU NEED TO ENTER ON HOUSEHOLD GRID ON NEXT PAGE, STARTING WITH THE RESPONDENT)

- a. (INT.: CODE GENDER OF RESPONDENT IN GRID BELOW)
- b. Starting with yourself, what was your age last birthday?
- c. (INT.: SKIP FOR RESPONDENT)
- d. (INT.: SHOW CARD D) Looking at this card could you tell me your principal economic status?

HH3. (INT.: FOR SECOND HOUSEHOLD MEMBER, START WITH THE OLDEST MEMBER OF THE HOUSEHOLD. REPEAT GRID QUESTIONS A-D FOR ALL OTHER HOUSEHOLD MEMBERS.)

Now thinking about the other members of your household, starting with the oldest ...

- a. Could you tell me whether this is a male or a female?
- b. What was this person's age last birthday?
- c. (INT.: SHOW CARD C) What is this person's relationship to you?
Is he/she your ...?
- d. (INT.: SHOW CARD D) And again using the previous card, what is this person's principal economic status?

HOUSEHOLD GRID

		A		B	C	D
		INT: Code for respondent		Age	Relationship to respondent	Principal economic status?
		Male	Female		Code from list below	Code from list below
1	Respondent	1	2			
2	Person 2	1	2			
3	Person 3	1	2			
4	Person 4	1	2			
5	Person 5	1	2			
6	Person 6	1	2			
7	Person 7	1	2			
8	Person 8	1	2			
9	Person 9	1	2			
10	Person 10	1	2			

RELATIONSHIP CODES [CARD C]
1 spouse/partner
2 son/daughter
3 parent, step-parent or parent in law
4 daughter or son in law
5 grandchild
6 brother/sister (incl. half and step siblings)
7 other relative
8 other non relative

ECONOMIC STATUS CODES [CARD D]:
1 at work as employee or employer/self-employed
2 employed, on child-care leave or other leave
3 at work as relative assisting on family farm or business
* If paid a formal wage or salary for work in family farm or business, code as 1 ('at work as employee')
4 unemployed less than 12 months
5 unemployed 12 months or more
6 unable to work due to long-term illness or disability
7 retired
8 full time homemaker/ responsible for ordinary shopping and looking after the home
9 in education (at school, university, etc.) / student
10 other
AFTER FILLING IN ALL MEMBERS OF THE HOUSEHOLD IN THE GRID, THEN IF: -----> CODES 1-2 FOR RESPONDENT GO TO Q2 -----> CODES 3-10 FOR RESPONDENT GO TO Q1

Q1. ASK IF RESPONDENT IS NOT IN PAID WORK (CODES 3-10 AT D IN HOUSEHOLD GRID)

Have you ever had a paid job?

- 1 Yes → Ask Q3
- 2 No → Go to Q14
- 3 Don't Know → Go to Q14

Q2. ASK IF RESPONDENT HAS PAID WORK (CODES 1-2 AT D IN HOUSEHOLD GRID)

What is your current occupation?

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q2 AND CODE IN THE GRID BELOW UNDER Q2)

Q3. ASK IF RESPONDENT HAD PAID WORK (CODE 1 AT Q1)

What was your last occupation?

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q2 AND CODE IN THE GRID BELOW UNDER Q3)

	Q2 current occupation	Q3 last occupation
SELF EMPLOYED		
Farmer	1	1
Fisherman	2	2
Professional (lawyer, medical practitioner, accountant, architect etc.)	3	3
Owner of a shop, craftsmen, other self-employed person	4	4
Business proprietors, owner (full or partner) of a company	5	5
EMPLOYED		
Employed professional (employed doctor, lawyer, accountant, architect)	6	6
General management, director of top management (managing directors, director general, other director)	7	7
Middle management, other management (department head, junior manager, teacher, technician)	8	8
Employed position, working mainly at a desk	9	9
Employed position, not at a desk but travelling (salesman, driver, etc.)	10	10
Employed position, not at a desk, but in a service job (hospital, restaurant, police, fireman, etc.)	11	11
Supervisor	12	12
Skilled manual worker	13	13
Other (unskilled) manual worker, servant	14	14

Q4. ASK IF EMPLOYEE (CODE 6 – 14 AT Q2 OR Q3)

Is/was your job ...

(INT.: READ OUT)

- 1 On an unlimited permanent contract
- 2 On a fixed term contract of less than 12 months
- 3 On a fixed term contract of 12 months or more
- 4 On a temporary employment agency contract
- 5 On apprenticeship or other training scheme
- 6 Without a written contract
- 7 Other
- 8 (Don't know)

Q5. ASK IF RESPONDENT HAS PAID WORK (CODES 1-2 AT D IN HOUSEHOLD GRID) OR IF EVER PAID JOB (CODE 1 AT Q1)

Including yourself, about how many people are/were employed at the place where you usually work/worked?

(INT.: READ OUT)

- 1 Under 10
- 2 10 to 49
- 3 50-99
- 4 100-249
- 5 250-499
- 6 500-999
- 7 1000 - 1999
- 8 2000 or more
- 9 (Don't know)

Q6. ASK IF RESPONDENT HAS PAID WORK (CODES 1-2 AT D IN HOUSEHOLD GRID) OR IF EVER PAID JOB (CODE 1 AT Q1)

In your main job, do/did you have any responsibility for supervising the work of other employees?

- 1 Yes
- 2 No
- 3 Don't know

Q7. ASK IF RESPONDENT HAS PAID WORK (CODES 1-2 AT D IN HOUSEHOLD GRID) OR IF EVER PAID JOB (CODE 1 AT Q1)

How many hours do/did you normally work per week (in your main job), including any paid or unpaid overtime?
(INT.: ENTER NUMBER OR 999 FOR DON'T KNOW) _____

Q8. ASK IF RESPONDENT HAS PAID WORK (CODES 1-2 AT D IN HOUSEHOLD GRID) OR IF EVER PAID JOB (CODE 1 AT Q1)

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q8)

In which of the following sectors of the economy does/did your company operate? Please indicate one sector that accounts for the LARGEST part of your company's activities.

- 1 Agriculture, hunting & forestry
- 2 Fishing
- 3 Mining and quarrying
- 4 Manufacturing
- 5 Electricity, gas and water supply
- 6 Construction
- 7 Wholesale and retail trade; repair of motor vehicles, motorcycles and personal household goods
- 8 Hotels and restaurants
- 9 Transport, storage and communication
- 10 Financial intermediation
- 11 Real estate, renting and business activities
- 12 Public administration and defence; compulsory social security
- 13 Education
- 14 Health and social work
- 15 Other community, social and personal service activities
- 16 Activities of households
- 17 Extra territorial organizations and bodies
- 18 Other
- 19 (Don't know)

Q9. ASK IF RESPONDENT HAS PAID WORK (CODES 1-2 AT D IN HOUSEHOLD GRID)

Apart from your main work, have you also worked at an additional paid job or business or in agriculture at any time during the past four (working) weeks?

- 1 Yes → Go to Q10
- 2 No → Go to Q11
- 3 Don't know → Go to Q11

Q10. ASK IF YES (CODE 1) AT Q9

About how many hours per week did you work in this additional job or business or in agriculture? Please give an average figure for the last 4 working weeks.

(INT.: ENTER HOURS PER WEEK OR 999 FOR DON'T KNOW) _____

Q11. ASK IF RESPONDENT HAS PAID WORK (CODES 1-2 AT D IN HOUSEHOLD GRID)

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q11)

Using this card, how likely do you think it is that you might lose your job in the next 6 months?

- 1 Very likely
- 2 Quite likely
- 3 Neither likely, nor unlikely
- 4 Quite unlikely
- 5 Very unlikely
- 6 (Don't know)

Q12. ASK IF RESPONDENT HAS PAID WORK (CODES 1-2 AT D IN HOUSEHOLD GRID)

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q12)

How much do you agree or disagree with the following statements describing positive and negative aspects of your job?

(INT.: READ OUT THE STATEMENTS)

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
	Strong ly Agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagr ee	Strong ly disagr ee	(Don't know)
a. My work is too demanding and stressful.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
b. I am well paid.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
c. I have a great deal of influence in deciding how to do my work.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
d. My work is dull and boring.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
e. My job offers good prospects for career advancement.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
f. I constantly work to tight deadlines.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
g. I work in dangerous or unhealthy conditions.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Q13. ASK IF RESPONDENT HAS PAID WORK (CODES 1-2 AT D IN HOUSEHOLD GRID)

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q13)

How often has each of the following happened to you during the last year?

(INT.: READ OUT THE STATEMENTS)

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
	Several times a week	Several times a month	Several times a year	Less often/rarely	Never	(Don't know)
a. I have come home from work too tired to do some of the household jobs which need to be done	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
b. It has been difficult for me to fulfil my family responsibilities because of the amount of time I spend on the job	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
c. I have found it difficult to concentrate at work because of my family responsibilities	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

(INT.: ASK ALL)

Q14. Are you in your household, the person who contributes most to the household income?

- 1 Yes → Go to Q17
- 2 No → Go to Q15
- 3 Both equally → Go to Q17
- 4 Don't know → Go to Q17

Q15. ASK IF CODE 2 AT Q14

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q15)

What is the current occupation of the person who contributes most to the household income?

(INT.: CODE IN THE GRID BELOW UNDER Q15)

Q16. ASK IF CODE 2 AT Q14 AND CODE 1 – 4 AT Q15

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q16)

Did he/she do any paid work in the past? What was his/her last occupation?

(INT.: CODE IN THE GRID BELOW UNDER Q16)

	Q15 current occupation	Q16 last occupation
NOT WORKING		
Responsible for ordinary shopping and looking after the home, or without any current occupation, not working	1	
Student	2	
Unemployed or temporarily not working	3	
Retired or unable to work through illness	4	
SELF EMPLOYED		
Farmer	5	5
Fisherman	6	6
Professional (lawyer, medical practitioner, accountant, architect etc.)	7	7
Owner of a shop, craftsmen, other self-employed person	8	8
Business proprietors, owner (full or partner) of a company	9	9
EMPLOYED		
Employed professional (employed doctor, lawyer, accountant, architect)	10	10
General management, director of top management (managing directors, director general, other director)	11	11
Middle management, other management (department head, junior manager, teacher, technician)	12	12
Employed position, working mainly at a desk	13	13
Employed position, not at a desk but travelling (salesman, driver, etc.)	14	14
Employed position, not at a desk, but in a service job (hospital, restaurant, police, fireman, etc.)	15	15
Supervisor	16	16
Skilled manual worker	17	17
Other (unskilled) manual worker, servant	18	18
NEVER DID ANY PAID WORK		19

(INT.: ASK ALL)

Q17. How many rooms does the accommodation in which you live have, excluding the kitchen, bathrooms, hallways, storerooms and rooms used solely for business? _____

(INT.: ENTER NUMBER OF ROOMS OR 99 FOR DON'T KNOW)

Q18. Which of the following best describes your accommodation?

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q18 AND READ OUT)

- 1 Own without mortgage (i.e. without any loans)
- 2 Own with mortgage
- 3 Tenant, paying rent to private landlord
- 4 Tenant, paying rent in social/voluntary/municipal housing
- 5 Accommodation is provided rent free
- 6 Other
- 7 (Don't know)

Q19. Do you have any of the following problems with your accommodation?

(INT.: READ OUT)

	(1)	(2)	(3)
	Yes	No	DK
1. Shortage of space	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Rot in windows, doors or floors	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Damp/leaks	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Lack of indoor flushing toilet	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Q20. There are some things that many people cannot afford, even if they would like them. For each of the following things on this card, can I just check whether your household can afford it if you want it?

(INT.: READ OUT)

	(1)	(2)	(3)
	Yes, can afford if want	No, cannot afford it	Don't know
1. Keeping your home adequately warm	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Paying for a week's annual holiday away from home (not staying with relatives)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Replacing any worn-out furniture	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. A meal with meat, chicken or fish every second day if you wanted it	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Buying new, rather than second-hand, clothes	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Having friends or family for a drink or meal at least once a month	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Q21. I am going to read some items a household can possess. Could you tell me whether your household has it, your household does not have it because you cannot afford it, or your household does not have it because you don't need it?

(INT.: ONE ANSWER ONLY - READ OUT)

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	Household has it	Do not have it because you cannot afford it	Do not have because you don't need it	Don't know
a. Car or van for private use	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
b. Home computer (PC)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
c. Washing machine	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Q22a. Do you rent or own land that you use for farming or productions of food?

(INT.: THIS DOES NOT INCLUDE A BIG GARDEN)

- 1 Yes
- 2 No
- 3 Don't know

Q22b. ASK IF CODE 1 AT Q22A

What is the size of this land?

(INT.: RECORD ACCORDING TO COUNTRY CONVENTIONS IN SQUARE METRES, ACRES OR HECTARES)

(INT.: ENTER 999999 FOR DON'T KNOW)

_____ square metres OR _____ acres OR _____ hectares OR 999999 DK

(INT.: ASK ALL)

Q23. Over the past month, have you ...?

(INT.: READ OUT)

	(1)	(2)	(3)
	Yes	No	DK
a. Attended a meeting of a charitable or voluntary organisation	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
b. Served on a committee or done voluntary work for a voluntary organisation	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Q24. Over the past year, have you ...?

(INT.: READ OUT)

	(1)	(2)	(3)
	Yes	No	DK
a. Attended a meeting of a trade union, a political party or political action group, attended a protest or demonstration, or signed a petition.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
b. Contacted a politician or public official (other than routine contact arising from use of public services)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Q25. Some people don't vote nowadays for one reason or another.
Did you vote in the last [country] national election held in [month/year]?

- 1 Yes
- 2 No
- 3 Not eligible to vote
- 4 Don't know

Q26. Apart from weddings, funerals and other important religious events (e.g. baptisms, Christmas/Easter or other specific holy days), about how often do you attend religious services?

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q26 AND READ OUT)

- 1 More than once a week
- 2 Once a week
- 3 Once or twice a month
- 4 A few times a year
- 5 Once a year
- 6 Less than once a year
- 7 Never
- 8 (Don't know)

Q27. How much trust do you have in the ability of the following two systems to deliver when you need it?

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q27 AND READ OUT)

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
	A great deal of trust	Some trust	Hardly any trust	No trust at all	(Don't know)
a. State pension system	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
b. Social benefit system	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Q28. Generally speaking, would you say that most people can be trusted, or that you can't be too careful in dealing with people? Please tell me on a scale of 1 to 10, where 1 means you can't be too careful and 10 means that most people can be trusted.

(INT.: ENTER SCORE OR 11 FOR 'DON'T KNOW') _____

Q29. *In all countries there sometimes exists tension between social groups. In your opinion, how much tension is there between each of the following groups in [this country]*

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q29 AND READ OUT)

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	A lot of tension	Some tension	No tension	(Don't know)
a. Poor and rich people	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
b. Management and workers	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
c. Men and women	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
d. Old people and young people	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
e. Different racial and ethnic groups	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Q30. *Please tell me for each statement whether you agree completely, agree somewhat, disagree somewhat or disagree completely with each statement.*

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q30 AND READ OUT)

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
	Agree completely	Agree somewhat	Disagree somewhat	Disagree completely	(Don't know)
a. I am optimistic about the future.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
b. In order to get ahead nowadays you are forced to do things that are not correct.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
c. I feel left out of society.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
d. Good luck is more important than hard work for success.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
e. Life has become so complicated today that I almost can't find my way.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Q31. *All things considered, how satisfied would you say you are with your life these days? Please tell me on a scale of 1 to 10, where 1 means very dissatisfied and 10 means very satisfied.*

(INT.: ENTER SCORE OR 11 FOR DON'T KNOW _____)

Q32. Could I ask you about your current marital status? Which of the following descriptions best applies to you? Are you ...?

(INT.: READ OUT)

- 1 Married or living with partner
- 2 Separated or divorced and not living with partner
- 3 Widowed and not living with partner
- 4 Never married and not living with partner
- 5 (Don't know / No answer)

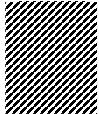
Q33. How many children of your own do you have? _____

(INT.: ENTER NUMBER OF OWN CHILDREN, IF NONE ENTER '00')

Q34. On average, thinking of people living outside your household how often do you have direct (face-to-face) contact with...

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q34 AND READ OUT)

(INT.: IF E.G. SEVERAL CHILDREN THEN ANSWER FOR THE ONE WITH WHICH THE RESPONDENT HAS THE MOST CONTACT)

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
	More than once a day	Every day of almost every day	At least once a week	Once or twice a month	Several times a year	Less often	(Don't have such relatives)	(Don't know)
a. Any of your children	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
b. Your mother or father	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
c. Any of your friends or neighbours	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>		<input type="checkbox"/>

Q35. On average, how often do you have contact with friends or family by phone, e-mail or by post?

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q35 AND READ OUT)

- 1 More than once a day
- 2 Every day or almost every day
- 3 At least once a week
- 4 Once or twice a month
- 5 Several times a year
- 6 Less often
- 7 (Don't know)

Q36. From whom would you get support in each of the following situations?
For each situation, choose the most important person.

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q36 AND READ OUT)

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
	Family member	Work colleague	Friend	Neighbor	Someone else	Nobody	(Don't know)
a. If you needed help around the house when ill	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
b. If you needed advice about a serious personal or family matter	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
c. If you were feeling a bit depressed and wanting someone to talk to	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
d. If you needed to urgently raise € 1000 ³¹ to face an emergency	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

³¹ [In the candidate countries use 500 euros as a reference.]

Q37. ASK ALL

How often are you involved in any of the following activities outside of paid work?

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q37 AND READ OUT)

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
	Every day	Three or four times a week	Once or twice a week	Once or twice a month	Less often	Never	(Don't know)
a. Caring for and educating children	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
b. Housework	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
c. Caring for elderly/ disabled relatives	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Q38. ASK IF ANY CODE 1 AT Q37A-C

How many hours a day are you involved in....?

(INT.: READ OUT ITEMS WHERE RESPONDENT INDICATED 'EVERY DAY' - CODE 1 - AT Q37)

(INT.: ENTER 99 FOR DON'T KNOW)

	Enter number of hours
a. Caring for and educating children	_____
b. Housework	_____
c. Caring for elderly/ disabled relatives	_____

Q39. ASK IF HOUSEHOLD CONSISTS OF AT LEAST 2 PEOPLE AGED 18 OR OVER
(SEE HOUSEHOLD GRID)

Do you think that the share of housework you do is...

(INT.: READ OUT)

- 1 More than your fair share
- 2 Just about your fair share
- 3 Less than your fair share
- 4 (Don't know)

(INT.: ASK ALL)

Q40. I am going to read out some areas of daily life in which you can spend your time. Could you tell me if you think you spend too much, too little or just about the right amount of time in each area.

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q40 AND READ OUT)

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
	Too much	Just right	Too little	(Don't know)	(Not applicable)
a. My job/paid work	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
b. Contact with family members living in this household or elsewhere	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
c. Other social contact (not family)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
d. Own hobbies/ interests	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
e. Sleeping	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
f. Taking part in voluntary work or political activities	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Q41. Could you please tell me on a scale of 1 to 10 how satisfied you are with each of the following items, where 1 means you are very dissatisfied and 10 means you are very satisfied?

(INT.: READ OUT; FOR EACH ITEM ENTER SCORE GIVEN OR 11 FOR DON'T KNOW)

- a. Your education _____
- b. Your present job _____
- c. Your present standard of living _____
- d. Your accommodation _____
- e. Your family life _____
- f. Your health _____
- g. Your social life _____

Q42. Taking all things together on a scale of 1 to 10, how happy would you say you are? Here 1 means you are very unhappy and 10 means you are very happy.

(INT.: ENTER SCORE GIVEN OR 11 FOR DON'T KNOW) _____

Q43. In general, would you say your health is

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q43 AND READ OUT)

- 1 Excellent
- 2 Very good
- 3 Good
- 4 Fair
- 5 Poor
- 6 (Don't know)

Q44. Do you have any long-standing illness or disability that limits your activities in any way? By long-standing, I mean anything that has troubled you over a period of time or that is likely to affect you for a period of time.

- 1 Yes
- 2 No
- 3 Don't know

Q45. On the last occasion you needed to see a doctor or medical specialist, to what extent did each of the following factors make it difficult for you to do so?

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q45 AND READ OUT)

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
	Very difficult	A little difficult	Not difficult at all	(Not applicable/ never needed to see doctor)	(Don't know)
a. Distance to doctor's office/ hospital/ medical center	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
b. Delay in getting appointment	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
c. Waiting time to see doctor on day of appointment	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
d. Cost of seeing the doctor	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Q46. How old were you when you completed your full-time education?

(INT.: IF STILL IN FULL-TIME EDUCATION ENTER 99)
years old

Q47. What is the highest level of education you completed? Is this ...?

(INT.: READ OUT)

- 1 Primary education
- 2 Secondary education
- 3 University
- 4 (None)
- 5 (Don't know/no answer)

Q48. Have you taken an education or training course at any time within the last year?

- 1 Yes → Ask Q49
- 2 No → Go to Q51
- 3 Don't know → Go to Q51

Q49. ASK IF YES (CODE 1) AT Q48

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q49)

What kind of course is/was it?

(INT.: READ OUT; ONE ANSWER ONLY)

(INT.: IF RESPONDENT TOOK MORE THAN ONE COURSE ASK FOR MOST IMPORTANT ONE)

- 1 General education (leading to formal certificate, diploma, degree)
- 2 Computer course
- 3 Language course
- 4 Training course related to your job or profession
- 5 Job training scheme offered in connection with social welfare/employment services (e.g. for unemployed, women returning to labour force)
- 6 Cultural or hobby-related course (e.g. arts/crafts, dance, sports or other leisure related)
- 7 Other
- 8 (Can't remember)

Q50. ASK IF YES (CODE 1) AT Q48

How long is / was this course? Looking at this card, please tell me the number of days, regardless of whether the course was spread out over several days, assuming that a full day amounts to 8 hours.

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q50 AND READ OUT)

- 1 Less than half a day (less than 4 hours)
- 2 Half a day or more but less than 2 full days (4 – 15 hours)
- 3 2 full days or more but less than 10 full days (16 – 79 hours)
- 4 10 days or more but less than 40 days (80 to 319 hours)
- 5 40 days or longer (320 hours or more)
- 6 (Can't remember)

(INT.: ASK ALL)

Q51. How well do you read English?

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q51 AND READ OUT)

- 1 Very well
- 2 Quite well
- 3 Not very well
- 4 Not at all
- 5 (Don't know)

Q52. Which of the following best describes your level of use of the internet over the past month?

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q52 AND READ OUT)

- 1 Used it every day or almost every day
- 2 Used the internet a couple of times a week
- 3 Used the internet occasionally (once a month or less)
- 4 Did not use the internet at all
- 5 (Don't know)

Q53. About how much time in total does it take you to get to and from work or school using your usual mode of transportation?

(INT.: THIS ALSO INCLUDES TAKING CHILDREN TO SCHOOL AND PICKING THEM UP FROM SCHOOL)

(INT.: RECORD TOTAL TIME FOR ROUND TRIP IN MINUTES OR 998 FOR NOT APPLICABLE OR 999 FOR DON'T KNOW)

_____ minutes

Q54. In general, how would you rate the quality of each of the following public services in [country]?

Please tell me on a scale of 1 to 10, where 1 means very poor quality and 10 means very high quality.

(INT.: READ OUT; FOR EACH ITEM ENTER SCORE GIVEN OR 11 FOR DON'T KNOW)

- a. Health services _____
- b. Education system _____
- c. Public transport _____
- d. Social services _____
- e. State pension system _____

Q55. Would you consider the area in which you live to be...

(INT.: READ OUT)

- 1 The open countryside
- 2 A village/small town
- 3 A medium to large town
- 4 A city or city suburb
- 5 (Don't know)

Q56. Please think about the area where you live now – I mean the immediate neighborhood of your home. Do you have very many reasons, many reasons, a few reasons, or no reason at all to complain about each of the following problems?

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q56 AND READ OUT)

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
	Very many reasons	Many reasons	A few reasons	No reason at all	(Don't know)
A. Noise	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
B. Air pollution	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
C. Lack of access to recreational or green areas	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
D. Water quality	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Q57. How safe do you think it is to walk around in your area at night?
Do you think it is...

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q57 AND READ OUT)

- 1 Very safe
- 2 Rather safe
- 3 Rather unsafe
- 4 Very unsafe
- 5 (Don't know)

Q58. A household may have different sources of income and more than one household member may contribute to it. Thinking of your household's total monthly income, is your household able to make ends meet....?

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q58 AND READ OUT)

- 1 Very easily
- 2 Easily
- 3 Fairly easily
- 4 With some difficulty
- 5 With difficulty
- 6 With great difficulty
- 7 (Don't know)

Q59. Has your household been in arrears at any time during the past 12 months, that is, unable to pay as scheduled any of the following?

(INT.: READ OUT)

	(1)	(2)	(3)
	Yes	No	DK
A. Rent or mortgage payments for accommodation	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
B. Utility bills, such as electricity, water, gas	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Q60. Has your household at any time during the past 12 months run out of money to pay for food?

- 1 Yes
- 2 No
- 3 Don't know

Q61. In the past year, has your household helped meet its need for food by growing vegetables or fruits or keeping poultry or livestock?

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q61 AND READ OUT)

- 1 No, not at all
- 2 Yes, for up to one-tenth of the household's food needs
- 3 Yes, for between one-tenth and a half of household's food need
- 4 Yes, for half or more of the household's needs
- 5 (Don't know)

Q62. In the past year, did your household give regular help in the form of either money or food to a person you know not living in your household (e.g. parents, grown-up children, other relatives, or someone not related)?

- 1 Yes
- 2 No
- 3 Don't know

Q63. In the past year, did your household receive regular help in the form of either money or food from a person not living in your household (e.g. parents, grown-up children, other relatives, or someone not related)?

- 1 Yes
- 2 No
- 3 Don't know

Q64. Have you or someone else in your household received any of the following types of income over the past 12 months?

(INT.: READ OUT)

	(1)	(2)	(3)
	Yes	No	DK
a. Earnings from work (incl. income from self-employment or farming)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
b. Pension	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
c. Child benefit	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
d. Unemployment benefit, disability benefit or any other social benefits	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
e. Other income (e.g. from savings, property or stocks, etc.)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Q65. Using this card, if you add up all of these income sources (for all household members), which letter corresponds with your household's total net income, that is the amount that is left over after taxes have been deducted? If you don't know the exact figure, please give an estimate. Use the part of the card that you know best: weekly, monthly or annual income

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q65)

(INT.: PLEASE CIRCLE THE CODE THAT MATCHES THE LETTER GIVEN)

Letter		Q65
D		01
B		02
I		03
O		04
T		05
G		06
P		07
A	08	
F		09
E		10
Q		11
H		12
C		13
L		14
N	15	
R		16
M		17
S		18
K		19
(Refused)	20	
(Don't know)		21

YOU HAVE REACHED THE END OF THE INTERVIEW - THANK RESPONDENT FOR HIS/HER TIME.