


Jersey Better Life Index 2018

Statistics Jersey: www.gov.je/statistics

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Summary

On a national level, Jersey:

- had an overall Better Life Index score of 6.8 (out of 10), which ranked the Island 19th out of 39 nations
- placed slightly above the OECD average but below the United Kingdom and France
- ranked in the top ten for jobs and earnings, health status and community
- ranked bottom for civic engagement

On a regional level, Jersey:

- had an overall well-being score of 7.2 (out of 10), which ranked the Island 132nd out of 403 regions
- placed 7th out of 13 when compared with regions of the United Kingdom
- ranked highest in jobs and earnings, 6th out of 403 regions
- ranked lowest in civic engagement, 379th out of 403 regions

Introduction

Over the last decade there has been a drive globally to move away from purely economic measures, such as GDP, as the indicators of a nation's well-being and progress. Approaches which draw on social and environmental, as well as economic, factors are now a common international objective.

In this context, a widely-used framework is the "Better Life Index" developed by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). The OECD is an international organisation, comprising 36 member countries and several partners¹, which has the mission of promoting policies to improve the economic and social well-being of people around the world.

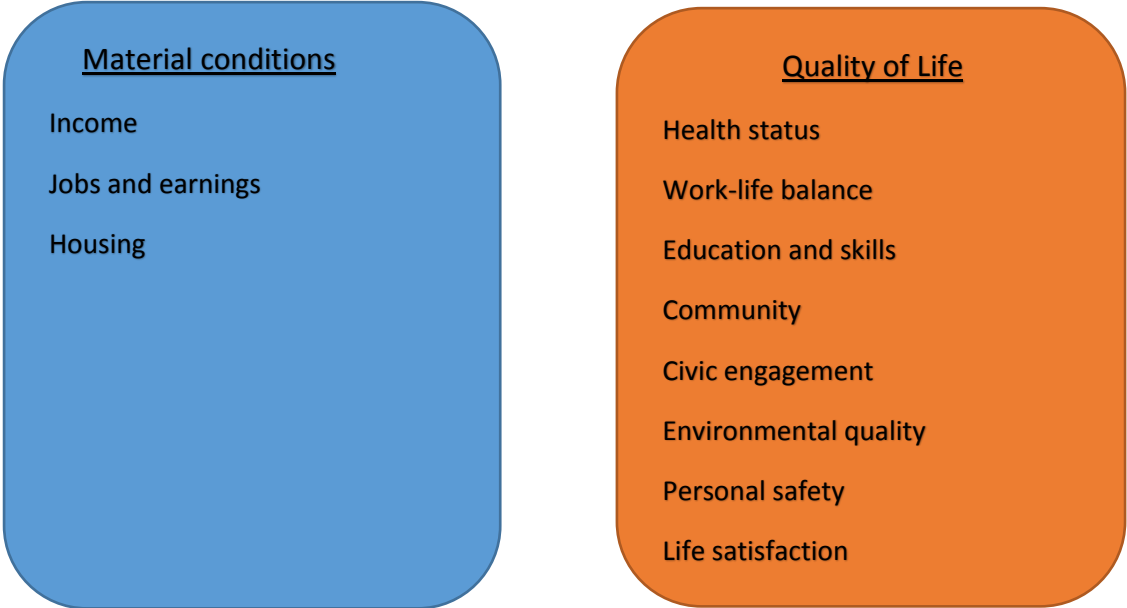
As well as presenting an overall headline measure, this framework enables comparison of Jersey with OECD member countries and partners in terms of 11 topics ("dimensions") relating to material conditions and quality of life.

A Better Life Index was published for the first time for Jersey in 2013. This latest report provides an update based on the most recently available data from both Jersey and the OECD.

¹ See [Appendix A](#) for a list of OECD member countries and partners that are included in this report.

Overview

Following the OECD framework, data is presented for Jersey for each of the 11 dimensions², grouped together under two domains: material conditions and quality of life (see below).



Measures for Jersey under each dimension are compared with those of the OECD member countries and partners, and an overall Better Life Index for Jersey is constructed which is compared with that of the other jurisdictions (see [Appendix B](#)).

For each of the 11 dimensions there is at least one indicator - see contents page for the list of indicators. To determine the overall headline measure of well-being (the Better Life Index), scores are calculated for each indicator which are then combined to produce the composite index (see [Appendix C](#)).

For comparability, indicators for Jersey are calculated for the time period corresponding with, or closest to, the latest available data of the OECD. Where possible more up to date values for each indicator are presented but not used in compiling the index. In addition to the indicators used for comparison purposes, following the OECD framework, other complimentary statistical measures for Jersey are also presented.

This report also presents a comparison of Jersey with 402 sub-national regions of the OECD (see [Appendix E](#)). For the regional comparison, some dimensions include fewer indicators or use other indicators than those used at the national level, and may also vary in terms of definition or reference year (see [Appendix D](#)).

² "Better Life Index 2017, Definitions and metadata" published November 2017 by the OECD.

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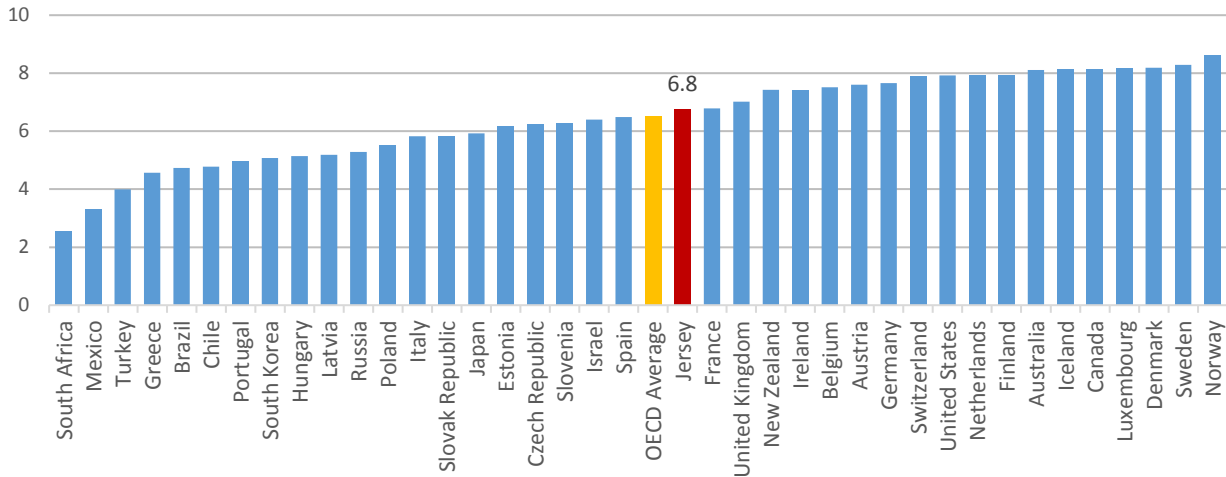
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Better Life Index

Jersey’s overall Better Life Index score (6.8 out of 10) ranked (relative to OECD member and partner countries) the Island 19th out of 39 nations (including Jersey; see Figure 1). In terms of overall well-being, this score placed Jersey slightly above the OECD average and below the United Kingdom and France.

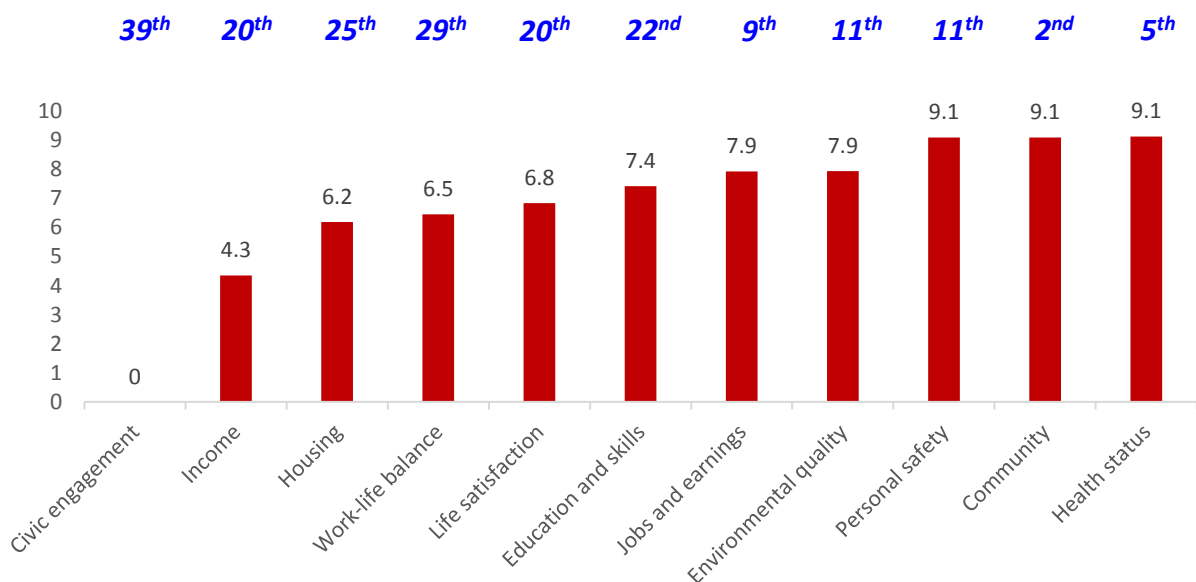
Figure 1: Better Life Index for Jersey and OECD countries; 0 (low) to 10 (high)



Nordic countries rated highly in terms of overall well-being, with Norway, Sweden and Denmark being the three highest ranked countries. In contrast, the lowest scores of overall well-being were recorded across a range of geographical locations, with South Africa, Mexico and Turkey being the three lowest ranked countries.

Scores and rankings for Jersey for each of the 11 dimensions comprising the Better Life Index are shown in Figure 2 and [Appendix B](#).

Figure 2: Relative scores (out of 10) and rankings for Jersey in each dimension



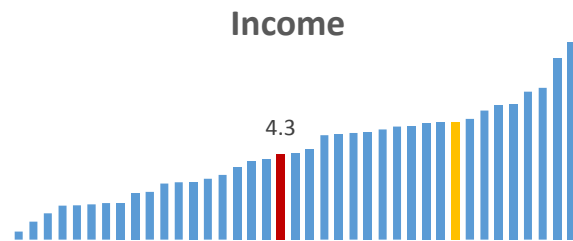
Each score shown in Figure 2 is based on a scale of between 0 (low) and 10 (high) – see [Appendix C](#). It is apparent that Jersey ranked:

- relatively highly in several dimensions, notably community and health status
- less well in other dimensions, notably work-life balance and housing
- lower than all OECD member and partner countries in civic engagement (measured by voter turnout)

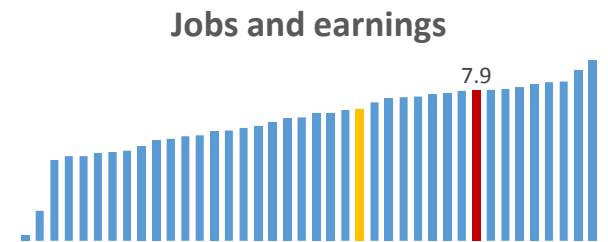
Summary

◆ Jersey ◆ OECD Average³

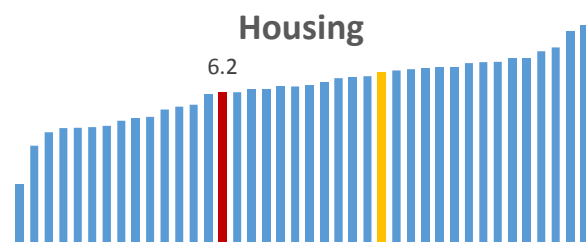
On a measure of disposable income, Jersey ranked 20th out of 39 countries. In 2015, mean net adjusted disposable income per capita in Jersey was \$25,274⁴, which was below the OECD average of \$30,563. Income in Jersey was not as equally distributed as in many other countries; the gap between the wealthiest and poorest households in Jersey was relatively high.



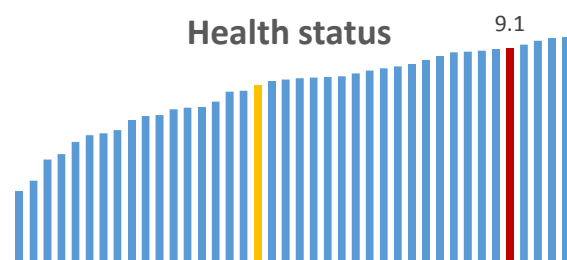
In terms of employment, 79% of people in Jersey of working age (15 to 64 years) were in some form of employment (working at least one hour per week) in 2016 compared with an average of 67% across the OECD. The long-term unemployment rate within Jersey in 2016 was 0.5% compared with the OECD average of 2.0%. However, Jersey was below the OECD average of \$44,290 in terms of personal earnings, with gross average remuneration per full-time equivalent employee of \$41,056 in 2016.



People in Jersey have more living space, on average, than people in the UK and in the majority of OECD countries. In Jersey, each resident occupies an average of 2.1 rooms compared to an average of 1.8 across the OECD. However, spending on housing in Jersey accounted for a quarter (25%) of household net adjusted disposable income in 2015, on average, some 5 percentage points (pp) greater than the OECD average. In Jersey only 0.5% of households did not have an indoor flushing toilet for the sole use of their household, compared with 2.1% across the OECD.



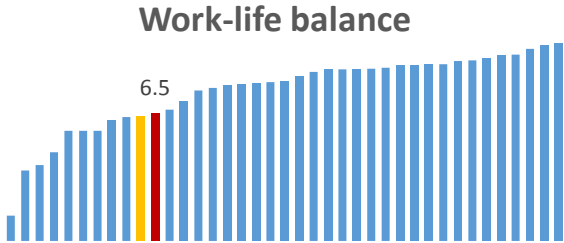
A person born in Jersey in 2017 could expect to live an average of 82.6 years, a figure some two and a half years greater than the average across the OECD. People in Jersey rate their general health relatively highly; 81% of adults in Jersey reported that they were in either excellent or good health compared with the OECD average of 69%.



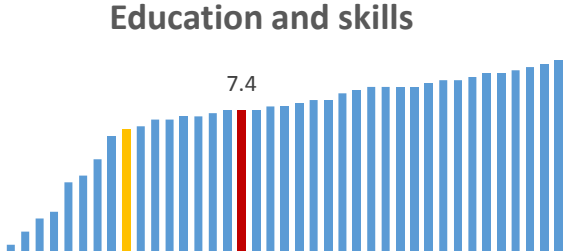
³ The OECD average is a population weighted average of member countries; it does not include partner countries.

⁴ To enable comparison at the national level, income and earnings values for Jersey are converted from pound sterling (GBP) to US dollars (USD) on a purchasing power parity basis, and include a deflating factor of 1.20 to represent the relative cost of living between Jersey and the UK: [Jersey-UK Relative Consumer Price Levels for Goods and Services, 2013](#); States of Jersey Statistics Unit.

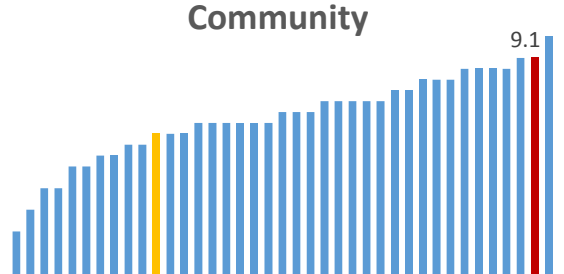
Almost one in eight (12%) employees in Jersey worked 50 or more hours in a usual week in 2016, a slightly lower proportion than in the UK (13%) and the average across the OECD (13%). This measure does not take into account time spent commuting to work.



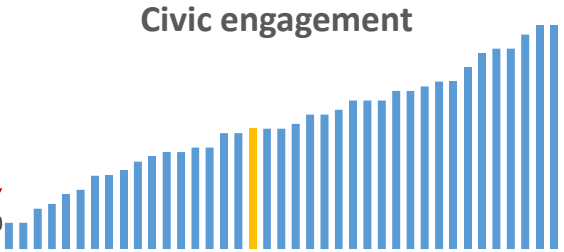
The education comparator is the percentage of people aged 25 to 64 years, having at least an upper-secondary qualification. The proportion in 2016 for Jersey (80%) was slightly lower than in the UK but some 6 pp greater than the average across the OECD.



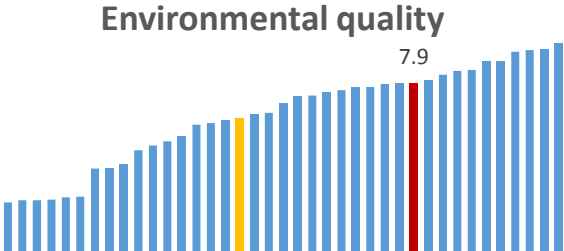
The indicator for the community dimension is the percentage of people who have someone they can rely on in case of need. The proportion in Jersey (96%) was higher than in all OECD countries except Iceland (top ranked) and Ireland (with which Jersey was joint second).



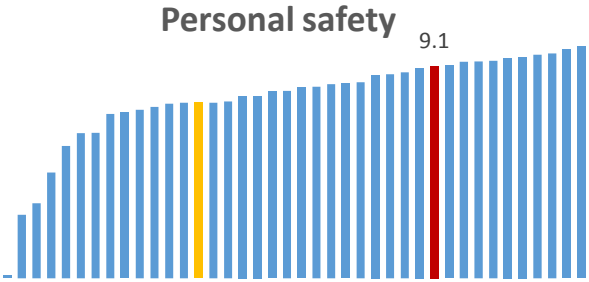
Voter turnout in Jersey (43.4% in the May 2018 States Assembly elections) was lower than in all OECD member and partner countries. Across the OECD the latest average voter turnout rate is 69%; it should be noted that some OECD countries such as Australia (91%) have compulsory voting. The voter turnout rate in Jersey in 2018 was almost 3 pp lower than for the elections held in 2011. Over the same period, the average voter turnout across the OECD decreased by 4 pp.



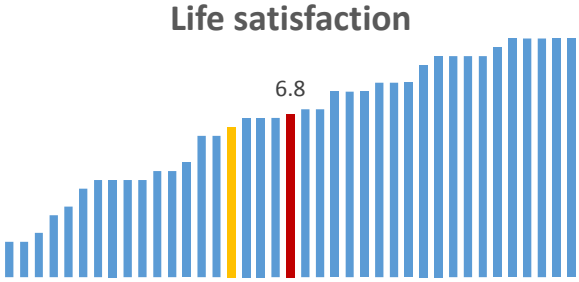
There are two measures used by the OECD as environmental indicators: air pollution (measured by the level of particulate matter); and water quality. In Jersey, over the period 2015-17, the average level of particulate matter (of less than 2.5 µm in diameter) in the air was 8 µg/m³; this level was below the guideline value set by the World Health Organisation (WHO) of 10 µg/m³. The indicator measure for Jersey is a three-year average across two monitoring sites; it should be noted that the measure recorded at one monitoring site in Jersey over calendar year 2017 exceeded the WHO guideline value. The water quality indicator is people’s subjective appreciation of the water quality in their area; the measure for Jersey of 85% of people saying that they were satisfied was at a similar level to that of the UK and higher than the OECD average of 81%.



The homicide rate in Jersey over the three-year period 2014-16 was 0.6 per 100,000 people, and was lower than the OECD average of 3.6 per 100,000 people. The other indicator of personal safety is a subjective feeling of safety in the Island. Almost four out of five adults (79%) in Jersey reported that they felt safe walking alone at night, a similar proportion to that in the UK (77%) and higher than the OECD average (69%).



Adults in Jersey rated their overall life satisfaction higher than the average recorded across the OECD. The Island ranked 20th out of 39 countries in terms of life satisfaction.



Material conditions and Quality of life

The OECD has observed that there is generally a strong relationship between relative performance in the two principal domains of material conditions (encompassing the three dimensions of income, jobs and earnings, and housing) and quality of life (encompassing eight dimensions: health status, work-life balance, education and skills, community, civic engagement, environmental quality, personal safety and life satisfaction) – see Figure 3 overleaf.

Countries towards the top right corner of Figure 3 (Norway, Canada and Sweden⁵) are relatively strong in both material conditions and quality of life (see [Appendix C](#) for methodology). In contrast, countries towards the bottom left corner of Figure 3 (South Africa, Mexico, Turkey and Greece) have few relative strengths in either material conditions or quality of life.

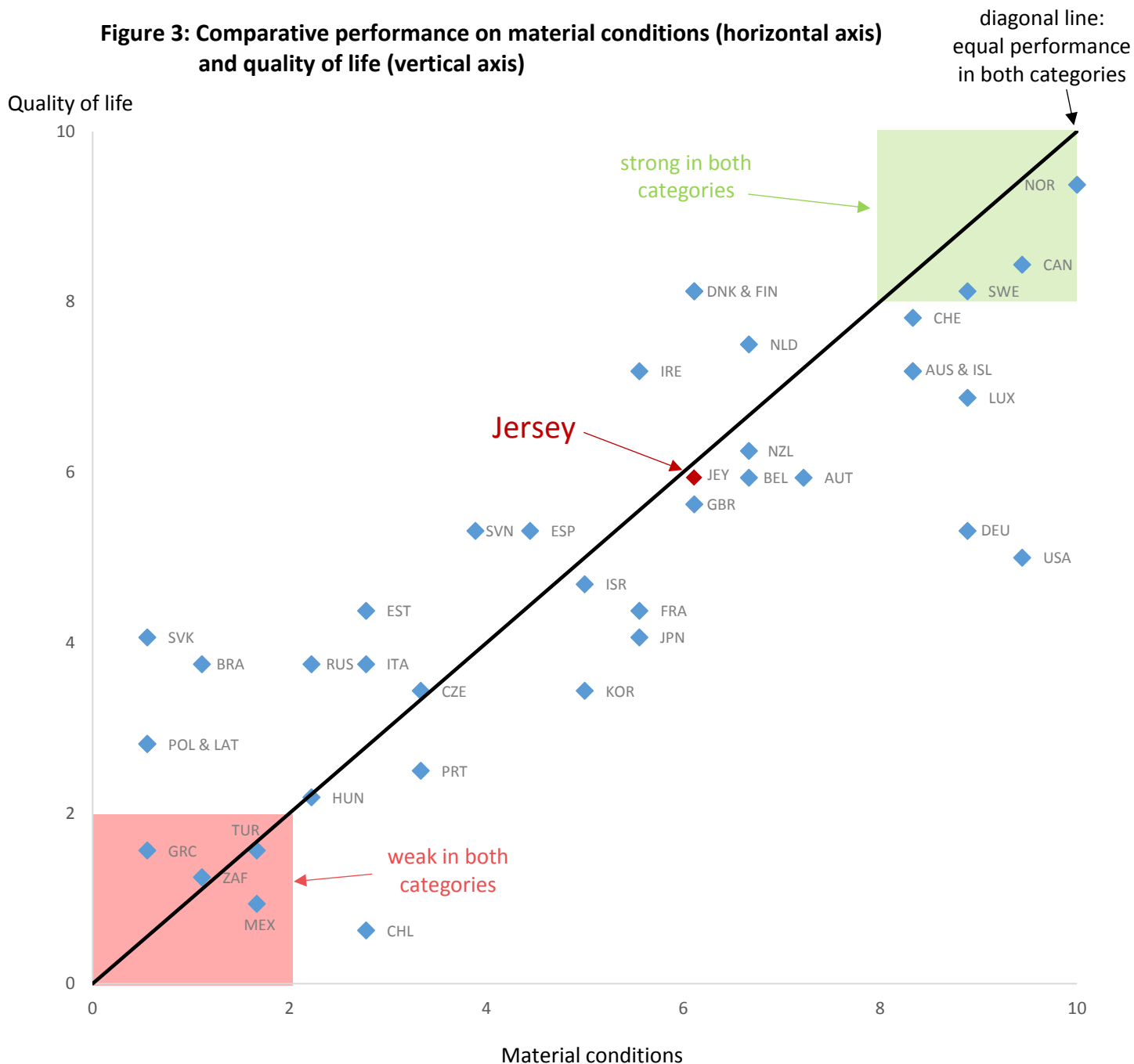
The diagonal line in Figure 3 indicates where a country would fall if there was an exact correspondence in its relative performance on material conditions and quality of life.

Figure 3 shows that:

- Jersey performs almost equally, on a relative basis, across the two domains of material conditions and quality of life
- when compared with OECD member and partner countries, Jersey performs most similarly to the UK (“GBR”)

⁵ ISO alpha-3 country codes are used in Figure 3; Jersey is represented as “JEY” and the UK as “GBR”. Codes for all countries can be found on www.iso.org/

Figure 3: Comparative performance on material conditions (horizontal axis) and quality of life (vertical axis)



It is worth noting that the scores used in this figure are calculated differently from the overall index (see [Appendix C](#)).

Income

Income levels affect an individual's ability to access resources such as suitable housing, quantity and quality of food and appropriate healthcare. Furthermore, income can affect how an individual spends their time, throughout their life, thereby having an ongoing effect on well-being.

Income



For the income dimension
Jersey scored **4.3** out of 10

Jersey **20th**
Ranked out of 39

Net adjusted disposable income

The mean net adjusted disposable income per capita in 2015 was



\$25,300
USD PPP's



Lower than the OECD
average of
\$30,600

Indicator for this dimension:

Mean net adjusted disposable income per capita

Net adjusted disposable income is a measure of the amount of money that an individual or household has available to spend on goods and services⁶.

For Jersey, a measure of mean net adjusted disposable income is derived from the latest Income Distribution Survey⁷ and comprises: all earned and unearned income; pensions and gifts; household and individual benefits; and social transfers in kind from government; minus direct taxes, social security and pension contributions. This measure, determined before the inclusion of housing costs (BHC), is comparable with the OECD measure of net adjusted disposable income calculated within the framework of National Accounts.

The Jersey Income Distribution Survey showed that the mean net income (BHC) in 2014/15 per household was £44,720 per annum. Up rating by the Jersey Index of Average Earnings provides an estimate of mean net income per household (BHC) in 2018 of £49,400 per annum⁸.

Table 1 shows mean net disposable income (BHC) per household in Jersey by tenure. Mean net disposable income (BHC) per household in Jersey varied across the tenure categories. Households with mortgages living in owner-occupied accommodation had a mean net income more than double that of households living in social rental accommodation.

⁶ The term "adjusted" relates to the inclusion of social transfers in kind from government (defined as transfers of individual non-market goods and services) within the measure of disposable income; for Jersey such transfers in kind involve mainly the provision of education and health public services.

⁷ Report on the [2014/15 Jersey Income Distribution Survey](#), States of Jersey Statistics Unit, 2015.

⁸ Updated to 2018 using the [Jersey Index of Average Earnings](#).

Table 1: Mean net disposable income (BHC) per household in Jersey, by tenure; 2018

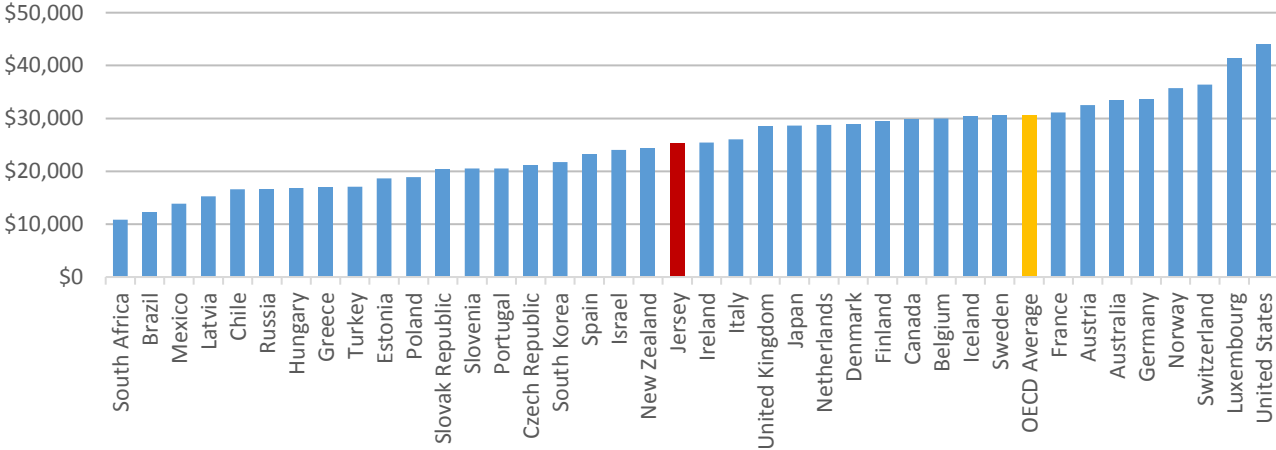
Tenure	Annual household income
Social rental	£29,300
Qualified rental	£43,000
Non-qualified rental	£37,900
Owner Occupied - without mortgage	£49,900
Owner Occupied - with mortgage	£72,900
All households	£49,400

In order to compare net adjusted disposable income (BHC) in Jersey with that of other jurisdictions, net disposable income (BHC) in Jersey is adjusted to include social transfers in kind from government⁹.

To enable comparison across the OECD, mean net adjusted disposable income is expressed on a per capita basis, in terms of US dollar purchasing power parities (see footnote 4). The resulting estimate of mean net adjusted disposable income per capita for Jersey in 2018 is \$27,700 (US\$ PPPs).

The latest available data for the OECD relates to calendar year 2015. Hence, the mean net adjusted disposable income per capita for Jersey in 2015 is included in Figure 4. The value of this measure for Jersey in 2015 (\$25,300) was lower than that of the UK (\$28,400) and also below the OECD average (\$30,600)¹⁰.

Figure 4: Mean net adjusted disposable income per capita, Jersey (2015) and the OECD (2015); US\$ PPP



There was a considerable range of mean net adjusted disposable income per capita across the OECD, with the highest (United States, \$44,000) being more than four times the lowest (South Africa, \$10,900).

⁹ This adjustment is not included in Table 1 as there is no data currently available on how such social transfers are apportioned to the different types of tenure.

¹⁰ It should be acknowledged that the measures of mean net adjusted disposable income for the OECD countries and partners and for Jersey are derived from two different approaches: for the OECD, from the framework of National Accounts; for Jersey, from survey data.

Related income and wealth statistics

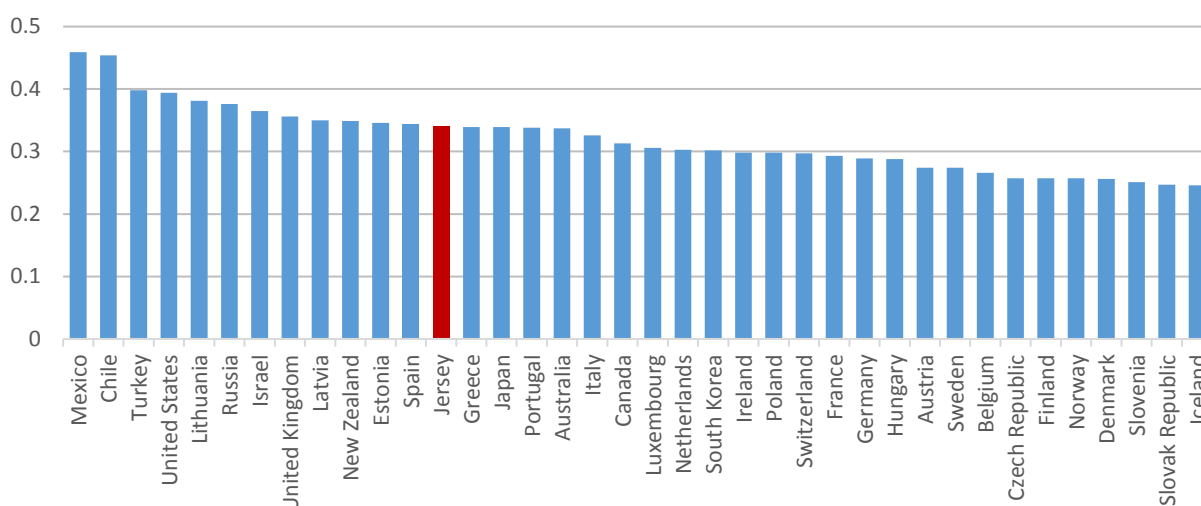
The Gini Index

Indicators of *average* income do not provide a picture of how income is distributed across a population. Supplementing a measure of average income with an indicator of income inequality presents a more detailed perspective 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; 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).

The 2014/2015 Income Distribution Survey determined the Gini index for net income (BHC) in Jersey to be 0.34¹¹. As Figure 5 shows, income inequality, as measured by this indicator, was greater (i.e. worse) in Jersey than in the majority of OECD nations.

Figure 5: Gini index, Jersey (2014) and the OECD¹²



Income was less equally distributed in Mexico and Chile (Gini index greater than 0.4) than in other OECD countries. In contrast, Iceland and the Slovak Republic had relatively lower levels of income inequality (i.e. income was more equally distributed) with Gini index around 0.25.

Prevalence of relative low income

Examining the prevalence of relative low income provides 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 a specific threshold, defined as 60% of the median equivalised net income (BHC) of the entire population

¹¹ The measure of the Gini index for Jersey is comparable with those of the OECD, but some caution is advised as national practices differ in terms of concepts, measures, and statistical sources.

¹² Reference year 2014, apart from: 2015; Chile, Japan, Luxembourg; and 2011; Russia.

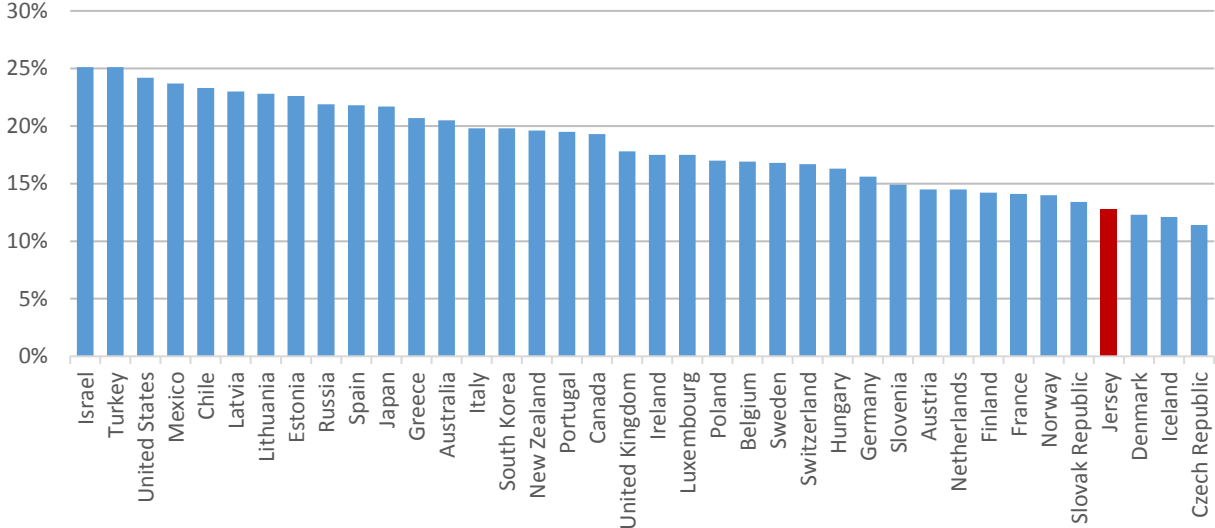
The 2014/15 Jersey Income Distribution Survey found that around one in eight (13%) of all individuals in Jersey were living in relative low income households. This proportion was substantially greater for pensioners (see table 2), with almost a quarter (24%) of pensioners in Jersey living in relative low income.

Table 2: Relative low income in Jersey; 2014/2015

Children (aged less than 16 years)	Working-age (women/men aged 16-59/64)	Pensioners	All
13%	10%	24%	13%

The proportion of the population living in relative low income varied considerably across the OECD (Figure 6), from around one in ten in the Czech Republic to a quarter in Turkey and Israel.

Figure 6: Relative low income, Jersey and the OECD; percentage of individuals with less than 60% of median equivalised income of entire population¹³



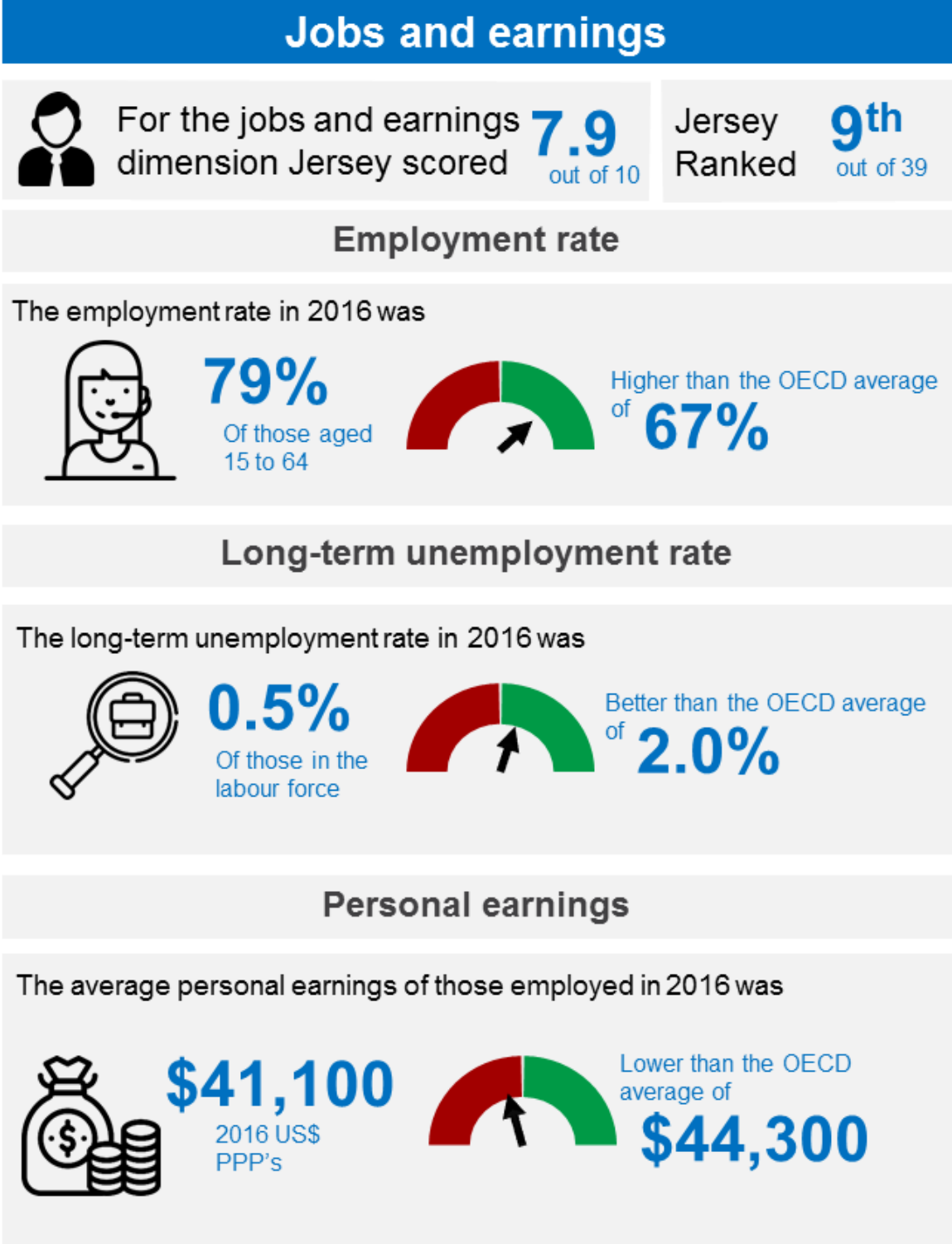
The proportion of the population living in relative low income in Jersey (13%) was lower than in all but three countries (Denmark, Iceland and the Czech Republic).

It is worth noting that different placements of countries between the Gini Index (figure 5) and relative low income (figure 6) charts is largely due to the different levels of perspective of the two measures: the Gini Index aims to measure the disparities in income between all households; whereas the relative low income measure is looking at the proportion of the population which are below a certain income level.

¹³ 2014 for all countries apart from: 2015, Chile, Luxembourg, Japan; and 2011, Russia.

Jobs and earnings

Employment status and the quality of employment are factors which can, potentially, be used to predict overall well-being¹⁴. Whether an individual is employed, and the type of employment they are engaged in, can determine the amount of money available to access resources, can dictate whether ambitions are fulfilled and whether opportunities to learn and develop new skills become available. 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 depression¹⁵.



¹⁴ 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.

¹⁵ Clarke, A. E. and Oswald, A. J. (1994). "Subjective well-being and unemployment", *Economic Journal*, Vol 104, 648-659.

Indicators for this dimension:

There are three indicators in the jobs and earnings dimension:

- employment rate
- long-term unemployment rate
- personal earnings

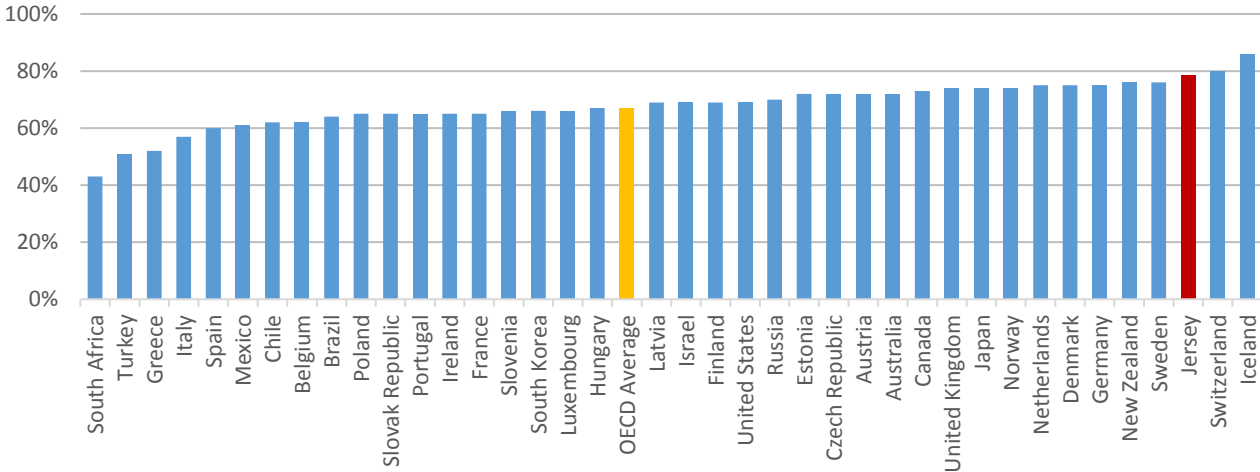
Employment rate

The employment rate for Jersey is defined as the proportion of the working age population (aged 15 to 64) who had worked either for an employer or on a self-employed basis.

In 2018, the employment rate in Jersey was 80%, corresponding to eight out of ten of the working-age population (15 to 64 years) either working for an employer or being self-employed¹⁶.

In order to compare with the OECD, the employment rate for Jersey was also calculated for 2016. Figure 7 shows that the employment rate for Jersey in 2016 (79%) was greater than in all OECD member and partner countries except for Iceland (86%) and Switzerland (80%), and was above the OECD average (67%).

Figure 7: Employment rates, Jersey (2016) and the OECD (2016, except Brazil; 2015)



A degree of caution should be acknowledged when making comparisons across jurisdictions due to differences in survey design for compiling labour market statistics, and also differences in population structure (generally a higher proportion of school-age population will result in a lower employment rate). Furthermore, the employment rate does not take into account people who are out of work by choice (e.g. homemakers and adults in full-time education).

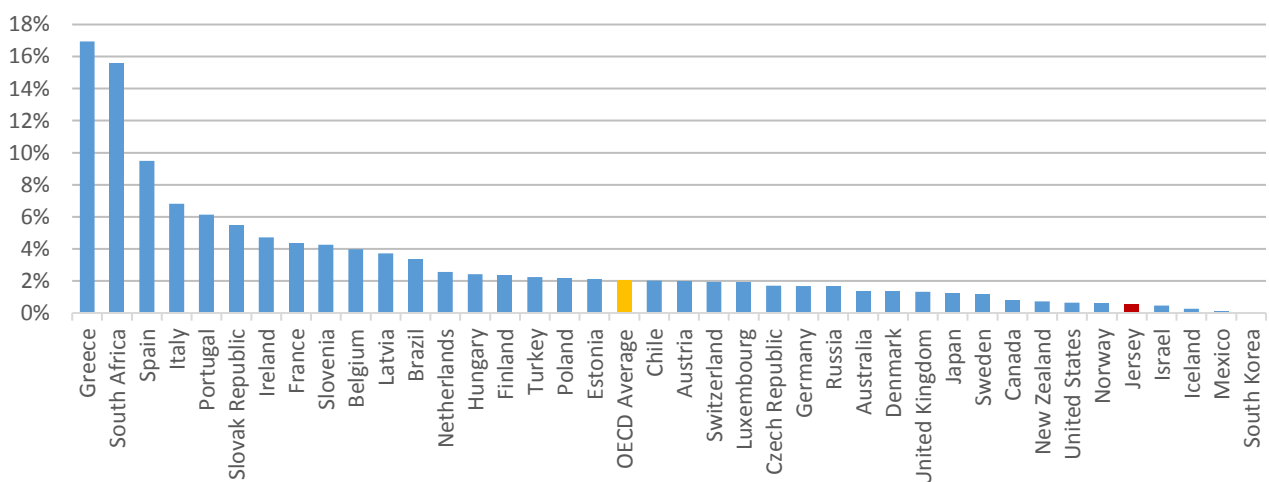
¹⁶ The employment rate for Jersey is derived from the job numbers reported in the [Jersey Labour Market reports](#). The figures presented in the Labour Market reports are adjusted to account for individuals working in multiple jobs. The proportion of the working age population is derived from population projections based on an annual net inward migration of +1,000 people per year into the Island – see [Population Projections 2016](#)

Long-term unemployment rate

The long-term unemployment rate for Jersey is defined as the number of adults aged 16 to 64 years who have been unemployed for a year or more, expressed as a percentage of the labour force (the sum of employed and unemployed persons). Unemployed persons are defined as those who are currently not working but are willing to do so and are actively searching for work¹⁷.

The long-term unemployment rate for Jersey in 2018 was estimated to be 0.51% of the labour force; the rate for 2016 was estimated to be 0.54%. These long-term unemployment rates compare favourably with OECD members and partners (shown for 2016 in Figure 8), with only Israel, Iceland, Mexico and South Korea having a lower rate. In contrast, around a sixth of the labour force in Greece and South Africa had been unemployed for more than a year.

Figure 8: Overall long-term unemployment rates, Jersey (2016) and the OECD (2016; except Luxembourg, 2015; and South Korea, 2013)



Personal earnings

Personal earnings considers an employee's gross remuneration, defined as total earnings before deductions are made by the employer in respect of taxes, contributions of employees to social security and pension schemes, life insurance premiums, union dues and other obligations of employees.

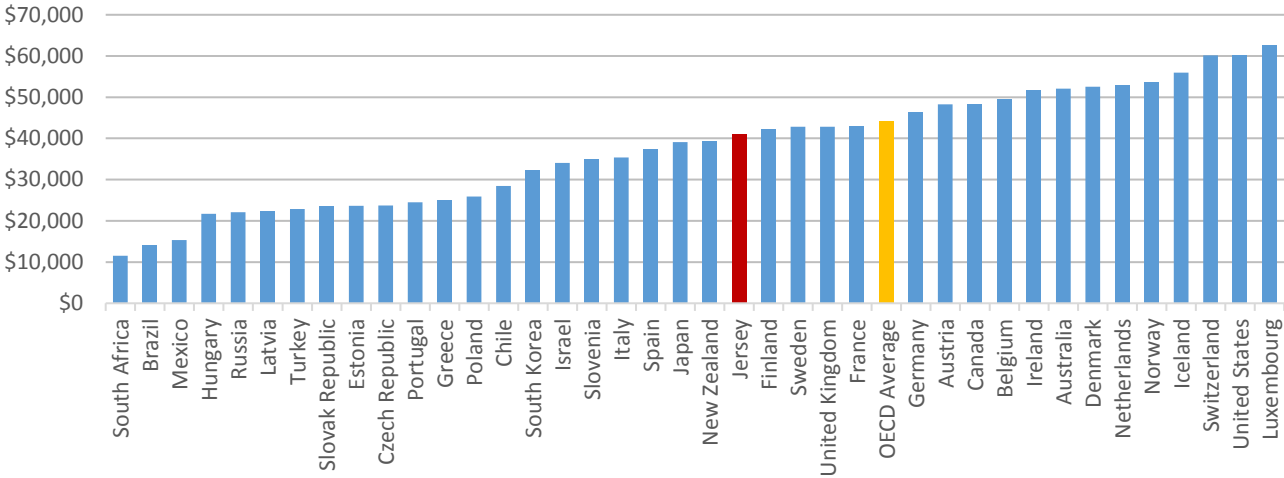
Following the OECD methodology, the average gross earnings of employees in Jersey is derived from the national accounts measure of the total wage bill in the economy. This figure is then divided by the average number of full-time equivalent (FTE) employees in the workforce, including self-employed people; part-time employees are weighted according to the number of hours worked. By this approach, average personal earnings in Jersey in 2016 were £37,400 per FTE employee.

For comparability with the OECD, average (mean) personal earnings is expressed in US dollars on a purchasing power parity basis and deflated by the relative cost of living between Jersey and the UK (see footnote 4). On this basis, mean personal earnings in Jersey in 2016 were \$41,100 per FTE worker.

¹⁷ There are also potentially long-term unemployed persons in Jersey who are not registered as actively seeking work (ASW) with the relevant government department but who still are actively seeking work. The number of such unemployed people is estimated using 2011 census parameters and proportions based on current ASW numbers.

As Figure 9 shows, mean personal earnings per FTE worker in Jersey in 2016 (\$41,100) were lower than in the U.K. (\$42,800) and were also below the average for the OECD (\$44,300).

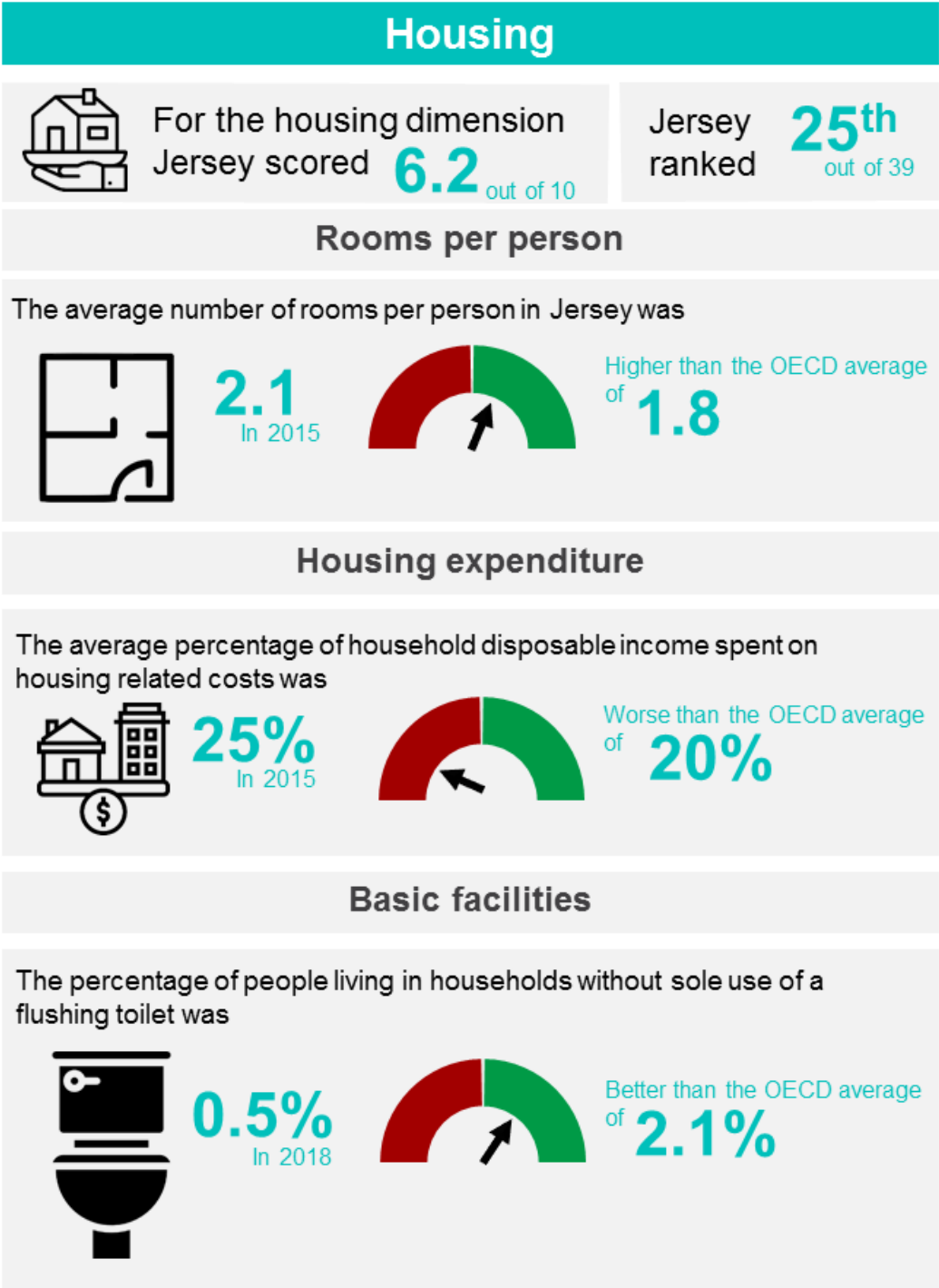
Figure 9: Mean personal earnings per FTE worker, Jersey (2016) and the OECD (2016); US\$ PPP



The personal earnings of workers varied substantially across the OECD (2016); in the United States (\$60,200) and Luxembourg (\$62,600) mean personal earnings per FTE worker were more than five times higher than in South Africa (\$11,600).

Housing

Adequate accommodation is considered to be a basic human requirement and it is widely accepted that where we live can affect our well-being¹⁸. The quality and affordability of homes, coupled with their location and suitability to specific needs, are factors that can affect overall life satisfaction. Additionally, poor housing conditions, overcrowding and a 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 children¹⁹. Similarly, high housing costs can leave little disposable income to spend on food, healthcare and other necessities²⁰.



¹⁸ United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights (2009). "The Human Right to Adequate Housing", *Fact Sheet No. 21* (Rev. 1).

¹⁹ OECD (2009), "Comparative Child well-being across the OECD", in *Doing Better for Children*, OECD Publishing, Paris.

²⁰ OECD, (2001a), "Housing and the Economy: Policies for Renovation", in *Economic Policy Reforms 2011: Going for Growth*, OECD Publishing.

Indicators for this dimension:

There are three indicators in the housing dimension:

- average number of rooms per person
- housing expenditure
- basic facilities (flushing toilet for sole use of the household)

Average (mean) number of rooms per person

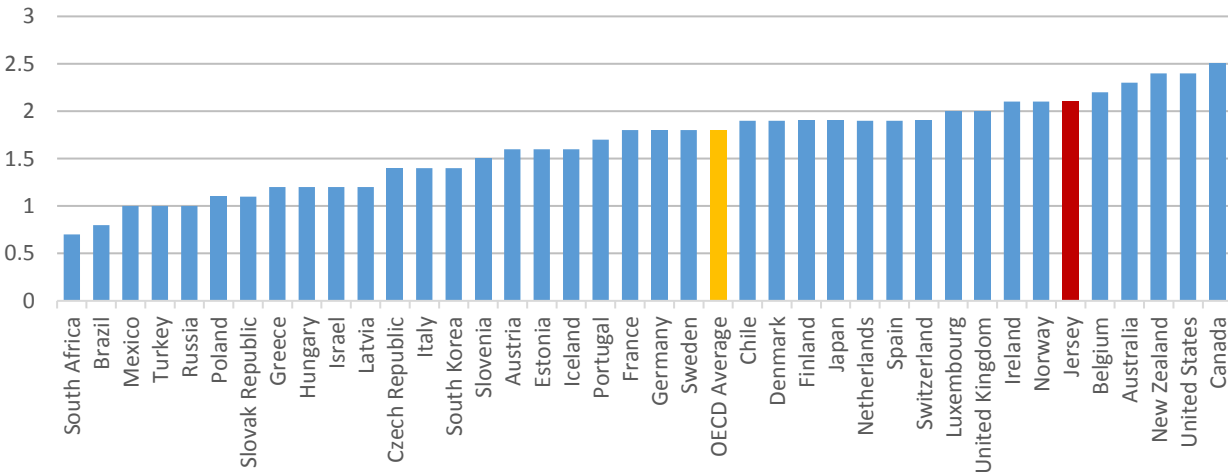
The average number of rooms per person in a household is a measure of overcrowding. It is thought that overcrowding can be detrimental to both physical and mental health, as well as negatively impact child development²¹.

This indicator is defined as the number of rooms in all dwellings (excluding kitchenette, scullery/utility room, bathroom, toilet, garage, consulting rooms, office and shop) divided by the number of people residing in such dwellings.

The 2018 Jersey Opinions and Lifestyle Survey found that each Jersey resident occupied 2.1 rooms, on average; this level of occupancy satisfies the living space requirements defined by Eurostat²².

For comparison with the OECD, the average number of rooms per person in Jersey was also calculated for 2015. The figure for Jersey in this year (2.1) was higher than the average of 1.8 observed across the OECD (see Figure 10). People living in Jersey had more living space, on average, than those living in the UK, where the average number of rooms per person was 2.0.

Figure 10: Average (mean) number of rooms per person, Jersey (2015) and the OECD²³



Living space requirements, at the level of one room per person, were satisfied in all OECD countries except in South Africa (0.7) and Brazil (0.8). In contrast, each resident of Canada occupied 2.5 rooms, on average.

²¹ Social Science Research, Volume 41, Issue 2, Pages 464-476. doi: [10.1016/j.ssresearch.2011.09.012](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ssresearch.2011.09.012).

²² Eurostat defines overcrowding as a dwelling in which the number of rooms available to each resident is less than one.

²³ Reference year is 2015 with the exception of 2016 for Finland, Hungary and Latvia; 2014 for Israel, Japan and Switzerland; 2013 for New Zealand and Switzerland; 2011 for Canada, Chile; and 2010 for South Korea.

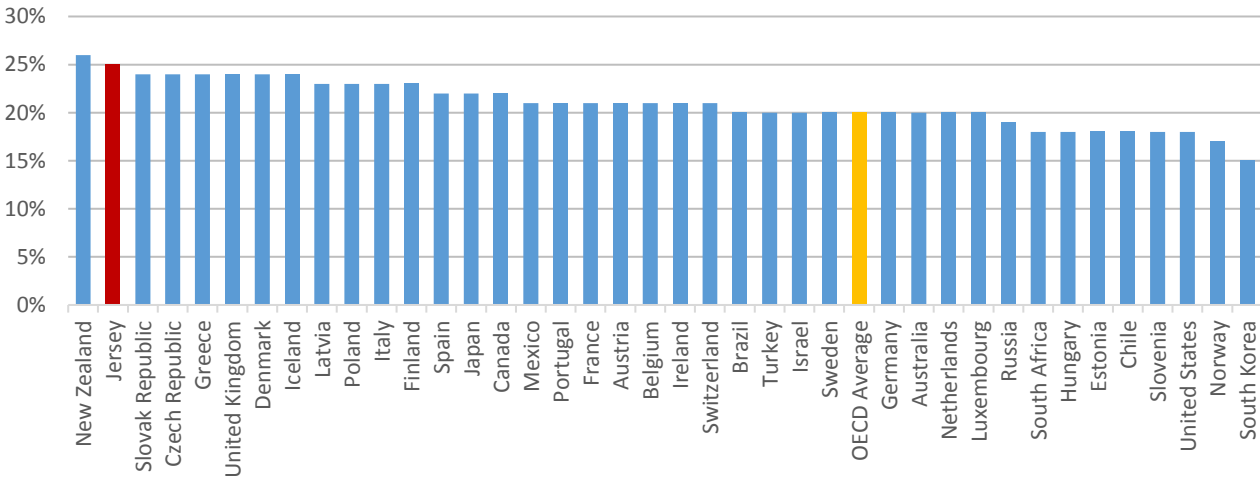
Housing expenditure

Housing expenditure expressed as a percentage of household net disposable income is considered to be an important indicator of the well-being of households. A high percentage of income being spent on housing related costs can cause financial stress and a lack of other necessities.

Housing expenditure, as measured by the OECD, is derived from the system of national accounts and includes: actual and imputed rentals for housing; dwelling maintenance and repair (including miscellaneous services); water supply; electricity, gas and other fuels; as well as expenditure on furniture, furnishings and household equipment, for maintenance or other purposes²⁴. Housing expenditure measured for Jersey includes all the costs contained in the national accounts definition and is therefore comparable to that of the OECD²⁵.

For Jersey, a measure of net adjusted disposable income (before housing costs, BHC) is derived from the latest Jersey Income Distribution Survey²⁶. In 2017, housing related costs in Jersey accounted for more than a quarter (26%) of household net adjusted disposable income (BHC), on average. The proportion in 2015 was slightly lower (at 25%), and is shown for this year compared with the OECD in Figure 11.

Figure 11: Housing costs as a percentage of household net adjusted disposable income (BHC) Jersey (2015) and the OECD²⁷



The proportion of housing costs to household net adjusted disposable income (BHC) varied across the OECD; ranging from 15% in South Korea to 26% in New Zealand.

²⁴ Principal mortgage payments are excluded.
²⁵ The majority of data is taken from the [2014/15 Jersey Household Spending Survey](#), States of Jersey Statistics Unit, 2015 and is updated using relevant indices from the [Jersey Retail Price Index](#). Imputed rentals are taken from the Jersey [National Accounts](#).
²⁶ Report on the [2014/15 Jersey Income Distribution Survey](#), States of Jersey Statistics Unit, 2015, updated using the [Jersey Index of Average Earnings](#) and adjusted to include social transfers in kind (see footnote 6).
²⁷ Reference year 2015 with the exception of 2016 for Canada, Denmark, the United Kingdom; 2014 for Italy, New Zealand, Norway; and 2013 for Switzerland.

Dwellings without basic facilities

This indicator refers to the percentage of the population living in a dwelling without an indoor flushing toilet for the sole use of their household. Flushing toilets in a room where there is also a shower unit or a bath are counted but flushing toilets outside the dwelling are not counted.

The indicator varied considerably across the OECD. Several countries (Sweden, Switzerland, Norway, the Netherlands, Luxembourg and Iceland) had essentially 0% of their population living in a household without access to a flushing toilet for the sole use of their household. In contrast, three countries had proportions greater than 10%; Latvia (12.9%), Russia (13.8%) and South Africa (37%).

The 2018 Jersey Opinions and lifestyle survey found that 0.5% of people in Jersey were living in a household that did not have sole use of an internal flushing toilet. The average across the OECD was 2.1%.

Related housing statistics

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 conditions²⁸. Such a subjective indicator of housing conditions is the proportion of people who report being either 'fairly' satisfied or 'very' satisfied with their current housing²⁹.

The figures published in the previous round of the Jersey Better Life Index were that 93% of adults in Jersey reported being either 'very' or 'fairly' satisfied overall with their current housing in 2012. Only 1% said that they were 'not at all satisfied' and a further 6% reported being 'not very satisfied'.

The 2018 Jersey Opinions and Lifestyle Survey (JOLS) asked the same question as in 2012. The results were: 96% of adults in Jersey reported being either 'very' or 'fairly' satisfied overall with their current housing, an increase of 3 percentage points from 2012; only 1% said that they were 'not at all satisfied' and a further 3% reported being 'not very satisfied'.

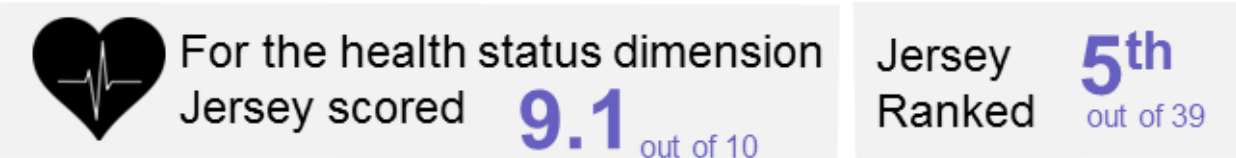
²⁸ Galster, G. C. (1987), Homeowners and Neighbourhood Reinvestment, Duke University Press, Durham, NC.

²⁹ As recorded by the [2018 Jersey Opinions and Lifestyle Survey](#)

Health status

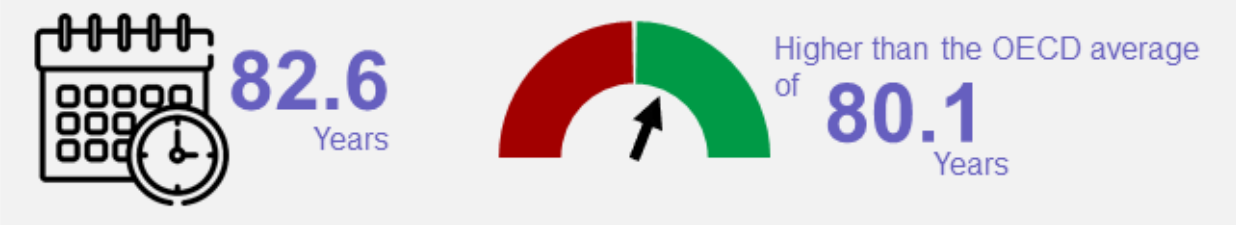
Health status is considered to be a strong predictor of life satisfaction and overall well-being, with OECD countries that perform better on health indicators generally reporting high overall life satisfaction. Health status is frequently ranked as one of the most valued aspects of people’s lives according to OECD research³⁰.

Health status



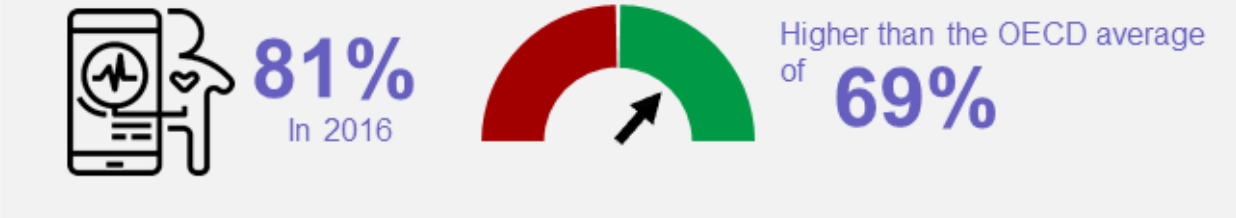
Life Expectancy

The average life expectancy for someone born in 2017 is



Self-reported health

The percentage of adults reporting their general health was good or above was



Indicators for this dimension:

There are two indicators in the health status dimension:

- life expectancy
- self-reported health

³⁰ [Compendium of OECD well-being indicators](#) 2011, OECD, page 20

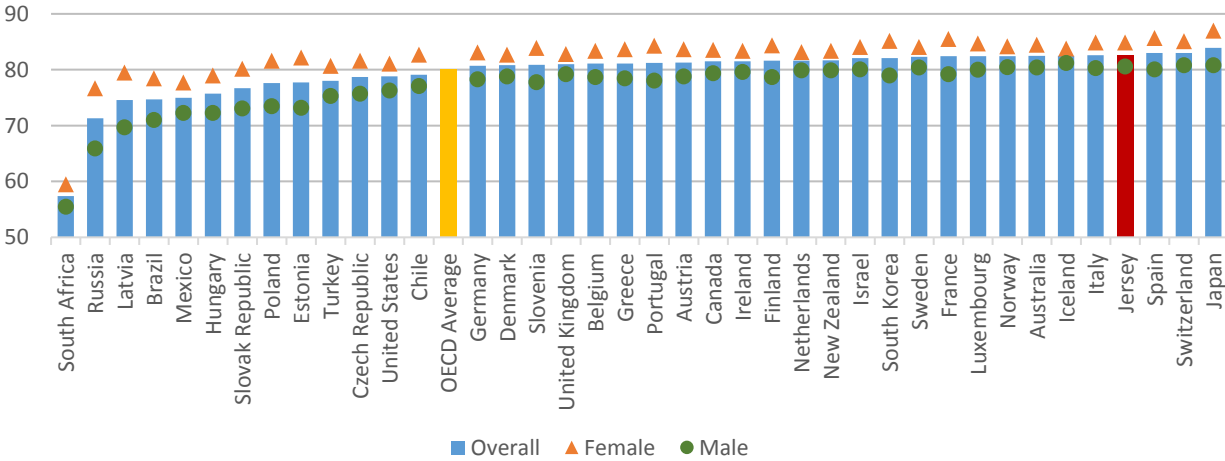
Life expectancy

Life expectancy at birth measures how long, on average, people could expect to live and is derived from the age-specific death rates currently prevailing in a jurisdiction (“period” rates). The indicator relates to people born today and is computed as a weighted average of life expectancy for men and women.

In smaller populations such as Jersey, age-specific death rates can be subject to annual fluctuations in the number of deaths occurring in a given year. The indicator calculated for Jersey is, therefore, calculated as a three-year average from data relating to 2017 and the preceding two years (2015 and 2016).

For the three-year period 2015-17, life expectancy at birth in Jersey was calculated to be 82.6 years. The life expectancy at birth of females in Jersey (84.9 years) was more than four years longer than that of males (80.6 years). Life expectancy at birth in Jersey and in the OECD is shown in Figure 12.

Figure 12: Life expectancy at birth, Jersey (2015-17) and the OECD³¹; years



Life expectancy at birth differed significantly across the OECD, ranging from 83.9 years in Japan to 57.4 years in South Africa. Around two-thirds (64%) of countries recorded life expectancy at birth exceeding 80 years; the average across the OECD was 80.1 years.

³¹ 2015 apart from Canada;2012

Self-reported health

A subjective measure of an individual’s health status, complementary to the broader population measure of life expectancy, is “self-reported health”. This indicator, in principle, summarises a range of health factors into a single measure.

To provide an indication of the self-perceived health status of residents, the Jersey Opinions and Lifestyle Survey (JOLS) asked respondents to rate their general health on a five point scale ranging from very good to very bad. In 2018, around four-fifths (81%) of adults in Jersey reported their general health status to be good or very good; in 2012 round a slightly greater proportion (85%) of adults had reported their health status to be good or excellent.

Self-reported health reported by adults in Jersey in 2018 varied slightly between the sexes: 35% of females rated their health as very good compared to 31% of males; whilst 45% of females described their health as good compared to 50% of males. Table 3 shows the self-reported health status of adults in Jersey broken down by age group.

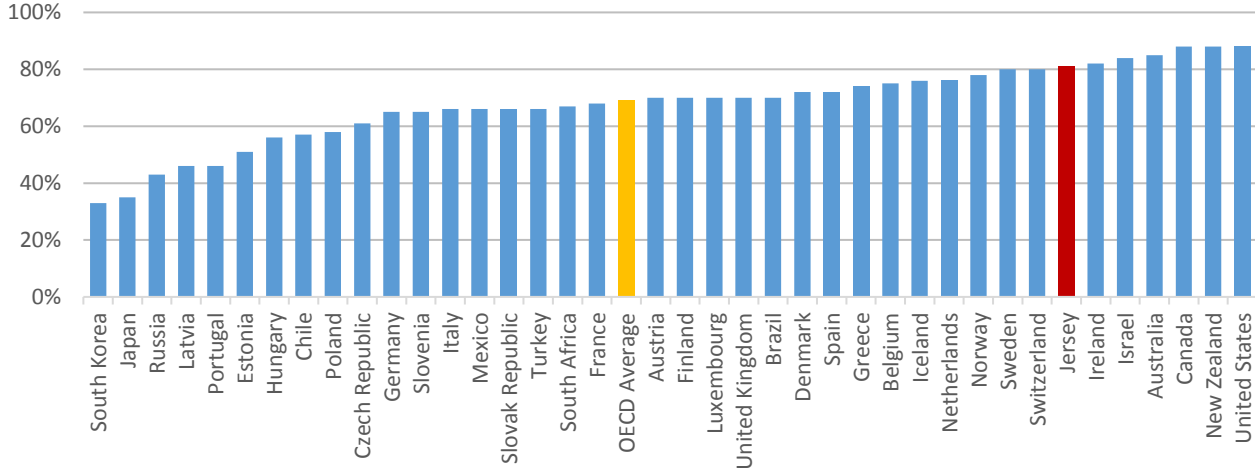
Table 3: Self-reported health by age group (2018); percentages

	16-34 years	35-44 years	45-54 years	55-64 years	65+ years	All
Good or above	88%	84%	80%	81%	66%	81%
Fair	10%	15%	14%	16%	30%	16%
Bad or below	3%	1%	6%	3%	4%	4%

Due to rounding some totals may sum to more than 100%.

The question wording and response scale used in JOLS is the same as that used in the majority of OECD countries. However, not all countries use the same questions wording and response scale; therefore, a degree of caution should be acknowledged when comparing self-reported health across jurisdictions. Figure 13 shows the latest available data for the OECD and that for Jersey (81%) from 2016 for comparability purposes.

Figure 13: Adults reporting good health or better in Jersey (2016) and the OECD³²



In 2016, 81% of adults in Jersey reported their health to be good or very good. The average across the OECD was 69%, ranging from a third (33%) of the adult population in South Korea to almost nine out of ten adults (88%) in the United States, New Zealand and Canada.

³² Reference year is 2015 with the exception of 2016 for New Zealand, the Russian federation; 2014 for Australia and Canada; 2013 for Japan; and 2006 for Mexico.

Work-life balance

Work-life balance is defined as “a state of equilibrium between an individual’s work and personal life”³³. Finding a balance between time spent at work and time spent on family commitments and personal lives is considered central to overall well-being³⁴. Spending too many hours a day at work is linked to problems with both physical and mental health, increased stress levels and can jeopardise personal safety³⁵; 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.

Work-life balance



For the work-life balance dimension
Jersey scored **6.5** out of 10

Jersey
Ranked **29th**
out of 39

Long working hours

The percentage of dependently employed adults working over 50 hours a week



12%
In 2016



Better than the OECD average
of **13%**

Indicator for this dimension:

Long working hours

The proportion of employed individuals working 50 hours or more per week across all their jobs, not including any hours done whilst self-employed, is considered to be an important indicator of well-being. Research has 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.

The annual Jersey Opinions and Lifestyle Survey records hours worked by employees but excludes hours worked as self-employed, either in a main job or in additional jobs. Across the OECD, data on hours worked is generally collected through labour force surveys; different question wording between surveys means that caution is required when making comparisons between countries.

³³ Definition of the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions

³⁴ 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.

³⁵ Spurgeon, 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.

Table 4 shows the distribution of hours worked per week by employees in Jersey in 2018.

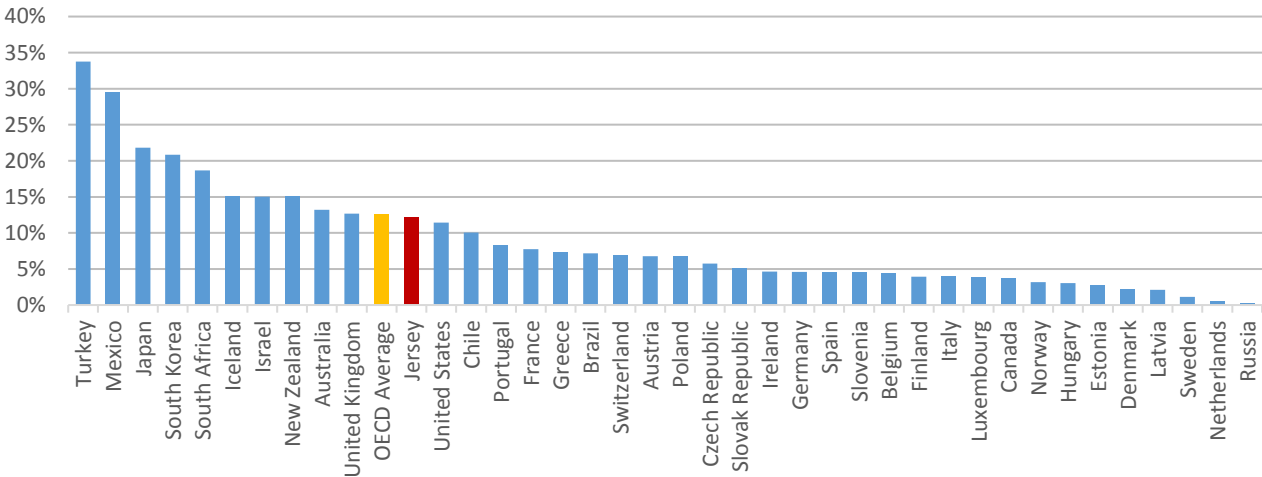
Table 4: Usual hours worked per week by employees (excluding self-employed hours) in Jersey (2018); percentages

Number of hours worked	<25	25 to 34.5	35 to 39.5	40to 49.5	>=50
Proportion of employees	9	8	25	40	18

In 2018, over a sixth (18%) of employees in Jersey were working 50 hours or more in a typical week. The proportion of employees working such hours in 2018 was considerably greater than that recorded in 2013 (7% of employees)³⁶.

Figure 14 shows the proportion of employees who normally worked for 50 hours or more per week across the OECD. For comparability purposes, the figure for Jersey in 2016 is used (12%), which was slightly lower than in the UK (13%) and the average across the OECD (13%).

Figure 14: Percentage of employees (excluding self-employed hours) working for 50 hours or more per week in Jersey (2016) and the OECD (2016, except Brazil; 2015)



More than a third (34%) of employees in Turkey reported working for 50 or more hours per week, the highest proportion in the OECD. In contrast, the proportion of employees who reported working such hours was less than 1% in both Russia and the Netherlands.

Related work-life balance statistics

Long working hours, including self-employed hours

Although the OECD definition of long working hours does not include any hours worked as a self-employed individual it is, nevertheless, informative to take into account such working hours from a well-being perspective. For Jersey, hours worked, including self-employed hours, are recorded by the annual Jersey Opinions and Lifestyle Survey.

Table 5 shows the distribution of hours worked per week by employees in Jersey in 2018, including self-employed hours. Almost a fifth (19%) of employees, including those who are self-employed, reported working 50 hours or more per week. This proportion represents an increase from that of almost 11% reported in 2013.

³⁶ [Jersey Annual Social Survey, 2013](#)

Table 5: Usual hours worked per week by employees (including self-employed hours) in Jersey (2018); percentages

Number of hours worked	<25	25 to 34.5	35 to 39.5	40 to 49.5	>=50
Proportion of employees	10	7	25	39	19

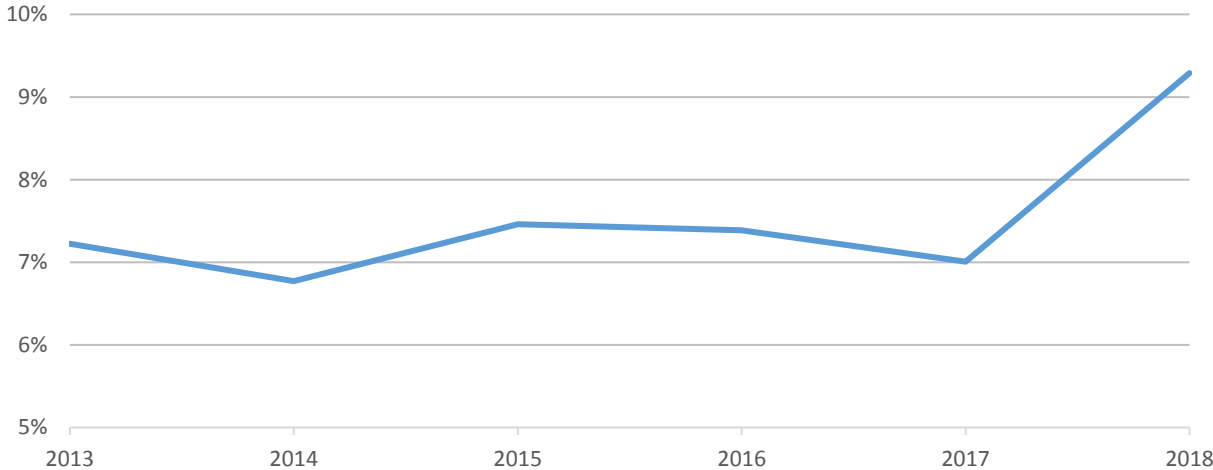
People working multiple jobs

The number of people working in multiple job roles is also important from the perspective of well-being. People working multiple jobs may be working long hours and may have longer commute times, as a consequence of travelling between jobs, resulting in less time for the individual to devote to leisure and personal care. Furthermore, research has suggested that an increase in the number of individuals working in multiple jobs has been indicative of economic hardships felt by certain demographics within a population³⁷.

For Jersey, data on people working in multiple jobs has been recorded by the annual Jersey Opinions and Lifestyle Survey. In 2018 nearly one in ten (9%) adults who were employed reported that they worked in at least one job in addition to their main job for over 3 hours per week.

Figure 15 shows the proportion of employed people in Jersey reporting that they worked in multiple jobs since 2013.

Figure 15: Percentage of those employed in Jersey who reported having at least one additional job, which is usually over 3 hours long per week; 2013-18

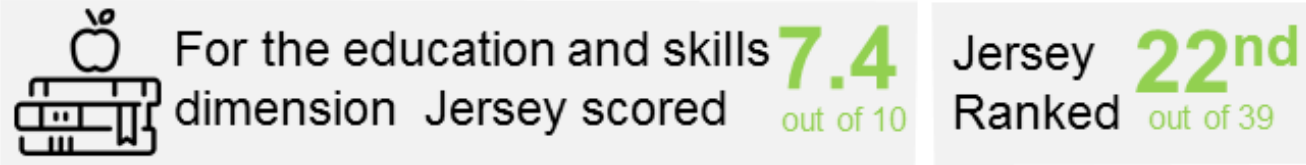


³⁷ Mishel.L, Bernstein.J and Schmitt.J (1997), *The State of Working America 1996-97*, Economic Policy Institute.

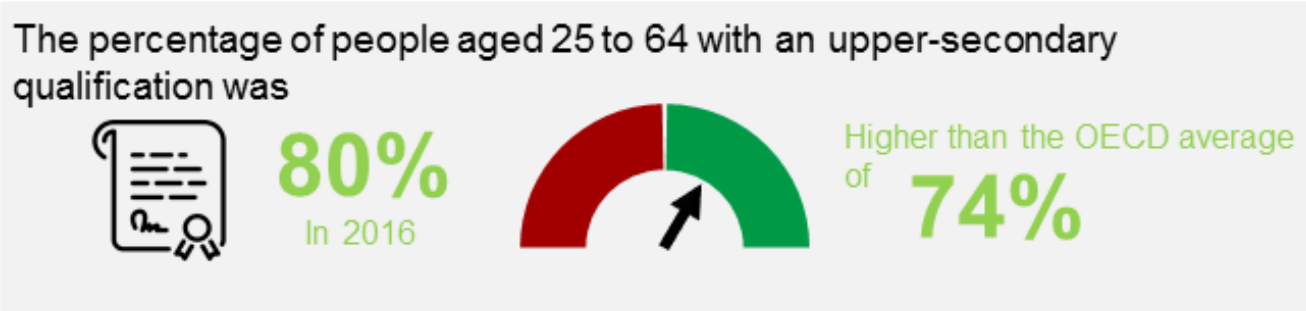
Education and skills

Education and skills are important for both personal well-being and the prosperity of a nation³⁸. 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 life³⁹. Similarly, learning has indirect effects on individual well-being by impacting on material living conditions; higher educational status generally leads to higher earnings and greater employability⁴⁰.

Education and skills



Educational attainment



Indicator for this dimension

Educational attainment

Educational attainment measures the percentage of the population aged 25 to 64 years 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, whereby residents were asked to report the educational qualifications which they had attained to date. Similar data to that recorded by the census has been collected by the annual social survey undertaken by the Statistics Unit/Statistics Jersey since 2010. The trend in the data from 2010 enables the census benchmark (75.8%) to be updated.

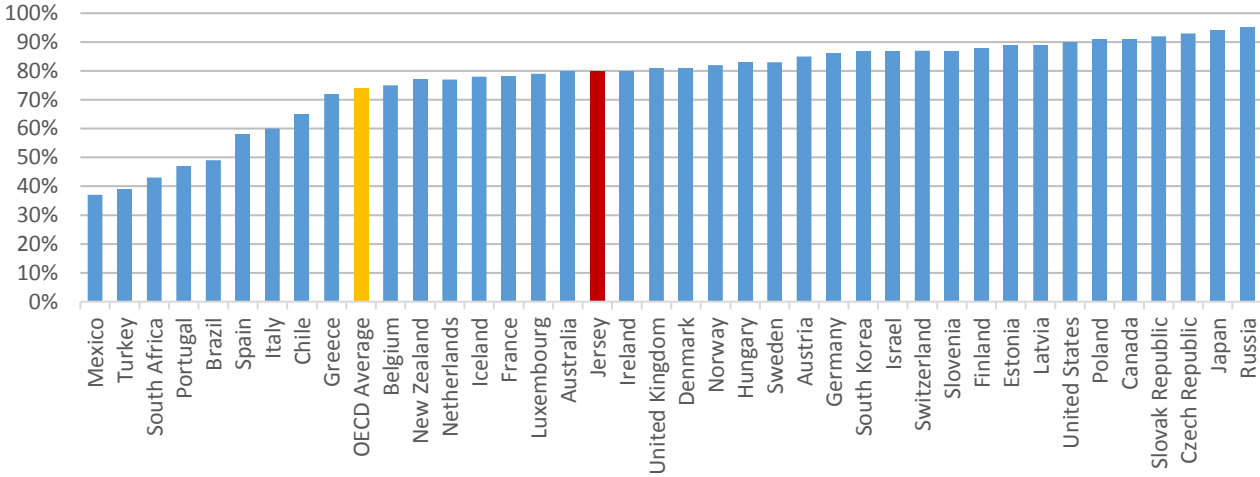
³⁸ OECD (2011a), "Towards an OECD Skills Strategy", Document Presented at the OECD Ministerial Council Meeting, Paris.

³⁹ OECD (2011), *How's Life?: Measuring Well-being*, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/9789264121164-en>.

⁴⁰ 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.

In 2018, it is estimated that around four-fifths (81%) of adults in Jersey aged 25 to 64 years held at least an upper-secondary education qualification. For comparability with the OECD, the estimate for Jersey in 2016 (80%) is shown in Figure 16.

Figure 16: Proportion of population having attained at least an upper-secondary educational qualification in Jersey (2016) and the OECD⁴¹; percent of population aged 25-64



Levels of educational attainment varied considerably across the OECD: more than nine out of ten adults aged 25 to 64 years in Russia (95%) and Japan (94%) had attained at least an upper-secondary educational qualification, compared with less than a half of adults in this age range in Mexico, Turkey and South Africa.

The percentage of adults aged 25-64 years to have attained at least an upper-secondary educational qualification in Jersey (80%) was slightly below that in the UK (81%) but was greater than the average across the OECD (74%).

⁴¹ Reference year is 2016 except for Brazil, Chile, Ireland, Russia and South Africa (all 2015).

Community

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 others⁴² and time spent with friends is associated with a higher average level of positive feeling. An individual's social support network can provide emotional and material support in times of need or during illness⁴³.

Community



For the community dimension
Jersey scored **9.1** out of 10

Jersey
Ranked **2nd**
out of 39

Social support network

The percentage of adults who had someone to count on in times of need was



96%
In 2016/18



Higher than the OECD average
of **89%**

Indicator for this dimension:

Social support network

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 does not inform about the *quality* of personal relationships, it does provide an insight into perceived social support network.

Data for Jersey was collected in the 2016 and 2018 Jersey Opinions and Lifestyle Survey. The same question was also asked of people in OECD countries through the Gallup World Poll, a survey on opinions and behaviours conducted in 160 countries worldwide⁴⁴. In this survey, all respondents are asked the same question set, thereby facilitating cross-country comparisons.

In Jersey in 2018, 98% of adults reported having a friend or relative who they could count on to help whenever needed; nearly nine in ten (87%) 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 (2%) of adults reported not having anyone to count on in times of need. These results were similar to those in 2016, when 94% of adults reported having a friend or relative who they could count on to help whenever needed.

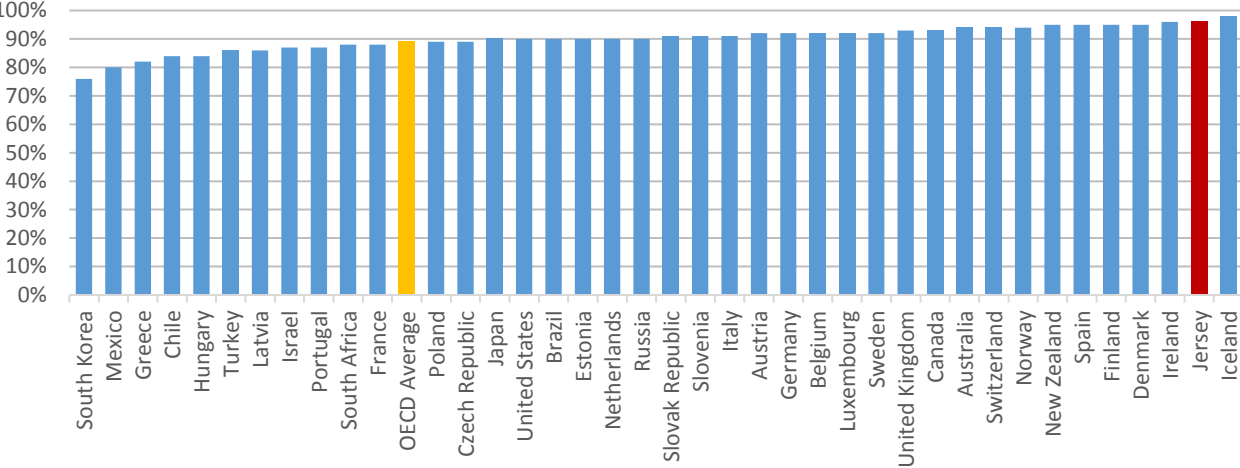
⁴² Kahneman, D. and Krueger, A. (2006), "Developments in the Measurement of Subjective Well-being", *Journal of Economic Perspectives*, 20:1, pp. 3-24

⁴³ Seeman, t. (1996)., "Social ties and health: The benefits of social integration", *Annals of Epidemiology*, 6:5, pp. 442-451.

⁴⁴ [Gallup World Poll](#)

The mean of the results for Jersey in 2016 and 2018 gives a value for this indicator of 96%; figure 17 shows a comparison with the OECD. On average, across the OECD, nearly nine out of ten adults (89%) reported having someone to count on in times of need, ranging from three-quarters of adults in South Korea (76%) to similar levels as Jersey in Iceland (98%) and Ireland (96%).

Figure 17: Percentage of people who have relatives or friends they can count on for help in times of need in Jersey (2016/18) and the OECD (2014-16)



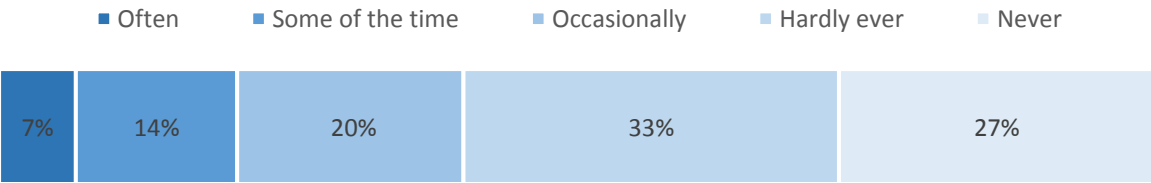
Related community statistics

Loneliness

Loneliness can have a significant impact on health and well-being. Amongst other reasons that negatively influence well-being, feelings of loneliness can be a physical or psychosocial stressor resulting in behaviour that is damaging to health, such as smoking⁴⁵. Although a high proportion of adults in Jersey reported that they had someone to count on to help if needed it does not necessarily mean that such individuals cannot feel loneliness.

In the 2018 Jersey Opinions and Lifestyle Survey 2018, adults were asked “how often do you feel lonely?”. Around one in five (21%) reported said they felt lonely often or some of the time and a similar portion (20%) felt lonely occasionally – see Figure 18.

Figure 18: Frequency of feeling lonely (Jersey, 2018)



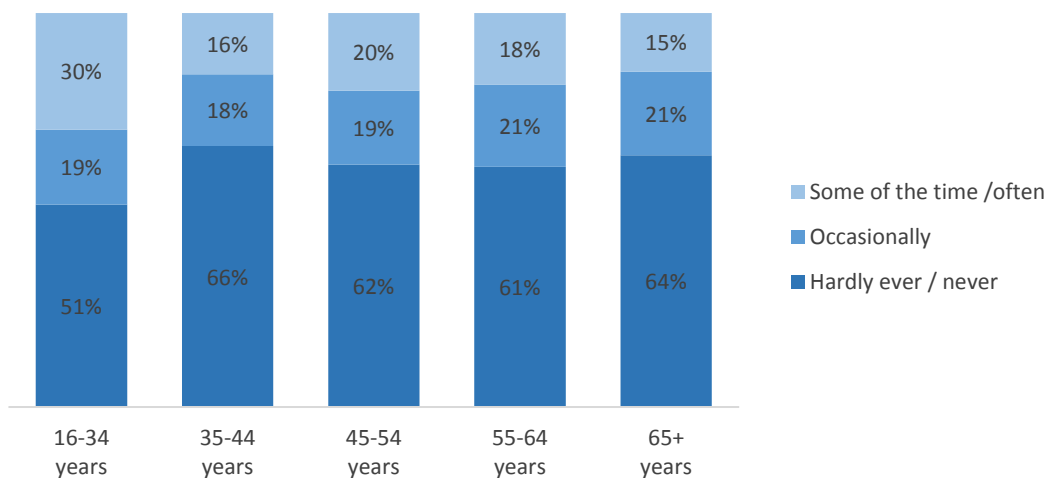
Around a quarter (27%) of adults in Jersey reported that they never felt lonely. The proportion who reported that they often felt lonely (7%) was similar to that in the UK (5%)⁴⁶.

⁴⁵ Fenton.K, Loneliness and isolation: Social relationships are the key to good health (2015), Public Health matters blog, U.K. Government

⁴⁶ Office For National Statistics - [Analysis of characteristics and circumstances associated with loneliness in England using the Community Life Survey, 2016 to 2017](#) (released April 2018)

Figure 19 shows the breakdown of responses by age group.

Figure 19: Frequency of feeling lonely, by age (Jersey, 2018)

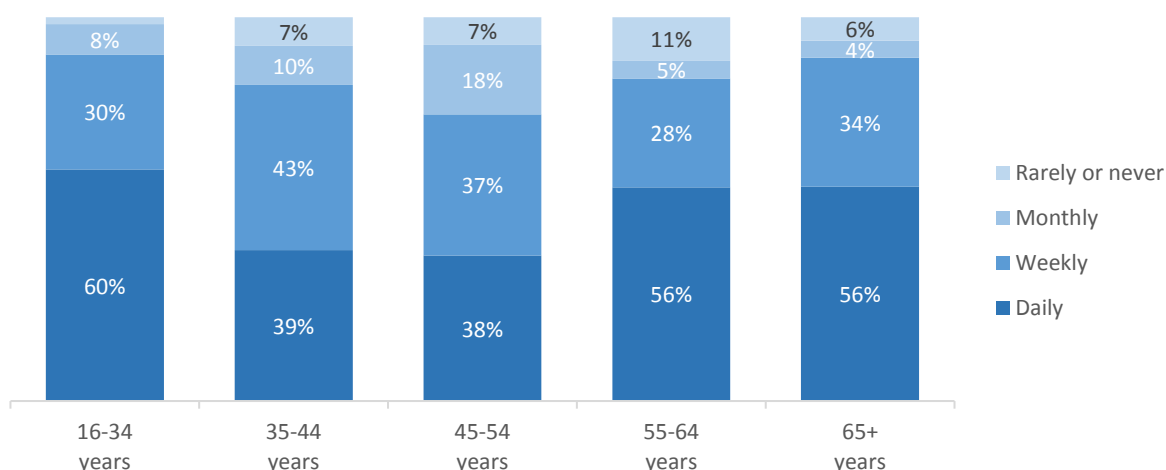


Socialising

Strengthening social networks and time spent socialising benefits well-being as well as improving mental health⁴⁷. Therefore, it is important for well-being purposes that individuals socialise not only amongst their household but also with friends.

Data has been collected in the 2016 and 2018 Jersey Opinions and Lifestyle Survey using the question “How often do you socialise (face to face) with people outside of your household?”. In 2016, nine out of ten (90%) of adults reported that they socialised (face to face) with people outside their household at least once a month; in 2018 this proportion was 94%. Those in younger age groups were more likely to socialise more often – see Figure 20.

Figure 20: Frequency of socialising face to face with people outside the household, by age (Jersey, 2018)



⁴⁷ Dolan, P., Peasgood, T. & White, M., 2008, Do we really know what makes us happy A review of the economic literature on the factors associated with subjective well-being, Journal of Economic Psychology, 29(1), pp. 94-122

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 community⁴⁸ and sense of personal efficacy⁴⁹. 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 suggested⁵⁰.

Civic engagement

For the civic engagement dimension

Jersey scored **0** out of 10

Jersey
Ranked **39th**
out of 39

Voter turnout

The percentage of registered voters who voted in 2018 was

OTE **43.4%**



Lower than the OECD average
of **69%**

Indicator for this dimension:

Voter turnout

Voter turnout is both an indication of citizen participation in the political process and of public trust in Government⁵¹. The measure of voter turnout considered in this report is the total number of people who voted in the States Assembly election held in May 2018 as a proportion of the number of people who were registered to vote. Data was compiled by the States Greffe and published on the vote.je website.

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

⁴⁸ 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.

⁴⁹ Barber, B. R. (1984), *Strong Democracy: Participatory Politics for a New Age*, University of California Press.

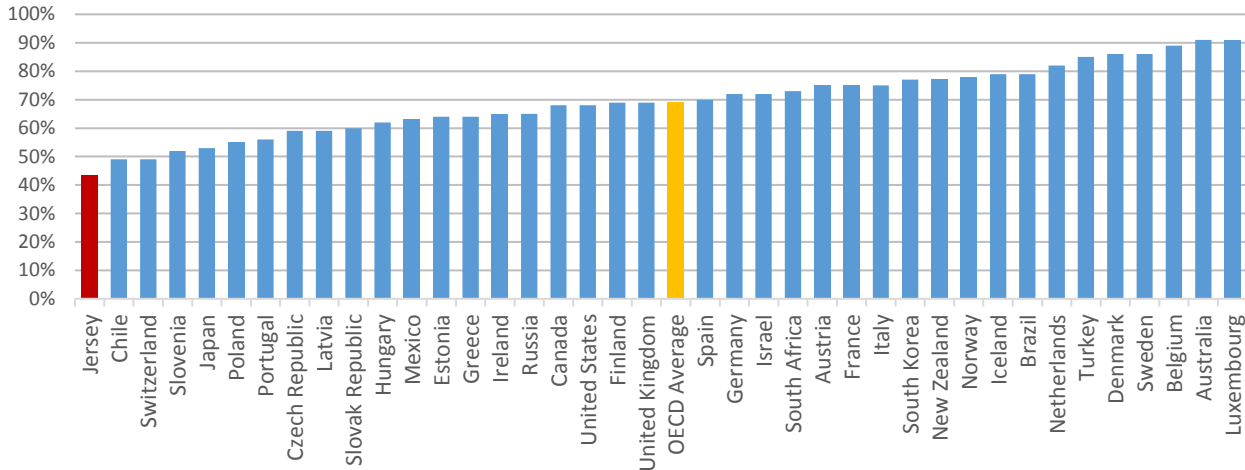
⁵⁰ Knack, S. (2002), “Social capital and the quality of government: Evidence from the States”, *American Journal of Political Science*, Vol. 46, pp. 772-785.

⁵¹ OECD (2011), *How's Life?: Measuring Well-being*, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/9789264121164-en>.

At the time of the States Assembly elections in May 2018: 62,123 people were registered to vote and 26,947 people voted, corresponding to a voter turnout rate of 43.4%. This voter turnout rate was nearly 3 percentage points lower than that for the October 2011 election in Jersey (as reported in the Jersey Better Life Index 2013).

Comparing the latest voter turnout in Jersey from a States Assembly election (43.4% in 2018) with the latest available data across the OECD shows that that voter turnout in Jersey was lower than that recorded in all other countries for which data is available (see Figure 21).

Figure 21: Percentage of people who voted in a parliamentary or presidential election, as the proportion of the registered population (latest year for which data is available)



Electoral participation varied considerably across OECD countries. Australia (91%) and Luxembourg (91%) recorded the highest voter turnout rates, at more than double the rate recorded in Jersey; it should be noted that in both of these countries voting is compulsory. The country with voter turnout rate closest to Jersey was Chile, which in 2013 had seen its first election since removing compulsory voting; the voter turnout in Chile in 2013 (49%) was almost half that in 2009 (88%), when compulsory voting was still in force.

Related civic engagement and governance statistics

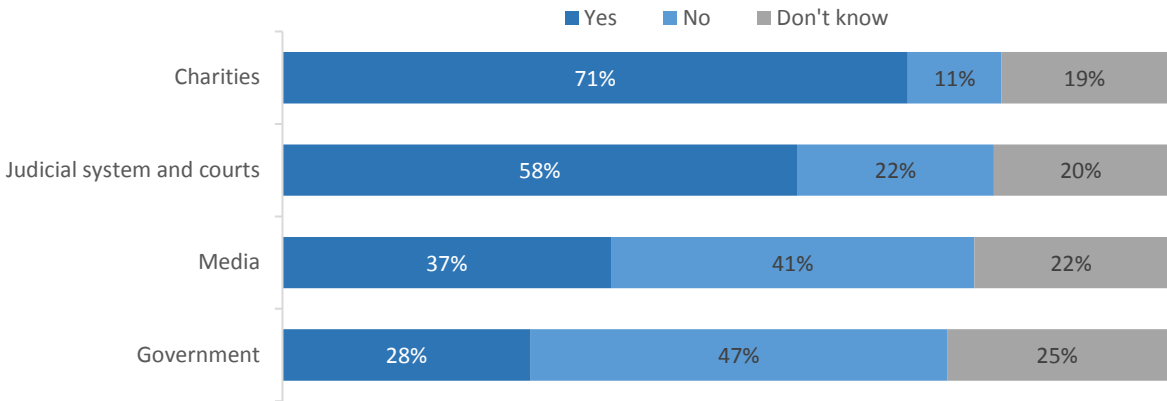
Attitudes towards Island institutions

Voter turnout rates do not necessarily depict the full picture; there is not an international consensus as to the reasons underpinning low voter turnout. With many factors potentially playing a role in Jersey’s internationally low voter turnout, it is worthwhile to consider the opinion of the population towards institutions, particularly governmental ones. Such a perspective is relevant to well-being as it has been found that people’s quality of life is affected by the functioning of the government, which establishes and regulates institutions that provide many services crucial for individual well-being⁵².

⁵² Helliwell, J. F., & Huang, H. (2008). How’s your government? International evidence linking good government and well-being. *British Journal of Political Science*, 38(4), 595–619.

The 2018 Jersey Opinions and Lifestyle Survey asked respondents whether they had confidence in a range of institutions in Jersey; the results are shown in Figure 22.

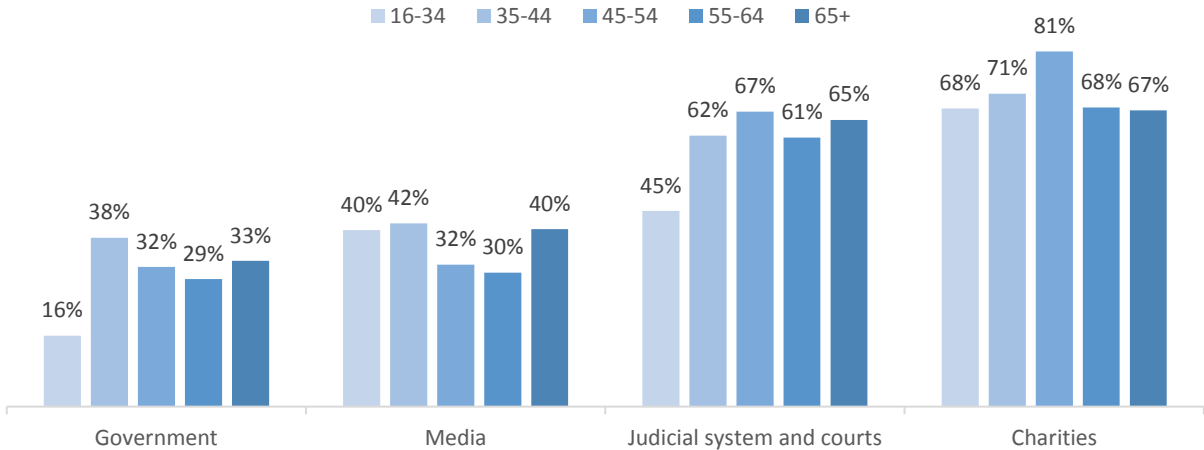
Figure 22: Do you have confidence in the following institutions in Jersey?; (2018)



Confidence in government was lower than the other identified institutions, with around a quarter (28%) of adults in Jersey saying that they had confidence in government, and almost half (47%) saying they did not. In contrast, confidence in the Island’s judicial system and courts was relatively high, with almost three times the number of people responding that they had confidence (58%) in these institutions compared with those who didn’t (22%). The proportions shown in Figure 22 are similar to those recorded in 2013⁵³.

When broken down by age, the notable differences between age groups were that those aged 16-34 years had substantially less confidence in Jersey’s government and judicial system, as is apparent in Figure 23.

Figure 23: Proportion of adults who have confidence in local institutions, by age group (2018)

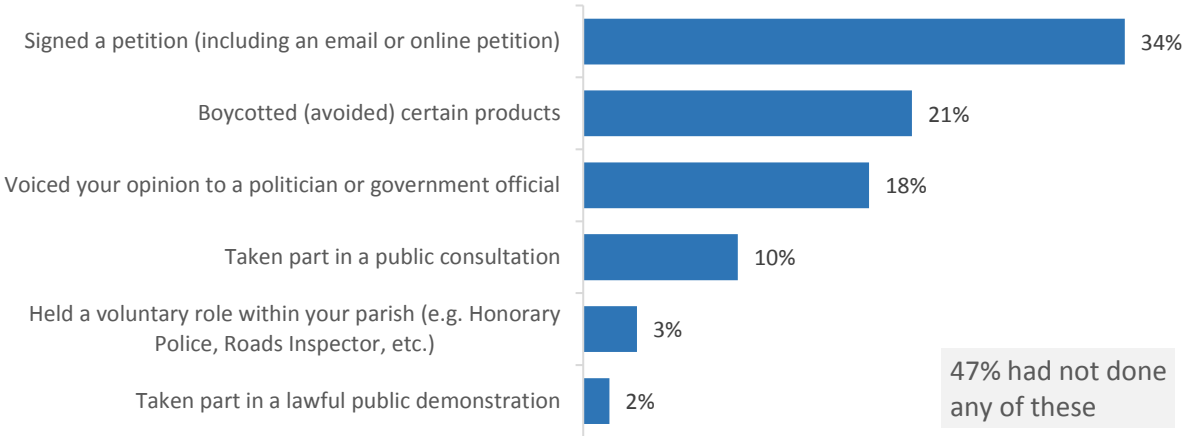


Civic activities

The proportion of the population undertaking civic activities is an indicator of the levels of civic engagement with government and, in some cases, government policy. Individuals were asked in the 2018 Jersey Opinions and Lifestyle Survey: “In the last 12 months have you done any of the following?”. The results from this question are shown in Figure 24.

⁵³ Except for that relating to confidence in local charities, which was not asked in 2013.

Figure 24: Proportion of adults who have taken part in particular civic activities (Jersey, 2018) (respondents could choose more than one)



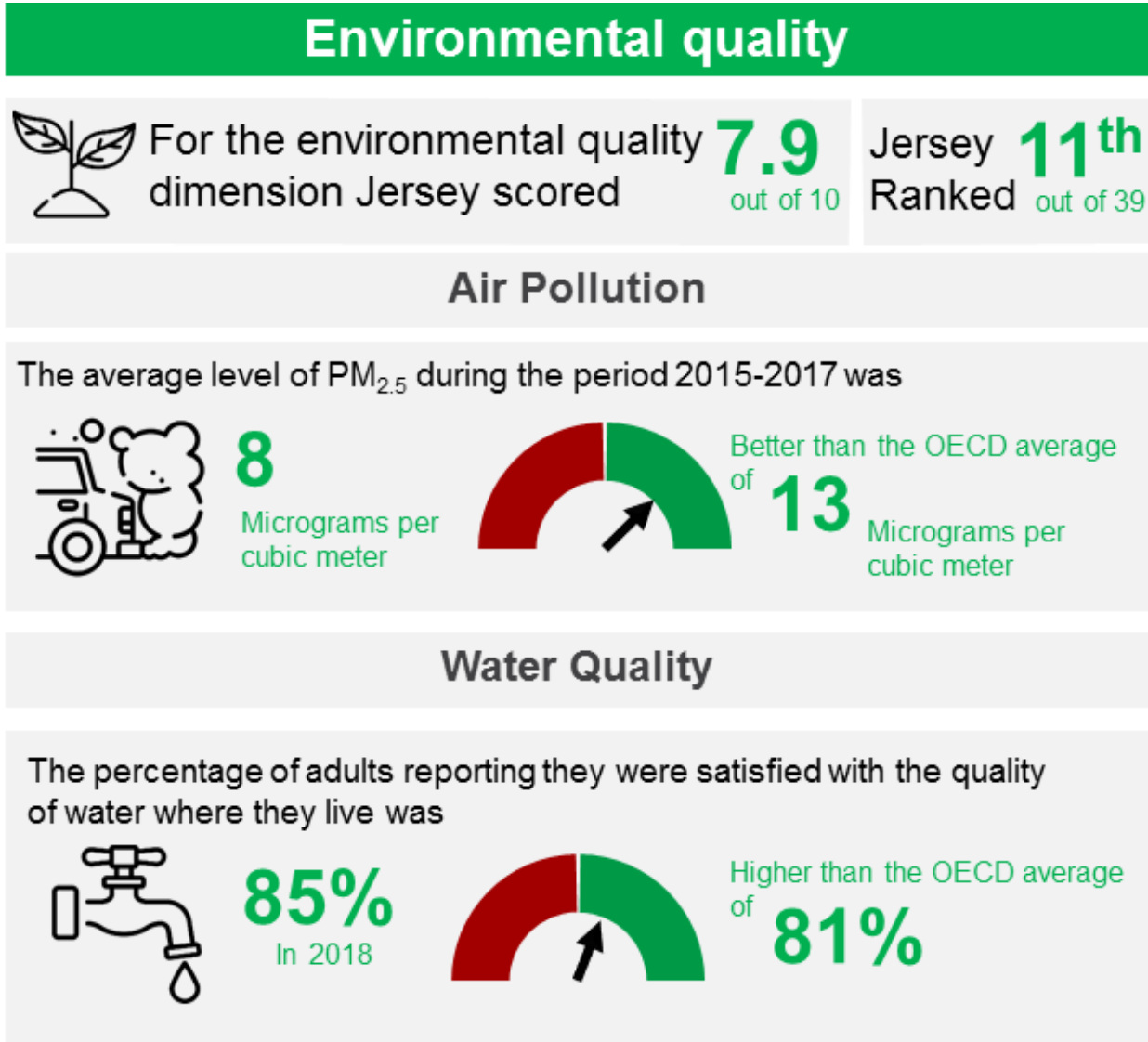
Around half (53%) of adults had done at least one of the listed activities in the previous twelve months. Signing a petition was the most commonly cited activity, with a third (34%) of adults reporting that they had done so. Across the age groups, similar proportions of people had taken part in at least one civic activity; however, signing a petition was more common amongst 16 to 34 year olds (42%), the proportion decreasing with age to around a quarter (24%) of those aged 65 and over.

Environmental quality

Our physical environment can have a direct effect on our health and overall well-being⁵⁴. For example, high levels of air pollution in urban areas have been linked to a range of health problems, including stroke, heart disease, lung cancer, and both chronic and acute respiratory diseases⁵⁵.

Reducing water pollution, from fixed sources such as industrial and municipal wastewater treatment plants, and diffuse pollution from agriculture and urban run-offs, is a challenge in many countries; improvements in freshwater quality are not always easy to discern. Nevertheless, access to clean water is fundamental to human well-being.

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 satisfaction⁵⁶ and improve mental well-being⁵⁷. People also benefit from having environmental services such as access to green spaces which can facilitate physical activity and the enjoyment of free time in the company of others.



⁵⁴ 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

⁵⁵ World Health Organisation (2 May 2018), Ambient (outdoor) air quality and health fact sheet

⁵⁶ 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.

⁵⁷ Brown, C. & Grant, M. (2007), "Natural medicine for planners", *Town and Country Planning*, Vol. 76, 2, 67-68

Indicators for this dimension:

There are two indicators in the environmental quality dimension:

- air pollution
- water quality

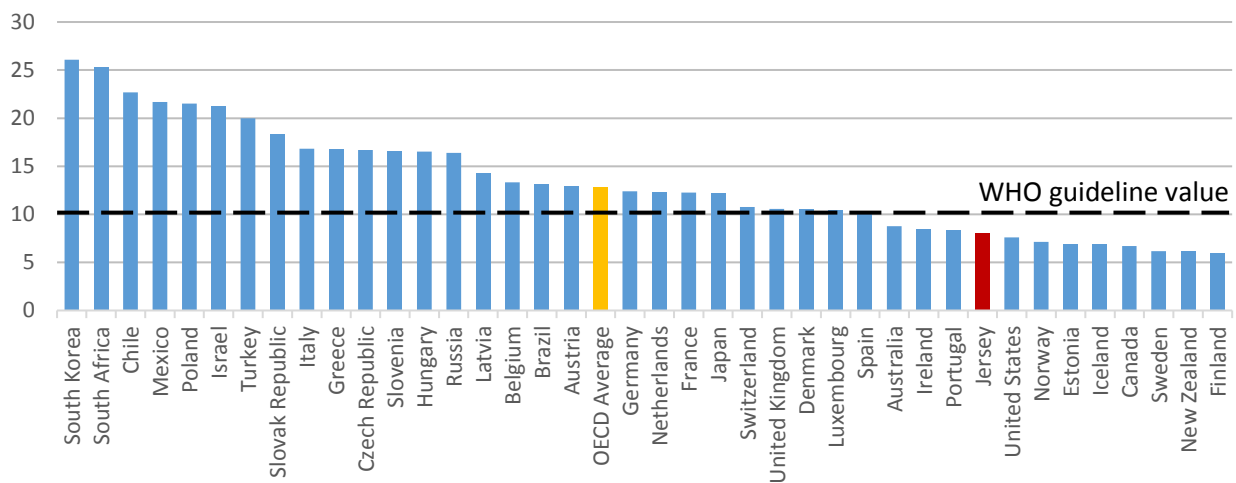
Air pollution

The measure of air pollution used as an indicator across the OECD is the mean annual concentration of fine particles in the air, measured in micrograms per cubic meter, $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. Fine particles are defined to be less than $2.5\ \mu\text{m}$ in size. Such particulate matter (labelled $\text{PM}_{2.5}$) is small enough to be inhaled into the deepest part of the lung, and can harm human health and reduce life expectancy. The World Health Organization (WHO) sets a guideline value of $10\ \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ as an annual average; the WHO reasoning for this level⁵⁸ is that “health effects can be expected when annual mean concentrations are in the range of $11\text{-}15\ \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ ”.

Air pollution readings in OECD countries are derived by integrating satellite observations, chemical transport models and measurements from ground monitoring station networks. Estimates are population-weighted using population datasets from the Joint Research Centre Global Human Settlement project⁵⁹. The mean urban concentration of fine particles ($\text{PM}_{2.5}$) in Jersey is taken as the average of that measured at two sites in St. Helier⁶⁰.

Over the period 2015-17, the mean urban concentration of fine particles ($\text{PM}_{2.5}$) in Jersey was $8\ \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. Although the three-year average across both sites complied with the WHO guideline value of $10\ \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, one site exceeded this in 2017, with an annual average of $11.66\ \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$.

Figure 25: Urban air concentrations of particulate matter in Jersey (2015-17) and the OECD⁶¹; $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentrations, micrograms per cubic meter ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)



⁵⁸ WHO air quality guidelines for particulate matter, ozone, nitrogen dioxide and sulphur dioxide; Global update 2005, Summary of risk assessment, page 10.

⁵⁹ [Joint Research Centre Global Human Settlement project](#)

⁶⁰ The two sites in St. Helier were near the Central Market and at Howard Davis Park; these sites were monitored using Turnkey Osiris Particle Monitors, designed to continuously monitor particle levels.

⁶¹ Latest data, where available for OECD nations, extracted from OECD databases. Data for OECD nations are a population weighted three-year average (2015-2017), except for Turkey (2012-2014).

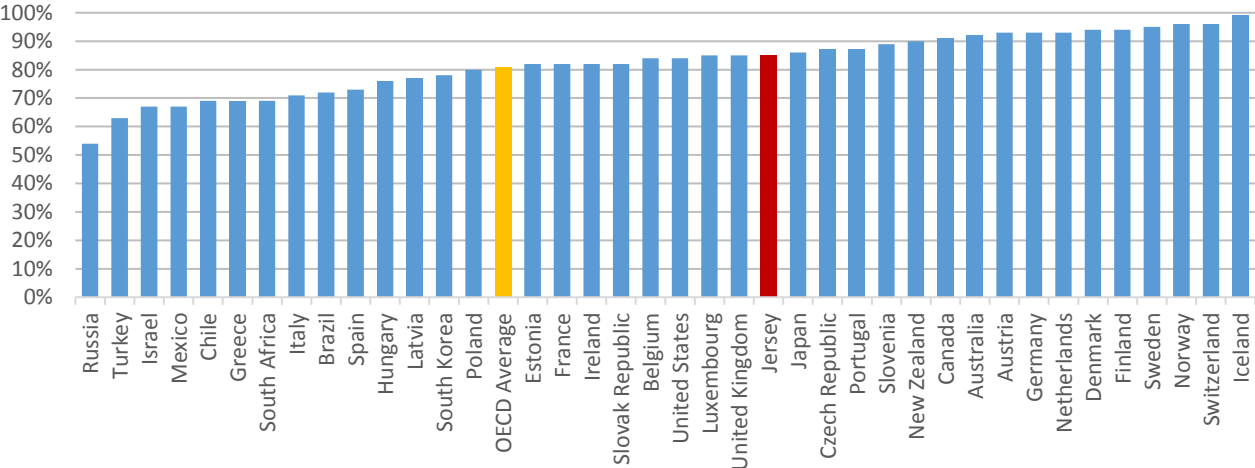
The latest data from the OECD showed that the majority of nations had PM_{2.5} concentrations above the WHO guideline value (see Figure 25). The highest concentration of fine particles was recorded in South Korea, where the annual mean PM_{2.5} level was nearly three times the guideline limit. The lowest level of PM_{2.5} was seen in Finland (6 µg/m³).

Water Quality

People's subjective appreciation of the environment where they live, in particular the quality of water, is important to well-being⁶². For comparability purposes, the 2018 Jersey Opinions and Lifestyle Survey included the same question as that used across the OECD relating to how adults rated the water quality in the area where they live. Nevertheless, some caution is required when interpreting the results of this subjective indicator, as individuals in different countries may have different expectations as to what high quality water is.

In Jersey in 2018, 85% of people said that they were satisfied with the quality of water in the area where they live, a higher percentage than the average across the OECD (81%). Only around half (54%) of people in Russia said that they were satisfied with the water quality in their area, whilst 99% in Iceland said that they were satisfied.

Figure 26: Satisfied with the water quality where they live, Jersey (2018) and the OECD (2014-16);



Related environmental quality statistics

Accessibility to green spaces

There is evidence relating to the physical and mental health benefits of green spaces; research indicates that access to green space is associated with better health outcomes and income-related inequality in health is less pronounced where people have access to green space⁶³.

The 2018 Jersey Opinions and Lifestyle Survey asked adults how easily they could access recreational or green spaces and if they used such spaces. Nearly nine out of ten adults who reported using recreational or green spaces said they could access them easily (43%) or very easily (46%).

⁶² Human Well-being and the Natural Environment: Research Challenges in Mathematical Sciences 2010, Ana Friedman, Ohio State University, page 5.

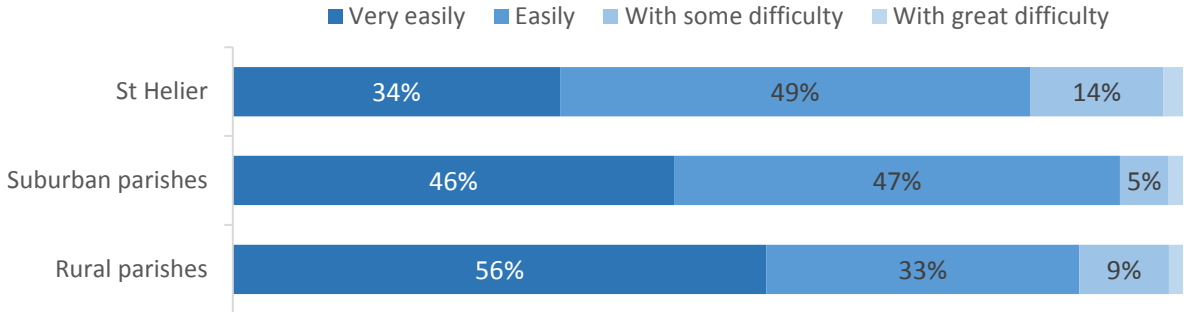
⁶³ Local action on health inequalities: Improving access to green spaces (2014), Public Health England

Figure 27: Accessibility of recreational or green space (Jersey, 2018)



These proportions were slightly different when broken down by parish. The proportion of adults reporting very easy access was more than half (56%) of those living in suburban parishes⁶⁴ but was around a third (34%) of those living in St Helier (see Figure 28).

Figure 28: Accessibility of recreational or green space, by parish (Jersey, 2018)



⁶⁴ The suburban parishes are considered to be: St Brelade, St Clement and St Saviour; the rural parishes are considered to be Grouville, St John, St Lawrence, St Martin, St Mary, St Ouen, St Peter, St Saviour and Trinity.

Personal safety

Living in a safe community is beneficial to people's well-being⁶⁵, with crime a frequently cited factor affecting quality of life. Crime negatively affects both the physical and mental health of victims⁶⁶ and can lead to pain, 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-victims⁶⁷.

Personal safety



For the personal safety dimension
Jersey scored **9.1** out of 10

Jersey **11th**
Ranked out of 39

Homicide rate

The average homicide rate per 100,000 people in Jersey is



0.6
People, 2014-16



Lower than the OECD average
of **3.6**
People, 2014-16

Safe walking alone at night

The percentage of adults that felt safe walking alone at night in Jersey was



79%
In 2018



Higher than the OECD average
of **69%**

Indicators for this dimension:

There are two indicators in the personal safety dimension:

- homicide rate
- feeling safe walking alone at night

⁶⁵ 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.

⁶⁶ Hanson, R. F., Sawyer, G. K., Begle, A. G. & Hubel, G. S. (2010), "The Impact of Crime Victimization on Quality of Life", *Journal of Traumatic Stress*, Vol. 23, 2, 189-197.

⁶⁷ Amerio, P. and Roccato, M. (2007), "Psychological reactions to crime in Italy: 2002-2004", *Journal of Community Psychology*, Vol. 35, 1, 91-102.

Homicide rate

This indicator represents the number of victims of homicide on an annual basis per 100,000 of population. Due to differences in the reporting of police statistics in some nations, the OECD Better Life Index uses health statistics to estimate the homicide rate⁶⁸.

Jersey’s population size means that the Island’s homicide rate calculated on an annual basis is relatively more sensitive to singular events than larger nations; therefore, a three-year (age standardised using the OECD population) average of homicides committed on-Island per 100,000 of the population is calculated and shown in Figure 29.

The mean annual homicide rate in Jersey over the three-year period 2014-16 was 0.6 per 100,000 of the population; this rate is lower than the OECD average and the majority of OECD nations.

Figure 29: Homicide rate Jersey (2014-2016) and the OECD⁶⁹;
per 100,000 of the population

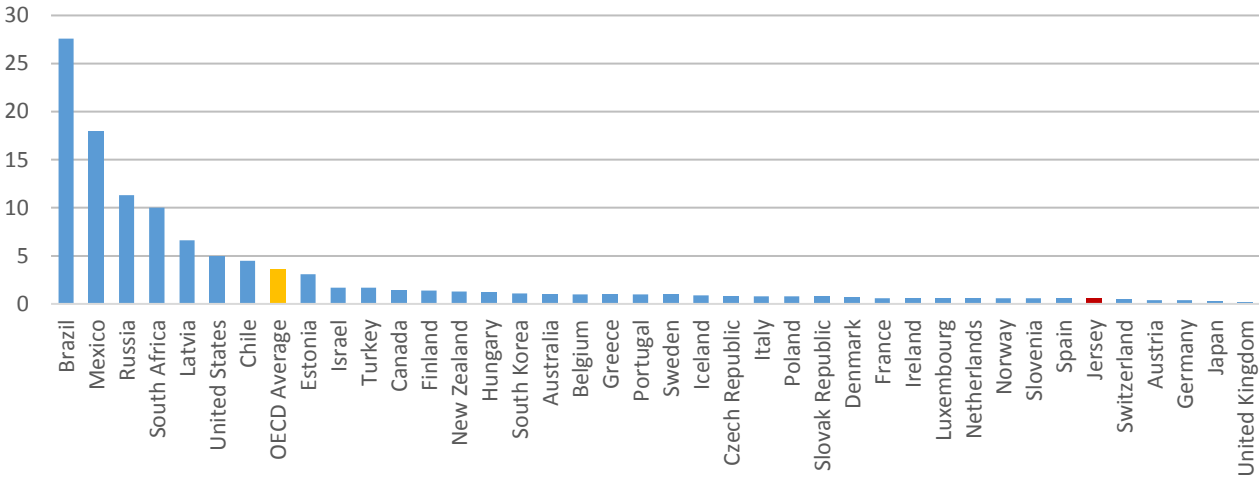


Figure 29 shows that in most OECD countries homicide rates were below the OECD average of 3.6 per 100,000; only seven nations had homicide rates above this average, ranging from around 5 per 100,000 in Chile and the United States, to almost 28 per 100,000 in Brazil. The lowest homicide rates, using this definition, in the OECD were seen in the United Kingdom (0.2) and Japan (0.3).

Feeling safe walking alone at night

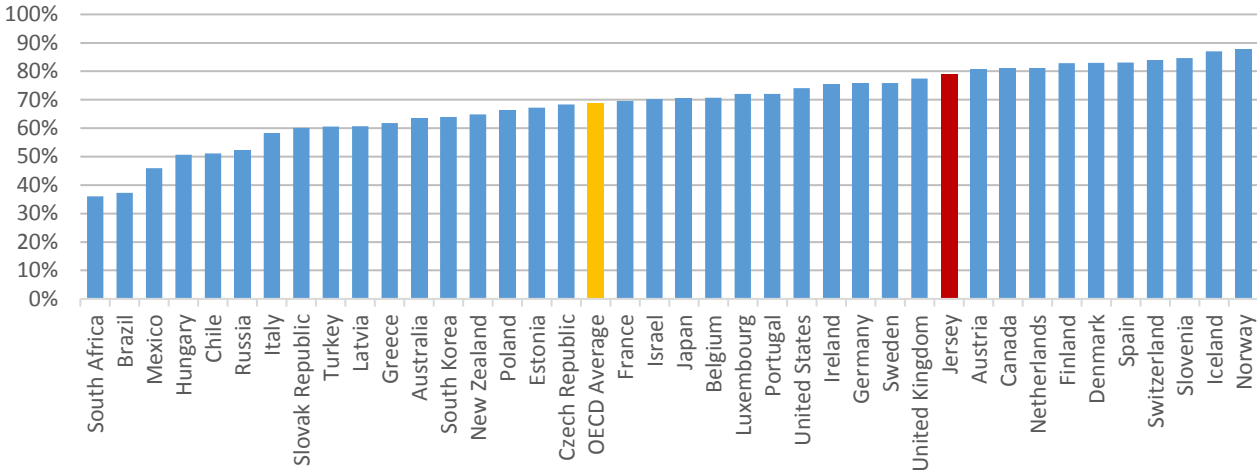
In countries with low crime rates individuals may still not feel safe; a subjective measure of how safe people feel provides a complementary perspective to crime rates when evaluating well-being. For comparability, the 2018 Jersey Opinions and Lifestyle Survey asked adults the same question as that in OECD nations through the Gallup World Poll.

In Jersey, of those people who either responded positively or negatively to the question, more than three-quarters (79%) said that they feel safe walking alone at night. This proportion was some 10 percentage points higher than the OECD average (69%) – see Figure 30.

⁶⁸ By this approach, the homicide rate is derived from an age standardised average of the number of deaths which have been classified as due to assault.

⁶⁹ Reference year is 2014 with the exception of 2015 for the Czech Republic, Iceland, Slovenia, Sweden; 2013 for France, Ireland, South Korea, Switzerland, Turkey and the United Kingdom; 2012 for Canada, Italy, New Zealand; and 2011 for the Russian federation.

Figure 30: Proportion of people who felt safe walking alone at night in Jersey (2018) and the OECD⁷⁰



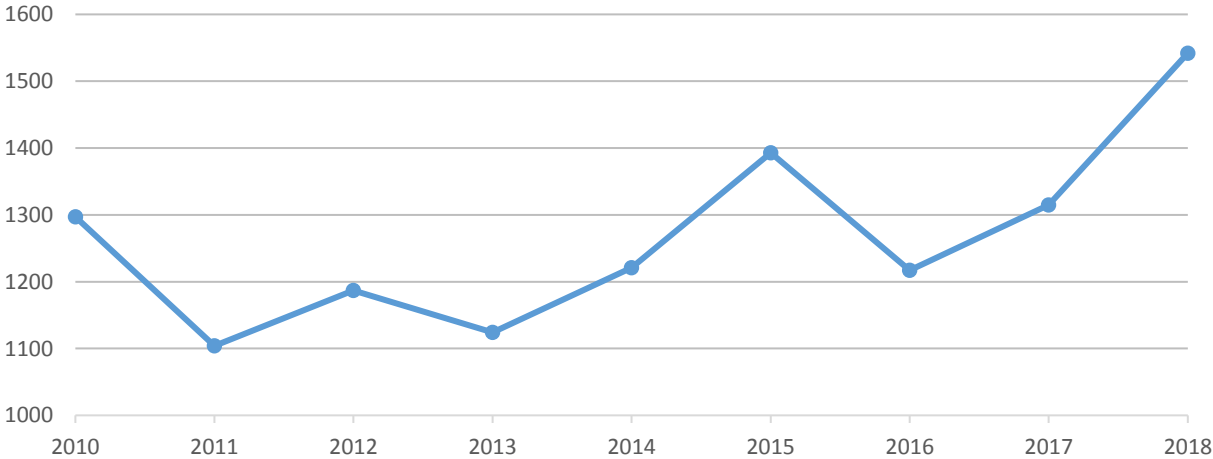
The proportion of adults who felt safe walking alone at night varied considerably across the OECD; the proportion in the highest (Norway, 88%) being more than double that of the lowest (South Africa, 36%).

Related personal safety statistics

Violent Crime

Research suggests that local area crime has a significantly negative impact on life satisfaction, by making residents worry more frequently, and worry more about crime⁷¹; this research attributes the negative impact of crime on life satisfaction almost exclusively to violent crimes. In Jersey violent crimes are defined as “offences against the person”, which are crimes against a person or persons that involve uninvited physical contact or the threat of such contact. Figure 31 shows the total number of recorded offences against the person from 2010-18⁷².

Figure 31: Total number of offences against the person in Jersey, 2010-18



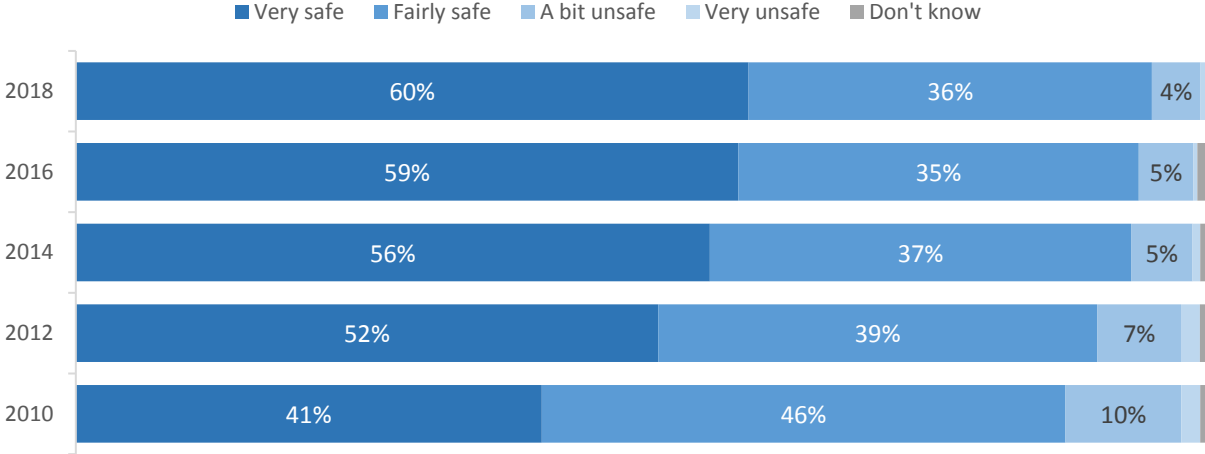
The offence of common assault was the most prevalent, generally accounting for around half of the total in each year.

⁷⁰ Reference period is the 3-year average 2014-16 for all the countries.
⁷¹ Krekel, C. & Poprawe, M., The Effect of Local Crime on Well-Being: Evidence for Germany (2014), German Socio-Economic Panel Study (SOEP).
⁷² The total for 2018 includes four recent definitional additions to that of “offences against the person”; there were fewer than 10 occurrences of these additional offences.

Neighbourhood safety

Since 2010, there has been an upward trend in the proportion of adults in Jersey who said that they felt safe in their neighbourhood (see Figure 32), as recorded by the Jersey Opinions and Lifestyle Survey (and the Jersey Annual Social Survey in 2016 and prior years).

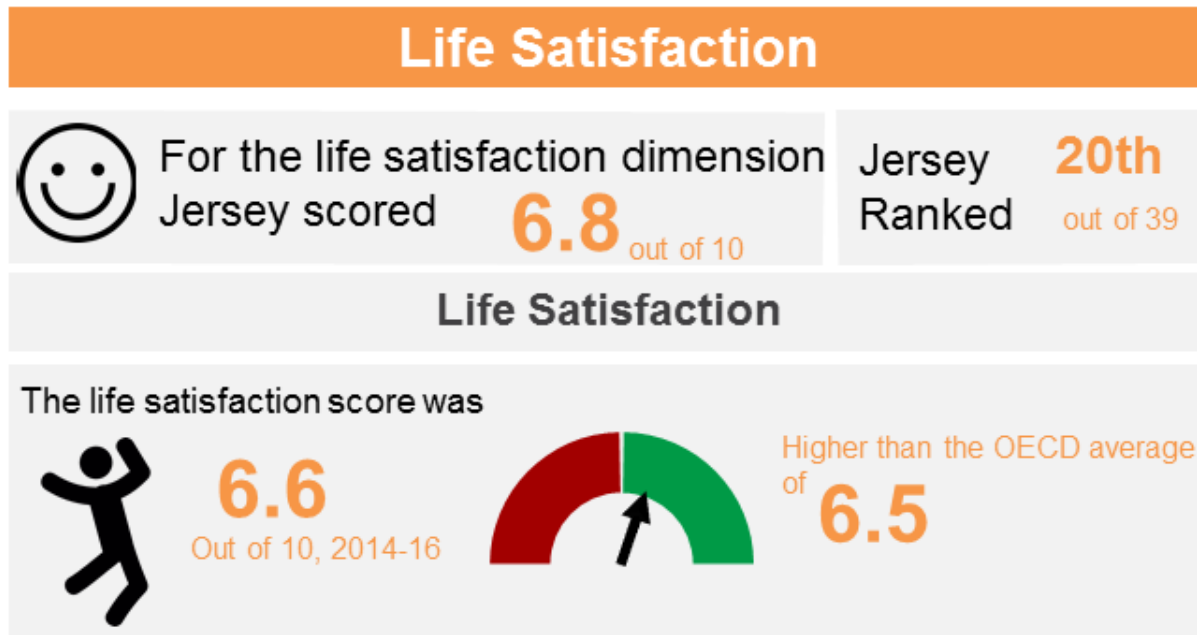
Figure 32: Perception of safety in own neighbourhood in Jersey, 2010 to 2018



Over the period from 2010 to 2018, the proportion of people feeling “very safe” in their neighbourhood in Jersey has increased from around two fifths (41%) to three-fifths (60%).

Life satisfaction

Although objective indicators of well-being can provide outcomes which are often quantifiable and comparable, they may not encompass everything which can effect an individual's well-being. Measuring how people feel about their own lives, although subjective by nature, can offer an indicator of well-being which relies on the assumption that people themselves are the best judges of the state of their own lives.

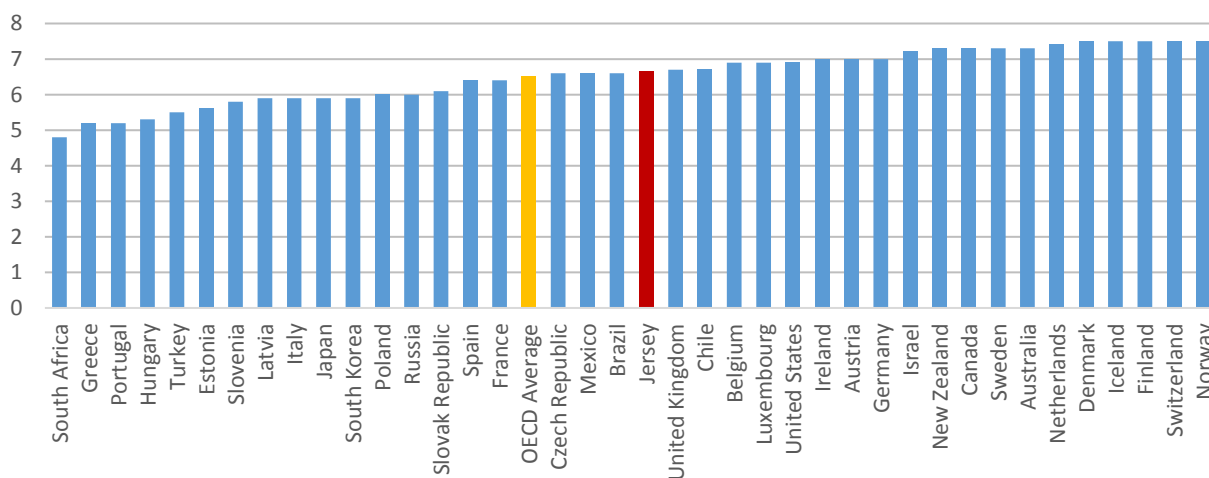


Indicator for this dimension:

Life satisfaction

How people evaluate their life as a whole is closely linked to well-being⁷³. The Cantril Ladder provides a globally used scale for measuring life satisfaction, acknowledging that responses can be affected by personality, mood and cultural differences. Life satisfaction, as measured by the Cantril Ladder, asks people to rate their current life on a scale of 0 to 10, where 0 represents the “worst possible life” and 10 represents the “best possible life”.

Figure 33: Mean life satisfaction scores; Jersey and the OECD⁷⁴



⁷³ International Journal of Medical Research & Health Sciences, 2018, 7(4): 49-59. Examining Relationships Among Well-being, Leisure Satisfaction, Life Satisfaction, and Happiness

⁷⁴ 2014-16 three-year averages; Jersey score normalised to countries asking same question in household surveys.

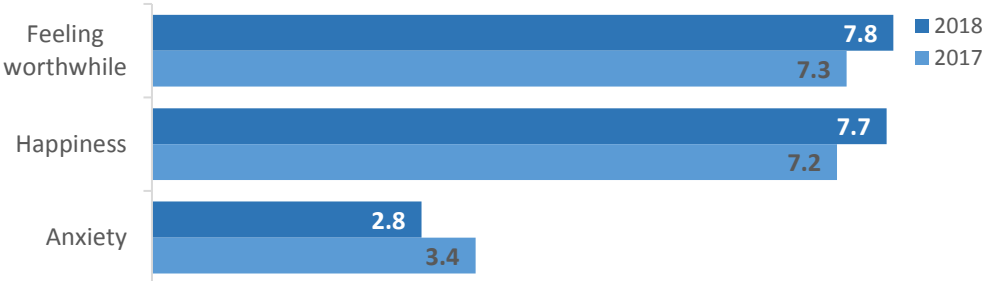
Figure 33 shows that in the period 2014-16, the mean life satisfaction score of adults in Jersey (6.6 out of 10) was slightly higher than the average score across the OECD (6.5 out of 10). Life satisfaction, as measured by this indicator, varied between countries, with a difference of more than two points between the lowest scoring countries (South Africa, Greece, Portugal and Hungary) and the highest (Nordic countries and Switzerland).

Related life satisfaction statistics

Other subjective measures that impact well-being

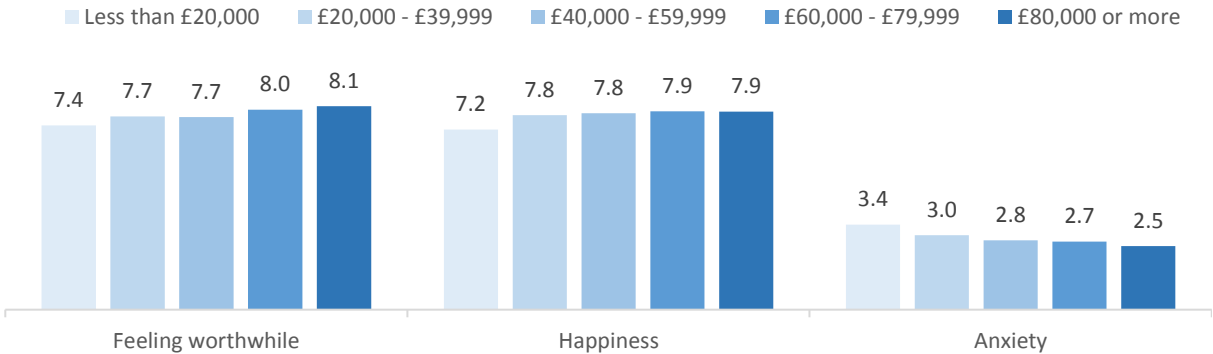
The 2018 round of the Jersey Opinions and Lifestyle Survey asked respondents to give a score of between 0 and 10 in regards to if they felt worthwhile, were happy, were anxious, where 10 is “completely” and 0 is “not at all”. Figure 34 shows the mean scores for each of these well-being measures; it is worth noting that for feeling worthwhile and happiness a higher score is better, whereas for anxiety a lower score is better.

Figure 34: Average (mean) scores out of ten for well-being measures (Jersey, 2017 and 2018)



These results can be broken down by household income, as shown in Figure 35.

Figure 35: Mean scores (out of ten) for well-being measures by household income (Jersey, 2018)



Adults living in households with the lowest income reported the lowest mean scores for feeling worthwhile and for happiness, whilst mean levels of anxiety decreased as income increased.

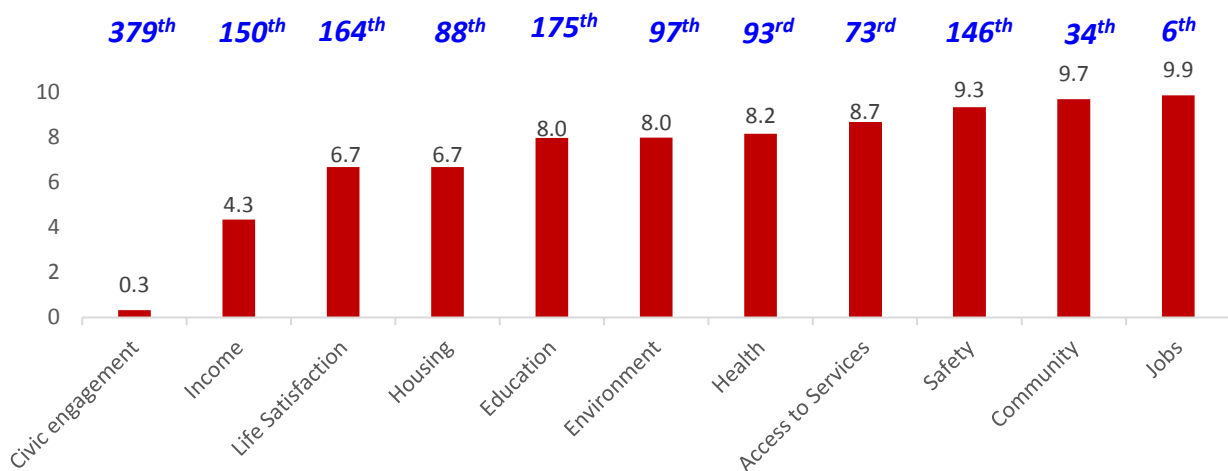
Regional Level

Jersey's overall regional well-being score of 7.2 (out of 10) ranked 132nd out of 403 regions⁷⁵.

Regions from four countries (Australia, Canada, Norway and the USA) accounted for the top 25 highest ranked regions; the Canberra Capital region of Australia was ranked the highest, with a score of 9.7. In contrast, regions from three countries (Chile, Mexico and Turkey) accounted for the lowest 25 ranked regions; the Puebla region of Mexico was ranked the lowest with a score of 1.6.

Scores for Jersey (relative to all 403 regions) for each of the 11 dimensions included in regional well-being are shown in Figure 36. Each score is on a scale of between 0 and 10, where 0 signifies the lowest possible score and 10 the highest.

Figure 36: Relative scores (out of 10) and *rankings for Jersey in the dimensions of regional well-being**

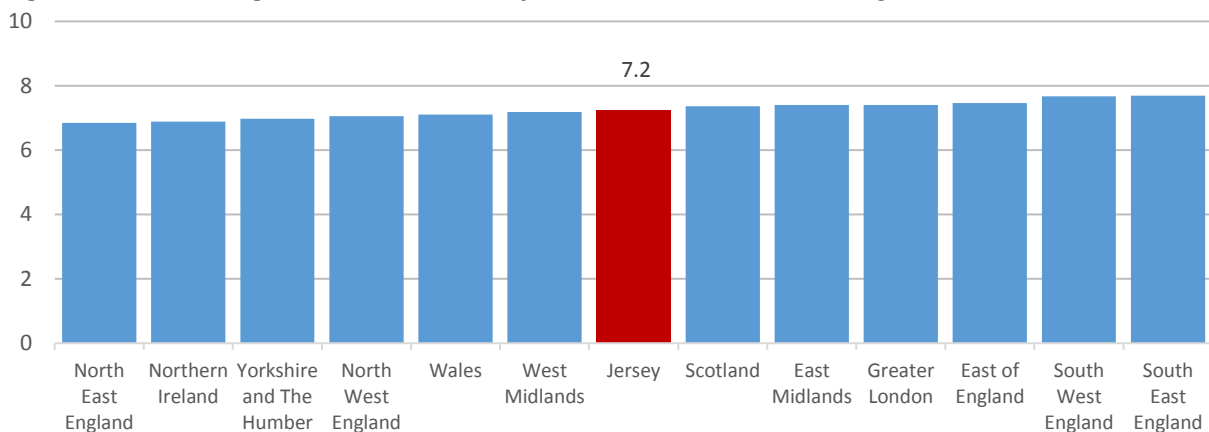


*regional rankings are out of between 380 and 403 regions, depending on availability of data.

Jersey ranked relatively highly in several dimensions, including jobs, community and access to services. However, the Island ranked less well in others, including life satisfaction and education, and ranked particularly poorly (bottom 6%) in civic engagement (voter turnout). Across all 11 dimensions, the five regions most similar to Jersey were in the UK and Ireland.

Jersey's overall regional well-being score (7.2 out of 10) ranked the Island 7th out of 13 when compared with all UK regions⁷⁶ - see Figure 37.

Figure 37: Overall regional scores for Jersey and the UK; 0 (low) to 10 (high)



⁷⁵ The OECD defines regions as the first tier of sub-national government (for example, states in the USA, provinces in Canada, or "régions" in France). The total of 403 regions includes Jersey.

⁷⁶ The total of 13 regions includes Jersey.

Figure 38: Relative performance of Jersey in relation to UK regions by well-being dimension

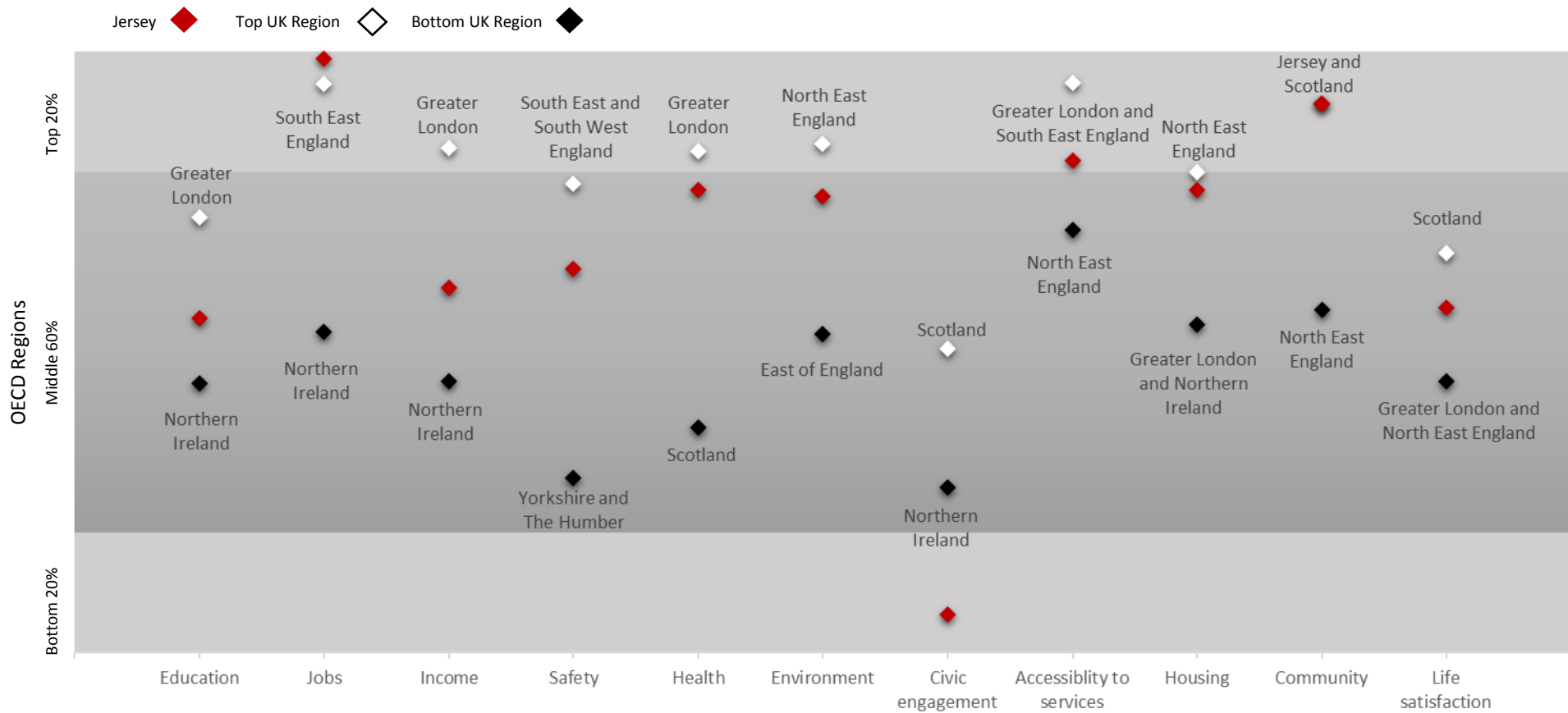


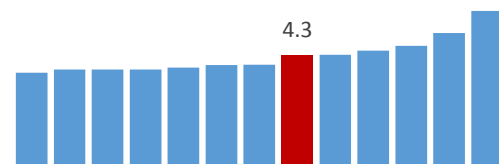
Figure 38 shows where Jersey ranks in comparison to the top UK region and bottom UK region for each dimension. Each point is plotted in its relative position to all other OECD regions. It can be seen that for the majority of dimensions Jersey was ranked above the lowest UK region, with two dimensions (community and jobs) scoring higher than the top UK region. However, Jersey was lower than the lowest UK region for civic engagement (voter turnout).

Regional dimension summary

The plots shown in this section show Jersey's position relative to that of the UK regions for each dimension of well-being

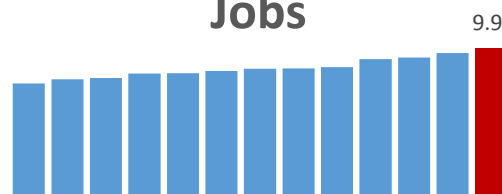
On a measure of disposable income, Jersey ranked 150th out of 383 regions. In 2016, mean net disposable income per capita in Jersey was \$19,929 per year (constant 2010 prices and USD PPP). When compared with all UK regions Jersey ranked 6th.

Income



In terms of employment, almost 80% of people in Jersey of working age (15 to 64 years) were in some form of employment (working at least one hour per week) in 2017. The unemployment rate within Jersey in 2017 was 3.2%. These two indicators give Jersey a relative dimension score of 9.9 (out of 10), ranking 6th out of 403 regions. When compared with all UK regions Jersey ranked 1st, with South East England (excluding London) being the next highest, with a score of 9.6.

Jobs



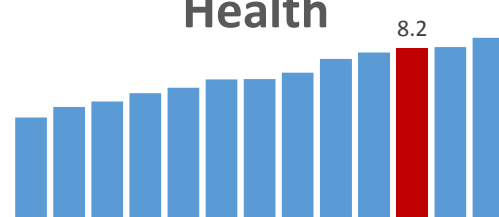
The housing dimension is measured by the average number of rooms per person in a dwelling. The value for this was 2.1 rooms per person in 2016. This gave Jersey a relative score of 6.7 (out of 10), ranking Jersey 88th out of 380 eligible regions. When compared with all UK regions, Jersey ranked joint 3rd with six regions of the UK and lower than only Wales and the North East of England.

Housing



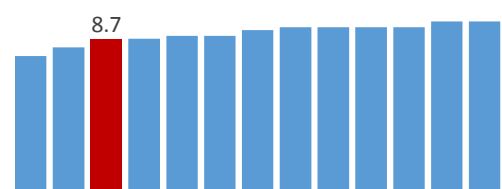
The health dimension is measured by: mortality rate (per 1,000 people); and life expectancy from birth (years). In Jersey in 2016 the mortality rate was 7.2 per 1,000 people. In 2017 the life expectancy from birth was 82.6. These indicators ranked Jersey joint 93rd (with one other region) out of 403 eligible regions, with a score of 8.2 (out of 10). When compared with all UK regions Jersey ranked 3rd.

Health



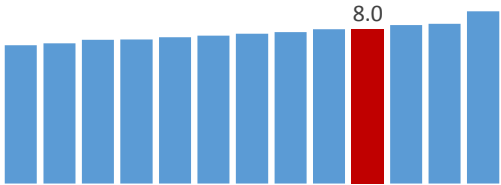
Having access to services such as public transport links or efficient telecommunications networks can improve the lives of individuals, by allowing for a more interconnected society. Currently this dimension is measured solely by the percentage of households with broadband access. The value for this can be estimated using data from JOLS 2017 which recorded 90% of households having broadband access, giving Jersey a relative score of 8.7 (out of 10). This ranked Jersey 73rd out of 401 eligible regions. When compared with all UK regions Jersey ranked 11th, with UK regions varying from 84% to 96%.

Access to Services



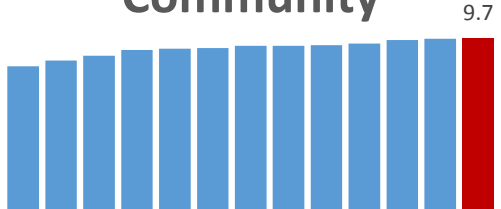
Educational attainment is measured as the percentage of people aged 15 or over, who are either employed or unemployed, having at least a secondary education. For Jersey in 2017 this proportion was almost 84%, giving Jersey a score of 8.0 (out of 10) and ranking 175th out of 393 eligible regions. When compared with all UK regions Jersey ranked 4th, with South West England being above Jersey with a score of 8.2.

Education



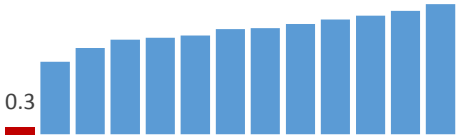
The community dimension is measured by the percentage of people who have someone they can rely on in case of need. The latest figure for Jersey of 96% (from JOLS 2016 and 2018) gives a relative score of 9.7 (out of 10) and ranked joint 34th out of 383 eligible regions. When compared with all UK regions Jersey ranked joint 1st, with Scotland. The next highest UK region was Yorkshire and The Humber with a score of 9.6.

Community



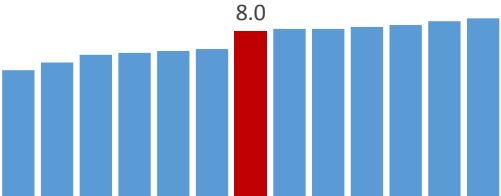
For Jersey this dimension is measured by voter turnout in the May 2018 States Assembly election; the percentage of registered voters who voted (43.4%) gives Jersey a relative score of 0.3 (out of 10) and ranked 379th out of 403 eligible regions. When compared with all UK regions (2015 national elections) Jersey ranked 13th, with all UK regions being higher than Jersey, the closest being Northern Ireland whose voter turnout was nearly 15 percentage points higher than that of Jersey and gave the region a score of 3.4.

Civic engagement



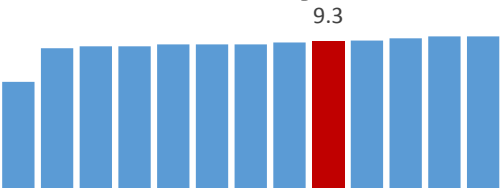
Air quality is measured by the average level of particulate matter of less than 2.5 µm diameter. When comparing Jersey to other regions there should be a degree of caution as the values for Jersey are actual recorded values whereas, unlike the national-level Better Life Index, all other regions are OECD estimates based on satellite imagery. The value of 8 µg/m³ for Jersey gives a relative score of 8.0 (out of 10), ranking joint 97th out of 402 eligible regions. When compared with all UK regions Jersey ranked 7th, being above Southwest England (score of 7.1) and below Yorkshire and The Humber (score of 8.1).

Environment

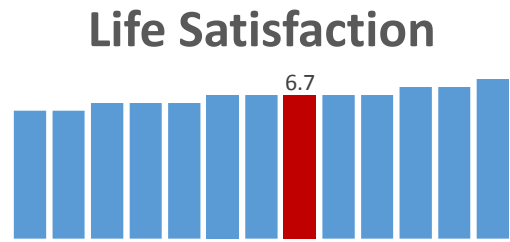


The homicide rate for Jersey in the three-year period 2015-17, derived from police statistics, (see [Appendix D](#)), was 0.9 per 100,000, giving Jersey a relative score of 9.34 (out of 10) and ranking Jersey 146th out of 402 eligible regions. When compared with all UK regions Jersey ranked 5th, slightly above Northeast England (9.26) and below Northern Ireland (9.39).

Safety



The life satisfaction dimension comprises a single indicator: self-assessment of life satisfaction. The relative score for Jersey of 6.7 (out of 10) ranked joint 164th out of 383 eligible regions. When compared with all UK regions Jersey ranked joint 4th with South East England, the East of England, the East midlands and Yorkshire and The Humber.



Appendices

Appendix A

OECD member and partner countries

OECD members

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

OECD partners

Brazil	Russia	South Africa
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National level scores for each dimension

Appendix B

	Housing	Income	Jobs and earnings	Community	Education and Skills	Environmental quality	Civic Engagement	Health status	Life Satisfaction	Personal safety	Work-life Balance	Overall
Australia	8.0	6.8	8.0	8.2	7.4	8.5	10.0	9.5	9.3	7.5	6.1	8.1
Austria	6.4	6.5	7.6	7.3	8.3	7.6	6.6	7.9	8.1	9.3	8.0	7.6
Belgium	7.4	5.8	6.5	7.3	6.6	6.5	9.6	8.3	7.8	8.2	8.8	7.5
Brazil	4.7	0.4	4.5	6.4	2.1	5.2	7.5	6.6	6.7	0.1	7.9	4.7
Canada	7.9	5.7	7.9	7.7	9.3	8.9	5.2	9.5	9.3	9.1	8.9	8.1
Chile	7.1	1.7	5.5	3.6	4.8	2.5	1.2	6.3	7.0	5.7	7.1	4.8
Czech Republic	5.2	3.1	6.0	5.9	9.7	6.0	3.3	6.6	6.7	8.0	8.3	6.2
Denmark	6.1	5.4	8.2	8.6	7.6	8.3	8.9	8.0	10.0	9.5	9.4	8.2
Estonia	6.8	2.3	6.0	6.4	9.0	7.9	4.3	5.5	3.0	7.5	9.2	6.2
Finland	6.4	5.6	6.9	8.6	8.8	9.4	5.4	7.9	10.0	9.3	8.9	7.9
France	6.8	6.1	6.2	5.5	7.1	6.5	6.6	7.9	5.9	8.2	7.7	6.8
Germany	7.2	6.9	7.8	7.3	8.4	7.7	6.0	7.3	8.1	8.8	8.7	7.7
Greece	4.8	1.8	1.6	2.7	6.0	4.0	4.3	8.2	1.5	7.3	7.9	4.6
Hungary	6.3	1.8	5.4	3.6	7.9	4.8	3.9	5.5	1.9	6.2	9.1	5.1
Iceland	5.6	5.9	9.5	10.0	7.1	9.8	7.5	8.6	10.0	9.8	5.6	8.1
Ireland	7.4	4.4	6.7	9.1	7.4	7.5	4.5	9.0	8.1	8.7	8.7	7.4
Israel	5.7	4.0	6.7	5.0	8.6	2.6	6.0	9.3	8.9	8.0	5.6	6.4
Italy	5.5	4.6	4.6	6.8	4.0	4.2	6.6	7.8	4.1	7.0	8.9	5.8
Japan	6.2	5.4	7.3	6.4	9.8	7.0	2.0	5.2	4.1	8.3	3.6	5.9
Jersey	6.2	4.3	7.9	9.1	7.4	7.9	0.0	9.1	6.8	9.1	6.5	6.8
Latvia	4.0	1.3	5.3	4.5	9.0	5.5	3.3	4.4	4.1	6.2	9.4	5.2
Luxembourg	7.6	9.2	8.1	7.3	7.2	7.3	10.0	8.1	7.8	8.4	8.9	8.2
Mexico	5.0	0.9	5.0	1.8	0.0	2.5	4.1	6.3	6.7	2.7	1.3	3.3
Netherlands	7.4	5.4	8.0	6.4	6.9	7.7	8.1	8.5	9.6	9.3	9.9	7.9
New Zealand	6.5	4.1	7.6	8.6	6.9	9.0	7.1	9.6	9.3	7.6	5.6	7.4
Norway	8.7	7.5	8.4	8.2	7.8	9.4	7.3	8.8	10.0	9.9	9.1	8.6
OECD Average	7.0	5.9	6.9	5.9	6.4	6.3	5.4	7.6	6.3	7.5	6.3	6.5
Poland	4.7	2.4	5.6	5.9	9.3	4.0	2.4	6.1	4.4	7.8	8.1	5.5
Portugal	6.6	2.9	4.7	5.0	1.7	8.1	2.6	5.7	1.5	8.3	7.6	5.0
Russia	4.8	1.7	5.8	6.4	10.0	2.4	4.5	3.5	4.4	4.5	10.0	5.3
Slovak Republic	4.6	2.8	4.7	6.8	9.5	5.0	3.5	6.6	4.8	7.2	8.5	5.8
Slovenia	7.2	2.9	5.8	6.8	8.6	6.2	1.8	7.3	3.7	9.6	8.7	6.3
South Africa	2.4	0.0	0.3	5.5	1.0	1.9	6.2	3.1	0.0	3.2	4.5	2.6
South Korea	7.6	3.3	6.5	0.0	8.6	2.7	7.1	4.7	4.1	7.5	3.8	5.1
Spain	6.8	3.7	4.5	8.6	3.6	6.1	5.6	8.4	5.9	9.5	8.7	6.5
Sweden	7.2	5.9	7.7	7.3	7.9	9.5	8.9	9.0	9.3	8.7	9.7	8.3
Switzerland	7.1	7.7	9.0	8.2	8.6	8.5	1.2	9.1	10.0	9.6	8.0	7.9
Turkey	5.1	1.9	4.3	4.5	0.3	2.5	8.7	6.9	2.6	7.1	0.0	4.0
United Kingdom	6.3	5.3	7.5	7.7	7.6	7.3	5.4	7.8	7.0	9.0	6.3	7.0
United States	8.9	10.0	8.4	6.4	9.1	7.9	5.2	9.0	7.8	7.8	6.6	7.9

National level methodology

The framework for the OECD Better Life Index considers data in 11 “dimensions” of well-being.

Across all 11 dimensions, there were six OECD indicators not used due to a lack of comparable data currently available for Jersey; these indicators were: “household net financial wealth” in the income dimension; “labour market insecurity” in the jobs and earnings dimension; “student skills” and “years in education” in the education and skills dimension; “stakeholder engagement for developing regulations” in the civic engagement dimension; and “time devoted to leisure and personal care” in the work-life balance dimension. These indicators were not used in calculating the scores presented in this report; hence, scores published here may vary slightly compared to those published by the OECD.

The overall Better Life Index for each jurisdiction is calculated as follows:

- for each indicator, a normalised score is calculated - see step a) below
- for each dimension, a normalised score is calculated as the unweighted arithmetic mean of the normalised scores of the indicators comprising the dimension – see step b)
- finally, the Better Life Index is calculated as the unweighted arithmetic mean of all 11 dimension scores – see step c)

For each jurisdiction, the indicator-level normalised scores are calculated relative to all OECD countries on a scale of between 0 (low) and 1 (high), through the following approach:

- a) 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:

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

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

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

- b) for each of the 11 dimensions, a normalised score on a scale of between 0 (low) and 10 (high) is calculated as:
the unweighted arithmetic mean of (10 times the normalised score for each indicator comprising the dimension)
- c) the overall composite Better Life Index is calculated on a scale of 0 to 10 as the unweighted arithmetic mean of the normalised scores (0 to 10) of the 11 dimensions.

Construction of Figure 3

For each indicator, countries are scored according to their comparative performance using the following scale: 0 = bottom third, 5 = middle third, 10 = top third. The unweighted mean score is then calculated for each dimension. Finally, the unweighted mean score is calculated across dimensions. The black diagonal line shown on Figure 3 shows where countries would fall if there were perfect correspondence in their performance on material conditions and quality of life. The data point for Jersey is shown in red.

Regional level methodology

The OECD defines regions as the first tier of sub-national government (for example, states in the USA, provinces in Canada, or “régions” in France).

Reflecting the national-level methodology, the regional well-being measure also considers data in the 11 dimensions (“dimensions”) comprising the OECD Better Life Index. The indicators within each dimension at the regional level are predominantly the same as those at the national-level. However, the work-life balance dimension at the national level is replaced by an access to services dimension at the regional level, the indicator for which is the percentage of households accessing broadband. See below for more detail on the differences between the national- and regional-level indicators.

Following the OECD regional-level methodology, Jersey’s performance may be compared under each dimension with that of regions across the OECD and an overall regional well-being score constructed.

All scores calculated for each region are relative measures, calculated following a similar approach to that applied at the national level. However, due to considerable variations in some countries at a regional level, the OECD applies thresholds to eliminate extreme values, defined as below the 4th percentile and above the 96th percentile. In the case of homicide rate, since several regions across the OECD have a very high value, the cut-offs are the 10th and 90th percentiles, respectively. This approach is adopted in order to obtain well-being scores that are more evenly distributed and avoids cases where (as in the case of homicides rate) almost all regions would be scored at between 9 and 10.

To determine the overall measure of regional well-being, normalised scores are calculated for each indicator which are then averaged (arithmetic mean, unweighted) to provide a score for the relevant dimension. Some regions of the OECD do not have data for all indicators; for these regions, the average score of the indicators that are available is used. The dimension scores are then averaged (arithmetic mean, unweighted) to give the overall regional well-being score.

Regional indicator differences

The majority of regional-level indicators are calculated identically to indicators used in the national-level methodology but may have different reference years resulting from availability of data at the regional level.

Several indicators are defined slightly differently at the national and regional levels: household disposable income; educational attainment; air quality; and homicide rate. Furthermore, several indicators are included in the regional analysis but not in the national: unemployment; mortality; and broadband access.

Definitional differences

Disposable income at a regional level is estimated at constant 2010 prices and is not adjusted to include social transfers in kind. As a result, the measure at regional level will be below that used nationally. Disposable income is expressed in USD on a purchasing power parity basis and includes the deflating factor of 1.20 between Jersey and the UK (see reference of footnote 4).

Educational attainment on a regional level is defined as the percentage of those who are aged 15 or above and are either employed or unemployed and actively seeking work, who have an upper secondary qualification as defined by ISCED-OECD classifications.

Regionally, the **homicide rate** 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. The data for Jersey is published by the States of Jersey Police in their annual reports⁷⁷ and has then been averaged across three years (2014-2016) by Statistics Jersey. For the national level analysis, the homicide rate is determined from health statistics (the number of deaths due to assault) rather than police statistics.

Air quality is defined in the same way both regionally and nationally. However, that for the OECD regions is measured solely from satellite based imagery, taken from “Global fine particulate matter concentrations from satellite for long-term exposure assessment” by Van Donkelaar, A., R. V. Martin, M. Brauer, and B. L. Boys.

Regional additional indicators

Access to services indicator: percentage of households with internet broadband access

Accessibility of services is one of the key dimensions of well-being, affecting how people obtain what is necessary to satisfy their wants and needs. Measuring accessibility of services allows for a better understanding of inequality in communities. Significant disparities in the access to basic and advanced services, such as transport, water and sanitation, education, health and ICT are apparent across and within regions. Currently only one indicator is used due to a lack of data available in certain regions for other potential indicators.

While 100% of households on the Island are connected to the fibre network⁷⁸, not all households use this service. Some may use wireless methods of broadband connection or may not use any type of connection at all. Although this indicator does not look at the reason why households are not accessing the service, it does provide a useful insight into the extent of the use of a service which is seen as important to well-being.

Data from the OECD is from various sources and using various methods of collection; therefore, caution is advised with the comparisons within this report. Data for Jersey is from the 2017 Jersey Opinions and Lifestyle Survey in which individuals were asked what methods they used to connect to the internet. Responses which were deemed home use were included, resulting in an estimate of 90% of households reporting at least one home use of the internet.

⁷⁷ For comparability purposes numbers taken directly from annual reports have not been changed. The number of actual murders may be lower as some have been reclassified to different crimes since the publication of the annual reports.

⁷⁸ [JT Annual review 2017-18](#)

Jobs indicator: unemployment rate

At a regional level this indicator differs only slightly to that of the national-level indicator of long-term unemployment. The regional measure considers all those who are unemployed, not only those who have been unemployed for over a year. The estimated unemployment rate for Jersey in 2017 as a percentage of the total labour force was 3.2%, which placed Jersey 41st out of 403 regions. This unemployment rate was below that in all UK regions, the lowest being 3.8% for South West England.

Health indicator: mortality rate

In 2016 the age-standardised mortality rate (ASMR) in Jersey was 720 per 100,000 persons. This rate is calculated as a weighted average of the age-specific mortality rates per 100,000 persons, where the weights are the proportions of persons in the corresponding age groups of the OECD population. This differs from the annually published health statistics by statistics Jersey which use the European Standard population. Age-standardised rates enable comparisons to be made across geographical areas and through time, without being affected by differences in the underlying age and gender structures of the population.

The OECD uses the mortality rate per 1,000 population for regional well-being. Translating the rate for Jersey into this basis gives a comparable ASMR of 7.2 per 1,000 persons. When broken down by sex, the ASMR for males in Jersey (8.2 per 1,000) was significantly higher than that of females (6.3 per 1,000).

The ASMR for Jersey ranked the Island joint 106th out of 403 regions (joint with nine other regions), which was a higher ranking than all UK regions except for Greater London, South East England and the East of England (with which Jersey was joint).

OECD regions

Regions are those classified as territorial level 2 by the OECD, except for Latvia, Estonia and Lithuania which are both territorial level 3 regions.

Austria - Burgenland, Lower Austria, Vienna, Carinthia, Styria, Upper Austria, Salzburg, Tyrol, Vorarlberg.

Australia - New South Wales, Victoria, Queensland, South Australia, Western Australia, Tasmania, Northern Territory, Canberra Capital Region.

Belgium - Brussels-Capital Region, Flemish Region (Vlaams Gewest), Wallonia (Région wallonne).

Canada - Newfoundland and Labrador, Prince Edward Island, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Quebec, Ontario, Manitoba, Saskatchewan, Alberta, British Columbia, Yukon, Northwest Territories, Nunavut.

Switzerland - Lake Geneva Region, Espace Mittelland, Northwestern Switzerland, Zurich, Eastern Switzerland, Central Switzerland, Ticino.

Chile – Tarapacá, Antofagasta, Atacama, Coquimbo, Valparaíso, O'Higgins, Maule, Bío-Bío, Araucanía, Los Lagos, Aysén, Magallanes y Antártica, Santiago Metropolitan, Los Rios, Arica y Parinacota.

Czech Republic – Prague, Central Bohemian Region, Southwest, Northwest, Northeast, Southeast, Central Moravia, Moravia-Silesia.

Germany - Baden-Württemberg, Bavaria, Berlin, Brandenburg, Bremen, Hamburg, Hesse, Mecklenburg-Vorpommern, Lower Saxony, North Rhine-Westphalia, Rhineland-Palatinate, Saarland, Saxony, Saxony-Anhalt, Schleswig-Holstein, Thuringia.

Denmark - Copenhagen Region, Zealand, Southern Denmark, Central Jutland, Northern Jutland.

Estonia - North Estonia, West Estonia, Central Estonia, Northeast Estonia, South Estonia.

Greece – Attica, North Aegean, South Aegean, Crete, East Macedonia – Thrace, Central Macedonia, West Macedonia, Epirus, Thessaly, Ionian Islands, West Greece, Central Greece, Peloponnese.

Spain – Galicia, Asturias, Cantabria, Basque Country, Navarra, La Rioja, Aragon, Madrid, Castile and León, Castile-La Mancha, Extremadura, Catalonia, Valencia, Balearic Islands, Andalusia, Murcia, Ceuta, Melilla, Canary Islands.

Finland - Western Finland, Helsinki-Uusimaa, Southern Finland, Eastern and Northern Finland, Åland.

France - Île-de-France, Centre - Val de Loire, Bourgogne-Franche-Comté, Normandy, Hauts-de-France, Grand Est, Pays de la Loire, Brittany, Nouvelle-Aquitaine, Occitanie, Auvergne-Rhône-Alpes, Provence-Alpes-Côte d'Azur, Corsica.

Hungary - Central Hungary, Central Transdanubia, Western Transdanubia, Southern Transdanubia, Northern Hungary, Northern Great Plain, Southern Great Plain.

Ireland - Border, Midland and Western, Southern and Eastern.

Israel – Jerusalem, North, Haifa, Central, Tel Aviv, South.

Iceland - Reykjavik Region, Other Regions.

Italy – Piedmont, Aosta Valley, Liguria, Lombardy, Abruzzo, Molise, Campania, Apulia, Basilicata, Calabria, Sicily, Sardinia, Bolzano-Bozen, Trento, Veneto, Friuli-Venezia Giulia, Emilia-Romagna, Tuscany, Umbria, Marche, Lazio.

Japan – Hokkaido, Tohoku, Northern-Kanto, Koshin, Southern-Kanto, Hokuriku, Toukai, Kansai region, Chugoku, Shikoku, Kyushu and Okinawa.

South Korea - Seoul Region, Gyeongnam, Gyeongbuk, Jeolla, Chungcheong, Gangwon, Jeju.

Lithuania – Alytus, Kaunas, Klaipeda, Marijampole, Panevežys, Šiauliai, Taurage, Telšiai, Utena, Vilnius,

Luxembourg – Luxembourg.

Latvia – Kurzeme, Latgale, Riga, Pieriga, Vidzeme, Zemgale.

Mexico – Aguascalientes, Baja California, Baja California Sur, Campeche, Coahuila, Colima, Chiapas, Chihuahua, Mexico City, Durango, Guanajuato, Guerrero, Hidalgo, Jalisco, Michoacan, Morelos, Nayarit, Nuevo Leon, Oaxaca, Puebla, Queretaro, Quintana Roo, San Luis Potosi, Sinaloa, Sonora, Tabasco, Tamaulipas, Tlaxcala, Veracruz, Yucatan, Zacatecas, Edo. Mexico.

Netherlands – Groningen, Friesland, Drenthe, Overijssel, Gelderland, Flevoland, Utrecht, North Holland, South Holland, Zeeland, North Brabant, Limburg.

Norway - Oslo Region, Hedmark and Oppland, South-Eastern Norway, Agder and Rogaland, Western Norway, Trøndelag, Northern Norway.

New Zealand – Northland, Auckland, Waikato, Bay of Plenty, Gisborne, Hawke's Bay, Taranaki, Manawatu-Wanganui, Wellington, Tasman-Nelson-Marl, West Coast, Canterbury, Otago, Southland.

Poland – Łódzkie, Mazowieckie, Malopolskie, Slaskie, Lubelskie, Podkarpackie, Swietokrzyskie, Podlaskie, Wielkopolskie, Zachodniopomorskie, Lubuskie, Dolnoslaskie, Opolskie, Kujawsko-Pomorskie, Warminsko-Mazurskie, Pomorskie.

Portugal – North, Algarve, Central Portugal, Lisbon, Alentejo, Azores, Madeira.

Sweden – Stockholm, East Middle Sweden, Småland with Islands, South Sweden, West Sweden, North Middle Sweden, Central Norrland, Upper Norrland.

Slovenia - Eastern Slovenia, Western Slovenia.

Slovak Republic - Bratislava Region, West Slovakia, Central Slovakia, East Slovakia.

Turkey – Istanbul, Thrace, Southern Marmara – West, Izmir, Southern Aegean, Northern Aegean, Eastern Marmara – South, Eastern Marmara – North, Ankara, Central Anatolia - West and South, Mediterranean region – West, Mediterranean region – Middle, Mediterranean region – East, Central Anatolia – Middle, Central Anatolia – East, Western Black Sea – West, Western Black Sea - Middle and East, Middle Black Sea, Eastern Black Sea, Northeastern Anatolia – West, Northeastern Anatolia – East, Eastern Anatolia – West, Eastern Anatolia – East, Southeastern Anatolia - West, Southeastern Anatolia – Middle, Southeastern Anatolia – East.

United Kingdom - North East England, North West England, Yorkshire and The Humber, East Midlands, West Midlands, East of England, Greater London, South East England, South West England, Wales, Scotland, Northern Ireland.

United States – Alabama, Alaska, Arizona, Arkansas, California, Colorado, Connecticut, Delaware, District of Columbia, Florida, Georgia, Hawaii, Idaho, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Mississippi, Missouri, Montana, Nebraska, Nevada, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New Mexico, New York, North Carolina, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Carolina, South Dakota, Tennessee, Texas, Utah, Vermont, Virginia, Washington, West Virginia, Wisconsin, Wyoming.