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The Inconvenient Truth about Climate Statistics

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The year 2007 was a breakthrough in many ways regarding climate change. In terms of the science, the report released by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) indicated that "warming of the climate system is unequivocal" and that there is "very high confidence" that human activities have led to this warming. In terms of public awareness, awarding the 2007 Nobel Peace Prize to jointly to the IPCC and to former US vice-president Gore for his climate change film "The Inconvenient Truth" raised public consciousness of the issue of climate change - and what can be done to mitigate it. Finally, in terms of international climate change politics, a breakthrough was achieved at the climate change negotiations at the end of 2007, with all countries agreeing to a "Bali Action Plan".

This Plan recognises that "deep cuts" in global greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions will be needed. It also calls for enhanced national/international action on climate change mitigation by both developed and developing countries. This is because GHG emissions from industrialised countries account for a diminishing share of total GHG emissions: their share has dropped from 54% in 1990 to 43% in 2005 (IEA statistics 2007). Reducing or even eliminating GHG emissions in industrialised countries alone will therefore not suffice to stabilise GHG concentrations or global emissions: enhanced action is needed by all the major emitters. The post-2012 climate regime will thus need to be more ambitious than the Kyoto Protocol, which established quantified GHG targets for industrialised countries only (an overall target of approximately -5% compared to 1990 emissions), for the period 2008-2012.

2009 is also set to become an important year for climate change, as the post-2012 climate framework is due to be established by December. Key challenges to defining this framework are to agree what GHG mitigation actions need to be done as a global community, and which country might do what as part of this global effort. Robust, comparable climate change statistics are needed to put this process on a firm footing.

Historical greenhouse gas emission trends

Overall, global GHG emissions have been increasing over time. However, national trends in GHG emissions vary depending on which time period is chosen, which gases and sectors are included, and which indicator is used to assess change. For example, IEA data indicates that Finnish emissions of energy-related CO2 (the largest source of GHG in the majority of countries) rose 8.6% between 1990 and 2005 but that emissions of all 6 GHG dropped 2% over the same period. National data submitted by Finland to the UNFCCC (which has more complete accounting for land-use and forestry emissions or removals than the IEA dataset) shows a markedly different trend, with emissions dropping 23% between 1990-2005.

In this Issue

New Release!

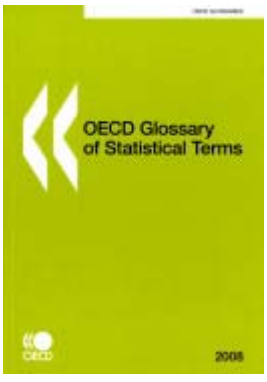
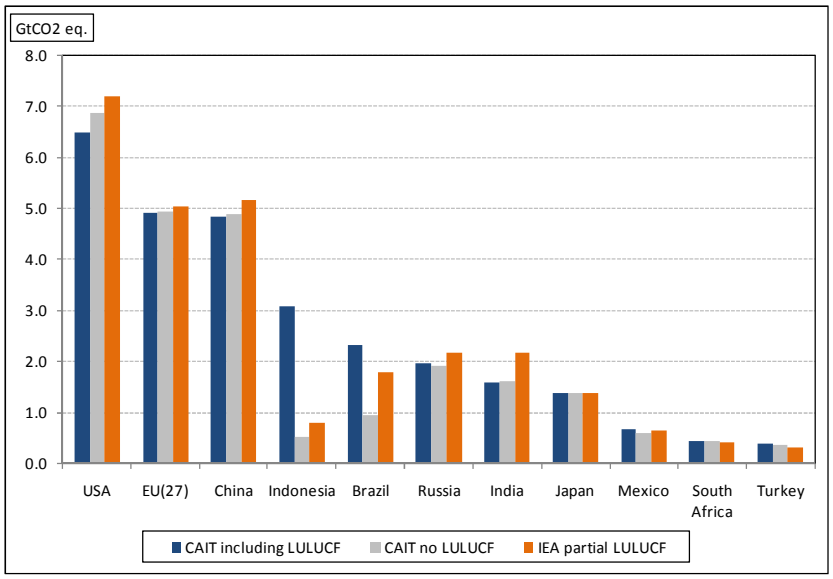


Figure 1: Variation in calculated GHG emissions in 2000 for selected countries and data sets



Sources: CAIT = Data set of the World Resources Institute. IEA = International Energy Agency.

In most countries, the majority of GHG emissions come from the energy, industry and transport sectors. However, in some countries, emissions from land use can account for a significant share – and sometimes even the majority – of GHG emissions (LULUCF – Land use and land use change and forestry). This is illustrated in Figure 1, which shows that in 2000 the majority of emissions in Indonesia and Brazil were from the land-use sector (e.g. deforestation) but that this source is relatively unimportant in many other countries. Figure 1 also illustrates the difference between different data sets: the World Resources Institute "CAIT" database includes emissions from land-use change and forestry – but only until 2000. Using this database indicates that emissions in Indonesia are higher than those in Russia or Japan. However, excluding such information (or only partially including it, as is the case for the IEA database) substantially changes the picture, and puts Indonesia's emissions behind those of Russia, India and Japan.

Data on GHG emissions for all sources and countries are not available on a regular basis as only industrialised countries are obliged to monitor and report annual national GHG emissions inventories. Thus, emissions data from developing countries is scarce, and the most recent comprehensive snapshot of global GHG emissions is from 2000.

Annual GHG emissions data for developing countries are generally available only from international data sources (such as the IEA), and for selected sectors. While it is relatively simple to calculate GHG emissions from certain sectors (e.g. the energy sector, using data on fossil fuel consumption) it is more complex and time-consuming to calculate data from other sectors (e.g. land-use change and forestry). Uncertainty levels associated with emission estimates from these sectors may also be higher. Obtaining a comprehensive picture of global GHG emissions and emission trends is therefore difficult, as consistent and comparable annual statistics are not available.

Comparing Figure 1 with the table below also shows the importance of the time period examined when trying to understand emission trends and their underlying factors. For example, in 2000, China's emissions (using IEA data) were 72% of that of the US. But recent growth in Chinese emissions has been so rapid that by 2005 they surpassed those of the US (Table 1, IEA data).

Table 1 also highlights the variation in different indicators observed across different countries. Thus, although absolute emissions in some developing countries are high – and growing, per capita emissions often remain low: on a per capita basis, Indian emissions are less than a tenth of those from the US, and Chinese emissions are just over half of those in Japan. Further, Russia and Mexico have a similar per capita income – but per capita emissions, and GHG intensity (GHG emissions per unit of GDP) in Russia are more than double those in Mexico. European and Brazilian per capita GHG emissions are of a similar magnitude – but Europeans have a much higher GDP per capita. There are a number of factors that contribute to these differences in GHG emissions amongst countries of relatively similar economic levels, such as the relative importance of GHG-intensive sectors (e.g. aluminium, steel, pulp and paper, chemicals, cement) in the economy, the fuel mix used within a country (e.g. coal, oil, gas, nuclear, renewable energy) personal transport use (e.g. dense urban areas with good public transport vs. more sprawling suburban living with greater dependence on individual car use), climate conditions and use of air conditioning or heating, etc.

Another key issue highlighted by Table 1 is the different rate of growth in GHG emissions in different countries. Thus, emissions in some countries are growing much faster than in others. While the share of industrialised countries' GHG emissions was 43% of world total in 2005, by 2030 the importance of industrialised countries' emissions will shrink

Table 1: Selected climate indicators for selected countries, 2005

	Total emissions (IEA 6 GHG, Gt CO_2eq)	Increase since 2000 (%)	GDP per capita (2000 US$ PPP)	Emissions per capita (tCO_2eq.)	GHG/GDP (kg CO_2eq. per 2000 US$ PPP)
Brazil	1.857	4.6	7,475	9.96	1.33
China	7.484	45.0	6,012	5.74	0.95
India	2.380	9.9	3,072	2.17	0.71
Indonesia	0.869	9.6	3,419	3.94	1.15
Japan	1.405	2.1	27,190	11.00	0.40
Mexico	0.682	6.8	9,332	6.47	0.69
Russia	2.206	2.5	9,648	15.42	1.60
South Africa	0.434	9.4	9,884	9.26	0.94
Turkey	0.315	7.2	7,881	4.38	0.56
United States	7.282	1.3	37,063	24.54	0.66
EU 27	5.171	2.7	23,605	10.51	0.45

Source: IEA Statistics, 2007

further. Indeed, the 2008 *OECD Environmental Outlook* projects that in 2030, emissions by China, India, Russia and Brazil will surpass those of all 30 OECD member countries combined.

In addition to historical statistics, emission projections are therefore also important, and can provide insights on the relative importance of different sources of GHG emissions that can change rapidly over the next decade and more, i.e. the period over which the future climate change regime is likely to apply. However, data availability for GHG projections is generally poorer and/or less comparable than that for historical data – projections are developed based on specific assumptions (e.g. regarding economic growth, energy efficiency improvements, oil prices) that may prove inaccurate, and often projections are available at the aggregated level of world regions rather than country-by-country.

The inconvenient truth: the statistics needed are not always available

Statistics play a very useful role in the climate policy debate. At the national level, indicators such as energy or GHG intensity of a country or sector can help to indicate where possible performance improvements could occur, and so can help to direct more efficient and effective national policies to reduce emissions.

Statistics are also key in the international discussion on which country should undertake what level of action or commitment once the Kyoto Protocol's commitment period of 2008-2012 has expired. The result of such a discussion will ultimately be determined by negotiation – which, in the UNFCCC context, are done by consensus. However, these discussions can be informed by relevant statistics and indicators.

Issues will inevitably be raised in the negotiations for a post-2012 climate regime about fairness, equity, and responsibility with respect to emissions reductions in different countries, and a number of countries are already trying to identify the mitigation potential at a given cost for different sectors by country. These issues will be raised not least because "common but differentiated responsibilities" is embedded in the principles of the UNFCCC. Some of the questions that may be asked by countries are whether future actions by countries should be based on their current capabilities? If so, how should this be defined? Or should future actions in GHG mitigation be based on countries' historical responsibilities for climate change? If so, how should such responsibility be assessed – and when should the "clock" start?

Further, should the groups of countries established during negotiation of the United Nations' Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC, negotiated in 1992) that divided the world into two groups of countries [these two groups are those industrialised countries listed in Annex I of the UNFCCC (i.e. OECD member countries in 1992, Russia and Central and Eastern European economies in transition), and non-Annex I (developing) countries. Annex I countries have specific responsibilities, for example emissions limitation or reduction commitments under the Kyoto Protocol] continue into the future, even though some "developing" countries are now wealthier and emit more GHG than some "industrialised" countries? Or should the different patterns of development and growth seen in different countries – both developed and developing – be taken into account when establishing a future climate framework? These are all key, and contentious, questions in the current climate negotiations.

There is no "right answer" or "magic indicator" that can be developed to compare different countries GHG mitigation potentials and efforts, or to assess what a "fair" contribution to future global efforts on GHG mitigation would be. Rather, if countries decide to use indicators for these purposes, a variety is likely to be needed – particularly as different indicators will give different results.

However, if countries are to monitor their progress towards a particular goal, they will need to know how to quantify such progress. Data constraints means that many of the

potentially useful indicators that could be used, both in order to assess what countries could do, and to assess countries' progress to any agreed goals, are not yet available. Gathering enough data to ensure comparable indicators across countries in order for them to provide an input to the climate negotiations should therefore be a high priority.

References

Climate Change 2007 Synthesis Report: Summary for Policymakers, http://www.ipcc.ch/pdf/assessment-report/ar4/syr/ar4_syr_spm.pdf
CO2 emissions from Fuel Combustion (2007 edition), IEA. This publication also provides data on emissions of other GHG.

Remittances sent by recent immigrants in Canada

By René Houle and Grant Schellenberg, Statistics Canada

Introduction

Remittances have long been part of the immigration process. But with today's global financial and telecommunications networks, the international transfer of funds now occurs at a pace and volume unimaginable by earlier generations. In this context, researchers, policy makers and others are working to better understand remittance flows, from the 'first mile' when remittance decisions are in the hands of senders to the 'last mile' when financial resources are in the hands of recipients.

The study that this article is based on offers a broad cross-national perspective of remittance senders, focusing on individuals who became landed immigrants in Canada in 2000 and 2001. Using a common set of concepts and methods, we considerable variation in the proportions of new immigrants from different source countries who send money home.

Data source

Data for this study came from the Longitudinal Survey of Immigrants to Canada (LSIC). The survey was conducted jointly by Statistics Canada and Citizenship and Immigration Canada. It followed for a four year period one group of immigrants – those aged 15 or older who landed in Canada from abroad between October 2000 and September 2001. Three LSIC questionnaires were fielded during the course of the survey. Around 12,000 immigrants were interviewed about six months after their arrival in Canada. Some 9,300 of the same immigrants were located and interviewed two years after arrival, and about 7,700 were subsequently located and interviewed a third time, four years after arrival. The approximately 7,700 LSIC respondents who were interviewed over all three waves represent about 157,600 new immigrants. Of these, 104,400 were admitted to Canada through the economic immigrant category, 42,600 were admitted through the family-class category, and 9,700 were admitted as refugees. Temporary residents in Canada were not included in survey.

During all three LSIC interviews, respondents were asked "*Since your last interview, have you sent money outside Canada to relatives or friends*?" During the second and third interviews, respondents who said 'yes' were subsequently asked "*How much money have you sent outside Canada to relatives or friends*?" The study focuses on responses provided during the second and third interviews, 24 and 48 months after landing. All amounts stated in this article are in Canadian Dollars (CAD) rounded to the closest $100.

Results

A significant minority of immigrants who arrived in Canada during 2000-2001 – roughly four out of ten – sent money to family or friends abroad at least once during their first four years in the country. Some 23% of immigrants sent remittances abroad within six to 24 months of arrival, while 29% did so 25 to 48 months after arrival. (These reference periods reflect the timing of the 2nd and 3rd LSIC interviews.) Among immigrants who remitted, the average amount sent during the first period was $2,500, while the average amount sent during the second period was $2,900.

The practice of sending remittances varied widely on a regional basis. During the period 25 to 48 months after arrival, over half of immigrants from Southeast Asia and the Caribbean and Guyana sent remittances home, compared with about 40% of immigrants from sub-Saharan Africa and Eastern Europe. About one-quarter of immigrants from South Asia and Central and South America sent remittances during this period, while about one-fifth of those from East Asia or West Asia, the Middle East and North Africa did so.

Average amounts sent also differed. Again during the 25 to 48 month period, immigrants from East Asia sent $3,900, whereas immigrants from the Caribbean and Guyana sent $1,600 (see Table 1). The incidence of remitting was highest among those from countries with lower GDP per capita (based on figures from the World Bank and Penn World Tables). Around 36% of immigrants from countries with per capita GDP of less than $4,000 sent money home, compared with 11% from countries with per capita GDP of $15,000 or more. Between these extremes the relationship between GDP per capita and the incidence of remitting was fairly flat, ranging from about 25% to 30%.

Variability in remittance behaviours is particularly striking across countries of birth. As shown in Chart 1, some 60% of immigrants from the Philippines and Haiti remitted two to four years after landing, while about 40% to 50% of

Table 1. Percentage of LSIC respondents who remitted and average amount remitted

	6 to 24 months after landing in Canada		25 to 48 months after landing in Canada	
	% who remitted	Average amount remitted*	% who remitted	Average amount remitted*
Total	23%	$2,500	29%	$2,900
Region of birth				
Southeast Asia	52	$2,000	56	$2,400
Caribbean & Guyana	47	$1,400	54	$1,600
Sub-Saharan Africa	37	$2,400	42	$2,500
East Europe	32	$1,800	41	$2,100
South Asia	23	$3,600	28	$3,700
Central & South America	23	$2,000	25	$2,000
East Asia	13	$2,900	20	$3,900
West Asia, Middle East & North Africa	13	$2,000	19	$2,500
North America, West Europe, Oceania	11	$3,200	11	$3,600
GDP/capita in country of birth				
Less than $2,000	31	$1,900	35	$2,200
$2,000 to $3,999	31	$2,700	37	$3,000
$4,000 to $5,999	20	$2,500	25	$3,300
$6,000 to $7,999	19	$1,600	31	$2,200
$8,000 to $14,999	26	$2,400	28	$1,900
$15,000 and over	8	$3,100	11	$3,900

*Remittance values reported two years and four years after arrival have not been adjusted for inflation.

Chart 1

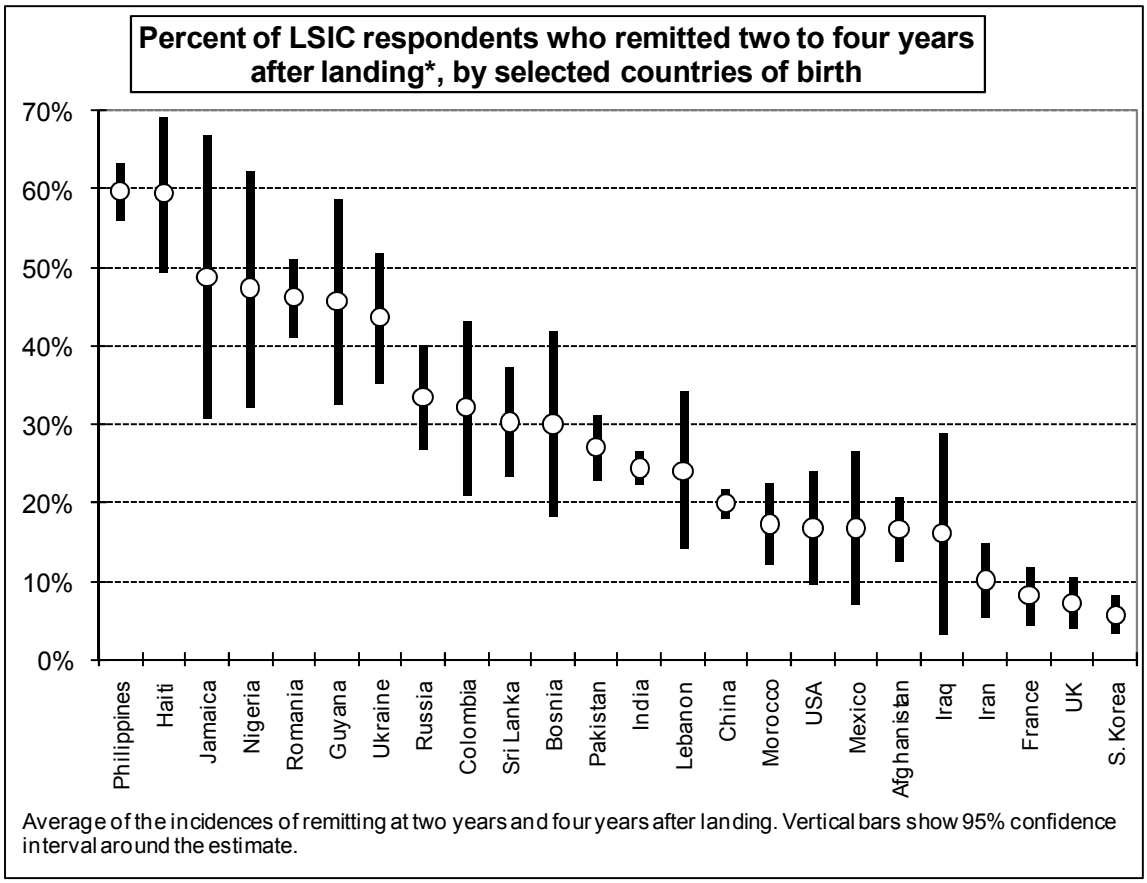


Table 2.
Characteristics of remittances 25 to 48 months after landing in Canada, by immigrant category

		Category of admission to Canada		
	Total	**Economic**	**Family-class**	**Refugees**
Percent who remitted	29%	29%	29%	31%
Average amount remitted	$2,900	$3,000	$2,700	$1,900
Of those remitting, % who sent…				
Less than $500	26	21	33	45
$500 to $999	21	22	19	17
$1,000 to $2,499	24	26	22	19
$2,500 to $4,999	18	19	16	14
$5,000 or more	11	12	10	5
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%

immigrants from Jamaica, Nigeria, Romania, Guyana and the Ukraine did so. Immigrants from France, the United Kingdom and South Korea — three industrialized countries — were at the bottom of the distribution.

In general, immigrants enter Canada under three main classes: the economic class, the family class and the refugee class. Economic-class immigrants made up two-thirds of those included in the LSIC. About 30% of immigrants in all three categories sent a remittance 25 to 48 months after arrival (Table 2). However, among those who did so, economic immigrants sent somewhat larger amounts than refugees (at $3,000 and $1,900, respectively).

Of the immigrants who sent a remittance during the 25 to 48 month period after arrival, just over one-quarter sent less than $500. This was the case for 45% of refugees, but only 21% of economic immigrants. At the high end of the distribution, 12% of the economic immigrants who remitted sent $5,000 or more, compared with 5% of refugees.

Descriptive statistics certainly testify to the magnitude of cross-national differences in remittance behaviours. These differences partly reflect the varying characteristics of immigrants from different countries. Multivariate models were run to assess the importance of individual characteristics, such as sex, age, education, family income, and household composition.

Financial capacity and obligations to family members were both strongly correlated with remittance behaviours. Considering financial capacity, the predicted probability of remitting rose steadily across family income groups, from 10% among immigrants in families with incomes under $10,000 to 36% among those with family incomes of $70,000 plus. Among immigrants who remitted, the amounts sent also increased steadily across income groups. Considering labour force attachment, immigrants who were employed full-time were significantly more likely to remit than those employed part-time or not at all. Employment status was not, however, correlated with amounts sent. Immigrants with savings outside of Canada were less likely to remit than those with no savings abroad.

Turning to family obligations, immigrants who had minor children residing with them in Canada were less likely to remit than those with no minor children residing with them. Specifically, the predicted probability of remitting was 18% for immigrants in households with three or more children compared with 27% for immigrants in households with no children. Conditional on remitting, immigrants residing with three or more children sent about 36% less than immigrants residing with no children. Considering family members abroad, immigrants who were sponsoring or intending to sponsor family members to move to Canada were more likely to remit, and to remit larger amounts, than immigrants with no sponsorship activities or intentions.

Given the considerable variation in the remittance behaviours of immigrants from different regions, one question that arises is whether the same set of factors are associated with remitting in each of them. To address this, separate analyses were run for immigrants in each of nine world regions and results were compared. This shows that financial capacity and family obligations are consistently correlated with remittance behaviours. For instance, the likelihood of remitting and the amount remitted were both positively associated with family income in seven of the nine regional models, while sponsorship of a family member was associated with remitting in five.

Greater regional variability was evident with other characteristics. For example, women from South Asia or from West Asia, the Middle East and North Africa were less likely to remit than their male counterparts from the same region. Such a pattern was not evident among immigrants from other regions.

Overall, evidence from the Longitudinal Survey of Immigrants to Canada (LSIC) indicates that, during their initial years in Canada, a significant minority of new immigrants send remittances to family or friends abroad. Inter-country and inter-regional differences are considerable. Within a single landing cohort in Canada, the incidence of remitting ranged from about 10% to 60% among immigrants from different countries and the average amounts ranged from about $1,000 to $6,000. Financial capacity and family characteristics were consistently associated with remittance sending among immigrants from most world regions. Even so, large inter-country and inter-regional differences in remittance behaviours remain when socioeconomic characteristics are taken into account. Other factors beyond the scope of this analysis, such as the characteristics and circumstances of family members 'back home' and institutional characteristics within bilateral remittance corridors are no doubt important factors.

The complete version of this study can be downloaded at:
http://www.statcan.ca/english/research/11F0019MIE/11F0019MIE2008312.htm

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Update of the 1993 System of National Accounts

by Charles Aspden, OECD

The update of the 1993 System of National Accounts (1993 SNA) that was begun five years ago is now in its final stages. A "pre-edited, white cover" version of Volume 1 of the 2008 SNA, which comprises the first 17 chapters of the complete manual, was released on the website of the United Nations Statistical Division (UNSD) on 8 August 2008 http://unstats.un.org/unsd/sna1993/draftingphase/WC-SNAvolume1.pdf. Volume 2 is expected to be approved by the United Nations Statistical Commission at its meeting in February 2009. A final version of the complete 2008 SNA is expected to be published in English later in 2009 – maybe in one or possibly two volumes. Publication of the 2008 SNA in the other official languages of the United Nations will follow.

The preparation of Volume 2 is in progress, and draft chapters are being posted on the UNSD's website for world-wide comment progressively:
http://unstats.un.org/unsd/sna1993/draftingphase/chapterissuematrix.asp

Major changes in the 2008 SNA

Changes to previous recommendations and entirely new recommendations in the 2008 SNA cut across almost all parts of the manual, but they are concentrated in parts that deal with non-financial assets, financial services and financial instruments, the rest of the world (balance of payments) and government and the public sector. In other words, the majority of the recommendations relate to units and transactions that represent characteristics of an increasingly globalised economy, innovation in financial instruments and stronger interest in the sources of wealth and debt of the private and the public sectors. Some of the recommendations affect major aggregates of the System, such as GDP and saving, as would be expected of an update intended to capture the evolving aspects of production, consumption and accumulation. Many other recommendations do not affect the major aggregates but reflect a range of other elements, including elaborations and clarifications of definitions and classifications.

Some of the major changes are:

- New recording of pension schemes
- Explicit recognition of capital services
- Recognition of the outcomes of Research and Experimental Development (R&D) as fixed assets
- Recognition of offensive weapons and their means of delivery as fixed assets
- Goods for processing to be recorded on a change of ownership basis

A brief description of these changes follows. Furthermore in depth details for the above issues can be found in the 13th edition of the *Statistics Brief "The revision of the 1993 System of National Accounts – what does it change?"* http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/32/39/39267818.pdf

New recording of pension schemes

As a result of increasing longevity and low birth rates many countries are experiencing increases in the average age of their population, with the expectation of further increases for many years to come. Among other things this has major implications for the provision of pensions for retirees in future years. The 1993 SNA only gives a partial picture of the pension obligations of businesses and government, and it has been widely accepted that a fully comprehensive picture is needed.

The 1993 SNA makes a distinction between employer pension schemes and social security even though both are part of social insurance schemes. Employer pension schemes are viewed primarily as being a means of redistributing income over time for a single individual. Depending on the conditions of employment, an employee builds up a claim on his employer during his period of employment for income to be paid after retirement. Social security

schemes, in contrast, primarily redistribute income among a set of individuals at a single point in time. It is this notion of redistribution between large sections of the population within the current period that leads to their funding on a pay-as-you-go-basis.

The 2008 SNA recommends that the full pension entitlements of households accruing in private employer pension schemes should be shown in the accounts. For defined contribution schemes this is determined by the actual contributions in a period, but for defined benefit schemes they will have to be determined actuarially. The same applies in principle for government employer pension schemes. But there is a problem here because for some countries it is difficult to distinguish between government employer pension schemes and social security schemes. To overcome this difficulty the 2008 SNA recommends that a standard table should be prepared in conjunction with the regular accounts showing the pension entitlements accruing to households for all pension schemes, regardless of the means of funding or the category of the unit bearing the responsibility to meet the obligations of the pension scheme. Countries will have flexibility about whether all of these schemes should be carried forward to the "core accounts" (that is, whether the full increase in the entitlements will be shown as income and saving of households), but in cases where particular schemes are not carried forward, a reasoned explanation for why this is not done will be required.

Cost of capital services

Capital services provided by non-financial assets to the production process are not explicitly mentioned in the 1993 SNA. The OECD manual *Measuring Capital* (currently under revision; a new edition is expected to be released shortly) defines capital services as inputs that flow to production from a capital asset.

Invitation to SDMX Global Conference 2009

OECD, Paris, 19-21 January 2009

The Statistical Data and Metadata Exchange (SDMX) initiative is sponsored by the BIS, ECB, Eurostat, IMF, OECD, UN and the World Bank. The goal of the initiative is to develop and promote technical standards, content-oriented guidelines and related implementation tools to foster greater efficiencies and reduce reporting burden associated with the exchange of statistical information. These standards are now well established and approved as an ISO technical specification.

This conference aims to gather a diversified audience of people interested in SDMX from different angles: Statisticians, technical experts and managers from national and international statistical organisations; users of statistics; redistributors of statistics; software vendors.

Main issues to be discussed in the conference are the SDMX standards and guidelines and their implementation around the world. In addition, workshops will be organised aiming at increasing the knowledge of SDMX at all levels.

For conference registration and presentation proposals, visit:
www.sdmx.org

When assets are used by their owner, the value of capital services appears implicitly as part of the gross operating surplus. It can be estimated as the sum of depreciation, expected real holding gains/losses and a return to capital, similar in value to the cost of interest on the remaining value of the asset.

The recommendation begins by noting that capital services for assets used in market production are implicitly included within the 1993 SNA but are not separately identified. Given the importance of identifying them for productivity measurement and other analysis, a new chapter (20) is included in the 2008 SNA explaining the role and appearance of capital services in the system and stressing the desirability of calculating capital services, capital stock and consumption of fixed capital in an integrated and consistent manner. No changes will be made to standard entries in the accounts to show capital services but an explanation will be provided of how supplementary items or tables could be derived and presented. Hence, there is no recommendation to include capital services in the core accounts, but some countries may choose to include them as "of which" items for gross operating surplus (or value added in volume terms).

Research and experimental development

The 1993 SNA does not recognize research and experimental development (R&D) as an asset, despite the fact that it is thought to be a major contributor to future economic growth. R&D undertaken on own account is not recorded as output and expenditures on R&D are recorded as consumption, with the result that GDP is understated. Stocks of R&D assets are not recorded in the balance sheet, and hence the net worth of a country is also understated. The 2008 SNA changes all this by recognizing R&D as a fixed asset and records expenditures on R&D as capital formation in just the same way as buildings, equipment and software, etc.

While there is strong support by countries for adopting these recommendations in the SNA, there is also considerable concern

about the difficulties of measurement. For this reason many countries are constructing R&D satellite accounts and will not incorporate their estimates into their core accounts until they are satisfied of their efficacy. Several OECD member countries have already compiled R&D satellite accounts and EU member states as a whole are expected to begin doing so on an annual basis in the next few years.

To help countries in this work and to foster international comparability, the OECD has set up a task force to develop a handbook that will provide guidance on the compilation of gross fixed capital formation and other capital measures [(capital stock, consumption of fixed capital (CFC) and the provision of capital services] of intellectual property products. Although the major reason for taking this initiative is to provide guidance for deriving measures of R&D, the handbook will also provide guidance on the three other types of intellectual property products: software and databases; entertainment, literary and artistic originals; and mineral exploration and evaluation.

Weapons systems

In the 1993 SNA, offensive weapons and their means of delivery are excluded from capital formation regardless of the length of their life. That treatment implies that military assets provide defence services only and entirely in the period of acquisition. Further, weapons whose expense has been expressed as intermediate consumption, according to this treatment, can be sold or exported in another accounting period, calling for counter-intuitive entries in the accounts for government.

The recommendation in the 2008 SNA is that all military expenditure that meets general SNA criteria for capital formation — that is, being used in production over a period in excess of one year — will be treated as capital formation. Weapons systems and military inventories will be distinguished within fixed capital formation and inventories, respectively.

Goods for processing

Both the 1993 SNA and the *Fifth Edition of the Balance of Payments Manual* (BPM5) treat goods that are sent abroad for processing and then returned to the country from where they were dispatched as undergoing an effective change of ownership. The goods are therefore recorded in exports when they leave the first country and again in imports when they return to it. The country undertaking the processing is shown as producing goods that are recorded at their full value, even though the processor never has to pay for the value of the goods on entry. With the increasing importance of offshore processing, such treatment is increasingly questionable.

The 2008 SNA recommends that imports and exports should be recorded on a strict change of ownership basis. That is, goods being processed in one country on behalf of another should not be part of imports and exports in the balance of payments and SNA. The consequences affect the recording of transactions within the national economy as well as international transactions. The decision to record on a pure change of ownership basis implies that no transactions will be recorded for intra-enterprise (inter-establishment) deliveries when goods are passed from one establishment to another for processing and then returned. The change has implications for the input-output tables, which on the proposed basis will reflect what each unit contributes to the production process rather than the physical technology, as previously was the case.

Introduction of the 2008 SNA by OECD countries

It is likely that nearly all OECD member countries will implement most of the changes in the 2008 SNA over a five or six year period, starting at the end of 2009. Australia is expected to be the first country to make the change in late 2009, and the US and Canada are expected to follow in 2012-13. The European Union is revising its own national accounts manual the *European System of Accounts 1995* (ESA95) to be consistent with the 2008 SNA. The aim is that the revised ESA should be formally adopted in 2011 and that EU member countries should implement in it their national accounts in 2014.

It is expected that as countries adopt the new SNA and ESA they will make estimates on both the old and new bases for an overlap period, but it is unlikely that countries will continue to compile "old" and "new" estimates in parallel for subsequent periods. This means that there will be a reduction in comparability of *levels* for a number of years, but it is unlikely that any of the changes will have much impact on GDP growth rates. Users will be informed about the progressive adoption of the 2008 SNA and revised ESA with appropriate metadata in OECD publications and data releases.

UNCTAD launches Global Databank on World Trade in Creative Products

Press release, Geneva, 15 August 2008

An UNCTAD database providing trade statistics on creative goods and services is available to the public as of today at the Internet site http://stats.unctad.org/creative The statistics cover about 235 products related to heritage, arts, media and functional creations.

The database's statistics are based on information reported by national sources to the United Nations. Currently the site shows global

Chart 1: Creative industries: exports of creative services, by economic group, 2005

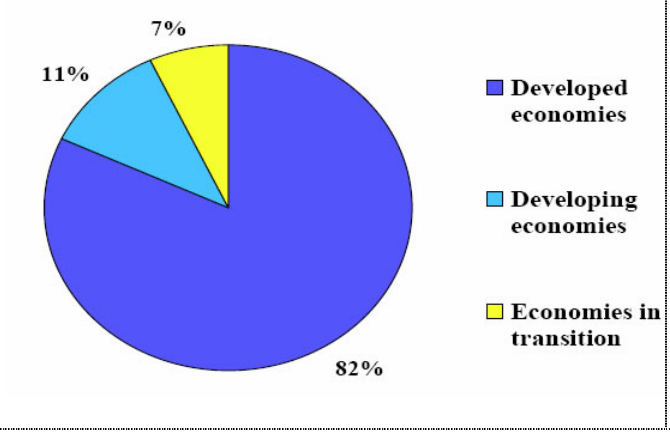
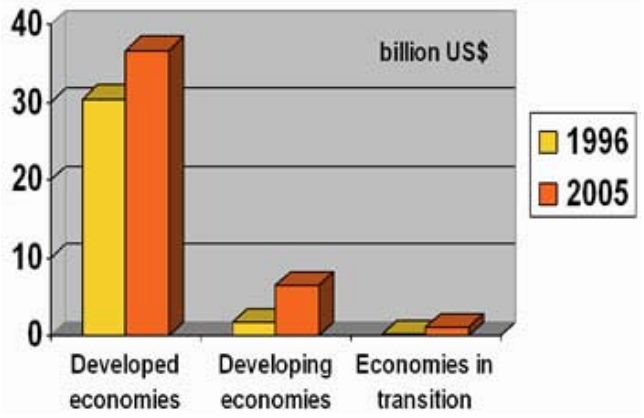


Chart 2: Publishing and printed media: exports by economic group



trade flows for 1996-2006. The statistics are available as tabular reports, country profiles, tables, and charts. Selected products are listed along with the major exporters/importers in major markets for such creative products as art and crafts, music CDs and video/films.

The site is a "work in progress" that aims at improving market transparency and supporting governments in policy making. There are gaps in data, as traditional statistical methods are being updated to reflect accurately the rapidly growing international exchange of digitalized products such as music, films, videos, advertising, news, and all creative content that travel via the Internet and mobile phones.

The Creative Economy Report 2008, released by UNCTAD/UNDP in April, showed that global trade in creative goods and services grew by 8.7% annually from 2000-2005, making it one of the most vibrant sectors in world commerce. The value of exports of creative goods reached US$ 335.5 billion in 2005, according to figures reported by over 130 countries, while exports of creative services totalled $89 billion.

Trade in creative products is dominated by developed countries -- they account for about 90% of exports of music and audiovisuals, for example -- although the world's poorer nations have achieved rapid growth in the creative sector recently. One noteworthy trend is that printed media are facing challenges due to the growing influence of electronic publishing. In Europe, which has the world's highest rate of broadband Internet penetration, circulation of printed newspapers is declining. By contrast, in developing countries where competition from electronic publishing is less of a factor because of expensive and limited Internet access, the circulation of printed newspapers seems less affected. Worldwide, the database shows, global sales of published material and printed media (all kinds of news circulated as newspapers, magazines, books etc) had a growth rate of 3% for 2000-2005, with exports amounting to US$ 15.3 billion in 2005.

Governments, enterprises, the creative community -- including independent artists/creators, academia, the media and international institutions -- are all potential end-users of this global database, which provides factual trade data by products, countries and regions.

The charts above are an illustration of what users can obtain from the database.

New OECD Dataset on Patents by Regions

The OECD has developed a new dataset on patents by regions (REGPAT) which is available for downloads - for research and analysis purposes.

The OECD REGPAT database (May 2008) presents patent data (Euro-PCT and EPO) that have been linked to regions according to the addresses of the applicants and inventors. The data have been "regionalised" at a very detailed level so that more than 5000 regions are covered across most OECD countries plus China and India. REGPAT allows patent data to be used in connection with other regional data such as GDP or labour force statistics, and other patent-based information such as citations, technical fields and patent holder's characteristics (industry, university, etc.), thus providing researchers with the means to develop a rich set of new indicators and undertake a broad range of analyses to address issues relating to the regional dimension of innovation.

The methodology used for the construction of REGPAT has just been published, to give users the opportunity to suggest modifications and thus contribute to improvements in the quality of REGPAT (OECD, *STI Working Paper 2008/2*: http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/22/19/40794372.pdf).

REGPAT database mainly derives from EPO Worldwide Statistical Patent Database (PATSTAT, October 2007 version) and will be regularly updated to match PATSTAT's updates.

The OECD database on Triadic Patent Families (May 2008) was updated using PATSTAT (October 2007). The OECD's "triadic" patent families consist of sets of patents filed at the European Patent Office (EPO), the Japanese Patent Office (JPO) and granted by the United States Patent and Trademark Office (USPTO) - that share one or more priorities (first filing of a patent world-wide). *For further information on Triadic patent families:* http://www.olis.oecd.org/olis/2004doc.nsf/LinkTo/NT00000EA2/$FILE/JT00160184.PDF

The OECD/EPO Citations database (2006) covers citations present in EPO patent applications as a result of European and/or International (PCT) search procedures. The data relate to patent applications up to mid-July 2005 based on EPO's REFI database at the time. Information has also been drawn from EPO's Epoline (via OECD's Patent database), the first (April 2006) edition of EPO's World-wide patent statistics database (PATSTAT) and WIPO data. This dataset was set up in close cooperation with Dietmar Harhoff and his team at University of Munich (LMU). Please note that an updated version of the citations database, based on latest version of PATSTAT, will be developed later this year. *For further information on the Citations database:* http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/18/17/35520805.pdf

In addition to the raw data, a set of predefined patent indicators were updated in April 2008 and are available on-line:

- **Patent counts by country and technology fields** (EPO, Euro-PCT, USPTO, Triadic Patent Families): http://stats.oecd.org/wbos/default.aspx?DatasetCode=PATS_IPC

Counting Children In!

Child Indicators: Research, Theory, Policy and Practice

2nd International Conference of International Society for Child Indicators (ISCI)

4-5 November 2009

and

The Social Justice and Social Change Research Centre University of Western Sydney (UWS) Symposium

"Children as Experts in Their Own Lives: Developing Child Inclusive Research Policy and Practice"

3 November 2009

Venue for both events is the Parramatta campus of the University of Western Sydney.

For further information, please mail the conference secretariat at ISCI_Conference_09@uws.edu.au

The call for abstracts for both the ISCI conference and the SJSC (UWS) symposium will open in November 2008 and close 30 April 2009. Abstracts should be up to 300 words in length to be submitted through the conference website. Details of the website and how to submit abstracts will be provided at a later date.

- **Patent counts by country and US patent classification** (USPTO and Triadic Patent Families): http://stats.oecd.org/wbos/default.aspx?DatasetCode=PATS_USPC

- **Indicators of international co-operation in patents** (EPO, Euro-PCT): http://stats.oecd.org/wbos/default.aspx?DatasetCode=PATS_COOP

- Available soon, a new set of indicators on patents by regions and selected technology fields (EPO, Euro-PCT)

For further information on OECD work undertaken in the field of patent statistics, please consult the following page: www.oecd.org/sti/ipr-statistics

Data with individual records can be downloaded from a secure - password protected – server. Should you require more detailed information on the data sets or should you wish to access one of these datasets, please send a request to Hélène Dernis (helene.dernis@oecd.org).

Release of OECD Health Data 2008

The 2008 edition of *OECD Health Data*, the most comprehensive source of comparable statistics on health and health systems across OECD countries, was released on 26 June 2008.

Covering the period 1960 to 2006, *OECD Health Data 2008* is an interactive database that can be used for comparative analyses on:

- Health status
- Health care resources and utilisation
- Long-term care resources and utilisation
- Health expenditure and financing
- Social protection (including public health coverage and private health insurance)
- Pharmaceutical market
- Non-medical determinants of health (including smoking and obesity)

The 2008 online edition of *OECD Health Data* includes, for the first time, the main tables derived from the joint OECD, Eurostat and WHO data collection of Health Accounts. These tables allow more detailed analyses of health expenditure by types of health services and goods, by health care providers and by

financing sources. The 2008 edition also provides new data on a number of important topics, including:

- the number of foreign-trained doctors in OECD countries;
- more detailed information on nurses, usually the most numerous health care providers in OECD countries;
- the incidence of a number of vaccine-preventable diseases (such as measles, pertussis and Hepatitis B), complementing existing series on childhood vaccination rates for these diseases which are part of the health care quality indicators (HCQI) data set; and
- the number of elderly people receiving long-term care at home or in institutions.

OECD Health Data 2008 is available online or on CD-ROM to subscribers of SourceOECD. Access is also provided to all national data correspondents, officials in national governments and other international organisations, upon request. The database can be queried in English, French, German, Italian and Spanish. Japanese and Russian are available exclusively in the online version (www.ecosante.org/oecd.htm).
Website:
www.oecd.org/health/healthdata
Contacts:
Gaetan.Lafortune@oecd.org and Marie-Clémence.Canaud@oecd.org

Working Long Hours in New Zealand: A profile of long hours workers using data from the 2006 New Zealand Census

by Dr. Lindy Fursman, Consultant to the New Zealand Department of Labour.

Introduction

Previous international and New Zealand research has highlighted the issue of long working hours (defined as 50 or more hours per week) , both in terms of the high proportions of New Zealanders who work long hours and the significant numbers of employees who indicate that they would prefer to work fewer hours (Department of Labour, 2006). International reports have found that New Zealand has one of the highest proportions of long hours workers in the OECD (Messenger, 2004).

Much of the previous analysis related to long working hours in New Zealand has focused on whether there have been changes in the proportion of employees working more than 50 hours per week. Complicating these analyses are differences in the way long hours data has been collected, and variations in the variables included when long hours "averages" are considered. Less work has been done to compile an overall profile of the workers who work long hours and within those analyses, seemingly disparate conclusions are commonly drawn.

This article attempts to compile a demographic profile of those who work the longest hours in New Zealand, using data from the 2006 Census.

The data

The New Zealand Census collects data on every resident who is in New Zealand on Census night, with the most recent census taking place on Tuesday 7 March 2006. The Census thus provides the most inclusive sample of data available in New Zealand.

While the Census is the best data set for examining a profile of long hours workers, it is not without problems. The most significant relates to the way data on working hours is collected. The Census asks respondents "How many hours, to the nearest hour, do you usually work each week?" requiring respondents to estimate their usual average hours. It is thus likely that some responses will vary from actual hours worked, as people round their working hours up or down, report hours that cluster around common standards (such as '40' or '50' hours a week), or forget to report increased or decreased hours that have occurred or will occur in the future (such as including overtime).

In addition, there is no guarantee that the census questionnaire is completed by the member of the household for whom the data is gathered, a problem with all self-completion surveys. If the form was completed by someone else in the household, the accuracy of reported working hours may be in question. Finally, despite escaping sampling errors and bias that may exist with other data sets, the Census still does not represent a fully complete picture of all New Zealanders (Statistics New Zealand estimates that the 2006 Census did not include about 2% of the population, or around 81,000 people. See http://www.stats.govt.nz/products-and-services/articles/2006-post-enumeration-survey/default.htm for more details). Furthermore, like any self- completion survey, there are respondents whose written answers are illegible, or who perhaps do not fully understand the question being asked and thus provide an answer "outside the possible".

While these issues need to be kept in mind when analysing the data, the Census still provides the most complete picture of working hours amongst New Zealand workers.

This analysis is based on the data of 1,832,490 people who reported working at least one hour a week. As such, the data that follows does not include those who are not in paid work. When couples are described, calculations are based on couples where both are in paid work for at least one hour each week.

The 2006 Census counted the total New Zealand workforce as 1,985,778 workers. However, only 1,832,490 people provided

information on working hours (the remaining people had their hours coded as "Response unidentifiable" or "Not stated"), and it is these workers to whom this analysis has been confined.

Long hours work

A total of 415,641 people reported working 50 or more hours each week, with this representing 23% of the workforce and 29% of full-time workers (Statistics New Zealand defines full-time work as 30 or more hours each week, and it is this figure that is used in this paper for calculations based on all full-time workers). Of men, 32% worked 50 or more hours a week and just over 12% of women worked these hours. More than a third (36%) of men working full-time worked 50 or more hours, while 19% of women working full-time worked long hours.

Three-quarters (74%) of those working 50 or more hours were men, as were three-quarters (74%) of those working 60 or more hours a week. 16% of male full-time workers worked 60 or more hours each week, as did 8% of female full-time workers.

Long hours and education

The data showed that workers with the highest qualifications were significantly more likely to work long hours. However, as relatively few employees hold these qualifications, they represent only a small number of long hours workers, with the largest group of long hours workers comprising those who had no qualifications.

Long hours and income

The proportion of workers working long hours increased as income increased. For example, of those who had income in the $25,001–$30,000 bracket, less than 20% worked more than 50 hours, while more than half of those who had income over $100,000 worked these hours. Those who earned no income or carried a loss were also likely to work long hours, perhaps representing those who run their own businesses.

However, for those working 60 or more hours per week, increases in working hours were associated with decreases in income. As such, while 47% of workers working 50–54 hours each week had annual incomes over $50,000, only 37% of workers working 75–79 hours each week and 31% of workers working 85 or more hours each week had incomes over this amount. A full 54% of those who report working the longest hours (85 or more each week) had incomes of $40,000 or less each year, and 65% had incomes of $50,000 or less each year (note that percentages do not always add to 100 due to "Not stated" responses and rounding).

When all workers with long hours were considered, a small majority of those working long hours were lower income. Slightly more than half (55%) of those working 50 or more hours a week had incomes below $50,000 while the remaining 45% had incomes greater than this amount. Only 12% of those working long hours had incomes above $100,000 each year, while 38% had incomes of $40,000 or less, and 22% had incomes of $30,000 or less.

While there were greater numbers of low-income long hours workers, those who worked long hours were more likely to earn higher incomes. Those working long hours are disproportionately higher-income: 24% of those working 50 or more hours each week had annual incomes above $70,000 while only 11% of the total workforce reported having this level of income.
Similarly, 39% of those working long hours had incomes of $40,000 or less, compared with 60% of the total workforce.

Long hours, occupation and industry

In order to explore long hours across occupations, working hours were compared using an ANZSCO classification that divides occupations into 43 categories. Analysis showed that there were clusters of long hours workers in occupations classified as "Farmers

and Farm Managers", "Chief Executives, General Managers and Legislators", "Road and Rail Drivers", "Hospitality, Retail and Service Managers", "Specialist Managers" and "Education Professionals". These clusters contained both the highest proportions and the highest absolute numbers of long hours workers. For example, 56% of "Farmers and Farm Managers" and 49% of "Chief Executives, General Managers and Legislators" reported working 50 or more hours each week, with this translating to 33,474 and 32,118 workers respectively.

Differences in the rankings of the proportions of long hours workers and the absolute number of long hours workers were evident in a number of occupations. For example, three of the occupations with the highest absolute number of long hours workers did not appear in the ten occupations with the highest proportion of long hours workers. More than 15,000 "Business, Human Resource and Marketing Professionals" reported working 50 or more hours a week, making it the seventh largest occupational group of long hours workers; however, as this represents less than 20% of the total workforce in this occupation, it is ranked in the middle of the occupational ranking.

Analysis was also undertaken to assess whether occupations were under- or over-represented in long hours workers, and again the key occupations appeared. Of those working 50 or more hours a week, 11.15% were "Specialist Managers" (who made up only 7.63% of the total workforce), 8.28% were "Farmers or Farm Managers" (but farmers made up only 3.31% of the total workforce), 7.94% were "Chief Executives, General Managers or Legislators" (who made up only 3.67% of the total workforce), and 4.94% were "Road or Rail Drivers" (who made up only 2.3% of the total workforce). As such, these occupations contained greater numbers of long hours workers relative to the total workforce.

Not surprisingly, similar patterns were also evident with regard to industry. Both high numbers and high proportions of long hours workers were evident in the agriculture and road transport industries. These two industries had disproportionate numbers of long hours workers: workers in agriculture made up 11% of those working long hours, but only 6% of all workers, while workers in road transport were 4% of long hours workers, but only 2% of all workers. By contrast, only 22% of those working in the "professional, scientific and technical services (except computer systems design and related services)" reported working long hours, but this represented the second largest group of long hours workers, with 27,072 people reporting working long hours in this industry.

Long hours and family types – dual earner couples

An analysis of the household composition of long hours workers showed that workers in couple households were the most likely to work long hours, followed by those in one-person households and couples with children. Differences between the groups were very small. Those with younger children were slightly over-represented in long hours workers, as were workers with three or four children.

In order to look at parent's combined working hours, working hours were aggregated for opposite sex couples with at least one dependent child where both partners worked and where both partners lived in the same household, resulting in a sample of 337,203 couples. The analysis showed that 29% of couples with dependent children worked a combined total of 80 or more hours a week, while 8% of couples worked a combined total of 100 or more hours a week. Of the couples who worked 100 or more hours between them, there were 12,963 couples with dependent children where both partners worked 50 or more hours each.

Dual earner couples with one child were more likely to work 80 or more combined hours than those with more children, and were also

more likely to work a combined 100 or more hours each week. A third of couples with one child worked 80 or more hours a week, while 9% worked 100 or more hours. These proportions dropped as the number of dependent children rose, with 20% of dual earner couples with four or more children working a combined total of 80 or more hours a week, and 5% of this group working 100 or more hours a week.

Conclusions

This analysis showed that long hours workers in New Zealand were clustered in particular occupational and industry groups, and that while higher skilled and higher paid workers were more likely to work long hours, the largest groups of long hours workers were those on low incomes and with few educational qualifications. The analysis also showed that a significant number of families with dependent children worked long hours.

Transforming Official Statistics to Serve Society

This year's annual conference, November 12th, is without doubt the most important User's conference to date. It marks the moment when the prospect of a statistical service that meets the needs not just of the government, but also of the all the users has been recognised.

Full programme and booking details:
www.rss.org.uk/sufconference

Is Life Getting Better?

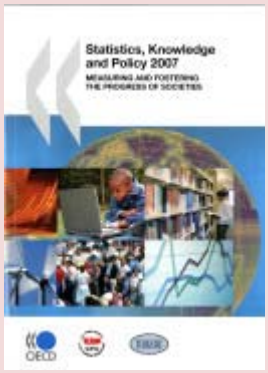
Following on the adoption of the "Istanbul Declaration" at the end of the OECD World Forum on "Measuring and Fostering the progress of Societies", in July the OECD Council has officially established the *Global Project on Measuring the Progress of Societies*. Hosted by the OECD, the aim of the Project is to foster the development of sets of key economic, social and environmental indicators to provide a comprehensive picture of how the well-being of a society is evolving and seeks to encourage each society to consider in an informed way the crucial question: is life getting better?

The Global Project is an international network of organizations, from all sectors of society, who are interested in a better understanding of societal progress. A large amount of work is being carried out on this topic around the world and the Global Project provides a forum for exchange, advice and to foster best practices.

The Project has three main goals:

- **What to Measure?** In order to measure progress we must know what it looks like and so we are encouraging debate about what progress means in different societies. The Project is developing methods and guidelines to carry out such a debate in an effective way.
- **How to Measure Progress?** The Project is developing best practices in how to measure progress and its component parts, some of which are not yet measured well using existing statistical indicators.
- **Ensuring that those Measures are Used.** New ICT tools offer huge potential to turn information into knowledge among a much broader swathe of citizens than those who currently access such information. The Project is developing new tools for public use.

For more information visit www.oecd.org/progress



Just released!

NEWS IN BRIEF

New database for OECD report on *Environmental Performance of Agriculture in OECD countries since 1990*

This report (published June 2008) provides comparative analysis and data for OECD countries up to 2004 across a range of environmental issues, including: nutrients, pesticides, energy, soil, water, air, biodiversity and farm management.

Information on the report, supporting documents and access to the database are available online at: www.oecd.org/tad/env/indicators

ISLP (International Statistical Literacy Project) Newsletter

The International Statistical Literacy Project is under the auspices of the International Association for Statistical Education (IASE), a section of the International Statistical Institute (ISI). It is overseen jointly by the Executive Committee of the IASE and the ISLP Advisory Committee. The ISLP's objective is to contribute to statistical literacy across the world, among young and adults in all walks of life. To this end, it provides an online repository of international resources and news in Statistical Literacy, international activities to promote these resources and to increase awareness and promote the individuals contributing to statistical literacy, all work is undertaken voluntarily.

The August issue of the ISLP Newsletter features a new "Statistics in the News" resource and more interesting news and can be viewed at:
http://www.stat.auckland.ac.nz/~iase/islp/newsletter

Video of the Seminar on Innovative Approaches to Turning Statistics into Knowledge now available online

Hosted by Statistics Sweden and jointly arranged by Statistics Sweden and the OECD, this seminar took place on 26-27 May 2008 in Stockholm.

It was held in the context of the OECD Global Project on "Measuring the Progress of Societies" and contributed to one of the goals quoted in the Istanbul Declaration: "produce a broader, shared, public understanding of changing conditions, while highlighting areas of significant change or inadequate knowledge**".**

For further details including access to the video and presentations:
www.oecd.org/oecdworldforum/statknowledge

UNECE database of country overview, economic, gender and transport statistics

The United Nations Economic Commission for Europe invites you to visit its database containing internationally comparable data on topics such as national accounts, labour force, road traffic, education, health and crime. Regions covered include those for which data can be hard to find, such as Central Asia and South-Eastern Europe. Data can be downloaded for free in a variety of formats. Access: www.unece.org/stats/data

RECENT PUBLICATIONS

All OECD publications can be ordered on line at: www.oecd.org/bookshop

▲OECD Glossary of Statistical Terms

This Glossary contains a comprehensive set of over 6 700 definitions of key terminology, concepts and commonly used acronyms derived from existing international statistical guidelines and recommendations. In the main, the definitions are quoted word for word from these sources and a detailed reference is provided to enable the user to refer to the complete source document to obtain further information where needed.

▲Insurance Statistics Yearbook, 1997-2006 (2008 edition)

This annual publication provides major official insurance statistics for all OECD countries including data on premiums collected, claims, and commissions by type of insurance; investments by type of investment; and numbers of companies and employees. Data for Singapore, which has an observer status to the OECD Insurance and Private Pensions Committee, are included in the online and CD-ROM editions. The data, which are standardised as far as possible, are broken down under numerous sub-headings, and a series of indicators makes the characteristics of the national markets more readily comprehensible.

▲Handbook on Constructing Composite Indicators: Methodology and User Guide

A guide for constructing and using composite indicators for policy makers, academics, the media and other interested parties. While there are several types of composite indicators, this Handbook is concerned with those which compare and rank country performance in areas such as industrial competitiveness, sustainable development, globalization and innovation. It aims to contribute to a better understanding of the complexity of composite indicators and to an improvement of the techniques currently used to build them. In particular, it contains a set of technical guidelines that can help

constructors of composite indicators to improve the quality of their outputs. Prepared jointly by the OECD (the Statistics Directorate and the Directorate for Science, Technology and Industry) and the Applied Statistics and Econometrics Unit of the Joint Research Centre (JRC) of the European Commission in Ispra, Italy.

▲Energy Statistics of Non-OECD Countries: 2005/2006 (2008 edition)

This volume contains data for 2005 and 2006 on energy supply and consumption in original units for coal, oil, gas, electricity, heat, renewables and waste for over 100 non-OECD countries. Historical tables summarise data on production, trade and final consumption. The book includes definitions of products and flows and explanatory notes on the individual country data. In the 2008 edition of Energy Balances of Non-OECD Countries, the sister volume of this publication, the data are presented as comprehensive energy balances expressed in tonnes of oil equivalent.

OUT SOON

▲Central Government Debt, Statistical Yearbook 1998-2007 (2008 edition)

This volume provides quantitative information on central government debt instruments for the 30 OECD member countries to meet the analytical requirements of users such as policy makers, debt management experts and market analysts. Statistics are presented according to a comprehensive standard framework to allow cross-country comparison. Country notes provide information on debt issuance in each country as well as on the institutional and regulatory framework governing debt management policy and selling techniques.

▲Revenue Statistics 1965-2007 (2008 edition) Special feature: Taxing Power of Sub-central Governments

Data on government sector receipts, and on taxes in particular, are basic inputs to most structural economic descriptions and economic analyses and are increasingly used in international comparisons. This annual publication presents a unique set of detailed and internationally comparable tax data in a common format for all OECD countries from 1965 onwards. It also gives a conceptual framework to define which government receipts should be regarded as taxes and to classify different types of taxes. This book includes StatLinks, URLs linking statistical tables via the internet to Excel® spreadsheets showing the underlying data.

▲Understanding Economic Statistics: An OECD perspective

The media publish economic data on a daily basis. Governments make decisions, affecting millions (and even billions) of people, based on the economic statistics available to them. In countless different ways, economic statistics are a fundamental part of modern life, shaping the way we interpret and react to the world around us. But how are these statistics produced? Who decides which statistics are useful and which are not? And how can we be sure of the quality of the statistics we read? Drawing on OECD statistics in particular, 'Understanding Economic Statistics: an OECD perspective' shows readers how to use statistics to understand the world economy. It gives an overview of the history, key concepts and the main providers of economic statistics. A detailed chapter provides a comprehensive picture of the main statistical activities of the OECD. Finally, the book explores the crucial issue of quality assurance and the implications for public trust. This book is an essential reference for anybody interested in better understanding the important role that economic statistics play in our lives.

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Readers are invited to send their articles or comments to the above email address

Deadline for articles for the next issue:
7 November 2008

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Forthcoming OECD Meetings

N.B. Unless otherwise indicated attendance at OECD meetings and Working Parties is by invitation only

2008	
6-8 October	Working Group on International Investment Statistics (WGIIS), Investment Committee, Directorate for Financial and Enterprise Affairs (DAF), Paris, France
7 October	Workshop on Expenditure by Age, Gender and Disease under the System of Health Accounts, Health Committee, Directorate for Employment, Labour and Social Affairs (ELS), Paris, France
8-9 October	10th Meeting of Health Account Experts, Health Committee, Directorate for Employment, Labour and Social Affairs (ELS), Paris, France
13-16 October	Working Party on National Accounts (WPNA) and Working Party on Financial Statistics (WPFS), Directorate for Statistics (STD), Paris, France
20-21 October	Working Party on Indicators of Educational Systems (INES), Directorate for Education (EDU), Paris, France
23-24 October	Experts' Meeting on Health Care Quality Indicators, Health Committee, Directorate for Employment, Labour and Social Affairs (ELS), Paris, France
27-29 October	34th Session of the Working Party on SMEs and Entrepreneurship (WPSMEE) and Special Session on SME and Entrepreneurship and Statistics (28/10/08), Directorate for Science, Technology and Industry (STI), Paris, France
27-28 October	Working Party on Short-Term Economic Prospects (STEP), Economics Department (ECO), Paris, France
13-14 November	7th Meeting of the International Safety Data and Analysis Group (IRTAD), Joint OECD/ITF Transport Research Committee, London, United Kingdom
17-20 November	Working Party no. 2 on Tax Policy Analysis and Tax Statistics, Centre for Tax Policy and Administration (CTP), Paris, France
28 November	Task Force on Pensions Statistics, Insurance and Private Pensions Committee, Directorate for Financial and Enterprise Affairs (DAF), Paris, France

Other Statistics Meetings

9-10 October	Workshop on Gender Statistics, Geneva Switzerland. For more information, see http://www.unece.org/stats/documents/2008.10.gender2.htm
13 October	2008 Annual Meetings of the International Monetary Fund and the World Bank, Washington DC, United States. For more information, see http://www.imf.org/external/am/2008/index.htm
21-23 October	UNECE-UNODC Meeting on Crime Statistics, Vienna, Austria. For more information, see http://www.unece.org/stats/documents/2008.10.crime.htm
28-30 October	Inter-Agency and Expert Group Meeting on MDG Indicators, Geneva, Switzerland. For more information, see http://www.unece.org/stats/documents/2008.10.mdg.htm