States of Jersey Statistics Unit

Jersey's
Better Life Index
2013
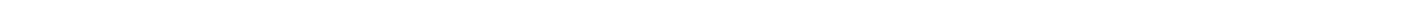
Overview

Traditionally, a nation's "well-being" has been measured through its Gross Domestic Product (GDP). However, in recent years there has been a move away from such a purely economic approach to establishing "how a society is doing". A drive to create a broader headline measure of "well-being" which encompasses social, environmental and economic factors has developed. Interest was initiated by the Istanbul Declaration of 2007, which proposed the development of alternative ways of measuring "well-being" and societal progress. Such an approach is now a common international objective; the European Commission, the OECD and the UK Office for National Statistics have each launched projects to examine this issue.

Understanding the economic performance of where we live remains important. Nevertheless, macro-economic measures such as GDP may not reflect what ordinary people think about the state of their own lives and what is important to them. Our health, the safety of our streets and how much time we have available to spend with our family and friends are some of the dimensions which can affect our overall state of "well-being".

Published for the first time in 2013, 'Jersey's Better Life Index' aims to provide a measure of the Island's "well-being", both from an overall perspective and also at a more detailed level.

Furthermore, findings presented in this report facilitate comparison of Jersey's "well-being" with that of other jurisdictions.

A fundamental purpose of this report is to strengthen the evidence base for policy making and to improve understanding of the factors which influence societal progress in the Island.

The headline Better Life Index, together with a set of subsidiary indicators, can be used to monitor performance against the strategic objectives set by the States of Jersey.

Contents

Methodology

Following the methodology developed by the OECD, this report presents data on 11 topics ("dimensions"), grouped together under two domains: **M**aterial Living conditions and **Q**uality of Life (see below).

By using the OECD methodology it is possible to compare Jersey's performance under each dimension with that of OECD countries (see Appendix A for a list of OECD countries). It is also possible to construct an overall Better Life Index for Jersey which can be compared with that of other jurisdictions.

| **M**aterial Living Conditions	**Q**uality of Life
Income	Health Status
Jobs and Earnings	Work and Life Balance
Housing	Education
	Social Connections
	Civic Engagement
	Environmental Quality
	Personal Security
	Subjective Well-being
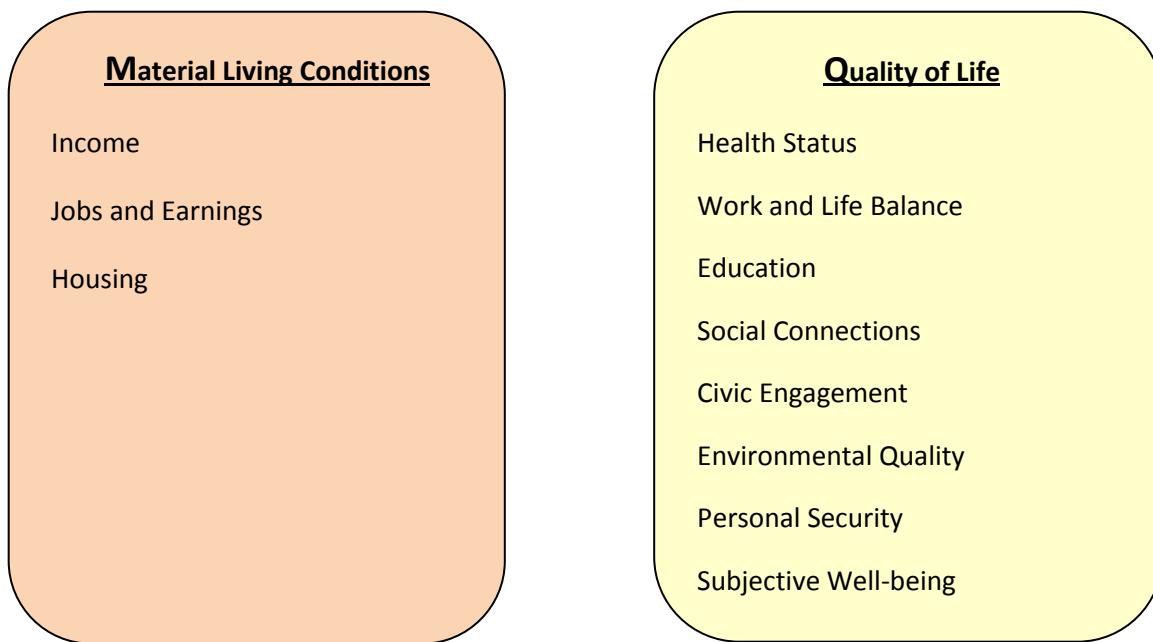
Under each of the 11 dimensions there is at least one underlying indicator, designated as being either primary or secondary (see contents page for a full list of indicators).

To determine the overall headline measure of well-being (the Better Life Index), normalised scores are calculated for each primary indicator which are then combined to produce the composite index (see Note 1).

The Better Life Index

Jersey's overall Better Life Index of 7.5 (out of 10) ranks Jersey behind 14 of the 36 OECD countries (see Figure 1). In terms of overall well-being, this score places Jersey slightly below Switzerland and Belgium but above our neighbours, the United Kingdom (see Note 2), France and the Republic of Ireland.

Figure 1: Better Life Index for Jersey and OECD countries; *0 (low) to 10 (high)*
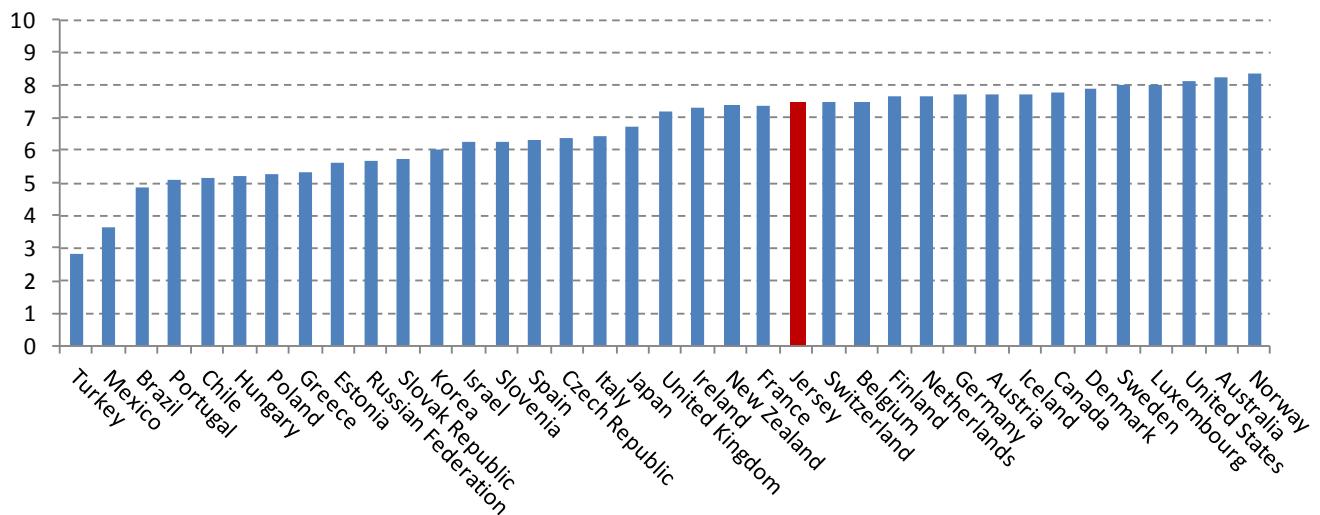
Nordic countries rated highly in terms of overall well-being, with Denmark, Sweden and Norway all ranking in the top six OECD countries; Norway had the highest overall score. In contrast, the lowest scores on overall well-being were recorded by the Latin-American countries of Mexico, Brazil and Chile, and in Europe by Turkey, Portugal, Hungary, Poland and Greece.

Scores and rankings for Jersey (relative to all 36 OECD countries) for each of the 11 dimensions included in the 'Better Life Index' are shown in Figure 2 and Appendix B. Each score is on a scale of between 0 and 10, where 0 signifies the lowest possible score and 10 the highest. Jersey ranks relatively highly in several dimensions, including social connections, personal security and jobs and earnings, but ranks less well in others, including education and environmental quality, and ranks particularly poorly (lower than all OECD countries) in civic engagement (voter turnout).

Figure 2: Relative scores (out of 10) and *rankings* for Jersey in the dimensions of the Better Life Index
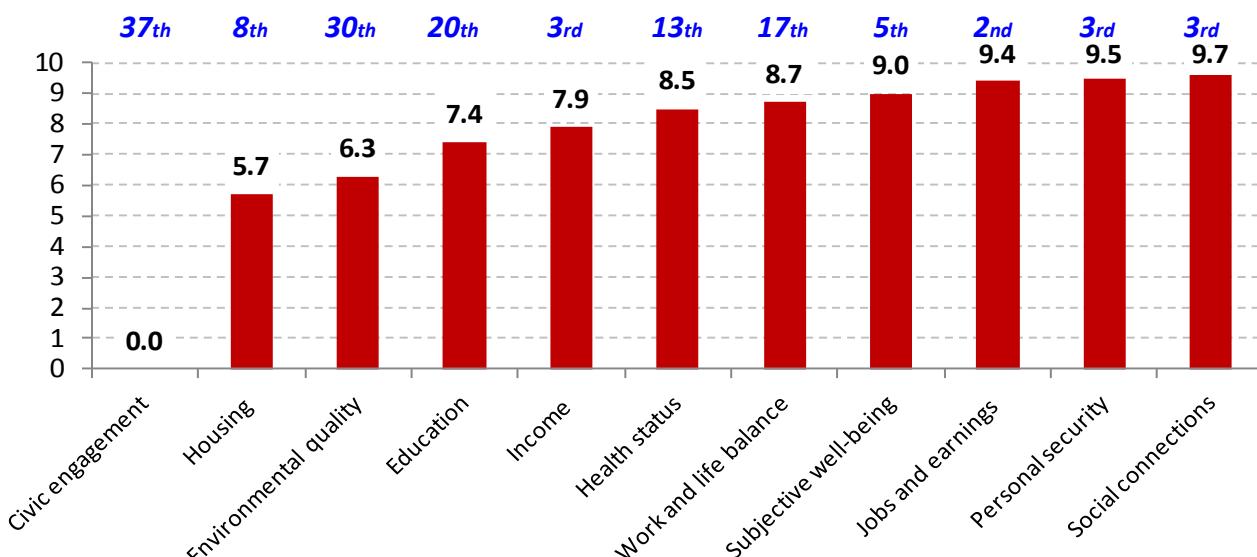
Summary

Jersey performs well on objective measures of income; in Jersey, household net adjusted disposable income per capita in 2009/2010 was $31,500 per year, higher than the OECD average of $22,400 and the U.K ($26,600). However, in Jersey income is not as equally distributed as in many other countries i.e. the gap between the richest and the poorest households is relatively high. There is also a difference between Jersey's performance on objective measures of income and people's perception of their own material living conditions. Whilst almost a quarter of households in Jersey declare that they have difficulty coping financially, objective measures show that the incidence and depth of relative low income is comparatively small.

Income

7.9

In terms of employment, more than three-quarters (78%) of the working age population in Jersey are employed, compared to an average of two-thirds (66%) across the OECD. Although unemployment in Jersey has been rising in recent years the ILO unemployment rate of 4.7% recorded in 2011 is one of the lowest in the OECD; 29 out of 36 OECD countries record unemployment rates greater than 5%. Working conditions are also favourable in Jersey compared to many countries; gross earnings are relatively high at $46,600 (2009) per annum and the large majority of employees (91%) were employed with a permanent contract.

Jobs

9.4

Housing

People in Jersey have more living space on average than people in the U.K. and in the majority of OECD countries; in Jersey each resident occupies an average of 2.0 rooms compared to an average of 1.6 across the OECD. Housing expenditure in Jersey is relatively high, however, with households, on average, spending a fifth of their disposable income on housing related costs; in 2012 around a sixth of households in Jersey could be considered to be overburdened by their housing related costs.

5.7

A person born in Jersey in 2011 could expect to live an average of 81 years, one year longer than the average across the OECD. People in Jersey also rate their general health highly, with 85% of adults reporting that they are in either good to excellent health. However, in 2010 almost two-fifths of adults in Jersey were overweight and a further fifth were obese. In comparison the proportion of people classified as obese across the OECD is only a sixth, whilst in South Korea and Japan this proportion is less than 1 in 20.

Health status

8.5

Only a small percentage of employees in Jersey work long hours; in 2011 less than 6% of employees worked for more than 50 hours a week. In comparison, around 1 in 10 people across the OECD work for 50 hours or more and in Mexico, Japan and Turkey this proportion is more than a quarter. The employment rate of women with children of compulsory school age provides an indication of the capacity of mothers to balance employment and family responsibilities; in Jersey the maternal employment rate is 74%, which is greater than the OECD average.

Work and life balance

8.7
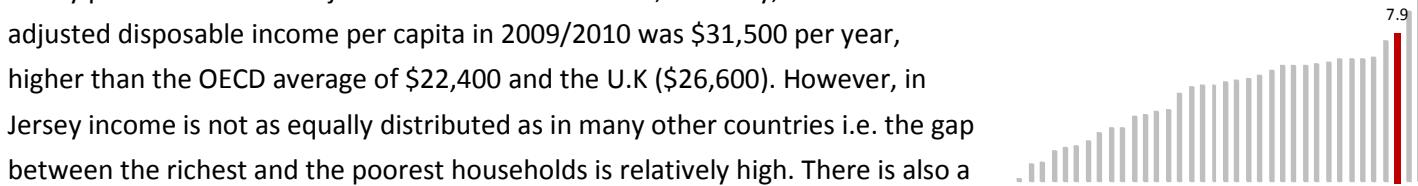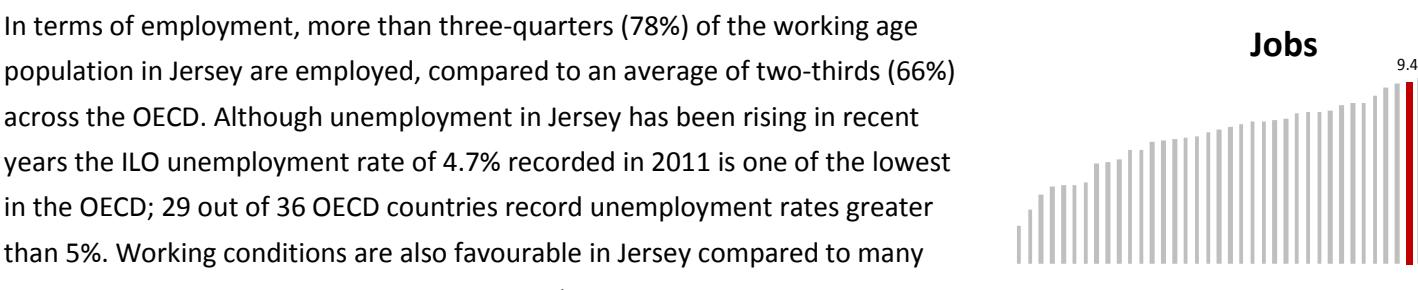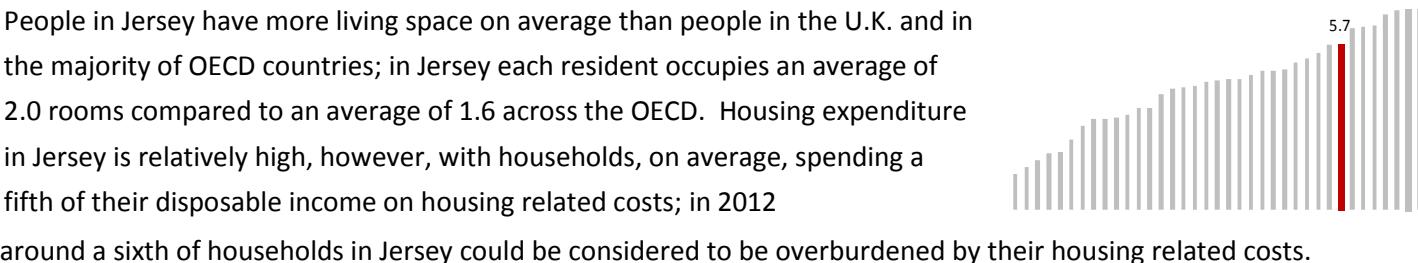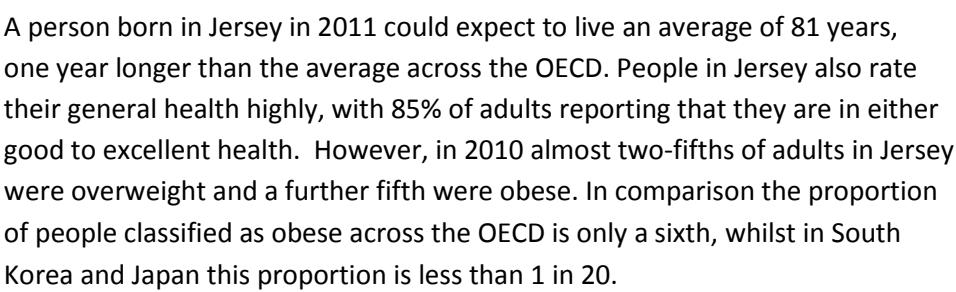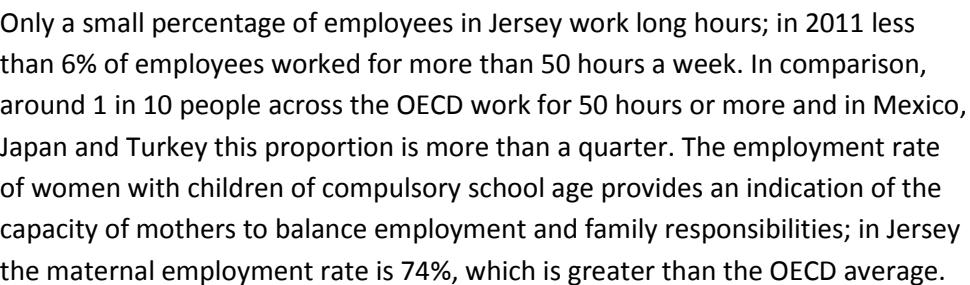
With regards to education, three-quarters (76%) of adults in Jersey hold at least an upper-secondary educational qualification; a greater proportion of females than males hold such a qualification. Although educational attainment in Jersey is similar to that in the U.K., it is below the level of 19 OECD countries; in half of all OECD countries 80% or more of adults have attained at least an upper-secondary qualification.
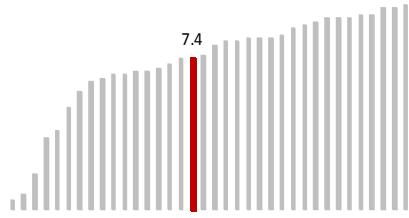
Jersey residents have strong social support networks; in 2012 97% of adults reported that they had someone they could count on in times of need, a higher proportion than that recorded in all OECD countries except for Iceland and Ireland. The majority of Islanders socialise frequently; half of all residents aged 16 or over report socialising with people outside of their household on a daily basis and a further third report that they socialise at least once a week.
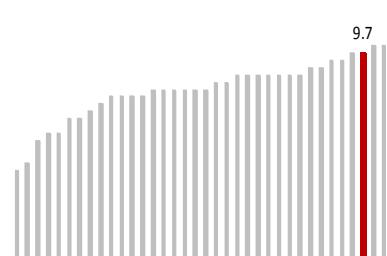
Voter turnout in Jersey (46% in the 2011 States of Jersey elections) is lower than in all 36 OECD countries. Across the OECD the average voter turnout rate is 73%, and in Belgium, Luxembourg and Australia the rate is over 90%. Results of a complementary analysis show that around half of Islanders like to know what the States of Jersey are doing but do not want to be involved, whilst a further 15% say that they are not interested in the States of Jersey as long as they are doing their job.
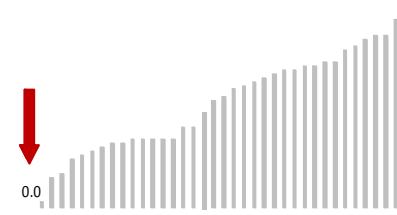
In 2008 the average air concentration of fine particles (PM$_{10}$) in urban areas in Jersey was 29.4μg/m^3. This level is greater than that recorded in urban areas in the UK and is higher than the average recorded across the OECD (22μg/m^3). In Jersey more than a quarter of people report that the lack of open public spaces in their neighbourhood is either a minor or major problem. In Europe the proportion of the population who report having a reason to complain about the lack of access to recreational and green spaces ranges from less than 1% in Finland to a third (33%) in Turkey and Italy.
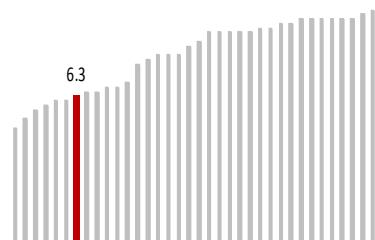
The average homicide rate in Jersey for the period 2008-2010 was 0.0 per 100,000 of the population; this rate increased to 2.0 in 2009-2011; the average rate across all OECD countries is 2.1. Only 2% of adults (aged 16 or over) in Jersey reported having been a victim of an assault in 2011. In the majority of OECD countries the proportion of people who reported being assaulted in a twelve month period is below 5%; in Chile, Mexico and Brazil the proportion is closer to 10%.
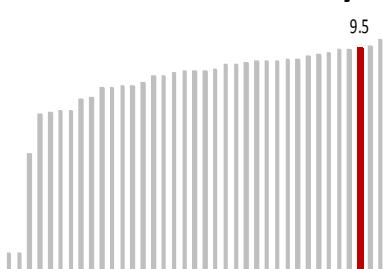
On a scale of 0 to 10 Jersey residents rated their overall life satisfaction as 7.5 on average. Life satisfaction in Jersey is higher than in all OECD countries except Norway and Denmark.

Education

7.4

Social connections

9.7

Civic engagement

0.0

Environmental quality

6.3

Personal security

9.5

Subjective well-being

9.0
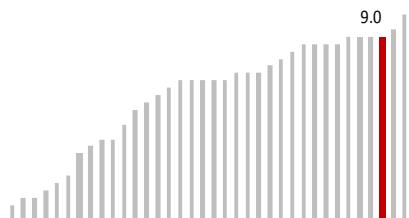
M1 Income

A statistically significant correlation between income and self-reported happiness has been recorded[1]; income levels affect an individual's ability to satisfy human requirements and determine access to resources such as housing, healthcare and education. Income can affect how an individual spends their time and whether goals are achieved, whilst safeguarding personal and economic security.

Indicators

M1.1 Mean household net adjusted disposable income (Primary indicator)

Household net adjusted disposable income is a measure of the amount of money that a household has available to spend on goods and services. Mean household net adjusted disposable income in Jersey is derived from the 2009/10 Jersey Income Distribution Survey and comprises: all earned and unearned income; pensions and gifts; household and individual benefits; and social transfers in kind from government (mainly education and health public services); minus direct taxes, social security and pension contributions.

Jersey's measure of household net adjusted disposable income (before housing costs) is equivalent to the OECD measure of net adjusted disposable income calculated within the framework of National Accounts.

To enable comparison across the OECD, mean household net adjusted disposable income is expressed on a per capita basis (per head of the population) and in US Dollar purchasing power parities (PPPs) for private consumption in calendar year 2009.

To derive mean household income in 2012, results from the Jersey Income Distribution Survey are up-rated using the Jersey Index of Average Earnings, which measures the change in individuals' gross earnings in Jersey.

M1.2 Household final consumption expenditure

Household final consumption expenditure per capita is included within this section as a secondary indicator of material well-being. Household final consumption expenditure represents all purchases made by households to meet their everyday needs.

The estimate for Jersey is calculated from data collected by the 2009/10 Jersey Household Spending Survey. Estimates of household final consumption per capita for OECD countries are calculated within the framework of National Accounts. In order to make meaningful comparison between Jersey and OECD countries, results are presented in year 2000 constant prices using the deflator of private consumption of households and in US Dollar 2000 PPPs.

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[1] Diener, E. and Biswas-Diener, R. (2002). Will Money Increase Subjective Well-being? *A Literature Review and Guide to Needed Research*, Social Indicators Research, 57, 119-169.

M1.3   Subjective evaluation of material well-being

It has been reported that an increasing gap is developing between objective measures of material well-being (such as household income and expenditure) and people's own perception of their material living conditions[2]. Complementing objective measures of material well-being with subjective secondary indicators is therefore informative.

The subjective measure of material well-being presented in this report is the proportion of adults in Jersey who declare that they have *difficulty coping financially*; data was collected in the 2010 round of the Jersey Annual Social Survey.

Data from the European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC) provides similar information for European countries, although due to a difference in question wording and contextual and cultural effects, cross-jurisdiction comparisons should be made with caution. Results for European countries refer to the percentage of the population that declare that they have *difficulty making ends meet*.

M1.4   The Gini Index

Indicators of average income do not provide a picture of how income is distributed across a population. Recent research by the OECD has shown that disposable income has grown by an average of almost 2% year across OECD countries[3]. However, the income of the richest 10% of households has grown faster than those of the poorest 10%, thus widening income inequality in many countries. Therefore supplementing a measure of average income with an indicator of income inequality presents a more informed picture of material well-being in a population.

The Gini index is a widely used indicator of income inequality, summarising in a single number the income differences between each pair of households in a population. The Gini index takes a value of between 0 and 1, where a value of 0 indicates that all households have the same income (complete equality of income across households), whilst a value of 1 indicates that one household accounts for all the income in the population and all other households have no income (complete inequality of incomes across households).

M1.5   Prevalence and intensity of relative low income

Examining the prevalence and intensity of relative low income can provide further insight into how income is distributed within a population.

The prevalence of relative low income is expressed as the proportion of individuals that fall below the low income threshold, defined as 60% of the median equivalised net income (BHC) of the entire population. This headcount measure of relative low income simply counts everyone below the low income threshold.

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[2] Stiglitz, J. E., Sen, A. & Fitoussi, J. P. (2009), Report by the Commission on the Measurement of Economic Performance and Social Progress, http://www.stiglitz-sen-fitoussi.fr/documents/rapport_anglais.pdf

[3] OECD (2011) *The causes of Growing Inequality in OECD Countries*, OECD Publishing, Paris.

In order to provide an indication of the intensity or depth of relative low income, the 'relative low income gap' is presented in this section, calculated as the average (mean) distance between the relative low income threshold (60% of median net equivalised income) and the average (mean) income of those individuals below the low income threshold, expressed as a percentage of the low income threshold in each jurisdiction.

Results

M1.1 Mean household net adjusted disposable income

Results of the Jersey Income Distribution Survey showed that the mean net household income (before housing costs, BHC) in Jersey in 2009/10 was £44,720 per annum.

Up-rating by the Jersey Index of Average Earnings provides an estimate of mean net household income (BHC) in 2012 of £46,900 per annum. Table 1 shows mean net disposable household income by tenure.

Table 1: Mean net household disposable income (before housing costs) by tenure; 2012

Tenure category	Annual Income
States, parish or housing trust rent	£28,700
Qualified Rent	£37,100
Non qualified	£45,700
Owner Occupied - without mortgage	£43,800
Owner Occupied - with mortgage	£68,800
All households	*£46,900*

From Table 1 it is apparent that mean household net disposable income (BHC) in Jersey varied across the tenure categories. Households with mortgages living in owner-occupied accommodation had a mean net income which was more than double that of households living in social housing (States, parish or housing trust accommodation).

In order to compare household net adjusted disposable income in Jersey with that of other jurisdictions, household net disposable income (BHC) in Jersey (for 20091/10) is adjusted to include social transfers in kind from government (transfers of individual non-market goods and services).

The resulting estimate of household net adjusted disposable income per capita for Jersey is $31,500 (in 2009 US Dollar PPPs). The estimate for Jersey is more than a sixth greater than that of the UK ($26,550) and two-fifths greater than the average across all OECD countries ($22,390)[4].

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[4] Measures of household net adjusted disposable income for OECD countries are derived from the framework of National Accounts; comparison of mean household net adjusted disposable income for Jersey, which is derived primarily from survey data, must therefore be made with caution.

Figure 3: Household net adjusted disposable income per capita, Jersey and the OECD;
2009 US Dollar PPPs
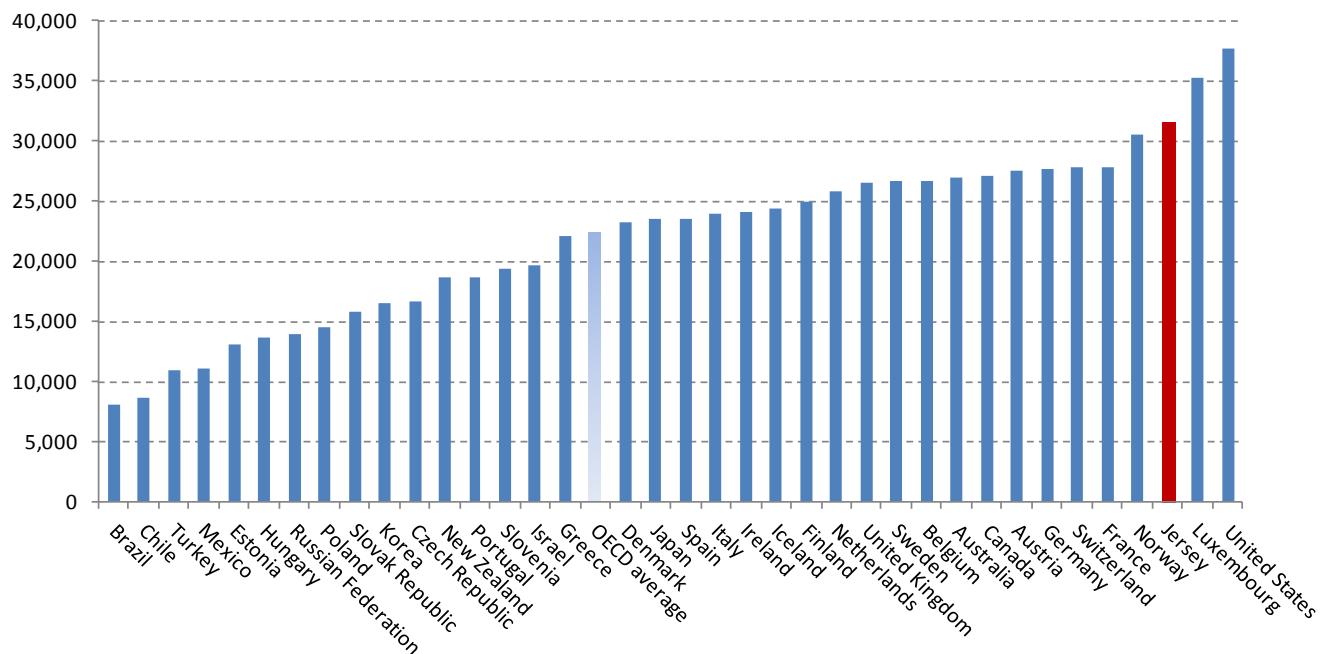
As Figure 3 shows, there is a considerable range in household net adjusted disposable income per capita across the OECD, with the highest (United States, $37,710) being more than four times the lowest (Brazil, $8,010).

M1.2 Household final consumption expenditure

Derived from data recorded by the Jersey Household Spending Survey, household final consumption expenditure per capita in Jersey in 2009/10 was £16,000 per annum. The greatest spending was on housing and fuel and power, which together accounted for more than a quarter (28%) of total household spending.

Up-rating the 2009/10 estimate by the Jersey Retail Prices Index results in household final consumption expenditure per capita in Jersey in June 2012 of £17,400.

In order to compare the estimate for Jersey with OECD countries, the 2009 measure is deflated into year 2000 constant prices and then divided by 2000 US Dollar PPPs.

The resulting value of household final consumption expenditure per capita for Jersey is $19,800.

As Figure 4 shows, the estimate of household final consumption expenditure for Jersey is greater than that of all OECD countries except the United States ($26,700) and Luxembourg ($24,100). The lowest values were recorded for Mexico and the Russian Federation ($6,700 and $7,100 respectively).

Figure 4: Household final consumption expenditure per capita, Jersey and the OECD;
constant year values, 2000 US Dollar PPPs
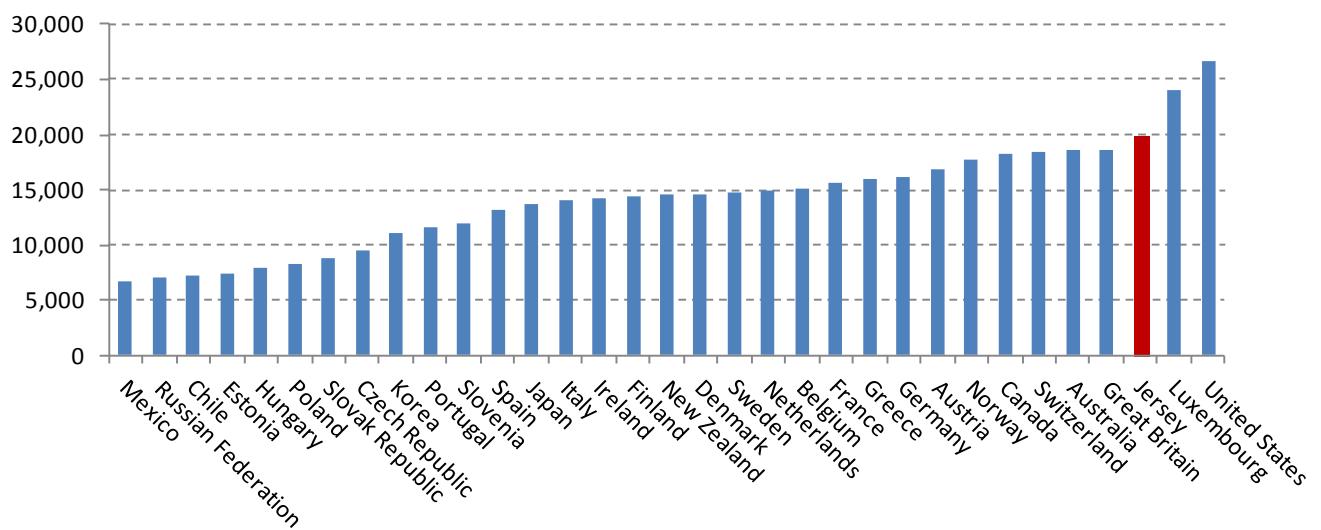
M1.3 Subjective evaluation of material well-being

In 2010 nearly a fifth (19%) of adults in Jersey reported that it was quite difficult to cope financially and a further one in twenty (5%) reported that it was very difficult. The proportion of adults who reported that they found it difficult coping financially to some degree varied according to household composition: almost two-fifths (38%) of adults in households with children reported having difficulty coping financially compared to less than a fifth (18%) of adults in households without children.

The proportion of the population in European countries who declared having some degree of difficulty making ends meet (2008) was, on average, similar to that recorded in Jersey (24%), but ranged from less than 10% of the population in Nordic countries and Germany to around half in Greece and Portugal.

Figure 5: Proportion of the population who have difficulty coping financially/making ends meet in Jersey and European countries (2010 for Jersey; 2008 for European countries)
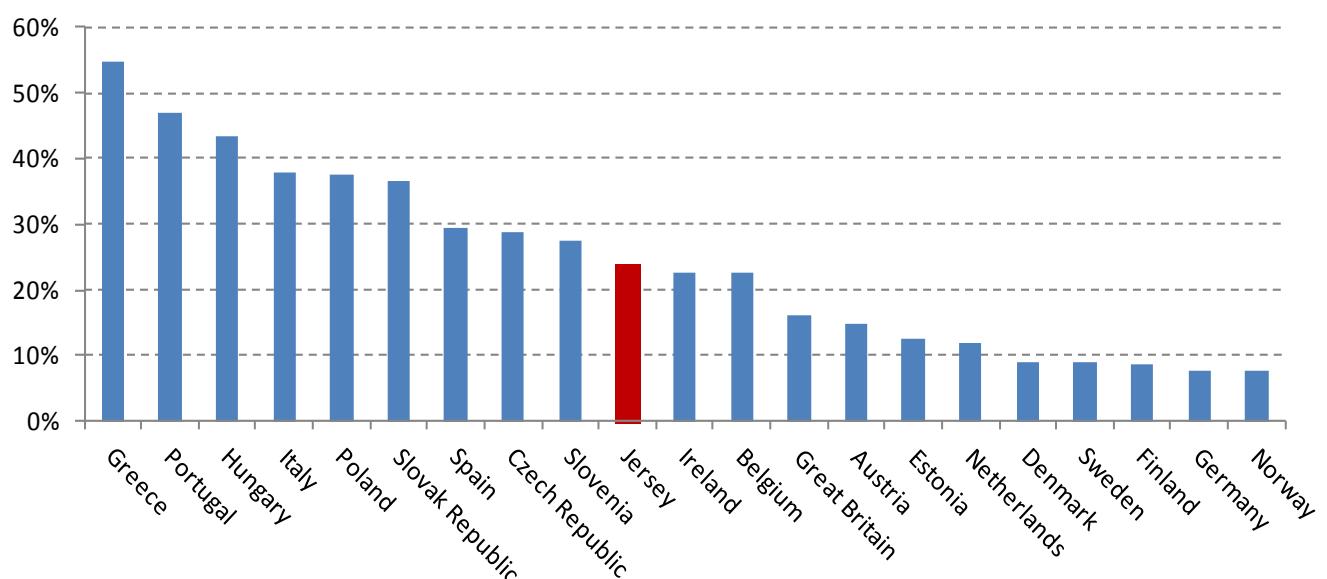
M1.4 Gini index

The 2009/2010 Jersey Income Distribution Survey determined the Gini index for Jersey to be 0.35. Income inequality, as measured through this indicator, was greater in Jersey than across the OECD on average (0.32) in the late 2000's (see Figure 6). Income inequality in Jersey was similar to that of Great Britain and Portugal.

Figure 6: Gini index, Jersey and the OECD; (data are for latest available year)
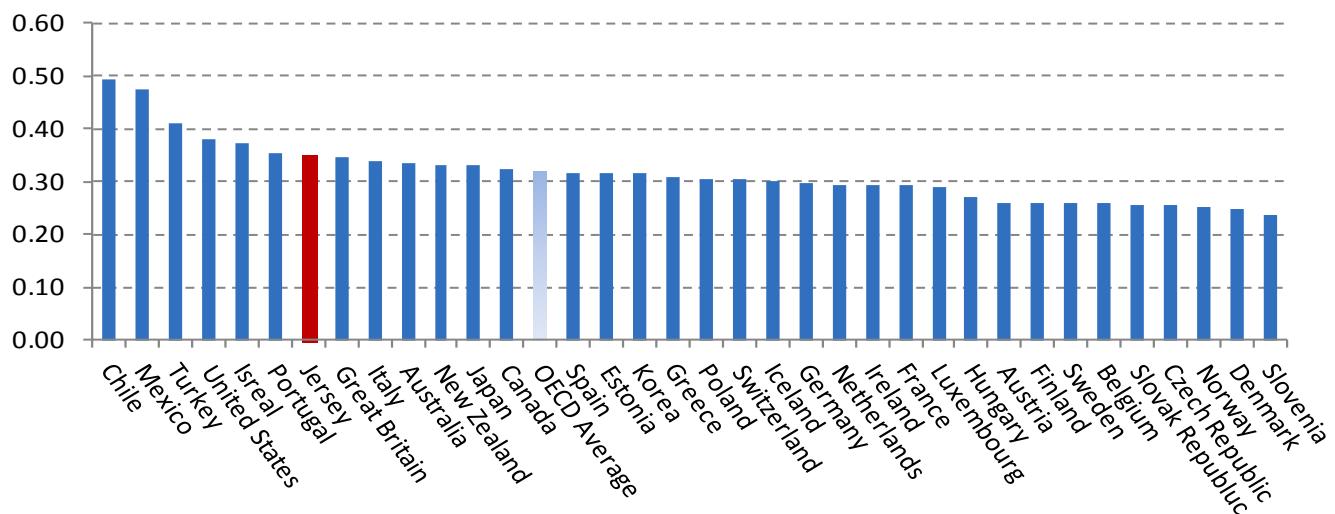
Income was less equally distributed in Chile, Mexico and Turkey (Gini index greater than 0.4) than in other OECD countries. In contrast, Nordic and several Central European countries had relatively lower levels of income inequality, with Gini index at or below 0.25.

M1.5 Incidence and depth of relative low income

The 2009/10 Jersey Income Distribution Survey determined that around one in eight (12%) of all individuals in Jersey were living in relative low income households, defined as having equivalised net income (BHC) below 60% of the median. This proportion was substantially greater for pensioners, with more than a quarter of pensioners in Jersey in relative low income (Table 2).

Table 2: Proportion of each population group living in relative low income (Jersey 2009/2010)

Children (aged less than 16 years)	Working-age (women/men aged 16-59/64)	Pensioners	All
10%	8%	26%	12%

The proportion of the population in relative low income (below 60% of median equivalised net disposable income) varied significantly across the OECD countries (late 2000's), ranging from around one in ten of the population in the Czech Republic (10%) to more than a quarter of the population in Mexico and Israel (see Figure 7). The proportion living in relative low income in Jersey (12%) was lower than the OECD average (18%).

Figure 7: Relative low income, Jersey and the OECD;

percentage of individuals with less than 60% of median equivalised income of entire population (data represents late 2000's)
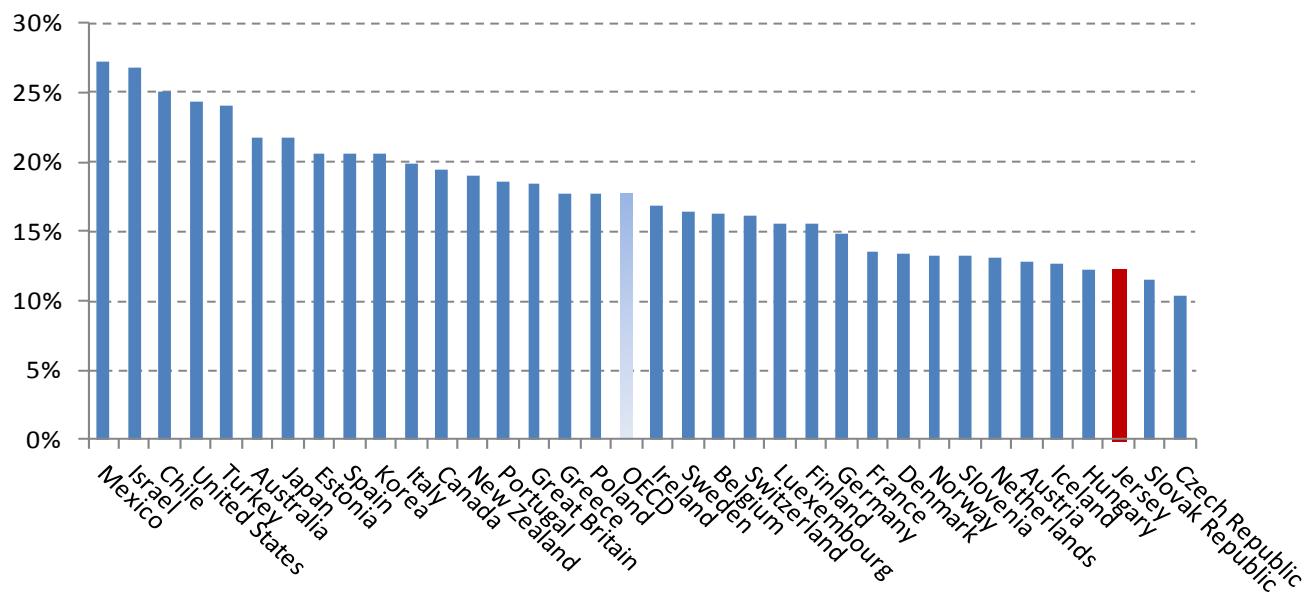
The depth (intensity) of relative low income is measured as the mean distance (in percentage points) of relative low income households to the low income threshold; a higher mean percentage indicates greater depth of relative low income, i.e. more households living in more acute relative low income. The depth of relative low income in Jersey (22%) was less than the OECD average (27%) – see Figure 8. Across all OECD countries the depth of relative low income ranged from a high of 47% in South Korea to a low of 13% in the Netherlands.

Figure 8: Depth of relative low income, Jersey and the OECD;

mean distance of households below the low income threshold and the low income threshold, as a proportion of the low income threshold (data represents late 2000's)
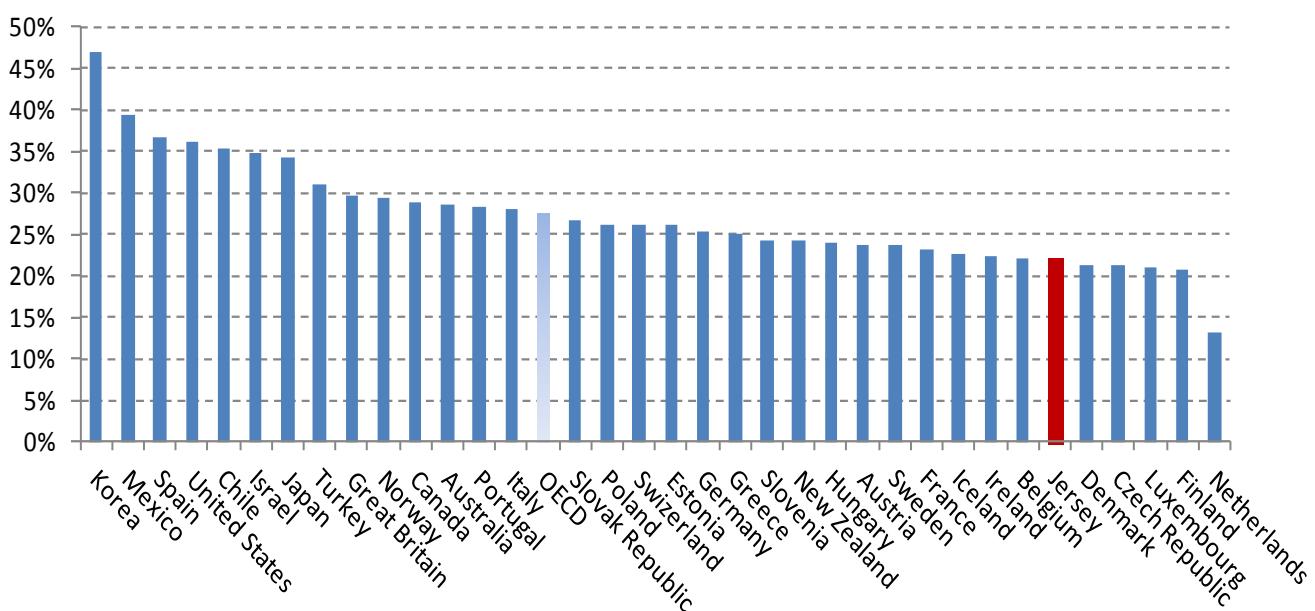
M2 Jobs and earnings

Employment status and the quality of employment are factors which can, potentially, be used to predict overall well-being[5]. Whether an individual is employed, and the type of employment they are engaged in, can determine the amount of money available to access resources, and can dictate whether ambitions are fulfilled and whether opportunities to learn and develop new skills become available. Employment can also provide a sense of belonging within society and a source of pride. Similarly, people who are unemployed, compared with those in employment, are reported to have lower self-esteem, happiness and life-satisfaction, and higher symptoms of stress and depression[6].

Indicators

M2.1   Employment rate (Primary indicator)

The employment rate for Jersey represents the proportion of the working age population (aged 16 to 64 for men and 16 to 59 for women) who declared (at the time of the 2011 Census) that they had worked (either for an employer or on a self-employed basis) in the previous week. This definition varies slightly from the widely adopted ILO definition of the employment rate[7]. Some caution is therefore required when making comparisons with other jurisdictions as apparent differences can be reflective of variations in question wording, survey timing, design and age groups covered.

M2.2   ILO unemployment rate (Primary indicator)

The ILO unemployment rate represents all unemployed adults aged 16 or over (rather than working age adults) as a proportion of all economically active adults. The ILO unemployment rate is an internationally comparable measure since the definition of working age can vary by jurisdiction.

Under ILO definitions people characterised as being unemployed may not have registered for unemployment benefits or as actively seeking work with any institution or legal provision. ILO unemployment rates are often considerably higher than actively seeking work (ASW) rates which represent only individuals who <u>register</u> themselves as unemployed and ASW.

M2.3   Average gross earnings of full-time equivalent (FTE) employees

The average gross earnings of employees in Jersey is calculated through the annual Average Earnings survey. The survey is designed to measure the change in mean earnings (gross wages and salaries) that have occurred, and been paid, to workers. Gross earnings include

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[5] Clarke, A. E. (2010). "Work and Wellbeing", *CESifo DICE Report, Ifo Institute for Economic Research at the University of Munich*, vol. 8(4), 17-21.

[6] Clarke, A. E. and Oswald, A. J. (1994). "Subjective well-being and unemployment", *Economic Journal,* Vol 104, 648-659.

[7] The ILO employment rate refers to the proportion of the working age population in a jurisdiction who declare having worked in gainful employment for at least one hour in the previous week, including those who were temporarily away from their job for the purposes of annual leave, parental leave, strike or sickness etc.

overtime payments, but exclude bonuses, employers' insurance contributions, holiday pay and benefits in kind (e.g. free accommodation or meals).

Workers include full-time and part-time employees and also self-employed people. Part-time employees are weighted in the calculation of FTEs according to hours worked, such that average earnings are calculated on the basis of a full-time equivalent (FTE) worker.

Estimates for average gross earnings in OECD countries are calculated within the system of National Accounts and include undeclared earnings (as part of the "un-observed economy").

M2.4   Employees working on temporary contracts

Job security is an important aspect of job quality and can be considered as an indicator of well-being. Thinking that we may become unemployed at some point in the future can impact negatively on self-rated life satisfaction[8].

The measure of job security presented in this report is the proportion of all employees in Jersey who were classified as temporary workers in 2011. Temporary workers include seasonal staff and those on fixed-term contracts but not those employed by temporary employment agencies.

Data is collected in the bi-annual Manpower Survey which constitutes a census of all businesses (undertakings) in Jersey.

Results

M2.1   Employment rate

At the time of the 2011 census, the employment rate in Jersey was 78%, i.e. nearly four-fifths of the working-age population (16 to 64 for men and 16 to 59 for women) declared that they were working (either for an employer or self-employed) in the week preceding census day. As can be seen from Figure 9, the employment rate for women (74%) was lower than that for men (81%).

The employment rate in Jersey (2011) was relatively high compared to most OECD countries (2010 or latest available year) and was above the OECD average of 66%. According to latest data sources, the employment rate was lowest in Turkey where fewer than half (46%) of all working-age people were in employment. In comparison, almost four-fifths (79%) of the working-age population in Switzerland and Iceland were employed.

Employment rates were lower for females than males in all countries except Estonia, where they were essentially equal. The scale of the gender difference varied across jurisdictions. The highest gender differences occurred in Turkey and Mexico where the employment rate for men was around twice that for women. In contrast, the gender difference in employment rates were relatively small in Canada and Nordic countries.

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[8] Geishecker, I. (2009). Perceived Job Insecurity and Well-Being Revisited: Towards Conceptual Clarity, *Centre for European Governance and Economic Development Research*, 90, 1439-2305.

Figure 9: Employment rates, overall and by gender

Jersey (2011) and the OECD (2010 or the latest available year)
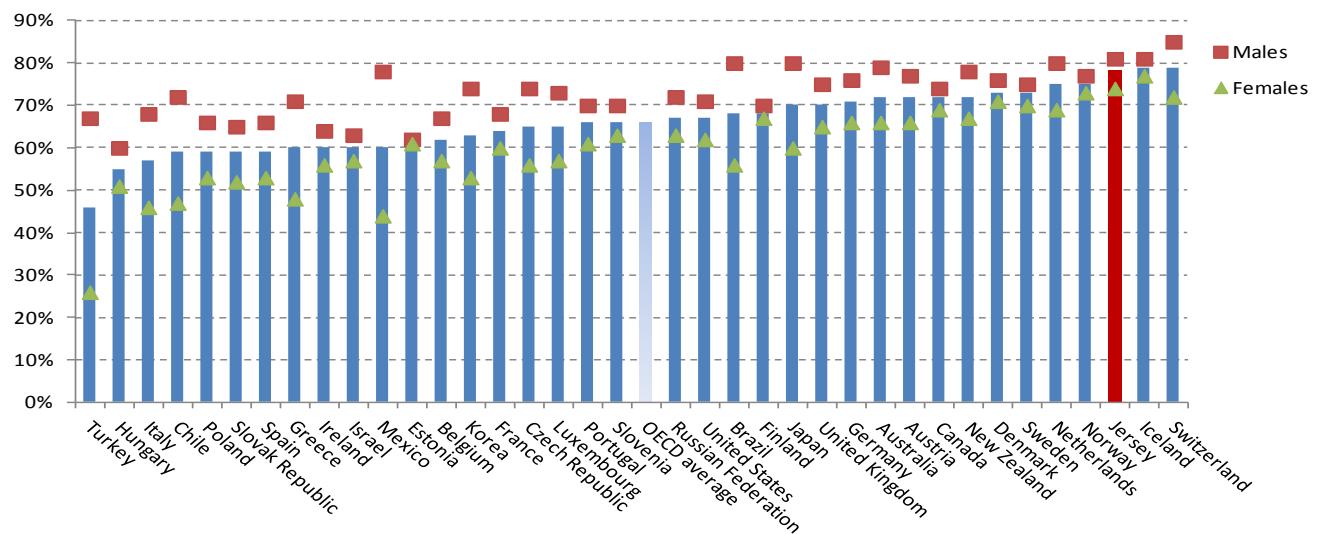
A degree of caution should be applied when making comparisons across jurisdictions due to potential differences in survey design and also differences in population structure (generally a higher proportion of school-age population will result in a lower employment rate). This indicator does not take into account people who are out of work by choice (e.g. home makers and adults in full-time education).

M2.2 Unemployment rate

In March 2011 the ILO unemployment rate for Jersey was 4.7%, as recorded by the 2011 Census. The number of males classified as unemployed by ILO definitions (1,550) was greater than the number of women (1,020), corresponding to ILO unemployment rates of 5.2% for males and 4.0% for females.

Figure 10 shows the ILO unemployment rates for Jersey and OECD countries in March 2011 (or the average rate for the first quarter of 2011).

Figure 10: ILO unemployment rate, Jersey and the OECD; March 2011 (or Q1 2011)
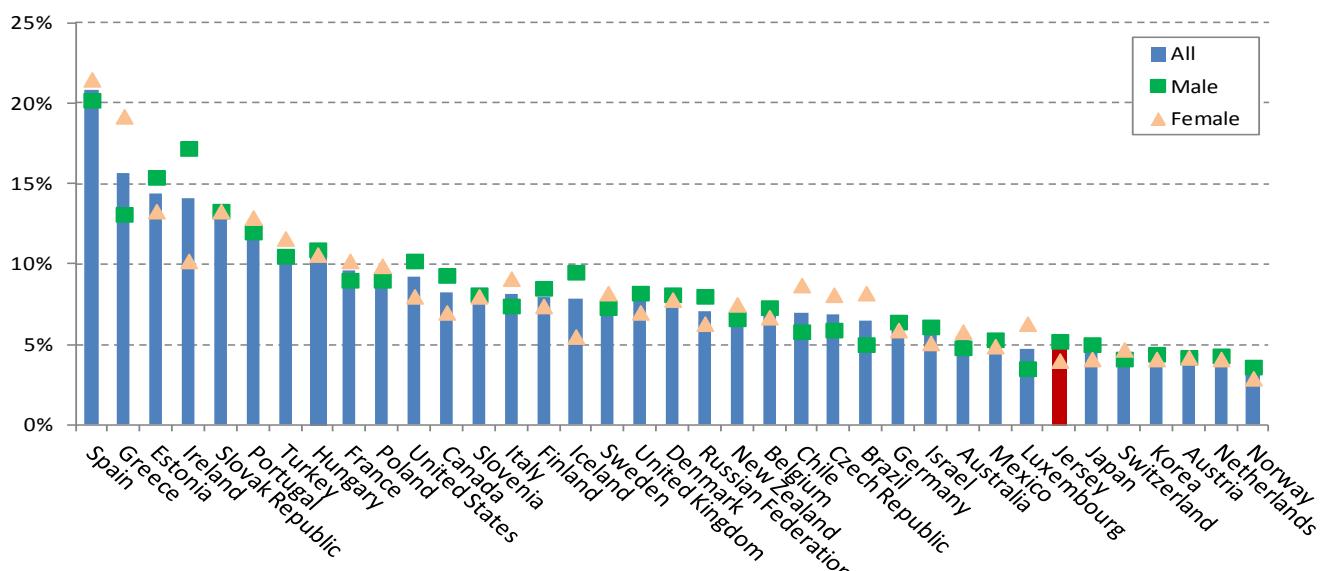
In March 2011, the ILO unemployment rate for Jersey (4.7%) was similar to that recorded in Luxembourg (4.7%) and Japan (4.6%) but was relatively low compared with European countries such as Estonia (14.4%), Greece (15.7%) and Spain (20.8%). In March 2011, Spain had the highest ILO unemployment rate of all the OECD countries.

The largest gender differences were recorded in Ireland (where unemployment was highest amongst males) and in Greece (where unemployment was highest amongst females).

M2.3 Average gross earnings of full-time employees

The average (mean) weekly earnings (gross) of full-time equivalent (FTE) employees in Jersey in June 2012 was £650 per week, corresponding to around £33,800 per annum. This figure represented an increase of 1.5% on June of the previous year (2011).

In June 2009, the mean gross earnings of employees (FTEs) in Jersey was £32,240 per annum. In order to compare with the latest available data for OECD countries, this value is deflated to constant 2008 prices and divided by 2008 US Dollar PPPs, resulting in a figure of $46,600. Figure 11 shows the average gross earnings per FTE in Jersey compared with those of full-time workers in OECD countries.

Figure 11: Average gross annual earnings of full-time employees, Jersey and the OECD;
   2009 or latest year; *(in 2008 US Dollar PPPs)*
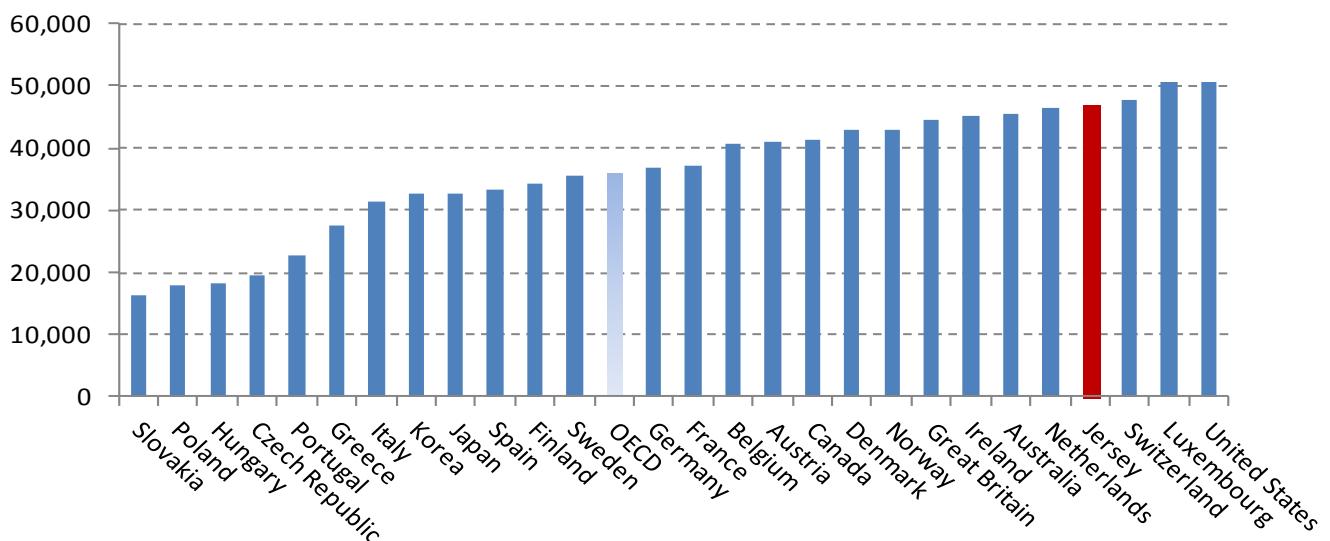
Average gross earnings of full-time workers varied substantially across the OECD (2009 or latest available year); in the United States ($50,800) and Luxembourg ($50,600) average earnings were around three times higher than in the Eastern European countries of Hungary ($18,200), Poland ($17,800) and the Slovak Republic ($16,200). In Jersey, annual gross earnings were higher than in Great Britain ($44,600) and substantially higher than the average for the OECD ($35,900).

M2.4 Employees working on temporary contracts

The proportion of all employees (full-time and part-time) working on temporary contracts was 8.9% in Jersey at the time of the 2011 census.

Figure 12 shows the proportion of employees working on temporary contracts in Jersey and across the OECD.

**Figure 12: Proportion of employees working on temporary contracts
Jersey (2011) and the OECD (2010 or latest available year)**
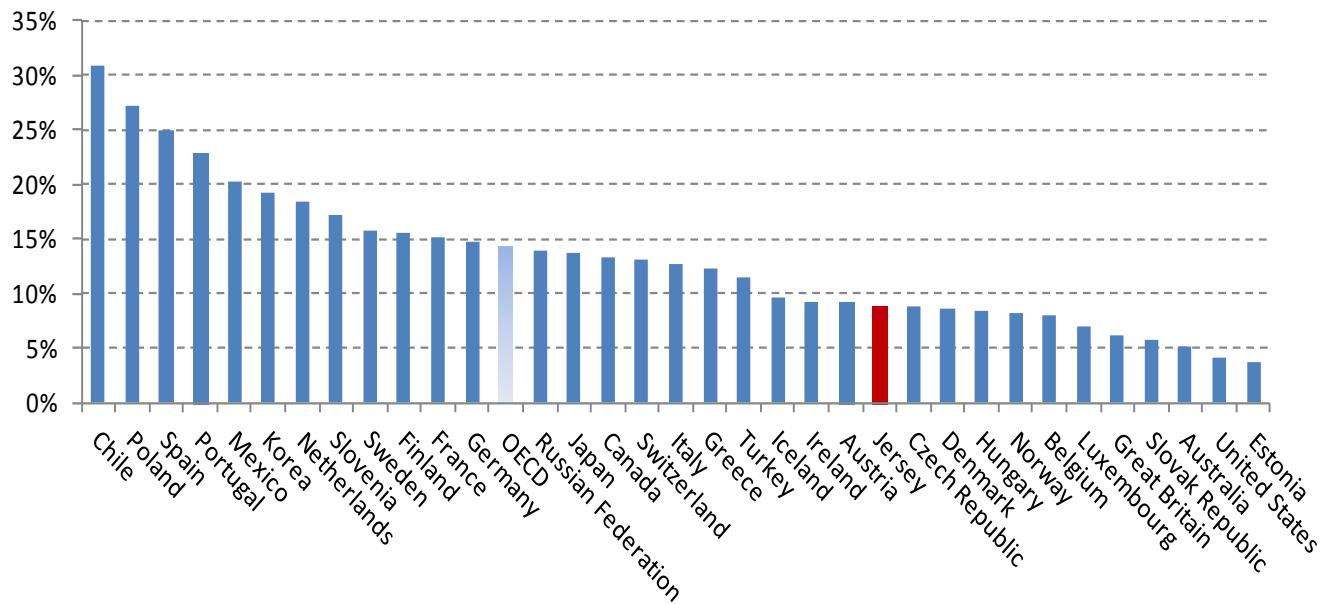
Notwithstanding some cross-jurisdiction differences which occur in the definition of temporary workers, some themes are apparent. In Jersey the percentage of employees engaged on temporary contracts (8.9%) was similar to that seen in the Czech Republic (8.9%) and Austria (9.3%) but higher than in Great Britain (6.2%). Across all OECD countries the proportion of employees engaged on temporary contracts was around 14%, but was considerably higher in Poland (27%) and Chile (31%).

M3 Housing

Adequate accommodation is considered to be a basic human requirement[9] and it is widely accepted that where we live can affect our overall well-being. The quality and affordability of homes coupled with their location and suitability to specific needs are all factors that can affect overall life satisfaction. Furthermore, it is believed that poor housing conditions, overcrowding and lack of basic facilities can have a detrimental effect on both physical and mental health and a negative impact on the educational attainment and social behaviours of children[10]. Similarly, large housing costs can leave little disposable income to spend on food, healthcare and other necessities[11].

Indicators

M3.1   Average number of rooms per person (Primary indicator)

The first primary indicator of housing conditions is a measure of overcrowding, calculated by dividing the number of rooms in all dwellings in a population (including living rooms but excluding bathrooms and kitchens) by the number of people residing in such dwellings. It is thought that overcrowding (defined as accommodation with less than 1 room available per person[12]) can be detrimental to both physical and mental health as well as negatively impacting on relations with others and on child development.

M3.2   Housing expenditure (Primary indicator)

For many households in Europe, housing costs represent the largest proportion of expenditure of the household budget. The indicator of housing expenditure used in this report also constitutes a measure of housing affordability: the mean proportion of monthly equivalised net household income (BHC) spent on housing relating costs. Housing related costs, as defined by the EU-SILC, include actual rents paid, the costs of utilities (water, gas, electricity and heating), sewage and other services, housing taxes and structural insurance as well as mortgage interest payments and regular maintenance and repairs by home owners. The principal component of mortgage payments is excluded.

For Jersey, household net income and housing costs have been calculated from the 2009/2010 Household Spending and Income Survey. To determine average (mean) household net income for Jersey households in 2012, estimates from the 2009/2010 Household Income and Spending Survey have been up-rated by the Jersey Index of Average Earnings. Housing costs have been up-rated by price changes recorded for the corresponding components of the Jersey Retail Prices Index. Data for OECD countries is calculated within the framework of National Accounts and is shown for years 2009 or 2010.

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[9] United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights (2009). "The Human Right to Adequate Housing", *Fact Sheet No. 21* (Rev. 1).

[10] OECD (2009), "Comparative Child well-being across the OECD", in *Doing Better for Children*, OECD Publishing, Paris.

[11] OECD, (2001a), "Housing and the Economy: Policies for Renovation", *in Economic Policy Reforms 2011: Going for Growth*, OECD Publishing.

[12] Eurostat defines overcrowding as a dwelling in which the number of rooms available to each resident is less than one.

M3.3   Housing cost overburden rate

The housing cost overburden rate is a proxy of the financial pressure that housing costs place on the household budget. The rate is calculated as the percentage of households in the population that spend more than 40% of their monthly net disposable income on housing costs. According to the Eurostat definition[13] a household is considered to be overburdened by its housing costs if such costs consume more than 40% of the household net disposable income.

M3.4   Satisfaction with housing

Complementing objective measures of housing conditions with a subjective indicator of housing satisfaction provides insight into the gap between perceived housing needs and aspirations and the reality of current housing conditions[14]. The subjective indicator of housing conditions presented in this section is the proportion of people who report being either fairly satisfied or very satisfied with their current housing (as recorded by the 2012 Jersey Annual Social Survey).

Data for OECD countries relies on a question asked in the Gallop World Poll: "Are you satisfied or dissatisfied with your current housing, dwelling, or place that you live?"; responses are grouped into two categories (satisfied or dissatisfied). Due to the difference in question wording, as well as differences in cultural norms which may influence people's perception of housing conditions, comparisons of satisfaction with housing in Jersey and OECD countries must be made with a degree of caution.

Results

M3.1 Average number of rooms per person

As recorded by the 2011 Census, each Jersey resident occupied 2.0 rooms on average (March 2011), a level which satisfies the living space requirements defined by Eurostat.

The number of rooms available to each person was dependent on the type of dwelling occupied (flat or house); for people living in houses in Jersey the average number of rooms per person was 2.1, whilst in flats the average number of rooms per person was 1.7.

The average number of rooms per person in Jersey in March 2011 (2.0) was higher than the average of 1.6 observed across the OECD in 2009 (see Figure 13). Living space requirements, in terms of rooms per person, were satisfied in all OECD countries except Turkey, where residents occupied only 0.9 rooms per person on average. In contrast, each resident of Canada occupied 2.5 rooms on average.

People living in Jersey had marginally more living space, on average, than those living in the U.K, where the average number of rooms per person was 1.8.

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[13] Eurostat, EU Statistics on income and living conditions (EU-SILC).

[14] Galster, G. C. (1987), Homeowners and Neighbourhood Reinvestment, Duke University Press, Durham, NC.

Figure 13: Average number of rooms per person, Jersey (2011) and the OECD (2009 or latest available year)
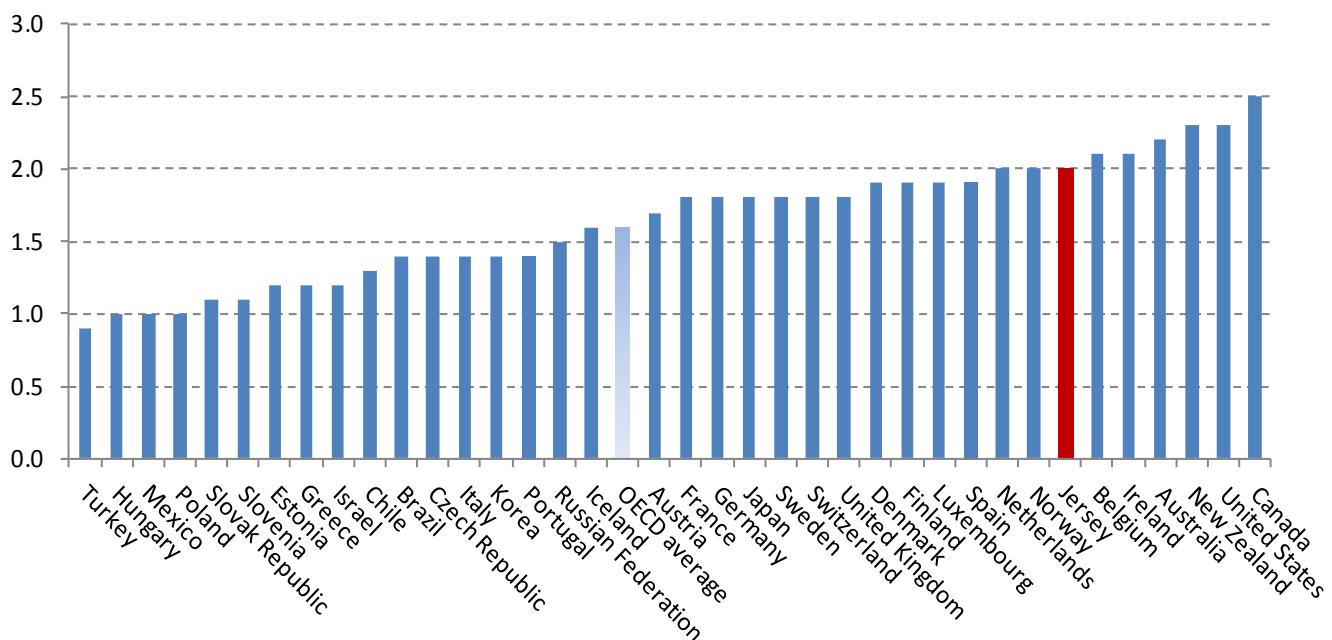
M3.2 Housing expenditure

The 2009/10 Jersey Household Spending and Income Survey recorded that households in Jersey, on average, spent a fifth (20%) of their net disposable income (Before Housing Costs, BHC) on housing related costs (as defined by the EU-SILC).

Up-rating incomes by the Index of Average Earnings and annual price changes of housing related components by the appropriate Retail Price indices results in an estimate of household expenditure in Jersey of 22% of net disposable income (BHC) in 2012.

Figure 14: Housing costs as a proportion of household net disposable income (BHC) Jersey and the OECD (2009/2010);
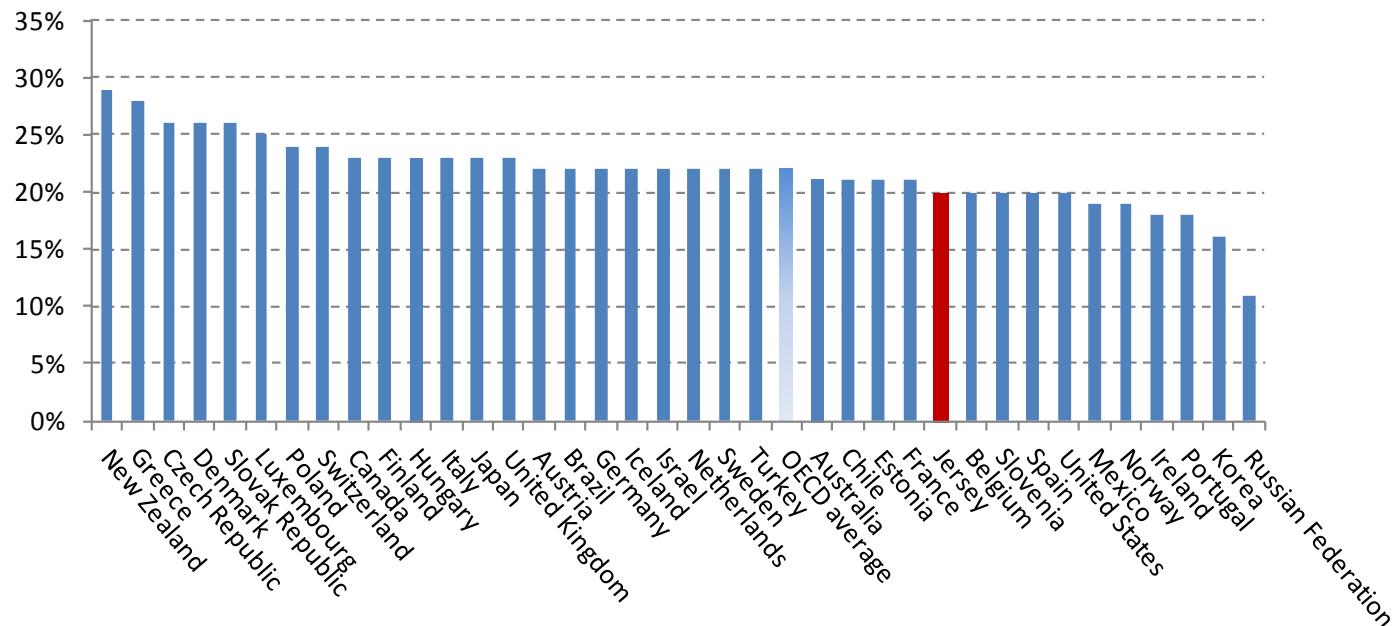
The proportion of net disposable income (BHC) spent by households in Jersey on housing costs is similar to the average recorded across the OECD, which according to data collected in 2009/2010 was 22% (see Figure 14).

The ratio of housing costs to household net disposable income varied across the OECD; households in the Russian Federation spent, on average, only 11% of the household budget on housing costs compared with 29% in New Zealand.

M3.3 Housing cost overburden rate

In 2009/10 around one in six (16%) Jersey households spent more than 40% of their equivalised net disposable income (BHC) on housing related costs. The housing cost overburden rate in Jersey in 2012 was estimated to be 18%.

The Jersey housing cost overburden rate recorded in 2009/10 (16%) was higher than the average recorded across 24 European countries surveyed by the EU-SILC; in 2009 one in ten (10%) European households spent more than 40% of their equivalised disposable income on housing related costs.

It should be noted that net disposable income in Jersey is relatively high compared to many European countries (see M1.1, page 11); hence, a proportion of the households in Jersey paying more than 40% of household income on housing costs may be doing so without compromising their budget for essential expenditures such as food and clothing.

The housing cost overburden rate in Jersey (16%) was similar to that recorded in Great Britain (17%). Of the other OECD European jurisdictions, France and Luxemburg had the lowest proportion of households considered to be overburdened in relation to housing costs (3.4% and 3.7%, respectively). In contrast, almost a quarter (24%) of households in Denmark were living in accommodation for which housing costs were equal to or greater than 40% of equivalised net disposable income.

Figure 15: Housing cost overburden rate in Jersey and OECD European countries (2009/2010)

Percentage of households spending more than 40% of net disposable income on housing related costs
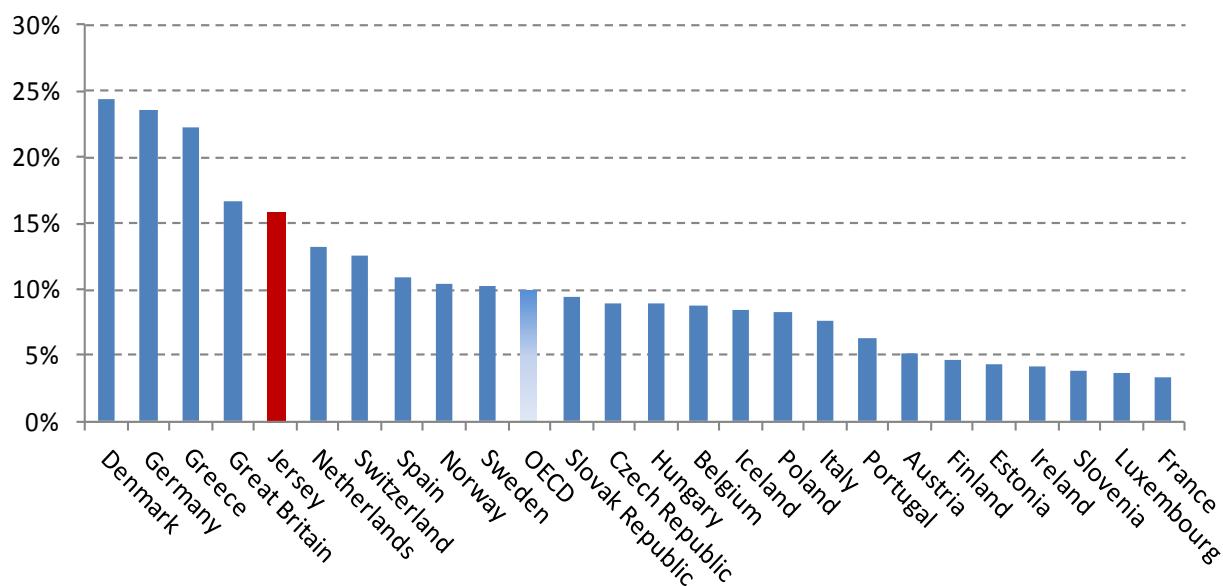
M3.4 Satisfaction with housing

In 2012, 93% of adults in Jersey reported being either 'very' or 'fairly' satisfied overall with their current housing. Only 1% said that they were 'not at all satisfied' and a further 6% reported being 'not very satisfied'.

Across the OECD, the majority (87%) of people surveyed in the Gallop World Poll reported being satisfied with the housing, dwelling or place where they live (2007 or latest available year). This proportion did however vary across jurisdictions; in Spain and Belgium over 94% of the population were satisfied with their current housing situation compared to around two-thirds (67%) in Turkey and the Russian Federation (62%).

Figure 16: Satisfaction with housing in Jersey (2012) and the OECD (2007 or latest available year)
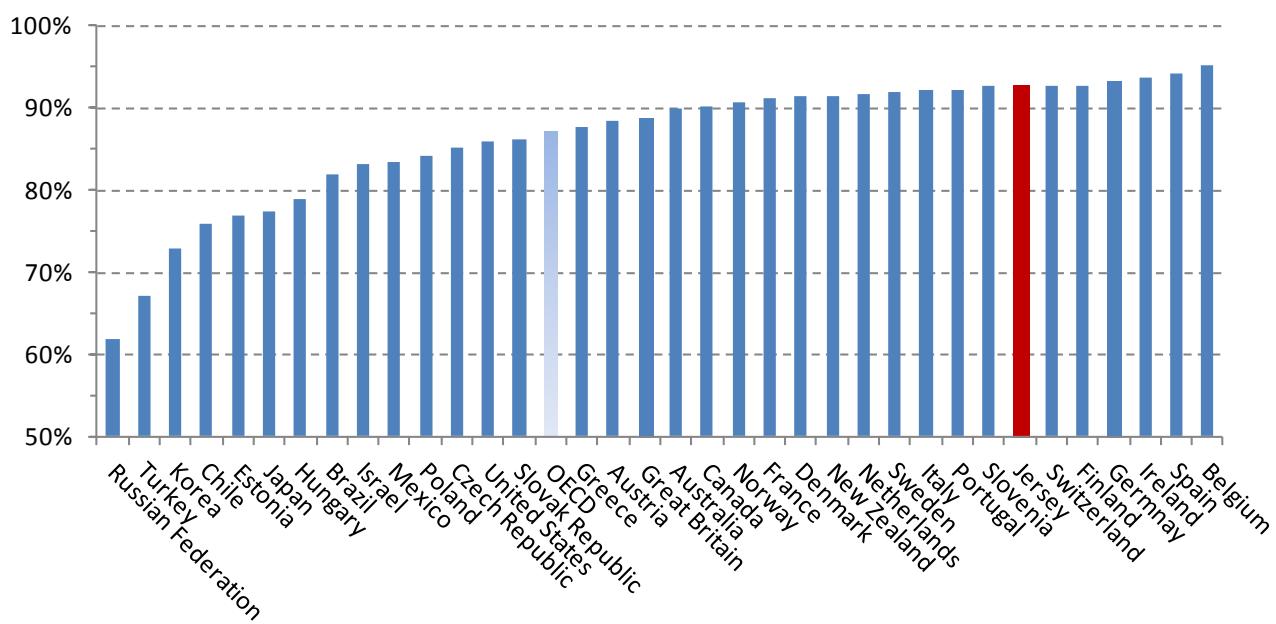
Quality of Life

Q1 Health status

Health status is a strong predictor of self-reported happiness and overall well-being. How long we live and whether our lives are free from illness and disability is of intrinsic value to people; health status is frequently ranked as one of the most valued aspects of people's lives according to OECD research. On a societal basis, countries that perform better on health indicators such as life expectancy and self-rated health generally also perform strongly on economic indicators such as average income and GDP, as well as reporting high overall life satisfaction.

Indicators

Q1.1   Life expectancy at birth (Primary indicator)

The measure of life expectancy presented in this report is the average number of years one can expect to live from birth for people born in calendar year 2011. Life expectancy is calculated using period life tables and reflects an un-weighted average of life expectancies calculated for males and females.

In smaller populations age-specific death rates can be subject to annual fluctuations in the number of deaths occurring in a given year; the indicator for Jersey therefore represents a three-year average of data collected in 2011 and the preceding two years (2009 and 2010).

Life expectancies calculated according to this methodology are age standardised, in order that they are not influenced by population age structure. The estimate for Jersey is therefore comparable to those calculated for OECD countries.

Q1.2   Infant mortality

Infant mortality is presented in this section as a secondary indicator of health status in a population, and provides an insight into whether death generally occurs at early or later stages of life. Infant mortality is calculated as the number of deaths to infants aged 1 year or under per 1,000 live births in a given year.

Due to the relatively small size of Jersey's population, infant death rates are subject to annual fluctuations. Data for Jersey in this section therefore represents a three-year average of infant deaths and lives births recorded during the period 2009 to 2011.

Q1.3   Overweight and obesity

Anthropometric measures of height and weight can be used to derive indicators of overweight and obesity. Both conditions are important to an individual's current health status as well as being risk factors for serious illnesses. In this report overweight and obesity are defined as the proportion of the population whose Body Mass Index (BMI; in units of kg/m^2) is between 25 and 30 or over 30, respectively, in accordance with World Health Organisation guidelines.

The proportion of adults who are classified as overweight or obese is calculated for Jersey from height and weight data collected by the 2010 Jersey Annual Social Survey; respondents were asked to report their own measurements.

Data for OECD countries comes either through health interview surveys, in which respondents are asked to report their own height and weight, or through health examinations that record objective information.

Q1.4 Self-reported health

Although subjective by nature, 'self-reported health' has the benefit of summarising a broad range of health dimensions into one single measure. Results from this indicator have been found to reliably predict future need for health care and mortality[15]. Data for Jersey is collected through the Jersey Annual Social Survey (2012) in which adults were asked to rate their general health as either 'excellent', 'very good', 'good', 'fair' or 'poor'.

Results

Q1.1 Life expectancy at birth

In 2011, life expectancy at birth in Jersey was 81 years (based on a three-year average of data collected from 2009 to 2011); someone born in Jersey in 2011 could expect to live, on average, 81 years.

Females in Jersey were expected to live about four years longer than males, on average: life expectancy at birth for females in 2011 was 83 years compared to 79 years for males.

Life expectancy at birth in Jersey and the OECD in 2009 can be seen in Figure 17.

Figure 17: Life expectancy at birth, Jersey and the OECD (2009);
 data for Jersey is a three-year annual average for 2007 to 2009

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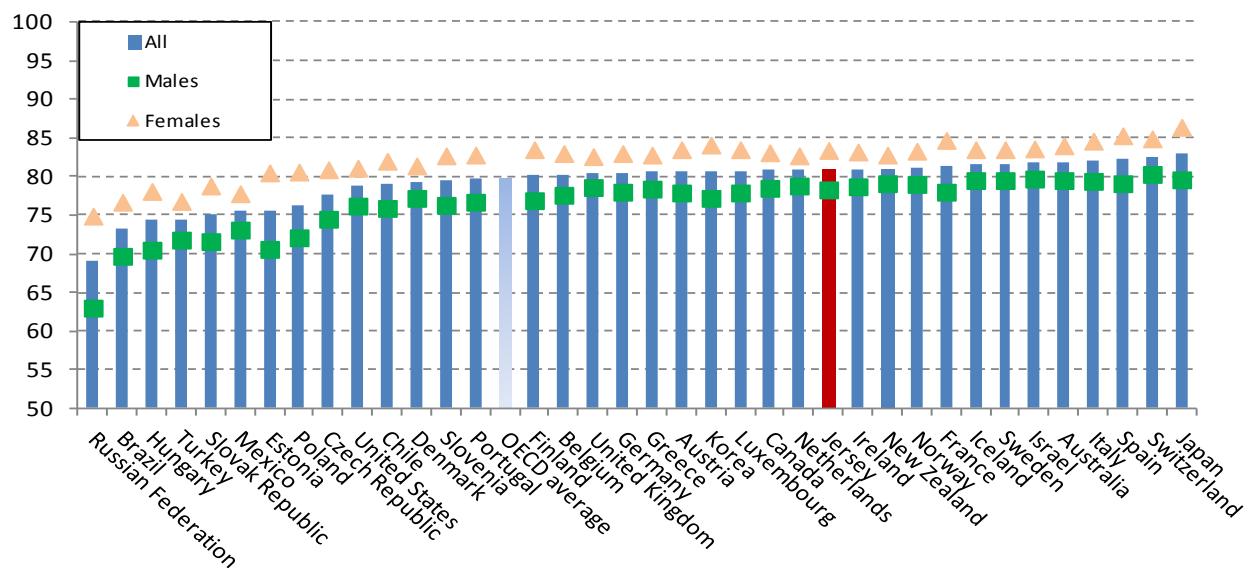
[15] Miilunpalo, S., I. Vouri, P. O., Pasanen, M. and Urponen, H. (1997)., "Self-rated Health Status as a Health Measure: The Predictive Value of Self-reported Health Status on the Use of Physician Services and on Mortality in the Working-age Population", *Journal of Clinical Epidemiology,* Vol. 50, pp. 90-93.

In 2009 life expectancy at birth differed significantly across the OECD, ranging from 83 years in Japan to 69 years in the Russian Federation. Three-fifths (62%) of OECD countries recorded life expectancy at birth exceeding 80 years. A second group of countries, which includes the United States and several Latin American and Eastern European countries, recorded life expectancies of between 70 and 80 years. The Russian Federation is the only OECD country to record a life expectancy at birth of below 70 years.

Q1.2 Infant mortality

In 2011 there were 1,075 live births in Jersey and 3 deaths of infants aged 1 year or under (excluding still births), corresponding to an infant mortality rate of 2.8 deaths per 1,000 live births. For the three-year period 2009 to 2011 the average infant mortality rate was 2.5 per 1,000 live births.

In 2009 infant mortality in Jersey was estimated at 3.6 deaths per 1,000 live births, calculated from a three-year average of data collected for 2007 to 2009.

Figure 18 shows infant mortality rates across Jersey and the OECD in 2009.

Figure 18: Infant mortality in Jersey and the OECD (2009);
deaths per 1,000 live births
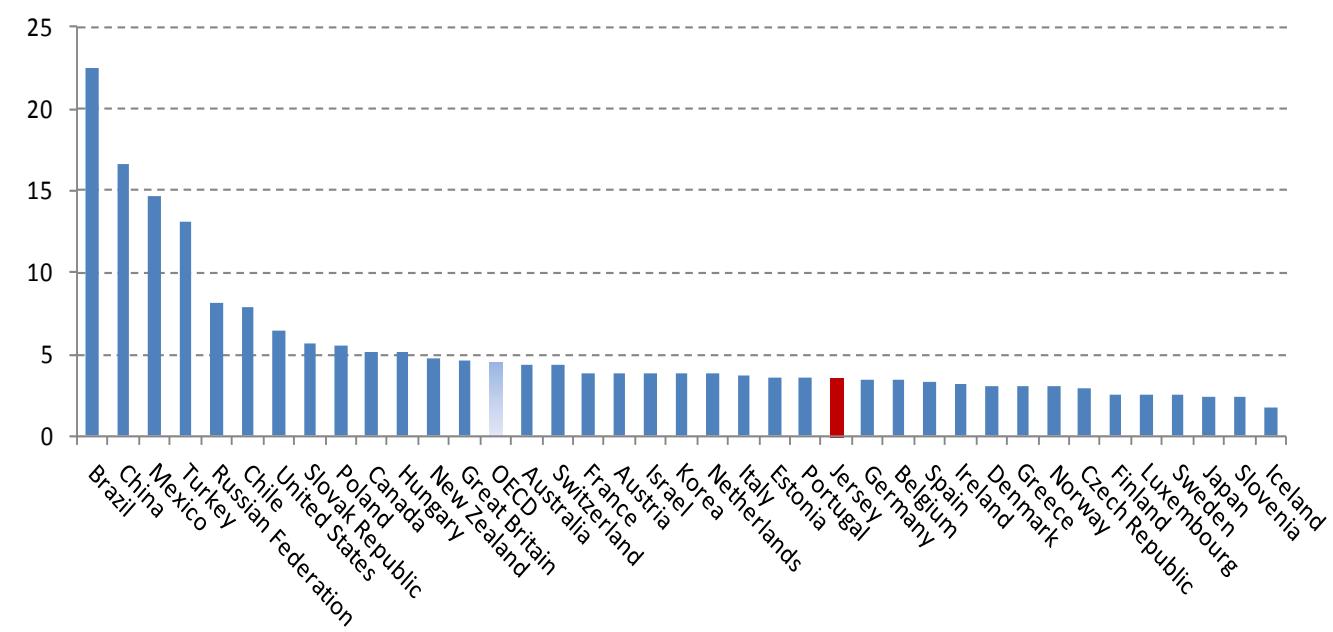
The number of infant deaths per 1,000 live births in Jersey (2009) was similar to the majority of OECD countries which reported infant mortality rates of less than 8 per 1,000. In a small group of OECD countries infant mortality rates were greater than 10 per 1,000, whilst in Brazil the number of infant deaths per 1,000 live births was greater than 20.

Q1.3 Overweight and obesity

In 2010, almost two-fifths (38%) of adults in Jersey were classified as overweight and almost a further fifth (18%) were obese (see Figure 19). The proportions of men classified as either overweight (47%) or obese (19%) were higher than the proportions of women (28% and 17%, respectively).

Figure 19: Body Mass Index of Jersey's adult population (2010)
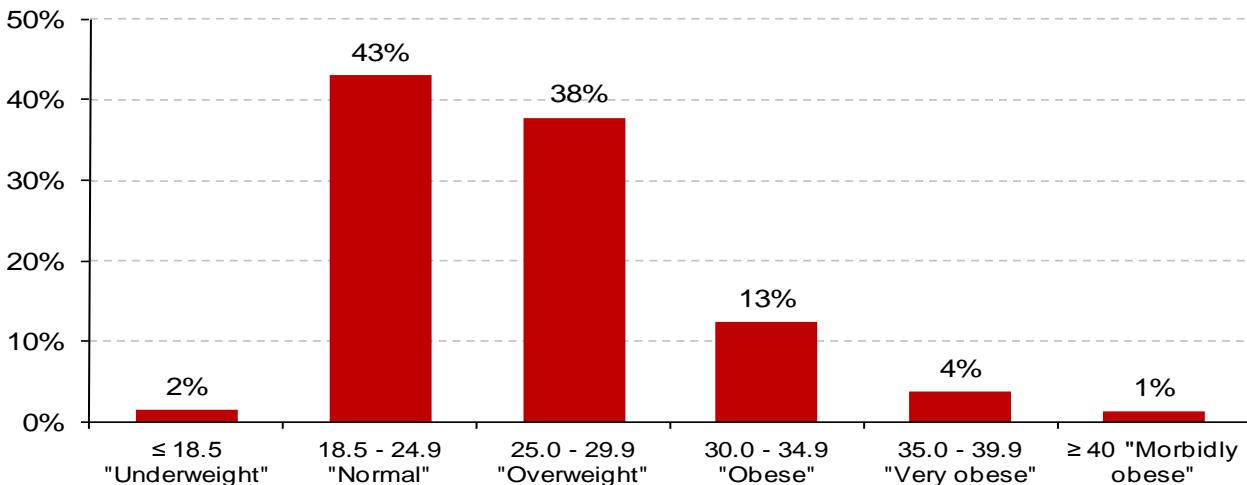
The proportion of adults classified as obese in Jersey (18%) was slightly greater than the average across the OECD (2009 or latest available year) but less than in Great Britain and Ireland, where almost a quarter (23%) of adults had BMI greater than 30 (see Figure 20). In South Korea and Japan fewer than 1 in 20 adults (5%) were classified as obese compared to around a third of all adults in the United States (34%) and Mexico (30%).

Figure 20: Obesity among adults in Jersey (2010) and the OECD (2009 or latest available year)
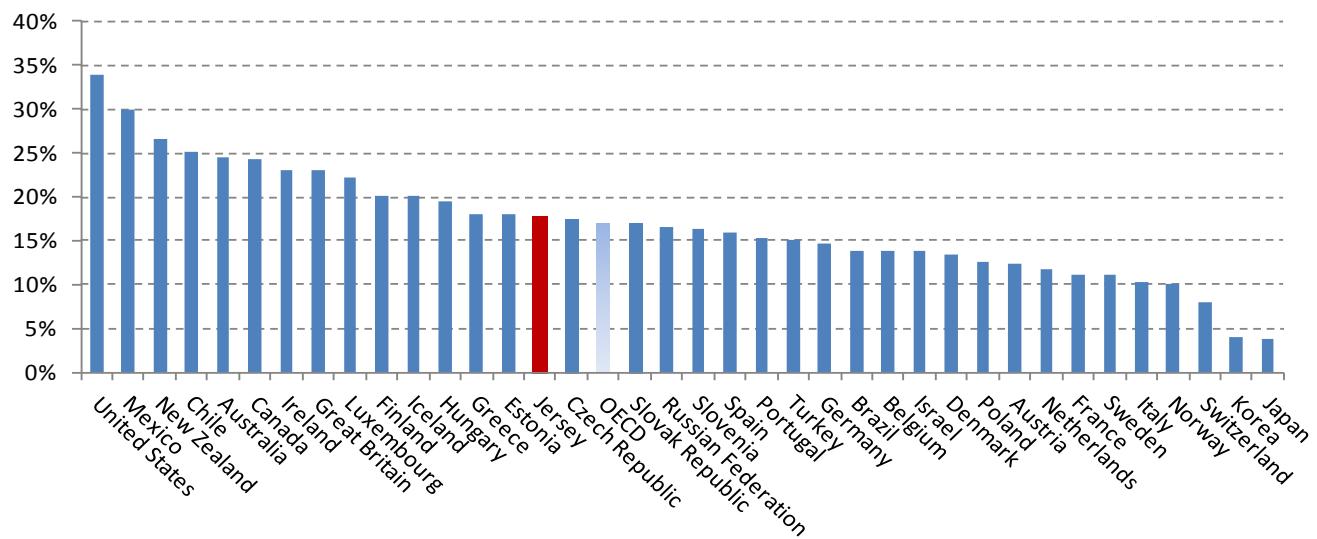
Q1.4 Self-reported health

Although life expectancy provides a measure of the average number of years that someone can expect to live, it cannot provide information on the health that an individual can expect to experience throughout their lifetime. In order to provide an indication of the average health status of residents, the Jersey Annual Social Survey asked respondents to rate their general health on a 5-point scale ranging from excellent to poor. Results provide an indication of the perceived health of Jersey residents.

Results of JASS 2012 showed that 85% of adults believed their general health status to be good or excellent, compared to around 15% (1 in 7) adults who reported their health status to be either fair (12%) or poor (3%). Self-reported health was better on average for females than males; 87% of females in Jersey rated their health as good or above compared to 83% of males (not a significant difference).

Table 3 shows the perceived health status of adults in Jersey (2012) broken down by age group.

Table 3: Self-reported health by age group (2012); *percentages*

	16-34years	35-44 years	45-54 years	55-64 years	65+ years	**All**
Good or above	89%	90%	84%	82%	75%	85%
Fair	7%	9%	12%	15%	21%	12%
Poor	4%	1%	4%	3%	5%	3%

The proportion of adults in Jersey who reported being in good health or better declined with age; around nine out of ten adults aged between 16 and 44 years reported being in good health, compared to three-quarters of adults aged over 65 years. The proportion of adults who reported being in fair health was three times greater in the 65 or over age category than for 16 to 34 year olds. Small proportions of adults in each age category (1% to 5%) reported being in poor health.

Figure 21 shows the proportion of adults reporting good health or better across the OECD and in Jersey. Self-reported health data for OECD countries is for 2010 or the latest available year.

Figure 21: Adults reporting good health or better in Jersey (2012) and the OECD (2010); *percentages*
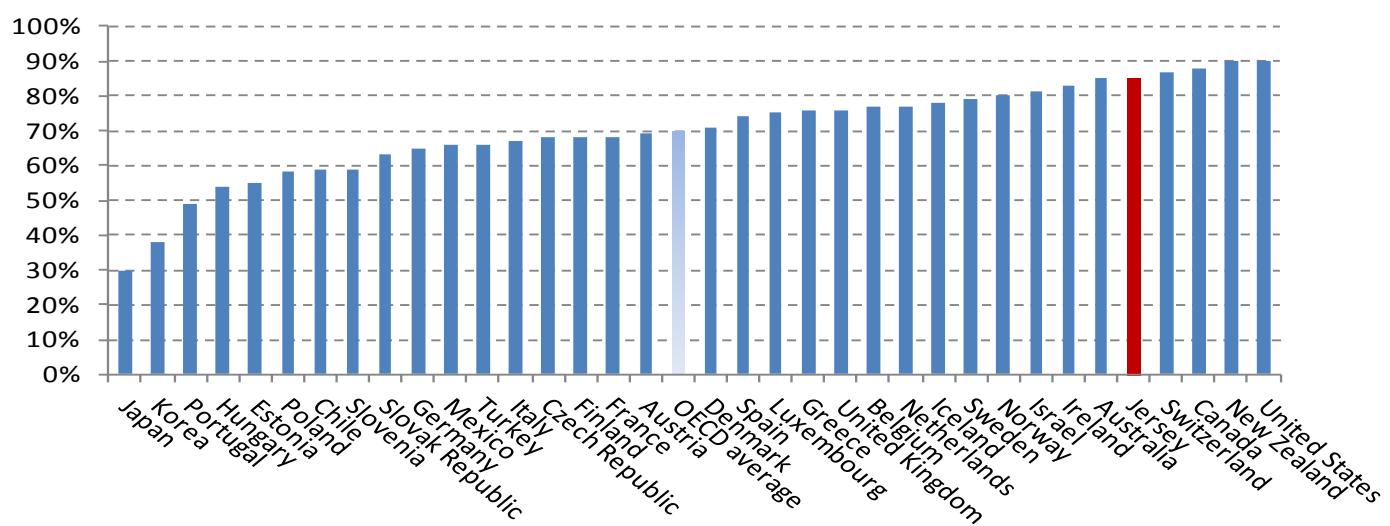
Although some caution must be taken when comparing self-reported health across jurisdictions due to differences in question wording and response scales, data collected shows that around 70% of the OECD adult population reported being in good health or better (2010). However, this proportion does varied across the OECD, with less than a third of the adult population of Japan (30%) reporting good health or better compared to nine out of ten adults (90%) in the United States.

Although many of the countries which recorded shorter life expectancies at birth also recorded smaller proportions of adults reporting good or better health, this correlation was not consistent; for example, in 2010 Japan recorded the longest life expectancy at birth (83 years) of all the OECD countries but had the smallest proportion of adults (30%) reporting good health or better, perhaps suggesting that increases in life expectancy do not necessarily translate into the extra years gained being spent in good health.

Q2 Work-life balance

Work-life balance is defined by the European Foundation as "a state of equilibrium between an individual's work and personal life"[16]. Finding a balance between time spent at work and time spent on family commitments and personal lives is considered central to overall well-being[17]. Spending too many hours a day at work is linked to problems with both physical and mental health, increased stress levels and a jeopardising of personal safety[18]; on the other hand, not working enough or at all can prevent people from earning enough income and may reduce self-worth and overall life satisfaction. Similarly, having adequate time for parental nurturing is important for child development[19].

Indicators

Q2.1   Long working hours (Primary indicator)

The indicator of long working hours presented in this section is the proportion of employees who, on average, work for more than 50 hour per week. The benchmark of 50 hours is chosen to represent 'long hours' as it has been found that when considering the amount of time which people spend on unpaid work (domestic chores etc), commuting and satisfying basic needs (eating, sleeping etc), those who work for more than 50 hours per week are likely to have only a few hours left per day for other activities. Furthermore, in countries where there are regulations on maximum working hours individuals are generally limited to 48 hours per week.

Data for Jersey was collected in the 2011 Census and excludes workers who are self-employed.

Data for OECD countries is collected in Labour Force surveys conducted in 2010 or the latest available year.

Q2.2   Employment rate of mothers with children of compulsory school age

When children are very young (0 to 4 years) many mothers prefer not to work in order to spend time with their offspring. When children reach compulsory school age many mothers wish to return or enter the labour market but may be restricted by child care costs and school schedules. The employment rate of females (aged 25 to 54) with children of compulsory school age (5 to 16 years) is an indirect indicator of the capacity of mothers to balance employment and family responsibilities. Comparing this rate with the employment rate of all women (in the 25 to 54 age range) provides an insight into maternal work-life balance.

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[16] Definition of the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions (http://www.eurofound.europa.eu).

[17] Duxbury, L. and C. Higgins (2001) "Work-Life Balance in the New Millennium: Where are we? Where do we need to go?" *Canadian Policy Research Networks,* Paper No. 7314, Ottawa.

[18] Spurgeoan, A., Harrington, J. and Cooper, C. (1997), "Health and safety problems associated with long working hours: A review of the current position", *Occupational and Environmental Medicine*, Vol. 54, No.6, pp 367-374.

[19] Hill, J. L., Waldfogel, J., Brooks-Gunn, J. Han. W.J. (2005). Maternal Employment and Child Development: A Fresh Look Using Newer Methods. *Developmental Psychology*, Vol 41(6), 833-850.

Data for Jersey was collected in the 2011 census. Data for OECD countries is collected in Labour Force surveys (2009) and represents the maternal employment rate of mothers (aged 25 to 54) whose youngest child is aged between 6 and 14 years (inclusive).

Results

Q2.1 Long working hours

According to data collected in the Jersey Census the proportion of employees (excluding those who are self-employed) working 50 hours or more was 5.6% in 2011. About two-fifths (41%) of employees reported working between 35 and 39 hours, whilst a third (33%) reported working between 40 and 49 hours per week (see Table 4).

Table 4: Hours worked by employees (excluding the self employed) in Jersey (2011); *percentages*

Number of hours worked	<25	25 to 34	35 to 39	40 to 49	>=50
Proportion of employees	11	10	41	33	6

Figure 22 shows the proportion of employees who normally worked for 50 hours or more per week across the OECD. Data for OECD countries is for 2010 or the latest available year.

The proportion of employees in Jersey working 50 hours or more (5.6%) was smaller than in the United Kingdom (11.7%). Across the OECD around 1 in 10 employees (9.5%) worked long hours (50 hours or more); however, proportions varied considerably across countries.

Figure 22: Percentage of employees (excluding the self-employed) working for 50 hours or more per week in Jersey (2011) and the OECD (2010 or latest available year)
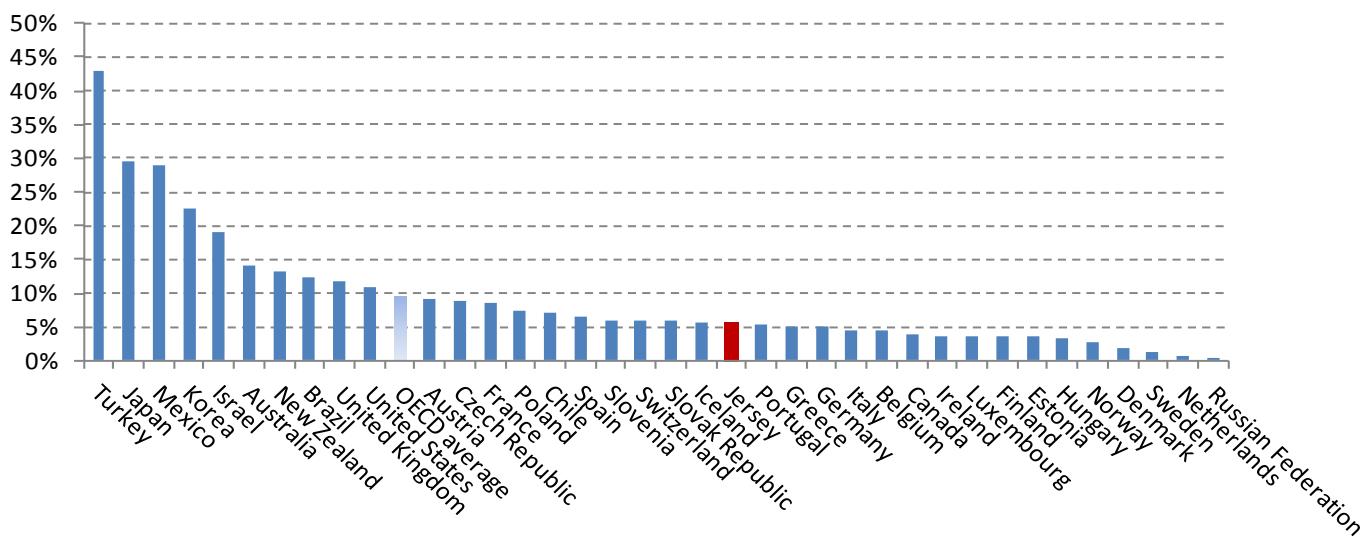
In Turkey more than two-fifths (43%) of employees reported working for 50 or more hours per week, the highest proportion in the OECD. In contrast, the proportion of employees who reported working long hours was less than 1% in the Russian Federation and the Netherlands.

Q2.2 Employment rate of mothers with children of compulsory school age

At the time of the 2011 Census, almost three-quarters (74%) of mothers (aged 25 to 54 years) in Jersey, with at least one child aged between 5 and 16 (compulsory school age), was in employment. This maternal employment rate compares to an overall employment rate of women aged 25 to 54 of 80%.

Figure 23 shows that across the OECD maternal employment ranged from a low of 24% in Turkey to a high of 87% in Iceland (2009). The average employment rate across the OECD of mothers with children of compulsory school age was 67%. This compares to an average female employment rate (for ages 25 to 54 years) of 71%.

Figure 23: Employment rate of mothers (aged 25 to 54) with children of compulsory school age in Jersey (2011) and the OECD (2009); *percentages*
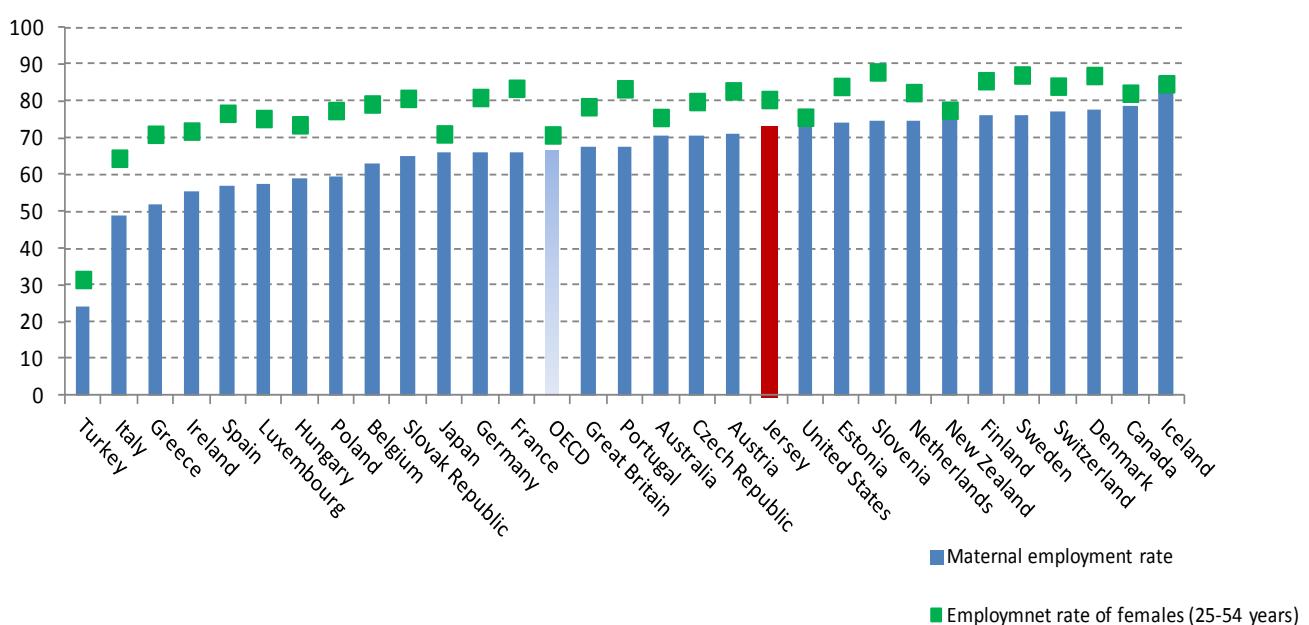
Q3 Education and skills

Education and skills have both intrinsic value for personal well-being and the prosperity of a nation[20]. On an individual level, higher levels of education and skill development are thought to increase the number and type of opportunities which become available throughout a lifetime whilst increasing perceived control over one's own life[21]. Similarly, learning has indirect effects on individual well-being by impacting on material living conditions; higher educational status generally leads to higher earnings and great employability[22]. On a societal basis, jurisdictions which promote high educational attainment often perform well on indicators of productivity and economic growth[23] and demonstrate lower levels of criminality and stronger social cohesion.

Indicators

Q3.1   Education attainment (Primary indicator)

The primary indicator presented in this section represents a measure of education attainment, calculated as the percentage of the population aged 25 to 64 who have completed at least an upper-secondary education. In Jersey, an upper-secondary education refers to GCSEs, intermediate and advanced GNVQs, NVQ levels 1, 2 and 3 and modern apprenticeships and equivalents. Data for Jersey was collected in the 2011 Census in which residents were asked to report the educational qualifications which they had attained to date.

Q3.2   Life-long learning

Although the bulk of most people's education is undertaken in schools and universities, many people continue to learn and acquire new skills after leaving compulsory education. To provide an indication of the proportion of people that continue to learn after leaving school, results from a set of questions in the 2010 Jersey Annual Social Survey are presented. In this survey, adults were asked whether they had taken action to improve their reading, writing or numeric skills since leaving school and the reasons why they had taken this action.

Results

Q3.1 Educational attainment

In 2011, three-quarters (76%) of adults aged 25 to 64 in Jersey held at least an upper-secondary education qualification (as recorded in the 2011 census), corresponding to around 43,000 people. The proportion of females (79%) holding such a qualification was higher than that of males (73%).

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[20] OECD (2011a), "Towards an OECD Skills Strategy", Document Presented at the OECD Ministerial Council Meeting, Paris.

[21] OECD (2011), How's Life?: *Measuring well-being*, OECD Publishing. http://dx.doi/10.1787/9789264121164-en

[22] Boarini, R. and Staruss, H. (2010), "What is the Private Return to Tertiary Education? New Evidence from 21 OECD Countries", *OCED Journal of Economic Studies*, Volume 2010.

[23] Hanushek, E. A. & Woessmann, L. (2010), *The High Cost of Low Educational Performance. The long Run Impact of Improving PISA Outcomes*, OECD Publishing 2010.

In Jersey in 2011, more than four-fifths (83%) of young people (aged 25 to 34) had achieved at least an upper-secondary educational qualification. The proportion of females in this age group with such qualifications (86%) was greater than that of males (81%).

In a complementary analysis, around a third (35%) of adults aged 25 to 64 had completed a tertiary education programme; in Jersey tertiary education refers to higher education either at, below or above degree level. The 2011 Census recorded that almost two-fifths (38%) of females had completed some form of higher education compared to a third of males (33%).

Over the last decade (2001 to 2011) the proportion of adults (aged 25 to 64) in Jersey with at least an upper-secondary educational qualification has increased by 13 percentage points, from 63% in 2001 to 76% in 2011. This increase in educational attainment is largely attributable to an increased number of tertiary graduates; the number of 25 to 64 year olds who had completed a higher education qualification in 2011 was three times greater than in 2001, whilst the number with an upper-secondary educational qualification has remained relatively stable.

Figure 24: **Population having attained at least an upper-secondary educational qualification in Jersey (2011) and the OECD (2009);** *percentage of the population aged 25 to 64*
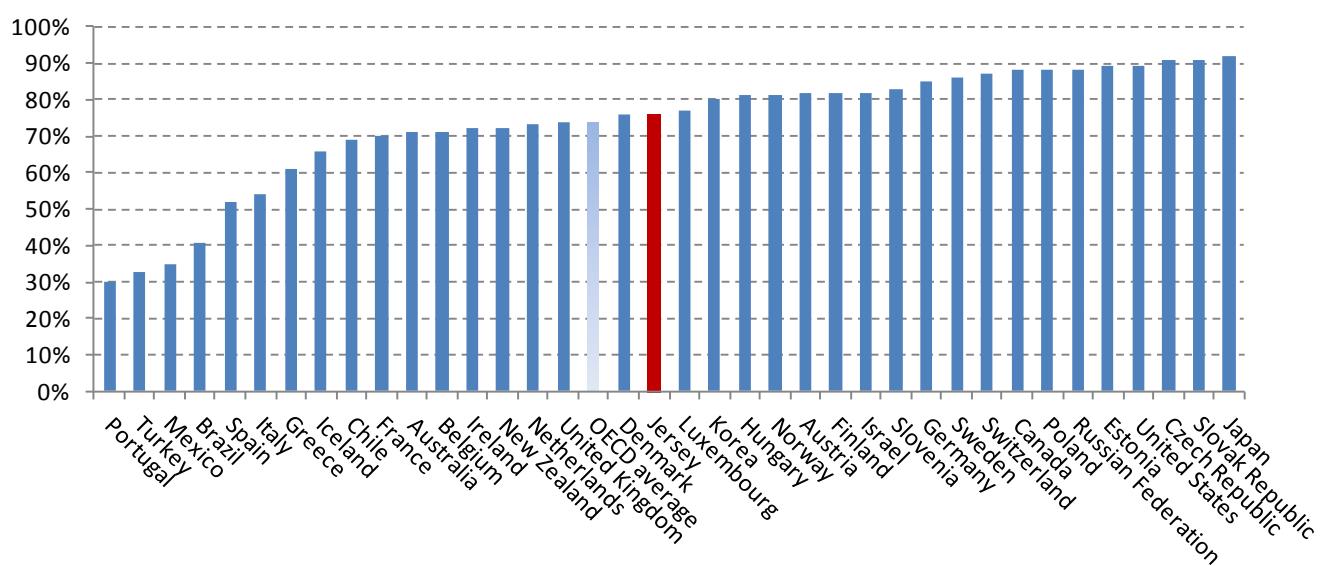
Figure 24 shows that in 2009 levels of educational attainment varied considerably across the OECD countries; more than 90% of adults aged 25 to 64 years in the Czech Republic, the Slovak Republic and Japan had attained at least an upper-secondary educational qualification, compared with only around a third of adults in this age range in Portugal and Turkey.

The proportion of adults (aged 25-64) to have achieved at least an upper-secondary educational qualification in Jersey (76%) was similar to that in Denmark (76%) and Luxembourg (77%), and similar to the average proportion across the OECD (74%).

Q3.2 Life-long learning

In the 2010 Jersey Annual Social Survey, adults were asked to report whether they had taken any action to improve their skills in reading, writing, maths or numbers since leaving school. Results of this question are shown in Table 5.

Table 5: Proportion of adults in Jersey who reported having taken action to improve reading, writing or numerical skills since leaving school (2010); *percentages*

	Yes	No	Total
Reading	18	82	100
Writing	20	80	100
Maths or number	19	81	100

In 2010 around 1 in 5 adults in Jersey reported having taken some action to improve their reading, writing and maths or number skills since leaving school.

Of those who did report having taken action to improve such skills, the majority said they had done so for work purposes, corresponding to around three-fifths (61%) of those answering "yes" to improving their skills in writing and over two-thirds (69%) for maths/number skills. In contrast, almost two-thirds (64%) of people who reported having taken action to improve their reading skills said that they had done so for personal reasons.

Q4 Social connections

How often we socialise, and the quality of our personal relationships, are integral to overall well-being. Studies have shown that activities are typically more enjoyable when they are undertaken in the company of others[24] and time spent with friends is associated with a higher average level of positive feelings than all other activities. The social support network can provide emotional and material support in times of need or during illness[25] whilst also creating access to jobs, services and material opportunities. Social networks have also been found to promote good mental health and provide a buffer against psychological stress.

Indicators

Q4.1   Social support network (Primary indicator)

This indicator represents the proportion of people who responded positively 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?" Although data from this indicator cannot inform about the *quality* of personal relationships, it does provide an insight into the perceived social support network. Data for Jersey was collected in the 2012 Jersey Annual Social Survey.

The same question was also asked of people in OECD countries by the Gallup World Poll, a survey on opinions and behaviours conducted in 160 countries worldwide. In this survey all respondents are given the same questionnaire, thereby facilitating cross-country comparisons; sample sizes in the Gallop World Poll are, however, relatively small.

Q4.2   Frequency of social contact

The average frequency of social contact for Jersey residents is calculated as the proportion of adults who report socialising (face to face) with people outside of their household at least once a week. Data was collected in JASS 2012, which asked respondents to report whether the frequency of their social interactions is daily, weekly, monthly, rarely or never. Although data on the frequency of social contact does exist for OECD countries, inconsistencies in question wording mean that data for this indicator is not comparable.

Results

Q4.1 Social support network

In the 2012 Jersey Annual Social Survey, 97% of people reported having a friend or relative who they could count on to help whenever needed; over four-fifths (86%) reported having someone in Jersey and a further one in ten (11%) said that they had a friend or relative outside of Jersey who they could count on. A small proportion (3%) of Islanders reported not having anyone to count on in times of need.

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[24] Kahneman, D. and Krueger, A. (2006), "Developments in the Measurement of Subjective Well-being", *Journal of Economic Perspectives*, 20:1, pp. 3-24

[25] Seeman, t. (1996)., "Social ties and health: The benefits of social integration", *Annals of Epidemiology*, 6:5, pp. 442-451.

The social support network of residents in Jersey, as measured through this indicator, was similar across genders (a difference of less than 2 percentage points). However, having a friend or relative to count on appeared to be affected by employment status. Individuals who reported being unemployed and seeking work and those who were unable to work due to long-term sickness or disability were less likely to have someone to count on; around one in ten individuals who were unemployed (10%) or who were unable to work (8%) reported having no friends or family to count on when needed.

On average, across the OECD, nine out of ten adults (91%) reported having someone to count on in times of need (2011 or nearest available year). According to this indicator social networks were weakest in Turkey, where three out of every ten adults reported not having anybody to rely on in times of need, followed by South Korea and Mexico which both recorded proportions of around a fifth of the adult population. In contrast, in Ireland and Iceland 98% of adults reported having a friend or relative to count on in times of need.

Figure 25: Percentage of people who have relatives or friends they can count on for help in times of need in Jersey (2012) and the OECD (2011 or nearest available year)
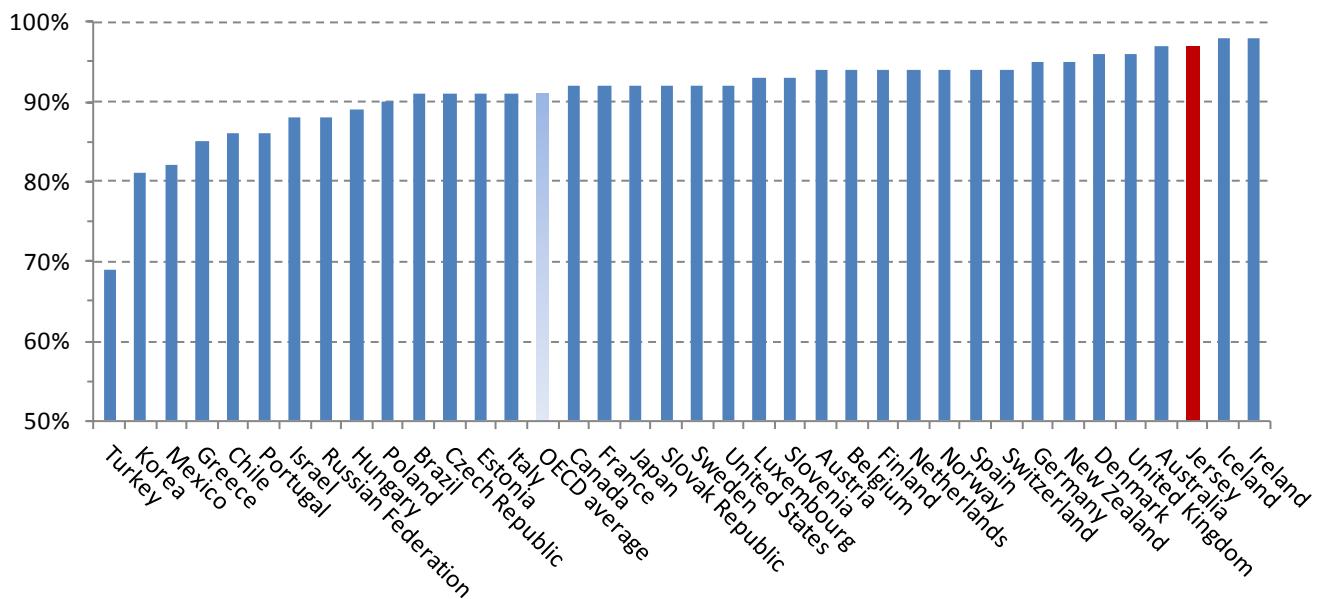
Q4.2 Frequency of social contact

In 2012, respondents of JASS were asked how frequently they socialised with friends and relatives outside of their own household. Results of the survey showed that half (50%) of adult Islanders (aged 16 or over) socialised face to face with people outside of their own household on a daily basis. A further third (34%) reported socialising weekly whilst around one in seven (15%) socialised monthly or rarely. Only a very small proportion of adults (1%) reported never socialising with friends and relatives outside of their own household.

Q5 Civic engagement

The OECD defines civic engagement as "the activities that people perform to express their political voice and contribute to the political functioning of society". Increased civic involvement has been linked to an increased sense of community[26] and sense of personal efficacy[27]. In addition to the positive effects that civic engagement can have on individual well-being, a link to enhanced effectiveness of public policy has also been established[28]; when individuals engage in political activities their needs and preferences are openly expressed which in turn can help to inform public policy.

Indicators

Q5.1 Voter turnout (Primary indicator)

Voter turnout is both an indication of citizen participation in the political process and of public trust in Government[29]. Higher voter turnout ensures the accountability of governments and public institutions and increases the chance that the political system will reflect the attitudes of a large number of individuals. Analysis of voter demographics has shown that young people are less likely vote in general elections than older people[30]. Low voter turnout in young people has been linked to political apathy, a feeling of powerlessness, a lack of political knowledge and awareness and a dislike for candidates and issues[31].

The measure of voter turnout presented in this report is the total number of votes cast in a major general election (those that attract the greatest number of votes) as a proportion of the number of people who are registered to vote. Voter turnout for Jersey represents the number of votes cast in the October 2011 election for Senators, Deputies and Connétables as a proportion of the total number of people registered to vote in Jersey at that time. Data is compiled by the States Greffe.

Although it is possible to compare the voter turnout rate in Jersey with that recorded in OECD countries and other major economies, variations may reflect differences in institutional features of the voting system as well as differences in civic engagement. In some countries it is either compulsory to vote, in practice or in principle or both; compulsory voting generally results in higher political participation.

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[26] Albanesi, C., Cicognani, E. & Zani, B. (2007), Sense of community, civic engagement and social well-being in Italian adolescent, *Journal of Community & Applied Social Psychology,* 17 (5), 387-406.

[27] Barber, B. R. (1984), *Strong Democracy: Participatory Politics for a New Age*, University of California Press.

[28] Knack, S. (2002), "Social capital and the quality of government: Evidence from the States", *American Journal of Political Science*, Vol. 46, pp. 772-785.

[29] OECD (2011). How's Life? Measuring well-being, OECD Publishing. http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264121164-en

[30] Mori, I. (2010). *How Britain Voted in 2010.*
http://www.ipsosmori.com/researchpublications/researcharchive/poll.aspx?oltemid=2613&view=wide

[31] Bynner, J. & Ashford, S. (1994), Politics and participation: Some antecedents of young people's attitudes to the political system and political activity, *European Journal of Social Psychology,* 24, 223-236.

Registration procedures have also been found to affect voter turnout rates; in some countries registration processes are complex, with both citizens and residents having to take active steps with a central registry in order to be able to vote.

Q5.2   Attitudes towards the States of Jersey

A complementary indicator of civic engagement in Jersey is the exploration of public attitudes towards the services provided by the States of Jersey, as measured in the 2010 Jersey Annual Social Survey. In this survey adults were asked about their thoughts on having a voice and becoming actively involved with the States of Jersey. Results facilitate the comparison of attitudes over different demographic groups. Although a comparable measure does not exist for OECD countries, this indicator can provide a picture of the desire of Jersey residents to engage in political activities which can complement the measure of voter turnout presented in this report.

Results

Q5.1 Voter turnout

Voter turnout can be measured in two ways; either as the number of total votes cast by the <u>voting-age population</u> or as the number of votes cast by the <u>population registered to vote</u>.

At the time of the States of Jersey elections in October 2011: 61,987 people were <u>registered to vote</u> and 28,212 people <u>voted</u>, corresponding to a voter turnout rate of almost 46%.

Calculating voter turnout as the proportion of the <u>population aged 16 or over</u> (the voting age population) that voted in the October 2011 election gives a rate of 36%.

In a complementary analysis, respondents of the Jersey Annual Social Survey (2012) were asked whether they had voted in the 2011 elections. Results showed a clear age trend where younger age groups were less likely to report having voted than older age groups (see Figure 26). The proportion of respondents aged 55 to 64 (70%) or over 65 (79%) who reported having voted was more than double that of 16 to 34 year olds (33%).

Figure 26: Proportion of each age group reporting having voted in the October 2011 Jersey elections
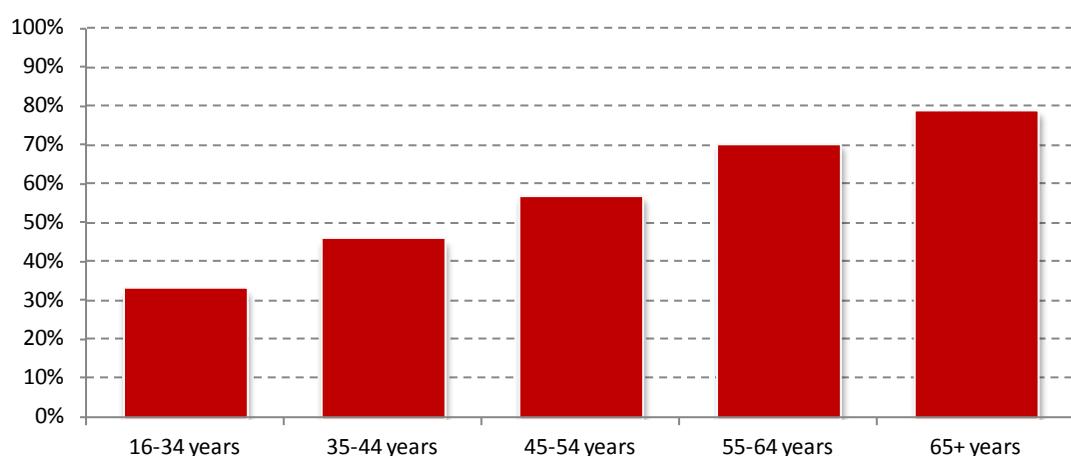
Comparing voter turnout in Jersey (46%) with that recorded in OECD countries (latest available year) shows that that voter turnout in Jersey was lower than that recorded in all other countries for which data is available (see Figure 27).

Figure 27: Percentage of people who voted in a major election, as the proportion of the registered population (in the latest year for which data is available)
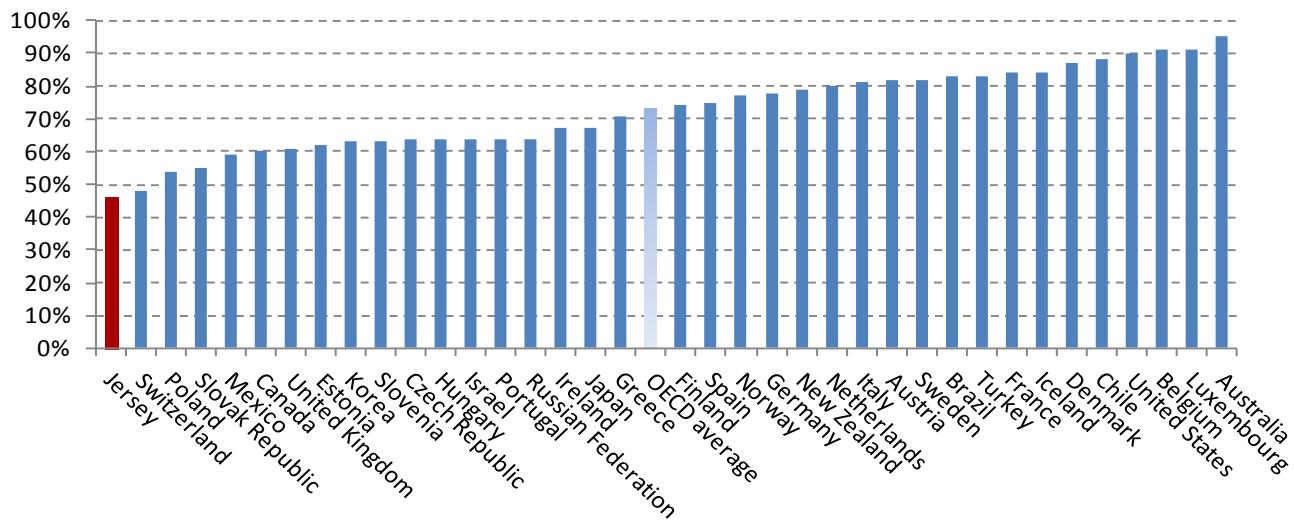
Electoral participation varied considerably across OECD countries; Australia (95%), Luxembourg and Belgium (91%) recorded the highest voter turnout rates, at more than double the rate recorded in Jersey; it should be noted that in these countries voting is compulsory.

Q5.2 Attitudes towards the States of Jersey

In the 2010 Jersey Annual Social Survey adults were asked about their attitudes towards services provides by the States of Jersey. Almost half (49%) of respondents said that they liked to know what the States of Jersey were doing but did want to be involved; a further 15% said that they were not interested as long as the States of Jersey were doing their job (see Figure 28).

Figure 28: Attitudes towards services provided by the Sates of Jersey (2010)
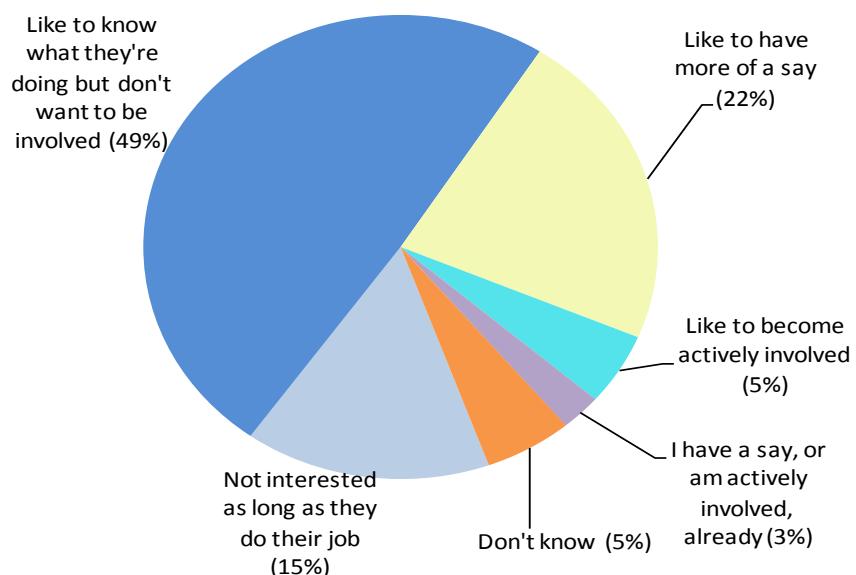
Attitudes towards the services provided by States of Jersey differed according to age and educational attainment. In 2010 the greatest proportion of respondents who reported wanting more of a say were those aged 16 to 34 (29%). In comparison, four-fifths of adults aged 65 or over either did not want to be involved or were not interested as long as the States of Jersey were doing their job (Figure 29).

Figure 29: Attitudes towards the services provided by the States of Jersey, by age (2010)

Legend:
- I'm not interested as long as they do their job
- I'd like to know what they're doing, but don't want to be involved
- I'd like to have more of a say
- I'd like to become actively involved
- I have a say, or am actively involved, already
- Don't know
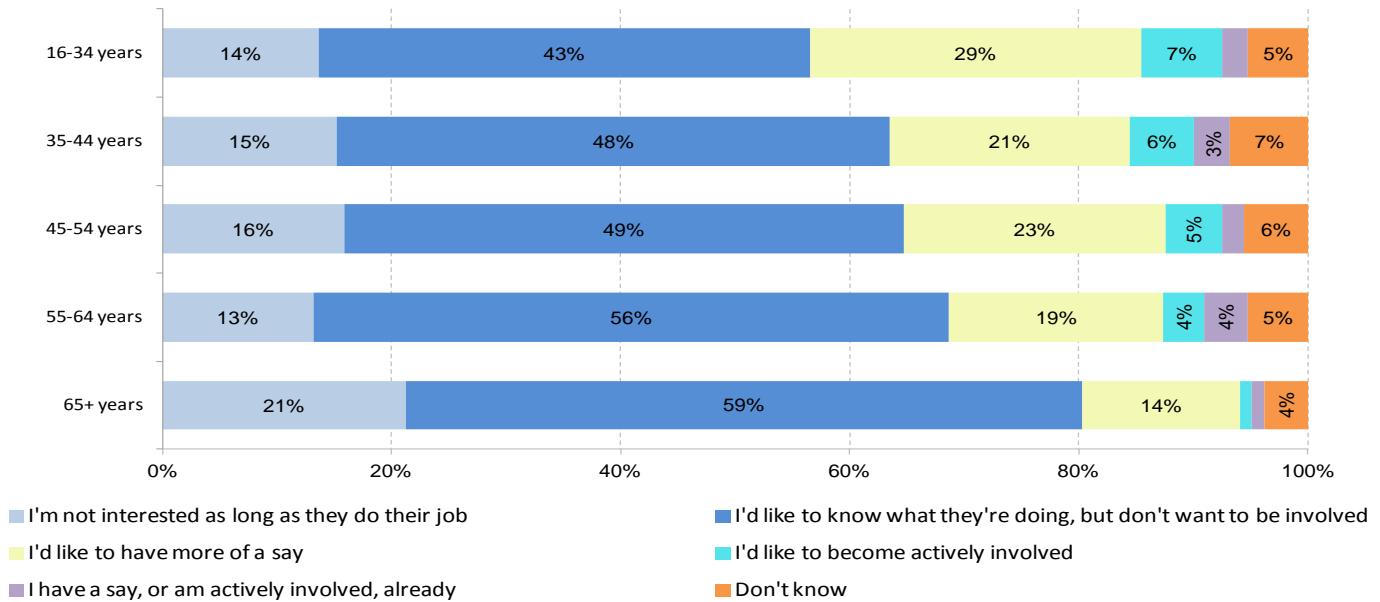
Around a third of adults with higher level (33%) or secondary level (31%) educational qualifications said that they would like more of a say or would like to become actively involved. In contrast, only one in eight individuals (13%) with no formal qualifications wished to increase their political voice or become involved; three-quarters (76%) of such individuals said that they were not interested or did not want any involvement.

Figure 30: Attitudes towards services provided by the States of Jersey, by education (2010)

Legend:
- Not interested as long as they are doing they're job
- Like to know what they are doing but do not want to be involved
- Like to have more of a say
- Like to become actively involved
- A have a say, or am actively involved, already
- Don't know
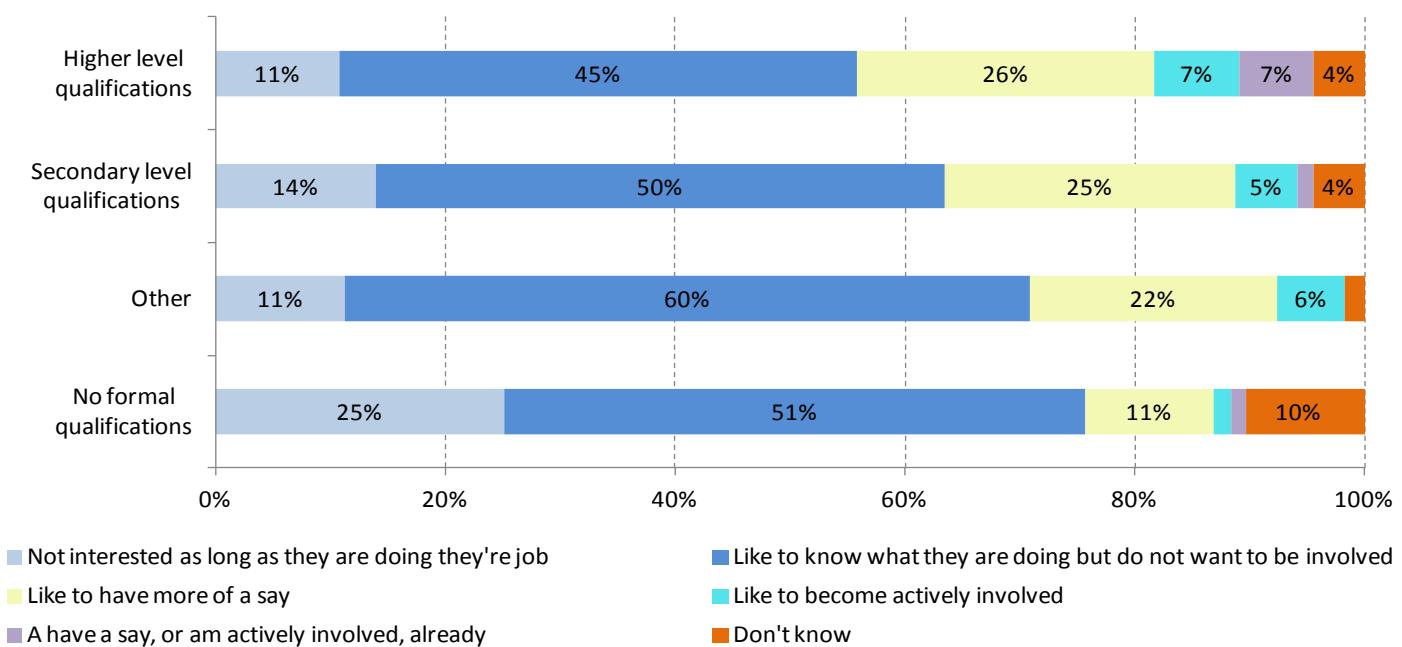
Q6 Environmental quality

Our physical environment can have a direct effect on our health and overall wellbeing[32]; environmental factors play a role in 80% of major diseases and a fourth of all deaths worldwide are caused by poor environmental conditions[33]. For example, high levels of air pollution in urban areas have been linked to a range of health problems from minor eye irritation to chronic respiratory diseases. Similarly a lack of access to clean drinking water can cause diarrhoea and cholera and is responsible for around four-fifths of all illnesses in developing countries[34].

In addition to the effects that our environment can have on our physical health, living in surroundings which are unspoilt and aesthetically pleasing can provide a source of satisfaction[35] and improve our mental wellbeing[36]. People also benefit from having environmental services such as access to green spaces which can facilitate the performance of physical activity and enjoyment of free time in the company of others; studies show that green spaces in urban areas encourage social interaction, alleviate crime and generate a sense of place[37].

Indicators

Q6.1   Urban air quality (Primary indicator)

The measure of urban air quality in this report is the mean annual concentration of fine particles in the air (measured in micrograms per cubic meter). Fine particles refer to small liquid and solid particles which float in the air, such as sulphate, nitrate, elemental carbon, organic carbon matter, sodium and ammonium ions that are less than 10 microns in diameter (PM_{10}).

In Jersey in 2011 the concentration of PM_{10} was measured at two sites in St Helier (near the Central Market and at Havre des Pas) using Turnkey Osiris Particle Monitors designed to continuously monitor particle levels. *It should be noted that the Turnkey Osiris units used in Jersey are <u>not</u> EU type approved as per the reference method specified in the Air Quality Regulations 2007 and are designed to provide screening measurements which provide an indication as to whether further monitoring should be completed. Comparisons of results for Jersey on this indicator with that of the U.K. and other countries must be made with caution (see Note 3).*

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[32] Kahn, M. E. (2002), Demographic change and the demand for environmental regulation, *Journal of Policy Analysis and Management*, Vol. 21, No. 1, pp. 45-62

[33] Prüss-Üstün, A. & Corvalán, C. (2006), *Preventing disease through healthy environments: Towards an estimate of the environmental burden of disease*. World Health Organisation, Geneva.

[34] Lenntech (1998-2013), *Waterborne diseases*, http://www.lenntech.com/library/diseases/diseases/waterborne diseases.htm

[35] Balestra, C. & Sultan, J. (2012), *"Home sweet home: The determinants of residential satisfaction and its relation with well-being",* OECD Statistics Directorate Working Papers (forthcoming), OECD, Paris.

[36] Brown, C. & Grant, M. (2007), "Natural medicine for planners", *Town and Country Planning*, Vol. 76, 2, 67-68

[37] Armstrong, D. (2000), A survey of community gardens in upstate New York: Implications for health and promotion and community development, *Health & Place*, 6, 4, 319-327.

Urban air quality in OECD countries represents population-weighted annual average PM_{10} concentrations; readings are obtained from residential areas of cities larger than 100,000 inhabitants and are weighted according to urban population size.

Q6.2 Access to green spaces

This indicator for Jersey represents the percentage of people who report that the lack of open space in their neighbourhood is either a problem or a major problem (as recorded by the 2006 round of the Jersey Annual Social Survey).

Results for OECD countries for this indicator refer to the proportion of people who report having "very many reasons" or "many reasons" to complain about the lack of access to recreational or green zones. Data is collected in the European Quality of Life Survey 2008, a non-official household survey limited to European countries.

Due to differences in question wording, results of Jersey and European countries for this indicator are not comparable.

Results

Q6.1 Urban air quality

In 2011 (the most recent year for which annual data is available), the mean urban concentration of fine particles (PM_{10}) in Jersey was 29.9 micrograms per cubic meter ($\mu g/m^3$); at the Central Market and Havre Des Pas sites the calendar year averages were $32.5\mu g/m^3$ and $27.3\mu g/m^3$, respectively[38]. Although both sites complied with the stage 1 EU directive that the annual mean value of PM_{10} should not exceed $40\mu g/m^3$, they both failed the stage 2 objective of $20\mu g/m^3$ to be achieved by 2010.

In 2008, the annual mean urban concentration of PM_{10} in Jersey was $29.4\mu g/m^3$. This concentration was generally higher than at U.K. comparison sites in that year and was broadly similar to those found in London and Bristol[39]. PM_{10} levels at the Central Market and Havre Des Pas sites were generally what would be expected at a roadside location in the U.K.

Across the OECD (2008), many countries had PM_{10} concentrations above the EU stage 2 objective of $20\mu g/m^3$ (see Figure 31), with an average concentration of $22\mu g/m^3$ observed across the OECD. The highest concentration of fine particles was seen in Chile where the annual mean PM_{10} level was at least three times that of the majority of other countries.

[38] Osiris monitors both at the Market and Havre Des Pas sites were out of commission for repair or service for approximately 50 days of the year; calendar year averages are therefore based on 85% data capture.

[39] Irving, A.M. (2012), *Report on Turnkey Osiris Particle Results at the Market and Havre des Pas Sites in Jersey for 2011,* http://www.gov.je/Government/Pages/StatesReports.aspx?ReportID=722

Figure 31: Urban air concentrations of particulate matter in Jersey and the OECD (2008);

PM_{10} concentrations, micrograms per cubic meter
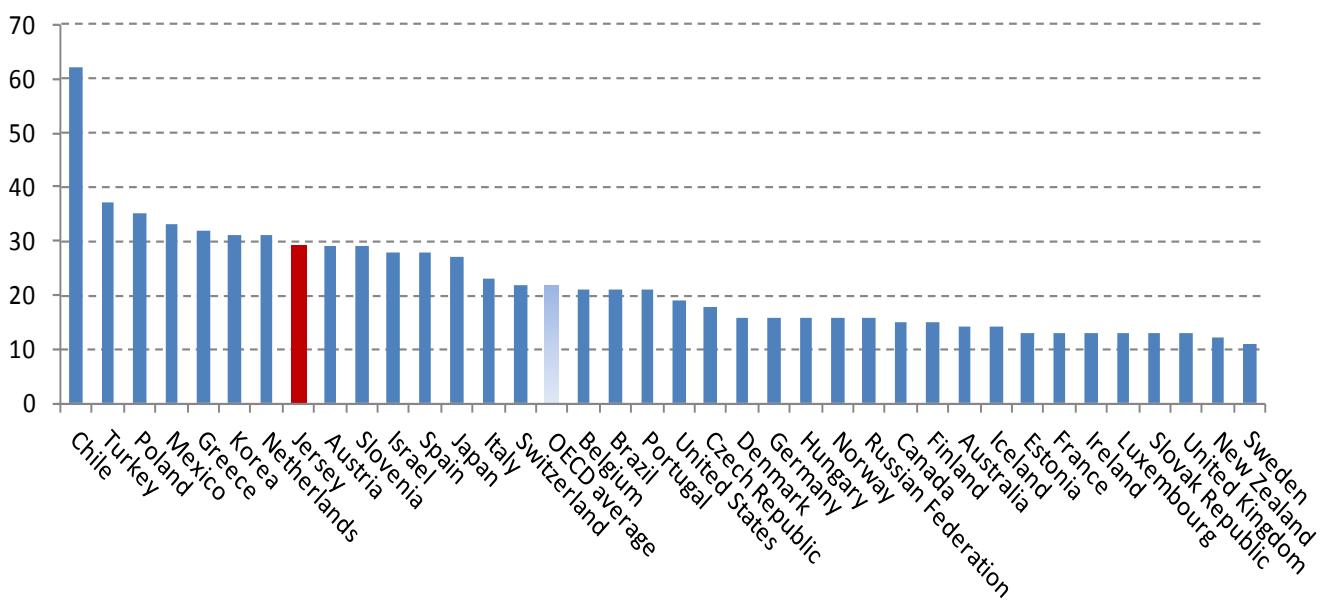
Q6.2 Access to green spaces

In 2006, more than a quarter (28%) of adults in Jersey reported that the lack of open public spaces in their neighbourhood was either a major or minor problem. In contrast, more than two-thirds (69%) of adults in Jersey felt that this was not an issue in their neighbourhood.

The proportion of adults who felt that the lack of open public spaces was a problem in their neighbourhood differed according to the parish where they lived (see Figure 32). The percentage was greatest in St Helier and St Saviour, at almost two-fifths; in contrast fewer than one in ten adults in Grouville and St Martin felt that access to open spaces was a problem in their neighbourhood.

Figure 32: Access to green spaces in Jersey by parish;

percentage of adults reporting that a lack of open public space is either a minor or major problem in their immediate neighbourhood, by parish (2006)
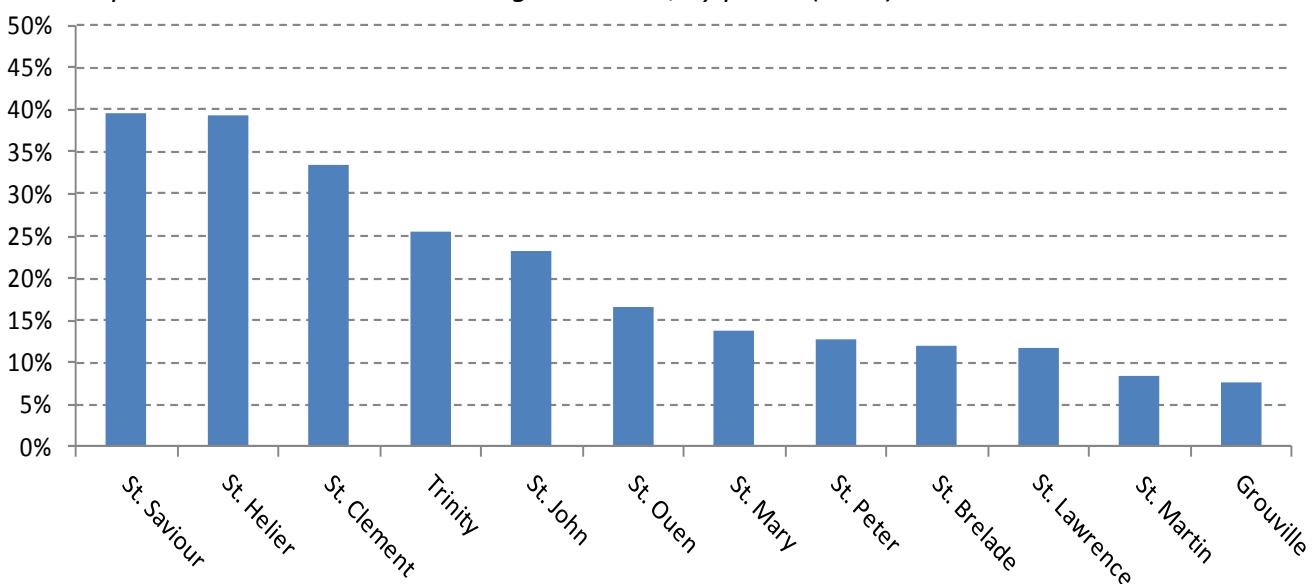
Figure 33 shows that the proportion of people who were dissatisfied with their access to green spaces differed considerably across European countries in 2000. In Italy and Turkey around a third of the population said that they had many reasons or very many reasons to complain about the lack of access to recreational and green spaces; in contrast, this proportion was less than 5% in Nordic countries.

Figure 33: Access to green spaces in European countries;

percentage of population having reasons to complain about the lack of access to recreational and green spaces (2000)
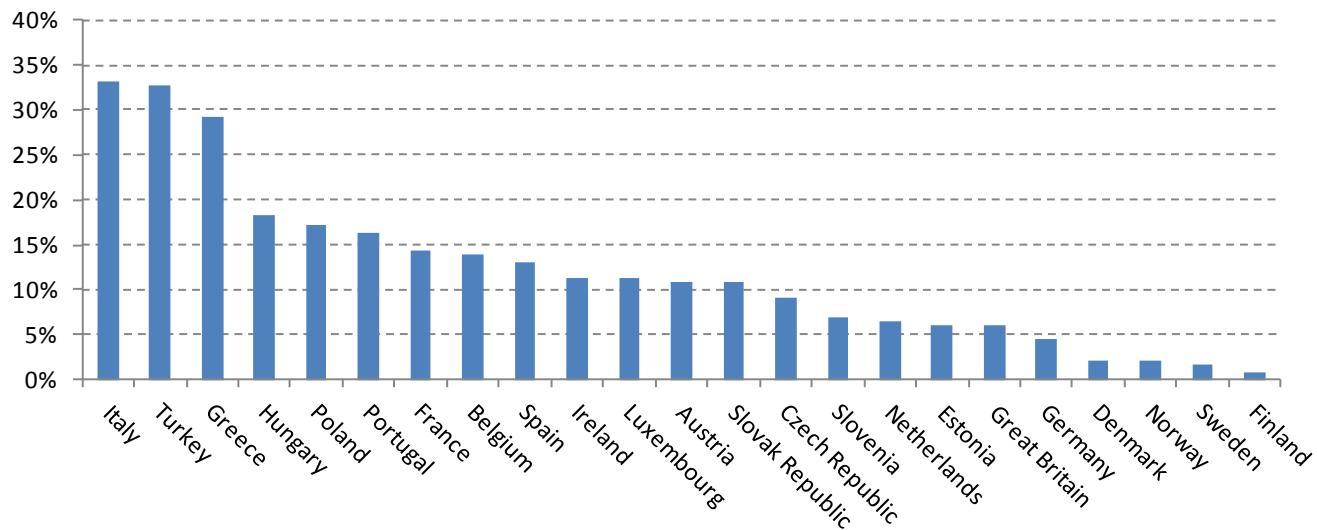
Q7 Personal security

Living in a safe community is of intrinsic value to people's well-being[40], with crime the third most frequently cited factor affecting quality of life, after money and physical health. Crime is thought to be one of the most common threats to personal security in developed and emerging countries which can impact well-being both directly and in-directly. Crime negatively affects both the physical and mental health of victims[41] and can lead to pain and suffering and even loss of life. However, it is not only victims of crime who are affected; fear of crime can lead to increased worry and anxiety and can hamper the daily activities and functioning of both victims and non-victims[42].

Indicators

Q7.1 Homicide rate (Primary indicator)

This indicator represents the number of victims of intentional homicide per 100,000 of the population on an annual basis. Intentional homicide is defined by the United Nations Office on Crime and Drugs (UNODC) as an unlawful death deliberately inflicted on one person by another and specifically excludes death arising from armed forces conflict.

Although comparisons of overall crimes rates across jurisdictions can be affected by cross-country comparability issues in crime definitions, as well as under-reporting and under-recording, homicide is one of the few crimes for which recorded crime figures provide an accurate measure of crime levels comparable across jurisdictions.

The data for Jersey is provided by the States of Jersey Police and represents a three-year average (2009-2011) of intentional homicides committed on Island per 100,000 of the population. Data for OECD countries is collected by UNODC.

Q7.2 Self-reported victimisation (Primary indicator)

This indicator represents the proportion of people aged 16 or over who declare having been the victim of an assault in Jersey in 2011, as measured in the 2012 Jersey Annual Social Survey.

The rate of <u>self-reported</u> assault victimisation is presented in this section (rather than the number of assaults recorded in Police statistics) in order to facilitate cross-jurisdiction comparisons; a proportion of crimes go unreported or unrecorded; furthermore, countries differ in their definitions of what constitutes an assault crime, recording practices and the discretion shown by police in the recording of crimes[43].

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[40] Dolan, P. & Peasgood, T. (2007) "Estimating the economic and social costs of the fear of crime", *British Journal of Criminology*, Vol. 46, pp. 505-518.

[41] Hanson, R. F., Sawyer, G. K., Begle, A. G. & Hubel, G. S. (2010), "The Impact of Crime Victimisation on Quality of Life", *Journal of Traumatic Stress*, Vol. 23, 2, 189-197.

[42] Amerio, P. and Roccato, M. (2007), "Psychological reactions to crime in Italy: 2002-2004", *Journal of Community Psychology*, Vol. 35, 1, 91-102.

[43] Nickels, E. L. (2007), A note on the status of discretion in police research, *Journal of Criminal Justice*, 35, 570-578.

Data for OECD countries is collected from a sample of people aged 15 or over by the Gallop World Poll; in this survey an assault crime is defined as an assault or mugging, excluding crimes against property that do not involve physical contact between the victim and offender.

Due to differences in question wording and the age of sample populations, comparisons with Jersey and OECD countries must be made with caution; younger people can be more exposed to the risks of being a victim of assault than older people because of their lifestyle, including how much they go out at night, and how attractive they are as a target[44].

Q7.3 Feeling of security

The indicators for 'feeling of security' included in this section are the proportions of adults who declare that they feel safe in their neighbourhood (defined as within five minutes walk of the home) and in St Helier at night time. Data is drawn from the 2010 and 2012 rounds of the Jersey Annual Social Survey and presented as a proxy for the prevalence of fear of crime[45].

Similar information exists for OECD countries based on data drawn from the Gallup World Poll, which asks respondents: "Do you feel safe walking alone at night in the city or area where you live?" Results for OECD countries are presented here but are not strictly comparable to those for Jersey due to the differences in the question wording.

Results

Q7.1 Homicide rate

The mean annual rate of intentional homicide in Jersey over the three-year period 2009 to 2011 was 2.0 per 100,000 of the population; this rate is the result of single event which occurred in 2011. The preceding three-year (2008-2010) mean annual rate was 0.0 per 100,000.

Figure 34: Intentional homicide rate Jersey (2008-2010) and the OECD (2008 or latest available year); *per 100,000 of the population*

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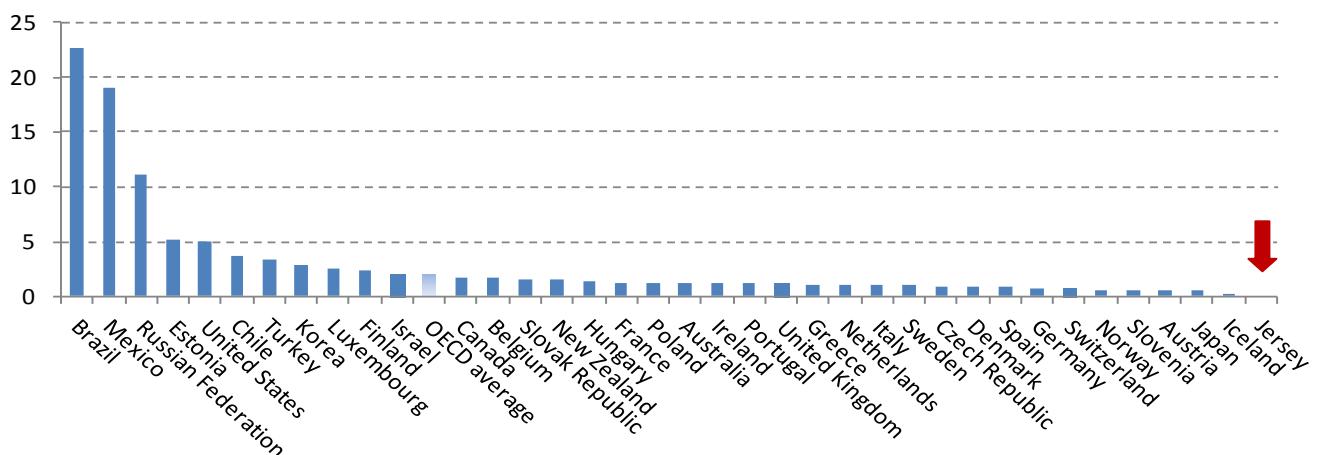
[44] Carrabine, E.,Iganski, P., Maggy, L., Plummer, K., South, N. (2009), *Criminology: A Sociological Introduction*, Routledge, New York.

[45] Farrall, S. & Gadd, D. (2003), Fear Today, *Gone Tomorrow: Do Surveys Overstate Fear Levels?,* www.istat.it/istat/eventi/perunasocieta/relazioni/Farral_abs.pdf

Figure 34 shows that in most OECD countries homicide rates were below the OECD average of 2.1 per 100,000 (2009/2010). In contrast, the homicide rates in the United States (5.0) and Estonia (5.2) were more than double the average for the OECD, whilst the highest homicide rates in the OECD were seen in Brazil, Mexico and the Russian Federation, with the rate for Brazil being more than 10 times the OECD average.

Q7.2 Self-reported victimisation

In the 2012 Jersey Annual Social Survey, a small minority of people (2%) reported that they had been the victim of an assault in the twelve-month period from January to December 2011. Of those people who reported having been assaulted, more than two-fifths (44%) said that they had not reported the incident to the police; the main reason cited for non-reporting was that it was a 'private or personal matter' or was 'too trivial' to warrant police involvement.

In most OECD countries, the proportion of people who reported being assaulted (in the twelve months preceding being surveyed in the Gallop World Poll 2010) was less than 5%. In contrast, in Chile, Mexico and Brazil the proportion of the population who reported being a victim of an assault or mugging was closer to one in ten (see Figure 35).

**Figure 35: Percentage of people who declare having been assaulted or mugged
in Jersey (2011) and the OECD (2009/2010)**
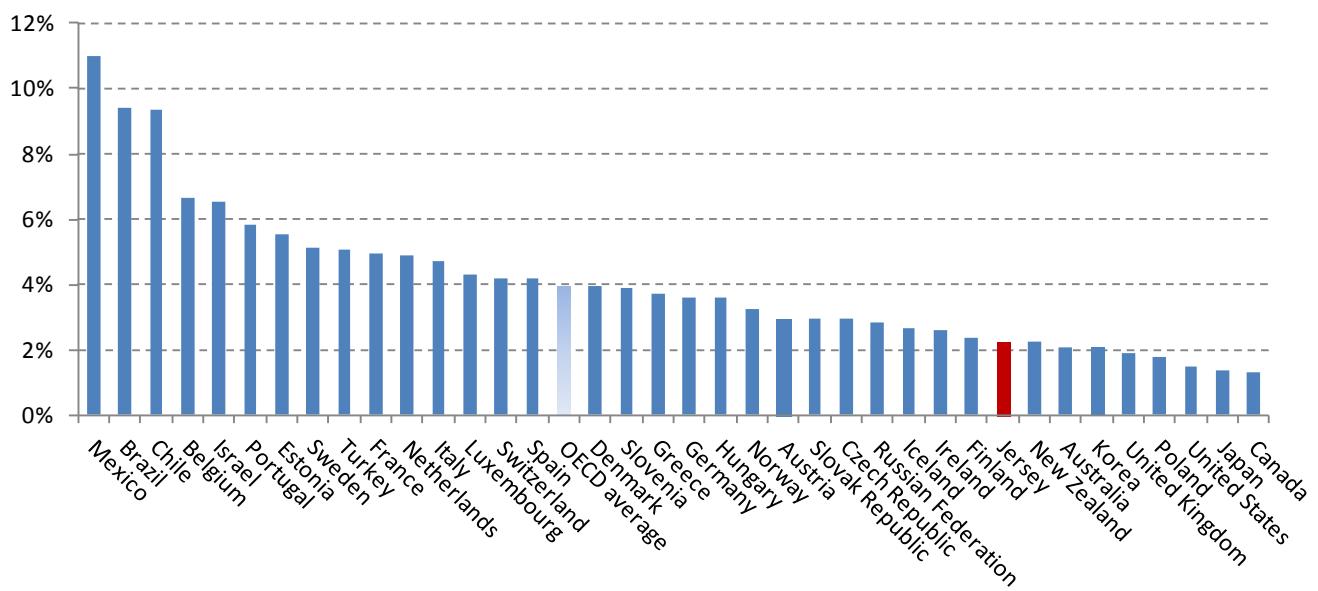
Q7.3 Feeling of security

In 2012, nine out of ten people (aged 16 or over) in Jersey reported feeling safe or very safe in their neighbourhood (the area within five minutes walking distance from their home); a greater proportion of people living in rural areas (96%) felt safe compared to those living in St Helier (83%).

In the 2010 round of Jersey Annual Social Survey residents of the Island were asked whether they felt safe in St Helier at night time. Results showed that around three-fifths (62%) of people in Jersey always or usually felt safe in St Helier at night compared to a quarter (25%) who reported feeling in some way unsafe and further one in eight (12%) who did not visit St Helier at night because they felt unsafe.

Figure 36 shows that the feeling of security in St Helier at night varied according to age. Three-quarters (74%) of 16 to 34 year olds always or usually felt safe in St Helier at night compared with two-fifths (39%) of people aged 65 or over; the same proportion (39%) of the latter age group reported that they did not visit St Helier at night because they did not feel safe.

Figure 36: How safe or unsafe Jersey residents feel when visiting St Helier town centre at night, by *age* (percentages; excluding those who do not visit because they have no need)
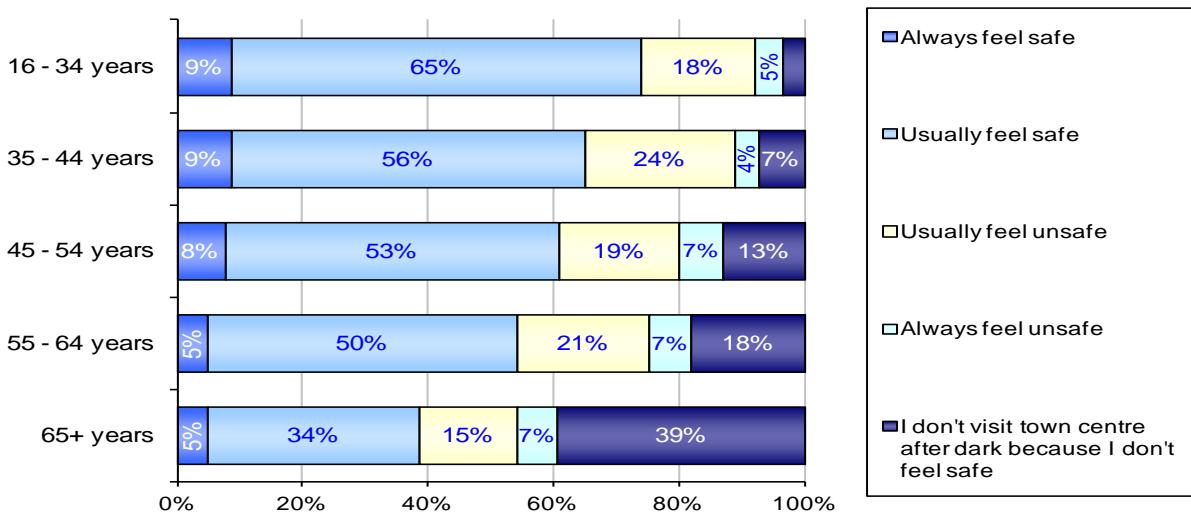
Across the OECD, the feeling of security is measured as the percentage of people who reported feeling safe walking alone at night in the city or area where they live (2010 or latest available year). Results for this indicator show that the feeling of safety varied considerably across the OECD (see Figure 37). On average across the OECD around two-thirds (67%) of the population reported feeling safe alone in their neighbourhood at night. This proportion was greatest in the Slovak Republic, New Zealand and Canada where the proportion was close to four-fifths. In contrast, less than half of the population in Portugal, Chile, and the Russian Federation reported feeling safe at night, whilst in Brazil this proportion was only around two-fifths.

Figure 37: Percentage of the population who declare that they feel safe when walking alone at night in the city or area where they live (OECD, 2010 or latest available year)
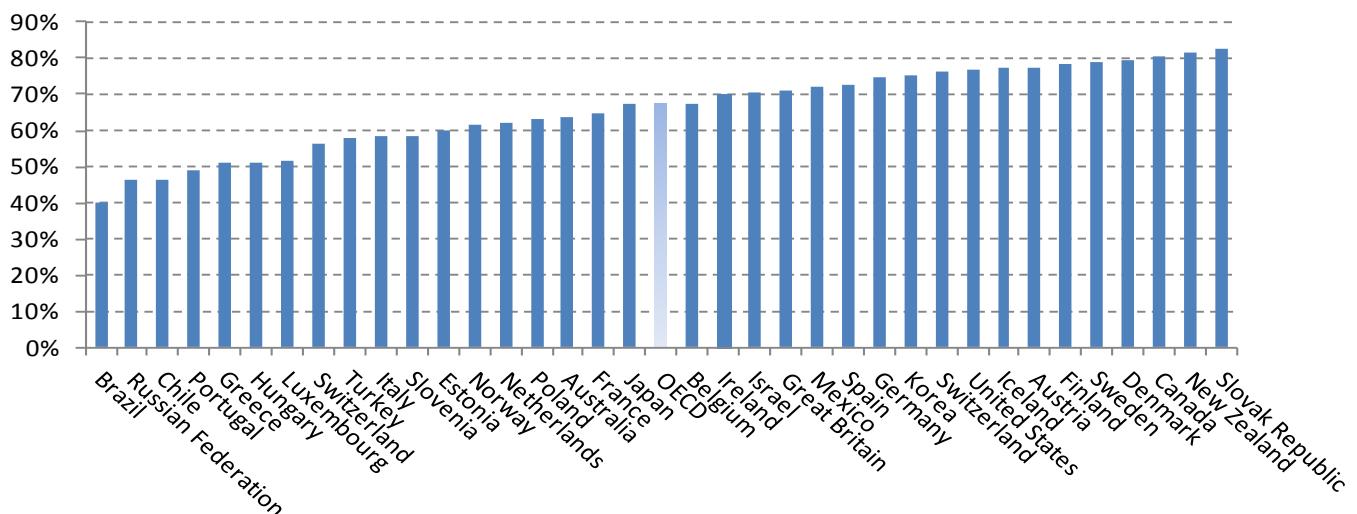
Q8 Subjective well-being

Although objective indicators of well-being can provide outcomes which are often quantifiable and comparable, they are largely dependent on the validity of prior judgements on what drives an individual's well-being.

Measuring how people feel about their <u>own</u> lives, although subjective by nature, can offer a complementary indicator of well-being which relies on the assumption that people themselves are the best judges of the state of their own lives.

Indicators

Q8.1   Life satisfaction (Primary indicator)

This indicator constitutes a measure of how people evaluate their life as a whole. Life satisfaction is measured by the Cantril Ladder which asks people to rate their current life on a scale of 0 to 10, where 0 represents the worst and 10 represents the best.

Although the Cantril Ladder provides a globally used scale for measuring life satisfaction, responses can be affected by personality, mood and cultural differences. Whilst differences in responses caused by personality or mood may average out across sufficiently large samples, cultural biases in response styles, however, may be apparent.

Results

Q8.1 Life satisfaction

When asked to rate their general life satisfaction on a scale of 0 to 10 respondents of the 2012 Jersey Annual Social Survey gave an average (mean) score of 7.5.

Life satisfaction, as measured by this indicator, was similar for both males and females and across age groups, but varied according to employment status. People in Jersey who were employed, looking after the home, in full-time education or retired at the time of the survey rated their lives most highly, with mean scores of around 7.6. In contrast, people who were unemployed or unable to work due to sickness/disability had mean scores of 6.2 and 4.6, respectively.

Life satisfaction as measured by the Cantril Ladder also appears to be linked with health status[46]. In 2012 individuals who reported their health as either very good or excellent also rated their lives highly on a scale of 0 to 10, recording mean scores above 7.5. In contrast, individuals who reported being in poor health recorded a mean life satisfaction score of less than 5.

Figure 38 shows mean life satisfaction scores as a function of self-assessed health status.

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[46] Cantril, H. (1965). *The pattern of Human Concerns*. New Brunswick, NJ: Rutgers University Press.

Figure 38: Mean life satisfaction score (Cantril Ladder) by self-assessed health, Jersey 2012
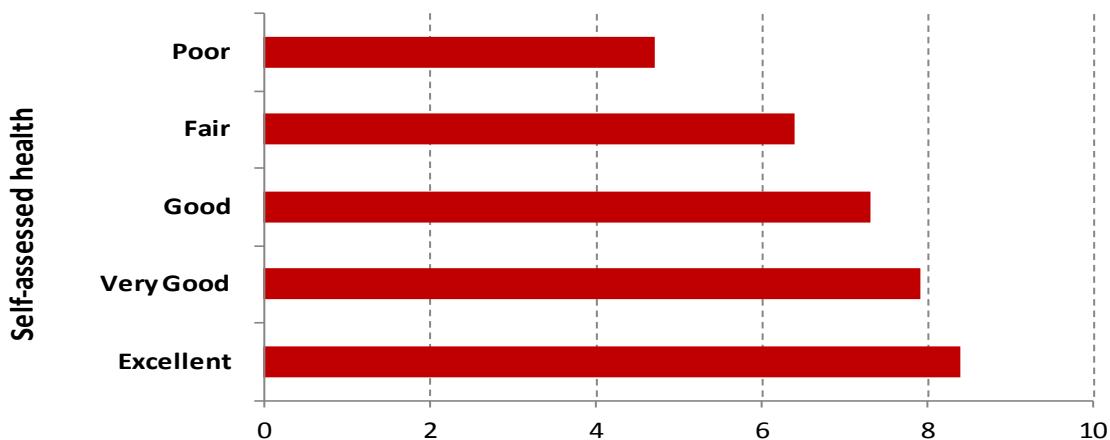
In 2011 (or latest available year), the average score for people across the OECD who rated their overall life satisfaction on a scale of 0 to 10 was 6.7 (see Figure 39). Life satisfaction as measured by this indicator varied between countries, with a difference of approximately 3 points between the lowest scoring country and the highest. In the Russian Federation and some European countries (Hungary, Portugal, Turkey and Greece) life satisfaction was relatively low, with mean scores on the Cantril ladder of less than 5.5. In contrast, residents of the highest scoring countries, Norway and Denmark, recorded mean scores of 7.6 and 7.8, respectively.

Figure 39: Mean life satisfaction scores; Jersey (2012) and the OECD (2011 or latest available year)
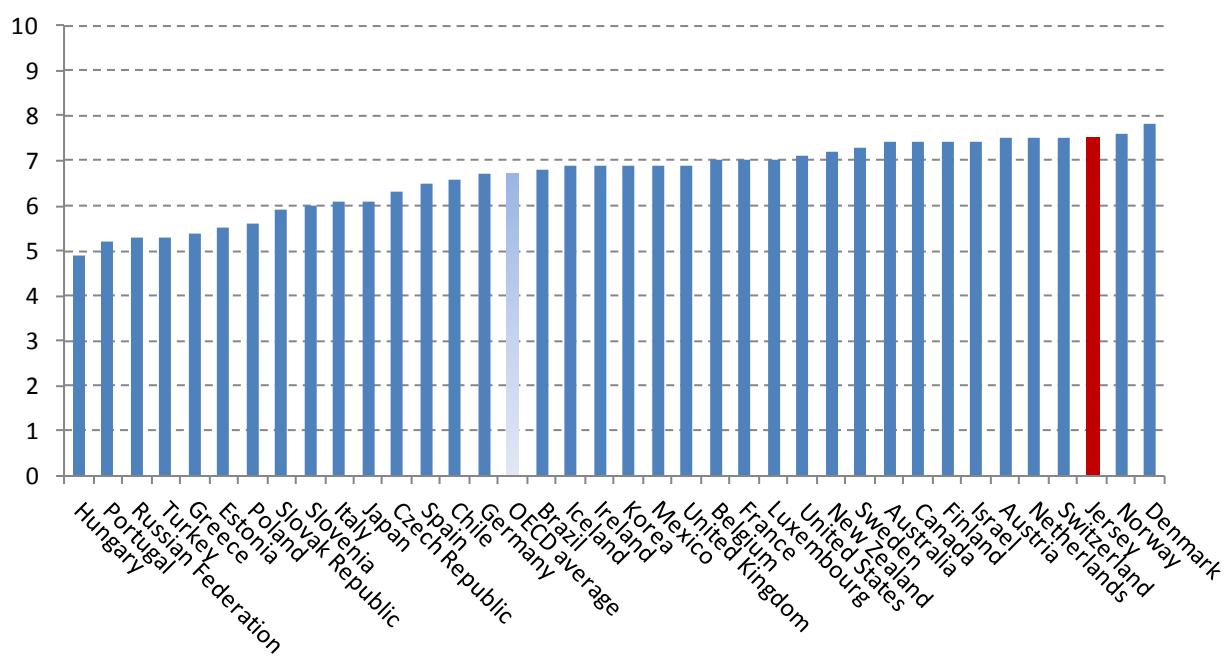
Overall life satisfaction, on average, was higher in Jersey (7.5) than in most OECD countries, including the UK (6.9), and was similar to that in Switzerland, the Netherlands and Austria.

Notes

1:   **Better Life Index methodology**

Indicator
For each jurisdiction a normalised score for each indicator is calculated relative to all OECD countries on a scale of between 0 (low) and 1 (high).

For an indicator with a positive tendency (high value implying "good"), the normalised score for each jurisdiction is calculated from the maximum (MAX) and minimum (MIN) values of the OECD countries as:

Normalised score = $\dfrac{\text{Jurisdiction - OECD MIN}}{\text{OECD MAX - OECD MIN}}$

For an indicator with a negative tendency (high value implying "poor"), the normalised score for each jurisdiction is calculated as:

Normalised score = $1 - \dfrac{\text{Jurisdiction - OECD MIN}}{\text{OECD MAX - OECD MIN}}$

Dimension
For each of the 11 dimensions a normalised score on a scale of between 0 (low) and 10 (high) is calculated as:

Dimension with one primary indicator:

- 10 x normalised score of primary indicator

Dimension with more than one primary indicator:

- 10 x arithmetic mean of normalised scores of primary indicators

Better Life Index
The overall composite Better Life Index is calculated on a scale of 0 to 10 as the arithmetic mean of the normalised scores (0 to 10) of the 11 dimensions.

2:   This report refers to the United Kingdom and Great Britain according to the data sources available for each indicator. Data for all primary indicators and the composite Better Life Index pertain to the United Kingdom.

3:   The EU type approved reference method for measurement of PM_{10} is based on the collection, on a glass fibre filter, of the PM_{10} fraction of ambient particulate matter and gravimetric mass determination.

The U.K.'s preferred method is the Tapered Element Oscillating Microbalance (TEOM) measuring device, which produces results considered adequate for comparison with gravimetric concentrations if they are multiplied by 1.3.

OECD Countries

Australia	Finland	Japan	Russian Federation
Austria	France	Korea (South)	Slovak Republic
Belgium	Germany	Luxembourg	Slovenia
Brazil	Greece	Mexico	Spain
Canada	Hungary	Netherlands	Sweden
Chile	Iceland	New Zealand	Switzerland
Czech Republic	Ireland	Norway	Turkey
Denmark	Israel	Poland	United Kingdom/GB
Estonia	Italy	Portugal	United States of America

Scores for each dimension

	Income	Jobs and earnings	Housing	Health status	Work and life balance	Education	Civic engagement	Social connections	Personal security	Environmental quality	Subjective well-being	Overall score
Australia	6.4	8.4	6.3	9.1	6.8	6.6	10.0	9.7	9.3	9.4	8.6	8.2
Austria	6.6	8.7	4.4	8.4	7.9	8.4	7.3	8.6	9.0	6.5	9.0	7.7
Belgium	6.3	6.4	6.3	8.1	9.0	6.6	9.2	8.6	6.9	8.0	7.2	7.5
Brazil	0.0	7.4	3.5	3.0	7.1	1.8	7.6	7.6	0.8	8.0	6.6	4.9
Canada	6.4	7.5	6.7	8.4	9.1	9.4	2.9	7.9	9.6	9.2	8.6	7.8
Chile	0.2	5.9	3.5	7.1	8.4	6.3	8.6	5.9	5.0	0.0	5.9	5.2
Czech Republic	2.9	6.9	2.4	6.2	8.0	9.8	3.7	7.6	8.9	8.6	4.8	6.4
Denmark	5.1	7.9	4.0	7.4	9.6	7.4	8.4	9.3	8.4	9.0	10.0	7.9
Estonia	1.7	4.1	3.2	4.7	9.2	9.5	3.3	7.6	6.7	9.6	2.1	5.6
Finland	5.7	7.0	4.8	8.0	9.2	8.4	5.7	8.6	9.0	9.2	8.6	7.7
France	6.7	5.9	5.0	8.9	8.0	6.5	7.8	7.9	7.8	9.6	7.2	7.4
Germany	6.6	8.0	4.8	8.2	8.8	8.9	6.5	9.0	8.6	9.0	6.2	7.7
Greece	4.8	3.6	1.2	8.3	8.8	5.0	5.1	5.5	8.5	5.9	1.7	5.3
Hungary	1.9	4.2	2.0	3.8	9.3	8.2	3.7	6.9	8.5	9.0	0.0	5.2
Iceland	5.5	8.7	4.1	8.9	8.7	5.8	7.8	10.0	9.2	9.4	6.9	7.7
Ireland	5.4	4.0	6.8	8.6	9.2	6.8	4.3	10.0	9.1	9.6	6.9	7.3
Israel	3.9	6.4	2.9	9.1	5.6	8.4	3.7	6.6	6.8	6.7	8.6	6.2
Italy	5.4	5.3	3.2	9.3	9.0	3.9	7.1	7.6	8.0	7.6	4.1	6.4
Japan	5.2	8.3	4.5	10.0	3.1	10.0	4.3	7.9	9.9	6.9	4.1	6.7
Jersey	7.9	9.4	5.7	8.5	8.7	7.4	0.0	9.7	9.5	6.3	9.0	7.5
Korea	2.9	7.3	5.2	8.4	4.8	8.1	3.5	4.1	9.0	6.1	6.9	6.0
Luxembourg	9.2	7.5	4.2	8.4	9.2	7.6	9.2	8.3	7.9	9.6	7.2	8.0
Mexico	1.0	6.6	3.1	4.6	3.3	0.8	2.7	4.5	0.8	5.7	6.9	3.6
Netherlands	6.0	9.1	5.4	8.4	9.9	6.9	6.9	8.6	7.9	6.1	9.0	7.7
New Zealand	3.6	7.9	4.4	8.6	6.9	6.8	6.7	9.0	9.2	9.8	7.9	7.3
Norway	7.6	9.4	6.2	8.7	9.4	8.2	6.3	8.6	8.9	9.0	9.3	8.3
Poland	2.2	5.2	1.7	5.2	8.3	9.4	1.6	7.2	9.5	5.3	2.4	5.3
Portugal	3.6	5.4	4.6	7.7	8.8	0.0	3.7	5.9	7.4	8.0	1.0	5.1
Russian Federation	2.0	7.1	6.9	0.0	10.0	9.4	3.7	6.6	6.7	9.0	1.4	5.7
Slovak Republic	2.6	4.1	1.5	4.4	8.7	9.8	1.8	7.9	8.8	9.6	3.4	5.7
Slovenia	3.8	6.7	3.1	7.5	8.6	8.5	3.5	8.3	8.5	6.5	3.8	6.3
Spain	5.2	2.0	5.6	9.4	8.5	3.5	5.9	8.6	8.3	6.7	5.5	6.3
Sweden	6.3	7.8	4.8	8.9	9.7	9.0	7.3	7.9	7.8	10.0	8.3	8.0
Switzerland	6.6	9.7	4.2	9.7	8.7	9.2	0.4	8.6	8.4	7.8	9.0	7.5
Turkey	1.0	2.9	1.9	3.8	0.0	0.5	7.6	0.0	7.3	4.9	1.4	2.8
United Kingdom	6.2	7.4	4.5	8.1	7.3	7.1	3.1	9.3	9.4	9.6	6.9	7.2
United States	10.0	6.5	6.9	6.9	7.5	9.5	9.0	7.9	8.8	8.4	7.6	8.1