How's Life? 2017

MEASURING WELL-BEING



OECD

OECD Better Life Initiative

How's Life? 2017

MEASURING WELL-BEING



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Foreword

How's Life? *is part of the OECD Better Life Initiative, which aims to promote "Better Policies for Better Lives", in line with the OECD's overarching mission. It is a statistical report released every two years that documents a wide range of well-being outcomes, and how they vary over time, between population groups, and across countries. This assessment is based on a multi-dimensional framework covering 11 dimensions of current well-being, and four different types of resources that help to support well-being over time. Each issue also includes special chapters that provide an in-depth look at specific aspects of well-being. The 2017 edition features a focus on inequalities in well-being, migrants' experiences of well-being, and the role of governance in well-being.*

The report was prepared by the Household Statistics and Progress Measurement Division of the OECD Statistics Directorate, with contributions from the Reform of the Public Sector Division in the Public Governance Directorate (Chapter 4). Lead authors for each of the chapters were: Carrie Exton (Chapter 1); Carlotta Balestra (Chapter 2); Kate Scrivens and David Marguerit (Chapter 3); Santiago Gonzalez (Chapter 4); and Joshua Monje-Jelfs and Elena Tosetto (Chapter 5). Elena Tosetto was also the lead author for both online annexes. Carrie Exton led the project, which was supervised by Romina Boarini, Marco Mira d'Ercole, and Martine Durand. Lara Fleischer and Giampaolo Bonomi are gratefully acknowledged for their contributions to the analyses that appear in the report and in the media notes. Martine Zaïda is the communications coordinator for How's Life?*, and has provided essential support throughout.*

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Finally, the report has benefited from helpful comments on early drafts provided by national delegates to the OECD Committee on Statistics and Statistical Policy, and the OECD Public Governance Committee (Chapter 4). Chapter 3 was also presented to the OECD Working Party on Migration. Their contributions and advice are also kindly acknowledged.

Editorial: Achieving Well-Being for All

Well-being cannot prosper in divided societies. Nearly ten years since the start of the global financial crisis, the world economy is regaining momentum. Yet the crisis has left behind scars of uncertainty about the future, and after a period of widening income inequalities, there is a sense of deepening divisions in several OECD countries. In particular, there is concern that the economic shifts in the last 30-40 years have left too many people behind. With the crisis as its backdrop, the "beyond GDP" movement has drawn attention to the limits of macroeconomic statistics in describing what matters most to the quality of people's lives. This has encouraged us to ask both *who* and *what aspects of life* are missing from the traditional indicators that policy-makers most often use to guide their decisions. The OECD well-being framework and the statistics we have been compiling since 2011 offer a unique way to approach these issues directly, injecting some hard-won evidence into the heated debate on inclusiveness.

As economies gain strength, well-being needs reinforcement

After a turbulent decade in many OECD countries, is life today any better than it was in 2005, well before the crisis began? The picture is not all doom-and-gloom. Most OECD countries now have higher average household incomes, higher annual earnings, and a longer life expectancy than in 2005. In around half of all OECD countries, the employment rate has risen since 2005; the incidence of long working hours has fallen; more people say they feel safe when walking alone at night; and there are fewer homicides. Yet in some of these outcomes, progress has often been slow, unsteady or unevenly distributed. In addition, several other elements of people's well-being have been left behind: voter turnout, long-term unemployment and housing affordability have each worsened in around half of all OECD countries since 2005, while labour-market insecurity is higher in four-fifths. Feelings of life satisfaction and social support have also fallen in at least one-quarter of OECD countries. So as economies begin to regain their momentum after the crisis, there are many people who are not yet feeling the benefits, in several aspects of their lives.

We need to look at inequalities beyond income

The OECD average is often a poor guide to understanding the well-being of individual people and that of their families and communities – particularly when gains and losses in well-being are unequally shared, both within and across countries. The special focus on inequalities in this edition sheds light on who is getting left behind. While much of the recent debate on inequality has centred on income, Chapter 2 reveals a large number of dividing lines across many aspects of people's well-being, and among many groups of people – including between men and women, young and old, and people with different levels of education. Countries with comparatively small gaps between people by some measures (such as the gap between men and women, or the size of income inequalities) can have much

larger inequalities in other respects (such as the gap between young and old, or the size of health disparities). This emphasises the need to consider inequalities from more than one angle, and in more than one outcome. Chapter 3 expands the analysis of inequalities further, by exploring the well-being experiences of migrants in OECD countries. When compared to the native-born, they face a number of disadvantages, ranging from lower quality jobs, to greater exposure to air and noise pollution where they live. Migration also takes a toll on emotional well-being: in over two-thirds of European OECD countries, migrants report lower life satisfaction than natives, and are more likely to feel downhearted or depressed.

Barriers to social mobility today may widen well-being gaps tomorrow

Inequalities in outcomes are of greatest concern when they reflect and translate into inequalities of opportunity. Several forces are putting the brakes on social mobility in OECD countries. They start early, with children from income-poor families being much more likely to fall into poverty later in life. They are then compounded by patterns of family formation, since – while opposites attract – like still marries like: more than one-third of wage earners live with partners in the same earnings quintile. In addition, patterns of inheritance reinforce existing divides: while around 10% of households in the lower wealth quintile receive inheritances or gifts, more than half of those in the upper quintile do. Meanwhile, not everyone has an equal chance to make the most of their skills in today's labour markets. For example, migrants with a higher education are more likely to be overqualified for their jobs, when compared to the native-born. And despite being more educated than the generations that preceded them, younger adults face particularly large gaps on jobs outcomes, relative to older adults.

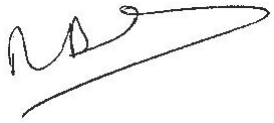
Putting the "public" back into public institutions

Divided societies create problems for democracy and social trust. Many people living in OECD countries feel distant from the public institutions that serve them. On average, only 33% of people feel that they have a say in what the government does, and in more than half of OECD countries people's trust in government has fallen since 2005. Although survey respondents in European countries say they are generally happy about the fairness of elections, they are much less satisfied with policy actions to reduce inequalities. Data on the occupational background of parliamentarians in 11 countries also suggests they are not "representative" of the people they serve – instead they are much more likely to have had a professional or senior management career. At the same time, citizens are less civically engaged: voter turnout is falling, and some of the groups least well-represented in public life (the young, people with lower income, and those with less education) are both among the least likely to vote, and the least likely to feel they have a say in policy decisions. This implies that governments increasingly risk "ruling in the void". We need to find new ways to engage citizens, particularly those most on the margins, in order to restore trust and prevent these divides from widening further.

Bridging the gap between better data and better lives

In focusing on who and what has been left behind, it is important not to lose sight of what lies ahead. Six years since the OECD launched the Better Life Initiative, good progress has been made in expanding the well-being evidence base, giving us a better handle on what is needed to make lives better. At the same time, there is much unfinished business. There are large gaps in our knowledge of change over time, and in particular of whether well-being

divisions in society are growing wider. So well-being statistics need continuous investment. But beyond this, there is an urgent need to bridge the gap between better data and better lives. This means greater commitment from decision-makers to use the data that we already have. This is not simply a question of statistics: it means linking numbers to real-world impact and experience, and developing policies that can bridge well-being divides. Indeed, the question now is not just: how big are the gaps? – but rather, how can we design policies that will close the gaps that matter most, and deliver well-being for all.



Martine Durand
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Director of the OECD Statistics Directorate

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Reader's guide

Conventions

- In each figure, data labelled "OECD" are simple mean averages of the OECD countries displayed, unless otherwise indicated. Where data are not available for all 35 OECD countries, the number of countries included in the calculation is specified in the figure (e.g. OECD 33). Where changes over time are shown in the figures, the OECD averages refer to only those countries with data available for all time points.
- When population-weighted OECD averages are used, this is specified in the figure notes. This refers to the mean average, weighted according to the size of the population in different countries, as a proportion of the total OECD population. This procedure gives more weight to countries with a larger population, relative to those with a smaller population, and enables inferences to be made about the "average OECD person" (rather than focusing on the "average OECD country").
- Each figure specifies the time period covered, and figure notes provide further details when data refer to different years for different countries.
- Data for key partner countries, where available, are presented in a separate part of the figure to OECD countries.

For all figures, ISO codes for countries and world regions are used:

AUS	Australia	FIN	Finland	MEX	Mexico
AUT	Austria	FRA	France	NLD	Netherlands
BEL	Belgium	GBR	United Kingdom	NOR	Norway
BRA	Brazil	GRC	Greece	NZL	New Zealand
CAN	Canada	HUN	Hungary	OECD	OECD average
CHE	Switzerland	IRL	Ireland	POL	Poland
CHL	Chile	ISL	Iceland	PRT	Portugal
COL	Colombia	ISR	Israel	RUS	Russian Federation
CRI	Costa Rica	ITA	Italy	SVK	Slovak Republic
CZE	Czech Republic	JPN	Japan	SVN	Slovenia
DEU	Germany	KOR	Korea	SWE	Sweden
DNK	Denmark	LTU	Lithuania	TUR	Turkey
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Executive summary

How's life in 2017?

What makes for a good life? While the richness of human experience cannot be captured in numbers alone, it is important that the statistics shaping public policy reflect both people's material living conditions, and the quality of their lives. This includes how life is changing over time, how lives differ across different population groups, and whether today's well-being is achieved at the cost of depleting resources for the future. This fourth edition of *How's Life?* aims to meet this need, providing a picture of people's well-being in OECD and partner countries.

Life is better for some, but several aspects of well-being are lagging behind

The financial crisis had a deep and long-lasting impact on people's lives, and particularly their jobs. Looking at change in well-being since 2005, Chapter 1 shows that people are better off in some ways, but progress since the crisis has been slow, and several aspects of well-being have fallen behind. Household income and average annual earnings have increased cumulatively by 8% and 7%, respectively since 2005 – yet this is roughly half the growth rate recorded between 1995 and 2005. The share of people living without access to basic sanitation (already low in most OECD countries) has fallen by just over one-third, and more people say they feel safe when walking alone at night. And, although it stalled in 2015, OECD average life expectancy has gone up by nearly two years overall.

Despite these gains, other aspects of well-being have failed to keep pace. In around half of all OECD countries, long-term unemployment remains higher than in 2005, and labour market insecurity is around one-third higher than when first measured, in 2007. Compared to the pre-crisis years, voter turnout has fallen, the OECD average life satisfaction has decreased slightly, and the share of people who feel supported by friends and family has fallen by 3 percentage points. The picture remains mixed for the resources that sustain well-being over time. Here again, progress in some indicators (e.g. falling per capita greenhouse gas emissions, a reduction in smoking, greater investment in R&D, and higher produced economic assets) is offset by worsening conditions in others (e.g. rising household debt in a majority of countries, falling financial net worth of government, increasing obesity, and falling trust in government).

The many faces of inequality

Inequalities can touch every aspect of people's lives. Chapter 2 considers inequalities in well-being through several different lenses: from gaps between the top and bottom of the distribution, through to differences in well-being according to gender, age, and education. It shows that while some societies are more equal than others, there are pockets of both high and low inequality in all OECD countries. Inequalities also interact,

compounding disadvantage. For example, people in the top 20% income bracket are twice as likely as those in the bottom 20% to report high life satisfaction. And people with high life satisfaction are four times more likely to report being in good health when compared to those with low life satisfaction. Many people in OECD countries lack the wealth buffer they need to protect themselves from income shocks. If they had to forgo three months' of their income, more than one-third of people would fall into poverty, based on evidence from 25 OECD countries.

Migrants face multiple challenges to their well-being

On average, 13% of the population in OECD countries were born abroad. Migrants are a diverse group, both across and within OECD countries: from highly skilled professionals seeking new opportunities, to people escaping war and destitution. Chapter 3 shows that life in their new homes can raise many challenges for migrants' well-being. The median income of migrants is 25% lower than that of the native-born, and median net wealth is 50% lower. Although migrants' chances of having a job are similar to those of the native-born, they are more likely to work antisocial hours, to be employed in low-paid jobs, and to be exposed to risky or harmful working conditions. In several cases, migrants are also unable to make the most of the skills that they bring with them: almost 30% of migrants with a tertiary degree are overqualified for their jobs, compared to 20% of the native-born. In addition to poorer working conditions, migrants also face poorer living conditions: 1 in 4 migrants report being exposed to air and noise pollution in the area where they live, compared to 1 in 5 of their native-born peers; and 41% of migrants live in sub-standard or overcrowded housing, compared to 27% of the native-born. Migrants also report worse health, lower social support, and lower subjective well-being than the native-born in most OECD countries assessed. However, there is much progress to be made on the measurement of migrants' well-being, particularly since household surveys often struggle to reach the most vulnerable groups.

A gap between public institutions and the people they serve

The steady decline in voter turnout among OECD countries has been a concern for many years. Chapter 4 shows other ways in which people feel distant from the public institutions that serve them. More than half of OECD residents consider corruption to be widespread in their government. Trust in public institutions has fallen since 2005, and only 33% of people feel they have a say in what the government does. The distance grows larger for those who are most under-represented in public life: people without an upper secondary education are less likely to feel that they have a say in policy decisions, compared to those with a tertiary education. Self-reported voter turnout is 13 percentage points lower for people in the bottom 20% income bracket, compared to those in the top 20% bracket. Europeans are generally satisfied with how elections are run, but much less so with policy actions to reduce inequalities. Satisfaction with public education and health services varies widely across countries, but tends to be higher among people who have used these services recently. This suggests that experience matters when it comes to shaping people's perceptions.

Chapter 1

How's Life in 2017?

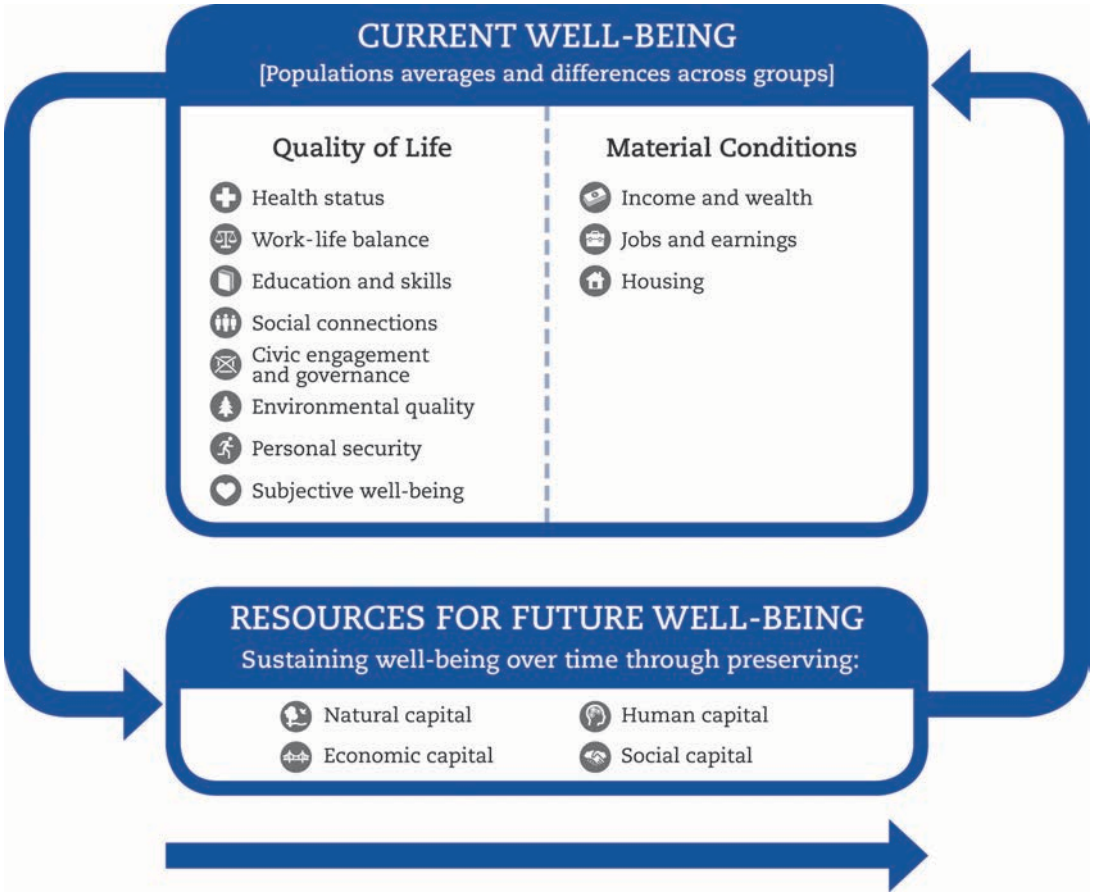
A key reason for measuring well-being is to understand whether, where and how life is getting better for people. This chapter provides an overview of OECD countries' achievements across 11 dimensions of current well-being and four different "capital stocks" that help to sustain well-being over time. It features a diverse set of statistics, ranging from household wealth to time spent on leisure, and from air pollution to how safe people feel walking alone at night. Since the last 10 years have been a turbulent time in most OECD economies, the chapter has a particular focus on changes in people's well-being. It seeks to address the simple question: is life today better or worse than it was in 2005, before the financial crisis took hold? The overview provided here is complemented by Chapter 2, which examines inequalities in current well-being outcomes, and Chapter 5, which provides profiles of each OECD country and 6 OECD partner countries.

The statistical data for Israel are supplied by and under the responsibility of the relevant Israeli authorities. The use of such data by the OECD is without prejudice to the status of the Golan Heights, East Jerusalem and Israeli settlements in the West Bank under the terms of international law.

Introduction: The OECD approach to measuring well-being

Many governments, charities and businesses make it their mission to improve people's lives. But how can they know whether they are succeeding? The purpose of measuring well-being is to help understand whether life is getting better for people – so that, ultimately, we might better identify what drives positive and negative changes in people's lives. Well-being is a concept that has gained increasing traction in the last 10 years, yet we still often hear that "*well-being means different things to different people*" – thus making it a very challenging target to assess. To have a meaningful impact, whether in public policy, business or the third sector, the concept of well-being must be made concrete and measurable. While there is now fairly widespread agreement that "better lives" means more than just higher Gross Domestic Product (GDP), how much more has remained a topic of fierce debate. How well-being outcomes are distributed in society is also a critical issue – since we need to know not just whether life is getting better on average, but also for whom.

Figure 1.1. **The OECD well-being framework**



Source: OECD (2015), *How's Life? Measuring Well-Being*, OECD Publishing, Paris, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/how_life-2015-en*.

The OECD framework for measuring well-being (Figure 1.1) encompasses a range of different individual, household and societal-level outcomes, as well as the stocks of resources that are important for sustaining those outcomes over time. This framework was first presented in 2011, and has provided the backbone for all past editions of *How's Life?* The framework does not specify the combination of outcomes necessary for achieving a "good life", but instead focuses on some of the key ingredients that all people should have access to. It builds on a body of literature and a wide range of international examples, which together suggest an emerging consensus on several of the outcomes that contribute towards people's well-being (Box 1.1). These include income, jobs, housing, health status, skills, the environment, governance and personal safety. The importance of more experiential elements of life, such as social connections, work-life balance and subjective well-being, is also increasingly recognised across these approaches.

Box 1.1. **The OECD approach to measuring well-being**

The OECD framework for measuring well-being was introduced in *How's Life? 2011*. It builds on a variety of national and international initiatives for measuring the progress of societies, as well as on the recommendations of the Stiglitz, Sen and Fitoussi Report (2009) and the input provided by the National Statistical Offices (NSOs) represented in the OECD Committee on Statistics and Statistical Policy. Conceptually, the framework reflects elements of the *capabilities approach* (Sen, 1985; Alkire and Sarwar, 2009; Anand, Durand and Heckman, 2011), with many dimensions addressing the factors that can expand people's choices and opportunities to live the lives that they value – including health, education and income (see OECD, 2013a).

This approach to measuring current well-being has several important features:

- It puts **people** (individuals and households) at the centre of the assessment, focusing on their life circumstances and their experiences of well-being.
- It focuses on well-being **outcomes** – aspects of life that are directly and intrinsically important to people – rather than the inputs and outputs that might be used to deliver those outcomes. For example, in the education dimension, measures focus on the skills and competencies achieved, rather than on the money spent on schools or the number of teachers trained.
- It includes outcomes that are both **objective** (i.e. observable by a third party) and intrinsically **subjective** (i.e. those where only the person concerned can report on their inner feelings and states), recognising that objective evidence about people's life circumstances can be usefully complemented by information about how people experience their lives.
- It considers the **distribution** of well-being outcomes across the population as an important feature shaping the well-being of societies, including disparities associated with age, gender, education and income. This is because national averages disguise a great deal of variation in people's experiences *within* countries – and it is important to understand whether life is getting better, not just on average, but across all groups in society.

The OECD approach to assessing the resources for future well-being focuses on the broader natural, economic, human and social *systems* that embed and sustain individual well-being over time. These systems are underpinned by stocks of "capital" or resources. While the term "capital" is used to denote a store of future value, this value is not necessarily measured in monetary terms: in the majority of cases it is the physical stocks, rather than any monetary value attached to them, that are assessed in the illustrative indicator set shown in this report. Taking these stocks as the primary measurement focus is in line with the recommendations of the Stiglitz, Sen and Fitoussi Report (2009) as well as several other recent measurement

Box 1.1. **The OECD approach to measuring well-being** *(cont.)*

initiatives, including the UNECE-Eurostat-OECD Task Force on Measuring Sustainable Development (United Nations, 2009), the UNU-IDHP and UNEP's *Inclusive Wealth Report* (2012), the *Conference of European Statisticians' Recommendations on Measuring Sustainable Development* (UNECE, 2014) and several country initiatives (*e.g.* FSO, 2015; Statistics New Zealand, 2011). A key feature in several of these frameworks is the distinction made between well-being "here and now" and the stocks of resources that can affect the well-being of future generations "later". Several of these approaches go beyond simply measuring levels of stocks to consider how these are managed, maintained or threatened (see also Box 1.2).

Source: OECD (2015), *How's Life? Measuring Well-Being*, OECD Publishing, Paris, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/how_life-2015-en*.

Advances in measuring well-being have been closely intertwined with concepts of sustainable development. This was particularly the case in the focus of the "Rio+20" Conference on Sustainable Development on *The Future We Want* (UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs, 2012). Flowing from Rio+20, in 2015 all UN member states adopted a set of universal Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). These goals put the concepts of well-being and sustainable development into practice through a series of internationally-agreed policy commitments. They set an ambitious agenda of 17 goals to be reached by the year 2030, backed by 169 targets and 232 indicators proposed by an Inter-Agency and Expert Group (UN Statistics Division, 2017). As described in the new OECD study, *Measuring Distance to the SDG Targets* (OECD, 2017a), there is a strong overlap between the SDGs and the OECD's well-being framework. There are, however, also some differences in terms of both the intent and the measurement approach adopted (Box 1.2).

The data presented in *How's Life? 2017* offer an international perspective on well-being. As well as describing international trends and common experiences, they provide OECD and partner countries with insights about areas of comparative strength and weakness, relative to their peers. The requirement for internationally comparable data necessarily limits the indicators that can be used, and despite recent progress, important measurement gaps remain. However, the OECD's work in this area seeks to complement both the more detailed information that countries collect on well-being at the national and subnational levels and the richer and more qualitative evidence available at a more grass-roots and community level.

This chapter of *How's Life?* provides an overview of well-being in OECD countries, including what we know about whether life has been getting better since 2005. It summarises the latest data for current well-being, resources for future well-being, and changes over time in both. This is followed by a brief account of the statistical agenda ahead. The current chapter's focus on average levels of well-being achieved across OECD countries is complemented by Chapter 2, which investigates well-being inequalities – i.e. the distribution of outcomes within OECD countries. Chapter 3 then explores the experiences of one important minority group in many OECD countries, by describing well-being outcomes for migrants. Chapter 4 examines issues of governance and well-being, focusing in particular on people's experiences of and interactions with public institutions. The fifth and final chapter presents a series of well-being profiles for each OECD country, as well as three countries on the accession track to join the OECD (Colombia, Costa Rica and Lithuania) and three partner countries featured in the OECD's Better Life Index (Brazil, the Russian Federation

and South Africa).[1] Focusing on average levels of achievement for each country, the profiles summarise comparative strengths and weaknesses in current well-being and resources for future well-being, as well as how these have changed since 2005.

Box 1.2. **The OECD well-being framework and the UN Sustainable Development Goals**

The OECD well-being framework is an analytic and diagnostic tool to assess the conditions of people and communities, whereas the 2030 Agenda is a list of policy commitments agreed by world leaders. Nonetheless, the 2030 Agenda touches on practically *all* the dimensions considered in the OECD well-being framework. As shown by Figure 1.2 below:

- Eight of the 17 SDGs map onto 9 of the 11 dimensions of the OECD framework for current well-being. In most cases, the mapping is one-to-one – e.g. SDG 3 on health maps to the OECD dimensions of "health status". Sometimes, however, more than one SDG is relevant for a single OECD well-being dimension – e.g. various aspects of SDGs 1 and 2, on poverty and food respectively, map to the OECD dimension of "income and wealth". In other cases, a single SDG maps to several OECD dimensions – e.g. the decent work aspects of SDG 8 map to two OECD dimensions, "jobs and earnings" and "work-life balance".
- Three of the 17 SDGs relate strongly to the cross-cutting "inequality" aspect of the OECD well-being framework. The relation is direct in the case of SDG 10 on reducing inequalities. But SDG 1 on poverty also addresses inequality, while SDG 5 on gender equality concerns the inequalities experienced by a specific population group. More generally, the SDGs' emphasis on "leaving no one behind" underscores the importance of looking at outcomes across a range of population characteristics such as age, gender, disability and socio-economic status.
- The four types of "capital stocks" that provide resources for future well-being in the OECD framework are clearly reflected in 11 of the 17 SDGs. Natural capital features in SDGs 12 on sustainable production, 13 on climate, 14 on oceans and 15 on biodiversity. Economic capital is recognised in SDGs 7 on energy, 8 on decent work and the economy and 9 on infrastructure. Human capital is the focus of SDGs 3 on health and 4 on education, while social capital is addressed by SDG 16 on institutions. In some cases, the same SDG may be relevant for both current well-being and sustainability: for example, SDG 3 on health aims at lowering mortality and morbidity now, while supporting vaccine development for the future.

Only two dimensions of the OECD's current well-being framework are not featured in the SDGs: "social connections" and "subjective well-being" (although "promoting well-being for all" is part of SDG 3 on health). Conversely, two aspects of the 2030 Agenda do not feature in the OECD well-being framework. The first is SDG 17 (means of implementation); this reflects the choice in *How's Life?* to focus on universally-valued outcomes, rather than on the country-specific policies needed to attain them. The second is the 2030 Agenda's focus on the "shared responsibility" of all countries in delivering global public goods and avoiding negative global impacts. Conceptually, this is a key element of resources for future well-being (OECD, 2015a; OECD, 2013a) yet the focus of *How's Life?* to date has been on the conditions prevailing in each OECD country, rather than on the interrelationships among countries and their well-being achievements. The renewed attention given to global public goods in the 2030 Agenda, and on domestic policies and consumption patterns that can affect them, is a welcome feature, giving expression to the "elsewhere" dimension stressed in the recommendations by the *Conference of European Statisticians' Recommendations on Measuring Sustainable Development* (UNECE, 2014).

Box 1.2. **The OECD well-being framework and the UN Sustainable Development Goals** *(cont.)*

Figure 1.2. **Comparison of the OECD well-being framework and the 2030 Agenda**

OECD well-being framework		Sustainable Development Goals
Current well-being	Income & wealth	SDG 1 (poverty); SDG 2 (food)
	Jobs and earnings	SDG 8 (decent work & economy)
	Housing	SDG 11 (cities)
	Health status	SDG 3 (health)
	Work-life balance	SDG 8 (decent work & economy)
	Education & skills	SDG 4 (education)
	Civic engagement & governance	SDG 16 (institutions)
	Environmental quality	SDG 6 (water); SDG 11 (cities)
	Personal security	SDG 16 (institutions)
Inequalities in current well-being		SDG 1 (poverty); SDG 5 (women); SDG 10 (inequality)
Resources for future well-being	Natural capital	SDG 13 (climate); SDG 14 (oceans); SDG 15 (biodiversity); SDG 12 (sustainable production)
	Economic capital	SDG 7 (energy); SDG 8 (decent work & economy); SDG 9 (infrastructure); SDG 12 (sustainable production)
	Human capital	SDG 3 (health); SDG 4 (education)
	Social capital	SDG 16 (institutions)
OECD dimensions of current well-being not covered by SDGs	Subjective well-being	
	Social connections	
Elements of SDGs not covered by the OECD well-being framework		SDG 17 (implementation) "Global contributions, trans-boundary effects, international efforts"

Source: OECD (2017a), *Measuring Distance to the SDG Targets: An Assessment of Where OECD Countries Stand*, OECD Publishing, Paris, *www.oecd.org/std/measuring-distance-to-the-sdgs-targets.htm*.

Current well-being: How's Life in 2017?

According to the latest available data, the average OECD resident[2] has a net adjusted disposable income of just under 31 000 USD, lives in a household with an average net wealth of just over 330 000 USD, and (if aged between 15 and 64) has a 67% chance of having a job. Those who are employed collect, on average, gross annual earnings of around 44 000 USD. Over one-third of OECD workers experience "job strain" – where work demands (e.g. physical demands, work intensity, inflexibility of working hours) exceed the job resources available to them (e.g. task discretion and autonomy, training and learning opportunities, and opportunities for career advancement). In 2016, 2% of the OECD labour force had been unemployed for a year or more. The average OECD home has 1.8 rooms per person, but 2.1% of people live in dwellings that lack basic sanitary facilities (access to an indoor flushing toilet for the sole use of their household). On average, OECD households spend 19% of their disposable income on housing rent and maintenance, excluding the interest and principal repayment on their mortgages.

One in every 8 employees in the OECD regularly works 50 hours or more per week, and the average time devoted to leisure and personal care (including sleep) for full-time employees is just under 15 hours per day. In terms of health status, the average new-born in OECD countries can now expect to live until they are just over 80 years old, but only 69% of people report feeling in good health. Nearly three-quarters of people have attained at least an upper secondary education. When it comes to social support, almost 89% of people report having a friend or relative whom they can count on for help in case of need. While two-thirds of registered voters cast a ballot in their most recent national elections, only one-third of OECD residents feel that they have a say in what the government does in their country. People living in OECD countries are, on average, exposed to outdoor air pollution by fine particulate matter ($PM_{2.5}$) at a level that is around 40% higher than the WHO recommended threshold of 10 micrograms per cubic metre. Around 80% of OECD residents are satisfied with the quality of their local water supply. The homicide rate is currently 3.6 per 100 000 people in the OECD on average, and just over two-thirds of people report that they feel safe when walking alone at night in the area where they live. Finally, when asked to rate their satisfaction with life on a 0 to 10 scale, the average OECD resident gives a response of 7.3.

Yet, as this volume shows, there are wide variations in people's experiences of well-being, both within OECD countries (Chapter 2) and between them (Chapter 5). For ease of presentation in the analysis that follows, the headline indicator set for current well-being is divided into the "material conditions" and "quality-of-life" domains shown in Figure 1.1. Tables 1.1 and 1.2 summarise countries' comparative strengths and weaknesses, based on a simple ranking of whether the country falls within the top (1), middle (2) or bottom (3) third of the OECD.[3] For partner countries (shown in Tables 1.4 and 1.5), the "OECD-equivalent" rank is shown – i.e. their level of achievement is benchmarked against the top, middle and bottom third of OECD countries. Thus, a (1) indicates that the partner country has a level of achievement that is on a par with the top third of all OECD countries, a (2) indicates achievement on a par with the middle third of all OECD countries, and a (3) indicates achievement on a par with the bottom third of all OECD countries.

When it comes to current levels of material conditions (Table 1.1), some OECD countries do better than others, but few countries perform universally well (or badly) across all 10 indicators. Canada, Norway and the United States have comparative strengths in at least four-fifths of the indicators covering income and wealth, jobs and earnings, and housing. In

Table 1.1. **Comparative strengths and weaknesses in material conditions, OECD countries**

	Income and wealth		Jobs and earnings					Housing		
	Household net adjusted disposable income	Household net wealth	Employment rate	Average annual gross earnings per full-time employee	Labour market insecurity	Long-term unemployment rate	Job strain	Rooms per person	Housing affordability	Basic sanitation
Australia	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	1	1	..
Austria	1	1	2	1	2	2	2	2	2	2
Belgium	1	1	3	1	3	3	1	1	2	2
Canada	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	2	1
Chile	..	3	3	3	3	..	3	2	1	3
Czech Republic	2	..	2	3	1	2	3	3	3	2
Denmark	2	3	1	1	1	1	1	2	3	2
Estonia	3	3	2	3	2	2	2	2	1	3
Finland	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	2	3	1
France	1	2	3	2	3	3	1	2	2	2
Germany	1	2	1	2	1	2	2	2	2	1
Greece	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	2
Hungary	3	3	2	3	3	2	3	3	1	3
Iceland	..	..	1	1	1	1	2	2	3	1
Ireland	2	2	3	1	1	3	1	1	2	1
Israel	..	..	2	2	1	1	2	3	..	..
Italy	2	2	3	2	3	3	2	3	3	2
Japan	2	..	1	2	1	1	3	2	2	3
Korea	2	2	2	3	1	1	3	3	1	3
Latvia	3	3	2	3	..	3	2	3	3	3
Luxembourg	..	1	2	1	2	2	1	1	..	1
Mexico	3	..	3	3	2	1	3	3	2	3
Netherlands	2	3	1	1	1	3	1	2	1	1
New Zealand	..	1	1	2	3	1	1	1	3	..
Norway	1	2	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1
Poland	3	3	3	3	2	2	3	3	3	3
Portugal	3	2	2	3	3	3	2	2	2	2
Slovak Republic	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	2
Slovenia	3	2	2	2	2	3	2	2	1	1
Spain	2	1	3	2	3	3	2	2	2	1
Sweden	1	..	1	2	3	1	1	2	1	1
Switzerland	1	..	1	1	1	2	3	2	2	1
Turkey	..	..	3	..	3	2	3	3	1	3
United Kingdom	2	1	1	2	1	1	2	1	3	1
United States	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	1	1	1

Note: Based on a simple ranking of whether the country falls within the top (1), middle (2) or bottom (3) third of the OECD. Indicator definitions are available in Table 5.1, Chapter 5. All source data are provided in the *Online Data Annex: Current Well-Being* that accompanies this volume (*www.oecd-ilibrary.org/economics/how-s-life-2017_how_life-2017-en*).

Table 1.2. **Comparative strengths and weaknesses in quality of life, OECD countries**

	Work-life balance		Health		Education			Social connections	Civic engagement and governance		Environmental quality		Personal safety		SWB *
	Working hours	Time off	Life expectancy	Perceived health	Educational attainment	Adult skills	Cognitive skills at 15	Social support	Having a say in government	Voter turnout	Water quality	Air quality	Homicides	Feeling safe	Life satisfaction
Australia	3	3	1	1	2	2	2	1	2	1	1	1	2	3	2
Austria	2	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	3	1	1	1
Belgium	2	1	2	1	3	1	2	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	2
Canada	1	3	2	1	1	2	1	1	2	2	1	1	3	1	1
Chile	3	..	3	3	3	3	3	3	1	3	3	3	3	3	..
Czech Rep.	2	..	3	3	1	2	2	2	3	3	2	3	2	2	3
Denmark	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	2
Estonia	1	2	3	3	1	2	1	2	2	2	2	1	3	2	3
Finland	1	1	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	3	1	1
France	3	1	1	2	2	3	2	3	3	2	2	2	1	2	2
Germany	2	1	3	3	2	2	1	1	3	2	1	2	1	2	2
Greece	2	..	2	1	3	3	3	3	1	2	3	3	2	3	3
Hungary	1	..	3	3	2	..	3	3	..	3	3	3	3	3	3
Iceland	..	..	1	1	3	..	3	1	..	1	1	1	2	1	1
Ireland	2	..	2	1	2	3	1	1	2	2	2	1	1	2	2
Israel	3	..	1	1	1	3	3	3	2	2	3	3	3	2	..
Italy	1	2	1	2	3	3	3	2	3	1	3	3	2	3	3
Japan	..	2	1	3	..	1	1	2	3	3	2	2	1	2	..
Korea	..	3	1	3	1	2	1	3	1	1	3	3	2	3	3
Latvia	1	3	3	3	1	..	3	3	..	3	3	2	3	3	3
Luxembourg	1	..	1	2	2	..	3	2	..	1	2	2	1	2	2
Mexico	3	..	3	2	3	..	3	3	..	3	3	2	3	3	1
Netherlands	1	..	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	1	1	2	1	1	2
New Zealand	3	2	2	1	3	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	3	1
Norway	1	1	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Poland	2	3	3	3	1	2	2	3	2	3	3	3	2	2	2
Portugal	3	..	2	3	3	..	2	3	..	3	2	1	2	2	3
Slovak Rep.	2	..	3	2	1	2	3	2	3	3	2	3	2	3	3
Slovenia	2	2	2	3	1	3	1	2	3	3	2	3	1	1	2
Spain	2	1	1	2	3	3	2	1	3	2	3	2	1	1	3
Sweden	1	1	1	1	2	1	2	2	1	1	1	1	2	2	1
Switzerland	..	..	1	1	1	..	1	1	..	3	1	2	1	1	1
Turkey	3	..	3	2	3	3	3	3	3	1	3	3	3	3	..
United Kingdom	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	1	1	1
United States	3	3	3	1	1	3	2	2	1	2	2	1	3	2	..

* SWB indicates subjective well-being.

Note: Based on a simple ranking of whether the country falls within the top (1), middle (2) or bottom (3) third of the OECD. Indicator definitions are available in Table 5.1, Chapter 5. All source data are provided in the *Online Data Annex: Current Well-Being* that accompanies this volume (*www.oecd-ilibrary.org/economics/how-s-life-2017_how_life-2017-en*).

addition, while they do have some areas of mid-ranging performance, Australia, Austria, Canada, Germany, Luxembourg, Norway and the United States have no areas of comparative weakness on the available indicators.

Among the outcomes addressing people's quality of life (which spans the dimensions of work-life balance, health, education, social connections, civic engagement and governance, environmental quality, personal safety and subjective well-being), there are similarly no countries that have strengths in all 15 indicators (Table 1.2). Norway, Switzerland, Finland, Iceland and Sweden are top-performers on at least two-thirds of quality-of-life outcomes. When it comes to weaknesses, Denmark, Norway and Sweden are the only three countries with no outcomes ranked in the bottom third of the OECD.

For OECD partner countries, the available data set for assessing current well-being is much more limited. Table 1.3 shows OECD-equivalent strengths and weaknesses – i.e. given

Table 1.3. **OECD-equivalent comparative strengths and weaknesses on current well-being, partner countries**

	Income and wealth		Jobs and earnings					Housing		
	Net household adjusted disposable income	Household net wealth	Employment rate	Average annual gross earnings per full-time employee	Labour market insecurity	Long-term unemployment rate	Job strain	Rooms per person	Housing affordability	Basic sanitation
Brazil	..	..	❸	..	..	..	..	..	..	❸
Colombia	..	..	❷	..	..	❶	..	❸	❶	..
Costa Rica	..	..	❸	..	..	❷	..	❸	❶	❷
Lithuania	❸	..	❷	❸	..	❸	❸	❷	❶	❸
Russian Federation	..	..	❷	..	..	❷	❸	❸	❶	❸
South Africa	..	..	❸	..	..	❸	❷	..	❶	❸

	Work-life balance		Health		Education			Social connections	Civic engagement and governance		Environmental quality		Personal safety		SWB *
	Working hours	Time off	Life expectancy	Perceived health	Educational attainment	Adult skills	Cognitive skills at 15	Social support	Having a say in government	Voter turnout	Water quality	Air quality	Homicides	Feeling safe	Life satisfaction
Brazil	❷	..	❸	..	❸	..	❸	❷	..	❶	❸	❷	❸	❸	..
Colombia	❸	..	❸	..	❸	..	❸	❷	..	❸	❸	❶	❸	❸	..
Costa Rica	❸	..	❸	..	❸	..	❸	❷	..	❷	❷	❶	❸	❸	..
Lithuania	❶	..	❸	❸	❶	❷	❸	❸	❶	❸	❸	❷	❸	❸	❸
Russian Federation	❶	..	❸	❸	❶	❷	❷	❷	❶	❷	❸	❷	❸	❸	..
South Africa	❸	❷	❸	..	❸	..	..	❸	..	❷	❸	❸	❸	❸	..

* SWB indicates subjective well-being.

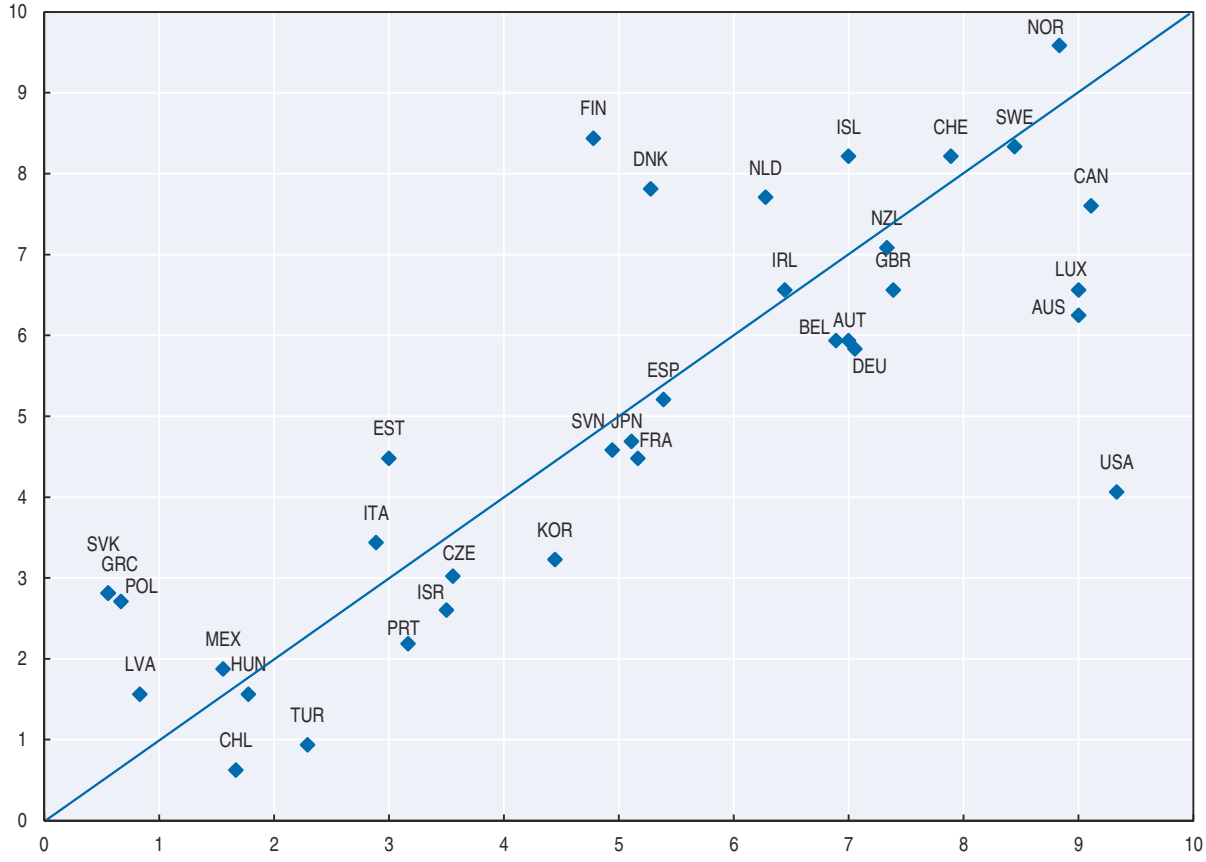
Note: The rankings shown in the table represent the "OECD-equivalent" rank – meaning that levels of achievement in partner countries are benchmarked against the top (1), middle (2) and bottom third (3) of OECD countries. Indicator definitions are available in Table 5.1, Chapter 5. All source data are provided in the *Online Data Annex: Current Well-Being* that accompanies this volume (*www.oecd-ilibrary.org/economics/how-s-life-2017_how_life-2017-en*).

their level of achievement, would partner countries fall within the top, middle or bottom third of OECD countries? Perhaps the most notable finding is that all partner countries perform well on housing affordability (with a comparatively low share of household disposable income spent on housing costs), while all have comparative weaknesses in terms of life expectancy, the homicide rate and feelings of safety. Partner countries' performance is most mixed in relation to long-term unemployment, working hours, educational attainment, voter turnout and air quality – where some countries are performing on a par with the top third of the OECD, while others are in line with the bottom third.

There is generally a strong relationship between comparative performance on material conditions and quality-of-life outcomes (Figure 1.3). Norway, Sweden, Canada and Switzerland have many comparative strengths across both the material conditions and quality-of-life domains (top right). Conversely, Chile, Turkey, Hungary, Mexico and Latvia (bottom left) have few comparative strengths in either material conditions or quality of life.

Figure 1.3. **Comparative performance on material conditions (*x*-axis) and quality of life (*y*-axis)**

OECD countries, latest available data



Note: Material conditions encompasses 10 indicators across 3 dimensions: income and wealth, jobs and earnings, and housing. Quality of life is measured through 15 indicators spanning 8 dimensions: work-life balance, health status, education and skills, social connections, civic engagement and governance, environmental quality, personal safety and subjective well-being. For each indicator, countries are "scored" according to their comparative performance (0 = bottom third of the OECD, 5 = middle third of the OECD, 10 = top third of the OECD). Scores are then averaged within dimensions (applying equal weights to each indicator), before then being averaged across dimensions (applying equal weights to each dimension in the material conditions and quality-of-life categories). Missing data points are excluded from each country's score, and thus scores may be heavily under- or over-estimated in the case of large data gaps. The blue diagonal line indicates where countries would fall if there were perfect correspondence in their performance on material conditions and quality of life.

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Countries above the blue diagonal line generally perform better on quality-of-life outcomes, relative to material conditions; the converse is true for those below the diagonal. Finland and Denmark, for example, have very high scores on quality of life, relative to their mid-ranking position on material conditions. By contrast, the United States, Australia, Luxembourg, the United Kingdom and Germany have a high number of comparative strengths on material conditions, compared to their relative position on quality of life indicators. Nevertheless, the top left and bottom right quadrants of Figure 1.3 are sparsely populated: no OECD country does well on quality of life without achieving a moderate level of material conditions, and vice versa.

Current well-being and inequality

Chapter 2 provides an overview of inequalities in well-being across OECD countries. Since there are many different ways to understand the question of "who gets what", the chapter offers several different approaches to measuring inequalities. These include "vertical inequalities", which focus on the size of the gap between people at the top and people at the bottom (for example, the average score of the top 20% on life satisfaction compared to the average score of those in the bottom 20%); "horizontal inequalities", which focus on gaps in average performance between specific population groups (such as men and women, or young and old); and "deprivations", which consider the share of people falling below a basic threshold of attainment.

Is there a relationship between average levels of performance on current well-being, and the dispersion of performance across the population? To explore this, we consider the measures of "vertical inequalities" developed in Chapter 2, since these summarise the overall dispersion of well-being scores (i.e. the size of the gap between the people at the top of the distribution and the people at the bottom). There are nine current well-being outcomes, listed in Table 1.4, for which it is possible to examine these "vertical inequalities".

Table 1.4. **Current well-being outcomes for which both average performance and inequalities can be measured**

Dimension	Outcome	Level indicator	Inequality indicator (vertical inequality)
Income and wealth	Household disposable income	Household net adjusted disposable income	S80/S20 household disposable income
	Household net wealth	Household net wealth	S90 household net wealth
Jobs and earnings	Earnings	Average annual gross earnings per full-time employee	P90/P10 gross earnings
Work-life balance	Working hours	Percentage of employees who usually work 50 hours or more per week	S80/S20 hours worked
Health status	Life expectancy	Life expectancy at birth	Standard deviation of age at death
Education and skills	Adult skills	PIAAC mean proficiency in literacy and numeracy	P90/P10 mean proficiency in literacy and numeracy
	Cognitive skills at age 15	PISA mean score in reading, science and maths	P90/P10 mean score in reading, science and maths
Civic engagement and governance	Having a say in government	Percentage of people aged 16-65 who feel that they have a say in what the government does	S80/S20 having a say in government
Subjective well-being	Life satisfaction	Mean value, 0-10 scale	S80/S20 life satisfaction

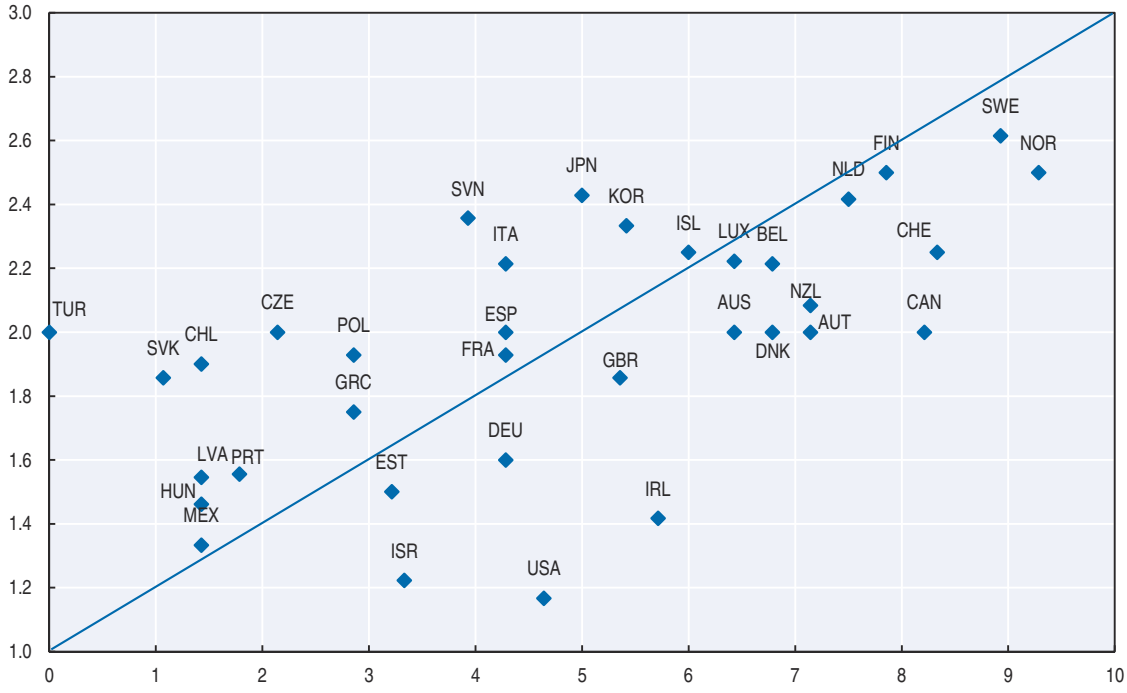
Note: Further details on the construction of the inequality indicators are provided in Chapter 2. More information about the definitions and units of measurement for the headline indicators is given in Chapter 5. S80/S20 refers to the ratio of the average outcome attained by the top 20% of the distribution, compared to the average outcome for the bottom 20%. The P90/P10 refers to the ratio between the outcome attained at the 90th percentile, and the outcome attained at the 10th percentile.

In general, inequalities across these indicators are highest in the United States, Israel and Mexico, and lowest in Sweden, Norway and Finland (see Chapter 2 for further details).

Figure 1.4 summarises the relationship between the average performance *levels* that countries achieve on these nine indicators and *the distribution* of those outcomes across the population. As with other analyses presented in this chapter, average performance is based on whether a given country falls within the top, middle or bottom third of the OECD on each indicator, while inequalities are understood as countries falling in the highest, middle and lowest third of the OECD.[4]

Figure 1.4. **The relationship between average performance and inequalities for a selection of 9 current well-being indicators**

Average performance (x-axis) on a 0-10 scale, plotted against average inequalities (y-axis) on a 1-3 scale



Note: For each of the 9 indicators, countries are "scored" for both their level of equality (1 = bottom third of the OECD, 2 = middle third of the OECD, 3 = top third of the OECD) and their level of average performance (0 = bottom third of the OECD, 5 = middle third, 10 = top third of the OECD). In dimensions with more than one indicator, indicators were summed using equal weights, and then overall results were calculated taking the simple average score across dimensions. The blue diagonal line indicates where countries would fall if there were perfect correspondence between their average level of performance and their average level of equality.

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The pattern of results in Figure 1.4 suggests that a higher average performance is generally associated with lower inequalities. Countries that combine a high level of average well-being with a low level of vertical inequality across these nine indicators include Norway, Sweden and Finland (top right). Conversely, countries with both low levels of average well-being and comparatively high levels of vertical inequality include Mexico, Hungary, Latvia and Portugal (bottom left). Countries above the blue diagonal line generally have more strengths in terms of equality than they do in terms of average performance: for example, Japan, Slovenia and Italy fall around the OECD midpoint in terms of overall average performance, but fare slightly better in terms of inequalities. By contrast, countries falling below the diagonal do better on average performance than on inequalities: for example, the

United States and Ireland combine mid-ranging levels of average performance with relatively high levels of inequality. The results of this analysis are, however, sensitive to the share of missing values, which is relatively high in the cases of Iceland, Mexico, Switzerland, Turkey and Japan.

Change in current well-being: Is life getting better for people?

In the last 10 years, several OECD countries have experienced major economic and political shocks. What has happened to people's well-being during this time? The analysis that follows examines recent changes in the headline indicators of current well-being, with a particular focus on whether life now is better or worse than it was in 2005, before the financial crisis took hold. Assessing changes over time in current well-being for the OECD as a whole is complicated by a number of factors, including infrequent data collections and methodological breaks that interrupt the time series data. Box 1.3 (below) describes the general approach adopted.

Box 1.3. **Assessing changes in current well-being**

Change over time can be assessed for all 10 material conditions indicators[1], and for 11 out of the 15 quality-of-life indicators. Nevertheless, limited country coverage, methodological breaks and incomplete time series mean that the OECD average often refers to a reduced set of countries. In the figures and tables below, the number of countries covered by the OECD average is indicated in brackets in the legend of the figures (e.g. OECD 33), and is typically population-weighted (as indicated in the figure notes). This procedure gives more weight to countries with a larger population, relative to those with a smaller population, and is applied in order to describe the experience of the "average OECD person" (rather than focusing on the "average OECD country"). Due to large amounts of missing data, changes in OECD partner countries' current well-being are not considered below. However, the country profiles in Chapter 5 provide detailed information on changes in average well-being for all 35 OECD countries and 6 partner countries.

The years covered typically range from 2005 to 2015/16 whenever possible. For measures that are collected on an infrequent basis in most countries (e.g. household net wealth, rooms per person, basic sanitation) or that capture phenomena that occur infrequently (e.g. voter turnout), the OECD average is computed over a multi-year period (such as 3 or 5 years) to maximise the number of countries included in the calculation. In the case of data sourced from the Gallup World Poll, a 3-year average is used so as to increase the sample size (typically limited to 1 000 people per country, per year) and reduce short-run volatility in the data. Similarly, exposure to outdoor air pollution by fine particulate matter ($PM_{2.5}$), used to assess air quality, is computed as a 3-year rolling average in line with the approach adopted in the OECD's Green Growth Indicators (OECD, 2017b).

Complete information about the time series for the OECD average and individual countries is detailed in the *Online Data Annex: Current Well-Being* that accompanies this publication (*www.oecd-ilibrary.org/economics/how-s-life-2017_how_life-2017-en*). Where the time series available for a given country spans fewer than 9 years, this country is excluded from the analyses shown in Figures 1.9 and 1.16, and counted as "missing" in Figures 1.10, 1.17 and 1.18. The two exceptions to this are household net wealth, where only two time-points are available in all countries; and upper secondary educational attainment, where only the 3 most recent years are considered, due to a major break in the series that affects most OECD countries.

Box 1.3. **Assessing changes in current well-being** *(cont.)*

In the summary figures that describe results across countries (Figures 1.9, 1.10, 1.16. 1.17 and 1.18), changes are calculated as the simple difference between 2005 and 2015 (or the closest years available). The categories "improving", "little or no change" and "worsening" are defined based on the thresholds detailed in the figure notes, and discussed in Annex 5.A. of Chapter 5. In a small number of indicators (most notably, access to basic sanitation, long-term unemployment, the incidence of long working hours, and the homicide rate) the very top-performing OECD countries have relatively little room for improvement. This can obviously therefore impact on the total number of improvements observed in those countries (e.g. Figures 1.10, 1.17 and 1.18)

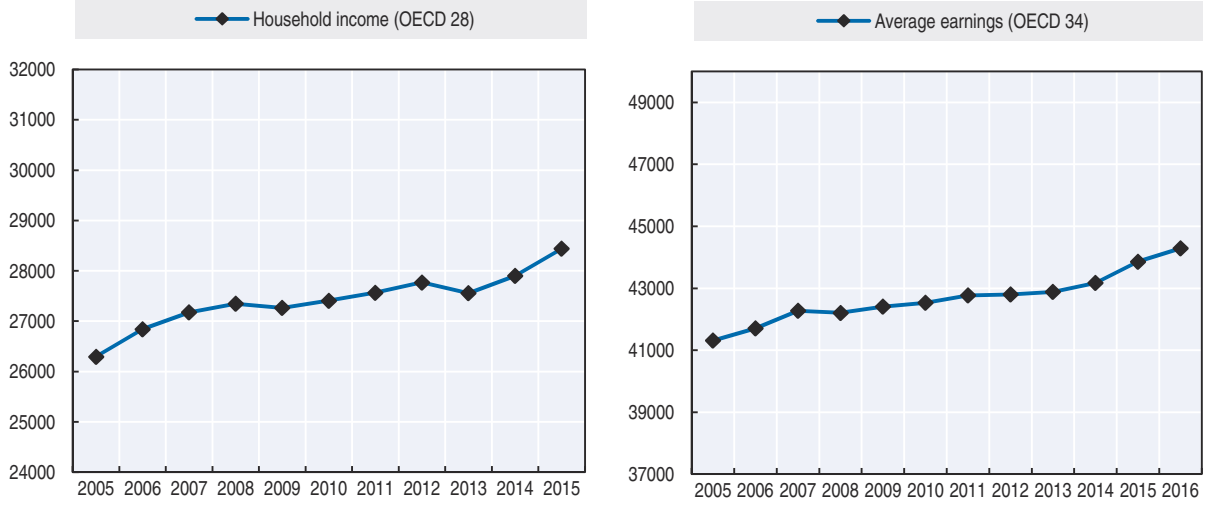
1. The OECD average change in household net wealth is difficult to characterise due to the scarcity of data, both within countries and over time. However, estimates are available for two years during the period 2008-16 for 16 countries, with the results summarised in Figure 1.9.

Change in material conditions

The decade between 2005 and 2015 has been a turbulent time for several aspects of material conditions in OECD countries – and particularly those relating to jobs. The OECD average household net adjusted disposable income was 8% higher, in real terms, in 2015 than in 2005, and average annual gross earnings per full-time employee were (in 2016) 7% higher (Figure 1.5). However, to put these findings in context, this represents only around half the cumulative growth rate observed between 1995 and 2005: while it would have taken around 40 years for OECD average income to double if it had grown at the rate observed in 1995-2005, it would now take 85 years if income kept rising at the rate recorded over the 2005-15 period.[5]

Figure 1.5. **OECD average household income and earnings, since 2005**

USD at 2010 PPPs, per capita, OECD 28 (left), and USD at 2016 PPPs, OECD 34 (right)



Note: The OECD average for household net adjusted disposable income is population-weighted, and excludes Chile, Iceland, Israel, Korea, Luxembourg, New Zealand and Turkey, due to incomplete time series. For earnings, the OECD average is weighted by the number of employees in each country, and excludes Turkey.

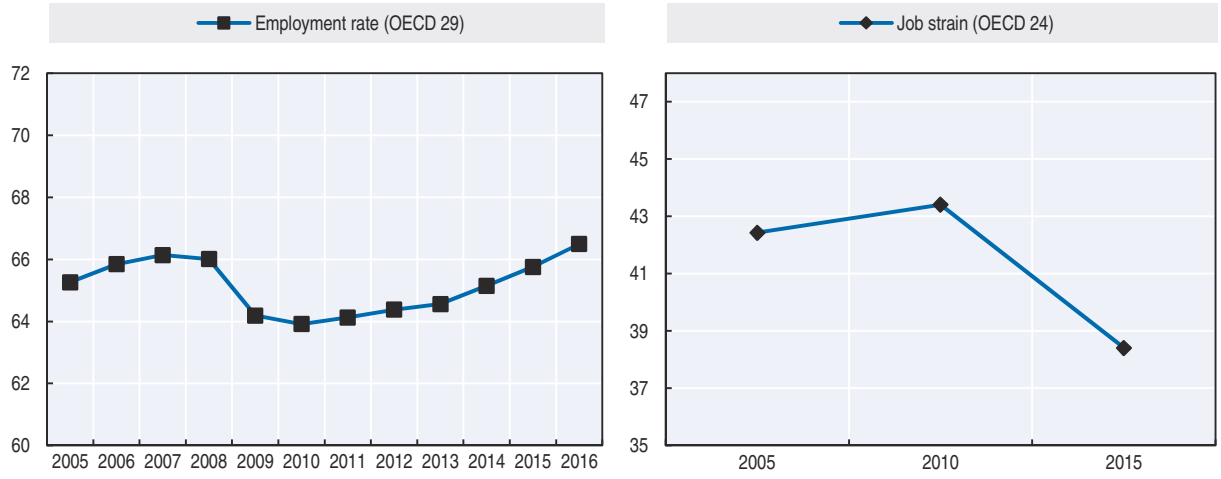
Source: For household income: OECD calculations based on *OECD National Accounts Statistics Database*, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/na-data-en*. For average earnings: *OECD Average annual wages Database*, *http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=AV_AN_WAGE*.

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The employment rate took a heavy hit in the early years of the crisis, and recovery has been relatively slow. It took 10 years for employment to return to 2005 levels, and the 2007 peak was only exceeded in 2016. When it comes to job quality, rather than quantity, the share of European OECD employees experiencing job strain rose from 42% in 2005 to 43% in 2010, before falling to 38% in 2015 (Figure 1.6).

Figure 1.6. **OECD average employment rate and job strain, since 2005**

Employed people aged 15-64 as a percentage of the population (left), share of employees experiencing job strain (right)



Note: The OECD average for employment is population-weighted, and excludes Chile, Germany, New Zealand, Norway, Portugal and Switzerland, due to breaks in the time series. The OECD average for job strain is population-weighted and excludes Australia, Canada, Chile, Iceland, Israel, Japan, Korea, Mexico, New Zealand, Switzerland and the United States, due to an incomplete time series.
Source: For employment: "Labour Force Statistics", *OECD Employment and Labour Market Statistics Database*, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/lfs-lfs-data-en*. For job strain: provisional (September 2017) estimates prepared for the *OECD Job quality Database*, *http://dotstat.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=JOBQ*.

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The OECD average labour market insecurity due to unemployment quadrupled between 2007 and 2009, fell sharply in 2010, and then gradually fell further in recent years – although in 2015 it was still around one-third higher than in 2007. The OECD average long-term unemployment rate fell from 2.1% to 1.5% between 2005 and 2008, then more than doubled to peak at 2.8% in 2013; it has since fallen back to 2005 levels, but not yet reached the pre-crisis low of 2008 (Figure 1.7).

Housing outcomes have improved for the average OECD resident, with the biggest gains made in access to basic sanitation: the average share of people living in a dwelling that lacks an indoor flushing toilet for the sole use of the household has fallen by around one-third.[6] The share of income spent on housing costs has fallen by around half a percentage point since 2005 (Figure 1.8), and in the countries where changes be assessed, the number of rooms per person in the average OECD home has also increased marginally, from 1.8 to 1.9.

The OECD average, however, masks the diversity of country experiences (Figure 1.9). More than half of all OECD countries have improved in terms of average earnings, household income and employment rates since 2005, but a significant share have seen little or no change in these measures, or are worse-off. For example, household income has fallen substantially relative to 2005 in Spain (by 6%), Italy (10%) and Greece (27%). Half of all OECD countries now perform worse on housing affordability and long-term unemployment than they did in 2005. The share of employees experiencing job strain has

Figure 1.7. **OECD average labour market insecurity and long-term unemployment, since 2005**

Percentage of the labour force unemployed for one year or more (left), average expected monetary loss associated with becoming and staying unemployed, as a share of previous earnings (right)

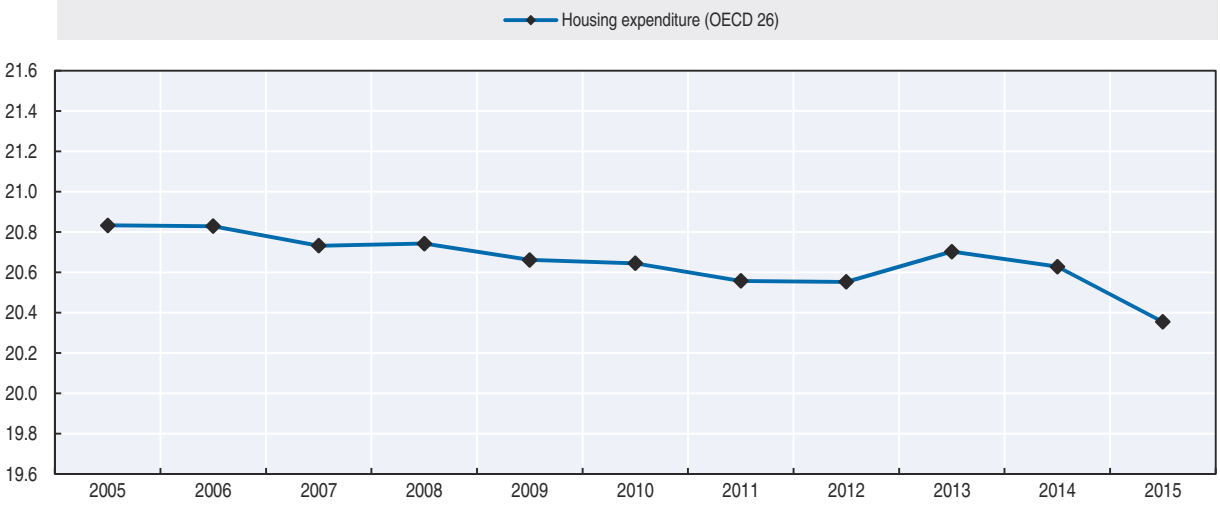


Note: For the long-term unemployment rate, the OECD average is population-weighted and excludes Chile, Germany, Israel, Luxembourg, New Zealand, Norway, Portugal, Sweden and Switzerland, due to incomplete time series. For labour market insecurity, the OECD average is population-weighted and excludes Chile, Korea, Latvia, Portugal, the Slovak Republic and Sweden, due to incomplete time series.
Source: For long-term unemployment: "Labour Force Statistics", *OECD Employment and Labour Market Statistics Database*, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/lfs-lfs-data-en*. For labour market insecurity: *OECD Job Quality Database*, *http://dotstat.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=JOBQ*.

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Figure 1.8. **OECD average housing affordability, since 2005**

Average expenditure on housing, as a percentage of household gross adjusted disposable income



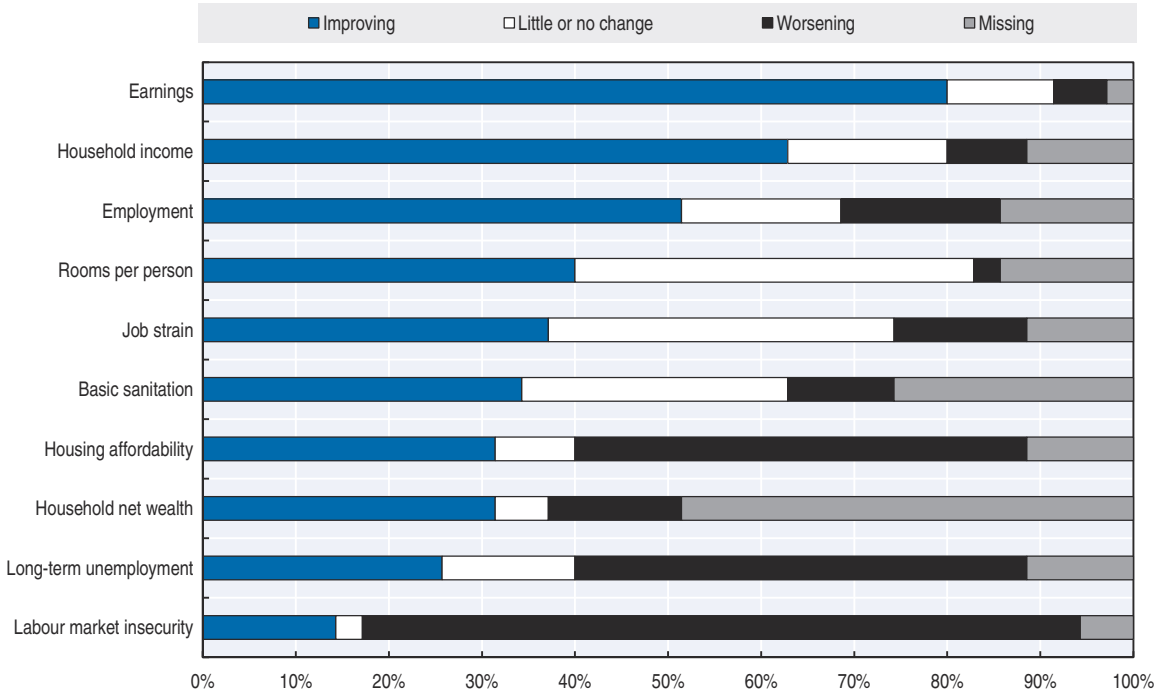
Note: The OECD average is population-weighted and excludes Chile, Iceland, Israel, Italy, Luxembourg, New Zealand, Norway, Switzerland and Turkey, due to incomplete time series for these countries.
Source: OECD calculations based on *OECD National Accounts Statistics Database*, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/na-data-en*.

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improved for around one-third of countries, but worsened in Switzerland, Greece, New Zealand, the United Kingdom and Australia. And while labour market insecurity in 2015 (when it was last measured) is generally higher than in 2007 (when it was first measured), it has improved for a very small group of countries. Overall, the countries where material conditions improved the most include Germany, Estonia, the Slovak Republic, Latvia and the Czech Republic (Figure 1.10).

Figure 1.9. **Changes in material conditions indicators, relative to 2005**

Share of OECD countries

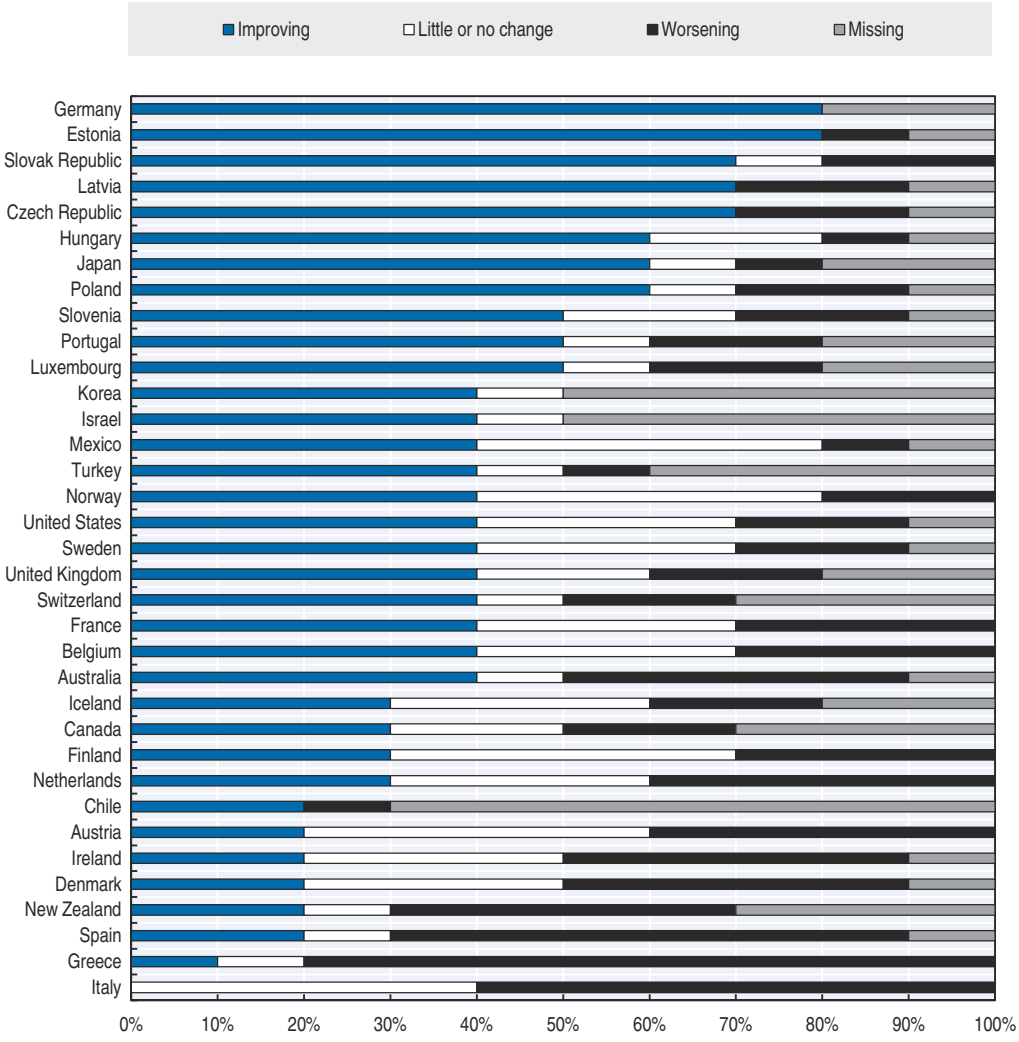


Note: Countries with fewer than 9 years' time series are excluded from this analysis, with the exception of net household wealth where only two observations are available for all countries. Changes are calculated as the simple difference between 2015 and 2005 (or closest years available) and are defined as values greater than or equal to the following thresholds: earnings +/- 1 000 USD; household income +/- 1 000 USD; employment +/- 1.0%; rooms per person +/- 0.1; job strain +/- 3.0%; basic sanitation +/- 0.4%; housing affordability +/- 0.4%; net wealth +/- 9 000 USD; long-term unemployment rate +/- 0.2; and labour market insecurity +/- 0.3. For further information, see Annex 5a, in Chapter 5. Further information can be found in the country profiles of Chapter 5, and full-time series information is available in the *Online Data Annex: Current Well-Being* that accompanies this volume (*www.oecd-ilibrary.org/economics/how-s-life-2017_how_life-2017-en*).

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Figure 1.10. **Countries' changes in selected material conditions outcomes, relative to 2005**

Share of indicators (out of 10 indicators in total)



Note: Change is shown as "missing" for countries with fewer than 9 years' time series, with the exception of net household wealth where only two observations are available for all countries. In a small number of indicators (most notably, access to basic sanitation, and long-term unemployment) the very top-performing OECD countries have relatively little room for substantial improvement. This can obviously therefore impact on the total number of improvements observed in these countries. Further information can be found in the country profiles of Chapter 5, and full-time series information is available in the *Online Data Annex: Current Well-Being* that accompanies this volume (*www.oecd-ilibrary.org/economics/how-s-life-2017_how_life-2017-en*).

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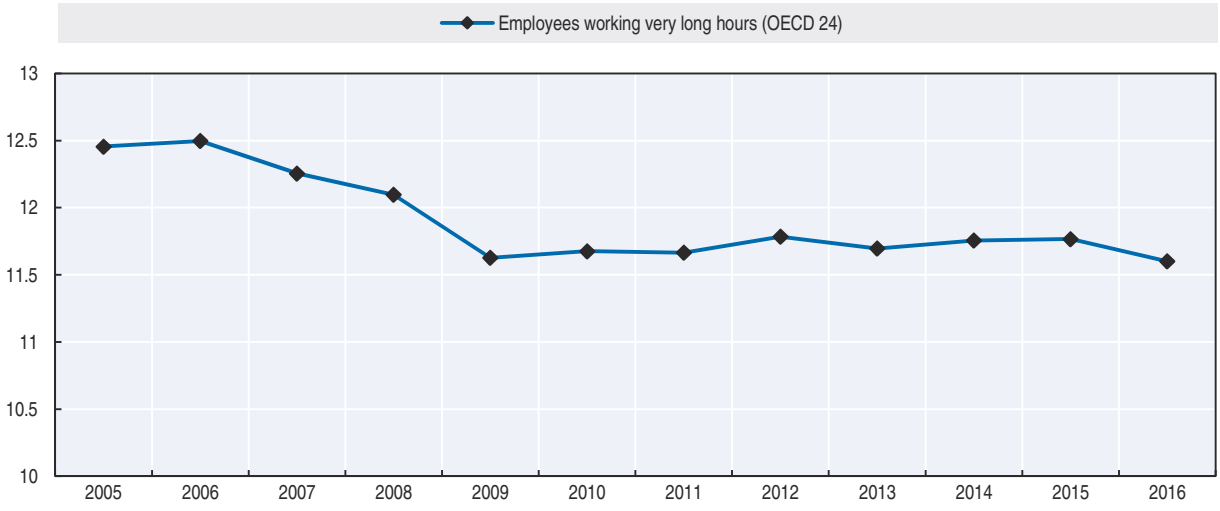
Change in quality of life

The OECD average share of employees working very long hours (50 or more per week) fell by nearly 1 percentage point between 2005 and 2009, and has remained relatively stable since then (Figure 1.11).

For the average OECD citizen, life expectancy at birth gained almost 2 years between 2005 and 2014. This gain stalled, however, in 2015, both for the OECD (population-weighted) average and in over half of all OECD countries. A slight increase in perceived health between 2005 and 2008 has failed to gain traction since then (Figure 1.12).

Figure 1.11. **OECD average employees working very long hours, since 2005**

Percentage of employees who usually work 50 hours or more per week

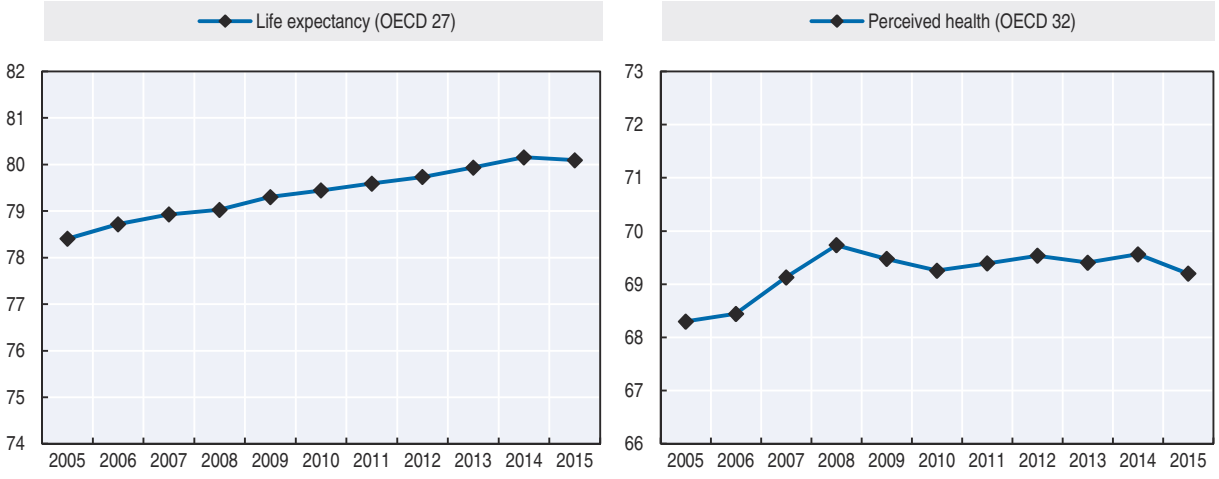


Note: The OECD average is population-weighted; it excludes Chile, Germany, Iceland, Israel, Japan, Korea, New Zealand, Norway, Portugal, Switzerland and Turkey, due to an incomplete time series and/or breaks in the data for these countries.
Source: OECD calculations based on "Labour Force Statistics", OECD Employment and Labour Market Statistics (database), *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/lfs-lfs-data-en*.

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Figure 1.12. **OECD average life expectancy and perceived health, since 2005**

Years (left) and percentage of adults reporting "good" or "very good" health (right)



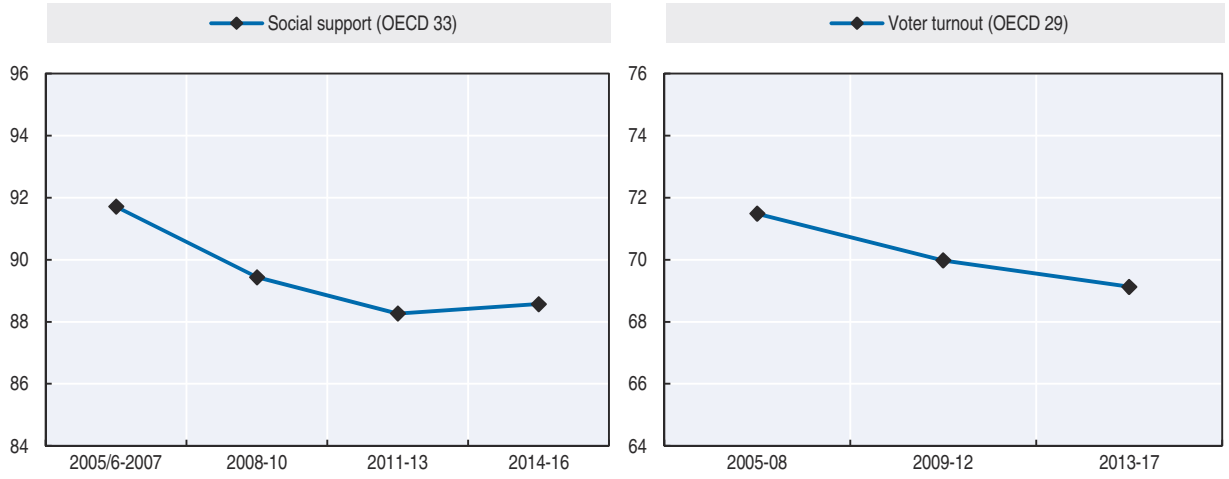
Note: For life expectancy, the OECD average is population-weighted and excludes Belgium, Canada, Hungary, Israel, Luxembourg, Poland, Slovenia and Turkey, due to incomplete time series for these countries. For perceived health, the OECD average time series has been estimated by interpolating missing data points in the time series for some countries. For each country, missing data have been replaced by the average of the closest preceding and following year. Countries have been included in the OECD average only if the times series contains at least 3 data points, and at least one of them refers to 2014 or 2015. The OECD average is population-weighted and excludes Chile and Switzerland (due to a break in the time series) and Mexico (for which only two data points are available).
Source: For life expectancy: "Health status", OECD Health Statistics database, *http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=HEALTH_STAT*. For perceived health: OECD calculations based on "Health status", OECD Health Statistics database, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/data-00540-en*, and INEC calculations based on the National Health Survey for Costa Rica.

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The 10-year change in educational attainment cannot be assessed due to a recent break in the data that affects most OECD countries. However, between 2013 and 2016, the percentage of adults with at least an upper secondary education increased by just over 1 percentage point, from 73.5 to 74.6. Social support (measured as the share of people who report having a friend or relative whom they can count on in times of trouble) fell from 92% in 2005-07 to 88% in 2014-16. Over the same period, the OECD average voter turnout rate (as a share of those registered to vote) also fell from 72% to 69% (Figure 1.13).

Figure 1.13. **OECD average social support and voter turnout, since 2005**

Percentage of people who have relatives or friends whom they can count on to help in case of need (left), percentage of votes cast among the population registered to vote (right)



Note: For social support, the OECD average for is population-weighted and excludes Iceland and Luxembourg, due to an incomplete time series. For voter turnout, the OECD average has been calculated across four-year periods. This required excluding Austria, Finland, Italy, Luxembourg and Mexico. Chile is also excluded since compulsory voting was dropped in 2012, introducing a break in the series.
Source: For social support: OECD calculations based on Gallup World Poll, *www.gallup.com/services/170945/world-poll.aspx*. For voter turnout: International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance (IDEA) (2017), *www.idea.int*, the register of the Supreme Electoral Tribunal for Costa Rica, and the Federal Statistical Office (FSO) of Switzerland.

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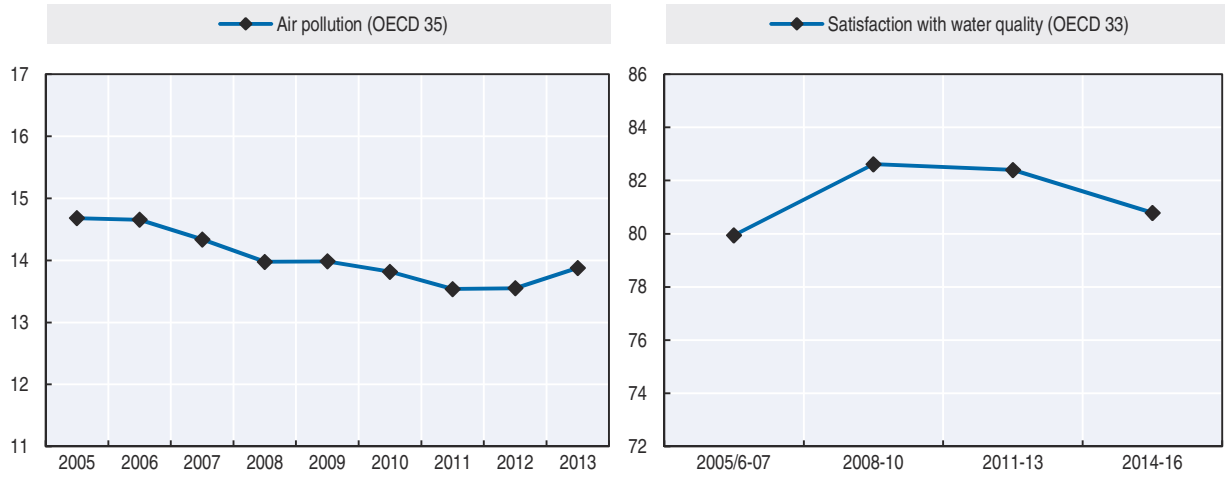
Both the OECD average exposure to air pollution and satisfaction with water quality improved in the first half of the decade, but worsened thereafter, eventually returning to near-2005 levels (Figure 1.14).

In the case of personal security, the share of people who feel safe when walking alone at night in the area where they live increased from 66% in 2005-07 to 69% in 2014-16 (Figure 1.15). However, the OECD average rate of deaths due to assault also increased from 3.4 to 3.9 per 100 000 people.[7] Since 2005, life satisfaction has declined slightly, with the average score (on a scale from 0 = "not at all satisfied" to 10 = "completely satisfied") falling from 6.7 in 2005-07 to 6.5 in 2014-16 (Figure 1.15).

As in the case of material conditions, the pattern of change for quality of life outcomes varies across countries, however (Figure 1.16). Among all the headline indicators for current well-being, life expectancy at birth is the only outcome that is higher today than in 2005 for every OECD country with available data (notwithstanding the recent fall in in 2015). Educational attainment has also increased in three-quarters of all countries – although since the 10-year change cannot be assessed due to a major break, this analysis considers only the three most recent years. Around half of all OECD countries have

Figure 1.14. **OECD average air pollution and satisfaction with water quality, since 2005**

Population-weighted exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations, micrograms per cubic metre, 3-year moving average (left), percentage of satisfied people in the overall population, (right)



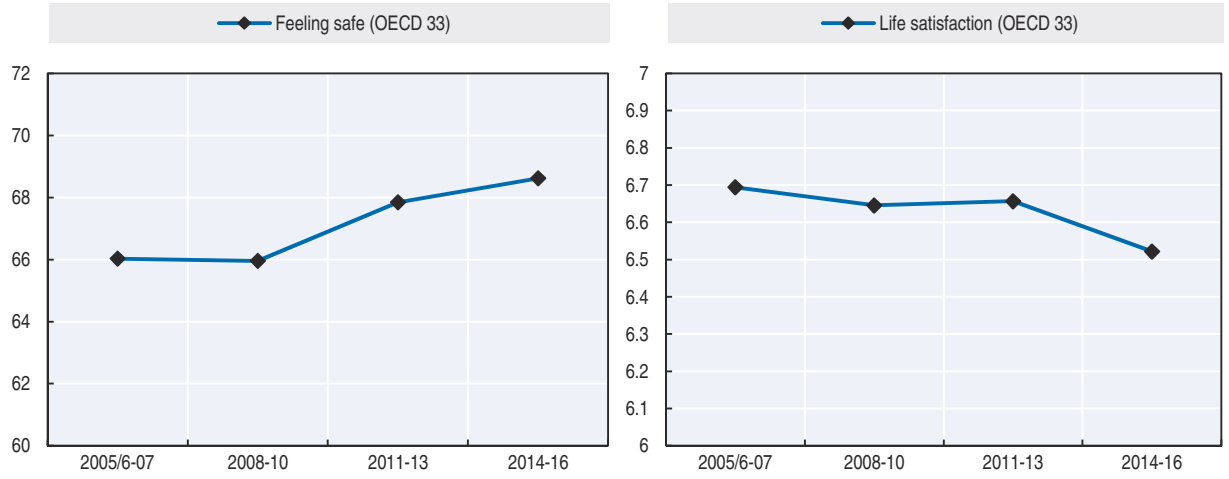
Note: For air pollution, values are 3-year moving averages. 2013 values are interpolated from 2012, 2013 and 2015, as estimates for 2014 are not available. The OECD average is population-weighted. For satisfaction with water quality, the OECD average is population-weighted and excludes Iceland and Luxembourg, due to incomplete time series for these countries.

Source: For air pollution: OECD calculations based on the *OECD Exposure to air pollution Database*, *http://dotstat.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=EXP_PM2_5*. For satisfaction with water quality: OECD calculations based on the Gallup World Poll, *www.gallup.com/services/170945/world-poll.aspx*.

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Figure 1.15. **OECD average feelings of safety and life satisfaction, since 2005**

Percentage of the population declaring feeling safe when walking alone at night in the city or area where they live (left), mean values of life satisfaction, on a 0-10 scale (right)



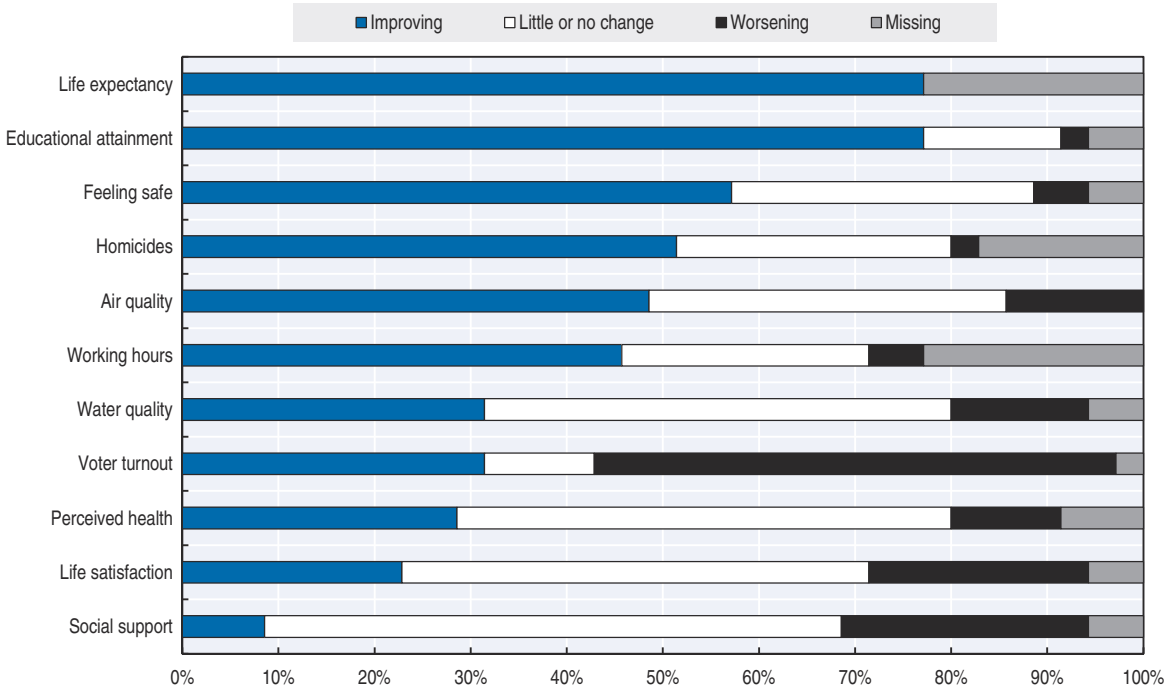
Note: The OECD averages are population-weighted and exclude Iceland and Luxembourg, due to incomplete time series.

Source: OECD calculations based on the Gallup World Poll, *www.gallup.com/services/170945/world poll.aspx*.

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Figure 1.16. **Changes in selected quality-of-life indicators, relative to 2005**

Share of OECD countries



Note: Countries with fewer than 9 years' time series are excluded from this analysis, with the exception of educational attainment where only the 3 most recent years are considered, due to a break in the time series for the majority of countries. Changes are calculated as the simple difference between 2015 and 2005 (or closest years available) and are defined as values greater than or equal to the following thresholds: life expectancy +/- 0.5 years; educational attainment +/- 0.5%; working hours +/- 0.6%; homicides +/- 0.3 per 100 000; feeling safe at night +/- 3.0; voter turnout +/- 1.0%; life satisfaction according to 95% confidence intervals, roughly equating to a change of around 0.2 or 0.3 scale points on a 0 to 10 scale; water quality +/- 3.0%; perceived health +/- 3.5%; and social support +/- 3.0%. For further information, see Annex 5a, in Chapter 5. Further information can be found in the country profiles of Chapter 5, and full-time series information is available in the *Online Data Annex: Current Well-Being* that accompanies this volume (*www.oecd-ilibrary.org/economics/how-s-life-2017_how_life-2017-en*).

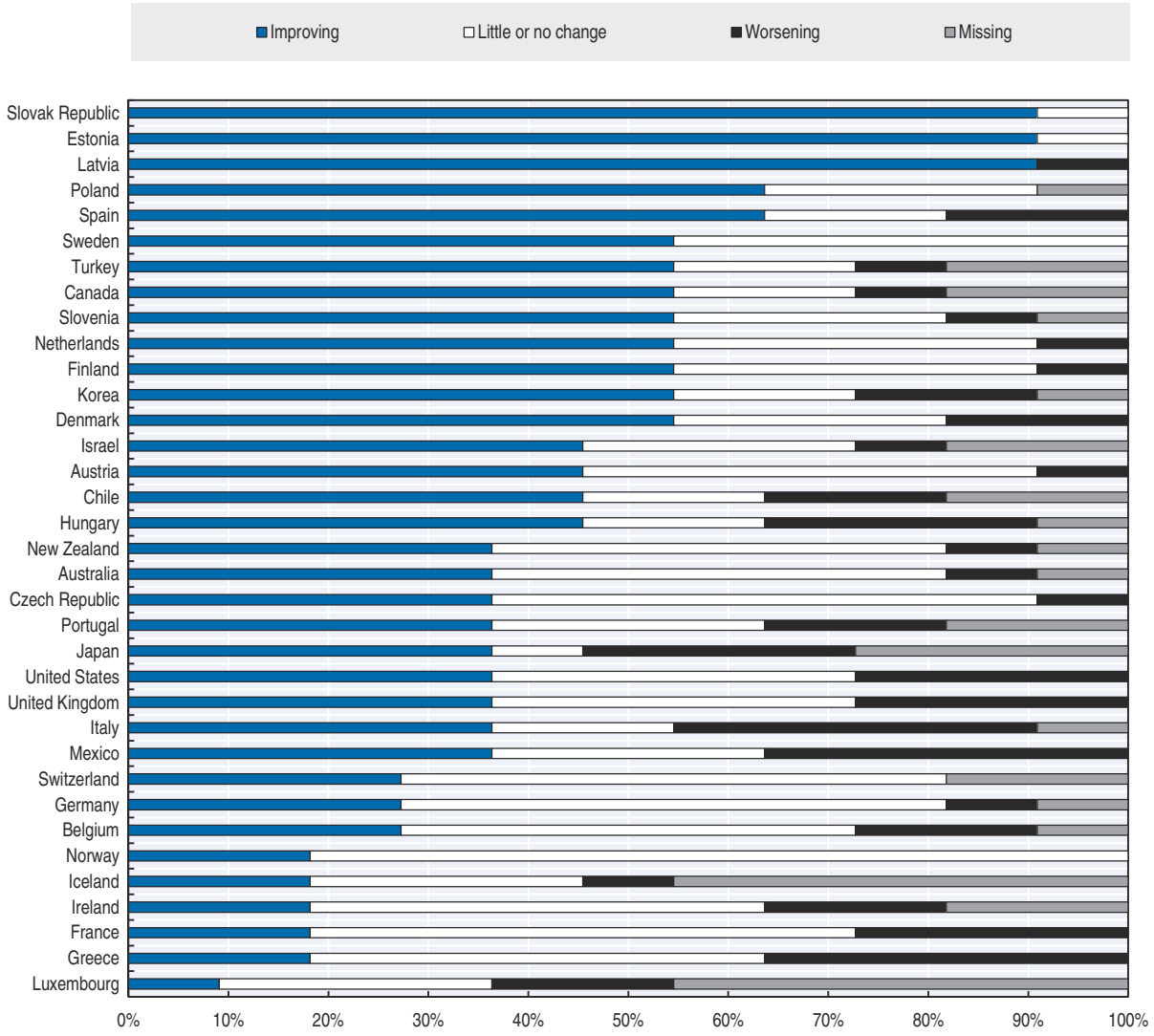
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experienced improvements in feelings of safety and in the homicide rate, while just under half have improved in terms of air quality and working hours since 2005. However, voter turnout is currently lower for just over half of OECD countries, and both life satisfaction and social support have each fallen in around one-quarter of countries. A small minority of countries (around 5) have experienced worsening air and water quality. Considered on a country-by-country basis (Figure 1.17), the Slovak Republic, Latvia, Estonia, Spain and Poland have experienced improvements in the largest number of quality of life indicators.

Looking at the combined improvements across all current well-being indicators, it becomes clear that while some countries have a balanced performance across both material conditions and quality of life, others have made more gains in one domain than in the other (Figure 1.18). For example, Estonia, the Slovak Republic and Latvia recorded a high number of improvements across both material conditions and quality of life. By contrast, in Luxembourg, Germany, France, Norway and the Czech Republic, improvements in material conditions outnumber those in quality of life by at least two-to-one. There are also countries where the inverse is true: in Italy, Spain, Denmark, Chile and Austria, at least two-thirds of all improvements have occurred among the quality-of-life indicators, rather than in material conditions. These patterns of change over time will, in part, reflect the

Figure 1.17. **Countries' changes in selected quality of life outcomes, relative to 2005**

Share of indicators (out of 11 indicators in total)



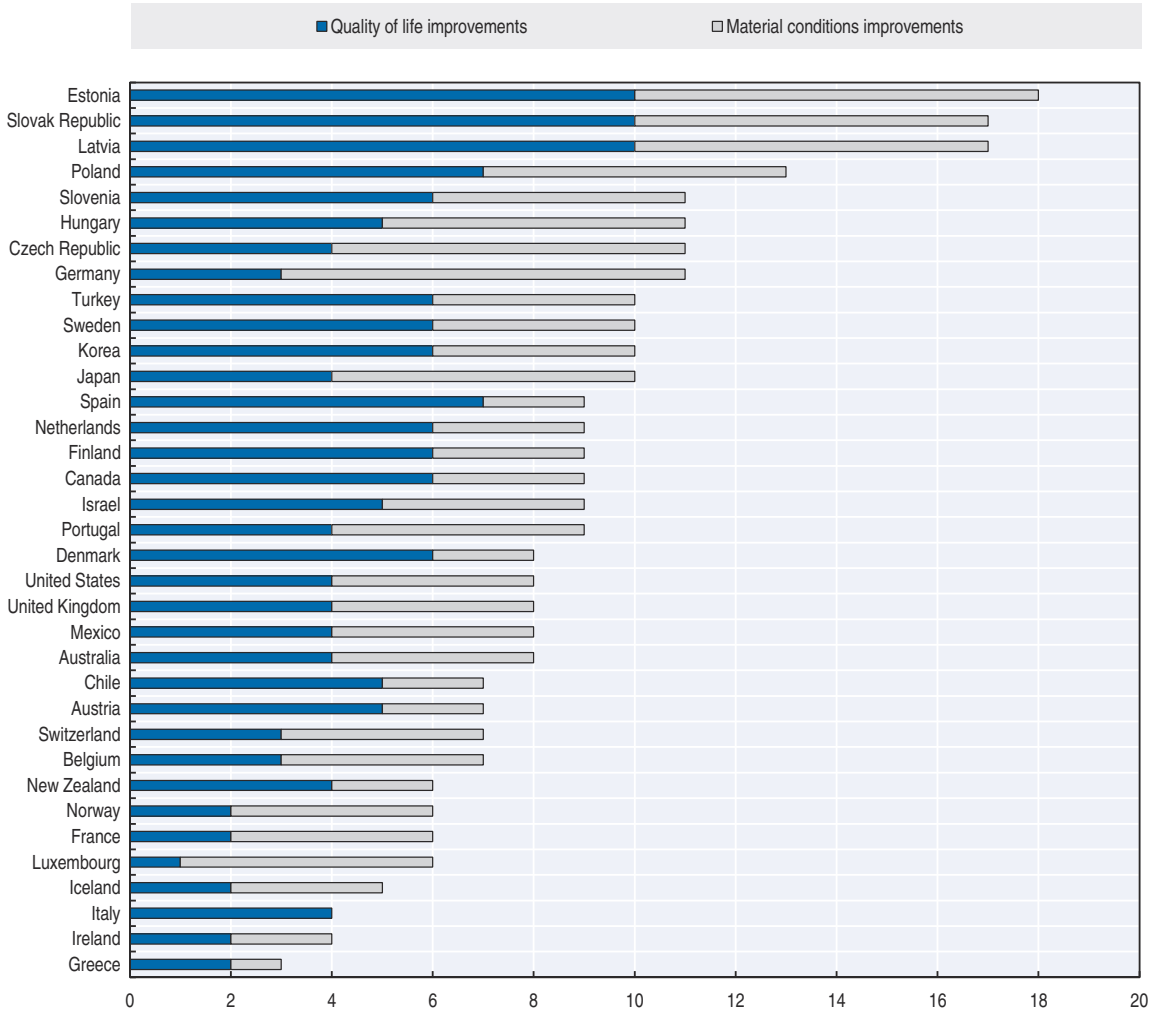
Note: Change is shown as "missing" for countries with fewer than 9 years' time series, with the exception of educational attainment where only the 3 most recent years are considered, due to a break in the time series for the majority of countries. In a small number of indicators (most notably, the incidence of long working hours, and the homicide rate) the very top-performing OECD countries have relatively little room for substantial improvement. This can obviously therefore impact on the total number of improvements observed in those countries. Further information can be found in the country profiles of Chapter 5, and full-time series information is available in the *Online Data Annex: Current Well-Being* that accompanies this volume (*ww.oecd-ilibrary.org/economics/how-s-life-2017_how_life-2017-en*).

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different starting positions of different countries on these indicators, since in a limited number of indicators (e.g. access to basic sanitation) the best-performing countries have relatively little room to improve further.

Figure 1.18. **Countries' improvements in current well-being, relative to 2005**

Number of indicators in which there have been net improvements since 2005



Note: This figure shows the total number of indicators in which there have been improvements since 2005. Missing data are not taken into account. Countries with more than 2 missing indicators of material conditions are: Chile (7 indicators missing), Israel and Korea (5), Turkey (4), Canada, New Zealand and Switzerland (3). Countries with more than 2 missing indicators on quality of life are: Luxembourg and Iceland (5 indicators missing) and Japan (3).

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Resources for future well-being: Taking stock in 2017

Alongside measures of current well-being (which focus on the outcomes that affect people's lives today), it is important to consider what is happening to the stocks of resources that will help to sustain well-being over time, for generations to come. *How's Life? 2015* introduced a new set of indicators to illustrate some of these stocks (described in terms of natural, human, economic and social capital), as well as a range of relevant flows (e.g. investments, depletions, emissions) and risk factors that may affect how these stocks evolve over time (Table 1.5). In this edition, these indicators are presented as a dashboard, featured on page 3 of each country profile in Chapter 5. The dashboards provide a country-level summary of whether a given indicator falls within the top, middle or bottom third of OECD countries, as well as (where possible) whether the level of each indicator has improved or worsened since 2005.

Table 1.5. **Resources for future well-being indicators considered in this chapter**

Type of capital	Indicators related to the "stock" of capital	Indicators related to flows (investment in, and depletion of, capital stocks)	Indicators related to risk factors
Natural capital	Exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution*	Greenhouse gas emissions from domestic production	
	Forest area	CO_2 emissions from domestic consumption	
	Renewable freshwater resources	Freshwater abstractions	
	Threatened mammals		
	Threatened birds		
	Threatened plants		
Human capital	Young adults' educational attainment (aged 25-34)	Educational expectancy	Long-term unemployment*
	Cognitive skills at 15*		Smoking prevalence
	Adult skills*		Obesity prevalence
	Life expectancy at birth*		
Economic capital	Produced fixed assets	Gross fixed capital formation	Financial net worth of the total economy
	Intellectual property assets	Investment in R&D	Banking sector leverage
	Household net wealth*		Household debt
	Financial net worth of government		
Social capital	Trust in others	Volunteering through organisations	
	Trust in the police	Voter turnout*	
	Trust in the national government	Government stakeholder engagement	

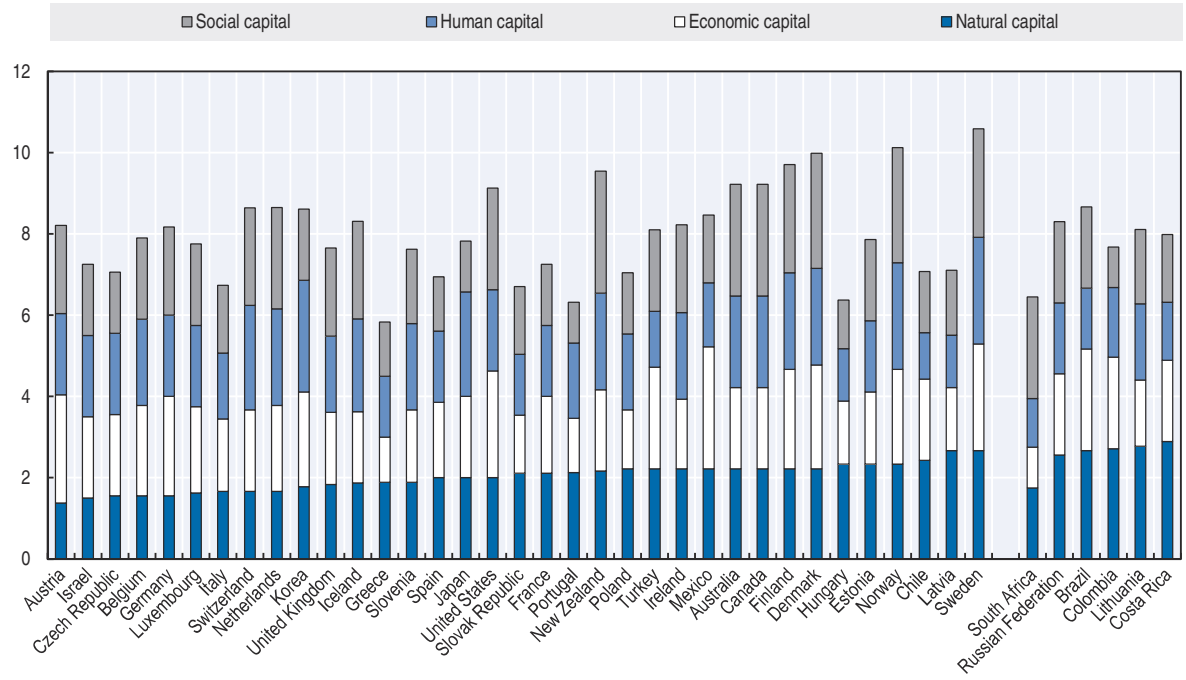
Note: * denotes indicators also included in the current well-being indicator set, since it is relevant both for well-being today and for the stocks of resources shaping future well-being.

A number of these indicators are common to both the measurement of current well-being and its sustainability over time – since in several cases, the same outcomes that are relevant to well-being "here and now" can also serve as a store of value (and/or be a risk factor) for future well-being. Specifically, measures common to both indicator sets are: exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution; cognitive skills at age 15; adult skills; life expectancy at birth; long-term unemployment; household net wealth; and voter turnout. In addition, while the headline indicators for current well-being consider the educational attainment of the total working-age population, the upper secondary attainment rates of young adults (aged 25-34) is identified as particularly relevant to the stock of human capital that will be carried forward into the future.

Figure 1.19 summarises countries' numbers of comparative strengths and weaknesses across each of the four types of capital. Overall, Sweden, Norway, Denmark, Finland and New Zealand have the highest number of strengths across all the indicators of resources for future well-being, with a reasonably balanced spread across the four capitals. By contrast, Greece, Portugal, Hungary, the Slovak Republic and Italy have the lowest number comparative strengths, often with some imbalances between the different types of resources (e.g. Portugal and Hungary perform moderately well on natural capital, but have more weaknesses in relation to social capital). The comparative performance of several OECD partner countries is also reasonably strong, particularly in relation to their natural capital.

Nevertheless, comparative strengths and weaknesses are only one aspect of monitoring resources for future well-being: if all OECD countries are performing poorly, being the "best of a bad bunch" offers little comfort. Similarly, if all OECD countries are doing well on a given indicator, being the worst-performer does not necessarily signal a grave concern. This calls for a more nuanced view of stocks of resources, focusing on target levels and tipping points,

Figure 1.19. **Countries' comparative performance on resources for future well-being**



Note: Countries are ranked by their comparative performance on natural capital. To calculate levels of comparative performance, countries' position on each indicator has been "scored" (1 = bottom third of OECD countries, 2 = middle third of OECD countries, 3 = top third of OECD countries), and the simple average score for each capital has then been calculated (with each indicator weighted equally). The minimum score is therefore 4, while the maximum score is 12. Indicators within each dimension have been weighted equally, with missing data excluded from the analysis.

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rather than placing too much emphasis on a country's comparative position vis-a-vis the rest of the OECD. It also underscores the importance of a dynamic approach, focusing on how capital stocks, flows and risk factors change over time, rather than just their initial levels.

Change in resources and risks for future well-being over the past 10 years

Data for assessing changes in natural, human, economic and social capital are more limited than is the case for current well-being, but the methods adopted for assessing change remain similar to those used earlier (Box 1.4).

Box 1.4. **Assessing changes in resources for future well-being**

In the case of resources for future well-being, some data on change are available for all 9 indicators of economic capital, but only for 4 out of 9 indicators of natural capital, 5 out of 8 indicators of human capital, and 2 out of 6 indicators of social capital. However, as is the case with current well-being, limited country coverage or incomplete time series mean that the OECD average often refers to a reduced set of countries – indicated in brackets in the legend of each figure (e.g. OECD 33). The OECD average is typically population-weighted, with exceptions reported in the figure notes, in order to capture the experience of the OECD average *person* (rather than the OECD average country). Due to large amounts of missing data, changes in OECD partner countries' resources for future well-being are not considered below. However, the country profiles in Chapter 5 provide detailed change information for all 35 OECD countries and 6 partner countries.

Box 1.4. **Assessing changes in resources for future well-being** *(cont.)*

The years covered typically range from 2005 to 2015/16 whenever possible. For measures that are collected on an infrequent basis in most countries (e.g. household net wealth, obesity prevalence, smoking prevalence) or that capture phenomena that occur infrequently (e.g. voter turnout), the OECD average is computed over a multi-year period to increase the number of countries included in the calculation. In the case of data on trust in the national government sourced from the Gallup World Poll, a 3-year average is used to increase the sample size (typically limited to 1 000 people per country, per year) and to reduce short-run volatility in the data.

For the indicators that are common to both the headline indicator set for current well-being *and* resources for future well-being (i.e. exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution; cognitive skills at age 15; adult skills; life expectancy at birth; long-term unemployment; household net wealth; and voter turnout), information on change since 2005 is generally not repeated in the analysis that follows. However, these indicators are included in the summaries at the end of each section.

In the summary figures that describe results across countries (Figures 1.21, 1.23, 1.28, 1.30. 1.A.3 to 1.A.4), changes are calculated as the simple difference between 2005 and 2015 (or the closest years available). The categories "improving", "little or no change" and "worsening" are defined based on the thresholds detailed in the figure notes, and discussed in Annex 5.A. of Chapter 5.

Complete information about the time series for the OECD average and the individual countries is detailed in the *Online Data Annex: Current Well-Being* and the *Online Data Annex: Resources for Future Well-Being* that accompany this volume (*www.oecd-ilibrary.org/economics/how-s-life-2017_how_life-2017-en*).

Natural capital

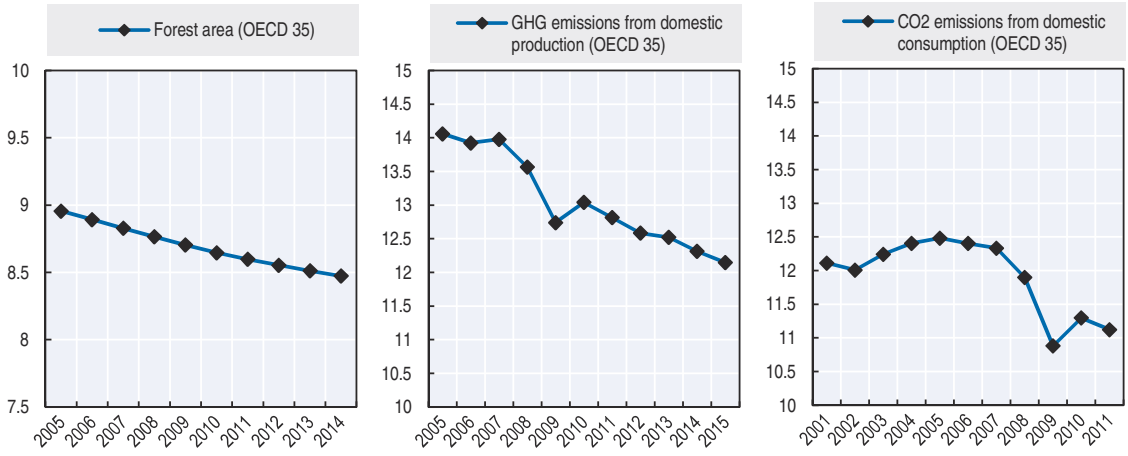
The total stock of forest area in the OECD, when measured per 1 000 people, has fallen by around 5% since 2005 (Figure 1.20). This is driven by falls in around one-fifth of OECD countries, while the majority have seen little or no change (Figure 1.21). OECD average greenhouse gas emissions from domestic production fell by 14% between 2005 and 2015 – but increased in 5 OECD countries. More experimental measures of carbon dioxide emissions from domestic *consumption* (which take the effects of international trade into account) recorded a lesser fall, of around 8%, between 2001 and 2011 (the latest years available) – and increased in 8 countries overall. Finally, the OECD average exposure to outdoor air pollution by fine particulate matter ($PM_{2.5}$) – which affects current well-being through the quality of the air breathed today, as well as future well-being through long-term exposure risks – improved in the years to 2011, but has since returned to 2005 levels (Figure 1.14, above). On a country-by-country basis (Figure 1.21 and Figure 1.A.1 in Annex 1.A), air pollution improved for around half of all OECD countries, and remained stable or worsened for the other half.

Human capital

Several of the indicators used to assess current well-being also form a core part of the human capital indicator set: adult skills, cognitive skills at age 15, life expectancy at birth and long-term unemployment. Of the indicators unique to resources for future well-being, the 10-year change in the educational attainment rate among adults aged 25-34 cannot be assessed due to a significant break in the data for most OECD countries in 2013. However, between 2013 and 2016, the share of young adults with at least an upper secondary

Figure 1.20. **OECD average in selected natural capital indicators, since 2005**

Forest area in square kilometres per thousand people (left), greenhouse gas emissions in tonnes per capita CO_2 equivalent (middle), and CO_2 emissions in tonnes per capita (right)



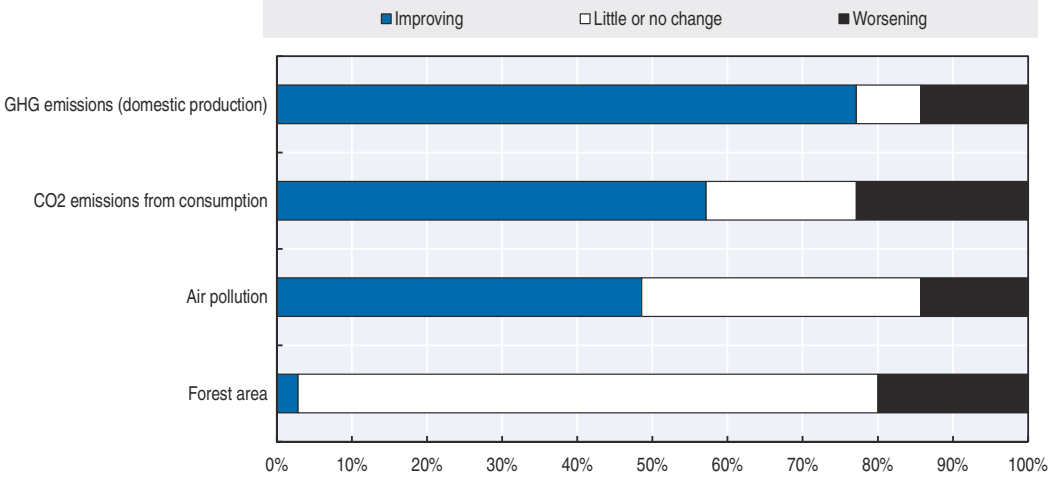
Note: For detailed figure notes, see the *Online Data Annex: Resources for Future Well-Being* (*www.oecd-ilibrary.org/economics/how-s-life-2017_how_life-2017-en*).

Source: For forest area: OECD calculations based on "Land Resources", OECD Environment Statistics database, *http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=LAND_USE*. For greenhouse gas emissions from domestic production: "Greenhouse gas emissions by source", OECD Environment Statistics database, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/data-00594-en*. For CO_2 emissions from domestic consumption: "Carbon Dioxide Emissions embodied in International Trade", OECD Structural Analysis (STAN) Databases, *http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=IO_GHG_2015*.

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Figure 1.21. **Change in selected natural capital indicators, relative to around 2005**

Share of OECD countries



Note: Changes are calculated as the simple difference between 2015 and 2005 (or closest years available) and defined as values greater than or equal to the following thresholds: GHG emissions from domestic production +/- 0.5 tonnes per capita; CO_2 emissions from consumption +/- 0.5 tonnes per capita; exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution +/- 1.0 micrograms per cubic metre; and forest area +/- 0.5 square kilometres per 1 000 people. For further information, see Annex 5a in Chapter 5, and for full time series data see the *Online Data Annex: Current Well-Being*, and *Online Data Annex: Resources for Future Well-Being* that accompany this report (*www.oecd-ilibrary.org/economics/how-s-life-2017_how_life-2017-en*).

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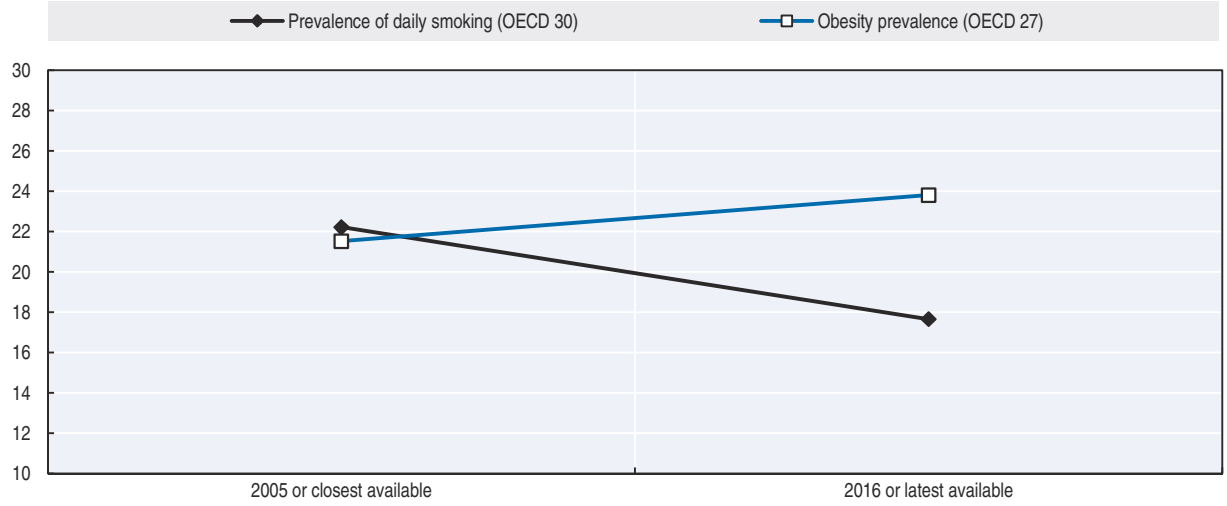
education increased from 79.4% to 80.7%. Educational expectancy information is available only for 2015.

Smoking and obesity are human capital risk factors, since they may affect people's health status in the future. The share of the OECD population who report that they smoke

on a daily basis has fallen from 22.2% in 2005 to just under 17.7% in 2016 (Figure 1.22). At the same time, obesity has increased, with the share of the OECD population affected rising, from 21.5% to 23.8%.

Figure 1.22. **OECD average smoking and obesity prevalence, since 2005**

Share of the population aged 15 and over



Note: For smoking prevalence, the OECD average is population-weighted and excludes Chile, Finland, Ireland, Mexico and the Netherlands, due to insufficient time series data. For obesity prevalence, the OECD average is population-weighted and excludes Chile, Finland, Germany, Iceland, the Netherlands, New Zealand, the Slovak Republic and Turkey.

Source: "Non-medical determinants of health", *OECD Health Statistics Database*, *http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=HEALTH_LVNG*.

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Looking across the set of human capital indicators, the number of countries experiencing improvements is largest in relation to smoking prevalence and life expectancy at birth, where at least four-fifths of OECD countries have improved since 2005. By contrast, long-term unemployment has worsened in around half of all OECD countries, and obesity has risen in 60% (Figure 1.23, and Figure 1.A.2 in Annex 1.A).

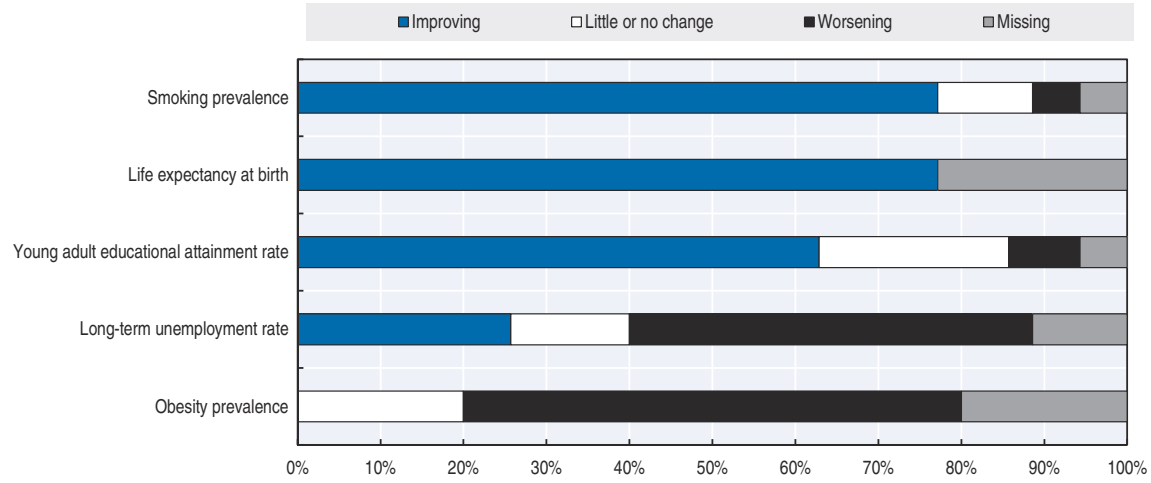
Economic capital

Information on changes in economic capital since 2005 is available for the full set of indicators considered in this report in only a small majority of (mostly European) OECD countries. On average, these countries have experienced growth in the volume of their produced fixed assets, the value of intellectual property assets, and the share of GDP invested in R&D (Figures 1.24 and 1.25) between 2005 and 2015. However, produced fixed assets fell in 2008-09, with comparatively weak growth since then – as shown by the sharp drop in gross fixed capital formation (the only indicator in this group for which information is available in all OECD countries), which underwent a dramatic downturn between 2007 and 2009, and in 2015 still remained two percentage points lower than in 2005.

A country's net foreign asset position relative to the rest of the world is also relevant to the stability of the economic system. The average financial net worth of the total OECD economy, measured on a per capita basis, switched from negative to positive from 2013 onwards (Figure 1.26), largely due to a recent positive shift in the United States. By contrast, between 2005 and 2015, the financial net worth of the general government sector fell for the OECD on average, from around -42% of GDP in 2005 to -72% in 2015, mainly as a result

Figure 1.23. **Change in selected human capital indicators, relative to around 2005**

Share of OECD countries

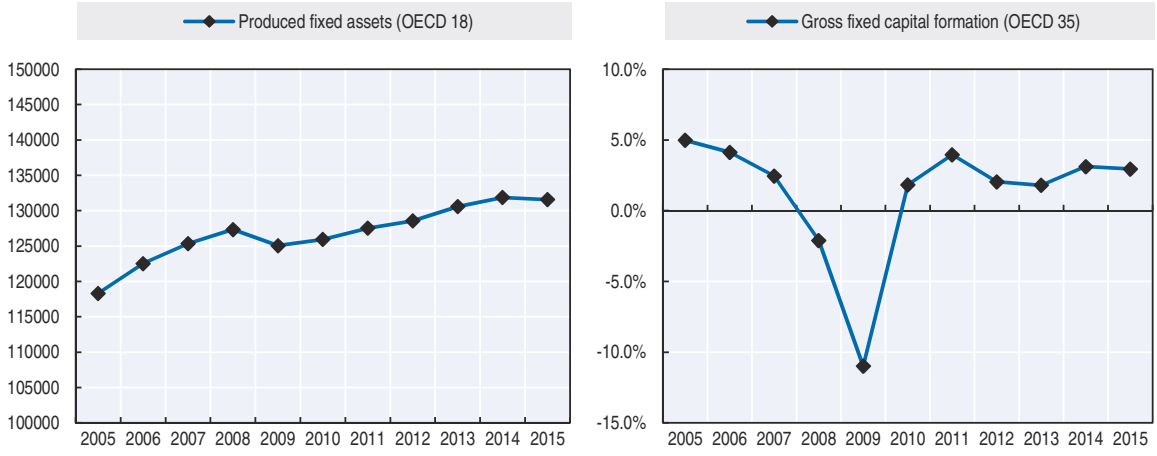


Note: Countries with fewer than 9 years' time series are excluded from this analysis, with the exception of educational attainment where only the 3 most recent years are considered, due to a break in the time series for the majority of countries. Changes are calculated as the simple difference between 2015 and 2005 (or closest years available) and defined as values greater than or equal to the following thresholds: life expectancy at birth +/- 0.5 years; young adult educational attainment +/- 0.5 percentage points; long-term unemployment +/- 0.2 percentage points; obesity +/- 1.0 percentage points; smoking +/- 1.0 percentage points. For further information, see Annex 5a, in Chapter 5, and for full time series data see the *Online Data Annex: Current Well-Being*, and *Online Data Annex: Resources for Future Well-Being* that accompany this report (*www.oecd-ilibrary.org/economics/how-s-life-2017_how_life-2017-en*).

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Figure 1.24. **OECD average produced fixed assets and gross fixed capital formation, since 2005**

USD at 2010 PPPs, per capita (left), and year on year growth rates (right)



Note: For produced fixed assets, Purchasing Power Parities (PPPs) are those for GDP. The OECD average is population-weighted; it excludes Belgium, Chile, Estonia, Greece, Hungary, Iceland, Ireland, Latvia, Mexico, New Zealand, Norway, Poland, Portugal, the Slovak Republic, Spain, Switzerland and Turkey, due to incomplete time series.

Source: For produced fixed assets: OECD calculations based on "9B. Balance sheets for non-financial assets", *OECD National Accounts Statistics Database*, *http://dotstat.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=SNA_TABLE9B*. For gross fixed capital formation: *OECD National Accounts Statistics Database*, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/na-data-en*.

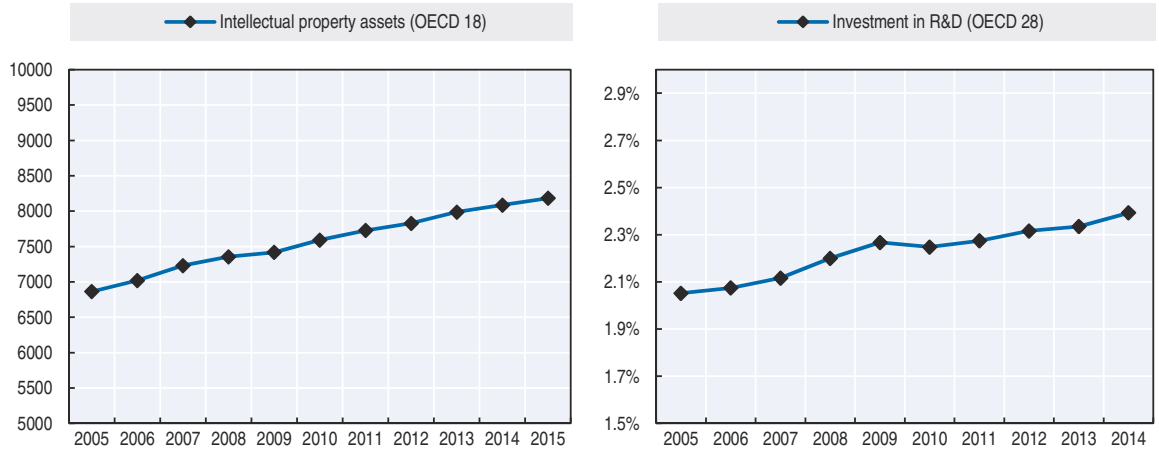
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of the impact of the recession on tax revenues and fiscal deficits and due to public support provided to an ailing banking sector.

Rising levels of debt over extended periods of time also imply risks for economic sustainability. The OECD average household debt, as a share of household disposable

Figure 1.25. **OECD average intellectual property assets and investment in R&D, since 2005**

USD per capita at 2010 PPPs (left), and as a percentage of GDP (right)



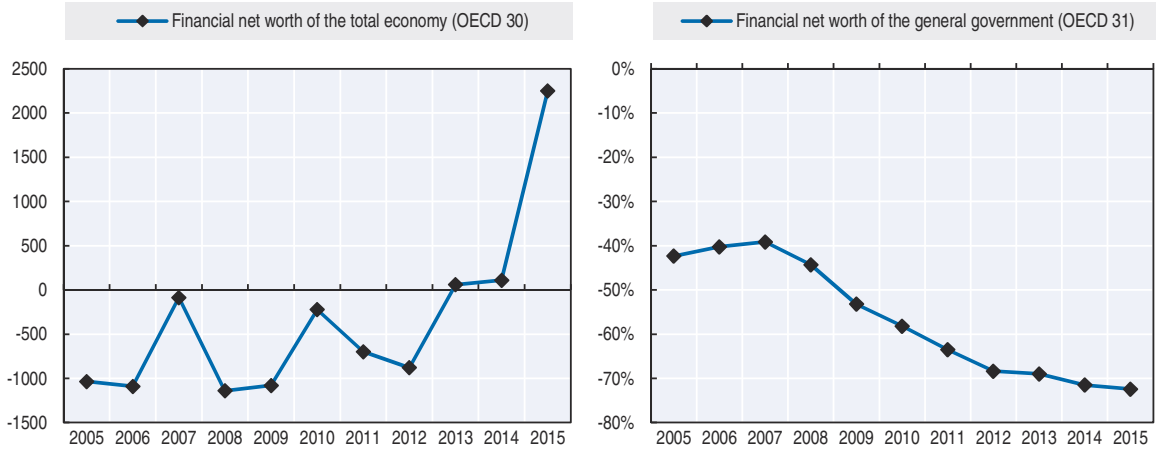
Note: For intellectual property assets, Purchasing Power Parities (PPPs) are those for GDP; the OECD average is population-weighted, and excludes Belgium, Chile, Estonia, Greece, Hungary, Iceland, Ireland, Latvia, Mexico, New Zealand, Norway, Poland, Portugal, the Slovak Republic, Spain, Switzerland and Turkey, due to incomplete time series. For investment in R&D the OECD average is weighted by the shares of GDP; it excludes Chile, Iceland, Italy, Mexico, Switzerland, Turkey and the United States due to incomplete time series.

Sources: For intellectual property assets: OECD calculations based on *OECD National Accounts Statistics Database*, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/na-data-en*. *For investment in R&D:* OECD calculations based on "8A. Capital formation by activity ISIC rev4", *OECD National Accounts Statistics Database*, *http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=SNA_TABLE8A* and the Russian Federal State Statistics Service.

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Figure 1.26. **OECD average financial net worth of the total economy and financial net worth of the general government, since 2005**

USD per capita at current PPPs (left); as a percentage of GDP (right)



Note: For the financial net worth of the total economy, Purchasing Power Parities (PPPs) are those for GDP; the OECD average is population-weighted and excludes Japan, Korea, Mexico, New Zealand and Turkey, due to incomplete time series. For the financial net worth of the general government, the OECD average is population-weighted and excludes Korea, Mexico, New Zealand and Turkey, due to incomplete time series.

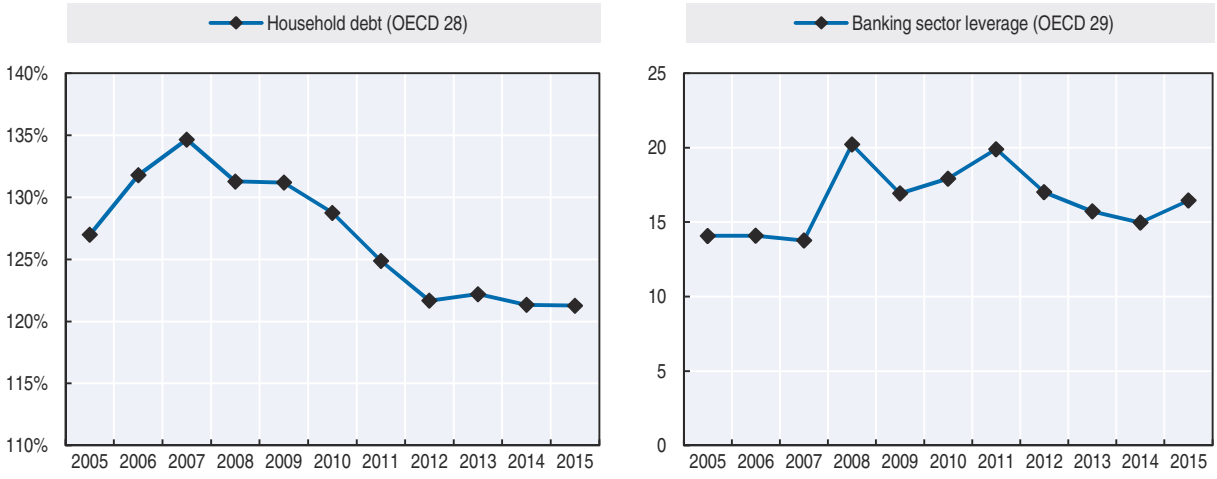
Source: For financial net worth of the total economy: OECD calculations based on *OECD National Accounts Statistics Database*, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/na-data-en*. For financial net worth of the general government: *OECD Financial dashboard Database*, *http://dotstat.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=FIN_IND_FBS*.

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income, rose in 2005-07, before falling until 2012 and stabilising thereafter (Figure 1.27). The leverage of the banking sector has been more volatile over the period, peaking in 2008 and again 2011, and currently weighing in at 17% higher than in 2005.

Figure 1.27. **OECD average household debt and banking sector leverage, since 2005**

As a percentage of net disposable income (left), ratio of selected assets to own equity (right)



Note: For household debt, the OECD average is weighted by the household net disposable income and excludes Iceland, Israel, Korea, Luxembourg, Mexico, New Zealand and Turkey, due to incomplete time series. For banking sector leverage, the OECD average is population-weighted and excludes the Czech Republic, Iceland, Korea, Mexico, New Zealand, Switzerland and Turkey, due to incomplete time series.

Source: *OECD Financial dashboard* (database), *http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=FIN_IND_FBS.*

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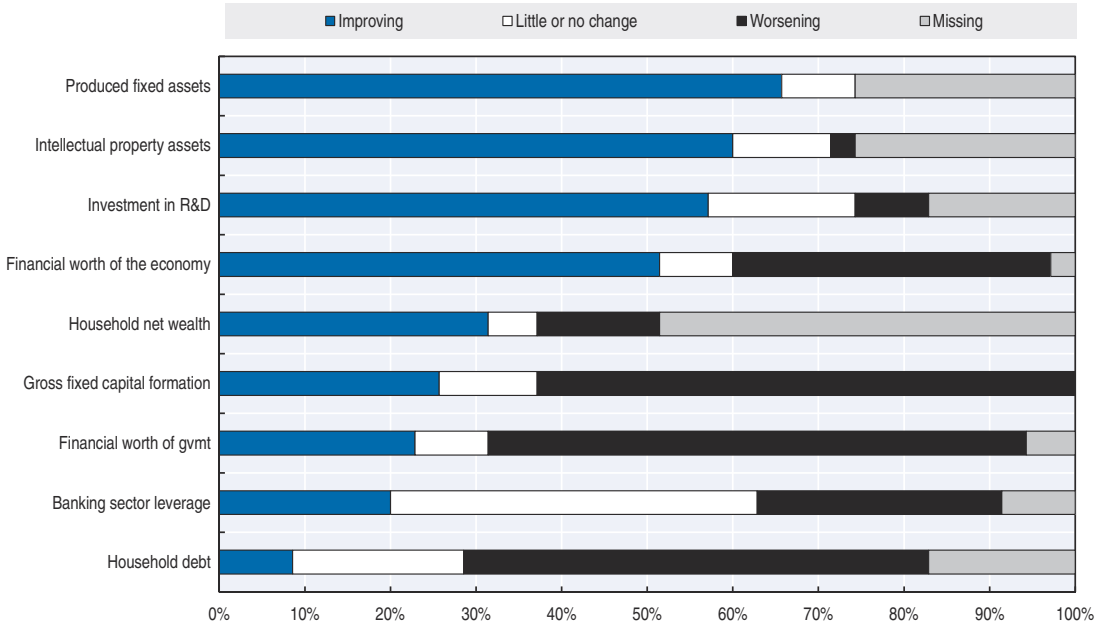
Figure 1.28 shows the extent to which the experiences of OECD countries differ across the various economic capital indicators. All countries with data available showed an increase in produced fixed assets between 2005 and 2015, although the annual growth rate of gross fixed capital formation fell for 60% of countries. More than half of OECD countries experienced an increase in the stock of intellectual property assets, with a similar number of countries recording an increased share of GDP spent on R&D. The financial net worth of government fell in close to two-thirds of OECD countries, and household debt rose in two-thirds (despite the improving OECD average picture, which is largely driven by household debt reductions in the United States and Germany). Figure 1.A.3 in Annex 1.A provides a country-by-country analysis.

Social capital

Change over time can be assessed for only two of the six social capital indicators considered in this report: trust in the national government and voter turnout. On both these measures, the OECD average has fallen since 2005 (Figure 1.29). However, not every country follows this trend – with voter turnout rising in around one-third of OECD countries, and trust in the national government rising in one-quarter (Figure 1.30). Changes in trust in others – probably the best indicators of social capital – cannot be assessed based on the indicators used for this report. However, data from the World Values Survey suggest a mixed picture, with a decrease in roughly half of the OECD countries sampled over the period 2005-14, relative to the levels prevailing in 1981-94 (Halpern, 2015).

Figure 1.28. **Change in economic capital indicators, relative to around 2005**

Share of OECD countries

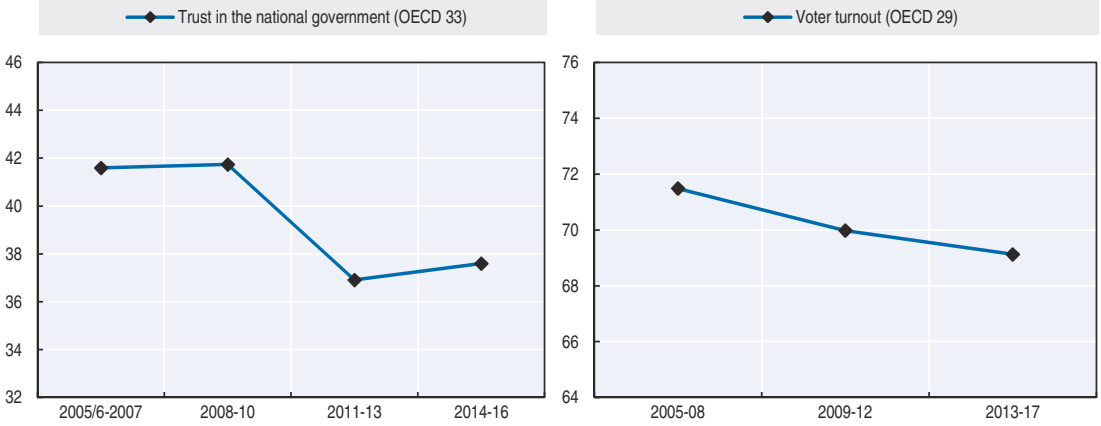


Note: Changes are calculated as the simple difference between 2015 and 2005 (or closest years available) and defined as values greater than or equal to the following thresholds: produced fixed assets +/- 4 500 USD per capita; intellectual property assets +/- 200 USD per capita; investment in R&D +/- 0.2 percent of GDP; financial net worth of the total economy +/- 1 000 USD per capita; household net wealth +/- 9 000 USD; gross fixed capital formation +/- 1.0 percentage point; financial net worth of government +/- 3.0 percent of GDP; banking sector leverage +/- 3.0 change in the ratio of assets to banks' own equity; household debt +/- 10 percent of household net disposable income. For further information, see Annex 5a, in Chapter 5, and for full time series data see the *Online Data Annex: Current Well-Being*, and *Online Data Annex: Resources for Future Well-Being* that accompany this report (*www.oecd-ilibrary.org/economics/how-s-life-2017_how_life-2017-en*).

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Figure 1.29. **OECD average voter turnout and trust in the national government, since 2005**

Percentage of the population responding "yes" to a question about confidence in the national government (left); and voter turnout as a percentage of the population registered to vote (right)



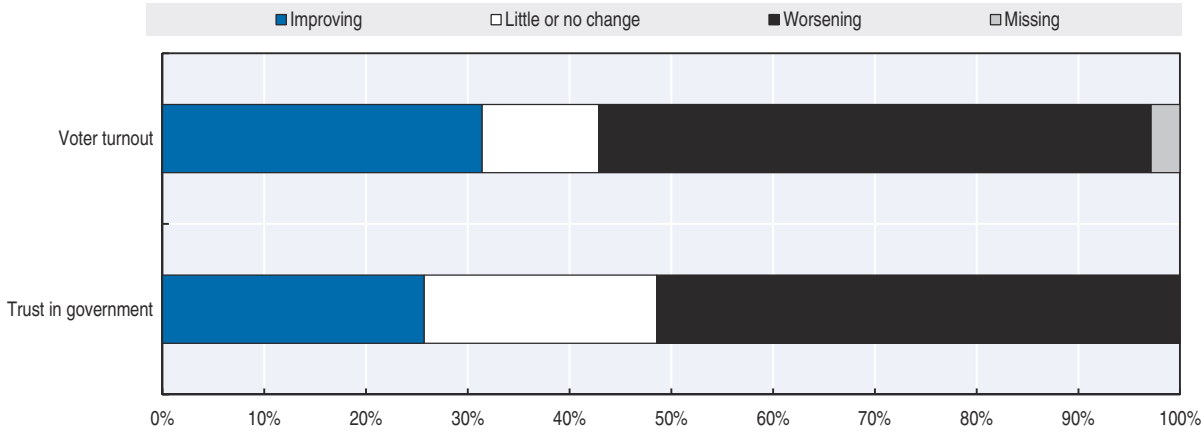
Note: For trust in the national government, the OECD average is population-weighted and excludes Iceland and Luxembourg, due to an incomplete time series. For voter turnout, the OECD average has been calculated across four-year periods. This required excluding Austria, Finland, Italy, Luxembourg and Mexico. Chile is also excluded since compulsory voting was dropped in 2012, introducing a break in the series.

Source: For trust in the national government: OECD calculations based on Gallup World Poll, *www.gallup.com/services/170945/world-poll.aspx*. For voter turnout: International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance (IDEA) (2017), *www.idea.int*, the register of the Supreme Electoral Tribunal for Costa Rica, and the Federal Statistical Office (FSO) of Switzerland.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933595945

Figure 1.30. **Change in selected social capital indicators, relative to around 2005**

Share of OECD countries



Note: Changes are calculated as the simple difference between 2015 and 2005 (or closest years available) and defined as values greater than or equal to the following thresholds: voter turnout +/- 1.0 percentage point; trust in the national government +/- 3.0 percentage points. For further information, see Annex 5a, in Chapter 5, and for full time series data see the *Online Data Annex: Current Well-Being*, and *Online Data Annex: Resources for Future Well-Being* that accompany this report (*www.oecd-ilibrary.org/economics/how-s-life-2017_how_life-2017-en*).

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Statistical agenda ahead

This chapter demonstrates the richness of well-being statistics now available in OECD countries, including new data on household wealth, job strain, feelings of having a say in what the government does, exposure to air pollution, and subjective well-being. OECD work has continued to support the statistical agenda on measuring well-being (Box 1.5), and many National Statistical Offices are taking serious steps to improve data availability (see OECD, 2015a, for examples). Nevertheless, in terms of comprehensively monitoring well-being and its sustainability for OECD and partner countries, a number of significant data gaps remain:

- First, OECD country coverage is incomplete for several of the headline indicators. Key gaps for current well-being include time devoted to leisure and personal care (missing for 14 OECD countries in the latest available year), household net wealth (missing for 8), adult skills, and having a say in government (both missing for 7), and life satisfaction (missing for 5). On resources for future well-being, there are sizeable gaps in relation to produced fixed assets and intellectual property assets (both missing for 9 OECD countries), trust in others and trust in the police (missing for 8), volunteering (missing for 7), household debt (missing for 5) and threatened species (missing for 3-5 countries).
- Second, several indicators are not collected on a routine basis (e.g. trust in others; trust in the police; threatened species), or are collected infrequently (e.g. time devoted to leisure and personal care; adult skills; having a say in government; volunteering). In other cases, methodological breaks interrupt the time series for a sizeable number of countries (e.g. educational attainment; educational expectancy; long-term unemployment; life expectancy). This makes it difficult to provide a comprehensive account of whether life is getting better for people. While change since 2005 can be assessed for 21 out of the 25 headline indicators for current well-being shown in this edition, and for 20 of the 32 resources for future well-being indicators, country coverage for these analyses is often limited. This in turn limits the conclusions that can be drawn about OECD-wide trends, and about comparative performance.

- Third, since the first edition of *How's Life?* (OECD, 2011) several indicators drawn from non-official sources have been used as "placeholders" until other internationally harmonised data become available. This includes social support, satisfaction with water quality, feelings of safety, and life satisfaction. Thanks to new data from national statistical offices, it has been possible to replace the original life satisfaction placeholder (see Exton, Siegerink and Smith, forthcoming, for an overview). Yet non-official sources remain an important source of information for several dimensions of well-being.
- Fourth, a number of dimensions remain poorly covered in terms of the available internationally-comparable evidence. Natural, human, economic and particularly social capital have important gaps in terms of the concepts covered – and the issues of global public goods and transboundary impacts (see Box 1.2) require further conceptual and statistical work. Some of the progress needed in the measurement of social capital (including on trust and governance) are discussed in more detail in Chapter 4 of this edition, and are also addressed in recent OECD work (Box 1.5). On current well-being, *social connections* continue to be poorly captured: there is just one headline indicator, based on a simple "yes/no" question about having someone to count on in times of trouble, which suffers from ceiling effects some OECD countries. On *personal safety*, a placeholder measure on reported assault has been removed from the headline indicator set since data are no longer collected routinely. Internationally comparable data on the incidence of crimes, other than homicide, should be a priority for the future. For *environmental quality,* there are important data gaps to fill regarding access to green space and objective measures of water quality. As yet, it has also not been possible to identify a suitable measure of mental health for the *health status* dimension, a major omission.
- Fifth, inequalities in well-being are often difficult to measure. Capturing the distribution of well-being outcomes is central to the How's Life? measurement approach (see Box 1.1) and also of importance to the UN Agenda 2030's aspiration to "leave no-one behind". Chapter 2 of this report provides a comprehensive account of the inequalities that *can* be measured across the headline indicators of current well-being. This includes the size of the gap between the top and bottom of the distribution, and differences in outcomes between groups (by gender, age and education). Chapter 3 (on migrants' well-being) focuses on the experiences of a sizeable minority group in many OECD countries. Both of these Chapters discuss in detail the statistical agenda ahead, to enable a more complete story to be told.

Box 1.5. **OECD contributions to the statistical and policy agenda on well-being**

It is now 6 years since the OECD the launched its *Better Life Initiative*. Well-being statistics and analysis are now published regularly, both as part of the *How's Life?* series, and in several different web-formats, such as the interactive *Better Life Index* (*www.oecdbetterlifeindex.org*); a regional well-being data explorer (*www.oecdregionalwellbeing.org*); the Child Well-Being Portal (*www.oecd.org/social/child-well-being*); and the Gender Data Portal (*www.oecd.org/statistics/datalab/gender-data-portal.htm*). Several studies have provided a more in-depth analysis of well-being in specific countries, including Israel (OECD, 2016a), Mexico (OECD, 2015b), Denmark (OECD, 2016b) and Slovenia (through work supporting the National Development Strategy). The OECD's Economic Surveys (*www.oecd.org/economy/surveys*), Better Policies Series (*www.oecd.org/about/publishing/betterpoliciesseries.htm*) and Multi-Dimensional Country Reviews (*www.oecd.org/development/mdcr/*) now also routinely make use of well-being data in the analyses presented. Two of the OECD's leading data collections, the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA, *www.oecd.org/pisa*), and the Survey

Box 1.5. **OECD contributions to the statistical and policy agenda on well-being** *(cont.)*

of Adult Skills (or Programme for the International Assessment of Adult Competencies, PIAAC, *www.oecd.org/skills/piaac*) include a range of indicators that are valuable for assessing various dimensions of well-being, beyond education and skills. The 2015 PISA exercise also included a special focus on students' well-being, considered from a psychological, physical, cognitive and social perspective (OECD, 2017c).

A range of OECD methodological projects have contributed to the statistical agenda on measuring well-being. This includes international guidelines, such as the: *Guidelines on Measuring Subjective Well-Being* (OECD, 2013b); *Guidelines for Micro Statistics on Household Wealth* (OECD, 2013c); *OECD Framework for Statistics on the Distribution of Household Income, Consumption and Wealth* (OECD, 2013d), *Guidelines on Measuring Trust* (OECD, 2017d); and *Guidelines on Measuring the Quality of the Working Environment* (OECD, 2017e). Several databases have also been developed or enhanced in recent years, including the Income Distribution database; the Wealth Distribution database; and the Job Quality database (see database references, below). Forthcoming projects include conceptual work on measuring the impact of business on well-being; digitalization and well-being; capturing the well-being experiences of different ethnic groups; and unlocking the potential of time-use data for well-being measurement.

The 17 UN Sustainable Development Goals, underpinned by 169 targets, and a (still evolving) list of 232 indicators, pose formidable measurement challenges for the statistical systems of all countries. Since the overlap between the SDGs and the OECD well-being framework is large (Figure 1.2), there are many commonalities in terms of the statistical agenda. The OECD is participating in the UN Inter-Agency and Expert Group on Sustainable Development Goals Indicators (UN Statistics Division, 2017), and supporting the UN Global monitoring framework in a number of respects (OECD, 2016c). These include providing indicators directly (such as data on Official Development Assistance), collaborating with other agencies (such as with UNESCO on education-related indicators), and helping to fill data gaps in key areas, such as governance statistics, through the work of the UN Praia Group, (Instituto Nacional de Estatística, Cape Verde, 2017). Finally, statistical capacity-building assistance is being provided through joint work with PARIS21, a body that promotes the better use and production of statistics throughout the developing world.

Notes

1. The OECD's Better Life Index (*www.oecdbetterlifeindex.org*) is a website where people can explore OECD well-being statistics through a set of interactive data visualisations. A key feature of the site is that users are able to build their own customised index of overall well-being, by rating the importance of the 11 different dimensions of life covered by the OECD framework. Users can then see how countries rank in terms of overall performance, based on their own customised index.
2. In the online annex that accompanies this publication, the number of countries covered by the OECD average is indicated in brackets in the legend (e.g. OECD 33). The results reported in this section typically refer to population-weighted averages in order to capture the experience of the OECD average *resident* (rather than the OECD average country). This procedure gives proportionately more weight to countries with a larger population, and proportionately less weight to countries with a smaller population, in the calculation of the average.
3. Comparative strengths are defined as those falling in the top third of OECD countries, while comparative weaknesses are defined as those falling in the bottom third. Tiers have been determined by ranking countries from worst outcome (1) to best outcome (35), and then dividing that rank by the total number of OECD countries in the sample. The resulting values (ranging from 0 to 1) are then categorised as follows: countries with values ranging from zero to 1/3 are assigned to the bottom tier; values greater than 1/3 but less than or equal to 2/3 are categorised as middle tier; and values greater than 2/3 but less than or equal to 1.0 are assigned to the top tier. For OECD partner countries, the "OECD equivalent" rank is shown – i.e. the rank that the country would attain when compared to OECD countries only.
4. The methodology for assigning countries to the top, middle or bottom third of the OECD is the same as that applied in the country profiles shown in Chapter 5. Namely, countries have been ranked from worst outcome (1) to best outcome (35), and this rank has then been divided by the total number of

OECD countries in the sample. The resulting values (ranging from 0 to 1) are then categorised as follows: countries with values ranging from zero to 1/3 are assigned to the bottom tier; values greater than 1/3 but less than or equal to 2/3 are categorised as middle tier; and values greater than 2/3 but less than or equal to 1.0 are assigned to the top tier. For OECD partner countries, the "OECD equivalent" rank is shown – i.e. the rank that the country would attain when compared to OECD countries only.

5. The cumulative growth rate for household net adjusted disposable income between 1995 and 2005 was 18.7%, but due to data availability this considers a slightly smaller number of OECD countries than the 2005-15 analysis shown (25 countries, rather than 28). The corresponding cumulative growth rate for those 25 countries between 2005-15 is 8.5%. The cumulative growth rate for earnings between 1995 and 2005 was 14%. This is based on the same sample of 34 OECD countries as the 2005-16 growth rate.
6. This calculation is based on the 26 OECD countries with at least two relevant data points, and represents a fall from 2.1% in 2005-10 to 1.3% in 2011-15. The OECD average is population-weighted and excludes Australia, Canada, Chile, Israel, Japan, Korea, Mexico, New Zealand and the United Kingdom, due to incomplete time series for these countries.
7. This was largely due to a substantial increase in the homicide rate in Mexico, which has driven up the OECD average as a whole, despite decreases in almost all other countries.

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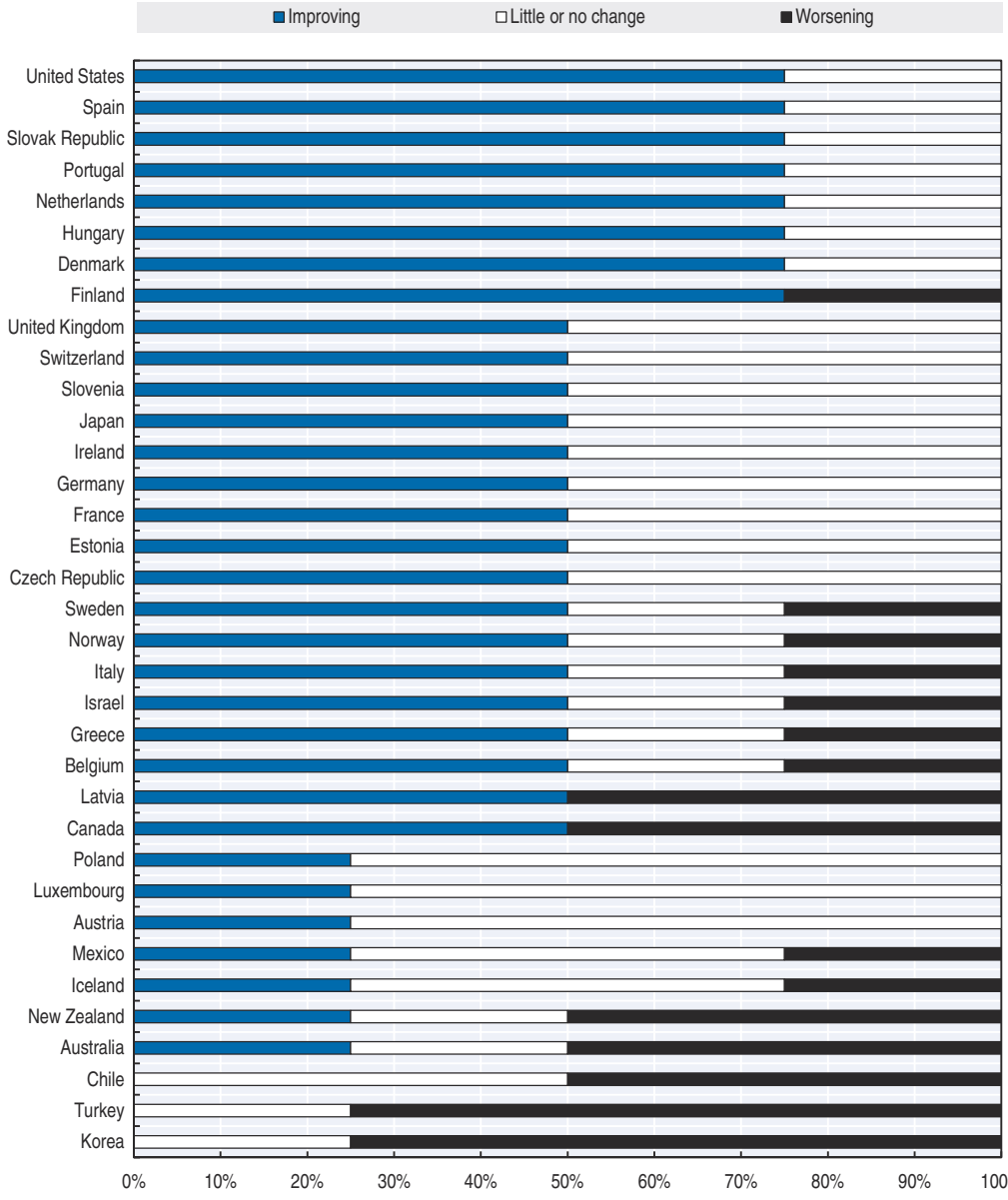
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ANNEX 1.A

Figure 1.A.1. **Countries' changes in selected natural capital indicators, relative to 2005**

Share of indicators (out of 4 indicators in total)



Note: Further information on which indicators have improved, seen little or no change, or worsened can be found in the country profiles of Chapter 5, and full time series information is available in the *Online Data Annex: Current Well-Being* and the *Online Data Annex: Resources for Future Well-Being* that accompany this volume (*www.oecd-ilibrary.org/economics/how-s-life-2017_how_life-2017-en*).

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Figure 1.A.2. **Countries' changes in selected human capital indicators, relative to 2005**

Share of indicators (out of 5 indicators in total)

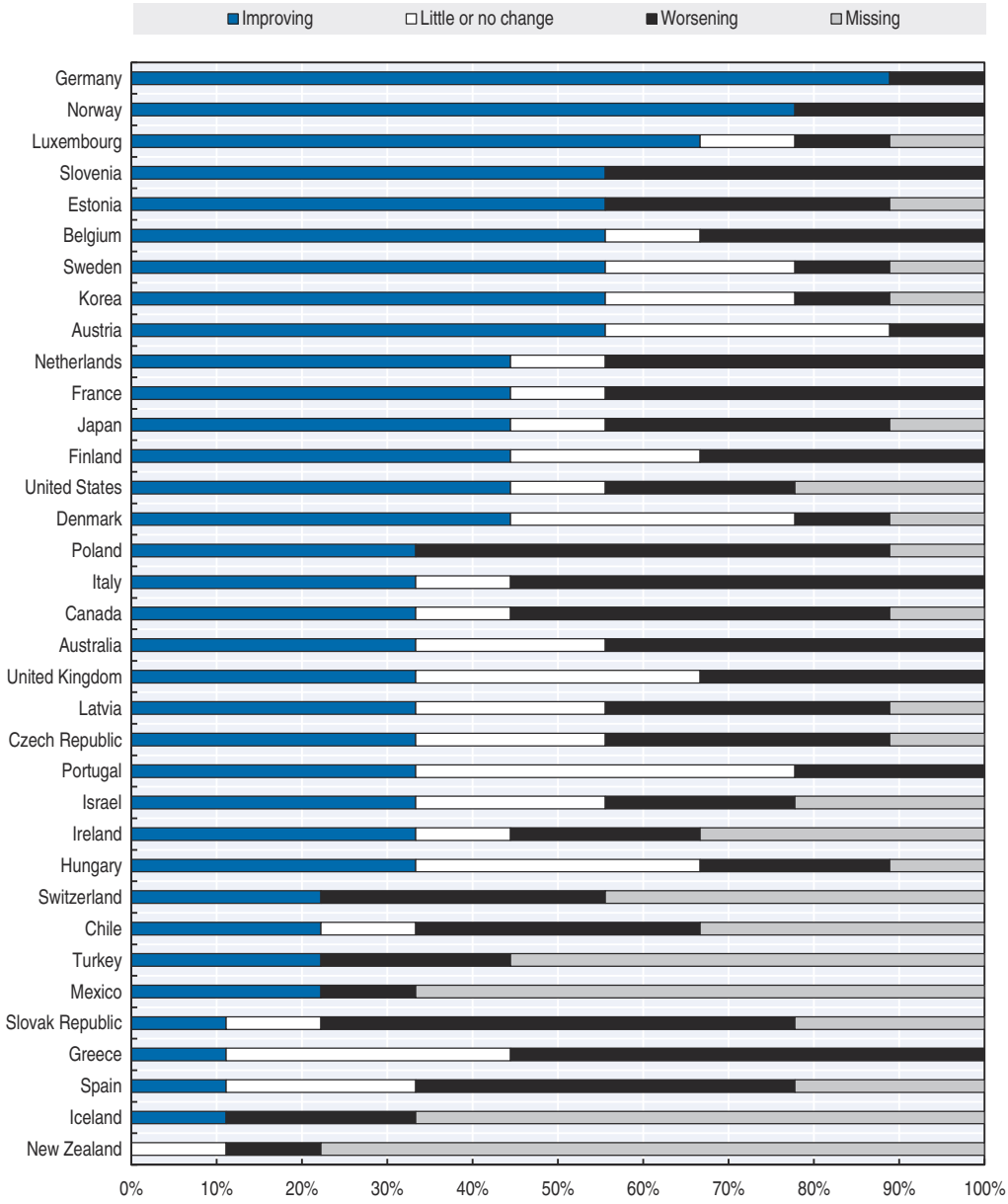


Note: Countries with fewer than 9 years' time series are excluded from this analysis, with the exception of educational attainment where only the 3 most recent years are considered for all countries, due to a major break in the time series. Further information on which indicators have improved, seen little or no change, or worsened can be found in the country profiles of Chapter 5, and full time series information is available in the *Online Data Annex: Current Well-Being* and the *Online Data Annex: Resources for Future Well-Being* that accompany this volume (*www.oecd-ilibrary.org/economics/how-s-life-2017_how_life-2017-en*).

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Figure 1.A.3. **Countries' changes in selected economic capital indicators, relative to 2005**

Share of indicators (out of 9 indicators in total)

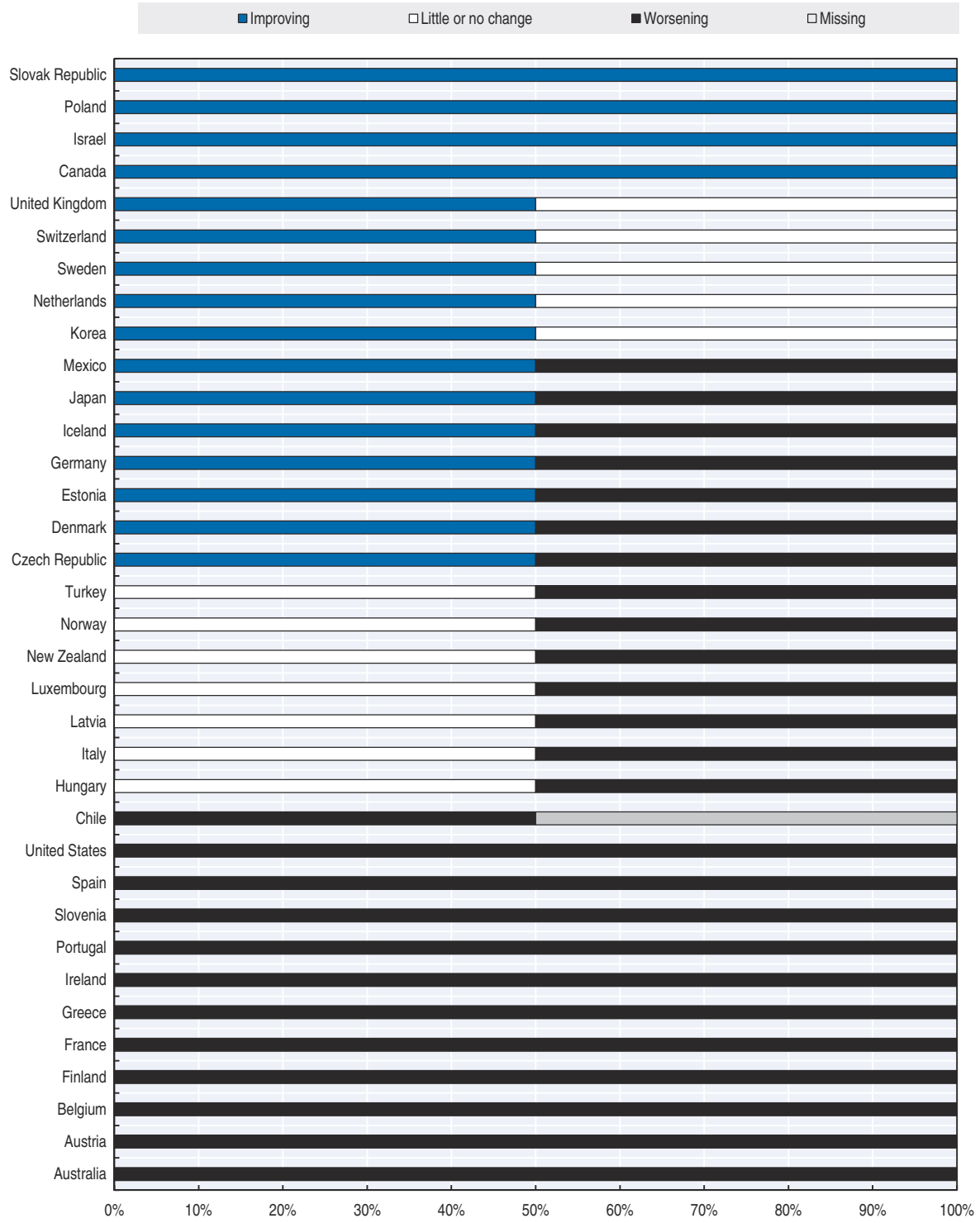


Note: Countries with fewer than 9 years' time series are excluded from this analysis, with the exception of household net wealth, where only two observations are available for all countries. Further information on which indicators have improved, seen little or no change, or worsened can be found in the country profiles of Chapter 5, and full time series information is available in the *Online Data Annex: Current Well-Being* and the *Online Data Annex: Resources for Future Well-Being* that accompany this volume (*www.oecd-ilibrary.org/economics/how-s-life-2017_how_life-2017-en*).

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933596021

Figure 1.A.4. **Countries' changes in selected social capital indicators, relative to 2005**

Share of indicators (out of 2 indicators in total)



Note: Further information on which indicators have improved, seen little or no change, or worsened can be found in the country profiles of Chapter 5, and full time series information is available in the *Online Data Annex: Current Well-Being* and the *Online Data Annex: Resources for Future Well-Being* that accompany this volume (*www.oecd-ilibrary.org/economics/how-s-life-2017_how_life-2017-en*).

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933596040

Chapter 2

Measuring inequalities in well-being

Describing how outcomes are distributed within societies is an essential part of measuring people's well-being. While much of the recent debate on inequality focuses on income and wealth, inequality can touch every aspect of a person's life. This chapter provides a framework and a set of indicators to assess inequalities across a wide variety of well-being domains, covering both material conditions and quality of life outcomes. Since there are several different ways to answer the question of "who gets what?" a number of different approaches to measuring inequalities are also presented. The analysis shows that inequalities in well-being are pervasive in all OECD countries: although some societies are more equal than others, no country "has it all". The main steps necessary to improve the measurement of inequalities in well-being outcomes are also discussed.

The statistical data for Israel are supplied by and under the responsibility of the relevant Israeli authorities. The use of such data by the OECD is without prejudice to the status of the Golan Heights, East Jerusalem and Israeli settlements in the West Bank under the terms of international law.

Introduction: Why inequalities in well-being matter

The issue of rising inequality and how to address it looms large in the minds of governments, civil society, businesses and citizens around the world. The recent financial crisis and its long-lasting effects, the stagnation of median wages and structural changes in labour markets due to globalisation and digitalisation have all contributed to putting inequality high on the political agenda. Recent studies have confirmed that income inequality has risen markedly in several OECD countries over the last 30 years (OECD 2016b; 2015b).[1] In September 2015, by adopting the UN Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), governments worldwide have committed to act on inequality through multiple, interconnected goals, requiring combined policy action in order to meet an overall commitment to "leave no one behind" (Box 2.1; UN General Assembly, 2015).

Inequalities can arise from many different sources, not all of which call for corrective action (Milanovic, 2010). Some inequalities result from rewarding people who worked hard, took risks or invested to gain better skills and experiences (Salverda, Nolan, and Smeeding, 2009). Others can result from a historical process whereby some people escape from destitution before others, since the benefits of improved technologies, higher living standards and better policies reach some people and communities first, before spreading elsewhere (Deaton, 2013). Inequalities can deepen simply because people with similar levels of income and education are more likely to marry each other. Yet other inequalities can be caused by unequal opportunities and can be passed from generation to generation due to factors beyond an individual's control. And sometimes the benefits that accrue to people at the top confer them advantages that are used to twist the political process in ways that hinder, rather than promote, shared prosperity (Stiglitz, 2012). Policy action to address inequalities must weigh each of these different factors carefully. But whatever the root causes of inequalities, societies that are too heavily divided carry risks in terms of both their stability and their success.

Inequalities have the most visible effects on those who are left behind. They not only find it harder to access quality work and public services (such as good schools and health facilities), but also have less influence on public decision-making and face higher barriers in terms of access to justice. Since different kinds of inequalities are frequently overlapping and mutually reinforcing, they can create an interlocking set of obstacles that make it difficult for people to move up the social ladder. Inequalities also shape the way people feel about themselves and how they relate to society: they can undermine people's sense of self-worth and aspiration, leading – particularly among young people – to resignation, mental health problems and anti-social behaviours (Sheehy-Skeffington, 2017). Yet increased inequalities are an issue not just for the most disadvantaged but also for the broad middle class, for whom growing disparities have begun to erode living standards and opportunities (OECD, forthcoming).

Beyond these most visible effects on the situation of people at the bottom or middle of the income distribution, inequalities can have an impact on the whole of society (OECD,

Box 2.1. **Inequalities and the 2030 Agenda**

On 25 September 2015, the UN General Assembly adopted the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), which aim to end poverty, tackle environmental change and fight injustice, as part of a new sustainable development agenda. One specific Goal (SDG 10) is about "Reducing inequality within and among countries". This goal encompasses 10 different targets, ranging from promoting above-average income growth for the bottom 40% of the population (Target 1) to favouring the social, economic and political inclusion of all – irrespective of age, sex, disability, race, ethnicity, origin, religion, and economic or other status (Target 2).

Beyond SDG 10, several other SDGs encompass the need to reduce inequalities and promote inclusiveness by 2030. They include:

- Goal 1 (End poverty in all its forms everywhere);
- Goal 2 (End hunger, achieve food security and improved nutrition and promote sustainable agriculture);
- Goal 3 (Ensure healthy lives and promote well-being for all at all ages);
- Goal 4 (Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all);
- Goal 5 (Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls);
- Goal 6 (Ensure availability and sustainable management of water and sanitation for all);
- Goal 7 (Ensure access to affordable, reliable, sustainable and modern energy for all);
- Goal 8 (Promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all);
- Goal 11 (Make cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable); and
- Goal 16 (Promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provide access to justice for all and build effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels).

More generally, the 2030 Agenda's commitment to addressing inequalities is embodied in its pledge to "leave no one behind". No Sustainable Development Goal can be considered achieved if targets are not met for all groups of people defined by age, gender, disability, race, ethnicity, national and social origin, religion, and economic or other status. This highlights the extent to which inequality is understood as a multifaceted, cross-cutting problem that affects all aspects of people's well-being.

forthcoming). For example, inequality can hamper economic growth when it restricts the purchasing power of a large share of the population and limits the investment made by poor and middle-class households in the skills of their children (OECD, 2015b). High inequalities may also lower people's trust in institutions and fuel political and social instability: first, by creating "social barriers" between groups, which limit people's connections to others; second, by generating perceptions of injustice that hamper trust in those seen as having unfair advantages; and finally, by leading to disagreements on how to share (and finance) public goods. Broken trust can feed intolerance, discrimination and political instability (Stiglitz, 2012). Finally, inequalities are not just a concern for today's society but also affect people's prospects in the future, stifling upward social mobility and making it harder for talented and hard-working people to get the rewards that they deserve (OECD, 2011a). Perceptions that parental background plays a major role in shaping future opportunities may increase preferences for more redistribution but also breed populism (OECD, forthcoming).

Broadening the measurement of inequalities to include a comprehensive range of economic and social outcomes is critically important. All too often, inequalities are analysed only in terms of the distribution of household income, not least because this is an area where measurement standards and good comparative evidence typically exist. Yet while income is a central part of people's well-being and can shape the quality of life in many ways, it is not the only thing that matters for a good life. Extending our measures of inequalities to outcomes such as life expectancy or exposure to air pollution enables us to better understand how multiple advantages and disadvantages interact – which in turn tells us something about the broad-based and inter-related set of policies that will be required to address them.

Despite the commitment by national governments and international organisations to tackle inequalities (Box 2.1), evidence on how well-being inequalities have changed over time is limited. Since its first edition, *How's Life?* has documented the importance of inequalities in well-being, highlighting the uneven distribution of both material conditions and quality of life outcomes (such as health status, education, jobs, etc.). This chapter looks in greater depth at two questions: 1) how large are inequalities in well-being?; and 2) are some groups more at risk of experiencing multiple well-being inequalities than others? The chapter also provides a coherent framework and new analytical approaches to examine these questions by exploiting a variety of datasets.

This chapter is part of a broader OECD endeavour that focuses on people's well-being, inclusiveness and equality, as reflected by the development of the OECD *Framework for Inclusive Growth* (OECD, 2014a) as well as by the recent inclusion of inequalities in how the OECD assesses the impact of policies on member countries' growth performance (the extended "Going for Growth" framework, OECD, 2017a). These initiatives bear testimony to a growing awareness among OECD governments of the importance of looking both "beyond GDP" and "beyond the average" when gauging the success of all types of public policies.

The chapter is organised as follows. The next section describes the key conceptual and methodological challenges involved in defining and measuring inequalities in well-being. As the topics addressed are many, the contribution of this chapter is necessarily partial – the choices made and the framework used for the empirical analysis presented in this chapter are also discussed. Evidence on different types of inequalities in OECD countries is then described. Finally, some of the priorities for advancing the statistical agenda on inequalities are presented in the concluding section.

Measuring inequalities in well-being

Measuring inequality means trying to describe how unevenly distributed outcomes are in society. Since it is impossible to capture everyone's varied experiences of life in a single number, different summary measures of inequality emphasise different aspects. Measures of "***vertical***" inequalities address how unequally outcomes are spread across all people in society – for example, by looking at the size of the gap between people at the bottom of the distribution and people at the top. By contrast, measures of "***horizontal***" inequalities focus on the gap between population groups defined by specific characteristics (such as men and women, young and old, people with higher and lower levels of education). "***Deprivation***" measures report the share of people who live below a certain level or standard of well-being (such as those who live in an overcrowded household). And "***social mobility***" measures emphasise the dynamic aspects of inequality – i.e. whether people at the bottom of the ladder have the opportunity to move up it. Finally, some approaches try to pull apart whether

inequalities are due to circumstances outside of people's control, or whether they are due to people's own efforts and initiative (McKay, 2002; Bourguignon, forthcoming). The choice of measure depends in part on the purpose of the analysis (Box 2.2). To gain a complete picture of inequality, a combination of these different approaches will be required.

Box 2.2. **Conceptualising inequalities**

Inequality can be conceptualised in many different ways. Important issues include which outcomes are being considered (i.e. inequalities *of what*); which groups of people are addressed (i.e. inequalities *among whom*); the time frame over which outcomes are assessed (i.e. *static or dynamic* measures); how inequalities relate to *deprivations*; and whether inequalities are due to circumstances outside people's control or to their own efforts and initiative. The perspective taken on these different issues has implications for how inequalities are measured.

Inequalities of what?

The most obvious issue to be clarified in any discussion on inequalities concerns which dimensions of people's life are considered. Inequality has often been analysed only in terms of the distribution of household income. New lines of inquiry have, however, emerged more recently, also thanks to the availability of data on the distribution of well-being outcomes other than income, such as health status, wealth, and education and skills, just to mention a few (Murtin et al., 2017; OECD, 2012).

Inequalities among whom?

At its heart, measuring inequality is about trying to describe "who gets what?". Measures of *vertical inequality* look at dispersion among individuals within a society, while measures of *horizontal inequality* consider differences among groups that share some common traits, e.g. ethnic or religious groups, or people grouped by region, age or gender (Stewart, 2009). Both perspectives are more or less relevant in particular contexts. For example, to find out whether a particular level of income translates into poverty, vertical inequality measures are more appropriate. Horizontal inequalities can, meanwhile, highlight the disadvantages faced by specific groups (e.g. migrants, youths or women).[1] Horizontal inequalities are also important from the perspective of assessing inequality of opportunities: for instance, if gender were the only circumstance beyond an individual's control, then the difference between men's and women's average earnings could be viewed as a measure of inequality of opportunity on the labour market, while the distribution of earnings within each gender group would be interpreted as inequality of outcomes (Bourguignon, forthcoming).

Another critical issue concerns whether to choose individuals or households as the unit of analysis. The focus on people in the *How's Life?* framework tends to emphasise individual-level measurement, but in many cases, different outcomes and experiences are shared among people belonging to the same household. This is especially the case for economic resources, where members of the same household or family will typically benefit from these shared resources. Even in these cases, however, consideration should be given to the significant intra-household inequalities that may exist and are simply ignored by the conventional assumption that all household members pool and equally share their economic resources (Chiappori and Meghir, 2015; Kanbur et al., forthcoming).

Finally, inequalities can also be measured at different geographical levels: they can occur within and between countries, but can also be assessed globally, i.e. by considering differences between all "world citizens", irrespective of the country where they live (Milanovic, 2016; 2012). While these "global inequalities" are not assessed in this chapter, they are

Box 2.2. **Conceptualising inequalities** *(cont.)*

relevant in a variety of contexts, such as when assessing who has gained and who has lost from globalisation. Spatial disparities are also not considered in this chapter, as they were discussed extensively in the 2015 edition of *How's Life?* (OECD, 2015a) as well as in *How's Life in Your Region?* (OECD, 2014b) and *Regions at a Glance* (OECD 2016c).

Inequalities over which time frame?

Inequalities are often persistent, especially for certain dimensions of well-being, and deserve to be studied over time. Persistent inequalities can be thought of in two ways: persistence *within the society over a given time period*; or persistence of advantages and disadvantages *over time for a particular individual or group*. The first perspective summarises what is happening at the total societal level, but can overlook "churning", i.e. individuals might move up or down the distribution even while total inequality remains constant. The second perspective focuses on whether upward or downward mobility is lower for members of one group than for members of other groups. A long-term perspective on inequalities also matters because, with the passing of time, new lines of disparity may appear while old lines lose relevance.

While most comparative studies assess inequalities by using "snapshots" of the distribution of various life achievements in a particular year, cross-sectional analyses should be complemented with longitudinal investigations so as to consider dynamic aspects of inequality, such as mobility over the life cycle of an individual or across generations (Atkinson, 1997; Blanden, Gregg and Macmillan, 2013; OECD, forthcoming).

Inequalities and deprivations

Deprivation is a concept related to, yet distinct from, inequality (Atkinson, 1987; Haughton and Khandker, 2009). While the latter is concerned with the full distribution of a given outcome, the former is focused on its lower end, i.e. those who fall below a given deprivation line (McKay, 2002). It is possible to focus on either deprivation or inequality without addressing the other; nevertheless, the two aspects tend to be intimately intertwined and do provide complementary insights. Deprivations and inequalities often rise and fall together, but this need not necessarily be the case: for instance, inequalities can be high in a society despite low levels of deprivation, due to a large difference between the top and the middle of the distribution.

Deprivation can be defined either in absolute or relative terms: in the first case, it concerns the share of people who fall below a specific standard of living deemed to be necessary for the fulfilment of basic needs; in the second, comparisons are made with the standard of living that is typical in a given country and time (such as 50% of the median income). These two concepts of deprivation (absolute and relative) are very different and are used for analysing distinct issues: for example, absolute poverty is typically about livelihood or the satisfaction of basic needs, while relative deprivation is about being in a condition that is far away from what is typical in a country (Atkinson and Bourguignon, 2000). While relative thresholds are, by construction, country-specific, absolute thresholds can either refer to a specific country or be common across countries, as in the case of the World Bank's measures of "extreme poverty" (Ferreira et al., 2015) or of Eurostat's measures of "material deprivation" (Guio, Gordon and Marlier, 2012).

Outcomes or opportunities?

Inequality of outcomes can result both from the *efforts* of a person and from the particular *circumstances* under which this effort is made. Inequality of opportunity refers instead to the various circumstances that lie beyond the control of the individual (e.g. their

Box 2.2. **Conceptualising inequalities** *(cont.)*

race, gender, place of birth or family background) but that nevertheless significantly affect the results, and possibly the levels, of those efforts (Roemer, 1998). Knowing what part of an observed inequality of outcome may be attributed to a given set of circumstances, such as family background, is particularly important to inform policies that aim to level the playing field – e.g. by ensuring equal access to quality education and health-care services, to political representation or to employment opportunities – while accepting inequalities of outcomes that follow from aspects under the direct control of individuals. In practice, the distinction between inequality of outcomes and inequality of opportunities is not clear-cut, as discussed by Bourguignon (forthcoming):

- First, there are factors shaping inequality of outcomes that fall beyond the simple dichotomy between efforts and circumstances, such as luck, which raise thorny problems for any normative evaluation of inequality (Frank, 2016).
- Second, the distinction between efforts and circumstances is often blurred, as not all aspects of either efforts or circumstances are fully observable (e.g. the time a child spends on extracurricular activities depends not only on their choice or taste but also on their parents' values and resources). This implies that, even when evidence shows that the influence of a given circumstance (e.g. gender) in shaping individuals' outcomes has been declining, we do not know whether this has been more than offset by the growing influence of an aspect that is not immediately observable.
- Finally, the relationship between outcomes and opportunities is dynamic and runs both ways: in a multigenerational context, inequality of outcomes among adults (e.g. inequality in parents' levels of education) may affect the opportunities available for children. Parents pass social, human and financial capital on to their children through their choices on where to live, schooling, time allocation, material bequest, etc., and therefore shape the opportunities (and outcomes) experienced by their descendants (OECD, forthcoming).[2]

As a result of these conceptual and measurement issues, the empirical work devoted to inequality of opportunities has been limited; while comparisons across countries and over time are easily understood and solidly grounded on data in the case of outcomes, they are difficult to substantiate in the case of opportunities.

1. These two different characterisations are clearly related: for a class on inequality measures (e.g. mean log deviations), total vertical inequality in a society can be decomposed into between-group (i.e. horizontal inequality) and within-group components. In principle, it is possible for outcomes to be spread evenly across groups so that horizontal inequalities might be very low (or non-existent) while vertical inequality might be quite high.
2. When looking at inequality of opportunity and inequality of outcomes from the perspective of children, the notion of "acceptable" and "unacceptable" inequality becomes less palatable. What may be an acceptable level of outcome inequality for adults – attributable to those adults' efforts or personal choices – is less likely to be acceptable for their children, who have had no control over these outcomes.

Measurement and data challenges

In addition to the conceptual considerations set out in Box 2.2, some of the choices that need to be made when assessing inequalities include:

- *The choice of metric.* **Vertical inequalities** (i.e. those concerned with the spread of outcomes across all people) can be measured by comparing different percentiles of the distribution (e.g. the ratio between the average outcomes of people in the top and bottom quintiles or centiles of the distribution) or through measures that summarise the overall dispersion of a distribution (e.g. the variance or the Gini index). Each summary measure captures different aspects of the distribution, has its own methodological advantages or

disadvantages, and reflects some value judgement.[2] Moreover, metrics designed to capture inequality in income (a continuous variable) may not be appropriate when considering outcomes such as education, health status or subjective well-being, which are typically defined over ordinal categories. For instance, although everybody would agree that a college graduate's educational attainment is higher than that of a secondary school drop-out, one cannot quantify *by how much* it is higher. Researchers have approached the issue of ordinality by relying upon median-based measures (Allison and Foster, 2004) or by employing quintile and decile ratios (Kalmijn and Veenhoven, 2005).

- *The choice of the reference group*. When measuring **horizontal inequalities** (i.e. gaps between specific groups of the population), a reference group must be selected for the comparison (e.g. outcomes for women are typically compared to outcomes for men). However, which group is chosen as the "reference" has an impact on the inequalities being described. In the case of ethnic groups, for instance, the dominant group is typically used as representing the "normal" experience, and minority groups are compared to it. In other instances, however, the choice is less straightforward (e.g. age groups) and largely depends on the purpose of the analysis.
- *The level of aggregation*. Examining inequalities across all of the 11 dimensions of current well-being in the *How's Life?* framework raises the question of whether to develop an aggregate index that incorporates all or a subset of dimensions. Although an aggregate index may be helpful to provide a parsimonious picture of the situation, it is conceptually challenging to construct, as it requires making a number of choices on aggregation and weighting.[3] Furthermore, to identify specific policy actions, it is necessary to decompose this index into its constituent parts.

As shown by the evidence provided later in this chapter, the breadth and depth of any analysis of well-being inequalities is limited by the lack of comparable statistics and by the extent to which various measures can be disaggregated. In particular:

- Household surveys are the primary data source for analysis of inequalities in well-being. Surveys that consider only one or a few aspects of well-being are, however, not well suited to tracking multiple outcomes at the individual level, as they cannot be used to assess correlations across various well-being dimensions or the accumulation of advantages and disadvantages at the individual level. A number of household surveys collect data on individual outcomes, ranging from material conditions to health status and neighbourhood quality; although such surveys are a rich source of information about how individuals and households are faring, their cross-country comparability is limited. Moreover, household surveys often fail to capture the very top of the distribution of economic resources, leading to bias in the measurement of inequality (Box 2.3).
- Analysis of the evolution of inequality over time is limited for many well-being dimensions such as housing, work-life balance, social connections, personal security, environmental quality and subjective well-being, where most of the available comparative data are limited to a few years.
- Large population samples, or specialised sub-samples, are needed to compare well-being across groups, and samples of some of the most vulnerable groups – such as families with young children, low-income older people or migrants – are often too small for this purpose.
- While in most cases survey data can be disaggregated by age, gender and some measure of socio-economic background (e.g. education, occupation or, more rarely, income),

Box 2.3. **Measuring the top of the income distribution**

Top incomes have been in the limelight since the beginning of the global financial crisis in 2007/08. Economics research had somehow anticipated this interest with the emergence of a body of literature focused on the long-term evolution of top incomes (Atkinson, Piketty and Saez, 2011). These studies have shown that top incomes have grown much faster than other incomes during the past few decades, in both developed and emerging countries (Burkhauser et al., 2012; Förster, Llena-Nozal and Nafilyan, 2014). This phenomenon poses non-negligible problems to the measurement of income inequality and, to an even greater extent, of wealth inequality, due to its much higher concentration.

Estimates of income inequality are typically derived from household income and expenditure surveys. These surveys have a number of limitations when it comes to the representation and precision of reported top incomes. These include issues related to sampling (under-representation of the very rich), data collection (unit non-response, item non-response, item under-reporting and other measurement errors), and data preparation (top coding trimming or censoring, provision of subsamples; Atkinson, Piketty and Saez, 2011). Such surveys provide accurate measures of median income and poverty, even when data on top incomes are poor or missing altogether. For the estimation of income inequality, however, having good data on top incomes is crucial.

Data from tax files are better suited to capture the incomes of the very rich, although they are not without limitations. First, many countries face problems of tax evasion and tax avoidance, leading to the under-declaration of income. Second, tax-exempt income, such as fringe benefits or imputed rent, is left out of analysis based on tax data (e.g. if a growing share of capital income is tax exempt or subject to a withholding tax, this can affect the analysis of top income shares). Third, tax-return data may provide an accurate picture for top incomes but remain mute about how top incomes fit into the overall distribution.

An approach that has recently gained considerable traction is to estimate the top tail of the income distribution using data from income tax records and then combine this with an inequality measure from household surveys to obtain an estimate of the "complete" income distribution (Jenkins, 2017). However, combining household survey data and tax records is not straightforward, as the two data sources use different income definitions (disposable versus taxable) and have different units of analysis (households versus tax units, which could be individuals). For these reasons, care is needed when comparing such estimates across countries and over time.

Ruiz and Woloszko (2016) suggest that accounting for top incomes may result in a significant increase in the level of income inequality measured by household surveys. According to these estimates, in 2011 the Gini coefficient corrected for top incomes was, on average, 6 percentage points higher than before correction, moving to 0.37 from 0.31 for the average OECD country; similarly, the ratio between the mean income of the richest and poorest 10% rose from 10 to 15.

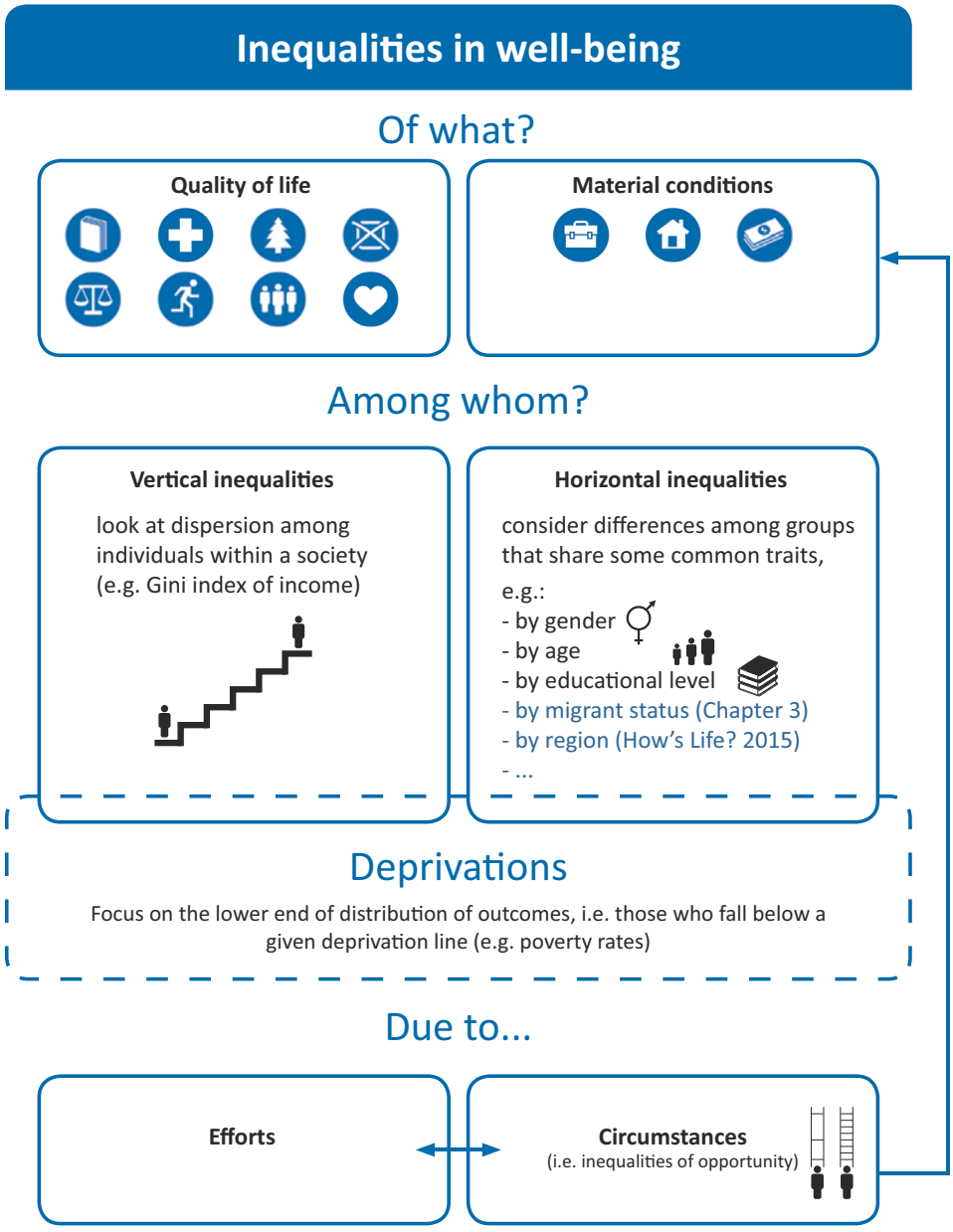
information on other social "markers" (e.g. ethnicity, disability, sexual orientation) is sparser, as these characteristics are not systematically covered by surveys or because these groups are under-represented in the sample.

- An analysis of the causal sequence linking cumulative disadvantages would typically require long-running longitudinal data, following the same person through different stages of their lives. Such surveys, however, are available only for a handful of countries (e.g. Germany, New Zealand, the United Kingdom and the United States).

Proposed framework for measuring inequalities in well-being

Figure 2.1 presents the framework used in this chapter for measuring inequalities in well-being outcomes. It answers the question of "*who gets what*?" by looking at inequality measures in both material conditions and quality of life outcomes. All of the 11 dimensions of current well-being used in the *How's Life?* framework are covered in the chapter, although to varying extents (see Box 2.4). Both "vertical inequalities" (which concern the spread of outcomes across the population, from top to bottom) and "horizontal inequalities" (which concern the size of the gap between specific population groups) are considered. Since people who experience low levels of well-being are of particular interest, deprivation measures, which are specifically focused on the lower end of the distribution, are also considered in this framework.

Figure 2.1. **A framework for measuring inequalities in well-being outcomes**



Box 2.4. **Choice of indicators to measure inequalities in well-being**

Whenever possible, the headline indicators of current well-being used elsewhere in *How's Life? 2017* (Chapter 1; Chapter 5) are also used in this chapter. In a few instances, however, the headline indicators are not the most suitable to highlight dispersion in well-being outcomes. Thus, some additional metrics are also used (e.g. standard deviation of age at death). The selected measures capture aspects of overall dispersion ("vertical" inequalities) and differences across groups in each dimension ("horizontal" inequalities) – though not always both for every indicator. This is because assessing **vertical inequalities** is more data-demanding than assessing horizontal inequalities, but also because for some indicators horizontal comparisons are more meaningful than vertical ones (e.g. differences in life expectancy need to be assessed for women and men separately).

The following analysis documents the *extent* of inequalities in well-being outcomes, whatever their origin. Age, gender and educational attainment provide the classification criteria for the analysis of the **horizontal inequalities** used in this chapter. Many other demographic and socio-economic characteristics also shape well-being outcomes (e.g. disability, ethnicity, place of living). Some of them are covered elsewhere in this report (see Chapter 3 for an assessment of well-being inequalities by migrant background) or in previous editions (see Chapter 5 of OECD, 2015a, for an overview of regional disparities in well-being). For some others (e.g. disability, ethnicity, sexual orientation), the comparative evidence is unfortunately limited. Sample sizes usually also make it impossible to consider several different characteristics simultaneously (e.g. the effect of being an older, low-educated woman).

Inequalities of opportunity are partly covered by an indicator addressing the gaps in the competencies of 15-year-old students (based on PISA) by the parents' education level. Further evidence of the intergenerational transmission of wealth is provided for selected countries for which data are available. Other measures of inequality of opportunity exist, in addition to those shown in this chapter (e.g. the intergenerational earnings elasticity), although their comparably is limited (OECD, forthcoming).

Evidence on the **persistence of inequalities** over the life course of an individual, for selected well-being outcomes, is included for a sub-set of countries. In the absence of comparable long-running longitudinal surveys or cohort studies, the analysis relies upon retrospective information from cross-sectional surveys. Some evidence is also provided about the extent to which people with similar characteristics (e.g. high education or earnings) are more likely to partner together (known as "assortative mating"), as this widens inequalities among households and can shape the opportunities available to children.

In the assessment of **vertical inequalities**, ratio measures are generally used (such as the average outcome attained by the top 20%, compared to the average outcome for the bottom 20%). While these necessarily focus on specific parts of the distribution, rather than its overall shape, they have the advantage that they can be used for both cardinal measures (e.g. income) and ordinal measures (e.g. political efficacy). Ratio measures are also comparatively easy to interpret and communicate, since they convey how far apart the rungs of the ladder are between low and high performers. Inter-quintile ratios (typically S80/S20) are usually preferred over inter-decile ratios (e.g. P90/P10), because they are less vulnerable to extreme values and consider a larger part of the distribution. As exceptions, the P90/P10 inter-decile ratio is used to measure the dispersion in gross earnings (due to data availability constraints) and the dispersion in student and adult skills (due to the calibration and scaling procedures used in the PISA and PIAAC surveys); while for inequality in longevity, the common measure used is the standard deviation of age at death. Finally, vertical inequality in net wealth is summarised by the wealth share of the top 10% of households only. This is because the bottom of the distribution is often characterised by negative or very low shares of wealth (implying that the S80/S20 wealth ratio would typically take very large and sometimes negative values). Table 2.1 shows the list of indicators by well-being dimension and type of inequality that populate the framework.

Box 2.4. **Choice of indicators to measure inequalities in well-being** *(cont.)*

Table 2.1. **Dimensions and indicators for measuring inequalities in well-being**

Well-being dimensions	Indicators		
	Vertical inequalities	Horizontal inequalities (by age; by gender; by educational level)	Deprivations
Income and wealth	S80/S20 household disposable income ratio Share of household net wealth of the top 10%	Gaps in average household disposable income Gaps in average household net wealth	Relative income poverty Asset-based poverty
Jobs and earnings	P90/P10 gross earnings ratio	Gaps in average hourly earnings Gaps in employment rate Gaps in unemployment rate Gaps in risk of low pay	Risk of low pay Unemployment rate
Housing conditions			Share of people spending more than 40% of disposable income on housing Share of households living in overcrowded dwellings
Health status	Standard deviation of age at death	Gaps in self-reported health status Difference in life expectancy (years) at age 25 by education level, men and women separately	Share of people rating their health status as fair, bad, or very bad
Work-life balance	S80/S20 hours worked ratio S80/S20 ratio in time devoted to personal care and leisure	Gaps in average time devoted to personal care and leisure Gaps in incidence of long working hours	Share of employees usually working 50 hours or more per week
Education and skills	P90/P10 PISA scores ratio P90/P10 PIAAC scores ratio	Gaps in share of adults aged 25-64 with upper secondary or tertiary education Gaps in average PISA scores across all fields Gaps in average PISA scores across all fields by the parents' education level Gaps in average PIAAC scores across both fields	Share of adults aged 25-64 with below upper secondary education Share of 15-year-old students who score at or below Level 2 in science, reading and mathematics (PISA) Share of adults who score at or below Level 1 in both literacy and numeracy (PIAAC)
Social connections	S80/S20 ratio in time spent on social activities (among participants only)	Gaps in average time spent on social activities Gaps in quality of network support	Share of people who report not having relatives or friends to count on
Civic engagement and governance	S80/S20 political efficacy ratio	Gaps in political efficacy Gaps in self-reported voter turnout	Share of people who consider having no influence on the national government Share of people who have not cast a vote in national elections
Environmental quality		Gaps in satisfaction with the quality of the water in the local area	Share of people exposed to more than 15 micrograms/m3 of PM2.5 Share of people reporting not to be satisfied with the quality of the water in their local area
Personal security		Gaps in deaths by assault per 100 000 population Gaps in feelings of security when walking alone at night	Deaths by assault per 100 000 population Share of people reporting not to feel safe when walking alone at night
Subjective well-being	S80/S20 life satisfaction ratio	Gaps in average life satisfaction	Share of people reporting low life satisfaction Share of people reporting negative affect balance

The bottom part of Figure 2.1 refers to the sources of inequality, i.e. differences in efforts, differences in circumstances beyond a person's control (i.e. inequalities of opportunity) and the interaction between these (shown in the bi-directional arrow that connects them) (Box 2.2).[4] Box 2.4 discusses the choice of the 42 unique indicators that populate the framework, while more detailed information on data sources, country coverage and available years is provided in Table 2.A.1 in Annex 2.A.

Evidence on inequalities in well-being outcomes

Figures 2.2 to 2.10 (below) provide an analysis of OECD countries' performance on inequality, across different well-being dimensions. They summarise the information included in the dashboard of indicators presented in the annex (Table 2.A.1). Some caveats and limitations should be borne in mind when looking at this evidence:

- First, and most important, several countries have data gaps due to missing information in one or more indicators: household wealth, standard deviation of age at death, time devoted to leisure and personal care, and time spent socialising are four well-being outcomes that are particularly affected by limited country coverage. As a result, the analysis of relative performances covers only a sub-set of the indicators listed in Table 2.A.1 and Box 2.4 – i.e. those metrics for which available data cover at least two-thirds of OECD countries.[5] The analysis in Figures 2.2 to 2.10 hence relies on a varying number of indicators, which are detailed in the figure notes.
- Second, the analysis provides a high-level picture of well-being inequalities across countries, regardless of the dimensions and indicators where the relative performance is recorded. For instance, it highlights that Norway records low inequalities in a certain number of areas, without detailing in which areas. To complement and add depth to this analysis, Annex 2.A therefore provides evidence of the relative performance on inequality on a country-by-country and indicator-by-indicator basis.
- Finally, the analysis cannot highlight how far apart the rungs of the ladder are between the most equal and unequal countries (Figure 2.5).

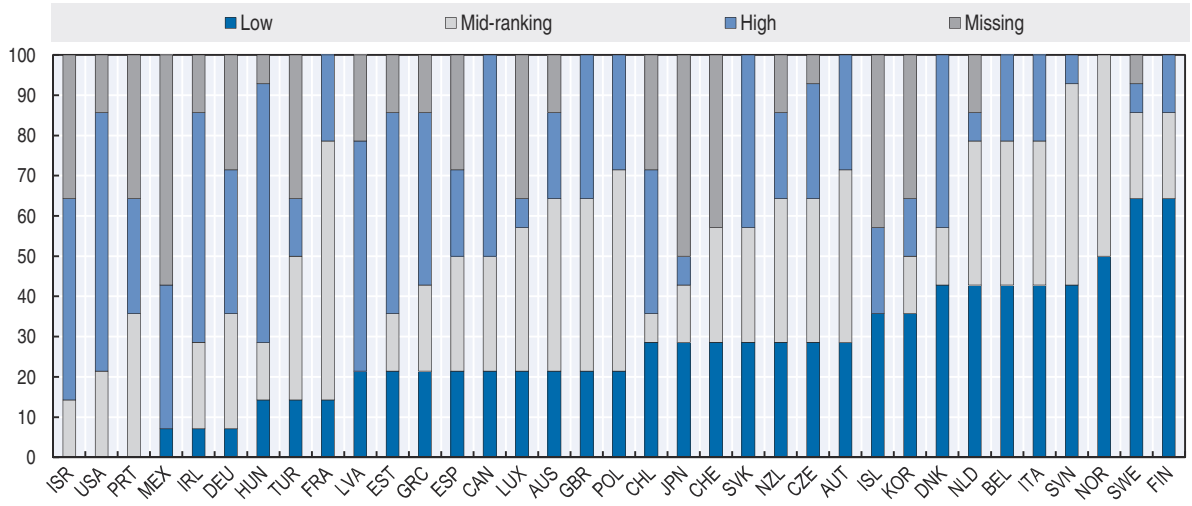
While there is detailed discussion below, the most obvious take-away from this analysis is that, while some countries are more equal than others in the various well-being outcomes, "no country has it all". In other words, when a large number of inequality indicators are considered, every country has areas of low and high relative inequalities.

Vertical inequalities

The spread of outcomes across the whole population, from top to bottom (vertical inequalities) varies considerably across OECD countries. As shown in Table 2.1, inequalities in each well-being dimension are measured through a varying number of indicators; in order to attach equal importance to each dimension, inequality indicators within each dimension are given equal weights that sum up to 1; e.g. if a dimension is measured through three different indicators, each will have an equal weight of one-third. Figure 2.2 shows the share of weighted indicators where each country records low inequalities or high inequalities or "mid-ranking" performances. For example, Finland has low inequalities in 64% of weighted indicators for which data are available (i.e. in household disposable income; household net wealth; gross earnings; student skills; political efficacy; and life satisfaction), a mid-ranking performance in 21% of weighted indicators (i.e. in hours worked and in adult skills) and high inequalities in an additional 15% (i.e. in the standard deviation of age at death). At the other

Figure 2.2. **Vertical inequalities in well-being**

Percentage of weighted indicators in which a country shows low, mid-ranking and high inequalities, latest available year



Note: Indicators within each dimension are given equal weights that sum up to 1. Countries are ranked in ascending order according to the share of weighted indicators in which a country shows low inequalities. For each country, "low inequalities" refer to the number of well-being outcomes where inequality levels are among the lowest third of OECD countries; "high inequalities" refer to inequality levels among the highest third of OECD countries. Only indicators for which the available data cover at least two-thirds of OECD countries are considered. In particular, seven dimensions are assessed through the following nine weighted indicators: S80/S20 ratio in household equivalised disposable income, and wealth share of the top 10% in the case of "income and wealth"; P90/P10 ratio of gross earnings in the case of "jobs and earnings"; standard deviation of age at death in the case of "health status"; S80/S20 ratio of hours worked in the case of "work-life balance"; P90/P10 ratios in PISA scores and PIAAC scores in the case of "education and skills"; S80/S20 ratio of political efficacy in the case of "civic engagement and governance"; and S80/S20 ratio of life satisfaction in the case of "subjective well-being".
Source: Various databases, as detailed in Table 2.A.1 in Annex 2.A.

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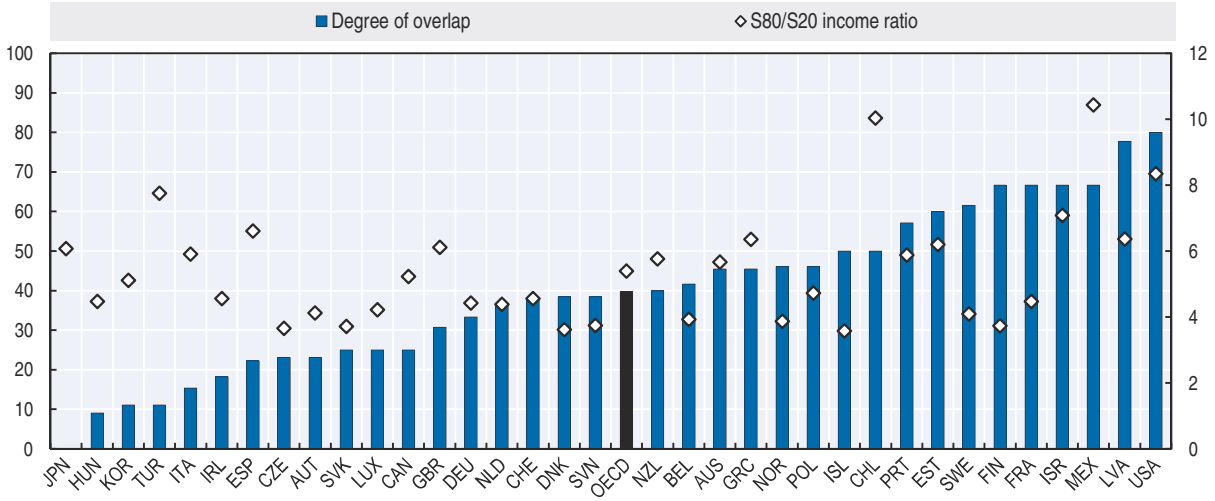
end of the spectrum, Israel records high inequalities in 50% of weighted indicators, a mid-ranking performance in 14% and missing information in 36% of them.

Not surprisingly, Nordic countries are among the most equal OECD societies when vertical inequalities are considered. While this pattern has been extensively documented with regards to income inequality, Figure 2.2 shows that it holds true even when considering vertical inequalities in other non-economic dimensions. The association between inequality in income and in other dimensions is, however, looser for other countries: for example, both Italy and Belgium rank in the middle of the OECD league in terms of income inequality, but are among the countries with lower vertical inequalities (i.e. on the right-side of the horizontal axis) when a broader range of dimensions is considered. At the other end of the spectrum, the United States, Estonia, Latvia, Mexico, Israel and Chile are among the countries with both high income inequality and a large number of well-being outcomes where vertical inequality is high. France shows an average performance in most dimensions. In reviewing this evidence, it should be emphasised that Figure 2.2 describes countries' relative levels of inequality *regardless of the average well-being level achieved*. Thus, countries can display a high number of outcomes with low levels of inequality, whilst also having a low average level of well-being (see analyses in Chapter 1).

Figure 2.3 provides further evidence on the importance of considering inequalities beyond income, as it shows the relationship between a country's level of income inequality and its level of vertical inequalities in other well-being domains. More specifically, the bars represent the share of weighted indicators that fall into the same performance category (low, mid-ranking or high) as the S80/S20 income ratio in that country. For example, the

Figure 2.3. **Overlap between income inequality and vertical inequalities in other well-being outcomes, by country**

Percentage of weighted indicators for which a country's levels of vertical inequalities in income and in other well-being outcomes fall in the same third, latest available year



Note: Countries are ranked in ascending order of the degree of overlap between income inequality and vertical inequalities in other well-being outcomes. Indicators within each dimension are given equal weights that sum up to 1. For each country, the performances in income inequality and in vertical inequalities in other well-being outcomes overlap if they both fall in the same third of the OECD countries for which information is available. Only indicators covering at least two-thirds of OECD countries are considered. In particular, the following indicators are considered: S80/S20 income ratio; P90/P10 gross earnings ratio; standard deviation of age at death; S80/S20 worked hours ratio; P90/P10 PISA scores ratio; P90/P10 PIAAC scores ratio; S80/S20 ratio in political efficacy; and S80/S20 ratio in life satisfaction.
Source: Various databases, as detailed in Table 2.A.1 in Annex 2.A.

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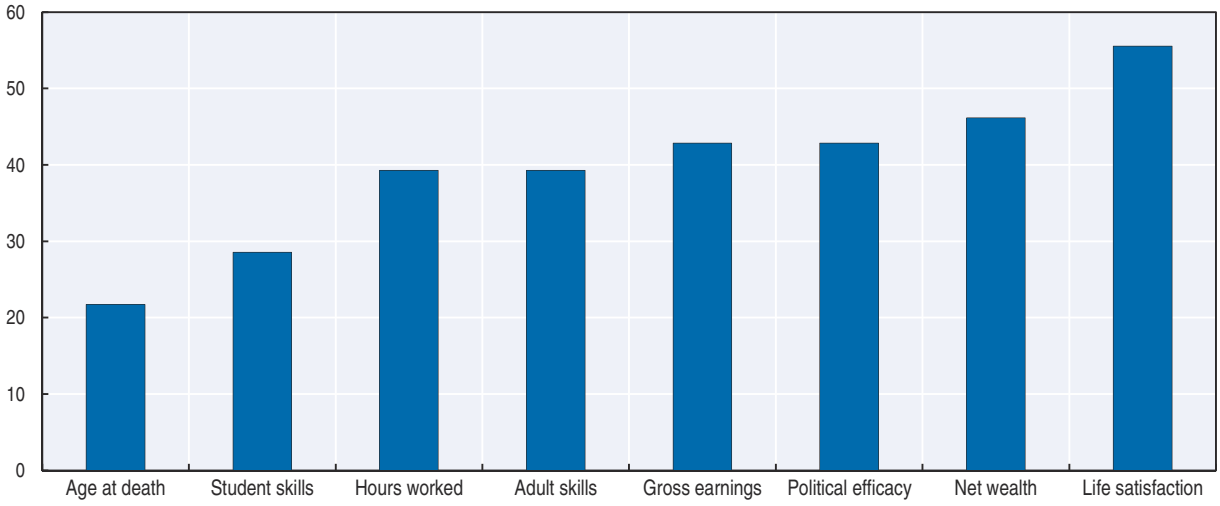
United States has a high level of income inequality, and a large share (80%) of high vertical inequalities. Finland, meanwhile, has a low level of income inequality and a large degree of overlap between vertical inequality measures. Yet, in other countries, the overlap between income and well-being inequalities is much smaller: in Hungary and Japan, fewer than 10% of vertical well-being inequalities fall into the same category as the S80/S20 income ratio. In Mexico and Chile, two OECD countries with high levels of income inequality, the extent of overlap among the different indicators of vertical inequality is large. However, the reverse is true for other countries with relatively high income inequality, such as Turkey, Spain and Japan (right vertical axis).[6] While the analysis in Figure 2.3 does not describe the correlation of outcomes *at the individual level* (i.e. whether the same people who have low incomes are for instance also in poor health, discussed later in this section), it does show, at a national level, that high income inequalities do sometimes go hand-in-hand with high vertical well-being inequalities, but this is by no means always the case.

When similarities in countries' performance on inequality are assessed by looking at different indicators, rather than across countries (Figure 2.4), the degree of overlap with income inequality is largest for life satisfaction, net wealth, gross earnings and political efficacy (where between 40 and 60% of all countries rank in the same third of performers for each pair of indicators). The overlap is also reasonably strong (more than one in three countries) in the case of hours worked and adult skills. The relationship with income inequality is more limited when it comes to vertical inequalities in student skills and age at death.

An assessment of vertical inequalities based on comparative performance, however, hides much of the diversity in levels of vertical inequality. Figure 2.5 shows the gap between the top and bottom OECD performers. The performance gap between countries is

Figure 2.4. **Overlap between income inequality and vertical inequalities in other well-being outcomes, by indicator**

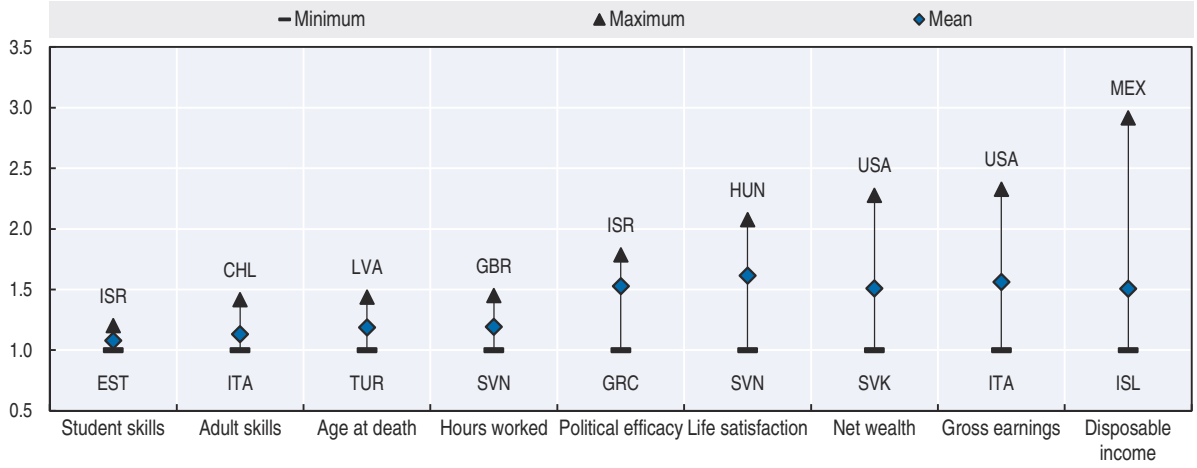
Percentage of countries for which performances in income inequality and in vertical inequalities in other well-being outcomes overlap, latest available year



Note: For a given country, the performances in income inequality and in vertical inequalities in other well-being outcomes overlap if they both fall in the same third of performance (e.g., looking at the first bar, in 27% of countries with available information, income inequality and standard deviation of age at death fall in the same high/medium/low third of performance). Only indicators covering at least two-thirds of OECD countries are considered.
Source: Various databases, as detailed in Table 2.A.1 in Annex 2.A.

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Figure 2.5. **Distribution of countries' vertical inequalities by well-being outcome**



Note: The performance of the country with the highest level of inequality (maximum) in a given well-being outcome is expressed as a multiple of the performance of the country with the lowest level of inequality in the same outcome (minimum). "Mean" refers to the inequality performance of the average country. Only indicators covering at least two-thirds of OECD countries are considered.
Source: Various databases, as detailed in Table 2.A.1 in Annex 2.A.

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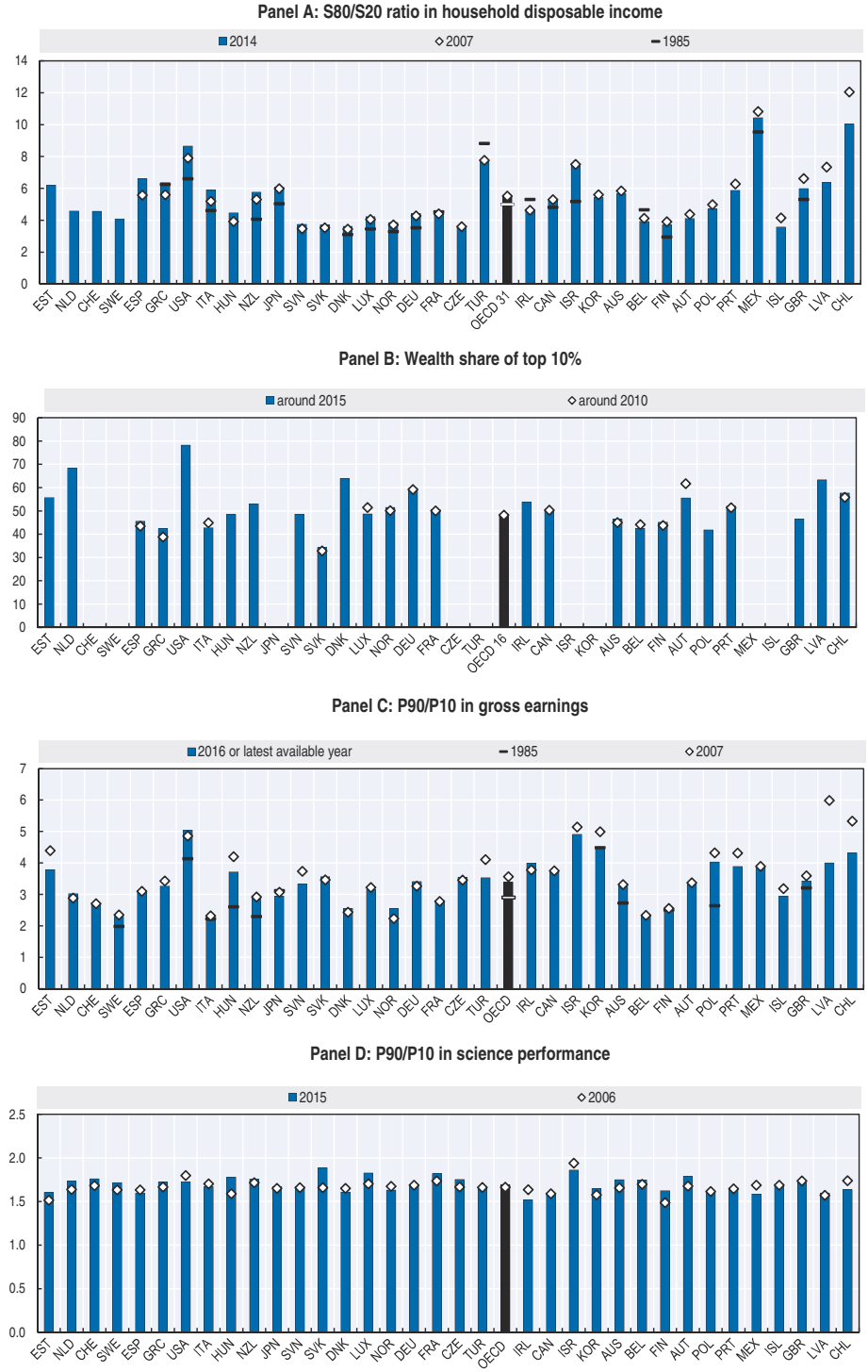
largest in the case of household disposable income (where inequality in Mexico is almost three times as large as that in Iceland), gross earnings, household net wealth and life satisfaction. By contrast, the gap is smallest for hours worked, age at death, adult and student skills (where for the latter, inequality in Israel is less than 20% higher than that in Estonia).

Changes over time in vertical inequalities can be assessed for only a sub-set of well-being outcomes, i.e. household disposable income, household net worth, gross earnings and students' cognitive skills. The measures of vertical inequality considered here are the same as those used in Figure 2.2, except for vertical inequality in cognitive skills, which is assessed here through the P90/P10 ratio in science performance rather than the P90/P10 ratio in the average of PISA scores across all fields as in Figure 2.2.[7] Several patterns can be drawn from Figure 2.6:

- Since the start of the financial crisis, income inequality has remained at levels well above those seen in the mid-1980s. The average S80/S20 ratio for disposable income, across the 31 OECD countries with consistent time-series, increased from 5.51 to 5.54 between 2007 and 2013, followed by a decline in 2014 (to 5.49; Figure 2.6, Panel A).[8] There are, however, large differences across countries: the largest increases in income inequality occurred in the countries hit hardest by the crisis (i.e. Spain, Greece and Italy), as well as in the United States; at the same time, income inequality fell in some of the countries that recorded the highest inequality in 2007, such as Chile, Latvia and the United Kingdom.
- Between 2010 and 2015, the share of wealth owned by the top 10% increased slightly, on average, across the 16 OECD countries with available data (from 48.2% to 48.7%, Figure 2.6, Panel B). In Luxembourg and Italy, the share of wealth owned by the top 10% fell by 2 percentage points, while this ratio increased by the same amount in Spain and Chile, and by more than 3 percentage points in Greece (from 38.8% to 42.4%).[9]
- At the OECD level, inequality in gross earnings – as measured by the P90/P10 ratio – fell by 5% between 2007 and 2016, from 3.56 to 3.39, although it remained at high levels in most of the countries for which information is available over the past three decades (Figure 2.6, Panel C). The greatest fall occurred in those countries that recorded the highest inequalities at the beginning of the period, e.g. Chile, Latvia and Korea, while the largest increase occurred in Norway (+14%), the country with the smallest dispersion in gross earnings in 2007.
- Since 2006, inequality in students' cognitive skills increased in the OECD area. The strongest increases were recorded in Hungary and the Slovak Republic (+12% and +14% respectively), while inequalities fell by 6% or more in Ireland, Chile and Mexico (Figure 2.6, Panel D).[10]

Although no common patterns are found when comparing changes in vertical inequality in household income, wealth, gross earnings and students' skills at the OECD level over the past decade, Israel and Iceland exhibit declining inequalities in all the dimensions for which information is available; the reverse is true for the Czech and Slovak Republics; while in Canada and France vertical inequalities across all indicators remained fairly stable over that period. In the latest available year, some of the countries that were among the most unequal in 2007 (i.e. Mexico, Chile and Portugal) exhibited lower vertical inequality in most of the dimensions for which data are available, although still performing poorly. In Germany, Greece, the Netherlands and New Zealand, vertical inequality increased in the majority of indicators under analysis during the period considered.

Figure 2.6. **Changes in vertical inequalities for selected well-being outcomes**



Note: In each Panel, the OECD value is the simple average of countries for which information is available in the two most recent years shown in the chart. In each Panel, countries are ranked in ascending order of the change in income inequality between 2007 and 2014. Panel A: the OECD value for 1985 is the simple average of: Belgium, Canada, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Japan, Luxembourg, Mexico, Norway, New Zealand, Turkey, the United Kingdom and the United States. Panel C: the OECD value for 1985 is the simple average of: Australia, Finland, Hungary, Italy, Japan, Korea, New Zealand, Poland, Sweden, the United Kingdom and the United States. For details of country years refer to the StatLink below.

Source: Various databases, as detailed in Table 2.A.1 in Annex 2.A.

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Horizontal inequalities

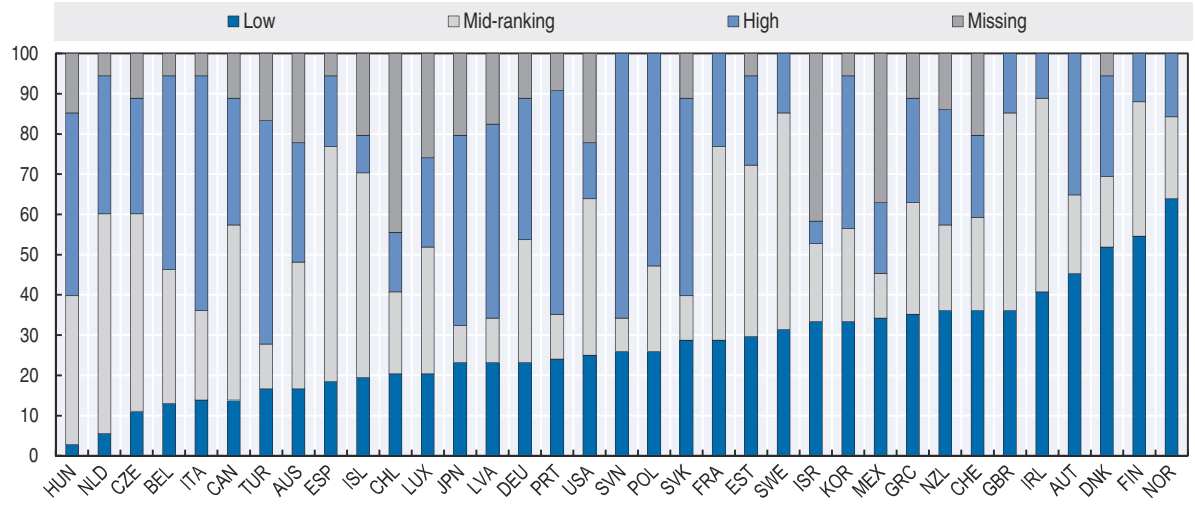
This section describes OECD countries' performance for those groups who are more likely to experience low levels of well-being, with the performance of the low-performing group assessed against that of the high-performing one. Attention is thus again restricted to relative disparities among countries, regardless of the level of the average well-being outcome that is achieved by each country. The "disadvantaged groups" considered are women; younger and older adults; and people with only a primary or secondary level of education. The well-being performance of these groups is compared with that of men, middle-aged adults and highly-educated people, respectively.

Horizontal inequalities by gender

Figure 2.7 shows the share of weighted indicators in which each country has "high", "low" and "mid-ranking" performances in inequalities by gender. The country ranking reflects the gap in average well-being outcomes between women and men within a society. For example, Norway has small gender gaps or gaps in favour of women in 64% of the 18 weighted indicators considered, high gaps in 16%, and a mid-ranking performance in an additional 20%. Meanwhile, Slovenia, Italy, Portugal and Turkey show high gender gaps in most of the 18 weighted indicators. Surprisingly, Sweden records low gender gaps in only 31% of weighted indicators, mid-ranking achievements in 54% of them, and high gaps in 15%; this rather weak performance by a country that usually features as a champion in gender equality may be

Figure 2.7. **Horizontal inequalities by gender**

Percentage of weighted indicators in which a country shows low, mid-ranking and high inequalities, average performance of women compared to men, latest available year



Note: Indicators within each dimension are given equal weights that sum up to 1. Countries are ranked in ascending order according to the share of weighted indicators in which a country shows low inequalities. For each country, this refers to horizontal inequalities ranked among the lowest third of OECD countries; "high inequalities" refers to horizontal inequalities ranked among the highest third of OECD countries. Only indicators for which available data cover at least two-thirds of OECD countries are considered. In particular, 9 dimensions are covered by 18 weighted indicators, which assess the average performance of women compared to men in: hourly earnings, employment and unemployment rates, and incidence of low pay in the case of "jobs and earnings"; incidence of good or very good health in the case of "health status"; time devoted to leisure and personal care and incidence of very long working hours in the case of "work-life balance"; incidence of upper secondary and tertiary education attainment, PISA and PIAAC scores in the case of "education and skills"; quality of support network and time spent socialising in the case of "social connections"; political efficacy and self-reported voter turnout in the case of "civic engagement and governance"; satisfaction with water quality in the case of "environmental quality", feelings of security and homicide rate in the case of "personal security"; and life satisfaction in the case of "subjective well-being". For a given indicator, the higher (lower) the outcome of women compared to men, the stronger (weaker) is the country's performance in that area.
Source: Various databases, as detailed in Table 2.A.1 in Annex 2.A.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933596154

explained by the focus of the analysis on *within-country* inequalities, i.e. comparing the performance of Swedish women with that of Swedish men, rather than comparing the average performance of Swedish women against that of their peers in other OECD countries. In fact, Swedish women outperform women in other OECD countries in most well-being dimensions, and yet for some of those dimensions Sweden shows gender gaps larger than those in most OECD countries. For instance, while Swedish women are more likely to rate their health as good or very good than in the United Kingdom (77% versus 70%), gender gaps in self-reported health are large in Sweden (6%) and almost nil in the United Kingdom.

Horizontal inequalities by age

Figure 2.8 shows the number of dimensions where each country shows "low", "high" and "mid-ranking" performance in inequality by age. No distinction is made between differences associated with age itself (e.g. differences due to the ageing process, or life-course changes) as opposed to cohort effects (e.g. those associated with the life experiences of people born in a particular year). In addition, people at different stages in their life typically have different life circumstances, such as levels of wealth, social relationships and health status. Thus, age-related differences are not necessarily always caused by age *per se* but may refer to a variety of other factors that co-vary with age; moreover, they do not always represent a disadvantage calling for corrective policies. For instance, in the Nordic countries low unemployment, a well-functioning mortgage market and generous publicly subsidised loans allow young people to leave their parental home early to form their own households, although this also implies relatively high rates of youth poverty.

The country ranking shown in Panel A of Figure 2.8 reflects the gap in average well-being outcomes between the youth and the middle-aged. Estonia records low relative inequality in 72% of the 17 weighted indicators considered, mid-ranking performance in 18% of them and high relative inequality in an additional 5% (and missing information in 5% of the weighted indicators). A strong performance is also recorded in Poland, Greece, Portugal and Latvia. By way of contrast, Norway, Finland, Denmark and the United Kingdom are among the top performers in less than 10% of the weighted indicators considered.

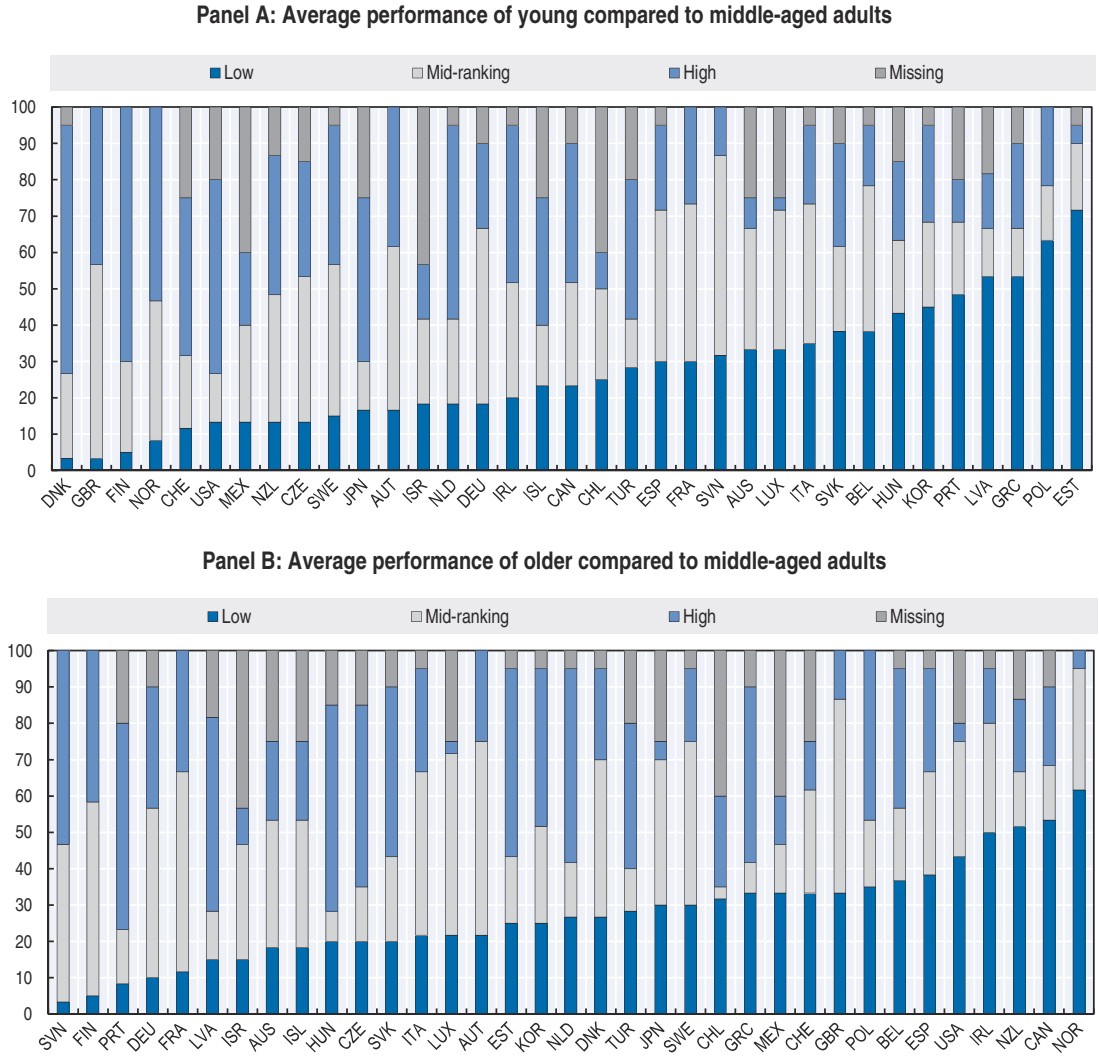
When the relative performance of senior adults is considered (Figure 2.8, Panel B), the ranking position of a number of countries changes significantly. For instance, Estonia now shows low relative inequality in only 25% of the weighted indicators considered, and Norway in 62% (compared to, respectively, 72% and 8% in Panel A). This suggests that there are different age patterns in well-being outcomes across countries: well-being outcomes in those countries that move from right to left when moving from Panel A to Panel B (e.g. Estonia, Poland, Latvia and Slovenia), tend to decrease with age while in those countries that move from left to right (e.g. Norway, New Zealand, the United States and Denmark) outcomes tend to improve with age. Finally, in those countries that maintain their position in the two panels of Figure 2.8 (e.g. Turkey and the Netherlands), outcomes tend to either be fairly distributed across the three age groups or follow a U-shaped (or inverted U-shaped) age pattern.

Horizontal inequalities by education

The benefits of education are often framed in terms of jobs and earnings, but people with a higher level of education also enjoy better health, are more likely to be civically engaged (see Chapter 4), report higher levels of support from friends and relatives, and are more likely to be satisfied with their lives overall. However, as with other forms of inequalities in well-being, the size of education-related gaps varies from country to country.

Figure 2.8. **Horizontal inequalities by age**

Percentage of weighted indicators in which a country shows low, high and mid-ranking inequalities, latest available year



Note: Indicators within each dimension are given equal weights that sum up to 1. Countries are ranked in ascending order according to the share of weighted indicators in which a country shows low inequalities. This refers to horizontal inequalities ranked among the lowest third of OECD countries; "high inequalities" refers to horizontal inequalities ranked among the highest third of OECD countries. Only indicators for which available data cover at least two-thirds of OECD countries are considered. In particular, 10 dimensions are covered by 17 weighted indicators, which assess the average performance of young adults compared to middle-aged adults (Panel A) and of older adults compared to middle-aged adults (Panel B) in: household disposable income and net wealth in the case of "income and wealth"; hourly earnings, employment and unemployment rates in the case of "jobs and earnings"; incidence of good and very good health in the case of "health status"; incidence of very long working hours and time devoted to leisure and personal care in the case of "work-life balance"; incidence of upper secondary and tertiary education attainment, and PIAAC scores in the case of "education and skills"; quality of support network and time spent socialising in the case of "social connections"; self-reported voter turnout and political efficacy in the case of "civic engagement and governance"; satisfaction with water quality in the case of "environmental quality"; feelings of security in the case of "personal security"; and life satisfaction in the case of "subjective well-being". For a given indicator, the higher (lower) the outcome of the former group compared to the latter, the stronger (weaker) is a country's performance in that area. Equal weights are attributed to indicators for each dimension. For a detailed description of the exact age groups considered for each indicator, refer to Tables 2.A.4 and 2.A.5.

Source: Various databases, as detailed in Table 2.A.1 in Annex 2.A.

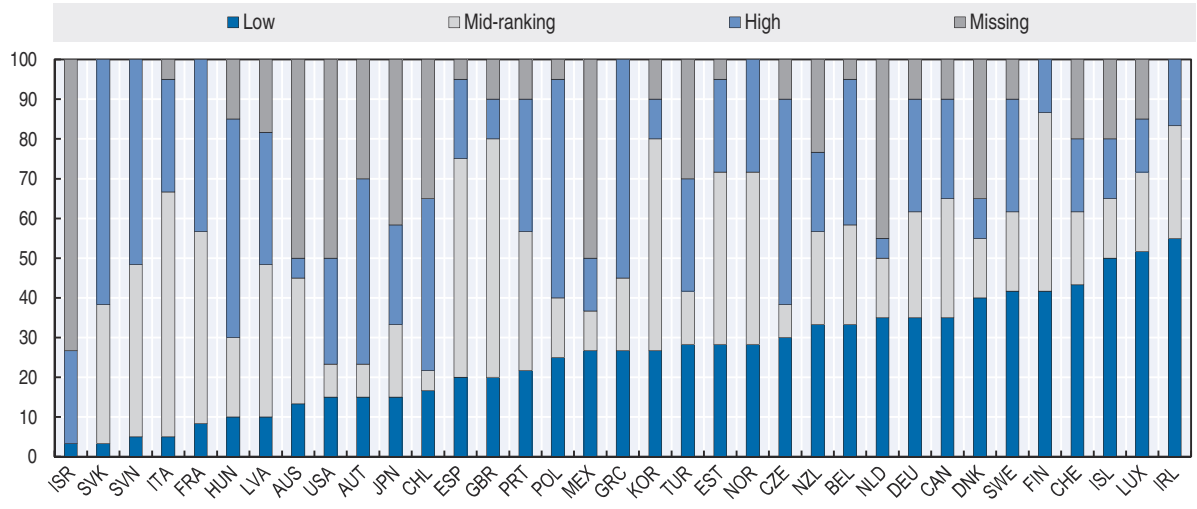
StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933596173

The country ranking shown in Panel A of Figure 2.9 reflects the performance of people with primary education relative to those with tertiary education in each country. Out of the 14 weighted indicators considered, Ireland shows low relative inequality in 55% of them, mid-ranking performance in 28% and high relative inequality in 17%. Switzerland, Finland and

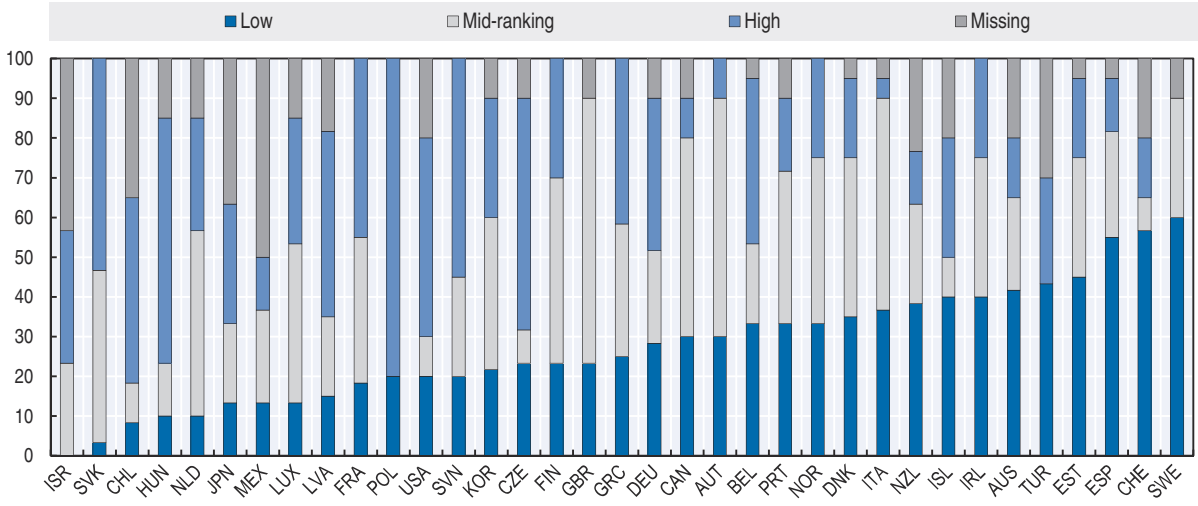
Figure 2.9. **Horizontal inequalities by education level**

Percentage of weighted indicators in which a country shows low, mid-ranking and high inequalities, latest available year

Panel A: Average performance of primary-educated compared to tertiary-educated individuals



Panel B: Average performance of secondary-educated compared to tertiary-educated individuals



Note: Indicators within each dimension are given equal weights that sum up to 1. Countries are ranked in ascending order according to the number of weighted indicators in which a country shows low inequalities. This refers to inequality levels ranked among the lowest third of the OECD countries for which information is available; "high inequalities" refers to inequality levels ranked among the highest third of the OECD countries for which information is available. Only indicators for which available data cover at least two-thirds of OECD countries are considered. In particular, 10 dimensions are covered by 14 weighted indicators, which assess the average performance of individuals with primary education compared to those with tertiary education (Panel A) and of individuals with secondary education compared to those with tertiary education (Panel B) in: net wealth in the case of "income and wealth"; hourly earnings, employment and unemployment rates in the case of "jobs and earnings"; incidence of good and very good health in the case of "health status"; incidence of very long working hours in the case of "work-life balance"; PISA scores by the parents' education level and PIAAC scores in the case of "education and skills"; quality of support network in the case of "social connections"; self-reported voter turnout and political efficacy in the case of "civic engagement and governance"; satisfaction with water quality in the case of "environmental quality"; feelings of security in the case of "personal security"; and life satisfaction in the case of "subjective well-being". The higher (lower) is the outcome of the former group compared to the latter in a given indicator, the stronger (weaker) is a country's performance in that area.

Source: Various databases, as detailed in Table 2.A.1 in Annex 2.A.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933596192

Sweden record low relative inequality in more than 40% of the weighted indicators considered. At the bottom of the ladder, France, Italy, Slovenia, the Slovak Republic and Israel are among the group of top performers in less than 10% of the weighted indicators considered.

Similarly, the country ranking in Panel B of Figure 2.9 reflects the performance of people with secondary education relative to those with tertiary education in each country. Sweden leads, with low relative inequality in 60% of the 14 weighted indicators considered, followed by Switzerland and Spain. Luxembourg, among the top performers in the upper panel of Figure 2.9, now lags behind, recording low relative inequality in only 13% of the weighted indicators. Finland, Ireland, the Netherlands and Mexico show low relative inequality in fewer areas in Panel B (i.e. comparing the relative performance of the secondary-educated) compared to Panel A (i.e. comparing the relative performance of the primary-educated); while the reverse holds true for Australia, Italy and Spain. This finding suggests that the education gradient in well-being is steeper in the latter group of countries.

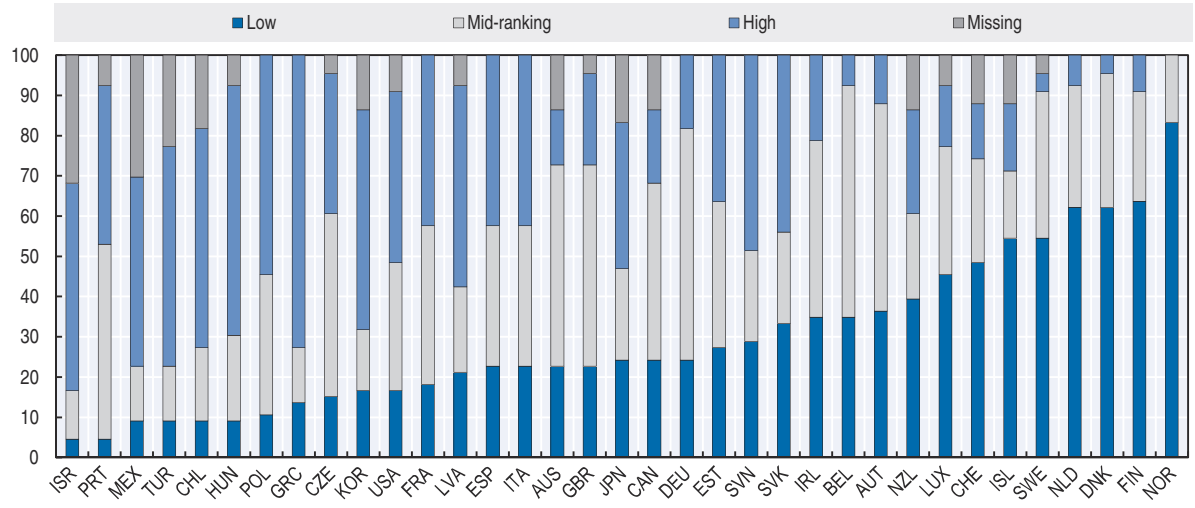
Deprivations

There are many ways to define deprivation, whether at the individual or household level. Classical measures have typically focused on income or consumption expenditures, with deprivation thresholds based either on biological considerations (e.g., the cost of a minimum food basket plus an allowance for non-food basic needs) or on the social standards that prevail in a given society at a given time. Yet, deprivation means more than not having an adequate income. Recently, new metrics of deprivation that take into account various well-being outcomes have been developed (see Chapter 5 of UNECE, forthcoming, for a review). Broadening the perspective reveals that, on average, in selected OECD countries for which information is available, one in six individuals is time-poor (OECD, 2013) and that more than one in two do not have sufficient liquid financial assets to overcome a temporary shortfall in income (Box 2.5).[11]

As with vertical and horizontal inequalities, countries' performance in deprivation varies in the OECD area. Figure 2.10 shows the share of weighted indicators in which each country records low deprivation levels, high deprivation levels and a "mid-ranking" performance. Overall, countries' performances in vertical inequalities and deprivations are well aligned. For instance, for several dimensions, Nordic countries show low levels of both vertical inequalities and deprivations, while the inverse is true for Portugal, Israel and Mexico. As an exception, in Italy the rather low level of vertical inequalities (Figure 2.2) is generally accompanied by mid-ranking or weak performances in deprivation (Figure 2.10).

Figure 2.10. **Deprivations in well-being**

Percentage of weighted indicators in which a country shows low, mid-ranking and high deprivations, latest available year



Note: Indicators within each dimension are given equal weights that sum up to 1. Countries are ranked in ascending order according to the share of weighted indicators in which a country shows low levels of deprivation. This refers to deprivation levels ranked among the lowest third of OECD countries; "high deprivations" refers to deprivation levels ranked among the highest third of OECD countries. Only indicators for which available data cover at least two-thirds of OECD countries are considered. In particular, 11 dimensions are assessed through the following 20 weighted indicators: relative income poverty and asset-based poverty in the case of "income and wealth"; unemployment rate and risk of low pay in the case of "jobs and earnings"; housing cost overburden and overcrowding in the case of "housing conditions"; incidence of fair, bad or very bad health in the case of "health status"; incidence of very long working hours in the case of "work-life balance"; share of adults aged 25-64 with below upper secondary education, share of 15-year-old students who score at or below Level 2 in science, reading and mathematics, and share of adults who score at or below Level 1 in both literacy and numeracy in PIAAC tests in the case of "education and skills"; lack of support network in the case of "social connections"; share of people who did not cast a vote in the most recent national elections and share of people who report that they have no influence on what the government does in the case of "civic engagement and government"; share of the population exposed to more than 15 micrograms/m3 of PM2.5 and dissatisfaction with water quality in the case of "environmental quality"; fear of crime and homicide rate in the case of "personal security"; and the share of people with very low life satisfaction and with negative affect balance in the case of "subjective well-being".

Source: Various databases, as detailed in Table 2.A.1 in Annex 2.A.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933596211

Box 2.5. **Evidence on asset-based poverty in OECD countries**

While income allows people to satisfy their needs and pursue many goals that they deem important to their lives, wealth makes it possible to sustain these choices over time. OECD evidence shows that the correlation, at the micro level, between income and wealth is less than perfect: for example, fewer than half of households in the lowest quintile of household income are also in the lowest quintile of net worth, with nearly one-fourth of them being in or above the third quintile of wealth (Murtin and Mira d'Ercole, 2015) – a pattern that partly reflects the concentration of wealth among the elderly, who generally have lower incomes. Since information on income flows does not inform about the capacity of households to maintain a minimum standard of living during periods of low income, the joint analysis of income and wealth clearly improves our knowledge about households' economic well-being and allows exploring the correspondence between households' current standard of living and their vulnerability to income shocks.

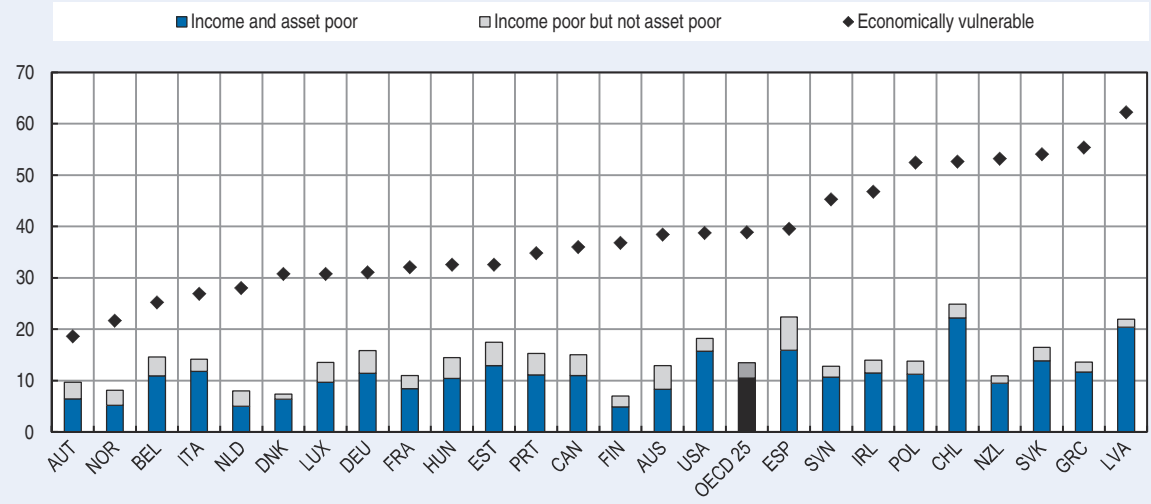
New OECD data allow exploring whether households have sufficient wealth available to smooth consumption in the face of a negative shock – specifically defined as the loss of three months' income. These data can be used to identify three groups of individuals who are particularly interesting to a study of inequality: the *income poor but not asset poor*, who have income below the income-poverty threshold but sufficient financial wealth to protect themselves from a three-month income shock; the *asset and income poor*, who lack this buffer; and the *economically vulnerable*, who, despite being currently above the income poverty line, risk falling into poverty because they do not have sufficient financial resources to protect themselves against a three-month loss of income.

Box 2.5. **Evidence on asset-based poverty in OECD countries** *(cont.)*

Figure 2.11 suggests that, across the 25 OECD countries with available data, around 75% of the income poor are also asset poor. Moreover, more than one in three individuals are vulnerable to income poverty, i.e. even though they currently have income above the poverty threshold, they do not have enough liquid financial resources to protect themselves against a three-month loss in their income. Austria and Norway have the lowest share of these economically vulnerable, while Latvia, Greece, Slovak Republic and New Zealand have the highest, with more than one in two individuals lacking a three-month financial buffer.

Figure 2.11. **Income and asset-based poverty**

Share of individuals who are income poor, asset poor or economically vulnerable, by country, latest available year



Note: Countries are ranked in ascending order of the share of individuals who are "economically vulnerable". The income definition used should follow as much as possible that used for reporting income poverty, i.e. household disposable income. However, in many cases, information on household disposable income is not available in the data sources used for the computation of wealth statistics; for this reason, the choice made here has been to rely on the concept of gross income (i.e. the total sum of wages and salaries, self-employment income, property income and current transfers received, all recorded before payment of taxes) when information on disposable income was not available. Income poverty rates refer to household disposable income for Australia, Canada, Chile, Denmark, Finland, Italy, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway and the United States, and to household gross income for the remaining countries. Assets are defined in terms of liquid financial wealth, i.e. cash, quoted shares, mutual funds and bonds net of liabilities of own unincorporated enterprises. The income poor are those with equivalised income below 50% of the median income in each country. The income and asset poor are those with equivalised income below 50% of the median income and equivalised liquid financial wealth below 25% of the income poverty line (three-month buffer). The "economically vulnerable" are those who currently are not income poor but have equivalised liquid financial wealth below 25% of the income poverty line. The OECD average is the simple country average. Because of different sources and income definitions, the income poverty rates shown in this figure differ from those reported elsewhere in the chapter.

Source: OECD Wealth Distribution Database, https://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=WEALTH.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933596230

Correlations among well-being outcomes and dimensions

Pair-wise correlations across different well-being outcomes

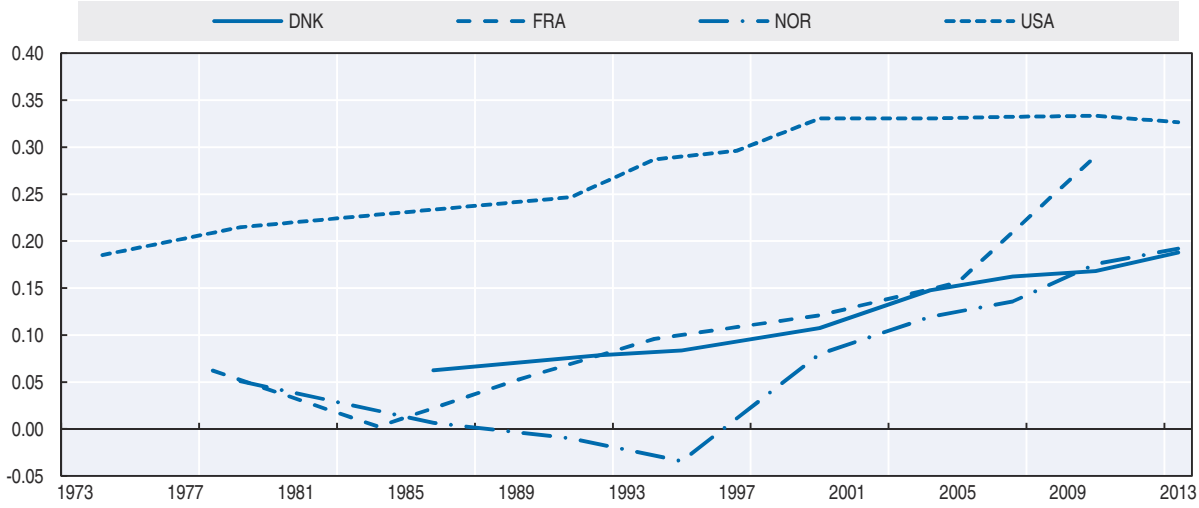
The dimension-by-dimension approach to measuring well-being inequalities ignores the interplay between the different dimensions of well-being within individuals. These correlations are important because a "winner-takes-all" society in which one person is top-ranked in all well-being dimensions, another second-ranked, and so on, is obviously more unequal than one with the same degree of inequality in each dimension, but where some individuals are top-ranked in some dimensions and others are top-ranked in other dimensions.[12]

Assessing the joint distribution of outcomes means meeting several demanding data requirements. An ideal dataset would not only contain micro-level information on the distribution of each dimension separately but also provide information on how achievements between dimensions are correlated across individuals (e.g. it would not only provide information on the share of those who report having bad health *or* low education achievements**,** but would also allow identifying those who report having bad health *and* low education). In other words, ideally all information should come from a single micro-level dataset that covers all dimensions for all people in the same country; and such a dataset should cover, in a comparable way, all OECD countries. In practice, no such ideal dataset currently exists. For this reason, this section is limited to a selection of well-being dimensions and countries for which broadly comparable information is available.

Correlations lie at the heart of any analysis of inequality, since the dispersion in the distribution of a given outcome depends, among other things, on the interplay between its various components. For instance, the distribution of income depends on three elements: 1) the share of various income components (e.g. earnings, capital income) in household income; 2) the univariate distribution of each component (e.g. the distribution of earnings); and 3) the individual-level correlation between distributions of each income component. While the first two elements have been extensively investigated, the third mechanism (i.e. the pattern of association) has received less attention (OECD, 2011a), despite evidence that the higher income inequality experienced in some OECD countries over the past 40 years may result, *inter alia*, from higher correlations between earnings and capital income, i.e. the same people are increasingly at the top of the distribution of both earnings and capital income (Aaberge et al., 2013; Milanovic, 2016; Piketty, 2014).[13] Figure 2.12 shows that the rank correlation between earnings and capital income has increased over the past 40 years or so in a number of OECD countries, although not in others.[14]

Figure 2.12. **Correlation between earnings and capital income in selected OECD countries**

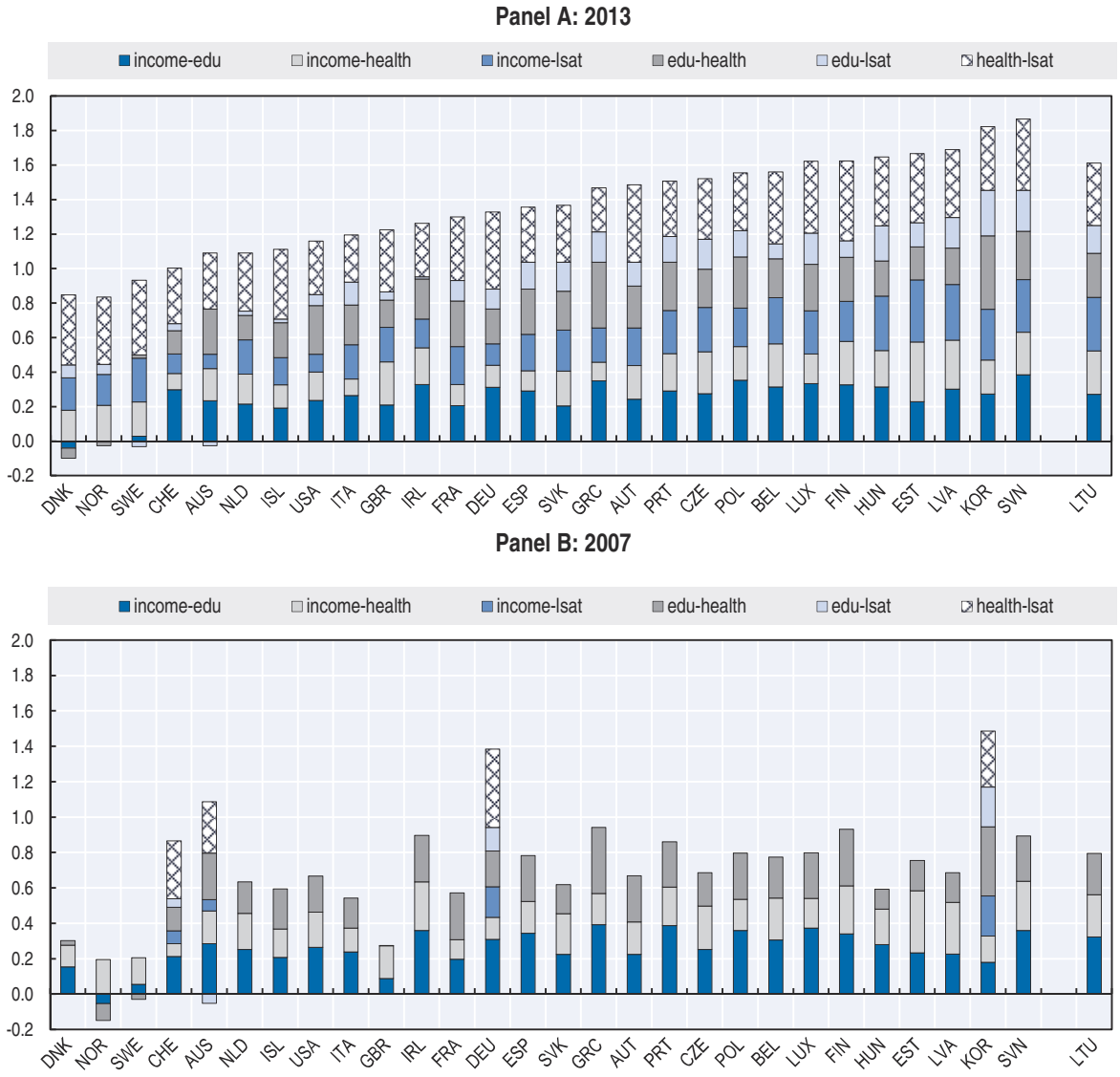
Spearman correlation coefficient between equivalised earnings and equivalised capital income



Note: Earnings and capital incomes are computed according to the Terms of Reference of the *OECD Income Distribution Database* (*http://oe.cd/idd*).
Source: OECD calculations based on individual-level data from the *Luxembourg Income Study Database*, *www.lisdatacenter.org/our-data/lis-database/*.
StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933596249

An analysis of correlation may also be used to assess the joint distribution of different well-being outcomes. Figure 2.13 shows the individual-level pair-wise correlations, across the

Figure 2.13. **Correlations across various well-being dimensions in selected OECD countries**



Note: The ranking of Panel B is aligned with the ranking of Panel A. Correlations are presented as stacked columns for the sake of readability only; it does not imply that they are accruable. In the key, "lsat" refers to life satisfaction; "edu" refers to years spent in education; "income" to equivalised household disposable income; and "health" to self-reported health status. Data on equivalised household disposable income refer to 2012 in Panel A and to 2006 in Panel B.

Source: OECD calculations based on Eurostat (2017), EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (database), *http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/income-and-living-conditions/data/database*; and the Cross-national Equivalent File (database), *https://cnef.ehe.osu.edu/*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933596268

28 OECD countries for which information is available, among four different well-being outcomes: (equivalised) household disposable income, self-reported health status, years spent in education and life satisfaction. Correlations refer to both 2013 (Panel A) and 2007 (Panel B), which allows assessing possible changes over time. The sample is restricted to adults above age 24 with complete information on all four variables; life satisfaction data are available only in 2013 for all European countries except Germany and Switzerland.[15]

With a correlation at the OECD level of 0.25, *household income* and *years spent in education* are generally tightly linked, although there is wide cross-country variation.[16] In Denmark,

Norway and Sweden, where the correlation between these two well-being outcomes is close to zero, individuals in the highest income quintile spend on average the same number of years in education as those in lower quintiles. People belonging to the top income quintile in countries with a mid-level correlation, such as France or the Slovak Republic, spend on average 2-3 more years in education than those at the bottom end of the income distribution. The gap widens to up to 5-6 years in countries with a higher correlation, such as Slovenia or Greece (Figure 2.13, Panel A). Between 2007 and 2013, the correlation between household income and education increased significantly in the United Kingdom and Latvia: in both cases, marginal distributions (i.e. the distribution of both variables taken separately) did not become more unequal, but a higher correlation between these two dimensions led to an increase in inequality in their joint distribution. By contrast, in Portugal the (high) correlation between household income and education fell by almost 10 points between 2007 and 2013; since the marginal distributions of household income and education were virtually unchanged, this implies that inequality in their joint distribution fell in Portugal between 2007 and 2013. Similar patterns hold for Australia, where the correlation between household income and education fell by around 5 percentage points; as inequality in marginal distributions did not change, the joint distribution of education and household income unambiguously declined (Panel B).

The estimates in Figure 2.13 also suggest that there is a robust positive relation between *household income* and *self-reported health status*, with only a few exceptions (Figure 2.13, Panel A). One of these is Italy, where the correlation is among the lowest in OECD countries (0.10) and the likelihood of reporting a very good general health status is almost the same among all income quintiles. However, in the United Kingdom and Estonia, household income is much more strongly related to self-reported health, with those in the top income quintile being respectively 2 to 3 times more likely to rate their health as very good than those in the bottom income quintile. The correlation between household income and self-reported health has risen in the United Kingdom and Denmark; since no significant changes in the distribution of the two variables taken separately occurred in these two countries, one can conclude that the joint distribution of income and self-reported health status became more unequal (Panel B).

In 2013, *self-reported health status* correlated highly with *years spent in education* in one-third of the countries considered, i.e. Korea, Greece, Spain, Finland, France, Luxemburg, Poland, the United States, Portugal, Slovenia and Australia (Figure 2.13, Panel A). On average, in the countries considered, those reporting a very good health status have spent 4 years more in education than those reporting a very bad health status, although large cross-country differences exist. In Korea and Greece, those reporting very good health spent on average 6 to 7 years more in education than their peers reporting very poor health. This difference is only around 2 years in Switzerland, where the correlation between health and education (0.14) is almost one-third of that in Korea or Greece (0.42 and 0.38, respectively). Between 2007 and 2013, an increase in pair-wise correlations in the United Kingdom and the United States was accompanied by stable or more unequal marginal distributions, implying that inequality in the joint-distribution of the two attributes increased over time. Conversely, the correlation between education and self-reported health declined in Finland, where marginal distributions remained stable, implying that inequality fell in the joint distribution of the two outcomes (Figure 2.13, Panel B).

In all countries, the correlation between *life satisfaction* and *household income* is positive and significant, ranging from 0.08 in Australia to 0.35 in Estonia (Figure 2.13, Panel A). On

average, across the countries considered, those in the top income quintile are twice as likely as those in the bottom quintile to report a high life satisfaction (i.e. equal to or greater than 8 on a 0-10 scale). The correlation between *life satisfaction* and *self-reported health status* is positive and varies between 0.25 in Greece and 0.46 in Finland. On average, those reporting a high life satisfaction (i.e. at least 8) are 4 times more likely to report being in very good health than those reporting a life satisfaction below 3. Finally, the correlation between *life satisfaction* and *years spent in education* ranges from insignificant in Australia and Sweden to positive (0.26) in Korea. Those with high life satisfaction levels have spent on average 3 more years in education than those with low life satisfaction.

Joint distribution of well-being outcomes

It is also possible to move from a bi-dimensional approach, as shown in Figure 2.13, to a multi-dimensional one. Figure 2.14 provides a perspective on multi-dimensional inequalities by considering the joint distribution of three well-being dimensions: household income, self-reported health status and years spent in education.[17] The strength of the correlation among these three well-being outcomes is assessed by considering the share of individuals who fall in the same quintile in the distributions of each of the three outcomes considered. The flat

Figure 2.14. **Share of individuals falling in the same quintile in the distribution of income, health and education in selected OECD countries**

Percentages, individuals aged 25 and over, 2007 and latest available year



Note: The flat line at 0.8 in each panel represents the case where individuals are equally distributed along the joint distribution of income, health and education. Country lines represent the share of individuals who fall in the same quintile in each of the three outcome distributions. The horizontal axes show the triplets of identical quintiles defined over the three outcome distributions, e.g. the elements of the triplet "q1" are the first quintiles of each of the three outcome distributions. In each panel, data on equivalised household disposable income refer to the year prior to the survey reference year.

Source: OECD calculations based on Eurostat (2017), EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (database), *http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/income-and-living-conditions/data/database*; and the Cross-national Equivalent File (database), *https://cnef.ehe.osu.edu/*.

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933596287*

line at 0.8 in each panel represents the case where individuals are equally distributed along the joint distribution of income, health and education.[18] Country lines above (below) this level imply that individuals are over-represented (under-represented) in some parts of the joint distribution.

Figure 2.14 shows that in the United States there is more stickiness at the top and bottom of the joint distribution for the three well-being outcomes considered than in the middle of the distribution: more than one in six individuals who belong to the top (bottom) quintile of income are also in the top (bottom) quintiles of health status and education (i.e. 3.1% of all individuals, as shown in Figure 2.14, Panel A). Similar results hold for Portugal in 2007; in 2015 the ratio falls to one in thirteen individuals for the top quintile, while remaining virtually unchanged for lower quintiles (Panel B). This suggests that the remarkable decrease in the correlation between household income and education observed for Portugal in Figure 2.13 may have concerned mainly the top end of the income distribution. Individuals are much more evenly spread out along the joint distribution in Sweden, where someone's performance in health or education is almost independent of their position on the income ladder (Panel C). The case of Finland is of particular interest (Panel D). The stickiness at the bottom end of the joint distribution of income, health and education highlighted in Figure 2.14 is in line with the high levels of pairwise correlations reported in Figure 2.13, while this contrasts with the very low vertical inequalities shown in Figure 2.2. The latter pattern suggests that, while the gap between high and low achievers is low in Finland for most dimensions of well-being (as suggested by the univariate analysis), the high- (low-) achievers in a given dimension are likely to be so also in other dimensions. This result underscores the need to go beyond a univariate analysis of inequalities in well-being outcomes and consider how they interact at the individual level.

Inequality and family formation

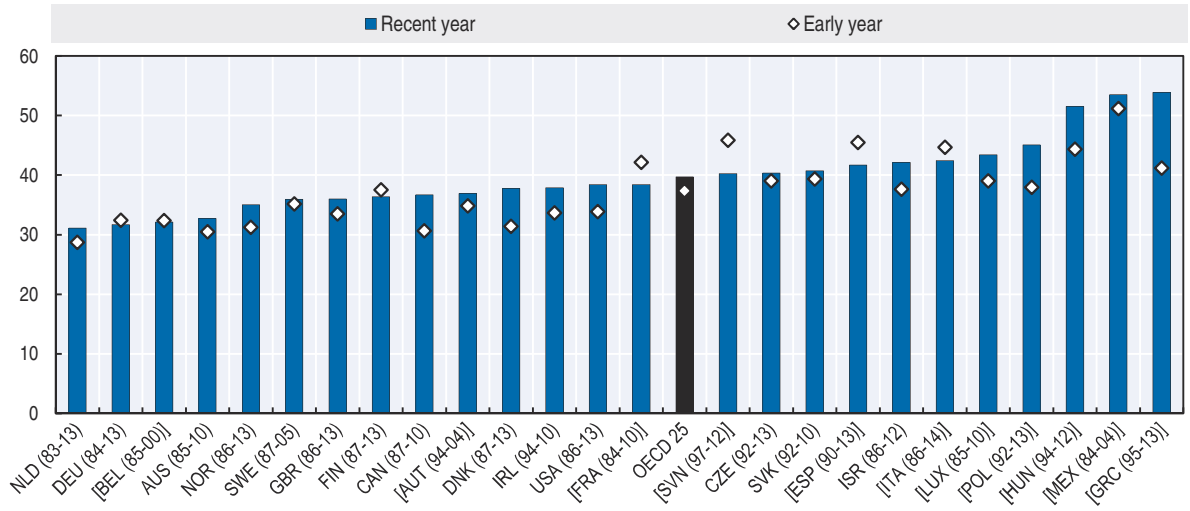
The term "assortative mating" has been used by researchers to describe the tendency of "like partnering with like" in forming long-term relationships and families. This is an important aspect to consider in any inequality assessment for at least three reasons (OECD, 2011a; 2015b):

- First, people partnering with people whose level of well-being is similar to their own can amplify existing inequalities. For example, if low-income individuals mostly marry other low-income individuals, and high-income individuals mostly marry other high-income individuals, this will exacerbate the size of the income gap between the households they form.
- Second, assortative mating, to the extent that it shapes household resources, will also have an impact on the circumstances of the children raised in those households – contributing to the intergenerational transmission of inequalities (Becker and Tomes, 1979; Black and Devereux, 2011).
- Third, assortative mating patterns may shed light on the nature of intra-household decisions on production and allocation (Becker, 1973; Zhang and Liu, 2003).[19]

One way to investigate assortative mating is by considering correlations between individual outcomes within couples. Figure 2.15 shows the likelihood that a person in a given earnings decile will partner with an adult with earnings in the same or adjacent deciles. This figure shows that, with dual-earning couples becoming more common, assortative mating is now widespread in all OECD countries: on average, two in five earners

Figure 2.15. **Assortative mating based on personal earnings**

Percentage of workers in a given earnings decile with a partner in the same or adjacent earnings deciles, working-couple households, mid-1980s and mid-2010s

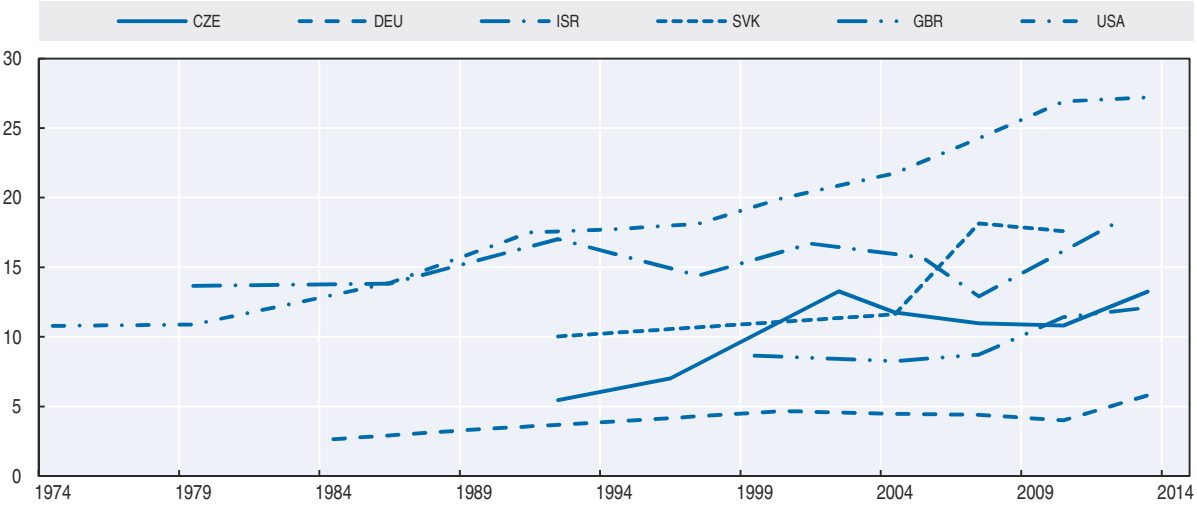


Note: Data refer to married- and cohabiting-couple households with both partners working and aged 25-64. Earnings refer to net earnings for countries in brackets and to gross earnings for other countries. The OECD average is the simple country average.
Source: OECD calculations based on the Luxembourg Income Study Database, *www.lisdatacenter.org/our-data/lis-database/*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933596306

Figure 2.16. **Trends in assortative mating by education in selected OECD countries**

Odds ratios for someone with a primary education to live with a partner with the same educational level



Note: Data refer to married- and cohabiting-couple households with both partners aged 25-64. Odds ratios reflect the relative likelihood of an event occurring for a particular group relative to a reference group. An odds ratio of 1 represents equal chances of an event occurring for a particular group vis-à-vis the reference group. Coefficients with a value below 1 indicate that there is a lower chance of an event occurring for a particular group compared to the reference group, while coefficients greater than 1 represent greater chances.
Source: OECD calculations based on the *Luxembourg Income Study Database*, *www.lisdatacenter.org/our-data/lis-database/*

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933596325

live with working partners belonging to the same or adjacent earnings deciles, a share that has increased over time, particularly in Greece, Hungary and Poland as well as in Denmark and Canada. In Greece, for example, the share of earners who live with working partners belonging to the same or adjacent earnings deciles increased by almost 15 percentage points

in the past 20 years or so. Other countries, however, bucked the trend: in Belgium, Germany, Finland and Sweden, assortative mating did not increase; while in France, Italy, Slovenia and Spain it actually fell.

Increases in assortative mating by education have been even more pronounced (Blossfeld and Timm, 2003). Figure 2.16 shows the odds of someone with a primary education partnering with someone with the same level of education relative to the same odds for people with a higher education level.[20] Across all countries included in Figure 2.16, people with only a primary education are more likely than those with university-level education to live with a partner with a primary education. Assortative mating, as measured in 2013, is lowest in Germany – where the odds of living with a partner with a primary education are five times higher for low-educated people than for people with a secondary or tertiary education; while it is highest in the United States – where the odds ratio is close to 30 (Figure 2.16). Like assortative mating based on earnings, assortative mating for people at the primary school level has increased over the past 40 years or so, especially in the United States, where the odds ratio more than doubled.

Intergenerational inequalities

Inequalities of opportunities can be characterised through either direct outcome-based measures, such as differences in birth weights or in students' test scores by family background, or indirect measures of intergenerational mobility, such as measures of earnings persistence across generations (Bourguignon, forthcoming; Causa and Johansson, 2011). Intergenerational mobility, i.e. the extent to which family background (in terms of parental income or education) plays a role in determining socio-economic outcomes in adult age is one aspect of (in)equality of opportunities, in the sense that low intergenerational mobility implies that someone's family background plays an important role in determining their outcomes as an adult.[21] How much a person's well-being outcomes depend on the circumstances of their parents – i.e. whether there is high or low "social mobility" – is controversial and difficult to measure, due to the lack of suitable data. An ideal dataset to address this question would have two main features. First, it would contain panel data on the incomes of parents and children at the same age. Second, it would be comparable across countries, so that cross-country differences in estimated intergenerational mobility are meaningful and do not derive from differences in data construction across countries. Unfortunately, no dataset currently satisfies both requirements. For instance, nationally-based long-running panel studies (e.g. the German Socio-Economic Panel [SOEP] and the American Panel Study of Income Dynamics [PSID]) contain detailed information on the earnings of parents and children at different ages, but their cross-country comparability is limited due to differences in the questions and concepts used.

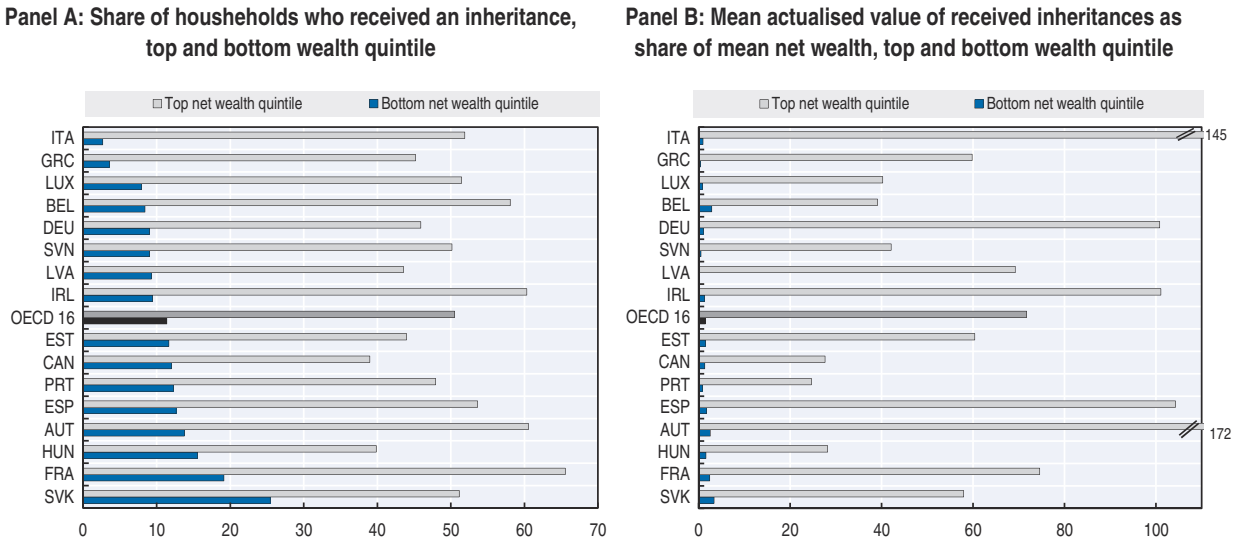
International comparisons of intergenerational inequalities have focused mostly on the impact of parental background on earnings and education outcomes. One suitable source for this type of analysis is provided by the OECD Survey of Adult Skills (PIAAC), which satisfies the second criterion set out above – to the extent that it contains information, collected on a consistent basis, for individuals from a large number of countries. The PIAAC survey contains information reported by the respondent on parents' education and earnings, which can be used as a proxy for actual parental outcomes to estimate a "parental education or earnings gradient". Evidence based on the PIAAC survey suggests that the parents' socio-economic background influences their children's educational and earnings outcomes in practically all countries for which data are available, although cross-country variations also

exist. For instance, mobility in earnings across pairs of fathers and sons is particularly low in France, Italy, the United Kingdom and the United States, while it is higher in the Nordic countries, Australia and Canada (OECD, forthcoming).

While there is much empirical evidence on the intergenerational mobility of earnings and education, less is known about the transmission of wealth from parents to children, and on the mechanisms underlying it. New OECD data shed some light on the importance of inheritance (and *inter vivos* transfers) as a source of people's wealth. On average, across the 16 OECD countries for which information is available, about one in three households declared having received gifts or bequests in their lifetime. Large cross-country variation exists: in Latvia, only one in four households reports having received inheritances or gifts while, at the other end of the spectrum, this share is almost two times larger in France. National variations are also evident when considering patterns along the wealth distribution (Figure 2.17). While, in all the countries considered, there is a positive gradient in the chances of inheriting across wealth quintiles, this gradient is particular strong in Belgium, Greece and Italy (Figure 2.17, Panel A).[22] An even steeper gradient is found when considering the average (actualised) value of the inheritances received by households in the different wealth quintiles, expressed as a ratio of the mean net wealth of all households in the country (Figure 2.17, Panel B). Across the OECD countries with available information, the actualised value of the inheritances and gifts received by households in the top net wealth quintile amounts, on average, to 72% of the mean net wealth across all households, while for those in the bottom net wealth quintile it represents less than 1.5% of the mean net wealth of the total population.[23]

Figure 2.17. **Inheritances and gifts, by net wealth quintile**

2015 or latest available year



Note: Countries are ranked in ascending order of the share of households belonging to the bottom net worth quintile who reported having received inheritances or gifts. The OECD average is the simple country average.

Source: OECD Wealth Distribution Database, https://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=WEALTH.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933596344

Parents transmit resources to their offspring through other channels as well. At every stage, educated and wealthy families support their offspring in ways that disadvantaged ones do not or cannot afford, e.g. by living in areas with better schools, or by having access to

a wide network of professional acquaintances who can provide mentoring to their children. The "family investment theory" (Becker and Tomes, 1979; 1986) suggests that the association between parents' status and children's life prospects is the joint result of endowments (e.g. genetic factors but also preferences and values) that parents transfer to their offspring as well as of resources (e.g. money, housing, schooling, nutrition, healthcare and time) that they invest in their children's socio-cognitive development (Bradbury et al., 2015; OECD, 2012, 2016a; Putman, 2015; Thomson and McLanahan, 2012).

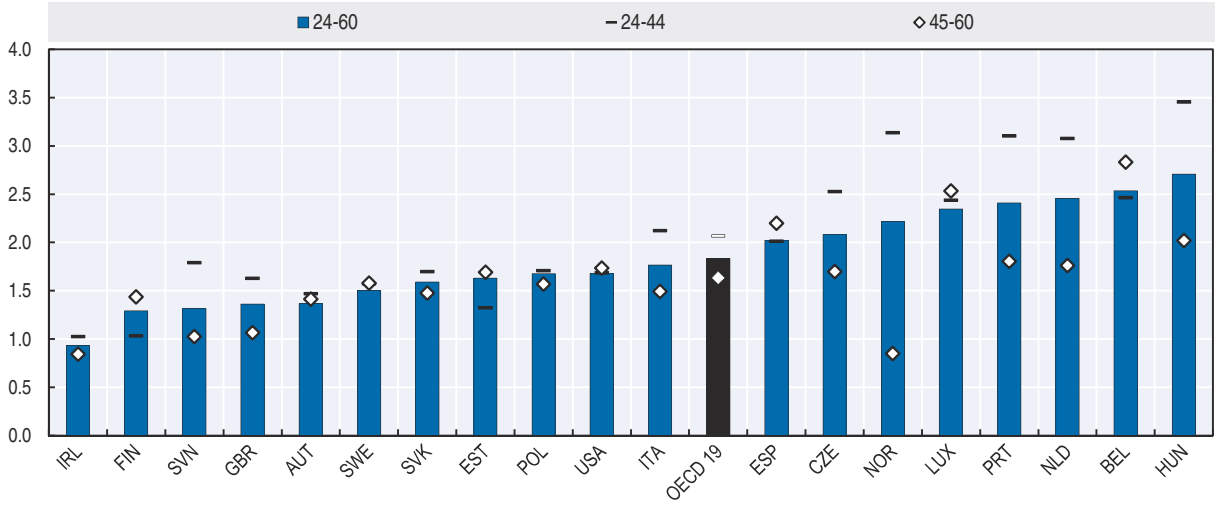
Inequalities and deprivations over the life course

Adverse living conditions during childhood are likely to set people on a life-course trajectory that may continue accumulating disadvantage over time. To keep track of how inequalities develop as people age, from birth through to retirement and later life, one would need to rely on long-running panel studies. However, these surveys are available in only a handful of countries, and their international comparability is limited. As an alternative, cross-sectional surveys with retrospective information may provide useful insights into the long arm of people's origins in shaping their life chances.

Children from income-poor families often grow up to be poor adults.[24] Figure 2.18 shows the extent to which experiences of economic distress during childhood and adolescence can predict poverty in adulthood in the United States and selected European countries. It is based on data from the American Panel Study of Income Dynamics (PSID) and the EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC), respectively.[25] In order to investigate the role that adverse childhood conditions may have on adulthood outcomes of different cohorts, the

Figure 2.18. **Prevalence of income poverty by experience of adverse economic conditions before adulthood**

Odds ratios of experiencing relative income poverty in adult age by experience of economic distress when young, 2011



Note: Countries are ranked in ascending order of the odds ratio of experiencing relative income poverty in adult age (24 to 60) by experience of economic distress when young. People are considered as in relative poverty when their level of (equivalised) household disposable income is less than half of the national median. Odds ratios reflect the relative likelihood of an event occurring for a particular group relative to a reference group. An odds ratio of 1 represents equal chances of an event occurring for a particular group vis-à-vis the reference group; values below 1 indicate that there is a lower chance of an event occurring for a particular group compared to the reference group; and coefficients greater than 1 represent greater chances. The OECD average is the simple country average.

Source: OECD calculations based on Eurostat (2017), EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (database), *http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/income-and-living-conditions/data/database* and on University of Michigan (2017), Panel Study of Income Dynamics (public use dataset): 2011 wave, *http://simba.isr.umich.edu/default.aspx*.

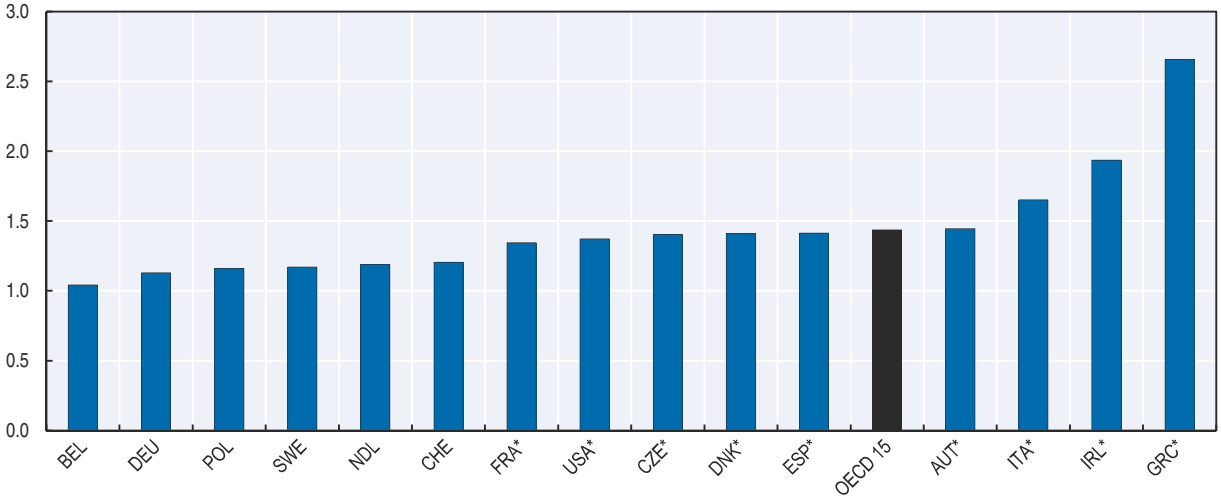
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figure distinguishes two age groups, i.e. those aged 25 to 44 and those aged 45 to 60 at the time of the survey.[26] With the exception of Ireland, in all OECD countries for which information is available, growing up under adverse economic conditions increases the likelihood of poverty in later life.[27] In Finland and Slovenia, the odds to be income poor in adulthood are 1.3 times larger for those who experienced economic distress as adolescents; at the other end of the spectrum, in the Netherlands, Belgium and Hungary, adverse economic conditions early in life increase the odds of falling into poverty in later life by 2.5 or more (Figure 2.18).[28]

There is also evidence that living in poverty when young is a predictor of a variety of adverse health outcomes during middle and late adulthood (Pakpahan, Hoffmann and Kröger, 2017). The effects of adverse childhood conditions on older adults' health can be described through the longitudinal component of the American PSID and the retrospective module of the Survey of Health, Ageing and Retirement in Europe (SHARE), which focuses on people's life histories and includes a number of questions on childhood environment (e.g. housing and health). While the European survey lacks specific questions on the economic and financial conditions experienced by the respondent in childhood, a proxy is provided by information on the number of people living in the household and the number of rooms in the dwelling. Figure 2.19 shows the odds of being in poor health having lived in an overcrowded household at age 11.[29] On average, individuals aged 50 or above who lived in an overcrowded household at age 11 are more likely to rate their health as fair or bad. All OECD countries with available data show ratios greater than 1, indicating inequitable health outcomes for individuals who experienced adverse conditions during childhood, albeit to

Figure 2.19. **Prevalence of poor health status among people aged 50 or over by household overcrowding at age 11**

Odds ratios of reporting poor health status, individuals aged 50 or over, 2009



Note: Overcrowding is defined as living in a household with more than one person per room. Poor health status is a dummy variable that takes the value 1 when the respondent rates their health as "fair" or "bad". Odds ratios reflect the relative likelihood of an event occurring for a particular group relative to a reference group; an odds ratio of 1 represents equal chances of an event occurring for a particular group vis-à-vis the reference group; coefficients with a value below 1 indicate that there is a lower chance of an event occurring for a particular group compared to the reference group; and coefficients greater than 1 represent greater chances. * indicates that the odds ratio is statistically significantly and different from 1, based on the analysis of the confidence intervals at 95%. Dummy variables have been included to account for gender and cohort effects. The OECD average is the simple country average.

Source: OECD calculations based on SHARE (2017), *Survey of Health, Ageing and Retirement in Europe*, Wave 3 – SHARELIFE, Release 6.0.0 (database), *http://dx.doi.org/10.6103/SHARE.w3.600*; and University of Michigan (2017), *Panel Study of Income Dynamics* (public use dataset), Survey Research Center, Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan, *http://simba.isr.umich.edu/default.aspx*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933596382

differing degrees. While in the United States, the Czech Republic, Denmark and Spain, overcrowding in childhood increases a senior adult's odds to rate their health as fair or bad by 40%, the odds are highest in Greece and Ireland, where individuals aged 50 or above who have lived in an overcrowded household at age 11 have twice the odds to rate their health as fair or bad than those who have not suffered cramped conditions in early years.[30]

Statistical agenda ahead for inequalities in well-being

The analysis of inequalities presented in this chapter is considerably more detailed than what would have been possible just a few years ago, although it remains limited in many important ways. Beyond limits in the amount of information that is available on changes over time (which reflects the recent nature of many of the available statistics), responding to the demand for better information on inequalities in well-being, as required by the UN 2030 agenda, will require taking steps in the following areas:

- ***Improving the breadth and comparability of the available micro-data:*** A wide range of well-being information is currently available through household surveys. However, some topics are more developed than others, and cross-country comparability remains limited. For example, broadly comparable questions on income, jobs and earnings, self-reported health, education and skills and life satisfaction are included in most surveys. Other well-being dimensions are also covered in national surveys (e.g. housing quality, personal security) but lack consistency in how the outcome is measured, often because no international standards exist. Questions on work-life balance, social connections, civic engagement, governance and environmental quality are seldom included in household surveys and, where they are, this is done in a largely non-standardised way.
- ***Integrating different data sources to provide a portfolio of well-being statistics joined up via a set of core indicators for each domain.*** One way to reconcile the need for joined-up statistics across multiple outcomes with the need for in-depth measures on specific topics (or for certain population groups) is to link data covering outcomes in several life dimensions at a very broad level to sources that provide more specialised information on each aspect. This is the model currently being implemented at the EU level and described (in more general ways) in Fleischer, Smith and Viac (2016). This would also require that all household surveys, whatever the specialised topic addressed, collected data on a core set of demographic breakdowns (e.g. minority status or disability), to live up to the 2030 SDG Agenda's aspiration of "leaving no one behind", without necessarily requiring larger sample sizes for all household surveys.
- ***Improving measures of intra-household inequalities in economic well-being.*** Data on inequalities in material conditions, such as income and wealth, are currently collected at the household level. The use of household-level measures is problematic when it comes to assessing intra-household differences in economic resources, especially when analysing gender roles – since it could lead us to underestimate the true extent of poverty and inequality. In order to better assess how economic resources are pooled and shared among household members, survey questions should probe respondents on who owns the assets or earns the income stream, whether part of these streams are not shared with other household members, and who makes the major financial decisions, as well as on subjective evaluations of the adequacy of economic resources. These questions should, ideally, be asked to all adult members present at the time of the interview, with each adult interviewed separately, as perceptions might differ as to where the real locus of decision-making lies.

- ***Developing dynamic measures of inequalities through longitudinal data, retrospective questions in cross-sectional surveys and administrative data.*** The limited scope of analysis on the inequality of opportunities, as well as on inequalities in an intergenerational or dynamic setting, highlights the importance of further developing longitudinal studies, including those that follow people since birth. An important (and much less expensive) option is to include retrospective questions on parents' conditions (and on the well-being outcomes of respondents at previous stages of their life) in cross-sectional surveys: while cognitively demanding and liable to memory biases, these questions have the potential to significantly enhance research and policy design. Finally, administrative record data of various kinds represent an under-utilised resource (whether used alone or linked to survey data) where greater investment is needed in the perspective of comparative research.

Notes

1. For example, in the 1980s, the average income of the richest 10% in OECD countries was 7 times higher than that of the poorest 10%; today, it is around 10 times higher. Inequality in the distribution of wealth is much more pronounced: the 10% wealthiest OECD households hold around 50% of total wealth, while the 40% least wealthy households own around 3% (OECD, 2016b and 2015b).
2. For example, the Gini index (a common measure of income inequality) provides a synthetic assessment of the full distribution of a continuous, non-negative variable in society. This measure is, however, very sensitive to changes in the middle of the distribution (Lambert, 2001) and does not inform about where changes in inequality take place (e.g. does a higher Gini coefficient reflect a squeezed middle class? Or a reduction at the bottom end of the distribution?). By way of contrast, quintile or decile ratios consider the average value of those at different points of the distribution, but do not inform about the overall level of inequality across the whole distribution. Different measures can lead to different conclusions about the degree of inequality (and how it is changing over time) for the same distribution; this implies that it is generally wise to use more than one metric to get a broad picture of levels and trends in inequality.
3. While alternative approaches are available (e.g. fuzzy sets, stochastic dominance), no superior candidate exists.
4. In principle, inequalities of opportunity may be defined over each well-being dimension, although most of the literature on the topic focuses on earnings and education outcomes, as available evidence in other areas of people's life is scant. Further, in a dynamic setting, unequal outcomes among people belonging to a given generation may themselves translate into unequal circumstances for people in the generation that follows (as represented by the arrow in Figure 2.1 going from inequality of opportunity to inequality of outcomes): intergenerational transmission of inequality naturally follows when successful people in the current generation are able to provide their children with better education, health care, mentoring, extra-curricular activities, financing and work opportunities. Within a generation, however, that link may also stand for some unfavourable random event at some point of life that negatively affects the future outcomes of an individual, as with poverty traps (e.g. due to a spell of unemployment or ill-health).
5. In this analysis, countries are first ranked from best to worst based on their level of inequality in each well-being indicator. Countries are then split into thirds; the thirds have been determined by ranking countries from worst outcome (1) to best outcome (35), and then dividing that rank by the total number of countries in the sample. The resulting values (ranging from 0 to 1) are then categorised as follows: countries with values less than or equal to 1/3 are assigned to the bottom tier; values greater than 1/3 but less than or equal to 2/3 are categorised as middle tier; and values greater than 2/3 but less than or equal to 1.0 are assigned to the top tier. A country is considered as having "low inequalities" when its performance with respect to each inequality indicator falls within the top third of all OECD countries with available data; its performance is "mid-ranking" when the country falls within the middle third of all countries with available data; and the country has "high inequalities" when it falls within the bottom third of all countries with available data.
6. It should be borne in mind that, since the level of overlap between a country's income inequality and its vertical inequalities in other well-being outcomes is computed on the sub-set of indicators with available information, the comparative evidence shown in Figure 2.3 is sensitive to the number of indicators with missing information. In other words, a country with a large number of missing

values may exhibit either very low or very high levels of overlap, depending on whether the country's performance in those few indicators with available evidence falls in different thirds or in the same third of income inequality.

7. Because of the way in which PISA scores are constructed, changes over time in inequality in students' performance are more meaningfully assessed by considering a single field of competencies.

8. Data for 2015 available for Chile, Finland, Israel, Korea, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom and the United States suggest that the decline in the average S80/S20 ratio observed in 2014 continued in 2015. The time profile in the average S80/S20 ratio mirrors that for the Gini coefficient, which is the measure most commonly used in other OECD reports on the subject. As described in OECD (2016b), redistribution through income tax and cash transfers, such as unemployment or other benefits, dampened the large increase in market income inequality recorded during the economic crisis.

9. The large decrease recorded in Austria (from 61.7% to 55.6%) is related more to uncertainties in the survey data than to real changes in the underlying wealth distribution (Fessler, Lindner and Schürz, 2016).

10. These results only broadly match recent OECD analysis on changes in equity in education (OECD, 2017b), which refer to the share of variation in performance explained by students' socio-economic status, as opposed to the changes in the dispersion of student skills considered here.

11. An individual is defined as time-poor if the time they devote to leisure and personal care is less than 60% of the median time spent on those activities by all individuals in a country (OECD, 2013).

12. For instance, looking at the distribution of two attributes (e.g. income and education, shown as rows) among three people (shown as columns), a dimension-by-dimension approach would not distinguish between two joint distributions such as:

$$D1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 6 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \textit{and} \quad D2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & 6 \end{pmatrix}$$

In fact, looking at each row (dimension) independently, the aggregate inequality in D1 and D2 is the same. However, when considering the two dimensions simultaneously, one would intuitively consider D2 to be more unequal than D1, because the third person is now best-off in both dimensions while the first person is worst-off in both (with no change in the absolute and relative position of the second person). This example shows that differences in the distribution of individual-level outcomes may lead to very different societies, even when the dimension-by-dimension distributions are identical.

13. The classical model features a sharp divide between workers (receiving earnings) and rentiers (receiving only capital income). In such a model, capitalists would be at the top of the distribution of capital income and at the bottom of the wage distribution, while workers would be at the top of the distribution of labour income and at the bottom of the distribution of capital income, so that the individual-level correlation between labour and capital incomes would be negative. Evidence suggests that the classical model may have been replaced by one where those benefitting from high capital income are also receiving higher wages, at least at the top end of the distribution.

14. The Spearman (rank) correlation coefficient is better suited for an analysis of cross-correlations because, contrary to the Pearson coefficient, it does not depend on changes in the marginal distributions.

15. It should be borne in mind that cross-country comparability is limited, as the four well-being indicators are based on different surveys.

16. Ideally, rank correlation coefficients should be used (as in Figure 2.12) to separate changes in the joint distribution from those in marginal distributions. However, since most of the variables considered in the analysis are discrete and defined on narrow scales, rank correlations cannot be easily computed. To overcome this shortcoming, the information obtained through Pearson correlation coefficients is complemented by looking at changes over time in the marginal distributions of the dimensions analysed.

17. The analysis is restricted to the joint distributions of three outcomes. Even if extending the set of well-being attributes considered is possible in theory, in practice it is extremely cumbersome and data demanding, as it requires very large sample sizes. Moreover, in an international assessment this extension would come at the expense of narrowing the set of countries considered, as information is typically drawn from various datasets covering different well-being dimensions, which are not available in some countries.

18. There are 125 triplets of quintiles characterising the joint distribution of income, health and education; this implies that, if individuals were evenly spread out throughout the joint distribution, one will have an equal probability of 0.8% to belong to any of those triplets.

19. From a more technical perspective, it is also important to take account of "couple dependencies" when computing standard errors or confidence intervals. For example, if personal earnings are positively correlated between partners within households, this may increase the sampling variability of a given statistic and reduce the amount of independent variation in the sample (Biewen, 2002).

20. The odds ratio is a tool to show how strongly having or not having a certain characteristic in the population is related to having or not having another characteristic in that population. Odds ratios are not affected by changes in the educational attainment of the population considered.

21. Whilst equality of opportunity is not equivalent to intergenerational mobility, the two are closely related. In Corak's words, "if one number is to summarize the degree to which inequality is transmitted across the generations, just as sometimes one number, like a Gini coefficient, is used to summarise the degree of inequality at a point in time, then the intergenerational elasticity [in earnings] is an appropriate statistic to use" (Corak, 2013: p. 83).

22. This result may partly reflect the fact that wealthier households are, on average, older, and hence are more likely to have inherited.

23. Estimates of the value of inheritances and gifts received are based on questions, included in the wealth surveys of several OECD countries, about whether households did receive inheritances and gifts in the past, and on their actual or historical value. In the latter case, the historical value of inheritances and gifts received by all household members has been actualised (i.e. converted to present values) by taking into account the changes in asset prices between the survey reference year and the year when the transfer took place, using share and housing price indices.

24. Research also suggests that the duration, the depth and the age of exposure to disadvantages and deprivation are decisive: in general, the effects in adulthood are stronger the younger children are, the longer they lived in adverse conditions and the more extreme these conditions were (Chetty, Hendren and Katz, 2016; Ratcliffe and McKernan, 2010). McKnight (2015) also shows that, in the United Kingdom, more gifted children from poor families are less likely to be successful in adulthood than similarly gifted (or even less gifted) children with a more advantaged family background.

25. The data shown in Figure 2.18 for the United States and selected European OECD countries are only broadly comparable, due to differences in question wording and response scales between the PSID and EU-SILC surveys. In the PSID, respondents are asked: "*Were your parents poor when you were growing up, pretty well off, or what?*" In the 2011 EU-SILC ad-hoc module on the intergenerational transmission of disadvantages, which collected information from adults aged 25-60, respondents are asked to assess the financial situation of the household in which they were living when they were around 14 years old ("*How was the financial situation of the household in which you were living when you were around 14 years old?*" (with response categories "Very bad/bad/moderately bad/moderately good/good/very good").

26. The results should be interpreted with care, due to possible recall errors that are associated with retrospective questions on financial problems experienced during childhood.

27. Economic distress is codified here as a dummy variable that takes the value 1 when the respondent states that their family faced a "very bad" or "bad" financial situation, in the case of European countries, and when the respondent states that their parents were poor when they were growing up, in the case of the United States.

28. In most countries, the likelihood of being poor as an adult, having faced adverse economic conditions in childhood or adolescence, is similar between both cohorts; however, in Portugal, the Netherlands and Hungary financial distress at age 14 is a stronger predictor of adulthood poverty for those aged 24-44 than it is for the older cohort. In Norway, those aged 24-44 having experienced financial distress as adolescents are about twice as likely to be income poor, while the financial situation at age 14 of those aged 45 to 60 is not a significant predictor of adulthood income poverty.

29. Many researchers have looked at the impact of overcrowding in childhood on subsequent adult outcomes. In one example, Marsh et al. (1999) examined the impact of poor housing during childhood (including overcrowding) on adult health, and found evidence that overcrowding in childhood increased the likelihood of poor self-rated health in adulthood more than sharing or lacking amenities.

30. It should be borne in mind that cross-country comparability is limited, as the data for the United States are drawn from the longitudinal component of the American PSID, while for the selected European OECD countries shown in the figure the analysis relies on retrospective questions, which are more prone to recall errors.

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ANNEX 2.A

Supplementary statistics

Table 2.A.1. **Indicators of inequalities and deprivations used in this chapter**

Well-being domain	Aspect	Indicator	Latest available year	Source	Type of inequality considered				Deprivation
					Vertical	Horizontal by			
						Gender	Age	Education	
Income and wealth	**Income**	S80/S20 household disposable income ratio	2015	OECD Income Distribution Database	X (35)				
		Gaps in average household disposable income	2015	OECD Income Distribution Database			X (35)		
		Relative income poverty	2015	OECD Income Distribution Database					X (35)
	Wealth	Share of household net wealth of the top 10%	2015	OECD Wealth Distribution Database	X (26)				
		Gaps in average household net wealth	2015	OECD Wealth Distribution Database			X (26)	X (25)	
		Asset-based poverty	2015	OECD Wealth Distribution Database					X (25)
Jobs and earnings	**Earnings**	P90/P10 gross earnings ratio (full-time dependent employees)	2016	OECD Labour Force Statistics Database	X (35)				
		Gaps in average hourly earnings	2013	OECD Labour Force Statistics Database		X (32)	X (32)	X (32)	
		Risk of low pay	2016	OECD Labour Force Statistics Database		X (35)			X (35)
	Employment rate	Employment rate	2016	OECD Labour Force Statistics Database		X (35)	X (35)	X (34)	
	Unemployment rate	Unemployment rate	2016	OECD Labour Force Statistics Database		X (35)	X (35)	X (34)	X (35)
Housing conditions	**Housing costs**	Share of people spending more than 40% of disposable income on housing	2014	OECD Affordable Housing Database					X (32)
	Overcrowding	Share of households living in overcrowded dwellings	2014	OECD Affordable Housing Database					X (31)
Health status	**Age at death**	Standard deviation of age at death	2013	OECD calculations based on Murtin et al. (2017)	X (23)				
	Self-reported health	Gaps in share of people rating their health status as good or very good	2015	OECD Health Statistics		X (28)	X (28)	X (28)	
		Share of people rating their health status as fair, bad, or very bad	2015	OECD Health Statistics					X (28)
	Life expectancy	Difference in life expectancy (years) at age 25 for women and men separately, by education level	2014	OECD calculations based on Murtin et al. (2017)				X (22)	
Work-life balance	**Hours worked**	S80/S20 hours worked ratio	2014	OECD Labour Force Statistics Database	X (28)				
		Share of employees usually working 50 hours or more per week	2014	OECD Labour Force Statistics Database		X (29)	X (29)	X (29)	X (29)
	Time off	S80/S20 ratio in time devoted to personal care and leisure	2014	OECD Time Use Database	X (14)				
		Gaps in average time devoted to personal care and leisure	2014	OECD Time Use Database		X (27)	X (26)		

Table 2.A.1. **Indicators of inequalities and deprivations used in this chapter** *(cont.)*

Well-being domain	Aspect	Indicator	Latest available year	Source	Type of inequality considered				Deprivation
					Vertical	Horizontal by			
						Gender	Age	Education	
Education and skills	**Educational attainment**	Gaps in share of adults aged 25-64 with upper secondary or tertiary education	2015	OECD Education at a Glance		X (34)	X (34)		
		Share of adults aged 25-64 with below upper secondary education	2015	OECD Education at a Glance					X (34)
	Student skills	P90/P10 PISA scores ratio	2015	OECD PISA Database	X (35)				
		Gaps in average PISA scores across all fields	2015	OECD PISA Database		X (35)		X (35)	
		Share of 15-year-old students who score at or below Level 2 in science, reading and mathematics (PISA)	2015	OECD PISA Database					X (35)
	Adult skills	P90/P10 PIAAC scores ratio	2016	OECD Survey of Adult Skills (PIAAC)	X (28)				
		Gaps in average PIAAC scores across both fields	2016	OECD Survey of Adult Skills (PIAAC)		X (28)	X (28)	X (28)	
		Share of adults who score at or below Level 1 in both literacy and numeracy (PIAAC)	2016	OECD Survey of Adult Skills (PIAAC)					X (28)
Social connections	**Social network**	S80/S20 ratio in time spent on social activities (among participants only)	2014	OECD Time Use Database	X (14)				
		Gaps in average time spent on social activities	2014	OECD Time Use Database		X (27)	X (25)		
	Quality of support network	Gaps in quality of support network	2006-17	Gallup Analytics		X (35)	X (35)	X (35)	
		Share of people who report not having relatives or friends to count on	2006-17	Gallup Analytics					X (35)
Civic engagement and governance	**Civic engagement**	Gaps in self-reported voter turnout rate	2016	Comparative Study of Electoral Systems (CSES)		X (25)	X (25)	X (25)	
		Share of people not having cast a vote in national elections	2017	IDEA Voter Turnout Database					X (35)
	Political efficacy	S80/S20 ratio in political efficacy	2016	OECD Survey of Adult Skills (PIAAC)	X (28)				
		Gaps in political efficacy	2016	OECD Survey of Adult Skills (PIAAC)		X (28)	X (28)	X (28)	
		Share of people who consider having no influence on the national government	2016	OECD Survey of Adult Skills (PIAAC)					X (28)
Environmental quality	**Air pollution**	Share of people exposed to more than 15 micrograms/m3 of PM2.5	2013	OECD Regional Well-being Statistics					X (35)
	Water quality	Gaps in satisfaction with the quality of the water in their local area	2006-17	Gallup Analytics		X (35)	X (35)	X (35)	
		Share of people reporting they are not satisfied with the quality of the water in their local area	2006-17	Gallup Analytics					X (35)

Table 2.A.1. **Indicators of inequalities and deprivations used in this chapter** *(cont.)*

Well-being domain	Aspect	Indicator	Latest available year	Source	Type of inequality considered				Deprivation
					Vertical	Horizontal by			
						Gender	Age	Education	
Personal security	**Homicide rate**	Deaths by assault per 100 000 population	2015	OECD Health Statistics		X (35)			X (35)
	Feelings of safety	Gaps in feelings of security when walking alone at night	2006-17	Gallup Analytics		X (35)	X (35)	X (35)	
		Share of people reporting they do not feel safe when walking alone at night	2006-17	Gallup Analytics					X (35)
Subjective well-being	**Life satisfaction**	S80/S20 life satisfaction ratio	2016	EU-SILC and NSOs calculations	X (27)				
		Gaps in average life satisfaction	2016	EU-SILC and NSOs calculations		X (27)	X (27)	X (26)	
		Share of people reporting low life satisfaction	2006-16	Gallup World Poll					X (35)
	Affect balance	Share of people reporting negative affect balance	2006-16	Gallup World Poll					X (35)

Note: For each inequality measure, the numbers in parentheses refer to the number of OECD countries with available information. Data on **household disposable income** refer to 2015 for Chile, Finland, Israel, Korea, the United Kingdom and the United States; to 2012 for Japan; and to 2014 for the other countries. Data on **household net wealth** refer to 2015 for Australia, Chile, Denmark, Italy, New Zealand, Norway and the Netherlands; to 2014 for Austria, Belgium, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Latvia, Luxembourg, Poland, the Slovak Republic and Slovenia; to 2013 for Estonia, Ireland, Portugal, the United Kingdom and the United States; to 2012 for Canada; and to 2011 for Spain. Data on **gross earnings** refer to 2016 for the Czech Republic, Korea, the United Kingdom and the United States; to 2015 for Australia, Austria, Canada, Chile, Denmark, Finland, Hungary, Ireland, Japan, Mexico, Norway and the Slovak Republic; to 2013 for Sweden; to 2011 for Israel; and to 2014 for the other countries. Data on **hourly earnings** refer to 2012 for Australia, France, Italy, Korea, Mexico, Spain, Sweden and Switzerland; to 2011 for Chile and Poland; to 2010 for Estonia, Luxembourg the Netherlands, Slovenia and Turkey; and to 2013 for the other countries. Data on **risk of low pay** refer to 2016 for the Czech Republic, Korea, the United Kingdom and the United States; to 2015 for Austria, Canada, Chile, Denmark, Finland, Hungary, Ireland, Japan, Mexico and the Slovak Republic; to 2012 for France, Spain and Sweden; to 2011 for Israel; to 2010 for Estonia, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Slovenia and Turkey; and to 2014 for the other countries. Data on **housing costs** and data on **overcrowding** refer to 2016 for New Zealand; to 2013 for Chile; to 2011 for Canada; and to 2014 for the other countries. Data on **self-reported health** refer to 2014 for Turkey; to 2013 for Japan; and to 2015 for the other countries. Data on **hours worked** include employees whose weekly usual hours worked vary from one week to another; data refer to 2013 for Germany. Data on **time devoted to personal care and leisure** (i.e. "time off") and on **time devoted to social activities** refer to 2016 for the United States; to 20014-15 for the United Kingdom; to 2011 for Japan; to 2010 for Canada; to 2009-10 for Estonia, Finland, New Zealand and Spain; to 2009 for Korea and Mexico; to 2008-09 for Austria, France and Italy; to 2006 for Australia and Turkey; to 2005-06 for the Netherlands; to 2005 for Belgium and Ireland; to 2003-04 for Poland; to 2003 for Latvia; to 2001-02 for Germany; to 2001 for Denmark; to 2000-01 for Norway, Slovenia and Sweden; to 1999-2000 for Hungary; and to 1999 for Portugal. Data on **educational attainment** refer to 2014 for France; to 2013 for Chile; and to 2015 for the other countries. Data on **voter turnout (deprivation)** refer to 2017 for France, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom; to 2016 for Australia, Iceland, Ireland, Korea, the Slovak Republic, Spain, and the United States; to 2014 for Belgium, Hungary, Japan, Latvia, New Zealand, Slovenia and Sweden; to 2013 for Austria, Chile, the Czech Republic, Germany, Italy, Luxembourg and Norway; to 2012 for Mexico; and to 2015 for the other countries. Data on **self-reported voter turnout (horizontal inequalities)** refer to 2016 for the Slovak Republic; to 2015 for Finland, Portugal, Turkey and the United Kingdom; to 2014 for New Zealand and Turkey; to 2012 for France, Greece, Korea, Mexico and the United States; to 2011 for Canada, Switzerland, Ireland, Poland and Slovenia; and to 2013 for the other countries. Data on **life expectancy by education level** refer to 2013 for Denmark, Hungary, Norway, Poland, Slovenia and Turkey; to 2012 for Austria, Belgium, France, Israel, Italy, Latvia and the United States; to 2011 for Australia, Canada and the United Kingdom; to 2010 for Finland and Mexico; to 2006 for New Zealand; and to 2004 for Chile. Data on **homicide rate** refer to 2015 for the Czech Republic, Hungary, Iceland, the Netherlands, Slovenia and Sweden; to 2013 for France, Ireland, Korea, Switzerland, Turkey and the United Kingdom; to 2012 for Canada, Italy and New Zealand; and to 2014 for the other countries. Data on **exposure to $PM_{2.5}$** are 3-year moving averages; estimates for 2013 are interpolated from 2012, 2013 and 2015, as estimates are not available for 2014. Data on **satisfaction with the quality of water in the local area**; on the **feelings of security when walking alone at night** and on the **quality of support network** are pooled across all available years from 2006 to 2017. Data on **life satisfaction (deprivation)** and on **negative affect balance** are pooled across all available years from 2006 to 2016. Data on **life satisfaction (vertical and horizontal inequalities)** refer to 2016 for Austria, Hungary, Italy, Korea, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Slovenia and the United Kingdom; to 2015 for Denmark, France, Poland and Switzerland; to 2014 for Canada; and to 2013 for the other countries.

Table 2.A.2. **Vertical inequalities in well-being, latest available year**

WELL-BEING DIMENSION	Income and wealth		Jobs and earnings	Health status	Work-life balance		Education and skills		Social connections	Civic engagement and governance	Life Satisfaction
INDICATOR	Household disposable income	Household net wealth	Gross earnings	Age at death	Hours worked	Time devoted to leisure and personal care	Student skills	Adult skills	Time devoted to social activities	Political efficacy	Life satisfaction
INEQUALITY MEASURE	S80/S20	Wealth share of top 10%	P90/P10	Standard deviation	S80/S20	S80/S20	P90/P10 in PISA scores, average across all fields	P90/P10 in PIAAC scores, average across both fields	S80/S20	S80/S20	S80/S20
COUNTRY											
Australia	5.66	46.47	3.29	12.54	1.72	..	1.7	1.62	..	4.04	..
Austria	4.12	55.59	3.33	12.28	1.36	1.92	1.71	1.54	13.9	4.4	2.02
Belgium	3.93	42.5	2.33	12.79	1.48	..	1.71	1.58	..	4.06	1.62
Canada	5.23	50.31	3.71	12.15	1.53	2.13	1.58	1.66	18.84	3.78	2.29
Chile	10.03	57.71	4.32	12.23	..	..	1.68	2.04	..	3.09	..
Czech Republic	3.65	..	3.54	12.97	1.32	..	1.68	1.49	..	4.17	2.35
Denmark	3.62	63.98	2.56	13.89	1.37	1.81	1.57	1.65	12.57	3.16	2.36
Estonia	6.2	55.71	3.78	..	1.27	..	1.54	1.71	..	4.32	2.24
Finland	3.73	45.23	2.56	14.36	1.35	1.79	1.58	1.62	15.91	2.98	1.66
France	4.47	50.62	2.81	13.53	1.5	1.73	1.77	1.62	9.87	3.62	1.99
Germany	4.42	59.72	3.41	..	1.54	..	1.66	1.57	..	4.31	..
Greece	6.35	42.42	3.27	..	1.69	..	1.73	1.62	..	2.46	2.61
Hungary	4.47	48.48	3.72	14.15	1.21	..	1.73	..	..	4.31	2.61
Iceland	3.58	..	2.94	..	1.66	..	1.69	..	..	..	1.33
Ireland	4.56	53.79	3.99	..	1.6	1.81	1.55	1.84	5.5	4.25	2.17
Israel	7.08	..	4.91	12.62	..	..	1.86	1.64	..	4.4	..
Italy	5.91	42.77	2.17	11.1	1.41	1.84	1.67	1.44	11.54	4.25	2.07
Japan	6.07	..	2.94	..	..	..	1.58	1.52	..	4.09	..
Korea	5.11	..	4.5	..	..	..	1.65	1.53	..	3.17	1.82
Latvia	6.36	63.38	4	15.83	1.25	..	1.56	..	..	..	2.3
Luxembourg	4.22	48.67	3.15	..	1.34	..	1.75	..	..	..	2.14
Mexico	10.43	..	3.88	13.94	..	1.94	1.6	..	11.96	..	..
Netherlands	4.38	68.35	3.02	..	1.24	1.94	1.68	1.61	5.65	2.97	1.64
New Zealand	5.77	52.94	2.95	14.42	..	..	1.7	1.62	..	3.37	1.9
Norway	3.87	51.48	2.55	13	1.44	1.83	1.63	1.58	9.17	3.36	1.71
Poland	4.72	41.82	4.03	14.31	1.41	..	1.59	1.49	..	3.71	1.93
Portugal	5.88	52.13	3.89	..	1.45	..	1.65	..	..	..	2.55
Slovak Republic	3.71	34.33	3.56	12.82	1.28	..	1.78	1.68	..	4.18	2.48
Slovenia	3.74	48.62	3.33	12.74	1.2	..	1.62	1.69	..	3.78	1.26
Spain	6.61	45.66	3.12	..	1.42	1.24	1.6	1.57	11.18	..	2.33
Sweden	4.09	..	2.28	13.26	1.31	..	1.7	1.6	..	3.33	1.67
Switzerland	4.56	..	2.72	..	1.4	..	1.68	..	..	..	1.86
Turkey	7.75	..	3.53	11.02	..	1.82	1.65	1.81	8.22	4.01	..
United Kingdom	6.11	46.59	3.42	11.19	1.74	1.85	1.67	1.57	16.5	4.23	1.98
United States	8.34	78.19	5.04	13.8	1.51	2.13	1.69	1.71	11.43	3.68	..
OECD average	5.39	51.82	3.39	13.08	1.52	1.84	1.66	1.63	11.59	3.77	2.03
Brazil	12.5	..	..	..	..	..	1.86	..	..	..	..
Colombia	..	..	5.21	..	..	..	1.7	..	..	..	..
Costa Rica	14.7	..	5.17	..	..	..	1.57	..	..	..	..
Lithuania	7.4	..	3.78	..	1.23	..	1.66	1.49	..	2.29	2.83
Russian Federation	..	..	..	..	..	..	1.57	1.49	..	3.2	..
South Africa	37.6	..	..	..	..	1.89	..	..	9.78	..	..

Note: Data on wealth for the United Kingdom are limited to Great Britain. Data on adult skills refer to Flanders for Belgium, and to England and Northern Ireland for the United Kingdom. Countries are ranked from worst outcome (1) to best outcome (35); that rank is then divided by the total number of OECD countries in the sample. The resulting values (ranging from 0 to 1) are then categorised as follows: countries with values ranging from zero to 1/3 are assigned to the top tier; values greater than 1/3 but less than or equal to 2/3 are categorised as middle tier; and values greater than 2/3 but less than or equal to 1 are assigned to the bottom tier. For OECD partner countries, the "OECD equivalent" rank is shown – i.e. the rank that the country would attain, when compared to OECD countries only. Values are shaded according to the tier within which a country's relative performance falls: the higher the tier, the darker the shade. The OECD value is the simple average of the countries with available data. ".." means "not available". All indicators are coded in the same direction, implying that larger values always indicate higher inequality. For data sources and latest available years refer to Table 2.A.1.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933598700

Table 2.A.3. **Horizontal inequalities in well-being by gender, latest available year**

Ratio of women's to men's performance

WELL-BEING DIMENSION	Jobs and earnings				Health status	Work-life balance		Education and skills			Social connections		Civic engagement and governance		Environmental quality	Personal security		Life satisfaction
INDICATOR	Hourly earnings	Low pay	Employment	Unemployment	Self-reported health	Hours worked	Time devoted to leisure and personal care	Educational attainment	Student skills	Adult skills	Quality of support network	Time devoted to social activities	Voter turnout	Political efficacy	Water quality	Homicide rate	Feelings of security	Life satisfaction
INEQUALITY MEASURE	Average hourly earnings	Share of full-time workers earning less than two-thirds of gross median earnings of all full-time workers (D)	Employment rate	Unemployment rate (D)	Share of people rating their health status as good or very good	Share of employees usually working 50 hours or more per week (D)	Average hours per day	Share of adults aged 25-64 with upper secondary or tertiary education	PISA scores, average across all fields	PIAAC scores, average across both fields	Share of people who report having relatives or friends to count on	Average hours per day	Share of people who report having cast a vote in the last national election	Share of people who consider that they have influence on what the government does	Share of people who are satisfied with the quality of the water in their local area	Number of deaths due to assault (D)	Share of people who feel safe when walking alone at night	Mean average values on a 0-10 scale
COUNTRY																		
Australia	0.87	0.70	0.86	0.98	..	3.03	0.99	0.97	0.98	0.97	1.01	1.06	1.01	1.01	0.97	1.86	0.64	..
Austria	0.82	0.42	0.89	1.17	0.95	1.66	0.98	0.91	1.02	0.97	1.01	1.02	0.99	1.01	1.00	1.25	0.84	1.01
Belgium	0.93	0.64	0.89	1.07	0.92	2.08	0.98	1.03	1.01	0.96	1.00	1.11	..	0.91	0.97	1.63	0.73	0.99
Canada	0.86	1.06	0.92	1.23	..	2.87	0.98	1.03	0.99	0.97	1.00	1.13	1.00	1.04	0.96	2.86	0.77	1.00
Chile	0.79	0.47	0.71	0.88	..	..	..	0.99	1.02	0.94	1.01	..	..	1.07	0.99	7.18	0.80	..
Czech Republic	0.81	0.64	0.80	0.73	0.94	2.81	..	0.96	0.99	0.98	1.02	..	0.97	0.84	0.98	1.67	0.71	1.00
Denmark	0.93	0.58	0.92	0.88	0.96	2.38	1.01	1.03	0.99	0.98	1.00	1.17	..	1.12	0.98	1.00	0.79	1.00
Estonia	0.78	0.44	0.91	1.19	0.93	1.43	0.93	1.05	0.99	0.99	1.01	1.11	..	0.95	0.98	5.10	0.77	1.01
Finland	0.87	0.51	0.97	1.05	0.99	2.58	0.97	1.07	0.95	0.99	1.03	1.20	0.96	1.06	0.99	1.80	0.76	1.03
France	0.89	0.54	0.91	1.05	0.93	1.50	0.97	0.97	0.99	0.98	1.01	1.07	1.02	1.08	1.00	2.00	0.73	0.99
Germany	0.82	0.55	0.90	1.20	0.96	2.23	0.99	0.96	1.00	0.96	1.00	1.09	0.92	0.88	0.98	1.00	0.77	..
Greece	0.89	0.76	0.72	0.70	0.93	1.88	..	1.05	0.97	1.00	1.02	..	1.01	1.00	0.97	4.00	0.72	1.01
Hungary	0.89	0.81	0.82	1.01	0.89	2.04	0.95	0.96	0.99	..	1.02	0.74	..	..	0.98	1.67	0.69	0.98
Iceland	0.86	0.65	0.95	0.97	0.91	1.86	..	1.01	0.97	..	1.01	..	0.98	..	1.00	3.00	0.81	1.00
Ireland	0.91	0.67	0.84	1.40	0.98	1.98	0.97	1.07	1.01	0.97	1.02	0.98	1.00	1.07	0.98	5.00	0.72	1.00
Israel	..	0.59	0.89	0.95	..	..	..	1.02	0.99	0.98	1.03	..	1.01	0.97	1.00	3.86	0.83	..
Italy	0.90	0.57	0.72	0.86	0.91	1.58	0.91	1.07	1.01	0.98	1.01	0.78	..	0.98	0.96	2.75	0.68	0.99
Japan	0.62	0.33	0.79	1.12	0.89	..	1.03	..	1.01	0.97	1.07	1.51	0.97	0.82	0.96	1.50	0.73	..
Korea	0.63	0.41	0.74	1.04	0.75	..	0.96	0.93	0.96	0.97	1.05	1.14	0.98	1.12	1.00	1.20	0.73	1.02
Latvia	..	0.79	0.95	1.29	0.82	1.40	0.97	1.09	0.96	..	1.03	1.03	..	..	0.95	3.22	0.71	1.00
Luxembourg	0.87	0.42	0.85	0.91	0.95	1.34	..	0.98	1.00	..	0.99	..	..	..	0.99	0.86	0.78	1.00
Mexico	1.02	0.62	0.57	0.98	..	..	0.97	0.96	1.00	..	1.03	1.04	1.00	..	1.01	7.98	0.89	..
Netherlands	0.87	0.62	0.88	0.86	0.91	1.43	1.03	0.98	0.99	0.96	0.99	1.11	..	1.01	0.98	1.60	0.73	1.00
New Zealand	..	0.77	0.87	0.88	..	2.69	1.01	0.97	0.99	0.98	1.02	1.29	1.10	1.06	0.95	1.36	0.61	1.03
Norway	0.83	0.79	0.95	1.37	0.95	3.14	1.02	1.01	0.97	0.97	1.00	1.29	1.02	1.08	0.99	2.00	0.82	1.01
Poland	0.97	0.85	0.82	0.99	0.89	2.45	0.96	1.00	0.99	1.01	1.02	1.00	0.96	1.04	0.94	3.25	0.78	0.99
Portugal	0.91	0.63	0.91	1.01	0.81	1.99	0.90	1.17	1.00	..	0.97	0.68	0.94	..	1.00	1.00	0.71	0.99
Slovak Republic	0.85	0.74	0.81	0.82	0.89	2.85	..	0.97	0.98	1.00	1.01	..	1.02	0.91	0.99	1.67	0.69	0.99
Slovenia	0.98	0.72	0.88	0.87	0.90	2.34	0.94	0.97	0.97	1.00	0.99	0.95	0.95	0.99	0.97	0.71	0.80	1.01
Spain	0.89	0.54	0.84	0.85	0.92	2.27	0.98	1.08	1.00	0.97	0.99	1.18	..	1.00	0.99	2.00	0.83	1.00
Sweden	0.87	0.68	0.96	1.13	0.94	1.75	1.00	1.03	0.97	0.97	1.01	1.09	1.00	1.16	0.99	3.00	0.70	1.01
Switzerland	0.82	0.40	0.90	0.98	0.94	2.36	..	0.97	1.00	..	1.02	..	0.90	..	0.98	0.67	0.82	1.01
Turkey	1.06	1.03	0.44	0.70	0.87	..	0.97	0.79	0.98	0.92	0.99	1.15	1.00	0.92	0.97	4.67	0.76	..
United Kingdom	0.86	0.58	0.88	1.06	1.00	1.79	0.98	0.98	0.99	0.97	1.01	1.24	0.96	1.04	0.99	4.00	0.78	1.01
United States	0.85	0.72	0.85	1.04	..	1.91	0.99	1.02	1.00	0.97	1.03	1.13	1.03	1.15	0.96	3.67	0.75	..
OECD average	0.87	0.64	0.84	1.01	0.92	2.12	0.98	1.00	0.99	0.97	1.01	1.08	0.99	1.01	0.98	2.63	0.75	1.00
Brazil	..	..	0.71	0.68	..	..	..	1.14	1.00	..	0.99	..	1.02	..	0.95	11.49	0.70	..
Colombia	..	1.03	0.70	0.58	..	..	..	1.06	1.00	..	1.00	..	..	..	0.97	11.44	0.87	..
Costa Rica	..	0.56	0.61	0.66	..	..	..	1.04	1.02	..	1.01	..	..	..	0.97	7.89	0.78	..
Lithuania	..	0.75	0.98	1.36	0.78	1.47	..	1.07	0.97	1.00	1.01	1.05	..	0.92	0.98	2.57	0.77	0.98
Russian Federation	..	..	0.87	1.08	..	..	..	1.02	0.99	1.01	1.00	..	..	0.88	0.89	3.82	0.68	1.01
South Africa	..	..	0.75	0.85	..	..	0.95	0.97	..	..	1.00	0.81	1.07	..	0.96	6.67	0.72	..

Note: Data on adult skills refer to Flanders for Belgium, and to England and Northern Ireland for the United Kingdom. Countries are ranked from worst outcome (1) to best outcome (35); that rank is then divided by the total number of OECD countries in the sample. The resulting values (ranging from 0 to 1) are then categorised as follows: countries with values ranging from zero to 1/3 are assigned to the bottom tier; values greater than 1/3 but less than or equal to 2/3 are categorised as middle tier; and values greater than 2/3 but less than or equal to 1 are assigned to the top tier. For OECD partner countries, the "OECD equivalent" rank is shown – i.e. the rank that the country would attain, when compared to OECD countries only. Values are shaded according to the tier within which a country's relative performance falls: the higher the tier, the darker the shade. The OECD value is the simple average of the countries with available data. "D" stands for "deprivation measure" and ".." means "not available". To ease understanding, all indicators are coded in the same direction: the higher the ratio, the better the relative performance of women. For data sources and latest available years refer to Table 2.A.1.

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Table 2.A.4. **Horizontal inequalities in well-being by age group, young vs. middle-aged adults, latest available year**

Ratio of young adults' to middle-aged adults' performance

WELL-BEING DIMENSION	Income and wealth		Jobs and earnings			Health status	Work-life balance		Education and skills		Social connections		Civic engagement and governance		Environmental quality	Personal security	Life satisfaction
INDICATOR	Household disposable income	Household net worth	Hourly earnings	Employment	Unemployment	Self-reported health	Hours worked	Time devoted to leisure and personal care	Educational attainment	Adult skills	Quality of support network	Time devoted to social activities	Voter turnout	Political efficacy	Water quality	Feelings of security	Life satisfaction
INEQUALITY MEASURE	Average equivalised household disposable income	Average net wealth	Average hourly earnings	Employment rate	Unemployment rate (D)	Share of people rating their health status as good or very good	Share of employees usually working 50 hours or more per week (D)	Average hours per day	Share of adults aged 25-64 with upper secondary or tertiary education	PIAAC scores, average across both fields	Share of people who report having relatives or friends to count on	Average hours per day	Share of people who report having cast a vote in the last national election	Share of people who consider that they have influence on what the government does	Share of people who are satisfied with the quality of the water in their local area	Share of people who feel safe when walking alone at night	Mean average values on a 0-10 scale
REFERENCE GROUP	persons aged 0-25	household heads aged 0-34	persons aged 15-29	persons aged 15-24	persons aged 15-24	persons aged 15-24	persons aged 15-24	persons aged 15-24	persons aged 25-34	persons aged16-24	persons aged 15-29	persons aged 15-24	persons aged 18-29	persons aged 16-24	persons aged 15-29	persons aged 15-29	persons aged 15-29
RELATIVE TO	persons aged 26-50	household heads aged 35-54	persons aged 30-49	persons aged 25-54	persons aged 25-54	persons aged 25-44	persons aged 25-54	persons aged 25-64	persons aged 35-54	persons aged 25-44	persons aged 30-49	persons aged 25-64	persons aged 30-49	persons aged 25-44	persons aged 30-49	persons aged 30-49	persons aged 30-49
COUNTRY																	
Australia	0.91	0.32	0.71	0.73	0.36	..	2.29	1.11	1.11	0.98	1.03	..	0.95	0.87	1.05	0.99	..
Austria	0.90	0.20	0.63	0.61	0.43	1.11	3.23	1.06	1.05	1.00	1.03	1.37	0.88	1.13	0.99	0.93	1.05
Belgium	0.92	0.43	0.74	0.29	0.35	1.09	0.94	1.07	1.06	0.98	1.05	1.37	..	1.14	1.03	1.00	1.03
Canada	0.94	0.30	0.65	0.63	0.45	..	1.42	1.11	1.02	0.98	1.04	1.68	0.92	0.94	1.02	0.96	1.00
Chile	0.81	0.43	0.69	0.39	0.39	..	..	..	1.24	1.03	1.14	..	..	0.90	1.00	1.05	..
Czech Republic	0.91	..	0.82	0.33	0.34	0.91	1.28	..	0.98	0.99	1.05	..	0.91	0.98	0.98	0.98	1.07
Denmark	0.91	0.22	0.64	0.71	0.46	1.09	0.79	1.08	1.01	0.96	1.02	1.30	..	0.95	0.99	0.93	1.01
Estonia	0.91	0.36	0.89	0.47	0.46	1.13	1.44	1.11	0.97	1.01	1.08	2.19	..	1.19	1.07	1.00	1.07
Finland	0.90	0.25	0.69	0.54	0.39	1.04	1.89	1.11	1.00	0.97	1.03	1.50	0.76	0.83	0.97	0.97	1.01
France	0.94	0.29	0.71	0.35	0.36	1.11	2.49	1.11	1.09	1.00	1.02	1.82	0.89	1.20	1.04	0.92	1.06
Germany	0.89	0.21	0.63	0.55	0.55	1.13	1.77	1.09	1.01	0.99	1.03	1.52	0.89	1.12	1.00	0.97	..
Greece	0.92	0.47	0.66	0.20	0.48	1.05	1.11	..	1.16	1.00	1.11	..	0.88	0.86	1.07	1.02	1.07
Hungary	0.89	0.53	0.78	0.34	0.35	1.12	1.38	1.10	1.02	..	1.08	1.47	..	..	0.99	1.02	1.08
Iceland	0.98	..	0.66	0.96	0.38	0.98	0.82	..	0.97	..	1.02	..	0.92	..	1.00	1.02	1.02
Ireland	0.89	..	0.65	0.44	0.42	1.06	1.23	1.09	1.12	0.99	1.01	1.81	0.87	0.94	1.03	0.98	1.02
Israel	0.88	..	..	0.56	0.49	..	..	..	1.07	0.98	1.05	..	0.92	0.91	1.09	0.99	..
Italy	0.92	0.39	0.69	0.24	0.29	1.09	0.91	1.12	1.24	1.00	1.03	1.90	..	1.26	1.09	1.00	1.01
Japan	0.91	..	0.86	0.51	0.61	1.25	..	1.06	..	0.96	1.05	1.25	0.71	0.85	0.92	0.97	..
Korea	0.77	0.46	0.65	0.36	0.32	1.49	..	0.97	1.07	1.03	1.18	1.03	0.81	1.27	1.08	1.02	1.03
Latvia	0.88	0.66	..	0.41	0.57	1.22	2.77	1.07	0.96	..	1.09	1.75	..	..	1.04	1.11	1.09
Luxembourg	0.92	0.39	0.65	0.31	0.53	1.09	4.92	..	1.16	..	1.05	..	..	..	1.09	0.98	1.04
Mexico	0.83	..	0.81	0.57	0.44	..	..	1.11	1.35	..	1.05	1.17	0.92	..	0.99	0.99	..
Netherlands	0.92	0.10	0.63	0.73	0.43	1.03	1.26	1.10	1.10	0.99	1.01	1.16	..	0.93	0.98	1.04	1.01
New Zealand	0.85	0.33	..	0.65	0.29	..	2.40	1.12	1.07	0.96	1.02	1.55	0.56	0.74	1.02	0.99	1.00
Norway	0.93	0.24	0.65	0.59	0.40	1.02	1.32	1.10	0.97	0.95	1.03	1.21	0.90	0.90	1.02	0.96	1.03
Poland	0.91	0.51	0.76	0.35	0.31	1.12	1.16	1.12	1.02	1.02	1.05	1.81	0.95	1.03	0.98	1.04	1.07
Portugal	0.92	0.53	0.73	0.30	0.36	1.17	2.32	..	1.47	..	1.10	..	0.78	..	1.03	0.98	1.13
Slovak Republic	0.89	0.63	0.87	0.32	0.39	1.09	3.68	..	1.00	0.99	1.04	..	0.82	1.18	1.00	1.01	1.08
Slovenia	0.98	0.37	0.76	0.34	0.51	1.11	1.82	1.12	1.07	1.02	1.05	1.66	0.98	1.60	1.04	0.95	1.05
Spain	0.92	0.49	0.67	0.29	0.41	1.07	1.01	1.10	1.09	1.00	1.03	1.92	..	0.95	1.09	0.99	1.05
Sweden	0.94	..	0.66	0.52	0.29	1.03	1.01	1.10	0.97	0.97	1.06	1.41	0.99	0.94	1.01	1.00	1.00
Switzerland	0.90	..	0.53	0.72	0.55	1.02	3.05	..	1.04	..	1.02	..	0.74	..	1.01	0.96	1.01
Turkey	0.80	..	0.65	0.57	0.50	1.17	..	1.06	1.69	1.04	1.11	0.89	0.84	1.09	0.99	0.95	..
United Kingdom	0.85	0.31	0.68	0.85	0.28	1.08	2.12	1.11	1.07	0.97	1.01	1.32	0.81	0.84	1.00	0.98	1.02
United States	0.84	0.18	0.62	0.63	0.40	..	2.05	1.08	1.02	0.98	1.05	1.24	0.77	0.92	1.06	0.93	..
OECD average	0.90	0.38	0.70	0.49	0.42	1.10	1.86	1.09	1.10	0.99	1.05	1.49	0.86	1.02	1.02	0.99	1.04
Brazil	0.77	..	..	0.58	0.32	..	..	..	1.37	..	1.06	..	0.99	..	0.97	0.96	..
Colombia	..	..	..	0.56	0.42	..	..	..	1.44	..	1.08	..	..	..	1.00	0.97	..
Costa Rica	0.78	..	..	0.46	0.30	..	..	..	1.37	..	1.06	..	..	..	1.00	1.08	..
Lithuania	0.88	..	..	0.37	0.51	1.18	3.14	..	0.98	1.03	1.07	..	..	0.84	1.10	1.06	1.13
Russian Federation	0.88	..	..	0.37	0.29	..	..	..	0.99	1.00	1.08	..	..	0.97	1.10	1.14	1.18
South Africa	0.69	..	..	0.21	0.45	..	..	1.02	1.22	..	1.02	0.92	0.69	..	1.01	0.97	..

Note: Data on wealth for the United Kingdom are limited to Great Britain. Data on adult skills refer to Flanders for Belgium, and to England and Northern Ireland for the United Kingdom. Countries are ranked from worst outcome (1) to best outcome (35); that rank is then divided by the total number of OECD countries in the sample. The resulting values (ranging from 0 to 1) are then categorised as follows: countries with values ranging from zero to 1/3 are assigned to the bottom tier; values greater than 1/3 but less than or equal to 2/3 are categorised as middle tier; and values greater than 2/3 but less than or equal to 1 are assigned to the top tier. For OECD partner countries, the "OECD equivalent" rank is shown – i.e. the rank that the country would attain, when compared to OECD countries only. Values are shaded according to the tier within which a country's relative performance falls: the higher the tier, the darker the shade. The OECD value is the simple average of the countries with available data. "D" stands for "deprivation measure" and ".." means "not available". To ease understanding, all indicators are coded in the same direction: the higher the ratio, the better the relative performance of young adults. For data sources and latest available years refer to Table 2.A.1.

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Table 2.A.5. **Horizontal inequalities in well-being by age group, older vs. middle-aged adults, latest available year**

Ratio of older adults' to middle-aged adults' performance

WELL-BEING DIMENSION	Income and wealth		Jobs and earnings			Health status	Work-life balance		Education and skills		Social connections		Civic engagement and governance		Environmental quality	Personal security	Life satisfaction
INDICATOR	Household disposable income	Household net worth	Hourly earnings	Employment	Unemployment	Self-reported health	Hours worked	Time devoted to leisure and personal care	Educational attainment	Adult skills	Quality of support network	Time devoted to social activities	Voter turnout	Political efficacy	Water quality	Feelings of security	Life satisfaction
INEQUALITY MEASURE	Average equivalised household disposable income	Average net wealth	Average hourly earnings	Employment rate	Unemployment rate (D)	Share of people rating their health status as good or very good	Share of employees usually working 50 hours or more per week (D)	Average hours per day	Share of adults aged 25-64 with upper secondary and tertiary education	PIAAC scores, average across both fields	Share of people who report having relatives or friends to count on	Average hours per day	Share of people who report having cast a vote in the last national election	Share of people who consider that they have influence on what the government does	Share of people who are satisfied with the quality of the water in their local area	Share of people who feel safe when walking alone at night	Mean average values on a 0-10 scale
REFERENCE GROUP	persons aged 51+	household heads 55+	persons aged 50+	persons aged 55-64	persons aged 55-64	persons aged 45-64	persons aged 55-64	persons aged 65+	persons aged 55-64	persons aged 45-64	persons aged 50+	persons aged 65+	persons aged 50+	persons aged 45-64	persons aged 50+	persons aged 50+	persons aged 50+
RELATIVE TO	persons aged 26-50	household heads aged 35-54	persons aged 30-49	persons aged 25-54	persons aged 25-54	persons aged 25-44	persons aged 25-54	persons aged 25-64	persons aged 35-54	persons aged 25-44	persons aged 30-49	persons aged 25-64	persons aged 30-49	persons aged 25-44	persons aged 30-49	persons aged 30-49	persons aged 30-49
COUNTRY																	
Australia	0.86	1.45	0.98	0.73	1.06	..	1.10	1.24	0.84	0.94	0.99	..	1.04	1.08	1.02	0.87	..
Austria	1.01	0.93	1.14	0.61	1.10	0.78	0.87	1.25	0.90	0.94	0.97	0.99	1.01	0.94	1.01	0.88	0.98
Belgium	0.92	1.40	1.11	0.29	1.36	0.83	1.11	1.18	0.78	0.92	0.98	0.97	..	0.99	1.05	0.78	0.99
Canada	1.00	1.29	1.00	0.68	0.94	..	0.80	1.30	0.92	0.94	1.00	1.14	1.10	1.02	1.00	0.91	1.01
Chile	0.93	1.63	1.12	0.39	1.86	..	..	..	0.70	0.86	0.93	..	..	0.85	1.06	0.95	..
Czech Republic	0.85	..	0.94	0.33	1.06	0.67	1.25	..	0.92	0.94	0.96	..	1.18	0.85	1.00	0.89	0.93
Denmark	0.96	2.24	1.04	0.71	1.32	0.80	0.73	1.11	0.87	0.93	0.98	0.92	..	1.02	1.00	0.90	1.05
Estonia	0.75	0.62	0.83	0.47	0.92	0.56	1.37	1.22	1.00	0.94	0.98	0.97	..	0.58	1.05	0.84	0.90
Finland	0.96	1.15	0.99	0.54	0.96	0.81	1.23	1.21	0.89	0.90	0.95	1.00	1.06	0.95	1.01	0.85	0.97
France	1.13	1.29	1.08	0.35	1.26	0.79	1.01	1.21	0.81	0.91	0.97	0.91	1.02	0.97	1.03	0.84	0.96
Germany	0.97	1.17	1.02	0.55	0.93	0.73	1.05	1.17	0.99	0.94	0.96	0.91	1.15	0.95	1.03	0.84	..
Greece	1.01	0.95	1.06	0.20	1.40	0.83	0.90	..	0.72	0.98	0.90	..	0.83	1.04	1.08	0.87	0.92
Hungary	0.87	0.85	1.00	0.34	1.04	0.54	1.05	1.17	0.92	..	1.00	0.90	..	..	1.05	0.82	0.90
Iceland	1.05	..	0.99	0.86	0.97	0.87	1.03	..	0.87	..	0.98	..	0.99	..	1.00	0.87	0.99
Ireland	0.92	..	1.01	0.44	1.15	0.88	0.83	1.23	0.76	0.93	1.00	1.00	1.03	0.96	1.05	0.93	1.04
Israel	1.12	..	..	0.56	1.19	..	..	..	0.92	0.90	0.98	..	1.09	0.92	1.04	0.99	..
Italy	1.08	1.22	1.16	0.24	2.02	0.78	0.79	1.14	0.79	0.93	0.95	0.94	..	0.95	1.06	0.88	0.97
Japan	0.96	..	1.00	0.51	1.10	0.76	..	1.23	..	0.93	0.93	0.88	1.09	0.98	1.09	1.12	..
Korea	0.74	1.19	0.92	0.36	1.23	0.65	..	1.22	0.62	0.89	0.78	1.30	1.01	0.73	1.01	1.15	1.00
Latvia	0.75	0.76	..	0.41	1.03	0.49	1.34	1.20	1.00	..	0.91	1.14	..	..	1.03	0.83	0.93
Luxembourg	1.05	1.60	1.18	0.31	1.25	0.76	1.06	..	0.91	..	1.01	..	..	..	1.04	0.88	0.98
Mexico	1.05	..	0.98	0.57	1.53	..	..	1.30	0.74	..	1.03	1.08	1.00	..	1.02	0.96	..
Netherlands	0.97	1.95	1.10	0.73	0.70	0.85	0.81	1.19	0.83	0.92	0.93	1.09	..	0.88	1.02	0.87	0.99
New Zealand	1.05	1.56	..	0.65	1.24	..	0.96	1.23	0.87	0.96	0.99	1.03	0.99	1.06	0.99	0.92	1.03
Norway	1.07	1.72	1.05	0.59	2.48	0.89	1.20	1.20	0.97	0.94	0.96	1.00	1.08	0.94	1.02	0.95	1.03
Poland	0.92	0.76	0.95	0.35	1.21	0.55	1.05	1.21	0.92	0.93	0.96	1.11	1.19	0.73	1.04	0.93	0.93
Portugal	0.99	1.23	1.09	0.30	0.90	0.50	1.29	..	0.54	..	0.93	..	1.08	..	1.00	0.76	0.89
Slovak Republic	0.95	0.88	0.95	0.32	1.12	0.63	1.16	..	0.92	0.96	0.97	..	1.20	0.80	1.02	0.85	0.93
Slovenia	0.95	0.71	1.08	0.34	1.12	0.68	0.96	1.22	0.87	0.90	0.93	0.93	1.07	0.83	1.04	0.88	0.90
Spain	1.09	1.59	1.21	0.29	1.10	0.80	1.17	1.26	0.68	0.91	0.98	0.94	..	0.99	1.08	0.88	0.96
Sweden	0.99	..	1.07	0.52	1.09	0.93	1.14	1.24	0.88	0.94	0.97	0.97	1.02	0.87	1.01	0.88	1.03
Switzerland	0.96	..	1.06	0.72	1.03	0.88	1.01	..	0.96	..	0.97	..	1.43	..	1.01	0.88	1.04
Turkey	0.93	..	1.00	0.57	1.35	0.63	..	1.14	0.71	0.92	0.93	1.20	0.98	0.97	1.11	1.10	..
United Kingdom	0.89	1.52	0.94	0.65	1.16	0.82	1.06	1.18	0.90	0.95	1.00	1.08	1.11	1.10	1.03	0.89	1.02
United States	1.02	2.04	1.05	0.63	1.17	..	0.94	1.21	1.01	0.96	1.01	1.08	1.19	1.14	1.04	0.91	..
OECD average	0.96	1.30	1.03	0.49	1.21	0.75	1.04	1.21	0.85	0.93	0.96	1.02	1.08	0.93	1.03	0.90	0.97
Brazil	1.15	..	..	0.70	2.03	..	..	..	0.66		0.97	..	0.99	..	1.09	0.89	..
Colombia	..	..	..	0.80	1.39	..	..	..	0.65		0.98	..	..	..	1.05	0.98	..
Costa Rica	1.00	..	..	0.71	1.53	..	..	..	0.94		0.97	..	..	..	1.03	0.81	..
Lithuania	0.77	..	..	0.78	0.96	0.43	0.89	..	1.01	0.94	0.96	..	..	1.10	1.06	0.75	0.92
Russian Federation	0.87	..	..	0.56	1.30	..	..	..	0.96	1.00	0.97	..	..	0.94	1.04	0.85	0.92
South Africa	1.13	..	..	0.69	2.67	..	..	1.23	0.66		0.99	1.37	1.07	..	0.97	0.93	..

Note: Data on wealth for the United Kingdom are limited to Great Britain. Data on adult skills refer to Flanders for Belgium, and to England and Northern Ireland for the United Kingdom. Countries are ranked from worst outcome (1) to best outcome (35); that rank is then divided by the total number of OECD countries in the sample. The resulting values (ranging from 0 to 1) are then categorised as follows: countries with values ranging from zero to 1/3 are assigned to the bottom tier; values greater than 1/3 but less than or equal to 2/3 are categorised as middle tier; and values greater than 2/3 but less than or equal to 1 are assigned to the top tier. For OECD partner countries, the "OECD equivalent" rank is shown – i.e. the rank that the country would attain, when compared to OECD countries only. Values are shaded according to the country's relative performance: the higher the tier, the darker the shade. The OECD value is the simple average of the countries with available data. "D" stands for "deprivation measure" and ".." means "not available". To ease understanding, all indicators are coded in the same direction: the higher the ratio, the better the relative performance of older adults. For data sources and latest available years refer to Table 2.A.1.

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Table 2.A.6. **Horizontal inequalities in well-being by education, primary vs. tertiary education, latest available year**

Ratio of primary-educated to tertiary-educated performance

WELL-BEING DIMENSION	Income and wealth	Jobs and earnings			Health status			Work-life balance	Education and skills		Social connections	Civic engagement and governance		Environmental quality	Personal security	Life satisfaction
INDICATOR	Household net worth	Hourly earnings	Employment	Unemployment	Life expectancy		Self-reported health	Hours worked	Student skills	Adult skills	Quality of support network	Voter turnout	Political efficacy	Water quality	Feelings of security	Life satisfaction
INEQUALITY MEASURE	Average net wealth	Average gross earnings	Employment rate	Unemployment rate (D)	Difference in life expectancy (years) at age 25 between women with primary and tertiary education	Difference in life expectancy (years) at age 25 between men with primary and tertiary education	Share of people rating their health status as good or very good	Share of employees usually working 50 hours or more per week (D)	PISA scores by the parents' education level, average across all fields	PIAACscores, average across both fields	Share of people who report having relatives or friends to count on	Share of people who report having cast a vote in the last national election	Share of people who consider that they have influence on what the government does	Share of people who are satisfied with the quality of the water in their local area	Share of people who feel safe when walking alone at night	Mean average values on a 0-10 scale
COUNTRY																
Australia	0.67	0.65	0.70	0.45	-3.69	-6.64	..	1.31	0.83	0.82	..	0.97	0.44	..	..	..
Austria	0.25	0.48	0.62	0.34	-3.05	-6.43	0.60	3.22	0.75	0.81	..	1.01	0.51	..	..	0.73
Belgium	0.51	0.69	0.55	0.28	-6.81	-9.86	0.67	2.75	0.77	0.79	0.97	..	0.58	0.74	0.75	0.93
Canada	0.43	0.54	0.68	0.45	-2.73	-4.09	..	0.59	0.88	0.79	0.99	0.92	0.62	1.48	0.84	0.99
Chile	0.33	0.28	0.73	0.95	-7.62	-10.94	..	..	0.80	0.69	0.81	..	0.61	0.65	0.97	..
Czech Republic	..	0.52	0.49	0.11	-4.79	-13.05	0.55	4.30	0.81	0.83	0.89	0.59	0.69	1.44	0.75	0.82
Denmark	0.42	0.68	0.70	0.56	-5.15	-6.84	0.81	0.66	0.81	0.83	..	..	0.71	..	..	0.99
Estonia	0.32	0.63	0.67	0.30	..	..	0.58	1.34	0.87	0.87	0.96	..	0.71	0.96	1.12	0.92
Finland	0.54	0.68	0.65	0.53	-4.76	-7.58	0.65	1.85	0.78	0.84	0.93	0.86	0.50	1.05	0.89	0.95
France	0.48	0.72	0.65	0.41	-2.65	-6.76	0.68	1.04	0.78	0.76	0.87	0.94	0.74	0.88	0.74	0.90
Germany	0.14	0.52	0.67	0.20	..	..	0.76	1.75	0.77	0.81	0.92	0.99	0.62	1.70	0.82	..
Greece	0.71	0.50	0.71	0.72	..	..	0.61	0.69	0.83	0.84	0.83	0.74	0.62	1.03	0.82	0.88
Hungary	0.19	0.44	0.58	0.14	-5.75	-13.94	0.55	1.12	0.66	..	0.91	..	..	0.81	0.96	0.79
Iceland	..	0.67	0.85	0.70	..	..	0.78	0.94	0.72	..	0.99	0.92	..	1.00	0.99	0.96
Ireland	1.06	0.58	0.59	0.32	..	..	0.79	1.18	0.82	0.80	0.96	1.00	0.46	1.42	0.98	0.97
Israel	..	..	0.56	0.56	-3.84	-5.61	..	..	0.78	0.79	..	0.74	0.53	..	..	..
Italy	0.36	0.61	0.64	0.48	-2.00	-3.80	0.62	0.89	0.82	0.83	0.93	..	0.47	0.99	0.87	0.90
Japan	..	0.58	..	..	..	..	0.56	..	..	0.84	0.96	0.76	0.58	0.71	0.85	..
Korea	0.44	0.49	0.85	1.17	..	..	0.62	..	0.82	0.82	0.70	1.00	0.79	1.12	0.95	0.90
Latvia	0.16	..	0.66	0.23	-8.28	-11.55	0.66	1.43	0.81	..	0.86	..	..	1.01	1.07	0.86
Luxembourg	0.42	0.46	0.73	0.55	..	..	0.74	4.59	0.85	..	0.97	..	..	1.13	0.85	0.90
Mexico	..	0.45	0.80	1.38	-2.66	-4.80	..	..	0.88	..	0.90	0.98	..	0.94	1.04	..
Netherlands	..	0.61	0.68	0.40	..	..	0.74	1.97	0.85	0.81	..	..	0.51	..	..	0.98
New Zealand	0.55	..	0.79	0.44	-4.42	-4.62	..	1.01	0.80	0.82	0.99	0.96	0.60	1.34	0.85	..
Norway	0.44	0.67	0.68	0.33	-4.81	-6.83	0.81	0.96	0.78	0.83	0.95	0.78	0.56	0.94	0.94	0.97
Poland	0.56	0.46	0.47	0.23	-6.19	-12.63	0.50	0.61	..	0.82	0.92	0.82	0.56	0.73	0.99	0.89
Portugal	0.49	0.48	0.77	0.63	..	..	0.46	1.17	0.88	..	0.86	0.92	..	0.91	0.82	0.93
Slovak Republic	0.30	0.62	0.43	0.16	..	..	0.57	1.18	0.60	0.81	0.92	0.52	0.47	0.78	0.86	0.87
Slovenia	0.47	0.49	0.58	0.42	-4.65	-8.27	0.58	1.53	0.83	0.79	0.90	0.84	0.64	0.52	0.94	0.81
Spain	0.47	0.60	0.66	0.43	..	..	0.69	0.72	0.87	0.80	0.95	..	0.65	0.82	0.93	0.92
Sweden	..	0.81	0.74	0.30	-4.98	-5.86	0.80	1.64	0.76	0.80	0.99	1.00	0.64	0.50	0.75	1.00
Switzerland	..	0.47	0.77	0.33	..	..	0.80	2.31	0.84	..	0.99	0.69	..	1.72	0.81	0.95
Turkey	..	0.36	0.67	0.93	-3.95	-4.15	0.68	..	0.94	0.80	0.78	1.03	0.87	0.81	1.05	..
United Kingdom	..	0.57	0.68	0.39	-3.99	-4.35	0.70	1.41	0.85	0.80	0.96	0.98	0.54	1.30	0.90	0.91
United States	0.16	0.43	0.67	0.29	-3.92	-7.32	..	2.35	0.88	0.74	..	0.69	0.57	..	..	..
OECD average	0.44	0.56	0.67	0.47	-4.58	-7.54	0.66	1.60	0.81	0.81	0.92	0.87	0.61	1.02	0.90	0.91
Brazil	..	..	0.80	0.79	..	..	..	..	0.87	..	0.94	0.94	..	..	0.95	..
Colombia	..	..	0.79	1.30	..	..	..	..	0.90	..	0.87	..	..	0.90	1.25	..
Costa Rica	..	..	..	0.77	..	..	..	..	0.91	..	0.90	..	..	0.74	0.89	..
Lithuania	..	..	0.60	0.14	..	..	0.46	0.58	0.85	0.89	0.89	..	0.72	0.71	1.05	0.86
Russian Federation	..	..	0.80	0.25	..	..	..	..	0.92	0.96	0.95	..	0.74	0.73	1.16	0.77
South Africa	..	..	0.63	0.35	..	..	..	..	..	..	0.90	1.11	..	2.21	0.67	..

Note: Data on wealth for the United Kingdom are limited to Great Britain. Data on adult skills refer to Flanders for Belgium, and to England and Northern Ireland for the United Kingdom. Countries are ranked from worst outcome (1) to best outcome (35); that rank is then divided by the total number of OECD countries in the sample. The resulting values (ranging from 0 to 1) are then categorised as follows: countries with values ranging from zero to 1/3 are assigned to the bottom tier; values greater than 1/3 but less than or equal to 2/3 are categorised as middle tier; and values greater than 2/3 but less than or equal to 1 are assigned to the top tier. For OECD partner countries, the "OECD equivalent" rank is shown – i.e. the rank that the country would attain, when compared to OECD countries only. Values are shaded according to the tier within which a country's relative performance falls: the higher the tier, the darker the shade. The OECD value is the simple average of the countries with available data. "D" stands for "deprivation measure" and ".." means "not available". To ease understanding, all indicators are coded in the same direction: the higher the value, the better the relative performance of individuals with primary education. For data sources and latest available years refer to Table 2.A.1.

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Table 2.A.7. **Horizontal inequalities in well-being by education, secondary vs. tertiary education, latest available year**

Ratio of secondary-educated to tertiary-educated performance

WELL-BEING DIMENSION	Income and wealth	Jobs and earnings			Health status			Work-life balance	Education and skills		Social connections	Civic engagement and governance		Environmental quality	Personal security	Life satisfaction
INDICATOR	Household net worth	Hourly earnings	Employment	Unemployment	Life expectancy		Self-reported health	Hours worked	Student skills	Adult skills	Quality of support network	Voter turnout	Political efficacy	Water quality	Feelings of security	Life satisfaction
INEQUALITY MEASURE	Average net wealth	Average hourly earnings	Employment rate	Unemployment rate (D)	Difference in life expectancy (years) at age 25 between women with secondary and tertiary education	Difference in life expectancy (years) at age 25 between men with secondary and tertiary education	Share of people rating their health status as good or very good	Share of employees usually working 50 hours or more per week (D)	PISA scores by the parents' education level, average across all fields	PIAAC scores, average across both fields	Share of people who report having relatives or friends to count on	Share of people who report having cast a vote in the last national election	Share of people who consider that they have influence on what the government does	Share of people who are satisfied with the quality of the water in their local area	Share of people who feel safe when walking alone at night	Mean average values on a 0-10 scale
COUNTRY																
Australia	0.67	0.77	0.94	0.76	-1.45	-3.34	..	1.24	0.91	0.93	0.99	1.03	0.77	1.38	0.86	..
Austria	0.35	0.73	0.89	0.73	-1.34	-3.80	0.88	1.59	0.94	0.91	0.98	0.99	0.72	1.07	0.92	0.97
Belgium	0.68	0.76	0.85	0.55	-3.68	-6.13	0.91	1.56	0.91	0.89	0.98	..	0.68	0.87	0.91	0.97
Canada	0.59	0.71	0.90	0.69	-1.64	-2.90	..	0.96	0.94	0.92	0.99	0.94	0.76	1.35	0.93	0.99
Chile	0.41	0.39	0.85	0.88	-2.69	-6.87	..	..	0.92	0.87	0.95	..	0.81	0.92	0.93	..
Czech Republic	..	0.69	0.93	0.50	-4.11	-5.46	0.77	1.79	0.92	0.89	0.96	0.78	0.72	1.17	0.86	0.88
Denmark	0.56	0.81	0.93	1.01	-1.79	-2.96	0.88	0.99	0.93	0.92	1.00	..	0.82	0.95	0.93	0.99
Estonia	0.68	0.70	0.90	0.61	..	..	0.80	1.53	0.96	0.93	0.98	..	0.79	1.20	1.01	0.92
Finland	0.50	0.71	0.88	0.78	-1.88	-4.05	0.86	0.99	0.92	0.91	0.98	0.83	0.72	1.20	0.99	0.97
France	0.57	0.75	0.87	0.66	-0.43	-3.12	0.88	1.53	0.91	0.87	0.97	0.96	0.63	0.92	0.89	0.95
Germany	0.41	0.67	0.91	0.54	..	..	0.86	1.55	0.94	0.90	0.98	0.83	0.68	1.11	0.92	..
Greece	0.79	0.66	0.82	0.75	..	..	0.95	0.89	0.92	0.92	0.96	0.95	0.93	1.06	0.90	0.97
Hungary	0.42	0.62	0.89	0.38	-0.70	-5.55	0.81	1.17	0.92	..	0.96	..	..	0.94	1.08	0.89
Iceland	..	0.79	0.96	0.89	..	..	0.89	0.99	0.94	..	0.99	0.97	..	0.82	1.00	0.96
Ireland	0.86	0.63	0.84	0.52	..	..	0.95	1.13	0.93	0.91	0.99	0.95	0.70	1.02	0.91	0.98
Israel	..	..	0.85	0.67	-0.93	-2.30	..	..	0.89	0.89	0.97	0.89	0.69	0.87	0.93	..
Italy	0.56	0.74	0.89	0.76	-0.60	-1.50	0.95	1.20	0.97	0.94	0.98	..	0.70	0.99	1.00	0.97
Japan	..	0.78	..	..	..	..	0.79	..	0.91	0.92	1.00	0.92	0.65	0.94	0.85	..
Korea	0.61	0.67	0.94	0.97	..	..	0.84	..	0.92	0.93	0.93	1.06	0.83	1.06	0.89	0.98
Latvia	0.33	..	0.84	0.42	-3.16	-6.65	0.72	1.22	0.94	..	0.92	..	..	0.98	1.04	0.90
Luxembourg	0.63	0.67	0.85	0.84	..	..	0.89	2.03	0.91	..	0.99	..	..	0.92	0.90	0.96
Mexico	..	0.54	0.88	1.06	-0.20	-3.86	..	..	0.96	..	0.95	0.98	..	1.02	0.98	..
Netherlands	..	0.73	0.89	0.54	..	..	0.90	0.94	0.94	0.92	0.98	..	0.67	1.04	0.91	0.98
New Zealand	0.79	..	0.93	0.57	-1.21	-1.19	..	1.07	0.94	0.93	1.01	0.93	0.76	1.22	0.93	..
Norway	0.72	0.83	0.90	0.76	-1.51	-3.14	0.88	0.88	0.94	0.91	0.98	0.91	0.71	0.83	0.99	1.00
Poland	0.85	0.62	0.77	0.49	-3.87	-7.81	0.74	0.76	0.90	0.87	0.95	0.76	0.63	0.89	1.00	0.93
Portugal	0.55	0.60	0.94	0.72	..	..	0.95	1.88	0.93	..	0.97	0.86	..	0.97	0.97	1.05
Slovak Republic	0.59	0.79	0.90	0.56	..	..	0.79	1.00	0.93	0.92	0.96	0.82	0.62	0.98	0.97	0.89
Slovenia	0.81	0.60	0.83	0.61	-2.25	-4.03	0.82	1.18	0.93	0.89	0.95	0.92	0.71	0.64	1.02	0.91
Spain	0.61	0.70	0.86	0.64	..	..	0.95	1.09	0.94	0.93	1.01	..	0.80	0.93	1.02	1.00
Sweden	..	0.86	0.95	0.86	-2.39	-2.74	0.93	1.15	0.93	0.91	1.00	0.98	0.77	1.26	0.97	0.98
Switzerland	..	0.67	0.93	0.87	..	..	0.93	1.75	0.93	..	1.00	0.71	..	1.50	0.92	0.99
Turkey	..	0.55	0.81	0.92	-1.38	-2.22	0.95	..	0.96	0.94	0.92	0.97	1.04	0.93	0.99	..
United Kingdom	..	0.67	0.94	0.73	-1.10	-1.55	0.90	1.26	0.96	0.92	0.99	0.95	0.71	1.04	0.93	0.98
United States	0.27	0.60	0.85	0.45	-1.64	-4.21	..	1.65	0.93	0.86	0.95	0.79	0.76	1.35	0.89	..
OECD average	0.59	0.69	0.89	0.70	-1.82	-3.88	0.87	1.28	0.93	0.91	0.97	0.91	0.74	1.04	0.95	0.96
Brazil	..	..	0.90	0.61	..	..	..	..	0.93	..	1.00	0.97	..	..	0.87	..
Colombia	..	..	0.92	0.95	..	..	..	..	0.93	..	0.96	..	..	0.94	1.10	..
Costa Rica	..	..	0.88	0.75	..	..	..	..	0.94	..	0.97	..	..	0.83	0.99	..
Lithuania	..	..	0.79	0.28	..	..	0.60	0.93	0.91	0.89	0.92	..	0.89	1.02	1.07	0.87
Russian Federation	..	..	0.88	0.50	..	..	..	..	0.92	0.96	0.96	..	0.79	0.91	1.06	0.88
South Africa	..	..	0.76	0.44	..	..	..	..	..	..	0.96	0.99	..	1.65	0.77	..

Note: Data on wealth for the United Kingdom are limited to Great Britain. Data on adult skills refer to Flanders for Belgium, and to England and Northern Ireland for the United Kingdom. Countries are ranked from worst outcome (1) to best outcome (35); that rank is then divided by the total number of OECD countries in the sample. The resulting values (ranging from 0 to 1) are then categorised as follows: countries with values ranging from zero to 1/3 are assigned to the bottom tier; values greater than 1/3 but less than or equal to 2/3 are categorised as middle tier; and values greater than 2/3 but less than or equal to 1 are assigned to the top tier. For OECD partner countries, the "OECD equivalent" rank is shown – i.e. the rank that the country would attain, when compared to OECD countries only. Values are shaded according to the tier within which a country's relative performance falls: the higher the tier, the darker the shade. The OECD value is the simple average of the countries with available data. "D" stands for "deprivation measure" and ".." means "not available". To ease understanding, all indicators are coded in the same direction: the higher the value, the better the relative performance of individuals with secondary education. For data sources and latest available years refer to Table 2.A.1.

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Table 2.A.8. **Deprivations in well-being, latest available year**

WELL-BEING DIMENSION	Income and wealth		Jobs and earnings		Housing conditions		Health status	Work-life balance	Education and skills			Social connections	Civic engagement and governance		Environmental quality		Personal security		Subjective well-being	
INDICATOR	Relative income poverty	Asset-based poverty	Incidence of low pay	Unemployment	Housing cost overburden	Overcrowding	Self-reported health	Hours worked	Educational attainment	Student skills	Adult skills	Quality of support network	Voter turnout	Political efficacy	Air pollution	Water quality	Feelings of security	Homicide rate	Negtive affect balance	Life satisfaction
DEPRIVATION MEASURE	Share of people with income below 50% of the national median income	Share of people with liquid financial wealth below 25% of the income poverty line	Share of full-time workers earning less than two-thirds of gross median earnings of all full-time workers	Unemployment rate	Share of people spending more than 40% of disposable income on mortgages and rents	Share of households living in overcrowded housing	Share of people rating their health status as fair, bad, or very bad	Share of employees usually working 50 hours or more per week	Share of adults aged 25-64 with below upper secondary education	PISA scores, share of 15-year-old students who score at or below Level 2 in science, reading and mathematics	PIAAC scores, share of adults who score at or below Level 1 in both literacy and numeracy	Share of people who report not having relatives or friends to count on	Share of people that did not cast a vote in the last national election	Share of people who consider that they have no influence on what the government does	Share of people exposed to more than 15 micrograms/m3	Share of people who are not satisfied with the quality of the water in their local area	Share of people who do not feel safe when walking alone at night	Deaths by assault per 100 000 population	Share of people who report more negative than positive feelings yesterday	Share of people who report a life satisfaction level below 4 (on a 0-10 scale)
COUNTRY																				
Australia	12.80	46.70	15.72	5.88	9.99	..	..	11.45	20.98	11.11	11.12	6.00	8.99	45.39	0.00	8.00	31.00	1.00	10.74	3.63
Austria	9.00	25.05	15.86	6.11	6.38	12.69	30.20	6.48	15.35	13.50	10.46	7.00	25.09	58.22	52.66	8.00	20.00	0.40	8.87	3.02
Belgium	9.10	36.14	3.40	7.89	9.92	1.84	25.40	6.43	25.32	12.67	10.06	7.00	10.63	50.16	48.56	16.00	29.00	1.00	13.54	2.16
Canada	12.60	47.00	22.18	7.10	10.21	..	..	9.49	9.60	5.94	13.61	8.00	31.72	43.57	0.39	8.00	18.00	1.40	11.67	2.19
Chile	16.10	74.84	11.92	6.80	23.43	9.25	..	..	38.59	23.26	48.23	16.00	50.65	21.07	51.89	31.00	50.00	4.50	17.11	5.08
Czech Republic	5.90	..	20.29	4.03	11.55	15.20	38.80	4.69	6.84	13.66	7.74	7.00	40.52	62.54	90.27	10.00	23.00	0.80	12.45	5.36
Denmark	5.50	37.10	8.24	6.34	18.01	7.43	28.40	4.17	19.63	7.47	10.84	5.00	14.11	30.94	1.18	6.00	16.00	0.70	10.04	2.37
Estonia	15.50	45.47	22.10	6.94	8.25	9.67	48.60	5.23	9.05	4.74	9.09	6.00	35.77	53.18	0.00	17.00	23.00	3.10	12.98	13.28
Finland	6.30	41.65	7.77	8.95	8.40	9.26	30.20	3.31	12.85	6.27	8.05	5.00	33.15	30.77	0.00	5.00	16.00	1.40	7.73	3.00
France	8.20	40.48	9.09	9.84	12.43	6.32	32.20	5.36	22.68	14.78	18.13	12.00	25.44	67.38	23.45	21.00	30.00	0.60	11.40	7.63
Germany	9.50	42.44	18.37	4.20	5.12	6.15	35.50	14.63	13.21	9.82	13.34	9.00	28.47	43.47	34.92	7.00	26.00	0.40	10.46	3.25
Greece	14.80	66.99	17.87	23.70	25.60	18.66	25.50	9.24	29.78	20.69	19.52	20.00	36.06	15.77	69.96	30.00	38.00	1.00	17.47	16.45
Hungary	10.10	42.98	19.78	5.15	10.18	29.60	43.70	2.87	16.78	18.52	..	10.00	38.16	..	99.96	22.00	40.00	1.20	17.74	16.46
Iceland	6.50	..	15.72	3.12	19.47	6.02	23.70	15.77	25.30	13.18	..	2.00	20.82	..	0.00	2.00	9.00	0.90	8.44	1.55
Ireland	9.20	58.24	24.00	8.75	11.11	2.47	17.70	4.70	20.18	6.76	14.87	4.00	34.91	58.21	0.00	14.00	24.00	0.60	11.36	4.07
Israel	19.50	..	22.15	4.89	..	..	..	..	14.46	20.18	21.69	11.00	27.66	55.8	99.43	30.00	30.00	1.70	15.78	3.68
Italy	13.70	38.68	7.63	11.89	11.41	18.58	34.40	2.98	40.11	12.24	21.34	8.00	24.81	70.26	64.40	28.00	41.00	0.80	18.98	7.62
Japan	16.10	..	13.46	3.27	15.95	1.60	64.60	..	..	5.59	3.93	10.00	47.34	49.87	61.40	9.00	24.00	0.30	7.48	7.58
Korea	13.80	..	23.50	3.84	3.48	5.75	67.50	..	14.20	7.67	11.19	19.00	41.97	38.57	99.81	16.00	32.00	1.10	18.66	13.51
Latvia	16.20	82.61	26.04	9.90	5.49	31.10	53.80	3.96	12.22	10.45	..	8.00	41.20	..	0.00	15.00	27.00	6.60	17.11	9.04
Luxembourg	8.10	40.45	12.16	6.31	17.26	6.25	29.60	5.77	25.39	16.99	..	6.00	8.85	..	0.06	17.00	21.00	0.60	8.45	2.80
Mexico	16.70	..	17.25	4.04	7.72	33.27	..	..	64.48	33.78	..	11.00	36.86	..	34.72	33.00	51.00	17.90	12.92	11.37
Netherlands	7.90	33.00	14.50	6.06	9.30	3.61	28.80	2.48	23.60	10.90	9.29	7.00	18.07	38.89	54.62	6.00	17.00	0.60	8.78	2.97
New Zealand	10.90	62.70	13.86	5.35	..	4.20	..	18.30	25.28	10.59	10.13	6.00	23.05	36.83	0.00	11.00	32.00	1.30	7.86	1.29
Norway	8.10	26.86	7.12	4.89	10.64	5.44	21.70	4.68	17.63	8.95	9.97	4.00	21.77	34.34	0.00	2.00	12.00	0.60	8.17	2.48
Poland	10.40	63.67	22.60	6.24	8.04	35.36	42.20	8.16	9.22	8.27	14.87	8.00	49.08	48.55	95.24	17.00	23.00	0.80	15.74	9.62
Portugal	13.50	45.90	20.33	11.50	11.77	5.52	53.60	8.07	54.88	10.74	..	9.00	44.16	..	2.49	11.00	20.00	1.00	23.98	23.61
Slovak Republic	8.70	67.93	19.00	9.70	5.21	28.06	34.10	2.94	8.71	20.11	8.93	5.00	40.18	67.11	100.00	13.00	31.00	0.80	14.97	10.59
Slovenia	9.40	55.95	19.23	8.10	5.91	11.70	35.20	3.66	13.21	8.20	19.51	7.00	48.27	74.92	75.74	11.00	13.00	0.60	17.72	14.79
Spain	15.30	55.48	14.59	19.75	17.41	2.96	27.60	4.79	42.57	10.33	22.47	10.00	30.16	61.08	18.39	29.00	18.00	0.60	13.55	5.52
Sweden	9.00	..	2.66	7.11	9.06	12.59	20.30	4.26	18.02	11.37	10.44	9.00	14.19	31.66	0.10	4.00	21.00	1.00	8.45	3.10
Switzerland	9.90	..	10.15	5.09	6.26	5.28	20.70	9.94	11.84	10.06	..	7.00	51.60	..	16.31	5.00	15.00	0.50	8.47	3.27
Turkey	17.30	..	0.78	11.11	..	..	33.60	..	63.01	31.19	39.00	12.00	14.82	51.41	91.02	31.00	35.00	1.70	32.86	18.59
United Kingdom	10.90	..	19.28	4.98	12.18	5.45	30.20	12.83	20.93	10.06	14.35	5.00	31.07	48.11	0.75	18.00	24.00	0.20	11.56	5.92
United States	16.80	54.45	24.91	4.93	15.81	3.78	..	14.17	10.46	13.56	16.15	10.00	31.71	36.46	8.21	16.00	23.00	4.90	14.03	5.78
OECD average	11.52	49.31	15.53	7.54	11.34	11.45	34.75	7.25	22.83	12.96	15.30	8.46	30.89	47.3	37.03	15.06	25.80	1.79	13.36	7.22
Brazil	20.00	..	..	9.84	..	..	..	..	52.64	44.05	..	9.00	21.10	..	30.63	29.00	63.00	27.60	..	..
Colombia	..	..	25.27	9.53	..	..	..	..	49.59	38.21	..	12.00	52.10	..	0.11	27.00	52.00	30.20	..	..
Costa Rica	21.50	..	15.24	9.70	..	..	..	..	60.63	33.05	..	10.00	31.62	..	0.00	15.00	51.00	8.50	..	..
Lithuania	15.70	..	21.28	8.10	4.74	20.59	42.60	3.70	8.64	15.33	11.30	6.00	49.36	12.29	26.77	21.00	37.00	4.10	20.70	13.72
Russian Federation	14.60	..	..	5.57	..	..	..	..	5.32	7.70	8.49	9.00	34.73	28.81	54.00	41.00	40.00	11.30	..	..
South Africa	26.60	..	..	26.72	..	..	..	..	57.63	..	..	12.00	26.52	..	69.43	33.00	62.00	10.00	..	..

Note: Data on adult skills refer to Flanders for Belgium, and to England and Northern Ireland for the United Kingdom. Countries are ranked from worst outcome (1) to best outcome (35); that rank is then divided by the total number of OECD countries in the sample. The resulting values (ranging from 0 to 1) are then categorised as follows: countries with values ranging from zero to 1/3 are assigned to the top tier; values greater than 1/3 but less than or equal to 2/3 are categorised as middle tier; and values greater than 2/3 but less than or equal to 1 are assigned to the bottom tier. For OECD partner countries, the "OECD equivalent" rank is shown – i.e. the rank that the country would attain, when compared to OECD countries only. Values are shaded according to the tier within which a country's relative performance falls: the higher the tier, the darker the shade. The OECD value is the simple average of the countries with available data. ".." means "not available". All indicators are coded in the same direction: the higher the value, the larger the deprivation. For data sources and latest available years refer to Table 2.A.1.

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Chapter 3

Migrants' well-being: Moving to a better life?

Better understanding the lives of migrants is key to ensuring both their well-being and their successful integration. This chapter builds on previous OECD work to explore the meaning and measurement of migrants' well-being. On average, migrants experience greater poverty, lower levels of income and wealth, and more exposure to poor environmental and housing conditions relative to non-migrants. They also find it harder to access decent work: they are more likely to be overqualified for their jobs, experience more in-work poverty and work more atypical hours. While migrants tend to be less satisfied with their lives in OECD countries, in many cases they still report higher life satisfaction than the peers they left behind in their country of origin. Data on health, social connections, trust in government and attitudes towards migrants are also featured in the chapter. However, a number of important gaps in the evidence remain, and more accurate, timely and granular data on migrants' well-being are needed.

The statistical data for Israel are supplied by and under the responsibility of the relevant Israeli authorities. The use of such data by the OECD is without prejudice to the status of the Golan Heights, East Jerusalem and Israeli settlements in the West Bank under the terms of international law.

Introduction: Migrants' well-being and why it matters

We live in a world increasingly defined by population mobility. Over 120 million people currently living in OECD countries were born in a different country, representing 13% of the total OECD population (OECD, 2017a). In the majority of OECD countries, the share of foreign-born people accounts for at least 10% of the total population, reaching 20-30% in Australia, Canada, Israel, New Zealand and Switzerland, and an estimated 46% in Luxembourg (OECD, 2017a). Since 1 in 8 people in the OECD are migrants, capturing information about their well-being is critical for gaining a fuller picture of how life is going, and whether it is going equally well for all members of society.

Recent years have seen anti-immigration views gain increasing prominence in public discourse in many OECD countries. In Europe especially, the current refugee crisis has contributed to widespread concern about the impact of migration,[1] but Europe is certainly not alone in this regard. Understandably, given the backlash against international mobility seen in many countries, research and policy advice has tended to focus on the impact of migration on the host countries (e.g. OECD 2016a). However, less attention has been given to the well-being of migrants themselves. In fact, these two issues are not mutually exclusive, but go hand in hand. Improving integration will be a key challenge for OECD governments that want to turn the tide of negative public opinion and make the most of the potential economic and social benefits of migration. Better understanding the experiences of migrants and having a more complete picture of their life conditions is a key part of developing effective policies to integrate migrants. The measurement and analysis of migration policy is an established stream of OECD work, including regular and one-off publications that present a range of migrant outcomes.[2]

The aim of this chapter is to build on previous OECD work to explore in more detail the meaning and measurement of migrants' well-being. It sets out some key findings related to migrants' well-being, while at the same time shedding light on the limitations and gaps in available data. The chapter is structured as follows: the first section gives an overview of migrants' well-being, followed by a discussion of the measurement challenges and available data. Evidence on migrants' well-being is then presented through a selection of indicators. The chapter finishes with some conclusions and recommendations for the statistical agenda ahead.

Understanding migrants' well-being

For a person to become a migrant, all it takes is to move from their country of birth to live in another. There is no "typical" migrant profile, despite the stereotypes and prejudices that are often associated with the word. The migrant population includes people from all walks of life, including international students, workers of all skill levels, accompanying family members and retirees, as well as people who have lived through some of the worst possible experiences and deprivations, such as war, torture, slavery or environmental disaster. People migrate for a range of different reasons (see Box 3.1), but some of the most

Box 3.1. **Why do people migrate?**

There is no unifying theory of why people migrate. The decision to migrate is complex and is shaped by people's knowledge of the situation in their country of birth ("push" factors) as well as their perceptions of life in the destination country ("pull" factors) (Lee, 1966). These decisions are shaped by circumstances at the micro- (individual), meso- (community) and macro- (national) level (Faist, 2000). Most analytical approaches tend to focus on people's economic motivations (Sjaastad, 1962, Borjas, 1987). However, research in other social sciences shows that there are many reasons for migration beyond the pursuit of higher lifetime earnings, such as the wish to improve opportunities for children and family members, the desire to join family or community members who have already migrated, or the opportunity to access amenities (including such things as clean air or a pleasant climate) that better match one's own lifestyle preferences (Bodvarsson and Van den Berg, 2013; Statistics Canada, 2007). Life-course factors may also be important, with younger people more likely to favour locations with high-income jobs, and people nearing retirement having a strong preference for good climate and healthcare (Polachek and Horvath, 1977). Also, as migration is often a family decision rather than an individual one, migration may increase the well-being of some family members at the expense of others (Mincer, 1978; see OECD 2017a for a detailed discussion of family migration). In addition, migration is not always a matter of choice, as in the case of refugees forced to leave their country through fear of death or serious harm (see Box 3.2).

important ones are to work, to join family members already living abroad or to escape situations of intense suffering in their country of birth (i.e. humanitarian migration).[3]

People's reasons for migrating are likely to have an impact on their well-being. For example, evidence from the New Zealand Longitudinal Immigration Survey showed that people's life satisfaction differed depending on whether their stated reason for migrating was "opportunities", "lifestyle", "family" or "study", with students having the lowest levels of life satisfaction (Bryant and Merwood, 2008). The circumstances of people's decision (or compulsion) to migrate also matter in terms of both their expectations for their future lives as well as the degree of stress or trauma engendered by the process of migration itself.

Moving from one country to start again in another is a defining event that provides a completely new context for every aspect of migrants' lives. This can open up people's opportunities to achieve better lives, but it can also expose them to challenges and hardships that they would not otherwise have experienced – including living far from friends, family and the things that make a place feel like home. In analysing migrants' well-being, it is also important to consider the resources that migrants bring with them, including their education, skills, health status, social connections and economic resources. Migrants' well-being is also deeply shaped by the circumstances encountered in the host country. A migrant may be well educated, well connected and in excellent health and yet, if the host country does not provide a supportive context for him or her to flourish, migration may have a negative impact on their well-being in one or multiple dimensions. Contextual factors such as access to good jobs, decent housing, a clean, healthy and safe environment, effective governance, and to quality education and healthcare all matter for migrants' well-being. Beyond these objective conditions, the attitudes and perceptions towards migrants that exist in the host country can be a supportive or constraining factor. Where attitudes of intolerance or prejudice prevail, migrants are more likely to experience discrimination, mistreatment and social exclusion.

While migrants are a diverse group of people, the characteristics of the migrant population are also likely to differ in important ways from those of the overall population of stayers (in migrants' countries of birth) and the native-born (in host countries). A number of governments have influenced the make-up of the migrant population by facilitating the entry of certain types of migrants over others, on the basis of their education and skills, age, health status or other factors, depending on the host country's own situation and needs. People who decide to migrate are also likely to have certain characteristics that differentiate them from those who prefer to stay. These can include observable attributes (such as educational attainment), but also attitudes or non-cognitive skills (such as perseverance or optimism).

Finally, the length of time a migrant has spent in their new home can be an important factor in shaping their well-being. The experience of migration can be transformational: it re-sets people's lives, fostering or constraining different dimensions of well-being in ways that deviate from their non-migrating peers. The common assumption is that the longer a migrant resides in the host country, the easier their lives will become, as they integrate into the labour market, master the host country language (if necessary), and become more familiar with the way that things work in their new home. For example, evidence suggests that, relative to more recent arrivals, migrants who have resided for more than 10 years in an OECD country have slightly higher rates of employment, and they are less likely to be overqualified or employed in temporary or low-skilled jobs, to be in the lowest income decile or to live in overcrowded conditions (OECD/EU, 2015). However, while the material conditions of migrants may improve over time, the evolution of other aspects of their lives, such as their health status, sense of belonging, human rights or experience of discrimination, may be more complex (e.g. Neuman, 2014, Stillman et al., 2012).

Measuring migrants' well-being

Measurement challenges

In principle, a set of measures for migrants' well-being should cover all the dimensions of the *How's Life?* framework and be broken down by variables on gender, age, educational level, reason for migrating, country of origin and any other relevant background. Ideally, measures should also show how outcomes evolve over time for the same individuals. However, huge challenges exist in terms of data availability.

First of all, the best current sources of information on well-being outcomes – household surveys[4] – tend not to be designed with the measurement of migrants' well-being in mind. As a result, migrant samples tend to be too small to analyse migrants' well-being outcomes beyond the aggregate in most cases, and they may not include important migrant-specific background variables such as the country of origin, duration of stay or reasons for migrating. Given that well-being outcomes tend to diverge in important ways for different groups of migrants, the results for the population average may not always provide enough detail to inform policy. Further, the composition of migrant samples may not be fully representative of actual migrant populations, in terms of gender, age, country of origin, education level and other important variables. Even for surveys explicitly aiming to measure migrants' outcomes, ensuring a representative sample design and data collection can be a challenge. Sampling frames that provide accurate and informative records of the migrant population may not exist or may not be up-to-date (such as those based on a once-every-ten-years census).

Second, migrants are often harder to reach. Non-response rates can also be more of a problem for migrants, who may move house more often than the general population or be

less willing to take part in surveys due to the sensitivity of their own circumstances (such as their legal status) or to prior experience of discrimination or exclusion (Font and Méndez, 2013). Language issues also pose a challenge, as a proportion of migrants may not speak or be fluent in the source language of survey questionnaires, and translations may not always be possible into every language. One study of English schoolchildren found that 14% had a first language other than English, with 240 different languages reported by these children (Erens, 2013). Most importantly, many of the most vulnerable migrants are unlikely to be captured in official data at all, either because the registration procedures concerning them differ from ordinary ones (refugees, asylum-seekers; see Box 3.2 for a discussion of efforts to

Box 3.2. **Forced migration: A complex measurement issue**

During 2016, almost 68 million people worldwide were forcibly displaced from their homes, 17 million of whom attained official refugee status with a further 3 million classified as asylum seekers (UN HCR, 2017). Migration for humanitarian reasons has been a particularly important driver of migration to OECD countries (and Europe especially) in 2015-16, with asylum applications reaching their highest level since the Second World War in this period (OECD, 2017a). Forced migration is different from other forms of migration: it entails higher costs and risks, and humanitarian migrants are likely to have substantially lower well-being outcomes than other types of migrants when first arriving in the host country (Brücker et al. 2017). However, it is generally not possible to identify this important subgroup of migrants in household surveys, as reasons for migrating are included only rarely as background variables. In recognition of the fact that people having undergone forced migration are likely to have very different well-being outcomes and needs, some countries are implementing specially targeted surveys. Examples include Building a New Life in Australia, a 5-year longitudinal study being conducted by the Australian Bureau of Statistics between 2013-18, with more than 1 500 individuals and their families interviewed in Wave 1; and the IAB-BAMF-SOEP Refugee Survey, a 3-year longitudinal study of more than 4 500 people, launched in Germany in 2016. These surveys have to contend with a number of specific hurdles, including translation and interpretation issues (for example, in the first wave of the German survey, 90% of respondents reported that they did not know any German before arriving in the country; Brücker et al., 2017) and sampling difficulties (the sampling design and data collection for such surveys can generally cover only those asylum seekers and humanitarian migrants who are officially registered with government authorities).

The findings from such surveys can provide important information on the experiences and outcomes for this vulnerable group of migrants. For example, the first wave of the German survey showed that one-quarter of respondents had survived shipwrecks, two-fifths had been victims of physical assault, one-fifth had been robbed, more than half had fallen victim to fraud, more than one-quarter had been blackmailed, and 15% of female refugees reported having been sexually assaulted. The Australian survey also highlighted the widespread experience of traumatic events, showing that the prevalence of moderate-to-high levels of psychological distress was higher amongst survey participants than amongst the general population (35% of male and 45% of female respondents were at moderate or high risk of psychological distress in the four weeks prior to the survey, compared with 7% of men and 14% of women in the general population; Jenkinson et al., 2016). Nonetheless, respondents in the Australian survey also indicated that they were settling well in their new country, with 84% of them saying that their overall experience had been good or very good; they cited feelings of safety and the fact that their children were happy as the main factors helping them in their new lives (Jenkinson et al., 2016).

measure the well-being of this group) or because their records are less formalised (such as short-term or "circular" repeat migrants), or because their very presence represents a legal violation (such as irregular or trafficked migrants) (UNECE, 2012).[5] In addition, migrants are less likely than the native-born to be covered by household surveys, since they are more likely to live in non-standard dwellings that are not generally included in survey samples (e.g. transit housing, reception centres and dedicated residences).

Third, the majority of available data on migrants' outcomes is not well suited for tracking the evolution of migrants' well-being over time. Most relevant data comes from cross-sectional sources, which provide information about migrants at a fixed point in time after their arrival in the host country. To fully understand the impact of migration on people's well-being, outcomes should be measured for the same individual before, during and at various points after the time of migration. However, large-scale and internationally comparable data of this type simply do not exist. There are a few examples of "both-way" surveys that measure outcomes across two or more countries, both for those who migrate and for those who stayed behind,[6] which can serve to approximate this dynamic, but these studies also entail methodological difficulties (Beauchemin and González-Ferrer, 2011). A number of countries have recently developed longitudinal surveys of migrants' outcomes, including Australia, Canada, France, New Zealand and the United States.[7] These surveys aim to understand the settlement experiences of recently arrived migrants and how they adapt to life in their host country, generally tracking the same individuals for a period of several years or more. These surveys can provide useful insights into changes in people's well-being after migration.

Fourth, looking beyond the individual to gain insight into the aggregate trends for migrants' outcomes is also challenging, due to cohort changes over time in the composition of the migrant sample. Countries do not necessarily receive constant inflows (or experience constant outflows) of migrants from the same set of origin countries and with the same characteristics over time: shifts in migration policy and the impact of broader economic, geopolitical and environmental shocks and trends can shape historical patterns. This means that the initial background characteristics of the migrant population may change over time, implying that the average well-being outcomes of migrants may change due to reasons other than existing migrants having a better or worse life than previously in the host country.

Finally, the use of perception-based data (such as satisfaction with income and housing, or perceptions of personal safety) may produce unexpected results due to differences in the expectations held by migrants relative to the native-born population. Reponses to perception-based questions can be shaped by people's experiences during their life and by their culture – which informs the frame of reference through which people approach topics and make judgements. This may introduce challenges in the interpretation of migrant-vs.-native-born differences in perception-based indicators: for example, migrants may view the same objective circumstances more favourably than the native-born, simply because they are better than what they have experienced in their home country. This does not reduce the usefulness of such data (since whether a person is satisfied is of interest in itself, regardless of whether that feeling is judged to be "correct" by someone else's standards), but it needs to be kept in mind when interpreting results.

Dimensions of migrants' well-being and selection of indicators

This chapter provides an overview of migrants' well-being, based on the dimensions of the *How's Life?* framework. It therefore covers material conditions (income and wealth, jobs

and earnings, housing) and quality of life (work-life balance, education and skills, health status, subjective well-being, civic engagement and governance, personal security, environmental quality and social connections). The selection of indicators listed in Table 3.1 has been informed by the same criteria that have been used for *How's Life?* in the past, i.e. indicators should have face validity; focus on summary outcomes; be amenable to change and sensitive to policy interventions; be commonly used and accepted in the relevant literature; ensure comparability across countries and maximum country coverage; and be collected through a recurrent instrument. However, the indicator selection was also constrained by factors specific to the measurement of migrants' well-being. As noted above, data availability is a particular concern, and internationally comparable data breakdowns for some key well-being indicators are simply not available, limiting the available indicators in some key areas, such as health status.

Table 3.1. **Dimensions and indicators of migrants' well-being**

Dimension	Indicator
Income and wealth	Household income Poverty rate Financial wealth
Jobs and earnings	Employment Unemployment Over-qualification Work-related health risks In-work poverty
Work-life balance	Atypical working hours
Education and skills	Educational attainment Literacy skills Cognitive skills
Health status	Perceived health
Social connections	Social support
Housing	Sub-standard and overcrowded housing
Environmental quality	Exposure to poor environmental conditions
Personal security	Perceived safety
Civic engagement and governance	Trust in the political system Having a say in government
Subjective well-being	Life satisfaction Positive and negative emotions

International comparisons of migrants' well-being also present certain challenges, as the size and characteristics of the migrant population can differ in important ways across countries (Box 3.3). This means that cross-country comparisons of migrants' well-being outcomes need to be interpreted with caution and with an awareness of both the differences in the composition of migrant populations as well as the differences in the historical impact of migration policies across countries.

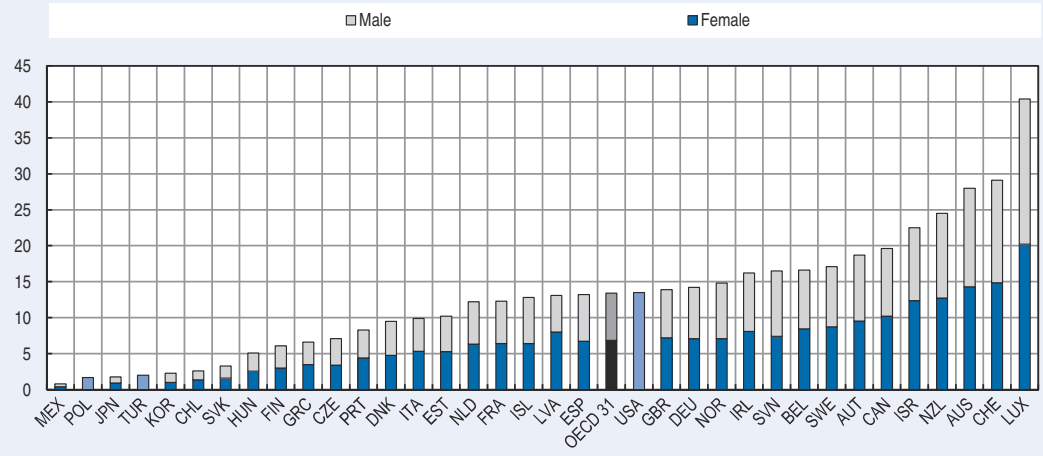
Box 3.3. **Differences in the size and composition of the migrant population across OECD countries**

The size of the migrant population as a share of the total population varies considerably across OECD countries, from under 1% in Mexico to an estimated 46% in Luxembourg in 2015 (OECD, 2017a). In the majority of OECD countries, female migrants slightly outnumber male migrants, with women representing 51% of the total migrant population across OECD countries (Figure 3.1).

Box 3.3. **Differences in the size and composition of the migrant population across OECD countries** *(cont.)*

Figure 3.1. **Share of migrants in the population, by gender**

Percentage of the total population, 2015 or latest year



Note: The OECD average is the simple country average. Data refer to 2014 for Chile and Greece; 2011 for Canada, the Czech Republic, Ireland, Portugal and Switzerland; and 2010 for Luxembourg. For countries in purple, data by gender are not available. Japanese and Korean data for the migrant population refer to non-nationals rather than the foreign-born.

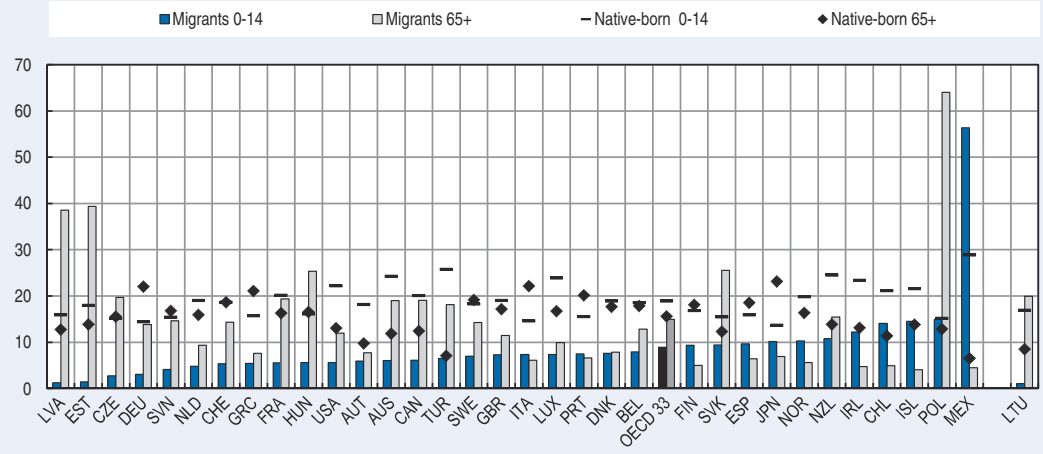
Source: *OECD Database on International Migration* (OECD, 2017c), *www.oecd.org/els/mig/oecdmigrationdatabases.htm.*

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The migrant population of different countries also differs by other characteristics such as age (Figure 3.2), educational attainment, length of time in the country, and the rate of change in the size of the migrant population (see Annex 3.A for additional evidence on the share of low- and high-educated migrants in OECD countries, duration of stay and migrant inflows).

Figure 3.2. **Population aged 0-14 and 65+, by migrant status**

Percentages of foreign- and native-born populations, 2012



Note: The OECD average is the simple country average. Japanese data for the migrant population refer to non-nationals rather than the foreign-born. Countries are ranked by the share of the migrant population aged 0-14.

Source: OECD/EU (2015), *OECD Database on Migrants in OECD Countries* (DIOC) 2010-11, *www.oecd.org/els/mig/oecdmigrationdatabases.htm.* European Union Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS) 2012-13 for Turkey, *http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/microdata/european-union-labour-force-survey*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933596420

Box 3.3. **Differences in the size and composition of the migrant population across OECD countries** *(cont.)*

Previous OECD work has identified a series of country groupings based on current and historical patterns of migration (OECD, 2012; OECD and EU, 2015). For example, Australia, Canada, Israel and New Zealand have a long-standing history of migration as an element of nation-building, where migrants tend to be well educated and well integrated. Others have only recently experienced significant humanitarian migration (Denmark, Finland, Norway and Sweden); others tend to draw highly-educated migrant populations (Luxembourg, Switzerland, the United Kingdom and the United States); some countries serve as long-standing destinations with many settled low-educated migrants (Austria, Belgium, France, Germany and the Netherlands); some tend to have very small and recent migrant populations (Chile, Japan, Korea, Mexico, Turkey); some are relatively new destination countries with many recent, low-educated migrants (Greece, Italy, Portugal, Spain); others are new destination countries with many highly-educated migrants (Iceland, Ireland and Malta). Finally, there are countries whose migrant populations have been principally shaped by border changes and/or by movements of national minorities (Croatia, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, the Slovak Republic and Slovenia).

While these groupings help to understand some of the main patterns characterising migration in different countries, summary descriptions can give only part of the picture. The migrant populations in most OECD countries are very heterogeneous in terms of country of origin, demographic structure, settlement patterns and other outcomes. While information on the composition of the migrant population can go some way to improve our understanding of what drives cross-country differences in migrants' well-being outcomes, deeper investigation is needed in each context to understand how the interplay between migrant background and host country circumstances drives observed differences.[1]

1. For example, the country of origin of migrants is an important determinant of educational attainment and returns to schooling of children with a migrant background in their host country (Picot and Hou, 2013; Kanas and Tubergen, 2009). However, evidence also suggests that migrant children from the same country of origin can have very different educational performances in the different host countries (PISA, 2015).

Definition of migrants

Throughout this chapter, migrants are defined as people whose country of birth is different from their country of usual residence. While this is not the only way to define the migrant population,[8] it is a consistent and objective classification, and the one which is typically used in OECD work on international migration. The terms "migrant" and "foreign-born" are used interchangeably here. The term "native-born" is used to refer to people who were born in their country of usual residence (i.e. non-migrants).

There is an argument to be made for assessing outcomes not only for first-generation migrants, but also for their children who are born in the new country (defined as second-generation migrants). This is the approach taken by some OECD work focused on migrant integration such as *Settling In* (OECD, 2012; OECD/EU, 2015) or work analysing outcomes for children and young people, such as the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA). Second-generation migrants, despite being born in the country of residence, often face disadvantages when compared with children of native-born parents, and this can continue throughout the life course, as evidenced, for example, by lower educational outcomes (OECD, 2016b) and an increased likelihood of being unemployed (Liebig and Widmaier, 2009). However, this chapter focuses only on first-generation migrants, as the subject is not migrants' integration as such, but their well-being (although the two concepts are likely to be closely linked).

Finally, no attempt is made in this chapter to "match" the migrant population with the native-born population (e.g. through controlling for key background variables). For both migrants and the native-born, factors such as age, gender and educational attainment can have a strong influence on well-being outcomes. This implies that, where these characteristics differ between migrant and native-born populations, it may explain why some differences in well-being outcomes exist. However, as the focus of the chapter is on well-being *outcomes* for migrants (which are of interest, regardless of how they may be explained), data for migrants are presented as they are observed, with no adjustments. Where appropriate, reference to specific known differences between the migrant and native-born population is, however, made in the text.

Data sources

Data for this chapter come from a number of sources, and efforts have been made to select the highest-quality data with the broadest international comparability (Box 3.4). For European countries, these include the Euro-System Household Finance and Consumption Survey; the European Union Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS); the Eurofound European Working Conditions Survey (EWCS); the European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions Survey (EU-SILC); the European Social Survey (ESS); and the Survey of Health, Ageing and Retirement in Europe (SHARE). For the EU and other countries, sources include the OECD Survey of Adult Skills (part of the Programme for the International Assessment of Adult Competencies, PIAAC) and the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA); the Gallup World Poll; and a selection of non-European country labour force and household surveys. To reflect the fact that the sample sizes are generally small for the migrant population, which could affect the accuracy of the results, wherever possible differences between migrants and the native-born are presented, with an indication of their statistical significance.

Box 3.4. **Selection of data sources for this chapter**

Relatively few data sources are explicitly designed for measuring migrants' well-being outcomes. A few OECD countries have developed special surveys (such as Trajectoires et Origines in France, the National Migrant Survey in Spain, and longitudinal surveys of migrants in New Zealand and Canada), but these are not conducted regularly, and questions on well-being outcomes are generally not internationally comparable. The comprehensive nature of national censuses makes it possible to provide detailed information on a number of migrant outcomes (for both first- and second-generation migrants), and some internationally harmonised census data are available through the Integrated Public-Use Microdata Series (IPUMS) project, co-ordinated by the University of Minnesota. However, while census data provides highly granular information that allows users to analyse outcomes for the migrant population by a number of background characteristics (including reported ethnicity or country of origin), the coverage of well-being outcomes is generally very limited.

The best current sources of internationally comparable data on well-being outcomes for migrants are international social surveys that include a background question on the country of birth, allowing for the identification of the foreign-born population. As these surveys do not generally oversample the migrant population, and do not include a representative sample of migrants, steps have been taken to assess the quality of the sources used. An assessment of the representativeness of the migrant sample was undertaken on four international social surveys: the European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions survey (EU-SILC), the European Social Survey (ESS), the OECD Survey of Adult Skills (PIAAC) and the Gallup World Poll. The assessment was limited to 10 countries that are present in all four data sources

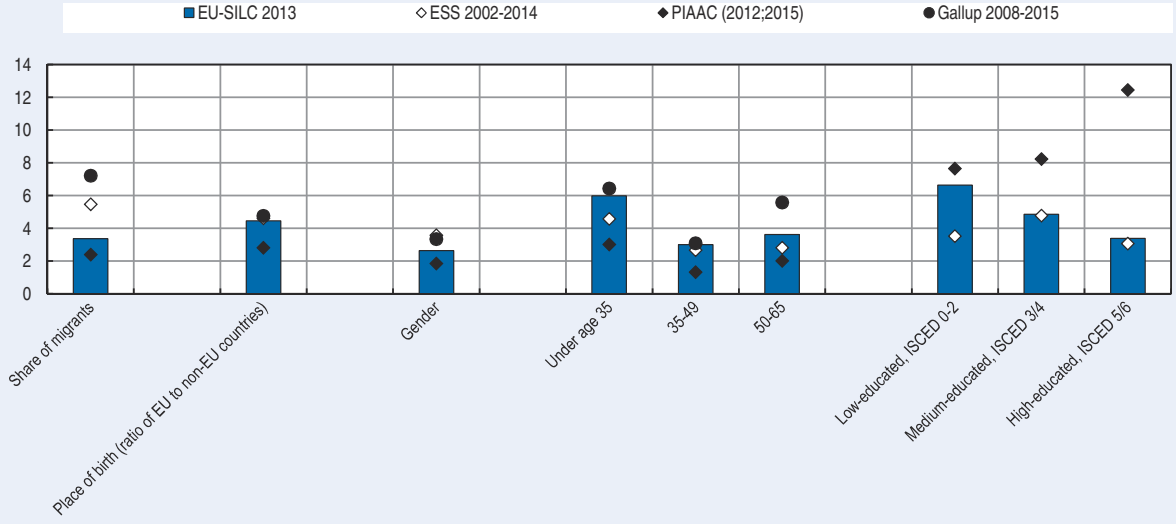
Box 3.4. **Selection of data sources for this chapter** *(cont.)*

(Austria, Denmark, Spain, Estonia, France, Greece, the Netherlands, Norway, Slovenia and Sweden). For most of the sources, the small sample size of migrants is an important limitation; to partially remedy this limitation, in the case of the ESS, PIAAC and the Gallup World Poll, multiples waves were pooled across years to achieve a sufficient number of observations. After this data pooling, the average number of observations for migrants per country is 900 for the ESS (2002-14 waves combined), 750 for the PIAAC (2012 and 2015 waves combined) and 500 for the Gallup World Poll. The EU-SILC has the largest number of migrants, with an average of 1 200 observations per country in 2013, the latest year for which relevant well-being indicators are available.

The national migrant samples in the selected surveys were compared with the actual migrant populations of the different countries, as described in official sources. These values included the share of migrants in the population/survey sample and the composition of the population/survey sample in terms of place of birth (EU vs non-EU countries), gender, age and educational attainment. Figure 3.3 shows the average percentage-point difference between the survey sample and reference values for 10 European countries (see Figure note): a lower score means a better representativeness of the migrant population.

Figure 3.3. **The representativeness of the migrant population in selected data sources**

Average difference between survey sample and reference population values, percentage points



Note: The figure shows the average difference, measured in percentage points, between the migrant population as reported by Eurostat and the sample population in the four surveys included in this figure based on different criteria: the share of migrants in the population and the distribution of migrants by place of birth (i.e. the ratio of migrants from EU countries, relative to those from non-EU countries), gender, age and educational attainment. The following countries are included in the analysis: Austria, Denmark, Spain, Estonia, France, Greece, the Netherlands, Norway, Slovenia and Sweden. The reference values come from Eurostat (table [migr_pop3ctb]) for the share of migrants, the distribution of migrants between country of birth, gender and age groups. For the distribution of educational attainment, the reference is OECD/EU (2015). The question about educational attainment in the Gallup World Poll is posed differently than in the other surveys, preventing its assessment for this category.

Source: OECD calculations based on EU-SILC (2013), European Social Survey (2002 to 2014), PIAAC (2012, 2015) and Gallup World Poll (2008-15).

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The results of this quality test are fairly similar across the four surveys and in general suggest that the level of migrant representativeness is acceptable for measuring aggregate outcomes. However, the small sample sizes preclude using more detailed breakdowns (such as by gender or age) based on these sources. Of the various data sources, the EU-SILC and Gallup World Poll have the widest range of questions related to well-being, and both surveys collect data for a number of indicators shown in this chapter. Given that

Box 3.4. **Selection of data sources for this chapter** *(cont.)*

for the relevant indicators the EU-SILC has a much higher number of observations for migrants than does the Gallup World Poll (which has international coverage), EU-SILC data are shown for European countries and Gallup data for selected non-European countries. When using Gallup data, country estimates are shown only if the difference between the total share of migrants observed in the Gallup sample and the reference value is less than 50% of the reference value itself (i.e. if the reference value is 8, then the Gallup value must be within +/- 4 of this value), and if the difference for the share of women or of people aged 15 to 64 among migrants is less than 10% (i.e. if the reference value is 50, the Gallup value must be within +/-5 of this value). Although Figure 3.3 shows the results of this analysis for the OECD as a whole, it was performed for each individual country to determine whether data should be included.

Finally, while *How's Life?* aims to provide the greatest international coverage possible, showing data for all OECD and partner countries wherever possible, providing complete data coverage has been a challenge for this chapter. First, for a number of indicators only data for European countries are available (from the EU-SILC or other sources). Second, to help ensure the accuracy of the estimates, only data for countries where the number of migrant observations is 150 or more are presented. This means that even in the case of sources with good international coverage, many countries do not have sufficient data on migrants to be featured in the chapter. In particular, data for countries with small migrant populations (such as Chile, Japan, Korea and Mexico) are often not available.

Evidence on migrants' well-being

This section presents evidence on migrants' well-being, following the dimensions set out in Table 3.1 above. Some dimensions are explored in more detail than others, depending on their relevance for migrants' experience, data availability, and the extent to which outcomes in a given dimension have already been covered by other OECD publications.

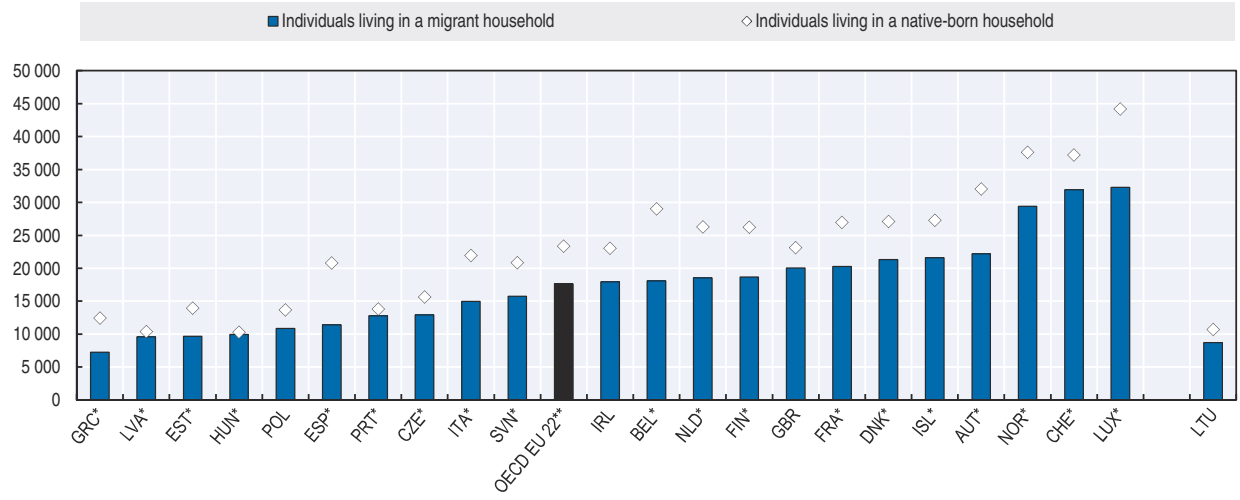
Income and wealth

Economic resources in the form of income and wealth are particularly important for understanding migrants' well-being. On the one hand, the opportunity to improve one's income can be an important motivation for people to migrate. On the other, the migration process itself can be costly in terms of transportation and settlement expenses, as well as the need to bridge any break in income arising from the move. Migrants may also send a share of their income to family members in their country of origin as remittances, rather than spending it on consumption for themselves or their immediate household in the host country. Estimating the share of remittances in household income for migrants is difficult, because such transfers are not always reported in household income surveys. At the aggregate level, however, remittance flows are significant: in 2016, remittances from high-income countries to developing countries totalled USD 429 billion (World Bank, 2017), triple the total amount spent on official development assistance (ODA) by the 30 OECD members of the Development Assistance Committee in the same year (OECD, 2017d).

In most countries, ***household median income*** is lower for migrants than for the native-born, with the median income of migrant households around 25% lower, on average, than that of native-born households across the 22 European countries for which data are available (USD 17 609 compared with USD 23 353 in native-born households in 2014, Figure 3.4). Only in Latvia, Hungary and Portugal are median income levels similar for migrants and the native-born.

Figure 3.4. **Equivalised disposable median income, by household migration status**

USD per capita in current PPPs, 2014



Note: Households' annual equivalised disposable income is calculated as the income of each household adjusted by the square root of household size, and then attributed to each member of the same household. Income is expressed in dollars (USD) at the purchasing power parity (PPP) rate. It includes earnings from labour, capital and current transfers, and deducts payments for income tax and social contributions paid by workers. The median income divides people into two halves: one half receives less than the median and the other more. A household is considered a migrant household if the primary and secondary heads of the household are both migrants. The OECD average is the simple country average. (*) indicates statistically significant differences between migrants and the native-born based on the analysis of the confidence intervals at 90%. (**) indicates that confidence intervals are not available.

Source: European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC) 2014, *http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/income-and-living-conditions/overview*.

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Migrants in European countries are also at greater risk of income deprivation: in 2012, across 29 OECD countries, 28% of people living in migrant households experienced ***relative income poverty*** (i.e. with a household income below the EU threshold of 60% of the national median income), compared with only 16% of individuals living in a native-born household (OECD/EU, 2015).[9] This difference in the incidence of poverty was particularly pronounced in Iceland, the Czech Republic, Norway, the Netherlands, Luxembourg, France, Denmark, Finland, Belgium, Spain and Greece, where migrant households were more than twice as likely as the native-born to experience relative poverty.

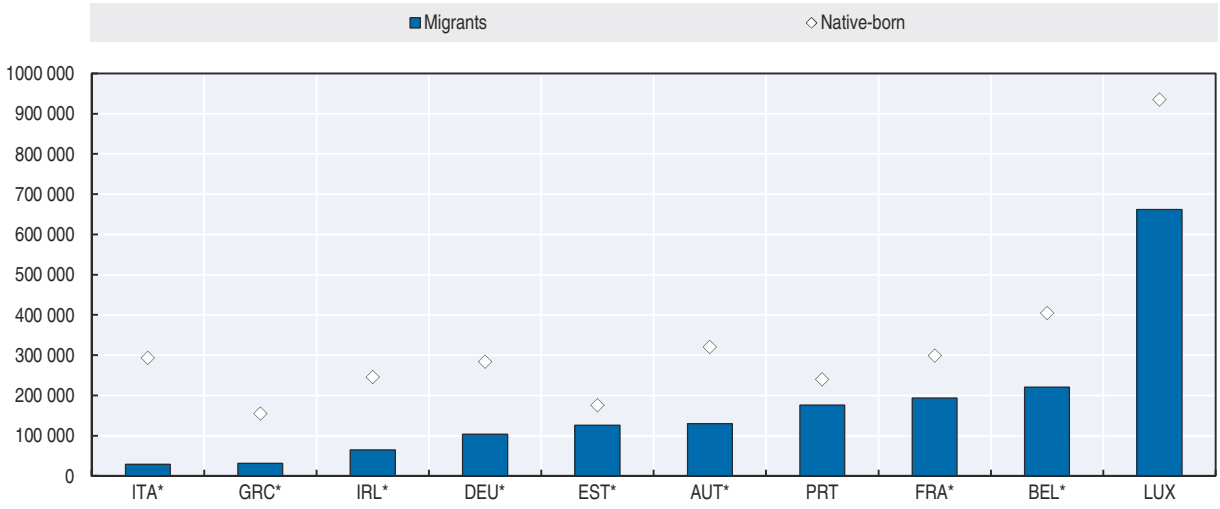
Wealth data are even more limited than income data, but for the selection of European countries for which data are available, the ***mean net wealth*** of native-born households is twice that of migrants (Figure 3.5).

Jobs and earnings

For many migrants, improving employment outcomes is the primary motivation for moving to a new country. While migration can open up a wider range of work opportunities and provide migrants with the chance to gain higher returns from their human capital than would have been the case in their country of birth, it also presents a number of challenges. Migrants may face discrimination in the labour market or in the workplace and may have trouble gaining recognition for any qualifications and experience acquired abroad. While for all people unemployment has a negative effect on well-being (Dolan et al., 2008), the experience of unemployment may be especially damaging for migrants, many of whom have left their homes and upended their lives in the hope of better work opportunities.

Figure 3.5. **Mean net wealth per household, by household migration status**

2014 or latest available year, values in 2014 USD PPPs



Note: Household net wealth refers to the real and financial assets and liabilities held by private households resident in the country, as measured in the Euro-System Household Finance and Consumption Survey. A household is defined as a migrant household if the head of the household and his/her spouse/partner are both migrants. (*) indicates statistically significant differences between immigrants and natives based on the analysis of the confidence intervals at 90%. The data refer to 2013 for Estonia, Ireland and Portugal.
Source: OECD calculations based on Household Finance and Consumption Network surveys *www.ecb.europa.eu/pub/economic-research/research-networks/html/researcher_hfcn.en.html*.

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Across 31 OECD countries in 2016, the ***employment rate*** for migrants and the native-born was broadly similar, at 67% for both groups (OECD, 2017c). In a majority of OECD countries, however, migrants are less likely to be employed than the native-born, although this gap varies widely from country to country, and in some countries migrants are more likely to be employed than the native-born. For example, in Belgium, France, Denmark, the Netherlands and Sweden the employment rate is at least 10 percentage points lower for migrants than for the native-born, but in Israel, Hungary and Luxembourg their employment rate is at least 7 percentage points higher than for the native-born. In most OECD countries for which recent data are available, the ***unemployment rate*** is also higher for migrants than for the native-born (8.3% on average for migrants, compared with 6.5% for the native-born; OECD, 2017a).

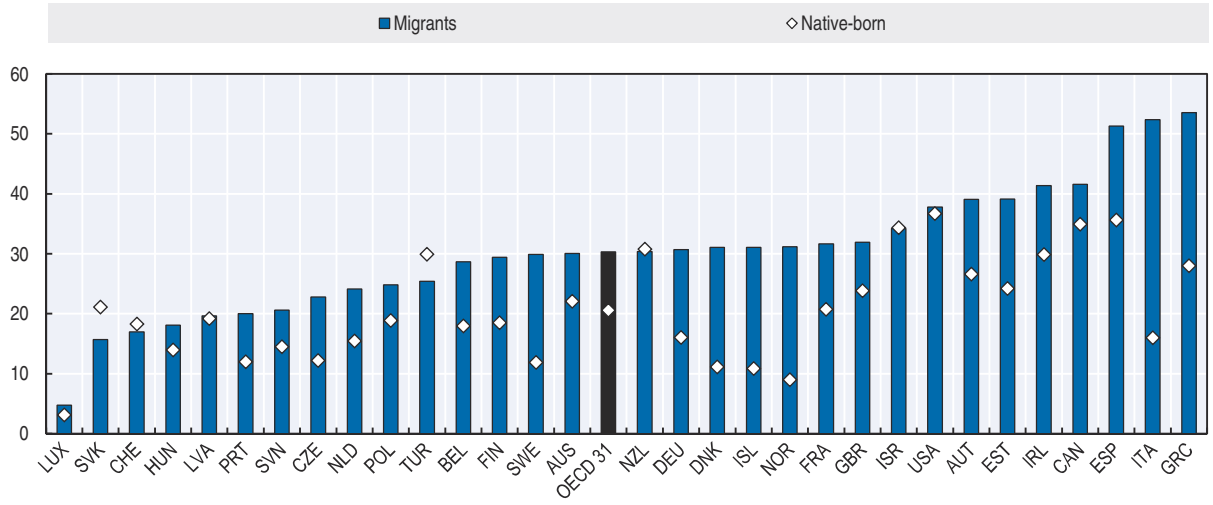
For both migrants and the native-born, men are more likely to be employed than women across all 31 OECD countries for which recent data are available. However, the gender gap in employment is more pronounced for the migrant population: the employment rate is 15 percentage points lower among foreign-born women relative to their male counterparts, compared with a 10 percentage-point difference for native-born women and men, on average (OECD, 2017c). There is also a larger employment gap for more educated migrants. While having a university degree boosts migrants' chances of finding work, it does not guarantee them the same job opportunities as for the native-born: on average across the OECD, the employment rate of highly-educated migrants (e.g. with a tertiary degree or more) was 9 percentage points below that of the highly-educated native-born in 2015 (at 76%, compared with 85% for native-born; OECD, 2017c). However, low-educated migrants (e.g. with primary schooling or below) have a similar employment rate to low-educated native-born (at 56% and 55%, respectively, on average across 30 OECD countries; OECD, 2017c).

Given the barriers that migrants face in gaining recognition for their qualifications – including dealing with unclear application procedures, inadequate language skills and

restrictions on employment eligibility – many migrants are over-qualified for their jobs.[10] ***Over-qualification*** (defined here as the share of highly educated people employed in low- or medium-skilled jobs) can negatively impact people's well-being by reducing their earnings, job satisfaction and emotional attachment to the workplace (Maynard et al., 2006). There is also evidence to show that migrants who are overqualified have poorer mental health status than other migrants (Chen et al., 2010). In 23 of the 31 countries covered by Figure 3.6, migrants are more likely to be over-qualified than the native-born population. Across the OECD, almost one-third of migrants who hold a tertiary degree are overqualified for their jobs, compared with one-fifth of the native-born.

Figure 3.6. **Over-qualification rates among 15-64 year-olds who are not in education, by migrant status**

Share of highly educated employed persons in low or medium-skilled jobs, 2015 or latest year available



Note: The over-qualification rate is calculated as the share of highly educated people employed in low- or medium-skilled jobs among all employees. The classification of low and medium-skilled jobs is taken from the International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO) drawn up by the International Labour Organization (ILO, *www.ilo.org/public/english/bureau/stat/isco/*). It classifies jobs into three main skill levels: highly skilled – senior managers, professionals, technicians and associate professionals (ISCO 1-3); low-skilled – elementary occupations (ISCO 9); and medium-skilled, all other (ISCO 4-8). The United States includes people over 25 who are still in education. The data for Canada, Israel, Norway, Germany, New Zealand, Australia and Turkey are for 2012-13. The OECD average is the simple country average.
Source: OECD/EU (2015). European Union Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS) 2012-13 and 2015. United States: Current Population Survey (CPS) 2012-13. Australian Survey of Education and Work (ASEW) 2013. Canada and New Zealand: Labour Force Surveys 2012-13. Israel: Labour Force Survey 2011.

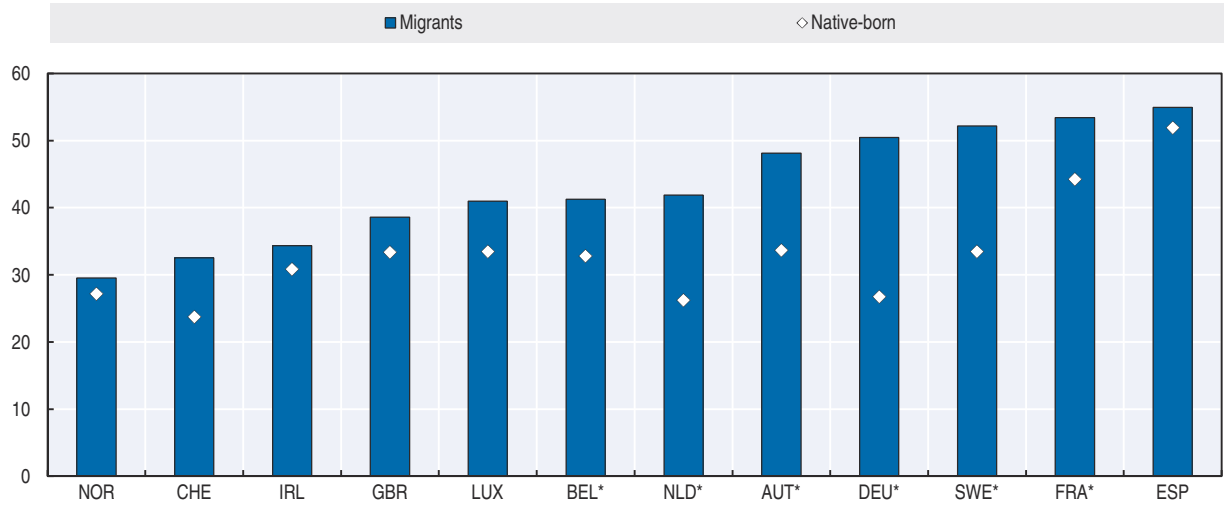
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Migrants are over-represented in low-paid jobs and experience high rates of ***in-work poverty*** (OECD/EU, 2015). In Europe in 2012, the share of foreign-born people in employment and living below the EU poverty threshold was on average double that of native-born people (respectively 17% and 8%; OECD/EU, 2015).

Migrants also face greater exposure to risky or harmful working conditions, which may have implications in terms of lower health outcomes (OECD, 2013). Figure 3.7 shows the results for an index of ***physical health risks*** based on data from the European Survey on Working Conditions (EWCS). A higher score on the index indicates a higher level of physical health risk at work. Across all the European countries covered in Figure 3.7, migrants face riskier employment conditions than do the native-born population. In Sweden, France and Spain, more than half of all migrant employees are employed in jobs that involve one or more risks to their physical health.

Figure 3.7. **Workers' exposure to physical health risks, by migrant status**

Share of employees having a job with exposure to physical health risks, 2015



Note: Physical health risks are assessed using questions on whether the employee has experienced any of the following problems: exposure to loud noise; exposure to high temperature; exposure to low temperature; exposure to vibration; working in tiring and painful position; carrying or moving heavy loads; handling or being in contact with chemical products; breathing in vapours and breathing in smoke, fumes, powder or dust. Each of these questions have been scored (or rescored) on a yes/no scale. A worker is considered as being exposed to physical health risks if he/she responded "yes" to a least one of the items. (*) indicates a statistically significant difference between migrants and the native-born, based on the analysis of confidence intervals at 90%. The OECD average is the simple country average. Only countries with at least 100 foreign-born workers in the sample are shown.

Source: OECD calculations based on Eurofound European Survey on Working condition wave 6, *www.eurofound.europa.eu/surveys*

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Work-life balance

There is no clear pattern of migrants working longer hours, according to the available OECD Labour Force Survey data. However, data on ***atypical working hours*** show that migrants in European countries are more likely than the native-born to do shift work or work on evenings or weekends (Figure 3.8), a pattern that is statistically significant in 16 countries. This may have important implications for migrants' well-being, as shift work, and night work in particular, can interfere with people's ability to maintain family and social relationships, and it can contribute to poorer health by disturbing sleeping and eating habits (Costa, 1996).

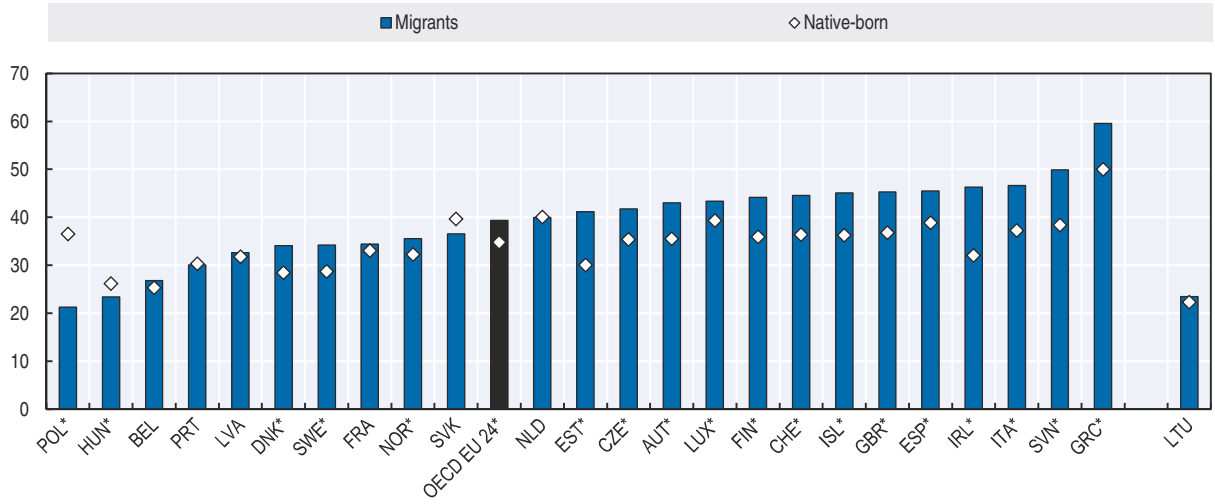
Education and skills

Education and skills are among the most important resources for migrants' well-being. For migrants, as noted in the previous sections, the labour market returns to education tend to be lower compared with the native-born, as qualifications earned in one country are often not directly transferable to, or recognised by, another. The complete change in social context brought about by migration may also mean that migrants lack certain skills and forms of knowledge – such as fluency in the host country language – that are vital for ensuring full integration into the host society, thereby lowering other well-being outcomes.

The ***educational attainment*** of the migrant population varies widely between countries, at least in part due to selection policies used in some OECD countries to grant migrants residency and the right to work. In Canada, Ireland, Luxembourg, Israel, Australia,

Figure 3.8. **Employees working atypical hours, by migrant status**

Share of employees, 2015



Note: An employee is considered to have an atypical working time if he/she does shift work or usually works in the evening or at night or on Saturdays or Sundays. (*) indicates a statistically significant difference between migrants and the native-born, based on the analysis of the confidence intervals at 90%. The OECD average is the simple country average.

Source: OECD calculations based on 2015 EU-LFS, *http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/fr/web/microdata/european-union-labour-force-survey*.

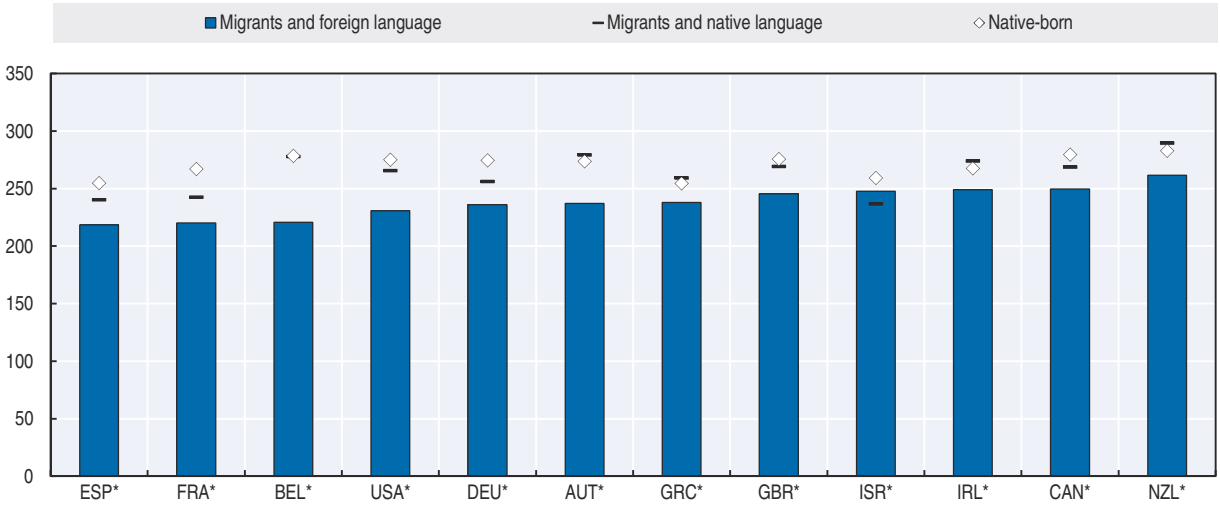
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New Zealand and the United Kingdom, around half of all working-age migrants are highly educated, a much higher share than for the native-born populations in these countries, whereas in southern European countries (Italy, Spain, Portugal and Greece) and in France, migrants are more likely than the native-born to have less education. Across the OECD overall, 34% of migrants living in OECD countries are highly educated (i.e. with a tertiary-level degree) compared with 29% for the native-born, while the share of less-educated people (i.e. with no more than a lower-secondary level of education) was similar for migrants and the native-born, at 29% and 28% respectively (OECD/EU, 2015).

Language and ***literacy skills*** are closely interlinked. The results from the OECD Survey of Adult Skills (PIAAC), which measures adults' proficiency in different areas (literacy, numeracy and problem-solving in technology-rich environments) show that foreign-born people whose first or second language is not the same as the language of the assessment have lower literacy scores than the native-born in every country (Figure 3.9). By contrast, migrants who speak the native language of the host country (i.e. as a first or second language) sometimes perform as well as (or even better than) native-born, native-tongue speakers, as seen in the Flanders region of Belgium, Austria, Greece, England, Ireland and New Zealand.

For migrants who arrive in the host country as children, their acquisition of education and skills can be interrupted by the process of migration. The younger a migrating child, the less opportunity they will have had to acquire a stock of education and skills before migrating, and the more dependent they will be on circumstances in the host country (especially the quality and inclusiveness of the education system) to develop the skills necessary to flourish. The OECD Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) measures the ***cognitive skills*** of 15-year-old students in core areas (maths, reading and science).

Figure 3.9. **Differences in literacy scores by migrant status and language spoken at home**
Adult population, 2012-15



Note: Foreign language refers to whether the first or second language learned as a child is different from the assessment language. (*) indicates that the difference in scores for migrants with foreign language and the native-born is significantly different at the 90% level. The difference in scores between migrants with foreign language and migrants with native language is also statistically significant at the 90% level in all countries, and the difference in scores between migrants with native language and the native-born is significantly different at the 90% level in Canada, Germany, Spain, France, Ireland, Israel and New Zealand.
Source: Survey of Adult Skills (PIAAC) (2012, 2015), *www.oecd.org/skills/piaac/*.

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In the 2015 round of PISA, the mean scores of first-generation students were on average 49 points below those of native-born students (Figure 3.10). However, the situation varies across countries. The largest disparities were found in France, Germany, Sweden, Slovenia and Austria, where the gap between migrants and the native-born exceeds 80 points.[11] In Australia, Canada, Ireland and New Zealand, however, children with an immigrant background perform about as well as the native-born. On average, 39% of students with a migrant background are low performers in science against 19% for native-born students (OECD, 2016b).

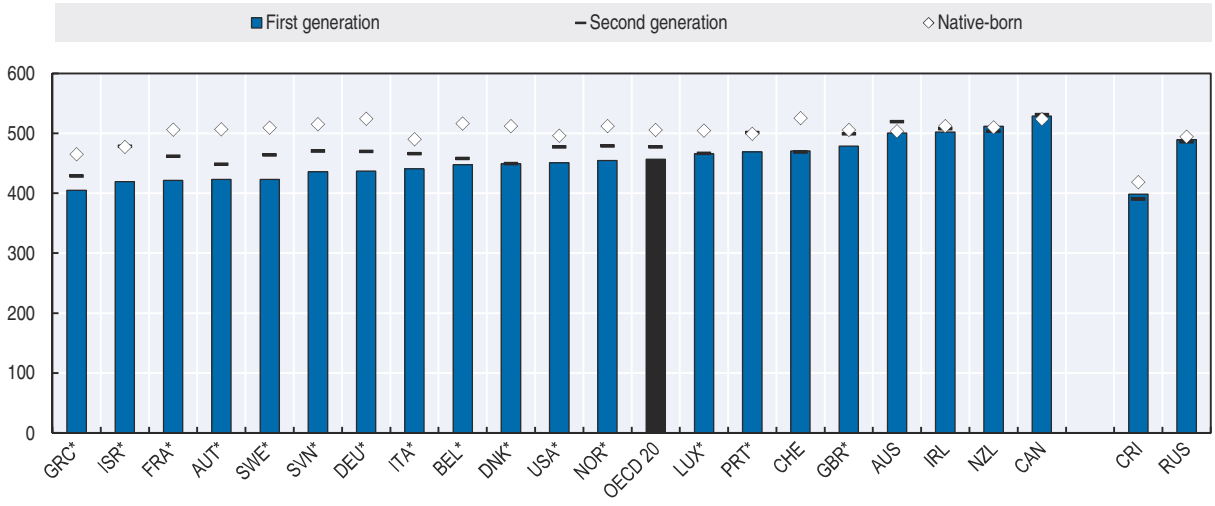
Health status

While migrants are often comparatively healthy when they arrive in host countries – a phenomenon labelled the "healthy migrant effect" by Neuman (2014) – this advantage often tends to deteriorate with time spent in the host country.[12] Migrants may also face particular challenges to their physical and mental health, such as hazardous working conditions, inability to access adequate health-care because of non-coverage by existing insurance schemes, high co-payments, communication difficulties or lack of awareness, and greater vulnerability to mental health problems because of the trauma and stress of the migration process itself (see Box 3.5).

On average, across 24 OECD European countries, migrants are only slightly less likely to ***report having good health*** than the native-born (Figure 3.11). However, large differences can be seen across countries, which seem to be at least partly driven by the age composition of the migrant population, since self-reported health generally declines with age among both migrants and natives. For example, in Latvia, Poland and Estonia – countries where the average age of migrants is comparatively high – native-born people are

Figure 3.10. **Students' performance in science, reading and mathematics, by migrant status**

Mean combined PISA scores, students aged 15, 2015



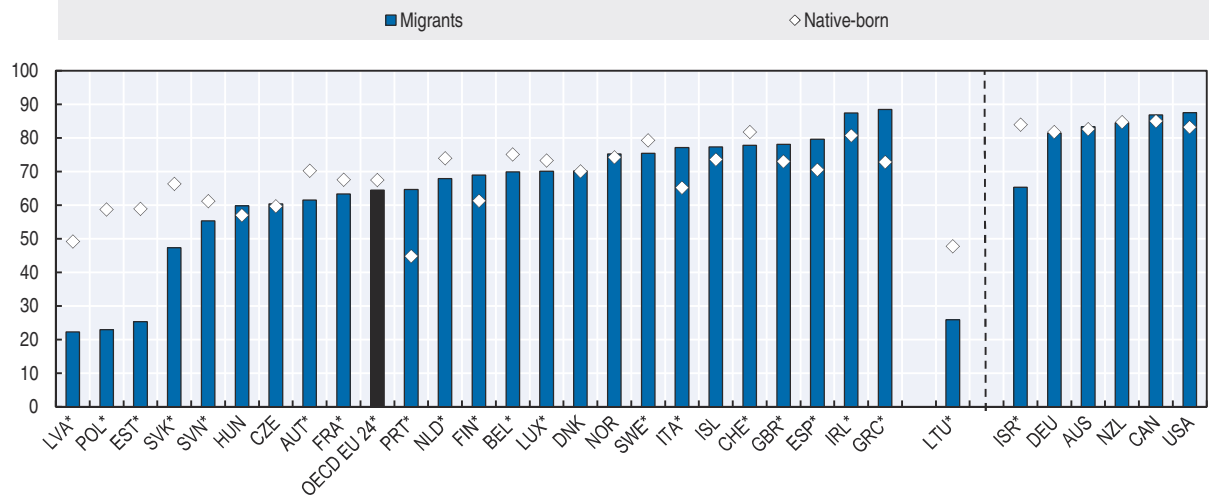
Note: The indicator measures the simple mean score in science, reading and mathematics. (*) indicates a statistically significant difference between the combined scores for first-generation and native-born migrant students at the 90% level. For a more detailed breakdown of the statistical significance of the scores for different subjects and between different groups see the notes in the Statlink. Native students are students whose mother or father (or both) was/were born in the country or economy where they sat the PISA test, regardless of whether the student himself or herself was born in that country or economy. First-generation migrant students are foreign-born students whose parents are also both foreign-born. Second-generation migrant students are students born in the country where they sat the PISA test and whose parents are both foreign-born. The OECD average is the simple country average.

Source: OECD calculations based on PISA (2015), *www.oecd.org/pisa/*.

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Figure 3.11. **Satisfaction with personal health, by migrant status**

Share of people who report good personal health (left) or being satisfied with their health (right), around 2013



Note: Data for OECD European countries, shown on the left-hand side of the chart, are drawn from the EU-SILC and represent the share of people responding "good" or "very good" to the question: "How is your health in general; would you say it was...". Data for Germany and selected non-European OECD countries, shown on the right-hand side of the chart, are drawn from the Gallup World Poll and refer to the share of people responding "Satisfied" to the question: "Are you satisfied or dissatisfied with your personal health?" As the survey questions and methods are different, the data coming from the EU-SILC and Gallup World Poll are not directly comparable. (*) indicates a statistically significant difference between migrants and the native-born, based on analysis of the confidence intervals at 90%. The OECD average is the simple country average.

Source: OECD calculations based on the 2013 EU-SILC, *http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/income-and-living-conditions/overview* and Gallup World Poll (2008-2012), *www.gallup.com/services/170945/world-poll.aspx*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933596591

more than twice as likely as migrants to report good health. However, in countries with younger migrant populations, such as Greece, Spain, Italy and Portugal, migrants are more likely to report good health than the native-born. The right-hand side of the figure shows the share of people saying they are satisfied with their health for selected non-European countries as well as Germany.[13]

High-quality data on health determinants, health status and utilisation of health services by migrants are not available in most countries. However, the evidence that does exist suggests that migrants – and particularly the most vulnerable groups of migrants, such as those seeking asylum – face several challenges (Box 3.5).

Box 3.5. **Summary of key issues and findings on migrants' health outcomes**

Health information systems are generally not designed to identify people by migration status, and where data for migrants' health are available, aggregate results mask important differences in outcomes between different groups in terms of age, sex, country of origin and destination, socio-economic status and type of migration (which can also be said of many other indicators of migrants' well-being). However, according to the available research, some noticeable differences in health status can be observed between migrant and native-born populations across a number of key aspects. Migrants seem to be more vulnerable to diabetes, obesity, certain communicable diseases, maternal and child health problems, occupational health hazards, injuries and mental health problems (Rechel et al., 2011). These differences are explained to some extent by risk factors and disease patterns in migrants' countries of origin, poor living conditions in host countries, precarious and dangerous work, and the psychological stresses that can be associated with various causes and processes of migration.

Barriers to care: Migrants (especially undocumented migrants and asylum seekers) often face legal restrictions on entitlements to health care. Other barriers include user fees; language; lack of familiarity with rights, entitlements and the overall health system; underdeveloped health literacy; administrative obstacles; social exclusion; and direct and indirect discrimination. Unpublished OECD analysis of EU SILC 2013 microdata suggests that on average, across 24 European countries for which data are available, migrants are slightly more likely than the native-born to face unmet needs for medical care, with particularly large differences in Poland, Latvia, Sweden and Estonia. The same data show that 45% of migrants with unmet medical needs give financial affordability as the reason, compared with 35% of the native-born.

Mental health: Stress is a major risk factor for a variety of diseases, including mental illness, and migrants may be exposed to a number of stressors, including pre-migration stressors such as refugee camp internment and catastrophic experiences, as well as post-migration stressors such as separation from family, unemployment, poverty, homesickness, acculturation stress, guilt, isolation, marginality and discrimination (Fenta et al., 2004; Prilleltensky, 2008). Factors reducing the stress of adapting to a new country, and therefore lowering the levels of depression and suicidal ideation, include strong social support networks within family and community, coping skills, knowledge of the new language and culture, how voluntary the choice to migrate was, hope for the future, strong religious beliefs, and a high degree of tolerance towards other cultures (Bhugra et al., 2011; Hovey, 2000; and Hovey and King, 1997).

Source: Rechel et al., 2011 and 2013; Robert and Gilkinson, 2012.

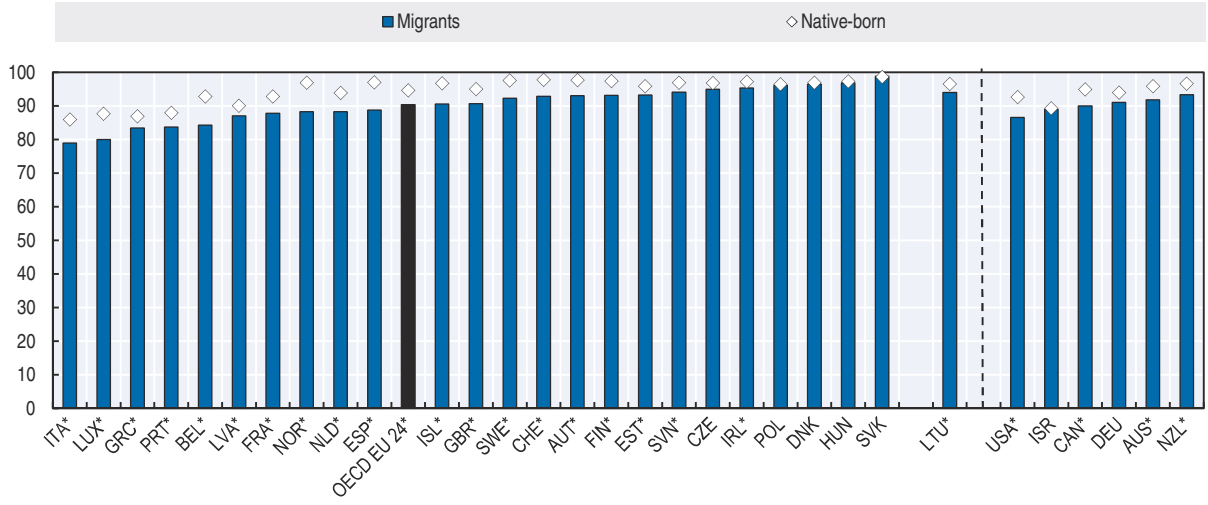
Social connections

For migrants moving away from established relationships in their country of birth, social connections can be transformed, with links between friends, family and acquaintances spanning two or more countries. However, moving to a new country does not necessarily mean starting from scratch: migration can also be undertaken to accompany family or to be reunited with those who migrated at an earlier date. In 2015, family migration was the largest category of entry for new migrants to OECD countries, accounting for almost 40% of all migration (OECD, 2017a). Social networks help to spread news from migrants to people back home about the potential benefits of moving to a given place. They can also facilitate the process of migration itself, allowing someone to travel thousands of kilometres and, within a matter of days, to find accommodation, employment and information about how to navigate life in a country (Fitzgerald, 2014).

Social support is an important aspect of migrants' well-being, acting as a buffer against the potentially isolating and stressful process of migration and helping migrants to establish themselves in a new country. In most OECD countries, migrants are less likely than the native-born to report having someone to count on for help (Figure 3.12). The difference is, however, not large, and in general social support levels are high for both groups: on average, across the 24 European OECD countries for which data are available, 90% of migrants report that they have someone whom they can count on, compared with 95% of the native-born.

Figure 3.12. **Social support, by migrant status**

Share of people aged 16 and over who report having someone whom they can count on for help, around 2013



Note: Data for OECD European countries, shown on the left-hand side of the chart, are drawn from the EU-SILC and represent the share of people reporting "yes" to the question: "Do you have any relatives, friends or neighbours that you can ask for help?" Data for Germany and selected non-European OECD countries, shown on the right-hand side of the figure, are from the Gallup World Poll and refer to the share of people responding "yes" to the question: "If you were in trouble, do you have relatives or friends you can count on to help you whenever you need them, or not?". As the survey questions and methods are different, the data coming from the EU-SILC and Gallup World Poll are not directly comparable. (*) indicates a statistically significant difference between migrants and the native-born, based on the analysis of confidence intervals at 90%. The OECD average is the simple country average.

Source: OECD calculations based on the 2013 EU-SILC, *http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/income-and-living-conditions/overview* and Gallup World Poll (2008-2015), *www.gallup.com/services/170945/world-poll.aspx*.

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While not direct measures of people's social connections at an individual level, societal characteristics such as tolerance and discriminatory attitudes provide the backdrop for migrants' interactions with others in the host country, shaping their ability to integrate and

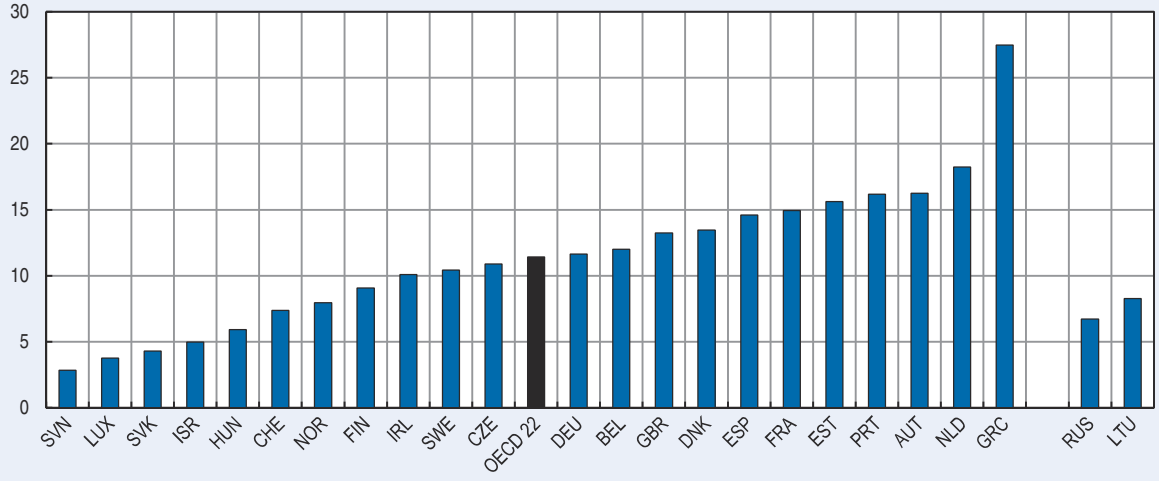
create new relationships outside the migrant group (Box 3.6). In the *How's Life?* framework, tolerance is a co-operative norm that may be considered to be part of a society's social capital, which is an important collective resource for future well-being (see OECD 2015, Chapter 3).

Box 3.6. **Tolerance and discrimination towards migrants in European countries**

The well-being and integration of migrants are shaped by the prevalent attitudes and behaviours towards migrants in the host country. In societies where levels of intolerance and discrimination are high, either towards migrants in general or towards certain ethnic and racial groups to which some migrants may belong, then migrants may experience further barriers to accessing employment, housing or other services. Experience of discrimination and exclusion amongst migrants has been linked to psychological distress, stress and serious mental health effects (Williams et al., 1997; Williams and Harris-Reid, 1999; Liebkind, 1996; Rumbaut, 1995). While measuring discrimination is complex (see OECD, 2012 for a detailed overview), tolerance and inclusion can be measured by subjective reports of perceived discrimination as well as by attitudes towards migrants. On average, across 22 European OECD countries, slightly more than 1 in 10 migrants consider themselves members of a group that experiences discrimination on the basis of race, ethnicity or nationality (Figure 3.13). In Greece, the share reaches over 1 in 4, whereas in Israel, Hungary, the Slovak Republic, Luxembourg, Slovenia and Poland, the share is much lower at around 1 in 20 or less.

Figure 3.13. **Migrants who consider themselves members of a discriminated group in selected European countries**

Share of migrants aged 15 and over, pooled results for surveys conducted between 2004 and 2014



Note: The OECD average is the simple country average. The chart shows the share of the migrant population who 1) respond positively to the question "Would you describe yourself as being a member of a group that is discriminated against in this country?", and 2) also respond positively to the question "On what grounds is your group discriminated against? Race/ethnicity/nationality".
Source: OECD calculations based on European Social Survey, 2004-14, *www.europeansocialsurvey.org/*.

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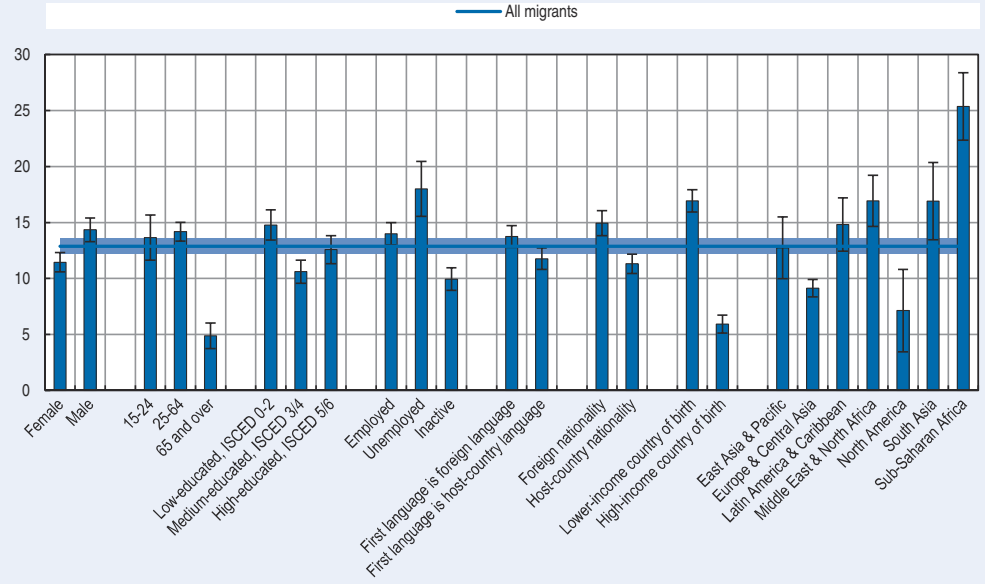
Perceived discrimination varies significantly, depending on different migrant characteristics (Figure 3.14). In European countries, migrants from low-income countries, and from sub-Saharan Africa, South Asia, Latin America and the Caribbean, and the Middle East and North Africa, are much more likely to feel that they belong to a group facing discrimination. Other factors that make the experience of discrimination more likely are being male, being unemployed and being unable to speak the host-country language.

Native-born people's prevailing attitudes towards migration can give an indication of how likely communities in host societies are to be welcoming towards migrants and to what extent migrants might find

Box 3.6. **Tolerance and discrimination towards migrants in European countries** *(cont.)*

Figure 3.14. **Migrants who consider themselves members of a discriminated group, by various characteristics in selected European countries**

Share of migrants aged 15 and over, breakdown by gender, age, education, employment status, nationality, income level and region of country of birth, pooled results for surveys conducted between 2004 and 2014

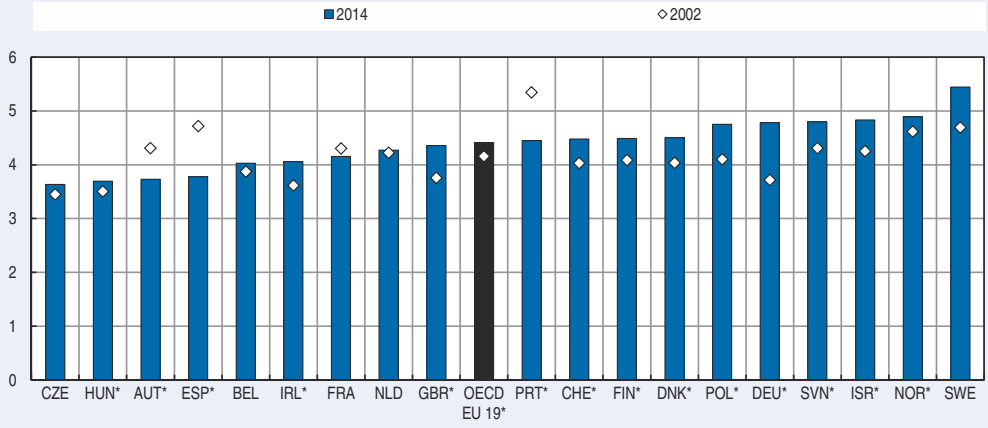


Note: Data aggregated for Austria, Belgium, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Germany, Estonia, Finland, France, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Israel, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, the Slovak Republic, Slovenia, Sweden, Spain, Switzerland and the United Kingdom. Data refer to the share of the foreign-born population saying they belong to a group that experiences discrimination on the basis of race, ethnicity or nationality. Error bars and the grey band indicate confidence interval at 90%.
Source: OECD calculations based on European Social Survey, 2004-14, *www.europeansocialsurvey.org/*.

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Figure 3.15. **Most native-born people in EU countries believe migrants take out more from society than they put in**

Mean values on a 0 (Generally take out more) to 10 (Generally put in more) scale, 2002 and 2014



Note: The question is worded: "Most people who come to live here work and pay taxes. They also use health and welfare services. On balance, do you think people who come here take out more than they put in or put in more than they take out?". The OECD average is computed as the average across 19 European countries. (*) indicates that the difference in scores between 2014 and 2002 is statistically significant at the 90% level.
Source: OECD calculations based on European Social Survey wave 1 and 7, *www.europeansocialsurvey.org/*.

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Box 3.6. **Tolerance and discrimination towards migrants in European countries** *(cont.)*

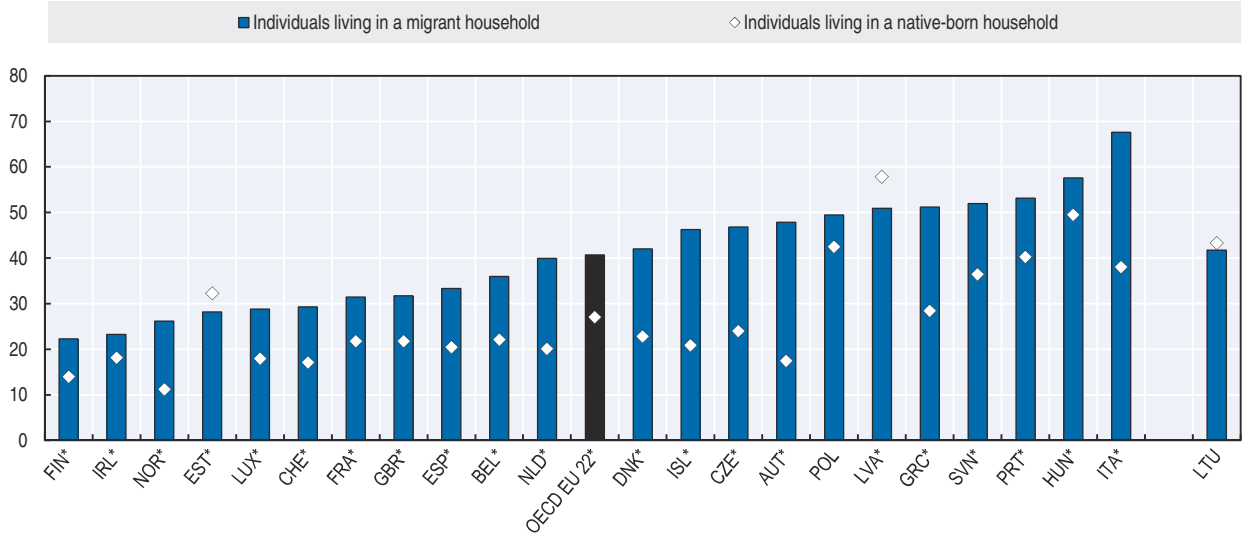
it easy or difficult to establish new social connections with native-born people. Figure 3.15 shows average scores on an 11-point scale for responses to the question "On balance, do you think people who come here take out more than they put in or put in more than they take out?", with reference to taxes, healthcare and other services. A higher score indicates a more favourable attitude towards migration. The Czech Republic, Hungary, Austria and Spain record the most negative attitudes towards migrants, with Sweden reporting the most positive ones. It is worth noting that, while attitudes towards migrants are, on balance, negative in most European countries for which data are available, overall these attitudes became slightly more favourable between 2002 and 2014, although this period predates the European migrant crisis that began in 2015.

Housing

Finding suitable housing is one of the first steps towards making a new country a home. In addition to meeting the basic human need for shelter, decent housing provides a protected refuge from the outside world, enables the development of a sense of identity and attachment – as an individual or as a part of a family – and provides a space to be oneself (Bonnefoy, 2007). On average across OECD countries, 41% of people in migrant households live in ***sub-standard or overcrowded housing*** compared with 27% of people in a native-born household (Figure 3.16).

Figure 3.16. **People living in sub-standard and/or overcrowded housing, by household migration status**

Share of the total population, 2014



Note: Housing is described as sub-standard if the accommodation is too dark, if it does not have an exclusive bathroom (bath- or shower-room and flushing lavatory), or if the roof leaks. A dwelling is considered to be overcrowded if the number of rooms is less than the sum of one living room for the household, one room for the couple responsible for the dwelling (or two rooms if the two people responsible do not form a couple), one room for every two additional adults (people aged 18 and over), and one room for every two children. A household is considered a migrant household if the primary and secondary heads of the household are both migrants. (*) indicates statistically significant differences at 90% between migrants and native-born. The OECD average is the simple country average.

Source: European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC) 2014, *http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/income-and-living-conditions/overview*.

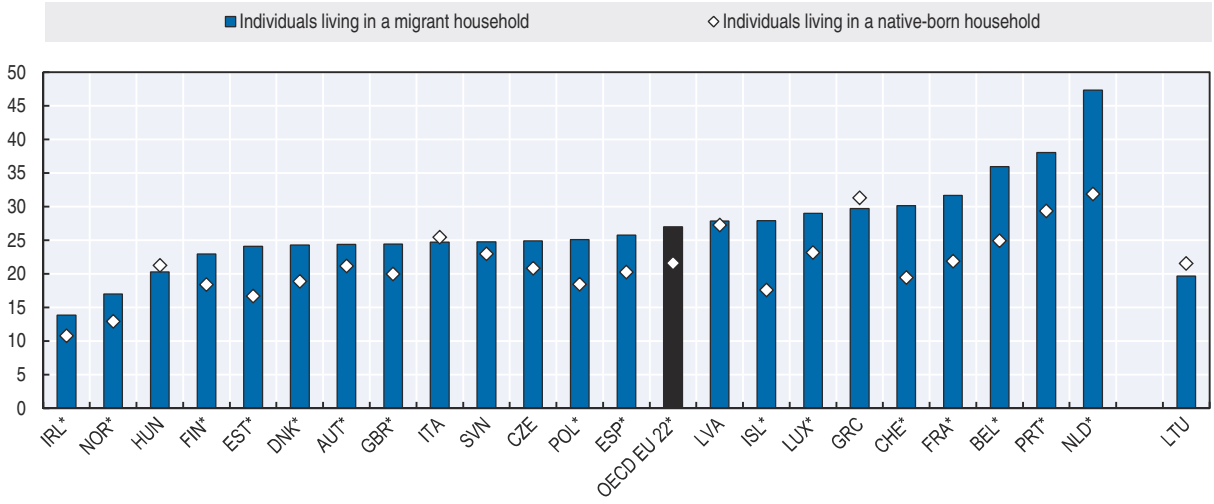
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Environmental quality

Because migrants have, on average, lower incomes than native-born people, they are more likely to settle in neighbourhoods with lower housing costs and poorer environmental quality. On average across 22 European countries, one in four migrants report living in an area with poor ***environmental conditions*** (e.g. with a high exposure to noise or air pollution), compared with one in five natives (Figure 3.17).

Figure 3.17. **People living in poor environmental conditions, by household migrant status**

Share of the population living in homes with self-reported poor environmental conditions, 2014



Note: Environmental conditions are assessed based on the question whether the household has experienced any of the following problems: 1) too much noise in the dwelling from neighbours or from outside (traffic, business, factory, etc.); or 2) pollution, grime or other environmental problems (i.e.: smoke, dust, unpleasant smells or polluted water) in the local area. A household is considered a migrant household if the primary and secondary heads of the household are both migrants. (*) indicates a statistically significant difference between migrants and the native-born, based on the analysis of confidence intervals at 90%. The OECD average is the simple country average.

Source: OECD calculations based on 2014 EU-SILC, *http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/income-and-living-conditions/overview*.

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Personal security

Across 24 European countries, migrants are only slightly less likely than native-born people to ***declare feeling very or fairly safe*** in their local area (Figure 3.18). The gap is widest in Eastern European countries – Latvia, Estonia, the Slovak Republic and Poland – where migrants are at least 12 percentage points more likely to say that they feel unsafe.

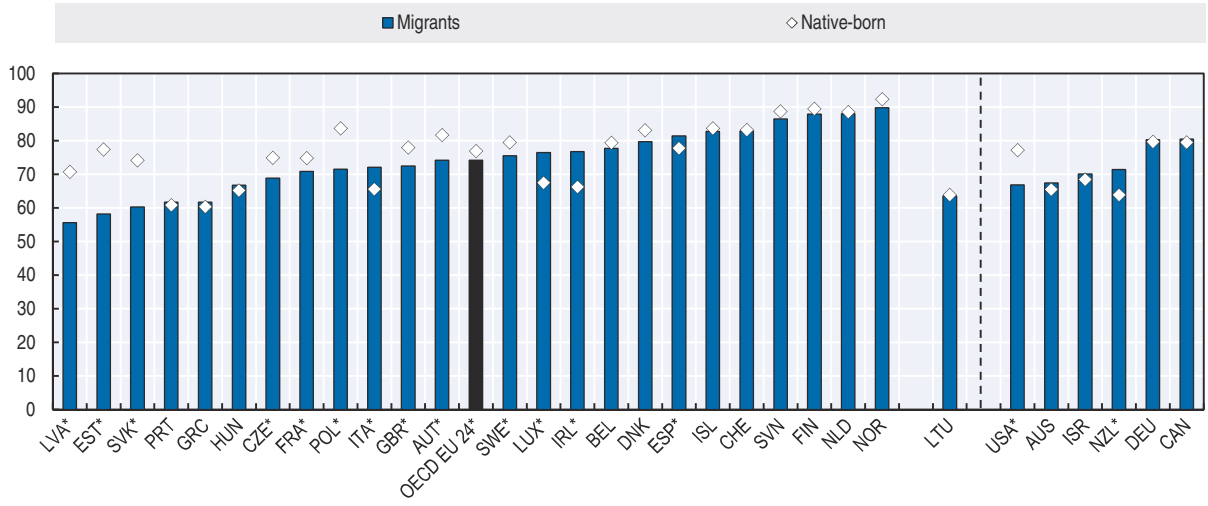
Civic engagement and governance

Understanding migrants' experiences of civic engagement and governance is particularly important as they may often be excluded from certain forms of civic expression (e.g. voting) or from certain public services (e.g. health-care), depending on their legal status (e.g. citizenship, type of residence permit) and their ability to navigate government bureaucracy and procedures. Across the 23 European OECD countries for which sufficient data are available, migrants are generally more likely than native-born people to ***trust the political system*** (Figure 3.19). A variety of factors may drive the slightly higher perceptions of trust among migrants, including a relative comparison with the situation in their country of origin.[14]

Given that migrants can experience a number of legal and social barriers to participating in civic and political life in their country of residence, they may feel less able to have an

Figure 3.18. **Feelings of safety when walking alone at night, by migrant status**

Share of people aged 16 and over saying that they feel safe when walking alone in their neighbourhood at night, around 2013



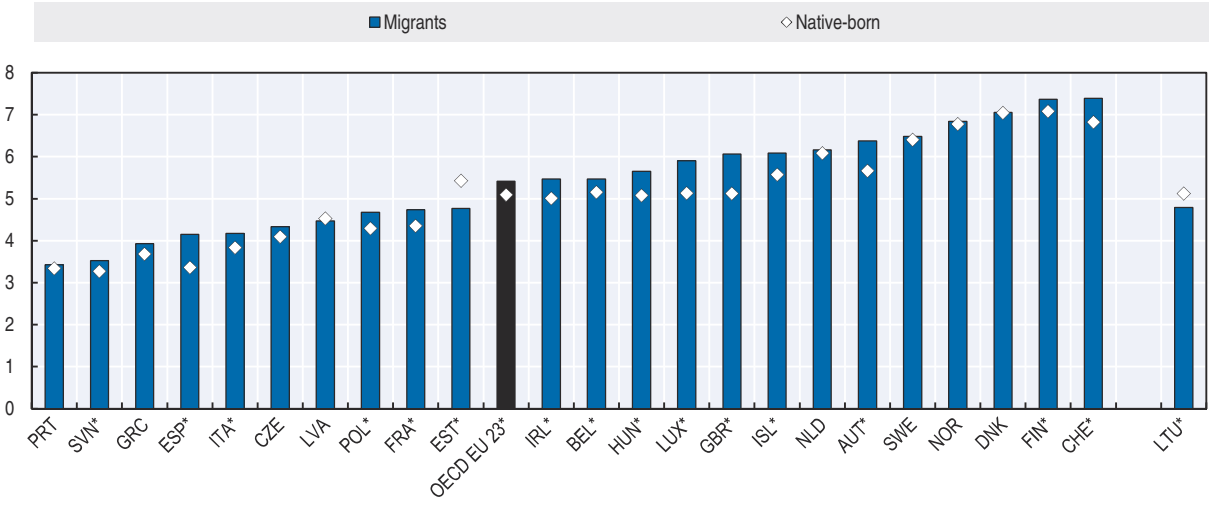
Note: Data for the EU-SILC (left-hand side of figure) show the share of people answering "very safe" or "fairly safe" to the question: "How safe do you feel walking alone in your area after dark?". Data for Germany and non-European countries (on the right-hand side) refer to the share of people responding "yes" to the question: "Do you feel safe walking alone at night in the city or area where you live?". Because of the difference in the question wording, data from the EU-SILC and Gallup World Poll are not directly comparable. (*) indicates a statistically significant difference between immigrants and native-born, based on the analysis of confidence intervals at 90%. The OECD average is the simple country average.

Source: OECD calculations based on 2013 EU-SILC, *http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/income-and-living-conditions/overview* and Gallup World Poll (2008-2015), *www.gallup.com/services/170945/world-poll.aspx*.

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Figure 3.19. **Trust in the political system, by migrant status**

Mean values on a 0-10 scale, 2013



Note: The EU-SILC asks: "How much do you personally trust in the political system? Please answer on a scale from 0 to 10, where 0 means no trust at all and 10 means complete trust." The OECD average is the simple country average. (*) indicates a statistically significant difference between migrants and the native-born, based on the analysis of confidence intervals at 90%.

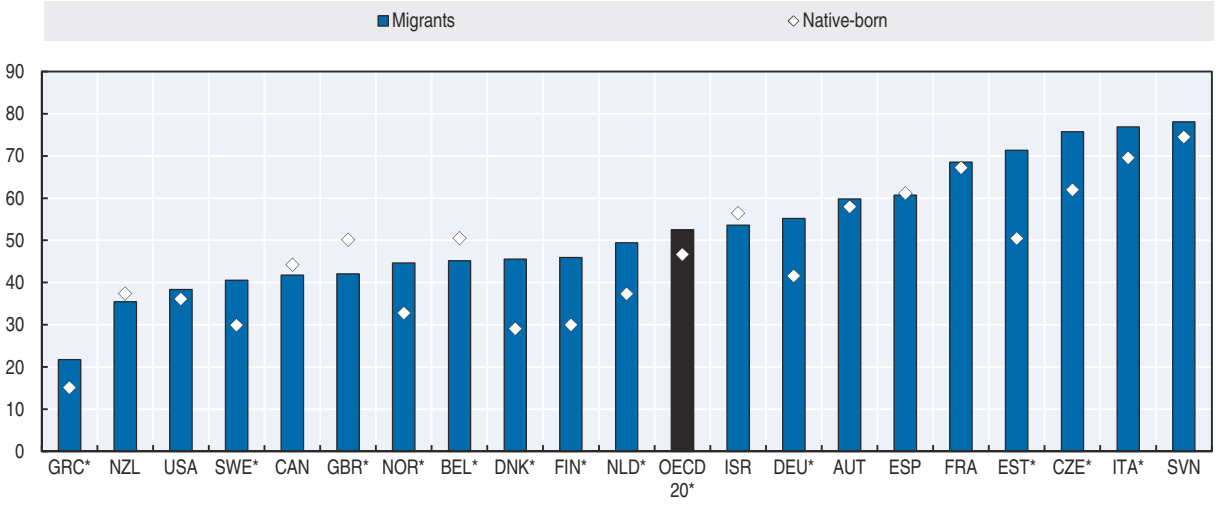
Source: OECD calculations based on 2013 EU-SILC, *http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/income-and-living-conditions/overview*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933596743

influence on the policies and actions of the government. Figure 3.20 shows the share of people agreeing with the statement "People like me don't ***have any say in what the government does***". On average across the 21 OECD countries for which data are available, foreign-born people feel less like they have a say in government, relative to native-born people. However, the patterns vary widely among countries. In Italy, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Germany, the Netherlands, Finland, Denmark, Norway, Sweden and Greece, migrants are generally much less likely to feel they have a say in government decisions.

Figure 3.20. **Having a say in what the government does, by migrant status**

Share of adults believing that they have no say in what the government does, 2012-15



Note: Data refer to the share of people agreeing or strongly agreeing with the statement "People like me don't have any say in what the government does". Data for the United Kingdom are limited to England and Northern Ireland; those for Belgium to the Flanders region. The latest available year is 2012-2016 for Greece, Israel, New Zealand and Slovenia; and 2008-2013 for Austria, Belgium, Canada, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Italy, the Netherlands, Norway, Spain, Sweden, the United Kingdom and the United States. Adults are defined as people aged 16 to 65. (*) indicates a statistically significant difference between immigrants and natives, based on the analysis of confidence intervals at 90%. The OECD average is the simple country average.

Source: OECD calculations based on Survey of Adult Skills (PIAAC) (2012, 2015), *www.oecd.org/fr/competences/piaac/*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933596762

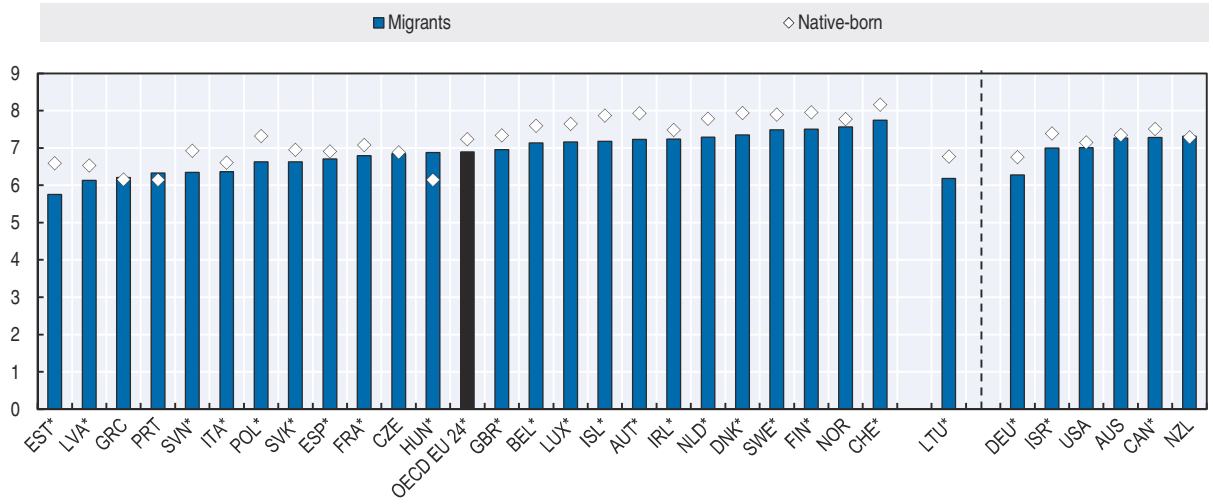
Subjective well-being

Whether and how migration influences how people evaluate and experience their lives depends on a number of factors, including the ease or difficulty of the process of migration itself, the extent to which realities in the host country match pre-migration expectations, and the evolution of migrants' circumstances and aspirations over time.[15] In most European countries, migrants' ***life satisfaction*** is lower than that of the native-born, with the largest differences observed in Estonia, Austria, Poland, Iceland, Lithuania, Denmark and Slovenia. Outside of Europe, in Australia, New Zealand and the United States, however, no significant difference can be seen in life satisfaction scores between the two populations (Figure 3.21).

The determinants of life satisfaction are complex, and differences in the life satisfaction levels of the migrant population across countries are likely to reflect the composition of the migrant population in terms of education level, country of origin, employment status, reasons for migrating, as well as conditions in the country of residence. For example, evidence from the Gallup World Poll indicates that the income level of the country of origin is an important factor in determining whether or not migrants experience increased life satisfaction relative to those who stayed at home (see Box 3.7).

Figure 3.21. **Life satisfaction, by migrant status**

People aged 16 and over, mean values on a 0-10 scale, around 2013



Note: The EU-SILC (on the left-hand of the chart) asks: "Overall, how satisfied are you with your life nowadays? Where 0 is 'not at all satisfied' and 10 is 'completely satisfied'". The Gallup World Poll (on the right-hand side) asks: "Please imagine a ladder with steps numbered from zero at the bottom to ten at the top. Suppose we say that the top of the ladder represents the best possible life for you, and the bottom of the ladder represents the worst possible life for you. On which step of the ladder would you say you personally feel you stand at this time, assuming that the higher the step the better you feel about your life, and the lower the step the worse you feel about it? Which step comes closest to the way you feel?" Due to this difference in the question wording, data from the EU-SILC and Gallup World Poll are not directly comparable. (*) indicates a statistically significant difference between immigrants and native-born, based on the analysis of confidence intervals at 90%. The OECD average is the simple country average.

Source: OECD calculations based on 2013 EU-SILC, *http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/income-and-living-conditions/overview* and Gallup World Poll (2008-2015), *www.gallup.com/services/170945/world-poll.aspx*.

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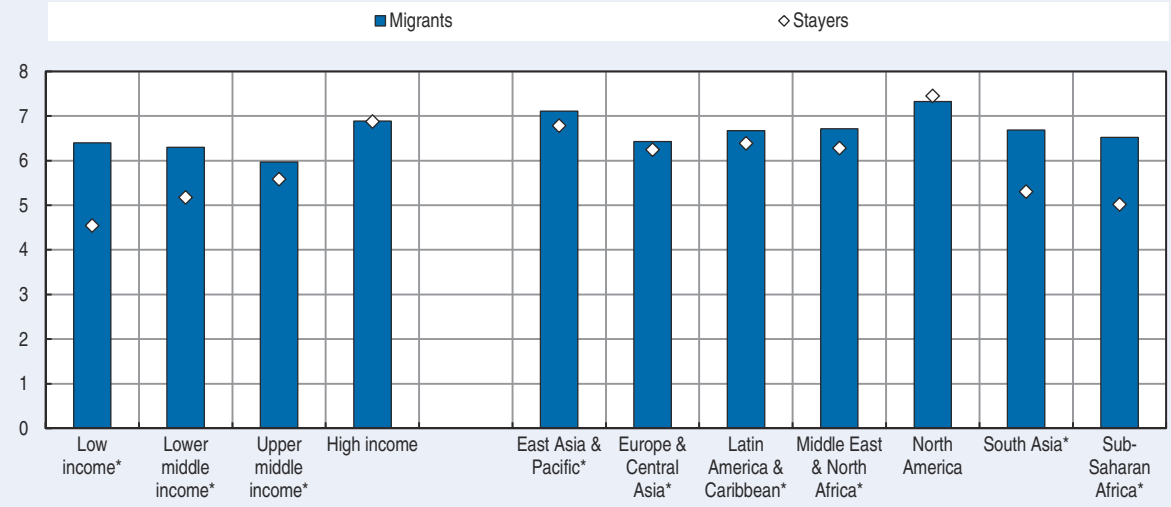
Box 3.7. **Comparing the life satisfaction of migrants with "matched" stayers**

While migrants' life evaluations are generally lower than those of the native-born population, an interesting question is how migrants compare to those who stayed behind in their country of origin. Based on data from the Gallup World Poll, Figure 3.22 shows the life satisfaction scores for a pooled sample of migrants from all OECD countries, broken down by the income level and global region of birth, compared with scores for matched stayers (i.e. people in the origin country with the same sex, age, education, country of origin, religious affiliation and year of interview). Overall, migrants from low-income countries and from sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia experience the biggest gains in life satisfaction compared with matched stayers in these regions, whereas migrants from high-income countries and North America, Europe and Central Asia experience very similar levels of life satisfaction to their peers who stayed at home. These results support findings elsewhere that differences in the income level of migrants' country of birth and country of residence matter a great deal for determining whether migrants' life satisfaction improves after moving country, compared with non-migrants (IOM, 2013; Hendriks, 2015).

Box 3.7. **Comparing the life satisfaction of migrants with "matched" stayers** *(cont.)*

Figure 3.22. **Life satisfaction for migrants and matched stayers, by income level of birth country and region**

Mean values on a 0-10 scale, 2006-15



Note: Matched stayers have been selected by propensity score matching. Matched stayers refer to people in the origin country with the same sex, age, education, country of origin, religious affiliation and year of interview. The results are based on an analysis of data pooled across years (2006-15) and across all migrants residing in OECD countries. (*) indicates a statistically significant difference between migrants and matched stayers at the 90% confidence level.

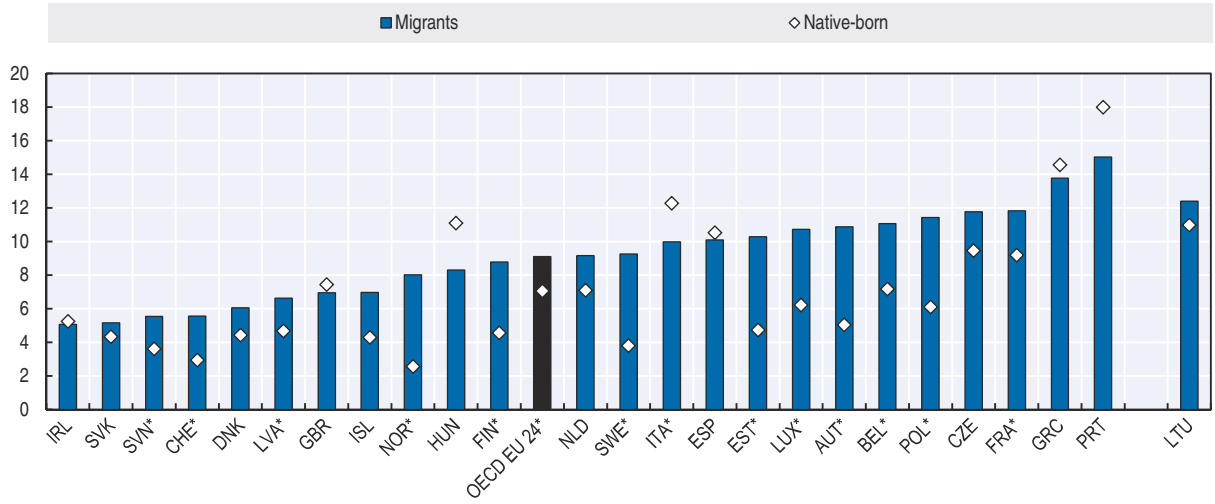
Source: OECD calculations based on the Gallup World Poll, *www.gallup.com/services/170945/world-poll.aspx*.

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Measures of people's ***positive and negative emotions*** (or affect) give complementary information about how people experience their lives, and they are particularly important for migrants given that they may be exposed to a number of stressors throughout the process of migration and integration (see Box 3.4). In most European countries for which data are available, migrants are generally more likely to report feeling downhearted or depressed all or most of the time in the previous 4 weeks (9% of migrants, compared with 7% of native-born, on average across 24 countries, Figure 3.23). The countries where the largest share of migrants report feeling downhearted and depressed – Portugal, Greece, France and the Czech Republic – also tend to experience relatively high rates of native-born people reporting these emotions. Gaps between migrants and the native-born are very large in Austria, Estonia, Norway, Sweden, Poland and Finland, where around twice as many migrants feel downhearted or depressed, relative to the native-born.

Figure 3.23. **People feeling downhearted or depressed, by migrant status**

Share of people aged 16 and more, 2013



Note: Data refer to the share of people responding "all of the time" or "most of the time" to the question: "How much of the time over the past four weeks have you felt downhearted and depressed?". The OECD average is the simple country average. (*) indicates statistically significant differences between migrants and native-born based on the analysis of confidence intervals at 90%.
Source: OECD calculations based on 2013 EU-SILC, *http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/income-and-living-conditions/overview*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933596819

The statistical agenda ahead for measuring migrants' well-being

Migration has become a major issue on the international agenda, and better measures of migrants' well-being are needed to support governments' efforts to integrate migrants, address their needs and leverage their capacities. This is an objective that is also central to the UN 2030 Agenda, which commits countries to co-operate internationally to facilitate safe, orderly and regular migration (Target 10.7) and to consider the needs of migrant workers (as well as other groups) with respect to economic growth and decent work (Goal 8). Migration status is also one of several ways in which SDG indicators should be disaggregated, according to Goal 17 (UN, 2015).

The measurement of well-being outcomes by migrant status is very challenging for official statistics. Obtaining accurate and detailed information about inflows and outflows and defining and measuring the stock of migrants within a country is a challenge in itself. Understanding what happens to migrants after they arrive in the host country and how the various outcomes relevant for their well-being evolve over time and differ from those of other groups (or between different groups of migrants) raises an additional series of issues. While administrative data sources are important for understanding migrant flows and stocks, they generally cannot provide the breadth and detail of information necessary for understanding well-being outcomes and drivers. Household surveys are the most appropriate vehicle for measuring well-being outcomes across a range of dimensions, but they are often not well suited to evaluating the migrant population, for reasons discussed below. A number of key priorities for the statistical agenda ahead can be highlighted:

- One of the most serious obstacles to measuring well-being outcomes for migrants and for understanding the role of different factors and characteristics in shaping these outcomes is the small sample size for migrants in most surveys. As migrants tend both to account for a relatively small share of the population in OECD countries and to live in geographically segregated areas of the country, a sample design that is appropriate for

the overall population may not be sufficient to capture information about migrant groups. Adapting the methodology of existing surveys, such as by boosting sample sizes, will improve the representativeness of the migrant sample obtained (Šteinbuka, 2009). Improving survey designs to reduce non-response rates will also need to be considered. The European Union Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS) and the European Survey of Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC) have both included special ad-hoc modules on migrants' outcomes in recent years, and these experiences can inform improvements to the measurement of migrant outcomes in other surveys and countries.

- Meeting the need for more detailed and granular data on migrant outcomes will also require the inclusion of additional survey questions that allow identifying different sub-groups. In addition to the important demographic and socio-economic variables that are usually included in household surveys (e.g. age, gender, educational attainment), some migrant-specific questions should be considered. These include the country of birth, duration of stay and reasons for migrating. The experiences of countries that are already using such variables – for example, from 2017 onwards the German Labour Force Survey will include a question on reasons for migrating – could provide useful lessons for others.
- In cases where it would simply be too difficult to modify the methodology of an existing survey, and where resources allow, developing a special, targeted survey of migrant outcomes could be considered, as was done in Italy through the Social Conditions and Integration of Foreign Citizens (SCIF) survey conducted by the Italian Statistical Office, Istat.
- Special efforts are needed to ensure that data collections include the most vulnerable migrants, and especially those who are unlikely to be reached through standard household surveys. Some countries have made advances in targeting specific migrant groups who may be at greater risk of well-being deprivations; this is the case of Australia's Building a New Life in Australia survey, which focuses on the experiences of recently arrived humanitarian migrants. Even more innovative approaches will be needed to identify migrants who are not generally covered by official sources, such as undocumented and irregular migrants, trafficked persons, refugees and asylum seekers, and short-term and circular migrants. The Suitland Working Group Taskforce of the Conference of European Statisticians has begun to work on identifying such migrants (UNECE, 2012), but designing and implementing surveys to collect information on well-being outcomes for such groups may be beyond the current capacity of national statistical offices.
- More longitudinal data are needed to understand the evolution of different well-being outcomes for individual migrants over time. Where possible, more national longitudinal surveys of migrant outcomes should be carried out, and efforts to harmonise surveys across countries could help to facilitate international comparisons of long-term data efforts. Many countries now have experience with longitudinal migrant surveys, including Australia, Canada, France, New Zealand and the United States. Efforts to identify best practices and to share experiences across countries could help statistical offices to implement and maintain such surveys so as to allow international comparisons.

Harmonised and detailed official data are still lacking in a number of key areas of migrants' well-being. While data on employment and education (and to a lesser extent, income and wealth) allow for the analysis of a fairly wide range of migrant outcomes, internationally comparable data from official sources are not available for assessing migrants' health status, personal security, civic engagement and governance, environmental

quality, social connections or subjective well-being. While in for some dimensions, this is a reflection of a more general lack of measurement (such as social connections and subjective well-being), in others such as health or personal security it is a result of inadequate or non-harmonised variables to identify migrants in the source data. Efforts are needed to improve the availability of harmonised and detailed official data in these areas.

Notes

1. Eurobarometer surveys show that the share of people concerned by immigration has steadily increased since 2013, and rose by 20 percentage points between spring and autumn 2015, making immigration the most commonly-cited concern of Europeans by autumn 2015, ahead of terrorism, the economic situation, unemployment and crime (EC, 2015).
2. For an overview of OECD work on migration see: *www.oecd.org/migration-insights/*. In particular, the publication *Settling In: Indicators of Migrant Integration* (OECD, 2012; OECD/EU, 2015) examines selected outcomes for migrants and their children across a number of the dimensions of the *How's Life?* framework, including the labour market, job quality, education, income, housing, health, civic engagement and social cohesion. These dimensions correspond to the European framework of the "Zaragoza indicators" of migrant integration (EC, 2013).
3. Previous OECD work has defined six categories of permanent migration: 1) workers; 2) accompanying families of workers; 3) family reunification and formation; 4) humanitarian; 5) free movement (e.g. within the free movement area of the European Union); and 6) "other", which includes retirees, persons of independent means, ancestry-based migrant entry and other types of migration not captured by the other categories (Fron et al., 2008). In 2015, the categories with the most entries for new migrants to OECD countries were family reunification, accounting for 32% of all migrants, and free movement, at 32.6%. The remaining third of migration was divided between workers (11.2%), humanitarian migrants (12.8%), accompanying families of workers (6.6%) and "other" (5.2%, OECD, 2017a). In addition, there are many different types of temporary migration, including seasonal workers, intra-company transfers, working holiday makers and international students (OECD, 2016a).
4. The censuses or administrative records that contain the most detailed information on migrants in terms of provenance, reason for migrating and key demographic variables do not tend to include information on well-being outcomes beyond income, labour market status and education. Some OECD countries, such as Australia and Canada, are making use of integrated datasets that link administrative data with censuses or other surveys, such as the 2011 Australian Census and Migrants Integrated Dataset (ACMID), the Australian Personal Income Tax and Migrants Integrated Dataset (PITMID), and the Canadian Longitudinal Immigration Database (which combines landing information from Citizenship and Immigration administrative files with tax records from the Canada Revenue Agency). These approaches have the potential to provide detailed information on migrant outcomes, but are not used in the majority of OECD countries, and currently only cover a narrow range of outcomes.
5. It is very difficult to estimate the size of the undocumented or unauthorised migrant population, and no standard methodology exists. However, estimates range from 3.4% of the total population in the United States (Pew Research Center, 2016) to between 7 and 13% of the foreign-born population in the European Union (CLANDESTINO, 2009).
6. Examples of such surveys include: the 1987 survey done for the Mexican Migration Project, which interviewed migrants and stayers in the United States and Mexico (Massey et al., 1987); the 1993 REMUAO survey that covered 8 sending and receiving countries in Africa; the survey Push and Pull Factors in International Migration, carried out between 1994 and 1999 covering 5 sending countries in Africa and 3 host countries in Europe (EC, 2000); and the MAFE research project launched in 2008 that focuses on migration between sub-Saharan Africa and Europe (*www.mafeproject.com*).
7. Examples include the Longitudinal Survey of Migrants to Australia (LSIA), launched in 1994 and replicated in 2000 and 2004; Building a New Life in Australia (BNLA), launched in 2013 and focussing on humanitarian migrants; the Canadian Longitudinal Survey of Migrants, launched in 2001; the United States New Migrant Survey, launched in 2003; the Longitudinal Immigration Survey: New Zealand (LisNZ), launched in 2004; and France's Longitudinal Survey of the Integration of First-Time Arrivals (ELIPA), launched in 2010.
8. In general, there are three different ways of counting the migrant population of a country. A migrant can be: 1) someone whose country of birth is different to their country of usual residence; 2) someone

whose nationality is different to their country of usual residence; or 3) someone who changes their country of usual residence for a period of at least a year, so that the country of destination becomes the country of usual residence. Each approach has strengths and weaknesses: for example, defining migrants as the foreign-born population is consistent and objective, but it classifies as migrants people who were born abroad but who are still considered nationals of the country in which they live (such as children born to armed forces personnel stationed abroad). Defining migrants as nationals excludes people who have changed their country of residence and acquired the nationality of their home country. People may also give self-reported nationalities on the basis of cultural affiliation rather than legal status. The third definition (the United Nations definition of permanent migration) poses the problem that people's intentions regarding their length of stay in a country may change.

9. *Settling In 2015* used the Eurostat definition of poverty, rather than the OECD definition of household income less than 50% of the national median income.

10. Skills mismatch is a complicated issue as it is very hard to compare degrees and work experience between different countries. The ability to speak the host-country language is also an important factor, as the skills and qualifications of migrants who are not proficient in the host country language are less transferable and less valuable to employers.

11. As a point of comparison, the difference between the lowest-performing and highest-performing OECD countries in the combined maths, reading and science assessments was 125 points in 2015 (see the online data annex that supports Chapters 1 and 5 of this volume *www.oecd-ilibrary.org/economics/how-s-life-2017_how_life-2017-en*).

12. The drivers of this pattern are unclear. Disparities between migrant and native residents may differ across dimensions of health, as well as by gender and country of residence. Also, statistical analyses may be biased downward because they fail to consider sick migrants who return to their country of origin (Neuman, 2014).

13. EU-SILC microdata were not available for Germany, meaning that it is not possible to calculate the breakdown by migrant status based on EU-SILC data.

14. People with low levels of confidence in the national government of their country of birth are more likely to decide to migrate (Nikolova and Graham, 2015). Political refugees in particular may have fled state-sanctioned violence and oppression and arrived in their new country with the hope of a life of greater civic freedom and democratic rights, upheld by responsible government.

15. Few surveys allow exploring the complexity of migrants' subjective well-being in detail, but there are exceptions. For example, the Longitudinal Survey of Immigrants to Canada asked a series of questions on migrants' subjective perceptions of their lives following migration. The vast majority of respondents felt that, despite numerous challenges (e.g. finding an adequate job and learning a new language being the most-cited), their quality of life had improved as a result of migration, and they would make the same decision to move if they had to do it again (Statistics Canada, 2007).

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Australian Personal Income Tax and Migrants Integrated Dataset (PITMID): *www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/abs@.nsf/mf/1351.0.55.060*.

Building a New Life in Australia (BNLA): *www.dss.gov.au/our-responsibilities/families-and-children/programmes-services/building-a-new-life-in-australia-bnla-the-longitudinal-study-of-humanitarian-migrants*.

Canadian Longitudinal Immigration Database: *www23.statcan.gc.ca/imdb/p2SV.pl?Function=getSurvey&SDDS=5057*.

IAB-BAMF-SOEP Refugee Survey: *www.diw.de/de/diw_02.c.244287.de/ueber_uns/menschen_am_diw_berlin/mitarbeiter/innen.html?id=diw_01.c.538695.en*.

IPUMS Integrated Public-Use Microdata Series: *www.ipums.org./*

Longitudinal Immigration Survey: New Zealand (LisNZ): *www.stats.govt.nz/browse_for_stats/population/Migration/lisnz.aspx*.

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Social Condition and Integration of Foreign Citizens Survey, Italy: *www.istat.it/en/archive/191097*.

Trajectoires et Origines, France (National Diversity Survey, French only): *www.ined.fr/en/publications/grandes-enquetes/trajectoires-et-origines/*.

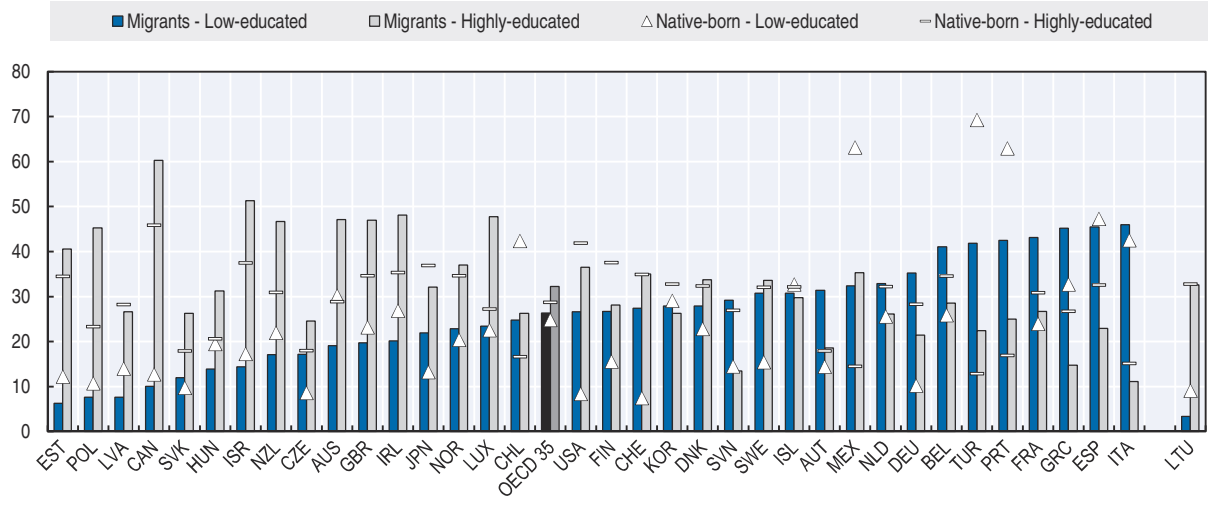
United States New Migrant Survey: *http://nis.princeton.edu/*.

ANNEX 3.A

Additional charts on measuring migrants' well-being

Figure 3.A.1. **Education levels among native- and foreign-born 15-64 year-olds**

Percentages of foreign- and native-born populations with either low or high levels of education, 2012-13



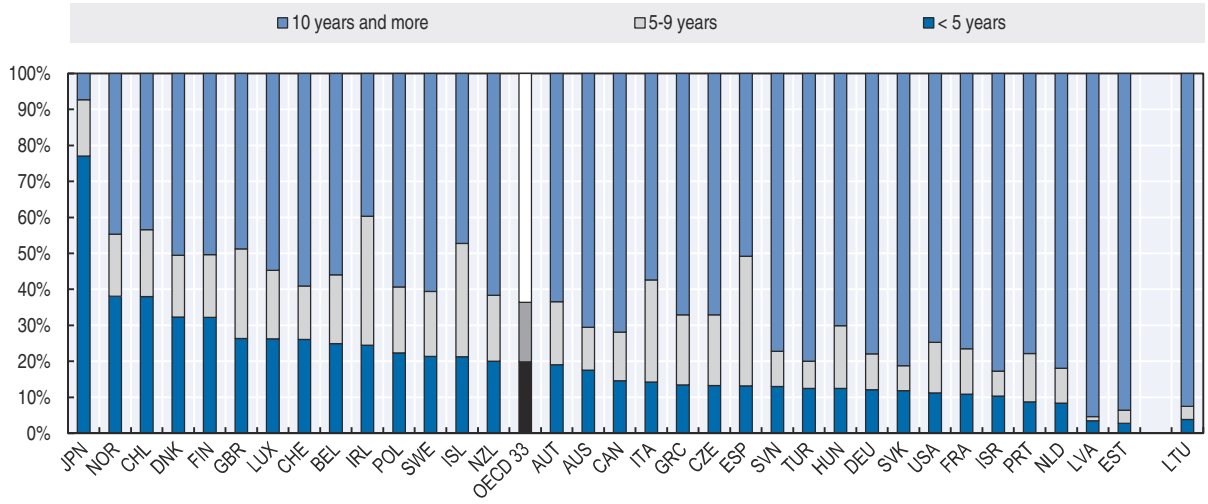
Note: The OECD average is the simple country average. Low-educated refers to people with a level of educational attainment corresponding to the level 0-2 ISCED (corresponding roughly to primary education and below) and high-educated refers to level 5-6 ISCED (corresponding roughly to tertiary education and above). Japanese data for the migrant population refer to non-nationals rather than the foreign-born. Countries are ranked by the share of the migrant population with a low educational attainment.

Source: OECD/EU (2015), European Union Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS) 2012-13. United States: Current Population Survey (CPS) 2013. Australian Survey of Education and Work (ASEW) 2013. Canada and New Zealand: Labour Force Survey 2012-13. Israel: Labour Force Survey 2011. Chile: Encuesta de Caracterización Socioeconómica Nacional (CASEN) 2011. Mexico: Encuesta Nacional de Ocupación y Empleo (ENOE) 2012. Japanese Population Census 2010. Korea: Foreign Labour Force Survey 2012-13 and Economically Active Population Survey of Korean nationals (EAPS) 2012-13.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933596838

Figure 3.A.2. **Distribution of migrants aged 15 to 64, by duration of stay**

Percentage of migrants, 2012-13



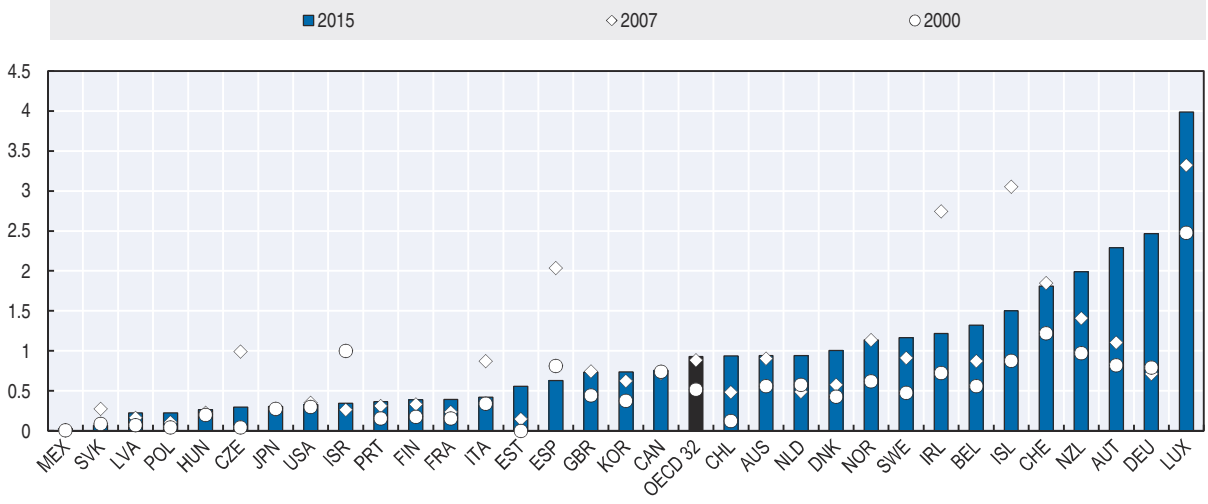
Note: The OECD average is the simple country average. Japanese data for the migrant population refer to non-nationals rather than the foreign-born.

Source: OECD/EU (2015), European Union Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS) 2012-13. American Community Survey (ACS) 2012. Israeli Labour Force Survey 2011. OECD Database on Immigrants in OECD Countries (DIOC) 2010-11 for the other non-European countries, *www.oecd.org/els/mig/oecdmigrationdatabases.htm*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933596857

Figure 3.A.3. **Annual Inflows of migrants**

Percentage of the total population



Note: The OECD average is the simple country average.

Source: OECD database on immigrants, *www.oecd.org/els/mig/oecdmigrationdatabases.htm*, and United Nations database, World Population Prospects *https://esa.un.org/unpd/wpp/Download/Standard/Population/*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933596876

Chapter 4

Governance and well-being

People expect public institutions to create the conditions for them to thrive and prosper, to be responsive to their needs, to support them in exceptional circumstances, and to perform their functions efficiently. This chapter explores the role of governance in shaping people's well-being, with a focus on how people experience and engage with public institutions at the national level. While governance remains a complex multidimensional concept lacking a standardised definition, key components required for "good governance" and their relation to well-being have been identified in the literature. For each of these components, an analysis is made of the often-limited comparative evidence, which comes mainly from non-official household surveys. The evidence shown in this chapter suggests, amongst other things, that beyond voting other forms of political participation are weak; that only one in three adults believes they have a say in what government does; and that people tend to be dissatisfied with government efforts to reduce inequalities. Finally, the main steps to be implemented in order to improve the measurement of governance are discussed.

The statistical data for Israel are supplied by and under the responsibility of the relevant Israeli authorities. The use of such data by the OECD is without prejudice to the status of the Golan Heights, East Jerusalem and Israeli settlements in the West Bank under the terms of international law.

Introduction: Why governance matters for well-being

The actions of public institutions affect people's lives, both directly and indirectly, in a large variety of ways: they provide public services, ensure security, support people in the event of unemployment, disability or retirement, and direct major infrastructure investments. In 2014, OECD governments were spending an annual average of around 40% of GDP on taxpayers' behalf. Given this level of expenditure, how public institutions function, the outcomes they deliver, and the extent to which people feel they have a say in what their government is doing matter crucially for people's well-being. At the same time, ordinary people also shape the quality of these institutions through their own actions – for example, through voting, using public services and engaging in political debate. This chapter therefore addresses the issue of how people both *experience* and *engage* with public institutions. It emphasises people's political voice and their representation and agency as outcomes of value in their own right – above and beyond the foundational role that governance plays in shaping the wider well-being outcomes addressed by the *How's Life?* framework.

Measuring governance, however, is not straightforward. The concept of governance is both broad and value-laden, with different disciplines and authors identifying different ingredients as necessary for "good governance". This chapter adopts a narrow definition of governance that focuses on public institutions (i.e. excluding corporations and other private institutions) operating at the national level (i.e. excluding international and local institutions). Further, it suggests that good governance relates to how public institutions function and to the outcomes they deliver that are valued by ordinary people.[1] In doing so, the chapter follows the perspective of the Stiglitz-Sen-Fitoussi report (2009), which argued that how government institutions function matters for people's political voice and agency and is a vital element of people's overall well-being.[2]

In recent years, statisticians have devoted increasing attention to the task of measuring governance, with some statistical offices (e.g. in Australia, Mexico and New Zealand[3]) recognising governance as an important domain for official statistics, alongside economic, social and environmental ones. Similarly, the international statistical community is increasingly engaged in this field, in particular following the inclusion of Sustainable Development Goal 16 referring to "peace, justice and effective, accountable and inclusive institutions" among the 17 other SDGs adopted by the UN General Assembly in September 2015.[4] Such engagement is reflected in the creation of the UN City Group on Governance Statistics (the Praia Group) in 2016, whose main outputs will include the preparation of a handbook on governance statistics by 2020. Alongside other OECD activities (e.g. González et al., 2017), this chapter aims to contribute to the work of the Praia Group.

The concepts encompassed by Goal 16 are highly abstract. This makes their translation into precise quantitative indicators challenging, both theoretically and practically. The UN Inter-Agency and Expert Group on SDG indicators (IAEG) have now developed and agreed on 169 targets and a list of 232 indicators for global monitoring, to support the implementation of the 2030 Agenda. This includes 23 indicators that relate to the concept of governance

under Goal 16. However, around one-third of these are classified as Tier III, i.e. indicators lacking an established methodology and standards, and with no regular data collections. Many of the indicators presented in this chapter touch upon the targets defined in Goal 16 and could inform the discussion about their measurement, including some of the most prominent measurement challenges. Moreover, a set of *OECD Guidelines on Measuring Trust* (OECD, 2017a), released in the autumn of 2017, are a key input to inform the production of higher quality statistics in this area; the *Guidelines* thoroughly review what is known about the statistical quality of existing measures of trust and propose a small number of prototype questions that national statistical offices (NSOs) could include in their surveys. This model could be replicated in other areas to inform the production of official statistics relevant to Goal 16. However, the focus of this chapter goes beyond informing the SDG process: the focus here is on people, their views about governance, and how public institutions shape their well-being.

Everyone, throughout their lives, interacts with public institutions. These interactions range from obtaining an identity record to benefitting from the public goods provided by governments, using the services provided by public schools and hospitals, voting, or filing a legal claim against violations of one's rights. People expect public institutions to create the conditions for them to thrive and prosper and to be responsive to their needs, to support them in exceptional circumstances, and to be effective in how they perform their functions. When institutions fail to meet these expectations, or are perceived as responding to the needs of a few powerful or well-connected people, their legitimacy is damaged, trust is lost and people's well-being suffers. The end result is not only a worse life today but also a lower sense of collective purpose to address those critical challenges that communities may have to face in the future. When governance is failing and people lose trust in institutions, the whole community fails.

Governance influences people's well-being through two main mechanisms. On the one hand, public institutions should *guarantee* the fundamental rights and shared principles that are essential for peace, social order and human rights; on the other hand, these institutions should *enable* people to make the most of their lives, generating the conditions for economic and social development through effective decision-making processes and the provision of public goods and services. All public institutions owe their legitimacy to the presumption that they act to secure the constitutional entitlements of those being governed by them (Nussbaum, 2011). Well-functioning institutions also boost people's overall evaluations of their lives and their trust in these institutions, mainly through the delivery of public services and by shaping people's perceptions of the quality of democratic processes in various countries (Helliwell et al., 2014; Kim and Kim, 2012; Ott, 2010; Spence, 2011; and Dorn et al., 2007).

This chapter is organised as follows. The next section describes the key conceptual and methodological challenges involved in defining and measuring governance, followed by a brief review of the main sources of information that are currently available in this field and of the indicators used for the empirical analysis presented in this chapter. For each of the governance aspects selected, the chapter then presents evidence on the average performance of the OECD countries, on inequalities in people's experiences of these aspects and, in some cases, on the relations between them. The concluding section identifies some of the key gaps that the statistical community will need to address in the future in order to produce governance statistics matching the quality of other types of data routinely produced by statistical offices.

Defining and measuring governance

The concept of "governance"[5] has been used in many contexts by different actors and institutions. Modern uses of the term have become more common since the 1990s and often include an implicit normative judgement about what "good governance" means. For example, governance has been increasingly associated with creating institutional frameworks conducive to higher economic growth and development (Rothstein and Tannenberg, 2014) and with the diffusion of new, less hierarchical and more participative models of public management.[6] While the vague and broad notion of governance has often been contested (Plattner, 2013; Offe, 2009), researchers and organisations have used it to refer to a plethora of different and partly overlapping concepts encompassing the political system, democracy, rule of law, human rights, freedoms, absence of discrimination, transparency of administrative procedures, participation by citizens and civil society organisations, regulatory quality, and the effectiveness of policies and anti-corruption measures.

Political scientists have also identified a range of requirements of "good governance", ranging from narrower notions of "impartiality" (a requirement that is independent of the actual content of policies – Rothstein and Teorell, 2008) and the "effectiveness" of government decisions (the performance of government in delivering goods and services to citizens – Rotberg, 2014; Boardman, 2014) through to broader notions of "state capacity" (in delivering results in selected areas, e.g. macroeconomic policy, generation of census data, etc.), "bureaucratic autonomy" (e.g. the balance between responsiveness to political direction and avoiding political micromanagement), the quality of administrative procedures (e.g. selection of staff based on merit rather than patronage – Holt and Manning, 2014, "state building" (taxation level and the professionalisation of the bureaucracy), the rule of law (in terms of constraints on the executive), and accountability (obligation of political leaders to answer for their political decisions when asked by voters or constitutional bodies – Fukuyama, 2014). Longer lists of specific ingredients of good governance have also been proposed by political scientists.[7] Different international organisations have also proposed their own definitions of governance, with similarities but also differences (González et al., 2017). The lack of agreement about definitions of governance and its key ingredients implies huge challenges for measurement.

Operationalising complex concepts such as governance requires a framework to describe what falls within the boundary of the concept being analysed. One way of deconstructing governance, described by González et al. (2017), is to distinguish between three broad domains, i.e. 1) "principles", which reflect the political and philosophical ideals defining how each society is governed; 2) "processes", which refer to how resources are transformed into outputs (e.g. goods and services) through the work of public administrations; and 3) "outcomes", which capture how the activities of public institutions at all levels (i.e. political and administrative) impact on people. These three broad domains, in turn, include more specific aspects within them, such as trust and satisfaction with the public services delivered in the "outcome" domain, or public integrity and the conditions for stakeholder engagement in the "process" domain.[8]

The different domains of governance should be theoretically relevant but also empirically measurable. Table 4.1 lists the governance aspects that are reviewed in greater detail in this chapter. As in any selection, reducing the range of topics covered necessarily involved omitting a number of items that are both relevant and measurable. In particular, the coverage of government processes (such as budgetary practices or public procurement

Table 4.1. **Selected domains and dimensions of governance statistics**

Domain	Question	Description	Selected aspects
Principles	What are the values shaping how public institutions function?	Framing government actions based on shared societal values such as democracy (i.e. **participation** and **deliberation**), the promotion of **equality** before the law and accountability	Political participation (voting and other forms of political participation) Quality of democracy (fairness and freedom of elections, availability of information, direct participation) Representation and access to the public sphere (composition of national legislatures)
Processes	How are public institutions performing their role?	Making and implementing decisions that generate prosperity and guarantee the appropriate regulation of economic and social life. Ensuring that public institutions are **consistent** (equal treatment across persons and time), **accurate** (utilising up-to-date, precise information), **correctable** (providing opportunity of review, appeal or redress), **impartial** (avoiding personal interest and/or ideological bias by public officials), **representative** (ensuring that all citizens can be involved in decision making) and **ethical** (decisions must conform to fundamental moral values and ethics)	Budgeting practices and procedures Human resource management practices Public procurement Open government practices Planning and coordination at the Centre of Government Digital government **Stakeholder engagement in developing regulations** **Absence of corruption in public institutions**
Outcomes	Why is this important?	Deliver services that improve people's lives, preserve the legitimacy of public institutions and enhance political agency	Satisfaction with services Political efficacy Trust in public institutions

proceedings) is limited, since these refer to the day-to-day operation of government rather than to how people experience and engage in governance, which is the focus of this chapter. Moreover, another OECD flagship report, *Government at a Glance* (OECD, 2017c), includes a detailed set of indicators on government processes.

While the relation between principles, outcomes and well-being is more intuitive, and has been explored in greater detail, some authors argue that processes, notably *procedural utility,* is equally important to enhance people's well-being. Frey et al (2004) define procedural utility as *the well-being people gain from living and acting under institutionalised processes* that address needs for autonomy (i.e. their desire to lead their lives by deciding on how to act), relatedness (i.e. the need to feel connected to others) and competence (i.e. the propensity to control the environment and experience oneself as capable and effective). In turn, one of the more investigated aspects of procedural utility is *procedural fairness,* whereby *how* public services are provided (procedure) is as important as *what* is provided (outcome).[9] Compliance with high standards and adherence to best practices when providing services commonly falls under the remit of public administrations. According to Pearce (2007), procedural fairness in the provision of public services shapes users' perceptions of those services, the satisfaction they derive from them, the trust expressed when evaluating institutions in charge of providing them as well as users' willingness to co-operate in improving them. For example, the 2016 survey on people's experience and impressions of justice and the justice systems in England and Wales asked respondents both about the outcomes of legal processes and whether they feel that "*courts and tribunals always treat both parties fairly, whatever their background, gender, ethnicity or faith*".[10]

Choice of indicators and data sources for measuring governance

The concept of governance has provided fertile ground for generating indicators based on different approaches. Measures are generally sourced from administrative records, qualitative assessments of specific aspects of governance provided by experts, and household surveys. Each source has its pros and cons. For example, while experts are often

best placed to assess aspects of governance that require detailed knowledge of how public institutions function and that are difficult to measure through other means, issues arise about the selection of experts, the interest and legitimacy of the sponsors/funders of various measurement initiatives, as well as access to and the disclosure of methodologies (Broome and Quirk, 2015).

Further, one commonly used methodology has been to rely on composite indexes based on some combination of various data.[11] Developing composite measures of governance requires making several decisions, i.e. about the raw data to be used (e.g. surveys or experts' assessments), the type and number of experts consulted (i.e. academics, civil servants), the weights to be attached to various measures and dimensions, the treatment of missing data and the quality checks to be applied to the final index. The *OECD Government at Glance* reports have long relied on composite indicators for narrowly-defined aspects of governance (such as stakeholder engagement in rule-making), building on the methodology described in OECD (2017c).

Several non-official household surveys (e.g. the European Social Survey, the European Quality of Life Survey, the World Values Survey and the Gallup World Poll) have included questions on specific aspects of governance; while none of these have a special focus on governance, they have the dual advantage of relying on consistent questions across countries and of allowing analysis of the link between governance and aspects of people's well-being. Growing interest in governance statistics based on household surveys is evidenced by recent comparative surveys analysing specific dimensions of governance at length, as one-offs or special features. For example, the European Social Survey included a special module on Europeans' Understandings and Evaluations of Democracy as part of its 6th wave fielded in 2012. The EU Commission for Regional Development also funded the European Quality of Government survey, which investigates corruption and the quality of services, with a first wave conducted in 2010.[12]

The indicators presented in this chapter have been chosen on the basis of the theoretical and/or empirical evidence about their importance for people's well-being. To shed light on the various aspects of governance, this chapter makes use of a wide range of sources. As the focus of the chapter is on the comparative evidence available for a large number of OECD countries, most of the information presented is drawn from household surveys, such as regular social surveys and one-off surveys, complemented with data based on experts' assessments (i.e. stakeholder engagement and the disclosure of private interests) and administrative data (i.e. voter turnout). Table 4.2 describes the sources of the information used for this chapter and highlights some key characteristics of each source, such as the type of data underlying the indicators, sample size, population covered and frequency of data collections. In some cases, the collection of governance statistics is standardised and follows a well-established periodicity – e.g. data on voter turnout from the International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance (IDEA) and on trust from the Gallup World Poll – while in others data have been collected for specific *ad hoc* research purposes (e.g. the European Social Survey special module on Europeans' Understandings and Evaluations of Democracy, the European Quality of Governance survey, the World Justice Project dispute resolution module), without a guarantee of continuity. An important effort to collect official comparative statistics on governance is the Strategy for the Harmonization of Statistics in Africa (SHaSA),[13] which has designed survey modules on measuring peace, security and governance that have been implemented by more than 10 African NSOs (Razafindrakoto and Roubaud, 2015).

Table 4.2. **Statistical sources for the governance aspects reviewed in this chapter**

Aspects	Sources	Type of data	Sample size (in the case of surveys)	Population represented	OECD country coverage	Frequency	Latest year available
Voting and other forms of political participation	IDEA dataset	Administrative records	..	Voting age population	35	Based on dates of national elections	2015 or last election
	Comparative Study of Electoral Preferences (CSEP)	Post-election survey	500-3 000	Voting age population	22	Based on the election cycle of each country	2011-16 depending on the election year
Quality of democracy	European Social Survey (ESS)/ Special module	Household survey	Between 800 (in countries with population < 2 million) and 1 500	Population aged 15 and over	23	Biannual (special modules are one-offs)	2012
Representation and access to the public sphere (composition of national legislatures)	Comparative Candidate Survey (CCS)	Survey of candidates for national elections	Not specified, based on self replies	Candidates who replied to the survey	11	Based on the elections cycle of each country	2014 or latest election
Stakeholder engagement in developing regulations	European Quality of Life Survey (EQLS)	Household survey	1 000-2 000	People having their usual residence in the country	24	Every 4 years	2012
	OECD Regulatory Indicators Survey	Expert assessment	1 expert (coordinator)	...	35	Once in its current format	2014
Absence of Corruption in public institutions	Gallup World Poll	Household survey	1 000	Population aged 15 and older	32	Annual since 2006	2016
	European Quality of Governance Index Survey	Household survey	Between 800 and 8 500	Population aged 18 or older	19	2010 and 2013	2013
Satisfaction with services	Gallup World Poll	Household survey	1 000	Population aged 15 and over	35	Annual since 2006	2016
	European Quality of Governance Index Survey	Household survey	Between 800 and 8 500	Population aged 18 and over	19	2010 and 2013	2013
	World Justice Project (WJP), dispute resolution survey module	Household survey	1 000	Population aged 18 and over in the 3 largest cities of each country	13	Annual (special module only once)	2016
Political efficacy	OECD Adult Skills survey	Household survey	5 000	Population aged 16 to 65	28	Once (each data collection included different countries)	2008-13 and 2012-16
Trust in public institutions	Gallup World Poll	Household survey	1 000	Population aged 15 and over	35	Annual since 2006	2006 and 2016
	European Social Survey	Household survey	Between 1 500 and 800	Population aged 15 and over	19	Biannual (core and special rotating modules)	2002 and 2014

Comparative statistics on governance in OECD countries nevertheless remain limited. In some cases, different sources may also lead to different conclusions on countries' performances in a specific governance aspect, highlighting the lack of established methodologies and the need for further work to identify the most meaningful set of indicators.

Evidence on governance and well-being

Comparative evidence on how OECD countries perform with respect to selected aspects of governance is presented in this section, drawing on the sources detailed in Table 4.2. The evidence presented relates to some of the dimensions included in Table 4.1, pertaining to the

three broad domains of "principles" (voter turnout, political engagement, valuations of democracy), "processes" (stakeholder engagement in the process of developing primary laws, corruption) and "outcomes" (satisfaction with public services, political efficacy, trust in public institutions).

Principles

Voter turnout

The classic definition of democracy, rooted in the experience of ancient Athens, is that of "government by the people". Since its inception, democracy has been easier to conceptualise in theory than to measure in practice. Scholars have recognised that the concept is elusive, lacks precision and has changed meaning under different historic circumstances (Bauman and Bordoni, 2014). Despite its complexity, democracy is widely accepted as the "least bad" form of social organisation;[14] in turn, good governance has been recognised as a condition for strengthening democratic principles and institutions (Rodrik, 2007). Additionally, allowing people to lead the lives that they choose entails expanding capabilities to be free and to fully exercise their rights in the "political sphere". According to Nussbaum's human development model, having a choice in the policies that govern one's life is a key ingredient of a life worthy of human dignity underpinned by fundamental rights and entitlements (Nussbaum, 2010).

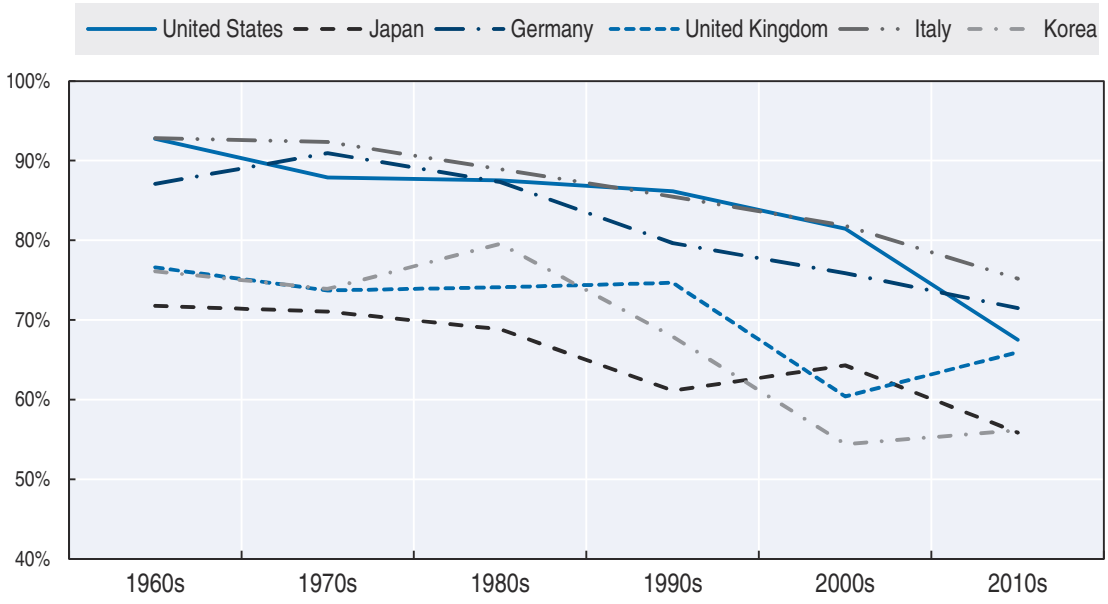
Dahl (1971) identified a minimal standard for democracy, that citizens could self-govern via elections in a cycle of participation and contestation; this minimalist version of democracy entails the organisation of periodic elections.[15] In all OECD countries, the right to vote is universal, extending to most citizens.[16] However, whether citizens exercise this right varies widely across countries. In some countries where voting is mandatory (e.g. Australia and Belgium), voter turnout, as a proportion of the voting-age population, is above 90%. In others, where a broad range of societal issues are decided via referenda and where direct participation mechanisms are strong (e.g. Switzerland), participation in general elections is below 50%.

One of the manifestations of the democratic malaise currently evident in many of the world's established democracies is the secular decline in voter turnout (Bauman and Bordoni, 2014).[17] Figure 4.1, presents voter turnout, as a proportion of the voting age population, for parliamentary elections in six major OECD countries since the 1960s. Data are drawn from the IDEA dataset, the most comprehensive global collection of voter turnout information for presidential and parliamentary elections. These data, sourced from administrative records, highlight a generalised downwards trend, which has also been documented by a range of other studies (e.g. Delwit, 2012; IDEA, 2016). Lower voter turnout indicates that fewer citizens rely on voting as an instrument for exercising influence over political decisions, with some researchers associating it with a combination of unfulfilled expectations of democracy (Rothstein and Tannenberg, 2014) and lower trust in institutions (Grönlund and Stäelä, 2007).

Voter turnout varies widely across people with different characteristics. Figure 4.2 presents information on self-reported voter turnout among people in different demographic and socio-economic groups, across all OECD countries and at two points in time (corresponding to the elections that took place, respectively, in the period 2006-11 and 2011-16). Data are drawn from surveys where respondents are asked whether they cast a ballot in a recent election and are compiled by the Comparative Study of Electoral Systems (CSES), an

Figure 4.1. **Turnout at national elections has steadily declined in most OECD countries**

Votes recorded as a share of the voting-age population



Note: Data refer to parliamentary elections for all countries except the United States, where they refer to presidential elections. The voter turnout rate is expressed as the ratio between the number of votes recorded by national electoral authorities and the voting age population. When more than two elections occurred in the same decade, data are the average of all elections occurring within that decade.

Source: OECD calculations based on voter turnout data from the International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance (IDEA) (2017), *www.idea.int/data-tools/data/voter-turnout*.

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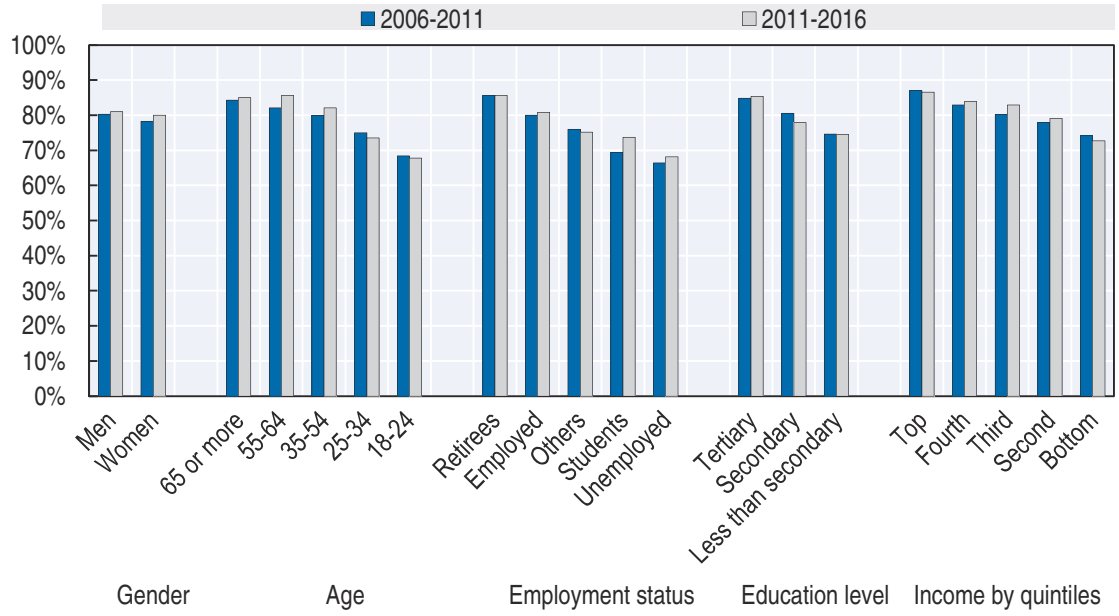
international research programme that collects comparable data on elections based on respondents' self-reports to surveys undertaken following major elections.

In the most recent period, around 80% of the voting age population in OECD countries reported casting a ballot in elections that took place from 2011 to 2016, which is similar to the overall turnout rate between 2006 and 2011.[18] Voter turnout increases monotonically with people's age, i.e. turnout for people aged 65 or more is around 17 percentage points higher than among youth aged 18-24. However, a comparison of the 2006 and 2011 data points in Figure 4.2 shows that the difference in voter turnout between men and women has been shrinking so much that the gap, on average, has disappeared.

There are also significant differences in electoral participation according to people's socio-economic status. In general, workers turn out to vote more than do the unemployed, students and others[19] (by 13, 6 and 7 percentage points, respectively). More strikingly, the turnout of people in the top quintile of the income distribution is 14 percentage points higher than for those in the bottom income quintile. This gap increased by 1 percentage point, on average, in the most recent period, and exceeds 25 percentage points in the United States (34 points), United Kingdom (32 points), and Portugal (29 points). In a similar vein, the gap in voter turnout between people with tertiary education and those with less than secondary education is 11 percentage points on average,[20] with differences above 25 points in the Slovak Republic (38 points), the Czech Republic (34 points) and the United States (27 points). All in all, between 2006-11 and 2011-16, there has been an increase in voter turnout among students (4.4 percentage points) and people aged 55-64 (3.6 percentage points.) and a decrease among the less educated and poorest segments of the population.[21]

Figure 4.2. **People who are less educated, younger and with lower incomes are less likely to vote**

OECD average self-reported voter turnout, as a percentage of the population, by demographic and socio-economic characteristics



Note: Data are sorted by decreasing values of the 2006-11 period. The OECD average is the simple average based on data available for 25 countries, and excludes Belgium, Denmark, Estonia, Chile, Hungary, Italy, Latvia, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, and Spain. Data on national elections refers to elections that attract the largest number of voters that, unless specified otherwise, are lower house parliamentary elections. Data for the United States, Mexico and France refers to presidential elections. Data for Australia is an average of upper and lower house elections. Based on data availability, data for Japan corresponds to upper house elections.
Source: Comparative Study of Electoral Preferences (CSES) modules 2, 3 and 4, *www.cses.org/*.

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Other forms of political participation

Beyond the act of voting, people participate in the life of their community in a variety of ways. As part of this participation, it is possible to distinguish between communal/civic activities and political ones (Uslaner and Brown, 2003); the former refers to activities involving volunteering and donating time (Barnes and Kaase, 1979), while the latter (the focus of this section) is primarily about engagement in political activities.[22] The importance of these types of activities for individual well-being has been stressed by Sen (1999), who recognised political voice as one of the basic freedoms and rights that people have reason to value. People's participation and involvement in political decisions also increases the likelihood that they will endorse decisions that they consider fair; this may also directly contribute to their sense of well-being (Frey and Stutzer, 2006) and purpose in life (Veenhoven, 1988; Inglehart, 1990; Flavin and Keane, 2011).

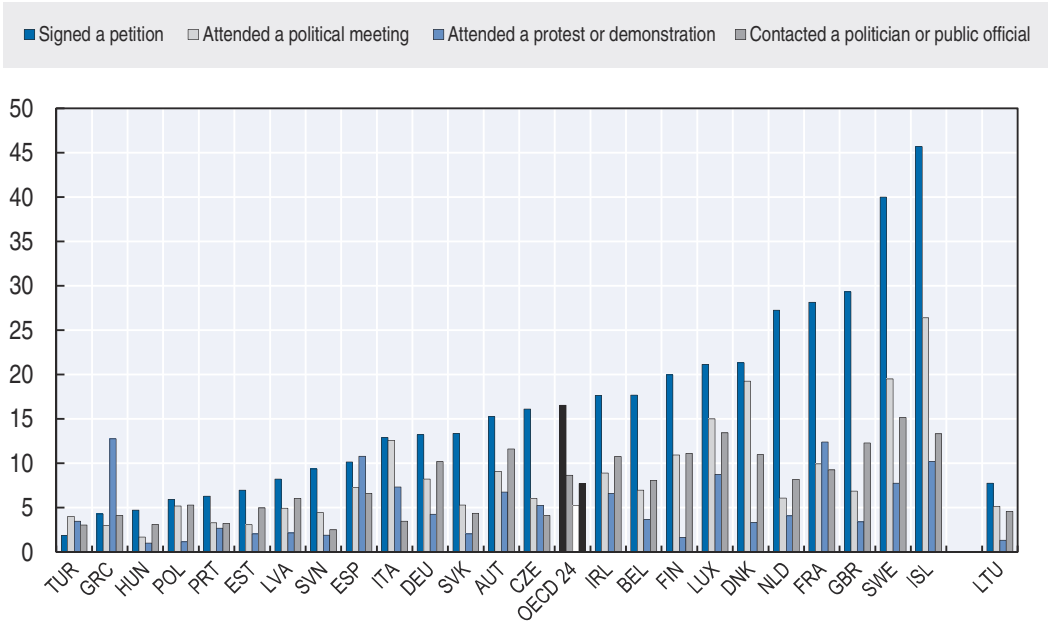
A typology adapted from Ekman and Amna (2009) is used by Boarini and Díaz (2015) to describe patterns of political participation according to two broad forms: *manifest forms* of political participation, which entail taking direct action to influence political decisions and political actions; and *latent forms,* which do not qualify as deliberate and explicit but still lead to observable forms of participation. Within these broad categories, the typology further distinguishes between individual and collective forms of participation; between formal participation and protest behaviour, in the case of manifest participation; and between involvement and engagement, in the case of latent participation.

One issue of interest is whether there has been a decline in different forms of political participation similar to the one shown in Figure 4.2 for voter turnout. Van Biezen, Mair and Poguntke (2012) have documented a fall in party membership across European countries. Using data from the six waves of the European Social Survey, Boarini and Díaz (2015) showed that this decline affects, to differing extents, all forms of political participation, and that this is mainly explained by a process of generational replacement.[23] The authors, however, also emphasise the need to investigate newer forms of political participation, often latent or non-manifest forms, which could be more prevalent among younger birth cohorts. Similarly, IDEA (2016) draws attention to the fact that, alongside the fall in voter turnout, other forms of citizen activism have increased, as witnessed by a wave of "occupy movements" in the early 2010s and by the increasing use of social media as new platforms for political engagement.

Traditionally, household surveys have focused mainly on manifest forms of political participation. Drawing on the European Quality of Life Survey (EQLS), a survey with one of the most comprehensive sets of questions on the subject,[24] Figure 4.3 shows certain measures of political engagement, i.e. the share of the population who reported having participated in four types of political activities in the recent past. Of all these forms, the most common type of political engagement in European countries is signing a petition, including through online channels. Around 17% of the population reported such activity, varying from more than one-third in Sweden and Iceland to less than 5% in Hungary, Greece and Turkey. Other forms of political participation that require citizens to assume a more active role are less common. Only 5% of people in the countries shown reported having attended a protest

Figure 4.3. **People engaged in manifest forms of political activity over the last 12 months**

European countries, percentages, 2012



Note: Data are ranked in ascending order of the percentage of population signing a petition. The OECD average is the simple average based on data available for 24 countries, and excludes Australia, Canada, Chile, Israel, Japan, Korea, Mexico, New Zealand, Norway, Switzerland and the United States.

Source: OECD calculations based on wave 3 of the European Quality of Life Survey (EQLS), *www.eurofound.europa.eu/surveys/european-quality-of-life-surveys*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933596933

or demonstration, with higher shares (above 10%) in Greece, Spain, Iceland and France, and much lower ones (less than 2%) in Hungary, Slovenia and Finland. Less than 8% of respondents reported having contacted a politician or public official (other than through routine contact arising from the use of public services), ranging between values above 12% in Sweden, Luxembourg, Iceland and Great Britain to less than 4% in Italy, Turkey, Hungary and Slovenia. Participation in meetings organised by trade unions, political parties or political groups is highest (around 20% or more) in Iceland, Sweden and Denmark, all countries where a high share of the population is affiliated to a trade union.

Evaluations of democracy

Since at least Tocqueville in the 19th century, the notion of democracy has been associated with ideas of equality and widespread enjoyment of a set of rights and duties. In this context, the meaningfulness of competitive elections depends on additional conditions such as association autonomy, the existence of alternative sources of information and freedom of expression (Dahl, 1971; Norris, 2012), as well as on broader notions of distributive justice (Held, 2006). Many of the conditions commonly considered as constitutive of high-quality democracies have a long historical tradition and were included in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.[25]

While there is broad consensus that democracy encompasses a set of diverse elements, less agreement exists on what those elements are (Geissel, Kneuer and Lauth, 2016). In this context, the measurement of democracy has provided fertile ground for expert-based assessments (Box 4.1). For example, two democracy indexes (i.e. Polity2 and the Democracy Index by Vanhamen) were used in *How Was Life?* (Van Zanden et al., 2014) to assess the pace of the democratisation process in different regions of the world. Both measures, despite relying on different theoretical understandings of democracy, show that the world became more democratic during the 19th and 20th centuries, although at a different pace and timing across countries and global regions.

Research on the measurement of democracy is framed by several controversies, summarised by a recent special issue of the *International Political Science Review* (Geissel, Kneur and Lauth, 2016): first, the number of dimensions covered by democracy (with a minimalist, or *thin,* approach versus a broad, or *thick,* one) and their inter-relations; second, whether measures of the quality of democracy should include an "output" dimension (some approaches argue that the quality of democracy should be judged in terms not only of rules and procedures but also of the outputs produced); third, whether and how to take into consideration the digital media dimension, a factor that is increasingly recognised as shaping democratic processes; finally, the conceptualisation and measurement of some aspects of democracy, such as state effectiveness and the rule of law, have proven particularly contested, with some authors treating them as preconditions for democracy and others as a defining property.

Measures of democracy produced through household surveys in Europe have been limited mainly to questions on people's overall satisfaction with democracy. A special rotating module on "Europeans' Understandings and Evaluations of Democracy" was, however, included in the 6th wave of the European Social Survey (ESS). This module provides comparative evidence on people's perceptions about the importance of each component of democracy in their country, and on their own assessment of the performance of their country in these components.[26] This survey relies on a classification of democracy proposed by Ferrín and Kriesi (2016), which distinguished between three theoretical types, i.e. liberal, social and direct democracy (Box 4.2).

Box 4.1. **Composite measures of political regimes**

Measures of democracy based on expert assessment have a long tradition and have informed the public debate. These measures have been used to pursue two goals (Lauth, 2004): first, to determine whether or not a country is a democracy; and second, to determine the degree of actual democracy. Some of the main composite measures of political regimes include the following:

- **Freedom House** Civil Liberties and Political Rights Indices are numerical ratings (supported by descriptive texts) for 195 countries and 15 territories. The indicators, which have been produced since 1972, rely on assessments by analysts who perform on-the-ground research, consult local professionals, and collect and analyse information from news articles, NGOs, governments and other sources.
- **Polity IV** is the fourth phase of a project led by Colorado State University that classifies political systems between the two extremes of autocracy and democracy. It covers 167 independent states over the period 1800-2015, with data generated through expert coding based on a subjective interpretation of historical monographs and other source materials. The Polity scheme consists of six components that record key qualities of executive recruitment, constraints on executive authority, and political competition. The most widely used of the indices is the Polity score, which combines the scores on the democracy and autocracy indices into a single regime indicator.
- The **Varieties of Democracy** (V-Dem) project, led by the Kellog Institute (University of Indiana) and the University of Gothenburg (Sweden), has developed a comprehensive dataset of democracy and political system indicators in various countries. At its most aggregate level, based on the categories proposed by Coppedge et al. (2011), V-Dem produces seven composite indices measuring what theory considers the most important types of democracy: 1) electoral; 2) liberal; 3) majoritarian; 4) consensual; 5) participatory; 6) deliberative; and 7) egalitarian. The project relies on country experts who answer a detailed questionnaire and code several variables, thereby providing subjective ratings of latent characteristics of democracy.
- The **Democracy Barometer** is a joint project of the University of Zurich and the Social Science Research Centre, Berlin. The index, which assesses the quality of democracy in 30 established democracies, builds on the premise that a democratic system should establish a good balance between the normative values of freedom and equality, and that this requires control. Guaranteeing these democratic functions requires complying with nine democratic principles: 1) existence of individual liberties (i.e. right to physical integrity and right to free conduct of life); 2) the rule of law (i.e. equality before the law and quality of the legal system); 3) existence of a public sphere (i.e. freedom to associate and freedom of opinion); 4) electoral competition (i.e. vulnerability or uncertainty of the electoral outcome and contestability or stipulations that electoral competitors have to meet); 5) mutual constraints (i.e. checks and balances between executive and legislative; judicial reviews and degree of federalism and/or subnational fiscal autonomy); 6) governmental capability (i.e. government resources and conditions for efficient implementation); 7) transparency (i.e. no secrecy of political representatives and provisions for transparent political process); 8) political participation and 9) representation (i.e. substantive representation or congruence between the represented and their representatives and descriptive representation or representation of minorities). The index is based on 105 indicators from existing datasets (i.e. expert data and household surveys) produced or calculated by the project team on the basis of various types of documents and information.

Box 4.2. **Measures of democratic quality in the European Social Survey**

The ESS rotating module on people's understandings and evaluations of democracy entailed selecting a wide number of aspects that are associated with democracy. Following the typology proposed by Ferrín and Kriesi (2016) and developed by Gómez and Palacios (2016), those elements are clustered under three broad categories, each of which corresponds to a specific set of questions included in the survey. For each of these elements, two questions were asked: one about the importance of each component for a well-functioning democracy, and a second question to assess how well these elements are working in each country.

The three categories of democracy studied by the ESS correspond to different features theoretically associated with the concept of democracy. The **liberal** variant of democracy includes an electoral component (the characteristics of the electoral process, including elements of responsiveness, vertical accountability and inclusiveness) and a liberal component (the existence of civil liberties and of a functioning public sphere). The **social justice** variant of democracy attributes to the state responsibility for ensuring not only equality before the law but also the material means required for the full enjoyment of the rights granted, hence adding a notion of distributive justice to broad social and economic rights. Finally, **direct democracy** refers to mechanisms of direct participation in decision making that depart from the model of representative democracy.

The three types of democracy are assessed through different survey questions. **Liberal democracy** is measured through questions on whether: 1) opposition parties are free to criticise the government; 2) elections are free and fair; 3) voters can discuss politics freely; 4) the government takes into account the views of other (European) countries; 5) political parties provide a differentiated offer; 6) governing parties are punished when they perform poorly; 7) governments explain their decisions to voters; 8) the media are free to criticise the government; 9) rights of minority groups are protected; 10) the media provide reliable information to judge the government; and 11) the courts treat everyone fairly. **Social justice** is measured through questions on whether the government: 1) protects all citizens against poverty; and 2) takes measures to reduce income inequalities. Finally, **direct democracy** is assessed through questions on whether citizens have the final say on the most important political issues by voting on them in referenda.

People's satisfaction with how the democratic institutions of their country in Europe perform with respect to these aspects is presented in Table 4.3 for different socio-economic groups.[27] The group shown in bold is the one taken as reference for comparisons. On a scale from 0 to 10 (where 0 corresponds to the lowest evaluation and 10 to the highest), different elements of democracy are, on average, evaluated differently by people in European countries, based on the questions: "please tell me to what extent each of the following statements apply: elections are free and fair/the media are free to criticise the government/the government takes measures to reduce income differences/citizens have the final say on the most important issues by voting on them directly in referendums". On average, across the 23 countries considered, the highest level of satisfaction (at 7.6) relates to the conduct of free and fair elections, followed by the reliability of information provided by the media about the government (6.1); both of these elements are ingredients of a liberal conception of democracy. Conversely, respondents report the lowest satisfaction with the extent to which democracy in their country meets social justice goals, i.e. whether governments take actions to reduce inequalities (4.2), followed by the use of direct

participation in decision making (5.1).[28]

The level of satisfaction with democracy also differs significantly according to the demographic characteristics and socio-economic status of the respondents. With the exception of direct participation mechanisms, men are more satisfied than women with the functioning of democracy, with average differences that are statistically significant. Richer people are, on average, more satisfied with the freedom and fairness of elections, the reliability of information provided by the media to judge the government, and the actions taken by governments to reduce inequalities when compared to people in the lowest income group. Younger people (18 to 25) are more satisfied with governmental actions to reduce income inequalities compared to the older cohort (55-64). Unemployed people consistently report lower satisfaction than the employed with all elements of democracy, with the exception of satisfaction with governmental actions to reduce income differences, although the difference is not statistically significant.

Table 4.3. **Europeans' satisfaction with elements of democracy, by demographic and socio-economic characteristics, 2012**

Scale (0-10)	Elections are free and fair		Media are reliable		Income differences are reduced		Possibilities for direct participation	
	Mean	(SE)	Mean	(SE)	Mean	(SE)	Mean	(SE)
OECD 22 (Europe only)	7.6	(0.01)	6.1	(0.01)	4.2	(0.01)	5.1	(0.02)
Gender								
Men	**7.8**	**(0.02)**	**6.2**	**(0.02)**	**4.4**	**(0.02)**	**5.1**	**(0.02)**
Women	7.4**	(0.02)	6.0**	(0.02)	4.1**	(0.02)	5.1	(0.02)
Age								
55-64	**7.7**	**(0.03)**	**6.1**	**(0.03)**	**4.1**	**(0.04)**	**5.2**	**(0.04)**
18-24	7.5**	(0.04)	6.0**	(0.04)	4.6**	(0.04)	5.2	(0.05)
25-34	7.4**	(0.04)	5.9**	(0.03)	4.2	(0.04)	4.9**	(0.04)
35-54	7.6**	(0.02)	6.1	(0.02)	4.1	(0.02)	5.0**	(0.03)
Education level								
Tertiary	**8.1**	**(0.02)**	**6.1**	**(0.02)**	**4.5**	**(0.03)**	**4.9**	**(0.03)**
Secondary	7.4**	(0.02)	6.1*	(0.02)	4.1**	(0.02)	5.2**	(0.02)
Less than secondary	7.3**	(0.02)	6.1	(0.02)	4.2**	(0.03)	5.3**	(0.03)
Employment status								
Employed	**7.7**	**(0.02)**	**6.1**	**(0.02)**	**4.2**	**(0.02)**	**5.0**	**(0.02)**
Unemployed	6.8**	(0.06)	5.9**	(0.05)	3.7	(0.06)	4.8**	(0.06)
Retiree	7.6**	(0.03)	6.2**	(0.03)	4.2	(0.03)	5.2**	(0.03)
Students	7.7	(0.04)	6.1	(0.04)	4.8	(0.04)	5.4**	(0.05)
Others	7.5**	(0.04)	6.2**	(0.04)	4.2	(0.04)	5.3**	(0.05)
Income								
Top quintile	**8.1**	**(0.03)**	**6.2**	**(0.03)**	**4.5**	**(0.04)**	**5.0**	**(0.02)**
Bottom quintile	7.2**	(0.03)	6.1**	(0.03)	4.1**	(0.04)	4.8**	(0.06)
Second quintile	7.4**	(0.03)	6.2	(0.03)	4.2**	(0.03)	5.2**	(0.03)
Third quintile	7.7**	(0.03)	6.2	(0.03)	4.4**	(0.03)	5.4**	(0.05)
Fourth quintile	8.0**	(0.03)	6.3	(0.03)	4.4**	(0.03)	5.3**	(0.05)

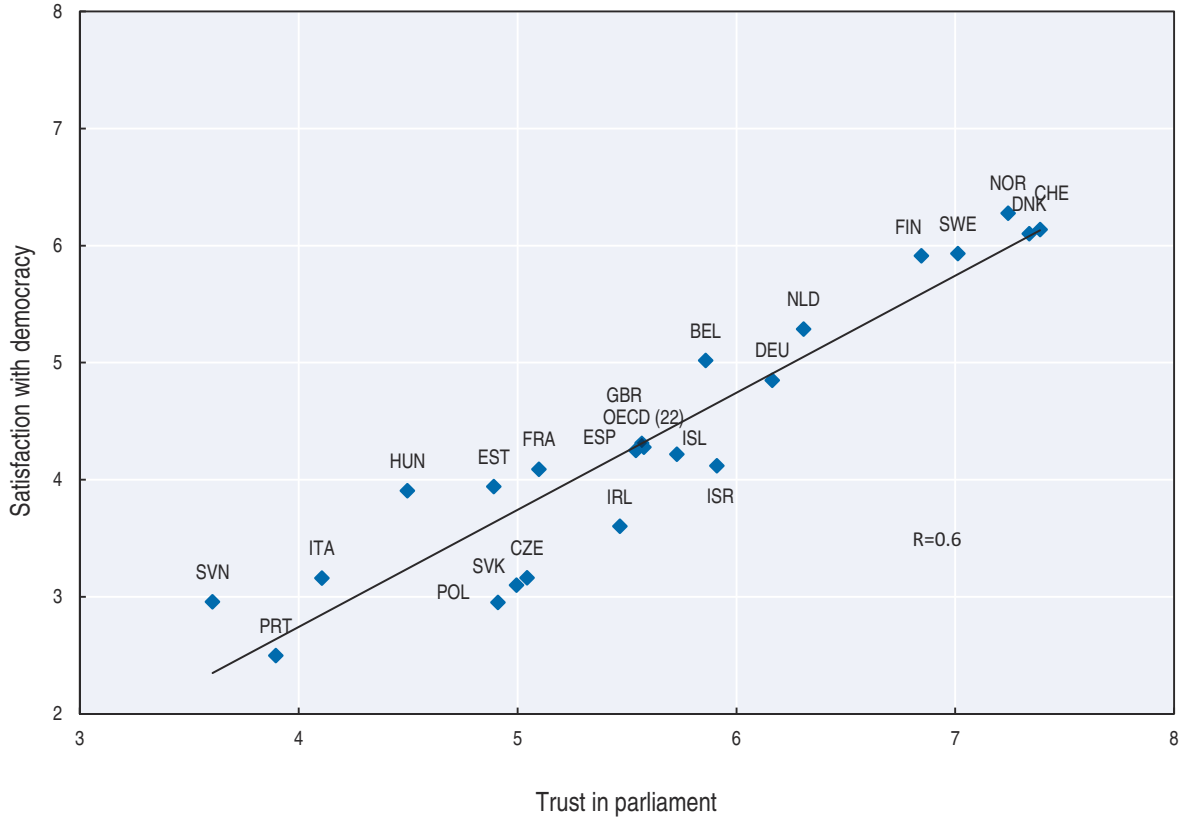
Note: Categories shown in bold are taken as the reference group for comparisons; * means that differences are statistically significant at the 90% significance level; ** means that differences are statistically significant at the 95% level. The OECD average is the simple average, based on data available for 22 European OECD countries shown in Figure 4.4.

Source: OECD calculations based on wave 6 of the European Social Survey (ESS), special rotating module on citizens' valuations of different elements of democracy, *www.europeansocialsurvey.org/download.html?file=ESS6e02_3&y=2012*.

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Across European countries, a positive relation exists between satisfaction with democracy and trust in the parliament (Figure 4.4). While there is insufficient evidence to establish the causality of the relationship between these variables, this positive relation is important: according to Ferrín (2016), the question "as a whole, how satisfied are you with the way democracy works in your country?" provides a reliable measure of respondents' assessments of how well the liberal elements of democracy work. In turn, the parliament is the cornerstone institution of any democratic system, and therefore holding a belief that it will act consistently with expectations of positive behaviour is crucial for maintaining the legitimacy and sustainability of political systems.

Figure 4.4. **Europeans' satisfaction with democracy and trust in parliament, 2012**



Note: The Pearson correlation coefficient is a test for the strength of a relationship between two variables or datasets. Under this method, the data are assumed to be normally distributed and the expected relationship between variables is assumed to be linear. If the correlation between the two items is high, this suggests a strong relation between both variables. In the case of the figure above the Pearson correlation coefficient is 0.6 which is significant at the 0.01 level. Based on data availability, 22 European countries are considered in the sample. The OECD average is the simple average, based on the 22 countries shown.

Source: OECD calculations based on wave 6 of the European Social Survey (ESS), special rotating module on citizens' valuations of different elements of democracy, *www.europeansocialsurvey.org/download.html?file=ESS6e02_3&y=2012*.

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Nevertheless, in Europe, the parliament is reported as one of the less trusted institutions when compared to the legal system, the police and other institutions.[29] This pattern is also evident beyond Europe in several household surveys that collect trust data (e.g. Gallup World Poll). Participants in the ESS, when asked the question "on a score of 0 to 10 how much do you personally trust your country's parliament?" provide an average valuation of 4.3 (the lowest across all institutions covered).

Composition of national legislatures

Several authors have recently argued that higher income inequalities might impact upon a broader range of social outcomes through the political inequalities that they generate (Deaton, 2013; Stiglitz, 2015). One potential transmission mechanism for this influence is the unequal representation of the voting age population among members of national legislatures.

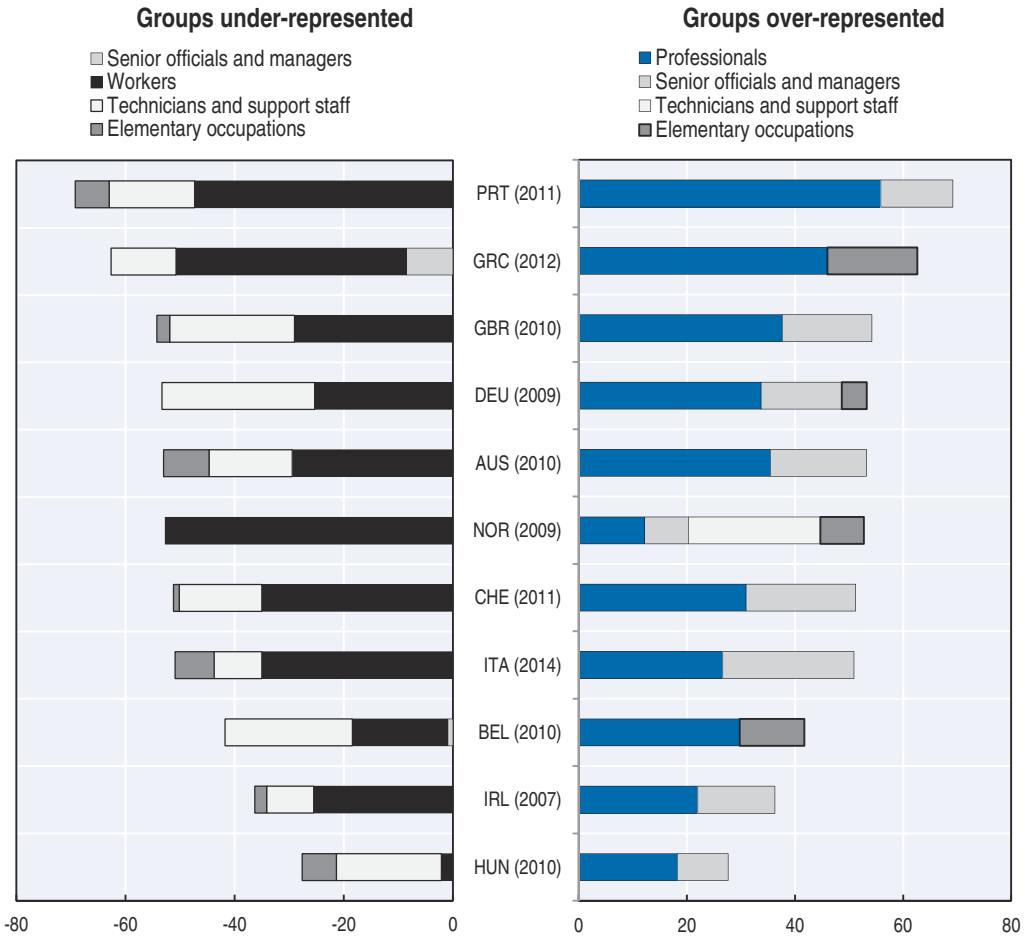
Much attention has been paid recently to the representation of women[30] (and minorities) in national parliaments, partly based on research showing that differences in women's representation in policy decisions often lead to differences in policy outcomes.[31] However, research has also documented the existence of systemic differences between voters and elected legislators in terms of their socio-economic characteristics. It has also been argued that occupations are stronger drivers of political attitudes than other possible socio-economic markers such as education (Barnes, 2013), and that imbalances in the make-up of legislators (to the advantage of white-collar workers and professionals, and to the disadvantage of blue-collar workers) are common across countries with different political systems.[32]

Figure 4.5 shows the over- or under-representation of different occupational categories between members of parliament elected candidates to parliament and the general population. Data are drawn from the Comparative Candidate Survey (CCS), a research project that gathers data on the demographic characteristics of candidates running for parliamentary elections. In all countries with available information, professionals are over-represented among elected candidates to national parliaments when compared to the occupation profile of the general population. For example, in Portugal the difference between the share of professionals who are members of parliament and the share of professionals in the general population is 56 percentage points. Senior officials and managers are also largely over-represented among members of parliament in Italy (24 points), Switzerland (20 points), the United Kingdom (17 points), Germany (15 points) and Ireland (14 points). Conversely, in all countries shown in Figure 4.5, manual workers are largely under-represented among candidates to parliament, with the size of this under-representation reaching 53 percentage points in the case of Norway. Technicians and elementary occupations are also always under-represented in countries with available information (with the sole exception of Norway). There is also evidence for the United States and Latin American countries that this imbalance in the occupational make-up of national parliaments has worsened over time (Carnes and Lupu, 2015).

While the existence of large socio-economic imbalances in the composition of national legislatures is well established, research has been less consistent in its conclusions about how this imbalance impacts on the decisions taken by parliaments. Early research suggested that policy makers behave in similar ways when in office, irrespective of their class (Putnam, 1976). However, more recent research has highlighted systematic differences in behaviours among decision makers with different socio-economic backgrounds. These include differences in roll-call voting on economic legislation and higher sensitivity to the preferences of people with high income than to those of poor or middle-class people among members of the US House of Representatives (Gilens, 2005; Carnes, 2012),[33] and pre-voting activity (e.g. bill sponsorship) among members of the Argentinian parliament (Carnes and Lupu, 2015). It has also been argued that these imbalances have contributed to the perception of political elites as disconnected from reality and concerned mainly with their own interests (France Stratégie, 2016).

Figure 4.5. **Differences in occupational background between members of parliament and the general population**

Percentage points



Note: The data refer only to candidates who have been elected, with the exceptions of Ireland, Italy, Norway and Australia where data refer to all candidates. Occupations are based on the ISCO 08 classification. "Workers" include services workers, shop and market sales workers (ISCO 5), skilled agricultural and fishery workers (ISCO 6), craft related trade workers (ISCO 7) and plant and machine operators and assemblers (ISCO 8). "Technicians and support staff" include technicians (ISCO 3) and associate professionals and clerks (ISCO 4). "Senior officials and managers" include chief executives, senior officials and legislators; administrative and commercial managers; production and specialised service managers; hospitality retail and other services managers (ISCO 1). "Professionals" include science and engineering professionals; health professionals; teaching professionals; business and administration professionals; information and communications technology professionals; legal social and cultural professionals (ISCO 2). "Elementary occupations" include cleaners and helpers; agricultural, forestry and fishery labourers; labourers in mining, construction, manufacturing and transport; food preparation assistants; street and related sales and services workers; refuse workers and other elementary workers (ISCO 9).

Source: OECD calculations based on the Comparative Candidate Survey (CCS), *http://forscenter.ch/fr/service-de-donnees-et-d-information-sur-la-recherche/service-donnees/projets-speciaux-ccs-pow-pisa-tree-vox-voxit/comparative-candidate-survey-ccs/*.

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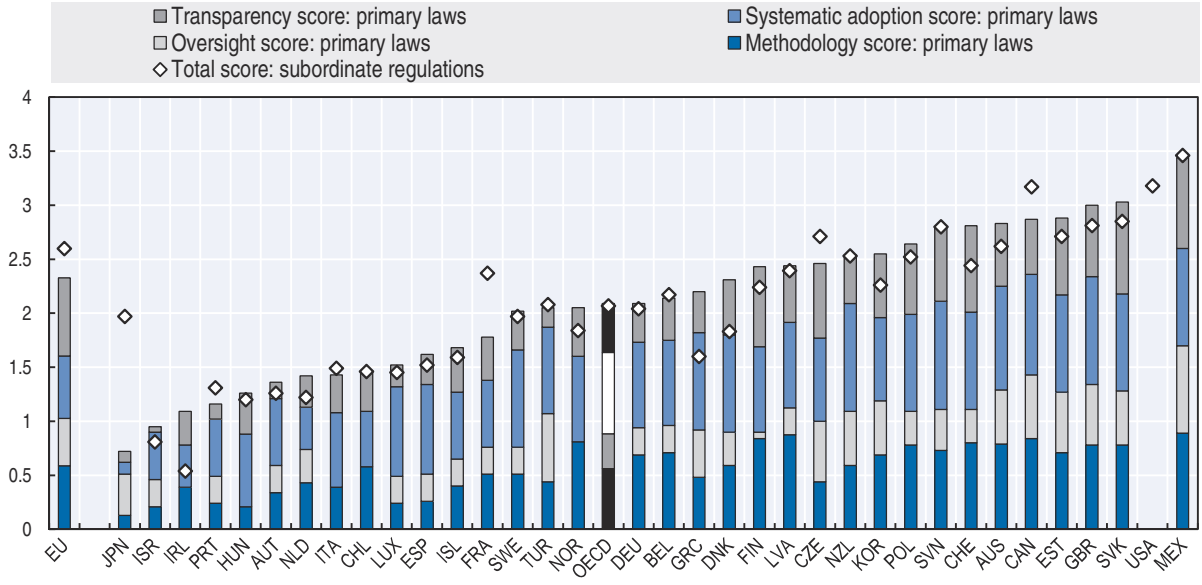
Processes

Stakeholder engagement in developing primary laws

The government plays a key role in providing the conditions for citizens' participation in political activities, for example, by giving citizens a greater role in policy decisions that affect their lives, through consultations, collaboration and joint deliberation, as well as by taking steps to integrate the perspectives of those most affected by particular policies (OECD, 2015c). Stakeholder engagement is also an important channel for implementing forms of participatory democracy (OECD, 2015c).

While data on people's involvement in the process of developing regulations are not typically included in household surveys, these types of data have been generated through expert assessments. The OECD has developed a composite indicator concerning the engagement of different stakeholders in the process of developing primary laws[34] based on data provided by government officials.[35] This composite index evaluates countries based on four elements of stakeholder engagement: 1) oversight and quality control, i.e. whether mechanisms are in place to monitor the quality of stakeholder engagement practices; 2) transparency, which evaluates whether the process for engagement is extended to the largest possible number of stakeholders; 3) systematic adoption, i.e. the formal requirements for stakeholder engagement and the extent to which stakeholders are engaged at different stages of the regulation-making process; and 4) methodology, i.e. the existence of guidance documents, methods and tools used for each stakeholder engagement. Figure 4.6 shows the values of the OECD stakeholder engagement composite index, broken down in its four categories on a scale from 0 (the lowest possible value for each category) to 1 (the highest possible value for each category), and with a value of 4 being the maximum of the overall composite index.

Figure 4.6. **OECD composite indicator of stakeholder engagement in developing regulations, 2014**



Note: The measure applies exclusively to processes for developing primary laws initiated by the executive. The vertical axis represents the total aggregate score across the four separate categories of the composite indicators. The maximum score for each category is 1, and the maximum aggregate score for the composite indicator is 4. This figure excludes primary laws for the United States, where all primary laws are initiated by the United States Congress. In the majority of countries, most primary laws are initiated by the executive, except for Mexico and Korea, where a higher share of primary laws are initiated by parliament (respectively 91% and 84%). The OECD average is the simple average, and excludes the United States except for the total score for subordinate regulations (where data for the United States are included).
Source: OECD (2014) Regulatory Indicators Survey results, *www.oecd.org/gov/regulatory-policy/measuring-regulatory-performance.htm*.
StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933596990

Breaking down the index sheds light on the diversity of practices on stakeholder engagement prevailing among OECD countries. When looking across components, the "systematic adoption" component of the composite index has the highest average score (0.74), suggesting that consultations are a widespread practice across OECD countries (with the exceptions of Austria, Chile, Iceland and Ireland, where stakeholder engagement

practices are informal and consultation is required only in specific areas of regulation). In turn, the "oversight and quality control" component of the composite index has the lowest score (0.32), as few countries have an independent dedicated body that checks the comprehensiveness and quality of consultations or systematically conducts evaluations of governments' stakeholder engagement processes (e.g. Mexico, Slovenia).

Corruption in public institutions

Corruption is generally understood as the abuse of entrusted power for private gain (Transparency International, 2015). This definition is, however, very broad, and corruption manifests itself in many differ forms, ranging from "petty" corruption (e.g. paying bribes to access public services or to induce public officials to overlook a minor offence such as a violation of a speed limit) to corruption occurring at a larger scale, as in the case of using political influence to win a public procurement contest or to enact a law that allows particular parties to benefit at the expense of the public good. Byrne (2012) distinguishes between four types of corruption: 1) systemic (i.e. corruption as an integrated and essential aspect of the economic, social and political system); 2) sporadic (i.e. corruption that occurs irregularly); 3) petty (i.e. small-scale corruption that takes place at the implementation end of politics, such as service delivery); and 4) grand or political (i.e. corruption that takes place at the high levels of the political system).

According to Rothstein and Tannenberg (2014), corruption is the opposite of good governance, and it affects well-being in several ways. These range from the diversion of financial resources (e.g. personal income is foregone when bribes are paid, notably in the case of petty, sporadic or systemic corruption; public resources are not spent on providing public goods and services to citizens but appropriated by public officials, thereby impeding citizens from enjoying these goods and services at all or necessitating a higher cost), to the erosion of a country's social capital and of people's trust in institutions (OECD, 2013a). While in the short run corruption may "grease the wheels of the government", in the long run it undermines economic growth and intensifies environmental, social and health problems (World Bank, 2017; Holmberg, Rothstein and Nasiritousi, 2009; Djankov et al., 2009; Gupta, Davoodi and Alonso-Terme, 2002; Mauro, 1995).

Measuring corruption requires addressing several challenges. First, answers to survey questions on corruption may be affected by a social desirability bias, i.e. respondents may feel more comfortable giving socially acceptable answers. Such bias could take different forms; if respondents feel ashamed or are afraid, they could have a tendency to hide corrupt behaviour; conversely, if respondents want to raise awareness about a specific corrupt behaviour, this may lead them to over-reporting. Second, the perception and interpretation of corruption may vary across cultures, with different societies having varying degrees of tolerance for corrupt behaviour.

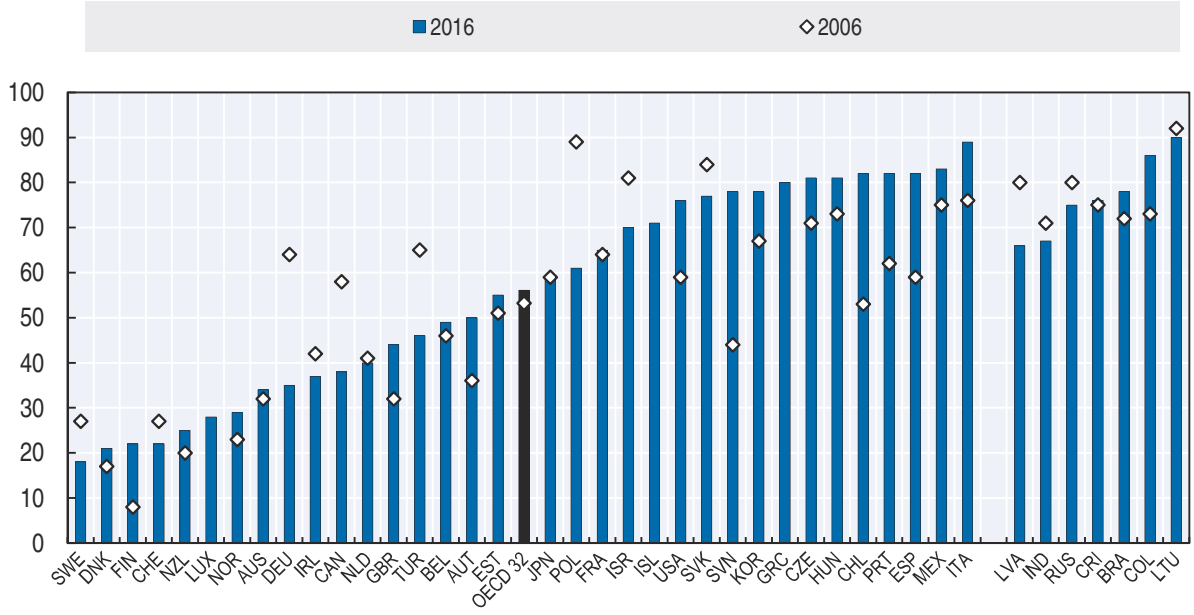
The measurement of corruption through household surveys[36] has relied on two types of questions: questions about *perceptions* of corruption; and questions about *experiences* of corruption. According to Erlingsson and Kristinsson (2016), perceptions of corruption may be framed by several factors such as information availability (e.g. a widely diffused scandal) or ideological considerations (e.g. general aversion to the government in office) reflecting, to a large extent, grand and political corruption. In turn, questions about experiences of corruption relate essentially to petty or sporadic corruption.

Comparable questions on corruption are included in four non-official household surveys[37] covering OECD countries, i.e. the World Values Survey (WVS), Eurobarometer, the Gallup World Poll (GWP), and the European Quality of Governance survey (EQoG).[38] In addition, corruption has also been measured through expert assessments, with the most notable example being Transparency International Corruption Perception Index (CPI), a measure that combines a wide variety of sources and is available for 168 countries.[39]

Figure 4.7 shows measures of the prevalence of people's perceptions of corruption in 2006 and 2016, sourced from the Gallup World Poll. In 2016, 56% of respondents in OECD countries considered corruption to be widespread in their government, ranging from 18% in Sweden to 89% in Italy. Since 2006, the OECD average perception of government corruption increased by 3 percentage points, with larger increases in Chile (29 points), Spain (23) and Portugal (20) and large falls in Germany (down by 29 points), Poland (28) and Canada (20). However, questions such as those asked in the Gallup World Poll ("How widespread is corruption across your government?") do not differentiate between different types of corrupt behaviour, nor do they shed light about the possible causes, so they are therefore of limited use for the design of anticorruption strategies (González and Boehm, 2011). It is also unclear whether this indicator captures the actual presence of corruption or simply people's perceptions of it, which could be influenced by other factors such as political preferences or cultural factors.

Figure 4.7. **Share of people considering corruption to be widespread across government**

Percentages, 2006 and 2016



Note: The OECD average is the simple average based on the 32 countries with data for both time periods, and excludes Greece, Iceland and Luxembourg.

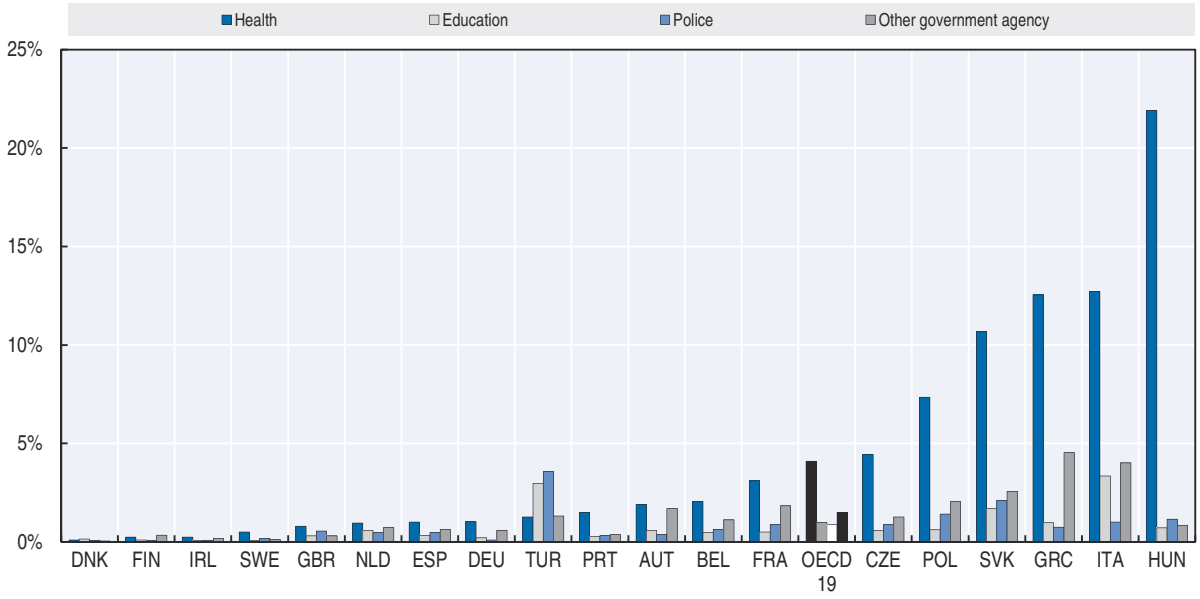
Source: OECD calculations based on Gallup World Poll, *www.gallup.com/services/170945/world-poll.aspx*.

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Questions on experiences of corruption commonly ask whether the respondent or other household members recently paid bribes to public officials. For example, the European Quality of Governance Survey (QoG) asks the following question: "In the past 12 months have you or anyone living in your household paid a bribe in any form…?" about four types of public

services (health care, education, police and services provided by other government agencies). Based on this source, Figure 4.8 shows that the share of people in European countries who reported that they or someone in their household paid bribes over the last year is relatively low (much lower than in the case of perceptions of corruption). Prevalence of experienced corruption is higher in the health sector where, on average, 4% of European respondents reported paying a bribe, ranging from above 20% in Hungary to as low as 0.1% in Denmark.

Figure 4.8. **Percentage of people who reported having paid a bribe in European countries, by sector, 2013**



Note: The OECD average is the simple average, based on data available for the 19 countries shown.
Source: OECD calculations based on the EU Quality of Government Index (QoG) survey, *http://qog.pol.gu.se/data/datadownloads/qog-eqi-data*.
StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933597028*

The stark contrast between measures of the prevalence of corruption from the two surveys indicates that they are capturing either different phenomena or limited parts of a broader phenomenon. The EU Quality of Government Survey captures mainly sporadic or petty corruption but misses aspects of political or grand corruption. Still, the spectrum of what counts as corruption remains fairly large. Most commonly, corruption is associated with bribes, extortion and embezzlement (i.e. misappropriation or other diversion of property by a public official). But some corrupt behaviour, such as favouritism in public appointments or failure to disclose information, is subtler, and therefore harder to characterise and measure.[40]

Outcomes

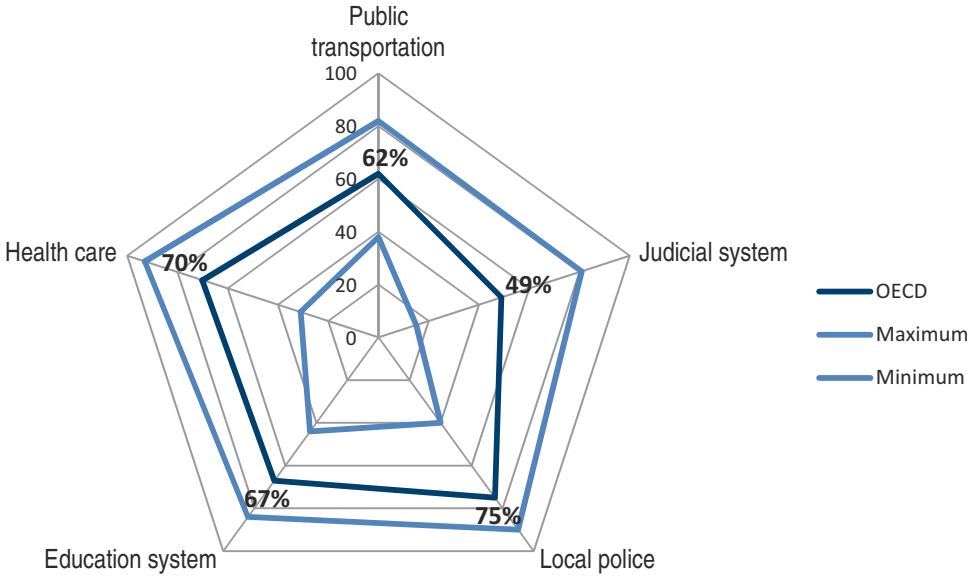
Satisfaction with public services

Access to good-quality public services, such as education, health care, transportation and justice, is essential to people's lives (OECD, 2015d). Overcoming challenges to accessing public services may require, among other things, improving the affordability, geographic proximity and accessibility of information across social groups and places. Additionally, improving the quality of public services can lead to more satisfied users, which in turn can increase trust in government, a transmission mechanism referred to in the literature as the

"micro-performance hypothesis" (Van de Walle and Bouckaert, 2003; Yang and Holzer, 2006). Indicators of people's reported satisfaction with public services provide an overall assessment of those services rather than of their specific features (this is detailed in the OECD "serving citizens" framework), the assessment of which requires a more granular approach (OECD, 2017c).[41]

Data collected by the Gallup World Poll provide some comparative information on respondents' overall satisfaction with service provision in their local area for health care, education and public transportation, as well as their trust (rather than satisfaction) in the justice system and the police.[42] Figure 4.9 shows the average, maximum and minimum values recorded across all OECD countries for these five types of public services. On average, more than two-thirds of the respondents report being satisfied with these, with significantly lower levels for the judicial system (49%). Cross-country differences in reported levels of satisfaction with these services are, however, large, with satisfaction in the best-performing country being between 2 and 4 times higher than in the worst-performing one.

Figure 4.9. **Percentage of the population satisfied with key public services, 2016**



Note: Data for the judicial system refer to the share of people answering "yes" to the question: "In this country, do you have confidence in each of the following, or not? How about the judicial system and courts?" Data for the Local police refer to the share of respondents answering "yes" to the question: "In the city or area where you live, do you have confidence in the local police force, or not?" Data for the education system refer to the percentage of "satisfied" respondents based on the question: "In the city or area where you live, are you satisfied or dissatisfied with the educational system or the schools?" Data for health care refer to the percentage of "satisfied" respondents based on the question: "In the city or area where you live, are you satisfied or dissatisfied with the availability of quality health care?" Data for public transportation refer to the percentage of "satisfied" respondents based on the question: "In the city or area where you live, are you satisfied or dissatisfied with the public transportation system?". The OECD average is the simple average based on data for all OECD countries.

Source: OECD calculations based on Gallup World Poll, *www.gallup.com/services/170945/world-poll.aspx*.

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The questions asked by the Gallup World Poll focus on people's overall satisfaction with public services, irrespective of their actual use of those services. The European Quality of Governance Survey addresses satisfaction with services on the basis of people's actual experiences with them.[43] For example, before asking "How would you rate the quality of public education in your area?", it asks "Have you or any of your immediate family been

enrolled or employed in the public school system in your area in the past 12 months?" Table 4.4 compares average satisfaction with public services among those who recently had direct experience in using health care, education or the police, and among those who did not. For both health care and education, people with direct experience of use over the last 12 months report slightly higher satisfaction (6% higher in the case of education, 3% in the case of health care), while on average people with direct experience with the police have slightly less satisfaction, yet the difference is not statistically significant.[44]

Table 4.4. **Satisfaction with public services, by direct experience, average values for EU countries, 2013**

	Education				Health care				Police			
	Direct experience		Not direct experience		Direct experience		Not direct experience		Direct experience		Not direct experience	
	Mean	(SE)	Mean	(SE)	Mean	(SE)	Mean	(SE)	Mean	(SE)	Mean	(SE)
Austria	6.64	(0.04)	6.20	(0.04)**	6.97	(0.04)	6.59	(0.06)**	6.74	(0.06)	6.48	(0.04)**
Belgium	7.42	(0.06)	7.01	(0.05)**	7.73	(0.05)	7.44	(0.07)**	6.71	(0.11)	6.95	(0.05)**
Czech Republic	6.61	(0.05)	5.83	(0.05)**	6.47	(0.04)	5.97	(0.09)**	6.07	(0.08)	5.93	(0.04)
Denmark	6.83	(0.06)	6.38	(0.04)**	7.25	(0.04)	6.92	(0.08)**	6.89	(0.09)	6.76	(0.04)
Finland	7.74	(0.06)	7.50	(0.05)**	7.03	(0.06)	6.77	(0.17)	7.19	(0.10)	7.15	(0.06)
France	6.82	(0.03)	6.28	(0.02)**	6.95	(0.02)	6.82	(0.04)**	5.98	(0.06)	6.30	(0.02)**
Germany	6.52	(0.04)	6.11	(0.03)**	6.59	(0.03)	6.26	(0.04)**	6.72	(0.06)	6.54	(0.03)**
Greece	6.09	(0.10)	5.65	(0.06)**	4.75	(0.08)	4.51	(0.08)**	6.21	(0.12)	5.78	(0.06)**
Hungary	6.42	(0.06)	6.20	(0.09)**	5.94	(0.07)	5.73	(0.12)	5.59	(0.16)	6.41	(0.06)**
Ireland	7.51	(0.12)	7.07	(0.09)**	6.69	(0.10)	5.96	(0.18)**	6.31	(0.21)	6.51	(0.10)
Italy	6.47	(0.04)	6.22	(0.03)**	6.20	(0.03)	5.79	(0.06)**	6.70	(0.06)	6.65	(0.03)
Netherlands	7.13	(0.05)	6.70	(0.04)**	7.49	(0.02)	7.24	(0.05)**	6.56	(0.07)	6.69	(0.03)*
Poland	6.48	(0.04)	6.16	(0.03)**	5.04	(0.03)	4.77	(0.08)**	5.64	(0.06)	5.97	(0.03)**
Portugal	6.68	(0.06)	6.15	(0.05)**	6.07	(0.06)	5.37	(0.11)**	6.03	(0.12)	5.98	(0.05)
Slovak Republic	6.07	(0.07)	5.78	(0.06)**	5.34	(0.06)	5.21	(0.13)	5.47	(0.13)	5.95	(0.06)**
Spain	6.11	(0.05)	6.07	(0.04)	6.36	(0.03)	6.12	(0.09)**	5.77	(0.07)	6.32	(0.04)**
Sweden	6.42	(0.08)	5.93	(0.05)**	6.77	(0.05)	6.27	(0.11)**	6.70	(0.11)	6.38	(0.05)**
Turkey	5.42	(0.08)	5.66	(0.05)**	6.24	(0.05)	5.89	(0.10)**	5.76	(0.10)	6.35	(0.06)**
United Kingdom	7.15	(0.04)	6.61	(0.03)**	7.09	(0.03)	6.79	(0.06)**	6.56	(0.07)	6.57	(0.03)**
OECD 19	**6.58**	**(0.01)**	**6.22**	**(0.01)****	**6.40**	**(0.01)**	**6.21**	**(0.02)****	**6.26**	**(0.02)**	**6.38**	**(0.01)**

Note: ** refers to differences that are statistically significant at the 95% level' * refers to differences that are statistically significant at the 90% level. Differences across group are assessed based on a T test. The OECD average is the simple average for the 19 countries with available data.

Source: OECD calculations based on the EU Quality of Government (QoG) survey *http://qog.pol.gu.se/data/datadownloads/qog-eqi-data*.

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Several initiatives have recently been undertaken to develop comparable measures of users' direct experiences with public services. In the case of heath care, patient experiences are an important outcome in themselves: they empower patients and allow involving them in decisions on health care delivery and governance. They are also important for processes, as patients are the prime producers of their own health, and their positive experiences can lead to better health outcomes. Taking patients' views into account is also particularly important for governments introducing cost-containment measures, so as to safeguard the quality of care.

Over the past decade, several governments have taken steps to "institutionalise" efforts to measure and monitor patient experiences (Fujisawa and Klazinga, 2017), while the OECD regularly reports comparable measures of patient-related experiences (PREMs, such as the

doctor spending enough time with patients in consultation) in its *Health at a Glance* report (OECD 2015b). Patient-related outcomes measures (PROMs) are also being increasingly used by countries; for example, in England PROMS data for patients undergoing certain procedures (e.g. hip and knee replacement) are used for benchmarking hospitals.[45] The same measurement approach could be extended to other types of public services. For example, while the amount of information available on the justice sector is much more limited than for health care, new international initiatives aim to develop comparable measures of people's experience with the justice system and the prevalence of unmet needs in this field (Box 4.3).

Box 4.3. **Measuring people's access to civil justice**

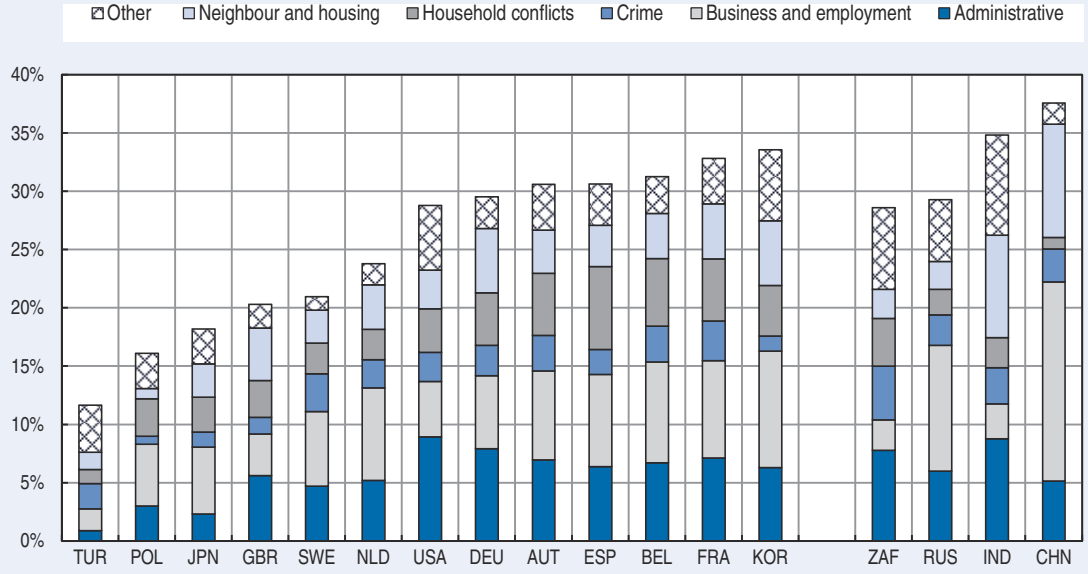
Administering justice according to principles of fairness and impartiality is a key function of public institutions, but this is an area where comparative statistics are weak or non-existent. While administrative data pertaining to various aspects of the justice system exist, most of them focus on the operation of the criminal justice system, and they are mainly limited to European countries. Some household surveys administered by national statistical offices have included questions on justice systems in the past, but the evidence generated from them is not comparable across countries. There is, conversely, a significant tradition of (mostly non-official) "legal needs surveys", which have aimed at measuring: the prevalence of "justiciable issues" (i.e. serious problems between two or more parties, whose solution typically requires the mediation of a third party); whether these problems have been addressed; how they have been solved; and people's experiences with the litigation systems. While over 40 surveys have been conducted over the past 25 years in around 30 countries or territories, these surveys differ in terms of various features, such as the range of problems being assessed, the unit of analysis, the reference period, response scales, question wording, etc. Despite these differences, evidence from these surveys has highlighted several common patterns, such as the high frequency of justiciable problems, the fact that most of these problems are not solved through recourse to the justice system, and that this is especially the case for people living in conditions of poverty or economic disadvantage. As an input to the work of the Praia group, a group of experts co-ordinated by the OECD and the World Justice Project, and including representatives from several NSOs, is currently working to generate guidance for producing comparable data on access to justice (*www.oecd.org/fr/gov/access-to-justice.htm*).

Some comparable information on the prevalence of legal needs is provided by the 2016 World Justice Project. This special survey, which is run in 61 countries based on samples of around 1 000 respondents in the major urban areas of each country, asks questions about the experiences of a range of civil and criminal problems (e.g. domestic violence, consumer protection, work and family issues, housing, personal identification, property, etc.) by any member of the household in the year preceding the interview, how the dispute was settled (e.g. in court or through private settlement), and the experience with the conflict resolution mechanism. Evidence for 13 OECD countries and four emerging economies is provided in Figure 4.10. The share of the population reporting an experience with these types of problems over the preceding year ranged from around 12% in Turkey to 30% or more in Germany, Austria, Spain, Belgium, France and Korea, as well as in India and China. Legal problems are most often related to business and employment issues, followed by administrative issues, while problems relating to criminal offences are rarer.

Box 4.3. **Measuring people's access to civil justice** *(cont.)*

Figure 4.10. **Percentage of the population who experienced disputes, by type**

Selected OECD and non-member countries during the last 12 months, most important type experienced



Source: OECD calculations based on data from the World Justice Project (WJP) Dispute Resolution Survey Module 2016, *https://worldjusticeproject.org/*.

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Political efficacy

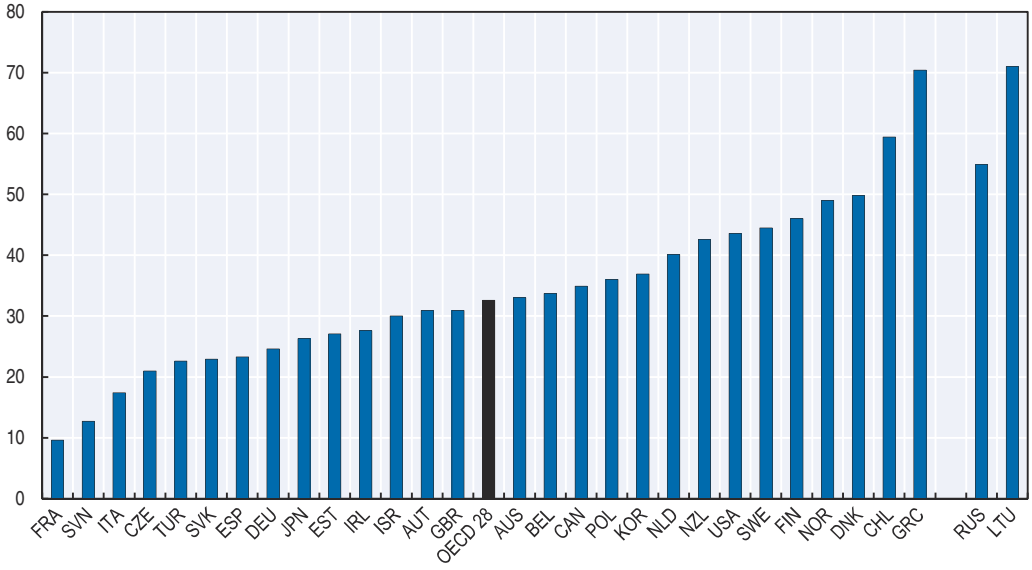
Political efficacy (i.e. the personal feeling of having a say in what government does) refers to people's feeling that their political views can impact on the political processes and, therefore, that it is worthwhile to perform their civic duties (Acock et al., 1985). Discussions on the concept of political efficacy date back to the 1950s, when the concept was discussed jointly with political trust as a key measure of the overall health of the democratic system (Craig et al., 1990). Political efficacy can be built and destroyed by people's experiences and by political institutions that are not responsive to people's needs (i.e. policy-making processes and government decisions that do not respond to public preferences), thereby affecting individual expectations and social outcomes (Miller and Listhaug, 1990). Levels of political efficacy are important, as they shape political participation (Finkel, 1987), people's own life satisfaction (Flavin and Keane, 2011) as well as perceptions of the legitimacy of public institutions (Mcevoy, 2016). Research on political efficacy often distinguishes between internal efficacy (i.e. feelings of having the personal competence to participate in politics (Hoskins and Janmaat, 2016) and external efficacy (i.e. a belief in the responsiveness of public institutions and government officials to citizens' demands, Borgonovi and Pokropek, 2017); only this second concept is assessed here.

The OECD Adult Skills Survey[46] (PIAAC) provides a measure of external political efficacy based on the so-called NOSAY question, which was first used in the first National Election Studies in the United States (Lane, 1959). This question asks respondents "To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements? People like me don't have any say in what the government does", which is answered through a 5-point Likert-type scale (ranging

from 1 for "strongly agree" to 5 for "strongly disagree"). As seen in Figure 4.11, on average one-third of people in OECD countries feel that they have some influence on what government does, with this share ranging between 20% or less in Italy, Slovenia and France to 60% or more in Chile, Greece and Lithuania.

Figure 4.11. **Having a say in what the government does**

Percentage of the working-age population who feel they have a say in what the government does, around 2012



Note: The figure shows the combined share of people who "disagree" or "strongly disagree" with the statement "People like me don't have any say about what the government does". The higher the level the more people think they do have a say. Data refer to 2011-12 for Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, Germany, Ireland, Italy, Japan, Korea, the Netherlands, Poland, the Russian federation, the Slovak Republic, Spain, Sweden, the United Kingdom and the United States; 2012 for France; and 2014-15 for Chile, Greece, Israel, Lithuania, New Zealand, Slovenia and Turkey. Data for Belgium refer to Flanders; data for the United Kingdom refer to England and Northern Ireland; and data for the Russian federation do not include Moscow municipal area. The OECD average is the simple average for the 28 countries with available data, and excludes Hungary, Iceland, Latvia, Luxembourg, Mexico, Portugal and Switzerland.

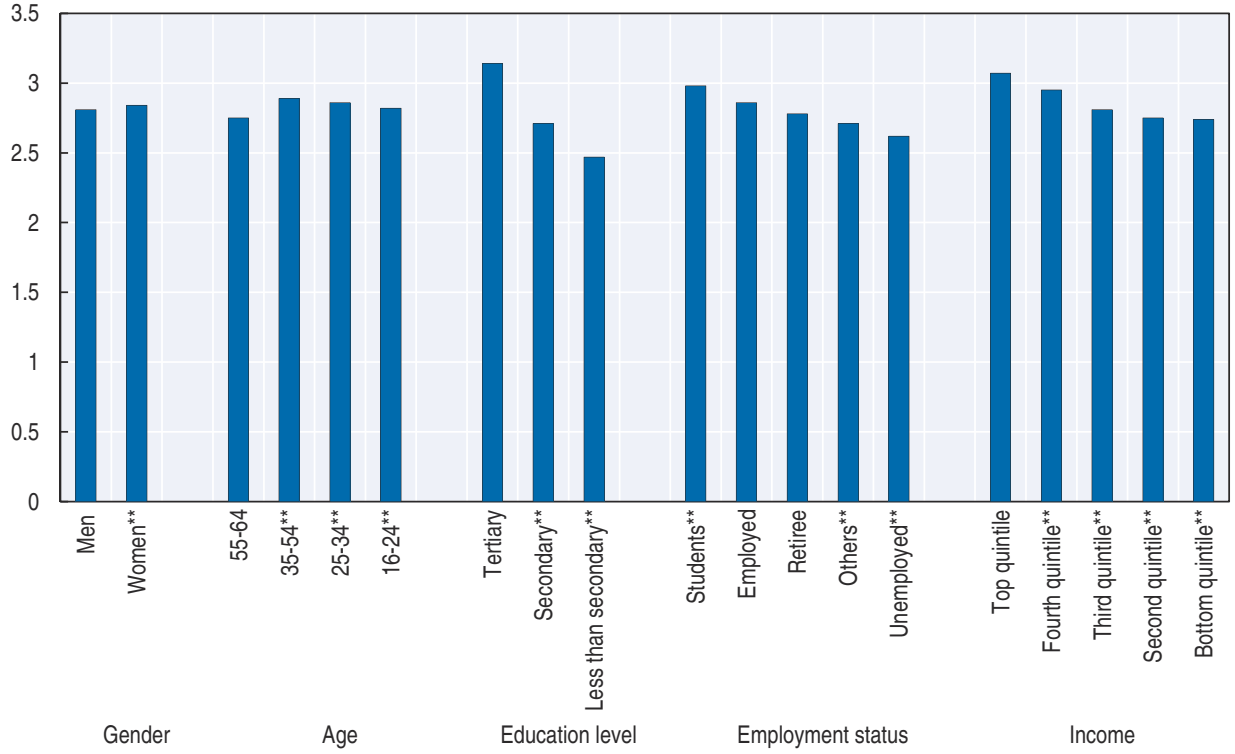
Source: OECD calculations based on data from OECD Survey of Adult Skills (PIAAC database), *www.oecd.org/site/piaac/*.

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933597085*

People's perceived capacity to shape government decisions is affected by their personal characteristics and socio-economic background. Figure 4.12 shows, across the 28 OECD countries covered by PIAAC, the self-reported political efficacy of various groups. Based on the approach used by Borgonovi and Pokropek (2017), measures are transformed into an index ranging from 1 to 5, with a higher score indicating a stronger belief in one's capacity to influence government decisions. This measure of political efficacy increases monotonically with both income (people in the top quintile report average values that are 0.3 point higher than those in the bottom) and education (people with tertiary education report an average level that is 0.7 point higher than that of people with less than secondary education), while it decreases with age. When looking at employment status, students report the highest score, significantly higher than the one reported by employed people, while unemployed and non-retired inactive people report much lower scores. Parental education also influences political efficacy: respondents with at least one parent who has obtained a tertiary degree report a level of political efficacy that is consistently above those who do not, both on average and across countries (with statistically significant differences in most cases, Borgonovi and Pokropek, 2017).

Figure 4.12. **Having a say in government, by personal and socio-economic characteristics**

OECD average mean score on a 1-5 scale (higher scores indicate higher perceived political efficacy levels)



Note: Differences across groups are measured with respect to the following reference groups: men, people aged 55 to 64, people with tertiary education, employed people, and people in the top income quintile. Differences are assessed on the basis of a T test. When the label includes **, the difference between that category and the reference group is statistically significant at the 95% confidence level. The OECD average is the simple average for the 28 countries with available data, and excludes Hungary, Iceland, Latvia, Luxembourg, Mexico, Portugal and Switzerland.

Source: OECD calculations based on data from OECD Survey of Adult Skills (PIAAC database), *www.oecd.org/site/piaac/*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933597104

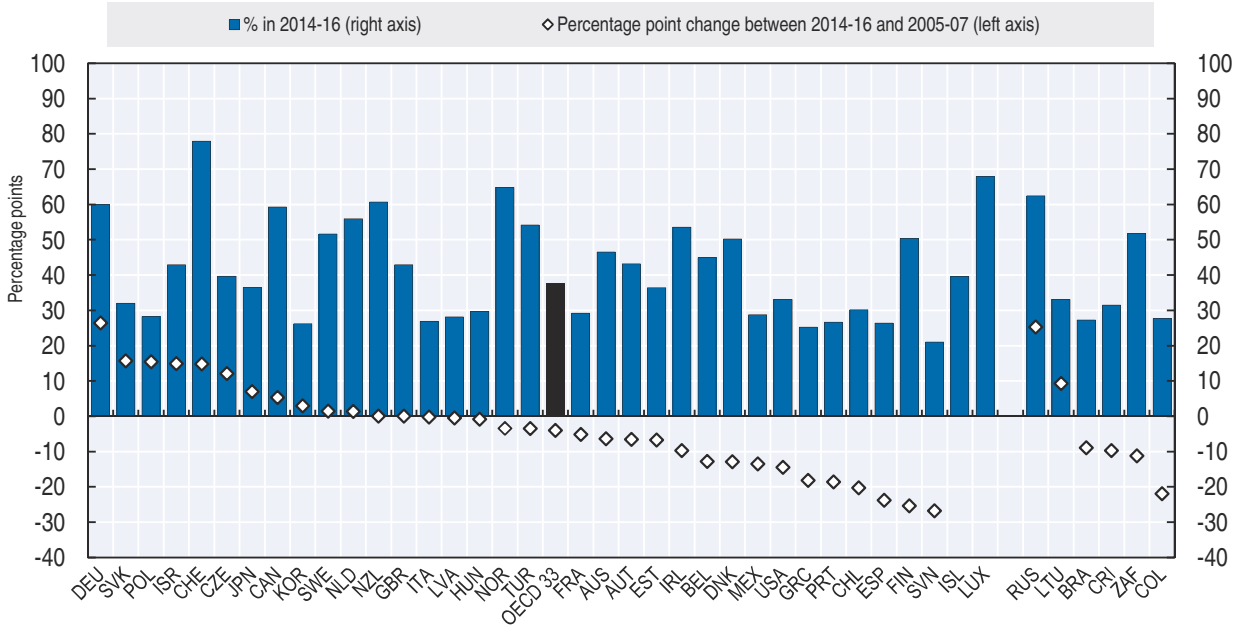
Trust in public institutions

Trust is a person's belief that another person or institution will act consistently with their expectations of positive behaviour (OECD, 2017b). Trust supports many human interactions, from trade to financial markets, welfare systems and education. In all these cases, trust allows people to make decisions without having to renegotiate with and reassure their counterparts upon each interaction. Moreover, trust is one of the foundations upon which the legitimacy and sustainability of political systems are built, and it is crucial to the implementation of a wide range of policies.[47] A key policy concern in recent years has been the decline of people's trust in public institutions in the aftermath of the global financial crisis (OECD, 2013a; OECD, 2017b). Lower trust limits the capacity of governments to implement their policies (OECD, 2013a) and has been linked to increasing dissatisfaction with democracy (Schäfer, 2013). Alongside lower political participation, low trust is both a symptom of a weaker social contract between people and institutions, and a source of anxiety, disengagement and radicalisation (France Stratégie, 2016).

Data on people's trust in various public institutions have been collected by a range of organisations since the 1960s and 1970s,[48] in some cases as part of the official statistics compiled by national statistical offices (e.g. Australia, Canada and New Zealand) and more commonly by research institutes (e.g. the different "barometers" conducted in various

countries) or private providers (e.g. the Pew Centre for People and the Press in the United States). More recently, a wider range of non-official sources have provided comparative data on trust,[49] including the Gallup World Poll (GWP), the European Social Survey (ESS) and the European Quality of Life Survey (EQLS). In 2013, the EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU SILC) provided the first official estimates for European countries. While this chapter presents only data from the GWP (see Figure 4.13) and the ESS (see Figure 4.4), the OECD has created a dataset that systematically maps all existing sources of data on trust and compiles them into a single repository of information (OECD, 2017b).[50]

Figure 4.13. **Average confidence in national government in 2014-16, and the change since 2005-07**

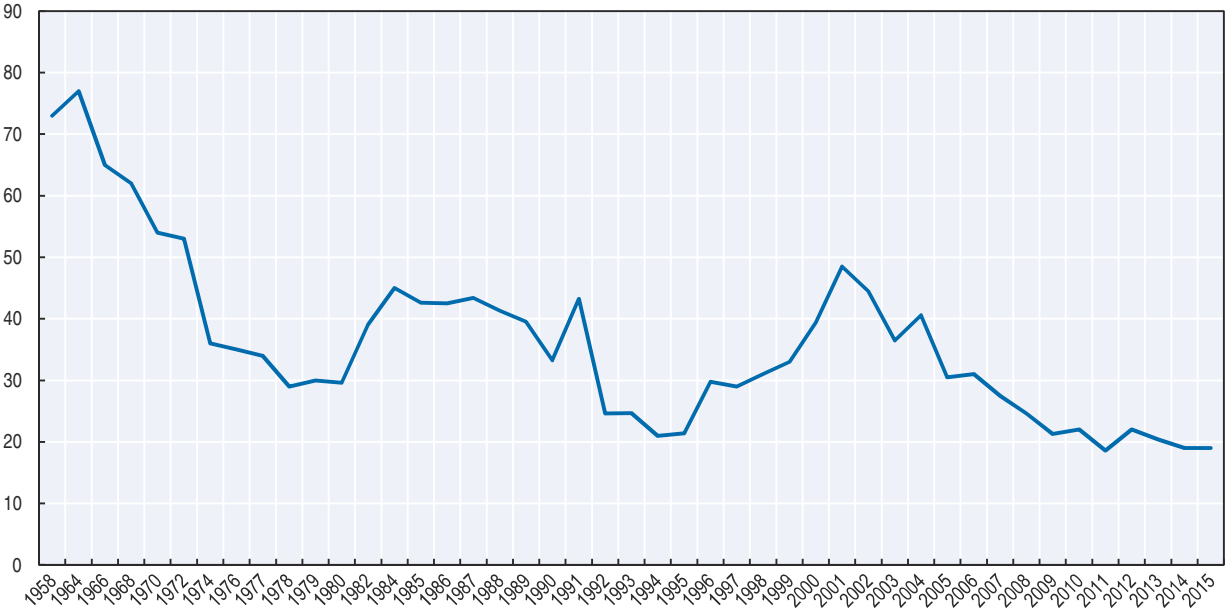


Note: The OECD average is population-weighted and excludes Iceland and Luxembourg due to incomplete data.
Source: OECD calculations based on Gallup World Poll, *www.gallup.com/services/170945/world-poll.aspx*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933597123

Figure 4.13 (based on the GWP, a source that has covered all OECD countries in most years since 2006) shows the prevalence of people's trust in the government of their country in 2014-16, as well as changes since 2005-07, based on the question "do you have confidence in your national government?". In 2014-16, only 38% of people in OECD countries reported trusting their government, with a decline of four points since 2005-07. The decline exceeds 15 points in Slovenia, Finland, Spain, Chile, Portugal and Greece, while gains of 15 points or more were recorded in Germany, the Slovak Republic, Poland, Israel and Switzerland. The global financial crisis has certainly coincided with lower trust in governments, as highlighted by the consistent fall of this measure in the countries most deeply affected by it (e.g. Greece, Spain, Portugal, etc.). However, the time series available for some countries (e.g. data on people's trust in the federal government have been collected in the United States since 1958) also show that the fall in people's trust in public institutions is a long-term phenomenon, suggesting an erosion of the social contract between people and their governments (Figure 4.14) – a trend that is consistent with the secular process of civic disengagement by US citizens described by Putnam (2005).

Figure 4.14. **Long-term trends in people's trust in government, the United States**



Note: Prior to 1985, data were not collected on an annual basis. The x-axis indicates the years for which data are available.
Source: OECD calculations based on PEW Research Center (2016) Historic trends of public trust, *www.people-press.org/2015/11/23/1-trust-in-government-1958-2015/*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933597142

Despite the availability of several data sources, what exactly is being captured by survey questions on people's trust in institutions is still poorly understood. Changes in trust in institutions may be driven by many factors, including economic conditions and outlook, long-term changes in political systems, short-term approval of the incumbent government, events such as natural disasters or major corruption cases, as well as how public institutions perform their roles.[51] In this context, and to shed light on how to improve trust measures, the OECD has recently released its first ever *Guidelines on Measuring Trust*. The *Guidelines* provide a starting point for generating high-quality comparative evidence on trust, by putting forward measurement instruments suitable for this purpose (Box 4.4). Restoring institutional trust is essential to consolidate the foundations of modern states in their role as guarantors and enablers of individual well-being; one necessary step in this direction is to develop high-quality measures that are comparable across countries and consistent over time.

Box 4.4. **The OECD Guidelines on Measuring Trust**

With trust in public institutions at an all-time low, the importance of better understanding what drives trust has led to a range of OECD initiatives to improve the information base available. High-quality data are a necessary condition to assess the state of trust and establish strategies to improve it.

Modelled after the 2013 *OECD Guidelines on Measuring Subjective Wellbeing (OECD 2013b)*, in the autumn of 2017 the OECD released a set of *Guidelines on Measuring Trust* (OECD 2017a) addressed to both producers and users of trust data. The *Guidelines* covers two types of trust: trust in other people (also known as interpersonal trust) and trust in public institutions.

Box 4.4. **The OECD Guidelines on Measuring Trust** *(cont.)*

A range of national statistical offices, notably in Australia, Canada and New Zealand, as well as European countries under the EU-SILC, already include measures of trust in institutions in their household surveys. However, with the exception of the EU-SILC, the items used differ across countries in terms of both question wording and response scale, limiting international comparability. Moreover, trust questions are typically included as part of infrequent ad-hoc modules, making it necessary to rely instead on unofficial surveys that draw on small and less representative samples.

The *OECD Guidelines on Measuring Trust* represents the first attempt to provide international recommendations on collecting, publishing and analysing trust data in order to encourage their uptake by national statistical offices. The *Guidelines* also outlines why measures of trust are important for monitoring and policy making, and why national statistical agencies have a critical role to play in enhancing the usefulness of existing measures. Besides establishing what is known about the reliability and validity of trust measures, the *Guidelines* describes the best approaches for measuring trust in a reliable and consistent way and provides guidance for reporting, interpretation and analysis.

The *Guidelines* also includes a number of prototype survey modules on trust that national and international agencies can readily use in their household surveys. For trust in public institutions, three core measures are recommended, phrased as follows:

"The next questions are about whether you have trust in various institutions in [COUNTRY]. Even if you have had very little or no contact with these institutions, please base your answer on your general impression of these institutions. Using this card, please tell me on a scale from 0-10 how much you personally trust each of the institutions I read out. 0 means you do not trust an institution at all, and 10 means you have complete trust. Firstly…READ OUT

[COUNTRY'S] parliament?

[COUNTRY'S] police?

[COUNTRY'S] civil service?"

These questions capture two of the main underlying dimensions of institutional trust (trust in the political system and in the justice and law enforcement system). The question about the civil service is intended to establish whether respondents view the non-political civil service differently to political institutions more generally.

Besides the *Guidelines on Measuring Trust,* the OECD is also developing additional ways to complement self-reported trust data with metrics built on innovative techniques drawn from behavioural science and experimental economics. Trustlab is a new online platform developed by the OECD, in association with other partners, to measure trust in other people and institutions by combining surveys and experimental games, along with extensive information on the policy preferences and experiences of respondents. Trustlab has so far been run on nationally representative samples in France, Korea, the United States, Germany and Slovenia, with additional countries lined up to join.

The statistical agenda ahead on governance

The measurement agenda on governance confronting national statistical offices and other producers of official statistics is huge: compared to most of the other well-being dimensions analysed in successive issues of *How's Life?*, most of the comparative evidence on governance that is currently available comes from small-scale non-official household surveys or from measurement initiatives conducted by international organisations, teams of

researchers and civil society organisations based on "qualitative assessments" by experts, rather than on "hard" quantitative data. To respond to the strong policy demand for high-quality statistics on different dimensions of governance and to develop Tier III indicators for Goal 16 of the SDGs, steps should be taken in the following areas:

- First, a conceptual framework for governance statistics is still lacking. No universal definition of governance currently exists, implying that various agencies and researchers interpret the term in their own way, referring to (partially overlapping) concepts such as effectiveness, impartiality, accountability, democratic quality, non-discrimination, state capacity, etc. Even when the same term is used by different actors, it may be used with differing meanings while, conversely, different actors may use a different terminology to describe the same phenomena. Reaching agreement on the conceptual scope of statistics on governance, identifying its main domains and aspects, and defining the boundaries separating what is included and what is excluded from the remit of governance statistics should be a priority task for the statistical community. The recently established UN City (Praia) Group on Governance Statistics could make a critical contribution in this regard.
- Second, the broad concept of governance, even when restricted to the public institutions within a country, encompasses a broad range of functions, which are at different stages of maturity when it comes to their "measurability". This chapter has focused in particular on people's perceptions of public institutions and their interactions with them, based on a limited set of aspects where comparative information is already available, albeit often not from official sources. Different governance aspects (including some that are not reviewed in this chapter) are at different stages for meeting the "measurability" requirements discussed in previous sections. For example, the Tier III indicators selected for monitoring Goal 16 of the SDGs, are furthest from meeting these measurability requirements. Some consensus on measurement priorities, and the division of labour among the many agencies active in this field, will need to be forged in order to make progress on the long-term agenda of developing high-quality governance statistics.
- Third, even for the aspects reviewed in this chapter, measurement challenges remain. There is evidence, for example, of a disconnect between people's perceptions of corruption in public institutions and their direct experiences of it, which underscores the importance of broadening measurement efforts beyond "petty corruption". Similarly, people's experiences with public services are shaped by different elements (e.g. affordability, timeliness, proximity, etc.) that should be measured consistently across different public services by combining general survey data (with representative samples) and data from users of specific services (as in the case of the experiences and outcomes reported by patients for health care services). Also, when compared to other public services (i.e. health care and education), there is a clear need to develop better statistics on people's access to and experiences with justice. Measures of political efficacy are not commonly included in household surveys, despite evidence that people's political voice (and of the responsiveness of institutions to those voices) is an important driver of their civic engagement and their trust in institutions, as well as of their own personal well-being. Similar measurement challenges exist when it comes to measuring new forms of political engagement or to assessing inequalities in political participation and political representation.
- Fourth, the OECD has analysed the statistical accuracy of some governance indicators presented in this chapter (González, Fleischer, and Mira d'Ercole, 2017). However, in many cases, further empirical analysis will be required to assess whether existing measures are

accurately capturing the concept that they are intended to measure. The *OECD Guidelines on Measuring Trust* provide a comprehensive example of the type of research agenda that would be required to assess the statistical quality of some governance dimensions.

- Finally, identifying a set of comparable questions on governance and political voice that could be included in official surveys calls for joint work between all relevant stakeholders. For instance, international organisations can provide methodological support and guidance, while statistical offices could help in identifying key measurement challenges and establishing the evidence base needed to test relevant hypotheses and generate pertinent, high-quality statistics. In this respect, measures of people's trust in institutions have a critical role to play: despite their experimental nature, the three questions on people's trust in institutions included in the *OECD Guidelines on Measuring Trust* (as well as the primary measures of trust in others recommended by the *Guidelines*) would provide, when systematically implemented in official surveys, a strong basis for comparative analysis in the field of governance statistics.

Notes

1. An early formulation of what institutions provide to the people under their authority was given by Adam Smith (1776), who distinguished between three functions of sovereigns, i.e. "protecting society from the violence and invasion of other independent societies", "establishing an exact administration of justice (among every member of society)" and "maintaining those public institutions and public works which, though... advantageous to a great society are... of such a nature that cannot be expected that any individual or small number of individuals should erect or maintain".
2. The well-being framework of *How's Life?* currently includes a dimension of current well-being, "civic engagement and governance", which was measured (in 2015) through indicators of voter turnout and government stakeholder engagement. People's trust in institutions and people's trust in others have meanwhile been used to illustrate the notion of "social capital", one of four different types of resources important for sustaining well-being over time. The present volume of *How's Life?* uses a measure of "political efficacy" (having a say in what the government does), presented in this chapter, as a headline indicator of civic engagement and governance, alongside voter turnout. Government stakeholder engagement is retained as a measure of the institutional component of social capital, alongside the two measures of trust in others and trust in governments.
3. The New Zealand General Social Survey includes modules on trust, voting and political participation. The Mexican National Survey of Quality and Governmental Impact (ENCIG) collects data on citizens' satisfaction and experience with public services, perception and experience of corruption and the interaction of the population with government through electronic means. The Measures of Australia's Progress (MAP), published by the Australian Bureau of Statistics, includes a governance dimension comprising statistics on trust in government and participation. The publication recognises that data gaps exist in the cases of other governance sub-dimensions, such as effective governance and people's rights and responsibilities.
4. Goal 16 is dedicated to the "Promotion of peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, the provision of access to justice for all, and building effective, accountable institutions at all levels" (*www.un.org/sustainabledevelopment/peace-justice/*). Goal 16 includes targets on: 1) reducing corruption and bribery; 2) developing effective, accountable and transparent institutions; 3) ensuring responsive, inclusive, participatory and representative decision-making; 4) strengthening the participation of developing countries in the institutions of global governance; 5) providing legal identity for all; 6) ensuring public access to information and protecting fundamental freedoms; 7) strengthening national institutions, in particular in developing countries, to prevent violence and combat terrorism and crime; and 8) promoting and enforcing non-discriminatory laws and policies. Aspects of governance are also included in Goal 17, "Strengthen the means of implementation and revitalise the global partnership for sustainable development", where these are considered as instrumentally important for attaining other goals and targets (*https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/sdg17*).
5. The etymological roots of the term "governance" are in the Latin word for steering a boat.
6. Among other things, the new public management approach (Gruening, 2001) emphasises the importance of granting freedom to manage in horizontal organisations (rather than vertical ones),

decentralisation (rather than centralisation), democratic participation (rather than rules based on authority), openness and transparency (rather than secrecy), the separation of politics and administration (rather than spoils systems), strategic planning and flexible management styles (rather than bureaucratic management) and legitimacy (rather than legality).

7. These include "(due) process, reconciliation, gathering actors, permanent interactivity", as proposed by Smouts (1998), and democratic qualities such as "freedoms, rule of law, vertical accountability (from government to the citizens), horizontal accountability (across government institutions), responsiveness, equality, participation, competition", as proposed by Diamond and Morlino (2004).

8. These three domains are not completely independent, and in some cases the borders between them may be blurred (e.g. principles shape processes, which in turn influence outcomes). For example, the protection of minorities is a principle that should lead to fairness of treatment and absence of discrimination when providing services; similarly, people's treatment and the quality of the service they receive should influence their evaluations of public institutions and institutions' ability to guarantee individual rights and provide people with elements to live the life that they have chosen.

9. Legal theory has been a fertile ground for research about the importance of the process. The theory on the centrality of the process is an important element of Hart and Sack's seminal work "The Legal Process" (1994). According to this theory, in a setting of diverse views (e.g. a government) the substance of decisions cannot be planned in advance but the decision-making procedure commonly can be. It is therefore expected that high-quality procedures would lead to well-informed and wise decisions. Moreover, procedures are the mechanisms through which the parts of the interconnected institutional system work together by defining the duties and roles of each institution. Institutionalised processes also provide safeguards against discretion and the possibility of correcting possible mistakes by specifying the information which must be secured; people whose views must be listened to; the finding and justification of the decision which must be made and the formal requisites of action to be observed (Eskridge and Frickey, 1993).

10. Similarly, the dispute resolution module of the World Justice Project asks respondents whether or not their process in the court was fair. In turn, according to Pleasence and Balmer (forthcoming), at least 50 large-scale surveys of national legal needs (i.e. surveys exploring the public's experiences and responses to legal issues) have been conducted in more than 30 countries since the mid-1990s.

11. The World Bank's Worldwide Governance Indicators (WGI) provide a comprehensive cross-country dataset, with composite indicators for six dimensions of governance: voice and accountability; political stability and absence of violence; government effectiveness; regulatory quality; rule of law; and corruption and transparency. These indicators are based on hundreds of variables obtained from 31 different data sources, ranging from household surveys to expert surveys, and/or data provided by non-governmental organisations, commercial providers of statistics and public sector organisations.

12. A second collection of this survey was released in 2013 as part of the EU ANTICORP project. The next wave of the European Quality of Life Survey (EQLS), to be released by end 2017, will have a specific focus on the use and quality of public services.

13. The Strategy for the Harmonization of Statistics in Africa (SHaSA) brings together the African Union Commission (AUC), the African Development Bank Group (AfDB) and the Economic Commission for Africa (ECA) under the umbrella of the African Statistical Co-ordination Committee (ASCC). By working under a harmonised framework, the Objective of SHaSA is to support and co-ordinate the production of quality statistics, support capacity-building for continental statistics and promote the use of statistics for decision making.

14. As famously noted by Winston Churchill: "Indeed, it has been said that democracy is the worst form of Government except for all those other forms that have been tried from time to time."

15. Schumpeter (1950) also provided a procedural definition of democracy where electoral competition, which crystallises through elections, is required for arriving at political decisions.

16. In most OECD countries, resident non-citizens (and in some countries, people in prisons and psychiatric institutions) are not eligible to vote in national elections; in addition, in some countries, even people on parole or probation, or people who committed a felony in the past (e.g. in some US states) are not allowed to vote. Because of these factors, voter turnout measures may differ significantly when expressed as a proportion of the voting-age population (as in Figure 4.1), as compared to the registered population; previous editions of *How's Life?* have included both measures of voter turnout, while the ratio to the registered population is used for the OECD Better Life Index. In most OECD countries, ultimate responsibility for registration rests with the public authorities, who are responsible for maintaining electoral rolls; in the United States, however, registration is

entirely the responsibility of the individual, leading to a situation where a substantial share of eligible voters are not registered (Mahler, Jesuit and Paradowski, 2016).

17. A longstanding issue when measuring electoral turnout is whether the most appropriate denominator is the voting age population or the population that is registered to vote. The OECD country ranking of voter turnout is affected by the choice of denominator, due to country differences in voter registration, how electoral registers are maintained, rules on non-resident voting, and the number of residents who are not able to vote in national elections. Nonetheless, both measures indicate a downward trend in voter turnout across the OECD area as a whole in recent years (see OECD 2015a).

18. Voter turnout as reported in post-election surveys tends to be higher than that based on administrative records of electoral data.

19. The category "others" in the CSES classification comprises housewives, people who are permanently disabled, and other people not in the labour force.

20. A slightly greater increase (5 percentage points) is seen when comparing people with tertiary education to those with secondary education.

21. Maher, Jesuit and Paradowski (2016) explore the impact of differential voter turnout by income quintiles on the size of income redistribution operated through social transfers: they conclude that, when controlling for a number of other variables, the income gradient of voter turnout is negatively related to transfer redistribution, and that lower voting participation of people in the lower half of the income distribution is associated with this group receiving fewer public transfers.

22. A chapter on volunteering and well-being was included in the 2015 edition of *How is Life?* (OECD, 2015a).

23. To define formal and extra-parliamentary forms of manifest political participation, Boarini and Díaz (2015) rely on the following items as specified in the ESS: 1) voting; 2) being a member of a political party or trade union; 3) having contacted a politician or government official; 4) working for a political party, organisation or association; 5) displaying a campaign badge or sticker; 6) having signed a petition in the last 12 months; 7) having taken part in a lawful public demonstration; and 8) having boycotted certain products.

24. For example, when asking about contacting politicians or public officials, EQLS specifies that this refers to contacts other than those routinely arising from the use of public services. Other surveys formulate these questions in more general terms (e.g. the Gallup World Poll asks respondents whether they have voiced their opinion to a public official in the last month).

25. According to the UN Universal Declaration of Human Rights of 1948, a set of minimal standards to be complied with by signatory countries includes: 1) the conduction of periodic and genuine elections, universal and based on equal suffrage, held by secret vote or by equivalent free voting procedures; 2) the right of people to freedom of opinion and expression, including the right to hold opinions without interference and to seek, receive and impart information and ideas through the media; 3) the right to freedom of peaceful assembly and association; and 4) the right to take part in the government of their country directly or through freely chosen representatives.

26. The European Social Survey also asks respondents to evaluate the importance of various aspects of democracy for their "ideal" of how a democratic system should work. The broad pattern that emerges from these data is that European citizens consider the different elements of democracy as equally important; for example, the importance of "freedom and fairness of elections" gets an average score of 8.9, "media reliability" 8.1, "reducing inequalities" 8.1, and direct mechanisms (referenda) to decide on crucial issues 8.2. In all cases, the average importance assigned to various aspects of democracy is higher than respondents' satisfaction with them, implying gaps between expectations and actual performance. Cross-country differences in the importance attributed to various aspects of democracy are also smaller than in the case of their satisfaction with the way democracy works in their country.

27. The elements of democracy shown in Table 4.3 have been selected through a factor analysis based on the various components of the theoretical model. Only the question with the highest factor loading, strongly representing the factor, has been retained.

28. In Switzerland, however, respondents report the highest satisfaction with this component. Such a result is coherent with the Swiss system in which referenda take place regularly to decide on social, economic and political issues.

29. The European Social Survey (ESS) asks people about their trust in the following institutions: politicians, the legal system, the parliament, the police, the European Parliament and the European Union.

30. According to the latest available evidence from the Inter-Parliamentary Union (IPU), in 2017 on average in OECD countries 28.8% of parliamentarians were women, which reflects an increase of 1 percentage point from 2015 (27.8%). While these figures are only slightly below the 30% target set by the Beijing Platform for Action established at the UN Fourth World Conference on Women in 1995, they are significantly below full parity.

31. For example, in a randomised policy experiment, Chattopadhyay and Duflo (2004) provide evidence that in Indian states where one-third of the head positions in villages are reserved for women the villages with women leaders invest more in infrastructure that is directly relevant to women's needs.

32. As a broad generalisation, Matthews (1985) concluded that "almost everywhere legislators are better educated, possess higher-status occupations and have more privileged backgrounds than the people they 'represent'".

33. Carnes (2012) summarises his analysis by noting that "Representatives who entered politics after careers in profit-oriented professions… voted substantially more conservatively than other members. Representatives from working class jobs… voted more liberally. And representatives whom have been in politics for a longer period, from service-based professionals (not-for profit) and… lawyers… fell in between." Carnes' multivariate analysis shows that differences in voting behaviour on economic policy based on legislators' prior occupations are significant, while they are insignificant when looking at representatives' education, income and wealth.

34. The stakeholder engagement indicator also exists for subordinate regulations. While primary laws are regulations that must be approved by parliament, subordinate regulations can be approved by the head of government, by an individual minister or by the cabinet – i.e. by an authority other than the parliament. The OECD Better Life Index (BLI) considers an average of both measures (i.e. primary laws and subordinate regulations). The indicators will be updated in the course of 2017/18 and published in the *Regulatory Policy Outlook 2018*.

35. To minimise the biases that could result from assessments provided by government officials, the OECD incorporates several validation mechanisms. For a detailed description of the survey and methodology, see *OECD Regulatory Policy Outlook 2015*.

36. The measurement of corruption at the firm level is beyond the scope of this chapter and generally remains a less explored phenomenon. However, some cross-country comparative surveys (e.g. the World Bank Business Environment Survey) include corruption-related questions that are asked to firms' managers. Most of these questions do not refer to actual experiences of corruption by the firm itself but rather to a prototypical firm "like theirs" being asked for bribes or other types of corrupt behaviour, as an indirect way of getting information about their business climate (Andvig, 2005). One example is: "It is said that establishments are sometimes required to make gifts or informal payments to public officials to 'get things done' with regard to customs, taxes, licenses, regulations, services etc. On average, what percentage of total annual sales, or estimated total annual value, do establishments like this one pay in informal payments or gifts to public officials for this purpose?"

37. Some NSOs, both in OECD (e.g. Mexico) and non-member countries (e.g. Nigeria and Indonesia) have developed special survey modules aimed at measuring the prevalence of corruption resulting from the interaction of citizens with public officials at the national level. Other NSOs, such as the French National Institute of Statistics and Economic Studies (INSEE), plan to undertake a survey on corruption in the near future.

38. An international process to develop a *Manual on the Measurement of Corruption through Population-based and Business-based Sample Surveys* is currently ongoing under the aegis of the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) and the UNODC-INEGI Center of Excellence in Statistical Information on Government, Crime, Victimization and Justice (CoE). The objective of the manual is to provide methodological guidelines aimed at supporting the development of sample surveys of individuals and businesses to measure the prevalence of bribery at the national level. The manual is also expected to inform the generation of indicators for Sustainable Development Goal targets 16.5.1 ("Proportion of persons who had at least one contact with a public official and who paid a bribe to a public official, or were asked for a bribe by those public officials, during the previous 12 months") and 16.5.2 ("Proportion of persons who had at least one contact with a public official and who paid a bribe to a public official, or were asked for a bribe by those public officials, during the previous 12 months"). To develop such a manual, a task force was set up comprising representatives from international organisations, National Statistical Offices, researchers, and representatives of auditing and consulting agencies. The manual is expected to be released by the end of 2017.

39. In order to be assigned a score, a country needs to have at least three data sources available from which to calculate an average. According to Transparency International, a source is deemed of acceptable quality for the construction of the index when data: 1) are based on a reliable methodology from a credible institution; 2) address corruption in the public sector; 3) are granular (i.e. the scale used allows for sufficient differentiation); 4) are comparable across countries; and 5) are available over several years.

40. Additionally, other relevant phenomena are vested interest groups that wield influence on political decisions through the lobbying and financing of political parties and electoral campaigns; these are also missed by survey measures like the ones described above. While lobbying is a phenomenon that has received increasing attention in OECD countries, with an acceleration of regulations to promote transparency in recent years, no suitable measure of this phenomenon exists, in particular for political financing (OECD, 2015d). Measurement of these aspects, as well as unbalanced representation in government advisory groups and "revolving doors" between public agencies and private firms, call for further exploration of possible measurement tools.

41. The OECD "serving citizens" framework is an analytical tool constructed to comprehensively assess the quality of public services by looking beyond their costs and users' self-reported satisfaction. The framework is built on the premise that assessing the quality of key services (e.g. health care, education and justice) requires considering "access" (on the basis of different dimensions such as affordability, geographic proximity and availability of information), "responsiveness" (based on the existence of a citizen-centred approach, the match of services to special needs, and the timeliness with which services are provided) and "reliability" (i.e. effective delivery of services and outcomes, consistency in service delivery, outcomes and safety). Since it was first presented in the 2011 edition of *Government at a Glance*, the framework has been populated with new indicators for each policy area and dimension.

42. The Gallup World Poll asks the question: "In the city or area where you live, are you satisfied or dissatisfied with the public transportation system/ education systems or schools/ availability of quality health care?" In the case of the justice system and the police, the question asked by the Gallup World Poll is as follows: "In this country, do you have confidence in each of the following or not? How about the judicial system or courts? How about the police?"

43. In addition to questions on the overall satisfaction with public services based on direct experience, it is also possible to ask about satisfaction with specific attributes of public services. For example, satisfaction with the treatment and information received, with the facilities (e.g. in the case of health and education) and with the delays for accessing the service, etc. One example of a survey where quality attributes of these types have been measured is the Mexican National Survey on the Quality and Impact of Governance (ENCIG).

44. In the case of education, the difference is statistically significant in all countries except Spain. In the case of health care, the difference is statistically significant in all countries except Finland, Hungary and the Slovak Republic. In the case of the police, the differences in satisfaction are also statistically significant, but the effect goes in opposite directions. In four out of 12 countries where the difference is statistically significant, direct experience with the police results in a lower average satisfaction.

45. In their meeting of January 17th 2017 health ministers of OECD countries provided the mandate to the OECD Employment Labour and Social Affairs Directorate (ELS) of developing statistical tools to assess in a comparable way the experience and outcomes of patients in OECD countries. In this context, the Patient-Reported Indicators Survey (PaRIS) is being developed to address these critical information gaps and build a patient-centred view of health system performance.

46. Political efficacy is measured through data drawn from the OECD Survey of Adult Skills (PIAAC). The first wave of PIAAC covered 20 OECD countries and three OECD sub-national entities (Flanders in Belgium; England and Northern Ireland in the United Kingdom) as well as the Russian Federation, while the second wave covered six additional OECD countries as well as Lithuania (an OECD accession country).

47. An early formulation of the importance of trust for governments and political systems is attributed to Confucius, who lived in China around 500BC: "Three things are necessary for government: weapons, food and trust. If a ruler cannot hold on to all three, he should give up weapons first and food next. Trust should be guarded to the end. Without trust we cannot stand."

48. For many years, the main source of internationally comparable data on trust was the World Values Survey, which started collecting such data in 1981.

49. Different surveys have different geographical coverages and frequencies. In the case of the Gallup World Poll, data are collected annually worldwide, while for other surveys – including the WVS, ESS

and EQLS – country coverage is more limited. Data collection takes place every two years for the ESS, every three years for the EQLS, and roughly every five years for the WVS. In the case of the EU SILC, these data have so far been collected only in an ad-hoc module fielded in 2013.

50. The importance of trust indicators is increasingly being accepted by the statistical community as such "Trust in different public institutions" has been suggested as a possible indicator that could be used in the future for the monitoring of Target 16.6 ("Develop effective, transparent and accountable institutions at all levels") of the UN 2030 Agenda (*https://unstats.un.org/unsd/statcom/48th-session/documents/2017-2-IAEG-SDGs-E.pdf*).

51. Preliminary evidence from Trustlab – the new online platform developed by the OECD to measure trust in other people and institutions by combining survey questions and experimental games – suggests that good governance has an impact on institutional trust: in particular, improving the quality of public services, the perceived openness and transparency of public institutions, and people's perceived fairness in how they are treated by public institutions has the strongest impact on people's trust in government.

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Chapter 5

Country profiles

The OECD approach to measuring well-being encompasses a wide range of comparable indicators covering many different aspects of social, economic and environmental progress. A key advantage of this framework is that it enables the assessment of an individual country's comparative strengths and weaknesses across a range of different outcomes that matter to people. In a series of three-page country profiles, this chapter presents the average performance of OECD countries, as well as six partner countries. Each profile summarises countries' comparative performance on average levels of current well-being, complemented by a brief description of changes over the past decade. Resources for future well-being are examined through a dashboard of illustrative indicators, which displays both comparative levels and 10-year changes in measures that relate to stocks of natural, economic, human and social capital. This overview allows pinpointing similarities and differences across countries, but it also highlights the main patterns that have emerged over time for each individual country. Not featured in these country profiles are indicators on inequalities in well-being; for a review of country performance in this field see Chapter 2.

The statistical data for Israel are supplied by and under the responsibility of the relevant Israeli authorities. The use of such data by the OECD is without prejudice to the status of the Golan Heights, East Jerusalem and Israeli settlements in the West Bank under the terms of international law.

Reader's guide to the country profiles

Current well-being, headline indicators

In the country profiles that follow, average levels of current well-being are assessed through a standard set of headline indicators (Table 5.1, below) that has been developed through previous editions of *How's Life?* These indicators have been evaluated against several different quality criteria, introduced in *How's Life? 2011*. The set continues to evolve over time as new and better data sources become available (see Box 5.1). Full details of the definitions, observed values, time series and source information can be found in the *Online Data Annex: Current Well-Being* (*www.oecd-ilibrary.org/economics/how-s-life-2017_how_life-2017-en*). Inequalities in well-being are described in Chapter 2.

Table 5.1. **Headline indicators of current well-being**

Label	Indicator	Unit of measurement	Year(s)*	Country Coverage (OECD and partners)‡	Source
Income and wealth					
Household income	Household net adjusted disposable income	USD at current PPPs, average per capita (for the latest available year); and USD at 2010 PPPs, average per capita (for the time series).	2005-15	OECD 30 + 3	OECD National Accounts Statistics database
Household net wealth	Household net wealth	USD at current PPPs, average per household	Various between 2008-15	OECD 27	OECD Wealth Distribution database
Jobs and earnings					
Employment	Employment rate	Employed aged 15-64, as a percentage of the population aged 15-64	2005-16	OECD 35 + 6	OECD Employment and Labour Market Statistics
Earnings	Average annual gross earnings per full-time employee	USD at the PPPs for the latest available year	2005-16	OECD 34 + 1	OECD Average annual wages database
Labour market insecurity	Labour market insecurity due to unemployment	Average expected earnings loss associated with unemployment as a share of previous earnings	2007-15	OECD 34	OECD Job Quality database
Job strain	Incidence of job strain	Proportion of employees who experience a number of job demands that exceeds the number of job resources	2005, 2010, 2015	OECD 35 + 3	Provisional (September 2017) estimates prepared for the OECD Job Quality database
Long-term unemployment	Long-term unemployment rate	Percentage of the labour force unemployed for one year or more	2005-16	OECD 34 + 5	OECD Employment and Labour Market Statistics
Housing					
Rooms per person	Rooms per person	Average number of rooms per person (excluding bathroom, toilet, kitchenette, scullery/utility rooms and garages)	2005-15	OECD 35 + 4	Compiled for this report, based on EU SILC** and other National Statistical Office sources

Table 5.1. **Headline indicators of current well-being** *(cont.)*

Label	Indicator	Unit of measurement	Year(s)*	Country Coverage (OECD and partners) ‡	Source
Housing affordability	Household expenditures on housing	Percentage of household gross adjusted disposable income spent on housing rent and maintenance	2005-15	OECD 33 + 5	OECD National Accounts database
Basic sanitation	Dwellings without basic sanitary facilities	Percentage of people without an indoor flushing toilet for the sole use of their household	2005-15	OECD 32 + 5	Compiled for this report, based on EU SILC** and other National Statistical Office sources
Work-life balance					
Working hours	Employees working very long hours	Percentage of employees who usually work 50 hours or more per week	2005-16	OECD 31 + 6	OECD Employment and Labour Market Statistics
Time off	Time devoted to leisure and personal care	Hours per day, people in full-time employment	~ 2010 only	OECD 21 + 1	OECD Time Use database
Health status					
Life expectancy	Life expectancy at birth	Number of years that a newborn can expect to live	2005-15	OECD 35 + 6	OECD Health Statistics database
Perceived health	Perceived health status	Percentage of adults reporting "good" or "very good" health	2005-15	OECD 35 + 3	OECD Health Statistics database
Education and skills					
Educational attainment	Upper secondary educational attainment among working-age adults	Percentage of people aged 25-64 with at least an upper secondary education	2005-16	OECD 34 + 6	OECD Education at a Glance database
Adult skills	Competencies of the adult population aged 16-65	Mean proficiency in literacy and numeracy	~ 2012 only	OECD 28 + 2	OECD Survey of Adult Skills (PIAAC)
Cognitive skills at 15	Cognitive skills of 15-year-old students	Mean score for reading, mathematics and science	2015 only	OECD 35 + 5	OECD Programme on International Students Assessment (PISA)
Social connections					
Social support	Social support	Percentage of people who report that they have friends or relatives whom they can count on in times of trouble	2005/6-2016	OECD 35 + 6	Gallup World Poll
Civic engagement and governance					
Voter turnout	Voter turnout	Percentage of votes cast among the population registered to vote	2005-17	OECD 35 + 6	IDEA
Having a say in government	Having a say in what the government does	Percentage of people aged 16-65 who feel they have a say in what the government does	~ 2012 only	OECD 28 + 2	Compiled for this report, based on the Survey of Adult Skills (PIAAC)
Environmental quality					
Water quality	Satisfaction with water quality	Percentage of satisfied people in the overall population	2005/6-2016	OECD 35 + 6	Gallup World Poll
Air quality	Population exposure to outdoor air pollution by fine particulate matter ($PM_{2.5}$)	Population-weighted mean $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations, micrograms per cubic metre, 3-year moving average	2005-13 (3 year moving average)	OECD 35 + 6	Compiled for this report, based on OECD Exposure to air pollution database

Table 5.1. **Headline indicators of current well-being** *(cont.)*

Label	Indicator	Unit of measurement	Year(s)*	Country Coverage (OECD and partners)‡	Source
Personal security					
Homicides	Deaths due to assault	Age-standardised rate, per 100 000 population	2005-14	OECD 35 + 6	OECD Health Statistics database
Feeling safe at night	Feelings of safety when walking alone at night	Percentage of people declaring that they feel safe when walking alone at night in the city or area where they live	2006-16	OECD 35 + 6	Gallup World Poll
Subjective well-being					
Life satisfaction†	Life satisfaction	Mean values on an 11-point scale, with responses ranging from 0 (not at all satisfied) to 10 (completely satisfied)	2013, 2014, 2015 (depending on source)	OECD 30	Compiled for this report, based on EU SILC** and other National Statistical Office sources

‡ Country coverage refers to the latest available year only; for change over time, the OECD average often considers a more restricted set of countries, due to incomplete time series and breaks.
* Refers to the longest time series considered; not all countries have a full time series available.
** European Survey on Income and Living Conditions (EU SILC).
† For the assessment of changes in life satisfaction over time, Gallup World Poll data are used, since a long time series is available. The measure used is the Cantril Ladder scale, and the unit of measurement is also the mean score on a 0-10 scale.

Box 5.1. **Updates to the headline indicator set for current well-being**

Table 5.1 includes a small number of changes made to the headline indicator set since the 2015 edition of *How's Life?* (OECD, 2015a), reflecting several recent measurement advances:

- For the **income and wealth** dimension, *household net financial wealth* per capita (sourced from the OECD National Accounts database) has been replaced by *household net wealth* per household (from the OECD Wealth Distribution database). Conceptually, net wealth is closer to the target construct of interest, since financial wealth excludes major non-financial assets that are central to households, such as home ownership. Recent data collections have enabled the country coverage of the net wealth measure to be extended.
- Under the **jobs and earnings** dimension, the indicator *probability of becoming unemployed* has now been replaced by a *labour market insecurity* measure, developed as part of the OECD's Job Quality framework (Cazes, Hijzen and Saint-Martin, 2015; OECD 2017a). The measure is based on information about the probability of a worker becoming unemployed, the average duration of unemployment, and the unemployment benefits received in the event of unemployment in each OECD country. This indicator provides a measure of the average expected monetary loss associated with becoming and staying unemployed, and is expressed as a share of previous earnings.
- Also in the context of **jobs and earnings**, the newly developed *job strain* indicator (from the OECD Job Quality database) has been added to the headline indicator set, as a measure of the quality of the work environment. This reflects the proportion of employees experiencing a number of job demands (i.e. physical demands, work intensity, working time inflexibility and perceived job insecurity) that exceeds the number of resources available to them (i.e. work autonomy, training and learning opportunities, perceived opportunity for career advancement and the intrinsic rewards of the job).
- For the **civic engagement and governance** dimension, a new measure has been added, addressing whether or not people feel they *have a say in what the government does*. It is sourced from the OECD Survey of Adult Skills (PIAAC) and is introduced in Chapter 4 "Governance and Well-Being". The indicator *government stakeholder engagement*, previously used as a measure of current well-being, has been retained as a measure of social capital in the section on resources for future well-being (see Table 5.5 above).

Box 5.1. **Updates to the headline indicator set for current well-being** *(cont.)*

- Under **environmental quality**, the air quality measure (*annual exposure to outdoor air pollution by fine particulate matter, $PM_{2.5}$*) now draws on new estimates from the OECD Environment Directorate, developed for use as a headline measure in the *Green Growth Indicators* project (OECD, 2017b). This is shown as a 3-year rolling average, due to the volatility in the estimates.
- In addition, under the **personal security** dimension, an indicator on *self-reported victimisation*, based on a Gallup World Poll question about whether the respondent has been assaulted in the previous 12 months, has been dropped from the headline indicator set. This is because the data are no longer collected on a routine basis in the core Gallup World Poll survey.

Assessing strengths and weaknesses in average levels of current well-being

The first page of each country profile presents an overview of comparative strengths and weaknesses in average current well-being. For OECD countries, findings are presented graphically with a circular bar chart (or "wheel"), in which values have been normalised following a min-max scaling procedure in order to summarise results across indicators expressed in different units. This normalisation is done according to a standard formula that converts the original values of the indicators into numbers varying in a range between 0 (for the worst possible outcome) and 100 (for the best possible outcome).[1] In the chart, the central white circle is a base representing minimum levels (0), whereas the internal white border sets the maximum for each indicator (100).[2] Each country's relative performance is depicted by blue bars, one per indicator: for both positive and negative indicators, longer bars always indicate better outcomes (i.e. higher well-being), whereas shorter bars always indicate worse outcomes (lower well-being). So to take just one example, for Australia time off is at almost the lowest point among OECD countries, but household net wealth and voter turnout are almost at the highest. If data are missing for any given indicator, the relevant segment of the circle is shaded in white. For OECD partner countries, well-being indicators are presented in a table, grouped on the basis of each country's performance relative to both the OECD average and the average of all partner countries.

Assessing change in average well-being over the past 10 years

The second page of each country profile provides an assessment of changes over time in the headline indicators for current well-being. This is based on a simple comparison of values observed for the starting year (2005 in most cases) and the latest available year (usually 2015 or 2016). It excludes indicators for which there is currently only one time point available, and/or countries where only short time series are available. When breaks in the time series mean that change cannot be assessed over the full 10-year period, changes over the time periods prior to these breaks (e.g. between 2005 and 2013) are occasionally discussed in the text, with the years clearly indicated. To provide an "at a glance" impression, the direction of change is summarised by a set of arrows (improving ↗, worsening ↘ and no change ⇔). These have been determined with reference to thresholds detailed in Annex 5.A.

Assessing resources and risks for future well-being

The third and final page of each country profile addresses the issue of sustaining well-being over time. This builds on the array of indicators introduced in *How's Life? 2013* (OECD, 2013) and presented in *How's Life? 2015* (OECD, 2015b), including a limited range of updates

described in Box 5.2, below. In a dashboard format that includes both levels and changes relative to 2005, the page presents an illustrative set of measures concerning natural, human, social and economic resources (or "capital"). In addition to indicators reflecting "stocks" of resources (such as forest area), it also considers investments (such as expenditure on research and development), depletions (such as greenhouse gas emissions) and risk factors (such as smoking and obesity prevalence). Data are usually presented on a per capita basis (see Tables 5.2 to 5.5, below), and full details of the definitions, observed values, time series and sources can be found in the two *Online Data Annexes* (Current Well-Being and Resources for Future Well-Being) *www.oecd-ilibrary.org/economics/how-s-life-2017_how_life-2017-en*.

The "dashboards" featured on the third page of the country profiles should be read as follows:

- The **tier** shown in the dashboard refers to whether the country falls within the top third, middle third or bottom third relative to other OECD countries.[3] For OECD partner countries, the "OECD equivalent" rank is shown – i.e. their level of achievement is benchmarked against the top, middle and bottom third of OECD countries. Thus, a "1" indicates that the partner country has a level of achievement that is on a par with the top third of all OECD countries, a "2" indicates achievement on a par with the middle third of all OECD countries, and a "3" indicates achievement on a par with the bottom third of all OECD countries. Characterising resource levels in this way necessarily emphasises comparative (rather than absolute) performance, and has some obvious limitations, including introducing some distortion when values that are very close in practice are assigned to different tiers on a purely mathematical basis (rather than on practical, real-world significance). However, this method helps to simplify an otherwise very complex picture, and has the advantage that the same methodology can be applied across all indicators equally.
- The **change** column on the dashboard refers to the point difference between the 2005 (or closest available year) value, and the current (or latest available year) value. Fluctuations above or below these points in the intervening years are not considered. To provide an "at a glance" impression, the direction of change is summarised by a set of arrows (improving ⇗, worsening ⇘ and no change ⇔). These have been determined with reference to thresholds detailed in Annex 5.A. The years considered in order to assess changes are provided in the dashboard. The period considered is country-specific, since not all countries have complete time series. Where no information about change over time is available, or where the available time series is very short, this is indicated by ".." in the change column.

Where data are **missing** (and thus neither the tier nor the change can be considered), the indicator is listed in a separate row at the end of each table of the dashboard. This is done in order to highlight key data gaps.

Table 5.2. **Illustrative indicators of natural capital**

Label	Indicator	Unit of measurement	Year(s)	Country Coverage (OECD + partners) ‡	Source
Greenhouse gas emissions from domestic production	Greenhouse gas emissions from production	Tonnes per capita, CO_2 equivalent	2005-15	OECD 35 + 4	OECD Environment Statistics database
CO_2 emissions from domestic consumption	Carbon dioxide emissions embodied in domestic final demand	Tonnes per capita	2001-11	OECD 35 + 6	OECD Structural Analysis (STAN) databases
Exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution	Population exposure to outdoor air pollution by fine particulate matter ($PM_{2.5}$)	Population-weighted mean $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations, micrograms per cubic metre, 3-year moving average	2005-13 (3 year moving average)	OECD 35 + 6	Compiled for this report, based on OECD Exposure to air pollution database
Forest area	Forest area	Forest area in square kilometres, per thousand people	2005-14	OECD 35 + 6	Compiled for this report, based on OECD Green Growth Indicators database
Renewable freshwater resources	Renewable freshwater resources	Renewable freshwater resources, 1 000m^3 per capita	Long-term annual average	OECD 35 + 5	OECD Green Growth Indicators database
Freshwater abstractions	Freshwater abstractions	Gross abstraction from groundwater or surface water bodies, in cubic metres, per capita	2015 or latest available year	OECD 34 + 5	OECD Green Growth Indicators database
Threatened birds	Threatened birds	Threatened species, as a % all known species	Latest available year	OECD 32 + 4	OECD Environment Statistics database
Threatened mammals	Threatened mammals	Threatened species, as a % all known species	Latest available year	OECD 30 + 4	OECD Environment Statistics database
Threatened plants	Threatened vascular plants	Threatened species, as a % all known species	Latest available year	OECD 30 + 4	OECD Environment Statistics database

‡ Country coverage refers to the latest available year only.

Table 5.3. **Illustrative indicators of human capital**

Label	Indicator	Unit of measurement	Year(s)	Country Coverage (OECD + partners) ‡	Source
Young adult educational attainment	Upper secondary educational attainment, people aged 25-34	Percentage of people who have attained at least an upper secondary education	2005-16	OECD 34 + 6	OECD Education at a Glance database
Educational expectancy	Expected years in education	Average number of years in education that a child aged 5 can expect to undertake (before age 39)	2015 only	OECD 35 + 5	OECD Education at a Glance database
Cognitive skills at 15	Cognitive skills of 15-year-old students	Mean score for reading, mathematics and science	2015 only	OECD 35 + 5	OECD Programme on International Students Assessment (PISA)
Adult skills	Competencies of the adult population, aged 16-65	Mean proficiency in literacy and numeracy	~ 2012 only	OECD 28 + 2	OECD Survey of Adult Skills (PIAAC)
Long-term unemployment	Long-term unemployment rate	Percentage of the labour force unemployed for one year or more	2005-16	OECD 34 + 5	OECD Employment and Labour Market Statistics
Life expectancy at birth	Life expectancy at birth	Number of years that a newborn can expect to live	2005-15	OECD 35 + 6	OECD Health Statistics database
Smoking prevalence	Prevalence of daily smoking	Percentage of people aged 15 and over who report smoking every day	2005-16	OECD 35 + 6	OECD Health Statistics database
Obesity prevalence	Obesity prevalence	Percentage of the population aged 15 and older	2005-16	OECD 35 + 6	OECD Health Statistics database

‡ Country coverage refers to the latest available year only

Table 5.4. **Illustrative indicators of economic capital**

Label	Indicator	Unit of measurement	Year(s)	Country Coverage (OECD + partners) ‡	Source
Produced fixed assets	Produced fixed assets	USD per capita, at 2010 PPPs	2005-15	OECD 26 + 2	OECD National Accounts Statistics database
Gross fixed capital formation	Gross fixed capital formation	Annual growth rates	2005-16	OECD 35 + 6	OECD National Accounts Statistics database
Financial net worth of the total economy	Financial net worth of the total economy	USD per capita, at current PPPs	2005-16	OECD 33 + 4	OECD National Accounts Statistics database
Intellectual property assets	Intellectual property assets	USD per capita, at 2010 PPPs	2005-15	OECD 26 + 1	OECD National Accounts Statistics database
Investment in R&D	Investment in R&D	As a percentage of GDP	2005-15	OECD 29 + 3	OECD National Accounts Statistics database
Household debt	Household debt	Percentage of net household disposable income	2005-15	OECD 30 + 3	OECD Financial Dashboard database
Household net wealth	Household net wealth	USD at current PPPs, per household	2014 (2012 or 13 or 15)	OECD 27	OECD Wealth Distribution database
Financial net worth of government	Adjusted financial net worth of general government	As a percentage of GDP	2005-16	OECD 33 + 4	OECD Financial Dashboard database
Banking sector leverage	Leverage of the banking sector	Ratio of selected assets to banks' own equity	2005-15 (16)	OECD 31 + 2	OECD Financial Dashboard database

‡ Country coverage refers to the latest available year only.

Table 5.5. **Illustrative indicators of social capital**

Label	Indicator	Unit of measurement	Year(s)	Country Coverage (OECD + partners) ‡	Source
Trust in others	Interpersonal trust	Mean average, on a scale from 0 (you do not trust any other person) to 10 (most people can be trusted)	2013 only	OECD 27 + 1	Compiled for this report, based on EU SILC + Statistics New Zealand
Trust in the police	Trust in the police	Mean average, on a scale from 0 (no trust at all) to 10 (complete trust)	2013 only	OECD 27 + 1	Compiled for this report, based on EU SILC + Statistics New Zealand
Trust in the national government	Trust in the national government	Proportion of the population responding "yes" to a question about confidence in the national government	2005/6-2016	OECD 35 + 6	Gallup World Poll
Voter turnout	Voter turnout	Percentage of votes cast among the population registered to vote	2005-17	OECD 35 + 6	IDEA
Government stakeholder engagement	Government stakeholder engagement when developing primary laws and subordinate regulations	0-4 scale, based on OECD review of country responses to the 2014 OECD Regulatory Indicators Survey	2014 only	OECD 35 + 4	OECD Dataset on the Indicators of Regulatory Policy and Governance (iREG)
Volunteering through organisations	Participation in formal volunteering	Percentage of the working-age population who declared having volunteered through an organisation at least once a month, over the preceding year.	~ 2012 only	OECD 28 + 2	OECD Survey of Adult Skills (PIAAC)

‡ Country coverage refers to the latest available year only.

Box 5.2. **Updates to the indicator set on resources for future well-being**

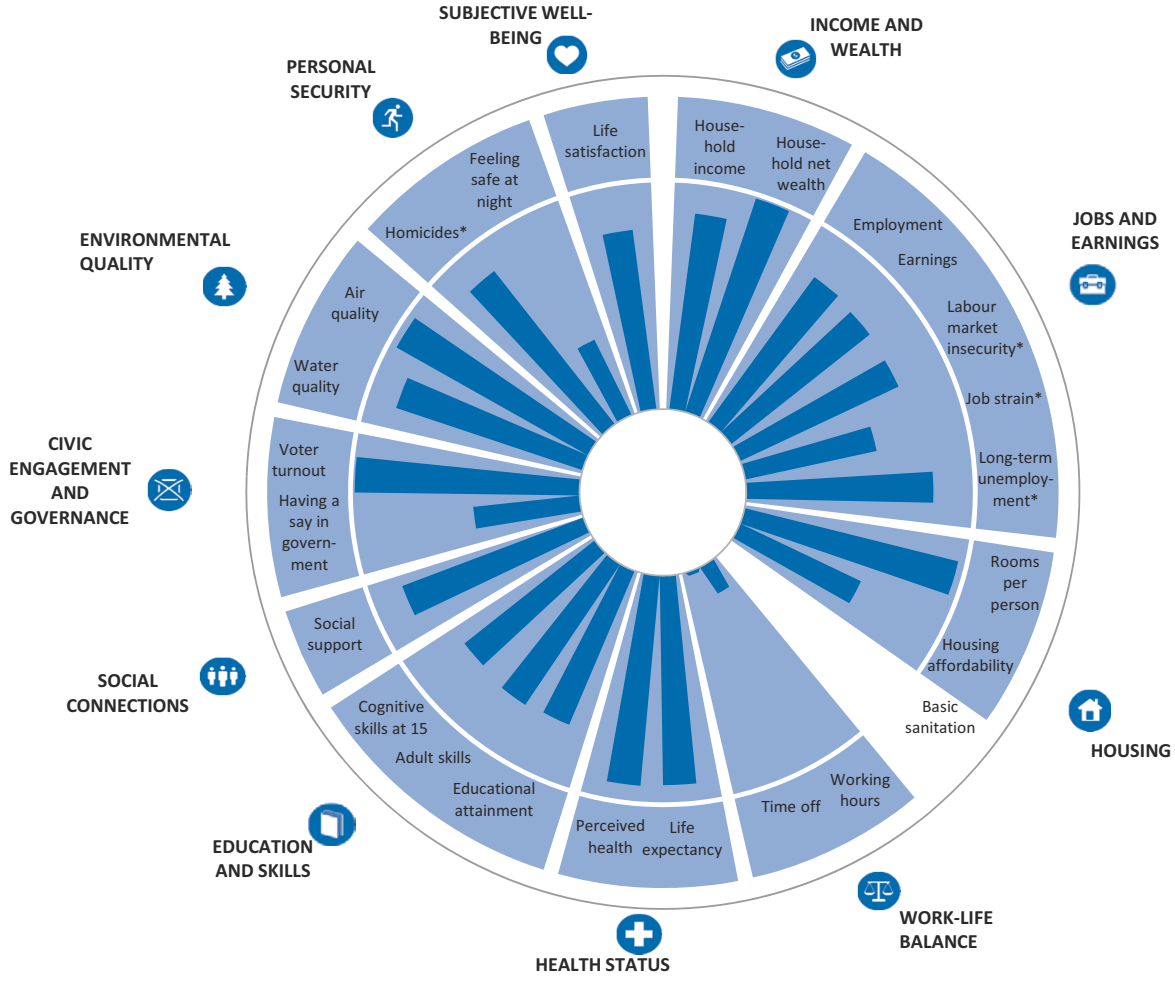
Tables 5.2-5.5 include a small number of changes made to the resources for future well-being indicator set since the 2015 edition of *How's Life?*:

- Under **natural capital**, *CO_2 emissions from domestic consumption* (drawn from the OECD Structural Indicators STAN database) have been added to the dashboard, as a complement to *greenhouse gas emissions from domestic production*. When read together, the two measures make it possible to assess whether a country is succeeding in reducing both its domestic emissions from producing goods and services domestically (wherever these may be consumed), and the emissions associated with its overall consumption patterns (which can embody emissions produced both at home and abroad, as in the case of imported goods).
- Also under **natural capital**, the air quality measure *exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution* now draws on new estimates from the OECD Environment Directorate, developed for use as a headline measure in the *Green Growth Indicators* project (OECD, 2017b). This is shown as a 3-year rolling average, due to the volatility in the estimates. The same change has been made in the headline indicators of current well-being.
- Among the **economic capital** indicators, *household net financial wealth* per capita (sourced from the OECD National Accounts database) has been replaced by *household net wealth* per household (from the OECD Wealth Distribution database). This is consistent with the change made to the headline indicators of current well-being.
- For **social capital**, *volunteering through organisations* (sourced from the OECD Study on Adult Skills) has been added as an investment factor. This reflects work to develop the statistical agenda on measures of volunteering, as reported in Chapter 5 of *How's Life? 2015* (OECD, 2015c), "The value of giving: Volunteering and well-being".

HOW'S LIFE IN AUSTRALIA?

In general, Australia performs well across the different well-being dimensions relative to other OECD countries. **Air quality** is among the best in the OECD, and average **household net adjusted disposable income** and **household net wealth** were among the highest in the OECD in 2015 and 2014 respectively. Despite a good performance in jobs and earnings, Australia lies below the OECD average in terms of work-life balance: Australian full-time employees reported having 30 minutes less **time off** (i.e. time spent on leisure and personal care) than those in other OECD countries, and more than 13% of employees **regularly worked 50 hours or more per week** in 2016. In terms of personal security, despite the comparatively low **homicide** rate, only 64% of Australians felt **safe walking alone at night**, compared to the OECD average of 69% in the period 2014-16. A high share of Australians report good levels of **perceived health,** although these data are not directly comparable with those of the other OECD countries, due to a difference in the reporting scale.

Figure 5.1. **Australia's average level of current well-being: Comparative strengths and weaknesses**



Note: This chart shows Australia's relative strengths and weaknesses in well-being when compared with other OECD countries. For both positive and negative indicators (such as homicides, marked with an "*"), longer bars always indicate better outcomes (i.e. higher well-being), whereas shorter bars always indicate worse outcomes (lower well-being). If data are missing for any given indicator, the relevant segment of the circle is shaded in white.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933598871

Change in Australia's average well-being over the past 10 years

Dimension	Description	Change
Income and wealth	Household net adjusted disposable income has increased considerably in Australia over the past decade. After rising sharply from 2005 to 2008, it fell during the first year of the financial crisis before recovering up until 2011, when growth took another hit. It stabilised since then at one of the highest levels in the OECD. Household net wealth meanwhile grew by 10% cumulatively between 2012 and 2014.	⇗ ⇗
Jobs and earnings	Earnings in Australia are currently 10% higher (in real terms) than in 2005, but there has been a slight decline in recent years following a peak in 2011-2012. Although employment rates have remained relatively stable, other jobs indicators have all worsened since 2008: the share of people experiencing job strain increased by 3 percentage points; labour market insecurity remains as high as it was at the peak of the crisis; and long-term unemployment has doubled since 2007.	⇗ ⇔ ⇘ ⇘ ⇘
Housing conditions	Despite a sharp drop in 2008, housing costs (as a proportion of disposable income) have risen and are now 1 percentage point higher than a decade ago. The number of rooms per person has remained relatively stable at 2.3, which is the fourth highest in the OECD.	⇘ ⇔
Work-life balance	The share of employees working 50 hours or more per week in Australia has fallen by 2.1 percentage points in the past decade, a steeper fall than the 0.9 recorded for the OECD on average.	⇗
Health status	While life expectancy at birth has improved consistently in Australia since 2005, the 1.6 years gained is slightly below the OECD average increase. Self-reported health has remained relatively stable, with 85% of adults reporting to be in "good" or "very good" health from 2007 to 2014.	⇗ ⇔
Education and skills	The 10-year change in upper secondary educational attainment cannot be assessed due to a recent break in the data. However, between 2014 and 2016, attainment rates in Australia increased by 2.8 percentage points.	⇗
Social connections	The share of people who have relatives or friends whom they can count on to help in case of need has remained reasonably stable in the past 10 years.	⇔
Civic engagement	Despite compulsory voting, voter turnout (among the population registered to vote) has fallen by 4 percentage points between the 2007 and 2016 parliamentary elections.	⇘
Environmental quality	The share of the population exposed to fine particulate matter ($PM_{2.5}$) air pollution has been stable in Australia since 2009, after having improved slightly between 2005 and 2009. Satisfaction with local water quality has improved since 2005 by 5.6 percentage points.	⇔ ⇗
Personal security	The number of deaths due to assault was stably low in Australia from 2006 to 2014. The proportion of people who report feeling safe when walking alone at night has also remained reasonably stable.	⇔ ⇔
Subjective well-being	Life satisfaction in Australia has remained broadly stable and at relatively high levels over the past decade.	⇔

Note: For each indicator in every dimension: ⇗ refers to an improvement; ⇔ indicates little or no change; and ⇘ signals deterioration. This is based on a comparison of the starting year (2005 in most cases) and the latest available year (usually 2015 or 2016). The order of the arrows shown in column three corresponds to that of the indicators mentioned in column two.

Australia's resources and risks for future well-being: Illustrative indicators

Natural capital

Indicator	Tier	Change	
Greenhouse gas emissions from domestic production	❸	↗	2005-2015
CO_2 emissions from domestic consumption	❸	↘	2001-2011
Exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution	❶	⇔	2005-2013
Forest area	❶	↘	2005-2014
Renewable freshwater resources	❶	..	Long-term annual average
Freshwater abstractions	❷	..	2011
Threatened birds	❶	..	Latest available
Threatened mammals	❸	..	Latest available
Threatened plants	❶	..	Latest available

Human capital

Indicator	Tier	Change	
Young adult educational attainment	❷	↗	2014-2016
Educational expectancy	❶	..	2015
Cognitive skills at age 15	❷	..	2015
Adult skills	❷	..	2011/2012
Long-term unemployment	❷	↘	2005-2016
Life expectancy at birth	❶	↗	2005-2015
Smoking prevalence	❶	↗	2007-2016
Obesity prevalence	❸	↘	2007-2014

Economic capital

Indicator	Tier	Change	
Produced fixed assets	❶	↗	2005-2015
Gross fixed capital formation	❸	↘	2005-2015
Financial net worth of total economy	❸	↘	2005-2015
Intellectual property assets	❷	↗	2005-2015
Investment in R&D	❸	⇔	2005-2015
Household debt	❸	↘	2005-2015
Household net wealth	❶	↗	2012-2014
Financial net worth of government	❶	↘	2005-2016
Banking sector leverage	❶	⇔	2005-2016

Social capital

Indicator	Tier	Change	
Trust in the national government	❷	↘	2005-2016
Voter turnout	❶	↘	2007-2016
Government stakeholder engagement	❶	..	2014
Volunteering through organisations	❶	..	2011/2012
No data available on trust in others and trust in the police.			

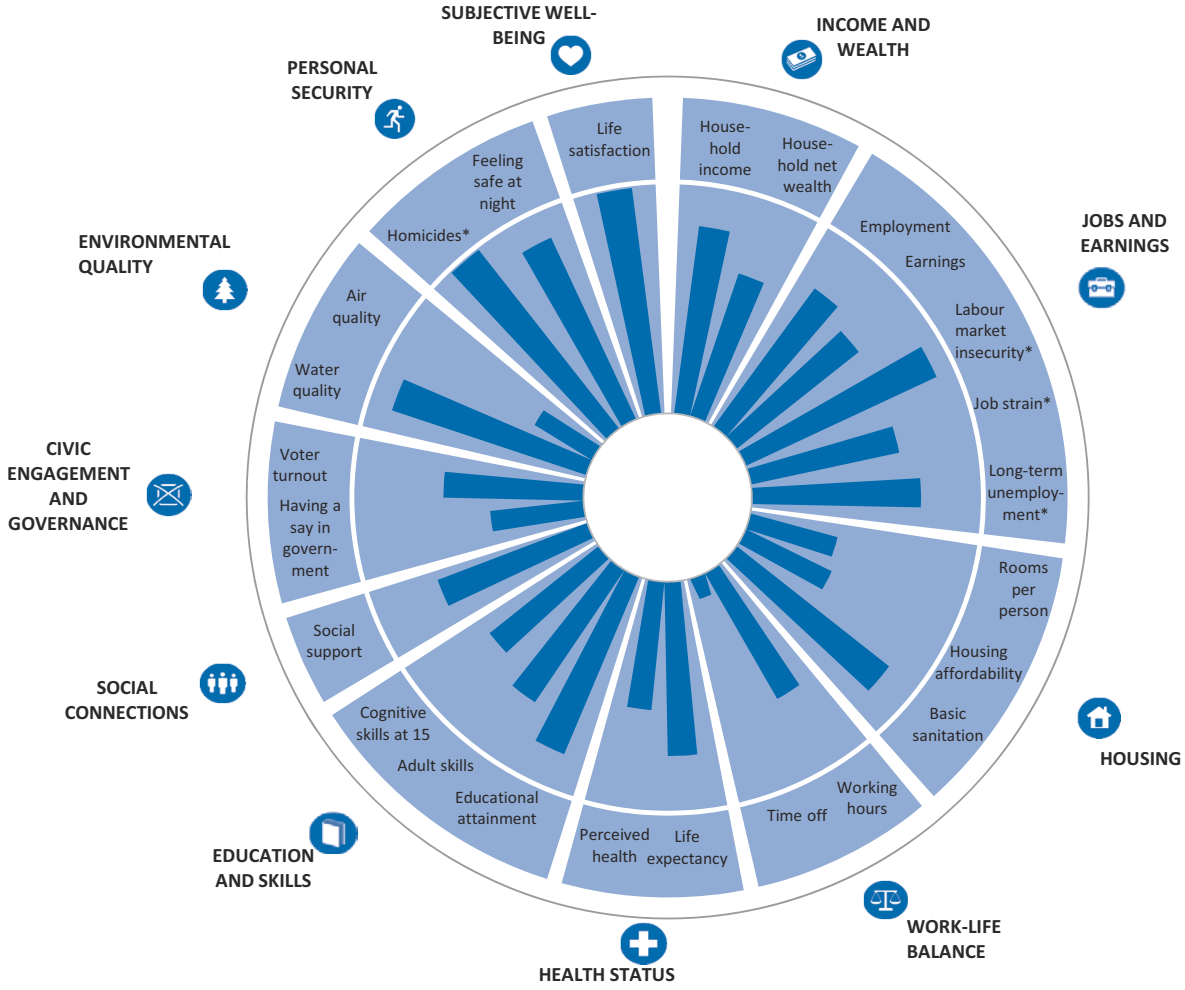
❶	Top-performing OECD tier, latest available year
❷	Middle-performing OECD tier, latest available year
❸	Bottom-performing OECD tier, latest available year

↗	Improving over time
↘	Worsening over time
⇔	No change
..	No data available

HOW'S LIFE IN AUSTRIA?

Austria performs close to the OECD average in many well-being dimensions, and exceeds it in several cases. For example, in 2015, **household net adjusted disposable income** was in the top tier of the OECD, and **labour market insecurity** was relatively low. However, Austrian full-time employees reported having less **time off** (i.e. time spent on leisure and personal care) than in most other OECD countries. While on average 93% of Austrians were satisfied with **water quality** in the period 2014-16, **air quality** (assessed in terms of $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution) was among the bottom tier of OECD countries. In terms of health status, 70% of Austrians **perceived their health** as "good" or "very good", close to the OECD average of 69%, and **life expectancy at birth** is 81 years, one year more than the OECD average. **Personal security** and **life satisfaction** are also areas of comparative strength, with Austria falling in the top third of OECD countries across these measures.

Figure 5.2. **Austria's average level of current well-being: Comparative strengths and weaknesses**



Note: This chart shows Austria's relative strengths and weaknesses in well-being when compared with other OECD countries. For both positive and negative indicators (such as homicides, marked with an "*"), longer bars always indicate better outcomes (i.e. higher well-being), whereas shorter bars always indicate worse outcomes (lower well-being). If data are missing for any given indicator, the relevant segment of the circle is shaded in white.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933598890

Change in Austria's average well-being over the past 10 years

Dimension	Description	Change
Income and wealth	In Austria, household net adjusted disposable income is, in real terms, at a level very similar to that in 2005. Over the decade, it peaked in 2008 and has gradually fallen since, despite some recovery in 2012. Household net wealth remained relatively stable between 2010 and 2014 in Austria.	⇔ ⇔
Jobs and earnings	After a sharp increase from 2005 to 2008, the employment rate has risen steadily since 2009, and is now 4 percentage points higher than in 2005. Although earnings have also risen, they peaked in 2009, fell slightly during the crisis, and resumed growth in 2012. Labour market insecurity and long-term unemployment levels have both climbed since 2005, and while the former has shown signs of progress in recent years, the latter has gone up by more than half since reaching its lowest point of the decade in 2008. The share of employees experiencing job strain has remained relatively stable over the past decade.	⇗ ⇗ ⇘ ⇘ ⇔
Housing conditions	The number of rooms per person in Austria has decreased very slightly since 2005-10, and remains just below the OECD average. Housing has become less affordable since 2005, with the share of household disposable income spent on housing costs up by 1 percentage point. The percentage of people living without basic sanitary facilities has meanwhile remained stably low at just 1%.	⇘ ⇘ ⇔
Work-life balance	Over the past decade there has been a large fall in the percentage of employees working 50 hours or more per week, from 11% in 2005 to 6.8% in 2016.	⇗
Health status	Despite a slight fall between 2014 and 2015, life expectancy at birth has increased overall by 1.9 years since 2005. On the other hand, perceived health status has remained relatively stable over the past decade.	⇗ ⇔
Education and skills	The share of adults with at least an upper secondary level of education increased at a steady pace, with current levels 7.6 percentage points higher than in 2005.	⇗
Social connections	The percentage of people who have relatives or friends whom they can count on to help in case of need is, at 91%, similar to the level reported 10 years previously.	⇔
Civic engagement	Voter turnout among the population registered to vote decreased by almost 4 percentage points between the 2006 and 2013 parliamentary elections in Austria.	⇘
Environmental quality	The percentage of people satisfied with local water quality in Austria has been among the highest in the OECD over the last decade, with little change since 2005. Between 2005 and 2011, air pollution in Austria showed signs of sustained improvement, with levels of exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations falling by 8%. However, they have since picked up again, almost returning to the previous (2005) high.	⇔ ⇔
Personal security	The rate of deaths due to assault has halved in Austria compared to 2005. The proportion of people who feel safe when walking alone at night has increased gradually, from 75% in 2005-2007 to 81% in 2014-16.	⇗ ⇗
Subjective well-being	Current life satisfaction levels in Austria are very similar to those reported a decade earlier. Despite a cumulative improvement of 0.4 scale points (on a 0-10 scale) up to 2013, this indicator has since dropped back to 2005 levels in the last 3 years.	⇔

Note: For each indicator in every dimension: ⇗ refers to an improvement; ⇔ indicates little or no change; and ⇘ signals deterioration. This is based on a comparison of the starting year (2005 in most cases) and the latest available year (usually 2015 or 2016). The order of the arrows shown in column three corresponds to that of the indicators mentioned in column two.

Austria's resources and risks for future well-being: Illustrative indicators

Natural capital			
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**	
Greenhouse gas emissions from domestic production	2	↗	2005-2015
CO_2 emissions from domestic consumption	3	⇔	2001-2011
Exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution	3	⇔	2005-2013
Forest area	2	⇔	2005-2014
Renewable freshwater resources	2	..	Long-term annual average
Threatened birds	3	..	Latest available
Threatened mammals	3	..	Latest available
Threatened plants	3	..	Latest available
No data available on freshwater abstractions.			

Human capital			
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**	
Young adult educational attainment	2	↗	2015-2016
Educational expectancy	2	..	2015
Cognitive skills at age 15	2	..	2015
Adult skills	2	..	2011/2012
Long-term unemployment	2	↘	2005-2016
Life expectancy at birth	2	↗	2005-2015
Smoking prevalence	3	↘	2006-2014
Obesity prevalence	1	↘	2006-2014

Economic capital			
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**	
Produced fixed assets	1	↗	2005-2015
Gross fixed capital formation	1	↗	2005-2016
Financial net worth of total economy	2	↗	2005-2016
Intellectual property assets	1	↗	2005-2015
Investment in R&D	1	↗	2005-2015
Household debt	2	⇔	2005-2015
Household net wealth	1	⇔	2010-2014
Financial net worth of government	2	↘	2005-2015
Banking sector leverage	1	⇔	2005-2015

Social capital			
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**	
Trust in others	2	..	2013
Trust in the police	1	..	2013
Trust in the national government	2	↘	2005-2016
Voter turnout	2	↘	2006-2013
Government stakeholder engagement	3	..	2014
Volunteering through organisations	1	..	2011/2012

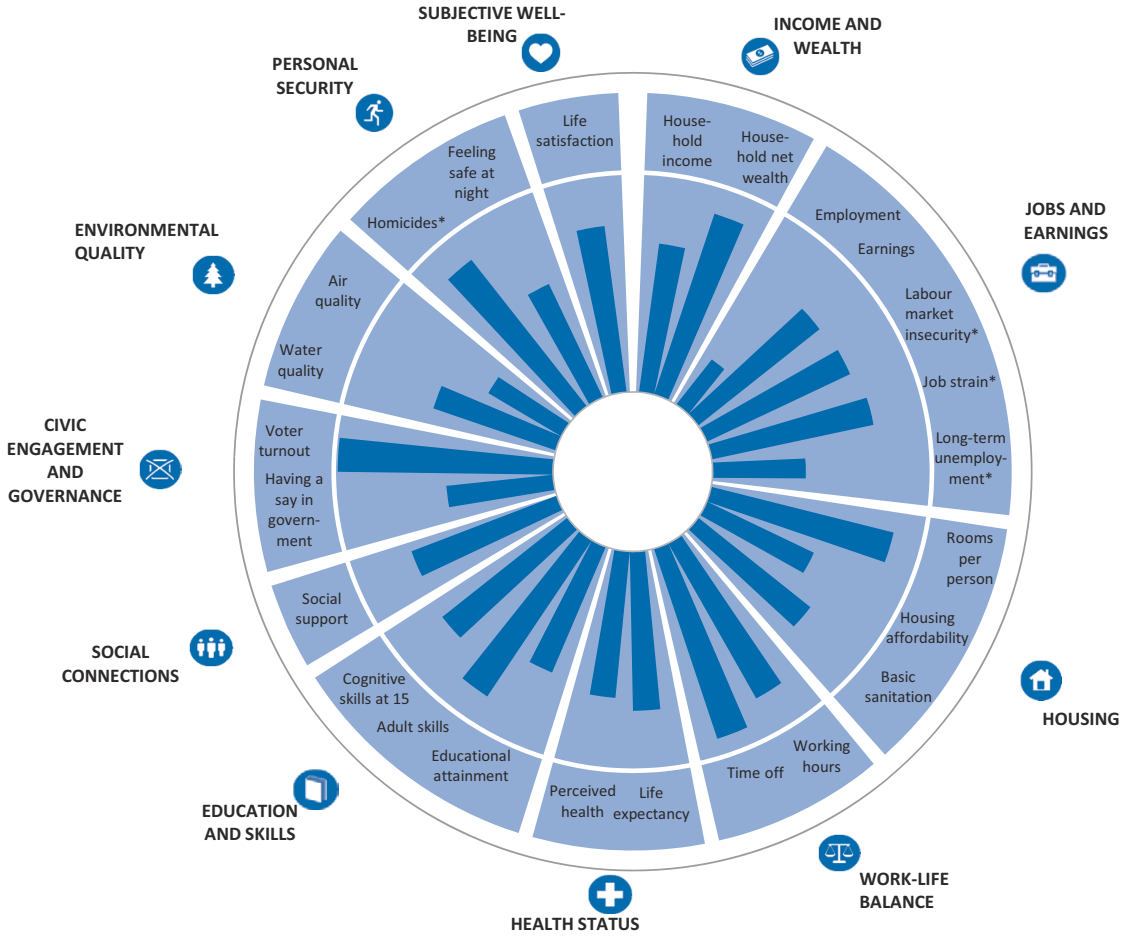
1	Top-performing OECD tier, latest available year
2	Middle-performing OECD tier, latest available year
3	Bottom-performing OECD tier, latest available year

↗	Improving over time
↘	Worsening over time
⇔	No change
..	No data available

HOW'S LIFE IN BELGIUM?

Relative to other countries, Belgium performs above or close to the OECD average across the different well-being dimensions. **Household net adjusted disposable income** and **household net wealth** were among the top third in the OECD in 2015 and 2014 respectively. While both job strain and labour market insecurity are comparatively low in Belgium, in 2016 the **employment rate** stood at 62%, 5 percentage points lower than the OECD average, and the **long-term unemployment rate** was 4%, double the OECD average rate. In terms of work-life balance, the **time off** (i.e. time spent on leisure and personal care) of full-time employees is among the top tier in the OECD area, and only 4% of employees regularly **worked 50 hours or more per week** in 2016, less than one-third of the OECD average. While **air quality** in Belgium is close to the OECD average level, 84% of Belgians reported feeling satisfied with the **quality of the water** in the period 2014-16, slightly higher than the OECD average (79%). Belgium's personal security, **social support** and **life satisfaction** also stand slightly above the OECD average.

Figure 5.3. **Belgium's average level of current well-being: Comparative strengths and weaknesses**



Note: This chart shows Belgium's relative strengths and weaknesses in well-being when compared with other OECD countries. For both positive and negative indicators (such as homicides, marked with an "*"), longer bars always indicate better outcomes (i.e. higher well-being), whereas shorter bars always indicate worse outcomes (lower well-being). If data are missing for any given indicator, the relevant segment of the circle is shaded in white.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933598909

Change in Belgium's well-being over the past 10 years

Dimension	Description	Change
Income and wealth	Household net adjusted disposable income increased steadily, by 5%, from 2005 to 2009, in line with the OECD average cumulative gain over the same period. Since then it has gradually decreased, to a level just 2% higher (in real terms) than in 2005. Household net wealth was 7% higher in 2014 than in 2010, in real terms.	⇔ ↗
Jobs and earnings	The employment rate is 1.2 percentage points higher than in 2005, just below its 2008 peak. Despite an overall increase of 2% (in real terms) in the past ten years, average earnings fell slightly between 2015 and 2016. Labour market insecurity in 2015 was higher than in 2007, yet below its 2009 level. At 28%, the share of employees experiencing job strain is similar to the level in 2005 (having peaked at 36% in 2010). By contrast, long-term unemployment has improved from 4.4% to 4% over the decade.	↗ ↗ ↘ ⇔ ↗
Housing conditions	In Belgium, the proportion of rooms per person has remained stable over the past decade, slightly above the OECD average. However, housing has become less affordable, with the proportion of disposable income spent on it rising from 19.7% in 2005 to 20.5% in 2015. Belgium is one of few OECD countries where the percentage of people living in dwellings without basic sanitary facilities has increased since 2005.	⇔ ↘ ↘
Work-life balance	At 4.3%, the share of employees working 50 hours or more per week in 2016 was very similar to the level reported in 2005.	⇔
Health status	The 10-year change in life expectancy at birth in Belgium cannot be assessed, due to a recent break in the data. However, between 2011 and 2015, it remained relatively stable (having risen slightly up to 2014, then fallen in 2015). The percentage of adults reporting to be in "good" or "very good" health also remained relatively stable between 2005 and 2015.	⇔ ⇔
Education and skills	The 10-year change in upper secondary educational attainment cannot be assessed, due to a recent break in the data. However, between 2014 and 2016, attainment rates in Belgium increased by 1.5 percentage points.	↗
Social connections	In Belgium, there has been very little change over the last decade in the percentage of people who have relatives or friends whom they can count on to help in case of need. This is contrary to the OECD average trend, which has decreased slightly (by 3.1 percentage points) over the same period.	⇔
Civic engagement	At 89%, voter turnout in the 2014 federal elections increased very slightly compared to 2010, but was still marginally below the 91% turnout in 2007. This is in line with the OECD average trend, which has seen voter turnout decrease by 2.4 percentage points over the past decade.	↘
Environmental quality	Satisfaction with local water quality in Belgium in recent years is very similar to the levels seen 10 years earlier. Exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution has improved by 7% overall since 2005, despite a sharp increase from 2008 to 2009.	⇔ ↗
Personal security	Although the number of deaths due to assault has gradually decreased over the last 10 years, feelings of safety when walking alone at night have remained relatively stable in Belgium.	↗ ⇔
Subjective well-being	In Belgium, there is tentative evidence of a slight fall in life satisfaction since 2005, but current levels are still above the OECD average.	↘

Note: For each indicator in every dimension: ↗ refers to an improvement; ⇔ indicates little or no change; and ↘ signals deterioration. This is based on a comparison of the starting year (2005 in most cases) and the latest available year (usually 2015 or 2016). The order of the arrows shown in column three corresponds to that of the indicators mentioned in column two.

Belgium's resources and risks for future well-being: Illustrative indicators

Natural capital		
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**
Greenhouse gas emissions from domestic production	2	↗ 2005-2015
CO_2 emissions from domestic consumption	3	↘ 2001-2011
Exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution	2	↗ 2005-2013
Forest area	3	⇔ 2005-2014
Renewable freshwater resources	3	.. Long-term annual average
Freshwater abstractions	2	.. 2013
Threatened birds	2	.. Latest available
Threatened mammals	2	.. Latest available
Threatened plants	3	.. Latest available

Human capital		
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**
Young adult educational attainment	3	↗ 2014-2016
Educational expectancy	1	.. 2015
Cognitive skills at age 15	2	.. 2015
Adult skills	1	.. 2011/2012
Long-term unemployment	3	↗ 2005-2016
Life expectancy at birth	2	⇔ 2011-2015
Smoking prevalence	2	↗ 2008-2014
Obesity prevalence	1	⇔ 2008-2014

Economic capital		
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**
Produced fixed assets	2	↗ 2005-2014
Gross fixed capital formation	2	↘ 2005-2016
Financial net worth of total economy	1	↗ 2005-2016
Intellectual property assets	2	↗ 2005-2014
Investment in R&D	1	↗ 2005-2015
Household debt	2	↘ 2005-2015
Household net wealth	1	↗ 2010-2014
Financial net worth of government	3	↘ 2005-2016
Banking sector leverage	2	⇔ 2005-2016

Social capital		
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**
Trust in others	3	.. 2013
Trust in the police	2	.. 2013
Trust in the national government	2	↘ 2005-2016
Voter turnout	1	↘ 2007-2014
Government stakeholder engagement	2	.. 2014
Volunteering through organisations	2	.. 2011/2012

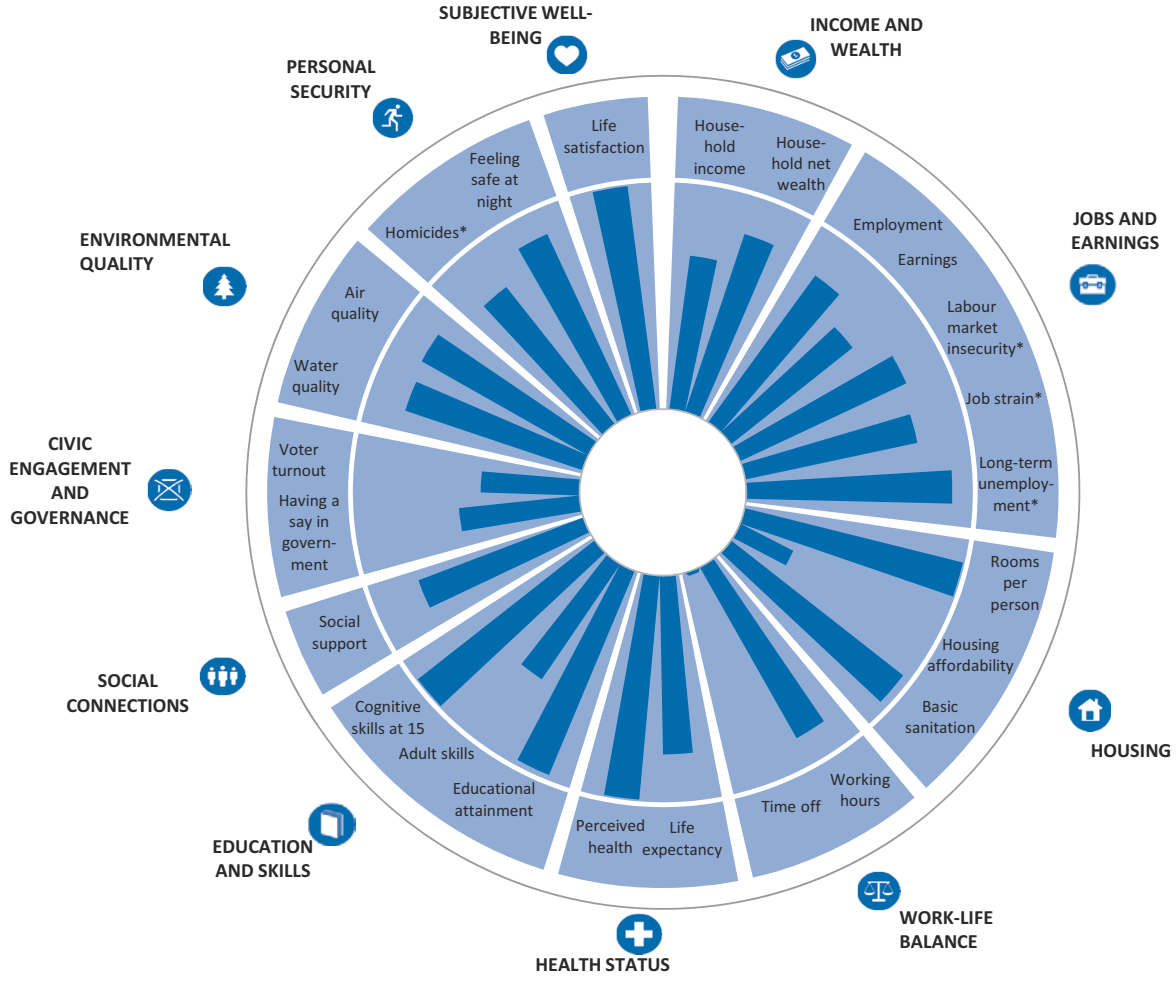
1	Top-performing OECD tier, latest available year
2	Middle-performing OECD tier, latest available year
3	Bottom-performing OECD tier, latest available year

↗	Improving over time
↘	Worsening over time
⇔	No change
..	No data available

HOW'S LIFE IN CANADA?

Canada typically performs above the OECD average level across most of the different well-being indicators shown below. It falls within the top tier of OECD countries on **household net wealth**, the **employment rate** is high (73% in 2016), the **long-term unemployment rate** is low (0.8% in 2016) and fewer than 4% of employees usually **work 50 hours or more per week**, less than a third of the OECD average rate. However, full-time employees on average reported having less **time off** (i.e. time spent on leisure and personal care) than those in most other OECD countries. Housing conditions are generally good, but **housing affordability** stood below the OECD average in 2016. The average Canadian enjoys relatively good **air** and **water quality**, and both **feelings of security** and **life satisfaction** are among the highest in the OECD area. A high share of Canadians also report good levels of **perceived health,** although these data are not directly comparable with those of the other OECD countries, due to a difference in the reporting scale.

Figure 5.4. **Canada's average level of current well-being: Comparative strengths and weaknesses**



Note: This chart shows Canada's relative strengths and weaknesses in well-being when compared with other OECD countries. For both positive and negative indicators (such as homicides, marked with an "*"), longer bars always indicate better outcomes (i.e. higher well-being), whereas shorter bars always indicate worse outcomes (lower well-being). If data are missing for any given indicator, the relevant segment of the circle is shaded in white.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933598928

Change in Canada's average well-being over the past 10 years

Dimension	Description	Change
Income and wealth	Household net adjusted disposable income has risen by 20% cumulatively over the past decade in Canada, overtaking the OECD average in 2013-2014.	⇗
Jobs and earnings	In 2016, the employment rate in Canada was very close to its 2005 level, having fallen sharply in 2009 and gradually recovered since. Average earnings have increased strongly, and are now 18% higher, in real terms, than in 2005. Like most OECD countries, in Canada labour market insecurity was higher in 2015 than in 2007, although there has been some improvement since the 2009 peak. Although starting from a low base, long-term unemployment doubled between 2008 and 2016, and stands above its 2005 levels.	⇔ ⇗ ⇘ ⇘
Housing conditions	The number of rooms per person has remained stable in the Canada over the past decade, and is the highest in the OECD. Housing affordability has slightly improved since 2005.	⇔ ⇗
Work-life balance	The proportion of employees working 50 hours or more per week has decreased gradually over the last 10 years, from 4.7% in 2005 to 3.7% in 2016.	⇗
Health status	Life expectancy at birth in Canada increased from 80.5 years in 2007 to 81.5 in 2012 (comparable data for 2005 and 2015 are not available). The share of adults reporting to be in good health has remained relatively stable since 2005, at around 88%.	⇗ ⇔
Education and skills	In line with the OECD average trend, the share of adults with at least an upper secondary level of education has increased from 85% in 2005 to 91% in 2016.	⇗
Social connections	The percentage of people who have relatives or friends whom they can count on to help in case of need has fallen slightly (from 96% to 93%) in the last 10 years in Canada.	⇘
Civic engagement	Voter turnout in parliamentary elections increased by nearly 4 percentage points in the last 10 years in Canada. This upward trend was particularly pronounced between the 2011 and 2015 federal elections, when the share of votes cast among the population registered to vote grew from 61% to 68%.	⇗
Environmental quality	The proportion of Canadians satisfied with their local water quality has risen from 87% to 91% over the last decade and is currently among the highest in the OECD. Annual exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution improved substantially between 2005 and 2008, and has remained relatively stable in recent years.	⇗ ⇗
Personal security	The rate of deaths due to assault fell in Canada from 2005 to 2012, whereas the share of people saying that they feel safe when walking alone at night increased by 4 percentage points over the decade – in line with the trend in over half of the OECD countries where data is available.	⇗ ⇗
Subjective well-being	Life satisfaction in Canada has been broadly unchanged over the past 10 years.	⇔

Note: For each indicator in every dimension: ⇗ refers to an improvement; ⇔ indicates little or no change; and ⇘ signals deterioration. This is based on a comparison of the starting year (2005 in most cases) and the latest available year (usually 2015 or 2016). The order of the arrows shown in column three corresponds to that of the indicators mentioned in column two.

Canada's resources and risks for future well-being: Illustrative indicators

Natural capital

Indicator	Tier	Change	
Greenhouse gas emissions from domestic production	❸	↗	2005-2015
CO_2 emissions from domestic consumption	❸	↘	2001-2011
Exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution	❶	↗	2005-2013
Forest area	❶	↘	2005-2014
Renewable freshwater resources	❶	..	Long-term annual average
Freshwater abstractions	❸	..	2013
Threatened birds	❶	..	Latest available
Threatened mammals	❷	..	Latest available
Threatened plants	❶	..	Latest available

Human capital

Indicator	Tier	Change	
Young adult educational attainment	❶	↗	2005-2016
Educational expectancy	❸	..	2015
Cognitive skills at age 15	❶	..	2015
Adult skills	❷	..	2011/2012
Long-term unemployment	❶	↘	2005-2016
Life expectancy at birth	❷	↗	2007-2012
Smoking prevalence	❶	↗	2005-2014
Obesity prevalence	❸	↘	2005-2013

Economic capital

Indicator	Tier	Change	
Produced fixed assets	❷	↗	2005-2016
Gross fixed capital formation	❸	↘	2005-2016
Financial net worth of total economy	❶	↗	2005-2015
Intellectual property assets	❷	↗	2005-2016
Investment in R&D	❸	↘	2005-2015
Household debt	❸	↘	2005-2016
Household net wealth	❶	..	2012
Financial net worth of government	❷	↘	2005-2016
Banking sector leverage	❶	⇔	2005-2016

Social capital

Indicator	Tier	Change	
Trust in the national government	❶	↗	2005-2016
Voter turnout	❷	↗	2006-2015
Government stakeholder engagement	❶	..	2014
Volunteering through organisations	❶	..	2011/2012
No data available on trust in others and trust in the police.			

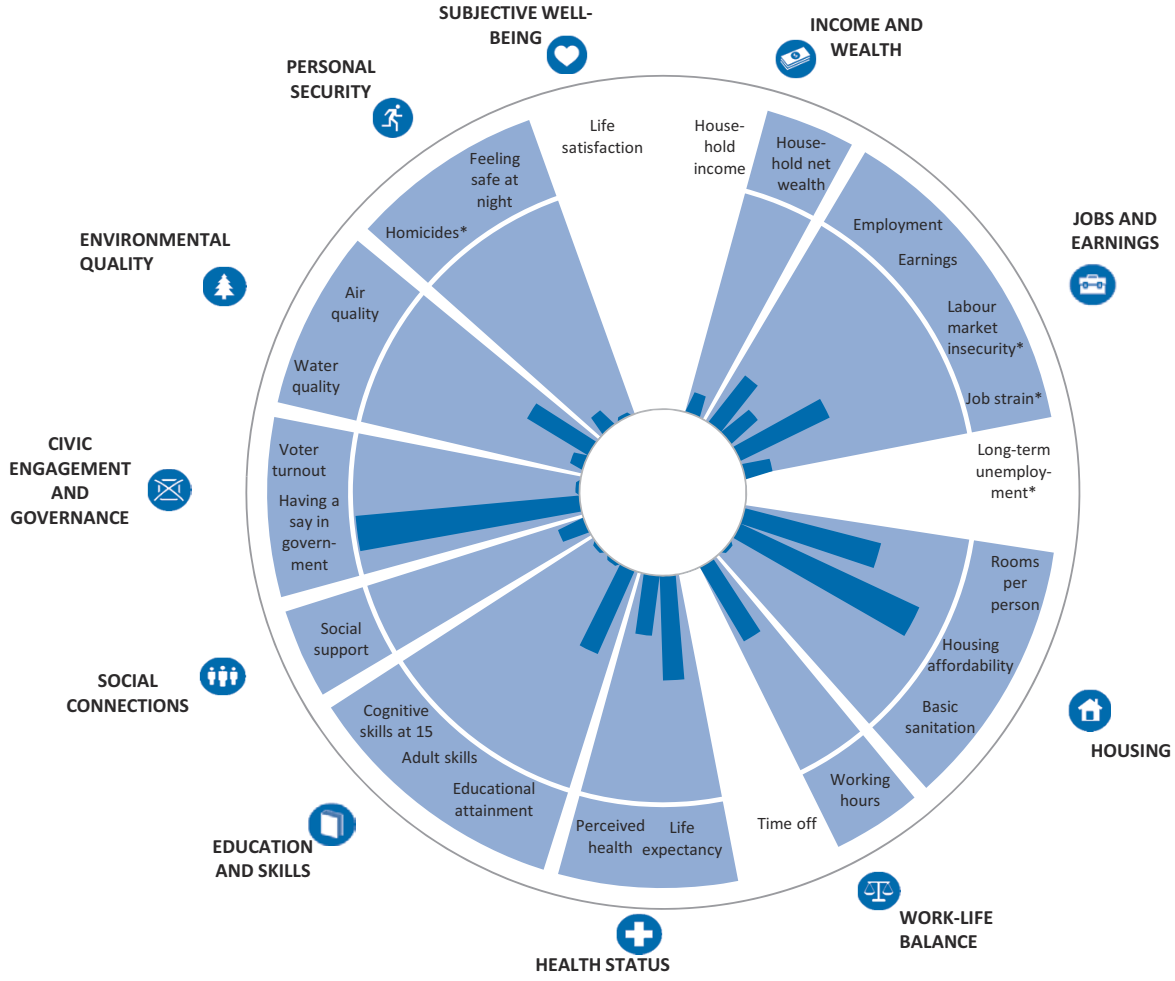
❶	Top-performing OECD tier, latest available year
❷	Middle-performing OECD tier, latest available year
❸	Bottom-performing OECD tier, latest available year

↗	Improving over time
↘	Worsening over time
⇔	No change
..	No data available

HOW'S LIFE IN CHILE?

Relative to other OECD countries, Chile has a mixed performance across the different well-being dimensions. Although performing well in terms of **housing affordability** and the number of **rooms per person**, a relatively high proportion of Chileans (9.4% in 2001) live in housing without basic sanitation. Only 69% are satisfied with their local **water quality**, one of the lowest shares in the OECD, and **air quality** in Chile is below the OECD average level. With voting no longer compulsory since 2012, **voter turnout** dropped sharply in the 2013 parliamentary elections, with only 49.4% of those registered to vote casting a ballot, the second lowest voter turnout rate in the OECD. However, almost 60% of Chileans feel that they **have a say in what the government does**, one of the highest shares in the OECD. Chile performs comparatively poorly in terms of personal safety: the **homicide rate** is in the top OECD tier, and only 51% of Chileans feel **safe walking alone at night**, one of the lowest shares in the OECD.

Figure 5.5. **Chile's average level of current well-being: Comparative strengths and weaknesses**



Note: This chart shows Chile's relative strengths and weaknesses in well-being when compared with other OECD countries. For both positive and negative indicators (such as homicides, marked with an "*"), longer bars always indicate better outcomes (i.e. higher well-being), whereas shorter bars always indicate worse outcomes (lower well-being). If data are missing for any given indicator, the relevant segment of the circle is shaded in white.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933598947

Change in Chile's average well-being over the past 10 years

Dimension	Description	Change
Income and wealth	Household net wealth grew by 41% cumulatively between 2011 and 2014.	⇗
Jobs and earnings	Earnings have improved consistently, and in 2016 were 25% higher than in 2005 (in real terms).The employment rate increased by 3 percentage points in 2010 but then stabilised from 2011 onwards.	⇗ ⇗
Housing conditions	Housing has become slightly less affordable in Chile in recent years, with the share of household income spent on housing costs rising from 18.1% in 2013 to 18.5% in 2015 (comparable data for 2005 to 2012 are not available).	⇘
Work-life balance	The percentage of employees working 50 hours or more per week in Chile fell from 17% in 2010 to around 10% in 2016.	⇗
Health status	Despite falling by more than half a year between 2014 and 2015, life expectancy at birth remains a year and a half higher than it was a decade ago in Chile. The share of adults reporting to be in "good" or "very good" health declined by 7 percentage points between 2013 and 2015 (the only 2 years for which comparable data are available).	⇗ ⇘
Education and skills	The 10-year change in upper secondary educational attainment cannot be assessed, due to a recent break in the data. However, between 2013 and 2015, attainment rates in Chile increased by 3.5 percentage points.	⇗
Social connections	In Chile, the share of people with friends or relatives whom they can count on to help in case of need remained relatively stable since 2005, whereas the OECD average has decreased by just over 3 percentage points.	⇔
Civic engagement	Voter turnout remained stable in Chile between the 2005 and 2009 presidential elections. In 2013, with voting no longer mandatory, the percentage of votes cast fell by almost 40 percentage points.	⇘
Environmental quality	The share of people who are satisfied with their local water quality fell by nearly 15 percentage points in Chile since the beginning of the past decade. Annual exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution in 2013 was similar to 2005 levels, and above the OECD average.	⇘ ⇔
Personal security	Compared to 2005, deaths due to assault have fallen by one-fifth in Chile. The share of the population feeling safe when walking alone at night has increased by 12 percentage points relative to 2005 levels – one of the largest increases in the OECD.	⇗ ⇗
Subjective well-being	Average levels of life satisfaction have increased from 5.9 (on a 0 to 10 scale) to 6.7 over the past decade.	⇗

Note: For each indicator in every dimension: ⇗ refers to an improvement; ⇔ indicates little or no change; and ⇘ signals deterioration. This is based on a comparison of the starting year (2005 in most cases) and the latest available year (usually 2015 or 2016). The order of the arrows shown in column three corresponds to that of the indicators mentioned in column two.

Chile's resources and risks for future well-being: Illustrative indicators

Natural capital		
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**
Greenhouse gas emissions from domestic production	1	↘ 2005-2013
CO_2 emissions from domestic consumption	1	↘ 2001-2011
Exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution	3	⇔ 2005-2013
Forest area	1	⇔ 2005-2014
Renewable freshwater resources	1	.. Long-term annual average
Threatened birds	1	.. Latest available
Threatened mammals	3	.. Latest available
No data available on freshwater abstractions and threatened plants.		

Human capital		
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**
Young adult educational attainment	3	↗ 2013-2015
Educational expectancy	2	.. 2015
Cognitive skills at age 15	3	.. 2015
Adult skills	3	.. 2014/2015
Life expectancy at birth	3	↗ 2005-2015
Smoking prevalence	3	.. 2009
Obesity prevalence	3	.. 2009
No data available on long-term unemployment.		

Economic capital		
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**
Gross fixed capital formation	3	↘ 2005-2016
Financial net worth of total economy	2	↘ 2005-2015
Household debt	1	↘ 2005-2015
Household net wealth	3	↗ 2011-2014
Financial net worth of government	1	↗ 2005-2016
Banking sector leverage	2	⇔ 2005-2016
No data available on produced fixed assets, intellectual property assets and investment in R&D.		

Social capital		
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**
Trust in the national government	2	↘ 2005-2016
Voter turnout	3	.. 2013
Government stakeholder engagement	3	.. 2014
Volunteering through organisations	2	.. 2014/2015
No data available on trust in others and trust in the police.		

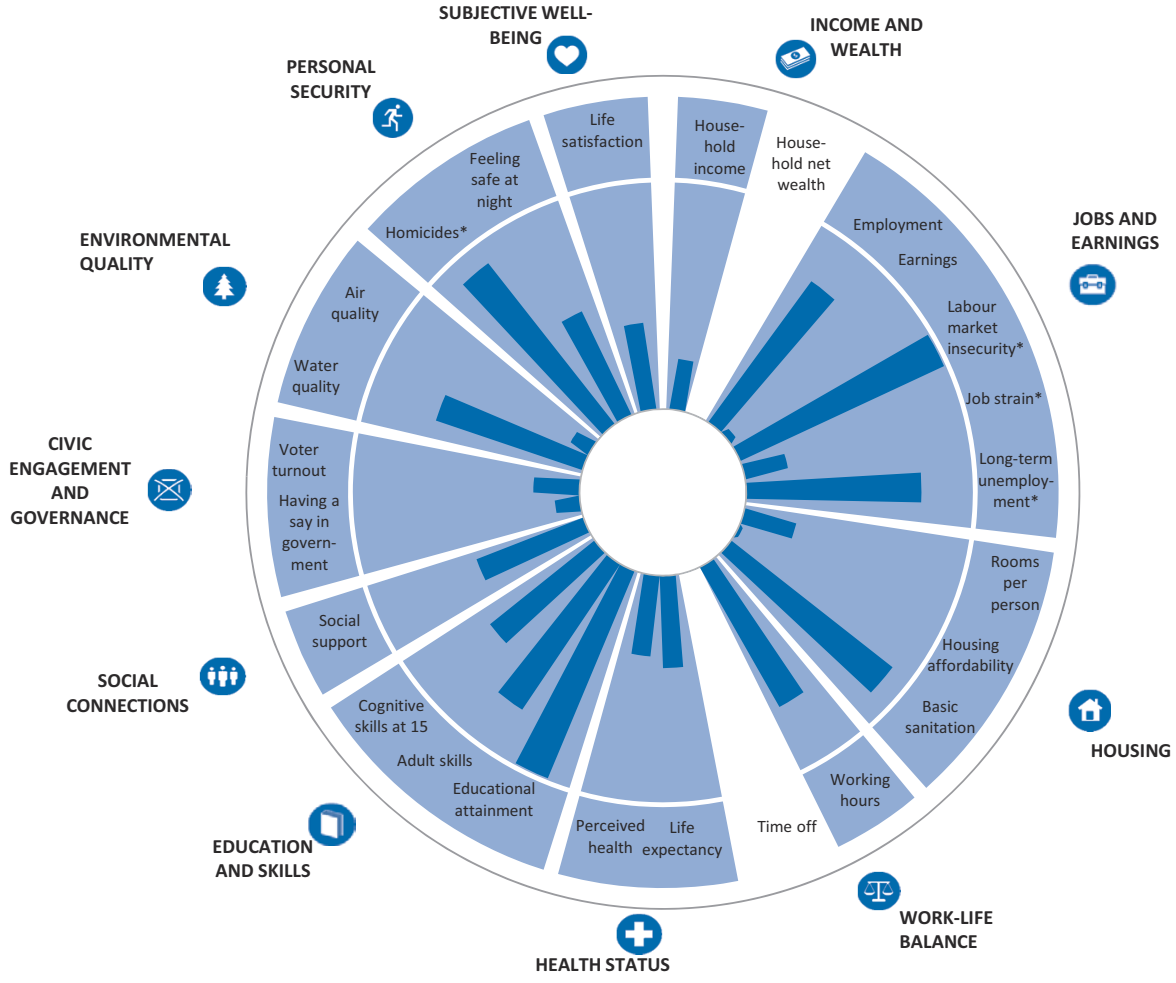
1	Top-performing OECD tier, latest available year
2	Middle-performing OECD tier, latest available year
3	Bottom-performing OECD tier, latest available year

↗	Improving over time
↘	Worsening over time
⇔	No change
..	No data available

HOW'S LIFE IN THE CZECH REPUBLIC?

Relative to other OECD countries, the Czech Republic has mixed outcomes across the different well-being dimensions. **Average earnings** are in the bottom tier of the OECD, and the average **household net adjusted disposable income** remains below the OECD average. However, the **employment rate** (72%) is above the OECD average (67%), and **labour market insecurity** is among the lowest in the OECD. **Life expectancy** at birth (79 years) is one year below the OECD average, and only 61% of Czech adults **perceive** their **health** as "good" or "very good", compared to 69% in the OECD on average. **Educational attainment** is the highest in the OECD: 93% of the Czech adult working-age population have attained at least an upper secondary education, compared to an OECD average of 75%. The Czech Republic also performs relatively well in terms of personal security. Although well below the OECD average, **life satisfaction** is among the highest in East European OECD countries.

Figure 5.6. **The Czech Republic's average level of current well-being: Comparative strengths and weaknesses**



Note: This chart shows the Czech Republic's relative strengths and weaknesses in well-being when compared with other OECD countries. For both positive and negative indicators (such as homicides, marked with an "*"), longer bars always indicate better outcomes (i.e. higher well-being), whereas shorter bars always indicate worse outcomes (lower well-being). If data are missing for any given indicator, the relevant segment of the circle is shaded in white.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933598966

Change in the Czech Republic's average well-being over the past 10 years

Dimension	Description	Change
Income and wealth	Household net adjusted disposable income in 2015 was 12% higher than in 2005 – more than the average cumulative gain for the OECD over the decade. This is despite a period of declining or stable levels from 2010 to 2013.	↗
Jobs and earnings	At 72%, the Czech employment rate in 2016 was 7 percentage points higher than in 2005. Earnings have increased steadily despite minor falls in 2009 and 2012, and are now 18% higher than in 2005. However, labour market insecurity has also increased by more than one-third. The long-term unemployment rate has improved, overall, in the last 10 years: despite a sharp rise in 2010, it now stands at around one-third of the 2005 level. Finally, the Czech Republic has witnessed one of the strongest improvements in the OECD in terms of job strain; while around 57% of employees experienced job strain in 2005, this has fallen to 46% in 2015.	↗ ↗ ↘ ↗ ↗
Housing conditions	The average number of rooms per person has risen over the past decade but is still slightly below the OECD average. Housing affordability worsened significantly between 2005 and 2010, but has remained stable in recent years. The percentage of people living in dwellings without basic sanitary facilities has been cut by one-third since 2005.	↗ ↘ ↗
Work-life balance	The percentage of employees working very long hours has steadily fallen since 2008, and is approximately one-third lower than it was a decade ago.	↗
Health status	Despite a small fall between 2014 and 2015, life expectancy in the Czech Republic has increased by two-and-a-half years overall since 2005. There has been little change in the percentage of adults reporting to be in "good" or "very good" health since 2005.	↗ ⇔
Education and skills	The 10-year change in upper secondary educational attainment cannot be assessed, due to a recent break in the data. However, between 2014 and 2016, attainment rates in the Czech Republic remained broadly stable at 93%.	⇔
Social connections	In the Czech Republic, there has been little variation in the share of people who report having relatives or friends whom they can count on to help in case of need over the last decade. This is in contrast with the OECD average trend, which decreased by 3.1 percentage points.	⇔
Civic engagement	Voter turnout has fallen more steeply than the OECD average in the last decade. The percentage of votes cast among the population registered to vote in legislative elections fell by 5 points from 2006 to 2013.	↘
Environmental quality	The percentage of Czechs satisfied with their local water quality is currently 9 points higher than 10 years ago. Air pollution in 2013 is close to the level recorded in 2005.	↗ ⇔
Personal security	Although the rate of deaths due to assault has remained relatively stable over the last 10 years, the share of people who report feeling safe when walking alone at night has improved significantly, from 53% to 68%.	⇔ ↗
Subjective well-being	The life satisfaction of the Czech people has remained broadly stable over the decade.	⇔

Note: For each indicator in every dimension: ↗ refers to an improvement; ⇔ indicates little or no change; and ↘ signals deterioration. This is based on a comparison of the starting year (2005 in most cases) and the latest available year (usually 2015 or 2016). The order of the arrows shown in column three corresponds to that of the indicators mentioned in column two.

The Czech Republic's resources and risks for future well-being: Illustrative indicators

Natural capital			
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**	
Greenhouse gas emissions from domestic production	3	↗	2005-2015
CO_2 emissions from domestic consumption	2	↗	2001-2011
Exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution	3	⇔	2005-2013
Forest area	2	⇔	2005-2014
Renewable freshwater resources	3	..	Long-term annual average
Freshwater abstractions	1	..	2015
Threatened birds	3	..	Latest available
Threatened mammals	2	..	Latest available
Threatened plants	3	..	Latest available

Human capital			
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**	
Young adult educational attainment	1	↘	2014-2016
Educational expectancy	2	..	2015
Cognitive skills at age 15	2	..	2015
Adult skills	2	..	2011/2012
Long-term unemployment	2	↗	2005-2016
Life expectancy at birth	3	↗	2005-2015
Smoking prevalence	2	↗	2005-2015
Obesity prevalence	2	↘	2005-2010

Economic capital			
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**	
Produced fixed assets	2	↗	2005-2016
Gross fixed capital formation	3	↘	2005-2016
Financial net worth of total economy	2	⇔	2005-2016
Intellectual property assets	2	↗	2005-2016
Investment in R&D	2	↗	2005-2016
Household debt	1	↘	2005-2015
Financial net worth of government	2	↘	2005-2015
Banking sector leverage	2	⇔	2005-2014
No data available on household net wealth.			

Social capital			
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**	
Trust in others	3	..	2013
Trust in the police	3	..	2013
Trust in the national government	2	↗	2005-2016
Voter turnout	3	↘	2006-2013
Government stakeholder engagement	1	..	2014
Volunteering through organisations	3	..	2011/2012

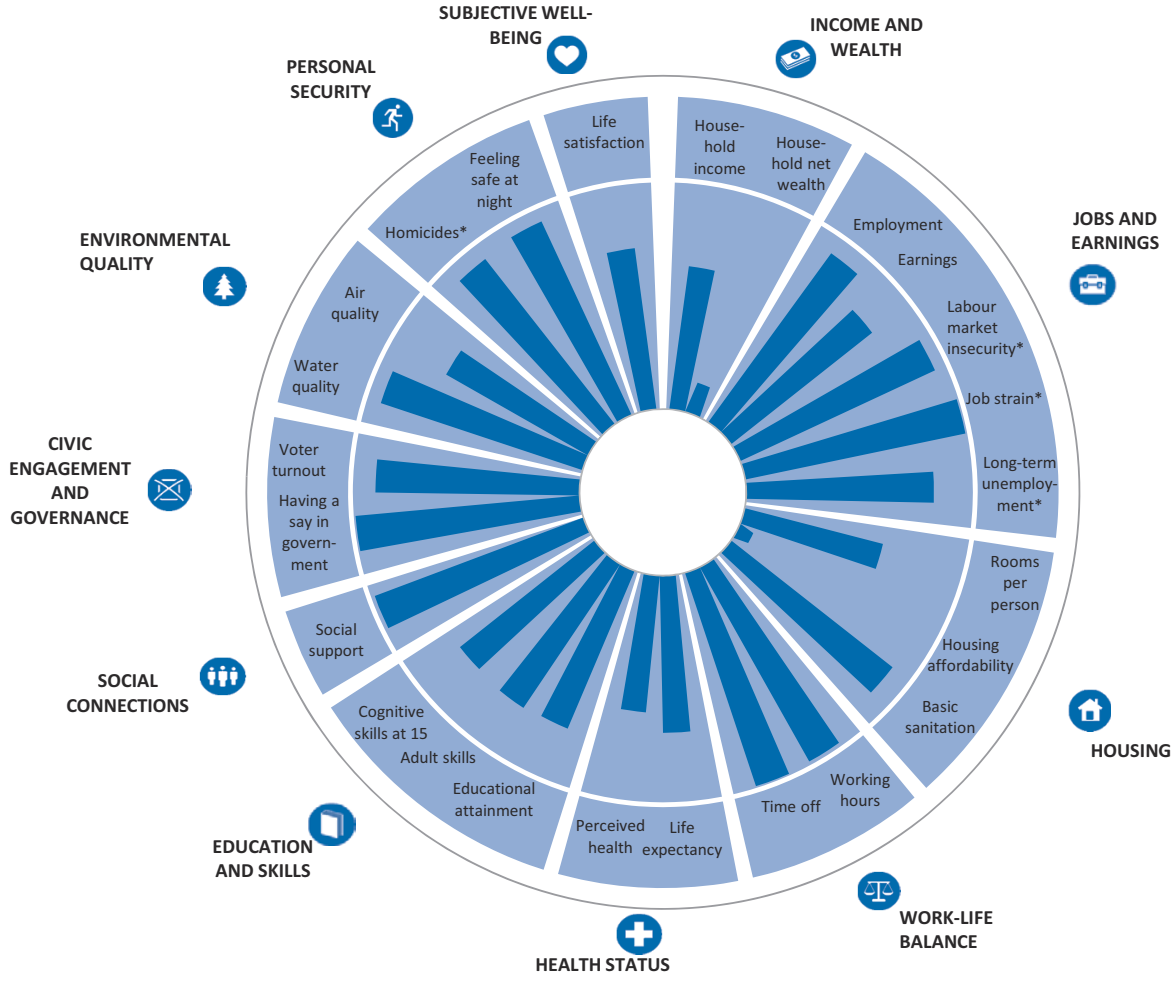
1	Top-performing OECD tier, latest available year
2	Middle-performing OECD tier, latest available year
3	Bottom-performing OECD tier, latest available year

↗	Improving over time
↘	Worsening over time
⇔	No change
..	No data available

HOW'S LIFE IN DENMARK?

Relative to other OECD countries, Denmark generally performs very well across the different well-being dimensions. Although **average household net adjusted disposable income** is just below the OECD average, Denmark is among the top tier of OECD countries in terms of both **earnings** and the **employment** rate. Denmark also benefits from low levels of both **labour market insecurity** and **job strain**, and only 2% of employees regularly **work very long hours**, one of the lowest percentages in the OECD. Civic engagement and governance is also an area of comparative strength: Denmark has both a high **voter turnout** and a high share of people who feel they **have a say in what the government does**. **Social support** is also very high, with 95% of people reporting that they have friends or relatives whom they can count on in times of trouble, compared to the OECD average of 89%. However, **housing affordability** is an area of weakness: the average household in Denmark spends 24% of its disposable income on housing costs, well above the OECD average of 21%.

Figure 5.7. **Denmark's average level of current well-being: Comparative strengths and weaknesses**



Note: This chart shows Denmark's relative strengths and weaknesses in well-being when compared with other OECD countries. For both positive and negative indicators (such as homicides, marked with an "*"), longer bars always indicate better outcomes (i.e. higher well-being), whereas shorter bars always indicate worse outcomes (lower well-being). If data are missing for any given indicator, the relevant segment of the circle is shaded in white.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933598985

Change in Denmark's average well-being over the past 10 years

Dimension	Description	Change
Income and wealth	Household net adjusted disposable income is currently 11% higher, in real terms, than in 2005, which is 3 points more than the OECD average cumulative gain in the last 10 years. However, the growth stalled from 2006 to 2008 and again from 2011 to 2013.	↗
Jobs and earnings	The employment rate in Denmark is 1 percentage point lower than in 2005; following a period of improvement, the rate slumped in 2008 and began to show signs of recovery only in 2014. Earnings improved consistently over the past decade, with a cumulative growth of 13%. By contrast, labour market insecurity and long-term unemployment worsened: both rose sharply during the crisis, and have not yet recovered fully. Job strain has remained reasonably stable since 2005, with around 21% of employees affected in 2015.	↘ ↗ ↘ ↘ ↔
Housing conditions	The average number of rooms per person in Denmark has remained stably high (at 1.9 in 2011-2015), but the share of households lacking basic sanitation has risen from zero to 0.5%. Housing affordability has also seen little change in the last decade, with the proportion of income spent on housing costs currently only 0.2 percentage point higher than in 2005.	↔ ↘ ↔
Work-life balance	The share of Danes who work very long hours (2%) is now less than half the 2005 level (6%). This is due to a large fall in the first half of the 10-year period, with levels remaining relatively stable since 2010.	↗
Health status	Life expectancy at birth surpassed the OECD average in 2011 and has grown by two-and-a-half years since 2005. By contrast, the share of people reporting to be in "good" or "very good" health has fallen by 5 percentage points.	↗ ↘
Education and skills	The 10-year change in upper secondary educational attainment cannot be assessed, due to a recent break in the data. However, between 2014 and 2016, attainment rates in Denmark increased by 1.2 percentage points.	↗
Social connections	The percentage of people who have relatives or friends whom they can count on to help in case of need has seen little change since 2005-07.	↔
Civic engagement	The percentage of votes cast among the population registered to vote has improved marginally since the start of the decade, from 85% in the 2005 parliamentary elections to 86% in 2015.	↗
Environmental quality	Consistent with the OECD average trend, there has been no major change in the level of satisfaction with local water quality since 2005. Annual exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution has improved over the past decade, and was one-third lower than the OECD average in 2013.	↔ ↗
Personal security	The homicide rate in Denmark has fallen by almost one-third compared to 2005, while feelings of safety are broadly similar to their level 10 years ago.	↗ ↔
Subjective well-being	People's life satisfaction has fallen gradually in Denmark during the last 10 years, from an average of 7.9 to 7.5 (measured on a 0-10 scale). This decline is twice as large as the OECD average change.	↘

Note: For each indicator in every dimension: ↗ refers to an improvement; ↔ indicates little or no change; and ↘ signals deterioration. This is based on a comparison of the starting year (2005 in most cases) and the latest available year (usually 2015 or 2016). The order of the arrows shown in column three corresponds to that of the indicators mentioned in column two.

Denmark's resources and risks for future well-being: Illustrative indicators

Natural capital		
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**
Greenhouse gas emissions from domestic production	2	↗ 2005-2015
CO_2 emissions from domestic consumption	2	↗ 2001-2011
Exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution	1	↗ 2005-2013
Forest area	3	⇔ 2005-2014
Renewable freshwater resources	3	.. Long-term annual average
Freshwater abstractions	1	.. 2014
Threatened birds	2	.. Latest available
Threatened mammals	1	.. Latest available
Threatened plants	1	.. Latest available

Human capital		
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**
Young adult educational attainment	3	↗ 2014-2016
Educational expectancy	1	.. 2015
Cognitive skills at age 15	2	.. 2015
Adult skills	2	.. 2011/2012
Long-term unemployment	1	↘ 2005-2016
Life expectancy at birth	2	↗ 2005-2015
Smoking prevalence	1	↗ 2010-2015
Obesity prevalence	1	↘ 2005-2014

Economic capital		
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**
Produced fixed assets	1	⇔ 2005-2015
Gross fixed capital formation	1	⇔ 2005-2016
Financial net worth of total economy	1	↗ 2005-2016
Intellectual property assets	1	↗ 2005-2015
Investment in R&D	1	↗ 2005-2014
Household debt	3	↘ 2005-2016
Household net wealth	3	.. 2015
Financial net worth of government	1	↗ 2005-2016
Banking sector leverage	1	⇔ 2005-2016

Social capital		
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**
Trust in others	1	.. 2013
Trust in the police	1	.. 2013
Trust in the national government	1	↘ 2005-2016
Voter turnout	1	↗ 2005-2015
Government stakeholder engagement	2	.. 2014
Volunteering through organisations	1	.. 2011/2012

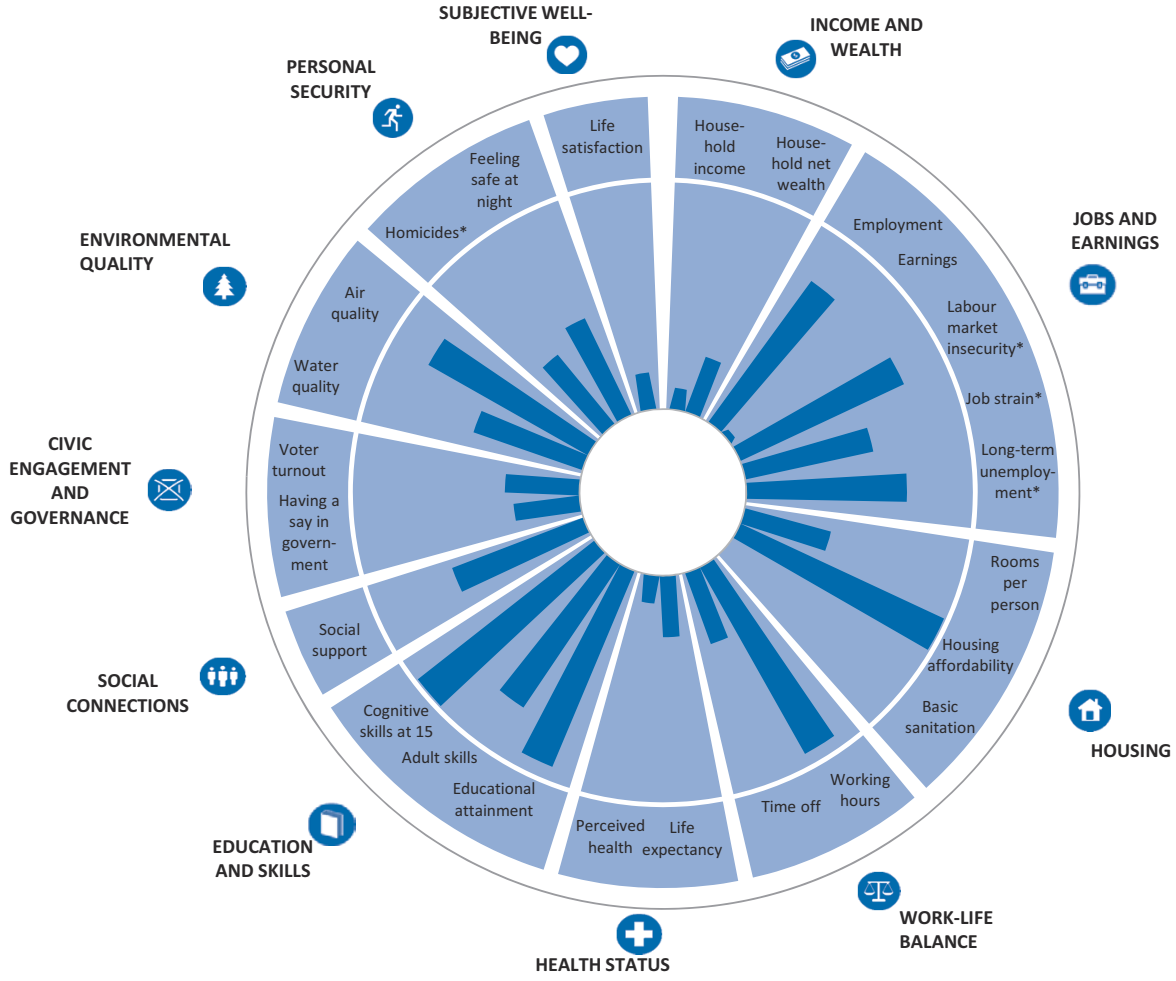
1	Top-performing OECD tier, latest available year
2	Middle-performing OECD tier, latest available year
3	Bottom-performing OECD tier, latest available year

↗	Improving over time
↘	Worsening over time
⇔	No change
..	No data available

HOW'S LIFE IN ESTONIA?

Relative to other OECD countries, Estonia's average performance across the different well-being dimensions is mixed. While it falls in the bottom tier of OECD countries on **household net adjusted disposable income**, the **employment rate** is 72% (compared to an OECD average of 67%), and only 3% of employees regularly **work very long hours** (less than one-quarter of the OECD average rate). **Housing affordability** is a comparative strength in Estonia, but almost 7% of people live in homes without **basic sanitation** (defined as homes without an indoor flushing toilet for the sole use of the household), which is higher than in most OECD countries. At 78 years, **life expectancy** at birth in Estonia is lower than the OECD average, and only around half of the population (51%) declare that their health is "good" or "very good". However, Estonia is among the OECD's top-performing countries in terms of both upper secondary **educational attainment** and **students' cognitive skills**. Conversely, **life satisfaction** in 2013 in Estonia was in the lowest third in the OECD.

Figure 5.8. **Estonia's average level of current well-being: Comparative strengths and weaknesses**



Note: This chart shows Estonia's relative strengths and weaknesses in well-being when compared with other OECD countries. For both positive and negative indicators (such as homicides, marked with an "*"), longer bars always indicate better outcomes (i.e. higher well-being), whereas shorter bars always indicate worse outcomes (lower well-being). If data are missing for any given indicator, the relevant segment of the circle is shaded in white.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933599004

Change in Estonia's average well-being over the past 10 years

Dimension	Description	Change
Income and wealth	Over the past decade, Estonia has experienced the strongest increase in household net adjusted disposable income in the OECD, with a cumulative increase of over one-third since 2005.	⇗
Jobs and earnings	Although the crisis had a heavy impact on jobs and earnings, its effects have started to wane. In 2016, the employment rate surpassed 2008 levels (reaching 72%, up from 64% in 2005), as did average annual earnings per full-time employee. Labour market insecurity worsened sharply in 2009 and has yet to improve fully, whereas long-term unemployment peaked in 2010 and has made a strong recovery in recent years. The incidence of job strain has lessened over the decade: around 34% of employees experienced job strain in 2015, down from 40% in 2005.	⇗ ⇗ ⇘ ⇗ ⇗
Housing conditions	In the past 10 years, Estonia has recorded a 35% increase in the number of rooms per person – the largest improvement in the OECD. Housing affordability has also improved significantly during the last decade. Finally, the share of people living in a home without basic sanitary facilities is 5 percentage points lower than 10 years ago.	⇗ ⇗ ⇗
Work-life balance	The share of employees working 50 hours or more weekly is lower than in most OECD countries, and has fallen from 5.1% in 2005 to 2.7% in 2016.	⇗
Health status	Estonia experienced the largest increase in life expectancy at birth among OECD countries between 2005 and 2015, with a gain of nearly 5 years. However, perceived health has remained relatively stable.	⇗ ⇔
Education and skills	The share of adults with at least an upper secondary education in Estonia is high, but has seen little change over the past decade.	⇔
Social connections	Social support in Estonia has increased, with the share of the population reporting that they have relatives or friends whom they can count on to help in case of need increasing from 85.4% to 90.5%, one of the largest improvements in the OECD.	⇗
Civic engagement	Contrary to the OECD average trend, voter turnout increased by 2.3 percentage points since 2007, to reach 64.2% in the 2015 parliamentary elections.	⇗
Environmental quality	Air pollution levels were slightly lower in 2013 than they were in 2005. Estonia is one of only a few OECD countries where satisfaction with local water quality has substantially improved over the past decade.	⇗ ⇗
Personal security	There have been clear signs of progress in personal security since 2005: the homicide rate has fallen by two-thirds in the last decade, and the proportion of people declaring that they feel safe when walking alone at night has increased by 11 percentage points.	⇗ ⇗
Subjective well-being	Although starting from a relatively low base, life satisfaction in Estonia is currently higher than it was in 2005.	⇗

Note: For each indicator in every dimension: ⇗ refers to an improvement; ⇔ indicates little or no change; and ⇘ signals deterioration. This is based on a comparison of the starting year (2005 in most cases) and the latest available year (usually 2015 or 2016). The order of the arrows shown in column three corresponds to that of the indicators mentioned in column two.

Estonia's resources and risks for future well-being: Illustrative indicators

Natural capital			
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**	
Greenhouse gas emissions from domestic production	❸	⇔	2005-2015
CO_2 emissions from domestic consumption	❷	⇗	2001-2011
Exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution	❶	⇗	2005-2015
Forest area	❶	⇔	2005-2014
Renewable freshwater resources	❷	..	Long-term annual average
Freshwater abstractions	❸	..	2015
Threatened birds	❶	..	Latest available
Threatened mammals	❶	..	Latest available
Threatened plants	❶	..	Latest available

Human capital			
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**	
Young adult educational attainment	❷	⇔	2005-2016
Educational expectancy	❸	..	2015
Cognitive skills at age 15	❶	..	2015
Adult skills	❷	..	2011/2012
Long-term unemployment	❷	⇗	2005-2016
Life expectancy at birth	❸	⇗	2005-2015
Smoking prevalence	❸	⇗	2006-2016
Obesity prevalence	❷	⇘	2006-2016

Economic capital			
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**	
Produced fixed assets	❸	⇗	2005-2014
Gross fixed capital formation	❸	⇘	2005-2016
Financial net worth of total economy	❷	⇗	2005-2016
Intellectual property assets	❸	⇗	2005-2014
Investment in R&D	❸	⇗	2005-2014
Household debt	❶	⇘	2005-2015
Household net wealth	❸	..	2013
Financial net worth of government	❶	⇗	2005-2015
Banking sector leverage	❶	⇘	2005-2015

Social capital			
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**	
Trust in others	❷	..	2013
Trust in the police	❷	..	2013
Trust in the national government	❷	⇘	2005-2016
Voter turnout	❷	⇗	2007-2015
Government stakeholder engagement	❶	..	2014
Volunteering through organisations	❸	..	2011/2012

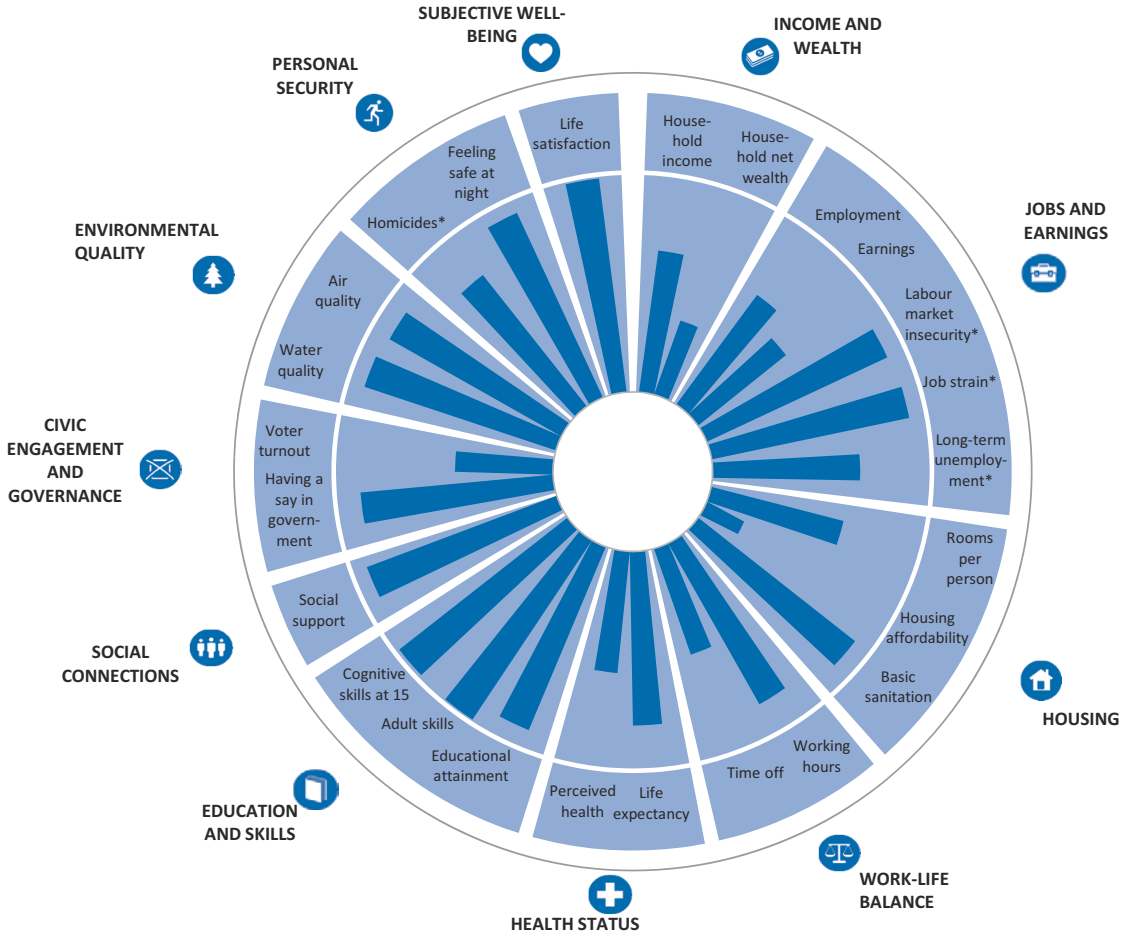
❶	Top-performing OECD tier, latest available year
❷	Middle-performing OECD tier, latest available year
❸	Bottom-performing OECD tier, latest available year

⇗	Improving over time
⇘	Worsening over time
⇔	No change
..	No data available

HOW'S LIFE IN FINLAND?

In general, Finland performs well across the different well-being dimensions relative to other OECD countries. Despite levels of **household net adjusted disposable income** and **household net wealth** that fall below the OECD average, Finland benefits from comparatively low levels of both **job strain** and **labour market insecurity**. Only around 4% of Finnish employees regularly **work very long hours**, approximately one-third of the OECD average level, but **time off** (i.e. time spent on leisure and personal care) is close to the average. Finland performs very well in terms of education and skills as well as **social support**: 95% of Finns report having friends or relatives whom they can count on in times of trouble, compared to the OECD average of 89%. **Air** and **water quality** are both areas of comparative strength, and in 2013, **life satisfaction** in Finland was among the highest in the OECD. However, **housing affordability** is below the OECD average, and despite having a comparatively high share of people who feel that they **have a say in what the government does** (47%, compared to 33% for the OECD on average), Finland has a mid-ranking level of **voter turnout**.

Figure 5.9. **Finland's average level of current well-being: Comparative strengths and weaknesses**



Note: This chart shows Finland's relative strengths and weaknesses in well-being when compared with other OECD countries. For both positive and negative indicators (such as homicides, marked with an "*"), longer bars always indicate better outcomes (i.e. higher well-being), whereas shorter bars always indicate worse outcomes (lower well-being). If data are missing for any given indicator, the relevant segment of the circle is shaded in white.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933599023

Change in Finland's average well-being over the past 10 years

Dimension	Description	Change
Income and wealth	Household net adjusted disposable income is now 8% higher, in real terms, than 10 years ago. However, the steady growth since 2005 peaked in 2011, with a moderate fall since then. In real terms, Finnish household net wealth was 15% higher in 2013 than it was in 2010.	↗ ↗
Jobs and earnings	The employment rate has made a gradual recovery since 2011 and is now close to its level in 2005, but it remains 2 points below its 2008 peak. Average earnings improved consistently over the past decade (with a cumulative growth of 8%). However, labour market insecurity has also increased slightly. Following a period of improvement, long-term unemployment rose sharply during the crisis, then declined from 2010 to 2012, but has grown beyond 2005 levels since then. In 2015, the incidence of job strain was similar to levels reported in 2005.	↔ ↗ ↘ ↘ ↔
Housing conditions	The average number of rooms per person has been stable over the decade, and so has access to basic sanitation. Housing affordability has meanwhile worsened during this period, with the proportion of income spent on housing costs climbing from 20.9% in 2005 to 22.7% in 2015.	↔ ↔ ↘
Work-life balance	The proportion of people working very long hours is slightly lower than it was a decade ago, and, at 3.9%, it now stands nearly 9 percentage points below the OECD average.	↗
Health status	Life expectancy at birth has improved by 2.5 years in Finland since 2005, a stronger gain than the OECD average increase of 1.7 years. Self-reported health has remained relatively stable over the last decade.	↗ ↔
Education and skills	The 10-year change in upper secondary educational attainment cannot be assessed, due to a recent break in the data. However, between 2014 and 2016, attainment rates increased by 1.4 percentage points.	↗
Social connections	The percentage of people who have relatives or friends whom they can count on to help in case of need has seen little change in Finland over the decade.	↔
Civic engagement	Voter turnout among the population registered to vote fell by 5 points between the 2006 and 2012 presidential elections – slightly more than the OECD average fall of 2.4 points.	↘
Environmental quality	Consistent with the OECD average trend, there has been no major change in the level of satisfaction with local water quality since 2005. Exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution has however improved over the past decade, and in 2013 it was 55% lower than the OECD average level.	↔ ↗
Personal security	At 83%, the proportion of Finns who report feeling safe when walking alone at night is currently 4 points higher than 10 years ago. Similarly, the rate of deaths due to assault has fallen by a quarter over the decade.	↗ ↗
Subjective well-being	People's life satisfaction has remained relatively stable in Finland during the last 10 years.	↔

Note: For each indicator in every dimension: ↗ refers to an improvement; ↔ indicates little or no change; and ↘ signals deterioration. This is based on a comparison of the starting year (2005 in most cases) and the latest available year (usually 2015 or 2016). The order of the arrows shown in column three corresponds to that of the indicators mentioned in column two.

Finland's resources and risks for future well-being: Illustrative indicators

Natural capital		
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**
Greenhouse gas emissions from domestic production	2	↗ 2005-2015
CO_2 emissions from domestic consumption	3	↗ 2001-2011
Exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution	1	⇔ 2005-2013
Forest area	1	↘ 2005-2014
Renewable freshwater resources	1	.. Long-term annual average
Freshwater abstractions	3	.. 2006
Threatened birds	2	.. Latest available
Threatened mammals	1	.. Latest available
Threatened plants	2	.. Latest available

Human capital		
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**
Young adult educational attainment	1	⇔ 2014-2016
Educational expectancy	1	.. 2015
Cognitive skills at age 15	1	.. 2015
Adult skills	1	.. 2011/2012
Long-term unemployment	2	↘ 2005-2016
Life expectancy at birth	2	↗ 2005-2015
Smoking prevalence	2	↗ 2005-2014
Obesity prevalence	3	.. 2011

Economic capital		
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**
Produced fixed assets	2	↗ 2005-2016
Gross fixed capital formation	1	↗ 2005-2016
Financial net worth of total economy	2	↗ 2005-2016
Intellectual property assets	2	⇔ 2005-2016
Investment in R&D	1	↘ 2005-2016
Household debt	2	↘ 2005-2016
Household net wealth	3	↗ 2010-2013
Financial net worth of government	1	↘ 2005-2016
Banking sector leverage	1	⇔ 2005-2016

Social capital		
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**
Trust in others	1	.. 2013
Trust in the police	1	.. 2013
Trust in the national government	1	↘ 2005-2016
Voter turnout	2	↗ 2006-2012
Government stakeholder engagement	2	.. 2014
Volunteering through organisations	1	.. 2011/2012

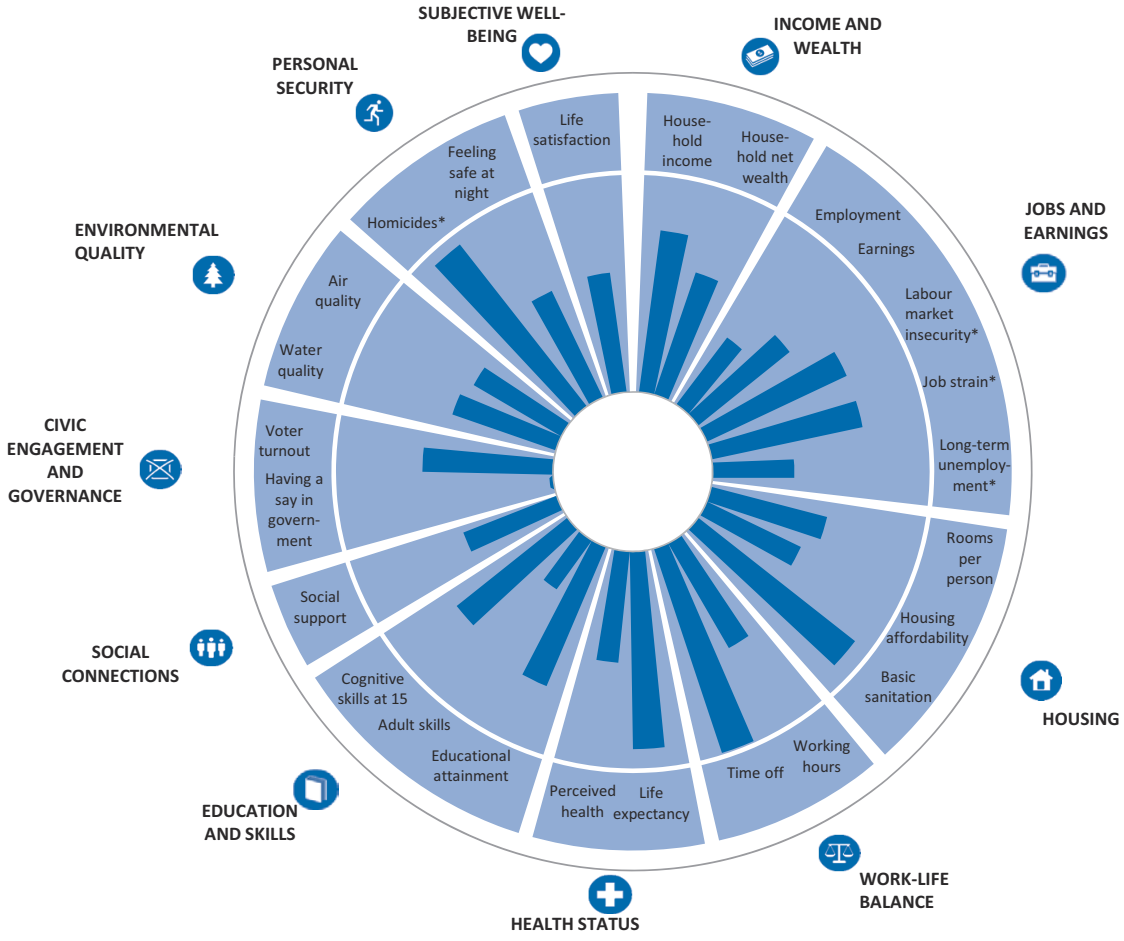
1	Top-performing OECD tier, latest available year
2	Middle-performing OECD tier, latest available year
3	Bottom-performing OECD tier, latest available year

↗	Improving over time
↘	Worsening over time
⇔	No change
..	No data available

HOW'S LIFE IN FRANCE?

Relative to other OECD countries, France's average performance across the different well-being dimensions is mixed. While **household net adjusted disposable income** stands just above the OECD average, France has several weaknesses across the jobs and earnings dimension: for example, at 65% the **employment** rate is 2 percentage points below the OECD average, and the **long-term unemployment** rate is more than double the OECD average. However, work-life balance in France is comparatively good: 8% of employees **work very long hours**, which is below the OECD average of nearly 13%, and full-time workers reported having more **time off** (i.e. time spent on leisure and personal care), on average, than those in any other OECD country. In 2015, average **life expectancy** at birth in France was 82 years, in the top tier of the OECD, but **self-reported health** was just below the OECD average. While France's **voter turnout** (about 75% in 2017) is above the OECD average, in 2012 only 10% of French adults reported feeling that they **have a say in what the government does**, the lowest percentage in the OECD.

Figure 5.10. **France's average level of current well-being: Comparative strengths and weaknesses**



Note: This chart shows France's relative strengths and weaknesses in well-being when compared with other OECD countries. For both positive and negative indicators (such as homicides, marked with an "*"), longer bars always indicate better outcomes (i.e. higher well-being), whereas shorter bars always indicate worse outcomes (lower well-being). If data are missing for any given indicator, the relevant segment of the circle is shaded in white.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933599042

Change in France's average well-being over the past 10 years

Dimension	Description	Change
Income and wealth	The current level of household net adjusted disposable income is 6% higher, in real terms, than in 2005. Following a relatively sustained period of growth, the level fell slightly between 2010 and 2013, but regained momentum thereafter. Between 2009 and 2014, household net wealth grew by 19%, cumulatively.	⇗ ⇗
Jobs and earnings	In 2016 the employment rate was very similar to the level seen in 2005. Although earnings have risen steadily and are currently 11% higher (in real terms) than in 2005, labour market insecurity and long-term unemployment have both worsened in recent years: labour market insecurity remains above pre-crisis levels, and long-term unemployment has increased by a quarter over the decade. Finally, after peaking in 2010, the incidence of job strain in 2015 has returned to the levels recorded in 2005.	⇔ ⇗ ⇘ ⇘ ⇔
Housing conditions	The number of rooms per person has improved slightly since 2005, but remains just below the OECD average level. Housing affordability has worsened: the proportion of household disposable income spent on housing has increased from 20.2% in 2005 to 20.9% in 2015. On the other hand, the percentage of people living without basic sanitary facilities has decreased significantly in the last decade, and is still well below the OECD average level.	⇗ ⇘ ⇗
Work-life balance	After rising between 2006 and 2011, the share of employees regularly working 50 or more hours per week has now returned to 2005 levels.	⇔
Health status	Despite falling by 0.4 year between 2014 and 2015, life expectancy at birth has increased overall by 2 years since 2005. Perceived health status has remained broadly stable.	⇗ ⇔
Education and skills	Between 2005 and 2016, upper secondary educational attainment rates increased by 11.3 percentage points.	⇗
Social connections	France is among the 9 OECD countries where the percentage of people who have relatives or friends whom they can count on for help in case of need has fallen (from 94% to 88%) over the past decade.	⇘
Civic engagement	The percentage of votes cast among the population registered to vote fell by 9 percentage points between the 2007 and 2017 presidential elections.	⇘
Environmental quality	The percentage of people satisfied with local water quality has remained relatively stable over the last decade, just above the OECD average. Annual exposure to air pollution saw little change between 2005 and 2013, remaining close to the OECD average.	⇔ ⇔
Personal security	Deaths due to assault have remained stable at relatively low levels in the last 10 years. Feelings of safety when walking home at night are also broadly unchanged.	⇔ ⇔
Subjective well-being	People's life satisfaction has fallen gradually since 2005, from an average of 6.8 to 6.4 (measured on a 0-10 scale), a decline that is twice as large as the OECD average rate of decline.	⇘

Note: For each indicator in every dimension: ⇗ refers to an improvement; ⇔ indicates little or no change; and ⇘ signals deterioration. This is based on a comparison of the starting year (2005 in most cases) and the latest available year (usually 2015 or 2016). The order of the arrows shown in column three corresponds to that of the indicators mentioned in column two.

France's resources and risks for future well-being: Illustrative indicators

Natural capital		
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**
Greenhouse gas emissions from domestic production	1	↗ 2005-2015
CO_2 emissions from domestic consumption	1	↗ 2001-2011
Exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution	2	⇔ 2005-2013
Forest area	2	⇔ 2005-2014
Renewable freshwater resources	2	.. Long-term annual average
Freshwater abstractions	2	.. 2013
Threatened birds	3	.. Latest available
Threatened mammals	1	.. Latest available
Threatened plants	3	.. Latest available

Human capital		
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**
Young adult educational attainment	2	⇔ 2014-2016
Educational expectancy	3	.. 2015
Cognitive skills at age 15	2	.. 2015
Adult skills	3	.. 2012
Long-term unemployment	3	↘ 2005-2016
Life expectancy at birth	1	↗ 2005-2015
Smoking prevalence	3	↗ 2006-2014
Obesity prevalence	1	↘ 2006-2014

Economic capital		
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**
Produced fixed assets	2	↗ 2005-2016
Gross fixed capital formation	2	⇔ 2005-2016
Financial net worth of total economy	2	↘ 2005-2016
Intellectual property assets	2	↗ 2005-2016
Investment in R&D	1	↗ 2005-2015
Household debt	2	↘ 2005-2015
Household net wealth	2	↗ 2009-2014
Financial net worth of government	3	↘ 2005-2015
Banking sector leverage	3	↘ 2005-2015

Social capital		
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**
Trust in others	3	.. 2013
Trust in the police	3	.. 2013
Trust in the national government	3	↘ 2005-2016
Voter turnout	2	↘ 2007-2017
Government stakeholder engagement	2	.. 2014
Volunteering through organisations	2	.. 2012

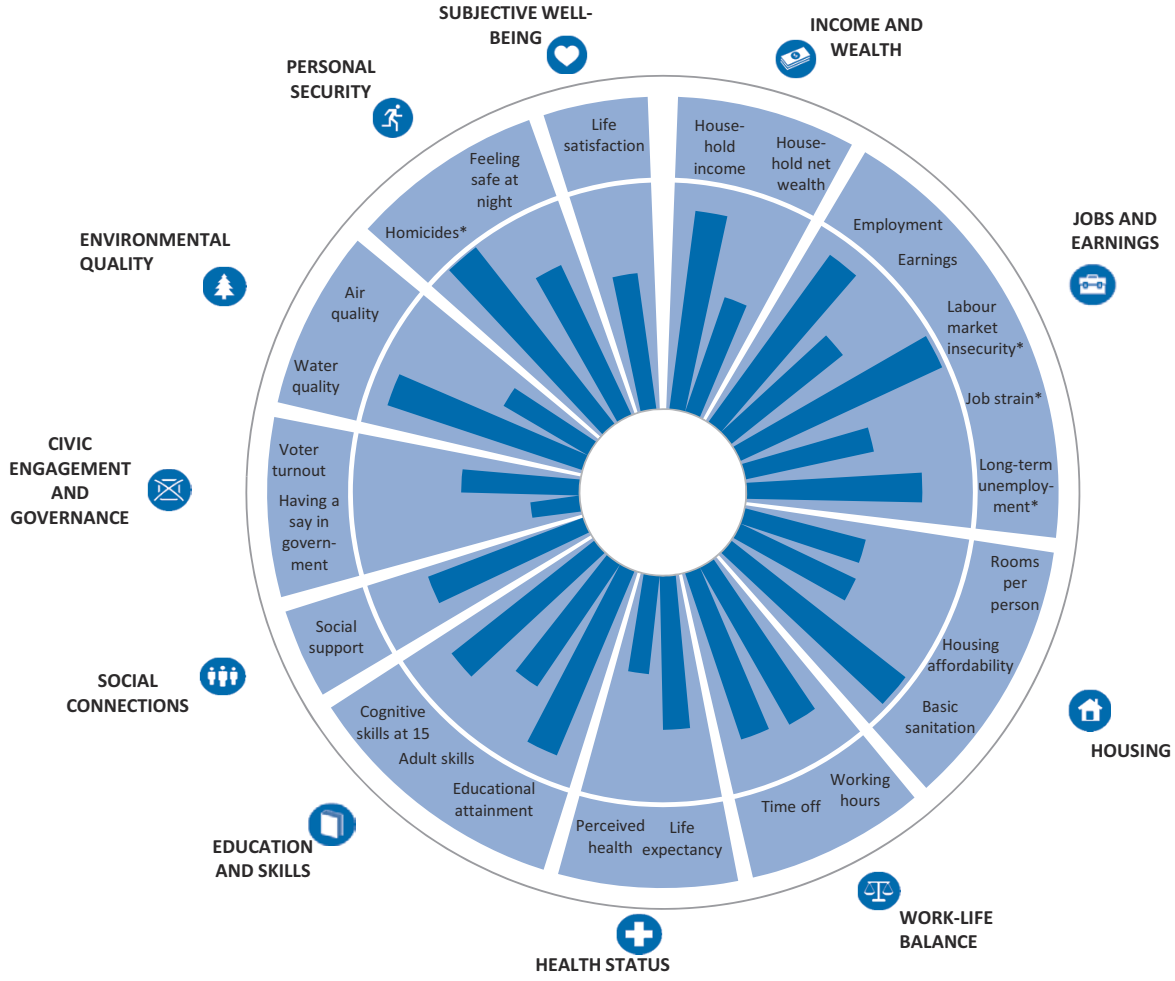
1	Top-performing OECD tier, latest available year
2	Middle-performing OECD tier, latest available year
3	Bottom-performing OECD tier, latest available year

↗	Improving over time
↘	Worsening over time
⇔	No change
..	No data available

HOW'S LIFE IN GERMANY?

Relative to other OECD countries, Germany performs well across most well-being dimensions. **Household net adjusted disposable income** is above the OECD average, but **household net wealth** is just below it. At 75%, the **employment rate** is well above the OECD average of 67%, and both average **earnings** and **long-term unemployment** are close to OECD average levels. Germany benefits from one of the lowest levels of **labour market insecurity** in the OECD, and although one-third of German workers were affected by **job strain** in 2015, this is still below the OECD average level (38%). At 81 years, **life expectancy** in Germany is close to the OECD average, but the share of German adults who **perceive their health** as "good" or "very good" (65%) is just below the OECD average (69%). Personal security, social support and education and skills are generally all areas of strength, but Germany performs less well on civic engagement and governance – with only one-quarter of Germans feeling that they **have a say in what the government does**.

Figure 5.11. **Germany's current level of average well-being: Comparative strengths and weaknesses**



Note: This chart shows Germany's relative strengths and weaknesses in well-being when compared with other OECD countries. For both positive and negative indicators (such as homicides, marked with an "*"), longer bars always indicate better outcomes (i.e. higher well-being), whereas shorter bars always indicate worse outcomes (lower well-being). If data are missing for any given indicator, the relevant segment of the circle is shaded in white.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933599061

Change in Germany's average well-being over the past 10 years

Dimension	Description	Change
Income and wealth	German household net adjusted disposable income has grown steadily over the last decade, and is currently 9% higher than in 2005. Household net wealth in 2014 was 22% higher than in 2010, in real terms.	⇗ ⇗
Jobs and earnings	There has been an increase in the employment rate (by 2 percentage points) and a fall in the long-term unemployment rate (by just below 1 percentage point) since 2011, the earliest year for which comparable data are available for both indicators. After a period of slow growth, average earnings picked up in 2010, and are now 11% higher than 10 years ago. Labour market insecurity has also improved, and is now lower than its pre-crisis level, having peaked in 2009. Finally, the share of employees experiencing job strain has fallen by 15 percentage points between 2005 and 2015, more than in any other OECD country over the decade.	⇗ ⇗ ⇗ ⇗ ⇗
Housing conditions	There has been a minor improvement in the number of rooms per person since 2005, yet the level remains just below the OECD average. Housing affordability has improved slightly, with the share of household income spent on housing costs decreasing by around 1 percentage point from 2005. The percentage of people living in dwellings without basic sanitary facilities has been cut by two-thirds over the last decade.	⇗ ⇗ ⇗
Work-life balance	At 5%, the share of employees working 50 hours or more per week in 2016 is slightly below the level reported in 2011 (the earliest year for which comparable data are available).	⇗
Health status	Despite falling by six months between 2014 and 2015, life expectancy at birth has increased overall by one-and-a-half years since 2005. The percentage of adults reporting to be in "good" or "very good" health has meanwhile increased by 4 points since 2005.	⇗ ⇗
Education and skills	The 10-year change in upper secondary educational attainment cannot be assessed, due to a recent break in the data. However, between 2014 and 2016, attainment rates in Germany have remained relatively stable.	⇔
Social connections	There has been little change in reported social support since 2005.	⇔
Civic engagement	Voter turnout in the 2013 federal elections increased very slightly compared to 2009, but remained below the 78% turnout in 2005. This is in line with the OECD average trend, which has decreased by 2.4 points since 2005.	⇘
Environmental quality	Both satisfaction with local water quality and the annual exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution have remained broadly stable in Germany relative to 2005 levels.	⇔ ⇔
Personal security	The number of deaths due to assault stayed at a relatively low level over the last 10 years. Feelings of safety when walking home alone at night have also remained relatively stable, which has been the case in only about one-third of OECD countries.	⇔ ⇔
Subjective well-being	People's life satisfaction has risen gradually since 2005, from an average of 6.5 to 7 (measured on a 0-10 scale).	⇗

Note: For each indicator in every dimension: ⇗ refers to an improvement; ⇔ indicates little or no change; and ⇘ signals deterioration. This is based on a comparison of the starting year (2005 in most cases) and the latest available year (usually 2015 or 2016). The order of the arrows shown in column three corresponds to that of the indicators mentioned in column two.

Germany's resources and risks for future well-being: Illustrative indicators

Natural capital			
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**	
Greenhouse gas emissions from domestic production	❷	↗	2005-2015
CO_2 emissions from domestic consumption	❷	↗	2001-2011
Exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution	❷	⇔	2005-2013
Forest area	❸	⇔	2005-2014
Renewable freshwater resources	❸	..	Long-term annual average
Freshwater abstractions	❷	..	2013
Threatened birds	❸	..	Latest available
Threatened mammals	❸	..	Latest available
Threatened plants	❸	..	Latest available

Human capital			
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**	
Young adult educational attainment	❷	⇔	2014-2016
Educational expectancy	❶	..	2015
Cognitive skills at age 15	❶	..	2015
Adult skills	❷	..	2011/2012
Long-term unemployment	❷	↗	2011-2016
Life expectancy at birth	❸	..	2005-2015
Smoking prevalence	❷	↗	2005-2013
Obesity prevalence	❸	..	2012

Economic capital			
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**	
Produced fixed assets	❶	↗	2005-2015
Gross fixed capital formation	❷	↗	2005-2016
Financial net worth of total economy	❶	↗	2005-2016
Intellectual property assets	❶	↗	2005-2015
Investment in R&D	❶	↗	2005-2014
Household debt	❶	↗	2005-2015
Household net wealth	❷	↗	2010-2014
Financial net worth of government	❷	↗	2005-2015
Banking sector leverage	❸	↘	2005-2015

Social capital			
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**	
Trust in others	❸	..	2013
Trust in the police	❷	..	2013
Trust in the national government	❶	↗	2005-2016
Voter turnout	❷	↘	2005-2013
Government stakeholder engagement	❷	..	2014
Volunteering through organisations	❶	..	2011/2012

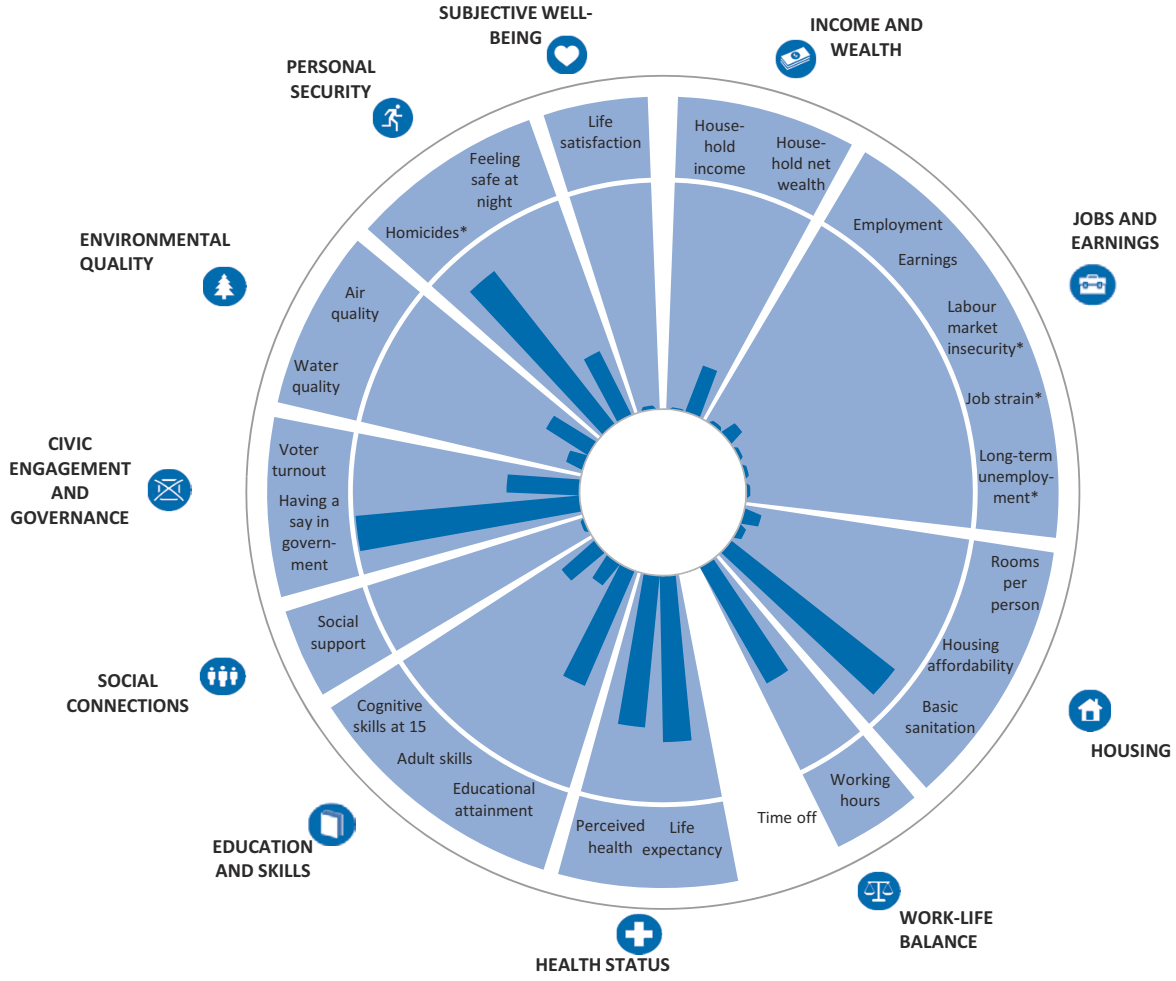
❶	Top-performing OECD tier, latest available year
❷	Middle-performing OECD tier, latest available year
❸	Bottom-performing OECD tier, latest available year

↗	Improving over time
↘	Worsening over time
⇔	No change
..	No data available

HOW'S LIFE IN GREECE?

Relative to other OECD countries, Greece has a mixed performance across the different well-being dimensions. Material conditions in Greece are generally below the OECD average: **household net adjusted disposable income** was just over half the OECD average level in 2015, and the **employment rate** was 52% in 2016, compared to an OECD average of 67%. Greece suffers from some of the highest levels of **labour market insecurity**, **job strain** and **long-term unemployment** in the OECD, but the share of Greeks **working very long hours** (7%) is below the OECD average rate (13%). While **housing affordability** and the **number of rooms per person** are both below the OECD average, access to **basic sanitation** is comparatively high. Health status outcomes are also above average. **Voter turnout** in 2015 (64%) was below the OECD average (69%), yet in 2014/15 almost 71% of Greek adults felt that they **have a say in what the government does**, the highest percentage in the OECD.

Figure 5.12. **Greece's average level of current well-being: Comparative strengths and weaknesses**



Note: This chart shows Greece's relative strengths and weaknesses in well-being when compared with other OECD countries. For both positive and negative indicators (such as homicides, marked with an "*"), longer bars always indicate better outcomes (i.e. higher well-being), whereas shorter bars always indicate worse outcomes (lower well-being). If data are missing for any given indicator, the relevant segment of the circle is shaded in white.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933599080

Change in Greece's average well-being over the past 10 years

Dimension	Description	Change
Income and wealth	In 2014, household net adjusted disposable income was 27% lower than in 2005, the largest fall in the OECD over the decade. After having increased by 9% cumulatively from 2005 to 2009, it dropped sharply during the first years of the crisis and has fallen every year since. Household net wealth in Greece recorded a cumulative decrease of 22% between 2009 and 2014.	↘ ↘
Jobs and earnings	Both the employment rate and earnings dropped sharply between 2008 and 2013, and improved only moderately in recent years. Labour market insecurity reached a high of 44% in 2012 (compared to an OECD average of 7% the same year) – and despite falling by 27 points since then, it remains over triple the OECD average. Long-term unemployment rocketed from 2009 onwards, peaking in 2014 at 20%, almost 4 times higher than the rate in 2005. Finally, the share of employees affected by job strain has also increased significantly in the past 10 years, from 50% in 2005 to nearly 59% in 2015.	↘ ↘ ↘ ↘ ↘
Housing conditions	Although the average number of rooms per person has remained relatively stable over the past decade, spending on housing costs (as a proportion of household disposable income) has gone up from 19.7% in 2005 to 23.7% in 2015, one of the largest rises in the OECD. On the other hand, the percentage of people living in dwellings without basic sanitary facilities fell by more than two-thirds, and is now at half the OECD average level.	⇔ ↘ ↗
Work-life balance	At 7%, the share of employees regularly working 50 hours or more per week is almost one point higher today than it was 10 years ago. The rate fell considerably between 2005 and 2011, but has picked up in recent years.	↘
Health status	Despite stalling in 2007, 2012 and 2015, life expectancy at birth is now over a year higher than it was a decade ago in Greece. This is less than the OECD average increase of 1.7 years. The share of people reporting "good" or "very good" health has remained broadly unchanged since 2005.	↗ ⇔
Education and skills	The 10-year change in upper secondary educational attainment cannot be assessed, due to a recent break in the data. However, between 2014 and 2016, attainment rates increased by 3.4 percentage points.	↗
Social connections	In Greece, the current level of social support has not changed significantly compared to 10 years ago. However, it dropped by 5 percentage points between 2008-2010 and 2011-2013, before recovering in 2014-2016.	⇔
Civic engagement	In line with the OECD average trend, voter turnout has fallen in Greece over the past decade. In the 2015 parliamentary elections, the percentage of votes cast among the population registered to vote was 64%: this was 11 points lower than in 2007, but over one point higher than in 2012.	↘
Environmental quality	Satisfaction with local water quality has remained relatively stable since 2005-2007, and is still below the OECD average. Annual exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution has crept up by 10% since 2005, despite a recent fall from its 2009 peak.	⇔ ↘
Personal security	Both the homicide rate and the share of the population declaring that they feel safe when walking alone at night have remained broadly stable relative to 2005.	⇔ ⇔
Subjective well-being	Life satisfaction has declined by more than one point (on a 0 to 10 scale) over the past decade, a larger fall than in any other OECD country.	↘

Note: For each indicator in every dimension: ↗ refers to an improvement; ⇔ indicates little or no change; and ↘ signals deterioration. This is based on a comparison of the starting year (2005 in most cases) and the latest available year (usually 2015 or 2016). The order of the arrows shown in column three corresponds to that of the indicators mentioned in column two.

Greece's resources and risks for future well-being: Illustrative indicators

Natural capital

Indicator	Tier	Change
Greenhouse gas emissions from domestic production	2	↗ 2005-2015
CO_2 emissions from domestic consumption	2	↗ 2001-2011
Exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution	3	↘ 2005-2013
Forest area	2	⇔ 2005-2014
Renewable freshwater resources	2	.. Long-term annual average
Freshwater abstractions	3	.. 2015
Threatened birds	1	.. Latest available
Threatened mammals	3	.. Latest available
Threatened plants	1	.. Latest available

Human capital

Indicator	Tier	Change
Young adult educational attainment	2	↗ 2014-2016
Educational expectancy	2	.. 2014
Cognitive skills at age 15	3	.. 2015
Adult skills	3	.. 2014/2015
Long-term unemployment	3	↘ 2005-2016
Life expectancy at birth	2	↗ 2005-2015
Smoking prevalence	3	↗ 2009-2014
Obesity prevalence	2	⇔ 2006-2014

Economic capital

Indicator	Tier	Change
Produced fixed assets	3	⇔ 2005-2014
Gross fixed capital formation	3	↗ 2005-2016
Financial net worth of total economy	3	↘ 2005-2015
Intellectual property assets	3	⇔ 2005-2014
Investment in R&D	3	⇔ 2005-2015
Household debt	2	↘ 2005-2015
Household net wealth	3	↘ 2009-2014
Financial net worth of government	3	↘ 2005-2016
Banking sector leverage	3	↘ 2005-2015

Social capital

Indicator	Tier	Change
Trust in others	3	.. 2013
Trust in the police	3	.. 2013
Trust in the national government	3	↘ 2005-2016
Voter turnout	2	↘ 2007-2015
Government stakeholder engagement	2	.. 2014
Volunteering through organisations	3	.. 2014/2015

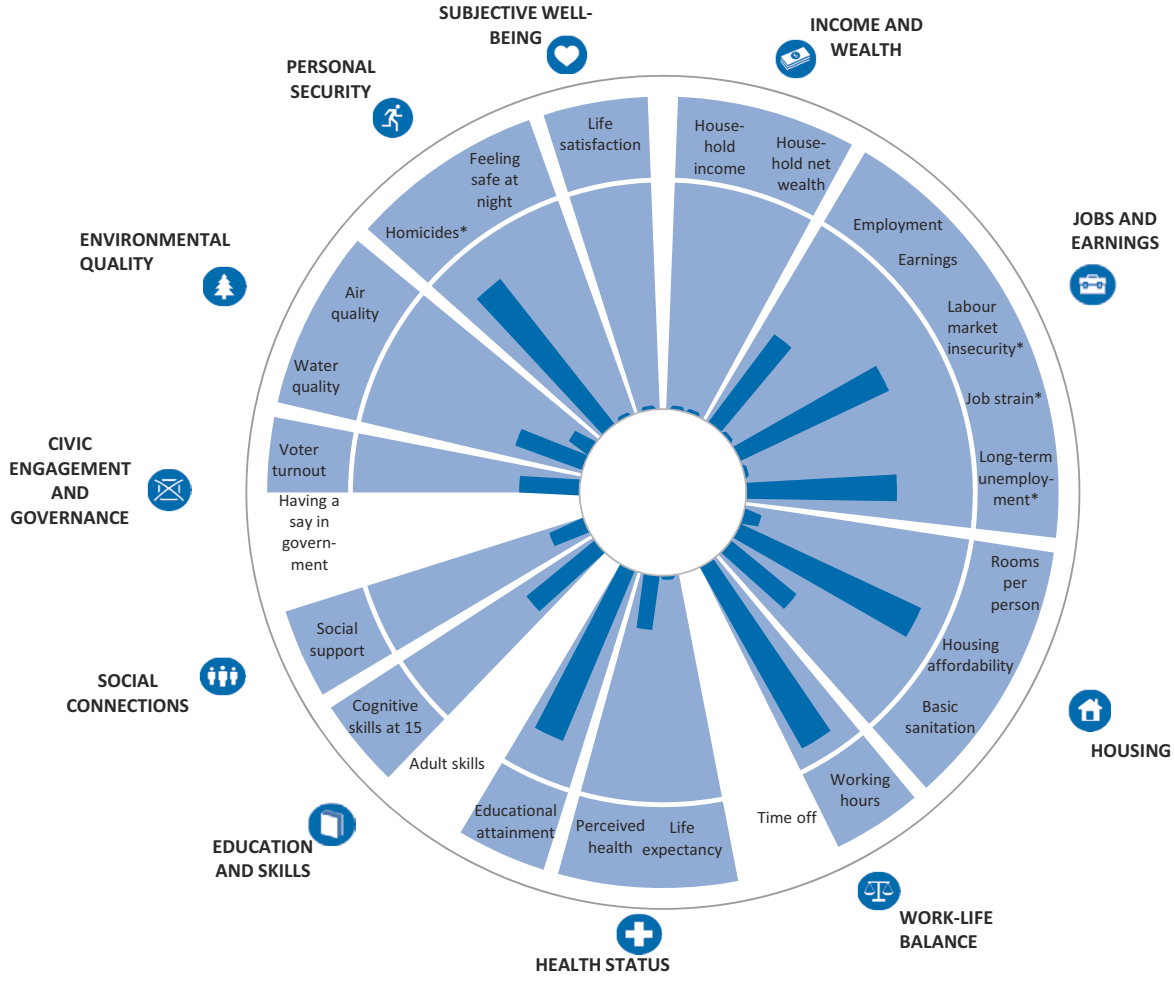
1	Top-performing OECD tier, latest available year
2	Middle-performing OECD tier, latest available year
3	Bottom-performing OECD tier, latest available year

↗	Improving over time
↘	Worsening over time
⇔	No change
..	No data available

HOW'S LIFE IN HUNGARY?

Relative to other OECD countries, Hungary has a mixed performance across the different well-being dimensions. It has one of the lowest levels of **household net adjusted disposable income** in the OECD, as well as one of the lowest levels of **average earnings**. Hungary also suffers from one of the highest levels of job strain in the OECD, while the **long-term unemployment** rate, **labour market insecurity** and the **employment** rate are all close to the OECD average. Only around 3% of Hungarian employees regularly **work very long hours**, compared to an OECD average of 13%. **Housing affordability** is also a comparative strength: Hungarian households spend a smaller share of their disposable income on housing costs than in more than two-thirds of OECD countries. **Educational attainment** is relatively high in Hungary: 83% of the adult working-age population have completed at least an upper secondary education, compared to 75% in the OECD on average. However, both health status and **feelings of safety** are areas of comparative weakness.

Figure 5.13. **Hungary's average level of current well-being: Comparative strengths and weaknesses**



Note: This chart shows Hungary's relative strengths and weaknesses in well-being when compared with other OECD countries. For both positive and negative indicators (such as homicides, marked with an "*"), longer bars always indicate better outcomes (i.e. higher well-being), whereas shorter bars always indicate worse outcomes (lower well-being). If data are missing for any given indicator, the relevant segment of the circle is shaded in white.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933599099

Change in Hungary's average well-being over the past 10 years

Dimension	Description	Change
Income and wealth	Having fallen between 2006 and 2010, the average household net adjusted disposable income in Hungary has now recovered to its 2005 level.	⇔
Jobs and earnings	Since hitting a low in 2009-2010, the employment rate has picked up and is now almost 10 points higher than a decade ago. Earnings fell from 2008 to 2014, improving only slightly since 2015 – and they are now a par with previous 2005 levels. Labour market insecurity peaked at 11% in 2012, and despite falling since then, it remains one point higher than in 2007. Long-term unemployment made a comparatively swift recovery from the crisis, and (at around 2%) it is now below its 2005 level. Job strain has also improved in the past 10 years, with the share of employees affected falling from 57% in 2005 to 52% in 2015.	⇗ ⇔ ⇘ ⇗ ⇗
Housing conditions	The average number of rooms per person has improved marginally over the past decade, and so has housing affordability. The percentage of people living in dwellings without basic sanitary facilities has fallen by 2 points since 2005, but remains twice the OECD average level.	⇗ ⇗ ⇗
Work-life balance	At 3%, the share of employees regularly working 50 hours or more per week is slightly less than 2 points lower today than it was 10 years ago. The rate fell considerably between 2005 and 2012, but then picked up again until 2015.	⇗
Health status	Despite a slight fall between 2014 and 2015, life expectancy at birth has increased by half a year overall since 2012 (the earliest year for which comparable data are available). The proportion of Hungarians reporting that their health is "good" or "very good" has gone up from 45% to 56% over the decade.	⇗ ⇗
Education and skills	Between 2005 and 2016, there has been a sustained improvement in the share of working-age adults who have attained at least an upper secondary education: at 83.4% in 2015, it was 7 points higher than in 2005.	⇗
Social connections	Over the last 10 years, Hungary recorded the largest decline in social support in the OECD, with the share of people feeling that they have someone to count on falling from 93% to 84%.	⇘
Civic engagement	Voter turnout has progressively declined over the past decade. In the 2014 parliamentary elections, the percentage of votes cast among the population registered to vote stood at 62%, 6 points lower than in 2006, and 3 points lower than in 2010.	⇘
Environmental quality	Satisfaction with local water quality has remained relatively stable since 2005-2007, and is still below the OECD average. Annual exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution has meanwhile remained stably high over the decade, at a level approximately one-third higher than the OECD average.	⇔ ⇔
Personal security	The proportion of deaths due to assault has fallen considerably compared to 10 years ago. However, the percentage of the population declaring that they feel safe when walking alone at night has also declined, and (at 51%) is currently the second lowest in the OECD.	⇗ ⇘
Subjective well-being	Life satisfaction has improved slightly over the past decade, but it remains well below the OECD average.	⇗

Note: For each indicator in every dimension: ⇗ refers to an improvement; ⇔ indicates little or no change; and ⇘ signals deterioration. This is based on a comparison of the starting year (2005 in most cases) and the latest available year (usually 2015 or 2016). The order of the arrows shown in column three corresponds to that of the indicators mentioned in column two.

Hungary's resources and risks for future well-being: Illustrative indicators

Natural capital			
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**	
Greenhouse gas emissions from domestic production	1	↗	2005-2015
CO_2 emissions from domestic consumption	1	↗	2001-2011
Exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution	3	↗	2005-2013
Forest area	2	⇔	2005-2014
Renewable freshwater resources	1	..	Long-term annual average
Freshwater abstractions	2	..	2012
Threatened birds	1	..	Latest available
Threatened mammals	3	..	Latest available
Threatened plants	1	..	Latest available

Human capital			
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**	
Young adult educational attainment	2	↘	2014-2016
Educational expectancy	3	..	2015
Cognitive skills at age 15	3	..	2015
Long-term unemployment	2	↗	2005-2016
Life expectancy at birth	3	↗	2012-2015
Smoking prevalence	3	⇔	2009-2014
Obesity prevalence	3	↘	2009-2014
No data available on adult skills.			

Economic capital			
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**	
Produced fixed assets	3	↗	2005-2014
Gross fixed capital formation	3	↘	2005-2016
Financial net worth of total economy	3	⇔	2005-2016
Intellectual property assets	3	↗	2005-2014
Investment in R&D	2	↗	2005-2015
Household debt	1	⇔	2005-2015
Household net wealth	3	..	2014
Financial net worth of government	3	↘	2005-2016
Banking sector leverage	1	⇔	2005-2015

Social capital			
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**	
Trust in others	3	..	2013
Trust in the police	2	..	2013
Trust in the national government	3	⇔	2005-2016
Voter turnout	3	↘	2006-2014
Government stakeholder engagement	3	..	2014
No data available on volunteering through organisations.			

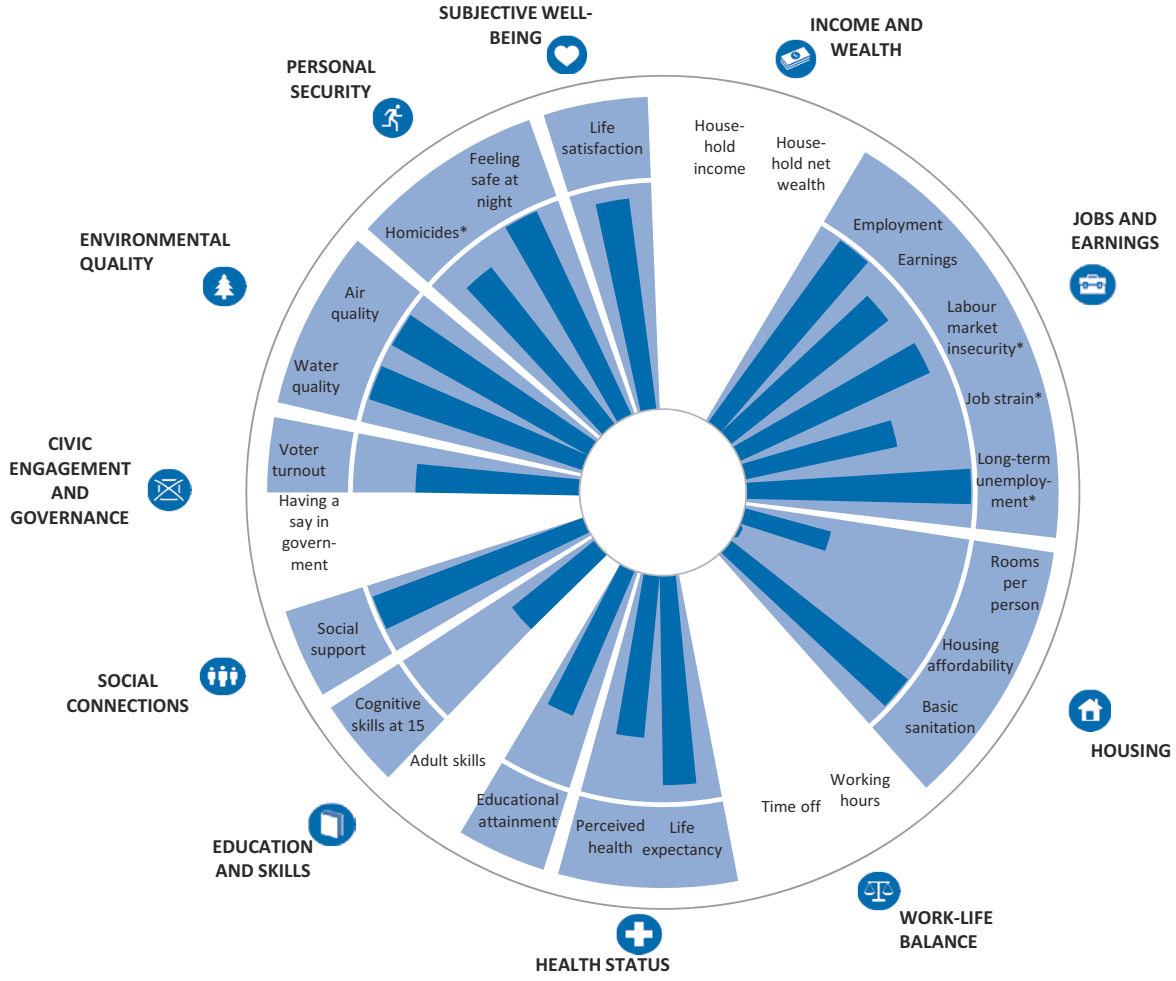
1	Top-performing OECD tier, latest available year
2	Middle-performing OECD tier, latest available year
3	Bottom-performing OECD tier, latest available year

↗	Improving over time
↘	Worsening over time
⇔	No change
..	No data available

HOW'S LIFE IN ICELAND?

In general, Iceland performs well across the different well-being dimensions relative to other OECD countries. 86% of the Icelandic population aged 15-64 was in **employment** in 2016, the largest share in the OECD, and **average earnings** are in the top tier of the OECD. Iceland is the OECD's top performer in terms of environmental quality: **air quality** (measured as average exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution) is the best in the OECD, and almost everybody in Iceland is satisfied with their local **water quality**. 98% of Icelanders report that they have friends or relatives whom they can count on in times of trouble, the highest share in the OECD. Personal security and **life satisfaction** are also areas of comparative strength. In terms of housing conditions, **access to basic sanitation** is high, but Icelanders spend a higher proportion of their disposable income on housing costs (24%) relative to the OECD average (21%), making **housing affordability** in Iceland a clear area of comparative weakness.

Figure 5.14. **Iceland's average level of current well-being: Comparative strengths and weaknesses**



Note: This chart shows Iceland's relative strengths and weaknesses in well-being when compared with other OECD countries. For both positive and negative indicators (such as homicides, marked with an *), longer bars always indicate better outcomes (i.e. higher well-being), whereas shorter bars always indicate worse outcomes (lower well-being). If data are missing for any given indicator, the relevant segment of the circle is shaded in white.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933599118

Change in Iceland's average well-being over the past 10 years

Dimension	Description	Change
Income and wealth	After falling substantially between 2008 and 2010, household net adjusted disposable income has gradually climbed back to its 2005 level, in real terms, in 2014. Nevertheless, it has yet to regain its 2008 peak.	⇔
Jobs and earnings	In 2016, the employment rate was 2 percentage points higher than in 2005, having fallen sharply in 2009 and gradually recovered since. Earnings increased by 5% (in real terms) over the decade, but labour market insecurity reached a peak of 5.7% in 2011, and still has not recovered to its pre-crisis level of 1%. Long-term unemployment rose sharply during the crisis, but has since fallen back to 2005 levels.	⇗ ⇗ ⇗ ⇘ ⇔
Housing conditions	Although the average number of rooms per person has remained relatively stable over the past decade, spending on housing costs (as a proportion of household disposable income) went up from 22.6% in 2005 to 24.4% in 2014. The share of people living in dwellings without basic sanitary facilities has fallen from 0.4% to 0% in the last 10 years.	⇔ ⇘ ⇗
Work-life balance	[No time series data available]	..
Health status	Despite a slight fall between 2014 and 2015, life expectancy at birth has increased by 2 years overall since 2005, and is now over 2 years higher than the OECD average. Conversely, the share of Icelanders reporting to be in "good" or "very good" health has remained relatively stable.	⇗ ⇔
Education and skills	Between 2005 and 2015, there has been a sustained improvement in the share of working-age adults who have attained at least an upper secondary level of education: at 78% in 2016, it was nearly 10 points higher than in 2005.	⇗
Social connections	The current level of social support has not changed significantly compared to 2008-2010, and it is still the highest in the OECD.	⇔
Civic engagement	At 79.2%, voter turnout in the 2016 parliamentary elections was considerably lower than in 2013, and below the 83.6% turnout in 2007 as well. This is in line with the OECD average trend, which has seen voter turnout decrease by 2.4 percentage points over the last decade.	⇘
Environmental quality	Satisfaction with local water quality has remained relatively stable, and is still among the highest in the OECD. Annual exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution has meanwhile remained stably low over the past decade, and in 2013 it was 78% lower than the OECD average level.	⇔ ⇔
Personal security	The number of deaths due to assault has seen little change over the past decade, while the proportion of people declaring that they feel safe when walking alone at night has increased by 10 percentage points.	⇔ ⇗
Subjective well-being	[No time series data available]	..

Note: For each indicator in every dimension: ⇗ refers to an improvement; ⇔ indicates little or no change; and ⇘ signals deterioration. This is based on a comparison of the start year (2005 in most cases) and the latest available year (usually 2015 or 2016). The order of the arrows shown in column three corresponds to that of the indicators mentioned in column two.

Iceland's resources and risks for future well-being: Illustrative indicators

Natural capital

Indicator	Tier	Change	
Greenhouse gas emissions from domestic production	3	↘	2005-2015
CO_2 emissions from domestic consumption	1	↗	2001-2011
Exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution	1	⇔	2005-2013
Forest area	3	⇔	2005-2014
Renewable freshwater resources	1	..	Long-term annual average
Freshwater abstractions	3	..	2014
Threatened birds	3	..	Latest available
Threatened plants	2	..	Latest available
No data available on threatened mammals.			

Human capital

Indicator	Tier	Change	
Young adult educational attainment	3	↗	2005-2016
Educational expectancy	1	..	2015
Cognitive skills at age 15	3	..	2015
Long-term unemployment	1	⇔	2005-2016
Life expectancy at birth	1	↗	2005-2015
Smoking prevalence	1	↗	2014-2016
Obesity prevalence	2	..	2015
No data available on adult skills.			

Economic capital

Indicator	Tier	Change	
Gross fixed capital formation	1	↘	2005-2016
Financial net worth of total economy	3	↗	2005-2015
Household debt	3	..	2014
Financial net worth of government	2	↘	2005-2015
No data available on produced fixed assets, intellectual property assets, household net wealth, investment in R&D and banking sector leverage.			

Social capital

Indicator	Tier	Change	
Trust in others	1	..	2013
Trust in the police	1	..	2013
Trust in the national government	2	↗	2008-2016
Voter turnout	1	↘	2007-2017
Government stakeholder engagement	3	..	2014
No data available on volunteering through organisations.			

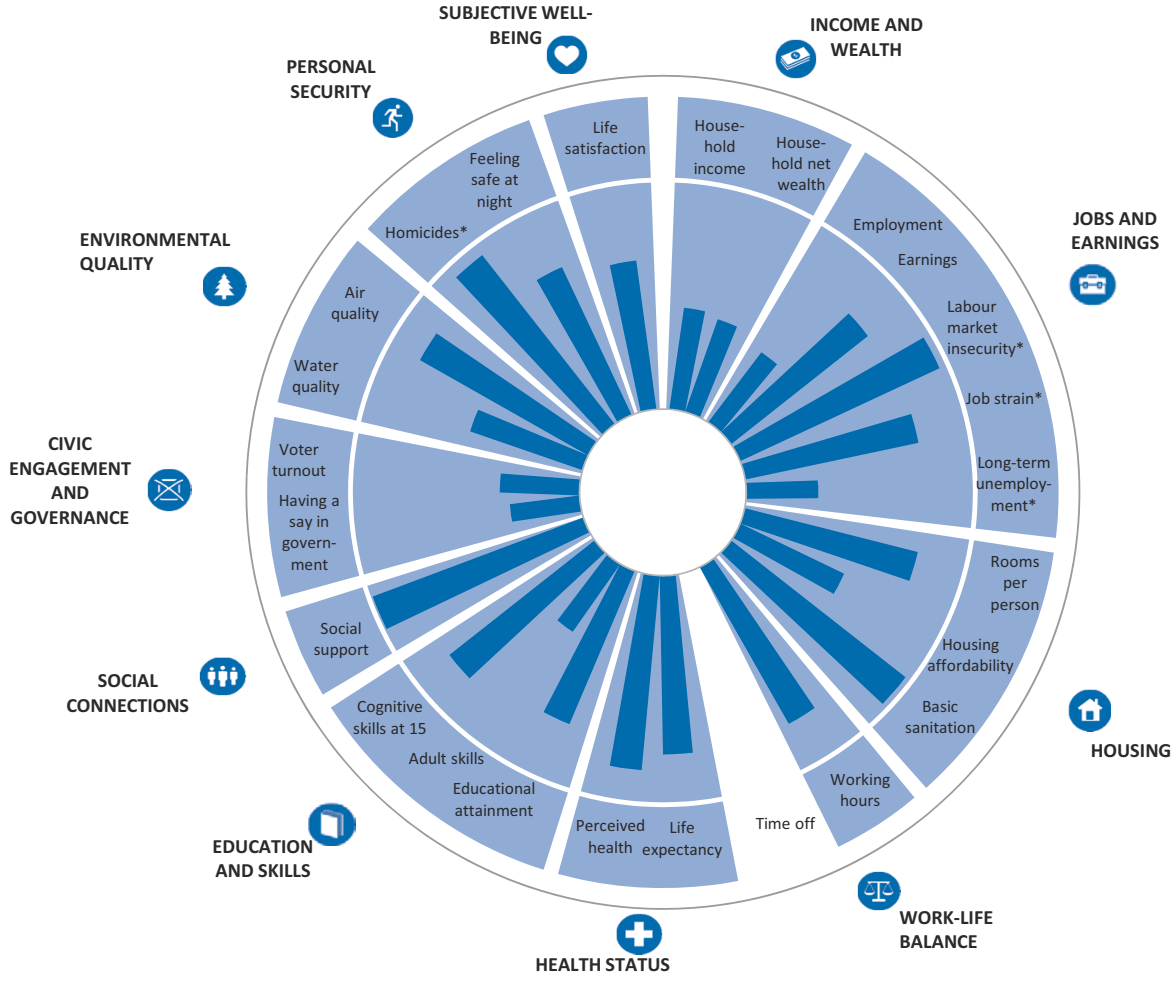
1	Top-performing OECD tier, latest available year
2	Middle-performing OECD tier, latest available year
3	Bottom-performing OECD tier, latest available year

↗	Improving over time
↘	Worsening over time
⇔	No change
..	No data available

HOW'S LIFE IN IRELAND?

Relative to other OECD countries, Ireland's performance across the different well-being dimensions is mixed. While Ireland's average **household net adjusted disposable income** was below the OECD average in 2015, **average earnings** were among the highest in the OECD (around 52 000 USD compared to an average of 44 000). At around 5%, the **long-term unemployment** rate is more than twice the OECD average, but both **labour market insecurity** and **job strain** are better than average. Housing conditions, health status and environmental quality are generally good, while civic engagement and governance is an area of comparative weakness. 80% of Irish adults have attained at least an upper secondary education**,** which is above the OECD average (75%), yet adult literacy and numeracy skills are in the lowest tier of the OECD. Perceived **social support** is a clear area of comparative strength: almost 96% of the Irish population reported **having friends or relatives whom they can count on** in times of trouble, compared to the OECD average of 89%.

Figure 5.15. **Ireland's average level of current well-being: Comparative strengths and weaknesses**



Note: This chart shows Ireland's relative strengths and weaknesses in well-being when compared with other OECD countries. For both positive and negative indicators (such as homicides, marked with an "*"), longer bars always indicate better outcomes (i.e. higher well-being), whereas shorter bars always indicate worse outcomes (lower well-being). If data are missing for any given indicator, the relevant segment of the circle is shaded in white.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933599137

Change in Ireland's average well-being over the past 10 years

Dimension	Description	Change
Income and wealth	The current level of household net adjusted disposable income is 4% higher, in real terms, than in 2005. Following a sustained period of growth, household income fell between 2009 and 2013, and began to recover only in 2014.	↗
Jobs and earnings	The employment rate is now 2.8 percentage points lower than in 2005; after falling significantly between 2007 and 2012, it has recovered only moderately in recent years. Conversely, earnings have risen and are currently 15% higher (in real terms) than in 2005 – although they remain just below their 2009 peak. Following a very strong increase between 2007 and 2008, labour market insecurity has now returned to its 2005 level (2%). Long-term unemployment peaked at 9.2% in 2012, and despite falling to 4.7% since then, it is still three times higher than in 2005. After having peaked at 35% in 2010, the share of Irish employees suffering from job strain has now fallen to 27%, close to the 2005 level.	↘ ↗ ↔ ↘ ↔
Housing conditions	The number of rooms per person has remained relatively stable since 2005, just above the OECD average. Housing affordability has worsened: the proportion of household disposable income spent on housing costs has risen from 19.3% in 2005 to 20.8% in 2015. Ireland is one of few OECD countries where the percentage of people living in dwellings without basic sanitary facilities has increased since 2005.	↔ ↘ ↘
Work-life balance	After falling to a low of 3.4% in 2009, the share of employees working 50 hours or more per week has increased back to 4.7% in 2016, the same level as in 2005.	↔
Health status	Life expectancy at birth has increased by two-and-a-half years since 2005, and is now higher than the OECD average by just over a year. Perceived health status has remained relatively stable at above the OECD average.	↗ ↔
Education and skills	The 10-year change in upper secondary educational attainment cannot be assessed, due to a recent break in the data. However, between 2014 and 2015, attainment rates in Ireland increased by 1 percentage point.	↗
Social connections	The percentage of people who have relatives or friends whom they can count on to help in case of need has seen little change since 2005-07.	↔
Civic engagement	At 69.9%, voter turnout in the 2011 parliamentary elections was slightly higher than in 2007, but then dropped to 65.1% in 2016. This is in line with the OECD average trend, which has seen voter turnout decline by 2.4 percentage points over the last decade.	↘
Environmental quality	Consistent with the OECD average, satisfaction with local water quality has fallen slightly in the last few years. On the other hand, annual exposure to air pollution has changed very little since 2005 and was still half the OECD average in 2013.	↘ ↔
Personal security	There have been clear signs of progress in personal security since 2005: the homicide rate has decreased by 40%, and the share of people declaring that they feel safe when walking alone at night has risen by 5 percentage points.	↗ ↗
Subjective well-being	Life satisfaction in recent years is similar to the levels reported 10 years earlier.	↔

Note: For each indicator in every dimension: ↗ refers to an improvement; ↔ indicates little or no change; and ↘ signals deterioration. This is based on a comparison of the starting year (2005 in most cases) and the latest available year (usually 2015 or 2016). The order of the arrows shown in column three corresponds to that of the indicators mentioned in column two.

Ireland's resources and risks for future well-being: Illustrative indicators

Natural capital		
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**
Greenhouse gas emissions from domestic production	❸	↗ 2005-2015
CO_2 emissions from domestic consumption	❷	↗ 2001-2011
Exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution	❶	⇔ 2005-2013
Forest area	❷	⇔ 2005-2014
Renewable freshwater resources	❷	.. Long-term annual average
Freshwater abstractions	❶	.. 2009
Threatened birds	❷	.. Latest available
Threatened mammals	❷	.. Latest available
Threatened plants	❷	.. Latest available

Human capital		
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**
Young adult educational attainment	❶	↗ 2014-2015
Educational expectancy	❶	.. 2015
Cognitive skills at age 15	❶	.. 2015
Adult skills	❸	.. 2011/2012
Long-term unemployment	❸	↘ 2005-2016
Life expectancy at birth	❷	↗ 2005-2015
Smoking prevalence	❷	.. 2016
Obesity prevalence	❷	⇔ 2007-2015

Economic capital		
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**
Gross fixed capital formation	❶	↗ 2005-2016
Financial net worth of total economy	❸	↘ 2005-2016
Investment in R&D	❶	↗ 2005-2014
Household debt	❸	↗ 2005-2015
Household net wealth	❷	.. 2013
Financial net worth of government	❸	↘ 2005-2015
Banking sector leverage	❸	⇔ 2005-2015
No data available on produced fixed assets and intellectual property assets.		

Social capital		
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**
Trust in others	❷	.. 2013
Trust in the police	❶	.. 2013
Trust in the national government	❶	↘ 2005-2016
Voter turnout	❷	↘ 2007-2016
Government stakeholder engagement	❸	.. 2014
Volunteering through organisations	❷	.. 2011/2012

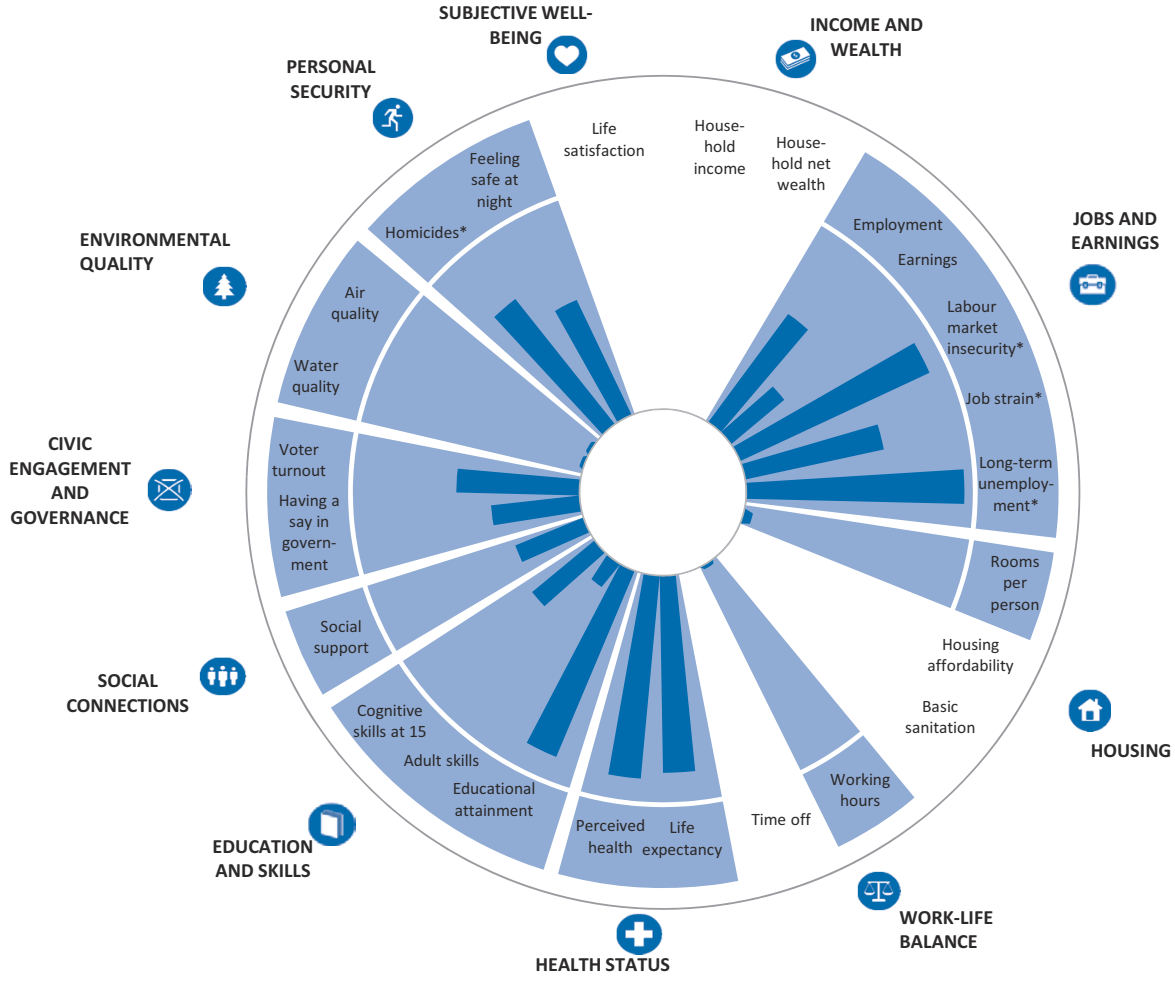
❶	Top-performing OECD tier, latest available year
❷	Middle-performing OECD tier, latest available year
❸	Bottom-performing OECD tier, latest available year

↗	Improving over time
↘	Worsening over time
⇔	No change
..	No data available

HOW'S LIFE IN ISRAEL?

Relative to other OECD countries, Israel's average performance across the different well-being dimensions is mixed. **Average earnings** are comparatively low, and 15% of employees regularly **work very long hours,** one of the highest shares in the OECD. In 2016, 69% of the Israeli population aged 15-64 was in **employment**, slightly above the OECD average of 67%, while the **long-term unemployment** rate was among the lowest in the OECD (0.5% in 2016, compared to around 2% in the OECD on average). **Labour market insecurity** and **job strain** are also both better than the OECD average. At 82 years, **life expectancy** at birth in Israel is 2 years higher than the OECD average. A high share of Israelis report good levels of **perceived health**, although these data are not fully comparable with those of the other OECD countries, due to a difference in the reporting scale. Environmental quality is an area of comparative weakness, in terms of both **air pollution** and **water quality**. **Social support** also stands below the OECD average.

Figure 5.16. **Israel's average level of current well-being: Comparative strengths and weaknesses**



Note: This chart shows Israel's relative strengths and weaknesses in well-being when compared with other OECD countries. For both positive and negative indicators (such as homicides, marked with an "*"), longer bars always indicate better outcomes (i.e. higher well-being), whereas shorter bars always indicate worse outcomes (lower well-being). If data are missing for any given indicator, the relevant segment of the circle is shaded in white.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933599156

Change in Israel's average well-being over the past 10 years

Dimension	Description	Change
Income and wealth	[No time series data available]	..
Jobs and earnings	The employment rate has risen by 6.3 percentage points since 2005. Real earnings fell gradually from 2007 to 2010, but following a considerable improvement since then, they now stand 10% above their pre-crisis levels. Labour market insecurity has gradually fallen over the past decade, and is now well below half its 2005 level. The long-term unemployment rate has fallen slightly from its 2012 level (the latest year for which comparable data are available), while job strain also improved, with the share of people affected falling from 39% in 2005 to 32% in 2015.	⇗ ⇗ ⇗ ⇗ ⇗
Housing conditions	The average number of rooms per person has remained relatively stable over the past decade, at around 1.1.	⇔
Work-life balance	The incidence of long working hours has improved, with the percentage of employees working 50 hours or more per week falling from 19% in 2012 to 15% in 2016 (comparable data are not available prior to 2012).	⇗
Health status	Life expectancy at birth has increased by just under a year since 2009 (the earliest year for which comparable data are available). The percentage of adults reporting to be in "good" or "very good" health has also increased, by 7 points since 2005.	⇗ ⇗
Education and skills	The 10-year change in upper secondary educational attainment cannot be assessed, due to a recent break in the data. However, between 2014 and 2016, attainment rates in Israel increased by just over 1 percentage point.	⇗
Social connections	The share of people who have relatives or friends whom they can count on to help in case of need has seen little change over the decade.	⇔
Civic engagement	Contrary to the OECD average trend, voter turnout in Israel has increased by 9 percentage points since 2006, reaching 72% in the 2015 parliamentary elections.	⇗
Environmental quality	The percentage of Israelis satisfied with their local water quality is currently 9 points higher than 10 years ago. However, annual exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution has increased strongly in the past decade and in 2013 was almost one-third higher than in 2005.	⇗ ⇘
Personal security	Deaths due to assault have fallen from 3.3 per 100 000 people in 2005 to 1.7 in 2014. On the other hand, feelings of safety when walking alone at night are broadly unchanged from their levels 10 years ago, close to the OECD average of 69%.	⇗ ⇔
Subjective well-being	Life satisfaction has remained relatively stable over the past decade in Israel.	⇔

Note: For each indicator in every dimension: ⇗ refers to an improvement; ⇔ indicates little or no change; and ⇘ signals deterioration. This is based on a comparison of the starting year (2005 in most cases) and the latest available year (usually 2015 or 2016). The order of the arrows shown in column three corresponds to that of the indicators mentioned in column two.

Israel's resources and risks for future well-being: Illustrative indicators

Natural capital

Indicator	Tier	Change	
Greenhouse gas emissions from domestic production	2	↗	2005-2014
CO_2 emissions from domestic consumption	3	↗	2001-2011
Exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution	3	↘	2005-2013
Forest area	3	⇔	2005-2014
Renewable freshwater resources	3	..	Long-term annual average
Freshwater abstractions	1	..	2014
No data available on threatened species.			

Human capital

Indicator	Tier	Change	
Young adult educational attainment	1	↗	2014-2016
Educational expectancy	3	..	2015
Cognitive skills at age 15	3	..	2015
Adult skills	3	..	2014/2015
Long-term unemployment	1	↗	2012-2016
Life expectancy at birth	1	↗	2009-2015
Smoking prevalence	2	⇔	2006-2016
Obesity prevalence	2	↘	2006-2016

Economic capital

Indicator	Tier	Change	
Produced fixed assets	3	↗	2005-2015
Gross fixed capital formation	3	↘	2005-2015
Financial net worth of total economy	1	↗	2005-2015
Intellectual property assets	2	⇔	2005-2015
Investment in R&D	2	↘	2005-2015
Financial net worth of government	2	⇔	2005-2015
Banking sector leverage	1	↗	2005-2015
No data available on household debt and household net wealth.			

Social capital

Indicator	Tier	Change	
Trust in the national government	2	↗	2006-2016
Voter turnout	2	↗	2006-2015
Government stakeholder engagement	3	..	2014
Volunteering through organisations	2	..	2014/2015
No data available on trust in others and trust in the police.			

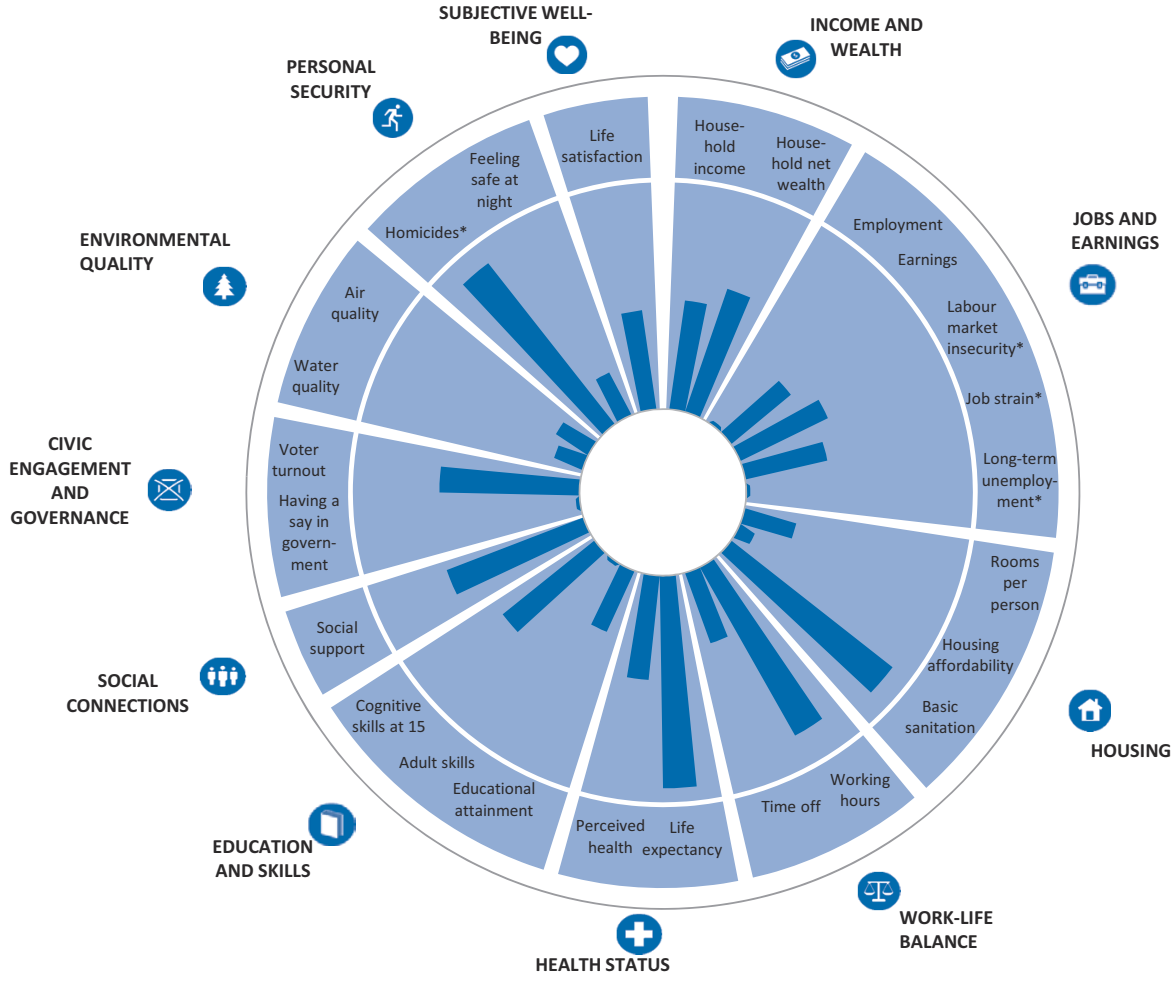
1	Top-performing OECD tier, latest available year
2	Middle-performing OECD tier, latest available year
3	Bottom-performing OECD tier, latest available year

↗	Improving over time
↘	Worsening over time
⇔	No change
..	No data available

HOW'S LIFE IN ITALY?

Relative to other OECD countries, Italy's average performance across the different well-being dimensions is mixed. The **employment rate,** about 57% in 2016, was among the lowest in the OECD area, and in terms of **labour market insecurity** and **long-term unemployment** Italy ranks in the bottom third of the OECD. However, **household net wealth** is fairly close to the OECD average, and only around 4% of employees regularly **work 50 hours or more** per week, less than one-third of the OECD average rate. **Life expectancy** at birth is in the top third in the OECD, and 66% of Italians **perceive their health** as "good" or "very good", 3 percentage points below the OECD average. In education and skills, environmental quality and **life satisfaction**, Italy's falls below the OECD average, while in terms of civic engagement and governance and personal security, performance is mixed. As for **social support**, 91% of the population in Italy report having friends or relatives whom they can count on in times of trouble, slightly above the OECD average of 89%.

Figure 5.17. **Italy's average level of current well-being: Comparative strengths and weaknesses**



Note: This chart shows Italy's relative strengths and weaknesses in well-being when compared with other OECD countries. For both positive and negative indicators (such as homicides, marked with an "*"), longer bars always indicate better outcomes (i.e. higher well-being), whereas shorter bars always indicate worse outcomes (lower well-being). If data are missing for any given indicator, the relevant segment of the circle is shaded in white.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933599175

Change in Italy's average well-being over the past 10 years

Dimension	Description	Change
Income and wealth	In 2016, household net adjusted disposable income was 10% lower than in 2005, one of the largest falls in the OECD. Following some slight gains from 2005 to 2009, it dropped during the years of the crisis and began to recover only in 2015. Household net wealth fell by 18%, in real terms, between 2010 and 2014.	↘ ↘
Jobs and earnings	Unlike the OECD average trend, both the employment rate and real earnings have seen little overall improvement since 2005. Labour market insecurity reached a high of 12.4% in 2012, a rate that – despite a small fall since then – remains almost twice the OECD average level. Long-term unemployment worsened from 2007, peaking in 2014 at 7.8%, 3 points above the rate in 2005. Job strain in Italy has seen little change in the last 10 years, with the share of employees affected remaining at around 40%.	⇔ ⇔ ↘ ↘ ⇔
Housing conditions	The average number of rooms per person has remained relatively stable over the past decade. Conversely, household spending on housing costs (as a proportion of disposable income) has gone up from 21% in 2005 to 24% in 2014 – one of the strongest rises in the OECD. The share of households lacking basic sanitation has also risen, from 0.2% to 0.7%.	⇔ ↘ ↘
Work-life balance	The share of employees working 50 hours or more per week has fallen by 1.5 percentage points in the past decade, a decrease steeper than the 0.9 point fall recorded for the OECD average.	↗
Health status	Despite falling by over six months between 2014 and 2015, life expectancy at birth has increased by 1.7 years overall since 2005 – in line with the OECD average increase. The percentage of adults reporting to be in "good" or "very good" health has risen by 7.5 points over the same period, though it remains just below the OECD average.	↗ ↗
Education and skills	The 10-year change in the upper secondary educational attainment rate cannot be assessed, due to a recent break in the data. However, between 2014 and 2016, the rate increased by just under 1 percent.	↗
Social connections	The share of people who have relatives or friends whom they can count on to help in case of need has remained relatively stable since 2005, in contrast with the slight decrease recorded for the OECD average.	⇔
Civic engagement	In line with the OECD average trend, voter turnout has fallen in Italy over the past decade. In the 2013 general elections, the percentage of votes cast among the population registered to vote was 75%, 8 points lower than in 2006, and 5 points lower than in 2008.	↘
Environmental quality	Satisfaction with local water quality has fallen slightly during the last few years. Between 2005 and 2013, exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution increased moderately (by 3%), remaining above the OECD average.	↘ ↘
Personal security	The rate of deaths due to assault is now similar to 2005 levels, and feelings of safety when walking alone at night have also remained relatively stable.	⇔ ⇔
Subjective well-being	People's life satisfaction has fallen gradually in Italy during the last 10 years, from an average of 6.7 to 5.9 (measured on a 0-10 scale). This decline is four times larger than the OECD average fall.	↘

Note: For each indicator in every dimension: ↗ refers to an improvement; ⇔ indicates little or no change; and ↘ signals deterioration. This is based on a comparison of the starting year (2005 in most cases) and the latest available year (usually 2015 or 2016). The order of the arrows shown in column three corresponds to that of the indicators mentioned in column two.

Italy's resources and risks for future well-being: Illustrative indicators

Natural capital

Indicator	Tier	Change	
Greenhouse gas emissions from domestic production	1	↗	2005-2015
CO_2 emissions from domestic consumption	2	↗	2001-2011
Exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution	3	↘	2005-2013
Forest area	3	⇔	2005-2014
Renewable freshwater resources	3	..	Long-term annual average
Freshwater abstractions	3	..	2008
Threatened birds	3	..	Latest available
Threatened mammals	2	..	Latest available
Threatened plants	1	..	Latest available

Human capital

Indicator	Tier	Change	
Young adult educational attainment	3	⇔	2014-2016
Educational expectancy	3	..	2015
Cognitive skills at age 15	3	..	2015
Adult skills	3	..	2011/2012
Long-term unemployment	3	↘	2005-2016
Life expectancy at birth	1	↗	2005-2015
Smoking prevalence	2	↗	2005-2016
Obesity prevalence	1	⇔	2005-2015

Economic capital

Indicator	Tier	Change	
Produced fixed assets	2	↗	2005-2015
Gross fixed capital formation	2	↗	2005-2016
Financial net worth of total economy	2	↘	2005-2016
Intellectual property assets	3	⇔	2005-2015
Investment in R&D	3	↗	2005-2013
Household debt	1	↘	2005-2015
Household net wealth	2	↘	2010-2014
Financial net worth of government	3	↘	2005-2015
Banking sector leverage	2	↘	2005-2015

Social capital

Indicator	Tier	Change	
Trust in others	3	..	2013
Trust in the police	2	..	2013
Trust in the national government	3	⇔	2005-2016
Voter turnout	1	↘	2006-2013
Government stakeholder engagement	3	..	2014
Volunteering through organisations	2	..	2011/2012

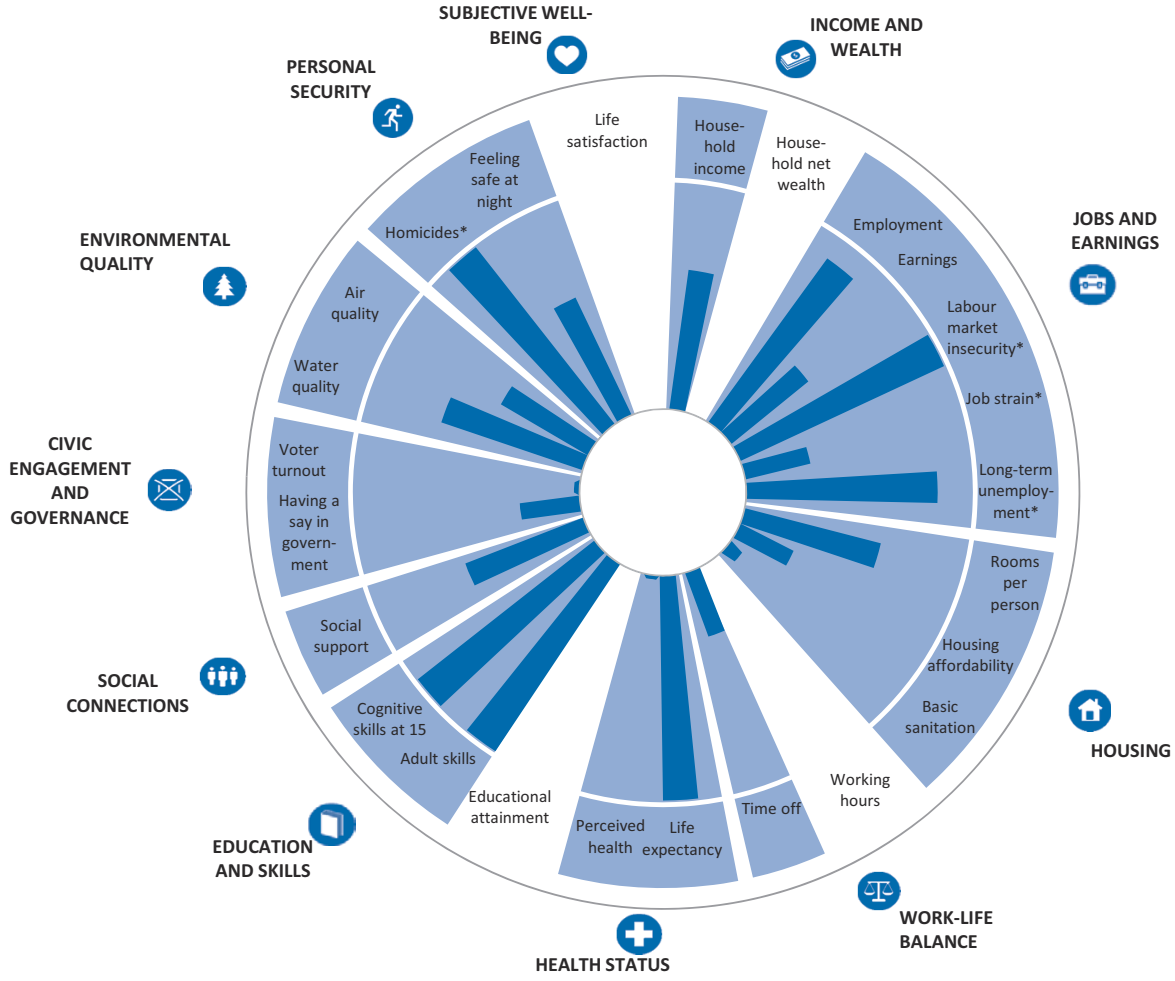
1	Top-performing OECD tier, latest available year
2	Middle-performing OECD tier, latest available year
3	Bottom-performing OECD tier, latest available year

↗	Improving over time
↘	Worsening over time
⇔	No change
..	No data available

HOW'S LIFE IN JAPAN?

Relative to other OECD countries, Japan's average performance across the different well-being dimensions is mixed. At 74%, the **employment rate** is well above the OECD average of 67%, and Japan benefits from one of the lowest levels of **labour market insecurity** in the OECD. However, when compared to other OECD countries, **job strain** in Japan is high, and both average **earnings** and average **household net adjusted disposable income** were below the OECD average, in 2016 and in 2015, respectively. **Life expectancy** at birth (84 years) is the highest in the OECD, yet only 35% of people in Japan **perceive their health** as "good" or "very good", almost half of the OECD average (however, 49% of people in Japan report to be in "fair" health, which is a larger share than in most OECD countries). **Adults' skills** and the **cognitive skills** of 15-year-old students are among the highest in the OECD. By contrast, **voter turnout** and the percentage of adults who feel that they **have a say in what the government does** are in the bottom third of the OECD.

Figure 5.18. **Japan's average level of current well-being: Comparative strengths and weaknesses**



Note: This chart shows the Japan's relative strengths and weaknesses in well-being when compared with other OECD countries. For both positive and negative indicators (such as homicides, marked with an "*"), longer bars always indicate better outcomes (i.e. higher well-being), whereas shorter bars always indicate worse outcomes (lower well-being). If data are missing for any given indicator, the relevant segment of the circle is shaded in white.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933599194

Change in Japan's average well-being over the past 10 years

Dimension	Description	Change
Income and wealth	Household net adjusted disposable income has risen steadily in real terms over the past decade, and is now 7% higher than in 2005.	⇗
Jobs and earnings	After falling from 2008 to 2009, the employment rate has risen steadily in recent years and is now 5 percentage points higher than in 2005. Real earnings have shown little sustained progress in the last 10 years, and in 2016 the level was close to that of 2005. Japan is among 5 OECD countries where labour market insecurity has improved over the past decade, and the long-term unemployment rate is now below its 2005 level – having fully recovered from the peak reached in 2010.The share of Japanese employees experiencing job strain has also fallen by 5 percentage points since 2005.	⇗ ⇔ ⇗ ⇗ ⇗
Housing conditions	The number of rooms per person has risen slightly since 2005, and is currently just above the OECD average. Housing has however become less affordable since 2005, with the share of household disposable income spent on housing costs up by 0.8 percentage points.	⇗ ⇘
Work-life balance	[No time series data available]	..
Health status	Life expectancy at birth has increased by almost 2 years since 2005, in line with the OECD average increase, despite starting from a high level. The percentage of adults reporting to be in "good" or "very good" health has remained relatively stable over the last 10 years.	⇗ ⇔
Education and skills	[No time series data available]	..
Social connections	The share of people having relatives or friends whom they can count on for help in case of need has fallen from 93% to 90% over the past decade.	⇘
Civic engagement	Voter turnout fell by almost 15 percentage points between the 2005 and the 2014 general elections in Japan.	⇘
Environmental quality	The percentage of Japanese people satisfied with their local water quality is currently 11 points higher than 10 years ago. Annual exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution has improved, with a 10% decrease between 2005 and 2013.	⇗ ⇗
Personal security	The rate of deaths due to assault has remained stable over the last 10 years. Over the same period, the share of people who report feeling safe when walking alone at night has increased from 63% to 71%.	⇔ ⇗
Subjective well-being	People's life satisfaction has fallen slightly in Japan during the last 10 years, from an average of 6.4 to 5.9 (measured on a 0-10 scale).	⇘

Note: For each indicator in every dimension: ⇗ refers to an improvement; ⇔ indicates little or no change; and ⇘ signals deterioration. This is based on a comparison of the starting year (2005 in most cases) and the latest available year (usually 2015 or 2016). The order of the arrows shown in column three corresponds to that of the indicators mentioned in column two.

Japan's resources and risks for future well-being: Illustrative indicators

Natural capital		
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**
Greenhouse gas emissions from domestic production	2	↗ 2005-2015
CO_2 emissions from domestic consumption	2	⇔ 2001-2011
Exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution	2	↗ 2005-2013
Forest area	2	⇔ 2005-2014
Renewable freshwater resources	2	.. Long-term annual average
Freshwater abstractions	2	.. 2012
Threatened birds	1	.. Latest available
Threatened mammals	2	.. Latest available
Threatened plants	3	.. Latest available

Human capital		
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**
Educational expectancy	3	.. 2014
Cognitive skills at age 15	1	.. 2015
Adult skills	1	.. 2011/2012
Long-term unemployment	1	↗ 2005-2016
Life expectancy at birth	1	↗ 2005-2015
Smoking prevalence	2	↗ 2005-2015
Obesity prevalence	1	⇔ 2005-2015
No data available on young adult educational attainment.		

Economic capital		
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**
Produced fixed assets	2	↗ 2005-2015
Gross fixed capital formation	3	↘ 2005-2015
Financial net worth of total economy	1	↗ 2005-2014
Intellectual property assets	1	↗ 2005-2015
Investment in R&D	1	↗ 2005-2015
Household debt	2	⇔ 2005-2015
Financial net worth of government	3	↘ 2005-2016
Banking sector leverage	3	↘ 2005-2015
No data available on household net wealth.		

Social capital		
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**
Trust in the national government	2	↗ 2005-2016
Voter turnout	3	↘ 2005-2014
Government stakeholder engagement	3	.. 2014
Volunteering through organisations	3	.. 2011/2012
No data available on trust in others and trust in the police.		

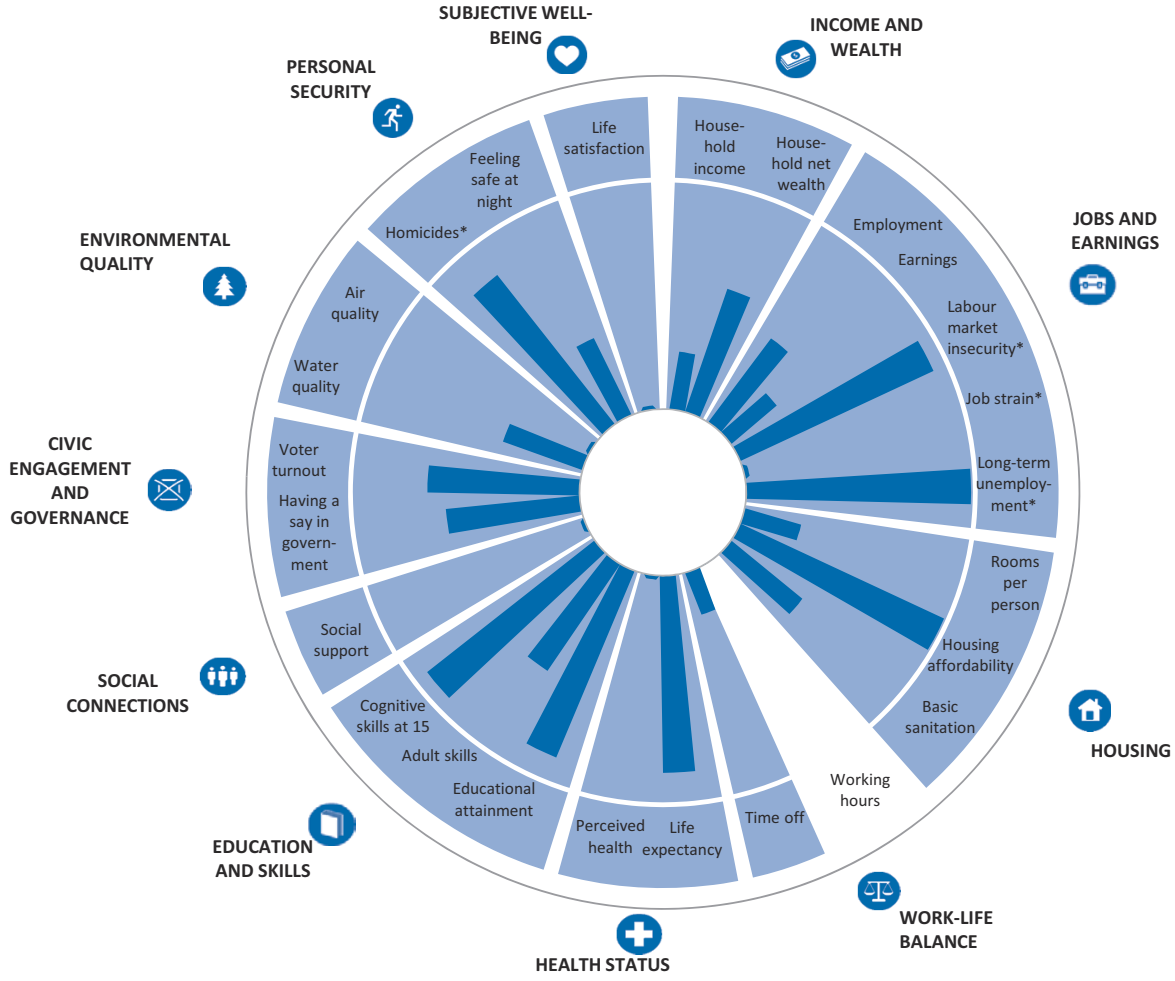
1	Top-performing OECD tier, latest available year
2	Middle-performing OECD tier, latest available year
3	Bottom-performing OECD tier, latest available year

↗	Improving over time
↘	Worsening over time
⇔	No change
..	No data available

HOW'S LIFE IN KOREA?

Relative to other OECD countries, Korea's average performance across the different well-being dimensions is mixed. Although income and wealth stand below the OECD average, the **long-term unemployment rate** is the lowest in the OECD (almost nil in 2016), and **labour market insecurity** is also low. Nonetheless, the incidence of **job strain** among employees is among the highest in the OECD, and both **earnings** and the **employment rate** are below the OECD average. On housing, although both the average number of **rooms** per person and access to basic sanitation are below the OECD average, **housing affordability** ranks the highest in the OECD. At 82 years, **life expectancy** at birth is above the OECD average, but only 32% of Koreans **perceive their health** as "good" or "very good" (although 50% of people in Korea report to be in "fair" health, which is a larger share than in most OECD countries). Korea has comparative strengths in education and skills, but its levels of **social support** and environmental quality (particularly **air quality**) are among the worst in the OECD.

Figure 5.19. **Korea's average level of current well-being: Comparative strengths and weaknesses**



Note: This chart shows the Korea's relative strengths and weaknesses in well-being when compared with other OECD countries. For both positive and negative indicators (such as homicides, marked with an "*"), longer bars always indicate better outcomes (i.e. higher well-being), whereas shorter bars always indicate worse outcomes (lower well-being). If data are missing for any given indicator, the relevant segment of the circle is shaded in white.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933599213

Change in Korea's average well-being over the past 10 years

Dimension	Description	Change
Income and wealth	Household net adjusted disposable income has risen steadily in Korea over the past decade, and is now 23% higher (in real terms) than in 2005.	⇗
Jobs and earnings	After decreasing from 2007 to 2009, the employment rate has risen steadily in recent years and is now over 2 percentage points higher than in 2005. Despite a few setbacks, average earnings have improved gradually over the decade, with a 9% cumulative gain since 2005. Both labour market insecurity and the long-term unemployment rate have remained broadly stable.	⇗ ⇗ ⇔ ⇔
Housing conditions	Housing has become more affordable since 2005, with the share of household disposable income spent on housing costs falling by 2.1 percentage points.	⇗
Work-life balance	[No time series data available]	..
Health status	Life expectancy at birth increased by almost 4 years since 2005, and now exceeds the OECD average by 2 years. Korea is however one of few OECD countries where the share of people rating their health as "good" or "very good" has fallen (by 11 percentage points) in the last decade.	⇗ ⇘
Education and skills	Between 2005 and 2015, the share of working-age adults who have attained at least an upper secondary level of education increased by over 11 percentage points.	⇗
Social connections	The percentage of people reporting that they have relatives or friends whom they can count on to help in case of need has remained relatively stable over the decade.	⇔
Civic engagement	Contrary to the OECD average trend, voter turnout in Korea increased by 14 points from 2007, to 77% in the 2017 presidential elections.	⇗
Environmental quality	The percentage of Koreans satisfied with their local water quality has remained broadly stable over the past decade. However, annual exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution increased by 4% between 2005 and 2013, with this worsening gaining momentum in recent years.	⇔ ⇘
Personal security	The number of deaths due to assault has fallen by almost 40% in Korea compared to 2005. Feelings of safety are slightly better than they were 10 years ago, and are today just above the current OECD average of 69%.	⇗ ⇗
Subjective well-being	Life satisfaction has improved slightly in Korea over the past decade, but remains below the OECD average.	⇗

Note: For each indicator in every dimension: ⇗ refers to an improvement; ⇔ indicates little or no change; and ⇘ signals deterioration. This is based on a comparison of the start year (2005 in most cases) and the latest available year (usually 2015 or 2016). The order of the arrows shown in column three corresponds to that of the indicators mentioned in column two.

Korea's resources and risks for future well-being: Illustrative indicators

Natural capital

Indicator	Tier	Change	
Greenhouse gas emissions from domestic production	❸	↘	2005-2013
CO_2 emissions from domestic consumption	❸	↘	2001-2011
Exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution	❸	↘	2005-2013
Forest area	❷	⇔	2005-2014
Renewable freshwater resources	❸	..	Long-term annual average
Freshwater abstractions	❷	..	2014
Threatened birds	❶	..	Latest available
Threatened mammals	❶	..	Latest available
Threatened plants	❶	..	Latest available

Human capital

Indicator	Tier	Change	
Young adult educational attainment	❶	↗	2005-2016
Educational expectancy	❷	..	2015
Cognitive skills at age 15	❶	..	2015
Adult skills	❷	..	2011/2012
Long-term unemployment	❶	⇔	2005-2016
Life expectancy at birth	❶	↗	2005-2015
Smoking prevalence	❶	↗	2005-2015
Obesity prevalence	❶	↘	2005-2015

Economic capital

Indicator	Tier	Change	
Produced fixed assets	❷	↗	2005-2015
Gross fixed capital formation	❶	↗	2005-2015
Financial net worth of total economy	❶	↗	2008-2015
Intellectual property assets	❶	↗	2005-2015
Investment in R&D	❶	↗	2005-2015
Household debt	❸	↘	2008-2015
Household net wealth	❷	..	2013
Financial net worth of government	❶	⇔	2008-2016
Banking sector leverage	❸	⇔	2008-2015

Social capital

Indicator	Tier	Change	
Trust in the national government	❸	⇔	2006-2016
Voter turnout	❶	↗	2007-2017
Government stakeholder engagement	❷	..	2014
Volunteering through organisations	❸	..	2011/2012
No data available on trust in others and trust in the police.			

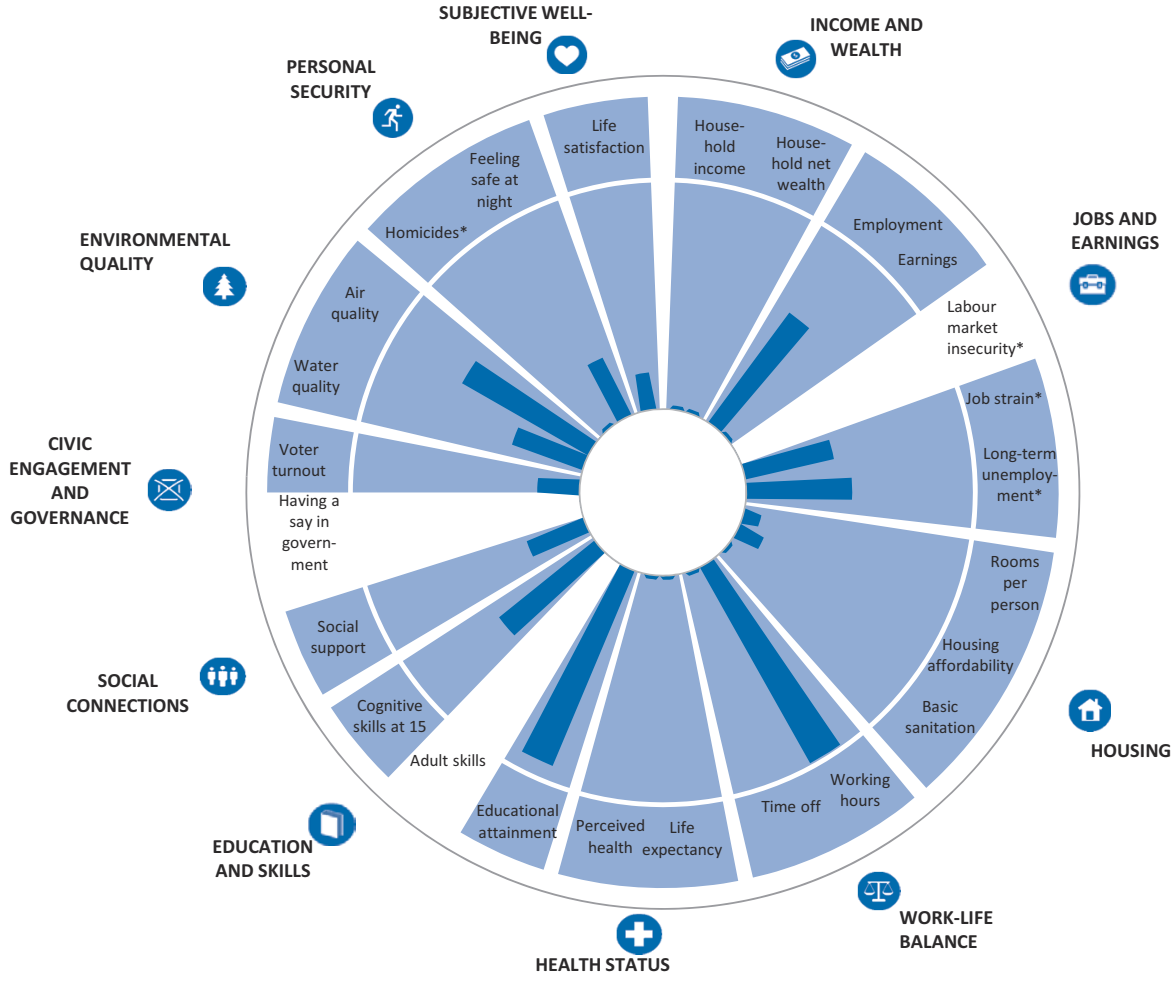
❶	Top-performing OECD tier, latest available year
❷	Middle-performing OECD tier, latest available year
❸	Bottom-performing OECD tier, latest available year

↗	Improving over time
↘	Worsening over time
⇔	No change
..	No data available

HOW'S LIFE IN LATVIA?

Relative to other OECD countries, Latvia's average performance across the different well-being dimensions is mixed. Material conditions are generally an area of comparative weakness: at just over 15 000 USD, the average **household net adjusted disposable income** was around half the OECD average level in 2015, and the **long-term unemployment** rate was almost twice the OECD average in 2016. However, the **employment rate** (69%) is above the OECD average (67%), and only 2% of employees regularly **work very long hours**, among the lowest in the OECD. **Life expectancy** at birth, at 75 years, is however the lowest in the OECD area, 5 years below the OECD average. 89% of the adult working-age population have attained at least an upper secondary education, placing Latvia among the top tier of OECD countries, and 15-year-olds' **cognitive skills** are close to the OECD average. In terms of personal security, the **homicide** rate in Latvia is the second-highest in the OECD, and only 61% of people feel **safe walking alone at night**, compared to 69% on average in the OECD.

Figure 5.20. **Latvia's average level of current well-being: Comparative strengths and weaknesses**



Note: This chart shows Latvia's relative strengths and weaknesses in well-being when compared with other OECD countries. For both positive and negative indicators (such as homicides, marked with an "*"), longer bars always indicate better outcomes (i.e. higher well-being), whereas shorter bars always indicate worse outcomes (lower well-being). If data are missing for any given indicator, the relevant segment of the circle is shaded in white.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933599232

Change in Latvia's average well-being over the past 10 years

Dimension	Description	Change
Income and wealth	Household net adjusted disposable income in Latvia is currently 27% higher, in real terms, than in 2005 – over three times the OECD average cumulative gain over the last 10 years. However, household income dropped during the crisis and, despite recent growth, has not yet recovered its previous high in 2008.	⇗
Jobs and earnings	Although the crisis had a heavy impact on Latvian jobs, its effects have since started to wane. After falling from 2008 to 2010, the employment rate recovered strongly and is now (at 69%) 7 points higher than in 2005. Average earnings are 56% higher than a decade ago, and the long-term unemployment rate stands at 3.7% – down from 8.8% at the height of the crisis. The proportion of employees experiencing job strain has also decreased over the past decade, from 43% in 2005 to 39% in 2015.	⇗ ⇗ ⇗ ⇗
Housing conditions	The average number of rooms per person has improved over the past decade, but is still below the OECD average. Spending on housing costs (as a proportion of household disposable income) has gone up from 18.1% in 2005 to 23.2% in 2015 – which is among the largest increases in the OECD. Meanwhile, the share of people living in dwellings without basic sanitary facilities has decreased sharply in the past 10 years.	⇗ ⇘ ⇗
Work-life balance	The past 10 years have witnessed a large fall in the percentage of employees working 50 hours or more per week, from 11.5% in 2005 to just 2.1% in 2016.	⇗
Health status	Life expectancy at birth has increased steadily, improving by 4 years since 2005. The proportion of Latvians reporting that their health is "good" or "very good" has also gone up, from 35% to 46%, but remains well below the OECD average.	⇗ ⇗
Education and skills	The share of adults with at least an upper secondary level of education increased by 3.4 percentage points over the decade.	⇗
Social connections	The share of the population reporting that they have relatives or friends whom they can count on to help in case of need increased over the past 10 years, up from 82.5% to 85.8%.	⇗
Civic engagement	At 58.8%, voter turnout in the 2014 parliamentary elections was considerably lower than in 2006 and 2010. This is in line with the OECD average trend, which saw voter turnout fall by 2.4 percentage points over the last decade.	⇘
Environmental quality	The percentage of Latvians satisfied with their local water quality is currently 13 points higher than 10 years ago. Annual exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution has also improved since 2005, and was 11% lower in 2013.	⇗ ⇗
Personal security	There have been clear signs of progress in personal security since 2005: the homicide rate has dropped from 10.2 to 6.6 deaths per 100 000 people, and the proportion of people declaring that they feel safe when walking alone at night has increased by 14 percentage points.	⇗ ⇗
Subjective well-being	Average levels of life satisfaction have increased from 4.7 (on a 0 to 10 scale) to 5.9 over the past decade, more than in any other OECD country.	⇗

Note: For each indicator in every dimension: ⇗ refers to an improvement; ⇔ indicates little or no change; and ⇘ signals deterioration. This is based on a comparison of the start year (2005 in most cases) and the latest available year (usually 2015 or 2016). The order of the arrows shown in column three corresponds to that of the indicators mentioned in column two.

Latvia's resources and risks for future well-being: Illustrative indicators

Natural capital

Indicator	Tier	Change	
Greenhouse gas emissions from domestic production	1	↘	2005-2015
CO_2 emissions from domestic consumption	1	↘	2001-2011
Exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution	2	↗	2005-2013
Forest area	1	↗	2005-2014
Renewable freshwater resources	1	..	Long-term annual average
Freshwater abstractions	1	..	2015
Threatened birds	2	..	Latest available
Threatened mammals	1	..	Latest available
Threatened plants	2	..	Latest available

Human capital

Indicator	Tier	Change	
Young adult educational attainment	2	↗	2005-2016
Educational expectancy	2	..	2015
Cognitive skills at age 15	3	..	2015
Long-term unemployment	3	↗	2005-2016
Life expectancy at birth	3	↗	2005-2015
Smoking prevalence	3	↗	2008-2014
Obesity prevalence	3	↘	2014-2016
No data on adult skills.			

Economic capital

Indicator	Tier	Change	
Produced fixed assets	2	↗	2005-2014
Gross fixed capital formation	3	↘	2005-2016
Financial net worth of total economy	3	↘	2005-2016
Intellectual property assets	3	↗	2005-2014
Investment in R&D	3	⇔	2005-2014
Household debt	1	⇔	2005-2015
Household net wealth	3	↘	2014
Financial net worth of government	2	↘	2005-2015
Banking sector leverage	2	↗	2005-2015

Social capital

Indicator	Tier	Change	
Trust in others	1	..	2013
Trust in the police	3	..	2013
Trust in the national government	3	⇔	2005-2016
Voter turnout	3	↘	2006-2014
Government stakeholder engagement	2	..	2014
No data on volunteering through organisations.			

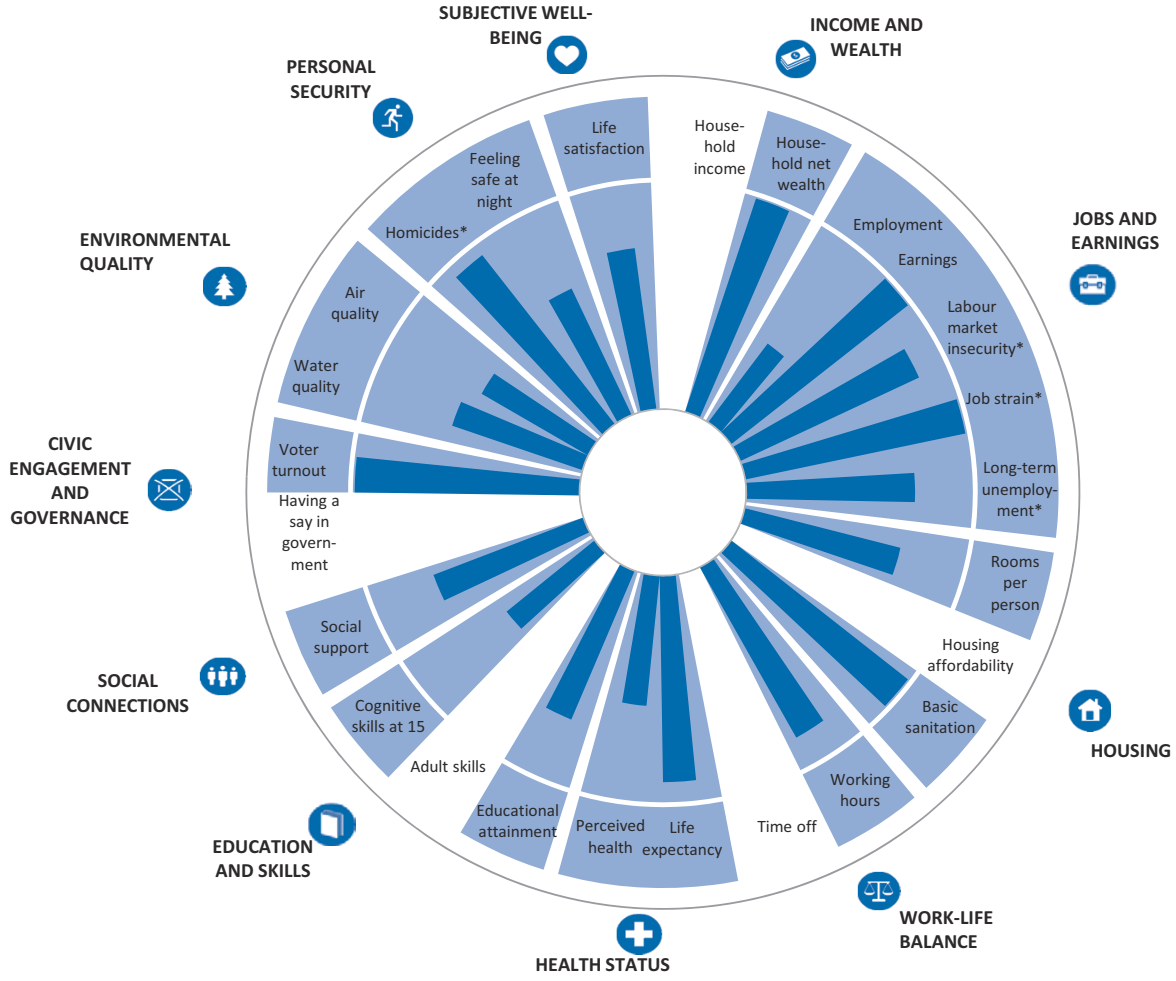
1	Top-performing OECD tier, latest available year
2	Middle-performing OECD tier, latest available year
3	Bottom-performing OECD tier, latest available year

↗	Improving over time
↘	Worsening over time
⇔	No change
..	No data available

HOW'S LIFE IN LUXEMBOURG?

In general, Luxembourg performs well in terms of material living conditions relative to the other OECD countries. **Household net wealth** and **average earnings** are the highest in the OECD (respectively, around 790 000 USD in 2014, the latest available year, and 62 600 USD in 2016). **Job strain** is among the lowest in the OECD, and fewer than 4% of employees in Luxembourg regularly **work very long hours**, compared to the OECD average of 13%. Luxembourg also performs well in terms of housing conditions. **Voter turnout** (91.2%) is the highest in the OECD, though this may reflect the practice of compulsory voting. Regarding **social support**, 92% of people report having friends or relatives whom they can count on in times of trouble, which is higher than the OECD average of 89%. As for personal security, the **homicide rate** stood well below the OECD average in 2014 (0.6 compared to 3.6 per 100 000). **Life satisfaction** in Luxembourg is meanwhile close to the OECD average level.

Figure 5.21. **Luxembourg's average level of current well-being: Comparative strengths and weaknesses**



Note: This chart shows Luxembourg's relative strengths and weaknesses in well-being when compared with other OECD countries. For both positive and negative indicators (such as homicides, marked with an "*"), longer bars always indicate better outcomes (i.e. higher well-being), whereas shorter bars always indicate worse outcomes (lower well-being). If data are missing for any given indicator, the relevant segment of the circle is shaded in white.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933599251

Change in Luxembourg's average well-being over the past 10 years

Dimension	Description	Change
Income and wealth	In Luxembourg, household net wealth was 11% higher in 2014 than it was in 2010, in real terms.	⇗
Jobs and earnings	The employment rate in 2016 was 2 percentage points higher than in 2005, although 1 point below its 2014 peak. Despite minor setbacks in 2008 and 2011-12, real earnings have increased overall in the last decade, and are now 10% higher than in 2005. Labour market insecurity peaked in 2013, and has yet to fall back to its pre-crisis levels. Similarly, long-term unemployment has increased from 1.2% in 2005 to 1.9% in 2015. The share of employees experiencing job strain increased by 5.5 percentage points between 2005 and 2010, but by 2015 it had returned to its previous (2005) levels.	⇗ ⇗ ⇘ ⇘ ⇔
Housing conditions	The number of rooms per person has improved over the past decade, and now stands slightly above the OECD average. The percentage of people living without basic sanitary facilities has fallen by two-thirds in the last decade.	⇗ ⇗
Work-life balance	Luxembourg is among the few OECD countries where the percentage of employees working 50 hours or more per week has increased over the past decade, peaking at 3.8% in 2016. Although this is 2.5 points higher than in 2005, it is still relatively low compared to the OECD average.	⇘
Health status	Life expectancy at birth has increased by just under a year since 2012 (the earliest year for which comparable data are available). The percentage of adults reporting to be in "good" or "very good" health has remained relatively stable.	⇗ ⇔
Education and skills	The 10-year change in upper secondary educational attainment cannot be assessed, due to a recent break in the data. However, between 2014 and 2016, attainment rates in Luxembourg fell by 3.2 percentage points.	⇘
Social connections	The share of people who have relatives or friends whom they can count on to help in case of need has remained broadly stable over the past decade.	⇔
Civic engagement	Voter turnout remained relatively stable between the 2009 and 2013 general elections in Luxembourg. This differs from the OECD average trend, which has seen voter turnout decrease by 2.4 percentage points in the last 10 years.	⇔
Environmental quality	Consistent with the OECD average, satisfaction with local water quality has fallen slightly in the last few years. On the other hand, air pollution levels in 2013 were close to those in 2005.	⇘ ⇔
Personal security	The rate of deaths due to assault has more than halved in recent years, from 1.5 to 0.6 deaths per 100 000 people. However, the share of the population who declare that they feel safe when walking alone at night decreased slightly, from 76% to 72%.	⇗ ⇘
Subjective well-being	[No time series data available]	..

Note: For each indicator in every dimension: ⇗ refers to an improvement; ⇔ indicates little or no change; and ⇘ signals deterioration. This is based on a comparison of the start year (2005 in most cases) and the latest available year (usually 2015 or 2016). The order of the arrows shown in column three corresponds to that of the indicators mentioned in column two.

Luxembourg's resources and risks for future well-being: Illustrative indicators

Natural capital

Indicator	Tier	Change
Greenhouse gas emissions from domestic production	3	↗ 2005-2015
CO_2 emissions from domestic consumption	3	⇔ 2001-2011
Exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution	2	⇔ 2005-2013
Forest area	2	⇔ 2005-2014
Renewable freshwater resources	3	.. Long-term annual average
Freshwater abstractions	1	.. 2015
Threatened birds	2	.. Latest available
Threatened plants	3	.. Latest available
No data available on threatened mammals.		

Human capital

Indicator	Tier	Change
Young adult educational attainment	2	⇔ 2014-2016
Educational expectancy	3	.. 2015
Cognitive skills at age 15	3	.. 2015
Long-term unemployment	2	↘ 2005-2015
Life expectancy at birth	1	↗ 2012-2015
Smoking prevalence	1	↗ 2009-2014
Obesity prevalence	2	⇔ 2009-2014
No data available on adult skills.		

Economic capital

Indicator	Tier	Change
Produced fixed assets	1	↗ 2005-2015
Gross fixed capital formation	2	↗ 2005-2016
Financial net worth of total economy	2	↘ 2005-2016
Intellectual property assets	2	↗ 2005-2015
Investment in R&D	3	↗ 2005-2015
Household net wealth	1	↗ 2010-2014
Financial net worth of government	1	⇔ 2005-2015
Banking sector leverage	3	↗ 2005-2015
No data available on household debt.		

Social capital

Indicator	Tier	Change
Trust in others	3	.. 2013
Trust in the police	2	.. 2013
Trust in the national government	1	↘ 2008-2016
Voter turnout	1	⇔ 2009-2013
Government stakeholder engagement	3	.. 2014
No data available on volunteering through organisations.		

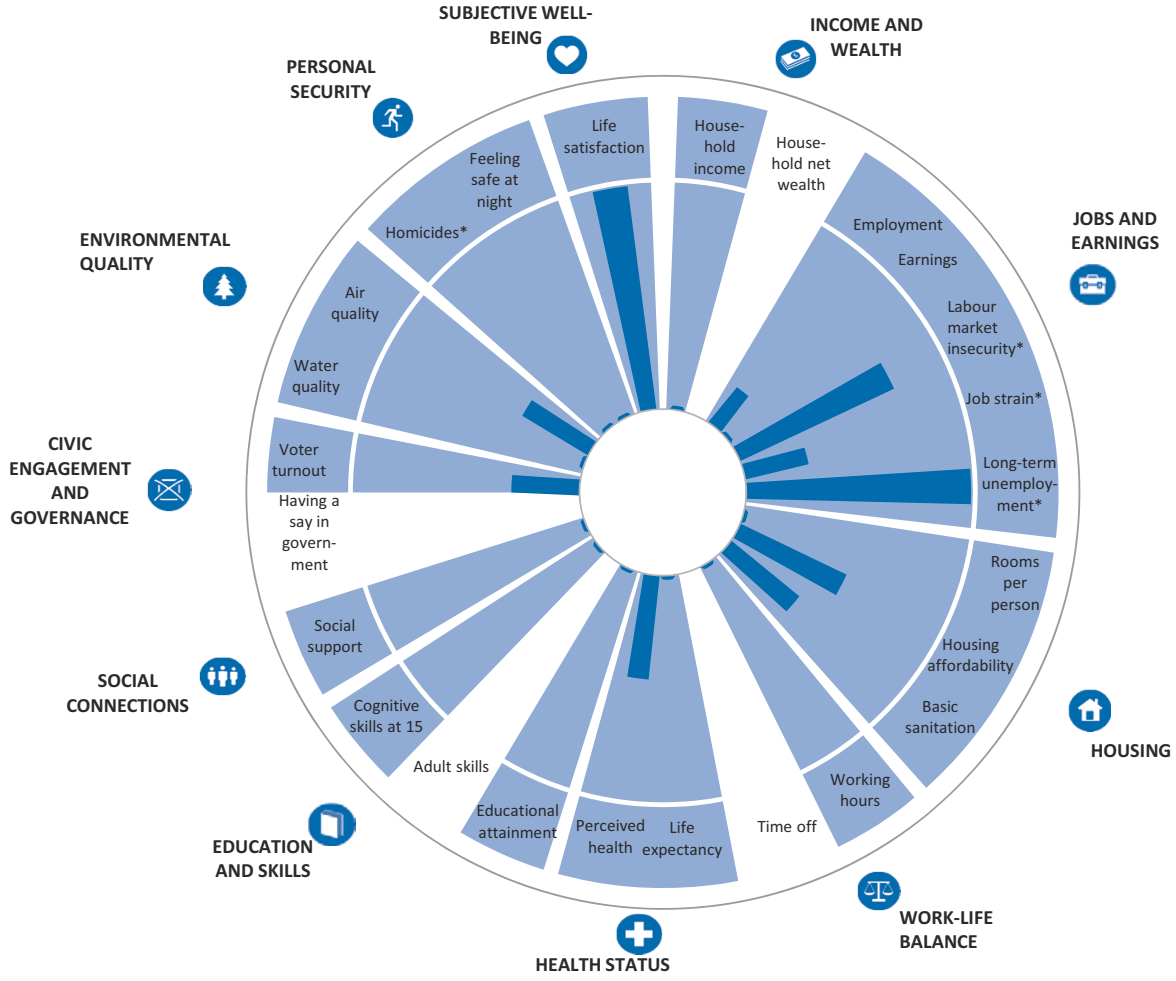
1	Top-performing OECD tier, latest available year
2	Middle-performing OECD tier, latest available year
3	Bottom-performing OECD tier, latest available year

↗	Improving over time
↘	Worsening over time
⇔	No change
..	No data available

HOW'S LIFE IN MEXICO?

Relative to other OECD countries, Mexico has a mixed performance across the different well-being dimensions. At 61% in 2016, Mexico's **employment** rate was below the OECD average (67%), but the **long-term unemployment rate** was close to zero, one of the lowest levels in the OECD. Housing conditions are below the OECD average for all three indicators, and the average **life expectancy** at birth (75 years in 2015) is 5 years below the OECD average. Mexico has the highest **homicide rate** in the OECD, with 18 homicides per 100 000 people in 2014. In addition, a relatively low share of people report feeling **safe walking alone at night** in the area where they live (46% compared to an OECD average of 69% in 2014-16). **Social support** is also among the lowest in the OECD area: only 80% of Mexicans report having friends or relatives whom they can count on in times of need, compared to 89% in the OECD on average. Mexico also ranks low in terms of education and skills but is in the top tier of OECD countries in terms of **life satisfaction**.

Figure 5.22. **Mexico's average level of current well-being: Comparative strengths and weaknesses**



Note: This chart shows Mexico's relative strengths and weaknesses in well-being when compared with other OECD countries. For both positive and negative indicators (such as homicides, marked with an "*"), longer bars always indicate better outcomes (i.e. higher well-being), whereas shorter bars always indicate worse outcomes (lower well-being). If data are missing for any given indicator, the relevant segment of the circle is shaded in white.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933599270

Change in Mexico's average well-being over the past 10 years

Dimension	Description	Change
Income and wealth	After a period of growth from 2005-08, household net adjusted disposable income fell sharply in 2009. It has recovered strongly since, with a cumulative gain of 11% over the decade, compared to 8% for the OECD average.	⇗
Jobs and earnings	While the employment rate has grown by 1 percentage point in the past decade, real earnings have seen little sustained improvement over the same period. Labour market insecurity rose sharply in 2009, with gradual signs of improvement since then but without full recovery. Long-term unemployment has meanwhile remained stable and low, unlike job strain which is also stable but still among the highest in the OECD.	⇗ ⇔ ⇘ ⇔ ⇔
Housing conditions	There has been an improvement in housing affordability in the past decade, with the proportion of household disposable income spent on housing falling from 24% in 2005 to 20.7% in 2015. The average number of rooms per person has remained relatively stable over the past decade.	⇗ ⇔
Work-life balance	In 2016, Mexico had the second-highest rate of employees working 50 hours or more per week, at almost 30%. It has seen little change in the past decade.	⇔
Health status	Life expectancy at birth has grown at a slower rate than the OECD average over the last decade, from 74 years in 2005 to 75 years in 2015.	⇗
Education and skills	The 10-year change in upper secondary educational attainment cannot be assessed, due to a recent break in the data. However, between 2014 and 2016, attainment rates in Mexico increased by 1.5 percentage points.	⇗
Social connections	Social support has fallen in Mexico over the past decade. While 88% of people reported having a friend or relative whom they could count on in 2005-07, by 2014-16 this share had dropped to 80%.	⇘
Civic engagement	Voter turnout increased by 4.5 percentage points between the 2006 and 2012 presidential elections.	⇗
Environmental quality	The average annual exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution fell by 7% between 2005 and 2013 despite a sharp rise in 2012. In line with the OECD average, satisfaction with local water quality has fallen in recent years, to its lowest level since 2005 (67%).	⇗ ⇘
Personal security	The rate of deaths due to assault has risen by almost two-thirds over the last 10 years, by far the largest increase in the OECD. The percentage of the population who report feeling safe at night has fallen accordingly to 46%, 11 percentage points lower than a decade ago.	⇘ ⇘
Subjective well-being	Having gradually improved up until 2013, life satisfaction in Mexico has now fallen, returning to the levels seen 10 years ago.	⇔

Note: For each indicator in every dimension: ⇗ refers to an improvement; ⇔ indicates little or no change; and ⇘ signals deterioration. This is based on a comparison of the start year (2005 in most cases) and the latest available year (usually 2015 or 2016). The order of the arrows shown in column three corresponds to that of the indicators mentioned in column two.

Mexico's resources and risks for future well-being: Illustrative indicators

Natural capital		
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**
Greenhouse gas emissions from domestic production	1	⇔ 2005-2013
CO_2 emissions from domestic consumption	1	⇔ 2001-2011
Exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution	2	⇗ 2005-2013
Forest area	1	⇘ 2005-2014
Renewable freshwater resources	2	.. Long-term annual average
Freshwater abstractions	3	.. 2014
Threatened birds	2	.. Latest available
Threatened mammals	3	.. Latest available
Threatened plants	1	.. Latest available

Human capital		
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**
Young adult educational attainment	3	⇗ 2014-2016
Educational expectancy	3	.. 2015
Cognitive skills at age 15	3	.. 2015
Long-term unemployment	1	⇔ 2005-2016
Life expectancy at birth	3	⇗ 2005-2015
Smoking prevalence	1	⇗ 2006-2012
Obesity prevalence	3	⇘ 2005-2016
No data available on adult skills.		

Economic capital		
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**
Gross fixed capital formation	1	⇘ 2005-2015
Financial net worth of total economy	..	⇗ 2005-2009
No data available on produced fixed assets, intellectual property assets, investment in R&D, household debt, household net wealth, financial worth of government and banking sector leverage.		

Social capital		
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**
Trust in the national government	3	⇘ 2005-2016
Voter turnout	3	⇗ 2006-2012
Government stakeholder engagement	1	.. 2014
No data available on trust in others, trust in the police and volunteering through organisations.		

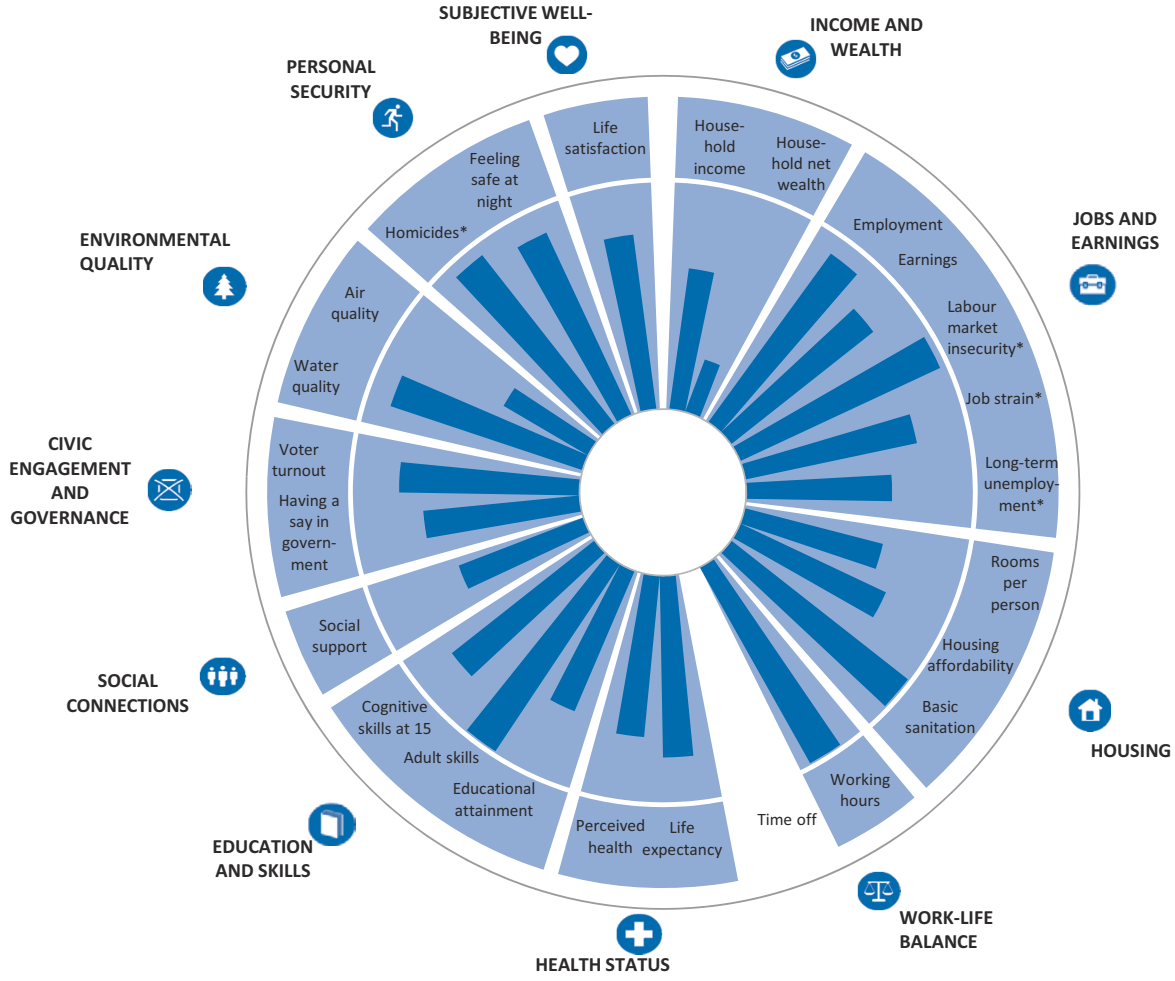
1	Top-performing OECD tier, latest available year
2	Middle-performing OECD tier, latest available year
3	Bottom-performing OECD tier, latest available year

⇗	Improving over time
⇘	Worsening over time
⇔	No change
..	No data available

HOW'S LIFE IN THE NETHERLANDS?

In general, the Netherlands performs well across the OECD's headline well-being indicators relative to the other OECD countries. **Household net wealth** was about half of the OECD average level in 2015, but **average earnings** (around 53 000 USD in 2016) are nearly 20% higher than the OECD average. The Netherlands benefits from comparatively low levels of both **labour market insecurity** and **job strain**. In addition, less than 1% of employees regularly **work very long hours**, the lowest share in the OECD. However, the **long-term unemployment rate** in 2016 stood at 3%, above the OECD average of 2.3%. Housing conditions in the Netherlands are good, but **air quality** (assessed in terms of exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution) is close to the OECD average. 77% of the adult working-age population have completed at least an upper secondary education, compared to the OECD average of 75%, and the literacy and numeracy skills of Dutch adults are among the highest in the OECD. Personal security is also good, and **life satisfaction** is just above the OECD average level.

Figure 5.23. **The Netherlands' average level of current well-being: Comparative strengths and weaknesses**



Note: This chart shows the Netherlands' relative strengths and weaknesses in well-being when compared with other OECD countries. For both positive and negative indicators (such as homicides, marked with an "*"), longer bars always indicate better outcomes (i.e. higher well-being), whereas shorter bars always indicate worse outcomes (lower well-being). If data are missing for any given indicator, the relevant segment of the circle is shaded in white.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933599289

Change in the Netherlands' average well-being over the past 10 years

Dimension	Description	Change
Income and wealth	Household net adjusted disposable income increased steadily by 8% from 2005 to 2009, but then fell gradually until 2013, before resuming growth in 2014. Its current level is now 8% higher (in real terms) than in 2005. Household net wealth fell by 16% cumulatively between 2010 and 2015, in real terms.*	↗ ↘
Jobs and earnings	The employment rate in 2016 was 3.3 percentage points higher than in 2005 but remains over 1 percentage point below its 2008 peak. Despite minor setbacks in 2011 and 2014, real earnings have increased overall in the last decade, and are now 8% higher than in 2005. Labour market insecurity has risen since 2010, and long-term unemployment rose sharply in recent years, peaking at 3% in 2015. The proportion of employees experiencing job strain has remained relatively stable.	↗ ↗ ↘ ↘ ⇔
Housing conditions	The number of rooms per person has remained stable over the past decade. Housing has become slightly less affordable, with the proportion of disposable income spent on housing rising from 19.1% in 2005 to 19.5% in 2015. The share of people living in dwellings without basic sanitary facilities has been kept at 0% over the past decade.	⇔ ↘ ⇔
Work-life balance	The proportion of employees working 50 hours or more per week has seen little change over the last 10 years.	⇔
Health status	Despite falling slightly between 2014 and 2015, life expectancy at birth has increased by around 2 years overall since 2005. The percentage of adults reporting to be in "good" or "very good" health has remained stable.	↗ ⇔
Education and skills	The 10-year change in upper secondary educational attainment cannot be assessed, due to a recent break in the data. However, between 2014 and 2016, attainment rates increased by 1.2 percentage points.	↗
Social connections	The percentage of people who have relatives or friends whom they can count on to help in case of need has fallen from 94% to 90% in the last 10 years.	↘
Civic engagement	Voter turnout has increased over the past decade. In the 2017 general elections, the percentage of votes cast among the population registered to vote stood at 82%: this is 2 points higher than in 2006, and 7 points higher than in 2010.	↗
Environmental quality	Satisfaction with local water quality has remained relatively stable in the Netherlands. However, annual exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution has improved over the past decade, and in 2013 was 10% lower than in 2005.	⇔ ↗
Personal security	Compared to 2005, personal security has improved: the rate of deaths due to assault has fallen from 1.1 to 0.6 per 100 000, and the share of people who report feeling safe when walking alone at night has risen from 73% to 81%.	↗ ↗
Subjective well-being	Current life satisfaction levels are very similar to those reported a decade earlier.	⇔

* Household net wealth data for 2010 and 2015 are drawn from different sources in the Netherlands, which may limit their comparability.

Note: For each indicator in every dimension: ↗ refers to an improvement; ⇔ indicates little or no change; and ↘ signals deterioration. This is based on a comparison of the starting year (2005 in most cases) and the latest available year (usually 2015 or 2016). The order of the arrows shown in column three corresponds to that of the indicators mentioned in column two.

The Netherlands' resources and risks for future well-being: Illustrative indicators

Natural capital

Indicator	Tier	Change	
Greenhouse gas emissions from domestic production	❸	↗	2005-2015
CO_2 emissions from domestic consumption	❷	↗	2001-2011
Exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution	❷	↗	2005-2013
Forest area	❸	⇔	2005-2014
Renewable freshwater resources	❷	..	Long-term annual average
Freshwater abstractions	❷	..	2012
Threatened birds	❷	..	Latest available
Threatened mammals	❷	..	Latest available
Threatened plants	❸	..	Latest available

Human capital

Indicator	Tier	Change	
Young adult educational attainment	❷	↗	2014-2016
Educational expectancy	❶	..	2015
Cognitive skills at age 15	❶	..	2015
Adult skills	❶	..	2011/2012
Long-term unemployment	❸	↘	2005-2016
Life expectancy at birth	❷	↗	2005-2015
Smoking prevalence	❷	↗	2005-2013
Obesity prevalence	❶	..	2015

Economic capital

Indicator	Tier	Change	
Produced fixed assets	❶	↗	2005-2015
Gross fixed capital formation	❶	↗	2005-2016
Financial net worth of total economy	❶	↗	2005-2016
Intellectual property assets	❶	↗	2005-2015
Investment in R&D	❷	⇔	2005-2015
Household debt	❸	↘	2005-2016
Household net wealth*	❸	↘	2010-2015
Financial net worth of government	❷	↘	2005-2016
Banking sector leverage	❸	↘	2005-2016

*Household net wealth data for 2010 and 2015 are drawn from different sources in the Netherlands, which may limit their comparability.

Social capital

Indicator	Tier	Change	
Trust in others	❶	..	2013
Trust in the police	❷	..	2013
Trust in the national government	❶	⇔	2005-2016
Voter turnout	❶	↗	2006-2017
Government stakeholder engagement	❸	..	2014
Volunteering through organisations	❶	..	2011/2012

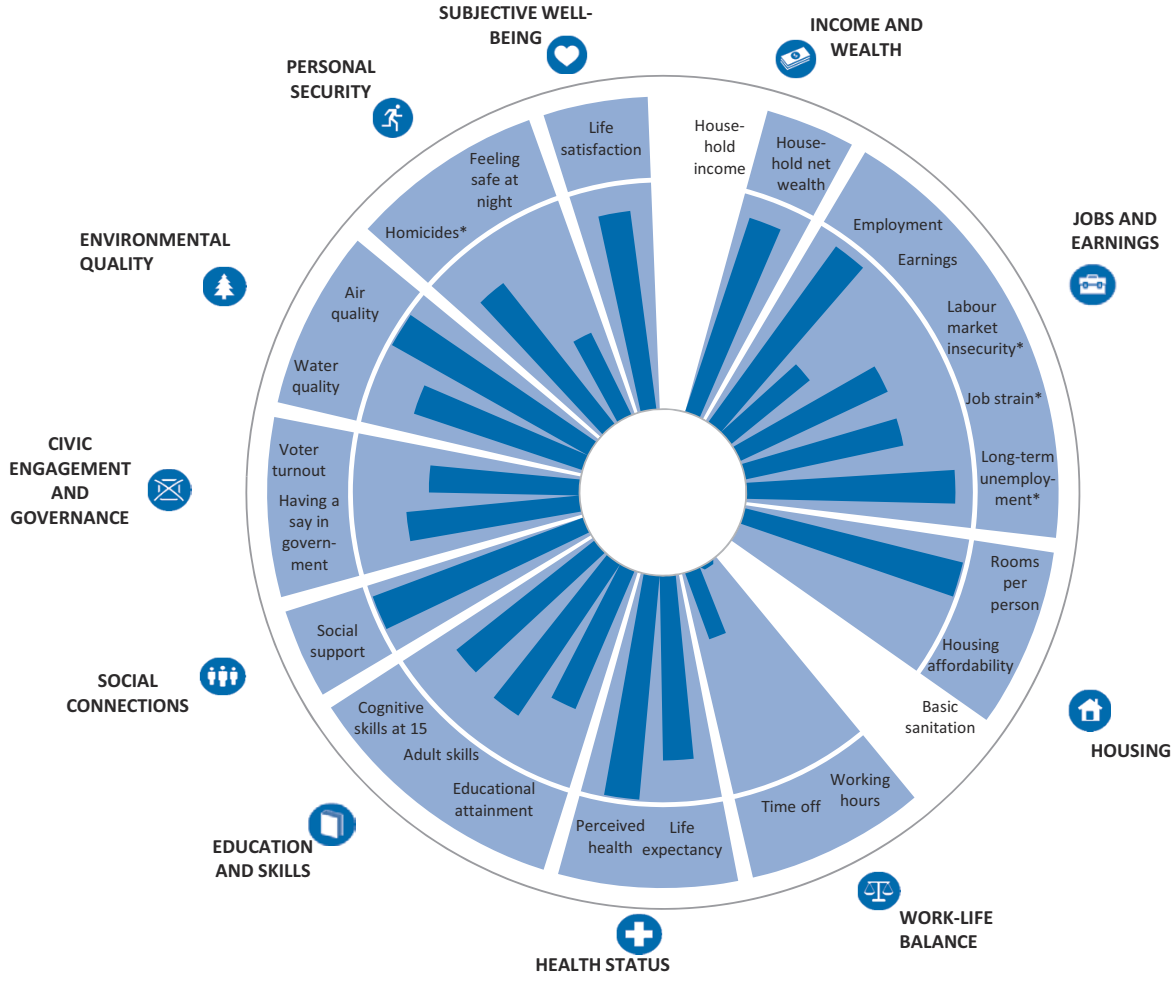
❶	Top-performing OECD tier, latest available year
❷	Middle-performing OECD tier, latest available year
❸	Bottom-performing OECD tier, latest available year

↗	Improving over time
↘	Worsening over time
⇔	No change
..	No data available

HOW'S LIFE IN NEW ZEALAND?

On average, New Zealand performs well across the different well-being indicators and dimensions relative to other OECD countries. It has higher **employment** and lower **long-term unemployment** than the OECD average, and benefits from lower-than-average levels of **labour market insecurity** and **job strain**. Reported **social support** is also one of the highest in the OECD. While New Zealand's environmental quality is high, its performance is mixed in terms of personal security and housing conditions. Although the **homicide** rate is low, only 65% of people in New Zealand say they feel **safe walking alone at night**, compared to an OECD average of 69%. While the average number of **rooms per person** in New Zealand's homes is among the highest in the OECD, **housing affordability** is one of the worst. At 82 years, **life expectancy** at birth is 2 years above the OECD average. A high share of New Zealanders also report good levels of **perceived health,** although these data are not directly comparable with those of the other OECD countries, due to a difference in the reporting scale.

Figure 5.24. **New Zealand's average level of current well-being: Comparative strengths and weaknesses**



Note: This chart shows New Zealand's relative strengths and weaknesses in well-being when compared with other OECD countries. For both positive and negative indicators (such as homicides, marked with an "*"), longer bars always indicate better outcomes (i.e. higher well-being), whereas shorter bars always indicate worse outcomes (lower well-being). If data are missing for any given indicator, the relevant segment of the circle is shaded in white.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933599308

Change in New Zealand's average well-being over the past 10 years

Dimension	Description	Change
Income and wealth	Household net adjusted disposable income has increased over the past decade. After rising sharply from 2005 to 2007, growth stalled in 2008, resuming in recent years and peaking in 2013.	⇗
Jobs and earnings	In 2015, the employment rate was very close to its 2005 level, having fallen from 2006 to 2010 and gradually recovered in more recent years. Real earnings in New Zealand are 14% higher than a decade ago. Other job indicators have worsened in the last 10 years: labour market insecurity remains relatively high compared to 2005, and the incidence of job strain has risen by almost 7 percentage points.	⇔ ⇗ ⇘ ⇘
Housing conditions	The number of rooms per person has remained relatively stable since 2005, and above the OECD average. Housing affordability has meanwhile worsened slightly in the past decade, with the proportion of income spent on housing costs increasing from 25.8% in 2005 to 26.2% in 2014.	⇔ ⇘
Work-life balance	The share of employees working 50 hours or more per week fell by 2 percentage points from 2005 to 2015 in New Zealand, steeper than the 0.7 fall recorded for the OECD on average over the same period.	⇗
Health status	Life expectancy at birth has improved by roughly 2 years since 2005, in line with the OECD average increase. Self-reported health has remained relatively stable from 2007 to 2016.	⇗ ⇔
Education and skills	The share of adults having completed upper secondary education increased by 2.5 percentage points from 2014 to 2016 (comparable data are not available prior to 2014).	⇗
Social connections	The share of people who have relatives or friends whom they can count on to help in case of need has remained reasonably stable in the past 10 years.	⇔
Civic engagement	Voter turnout among the population registered to vote fell by 3.3 percentage points between the 2005 and 2014 general elections.	⇘
Environmental quality	Both satisfaction with local water quality and exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution have remained relatively stable in New Zealand over the past decade.	⇔ ⇔
Personal security	The rate of deaths due to assault has fallen by almost one-quarter compared to 2005. The proportion of people who feel safe when walking alone at night has increased gradually, from 61% in 2005-2007 to 65% in 2014-16.	⇗ ⇗
Subjective well-being	Life satisfaction in New Zealand has remained broadly stable and at relatively high levels over the past decade.	⇔

Note: For each indicator in every dimension: ⇗ refers to an improvement; ⇔ indicates little or no change; and ⇘ signals deterioration. This is based on a comparison of the starting year (2005 in most cases) and the latest available year (usually 2015 or 2016). The order of the arrows shown in column three corresponds to that of the indicators mentioned in column two.

New Zealand's resources and risks for future well-being: Illustrative indicators

Natural capital			
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**	
Greenhouse gas emissions from domestic production	❸	⇗	2005-2011
CO_2 emissions from domestic consumption	❷	⇘	2001-2011
Exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution	❶	⇔	2005-2013
Forest area	❶	⇘	2005-2014
Renewable freshwater resources	❶	..	Long-term annual average
Freshwater abstractions	❸	..	2010
No data available on threatened species.			

Human capital			
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**	
Young adult educational attainment	❷	⇗	2014-2016
Educational expectancy	❷	..	2015
Cognitive skills at age 15	❶	..	2015
Adult skills	❶	..	2011/2012
Long-term unemployment	❶	⇘	2005-2015
Life expectancy at birth	❷	⇗	2005-2015
Smoking prevalence	❶	⇗	2006-2015
Obesity prevalence	❸	⇘	2007-2016

Economic capital			
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**	
Gross fixed capital formation	❷	⇘	2005-2015
Household net wealth	❶	..	2015
Investment in R&D	❸	⇔	2005-2015
No data available on produced fixed assets, financial net worth of the total economy, intellectual property assets, household debt, financial net worth of government and banking sector leverage.			

Social capital			
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**	
Trust in others	❶	..	2013
Trust in the police	❶	..	2013
Trust in the national government	❶	⇔	2005-2016
Voter turnout	❶	⇘	2005-2014
Government stakeholder engagement	❶	..	2014
Volunteering through organisations	❶	..	2011/2012

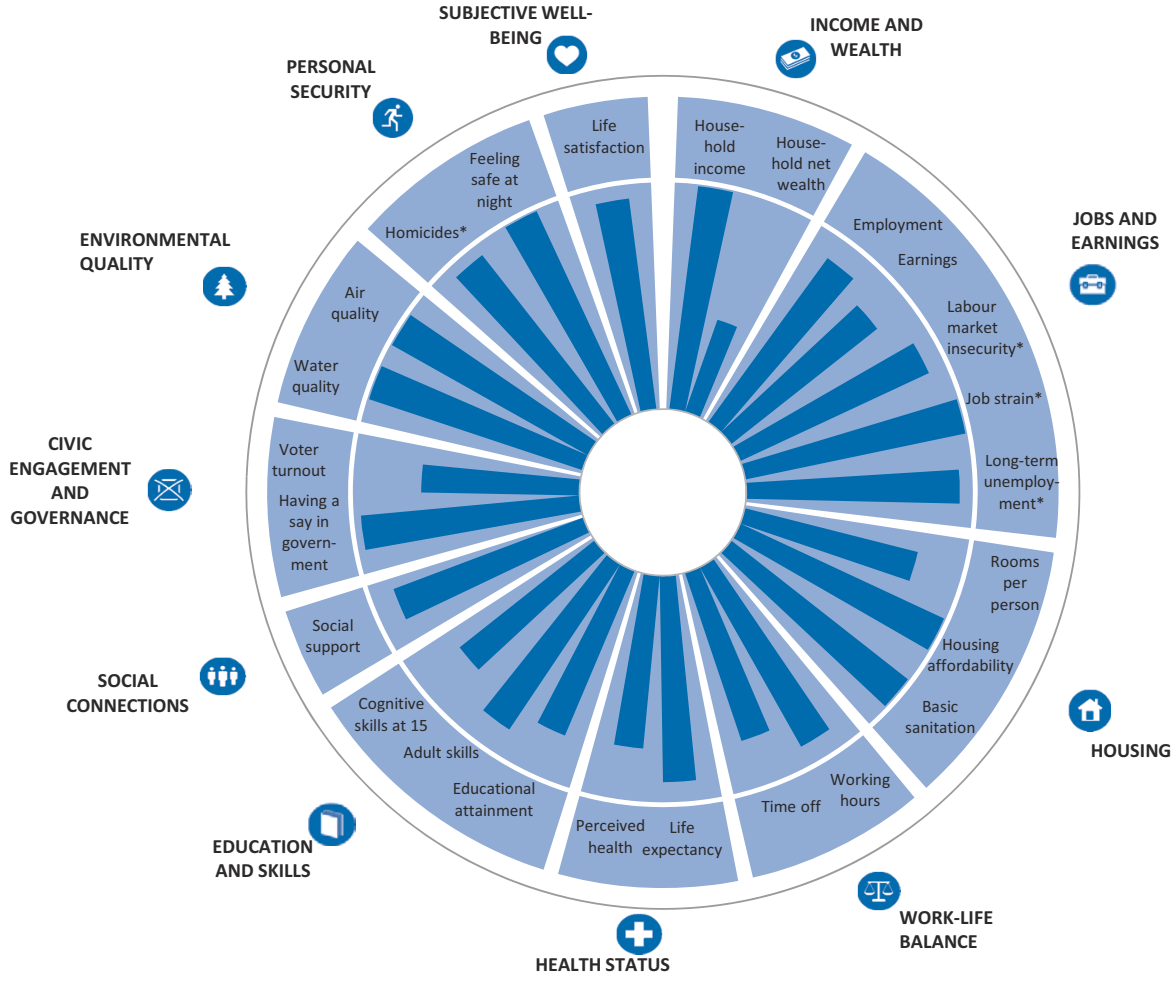
❶	Top-performing OECD tier, latest available year
❷	Middle-performing OECD tier, latest available year
❸	Bottom-performing OECD tier, latest available year

⇗	Improving over time
⇘	Worsening over time
⇔	No change
..	No data available

HOW'S LIFE IN NORWAY?

Relative to other OECD countries, Norway performs very well across the OECD's different well-being indicators and dimensions. **Job strain** and **long-term unemployment** are among the lowest in the OECD, while **average earnings** and the **employment rate** are in the top third of the OECD countries. Only around 3% of employees regularly **worked long hours** in 2016, well below the OECD average of 13%, and full-time employees report having more **time off** (i.e. time spent on leisure and personal care) than the OECD average. In 2015, the average **household net adjusted disposable income** was among the highest in the OECD, but **household net wealth** stood below the OECD average. Housing conditions and many dimensions of quality of life are good in Norway. For example, the **homicide rate** is very low, and almost 88% of Norwegians report that they feel **safe walking alone at night**, one of the highest shares in the OECD. Meanwhile, 49% of Norwegians feel that they **have a say in what the government does**, well above the OECD average of 33%.

Figure 5.25. **Norway's average level of current well-being: Comparative strengths and weaknesses**



Note: This chart shows Norway's relative strengths and weaknesses in well-being when compared with other OECD countries. For both positive and negative indicators (such as homicides, marked with an "*"), longer bars always indicate better outcomes (i.e. higher well-being), whereas shorter bars always indicate worse outcomes (lower well-being). If data are missing for any given indicator, the relevant segment of the circle is shaded in white.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933599327

Change in Norway's average well-being over the past 10 years

Dimension	Description	Change
Income and wealth	Household net adjusted disposable income is currently 15% higher, in real terms, than in 2005. It has grown steadily since 2007, following a slight fall in 2006. Household net wealth was 16% higher in 2015 than it was in 2012 (in real terms).	⇗ ⇗
Jobs and earnings	The employment rate has slightly decreased since 2006. Although real earnings have improved consistently, with a cumulative growth rate of 22% over the past decade, labour market insecurity increased sharply in 2015. Long-term unemployment has remained broadly stable, whereas the share of employees experiencing job strain fell from 20% in 2005 to 15% in 2015.	⇘ ⇗ ⇘ ⇔ ⇗
Housing conditions	The average number of rooms per person has remained stable at a relatively high level of 2.1 in 2011-2015, and the share of households lacking basic sanitation is broadly unchanged since 2005-10. The average share of household disposable income spent on housing costs has remained relatively stable.	⇔ ⇔ ⇔
Work-life balance	The share of employees working 50 hours or more per week has seen little change since 2005.	⇔
Health status	Life expectancy at birth has improved by 2 years since 2005, and at 82.4 in 2015, it has maintained its position at 2 years higher than the OECD average. The percentage of adults reporting to be in "good" or "very good" health has remained relatively stable in the past 10 years.	⇗ ⇔
Education and skills	In line with the OECD average, the share of adults with at least an upper secondary level of education has increased from 77.2% in 2005 to 82.2% in 2016.	⇗
Social connections	Since 2005-07, there has been little change in the percentage of people who have relatives or friends whom they can count on to help in case of need.	⇔
Civic engagement	The percentage of votes cast among the population registered to vote has seen little change in Norway since the start of the decade, creeping up from 77% in the 2005 parliamentary elections to 78% in 2013.	⇔
Environmental quality	Consistent with the OECD average trend, there has been no major change in satisfaction with local water quality since 2005. However, annual exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution has improved by 22% over the past decade.	⇔ ⇗
Personal security	Feelings of safety and the homicide rate today are broadly similar to their levels 10 years ago.	⇔ ⇔
Subjective well-being	Life satisfaction has remained broadly stable over the decade.	⇔

Note: For each indicator in every dimension: ⇗ refers to an improvement; ⇔ indicates little or no change; and ⇘ signals deterioration. This is based on a comparison of the start year (2005 in most cases) and the latest available year (usually 2015 or 2016). The order of the arrows shown in column three corresponds to that of the indicators mentioned in column two.

Norway's resources and risks for future well-being: Illustrative indicators

Natural capital		
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**
Greenhouse gas emissions from domestic production	2	↗ 2005-2015
CO_2 emissions from domestic consumption	3	⇔ 2001-2011
Exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution	1	↗ 2005-2013
Forest area	1	↘ 2005-2014
Renewable freshwater resources	1	.. Long-term annual average
Freshwater abstractions	2	.. 2007
Threatened birds	2	.. Latest available
Threatened mammals	2	.. Latest available
Threatened plants	1	.. Latest available

Human capital		
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**
Young adult educational attainment	3	⇔ 2014-2016
Educational expectancy	1	.. 2015
Cognitive skills at age 15	2	.. 2015
Adult skills	1	.. 2011/2012
Long-term unemployment	1	⇔ 2006-2016
Life expectancy at birth	1	↗ 2005-2016
Smoking prevalence	1	↗ 2005-2016
Obesity prevalence	1	↘ 2005-2015

Economic capital		
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**
Produced fixed assets	1	↗ 2012-2014
Gross fixed capital formation	2	↘ 2005-2016
Financial net worth of total economy	1	↗ 2005-2016
Intellectual property assets	1	↗ 2012-2014
Investment in R&D	2	↗ 2005-2014
Household debt	3	↘ 2005-2016
Household net wealth	2	↗ 2012-2015
Financial net worth of government	1	↗ 2005-2016
Banking sector leverage	2	↗ 2005-2016

Social capital		
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**
Trust in others	1	.. 2013
Trust in the police	1	.. 2013
Trust in the national government	1	↘ 2005-2016
Voter turnout	1	⇔ 2005-2013
Government stakeholder engagement	2	.. 2014
Volunteering through organisations	1	.. 2011/2012

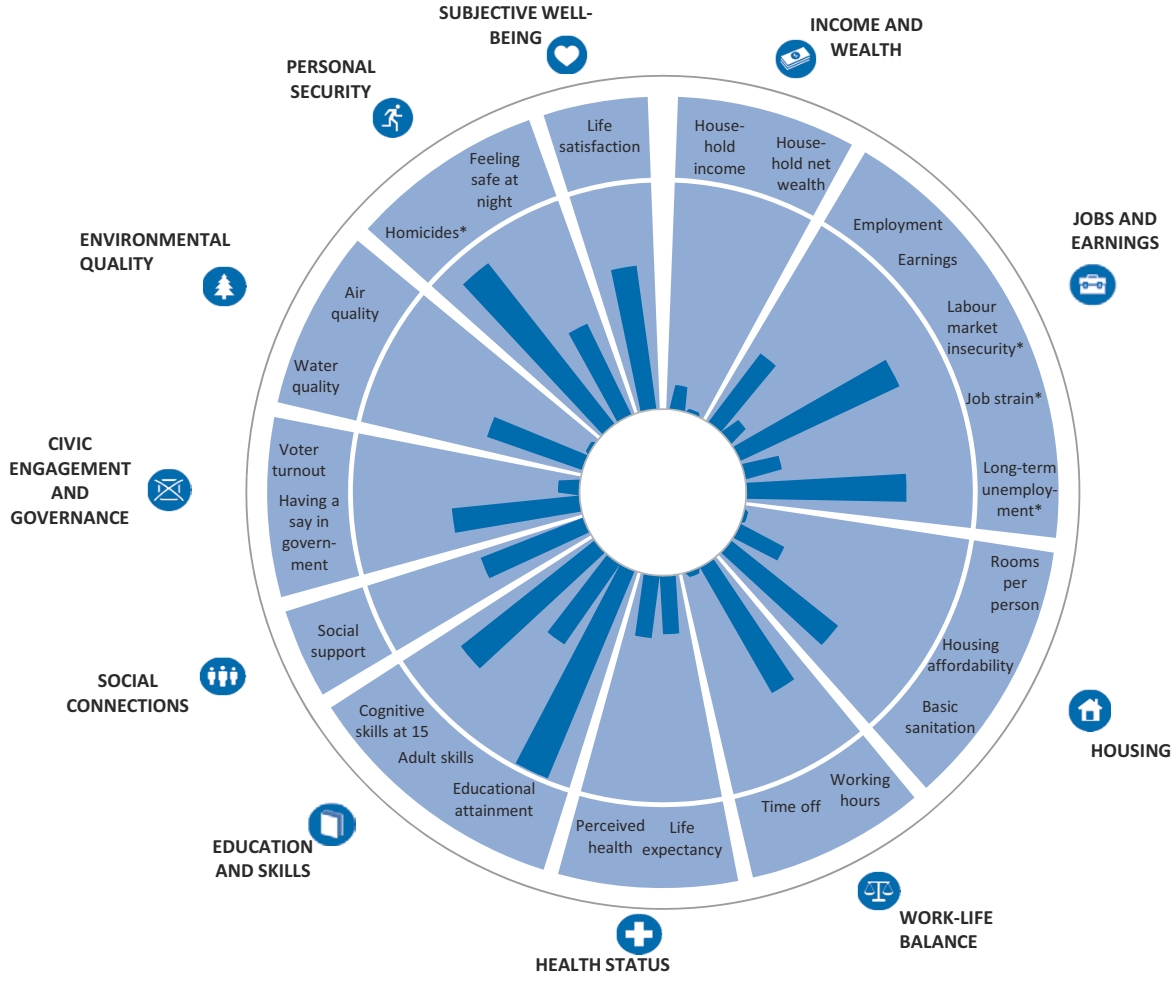
1	Top-performing OECD tier, latest available year
2	Middle-performing OECD tier, latest available year
3	Bottom-performing OECD tier, latest available year

↗	Improving over time
↘	Worsening over time
⇔	No change
..	No data available

HOW'S LIFE IN POLAND?

Relative to other OECD countries, Poland's average performance across the different well-being dimensions is mixed. Material conditions are an area of comparative weakness: the average **household net adjusted disposable income** was around 19 000 USD in 2015 (60% of the OECD average level); earnings are low; and the incidence of **job strain** among Polish workers is comparatively high. Full-time employees also report having less **time off** (i.e. time spent on leisure and personal care) than the OECD average. However, only 7% of employees regularly **worked long hours** in 2015, compared to 13% in the OECD on average. **Life expectancy** in Poland, at 78 years in 2015, is among the lowest in the OECD, and only 58% of Polish adults **perceive** their **health** as "good" or "very good", compared to an OECD average of 69%. However, 91% of the adult working-age population have attained at least an upper secondary education (compared to an OECD average of 75%), and **cognitive skills** among 15-year-olds are also above the OECD average.

Figure 5.26. **Poland's average level of current well-being: Comparative strengths and weaknesses**



Note: This chart shows Poland's relative strengths and weaknesses in well-being when compared with other OECD countries. For both positive and negative indicators (such as homicides, marked with an "*"), longer bars always indicate better outcomes (i.e. higher well-being), whereas shorter bars always indicate worse outcomes (lower well-being). If data are missing for any given indicator, the relevant segment of the circle is shaded in white.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933599346

Change in Poland's average well-being over the past 10 years

Dimension	Description	Change
Income and wealth	Household net adjusted disposable income has increased by 35% cumulatively over the past decade, but still remains considerably lower than the OECD average.	⇗
Jobs and earnings	The employment rate has risen by almost 12 percentage points since 2005, which is more than in any other OECD country. Although real earnings have improved steadily and are currently 24% higher than in 2005, labour market insecurity has also increased. The long-term unemployment rate is 7 percentage points lower than a decade ago, but the incidence of job strain in 2015 is similar to that seen in 2005.	⇗ ⇗ ⇘ ⇗ ⇔
Housing conditions	The number of rooms per person has improved slightly since 2005, but remains below the OECD average. Despite having improved in 2005-2008, housing affordability has worsened in recent years, standing slightly above the OECD average. However, the percentage of people living in dwellings without basic sanitary facilities has been reduced by almost half.	⇗ ⇘ ⇗
Work-life balance	The share of employees working very long hours has registered a sustained fall since 2005, and it is currently one-third lower than it was a decade ago.	⇗
Health status	Life expectancy at birth has increased by almost 2 years since 2009 (the earliest year for which comparable data are available). The percentage of adults reporting to be in "good" or "very good" health has also increased, by nearly 4 points since 2005.	⇗ ⇗
Education and skills	The 10-year change in upper secondary educational attainment cannot be assessed, due to a recent break in the data. However, between 2014 and 2016, attainment rates in Poland increased by just under 1 percent.	⇗
Social connections	The percentage of people who have relatives or friends whom they can count on to help in case of need has remained broadly stable since 2005-07.	⇔
Civic engagement	In contrast to the OECD average, voter turnout has increased by 4.4 percentage points since 2005, to reach 55.3% in the 2015 presidential elections.	⇗
Environmental quality	The percentage of Poles satisfied with their local water quality is currently 14 points higher than 10 years ago. Annual exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution is now 4% lower than in 2005, but remains above the OECD average.	⇗ ⇗
Personal security	The number of deaths due to assault has almost halved compared to 2005. On the other hand, feelings of safety when walking alone at night are similar to their levels 10 years ago, but slightly lower than the OECD average of 69%.	⇗ ⇔
Subjective well-being	Life satisfaction has seen little change in Poland over the past decade.	⇔

Note: For each indicator in every dimension: ⇗ refers to an improvement; ⇔ indicates little or no change; and ⇘ signals deterioration. This is based on a comparison of the starting year (2005 in most cases) and the latest available year (usually 2015 or 2016). The order of the arrows shown in column three corresponds to that of the indicators mentioned in column two.

Poland's resources and risks for future well-being: Illustrative indicators

Natural capital			
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**	
Greenhouse gas emissions from domestic production	2	⇔	2005-2015
CO_2 emissions from domestic consumption	1	⇔	2001-2011
Exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution	3	⇗	2005-2013
Forest area	2	⇔	2005-2014
Renewable freshwater resources	3	..	Long-term annual average
Freshwater abstractions	1	..	2015
Threatened birds	1	..	Latest available
Threatened mammals	1	..	Latest available
Threatened plants	2	..	Latest available

Human capital			
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**	
Young adult educational attainment	1	⇔	2014-2016
Educational expectancy	2	..	2015
Cognitive skills at age 15	2	..	2006-2015
Adult skills	2	..	2011/2012
Long-term unemployment	2	⇗	2005-2016
Life expectancy at birth	3	⇗	2009-2015
Smoking prevalence	3	⇗	2009-2014
Obesity prevalence	2	⇔	2008-2014

Economic capital			
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**	
Produced fixed assets	3	⇗	2005-2014
Gross fixed capital formation	3	⇘	2005-2016
Financial net worth of total economy	3	⇘	2005-2015
Intellectual property assets	3	⇗	2005-2014
Investment in R&D	3	⇗	2005-2014
Household debt	1	⇘	2005-2015
Household net wealth	3	..	2013
Financial net worth of government	2	⇘	2005-2016
Banking sector leverage	2	⇘	2005-2015

Social capital			
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**	
Trust in others	2	..	2013
Trust in the police	3	..	2013
Trust in the national government	3	⇗	2005-2016
Voter turnout	3	⇗	2005-2015
Government stakeholder engagement	1	..	2014
Volunteering through organisations	3	..	2011/2012

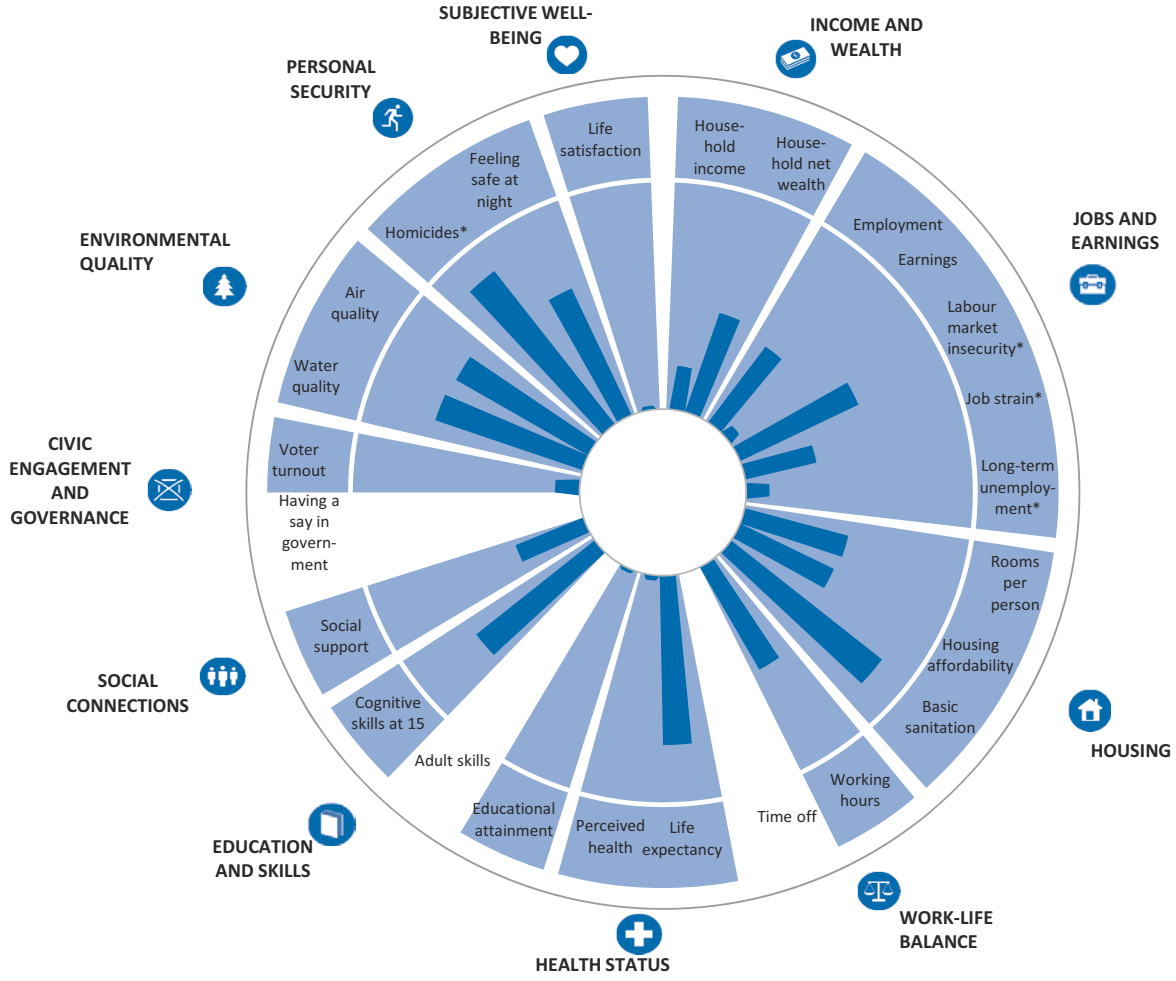
1	Top-performing OECD tier, latest available year
2	Middle-performing OECD tier, latest available year
3	Bottom-performing OECD tier, latest available year

⇗	Improving over time
⇘	Worsening over time
⇔	No change
..	No data available

HOW'S LIFE IN PORTUGAL?

Relative to other OECD countries, Portugal has a mixed performance across the different well-being dimensions. For example, it is in the bottom third of the OECD in terms of **household net adjusted disposable income**, **average earnings** and **long-term unemployment**, **social support** and **life satisfaction**. On the other hand, while both **housing affordability** and the average **number of rooms per person** are below the OECD average, only 1% of Portuguese people still live in housing without **basic sanitation**, compared to an OECD average of 2.2%. **Life expectancy** at birth is one year higher than the OECD average, and Portugal fares reasonably well in terms of environmental quality and personal security, where it stands above the OECD average across all the available indicators. In terms of education and skills, the country's performance is mixed: while only 47% of working-age adults have attained at least an upper secondary education, among the lowest in the OECD, students' **cognitive skills** at age 15 are above the OECD average level.

Figure 5.27. **Portugal's average level of current well-being: Comparative strengths and weaknesses**



Note: This chart shows Portugal's relative strengths and weaknesses in well-being when compared with other OECD countries. For both positive and negative indicators (such as homicides, marked with an "*"), longer bars always indicate better outcomes (i.e. higher well-being), whereas shorter bars always indicate worse outcomes (lower well-being). If data are missing for any given indicator, the relevant segment of the circle is shaded in white.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933599365

Change in Portugal's average well-being over the past 10 years

Dimension	Description	Change
Income and wealth	In 2016, household net adjusted disposable income was close to the levels seen in 2005. After having improved slightly from 2006 to 2010, household income then fell sharply in 2011-12, and began to recover only in 2015. In 2013, household net wealth was 4% higher than in 2010 (in real terms).	⇔ ↗
Jobs and earnings	In contrast with the OECD average, real earnings dropped between 2005 and 2015. However, the employment rate grew slightly, and labour market insecurity fell. At 6.1% in 2016, the long-term unemployment rate is at the same level it was in 2011 (the earliest comparable year available), having peaked in 2013 at 9.1%. The proportion of employees experiencing job strain fell by almost 8 percentage points between 2005 and 2015.	↘ ↗ ↗ ⇔ ↗
Housing conditions	The average number of rooms per person has improved over the past decade, but is still slightly below the OECD average. Housing affordability worsened significantly over the 10-year period, with the share of disposable income spent on housing costs increasing from 16% in 2005 to 21% in 2015. On the other hand, the percentage of people living in dwellings without basic sanitary facilities has been reduced by two-thirds since 2005.	↗ ↘ ↗
Work-life balance	The percentage of employees working 50 hours or more per week saw little change between 2011 and 2016 (comparable data are not available prior to 2011).	⇔
Health status	Despite stalling in 2015, life expectancy at birth is 3 years higher than it was a decade ago – a larger improvement than the OECD average. The percentage of adults reporting to be in "good" or "very good" health has remained relatively stable, but stands below the OECD average.	↗ ⇔
Education and skills	Since 2005, the proportion of adults having attained an upper secondary level of education has increased by 20.5 percentage points – more than in any other OECD country in that period.	↗
Social connections	The percentage of people who have relatives or friends whom they can count on to help in case of need has fallen from 90% to 87% in the last 10 years.	↘
Civic engagement	Voter turnout has fallen over the past decade, in line with other OECD countries. In the 2015 parliamentary elections, the percentage of votes cast among the population registered to vote was 56%, 8 points lower than in 2005.	↘
Environmental quality	The share of people who are satisfied with their local water quality has remained relatively stable since the beginning of the past decade. However, air quality has improved: annual exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution was 18% lower in 2013 than in 2005.	⇔ ↗
Personal security	While there has been little change in the rate of deaths due to assault over the past decade, the share of people saying that they feel safe when walking alone at night has risen by 8 percentage points, in line with the trend in over half of all OECD countries.	⇔ ↗
Subjective well-being	Life satisfaction in recent years is similar to the levels reported 10 years previously.	⇔

Note: For each indicator in every dimension: ↗ refers to an improvement; ⇔ indicates little or no change; and ↘ signals deterioration. This is based on a comparison of the starting year (2005 in most cases) and the latest available year (usually 2015 or 2016). The order of the arrows shown in column three corresponds to that of the indicators mentioned in column two.

Portugal's resources and risks for future well-being: Illustrative indicators

Natural capital			
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**	
Greenhouse gas emissions from domestic production	1	↗	2005-2015
CO_2 emissions from domestic consumption	1	↗	2001-2011
Exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution	1	↗	2005-2013
Forest area	2	⇔	2005-2014
Renewable freshwater resources	2	..	Long-term annual average
Freshwater abstractions	3	..	2007
Threatened birds	3	..	Latest available
Threatened mammals	2	..	Latest available
No data available on threatened plants.			

Human capital			
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**	
Young adult educational attainment	3	↗	2005-2016
Educational expectancy	2	..	2015
Cognitive skills at age 15	2	..	2015
Long-term unemployment	3	⇔	2011-2016
Life expectancy at birth	2	↗	2005-2015
Smoking prevalence	1	↗	2006-2014
Obesity prevalence	2	↘	2006-2014
No data available on adult skills.			

Economic capital			
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**	
Produced fixed assets	3	⇔	2005-2014
Gross fixed capital formation	3	⇔	2005-2016
Financial net worth of total economy	3	↘	2005-2016
Intellectual property assets	3	↗	2005-2014
Investment in R&D	3	↗	2005-2014
Household debt	2	⇔	2005-2016
Household net wealth	2	↗	2010-2013
Financial net worth of government	3	↘	2005-2016
Banking sector leverage	2	⇔	2005-2016

Social capital			
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**	
Trust in others	3	..	2013
Trust in the police	3	..	2013
Trust in the national government	3	↘	2005-2016
Voter turnout	3	↘	2005-2015
Government stakeholder engagement	3	..	2014
No data available on volunteering through organisations.			

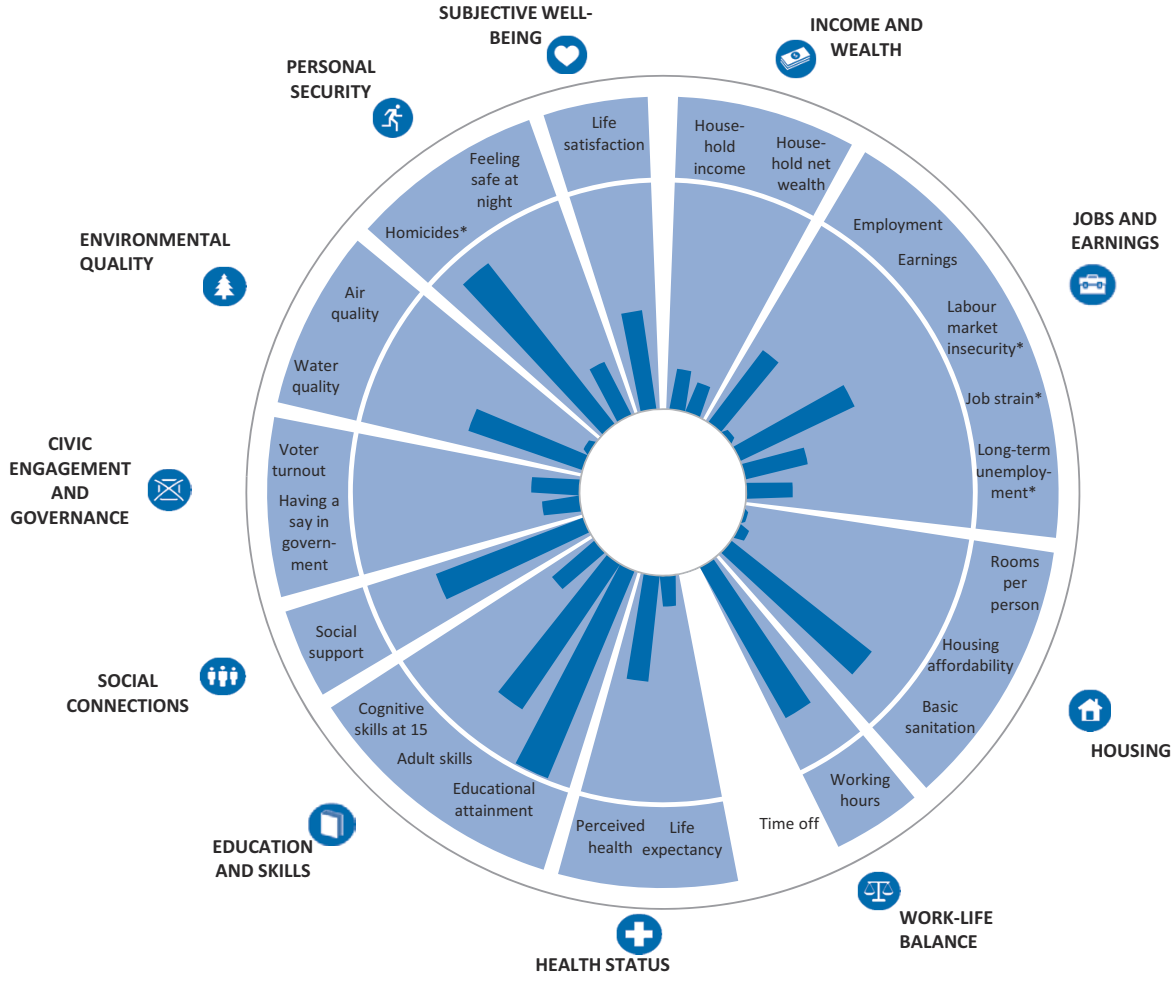
1	Top-performing OECD tier, latest available year
2	Middle-performing OECD tier, latest available year
3	Bottom-performing OECD tier, latest available year

↗	Improving over time
↘	Worsening over time
⇔	No change
..	No data available

HOW'S LIFE IN THE SLOVAK REPUBLIC?

Relative to other OECD countries, the average performance of the Slovak Republic across the different well-being dimensions is very mixed. Material conditions, environmental quality, and civic engagement and governance are all areas of comparative weakness. The average **household net adjusted disposable income** was about two-thirds of the OECD average level in 2015, while the **long-term unemployment** rate, at 5.5% in 2016, was almost triple the OECD average. **Life expectancy** at birth (77 years in 2015) is among the lowest in the OECD, and only 66% of Slovaks **perceive their health** as "good" or "very good", below the OECD average of 69%. However, the Slovak Republic has the second-highest level of educational attainment in the OECD: 92% of the adult working-age population have completed at least an upper secondary education, and **adult skills** are also above the OECD average. Regarding personal security, despite a low **homicide** rate, only 60% of Slovaks report feeling **safe walking alone at night**, compared to the OECD average of 69%.

Figure 5.28. **The Slovak Republic's average level of current well-being: Comparative strengths and weaknesses**



Note: This chart shows the Slovak Republic's relative strengths and weaknesses in well-being when compared with other OECD countries. For both positive and negative indicators (such as homicides, marked with an "*"), longer bars always indicate better outcomes (i.e. higher well-being), whereas shorter bars always indicate worse outcomes (lower well-being). If data are missing for any given indicator, the relevant segment of the circle is shaded in white.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933599384

Change in the Slovak Republic's average well-being over the past 10 years

Dimension	Description	Change
Income and wealth	Over the past decade, the Slovak Republic has experienced one of the highest levels of growth in household net adjusted disposable income in the OECD, with a cumulative increase of 31% since 2005. Household net wealth recorded a cumulative decrease of 4% between 2010 and 2014 (in real terms).	↗ ↘
Jobs and earnings	At 65%, the employment rate in 2016 was 7 percentage points higher than in 2005. Real earnings improved consistently over the past decade, with a cumulative growth rate of 28%, while labour market insecurity increased sharply during the crisis and is yet to recover. The long-term unemployment rate is now just half its 2005 level, and the proportion of employees experiencing job strain has decreased by over 10 percentage points.	↗ ↗ ↘ ↗ ↗
Housing conditions	The number of rooms per person has risen slightly since 2005-2010, but remains below the OECD average. Housing affordability has also improved in the last decade: the proportion of income spent on housing costs has fallen from 26.1% in 2005 to 23.6% in 2015. Meanwhile, the percentage of people living in dwellings without basic sanitary facilities has seen little change in the past 10 years.	↗ ↗ ⇔
Work-life balance	At just 5% in 2016, the share of employees working 50 hours or more per week is slightly below the 6.3% level reported in 2005.	↗
Health status	Despite falling slightly between 2014 and 2015, life expectancy at birth has increased by almost 3 years overall since 2005. The proportion of Slovaks reporting that their health is "good" or "very good" has also gone up, from 52% to 66% over the decade.	↗ ↗
Education and skills	The 10-year change in upper secondary educational attainment cannot be assessed, due to a recent break in the data. However, between 2014 and 2016, attainment rates increased by just under 1 percent.	↗
Social connections	The percentage of people who have relatives or friends whom they can count on for help in case of need has seen little change over the past decade, but remains above the OECD average.	⇔
Civic engagement	Voter turnout in the Slovak Republic has increased by 5.2 percentage points since 2006, reaching 59.8% in the 2016 parliamentary elections.	↗
Environmental quality	Satisfaction with local water quality in recent years has improved compared to the levels seen in the first part of the decade. Annual exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution improved by 8% overall between 2005 and 2013, despite a sharp increase from 2008 to 2010.	↗ ↗
Personal security	There have been clear signs of progress in personal security since 2005: the homicide rate has halved, and the proportion of people declaring that they feel safe when walking alone at night has increased by 13 percentage points.	↗ ↗
Subjective well-being	Average levels of life satisfaction have increased from 5.3 (on a 0 to 10 scale) to 6.1 over the past decade.	↗

Note: For each indicator in every dimension: ↗ refers to an improvement; ⇔ indicates little or no change; and ↘ signals deterioration. This is based on a comparison of the starting year (2005 in most cases) and the latest available year (usually 2015 or 2016). The order of the arrows shown in column three corresponds to that of the indicators mentioned in column two.

The Slovak Republic's resources and risks for future well-being: Illustrative indicators

Natural capital			
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**	
Greenhouse gas emissions from domestic production	1	↗	2005-2015
CO_2 emissions from domestic consumption	1	↗	2001-2011
Exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution	3	↗	2005-2013
Forest area	2	⇔	2005-2014
Renewable freshwater resources	1	..	Long-term annual average
Freshwater abstractions	1	..	2015
Threatened birds	3	..	Latest available
Threatened mammals	3	..	Latest available
Threatened plants	2	..	Latest available

Human capital			
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**	
Young adult educational attainment	1	↗	2014-2016
Educational expectancy	3	..	2015
Cognitive skills at age 15	3	..	2015
Adult skills	2	..	2011/2012
Long-term unemployment	3	↗	2005-2016
Life expectancy at birth	3	↗	2005-2015
Smoking prevalence	3	↘	2009-2014
Obesity prevalence	2	..	2008

Economic capital			
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**	
Gross fixed capital formation	3	↘	2005-2016
Financial net worth of total economy	3	↘	2005-2015
Investment in R&D	3	⇔	2005-2014
Household debt	1	↘	2005-2015
Household net wealth	3	↘	2010-2014
Financial net worth of government	2	↘	2005-2015
Banking sector leverage	3	↗	2005-2015
No data available on produced fixed assets and intellectual property assets.			

Social capital			
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**	
Trust in others	2	..	2013
Trust in the police	3	..	2013
Trust in the national government	2	↗	2006-2016
Voter turnout	3	↗	2006-2016
Government stakeholder engagement	1	..	2014
Volunteering through organisations	3	..	2011/2012

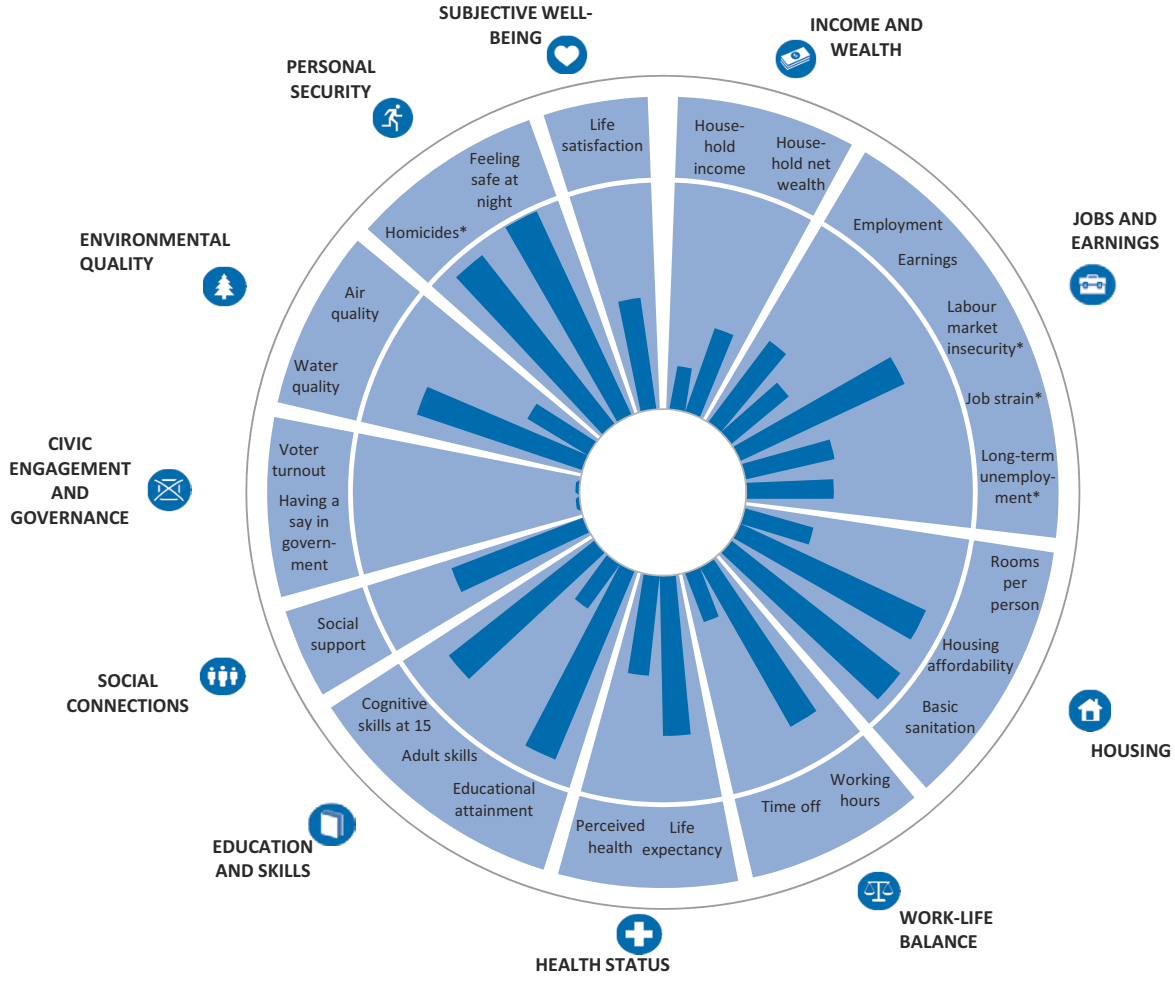
1	Top-performing OECD tier, latest available year
2	Middle-performing OECD tier, latest available year
3	Bottom-performing OECD tier, latest available year

↗	Improving over time
↘	Worsening over time
⇔	No change
..	No data available

HOW'S LIFE IN SLOVENIA?

Slovenia's average performance across the different well-being dimensions is mixed when assessed relative to other OECD countries. The average **household net adjusted disposable income** was around two-thirds of the OECD average level in 2015, and the **long-term unemployment** rate was twice the OECD average level in 2016. **Educational attainment**, on the other hand, is high: 87% of the adult working-age population in Slovenia have completed at least an upper secondary education, 13 points higher than the OECD average. Students' **cognitive skills** were also above the OECD average in 2015, while **adult skills** were below. Civic engagement and governance, assessed in terms of **voter turnout** and the percentage of adults who feel that they **have a say in what the government does**, are both among the lowest in the OECD. Personal security is, however, high: the **homicide** rate is among the lowest in the OECD, and 85% of Slovenians feel **safe walking alone at night**, one of the best rates in the OECD.

Figure 5.29. **Slovenia's average level of current well-being: Comparative strengths and weaknesses**



Note: This chart shows the Slovenia's relative strengths and weaknesses in well-being when compared with other OECD countries. For both positive and negative indicators (such as homicides, marked with an *), longer bars always indicate better outcomes (i.e. higher well-being), whereas shorter bars always indicate worse outcomes (lower well-being). If data are missing for any given indicator, the relevant segment of the circle is shaded in white.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933599403

Change in Slovenia's well-being over the past 10 years

Dimension	Description	Change
Income and wealth	Household net adjusted disposable income is currently at the same level, in real terms, as it was in 2005.	⇔
Jobs and earnings	Despite a moderate increase since 2013, the employment rate remains close to its 2005 level. On the other hand, real earnings improved consistently, with a cumulative rise of 15%. Labour market insecurity, which increased sharply during the crisis, is yet to recover to its previous levels. The long-term unemployment rate has worsened from 3.1% in 2005 to 4.3% in 2016, while the share of employees experiencing job strain has fallen from 45% in 2005 to 39% in 2015.	⇔ ⇗ ⇘ ⇘ ⇗
Housing conditions	Housing affordability has improved in the last decade: the proportion of income spent on housing costs fell from 18.9% in 2005 to 18.3% in 2015. Basic sanitation has become more widespread, with the percentage of people living without basic sanitary facilities reduced by half over the decade.	⇗ ⇗
Work-life balance	The share of employees working 50 hours or more per week has fallen by 4 percentage points in the past decade, steeper than the 0.9 point decline recorded for the OECD average.	⇗
Health status	Despite a setback in 2015, life expectancy at birth has increased by almost 2 years overall since 2008 (the earliest year for which comparable data are available). The proportion of Slovenians reporting that their health is "good" or "very good" has also gone up from 54% to 65% over the decade – but this remains below the OECD average.	⇗ ⇗
Education and skills	The 10-year change in upper secondary educational attainment cannot be assessed, due to a recent break in the data. However, between 2014 and 2016, attainment rates in Slovenia increased by 1.6 percentage points.	⇗
Social connections	The percentage of people who have relatives or friends whom they can count on to help in case of need has remained relatively stable over the decade.	⇔
Civic engagement	Voter turnout fell by 11.4 percentage points between the 2008 and 2014 parliamentary elections.	⇘
Environmental quality	Satisfaction with local water quality has improved over the decade in Slovenia, but annual exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution has remained relatively stable.	⇗ ⇔
Personal security	There have been clear signs of progress in personal security since 2005: the homicide rate has almost halved, and the proportion of people declaring that they feel safe when walking alone at night has increased by 5 percentage points.	⇗ ⇗
Subjective well-being	Life satisfaction in recent years has been very similar to the levels reported 10 years ago.	⇔

Note: For each indicator in every dimension: ⇗ refers to an improvement; ⇔ indicates little or no change; and ⇘ signals deterioration. This is based on a comparison of the starting year (2005 in most cases) and the latest available year (usually 2015 or 2016). The order of the arrows shown in column three corresponds to that of the indicators mentioned in column two.

Slovenia's resources and risks for future well-being: Illustrative indicators

Natural capital			
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**	
Greenhouse gas emissions from domestic production	2	↗	2005-2015
CO_2 emissions from domestic consumption	2	↗	2001-2011
Exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution	3	⇔	2005-2013
Forest area	1	⇔	2005-2014
Renewable freshwater resources	1	..	Long-term annual average
Freshwater abstractions	2	..	2015
Threatened birds	3	..	Latest available
Threatened mammals	3	..	Latest available
Threatened plants	2	..	Latest available

Human capital			
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**	
Young adult educational attainment	1	⇔	2014-2016
Educational expectancy	1	..	2015
Cognitive skills at age 15	1	..	2015
Adult skills	3	..	2011/2012
Long-term unemployment	3	↘	2005-2016
Life expectancy at birth	2	↗	2008-2015
Smoking prevalence	2	⇔	2007-2014
Obesity prevalence	2	↘	2007-2014

Economic capital			
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**	
Produced fixed assets	3	↗	2005-2015
Gross fixed capital formation	3	↘	2005-2016
Financial net worth of total economy	3	↘	2005-2016
Intellectual property assets	3	↗	2005-2015
Investment in R&D	2	↗	2005-2015
Household debt	1	↘	2005-2015
Household net wealth	2	..	2014
Financial net worth of government	2	↘	2005-2016
Banking sector leverage	1	↗	2005-2016

Social capital			
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**	
Trust in others	1	..	2013
Trust in the police	3	..	2013
Trust in the national government	3	↘	2005-2016
Voter turnout	3	↘	2008-2014
Government stakeholder engagement	1	..	2014
Volunteering through organisations	2	..	2011/2012

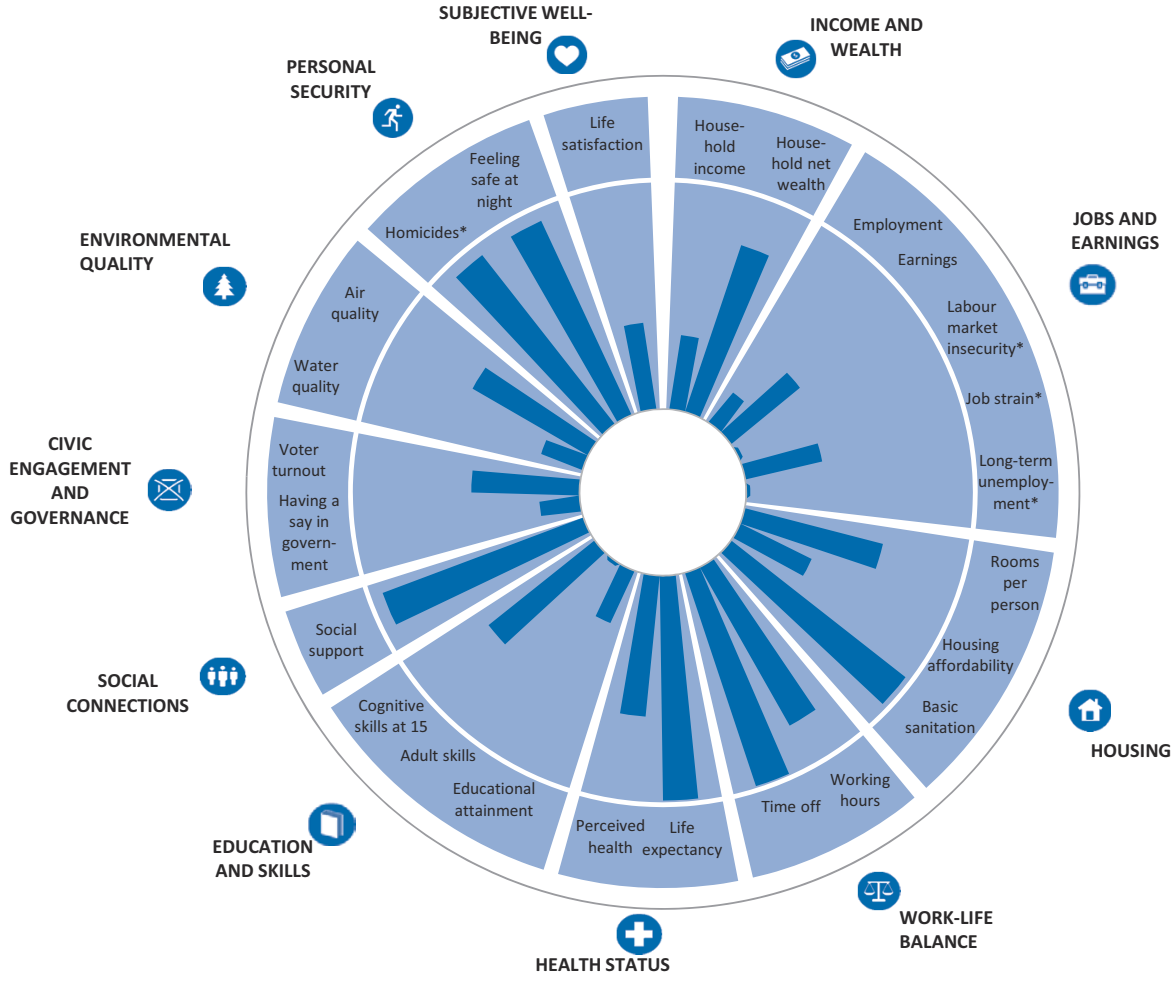
1	Top-performing OECD tier, latest available year
2	Middle-performing OECD tier, latest available year
3	Bottom-performing OECD tier, latest available year

↗	Improving over time
↘	Worsening over time
⇔	No change
..	No data available

HOW'S LIFE IN SPAIN?

Relative to other OECD countries, Spain's average performance across the different well-being dimensions is mixed. Despite a comparatively low average **household net adjusted disposable income** in 2015, **household net wealth** was above the OECD average in 2011 (the latest available year). Spain has particular weaknesses in terms of jobs and earnings: for instance, both **labour market insecurity** and the **long-term unemployment rate** are among the highest in the OECD. However, work-life balance is an area of strength: only around 5% of employees regularly **worked long hours**, less than half of the OECD average, and the full-time employed report having among the highest levels of **time off** (i.e. time spent on leisure and personal care) in the OECD. **Life expectancy** at birth (83 years) is nearly 3 years above the OECD average, and **social support** is also relatively high. Conversely, only 58% of the adult working-age population have completed at least an upper secondary education, well below the OECD average of 75%, and **adults' skills** are also below the average.

Figure 5.30. **Spain's average level of current well-being: Comparative strengths and weaknesses**



Note: This chart shows Spain's relative strengths and weaknesses in well-being when compared with other OECD countries. For both positive and negative indicators (such as homicides, marked with an "*"), longer bars always indicate better outcomes (i.e. higher well-being), whereas shorter bars always indicate worse outcomes (lower well-being). If data are missing for any given indicator, the relevant segment of the circle is shaded in white.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933599422

Change in Spain's average well-being over the past 10 years

Dimension	Description	Change
Income and wealth	In 2015, household net adjusted disposable income was 6% lower than in 2005, one of the largest falls in the OECD over the decade. Household net wealth recorded a cumulative decrease of 3% between 2008 and 2011 (in real terms).	↘ ↘
Jobs and earnings	The employment rate fell over the past 10 years, with a moderate improvement in 2014. Despite dropping from 2009 to 2014, real earnings have improved overall in the last decade, and are now 7% higher than in 2005. Labour market insecurity peaked in 2012, and despite falling slightly since then, remains 3 times higher than in 2007. Long-term unemployment has risen since 2007, peaking in 2013 at 13%. By contrast, the incidence of job strain has fallen from 49% in 2005 to 41% in 2015.	↘ ↗ ↘ ↘ ↗
Housing conditions	Spending on housing costs (as a proportion of household disposable income) has risen from 18.2% in 2005 to 21.8% in 2015 – one of the largest increases in the OECD. On the other hand, the share of people living in dwellings without basic sanitary facilities has remained stably low since 2005-10.	↘ ⇔
Work-life balance	The share of employees working 50 hours or more per week has fallen by 4 percentage points in the past decade, a steeper decline than the 0.9 point fall recorded for the OECD average.	↗
Health status	Despite a slight fall between 2014 and 2015, life expectancy has risen by nearly 3 years overall since 2005 – a larger improvement than the OECD average. The percentage of adults reporting to be in "good" or "very good" health has increased by 6 points since 2005, to a level just above the OECD average.	↗ ↗
Education and skills	The 10-year change in upper secondary educational attainment cannot be assessed, due to a recent break in the data. However, between 2014 and 2016, attainment rates in Spain increased by 1.7 percentage points.	↗
Social connections	The share of people having relatives or friends whom they can count on to help in case of need has been broadly unchanged since 2005-07, in contrast to the slight decline recorded for the OECD average.	⇔
Civic engagement	In line with the OECD average trend, voter turnout has fallen in Spain over the past decade. In the 2016 general elections, the share of votes cast among the population registered to vote was 70%, 5 points lower than in 2008 and 3 points lower than in 2015, but 1 point higher than in 2011.	↘
Environmental quality	Satisfaction with local water quality has remained relatively stable since 2005-2007, and is slightly below the OECD average. Despite increasing slightly from 2010 to 2011, annual exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution has fallen by 9% overall since 2005.	⇔ ↗
Personal security	The rate of deaths due to assault has gradually fallen over the last 10 years, while the share of people who report feeling safe when walking alone at night has improved from 65% to 83%.	↗ ↗
Subjective well-being	People's life satisfaction has fallen gradually during the last 10 years, from an average of 7.1 to 6.4 (measured on a 0-10 scale). This decline is three times as large as the OECD average decline.	↘

Note: For each indicator in every dimension: ↗ refers to an improvement; ⇔ indicates little or no change; and ↘ signals deterioration. This is based on a comparison of the starting year (2005 in most cases) and the latest available year (usually 2015 or 2016). The order of the arrows shown in column three corresponds to that of the indicators mentioned in column two.

Spain's resources and risks for future well-being: Illustrative indicators

Natural capital		
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**
Greenhouse gas emissions from domestic production	1	↗ 2005-2015
CO_2 emissions from domestic consumption	1	↗ 2001-2011
Exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution	2	↗ 2005-2013
Forest area	2	⇔ 2005-2014
Renewable freshwater resources	3	.. Long-term annual average
Freshwater abstractions	3	.. 2014
Threatened birds	2	.. Latest available
Threatened mammals	2	.. Latest available
Threatened plants	2	.. Latest available

Human capital		
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**
Young adult educational attainment	3	⇔ 2014-2016
Educational expectancy	2	.. 2014
Cognitive skills at age 15	2	.. 2015
Adult skills	3	.. 2011/2012
Long-term unemployment	3	↘ 2005-2016
Life expectancy at birth	1	↗ 2005-2015
Smoking prevalence	3	↗ 2006-2014
Obesity prevalence	1	↘ 2006-2014

Economic capital		
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**
Gross fixed capital formation	1	↘ 2005-2016
Financial net worth of total economy	3	↘ 2005-2016
Investment in R&D	3	↗ 2005-2014
Household debt	2	⇔ 2005-2015
Household net wealth	1	↘ 2008-2011
Financial net worth of government	3	↘ 2005-2016
Banking sector leverage	2	⇔ 2005-2016
No data available on produced fixed assets and intellectual property assets.		

Social capital		
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**
Trust in others	2	.. 2013
Trust in the police	3	.. 2013
Trust in the national government	3	↘ 2005-2016
Voter turnout	2	↘ 2008-2016
Government stakeholder engagement	3	.. 2014
Volunteering through organisations	3	.. 2011/2012

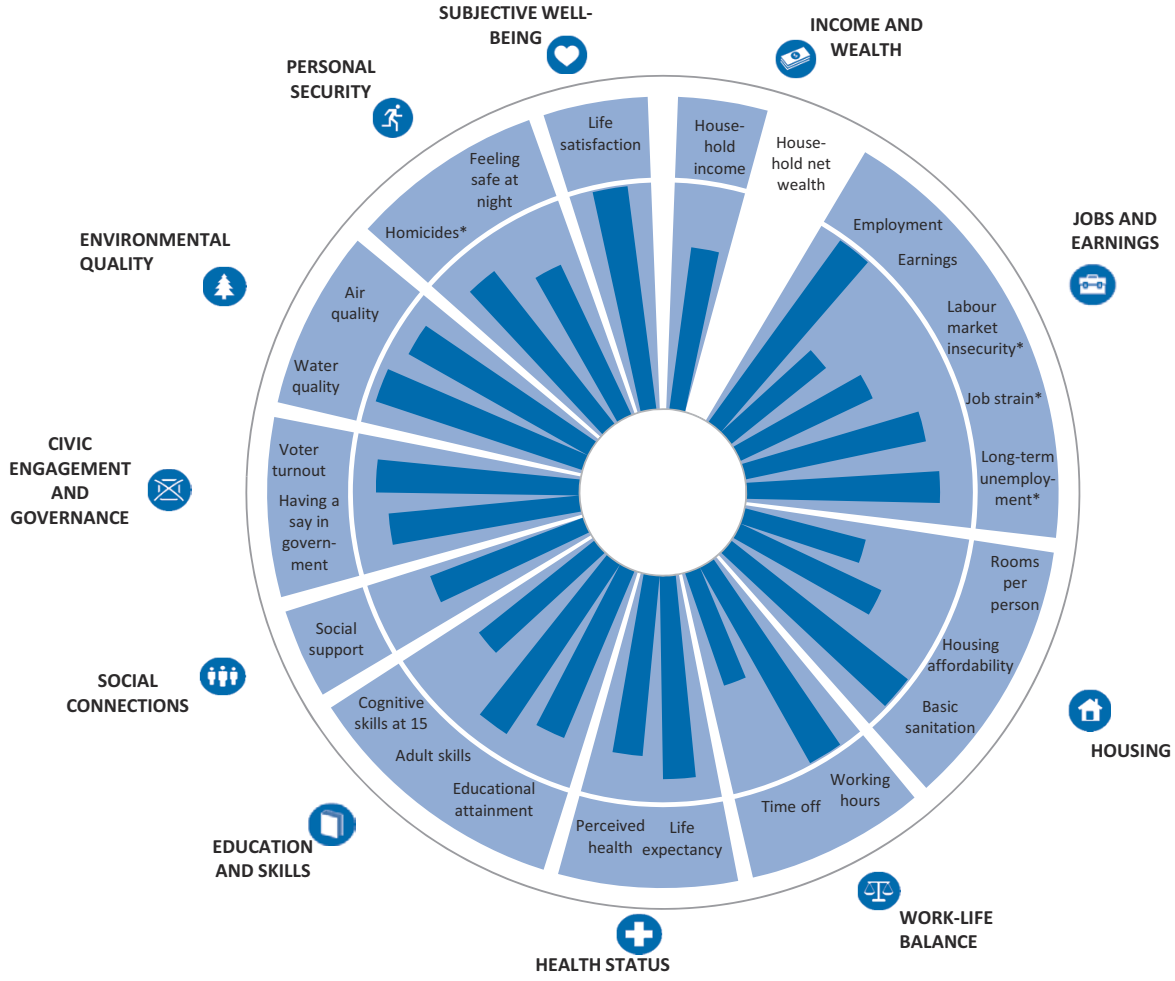
1	Top-performing OECD tier, latest available year
2	Middle-performing OECD tier, latest available year
3	Bottom-performing OECD tier, latest available year

↗	Improving over time
↘	Worsening over time
⇔	No change
..	No data available

HOW'S LIFE IN SWEDEN?

On average, Sweden performs very well across the different well-being dimensions relative to other OECD countries. In 2016, the **employment rate** was one of the highest in the OECD, and only 1% of employees in Sweden regularly **worked very long hours**, the second-lowest share in the OECD. However, the **household net adjusted disposable income** and **earnings** are just below the OECD average levels. In terms of education and skills, 83% of the adult working-age population have attained at least an upper secondary education, compared to the OECD average of 75%, while both **adult skills** and students' **cognitive skills** also exceed the OECD average. Civic engagement and governance, assessed in terms of **voter turnout** and the percentage of adults who feel that they **have a say in what the government does**, are in the top third of the OECD. Sweden's environmental quality and health status are also good, and **life satisfaction** was among the highest in the OECD in 2013.

Figure 5.31. **Sweden's average level of current well-being: Comparative strengths and weaknesses**



Note: This chart shows Sweden's relative strengths and weaknesses in well-being when compared with other OECD countries. For both positive and negative indicators (such as homicides, marked with an "*"), longer bars always indicate better outcomes (i.e. higher well-being), whereas shorter bars always indicate worse outcomes (lower well-being). If data are missing for any given indicator, the relevant segment of the circle is shaded in white.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933599441

Change in Sweden's average well-being over the past 10 years

Dimension	Description	Change
Income and wealth	Household net adjusted disposable income has increased steadily over the past decade and is now 20% higher than in 2005.	⇗
Jobs and earnings	The employment rate in Sweden is now 2.2 percentage points higher than in 2005. Following a decline from 2006 to 2010, it has fully recovered in recent years to exceed its previous peak. Real earnings improved consistently over the past decade, with a cumulative growth of 19%, in contrast to labour market insecurity and long-term unemployment, which both increased sharply during the crisis and are yet to recover to their pre-crisis levels. Finally, the proportion of employees experiencing job strain has remained broadly stable over the past decade.	⇗ ⇗ ⇘ ⇘ ⇔
Housing conditions	The average number of rooms per person has remained stable over the 10-year period, while the share of households lacking basic sanitation has remained close to 0%. Housing has become more affordable since 2005, with the share of household disposable income spent on housing costs falling by 2.2 percentage points.	⇔ ⇔ ⇗
Work-life balance	At 1.1%, the share of employees working 50 hours or more per week in 2016 is very similar to the level reported in 2005.	⇔
Health status	Life expectancy at birth has increased by one-and-a-half years since 2005, and at 82.3 in 2015 it stands 2 years above the OECD average. The share of adults reporting to be in "good" or "very good" health has increased by 4.1 percentage points.	⇗ ⇗
Education and skills	The 10-year change in upper secondary educational attainment cannot be assessed, due to a recent break in the data. However, between 2014 and 2016, attainment rates increased by 1.2 percentage points.	⇗
Social connections	The percentage of people reporting to have relatives or friends whom they can count on to help in case of need has seen little change since 2005-07.	⇔
Civic engagement	The percentage of votes cast among the population registered to vote has improved since the start of the decade, rising from 82% in the 2006 general elections to 86% in 2014.	⇗
Environmental quality	Satisfaction with local water quality has remained stable in the last few years. Between 2005 and 2011, exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution was also relatively stable, but a sharp decrease since 2012 means that levels are now below those experienced 10 years ago.	⇔ ⇗
Personal security	While there has been little change in the rate of deaths due to assault over the past decade, the share of people saying that they feel safe when walking alone at night has increased by 5 percentage points – in line with the trend in over half of all OECD countries.	⇔ ⇗
Subjective well-being	Life satisfaction has remained broadly stable over the decade.	⇔

Note: For each indicator in every dimension: ⇗ refers to an improvement; ⇔ indicates little or no change; and ⇘ signals deterioration. This is based on a comparison of the starting year (2005 in most cases) and the latest available year (usually 2015 or 2016). The order of the arrows shown in column three corresponds to that of the indicators mentioned in column two.

Sweden's resources and risks for future well-being: Illustrative indicators

Natural capital		
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**
Greenhouse gas emissions from domestic production	1	↗ 2005-2015
CO_2 emissions from domestic consumption	1	⇔ 2001-2011
Exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution	1	↗ 2005-2013
Forest area	1	↘ 2005-2014
Renewable freshwater resources	1	.. Long-term annual average
Freshwater abstractions	1	.. 2010
Threatened birds	2	.. Latest available
Threatened mammals	2	.. Latest available
Threatened plants	2	.. Latest available

Human capital		
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**
Young adult educational attainment	3	↗ 2014-2016
Educational expectancy	1	.. 2015
Cognitive skills at age 15	2	.. 2015
Adult skills	1	.. 2011/2012
Long-term unemployment	1	↘ 2005-2016
Life expectancy at birth	1	↗ 2005-2016
Smoking prevalence	1	↗ 2005-2015
Obesity prevalence	1	↘ 2005-2015

Economic capital		
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**
Produced fixed assets	1	↗ 2005-2015
Gross fixed capital formation	1	⇔ 2005-2016
Financial net worth of total economy	2	↗ 2005-2016
Intellectual property assets	1	↗ 2005-2015
Investment in R&D	1	↗ 2005-2014
Household debt	3	↘ 2005-2016
Financial net worth of government	1	↗ 2005-2016
Banking sector leverage	1	⇔ 2005-2016
No data available on household net wealth.		

Social capital		
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**
Trust in others	1	.. 2013
Trust in the police	1	.. 2013
Trust in the national government	1	⇔ 2005-2016
Voter turnout	1	↗ 2006-2014
Government stakeholder engagement	2	.. 2014
Volunteering through organisations	2	.. 2011/2012

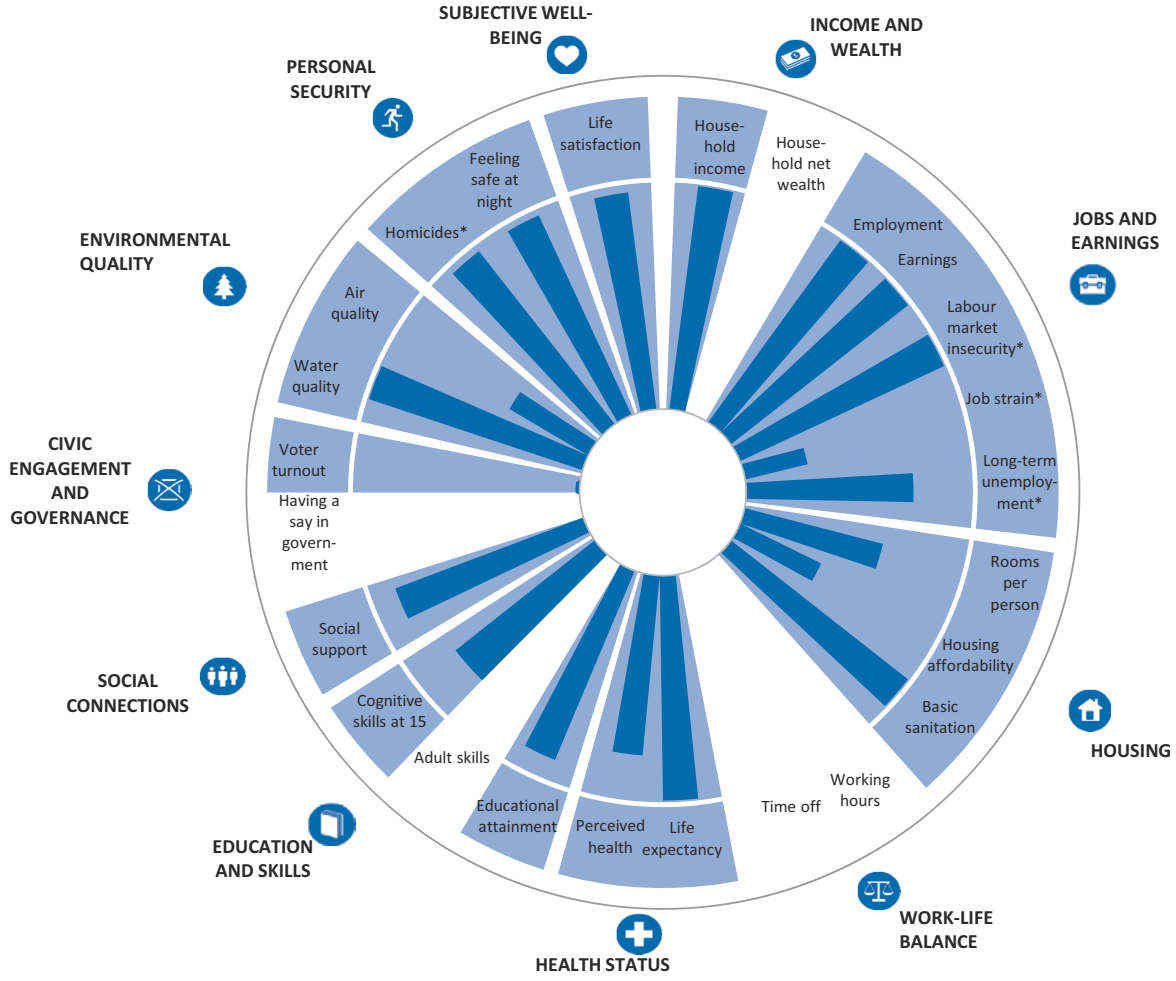
1	Top-performing OECD tier, latest available year
2	Middle-performing OECD tier, latest available year
3	Bottom-performing OECD tier, latest available year

↗	Improving over time
↘	Worsening over time
⇔	No change
..	No data available

HOW'S LIFE IN SWITZERLAND?

On average, Switzerland performs well across the OECD's headline well-being indicators relative to other OECD countries. Average **household net adjusted disposable income**, **earnings** and **employment** are among the highest in the OECD. **Life expectancy** at birth, at 83 years in 2015, was one of the highest in the OECD, while 80% of Swiss people **perceived their health** as "good" or "very good", 11 percentage points above the OECD average. In terms of housing conditions and environmental quality, Switzerland's performance is mixed. For example, while **access to basic sanitation** is good, **housing affordability** was low in 2015, and although 96% of Swiss people are satisfied with their local **water quality**, **air quality** (measured as the average concentration of PM2.5 in the air) is worse than the OECD average. Switzerland's **voter turnout** for national parliamentary elections stood at only 49% in 2015, the lowest voter turnout in the OECD; this, however, does not take into account Switzerland's highly participatory form of direct democracy.

Figure 5.32. **Switzerland's average level of current well-being: Comparative strengths and weaknesses**



Note: This chart shows Switzerland's relative strengths and weaknesses in well-being when compared with other OECD countries. For both positive and negative indicators (such as homicides, marked with an "*"), longer bars always indicate better outcomes (i.e. higher well-being), whereas shorter bars always indicate worse outcomes (lower well-being). If data are missing for any given indicator, the relevant segment of the circle is shaded in white.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933599460

Change in Switzerland's average well-being over the past 10 years

Dimension	Description	Change
Income and wealth	Household net adjusted disposable income is currently 11% higher, in real terms, than in 2005. It has grown steadily since 2005, despite stalling in 2008.	⇗
Jobs and earnings	The employment rate is over 2 percentage points higher than in 2010 (comparable data are not available prior to 2010). Real earnings improved consistently over the past decade, with a cumulative growth of 8%. However, labour market insecurity also increased sharply during the crisis, and is still twice as high as in 2007. Long-term unemployment, at 1.9%, is currently slightly above its 2010 level. Finally, the incidence of job strain increased from 27% in 2005 to 43% in 2015 – more than in any other OECD country over the past decade.	⇗ ⇗ ⇘ ⇘ ⇘
Housing conditions	Since 2005 the number of rooms per person has moderately increased, from 1.8 to 1.9. Housing affordability has also improved in the last decade: the proportion of income spent on housing costs fell from 22.2% in 2005 to 21.5% in 2013. Lack of access to basic sanitation has meanwhile remained relatively stable over the decade, at 0.1%.	⇗ ⇗ ⇔
Work-life balance	[No time series data available]	..
Health status	Despite falling slightly between 2014 and 2015, life expectancy at birth has increased by a year and a half overall since 2005. There has been little change in the share of adults reporting to be in "good" or "very good" health since 2008.	⇗ ⇔
Education and skills	The 10-year change in upper secondary educational attainment cannot be assessed, due to a recent break in the data. However, between 2014 and 2016, attainment rates in Switzerland remained relatively stable.	⇔
Social connections	The percentage of people reporting to have relatives or friends whom they can count on to help in case of need has changed little since 2005-07.	⇔
Civic engagement	Voter turnout remained relatively stable between the 2007 and 2015 parliamentary elections. This differs from the OECD average trend, which has seen voter turnout decrease by 2.4 percentage points in the last 10 years.	⇔
Environmental quality	Both the satisfaction with local water quality and the exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution have remained relatively stable in Switzerland over the past decade.	⇔ ⇔
Personal security	The rate of deaths due to assault has almost halved since 2005, and the share of people saying that they feel safe when walking alone at night has risen by 7 percentage points – in line with the trend in over half of all OECD countries.	⇗ ⇗
Subjective well-being	Life satisfaction has remained stably high over the past decade.	⇔

Note: For each indicator in every dimension: ⇗ refers to an improvement; ⇔ indicates little or no change; and ⇘ signals deterioration. This is based on a comparison of the starting year (2005 in most cases) and the latest available year (usually 2015 or 2016). The order of the arrows shown in column three corresponds to that of the indicators mentioned in column two.

Switzerland's resources and risks for future well-being: Illustrative indicators

Natural capital		
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**
Greenhouse gas emissions from domestic production	1	↗ 2005-2015
CO_2 emissions from domestic consumption	3	↗ 2001-2011
Exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution	2	⇔ 2005-2013
Forest area	3	⇔ 2005-2014
Renewable freshwater resources	2	.. Long-term annual average
Freshwater abstractions	1	.. 2012
Threatened birds	3	.. Latest available
Threatened mammals	3	.. Latest available
Threatened plants	3	.. Latest available

Human capital		
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**
Young adult educational attainment	1	↗ 2014-2016
Educational expectancy	2	.. 2015
Cognitive skills at age 15	1	.. 2015
Long-term unemployment	2	↘ 2010-2016
Life expectancy at birth	1	↗ 2005-2015
Smoking prevalence	2	⇔ 2007-2012
Obesity prevalence	1	↘ 2007-2012
No data available for adult skills.		

Economic capital		
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**
Gross fixed capital formation	2	↘ 2005-2016
Financial net worth of total economy	1	↗ 2005-2015
Household debt	3	↘ 2005-2015
Financial net worth of government	1	↗ 2005-2015
No data available on produced fixed assets, intellectual property assets, investment in R&D, household net wealth and banking sector leverage.		

Social capital		
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**
Trust in others	2	.. 2013
Trust in the police	1	.. 2013
Trust in the national government	1	↗ 2005-2016
Voter turnout	3	⇔ 2007-2015
Government stakeholder engagement	1	.. 2014
No data available on volunteering through organisations.		

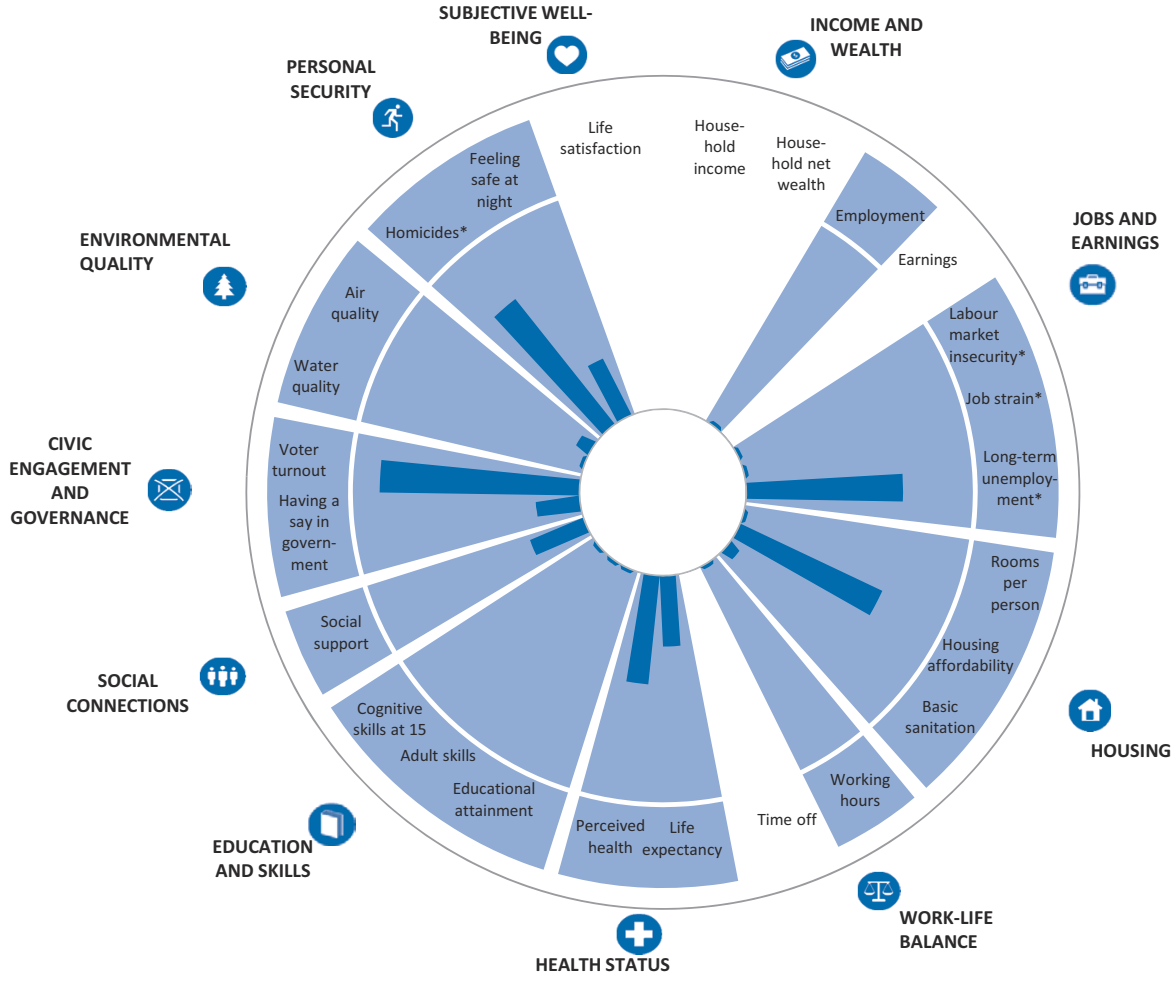
1	Top-performing OECD tier, latest available year
2	Middle-performing OECD tier, latest available year
3	Bottom-performing OECD tier, latest available year

↗	Improving over time
↘	Worsening over time
⇔	No change
..	No data available

HOW'S LIFE IN TURKEY?

Relative to other OECD countries, Turkey has a mixed performance across the different well-being dimensions. At 51% in 2016, the **employment rate** in Turkey is the lowest in the OECD, while **job strain** and **labour market insecurity** are among the highest in the OECD. 34% of the country's employees regularly **worked 50 hours or more** in 2016, the highest share in the OECD, while the **long-term unemployment rate** is just above the OECD average. In terms of health status, education and skills, social support and environmental quality, Turkey falls below the OECD average. Turkey's performance on civic engagement and governance is mixed: **voter turnout** is among the highest in the OECD, although this may reflect the practice of compulsory voting. However, only 24% of people in Turkey feel that they **have a say in what the government does**, below the OECD average of 33%. As for personal security, the **homicide rate** is less than half of the OECD average, but only 61% of the population feel **safe walking alone at night**, below the OECD average of 69%.

Figure 5.33. **Turkey's average level of current well-being: Comparative strengths and weaknesses**



Note: This chart shows Turkey's relative strengths and weaknesses in well-being when compared with other OECD countries. For both positive and negative indicators (such as homicides, marked with an "*"), longer bars always indicate better outcomes (i.e. higher well-being), whereas shorter bars always indicate worse outcomes (lower well-being). If data are missing for any given indicator, the relevant segment of the circle is shaded in white.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933599479

Change in Turkey's average well-being over the past 10 years

Dimension	Description	Change
Income and wealth	[No time series data available]	..
Jobs and earnings	The employment rate has risen by 6.2 percentage points since 2005, compared to just 1.2 for the OECD average. Labour market insecurity reached a high of 59.4% in 2009, and is yet to recover to previous levels. At 2.2% in 2016 the long-term unemployment rate is now half its 2005 level. The share of Turkish employees experiencing job strain peaked at 73% in 2010, but has since fallen to 55% in 2015 – 8 percentage points lower than in 2005.	⇗ ⇘ ⇗ ⇗
Housing conditions	The average number of rooms per person has remained relatively stable over the past decade, whereas housing affordability has improved. The percentage of people living in dwellings without basic sanitary facilities has fallen six times more than the OECD average, but remains relatively high at 8.2%.	⇔ ⇗ ⇗
Work-life balance	The past 10 years have witnessed a large fall in the share of employees working 50 hours or more per week, from 49.7% in 2006 to 33.8% in 2016.	⇗
Health status	The 10-year change in life expectancy cannot be assessed in Turkey, due to a recent break in the data. However, between 2014 and 2016, it remained relatively stable at 78 years. From 2006 to 2015, the percentage of adults reporting to be in "good" or "very good" health was also broadly unchanged.	⇔ ⇔
Education and skills	The 10-year change in upper secondary educational attainment cannot be assessed, due to a recent break in the data. However, between 2014 and 2016, attainment rates increased by almost 3 percentage points.	⇗
Social connections	In the last decade, the level of social support has increased, with the share of the population reporting that they have relatives or friends whom they can count on to help in case of need rising from 80% to 86%. This is the largest improvement in the OECD.	⇗
Civic engagement	The percentage of votes cast among the population registered to vote remained broadly stable between the 2007 and 2015 general elections in Turkey.	⇔
Environmental quality	The percentage of people who say they are satisfied with their local water quality is currently 4 points higher than 10 years ago. However, annual exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution increased by 12% between 2005 and 2013.	⇗ ⇘
Personal security	While there has been little change in the rate of deaths due to assault over the past decade, the share of people saying that they feel safe when walking alone at night has increased by 10 percentage points – which is in line with the trend in over half of all OECD countries.	⇔ ⇗
Subjective well-being	Although starting from a relatively low base, Turkey is among the one-third of OECD countries where people have reported an improvement in their life satisfaction since 2005.	⇗

Note: For each indicator in every dimension: ⇗ refers to an improvement; ⇔ indicates little or no change; and ⇘ signals deterioration. This is based on a comparison of the starting year (2005 in most cases) and the latest available year (usually 2015 or 2016). The order of the arrows shown in column three corresponds to that of the indicators mentioned in column two.

Turkey's resources and risks for future well-being: Illustrative indicators

Natural capital		
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**
Greenhouse gas emissions from domestic production	1	↘ 2005-2015
CO_2 emissions from domestic consumption	1	↘ 2001-2011
Exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution	3	↘ 2005-2013
Forest area	3	⇔ 2005-2014
Renewable freshwater resources	2	.. Long-term annual average
Freshwater abstractions	2	.. 2014
Threatened birds	1	.. Latest available
Threatened mammals	1	.. Latest available
Threatened plants	2	.. Latest available

Human capital		
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**
Young adult educational attainment	3	↗ 2014-2016
Educational expectancy	2	.. 2015
Cognitive skills at age 15	3	.. 2015
Adult skills	3	.. 2014/2015
Long-term unemployment	2	↗ 2005-2016
Life expectancy at birth	3	⇔ 2013-2015
Smoking prevalence	3	↗ 2006-2014
Obesity prevalence	2	.. 2011

Economic capital		
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**
Gross fixed capital formation	1	↘ 2005-2015
Financial net worth of total economy	2	↗ 2010-2015
Financial net worth of government	1	↗ 2010-2015
Banking sector leverage	2	↘ 2005-2015
No data available on produced fixed assets, intellectual property assets, investment in R&D, household debt and household net wealth.		

Social capital		
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**
Trust in others	3	.. 2013
Trust in the police	2	.. 2013
Trust in the national government	1	↘ 2005-2016
Voter turnout	1	↗ 2007-2015
Government stakeholder engagement	2	.. 2014
Volunteering through organisations	3	.. 2014/2015

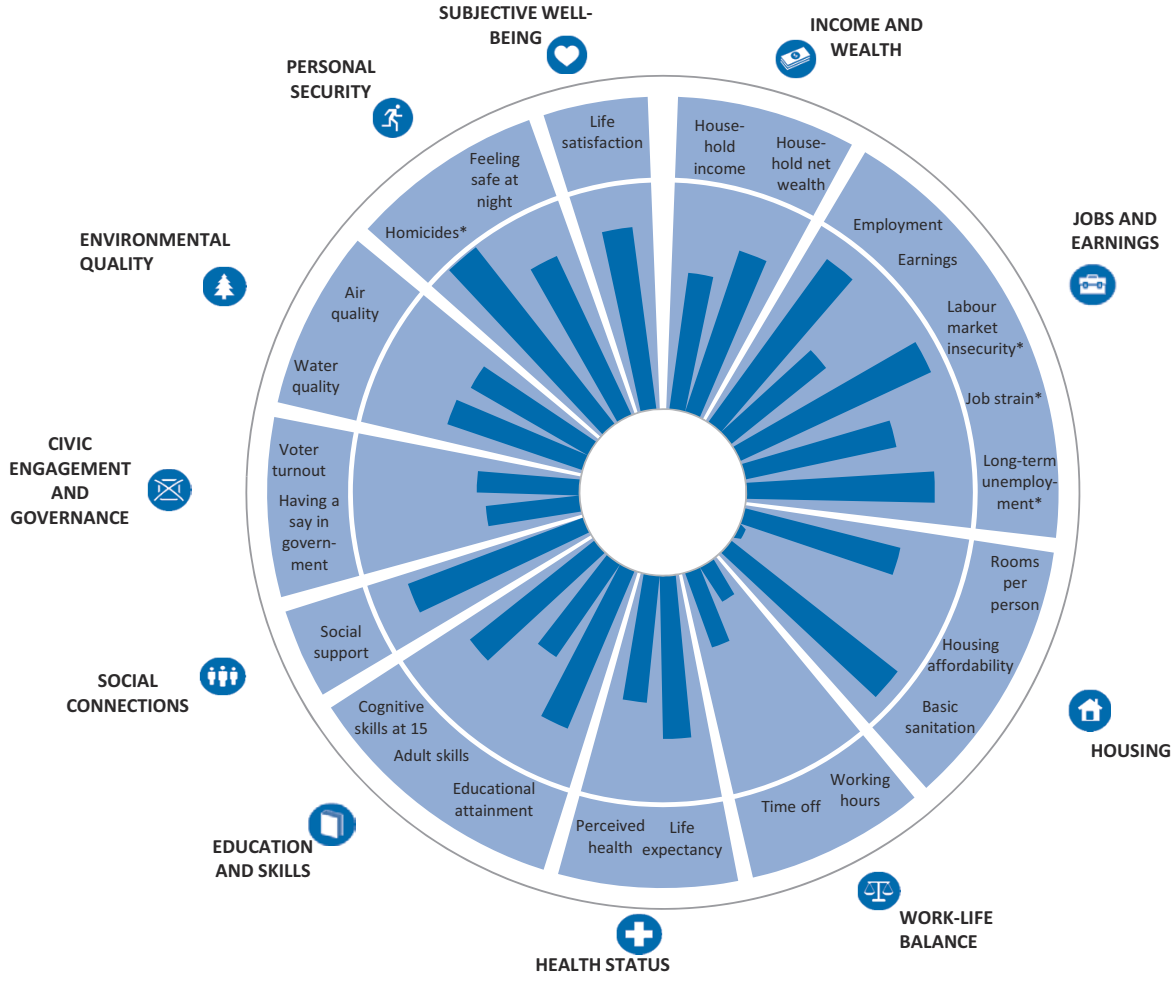
1	Top-performing OECD tier, latest available year
2	Middle-performing OECD tier, latest available year
3	Bottom-performing OECD tier, latest available year

↗	Improving over time
↘	Worsening over time
⇔	No change
..	No data available

HOW'S LIFE IN THE UNITED KINGDOM?

On average, the United Kingdom performs well across a number of well-being indicators relative to other OECD countries. At 74% in 2016, the employment rate is well above the OECD average (67%), while **long-term unemployment** is below the OECD average level (1.3% compared to 2% in 2016). However, **household net adjusted disposable income** and **average earnings** stand below the OECD average levels. **Housing affordability** is also comparatively low: the average household in the United Kingdom spends a higher proportion of its disposable income (almost 24%) on housing costs than the OECD average (almost 21%). Conversely, personal security is comparatively high, and the **homicide rate** is one of the lowest in the OECD area. **Social support** also exceeds the OECD average: 93% of people in the United Kingdom report having friends or relatives whom they can count on in times of trouble, higher than the OECD average of 89%. **Life satisfaction** in the United Kingdom is also above the OECD average level.

Figure 5.34. **The United Kingdom's average level of current well-being: Comparative strengths and weaknesses**



Note: This chart shows the United Kingdom's relative strengths and weaknesses in well-being when compared with other OECD countries. For both positive and negative indicators (such as homicides, marked with an "*"), longer bars always indicate better outcomes (i.e. higher well-being), whereas shorter bars always indicate worse outcomes (lower well-being). If data are missing for any given indicator, the relevant segment of the circle is shaded in white.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933599498

Change in the United Kingdom's average well-being over the past 10 years

Dimension	Description	Change
Income and wealth	In 2016, the level of household net adjusted disposable income was 7% higher than in 2005, despite a setback between 2011 and 2014. Household net wealth recorded little change between 2011 and 2013.	⇗ ⇔
Jobs and earnings	After falling from 2008 to 2011, the employment rate has grown steadily in recent years, and is now 2% higher than in 2005. Real earnings are slightly higher than in 2005; following as sharp decrease between 2010 and 2014, they picked up slightly in 2015 and 2016. Labour market insecurity rose steeply during the crisis, but fell gradually from 2011 onwards to reach 2.6% – half a point lower than in 2005. On the other hand, both long-term unemployment and the share of workers experiencing job strain have increased over the past decade.	⇗ ⇗ ⇗ ⇘ ⇘
Housing conditions	The share of household disposable income spent on housing costs has remained relatively stable over the past decade.	⇔
Work-life balance	At nearly 12.7%, the share of employees working 50 hours or more per week in 2016 is very similar to the level reported in 2005.	⇔
Health status	Despite falling slightly between 2014 and 2015, life expectancy has increased by 1.8 years overall since 2005. Conversely, the United Kingdom is one of few OECD countries where perceived health status has worsened in the last decade, with the proportion of people rating their health as "good" or "very good" falling by nearly 5 percentage points.	⇗ ⇘
Education and skills	The 10-year change in upper secondary educational attainment cannot be assessed, due to a recent break in the data. However, between 2014 and 2016, attainment rates increased by 1.6 percentage points.	⇗
Social connections	The United Kingdom is among the one-quarter of OECD countries where social support has fallen over the past decade. The share of people who have relatives or friends whom they can count on for help in case of need dropped from 97% to 93%.	⇘
Civic engagement	Voter turnout rose by 7.6 percentage points between the 2005 and 2017 general elections in the United Kingdom.	⇗
Environmental quality	The share of people satisfied with their local water quality fell by 7 percentage points since 2005-07. Annual exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution has changed little since 2005, remaining just below the OECD average.	⇘ ⇔
Personal security	Although the rate of deaths due to assault has remained relatively stable over the last 10 years, the share of people who report feeling safe when walking alone at night has improved from 62% to 77%.	⇔ ⇗
Subjective well-being	People's life satisfaction has remained relatively stable in the United Kingdom during the last 10 years.	⇔

Note: For each indicator in every dimension: ⇗ refers to an improvement; ⇔ indicates little or no change; and ⇘ signals deterioration. This is based on a comparison of the starting year (2005 in most cases) and the latest available year (usually 2015 or 2016). The order of the arrows shown in column three corresponds to that of the indicators mentioned in column two.

The United Kingdom's resources and risks for future well-being: Illustrative indicators

Natural capital			
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**	
Greenhouse gas emissions from domestic production	2	↗	2005-2015
CO_2 emissions from domestic consumption	2	↗	2001-2011
Exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution	2	⇔	2005-2013
Forest area	3	⇔	2005-2014
Renewable freshwater resources	3	..	Long-term annual average
Freshwater abstractions	1	..	2013
No data available on threatened species.			

Human capital			
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**	
Young adult educational attainment	2	↗	2014-2016
Educational expectancy	3	..	2015
Cognitive skills at age 15	2	..	2015
Adult skills	2	..	2011/2012
Long-term unemployment	1	↘	2005-2016
Life expectancy at birth	2	↗	2005-2015
Smoking prevalence	2	↗	2005-2014
Obesity prevalence	3	↘	2005-2015

Economic capital			
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**	
Produced fixed assets	3	↗	2005-2015
Gross fixed capital formation	2	↘	2005-2016
Financial net worth of total economy	2	⇔	2005-2016
Intellectual property assets	2	↘	2005-2015
Investment in R&D	2	↗	2005-2015
Household debt	2	⇔	2005-2016
Household net wealth	1	⇔	2011-2013
Financial net worth of government	3	↘	2005-2016
Banking sector leverage	3	↗	2005-2015

Social capital			
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**	
Trust in others	2	..	2013
Trust in the police	2	..	2013
Trust in the national government	2	⇔	2005-2016
Voter turnout	2	↗	2005-2017
Government stakeholder engagement	1	..	2014
Volunteering through organisations	2	..	2011/2012

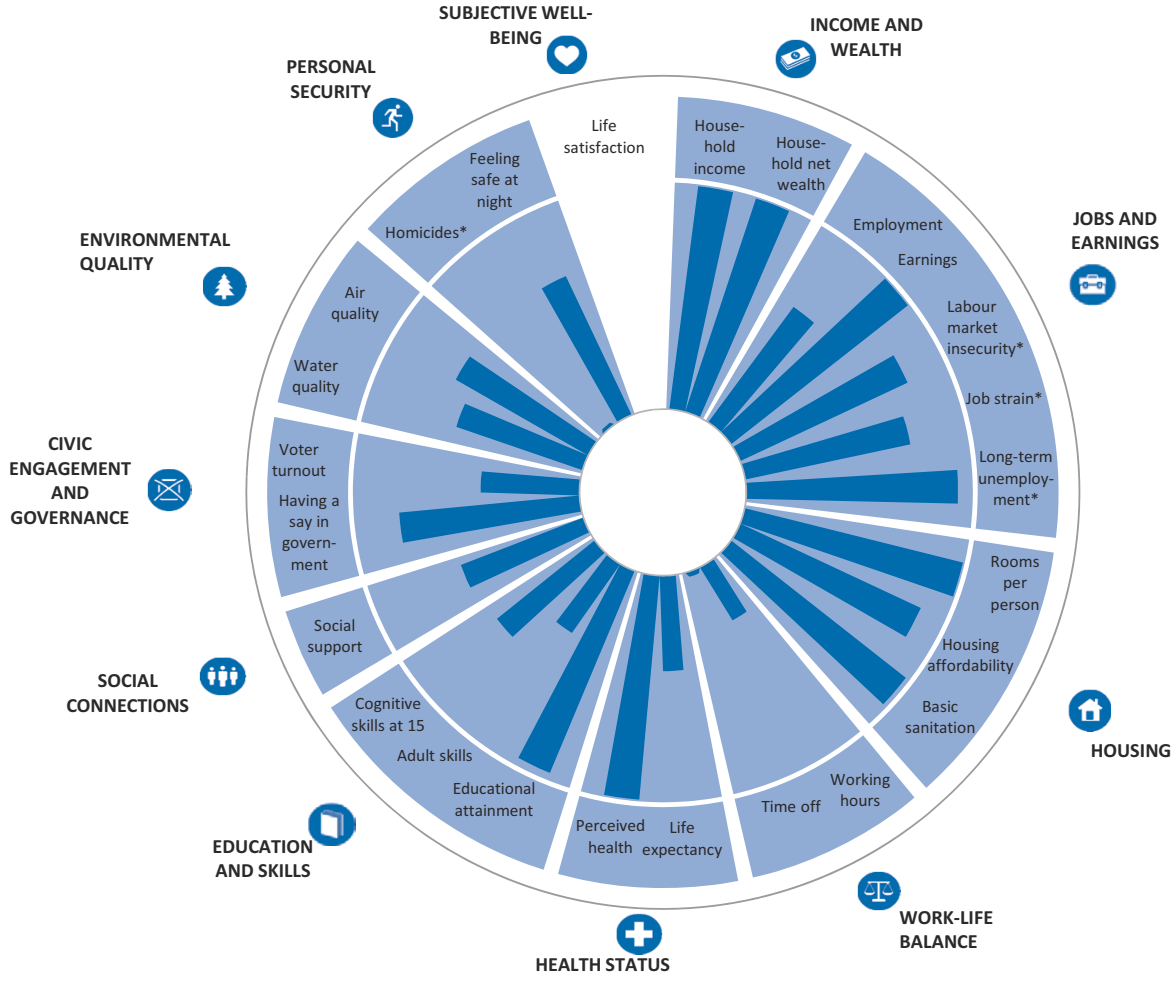
1	Top-performing OECD tier, latest available year
2	Middle-performing OECD tier, latest available year
3	Bottom-performing OECD tier, latest available year

↗	Improving over time
↘	Worsening over time
⇔	No change
..	No data available

HOW'S LIFE IN THE UNITED STATES?

Relative to other OECD countries, the United States performs well in terms of material living conditions: the average **household net adjusted disposable income** was the highest in the OECD in 2015, and the average American enjoys good **housing conditions** and a low **long-term unemployment rate**. However, work-life balance is an area of comparative weakness: over 11% of employees work very long hours, and full-time employees report having less **time off** than in most other OECD countries. At 79 years, **life expectancy** falls within the bottom third of the OECD. A high share of Americans report good levels of **perceived health,** although these data are not directly comparable with those of the other OECD countries due to a difference in the reporting scale. Moreover, nearly 90% of the adult working-age population have attained at least an upper secondary education. However, the skills of both American adults and 15-year-olds are lower than the OECD averages. Furthermore, the United States has the third-highest rate of **homicides** in the OECD.

Figure 5.35. **The United States' average level of current well-being: Comparative strengths and weaknesses**



Note: This chart shows the United States' relative strengths and weaknesses in well-being when compared with other OECD countries. For both positive and negative indicators (such as homicides, marked with an "*"), longer bars always indicate better outcomes (i.e. higher well-being), whereas shorter bars always indicate worse outcomes (lower well-being). If data are missing for any given indicator, the relevant segment of the circle is shaded in white.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933599517

Change in the United States' average well-being over the past 10 years

Dimension	Description	Change
Income and wealth	The average household net adjusted disposable income has risen by 11% cumulatively over the past decade, in real terms. This is despite two periods of stalled growth in 2008-9 and 2012-13.	↗
Jobs and earnings	Although the employment rate has made a gradual recovery since 2011, it is still below the 72% level reached in 2006. Real earnings improved consistently over the past decade. However, labour market insecurity also increased sharply during the crisis and is yet to recover. Both long-term unemployment and job strain are currently at similar levels to those recorded a decade ago.	↗ ↘ ↔ ↔
Housing conditions	The average number of rooms per person has increased from 2.3 in 2005-2010 to 2.4 in 2011-2015, and access to basic sanitation has remained stably high. Housing affordability has improved in the last decade: the proportion of income spent on housing costs has fallen from 19.5% in 2005 to 18.4% in 2015.	↗ ↔ ↗
Work-life balance	At 11.4%, the share of employees working 50 hours or more per week in 2016 is very similar to the level reported in 2005.	↔
Health status	Despite an overall improvement since 2005, the United States continues to lag behind the OECD average in terms of life expectancy, and the gap has widened from 0.8 years in 2005 to 1.3 years in 2015. Perceived health has remained relatively stable.	↗ ↔
Education and skills	Since 2005, the United States has recorded one of the highest shares of adults with at least an upper secondary level of education in the OECD. Reflecting this high starting point, the cumulative growth rate has been only 3% in the last decade.	↗
Social connections	The share of people reporting to have relatives or friends whom they can count on to help in case of need fell over the past decade from 96% to 90%.	↘
Civic engagement	Voter turnout in last year's Presidential elections increased slightly compared to 2012, but was still below the 70.3% turnout in 2008. This is in line with the OECD average trend, which has fallen by 2.4% since 2005.	↘
Environmental quality	Satisfaction with local water quality has remained stable in the last few years. However, annual exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution has improved over the past decade, and in 2013 the level reported was 14% lower than in 2005.	↔ ↗
Personal security	Although the homicide rate has fallen by 18% over the decade, it is still among the highest in the OECD. Feelings of safety are broadly similar to their level 10 years ago.	↗ ↔
Subjective well-being	People's life satisfaction has fallen gradually during the past 10 years, from an average of 7.3 to 6.9 (measured on a 0-10 scale). This is twice as large as the OECD average decline.	↘

Note: For each indicator in every dimension: ↗ refers to an improvement; ↔ indicates little or no change; and ↘ signals deterioration. This is based on a comparison of the starting year (2005 in most cases) and the latest available year (usually 2015 or 2016). The order of the arrows shown in column three corresponds to that of the indicators mentioned in column two.

The United States' resources and risks for future well-being: Illustrative indicators

Natural capital			
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**	
Greenhouse gas emissions from domestic production	❸	↗	2005-2015
CO_2 emissions from domestic consumption	❸	↗	2001-2011
Exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution	❶	↗	2005-2013
Forest area	❶	⇔	2005-2014
Renewable freshwater resources	❷	..	Long-term annual average
Freshwater abstractions	❸	..	2010
Threatened birds	❶	..	Latest available
Threatened mammals	❶	..	Latest available
Threatened plants	❸	..	Latest available

Human capital			
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**	
Young adult educational attainment	❶	↗	2005-2016
Educational expectancy	❷	..	2015
Cognitive skills at age 15	❷	..	2015
Adult skills	❸	..	2011/2012
Long-term unemployment	❶	⇔	2005-2016
Life expectancy at birth	❸	↗	2005-2015
Smoking prevalence	❶	↗	2005-2015
Obesity prevalence	❸	↘	2006-2014

Economic capital			
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**	
Produced fixed assets	❶	↗	2005-2015
Gross fixed capital formation	❶	↘	2005-2015
Financial net worth of total economy	❶	↗	2005-2015
Intellectual property assets	❶	↗	2005-2015
Household debt	❷	↗	2005-2015
Household net wealth	❶	..	2010
Financial net worth of government	❸	↘	2005-2016
Banking sector leverage	❶	⇔	2005-2016
No data available on investment in R&D.			

Social capital			
Indicator	**Tier**	**Change**	
Trust in others	❷	↘	2005-2016
Voter turnout	❷	↘	2008-2016
Government stakeholder engagement	❶	..	2014
Volunteering through organisations	❶	..	2011/2012
No data available on trust in others and trust in the police.			

❶	Top-performing OECD tier, latest available year
❷	Middle-performing OECD tier, latest available year
❸	Bottom-performing OECD tier, latest available year

↗	Improving over time
↘	Worsening over time
⇔	No change
..	No data available

Country profiles: OECD partner countries

HOW'S LIFE IN BRAZIL?

Figure 5.36 shows Brazil's relative strengths and weaknesses in well-being, with reference both to the OECD average and to the average outcomes of the OECD partner countries considered in *How's Life? 2017* (i.e. Brazil, Colombia, Costa Rica, Lithuania, the Russian Federation and South Africa).

Brazil shows several areas of strength relative to both the OECD and partner country averages: only 7% of employees regularly **worked 50 hours or more** in 2016, below both the OECD average (13%) and the average in partner countries (9%). **Social support** is also high: in the period 2014-16, 90% of Brazilians reported having **friends or relatives whom they can count on** in times of trouble, very close to the OECD average. **Voter turnout** in Brazil was almost 79% in 2014, higher than the average both for the OECD (almost 69%) and the partner countries (70%). Finally, **air quality** (measured in terms of average annual exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution) is better than both the OECD and partner country averages.

There are also several outcomes where Brazil is above the average for partner countries, but below the OECD average. Its **employment rate,** at 64.4% in 2016, is higher than the average of partner countries (63.9%) but below the OECD average (67%). A relatively high percentage of Brazilians live in housing without **basic sanitation** (6.7%), a share that is higher than the OECD average of 2.1% but lower than the average of partner countries (13.1%). **Life expectancy** at birth is almost 75 years, which is above the average of the partner countries (72) but below the OECD average (80). While almost 72% of Brazilians say that they are satisfied with their local **water quality**, the share is only 66% for the partner countries as a whole.

Brazil also has some areas of weakness compared to both the OECD and other partner countries. Rates for both adults' upper secondary **educational attainment** (49%) and students' **cognitive skills at age 15** are among the lowest in both the OECD and partner countries. Personal security is also low: the **homicide rate** is among the highest across the OECD and partner countries, while only 37% of Brazilian people report feeling **safe when walking alone at night** in the area where they live. This is among the lowest in both the OECD and partner countries.

Figure 5.36. **Current well-being strengths and weaknesses in Brazil**

Strengths	Strengths relative to the OECD average	Strengths relative to partner countries	Weaknesses
Above average for both the OECD and partner countries	Above the OECD average, but below partner countries' average	Above partner countries' average, but below the OECD average	Below average for both the OECD and partner countries
Working hours Voter turnout Air quality		Employment Basic sanitation Life expectancy Water quality	Educational attainment Cognitive skills at 15 Homicides Feeling safe at night

Note: Both the OECD and partner country averages are typically population-weighted (see the online data annex for further details). Only headline well-being indicators with a complete or almost complete coverage of the OECD partner countries are considered (i.e. one or no missing countries per indicator).

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933599536

Change in Brazil's average well-being over the past 10 years

Dimension	Description	Change
Income and wealth	[No time series data available]	..
Jobs and earnings	The employment rate decreased sharply in 2015, falling 4% below the level recorded in 2005.	↘
Housing conditions	[No time series data available]	..
Work-life balance	The past decade has witnessed a large fall in the percentage of employees working very long hours, from 16% in 2005 to 7% in 2015. This brings Brazil below the OECD average of 13%.	↗
Health status	Life expectancy at birth has increased by nearly 3 years since 2005, but stands below the OECD average by almost 6 years.	↗
Education and skills	The share of adults with at least an upper secondary level of education has increased considerably over the past decade, from 37% in 2007 to 49% in 2015. However, this remains 18 percentage points below the OECD average.	↗
Social connections	The share of people reporting that they have relatives or friends whom they can count on to help in case of need has remained relatively stable since 2005, in contrast with the slight decrease recorded for the OECD average.	⇔
Civic engagement	As in over half of all OECD countries, voter turnout has fallen over the last decade. The percentage of votes cast among the population registered to vote in the presidential elections was 4 points lower in 2014 than in 2006.	↘
Environmental quality	The share of people satisfied with their local water quality has fallen from 78% to 72% over the last 10 years. On the other hand, air pollution levels in 2013 were close to those in 2005.	↘ ⇔
Personal security	The homicide rate has risen in the last 10 years, from 25 to 28 deaths per 100 000 people, in contrast to the falls observed in most OECD countries. The percentage of the population declaring that they feel safe when walking alone at night has remained broadly stable.	↘ ⇔
Subjective well-being	Life satisfaction has remained relatively stable over the decade.	⇔

Note: For each indicator in every dimension: ↗ refers to an improvement; ⇔ indicates little or no change; and ↘ signals deterioration. This is based on a comparison of the starting year (2005 in most cases) and the latest available year (usually 2015 or 2016). The order of the arrows shown in column three corresponds to that of the indicators mentioned in column two.

Brazil's resources and risks for future well-being: Illustrative indicators

Natural capital			
Indicator	**Equivalent OECD tier**	**Change**	
Greenhouse gas emissions from domestic production	❶	↘	2005-2012
CO_2 emissions from domestic consumption	❶	↘	2001-2011
Exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution	❷	⇔	2005-2013
Forest area	❶	↘	2005-2014
Renewable freshwater resources	❶	..	Long-term annual average
Freshwater abstractions	❷	..	2012
No data available on threatened species.			

Human capital			
Indicator	**Equivalent OECD tier**	**Change**	
Young adult educational attainment	❸	↗	2007-2015
Educational expectancy	❸	..	2015
Cognitive skills at age 15	❸	..	2015
Life expectancy at birth	❸	↗	2005-2015
Smoking prevalence	❶	↗	2006-2014
Obesity prevalence	❷	..	2013
No data available on adult skills and long-term unemployment.			

Economic capital			
Indicator	**Equivalent OECD tier**	**Change**	
Gross fixed capital formation	❶	↗	2005-2011
Financial net worth of total economy	❷	⇔	2005-2009
Household debt	❶	↘	2010-2014
Financial net worth of government	❷	↗	2009-2014
No data available on produced fixed assets, intellectual property assets, investment in R&D, household net wealth and banking sector leverage.			

Social capital			
Indicator	**Equivalent OECD tier**	**Change**	
Trust in the national government	❸	↘	2005-2016
Voter turnout	❶	↗	2006-2014
Government stakeholder engagement	❷	..	2014
No data available on trust in others, trust in the police and volunteering in organisations.			

❶	Top-performing OECD tier, latest available year
❷	Middle-performing OECD tier, latest available year
❸	Bottom-performing OECD tier, latest available year

↗	Improving over time
↘	Worsening over time
⇔	No change
..	No data available

HOW'S LIFE IN COLOMBIA?

Figure 5.37 shows Colombia's relative strengths and weaknesses in well-being, with reference to both the OECD average and the average outcomes of OECD partner countries considered in *How's Life? 2017* (i.e. Brazil, Colombia, Costa Rica, Lithuania, the Russian Federation and South Africa).

Colombia has several areas of strength relative to both the OECD and partner countries. **Housing affordability** is good, and **air quality** (measured in terms of mean exposure to outdoor air pollution by fine particulate matter, $PM_{2.5}$) is better than both the OECD and partner country averages. In addition, the **employment rate,** at 67.2% in 2016, was higher than the average for both the OECD (67%) and the partner countries (63.9%), while the **long-term unemployment** rate (below 0.6%) was the lowest among partner countries and well below the OECD average.

In the case of **social support**, almost 89% of Colombians report having friends or relatives whom they can count on in times of trouble, in line with the average for both the OECD (89%) and the partner countries (90%).

In several outcomes Colombia is above the average for the partner countries but below the OECD average. **Life expectancy** at birth, at 74 years, is above the average level among partner countries (72) but below the OECD average (80). Satisfaction with local **water quality** is also higher in Colombia: around 74% of Colombians say that they are satisfied with their local water quality compared to only 66% on average among all partner countries. Finally, 45% of Colombia's people report feeling **safe walking alone at night** in the area where they live, which is slightly higher than the partner country average (43%) but well below the OECD average (almost 69%).

Colombia has some areas of weakness compared to both the OECD and other partner countries. 28% of employees regularly **worked very long hours** in 2016, well above 13% in the OECD and 9% in partner countries, on average. The rates of both adults' upper secondary **educational attainment** (52%) and students' **cognitive skills at age 15** are among the lowest in both the OECD and partner countries. **Voter turnout** (44% in 2014) is the lowest, and the **homicide rate** the highest, across all OECD and partner countries.

Figure 5.37. **Current well-being strengths and weaknesses in Colombia**

Strengths	Strengths relative to the OECD average	Strengths relative to partner countries	Weaknesses
Above average for both the OECD and partner countries	Above the OECD average, but below partner countries' average	Above partner countries' average, but below the OECD average	Below average for both the OECD and partner countries
Employment Long-term unemployment Housing affordability Air quality		Life expectancy Water quality Feeling safe at night	Working hours Educational attainment Cognitive skills at 15 Voter turnout Homicides

Note: Both the OECD and partner country averages are typically population-weighted (see the online data annex for further details). Only headline well-being indicators with a complete or almost complete coverage of the OECD partner countries are considered (i.e. one or no missing countries per indicator).

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Change in Colombia's average well-being over the past 10 years

Dimension	Description	Change
Income and wealth	[No time series data available]	..
Jobs and earnings	The employment rate increased by 6 percentage points between 2005 and 2016. The long-term unemployment rate has also improved over the past decade, falling from 3.3% in 2005 to 0.7% in 2016.	⇗ ⇗
Housing conditions	Housing has become more affordable since 2005, with the share of household disposable income spent on housing costs down by 1.7 percentage points. The average number of rooms per person has remained stable over the past decade, and remains below the OECD average.	⇗ ⇔
Work-life balance	The percentage of employees working 50 hours or more per week decreased from 37% in 2005 to 28% in 2016.	⇗
Health status	Life expectancy at birth has increased by nearly 2 years since 2005, but stands almost 6 years below the OECD average.	⇗
Education and skills	The 10-year change in upper secondary educational attainment cannot be assessed, due to missing data. However, the share of adults with at least an upper secondary level of education increased by 0.5% between 2014 and 2016.	⇗
Social connections	Social support (measured as the share of people reporting that they have relatives or friends whom they can count on to help in case of need) has been relatively stable since 2005, in contrast with the slight fall recorded for the OECD average.	⇔
Civic engagement	The percentage of votes cast among the population registered to vote has improved in the past decade, from 40.5% in the 2006 presidential elections to 43.6% in 2014.	⇗
Environmental quality	Satisfaction with local water quality has fallen slightly in the last few years. On the other hand, air pollution levels remained broadly stable between 2005 and 2013.	⇘ ⇔
Personal security	The rate of deaths due to assault has fallen in recent years, from close to 48 deaths per 100 000 people in 2005 to 30 in 2013. However, the percentage of the population declaring that they feel safe when walking alone at night in the area where they live has also decreased, from 54% to 45%.	⇗ ⇘
Subjective well-being	Life satisfaction has improved slightly over the past decade and, at 6.4, is just below the OECD average of 6.5 (measured on a 0-10 scale).	⇗

Note: For each indicator in every dimension: ⇗ refers to an improvement; ⇔ indicates little or no change; and ⇘ signals deterioration. This is based on a comparison of the starting year (2005 in most cases) and the latest available year (usually 2015 or 2016). The order of the arrows shown in column three corresponds to that of the indicators mentioned in column two.

Colombia's resources and risks for future well-being: Illustrative indicators

Natural capital			
Indicator	**Equivalent OECD tier**	**Change**	
CO_2 emissions from domestic consumption	❶	⇔	2001-2011
Exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution	❶	⇔	2005-2013
Forest area	❶	↘	2005-2014
Freshwater abstractions	❸	..	2012
Threatened birds	❶	..	Latest available
Threatened mammals	❶	..	Latest available
Threatened plants	❶	..	Latest available
No data available on greenhouse gas emissions and renewable freshwater resources.			

Human capital			
Indicator	**Equivalent OECD tier**	**Change**	
Young adult educational attainment	❸	↗	2014-2016
Educational expectancy	❸	..	2015
Cognitive skills at age 15	❸	..	2015
Long-term unemployment	❶	↗	2005-2016
Life expectancy at birth	❸	↗	2005-2015
Smoking prevalence	❶	↗	2005-2015
Obesity prevalence	❷	↘	2005-2014
No data available on adult skills.			

Economic capital			
Indicator	**Equivalent OECD tier**	**Change**	
Gross fixed capital formation	❷	↗	2005-2015
Financial net worth of total economy	❷	↘	2005-2015
Financial net worth of government	❷	⇔	2015-2016
Banking sector leverage	❶	..	2015
No data available on produced fixed assets, intellectual property assets, investment in R&D, household debt and household net wealth.			

Social capital			
Indicator	**Equivalent OECD tier**	**Change**	
Trust in the national government	❸	↘	2005-2016
Voter turnout	❸	↗	2006-2014
Government stakeholder engagement	❸	..	2014
No data available on trust in others, trust in the police or volunteering in organisations.			

❶	Top-performing OECD tier, latest available year
❷	Middle-performing OECD tier, latest available year
❸	Bottom-performing OECD tier, latest available year

↗	Improving over time
↘	Worsening over time
⇔	No change
..	No data available

HOW'S LIFE IN COSTA RICA?

Figure 5.38 shows Costa Rica's relative strengths and weaknesses in well-being with reference to both the OECD average and the average of the OECD partner countries considered in *How's Life? 2017* (i.e. Brazil, Colombia, Costa Rica, Lithuania, the Russian Federation and South Africa).

Costa Rica has several areas of strength relative to both the OECD and partner countries: At 1.6% in 2016, the **long-term unemployment** rate stood below both the OECD average (2%) and the average for the partner countries (4.5%). About 85% of Costa Ricans are satisfied with their local **water quality**, above the OECD average (79%), and well above that of the partner countries (66%). **Air quality** (air pollution by fine particulate matter, $PM_{2.5}$) is also better than the average in both the OECD and partner countries.

With around 89% of the population reporting that they have friends or relatives whom they can count on in case of need, **social support** in Costa Rica is in line with the average in both the OECD (89%) and partner countries (90%).

There are also several outcomes where Costa Rica is above the average for the partner countries, but below the OECD average: **Life expectancy** at birth is 79.6 years, almost in line with the OECD average, but well above that of partner countries (71). A low share of Costa Ricans live in housing without **basic sanitation** (2.2%). The **homicide rate** is almost twice as high as the OECD average, but remains one of the lowest across the partner countries. 44% of Costa Ricans feel **safe walking alone at night** in the area where they live, very slightly higher than the 43% partner country average, but below the OECD average of almost 69%.

Costa Rica also has some areas of weakness compared to both the OECD and other partner countries: In 2016, the **employment rate** was 58.7%, below both the OECD average (67%) and the average among the partner countries (63.9%), and almost 28% of employees **worked very long hours**, among the highest in both the OECD and partner countries. Adults' upper secondary **educational attainment** (40%) and students' **cognitive skills at age 15** are among the lowest in both the OECD and partner countries. **Voter turnout** (around 68% in 2014) falls marginally below the OECD average of 69% and the average among the partner countries (70%). **Housing affordability** is also worse than both the OECD average and the average for partner countries.

Figure 5.38. **Current well-being strengths and weaknesses in Costa Rica**

Strengths	Strengths relative to the OECD average	Strengths relative to partner countries	Weaknesses
Above average for both the OECD and partner countries	Above the OECD average, but below partner countries' average	Above partner countries' average, but below the OECD average	Below average for both the OECD and partner countries
Long-term unemployment Water quality Air quality		Basic sanitation Life expectancy Homicides Feeling safe at night	Employment Housing affordability Working hours Educational attainment Cognitive skills at 15 Voter turnout

Note: Both the OECD and partner country averages are typically population-weighted (see the online data annex for further details). Only headline well-being indicators with a complete or almost complete coverage of the OECD partner countries are considered (i.e. one or no missing countries per indicator).

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Change in Costa Rica's average well-being over the past 10 years

Dimension	Description	Change
Income and wealth	[No time series data available]	..
Jobs and earnings	Contrary to the OECD average trend, the employment rate dropped overall in the past 10 years in Costa Rica. The long-term unemployment rate has also worsened, from 1.0% in 2012 (the earliest available year) to 1.6% in 2016.	↘ ↘
Housing conditions	Since 2005, the number of rooms per person has moderately improved in Costa Rica, from 1.1 to 1.2. Housing affordability has also improved slightly in recent years, with the share of income spent on housing costs falling from 20.1% in 2012 to 19.7% in 2014. Basic sanitation has become more widespread, and the share of people living without basic sanitary facilities between 2011 and 2015 was over a third lower than between 2005 and 2010.	↗ ↗ ↗
Work-life balance	Since 2010 there has been a large fall in the percentage of employees working 50 hours or more per week in Costa Rica, from 32.8% in 2010 to 27.6% in 2016.	↘
Health status	Life expectancy at birth in Costa Rica has increased by one-and-a-half years since 2005.	↗
Education and skills	The share of the adult working-age population having attained at least an upper secondary education has increased from 35% in 2005 to 39% in 2015.	↗
Social connections	The share of people who have relatives or friends whom they can count on to help in case of need has remained stable in Costa Rica since 2005, in contrast with the slight decrease recorded for the OECD average.	⇔
Civic engagement	The percentage of votes cast among the population registered to vote has improved in Costa Rica in the past decade, from 65.2% in the 2006 presidential elections to 68.2% in 2014.	↗
Environmental quality	Satisfaction with local water quality has remained stable since 2005-07, and is still above the OECD average. Annual exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution has risen by 23% since 2005, peaking in 2013.	⇔ ↘
Personal security	The rate of deaths due to assault in Costa Rica has risen slightly since 2005, and is now just over 1 percentage point higher. The share of the population who report feeling safe when walking alone at night has fallen to 46%, 4 percentage points lower than a decade earlier.	↘ ↘
Subjective well-being	In Costa Rica, life satisfaction has remained relatively stable since 2005, but current levels are still above the OECD average.	⇔

Note: For each indicator in every dimension: ↗ refers to an improvement; ⇔ indicates little or no change; and ↘ signals deterioration. This is based on a comparison of the starting year (2005 in most cases) and the latest available year (usually 2015 or 2016). The order of the arrows shown in column three corresponds to that of the indicators mentioned in column two.

Costa Rica's resources and risks for future well-being: Illustrative indicators

Natural capital

Indicator	Equivalent OECD tier	Change
Greenhouse gas emissions from domestic production	1	⇔ 2005-2012
CO_2 emissions from domestic consumption	1	⇔ 2001-2011
Exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution	1	↘ 2005-2013
Forest area	1	⇔ 2005-2014
Renewable freshwater resources	1	.. Long-term annual average
Freshwater abstractions	2	.. 2014
Threatened birds	1	.. Latest available
Threatened mammals	1	.. Latest available
Threatened plants	1	.. Latest available

Human capital

Indicator	Equivalent OECD tier	Change
Young adult educational attainment	3	↗ 2005-2016
Educational expectancy	3	.. 2015
Cognitive skills at age 15	3	.. 2015
Long-term unemployment	2	↘ 2012-2016
Life expectancy at birth	3	↗ 2005-2015
Smoking prevalence	1	↗ 2005-2015
Obesity prevalence	3	.. 2014

No data available on adult skills.

Economic capital

Indicator	Equivalent OECD tier	Change
Gross fixed capital formation	1	↘ 2005-2015
Investment in R&D	3	.. 2013

No data available on produced fixed assets, financial net wealth of total economy, intellectual property assets, household debt, household net wealth, financial net worth of government and banking sector leverage.

Social capital

Indicator	Equivalent OECD tier	Change
Trust in the national government	2	↘ 2005-2016
Voter turnout	2	↗ 2006-2014
Government stakeholder engagement	3	.. 2014

No data available on trust in others, trust in the police and volunteering in organisations.

1	Top-performing OECD tier, latest available year
2	Middle-performing OECD tier, latest available year
3	Bottom-performing OECD tier, latest available year

↗	Improving over time
↘	Worsening over time
⇔	No change
..	No data available

HOW'S LIFE IN LITHUANIA?

Figure 5.39 shows Lithuania's relative strengths and weaknesses in well-being with reference to both the OECD average and the average outcomes of the OECD partner countries considered in *How's Life? 2017* (i.e. Brazil, Colombia, Costa Rica, Lithuania, the Russian Federation and South Africa).

Lithuania has several areas of strength relative to both the OECD and partner countries: The **employment rate** was 69% in 2016, higher than both the OECD average (67%) and the partner country average (64%). **Educational attainment** is also very high: more than 92% of people aged 25-64 have completed at least an upper secondary education. Less than 1% of employees regularly **work 50 hours or more** per week, one of the lowest percentages across OECD and partner countries.

On air quality, Lithuania performs better than the OECD average, but below the average for the partner countries.

There are also several outcomes where Lithuania is above the average for the partner countries but below the OECD average: At almost 2.7% in 2016, the **long-term unemployment** rate exceeded the OECD average of 2%, but was below the average for partner countries (4.5%). 12.4% of Lithuanians live in housing without **basic sanitation**, which is below the partner country average (13.1%), but well above the OECD average (2.1%). **Life expectancy** at birth is 3 years higher than among partner countries, on average, but still 5 years below the OECD average. Students' **cognitive skills at age 15** and satisfaction with local **water quality** are among the highest in the OECD partner countries, but remain below the OECD average level. 51% of Lithuanian people report feeling **safe walking alone at night** in the area where they live, which is above the 43% average in partner countries, but below the OECD average of almost 69%. Finally, the **homicide rate** in Lithuania is below the average for the partner countries, but slightly above the OECD average.

Lithuania also has some areas of weakness compared to both the OECD and the other partner countries: **Social support** is among the lowest in both the OECD and the partner countries, and **voter turnout** (almost 51% in 2016) falls below the OECD average of 69%, and that of partner countries (70%). **Housing affordability** is also worse than both the OECD and partner country averages.

Figure 5.39. **Current well-being strengths and weaknesses in Lithuania**

Strengths	Strengths relative to the OECD average	Strengths relative to partner countries	Weaknesses
Above average for both the OECD and partner countries	Above the OECD average, but below partner countries' average	Above partner countries' average, but below the OECD average	Below average for both the OECD and partner countries
Employment Working hours Educational attainment	Air quality	Long-term unemployment Basic sanitation Life expectancy Cognitive skills at 15 Water quality Homicides Feeling safe at night	Housing affordability Social support Voter turnout

Note: Both the OECD and partner country averages are typically population-weighted (see the online data annex for further details). Only headline well-being indicators with a complete or almost complete coverage of the OECD partner countries are considered (i.e. one or no missing countries per indicator).

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Change in Lithuania's average well-being over the past 10 years

Dimension	Description	Change
Income and wealth	Household net adjusted disposable income has increased by 32% cumulatively over the past decade in Lithuania, but remains well below the OECD average.	↗
Jobs and earnings	The employment rate has risen by 6.5 percentage points since 2005 in Lithuania, compared to 1.2 points for the OECD on average. At 2.7% in 2016, the long-term unemployment rate is slightly below its level in 2005 (4.4%), while the share of employees affected by job strain has improved by 13 percentage points over the past 10 years.	↗ ↗ ↗
Housing conditions	Housing affordability worsened between 2005 and 2012, and has remained stable in recent years. The percentage of people living in dwellings without basic sanitary facilities has been reduced by just under a third since 2005.	↘ ↗
Work-life balance	At 0.6%, the percentage of employees working 50 hours or more per week in Lithuania is just slightly lower today than it was 10 years ago (1.4%). The rate fell considerably between 2005 and 2013, but has picked up in recent years.	↗
Health status	Life expectancy at birth in Lithuania has increased by just over 3 years since 2005, while the share of adults reporting to be in "good" or "very good" health has remained stable.	↗ ⇔
Education and skills	The 10-year change in upper secondary educational attainment cannot be assessed, due to a recent break in the data. However, between 2014 and 2016, attainment rates in Lithuania increased by 1.3 percentage points.	↗
Social connections	The share of people who have relatives or friends whom they can count on to help in case of need has remained stable in Lithuania since 2005, in contrast with the slight decrease recorded for the OECD average.	⇔
Civic engagement	The percentage of votes cast among the population registered to vote has improved in Lithuania in the past decade, up from 48.6% in the 2008 parliamentary elections to 50.6% in 2016.	↗
Environmental quality	The percentage of Lithuanians satisfied with their local water quality is currently 19 points higher than 10 years ago. However, annual exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution has remained relatively stable since 2005.	↗ ⇔
Personal security	The homicide rate has dropped from 9.4 to 4.1 deaths per 100 000 people, and the share of people who report feeling safe when walking alone at night has increased by 19 percentage points.	↗ ↗
Subjective well-being	Lithuanian life satisfaction has remained broadly stable over the decade.	⇔

Note: For each indicator in every dimension: ↗ refers to an improvement; ⇔ indicates little or no change; and ↘ signals deterioration. This is based on a comparison of the starting year (2005 in most cases) and the latest available year (usually 2015 or 2016). The order of the arrows shown in column three corresponds to that of the indicators mentioned in column two.

Lithuania's resources and risks for future well-being: Illustrative indicators

Natural capital		
Indicator	**Equivalent OECD tier**	**Change**
Greenhouse gas emissions from domestic production	1	⇔ 2005-2015
CO_2 emissions from domestic consumption	1	⇘ 2001-2011
Exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution	2	⇔ 2005-2013
Forest area	1	⇗ 2005-2014
Renewable freshwater resources	2	.. Long-term annual average
Freshwater abstractions	1	.. 2015
Threatened birds	1	.. Latest available
Threatened mammals	1	.. Latest available
Threatened plants	1	.. Latest available

Human capital		
Indicator	**Equivalent OECD tier**	**Change**
Young adult educational attainment	1	⇗ 2014-2016
Educational expectancy	1	.. 2015
Cognitive skills at age 15	3	.. 2015
Adult skills	2	.. 2011/2012
Long-term unemployment	3	⇗ 2005-2016
Life expectancy at birth	3	⇗ 2005-2015
Smoking prevalence	2	⇗ 2005-2014
Obesity prevalence	2	⇔ 2005-2014

Economic capital		
Indicator	**Equivalent OECD tier**	**Change**
Produced fixed assets	3	⇗ 2005-2014
Gross fixed capital formation	3	⇗ 2005-2016
Financial net worth of total economy	2	⇘ 2005-2015
Intellectual property assets	3	⇗ 2005-2014
Investment in R&D	3	⇗ 2005-2013
Household debt	1	⇘ 2005-2015
Financial net worth of government	2	⇘ 2005-2015
Banking sector leverage	1	⇔ 2005-2015
No data available on household net wealth.		

Social capital		
Indicator	**Equivalent OECD tier**	**Change**
Trust in others	2	.. 2013
Trust in the police	2	.. 2013
Trust in the national government	2	⇗ 2005-2016
Voter turnout	3	⇗ 2008-2016
Government stakeholder engagement	1	.. 2014
Volunteering through organisations	3	.. 2012

1	Top-performing OECD tier, latest available year
2	Middle-performing OECD tier, latest available year
3	Bottom-performing OECD tier, latest available year

⇗	Improving over time
⇘	Worsening over time
⇔	No change
..	No data available

HOW'S LIFE IN THE RUSSIAN FEDERATION?

Figure 5.40 shows the Russian Federation's relative strengths and weaknesses in well-being, with reference to both the OECD average and the average outcomes of the OECD partner countries considered in *How's Life? 2017* (i.e. Brazil, Colombia, Costa Rica, Lithuania, the Russian Federation and South Africa).

The Russian Federation has several areas of strength relative to both the OECD and the partner countries. At 70% in 2016, the **employment rate** is the highest among the OECD partner countries, and higher than the OECD average (67%). Adults' upper secondary **educational attainment** (almost 95%) and students' **cognitive skills at age 15** are the highest among the OECD partner countries, and above the OECD average. **Long-term unemployment** is low compared to several partner countries, and stands below the OECD average.

Social support is in line with both the OECD and partner country average: 90% of Russians reported having friends or relatives whom they can **count on** in times of trouble.

The Russian Federation performs better or close to the OECD average, but below the average for partner countries in one area: **housing** is more **affordable,** on average, than in the OECD, but is less affordable than among the OECD partner countries.

There are also some areas where the Russian Federation's performance is above average for the partner countries but below the OECD average. The **homicide rate** is lower than the average of OECD partner countries, but exceeds the OECD average. 52% of Russians feel **safe walking alone at night** in the area where they live, above the partner country average (43%) but below that for the OECD (almost 69%).

The Russian Federation also has several areas of weakness compared to both the OECD and the other partner countries. The share of people living in housing without access to **basic sanitation** is high compared to both the OECD and partner country averages. **Life expectancy** is close to the average of the partner countries but 9 years below the OECD average. **Voter turnout** (65% in 2012) stands below both the OECD average (69%) and that of the partner countries (70%). Finally, both **air quality** and satisfaction with local **water quality** lie below the OECD and partner country averages.

Figure 5.40. **Current well-being strengths and weaknesses in the Russian Federation**

Strengths	Strengths relative to the OECD average	Strengths relative to partner countries	Weaknesses
Above average for both the OECD and partner countries	Above the OECD average, but below partner countries' average	Above partner countries' average, but below the OECD average	Below average for both the OECD and partner countries
Employment Long-term unemployment Working hours Educational attainment Cognitive skills at 15	Housing affordability	Homicides Feeling safe at night	Basic sanitation Life expectancy Voter turnout Water quality Air quality

Note: Both the OECD and partner country averages are typically population-weighted (see the online data annex for further details). Only headline well-being indicators with a complete or almost complete coverage of OECD partner countries are considered (i.e. one or no missing countries per indicator).

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Change in the Russian Federations' average well-being over the past 10 years

Dimension	Description	Change
Income and wealth	Household net adjusted disposable income increased by 11% between 2011 and 2014, but remains considerably lower than the OECD average level.	⇗
Jobs and earnings	The employment rate has risen by 6 percentage points since 2005, compared to 1.2 points for the OECD on average. At 1.6% in 2016, the long-term unemployment rate has almost halved from 2005 (2.8%), while job strain has improved by more than 8 percentage points over the past decade.	⇗ ⇗ ⇗
Housing conditions	The average number of rooms per person has remained stable over the past 10 years. Basic sanitation has improved: the share of households lacking an indoor flushing toilet has fallen from 18.8% to 14.8%. Housing has become more affordable since 2011, with the average share of household disposable income spent on housing costs falling by 1 percentage point.	⇔ ⇗ ⇗
Work-life balance	At just below 0.2%, the share of employees working 50 hours or more per week in 2016 is very similar to the level reported in 2005.	⇔
Health status	The 10-year change in life expectancy at birth cannot be assessed, due to a recent break in the data. However, between 2005 and 2013 life expectancy increased by 5 years. The percentage of adults reporting to be in "good" or "very good" health has also increased, by 6 points between 2012 and 2016.	⇗ ⇗
Education and skills	Over the last 10 years, the percentage of adults attaining an upper secondary level of education increased by over 4 points.	⇗
Social connections	Social support has increased, with the share of the population reporting that they have relatives or friends whom they can count on to help in case of need rising from 86% to 90%.	⇗
Civic engagement	At 65%, voter turnout in the 2012 presidential elections was considerably lower than in 2008 (70%), with a stronger decline than for the OECD average.	⇘
Environmental quality	The percentage of people satisfied with their local water quality is currently 24 points higher than 10 years ago. However, annual exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution has remained relatively stable over the past decade.	⇗ ⇔
Personal security	The homicide rate fell from 25 deaths per 100 000 in 2005 to 11.3 in 2011 (the latest available year). The proportion of people declaring that they feel safe when walking alone at night has increased by 25 percentage points.	⇗ ⇗
Subjective well-being	Average levels of life satisfaction have increased from 5.1 (on a 0 to 10 scale) to 6.0 over the past decade.	⇗

Note: For each indicator in every dimension: ⇗ refers to an improvement; ⇔ indicates little or no change; and ⇘ signals deterioration. This is based on a comparison of the starting year (2005 in most cases) and the latest available year (usually 2015 or 2016). The order of the arrows shown in column three corresponds to that of the indicators mentioned in column two.

The Russian Federation's resources and risks for future well-being: Illustrative indicators

Natural capital		
Indicator	**Equivalent OECD tier**	**Change**
Greenhouse gas emissions from domestic production	❸	↘ 2005-2015
CO_2 emissions from domestic consumption	❶	↘ 2001-2011
Exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution	❷	⇔ 2005-2013
Forest area	❶	⇔ 2005-2014
Renewable freshwater resources	❶	.. Long-term annual average
Freshwater abstractions	❷	.. 2016
Threatened birds	❶	.. Latest available
Threatened mammals	❶	.. Latest available
Threatened plants	❶	.. Latest available

Human capital		
Indicator	**Equivalent OECD tier**	**Change**
Young adult educational attainment	❶	↗ 2010-2015
Educational expectancy	❸	.. 2015
Cognitive skills at age 15	❷	.. 2015
Adult skills	❷	.. 2011/2012
Long-term unemployment	❷	↗ 2005-2016
Life expectancy at birth	❸	↗ 2005-2013
Smoking prevalence	❸	↗ 2009-2013
Obesity prevalence	❷	.. 2016

Economic capital		
Indicator	**Equivalent OECD tier**	**Change**
Produced fixed assets	❸	↗ 2012-2016
Gross fixed capital formation	❸	⇔ 2005-2016
Financial net worth of total economy	❶	↗ 2011-2015
Investment in R&D	❸	⇔ 2013-2016
Household debt	❶	⇔ 2011-2015
Financial net worth of government	❶	↗ 2011-2015
No data available on intellectual property assets, household net wealth and banking sector leverage.		

Social capital		
Indicator	**Equivalent OECD tier**	**Change**
Trust in the national government	❶	↗ 2005-2016
Voter turnout	❷	↘ 2008-2012
Volunteering through organisations	❸	.. 2012
No data available on trust in others, trust in the police and government stakeholder engagement.		

❶	Top-performing OECD tier, latest available year
❷	Middle-performing OECD tier, latest available year
❸	Bottom-performing OECD tier, latest available year

↗	Improving over time
↘	Worsening over time
⇔	No change
..	No data available

HOW'S LIFE IN SOUTH AFRICA?

Figure 5.41 shows South Africa's relative strengths and weaknesses in well-being, with reference to both the OECD average and the average outcomes of the OECD partner countries considered in *How's Life? 2017* (i.e. Brazil, Colombia, Costa Rica, Lithuania, the Russian Federation and South Africa).

South Africa has some areas of strength relative to both the OECD and partner countries: **Housing affordability** in South Africa stands close to the average across the OECD partner countries, and is better than in the OECD average level. At almost 74% in 2014, **voter turnout** is above the OECD average rate, and higher than in most partner countries.

In the case of **social support**, 88% of South Africans report having friends or relatives whom they can count on in times of trouble, roughly in line with the average for both the OECD (89%) and the partner countries (90%).

There is one area where South Africa performs better than the partner country average but worse than the OECD average: The **homicide rate** is half the level of the partner country average, but still three times higher than the OECD average.

South Africa also has several areas of weakness compared to both the OECD and the other partner countries: The **employment rate**, **life expectancy** at birth, satisfaction with the local **water quality** and feeling **safe when walking alone at night** are among the lowest in both the OECD and the partner countries, and the **long-term unemployment** rate is one of the highest across OECD and partner countries. 37% of South Africans live in housing without **basic sanitation**, the highest share across both the OECD and partner countries, while average **air quality** (measured in terms of exposure to outdoor air pollution by fine particulate matter, $PM_{2.5}$) is very poor. 43% of South African adults have attained at least an upper secondary degree, below both the OECD average and the average across the partner countries.

Figure 5.41. **Current well-being strengths and weaknesses in South Africa**

Strengths	Strengths relative to the OECD average	Strengths relative to partner countries	Weaknesses
Above average for both the OECD and partner countries	Above the OECD average, but below partner countries' average	Above partner countries' average, but below the OECD average	Below average for both the OECD and partner countries
Housing affordability Voter turnout		Homicides	Employment Long-term unemployment Basic sanitation Working hours Life expectancy Educational attainment Water quality Air quality Feeling safe at night

Note: Both the OECD and partner country averages are typically population-weighted (see the online data annex for further details). Only headline well-being indicators with a complete or almost complete coverage of OECD partner countries are considered (i.e. one or no missing countries per indicator).

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933599631

Change in South Africa's average well-being over the past 10 years

Dimension	Description	Change
Income and wealth	In South Africa, household net adjusted disposable income was nearly 700 USD higher in 2014 than in 2008 (no comparable data are available prior to this period). While for OECD countries this would be a comparatively small change over a 10-year period, for South Africa it represents a cumulative increase of around 9%.	⇔
Jobs and earnings	The employment rate in South Africa has remained relatively stable since 2005, and currently stands at 43%. Although the long-term unemployment rate has increased by 0.4 percentage points, job strain has improved over the past decade.	⇔ ↘ ↗
Housing conditions	Housing has become more affordable since 2005, with the share of household disposable income spent on housing costs down by 1.9 percentage points. The share of households lacking basic sanitation has fallen from 41.3% to 38%.	↗ ↗
Work-life balance	The past decade has seen a large fall in the share of employees working 50 hours or more per week in South Africa, from nearly 24% in 2008 to 19% in 2016.	↗
Health status	Life expectancy at birth in South Africa has increased by nearly 6 years since 2005, but still stands well below the OECD average.	↗
Education and skills	The share of the adult working-age population who has attained at least an upper secondary education increased from 37% in 2008 to 43% in 2015.	↗
Social connections	Social support has increased gradually, with the share of the population reporting that they have relatives or friends whom they can count on to help in case of need increasing from 84% to 88%.	↗
Civic engagement	Voter turnout among the population registered to vote fell by 4 percentage points between the 2009 and 2014 general elections in South Africa.	↘
Environmental quality	Satisfaction with local water quality has fallen slightly over the last 10 years. Annual exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution has meanwhile increased by 7% since 2005, peaking in 2013.	↘ ↘
Personal security	The homicide rate in South Africa fell from 12 to 10 deaths per 100 000 people in 10 years. On the other hand, feelings of safety when walking alone at night have not improved, and remain at almost half the OECD average level.	↗ ⇔
Subjective well-being	In South Africa, there is tentative evidence of a slight fall in life satisfaction since 2005, from an average of 5.1 to 4.8 (measured on a 0-10 scale).	↘

Note: For each indicator in every dimension: ↗ refers to an improvement; ⇔ indicates little or no change; and ↘ signals deterioration. This is based on a comparison of the starting year (2005 in most cases) and the latest available year (usually 2015 or 2016). The order of the arrows shown in column three corresponds to that of the indicators mentioned in column two.

South Africa's resources and risks for future well-being: Illustrative indicators

Natural capital		
Indicator	**Equivalent OECD tier**	**Change**
CO_2 emissions from domestic consumption	❶	↘ 2001-2011
Exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution	❸	↘ 2005-2013
Forest area	❷	⇔ 2005-2014
Renewable freshwater resources	❸	.. Long-term annual average
No data available on greenhouse gas emissions, freshwater abstractions and threatened species.		

Human capital		
Indicator	**Equivalent OECD tier**	**Change**
Young adult educational attainment	❸	↗ 2008-2015
Long-term unemployment	❸	↘ 2005-2016
Life expectancy at birth	❸	↗ 2005-2015
Smoking prevalence	❷	↗ 2005-2015
Obesity prevalence	❸	↗ 2008-2014
No data available on cognitive skills at age 15, educational expectancy and adult skills.		

Economic capital		
Indicator	**Equivalent OECD tier**	**Change**
Gross fixed capital formation	❸	↘ 2005-2014
No data available on produced fixed assets, financial net worth of total economy, intellectual property assets, investment in R&D, household debt, household net wealth, financial net worth of government and banking sector leverage.		

Social capital		
Indicator	**Equivalent OECD tier**	**Change**
Trust in the national government	❶	↘ 2005-2016
Voter turnout	❷	↘ 2009-2014
No data available on trust in others, trust in the police, government stakeholder engagement and volunteering in organisations.		

❶	Top-performing OECD tier, latest available year
❷	Middle-performing OECD tier, latest available year
❸	Bottom-performing OECD tier, latest available year

↗	Improving over time
↘	Worsening over time
⇔	No change
..	No data available

Notes

1. The normalisation is done according to a standard formula that converts the original values of the indicators into numbers varying in a range between 0 (for the worst possible outcome) and 100 (for the best possible outcome). The formula is:

   (value to convert – minimum value)/(maximum value – minimum value)

   When an indicator measures a negative component of well-being (e.g. unemployment) the formula used is:

   1 – [(value to convert – minimum value)/(maximum value – minimum value)]

2. The intuition provided by the visualisation used for this chart can be hindered in some cases due to the presence of outliers in certain indicator sets. For this reason, the min-max scaling procedure that has been used fixes the top and bottom of a set at the third highest and lowest values.

3. This has been determined by ranking countries from worst outcome (1) to best outcome (35), and then dividing that rank by the total number of OECD countries in the sample. The resulting values (ranging from 0 to 1) are then categorised as follows: countries with values ranging from zero to 1/3 are assigned to the bottom tier; those with values greater than 1/3 but less than or equal to 2/3 are categorised as middle tier; and those with values greater than 2/3 but less than or equal to 1 are assigned to the top tier.

4. To calculate the one decile change, the middle of the distribution is considered: the 25th percentile is subtracted from the 75th percentile, and the resulting value is divided by 50 (to give a 1 percentile change), then multiplied by 10. The selected threshold is lower than half a decile change in the cases of household net wealth, earnings, long-term unemployment, voter turnout, financial net worth of government, financial net worth of the total economy and intellectual property assets. This is because the variation among OECD countries on these measures is very large, and thus changes equivalent to less than half a decile can still be of a considerable size.

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ANNEX 5.A

Assessment of change over time in the country profiles

When preparing each of the country profiles, change over time has been assessed as the simple point change between 2005 (or the closest available year) and 2015 (or the latest available year). Data are available for only a subset of the indicators relating to both current well-being and resources for future well-being. An upward arrow ⇗ indicates an improvement relative to 2005, a downward arrow ⇘ indicates a worsening situation relative to 2005, and ⇔ indicates little change relative to 2005. The direction of the arrow has been determined with reference to the thresholds detailed in Tables 5.6 and 5.7 below. If a given change is **greater than or equal to** the threshold shown, upward or downward arrows have been applied accordingly.

These thresholds take a number of factors into consideration, including: the total magnitude of change observed among OECD countries, both in absolute unit values and in relative percentage change terms (both of which inform about what is a comparatively large or comparatively small change); the univariate distribution of values among OECD countries (all thresholds are equivalent to at least half a decile change in the rank position for the latest available year, with a small number of exceptions[4]); and consideration for the likely margin of error in the estimated values.

Table 5.6. **Thresholds used to assess changes in current well-being**

Label	Indicator	Unit of measurement	Threshold	OECD average change
Income and wealth				
Household income	Household net adjusted disposable income	USD at 2010 PPPs, per capita (for the time series)	+/-1 000	+2 146
Household net wealth	Household net wealth	USD at current PPPs, per household	+/-9 000	n/a
Job and earnings				
Employment	Employment rate	Employed aged 15-64, as a percentage of the population aged 15-64	+/-1.0	+ 1.2
Earnings	Average annual gross earnings per full-time employee	USD at the PPPs of the latest available year	+/-1 000	+ 2 975
Labour market insecurity	Labour market insecurity due to unemployment	Average expected earnings loss associated with unemployment as a share of previous earnings	+/-0.3	+ 1.2
Job strain	Job strain	Proportion of employees who experience a number of job demands that exceeds the number of job resources	+/-3.0	-4.0
Long-term unemployment	Long-term unemployment rate	Percentage of the labour force unemployed for one year or more	+/-0.2	+ 0.3

Table 5.6. **Thresholds used to assess changes in current well-being** *(cont.)*

Label	Indicator	Unit of measurement	Threshold	OECD average change
Housing				
Rooms per person	Rooms per person	Average number of rooms per person (excluding bathroom, toilet, kitchenette, scullery/utility rooms and garages)	+/-0.1	+0.1
Housing affordability	Household expenditure on housing	Percentage of household gross adjusted disposable income spent on housing rents and housing maintenance	+/-0.4	-0.4
Basic sanitation	Dwellings without basic sanitary facilities	Percentage of people without an indoor flushing toilet for the sole use of their household	+/-0.4	-0.8
Work-life balance				
Working hours	Employees working very long hours	Percentage of employees who usually work 50 hours or more per week	+/-0.6	-0.9
Health status				
Life expectancy	Life expectancy at birth	Number of years that a new-born can expect to live	+/-0.5	+1.7
Perceived health	Perceived health status	Percentage of adults reporting "good" or "very good" health	+/-3.5	+0.6
Education and skills				
Educational attainment	Educational attainment among working-age adults	Percentage of people aged 25-64 with at least an upper secondary education	+/-1.0*	n/a
Social connections				
Social support	Social support	Percentage of people who report that they have relatives or friends whom they can count on in times of trouble	+/-3.0	-3.1
Civic engagement and governance				
Voter turnout	Voter turnout	Percentage of votes cast among the population registered to vote	+/-1.0	-2.4
Environmental quality				
Water quality	Satisfaction with water quality	Percentage of satisfied people in the overall population	+/-3.0	+0.9
Air quality	Population exposure to outdoor air pollution by fine particulate matter ($PM_{2.5}$)	Population-weighted mean $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations, micrograms per cubic metre, 3-year moving average	+/-1.0	-0.8
Personal security				
Homicides	Deaths due to assault	Age-standardised rate, per 100 000 population	+/-0.3	+0.2
Feeling safe at night	Feelings of safety when walking alone at night	Percentage of people declaring that they feel safe when walking alone at night in the city or area where they live	+/-3.0	+2.6
Subjective well-being				
Life satisfaction†	Life satisfaction	Mean values on an 11-point scale, with responses ranging from 0 (not at all satisfied) to 10 (completely satisfied)	Based on 95% confidence intervals‡	-0.2

* a threshold of 0.5 is adopted for short (less than 5 year) time series

† For the assessment of changes in life satisfaction over time, Gallup World Poll data is used, since this has a long time series available. The measure used is the Cantril Ladder scale, and the unit of measurement is also the mean score on a 0-10 scale.

‡ 95% confidence intervals calculated over 3 pooled years (2005-07 and 2014-16). These are sourced from the *World Happiness Report 2017* (Helliwell, Layard and Sachs, 2017). Changes have been considered where they are at least 0.1 scale points above or below the confidence intervals.

Table 5.7. **Thresholds used to assess changes in resources for future well-being**

Label	Indicator	Unit of measurement	Threshold	OECD average change
Natural capital				
Greenhouse gas emissions from domestic production	Greenhouse gas emissions from production	Tonnes per capita, CO_2 equivalent	+/-0.5	-2.0
CO_2 emissions from domestic consumption	Carbon dioxide emissions embodied in domestic final demand	Tonnes per capita	+/-0.5	-1.0
Exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ air pollution	Population exposure to outdoor air pollution by fine particulate matter ($PM_{2.5}$)	Population-weighted mean $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations, micrograms per cubic metre, 3-year moving average	+/-1.0	-0.8
Forest area	Forest area	Forest area in square kilometres, per thousand people	+/-0.8	-0.5
Human capital				
Young adult educational attainment	Upper secondary educational attainment, people aged 25-34	Percentage of people aged 25-34 who have attained at least an upper secondary education	+/-1.0*	..
Long-term unemployment	Long-term unemployment rate	Percentage of the labour force unemployed for one year or more	+/-0.2	+0.3
Life expectancy at birth	Life expectancy at birth	Number of years that a new-born can expect to live	+/-0.5	+1.7
Smoking prevalence	Prevalence of daily smoking	Percentage of people aged 15 and over who report smoking every day	+/-1	-4.5
Obesity prevalence	Obesity prevalence	Percentage of the population aged 15 and older who are obese	+/-1	+2.3
Economic capital				
Produced fixed assets	Produced fixed assets	USD per capita, at 2010 PPPs	+/-4 500	+13 250
Gross fixed capital formation	Gross fixed capital formation	Annual growth rates	+/-1	-2.1
Financial net worth of the total economy	Financial net worth of the total economy	USD per capita, at current PPPs	+/-1 000	+3 285
Intellectual property assets	Intellectual property assets	USD per capita, at 2010 PPPs	+/-200	+1 320
Investment in R&D	Investment in R&D	As a percentage of GDP	+/-0.2	+0.3
Household debt	Household debt	Percentage of net disposable income	+/-10	-6.0
Financial net worth of government	Adjusted financial net worth of general government	As a percentage of GDP	+/-3	-30.0
Banking sector leverage	Leverage of the banking sector	Ratio of selected assets to banks' own equity	+/-3	+1.2
Social capital				
Trust in the national government	Trust in the national government	Proportion of the population responding "yes" to a question about confidence in the national government	+/-3	-4.0
Voter turnout	Voter turnout	Percentage of votes cast among the population registered to vote	+/-1.0	-2.4

* A threshold of 0.5 is adopted for short (less than 5 year) time series.

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Online Data Annex: Current Well-Being

Reader's guide

This online-only annex provides detailed information about definitions, levels and (where available) the time series since 2005 for each of the headline indicators of current well-being featured in *How's Life? 2017*. Together with the information shown in the *Online Data Annex: Resources for Future Well-Being*, these measures provide the foundation for the analysis in Chapter 1, and the country profiles presented in Chapter 5.

Throughout this annex, where prior data are not comparable due to a break in the series, non-comparable data are highlighted in grey. Missing data are denoted by "..". ISO3 codes are used in charts and tables, and when the OECD average cannot be calculated over all OECD countries, the number of countries included is specified next to the OECD labels. All indicators are based on data that were last updated in the week of 24-31 July 2017.

This annex is available at *www.oecd-ilibrary.org/economics/how-s-life-2017_how_life-2017-en*.

The statistical data for Israel are supplied by and under the responsibility of the relevant Israeli authorities. The use of such data by the OECD is without prejudice to the status of the Golan Heights, East Jerusalem and Israeli settlements in the West Bank under the terms of international law.

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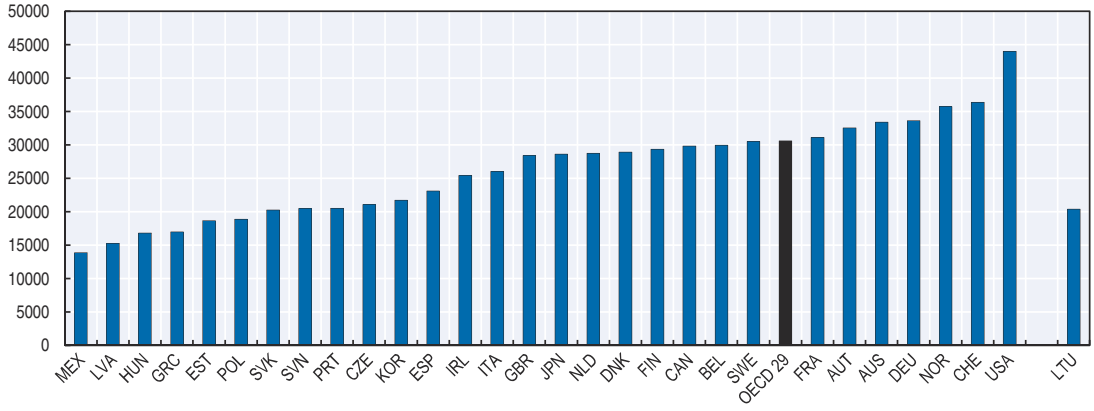
INCOME AND WEALTH: Household income

Definition

This indicator is obtained by summing people's gross income (earnings, self-employment and capital income, as well as cash transfers received from other sectors) and the social transfers in-kind that households receive from government (such as education and health care services), and then subtracting taxes on income and wealth, as well as the social security contributions paid by households. The measure used here, which is drawn from the OECD National Accounts, also takes into account the depreciation of capital goods consumed by households. Household net adjusted disposable income is shown in per capita terms, and expressed in United States dollars (USD), adjusted using purchasing power parities (PPPs) for actual individual consumption. Time series are expressed in USD at 2010 PPPs, whilst data for the latest available year are in USD at current PPPs.

Figure A.1. **Household net adjusted disposable income**

USD at current PPPs, per capita, 2015

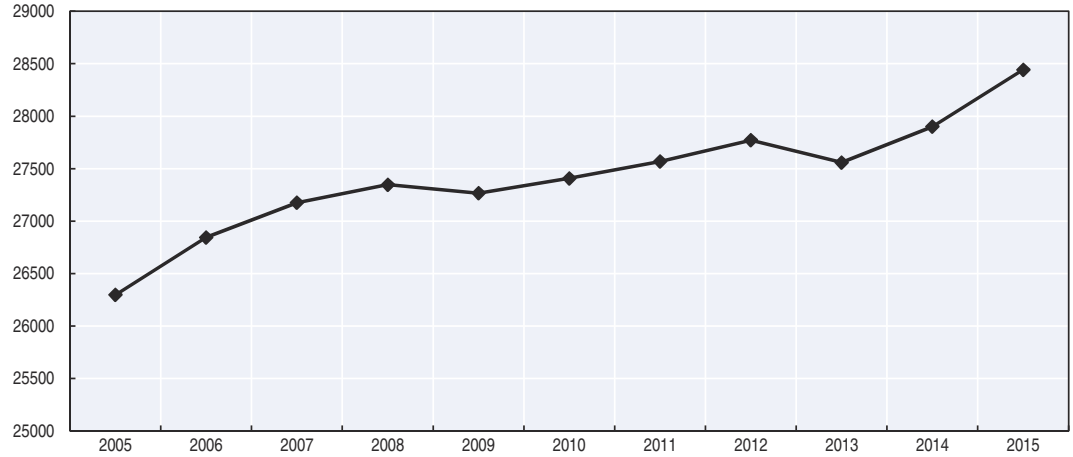


Note: The OECD average is population-weighted and excludes Chile, Iceland, Israel, Luxembourg, New Zealand and Turkey.
Source: OECD calculations based on OECD National Accounts Statistics (database), *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/na-data-en*.

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Figure A.2. **Household net adjusted disposable income, OECD average**

USD at 2010 PPPs, per capita, OECD 28



Note: The OECD average is population-weighted and excludes Chile, Iceland, Israel, Korea, Luxembourg, New Zealand and Turkey, due to incomplete time series.
Source: OECD calculations based on OECD National Accounts Statistics (database), *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/na-data-en*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933597180

Table A.1. **Household net adjusted disposable income**

USD at 2010 PPPs, per capita

		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016		Latest available, 2015 at current PPPs
Australia	AUS	25 389	26 198	27 353	28 561	28 525	29 390	29 938	29 604	30 008	30 110	30 229	..	AUS	33 417
Austria	AUT	28 457	29 136	29 716	29 946	29 872	29 519	29 418	29 646	29 070	28 895	28 762	..	AUT	32 544
Belgium	BEL	26 292	26 647	26 968	27 346	27 626	27 228	26 869	26 728	26 577	26 636	26 696	..	BEL	29 968
Canada	CAN	24 093	25 112	25 725	26 426	26 661	27 260	27 413	27 686	28 034	27 985	28 362	28 952	CAN	29 850
Chile	CHL	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	CHL	..
Czech Republic	CZE	16 655	17 313	17 698	17 872	18 182	18 158	17 961	17 734	17 676	18 142	18 600	..	CZE	21 103
Denmark	DNK	24 077	24 578	24 428	24 375	24 900	25 623	25 742	25 626	25 813	26 074	26 540	26 648	DNK	28 950
Estonia	EST	12 217	13 487	14 956	15 759	14 558	14 122	14 599	15 003	15 134	16 085	16 795	..	EST	18 665
Finland	FIN	24 246	24 697	25 329	25 775	2 5918	26 406	26 548	26 415	26 377	26 068	26 237	..	FIN	29 374
France	FRA	26 605	26 962	27 551	27 494	27 833	28 095	28 070	27 842	27 713	27 839	28 072	..	FRA	31 137
Germany	DEU	27 941	28 274	28 451	28 833	28 908	29 170	29 475	29 687	29 774	30 066	30 564	..	DEU	33 652
Greece	GRC	21 284	22 365	23 012	23 143	23 228	20 762	18 597	16 873	15 699	15 817	15 445	..	GRC	17 002
Hungary	HUN	15 342	15 636	15 037	14 833	14 311	13 971	14 501	14 128	14 452	14 963	15 282	..	HUN	16 821
Iceland	ISL	23 088	24 096	26 514	26 521	22 792	20 358	21 118	21 413	21 740	22 395	..	..	ISL	..
Ireland	IRL	22 937	23 283	24 030	24 706	24 599	24 111	23 182	23 319	22 755	23 245	23 967	..	IRL	25 439
Israel	ISR	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	ISR	..
Italy	ITA	27 234	27 405	27 570	27 064	26 409	25 926	25 681	24 306	24 019	24 052	24 245	24 607	ITA	26 063
Japan	JPN	23 787	23 827	24 093	23 900	24 246	24 753	24 899	25 251	25 338	25 070	25 368	..	JPN	28 641
Korea	KOR	16 152	16 690	17 120	17 283	17 508	18 053	18 350	18 605	19 257	19 878	..	..	KOR	21 723
Latvia	LVA	11 001	12 500	13 628	14 310	12 694	12 121	11 756	12 175	12 837	13 186	14 003	..	LVA	15 269
Luxembourg	LUX	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	LUX	..
Mexico	MEX	11 391	11 969	12 100	12 181	11 186	11 711	11 949	12 116	12 387	12 395	12 694	..	MEX	13 891
Netherlands	NLD	25 090	26 104	26 481	26 699	27 009	26 864	26 950	26 642	26 240	26 447	26 606	26 978	NLD	28 783
New Zealand	NZL	20 192	20 800	21 907	21 388	21 834	22 146	22 723	22 841	23 119	22 919	..	..	NZL	..
Norway	NOR	28 741	27 181	28 302	28 800	29 567	29 867	30 430	31 153	31 719	32 114	33 132	..	NOR	35 739
Poland	POL	12 649	13 264	13 903	14 508	15 383	15 584	15 634	15 780	16 039	16 500	17 049	..	POL	18 906
Portugal	PRT	19 279	19 216	19 413	19 596	19 918	20 049	18 960	18 123	18 093	17 964	18 391	18 814	PRT	20 519
Slovak Republic	SVK	14 014	14 556	16 037	16 881	17 080	17 154	16 826	16 731	16 791	17 584	18 294	..	SVK	20 265
Slovenia	SVN	17 983	18 456	19 108	19 627	19 295	19 155	19 157	18 367	18 043	18 281	18 598	..	SVN	20 505
Spain	ESP	21 624	21 730	21 570	21737	22296	21 564	21 216	20 041	19 764	19 928	20 367	..	ESP	23 129
Sweden	SWE	24 455	25 174	25 989	26 360	26 721	26 853	27 474	28 030	28 186	28 566	28 962	29 355	SWE	30 553
Switzerland	CHE	30 342	31 102	31 924	31 772	32 203	32 211	32 535	33 449	34 098	34 140	33 631	..	CHE	36 378
Turkey	TUR	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	TUR	..
United Kingdom	GBR	25 099	25 249	25 632	25 630	26 161	26 227	25 598	25 970	25 792	25 986	26 668	26 925	GBR	28 408
United States	USA	36 883	37 847	38 172	38 458	38 090	38 186	38 768	39 661	38 858	39 838	40 870	..	USA	44 049
OECD	OECD 28	26 297	26 844	27 176	27 347	27 266	27 408	27 568	27 772	27 559	27 900	28 443	..	OECD 29	30 620
Lithuania	LTU	13 838	15 333	15 754	17 035	15 465	15 664	16 161	164 46	17 260	17 618	18 237	..	LTU	20 381
Russian Federation	RUS	..	..	..	..	..	..	16 088	16 842	17 499	17 797	..			
South Africa	ZAF	..	..	..	7 499	7 458	7 717	7 961	8 033	8 158	8 176	..	..		

Note: The OECD average is population-weighted and its time series excludes Chile, Iceland, Israel, Korea, Luxembourg, New Zealand and Turkey, due to incomplete data. For the latest available year, the OECD average excludes Chile, Iceland, Israel, Luxembourg, New Zealand and Turkey. The 2015 value for Korea is currently only available in current prices, but it cannot be calculated in 2010 PPPs.
Source: OECD calculations based on OECD National Accounts Statistics (database), *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/na-data-en*.

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933599650*

Further reading:

Lequiller, F. and D. Blades (2014), *Understanding National Accounts: Second Edition*, OECD Publishing, Paris, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264214637-en*.

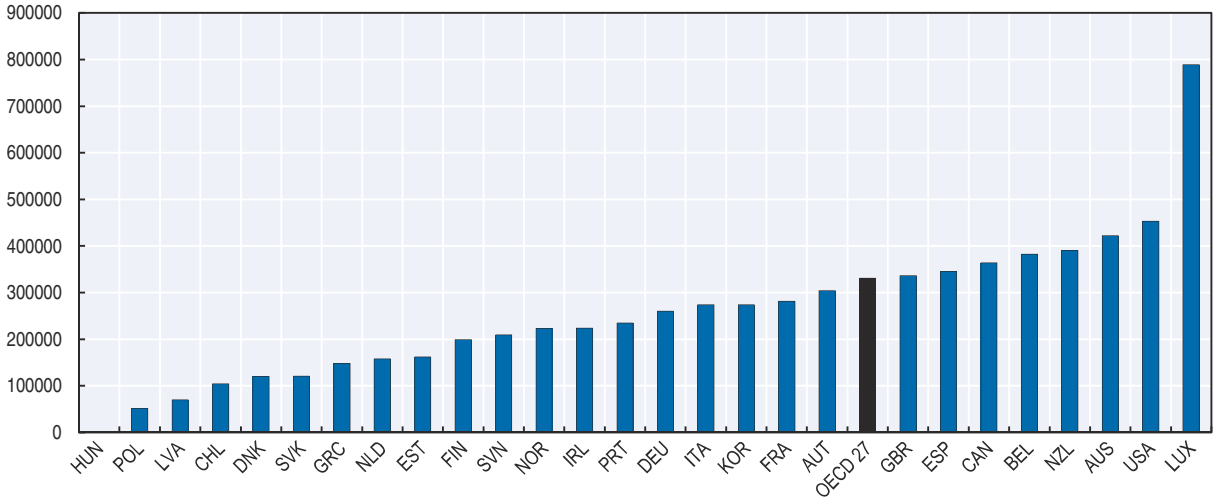
INCOME AND WEALTH: Household net wealth

Definition

This indicator refers to both the real and financial assets and liabilities held by private households resident in the country, as measured in microdata. Values are expressed in USD at current prices, adjusted using purchasing power parities (PPPs) for household private consumption. The concept of wealth corresponds to the one presented in the *OECD Guidelines for Micro Statistics on Household Wealth* (OECD, 2013). Data are shown per household (rather than per person or per adult), with no adjustment made to reflect differences in household size. Data are drawn from the OECD Wealth Distribution Database, which includes data supplied by National Statistical Offices and other producers of official statistics (based on household surveys or tax and administrative records), and public use data from the European Central Bank (for 11 countries participating in the Euro-System Household Finance and Consumption Survey). These data exclude pension wealth, the size and distribution of which differs markedly across OECD countries, depending on the characteristics of their retirement systems. There are country differences in the degree to which rich households are oversampled (ranging from no oversampling in Australia, to large oversampling for the United States).

Figure A.3. **Household net wealth**

USD at current PPPs, per household, 2014 or latest available year



Note: The latest available year is 2015 for Denmark, the Netherlands, New Zealand and Norway; 2013 for Estonia, Finland, Ireland, Korea, Poland, Portugal and the United Kingdom; 2012 for Australia and Canada; 2011 for Spain; 2010 for the United States; and 2014 for the other countries. Purchasing Power Parities (PPPs) are those for private consumption of households. Data for the United Kingdom are limited to Great Britain only. The OECD average is population-weighted and excludes the Czech Republic, Iceland, Israel, Japan, Mexico, Sweden, Switzerland and Turkey.

Source: OECD Wealth Distribution (database), *http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=WEALTH*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933597199

Table A.2. **Household net wealth**

USD at current PPPs, per household

		2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015		2014 or latest available
Australia	AUS	..	..	..	..	385 344	..	422 288	..	AUS	422 288
Austria	AUT	..	..	304 475	..	..	..	303 811	..	AUT	303 811
Belgium	BEL	..	..	358 581	..	..	..	382 124	..	BEL	382 124
Canada	CAN	..	..	..	..	363 972	..	..	..	CAN	363 972
Chile	CHL	..	..	..	73 774	..	..	103 995	..	CHL	103 995
Czech Republic	CZE	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	CZE	..
Denmark	DNK	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	119 750	DNK	119 750
Estonia	EST	..	..	..	..	..	162 151	..	..	EST	162 151
Finland	FIN	..	..	172 455	..	..	198 761	..	..	FIN	198 761
France	FRA	..	235 784	..	..	..	..	28 1429	..	FRA	281 429
Germany	DEU	..	..	214 092	..	..	..	260 158	..	DEU	260 158
Greece	GRC	..	190 875	..	..	..	..	147 934	..	GRC	147 934
Hungary	HUN	..	..	..	..	..	..	353	..	HUN	353
Iceland	ISL	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	ISL	..
Ireland	IRL	..	..	..	..	..	223 894	..	..	IRL	223 894
Israel	ISR	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	ISR	..
Italy	ITA	..	..	335 419	..	..	..	273 820	..	ITA	273 820
Japan	JPN	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	JPN	..
Korea	KOR	..	..	..	..	..	273 867	..	..	KOR	273 867
Latvia	LVA	..	..	..	..	..	..	70 158	..	LVA	70 158
Luxembourg	LUX	..	..	708 869	..	..	..	789 260	..	LUX	789 260
Mexico	MEX	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	MEX	..
Netherlands	NLD	..	..	188 371	..	..	..	..	157 772	NLD	157 772
New Zealand	NZL	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	390 455	NZL	390 455
Norway	NOR	..	..	..	..	192 206	..	..	223 321	NOR	223 321
Poland	POL	..	..	..	..	..	51 485	..	..	POL	51 485
Portugal	PRT	..	..	225 563	..	..	234 587	..	..	PRT	234 587
Slovak Republic	SVK	..	..	138 853	..	..	..	120 428	..	SVK	120 428
Slovenia	SVN	..	..	..	..	..	..	209 366	..	SVN	209 366
Spain	ESP	356 900	..	..	345 583	..	..	..	..	ESP	345 583
Sweden	SWE	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	SWE	..
Switzerland	CHE	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	CHE	..
Turkey	TUR	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	TUR	..
United Kingdom	GBR	..	..	..	338 958	..	336 493	..	..	GBR	336 493
United States	USA	..	..	452 900	..	..	..	..	..	USA	452 900
OECD	OECD	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	OECD 27	331 132

Note: The latest available year is 2015 for Denmark, the Netherlands, New Zealand and Norway; 2013 for Estonia, Finland, Ireland, Korea, Poland, Portugal and the United Kingdom; 2012 for Australia and Canada; 2011 for Spain; 2010 for the United States; and 2014 for the other countries. Wealth data for 2010 and 2015 are drawn from different sources in the Netherlands, which may limit their comparability. Purchasing Power Parities (PPPs) are those for private consumption of households. Data for the United Kingdom are limited to Great Britain. The OECD average is population-weighted and excludes the Czech Republic, Iceland, Israel, Japan, Mexico, Sweden, Switzerland and Turkey.

Source: OECD Wealth Distribution (database), http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=WEALTH.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933599669

Further reading:

OECD (2013), *OECD Guidelines for Micro Statistics on Household Wealth*, OECD Publishing, Paris, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264194878-en*.

OECD (2015), "How does the concentration of household wealth compare across countries?", in *In It Together: Why Less Inequality Benefits All*, OECD Publishing, Paris, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264235120-en*.

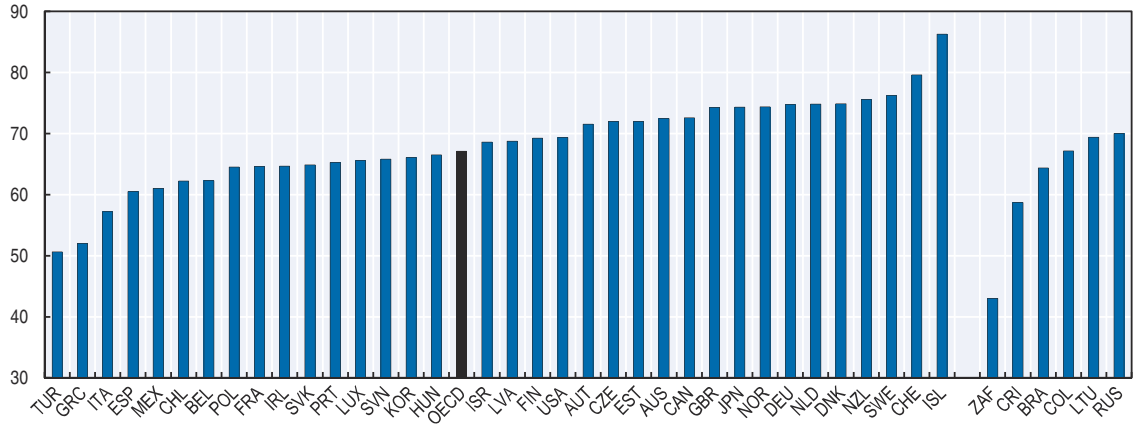
JOB AND EARNINGS: Employment

Definition

This indicator refers to the share of the working-age population (people aged 15 to 64 in most OECD countries) who declare having worked in gainful employment for at least one hour in the previous week; it also includes persons who, having already worked in their present job, were temporarily absent from work during the reference period while having retained a formal attachment to their job (e.g. due to parental leave, sickness, annual leave). The data come from national Labour Force Surveys (LFSs) as compiled in the OECD Annual Labour Force Statistics (ALFS) Database, and are consistent with the standards set by the International Conference of Labour Statisticians.

Figure A.4. **Employment rate**

Employed people aged 15-64 as a percentage of the population of the same age, 2016 or latest available year



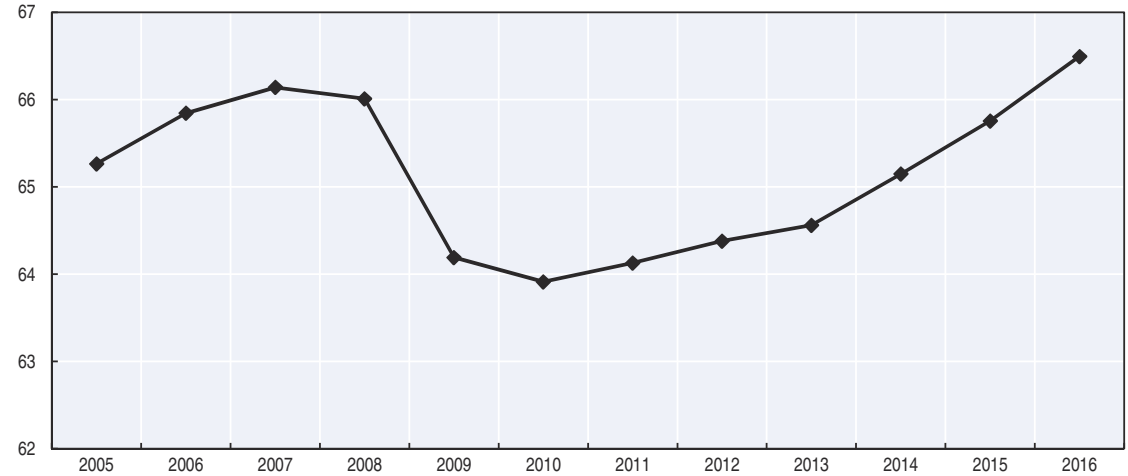
Note: The latest available year is 2015 for Brazil. The OECD average is population-weighted.

Source: "Labour Force Statistics", OECD Employment and Labour Market Statistics (database), *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/lfs-lfs-data-en*.

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933597218*

Figure A.5. **Employment rate, OECD average**

Employed people aged 15-64 as a percentage of the population of the same age, OECD 29



Note: The OECD average is population-weighted and excludes Chile, Germany, New Zealand, Norway, Portugal and Switzerland, due to breaks in the time series.

Source: "Labour Force Statistics", OECD Employment and Labour Market Statistics (database), *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/lfs-lfs-data-en*.

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933597237*

Table A.3. **Employment rate**

Employed people aged 15-64, as a percentage of the population of the same age

		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016		Latest available
Australia	AUS	71.5	72.1	72.8	73.2	72.1	72.4	72.7	72.3	72.0	71.6	72.2	72.4	AUS	72.4
Austria	AUT	67.4	68.6	69.9	70.8	70.3	70.8	71.1	71.4	71.4	71.1	71.1	71.5	AUT	71.5
Belgium	BEL	61.1	61.0	62.0	62.4	61.6	62.0	61.9	61.8	61.8	61.9	61.8	62.3	BEL	62.3
Canada	CAN	72.4	72.8	73.5	73.5	71.4	71.5	71.8	72.1	72.4	72.3	72.5	72.6	CAN	72.6
Chile	CHL	55.6	56.7	57.6	58.6	57.3	59.3	61.3	61.8	62.3	62.2	62.4	62.2	CHL	62.2
Czech Republic	CZE	64.8	65.3	66.1	66.6	65.4	65.0	65.7	66.5	67.7	69.0	70.2	72.0	CZE	72.0
Denmark	DNK	75.9	77.4	77.0	77.9	75.3	73.3	73.1	72.6	72.5	72.8	73.5	74.9	DNK	74.9
Estonia	EST	64.4	68.2	69.6	70.0	63.7	61.2	65.3	67.2	68.5	69.6	71.8	72.0	EST	72.0
Finland	FIN	68.5	69.6	70.5	71.3	68.4	68.3	69.2	69.5	68.5	68.9	68.7	69.2	FIN	69.2
France	FRA	63.8	63.7	64.3	64.9	64.1	64.0	63.9	64.0	64.0	64.2	64.3	64.6	FRA	64.6
Germany	DEU	65.5	67.2	69.0	70.2	70.4	71.2	72.7	73.0	73.5	73.8	74.0	74.7	DEU	74.7
Greece	GRC	59.6	60.6	60.9	61.4	60.8	59.1	55.1	50.8	48.8	49.4	50.8	52.0	GRC	52.0
Hungary	HUN	56.9	57.4	57.0	56.4	55.0	55.0	55.4	56.7	58.1	61.8	63.9	66.5	HUN	66.5
Iceland	ISL	84.4	85.3	85.7	84.2	78.9	78.9	79.0	80.2	81.8	82.2	84.2	86.3	ISL	86.3
Ireland	IRL	67.5	68.5	69.2	67.9	62.2	60.0	59.2	58.8	60.2	61.3	63.1	64.7	IRL	64.7
Israel	ISR	62.3	63.2	64.5	65.5	64.3	65.2	65.8	66.5	67.1	67.9	68.3	68.6	ISR	68.6
Italy	ITA	57.5	58.3	58.6	58.6	57.4	56.8	56.8	56.6	55.5	55.7	56.3	57.2	ITA	57.2
Japan	JPN	69.3	70.0	70.7	70.7	70.0	70.1	70.3	70.6	71.7	72.7	73.3	74.3	JPN	74.3
Korea	KOR	63.7	63.8	63.9	63.8	62.9	63.3	63.9	64.2	64.4	65.3	65.7	66.1	KOR	66.1
Latvia	LVA	62.1	65.9	68.1	68.2	60.3	58.5	60.8	63.0	65.0	66.3	68.1	68.7	LVA	68.7
Luxembourg	LUX	63.6	63.6	64.2	63.4	65.2	65.2	64.6	65.8	65.7	66.6	66.1	65.6	LUX	65.6
Mexico	MEX	60.1	61.0	61.0	60.7	59.8	59.7	60.0	60.9	60.8	60.4	60.7	61.0	MEX	61.0
Netherlands	NLD	71.5	72.5	74.4	75.9	75.6	74.7	74.9	75.1	74.3	73.9	74.1	74.8	NLD	74.8
New Zealand	NZL	74.2	74.8	75.1	74.6	72.8	72.2	72.5	72.0	72.8	74.2	74.3	75.6	NZL	75.6
Norway	NOR	75.2	75.5	76.9	78.1	76.5	75.4	75.3	75.8	75.5	75.3	74.9	74.4	NOR	74.4
Poland	POL	53.0	54.5	57.0	59.2	59.3	58.9	59.3	59.7	60.0	61.7	62.9	64.5	POL	64.5
Portugal	PRT	67.3	67.6	67.6	68.0	66.1	65.3	63.8	61.4	60.6	62.6	63.9	65.2	PRT	65.2
Slovak Republic	SVK	57.7	59.4	60.7	62.3	60.2	58.8	59.3	59.7	59.9	61.0	62.7	64.9	SVK	64.9
Slovenia	SVN	66.0	66.6	67.8	68.6	67.5	66.2	64.4	64.1	63.3	63.9	65.2	65.8	SVN	65.8
Spain	ESP	64.5	66.0	66.8	65.4	60.8	59.7	58.8	56.5	55.6	56.8	58.7	60.5	ESP	60.5
Sweden	SWE	74.0	74.6	74.2	74.3	72.2	72.1	73.6	73.8	74.4	74.9	75.5	76.2	SWE	76.2
Switzerland	CHE	77.2	77.9	78.6	79.5	79.0	77.3	78.3	78.5	78.4	78.8	79.2	79.6	CHE	79.6
Turkey	TUR	44.4	44.6	44.6	44.9	44.3	46.3	48.4	48.9	49.5	49.5	50.2	50.6	TUR	50.6
United Kingdom	GBR	72.7	72.6	72.4	72.7	70.6	70.2	70.2	70.7	71.1	72.6	73.2	74.3	GBR	74.3
United States	USA	71.5	72.0	71.8	70.9	67.6	66.7	66.6	67.1	67.4	68.1	68.7	69.4	USA	69.4
OECD	OECD 29	65.3	65.8	66.1	66.0	64.2	63.9	64.1	64.4	64.6	65.1	65.8	66.5	OECD	67.1
Brazil	BRA	67.0	67.4	67.4	68.3	67.7	..	66.9	67.2	66.7	67.5	64.4	..	BRA	64.4
Colombia	COL	61.4	..	60.2	60.5	62.4	63.7	65.1	66.3	66.5	67.1	67.6	67.2	COL	67.2
Costa Rica	CRI	62.0	62.2	64.1	63.6	61.3	59.6	58.1	61.8	61.8	61.7	60.7	58.7	CRI	58.7
Lithuania	LTU	62.9	63.6	65.0	64.4	59.9	57.6	60.2	62.0	63.7	65.7	67.2	69.4	LTU	69.4
Russian Federation	RUS	66.3	66.8	68.5	68.6	66.9	67.3	68.0	69.0	68.8	69.3	69.3	70.0	RUS	70.0
South Africa	ZAF	43.4	44.9	44.4	45.9	43.9	41.8	41.9	42.2	42.7	42.8	43.7	43.0	ZAF	43.0

Note: Due to a redesign of the survey, there are breaks in the series for Chile and Switzerland (2010), and Germany and Portugal (2011). In Norway there was a change in the definition of unemployment in 2006. Iwate, Miyagi and Fukushima prefectures are excluded from the Japanese data in 2011. In New Zealand the army personnel started to be included among the employed in 2016. Cells before a break are highlighted in grey, as the data are not comparable with later years. The OECD average is population-weighted; its time series excludes Chile, Germany, New Zealand, Norway, Portugal and Switzerland due to breaks, while it considers all OECD countries for the latest available year.
Source: "Labour Force Statistics", OECD Employment and Labour Market Statistics (database), *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/lfs-lfs-data-en*.

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933599688*

Further reading:

OECD (2017), *OECD Employment Outlook 2017*, OECD Publishing, Paris, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/empl_outlook-2017-en*.

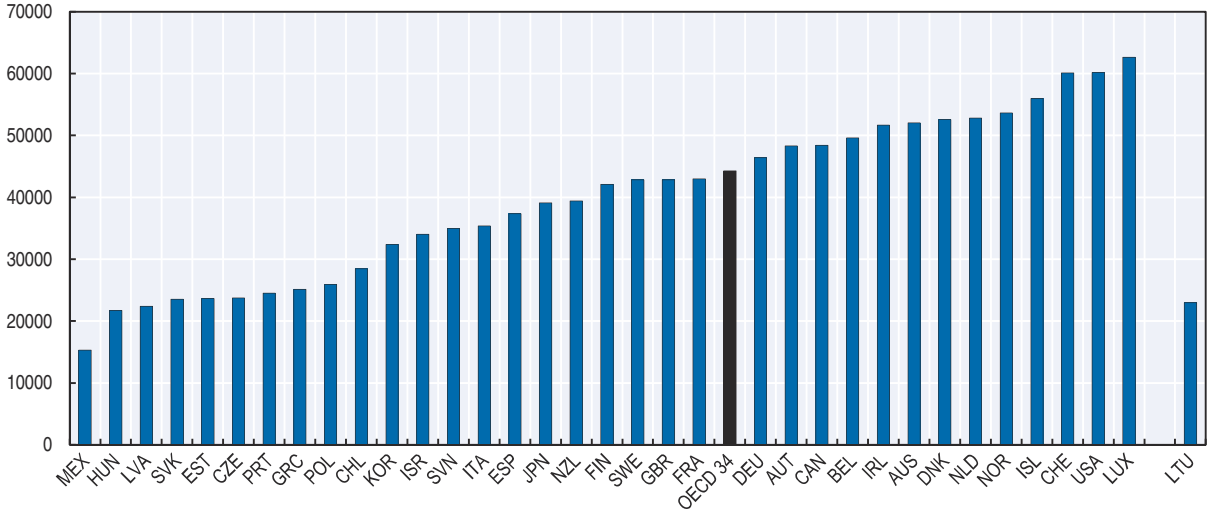
JOB AND EARNINGS: Earnings

Definition

This indicator refers to the average annual earnings of employees working in all sectors of the economy and in all types of dependent employment; it is expressed in full-time and full-year equivalent terms. The OECD average is weighted by the total number of employees in each country. Earnings include employees' gross remuneration, i.e. including employers' social security contributions before any deductions are made by the employer in respect of taxes, workers' contributions to social security and pension schemes, life insurance premiums, union dues and other employee obligations. The indicator is computed as the total wage bill from National Accounts, divided by the number of full-time equivalent employees in the economy. The number of full-time equivalent employees is obtained by multiplying data on the number of employees by the ratio of hours worked by all employees and by those working full-time, in order to correct for the prevalence of part-time work, which varies considerably across countries. The indicator combines data from the *OECD National Accounts Database*, the *OECD Earnings Distribution Database* and the *OECD Average Annual Earnings per Full-time* and *Full-year Equivalent Dependent Employee Database*.

Figure A.6. **Average annual gross earnings per full-time employee**

USD at current PPPs, 2016



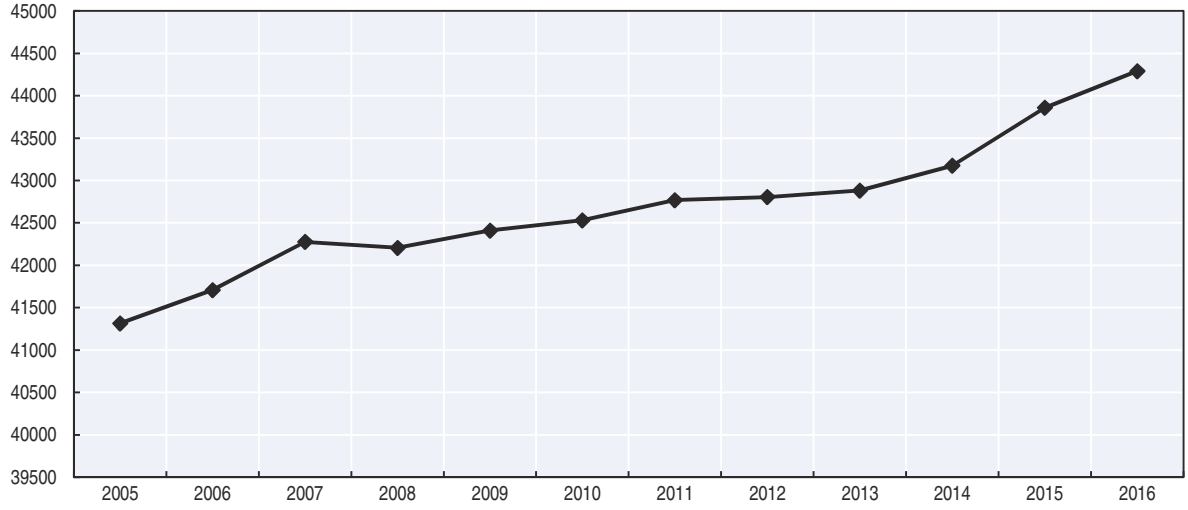
Note: Real compensation per employee (which includes employer's social contributions in addition to wages and salaries) is considered for Chile, Iceland, Mexico and New Zealand. The OECD average is weighted by the number of employees in each country, and excludes Turkey.

Source: OECD Average annual wages (database), *http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=AV_AN_WAGE*.

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933597256*

Figure A.7. **Average annual gross earnings per full-time employee, OECD average**

USD at 2016 PPPs, OECD 34



Note: Real compensation per employee (which includes employer's social contributions in addition to wages and salaries) is considered for Chile, Iceland, Mexico and New Zealand. The OECD average is weighted by the number of employees in each country, and excludes Turkey, due to incomplete time series.

Source: OECD Average annual wages (database), *http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=AV_AN_WAGE*.

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933597275*

Table A.4. **Average annual gross earnings per full-time employee**

USD at 2016 PPPs

		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016		Latest available
Australia	AUS	47 478	47 949	49 169	49 584	49 182	50 675	52 138	52 698	52 460	52 649	51 986	52 063	AUS	52 063
Austria	AUT	45 767	46 498	46 714	47 635	48 144	48 003	47 608	47 755	47 872	48 009	48 252	48 295	AUT	48 295
Belgium	BEL	48 431	48 499	48 414	48 562	48 974	48 699	49 104	49 395	50 014	50 020	50 098	49 587	BEL	49 587
Canada	CAN	41 105	42 385	43 350	44 209	44 677	44 802	45 483	46 561	47 385	47 931	48 213	48 403	CAN	48 403
Chile	CHL	22 734	22 323	22 519	23 164	24 859	25 959	26 197	27 064	27 790	27 964	27 628	28 434	CHL	28 434
Czech Republic	CZE	20 105	20 939	21 584	21 535	21 496	21 996	22 314	22 266	22 028	22 495	23 003	23 722	CZE	23 722
Denmark	DNK	46 351	47 133	47 650	48 352	49 457	49 980	49 766	49 649	50 009	50 951	51 463	52 580	DNK	52 580
Estonia	EST	16 909	18 142	20 985	21 200	20 408	20 231	19 317	19 822	19 951	20 789	22 438	23 621	EST	23 621
Finland	FIN	38 886	39 734	40 344	40 769	41 068	41 723	41 792	41 950	41 376	41 376	41 952	42 127	FIN	42 127
France	FRA	38 743	39 189	39 266	39 214	40 423	41 182	41 127	41 363	41 703	41 848	42 455	42 992	FRA	42 992
Germany	DEU	41 895	41 865	41 877	42 150	42 280	42 502	43 054	43 701	44 161	44 743	45 810	46 389	DEU	46 389
Greece	GRC	30 568	31 023	31 021	30 460	31 874	29 829	27 854	26 539	24 854	25 085	24 719	25 124	GRC	25 124
Hungary	HUN	21 449	21 900	21 635	21 915	21 130	21 175	21 119	20 423	20 454	20 388	20 667	21 711	HUN	21 711
Iceland	ISL	53 194	55 615	57 356	50 753	43 166	45 052	47 363	47 252	48 517	48 415	51 405	55 984	ISL	55 984
Ireland	IRL	44 992	45 578	46 666	47 883	51 749	51 287	51 156	50 528	50 185	49 971	50 866	51 681	IRL	51 681
Israel	ISR	30 990	32 032	32 610	31 814	31 087	30 773	30 974	31 469	31 816	31 713	32 729	34 023	ISR	34 023
Italy	ITA	35 372	35 648	35 640	35 669	35 868	36 219	35 710	34 539	34 616	34 781	35 117	35 397	ITA	35 397
Japan	JPN	39 307	39 146	39 055	39 083	38 574	39 277	40 243	39 528	39 409	38 763	38 660	39 113	JPN	39 113
Korea	KOR	29 785	30 254	30 886	30 695	30 630	31 192	31 668	31 283	31 745	31 688	32 062	32 399	KOR	32 399
Latvia	LVA	14 336	15 866	19 521	20 129	18 158	17 505	16 878	17 596	18 439	19 629	21 113	22 389	LVA	22 389
Luxembourg	LUX	56 891	57 637	59 010	58 897	60 540	61 247	60 196	59 829	60 193	61 175	62 580	62 636	LUX	62 636
Mexico	MEX	15 862	16 073	16 275	16 088	15 745	14 830	15 165	15 080	15 172	15 230	15 230	15 311	MEX	15 311
Netherlands	NLD	48 927	48 956	49 474	49 817	51 772	52 021	51 815	51 719	51 896	51 576	52 719	52 833	NLD	52 833
New Zealand	NZL	34 563	34 851	36 852	36 428	36 881	37 198	37 219	37 999	37 582	37 856	38 519	39 397	NZL	39 397
Norway	NOR	44 020	45 816	47 688	48 886	49 409	49 968	5 1799	53 153	54 150	54 476	54 629	53 643	NOR	53 643
Poland	POL	20 941	21 069	21 713	22 907	22 864	23 502	23 515	23 255	23 550	24 032	24 597	25 921	POL	25 921
Portugal	PRT	25 832	25 269	25 470	25 361	26 465	26 425	25 843	24 673	25 169	24 717	24 595	24 529	PRT	24 529
Slovak Republic	SVK	18 405	19 017	20 203	20 424	21 117	22 036	21 814	21 566	21 759	22 153	22 924	23 508	SVK	23 508
Slovenia	SVN	30 516	31 642	32 341	32 719	33 057	34 047	34 002	33 040	32 888	33 439	34 153	34 965	SVN	34 965
Spain	ESP	35 051	34 901	35 310	36 764	39 248	38 530	37 980	36 917	36 952	36 890	37 259	37 333	ESP	37 333
Sweden	SWE	36 113	36 924	38 205	38 643	38 948	39 231	39 626	40 526	40 931	41 461	42 190	42 816	SWE	42 816
Switzerland	CHE	55 726	55 978	56 839	57 138	58 219	58 258	58 548	59 806	60 592	60 520	60 242	60 124	CHE	60 124
Turkey	TUR	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	TUR	..
United Kingdom	GBR	41 741	42 775	43 959	42 836	43 561	43 447	42 469	42 330	42 058	41 878	42 304	42 835	GBR	42 835
United States	USA	54 432	55 243	56 439	56 233	56 610	57 013	57 176	57 653	57 369	58 219	59 691	60 154	USA	60 154
OECD	OECD 34	41 315	41 708	42 276	42 206	42 410	42 531	42 770	42 804	42 883	43 175	43 858	44 290	OECD 34	44 290
Lithuania	LTU	17 015	19 489	20 747	21 083	18 409	18 490	18 981	19 322	20 106	20 988	22 224	22 949	LTU	22 949

Note: Real compensation per employee (which includes employer's social security contributions in addition to wages and salaries) is considered for Chile, Iceland, Mexico and New Zealand. The OECD average is weighted by the number of employees in each country, and excludes Turkey.

Source: OECD Average annual wages (database), *http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=AV_AN_*.

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933599707*

Further reading:

OECD (2017), *OECD Employment Outlook 2017*, OECD Publishing, Paris, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/empl_outlook-2017-en*.

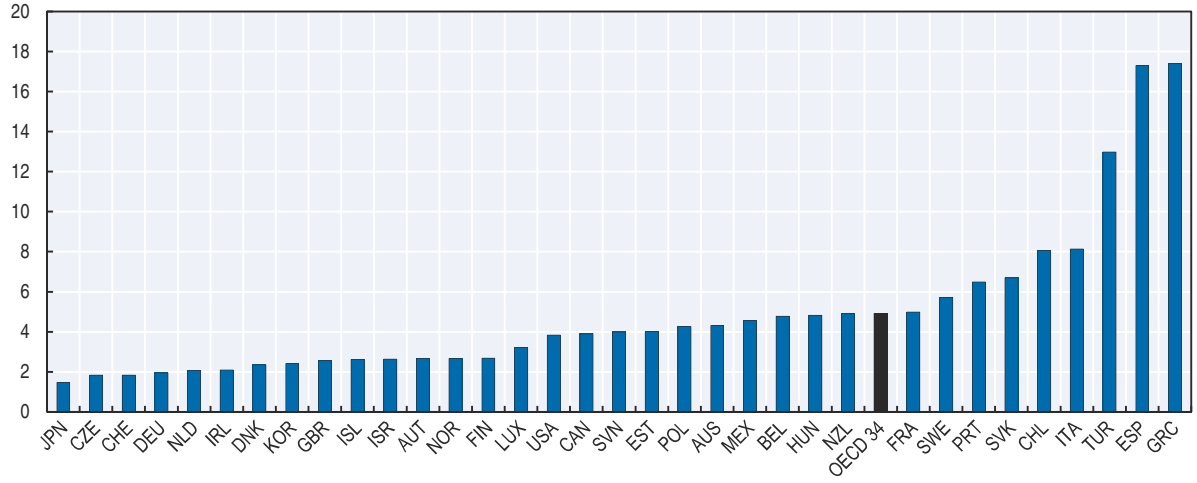
JOB AND EARNINGS: Labour market insecurity

Definition

This indicator is defined as the expected monetary loss that an employed person would incur upon becoming and staying unemployed, and is expressed as a share of previous earnings. This loss depends on the risk of becoming unemployed, the expected duration of unemployment and the degree of mitigation against these losses provided by unemployment benefits (effective insurance). Data on unemployment duration are used to measure the monthly probability for an employed person of becoming unemployed (people who report having been unemployed for 1 month or less are assumed to have been employed in the previous month), as well as the average expected duration of completed unemployment spells in months. The unemployment insurance is calculated as the product of the coverage of the unemployment insurance/assistance and of the replacement rates of public transfers received by the recipients of unemployment insurance/assistance. The average replacement rates for recipients of unemployment insurance and unemployment assistance take into account social assistance benefits. The indicator combines data from the *OECD Unemployment Duration Database*, the *OECD Benefit Recipients Database*, the *OECD Labour Market Programmes Database* and the *OECD Taxes and Benefits Database*.

Figure A.8. **Labour market insecurity due to unemployment**

Average expected monetary loss associated with becoming and staying unemployed, as a share of previous earnings, 2015 or latest available year

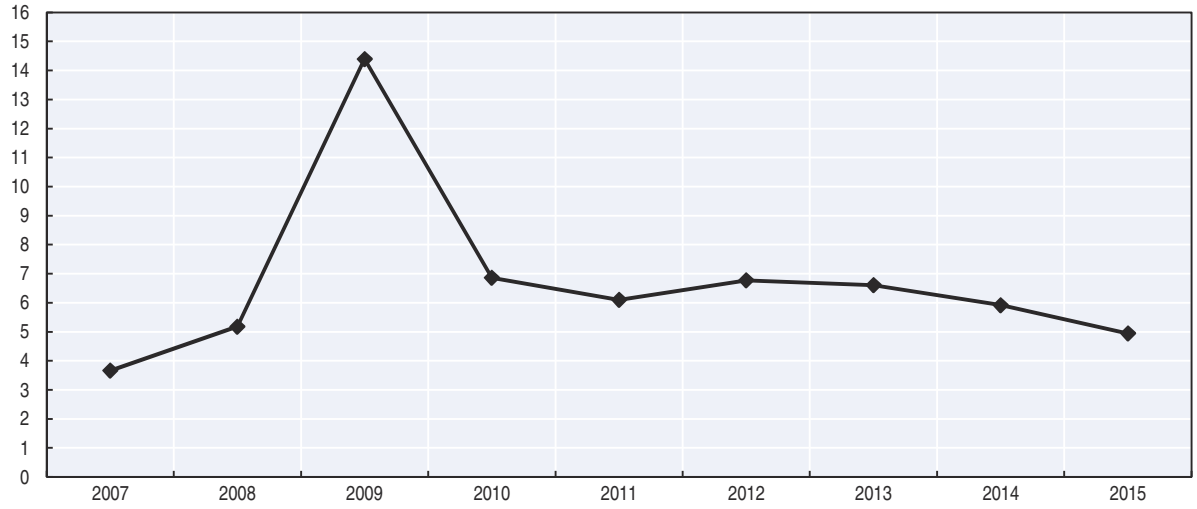


Note: The latest available year is 2011 for Chile. The OECD average is population-weighted and excludes Latvia.
Source: OECD Job quality (database), *http://dotstat.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=JOBQ*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933597294

Figure A.9. **Labour market insecurity due to unemployment, OECD average**

Average expected monetary loss associated with becoming and staying unemployed, as a share of previous earnings, OECD 29



Note: The OECD average is population-weighted and excludes Chile, Korea, Latvia, Portugal, the Slovak Republic and Sweden, due to incomplete time series.

Source: OECD Job quality (database), *http://dotstat.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=JOBQ*.

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933597313*

Table A.5. **Labour market insecurity**

Average expected monetary loss associated with becoming and staying unemployed, as a share of previous earnings

		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015		Latest available
Australia	AUS	..	..	2.7	2.8	5.4	3.4	3.5	3.7	4.3	4.7	4.3	AUS	4.3
Austria	AUT	..	..	2.1	1.5	5.0	1.9	1.8	2.4	2.9	2.8	2.7	AUT	2.7
Belgium	BEL	..	..	3.2	3.0	7.0	4.6	3.1	4.5	4.5	5.2	4.8	BEL	4.8
Canada	CAN	..	..	3.3	3.4	5.5	4.2	3.9	4.0	3.9	3.8	3.9	CAN	3.9
Chile	CHL	..	..	..	..	..	..	8.1	..	..	..	..	CHL	8.1
Czech Republic	CZE	..	..	1.3	1.4	3.3	6.5	3.4	6.4	5.3	2.6	1.8	CZE	1.8
Denmark	DNK	..	..	1.2	1.2	6.3	3.7	2.7	2.6	2.2	2.4	2.3	DNK	2.3
Estonia	EST	..	..	2.8	8.4	11.4	15.9	6.3	5.4	5.5	4.6	4.0	EST	4.0
Finland	FIN	..	..	2.4	2.3	4.5	2.9	2.5	2.3	2.7	2.3	2.7	FIN	2.7
France	FRA	..	..	2.6	2.5	22.1	4.5	4.0	6.1	6.2	4.8	5.0	FRA	5.0
Germany	DEU	..	..	2.3	2.4	3.7	2.5	2.2	2.3	2.6	2.2	2.0	DEU	2.0
Greece	GRC	7.6	5.4	6.1	5.6	34.4	18.1	31.3	44.4	36.0	21.1	17.4	GRC	17.4
Hungary	HUN	..	..	3.7	5.4	6.9	10.1	9.7	11.4	8.9	4.2	4.8	HUN	4.8
Iceland	ISL	..	..	1.0	1.6	2.4	3.0	5.1	0.3	0.4	3.6	2.6	ISL	2.6
Ireland	IRL	..	..	2.0	8.7	4.0	6.4	6.2	5.8	4.6	2.7	2.1	IRL	2.1
Israel	ISR	..	..	6.7	5.3	6.4	5.2	4.2	4.2	3.4	3.2	2.6	ISR	2.6
Italy	ITA	..	..	3.7	8.5	11.7	6.8	7.6	12.4	11.8	16.9	8.1	ITA	8.1
Japan	JPN	..	..	1.9	3.3	3.4	3.3	1.6	1.9	1.6	1.2	1.5	JPN	1.5
Korea	KOR	..	..	..	..	..	2.6	2.3	2.2	2.1	2.4	2.4	KOR	2.4
Latvia	LVA	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	LVA	..
Luxembourg	LUX	..	..	1.2	2.8	2.4	1.2	2.2	2.3	3.9	2.7	3.2	LUX	3.2
Mexico	MEX	..	3.9	4.0	4.3	6.5	5.7	5.8	5.4	5.3	5.1	4.6	MEX	4.6
Netherlands	NLD	..	..	0.8	0.9	3.1	1.5	1.8	2.2	3.0	2.9	2.1	NLD	2.1
New Zealand	NZL	..	..	2.9	3.7	7.6	5.4	4.8	5.7	4.4	4.7	4.9	NZL	4.9
Norway	NOR	..	..	0.6	1.2	1.4	1.5	1.2	1.3	1.6	1.5	2.7	NOR	2.7
Poland	POL	..	..	4.0	4.0	9.3	15.2	8.7	10.5	9.6	6.1	4.3	POL	4.3
Portugal	PRT	..	..	7.3	5.0	..	9.9	10.4	16.0	11.7	6.2	6.5	PRT	6.5
Slovak Republic	SVK	..	..	4.3	4.7	..	13.3	8.8	18.1	15.9	8.3	6.7	SVK	6.7
Slovenia	SVN	..	..	1.5	1.6	17.5	4.0	3.9	5.0	5.2	5.0	4.0	SVN	4.0
Spain	ESP	..	..	5.7	15.4	13.5	18.4	22.4	28.9	27.0	20.5	17.3	ESP	17.3
Sweden	SWE	..	..	..	4.5	10.1	7.3	5.7	6.7	6.7	6.6	5.7	SWE	5.7
Switzerland	CHE	..	..	0.9	0.9	3.2	2.8	1.3	1.8	2.1	2.0	1.8	CHE	1.8
Turkey	TUR	..	..	10.3	14.0	59.4	10.4	8.1	8.3	12.0	14.5	13.0	TUR	13.0
United Kingdom	GBR	..	..	3.1	3.7	12.4	5.0	5.2	4.6	4.1	2.6	2.6	GBR	2.6
United States	USA	..	..	3.4	4.9	17.5	8.1	6.6	6.0	5.4	4.3	3.8	USA	3.8
OECD	OECD 29	..		3.7	5.2	14.4	6.9	6.1	6.8	6.6	5.9	4.9	OECD 34	4.9

Note: The OECD average is population-weighted; its time series excludes Chile, Korea, Latvia, Portugal, the Slovak Republic and Sweden, due to incomplete time series. The OECD average for the latest available year excludes Latvia.

Source: OECD Job quality (database), *http://dotstat.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=JOBQ*.

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933599726*

Further reading:

Cazes, S., A. Hijzen and A. Saint-Martin (2015),"Measuring and Assessing Job Quality: The OECD Job Quality Framework",*OECD Social, Employment and Migration Working Papers*, No. 174, OECD Publishing, Paris, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/5jrp02kjw1mr-en*.

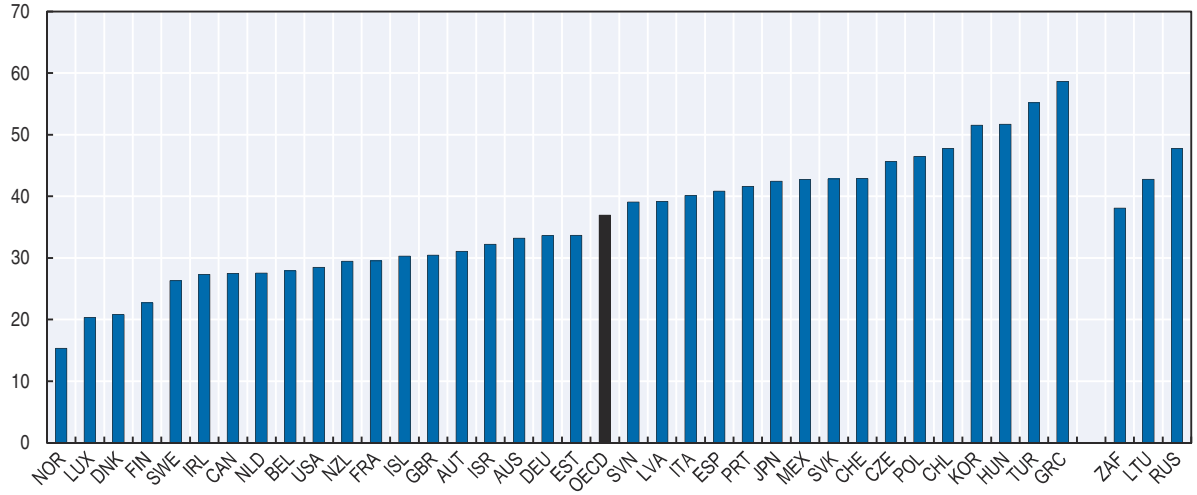
JOB AND EARNINGS: Job strain

Definition

This indicator considers the incidence of job strain among employees. Job strain is defined as a situation in which job demands reported by employees (e.g. time pressure, and exposure to physical health risks) exceed their job resources (e.g. work autonomy, opportunities for learning, and good workplace relationships). Following the *Guidelines for Measuring the Quality of the Working Environment* (OECD, 2017) four types of job demands are identified: i) *physical demands* related to hard physical work (e.g. carrying and moving heavy loads); ii) *work intensity,* which relates to longer-than-average working hours; iii) *working time inflexibility*; and iv) *perceived job insecurity*, which imposes a psychological burden upon workers. Similarly, four types of job resources are considered, namely: i) *work autonomy,* which include workers' freedom to choose and change their work tasks and methods; ii)*training and learning opportunities,* which include formal (i.e. training) and informal learning opportunities at work; iii) *perceived opportunity for career advancement*, which is linked to workers' motivation at work; and iv) *intrinsic rewards* of the job, which captures satisfaction with the purpose of the job (e.g. feeling of doing a useful job, helping other people in the job). Job strain refers to instances where people report more job demands than job resources. As no single data source covers all OECD countries, the job strain index is obtained by combining data from the European Working Conditions Survey (EWCS) and the Work Orientations modules of the International Social Survey Program (ISSP). The data included in this annex are provisional estimates prepared in September 2017 for the OECD Job quality database, *http://dotstat.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=JOBQ.*

Figure A.10. **Incidence of job strain**

Proportion of employees who experience a number of job demands that exceed that of job resources, 2015

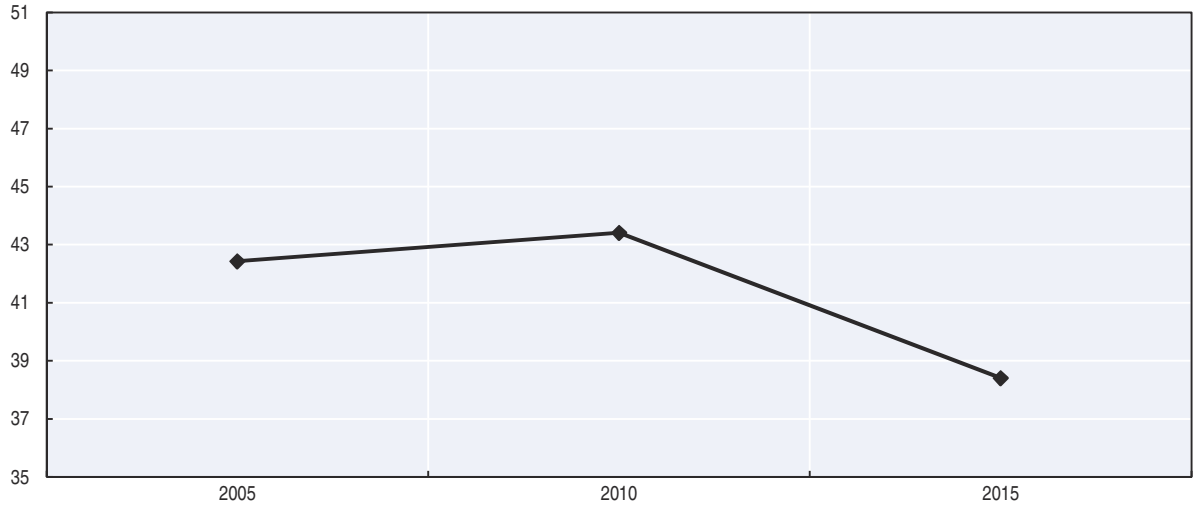


Note: The latest available year is 2005 for Canada and Korea. The OECD average is population-weighted.
Source: Provisional estimates prepared in September 2017 for inclusion in the OECD Job quality (database), *http://dotstat.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=JOBQ.*

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933597332

Figure A.11. **Job strain, OECD average**

Proportion of employees who experience a number of job demands that exceed that of job resources, OECD 24



Note: The OECD average is population-weighted and excludes Australia, Canada, Chile, Iceland, Israel, Japan, Korea, Mexico, New Zealand, Switzerland and the United States, due to an incomplete time series.
Source: OECD calculations based in provisional estimates prepared in September 2017 for inclusion in the OECD Job quality (database), *http://dotstat.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=JOBQ.*

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933597351

Table A.6. **Incidence of job strain**

Proportion of employees who experience a number of job demands that exceed that of job resources

		2005	2010	2015		Latest available
Australia	AUS	29.9	..	33.2	AUS	33.2
Austria	AUT	29.3	36.9	31.1	AUT	31.1
Belgium	BEL	25.8	36.3	27.9	BEL	27.9
Canada	CAN	27.5	..	..	CAN	27.5
Chile	CHL	..	..	47.8	CHL	47.8
Czech Republic	CZE	57.2	59.6	45.6	CZE	45.6
Denmark	DNK	20.1	20.3	20.8	DNK	20.8
Estonia	EST	40.2	39.3	33.7	EST	33.7
Finland	FIN	22.2	25.0	22.7	FIN	22.7
France	FRA	30.2	36.1	29.5	FRA	29.5
Germany	DEU	49.0	35.7	33.6	DEU	33.6
Greece	GRC	50.3	51.4	58.6	GRC	58.6
Hungary	HUN	57.0	54.1	51.7	HUN	51.7
Iceland	ISL	..	..	30.3	ISL	30.3
Ireland	IRL	25.3	35.2	27.4	IRL	27.4
Israel	ISR	39.1	..	32.2	ISR	32.2
Italy	ITA	40.2	40.6	40.1	ITA	40.1
Japan	JPN	47.5	..	42.5	JPN	42.5
Korea	KOR	51.6	..	..	KOR	51.6
Latvia	LVA	43.1	44.9	39.2	LVA	39.2
Luxembourg	LUX	22.5	28.0	20.3	LUX	20.3
Mexico	MEX	41.3	..	42.7	MEX	42.7
Netherlands	NLD	25.0	24.7	27.6	NLD	27.6
New Zealand	NZL	23.0	..	29.5	NZL	29.5
Norway	NOR	19.8	19.8	15.4	NOR	15.4
Poland	POL	46.3	42.0	46.5	POL	46.5
Portugal	PRT	49.3	37.5	41.6	PRT	41.6
Slovak Republic	SVK	53.0	52.8	42.8	SVK	42.8
Slovenia	SVN	45.2	43.3	39.1	SVN	39.1
Spain	ESP	49.4	46.3	40.8	ESP	40.8
Sweden	SWE	23.9	29.4	26.3	SWE	26.3
Switzerland	CHE	27.3	..	42.9	CHE	42.9
Turkey	TUR	63.4	73.3	55.2	TUR	55.2
United Kingdom	GBR	26.5	35.3	30.4	GBR	30.4
United States	USA	26.5	..	28.5	USA	28.5
OECD	OECD 24	42.4	43.4	38.4	OECD	36.9
Lithuania	LTU	55.8	61.3	42.7	LTU	42.7
Russian Federation	RUS	55.9	..	47.7	RUS	47.7
South Africa	ZAF	44.1	..	38.1	ZAF	38.1

Note: The OECD average is population-weighted. Its time series excludes Australia, Canada, Chile, Iceland, Israel, Japan, Korea, Mexico, New Zealand, Switzerland and the United States, due to incomplete time series.

Source: Provisional estimates prepared in September 2017 for inclusion in the OECD Job quality (database), *http://dotstat.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=JOBQ*.

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933599745*

Further reading:

Murtin, F., M. Fadic and C. Le Thi (2017), "Measuring Job Strain Among OECD Countries: The 2017 Revision", *OECD Statistics Directorate Working Paper*, forthcoming.

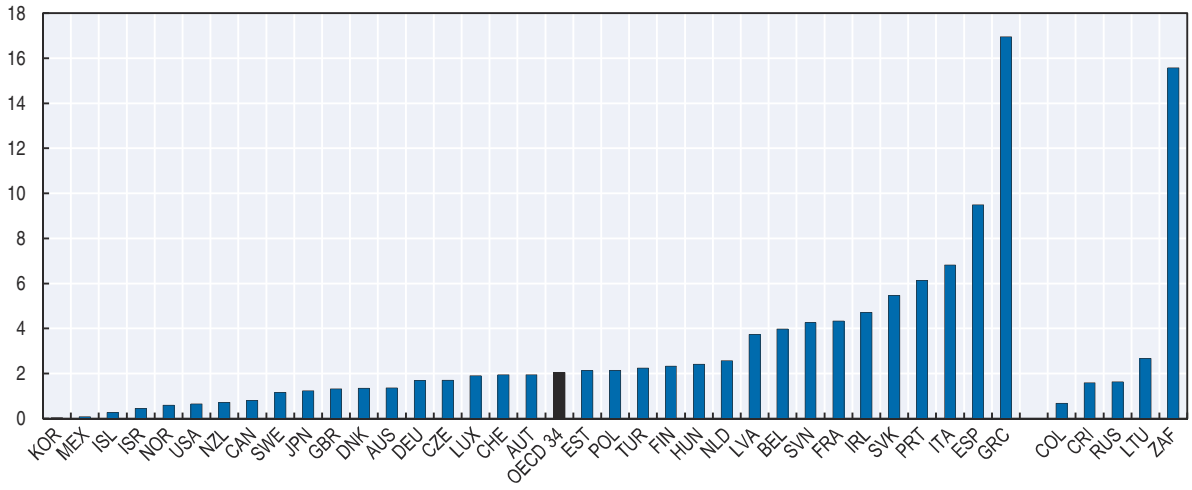
JOB AND EARNINGS: Long-term unemployment

Definition

This indicator refers to the number of people who have been unemployed for one year or more, as a percentage of the labour force (i.e. the sum of employed and unemployed persons). Unemployed persons are defined as those who did not perform any work in the survey reference week but are willing to do so and actively searching for work. The data are drawn from national Labour Force Surveys as available in the *OECD Employment Outlook Database*.

Figure A.12. **Long-term unemployment rate**

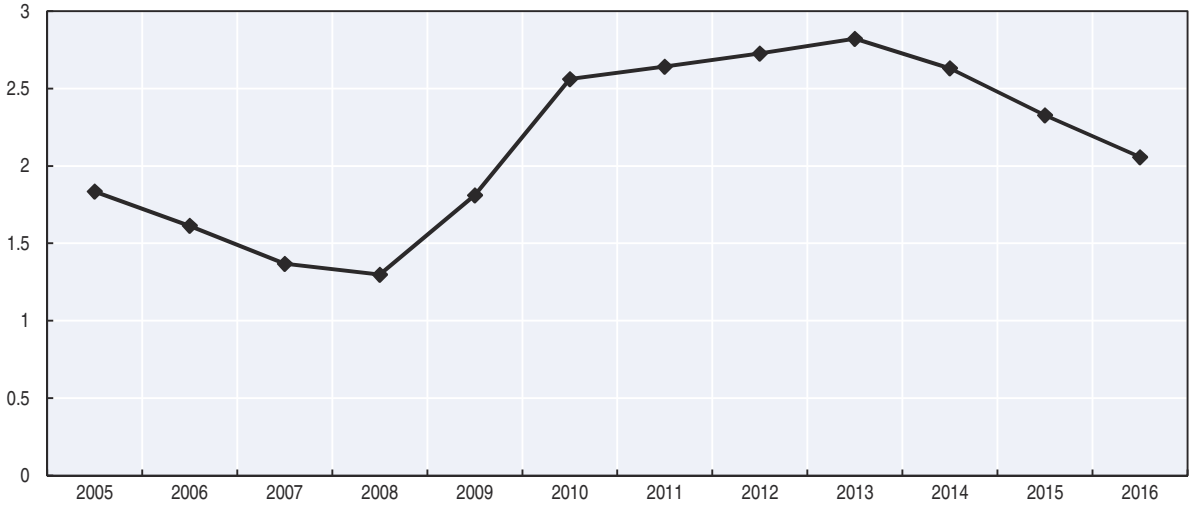
Percentage of the labour force unemployed for one year or more, 2016 or latest available year



Note: The latest available year is 2015 for Luxembourg. The OECD average is population-weighted and excludes Chile.
Source: "Labour Force Statistics", OECD Employment and Labour Market Statistics (database), *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/lfs-lfs-data-en*.
StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933597370

Figure A.13. **Long-term unemployment rate, OECD average**

Percentage of the labour force unemployed for one year or more, OECD 26



Note: The OECD average is population-weighted and excludes Chile, Germany, Israel, Luxembourg, New Zealand, Norway, Portugal, Sweden and Switzerland, due to breaks and/or incomplete data for these countries.
Source: "Labour Force Statistics", OECD Employment and Labour Market Statistics (database), *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/lfs-lfs-data-en*.
StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933597389

Table A.7. **Long-term unemployment rate**

Percentage of the labour force unemployed for one year or more

		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016		Latest available
Australia	AUS	0.9	0.9	0.7	0.6	0.8	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.3	1.4	1.4	AUS	1.4
Austria	AUT	1.4	1.5	1.3	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.5	1.7	1.9	AUT	1.9
Belgium	BEL	4.4	4.2	3.8	3.3	3.5	4.0	3.4	3.4	3.9	4.3	4.4	4.0	BEL	4.0
Canada	CAN	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.7	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.8	CAN	0.8
Chile	CHL	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	CHL	..
Czech Republic	CZE	4.2	3.9	2.8	2.2	2.1	3.2	2.8	3.0	3.1	2.7	2.4	1.7	CZE	1.7
Denmark	DNK	1.1	0.8	0.6	0.5	0.6	1.5	1.8	2.1	1.8	1.7	1.7	1.3	DNK	1.3
Estonia	EST	4.3	2.9	2.3	1.7	3.7	7.5	7.0	5.4	3.8	3.3	2.4	2.1	EST	2.1
Finland	FIN	2.1	1.9	1.6	1.1	1.4	2.0	1.8	1.6	1.7	2.0	2.3	2.3	FIN	2.3
France	FRA	3.5	3.5	3.1	2.6	3.1	3.6	3.6	3.8	4.0	4.2	4.3	4.3	FRA	4.3
Germany	DEU	5.9	5.8	4.9	3.9	3.5	3.3	2.8	2.4	2.3	2.2	2.0	1.7	DEU	1.7
Greece	GRC	5.2	4.9	4.2	3.7	3.9	5.7	8.8	14.4	18.4	19.5	18.2	17.0	GRC	17.0
Hungary	HUN	3.3	3.5	3.5	3.7	4.3	5.6	5.4	5.1	5.1	3.8	3.2	2.4	HUN	2.4
Iceland	ISL	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.5	1.6	2.0	1.7	1.2	0.7	0.6	0.3	ISL	0.3
Ireland	IRL	1.6	1.5	1.4	1.5	3.6	6.8	8.6	9.2	8.4	7.0	5.6	4.7	IRL	4.7
Israel	ISR	2.9	2.9	2.3	1.7	1.9	1.9	1.4	0.9	0.8	0.6	0.6	0.5	ISR	0.5
Italy	ITA	3.8	3.4	2.9	3.1	3.5	4.1	4.3	5.7	6.9	7.8	7.0	6.8	ITA	6.8
Japan	JPN	1.5	1.4	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.9	1.8	1.7	1.7	1.4	1.2	1.2	JPN	1.2
Korea	KOR	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	KOR	0.0
Latvia	LVA	4.5	2.4	1.6	1.9	4.5	8.8	8.8	7.8	5.8	4.7	4.5	3.7	LVA	3.7
Luxembourg	LUX	1.2	1.4	1.2	1.6	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.6	1.8	1.6	1.9	..	LUX	1.9
Mexico	MEX	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	MEX	0.1
Netherlands	NLD	2.1	1.9	1.4	1.0	0.9	1.2	1.5	1.8	2.4	2.7	3.0	2.6	NLD	2.6
New Zealand	NZL	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.7	NZL	0.7
Norway	NOR	0.4	0.5	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6	NOR	0.6
Poland	POL	9.3	7.0	4.4	2.1	2.1	2.5	3.0	3.5	3.8	3.3	2.9	2.1	POL	2.1
Portugal	PRT	3.7	3.9	3.8	3.6	4.2	5.6	6.1	7.6	9.1	8.3	7.1	6.1	PRT	6.1
Slovak Republic	SVK	11.0	9.7	7.8	6.3	6.1	8.5	8.7	8.9	9.5	8.8	7.1	5.5	SVK	5.5
Slovenia	SVN	3.1	2.9	2.2	1.8	1.8	3.1	3.6	4.2	5.1	5.3	4.7	4.3	SVN	4.3
Spain	ESP	2.2	1.8	1.7	2.0	4.2	7.3	8.9	11.0	13.0	12.9	11.4	9.5	ESP	9.5
Sweden	SWE	..	..	0.8	0.8	1.1	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.2	SWE	1.2
Switzerland	CHE	1.7	1.6	1.5	1.1	1.2	1.7	1.8	1.6	1.6	1.9	1.9	1.9	CHE	1.9
Turkey	TUR	4.2	3.6	3.1	2.9	3.5	3.4	2.6	2.3	2.4	2.0	2.2	2.2	TUR	2.2
United Kingdom	GBR	1.0	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.9	2.5	2.6	2.7	2.8	2.2	1.7	1.3	GBR	1.3
United States	USA	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.6	1.5	2.8	2.8	2.4	1.9	1.4	1.0	0.6	USA	0.6
OECD	OECD 26	1.8	1.6	1.4	1.3	1.8	2.6	2.6	2.7	2.8	2.6	2.3	2.1	OECD 34	2.0
Colombia	COL	3.3	..	1.3	1.1	1.4	1.4	1.1	1.0	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7	COL	0.7
Costa Rica	CRI	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1.0	1.0	1.5	1.5	1.6	CRI	1.6
Lithuania	LTU	4.4	2.6	1.4	1.3	3.3	7.4	8.0	6.6	5.1	4.8	3.9	2.7	LTU	2.7
Russian Federation	RUS	2.8	3.0	2.4	2.2	2.4	2.2	2.1	1.7	1.7	1.4	1.5	1.6	RUS	1.6
South Africa	ZAF	15.2	13.4	12.9	11.3	11.8	14.0	14.7	14.5	14.2	14.4	14.3	15.6	ZAF	15.6

Note: Due to a redesign of the survey, there are breaks in 2011 for Germany and Portugal. In 2006 in Norway there was a change in the definition of unemployment. In 2012, Israel changed the definition of labour force from "civilian" to "total" (including those who are in compulsory or permanent military service). Iwate, Miyagi and Fukushima prefectures are excluded in Japanese data in 2011. In New Zealand the army personnel started to be included among the employed in 2016. Cells before a break are highlighted in grey, as the data are not comparable with later years. The OECD average is population-weighted; its time series excludes Chile, Germany, Israel, Luxembourg, New Zealand, Norway, Portugal, Sweden and Switzerland, due to breaks and/or incomplete data for these countries. The OECD average for the latest available year excludes Chile.

Source: "Labour Force Statistics", OECD Employment and Labour Market Statistics (database), *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/lfs-lfs-data-en*.

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933599764*

Further reading:

OECD (2017), *OECD Employment Outlook 2017*, OECD Publishing, Paris, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/empl_outlook-2017-en*.

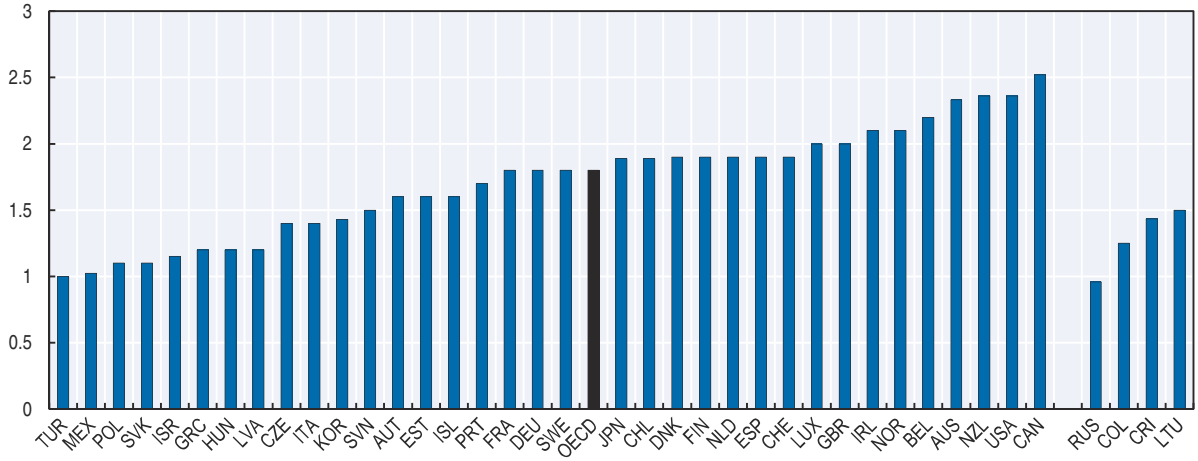
HOUSING: Rooms per person

Definition

This indicator is a measure of whether people are living in crowded conditions. It is measured as the number of rooms in a dwelling, divided by the number of persons living in the dwelling. It excludes rooms such as a kitchenette, scullery/utility room, bathroom, toilet, garage, consulting rooms, office or shop. The data sources are detailed in the figure note. Figure A.14 and Table A.8 show average values over the years 2005-10 and 2011-15 due to an incomplete time series in several countries.

Figure A.14. **Rooms per person**

Average number, 2015 or latest available year



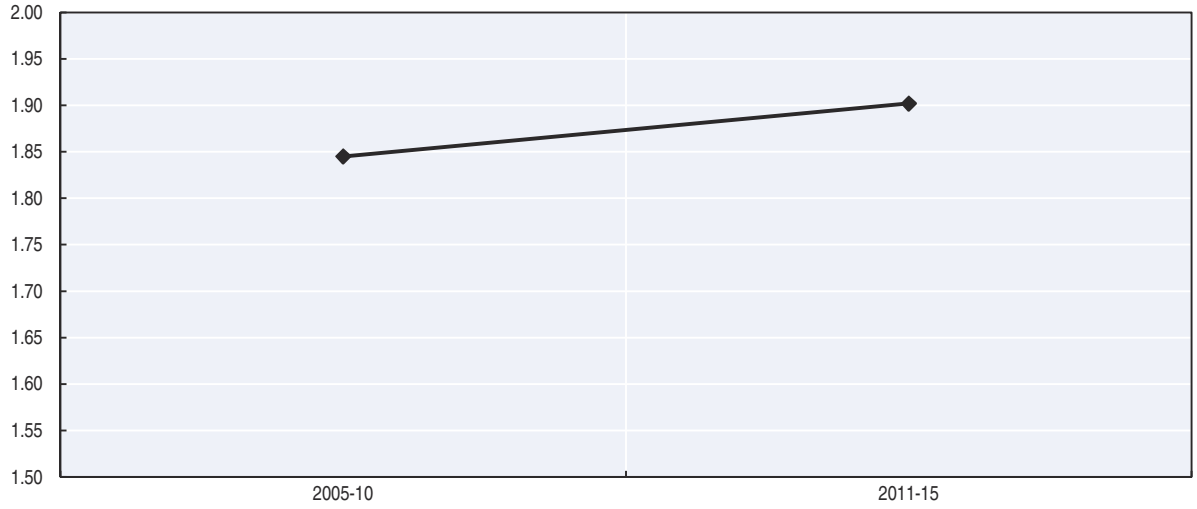
Note: The latest available year is 2016 for Colombia, Costa Rica, Finland, Hungary, Latvia and Lithuania; 2014 for Israel and Switzerland; 2013 for Japan, New Zealand, Turkey; 2011 for Australia, Canada; and 2010 for Korea. Values for Australia, Canada, Chile, Israel, Mexico, New Zealand and the United States are OECD calculations based on national data. The OECD average is population-weighted.

Source: European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC), *http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/incomeand-living-conditions/overview* for EU countries, Norway, Switzerland and Turkey; ABS Census of Population and Housing for Australia; Canadian National Household Survey for Canada; INE Census for Chile; Household and Multiple Purpose Survey of Costa Rica for data before 2010 and National Household Survey from 2010; Israeli Household Expenditure Survey for Israel; Housing and Land Survey for Japan; Population and Housing Census for Korea; INEGI Censo de Población y Vivienda and Encuesta Intercensal 2015 for Mexico; Census of New Zealand for New Zealand; ROSSTAT Income, Expenditure and Consumption of Households statistical report for the Russian Federation; and American Community Survey for the United States.

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933597408*

Figure A.15. **Number of rooms per person, OECD average**

Average number, OECD 30



Note: The OECD average is population-weighted; it excludes Chile, Korea, Slovenia, Spain and the United Kingdom, due to incomplete time series for these countries.

Source: European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC) for EU countries, Norway, Switzerland and Turkey; ABS Census of Population and Housing for Australia; Canadian National Household Survey for Canada; INE Census for Chile; Israeli Household Expenditure Survey for Israel; Housing and Land Survey for Japan; Population and Housing Census for Korea; INEGI Censo de Población y Vivienda and Encuesta Intercensal 2015 for Mexico; Census for New Zealand; American Community Survey for the United States.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933597427

Further reading:

Balestra, C. and J. Sultan (2013), "Home Sweet Home: The Determinants of Residential Satisfaction and its Relation with Well-being", *OECD Statistics Working Papers*, No. 2013/05, OECD Publishing, Paris, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/5jzbcx0czc0x-en*.

Table A.8. **Rooms per person**

Average number

		2005-10	2011-15		Latest available
Australia	AUS	2.3	2.3	AUS	2.3
Austria	AUT	1.7	1.6	AUT	1.6
Belgium	BEL	2.2	2.2	BEL	2.2
Canada	CAN	2.6	2.5	CAN	2.5
Chile	CHL	..	1.9	CHL	1.9
Czech Republic	CZE	1.3	1.4	CZE	1.4
Denmark	DNK	1.9	1.9	DNK	1.9
Estonia	EST	1.2	1.6	EST	1.6
Finland	FIN	1.9	1.9	FIN	1.9
France	FRA	1.7	1.8	FRA	1.8
Germany	DEU	1.7	1.8	DEU	1.8
Greece	GRC	1.2	1.2	GRC	1.2
Hungary	HUN	1.0	1.2	HUN	1.2
Iceland	ISL	1.6	1.6	ISL	1.6
Ireland	IRL	2.0	2.1	IRL	2.1
Israel	ISR	1.1	1.1	ISR	1.2
Italy	ITA	1.4	1.4	ITA	1.4
Japan	JPN	1.8	1.9	JPN	1.9
Korea	KOR	1.3	..	KOR	1.4
Latvia	LVA	1.0	1.2	LVA	1.2
Luxembourg	LUX	1.8	2.0	LUX	2.0
Mexico	MEX	1.0	1.0	MEX	1.0
Netherlands	NLD	2.0	2.0	NLD	1.9
New Zealand	NZL	2.3	2.4	NZL	2.4
Norway	NOR	2.0	2.0	NOR	2.1
Poland	POL	1.0	1.1	POL	1.1
Portugal	PRT	1.4	1.6	PRT	1.7
Slovak Republic	SVK	1.1	1.1	SVK	1.1
Slovenia	SVN	1.1	..	SVN	1.5
Spain	ESP	1.9	..	ESP	1.9
Sweden	SWE	1.8	1.7	SWE	1.8
Switzerland	CHE	1.8	1.9	CHE	1.9
Turkey	TUR	0.9	0.9	TUR	1.0
United Kingdom	GBR	1.8	..	GBR	2.0
United States	USA	2.3	2.4	USA	2.4
OECD	OECD 30	1.8	1.9	OECD	1.8
Colombia	COL	1.1	1.2	COL	1.2
Costa Rica	CRI	1.1	1.2	CRI	1.4
Lithuania	LTU	1.1	..	LTU	1.5
Russian Federation	RUS	0.9	0.9	RUS	1.0

Note: Values for Australia, Canada, Chile, Israel, Mexico, New Zealand and the United States are OECD calculations based on national data. The 2005-10 value for Austria refers to 2009-10; and the 2011-15 value refers to 2011-13 for Estonia and Switzerland, due to a break in the series in 2009 and 2014 respectively. The 2011-15 value refers to 2011-16 for Colombia, Costa Rica, Finland, Hungary and Latvia. The latest available year is 2016 for Colombia, Costa Rica, Finland, Hungary, Latvia and Lithuania; 2014 for Israel and Switzerland; 2013 for Japan, New Zealand and Turkey; 2011 for Australia and Canada; 2010 for Korea; and 2015 for other countries. The OECD average is population-weighted; its time series excludes Chile, Korea, Slovenia, Spain and the United Kingdom, due to an incomplete data. The OECD average for the latest available year considers all OECD countries.

Source: European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC), *http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/incomeand-living-conditions/overview* for EU countries, Norway, Switzerland and Turkey; ABS Census of Population and Housing for Australia; Canadian National Household Survey for Canada; INE Censo for Chile; Household and Multiple Purpose Survey of Costa Rica for data before 2010 and National Household Survey from 2010; Israeli Household Expenditure Survey for Israel; Housing and Land Survey of Japan for Japan; Population and Housing Census of Korea for Korea; INEGI Censo de Población y Vivienda and Encuesta Intercensal 2015 for Mexico; Census of New Zealand for New Zealand; ROSSTAT Income, Expenditure and Consumption of Households statistical report for the Russian Federation; and American Community Survey for the United States.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933599783

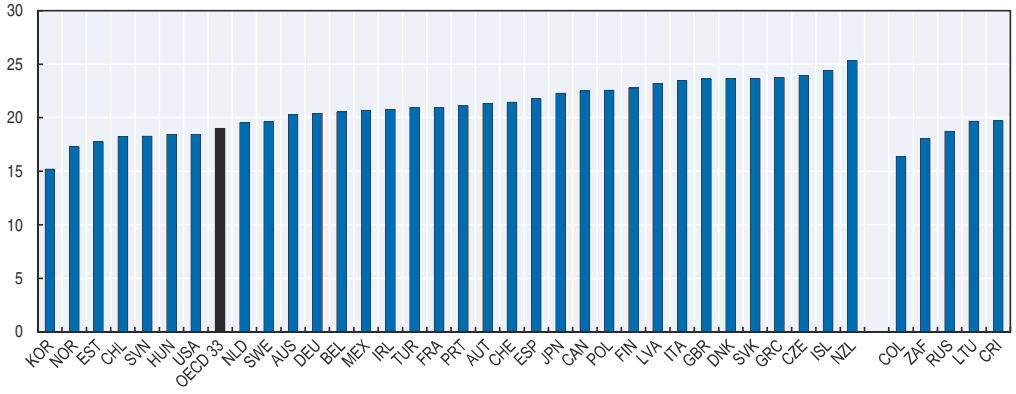
HOUSING: Housing affordability

Definition

This indicator refers to the share of household gross adjusted disposable income spent on housing and maintenance of the house, as defined in the System of National Accounts (SNA). It includes actual and imputed rentals for housing, expenditure on maintenance and repair of the dwelling (including miscellaneous services), on water supply, electricity, gas and other fuels, as well as the expenditure on furniture, furnishings, household equipment and goods and services for routine home maintenance. Expenditure is expressed as a percentage of the household gross adjusted disposable income. This measure of housing costs excludes household payments for interest and principal on housing mortgages. The data refer to the sum of households and non-profit institutions serving households and are sourced from the OECD National Accounts Database.

Figure A.16. **Household expenditure on housing**

As a percentage of household gross adjusted disposable income, 2015 or latest available year



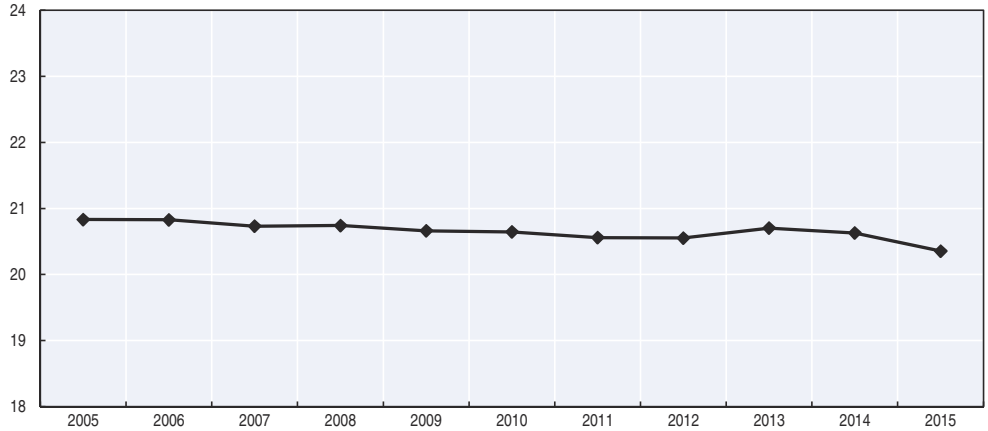
Note: The latest available year is 2016 for Canada, Denmark and the United Kingdom; 2014 for Costa Rica, Iceland, Italy, New Zealand, Norway, the Russian Federation and South Africa; and 2013 for Switzerland. The OECD average is population-weighted and excludes Israel and Luxembourg.

Source: OECD calculations based on OECD National Accounts Statistics (database), *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/na-data-en*.

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933597446*

Figure A.17. **Household expenditure on housing, OECD average**

As a percentage of household gross adjusted disposable income, OECD 26



Note: The OECD average is population-weighted and excludes Chile, Iceland, Israel, Italy, Luxembourg, New Zealand, Norway, Switzerland and Turkey, due to incomplete time series for these countries.

Source: OECD calculations based on OECD National Accounts Statistics (database), *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/na-data-en*.

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933597465*

Table A.9. **Household expenditure on housing**

As a percentage of household gross adjusted disposable income

		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016		Latest available
Australia	AUS	19.3	19.2	19.0	18.8	19.3	19.2	19.3	19.8	19.9	20.1	20.3	..	AUS	20.3
Austria	AUT	20.0	19.9	19.5	19.7	19.8	20.2	20.6	20.6	21.1	21.0	21.3	..	AUT	21.3
Belgium	BEL	19.7	19.7	19.3	19.8	19.3	20.0	20.3	20.6	20.7	20.4	20.5	..	BEL	20.5
Canada	CAN	22.9	22.5	22.7	22.6	22.3	22.1	22.1	22.0	22.0	22.5	22.5	22.3	CAN	22.3
Chile	CHL	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	18.1	18.0	18.5	..	CHL	18.5
Czech Republic	CZE	23.6	23.5	23.7	24.2	24.7	25.3	25.2	25.1	25.2	24.0	24.0	..	CZE	24.0
Denmark	DNK	23.3	23.2	23.4	23.6	23.0	23.5	23.6	23.8	24.1	23.8	23.6	23.5	DNK	23.5
Estonia	EST	21.4	21.7	21.3	18.9	18.3	18.3	18.2	18.5	19.0	18.1	17.7	..	EST	17.7
Finland	FIN	20.9	21.0	20.8	20.6	20.7	21.2	21.3	21.6	21.9	22.4	22.7	..	FIN	22.7
France	FRA	20.2	20.3	20.1	20.2	20.2	20.4	20.3	20.8	21.1	20.9	20.9	..	FRA	20.9
Germany	DEU	21.5	21.9	21.3	21.4	21.3	21.5	21.2	21.3	21.3	20.7	20.4	..	DEU	20.4
Greece	GRC	19.7	19.2	19.2	20.6	20.6	22.3	23.4	25.0	24.8	23.6	23.7	..	GRC	23.7
Hungary	HUN	18.9	19.1	19.6	20.1	20.8	21.4	20.6	20.7	19.7	18.4	18.4	..	HUN	18.4
Iceland	ISL	22.6	21.8	21.5	21.1	23.0	24.8	24.8	24.5	24.4	24.4	..	..	ISL	24.4
Ireland	IRL	19.3	19.6	20.3	20.2	18.1	18.0	18.7	18.8	19.7	20.2	20.8	..	IRL	20.8
Israel	ISR	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	ISR	..
Italy	ITA	20.7	20.8	20.8	21.2	21.8	22.6	22.7	23.6	23.6	23.5	..	..	ITA	23.5
Japan	JPN	21.5	21.9	21.9	22.3	22.2	22.3	22.2	22.3	22.8	23.0	22.3	..	JPN	22.3
Korea	KOR	17.3	17.1	16.8	16.5	16.0	16.1	15.9	16.1	15.9	15.7	15.2	..	KOR	15.2
Latvia	LVA	18.1	20.4	21.6	20.6	20.3	20.8	22.8	23.6	23.7	24.2	23.2	..	LVA	23.2
Luxembourg	LUX	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	LUX	..
Mexico	MEX	24.0	23.6	23.5	23.6	23.3	22.4	22.2	22.3	21.7	21.8	20.7	..	MEX	20.7
Netherlands	NLD	19.1	18.7	18.4	18.5	18.3	18.5	18.4	18.8	19.2	19.1	19.5	..	NLD	19.5
New Zealand	NZL	25.8	25.6	25.0	25.4	25.0	24.9	24.7	25.2	25.6	26.2	..	..	NZL	26.2
Norway	NOR	17.6	19.3	18.5	18.4	17.9	18.7	18.0	17.7	17.7	17.3	..	..	NOR	17.3
Poland	POL	22.2	22.0	21.8	21.8	22.6	22.7	23.4	22.6	22.0	22.8	22.6	..	POL	22.6
Portugal	PRT	16.2	16.5	16.9	17.1	17.3	17.8	18.7	19.8	20.0	20.9	21.1	..	PRT	21.1
Slovak Republic	SVK	26.1	27.2	26.6	26.5	25.9	25.5	25.9	25.9	25.2	24.3	23.6	..	SVK	23.6
Slovenia	SVN	18.9	18.6	18.5	18.5	19.8	20.4	20.0	19.7	19.0	18.6	18.3	..	SVN	18.3
Spain	ESP	18.2	19.0	19.7	19.8	19.9	21.0	21.4	22.3	22.5	22.1	21.8	..	ESP	21.8
Sweden	SWE	21.9	21.5	21.1	20.9	20.9	21.3	20.7	20.0	19.9	19.8	19.6	..	SWE	19.6
Switzerland	CHE	22.2	22.0	21.6	22.2	21.8	22.2	22.0	21.7	21.5	..	..	..	CHE	21.5
Turkey	TUR	..	..	..	..	22.2	21.8	21.4	21.2	20.6	19.8	19.6	..	TUR	19.6
United Kingdom	GBR	23.9	24.0	23.9	24.0	23.3	23.4	23.6	23.6	23.9	23.8	23.6	23.7	GBR	23.7
United States	USA	19.5	19.4	19.2	19.0	19.0	18.8	18.5	18.1	18.6	18.4	18.4	..	USA	18.4
OECD	OECD 26	20.8	20.8	20.7	20.7	20.7	20.6	20.6	20.6	20.7	20.6	20.4	..	OECD 33	19.0
Colombia	COL	18.3	18.2	17.6	17.1	17.4	17.6	17.1	17.0	16.5	16.4	16.6	..	COL	16.6
Costa Rica	CRI	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	20.1	20.4	19.7	..	..	CRI	19.7
Lithuania	LTU	17.5	17.3	18.1	17.6	17.5	17.2	18.9	19.7	19.6	19.9	19.7	..	LTU	19.7
Russian Federation	RUS	..	..	..	..	..	..	19.8	20.2	19.4	18.7	..	..	RUS	18.7
South Africa	ZAF	..	..	..	19.9	19.6	19.4	19.1	18.9	18.5	18.0	..	..	ZAF	18.0

Note: The OECD average is population-weighted; its time series excludes Chile, Iceland, Israel, Italy, Luxembourg, New Zealand, Norway, Switzerland and Turkey, due to incomplete data for these countries. The latest available year excludes Israel and Luxembourg.
Source: OECD calculations based on OECD National Accounts Statistics (database), *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/na-data-en*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933599802

Further reading:

OECD (2011b), "Housing conditions", in *OECD, How's Life? Measuring Well-being*, OECD Publishing, Paris, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264121164-6-en*.

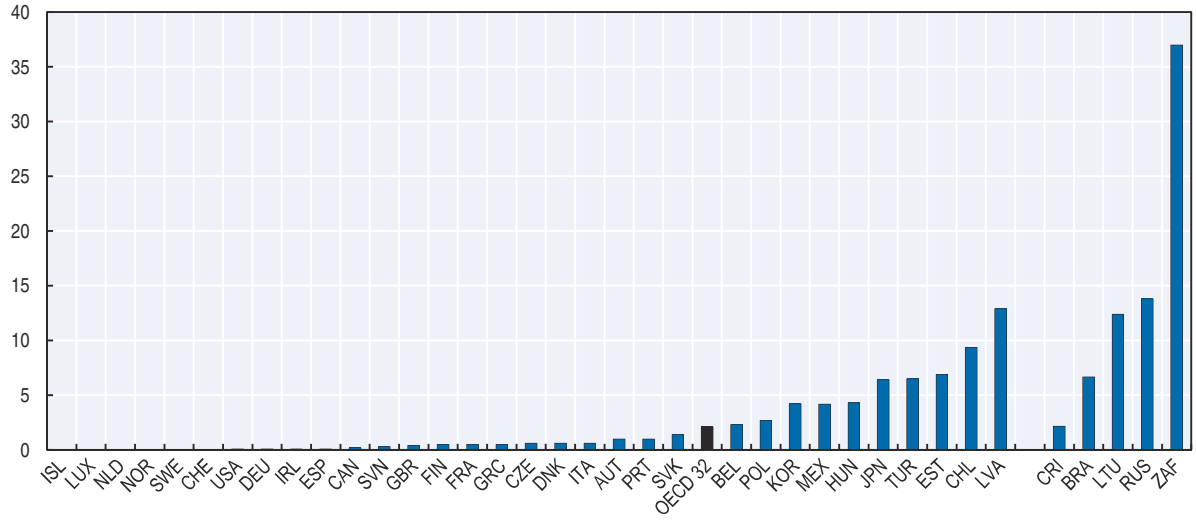
HOUSING: Basic Sanitation

Definition

This indicator refers to the percentage of the population living in a dwelling without an indoor flushing toilet for the sole use of the household. Flushing toilets outside the dwelling are not considered, but flushing toilets in a room where there is also a shower unit or a bath are included. The data sources are detailed in the figure note. Figure A.18 and Table A.10 show average values over the years 2005-10 and 2011-15, due to an incomplete time series in several countries.

Figure A.18. **Dwellings without basic sanitary facilities**

Percentage of people living in dwellings without an indoor flushing toilet for the sole use of their household, 2015 or latest available year



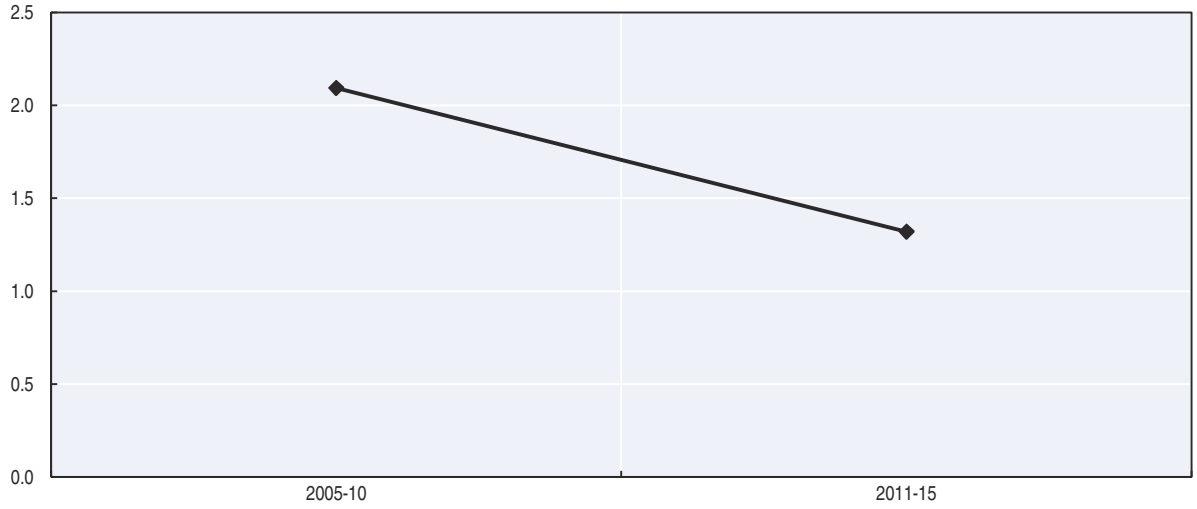
Note: The latest available year is 2016 for Costa Rica, Finland, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania and South Africa; 2014 for the Russian Federation; 2013 for the United States; 2010 for Korea and Mexico; 2001 for Chile; and 1997 for Canada. The OECD average is population-weighted and excludes Australia, Israel and New Zealand.

Source: European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC) *http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/portal/page/portal/microdata/eu_silc for EU countries*, Norway, Switzerland and Turkey; Universo do Censo Demográfico 2010 for Brazil; Canadian Household Facilities and Equipment Survey for Canada; INE Censo 2002 for Chile; Household and Multiple Purpose Survey of Costa Rica for data before 2010 and National Household Survey from 2010; Housing and Land Survey of Japan for Japan; Population and Housing Census for Korea; INEGI Censo de Población y Vivienda 2010 for Mexico; ROSSTAT Income, Expenditure and Consumption of Households statistical report for the Russian Federation; and American Housing Survey for the United States.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933597484

Figure A.19. **Dwellings without basic sanitary facilities, OECD average**

Percentage of people living in dwellings without an indoor flushing toilet for the sole use of their household, OECD 26



Note: The OECD average is population-weighted; it excludes Australia, Canada, Chile, Israel, Japan, Korea, Mexico, New Zealand and the United Kingdom, due to incomplete time series for these countries.

Source: European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC) *http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/portal/page/portal/microdata/eu_silc for EU countries*, Norway, Switzerland and Turkey; Canadian Household Facilities and Equipment Survey for Canada; INE Censo 2002 for Chile; Housing and Land Survey for Japan; Population and Housing Census for Korea; INEGI Censo de Población y Vivienda 2010 for Mexico; and American Housing Survey for the United States.

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933597503*

Further reading:

Balestra, C. and J. Sultan (2013), "Home Sweet Home: The Determinants of Residential Satisfaction and its Relation with Well-being", *OECD Statistics Working Papers*, No. 2013/05, OECD Publishing, Paris, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/5jzbcx0czc0x-en*.

OECD (2011b), "Housing conditions", in *OECD, How's Life? Measuring Well-being*, OECD Publishing, Paris, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264121164-6-en*.

Table A.10. **Dwellings without basic sanitary facilities**

Percentage of people living in dwellings without an indoor flushing toilet for the sole use of their household

		2005-10	2011-15		Latest available
Australia	AUS	..	..	AUS	..
Austria	AUT	1.3	1.0	AUT	1.0
Belgium	BEL	0.8	2.0	BEL	2.3
Canada	CAN	..	..	CAN	0.2
Chile	CHL	..	..	CHL	9.4
Czech Republic	CZE	1.2	0.8	CZE	0.6
Denmark	DNK	0.0	0.5	DNK	0.6
Estonia	EST	14.1	8.8	EST	6.9
Finland	FIN	0.8	0.6	FIN	0.5
France	FRA	0.9	0.5	FRA	0.5
Germany	DEU	1.3	0.4	DEU	0.1
Greece	GRC	2.6	0.6	GRC	0.5
Hungary	HUN	6.8	4.8	HUN	4.3
Iceland	ISL	0.4	0.0	ISL	0.0
Ireland	IRL	0.4	1.8	IRL	0.1
Israel	ISR	..	..	ISR	..
Italy	ITA	0.2	0.7	ITA	0.6
Japan	JPN	6.4	..	JPN	6.4
Korea	KOR	5.8	..	KOR	4.2
Latvia	LVA	18.8	14.9	LVA	12.9
Luxembourg	LUX	0.6	0.2	LUX	0.0
Mexico	MEX	5.5	..	MEX	4.2
Netherlands	NLD	0.0	0.0	NLD	0.0
New Zealand	NZL	..	..	NZL	..
Norway	NOR	0.2	0.1	NOR	0.0
Poland	POL	5.9	3.3	POL	2.7
Portugal	PRT	2.8	1.0	PRT	1.0
Slovak Republic	SVK	0.9	1.2	SVK	1.4
Slovenia	SVN	1.0	0.5	SVN	0.3
Spain	ESP	0.2	0.1	ESP	0.1
Sweden	SWE	0.0	0.0	SWE	0.0
Switzerland	CHE	0.1	0.1	CHE	0.0
Turkey	TUR	13.2	8.2	TUR	6.5
United Kingdom	GBR	0.7	..	GBR	0.4
United States	USA	0.1	0.1	USA	0.1
OECD	OECD 26	2.1	1.3	OECD 32	2.1
Brazil	BRA	6.7	..	BRA	6.7
Costa Rica	CRI	3.8	2.4	CRI	2.2
Lithuania	LTU	20.6	14.2	LTU	12.4
Russian Federation	RUS	18.8	14.8	RUS	13.8
South Africa	ZAF	41.3	38.0	ZAF	37.0

Note: The 2005-10 value for Switzerland refers to 2008-10; for Austria and the Slovak Republic it refers to 2009-10. The 2011-15 value refers to 2011-13 for Estonia, due to a break in the series in 2008, 2009 and 2014 respectively; it refers to 2011-16 for Costa Rica, Finland, Hungary and Latvia. Data for Brazil, Canada and Korea refer to the percentage of households. Data for Mexico refer to the percentage of people living in private dwellings without toilet; those for the Russian Federation refer to the percentage of households with no flushing toilets; those for South Africa refer to the percentage of households not having access to a flushing toilet connected to public sewerage system or septic tank; and those for the United States to the percentage of total occupied dwellings with no flush toilet. The latest available year is 2016 for Costa Rica, Finland, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania and South Africa; 2014 for the Russian Federation; 2013 for the United States; 2010 for Korea and Mexico; 2001 for Chile; 1997 for Canada; and 2015 for all the other countries. The OECD average is population-weighted; its time series excludes Australia, Canada, Chile, Israel, Japan, Korea, Mexico, New Zealand and the United Kingdom, due to incomplete data for these countries. The OECD average for the latest available year excludes Australia, Israel and New Zealand.

Source: European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC) *http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/portal/page/portal/microdata/eu_silc for EU countries*, Norway, Switzerland and Turkey; Universo do Censo Demográfico 2010 for Brazil; Canadian Household Facilities and Equipment Survey for Canada; INE Censo 2002 for Chile; Household and Multiple Purpose Survey of Costa Rica for data before 2010, and National Household Survey from 2010 for Costa Rica; Housing and Land Survey for Japan; Population and Housing Census for Korea; INEGI Censo de Población y Vivienda 2010 for Mexico; ROSSTAT Income, Expenditure and Consumption of Households statistical report for the Russian Federation; and American Housing Survey for the United States.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933599821

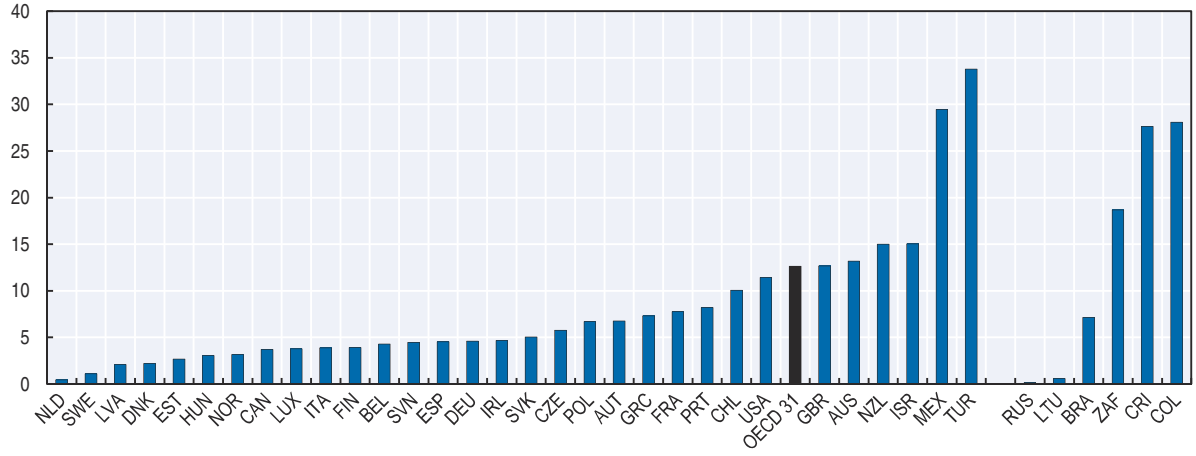
WORK AND LIFE BALANCE: Working hours

Definition

This indicator refers to the number of employees whose usual working hours are 50 hours or more per week, expressed as a percentage of the total number of employees of all ages. The indicator excludes self-employed workers. The threshold is set at 50 hours because, after commuting, unpaid work and basic needs (such as sleeping and eating) are taken into account, workers routinely working more than 50 hours per week are likely to be left with very few hours (one or two per day) for other activities. Moreover, in countries where there is a regulation on maximum working time, this is generally limited to 48 hours per week. Data come from National Labour Force Surveys and are broadly comparable across countries.

Figure A.20. **Employees working very long hours**

Percentage of employees who usually work 50 hours or more per week, 2016 or latest available year



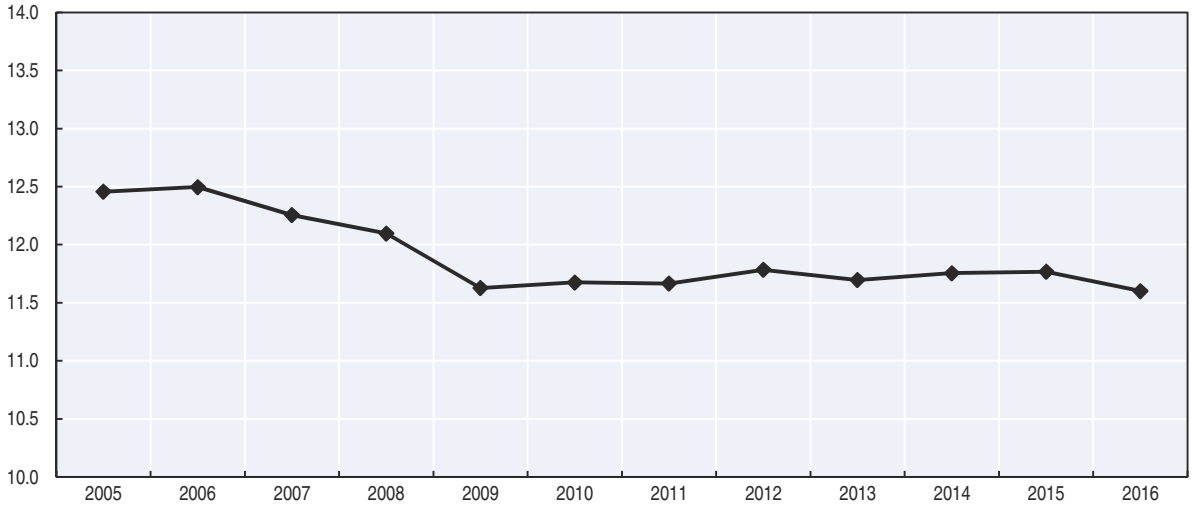
Note: Data refer to the percentage of all employees usually working 50 hours or more per week, except for the Russian Federation for which data refer to people who worked 51 hours or more. The jobs covered are the main job for Canada, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, the Czech Republic, Finland, Hungary, Latvia, Mexico, Portugal, the Slovak Republic, Sweden and Turkey; and all jobs for all the other countries. Employees whose weekly usual hours worked vary from one week to another are excluded. Extra hours worked are not included in Canada, Chile, Hungary and Norway if they are not contractual; while they are included only if regular in Australia, Mexico, New Zealand, the Russian Federation, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey and the United States. The main meal break is excluded for Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Estonia, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Portugal, the Slovak Republic, Slovenia, Spain and the United Kingdom. Details are not available for Brazil. The latest available year is 2015 for Brazil. The OECD average is population weighted and excludes Iceland, Japan, Korea and Switzerland.

Source: OECD calculations based on "Labour Force Statistics", OECD Employment and Labour Market Statistics (database), *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/lfs-lfs-data-en*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933597522

Figure A.21. **Employees working very long hours, OECD average**

Percentage of employees usually working 50 hours or more per week, OECD 24



Note: Data refer to the percentage of all employees usually working 50 hours or more per week, except for the Russian Federation for which data refer to people who worked 51 hours or more. The jobs covered are the main job for Canada, Chile, the Czech Republic, Finland, Hungary, Latvia, Mexico, Portugal, the Slovak Republic, Sweden and Turkey; and all jobs for all the other countries. Employees whose usual hours worked vary from one week to another are excluded. Extra hours worked are not included in Canada, Chile, Hungary and Norway if they are not contractual; they are included only if regular in Australia, Mexico, New Zealand, the Russian Federation, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey and the United States. The main meal break is excluded for Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Estonia, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Portugal, the Slovak Republic, Slovenia, Spain and the United Kingdom. Details are not available for Brazil. The OECD average is population-weighted; it excludes Chile, Germany, Iceland, Israel, Japan, Korea, New Zealand, Norway, Portugal, Switzerland and Turkey due to an incomplete time series and/or breaks in the data for these countries.

Source: OECD calculations based on "Labour Force Statistics", OECD Employment and Labour Market Statistics (database), *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/lfs-lfs-data-en*.

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933597541*

Table A.11. **Employees working very long hours**

Percentage of employees usually working 50 hours or more per week

		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016		Latest available
Australia	AUS	15.3	14.8	14.9	14.9	14.3	14.0	14.2	14.3	14.1	13.4	13.5	13.2	AUS	13.2
Austria	AUT	11.0	10.7	10.8	10.5	9.5	9.0	8.7	8.5	7.6	7.3	7.2	6.8	AUT	6.8
Belgium	BEL	4.4	4.3	4.6	4.3	4.2	4.5	4.4	4.4	4.6	4.7	4.3	4.3	BEL	4.3
Canada	CAN	4.7	4.6	4.4	4.2	3.9	3.9	4.1	4.0	4.0	3.8	3.8	3.7	CAN	3.7
Chile	CHL	7.2	9.7	8.2	8.1	8.5	17.3	16.3	15.4	13.5	13.2	11.3	10.1	CHL	10.1
Czech Republic	CZE	9.0	8.8	9.4	9.6	9.3	8.8	7.6	7.2	7.0	6.0	6.1	5.8	CZE	5.8
Denmark	DNK	5.7	5.5	2.5	2.2	1.9	2.0	2.0	2.1	2.0	2.2	2.5	2.2	DNK	2.2
Estonia	EST	5.1	5.5	5.1	3.6	3.0	3.7	4.2	3.7	3.4	3.4	3.4	2.7	EST	2.7
Finland	FIN	4.5	4.5	4.0	3.9	3.6	3.9	3.9	3.7	3.6	3.6	3.7	3.9	FIN	3.9
France	FRA	8.3	8.0	8.0	8.4	8.6	8.6	8.9	8.7	8.1	7.6	7.6	7.8	FRA	7.8
Germany	DEU	4.5	4.7	4.6	4.8	5.3	5.1	5.4	5.6	5.3	5.0	4.8	4.6	DEU	4.6
Greece	GRC	6.6	6.0	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.1	5.2	5.6	6.1	6.4	6.5	7.3	GRC	7.3
Hungary	HUN	4.6	4.4	4.3	3.9	3.4	3.2	3.1	2.9	3.2	3.8	3.8	3.0	HUN	3.0
Iceland	ISL	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	ISL	..
Ireland	IRL	4.7	4.2	4.0	3.7	3.4	3.7	3.9	4.2	4.2	4.1	4.6	4.7	IRL	4.7
Israel	ISR	22.0	21.9	22.9	21.2	18.8	19.1	17.8	19.0	16.1	14.8	15.1	15.0	ISR	15.0
Italy	ITA	5.4	5.8	5.4	5.3	4.6	4.6	4.0	3.7	3.6	3.8	3.9	3.9	ITA	3.9
Japan	JPN	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	JPN	..
Korea	KOR	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	KOR	..
Latvia	LVA	11.5	11.5	8.3	5.8	4.6	2.5	2.3	2.6	2.3	2.5	2.4	2.1	LVA	2.1
Luxembourg	LUX	1.3	0.4	0.0	0.1	3.5	3.7	2.6	3.2	3.5	3.3	3.7	3.8	LUX	3.8
Mexico	MEX	29.2	29.4	29.2	29.4	29.1	29.4	28.7	29.0	29.0	28.8	29.6	29.5	MEX	29.5
Netherlands	NLD	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	NLD	0.5
New Zealand	NZL	15.7	14.9	14.7	14.2	13.4	13.8	13.3	13.3	14.1	14.0	13.6	15.0	NZL	15.0
Norway	NOR	3.1	3.5	3.5	3.2	3.0	2.7	2.8	3.1	2.8	3.1	3.2	3.2	NOR	3.2
Poland	POL	10.0	9.3	9.1	8.6	7.6	7.4	7.3	7.6	7.4	7.3	6.9	6.7	POL	6.7
Portugal	PRT	5.3	4.9	5.2	5.6	5.2	5.4	8.5	9.3	9.6	9.8	8.8	8.2	PRT	8.2
Slovak Republic	SVK	6.3	6.9	7.1	7.1	5.7	5.4	6.1	6.5	7.0	6.2	5.6	5.0	SVK	5.0
Slovenia	SVN	8.5	7.8	7.7	8.2	6.8	6.1	5.6	5.7	5.6	5.5	5.4	4.5	SVN	4.5
Spain	ESP	8.6	8.3	7.8	7.4	6.9	6.6	6.3	5.9	5.9	5.6	5.2	4.5	ESP	4.5
Sweden	SWE	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	SWE	1.1
Switzerland	CHE	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	CHE	..
Turkey	TUR	..	49.7	47.4	46.2	45.3	45.6	46.1	43.3	40.9	39.2	36.7	33.8	TUR	33.8
United Kingdom	GBR	13.0	12.6	12.7	12.6	12.0	11.8	12.2	12.4	12.8	13.0	13.0	12.7	GBR	12.7
United States	USA	11.8	12.1	11.7	11.4	10.8	11.0	11.3	11.6	11.4	11.8	11.6	11.4	USA	11.4
OECD	OECD 24	12.5	12.5	12.3	12.1	11.6	11.7	11.7	11.8	11.7	11.8	11.8	11.6	OECD 31	12.6
Brazil	BRA	15.5	15.0	14.5	13.8	12.5	..	10.7	10.4	9.5	8.5	7.1	..	BRA	7.1
Colombia	COL	37.1	..	36.5	34.4	33.6	35.0	35.4	34.3	33.4	30.6	29.2	28.1	COL	28.1
Costa Rica	CRI	..	..	..	..	..	32.8	28.1	26.5	27.0	27.1	28.6	27.6	CRI	27.6
Lithuania	LTU	1.4	1.2	1.2	1.3	0.8	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.2	0.5	0.6	0.6	LTU	0.6
Russian Federation	RUS	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	RUS	0.2
South Africa	ZAF	..	..	..	23.8	20.7	19.5	19.2	18.7	18.5	18.1	18.4	18.7	ZAF	18.7

Note: Data refer to the percentage of all employees usually working 50 hours or more per week, except for the Russian Federation for which data refer to people who worked 51 hours or more. The jobs covered are the main job for Canada, Chile, the Czech Republic, Finland, Hungary, Latvia, Mexico, Portugal, the Slovak Republic, Sweden and Turkey; and all jobs for all the other countries. Employees whose weekly usual hours worked vary from one week to another are excluded. Extra hours worked are not included in Canada, Chile, Hungary and Norway if not contractual; they are included only if regular in Australia, Mexico, New Zealand, the Russian Federation, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey and the United States. The main meal break is excluded for Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Estonia, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Portugal, the Slovak Republic, Slovenia, Spain and the United Kingdom. Details are not available for Brazil. Due to a redesign of the survey, there is a break in 2010 for Chile and in 2011 for Germany and Portugal. In 2006 in Norway there was a change in the definition of unemployment. In 2012 Israel changed the definition of labour force from "civilian" to "total" (including those who are in compulsory or permanent military service). Cells before a break are highlighted in grey, as the data are not comparable with later years. The OECD average is population-weighted; its time-series exclude Chile, Germany, Iceland, Israel, Japan, Korea, New Zealand, Norway, Portugal, Switzerland and Turkey, due to incomplete time series for these countries. The latest available year excludes Iceland, Japan, Korea and Switzerland.

Source: OECD calculations based on "Labour Force Statistics", OECD Employment and Labour Market Statistics (database), *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/lfs-lfs-data-en*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933599840

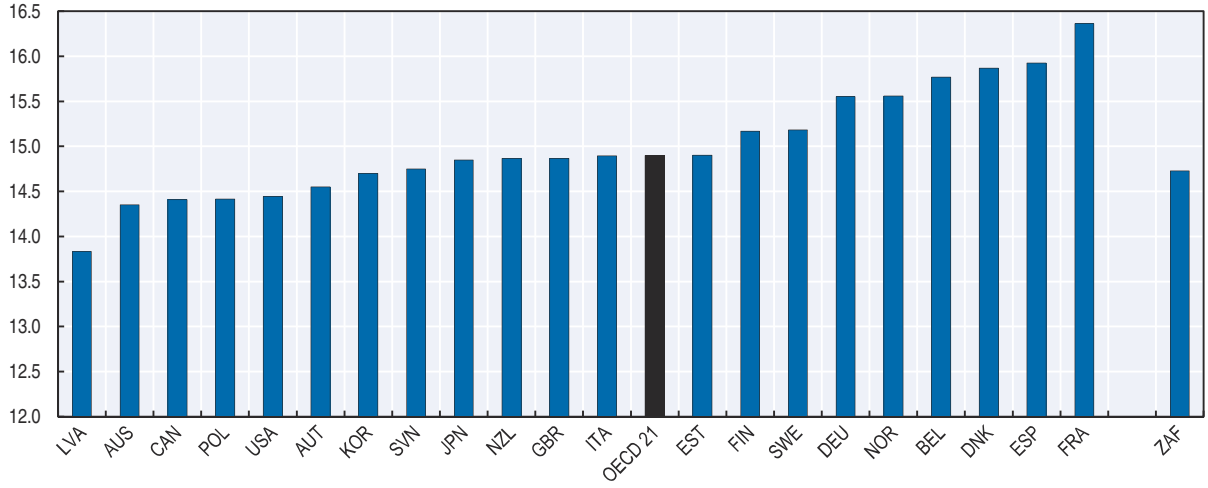
WORK AND LIFE BALANCE: Time off

Definition

This indicator refers to the number of hours that people in full-time employment devote to leisure and personal care. The values shown refer to a typical day and to full-time employed people only, in order to improve comparability across countries where employment rates differ. The information is collected through national Time Use Surveys, which require participants keeping a diary of their activities over one or several representative days for a given period. Activities considered under the definition of "time devoted to leisure and personal care" include sleep, eating, hygiene, exercise, time spent with friends and family, and travel time devoted to leisure and personal care. For some countries and some specific types of activities, the comparability of these surveys is limited. The data shown here have been harmonised *ex post* by the OECD. Data are sourced from the Harmonised European Time Use Survey, the Eurostat time use database, public-use time use survey micro-data, and tabulations from National Statistical Offices.

Figure A.22. **Time devoted to leisure and personal care**

Hours per day, people in full-time employment, latest available year



Note: Data refer to 2016 for the United States; 2014-15 for the United Kingdom; 2011 for Japan; 2010 for Canada, Norway and South Africa; 2009-10 for Estonia, Finland, France, New Zealand, Spain; 2009 for Korea; 2008-09 for Austria and Italy; 2006 for Australia; 2005 for Belgium; 2003-04 for Poland; 2001-02 for Germany; 2001 for Denmark; and 2000-01 for Slovenia and Sweden. Data have been normalised to 1 440 minutes per day: in other words, for those countries for which the time use did not sum up to 1440 minutes, the missing or extra minutes (around 30-40 minutes usually) were proportionally distributed across all activities. Data for Hungary, Ireland, Portugal, Turkey and South Africa were excluded as they also include part-time workers. Survey samples include people aged 12 or more in New Zealand; 15 or more in Austria, Canada, Denmark, Finland, France, Italy, Japan, Spain and the United States; 20 to 74 years old in Belgium, Germany, Norway, Poland, Slovenia, Sweden; and 20 or more in Korea. As there is no specific question in the survey to identify full-time employed people in Canada, Japan, Korea and the United States, they have been defined on the basis of the minimum number of hours worked per week, which is set at 30, 35, 36 and 35 respectively. The OECD average is population-weighted; it excludes Chile, the Czech Republic, Greece, Hungary, Iceland, Ireland, Israel, Luxembourg, Mexico, the Netherlands, Portugal, the Slovak Republic, Switzerland and Turkey.

Source: OECD calculations based on the Harmonised European Time Use Survey web application for European countries (*www.tus.scb.se*); Eurostat database, *http://appsso.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/nui/show.do?dataset=tus_00selfstat&lang=en*; and public-use time use survey micro-data and tabulations from National Statistical Offices for non-European countries.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933597560

Table A.12. **Time devoted to leisure and personal care**

Hours per day, people in full-time employment, latest available year

		Latest available
Australia	AUS	14.4
Austria	AUT	14.6
Belgium	BEL	15.8
Canada	CAN	14.4
Chile	CHL	..
Czech Republic	CZE	..
Denmark	DNK	15.9
Estonia	EST	14.9
Finland	FIN	15.2
France	FRA	16.4
Germany	DEU	15.6
Greece	GRC	..
Hungary	HUN	..
Iceland	ISL	..
Ireland	IRL	..
Israel	ISR	..
Italy	ITA	14.9
Japan	JPN	14.9
Korea	KOR	14.7
Latvia	LVA	13.8
Luxembourg	LUX	..
Mexico	MEX	..
Netherlands	NLD	..
New Zealand	NZL	14.9
Norway	NOR	15.6
Poland	POL	14.4
Portugal	PRT	..
Slovak Republic	SVK	..
Slovenia	SVN	14.8
Spain	ESP	15.9
Sweden	SWE	15.2
Switzerland	CHE	..
Turkey	TUR	..
United Kingdom	GBR	14.9
United States	USA	14.4
OECD	OECD 21	14.9
South Africa	ZAF	14.7

Note: Data refer to 2016 for the United States; 2014-15 for the United Kingdom; 2011 for Japan; 2010 for Canada, Norway and South Africa; 2009-10 for Estonia, Finland, France, New Zealand, Spain; 2009 for Korea; 2008-09 for Austria and Italy; 2006 for Australia; 2005 for Belgium; 2003-04 for Poland; 2001-02 for Germany; 2001 for Denmark; and 2000-01 for Slovenia and Sweden. Data have been normalised to 1440 minutes per day: in other words, for those countries for which the time use did not sum up to 1440 minutes, the missing or extra minutes (around 30-40 minutes usually) were proportionally distributed across all activities. Data for Hungary, Ireland, Portugal, Turkey and South Africa were excluded as they also include part-time employed. Survey samples include people aged 12 or more in New Zealand; 15 or more in Austria, Canada, Denmark, Finland, France, Italy, Japan, Spain and the United States; 20 to 74 years old in Belgium, Germany, Norway, Poland, Slovenia, Sweden; and 20 or more in Korea. As there is no specific question in the survey to identify full-time employed people in Canada, Japan, Korea and the United States, they have been defined on the basis of the minimum number of hours worked per week, which is set at 30, 35, 36 and 35 respectively. The OECD average is population-weighted; it excludes Chile, the Czech Republic, Greece, Hungary, Iceland, Ireland, Israel, Luxembourg, Mexico, the Netherlands, Portugal, the Slovak Republic, Switzerland and Turkey.

Source: OECD calculations based on the Harmonised European Time Use Survey web application for European countries (*www.tus.scb.se*); Eurostat database, *http://appsso.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/nui/show.do?dataset=tus_00selfstat&lang=en*; and public-use time use survey micro-data and tabulations from National Statistical Offices for non-European countries.

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933599859*

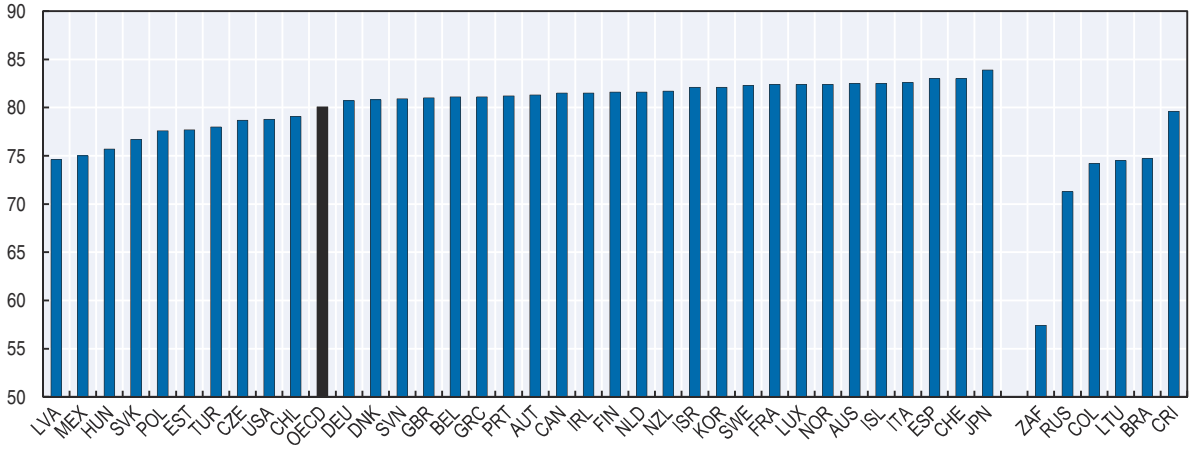
HEALTH STATUS: Life expectancy

Definition

This indicator measures the average number of years that people born today could expect to live, based on currently prevailing age-specific death rates. Life expectancy at birth for the population as a whole is computed as a weighted average of life expectancy for men and women. The data are based on official national statistics and calculations by Eurostat, compiled by the OECD and available in the OECD Health Statistics Database.

Figure A.23. **Life expectancy at birth**

Years, 2015 or latest available year

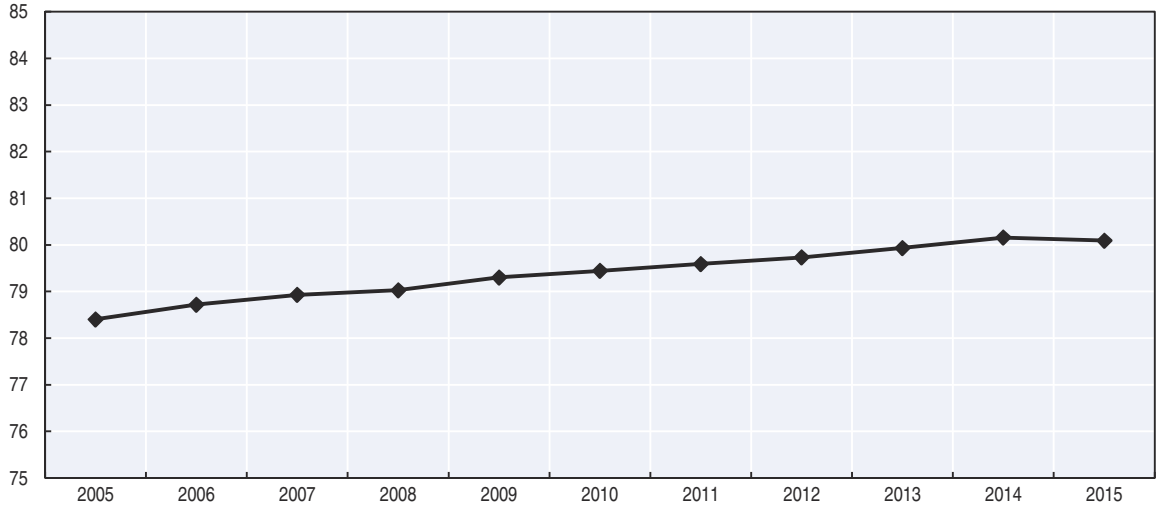


Note: The latest available year is 2012 for Canada. The OECD average is population-weighted.
Source: "Health status", OECD Health Statistics (database), *http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=HEALTH_STAT*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933597579

Figure A.24. **Life expectancy at birth, OECD average**

Years, OECD 27



Note: The OECD average is population-weighted; it excludes Belgium, Canada, Hungary, Israel, Luxembourg, Poland, Slovenia and Turkey, due to incomplete time series for these countries.
Source: "Health status", OECD Health Statistics (database), *http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=HEALTH_STAT*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933597598

Table A.13. **Life expectancy at birth**

Years

		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015		Latest available
Australia	AUS	80.9	81.1	81.4	81.5	81.6	81.8	82.0	82.1	82.2	82.4	82.5	AUS	82.5
Austria	AUT	79.4	80.0	80.3	80.5	80.4	80.7	81.1	81.0	81.2	81.6	81.3	AUT	81.3
Belgium	BEL	79.1	79.5	79.9	79.8	80.1	80.3	80.7	80.5	80.7	81.4	81.1	BEL	81.1
Canada	CAN	80.1	80.4	80.4	80.6	80.8	81.0	81.3	81.5	..	..	..	CAN	81.5
Chile	CHL	77.6	78.0	77.5	78.1	78.2	78.0	78.7	78.7	79.5	79.7	79.1	CHL	79.1
Czech Republic	CZE	76.1	76.7	77.0	77.3	77.4	77.7	78.0	78.2	78.3	78.9	78.7	CZE	78.7
Denmark	DNK	78.3	78.4	78.4	78.8	79.0	79.3	79.9	80.1	80.4	80.8	80.8	DNK	80.8
Estonia	EST	72.9	73.1	73.2	74.2	75.2	75.9	76.4	76.5	77.3	77.2	77.7	EST	77.7
Finland	FIN	79.1	79.5	79.6	79.9	80.1	80.2	80.6	80.7	81.1	81.3	81.6	FIN	81.6
France	FRA	80.4	81.0	81.2	81.4	81.5	81.8	82.3	82.1	82.3	82.8	82.4	FRA	82.4
Germany	DEU	79.4	79.8	80.1	80.2	80.3	80.5	80.5	80.6	80.6	81.2	80.7	DEU	80.7
Greece	GRC	79.7	79.9	79.7	80.3	80.4	80.7	80.8	80.7	81.4	81.5	81.1	GRC	81.1
Hungary	HUN	73.0	73.5	73.6	74.2	74.4	74.7	75.0	75.2	75.7	75.9	75.7	HUN	75.7
Iceland	ISL	81.6	81.2	81.5	81.7	81.8	82.0	82.4	83.0	82.1	82.9	82.5	ISL	82.5
Ireland	IRL	79.0	79.3	79.7	80.2	80.3	80.8	80.8	80.9	81.1	81.4	81.5	IRL	81.5
Israel	ISR	80.2	80.6	80.6	81.0	81.5	81.7	81.7	81.8	82.1	82.2	82.1	ISR	82.1
Italy	ITA	80.9	81.4	81.5	81.6	81.7	82.1	82.3	82.3	82.8	83.2	82.6	ITA	82.6
Japan	JPN	82.0	82.4	82.6	82.7	83.0	82.9	82.7	83.2	83.4	83.7	83.9	JPN	83.9
Korea	KOR	78.2	78.8	79.2	79.6	80.0	80.2	80.6	80.9	81.4	81.8	82.1	KOR	82.1
Latvia	LVA	70.6	70.6	70.8	72.0	72.6	73.0	73.7	73.9	74.1	74.3	74.6	LVA	74.6
Luxembourg	LUX	79.5	79.4	79.5	80.6	80.7	80.7	81.1	81.5	81.9	82.3	82.4	LUX	82.4
Mexico	MEX	74.0	74.1	74.2	74.1	74.0	74.1	74.2	74.4	74.6	74.8	75.0	MEX	75.0
Netherlands	NLD	79.5	79.9	80.3	80.5	80.8	81.0	81.3	81.2	81.4	81.8	81.6	NLD	81.6
New Zealand	NZL	79.8	80.1	80.3	80.5	80.7	80.8	81.0	81.2	81.4	81.5	81.7	NZL	81.7
Norway	NOR	80.3	80.6	80.6	80.8	81.0	81.2	81.4	81.5	81.8	82.2	82.4	NOR	82.4
Poland	POL	75.1	75.3	75.4	75.7	75.8	76.5	76.8	76.9	77.1	77.7	77.6	POL	77.6
Portugal	PRT	78.2	79.0	79.2	79.5	79.7	80.0	80.6	80.5	80.8	81.2	81.2	PRT	81.2
Slovak Republic	SVK	74.2	74.4	74.5	75.0	75.3	75.6	76.1	76.2	76.5	76.9	76.7	SVK	76.7
Slovenia	SVN	77.4	78.3	78.3	79.1	79.3	79.8	80.1	80.2	80.4	81.2	80.9	SVN	80.9
Spain	ESP	80.3	81.1	81.2	81.5	81.9	82.4	82.6	82.5	83.2	83.3	83.0	ESP	83.0
Sweden	SWE	80.7	81.0	81.1	81.3	81.5	81.6	81.9	81.8	82.0	82.3	82.3	SWE	82.3
Switzerland	CHE	81.4	81.7	82.0	82.2	82.3	82.6	82.8	82.8	82.9	83.3	83.0	CHE	83.0
Turkey	TUR	73.1	73.4	73.7	73.9	74.1	74.3	74.6	74.6	78.0	78.0	78.0	TUR	78.0
United Kingdom	GBR	79.2	79.5	79.7	79.8	80.4	80.6	81.0	81.0	81.1	81.4	81.0	GBR	81.0
United States	USA	77.6	77.8	78.1	78.1	78.5	78.6	78.7	78.8	78.8	78.9	78.8	USA	78.8
OECD	OECD 27	78.4	78.7	78.9	79.0	79.3	79.4	79.6	79.7	79.9	80.2	80.1	OECD	80.1
Brazil	BRA	71.8	72.1	72.4	72.7	73.0	73.3	73.6	73.8	74.1	74.4	74.7	BRA	74.7
Colombia	COL	72.3	72.5	72.7	72.9	73.1	73.3	73.5	73.6	73.8	74.0	74.2	COL	74.2
Costa Rica	CRI	78.1	78.2	78.3	78.5	78.6	78.7	78.9	79.1	79.2	79.4	79.6	CRI	79.6
Lithuania	LTU	71.3	71.1	70.9	71.8	72.9	73.3	73.7	74.0	74.1	74.7	74.5	LTU	74.5
Russian Federation	RUS	65.7	66.9	67.7	68.1	68.8	69.0	69.8	70.2	70.7	70.9	71.3	RUS	71.3
South Africa	ZAF	51.6	51.6	52.0	52.6	53.5	54.4	55.3	56.1	56.7	57.2	57.4	ZAF	57.4

Note: There is a break in 2007 for Canada, 2008 for Slovenia, 2009 for Israel and Poland, 2011 for Belgium, 2012 for Hungary and Luxembourg, 2013 for Turkey and 2014 for the Russian Federation. Cells before a break are highlighted in grey, as the data are not comparable with later years. The OECD average is population-weighted; its time series excludes Belgium, Canada, Hungary, Israel, Luxembourg, Poland, Slovenia and Turkey, due to breaks and/or incomplete data for these countries. The average for the latest available year considers all OECD countries.
Source: "Health status", OECD Health Statistics (database), *http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=HEALTH_STAT*.

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933599878*

Further reading:

OECD (2017), *Health at a Glance 2017: OECD Indicators*, OECD Publishing, Paris, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/health_glance-2017-en*.

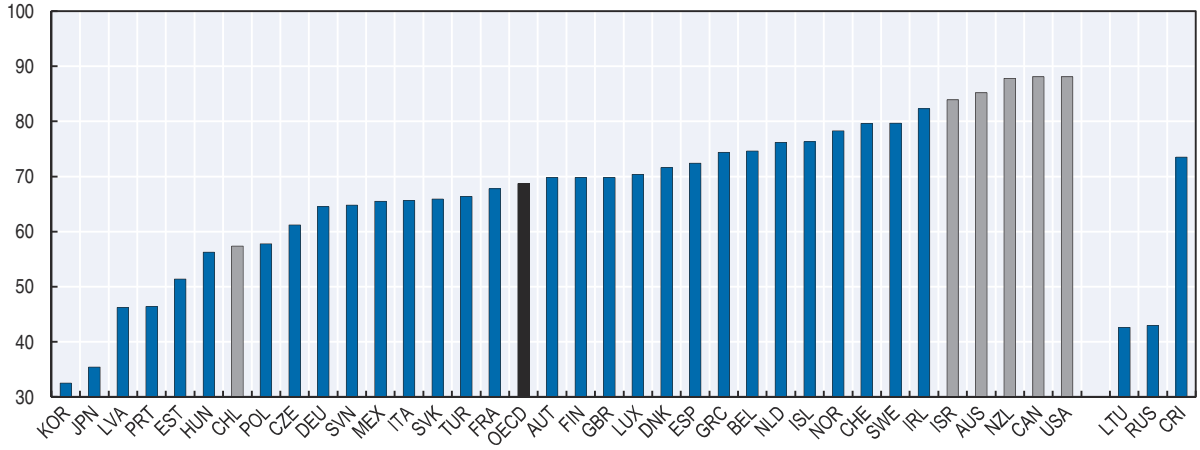
HEALTH STATUS: Perceived health

Definition

This indicator refers to the percentage of the population aged 16 and over who report being in "good" or "very good" health. The indicator is based on the following question: "How is your health in general?" with, in most countries, response categories of the type, "very good/ good/ fair/ bad/ very bad". Some cross-country differences in the measurement methodology (for example, the use of different response scales) can limit comparability across countries, as explained in the note for Figure A.25. Data are compiled as part of the OECD Health Statistics Database, and are drawn from European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC), general household surveys or more detailed health interviews undertaken as part of national official surveys in various countries.

Figure A.25. **Perceived health status**

Percentage of adults reporting "good" or "very good" health, 2015 or latest available year



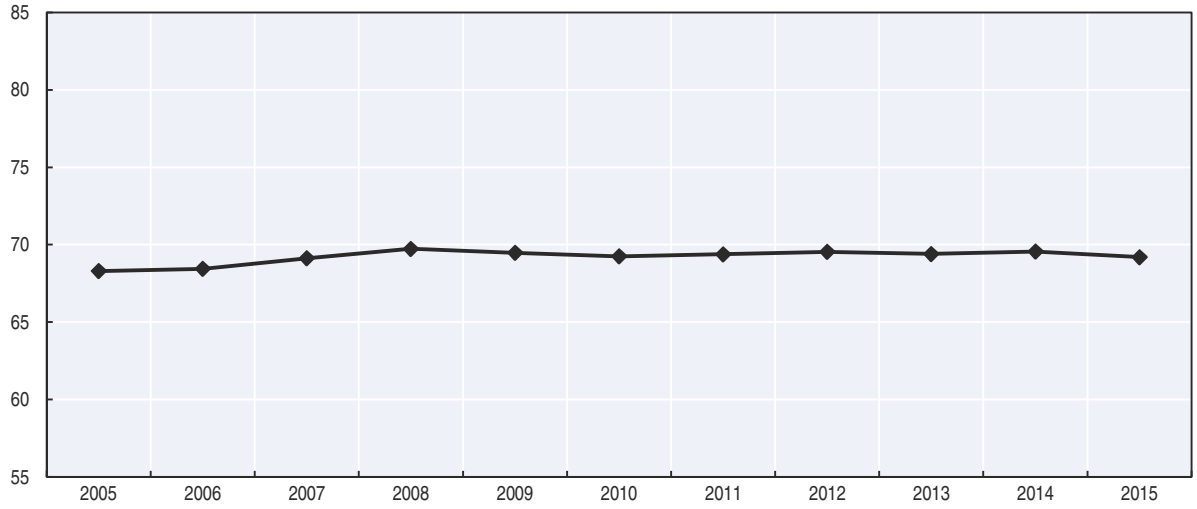
Note: Adults are generally defined as people aged 16 years and over. Data for Australia, Canada, Costa Rica, Chile, Japan, Korea, Lithuania, Mexico, New Zealand, the Russian Federation, Turkey and the United States refer to people aged 15 years and over; and data for Israel refer to people aged 20 years and over. The latest available year is 2016 for New Zealand; 2014 for Australia, Canada; 2013 for Japan; and 2006 for Mexico. Data for Australia, Canada, Chile, Israel, New Zealand and the United States (shown in grey) are not directly comparable with those for other countries, due to a difference in the reporting scales used, which may lead to an upward bias in the reported estimates. The OECD average is population-weighted.

Source: OECD calculations based on "Health status", OECD Health Statistics (database), *http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=HEALTH_STAT* and INEC calculations based on the National Health Survey for Costa Rica.

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933597617*

Figure A.26. **Perceived health status, OECD average**

Percentage of adults reporting "good" or "very good" health, OECD 32



Note: Adults are generally defined as people aged 16 years and over. Data for Australia, Canada, Costa Rica, Chile, Japan, Korea, Lithuania, Mexico, New Zealand, the Russian Federation, Turkey and the United States refer to people aged 15 years and over; and data for Israel refer to people aged 20 years and over. The OECD average time series has been estimated by interpolating missing data points in the time series for some countries; in these cases, missing data have been replaced by the average of the closest preceding and following year. Countries have only been included in the OECD average if the times series contains at least 3 data points, and at least one of them refers to 2014 or 2013. The OECD average is population-weighted and excludes Chile and Switzerland (due to a break in the time series), and Mexico (for which only two data points are available).

Source: OECD calculations based on "Health status", OECD Health Statistics (database), *http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=HEALTH_STAT*.

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933597636*

Table A.14. **Perceived health status**

Percentage of adults reporting "good" or "very good" health

		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016		2005 or closest available	2015 or latest available
Australia	AUS	..	..	84.9	..	..	..	85.4	..	..	85.2	..	..	AUS	84.9	85.2
Austria	AUT	71.7	72.0	72.3	70.0	70.0	69.6	69.4	70.0	68.6	69.5	69.8	..	AUT	71.7	69.8
Belgium	BEL	73.1	74.3	74.0	73.9	73.5	73.0	73.5	74.5	74.3	75.0	74.6	..	BEL	73.1	74.6
Canada	CAN	88.4	..	88.2	88.1	88.5	88.1	88.2	88.8	88.7	88.1	..	..	CAN	88.4	88.1
Chile	CHL	..	52.6	..	..	59.1	..	..	..	64.5	..	57.4	..	CHL	64.5	57.4
Czech Republic	CZE	58.9	59.2	61.2	61.4	61.3	62.2	59.4	60.4	59.6	60.7	61.2	..	CZE	58.9	61.2
Denmark	DNK	76.6	75.0	75.3	74.2	72.3	71.0	70.8	70.7	71.7	72.4	71.6	..	DNK	76.6	71.6
Estonia	EST	53.8	53.2	53.3	54.5	51.5	52.7	51.8	52.4	53.4	51.8	51.4	..	EST	53.8	51.4
Finland	FIN	68.5	68.7	68.3	68.6	68.9	68.3	68.8	67.1	64.6	69.2	69.8	..	FIN	68.5	69.8
France	FRA	68.7	69.3	71.1	69.1	68.6	67.3	67.6	68.1	67.2	68.1	67.8	..	FRA	68.7	67.8
Germany	DEU	60.1	60.5	59.8	64.5	65.2	65.2	64.8	65.4	64.9	65.2	64.5	..	DEU	60.1	64.5
Greece	GRC	77.4	76.7	76.6	76.0	75.3	75.5	76.4	74.9	73.9	73.5	74.4	..	GRC	77.4	74.4
Hungary	HUN	45.3	48.0	46.6	55.1	55.9	55.0	55.9	57.6	56.9	57.5	56.3	..	HUN	45.3	56.3
Iceland	ISL	79.5	80.9	79.2	80.5	80.3	77.8	77.6	76.8	76.6	76.1	76.3	..	ISL	79.5	76.3
Ireland	IRL	82.7	83.1	84.0	84.3	83.1	82.8	83.2	82.7	82.0	82.5	82.3	..	IRL	82.7	82.3
Israel	ISR	77.3	78.9	79.1	79.7	79.8	81.1	81.5	83.5	80.0	84.3	83.9	..	ISR	77.3	83.9
Italy	ITA	58.1	56.8	63.4	63.5	63.7	66.7	64.6	68.4	66.1	67.9	65.6	..	ITA	58.1	65.6
Japan	JPN	..	..	32.7	..	..	30.0	..	..	35.4	..	..	..	JPN	32.7	35.4
Korea	KOR	43.9	..	..	43.7	44.8	37.6	36.8	33.3	35.1	32.5	32.5	..	KOR	43.9	32.5
Latvia	LVA	35.0	40.4	42.5	43.5	46.0	47.8	46.0	46.7	45.2	45.8	46.2	..	LVA	35	46.2
Luxembourg	LUX	73.6	74.2	74.4	74.0	73.9	75.3	72.5	73.8	71.9	72.8	70.4	..	LUX	73.6	70.4
Mexico	MEX	65.6	65.5	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	MEX	65.6	65.5
Netherlands	NLD	76.3	76.8	76.3	77.3	77.6	78.0	76.3	75.6	75.6	77.3	76.2	..	NLD	76.3	76.2
New Zealand	NZL	..	..	89.7	..	..	..	..	89.3	89.5	91.4	88.9	87.8	NZL	89.7	87.8
Norway	NOR	77.0	74.4	76.4	76.6	76.5	76.7	73.2	78.7	76.0	78.5	78.3	..	NOR	77	78.3
Poland	POL	54.3	54.5	56.8	57.7	56.1	57.8	57.6	57.7	58.3	58.1	57.8	..	POL	54.3	57.8
Portugal	PRT	45.8	48.0	45.8	48.3	47.7	49.2	49.7	48.0	46.1	45.9	46.4	..	PRT	45.8	46.4
Slovak Republic	SVK	52.0	52.0	52.9	59.6	61.9	63.5	63.2	65.7	65.9	64.7	65.9	..	SVK	52	65.9
Slovenia	SVN	53.6	56.3	57.8	58.8	59.7	59.6	60.4	63.1	64.8	64.8	64.8	..	SVN	53.6	64.8
Spain	ESP	66.8	67.7	67.5	72.4	70.6	71.8	75.3	74.3	71.6	72.6	72.4	..	ESP	66.8	72.4
Sweden	SWE	75.6	75.9	77.6	78.4	79.7	80.0	79.9	80.9	81.1	80.1	79.7	..	SWE	75.6	79.7
Switzerland	CHE	..	..	84.0	81.3	80.9	81.5	81.2	81.9	80.7	79.3	79.6	..	CHE	81.3	79.6
Turkey	TUR	..	63.4	66.8	68.0	65.1	66.0	67.2	68.6	67.8	68.1	66.4	..	TUR	63.4	66.4
United Kingdom	GBR	74.8	76.6	77.4	79.2	78.2	79.4	77.5	74.7	73.7	70.0	69.8	..	GBR	74.8	69.8
United States	USA	88.4	88.2	87.9	87.8	87.9	87.6	87.3	87.5	87.5	88.1	88.1	..	USA	88.4	88.1
OECD	OECD 32	68.3	68.4	69.1	69.7	69.5	69.3	69.4	69.5	69.4	69.6	69.2	..	OECD	68.1	68.7
Costa Rica	CRI	..	73.5	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..			
Lithuania	LTU	42.4	43.3	48.5	48.3	48.0	50.2	43.9	44.3	46.1	44.9	42.6	..	LTU	42.4	42.6
Russian Federation	RUS	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	38.1	..	39.1	..	43.0	RUS	38.1	43.0

Note: Adults are generally defined as people aged 16 years and over. Data for Australia, Canada, Costa Rica, Chile, Japan, Korea, Lithuania, Mexico, New Zealand, the Russian Federation, Turkey and the United States refer to people aged 15 years and over; and data for Israel refer to people aged 20 years and over. Data for Australia, Canada, Chile, Israel, New Zealand and the United States are not directly comparable with those for other countries, due to differences in reporting scales, which may lead to an upward bias in the reported estimates. The OECD average is population-weighted, and its time-series has been estimated replacing missing data points with the average of the closest preceding and following year in the time series of individual countries. Countries have only been included in the OECD average if the times series contains at least 3 data points, and at least one of them refers to 2014 or 2013. The OECD average is population-weighted and excludes Chile, Switzerland (due to a break in the time series), and Mexico (for which only two data points are available).

Source: OECD calculations based on "Health status", OECD Health Statistics (database), *http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=HEALTH_STAT* and INEC calculations based on the National Health Survey for Costa Rica.

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933599897*

Further reading:

OECD (2017), *Health at a Glance 2017: OECD Indicators*, OECD Publishing, Paris, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/health_glance-2017-en*.

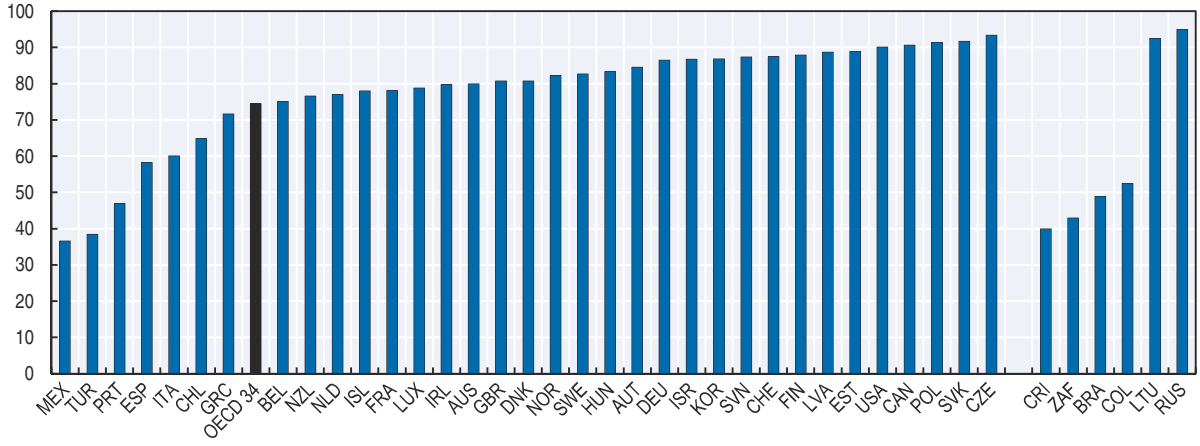
EDUCATION AND SKILLS: Educational attainment

Definition

This indicator refers to the number of adults aged 25 to 64 having completed at least an upper secondary education, over the total population of the same age. The definition of "at least upper secondary education" corresponds to the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED 2011) levels 3 and above and includes both: i) programmes defined as "general", which are often designed for preparing students for further education; and ii) programmes geared towards vocational education and training (VET). The data underlying this indicator are collected through the annual OECD questionnaire on National Educational Attainment Categories (NEAC) and are based on national Labour Force Survey data.

Figure A.27. **Upper secondary educational attainment among working-age adults**

Percentage of people aged 25-64 with at least an upper secondary education, 2016 or latest available year



Note: Data are compiled following the ISCED 2011 classification for all countries, except for South Africa, where they are based on the ISCED-97 classification. The latest available year is 2015 for Brazil, Chile, Ireland, the Russian Federation and South Africa. The OECD average is population-weighted and excludes Japan.

Source: "Educational attainment and labour force status", *OECD Education at a glance* (database), *http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=EAG_NEAC*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933597655

Table A.15. **Upper secondary educational attainment among working-age adults**

Percentage of people aged 25-64 with at least an upper secondary education

		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016		Latest available
Australia	AUS	65.0	66.7	68.2	69.9	71.0	73.2	74.1	76.4	75.7	77.1	79.0	79.9	AUS	79.9
Austria	AUT	76.9	80.1	79.9	80.9	81.6	82.4	82.4	82.9	83.0	83.9	84.6	84.5	AUT	84.5
Belgium	BEL	66.1	66.9	68.0	69.6	70.6	70.5	71.3	71.6	72.8	73.6	74.7	75.1	BEL	75.1
Canada	CAN	85.2	85.5	86.5	87.0	87.5	88.3	88.6	89.0	89.5	90.0	90.4	90.6	CAN	90.6
Chile	CHL	..	..	..	..	56.5	..	57.7	..	61.4	..	64.9	..	CHL	64.9
Czech Republic	CZE	89.9	90.3	90.5	90.9	91.4	91.9	92.3	92.5	92.8	93.2	93.2	93.4	CZE	93.4
Denmark	DNK	81.0	81.6	74.3	73.8	74.8	75.6	76.9	77.9	78.3	79.6	80.4	80.7	DNK	80.7
Estonia	EST	88.7	88.3	88.8	88.3	88.7	89.1	89.0	89.9	90.5	88.1	88.6	88.9	EST	88.9
Finland	FIN	78.8	79.6	80.5	81.1	82.0	83.0	83.7	84.8	85.9	86.5	87.2	87.9	FIN	87.9
France	FRA	66.8	67.4	68.5	69.6	70.3	70.8	71.6	72.5	74.8	77.3	77.5	78.1	FRA	78.1
Germany	DEU	83.1	83.2	84.4	85.3	85.5	85.8	86.3	86.3	86.3	86.9	86.8	86.5	DEU	86.5
Greece	GRC	57.7	59.2	60.1	61.3	61.5	62.7	64.6	65.8	67.2	68.3	70.2	71.7	GRC	71.7
Hungary	HUN	76.4	78.1	79.2	79.7	80.6	81.3	81.8	82.1	82.5	83.1	83.2	83.4	HUN	83.4
Iceland	ISL	68.2	68.7	69.2	69.1	70.0	70.7	70.8	70.8	72.2	73.3	74.7	78.0	ISL	78.0
Ireland	IRL	64.5	66.3	67.7	69.5	71.2	72.8	73.6	74.6	76.7	78.8	79.8	..	IRL	79.8
Israel	ISR	78.9	..	80.4	81.2	81.8	82.1	83.0	84.5	85.0	85.4	85.5	86.8	ISR	86.8
Italy	ITA	50.1	51.3	52.3	53.3	54.3	55.2	56.0	57.2	58.2	59.3	59.9	60.1	ITA	60.1
Japan	JPN	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	JPN	..
Korea	KOR	75.5	76.7	77.9	79.1	79.9	80.4	81.4	82.4	83.7	85.0	85.8	86.9	KOR	86.9
Latvia	LVA	84.4	84.1	84.6	85.9	86.8	88.6	87.9	89.1	89.4	86.7	87.8	88.7	LVA	88.7
Luxembourg	LUX	65.9	65.5	65.7	67.9	77.3	77.7	77.3	78.3	80.5	82.0	74.6	78.8	LUX	78.8
Mexico	MEX	28.2	29.0	29.6	29.9	31.3	32.1	33.1	34.0	34.8	35.1	35.7	36.6	MEX	36.6
Netherlands	NLD	71.8	72.4	73.2	73.3	73.4	73.0	72.3	73.4	75.8	75.9	76.4	77.1	NLD	77.1
New Zealand	NZL	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	74.1	74.7	76.6	NZL	76.6
Norway	NOR	77.2	78.9	78.9	80.7	80.7	80.6	81.9	82.1	82.4	81.9	82.4	82.2	NOR	82.2
Poland	POL	85.1	85.8	86.3	87.1	88.0	88.5	88.9	89.6	90.1	90.5	90.8	91.3	POL	91.3
Portugal	PRT	26.5	27.6	27.5	28.2	29.9	31.9	35.0	37.6	40.0	43.3	45.1	46.9	PRT	46.9
Slovak Republic	SVK	87.9	88.8	89.2	89.9	90.9	91.0	91.3	91.7	91.8	90.8	91.3	91.7	SVK	91.7
Slovenia	SVN	80.3	81.6	81.8	82.0	83.3	83.3	84.5	85.0	85.5	85.7	86.8	87.3	SVN	87.3
Spain	ESP	48.8	49.7	50.6	51.1	51.6	52.9	54.0	54.7	55.5	56.6	57.4	58.3	ESP	58.3
Sweden	SWE	83.6	84.1	84.6	85.0	85.7	86.3	87.0	87.5	88.2	81.6	82.0	82.7	SWE	82.7
Switzerland	CHE	85.2	85.4	86.0	86.8	86.9	85.0	84.8	85.7	86.4	87.2	87.3	87.4	CHE	87.4
Turkey	TUR	28.1	29.1	29.6	30.3	31.1	31.2	32.1	33.9	34.8	35.6	37.0	38.5	TUR	38.5
United Kingdom	GBR	66.8	70.9	72.2	71.6	73.7	75.1	76.8	78.1	79.2	79.2	79.6	80.7	GBR	80.7
United States	USA	87.8	87.8	87.9	88.7	88.6	89.0	89.3	89.3	89.6	89.6	89.5	90.1	USA	90.1
OECD	OECD 32	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	73.5	73.9	74.6	OECD 34	74.5
Brazil	BRA	..	..	36.8	38.8	40.7	..	43.3	45.0	46.4	47.4	48.9	..	BRA	48.9
Colombia	COL	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	52.0	50.4	52.5	COL	52.5
Costa Rica	CRI	35.1	35.7	37.0	38.1	38.9	36.9	37.4	39.1	40.3	40.5	39.4	39.9	CRI	39.9
Lithuania	LTU	87.5	88.3	88.9	90.6	91.3	91.9	92.9	93.3	93.4	91.2	91.4	92.5	LTU	92.5
Russian Federation	RUS	90.5	91.2	92.4	93.1	93.2	93.9	94.0	94.3	94.7	94.8	94.9	..	RUS	94.9
South Africa	ZAF	..	..	..	37.2	38.5	39.4	40.2	27.3	41.8	43.0	43.0	..	ZAF	43.0

Note: Data are compiled following the ISCED 2011 classification throughout the period for Austria, Brazil, Canada, Colombia, Costa Rica, Estonia, France, Hungary, Iceland, Korea, Latvia, New Zealand, Norway, Portugal, the Russian Federation and the United States; since 2013 for Chile; and since 2014 for Australia, Belgium, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Finland, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Luxembourg, Lithuania, Mexico, the Netherlands, Poland, the Slovak Republic, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, the United Kingdom; data are based on the ISCED-97 for South Africa. Cells before a break are highlighted in grey, as the data are not comparable with later years. Data for upper secondary education attainment in the United Kingdom include completion of a sufficient number of programmes and standards that would be classified individually as completion of intermediate upper secondary programmes (in 2016, 16% of 25-64 year-olds were part of this group). The OECD average is population-weighted; it excludes Chile, Ireland and Japan for 2014-2016. The latest available year excludes Japan. 2005-09 values for the Russian Federation have been provided by the Russian Federal State Statistics Service (Rosstat).

Source: "Educational attainment and labour force status", *OECD Education at a glance* (database), *http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=EAG_NEAC* and Russian Federal State Statistics Service (Rosstat).

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933599916

Further reading:

OECD (2017), *Education at a Glance 2017: OECD Indicators*, OECD Publishing, Paris, *http://dx.doi.org/10.187/eag-2017-en*.

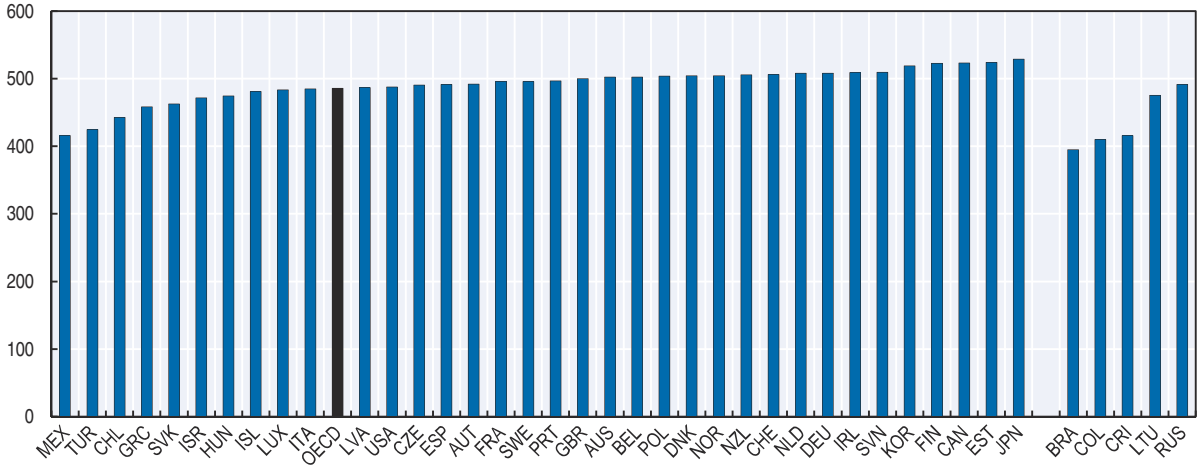
EDUCATION AND SKILLS: Cognitive skills at 15

Definition

This indicator refers to the mean score of students aged 15 in reading, mathematics and science. The indicator is based on data collected through the Programme on International Student Assessment (PISA) coordinated by the OECD. Skills in reading, mathematics and science are each assessed separately, and measured on a scale which is normalised such that a value of 500 represents the OECD average. The summary shown here represents the average score across the three assessments.

Figure A.28. **Cognitive skills of 15 year old students**

Mean score for reading, mathematics and science, 2015



Note: The PISA scores on reading, mathematics and science are each measured on a scale which is normalised to be 500 for the OECD average. The OECD average is population-weighted.

Source: OECD calculations based on "PISA 2015 Results (Volume I): Excellence and Equity in Education", PISA, OECD Publishing, Paris, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264266490-en*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933597674

Table A.16. **Cognitive skills of 15-year-old students**

PISA mean scores in reading, mathematics and science

		2015
Australia	AUS	502
Austria	AUT	492
Belgium	BEL	503
Canada	CAN	523
Chile	CHL	443
Czech Republic	CZE	491
Denmark	DNK	504
Estonia	EST	524
Finland	FIN	523
France	FRA	496
Germany	DEU	508
Greece	GRC	458
Hungary	HUN	474
Iceland	ISL	481
Ireland	IRL	509
Israel	ISR	472
Italy	ITA	485
Japan	JPN	529
Korea	KOR	519
Latvia	LVA	487
Luxembourg	LUX	483
Mexico	MEX	416
Netherlands	NLD	508
New Zealand	NZL	506
Norway	NOR	504
Poland	POL	504
Portugal	PRT	497
Slovak Republic	SVK	463
Slovenia	SVN	509
Spain	ESP	491
Sweden	SWE	496
Switzerland	CHE	506
Turkey	TUR	425
United Kingdom	GBR	500
United States	USA	488
OECD	OECD	486
Brazil	BRA	395
Colombia	COL	410
Costa Rica	CRI	416
Lithuania	LTU	475
Russian Federation	RUS	492

Note: The PISA scores on reading, mathematics and science are each measured on a scale which is normalised to be 500 for the OECD average. The OECD average is population-weighted.

Source: OECD calculations based on "PISA 2015 Results (Volume I): Excellence and Equity in Education", PISA, OECD Publishing, Paris, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264266490-en*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933599935

Further reading:

OECD (2016), *PISA 2015 Results (Volume I): Excellence and Equity in Education*, PISA, OECD Publishing, Paris, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264266490-en*.

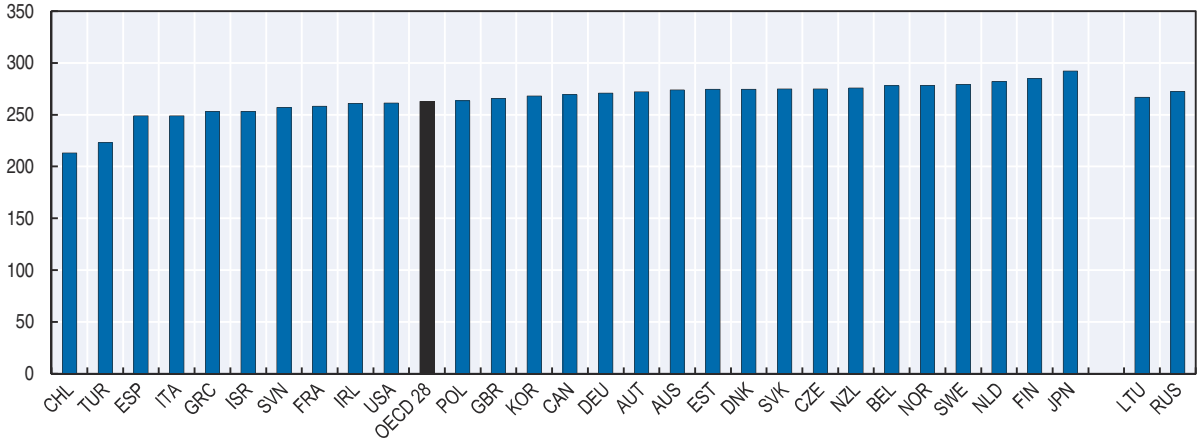
EDUCATION AND SKILLS: Adult skills

Definition

This indicator refers to the mean proficiency of adults in literacy and numeracy. It is based on data collected through the OECD Survey of Adult Skills, which is part of the Programme for the International Assessment of Adult Competencies (PIAAC) coordinated by the OECD. The indicator refers to adults aged 16-65. A major component of the PIAAC is the direct assessment of key information-processing skills: literacy, numeracy and problem-solving in the context of technology-rich environments. In each of the domains assessed, proficiency is considered as a continuum of ability involving the mastery of information-processing tasks of increasing complexity. The country scores are measured on a scale which is normalised such that a value of 500 represents the OECD average in each domain.

Figure A.29. **Competencies of the adult population aged 16-65**

Mean proficiency in literacy and numeracy, around 2012



Note: Data refer to 2011-12 for Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, Germany, Ireland, Italy, Japan, Korea, the Netherlands, Poland, the Russian Federation, the Slovak Republic, Spain, Sweden, the United Kingdom and the United States; 2012 for France; and 2014-15 for Chile, Greece, Israel, Lithuania, New Zealand, Slovenia and Turkey. Data for Belgium refer to Flanders; those for the United Kingdom refer to England and Northern Ireland; and those for the Russian Federation exclude the Moscow municipal area. In each domain, the results are represented on a 500-point scale. The OECD average is population-weighted and excludes Hungary, Iceland, Latvia, Luxembourg, Mexico, Portugal and Switzerland.

Source: OECD calculations based on "Skills Matter: Further Results from the Survey of Adult Skills", OECD Skills Studies, OECD Publishing, Paris, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264258051-en*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933597693

Table A.17. **Competencies of the adult population aged 16-65**

Mean proficiency in literacy and numeracy, around 2012

		Around 2012
Australia	AUS	274
Austria	AUT	272
Belgium	BEL	278
Canada	CAN	269
Chile	CHL	213
Czech Republic	CZE	275
Denmark	DNK	275
Estonia	EST	275
Finland	FIN	285
France	FRA	258
Germany	DEU	271
Greece	GRC	253
Hungary	HUN	..
Iceland	ISL	..
Ireland	IRL	261
Israel	ISR	253
Italy	ITA	249
Japan	JPN	292
Korea	KOR	268
Latvia	LVA	..
Luxembourg	LUX	..
Mexico	MEX	..
Netherlands	NLD	282
New Zealand	NZL	276
Norway	NOR	278
Poland	POL	263
Portugal	PRT	..
Slovak Republic	SVK	275
Slovenia	SVN	257
Spain	ESP	249
Sweden	SWE	279
Switzerland	CHE	..
Turkey	TUR	223
United Kingdom	GBR	266
United States	USA	261
OECD	OECD 28	263
Lithuania	LTU	267
Russian Federation	RUS	273

Note: Data refer to 2011-12 for Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, Germany, Ireland, Italy, Japan, Korea, the Netherlands, Poland, the Russian Federation, the Slovak Republic, Spain, Sweden, the United Kingdom and the United States; to 2012 for France; and to 2014-15 for Chile, Greece, Israel, Lithuania, New Zealand, Slovenia and Turkey. Data for Belgium refer to Flanders; those for the United Kingdom refer to England and Northern Ireland; and those for the Russian Federation exclude the Moscow municipal area. In each domain, the results are represented on a 500-point scale. The OECD average is population-weighted and excludes Hungary, Iceland, Latvia, Luxembourg, Mexico, Portugal and Switzerland.

Source: OECD calculations based on "Skills Matter: Further Results from the Survey of Adult Skills", OECD Skills Studies, OECD Publishing, Paris, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264258051-en*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933599954

Further reading:

OECD (2016), *Skills Matter: Further Results from the Survey of Adult Skills, OECD Skills Studies*, OECD Publishing, Paris, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264258051-en*.

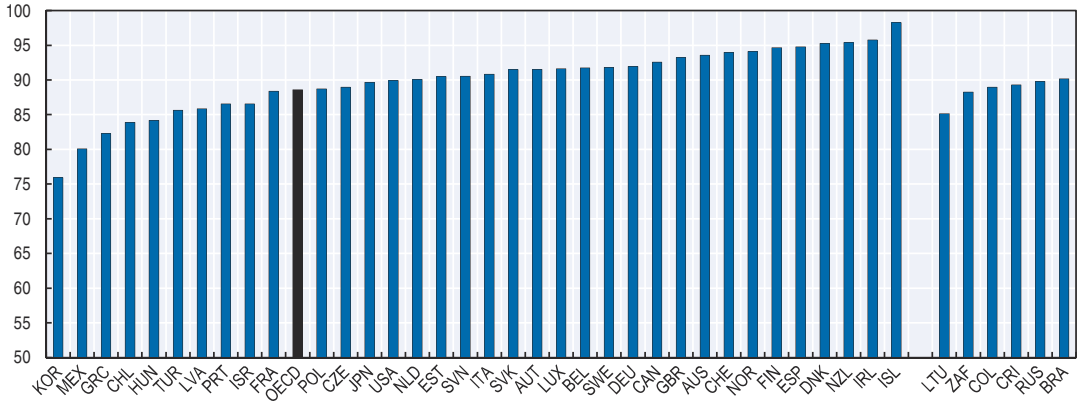
SOCIAL CONNECTIONS: Social support

Definition

This indicator refers to the share of people reporting that they have friends or relatives whom they can count on to help in case of need. It is based on the survey question: "If you were in trouble, do you have relatives or friends you can count on to help you whenever you need them, or not?" and presents the percentage of the sample responding "yes". Data are averaged over a three-year period. The source for these data is the Gallup World Poll, which samples around 1 000 people per country, per year. The sample is ex ante designed to be nationally representative of the population aged 15 and over (including rural areas); the sample data are weighted to the population using weights supplied by Gallup.

Figure A.30. **Social support**

Percentage of people who report that they have friends or relatives whom they can count on in times of trouble, 2014-16 average or latest available period



Note: The OECD average is population-weighted.
Source: OECD calculations based on Gallup World Poll, *www.gallup.com/services/170945/world-poll.aspx*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933597712

Figure A.31. **Social support, OECD average**

Percentage of people who report that they have friends or relatives whom they can count on in times of trouble, OECD 33



Note: The OECD average is population-weighted and excludes Iceland and Luxembourg, due to incomplete time series for these countries.
Source: OECD calculations based on Gallup World Poll, *www.gallup.com/services/170945/world-poll.aspx*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933597731

Table A.18. **Social support**

Percentage of people who report that they have friends or relatives whom they can count on in times of trouble

		2005/6-2007	2008-10	2011-13	2014-16		Latest available three-year period
Australia	AUS	96.2	94.8	94.4	93.6	AUS	93.6
Austria	AUT	91.6	91.5	94.0	91.5	AUT	91.5
Belgium	BEL	92.3	92.3	92.2	91.7	BEL	91.7
Canada	CAN	95.8	94.2	93.4	92.6	CAN	92.6
Chile	CHL	81.8	82.5	84.2	83.9	CHL	83.9
Czech Republic	CZE	87.6	90.3	88.1	89.0	CZE	89.0
Denmark	DNK	95.9	95.2	95.4	95.3	DNK	95.3
Estonia	EST	85.4	86.2	87.7	90.5	EST	90.5
Finland	FIN	95.6	93.8	92.7	94.6	FIN	94.6
France	FRA	93.7	92.7	92.0	88.4	FRA	88.4
Germany	DEU	94.1	92.5	93.1	92.0	DEU	92.0
Greece	GRC	81.5	82.6	78.0	82.3	GRC	82.3
Hungary	HUN	92.5	89.2	88.7	84.2	HUN	84.2
Iceland	ISL	..	97.6	96.6	98.3	ISL	98.3
Ireland	IRL	96.4	97.1	96.3	95.7	IRL	95.7
Israel	ISR	88.3	88.1	89.5	86.6	ISR	86.6
Italy	ITA	90.7	86.4	89.2	90.8	ITA	90.8
Japan	JPN	93.0	88.8	90.8	89.7	JPN	89.7
Korea	KOR	78.1	77.8	78.2	75.9	KOR	75.9
Latvia	LVA	82.5	80.0	81.3	85.8	LVA	85.8
Luxembourg	LUX	..	94.3	90.7	91.6	LUX	91.6
Mexico	MEX	87.8	86.8	76.3	80.1	MEX	80.1
Netherlands	NLD	93.9	94.3	93.0	90.1	NLD	90.1
New Zealand	NZL	95.6	95.6	94.5	95.4	NZL	95.4
Norway	NOR	94.4	93.1	92.8	94.1	NOR	94.1
Poland	POL	89.5	91.6	89.4	88.7	POL	88.7
Portugal	PRT	89.7	85.5	84.6	86.5	PRT	86.5
Slovak Republic	SVK	93.3	89.6	88.9	91.5	SVK	91.5
Slovenia	SVN	93.0	90.8	92.2	90.5	SVN	90.5
Spain	ESP	95.2	93.3	93.1	94.8	ESP	94.8
Sweden	SWE	92.8	92.0	91.1	91.8	SWE	91.8
Switzerland	CHE	94.2	93.2	94.4	94.0	CHE	94.0
Turkey	TUR	79.9	72.7	73.4	85.6	TUR	85.6
United Kingdom	GBR	97.3	95.5	93.8	93.2	GBR	93.2
United States	USA	95.5	92.6	91.5	89.9	USA	89.9
OECD	OECD 33	91.7	89.4	88.3	88.6	OECD	88.6
Brazil	BRA	88.0	89.2	90.2	90.1	BRA	90.1
Colombia	COL	89.7	88.3	90.3	88.9	COL	88.9
Costa Rica	CRI	91.8	90.6	89.0	89.3	CRI	89.3
Lithuania	LTU	86.7	81.5	84.0	85.1	LTU	85.1
Russian Federation	RUS	85.6	87.0	85.2	89.8	RUS	89.8
South Africa	ZAF	84.3	86.6	86.7	88.3	ZAF	88.3

Note: The OECD average is population-weighted, and considers all OECD countries for the latest available year; it excludes Iceland and Luxembourg for all other years, due to incomplete time series for these countries.

Source: OECD calculations based on Gallup World Poll, *www.gallup.com/services/170945/world-poll.aspx*.

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933599973*

Further reading:

Scrivens, K. and C. Smith (2013), "Four Interpretations of Social Capital: An Agenda for Measurement", *OECD Statistics Working Papers*, No. 2013/06, OECD Publishing, Paris, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/5jzbcx010wmt-en*.

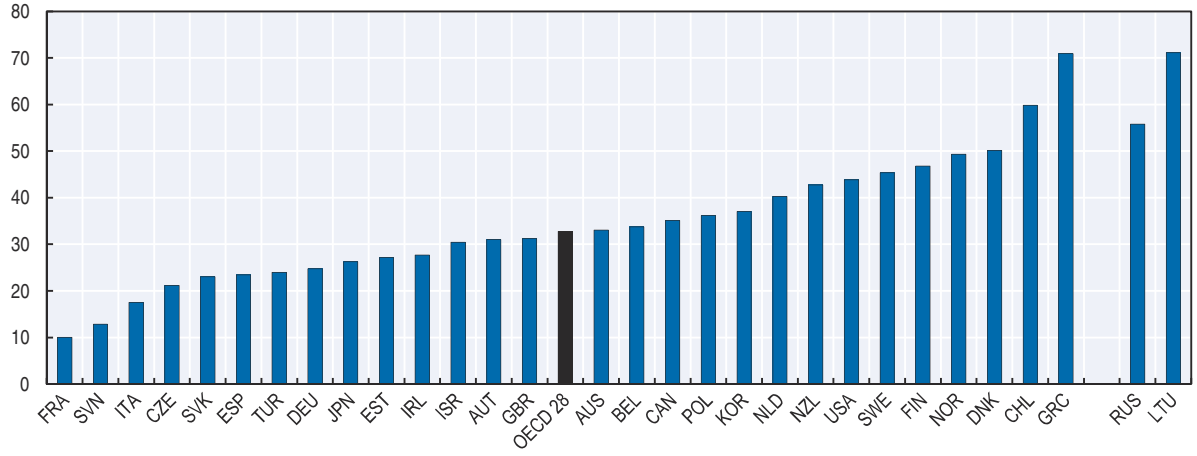
CIVIC ENGAGEMENT AND GOVERNANCE: Having a say in government

Definition

This indicator is a measure of people's beliefs in the responsiveness of political bodies to citizens' demands. It considers the percentage of adults aged 16-65 who disagree or strongly disagree with the statement: "People like me don't have any say in what the government does", answered through a five point labelled scale (with responses ranging from 1 for "strongly agree", to 5 for "strongly disagree"). Data are collected through the OECD Survey of Adult Skills, which is part of the Programme for the International Assessment of Adult Competencies (PIAAC) coordinated by the OECD.

Figure A.32. **Having a say in what the government does**

Percentage of people aged 16-65 who feel they have a say in what the government does, around 2012



Note: Data refer to 2011-12 for Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, Germany, Ireland, Italy, Japan, Korea, the Netherlands, Poland, the Russian Federation, the Slovak Republic, Spain, Sweden, the United Kingdom and the United States; to 2012 for France; and to 2014-15 for Chile, Greece, Israel, Lithuania, New Zealand, Slovenia and Turkey. Data for Belgium refer to Flanders; those for the United Kingdom refer to England and Northern Ireland; and those for the Russian Federation exclude the Moscow municipal area. The OECD average is population-weighted and excludes Hungary, Iceland, Latvia, Luxembourg, Mexico, Portugal and Switzerland.

Source: OECD calculations based on data from "OECD Survey of Adult Skills" (PIAAC database), *www.oecd.org/site/piaac/*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933597750

Table A.19. **Having a say on what the government does**

Percentage of people aged 16-65 who feel they have a say in what the government does, around 2012

		Around 2012
Australia	AUS	33.0
Austria	AUT	31.0
Belgium	BEL	33.8
Canada	CAN	35.1
Chile	CHL	59.8
Czech Republic	CZE	21.2
Denmark	DNK	50.1
Estonia	EST	27.2
Finland	FIN	46.8
France	FRA	10.0
Germany	DEU	24.7
Greece	GRC	70.9
Hungary	HUN	..
Iceland	ISL	..
Ireland	IRL	27.7
Israel	ISR	30.4
Italy	ITA	17.6
Japan	JPN	26.3
Korea	KOR	37.0
Latvia	LVA	..
Luxembourg	LUX	..
Mexico	MEX	..
Netherlands	NLD	40.3
New Zealand	NZL	42.7
Norway	NOR	49.4
Poland	POL	36.1
Portugal	PRT	..
Slovak Republic	SVK	23.0
Slovenia	SVN	12.9
Spain	ESP	23.4
Sweden	SWE	45.3
Switzerland	CHE	..
Turkey	TUR	24.0
United Kingdom	GBR	31.2
United States	USA	43.8
OECD	OECD 28	32.8
Lithuania	LTU	71.1
Russian Federation	RUS	55.8

Note: Data refer to 2011-12 for Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, Germany, Ireland, Italy, Japan, Korea, the Netherlands, Poland, the Russian Federation, the Slovak Republic, Spain, Sweden, the United Kingdom and the United States; to 2012 for France; and to 2014-15 for Chile, Greece, Israel, Lithuania, New Zealand, Slovenia and Turkey. Data for Belgium refer to Flanders; those for the United Kingdom refer to England and Northern Ireland; and those for the Russian Federation exclude the Moscow municipal area. The OECD average is population-weighted and excludes Hungary, Iceland, Latvia, Luxembourg, Mexico, Portugal and Switzerland.
Source: OECD calculations based on data from "OECD Survey of Adult Skills" (PIAAC database), *www.oecd.org/site/piaac/*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933599992

Further reading:

OECD (2016), *Skills Matter: Further Results from the Survey of Adult Skills, OECD Skills Studies*, OECD Publishing, Paris, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264258051-en*.

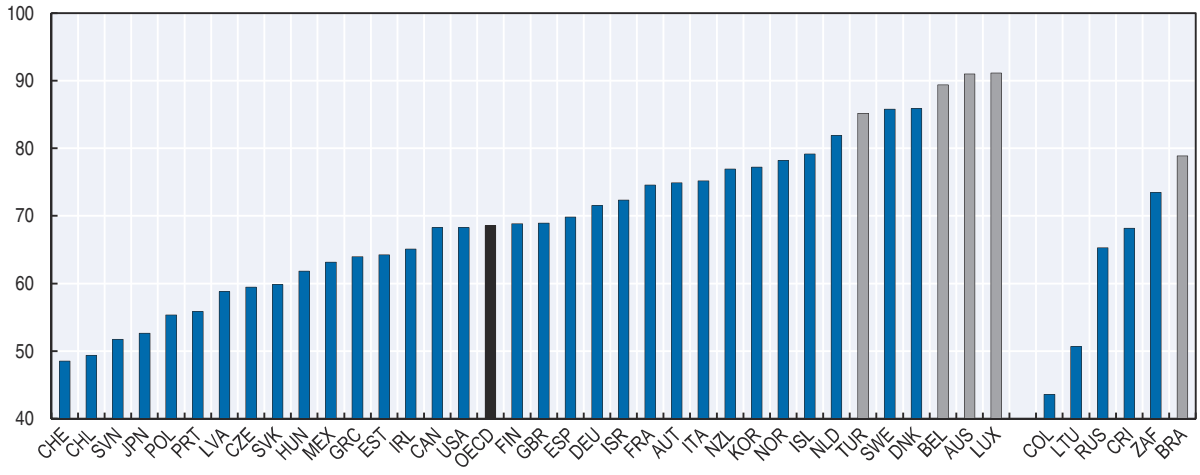
CIVIC ENGAGEMENT AND GOVERNANCE: Voter turnout

Definition

This indicator presents the number of individuals who cast a ballot in a national election, as a percentage of the population registered to vote. As institutional features of voting systems vary across countries and by types of elections, the measures shown here refer to the national elections (either parliamentary or presidential), which attract the largest proportions of voters in each country. Australia, Belgium, Brazil, Luxembourg and Turkey enforce compulsory voting. The registered population refers to the population listed on the electoral register. Data on voter turnout are gathered by National Statistical Offices and National Electoral Management Bodies, and are compiled by the International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance (IDEA).

Figure A.33. **Voter turnout**

Percentage of votes cast among the population registered to vote, latest available year



Note: National elections refer to parliamentary elections, with the exceptions of Brazil, Finland, France, Korea, Mexico, Poland, the Russian Federation and the United States, where presidential elections are considered. Australia, Belgium, Brazil and Luxembourg and Turkey, shown in grey on the figure, enforce compulsory voting. The latest available year is 2017 for France, Korea, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom; 2016 for Australia, Iceland, Ireland, Lithuania, the Slovak Republic, Spain and the United States; 2015 for Canada, Denmark, Estonia, Greece, Israel, Poland, Portugal, Switzerland and Turkey; 2014 for Belgium, Brazil, Colombia, Costa Rica, Hungary, Japan, Latvia, New Zealand, Slovenia, South Africa, Sweden; 2013 for Austria, Chile, the Czech Republic, Germany, Italy, Luxembourg, Norway; and 2012 for Finland, Mexico and the Russian Federation. The OECD average is population-weighted.

Source: International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance (IDEA) (2017), *www.idea.int*; the register of the Supreme Electoral Tribunal for Costa Rica and the Federal Statistical Office (FSO) for Switzerland.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933597769

Figure A.34. **Voter turnout, OECD average**

Percentage of votes cast among the population registered to vote, OECD 29



Note: National elections refer to parliamentary elections, with the exceptions of Brazil, Finland, France, Korea, Mexico, Poland, the Russian Federation and the United States, where presidential elections are considered. Since elections rarely occur on an annual basis, the OECD average has been calculated across four-year periods. This required excluding Austria, Finland, Italy, Luxembourg and Mexico from the OECD average calculation. Chile is also excluded since compulsory voting was dropped in 2012, introducing a break in the series.
Source: International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance (IDEA) (2017), *www.idea.int*; the register of the Supreme Electoral Tribunal for Costa Rica and the Federal Statistical Office (FSO) for Switzerland.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933597788

Table A.20. **Voter turnout**

Percentage of votes cast among the population registered to vote

		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017		Latest available
Australia	AUS	..	..	94.8	..	..	93.2	..	..	93.2	..	..	91.0	..	AUS	91.0
Austria	AUT	..	78.5	..	78.8	..	..	..	..	74.9	..	..	..	..	AUT	74.9
Belgium	BEL	..	..	91.1	..	..	89.2	..	..	..	89.4	..	..	..	BEL	89.4
Canada	CAN	..	64.7	..	59.5	..	..	61.1	..	..	..	68.3	..	..	CAN	68.3
Chile	CHL	87.7	..	..	..	87.7	..	..	..	49.4	..	..	..	..	CHL	49.4
Czech Republic	CZE	..	64.5	..	..	..	62.6	..	..	59.5	..	..	..	..	CZE	59.5
Denmark	DNK	84.5	..	86.6	..	..	..	87.7	..	..	..	85.9	..	..	DNK	85.9
Estonia	EST	..	..	61.9	..	..	..	63.5	..	..	..	64.2	..	..	EST	64.2
Finland	FIN	..	74.1	..	..	..	..	..	68.9	..	..	..	..	..	FIN	68.9
France	FRA	..	..	84.0	..	..	..	..	80.4	..	..	..	..	74.6	FRA	74.6
Germany	DEU	77.7	..	..	..	70.8	..	..	..	71.5	..	..	..	..	DEU	71.5
Greece	GRC	..	..	74.1	..	70.9	..	..	62.5	..	..	63.9	..	..	GRC	63.9
Hungary	HUN	..	67.6	..	..	..	64.4	..	..	..	61.8	..	..	..	HUN	61.8
Iceland	ISL	..	..	83.6	..	85.1	..	..	..	81.4	..	..	79.2	..	ISL	79.2
Ireland	IRL	..	..	67.0	..	..	..	69.9	..	..	..	..	65.1	..	IRL	65.1
Israel	ISR	..	63.6	..	..	64.7	..	..	67.8	..	..	72.3	..	..	ISR	72.3
Italy	ITA	..	83.6	..	80.5	..	..	..	..	75.2	..	..	..	..	ITA	75.2
Japan	JPN	67.5	..	..	..	69.3	..	..	59.3	..	52.7	..	..	..	JPN	52.7
Korea	KOR	..	..	63.0	..	..	..	..	75.8	..	..	..	..	77.2	KOR	77.2
Latvia	LVA	..	61.0	..	..	..	64.7	59.5	..	..	58.8	..	..	..	LVA	58.8
Luxembourg	LUX	..	..	..	..	90.9	..	..	..	91.2	..	..	..	..	LUX	91.2
Mexico	MEX	..	58.6	..	..	..	..	..	63.1	..	..	..	..	..	MEX	63.1
Netherlands	NLD	..	80.4	..	..	..	75.4	..	74.6	..	..	..	..	81.9	NLD	81.9
New Zealand	NZL	80.3	..	..	79.5	..	..	74.2	..	..	77.0	..	..	..	NZL	77.0
Norway	NOR	77.4	..	..	..	76.4	..	..	..	78.2	..	..	..	..	NOR	78.2
Poland	POL	51.0	..	..	..	..	55.3	..	..	..	..	55.3	..	..	POL	55.3
Portugal	PRT	64.3	..	..	..	59.7	..	58.0	..	..	..	55.8	..	..	PRT	55.8
Slovak Republic	SVK	..	54.7	..	..	..	58.8	..	59.1	..	..	..	59.8	..	SVK	59.8
Slovenia	SVN	..	..	..	63.1	..	..	65.6	..	..	51.7	..	..	..	SVN	51.7
Spain	ESP	..	..	..	75.3	..	..	68.9	..	..	..	73.2	69.8	..	ESP	69.8
Sweden	SWE	..	82.0	..	..	..	84.6	..	..	..	85.8	..	..	..	SWE	85.8
Switzerland	CHE	..	..	48.3	..	..	..	49.1	..	..	..	48.5	..	..	CHE	48.5
Turkey	TUR	..	..	84.3	..	..	..	87.6	..	..	..	85.2	..	..	TUR	85.2
United Kingdom	GBR	61.4	..	..	..	..	65.8	..	..	..	..	66.1	..	68.9	GBR	68.9
United States	USA	..	..	..	70.3	..	..	..	66.7	..	..	..	68.3	..	USA	68.3
OECD	OECD 29	71.5				70.0				69.1					OECD	68.6
Brazil	BRA	..	83.3	..	..	..	78.5	..	..	..	78.9	..	..	..	BRA	78.9
Colombia	COL	..	40.5	..	..	..	43.8	..	..	..	43.6	..	..	..	COL	43.6
Costa Rica	CRI	..	65.2	..	..	..	69.1	..	..	..	68.2	..	..	..	CRI	68.2
Lithuania	LTU	..	..	..	48.6	..	..	..	52.9	..	..	..	50.6	..	LTU	50.6
Russian Federation	RUS	..	..	..	69.7	..	..	..	65.3	..	..	..	..	..	RUS	65.3
South Africa	ZAF	..	..	..	..	77.3	..	..	..	..	73.5	..	..	..	ZAF	73.5

Note: National elections refer to parliamentary elections, with the exceptions of Brazil, Finland, France, Korea, Mexico, Poland, the Russian Federation and the United States, where presidential elections are considered. The latest available year is 2017 for France, Korea, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom; 2016 for Australia, Iceland, Ireland, Lithuania, the Slovak Republic, Spain and the United States; 2015 for Canada, Denmark, Estonia, Greece, Israel, Poland, Portugal, Switzerland and Turkey; 2014 for Belgium, Brazil, Colombia, Costa Rica, Hungary, Japan, Latvia, New Zealand, Slovenia, South Africa, Sweden; 2013 for Austria, Chile, the Czech Republic, Germany, Italy, Luxembourg, Norway; and 2012 for Finland, Mexico and the Russian Federation. Australia, Belgium, Brazil, Luxembourg and Turkey enforce compulsory voting. In Chile, compulsory voting was dropped in 2012. Cells before a break are highlighted in grey, as the data are not comparable with later years. The OECD average is population-weighted and its time series, calculated across four-year periods, excludes Austria, Chile, Finland, Italy, Luxembourg and Mexico, while it considers all OECD countries for the latest available year.

Source: International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance (IDEA) (2017), *www.idea.int*, the register of the Supreme Electoral Tribunal for Costa Rica and the Federal Statistical Office (FSO) for Switzerland.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933600011

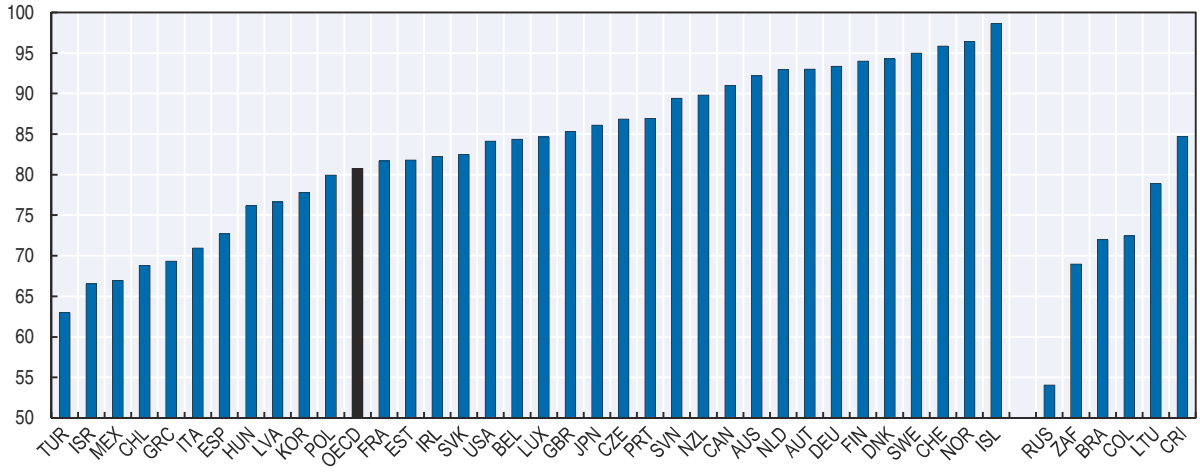
ENVIRONMENTAL QUALITY: Water quality

Definition

This indicator captures people's perceptions about the quality of water in their local area. It is based on the question: "In the city or area where you live, are you satisfied or dissatisfied with the quality of water?", and it considers the share of people who declared being satisfied. Data are averaged over a three-year period. Data come from the Gallup World Poll, which samples around 1 000 people per country, per year. The sample is *ex ante* designed to be nationally representative of the population aged 15 and over, including rural areas; sample data are weighted to the population using weights supplied by Gallup.

Figure A.35. **Satisfaction with water quality**

Percentage of satisfied people in the overall population, 2014-16 average or latest available period

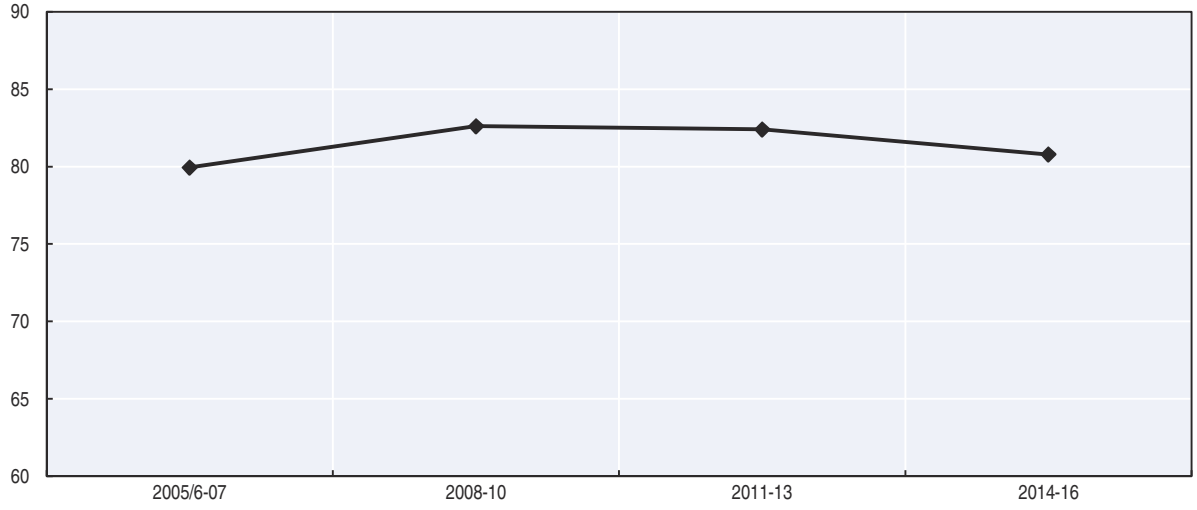


Note: The OECD average is population-weighted.
Source: OECD calculations based on Gallup World Poll, *www.gallup.com/services/170945/world-poll.aspx*.

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Figure A.36. **Satisfaction with water quality, OECD average**

Percentage of satisfied people in the overall population, OECD 33



Note: The OECD average is population-weighted and excludes Iceland and Luxembourg, due to incomplete time series for these countries.
Source: OECD calculations based on Gallup World Poll, *www.gallup.com/services/170945/world-poll.aspx*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933597826

Table A.21. **Satisfaction with water quality**

Percentage of satisfied people in the overall population

		2005/6-07	2008-10	2011-13	2014-16		Latest available three-year period
Australia	AUS	86.6	90.9	91.7	92.2	AUS	92.2
Austria	AUT	94.7	94.9	95.1	93.0	AUT	93.0
Belgium	BEL	82.8	85.0	82.0	84.4	BEL	84.4
Canada	CAN	87.5	88.7	89.4	91.0	CAN	91.0
Chile	CHL	83.7	84.3	76.4	68.8	CHL	68.8
Czech Republic	CZE	78.1	89.0	83.4	86.9	CZE	86.9
Denmark	DNK	95.1	96.6	95.0	94.3	DNK	94.3
Estonia	EST	62.8	66.4	74.7	81.8	EST	81.8
Finland	FIN	92.9	93.1	94.0	94.0	FIN	94.0
France	FRA	80.5	83.4	81.6	81.7	FRA	81.7
Germany	DEU	91.5	94.3	94.5	93.4	DEU	93.4
Greece	GRC	66.5	66.8	65.3	69.3	GRC	69.3
Hungary	HUN	75.3	82.0	76.6	76.2	HUN	76.2
Iceland	ISL	..	96.9	97.5	98.6	ISL	98.6
Ireland	IRL	86.9	87.0	85.4	82.2	IRL	82.2
Israel	ISR	57.6	57.7	65.0	66.5	ISR	66.5
Italy	ITA	76.2	79.5	76.6	70.9	ITA	70.9
Japan	JPN	75.3	83.0	85.6	86.1	JPN	86.1
Korea	KOR	75.2	80.5	77.6	77.8	KOR	77.8
Latvia	LVA	64.1	64.5	71.5	76.6	LVA	76.6
Luxembourg	LUX	..	90.6	86.5	84.7	LUX	84.7
Mexico	MEX	73.0	68.4	71.6	67.0	MEX	67.0
Netherlands	NLD	92.2	93.6	92.2	93.0	NLD	93.0
New Zealand	NZL	89.7	87.3	88.4	89.8	NZL	89.8
Norway	NOR	93.9	95.3	95.8	96.4	NOR	96.4
Poland	POL	66.2	77.0	76.8	80.0	POL	80.0
Portugal	PRT	86.3	88.7	86.3	86.9	PRT	86.9
Slovak Republic	SVK	78.0	86.0	82.5	82.5	SVK	82.5
Slovenia	SVN	85.0	87.3	87.8	89.4	SVN	89.4
Spain	ESP	74.9	78.8	78.7	72.7	ESP	72.7
Sweden	SWE	94.8	96.1	95.9	95.0	SWE	95.0
Switzerland	CHE	95.7	96.1	94.5	95.9	CHE	95.9
Turkey	TUR	58.6	56.2	61.8	63.0	TUR	63.0
United Kingdom	GBR	91.8	93.3	93.8	85.3	GBR	85.3
United States	USA	84.9	88.4	85.9	84.1	USA	84.1
OECD	OECD 33	79.9	82.6	82.4	80.8	OECD	80.8
Brazil	BRA	78.4	78.3	71.2	72.0	BRA	72.0
Colombia	COL	78.3	74.8	73.8	72.5	COL	72.5
Costa Rica	CRI	85.6	88.8	88.6	84.7	CRI	84.7
Lithuania	LTU	59.6	67.6	67.9	78.9	LTU	78.9
Russian Federation	RUS	30.4	43.3	47.7	54.1	RUS	54.1
South Africa	ZAF	74.5	66.1	60.5	69.0	ZAF	69.0

Note: The OECD average is population-weighted; its time series excludes Iceland and Luxembourg, due to incomplete time series for these countries, but considers all OECD countries for the latest available period.

Source: OECD calculations based on Gallup World Poll, *www.gallup.com/services/170945/world-poll.aspx*.

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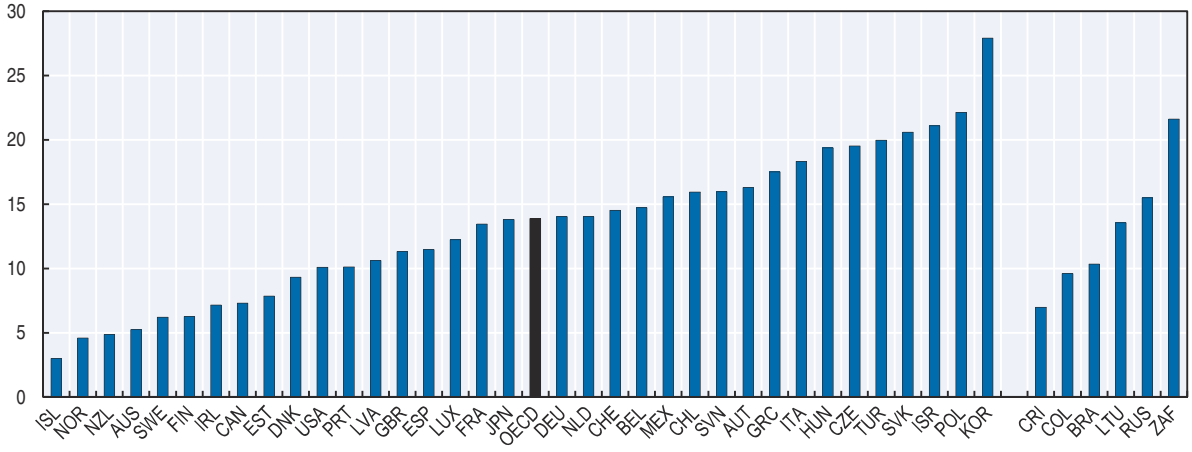
ENVIRONMENTAL QUALITY: Air quality

Definition

This indicator refers to the population-wide average exposure to outdoor air pollution by fine particulate matter that is less than 2.5 microns in diameter ($PM_{2.5}$). The data are averaged over a three-year period. The underlying $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations estimates are taken from van Donkelaar et al. (2016), and are based on satellite observations and a chemical transport model, calibrated to global ground-based measurements using Geographically Weighted Regression at 0.01° resolution. This hybrid approach has the advantage of being available for areas that lack a sufficient density of ground-based air monitoring stations and it is also more comparable between different areas than estimates derived from ground-based measurements stations alone. While satellite observations are less precise than *in situ* monitoring, the two data sources are complementary. The estimates include particulates originating from both natural and anthropogenic sources. Population exposure is calculated by weighting concentrations with population in each cell of the gridded concentration data, with the possibility of over/under-estimating exposure in certain locations. The underlying population data, Gridded Population of the World, version 4 (GPWv4) are taken from the Socioeconomic Data and Applications Center (SEDAC) at the NASA. The underlying boundary geometries are taken from the Global Administrative Unit Layers (GAUL) developed by the FAO, and the OECD Territorial Classification, when available.

Figure A.37. **Population exposure to outdoor air pollution by fine particulate matter ($PM_{2.5}$)**

Population-weighted mean $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations, micrograms per cubic metre, 3-year moving average, 2013



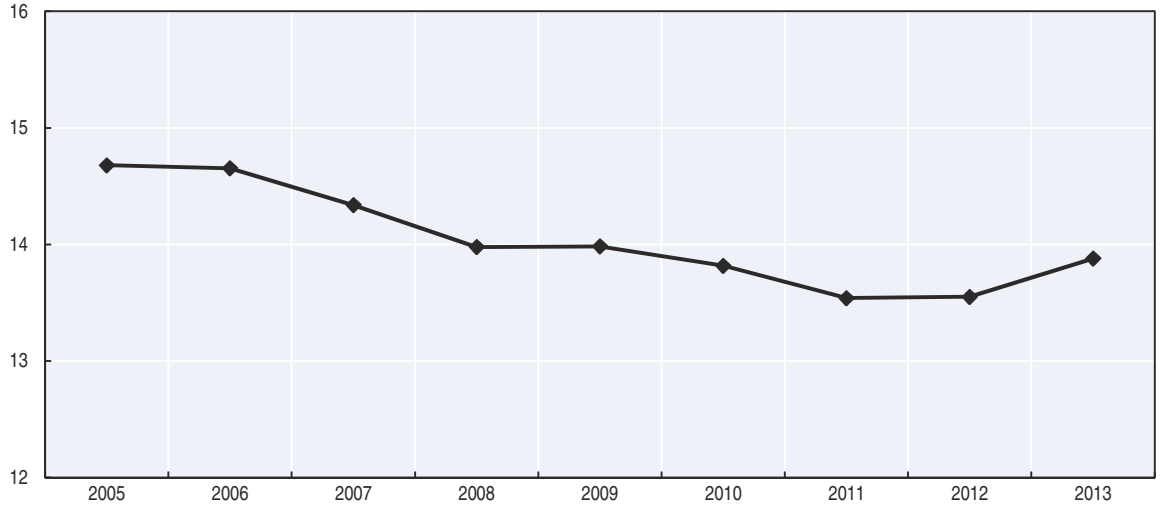
Note: The 2013 moving averages are interpolated from 2012, 2013 and 2015, as estimates for 2014 are not available. The OECD average is population-weighted.

Source: OECD calculations based on "OECD Exposure to air pollution" (database), *http://dotstat.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=EXP_PM2_5*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933597845

Figure A.38. **Population exposure to outdoor air pollution by fine particulate matter, OECD average ($PM_{2.5}$)**

Population-weighted mean $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations, micrograms per cubic metre, 3-year moving average



Note: Values are 3-year moving averages. 2013 values are interpolated from 2012, 2013 and 2015, as estimates for 2014 are not available. The OECD average is population-weighted.

Source: OECD calculations based on "OECD Exposure to air pollution" (database), *http://dotstat.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=EXP_PM2_5*.

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933597864*

Table A.22. **Population exposure to outdoor air pollution by fine particulate matter ($PM_{2.5}$)**

Population-weighted exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations, micrograms per cubic metre, 3-year moving average

		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013		Latest available
Australia	AUS	5.7	5.7	5.4	5.4	5.1	5.1	4.9	5.1	5.2	AUS	5.2
Austria	AUT	16.9	16.6	15.9	15.4	15.9	15.9	15.5	16.2	16.3	AUT	16.3
Belgium	BEL	15.9	15.4	15.2	14.5	15.6	15.5	15.5	14.6	14.7	BEL	14.7
Canada	CAN	8.4	8.1	7.5	7.0	7.0	6.9	7.1	7.1	7.3	CAN	7.3
Chile	CHL	16.8	16.5	16.3	15.8	15.3	15.5	15.5	15.7	16.0	CHL	16.0
Czech Republic	CZE	20.4	20.1	18.4	18.0	20.2	20.9	20.5	19.2	19.5	CZE	19.5
Denmark	DNK	10.8	10.9	10.2	9.5	9.5	10.6	10.2	9.7	9.3	DNK	9.3
Estonia	EST	9.8	9.9	9.3	9.0	9.7	9.8	9.3	8.4	7.9	EST	7.9
Finland	FIN	8.0	7.7	7.5	7.4	8.1	8.3	7.6	6.9	6.2	FIN	6.2
France	FRA	14.2	14.4	14.3	13.8	13.6	13.5	13.5	13.7	13.4	FRA	13.4
Germany	DEU	14.6	14.4	14.1	13.6	14.7	14.8	14.8	13.9	14.0	DEU	14.0
Greece	GRC	15.9	16.5	17.7	18.2	19.5	18.4	17.7	17.0	17.5	GRC	17.5
Hungary	HUN	20.4	20.0	17.7	17.0	18.8	20.4	19.6	18.6	19.4	HUN	19.4
Iceland	ISL	3.3	3.1	3.2	3.2	3.3	3.4	3.3	3.2	3.0	ISL	3.0
Ireland	IRL	6.9	7.4	7.7	7.5	7.1	6.8	6.8	7.3	7.1	IRL	7.1
Israel	ISR	16.1	17.9	19.5	20.1	20.0	18.8	18.9	19.3	21.1	ISR	21.1
Italy	ITA	17.3	17.0	16.9	17.1	17.2	17.2	16.7	17.4	18.3	ITA	18.3
Japan	JPN	15.3	15.6	15.9	15.4	14.7	13.6	12.2	12.6	13.8	JPN	13.8
Korea	KOR	26.8	27.2	27.3	27.6	27.0	25.5	23.0	24.7	27.9	KOR	27.9
Latvia	LVA	12.0	12.2	11.5	11.0	12.2	12.4	12.0	10.9	10.6	LVA	10.6
Luxembourg	LUX	12.9	13.0	12.7	11.6	12.2	12.3	12.5	12.2	12.2	LUX	12.2
Mexico	MEX	16.7	16.5	15.1	15.1	14.6	15.2	15.6	16.6	15.6	MEX	15.6
Netherlands	NLD	15.5	15.0	14.8	14.3	15.2	15.2	15.3	13.9	14.0	NLD	14.0
New Zealand	NZL	5.2	5.0	4.8	4.7	4.7	4.8	4.8	4.9	4.9	NZL	4.9
Norway	NOR	5.9	5.7	5.8	5.8	5.7	5.9	5.4	5.3	4.6	NOR	4.6
Poland	POL	23.1	23.1	21.4	20.4	23.2	24.7	24.3	21.9	22.1	POL	22.1
Portugal	PRT	12.3	12.7	12.4	11.4	10.6	10.8	10.3	10.4	10.1	PRT	10.1
Slovak Republic	SVK	22.3	21.7	19.2	18.5	20.3	21.9	21.2	20.2	20.6	SVK	20.6
Slovenia	SVN	16.8	16.3	15.6	15.0	15.3	15.4	14.7	15.4	16.0	SVN	16.0
Spain	ESP	12.7	12.6	13.1	12.3	11.6	11.2	11.4	11.5	11.5	ESP	11.5
Sweden	SWE	7.6	7.5	7.3	7.0	7.3	7.7	7.0	6.5	6.2	SWE	6.2
Switzerland	CHE	14.7	14.6	14.8	14.5	14.3	13.7	14.0	14.7	14.5	CHE	14.5
Turkey	TUR	17.8	18.3	20.1	20.3	22.1	20.1	19.7	18.3	20.0	TUR	20.0
United Kingdom	GBR	11.9	12.0	12.3	12.1	11.8	11.3	11.2	11.7	11.3	GBR	11.3
United States	USA	11.7	11.5	10.7	10.2	9.7	9.8	9.9	9.9	10.1	USA	10.1
OECD	OECD	14.7	14.7	14.3	14.0	14.0	13.8	13.5	13.6	13.9	OECD	13.9
Brazil	BRA	10.5	10.5	10.0	9.7	9.5	9.7	10.1	9.8	10.3	BRA	10.3
Colombia	COL	10.3	10.4	9.4	9.1	9.0	8.8	9.6	9.1	9.6	COL	9.6
Costa Rica	CRI	5.7	6.2	6.6	6.4	5.1	3.9	4.2	5.5	7.0	CRI	7.0
Lithuania	LTU	14.2	14.8	14.0	13.2	14.6	14.9	14.9	13.5	13.6	LTU	13.6
Russian Federation	RUS	14.9	14.8	14.9	15.2	16.6	16.2	15.6	15.0	15.5	RUS	15.5
South Africa	ZAF	20.2	19.5	19.1	19.1	20.4	20.3	19.9	19.5	21.6	ZAF	21.6

Note: Values are 3-year moving averages. 2013 values are interpolated from 2012, 2013 and 2015, as estimates for 2014 are not available. The OECD average is population-weighted.

Source: OECD calculations based on "OECD Exposure to air pollution" (database), *http://dotstat.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=EXP_PM2_5*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933600049

Further reading:

Mackie, A., I. Haščič and M. Cárdenas Rodríguez (2016), *Population Exposure to Fine Particles: Methodology and Results for OECD and G20 Countries*, OECD Green Growth Papers, No. 2016/02, OECD Publishing, Paris, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/5jlsqs8g1t9r-en*.

OECD (2017), *Green Growth Indicators 2017*, OECD Green Growth Studies, OECD Publishing, Paris, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264268586-en*.

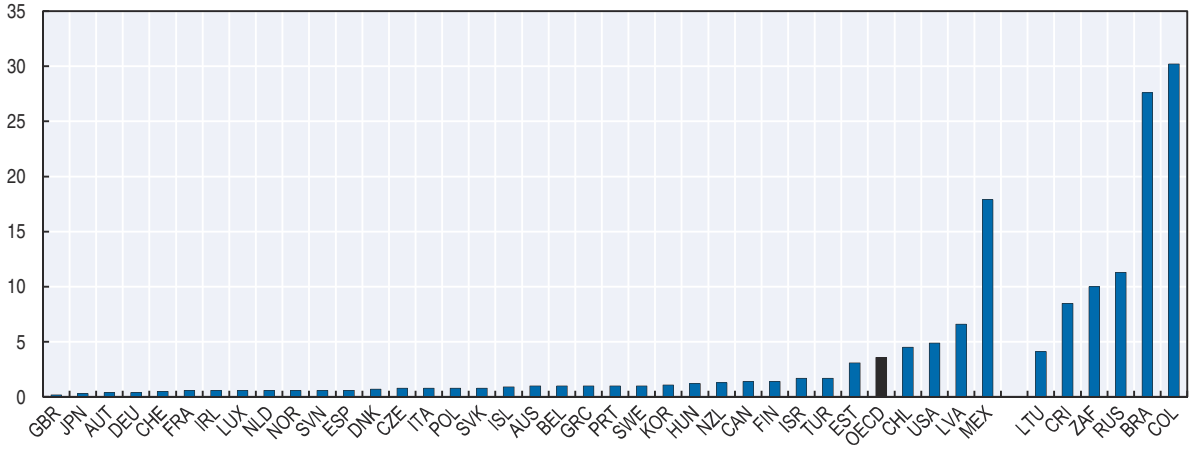
PERSONAL SECURITY: Homicides

Definition

This indicator refers to cases in which assault is registered as the cause of death in official death registers (ICD-10 code: X85-Y09, Y87.1). It is shown as an age-standardised rate to ensure that the data are comparable across countries with different population age structures, and is expressed per 100000 people. Data are averaged over a three or four-year period because data are not available annually in all OECD countries. Cause-of-death statistics come from country civil registration systems, compiled by national authorities and collated by the World Health Organisation (WHO). Only medically certified causes of death are included. The data shown here are available in the OECD Causes of Mortality Database.

Figure A.39. **Deaths due to assault**

Age-standardised rate, per 100 000 population, 2014 or latest available year



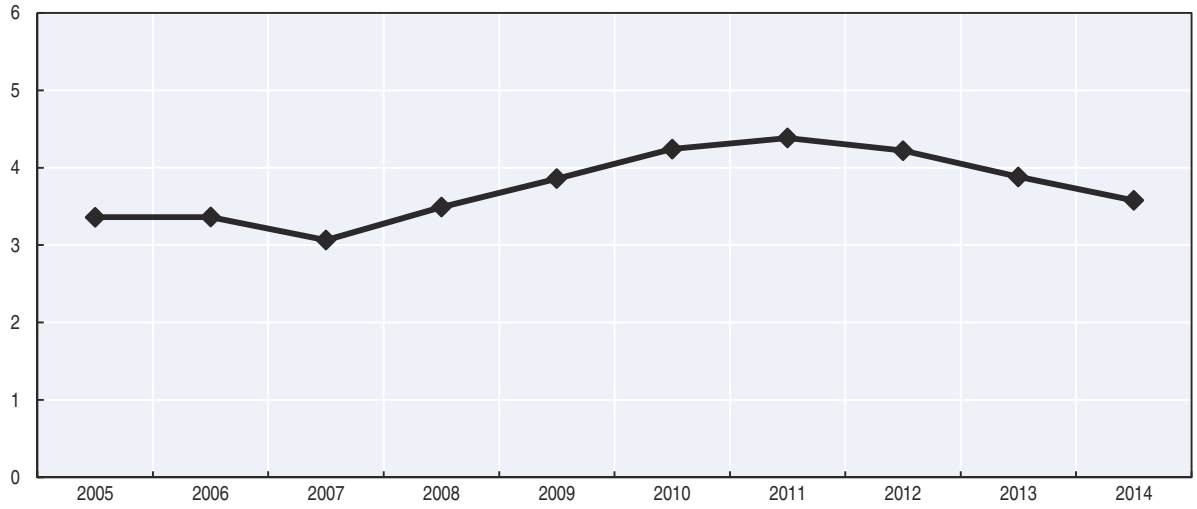
Note: The latest available year is 2015 for the Czech Republic, Hungary, Iceland, Lithuania, the Netherlands, Slovenia, Sweden; 2013 for Colombia, France, Ireland, Korea, Switzerland, Turkey, the United Kingdom; 2012 for Canada, Italy, New Zealand; and 2011 for the Russian Federation. The OECD average is population-weighted.

Source: OECD calculations based on "OECD Health Data: Causes of Mortality", OECD Health Statistics (database), *http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=HEALTH_STAT*.

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933597883*

Figure A.40. **Deaths due to assault, OECD average**

Age-standardised rate, per 100 000 population, OECD 34



Note: The OECD average time series has been estimated by interpolating missing data points in the time series. For each country, missing data have been replaced by the average of the closest preceding and following year. The OECD average is population-weighted and excludes Ireland, due to a break in the series for this country.

Source: OECD calculations based on "OECD Health Data: Causes of Mortality", OECD Health Statistics (database), *http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=HEALTH_STAT*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933597902

Further reading:

United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) (2013), *Report of the National Institute of Statistics and Geography of Mexico and the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime*, *http://unstats.un.org/unsd/statcom/doc13/2013-11-CrimeStats-E.pdf*.

Table A.23. **Deaths due to assault**

Age-standardised rate, per 100 000 population

		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015		Latest available
Australia	AUS	..	1.2	1.0	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.3	1.0	1.0	..	AUS	1.0
Austria	AUT	0.8	0.8	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	..	AUT	0.4
Belgium	BEL	1.5	1.4	1.5	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.3	1.1	1.0	1.0	..	BEL	1.0
Canada	CAN	1.7	1.5	1.5	1.7	1.7	1.5	1.5	1.4	..	..	..	CAN	1.4
Chile	CHL	5.8	5.5	4.5	4.2	5.2	4.4	4.4	3.8	3.7	4.5	..	CHL	4.5
Czech Republic	CZE	0.9	1.0	1.0	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.7	0.8	CZE	0.8
Denmark	DNK	1.0	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.3	0.4	0.7	..	DNK	0.7
Estonia	EST	9.0	7.2	6.9	6.5	5.9	4.5	4.7	4.8	3.9	3.1	..	EST	3.1
Finland	FIN	1.9	2.0	2.2	2.2	1.9	1.9	1.8	1.4	1.5	1.4	..	FIN	1.4
France	FRA	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	..	..	FRA	0.6
Germany	DEU	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.4	..	DEU	0.4
Greece	GRC	1.0	0.8	1.1	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.6	1.5	1.3	1.0	..	GRC	1.0
Hungary	HUN	1.9	1.9	1.7	2.0	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.3	1.2	0.9	1.2	HUN	1.2
Iceland	ISL	1.0	0.3	0.6	0.3	0.3	0.6	0.9	0.3	0.9	0.3	0.9	ISL	0.9
Ireland	IRL	0.9	0.9	1.0	0.9	1.0	0.8	0.6	0.8	0.6	..	..	IRL	0.6
Israel	ISR	3.3	3.4	2.2	2.1	2.1	2.2	2.3	1.8	1.8	1.7	..	ISR	1.7
Italy	ITA	..	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.8	..	..	..	ITA	0.8
Japan	JPN	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	..	JPN	0.3
Korea	KOR	1.8	1.6	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.1	..	..	KOR	1.1
Latvia	LVA	10.2	9.6	8.5	7.8	6.4	6.3	6.0	6.1	5.6	6.6	..	LVA	6.6
Luxembourg	LUX	1.5	1.4	1.2	1.1	0.9	2.1	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.6	..	LUX	0.6
Mexico	MEX	11.0	11.3	8.8	14.0	18.4	23.4	25.3	23.4	20.3	17.9	..	MEX	17.9
Netherlands	NLD	1.1	0.8	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.6	NLD	0.6
New Zealand	NZL	1.7	1.5	1.3	1.3	1.9	1.2	1.2	1.3	..	..	..	NZL	1.3
Norway	NOR	0.7	1.0	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.7	2.3	0.6	1.0	0.6	..	NOR	0.6
Poland	POL	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.2	1.1	0.9	1.0	0.9	1.1	0.8	..	POL	0.8
Portugal	PRT	..	..	1.0	1.4	1.0	1.2	0.9	1.1	0.9	1.0	..	PRT	1.0
Slovak Republic	SVK	1.6	..	..	1.2	1.1	1.2	..	1.0	1.2	0.8	..	SVK	0.8
Slovenia	SVN	1.1	0.6	1.0	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.9	0.7	0.9	0.9	0.6	SVN	0.6
Spain	ESP	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.6	..	ESP	0.6
Sweden	SWE	0.9	0.9	1.2	0.8	0.9	1.0	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.8	1.0	SWE	1.0
Switzerland	CHE	0.9	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	..	..	CHE	0.5
Turkey	TUR	..	..	..	..	1.7	1.5	1.2	1.3	1.7	..	..	TUR	1.7
United Kingdom	GBR	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	..	..	GBR	0.2
United States	USA	6.0	6.0	6.0	5.7	5.4	5.2	5.1	5.3	5.1	4.9	..	USA	4.9
OECD	OECD 34	3.4	3.4	3.1	3.5	3.9	4.2	4.4	4.2	3.9	3.6	..	OECD	3.6
Brazil	BRA	24.7	25.3	24.1	24.5	25.4	25.5	25.2	26.7	26.6	27.6	..	BRA	27.6
Colombia	COL	47.6	44.2	38.9	40.1	44.4	40.7	35.3	33.1	30.2	..	..	COL	30.2
Costa Rica	CRI	7.4	7.8	5.8	8.4	9	10.2	9	7.3	7.4	8.5	..	CRI	8.5
Lithuania	LTU	9.4	7.8	7.3	7.6	6.1	5.5	5.1	4.3	4.7	3.7	4.1	LTU	4.1
Russian Federation	RUS	25	20.2	17.6	16.3	14.6	12.8	11.3	..	..	..	..	RUS	11.3
South Africa	ZAF	11.9	11.8	12.3	11.2	10.9	10.3	9.9	9.9	9.6	10	..	ZAF	10.0

Note: The latest available year is 2015 for the Czech Republic, Hungary, Iceland, Lithuania, the Netherlands, Slovenia, Sweden; 2013 for Colombia, France, Ireland, Korea, Switzerland, Turkey, the United Kingdom; 2012 for Canada, Italy, New Zealand; 2011 for the Russian Federation. There is a break in the series in 2010 for Ireland. Cells before a break are highlighted in grey, as the data are not comparable with later years. The OECD average has been estimated by interpolating missing data points in the time series; in these cases, missing data for each country have been replaced by the average of the closest preceding and following year. The OECD average excludes Ireland, due to a break in the series, while it considers all OECD countries for the latest available year.

Source: OECD calculations based on "OECD Health Data: Causes of Mortality", OECD Health Statistics (database), *http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=HEALTH_STAT*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933600068

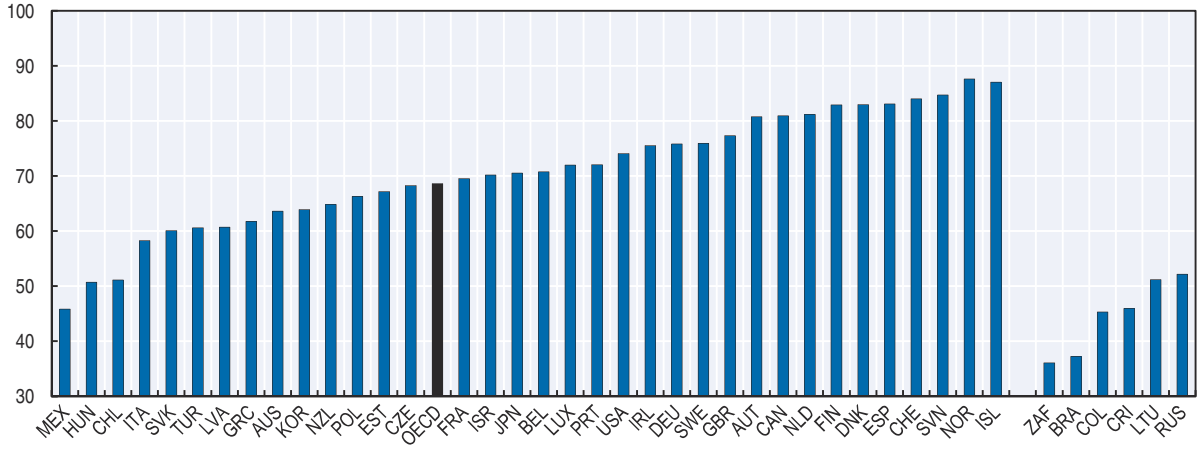
PERSONAL SECURITY: Feeling safe at night

Definition

This indicator is based on the survey question: "Do you feel safe walking alone at night in the city or area where you live?", and the data shown here reflect the percentage of all respondents who replied "yes". Data are averaged over a three-year period, and are sourced from the Gallup World Poll, which samples around 1 000 people per country, per year. The sample is ex ante designed to be nationally representative of the population aged 15 and over (including rural areas); the sample data are weighted to the population using weights supplied by Gallup.

Figure A.41. **Feelings of safety when walking alone at night**

Percentage of people declaring that they feel safe when walking alone at night in the city or area where they live, 2014-16 average

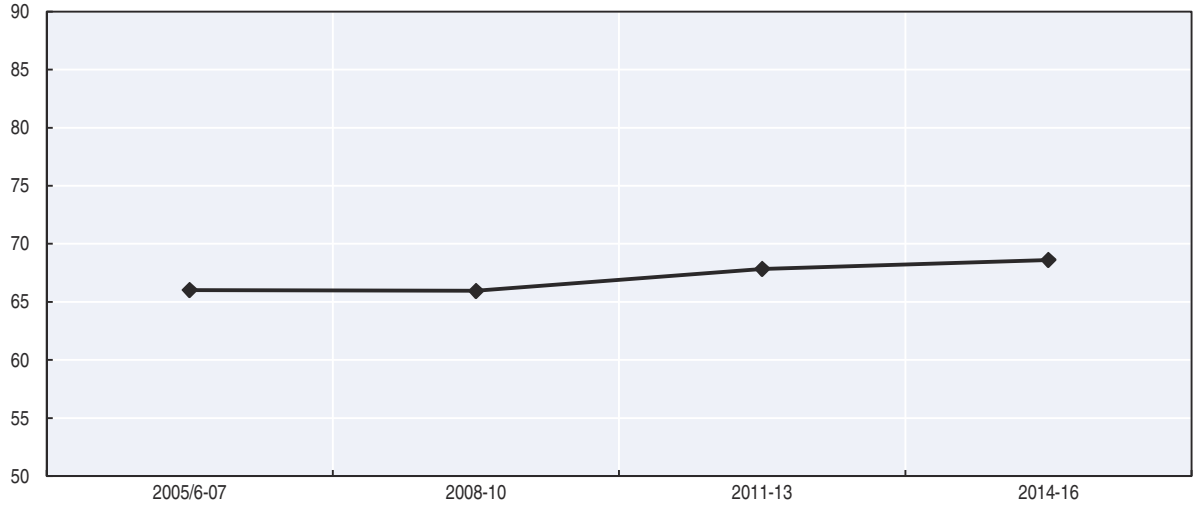


Note: The OECD average is population-weighted.
Source: OECD calculations based on Gallup World Poll, *www.gallup.com/services/170945/world-poll.aspx*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933597921

Figure A.42. **Feelings of safety when walking alone at night, OECD average**

Percentage of people declaring that they feel safe when walking alone at night in the city or area where they live, OECD 33



Note: The OECD average is population-weighted and excludes Iceland and Luxembourg, due to incomplete time series for these countries.
Source: OECD calculations based on Gallup World Poll, *www.gallup.com/services/170945/world-poll.aspx*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933597940

Table A.24. **Feelings of safety when walking alone at night**

Percentage of people declaring that they feel safe when walking alone at night in the city or area where they live

		2005/6-07	2008-10	2011-13	2014-16		Latest available three-year period
Australia	AUS	62.8	63.4	65.3	63.6	AUS	63.6
Austria	AUT	74.7	77.2	82.9	80.7	AUT	80.7
Belgium	BEL	68.6	65.5	64.1	70.7	BEL	70.7
Canada	CAN	77.2	77.1	79.8	80.9	CAN	80.9
Chile	CHL	39.0	44.7	53.8	51.1	CHL	51.1
Czech Republic	CZE	53.0	58.2	60.6	68.3	CZE	68.3
Denmark	DNK	83.6	81.0	79.3	83.0	DNK	83.0
Estonia	EST	55.8	60.1	60.5	67.2	EST	67.2
Finland	FIN	78.5	76.7	78.6	82.9	FIN	82.9
France	FRA	69.5	63.8	65.6	69.6	FRA	69.6
Germany	DEU	73.5	73.0	77.4	75.9	DEU	75.9
Greece	GRC	60.5	55.7	50.8	61.8	GRC	61.8
Hungary	HUN	58.9	56.2	54.5	50.7	HUN	50.7
Iceland	ISL	..	77.4	78.8	87.0	ISL	87.0
Ireland	IRL	70.7	66.3	71.8	75.5	IRL	75.5
Israel	ISR	71.2	67.1	64.9	70.2	ISR	70.2
Italy	ITA	60.0	58.7	60.2	58.3	ITA	58.3
Japan	JPN	62.5	68.7	71.4	70.6	JPN	70.6
Korea	KOR	60.6	58.9	59.6	63.9	KOR	63.9
Latvia	LVA	47.1	48.6	54.1	60.7	LVA	60.7
Luxembourg	LUX	..	75.6	69.7	72.0	LUX	72.0
Mexico	MEX	56.7	48.6	50.2	45.9	MEX	45.9
Netherlands	NLD	73.4	73.0	78.9	81.2	NLD	81.2
New Zealand	NZL	60.6	59.6	65.6	64.8	NZL	64.8
Norway	NOR	85.2	81.4	86.8	87.7	NOR	87.7
Poland	POL	63.8	61.2	65.2	66.3	POL	66.3
Portugal	PRT	64.0	62.7	63.4	72.1	PRT	72.1
Slovak Republic	SVK	47.0	49.2	57.1	60.1	SVK	60.1
Slovenia	SVN	79.4	80.6	83.5	84.7	SVN	84.7
Spain	ESP	64.6	65.3	73.6	83.1	ESP	83.1
Sweden	SWE	70.7	70.9	78.7	75.9	SWE	75.9
Switzerland	CHE	77.3	76.5	77.6	84.0	CHE	84.0
Turkey	TUR	50.7	51.3	56.3	60.6	TUR	60.6
United Kingdom	GBR	62.4	66.8	73.1	77.4	GBR	77.4
United States	USA	75.1	76.6	74.5	74.1	USA	74.1
OECD	OECD 33	66.0	66.0	67.8	68.6	OECD	68.6
Brazil	BRA	37.8	39.7	40.1	37.3	BRA	37.3
Colombia	COL	53.9	44.2	46.2	45.3	COL	45.3
Costa Rica	CRI	49.7	42.6	50.6	45.9	CRI	45.9
Lithuania	LTU	32.3	33.1	45.3	51.2	LTU	51.2
Russian Federation	RUS	27.3	36.8	40.6	52.2	RUS	52.2
South Africa	ZAF	36.6	23.9	28.2	36.1	ZAF	36.1

Note: The OECD average is population-weighted; its time series excludes Iceland and Luxembourg due to incomplete data for these countries. The OECD average for the latest available period considers all OECD countries.

Source: OECD calculations based on Gallup World Poll, *www.gallup.com/services/170945/world-poll.aspx*.

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933600087*

Further reading:

OECD (2011d), "Personal security", in *OECD, How's Life?: Measuring Well-being*, OECD Publishing, Paris, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264121164-13-en*.

SUBJECTIVE WELL-BEING: Life satisfaction

Special note: for this indicator, information about current levels (Figure A.43) is based on estimates provided by National Statistics Offices, based on national surveys that rely on broadly comparable questions. Information on changes over time (Figure A.44) is based on the Gallup World Poll, since this source enables a longer time series and wider range of countries to be assessed on a comparable basis. Please see the definitions provided below for further details.

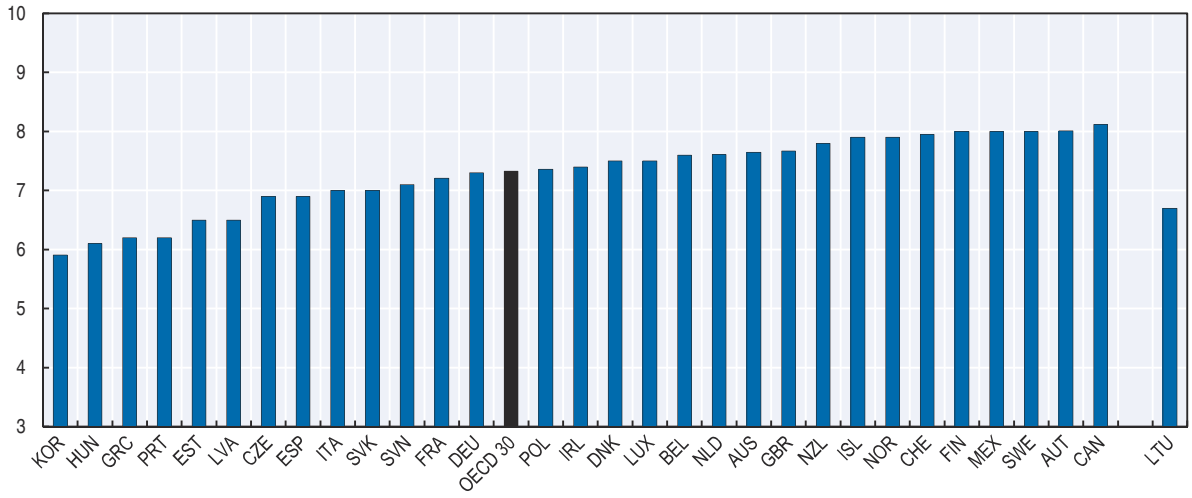
Current levels

Definition

This indicator refers to the mean average score on an 11-point scale. It is based on survey questions that broadly follow the format recommended by the *OECD Guidelines on Measuring Subjective Well-Being* (OECD, 2013): "Overall, how satisfied are you with life as a whole these days?", with responses ranging from 0 ("not at all satisfied") to 10 ("completely satisfied"). The European data come from the European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC) ad hoc module on well-being, conducted in 2013, except for Austria, Hungary, Poland, Slovenia and Switzerland for which the National SILC is considered and except for Denmark, France and Italy for which the national social survey is considered, due to an higher survey frequency. EU-SILC is a nationally representative survey with large samples (from around 4 000 individuals in the smallest member states, to around 16 000 in the largest) covering all members of private households aged 16 or older. Data for Australia are based on the Australian Bureau of Statistics' General Social Survey; those for Canada on Statistics Canada's Canadian Community Health Survey; those for Italy on ISTAT's Multipurpose survey on households; those for Mexico on INEGI's National Survey of Household Expenditure; those for New Zealand on Statistics New Zealand's General Social Survey; and those for the United Kingdom on ONS Annual Population Survey. Data for Australia, Canada, Denmark, France, Hungary, Korea, New Zealand and the Netherlands refer to the population aged 15 and over; data for Mexico refer to people aged 18-70 years old.

Figure A.43. **Life satisfaction**

Mean values on a 0-10 scale, 2013 or latest available year



Note: Data refer to 2016 for Austria, Hungary, Italy, Korea, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Slovenia and the United Kingdom; to 2015 for Canada, Denmark, France, Poland and Switzerland; and to 2014 for Australia and Mexico. The OECD average is population-weighted and excludes Chile, Israel, Japan, Turkey and the United States.

Source: European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC), *http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/incomeand-living-conditions/overview* for EU countries, except for Austria, Hungary, Poland, Slovenia and Switzerland for which the National SILC is considered and except for Denmark, France and Italy for which the national social survey is considered, due to an higher survey frequency; Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2014 General Social Survey, *www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/abs@.nsf/mf/4159.0#Anchor3* for Australia; Statistics Austria; Statistics Canada, Canadian Community Health Survey 2015, *www23.statcan.gc.ca/imdb/p2SV.pl?Function=getSurvey&SDDS=3226* for Canada; Danmark Statistik, *http://dst.dk/en/Statistik/dokumentation/documentationofstatistics/quality-of-life-indicators*; INSEE, Statistiques sur les resources et conditions de vie, *www.insee.fr/fr/metadonnees/source/s1220#consulter*; ISTAT, Multipurpose survey on households 2016; INEGI, the National Survey of Household Expenditure (BIARE-ENGASTO) 2014, *www.inegi.org.mx/inegi/contenidos/investigacion/Experimentales/Bienestar/default.aspx* for Mexico; Statistics New Zealand, 2016 General Social Survey, *www.stats.govt.nz/browse_for_stats/people_and_communities/Households/nzgss_HOTP2014/Tables.aspx*; and ONS Annual Population Survey 2016 for the United Kingdom.

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933597959*

Table A.25. **Life satisfaction measures from national statistical office sources**

Mean values on a 0-10 scale

		2013 or latest available year
Australia	AUS	7.6
Austria	AUT	8.0
Belgium	BEL	7.6
Canada	CAN	8.1
Chile	CHL	..
Czech Republic	CZE	6.9
Denmark	DNK	7.5
Estonia	EST	6.5
Finland	FIN	8.0
France	FRA	7.2
Germany	DEU	7.3
Greece	GRC	6.2
Hungary	HUN	6.1
Iceland	ISL	7.9
Ireland	IRL	7.4
Israel	ISR	..
Italy	ITA	7.0
Japan	JPN	..
Korea	KOR	5.9
Latvia	LVA	6.5
Luxembourg	LUX	7.5
Mexico	MEX	8.0
Netherlands	NLD	7.6
New Zealand	NZL	7.8
Norway	NOR	7.9
Poland	POL	7.4
Portugal	PRT	6.2
Slovak Republic	SVK	7.0
Slovenia	SVN	7.1
Spain	ESP	6.9
Sweden	SWE	8.0
Switzerland	CHE	7.9
Turkey	TUR	..
United Kingdom	GBR	7.7
United States	USA	..
OECD	OECD 30	7.3
Lithuania	LTU	6.7

Note: Data refer to 2016 for Austria, Hungary, Italy, Korea, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Slovenia and the United Kingdom; to 2015 for Canada, Denmark, France, Poland and Switzerland; and to 2014 for Australia and Mexico. The OECD average is population-weighted and excludes Chile, Israel, Japan, Turkey and the United States.

Source: European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC), *http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/income-and-living-conditions/overview* for EU countries, except for Austria, Hungary, Italy, Slovenia and Switzerland for which the National SILC is considered and except for Denmark, France and Italy for which the national social survey is considered, due to an higher survey frequency; Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2014 General Social Survey, *www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/abs@.nsf/mf/4159.0#Anchor3* for Australia; Statistics Austria; Statistics Canada, Canadian Community Health Survey 2015, *www23.statcan.gc.ca/imdb/p2SV.pl?Function= getSurvey&SDDS=3226* for Canada; Danmark Statistik, *http://dst.dk/en/Statistik/dokumentation/documentationofstatistics/quality-of-life-indicators*; INSEE, Statistiques sur les resources et conditions de vie, *www.insee.fr/fr/metadonnees/source/s1220#consulter*; ISTAT, Multipurpose survey on households 2016; INEGI, the National Survey of Household Expenditure (BIARE-ENGASTO) 2014, *www.inegi.org.mx/inegi/contenidos/investigacion/Experimentales/Bienestar/default.aspx* for Mexico; Statistics New Zealand, 2016 General Social Survey, *www.stats.govt.nz/browse_for_stats/people_and_communities/Households/nzgss_HOTP2014/Tables.aspx*; and ONS Annual Population Survey 2016 for the United Kingdom.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933600106

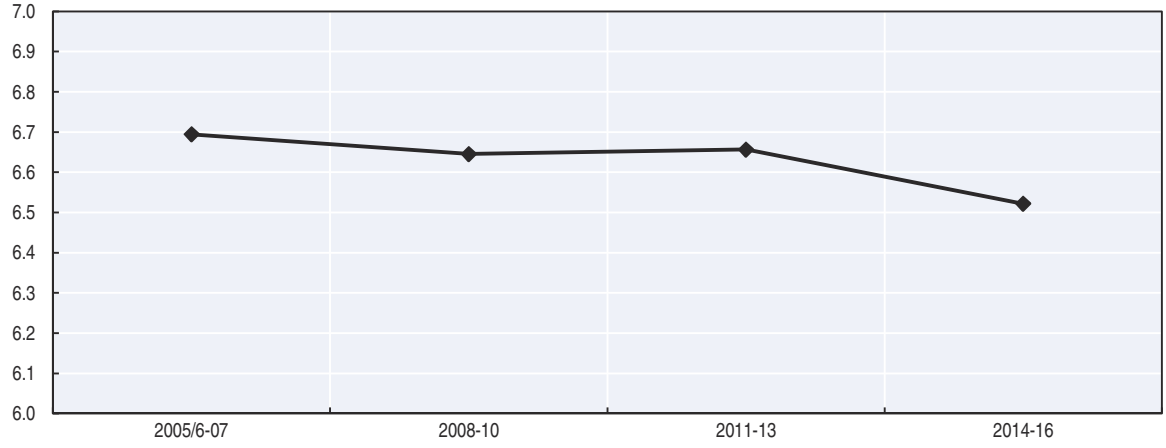
Changes over time

Definition

This section considers the mean score of life satisfaction based on the "Cantril ladder" sourced from the Gallup World Poll. In the survey, respondents are asked to imagine a ladder with rungs from 0 to 10, where 10 is the best possible life for them and 0 the worst possible life (i.e. the "Cantril ladder") and then indicate whereabouts on the ladder they see themselves. The Gallup World Poll samples around 1 000 people per country each year, and data are shown averaged over a three-year period. The sample is ex ante designed to be nationally representative of the population aged 15 and over (including rural areas); the sample data are weighted to the population using weights supplied by Gallup.

Figure A.44. **Life satisfaction, OECD average**

Mean values on a 0-10 scale, OECD 33



Note: The OECD average is population-weighted and excludes Iceland and Luxembourg, due to incomplete time series for these countries.
Source: OECD calculations based on Gallup World Poll, *www.gallup.com/services/170945/world-poll.aspx*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933597978

Table A.26. **Life satisfaction measures from the Gallup World Poll**

Mean values on a 0-10 scale

		2005/6-07	2008-10	2011-13	2014-16
Australia	AUS	7.3	7.4	7.3	7.3
Austria	AUT	7.1	7.3	7.5	7.0
Belgium	BEL	7.2	7.0	7.1	6.9
Canada	CAN	7.4	7.5	7.5	7.3
Chile	CHL	5.9	6.3	6.6	6.7
Czech Republic	CZE	6.5	6.2	6.5	6.6
Denmark	DNK	7.9	7.8	7.6	7.5
Estonia	EST	5.4	5.3	5.4	5.6
Finland	FIN	7.7	7.5	7.4	7.5
France	FRA	6.8	6.7	6.8	6.4
Germany	DEU	6.5	6.6	6.8	7.0
Greece	GRC	6.3	5.9	5.1	5.2
Hungary	HUN	5.1	4.8	4.8	5.3
Iceland	ISL	..	6.9	7.5	7.5
Ireland	IRL	7.1	7.3	6.9	7.0
Israel	ISR	7.0	7.3	7.3	7.2
Italy	ITA	6.7	6.5	6.0	5.9
Japan	JPN	6.4	5.9	6.1	5.9
Korea	KOR	5.5	5.7	6.3	5.9
Latvia	LVA	4.7	4.9	5.1	5.9
Luxembourg	LUX	..	7.0	7.1	6.9
Mexico	MEX	6.6	6.9	7.2	6.6
Netherlands	NLD	7.5	7.6	7.5	7.4
New Zealand	NZL	7.5	7.3	7.2	7.3
Norway	NOR	7.4	7.6	7.7	7.5
Poland	POL	5.7	5.8	5.8	6.0
Portugal	PRT	5.4	5.3	5.1	5.2
Slovak Republic	SVK	5.3	6.1	5.9	6.1
Slovenia	SVN	5.8	6.0	6.0	5.8
Spain	ESP	7.1	6.6	6.3	6.4
Sweden	SWE	7.3	7.4	7.5	7.3
Switzerland	CHE	7.5	7.5	7.8	7.5
Turkey	TUR	5.2	5.3	5.2	5.5
United Kingdom	GBR	6.9	7.0	6.9	6.7
United States	USA	7.3	7.2	7.1	6.9
OECD	OECD 33	6.7	6.6	6.7	6.5
Brazil	BRA	6.5	6.8	7.0	6.6
Colombia	COL	6.1	6.3	6.5	6.4
Costa Rica	CRI	7.3	7.2	7.2	7.1
Lithuania	LTU	5.9	5.4	5.6	5.9
Russian Federation	RUS	5.1	5.4	5.5	6.0
South Africa	ZAF	5.1	5.1	4.6	4.8

Note: The OECD average is population-weighted and excludes Iceland and Luxembourg, due to incomplete time series for these countries.

Source: OECD calculations based on Gallup World Poll, *www.gallup.com/services/170945/world-poll.aspx*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933600125

Further reading:

OECD (2013), *Guidelines on Measuring Subjective Well-Being*, *www.oecd.org/statistics/guidelines-on-measuring subjective-well-being.htm*.

Online Data Annex: Resources for Future Well-Being

Reader's guide

This online-only annex provides detailed information about definitions, levels and (where available) changes since 2005 for the indicators on resources for future well-being featured in *How's Life? 2017*. These indicators cover stocks of various types of capital (usually expressed on a per capita basis), flows (e.g. investment and depreciation bearing on these stocks) and risks that may negatively affect these stocks in the future. This illustrative set of measures concerning natural, human, economic and social resources (or "capital"), together with the statistics presented in the *Online Data Annex: Current Well-Being*, provide the foundation for the analysis in Chapter 1, and for the country profiles presented in Chapter 5. The dashboard found on the third page of each country profile, includes indicators drawn from both this annex and the online annex on indicators for current well-being; this is because, in some cases (i.e. exposure to air pollution, cognitive skills at 15, adult skills, long-term unemployment, life expectancy at birth, household net wealth, and voter turnout) the same indicators are relevant to both current well-being outcomes and the resources that help to sustain well-being over time.

Throughout this annex, when there are breaks in the series, non-comparable data are highlighted in grey. Missing data are denoted by "..". ISO3 codes are used in charts and tables to identify countries. When the OECD average cannot be calculated over all OECD countries, the number of countries included is specified next to the OECD labels. The indicators shown are based on data that were last updated in the week of 24-31 July 2017.

This annex is available at *www.oecd-ilibrary.org/economics/how-s-life-2017_how_life-2017-en*.

The statistical data for Israel are supplied by and under the responsibility of the relevant Israeli authorities. The use of such data by the OECD is without prejudice to the status of the Golan Heights, East Jerusalem and Israeli settlements in the West Bank under the terms of international law.

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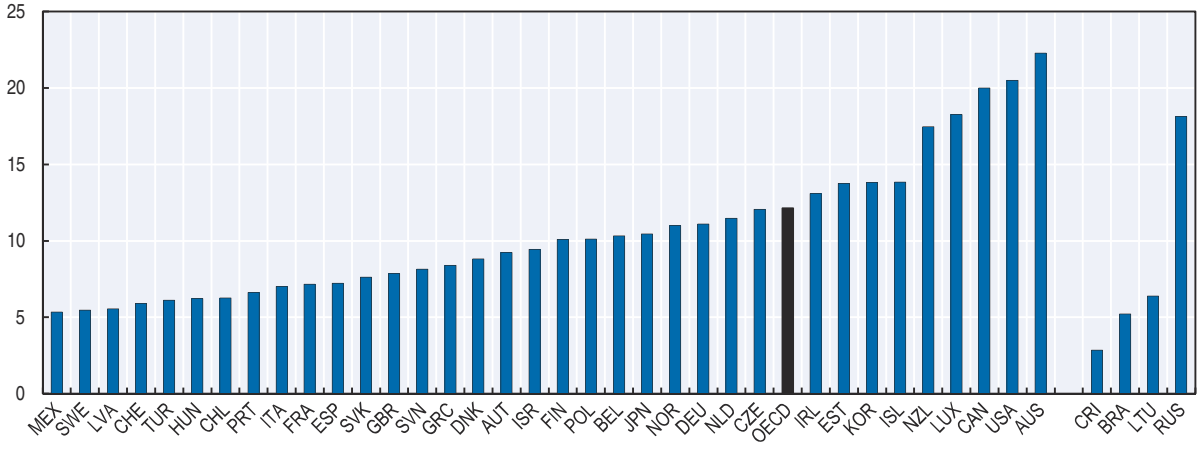
NATURAL CAPITAL: Greenhouse gas emissions from domestic production

Definition

This indicator concerns man-made emissions of six different greenhouse gases – carbon dioxide (CO_2, including emissions from energy use and industrial processes, e.g. cement production); methane (CH_4, including methane emissions from solid waste, livestock, mining of hard coal and lignite, rice paddies, agriculture and leaks from natural gas pipelines); nitrous oxide (N_2O); hydrofluorocarbons (HFCs); perfluorocarbons (PFCs); and sulphur hexafluoride (SF_6) – weighted by their "warming potential". It is expressed in tonnes per capita of CO_2 equivalent. These emissions are flows that increase GHG concentrations in the atmosphere (thereby depleting a stock of natural capital). The data, which form part of the *OECD Environment Statistics Database,* are compiled on the basis of National Inventory Submissions 2014 to the *United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change* (UNFCCC) and of replies to the OECD State of the Environment Questionnaire. The data refer to gross direct emissions excluding emissions or removals from land-use, land-use change and forestry.

Figure A.45. **Greenhouse gas emissions from domestic production**

Tonnes per capita, CO_2 equivalent, 2015 or latest available year



Note: The latest available year is 2014 for Israel; 2013 for Chile, Korea and Mexico; and 2012 for Brazil and Costa Rica. The OECD average is population-weighted.

Source: "Greenhouse gas emissions by source", OECD Environment Statistics (database), *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/data-00594-en*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933597997

Figure A.46. **Greenhouse gas emissions from domestic production, OECD average**

Tonnes per capita, CO_2 equivalent



Note: The OECD average is population-weighted.

Source: "Greenhouse gas emissions by source", OECD Environment Statistics (database), *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/data-00594-en*.

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933598016*

Table A.27. **Greenhouse gas emissions from domestic production**

Tonnes per capita, CO_2 equivalent

		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015		2015
Australia	AUS	25.8	25.7	25.6	25.2	24.9	24.4	24.1	23.8	23.0	22.4	22.3	AUS	22.3
Austria	AUT	11.3	10.9	10.5	10.4	9.6	10.2	9.9	9.5	9.5	9.0	9.2	AUT	9.2
Belgium	BEL	13.8	13.5	13.1	13.0	11.7	12.1	11.0	10.7	10.7	10.1	10.3	BEL	10.3
Canada	CAN	22.9	22.4	22.8	21.9	20.4	20.5	20.5	20.5	20.6	20.4	20.0	CAN	20.0
Chile	CHL	5.1	5.1	5.6	5.6	5.3	5.4	5.9	6.1	6.3	..	..	CHL	6.3
Czech Republic	CZE	14.3	14.4	14.5	13.9	13.0	13.2	13.0	12.7	12.3	12.0	12.1	CZE	12.1
Denmark	DNK	12.4	13.8	12.9	12.1	11.6	11.6	10.6	9.7	10.0	9.3	8.8	DNK	8.8
Estonia	EST	14.2	13.7	16.5	14.9	12.5	15.8	15.9	15.1	16.6	16.0	13.8	EST	13.8
Finland	FIN	13.2	15.3	15.0	13.4	12.6	14.1	12.6	11.5	11.6	10.8	10.1	FIN	10.1
France	FRA	9.1	8.9	8.7	8.5	8.1	8.2	7.7	7.7	7.6	7.1	7.2	FRA	7.2
Germany	DEU	12.0	12.1	11.8	11.9	11.1	11.5	11.4	11.5	11.7	11.2	11.1	DEU	11.1
Greece	GRC	12.3	11.9	12.1	11.8	11.1	10.6	10.4	10.1	9.0	8.7	8.4	GRC	8.4
Hungary	HUN	7.5	7.4	7.2	7.1	6.5	6.5	6.4	6.1	5.8	5.9	6.2	HUN	6.2
Iceland	ISL	13.0	14.5	14.9	15.8	15.0	14.6	13.8	13.9	13.9	13.7	13.8	ISL	13.8
Ireland	IRL	16.9	16.4	15.7	15.1	13.7	13.5	12.6	12.7	12.6	12.5	13.1	IRL	13.1
Israel	ISR	10.5	10.5	10.7	10.8	10.0	10.2	10.2	10.8	9.8	9.4	..	ISR	9.4
Italy	ITA	9.9	9.7	9.5	9.2	8.2	8.4	8.1	7.7	7.2	6.9	7.0	ITA	7.0
Japan	JPN	10.9	10.8	11.1	10.4	9.8	10.2	10.6	10.9	11.1	10.7	10.4	JPN	10.4
Korea	KOR	11.6	11.6	11.9	12.1	12.1	13.2	13.7	13.7	13.8	..	..	KOR	13.8
Latvia	LVA	5.0	5.3	5.6	5.4	5.2	5.8	5.6	5.6	5.5	5.5	5.6	LVA	5.6
Luxembourg	LUX	28.1	27.3	25.7	25.0	23.5	24.2	23.5	22.4	20.9	19.6	18.3	LUX	18.3
Mexico	MEX	5.7	5.9	6.1	6.3	6.1	6.1	..	..	5.3	..	..	MEX	5.3
Netherlands	NLD	13.1	12.8	12.7	12.6	12.2	12.9	12.0	11.7	11.6	11.1	11.5	NLD	11.5
New Zealand	NZL	20.0	19.7	19.0	18.8	18.1	17.9	17.8	18.1	17.9	17.8	17.5	NZL	17.5
Norway	NOR	11.9	11.8	12.1	11.6	10.9	11.3	10.9	10.7	10.5	10.4	11.0	NOR	11.0
Poland	POL	10.4	10.8	10.8	10.6	10.1	10.5	10.5	10.3	10.3	10.0	10.1	POL	10.1
Portugal	PRT	8.2	7.7	7.5	7.2	6.9	6.6	6.5	6.3	6.2	6.2	6.6	PRT	6.6
Slovak Republic	SVK	9.6	9.5	9.2	9.3	8.5	8.6	8.4	8.0	7.9	7.5	7.6	SVK	7.6
Slovenia	SVN	10.2	10.3	10.3	10.6	9.6	9.6	9.6	9.3	8.9	8.1	8.1	SVN	8.1
Spain	ESP	10.1	9.7	9.7	8.9	8.0	7.7	7.6	7.5	6.9	7.0	7.2	ESP	7.2
Sweden	SWE	7.4	7.4	7.1	6.8	6.3	6.9	6.4	6.0	5.8	5.6	5.5	SWE	5.5
Switzerland	CHE	7.4	7.3	7.0	7.1	6.8	6.9	6.4	6.5	6.6	6.0	5.9	CHE	5.9
Turkey	TUR	4.9	5.2	5.6	5.5	5.6	5.6	5.9	6.0	5.8	5.9	6.1	TUR	6.1
United Kingdom	GBR	11.6	11.5	11.2	10.8	9.8	9.9	9.1	9.3	9.0	8.3	7.9	GBR	7.9
United States	USA	24.7	24.3	24.4	23.5	21.8	22.4	21.7	20.8	21.1	21.1	20.5	USA	20.5
OECD	OECD	14.1	13.9	14.0	13.6	12.7	13.0	12.8	12.6	12.5	12.3	12.1	OECD	12.1
Brazil	BRA	4.7	4.8	4.7	4.8	4.7	4.9	5.1	5.2	..	..	..	BRA	5.2
Costa Rica	CRI	2.6	..	..	..	..	2.8	..	2.8	..		..	CRI	2.8
Lithuania	LTU	6.8	6.9	7.6	7.4	6.1	6.4	6.6	6.6	6.3	6.3	6.4	LTU	6.4
Russian Federation	RUS	17.4	18.0	18.1	18.3	17.4	18.2	18.6	18.9	18.4	18.4	18.1	RUS	18.1

Note: The OECD average is population-weighted.

Source: "Greenhouse gas emissions by source", OECD Environment Statistics (database), *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/data-00594-en*.

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933600144*

Further reading:

OECD (2012), *OECD Environmental Outlook to 2050: The Consequences of Inaction*, OECD Publishing, Paris, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264122246-en*.

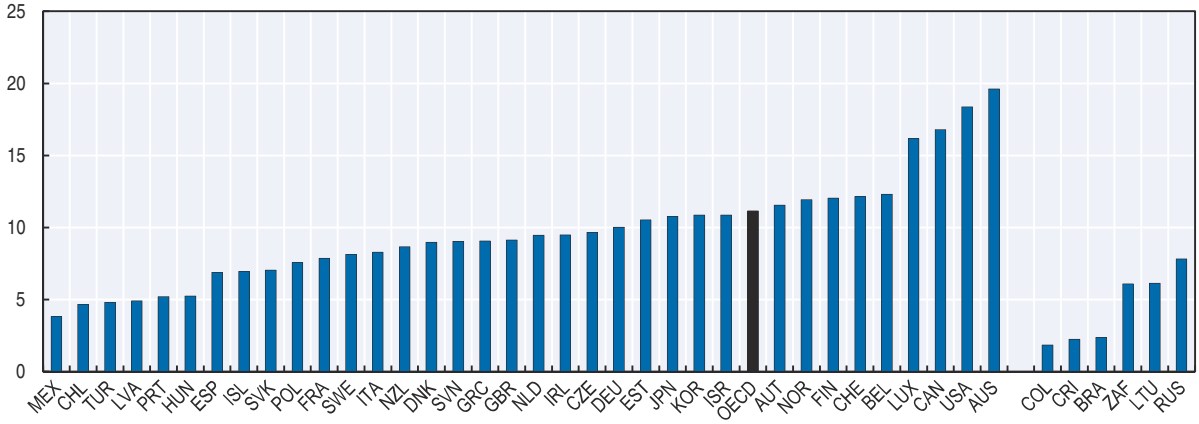
NATURAL CAPITAL: CO_2 emissions from domestic consumption

Definition

As a complement to "Greenhouse gas emissions from domestic production", estimates of CO_2 emissions from domestic *consumption* are also considered. This indicator is an estimate of the total emissions of carbon dioxide (CO_2) associated with domestic consumption, including both CO_2 emitted and consumed domestically and CO_2 emitted abroad and embodied in imports. Emissions embodied in the domestic consumption of a country increase global GHG concentrations even when there are no increases in emissions from domestic production. This indicator is derived from the 2015 edition of the *OECD Inter-Country Input-Output* (ICIO) database, combined with IEA statistics on CO_2 emissions from fuel combustion and other industry statistics. Per capita values are obtained by dividing the CO_2 embodied in final demand by the country's population data, as available in the *UN World Population Prospects: The 2015 Revision*, file POP/1-1. The data, which form part of the *OECD Structural Analysis Databases,* are compiled according to the methodology detailed in Wiebe and Yamano (2016).

Figure A.47. **Carbon dioxide emissions embodied in domestic final demand**

Tonnes per capita, 2011



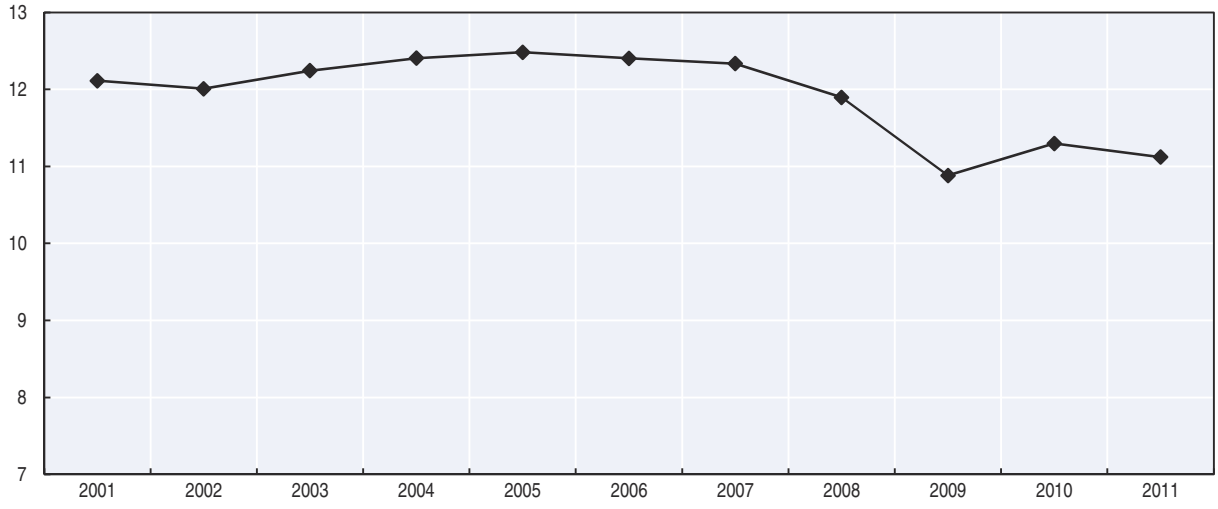
Note: The OECD average is population-weighted.

Source: "Carbon Dioxide Emissions embodied in International Trade", OECD Structural Analysis (STAN) Databases,*http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=IO_GHG_2015*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933598035

Figure A.48. **Carbon dioxide emissions embodied in domestic final demand, OECD average**

Tonnes per capita



Note: The OECD average is population-weighted.

Source: "Carbon Dioxide Emissions embodied in International Trade", OECD Structural Analysis (STAN) Databases, *http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=IO_GHG_2015*.

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933598054*

Table A.28. **Carbon dioxide emissions embodied in domestic final demand**

Tonnes per capita

		2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011		2011
Australia	AUS	17.0	18.0	18.9	19.9	20.2	19.9	20.4	19.8	19.4	19.3	19.6	AUS	19.6
Austria	AUT	11.6	12.0	12.1	12.0	11.9	11.3	11.3	11.4	10.4	11.2	11.6	AUT	11.6
Belgium	BEL	11.8	11.4	12.0	12.2	12.2	12.2	11.5	13.0	11.3	12.3	12.3	BEL	12.3
Canada	CAN	15.6	15.7	16.7	16.8	17.1	17.3	17.8	17.3	16.3	16.9	16.8	CAN	16.8
Chile	CHL	3.1	3.3	3.3	3.5	3.6	3.6	4.0	4.2	3.8	4.3	4.7	CHL	4.7
Czech Republic	CZE	11.7	12.0	11.6	11.4	10.8	10.8	10.6	10.7	9.9	10.5	9.7	CZE	9.7
Denmark	DNK	11.9	12.3	12.5	12.8	11.7	12.5	12.3	11.7	10.6	9.7	9.0	DNK	9.0
Estonia	EST	11.7	11.8	13.0	11.3	12.2	12.0	13.2	12.3	9.6	10.8	10.5	EST	10.5
Finland	FIN	14.5	15.5	15.9	15.3	13.7	14.1	13.9	13.2	12.6	12.7	12.0	FIN	12.0
France	FRA	8.3	8.0	8.6	8.7	8.7	8.6	8.6	8.7	8.0	8.1	7.9	FRA	7.9
Germany	DEU	11.9	11.2	11.6	11.2	11.0	11.1	10.7	10.8	10.0	10.1	10.0	DEU	10.0
Greece	GRC	10.1	10.7	11.2	11.6	11.1	11.0	11.7	11.5	10.5	9.7	9.1	GRC	9.1
Hungary	HUN	6.8	7.1	7.3	7.4	6.8	6.5	6.2	6.2	5.6	5.5	5.3	HUN	5.3
Iceland	ISL	10.1	9.9	10.6	11.3	13.0	14.8	13.9	10.2	7.2	7.2	7.0	ISL	7.0
Ireland	IRL	12.7	12.2	12.2	12.7	13.4	13.8	14.7	13.6	11.2	10.6	9.5	IRL	9.5
Israel	ISR	11.9	11.7	11.4	11.3	10.7	10.5	11.0	10.8	10.2	10.7	10.9	ISR	10.9
Italy	ITA	9.3	9.2	9.7	9.9	9.8	9.6	9.4	9.1	8.2	8.4	8.3	ITA	8.3
Japan	JPN	10.8	10.8	10.9	11.1	11.1	10.8	10.8	10.4	9.7	10.2	10.8	JPN	10.8
Korea	KOR	9.2	9.4	9.3	9.6	10.0	10.5	10.7	10.5	9.7	10.7	10.9	KOR	10.9
Latvia	LVA	4.3	4.5	5.3	5.2	5.4	5.9	6.6	6.1	4.5	4.7	4.9	LVA	4.9
Luxembourg	LUX	15.9	15.3	16.5	17.1	19.4	17.8	17.3	18.3	14.1	16.4	16.2	LUX	16.2
Mexico	MEX	3.7	3.6	3.6	3.7	3.8	3.9	4.0	3.9	3.5	3.7	3.8	MEX	3.8
Netherlands	NLD	11.1	10.9	11.2	10.9	10.3	10.3	10.2	10.4	10.0	10.2	9.5	NLD	9.5
New Zealand	NZL	8.1	8.3	9.0	9.3	10.2	9.6	9.8	9.4	8.2	8.6	8.7	NZL	8.7
Norway	NOR	11.5	11.0	11.9	11.7	11.5	11.8	11.9	11.9	10.6	11.9	11.9	NOR	11.9
Poland	POL	7.6	7.3	7.1	7.0	7.2	7.5	7.5	7.9	7.3	7.8	7.6	POL	7.6
Portugal	PRT	7.0	7.2	6.8	7.0	7.5	6.8	6.6	6.5	6.0	5.5	5.2	PRT	5.2
Slovak Republic	SVK	7.6	7.8	7.3	7.2	7.4	7.2	7.5	7.8	7.4	7.4	7.1	SVK	7.1
Slovenia	SVN	9.7	8.6	9.7	9.7	9.3	9.6	10.0	10.4	8.8	9.0	9.1	SVN	9.1
Spain	ESP	7.8	8.1	8.5	9.0	9.4	9.4	9.6	8.7	7.4	7.1	6.9	ESP	6.9
Sweden	SWE	8.0	8.6	9.2	8.9	8.8	8.7	8.9	8.4	6.9	8.5	8.1	SWE	8.1
Switzerland	CHE	12.6	11.5	11.2	11.2	12.0	11.6	11.7	11.7	11.1	12.0	12.2	CHE	12.2
Turkey	TUR	2.9	3.1	3.4	3.7	4.0	4.3	4.7	4.6	4.1	4.5	4.8	TUR	4.8
United Kingdom	GBR	11.4	11.3	11.5	11.8	11.9	11.9	11.9	11.0	9.5	9.8	9.1	GBR	9.1
United States	USA	21.6	21.4	21.5	21.9	21.9	21.6	21.2	20.0	18.3	19.0	18.4	USA	18.4
OECD	OECD	12.1	12.0	12.2	12.4	12.5	12.4	12.3	11.9	10.9	11.3	11.1	OECD	11.1
Brazil	BRA	1.7	1.6	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.9	2.1	1.9	2.3	2.4	BRA	2.4
Colombia	COL	1.6	1.6	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.6	1.7	1.9	COL	1.9
Costa Rica	CRI	2.0	2.1	1.9	1.9	1.9	2.0	2.1	2.2	1.8	2.1	2.3	CRI	2.3
Lithuania	LTU	4.4	4.4	5.0	5.1	5.4	5.9	6.2	6.3	5.4	6.0	6.1	LTU	6.1
Russian Federation	RUS	5.2	5.4	5.6	6.1	6.0	6.8	7.5	7.5	6.9	7.4	7.8	RUS	7.8
South Africa	ZAF	4.9	4.9	5.5	5.9	5.8	5.9	6.2	6.4	6.2	6.3	6.1	ZAF	6.1

Note: The OECD average is population-weighted.

Source: "Carbon Dioxide Emissions embodied in International Trade", OECD Structural Analysis (STAN) Databases, *http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=IO_GHG_2015*.

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933600163*

Further reading:

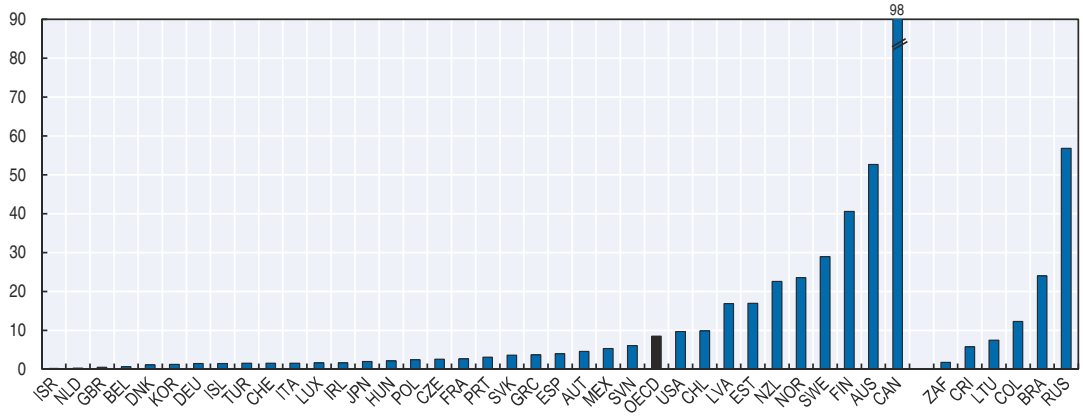
Wiebe, K. and N. Yamano (2016),"Estimating CO_2 Emissions Embodied in Final Demand and Trade Using the OECD ICIO 2015: Methodology and Results",*OECD Science, Technology and Industry Working Papers*, No. 2016/05, OECD Publishing, Paris, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/5jlrcm216xkl-en*.

NATURAL CAPITAL: Forest area

Definition

This indicator refers to the stock of forest and wooded land, expressed in square kilometres per thousand people. It includes forested land spanning more than 0.5 hectares, and with a canopy cover of more than 10%, or trees able to reach these thresholds in situ. It excludes woodland or forest predominantly under agricultural or urban land use, or used only for recreational purposes. The data shown here come from the *OECD Environment Statistics Database*, which features data reported by UNECE and the UN Food and Agriculture Organisation's (FAO) Global Forest Resources Assessment. The FAO's assessment methodology relies on both country reports prepared by national correspondents and remote sensing.

Figure A.49. **Forest area**
Square kilometres per thousand people, 2014



Note: The OECD average is population-weighted.
Source: OECD calculations based on "Land Resources", OECD Environment Statistics (database), *http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=LAND_USE*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933598073

Figure A.50. **Forest area, OECD average**
Square kilometres per thousand people



Note: The OECD average is population-weighted.
Source: OECD calculations based on "Land Resources", OECD Environment Statistics (database), *http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=LAND_USE*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933598092

Table A.29. **Forest area**

Square kilometres per thousand people

		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014		2014
Australia	AUS	63.0	61.5	60.0	58.5	57.0	55.6	54.8	54.0	53.3	52.7	AUS	52.7
Austria	AUT	4.7	4.7	4.6	4.6	4.6	4.6	4.6	4.6	4.6	4.5	AUT	4.5
Belgium	BEL	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	BEL	0.6
Canada	CAN	107.8	106.6	105.3	104.1	102.9	101.8	100.7	99.6	98.5	97.5	CAN	97.5
Chile	CHL	10.0	9.9	9.8	9.7	9.6	9.5	9.6	9.7	9.7	9.8	CHL	9.8
Czech Republic	CZE	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5	CZE	2.5
Denmark	DNK	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	DNK	1.1
Estonia	EST	16.6	16.7	16.7	16.7	16.7	16.8	16.8	16.9	16.9	17.0	EST	17.0
Finland	FIN	42.2	42.1	41.9	41.8	41.6	41.4	41.2	41.0	40.7	40.5	FIN	40.5
France	FRA	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.6	FRA	2.6
Germany	DEU	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	DEU	1.4
Greece	GRC	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.6	3.6	3.7	GRC	3.7
Hungary	HUN	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.1	2.1	2.1	2.1	HUN	2.1
Iceland	ISL	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.5	ISL	1.5
Ireland	IRL	1.7	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	IRL	1.6
Israel	ISR	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	ISR	0.2
Italy	ITA	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	ITA	1.5
Japan	JPN	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	JPN	2.0
Korea	KOR	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.2	KOR	1.2
Latvia	LVA	14.8	15.0	15.3	15.5	15.8	16.0	16.3	16.5	16.7	16.9	LVA	16.9
Luxembourg	LUX	1.9	1.9	1.8	1.8	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.6	1.6	1.6	LUX	1.6
Mexico	MEX	6.1	6.0	5.9	5.8	5.7	5.6	5.5	5.4	5.4	5.3	MEX	5.3
Netherlands	NLD	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	NLD	0.2
New Zealand	NZL	24.6	24.3	24.0	23.7	23.5	23.2	23.0	22.9	22.7	22.6	NZL	22.6
Norway	NOR	26.1	25.9	25.6	25.4	25.0	24.7	24.4	24.1	23.8	23.5	NOR	23.5
Poland	POL	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	POL	2.4
Portugal	PRT	3.1	3.1	3.1	3.1	3.1	3.1	3.1	3.1	3.1	3.1	PRT	3.1
Slovak Republic	SVK	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.6	SVK	3.6
Slovenia	SVN	6.2	6.2	6.2	6.1	6.1	6.1	6.1	6.0	6.0	6.0	SVN	6.0
Spain	ESP	3.9	3.9	3.9	3.9	3.9	3.9	3.9	3.9	3.9	4.0	ESP	4.0
Sweden	SWE	31.2	31.0	30.8	30.5	30.2	29.9	29.7	29.4	29.2	28.9	SWE	28.9
Switzerland	CHE	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.5	1.5	1.5	CHE	1.5
Turkey	TUR	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	TUR	1.5
United Kingdom	GBR	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	GBR	0.5
United States	USA	10.3	10.2	10.2	10.1	10.0	10.0	9.9	9.8	9.8	9.7	USA	9.7
OECD	OECD	9.0	8.9	8.8	8.8	8.7	8.6	8.6	8.6	8.5	8.5	OECD	8.5
Brazil	BRA	26.9	26.5	26.1	25.8	25.4	25.1	24.8	24.5	24.3	24.0	BRA	24.0
Colombia	COL	13.9	13.7	13.4	13.2	13.0	12.8	12.6	12.5	12.4	12.2	COL	12.2
Costa Rica	CRI	5.9	5.8	5.8	5.8	5.8	5.7	5.7	5.7	5.7	5.7	CRI	5.7
Lithuania	LTU	6.3	6.4	6.6	6.7	6.8	6.9	7.1	7.2	7.3	7.5	LTU	7.5
Russian Federation	RUS	56	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	RUS	57
South Africa	ZAF	1.9	1.9	1.9	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.7	1.7	1.7	ZAF	1.7

Note: The OECD average is population-weighted.

Source: "OECD calculations based on "Land Resources", OECD Environment Statistics (database), *http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=LAND_USE*.

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933600182*

Further reading:

OECD (2017), *Green Growth Indicators 2017*, OECD Green Growth Studies, OECD Publishing, Paris, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264268586-en*.

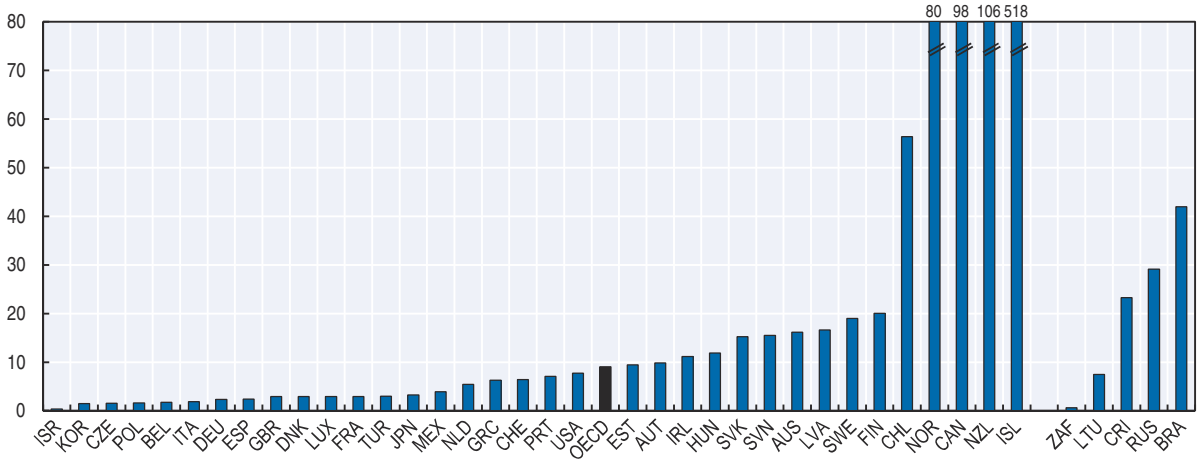
NATURAL CAPITAL: Renewable freshwater resources

Definition

This indicator is expressed as the long-term annual average availability of the stock of renewable freshwater, expressed in cubic metres per capita. It refers to the total volume of river run-off and groundwater generated, in natural conditions, exclusively by precipitation into a territory, plus the total volume of the flow of rivers and groundwater coming from neighbouring territories. This indicator is part of the OECD's Green Growth Indicator set, and the data are drawn from the *OECD Environment Statistics Database*.

Figure A.51. **Renewable freshwater resources**

1 000 m^3 per capita, long-term annual average



Note: Values for the United Kingdom refer to England and Wales only. The long-term annual average refers to the period 1961-90 for Austria; it excludes undergrounds flows and includes estimates for Belgium. Data refer to the period 1971-2004 for Canada; 2000-14 for Chile; 1974-2012 for Colombia; 1990-2014 for Costa Rica; the latest 20 years for the Czech Republic; the latest 30 years (including only data about fresh surface water) for Estonia; 1981-2010 (including inflow and outflow, with the latter computed using the throughput of rivers having their source in France but the mouth in another country) for France; 1993-2013 for Germany; 1971-2000 for Hungary; 2000-13 for Israel; 1971-2006 for Japan; 1974-2003 for Korea; 2005-13 for Latvia; 2000-14 for Lithuania; 1981-2010 for the Netherlands; 1951-2014 for Poland; 1971-2000 for Slovenia; 1990-2009 for Sweden; 1981-2010 for Switzerland; and 1980-2011 for Turkey. The OECD average is population-weighted.

Source: "Water: Freshwater resources (long-term averages)", OECD Environment Statistics (database), *http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=WATER_RESOURCES*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933598111

Table A.30. **Renewable freshwater resources**

1 000 m^3 per capita, long-term annual average

		long-term annual average
Australia	AUS	16.2
Austria	AUT	9.8
Belgium	BEL	1.8
Canada	CAN	97.6
Chile	CHL	56.4
Czech Republic	CZE	1.5
Denmark	DNK	2.9
Estonia	EST	9.4
Finland	FIN	20.1
France	FRA	3.0
Germany	DEU	2.3
Greece	GRC	6.3
Hungary	HUN	11.9
Iceland	ISL	518.2
Ireland	IRL	11.1
Israel	ISR	0.3
Italy	ITA	1.9
Japan	JPN	3.3
Korea	KOR	1.5
Latvia	LVA	16.6
Luxembourg	LUX	2.9
Mexico	MEX	3.9
Netherlands	NLD	5.4
New Zealand	NZL	105.6
Norway	NOR	80.1
Poland	POL	1.6
Portugal	PRT	7.1
Slovak Republic	SVK	15.2
Slovenia	SVN	15.5
Spain	ESP	2.4
Sweden	SWE	19.0
Switzerland	CHE	6.4
Turkey	TUR	3.0
United Kingdom	GBR	2.9
United States	USA	7.7
OECD	OECD	9.1
Brazil	BRA	41.9
Costa Rica	CRI	23.3
Lithuania	LTU	7.5
Russian Federation	RUS	29.1
South Africa	ZAF	0.6

Note: Values for the United Kingdom refer to England and Wales only. The long-term annual average refers to the period 1961-90 for Austria; excludes undergrounds flows and includes estimates for Belgium; refers to the period 1971-2004 for Canada; 2000-14 for Chile; 1974-2012 for Colombia; 1990-2014 for Costa Rica; the latest 20 years for the Czech Republic; the latest 30 years (including only data about fresh surface water) for Estonia; 1981-2010 (including inflow and outflow, with the latter computed using the throughput of rivers having their source in France but the mouth in another country) for France; 1993-2013 for Germany; 1971-2000 for Hungary; 2000-13 for Israel; 1971-2006 for Japan; 1974-2003 for Korea; 2005-13 for Latvia; 2000-14 for Lithuania; 1981-2010 for the Netherlands; 1951-2014 for Poland; 1971-2000 for Slovenia; 1990-2009 for Sweden; 1981-2010 for Switzerland; and 1980-2011 for Turkey. The OECD average is population-weighted.

Source: "Water: Freshwater resources (long-term averages)", OECD Environment Statistics (database), *http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=WATER_RESOURCES*.

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933600201*

Further reading:

OECD (2017), *Green Growth Indicators 2017*, OECD Green Growth Studies, OECD Publishing, Paris, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264268586-en*.

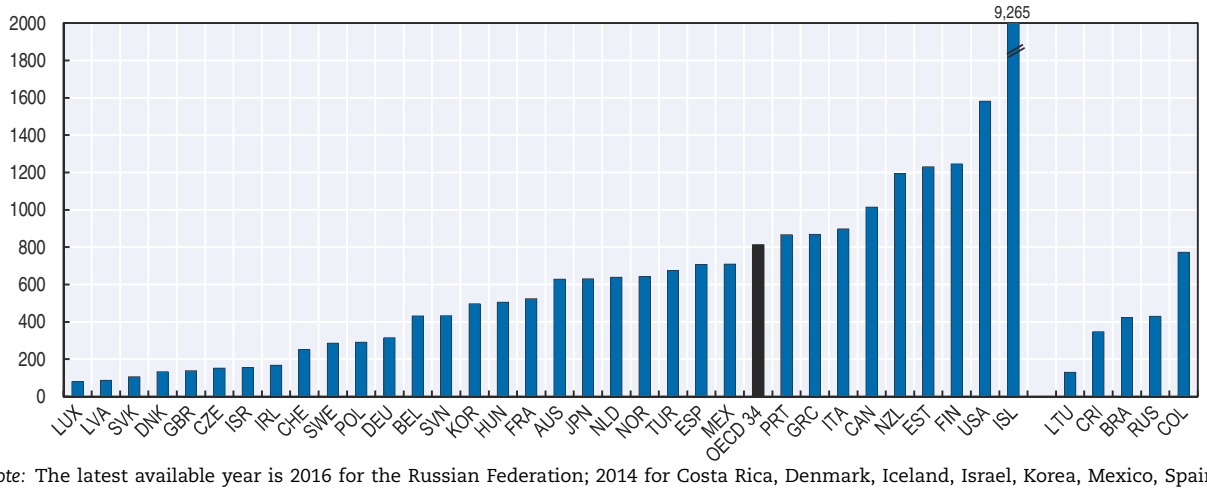
NATURAL CAPITAL: Freshwater abstractions

Definition

This indicator is expressed as gross abstraction from groundwater or surface water bodies, in cubic metres per capita. It includes abstractions for agricultural (e.g. irrigation) and industrial use (e.g. cooling and industrial processes), as well as for public supply. These abstractions are a flow that depletes the available freshwater resources. For some countries, these data refer to water permits rather than to actual abstractions. This indicator is part of the OECD's Green Growth Indicator set, and the data are drawn from the *OECD Environment Statistics Database*.

Figure A.52. **Freshwater abstractions**

Cubic metres per capita, 2015 or latest available year



Note: The latest available year is 2016 for the Russian Federation; 2014 for Costa Rica, Denmark, Iceland, Israel, Korea, Mexico, Spain, Turkey; 2013 for Belgium, Canada, France, Germany and the United Kingdom; 2012 for Brazil, Colombia, Hungary, Japan, the Netherlands, Switzerland; 2011 for Australia; 2010 for New Zealand, Sweden and the United States; 2009 for Ireland; 2008 for Italy; 2007 for Norway and Portugal; 2006 for Finland; and 2005 for Iceland and Korea. Values for the United Kingdom refer to England and Wales only. The OECD average is an estimate based on imputations and excludes Chile, as no information is available for this country.

Source: "Water: Freshwater abstractions", OECD Environment Statistics (database), *http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=WATER_ABSTRACT* and the Federal agency of water resources for the Russian Federation.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933598130

Table A.31. **Freshwater abstractions**

Cubic metres per capita, 2015 or latest available year

		Latest available
Australia	AUS	629
Austria	AUT	..
Belgium	BEL	431
Canada	CAN	1015
Chile	CHL	..
Czech Republic	CZE	152
Denmark	DNK	133
Estonia	EST	1 232
Finland	FIN	1 246
France	FRA	524
Germany	DEU	314
Greece	GRC	869
Hungary	HUN	506
Iceland	ISL	9 265
Ireland	IRL	167
Israel	ISR	155
Italy	ITA	898
Japan	JPN	631
Korea	KOR	498
Latvia	LVA	87
Luxembourg	LUX	80
Mexico	MEX	709
Netherlands	NLD	640
New Zealand	NZL	1 195
Norway	NOR	643
Poland	POL	292
Portugal	PRT	868
Slovak Republic	SVK	106
Slovenia	SVN	433
Spain	ESP	708
Sweden	SWE	287
Switzerland	CHE	252
Turkey	TUR	676
United Kingdom	GBR	138
United States	USA	1 582
OECD	OECD 34	812
Brazil	BRA	424
Colombia	COL	773
Costa Rica	CRI	348
Lithuania	LTU	131
Russian Federation	RUS	430

Note: The latest available year is 2016 for the Russian Federation; 2014 for Costa Rica, Denmark, Iceland, Israel, Korea, Mexico, Spain, Turkey; 2013 for Belgium, Canada, France, Germany and the United Kingdom; 2012 for Brazil, Colombia, Hungary, Japan, the Netherlands, Switzerland; 2011 for Australia; 2010 for New Zealand, Sweden and the United States; 2009 for Ireland; 2008 for Italy; 2007 for Norway and Portugal; 2006 for Finland; and 2005 for Iceland and Korea. Values for the United Kingdom refer to England and Wales only. The OECD average is an estimate based on imputations and excludes Chile, as no information is available for this country.

Source: "Water: Freshwater abstractions", OECD Environment Statistics (database), *http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=WATER_ABSTRACT* and the Federal agency of water resources for the Russian Federation.

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933600220*

Further reading:

OECD (2017), *Green Growth Indicators 2017*, OECD Green Growth Studies, OECD Publishing, Paris, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264268586-en*.

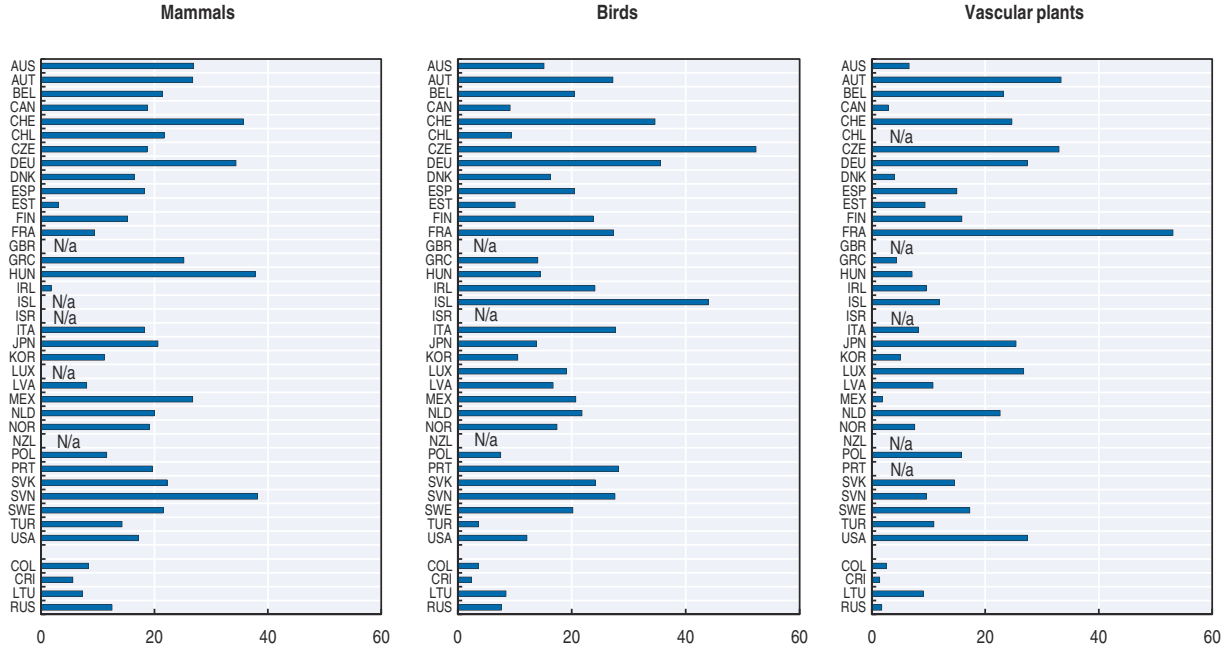
NATURAL CAPITAL: Threatened species

Definition

This indicator refers to the percentage of mammals, birds and vascular plants that are critically endangered, endangered or vulnerable – i.e. those plants and animals that are in danger of extinction or soon likely to be, based on the IUCN Red List categories and criteria. The data shown here refer to threatened species as a percentage of all known species (as opposed to focusing only on indigenous species) and exclude fish, reptiles, amphibians, invertebrates or fungi. Threatened species imply a risk to the stock of biodiversity of a country. Data refer to the latest year available, which corresponds to the late 2000s for most countries. The data source is the OECD's Green Growth Indicator set, part of the *OECD Environment Statistics Database*. The data on the state of threatened species are based on country replies to the Annual Quality Assurance (AQA) of OECD environmental reference series. These data are harmonised through the work of the OECD Working Party on Environmental Information (WPEI).

Figure A.53. **Threatened species**

As a percentage of all known species, latest available year



Note: "Threatened" refers to "endangered", "critically endangered" and "vulnerable" species, i.e. species in danger of extinction and species soon likely to be in danger of extinction. The data presented here refer to the latest year available, which corresponds to the late 2000s for most countries.

Source: "Biodiversity: Threatened species", OECD Environment Statistics (database), *http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode= WILD_LIFE.*

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933598149*

Table A.32. **Threatened species**

As a percentage of all known species, latest available year

		Mammals	Birds	Vascular plants
Australia	AUS	26.9	15.1	6.6
Austria	AUT	26.7	27.3	33.4
Belgium	BEL	21.4	20.5	23.3
Canada	CAN	18.8	9.2	2.9
Chile	CHL	21.7	9.4	..
Czech Republic	CZE	18.7	52.4	33.0
Denmark	DNK	16.4	16.3	4.0
Estonia	EST	3.1	10.1	9.4
Finland	FIN	15.3	23.8	15.9
France	FRA	9.5	27.4	53.1
Germany	DEU	34.4	35.6	27.4
Greece	GRC	25.2	14.1	4.4
Hungary	HUN	37.8	14.5	7.1
Iceland	ISL	..	44.0	11.9
Ireland	IRL	1.8	24.1	9.6
Israel	ISR	..	..	..
Italy	ITA	18.3	27.7	8.2
Japan	JPN	20.6	13.9	25.4
Korea	KOR	11.2	10.5	5.1
Latvia	LVA	8.1	16.7	10.8
Luxembourg	LUX	..	19.1	26.8
Mexico	MEX	26.8	20.7	1.9
Netherlands	NLD	20.0	21.8	22.6
New Zealand	NZL	..	..	..
Norway	NOR	19.1	17.4	7.6
Poland	POL	11.6	7.5	15.8
Portugal	PRT	19.6	28.2	..
Slovak Republic	SVK	22.2	24.2	14.6
Slovenia	SVN	38.2	27.6	9.7
Spain	ESP	18.3	20.5	15.0
Sweden	SWE	21.5	20.2	17.3
Switzerland	CHE	35.7	34.6	24.7
Turkey	TUR	14.3	3.7	11.0
United Kingdom	GBR	..	..	..
United States	USA	17.2	12.2	27.5
Colombia	COL	8.4	3.6	2.5
Costa Rica	CRI	5.6	2.4	1.4
Lithuania	LTU	7.4	8.5	9.1
Russian federation	RUS	12.5	7.7	1.8

Note: "Threatened" refers to "endangered", "critically endangered" and "vulnerable" species, i.e. species in danger of extinction and species soon likely to be in danger of extinction. The data presented here refer to the latest year available, which corresponds to the late 2000s for most countries.

Source: "Biodiversity: Threatened species", OECD Environment Statistics (database). *http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=WILD_LIFE.*

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933600239*

Further reading:

OECD (2017), *Green Growth Indicators 2017*, OECD Green Growth Studies, OECD Publishing, Paris, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264268586-en*.

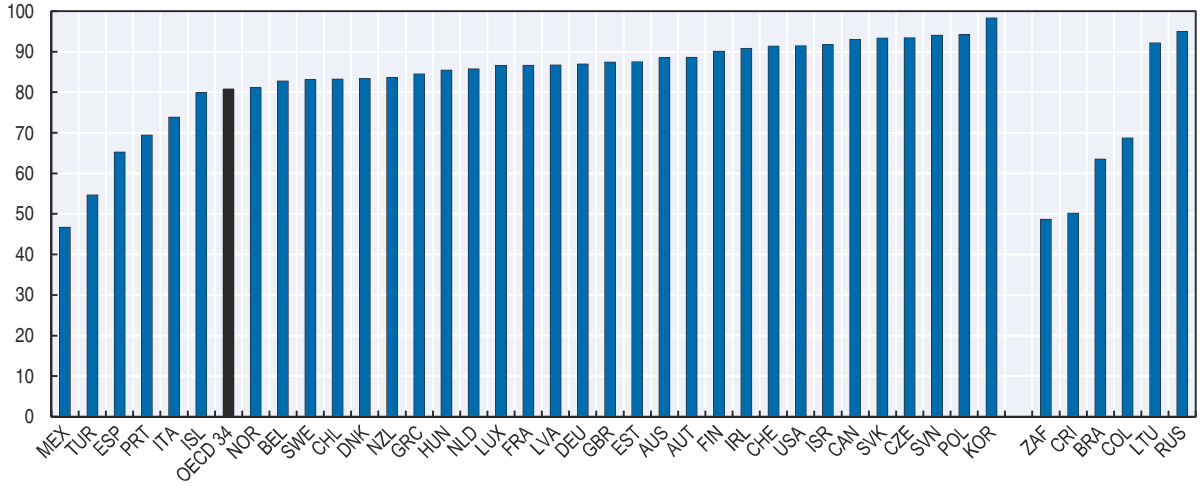
HUMAN CAPITAL: Young adult educational attainment

Definition

This indicator refers to the number of adults aged 25 to 34 having completed at least an upper secondary education, over the total population of the same age. While the educational attainment of the total population captures an important aspect of the stock of human capital of a country, this indicator is used here as it focuses on the renewal of that stock, i.e. young adults exiting the educational system to enter into the labour market. The definition of "at least upper secondary education" corresponds to the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED 2011) levels 3 and above and includes both: i) programmes defined as "general", which are often designed for preparing students for further education; and ii) programmes geared towards vocational education and training (VET). The data underlying this indicator are collected through the annual OECD questionnaire on National Educational Attainment Categories (NAEC) and are based on national Labour Force Survey data.

Figure A.54. **Upper secondary educational attainment, people aged 25-34**

Percentage of people who have attained at least an upper secondary education, 2016 or latest available year



Note: Data are compiled following the ISCED 2011 classification for all countries except South Africa, where they are compiled following the ISCED-97 classification. The latest available year is 2015 for Brazil, Chile, Ireland, the Russian Federation and South Africa. The OECD average is population-weighted and excludes Japan.

Source: "Educational attainment and labour force status", *OECD Education at a glance* (database), *http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=EAG_NEAC.*

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933598168

Further reading:

OECD (2017), *Education at a Glance 2017: OECD Indicators*, OECD Publishing, Paris, *http://dx.doi.org/10.187/eag-2017-en.*

Table A.33. **Upper secondary educational attainment, people aged 25-34**

Percentage of people who have attained at least an upper secondary education

		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016		Latest available
Australia	AUS	78.6	80.1	81.4	82.5	82.9	84.8	84.4	86.6	85.7	86.7	88.1	88.6	AUS	88.6
Austria	AUT	85.6	87.0	86.5	87.5	88.1	87.8	88.0	88.4	89.1	90.0	90.0	88.6	AUT	88.6
Belgium	BEL	80.9	81.6	81.6	83.1	83.1	82.1	81.9	81.9	81.7	82.3	82.5	82.8	BEL	82.8
Canada	CAN	90.8	91.0	91.3	91.8	91.8	92.1	92.4	92.2	92.5	92.6	93.3	93.1	CAN	93.1
Chile	CHL	..	..	..	..	74.5	..	76.9	..	80.0	..	83.2	..	CHL	83.2
Czech Republic	CZE	93.9	94.2	94.2	94.2	94.2	94.2	94.3	93.7	94.4	94.6	93.7	93.4	CZE	93.4
Denmark	DNK	87.4	88.4	80.6	78.9	79.7	79.6	80.3	81.7	81.9	82.2	83.6	83.4	DNK	83.4
Estonia	EST	87.3	87.4	86.0	84.9	85.7	86.5	85.8	86.6	87.8	86.9	87.7	87.5	EST	87.5
Finland	FIN	89.4	89.6	90.0	90.1	90.4	90.8	90.2	90.0	90.8	90.2	89.5	90.1	FIN	90.1
France	FRA	81.5	82.2	82.7	82.8	83.8	83.8	83.3	83.3	85.3	86.7	86.5	86.7	FRA	86.7
Germany	DEU	84.1	84.0	85.0	85.8	86.0	86.5	86.8	86.8	86.9	87.3	87.3	87.0	DEU	87.0
Greece	GRC	74.4	75.6	75.5	75.1	75.2	75.5	76.9	79.4	81.1	81.7	83.6	84.5	GRC	84.5
Hungary	HUN	85.0	85.6	85.3	85.6	86.0	86.3	87.3	87.5	87.3	87.0	86.0	85.5	HUN	85.5
Iceland	ISL	70.9	70.4	70.6	71.5	71.6	73.6	74.2	74.2	72.5	73.8	75.2	80.0	ISL	80.0
Ireland	IRL	81.1	82.5	83.6	84.7	85.4	85.6	84.9	85.9	86.8	90.1	90.8	..	IRL	90.8
Israel	ISR	85.5	..	85.4	87.5	87.4	88.1	89.7	90.3	90.7	90.8	91.2	91.8	ISR	91.8
Italy	ITA	65.9	67.1	68.2	68.9	70.3	71.0	71.3	71.8	72.7	73.8	74.4	73.9	ITA	73.9
Japan	JPN	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	JPN	..
Korea	KOR	97.3	97.4	97.5	97.6	97.6	97.8	98.0	98.2	98.3	98.3	98.3	98.3	KOR	98.3
Latvia	LVA	80.4	79.3	80.4	80.9	80.7	83.7	82.8	85.4	86.7	83.6	84.9	86.7	LVA	86.7
Luxembourg	LUX	76.5	78.3	77.1	79.4	83.8	84.0	83.4	86.1	86.0	86.9	84.5	86.6	LUX	86.6
Mexico	MEX	33.7	34.3	34.8	35.1	36.9	38.3	39.7	41.5	42.9	43.8	45.0	46.7	MEX	46.7
Netherlands	NLD	81.3	81.5	82.6	82.4	82.4	82.7	81.7	83.3	84.8	85.2	85.6	85.8	NLD	85.8
New Zealand	NZL	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	81.1	81.0	83.7	NZL	83.7
Norway	NOR	83.5	83.3	83.1	84.0	83.6	82.9	83.8	82.1	82.3	81.4	81.3	81.2	NOR	81.2
Poland	POL	92.0	92.1	92.1	92.8	93.5	93.6	94.0	94.4	94.2	94.2	93.9	94.2	POL	94.2
Portugal	PRT	42.8	44.1	44.4	46.7	48.2	52.1	55.7	57.9	60.8	64.7	66.7	69.5	PRT	69.5
Slovak Republic	SVK	92.8	94.1	94.0	94.5	94.8	94.1	94.0	94.1	94.1	92.5	92.8	93.4	SVK	93.4
Slovenia	SVN	91.2	91.5	92.3	92.4	93.5	93.5	94.0	94.2	94.5	93.9	94.1	94.1	SVN	94.1
Spain	ESP	64.5	64.8	65.4	65.7	64.6	65.3	65.4	64.9	64.7	65.6	65.6	65.3	ESP	65.3
Sweden	SWE	90.6	90.7	91.0	91.2	91.1	90.8	90.9	90.8	91.4	81.8	82.3	83.1	SWE	83.1
Switzerland	CHE	89.8	89.2	89.7	90.3	90.0	87.8	88.0	88.8	89.8	90.5	91.0	91.4	CHE	91.4
Turkey	TUR	36.8	38.3	39.3	40.3	41.6	42.2	43.5	45.9	47.7	49.5	52.1	54.7	TUR	54.7
United Kingdom	GBR	73.1	78.5	80.0	80.3	81.7	82.9	84.3	84.8	86.1	86.2	86.2	87.5	GBR	87.5
United States	USA	86.7	87.0	87.1	88.1	88.3	88.4	89.0	89.3	89.4	90.0	90.5	91.5	USA	91.5
OECD	OECD	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	79.4	80.0	80.7	OECD 34	80.8
Brazil	BRA	..	..	47.2	49.8	52.5	..	56.7	59.1	60.8	61.8	63.5	..	BRA	63.5
Colombia	COL	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	67.4	66.9	68.7	COL	68.7
Costa Rica	CRI	38.5	38.4	41.0	42.0	43.7	44.9	45.5	47.9	47.8	48.4	48.6	50.2	CRI	50.2
Lithuania	LTU	86.8	85.7	85.6	87.0	87.8	88.3	89.6	89.9	90.4	88.4	89.7	92.2	LTU	92.2
Russian Federation	RUS	92.2	92.1	93.0	93.6	93.5	94.0	94.1	94.4	94.8	95.0	95.0	..	RUS	95.0
South Africa	ZAF	..	..	..	44.4	46.1	46.5	47.2	30.4	48.5	49.9	48.7	..	ZAF	48.7

Note: Data are compiled following the ISCED 2011 classification throughout the period for Austria, Brazil, Canada, Colombia, Costa Rica, Estonia, France, Hungary, Iceland, Latvia, New Zealand, Norway, Portugal, the Russian Federation and the United States; since 2013 for Chile; and since 2014 for Australia, Belgium, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Finland, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Luxembourg, Lithuania, Mexico, the Netherlands, Poland, the Slovak Republic, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, the United Kingdom. Data refer to ISCED-97 for other countries. Cells before a break are highlighted in grey, as the data are not comparable with later years. Data for upper secondary education attainment in the United Kingdom include completion of a sufficient number of programmes and standards that would be classified individually as completion of intermediate upper secondary programmes (in 2016, 16% of 25-64 year-olds were part of this group). The OECD average is population-weighted and excludes Japan. 2005-09 values for the Russian Federation have been provided by the Russian Federal State Statistics Service (Rosstat).

Source: "Educational attainment and labour force status", *OECD Education at a glance* (database), *http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=EAG_NEAC*; the Russian Federal State Statistics Service (Rosstat).

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933600258

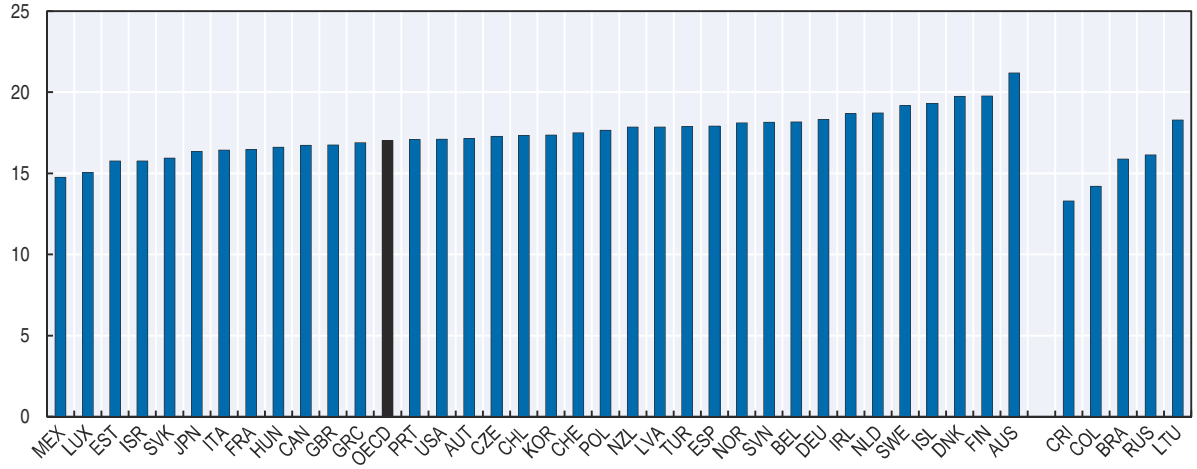
HUMAN CAPITAL: Educational expectancy

Definition

This indicator is defined as the average duration of education that a 5-year-old child can expect to experience during his/her lifetime until reaching the age of 39, if current enrolment rates persist for the next 34 years. It is calculated based on current enrolment conditions by adding the net enrolment rates for each single year of age from the age of 5 onwards. This indicator provides, in a way, an advanced measure of how educational attainment will change in the future, i.e. when children will reach adult age. The data are based on the UOE (UNESCO, OECD and Eurostat) joint data collection on education systems administered annually.

Figure A.55. **Expected years in education**

Average number of years in education that a child aged 5 can expect to undertake before age 39, 2015



Note: Data refer to 2014 for Greece and Japan. Data for Canada excludes early childhood and post-secondary non-tertiary education. The OECD average is population-weighted.

Source: OECD calculations based on "OECD (2017), Education at a Glance 2017: OECD Indicators", OECD Publishing, Paris, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/eag-2017-en*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933598187

Table A.34. **Expected years in education**

Average number of years in education that a child aged 5 can expect to undertake (before age 39)

		2015
Australia	AUS	21.2
Austria	AUT	17.1
Belgium	BEL	18.2
Canada	CAN	16.7
Chile	CHL	17.3
Czech Republic	CZE	17.3
Denmark	DNK	19.7
Estonia	EST	15.8
Finland	FIN	19.8
France	FRA	16.5
Germany	DEU	18.3
Greece	GRC	16.9
Hungary	HUN	16.6
Iceland	ISL	19.3
Ireland	IRL	18.7
Israel	ISR	15.8
Italy	ITA	16.4
Japan	JPN	16.4
Korea	KOR	17.4
Latvia	LVA	17.9
Luxembourg	LUX	15.1
Mexico	MEX	14.8
Netherlands	NLD	18.7
New Zealand	NZL	17.8
Norway	NOR	18.1
Poland	POL	17.7
Portugal	PRT	17.1
Slovak Republic	SVK	15.9
Slovenia	SVN	18.1
Spain	ESP	17.9
Sweden	SWE	19.2
Switzerland	CHE	17.5
Turkey	TUR	17.9
United Kingdom	GBR	16.8
United States	USA	17.1
OECD	OECD	17.0
Brazil	BRA	15.9
Colombia	COL	14.2
Costa Rica	CRI	13.3
Lithuania	LTU	18.3
Russian Federation	RUS	16.1

Note: Data refer to 2014 for Greece and Japan. Data for Canada excludes early childhood and post-secondary non-tertiary education. The OECD average is population-weighted.

Source: OECD calculations based on "OECD (2017), Education at a Glance 2017: OECD Indicators", OECD Publishing, Paris, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/eag-2017-en*.

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933600277*

Further reading:

OECD (2017), *Education at a Glance 2017: OECD Indicators*, OECD Publishing, Paris, *http://dx.doi.org/10.187/eag-2017-en*.

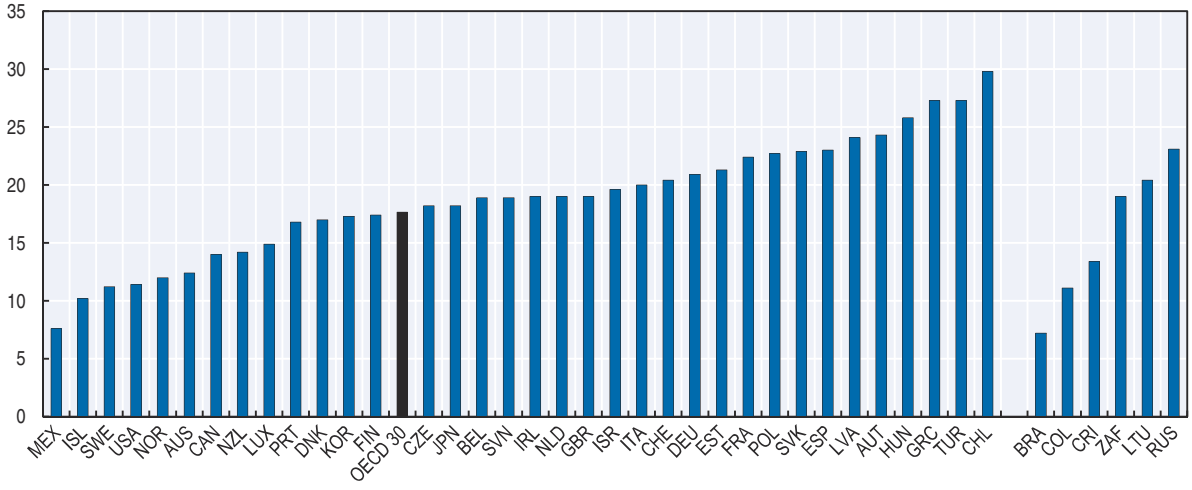
HUMAN CAPITAL: Smoking prevalence

Definition

This indicator is defined as the proportion of the population aged 15 and over who report that they are daily smokers. It is considered here as it represents a risk for future health, which is an important aspect of human capital. International comparability is limited due to the lack of standardisation in the measurement of smoking habits in health interview surveys across OECD countries. For example, there are variations across countries in the question wording, in the response categories provided to interviewees, and in the methods used for data collection. Data collections within OECD countries are also periodic rather than annual. The data come from national health interviews, health surveys and other household survey sources, and are compiled as part of the *OECD's Health Statistics Database*.

Figure A.56. **Prevalence of daily smoking**

Percentage of people aged 15 and over who report smoking every day, 2016 or latest available year



Note: The latest available year is 2015 for Brazil, Colombia, Costa Rica, Czech Republic, Finland, Japan, Korea, Mexico, South Africa, Sweden and the United States; 2014 for Austria, Belgium, Canada, France, Greece, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Portugal, the Slovak Republic, Slovenia, Spain, Turkey and the United Kingdom; 2013 for Germany; 2012 for Switzerland; and 2009 for Chile. The OECD average is population-weighted and excludes Chile, Finland, Ireland, Mexico and the Netherlands.

Source: "Non-medical determinants of health", OECD Health Statistics (database), *http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=HEALTH_LVNG*.

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933598206*

Table A.35. **Prevalence of daily smoking**

Percentage of people aged 15 and over who report smoking every day

		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016		2005 or closest available	2016 or latest available
Australia	AUS	..	..	16.9	..	..	15.4	..	..	13.0	..	..	12.4	AUS	16.9	12.4
Austria	AUT	..	23.2	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	24.3	..	..	AUT	23.2	24.3
Belgium	BEL	..	..	..	20.5	..	..	..	..	..	18.9	..	..	BEL	20.5	18.9
Canada	CAN	17.3	..	18.2	17.5	16.2	16.3	15.7	16.1	14.9	14.0	..	..	CAN	17.3	14.0
Chile	CHL	..	..	..	..	29.8	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	CHL	..	29.8
Czech Republic	CZE	24.3	23.4	24.0	21.8	23.8	22.8	21.7	22.9	22.2	22.3	18.2	..	CZE	24.3	18.2
Denmark	DNK	26.0	25.0	24.0	23.0	19.0	20.9	..	..	17.0	17.0	17.0	..	DNK	20.9	17.0
Estonia	EST	..	27.8	..	26.2	..	26.2	..	26.0	..	22.1	..	21.3	EST	27.8	21.3
Finland	FIN	21.8	21.4	20.6	20.4	18.6	19.0	17.8	17.0	15.8	15.4	17.4	..	FIN	..	17.4
France	FRA	..	25.9	..	26.2	..	23.3	..	24.1	..	22.4	..	..	FRA	25.9	22.4
Germany	DEU	23.2	..	..	..	21.9	..	..	..	20.9	..	..	..	DEU	23.2	20.9
Greece	GRC	..	40.0	..	39.7	31.9	..	..	..	..	27.3	..	..	GRC	31.9	27.3
Hungary	HUN	..	..	..	..	26.5	..	..	..	..	25.8	..	..	HUN	26.5	25.8
Iceland	ISL	19.2	18.8	19.0	17.6	15.4	14.2	14.3	13.8	11.4	12.6	10.9	10.2	ISL	13.7	10.2
Ireland	IRL	..	..	24.0	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	19.0	19.0	IRL	..	19.0
Israel	ISR	..	19.5	..	18.7	..	18.5	..	..	16.2	17.1	..	19.6	ISR	19.5	19.6
Italy	ITA	22.3	23.0	22.4	22.4	23.3	23.1	22.5	22.1	21.1	19.7	19.8	20.0	ITA	22.3	20.0
Japan	JPN	24.2	23.8	24.1	21.8	23.4	19.5	20.1	20.7	19.3	19.6	18.2	..	JPN	24.2	18.2
Korea	KOR	25.9	..	24.0	26.3	25.6	22.9	23.2	21.6	19.9	20.0	17.3	..	KOR	25.9	17.3
Latvia	LVA	..	..	..	27.9	..	..	..	..	..	24.1	..	..	LVA	27.9	24.1
Luxembourg	LUX	23.0	21.0	21.0	20.0	19.0	18.3	16.9	16.8	15.7	15.3	15.0	14.9	LUX	23	14.9
Mexico	MEX	..	13.0	..	..	7.6	..	8.9	11.8	..	..	7.6	..	MEX	..	7.6
Netherlands	NLD	25.2	25.2	23.1	23.3	22.6	20.9	20.8	18.4	18.5	19.1	19.0	..	NLD	..	19.0
New Zealand	NZL	22.5	20.7	18.1	..	..	..	..	16.3	15.6	15.7	15.0	14.2	NZL	22.5	14.2
Norway	NOR	25.0	24.0	22.0	21.0	21.0	19.0	17.0	16.0	15.0	13.0	13.0	12.0	NOR	25	12.0
Poland	POL	..	..	..	..	23.8	..	..	..	..	22.7	..	..	POL	23.8	22.7
Portugal	PRT	..	18.6	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	16.8	..	..	PRT	18.6	16.8
Slovak Republic	SVK	..	..	..	..	19.5	..	..	..	..	22.9	..	..	SVK	19.5	22.9
Slovenia	SVN	..	..	18.9	..	..	..	..	..	..	18.9	..	..	SVN	18.9	18.9
Spain	ESP	..	26.4	..	..	26.2	..	23.9	..	..	23.0	..	..	ESP	26.2	23.0
Sweden	SWE	15.7	15.2	13.8	14.6	14.0	13.6	13.1	12.8	10.7	11.9	11.2	..	SWE	15.7	11.2
Switzerland	CHE	..	..	20.4	..	..	..	..	20.4	..	..	..	..	CHE	20.4	20.4
Turkey	TUR	..	33.4	..	27.4	..	25.4	..	23.8	..	27.3	..	..	TUR	33.4	27.3
United Kingdom	GBR	24.0	22.0	21.0	21.0	21.0	20.0	20.0	20.0	19.0	19.0	..	..	GBR	24	19.0
United States	USA	16.9	16.7	15.4	16.5	16.1	15.1	14.8	14.2	13.7	12.9	11.4	..	USA	16.9	11.4
OECD	OECD	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..		OECD 30	22.2	17.7
Brazil	BRA	..	15.7	15.6	14.8	14.3	14.1	13.4	12.1	11.3	8.7	7.2	..	BRA	..	7.2
Colombia	COL	15.0	..	..	..	..	12.9	..	12.1	..	..	11.1	..	COL	15	11.1
Costa Rica	CRI	17.7	..	..	..	..	15.4	..	14.5	..	..	13.4	..	CRI	17.7	13.4
Lithuania	LTU	24.5	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	20.4	..	..	LTU	24.5	20.4
Russian Federation	RUS	..	..	..	..	33.8	..	25.7	..	24.2	22.0	..	23.1	RUS	..	23.1
South Africa	ZAF	22.0	..	..	..	..	20.3	..	19.8	..	..	19.0	..	ZAF	22	19.0

Note: There is a break in the series in 2006 for New Zealand; in 2009 for Greece; in 2010 for Denmark; in 2013 for Brazil, Iceland and the Netherlands; and in 2015 for Finland, Ireland and Mexico. The OECD average is population-weighted; it excludes Chile, Finland, Ireland, Mexico and the Netherlands for the "2005 or closest available" and "2015 or latest available", due to an incomplete time series or a break in the series for these countries.

Source: "Non-medical determinants of health", OECD Health Statistics (database), *http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode= HEALTH_LVNG.*

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933600296*

Further reading:

OECD (2017), *Health at a Glance 2017: OECD Indicators*, OECD Publishing, Paris, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/health_glance-2017-en.*

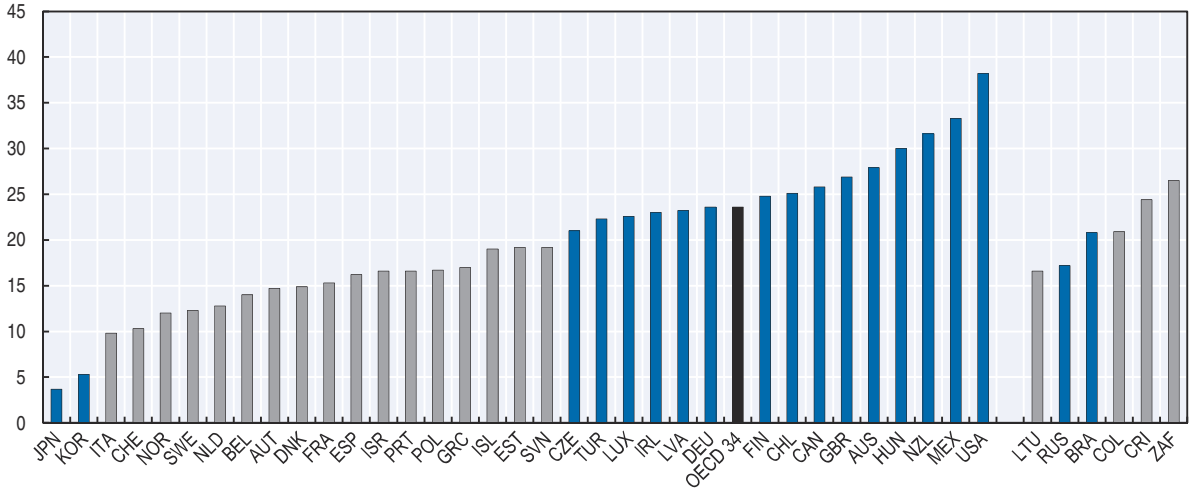
HUMAN CAPITAL: Obesity prevalence

Definition

This indicator refers to the proportion of people aged 15 and over who meet the criteria for obesity, defined as a Body Mass Index of 30 or more. This indicator is considered here as it represents a risk to future health and human capital. The Body Mass Index evaluates an individual's weight in relation to their height (weight/height^2, where weight is measured in kilograms and height in metres). The classification for obesity used here may not be suitable for all ethnic groups, which may have equivalent levels of risk at a lower or higher BMI. The data shown here refer to different sources in different countries (see the note to Table A.36): in some countries, the data are based on self-reported information drawn from health interview surveys (which use a variety of different question formats and response scales) while in others they are measured directly in health examinations (with varied methods of administration). The estimates from health examinations are generally higher and more reliable than those from health interviews. The data are drawn from the OECD's *Health Statistics Database*.

Figure A.57. **Obesity prevalence**

Percentage of the population aged 15 and older, 2016 or latest available year



Note: The latest available year is 2015 for Iceland, Ireland, Italy, Japan, Korea, the Netherlands, Norway, Sweden and the United Kingdom; 2014 for Australia, Austria, Belgium, Colombia, Costa Rica, Denmark, France, Greece, Hungary, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Poland, Portugal, Slovenia, South Africa, Spain, the United States; 2013 for Brazil, Canada; 2012 for Germany, Switzerland; 2011 for Finland, Turkey; 2010 for the Czech Republic; 2009 for Chile. Data for Australia, Brazil, Canada, Chile, the Czech Republic, Finland, Germany, Hungary, Ireland, Japan, Korea, Latvia, Luxembourg, Mexico, New Zealand, the Russian Federation, the Slovak Republic, Turkey, the United Kingdom and the United States are based on health examinations. For all other countries (shown in grey) data are based on health interview surveys. The OECD average is population-weighted and excludes the Slovak Republic.

Source: "Non-medical determinants of health", OECD Health Statistics (database), *http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=HEALTH_LVNG*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933598225

Table A.36. **Obesity prevalence**

Percentage of the population aged 15 and older, as reported or measured

		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016		2005 or closest available	2016 or latest available
Australia	AUS	..	..	24.6	..	..	..	28.3	..	..	27.9	..	..	AUS	24.6	27.9
Austria	AUT	..	12.4	..	12.8	..	..	..	..	..	14.7	..	..	AUT	12.4	14.7
Belgium	BEL	..	..	..	14.0	..	..	..	..	13.7	14.0	..	..	BEL	14	14.0
Canada	CAN	23.7	..	..	24.2	..	25.4	..	..	25.8	..	..	..	CAN	23.7	25.8
Chile	CHL	..	..	..	..	25.1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	CHL	..	25.1
Czech Republic	CZE	17.0	..	..	22.0	..	21.0	..	..	..	..	..	..	CZE	17	21.0
Denmark	DNK	11.4	..	..	..	..	13.4	..	..	14.2	14.9	..	..	DNK	11.4	14.9
Estonia	EST	..	15.9	..	18.0	..	16.9	..	19.0	..	19.5	..	19.2	EST	15.9	19.2
Finland	FIN	..	..	..	..	..	..	24.8	..	..	..	..	..	FIN	..	24.8
France	FRA	..	10.5	..	12.2	..	12.9	..	14.5	..	15.3	..	..	FRA	10.5	15.3
Germany	DEU	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	23.6	..	..	..	..	DEU	..	23.6
Greece	GRC	..	16.4	..	17.6	17.3	..	..	..	..	17.0	..	..	GRC	16.4	17.0
Hungary	HUN	..	..	..	..	28.5	..	..	..	..	30.0	..	..	HUN	28.5	30.0
Iceland	ISL	..	..	20.1	20.1	..	21.0	..	22.2	..	..	19.0	..	ISL	..	19.0
Ireland	IRL	..	..	23.0	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	23.0	..	IRL	23	23.0
Israel	ISR	..	12.1	..	13.8	..	15.7	..	..	15.7	17.8	..	16.6	ISR	12.1	16.6
Italy	ITA	9.9	10.2	9.9	9.9	10.3	10.3	10.0	10.4	10.3	10.3	9.8	..	ITA	9.9	9.8
Japan	JPN	3.9	3.4	3.3	3.4	3.9	3.5	4.1	3.6	3.7	3.9	3.7	..	JPN	3.9	3.7
Korea	KOR	3.5	..	3.9	3.7	3.8	4.1	4.3	4.6	4.7	4.3	5.3	..	KOR	3.5	5.3
Latvia	LVA	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	20.6	..	23.2	LVA	20.6	23.2
Luxembourg	LUX	18.6	20.4	20.0	20.3	22.1	22.5	23.5	23.0	22.7	22.6	..	..	LUX	22.1	22.6
Mexico	MEX	30.2	30.0	..	..	..	..	..	32.4	..	..	..	33.3	MEX	30.2	33.3
Netherlands	NLD	10.7	11.3	11.2	11.1	11.8	11.4	11.4	12.0	11.1	13.3	12.8	..	NLD	..	12.8
New Zealand	NZL	..	..	26.5	..	27.8	..	..	28.6	30.8	29.9	30.7	31.6	NZL	..	31.6
Norway	NOR	9.0	..	..	10.0	..	..	..	10.0	..	..	12.0	..	NOR	9	12.0
Poland	POL	..	..	..	16.4	15.8	..	..	..	..	16.7	..	..	POL	16.4	16.7
Portugal	PRT	..	15.4	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	16.6	..	..	PRT	15.4	16.6
Slovak Republic	SVK	17.6	..	..	16.9	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	SVK	17.6	..
Slovenia	SVN	..	..	16.4	16.8	..	..	..	..	..	19.2	..	..	SVN	16.4	19.2
Spain	ESP	..	14.9	..	15.7	15.7	..	16.6	..	..	16.2	..	..	ESP	14.9	16.2
Sweden	SWE	10.9	9.0	10.6	10.3	10.9	11.3	11.0	11.8	11.7	12.2	12.3	..	SWE	10.9	12.3
Switzerland	CHE	..	..	8.1	8.1	..	..	..	10.3	..	..	..	..	CHE	8.1	10.3
Turkey	TUR	..	..	..	..	..	..	22.3	..	..	..	..	..	TUR	..	22.3
United Kingdom	GBR	23.2	23.9	24.0	24.5	23.0	26.1	24.8	24.7	24.9	25.6	26.9	..	GBR	23.2	26.9
United States	USA	..	35.1	..	34.3	..	36.1	..	35.3	..	38.2	..	..	USA	35.1	38.2
OECD	OECD	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	OECD 27	21.5	23.8
Brazil	BRA	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	20.8	..	..	..	BRA	..	20.8
Colombia	COL	12.7	..	..	17.8	..	..	..	..	..	20.9	..	..	COL	12.7	20.9
Costa Rica	CRI	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	24.4	..	..	CRI	..	24.4
Lithuania	LTU	16.0	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	16.6	..	..	LTU	16.0	16.6
Russian Federation	RUS	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	17.2	RUS	..	17.2
South Africa	ZAF	..	..	..	33.0	..	..	..	..	..	26.5	..	..	ZAF	33.0	26.5

Note: There is a break in the series in 2009 for Luxembourg; in 2014 for the Netherlands; and in 2015 for Iceland. Data for Australia, Brazil, Canada, Chile, the Czech Republic, Finland, Germany, Hungary, Ireland, Japan, Korea, Latvia, Luxembourg, Mexico, New Zealand, the Russian Federation, the Slovak Republic, Turkey, the United Kingdom and the United States are based on health examination; those for other countries are based on health interview surveys. The OECD average is population-weighted; it excludes Chile, Finland, Germany, Iceland, the Netherlands, New Zealand, the Slovak Republic and Turkey due to an incomplete time series or a break in the series for these countries.

Source: "Non-medical determinants of health", OECD Health Statistics (database), *http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=HEALTH_LVNG*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933600315

Further reading:

OECD (2017), *Health at a Glance 2017: OECD Indicators*, OECD Publishing, Paris, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/health_glance-2017-en*.

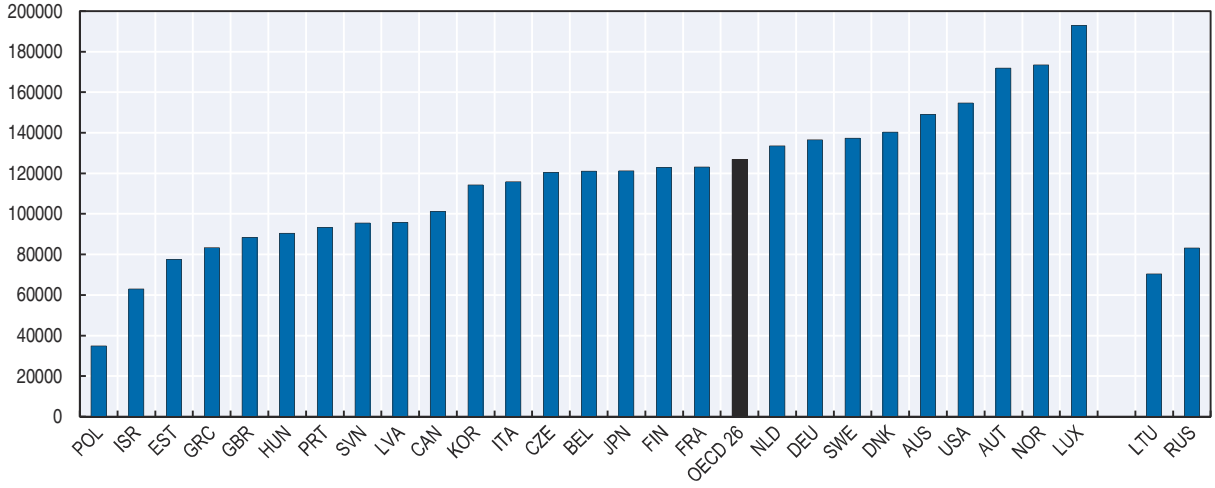
ECONOMIC RESOURCES: Produced fixed assets

Definition

This indicator considers the value, at constant prices, of a country's stock of produced economic assets, such as dwellings, non-residential buildings, infrastructure, machinery and equipment. The stocks are corrected to take into account the reduction in their value due to physical deterioration, normal obsolescence or normal accidental damage. These assets are derived, based on the perpetual inventory method, from past investment flows. It is presented in US dollars per capita, at 2010 prices using Purchasing Power Parities (PPPs) for GDP. The data refer to the total economy, as defined according to the System of National Accounts (SNA) 2008.

Figure A.58. **Produced fixed assets**

USD at 2010 PPPs, per capita, 2015 or latest available year



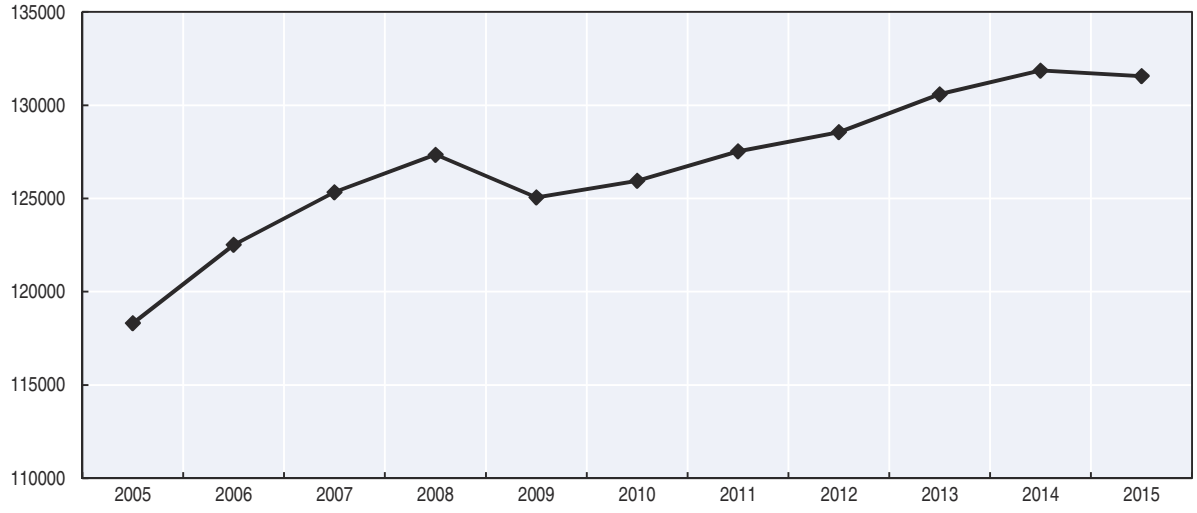
Note: The latest available year is 2016 for Canada, the Czech Republic, Finland and France; and 2014 for Belgium, Estonia, Greece, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Norway, Poland and Portugal. Purchasing Power Parities (PPPs) are those for GDP and are fixed to 2010 to allow comparisons across values referring to different years. Stocks of produced assets are corrected for deterioration, obsolescence and accidental damage. The OECD average is population-weighted and excludes Chile, Iceland, Ireland, Mexico, New Zealand, the Slovak Republic, Spain, Switzerland and Turkey.

Source: OECD calculations based on "9B. Balance sheets for non-financial assets", OECD National Accounts Statistics (database), *http://dotstat.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=SNA_TABLE9B*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933598244

Figure A.59. **Produced fixed assets, OECD average**

USD at 2010 PPPs, per capita, OECD 18



Note: Purchasing Power Parities (PPPs) are those for GDP. The OECD average is population-weighted; it excludes Belgium, Chile, Estonia, Greece, Hungary, Iceland, Ireland, Latvia, Mexico, New Zealand, Norway, Poland, Portugal, the Slovak Republic, Spain, Switzerland and Turkey, due to incomplete time series for these countries.

Source: OECD calculations based on "9B. Balance sheets for non-financial assets", OECD National Accounts Statistics (database), *http://dotstat.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=SNA_TABLE9B*.

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933598263*

Table A.37. **Produced fixed assets**

USD at 2010 PPPs, per capita

		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016		Latest available
Australia	AUS	126 223	128 365	129 945	127 966	130 472	127 225	129 017	134 685	138 956	145 354	149 014	..	AUS	149 014
Austria	AUT	145 761	149 265	154 312	159 255	161 254	164 984	167 427	169 265	171 076	171 865	171 953	..	AUT	171 953
Belgium	BEL	109 245	112 786	115 511	119 873	118 226	118 572	119 744	120 264	119 786	121 109	..	..	BEL	121 109
Canada	CAN	76 267	81 384	83 476	86 183	88 690	88 686	89 600	92 767	92 581	95 146	98 676	101 138	CAN	101 138
Chile	CHL	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	CHL	..
Czech Republic	CZE	108 996	113 177	118 133	122 140	118 948	120 420	122 044	120 078	118 788	118 116	119 634	120 453	CZE	120 453
Denmark	DNK	137 789	144 791	148 763	146 607	136 543	136 736	139 441	138 555	138594	139 554	140 276	..	DNK	140 276
Estonia	EST	56 914	63 017	69 059	68 224	67 066	66 261	67 227	70 341	75 553	77 540	..	..	EST	77 540
Finland	FIN	112 243	116 883	122 543	127 078	123 538	120 505	122087	124 855	123 678	122 779	121 013	122 851	FIN	122 851
France	FRA	105 218	108 971	112 913	114 390	115 516	118 038	121 244	122 285	122 800	122 935	122 317	123 130	FRA	123 130
Germany	DEU	116 498	119 644	124 924	129 097	129 114	130 660	133 826	135 857	136 674	137 268	136 602	..	DEU	136 602
Greece	GRC	81 647	86 099	88 000	89 240	87 830	86 035	82 723	81 457	83 605	83 411	..	..	GRC	83 411
Hungary	HUN	82 169	86 655	88 415	90 315	90 649	90 662	91 243	90 822	90 667	90 423	..	..	HUN	90 423
Iceland	ISL	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	ISL	..
Ireland	IRL	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	IRL	..
Israel	ISR	56 595	57 526	59 191	60 101	58 088	58 948	61 405	62 631	63 204	64 191	62 972	..	ISR	62 972
Italy	ITA	108 730	111 174	113 773	115 903	115 691	118 461	121 316	120 736	118 604	117 021	115 850	..	ITA	115 850
Japan	JPN	109 731	112 874	115 885	118 330	114 962	116 743	117 986	118 326	121 725	122 752	121 260	..	JPN	121 260
Korea	KOR	74 651	80 137	87 546	93 879	96 405	100 684	105 621	108 209	110 435	113 653	114 212	..	KOR	114 212
Latvia	LVA	86 180	106 040	113 861	113 000	98 799	99 331	104 005	110 602	111 536	95 844	..	..	LVA	95 844
Luxembourg	LUX	178 799	173 541	179 670	182 975	185 210	183 059	182 544	185 465	187 038	188 898	192 891	..	LUX	192 891
Mexico	MEX	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	MEX	..
Netherlands	NLD	128 847	131 398	133 847	136 796	140 761	142 128	141 460	139 229	137 225	135 748	133 493	..	NLD	133 493
New Zealand	NZL	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	NZL	..
Norway	NOR	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	162 432	165 352	173 423	..	..	NOR	173 423
Poland	POL	26 622	26 860	28 987	29 658	29 805	30 847	31 892	32 324	33 553	34 819	..	..	POL	34 819
Portugal	PRT	89 166	91 269	92 556	96 749	95 932	97 888	99 888	95 317	91 432	93 314	..	..	PRT	93 314
Slovak Republic	SVK	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	SVK	..
Slovenia	SVN	85 076	88 055	91 197	93 866	91 507	94 314	95 600	96 310	96 244	95 689	95 533	..	SVN	95 533
Spain	ESP	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	ESP	..
Sweden	SWE	112 526	116 805	121 938	127 014	126 684	129 246	131 613	132 864	134 592	136 687	137 391	..	SWE	137 391
Switzerland	CHE	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	CHE	..
Turkey	TUR	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	TUR	..
United Kingdom	GBR	80 060	81420	84 092	86 953	85 133	83 645	84 320	85 065	86 242	86 708	88 430	..	GBR	88 430
United States	USA	146082	151862	153 044	153 571	148 073	148 026	148 498	149 301	152 877	154 862	154 699	..	USA	154 699
OECD	OECD 18	118 311	122 520	125 341	127 347	125 058	125 948	127 525	128 561	130 591	131 861	131 561		OECD 26	126 840
Lithuania	LTU	53 771	59 138	64 557	62 558	62 014	61 602	62 958	65 201	67 994	70 404	..	..	LTU	70 404
Russian Federation	RUS	..	..	..	..	..	..	77 114	78 932	85 974	83 392	83 102	..	RUS	83 102

Note: Purchasing Power parities are those for GDP. The OECD average is population-weighted; its time series excludes Belgium, Chile, Estonia, Greece, Hungary, Iceland, Ireland, Latvia, Mexico, New Zealand, Norway, Poland, Portugal, the Slovak Republic, Spain, Switzerland and Turkey, due to incomplete time-series for these countries. For the latest available year, the OECD average excludes Chile, Iceland, Ireland, Mexico, New Zealand, the Slovak Republic, Spain, Switzerland and Turkey.

Source: OECD calculations based on "9B. Balance sheets for non-financial assets", OECD National Accounts Statistics (database), *http://dotstat.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=SNA_TABLE9B*

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933600334*

Further reading:

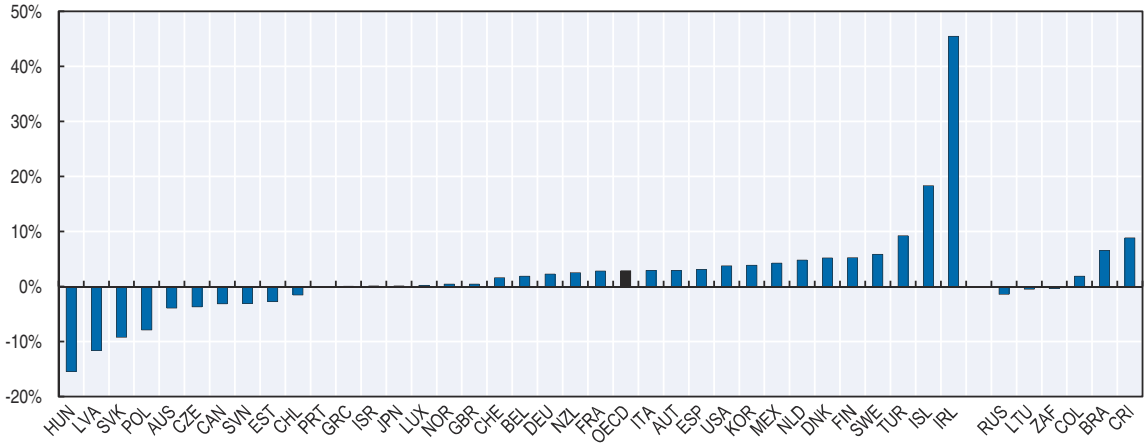
Lequiller, F. and D. Blades (2014), *Understanding National Accounts: Second Edition*, OECD Publishing, Paris, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264214637-en*.

ECONOMIC RESOURCES: Gross fixed capital formation

Definition

This indicator measures the total expenditures, at constant prices, devoted to buildings and machinery (i.e. investment in dwellings, buildings and other structures, transport equipment, other machinery and equipment, cultivated assets and intangible fixed assets) undertaken within a country, as defined according to the System of National Accounts (SNA) 2008. These expenditures represent a flow that adds to the stock of a country's economic capital.

Figure A.60. **Gross fixed capital formation**
Year on year growth rates, 2016 or latest available year



Note: The latest available year is 2015 for Australia, Colombia, Costa Rica, Israel, Japan, Korea, Mexico, New Zealand, Turkey and the United States; 2014 for South Africa; and 2011 for Brazil. The OECD average is the population-weighted average of the total expenditures devoted to buildings and machinery at constant prices.
Source: OECD National Accounts Statistics (database), *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/na-data-en*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933598282

Figure A.61. **Gross fixed capital formation, OECD average**
Year on year growth rates



Note: The OECD average is the population-weighted average of the total expenditures devoted to buildings and machinery at constant prices.
Source: OECD National Accounts Statistics (database), *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/na-data-en*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933598301

Table A.38. **Gross fixed capital formation**

Year on year growth rates

		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016		Latest available
Australia	AUS	9.3%	5.1%	9.5%	2.1%	2.1%	3.8%	11.0%	2.8%	-1.4%	-2.9%	-3.9%	..	AUS	-3.9%
Austria	AUT	0.2%	1.1%	4.6%	1.4%	-7.3%	-2.1%	6.7%	1.4%	2.2%	-0.9%	0.7%	3.4%	AUT	3.4%
Belgium	BEL	6.1%	2.0%	6.8%	1.9%	-6.6%	-0.8%	4.2%	0.2%	-1.6%	5.0%	2.5%	1.9%	BEL	1.9%
Canada	CAN	9.1%	6.3%	3.2%	1.6%	-11.3%	11.5%	4.6%	4.9%	1.3%	0.9%	-4.6%	-3.1%	CAN	-3.1%
Chile	CHL	23.5%	6.0%	10.6%	18.5%	-13.3%	13.1%	16.1%	11.3%	3.3%	-4.8%	-0.8%	-0.8%	CHL	-0.8%
Czech Republic	CZE	6.4%	5.9%	13.5%	2.5%	-10.1%	1.3%	0.9%	-3.1%	-2.5%	3.9%	9.0%	-3.7%	CZE	-3.7%
Denmark	DNK	5.9%	13.7%	0.7%	-2.5%	-13.0%	-5.7%	0.4%	3.7%	2.7%	3.5%	2.5%	5.6%	DNK	5.6%
Estonia	EST	15.3%	22.9%	10.3%	-13.1%	-36.7%	-2.7%	34.4%	12.7%	-2.8%	-8.1%	-3.3%	-2.8%	EST	-2.8%
Finland	FIN	3.2%	1.3%	10.0%	0.3%	-12.5%	1.1%	4.1%	-1.9%	-4.9%	-2.6%	0.7%	7.2%	FIN	7.2%
France	FRA	2.9%	3.6%	5.5%	0.9%	-9.1%	2.1%	2.1%	0.2%	-0.8%	0.0%	1.0%	2.8%	FRA	2.8%
Germany	DEU	0.7%	7.5%	4.1%	1.5%	-10.1%	5.4%	7.2%	-0.7%	-1.1%	3.4%	1.7%	2.2%	DEU	2.2%
Greece	GRC	-11.9%	19.4%	15.9%	-7.2%	-13.9%	-19.3%	-20.5%	-23.5%	-8.4%	-4.6%	-0.2%	0.1%	GRC	0.1%
Hungary	HUN	3.6%	0.7%	4.2%	1.0%	-8.3%	-9.5%	-1.3%	-3.0%	9.8%	9.9%	1.9%	-15.5%	HUN	-15.5%
Iceland	ISL	32.0%	23.4%	-11.2%	-19.0%	-47.8%	-8.6%	11.6%	5.3%	2.2%	16.0%	17.8%	22.7%	ISL	22.7%
Ireland	IRL	16.8%	7.2%	0.0%	-11.6%	-16.9%	-15.0%	3.7%	11.9%	-5.7%	18.3%	32.9%	45.4%	IRL	45.4%
Israel	ISR	2.1%	7.2%	11.0%	3.6%	-2.2%	10.1%	13.8%	3.6%	4.5%	0.0%	0.1%	..	ISR	0.1%
Italy	ITA	1.7%	3.2%	1.6%	-3.1%	-9.9%	-0.5%	-1.9%	-9.3%	-6.6%	-2.3%	1.6%	2.9%	ITA	2.9%
Japan	JPN	3.1%	0.4%	-1.9%	-3.8%	-9.7%	-1.6%	1.7%	3.5%	4.9%	2.9%	0.1%	..	JPN	0.1%
Korea	KOR	2.0%	3.6%	5.0%	-0.9%	0.3%	5.5%	0.8%	-0.5%	3.3%	3.4%	3.8%	..	KOR	3.8%
Latvia	LVA	20.4%	15.1%	22.5%	-9.1%	-33.3%	-19.8%	24.0%	14.4%	-6.0%	0.1%	-1.8%	-11.7%	LVA	-11.7%
Luxembourg	LUX	-1.0%	3.3%	12.5%	11.9%	-12.4%	3.5%	13.7%	6.1%	-2.5%	5.6%	-0.9%	0.2%	LUX	0.2%
Mexico	MEX	5.9%	8.7%	6.0%	5.0%	-9.3%	1.3%	7.8%	4.8%	-1.6%	3.0%	4.2%	..	MEX	4.2%
Netherlands	NLD	3.1%	7.2%	6.5%	4.1%	-9.2%	-6.5%	5.6%	-6.3%	-4.3%	2.3%	11.0%	5.3%	NLD	5.3%
New Zealand	NZL	5.7%	-1.7%	7.8%	-7.2%	-10.2%	3.7%	6.0%	5.1%	9.8%	6.8%	2.5%	..	NZL	2.5%
Norway	NOR	12.0%	9.1%	11.7%	0.9%	-6.8%	-6.7%	7.4%	7.6%	6.3%	-0.7%	-3.8%	0.3%	NOR	0.3%
Poland	POL	8.3%	15.4%	19.0%	8.8%	-2.7%	0.0%	8.8%	-1.8%	-1.1%	10.0%	6.1%	-7.9%	POL	-7.9%
Portugal	PRT	0.1%	-0.8%	3.1%	0.4%	-7.6%	-0.9%	-12.5%	-16.6%	-5.1%	2.3%	4.5%	0.1%	PRT	0.1%
Slovak Republic	SVK	16.5%	9.1%	8.9%	1.6%	-18.7%	7.2%	12.7%	-9.0%	-0.9%	1.2%	16.9%	-9.3%	SVK	-9.3%
Slovenia	SVN	3.5%	10.2%	12.0%	7.0%	-22.0%	-13.3%	-4.9%	-8.8%	3.2%	1.4%	1.0%	-3.1%	SVN	-3.1%
Spain	ESP	7.5%	7.4%	4.4%	-3.9%	-16.9%	-4.9%	-6.9%	-8.6%	-3.4%	3.8%	6.0%	3.1%	ESP	3.1%
Sweden	SWE	5.1%	9.3%	8.1%	0.6%	-13.4%	6.0%	5.7%	-0.2%	0.6%	5.5%	7.0%	5.3%	SWE	5.3%
Switzerland	CHE	3.2%	4.7%	4.9%	0.7%	-7.5%	4.4%	4.3%	2.9%	1.1%	2.8%	1.6%	2.4%	CHE	2.4%
Turkey	TUR	19.6%	15.4%	5.5%	-2.7%	-20.5%	22.5%	23.8%	2.7%	13.8%	5.1%	9.2%	..	TUR	9.2%
United Kingdom	GBR	3.5%	3.2%	5.7%	-6.5%	-15.2%	5.0%	1.9%	2.3%	3.2%	6.7%	3.4%	0.5%	GBR	0.5%
United States	USA	5.6%	2.2%	-1.2%	-4.8%	-13.1%	1.1%	3.7%	6.3%	3.0%	4.2%	3.7%	..	USA	3.7%
OECD	OECD	5.0%	4.1%	2.5%	-2.1%	-11.0%	1.8%	3.9%	2.0%	1.8%	3.1%	2.9%	..	OECD	2.4%
Brazil	BRA	2.3%	6.1%	12.0%	12.7%	-1.9%	17.8%	6.6%	..	..	..	..	..	BRA	6.6%
Colombia	COL	13.2%	18.1%	14.4%	9.9%	-1.3%	4.9%	19.0%	4.7%	6.8%	9.8%	1.8%	..	COL	1.8%
Costa Rica	CRI	4.6%	7.7%	19.0%	9.7%	-12.6%	4.3%	3.2%	9.9%	-0.3%	3.3%	8.8%	..	CRI	8.8%
Lithuania	LTU	11.5%	19.6%	22.3%	-4.0%	-38.9%	1.5%	20.1%	-1.8%	8.3%	3.7%	4.7%	-0.5%	LTU	-0.5%
Russian Federation	RUS	10.2%	17.9%	21.1%	9.7%	-14.7%	6.4%	9.2%	7.0%	0.8%	-1.3%	-10.4%	-1.4%	RUS	-1.4%
South Africa	ZAF	11.0%	12.1%	13.8%	12.8%	-6.7%	-3.9%	5.7%	3.6%	7.6%	-0.4%	..	..	ZAF	-0.4%

Note: The OECD average is the population-weighted average of the total expenditures devoted to buildings and machinery at constant prices.
Source: OECD National Accounts Statistics (database), *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/na-data-en*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933600353

Further reading:

Lequiller, F. and D. Blades (2014), *Understanding National Accounts: Second Edition*, OECD Publishing, Paris, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264214637-en*.

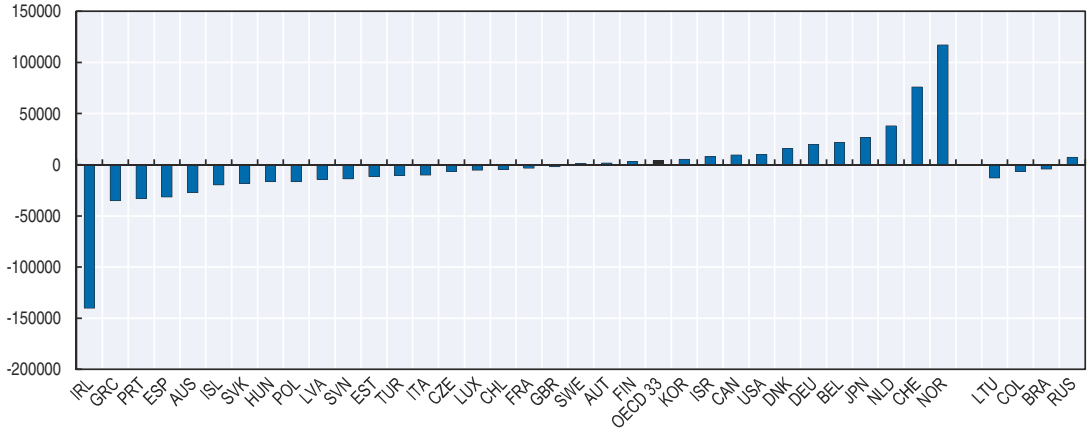
ECONOMIC RESOURCES: Financial net worth of the total economy

Definition

This indicator refers to total financial assets minus total liabilities, expressed in per capita terms. As domestic assets and liabilities cancel each other, this measure captures the net foreign asset position of a country with respect to the rest of the world. This stock includes monetary gold, currency and other forms of bank deposits, debt securities, loans, equity and investment fund shares/units, insurance pension and standardised guarantees, and other accounts receivable/payable. Tradable instruments are recorded at current market values, whereas other instruments are valued at nominal or book values. Data in national currencies have been converted to US dollars using current PPPs for GDP.

Figure A.62. **Financial net worth of the total economy**

USD at current PPPs, per capita, 2016 or latest available year



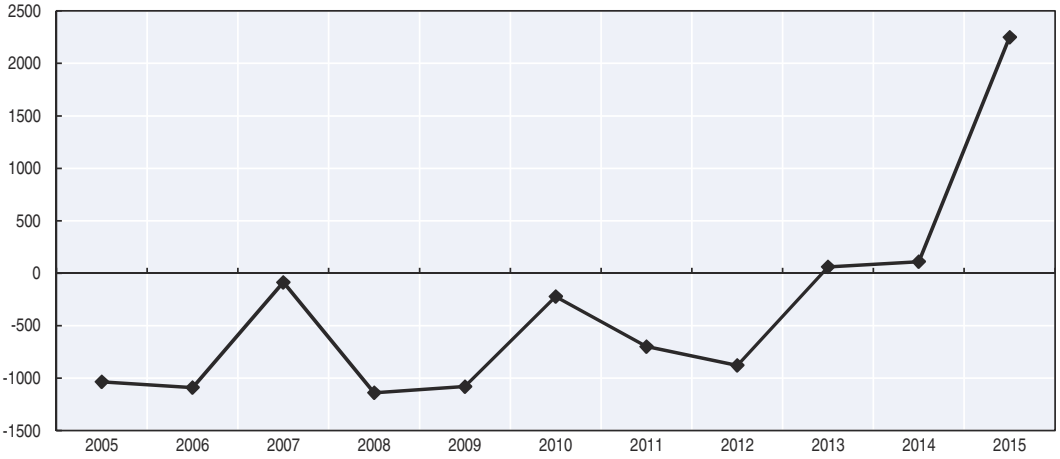
Note: The latest available year is 2015 for Australia, Canada, Chile, Colombia, Greece, Iceland, Israel, Korea, Lithuania, the Russian Federation, the Slovak Republic, Switzerland, Turkey and the United States; 2014 for Japan; and 2009 for Brazil. Purchasing Power Parities (PPPs) are those for GDP. The OECD average is population-weighted and excludes Mexico and New Zealand.

Source: OECD calculations based on OECD National Accounts Statistics (database), *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/na-data-en.*

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933598320

Figure A.63. **Financial net worth of the total economy, OECD average**

USD at current PPPs, per capita, OECD 30



Note: Purchasing Power Parities (PPPs) are those for GDP. The OECD average is population-weighted and excludes Japan, Korea, Mexico, New Zealand and Turkey, due to incomplete time series for these countries.

Source: OECD calculations based on OECD National Accounts Statistics (database), *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/na-data-en.*

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933598339

Table A.39. **Financial net worth of the total economy**

USD at current PPPs, per capita

		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016		Latest available
Australia	AUS	-18 727	-20 291	-21 275	-21 983	-23 835	-22 229	-23 497	-23 472	-25 130	-25 472	-27 361	..	AUS	-27 361
Austria	AUT	-4 291	-4 873	-3 828	-4 130	-2 062	-2 175	-851	-1 481	620	1 092	1 644	1 622	AUT	1 622
Belgium	BEL	11 978	12 047	16 436	18 812	23 509	23 441	27 759	22 405	22 351	22 682	22 050	21 848	BEL	21 848
Canada	CAN	-4 595	-1 591	-4 602	-3 600	-5 485	-7 258	-7 109	-7 557	-311	866	9 570	..	CAN	9 570
Chile	CHL	-3 459	-2 207	-846	-2 956	-1 914	-2 271	-2 752	-3 322	-3 231	-3 378	-4 668	..	CHL	-4 668
Czech Republic	CZE	-5 887	-6 823	-7 857	-8 531	-9 886	-10 537	-10 843	-10 219	-8 076	-7 460	-6 497	-6 452	CZE	-6 452
Denmark	DNK	1 276	-150	-2 266	-2 123	1 028	5 240	11 762	15 847	17 107	20 286	15 638	15 609	DNK	15 609
Estonia	EST	-13 981	-14 134	-15 670	-17 077	-16 490	-15 504	-13 132	-13 140	-13 864	-13 287	-11 804	-11 580	EST	-11 580
Finland	FIN	-5 074	-4 677	-10 335	-1 080	-1 730	3 787	4 155	5 469	1 652	857	2 984	2 975	FIN	2 975
France	FRA	223	-342	-886	-3 270	-2 462	-2 968	-3 931	-3 576	-1 982	-3 665	-3 519	-3 494	FRA	-3 494
Germany	DEU	3 622	-1 143	84	5 393	6 468	6 634	8 379	11 441	11 674	16 315	20 377	20 003	DEU	20 003
Greece	GRC	-19 412	-26 702	-31 033	-28 081	-31 661	-28 264	-19 808	-30 000	-30 030	-34 880	-35 131	..	GRC	-35 131
Hungary	HUN	-16 943	-18 864	-18 107	-20 999	-23 710	-23 291	-24 102	-21 585	-20 376	-19 672	-17 028	-16 690	HUN	-16 690
Iceland	ISL	-40 399	-57 060	-59 839	-315 118	-264 777	-239 509	-211 260	-144 281	-128 979	-114 274	-19 606	..	ISL	-19 606
Ireland	IRL	-18 696	-11 403	-14 665	-42 147	-48 148	-49 248	-62 526	-63 663	-63 364	-82 963	-142 217	-140 296	IRL	-140 296
Israel	ISR	-3 882	583	428	2 571	1 960	3 382	5 815	6 819	7 549	8 593	8 074	..	ISR	8 074
Italy	ITA	-3 850	-6 143	-8 515	-7 575	-6 386	-6 974	-6 674	-9 055	-9 721	-9 475	-9 958	-10 031	ITA	-10 031
Japan	JPN	10 826	13 848	15 922	16 839	18 348	18 920	20 643	23 426	25 106	26 763	..	..	JPN	26 763
Korea	KOR	..	..	..	-2 267	-2 875	-3 595	-2 197	-2 365	-900	2 109	5 315	..	KOR	5 315
Latvia	LVA	-8 045	-11 167	-13 811	-16 964	-17 608	-17 828	-17 900	-17 325	-18 121	-15 347	-14 298	-14 502	LVA	-14 502
Luxembourg	LUX	22 652	70 667	6 473	34 591	22 201	-50 245	-47 164	-38 885	-50 009	-28 017	-5 602	-5 490	LUX	-5 490
Mexico	MEX	1 893	2 133	2 248	2 363	2 935	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	MEX	..
Netherlands	NLD	-12 443	-11 198	-12 200	-4 902	-1 347	1 463	7 570	15 591	19 285	36 435	38 073	37 926	NLD	37 926
New Zealand	NZL	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	NZL	..
Norway	NOR	25 816	29 957	27 400	34 070	42 336	49 712	54 912	60 688	85 010	110 003	122 308	117 048	NOR	117 048
Poland	POL	-6 493	-8 180	-9 586	-10 707	-11 874	-13 520	-13 996	-15 413	-16 848	-17 565	-16 553	-16 657	POL	-16 657
Portugal	PRT	-15 902	-19 558	-22 805	-25 331	-28 585	-28 538	-26 975	-30 827	-32 459	-33 905	-33 264	-33 293	PRT	-33 293
Slovak Republic	SVK	-6 356	-8 592	-9 416	-10 236	-12 325	-13 516	-14 563	-15 502	-17 103	-19 658	-18 398	..	SVK	-18 398
Slovenia	SVN	-2 731	-4 501	-7 587	-11 935	-12 330	-13 634	-13 869	-15 050	-14 866	-15 817	-13 856	-13 825	SVN	-13 825
Spain	ESP	-15 815	-20 642	-25 589	-26 128	-29 228	-27 324	-28 928	-29 375	-30 036	-32 046	-31 379	-31 667	ESP	-31 667
Sweden	SWE	-7 173	-5 992	-3 478	-6 399	-4 705	-5 483	-6 677	-6 597	-2 655	509	1 277	1 253	SWE	1 253
Switzerland	CHE	50 682	58 463	70 906	59 372	68 380	71 947	78 829	82 776	75 696	78 101	76 023	..	CHE	76 023
Turkey	TUR	..	..	..	..	..	-18 624	-14 761	-19 241	-15 966	-11 023	-10 653	..	TUR	-10 653
United Kingdom	GBR	-1 987	-3 884	-3 135	3 247	-3 635	-1 422	-2 163	-8 378	-6 324	-7 179	-1 927	-1 899	GBR	-1 899
United States	USA	3 841	6 336	10 580	5 962	7 332	8 965	6 832	7 287	8 228	6 808	10 122	..	USA	10 122
OECD	OECD 30	-1 035	-1 090	-86	-1 140	-1 080	-223	-699	-879	60	110	2 250	..	OECD 33	4 157
Brazil	BRA	-3 792	-3 850	-4 468	-2 860	-4 222	..	..	..	..	..		..	BRA	-4 222
Colombia	COL	-1 866	-1 973	-2 101	-2 454	-2 407	-2 583	-2 793	-2 936	-3 603	-5 073	-6 809	..	COL	-6 809
Lithuania	LTU	-6 739	-8 243	-10 780	-10 620	-10 515	-11 116	-11 757	-12 744	-12 472	-13 126	-13 005	..	LTU	-13 005
Russian Federation	RUS	..	..	..	..	..	..	1940	1638	1 549	5 770	7 163	..	RUS	7 163

Note: Purchasing Power Parities (PPPs) are those for GDP. The OECD average is population- weighted; its time series excludes Japan, Korea, Mexico New Zealand and Turkey, due to an incomplete data set. For the latest available year, the OECD average excludes Mexico and New Zealand.

Source: OECD calculations based on OECD National Accounts Statistics (database), *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/na-data-en*.

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933600372*

Further reading:

Lequiller, F. and D. Blades (2014), *Understanding National Accounts: Second Edition*, OECD Publishing, Paris, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264214637-en*.

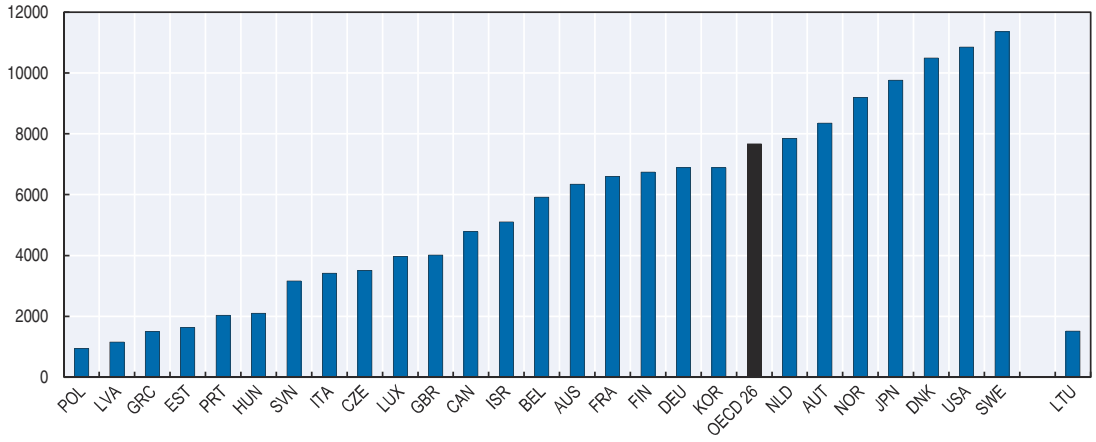
ECONOMIC RESOURCES: Intellectual property assets

Definition

Intellectual property assets (e.g. research and development, software and databases, mineral exploration and evaluation, and entertainment, artistic and literary originals) are a measure of a country's knowledge capital. Data are presented in US dollars per capita, at 2010 prices, using PPPs for GDP and refer to the total economy, as defined according to the System of National Accounts (SNA) 2008. These assets are derived, based on the perpetual inventory method, from past investment flows.

Figure A.64. **Intellectual property assets**

USD at 2010 PPPs per capita, 2015 or latest available year



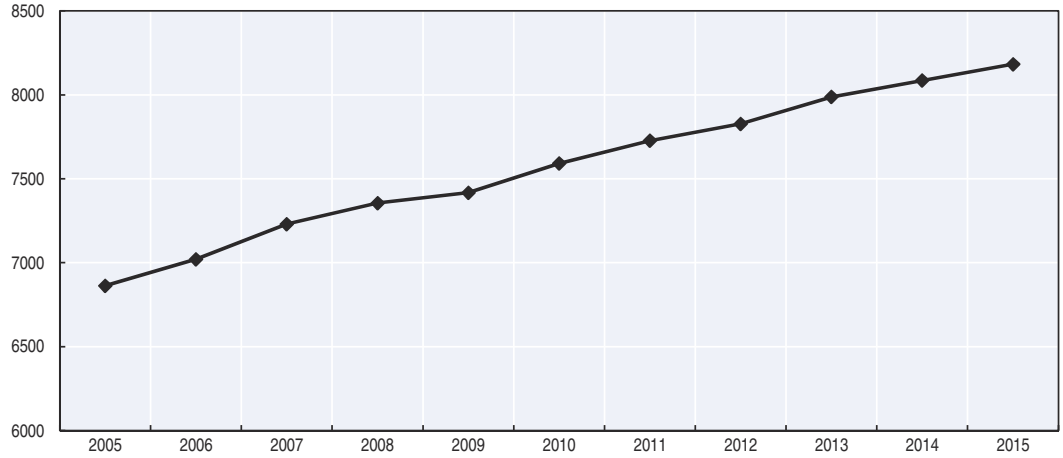
Note: The latest available year is 2016 for Canada, the Czech Republic, Finland and France; and 2014 for Belgium, Estonia, Greece, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Norway, Poland, and Portugal. Purchasing Power Parities (PPPs) are those for GDP; they are fixed to 2010 to allow comparisons across values referring to different years. The OECD average is population-weighted; it excludes Chile, Iceland, Ireland, Mexico, New Zealand, the Slovak Republic, Spain, Switzerland and Turkey.

Source: OECD calculations based on OECD National Accounts Statistics (database), *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/na-data-en*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933598358

Figure A.65. **Intellectual property assets, OECD average**

USD at 2010 PPPs per capita, OECD 18



Note: Purchasing Power Parities (PPPs) are those for GDP. The OECD average is population-weighted; it excludes Belgium, Chile, Estonia, Greece, Hungary, Iceland, Ireland, Latvia, Mexico, New Zealand, Norway, Poland, Portugal, the Slovak Republic, Spain, Switzerland and Turkey, due to incomplete time series for these countries.

Source: OECD calculations based on OECD National Accounts Statistics (database), *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/na-data-en*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933598377

Table A.40. **Intellectual property products**

USD at 2010 PPPs

		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016		Latest available
Australia	AUS	4983	5150	5357	5396	5613	5600	5824	6131	6230	6323	6342	..	AUS	6342
Austria	AUT	5769	5989	6246	6492	6618	6836	7223	7525	7931	8181	8355	..	AUT	8355
Belgium	BEL	4468	4568	4692	4871	5057	5191	5419	5569	5707	5920	..	..	BEL	5920
Canada	CAN	4145	4421	4600	4705	4839	4804	4822	4790	4859	4912	4847	4780	CAN	4780
Chile	CHL	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	CHL	..
Czech Republic	CZE	2491	2655	2813	2919	2956	2913	2896	2998	3061	3132	3338	3515	CZE	3515
Denmark	DNK	8221	8518	8720	9032	9560	9784	10075	10132	10225	10326	10497	..	DNK	10497
Estonia	EST	522	662	812	992	1109	1194	1294	1505	1563	1625	..	..	EST	1625
Finland	FIN	6580	6864	7076	7492	7680	7847	7812	7644	7390	7213	6921	6743	FIN	6743
France	FRA	5457	5540	5566	5630	5743	5839	5954	6059	6165	6264	6382	6597	FRA	6597
Germany	DEU	5485	5643	5769	5992	6042	6213	6479	6634	6690	6809	6884	..	DEU	6884
Greece	GRC	1436	1531	1636	1700	1701	1683	1642	1526	1516	1493	..	..	GRC	1493
Hungary	HUN	1422	1529	1615	1718	1810	1904	1910	1946	1953	2097	..	..	HUN	2097
Iceland	ISL	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	ISL	..
Ireland	IRL	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	IRL	..
Israel	ISR	5147	5110	5208	5393	4905	4903	4943	5005	5051	5106	5108	..	ISR	5108
Italy	ITA	3314	3353	3377	3401	3363	3507	3448	3364	3357	3363	3418	..	ITA	3418
Japan	JPN	8396	8697	9067	9066	9037	9235	9450	9500	9696	9799	9768	..	JPN	9768
Korea	KOR	3760	4039	4334	4588	4794	5064	5402	5828	6233	6668	6887	..	KOR	6887
Latvia	LVA	715	727	743	731	798	846	918	1013	1026	1156	..	..	LVA	1156
Luxembourg	LUX	3402	3165	3494	3535	3779	3976	3896	3913	3832	3830	3968	..	LUX	3968
Mexico	MEX	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	MEX	..
Netherlands	NLD	6491	6695	6880	7000	7097	7223	7333	7384	7459	7649	7853	..	NLD	7853
New Zealand	NZL	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	NZL	..
Norway	NOR	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	8312	8661	9192	..	..	NOR	9192
Poland	POL	499	528	545	593	632	685	718	785	857	935	..	..	POL	935
Portugal	PRT	1316	1295	1414	1615	1772	1904	2048	2120	2010	2031	..	..	PRT	2031
Slovak Republic	SVK	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	SVK	..
Slovenia	SVN	2805	2844	2796	2862	2863	3040	3049	3170	3099	3120	3166	..	SVN	3166
Spain	ESP	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	ESP	..
Sweden	SWE	9949	10106	10548	10745	10483	10617	10806	10905	10986	11 174	11 359	..	SWE	11359
Switzerland	CHE	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	CHE	..
Turkey	TUR	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	TUR	..
United Kingdom	GBR	4238	4229	4279	4294	4147	4116	4094	4085	4068	4014	4012	..	GBR	4012
United States	USA	9158	9294	9553	9733	9850	10114	10236	10350	10592	10679	10855	..	USA	10855
OECD	OECD 18	6863	7021	7230	7356	7417	7591	7727	7828	7988	8086	8183	..	OECD 26	7668
Lithuania	LTU	687	764	872	1010	1176	1238	1271	1347	1413	1513		..	LTU	1513

Note: Purchasing Power Parities (PPPs) are those for GDP. The OECD average is population-weighted; its time series excludes Belgium, Chile, Estonia, Greece, Hungary, Iceland, Ireland, Latvia, Mexico, New Zealand, Norway, Poland, Portugal, the Slovak Republic, Spain, Switzerland and Turkey, due to incomplete time-series for these countries. For the latest available year, the OECD average excludes Chile, Iceland, Ireland, Mexico, New Zealand, the Slovak Republic, Spain, Switzerland and Turkey.

Source: OECD calculations based on OECD National Accounts Statistics (database), *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/na-data-en*.

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933600391*

Further reading:

Lequiller, F. and D. Blades (2014), *Understanding National Accounts: Second Edition*, OECD Publishing, Paris, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264214637-en*.

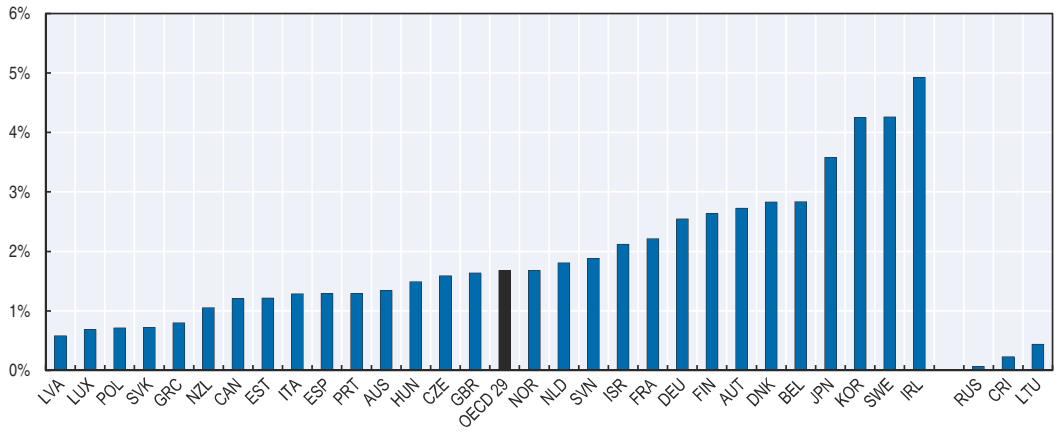
ECONOMIC RESOURCES: Investment in R&D

Definition

This indicator consists of the expenditure undertaken by resident producers on creative work carried out on a systematic basis in order to increase the stock of knowledge, including knowledge of man, culture and society, and the use of this stock of knowledge to devise new applications. Research is treated as capital formation except in cases where it is clear that the activity does not entail any economic benefit for its owner, in which case it is treated as intermediate consumption. Investment in R&D is expressed as a percentage of GDP, and represents a flow that adds to the stock of a country's intellectual property assets.

Figure A.66. **Investment in R&D**

As a percentage of GDP, 2015 or latest available year



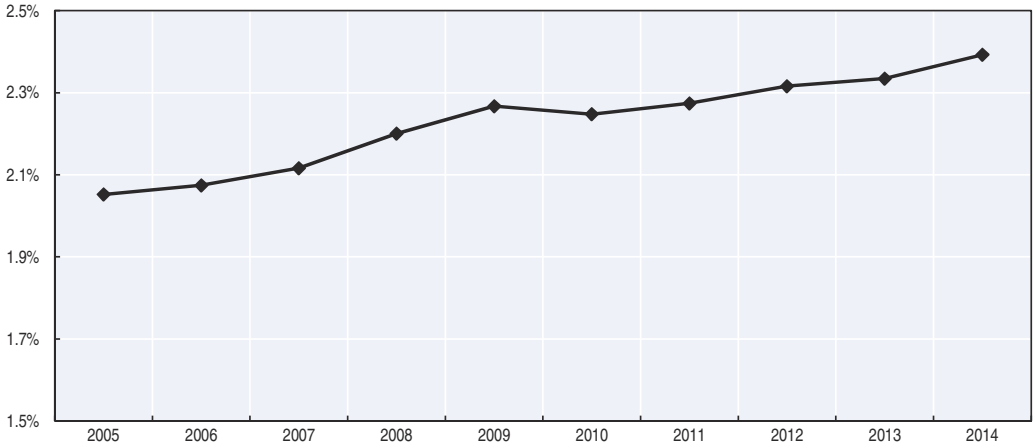
Note: The latest available year is 2016 for the Czech Republic, Finland and the Russian Federation; 2014 for Denmark, Estonia, Germany, Ireland, Latvia, Norway, Poland, Portugal, the Slovak Republic, Spain, Sweden; and 2013 for Costa Rica, Italy and Lithuania. The OECD average is weighted by the shares of GDP and excludes Chile, Iceland, Mexico, Switzerland, Turkey and the United States.

Source: OECD calculations based on "8A. Capital formation by activity ISIC rev4", OECD National Accounts Statistics (database), *http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=SNA_TABLE8A*; Russian Federal State Statistics Service (Rosstat).

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933598396

Figure A.67. **Investment in R&D, OECD average**

As a percentage of GDP, OECD 28



Note: The OECD average is weighted by the shares of GDP; its time series excludes Chile, Iceland, Italy, Mexico, Switzerland, Turkey and the United States.

Source: OECD calculations based "8A. Capital formation by activity ISIC rev4", OECD National Accounts Statistics (database), *http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=SNA_TABLE8A*; Russian Federal State Statistics Service (Rosstat).

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933598415

Table A.41. **Investment in R&D**

As a percentage of GDP

		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016		Latest available
Australia	AUS	1.3%	1.3%	1.4%	1.4%	1.4%	1.3%	1.4%	1.4%	1.3%	1.3%	1.3%	..	AUS	1.3%
Austria	AUT	1.9%	2.1%	2.1%	2.2%	2.3%	2.3%	2.4%	2.5%	2.7%	2.7%	2.7%	..	AUT	2.7%
Belgium	BEL	1.9%	1.9%	1.9%	2.0%	2.1%	2.1%	2.2%	2.2%	2.3%	2.5%	2.8%	..	BEL	2.8%
Canada	CAN	1.5%	1.4%	1.3%	1.4%	1.4%	1.3%	1.3%	1.2%	1.3%	1.2%	1.2%	..	CAN	1.2%
Chile	CHL	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	CHL	..
Czech Republic	CZE	1.1%	1.1%	1.1%	1.1%	1.2%	1.2%	1.3%	1.5%	1.5%	1.5%	1.5%	1.6%	CZE	1.6%
Denmark	DNK	2.3%	2.3%	2.3%	2.6%	2.8%	3.0%	2.8%	2.8%	2.8%	2.8%	..	..	DNK	2.8%
Estonia	EST	0.7%	0.7%	0.8%	0.9%	1.1%	1.0%	1.1%	1.3%	1.3%	1.2%	..	..	EST	1.2%
Finland	FIN	3.4%	3.4%	3.4%	3.7%	3.8%	3.8%	3.5%	3.2%	3.1%	3.0%	2.8%	2.6%	FIN	2.6%
France	FRA	2.0%	2.0%	2.0%	2.0%	2.2%	2.2%	2.2%	2.2%	2.3%	2.2%	2.2%	..	FRA	2.2%
Germany	DEU	2.2%	2.2%	2.2%	2.3%	2.5%	2.4%	2.4%	2.6%	2.5%	2.5%	..	..	DEU	2.5%
Greece	GRC	0.8%	0.7%	0.8%	0.9%	0.8%	0.7%	0.7%	0.8%	0.8%	0.8%	0.8%	..	GRC	0.8%
Hungary	HUN	0.7%	0.9%	0.9%	0.9%	1.0%	1.1%	1.0%	1.0%	1.3%	1.3%	1.5%	..	HUN	1.5%
Iceland	ISL	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	ISL	..
Ireland	IRL	3.3%	3.0%	2.9%	3.0%	4.2%	4.3%	4.7%	5.6%	4.4%	4.9%	..	..	IRL	4.9%
Israel	ISR	3.1%	2.9%	2.8%	2.9%	2.8%	2.6%	2.4%	2.4%	2.3%	2.2%	2.1%	..	ISR	2.1%
Italy	ITA	1.1%	1.1%	1.1%	1.2%	1.3%	1.3%	1.3%	1.3%	1.3%	..	..	..	ITA	1.3%
Japan	JPN	3.2%	3.3%	3.4%	3.5%	3.4%	3.3%	3.3%	3.3%	3.4%	3.5%	3.6%	..	JPN	3.6%
Korea	KOR	2.8%	2.8%	3.0%	3.2%	3.4%	3.6%	3.7%	4.0%	4.2%	4.4%	4.3%	..	KOR	4.3%
Latvia	LVA	0.6%	0.6%	0.5%	0.5%	0.6%	0.7%	0.8%	0.6%	0.6%	0.6%	..	..	LVA	0.6%
Luxembourg	LUX	0.5%	0.5%	0.5%	0.5%	0.7%	0.8%	0.7%	0.7%	0.7%	0.7%	0.7%	..	LUX	0.7%
Mexico	MEX	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	MEX	..
Netherlands	NLD	1.8%	1.7%	1.6%	1.6%	1.7%	1.7%	1.8%	1.8%	1.8%	1.8%	1.8%	..	NLD	1.8%
New Zealand	NZL	1.1%	1.1%	1.1%	1.1%	1.2%	1.2%	1.1%	1.0%	1.1%	1.1%	1.1%	..	NZL	1.1%
Norway	NOR	1.2%	1.2%	1.4%	1.4%	1.5%	1.6%	1.5%	1.6%	1.6%	1.7%	..	..	NOR	1.7%
Poland	POL	0.5%	0.5%	0.5%	0.6%	0.6%	0.6%	0.6%	0.7%	0.7%	0.7%	..	..	POL	0.7%
Portugal	PRT	0.7%	0.9%	1.1%	1.4%	1.5%	1.5%	1.5%	1.4%	1.3%	1.3%	..	..	PRT	1.3%
Slovak Republic	SVK	0.6%	0.5%	0.5%	0.5%	0.6%	0.6%	0.6%	0.6%	0.7%	0.7%	..	..	SVK	0.7%
Slovenia	SVN	1.5%	1.5%	1.4%	1.5%	1.7%	1.9%	1.9%	2.0%	2.0%	2.0%	1.9%	..	SVN	1.9%
Spain	ESP	0.9%	1.0%	1.0%	1.1%	1.2%	1.3%	1.3%	1.3%	1.3%	1.3%	..	..	ESP	1.3%
Sweden	SWE	3.7%	3.6%	3.7%	3.7%	3.8%	3.8%	3.7%	3.6%	3.9%	4.3%	..	..	SWE	4.3%
Switzerland	CHE	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	CHE	..
Turkey	TUR	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	TUR	..
United Kingdom	GBR	1.4%	1.4%	1.5%	1.7%	1.6%	1.7%	1.7%	1.6%	1.6%	1.6%	1.6%	..	GBR	1.6%
United States	USA	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	USA	..
OECD	OECD 28	2.1%	2.1%	2.1%	2.2%	2.3%	2.2%	2.3%	2.3%	2.3%	2.4%	..	..	OECD 29	1.7%
Costa Rica	CRI	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	0.3%	0.2%	..	..	..	CRI	0.2%
Lithuania	LTU	0.2%	0.3%	0.4%	0.6%	0.7%	0.6%	0.6%	0.5%	0.4%	..	..	..	LTU	0.4%
Russian Federation	RUS	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	0.0%	0.1%	0.1%	0.1%	RUS	0.1%

Note: 2013-14 values for Spain are estimates; 2011-15 values for Greece are preliminary values. The OECD average is weighted by the shares of GDP; its time-series excludes Chile, Iceland, Italy, Mexico, Switzerland, Turkey and the United States due to incomplete time series for these countries. For the latest available year, the OECD average excludes Chile, Iceland, Mexico, Switzerland, Turkey and the United States

Source: OECD calculations based "8A. Capital formation by activity ISIC rev4", OECD National Accounts Statistics (database), *http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=SNA_TABLE8A*; Russian Federal State Statistics Service (Rosstat).

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933600410*

Further reading:

Lequiller, F. and D. Blades (2014), *Understanding National Accounts: Second Edition*, OECD Publishing, Paris, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264214637-en*.

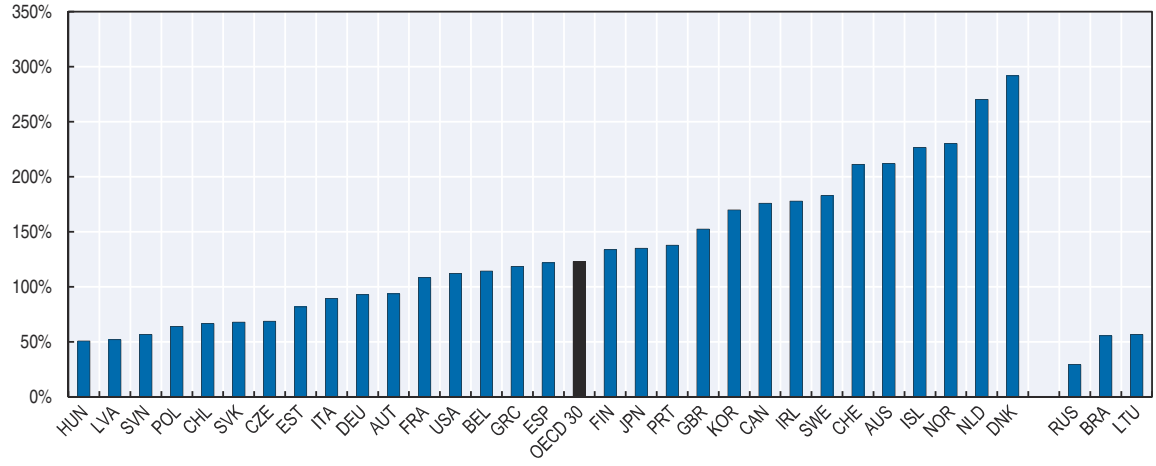
ECONOMIC RESOURCES: Household debt

Definition

This indicator refers to the total outstanding debt of households as a percentage of their disposable income. Debt is calculated by summing liability categories such as loans, debt securities except financial derivatives, and other accounts payable. For most households, debt mainly consists of home mortgage loans and other liabilities such as credit lines, credit cards and other consumer credit (including automobile loans or student loans). Household debt, when it reaches unsustainable levels, represents a risk for the economic system.

Figure A.68. **Household debt**

As a percentage of household net disposable income, 2015 or latest available year



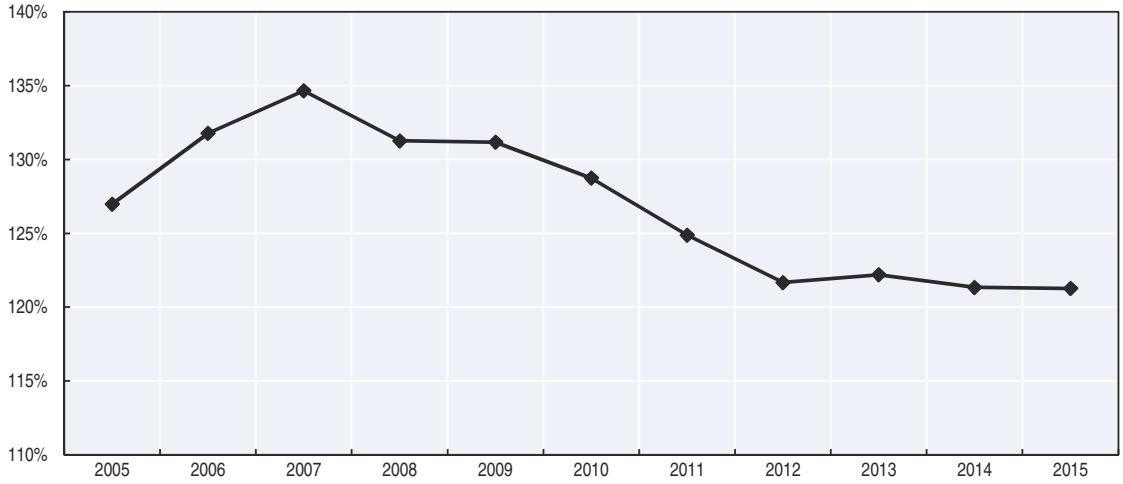
Note: The latest available year is 2016 for Canada, Denmark, Finland, Iceland, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, Sweden and the United Kingdom; and 2014 for Brazil and Iceland. The OECD average is weighted by the household net disposable income and excludes Israel, Luxembourg, Mexico, New Zealand and Turkey.

Source: OECD Financial dashboard (database), *http://dotstat.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=FIN_IND_FBS*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933598434

Figure A.69. **Household debt, OECD average**

As a percentage of household net disposable income, OECD 28



Note: The OECD average is weighted by the household net disposable income; it excludes Iceland, Israel, Korea, Luxembourg, Mexico, New Zealand and Turkey due to incomplete time series for these countries.

Source: OECD Financial dashboard (database), *http://dotstat.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=FIN_IND_FBS*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933598453

Table A.42. **Household debt**

As a percentage of household net disposable income

		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016		Latest available
Australia	AUS	190%	194%	196%	191%	198%	198%	196%	196%	197%	204%	212%	..	AUS	212%
Austria	AUT	87%	89%	89%	90%	90%	94%	93%	91%	91%	91%	94%	..	AUT	94%
Belgium	BEL	80%	83%	87%	89%	90%	95%	102%	104%	107%	111%	114%	..	BEL	114%
Canada	CAN	140%	144%	152%	157%	165%	166%	170%	171%	169%	172%	175%	176%	CAN	176%
Chile	CHL	46%	49%	57%	58%	59%	59%	59%	58%	60%	63%	66%	..	CHL	66%
Czech Republic	CZE	39%	44%	53%	59%	60%	62%	65%	66%	68%	67%	69%	..	CZE	69%
Denmark	DNK	282%	299%	325%	340%	340%	326%	320%	314%	306%	303%	293%	292%	DNK	292%
Estonia	EST	70%	93%	104%	101%	108%	106%	93%	86%	85%	82%	82%	..	EST	82%
Finland	FIN	99%	109%	115%	117%	118%	120%	123%	125%	124%	126%	130%	134%	FIN	134%
France	FRA	88%	94%	97%	99%	104%	108%	107%	103%	104%	106%	108%	..	FRA	108%
Germany	DEU	108%	106%	103%	99%	100%	98%	96%	95%	94%	94%	93%	..	DEU	93%
Greece	GRC	68%	74%	83%	87%	88%	105%	112%	120%	122%	118%	119%	..	GRC	119%
Hungary	HUN	50%	57%	65%	79%	80%	85%	78%	67%	61%	57%	51%	..	HUN	51%
Iceland	ISL	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	226%	..	..	ISL	226%
Ireland	IRL	200%	224%	234%	230%	240%	233%	236%	221%	216%	198%	178%	..	IRL	178%
Israel	ISR	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	ISR	..
Italy	ITA	71%	76%	80%	82%	87%	90%	90%	92%	91%	90%	89%	..	ITA	89%
Japan	JPN	134%	135%	130%	129%	128%	127%	127%	125%	128%	131%	135%	..	JPN	135%
Korea	KOR	..	..	..	143%	148%	152%	158%	159%	160%	163%	170%	..	KOR	170%
Latvia	LVA	55%	75%	86%	77%	85%	89%	84%	71%	64%	57%	52%	..	LVA	52%
Luxembourg	LUX	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	LUX	..
Mexico	MEX	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	MEX	..
Netherlands	NLD	257%	260%	265%	274%	287%	294%	288%	287%	281%	276%	276%	270%	NLD	270%
New Zealand	NZL	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	NZL	..
Norway	NOR	167%	198%	207%	207%	206%	212%	216%	220%	222%	225%	221%	230%	NOR	230%
Poland	POL	25%	31%	39%	51%	53%	57%	60%	58%	60%	62%	64%	..	POL	64%
Portugal	PRT	136%	141%	146%	149%	151%	154%	155%	156%	150%	149%	143%	138%	PRT	138%
Slovak Republic	SVK	30%	33%	39%	42%	41%	45%	50%	55%	59%	64%	68%	..	SVK	68%
Slovenia	SVN	40%	45%	52%	53%	56%	59%	58%	60%	59%	58%	57%	..	SVN	57%
Spain	ESP	128%	144%	154%	150%	145%	148%	142%	141%	134%	128%	122%	..	ESP	122%
Sweden	SWE	147%	154%	157%	158%	163%	171%	168%	167%	170%	172%	178%	183%	SWE	183%
Switzerland	CHE	188%	188%	182%	181%	185%	190%	195%	197%	198%	203%	211%	..	CHE	211%
Turkey	TUR	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	TUR	..
United Kingdom	GBR	157%	168%	173%	169%	161%	156%	157%	152%	150%	152%	150%	152%	GBR	152%
United States	USA	135%	140%	143%	136%	134%	128%	120%	115%	116%	113%	112%	..	USA	112%
OECD	OECD 28	127%	132%	135%	131%	131%	129%	125%	122%	122%	121%	121%	..	OECD 30	123%
Brazil	BRA	..	..	..	..	..	43%	49%	53%	56%	55%	..	..	BRA	55%
Lithuania	LTU	26%	42%	57%	58%	57%	56%	50%	47%	50%	53%	57%	..	LTU	57%
Russian Federation	RUS	..	..	..	..	..	..	23%	27%	30%	31%	29%	..	RUS	29%

Note: The OECD average is weighted by household net disposable income of each country; its time series excludes Iceland, Israel, Korea, Luxembourg, Mexico, New Zealand and Turkey, due to incomplete time-series for these countries. For the latest available year, the OECD average excludes Israel, Luxembourg, Mexico, New Zealand and Turkey.

Source: OECD Financial dashboard (database), *http://dotstat.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=FIN_IND_FBS*.

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933600429*

Further reading:

Lequiller, F. and D. Blades (2014), *Understanding National Accounts: Second Edition*, OECD Publishing, Paris, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264214637-en*.

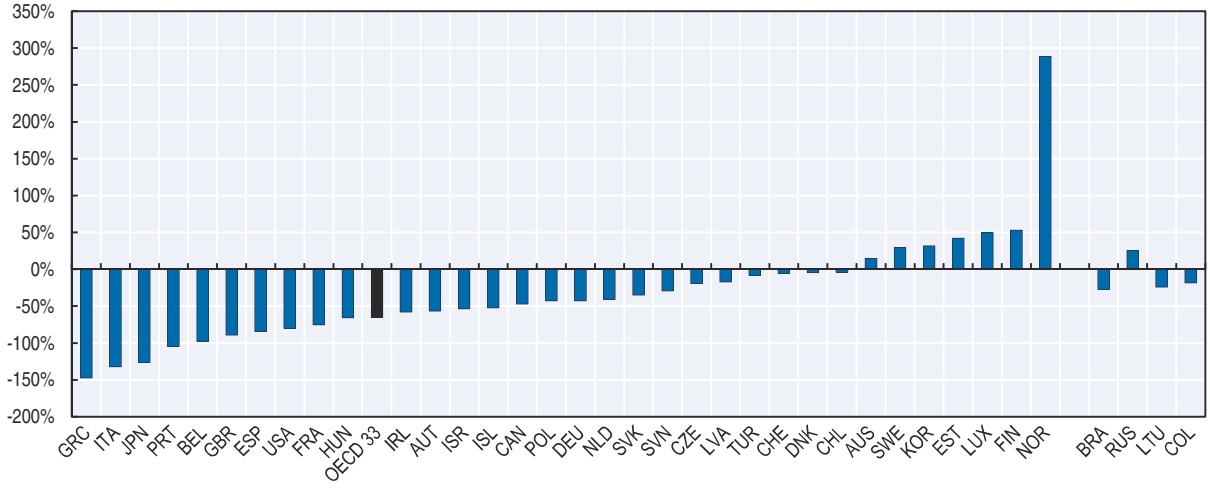
ECONOMIC RESOURCES: Financial net worth of the general government

Definition

This indicator refers to the total value of financial assets minus the total value of outstanding liabilities, excluding pension liabilities, held by the general government sector (which consists of central, state and local governments, as well as social security funds). Consistent with standard practice, it is expressed here as a percentage of GDP. The SNA 2008 defines financial assets of the government sector as: currency and deposits; debt securities, loans; equity and investment fund shares; insurance, pensions and standardised guarantee schemes; financial derivatives and employee stock options, and other accounts receivable. Monetary gold and special drawing rights (SDRs) are part of government financial assets in a very few countries such as Japan, the United Kingdom and the United States. Outstanding liabilities refer to the total liabilities as recorded in the financial balance sheet of the general government. To improve comparability across OECD countries, this indicator excludes pension liabilities (thus, it represents the "adjusted" financial net worth of the general government) because recording practices of pension liabilities for the general government sector differ across countries. As a result, financial net worth and adjusted financial net worth of general government (i.e. "adjusted" to exclude pension liabilities) are different for Australia, Canada, Sweden, Switzerland, the United Kingdom and the United States. A negative financial net worth of the government, when it reaches excessive negative levels, may represent a risk for the economic sustainability of a country.

Figure A.70. **Adjusted financial net worth of the general government**

As a percentage of GDP, 2016 or latest available year



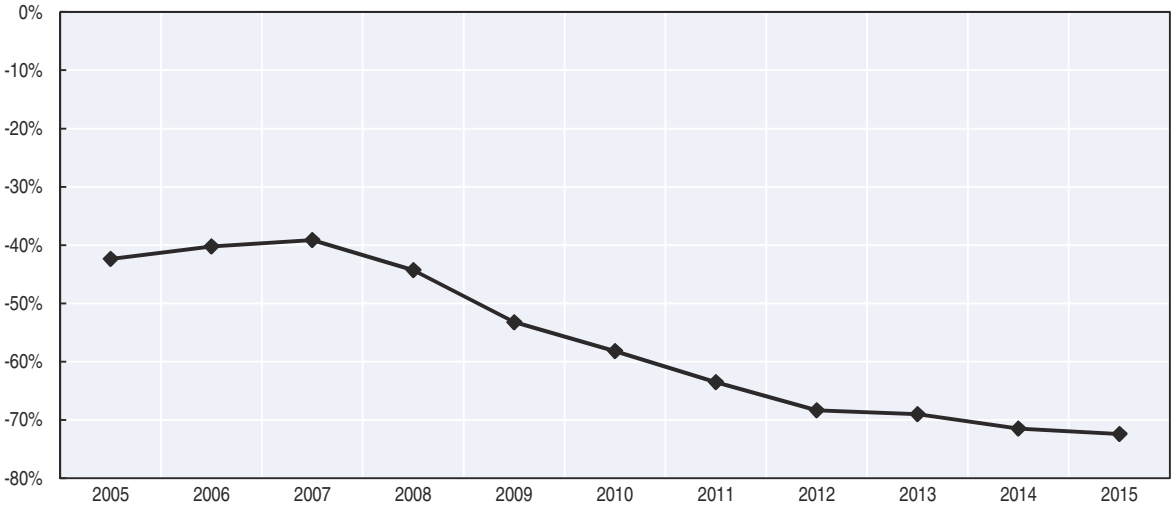
Note: The latest available year is 2015 for Austria, the Czech Republic, Estonia, France, Germany, Iceland, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Japan, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, the Russian Federation, the Slovak Republic, Switzerland, Turkey. The OECD average is population-weighted and excludes Mexico and New Zealand.

Source: OECD Financial dashboard (database), *http://dotstat.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=FIN_IND_FBS.*

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933598472

Figure A.71. **Adjusted financial net worth of the general government, OECD average**

As a percentage of GDP, OECD 31



Note: The OECD average is population-weighted and excludes Korea, Mexico, New Zealand and Turkey due to incomplete time series for these countries.

Source: OECD Financial dashboard (database), *http://dotstat.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=FIN_IND_FBS*.

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933598491*

Table A.43. **Adjusted financial net worth of the general government**

As a percentage of GDP

		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016		Latest available
Australia	AUS	27%	29%	30%	30%	27%	22%	16%	14%	15%	13%	14%	15%	AUS	15%
Austria	AUT	-45%	-42%	-40%	-44%	-50%	-51%	-53%	-58%	-57%	-59%	-57%	..	AUT	-57%
Belgium	BEL	-89%	-80%	-74%	-76%	-83%	-81%	-83%	-92%	-90%	-100%	-98%	-98%	BEL	-98%
Canada	CAN	-31%	-27%	-24%	-23%	-29%	-31%	-34%	-35%	-31%	-31%	-30%	-47%	CAN	-47%
Chile	CHL	-7%	0%	7%	17%	6%	2%	5%	2%	2%	1%	1%	-4%	CHL	-4%
Czech Republic	CZE	11%	12%	15%	6%	1%	-6%	-9%	-17%	-18%	-20%	-20%	..	CZE	-20%
Denmark	DNK	-9%	-1%	5%	7%	6%	3%	-1%	-7%	-4%	-5%	-5%	-5%	DNK	-5%
Estonia	EST	32%	31%	28%	26%	29%	36%	33%	31%	31%	31%	42%	..	EST	42%
Finland	FIN	56%	67%	70%	50%	60%	62%	49%	49%	53%	54%	54%	53%	FIN	53%
France	FRA	-41%	-36%	-32%	-43%	-50%	-55%	-60%	-67%	-66%	-74%	-76%	..	FRA	-76%
Germany	DEU	-48%	-47%	-42%	-43%	-48%	-49%	-50%	-50%	-46%	-46%	-43%	..	DEU	-43%
Greece	GRC	-83%	-86%	-81%	-91%	-103%	-92%	-73%	-105%	-125%	-136%	-148%	-148%	GRC	-148%
Hungary	HUN	-44%	-51%	-53%	-51%	-59%	-61%	-62%	-70%	-70%	-71%	-67%	-66%	HUN	-66%
Iceland	ISL	-9%	3%	9%	-10%	-23%	-33%	-49%	-51%	-50%	-48%	-52%	..	ISL	-52%
Ireland	IRL	-6%	-1%	0%	-12%	-25%	-48%	-62%	-79%	-81%	-80%	-58%	..	IRL	-58%
Israel	ISR	-55%	-45%	-45%	-49%	-54%	-50%	-52%	-55%	-54%	-55%	-54%	..	ISR	-54%
Italy	ITA	-96%	-92%	-89%	-92%	-103%	-101%	-96%	-112%	-118%	-130%	-132%	..	ITA	-132%
Japan	JPN	-65%	-66%	-73%	-83%	-96%	-104%	-116%	-119%	-117%	-115%	-126%	..	JPN	-126%
Korea	KOR	..	..	..	31%	33%	32%	31%	31%	32%	31%	30%	32%	KOR	32%
Latvia	LVA	5%	4%	4%	1%	-7%	-14%	-15%	-12%	-14%	-14%	-17%	..	LVA	-17%
Luxembourg	LUX	49%	52%	55%	51%	56%	51%	45%	50%	51%	50%	50%	..	LUX	50%
Mexico	MEX	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	MEX	..
Netherlands	NLD	-30%	-27%	-24%	-23%	-28%	-32%	-37%	-40%	-40%	-44%	-42%	-41%	NLD	-41%
New Zealand	NZL	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	NZL	..
Norway	NOR	122%	135%	140%	124%	154%	164%	160%	169%	208%	249%	285%	289%	NOR	289%
Poland	POL	-23%	-21%	-16%	-16%	-21%	-27%	-30%	-35%	-38%	-42%	-42%	-43%	POL	-43%
Portugal	PRT	-56%	-55%	-55%	-60%	-70%	-71%	-67%	-91%	-99%	-109%	-109%	-105%	PRT	-105%
Slovak Republic	SVK	-10%	-15%	-14%	-15%	-22%	-28%	-33%	-31%	-33%	-35%	-35%	..	SVK	-35%
Slovenia	SVN	9%	10%	18%	7%	2%	1%	-2%	-9%	-15%	-23%	-26%	-29%	SVN	-29%
Spain	ESP	-29%	-22%	-17%	-22%	-34%	-40%	-48%	-59%	-70%	-82%	-82%	-84%	ESP	-84%
Sweden	SWE	7%	17%	21%	15%	23%	24%	27%	29%	29%	28%	28%	30%	SWE	30%
Switzerland	CHE	-13%	-9%	-8%	-9%	-6%	-9%	-8%	-6%	-6%	-1%	-5%	..	CHE	-5%
Turkey	TUR	..	..	..	..	..	-19%	-17%	-17%	-14%	-14%	-8%	..	TUR	-8%
United Kingdom	GBR	-26%	-27%	-28%	-33%	-43%	-50%	-65%	-68%	-66%	-78%	-79%	-89%	GBR	-89%
United States	USA	-46%	-45%	-44%	-50%	-62%	-69%	-75%	-79%	-80%	-80%	-79%	-80%	USA	-80%
OECD	OECD 31	-42%	-40%	-39%	-44%	-53%	-58%	-64%	-68%	-69%	-71%	-72%	..	OECD 33	-65%
Brazil	BRA	..	..	..	..	-30%	-29%	-27%	-27%	-24%	-27%	..	..	BRA	-27%
Colombia	COL	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	-17%	-19%	COL	-19%
Lithuania	LTU	9%	11%	11%	7%	-3%	-13%	-21%	-26%	-26%	-25%	-24%	..	LTU	-24%
Russian Federation	RUS	..	..	..	..	..	..	22%	21%	22%	25%	26%	..	RUS	26%

Note: The OECD average is population-weighted; its time series excludes Korea, Mexico, New Zealand and Turkey, due to incomplete time-series for these countries. For the latest available year, the OECD average excludes Mexico and New Zealand.

Source: OECD Financial dashboard (database), *http://dotstat.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=FIN_IND_FBS*.

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933600448*

Further reading:

Lequiller, F. and D. Blades (2014), *Understanding National Accounts: Second Edition*, OECD Publishing, Paris, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264214637-en*.

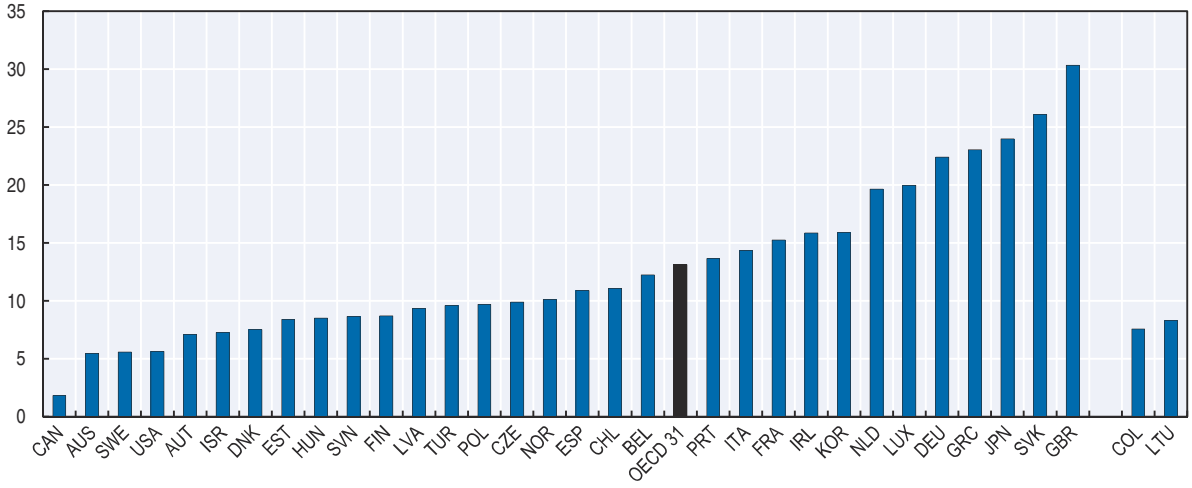
ECONOMIC RESOURCES: Banking sector leverage

Definition

This indicator refers to the ratio between selected financial assets of the banking sector (i.e. loans, currency and deposits, securities other than shares except financial derivatives, as recorded on the asset side of the financial balance sheet) and their own equity (i.e. shares and other equity, except mutual fund shares, as reported on the liability side of the financial balance sheet). The banking sector is defined as the Central Bank (S121) and other depository corporations (S122), as well as other financial intermediaries, with the exception of insurance corporations and pension funds (S123). However, there can be some country variations in this definition: in particular, "other financial intermediaries" can include financial auxiliaries (S124) in Australia, Canada, Iceland, Switzerland, the Slovak Republic and the United Kingdom. The data are non-consolidated for all OECD countries, except Australia and Israel. A high leverage of the banking sector is considered a risk factor, since it can increase exposure to risks and cyclical downturns.

Figure A.72. **Leverage of the banking sector**

Ratio of selected assets to banks' own equity, 2016 or latest available year



Note: The latest available year is 2015 for Austria, Colombia, Estonia, France, Germany, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Japan, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, the Slovak Republic, Turkey and the United Kingdom; and 2014 for the Czech Republic. The OECD average is population-weighted and excludes Iceland, Mexico, New Zealand and Switzerland.

Source: OECD Financial dashboard (database), *http://dotstat.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=FIN_IND_FBS*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933598510

Figure A.73. **Leverage of the banking sector, OECD average**

Ratio of selected assets to banks' own equity, OECD 29



Note: The OECD average is population-weighted; it excludes the Czech Republic, Iceland, Korea, Mexico, New Zealand, Switzerland and Turkey, due to incomplete time-series for these countries.

Source: OECD Financial dashboard (database), *http://dotstat.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=FIN_IND_FBS*.

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933598529*

Table A.44. **Leverage of the banking sector**

Ratio of selected assets to banks' own equity

		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016		Latest available
Australia	AUS	3.9	3.8	3.9	6.6	5.2	5.6	6.2	5.6	4.9	5.1	5.3	5.5	AUS	5.5
Austria	AUT	9.6	9.2	7.5	10.5	7.9	7.0	8.3	7.5	7.2	7.5	7.1	..	AUT	7.1
Belgium	BEL	14.6	13.2	13.3	24.3	18.7	15.9	17.5	14.0	12.8	12.2	12.4	12.2	BEL	12.2
Canada	CAN	2.0	1.9	1.9	2.5	2.2	1.9	2.0	2.0	1.9	1.9	2.1	1.8	CAN	1.8
Chile	CHL	9.8	8.4	9.7	11.0	9.8	6.3	7.8	8.5	8.9	10.0	10.1	11.1	CHL	11.1
Czech Republic	CZE	12.0	12.4	11.5	12.5	10.8	8.8	10.4	9.8	10.2	9.9	..	..	CZE	9.9
Denmark	DNK	7.2	8.0	10.5	16.6	10.7	10.2	10.4	12.4	10.7	8.9	7.7	7.5	DNK	7.5
Estonia	EST	3.6	8.1	8.2	7.4	9.7	8.5	8.8	8.1	6.7	7.1	8.4	..	EST	8.4
Finland	FIN	6.6	6.6	7.8	9.4	8.5	9.8	12.9	12.3	9.0	9.6	8.4	8.7	FIN	8.7
France	FRA	10.4	9.5	13.3	22.7	15.7	15.8	21.2	17.8	15.5	16.4	15.2	..	FRA	15.2
Germany	DEU	17.4	14.9	14.8	27.2	22.0	23.1	24.9	22.9	20.8	20.6	22.4	..	DEU	22.4
Greece	GRC	5.0	4.3	4.2	17.2	12.8	25.6	56.4	12.5	11.4	15.1	21.3	23.0	GRC	23.0
Hungary	HUN	7.1	6.8	7.7	13.3	11.1	11.9	12.3	12.3	12.4	13.4	10.9	8.5	HUN	8.5
Iceland	ISL	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	ISL	..
Ireland	IRL	13.9	14.6	17.6	26.8	19.1	17.9	12.4	10.6	8.2	8.7	15.9	..	IRL	15.9
Israel	ISR	11.6	12.0	11.9	28.6	5.1	5.1	9.5	7.9	7.5	7.8	7.3	..	ISR	7.3
Italy	ITA	4.3	3.9	6.1	20.9	15.8	22.8	40.0	34.0	23.0	18.2	14.3	..	ITA	14.3
Japan	JPN	11.5	12.9	16.9	23.9	22.5	26.2	26.1	21.7	21.9	20.2	24.0	..	JPN	24.0
Korea	KOR	..	..	..	18.7	13.2	12.7	13.9	12.8	12.8	14.9	15.4	15.9	KOR	15.9
Latvia	LVA	12.5	13.3	12.4	12.9	11.5	11.1	9.8	9.1	8.3	8.4	9.3	..	LVA	9.3
Luxembourg	LUX	29.2	28.1	28.3	21.8	18.4	21.3	23.3	21.8	20.0	18.8	20.0	..	LUX	20.0
Mexico	MEX	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	MEX	..
Netherlands	NLD	14.9	15.6	13.4	22.8	19.8	19.5	20.9	19.7	19.2	19.4	19.5	19.6	NLD	19.6
New Zealand	NZL	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	NZL	..
Norway	NOR	16.7	18.9	23.6	29.9	26.3	23.2	23.0	16.8	13.4	11.8	10.1	10.1	NOR	10.1
Poland	POL	5.0	4.0	4.1	8.3	6.7	6.5	8.6	7.2	6.2	6.8	9.1	9.7	POL	9.7
Portugal	PRT	10.9	9.4	9.8	16.9	15.1	16.8	20.4	15.9	15.6	14.1	15.8	13.6	PRT	13.6
Slovak Republic	SVK	285.1	218.8	41.3	33.6	36.6	28.9	22.6	19.5	16.2	20.6	26.1	..	SVK	26.1
Slovenia	SVN	11.9	11.9	11.3	12.7	12.0	11.6	13.3	14.3	11.5	9.6	8.8	8.6	SVN	8.6
Spain	ESP	9.5	8.5	10.2	18.4	13.4	16.1	15.5	16.8	11.5	9.6	10.9	10.9	ESP	10.9
Sweden	SWE	5.3	5.1	6.1	12.3	8.0	6.9	7.9	6.9	5.8	5.4	5.7	5.6	SWE	5.6
Switzerland	CHE	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	CHE	..
Turkey	TUR	..	..	..	..	..	4.1	6.5	5.3	7.9	7.0	9.6	..	TUR	9.6
United Kingdom	GBR	40.1	43.8	49.4	51.6	48.0	45.1	38.9	35.9	35.0	31.9	30.3	..	GBR	30.3
United States	USA	6.7	6.5	7.7	9.2	7.3	6.8	7.2	6.1	5.9	5.8	5.9	5.6	USA	5.6
OECD	OECD 29	12.2	11.8	12.6	18.1	15.1	15.8	17.5	15.0	13.6	12.8	13.4	..	OECD 31	13.1
Colombia	COL	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	7.6	..	COL	7.6
Lithuania	LTU	7.9	9.1	9.9	12.7	9.8	7.5	7.9	7.6	7.6	7.9	8.3	..	LTU	8.3

Note: The OECD average is population-weighted; its time series excludes the Czech Republic, Iceland, Korea, Mexico, New Zealand, Switzerland and Turkey, due to incomplete time-series for these countries. For the latest available year, the OECD average excludes Iceland, Mexico, New Zealand and Switzerland.

Source: OECD Financial dashboard (database), *http://dotstat.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=FIN_IND_FBS*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933600467

Further reading:

Lequiller, F. and D. Blades (2014), *Understanding National Accounts: Second Edition*, OECD Publishing, Paris, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264214637-en*.

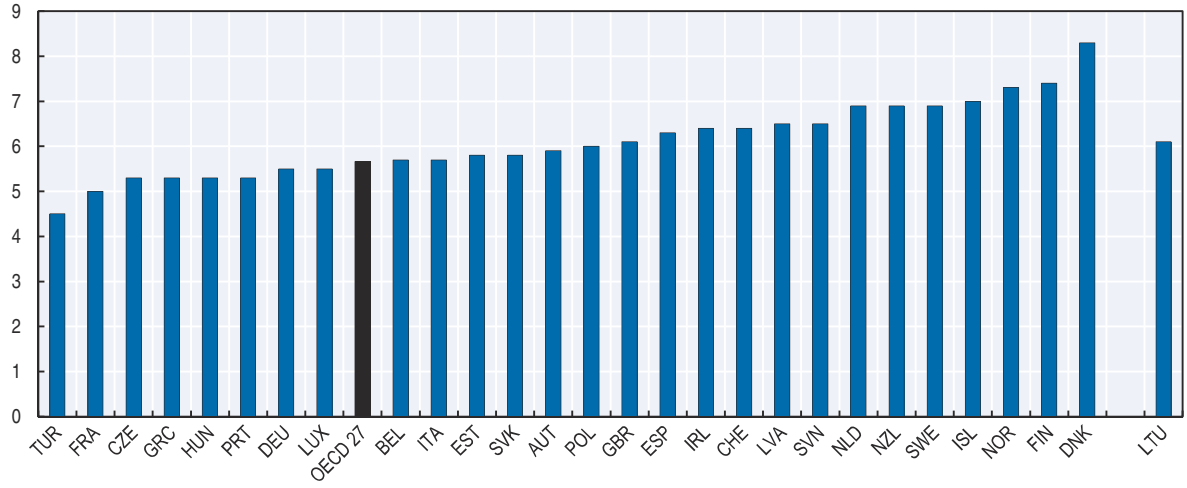
SOCIAL CAPITAL: Trust in others

Definition

Trust in others (also referred to as "interpersonal" or "generalised" trust) captures one of the key aspects of a country's stock of social capital. This indicator is based on the survey question: "Would you say that most people can be trusted?" Respondents answer using an 11-point scale, ranging from 0 ("You do not trust any other person") to 10 ("Most people can be trusted"). Data for European countries were collected as part of the EU SILC 2013 ad hoc module on well-being (Eurostat, 2015), and are nationally representative of the population aged 16 years and above. Data for New Zealand have been provided by Statistics New Zealand.

Figure A.74. **Interpersonal trust**

Mean average, on a scale from 0 (you do not trust any other person) to 10 (most people can be trusted), 2013



Note: The OECD average is population-weighted; it excludes Australia, Canada, Chile, Israel, Japan, Korea, Mexico and the United States.
Source: European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC), *http://appsso.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/nui/show.do?dataset=ilc_pw03&lang=en* and Statistics New Zealand, customised report and licensed by Statistics New Zealand for re-use under the Creative Commons Attribution 3.0 New Zealand licence (received on 20 April 2017).

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933598548*

Table A.45. **Interpersonal trust**

Mean average, on a scale from 0 (you do not trust any other person) to 10 (most people can be trusted), 2013

		2013
Australia	AUS	..
Austria	AUT	5.9
Belgium	BEL	5.7
Canada	CAN	..
Chile	CHL	..
Czech Republic	CZE	5.3
Denmark	DNK	8.3
Estonia	EST	5.8
Finland	FIN	7.4
France	FRA	5.0
Germany	DEU	5.5
Greece	GRC	5.3
Hungary	HUN	5.3
Iceland	ISL	7.0
Ireland	IRL	6.4
Israel	ISR	..
Italy	ITA	5.7
Japan	JPN	..
Korea	KOR	..
Latvia	LVA	6.5
Luxembourg	LUX	5.5
Mexico	MEX	..
Netherlands	NLD	6.9
New Zealand	NZL	6.9
Norway	NOR	7.3
Poland	POL	6.0
Portugal	PRT	5.3
Slovak Republic	SVK	5.8
Slovenia	SVN	6.5
Spain	ESP	6.3
Sweden	SWE	6.9
Switzerland	CHE	6.4
Turkey	TUR	4.5
United Kingdom	GBR	6.1
United States	USA	..
OECD	OECD 27	5.7
Lithuania	LTU	6.1

Note: The OECD average is population-weighted; it excludes Australia, Canada, Chile, Israel, Japan, Korea, Mexico and the United States.

Source: European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC), *http://appsso. eurostat.ec.europa.eu/nui/show.do?dataset=ilc_pw03&lang=en* and Statistics New Zealand, customised report and licensed by Statistics New Zealand for re-use under the Creative Commons Attribution 3.0 New Zealand licence (received on 20 April 2017).

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933600486*

Further reading:

OECD (2017), *Guidelines on Measuring Trust*, OECD Publishing, Paris, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264278219-en*.

Scrivens, K. and C. Smith (2013), "Four Interpretations of Social Capital: An Agenda for Measurement", *OECD Statistics Working Papers*, No. 2013/06, OECD Publishing, Paris, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/5jzbcx010wmt-en*.

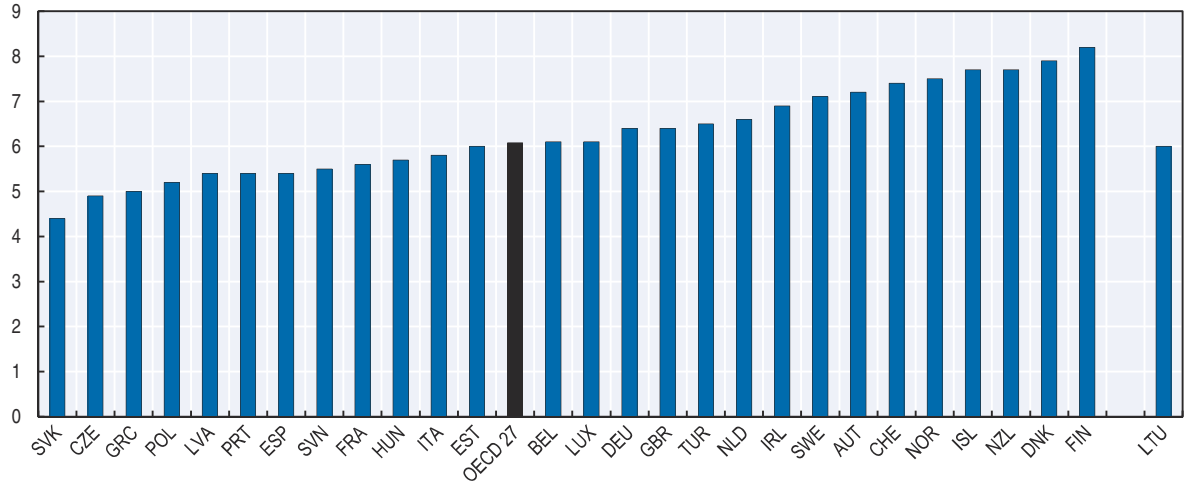
SOCIAL CAPITAL: Trust in the police

Definition

People's trust in public institutions is also important for people's willingness to cooperate with each other in the pursuit of collective goals. This indicator is based on the survey question: "How much do you personally trust each of the following national institutions…the police", which respondents answer using an 11-point scale, ranging from 0 ("No trust at all") to 10 ("Complete trust"). This indicator is consistent with the recommendations of the *OECD Guidelines on Measuring Trust* and it refers to one of the three institutions (i.e. the parliament, the police and the civil service) that the *OECD Guidelines* recommend to be considered when measuring institutional trust. According to the *OECD Guidelines on Measuring Trust*, measures of trust in public institutions should consider trust in the political system (which includes the government, political parties and the parliament), trust in the judicial system (which includes the police, military, and courts) and trust in non-political public institutions (which includes the civil service). Data for European countries were collected as part of the EU SILC 2013 ad hoc module on well-being (Eurostat, 2015), and are nationally representative of the population aged 16 years and above. Data for New Zealand have been provided by Statistics New Zealand.

Figure A.75. **Trust in the police**

Mean average, on a scale from 0 (no trust at all) to 10 (complete trust), 2013



Note: The OECD average is population-weighted and excludes Australia, Canada, Chile, Israel, Japan, Korea, Mexico and the United States.
Source: European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC), *http://appsso.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/nui/show.do?dataset=ilc_pw03&lang=en* and Statistics New Zealand, customised report and licensed by Statistics New Zealand for re-use under the Creative Commons Attribution 3.0 New Zealand licence (received on 20 April 2017).

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933598567

Table A.46. **Trust in the police**

Mean average, on a scale from 0 (no trust at all) to 10 (complete trust), 2013

		2013
Australia	AUS	..
Austria	AUT	7.2
Belgium	BEL	6.1
Canada	CAN	..
Chile	CHL	..
Czech Republic	CZE	4.9
Denmark	DNK	7.9
Estonia	EST	6.0
Finland	FIN	8.2
France	FRA	5.6
Germany	DEU	6.4
Greece	GRC	5.0
Hungary	HUN	5.7
Iceland	ISL	7.7
Ireland	IRL	6.9
Israel	ISR	..
Italy	ITA	5.8
Japan	JPN	..
Korea	KOR	..
Latvia	LVA	5.4
Luxembourg	LUX	6.1
Mexico	MEX	..
Netherlands	NLD	6.6
New Zealand	NZL	7.7
Norway	NOR	7.5
Poland	POL	5.2
Portugal	PRT	5.4
Slovak Republic	SVK	4.4
Slovenia	SVN	5.5
Spain	ESP	5.4
Sweden	SWE	7.1
Switzerland	CHE	7.4
Turkey	TUR	6.5
United Kingdom	GBR	6.4
United States	USA	..
OECD	OECD 27	6.1
Lithuania	LTU	6.0

Note: The OECD average is population-weighted and excludes Australia, Canada, Chile, Israel, Japan, Korea, Mexico and the United States.

Source: European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC), *http://appsso.eurostat. ec.europa.eu/nui/show.do?dataset=ilc_pw03&lang=en* and Statistics New Zealand, customised report and licensed by Statistics New Zealand for re-use under the Creative Commons Attribution 3.0 New Zealand licence (received on 20 April 2017).

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933600505*

Further reading:

OECD (2017), *Guidelines on Measuring Trust*, OECD Publishing, Paris, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264278219-en*.

Scrivens, K. and C. Smith (2013), "Four Interpretations of Social Capital: An Agenda for Measurement", *OECD Statistics Working Papers*, No. 2013/06, OECD Publishing, Paris, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/5jzbcx010wmt-en*.

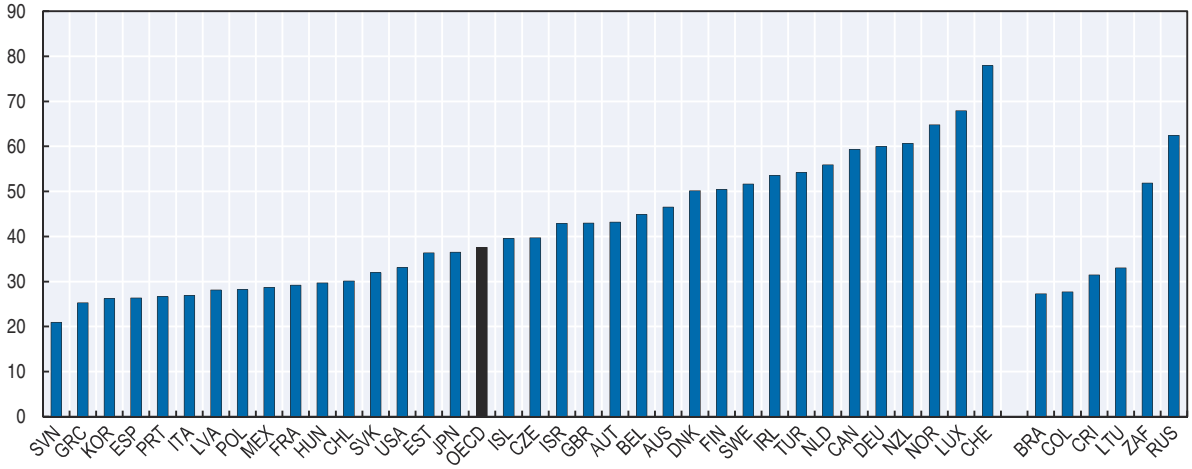
SOCIAL CAPITAL: Trust in the national government

Definition

This indicator is based on the survey question: "In this country, do you have confidence in each of the following, or not? … How about national government?". The data shown here reflect the percentage of the sample responding "yes" (the other response categories being "no", and "don't know"), and are averaged over a three-year period. According to the *OECD Guidelines on Measuring Trust*, measures of trust in public institutions should consider trust in the political system (which includes the government, political parties and the parliament), trust in the judicial system (which includes the police, military, and courts) and trust in non-political institutions (which includes the civil service). The ideal data set would cover each of these different institutional elements. However, from the data that exist currently, trust in the national government has been selected, as time series are available for all OECD countries. The source for these data is the Gallup World Poll, which samples around 1 000 people per country each year. The sample is *ex ante* designed to be nationally representative of the population aged 15 and over (including rural areas); sample data are weighted to the population using weights supplied by Gallup.

Figure A.76. **Trust in the national government**

Proportion of the population responding "yes" to a question about confidence in the national government, 2014-16 average

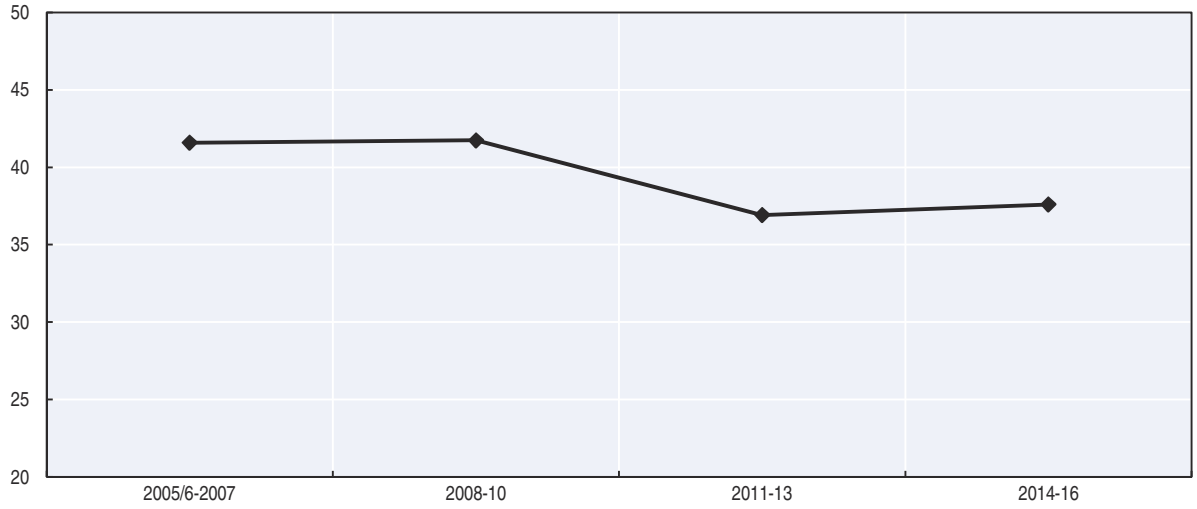


Note: The OECD average is population-weighted.
Source: OECD calculations based on Gallup World Poll, *www.gallup.com/services/170945/world-poll.aspx*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933598586

Figure A.77. **Trust in the national government, OECD average**

Proportion of the population responding "yes" to a question about confidence in the national government, OECD 33



Note: The OECD average is population-weighted and excludes Iceland and Luxembourg, due to an incomplete time series for these countries.

Source: OECD calculations based on Gallup World Poll, *www.gallup.com/services/170945/world-poll.aspx*.

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933598605*

Table A.47. **Trust in the national government**

Proportion of the population responding "yes" to a question about confidence in the national government

		2005/6-2007	2008-10	2011-13	2014-16		Latest available
Australia	AUS	52.9	62.7	46.9	46.5	AUS	46.5
Austria	AUT	49.7	41.0	40.0	43.2	AUT	43.2
Belgium	BEL	57.7	40.0	42.8	44.9	BEL	44.9
Canada	CAN	54.0	58.3	52.8	59.3	CAN	59.3
Chile	CHL	50.4	48.6	32.4	30.1	CHL	30.1
Czech Republic	CZE	27.6	33.3	20.6	39.7	CZE	39.7
Denmark	DNK	63.1	62.6	46.6	50.2	DNK	50.2
Estonia	EST	43.1	27.8	31.7	36.4	EST	36.4
Finland	FIN	75.8	59.3	52.8	50.4	FIN	50.4
France	FRA	34.3	44.3	40.4	29.2	FRA	29.2
Germany	DEU	33.6	45.4	50.0	60.0	DEU	60.0
Greece	GRC	43.4	27.6	14.8	25.3	GRC	25.3
Hungary	HUN	30.5	22.6	29.9	29.7	HUN	29.7
Iceland	ISL	..	23.8	35.7	39.5	ISL	39.5
Ireland	IRL	63.3	38.0	38.7	53.5	IRL	53.5
Israel	ISR	28.0	34.6	35.5	42.9	ISR	42.9
Italy	ITA	27.1	36.6	22.9	26.9	ITA	26.9
Japan	JPN	29.5	24.8	25.3	36.5	JPN	36.5
Korea	KOR	23.3	28.9	28.7	26.2	KOR	26.2
Latvia	LVA	28.6	14.5	17.7	28.1	LVA	28.1
Luxembourg	LUX	..	79.6	75.0	67.9	LUX	67.9
Mexico	MEX	42.2	41.1	38.0	28.7	MEX	28.7
Netherlands	NLD	54.5	62.7	57.4	55.9	NLD	55.9
New Zealand	NZL	60.6	55.2	59.8	60.7	NZL	60.7
Norway	NOR	68.3	54.1	66.3	64.8	NOR	64.8
Poland	POL	12.8	31.7	23.5	28.2	POL	28.2
Portugal	PRT	45.2	28.9	20.7	26.7	PRT	26.7
Slovak Republic	SVK	16.3	30.9	31.0	32.0	SVK	32.0
Slovenia	SVN	47.8	35.0	19.4	21.0	SVN	21.0
Spain	ESP	50.2	43.6	27.7	26.4	ESP	26.4
Sweden	SWE	50.1	57.0	61.5	51.6	SWE	51.6
Switzerland	CHE	63.2	57.8	77.0	77.9	CHE	77.9
Turkey	TUR	57.7	57.2	55.5	54.2	TUR	54.2
United Kingdom	GBR	42.9	40.4	42.3	42.9	GBR	42.9
United States	USA	47.6	43.4	34.0	33.1	USA	33.1
OECD	OECD 33	41.6	41.7	36.9	37.6	OECD	37.6
Brazil	BRA	36.2	48.3	43.1	27.3	BRA	27.3
Colombia	COL	49.7	54.2	36.5	27.7	COL	27.7
Costa Rica	CRI	41.2	47.2	28.8	31.5	CRI	31.5
Lithuania	LTU	23.7	13.4	23.7	33.0	LTU	33.0
Russian Federation	RUS	37.2	54.1	44.0	62.5	RUS	62.5
South Africa	ZAF	63.1	52.6	52.1	51.8	ZAF	51.8

Note: The OECD average is population-weighted; its times series excludes Iceland and Luxembourg for all other years, due to incomplete time series for these countries. For the latest available year, the OECD average considers all OECD countries.

Source: OECD calculations based on Gallup World Poll, *www.gallup.com/services/170945/world-poll.aspx*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933600524

Further reading:

OECD (2017), *Guidelines on Measuring Trust*, OECD Publishing, Paris, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264278219-en*.

González, S., L. Fleischer and M. Mira d'Ercole (2017), "Governance statistics in OECD countries and beyond: What exists, and what would be required to assess their quality?", *OECD Statistics Working Papers, 2017/03*, OECD Publishing, Paris, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/c0d45b5e-en*.

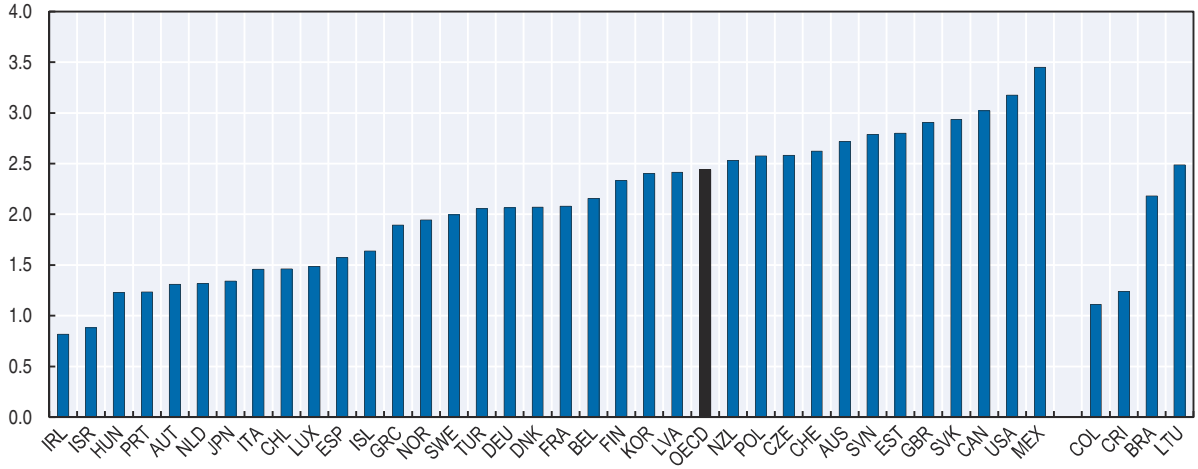
SOCIAL CAPITAL: Government stakeholder engagement

Definition

This indicator describes the extent to which formal stakeholder engagement is built in the development of primary laws and subordinate regulations; it is included as the existence of mechanisms for formal engagement and consultations with stakeholders represents a key lever through which governments can strengthen the legitimacy of public institutions. The indicator is calculated as the simple average of two composite indicators (covering respectively primary laws and subordinate regulations) that measure four aspects of stakeholder engagement , namely: i) *systematic adoption* of requirements to engage stakeholders; ii) *methodology* used for consultation; iii) *transparency* (which relates to principles of open government, such as whether government decisions are made publicly available); and iv) *oversight and quality control,* which refers to existence of oversight bodies and publicly available information on the results of stakeholder engagement. The maximum score for each of the four dimensions/categories is one and the maximum aggregate score for the composite indicator is four. The stakeholder engagement indicator is computed based on responses to the 2014 OECD's regulatory indicators survey, where respondents are government officials in OECD countries. The scores for primary laws refer exclusively to processes for developing primary laws initiated by the executive. There is no score for primary laws for the United States, where all primary laws are initiated by Congress, or for Brazil, Costa Rica and Colombia. In the majority of countries, most primary laws are initiated by the Executive, except for Mexico and Korea, where a higher share of primary laws are initiated by Parliament/Congress (respectively 90.6% and 84%).

Figure A.78. **Government stakeholder engagement when developing primary laws and subordinate regulations**

0-4 scale, 2014



Note: Data refer to 2016 for Latvia and Lithuania; and to 2015 for Brazil, Colombia and Costa Rica. The OECD average is population-weighted.
Source: OECD Indicators of Regulatory Policy and Governance (iREG), *www.oecd.org/gov/regulatory-policy/indicators-regulatory-policy-and-governance.htm*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933598624

Table A.48. **Government stakeholder engagement when developing primary laws and subordinate regulations**

Scale 0-4

		2014
Australia	AUS	2.7
Austria	AUT	1.3
Belgium	BEL	2.2
Canada	CAN	3.0
Chile	CHL	1.5
Czech Republic	CZE	2.6
Denmark	DNK	2.1
Estonia	EST	2.8
Finland	FIN	2.3
France	FRA	2.1
Germany	DEU	2.1
Greece	GRC	1.9
Hungary	HUN	1.2
Iceland	ISL	1.6
Ireland	IRL	0.8
Israel	ISR	0.9
Italy	ITA	1.5
Japan	JPN	1.3
Korea	KOR	2.4
Latvia	LVA	2.4
Luxembourg	LUX	1.5
Mexico	MEX	3.5
Netherlands	NLD	1.3
New Zealand	NZL	2.5
Norway	NOR	1.9
Poland	POL	2.6
Portugal	PRT	1.2
Slovak Republic	SVK	2.9
Slovenia	SVN	2.8
Spain	ESP	1.6
Sweden	SWE	2.0
Switzerland	CHE	2.6
Turkey	TUR	2.1
United Kingdom	GBR	2.9
United States	USA	3.2
OECD	OECD	2.4
Brazil	BRA	2.2
Colombia	COL	1.1
Costa Rica	CRI	1.2
Lithuania	LTU	2.5

Note: Data refer to 2016 for Latvia and Lithuania; and to 2015 for Brazil, Colombia and Costa Rica. The OECD average is population-weighted.

Source: OECD Indicators of Regulatory Policy and Governance (iREG), *www.oecd.org/gov/regulatory-policy/indicators-regulatory-policy-and-governance.htm*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933600543

Further reading:

OECD Indicators of Regulatory Policy and Governance (iREG), *www.oecd.org/gov/regulatory-policy/indicators-regulatory-policy-and-governance.htm*.

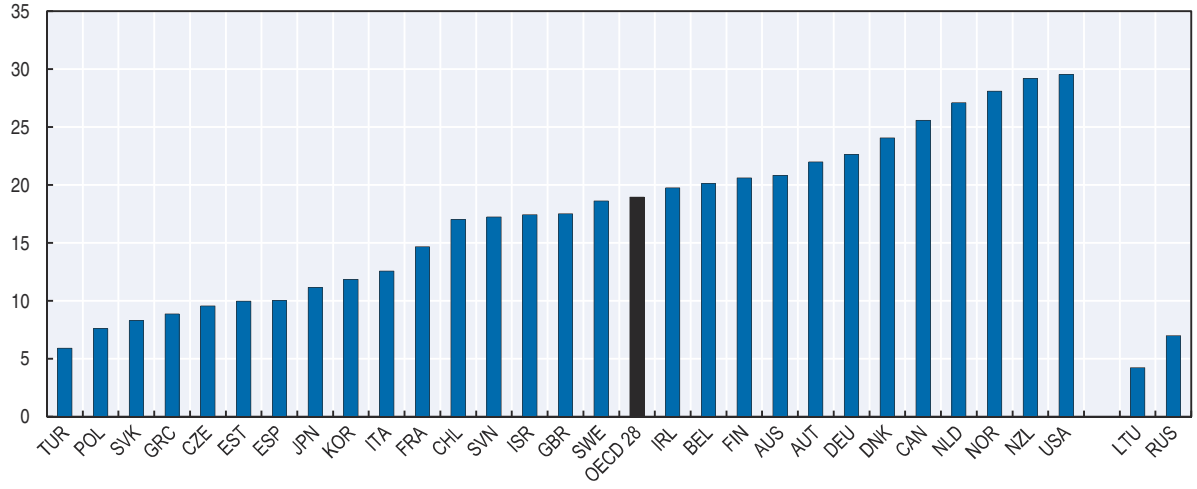
SOCIAL CAPITAL: Volunteering through organisations

Definition

Volunteering represents an investment in social capital. This indicator is based on the question: "In the last 12 months, how often, if at all, did you do voluntary work, including unpaid work for a charity, political party, trade union or other non-profit organisation?" with response categories "never", "less than once a month", "less than once a week but at least once a month", "at least once a week but not every day" and "every day". The data shown here reflect the percentage of adults aged 16-65 who declared having volunteered through an organisation at least once a month. Data are collected through the OECD Survey of Adult Skills, which is part of the Programme for the International Assessment of Adult Competencies (PIAAC) coordinated by the OECD.

Figure A.79. **Participation in formal volunteering**

Percentage of the working-age population who declared having volunteered through an organisation at least once a month over the preceding year, around 2012



Note: Data refer to 2011-12 for Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, Germany, Ireland, Italy, Japan, Korea, the Netherlands, Poland, the Russian Federation, the Slovak Republic, Spain, Sweden, the United Kingdom and the United States; to 2012 for France; and to 2014-15 for Chile, Greece, Israel, Lithuania, New Zealand, Slovenia and Turkey. Data for Belgium refer to Flanders; those for the United Kingdom refer to England and Northern Ireland; and those for the Russian Federation exclude Moscow municipal area. The OECD average is population-weighted and excludes Hungary, Iceland, Latvia, Luxembourg, Mexico, Portugal and Switzerland.

Source: OECD calculations based on data from OECD Survey of Adult Skills (PIAAC database), *www.oecd.org/site/piaac/*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933598643

Table A.49. **Participation in formal volunteering**

Percentage of the working-age population who declared having volunteered through an organisation at least once a month, over the preceding year, around 2012

		around 2012
Australia	AUS	20.8
Austria	AUT	22.0
Belgium	BEL	20.1
Canada	CAN	25.6
Chile	CHL	17.0
Czech Republic	CZE	9.6
Denmark	DNK	24.1
Estonia	EST	10.0
Finland	FIN	20.6
France	FRA	14.7
Germany	DEU	22.6
Greece	GRC	8.9
Hungary	HUN	..
Iceland	ISL	..
Ireland	IRL	19.7
Israel	ISR	17.4
Italy	ITA	12.6
Japan	JPN	11.1
Korea	KOR	11.8
Latvia	LVA	..
Luxembourg	LUX	..
Mexico	MEX	..
Netherlands	NLD	27.1
New Zealand	NZL	29.2
Norway	NOR	28.1
Poland	POL	7.6
Portugal	PRT	..
Slovak Republic	SVK	8.3
Slovenia	SVN	17.2
Spain	ESP	10.0
Sweden	SWE	18.6
Switzerland	CHE	..
Turkey	TUR	5.9
United Kingdom	GBR	17.5
United States	USA	29.5
OECD	OECD 28	18.9
Lithuania	LTU	4.2
Russian Federation	RUS	7.0

Note: Data refer to 2011-12 for Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, Germany, Ireland, Italy, Japan, Korea, the Netherlands, Poland, the Russian Federation, the Slovak Republic, Spain, Sweden, the United Kingdom and the United States; to 2012 for France; and to 2014-15 for Chile, Greece, Israel, Lithuania, New Zealand, Slovenia and Turkey. Data for Belgium refer to Flanders; those for the United Kingdom refer to England and Northern Ireland; and those for the Russian Federation exclude Moscow municipal area. The OECD average is population-weighted and excludes Hungary, Iceland, Latvia, Luxembourg, Mexico, Portugal and Switzerland.
Source: OECD calculations based on data from OECD Survey of Adult Skills (PIAAC database), *www.oecd.org/site/piaac/*.
StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933600562*

Further reading:

OECD (2016), *Skills Matter: Further Results from the Survey of Adult Skills, OECD Skills Studies,* OECD Publishing, Paris, *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264258051-en*.

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