

Nordic Welfare States, challenged by ageing and immigration?

Comparable Indicators



Tor Morten Normann & Elisabeth Nørgaard



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Preface and Summary

This report is the third in a series of reports financed by the Nordic Social Statistical Committee (NOSOSCO), discussing future challenges to the Nordic Welfare states. We are building on the assumption that there are some key common traits shared by the Nordic welfare states justifying the use of the label “Nordic welfare model”. The purpose of the report is to use comparable indicators to analyse some key challenges faced by the welfare states. Identifying and describing comparative indicators for common challenges may be suitable both for analysing the challenges and for policy making in the Nordic countries. At their best, indicators are measures that condense information on relevant issues and facilitate policy making.

The first report in this series (Normann, Rønning and Nørgaard, 2009), mainly used data from 2006 to establish a set of indicators. Indicators from the data source EU-SILC (Statistics on Income and Living Conditions, see separate text box) were developed as part of the project. In the second report, indicators were updated and analysed by using time-series covering the years 2006 to 2010 (Normann, Rønning and Nørgaard, 2013). In this third report, we expand the time series to 2015/2016. In addition, we put more emphasis on the challenge coming from increased immigration to the Nordic countries in the recent years, since this has reached the forefront of public and political debate in all of the Nordic countries.

As in previous reports, we emphasise the comparison of indicators for the Nordic countries, and we also refer to EU, OECD and other European countries where this is seen as being relevant.

Chapter 1 provides a short description of the Nordic welfare states and introduces the main future challenges. Chapter 2 discusses the potential demographic challenges posed by ageing and immigration. In Chapter 3, indicators for the education level in the populations are discussed. The level and development of social expenditure are analysed in Chapter 4, while Chapter 5 talks about poverty and social exclusion.

The most detailed chapters are the ones on labour market (Chapter 6) and health (Chapter 7).

The report uses indicators published by both Eurostat and the OECD. In addition, we use some indicators provided directly by the Nordic National Statistical Institutes. In chapters 6 and 7, we have to a large extent used micro data from the living conditions survey EU-SILC conveyed by Eurostat and updated the indicators previously developed as part of this project.

The work with this report has been carried out at the Division for social welfare statistics, Statistics Norway (SSB). A reference group with representatives from

Denmark, Finland, Iceland and Sweden contributed with useful comments on an early draft of the report. The heads of the national delegation at NOSOSCO acted as a steering group. NOSOSCO is responsible for printing and publishing the report.

EU-Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC)

The EU-SILC is a sample survey regulated by the EU (the Commission, Regulation (EC) No 1177/2003) and coordinated by Eurostat. The EU-SILC is rooted in the European statistical system (ESS). As part of the EU strategy to combat poverty and social exclusion, the EU-SILC provides comparative statistics. In this publication, we use micro data from the EU-SILC 2006-2015. All member states in the EU participated along with Norway and Iceland. Micro data have been supplied by Eurostat, and some countries are not a part of the data-exchange agreement. Therefore, not all EU-countries are included in all indicators in this report. The EU-SILC is executed according to a so-called Open Method of Coordination meaning that each country has the possibility of adapting the questionnaires and data collection methods according to national needs. Importantly, Nordic countries, along with a few others, make extensive use of register data merged with survey data. It is also possible to adapt the sample design, but a minimum sample size has been stated for each country. In most European countries, the survey is carried out with a sample of households. The Nordic countries represent an exception by using sample of persons (selected respondents), who again form the basis for households. The number of people selected for the sample and the number of households will thus be identical, while some data also cover household members. Data on work mainly covers all persons aged 16 years or more in the households, while data on health only covers selected respondents. Like for all sample surveys, results based on the EU-SILC, are encumbered with uncertainty, and not all differences and changes are statistically significant. Still, guidelines for the survey are aimed at minimising this uncertainty, and figures based on the EU-SILC overall give quite reliable results. When, as in this report, indicators are broken down by different characteristics, one should be more aware of statistical significance. For this report, it is especially worth noticing that the number of immigrants (foreign-born persons) in the sample is limited in all Nordic countries. Results for this group should therefore in general be interpreted with more caution than results for larger groups. It would exceed the framework of this project if we were to calculate significance for all figures, but where most relevant, it is still mentioned. Figures for sample sizes for the Nordic EU-SILC, both in total and for immigrants, is found in Appendix Table 0.1

For further information on the EU-SILC cooperation, please see the Eurostat website: <http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu>

Summary

The Nordic welfare states

The term welfare state can be traced back to the late 19th century, and the origin of the Nordic welfare states emerged during the 1930s and 1940s, even later in Finland. The reasons for grouping Nordic countries together and talking about a Nordic model for welfare states mostly include their comprehensiveness and high degree of government involvement. The high degree of financing through taxation, along with universalism are also common features. A relative equal income distribution and high employment rates, especially for women are also worth mentioning.

In this first chapter we briefly discuss some of the main challenges faced by the Nordic welfare states in the future. Not all of them are analysed in more detail in this report. The main challenge, which is the demographic change related to the population increasingly becoming older is discussed in chapter 2, together with the possible consequences of increased immigration. The challenges associated with the demographic changes are related to factors such as increased health expenditure, increased demand for labour, and reduced public income. We also mention other challenges such as reduction in human trust and confidence and increased digitalisation. This first chapter points to the following chapters where various indicators are analysed in more depth.

Demography

In all the Nordic countries fertility rates are decreasing, and no country now has a rate above 2.1, which is seen as the replacement rate necessary to maintain current population size. At the same time, life expectancy has increased. This leads to an increased ratio of older people in the population. This will, in turn, lead to shrinking numbers of persons of working age to provide for the social expenditure and labour supply required by the ageing population for a range of related services.

All the Nordic countries have seen an increase in immigration, but here there are variations in migration history, policies, migrants' country background and their reason for immigration which influence the developments in the different countries. Immigration has a limited effect on demographic challenges such as fertility rates and ageing. The consequences of increased immigration for the welfare states are to a large degree linked to the challenges in integrating immigrants into the labour market.

Education

Globalisation, increased competition and rapid technological changes will require increased demand for higher education, and with a potential danger of reduced demand for labour for persons with lower education.

In general, the Nordic population is characterised by high and increasing levels of education. At the same time immigrants, depending on reason for immigration, country of origin and duration of stay, are more likely to have a lower level of education compared to the native-born population. They also score lower on literacy tests and receive less adult education and on-the-job training

The challenge will therefore be to ensure that immigrants can participate in the labour market. This is important in order to contribute to reducing the pressure on the welfare state, both reducing costs and increasing the taxes paid. This can be ensured by increasing their qualifications through education and training and/or by offering jobs which require fewer qualifications. This is also an important recommendation in the Norwegian report about the long-term consequences of high immigration (NOU, 2017:2).

Social expenditure in the Nordic welfare states

Financing the welfare state and keeping the expenditure under control are the main challenges for the Nordic welfare states. Indicators on social expenditures show a steady increase in the Nordic countries during the last two decades. But Gross Domestic Product has also increased, and with the exception of Iceland, social expenditure does not make up a much larger part of the economy in the Nordic countries in 2015 than it did in 1995. Our indicators do not allow for any conclusions on the effect of immigration on social expenditure. The most important parts of social expenditure are connected to demography (old age) and public health (sickness and health care), as they make up more than 60 per cent of social expenditure in the Nordic countries. With the small exception in Iceland, the weight of expenditure for old age and survivors has increased in the Nordic countries. This underlines the importance of the demographic challenge and the need for high labour market participation to secure the financing of welfare states.

Nordic at-risk-of poverty and social exclusion

The Nordic model's ability to combine both equality and economic growth is one of the models' main successes and strengths. Avoiding an increase in social inequality and social exclusion represents a challenge to societies and welfare states in the future for many reasons. One of the headline indicators for the EU 2020 strategy, at-risk-of poverty or social exclusion (AROPE), places all five Nordic countries among the seven European countries with the lowest prevalence rates in 2015. At the same time, this indicator illustrates that immigrants are more exposed than native-born persons in all the Nordic countries, which may challenge the Nordic equality. Also, the Nordic countries have quite stable and low at-risk-of poverty (ARP) rates compared to most other European countries, but in recent years, this rate has increased in Sweden. As for AROPE, the ARP-rate is higher for foreign-born persons than for native-born persons in all Nordic countries, and the rates for those born outside EU are especially high. More detailed figures show different degrees of exposure for different groups of immigrants in the Nordic countries, indicating that both immigration history and national policies may affect this indicator. By comparing ARP-rates before and after social transfers, we see that the Nordic welfare states provide more redistribution through transfers compared to other countries. ARP rates for persons in work are stable and low in the Nordic countries, illustrating the importance of work both at an individual and collective level. Again, the foreign-born population is more exposed than the native-born population.

Our conclusion is that we still regard the Nordic welfare models as successful in terms of providing equality and preventing poverty related strains for large parts of the population, even in times of high immigration. This is not to say that there are no challenges, and immigrants are more exposed to these kinds of problems than the native-born populations.

Labour market participation

Maintaining a high degree of labour market participation is an important challenge for welfare states, especially faced with ageing populations. This will both strengthen the tax-base for social expenditure and counteract an increase in most components of social expenditure. The Nordic countries still have high employment rates, but their relative position compared to other European countries has been weakened in recent years. The financial crisis had an important impact on employment, and employment rates have only passed the pre-crisis level in Iceland and Sweden. High female employment is also a Nordic characteristic, and the gender gap in employment is reduced, partially because men were hit harder by the financial crisis and partially because employment rates among women have increased.

There are visible differences in employment rates between native-born persons and immigrants born outside the EU in all Nordic countries, except in Iceland. Unfortunately, there are no signs of major improvement. Integrating immigrants from outside the EU into the labour market remains a main challenge for the Nordic welfare states, except Iceland (where the immigrant population is small). The challenge is especially present for immigrant women, but employment rates for immigrant men are also low.

Marginalisation, exclusion and disability are positions in the border of, or outside the labour market. Reducing the percentage of people in these positions is a challenge alongside reducing unemployment. In a European context, indicators describing these phenomena paint a quite positive picture of the Nordic region, where these are quite stable phenomena. One challenge here is labour market integration of young people who are entering the labour market. A second challenge is preventing marginalisation and exclusion of persons with little or no education.

Exclusion rates among immigrants born outside the EU are also relatively high in all Nordic countries, but our analysis indicates that this characteristic is most important in explaining exclusion in Finland, Norway and Sweden. Weak health is an important factor when explaining both exclusion rates and disability rates in all Nordic countries. Therefore, improving public health and including persons with impaired health in the labour market are important challenges to welfare states.

Part-time work is common in Denmark, Iceland, Norway and Sweden, while the rate in Finland is below the EU28 average. Part-time work is still most common among women. Part-time rates are not highly affected by immigration, as the challenge seems to be more connected to including immigrants in the labour market in the first place, rather than preventing part-time work.

Including seniors in the labour market is important as the populations are getting older. Nordic seniors are relatively active in the labour market, resulting in a relatively small gap between overall employment rates and rates for seniors. The good news for the Nordic welfare states is also that working activity among seniors

has increased in recent years. This increase is not found in Iceland, but seniors here are still working more than other Europeans at the same age. Immigration seems to be of minor importance for seniors' working activity, but this may change in the future when immigrants get older, as immigrants on average are younger than native-born persons.

Health

The analysis on the ten-year time series with comparable indicators on health, education and work from EU-SILC indicate some positive developments. Many in the Nordic countries view their health as good, and we see an increased percentage with good health for those over 70 years, which may ease the future health expenditure. In Sweden there is increased work participation for those with bad self-perceived health, and in both Sweden and Denmark the work-participation for those with weak health and low education has increased.

It is difficult to see clear and large differences in self-reported health, living with chronic illness or living with disability for those born in EU or outside EU compared with those born in the country in question. A regression analysis taking into account variables such as sex, age and education show, except for Finland, that those born outside EU are at higher risk of reporting poor health compared to the native-born population. We do not find the same results for those born in EU.

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Symbols used in the tables:

Figures not available or too unreliable for use	..
Information not applicable	.
Less than half of the unit used	0.0/0
Nothing to report (value nil)	-
Five year averages are always written as 20xx-xy	
Two year averages are always written as 20xx/xy	
Data are always calculated in relation to the respective age groups	
Per cent in Tables and Figures	%

Chapter 1

The Nordic welfare states

A discussion of the expenditure and the challenges related to the future of a state is certainly not a new discussion:

“The budget should be balanced, the Treasury should be refilled, public debt should be reduced, the arrogance of officialdom should be tempered and controlled, and the assistance to foreign lands should be curtailed, lest Rome becomes bankrupt. People must again learn to work, instead of living on public assistance.”

Cicero (55 BC)

Sometimes, when worrying, one should also be reminded that:

“This time, like all times, is a very good one, if we but know what to do with it”

Ralph Waldo Emerson (1837)

The two previous reports (Normann, Rønning and Nørgaard, 2009 and 2013) included a short history of the development of the modern welfare states together with a description of common characteristics of the Nordic countries, which justified us classifying the countries together as a common group of Nordic welfare states that are distinguished from other countries and other welfare models.

In this 3rd edition, we repeat this description and include a description of why immigration can be regarded as a challenge to the welfare systems.

The term welfare state is a relatively new concept. It is often claimed that the foundation was laid by Bismarck in 1883 when comprehensive social security schemes for workers were implemented in Germany. The first one was the sickness insurance scheme (1883); then followed the accident insurance scheme (1884/86) and the disability and old-age insurance schemes (1889). The expenses were divided among workers, employers and the State. Others are of the opinion that the beginning of a system for welfare states was in the 1860s-1870s. About this time, the laissez-faire ideology had released its hold on Europe. The active state began to emerge, and struggles for the right to vote and for social welfare took place (Rønning and Solheim 2002).

The Nordic welfare model was, in this context, established rather late. The foundation was laid when the more permanent social democratic governments came into power in the 1930s and 1940s in Denmark, Norway and Sweden, and Finland 20 years later (Esping-Andersen 1997). The former system of poverty changed into social benefit and rights programmes, although it could be maintained that a universalistic principle of risk sharing had already been introduced in Denmark in 1891 with the

introduction of a retirement pension available to everyone, and similarly in Sweden in 1913 with the introduction of a universal flat rate pension benefit scheme.

The development of a welfare state in a variety of countries may be described as a shift in responsibility among the state, the family and the partners in the labour market, and in this respect, each country has its own history. During the post-war years, even more social security schemes emerged in the Nordic countries. When the Social Security Act was adopted in Norway in 1966, security schemes covering risks covered by social insurances had already been introduced. This large reform was above all a technical, administrative reform which resulted in joint administration and joint financing (Rønning and Solheim 2002).

There are many studies and research related to the classification of welfare states into groups with common characteristics, ranging from Marshall (1963), Titmuss (1974), and Esping-Andersen (1997). The different models and classifications often distinguish between the degree of regulation and involvement from the state, the degree to which the market is left to regulate, and the division of responsibilities between the state, the family and the market. For more details, see the first edition of this report (Normann, Rønning and Nørgaard, 2009).

Many studies group the Nordic countries together and treat them as one model with common features, such as (NOSOSCO, 2016):

- The public welfare policy is comprehensive and covers social security, social services, health care, education and training, housing, employment, etc. with the purpose of meeting the basic needs of a society
- Government involvement has been strong in all political areas. Policies to obtain full employment have been based on a combination of macroeconomic policy, social policy and an active labour market policy, in which both trade unions and employers' organisations play a significant role
- The Nordic welfare systems are based on a high degree of universalism in the sense that everyone is entitled to basic social security, irrespective of their position in the labour market. This universalism contributes to broad public support for welfare policy
- Income protection is based on two elements: In most schemes, there is an income independent basic insurance and an income-dependent benefit to those who have been in the labour market. Compared to other countries, public income transfers are high and led to a high ratio of social expenditure to GDP. Chapter 4 in this report confirms this, but also points out that some other European countries are comparable to the Nordic countries regarding the ratio of social expenditure to GDP
- The welfare system is to a large extent a public responsibility and is financed through direct and indirect taxes with a relatively low degree of user payments. The aim is to meet the needs of all citizens. Local and regional authorities (including at county level) administer and often provide these services directly
- The income and earnings distribution is relatively equal. The income disparities in the Nordic countries are small compared with other countries. There are no large gaps between the various income groups and therefore the levels of poverty and differences in the standard of living are relatively low
- Equal opportunity is a basic principle. In the Nordic countries, the employment rate of women is high, and most families consist of two providers

These characteristics are shared by the Nordic countries. However, the development may not have been the same, or the development in the Nordic countries may have varied over time. Although the basic principles of the Nordic welfare model still apply, it is becoming more and more common to apply user charges, instead of all welfare services being financed via taxes. The setting up of funds to finance pensions is also gaining ground.

Development since the end of the 1980s illustrates that there are both political and financial differences between Denmark, Finland, Norway and Sweden (Bonke, Nordic Council of Ministers, 1998). The increased political integration in Europe affected Denmark earlier than the other countries, since Denmark has been a member of the European Union (EU) since 1973. Sweden and Finland became members in 1995, and Norway and Iceland are not EU members. At the beginning of the 1990s, Finland and Sweden experienced a serious economic crisis. As early as at the end of the 1970s, this happened in Denmark, and since the end of the 1980s, the economic development has been relatively stable. Norway recovered quickly from the serious bank crisis and downturn, mainly as a result of extensive proceeds from oil, and the crisis never reached the same levels as in Finland and Sweden. Around and after the turn of the millennium and up until 2008, the Nordic countries by and large saw stable positive economic development (NOSOSCO 2007). The financial crisis from 2008 and onward has naturally contributed to change this, and a period of increased unemployment and slower economic growth followed. Immigration increased from 2004 both due to the expansion of the EU with the subsequent increase in work related immigration, and due to an increase in immigration caused by crisis and wars in countries such as Syria, Afghanistan and Iraq. The refugee crisis in the autumn of 2015 led to a large increase in immigration especially to Sweden, but also in the other countries the numbers of asylum seekers increased a lot compared to previous years. This will be described and discussed in more detail in later chapters.

Common future challenges

The welfare states were established to meet the needs that cannot be met through market mechanisms or within modern family structures, and with an aim to ensure individual economic and social freedom and a minimum of welfare for the entire population. This is relevant in situations or phases of life in which the individuals have no income from work and are thus not able to support themselves. Key examples are old-age pensions, unemployment benefits, and benefits related to illness and disability. Other examples are benefits and services related to children, education, housing and health. These expenditures are to a large extent financed through direct and indirect taxes, and the system thus depends on a high level of labour market participation. The welfare states have faced many changes and challenges since the beginning and have always been able to adjust and adapt. The question now is, as always, how to adapt and whether the challenges will be so large or so different that it will be difficult for the systems to change adequately and in time.

Demographic changes

The Nordic welfare model is to a large extent dependent on a high employment rate. Demographic changes and challenges are thus essential and are related to the fact that the population in the Nordic countries (as well as in many other countries), will

become increasingly older. This is due to increased life expectancy together with fertility rates below the level of demographic replacement rate (i.e. 2.1). Consequently, the share of the population that will need to be supported will increase and at the same time the share of individuals of working age will be reduced unless working life is prolonged. This may increase the expenditures related to old-age pensions, health services etc. and at the same time reduce income derived through taxes. The demographic changes are described in more detail in chapter 2.

Related to the demographic changes is the development which has changed the traditional family pattern. This has been caused by the increased participation of women in the labour market from the 1970s, resulting in a situation where production of welfare has changed, and consequently also the demand for welfare services. This is also underlined by Taylor-Gooby (2004) as a key challenge because women's entry into the labour market and the education system lead to pressure for more equal opportunities. It also affects the care functions that traditionally have been unpaid and based on a segregated labour market, as well as creating challenges for families. Consequently, the pressure on the welfare state to take over care functions and facilitate labour force participation will continue to grow. The Nordic countries have a high degree of employment among women, so this challenge may be more prominent for other countries in the future. In the Nordic countries, this may nevertheless be relevant in the sense that many women work part-time, and the relatively low work participation among immigrant women.

Increased health expenditure and increased demand for labour

Some argue that increased life expectancy also indicates more healthy years; others argue that instead it means more years with the need for health and care services. It is nevertheless reasonable to assume that an increased proportion of elderly in the population also will increase the demand for health services. The welfare state relies on a high labour participation rate and it is also from this perspective relevant to follow the changes in the health status of the population in terms of working age. The previous reports developed some comparable indicators on the population's health status combined with education and work-participation. These indicators are updated and presented in chapter 7.

A survey by Roksvaag and Texmon (2012) shows that Norway may experience an increased shortage in several types of health care staff and social staff up until 2035. For all professions, the shortage will amount to about 76,000 full-year equivalents in 2035. Another Norwegian report (Holmøy, Haugstvedt and Otnes, 2016) estimated the users, the need for accommodation with special services and the demand for labour in the long-term care sector, and the results indicate that the demand for labour may increase from 133 000 in 2014 to 220 000 in 2060.

Education, labour market and inequality

The changes in work structures, globalisation and technological developments have resulted in a close connection between education and job activities. This may contribute to an increased risk of social exclusion of people with a low degree of education, which in turn may lead to increased pressure on welfare schemes, especially those related to income security. Since the welfare state is dependent on a high participation rate in the labour market, it is important to monitor and take into consideration developments in the populations' level of education, their work participation and the level of income inequality. These aspects are presented in chapters 3, 5 and 6.

Digitalisation

Digitalisation is often mentioned as an essential change that will hugely influence the way we work and lead to other and new products and services. Challenges brought about by digitalisation and immigration are discussed in a book by Blix (2017). It should be pointed out here that digitalisation comes in many variants. Some lead to new job opportunities, new types of services and other benefits. At the same time, it may lead to changes where there will be reduced demand for lower skilled workers as they will be replaced by new technology, and at the same time there will also be jobs where the skill requirements increase. Digitalisation as a challenge to the welfare state is a complex issue with uncertain effects and outcomes. It may lead to a situation where the public income through taxation is reduced both due to reduced demand for labour, which cannot be reallocated to other areas, and also due to the fact that digitalisation in itself may move the production of services to other countries with less opportunities for taxation and financing of welfare benefits. On the other hand, digitalisation may contribute to new jobs, new products, and an opportunity for regional developments and increased taxes paid.

This report will not discuss digitalisation directly, but the report includes updated indicators on labour, income inequalities and marginalisation.

Trust and confidence

Many have pointed out that trust and confidence are decisive for the Nordic welfare systems. The Nordic countries are often considered to be countries where differences between the citizens have been smaller than in other countries, and it is argued that this created societies with unity and trust, which made redistribution among different groups possible, and therefore that trust is a precondition for a welfare state (Bergh and Bjørnskov, 2011). However, it is also pointed out that it is possible that welfare systems in themselves lead to societies with high levels of trust. (Kumlin and Rothstein, 2005). So, it may work two ways - welfare systems are both based on trust and contribute to the maintenance of trust.

It is argued that both the financial crisis in 2009 and increased immigration have had a negative influence on the level of trust in society. It is argued that it is more difficult to sustain universal welfare arrangements in countries with large ethnic and religious differences. However, various surveys still show high support for the welfare state and the population in general feels positively about immigration (OECD 2016a, NOU 2017). As economy, immigration and demography change, this may also change and it is therefore important to be aware of this as a potential future challenge. Changes to the level of trust is not further analysed in this report.

Immigration

The Nordic countries have seen high levels of immigration recent years, both as labour migration from the common labour market within EU/EEA and migration from countries outside Europe due to conflicts and crisis, and also as a result of family reunions and establishment. The increased immigration to the Nordic countries is described in more detail in chapter 2.

Even though the Nordic countries have different policies regarding immigration and integration, the challenges facing the welfare states are similar: Will it be possible for the welfare states to include many immigrants with often low levels of education, limited labour market skills and different cultural and religious backgrounds, and at the same time maintain the welfare systems (OECD, 2016)? This

is also discussed in detail in a Norwegian report (NOU, 2017:2), which discusses the issues of integration and trust with a focus on long-term effects caused by high levels of immigration.

The economic challenge is related to the point that the Nordic welfare model is based on high levels of employment, for both women and men, high levels of productivity, compressed wage structures and generous universal welfare services and transfers. Lower employment rates thus represent a dual loss; reduced income due to reduced tax payments, and increased costs due to the increased public expenditure related to relatively generous social benefits.

At the same time, since the Nordic labour market is highly structured and the earnings structure is compressed it may be difficult for immigrants to gain access to the labour market. This is one of the reasons that there are very few “working poor” (employed persons but below the at-risk-of poverty rate), but at the same time it gives employers an incentive to replace unskilled labour with capital such as automation, robots, etc. whenever possible, leading to fewer available jobs for low-skilled workers.

The impact of increased immigration on the labour market, the welfare schemes and whether the welfare system is sustainable or not, will depend on several factors such as the number of immigrants, their qualifications, how successful their integration is, and of course whether the economy in general is in a downturn or not. Estimates made for Norway (NOU 2017:2) confirm that the future consequences of immigration on the Norwegian economy and public finances primarily depend on the degree of labour participation. Policies and activities to increase the employability among immigrants are therefore important in all the Nordic countries. This is done through activities aimed at increasing the immigrants’ competencies in various ways, such as education, introduction programmes, on-the-job training and so forth.

However, following successful integration, increased immigration may also contribute to reducing the challenges related to the aging of the population, and the increased demand for labour in the health and long-term care sector, at least in the shorter term. The immigrants will themselves become older and require various services and be entitled to old-age pensions.

The Norwegian report (NOU, 2017:2) illustrates that immigration caused by labour immigration since 2004 has had a positive effect on the Norwegian economy, at least in the short run. Even though there have been negative effects on wages for those with lower education and jobs in which immigrants are already present, increased immigration has led to reduced prices, especially in some labour intensive services, and thus contributed to stronger purchasing power for a majority in the population.

When considering the effects of immigration and future challenges, one should also bear in mind that for the immigrants themselves there are positive and important advantages related to moving to another country. They will most likely increase their standard of living, increase their income, and those fleeing from countries in war and with serious conflicts will instead live in more peaceful countries (Barstad 2017).

Different immigration and integration policies

The Nordic countries have chosen different approaches to migration policies and management. Sweden has gained a reputation as one of the most liberal countries in Europe; Denmark one of the strictest. When it comes to migration policies, there is no unified Nordic model. Different policies and regulations influence the size of the immigration, the integration of immigrants, the population’s perception of immigration, and the future development in welfare expenditure. Migration and

integration policies can be measured in different ways. We have used The Migrant Integration Policy Index (MIPEX) to illustrate some aspects. This index is a tool which measures policies to integrate migrants in all EU Member States, Australia, Canada, Iceland, Japan, South Korea, New Zealand, Norway, Switzerland, Turkey and the USA.

167 policy indicators have been developed from 8 policy areas¹ to create a multi-dimensional picture of migrants' opportunities to participate in society. For each answer, there are 3 options. The maximum 3 points are awarded when policies meet the highest standards for equal treatment.

Within each of the 8 policy areas, the indicator scores are averaged together to give one of 4 dimension scores which examine the same aspect of policy. The 4 dimension scores are then averaged together to give the policy area score for each of the 8 policy areas per country which, averaged together one more time, lead to the overall scores for each country. In order to make rankings and comparisons, the initial 1, 2, 3 scale is converted into a 0, 50, 100 scale for dimensions and policy areas, where 100 per cent is the top score.

Until now 4 rounds have been conducted and the latest results relate to 2014.

The index can be a useful tool to evaluate and compare what governments are doing to promote the integration of migrants in all the countries analysed.

Table 1.1 Migration Integration Policy Index, overall score, 2014

Country	Score
EU-28	52
Denmark	59
Finland	71
Iceland	46
Norway	69
Sweden	80

Source: <http://www.mipex.eu//graphs/export/pdf/mipex-chart-export-f552b04f2b7d8ee3ed4948f3e4ae3953.pdf>

All the Nordic countries, except Iceland, have scores above the mean for the European Union (52 points). Sweden is at the top both among the Nordic countries and in Europe; Denmark and Iceland have the lowest score with 59 and 46 points respectively. This way of measuring integration policy supports the impression that Sweden has a more liberal policy compared to Denmark.

¹ Access to nationality, anti-discrimination, education, family reunion for foreign citizens, health, labour market mobility, permanent residence and political participation.

Table 1.2 Migration Integration Policy Index, score 8 policy areas, 2014

	EU-28	Denmark	Finland	Iceland	Norway	Sweden
Overall score	52	59	71	46	69	80
Labour market mobility	57	79	80	51	90	98
Family reunion	61	42	68	59	63	78
Education	37	49	60	23	65	77
Political participation	40	64	79	67	82	71
Permanent residence	61	74	70	62	70	79
Access to nationality	47	58	63	53	52	73
Anti-discrimination	63	50	77	5	59	85
Health	42	53	53	40	67	62

Source: <http://www.mipex.eu//graphs/export/pdf/mipex-chart-export-f552b04f2b7d8ee3ed4948f3e4ae3953.pdf>

Table 1.2 illustrates the score on the 8 different policy areas. With a few exceptions, Sweden has the highest scores, the exceptions are political participation and health where Norway has the highest score. Iceland has low scores, but it may not be so relevant in this context, given the low number of immigrants in Iceland. If we disregard Iceland, Denmark has the lowest score with the exception of permanent residence and access to nationality, where Norway has the lowest score. The indicators thus confirm the views of Denmark and Sweden, but at the same time also illustrate that there are some variations depending on the policy area.

Concluding remarks

This first chapter has provided a short description of the history of the foundations of the welfare states, explained why the Nordic countries can be grouped together, and pointed to some common challenges. The main challenge is demographic change, with all Nordic countries facing an increasingly older population. The challenge which immigration potentially may cause is discussed in some more detail, while other challenges such as digitalisation and changes in the level of trust are treated more superficially.

The following chapters analyse various indicators, reflecting that the Nordic countries will face common future challenges. However, bearing in mind that there are both similarities and differences among the countries, we will expect to find both similarities and differences in these indicators regarding magnitude and developments. We will also to some extent compare the Nordic countries with EU, OECD countries and some other individual countries.

Chapter 2

Demography

Population growth is definitely not a new concern:

“Excessive (population) growth may reduce output per worker, repress levels of living for the masses and engender strife.”

Confucius, (551-479 BC)

And more recently the declining population has become a worry:

“The aging and declining population will have far-reaching impacts. Declining fertility rates will possibly increase immigration. The structure of family and society will inevitably change”

Toshihiko Fukui (1935-)

As described in the first chapter, the welfare systems in the Nordic countries are largely publicly financed through taxation (directly or indirectly) and are thus highly dependent on a high labour participation. The structure and changes to the countries' demography are therefore important factors in understanding the future challenges facing the welfare systems.

The Nordic countries have seen an average increase in population since 1970 of 23 per cent. The total Nordic population has increased from 21.6 million people in 1970 to 26.6 million in 2016. In 2016 Sweden had almost 10 million inhabitants while Denmark, Finland and Norway all had between 5 and 6 million.

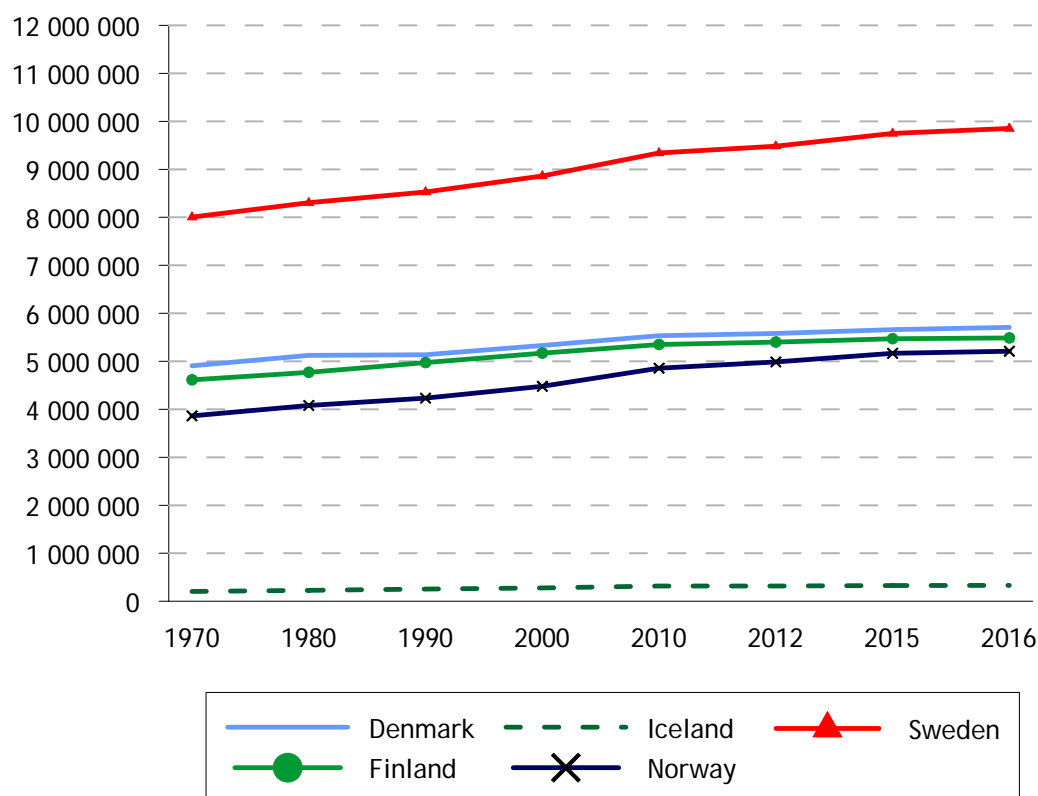
The increase in population is caused by a combination of a relatively high fertility rate, increased life expectancy and increased net immigration.

Table 2.1 Total population in the Nordic countries, 1970-2016, numbers and percentage change

	Denmark	Finland	Iceland	Norway	Sweden	Total
1970	4 906 916	4 614 277	204 042	3 863 221	8 004 371	21 592 827
1980	5 122 065	4 771 292	226 948	4 078 900	8 303 094	22 502 299
1990	5 135 409	4 974 383	253 785	4 233 116	8 527 039	23 123 732
2000	5 330 020	5 171 302	279 049	4 478 497	8 861 426	24 120 294
2010	5 534 738	5 351 427	317 630	4 858 199	9 340 682	25 402 676
2012	5 580 516	5 401 267	319 575	4 985 870	9 482 855	25 770 083
2015	5 659 715	5 471 753	329 100	5 166 493	9 747 355	26 374 416
2016	5 707 251	5 487 308	332 529	5 210 721	9 851 017	26 588 826
Increase % 1970-2016	16	19	63	35	23	23

Source: <http://www.mipex.eu//graphs/export/pdf/mipex-chart-export-f552b04f2b7d8ee3ed4948f3e4ae3953.pdf>

Figure 2.1 Population in the Nordic countries, 1970-2016



Source: Eurostat population statistics: <http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/population-demography-migration-projections/population-data/database>

Fertility rate

The most widely used indicator of fertility is the total fertility rate (TFR). TFR for a given year is the mean number of children that would be born alive to a woman during her lifetime if she were to pass through her childbearing years conforming to the age-specific fertility rates of the given year. A total fertility rate of around 2.1 live births per woman is considered to be the replacement level in developed countries: in other words, the average number of live births per woman required to keep the population size constant in the long run, in the absence of inward or outward migration.

Table 2.2 Total fertility rate, total number of children per women, 1990-2015

	EU (27/28 countries)	Denmark	Finland	Iceland	Norway	Sweden
1990	..	1.7	1.8	2.3	1.9	2.1
2000	1.5	1.8	1.7	2.1	1.9	1.5
2010	1.6	1.9	1.9	2.2	2.0	2.0
2015	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.8	1.7	1.9

Source: Eurostat,

<http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/tgm/table.do?tab=table&init=1&plugin=1&language=en&pcode=tsdde220>

Table 2.2 illustrates the well-known trend of reduced fertility rates, and no Nordic countries had in 2015 a fertility rate of 2.1. Iceland has traditionally had the highest fertility rate, but now has a fertility rate below demographic replacement. Denmark and Finland have the lowest rates. However, all the Nordic countries have higher rates than the European average mean. In all the Nordic countries, the fertility rate has decreased since 2010.

Life-expectancy

Life expectancy at a certain age is the expected remaining number of years that a person of that age can expect to live, if subjected throughout the rest of his or her life to the current mortality conditions (age-specific probabilities of dying, i.e. the death rates observed for the current period).

Life expectancy is expressed as the number of years persons of different ages may expect to live; starting from age zero, **life expectancy at birth** is the mean number of years a new born child can expect to live if subjected throughout his or her life to the current mortality conditions and the probabilities of dying at each age.

Any later age can also be chosen as a starting point; the **total expected life span** is then this age plus the life expectancy at that age, the number of years a person of that age may expect to live if mortality patterns stay unchanged. Life expectancy is normally calculated separately for all age levels, as well as for men, women and the total population.

Life expectancy at birth rose rapidly during the last century due to a number of factors, including reductions in infant mortality, rising living standards, improved lifestyles and better education, as well as advances in healthcare and medicine.

Table 2.3 Life expectancy at birth, 1990–2015

	EU (27/28 countries)	Denmark	Finland	Iceland	Norway	Sweden
<i>1990</i>						
Men	..	72.0	71.0	75.5	73.4	74.8
Women	..	77.8	79.0	80.7	79.9	80.5
Total	..	74.9	75.1	78.1	76.6	77.7
<i>2000</i>						
Men	..	74.5	74.2	77.8	76.0	77.4
Women	..	79.2	81.2	81.6	81.5	82.0
Total	..	76.9	77.8	79.7	78.8	79.8
<i>2010</i>						
Men	76.9	77.2	76.9	79.8	79.0	79.6
Women	82.8	81.4	83.5	84.1	83.3	83.6
Total	79.9	79.3	80.2	81.9	81.2	81.6
<i>2015</i>						
Men	77.9	78.8	78.7	81.2	80.5	80.4
Women	83.3	82.7	84.4	83.8	84.2	84.1
Total	80.6	80.8	81.6	82.5	82.4	82.2

Source: Eurostat, http://appsso.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/nui/show.do?dataset=demo_mlexpec&lang=en

Life expectancy at birth has increased in all the Nordic countries from 1990 to 2015, both for men and women. Finland has had the biggest increase in life expectancy from 1990 to 2015 with 7.7 years for men and 5.4 years extra for women. But still, Finnish men have a lower life expectancy at birth than other Nordic men. The lowest life expectancy at birth for women in the Nordic countries is found in Denmark.

In Europe in 2015, once a man had reached the age of 65, he could, on average, expect to live another 18 years while a woman can expect to live 21 more years. Denmark is below the European average, while the other Nordic countries are above. Iceland has the highest remaining life expectancy for men at 65 with 19.5 more years, while Finland has the highest remaining life expectancy for women with almost 22 more years at the age of 65.

Table 2.4 Life expectancy at 65 years, 1990-2015

	EU (27/28 countries)	Denmark	Finland	Iceland	Norway	Sweden
<i>1990</i>						
Men	..	14.0	13.8	16.4	14.6	15.4
Women	..	17.9	17.8	19.8	18.7	19.2
Total	..	16.1	16.2	18.1	16.8	17.4
<i>2000</i>						
Men	..	15.2	15.5	17.8	16.1	16.7
Women	..	18.3	19.5	19.8	19.9	20.2
Total	..	16.9	17.8	18.9	18.1	18.6
<i>2010</i>						
Men	17.5	17.0	17.5	18.3	18	18.3
Women	21.0	19.7	21.5	21.5	21.2	21.2
Total	19.4	18.4	19.7	19.9	19.7	19.8
<i>2015</i>						
Men	17.9	18.0	18.3	19.5	18.9	18.9
Women	21.2	20.7	21.9	21.3	21.6	21.5
Total	19.7	19.4	20.2	20.5	20.3	20.2

Source: Eurostat, <http://appsso.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/nui/submitViewTableAction.do>

Old age dependency ratio

The previous paragraphs have illustrated a falling fertility rate during the last few years, and in the preceding decades, ups and downs without a clear trend, and the life expectancy has increased throughout the period.

The percentage of older persons in the total population will increase significantly in the coming decades, as a greater proportion of the post-war baby-boom generation reaches retirement. This will, in turn, lead to shrinking numbers of persons of working age to provide for the social expenditure required by the ageing population for a range of related services.

We use the indicator from Eurostat, which is calculated based on the ratio between the portion of persons over the age of 65 and the portion of persons aged 15 to 64. This illustrates the challenge of an ageing population that must be cared for by a lower proportion of the population in working age.

Table 2.5 Old age dependency ratio, per 100 persons, 1990-2016

	EU (27/28 countries)	Denmark	Finland	Iceland	Norway	Sweden
1990	21	23	20	16	25	28
2000	23	22	22	18	24	27
2010	26	25	26	18	23	28
2016	29	29	32	21	25	32

Source: Eurostat,

<http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/tgm/table.do?tab=table&init=1&plugin=1&language=en&pcode=tsdde510>

The table shows, with an exception for Norway, an increasing dependency ratio in all the Nordic country as well as in Europe. Sweden and Finland have the highest ratios, Iceland the lowest. Iceland and Norway have had the most favourable dependency rate, due to higher fertility rates than the other countries throughout the post-war period.

Migration

"All men are by nature equal, made all of the same earth by one workman"
Plato (ca. 428 BC-ca. 348 BC)

In 2012, one in ten people living in the EU and OECD countries was born abroad, totalling around 115 million immigrants in the OECD and 52 million in the EU, of which 33.5 million were from non-EU countries. In both the EU and the OECD, the immigrant population has grown by more than 30 per cent since 2000 (OECD 2015a).

Immigration in Norway, Sweden and Denmark is described thoroughly in the publication "Scandinavia's Population Groups Originating from Developing Countries: Changes and integration" (Norden TemaNord 2013:561) and a summary is given in Samfunnsspeilet no. 5/2013 (Pettersen og Østby, 2013). Immigration to Scandinavia must be viewed in light of the gradual opening of country borders, initially within the Nordic countries and then the EU, in addition to the national policies on labour migration, refugees and family reunification from countries outside the EU.

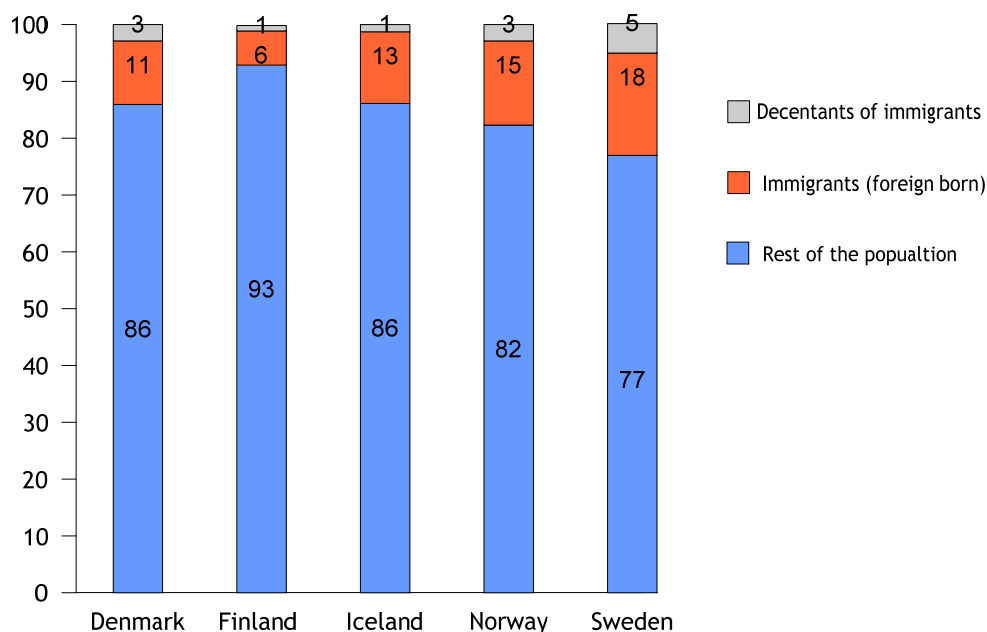
Since 1954 there has been a common Nordic labour market, and since 1994, the entire Nordic region has been part of the open European labour market within the EU/EEA area. This means that for more than 50 years, citizens from the Nordic countries have been able to freely live and work in another Nordic country, and that this right has largely been extended to all EU/EEA citizens. In addition, the Nordic countries have recruited workers from non-European countries, such as Pakistan and Turkey.

Since the eastward expansion of the EU in 2004, labour migration, particularly from Poland and the Baltic states, has characterised the immigration situation, in addition to continued family immigration and immigration due to flight.

This publication uses the foreign-born population as the definition of immigrants. This is the definition often used by Eurostat and OECD, and also leads to comparable figures for the Nordic countries. However, this definition of immigrants may deviate from the definitions used in official national statistics. For example, Statistics

Norway defines an immigrant as a person born abroad of two foreign-born parents and four foreign-born grandparents. In this definition, the persons' parents and grand-parents also need to be foreign-born in order for the person to be defined as an immigrant. This is not the case in the definition used here – the criterion is only that the person in question must be foreign-born. This increases the immigrant population compared to the Norwegian definition. We have included some figures for descendants, which is defined as nationals born with two foreign-born parents.

Figure 2.2 Total population, foreign-born, descendants, per cent, 2016



Source: Country information

Figure 2.2 illustrates that Sweden has the highest share of immigrants with 18 per cent of the population, followed by Norway (15 per cent), Iceland (13 per cent); Denmark (11 per cent) and Finland (6 per cent). Sweden also have the highest share of descendants of immigrants at 5 per cent, in Norway and Denmark the share is 3 per cent and then 1 per cent in Finland and Iceland. See appendix Table A2.1 for the exact figures.

It is not only the share of immigrants that varies between the countries, but we also observe a variation of country of birth. Tables that specify countries of birth are included in the appendix Table A2.4. In Denmark, people born in Poland, Germany, Turkey and Syria constitute about 20 per cent of the foreign-born population. Also in Norway and Iceland the highest share is from Poland. While in Norway the Polish are followed by Swedes, Lithuanians, Somalis and Germans, in Iceland this is the case for Danes, Americans, Swedes and Germans.

The immigrants in Finland show a different picture. Here immigrants from the former Soviet Union and Estonia make up almost 30 per cent of the foreign-born population, then followed by people born in Sweden. The Swedish born immigrants often have Finnish born parents, and the large groups following are from Iraq, Russia and Somalia.

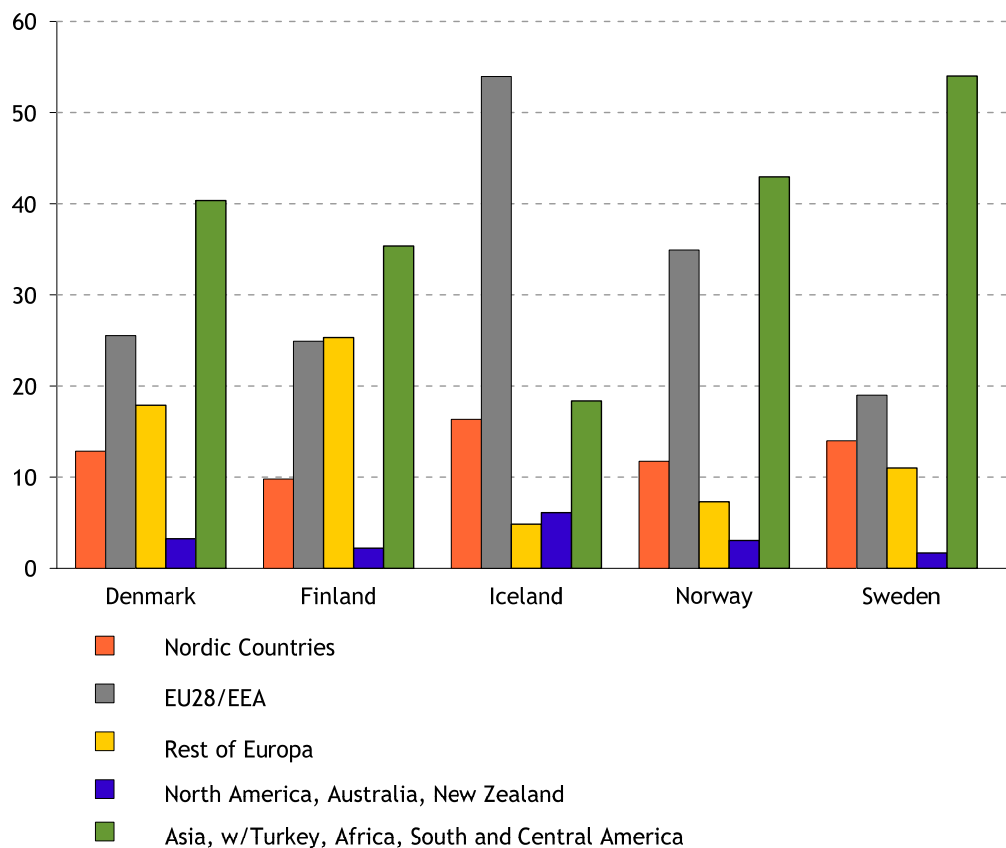
Sweden is distinguished as having a more liberal refugee policy than the other Nordic countries. Sweden has, for example, taken in many more refugees from Iraq

and the former Yugoslavia than Denmark and Norway. This is reflected in the numbers and composition of the foreign-born population. In Sweden, those born in Finland (large outmigration from Finland in the late 1960s) make up 9 per cent of the foreign-born population, however those born in Iraq and Syria then follows with shares of 8 and 6 per cent accordingly.

Another example (Pettersen and Østby, 2013) of the differences is the immigration from Poland. Denmark, Norway and Sweden all have many immigrants from Poland, but while these immigrants in Norway are dominated by relatively new Polish workers, there are many Polish political refugees in Sweden and Denmark who have lived there for a long time. These differences in length of stay and reason for immigration are important to bear in mind when analysing integration and participation in society.

These differences in country of birth are reflected in the aggregated figures for the regions (see Figure 2.3 and appendix Tables A2.2 and A2.3). Sweden has the highest share of immigrants from countries in Asia, Africa, South and Central America, with 52 per cent. Compared to the other Nordic countries, Norway and Iceland have the highest share of immigrants born in an EU-country with 35 per cent in Norway and 54 per cent in Iceland.

Figure 2.3 Regions of origin, per cent of the total foreign-born population, 2016

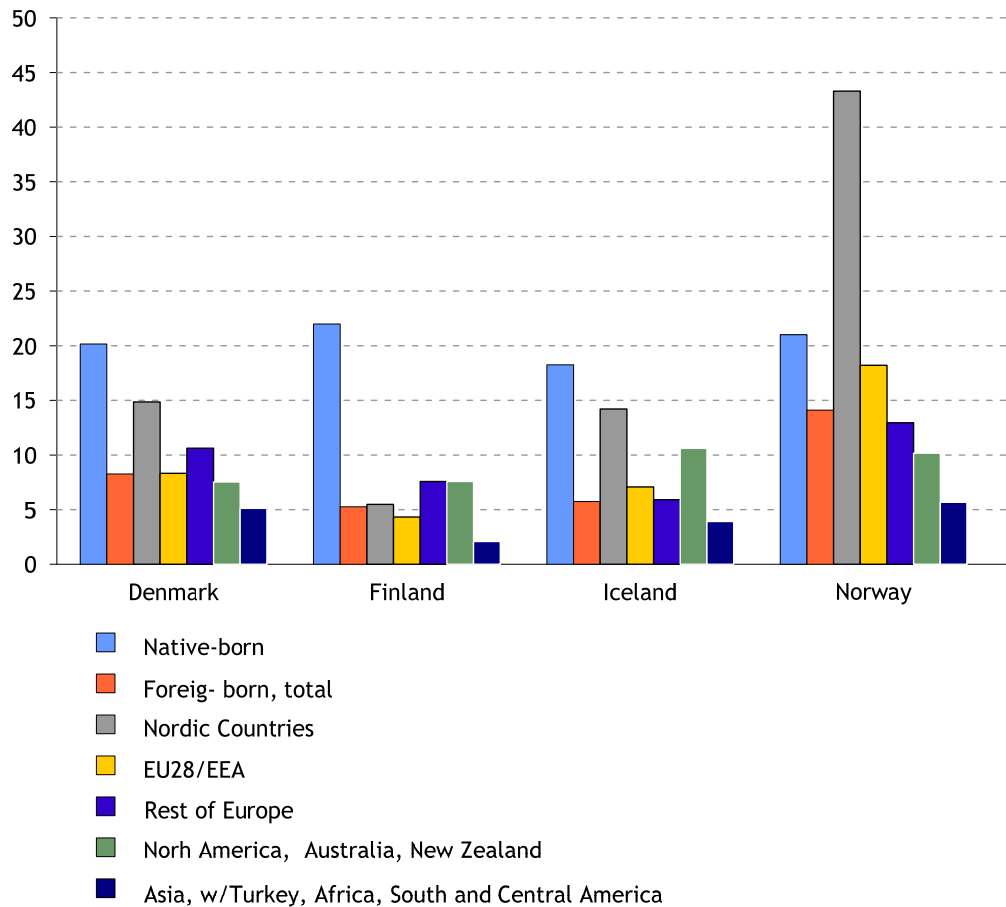


Source: Country data

Figure 2.4 illustrates the age structure and shows that the native-born population has a higher share of those over 65 years. The immigrant population is thus in general younger compared to the rest of the population, and one should take this into

account when interpreting results concerning work, income, health and so forth. For more detailed numbers see appendix Tables A2.5 and A2.6.

Figure 2.4 Share of the population above 65 years, 2016



Source: Country data

The impact of immigration

Can immigration affect birth rates, ageing of the population and as a consequence also the old-age-dependency ratio?

In this section, we have used studies from Norway and assume that this can be applied in a relatively similar way to the other Nordic countries; this may however depend on the immigrant groups being relatively similar with respect to country backgrounds, age structure, reason for immigration, year of immigration and so forth.

A Norwegian study (Syse m.fl. 2016) has shown that immigrants, in total, have marginally lower mortality rates than the native-born population, even when controlling for variables as age and sex. The mortality rate among immigrants, nevertheless tend to converge with the native-born population as the residence period increases. The analysis points out that the reason for immigration is important, but even though refugees have higher mortality than other immigrants, they still have lower mortality than the Norwegian-born population. A possible explanation is that adult immigrants have good health when they move to Norway

even when the reason for immigration is taken into consideration. A further result was that immigrants that moved to Norway as children had somewhat higher mortality than the Norwegian-born population. The Norwegian models for population projections use equal mortality rates for both immigrants and the native-born population.

Immigrant women from western countries and from the new EU-countries have birth rates close to native-born women in Norway, but for immigrant women from other parts of the world, the birth rate is a bit higher. In total, immigrant women have higher fertility rates than the rest of the population, but this difference has decreased during the last 20 years. From 1990 up until now, immigration has raised the total birth rate by 0.03-0.07 in Norway. We see the same trend as for mortality rates - a strong tendency towards convergence between immigrants and the native-born population (Syse m.fl, 2016).

If mortality is quite similar in both the immigrant and the native-born population, and birth rates also tend to converge in these two groups - immigration will only have a limited effect on the old-age dependency ratio. The ratio depends on the age distribution for the immigrants; if the immigrants are substantially younger it may reduce the old age dependency ratio to a certain extent. However, in practice the level of employment will be important for this to have an effect. This is discussed further in the sections on population projections.

Population projections

The future challenges of the welfare states will not only depend on the current demographic structures, but also on how these structures change over time. The size of a population changes in a dynamic fashion over time, as a function of the three demographic factors: births, deaths and migratory flows, each of which influences the population's structure over time.

In order to use comparable data, this report uses the population projections produced by Eurostat, rather than projections produced in each of the Nordic countries. This means that the results can deviate from official national projections, but the differences between the countries are not a result of different methodologies used when making the projections.

The main message from these projections is that the current low levels of fertility and mortality in Europe result in a progressive ageing of the population (Eurostat, 2015).

Europop2013, the latest population projections released by Eurostat, provide a main scenario and four variants for population developments from 2013 to 2080 across 31 European countries: all of the EU-28 Member States, as well as Norway and Switzerland. These projections were produced using data for 1 January 2013 as a starting point and therefore include any modifications made to demographic statistics resulting from the 2011 population census exercise. Europop2013 projections result from the application of a set of assumptions on future developments for fertility, mortality and net migration.

The already low number of births is projected to continue, as the base of the pyramid will remain relatively unchanged, indicating that there will be little or no

population growth. The working-age population will shrink considerably between 2014 and 2080, thus further increasing the burden on those of working-age to sustain the dependent population. The proportion of elderly persons will grow much larger reflecting the ageing of the EU's population as a result of reduced mortality rates.

The projections made by Eurostat (Table 2.6) indicate that the EU-28's population will grow overall by 2.0 per cent between 2015 and 2080, with the number of inhabitants increasing by 10.4 million persons to 519 million people. The EU's population is projected to peak around 2050, reaching 529 million persons, an increase of 20.2 million compared with the situation in 2015.

Table 2.6 Population projections 2015–2080, million people

	EU (28 countries)	Nordic countries total	Denmark	Finland	Norway	Sweden
2015	508.4	26.0	5.7	5.5	5.2	9.7
2020	515.6	27.1	5.9	5.6	5.4	10.3
2030	523.8	29.1	6.3	5.7	5.9	11.2
2040	528.4	30.5	6.6	5.7	6.3	12.0
2050	528.6	31.6	6.7	5.7	6.6	12.7
2060	524.6	32.5	6.8	5.7	6.8	13.3
2070	520.4	33.3	6.8	5.6	7.0	13.8
2080	518.8	34.0	6.9	5.6	7.2	14.4
% change 2080	2.0	30.5	21.2	1.9	38.7	47.6
% change 2050	4.0	21.4	18.1	3.9	27.1	30.1

1 No figures for Iceland

Source: Eurostat, 2015,

<http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/tgm/table.do?tab=table&init=1&plugin=1&language=en&pcode=tps00002>

According to Eurostat's projections the population in the Nordic countries (excluding Iceland), will increase from 26 million people in 2015 to 34 million people in 2080, and increase of 30 per cent, a much larger increase than the increase for Europe (Table 2.6). In contrast to the estimates for Europe (28) the population in the Nordic countries is expected to increase also after 2050. The largest increase is in Sweden, where the population is projected to increase from 9.7 million in 2015 to 13 million in 2050 and 14 million in 2080. The Norwegian population is projected to increase by 2 million people between 2015 and 2080, an increase of 32 per cent. The Danish population is also projected to reach about 7 million people by 2080, an increase of 21 per cent. The smallest increase is in Finland. The Finnish population starts at 5.5 million in 2015 and is projected to be 5.6 million in 2080. There are no projections for Iceland in the figures from Eurostat. The differences between the Nordic countries are explained by different assumptions about future migration, which are also the assumptions with the highest degree of uncertainty.

By 2080 there will only be two persons of working-age for each elderly person

Demographic dependency ratios are based on the age structure of the population rather than their employment status. Table 2.7 shows projected old age dependency ratios for the EU-28 and the Nordic countries covering the period 2015 to 2080. This indicator is the ratio between the projected number of persons aged 65 and over (age when they are generally economically inactive) and the projected number of persons aged between 15 and 64. The value is expressed per 100 persons of working age (15-64).

The EU-28 old-age dependency ratio is projected to increase at a rapid pace through to 2045 reflecting the on-going process of retirement among the baby-boomers and subsequent age cohorts (a group of people who have a shared event during a particular time span, for example, those people born in the EU between 1970 and 1975). The old-age dependency ratio is projected to increase by 23.5 percentage points from 28.8 per cent in 2015 to 52.3 per cent by 2080. As such, while there were almost four persons of working-age for every elderly person in 2015, by 2080 this ratio is expected to be about 2:1.

The development for the Nordic countries shows a similar pattern as the average for Europe (28) with a relatively large increase in the old-age dependency ratio. Sweden has the lowest projected dependency ratio in 2080 with 45 per cent and Finland the highest with 54.6 per cent (see Table 2.7). These differences are due to differences in fertility.

Table 2.7 Projected old-age dependency ratio¹

	EU (28 countries)	Denmark	Finland	Norway	Sweden
2015	28.8	28.8	31.3	24.5	31.1
2020	31.7	30.9	35.9	26.8	32.5
2030	39.1	35.5	42.2	31.8	34.6
2040	46.4	39.6	43.4	37.1	36.9
2050	50.3	39.8	45.5	39.5	37.9
2060	51.6	44.6	49.5	43.9	42.6
2070	51.2	50.0	51.8	47.1	43.1
2080	52.3	52.5	54.6	49.6	45.2

1 No figures for Iceland

Source: Eurostat, 2015

http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/tgm/table.do?tab=table&init=1&plugin=1&language=en&pcode=t_sdde511

Migrants often have a different age structure than the native-born population. Migratory patterns thus have an impact on population age structures, resulting from either positive net migration (more people arriving in a country than leaving it) or negative net emigration (more people leaving a country than arriving). In those EU Member States that are characterised by positive net migration, it is possible that the process of population ageing may be slowed down, as migrant populations are often characterised as having a high share of working-age persons.

On the other hand, where there is negative net migration, the ageing process may be accelerated,

as those leaving the country may also tend to be relatively young, thereby reducing the number of working-age persons in the population, while also reducing the fertility rate as well.

In Eurostat's projections, it is estimated that net migration will be positive over the entire period, and will be the main contributing factor to the overall change in population numbers during the next three decades and during the period 2075 to 2080, when net migration will be higher than natural population change. The inherent uncertainty of projections should of course be kept in mind when interpreting the results and potential consequences.

A demographic future

Europop2013 population projections indicate that population ageing will continue across all of the EU Member States, Iceland, Norway and Switzerland. Although the EU-28's population is projected to be slightly higher in 2080 than it was in 2014 its structure will be increasingly old, with a considerable reduction in the number of and share of working-age persons. While migration has the potential to help delay the ageing process in some of the EU Member States, it may also speed up the process of ageing in those Member States which are characterised by a relatively high proportion of their working age population leaving, for example in search of work.

Indeed, the Europop2013 projections indicate that age dependency ratios are likely to continue increasing, highlighting challenges for public expenditures and public finances in relation to pensions, healthcare and long-term care costs.

Chapter 3

Education

“An investment in knowledge pays the best interest.”

Benjamin Franklin (1706-1790)

“Education is the most powerful weapon which you can use to change the world”

Nelson Mandela (1918-2013)

The importance of education

Globalisation, competitiveness, increased productivity and technological developments require a labour market with a high-skilled labour force. Policies for increasing the level of education and ensuring education for all have been important in all Nordic countries. We have, in a long-term perspective, seen a shift from education and training through work to an increased emphasis on formal education. In later years, emphasis has also been on job-related continuing education and training. For an individual, access to the labour market and earned income is easier with a higher level of education. A higher level of education is also often linked to better performance in other indicators such as better health, less poverty and less social exclusion.

Another discussion links population growth, education and the labour market. Some argue that population growth together with an increased level of education can result in a situation where it may be difficult to match qualifications and available jobs. This again may lead to unemployment among those with higher education, or that they will occupy jobs that do not require higher education, and thus lead to an increase in unemployment for those with lower education.

Both the Europe 2020 strategy and the UN sustainable development goals recognise education as an important factor. Eurostat, for example, stresses the importance of education in the publication “Smarter, greener, more inclusive? Indicators to support the Europe 2020 strategy”. It is stated herein that education and training lie at the heart of the Europe 2020 strategy and are seen as key drivers for growth and jobs. The recent economic crisis along with an ageing population, through their impact on economies, labour markets and society, are two important challenges that are changing the context in which education systems operate. At the same time education and training help boost productivity, innovation and competitiveness (Eurostat 2016).

Young people who leave education and training prematurely lack crucial skills and run the risk of facing serious, persistent problems in the labour market, and experiencing poverty and social exclusion. Early leavers from education and training who do enter the labour market are more likely to be in precarious and low-paid jobs and to draw on welfare and other social programmes. They are also less likely to be ‘active citizens’ or engage in lifelong learning. In addition, tertiary education, with its links to research and innovation, provides highly skilled human capital. A lack of these skills presents a severe obstacle to economic growth and employment in an era of rapid technological progress, intense global competition and labour market demand for ever-increasing levels of skill (Eurostat, 2016).

The Europe 2020 strategy, through its ‘smart growth’ priority, therefore aims to tackle early school leaving and to raise tertiary education levels.

The sustainable development goals are referred to in several publications, one of these being OECD’s publication “Education at a glance, 2016”. It is stated herein that Goal 4 of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) seeks to ensure “inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all.” It is further stated that participation in education is not an end in itself. What matters for people and for the economies are the skills acquired through education. It is the competence and character qualities that are developed through schooling, rather than the qualifications and credentials gained, that make people successful and resilient in their professional and private lives. They are also a key in determining individual well-being and the prosperity of societies. Investment in education is important to resume economic growth. For example, during a crisis, there may be an increasing demand to provide education and training for young and unemployed people who find it harder to compete in a more restricted labour market.

High prevalence of higher education in the Nordic populations

This chapter on education mainly uses data from OECD and Eurostat databases, which in turn are based on national Labour Force Surveys (LFS). Labour Force Surveys are sample surveys. National statistics about education will in many cases be based on national education registers and not on LFS. There may therefore be discrepancies between the results presented by the OECD and Eurostat and the results in national official statistics.

In the Nordic countries, the percentage of individuals that have completed higher (i.e. tertiary) education ranged from 37 to 43 per cent (Table 3.1) in 2015. Finland and Norway have the highest shares. We also see an increase in the percentage of individuals completing higher education over the past ten years. In Iceland, Norway and Sweden the amount of individuals having completed higher education has increased by 10 percentage points from 2005 to 2015, in Denmark only by 3 percentage points, (see Figure 3.1). These figures illustrate the increase in the numbers of individuals that have completed higher education from 2005 to 2015; also they illustrate that the Nordic countries have higher percentages of individuals that have completed higher education compared to both EU and OECD - on average.

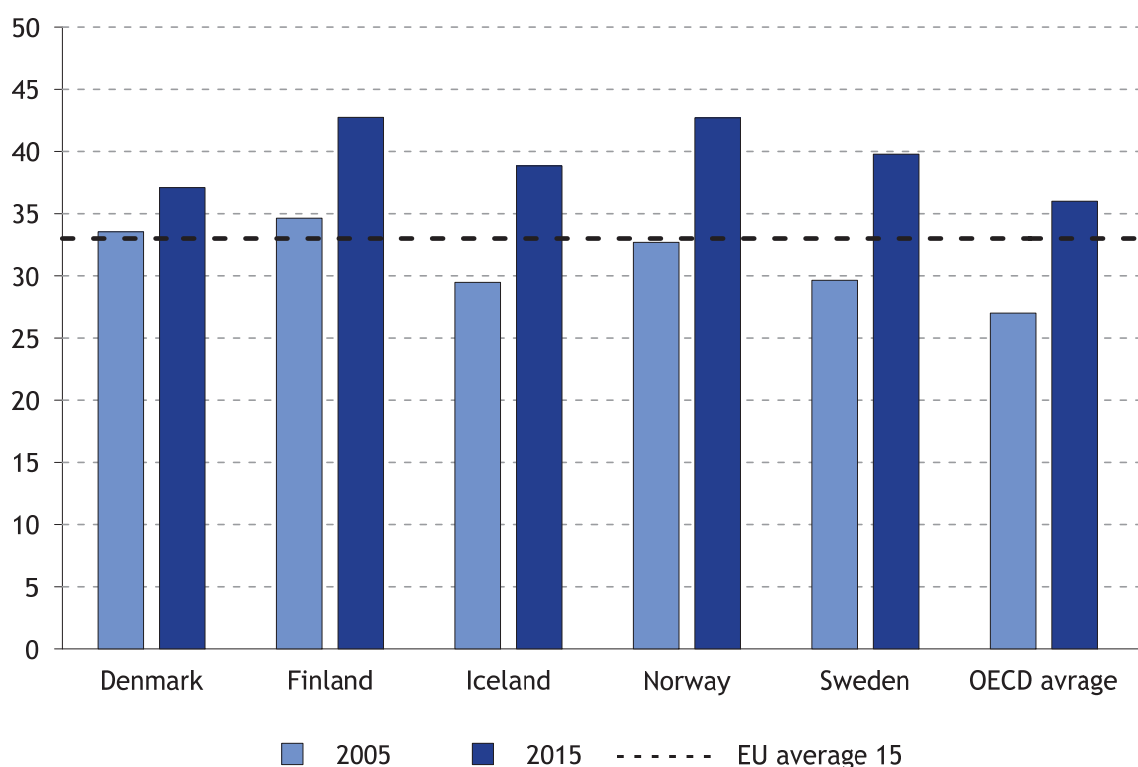
Table 3.1 Level of educational attainment, highest completed education for individuals aged 25 to 64, 2005 and 2015¹, per cent

	OECD average	EU22 ²	Denmark	Finland	Iceland	Norway	Sweden
Below upper secondary							
2005	29	28	19	21	32	23	16
2015	23	21	20	13	25	18	18
Upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary							
2005	45	48	47	44	39	45	54
2015	44	47	43	44	36	40	42
Tertiary							
2005	27	24	34	35	29	33	30
2015	36	33	37	43	39	43	40

1 In most countries, there is a break in the series, as data for the latest year refer to ISCED 2011 while data for previous years refer to ISCED-97. For the Nordic countries, there are no breaks for Denmark, Finland and Norway, while there is a break for Sweden

2 EU22 = European Union 22 members in OECD

Source: OECD Education at a glance, 2016, table A1.3

Figure 3.1 Persons age 25-65 with higher education, per cent

Source: OECD Education at a glance, 2016

We know that the amount of elderly people with shorter education is higher than for the younger generations, and they will thus contribute to lowering the total amount with longer education - this is illustrated in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2 Percentage of the population in different age groups that has completed higher education, 2005 and 2015

	Denmark	Finland	Iceland	Norway	Sweden
Tertiary					
25-64-year-olds					
2005	34	35	29	33	30
2015	37	43	39	43	40
Tertiary					
25-34-year-olds					
2005	40	38	35	41	37
2015	44	41	40	48	46
Tertiary					
55-64-year-olds					
2005	27	27	20	24	25
2015	29	36	29	33	30

Source: OECD Education at a glance, 2016, A1.3

The table indicates that the percentage of the population that have completed higher education will increase in all the countries in the future. The lowest percentages that have completed higher education are mainly found in the older age groups, but the percentage has increased over time. In Finland, Iceland and Norway the percentage of individuals that have completed higher education in the age group from 55 to 64-year-old has increased by ten percentage points from 2005 to 2015; in Denmark the increase was merely 2 percentage points, to 29 per cent.

Education and immigration - What are the challenges posed by immigration?

Educational systems play a critical role in integrating immigrants into their new communities - and into the labour market. In many countries immigrants lag behind their native-born peers in educational attainment. This can be regarded as a challenge for the future welfare states since it is generally assumed that a higher level of education will make it easier to be employed. Employment contributes to higher income for the welfare state through taxes paid and reduced costs due to lower expenditures on benefits.

We know that there is a link between level of education, labour market participation and income. The chapter on labour participation in this report confirms that persons with a low level of education are more exposed to exclusion from the labour market, even when taking other characteristics into consideration. This finding from our regression model is significant for all countries and for all years from 2011 to 2015.

Another Norwegian study found that human capital is a very strong predictor for labour market success, and that additional education acquired in Norway can be of great value, particularly for refugees and female family immigrants, even when it is below their highest educational attainment from abroad (Bratsberg, Raaum, and Røed, 2017).

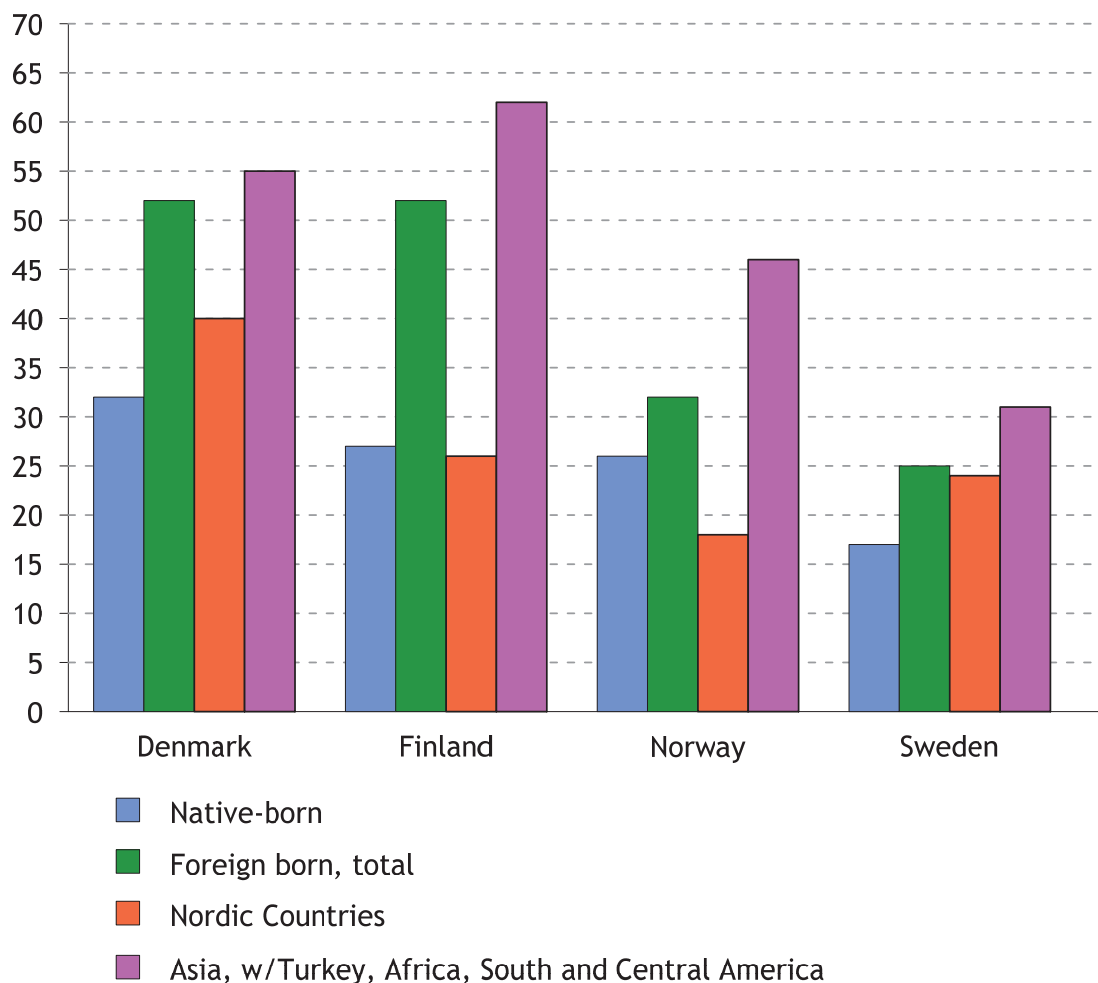
Foreign-born adults have higher percentages of low education

This section is based on data from education registers provided by each country. A word of caution is that all the countries have challenges in under-coverage especially concerning the level of education for immigrants. It has not been possible to obtain data from Iceland specifying the level of education on regions for the foreign-born population.

Figure 3.2 illustrates the percentage of the population above 16 years of age with no education or below secondary level (se Appendix table A3.1). In all the Nordic countries,

the percentage for foreign-born adults with a low level of education is higher than the percentages for the native-born adults, although we observe some variations in the percentages and differences between the regions. The shares are highest in Denmark and Finland where 52 per cent of the foreign-born adults are in this category. The lowest percentage is found in Sweden where 25 per cent of the foreign-born adults have a low level of education. In comparison, the percentages for native-born adults were around 30 per cent in Denmark and Finland, and 17 per cent in Sweden. In Norway 32 per cent of the foreign-born adults have the lowest level of education compared to 26 percent of the native-born adults.

Figure 3.2 Percentage above 16 years old with no education or below upper secondary level, regions and per cent, 2016



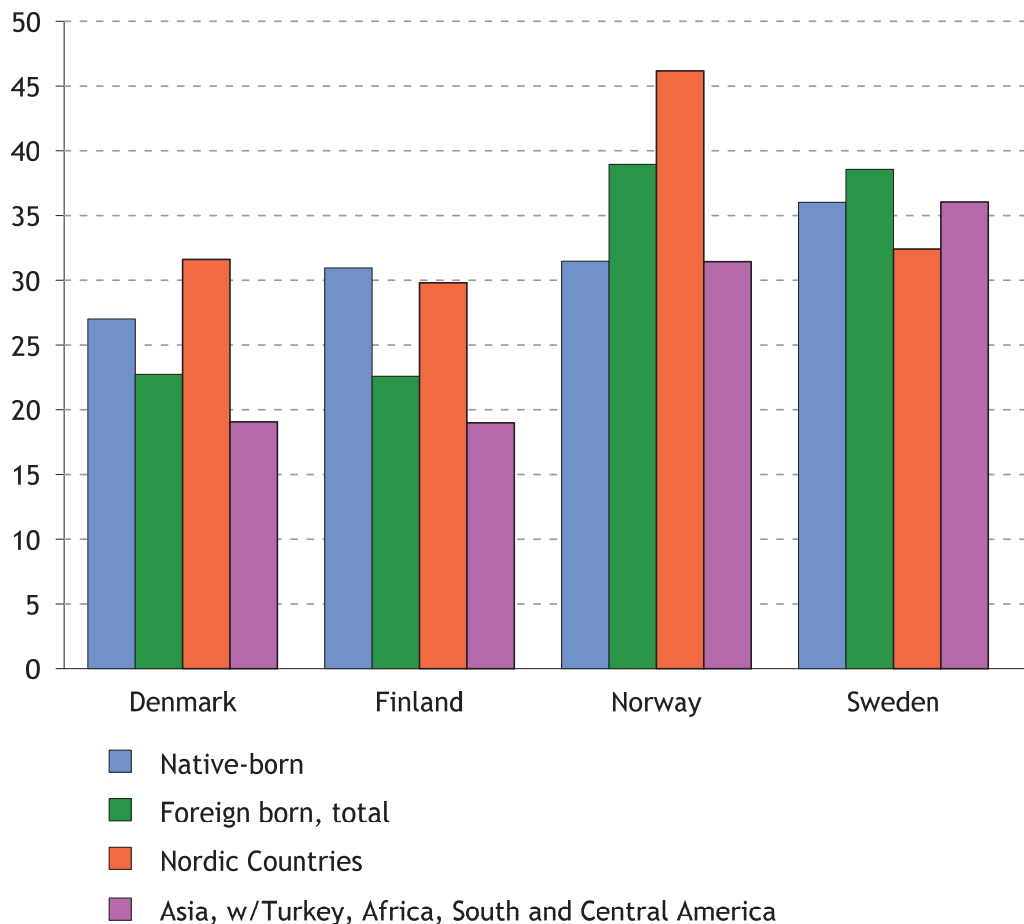
Source: National education data provided by the countries

A closer look at the numbers reveals some variations in the regions of origin for those with a low level of education.

We find smaller differences between the regions in Denmark and Finland than we do in Norway and Sweden. In Denmark and Finland between 50 and 60 per cent of those from EU or Asia, Africa, South and Central America are registered with no education or below upper secondary level. In Norway and Sweden 46 and 31 per cent of those from Asia, Africa, South and Central America have the lowest level of education. Compared to Denmark and Finland, the percentages with low levels of education are lower for immigrants in Norway

and Sweden with origins from EU and the rest of Europe. Only 13 per cent of EU-immigrants in Sweden are registered with no education or below upper secondary level; in Norway this is the case for 20 per cent of EU-immigrants. For those with origins from the rest of Europe, 21 per cent in Sweden and 27 per cent in Norway have this level of education, compared to 42 per cent in Denmark and 54 per cent in Finland.

Figure 3.3 Percentage above 16 years old with higher education, regions and per cent, 2016



Source: National education data provided by the countries

When we look at the percentages with higher education in Figure 3.3 (tertiary education) we see that in Norway and Sweden the percentages for foreign-born adults are higher than for the native-born adults. In both Norway and Sweden, 39 per cent of the foreign-born adults have higher education, compared to the native-born adults where 31 per cent in Norway and 36 per cent in Sweden have this level of education. In general, the immigrants from Asia, Africa, South and Central America have a lower percentage of individuals that have completed higher education compared to immigrants from other regions. But also here we can observe variations. Both in Denmark and Finland 19 per cent of the immigrants from Asia and Africa have completed higher education, while the percentage is higher in Norway (31 per cent) and Sweden (36 per cent). In Finland the percentage for immigrants from EU and the rest of Europe is the same as the percentage from Asia, Africa, South and Central America, while in the other countries, and especially in Norway and Sweden the percentage having completed higher education from the EU and the rest of Europe is higher than the group from Asia, Africa, South and Central America. Those with origins

from North America, Australia or New Zealand living in Norway or Sweden have very high percentages with longer time spent in education, 60 per cent in Norway and 72 per cent in Sweden. See appendix table A3.1 for detailed numbers.

There are several explanations for these variations in the level of education. The composition of the foreign-born population is one of these. They are generally younger and the immigrants from other Nordic countries, EU and North-America tend to have completed a higher level of education. Immigration history, reasons for immigration and national policies will also play a role. We also know that there are challenges in the registration of education for the foreign-born adults who have completed their education abroad, leading to under-coverage in the education registers. The extent of this challenge varies between the countries, and the interpretation both concerning the differences between the countries regarding the level of education for immigrants and the level of education in each country should be done with some caution.

Given this pattern of education and regions of origin, the future challenges point to the importance of strengthening the level of education for immigrants, with an emphasis on the qualifications for those born in Asia, Africa, South and Central America. This can be done both through the traditional education system and through more integrated, on-the-job training.

Knowledge of a country's language will also play a role, and in the following paragraphs we use some indicators from the OECD publication "Indicators of immigrant integration 2015 - Settling in" (OECD, 2015a) to illustrate the language component as well as other aspects of integration. The before mentioned OECD publication presents a vast number of indicators on integration. We will use a few of these indicators here to show some of the statistics available related to education and qualifications. We regard these indicators as relevant in the context of future challenges to the welfare states.

Language skills are important

Knowledge of a country's language (written and spoken) is often an important skill required to be employed. The OECD's 2012 Programme for International Assessment of Adult Competences (PIAAC) scores literacy skills on a six-level scale according to respondents' ability to find information in written material of varying complexity in the host country language. Those who score less than Level 1 (176 points) can read only short passages on familiar topics. The skills required to reach Level 1 (from 176 to 226 points) are knowledge of basic vocabulary to process meaning at sentence level and the ability to read written text. Level 2 (226 to 276 points) requires higher cognitive skills, particularly the ability to connect information at different points in a written text. Level 3 (276 to 326 points) requires understanding of text and rhetorical structure and navigating complex digital texts. For more information on literacy skills levels, see OECD (2013a).

The OECD figures show that in all the countries covered by the survey, foreign-born adults' literacy skills lag behind those of people born in the host country (OECD, 2015a). Their average scores are 248 points (level 2), compared to 276 points (level 3) for the native-born adults. This is also the case for the Nordic countries - see table 3.2 - and the differences are larger in the Nordic countries than in EU (16).

The OECD report (OECD2015a) also shows that literacy skills tend to increase with educational attainment, although competencies among foreign-born adults are more mixed than for those of the native-born adults. In line with the overall pattern in the OECD countries, literacy skills among 16-64-year-olds in the Nordic countries increase with educational attainment (see Table 3.3). The table illustrates that the literacy score for the

low-educated foreign-born adults is on average equal to level 1, indicating only knowledge of basic vocabulary.

Table 3.3 Mean literacy scores of 16-64-year-olds immigrant and native-born people by level of education, 2012

	EU (16)		OECD (19)		Denmark		Finland		Norway		Sweden	
	Foreign born adults	Native born adults	Foreign born adults	Native born adults	Foreign born adults	Native born adults	Foreign born adults	Native born adults	Foreign born adults	Native born adults	Foreign born adults	Native born adults
Low-educated	217	251	215	251	207	253	200	266	209	263	200	265
Medium educated	250	274	250	275	241	272	246	286	243	278	241	286
Highly educated	274	299	275	301	261	298	260	312	270	308	268	316
Total	247	275	248	276	238	276	240	292	246	284	235	290

Source: OECD (2015a) Indicators of immigrant integration 2015 (Figures 7.3 and 7.5)

Familiarity with the host country's language is a decisive element in immigrants' literacy skills. The OECD analysis shows that taking age, gender, and level of educational attainment into account narrows the gap with people born in the host country only if their language of origin is that spoken in the host country. Furthermore, the OECD report points out that the literacy skills may depend on the duration of stay. For a given age structure, gender, and level of educational attainment, the longer the duration of stay the better the outcomes.

A recently published report from the OECD also confirms this. The report states that immigrants have weaker literacy skills than native-born adults on average and the gap is the equivalent of 3.5 years of schooling. Furthermore, the report finds that on average, about two-thirds of the difference in literacy proficiency between foreign-born and native-born adults is explained by how well immigrants have mastered the host country's language, and where they acquired their highest qualification. The report also points out that long-settled immigrants and those who arrived in their host country as young children have better literacy proficiency than other groups of immigrants (OECD, 2017).

Adult education and training

As we have seen, immigrants tend to have lower level of education (depending on country of origin) and lower literacy skills than the native-born population. Access to adult education and training and the opportunity for work-related training for adults may therefore be important to increase the share that participates in the labour market.

The OECD report on Indicators of immigrant integration 2015 further shows that in 2012 some 50 per cent of foreign-born adults had attended a training programme in the last 12 months. Overall, the immigrants are less likely to train than native-born adults, a trend that is more pronounced among women. The OECD also points out that there are variations from one country to another. We can see for the Nordic countries that Norway stands out with a higher rate of participation for the foreign-born adults compared to native-born adults.

Table 3.4 Participation in education and training over the last 12 months among 25-64-year-olds, by place of birth and gender¹, 2012

	EU average (16)	OECD average (19)	Denmark	Norway	Sweden
Foreign born adults					
<i>Men</i>	46	49	55	65	55
<i>Women</i>	43	46	62	67	59
Native born adults					
<i>Men</i>	51	53	65	62	65
<i>Women</i>	50	52	69	64	69

1 Due to small sample size figures are not available for Finland

Source: OECD (2015a) Indicators of immigrant integration 2015 (Figure 7.8)

The results for work-related training for adults are similar to those for adult education. In OECD and EU-countries, immigrants are less likely to participate in work-orientated training than native-born adults. Table 3.4 illustrates that this is also the case for the Nordic countries. In contrast to the figures for participation in education and training, the figures for Norway show a lower participation rate in job related-training for foreign-born adults. The percentage is also low for Sweden where only 75 per cent of the foreign-born men have participated in job related training. This may be partly explained, at least in the case for Norway, that there are relatively many men that have recently arrived in order to participate in specific work.

Table 3.5 Share of foreign-born and native-born adults who participated in job-related training, by gender¹, 2012

	EU average (16)	OECD average (19)	Denmark	Norway	Sweden
Foreign born adults					
<i>Men</i>	86	85	86	81	75
<i>Women</i>	72	72	71	78	77
Native born adults					
<i>Men</i>	89	89	89	92	86
<i>Women</i>	80	81	85	87	79

1 Due to small sample size figures are not available for Finland

Source: OECD (2015a) Indicators of immigrant integration 2015 (Figure 7.11)

To summarise - education and immigration

We have previously argued that the welfare states depend on a high level of employment (see Chapter 1). We have also argued that globalisation, increased competition and rapid technological changes will require increased demand for higher education, and with a potential danger of reduced demand for labour with lower education.

In general, the Nordic population is characterised by high and increasing levels of education. At the same time, immigrants - depending on reason for immigration, country of origin and duration of stay - are more likely to have a lower level of education compared to the native-born population. They also score lower on literacy tests and receive less adult education and on-the-job training

The challenge will therefore be to ensure that immigrants can participate in the labour market. This is important in order to contribute to reduce the pressure on the welfare states, both to reduce costs and increase the taxes paid. This can be ensured by increasing their qualifications through education and training and/or by offering jobs which require fewer qualifications. This is also an important recommendation in the Norwegian report about the long-term consequences of high immigration (NOU, 2017:2).

Chapter 4

Social expenditure in the Nordic welfare states

"Never spend your money before you have earned it"

Thomas Jefferson 1743-1826

Social expenditure in the Nordic welfare states

The Nordic welfare model is to a large extent dependent on high levels of employment and high levels of direct and indirect taxation. One of the most important challenges to the Nordic welfare states is the future financing faced with ageing populations, immigration and technological changes. Preserving and developing welfare schemes and benefits further require economic growth and sound public finances. These are complex challenges beyond the scope of this report, but serve as a rationale for the importance of monitoring social expenditure.

The Nordic welfare model, as described in chapter one, is characterised by relatively inclusive and universal benefits. By using data from ESSPROS (see textbox) we can see how expenditure has developed during recent years. As these data are on an aggregated level and not individual data on recipients of welfare benefits and schemes, the analytical use for our purpose is somewhat limited. We are, for example, unable to use this to analyse the consequences of immigration directly. Most of the expenditure components are connected to labour market participation, health, and social exclusion. As such, the findings from other chapters in this report may be used indirectly to analyse influences on expenditure.

Social expenditure, both the total and the different components, can be expressed in several ways. We have chosen two measures used by Eurostat. One is social expenditure as a percentage of GDP, and the other is social expenditure per capita as purchasing power parity standards (PPS, see box).

The European System of integrated Social PROtection Statistics (ESSPROS) collects and publishes data on social expenditure of various states. ESSPROS was developed by Eurostat at the end of the 1970s due to the need for a specific instrument for statistical monitoring of the social expenditure in the EU. The ESSPROS manual contains detailed definitions and classification of different expenditures. Expenditure on social protection contain: social benefits, which consist of transfers, in cash or in kind, to households and individuals to relieve them of the burden of a defined set of risks or needs; administration costs, which represent the costs charged to the scheme for its management and administration; other expenditure, which consists of miscellaneous expenditure by social protection schemes (payment of property income and other). It is calculated in current prices.

Purchasing Power Parity Standards (PPS) is a unit independent of national currencies to remove the effect of national price differences. PPS are based on purchasing power parities (PPP), which in turn are calculated as a weighted average of relative price ratios for a consumer basket consisting of goods and services comparable and representative for each country.

Data obtained from: <http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/social-protection/data/database>

Total social expenditure

Although total social expenditure as PPS per inhabitants has increased steadily during the last twenty years, increase in GDP has kept track. The total social expenditure in the Nordic countries does not make up a much larger share of the economy in 2014 than it did in 1995. However, during this period, we still find some developments worth noticing.

Iceland is a Nordic exception, as social expenditure in 2014 was 24 per cent of GDP, compared to 19 per cent in 1995. This increase took place in two stages, in 2000-2003 and 2008-2009. In Sweden, social expenditure adds up to a smaller part of GDP in 2014, (30 per cent), than it did in 1995 (32 per cent). For Iceland and Sweden, it is also interesting to note that the growth in expenditure measured as PPS per inhabitant slowed down from 2007. In Finland, the expenditure was reduced from 1996 and stabilised at around 25 per cent of GDP for a period. Following the financial crisis, we see an increase bringing the level in 2014 to the highest in the period covered, to 32 per cent of GDP. The same tendency can be seen in Denmark, although not as clear as in the Finnish case. Norway is the Nordic country where total social expenditure as share of GDP has shown the strongest variation from one year to another, but similar to all other Nordic countries, the share of GDP used for social expenditure increased following the financial crisis. This is also a common feature for many other European countries.

The development of social expenditure as part of GDP is of course not only affected by the growth in social expenditure, it is also highly dependent on the development of GDP. Here, Greece may serve as an example. Before the financial crisis in 2008, total social expenditure in Greece was 25 per cent of GDP. In 2012 this share had increased to 32 per cent, even though social expenditure measured by PPS per inhabitant increased only by around 1 per cent during the same period. As a share of GDP, Denmark is among the European countries with the highest expenditure. After the financial crisis, Finland has also moved to the "top", while Sweden's relative position has changed the opposite way.

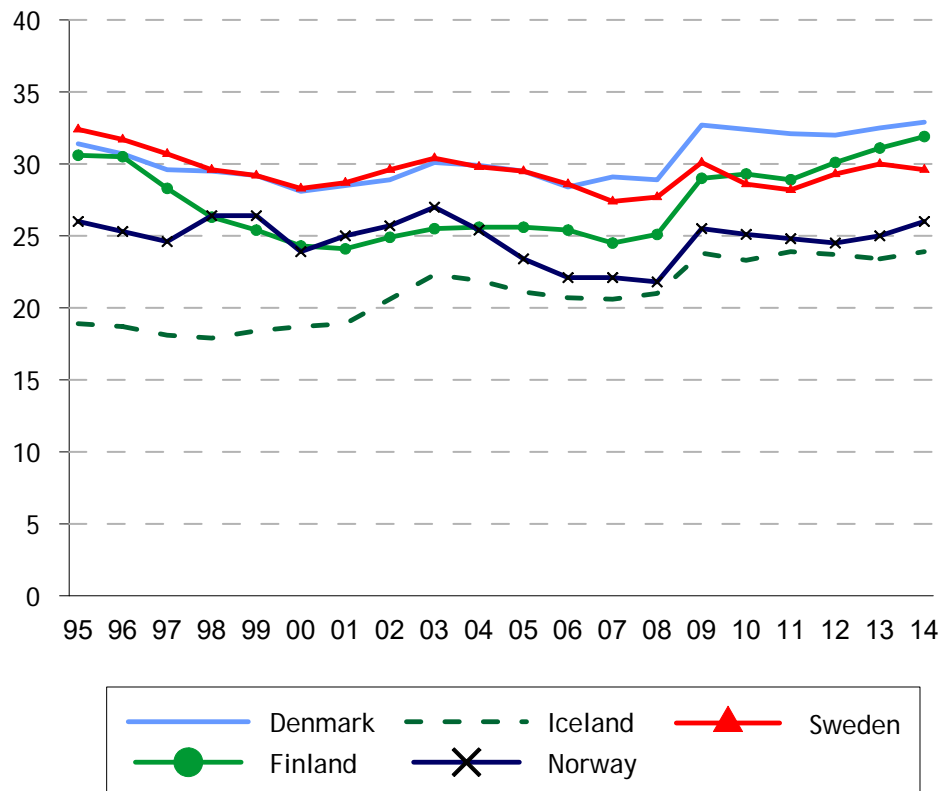
Iceland's expenditure places the country in quite a stable position in the middle of the European distribution. Norway is a bit higher, but both Norway's and Iceland's positions stayed quite unchanged during the financial crisis.

Apart from Luxembourg, Norway was the European country with highest total social expenditure in PPS in 2014, followed by Switzerland and Denmark.

Expenditure in Sweden and Finland are also quite high, but countries like the Netherlands, Austria, France and Germany have higher expenditures. Iceland is also below UK and Italy.

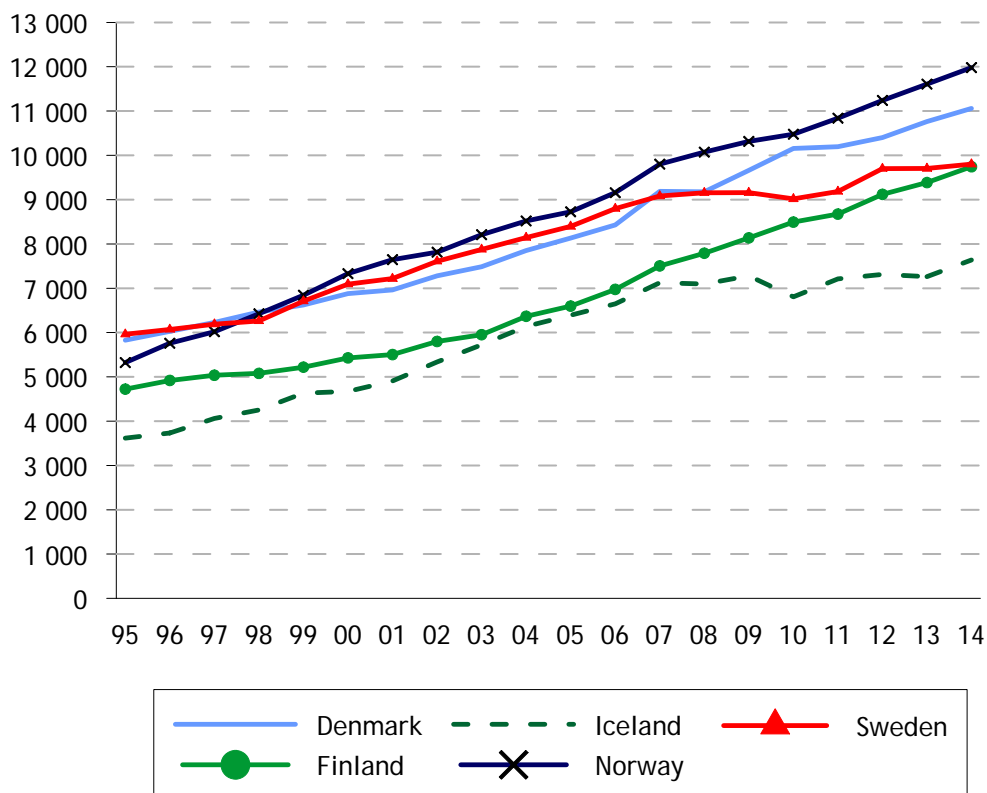
We cannot say anything about the effect of immigration from the overall development in social expenditure from 1995 to 2014. We observe that social expenditure increased as share of GDP following the financial crisis, and in Iceland and in Sweden, the growth in social expenditure as PPS per inhabitants slowed down after 2008.

Figure 4.1 Total social expenditure, percentage of gross domestic product (GDP), 1995-2014



Source: <http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/social-protection/data/database>. Extraction date 29 March 2017

Figure 4.2 Total social expenditure, purchasing power standard (PPS) per inhabitant, 1995-2014



Source: <http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/social-protection/data/database>. Extraction date 29 March 2017

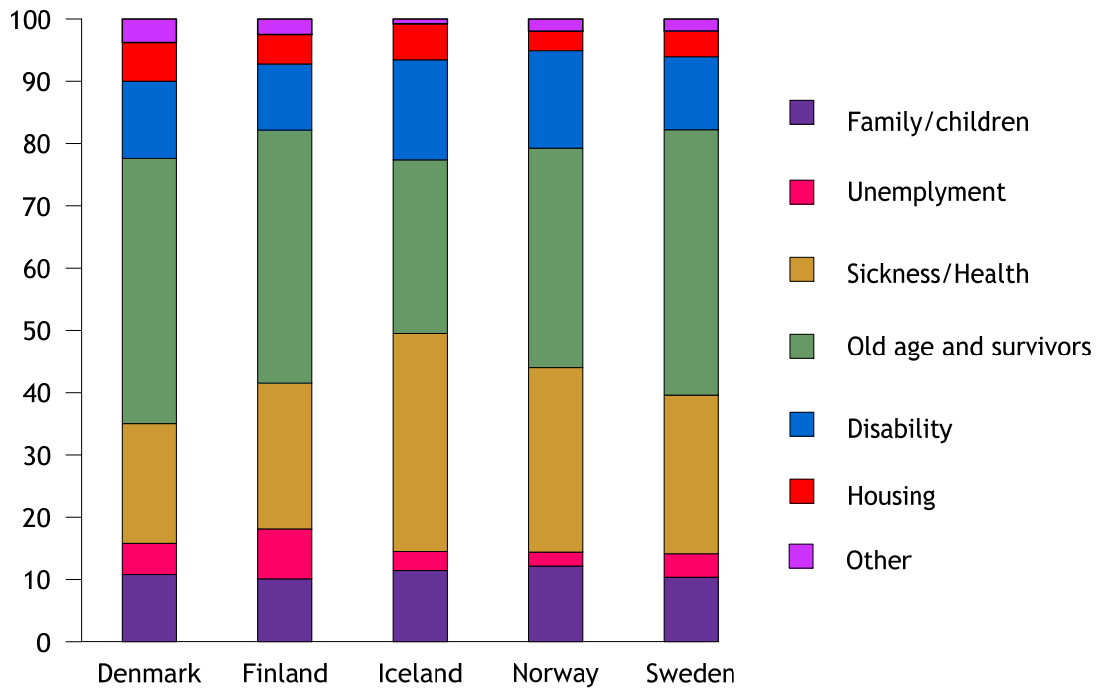
The composition of social expenditure

By decomposing the total expenditure, we can identify the most important components when monitoring challenges to the welfare states. Following the ESSPROS classification, we identify six main areas of social expenditure by their functions: Old age and survivors, sickness/health care, disability, family/children, unemployment and finally, housing and social exclusion.¹ Development in these expenditures is treated in more detail below.

In four Nordic countries, all but Iceland, expenditure for old age and survivors is the largest component of social expenditure followed by sickness and health care (Figure 4.3). In Denmark, Sweden and Finland, more than 40 per cent of social expenditure is on old age and survivors, while in Iceland, 35 per cent of social expenditure is on sickness and health care. In total, these two functions make up more than 60 per cent of the total social expenditure in all the Nordic countries, which highlights the importance of monitoring factors influencing these expenditures, such as demographic development and public health. This latter point is strengthened by the fact that expenditure on disability makes up between 11 to 16 per cent of total social expenditure in the Nordic countries.

¹ Social expenditure outside these six categories are classified as «other».

Figure 4.3 Social expenditure by function, per cent of total expenditure, 2014



Source: <http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/social-protection/data/database>. Extraction date 29 March 2017

Disability is also important when analysing different challenges connected to labour market participation, as unemployment also causes social expenditure. High employment rates are also important to maintain the income side of the welfare state. Labour market participation is discussed in chapter 6.

Expenditure on families and children constitutes between 10 and 12 per cent of social expenditure in the Nordic countries, while housing and social exclusion make up between 3 and 6 per cent. These expenditures are not so easily mirrored by challenges discussed in this report, although chapter 5 talks about the risk of poverty and social exclusion. These expenditures are also connected to personal income from labour market participation and to demographic challenges.

Expenditure on old age and survivors is the largest part of social expenditure in most European countries, not only the Nordic countries. Along with Iceland, Ireland is the only exception to this pattern. While expenditure for old age and survivors and for sickness and health care makes up more than 60 per cent of the total social expenditure in the Nordic countries, this share is above 70 per cent in most of the other European countries.

Expenditure on old age and survivors

The ageing population is a challenge to welfare states in part because it may increase social expenditure for old age and survivors. As mentioned, this is the largest component of social expenditure in all Nordic countries except in Iceland, and its relative importance in comparison with other components has increased over the last 20 years. Again, with the exception of Iceland, where expenditure for old age and survivors as a share of total expenditure fell quite drastically from 2006 to 2007, but increased again after 2010.

Figures showing expenditure for old age and survivors as PPS per inhabitant and share of GDP also underline the importance of this challenge to the welfare states. In Denmark, Finland, Sweden and Norway, the expenditure as PPS per inhabitant has increased steadily

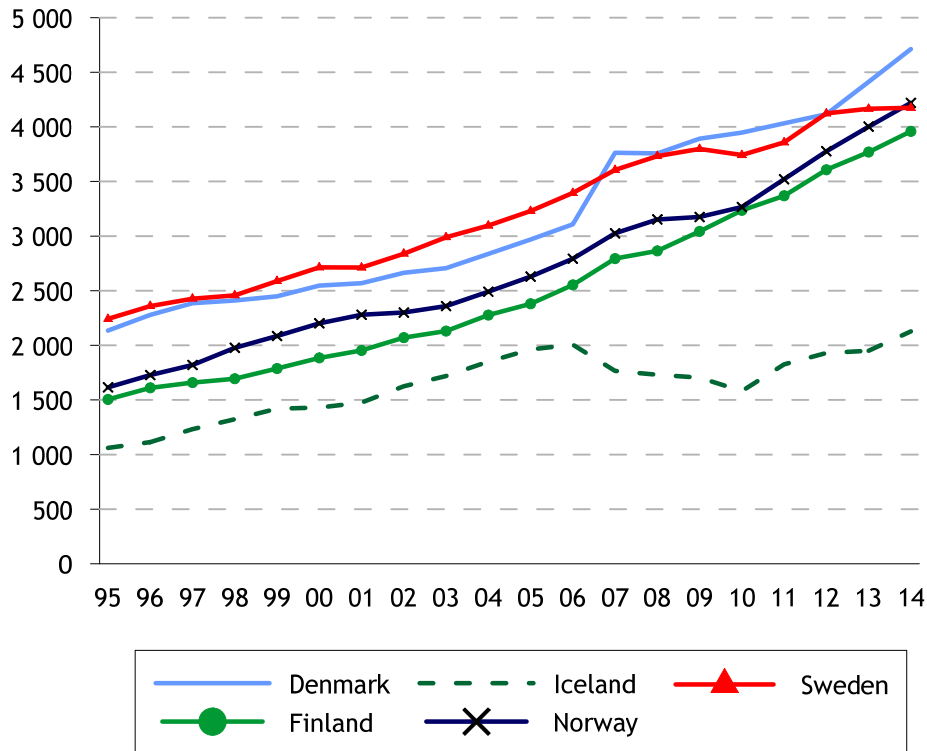
during the last 20 years, although at slower pace in Sweden than in the other three countries. Also in Iceland, these expenditures have increased, but here we also observe a decrease from 2006 to 2010, before passing the 2006 level again in 2014.

Comparing the Nordic countries in 2014, Denmark has the highest expenditure, followed closely by Norway, Sweden and Finland. The expenditure in PPS is lowest in Iceland, less than half of the expenditure in Denmark. The Icelandic expenditure is even well below the EU28 average, while expenditure in the other Nordic countries is above this average. Still, the expenditure for old age and survivors in PPS per inhabitant is not exceptionally high in the Nordic countries (see Appendix Table A4.4).

As a percentage of GDP, expenditure on old age and survivors varies from 7 per cent in Iceland to 14 per cent in Denmark. In both Denmark and Finland, the relative burden of social expenditure for old age and survivors has increased during the previous 6 to 8 years. Also in Norway, expenditure for old age and survivors was higher in 2014 than in any of the previous years, but still the expenditure constitutes a smaller share of GDP than in Denmark, Finland and Sweden. Also in Sweden, there is evidence of an increase in the relative burden of these expenditures during the last few years. The same can be said for Iceland, where the level in 2014 equals the 2003 level as the highest during the period 1995-2014.

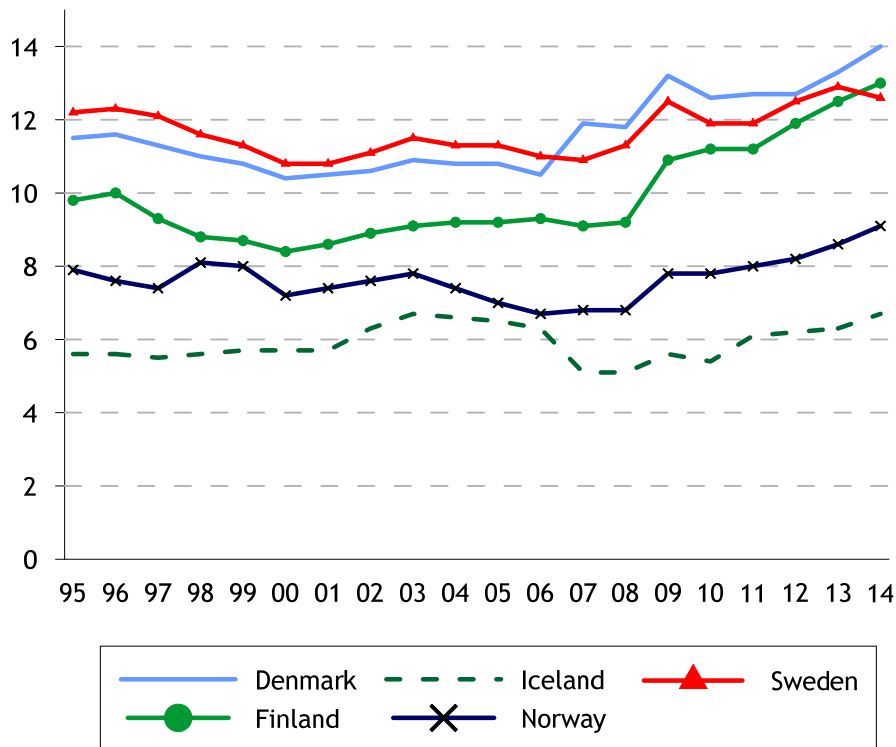
In a European context, Denmark and Finland are above the EU28 average of 13 per cent when it comes to the share of GDP spent on old age and survivors, while Sweden is very close to the average. With 10 per cent of GDP, Norway is well below the European average, while Ireland (6 per cent) is below the Icelandic share of 7 per cent.

Figure 4.4 Social expenditure on old age and survivors, PPS per inhabitant, 1995-2014



Source: <http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/social-protection/data/database>. Extraction date 29 March 2017

Figure 4.5 Social expenditure on old age and survivors, percentage of GDP, 1995-2014



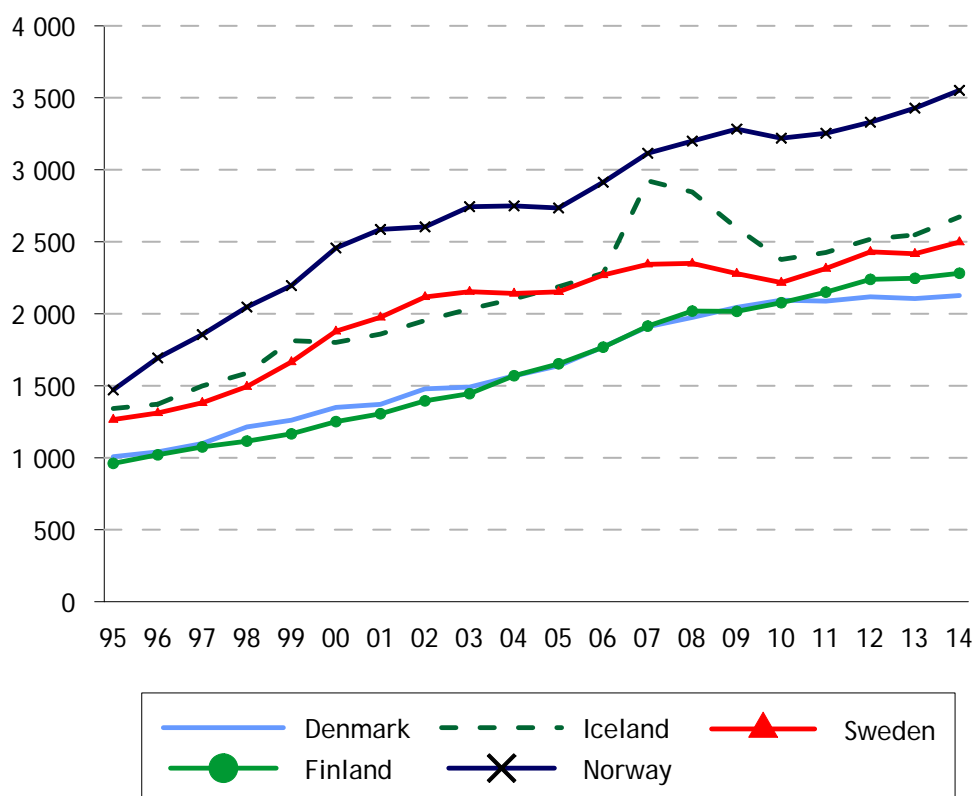
Source: <http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/social-protection/data/database>. Extraction date 29 March 2017

Expenditure on sickness and health care

Again, the importance of monitoring this expenditure is related to the ageing of the population, as this may increase the need for health-related services. In chapter 7, we also analyse the health challenge in more detail. In Iceland, this was the largest social expenditure in 2014, while it was only surpassed by old age and survivors in the other Nordic countries. In Iceland, expenditure for sickness and health care constitutes a smaller share of the total social expenditure in 2014 than it did in 1995, while the opposite is the case in the other four countries. This development has not been continuous during this period (Appendix Table A4.4). Still, the overall impression is that the relative importance compared to other social expenditures has remained quite stable over a long period.

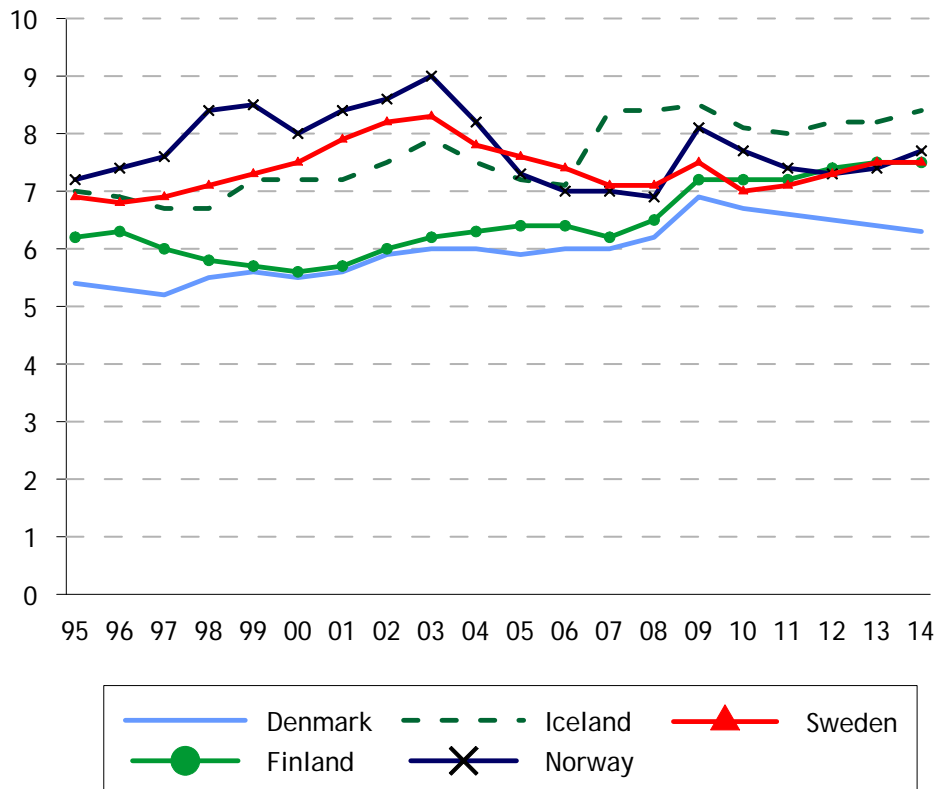
From Figure 4.6, we observe a steady increase in social expenditure on sickness and health care from 1995 to 2014. The increase is highest in Norway, while expenses are especially high in Iceland in 2007-2009.

Figure 4.6 Social expenditure on sickness and health care, PPS per inhabitant, 1995-2014



Source: <http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/social-protection/data/database>. Extraction date 29 March 2017

Figure 4.7 Social expenditure on sickness and health care, percentage of GDP, 1995-2014



Source: <http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/social-protection/data/database>. Extraction date 29 March 2017

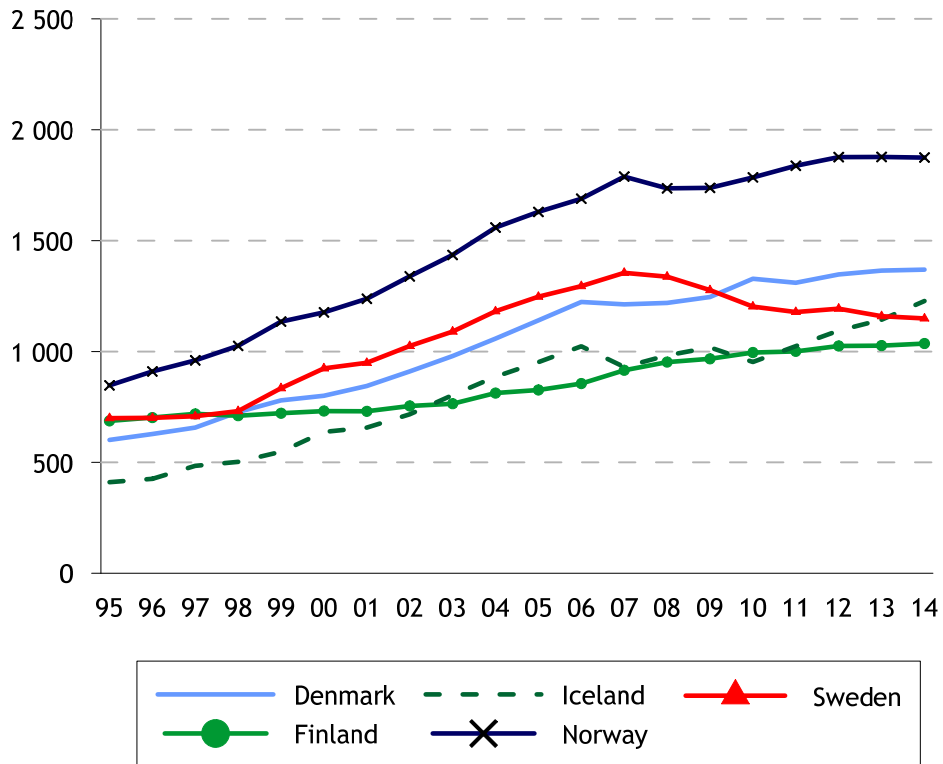
Expenditure on sickness and health care as percentage of GDP indicates more stability, although there are some minor changes from one year to another (Figure 4.7). Still, in all Nordic countries, a larger share of GDP was used on sickness and health care in 2014 than in 1995.

Expenditure on disability

Disability represents a loss of labour force, and thus income from production and taxation, and it may also increase social expenditure. In chapter 6, disability related to work will be discussed in more detail, and in chapter 7 the health indicators are analysed. On the expenditure side, disability makes up from 11 to 16 per cent of the total social expenditure in the Nordic countries. In Norway, Sweden and Denmark, the share of total expenditure for disability increased from the mid-1990s, before reducing its relative importance again during the last 10 years. In Finland, expenses on disability as a share of total expenditure decreased steadily from 16 per cent in 1995 to 11 per cent in 2014. In Iceland, this expenditure developed in the opposite way, from 11 per cent of total expenditure in 1995 to 16 per cent in 2014. This illustrates that disability is an important challenge for welfare states, and an area where there are changes worth paying attention to.

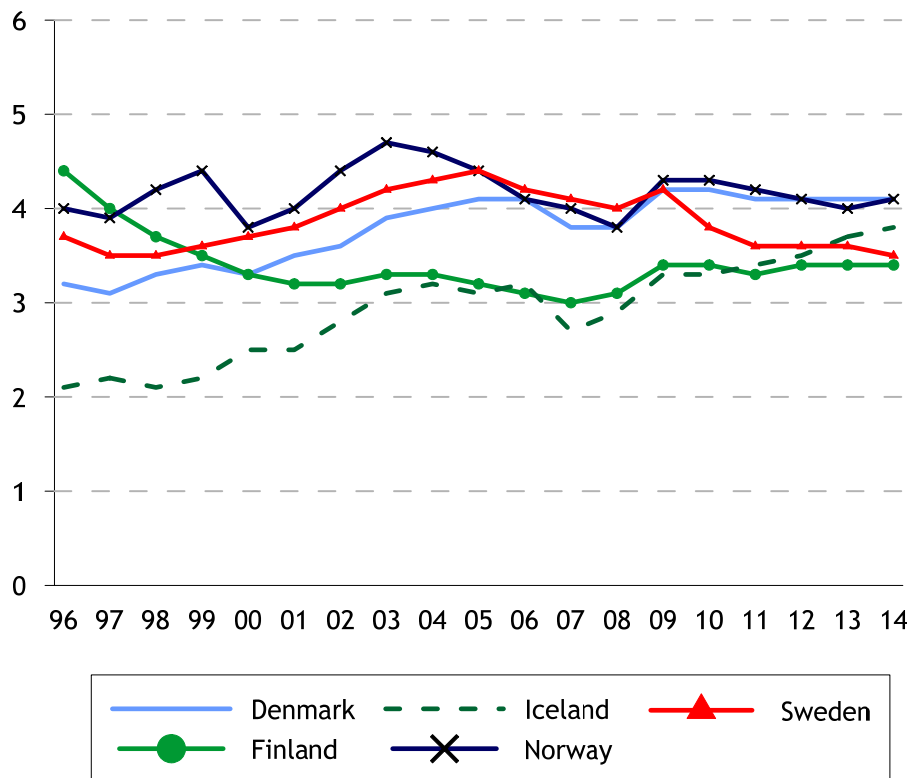
Expenditure as PPS per inhabitant rises steadily, with an exception for Sweden, where a reform of their disability insurance scheme in 2007 led to a reduction. Still, over a long period of time, the total increase is lowest in Finland and highest in Norway.

Figure 4.8 Social expenditure on disability, PPS per inhabitant, 1995-2014



Source: <http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/social-protection/data/database>. Extraction date 29 March 2017

Figure 4.9 Social expenditure on disability, percentage of GDP, 1995-2014



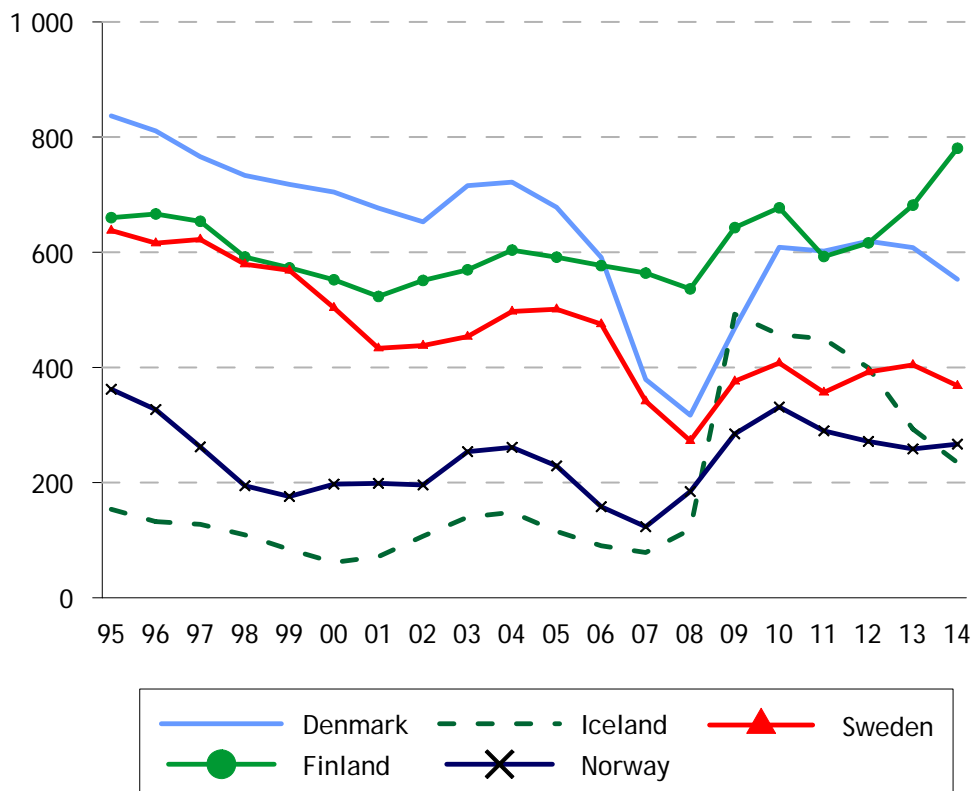
Source: <http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/social-protection/data/database>. Extraction date 29 March 2017

Expenditure on unemployment

In the mid-1990s, social expenditure on unemployment constituted a larger share of social expenditure in four of the Nordic countries compared to the situation in 2014. Again, Iceland is the exception. For example, in Denmark in 1995, 14 per cent of social expenditure was used on unemployment, compared to 5 per cent in 2014. Similar trends can be seen in Finland, Sweden and Norway. This might also have been the case for Iceland, had it not been for the financial crisis, during which unemployment expenditure rose in all countries, mostly in Iceland. This highlights an essential point regarding unemployment benefits; the fact that they are the social expenditures most affected by economic cycles.

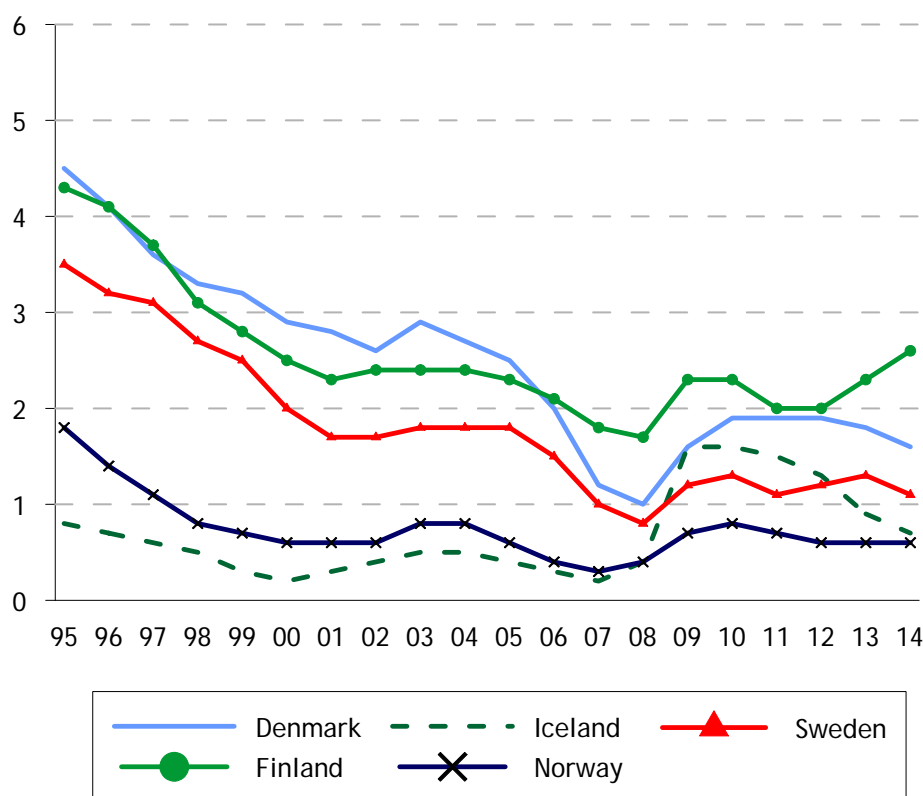
Figure 4.10 also illustrates the fluctuating nature of expenditure on unemployment, where expenditure in PPS per inhabitant is higher in 2014 than in 1995 in Finland and Iceland, lower in Denmark, Sweden and Norway. Here, we also see effects from the financial crisis starting in 2008. But contrary to most other components of social expenditure, there is no stable trend of increasing expenditure on unemployment measured as PPS per inhabitant. This is reflected in Figure 4.11, where the long-term trend is that expenditure on unemployment was more burdensome for the Nordic welfare states in the mid-1990s compared to recent years. But still, we also see effects from the financial crisis and signs of more stability and even small increases during the last few years. In terms of share of GDP, only Belgium, Spain and Ireland have higher expenditure on unemployment than Finland in 2014. Denmark is also above the EU28 average of 1.4 per cent of GDP, while Sweden, Iceland and Norway are below.

Figure 4.10 Social expenditure on unemployment, PPS per inhabitant, 1995-2014



Source: <http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/social-protection/data/database>. Extraction date 29 March 2017

Figure 4.11 Social expenditure on unemployment, percentage of GDP, 1995-2014



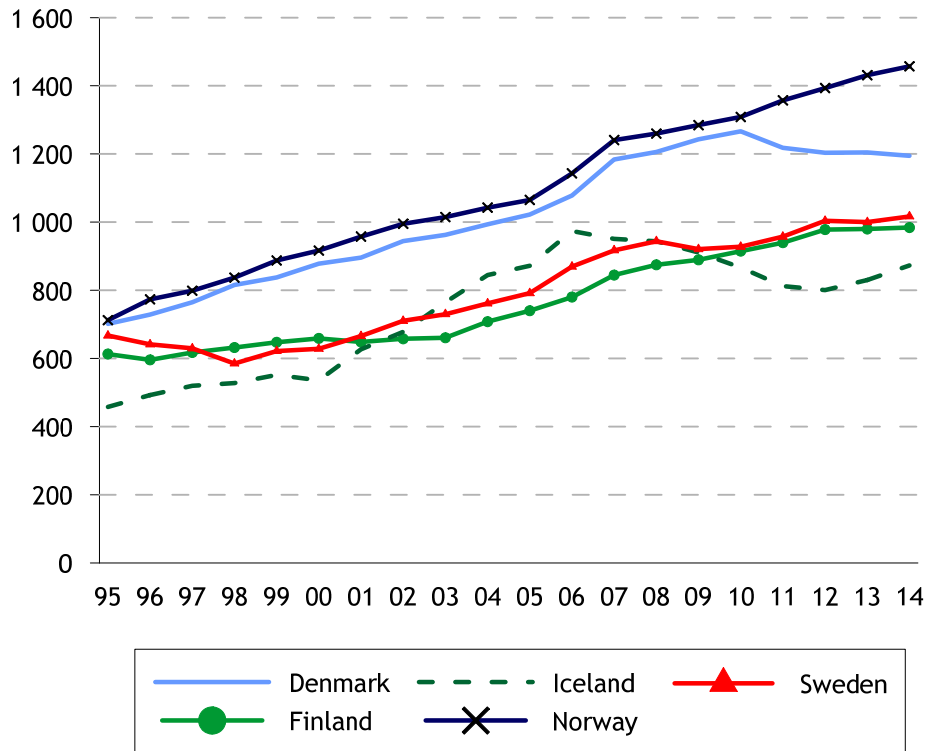
Source: <http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/social-protection/data/database>. Extraction date 29 March 2017

Expenditure on families and children

The overall picture is that these kinds of expenditures are a stable and quite equal part of social total social expenditure in the Nordic countries. In 1995, Nordic countries used between 11 to 13 per cent of social expenditure for families and children; the corresponding figures in 2014 are between 11 and 12 per cent.

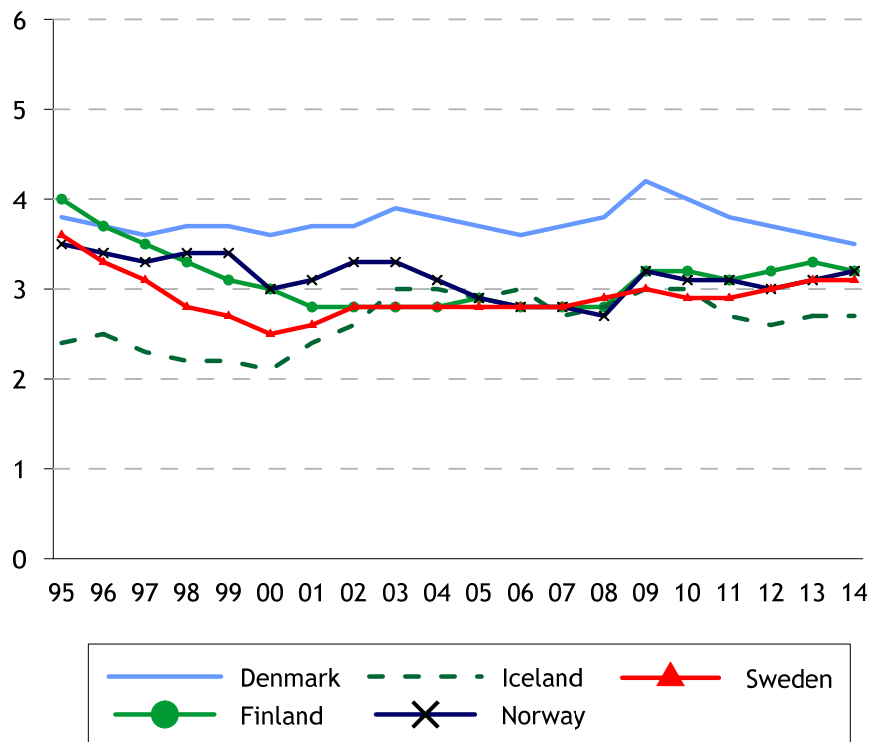
Looking at social expenditure on families and children as PPS per inhabitant, we see a steady increase during a 20-year period, but the increase seems to have stopped in Iceland and Denmark (Figure 4.12). Norway has the highest expenditure throughout the period. The increase in PPS per inhabitant has not led to an increase in expenditure as part of GDP. From the early 2000s, the situation is quite stable in all Nordic countries. The Nordic countries are among the European countries with the highest relative expenditure on families and children; all five are above the EU28 average of 2 per cent of GDP.

Figure 4.12 Social expenditure on families and children, PPS per inhabitant, 1995-2014



Source: <http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/social-protection/data/database>. Extraction date 29 March 2017

Figure 4.13 Social expenditure on families and children, percentage of GDP, 1995-2014



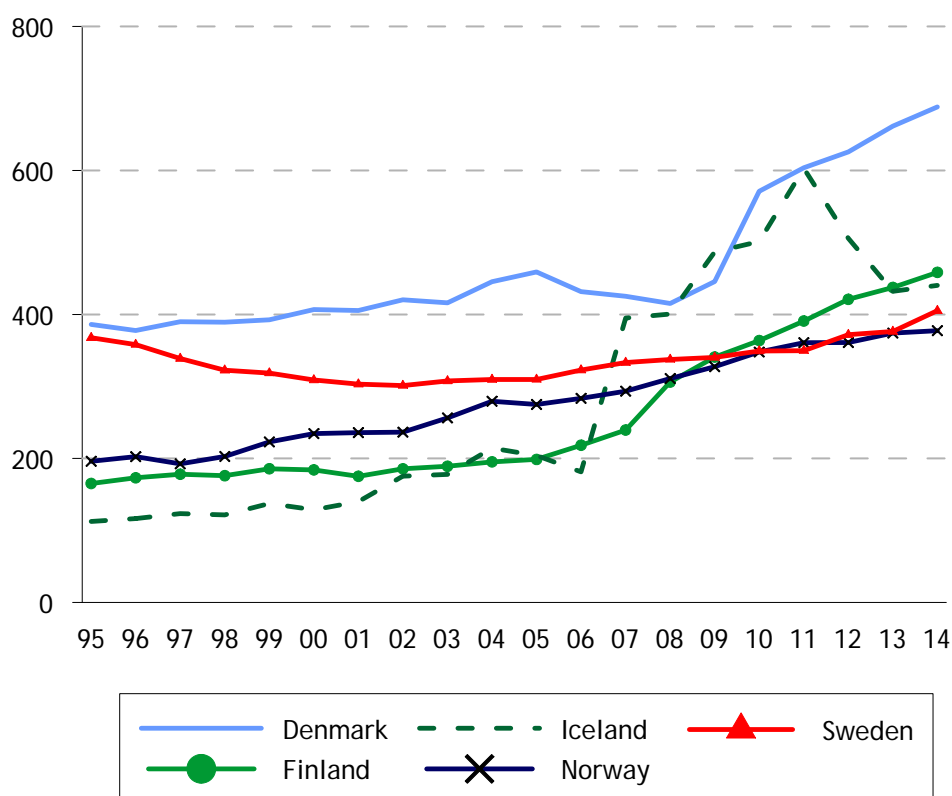
Source: <http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/social-protection/data/database>. Extraction date 29 March 2017

Expenditure on housing and social exclusion

Expenditure on housing and social exclusion make up a relatively small part of total social expenditure in the Nordic countries. But still, this expenditure is important as it is directed towards those in most urgent need of support from the welfare states. Expenditure is influenced by the prevalence of poverty related problems and exclusion from the labour market. This can, for example, be noticed for Iceland, where this expenditure's relative importance increased from 2007 to 2011.

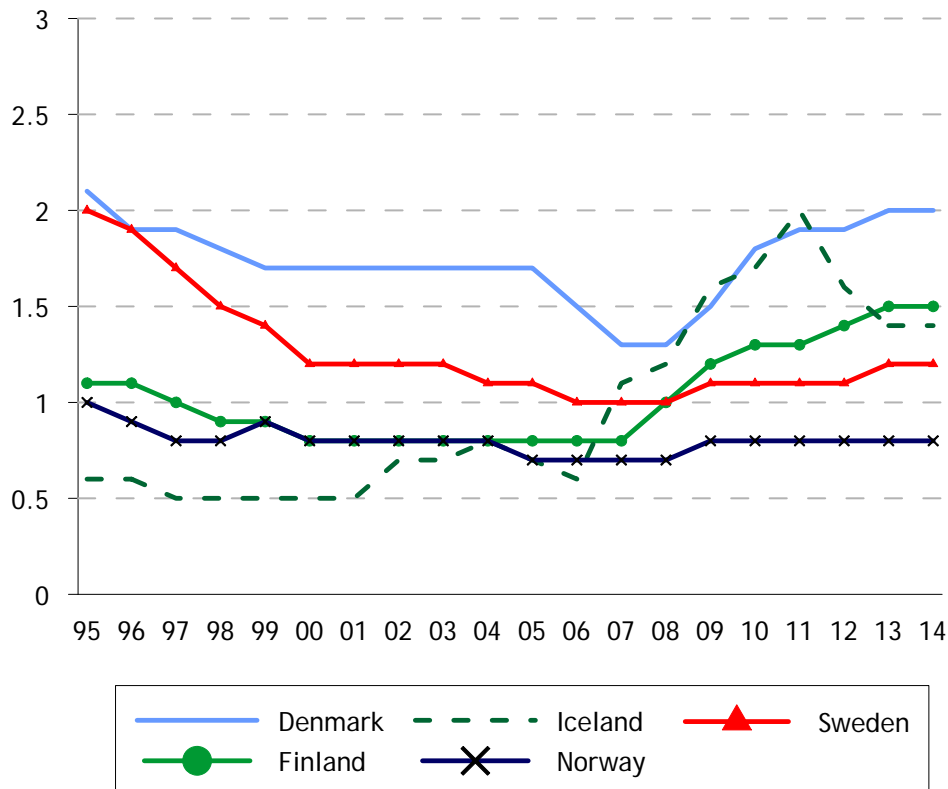
Both the relative importance of expenditure on housing and social exclusion and the absolute expenditure increased in Iceland from 2007 on (Figure 4.14). The same happened in Denmark after 2010, while the increase is quite linear in the other three countries. Measured both as PPS per inhabitant and part of GDP (Figure 4.15), expenditure is highest in Denmark. But here, we also see an increase in Iceland and Finland after 2006/2007. Figure 4.15 also illustrates a reduced economic impact of this social expenditure in Sweden in the late part of the 1990s, while this remained stable in Norway throughout the whole period.

Figure 4.14 Social expenditure on housing and social exclusion, PPS per inhabitant, 1995-2014



Source: <http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/social-protection/data/database>. Extraction date 29 March 2017

Figure 4.15 Social expenditure on housing and social exclusion, percentage of GDP, 1995-2014



Source: <http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/social-protection/data/database>. Extraction date 29 March 2017

Social expenditure and immigration

"In short, the relationship between migration and welfare state spending is complex, mediated by a number of factors, and may be changing over time"

Soroka et al. 2016:4

None of the components of social expenditure mentioned in this chapter can be directly linked to immigration. We have presented aggregated data with no description of recipients. If we were to analyse the impact of immigration on social expenditure, we would need to analyse probabilities for being a recipient by country of birth, and that is beyond the scope of this project. Monitoring the development of these expenditures and their components is still an argument for the importance of other indicators in this report.

Studies on the effect of immigration on welfare states have pointed out that there is a challenge including immigrants in the labour market, thus improving the income side of the welfare state and reducing the need for social benefits affecting the expenditures mentioned in this chapter (Flood and Ruist 2015, NOU 2017).

However, studies of the effect of immigration on welfare spending are divergent. Some suggest that migrants are more likely to be welfare recipients; others conclude that migration is associated with a smaller increase in welfare state expenditure (Soroka et al. 2016).

Chapter 5

Nordic at-risk-of poverty or social exclusion

“An imbalance between rich and poor is the oldest and most fatal ailment of all republics”

Plutarch 46-127

Social and economic equality is one of the main aims of the welfare state and social policy. This may be translated into ensuring the population's access to a minimum of benefits, thereby securing the best possible living conditions. The Nordic approach has traditionally been a focus on access to individual resources, enabling the population to actively improve their living conditions. In this perspective, economic resources are especially important, and closely associated with social participation. Social inequality and social exclusion represents a challenge to societies and welfare states as they may lead to marginalisation of some groups and prevent parts of the population from having the possibility to fully utilise their human resources. Segregation due to inequality may represent a weakening of the social cohesion and trust often highlighted as key elements of the success of the Nordic welfare model.

This may have further consequences, both in respect of financing, expenditure and the legitimacy of the welfare state. Combating poverty will of course also affect the income side of the welfare states, as participation in the labour market is the main road to self-sufficiency for most people. A consequence of poverty and social exclusion may also be an increased need for social benefits. Preventing social exclusion and poverty is a decommodifying task, perhaps of special importance in the Nordic welfare state model (Esping-Andersen 1990). Furthermore, recent analyses have shown that large economic inequalities may have a negative effect on the economic development and growth of a country (Piketty 1990). Individuals in the lower parts of the income distribution are prevented from realising their human capital potential, which is bad for the whole economy (OECD 2015).

The Nordic model's ability to combine both equality and economic growth is one of the models' main successes and strengths. By reducing social inequalities and ensuring that a majority of the population have been able to increase their living standards during the past 50 to 60 years, the Nordic welfare states have remained relevant and legitimate. Globalisation, financial crisis, aging population and increased migration may challenge the Nordic welfare state's ability to provide equality in the future unless it adapts to meet these challenges. Indicators on inequality are therefore important when challenges to the welfare states are discussed. In this report, we will use the same indicators as in previous

reports (Normann, Rønning and Nørgaard 2013 and 2009). These indicators are developed and published by Eurostat, based on data from the EU-SILC. In this chapter, we present indicators for the period 2004/2009 to 2015. To describe effects of immigration, we will also use additional breakdowns by country of birth.

At-risk-of poverty or social exclusion

“You need some inequality to grow... but extreme inequality is not only useless but can be harmful to growth because it reduces mobility and can lead to political capture of our democratic institutions”.

Thomas Piketty 2014

The financial crisis of 2008 not only represented a challenge to financial markets and macro-economic developments, it also embodied the danger of increasing poverty and social exclusion because of unemployment and welfare cuts following public deficit and austerity measures. To counter the crisis, the EU developed a long-term strategy devised to ensure sustainable economic development - the "Europe 2020" strategy.

Combating poverty and social exclusion is a vital part of this strategy, and indicators on poverty and social exclusion have gained significance as measurements of successful developments in the European welfare states.

“One of the headline targets in the Europe 2020 Strategy for Jobs and Growth is promoting social inclusion, in particular through the reduction of poverty, by aiming to reduce the number of people at risk of poverty and excluded from full participation in work and society”.

José Manuel Barroso 2010¹

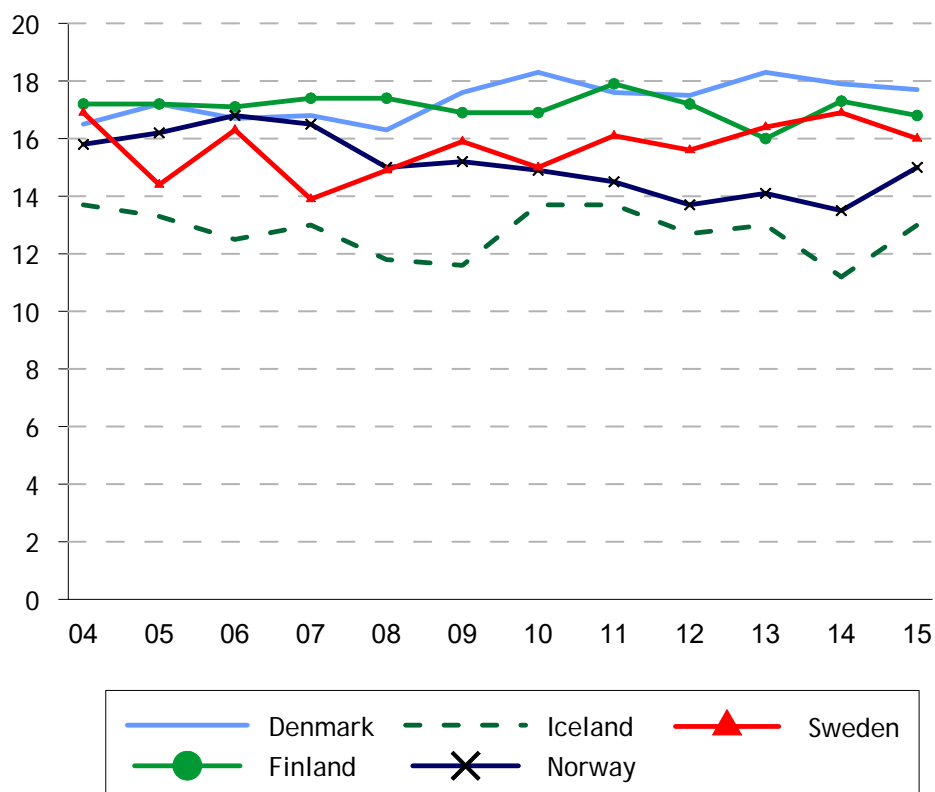
To monitor developments within the EU 2020 Strategy, Eurostat developed and published a headline indicator on ‘at-risk-of poverty or social exclusion’ (AROPE). This indicator provides additional information to other indicators discussed in this chapter, as it combines individuals’ at-risk-of poverty, the number of individuals living in household with very low work intensity, and individuals living in severe material deprivation (see box). In Europe, the prevalence of at-risk-of poverty and social exclusion in 2015 ranges from 42 per cent in FYR Macedonia to 13 per cent in Iceland (Appendix Table A5.1). The five Nordic countries are among the seven European countries with the lowest prevalence rates in 2015. In addition to the Nordic countries, six countries have prevalence rates below 20 per cent (Czech Republic, Netherlands, France, Austria, Slovakia, Luxembourg and Slovenia). The overall ranking of European countries, according the EU2020 headline indicator prevalence rates, remained quite stable during our observation period from 2004 to 2015, and in all years all five Nordic countries are among the “top ten” in Europe. Iceland has the lowest prevalence rate in all years. That is not to say that the situation in the Nordic countries has remained unchanged during this 11-year period (Figure 5.1) from 2004 to 2015, although changes are moderate.

¹ p3 in Atkinson and Marlier 2010.

AROPE

The Europe 2020 strategy promotes social inclusion, in particular through the reduction of poverty, by aiming to lift at least 20 million people out of the risk of poverty and exclusion. The AROPE indicator summarises the number of people who are either at risk-of-poverty and/or materially deprived and/or living in households with very low work intensity. Interactions between the indicators are excluded. At risk-of-poverty are persons with an equivalised disposable income below the risk-of-poverty threshold, which is set at 60 % of the national median equivalised disposable income (after social transfers). The collection "material deprivation" covers indicators relating to economic strain, durables, housing and the environment of the dwelling. Severely materially deprived persons have living conditions severely constrained by a lack of resources, they experience at least 4 out of 9 following deprivations items: cannot afford i) to pay rent or utility bills, ii) keep home adequately warm, iii) face unexpected expenses, iv) eat meat, fish or a protein equivalent every second day, v) a week's holiday away from home, vi) a car, vii) a washing machine, viii) a colour TV, or ix) a telephone. People living in households with very low work intensity are people aged 0 to 59 living in households where the adults work less than 20% of their total work potential during the past year.

Figure 5.1 People at-risk-of poverty or social exclusion (AROPE)¹, Nordic countries, per cent of population, 2004-15



1 Definition according to footnote 1

Source: Eurostat (<http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/data/database>), extracted on 25.01.17

In the Nordic countries, the main driver behind AROPE is the at-risk-of poverty rate, which we will return to later in this chapter. A closer look at intersections between components of this indicator reveals that those at risk of poverty, without being materially deprived and not living in a household with low work intensity, constitute the overall majority of Nordic persons at risk-of-poverty or social exclusion.

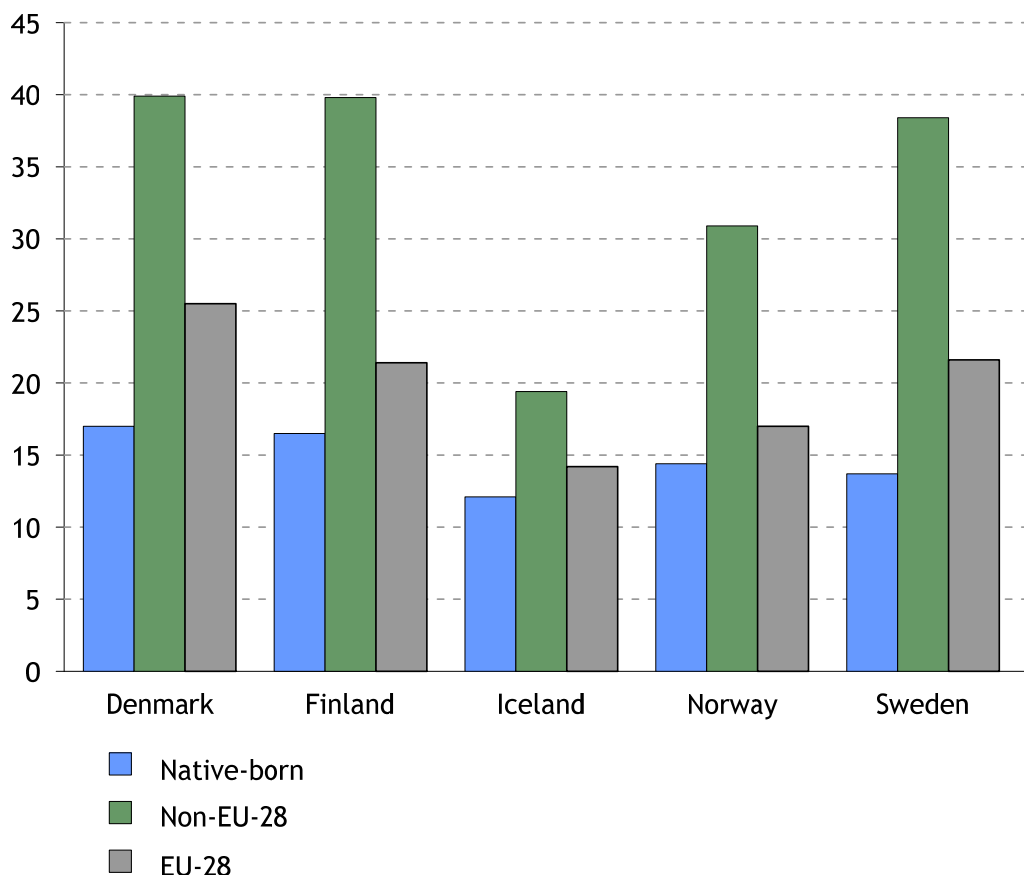
At an overall level, there are few findings indicating that immigration may have affected the headline indicator. But still, as indicated by Figure 5.2, there are some substantial differences within the Nordic populations when rates are presented by country of birth. For this indicator, we only use a broad classification of country of birth (see textbox). In all countries, the rates are higher among foreign-born, and particularly among non-EU born. In Denmark, Finland and Sweden, the rate in this group is close to 40 per cent, 2.3 to 2.8 times higher than among native-born. In Norway, the rate among non-EU born 31 per cent, more than 2.1 times higher than among native-born. The difference between native-born and foreign-born is smallest in Iceland, where 19 per cent of those born outside EU are at risk of poverty or social exclusion, compared to 14 per cent among native-born. We may conclude that there are differences in AROPE rates within the Nordic countries based on country of birth, and that immigrants are more exposed.

Country of birth

The broad classification used by Eurostat separates the population in three groups: “Native born”, “born in an EU-28 country” (not in reporting country) and “born in a non-EU-28 country”. This classification is not ideal for our purpose, as it is mostly developed for EU policy purposes; it is the only classification used for this data, and it is still useful as it portrays important differences within the respective countries’ populations

From 2009 to 2012, the relative difference between native and non-EU-28 born increased in Iceland, before it again was reduced. In the other Nordic countries, the differences vary a bit from year to another, without any clear trend (Appendix Table A5.2). If this difference exceeds what is deemed as “acceptable” or increases over time, this may add to the challenge for Nordic equality.

Figure 5.2 People at-risk-of poverty or social exclusion¹, Nordic countries, per cent of population 18 years or over, 2015



1 Definition according to footnote 1

Source: Eurostat (<http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/data/database>), extracted on 25.01.17

Income and income distribution

The populations' ability to provide for themselves, mainly by income from work, is important for the welfare states to be sustainable. Income inequality, and poverty, are important indicators when describing challenges to the welfare states. Although we want to avoid a normative stand on the level of acceptable inequalities, our assumption is that large income inequalities may lead to the exclusion of some groups from access to vital material and social goods. Additionally, there is the obvious goal of avoiding having parts of the population living in severe poverty.

Poverty relief and prevention of poverty is a recurring discussion, although the definition of poverty can be discussed. Eurostat has chosen a definition of "At-risk-of-poverty" measured as the percentage of persons living in equivalised households with less than 60 per cent of the national median income.² This is in line with the most common approach to poverty as a relative phenomenon (see for example Townsend 1979, Sen

² At-risk-of poverty, i.e. a risk of becoming poor, is defined as belonging to a household with less than 60 per cent of the national median equivalent disposable income. Disposable income is income after tax. Incomes are summed up for each household and weighted according to an equivalent weight in order to make allowance for economies of scale. The first adult is assigned the weight 1, other adults are assigned the weight 0.5 and children are assigned the weight 0.3.

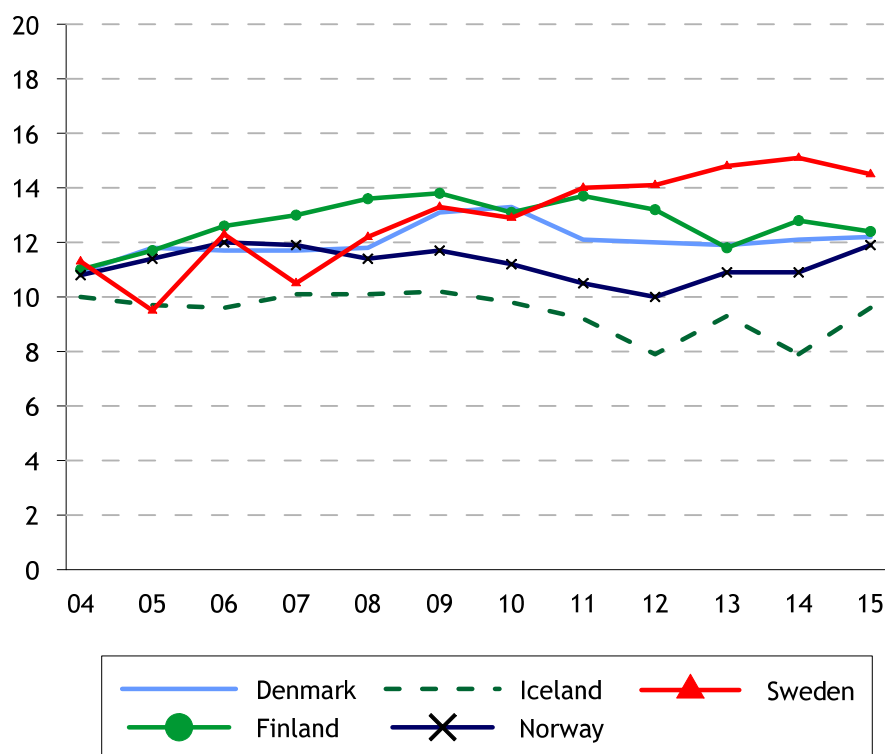
1992). Cross-country comparisons of at-risk-of poverty rates should therefore be interpreted with care, as the indicator measures the respective national income distributions.

At-risk-of poverty rates

The at-risk-of poverty (ARP) rates in the Nordic countries range from 10 per cent to 15 per cent in 2015, and are among the ten lowest rates in Europe. Although the ranking of the European countries varies over time, it is fair to say that the Nordic countries have stable and low at-risk-of poverty rates compared to most other European countries (Appendix Table A5.3). From ARP rates, we can also conclude that these are the major factors influencing the headline indicator as mentioned above.

Nevertheless, during recent years, there have been some changes in the ARP-rates in the Nordic countries (Figure 5.3). Most prominent are perhaps the changes in Sweden and Iceland, although they are in opposite directions. In Iceland, there was a reduction in ARP rates after 2009, but also more volatile changes. In Sweden, ARP rates have increased from 2008 on, following a period of annual changes. Sweden has the highest ARP rate among the Nordic countries in 2015, at 15 per cent. The years from 2004 to 2009 showed a period of increasing ARP-rates in Finland, followed by a small reduction after 2011. This has brought the ARP rate in Finland close to rates in Denmark and Norway (12 per cent) in 2015. In Denmark, there was a temporary increase following the financial crisis, but very stable rates from 2011. In Norway, rates fell a bit following the crisis, but rates have stayed within the 10-12 per cent range during the whole period.

Figure 5.3 People at-risk-of poverty¹, Nordic countries, per cent of population 2004-15



1 Cut-off point: 60% of median equivalised income after social transfers

Source: Eurostat (<http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/data/database>), extracted on 31.01.17

Has immigration affected ARP rates in the Nordic countries, and are foreign-born persons more exposed than native-born persons? Breakdowns by country of birth may provide some insights into this. As in the rest of this report, we present figures based on country of birth categorised into regions, and here for the population aged 18 years or more.

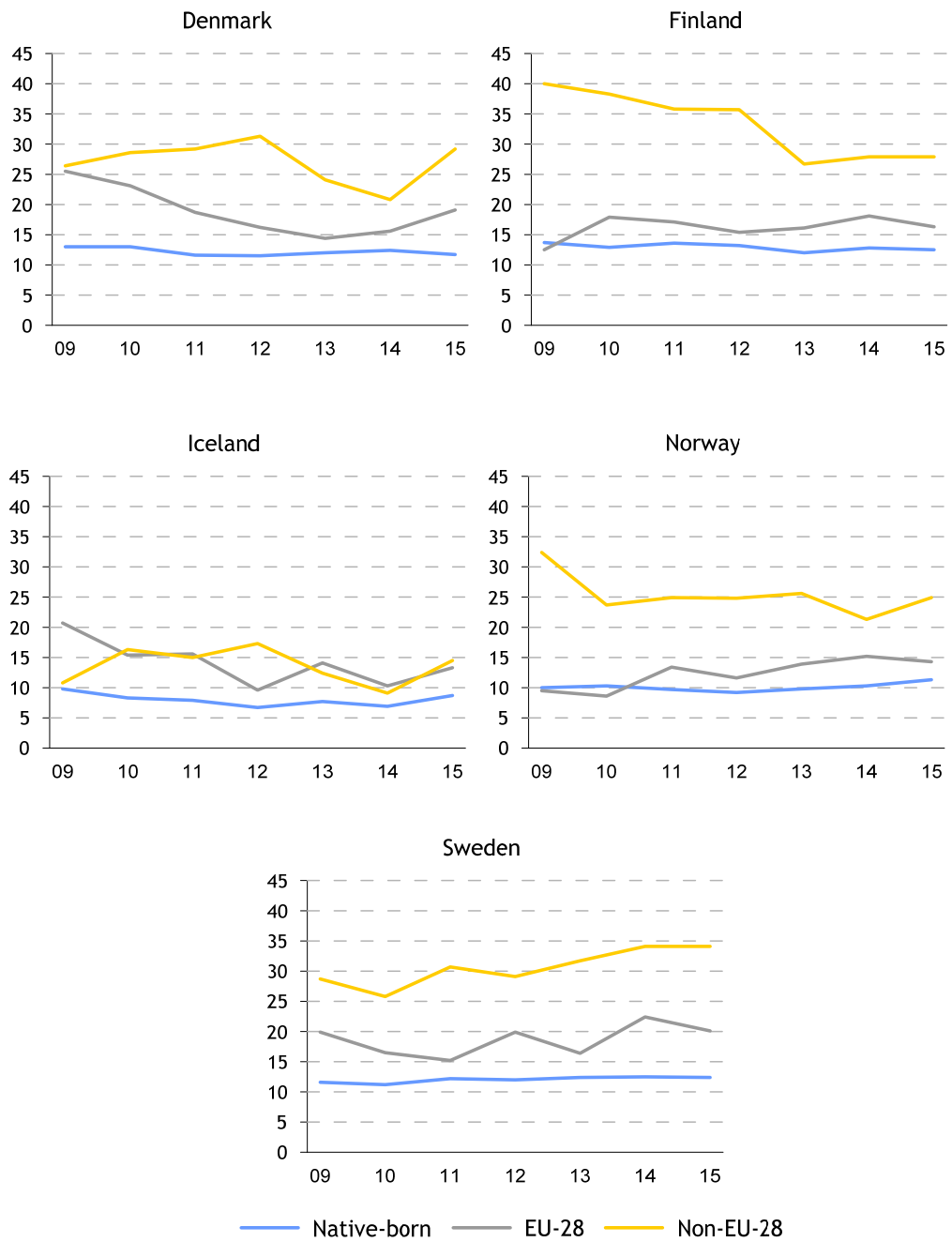
In all but two European countries, the ARP rate for persons born outside the EU is higher than the rate for native-born persons. Upon comparison, the ARP rate for those born outside the EU is 4.9 times higher than for native-born in Luxembourg. The corresponding figure in Belgium is 3.8, in France 2.4 and in Germany 1.6. Also, in most countries, the ARP rate for persons born in another EU country is higher than the rate for native-born persons. For example, in Austria, the ARP rate for persons born in another EU country is 2.7 times higher than for native-born. In some countries though, there is hardly any difference in ARP rates for these two groups, and in some, the rate is even lower for persons born in another EU country than native-born persons. One example is Germany, where the ARP rate for persons born in another EU country is 0.9 times lower than for native-born.

In all the Nordic countries, the ARP-rate is higher for foreign-born persons than for native-born persons, and the rates for those born outside EU are especially high (Figure 5.4). As these indicators are based on sample surveys with limited number of observations for foreign-born persons, changes from one year to another should be interpreted with caution. The clearest trend seems to be in Finland, where the difference between non-EU born persons and native-born persons has decreased. In Denmark, there is evidence of a similar trend for EU and native-born persons.

In 2015, the relative difference between ARP rates for native-born persons and those born outside the EU was highest in Sweden, followed by Denmark.³ The differences were equal in Denmark and Norway, while it was smallest in Iceland. An interpretation of this may be that challenges connected to ARP rates and immigration are most visible in Sweden. As already mentioned, the Swedish ARP rates have also increased during the later years.

³ To calculate relative difference, we used the ARP rate for non-EU born divided by the ARP rate for native born. These are the differences in 2015: Sweden 2.8 - Denmark 2.5 - Finland 2.2 - Norway 2.2 - Iceland 1.7.

Figure 5.4 People at-risk-of poverty¹, by country of birth, Nordic countries, per cent of population, 2009-15



1 Cut-off point: 60% of median equivalised income after social transfers

Source: Eurostat (<http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/data/database>), extracted on 31.01.17

For the Nordic countries, it is also possible to calculate ARP rates from register data, allowing for more detailed breakdowns by country of birth. This adds information on different groups of immigrants and how the composition of the immigrant populations may influence the overall rates (Table 5.1).⁴

According to the register data, approximately three out of ten among the foreign-born persons are below the threshold in all Nordic countries (Table 5.1)⁵, well above the ARP rates for native-born persons which varies from 8 per cent in Norway to 13 per cent in Sweden. This strengthens the findings from Figure 5.4, and it is even more apparent that the main factor contributing to these high rates are the high rates for those born in Asia, Africa etc. In all Nordic countries, close to four out of ten in this group fall below the ARP threshold. As this is the largest immigrant group in all Nordic countries except in Iceland (see Chapter 2), they have a large influence on the overall ARP rate for foreign-born persons.

The second group where ARP rates are quite high in all countries, is foreign-born persons from 'rest of Europe' (meaning European countries outside the EU/EEA area). One out of four in this group falls below ARP rates. In Norway and partially in Sweden, this group makes up a relatively small share of immigrants, and their influence on overall rates is therefore limited. In Denmark, they amount to 18 per cent of immigrants, 25 per cent in Finland, and thus, their influence on the ARP rate for foreign-born persons increases.

Immigrants from EU/EEA is a relative large group, from 20 per cent of all immigrants in Sweden, 25 and 26 per cent in Finland and Denmark, to 35 per cent in Norway. Monitoring ARP rates in this group is therefore important. In Finland, there is hardly any difference in the ARP rate for this group and native-born persons, while in Sweden, Norway and Denmark, rates are 23, 27 and 29 per cent, making ARP a present problem for this group as well.

In Finland, the ARP rate for those born in another Nordic country is also equal to the rate among Finnish born persons. In Norway, Nordic born immigrants are a bit more exposed to ARP than native-born, but this difference is even more noticeable in Denmark and Sweden, where rates are more than ten percentage points higher than for native-born.

ARP rates for immigrants from North America, Australia and New Zealand also vary between the Nordic countries, but this group of immigrants is quite few in numbers, and their effects on overall rates are therefore low.

Different degree of exposure for different groups of immigrants in the Nordic countries may be explained by differences in immigration history and different national policies which we will not try to unveil here. The important message from the figures on ARP rates is that the largest immigrant groups in all countries are more at risk of poverty than native-born persons, especially those from Asia, Africa, etc. For welfare states, integrating these immigrants into education and labour markets, enabling them to be self-supported and preventing poverty and social exclusion among large groups of the population are important future challenges.

⁴ Rates calculated from register data and rates calculated from a survey such as the EU-SILC will not necessarily be identical, although they should correspond. Differences may occur due to sampling and survey errors, differences in classifications and time of data collection. We must also observe that EU-SILC data from 2015 refer to incomes from 2014, so register data with 2015 incomes should be compared to the 2016 EU-SILC wave. Rates for Iceland could not be calculated, so Iceland will not be mentioned in this part of the chapter.

⁵ For Iceland, these figures could not be calculated at this level of detail. In this context, "all countries" then refers to Denmark, Finland, Norway and Sweden.

Table 5.1 People at-risk-of poverty¹, by country of birth, Nordic countries, per cent of population, 2015²

	Denmark	Finland	Norway	Sweden
National-born	11.0	11.7	7.8	13.0
Foreign born, total	31.9	28.5	29.0	31.4
Nordic Countries	23.3	11.8	13.2	23.5
EU28/EEA	29.4	11.9	27.0	23.0
Rest of Europe	25.5	25.1	24.3	24.4
North America, Australia, New Zealand	27.1	25.1	16.2	18.7
Asia w/Turkey, Africa, South and Central America	38.2	36.5	36.8	39.4
Unknown	31.9	-	-	46.2
Total	13.4	12.7	10.9	15.8

1 60% of median equivalised income, EU-scale

2 Iceland, no data

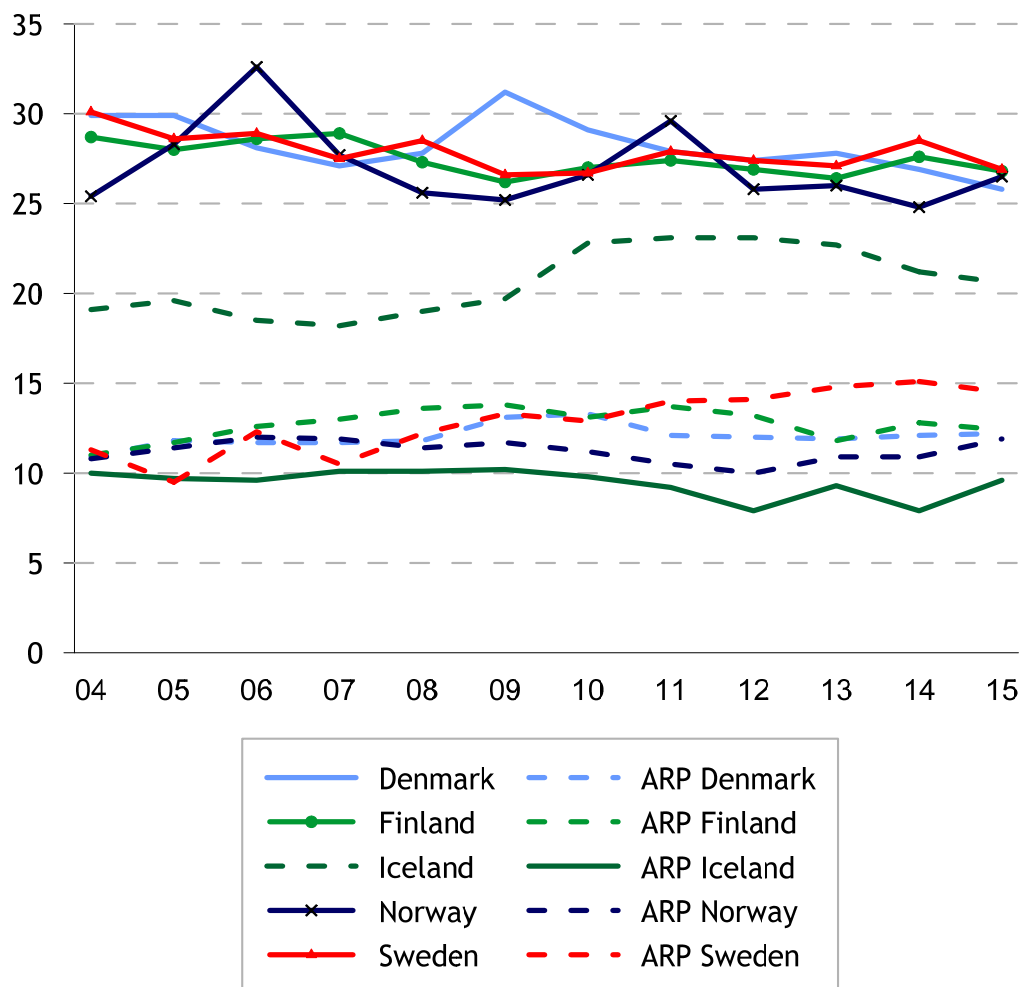
Source: National register data. Estimates provided by respective NSIs

Re-distributional effect from social transfers

ARP rates are calculated by using disposable income, which also includes cash social transfers. Regarding challenges to welfare states, it is interesting to analyse both the size of social transfers and their effect by how they influence inequalities as measured by ARP. The ARP indicator calculated on income before social transfers illustrates part of the distributional effects from social transfers in welfare states.

ARP rates based on income before social transfers paints a different picture of the Nordic countries compared to other European countries than the ARP rates including such transfers does. The relative position is less favourable for the Nordic countries, as ARP rates before social transfers were around 26 per cent in 2015. These were in the mid-range of European rates. Iceland's rate is lower, 21 per cent (Appendix Table A5.5). Figure 5.5 shows Nordic ARP rates before social transfers, compared to the overall ARP rate (dotted lines), and this clearly illustrates that there was a significant reduction in ARP rates due to cash social transfers. The value of in-kind services such as education, child care or health services is not included, even though they make up a vital part of social expenditures in Nordic countries.

Figure 5.5 People at-risk-of poverty¹, before and after social transfers, Nordic countries, per cent of population, 2004-15



¹ Cut-off point: 60% of median equivalised income after social transfers

Source: Eurostat (<http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/data/database>), extracted on 31.01.17

The ARP rate before social transfers does not necessarily follow the development in total ARP rates. In both Denmark and Norway, there are more visible annual changes in the ARP rate before social transfers, and in Iceland, the ARP rate before social transfers increased from 2009 to 2013, while the total ARP rate had almost the opposite development.

The relevance of comparing these two rates is the need for social transfers to keep overall ARP rates at whatever is deemed as an acceptable level. If ARP rates before social transfers increase, this may represent financial pressure on welfare states. This may be especially relevant for the Nordic countries, where the reduction following social transfers is high compared to other European countries.⁶

There is no clear evidence of increasing ARP rates before social transfers in the Nordic countries from 2007 to 2015. Although there are some changes from one year to another, in four of the Nordic countries ARP rates before social transfers are lower at the end than in the earlier years of the period from 2004 to 2015. The exception is Iceland, where the financial crises seems to, at least for a period, have increased the ARP rate before social transfers.

It is also worth noticing that in Sweden, the percentage reduction in ARP rates following social transfers has been falling since 2007, and this is part of the explanation as to why ARP rates have increased.

Unfortunately, we do not have figures for ARP rates before social transfers by country of birth. Consequently, we cannot say how social transfers affect ARP rates for immigrants. As we have seen, ARP rates (after social transfers) are higher for foreign-born persons, especially for those born in Asia, Africa etc. The question remains whether social transfers have the same redistributive effects for the foreign-born population as for the total population. Clearly, this is a challenge for the Nordic welfare states.

In-work poverty rates

The main key to elude poverty and achieve reasonable standards of living is employment, as earnings from labour is the main source of income for most people. One of the main premises in this report is that high labour market participation is the answer to many of the challenges faced by the Nordic welfare states. Enabling and encouraging employment is also a focal point of policies for the integration of immigrants.

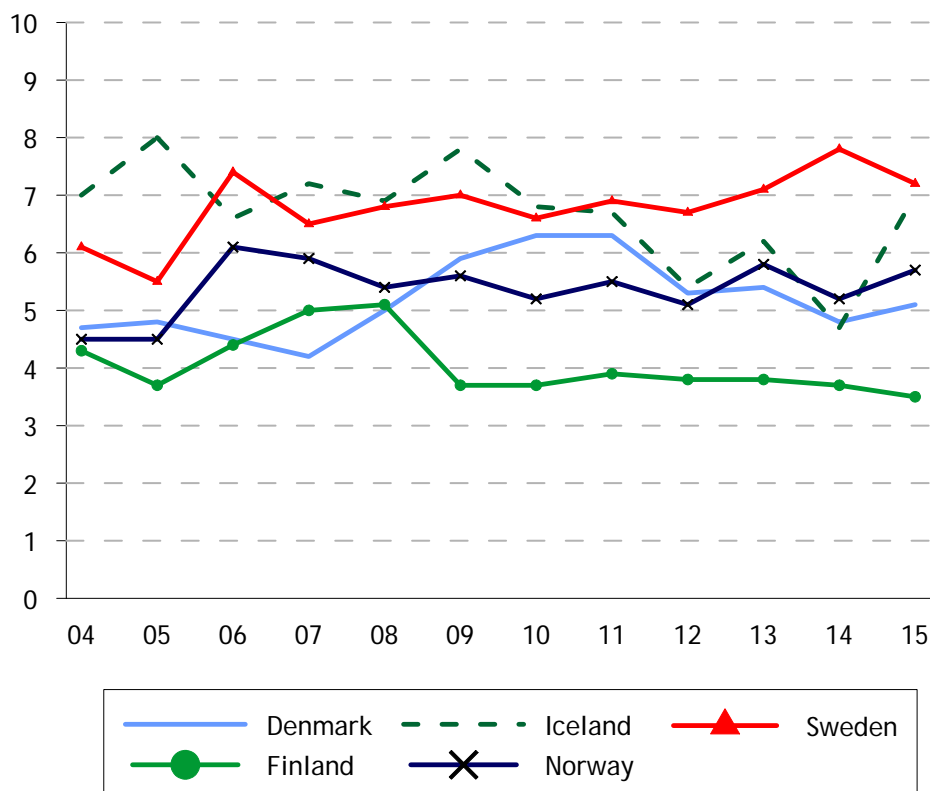
If employment is to meet all these aims, the earnings from work should be sufficient to achieve reasonable standards of living, creating tax payers independent from social transfers. In this context, the in-work at-risk-of poverty rate (in-work ARP) measuring the share of employed persons without sufficient earnings to rise above the at-risk-of poverty threshold, is relevant. If this rate increases, it may weaken the otherwise positive effect of employment, and if immigrants are recruited into a very low-wage part of the labour market, is integration a success?

In 2015, the total prevalence of in-work ARP in the Nordic countries ranged from 4 per cent in Finland to 7 per cent in Sweden (Figure 5.6). The Finnish rate was the lowest in Europe in 2015, and rates in the other Nordic countries were also among the lowest in Europe (Appendix Table A5.6). From 2007 to 2015, these shares were quite stable in the Nordic countries, although the rate in Iceland fluctuated from one year to another, and we observe what might have been a temporary increase in Denmark from 2009.⁷

⁶ To compare the reduction in ARP rates following social transfers, one may use absolute figures by comparing reduction in percentage points, or one may use relative figures by comparing per cent reduction in rates. These two methods may yield different results, depending on the level of ARP rates before social transfers. Nevertheless, both methods indicate that the reduction in ARP rates following social transfers in the Nordic countries is high compared to other European countries.

⁷ We must stress that this indicator is based on sample surveys, and since the samples are of limited size, there are some uncertainties.

Figure 5.6 In-work at-risk-of-poverty rate¹ for employed persons 18-64 years, per cent, 2004-15



1 Cut-off point: 60% of median equivalised income after social transfers

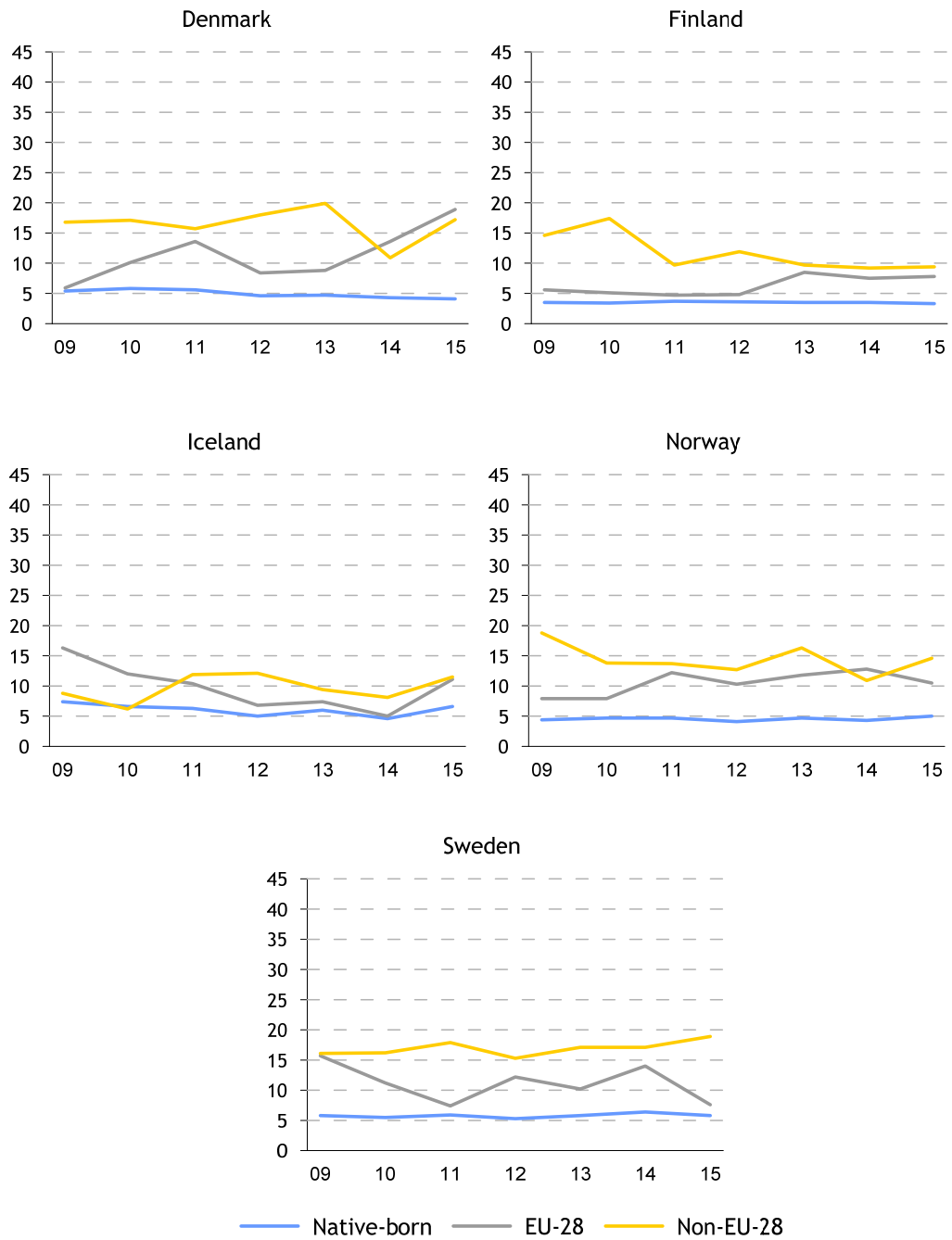
Source: Eurostat (<http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/data/database>), extracted on 31.01.17

Looking at this indicator by country of birth, there are two noticeable findings in the Nordic countries. Firstly, the in-work ARP rate among native-born persons is quite stable over time. Secondly, rates are higher among foreign-born persons than among native-born persons.⁸ Interestingly, we can also observe that the rates for those born in an EU country and those born outside the EU are quite equal in all countries except Sweden. Although there are changes from one year to another, and annual changes might not be significant, the rates for the two groups of foreign-born were more equal in 2015 than they were in 2009 in all countries but Sweden, where the opposite seems to be the situation.

As the overall rate is quite stable, and development within the foreign-born populations is unclear, no firm conclusions will be drawn, except that the challenge of reducing in-work ARP rates among immigrants is present in all countries. If labour market participation is to be an effective instrument in combating poverty, one should not only focus on the participation rates, but also on the wage level.

⁸ Rates for groups by country of birth are only published from 2009.

Figure 5.7 In-work at-risk-of-poverty rate¹ for employed persons 18-64 years, by country of birth, per cent 2009-15



1 Cut-off point: 60% of median equivalised income after social transfers

Source: Eurostat (<http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/data/database>), extracted on 31.01.17

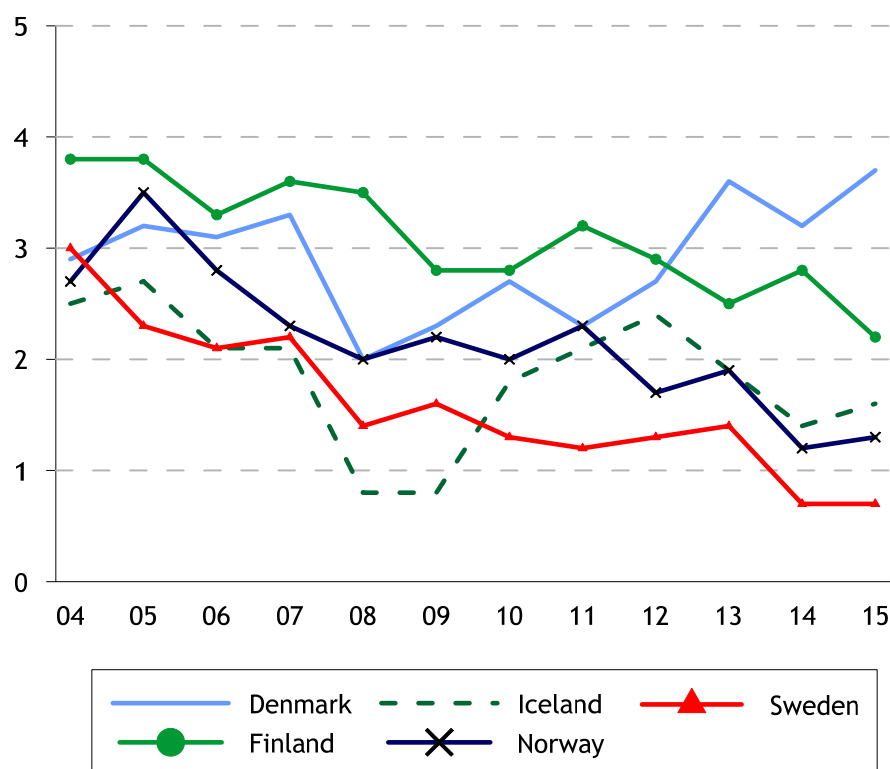
Financial problems and material deprivation

We have established the fact that immigrants have a higher risk of falling under the ARP threshold, and that the prevalence of at-risk-of poverty and social exclusion is higher for immigrants than native-born. In addition to the negative effects of these inequalities already mentioned, this may also lead to more acute deprivation, which is a challenge to the efficiency and legitimacy of the Nordic models built on equality and participation.

Severe material deprivation is a rare phenomenon in the Nordic countries.⁹ The prevalence does not exceed 4 per cent in any Nordic country in any year, and only three other European countries were below this level in 2015. There have only been minor changes in these prevalence rates in the Nordic countries during the last few years (Figure 5.8).

For material deprivation, we also have rates for persons by country of birth (Appendix Table A5.7). Breakdowns like this, based on sample surveys, are more subject to annual changes and may not always be statistically significant. The main finding from breakdowns by country of birth, is that persons born in a non-EU-28 country are more exposed to severe material deprivation than others, but with some important nuances. In Iceland, the difference between persons based on country of birth has almost disappeared during the last two years. Differences have also been largely reduced in Sweden and Norway, so the most visible differences are in Denmark and Finland.

Figure 5.8 Severe material deprivation rate, per cent of total population 2004-15



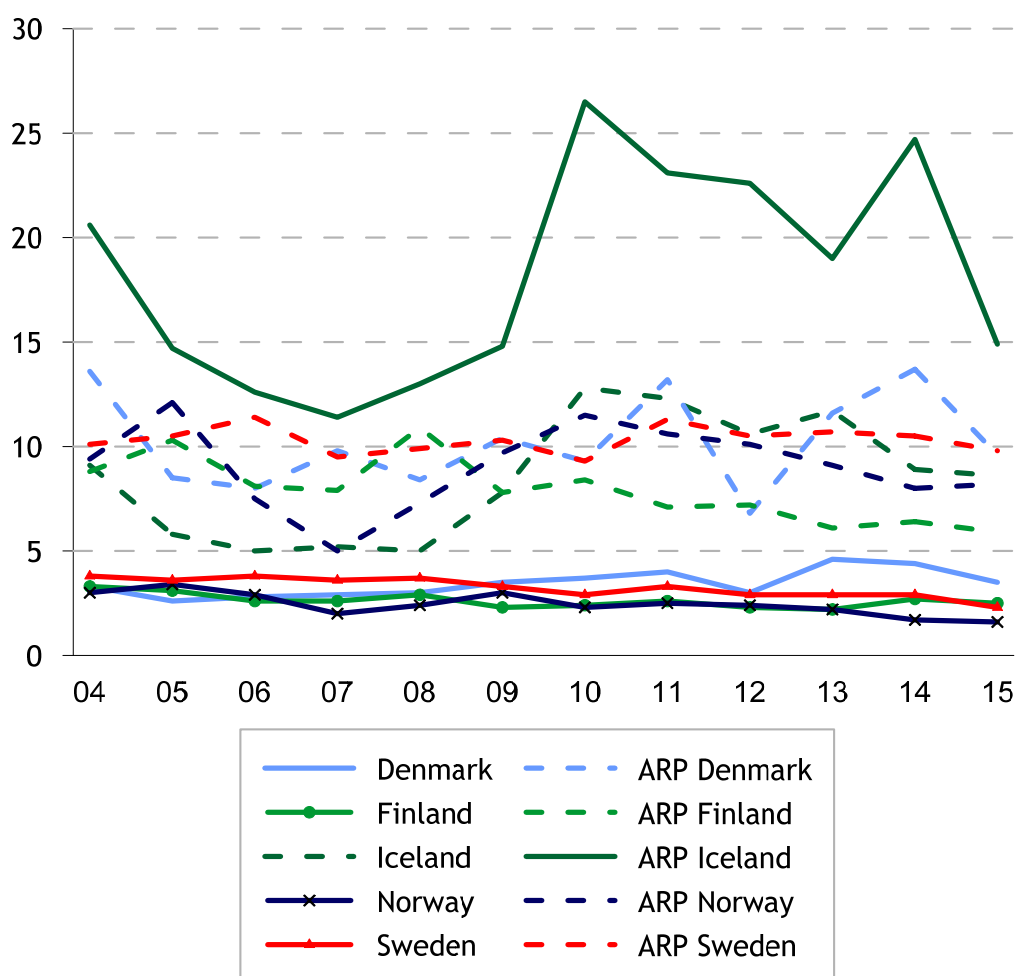
Source: Eurostat (<http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/data/database>), extracted on 31.01.17

⁹ Severely materially deprived persons have living conditions severely constrained by a lack of resources, they experience at least 4 out of 9 following deprivations items: cannot afford i) to pay rent or utility bills, ii) keep home adequately warm, iii) face unexpected expenses, iv) eat meat, fish or a protein equivalent every second day, v) a week's holiday away from home, vi) a car, vii) a washing machine, viii) a color TV, or ix) a telephone.

The percentage of households who experience problems with making ends meet, gives additional information to figures based only on income. Households where their disposable income is not sufficient to meet their everyday needs, might be more in need of support from the welfare state and might have problems reaching an acceptable level of living. As these rates are on household level only, we are unfortunately not able to provide breakdowns by country of birth.

There are few signs of increasing problems regarding the households' ability to make ends meet in the Nordic countries on an overall level, except an increase in this after the financial crisis in Iceland. It may also be surprising that prevalence of this problem is most common in Iceland, where at-risk-of poverty and social exclusion, and at-risk-of poverty rates are lower than in the rest of the Nordic countries. Still, few other European countries have the same low level of problems as the Nordics. The dotted lines indicate the percentage of households with income below 60 per cent of the median equivalised income (at-risk-of poverty). As we have seen, immigrants are over-represented in this group. Among those below the ARP threshold, there are larger shares struggling to make ends meet. In Iceland, we observe the same increase following the financial crisis, while the long-term trend in the other countries is more stable.

Figure 5.9 Households making ends meet with great difficulty, total and below 60% of median equivalised income, per cent 2004-15



Source: Eurostat (<http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/data/database>), extracted on 31.01.17

Nordic equality and immigration

By using indicators from Eurostat, based on the EU-SILC data, we may still regard the Nordic welfare models as successful in terms of providing equality and preventing poverty related strains for large parts of the population, even in times of high immigration. This is not to say that there are no challenges, and immigrants are more exposed to these kinds of problems than the native-born populations.

This is visible both by using the AROPE indicator and the at-risk-of poverty rates, where we especially notice high rates among those born outside the EU. The same is noticed for at-risk-of poverty (ARP) rates, where more detailed national register data also indicates that this problem overall is most present for those born in Asia, Africa etc. This is important, since this immigrant group is relatively large in all countries.

We are not able to say how social transfers affect ARP rates for immigrants, but the Nordic countries are among the European countries where the reduction in ARP rates following social transfers is most visible. There is clearly quite a strong distributional effect in the Nordic countries, and as we know ARP rates to be high among immigrants, this indicates the importance of the welfare state preventing economic and social exclusion for this group.

The labour market also plays an important role in preventing economic and social exclusion, and one of the premises in this report is that high labour market participation is an important solution to future challenges. Integrating immigrants into the labour force is important. But labour market integration is most efficient if earnings are sufficient to rise above the at-risk-of poverty threshold. In-work ARP rates indicate that immigrants more often than others do not reach this level of income, even if they are employed.

Most of these characteristics are common in the Nordic countries, but Iceland seems to be the country least affected by differences by country of birth. In Sweden, we see signs of rising ARP rates, partly due to less redistribution by social transfers, partly to increasing ARP rates among immigrants.

The common challenge to Nordic welfare states is keeping the prevalence of overall poverty-related problems at the present low European level, but still being able to reduce these kinds of problems among immigrants, especially those from outside the EU-area. If this is not achieved, and immigration stays at the present level, this may represent a strain on the social cohesion and equality central to the Nordic model because large groups of the population are in danger of economic and social marginalisation.

Chapter 6

Labour market participation

Population growth is certainly not a new concern:

“I Danmark, Norge og Sverige udgør indvandrere fra ikke-vestlige lande en stigende del af befolkningen. Samtidig er beskæftigelsen for disse personer i alle tre lande betydeligt lavere end blandt indlandsfødte”

Bjerre, Mortensen and Drescher 2016:1

“ [...] visar på en av de största utmaningarna när det gäller invandringen och dess effekter på den offentliga sektorn. Den låga sysselsättningen ger låga inkomster och låga skatteintäkter”

SOU2015/95:59

“Det samlede bildet vi har presentert i denne artikkelen, kan indikere at vi ikke har lykkes godt nok med å integrere flyktninger og asylsøkere i det norske arbeidsmarkedet”

Bratsberg, Raaum and Røed 2016:204

A main characteristic of the Nordic welfare states is high employment rates, particularly the increasing participation of women in the labour market during the last 30-40 years. Facilitating high employment rates, both for men and women, is a high priority in all Nordic countries. In recent decades, the inclusion of persons with impaired health and reduced functional abilities has also been a priority. In addition, integrating immigrants has become one of the major challenges in Nordic countries. As immigration has increased, this challenge and its effect on both the income and expenses in welfare states have reached the forefront of public debate.

Being employed and earning a reasonable income are important for economic independence and the welfare of the individual. Although the Nordic welfare states have relatively generous and universal systems that safeguard the income safety of individuals, the income from such systems cannot fully replace salaries or business income. Employment is therefore primarily an individual benefit.

High employment rates also increase the Gross Domestic Product (GDP), and enable financing of common benefits through taxes and social contributions, such as social protection schemes and benefits. Self-supported individuals also ease the financial pressure on public welfare schemes and benefits.

The exclusion or marginalisation of individuals from the labour market, are therefore important challenges for welfare states. This is especially the case in a situation where demographic change means ageing populations (see Chapter 2) more dependent on income from pensions and in more need of health and care services. To the extent that these are publicly funded services, the pressures on public finance will increase. In turn, this will impose a higher demand on hours worked in the economy. On the other hand, with the successful integration of groups with weak or no attachment to the labour market, both GDP and living standards will increase, as well as the tax-base and the financial sustainability of welfare states.

In this context, we discuss participation in the labour market, both in total and among immigrants, by using a set of different indicators. Levels of employment and unemployment provide an overall picture of the situation in the labour market. To gain more insight into underlying challenges, we use indicators on marginalisation, disability and exclusion from the labour market, also describing disability as a cause of lacking labour market participation. Indicators on part-time work illustrate the challenge of the underutilisation of available human resources, which in some cases may be underemployment.

To a large extent, we rely on official statistics from the Labour Force Survey (LFS) published by Eurostat. In addition, we use indicators developed from the EU-SILC data, which are now updated with data until 2015 (Normann, Rønning and Nørgaard 2009 and 2013).

Issues like matching of education, skills and occupation are relevant challenges for the integration of immigrants into the labour market. The same goes for occupational structure, as pointed out by Eurostat:

“In terms of occupational structure, the ‘native born with native background’ and the ‘second generation immigrants’ showed a more similar pattern, while the comparison with ‘first generation immigrants’ was more divergent”

Eurostat 2017b:80

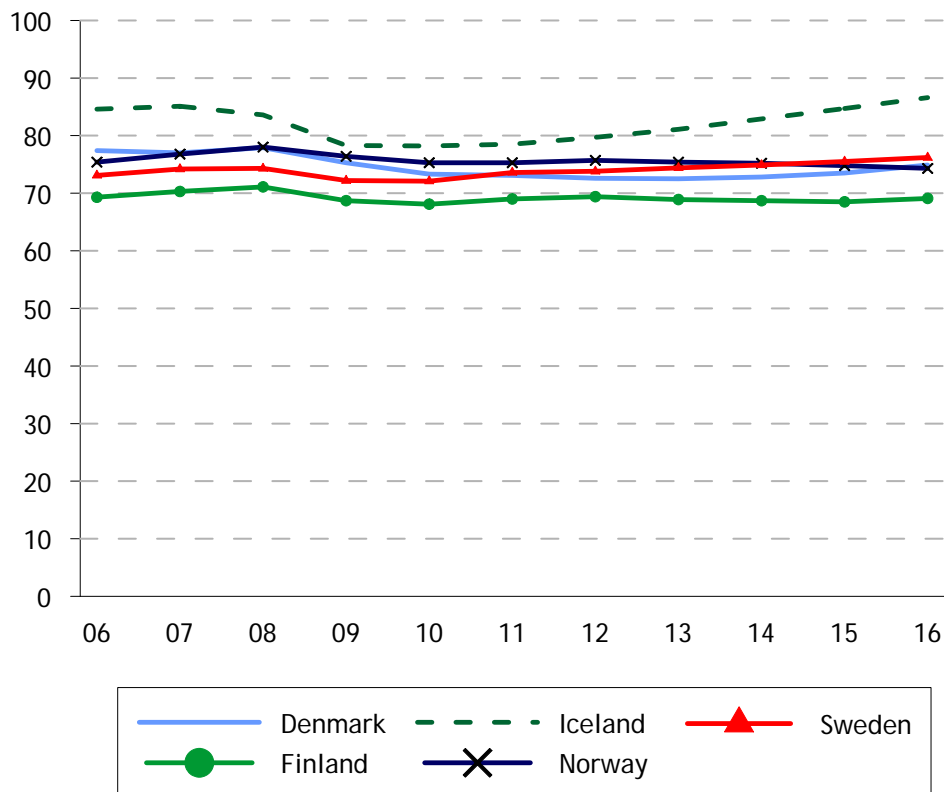
These kinds of challenges will not be further discussed in this report, where we mainly focus on participation in the labour market.

Employment

Employment rates depend on economic cycles. From time series covering 2006 to 2015, we can see the effects of the international financial crisis, which started in the autumn of 2008.¹ The effect of this crisis on employment in Europe differs from country to country, and our aim is to see how employment in the Nordic countries has developed, and to what extent this development may be linked to immigration.

¹ The connections between these terms: Unemployed + Employed = The Labour Force. The Labour Force + Those not in the Labour Force = The Population. In this chapter, the percentage of employed persons is given as a percentage of the population.

Figure 6.1 Employment 15-64 years, Nordic countries, per cent, 2006-16



Source: Eurostat (Labour Force Survey). Extracted on 15.05.2017

Throughout the whole period from 2006 to 2016, Iceland had the highest employment rates among the Nordic countries, and also highest in Europe (see Figure 6.1 and Appendix Table A6.1). After a decline in rates starting with the financial crisis in 2008, the employment rates in Iceland recovered quickly and passed the pre-crisis level again in 2015. In the other Nordic countries, the financial crisis also had an effect on employment rates, but not to the same extent as in Iceland. The development after 2009 has been more stable. Although there has been a small increase in Denmark during the last few years, the employment rate in 2016 is still below the pre-crisis level. Also in Sweden there has been a small increase over the last few years, bringing the 2016 rate above pre-crisis level. Employment rates in Finland show more stability than in the other Nordic countries, but the financial crisis seems to have counteracted a positive development. The same might be said for Norway, where rates have also been falling over the last three years of the period. These differences in development have led to a change in the ranking of Nordic countries from 2006 to 2016. The Nordic position as a European region with high employment rates has also been marginally weakened.

Gender gap in employment

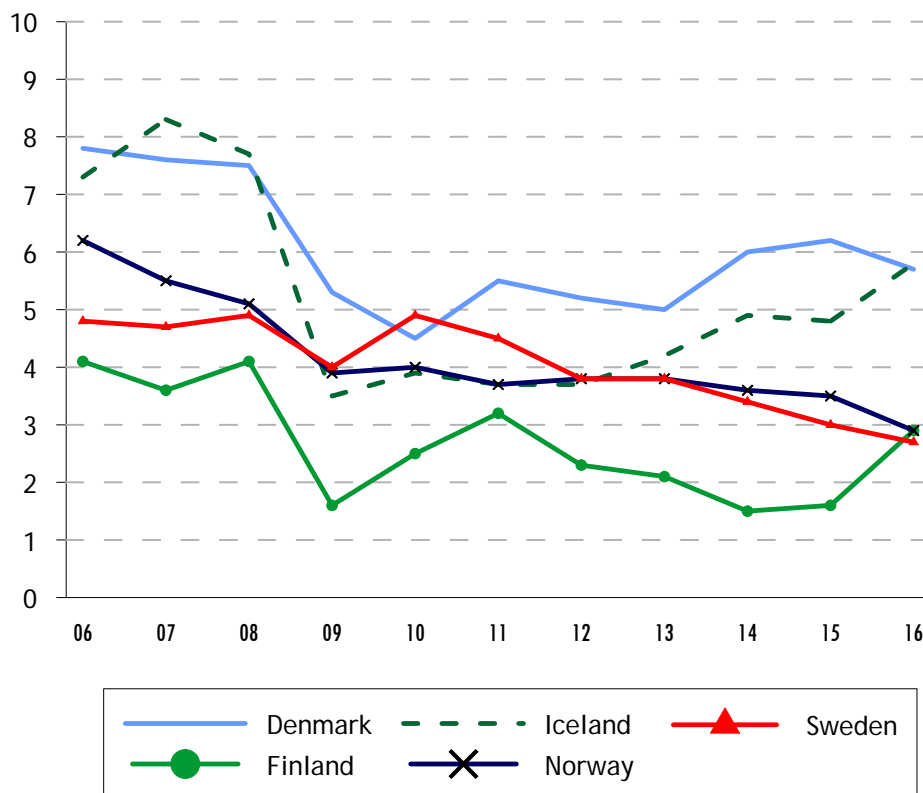
Women's employment rates are high in the Nordic countries. Iceland, Sweden, Norway and Denmark are among the top five countries in Europe when it comes to women's employment in 2016 (see Appendix Table A6.2). In Finland, the rate is a bit lower, but still more than 10 percentage points higher than the EU28 average.

Although employment rates for men are higher than women's employment rates in all Nordic countries, the gender gap in employment is low, and at the lower end in Europe.

Figure 6.2 illustrates the development of the gender gap in employment from 2006 to 2016. During this period, the gap has narrowed, and men and women's employment rates are more equal in 2016 compared to 2006. For welfare states, the positive story would be if this was due to increased employment among women. This is only partially true. Both men and women's employment follows the same trend. The financial crisis led to a drop in employment for both men and women, but the effect was stronger among men in most Nordic countries except in Sweden. On the other hand, the increase in employment was stronger for men than women when the negative effect of the financial crisis came to an end. Here, Norway is an exception. The immediate effect of the crisis was weak, but the increase in employment rates stopped, and even kept falling until 2016.

The narrowing gender gap observed during this period was actually partially caused by a stronger decrease in men's rather than women's employment because of the financial crisis, and partially caused by a more rapid increase in women's employment following the financial crisis.

Figure 6.2 Gender gap in employment, 15-64 years, Nordic countries, percentage points, 2006-16

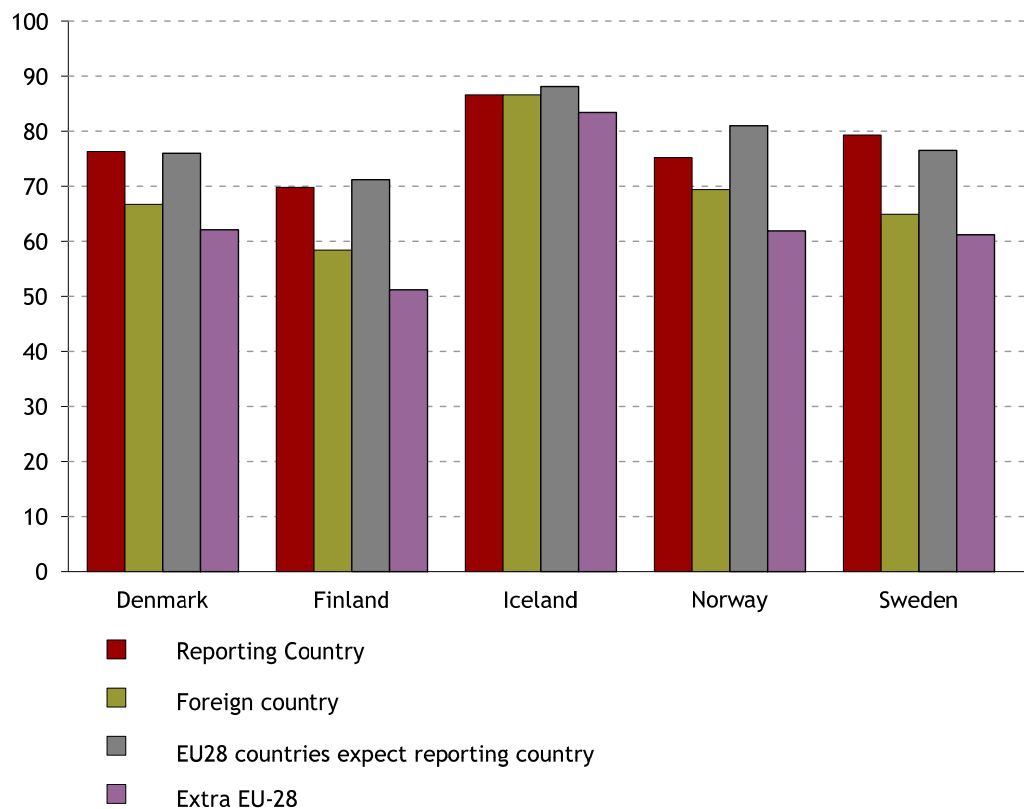


Source: Eurostat (Labour Force Survey). Extracted on 15.05.2017

Low employment rates for those born outside the EU

Foreign born persons from outside EU28 have lower employment rates than native-born persons in all the Nordic countries. Statistics from the LFS do not allow for age and gender breakdowns, or more detailed breakdowns by country of birth. LFS-statistics can still serve as an illustration of the challenges of including immigrants in the Nordic labour markets. Figure 6.3 illustrates that this challenge is mainly connected to immigration from outside the EU.

Figure 6.3 Employment 15-64 years, by country of birth, Nordic countries, per cent, 2016



Source: Eurostat (Labour Force Survey). Extracted on 15.05.2017

In all the Nordic countries, the employment rate among those born in the EU-28 countries is more equal to the native-born population than rates for those born outside the EU are. In Sweden and Denmark, the employment rate for the EU-28 group is below the rate for native-born persons, while in the three other countries, employment rates for the EU-28 group are higher than for native-born persons. This, of course, is mainly due to the common labour market in the EU/EEA area. Most immigrants from this area are labour-immigrants.

This relation between employment rates for native-born persons and the EU-28 group has changed in different ways in the different countries during the last years (Table 6.1). In Norway and in Iceland, changes in employment rates for the EU-28 group correspond to changes for native-born persons. In Sweden, the gap between these two groups became a bit narrower after the financial crisis. In Denmark and Finland, the employment rate for the EU-28 group changed more from one year to

another compared to the rate for native-born persons, and in 2016, rates for these two groups were almost equal.

We observe some differences in employment rates when comparing native-born persons and EU-28 born persons, and the latter group may be more exposed to fluctuations in the labour market. However, the main challenge when integrating immigrants in employment is related to persons born outside the EU. When comparing native-born persons and persons born outside the EU-28, the differences in employment rates are highly visible in all Nordic countries, except in Iceland. In Iceland in 2006 and 2007, the employment rate for those born outside the EU was higher than among native-born persons. From 2008 onwards, the opposite is true, but still employment rates for persons born outside EU only vary between 8 and 2 percentage points lower than for the native-born group. Rates in the other Nordic countries differ far more. In 2016, the employment rate for those born outside EU was more than 18 percentage points below the rate for native-born persons in both Finland and Sweden. The corresponding difference in Denmark was 14 and in Norway 13 percentage points.

This illustrates the severe challenge of integrating this group of immigrants into the labour market, particularly for those countries where this group is of a substantial size.

Contrary to the EU-28 group, the difference in employment rates for persons born outside the EU and native-born persons has remained remarkably stable in Denmark, Sweden, Finland and Norway. Research indicates that this kind of cross sectional approach might underestimate the challenge of labour market integration. Longitudinal analysis points out a more long-term challenge, at least in Norway:

"The main message coming out of our longitudinal analyses is that the labour market integration of immigrants from low-income countries tends to lose steam after just a few years in Norway, and that the integration process then goes into reverse. After five to ten years of residence, virtually all immigrant groups from low-income countries - regardless of gender and admission class - experience declining employment rates and increasing social insurance dependency rates relative to natives with shared characteristics"

Bratsberg, Raaum and Røed 2017:17

Table 6.1 Employment 15-64 years, by country of birth, Nordic countries, per cent 2006-16

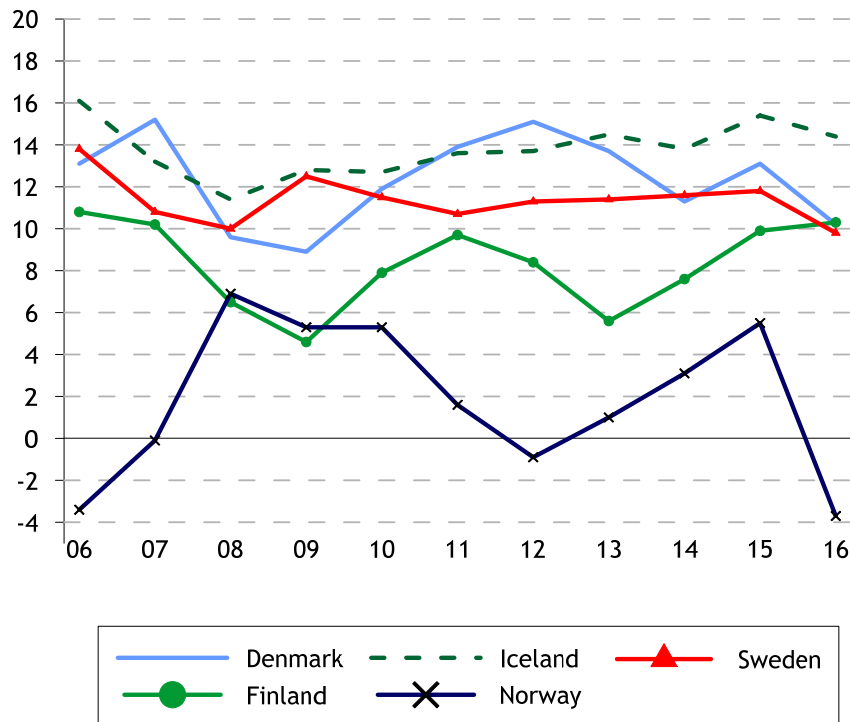
	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Reporting country											
Denmark	78.4	78.5	79.0	76.2	74.6	74.7	74.2	73.9	74.2	75.1	76.3
Finland	69.7	70.5	71.3	68.9	68.5	69.4	69.6	69.2	69.2	69.2	69.8
Iceland	84.6	85.1	83.8	78.4	78.5	78.7	79.8	81.2	83.1	85.2	86.6
Norway	76.1	77.4	78.5	77.1	76.1	76.0	76.5	76.3	76.1	75.9	75.2
Sweden	75.1	76.2	76.3	74.2	74.4	76.0	76.2	77.2	77.7	78.5	79.3
Foreign country											
Denmark	64.0	64.2	67.8	67.9	63.5	61.7	61.3	63.0	64.1	63.9	66.7
Finland	60.5	63.8	65.4	63.8	60.5	61.1	63.8	63.4	60.7	59.2	58.4
Iceland	84.3	85.7	81.4	77.2	74.8	76.7	79.1	80.2	82.2	81.0	86.6
Norway	67.0	70.5	73.2	70.3	68.8	70.2	70.9	70.3	69.9	69.0	69.4
Sweden	61.6	63.1	64.3	62.2	61.3	62.5	62.9	62.9	63.6	64.2	64.9
EU-28 countries except reporting country											
Denmark	70.9	75.7	78.8	77.6	73.5	71.0	71.8	73.3	76.1	75.4	76.0
Finland	69.5	74.7	75.9	72.9	71.6	71.9	75.5	74.0	72.4	70.1	71.2
Iceland	83.7	85.3	84.1	79.2	75.6	78.1	80.1	81.4	82.8	83.5	88.1
Norway	79.9	81.2	83.2	81.4	79.2	80.4	81.5	82.3	82.5	80.4	81.0
Sweden	72.0	72.4	72.2	73.1	72.7	73.4	73.9	74.7	74.9	75.7	76.5
Extra-EU-28											
Denmark	61.2	60.5	64.1	64.3	59.6	57.9	56.5	58.3	58.3	58.2	62.1
Finland	53.3	55.8	58.3	57.9	53.5	54.1	55.9	56.3	54.0	52.7	51.2
Iceland	85.2	86.2	77.1	73.4	73.2	74.3	77.4	77.9	81.1	76.8	83.4
Norway	61.0	64.7	67.5	64.1	62.9	64.0	63.7	61.8	60.9	60.7	61.9
Sweden	56.6	58.9	60.5	57.4	56.6	58.2	58.6	58.5	59.5	60.2	61.2

Source: Eurostat (Labour Force Survey). Extracted on 15.05.2017

The Nordic countries stand out as countries with high employment rates for women. It is also relevant to analyse employment by gender for immigrants, especially those born outside the EU.

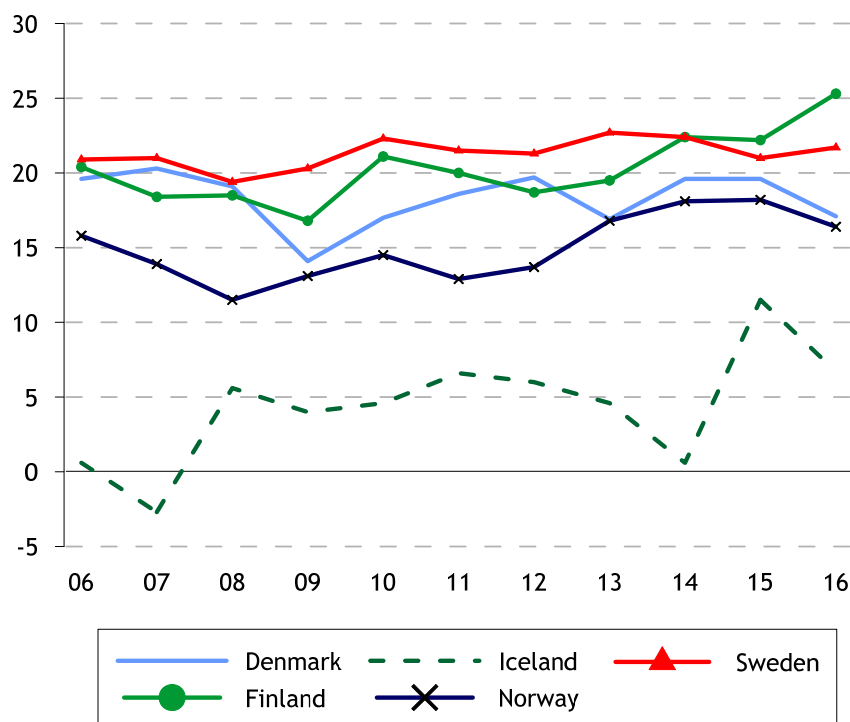
Figure 6.4b illustrates that the inclusion of immigrant women in the labour market is a particular challenge. The lines represent the percentage point difference in employment rates between native-born women and women born outside the EU. Again, Iceland is a special case, since the employment rate for immigrant women from outside the EU is high, almost at the same level as for women born in Iceland. This is far from the case in the other four Nordic countries. In 2016, the employment rate for women born outside the EU varied from 16 (Norway) to 25 (Finland) percentage points lower than for native-born women. This level of difference has remained quite stable over the last 10 years. Figure 6.4a describes the same kind of differences between men born outside the EU and native-born men, although the differences are a bit smaller than those observed among women.

Figure 6.4a Difference in employment for native-born men and men born outside the EU, 15-64 years, Nordic countries, percentage points, 2006-16



Source: Eurostat (Labour Force Survey). Extracted on 01.06.2017

Figure 6.4b Difference in employment for native-born women and women born outside the EU, 15-64 years, Nordic countries, percentage points, 2006-16



Source: Eurostat (Labour Force Survey). Extracted on 01.06.2017

Unemployment²

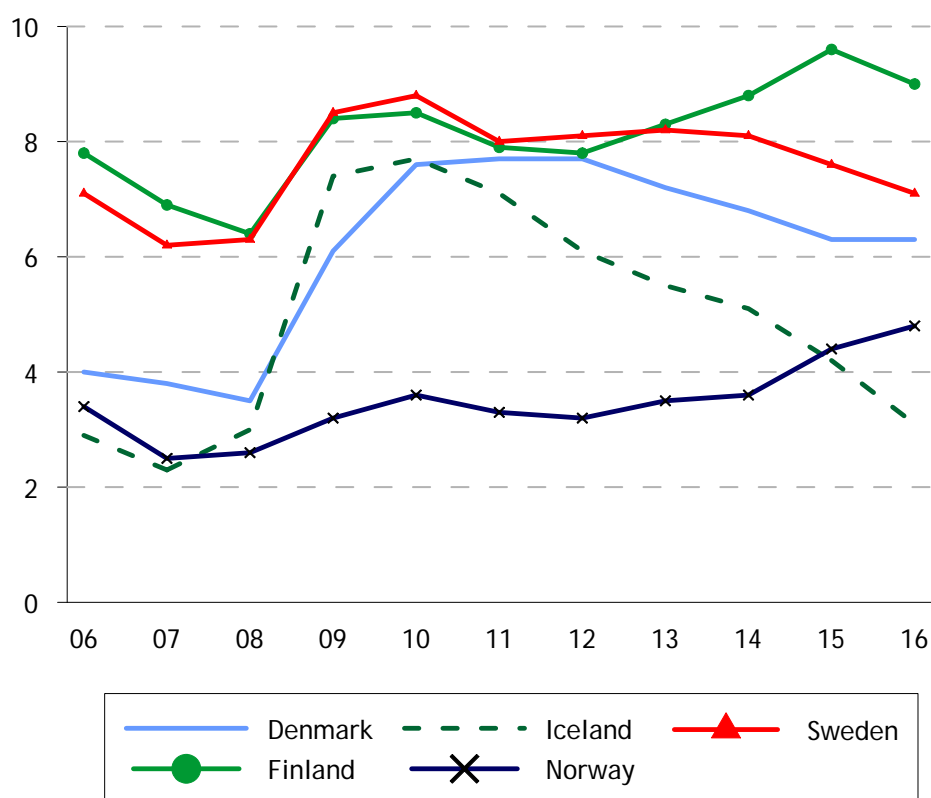
In a welfare state, work is both a right and an obligation. An important task for welfare states is helping secure the right to work. The Nordic welfare states strongly emphasise this, and have public schemes both to qualify and enable people for work, and help individuals finding work. The unemployed are also ensured a minimum income. In addition to the loss of income from taxation due to unemployment, schemes and benefits for the unemployed is an expense for the welfare states (Chapter 4).

Unemployment rates after the financial crisis

In 2016, the EU-28 average unemployment rate for persons aged 15-64 years was 9 per cent, but the diversity between countries is considerable. In Greece, the rate was 24, in Spain 20, France 10 and in Germany 4 per cent. Although unemployment rates are low in the Nordic countries on average, we also observe diversity between the Nordic countries. With a rate of 3 per cent, Iceland had the lowest European unemployment rate in 2016. Second among the Nordic countries was Norway, almost 5 per cent, followed by Denmark, 6 per cent, Sweden 7 per cent and Finland 9 per cent. Figure 6.5 illustrates how unemployment rates in the Nordic countries developed from 2006 to 2016. The financial crisis led to an increase in all countries, and in 2010 and 2011 the rates were quite equal, except for Norway, where the rise in unemployment following the crisis was limited. But in Norway, the unemployment rate has kept on rising since 2012. In Sweden, Denmark, and most remarkably in Iceland, the unemployment rates fell after 2012 and 2013. In Finland, on the other hand, the rate in 2015 was even higher than in the years following the financial crisis.

² Employment and unemployment are closely connected. Employment is measured as a percentage of the working age population, while the definition of unemployment requires that the individual is actively looking for a job and is available for work immediately. These two indicators are supplementary, and unemployment indicates the percentage of persons wanting work, still being a part of the workforce. Some of those who are not employed are not necessarily unemployed, but may have withdrawn from the labour market.

Figure 6.5 Unemployment rate, 15-64 years, Nordic countries, per cent 2006-16



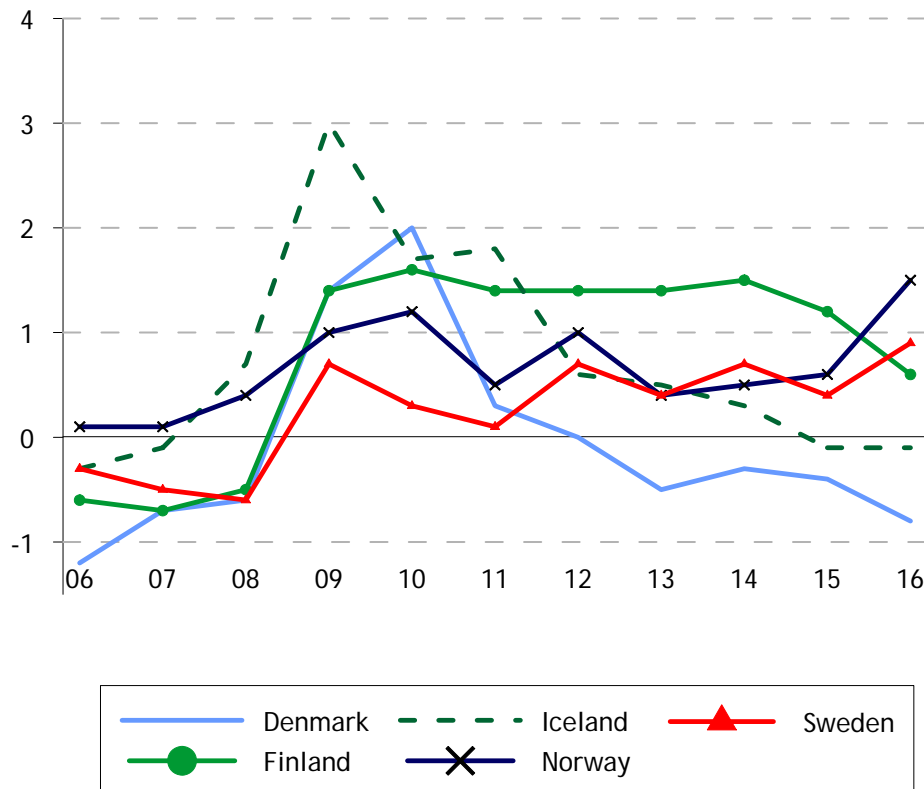
Source: Eurostat (Labour Force Survey). Extracted on 01.06.2017

Gender gap in times of crisis

Both employment and unemployment rates were generally lower for women than for men during the period from 2006 to 2016. This might seem like a contradiction in terms, but is because unemployment is measured as part of the workforce, and employment is measured as part of the population.

In the years before the financial crisis, unemployment rates were higher for women than for men in four of the Nordic countries, the exception being Norway. The financial crisis led to a higher increase in unemployment for men. Especially after 2008, the unemployment rates among men increased more than among women. In recent years, this gender gap has been reduced again in Finland, Denmark and Iceland. In the last two of these countries, unemployment rates are again higher for women. In Sweden and Norway, men are still more exposed, and the gap is even wider in 2016 than in the years following the crisis.

Figure 6.6 Difference in unemployment for men and women, 15-64 years, Nordic countries, percentage points, 2006-16



Source: Eurostat (Labour Force Survey). Extracted on 01.06.2017

Closing the gender gap in employment by increasing women's employment is one of the challenges for Nordic welfare states. So is minimising unemployment and withdrawal from the labour force.

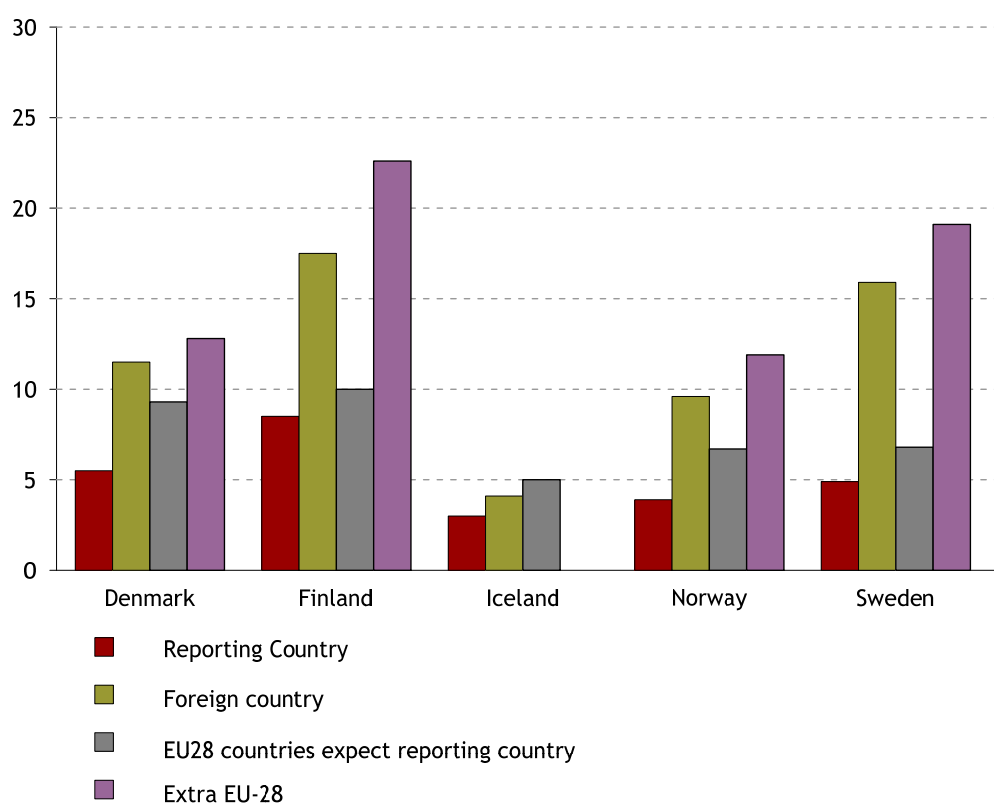
High unemployment rates among immigrants

Differences in employment rates are mirrored by unemployment rates when comparing the native-born and immigrant populations. Unemployment rates are between 2 to 3 times higher for immigrants in total than for the native-born population (Figure 6.7). Immigrants born outside the EU are more exposed to unemployment. Iceland is again an exception, with only minor differences.³

In both Sweden and Norway, the unemployment rate for those born outside the EU-28 was more than three times higher than for native-born persons. The highest unemployment rate for those born outside the EU-28 was in Finland, 23 per cent, compared to 9 per cent for native-born persons. In Denmark, the corresponding figures are 13 and 6 per cent.

³ Unemployment rates for persons born outside the EU-28 are not published for Iceland.

Figure 6.7 Unemployment rates 15-64 years, by country of birth, Nordic countries, per cent, 2016



Source: Eurostat (Labour Force Survey). Extracted on 01.06.2017

Looking at the unemployment gap over time, the challenge related to reducing unemployment among immigrants is persistent. Although the overall unemployment rate varies over time, the relative position of those born outside the EU-28 remains weak. In Sweden, the gap between the outside EU-28 group and the native-born group seems to have widened, while this is not the case in Norway, Denmark and Finland (Appendix Table A6.4).

Marginalisation, Exclusion and Disability

Overall, indicators on employment and unemployment for 2006-2016 show a quite quick recovery for Nordic labour markets during the years following the financial crisis. However, some differences between the countries prevail. Employment and unemployment highlight the challenge of including immigrants in the labour market, especially those born outside the EU-28 countries.

By using data from EU-SILC for the period from 2011 to 2016 and indicators developed for this project (Normann, Rønning and Nørgaard 2009 and 2013, see text boxes for definitions), we will now take a closer look at labour market inclusion or exclusion not necessarily reflected in employment and unemployment. We turn our attention towards exclusion, marginalisation and disability as supplements to the existing indicators on employment and unemployment.

Combined, exclusion and disability are close to the definition of NEET (Neither in Employment nor in Education and Training). NEET is published as an indicator by

Eurostat, based on LFS. This indicator is published under the “youth employment” section, and covers only individuals who are between 15-29 years old.⁴ In the EU-28 countries, 14 per cent of youth are so called NEETs. The prevalence is lower in all Nordic countries, at 12 per cent in Finland, 7 per cent in Denmark and 7 per cent in both Norway and Sweden. Iceland has the lowest share in Europe, almost 5 per cent.⁵

Marginalisation

Labour market marginalisation describes a person’s position in the periphery of the labour market. The person is not fully integrated, nor are they entirely excluded. Marginalisation may be described as a position with great uncertainty. It may be lasting, or develop both ways - either entering the labour market more permanently, or lead to permanent exclusion.

Labour market marginalisation may be viewed from an individual and a collective perspective. The norms of society represent a drive towards comprehensive integration in the labour market, the lack of which may lead to undesired marginalisation. In addition, individuals may prefer to be outside the labour market for shorter or longer periods. This should be taken into consideration when analysing labour market marginalisation. Unfortunately, the distinction between voluntary and non-voluntary marginalisation is impossible to unveil using data from the EU-SILC.

Persons in education are not considered marginalised, as they are qualifying for work. This is especially relevant for young persons. However, the educational system may hide a kind of marginalisation by forcing persons primarily preferring work into education or training. The degree of voluntarism in a marginalised position may also be discussed, as preferences may be influenced by economic cycles and the realistic possibilities of gaining work. We are unable to take these issues into consideration in the operationalisation of marginalisation, where only economic status, not preferences, is taken into consideration.

The duration of a position outside education or work in order to be marginalised must also be defined. At some point, there is a change from being marginalised to being excluded. Our definition of marginalisation presupposes ties to the labour market during a calendar year. Ideally, we would measure marginalisation by looking at labour market attachments over several years. However, for practical reasons we look at a single year. We exclude persons in transfer between working and studying or receiving a pension. We focus on individuals in the periphery of the labour market, switching between work and something "uncertain" else. The analysis is limited to individuals aged 20 to 64.

⁴ http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/data/database?node_code=tips1m90

⁵ The indicator on young people neither in employment or in education and training (NEET) corresponds to the percentage of the population of a given age group and sex who is not employed and not involved in further education or training. The numerator of the indicator refers to persons who meet the following two conditions: (a) they are not employed (i.e. unemployed or inactive according to the International Labour Organisation definition) and (b) they have not received any education or training (i.e. neither formal nor non-formal) in the four weeks preceding the survey. The denominator in the total population consists of the same age group and sex, excluding the respondents who have not answered the question 'participation in regular (formal) education and training'.

Marginalisation - definition

The definition is based on the self-reported main activity for each month of the income year. Individuals who have defined themselves as employed for less than half the year (five months or less) and at the same time have defined themselves as unemployed or inactive for at least six months, are defined as marginalised. Individuals who have studied for six months or more are not considered marginalised. Persons on parental-leave are instructed to report employment as their main activity.

Exclusion

Labour-market exclusion is distinct from marginalisation as it describes a more permanent situation (see text box for definition). As for marginalisation, we have the same issue regarding voluntary and involuntary positions. Some may choose to be outside the labour market and education for relatively short periods of time, for example as a "year off" used for travelling, domestic tasks or other personal purposes. The labour market situation may also inflict on choices made by individuals. If job opportunities seem small, some may "choose" to be outside the labour market.

A relevant question in this respect, is whether those performing domestic tasks should be regarded as excluded from the labour market or not. In our approach, participation in the labour market is the focal point as this is the relevant challenge for welfare states. Therefore, we regard domestic work as being excluded although it may be voluntary. Consequently, parents with young children staying at home during early childhood may be regarded as excluded. Note that parental leave is considered as employment. In some countries, cash benefits are given to parents of young children who stay at home beyond parental leave (for example in Finland and Norway). Our indicator may then include cases caused by the paradox of welfare schemes encouraging exclusion from the labour market.

In the previous report from 2013, we used an alternative definition of exclusion by not regarding those performing domestic tasks as excluded. This led to lower percentages of exclusion especially among women. We expect the effects to be similar in more recent data, and refer to the previous report for analyses of how this affects probabilities of being excluded (Normann, Rønning and Nørgaard 2013). As for marginalisation, we limit our analysis to persons aged 20 to 64 years.

Exclusion - definition

The definition is based on a self-defined economic status at the time of the interview. We have defined persons who are unemployed, performing domestic tasks or otherwise inactive at the time of the interview. To isolate those who have been in this position for a lengthy period of time, we have also added the condition of no income from employment or self-employment during the reference year for income (in practice the calendar year prior to the interview) as excluded. Additionally, we have added the condition that the interviewee was not in any type of job at the time of the interview as a check of coherence with self-defined status. Persons on parental-leave are instructed to report employment as their main activity.

Disabled, unable to work

All Nordic welfare states have schemes and benefits for early retirement for individuals unable to work due to impaired physical or mental health (NOSOSKO 2016). In Chapter 4, we describe how social expenditures for disability have increased during recent years in all Nordic countries, except in Sweden.

Our indicator on disability, using data from EU-SILC, captures not only recipients of public disability benefits, but also individuals defining themselves as disabled or unable to work (see text box for definition). This definition does not assume a medical diagnosis or another form of official approval that qualifies the individual for benefits. Some may end up outside the labour market for health reasons without an objective diagnosis or the right to disability pension, some may be waiting for a diagnosis and clarification. The age-group covered is 20 to 64 years.

Disabled, unable to work - definition

The definition is based on a self-defined economic status at the time of the interview. Individuals who consider themselves disabled or unable to work at the time of the interview, and additionally have had no salary or business income in the reference year for income (in practice the previous year) are considered disabled in this analysis. We look at this independently of whether they receive any form of disability benefits. Additionally, we have added a condition that they are not in any form of job at the time of the interview as a check of coherence with self-defined status.

Marginalisation, Exclusion and Disabled, unable to work in the Nordic Countries

Figures 5.8, 5.9 and 5.10 show the total shares of marginalised, excluded and disabled persons aged 20-64 years in the Nordic countries in the period from 2006 to 2015.⁶

The main finding is that these are quite stable phenomena, although fluctuating a bit within each country. Annual changes are typically small, and there is no clear

⁶ Figures for 2006 to 2010 are taken from the previous report in this series (ref), and are not reproduced from databases. Revision of databases may lead to minor adjustments. Such possible adjustments are not considered here.

common pattern of development for marginalisation and exclusion. For disability, there are signs of reduction during recent years in all countries except in Iceland.

The prevalence of marginalisation is highest in Finland, where the rate was at its highest in 2010, almost 7 per cent, followed by a reduction to 5 per cent in 2013. In 2015, the rate has returned to 6 per cent. The prevalence of exclusion is typically a bit lower, but with the same development as marginalisation. A reduction from a high in 2010 to 2013, then increasing again until 2015. This latest increase in exclusion is followed by an even larger decrease in the prevalence of disability. The long-term trend in Finland is that the combined percentage of excluded and disabled is falling.

The clearest trend in marginalisation is found in Norway, where the prevalence rate fell from 2 per cent in 2006 to 1 per cent in 2015. Exclusion rates fell following the financial crisis, but have remained stable since. We also observe a fall in the disability rate after 2010, and the trend for the combined share of excluded and disabled is therefore similar to the trend in Finland. A partial explanation for this may be the introduction of a new social scheme in 2010, Work Assessment Allowance, which may have affected the probability of reporting disability.

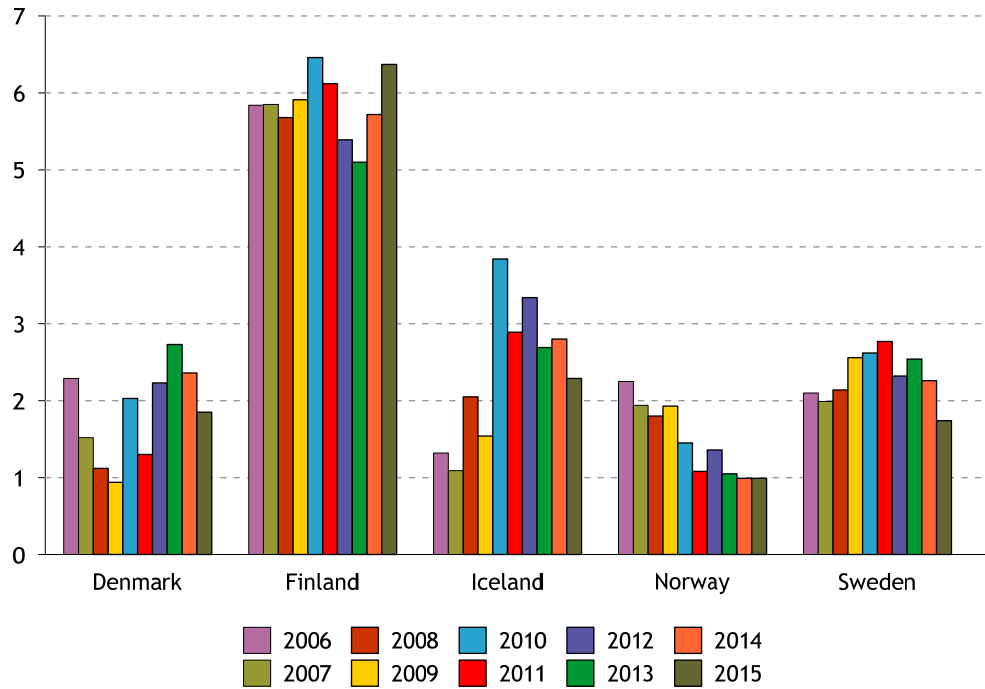
In Sweden, marginalisation increased after the financial crisis to a high of 3 per cent in 2011. This share fell to 3 per cent in 2015, which is lower than the pre-crisis level. Until 2011, the prevalence of exclusion was quite stable, but from 2011 we observe what seems to be a temporary increase. In Sweden this is also followed by a decrease in disability rates, so the total rate of exclusion and disability is quite stable in the years 2010 to 2013, before falling in 2014 and 2015. Thus, it is fair to say that in recent years, these three indicators show a positive development in Sweden.

Marginalisation in Denmark fell from 2006 to 2009. In the following years, there are some annual fluctuations, but there seems to be a trend towards reduced marginalisation again after 2013. There were also some minor changes in exclusion from one year to another, but in recent years, prevalence seems to have stabilised at around 2 per cent. After a high in disability of 5 per cent in 2010, rates have been a bit up and down, but was at its lowest in 2015 with 3 per cent.

In Iceland, marginalisation increased significantly from 2009 to 2010, and even though the rate fell in following years, it was still above the pre-crisis level. The development in exclusion is almost similar, although the rate was at its highest in 2012, 3 per cent, falling to 2 per cent in 2015. Unlike the other Nordic countries, there has been no reduction in disability rates in recent years in Iceland. Disability rates seem to have stabilised at approximately 3 per cent.

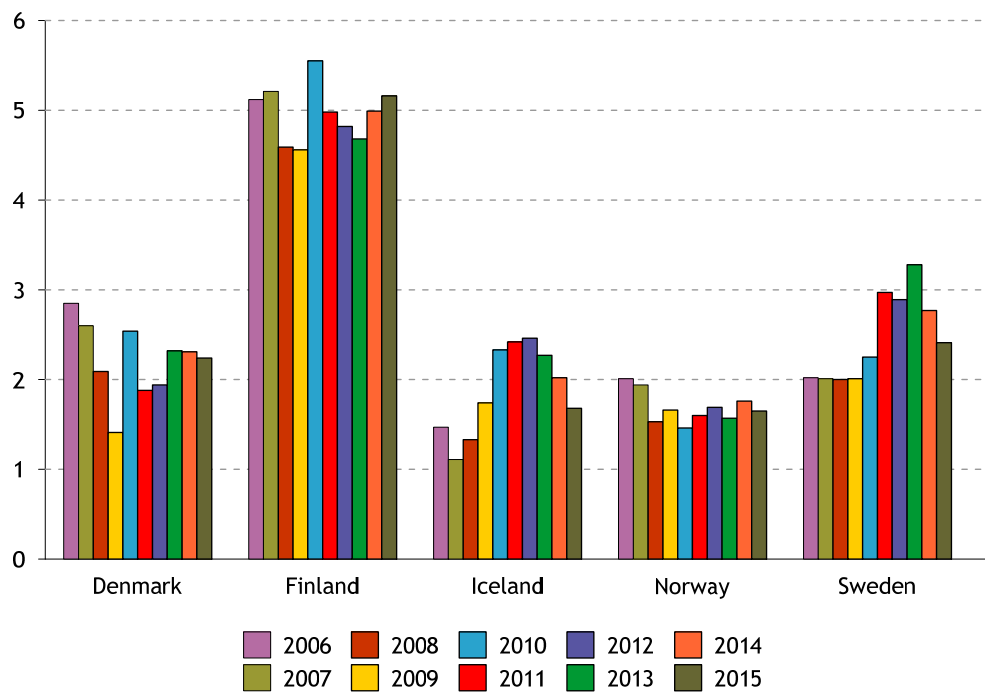
In a European context, marginalisation is also relatively rare (Appendix Table A6.5). In fact, in 2015, Finland had the highest rate in Europe, while the other Nordic countries were the ones with the lowest rates. There is more variation in exclusion rates in Europe, and the Nordic countries have the lowest rates in Europe. Thirteen European countries have rates of more than 10 per cent, for example 13 per cent in the United Kingdom and 28 per cent in Greece. Disability in Europe ranges from 1 per cent in Slovakia to 6 per cent in the United Kingdom in 2015. The Swedish rate is among the lowest, while the other Nordic disability rates are in the European mid-range. Still, comparing European exclusion and disability rates combined, the rates in the Nordic countries are quite low.

Figure 6.8 Marginalisation, persons 20-64 years old, by country, Nordic countries, per cent, 2006-15



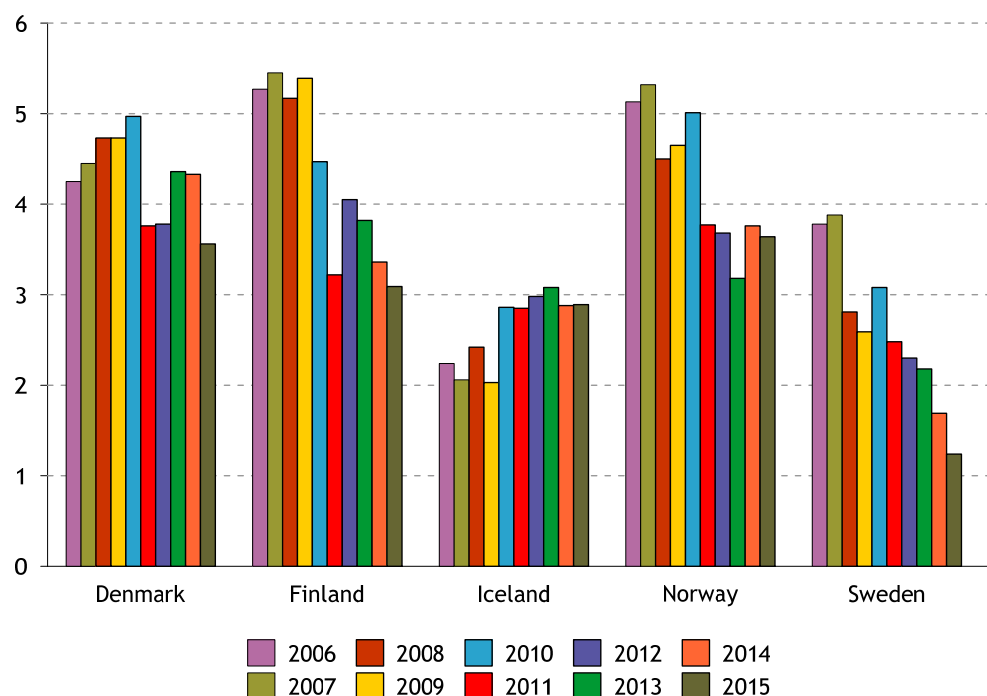
Source: EU-SILC User Database 2006-15

Figure 6.9 Exclusion, by country, persons 20-64 years old, Nordic countries, per cent, 2006-15



Source: EU-SILC User Database 2006-15

Figure 6.10 Disability, by country, persons 20-64 years old, Nordic countries, per cent 2006-15



Source: EU-SILC User Database 2006-15

Characteristics affecting Marginalisation

To describe and explain how individual characteristics affect marginalisation, exclusion and disability, we first apply logistic regression, then move on to prevalence rates. This is the same approach used in previous reports (Normann, Rønning and Nørgaard 2009 and 2013), and individual characteristics included are sex, age, education, marriage/cohabitation status, health and country of birth. These variables are chosen in the analyses because they are often used in statistics as explanations of labour market attachment.⁷

Results from the regressions on marginalisation are shown in Appendix Table 6.6. They indicate that gender is not the most important variable affecting marginalisation, although being a woman increases the probability of being marginalised in Finland, and in some years in Norway.

The gender gap in marginalisation is also most visible in Finland (Table 6.2). At its highest, it was 4 percentage points in 2009, 3 in 2015, and more equal in 2006 and 2007.⁸ In Norway, the significant effects from gender correspond to the years when

⁷ In these analyses, the 'proc survey logistics' in SAS is used. This is the recommended method when applying logistic regression on survey data. In our last report (ref), the procedure 'proc logistics' was used. This method will regrettably overestimate the significance of odds estimates when applying non-response weights inflating the number of observations, which is the case when analysing EU-SILC data. Consequently, the logistic regression models in this report will give fewer significant findings compared to the previous report, but more accurate.

⁸ Because of the survey design in the Nordic countries, using a sample of persons and the 'selected respondent' approach as described in Doc65 (Eurostat 2017a), the cross-tables for marginalisation includes a larger sample than the regression model, and may therefore produce some minor inconsistencies in the results. This is because data on marginalisation and most personal characteristics exists for all adult household members, who then can be included in cross-tables. The health variables are only collected for sample persons in the Nordic countries, and the regression and cross tables using this characteristic include a smaller sample.

the gender gap is at its widest. In our regression model, there are no significant effects of gender in Denmark, Iceland and Sweden for the period 2011 to 2015, although in some of these years there are significant different rates for men and women. In addition, being married/cohabitant in some few cases in Denmark, Iceland and Sweden is positive, meaning that the probability of being marginalised is reduced.

Table 6.2 Marginalisation by gender, persons 20-64 years, per cent, 2006-15

	Denmark		Finland		Iceland		Norway		Sweden	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
2006	1.6	3.0	5.3	6.4	0.8	1.8	1.5	3.1	2.0	2.2
2007	0.9	2.2	5.2	6.5	0.6	1.6	1.7	2.2	1.7	2.2
2008	0.8	1.5	4.5	6.9	1.7	2.4	1.2	2.4	1.7	2.6
2009	0.9	1.0	3.9	8.0	1.2	2.0	1.5	2.3	2.6	2.5
2010	2.0	2.1	5.3	7.7	4.0	3.7	1.0	1.9	2.3	3.0
2011	1.3	1.2	4.6	7.4	2.9	2.8	0.9	1.3	2.4	3.2
2012	2.0	2.4	4.0	6.7	3.7	3.0	0.8	1.7	2.4	2.2
2013	1.9	3.5	3.6	6.5	2.7	2.7	0.5	1.5	2.7	2.4
2014	2.0	2.7	3.9	7.5	2.7	2.9	0.7	1.2	2.3	2.2
2015	1.7	1.9	4.8	7.7	1.9	2.8	0.7	1.3	1.8	1.7

Source: EU-SILC User Database 2006-15

Logistic regression is a method of analysis suitable for studies of net effects of multiple explanatory variables on one dependent variable. The method is appropriate when the dependent variable is dichotomous. In this report, this method of analysis is used to analyse which individual characteristics affect marginalisation, exclusion or disability (or unable to work).

The logistic regression model shows how much higher the likelihood that an event will occur is at a specific value on the explanatory variable in relation to another category (the reference category), at the same time as other explanatory variables in the model are kept constant. This is calculated by taking the ratio of the antilogarithm to the parameter estimates for the two values on the explanatory variable; this is called the odds ratio. The odds increase significantly more than the percentage, so it is important to not mix the two measurements of effects. The relative strength of the individual explanatory variables can be evaluated by comparing the size of the chi-square of the variables. The greater the chi-square, the stronger the effect of the explanatory variable is on the dependent variable. For more information about logistic regression, see for example Ringdal (2001).

In our analyses, we will concentrate most on whether the explanatory variables have a significant effect on the independent variable or not, and the direction of the effect. We will not discuss the strength of the effects in any detail. We therefore only present the odds ratios, and have only included those significant to a .95 level using the proc survey logistic procedure in SAS. The models have in common that the reference category is a man, aged 35 to 44, who has a higher level of education, is married or cohabiting, is in good health and was born in the country.

A main observation from our regression model is that age seems to be the most important explanatory variable across the Nordic countries. Both in Sweden and Finland, persons younger than the reference group (35-44 years) seem to be more exposed to marginalisation, even when controlling for the other characteristics. This finding is also present in Denmark and Norway, but less significant over time and more restricted to the 25-34 age-group. There are also findings indicating some effect towards reduced probability for marginalisation among those aged 55-64 years, most significant in Finland and Norway.

Table 6.3 also indicates a decrease in the share of those marginalised by age. This is perhaps most visible in Finland and Sweden, where our regression analyses indicate constant significant effects of age. Mainly, we find the highest percentages among 20-24 year olds, although in Finland, the rate among persons aged 25-34 years is equally high from 2009 onwards. In Sweden, differences within the age-groups 35-44, 45-54 and 55-64 are small. In Denmark, Iceland and Norway, effects of age are not as visible, but the 25-34 age group is the exposed group over time in Denmark, also significant in the regression compared to the 35-44 year olds. This is also the case in Norway and Iceland in some years, but the situation is shifting more than in the other countries.

In the Nordic countries, those below 35 years are a bit more exposed to marginalisation than other groups. The fact that these are young persons, often in transition between education and labour, either trying to combine or to establish themselves in the labour market, might be an explanation. If so, marginalisation need not be a serious challenge if it leads to more stable employment. Marginalisation in the older age-groups may be more challenging and imply risk of exclusion. Still, to analyse this, we would need more thorough analysis of the duration of marginalisation with the use of longitudinal data.

Table 6.3 Marginalisation by age, persons 20-64 years, per cent, 2006-15

	Years	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Denmark	20-24	2.9	1.8	0.3	1.3	2.3	2.1	4.4	4.0	4.0	2.9
	25-34	4.0	3.1	1.7	1.2	3.0	2.9	3.7	8.0	4.0	3.7
	35-44	2.5	1.4	1.7	0.8	2.1	1.1	2.5	2.7	1.6	1.4
	45-54	1.1	0.9	0.9	0.8	1.5	1.0	1.3	1.9	2.1	1.5
	55-64	1.4	0.7	0.4	0.9	1.7	0.7	1.8	1.4	1.9	1.4
Finland	20-24	12.7	13.9	11.8	8.4	9.8	10.2	9.2	8.3	7.9	9.9
	25-34	6.7	7.5	7.1	8.4	10.2	9.8	8.8	8.6	10.7	10.3
	35-44	5.7	4.7	6.0	6.2	6.3	6.4	6.4	5.7	6.6	7.3
	45-54	4.2	4.1	3.5	4.1	4.4	3.8	3.3	2.6	3.1	3.5
	55-64	4.0	4.0	3.9	4.3	4.0	4.1	3.2	3.8	3.7	4.6
Iceland	20-24	2.5	1.8	2.2	1.6	3.5	3.9	3.4	3.0	3.7	2.8
	25-34	1.1	0.9	1.9	2.1	4.5	3.7	5.9	4.6	3.2	3.3
	35-44	1.6	1.2	2.2	1.7	3.6	3.3	2.9	2.8	2.3	1.8
	45-54	0.8	1.5	2.7	1.2	4.2	2.0	2.7	1.7	2.7	1.4
	55-64	1.2	1.6	1.2	1.0	3.0	2.2	2.4	2.0	2.6	2.8
Norway	20-24	4.6	6.0	4.8	2.1	2.0	2.3	1.5	1.6	1.2	1.9
	25-34	4.3	3.1	2.9	3.4	2.4	2.3	2.5	2.8	1.2	2.2
	35-44	2.6	1.7	1.6	1.9	1.7	1.0	1.4	0.9	1.7	1.0
	45-54	0.7	0.8	0.6	0.8	0.9	0.6	0.9	0.5	0.4	0.5
	55-64	0.5	0.4	0.8	1.6	0.6	0.3	0.6	0.3	0.6	0.3
Sweden	20-24	4.4	6.5	5.8	6.7	7.4	7.7	6.4	8.2	7.5	4.6
	25-34	3.7	2.8	3.8	3.8	3.9	4.4	3.4	3.5	2.7	2.9
	35-44	1.7	1.6	1.5	1.8	1.6	2.1	1.3	1.2	1.4	1.4
	45-54	0.9	1.2	1.0	1.7	1.3	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.0	0.7
	55-64	1.2	0.6	0.7	1.3	1.4	1.3	1.6	1.4	1.5	0.9

Source: EU-SILC User Database 2006-15

Education and labour market participation are closely related, but education seems to have limited significant effects on marginalisation in our regression model. In Finland, Sweden and Iceland, having only primary education increases the probability of being marginalised in most years, compared to those with higher education. This effect can also be observed in Norway in 2011 and 2015, and in Denmark in 2012. One reason for the relatively low effect of education might be that marginalisation presupposes some degree of labour market attachment. As we will see, education is far more important when explaining exclusion and disability.

Table 6.4 Marginalisation by education, persons 20-64 years, per cent, 2006-15

		2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Denmark	Primary education (or less)	2.4	2.5	1.2	1.3	2.5	1.4	2.6	2.0	2.4	2.4
	Secondary education	1.9	1.2	0.8	0.8	1.9	1.4	2.4	3.1	3.0	1.5
	Tertiary education	2.7	1.3	1.6	0.9	1.6	1.0	1.8	2.6	1.5	2.0
Finland	Primary education (or less)	6.4	6.9	6.5	6.8	7.0	6.1	5.8	6.7	6.3	8.2
	Secondary education	6.5	6.7	6.0	6.0	6.9	6.9	5.9	5.5	6.1	6.5
	Tertiary education	4.3	4.0	4.3	4.7	4.9	4.6	4.3	3.9	4.9	5.3
Iceland	Primary education (or less)	1.4	1.6	2.8	2.3	5.3	4.1	5.2	3.7	4.2	3.9
	Secondary education	1.7	0.7	1.9	1.2	3.7	2.7	3.1	2.7	2.3	2.0
	Tertiary education	0.6	1.3	1.4	1.3	2.6	1.9	2.0	1.8	2.2	1.4
Norway	Primary education (or less)	3.5	3.9	3.3	3.1	3.2	2.3	2.1	2.3	1.2	2.4
	Secondary education	1.9	1.6	1.4	1.7	1.1	0.9	1.0	0.8	1.1	0.9
	Tertiary education	1.7	1.1	1.2	1.2	0.8	0.8	1.2	0.8	0.8	0.5
Sweden	Primary education (or less)	2.5	2.6	2.7	4.4	3.5	3.3	3.7	4.6	2.8	2.7
	Secondary education	2.2	2.2	2.3	2.5	2.8	3.0	2.6	2.9	2.9	1.8
	Tertiary education	1.7	1.4	1.7	2.0	2.0	2.2	1.4	1.5	1.2	1.1

Source: EU-SILC User Database 2006-15

Education and labour market participation are closely related, but education seems to have limited significant effects on marginalisation in our regression model. In Finland, Sweden and Iceland, having only primary education increases the probability of being marginalised in most years, compared to those with higher education. This effect can also be observed in Norway in 2011 and 2015, and in Denmark in 2012. One reason for the relatively low effect of education might be that marginalisation presupposes some degree of labour market attachment. As we will see, education is far more important when explaining exclusion and disability.

Although the effects of education based on the regression model are most visible in Finland, Sweden and Iceland, we also observe differences in marginalisation rates by education in Norway (Table 6.4). Even though the effects may differ when controlling for other characteristics, differences in marginalisation rates by education should be noted.

Table 6.5 Marginalisation by country and health, persons 20-64 years, per cent, 2006-15

		2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Denmark	Good health	2.2	1.6	1.1	0.9	1.7	1.9	2.3	4.7	2.9	2.0
	Fair health	3.2	3.7	1.7	1.6	4.7	2.7	3.5	4.3	3.8	2.0
	Bad health	5.6	4.0	4.1	3.8	3.5	1.7	5.4	5.7	5.8	2.4
Finland	Good health	5.6	5.0	5.6	5.7	6.1	6.3	5.7	4.5	5.4	6.5
	Fair health	5.0	7.7	6.7	6.3	6.4	7.4	6.0	5.7	6.3	8.4
	Bad health	12.2	7.9	11.3	6.8	9.4	9.2	8.5	10.9	8.4	9.4
Iceland	Good health	1.1	0.7	1.6	1.2	4.5	2.7	3.2	2.3	2.2	2.0
	Fair health	1.8	3.2	10.5	1.1	8.2	3.6	4.2	4.5	7.4	4.0
	Bad health	6.9	7.3	8.2	5.0	2.1	4.8	12.7	8.3	9.2	7.8
Norway	Good health	2.4	2.4	1.6	1.6	1.1	1.4	1.2	0.9	0.8	1.3
	Fair health	2.5	2.7	3.0	4.3	2.7	1.6	1.9	1.7	1.6	2.7
	Bad health	4.4	2.7	3.9	3.9	7.0	2.1	2.4	3.4	1.8	0.7
Sweden	Good health	2.3	2.0	1.9	2.9	2.7	2.9	2.3	2.4	2.2	1.7
	Fair health	2.1	1.4	3.0	2.2	3.4	4.0	1.7	4.9	1.9	2.0
	Bad health	2.7	1.8	3.2	2.3	1.2	5.3	5.8	3.8	4.8	4.4

Source: EU-SILC User Database 2006-15

When it comes to marginalisation, immigration has very little effect when controlling for other characteristics (Appendix Table 6.6). Still, Table 6.6 shows interesting difference in prevalence by country of birth. Even though differences to a large extent may be explained by other personal characteristics, there are differences between native-born persons and those born abroad.

In Denmark, being born abroad, either in the EU or outside, has no significant effect on marginalisation in any year from 2011 to 2015. Still, Table 6.6 indicates a prevailing difference between those born abroad and those born in Denmark from 2011. In Finland, there are two exceptions indicating significant effects on the regression. In 2013, those born in another EU-country and in 2015, those born outside the EU had higher probabilities of being marginalised compared to native-born persons. Prevalence rates in the period from 2006 to 2015 are constantly highest for persons born outside the EU, and lowest for native-born persons. In Iceland, we find the lowest marginalisation rates among native-born person most years. Rates are highest for persons born in the EU, except for 2013, when 6 per cent of persons born outside the EU were marginalised.

There are also a few cases of significant effects of being born abroad on marginalisation in Norway when controlling for other personal characteristics. Based on prevalence rates, those born outside the EU are more exposed to marginalisation than others, resembling the situation in Denmark. Also in Sweden, persons born outside the EU seem to be more exposed to marginalisation than others. The prevalence rate for this group is higher than for others in all years, but the effect in the regression-model is only significant in 2013 and 2015. In 2015, the model also indicates a positive effect, meaning those being born in the EU are at lower risk of being marginalised compared to native-born persons. This is confirmed by a lower marginalisation rate for those born in the EU than for Swedish born persons. This is also the case in other years.

Immigrants, mainly those born outside the EU, are more exposed to being on the fringes of the labour market, and it is a challenge for welfare states to integrate

them fully and prevent them from being excluded. Our analysis indicates that this might have to do with other personal characteristics, especially age.

Table 6.6 Marginalisation by country and country of birth, persons 20-64 years, per cent, 2006-15

		2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Denmark	Born in the country	2.2	1.5	1.2	1.0	2.0	1.2	2.1	2.6	2.3	1.8
	Born in the EU	6.5	2.1	0.1	0.0	1.0	1.4	4.6	3.8	2.4	3.8
	Born outside the EU	2.3	1.6	1.0	0.7	2.8	2.4	4.3	4.8	3.0	2.8
Finland	Born in the country	5.6	5.7	5.4	5.6	6.0	5.9	5.1	4.9	5.5	6.0
	Born in the EU	9.7	9.3	11.4	7.5	9.3	6.1	9.4	7.9	8.7	10.1
	Born outside the EU	16.1	11.7	14.5	18.1	19.1	12.6	16.8	13.5	11.7	15.9
Iceland	Born in the country	1.2	1.1	1.9	1.6	3.7	2.8	3.2	2.5	2.7	2.3
	Born in the EU	2.7	1.3	4.2	0.8	5.5	3.9	6.2	3.8	4.5	3.3
	Born outside the EU	2.1	0.6	2.9	1.9	4.9	4.2	4.7	5.6	3.4	2.7
Norway	Born in the country	2.1	1.9	1.7	1.8	1.4	1.1	1.2	1.0	0.9	1.0
	Born in the EU	3.7	2.6	1.9	2.7	2.0	0.4	2.3	1.1	1.8	0.9
	Born outside the EU	4.2	3.2	4.1	3.4	2.2	1.7	2.6	2.4	1.7	2.0
Sweden	Born in the country	1.9	1.8	1.9	2.5	2.5	2.8	2.1	2.1	2.1	1.6
	Born in the EU	2.7	1.2	1.9	1.8	1.8	2.7	2.8	1.8	2.2	0.7
	Born outside the EU	4.4	4.3	3.9	3.9	3.8	2.9	3.5	6.1	3.4	3.2

Source: EU-SILC User Database 2006-15

Characteristics affecting Exclusion and Disabled, unable to work

Exclusion and disability are best analysed together, as they are different reasons for being excluded from the labour market.⁹ We apply the same regression model as for marginalisation (Appendix Tables A6.7 and A6.8).

Gender is of limited importance when explaining exclusion and disability in Denmark. Our regression model shows no significant effects of gender on the probability of being excluded. Only in 2011 and 2015 do we find significant effects indicating that being a woman increases the risk of disability when controlling for other characteristics. Regardless of the effect from the regression, prevalence rates for exclusion and disability are higher for women than for men (Table 6.7). This gender gap is wider for disability than for exclusion, and for the latter, the gender gap has been reduced after 2008.

In Iceland, gender is important in analysing disability. The disability rate for women is more than 2 percentage points higher than for men in recent years. The

⁹ Percentages of excluded and disabled or unfit to work are also mutually exclusive and additive, and can represent a total of 'excluded or disabled'.

gender gap in exclusion seems to be reduced from 2007, but increases again in 2013 and 2014 because of opposite trends among men and women. Regression analysis also indicates significant effects from gender these two years.

The regression shows quite similar results for Norway and Sweden in that women are more exposed to both exclusion and disability than men, although the effect is not significant all years when other characteristics are taken into consideration. The gender gap for both exclusion and disability in Norway has been reduced during the period covered in our table. Also in Sweden, the prevalence of both exclusion and disability is generally higher among women than men, but as this gap fluctuates a bit from year to year, there is no clear trend indicating changes.

Finland differs from the other countries as there are no significant gender effects on disability from our regression model. Finland is the only Nordic country with almost no gap in disability rates between men and women. On the other hand, women are more exposed to exclusion than men in Finland, although the difference in exclusion rates has been reduced after 2009.

We conclude that Nordic women are more at risk of being both excluded from the labour market and disabled or unable to work than men are. The only exception being Finland, where there is no effect of gender on disability. When controlling for other personal characteristics, we still find that gender may not be the most important explanatory variable. This may be caused by including the effect of health in our regression analysis. As will be seen in Chapter 7, women are more likely to have impaired health compared to men, and this may diminish the effect of gender in the analysis of exclusion and disability.

Table 6.7 Exclusion and Disabled or unable to work, by country and gender, persons 20-64 years, per cent, 2006-15

	Denmark		Finland		Iceland		Norway		Sweden	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
Excluded										
2006	1.9	3.9	4.3	6.0	0.7	2.3	0.8	3.3	1.5	2.5
2007	1.7	3.5	4.1	6.3	0.2	2.1	1.1	2.8	1.5	2.5
2008	0.9	3.3	3.5	5.6	0.8	1.9	0.6	2.5	1.8	2.2
2009	1.2	1.7	3.3	5.9	1.3	2.2	0.8	2.5	1.9	2.1
2010	2.5	2.6	4.8	6.3	1.9	2.8	0.9	2.1	1.9	2.6
2011	1.6	2.0	3.9	5.5	2.0	2.9	1.0	1.9	2.4	3.2
2012	1.5	2.2	3.7	5.5	2.4	2.7	0.8	2.2	2.4	3.2
2013	1.6	2.7	3.8	5.2	1.4	3.2	0.8	1.9	2.8	3.3
2014	1.6	2.7	4.4	5.2	1.0	3.0	1.0	2.1	2.3	3.0
2015	1.6	2.5	4.7	5.2	1.1	2.3	1.0	2.1	2.0	2.6
Disabled, unable to work										
2006	3.1	5.4	5.2	5.3	1.3	3.2	3.8	6.5	3.4	4.1
2007	3.4	5.5	5.5	5.4	1.1	3.1	3.9	6.8	3.0	4.7
2008	3.9	5.6	5.0	5.3	1.7	3.1	3.8	5.3	2.4	3.3
2009	3.8	5.7	5.6	5.2	1.2	2.9	3.9	5.4	2.1	3.1
2010	3.8	6.2	4.8	4.1	1.9	3.9	3.9	6.1	2.7	3.5
2011	2.0	5.3	3.4	3.1	1.8	3.9	3.0	4.6	2.0	2.8
2012	2.4	5.0	4.3	3.9	1.9	4.1	3.0	4.5	1.6	2.8
2013	3.1	5.5	3.9	3.8	1.9	4.3	2.6	3.7	1.6	2.4
2014	3.0	5.4	3.5	3.3	1.8	3.9	2.9	4.7	1.0	2.0
2015	2.1	4.7	3.1	3.1	1.7	4.2	2.8	4.5	0.7	1.5

Source: EU-SILC User Database 2006-15

For disability, age is an important explanatory variable, and there seems to be a linear correlation between increasing age and probability of being disabled. When controlling for other characteristics and using 35-44 years as the reference group, younger persons are less exposed to disability, and older persons are more exposed (Appendix Table A6.8). One might think that this was due to age-related differences in health, but we include health in our model, which should counteract this effect. But since our health indicator is quite simple, this might still be part of the explanation.

The age-effect on exclusion is more scattered and ambiguous, and our regression reveals no clear pattern of effects in any of the countries in 2011-2015 (Appendix Table 6.7). Since age has a small effect on exclusion, we will not go into prevalence rates by age for this indicator, other than mentioning that the only clear pattern is that in Sweden - we find the highest rates for the youngest throughout all ten years. In the other countries, rates for age-groups differ more from one year to another. Figures are found in Appendix Table A6.9.

The highest percentages of disabled are found in the 55-64 years-age group in all countries in all ten years. It is worth noticing that the reduction in disability that we observed in all Nordic countries during the last few years, except for Iceland, is mainly caused by a reduction in this oldest age group. Self-reported disability for 55-64 years old has dropped between 5 to 7 percentage points in four of the Nordic countries when comparing the 2015 rate to the highest rate in preceding years. These

are significant changes and relevant for challenges to welfare states as populations are ageing.

Table 6.8 Disabled or unable to work by age, persons 20-64 years, per cent, 2006-15

	Years	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Denmark	20-24	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.8	0.6	0.7	0.7	..
	25-34	1.6	0.9	0.2	0.4	0.7	0.8	0.6	0.5	1.2	1.0
	35-44	2.0	2.3	2.6	2.8	2.2	2.2	1.7	2.2	1.8	1.9
	45-54	5.2	5.0	5.7	5.6	6.0	2.8	3.5	4.0	3.7	2.9
	55-64	9.9	11.2	12.0	12.0	12.2	8.1	7.6	8.7	8.7	7.1
Finland	20-24	1.2	0.7	0.5	1.3	1.2	1.0	1.1	0.9	0.9	1.2
	25-34	1.7	1.9	1.0	1.2	0.9	1.5	1.7	1.5	2.0	1.6
	35-44	1.7	1.9	2.0	2.3	2.1	1.1	1.8	2.1	1.9	1.5
	45-54	5.4	5.3	4.5	4.9	4.6	2.4	2.6	2.5	2.5	2.1
	55-64	13.7	13.8	14.1	13.8	10.7	7.4	9.5	8.8	7.1	6.8
Iceland	20-24	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.5	0.7	0.4	0.8	0.4	0.8
	25-34	1.2	0.7	1.4	0.9	1.4	2.0	1.1	0.9	0.8	1.1
	35-44	1.6	1.5	1.0	0.7	2.2	1.4	2.0	2.6	2.0	2.5
	45-54	2.6	2.3	3.5	2.7	3.7	3.3	3.0	3.4	4.0	3.7
	55-64	5.5	5.7	5.6	5.7	6.0	6.5	7.8	7.0	5.8	5.5
Norway	20-24	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.5	0.8	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	1.0
	25-34	1.5	1.8	1.1	1.8	1.7	1.0	1.3	1.1	1.6	1.6
	35-44	3.0	2.4	2.2	2.6	2.8	2.2	2.4	1.4	2.4	2.3
	45-54	4.9	5.2	4.2	5.2	6.1	4.3	4.0	3.1	3.8	3.7
	55-64	13.8	15.0	13.6	11.7	11.8	8.6	8.3	7.9	8.2	7.7
Sweden	20-24	0.6	0.4	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.6	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.5
	25-34	1.4	1.3	0.8	0.6	1.1	0.5	0.3	0.5	0.6	0.2
	35-44	2.3	1.8	1.1	1.3	1.2	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.5	0.6
	45-54	4.1	4.3	2.4	2.5	3.2	2.5	2.6	2.4	1.8	1.2
	55-64	8.7	9.5	8.0	6.9	8.3	6.0	5.5	4.8	3.6	2.6

Source: EU-SILC User Database 2006-15

Having primary education compared to higher education significantly increases the risk of being excluded and, especially disabled, even when controlling for other characteristics. This finding from our regression model is significant for all countries and all years from 2011 to 2015, with a small exception for Iceland where the importance of education when explaining exclusion has diminished in recent years. Education is still one of the most important variables when explaining differences in exclusion and disability.

In all years for all the countries, the highest rates for both exclusion and disability are found among those with only primary education (Table 6.9). There are also quite consistently higher rates among those with secondary education compared to those with primary education. As indicated by the regression (Appendix Tables A6.7 and A6.8), differences by education are more visible for disability than for exclusion.

Table 6.9 Exclusion and disabled or unable to work by education, persons 20-64 years, per cent, 2006-15

		2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Excluded											
Denmark	Primary education (or less)	4.8	4.4	3.1	2.6	6.7	3.9	3.8	3.7	4.2	4.5
	Secondary education	1.6	1.4	1.4	0.8	1.5	1.5	1.9	2.0	2.0	2.0
	Tertiary education	2.4	2.0	1.6	1.1	0.8	1.1	0.8	1.7	1.4	1.1
Finland	Primary education (or less)	8.8	8.4	7.9	7.6	9.1	8.2	8.4	8.1	10.0	9.9
	Secondary education	4.5	5.3	4.5	4.4	5.3	4.9	4.8	5.1	5.3	5.1
	Tertiary education	3.2	3.1	2.4	2.6	3.0	3.0	2.8	2.6	2.8	3.1
Iceland	Primary education (or less)	2.1	1.3	2.2	2.5	3.3	3.3	3.9	3.3	2.7	2.8
	Secondary education	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.5	1.0	2.3	2.3	2.5	1.7	1.3
	Tertiary education	1.0	0.7	0.5	1.4	0.7	1.7	1.4	1.2	1.8	1.3
Norway	Primary education (or less)	3.7	3.4	2.7	2.9	2.9	4.0	3.8	4.3	4.1	4.7
	Secondary education	1.5	1.3	1.0	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.1	0.9	1.4	1.1
	Tertiary education	0.6	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.9	0.7	0.7	0.8
Sweden	Primary education (or less)	3.7	4.2	4.9	4.8	5.2	8.5	8.4	8.7	6.8	6.2
	Secondary education	1.6	1.6	1.5	1.9	2.2	2.4	2.5	3.1	2.6	2.3
	Tertiary education	1.2	1.4	1.4	1.1	1.2	1.8	1.6	1.6	1.4	1.0
Disabled, unable to work											
Denmark	Primary education (or less)	9.8	9.4	10.1	10.7	11.5	9.1	9.8	11.5	11.1	9.1
	Secondary education	2.5	2.9	2.8	3.1	2.8	2.8	2.9	3.5	3.3	2.7
	Tertiary education	1.7	2.3	2.7	2.3	2.5	2.0	1.9	2.1	2.3	2.0
Finland	Primary education (or less)	12.8	12.7	12.2	13.7	12.2	9.0	11.3	11.1	9.9	8.3
	Secondary education	4.8	5.0	4.9	5.1	4.4	3.2	4.1	4.0	3.6	3.3
	Tertiary education	1.5	1.6	1.8	1.9	1.3	1.1	1.5	1.4	1.2	1.2
Iceland	Primary education (or less)	4.0	4.6	5.2	4.3	6.3	5.9	6.6	7.2	6.8	6.7
	Secondary education	1.8	1.4	2.0	1.5	2.2	2.2	1.9	2.4	1.9	2.3
	Tertiary education	0.5	0.2	0.1	0.4	0.4	0.8	1.0	0.4	0.7	0.7
Norway	Primary education (or less)	10.7	11.0	9.3	10.5	12.9	9.9	10.7	8.2	9.5	9.7
	Secondary education	5.0	5.3	4.5	4.5	5.1	3.9	3.6	3.7	4.0	3.8
	Tertiary education	1.5	1.5	2.0	1.7	1.1	1.4	1.2	0.8	1.3	1.1
Sweden	Primary education (or less)	10.1	10.6	6.7	7.5	9.1	7.3	6.1	7.2	4.6	3.0
	Secondary education	3.7	3.7	2.9	2.6	3.2	2.5	2.4	2.1	1.5	1.3
	Tertiary education	1.0	1.1	0.7	0.9	0.9	0.7	0.9	0.6	0.4	0.3

Source: EU-SILC User Database 2006-15

In Finland, Norway and Sweden, being born outside the EU compared to being native-born, implies a significant increased risk of being excluded, other characteristics taken into consideration. This is not the case in Denmark and Iceland (Appendix Table A6.7). Comparing persons born in the EU to native-born persons in the Nordic countries, few significant effects are found. The ones found mostly indicate that persons born in the EU are less in danger of being excluded. As the risk of being disabled or unable to work is highly dependent on age, the fact that the immigrant population is in general younger compared to the rest of the population may partly explain why there are ambiguous effects from country of birth on disability in the Nordic countries.

The increased probability of being excluded from the labour market for persons born outside the EU, is supported by looking at the rates by country of birth (Table 6.10). In all the Nordic countries, exclusion rates are higher for persons born outside the EU compared to both native-born persons and persons born in the EU. Even in Denmark and in Iceland, where effects from the regression model were weak, we observe prevailing differences by country of birth. Exclusion among persons born outside the EU is most widespread in Finland. In 2015, the rate was 19 per cent, significantly higher than 5 per cent for native-born persons and 4 per cent for persons born in the EU. Both in Norway and Sweden, 7 per cent of persons born outside the EU were excluded in 2015.

Even though country of birth showed few significant effects on disability in our regression model, disability rates in Denmark are higher for persons born abroad compared to native-born persons, especially in the period 2009 to 2013 for immigrants born outside the EU. In Norway, disability rates for persons born outside the EU are generally higher than for the rest of the population from 2012 onwards. Prior to 2012, disability rates were typically highest among native-born persons. This may indicate a shift in the relative exposure of groups. In Finland, disability rates are mainly highest for native-born persons, except in 2015 where the rate is higher for persons born in the EU, and the rate for persons born outside the EU is typically below or close to 2 per cent. In Iceland, these different rates fluctuate from one year to another, and combined with a small number of observations makes it difficult to conclude on differences by country of birth. Although effects on the regression were weak in Sweden, there is a constant relationship whereby rates are highest for persons born in the EU, followed by those persons born outside the EU and finally, native-born persons. Also, disability rates for all three groups are falling.

Since disability is closely connected to age and education, reasons for these diverging patterns in the Nordic countries may partially be due to demographic differences in the immigrant populations, as pointed out in Chapter 2. It is also important to repeat that this is a subjective definition of disability, not dependent on any earned rights for benefits. Therefore, these disability rates may be more influenced by other factors in the labour market than rates for recipients of public disability benefits.

Table 6.10 Exclusion and Disabled or unable to work by country of birth, persons 20-64 years, per cent, 2006-15

		2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Excluded											
Denmark	Born in the country	2.5	2.2	1.7	1.2	2.3	1.6	1.8	1.9	2.0	1.9
	Born in the EU	0.0	5.5	2.0	2.6	2.5	1.4	0.8	4.6	0.8	3.0
	Born outside the EU	10.0	9.4	9.3	4.2	6.5	6.1	3.5	6.5	5.4	5.0
Finland	Born in the country	4.7	4.9	4.3	4.0	4.9	4.4	4.3	4.3	4.6	4.7
	Born in the EU	9.6	7.4	6.2	10.9	5.4	6.8	5.5	4.9	6.3	3.9
	Born outside the EU	20.8	21.0	16.9	22.6	26.3	22.4	21.7	19.4	16.6	18.9
Iceland	Born in the country	1.3	0.9	1.2	3.2	2.1	2.2	1.2	2.0	1.9	1.6
	Born in the EU	2.8	3.0	3.1	1.6	2.4	3.8	0.6	5.2	2.8	1.6
	Born outside the EU	5.7	4.2	3.1	4.2	8.2	6.3	7.8	6.1	4.4	5.2
Norway	Born in the country	1.6	1.4	1.2	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.0	1.3	1.3
	Born in the EU	1.8	0.7	0.7	1.3	1.1	1.3	0.6	2.4	1.8	1.4
	Born outside the EU	8.3	10.3	7.9	11.2	7.6	7.5	7.8	6.0	5.4	6.8
Sweden	Born in the country	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.7	2.1	1.8	2.2	1.8	1.6
	Born in the EU	3.2	2.3	3.5	1.8	1.8	2.7	5.1	2.5	4.1	3.5
	Born outside the EU	9.1	8.4	7.6	7.4	7.5	9.9	10.2	10.1	9.0	6.8
Disabled, unable to work											
Denmark	Born in the country	4.2	4.4	4.7	4.5	4.7	4.1	3.5	3.5	4.1	4.1
	Born in the EU	3.0	5.5	5.2	4.0	5.2	7.9	5.0	4.6	5.3	6.3
	Born outside the EU	5.7	5.5	5.9	8.4	8.8	6.3	7.8	9.0	9.5	6.0
Finland	Born in the country	5.4	5.6	5.3	5.5	4.6	4.1	3.3	4.1	3.9	3.4
	Born in the EU	2.3	2.6	3.4	3.9	3.0	1.3	1.4	2.2	1.0	1.9
	Born outside the EU	2.0	1.8	0.3	1.7	1.8	1.1	1.6	1.0	2.1	3.0
Iceland	Born in the country	2.3	2.1	2.5	2.1	2.9	2.9	3.7	3.1	3.1	3.1
	Born in the EU	1.2	1.0	0.0	1.0	0.4	3.3	1.9	3.0	..	0.4
	Born outside the EU	1.9	1.3	3.0	1.9	4.0	2.6	6.2	3.1	1.7	2.6
Norway	Born in the country	5.2	5.5	4.7	5.0	5.2	4.1	3.9	3.7	3.2	3.8
	Born in the EU	4.8	2.5	0.7	2.1	2.8	1.8	2.2	1.9	1.4	2.3
	Born outside the EU	4.4	4.4	2.4	2.6	3.3	2.1	3.7	6.2	4.8	4.2
Sweden	Born in the country	3.3	3.3	2.5	2.4	2.8	2.9	2.2	2.0	1.7	1.2
	Born in the EU	7.7	11.2	7.7	4.6	7.2	6.8	6.3	5.1	5.0	3.4
	Born outside the EU	6.4	5.9	3.4	3.2	4.0	2.6	2.6	2.9	3.2	2.8

Source: EU-SILC User Database 2006-15

Health is of course essential to explain disability, but also in explaining exclusion. The rates for both indicators are constantly higher for those with poor health compared to both good and fair health, in all Nordic countries (Table 6.11), and the regression also indicates that health is the most important explanatory variable, even when controlling for, among other things, age and education. The main effect for both disability and exclusion is found for persons reporting bad health, but our analysis also indicates that persons reporting fair health are more at risk of being excluded or disabled compared to persons reporting good health.

Exclusion rates for persons reporting bad health are persistently higher than for others, although there are a few exceptions (Table 6.11). Disability rates have fallen among persons reporting bad health in Sweden after 2009 and in Finland after 2007. In Denmark, Norway and Iceland, we cannot see clear signs of development. These results nevertheless indicate that including persons with impaired health in the labour market is a prevailing challenge to welfare states. Health in connection to labour market participation will be more thoroughly discussed in the next chapter.

Table 6.11 Exclusion and Disabled or unable to work by general health, persons 20-64 years, per cent, 2006-15

		2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Excluded											
Denmark	Good health	2.4	1.6	1.2	1.1	1.3	1.8	1.5	2.1	1.2	2.3
	Fair health	3.7	3.5	6.3	3.7	5.3	2.5	4.1	5.7	5.6	3.4
	Bad health	13.2	15.6	5.3	4.0	18.9	10.3	9.5	9.0	11.2	15.0
Finland	Good health	4.6	4.2	4.3	4.0	5.1	5.0	4.4	4.3	4.5	4.7
	Fair health	7.3	8.3	7.3	7.6	7.6	7.8	8.7	8.1	11.8	10.2
	Bad health	13.3	11.2	6.7	12.1	8.2	13.8	10.3	10.0	12.6	19.8
Iceland	Good health	1.0	0.5	0.7	0.9	1.4	1.7	2.3	1.8	1.5	1.0
	Fair health	2.5	2.5	2.9	3.3	4.9	1.5	3.2	2.9	4.3	3.3
	Bad health	7.9	1.0	3.4	16.3	6.4	6.1	4.8	6.1	8.1	10.4
Norway	Good health	1.4	1.9	1.4	1.2	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.0	1.2
	Fair health	1.6	1.4	0.5	2.7	1.6	2.9	2.2	1.8	2.1	2.1
	Bad health	4.4	2.1	1.6	3.9	2.9	3.6	6.2	4.4	4.8	6.9
Sweden	Good health	1.5	1.4	1.3	1.6	1.5	2.0	1.9	2.4	2.1	1.5
	Fair health	3.5	2.6	3.2	2.8	3.0	5.2	4.8	5.3	3.7	3.3
	Bad health	4.3	3.5	8.0	6.5	10.7	16.8	6.6	10.9	11.9	8.6
Disabled, unable to work											
Denmark	Good health	1.0	1.2	1.2	0.9	1.4	1.0	0.9	0.6	1.1	0.6
	Fair health	12.6	15.1	11.2	12.7	12.1	9.6	6.6	11.4	8.7	7.5
	Bad health	33.2	27.7	39.8	35.1	30.1	32.9	36.0	39.8	40.2	31.8
Finland	Good health	2.4	1.6	1.2	1.6	1.5	1.6	1.5	1.3	1.4	1.7
	Fair health	11.3	14.3	13.9	16.7	13.7	12.2	11.8	11.6	13.9	12.1
	Bad health	30.3	43.3	40.7	37.3	36.1	27.4	36.0	33.2	23.7	26.3
Iceland	Good health	0.3	0.1	0.3	0.5	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3
	Fair health	9.1	6.6	9.7	8.1	12.7	6.1	9.9	8.1	5.1	6.7
	Bad health	34.1	29.7	36.8	27.8	40.5	35.8	37.7	41.9	39.5	39.5
Norway	Good health	1.6	1.8	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.2	1.3	1.0	0.9	1.6
	Fair health	12.7	14.2	10.4	10.3	12.6	9.6	12.4	9.4	10.0	12.0
	Bad health	32.1	32.2	30.0	33.3	33.4	29.2	26.0	24.7	29.6	27.9
Sweden	Good health	0.9	1.1	1.5	1.1	1.2	0.9	0.9	0.7	0.4	0.2
	Fair health	12.5	12.0	14.6	13.2	13.7	11.1	9.3	9.3	5.8	5.7
	Bad health	25.4	29.2	34.2	37.6	30.6	22.5	27.6	21.3	19.7	9.5

Source: EU-SILC User Database 2006-15

Part-time work

Part-time work may be a challenge to welfare states as it represents an unused potential for work. To some extent, part-time work represents an adaptation related to the characteristics of the individual employee, such as individual preferences, personal skills and opportunities in the labour market and position in the family and society. Part-time work is also a characteristic feature of certain sectors. Some businesses are, more than others, organised with short work sessions implicating demand for employees willing to work part-time, also often outside normal working hours. Work may be spread over more employees than in sectors where full-time work is standard. This occurs typically in female dominated sectors such as service and care, where it is convenient for the employer to operate with fixed part-time positions for the organisation to function smoothly. In this way, the extent of part-time work in society reflects the mutual adaptation between those demanding the labour and those providing their labour in different arrangements of working hours (Kjeldstad and Nymoen, 2004:9).

Employment and part-time work are also linked to family policies in a country. Family policies in the Nordic countries are aimed at facilitating full gender equality in working life for parents with young children. Good parental leave arrangements and expanding kindergarten capacities are policy instruments to achieve these goals. These are elements contributing to high levels of employment among women in the Nordic countries. Still, part-time work is quite common. In this part of the chapter, we will describe the extent and different characteristics of part-time work.

Part-time - high rates in four Nordic countries

Statistics from LFS state that in four of the Nordic countries, part-time employment rates were higher than the EU28 average of 20 per cent in 2016 (Appendix Table A6.10). These are Denmark (26 per cent), Norway (26 per cent), Iceland (24 per cent) and Sweden (24 per cent). Still, part-time rates in countries like the Netherlands and Switzerland far exceed the Nordic level. The part-time rate in Finland (15 per cent) is low compared to the other Nordic countries, and even well below the EU28 average.

Part-time work is more common for women than for men in all European countries. In a Nordic context, the part-time rate for women is quite low in Finland, 20 per cent in 2016. Corresponding rates range from 36 to 38 per cent in the other Nordic countries.

In Denmark, Finland and Iceland, part-time rates in 2016 were higher than they were in 2006 and 07. In Sweden, the part-time rate in 2016 was almost equal to the rate in 2006. In all these four countries, part-time rates increased, at least temporary, after the financial crisis. In Norway, there has been a small but quite steady decrease in part-time rates from 2006 to 2016.

There are different trends for men and women (Table 6.12). In all the Nordic countries, part-time rates for men were higher in 2016 than in 2006. Rates have also increased for women in Denmark and Finland, and to a small degree in Iceland. In Sweden, and even more so in Norway, part-time rates for women have decreased during this period of ten years.

Table 6.12 Part-time employment, percentage of total employment 15 to 64 years, by gender, 2006-16

	Denmark	Finland	Iceland	Norway	Sweden
<i>Men</i>					
2006	12.3	8.6	..	12.9	10.3
2007	12.4	8.3	8.7	12.8	10.3
2008	13.3	7.9	9.1	13.4	11.9
2009	14.3	8.3	11.6	14.1	12.6
2010	14.0	8.9	11.2	14.2	12.7
2011	14.2	9.4	9.9	13.7	12.3
2012	14.8	9.1	10.9	14.3	12.5
2013	14.8	8.8	10.7	14.2	12.8
2014	15.2	9.2	11.3	13.7	12.8
2015	15.6	9.7	11.9	14.8	13.2
2016	16.8	10.0	12.3	14.9	13.0
<i>Women</i>					
2006	34.9	18.7	..	44.8	38.3
2007	35.1	18.8	36.0	43.5	38.0
2008	35.6	17.8	33.1	42.9	40.8
2009	37.2	18.5	35.5	42.6	40.5
2010	38.1	19.0	34.5	42.3	40.3
2011	37.0	19.0	31.7	42.1	39.3
2012	35.8	19.4	31.3	41.3	38.6
2013	35.3	19.4	31.6	41.0	37.7
2014	35.0	19.3	35.3	38.7	37.2
2015	34.7	18.7	35.5	38.3	36.3
2016	36.9	20.2	36.8	38.0	35.6
<i>Total</i>					
2006	22.9	13.5	..	28.0	23.6
2007	23.0	13.4	21.1	27.4	23.5
2008	23.8	12.7	20.1	27.4	25.7
2009	25.2	13.3	23.0	27.7	26.0
2010	25.6	13.8	22.4	27.6	25.8
2011	25.1	14.1	20.5	27.2	25.2
2012	24.8	14.1	20.7	27.2	25.0
2013	24.7	14.0	20.8	26.9	24.7
2014	24.6	14.1	22.9	25.6	24.5
2015	24.7	14.1	23.3	26.0	24.3
2016	26.4	14.9	24.0	26.0	23.9

Source: Eurostat, LFS. Extracted on 28.06.17

When we use EU-SILC data, we see the prevalence of part-time work in the population aged 20-64 years (Table 6.13). By presenting part-time work as a percentage of the population, as opposed to a percentage of the employed, rates are lower, and for some the main trends are the same, although we see some discrepancies.

These discrepancies are mainly in part-time rates for women in Denmark, where Table 6.12 and 6.13 indicate different developments after 2008. We especially note the increase in part-time work for women after 2011 when measured as part of the population. For men, both sources indicate a small increase in part-time work for men, most visible from the LFS data. Also in Iceland, we note an increase in

women's part-time work at the end of the period measured by part of the workforce, not mirrored in Table 6.13, and the same trend for men as in Denmark.

For Finland, Norway and Sweden, these two ways of measuring part-time work are more corresponding. In Finland, SILC data indicate stability in part-time rates for men from 2009, following a peak in 2007. For women, the peak was reached in 2009, and there are signs of an increase again in 2014 and 2015. In Norway, part-time work figures from

EU-SILC indicates stable rates for men, a small decrease for women following a small peak in 2011. For Swedish men, the part-time rates are also stable, while an increase in the rate among women in 2008 and 2009 was followed by a quite steady decrease until 2015.

Table 6.13 Part-time work by gender, per cent of persons 20-64 years, 2006-15

	Denmark		Finland		Iceland		Norway		Sweden	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
2006	4.5	19.7	5.6	13.8	3.6	21.2	6.0	25.6	6.4	24.2
2007	4.3	19.9	7.5	14.5	4.5	20.0	4.9	23.7	7.1	26.3
2008	4.1	19.8	6.9	15.0	5.2	19.3	5.6	23.8	7.1	28.4
2009	5.0	17.0	6.1	12.9	6.0	19.3	4.8	22.6	6.9	28.4
2010	5.4	18.1	5.9	12.3	5.5	18.2	5.4	22.9	7.4	26.5
2011	4.0	19.0	6.3	12.7	5.6	19.1	5.7	24.9	7.0	27.4
2012	5.1	26.2	5.9	12.8	5.1	18.8	5.7	23.2	6.9	25.6
2013	5.4	25.6	6.0	12.2	5.3	18.2	4.9	23.4	7.2	24.5
2014	5.5	25.1	6.3	14.3	4.9	18.1	5.7	22.3	7.4	24.6
2015	6.5	26.5	6.6	13.2	4.9	19.2	5.5	21.3	7.3	23.3

Source: EU-SILC User Database 2006-15

Definitions

The question on working hours in EU-SILC is only asked to those with full-time or part-time work as their self-defined economic status at the time of the interview. Consequently, EU-SILC captures fewer "in work" than for example the Labour Force Survey (LFS), which only requires a person to have worked for 1 hour in the reference week to be asked the question about work.

Working hours are mapped by asking how many hours per week the interviewee normally works, including hours of paid overtime and extra work at home connected to this work. Based on self-defined economic status and normal working hours, we have defined full-time and part-time work. Part-time work is defined as working fewer than 32 hours per week, or working 32-36 hours per week, stating that this is part-time work. Full-time work is defined as working 32-36 hours per week, stating that this is full-time work, or working 37 hours or more per week.

We have also differentiated between short (1-19 hours) and long (20-36 hours) part-time work. In cases where there is a discrepancy between the information on full-time/part-time in the question on economic status and the question on working hours, the question on working hours has been decisive.

The previous reports (Normann, Rønning and Nørgaard 2009 and 2013) concentrated on part-time as a challenge mainly concerning women. As this report pays special attention to challenges caused by immigration, we also use EU-SILC data

to describe part-time work for immigrants. Part-time work can be viewed both as a path towards integration, but also as involuntary and an unused potential for work.

In the interpretation of part-time rates, rates in or out of work are also important. Both men and women born outside the EU are more frequently out of work than native-born persons and those born in the EU, the exceptions being Danish men, where there is no significant difference in out of work rate between men born in or outside the EU (Table 6.14), and in Iceland, where we hardly find any significant differences based on country of birth.¹⁰ These differences of course also affect the part-time rates calculated as parts of the population.

The gender gap in part-time rates is also present for immigrants, like the situation for native-born individuals. This is also pointed out by Eurostat:

Comparing the 2015 part-time employment of the non-EU-born men and women population, across the EU Member States for which data are available, the proportions of part-time employment for women were higher than for men

Eurostat 2017a:29

In Denmark, part-time rates for immigrants are higher than for native-born persons, both for men and women, but there is no major difference between immigrants born inside or outside the EU. In Finland, immigrant men, especially those born outside the EU, are more frequently in part-time work than native-born men. Measured as part of the population, this is not the case for women, but as very few women born outside the EU are in work, the part-time rate for those in work is higher for this group than for both native-born and those born in the EU. In Iceland, differences are small and, but among women, part-time rates have increased and reached the level of native-born women in 2015. Among men, there is more variation from one year to another (Appendix Table 6.11).

For Norwegian men, it is a bit more common to work part-time if one is born outside the EU. But also in this group, nine out of ten of those in work are working full time. The situation for Norwegian women is almost like the Finnish. Very few of the women born outside the EU are in work, and thus, the overall part-time rate is low. Among those in work, almost three out of ten Norwegian women are working part-time, regardless of their immigrant status. Again, the situation for Swedish women is almost the same, the in-work rate for those born outside the EU is low, but among those in work, the part-time rate is almost the same as for native-born women. Part-time work is less common among women born in the EU. Among Swedish men, there is no difference between native-born men and those born in the EU regarding part-time. Among men born outside the EU, part-time work is more common, one out of ten are part-time workers.

¹⁰ The number of observations is quite small when dividing those born abroad by gender. As a result, figures have a high degree of uncertainty and must be interpreted with caution, especially when commenting on differences between groups.

Table 6.14 Work by gender and country of birth, per cent of persons 20-64 years, 2015

	Full-time	Part-time	Not in work
Denmark			
Men			
<i>Born in the EU</i>	60.6	13.1	26.3
<i>Born in the country</i>	75.1	6.1	18.8
<i>Born outside the EU</i>	62.1	12.1	25.9
Women			
<i>Born in the EU</i>	44.6	31.3	24.1
<i>Born in the country</i>	48.8	26.3	24.9
<i>Born outside the EU</i>	40.2	25.0	34.8
Finland			
Men			
<i>Born in the EU</i>	71.4	7.9	20.7
<i>Born in the country</i>	66.9	6.5	26.6
<i>Born outside the EU</i>	41.6	10.1	48.3
Women			
<i>Born in the EU</i>	13.2	33.1	13.2
<i>Born in the country</i>	13.2	28.0	13.2
<i>Born outside the EU</i>	34.6	13.2	52.3
Iceland			
Men			
<i>Born in the EU</i>	76.2	4.0	19.8
<i>Born in the country</i>	73.6	4.7	21.7
<i>Born outside the EU</i>	69.4	8.2	22.4
Women			
<i>Born in the EU</i>	56.6	18.9	24.5
<i>Born in the country</i>	52.5	19.1	28.4
<i>Born outside the EU</i>	47.9	19.3	32.8
Norway			
Men			
<i>Born in the EU</i>	83.3	5.8	10.9
<i>Born in the country</i>	77.3	5.4	17.3
<i>Born outside the EU</i>	67.0	6.6	26.4
Women			
<i>Born in the EU</i>	57.8	22.9	19.3
<i>Born in the country</i>	56.6	21.5	21.9
<i>Born outside the EU</i>	41.0	16.4	42.7
Sweden			
Men			
<i>Born in the EU</i>	76.2	6.8	17.0
<i>Born in the country</i>	78.1	7.0	14.9
<i>Born outside the EU</i>	63.9	10.1	26.0
Women			
<i>Born in the EU</i>	59.5	16.7	23.8
<i>Born in the country</i>	59.4	24.1	16.5
<i>Born outside the EU</i>	43.5	19.0	37.5

Source: EU-SILC User Database 2015

As immigrants have different demographic profiles compared to native-born persons, it is relevant to analyse which characteristics increase the probability of being a part-time worker. In addition to gender and age, we have also included education, cohabitation status and health in a model analysing probabilities of being

a part-time worker. Results from a logistic regression are shown in Appendix Table A6.12. Note that this model is designed to test the probability of being a part-time worker as opposed to being full-time worker. We already know from previous analysis that some of the characteristics in the model also increase the probability of being out of work.

There is a clear gender effect affecting part-time work in all Nordic countries in all years. Women have significantly increased probability of being part-time workers, even when controlling for other characteristics. Gender, along with health, are the most important variables explaining part-time work. Being of poor health significantly increases the probability of part-time work in all countries in all years, but there are exceptions for Norway and in Iceland, indicating that health might be of less importance here (more on health and work in Chapter 7).

Part-time work may be a way of establishing oneself in the labour market, illustrated by the fact that the 20-24 year olds are more likely to be part-time workers when being in work, compared to the 35-44 years old group. The effects of being 25-34 years old differ across the Nordic countries, and results are not significant for all years. In Finland, Iceland, Norway and Sweden, the 45-54 year olds are less likely to be part-time workers in all years compared to the 35-44 year olds. The 55-64 year olds seem to have increased probability of part-time work in Norway, while the opposite seems to be the case in Iceland in 2011 and 2012. Thus, there are few signs of part-time work being a common way of slowly retreating from the labour market.

Compared to higher education, finishing education at primary level increases the probability of being part-time worker most years in Finland, Norway and Sweden. In Iceland, we find this effect mostly for secondary education. In Denmark, education show no significant effects on part-time probability.

A main aim for this model is to find out whether being an immigrant affects the probability of being a part-time worker, provided they are in work. As we have seen from Table 6.14, part-time rates do vary for immigrants and non-immigrants, but can these differences be explained by other characteristics?

When controlling for the other characteristics in the model, being an immigrant either born inside or outside the EU has no significant effect on the probability of being a part-time worker, compared to being native-born in Norway. Also, in the other Nordic countries, immigration status seems to be of minor importance when explaining part-time work. In Iceland, being born outside the EU decreases the probability of part-time work in 2012, but as there are no other significant effects, this characteristic must be said to be ignorable. In 2015 and 2012, being born outside the EU simply increased probability of part-time work in Denmark, otherwise there are no significant effects. The same is found in 2011 and 2015 in Sweden, and 2014 and 2015 in Finland. In these countries, being born in the EU also implied a reduced probability of part-time work in 2015 and 2014, respectively.

The main challenge when it comes to immigrants and the labour market is to integrate immigrants into work in the first place. Our analysis does not separate those voluntarily working part-time from those who are involuntarily part-time workers.

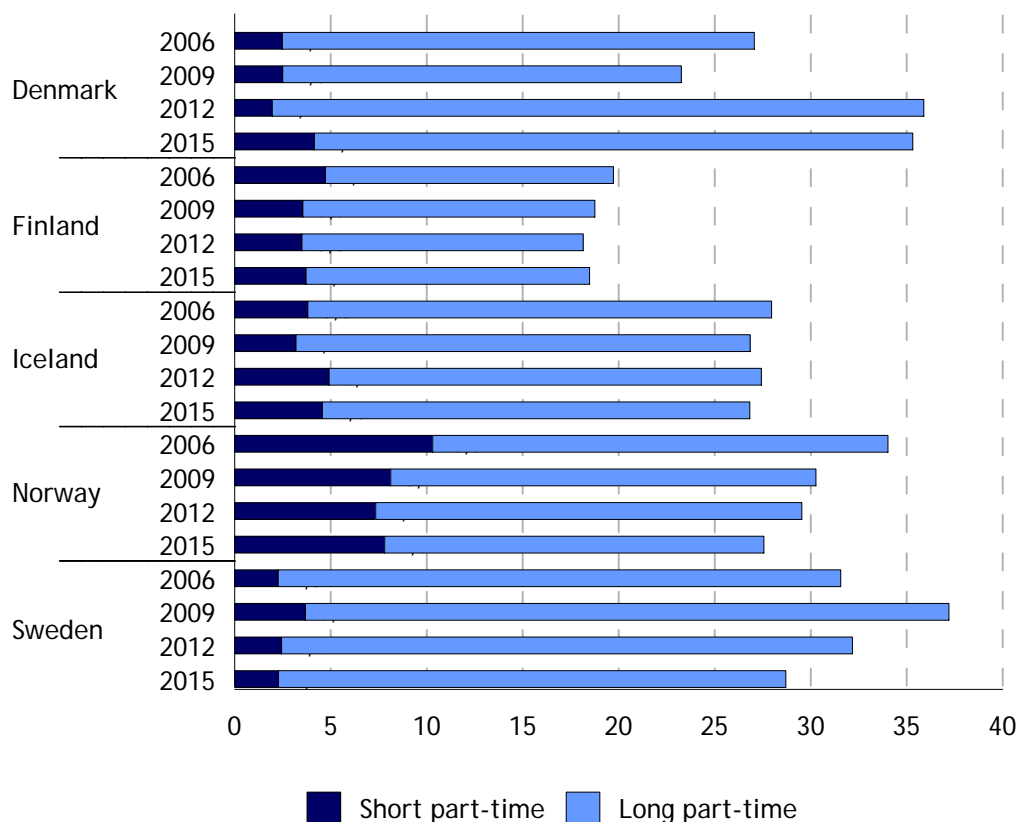
Eurostat have analysed this by using data from a LFS module in 2014, and conclude that there are some interesting differences.

Given these patterns, it is likely that the share of the employees working part-time who are not in this situation by choice is higher in the case of immigrants, particularly when they only have 'non-EU origins'.

Eurostat 2017b: 85

Whether part-time work is to be viewed as a challenge to welfare states or not, and to what degree it represents an unused potential for work, is also influenced by the hours worked part-time. The main part of part-time work is composed by what we define as long part-time, more than 20 hours a week. Figure 6.11, where only women are included, clearly indicates that part-time work from 20 hours a week or more is the most common; short part-time work is less frequent. Although there are some minor fluctuations in the balance between short and long part-time work, the overall picture is stability. In Denmark, the increase in part-time work from 2012 is mainly caused by an approximately 10 percentage point increase in long part-time for women.

Figure 6.11 Short and long part-time work, women 20-64 years old, per cent of persons in work, 2006-15



Source: EU-SILC User Database 2006-15

We have stated that immigration status is of minor importance to part-time work. In addition, limited sample sizes inhibit further analyses of differences in short or long part-time for immigrants. The only significant finding from 2015 is that immigrant part-time workers in Sweden, and part-time workers in Finland who are born outside the EU, tend to work short part-time more often than native-born part-time workers.

Seniors in the labour market

Demographic changes leading to an ageing population in all European countries, is the biggest challenge to the Nordic welfare states. As a result, increasing employment, also in the senior population, is important to enable the funding of welfare states.

What plays a significant role in relation to the costs for the elderly and the disabled is especially the length of time that people remain active in the labour market

(NOSOSKO 2008:101)

From this perspective, indicators on seniors' participation in the labour market are important. Here, we use both available statistics from the Labour Force survey and data from the EU-SILC.

Increasing senior employment

Employment rates for seniors aged 55-64 years old were lower than the overall employment rate (15-64 years) in all European countries in 2016. The EU28 average employment rate for seniors was 55 per cent, 11 percentage points below the overall employment rate (Appendix Tables A6.13 and A6.14). In the Nordic countries, the senior employment rates were higher, and the gap from the overall rate was smaller (Figures 6.12 and 6.13).

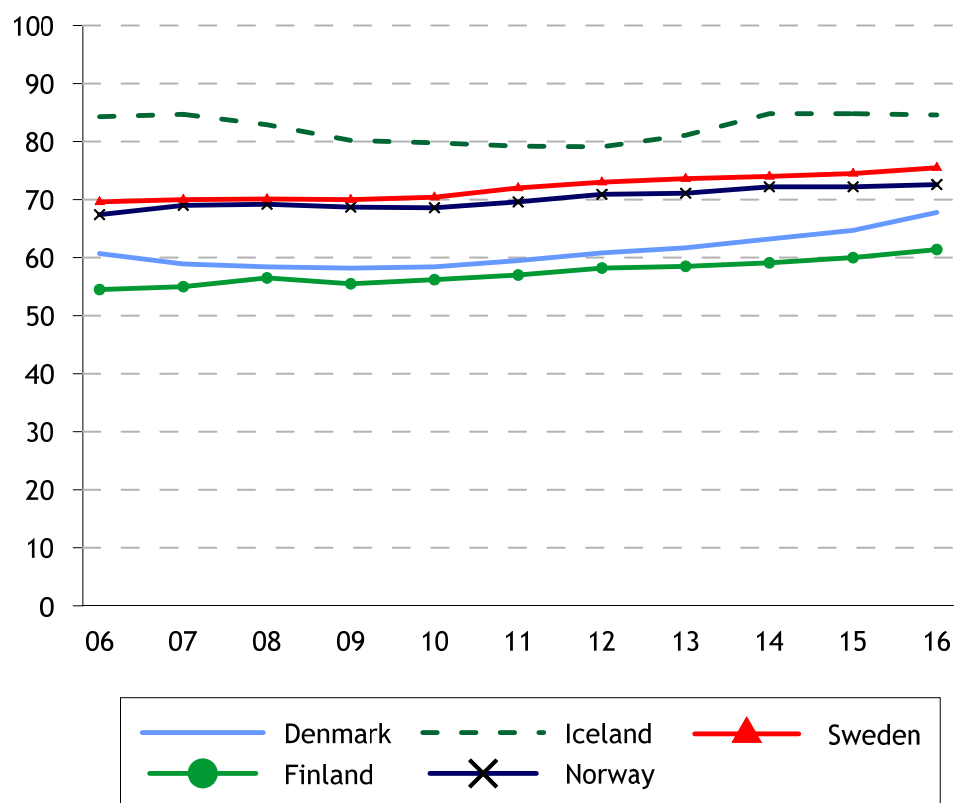
With a senior employment rate of 85 per cent, Iceland was by far the country with the highest rate in Europe in 2016. Sweden (76 per cent) and Norway (73 per cent) follow second and third, also Denmark (68 per cent) and Finland (61 per cent) are above the EU28 average. This also implies that there is a relatively small gap between the senior and the overall rate in the Nordic countries.

In almost all European countries, senior employment was higher in 2016 than in 2006, the only exceptions being Greece and Cyprus. In Germany, senior employment rate rose by 21 percentage points during these years, bringing Germany to fifth place in Europe with a rate of 69 per cent. Also, countries like Poland, Italy, Austria, Slovakia and Netherlands have experienced a high increase in senior employment rates.

In the Nordic countries, senior employment rates were also higher in 2016 than they were in 2006 due to an almost steady increase since 2008. The exception is Iceland, where rates fell following the financial crisis before reaching the pre-crisis level again after 2012. Since Nordic rates were already comparatively high in 2006, the increase in percentage points from 2006 is not at the same level as in some other European countries. In Iceland, for example, the rate in 2016 was only 0.3 percentage points higher than in 2006, but was still the highest in Europe.

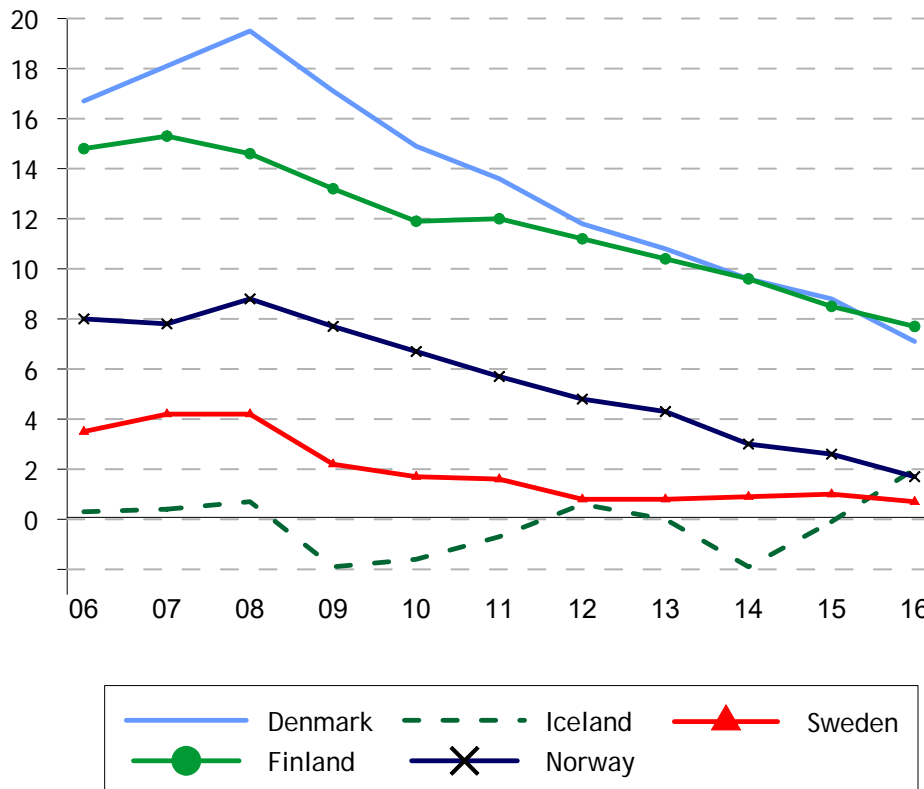
In some years during the period 2006 to 2016, the senior employment rate in Iceland has even been higher than the overall rate. Also in Sweden and Norway, the difference between senior and overall employment is small, and has steadily decreased since 2008. The same development can be seen in Denmark and Finland, but here the difference is still at 7 and 8 percentage points respectively.

Figure 6.12 Senior employment, per cent, persons 55-64 years old, Nordic countries, 2006-16



Source: Eurostat (Labour Force Survey). Extracted on 09.08.2017

Figure 6.13 Percentage point difference, total employment (15-64 years) and senior employment (55-64 years), Nordic countries, 2006-16



Source: Eurostat (Labour Force Survey). Extracted on 09.08.2017

We conclude that LFS data indicates positive development for senior employment over a 10-year period. By using EU-SILC data on self-reported economic activity, we add details by looking at different age groups compared to a reference group aged 25-54 years.

First, we note that the percentage working among persons aged 70 or more has increased over a ten-year period in the Nordic countries (Table 5.21), an indication of increased labour market activity among seniors.

We also find a significant increase in the percentage working among persons aged 65-69 years old from 2006 to 2015. An increase ranging from 12 percentage points in Norway to 5 percentage points in Iceland. In this group, almost all will have the possibility of old-age retirement in the Nordic countries. The increase in working rates is even stronger for 60-64 years old in four of the countries, also an age group in which quite a few have the possibility of early retirement. The percentage working in this age group is highest in Iceland, where 81 per cent are in work. This is approximately the same as in 2006. Percentages are also high in Sweden and Norway, 79 and 75 per cent, significantly higher than in 2006. Even if percentages are lower in both in Finland and Denmark, 56 and 63 per cent, the increase since 2006 is significant.

In-work rates among the youngest seniors, 55-59 years old, are higher than for persons aged 25-54 in Iceland and Sweden, a bit lower in Norway, Finland and Denmark. Also among these youngest seniors, we observe an increase in rates higher than the increase among 25-54 years old. The exception is Iceland, where the rate

fell by 2 percentage points from 2006 to 2015, but still, this development is more positive than for persons aged 25-54.

In total, with some exceptions for Iceland, we conclude that there is a positive development in seniors' working activity; especially positive is the development among those above 60 years. This development may ease the challenges for welfare states stemming from the ageing of the population, and in the next chapter (Health, Chapter 7), we will see that this positive development in working activity is mirrored, and maybe partially caused by a positive development in health.

Table 6.15 Seniors working full- or part-time according to self-defined economic status, by age, Nordic countries, 2006-15

	Years	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Denmark	25-54	81.0	82.5	83.6	83.8	81.5	87.1	84.9	84.3	84.4	86.2
	55-59	77.3	76.6	78.4	79.2	78.7	85.3	83.3	83.7	81.5	82.9
	60-64	41.6	40.9	38.4	45.5	47.4	54.2	51.3	55.6	57.6	62.9
	65-69+	8.9	8.3	9.8	11.9	12.9	14.8	15.4	17.5	18.1	18.8
	70+	0.6	1.5	0.7	1.2	3.3	1.7	3.6	5.0	5.5	5.5
Finland	25-54	79.0	79.9	80.5	79.5	76.5	80.4	80.5	80.3	80.4	80.4
	55-59	69.1	70.9	72.1	70.7	70.6	78.1	78.6	77.9	78.2	78.4
	60-64	37.9	40.3	45.7	45.7	45.2	48.7	49.4	51.3	54.9	56.0
	65-69+	5.6	6.7	8.1	8.7	8.3	14.3	12.6	12.6	13.0	12.0
	70+	1.0	1.4	1.9	1.0	1.1	0.9	0.8	1.2	1.2	1.7
Iceland	25-54	85.2	86.0	85.1	79.8	76.9	79.0	79.2	79.6	80.5	80.7
	55-59	87.7	90.0	91.5	82.9	83.1	83.1	82.8	85.6	83.8	85.7
	60-64	80.8	78.7	81.2	77.2	75.5	78.3	78.3	80.7	79.3	80.6
	65-69+	55.9	49.5	55.6	47.9	54.9	50.3	52.0	52.5	56.9	60.6
	70+	5.9	7.7	6.1	6.8	6.3	7.0	7.5	7.1	7.4	9.9
Norway	25-54	83.3	84.7	87.0	85.2	84.7	87.3	87.6	89.0	86.3	86.3
	55-59	78.2	78.9	80.8	80.4	80.5	85.2	85.7	86.6	85.1	85.5
	60-64	59.9	59.0	60.4	62.6	64.1	69.7	72.7	72.1	72.0	74.7
	65-69+	18.4	21.2	23.6	29.4	29.7	26.9	27.3	31.4	30.3	30.7
	70+	1.5	2.3	2.0	1.8	2.2	3.8	3.3	3.3	3.7	3.8
Sweden	25-54	85.5	86.9	87.1	85.7	86.8	87.6	87.7	86.4	86.9	88.3
	55-59	79.9	83.2	83.6	81.5	84.5	87.3	88.1	86.5	89.1	89.6
	60-64	64.6	63.7	64.5	66.1	66.2	70.0	72.8	69.8	73.6	78.6
	65-69+	9.8	9.8	12.6	17.6	14.2	17.8	16.1	17.9	14.3	18.8
	70+	1.4	1.6	0.8	1.0	0.9	1.8	1.5	1.9	2.1	2.3

Source: EU-SILC User Database 2006-15

Given the demographic profile of immigrants and the limited number of senior immigrants in the Nordic countries, their representation in survey samples such as the EU SILC is limited. Therefore, cross-tabulating seniors in work by country of birth is of little value. To be able to analyse possible effects from country of birth and other personal characteristics on the probability of being in work for seniors, we again use logistic regressions (Appendix Table A6.15).

Based on these analyses, we conclude that country of birth is of minor, if any, importance in explaining working activity among seniors. When controlling for the other characteristics in our model, country of birth shows almost no significant effects in any of the five countries. An exception is Iceland, where seniors born in the EU were less likely to be in work in 2011 and 2012. The same goes for seniors

born outside the EU in 2013. Also in Denmark in 2012, we see a negative effect of being born outside the EU.

When reaching senior age, gender, health and education, along with the increasing age itself seem to be the most important variables explaining the ability to stay in work. Immigrants will of course also be affected by this. If they experience reduced health and have a low level of education, they are less likely to be in work.

Age is the most important explanatory variable for seniors' probability of being in work. Compared to the 55-59 years old, the probability of being in work falls drastically with age, all other characteristics held constant. Along with age, health is also clearly important (see also Chapter 7). In all five countries, reporting poor health compared to good health strongly reduces the probability of being in work for seniors, even when other characteristics are taken into consideration.

The analyses also show a gender effect in Denmark, Norway and Sweden, where senior women are less likely to be in work than senior men. This was also the case for Iceland in 2012 and 2013, but in 2015 we find results indicating senior women are more likely to be in work than senior men in Finland and Iceland.

Seniors are also less likely to be in work if they have education at primary level compared to higher education. This is a significant finding for four of the Nordic countries in all years, while in Iceland, this is a significant finding only in some years. In Denmark, Iceland and Norway, having secondary compared to tertiary education seems to have no effect. In Finland, Sweden and Iceland, this implies a lower probability of seniors being in work most years. In Sweden and Finland, being unmarried or non-cohabitant reduces the probability of being in work almost every year. This effect is only significant in 2011 and 2015 in Denmark, while in Norway, this seems to have little effect on seniors' probability of being in work.

Labour market challenges - summary

The Nordic countries maintain their position as a European region of high employment, but the relative position compared to other European countries has been somewhat weakened during recent years. In the eight years following the financial crisis, Iceland and Sweden are the only Nordic countries where employment rates have passed the pre-crisis level. During the same period, the Nordic countries have maintained their position as countries with high female employment rates. The gender gap has also narrowed, partially because men were hit harder by the financial crisis, and partially because of rising employment rates among women. For the Nordic welfare states, maintaining and increasing employment rates for both men and women remains an ongoing challenge. Based on the situation in recent years, this challenge is maybe more present in Finland and Norway than in Iceland, Sweden and Denmark.

When comparing native-born people to immigrants born outside the EU, differences in employment rates are highly visible in all the Nordic countries, except Iceland. Looking at the development in employment for this group over the last 10 years, there are no signs of relative improvement in these four countries. Integrating immigrants from outside the EU into the labour market remains a main challenge for the Nordic welfare states, except Iceland (where the immigrant population is small).

The challenge is especially present for immigrant women, but employment rates for immigrant men are also low.

Marginalisation, exclusion and disability are positions on the fringe or outside the labour market, and reducing the share of people in these positions is a challenge alongside increasing employment. In a European context, indicators describing these phenomena paint a quite positive picture of the Nordic region. Even if we see some fluctuations from one year to another, these are also quite stable phenomena in the Nordic countries.

Overall, persons under the age of 35 are more exposed to marginalisation than older persons, illustrating both that youngsters are entering the labour market and the challenge of fully integrating them in work. We also find higher prevalence rates for marginalisation among persons with little or no education, and among immigrants, mainly those born outside the EU. Nevertheless, our analysis indicates that these characteristics are of limited importance, and that variation is mainly caused by age.

Except for Finland, Nordic women are more frequently excluded or considered disabled than Nordic men. These differences are often explained by other characteristics such as health and age. The reduction in disability in the Nordic countries, except in Iceland, is also due to a reduction among the oldest individuals. Higher education is an important protection against both exclusion and disability. Increased levels of education in the population might then be good news for welfare states, provided employment rates are maintained at a high level.

Exclusion rates among immigrants born outside the EU are relatively high in all Nordic countries, but the regression analysis indicates that this characteristic is most important in explaining exclusion in Finland, Norway and Sweden. For disability, we cannot find any common trend by country of birth in the Nordic countries. The most important factor if welfare states are to minimise exclusion or disability preventing people from work, is improving public health or including persons with impaired health in the labour market. Exclusion rates and disability rates are high among persons with weak health, although there are signs of improvement in Sweden and Finland.

Part-time work is more common than the average for EU28 countries in Denmark, Iceland, Norway and Sweden. The rate in Finland is below the EU28 average. Like in other European countries, part-time work is still most common among women. This is not a challenge highly affected by immigration, as the challenge seems to be more related to including immigrants in the labour market in the first place, rather than preventing part-time work.

The gap between overall employment rates and rates for seniors is relatively small in the Nordic countries, as Nordic seniors are more active in the labour market than what is common in the rest of Europe. The good news for the Nordic welfare states is also that the working activity among seniors has increased during recent years. Although this increase is not found in Iceland, seniors here are still working more than in any other Europeans at the same age. Factors such as increasing age, gender and education are far more important when explaining differences in working activity among seniors than country of birth, which seems to be of minor importance.

Chapter 7

Health

“Healthy citizens are the greatest asset any country can have.”

Winston S. Churchill (1874-1965)

The chapter on demography and population changes described the aging of the population due to falling fertility and increasing longevity. Previous chapters have linked this to the future challenges of the Nordic welfare state causing pressure on public expenditures, income and labour supply.

The demand for health care goods and services depend on the number of people in need of care. This depends not only on the size of the population, but also on the health status of the population, which is linked to the age structure and notably to the ratio of elderly people in the population. The reason for this is that older people often develop multi-morbidity conditions which require medical care.

If people live longer without an improvement in health status, this may lead to an increase in demand for additional health-care services and long-term care over a longer time period, which will lead to increasing total lifetime health care expenditure and overall health care spending. If, however, increased longevity also comes combined with an increasing number of healthy life years, then aging may not necessarily translate into rising health and long-term care costs, but merely to increased wellbeing. Better health generally means lower health care needs and may drive down health services use and health and long-term care expenditure (European Commission, 2015).

It is therefore important to understand whether increased longevity is accompanied by more or fewer years with good health and to track changes in the health status of the population over time. It might then be possible to recognise whether people report better health than previously, and whether they have healthier lifestyles relative to previous generations, with the result that the threshold for frailty and disability is being pushed later into old age. The longer people can remain mobile and care for themselves, the lower the costs for health treatment and long-term care both to families and to society.

Older people often leave the formal labour market in their later years, although they may continue to contribute to society in many ways, including participating in the informal workforce, volunteering, or providing crucial help for their families. Rising incomes, along with public and private pension systems have allowed people to retire based on their age rather than any health-related problem. Working more and longer will reduce the costs of pensions and health care, especially given smaller cohorts entering the labour market (WHO, 2011). This is another reason for tracking the

changes in people's health status; whether there will be a potential for increased labour participation.

This report also aims to look into the effects of immigration. In previous chapters, we have pointed to the challenges related to level of education and work participation. When health is concerned, it is often pointed out that immigrants generally have to be in good health to be able to migrate; they tend to be healthier than non-migrants - the so-called "healthy migrant effect", which, however, fades with the length of residence (OECD, 2015). The quality of life in the country of origin, the migration process itself, and working and living conditions in the host country also affect health outcomes. Some migrant groups, such as refugees, are particularly vulnerable and may be more prone to certain diseases or mental disorders. The migratory experience itself can cause stress, which may affect migrants' health outcomes in different ways down the line, depending on socio-economy and health conditions in the home country and how well they settle in the host country. Nutritional habits in the country of origin may also affect health outcomes in the medium-to-long term. Age, educational attainment, and income too, are important determining factors of health.

We use indicators from EU-SILC on self-reported health statuses. We divide country of birth into three categories: Born in the country, born in an EU country and born outside the EU. A slightly special attribute of the Nordic countries is that two countries are not members of the EU, and people born in Norway and in Iceland will therefore be classified as born outside the EU when they are resident in other countries. The sample among those who are born in an EU country and born outside the EU is small and the sample may not be representative due to selective response. The differences between the groups and development over time will therefore be statistically uncertain, and should be interpreted with caution. The sample size and the categories used inhibit analysis on more detailed groups such as country background or reason for migration. We will, however, also refer to some national reports in order to include more details when this is available and relevant, but it should be noted that the results from one country are not necessarily applicable for the other countries.

We must also be cautious with regards the comparability between countries. Since EU-SILC is a sample survey, both methodological differences as well as cultural differences may contribute to country differences.

Other drivers for increased health expenditures include new technology, medical advancements and increased expectation for higher quality treatments and services. These are not discussed in this report.

Healthy life years

The Healthy Life Years (HLY) indicator (also called disability-free life expectancy) measures the number of remaining years that a person of a certain age is supposed to live without disability. Healthy Life Years introduces the concept of quality of life. It is used to distinguish between years of life free of any activity limitation and years experienced with at least one activity limitation. The emphasis is not exclusively on the length of life, as is the case for life expectancy, but also on the quality of life (European Commission, 2017).

HLY is a functional health status measure that is increasingly used to complement the conventional life expectancy measures (see Chapter 2 on demography). The HLY measure was developed to reflect the fact that not all years of a person's life are typically lived in perfect health. Chronic disease, frailty, and disability tend to become more prevalent at older ages, so that a population with a higher life expectancy may not be healthier. If HLY is increasing more rapidly than life expectancy in a population, then not only are people living longer, they are also living a greater portion of their lives free of disability. Hence, self-assessed health measures such as HLY may be an important indicator of the potential demand for health services and long-term care needs of the elderly population (European Commission, 2017).

In 2015, the number of healthy life years at birth was estimated at 62.6 years for men and 63.3 years for women in the EU-28 countries; this represented approximately 80 per cent and 76 per cent of total life expectancy for men and women. It is interesting to note that the gender gap was considerably smaller in terms of healthy life years than it was for overall life expectancy. Life expectancy for women in the EU-28 was, on average, 5.4 years longer than that for men in 2015. However, most of these additional years tend to be lived with activity limitations. In terms of healthy life years, we find just 0.7 years' difference in favour of women in 2014. Men therefore tend to spend a greater proportion of their somewhat shorter lives free from activity limitations (Eurostat, 2017c).

In 2015, the expected number of healthy life years at birth was higher for women than for men in 19 of the EU Member States (Eurostat, 2017c). However, the Nordic countries deviate from this picture; here men can expect more healthy years than women (see Figure 7.1). The difference between men and women is largest in Iceland with 5 years in favour of men. In Denmark, Finland and Norway men can expect around 3 more healthy life years than women. In Sweden, there is no difference between men and women.

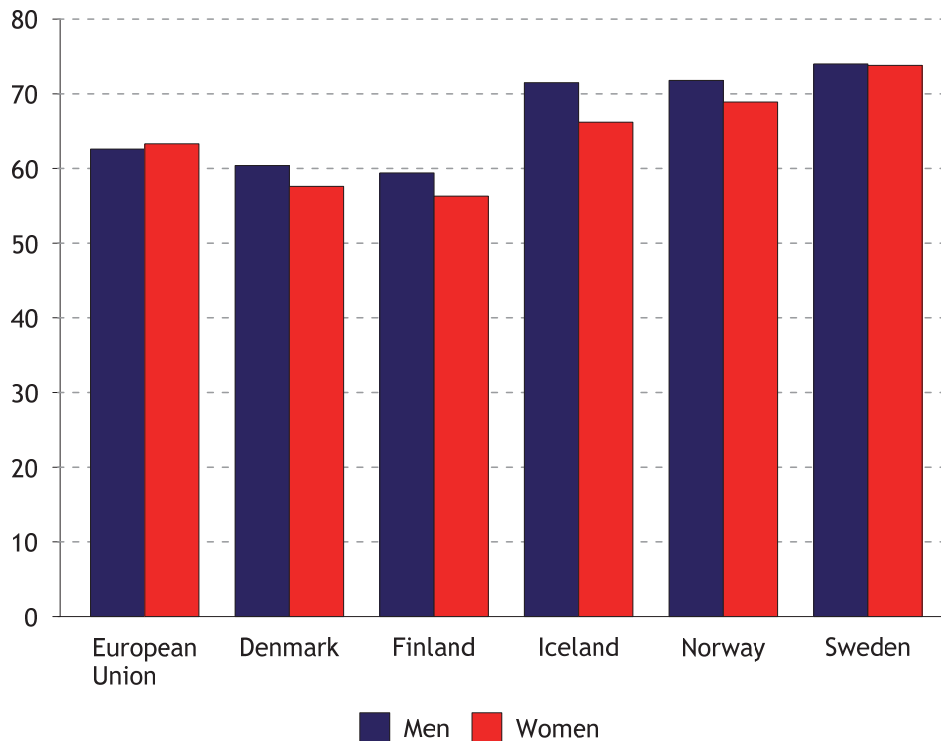
Life expectancy at birth is higher for women than for men in all the Nordic countries, but men tend to have more healthy years than women. This means, for instance, that men in Norway can expect to live 90 per cent of their lives free from any activity limitation, while women in Norway can expect to live 84 per cent of their lives free from activity limitation. Also in the other Nordic countries men can expect to live a longer period of their lives without activity limitations than women (see Figure 7.1 and Appendix Table A7.1).

Due to changes in methodology (Denmark started to use a grading of disability in 2008) one should be cautious when explaining the changes from 2005 to 2015, but the data seems to indicate that except for Denmark, both men and women have had an increase in healthy life years both at birth and at 65 years, and the increase in healthy years is greater than the increase in life expectancy.

One should take into consideration that the indicator is derived from self-reported data so it is, to a certain extent, affected by respondents' subjective perception as well as by their social and cultural background. EU-SILC does not cover the institutionalised population, for example, people living in health and social care institutions who are more likely to face limitations than the population living in private households. It is therefore likely that, to some degree, this data source underestimates the share of the population facing limitations. In addition, the indicators are calculated using mortality statistics and data on self-perceived long-standing activity

limitations. The data on limitations in activity can fluctuate somewhat between the years, so that changes between years should be interpreted with this in mind.

Figure 7.1 Healthy life years in absolute value at birth, men and women, 2015



Source: Source: Eurostat, Healthy Life Years,

http://appsso.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/nui/show.do?dataset=hlth_hlye&lang=en

Self-evaluated health

A person's self-reported health status reflects the individual's physiological and psychological health. This section looks at an overall self-evaluated health, the chronically ill and limitations in activities/disabilities. The source is the European survey on income and living conditions (EU-SILC). We will compare the Nordic countries with the EU and compare with previous results. We have a time series of 10 years so even though it can be difficult to track changes in these indicators, a longer time series can reflect changes in the demography and potential changes in their health status. This may give an indication of the effect on future expenditures, revenues and labour supply - all aspects important for the future of the welfare states.

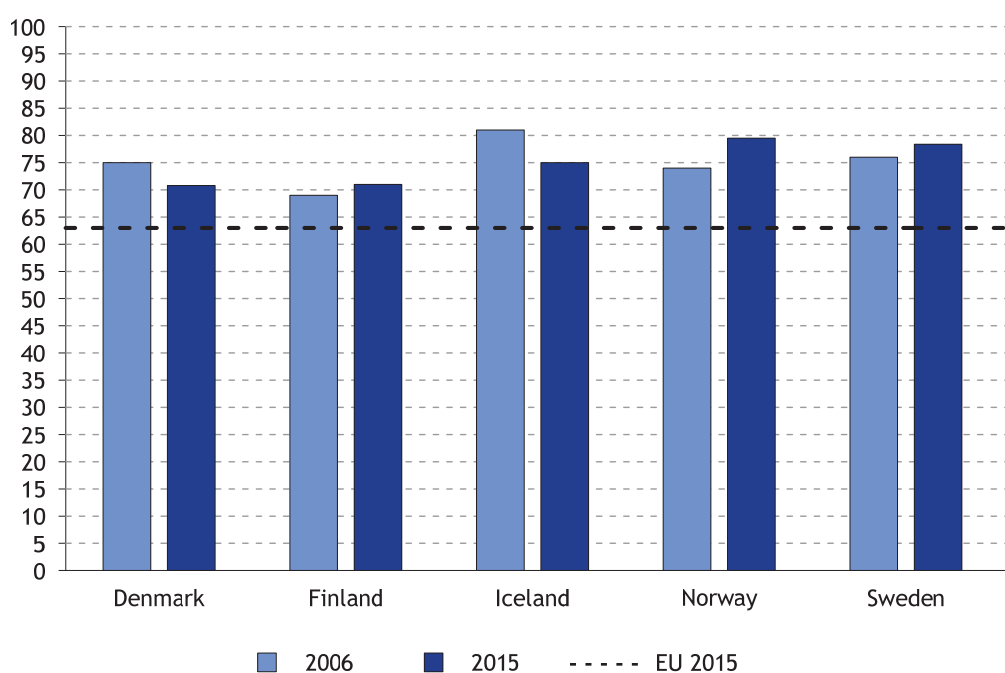
We remind readers again that some caution is recommended when interpreting the self-reported responses in surveys, since social and cultural differences in self-perception and self-reporting across countries and between native- and foreign-born residents within a country may limit the validity of comparison. Small sample sizes, selected response and differences in methodology may also influence the comparability between countries.

Many with good health - but development varies

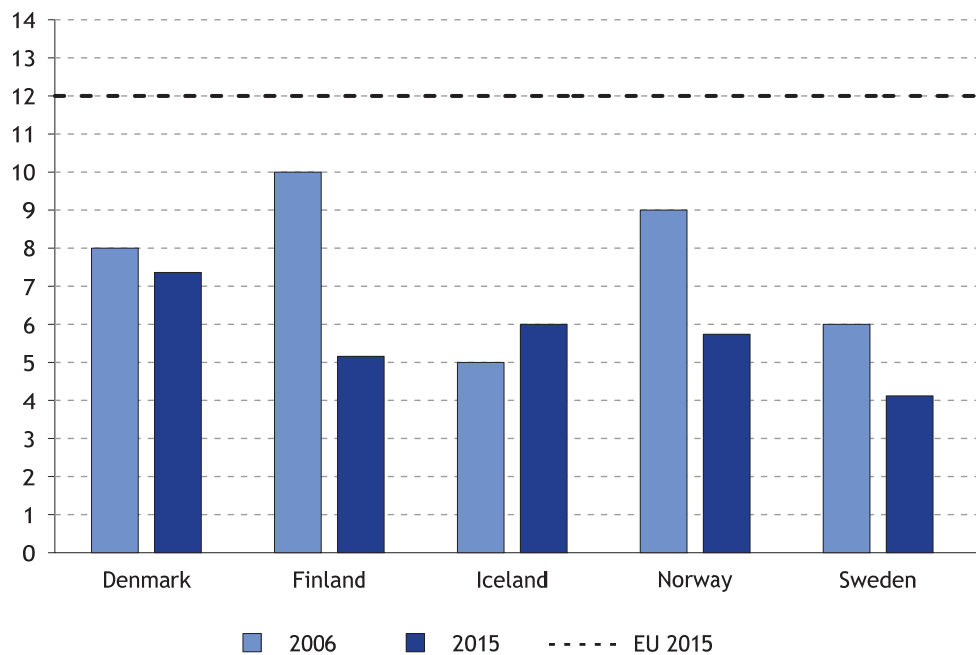
Health in the Nordic countries is generally good and a majority in the Nordic countries report that they have good health. The percentage reporting good health in Denmark has dropped from 75 per cent in 2006 to 71 per cent in 2016 (Figure 7.2 and Appendix Table A.7.2). And it seems that it is not an increase in the percentage that view their health as poor, but rather an increase in the percentage that report neither good or bad health (Figure 7.3 Appendix Table A.7.2). We see the same development in Iceland, the percentage reporting good health fell from 81 per cent in 2006 to 75 per cent in 2015. In the same period the percentage with good health increased in the other Nordic countries. In Norway, the percentage increased from 74 per cent to 79 per cent and in Sweden from 76 per cent to 78 per cent. Also in Finland, which has had the lowest percentage with good health, the number of people viewing their health as good has increased. Now 71 per cent of the Finns view their health as good, which is on the same level as the Danes. In contrast to Denmark, the percentage in Finland that view their health as bad was reduced from 10 per cent in 2006 to 5 per cent in 2015.

When we compare the Nordic countries with the average of Europe, we find that the Nordic countries in general have a higher percentage reporting good health. Norway and Sweden have the highest ratio in Europe regarding their health as good. The average for Europe was 63 per cent in 2015. The average percentage for Europe reporting bad health was 12 per cent in 2015, and all the Nordic countries are below this average.

Figure 7.2 The percentage reporting good health, 2006 and 2015



Source: Eu-silc, User Data Base

Figure 7.3 The percentage reporting bad health, 2006 and 2015

Source: Eu-silc, User Data Base

Country background matters?

Due to small sample sizes for the immigrant group the results can be uncertain and should be interpreted with caution.

In general, there are small health differences between those who are native-born, those born in EU or those born outside EU. Immigrants are on average younger than the rest of the population, and as a result they are more likely to be in good health. In addition, the reasons for immigration also matter for the individuals' health status, and since a large percentage of those born in Europe will be labour migrants they might be more likely to have good health. Changes in the health status over time may be due to changes in the perceived health and due to changes in the immigrant population over time. In either case, this is relevant in the perspective of the welfare states as it influences both expenditures on care and treatments and income (taxes paid) due to reduced work participation.

In Denmark, 69 per cent of those born outside EU reported good health in 2006. The percentage fell after 2006, but was back at the same level as in 2006 in 2015. This was not the case for the native-born or for those born in the EU; the percentage with good health was lower in 2015 compared to 2006.

Even though the native-born Finns report improved health from 69 per cent in 2006 to 71 per cent in 2016, the improvement is bigger for those born outside EU. While 68 per cent reported good health in 2005, this had increased to 74 per cent in 2015. For those born in EU there was a significant reduction in the share experiencing good health from 81 per cent in 2006 to 75 per cent in 2015.

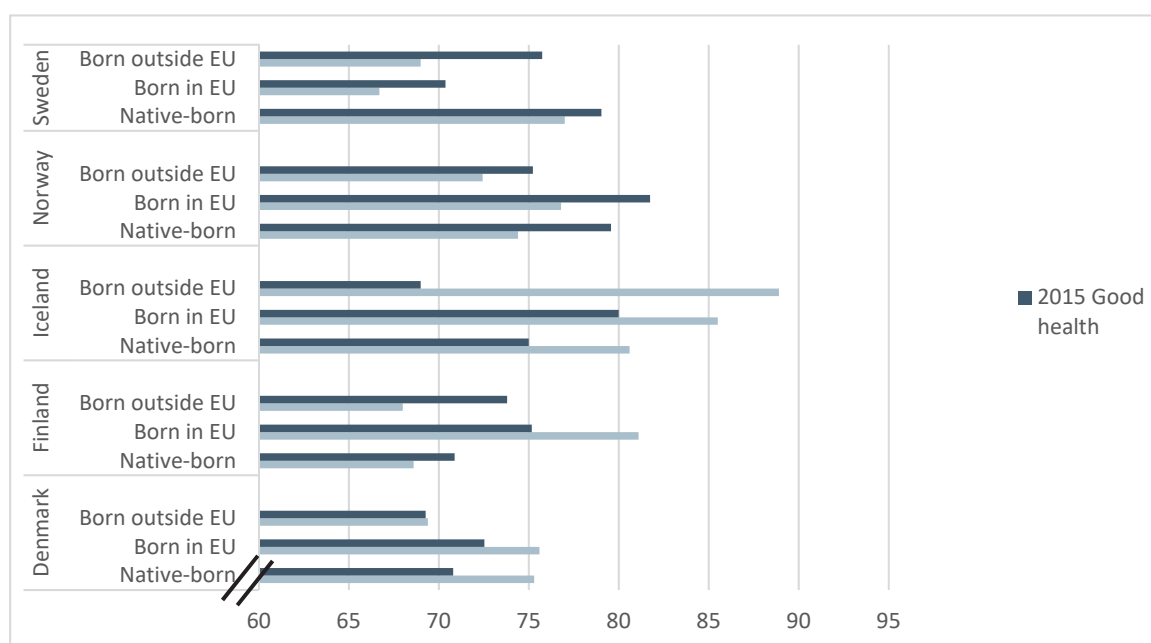
In Iceland the percentages reporting good health are reduced for all three groups. However, the results for those born abroad are not significant due to small sample sizes. We do observe a significant change for those born in Iceland. Here the

percentage reporting good health decreased from 81 per cent in 2006 to 75 per cent in 2015.

There is an increase of 7 percentage points for those reporting good health who were born outside the EU in Sweden, from 69 per cent in 2006 to 76 per cent in 2015. This group report better health than those born in EU but not better than those born in Sweden, where the percentages are 70 per cent and 79 per cent accordingly.

Also in Norway those born outside EU report an improvement in health, from 72 per cent in 2006 to 75 per cent in 2016, but the increase for the EU-born in Norway and the native-born has been larger. So those born outside the EU in Norway are the group which has the lowest percentage viewing their health as good.

Figure 7.4 Percentage reporting good health, country background, 2006 and 2015



Source: Eu-silc, User Data Base

A regression analysis taking into account variables such as gender, age and education confirm for most years, with the exception of Finland, that persons born outside EU are at higher risk of reporting poor health compared to the native-born population, other characteristics taken into consideration. We do not find the same results for those born in EU (see Appendix Tables A7.3 and A7.16).

In Norway, a survey on the living conditions of immigrants was carried out in 2016. The sample for the survey consists of immigrants aged 16-74 with at least two years' residence in Norway, with backgrounds from Poland, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Kosovo, Turkey, Iraq, Iran, Afghanistan, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, Vietnam, Eritrea and Somalia. The results show that a lower proportion of immigrants consider their health to be very good or good compared to the general population, and the proportion with mental health problems is higher among immigrants. However, the incidence of chronic illness and disability is approximately the same among immigrants as in the general population. Immigrants from Turkey, Pakistan and Iraq report most health problems, while immigrants from Somalia, Eritrea and Poland rarely report such

problems. Differences in the age-structure of immigrants contribute to the explanations of these differences (Blom, in Vrålstad and Wiggen, 2017).

A national survey on “Work and Wellbeing among People of Foreign origin” has also been conducted in Finland (Statistics Finland, 2015). The results from this survey show that persons with foreign backgrounds felt their health was better, on average, than the entire population of Finland. However, women with foreign backgrounds considered their health worse, and they reported chronic illnesses or health problems more often than men. Chronic illnesses or health problems were most common for those with Middle Eastern and North African backgrounds. Mobility and visual difficulties are more common, on average, for people with foreign background than in the entire population of Finland, but persons with foreign background thought their health problems restricted their ordinary activity less often than the whole population. The percentage of those who felt their working capacity had weakened was clearly higher among those with foreign background than in the whole population. Mobility limitations and problems in working capacity particularly concerned persons whose background country was in the Middle East and North Africa.

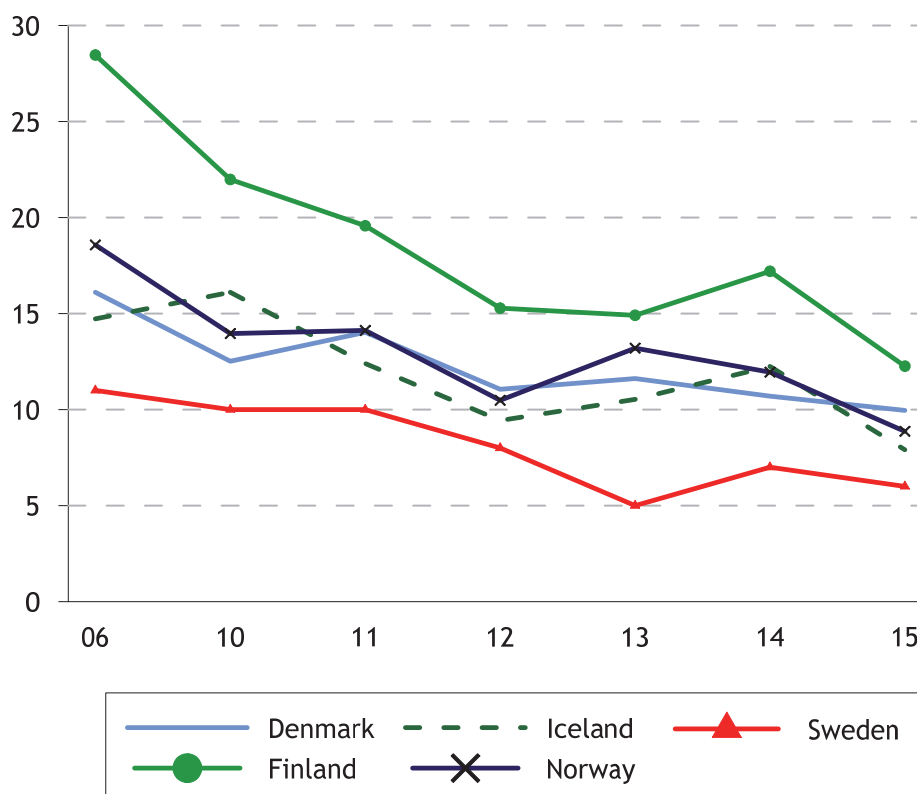
Good news - health improvement among the elderly

We know that health problems often increase with age. As discussed above an aging population may lead to an increased need for health and care services, depending on how the health status of the population develops.

The previous report (Normann, Rønning and Nørgaard 2013) indicated that there were signs of improvement in the health of the elderly population. We now have a longer time series, and this trend has continued; we observe a substantial reduction in the percentage of the population above 70 years that view their health as poor. This development is clear for all the Nordic countries (see Figure 7.5 and Appendix Table A7.4).

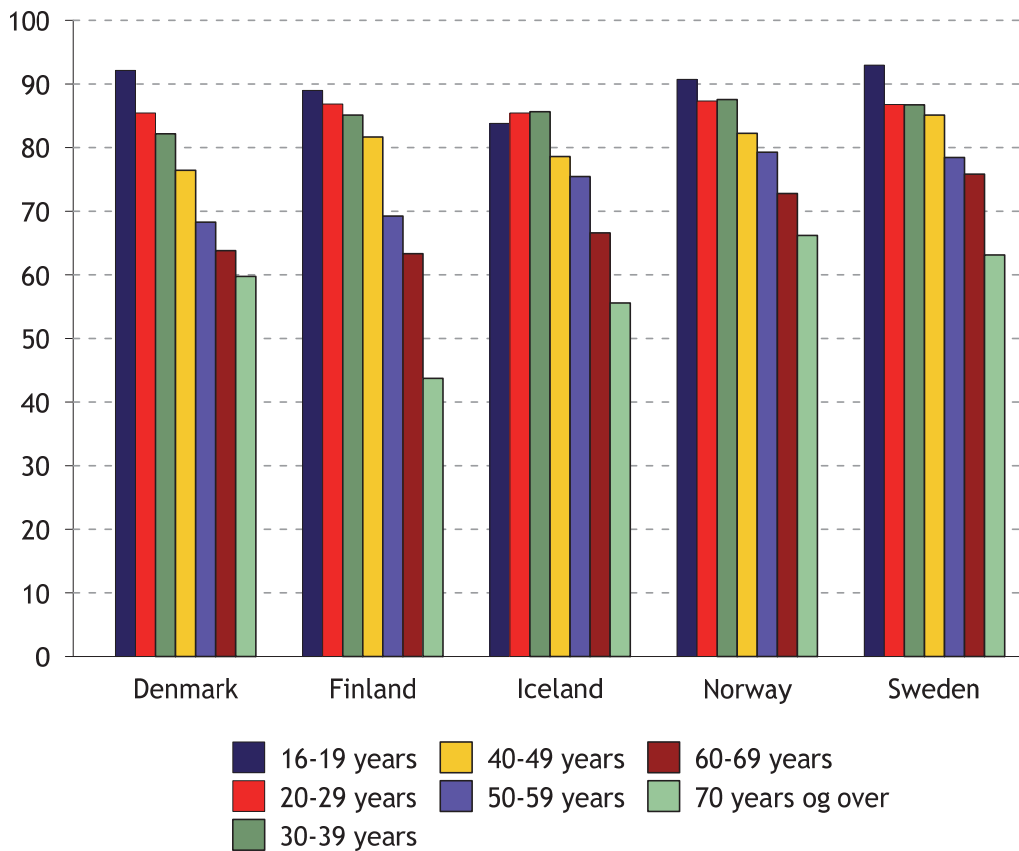
The reduction is especially strong for Finland. In 2006, 28 per cent of those over 70 years answered that their health was bad, 9 years later this share was reduced to 12 per cent. The other Nordic countries have percentages with bad health for those over 70 years between 15 and 19 per cent in 2006, and the percentages are all around 10 per cent in 2015.

Figure 7.5 The percentage of the population above 70 years with bad health, 2006-15



Source: Eu-silc, User Data Base

The results also show, as expected, that the percentage reporting good health falls with age (see Figure 7.6). The regression analysis confirms that elderly people are more likely to report bad health compared to younger ages groups even when other factors such as gender and education are taken into consideration.

Figure 7.6 Percentage reporting good health, by age group and country, 2015

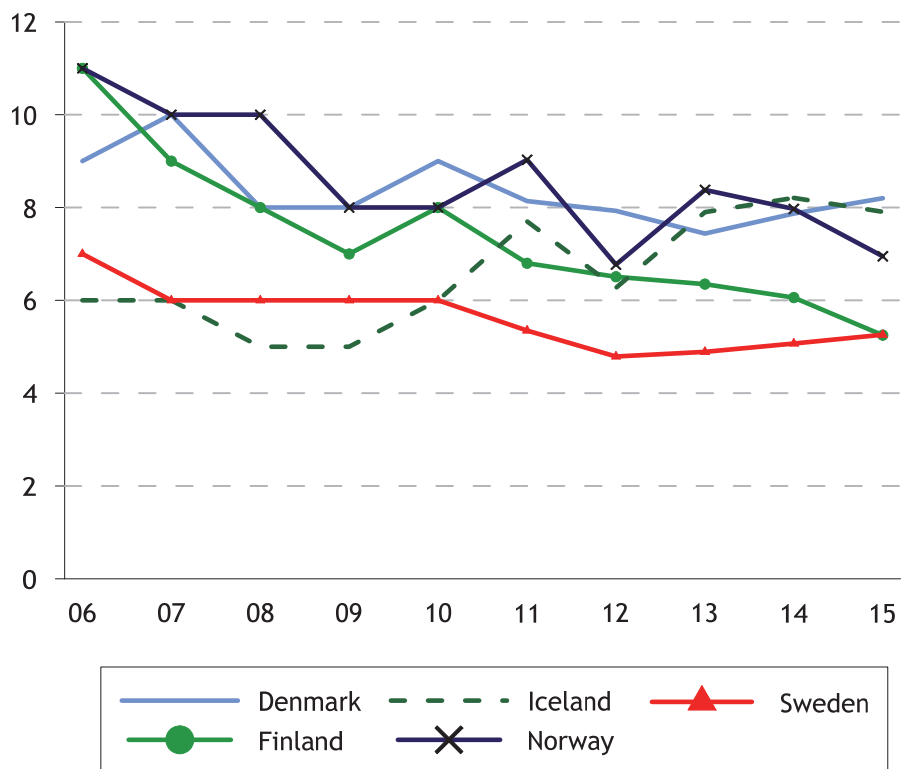
Source: Eu-silc, User Data Base

Women still have poorer health than men - but their health is improving

Health has improved both for men and women, but to a certain extent more for women, so that the difference between men and women with bad health is smaller in 2015 compared to 2006.

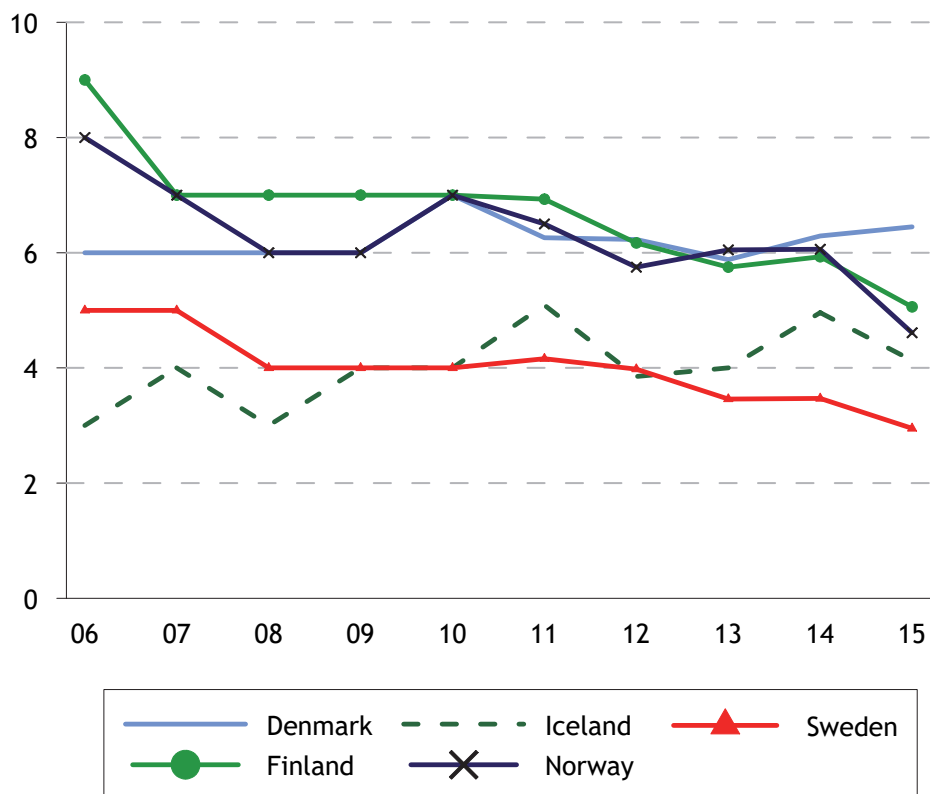
In Finland, there is now no difference between men and women - the share is 5 per cent for both. While the share for Finnish women with bad health has been reduced from 11 per cent in 2006 to 5 per cent in 2015, there are hardly any signs of improvement for Danish women, the percentage with bad health was 9 per cent in 2006 and 8 per cent in 2015 - and the highest among the Nordic countries. Sweden has the lowest share of men viewing their health as bad, only 3 per cent in 2015. Both Norwegian women and men report better health, the percentage of women with bad health dropped from 11 per cent in 2006 to 7 per cent in 2015, while the reduction went from 8 per cent to 5 per cent for Norwegian men. It is only in Iceland that the percentage of women with bad health has increased, from 6 per cent in 2006 to 8 per cent in 2015. However, this change is not statistically significant. The regression analysis confirms, with the exception of Finland, that women are more likely to report bad health than men even after taking into account other factors such as age and education.

Figure 7.7 Percentage with bad health, men, 2006-15



Source: Eu-silc, User Data Base

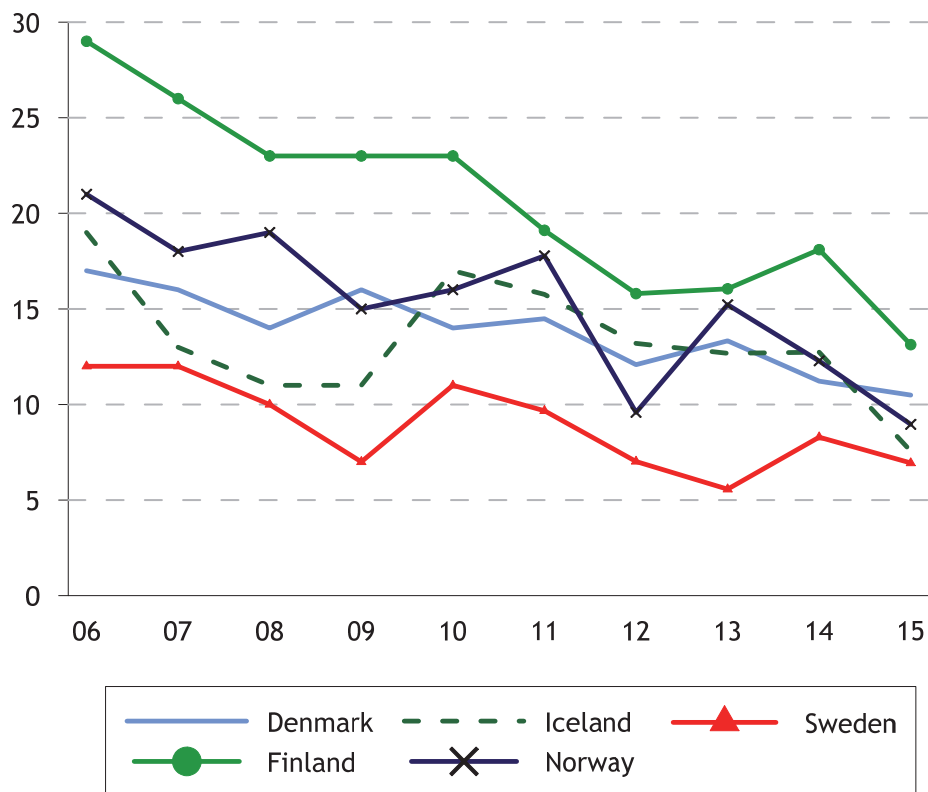
Figure 7.8 Percentage with bad health, women, 2006-15



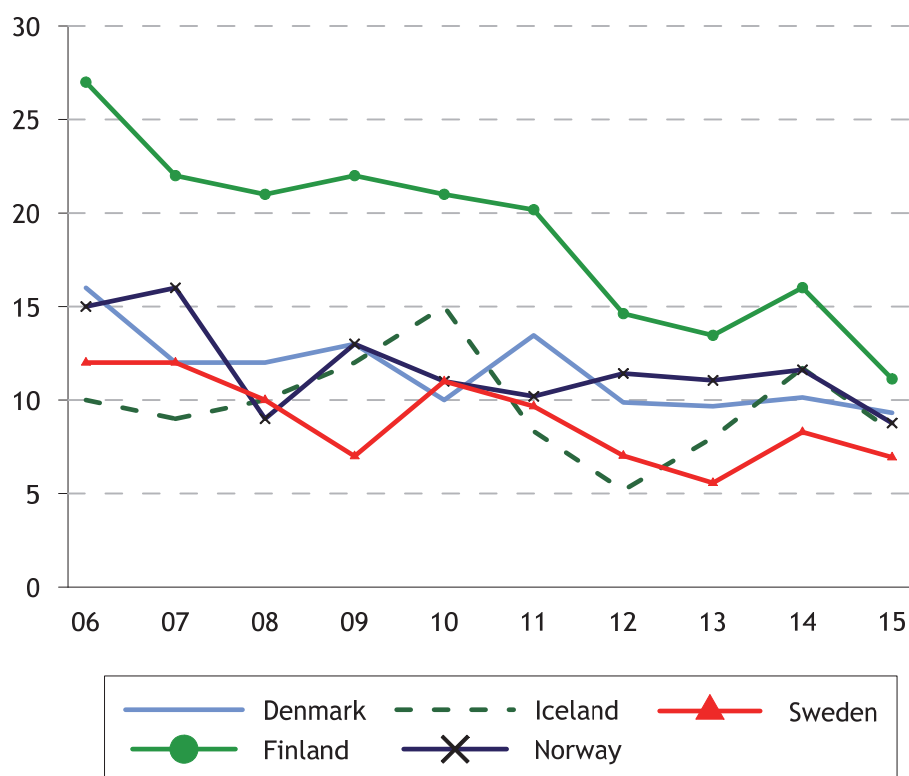
Source: Eu-silc, User Data Base

When we combine age and gender we see that in all the Nordic countries the improvement in health for the elderly concerns both men and women. In Finland, the percentage of men above 70 years with bad health decreased from 27 per cent in 2006 to 11 per cent 10 years later. The percentage for women was 29 and 13 per cent accordingly. Despite the large decrease in bad health for Finnish women, Finland is still the country with the highest share of women over 70 years with bad health in 2015. Swedish women above 70 years had the lowest percentage with bad health both in 2006 (12 per cent) and in 2015 (7 per cent). We see the same pattern for men. The highest percentage with bad health for men over 70 years is found in Finland and the lowest in Sweden. This is the case both in 2006 and in 2015. See Figures 7.8 and 7.9 and the appendix Tables A7.5 and A7.6 for more details.

Figure 7.9 Percentage reporting bad health, men, aged above 70, 2006-15



Source: Eu-silc, User Data Base

Figure 7.10 Percentage reporting bad health, women, aged above 70, 2006-15

Source: Eu-silc, User Data Base

When we distribute the answers on gender and age and add the immigration categories, the sample sizes will generally be too small to give any robust results. On a Nordic level it is fair to say that, in general, the patterns are the same; a higher percentage of immigrant women than immigrant men have bad health, and the percentage reporting bad health increases with age.

Higher education - better health

Several previous studies have referred to the link between education and health. One example here is a study from Eurostat that illustrates that the least educated often have the worst self-perceived health (Eurostat, 2015a). This is confirmed here. Like in 2006 and 2010, the Figures for 2015 show that the percentages with good health are larger for those with higher education compared to those with primary education (Figure 7.11 and Appendix Table A7.7).

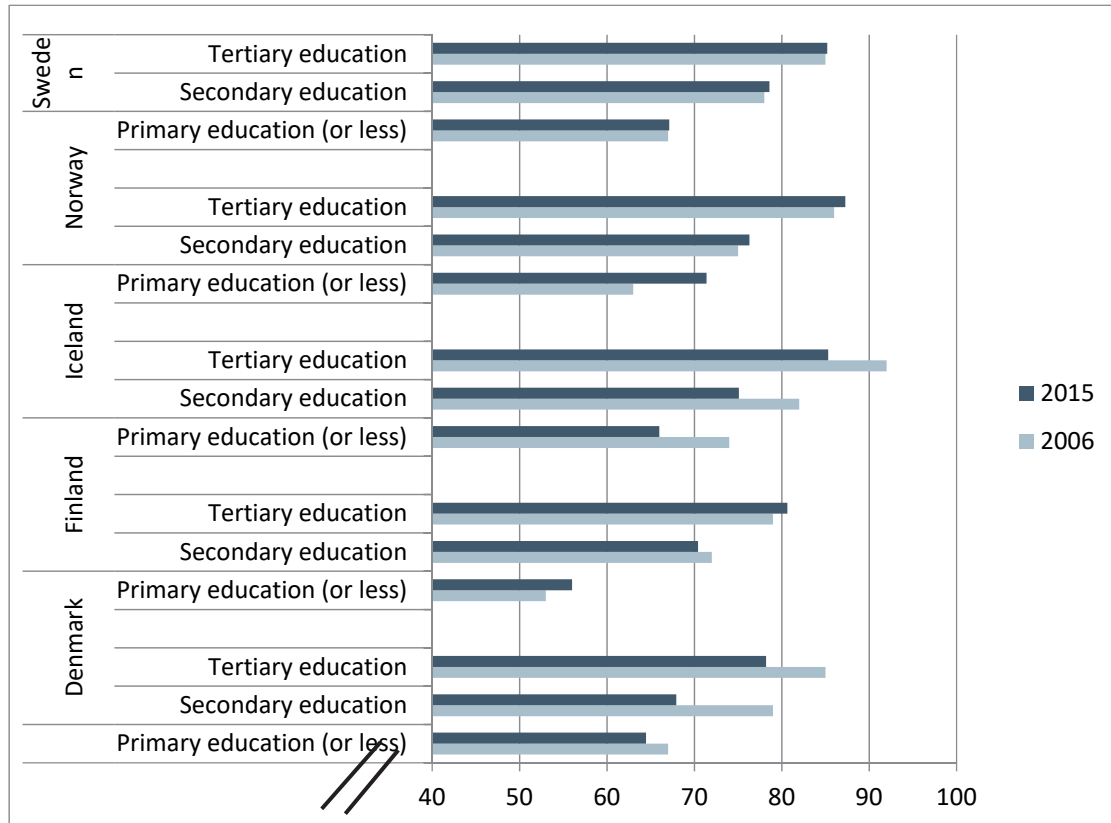
The difference in Denmark in percentages with good health for those with higher versus lower education was 18 percentage points in 2006. The similar difference was 14 percentage points in 2015 and is mainly explained by a reduction in the percentage that perceive their health as good from 85 per cent in 2006 to 78 per cent in 2015 among those with higher education.

In Norway, the difference in percentages regarding their health as good, between those with primary and tertiary education has similar to Denmark been reduced over the past 10 years. However, in Norway this is explained by an increase in the percentage for those with primary education from 63 per cent with good health in 2006 to 71 per cent in 2015.

For the other Nordic countries, the differences between those with primary education and those with tertiary education in the percentages regarding their health as good is more or less the same in 2015 as they were in 2006.

The lowest percentages with good health, regardless of the levels of education, are found in Finland and this is the case both in 2006 and 2015. In 2015 Norway has the highest percentage with good health, both for those with lower education and higher for those with education. Ten years earlier, this was the case for Iceland.

Figure 7.11 Percentage with good health and level of education, 2006 and 2015

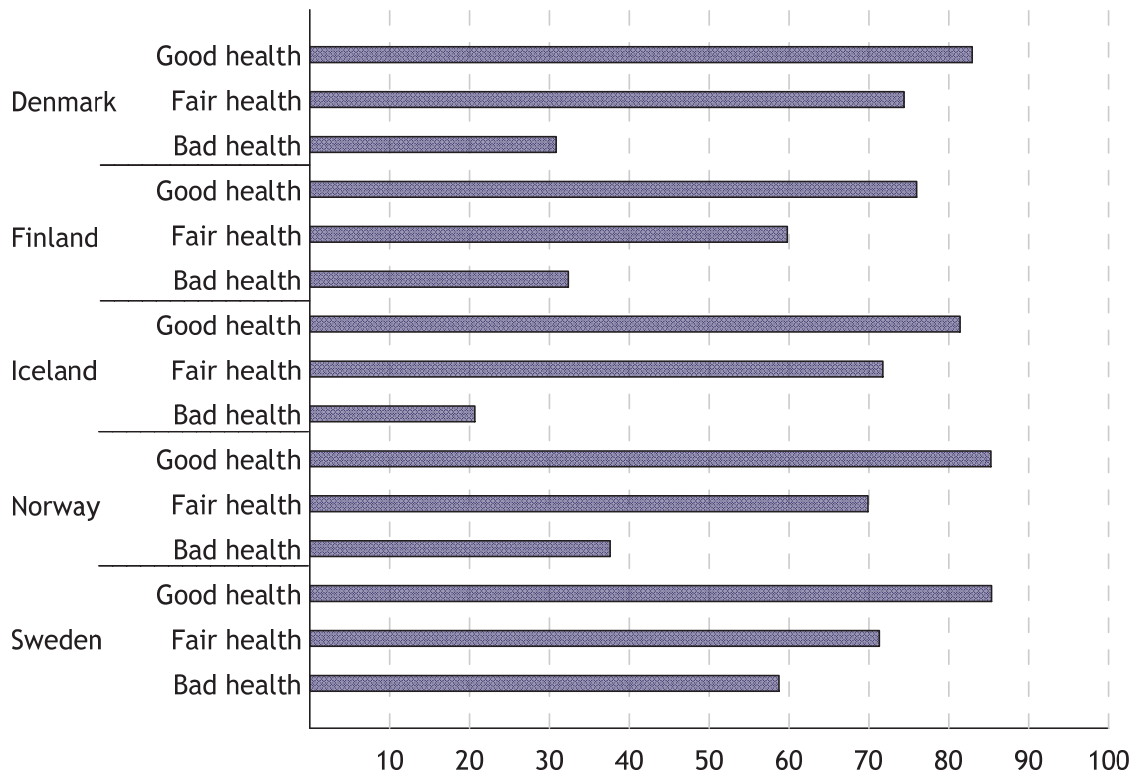


Source: Eu-silc, User Data Base

Labour participation varies with health status

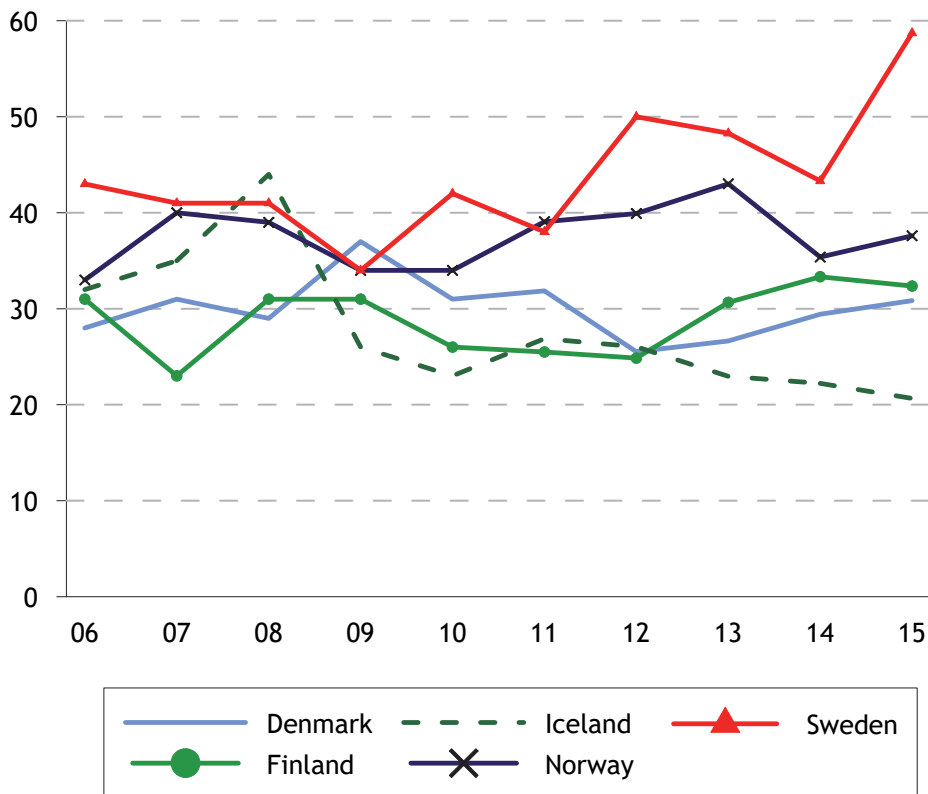
We regard those working fulltime or part-time as active in the labour market. Not surprisingly, the results show that there is a higher percentage with good health that participates in the labour market compare to those with bad health. The changes over time fluctuate from one year to another, but it seems that the percentage of those with bad health participating in the labour market has increased over the past 10 years. This is especially the case for Sweden, but to a certain extent also for the other countries. The percentage which perceive their health as bad but nevertheless are in work (full-time or part-time) increased in Sweden from 43 per cent in 2006 to 59 per cent in 2015. The development in Iceland differs compared to the other Nordic countries. Here, the percentage with bad health but in work has fallen from 32 per cent in 2006 to 21 per cent in 2015. The sample size for Iceland is small but this is a statistically significant change.

Figure 7.12 Labour participation and self-evaluated health, 2015



Source: Eu-silc, User Data Base

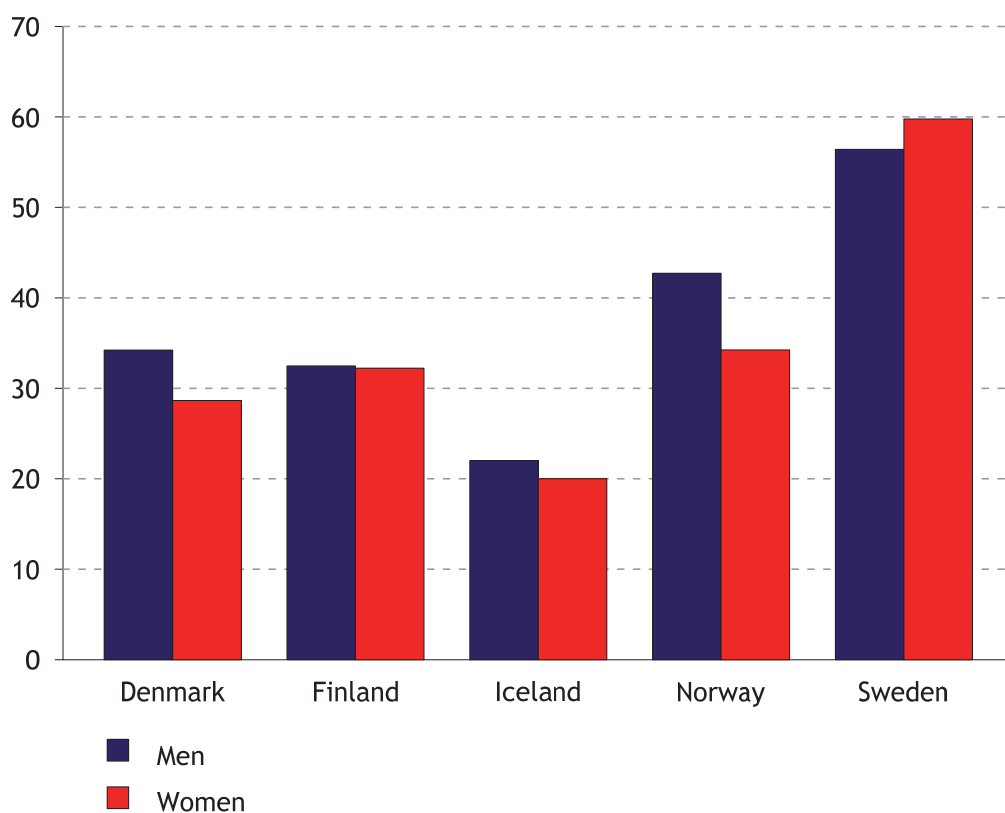
Figure 7.13 Bad health and in work, 2006-15



Source: Eu-silc, User Data Base

In Denmark, Norway and Iceland, men with bad health are more often in work than women with bad health. The largest difference between men and women is observed in Norway where 43 per cent of Norwegian men with bad health were working in 2015 compared to 34 per cent of the Norwegian women with bad health. In Finland there is no difference between men and women. In Sweden, those with self-perceived bad health have increased their work participation, and this is true for both men and women. In addition, it is only in Sweden that women with bad health work more often (60 per cent) than men (56 per cent) (see Appendix Tables A.7.8 and A7.9). In Denmark, the difference between men and women is 6 percentage points, 34 per cent of men with bad health are in work compared to 29 per cent of the women. In Iceland, 22 per cent of the men and 20 per cent of the women with bad health were in work in 2015.

Figure 7.14 Work participation for men and women with bad health, 2015



Source: Eu-silc, User Data Base

Part-time and full-time - health matters

Those who evaluate their health as good work to a larger extent full-time compared to those who perceive their health as bad. In Denmark, almost 70 per cent of those with good health worked full-time in 2015, while this is the case for 16 per cent for those with bad health. The percentage working part time is 15 per cent, regardless of their health status. In Denmark, the percentage with bad health working part-time increased from 9 per cent in 2006 to 15 per cent in 2015. It is worth noting that the percentage with bad health working full-time in Sweden has increased from 23 per cent to 39 per cent. The percentage working part-time and at the same time reporting

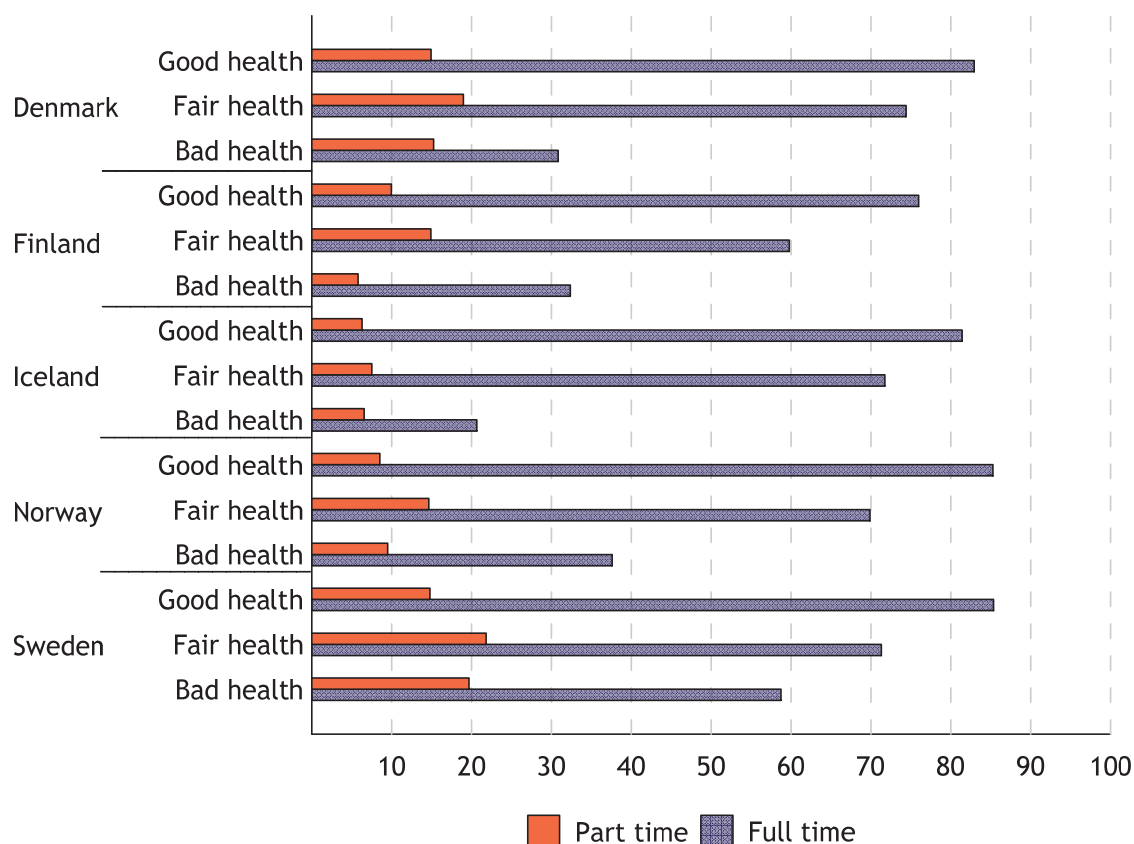
that their health is good varies from 15 per cent in Denmark and Sweden to 6 per cent in Finland. In Iceland and Norway 10 and 9 per cent of those with good health also work part time.

The percentage working part-time does not follow the health status to the same degree as the percentage working full-time. This may indicate that in the choice between part-time and full-time also other factors such as the possibility of combining paid work with other domestic duties can play a part.

Men work full-time more often than women, independently of how they perceive their health. The percentage of men working full-time and at the same time regarding their health as good in 2015 varied from 84 per cent in Norway to 74 per cent in Finland, the same as in 2010. The same ratios for women are observed - varying from 64 per cent in Iceland to 55 per cent in Denmark. The percentage of men with good health and at the same time working part-time is small, varying between 4 and 6 per cent in all the Nordic countries, with small changes over the last ten years. Women in good health work part time more often than men, the percentage varying from 25 per cent in Denmark to 9 per cent in Finland. See Appendix Tables A7.10 and A7.11 for more details.

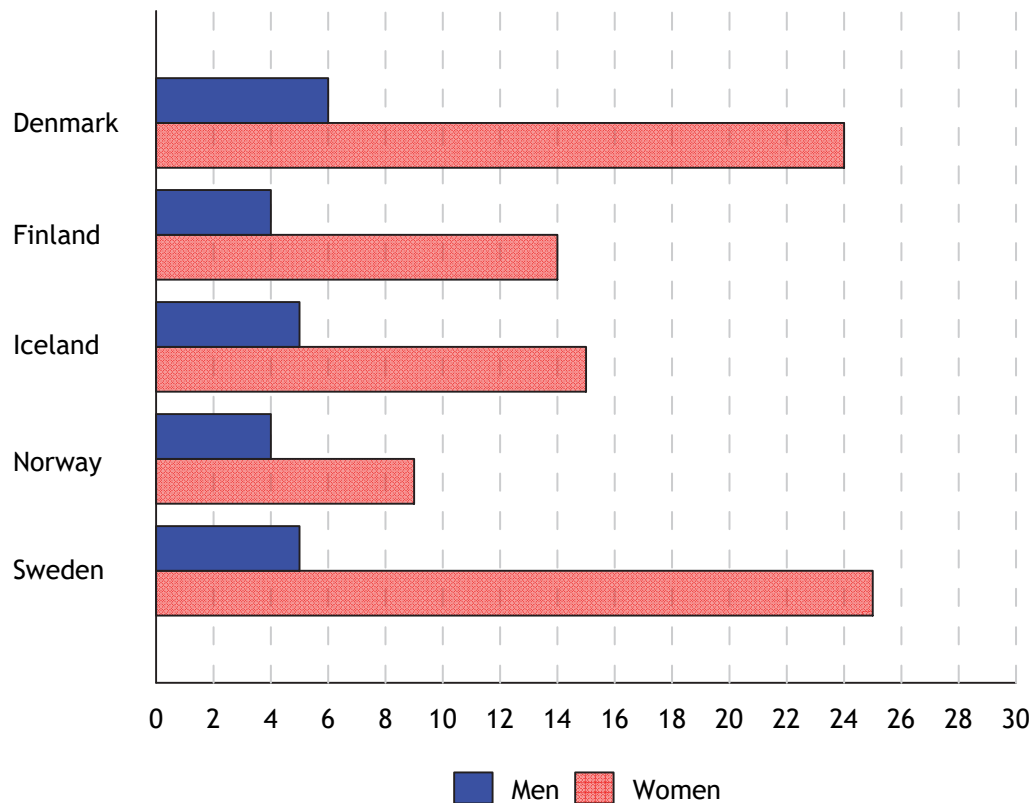
The future financing and expenditures for the welfare state depend on high work participation, these figures suggest that there may be a potential for increased work participation for those with good health working part-time, especially for women.

Figure 7.15 Self-evaluated health, working full-time or part-time, per cent, 2015



Source: Eu-silc, User Data Base

Figure 7.16 Percentage of men and women with good health, working part time, 2015



Source: Eu-silc, User Data Base

Health, education and work participation

The results up to now indicate that those with higher education often regard their health as good, and that those with good health work more compared to those with bad health. Below, we analyse a combination of education, work participation and self-evaluated health.

In order to avoid too few answers, we have grouped together those with bad health and those with fair health, and we label this weak health. When interpreting the results, it is important to keep in mind that those with lower education also have lower work participation - independently of how they evaluate their health. In addition to that, weak health may influence work participation and difficulties in people's working conditions may also negatively influence the way health is perceived.

Not surprisingly, those with higher education and good self-evaluated health work more compared to the other groups - around 90 per cent in this group are in work in all the Nordic countries. The lowest share is in Finland where 85 per cent of those with high education and good health are working. In Denmark this group increased their work participation from 84 per cent in 2006 to 90 per cent in 2015.

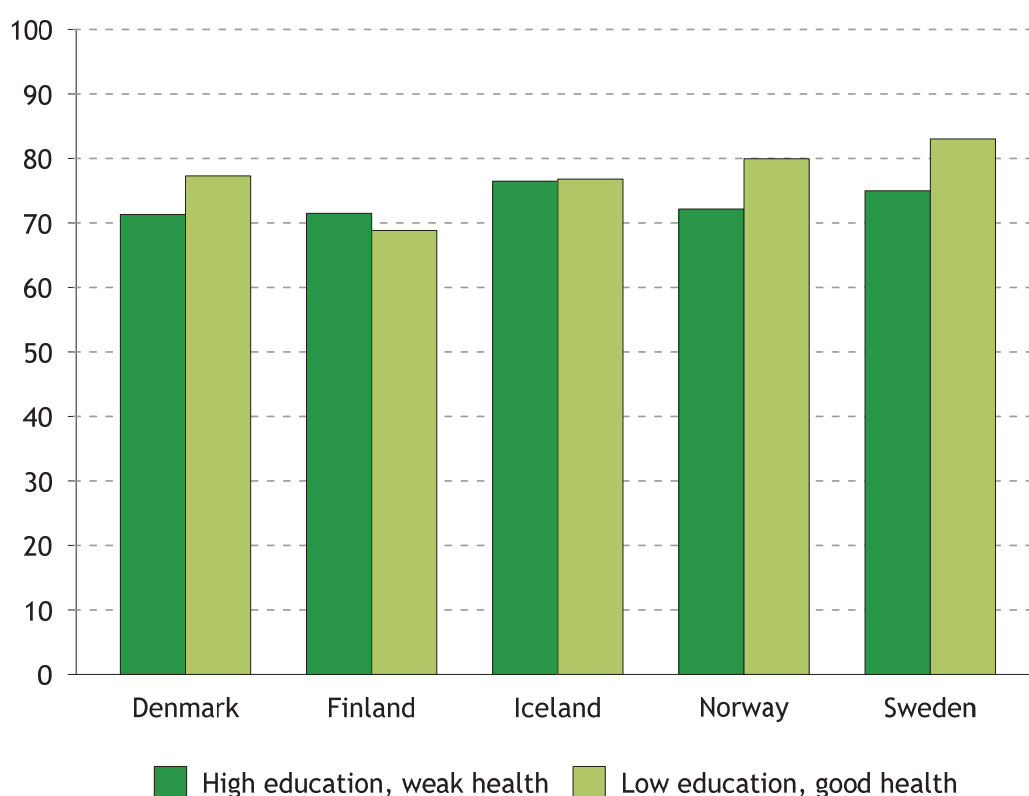
About 70 per cent of those with high education and weak health are in work. The figures thus indicate that also those with higher education reduce their work participation when their self-perceived health status worsens.

The development in work participation for those with a high level of education and good or bad health varies between the countries. The most distinct change is in

Norway where the difference in work participation for those with higher education and good health compared to those with weak health increased from 11 percentage points in 2006 to 19 percentage points in 2015. This is caused by a combination of increased work participation for those with good health (4 percentage points) and reduced work participation for those with weak health (4 percentage points). In Denmark both these groups increased their work participation from 2006 to 2015. The percentage working for those with higher education and good health increased by 6 percentage points from 84 per cent in 2006 to 90 per cent in 2015. The group with higher education and weak health increased their working participation by 5 percentage point to 71 per cent in 2015. In Iceland both groups reduced their work participation, and more so for those with high education and weak health, where the percentage working was reduced by 8 percentage points from 84 per cent in 2006 to 76 per cent in 2015. The percentage working for those with high education and good health was reduced by 4 percentage points to 88 per cent in 2015.

We know that higher education and good health is associated with a higher working percentage. It is, however, interesting that the results also show that in Denmark, Norway and Sweden those with lower education and good health work more often compared to those with higher education and weak health, indicating that independent of level of education, health is an important factor influencing work participation.

Figure 7.17 Work participation for those with high education and weak health, and those with low education and good health, 2015

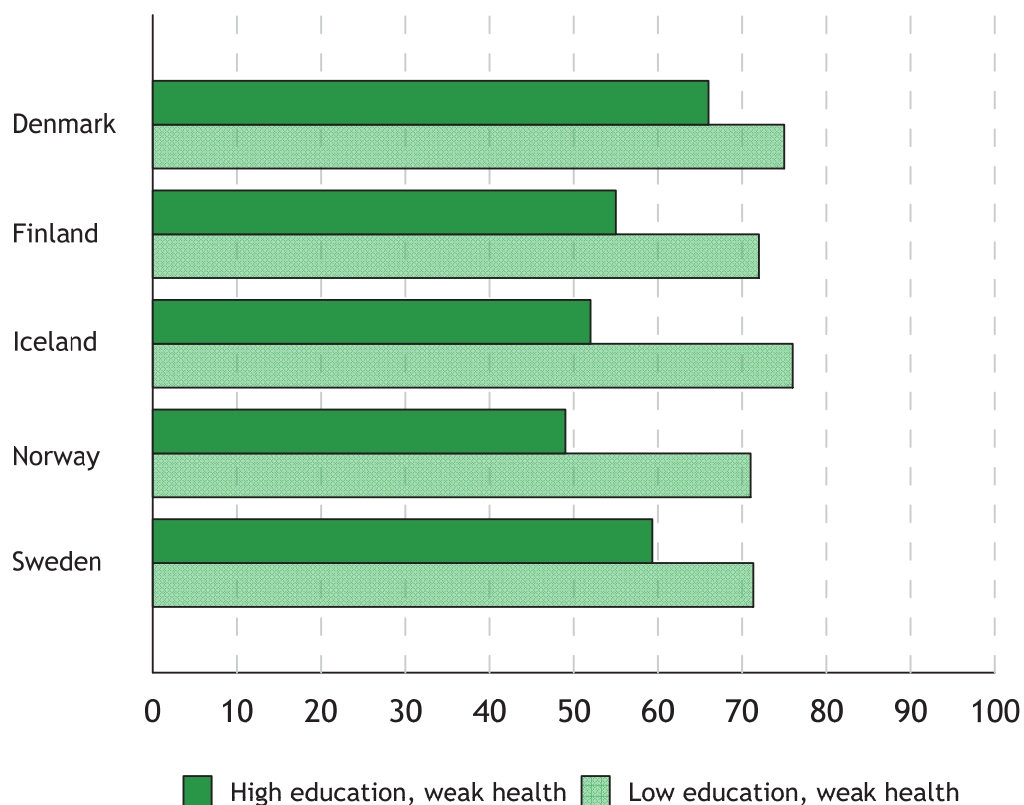


Source: Eu-silc, User Data Base

The previous results (Normann, Rønning and Nørgaard, 2013) indicated that a combination of low education and weak health results in the lowest percentage working. This was still the case in 2015.

The figures clearly show that the combination of low formal education and weak health is more often associated with being outside the labour market compared to the other groups. It seems plausible to assume that those with lower education work in occupations that may be more physically demanding and less flexible compared to those with higher education, and that it may be more difficult to adjust work if their health is reduced.

Figure 7.18 Work participation, weak health combined with high or low education per cent, 2015



Source: Eu-silc, User Data Base

When we compare those with weak health and either high or low education the figures indicate that those in the group with low education work less than the group with high education. The difference between these groups regarding their work participation was around 20 percentage points in 2005, however, the figures indicate a reduction in these differences.

The changes in the differences between these groups are, of course, a combination of changes in both groups' work participation. When we, in this report, comment on these changes in more detail, one should be aware that the sample sizes for the group with high education and weak health in general are small, so that the changes observed between 2006 and 2015 in most cases are not statistically significant. On the other hand, the sample sizes for the group with low education and weak health are

larger, and the changes observed over the 10-year period are more robust and statistically significant.

In Denmark, the difference in work participation for those with either high or low levels of education and weak health was reduced from 17 percentage points in 2006 to 12 percentage points in 2015. Both groups have increased their work participation, but the group working with low education and weak health has increased more (from 49 per cent in 2006 to 59 per cent in 2015) than the group with high education and weak health (from 66 per cent in 2006 to 71 per cent in 2015).

In Sweden, on the other hand, the reduction in the difference between the same groups is entirely caused by an increase in work participation for those with low education and weak health, with 10 percentage points, from 56 per cent in 2006 to 66 per cent in 2015. The percentage for those with high education and weak health was the same in 2006 and 2015; 75 per cent.

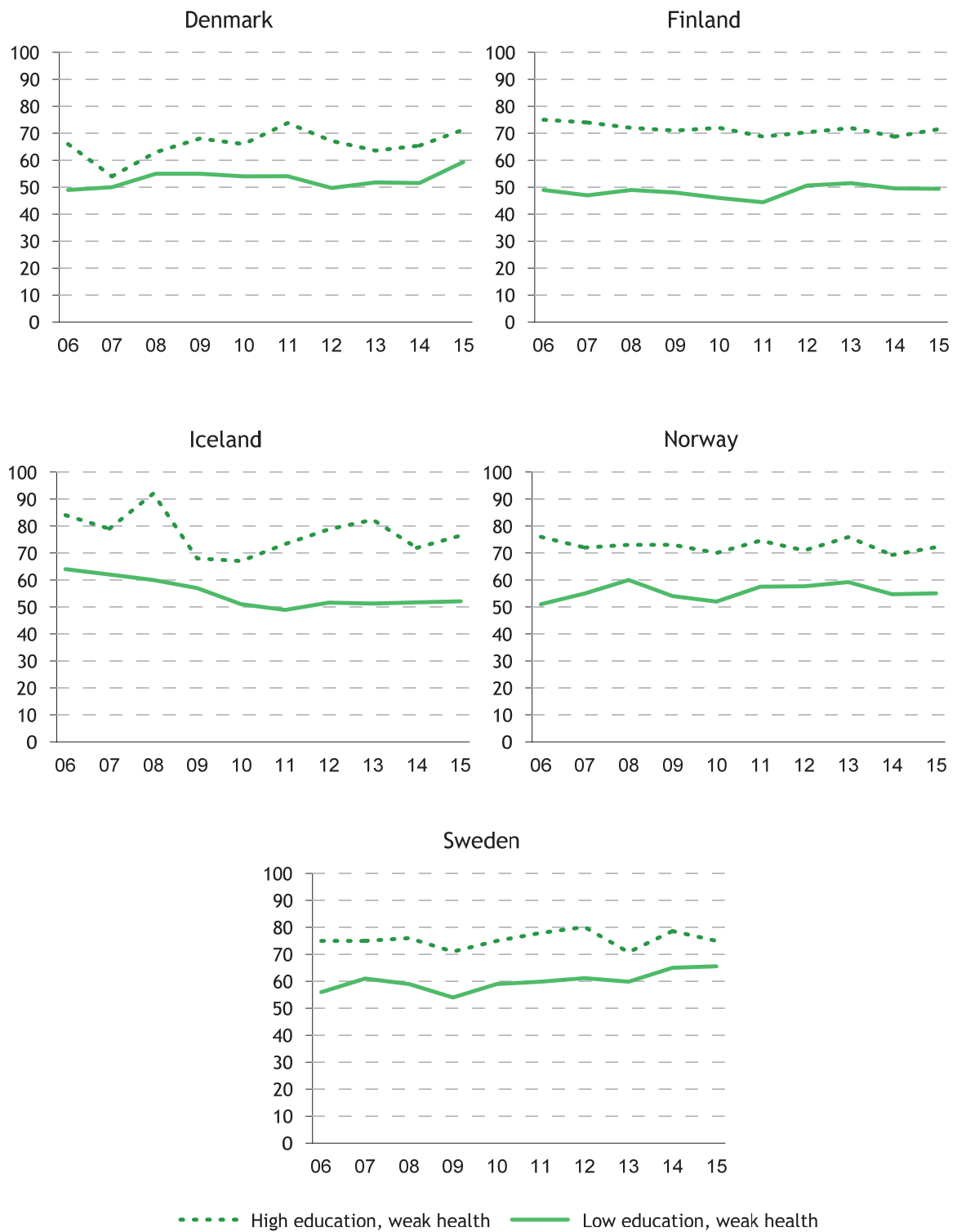
The difference between the groups with either high or low education and weak health is largest in Finland, and this was the case both in 2006 and in 2015. Here, the group with high education and weak health has reduced their work participation from 75 per cent in 2006 to 71 per cent in 2015. The percentage for those with low education and weak health fluctuate a bit, but is 49 per cent in 2015, the same as in 2006.

Iceland is the only country where the difference between the two groups has increased from 2006 to 2015. The difference was 20 percentage points in 2006 and this had increased to 24 percentage points in 2015. Both groups have reduced their work participation, but those with low education and weak health reduced their work participation (from 64 per cent in 2006 to 52 per cent in 2015) more than those with a higher level of education (from 84 per cent in 2006 to 76 per cent in 2015).

In Norway the difference between the two groups was reduced as a result of reduced work participation for those with high education and weak health from 76 per cent in 2006 to 72 per cent in 2015 and an increase in work participation for those with low education and weak health from 51 per cent in 2006 to 55 per cent in 2015. This result in a reduction in the difference between the groups from 25 percentage in 2006 to 17 percentage points in 2015.

The future financing of the welfare state relies on high work participation, and these figures point to the extra challenge of keeping people with lower education and reduced health in work for longer, as those with higher education, but reduced health already participate to a larger extent in the labour market. This can indicate that measures and policies to keep people in work, even if health becomes impaired, should be directed more towards those with lower education. A positive development over the last ten years, however, is that our results indicate that the difference between the groups has become smaller. It is especially worth noting the increased work participation for those with low education and weak health both in Denmark and Sweden.

Figure 7.19 Percentage in Work with weak health with high or low education, per cent, 2006-15



Source: Eu-silc, User Data Base

Table 7.1 The percentage participating in work, according to health and education, persons 20-64 years, 2006-15, per cent

	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Denmark											
High education good health	84	87	88	89	89	90	90	92	89	90	84
High education weak health	66	54	63	68	66	74	67	64	65	71	66
Low education good health	77	78	78	78	76	80	76	76	77	77	77
Low education weak health	49	50	55	55	54	54	50	52	52	59	49
Finland											
High education good health	86	87	86	86	83	85	86	85	85	85	86
High education weak health	75	74	72	71	72	69	70	72	69	71	75
Low education good health	72	75	76	73	68	69	69	69	70	69	72
Low education weak health	49	47	49	48	46	44	51	52	50	49	49
Iceland											
High education good health	92	92	90	86	86	87	86	87	87	88	92
High education weak health	84	79	92	68	67	73	79	82	72	76	84
Low education good health	81	82	82	74	73	75	72	76	74	77	81
Low education weak health	64	62	60	57	51	49	52	51	52	52	64
Norway											
High education good health	87	89	91	91	87	90	90	92	92	91	87
High education weak health	76	72	73	73	70	75	71	76	69	72	76
Low education good health	83	83	83	83	84	84	84	84	81	80	83
Low education weak health	51	55	60	54	52	57	58	59	55	55	51
Sweden											
High education good health	87	89	87	86	86	87	87	87	87	89	87
High education weak health	75	75	76	71	75	78	80	71	79	75	75
Low education good health	85	85	84	81	81	82	82	80	81	83	85
Low education weak health	56	61	59	54	59	60	61	60	65	66	56

Source: Eu-silc, User Data Base

Chronically ill and living with disabilities

Table 7.2 Percentage with chronic illness, 2006-15

	Denmark	Finland	Iceland	Norway	Sweden
2006	30	43	24	34	35
2007	28	42	18	30	35
2008	25	41	26	32	33
2009	29	43	28	36	33
2010	27	44	29	34	31
2011	29	45	30	35	33
2012	29	46	29	30	35
2013	28	47	30	33	37
2014	28	45	31	33	37
2015	30	46	31	33	37

Source: Eu-silc, User Data Base

We see that there have been relatively few changes in the percentages reporting that they have a chronic illness from 2006 to 2015. Finland still has the highest share with 46 per cent in 2015, an increase of 3 percentage points since 2006. The largest increase is in Iceland, where 31 per cent reported that they have a chronic illness in

2015, compared to 24 per cent in 2006. In all the Nordic countries, women still have a higher percentage of chronic illness than men. The percentages reporting chronic illness increase with age. In Finland and Norway, the percentages with chronic illness for those over 60 years are lower in 2015 than in 2006. In Iceland, however, the percentages with chronic illness increase in all age groups, with an exception for those over 70 years, here there is no change. See Appendix tables A7.12 and A7.14 for more details on gender and age.

When we group those with chronic illness after region of birth we see small differences between the groups. Finland is an exception, where the percentage with chronic illness for those born in Finland compared to those born outside Finland is relatively large (46 per cent for those born in Finland, 37 per cent for those born in EU and 30 per cent for those born outside EU). In Finland we also see a relatively large increase in the percentage with chronic illness for those born in EU from 26 per cent in 2006 to 37 per cent in 2015. In Iceland the percentage with chronic illness increased for the native-born population by 7 percentage points to 32 per cent in 2015. The percentage in Denmark and Norway for those born in EU decreased over the last ten years (27 per cent in Denmark and 26 per cent in Norway), while the percentage for those born in EU Sweden has increased, and 48 per cent of those born in EU report that they have a chronic illness in 2015. This is the highest percentage in the Nordic countries.

Table 7.3 Percentage with chronic illness and country background, 2006-15

	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Denmark											
Native-born	30	28	24	29	27	28	29	28	28	30	30
Born in EU	31	33	26	28	31	30	24	28	28	27	31
Born outside EU	30	28	33	33	27	29	28	33	29	29	30
Finland											
Native-born	43	42	41	43	45	45	46	47	46	46	43
Born in EU	26	22	29	26	24	27	28	31	34	37	26
Born outside EU	29	21	28	24	27	31	34	33	32	30	29
Iceland											
Native-born	25	19	27	29	29	31	30	31	32	32	25
Born in EU	20	11	16	15	18	23	18	18	20	23	20
Born outside EU	19	12	17	16	26	30	28	29	28	19	19
Norway											
Native-born	34	31	32	36	34	35	31	33	34	33	34
Born in EU	31	31	36	34	28	32	25	37	28	26	31
Born outside EU	29	25	24	32	33	30	30	33	35	31	29
Sweden											
Native-born	35	34	33	33	31	34	35	37	37	37	35
Born in EU	43	47	44	42	34	38	42	38	46	48	43
Born outside EU	35	31	27	25	30	29	28	35	35	29	35

Source: Eu-silc, User Data Base

We have grouped together those who report that they are strongly limited or limited in doing activities due to health problems and we refer to this as disabilities (see Table 7.4).

Table 7.4 Percentage living with disabilities, 2006-15

	Denmark	Finland	Iceland	Norway	Sweden
2006	..	38	19	22	20
2007	..	31	12	19	20
2008	25	30	14	16	16
2009	26	31	15	17	16
2010	25	31	17	16	15
2011	24	31	17	19	22
2012	27	33	17	13	16
2013	27	41	17	15	22
2014	28	31	19	16	12
2015	31	32	19	15	12

Source: Eu-silc, User Data Base

Denmark is the only country where the percentage reporting that they are living with disabilities has increased from 2006 and 2008 (25 per cent) to 2015 (31 per cent). In Finland, Norway and Sweden the percentage decreased by 6, 7 and 8 percentage points respectively. In all the Nordic countries, women report more often than men that they have disabilities (see Appendix table A7.13). Like self-reported health and chronic illness, the percentage with disabilities increase with age. The increases in the percentages for Denmark are in all age groups from 30 years old. In the other countries a reduction in the percentage is observed in almost all the age groups, but noticeably in those over 60 years, where there is a reduction of more than 10 percentage points for Finland, Norway and Sweden (see appendix table A7.15).

There are relatively small differences in the percentages reporting that they are living with disabilities depending on whether they are born in EU, born in the country in question or born outside the EU. Denmark is the only country where the percentages have increased from 2006 to 2015, and this is the case for all three groups. In Iceland there was no change and in Finland, Norway and Sweden the percentages for all the three groups were smaller in 2015 than in 2006. In Finland the largest reduction is for those born outside EU with 12 percentage points to 27 per cent in 2015. The reduction for those born in EU and those born in Finland is 6 percentage points, to 24 and 32 per cent. In Norway the largest reduction is seen for those born in EU with a reduction of 10 percentage points to 11 per cent in 2015, followed by those born in Norway with 7 percentage points to 15 per cent and then with 3 percentage points for those born outside EU with 3 percentage points to 17 per cent. In Sweden, all three groups reduced their percentages by 8-9 percentage points.

Table 7.5 Percentage living with disabilities, country background, 2006-15

	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Denmark										
Native-born	17	17	25	26	25	24	27	27	28	31
Born in EU	17	24	27	22	26	27	25	30	24	30
Born outside EU	20	18	27	34	30	30	29	34	31	30
Finland										
Native-born	38	32	30	31	31	31	34	41	31	32
Born in EU	30	16	13	15	26	12	20	28	24	24
Born outside EU	39	23	26	25	21	30	25	33	24	27
Iceland										
Native-born	19	13	15	16	17	18	18	18	19	19
Born in EU	14	5	7	8	9	10	10	10	10	13
Born outside EU	10	8	4	5	15	15	12	16	18	11
Norway										
Native-born	22	19	16	18	16	19	13	15	16	15
Born in EU	21	22	24	17	19	19	11	19	15	11
Born outside EU	20	18	12	14	19	18	17	17	20	17
Sweden										
Native-born	19	19	16	15	14	22	16	21	12	11
Born in EU	26	30	26	25	18	23	20	21	16	18
Born outside EU	23	22	15	13	15	24	15	23	14	14

Source: Eu-silc, User Data Base

In summary: Positive developments in the Nordic countries

This chapter on health includes a time series of ten years with EU-SILC data on self-reported health, combined with education and work participation. The analysis shows some positive developments. Many in the Nordic countries view their health as good and we observe an increase in the percentages of people with good health in those over 70 years of age, which may ease the future health expenditure. In Sweden there is increased work participation for those with bad self-perceived health, and in both Sweden and Denmark the work-participation for those with weak health and low education has increased.

It is difficult to see clear and large differences in self-reported health, living with chronic illness or living with disability for those born in EU or outside EU compared with those born in the country in question. A regression analysis taking into account variables such as sex, age and education shows, except for Finland that those born outside EU are at higher risk of reporting poor health compared to the native-born population. We do not find the same results for those born in the EU.

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Appendix

Table A2.1 Total population and the foreign-born population, number and per cent, 2016

	Denmark	Finland	Iceland	Norway	Sweden
Number					
<i>Total population</i>	5 707 251	5 503 297	332 529	5 213 985	9 995 153
<i>Immigrants (foreign born)</i>	637 619	357 541	42 012	772 478	1 784 497
<i>Descendants of immigrants</i>	163 370	57 947	4 656	149 657	535 805
<i>Rest of the population</i>	4 906 262	5 087 809	285 861	4 291 850	7 674 851
%					
<i>Total population</i>	100	100	100	100	100
<i>Immigrants (foreign born)</i>	11	6	13	15	18
<i>Descendants of immigrants</i>	3	1	1	3	5
<i>Rest of the population</i>	86	93	86	82	77

Source: The Statbank from the countries webpages

Differences in figures from table 2.1 are due to different sources and differences in time of counting.

Table A2.2 Number of foreign-born people in the population, by regions, 2016

	Denmark	Finland	Iceland	Norway	Sweden ¹
Foreign-born population, total	637 619	357 541	42 012	772 478	1 676 264
Nordic Countries	81 888	35 039	6 867	90 766	245 633
EU28/EEA	162 717	89 046	22 670	269 793	331 929
Rest of Europe	114 043	90 500	2 039	56 470	197 911
North America, Australia, New Zealand	20 737	7 919	2 564	23 645	28 356
Asia w/Turkey, Africa, South and Central America	257 281	126 450	7 718	331 804	871 287
Unknown	953	8 555	154		1 148

1 2015

Source: Country data

Table A2.3 Per cent of foreign-born people in the population, by regions, 2016

	Denmark	Finland	Iceland	Norway	Sweden ¹
Foreign-born population, total	100	100	100	100	100
Nordic Countries	13	10	16	12	14
EU28/EEA	26	25	54	35	19
Rest of Europe	18	25	5	7	11
North America, Australia, New Zealand	3	2	6	3	2
Asia w/Turkey, Africa, South and Central America	40	35	18	43	54
Unknown	-	2	-	.	-

1 2015

Source: Country data

Table A2.4 Immigrants, country of origin, number (N) and rank (R), 2016

	Denmark		Finland ¹		Iceland		Norway		Sweden ²	
	N	R	N	R	N	R	N	R	N	R
Bosnia-Herzegovina	17 214	10							57 705	8
China			9 956	7						
Denmark					3 287	2	25 055	6		
Estonia			44 481	2						
Finland									156 045	1
Former Soviet Union			55 552	1						
Former Yugoslavia			7 118	9					67 190	6
Germany	35 126	2	6 594	11	1 703	5	28239	5	49 586	9
Iran									69 067	5
Iraq	21 096	7	10 723	5			22 186	7	131 888	2
Lithuania					1 631	7	37 422	3		
Norge	19 865	8			1 056	10				
Pakistan							19 722	9		
Philippines					1 640	6	21 378	8		
Poland	37 414	1			12 025	1	96 066	1	85 517	4
Romania	22 037	6								
Russian Federation			12 766	4						
Somalia			10 570	6			28 321	4	60 623	7
Sweden	22 443	5	31 994	3	1 962	4	49 122	2		
Syria	24 117	4							98 216	3
Thailand			9 742	8	1 232	9				
Turkey	32 300	3							46 373	10
UK	18 662	9			1 424	8	19 476	10		
United States					2 095	3				
Viet Nam			6 603	10						

1 2015

Source: Country data

Table A2.5 The age structure, numbers, regions, 2016

	Total population	Native-born population	Foreign-born population, total	Nordic Countries	EU28/EEA	Rest of Europe	North America Australia New Zealand	Asia w/Turkey, Africa, South and Central America	Unknown
Denmark									
0-14	960 274	912 379	47 895	6 686	11 714	4 340	2 255	22 789	111
15-64	3 672 555	3 135 514	537 041	63 042	137 461	97 587	16 921	221 325	705
65+	1 074 422	1 021 739	52 683	12 160	13 542	12 116	1 561	13 167	137
Total	5 707 251	5 069 632	637 619	81 888	162 717	114 043	20 737	257 281	953
Finland									
0-14	894 178	860 465	33 713	2 466	10 452	4 782	1 117	12 903	1 991
15-64	3 459 144	3 154 154	304 990	30 651	74 743	76 713	6 202	110 913	5 738
65+	1 149 975	1 131 137	18 838	1 922	3 851	9 005	600	2 634	826
Total	5 503 297	5 145 756	357 541	35 039	89 046	90 500	7 919	126 450	8 555
Iceland									
0-14	66 540	61 509	5 031	1 685	2 058	110	494	678	6
15-64	219 916	184 662	35 254	4 547	19 996	1 835	1 929	6 799	148
65+	46 073	44 346	1 727	635	616	94	141	241	-
Total	332 529	290 517	42 012	6 867	22 670	2 039	2 564	7 718	154
Norway									
0-14	933 955	863 370	70 585	6 318	32 568	3 071	2 825	32 121	-
15-64	3 424 930	2 767 393	657 537	71 548	302 479	50 065	18 311	286 682	-
65+	855 100	810 745	44 355	12 900	25 509	3 333	2 509	13 004	-
Total	5 213 985	4 441 508	772 477	90 766	360 556	56 469	23 645	331 807	-
Sweden									
0-14	1 760 994	1 611 013	149 981	8 652	28 201	6 558	3 937	102 438	195
15-64	6 257 302	4 874 564	1 382 738	128 990	253 291	165 145	29 150	805 178	984
65+	1 976 857	1 725 079	251 778	105 078	62 652	25 547	3 748	54 614	139
Total	9 995 153	8 210 656	1 784 497	242 720	344 146	197 250	36 835	962 228	1 318

Source: Country data

Table A2.6 The age structure, share

	Total population	Native-born population	Foreign-born population, total	Nordic Countries	EU28/EEA	Rest of Europe	North America Australia New Zealand	Asia w/Turkey, Africa, South and Central America	Unknown
Denmark									
0-14	17	18	8	8	7	4	11	9	12
15-64	64	62	84	77	84	86	82	86	74
65+	19	20	8	15	8	11	8	5	14
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Finland									
0-14	16	17	9	7	12	14	14	10	23
15-64	63	61	85	87	84	78	78	88	67
65+	21	22	5	5	4	8	8	2	10
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Iceland									
0-14	20	1	1	5	2	6	6	1	-
15-64	66	4	10	13	22	24	24	5	2
65+	14	1	-	2	1	2	2	-	-
Total	100	6	12	20	25	32	32	6	2
Norway									
0-14	18	19	9	7	9	5	12	10	
15-64	66	62	85	79	84	89	77	86	
65+	16	18	6	14	7	6	11	4	
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	
Sweden									
0-14	18	20	9	4	9	4	15	11	15
15-64	62	59	77	54	72	82	74	84	74
65+	20	21	15	42	19	14	11	5	11
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Country data

Table A3.1 Education level, foreign-born adults, country of birth, 16 and above, number and per cent, 2015-16

	Denmark	Finland	Norway	Sweden
No education or below upper secondary level				
<i>Total population</i>	1 562 724	1 286 784	1 139 540	1 304 463
<i>Native-born</i>	1 290 455	1 129 969	914 220	978 355
<i>Foreign-born, total</i>	272 269	156 815	225 320	326 108
<i>Nordic Countries</i>	27 813	8 380	15 107	42 539
<i>EU28/EEA</i>	85 688	44 064	49 541	30 247
<i>Rest of Europe</i>	20 991	6 997	14 458	35 409
<i>North America, Australia, New Zealand</i>	6 779	3 296	2 971	1 461
<i>Asia w/Turkey, Africa, South and Central America</i>	130 569	65 432	143 146	216 219
<i>Unknown</i>	429	28 646	97	233
Upper secondary education				
<i>Total population</i>	1 821 153	1 867 828	1 720 379	3 159 634
<i>Native-born</i>	1 687 716	1 790 882	1 509 173	2 681 729
<i>Foreign-born, total</i>	133 437	76 946	211 206	477 905
<i>Nordic Countries</i>	19 496	14 122	29 668	77 724
<i>EU28/EEA</i>	30 183	16 075	89 741	86 335
<i>Rest of Europe</i>	16 741	3 596	16 955	76 697
<i>North America, Australia, New Zealand</i>	3 519	1 236	5 272	4 150
<i>Asia w/Turkey, Africa, South and Central America</i>	63 325	20 309	69 541	232 782
<i>Unknown</i>	173	21 608	29	217
Tertiary education				
<i>Total population</i>	1 221 711	1 377 896	1 391 996	2 566 290
<i>Native-born</i>	1 102 327	1 309 681	1 113 384	2 061 422
<i>Foreign-born, total</i>	119 384	68 215	278 612	504 868
<i>Nordic Countries</i>	21 869	9 555	38 408	57 692
<i>EU28/EEA</i>	35 031	13 679	107 184	120 208
<i>Rest of Europe</i>	11 674	2 356	23 108	59 460
<i>North America, Australia, New Zealand</i>	5 068	1 966	12 380	14 144
<i>Asia w/Turkey, Africa, South and Central America</i>	45 655	20 092	97 506	253 107
<i>Unknown</i>	87	20.567	26	257
No education or below upper secondary level, %				
<i>Total population</i>	34	28	27	19
<i>Native-born</i>	32	27	26	17
<i>Foreign-born, total</i>	52	52	32	25
<i>Nordic Countries</i>	40	26	18	24
<i>EU28/EEA</i>	57	60	20	13
<i>Rest of Europe</i>	42	54	27	21
<i>North America, Australia, New Zealand</i>	44	51	14	7
<i>Asia w/Turkey, Africa, South and Central America</i>	55	62	46	31
<i>Unknown</i>	62	40	64	33
Upper secondary education; %				
<i>Total population</i>	40	41	40	45
<i>Native-born</i>	41	42	43	47
<i>Foreign-born, total</i>	25	25	30	37
<i>Nordic Countries</i>	28	44	36	44
<i>EU28/EEA</i>	20	22	36	36
<i>Rest of Europe</i>	34	28	31	45
<i>North America, Australia, New Zealand</i>	23	19	26	21
<i>Asia w/Turkey, Africa, South and Central America</i>	26	19	22	33
<i>Unknown</i>	25	31	19	31

Continues

Table A3.1 Education level, foreign-born adults, country of birth, 16 and above, 2015-16, continued

	Denmark	Finland	Norway	Sweden
Tertiary education, %				
<i>Total population</i>	27	30	33	37
<i>Native-born</i>	27	31	31	36
<i>Foreign-born, total</i>	23	23	39	39
<i>Nordic Countries</i>	32	30	46	32
<i>EU28/EEA</i>	23	19	43	51
<i>Rest of Europe</i>	24	18	42	35
<i>North America, Australia, New Zealand</i>	33	30	60	72
<i>Asia w/Turkey, Africa, South and Central America</i>	19	19	31	36
<i>Unknown</i>	13	29	17	36

Source: National education data provided by the countries

Table A4.1 Total social expenditure as percentage of gross domestic product (GDP), 1995-2014

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
European Union (28 countries)
Belgium	26.9	27.3	26.5	26.0	25.8	25.0	25.8	26.2	27.0	26.9
Bulgaria
Czech Republic	16.2	16.3	17.2	17.3	17.9	18.0	17.9	18.6	18.6	17.8
Denmark	31.4	30.7	29.6	29.5	29.2	28.1	28.5	28.9	30.1	29.9
Germany	27.5	28.7	28.3	28.2	28.6	28.7	28.7	29.3	29.8	29.0
Estonia	15.3	13.8	13.0	12.7	12.6	13.0
Ireland	18.2	17.2	16.1	14.9	14.2	12.7	13.6	15.8	16.4	16.5
Greece	19.1	19.5	19.8	20.5	21.4	18.1	18.5	18.5	18.6	18.9
Spain	21.0	20.9	20.2	19.7	19.3	19.5	19.2	19.5	19.8	19.9
France	29.9	29.9	29.8	29.5	29.3	28.8	29.0	29.7	30.4	30.5
Croatia
Italy	23.3	23.4	24.1	23.7	24.0	23.8	24.0	24.4	24.8	25.0
Cyprus	13.7	13.8	14.9	16.7	16.4
Latvia	14.6	15.1	16.7	15.4	14.5	13.8	13.3	12.6
Lithuania	..	13.1	13.7	15.1	16.3	15.7	14.7	14.0	13.4	13.4
Luxembourg	19.9	20.1	20.3	20.3	19.5	18.6	20.0	20.9	22.1	22.1
Hungary	20.3	19.6	19.1	20.1	21.0	20.4
Malta	16.0	17.2	17.6	17.4	17.3	16.6	17.3	17.4	17.3	17.8
Netherlands	28.8	27.8	26.8	25.9	25.0	24.4	24.3	25.4	26.3	26.2
Austria	28.9	28.9	28.4	28.1	28.5	28.0	28.1	28.3	28.8	28.5
Poland	19.6	21.0	21.1	21.0	20.3
Portugal	20.1	19.4	19.4	20.0	20.4	20.7	21.7	22.5	22.8	23.4
Romania	13.0	12.7	13.5	13.0	12.8
Slovenia	..	22.9	23.3	23.6	23.5	23.7	23.9	23.9	23.2	22.8
Slovakia	18.2	19.1	19.4	19.7	19.8	19.1	18.7	18.8	18.0	16.9
Finland	30.6	30.5	28.3	26.3	25.4	24.3	24.1	24.9	25.5	25.6
Sweden	32.4	31.7	30.7	29.6	29.2	28.3	28.7	29.6	30.4	29.8
United Kingdom	24.2	24.0	23.8	23.6	23.4	23.9	24.5	23.6	24.3	24.6
Iceland	18.9	18.7	18.1	17.9	18.4	18.7	18.9	20.6	22.3	21.9
Norway	26.0	25.3	24.6	26.4	26.4	23.9	25.0	25.7	27.0	25.4
Switzerland	22.3	23.0	23.7	23.9	23.8	23.4	24.0	25.2	26.4	26.0
Serbia
Turkey	8.1	9.0	9.6	10.7	10.9

Continues

Table A4.1 Total social expenditure as percentage of gross domestic product (GDP), 1995-2014, continued

	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
European Union (28 countries)	25.9	28.7	28.6	28.3	28.7	28.9	28.7
Belgium	26.8	26.6	26.2	27.7	30.0	29.4	29.7	29.6	30.1	30.3
Bulgaria	14.7	13.8	13.4	14.7	16.1	17.0	16.5	16.6	17.6	18.5
Czech Republic	18.0	17.6	17.7	17.9	20.1	20.1	20.1	20.4	20.2	19.7
Denmark	29.5	28.4	29.1	28.9	32.7	32.4	32.1	32.0	32.5	32.9
Germany	28.9	27.8	26.8	27.1	30.5	29.8	28.6	28.7	29.0	29.1
Estonia	12.5	12.0	12.0	14.7	18.8	17.6	15.6	15.0	14.9	15.1
Ireland	16.5	16.7	17.2	19.9	23.5	24.0	23.5	23.2	22.3	20.6
Greece	20.4	20.6	21.3	22.8	25.1	26.2	27.7	28.2	26.7	26.0
Spain	20.1	20.0	20.3	21.4	24.4	24.6	25.3	25.5	25.8	25.4
France	30.6	30.4	30.1	30.4	32.9	32.9	32.7	33.5	33.9	34.3
Croatia	18.6	20.7	20.8	20.4	21.1	22.0	21.6
Italy	25.3	25.6	25.7	26.7	28.8	28.9	28.5	29.3	29.8	30.0
Cyprus	16.6	16.7	16.4	17.6	19.1	19.9	21.5	22.3	24.2	23.0
Latvia	12.2	11.9	10.6	12.1	16.8	18.3	15.4	14.4	14.6	14.5
Lithuania	13.2	13.3	14.2	15.9	21.0	18.9	16.9	16.3	15.3	14.7
Luxembourg	22.1	20.8	19.7	21.2	23.8	22.7	21.9	22.8	23.2	22.7
Hungary	21.5	22.0	22.2	22.4	22.8	22.6	21.7	21.4	20.8	19.9
Malta	17.7	17.8	17.8	18.1	19.6	19.3	18.9	19.1	18.9	18.2
Netherlands	25.8	26.5	26.1	26.4	29.4	29.7	30.2	31.0	31.2	30.9
Austria	28.1	27.7	27.2	27.8	29.8	29.8	29.0	29.3	29.8	30.0
Poland	20.0	19.7	18.4	19.3	20.3	19.7	18.7	18.9	19.4	19.0
Portugal	23.8	23.7	23.0	23.4	25.8	25.8	25.8	26.4	27.6	26.9
Romania	13.4	12.8	13.5	14.1	16.9	17.3	16.4	15.4	14.9	14.8
Slovenia	22.6	22.3	20.9	21.0	23.7	24.4	24.5	24.9	24.9	24.1
Slovakia	16.1	16.0	15.7	15.7	18.5	18.2	17.8	18.0	18.3	18.5
Finland	25.6	25.4	24.5	25.1	29.0	29.3	28.9	30.1	31.1	31.9
Sweden	29.5	28.6	27.4	27.7	30.1	28.6	28.2	29.3	30.0	29.6
United Kingdom	25.3	25.3	24.8	25.9	28.8	29.1	29.1	29.2	28.4	27.4
Iceland	21.1	20.7	20.6	21.0	23.8	23.3	23.9	23.7	23.4	23.9
Norway	23.4	22.1	22.1	21.8	25.5	25.1	24.8	24.5	25.0	26.0
Switzerland	25.7	24.5	23.8	23.3	25.5	25.5	25.4	26.3	27.0	27.1
Serbia	23.9	22.7	24.0	23.3	23.4
Turkey	11.0	11.2	11.6	11.9	14.1	13.5	13.2	13.8	14.1	14.1

Source: <http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/social-protection/data/database>. Extraction data 29 March 2017

Table A4.2 Total social expenditure, Purchasing Power Standard (PPS) per inhabitant, 1995-2014

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
European Union (28 countries)
Belgium	5 052	5 294	5 449	5 480	5 697	6 108	6 408	6 784	6 991	7 265
Bulgaria
Czech Republic	1 927	2 123	2 286	2 364	2 543	2 721	2 934	3 067	3 209	3 307
Denmark	5 830	6 026	6 227	6 465	6 622	6 880	6 961	7 280	7 488	7 851
Germany	5 704	6 135	6 243	6 415	6 801	7 063	7 226	7 496	7 684	7 785
Estonia	1 191	1 229	1 236	1 351	1 465	1 658
Ireland	2 838	2 924	3 056	3 196	3 319	3 333	3 779	4 617	4 902	5 187
Greece	2 409	2 600	2 852	3 107	3 336	2 989	3 293	3 548	3 657	3 966
Spain	2 832	2 955	3 090	3 205	3 317	3 683	3 862	4 177	4 290	4 468
France	5 375	5 600	5 912	6 162	6 447	6 850	7 221	7 582	7 515	7 735
Croatia
Italy	4 182	4 363	4 748	4 902	5 120	5 381	5 547	5 735	5 875	6 058
Cyprus	2 509	2 649	2 925	3 375	3 510
Latvia	837	946	1 086	1 105	1 160	1 218	1 255	1 306
Lithuania	..	773	910	1 071	1 172	1 226	1 237	1 311	1 443	1 553
Luxembourg	6 241	6 710	7 158	7 480	8 267	8 736	9 219	10 098	10 781	11 066
Hungary	2 108	2 214	2 329	2 659	2 856	2 934
Malta	1 805	2 064	2 277	2 358	2 469	2 577	2 694	2 834	2 989	3 130
Netherlands	5 760	5 891	6 123	6 286	6 522	7 024	7 186	7 730	7 713	8 054
Austria	5 681	5 959	6 147	6 430	6 827	7 200	7 217	7 549	7 823	8 069
Poland	1 887	2 062	2 170	2 233	2 350
Portugal	2 373	2 399	2 587	2 802	3 067	3 338	3 588	3 803	3 908	4 142
Romania	674	749	867	890	1 011
Slovenia	..	2 822	3 103	3 314	3 548	3 765	3 947	4 194	4 172	4 335
Slovakia	1 496	1 708	1 905	2 033	2 048	2 099	2 221	2 398	2 355	2 318
Finland	4 723	4 919	5 036	5 078	5 218	5 429	5 502	5 798	5 951	6 367
Sweden	5 962	6 071	6 191	6 262	6 709	7 093	7 218	7 610	7 877	8 145
United Kingdom	3 942	4 217	4 444	4 510	4 669	5 230	5 610	5 575	5 970	6 433
Iceland	3 618	3 733	4 063	4 252	4 633	4 672	4 908	5 335	5 725	6 139
Norway	5 322	5 758	6 018	6 422	6 845	7 329	7 644	7 813	8 208	8 520
Switzerland	5 502	5 829	6 331	6 599	6 746	6 989	7 322	7 797	8 053	8 226
Serbia
Turkey	625	706	769	848	963

Continues

Table A4.2 Total social expenditure, Purchasing Power Standard (PPS) per inhabitant, 1995-2014, continued

	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
European Union (28 countries)	6 754	7 025	7 276	7 415	7 644	7 730	7 903
Belgium	7 550	7 741	7 884	8 256	8 530	8 800	9 059	9 234	9 504	9 923
Bulgaria	1 255	1 266	1 407	1 637	1 717	1 925	2 039	2 117	2 302	2 544
Czech Republic	3 576	3 677	4 024	4 104	4 437	4 501	4 546	4 691	4 778	5 010
Denmark	8 134	8 430	9 188	9 177	9 660	10 156	10 195	10 400	10 763	11 061
Germany	7 942	7 984	8 196	8 279	8 774	9 118	9 420	9 720	9 911	10 325
Estonia	1 812	1 970	2 241	2 638	2 948	2 944	2 918	3 013	3 051	3 243
Ireland	5 544	5 895	6 190	6 382	6 784	7 168	7 264	7 366	7 082	6 926
Greece	4 354	4 756	5 079	5 516	5 738	5 578	5 436	5 304	5 007	4 967
Spain	4 805	5 100	5 284	5 498	5 838	5 791	5 887	5 907	5 969	6 079
France	8 174	8 376	8 688	8 665	8 913	9 238	9 427	9 833	10 190	10 456
Croatia	2 990	3 090	3 107	3 126	3 316	3 477	3 509
Italy	6 307	6 674	7 014	7 314	7 410	7 776	7 754	7 849	7 771	7 828
Cyprus	3 792	4 015	4 372	4 762	4 798	4 904	5 215	5 234	5 339	5 139
Latvia	1 459	1 615	1 718	1 928	2 163	2 486	2 297	2 362	2 517	2 599
Lithuania	1 725	1 913	2 371	2 729	2 966	2 960	2 985	3 134	3 124	3 205
Luxembourg	11 831	12 429	12 476	13 192	13 363	13 086	13 330	13 880	14 626	14 924
Hungary	3 255	3 519	3 617	3 755	3 677	3 879	3 896	3 886	3 933	3 975
Malta	3 283	3 319	3 599	3 678	3 845	4 010	3 978	4 190	4 218	4 455
Netherlands	8 368	9 189	9 633	9 862	10 112	10 048	10 321	10 709	10 828	10 825
Austria	8 420	8 717	8 911	9 108	9 305	9 606	9 685	10 127	10 372	10 675
Poland	2 395	2 538	2 730	2 969	3 185	3 397	3 476	3 706	3 836	3 895
Portugal	4 489	4 706	4 740	4 779	5 028	5 161	5 040	5 107	5 544	5 544
Romania	1 107	1 221	1 495	1 820	2 035	2 308	2 276	2 241	2 245	2 350
Slovenia	4 493	4 712	4 776	4 912	4 937	5 126	5 267	5 323	5 297	5 414
Slovakia	2 426	2 591	2 859	3 043	3 296	3 654	3 675	3 817	3 948	4 102
Finland	6 596	6 974	7 504	7 790	8 136	8 493	8 674	9 119	9 385	9 742
Sweden	8 395	8 798	9 082	9 156	9 158	9 017	9 186	9 701	9 704	9 800
United Kingdom	6 764	7 056	7 095	7 221	7 326	7 622	7 759	7 988	7 754	7 804
Iceland	6 392	6 649	7 125	7 095	7 282	6 807	7 213	7 314	7 264	7 636
Norway	8 727	9 157	9 801	10 074	10 313	10 478	10 840	11 239	11 609	11 979
Switzerland	8 522	8 725	9 362	9 317	9 718	9 766	9 943	10 580	11 105	11 322
Serbia	2 170	2 185	2 379	2 353	2 398
Turkey	1 046	1 165	1 278	1 401	1 558	1 661	1 807	1 922	1 979	2 038

Source: <http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/social-protection/data/database>. Extraction date 29 March 2017

Table A4.3 Social expenditure by function, per cent of total expenditure, Europe 2014

	Family/Children	Unemployment	Sickness/Health care	Old age and survivors	Disability	Housing and Social exclusion n.e.c.
European Union (28 countries)	8.22	4.94	28.13	44.19	6.98	3.81
Belgium	7.22	11.16	27.71	38.68	7.94	3.17
Bulgaria	10.25	2.80	26.71	47.87	7.53	1.59
Czech Republic	8.42	2.92	30.45	45.86	6.41	3.03
Denmark	10.80	5.00	19.23	42.60	12.38	6.22
Germany	10.79	3.74	33.25	37.49	7.71	2.66
Estonia	10.75	2.79	28.97	43.71	11.69	0.88
Ireland	12.30	12.91	32.42	27.96	5.66	2.57
Greece	4.29	4.20	19.26	63.86	6.36	0.24
Spain	5.19	10.56	25.59	48.22	7.22	1.41
France	7.37	5.83	26.71	42.69	6.18	5.19
Croatia	7.07	2.21	32.93	42.90	12.00	1.04
Italy	5.22	5.58	22.61	56.36	5.69	0.76
Cyprus	6.03	8.28	19.37	53.52	3.12	6.15
Latvia	8.96	3.93	23.85	51.28	9.01	1.54
Lithuania	7.36	2.27	27.81	45.20	9.17	2.94
Luxembourg	15.35	6.40	24.91	37.12	11.17	3.50
Hungary	11.78	1.87	24.38	51.38	7.25	2.05
Malta	6.57	2.84	32.50	51.16	3.73	2.16
Netherlands	2.93	5.20	32.39	39.77	7.18	6.02
Austria	9.22	5.43	24.60	49.38	6.79	1.94
Poland	7.46	1.30	20.90	59.07	8.00	1.01
Portugal	4.36	5.47	22.63	54.57	7.00	0.84
Romania	8.12	0.94	26.28	53.93	7.31	1.28
Slovenia	7.73	2.98	30.28	48.10	6.02	3.08
Slovakia	9.05	2.83	30.07	44.35	8.76	2.19
Finland	10.10	8.01	23.42	40.63	10.63	4.71
Sweden	10.37	3.76	25.49	42.60	11.72	4.13
United Kingdom	10.27	1.65	31.49	42.72	5.31	7.59
Iceland	11.43	3.08	35.00	27.87	16.08	5.77
Norway	12.16	2.23	29.65	35.22	15.65	3.15
Switzerland	5.42	3.24	26.82	43.40	8.41	3.00
Serbia	5.74	2.71	25.49	54.39	7.54	2.22
Turkey	3.07	1.28	29.66	59.18	3.74	1.32

Table A4.4 Social expenditure on old age and survivors, percentage of GDP and PPS per inhabitant, 1995-2014

	Purchasing power standard (PPS) per inhabitant									
	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
European Union (28 countries)
Belgium	2 058	2 133	2 206	2 247	2 318	2 468	2 578	2 716	2 723	2 790
Bulgaria
Czech Republic	742	831	950	1 006	1 071	1 142	1 220	1 262	1 279	1 317
Denmark	2 135	2 279	2 386	2 410	2 449	2 547	2 568	2 664	2 707	2 837
Germany	2 264	2 379	2 483	2 581	2 712	2 832	2 927	3 017	3 101	3 189
Estonia	532	548	538	597	647	714
Ireland	719	719	742	786	793	820	904	1 215	1 303	1 362
Greece	1 212	1 332	1 450	1 617	1 681	1 692	1 896	2 019	2 053	2 238
Spain	1 205	1 287	1 373	1 420	1 467	1 632	1 684	1 797	1 805	1 870
France	2 191	2 274	2 428	2 531	2 655	2 808	2 936	3 057	3 008	3 099
Croatia
Italy	2 607	2 721	2 973	3 075	3 209	3 322	3 371	3 450	3 545	3 602
Cyprus	1 192	1 210	1 402	1 532	1 642
Latvia	482	556	634	633	638	667	634	631
Lithuania	..	356	423	486	549	569	570	602	663	705
Luxembourg	2 715	2 816	3 015	3 111	3 220	3 351	3 366	3 689	3 921	3 950
Hungary	849	899	968	1 125	1 154	1 221
Malta	880	1 008	1 084	1 139	1 216	1 259	1 366	1 391	1 458	1 504
Netherlands	2 164	2 233	2 366	2 466	2 570	2 835	2 820	3 038	3 031	3 214
Austria	2 521	2 668	2 780	2 922	3 081	3 324	3 341	3 467	3 587	3 699
Poland	1 015	1 135	1 211	1 274	1 348
Portugal	885	957	1 014	1 083	1 205	1 332	1 443	1 584	1 677	1 823
Romania	300	346	406	390	464
Slovenia	..	1 274	1 385	1 476	1 565	1 659	1 752	1 904	1 834	1 907
Slovakia	552	597	659	707	720	757	824	892	920	945
Finland	1 505	1 611	1 659	1 694	1 788	1 885	1 953	2 071	2 130	2 277
Sweden	2 241	2 360	2 427	2 458	2 588	2 713	2 713	2 839	2 990	3 096
United Kingdom	1 625	1 777	1 953	1 954	2 077	2 461	2 504	2 447	2 543	2 723
Iceland	1 061	1 114	1 233	1 324	1 420	1 431	1 476	1 625	1 719	1 851
Norway	1 615	1 728	1 820	1 977	2 085	2 202	2 280	2 300	2 359	2 491
Switzerland	2 368	2 491	2 681	2 810	2 944	3 078	3 219	3 287	3 331	3 494
Serbia
Turkey	310	350	383	455	535

Continues

Table A4.4 Social expenditure on old age and survivors, percentage of GDP and PPS per inhabitant, 1995-2014, continued

	Purchasing power standard (PPS) per inhabitant									
	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
European Union (28 countries)	2 941	3 005	3 129	3 224	3 355	3 409	3 493
Belgium	2 895	2 999	2 992	3 149	3 234	3 288	3 435	3 538	3 690	3 838
Bulgaria	620	646	701	783	861	962	991	1 024	1 125	1 218
Czech Republic	1 436	1 497	1 670	1 759	1 902	1 980	2 076	2 186	2 200	2 298
Denmark	2 968	3 109	3 762	3 758	3 893	3 948	4 032	4 115	4 412	4 712
Germany	3 252	3 298	3 381	3 377	3 389	3 502	3 628	3 735	3 735	3 871
Estonia	785	879	969	1 122	1 240	1 287	1 269	1 324	1 347	1 418
Ireland	1 448	1 552	1 609	1 677	1 724	1 862	1 917	2 009	1 952	1 936
Greece	2 445	2 642	2 803	3 035	3 128	3 052	3 149	3 262	3 043	3 172
Spain	1 987	2 094	2 207	2 265	2 337	2 422	2 501	2 646	2 779	2 931
France	3 302	3 444	3 625	3 661	3 731	3 888	4 032	4 189	4 364	4 463
Croatia	1 099	1 122	1 143	1 170	1 366	1 429	1 505
Italy	3 717	3 911	3 951	4 092	4 094	4 380	4 402	4 460	4 441	4 412
Cyprus	1 721	1 805	1 987	2 054	2 099	2 261	2 412	2 613	2 658	2 750
Latvia	670	724	755	850	1 001	1 299	1 224	1 286	1 330	1 333
Lithuania	768	819	1 073	1 178	1 259	1 236	1 264	1 395	1 406	1 449
Luxembourg	4 247	4 462	4 562	4 667	4 760	4 649	4 906	5 173	5 401	5 540
Hungary	1 355	1 456	1 557	1 672	1 633	1 748	1 855	1 997	2 039	2 043
Malta	1 629	1 679	1 801	1 846	1 936	2 121	2 097	2 241	2 194	2 279
Netherlands	3 352	3 574	3 842	3 809	3 806	3 807	3 959	4 164	4 236	4 305
Austria	3 874	4 074	4 201	4 308	4 407	4 586	4 683	4 945	5 089	5 272
Poland	1 360	1 477	1 584	1 669	1 832	1 919	1 973	2 138	2 226	2 301
Portugal	2 012	2 172	2 243	2 343	2 421	2 523	2 617	2 645	2 940	3 025
Romania	478	544	663	909	1 043	1 159	1 191	1 202	1 200	1 267
Slovenia	1 950	2 097	2 184	2 208	2 225	2 332	2 429	2 463	2 541	2 604
Slovakia	1 042	1 096	1 200	1 250	1 361	1 515	1 553	1 636	1 708	1 819
Finland	2 380	2 553	2 794	2 865	3 043	3 236	3 369	3 607	3 769	3 959
Sweden	3 230	3 395	3 606	3 733	3 798	3 742	3 858	4 123	4 166	4 175
United Kingdom	2 821	2 891	2 886	2 944	2 992	3 098	3 161	3 337	3 288	3 334
Iceland	1 962	2 006	1 765	1 731	1 705	1 581	1 826	1 931	1 950	2 128
Norway	2 629	2 793	3 025	3 153	3 175	3 266	3 520	3 777	4 002	4 219
Switzerland	3 621	3 795	4 152	4 203	4 280	4 275	4 425	4 633	4 758	4 913
Serbia	1 111	1 154	1 287	1 287	1 304
Turkey	595	658	743	798	867	961	1 046	1 125	1 168	1 206

Continues

Table A4.4 Social expenditure on old age and survivors, percentage of GDP and PPS per inhabitant, 1995-2014, continued

	Percentage of gross domestic product (GDP)									
	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
European Union (28 countries)
Belgium	10.9	11.0	10.7	10.7	10.5	10.1	10.4	10.5	10.5	10.3
Bulgaria
Czech Republic	6.2	6.4	7.2	7.4	7.5	7.6	7.4	7.7	7.4	7.1
Denmark	11.5	11.6	11.3	11.0	10.8	10.4	10.5	10.6	10.9	10.8
Germany	10.9	11.1	11.3	11.4	11.4	11.5	11.6	11.8	12.0	11.9
Estonia	6.8	6.2	5.6	5.6	5.5	5.6
Ireland	4.6	4.2	3.9	3.7	3.4	3.1	3.2	4.1	4.4	4.3
Greece	9.6	10.0	10.0	10.7	10.8	10.2	10.7	10.5	10.4	10.6
Spain	9.0	9.1	9.0	8.7	8.5	8.6	8.4	8.4	8.3	8.3
France	12.2	12.1	12.2	12.1	12.1	11.8	11.8	12.0	12.2	12.2
Croatia
Italy	14.5	14.6	15.1	14.9	15.0	14.7	14.6	14.7	15.0	14.9
Cyprus	6.5	6.3	7.2	7.6	7.7
Latvia	8.4	8.9	9.7	8.8	8.0	7.5	6.7	6.1
Lithuania	..	6.0	6.3	6.8	7.7	7.3	6.8	6.4	6.2	6.1
Luxembourg	8.7	8.4	8.5	8.4	7.6	7.1	7.3	7.6	8.0	7.9
Hungary	8.2	8.0	7.9	8.5	8.5	8.5
Malta	7.8	8.4	8.4	8.4	8.5	8.1	8.8	8.6	8.5	8.6
Netherlands	10.8	10.5	10.4	10.1	9.9	9.9	9.5	10.0	10.3	10.5
Austria	12.8	12.9	12.8	12.7	12.9	12.9	13.0	13.0	13.2	13.0
Poland	10.5	11.5	11.8	12.0	11.7
Portugal	7.5	7.7	7.6	7.7	8.0	8.3	8.7	9.4	9.8	10.3
Romania	5.8	5.9	6.3	5.7	5.9
Slovenia	..	10.4	10.4	10.5	10.4	10.4	10.6	10.8	10.2	10.0
Slovakia	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.8	7.0	6.9	6.9	7.0	7.0	6.9
Finland	9.8	10.0	9.3	8.8	8.7	8.4	8.6	8.9	9.1	9.2
Sweden	12.2	12.3	12.1	11.6	11.3	10.8	10.8	11.1	11.5	11.3
United Kingdom	10.0	10.1	10.4	10.2	10.4	11.2	10.9	10.3	10.4	10.4
Iceland	5.6	5.6	5.5	5.6	5.7	5.7	5.7	6.3	6.7	6.6
Norway	7.9	7.6	7.4	8.1	8.0	7.2	7.4	7.6	7.8	7.4
Switzerland	9.6	9.8	10.0	10.2	10.4	10.3	10.5	10.6	10.9	11.0
Serbia
Turkey	4.0	4.5	4.8	5.7	6.1

Continues

Table A4.4 Social expenditure on old age and survivors, percentage of GDP and PPS per inhabitant, 1995-2014, continued

	Percentage of gross domestic product (GDP)									
	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
European Union (28 countries)	11.3	12.3	12.3	12.3	12.6	12.7	12.7
Belgium	10.3	10.3	10.0	10.6	11.4	11.0	11.3	11.3	11.7	11.7
Bulgaria	7.3	7.1	6.7	7.1	8.1	8.5	8.0	8.0	8.6	8.9
Czech Republic	7.2	7.2	7.3	7.7	8.6	8.8	9.2	9.5	9.3	9.0
Denmark	10.8	10.5	11.9	11.8	13.2	12.6	12.7	12.7	13.3	14.0
Germany	11.8	11.5	11.1	11.1	11.8	11.4	11.0	11.0	10.9	10.9
Estonia	5.4	5.4	5.2	6.2	7.9	7.7	6.8	6.6	6.6	6.6
Ireland	4.3	4.4	4.5	5.2	6.0	6.2	6.2	6.3	6.1	5.8
Greece	11.5	11.4	11.7	12.6	13.7	14.3	16.0	17.3	16.2	16.6
Spain	8.3	8.2	8.5	8.8	9.8	10.3	10.8	11.4	12.0	12.2
France	12.4	12.5	12.6	12.9	13.8	13.9	14.0	14.3	14.5	14.6
Croatia	6.8	7.5	7.6	7.6	8.7	9.0	9.3
Italy	14.9	15.0	14.5	14.9	15.9	16.3	16.2	16.6	17.0	16.9
Cyprus	7.5	7.5	7.5	7.6	8.4	9.2	10.0	11.1	12.0	12.3
Latvia	5.6	5.3	4.7	5.3	7.8	9.5	8.2	7.8	7.7	7.4
Lithuania	5.9	5.7	6.4	6.9	8.9	7.9	7.1	7.2	6.9	6.7
Luxembourg	7.9	7.5	7.2	7.5	8.5	8.1	8.1	8.5	8.6	8.4
Hungary	8.9	9.1	9.6	10.0	10.1	10.2	10.3	11.0	10.8	10.2
Malta	8.8	9.0	8.9	9.1	9.9	10.2	10.0	10.2	9.8	9.3
Netherlands	10.3	10.3	10.4	10.2	11.0	11.2	11.6	12.0	12.2	12.3
Austria	12.9	13.0	12.8	13.1	14.1	14.2	14.0	14.3	14.6	14.8
Poland	11.4	11.4	10.7	10.9	11.7	11.1	10.6	10.9	11.3	11.2
Portugal	10.7	10.9	10.9	11.5	12.4	12.6	13.4	13.7	14.6	14.7
Romania	5.8	5.7	6.0	7.0	8.7	8.7	8.6	8.2	8.0	8.0
Slovenia	9.8	9.9	9.6	9.4	10.7	11.1	11.3	11.5	12.0	11.6
Slovakia	6.9	6.8	6.6	6.5	7.6	7.6	7.5	7.7	7.9	8.2
Finland	9.2	9.3	9.1	9.2	10.9	11.2	11.2	11.9	12.5	13.0
Sweden	11.3	11.0	10.9	11.3	12.5	11.9	11.9	12.5	12.9	12.6
United Kingdom	10.6	10.3	10.1	10.6	11.7	11.8	11.9	12.2	12.1	11.7
Iceland	6.5	6.3	5.1	5.1	5.6	5.4	6.1	6.2	6.3	6.7
Norway	7.0	6.7	6.8	6.8	7.8	7.8	8.0	8.2	8.6	9.1
Switzerland	10.9	10.7	10.6	10.5	11.2	11.2	11.3	11.5	11.6	11.7
Serbia	12.3	12.0	13.0	12.7	12.7
Turkey	6.2	6.3	6.8	6.8	7.9	7.8	7.7	8.1	8.3	8.4

Table A4.5 Social expenditure on sickness and health care, percentage of GDP and PPS per inhabitant, 1995-2014

	Purchasing power standard (PPS) per inhabitant									
	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
European Union (28 countries)
Belgium	1 130	1 228	1 221	1 255	1 332	1 579	1 634	1 729	1 827	1 961
Bulgaria
Czech Republic	692	758	766	767	815	886	974	1 041	1 101	1 123
Denmark	1 007	1 040	1 098	1 214	1 261	1 350	1 370	1 478	1 491	1 569
Germany	1 759	1 828	1 798	1 831	1 954	2 028	2 086	2 133	2 162	2 123
Estonia	367	388	388	414	460	514
Ireland	985	984	1 070	1 152	1 265	1 282	1 508	1 666	1 761	1 892
Greece	605	628	694	727	790	750	832	933	995	1 049
Spain	785	832	865	900	957	1 074	1 136	1 241	1 307	1 376
France	1 434	1 496	1 556	1 631	1 718	1 862	1 976	2 100	2 112	2 175
Croatia
Italy	901	951	1 037	1 089	1 136	1 268	1 358	1 405	1 418	1 525
Cyprus	678	700	732	864	823
Latvia	148	155	178	190	231	240	282	314
Lithuania	..	229	279	339	344	355	360	381	415	435
Luxembourg	1 500	1 683	1 756	1 813	2 066	2 137	2 318	2 533	2 645	2 752
Hungary	570	609	633	732	836	855
Malta	501	553	661	673	704	776	814	836	911	985
Netherlands	1 565	1 511	1 560	1 643	1 782	1 917	2 051	2 331	2 326	2 364
Austria	1 414	1 452	1 527	1 625	1 749	1 784	1 799	1 883	1 909	1 980
Poland	361	388	433	440	437
Portugal	779	678	726	784	870	954	987	1 078	1 046	1 179
Romania	170	199	218	243	258
Slovenia	..	850	933	1 002	1 065	1 125	1 209	1 282	1 322	1 367
Slovakia	478	614	669	702	671	709	753	793	735	671
Finland	961	1 020	1 075	1 115	1 166	1 251	1 305	1 395	1 445	1 569
Sweden	1 265	1 311	1 382	1 494	1 665	1 878	1 975	2 117	2 153	2 141
United Kingdom	906	967	1 022	1 094	1 144	1 287	1 493	1 542	1 701	1 863
Iceland	1 342	1 372	1 498	1 588	1 813	1 801	1 859	1 953	2 034	2 103
Norway	1 471	1 693	1 855	2 047	2 195	2 457	2 585	2 603	2 743	2 749
Switzerland	1 315	1 380	1 454	1 532	1 579	1 666	1 799	1 956	1 975	2 047
Serbia
Turkey	237	291	321	327	352

Continues

Table A4.5 Social expenditure on sickness and health care, percentage of GDP and PPS per inhabitant, 1995-2014, continued

	Purchasing power standard (PPS) per inhabitant									
	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
European Union (28 countries)	1 890	1 961	2 026	2 080	2 132	2 153	2 223
Belgium	2 030	2 025	2 119	2 222	2 302	2 392	2 482	2 575	2 623	2 750
Bulgaria	352	320	368	466	391	452	514	536	572	679
Czech Republic	1 187	1 187	1 281	1 270	1 344	1 356	1 357	1 387	1 412	1 526
Denmark	1 639	1 770	1 910	1 975	2 045	2 095	2 088	2 118	2 105	2 127
Germany	2 170	2 209	2 352	2 441	2 707	2 830	2 998	3 138	3 259	3 433
Estonia	570	607	739	844	827	781	807	839	846	939
Ireland	2 047	2 142	2 278	2 283	2 280	2 262	2 314	2 337	2 260	2 245
Greece	1 212	1 287	1 383	1 519	1 580	1 502	1 285	1 147	1 065	957
Spain	1 471	1 575	1 616	1 693	1 688	1 643	1 607	1 538	1 494	1 555
France	2 292	2 335	2 410	2 398	2 425	2 504	2 550	2 629	2 717	2 793
Croatia	1 016	1 060	1 034	1 030	1 104	1 187	1 155
Italy	1 626	1 725	1 736	1 830	1 806	1 888	1 843	1 814	1 762	1 770
Cyprus	937	1 005	1 084	1 093	1 150	1 107	1 116	1 057	999	995
Latvia	400	495	533	579	513	528	512	541	586	620
Lithuania	505	594	713	790	765	737	795	815	832	891
Luxembourg	2 977	3 084	3 190	3 261	3 339	3 273	3 333	3 476	3 688	3 718
Hungary	961	1 004	915	933	903	973	979	908	927	969
Malta	1 019	1 010	1 119	1 152	1 241	1 237	1 228	1 301	1 351	1 448
Netherlands	2 479	2 900	3 128	3 258	3 364	3 385	3 448	3 590	3 535	3 506
Austria	2 079	2 145	2 240	2 317	2 316	2 360	2 409	2 518	2 554	2 626
Poland	452	491	577	678	724	762	785	811	836	814
Portugal	1 264	1 288	1 270	1 272	1 368	1 345	1 188	1 207	1 244	1 255
Romania	309	309	389	449	492	576	555	589	589	618
Slovenia	1 422	1 478	1 496	1 614	1 590	1 620	1 632	1 683	1 602	1 640
Slovakia	699	753	844	959	1 008	1 085	1 087	1 130	1 185	1 234
Finland	1 652	1 768	1 914	2 018	2 017	2 076	2 150	2 239	2 246	2 281
Sweden	2 152	2 269	2 343	2 350	2 279	2 217	2 314	2 430	2 417	2 498
United Kingdom	1 933	2 045	2 053	2 036	2 061	2 172	2 346	2 401	2 375	2 458
Iceland	2 188	2 281	2 923	2 846	2 596	2 377	2 425	2 518	2 548	2 673
Norway	2 735	2 914	3 115	3 200	3 283	3 220	3 254	3 330	3 428	3 552
Switzerland	2 137	2 186	2 375	2 422	2 547	2 438	2 536	2 780	2 970	3 037
Serbia	552	561	604	596	611
Turkey	359	413	426	488	549	553	590	594	591	604

Continues

Table A4.5 Social expenditure on sickness and health care, percentage of GDP and PPS per inhabitant, 1995-2014, continued

	Percentage of gross domestic product (GDP)									
	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
European Union (28 countries)
Belgium	6.0	6.3	5.9	6.0	6.0	6.5	6.6	6.7	7.1	7.3
Bulgaria
Czech Republic	5.8	5.8	5.8	5.6	5.7	5.9	5.9	6.3	6.4	6.1
Denmark	5.4	5.3	5.2	5.5	5.6	5.5	5.6	5.9	6.0	6.0
Germany	8.5	8.6	8.2	8.1	8.2	8.2	8.3	8.3	8.4	7.9
Estonia	4.7	4.4	4.1	3.9	3.9	4.0
Ireland	6.3	5.8	5.6	5.4	5.4	4.9	5.4	5.7	5.9	6.0
Greece	4.8	4.7	4.8	4.8	5.1	4.5	4.7	4.9	5.0	5.0
Spain	5.8	5.9	5.7	5.5	5.6	5.7	5.6	5.8	6.0	6.1
France	8.0	8.0	7.8	7.8	7.8	7.8	7.9	8.2	8.5	8.6
Croatia
Italy	5.0	5.1	5.3	5.3	5.3	5.6	5.9	6.0	6.0	6.3
Cyprus	3.7	3.6	3.7	4.3	3.8
Latvia	2.6	2.5	2.7	2.6	2.9	2.7	3.0	3.0
Lithuania	..	3.9	4.2	4.8	4.8	4.5	4.3	4.1	3.9	3.7
Luxembourg	4.8	5.0	5.0	4.9	4.9	4.5	5.0	5.2	5.4	5.5
Hungary	5.5	5.4	5.2	5.5	6.1	6.0
Malta	4.4	4.6	5.1	5.0	4.9	5.0	5.2	5.1	5.3	5.6
Netherlands	7.8	7.1	6.8	6.8	6.8	6.7	6.9	7.7	7.9	7.7
Austria	7.2	7.0	7.0	7.1	7.3	6.9	7.0	7.1	7.0	7.0
Poland	3.7	3.9	4.2	4.1	3.8
Portugal	6.6	5.5	5.5	5.6	5.8	5.9	6.0	6.4	6.1	6.7
Romania	3.3	3.4	3.4	3.5	3.3
Slovenia	..	6.9	7.0	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.3	7.3	7.4	7.2
Slovakia	5.8	6.9	6.8	6.8	6.5	6.5	6.3	6.2	5.6	4.9
Finland	6.2	6.3	6.0	5.8	5.7	5.6	5.7	6.0	6.2	6.3
Sweden	6.9	6.8	6.9	7.1	7.3	7.5	7.9	8.2	8.3	7.8
United Kingdom	5.6	5.5	5.5	5.7	5.7	5.9	6.5	6.5	6.9	7.1
Iceland	7.0	6.9	6.7	6.7	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.5	7.9	7.5
Norway	7.2	7.4	7.6	8.4	8.5	8.0	8.4	8.6	9.0	8.2
Switzerland	5.3	5.4	5.4	5.5	5.6	5.6	5.9	6.3	6.5	6.5
Serbia
Turkey	3.1	3.7	4.0	4.1	4.0

Continues

Table A4.5 Social expenditure on sickness and health care, percentage of GDP and PPS per inhabitant, 1995-2014, continued

	Percentage of gross domestic product (GDP)									
	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
European Union (28 countries)	7.3	8.0	8.0	7.9	8.0	8.0	8.1
Belgium	7.2	7.0	7.1	7.5	8.1	8.0	8.1	8.2	8.3	8.4
Bulgaria	4.1	3.5	3.5	4.2	3.7	4.0	4.2	4.2	4.4	4.9
Czech Republic	6.0	5.7	5.6	5.5	6.1	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0
Denmark	5.9	6.0	6.0	6.2	6.9	6.7	6.6	6.5	6.4	6.3
Germany	7.9	7.7	7.7	8.0	9.4	9.2	9.1	9.3	9.5	9.7
Estonia	3.9	3.7	4.0	4.7	5.3	4.7	4.3	4.2	4.1	4.4
Ireland	6.1	6.1	6.3	7.1	7.9	7.6	7.5	7.4	7.1	6.7
Greece	5.7	5.6	5.8	6.3	6.9	7.1	6.5	6.1	5.7	5.0
Spain	6.2	6.2	6.2	6.6	7.1	7.0	6.9	6.6	6.5	6.5
France	8.6	8.5	8.4	8.4	9.0	8.9	8.8	9.0	9.0	9.2
Croatia	6.3	7.1	6.9	6.7	7.0	7.5	7.1
Italy	6.5	6.6	6.4	6.7	7.0	7.0	6.8	6.8	6.8	6.8
Cyprus	4.1	4.2	4.1	4.0	4.6	4.5	4.6	4.5	4.5	4.5
Latvia	3.3	3.7	3.3	3.6	4.0	3.9	3.4	3.3	3.4	3.5
Lithuania	3.9	4.1	4.3	4.6	5.4	4.7	4.5	4.2	4.1	4.1
Luxembourg	5.6	5.2	5.0	5.2	6.0	5.7	5.5	5.7	5.8	5.7
Hungary	6.3	6.3	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.7	5.5	5.0	4.9	4.9
Malta	5.5	5.4	5.5	5.7	6.3	6.0	5.8	5.9	6.1	5.9
Netherlands	7.6	8.4	8.5	8.7	9.8	10.0	10.1	10.4	10.2	10.0
Austria	6.9	6.8	6.8	7.1	7.4	7.3	7.2	7.3	7.3	7.4
Poland	3.8	3.8	3.9	4.4	4.6	4.4	4.2	4.1	4.2	4.0
Portugal	6.7	6.5	6.2	6.2	7.0	6.7	6.1	6.2	6.2	6.1
Romania	3.7	3.2	3.5	3.5	4.1	4.3	4.0	4.0	3.9	3.9
Slovenia	7.2	7.0	6.6	6.9	7.6	7.7	7.6	7.9	7.5	7.3
Slovakia	4.6	4.6	4.6	5.0	5.6	5.4	5.3	5.3	5.5	5.6
Finland	6.4	6.4	6.2	6.5	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.4	7.5	7.5
Sweden	7.6	7.4	7.1	7.1	7.5	7.0	7.1	7.3	7.5	7.5
United Kingdom	7.2	7.3	7.2	7.3	8.1	8.3	8.8	8.8	8.7	8.6
Iceland	7.2	7.1	8.4	8.4	8.5	8.1	8.0	8.2	8.2	8.4
Norway	7.3	7.0	7.0	6.9	8.1	7.7	7.4	7.3	7.4	7.7
Switzerland	6.5	6.1	6.0	6.1	6.7	6.4	6.5	6.9	7.2	7.3
Serbia	6.1	5.8	6.1	5.9	6.0
Turkey	3.8	4.0	3.9	4.2	5.0	4.5	4.3	4.3	4.2	4.2

Table A4.6 Social expenditure on disability, percentage of GDP and PPS per inhabitant, 1995-2014

	Purchasing power standard (PPS) per inhabitant									
	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
European Union (28 countries)
Belgium	422	438	453	465	508	405	416	473	496	502
Bulgaria
Czech Republic	139	160	175	183	195	204	226	231	250	251
Denmark	601	628	657	727	779	801	844	910	979	1 058
Germany	443	482	496	509	535	553	564	581	596	606
Estonia	96	80	100	119	135	149
Ireland	131	141	145	152	158	174	194	213	226	250
Greece	112	121	132	144	156	200	206	226	229	244
Spain	202	219	228	250	253	290	296	319	315	329
France	327	348	362	375	390	414	433	463	451	468
Croatia
Italy	240	245	262	257	270	270	272	319	331	336
Cyprus	85	99	112	124	147
Latvia	71	78	84	83	88	92	88	96
Lithuania
Luxembourg	762	820	892	896	1 148	1 125	1 294	1 371	1 407	1 465
Hungary	200	209	234	264	287	296
Malta	86	109	115	122	135	146	150	158	184	201
Netherlands	686	681	702	699	727	778	791	816	800	800
Austria	513	549	550	579	600	653	640	653	662	673
Poland	257	276	272	269	280
Portugal	254	272	297	311	327	379	389	407	416	401
Romania	55	64	69	84	83
Slovenia	..	235	258	273	307	331	336	350	337	347
Slovakia	99	105	121	127	134	155	175	205	200	176
Finland	687	702	719	711	722	732	730	754	765	813
Sweden	700	701	708	731	834	924	949	1 025	1 090	1 181
United Kingdom	411	425	437	440	437	476	504	519	532	566
Iceland	411	426	484	503	548	637	657	717	804	886
Norway	847	910	960	1 025	1 135	1 177	1 238	1 339	1 435	1 559
Switzerland	528	571	626	667	702	735	796	856	894	937
Serbia
Turkey	17	17	18	18	19

Continues

Table A4.6 Social expenditure on disability, percentage of GDP and PPS per inhabitant, 1995-2014, continued

	Purchasing power standard (PPS) per inhabitant									
	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
European Union (28 countries)	501	503	522	530	544	548	552
Belgium	537	537	536	564	584	622	646	691	748	788
Bulgaria	102	112	113	122	138	148	151	158	181	191
Czech Republic	262	296	312	312	321	327	323	314	317	321
Denmark	1 140	1 223	1 212	1 219	1 246	1 328	1 310	1 348	1 365	1 370
Germany	611	615	626	641	643	675	706	740	761	796
Estonia	168	184	207	257	290	318	331	351	363	379
Ireland	279	305	328	345	358	379	369	372	391	392
Greece	256	274	312	333	344	346	343	331	309	316
Spain	356	378	386	395	397	409	412	419	430	439
France	500	516	530	523	529	551	577	604	628	646
Croatia	519	534	551	550	428	429	421
Italy	340	358	380	396	410	424	408	443	439	445
Cyprus	140	154	160	166	171	165	163	166	158	160
Latvia	100	109	112	137	165	186	188	198	208	234
Lithuania	173	192	236	274	289	286	275	290	282	294
Luxembourg	1 517	1 605	1 509	1 495	1 492	1 465	1 528	1 520	1 555	1 667
Hungary	316	339	342	345	329	313	301	288	281	288
Malta	208	201	220	190	172	168	158	157	157	166
Netherlands	771	749	829	828	822	801	796	795	795	778
Austria	681	682	671	660	670	694	709	726	720	725
Poland	266	265	268	264	253	287	301	310	308	311
Portugal	413	437	448	421	399	399	391	357	402	388
Romania	89	103	140	176	192	208	200	181	171	172
Slovenia	375	390	380	378	359	361	357	335	327	326
Slovakia	193	212	233	265	271	307	316	333	346	359
Finland	827	855	915	952	967	995	1 001	1 025	1 027	1 036
Sweden	1 247	1 295	1 355	1 337	1 277	1 203	1 178	1 193	1 159	1 149
United Kingdom	558	617	514	514	504	512	508	495	451	414
Iceland	952	1 023	930	983	1 019	953	1 024	1 094	1 143	1 228
Norway	1 630	1 689	1 789	1 736	1 738	1 785	1 838	1 876	1 877	1 875
Switzerland	961	974	1 035	975	980	930	943	948	951	952
Serbia	198	190	190	177	181
Turkey	21	24	30	31	41	48	59	69	73	76

Continues

Table A4.6 Social expenditure on disability, percentage of GDP and PPS per inhabitant, 1995-2014, continued

	Percentage of gross domestic product (GDP)									
	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
European Union (28 countries)
Belgium	2.2	2.3	2.2	2.2	2.3	1.7	1.7	1.8	1.9	1.9
Bulgaria
Czech Republic	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.4
Denmark	3.2	3.2	3.1	3.3	3.4	3.3	3.5	3.6	3.9	4.0
Germany	2.1	2.3	2.2	2.2	2.3	2.2	2.2	2.3	2.3	2.3
Estonia	1.2	0.9	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.2
Ireland	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.8
Greece	0.9	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2
Spain	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5
France	1.8	1.9	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.7	1.7	1.8	1.8	1.8
Croatia
Italy	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.4	1.4	1.4
Cyprus	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.7
Latvia	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.2	1.1	1.0	0.9	0.9
Lithuania	..	1.2	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.3
Luxembourg	2.4	2.5	2.5	2.4	2.7	2.4	2.8	2.8	2.9	2.9
Hungary	1.9	1.8	1.9	2.0	2.1	2.1
Malta	0.8	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.1
Netherlands	3.4	3.2	3.1	2.9	2.8	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.6
Austria	2.6	2.7	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.4	2.4
Poland	2.7	2.8	2.6	2.5	2.4
Portugal	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.3	2.3	2.4	2.4	2.3
Romania	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.0
Slovenia	..	1.9	1.9	1.9	2.0	2.1	2.0	2.0	1.9	1.8
Slovakia	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.6	1.5	1.3
Finland	4.5	4.4	4.0	3.7	3.5	3.3	3.2	3.2	3.3	3.3
Sweden	3.8	3.7	3.5	3.5	3.6	3.7	3.8	4.0	4.2	4.3
United Kingdom	2.5	2.4	2.3	2.3	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2
Iceland	2.2	2.1	2.2	2.1	2.2	2.5	2.5	2.8	3.1	3.2
Norway	4.1	4.0	3.9	4.2	4.4	3.8	4.0	4.4	4.7	4.6
Switzerland	2.1	2.3	2.3	2.4	2.5	2.5	2.6	2.8	2.9	3.0
Serbia
Turkey	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2

Continues

Table A4.6 Social expenditure on disability, percentage of GDP and PPS per inhabitant, 1995-2014, continued

	Percentage of gross domestic product (GDP)									
	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
European Union (28 countries)	1.9	2.1	2.1	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0
Belgium	1.9	1.8	1.8	1.9	2.1	2.1	2.1	2.2	2.4	2.4
Bulgaria	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.4	1.4
Czech Republic	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.3
Denmark	4.1	4.1	3.8	3.8	4.2	4.2	4.1	4.1	4.1	4.1
Germany	2.2	2.1	2.0	2.1	2.2	2.2	2.1	2.2	2.2	2.2
Estonia	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.4	1.8	1.9	1.8	1.7	1.8	1.8
Ireland	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2
Greece	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.8	1.6	1.7
Spain	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.7	1.7	1.8	1.8	1.9	1.8
France	1.9	1.9	1.8	1.8	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.1	2.1	2.1
Croatia	3.2	3.6	3.7	3.6	2.7	2.7	2.6
Italy	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.6	1.6	1.5	1.7	1.7	1.7
Cyprus	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7
Latvia	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.9	1.3	1.4	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.3
Lithuania	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.6	2.0	1.8	1.6	1.5	1.4	1.4
Luxembourg	2.8	2.7	2.4	2.4	2.7	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5
Hungary	2.1	2.1	2.1	2.1	2.0	1.8	1.7	1.6	1.5	1.4
Malta	1.1	1.1	1.1	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.7
Netherlands	2.4	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.4	2.4	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.2
Austria	2.3	2.2	2.0	2.0	2.1	2.2	2.1	2.1	2.1	2.0
Poland	2.2	2.1	1.8	1.7	1.6	1.7	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.5
Portugal	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.1	2.0	2.0	2.0	1.8	2.0	1.9
Romania	1.1	1.1	1.3	1.4	1.6	1.6	1.4	1.2	1.1	1.1
Slovenia	1.9	1.8	1.7	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.6	1.5	1.4
Slovakia	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.6
Finland	3.2	3.1	3.0	3.1	3.4	3.4	3.3	3.4	3.4	3.4
Sweden	4.4	4.2	4.1	4.0	4.2	3.8	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.5
United Kingdom	2.1	2.2	1.8	1.8	2.0	2.0	1.9	1.8	1.7	1.5
Iceland	3.1	3.2	2.7	2.9	3.3	3.3	3.4	3.5	3.7	3.8
Norway	4.4	4.1	4.0	3.8	4.3	4.3	4.2	4.1	4.0	4.1
Switzerland	2.9	2.7	2.6	2.4	2.6	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.3	2.3
Serbia	2.2	2.0	1.9	1.7	1.8
Turkey	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5

Table A4.7 Social expenditure on unemployment, percentage of GDP and PPS per inhabitant, 1995-2014

	Purchasing power standard (PPS) per inhabitant									
	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
European Union (28 countries)
Belgium	622	644	674	668	669	696	709	803	863	902
Bulgaria
Czech Republic	42	53	64	70	92	91	92	102	128	127
Denmark	837	811	766	733	718	705	677	653	715	722
Germany	467	507	482	492	524	510	513	557	582	587
Estonia	15	15	17	15	26	26
Ireland	416	433	409	387	350	342	345	388	398	419
Greece	105	105	125	145	185	110	117	125	123	146
Spain	451	419	418	413	408	368	413	457	462	469
France	371	399	405	413	424	450	472	520	537	532
Croatia
Italy	119	114	114	110	101	89	87	95	100	107
Cyprus	180	178	159	156	191
Latvia	22	29	50	47	42	43	45	48
Lithuania	..	15	15	17	19	21	26	26	29	40
Luxembourg	186	217	243	245	242	272	326	357	443	508
Hungary	95	88	78	78	80	85
Malta	39	48	56	58	66	64	66	135	114	108
Netherlands	512	600	573	487	447	433	429	378	438	497
Austria	316	343	331	333	348	337	343	397	449	467
Poland	84	87	91	86	77
Portugal	114	124	116	115	100	111	115	137	199	220
Romania	50	33	31	40	42
Slovenia	..	118	150	174	167	156	142	129	126	132
Slovakia	51	57	89	105	134	98	78	95	127	138
Finland	660	666	654	592	573	552	523	551	570	604
Sweden	638	616	622	579	569	503	433	438	454	497
United Kingdom	210	197	167	145	152	152	191	154	156	161
Iceland	154	132	127	109	84	61	72	107	140	149
Norway	362	327	262	194	176	197	199	196	254	261
Switzerland	298	345	451	377	275	198	176	271	380	404
Serbia
Turkey	1	1	2	3	5

Continues

Table A4.7 Social expenditure on unemployment, percentage of GDP and PPS per inhabitant, 1995-2014, continued

	Purchasing power standard (PPS) per inhabitant									
	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
European Union (28 countries)	326	418	420	408	406	411	391
Belgium	937	961	946	951	1 052	1 093	1 102	1 054	1 067	1 108
Bulgaria	23	27	27	37	52	64	68	73	71	71
Czech Republic	120	111	131	135	221	176	153	147	155	147
Denmark	678	591	379	317	468	609	602	619	608	553
Germany	558	513	457	425	526	502	417	387	390	386
Estonia	24	18	26	54	188	123	85	91	96	90
Ireland	425	457	492	573	855	1 096	1 071	1 055	974	894
Greece	149	251	244	285	330	338	331	260	244	208
Spain	507	523	520	582	844	763	839	796	759	642
France	525	471	453	429	504	542	536	573	599	610
Croatia	39	59	71	72	71	79	77
Italy	117	124	292	312	384	392	402	427	449	436
Cyprus	226	265	219	255	228	236	285	387	437	426
Latvia	58	65	62	76	202	181	106	84	104	102
Lithuania	49	57	64	67	125	124	98	81	80	73
Luxembourg	581	597	598	591	733	721	698	792	951	955
Hungary	92	106	122	136	150	151	142	101	91	74
Malta	109	108	97	97	110	106	107	120	132	126
Netherlands	518	454	385	327	387	444	449	474	569	563
Austria	469	489	456	436	518	525	488	506	550	580
Poland	75	73	58	54	61	71	52	56	60	50
Portugal	244	244	227	206	256	277	261	329	359	303
Romania	34	31	30	26	47	74	35	25	24	22
Slovenia	144	127	95	87	120	138	170	160	179	161
Slovakia	81	84	100	114	182	194	169	149	132	116
Finland	591	577	564	536	643	677	593	616	682	781
Sweden	501	475	341	273	376	408	357	392	404	368
United Kingdom	165	161	140	156	203	185	180	185	160	129
Iceland	115	90	79	118	492	457	450	399	293	235
Norway	229	158	123	184	285	331	290	272	259	267
Switzerland	387	343	294	259	408	412	303	321	363	367
Serbia	91	80	75	68	65
Turkey	7	8	8	9	21	18	18	24	23	26

Continues

Table A4.7 Social expenditure on unemployment, percentage of GDP and PPS per inhabitant, 1995-2014, continued

	Percentage of gross domestic product (GDP)									
	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
European Union (28 countries)
Belgium	3.3	3.3	3.3	3.2	3.0	2.8	2.9	3.1	3.3	3.3
Bulgaria
Czech Republic	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7
Denmark	4.5	4.1	3.6	3.3	3.2	2.9	2.8	2.6	2.9	2.7
Germany	2.3	2.4	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.1	2.0	2.2	2.3	2.2
Estonia	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2
Ireland	2.7	2.6	2.2	1.8	1.5	1.3	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.3
Greece	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.2	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.7
Spain	3.4	3.0	2.7	2.5	2.4	1.9	2.1	2.1	2.1	2.1
France	2.1	2.1	2.0	2.0	1.9	1.9	1.9	2.0	2.2	2.1
Croatia
Italy	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
Cyprus	1.0	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.9
Latvia	0.4	0.5	0.8	0.7	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5
Lithuania	..	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Luxembourg	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.9	1.0
Hungary	0.9	0.8	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6
Malta	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.8	0.7	0.6
Netherlands	2.6	2.8	2.5	2.0	1.7	1.5	1.4	1.2	1.5	1.6
Austria	1.6	1.7	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.3	1.3	1.5	1.7	1.6
Poland	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.7
Portugal	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.8	1.2	1.2
Romania	1.0	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.5
Slovenia	..	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.1	1.0	0.9	0.7	0.7	0.7
Slovakia	0.6	0.6	0.9	1.0	1.3	0.9	0.7	0.7	1.0	1.0
Finland	4.3	4.1	3.7	3.1	2.8	2.5	2.3	2.4	2.4	2.4
Sweden	3.5	3.2	3.1	2.7	2.5	2.0	1.7	1.7	1.8	1.8
United Kingdom	1.3	1.1	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.6	0.6	0.6
Iceland	0.8	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.5
Norway	1.8	1.4	1.1	0.8	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.8	0.8
Switzerland	1.2	1.4	1.7	1.4	1.0	0.7	0.6	0.9	1.2	1.3
Serbia
Turkey	-	-	-	-	0.1

Continues

Table A4.7 Social expenditure on unemployment, percentage of GDP and PPS per inhabitant, 1995-2014, continued

	Percentage of gross domestic product (GDP)									
	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
European Union (28 countries)	1.3	1.7	1.7	1.6	1.5	1.5	1.4
Belgium	3.3	3.3	3.1	3.2	3.7	3.7	3.6	3.4	3.4	3.4
Bulgaria	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.5
Czech Republic	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.6	1.0	0.8	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.6
Denmark	2.5	2.0	1.2	1.0	1.6	1.9	1.9	1.9	1.8	1.6
Germany	2.0	1.8	1.5	1.4	1.8	1.6	1.3	1.1	1.1	1.1
Estonia	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.3	1.2	0.7	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.4
Ireland	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.8	3.0	3.7	3.5	3.3	3.1	2.7
Greece	0.7	1.1	1.0	1.2	1.4	1.6	1.7	1.4	1.3	1.1
Spain	2.1	2.1	2.0	2.3	3.5	3.2	3.6	3.4	3.3	2.7
France	2.0	1.7	1.6	1.5	1.9	1.9	1.9	2.0	2.0	2.0
Croatia	0.2	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5
Italy	0.5	0.5	1.1	1.1	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.7
Cyprus	1.0	1.1	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.2	1.7	2.0	1.9
Latvia	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.5	1.6	1.3	0.7	0.5	0.6	0.6
Lithuania	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.9	0.8	0.6	0.4	0.4	0.3
Luxembourg	1.1	1.0	0.9	1.0	1.3	1.2	1.1	1.3	1.5	1.5
Hungary	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.6	0.5	0.4
Malta	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.5
Netherlands	1.6	1.3	1.0	0.9	1.1	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.6	1.6
Austria	1.6	1.6	1.4	1.3	1.7	1.6	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.6
Poland	0.6	0.6	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2
Portugal	1.3	1.2	1.1	1.0	1.3	1.4	1.3	1.7	1.8	1.5
Romania	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.6	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.1
Slovenia	0.7	0.6	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.7
Slovakia	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	1.0	1.0	0.8	0.7	0.6	0.5
Finland	2.3	2.1	1.8	1.7	2.3	2.3	2.0	2.0	2.3	2.6
Sweden	1.8	1.5	1.0	0.8	1.2	1.3	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.1
United Kingdom	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.5
Iceland	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.4	1.6	1.6	1.5	1.3	0.9	0.7
Norway	0.6	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.6
Switzerland	1.2	1.0	0.7	0.6	1.1	1.1	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.9
Serbia	1.0	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.6
Turkey	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2

Table A4.8 Social expenditure on families and children, percentage of GDP and PPS per inhabitant, 1995-2014

	Purchasing power standard (PPS) per inhabitant									
	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
European Union (28 countries)
Belgium	420	436	484	480	490	492	503	530	542	551
Bulgaria
Czech Republic	222	225	221	208	216	223	234	239	237	268
Denmark	701	729	765	816	838	878	896	944	963	994
Germany	447	595	644	657	721	773	766	821	832	848
Estonia	127	144	139	151	144	207
Ireland	325	366	393	399	428	460	552	681	723	751
Greece	206	217	226	245	242	135	135	139	149	163
Spain	54	67	70	78	82	178	180	194	228	243
France	477	493	533	540	564	586	605	624	606	622
Croatia
Italy	137	152	170	180	200	202	216	214	228	236
Cyprus	157	216	231	359	400
Latvia	84	94	103	107	115	119	126	128
Lithuania	..	53	66	90	100	105	100	104	110	133
Luxembourg	790	841	892	1 042	1 247	1 397	1 438	1 649	1 860	1 878
Hungary	270	283	291	321	358	343
Malta	225	236	242	242	236	233	205	207	203	204
Netherlands	254	241	264	269	280	320	321	350	354	367
Austria	658	668	657	656	709	789	770	811	861	884
Poland	92	96	100	95	110
Portugal	111	114	120	128	139	161	178	227	237	205
Romania	78	88	107	98	123
Slovenia	..	234	259	265	302	338	344	350	351	367
Slovakia	203	203	206	215	194	182	178	187	186	233
Finland	613	596	617	632	647	659	648	658	661	708
Sweden	667	641	630	585	622	628	666	710	730	762
United Kingdom	335	360	371	379	354	347	365	376	482	507
Iceland	458	493	520	528	552	536	627	678	765	845
Norway	712	773	799	837	887	917	958	995	1 015	1 043
Switzerland	336	356	377	386	393	401	417	452	448	452
Serbia
Turkey	16	18	19	18	21

Continues

Table A4.8 Social expenditure on families and children, percentage of GDP and PPS per inhabitant, 1995-2014, continued

	Purchasing power standard (PPS) per inhabitant									
	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
European Union (28 countries)	559	578	602	609	622	624	650
Belgium	572	591	627	622	640	663	682	667	680	717
Bulgaria	82	91	118	137	199	213	216	214	233	261
Czech Republic	346	355	445	454	449	448	411	402	422	422
Denmark	1 022	1 078	1 184	1 206	1 243	1 266	1 218	1 203	1 205	1 194
Germany	828	802	824	842	885	959	1 006	1 045	1 069	1 114
Estonia	217	236	256	313	348	371	358	341	333	349
Ireland	792	842	892	940	982	959	939	940	883	852
Greece	166	176	206	210	224	218	207	183	211	213
Spain	276	299	319	340	352	342	318	310	315	315
France	659	683	704	692	698	702	707	732	757	771
Croatia	217	221	225	226	247	249	248
Italy	239	263	293	302	322	304	314	314	315	409
Cyprus	438	421	465	506	497	471	442	345	315	310
Latvia	148	152	177	208	221	207	169	165	202	233
Lithuania	150	158	192	312	390	342	297	261	229	236
Luxembourg	1 958	2 058	2 035	2 565	2 338	2 287	2 157	2 209	2 290	2 291
Hungary	369	434	443	458	464	493	489	474	469	468
Malta	203	197	206	237	236	240	245	252	260	293
Netherlands	395	481	328	413	416	394	388	356	331	318
Austria	911	921	917	943	966	1 008	956	964	976	984
Poland	111	116	129	191	202	230	240	263	279	291
Portugal	216	226	236	250	264	267	230	236	240	241
Romania	152	170	186	195	206	223	236	190	182	191
Slovenia	378	394	387	409	428	445	459	443	416	419
Slovakia	246	261	275	280	301	343	354	369	372	371
Finland	740	780	845	875	889	915	940	978	980	984
Sweden	791	870	917	944	921	928	957	1 004	1 000	1 017
United Kingdom	594	610	703	742	766	829	837	841	793	801
Iceland	872	974	951	944	911	867	812	801	830	873
Norway	1 065	1 143	1 241	1 260	1 284	1 308	1 357	1 393	1 431	1 457
Switzerland	463	481	510	497	511	524	541	574	598	614
Serbia	112	117	122	126	138
Turkey	26	27	36	36	40	41	48	55	62	62

Continues

Table A4.8 Social expenditure on families and children, percentage of GDP and PPS per inhabitant, 1995-2014, continued

	Percentage of gross domestic product (GDP)									
	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
European Union (28 countries)
Belgium	2.2	2.3	2.4	2.3	2.2	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.1	2.0
Bulgaria
Czech Republic	1.9	1.7	1.7	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4
Denmark	3.8	3.7	3.6	3.7	3.7	3.6	3.7	3.7	3.9	3.8
Germany	2.2	2.8	2.9	2.9	3.0	3.1	3.0	3.2	3.2	3.2
Estonia	1.6	1.6	1.5	1.4	1.2	1.6
Ireland	2.1	2.2	2.1	1.9	1.8	1.8	2.0	2.3	2.4	2.4
Greece	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.8
Spain	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.9	0.9	0.9	1.1	1.1
France	2.7	2.6	2.7	2.6	2.6	2.5	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.5
Croatia
Italy	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.0
Cyprus	0.9	1.1	1.2	1.8	1.9
Latvia	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.5	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.2
Lithuania	..	0.9	1.0	1.3	1.4	1.3	1.2	1.1	1.0	1.1
Luxembourg	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.8	2.9	3.0	3.1	3.4	3.8	3.8
Hungary	2.6	2.5	2.4	2.4	2.6	2.4
Malta	2.0	2.0	1.9	1.8	1.7	1.5	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.2
Netherlands	1.3	1.1	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.2
Austria	3.4	3.2	3.0	2.9	3.0	3.1	3.0	3.0	3.2	3.1
Poland	1.0	1.0	1.0	0.9	1.0
Portugal	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.3	1.4	1.2
Romania	1.5	1.5	1.7	1.4	1.6
Slovenia	..	1.9	1.9	1.9	2.0	2.1	2.1	2.0	2.0	1.9
Slovakia	2.5	2.3	2.1	2.1	1.9	1.7	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.7
Finland	4.0	3.7	3.5	3.3	3.1	3.0	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.8
Sweden	3.6	3.3	3.1	2.8	2.7	2.5	2.6	2.8	2.8	2.8
United Kingdom	2.1	2.0	2.0	2.0	1.8	1.6	1.6	1.6	2.0	1.9
Iceland	2.4	2.5	2.3	2.2	2.2	2.1	2.4	2.6	3.0	3.0
Norway	3.5	3.4	3.3	3.4	3.4	3.0	3.1	3.3	3.3	3.1
Switzerland	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.4
Serbia
Turkey	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2

Continues

Table A4.8 Social expenditure on families and children, percentage of GDP and PPS per inhabitant, 1995-2014, continued

	Percentage of gross domestic product (GDP)									
	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
European Union (28 countries)	2.1	2.4	2.4	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.4
Belgium	2.0	2.0	2.1	2.1	2.3	2.2	2.2	2.1	2.2	2.2
Bulgaria	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.9	1.9	1.7	1.7	1.8	1.9
Czech Republic	1.7	1.7	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.7
Denmark	3.7	3.6	3.7	3.8	4.2	4.0	3.8	3.7	3.6	3.5
Germany	3.0	2.8	2.7	2.8	3.1	3.1	3.1	3.1	3.1	3.1
Estonia	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.7	2.2	2.2	1.9	1.7	1.6	1.6
Ireland	2.4	2.4	2.5	2.9	3.4	3.2	3.0	3.0	2.8	2.5
Greece	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.1
Spain	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.3	1.4	1.3
France	2.5	2.5	2.4	2.4	2.6	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5
Croatia	1.3	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.5
Italy	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.3	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.6
Cyprus	1.9	1.8	1.7	1.9	2.0	1.9	1.8	1.5	1.4	1.4
Latvia	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.3	1.7	1.5	1.1	1.0	1.2	1.3
Lithuania	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.8	2.8	2.2	1.7	1.4	1.1	1.1
Luxembourg	3.7	3.4	3.2	4.1	4.2	4.0	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.5
Hungary	2.4	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.9	2.9	2.7	2.6	2.5	2.3
Malta	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2
Netherlands	1.2	1.4	0.9	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.0	1.0	0.9
Austria	3.0	2.9	2.8	2.9	3.1	3.1	2.9	2.8	2.8	2.8
Poland	0.9	0.9	0.9	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.4
Portugal	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.4	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2
Romania	1.8	1.8	1.7	1.5	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.3	1.2	1.2
Slovenia	1.9	1.9	1.7	1.7	2.1	2.1	2.1	2.1	2.0	1.9
Slovakia	1.6	1.6	1.5	1.4	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.7
Finland	2.9	2.8	2.8	2.8	3.2	3.2	3.1	3.2	3.3	3.2
Sweden	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.9	3.0	2.9	2.9	3.0	3.1	3.1
United Kingdom	2.2	2.2	2.5	2.7	3.0	3.2	3.1	3.1	2.9	2.8
Iceland	2.9	3.0	2.7	2.8	3.0	3.0	2.7	2.6	2.7	2.7
Norway	2.9	2.8	2.8	2.7	3.2	3.1	3.1	3.0	3.1	3.2
Switzerland	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.5
Serbia	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.3
Turkey	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4

Table A4.9 Social expenditure on housing and social exclusion, percentage of GDP and PPS per inhabitant, 1995-2014

	Purchasing power standard (PPS) per inhabitant									
	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
European Union (28 countries)
Belgium	129	132	83	84	85	175	185	217	232	228
Bulgaria
Czech Republic	25	26	36	54	74	88	93	98	109	108
Denmark	386	378	390	389	393	407	406	420	416	445
Germany	104	110	112	112	110	113	109	115	130	144
Estonia	35	33	35	35	32	24
Ireland	142	153	163	173	171	102	110	133	147	150
Greece	88	101	122	125	176	8	8	1	1	14
Spain	45	58	60	60	63	54	60	69	71	74
France	250	261	278	296	315	327	374	384	371	385
Croatia
Italy	15	17	23	22	31	32	37	38	39	39
Cyprus	178	204	230	266	234
Latvia	14	14	14	15	15	17	18	25
Lithuania	..	32	40	34	32	40	39	44	46	38
Luxembourg	72	76	95	99	85	126	293	302	304	317
Hungary	81	83	79	85	81	77
Malta	45	73	82	88	76	60	51	67	81	91
Netherlands	228	235	234	272	277	298	292	300	269	259
Austria	97	115	122	135	158	102	113	120	122	135
Poland	27	32	17	36	35
Portugal	9	10	14	33	44	43	40	56	56	39
Romania	4	4	19	15	18
Slovenia	..	51	57	56	57	60	68	80	107	120
Slovakia	66	64	67	90	120	132	146	147	111	73
Finland	165	173	178	176	186	184	175	186	189	195
Sweden	368	358	339	322	319	309	303	301	308	310
United Kingdom	281	310	310	314	317	323	346	369	453	497
Iceland	112	116	123	122	137	129	140	175	178	214
Norway	196	202	192	203	223	234	236	236	256	279
Switzerland	159	166	188	201	227	224	197	209	224	247
Serbia
Turkey	27	10	9	10	11

Continues

Table A4.9 Social expenditure on housing and social exclusion, percentage of GDP and PPS per inhabitant, 1995-2014, continued

	Purchasing power standard (PPS) per inhabitant									
	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
European Union (28 countries)	254	267	279	282	290	291	301
Belgium	241	259	266	280	296	303	310	301	305	314
Bulgaria	33	31	34	37	21	30	29	32	35	41
Czech Republic	108	110	57	49	66	73	89	116	133	152
Denmark	459	432	425	415	446	571	604	626	662	688
Germany	214	233	236	225	235	245	248	251	260	275
Estonia	22	19	17	17	23	32	36	32	29	29
Ireland	155	165	175	188	217	256	246	231	196	178
Greece	16	25	28	25	25	22	17	14	14	12
Spain	92	102	112	106	103	99	103	85	79	86
France	407	418	445	444	483	482	491	504	524	543
Croatia	13	13	10	12	33	34	37
Italy	41	45	50	54	58	62	60	58	57	60
Cyprus	250	288	376	472	572	588	560	413	318	316
Latvia	24	28	35	43	35	52	60	54	44	40
Lithuania	28	29	28	32	53	112	135	141	125	94
Luxembourg	320	357	357	377	472	460	489	482	503	522
Hungary	98	106	169	141	129	111	89	78	81	81
Malta	78	88	116	114	104	94	103	76	78	96
Netherlands	281	450	512	565	581	549	586	608	662	651
Austria	142	156	162	171	166	173	177	189	194	207
Poland	58	44	39	35	34	45	39	37	39	39
Portugal	44	51	55	56	66	68	56	56	48	47
Romania	25	28	48	41	31	44	37	29	31	30
Slovenia	128	116	112	100	111	122	121	141	144	167
Slovakia	77	88	95	77	80	97	94	96	97	90
Finland	199	218	239	306	341	364	391	421	437	458
Sweden	310	323	333	338	340	349	350	372	376	405
United Kingdom	574	608	543	577	607	634	625	630	599	592
Iceland	204	181	395	400	487	501	603	506	432	440
Norway	275	283	293	311	327	348	361	361	374	377
Switzerland	258	273	276	272	273	268	281	305	327	340
Serbia	54	35	45	50	53
Turkey	12	11	13	15	16	15	17	25	26	27

Continues

Table A4.9 Social expenditure on housing and social exclusion, percentage of GDP and PPS per inhabitant, 1995-2014, continued

	Percentage of gross domestic product (GDP)									
	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
European Union (28 countries)
Belgium	0.7	0.7	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.9	0.8
Bulgaria
Czech Republic	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6
Denmark	2.1	1.9	1.9	1.8	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.7
Germany	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5
Estonia	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.2
Ireland	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5
Greece	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.8	1.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1
Spain	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
France	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5
Croatia
Italy	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Cyprus	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.1
Latvia	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Lithuania	..	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.3
Luxembourg	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6
Hungary	0.8	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.5
Malta	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.5
Netherlands	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.8
Austria	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5
Poland	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3
Portugal	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2
Romania	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.2
Slovenia	..	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.6
Slovakia	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.9	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	0.8	0.5
Finland	1.1	1.1	1.0	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8
Sweden	2.0	1.9	1.7	1.5	1.4	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.1
United Kingdom	1.7	1.8	1.7	1.6	1.6	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.8	1.9
Iceland	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.7	0.7	0.8
Norway	1.0	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8
Switzerland	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.8
Serbia
Turkey	0.4	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1

Continues

Table A4.9 Social expenditure on housing and social exclusion, percentage of GDP and PPS per inhabitant, 1995-2014, continued

	Percentage of gross domestic product (GDP)									
	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
European Union (28 countries)	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1
Belgium	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
Bulgaria	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3
Czech Republic	0.5	0.5	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.6
Denmark	1.7	1.5	1.3	1.3	1.5	1.8	1.9	1.9	2.0	2.0
Germany	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.8
Estonia	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1
Ireland	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.8	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.6	0.5
Greece	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Spain	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.4
France	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.8	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.8
Croatia	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2
Italy	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Cyprus	1.1	1.2	1.4	1.7	2.3	2.4	2.3	1.8	1.4	1.4
Latvia	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.2
Lithuania	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.6	0.4
Luxembourg	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8
Hungary	0.6	0.7	1.0	0.8	0.8	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4
Malta	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.3	0.4	0.4
Netherlands	0.9	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.7	1.6	1.7	1.8	1.9	1.9
Austria	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6
Poland	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Portugal	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2
Romania	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2
Slovenia	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.7
Slovakia	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.4
Finland	0.8	0.8	0.8	1.0	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.5
Sweden	1.1	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.2
United Kingdom	2.1	2.2	1.9	2.1	2.4	2.4	2.3	2.3	2.2	2.1
Iceland	0.7	0.6	1.1	1.2	1.6	1.7	2.0	1.6	1.4	1.4
Norway	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8
Switzerland	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.8
Serbia	0.6	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5
Turkey	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2

Table A5.1 People at-risk-of poverty or social exclusion, European countries, per cent of population, 2004-15

	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Denmark	16.5	17.2	16.7	16.8	16.3	17.6	18.3	17.6	17.5	18.3	17.9	17.7
Finland	17.2	17.2	17.1	17.4	17.4	16.9	16.9	17.9	17.2	16.0	17.3	16.8
Iceland	13.7	13.3	12.5	13.0	11.8	11.6	13.7	13.7	12.7	13.0	11.2	13.0
Norway	15.8	16.2	16.8	16.5	15.0	15.2	14.9	14.5	13.7	14.1	13.5	15.0
Sweden	16.9	14.4	16.3	13.9	14.9	15.9	15.0	16.1	15.6	16.4	16.9	16.0
Belgium	21.6	22.6	21.5	21.6	20.8	20.2	20.8	21.0	21.6	20.8	21.2	21.1
Bulgaria	61.3	60.7	44.8	46.2	49.2	49.1	49.3	48.0	40.1	41.3
Czech Republic	..	19.6	18.0	15.8	15.3	14.0	14.4	15.3	15.4	14.6	14.8	14.0
Germany	..	18.4	20.2	20.6	20.1	20.0	19.7	19.9	19.6	20.3	20.6	20.0
Estonia	26.3	25.9	22.0	22.0	21.8	23.4	21.7	23.1	23.4	23.5	26.0	24.2
Ireland	24.8	25.0	23.3	23.1	23.7	25.7	27.3	29.4	30.0	29.5	27.6	..
Greece	30.9	29.4	29.3	28.3	28.1	27.6	27.7	31.0	34.6	35.7	36.0	35.7
Spain	25.0	24.3	24.0	23.3	23.8	24.7	26.1	26.7	27.2	27.3	29.2	28.6
France	19.8	18.9	18.8	19.0	18.5	18.5	19.2	19.3	19.1	18.1	18.5	17.7
Croatia	31.1	32.6	32.6	29.9	29.3	29.1
Italy	26.2	25.6	25.9	26.0	25.5	24.9	25.0	28.1	29.9	28.5	28.3	28.7
Cyprus	..	25.3	25.4	25.2	23.3	23.5	24.6	24.6	27.1	27.8	27.4	28.9
Latvia	..	46.3	42.2	35.1	34.2	37.9	38.2	40.1	36.2	35.1	32.7	30.9
Lithuania	..	41.0	35.9	28.7	28.3	29.6	34.0	33.1	32.5	30.8	27.3	29.3
Luxembourg	16.1	17.3	16.5	15.9	15.5	17.8	17.1	16.8	18.4	19.0	19.0	18.5
Hungary	..	32.1	31.4	29.4	28.2	29.6	29.9	31.5	33.5	34.8	31.8	28.2
Malta	..	20.5	19.5	19.7	20.1	20.3	21.2	22.1	23.1	24.0	23.8	22.4
Netherlands	..	16.7	16.0	15.7	14.9	15.1	15.1	15.7	15.0	15.9	16.5	16.4
Austria	17.9	17.4	17.8	16.7	20.6	19.1	18.9	19.2	18.5	18.8	19.2	18.3
Poland	..	45.3	39.5	34.4	30.5	27.8	27.8	27.2	26.7	25.8	24.7	23.4
Portugal	27.5	26.1	25.0	25.0	26.0	24.9	25.3	24.4	25.3	27.5	27.5	26.6
Romania	47.0	44.2	43.0	41.5	40.9	43.2	41.9	40.3	37.4
Slovenia	..	18.5	17.1	17.1	18.5	17.1	18.3	19.3	19.6	20.4	20.4	19.2
Slovakia	..	32.0	26.7	21.4	20.6	19.6	20.6	20.6	20.5	19.8	18.4	18.4
United Kingdom	..	24.8	23.7	22.6	23.2	22.0	23.2	22.7	24.1	24.8	24.1	23.5
Switzerland	17.9	18.1	17.9	17.2	17.2	17.5	16.3	16.4	..
Macedonia FYR	47.2	50.4	50.3	48.1	43.3	41.6
Serbia	42.0	43.1	41.3
Turkey	66.4	64.4	63.9	63.9	65.7	63.8	61.3	51.2

Source: Eurostat (<http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/data/database>), extracted on 25.01.17

Table A5.2 People at-risk-of poverty or social exclusion, by country of birth, Nordic countries, per cent of population 18 years or over, 2009-15

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Denmark							
<i>Native-born</i>	17.6	18.0	16.9	17.2	18.2	18.2	17.0
<i>Non-EU-28</i>	35.7	40.7	38.2	39.0	39.3	31.4	39.9
<i>EU-28</i>	28.7	31.1	28.0	21.3	18.4	21.1	25.5
Finland							
<i>Native-born</i>	17.1	16.7	17.6	17.2	16.1	17.0	16.5
<i>Non-EU-28</i>	44.1	52.7	49.1	41.0	37.3	39.6	39.8
<i>EU-28</i>	16.4	20.4	20.4	19.7	23.2	21.6	21.4
Iceland							
<i>Native-born</i>	11.2	11.8	11.7	10.8	11.0	10.2	12.1
<i>Non-EU-28</i>	13.4	23.8	24.7	24.4	19.5	11.7	19.4
<i>EU-28</i>	23.5	22.8	23.5	16.2	19.7	12.3	14.2
Norway							
<i>Native-born</i>	13.5	14.1	13.6	12.6	12.8	13.0	14.4
<i>Non-EU-28</i>	39.4	32.4	36.0	35.1	34.3	27.0	30.9
<i>EU-28</i>	15.7	12.6	16.1	15.5	16.4	17.3	17.0
Sweden							
<i>Native-born</i>	14.0	13.3	14.2	13.5	14.1	14.2	13.7
<i>Non-EU-28</i>	34.8	32.4	36.0	33.2	35.9	38.0	38.4
<i>EU-28</i>	23.6	19.8	17.8	22.1	17.8	24.1	21.6

Source: Eurostat (<http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/data/database>), extracted on 25.01.17

Table A5.3 People at-risk-of poverty, Europe, per cent of population, 2004-15

	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Iceland	10.0	9.7	9.6	10.1	10.1	10.2	9.8	9.2	7.9	9.3	7.9	9.6
Czech Republic	..	10.4	9.9	9.6	9.0	8.6	9.0	9.8	9.6	8.6	9.7	9.7
Netherlands	..	10.7	9.7	10.2	10.5	11.1	10.3	11.0	10.1	10.4	11.6	11.6
Norway	10.8	11.4	12.0	11.9	11.4	11.7	11.2	10.5	10.0	10.9	10.9	11.9
Denmark	10.9	11.8	11.7	11.7	11.8	13.1	13.3	12.1	12.0	11.9	12.1	12.2
Slovakia	..	13.3	11.6	10.6	10.9	11.0	12.0	13.0	13.2	12.8	12.6	12.3
Finland	11.0	11.7	12.6	13.0	13.6	13.8	13.1	13.7	13.2	11.8	12.8	12.4
France	13.5	13.0	13.2	13.1	12.5	12.9	13.3	14.0	14.1	13.7	13.3	13.6
Austria	13.0	12.6	12.6	12.0	15.2	14.5	14.7	14.5	14.4	14.4	14.1	13.9
Slovenia	..	12.2	11.6	11.5	12.3	11.3	12.7	13.6	13.5	14.5	14.5	14.3
Sweden	11.3	9.5	12.3	10.5	12.2	13.3	12.9	14.0	14.1	14.8	15.1	14.5
Belgium	14.3	14.8	14.7	15.2	14.7	14.6	14.6	15.3	15.3	15.1	15.5	14.9
Hungary	..	13.5	15.9	12.3	12.4	12.4	12.3	14.1	14.3	15.0	15.0	14.9
Luxembourg	12.7	13.7	14.1	13.5	13.4	14.9	14.5	13.6	15.1	15.9	16.4	15.3
Cyprus	..	16.1	15.6	15.5	15.9	15.8	15.6	14.8	14.7	15.3	14.4	16.2
Malta	..	14.3	14.2	15.1	15.3	14.9	15.5	15.6	15.1	15.7	15.9	16.3
Germany	..	12.2	12.5	15.2	15.2	15.5	15.6	15.8	16.1	16.1	16.7	16.7
United Kingdom	..	19.0	19.0	18.6	18.7	17.3	17.1	16.2	16.0	15.9	16.8	16.7
Poland	..	20.5	19.1	17.3	16.9	17.1	17.6	17.7	17.1	17.3	17.0	17.6
Portugal	20.4	19.4	18.5	18.1	18.5	17.9	17.9	18.0	17.9	18.7	19.5	19.5
Italy	18.9	19.2	19.3	19.5	18.9	18.4	18.7	19.8	19.5	19.3	19.4	19.9
Croatia	20.6	20.9	20.4	19.5	19.4	20.0
Greece	19.9	19.6	20.5	20.3	20.1	19.7	20.1	21.4	23.1	23.1	22.1	21.4
FYR Macedonia	27.0	26.8	26.2	24.2	22.1	21.5
Estonia	20.2	18.3	18.3	19.4	19.5	19.7	15.8	17.5	17.5	18.6	21.8	21.6
Bulgaria	18.4	22.0	21.4	21.8	20.7	22.2	21.2	21.0	21.8	22.0
Spain	20.1	20.1	20.3	19.7	19.8	20.4	20.7	20.6	20.8	20.4	22.2	22.1
Lithuania	..	20.5	20.0	19.1	20.9	20.3	20.5	19.2	18.6	20.6	19.1	22.2
Latvia	..	19.4	23.5	21.2	25.9	26.4	20.9	19.0	19.2	19.4	21.2	22.5
Romania	24.6	23.6	22.1	21.6	22.3	22.9	23.0	25.1	25.4
Serbia	24.5	25.4	25.4
Ireland	20.9	19.7	18.5	17.2	15.5	15.0	15.2	15.2	15.7	14.1	15.6	..
Switzerland	15.0	15.7	15.6	15.0	15.0	15.9	14.5	13.8	..
Turkey	26.7	24.7	24.7	25.3	24.4	23.5	23.7	23.1

Source: Eurostat (<http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/data/database>), extracted on 25.01.17

Table A5.4 People at-risk-of poverty, by gender, Nordic countries, per cent of population, 2004-15

	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Men												
Denmark	10.7	11.6	11.4	11.3	11.7	12.8	13.1	12.1	12.0	12.0	12.4	12.5
Finland	10.5	10.6	12.0	12.1	12.7	12.9	12.4	13.2	12.9	11.3	12.3	12.2
Iceland	9.6	9.8	9.1	9.1	9.5	9.3	9.8	9.0	8.4	9.6	8.1	9.6
Norway	9.9	10.2	10.8	10.3	9.9	10.1	10.1	9.9	9.5	10.2	9.9	10.3
Sweden	10.4	9.0	12.3	10.5	11.3	12.0	11.4	12.2	12.6	13.4	13.9	13.2
Women												
Denmark	11.2	12.1	12.0	12.0	12.0	13.4	13.4	12.0	11.9	11.8	11.8	11.9
Finland	11.4	12.8	13.1	13.8	14.5	14.7	13.8	14.2	13.6	12.3	13.3	12.6
Iceland	10.5	9.6	10.2	11.0	10.7	11.1	9.8	9.5	7.5	8.9	7.7	9.6
Norway	11.8	12.5	13.3	13.4	12.9	13.2	12.2	11.1	10.4	11.7	11.9	13.5
Sweden	12.2	10.0	12.3	10.6	13.0	14.5	14.3	15.7	15.6	16.1	16.3	15.9
Total												
Denmark	10.9	11.8	11.7	11.7	11.8	13.1	13.3	12.1	12.0	11.9	12.1	12.2
Finland	11.0	11.7	12.6	13.0	13.6	13.8	13.1	13.7	13.2	11.8	12.8	12.4
Iceland	10.0	9.7	9.6	10.1	10.1	10.2	9.8	9.2	7.9	9.3	7.9	9.6
Norway	10.8	11.4	12.0	11.9	11.4	11.7	11.2	10.5	10.0	10.9	10.9	11.9
Sweden	11.3	9.5	12.3	10.5	12.2	13.3	12.9	14.0	14.1	14.8	15.1	14.5

Source: Eurostat (<http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/data/database>), extracted on 25.01.17

Table A5.5 People at risk of poverty before social transfers (pensions excluded from social transfers) by gender, Europe, per cent of population, 2015

	Men	Women	Total
Denmark	25.3	26.3	25.8
Finland	26.7	26.9	26.8
Iceland	20.2	21.1	20.6
Norway	24.9	28.1	26.5
Sweden	24.6	29.2	26.9
Belgium	25.7	27.7	26.7
Bulgaria	26.3	30.3	28.4
Czech Republic	15.4	18.1	16.8
Germany	24.2	26.0	25.1
Estonia	26.0	29.5	27.8
Ireland
Greece	25.5	25.5	25.5
Spain	30.8	29.5	30.1
France	23.3	24.4	23.9
Croatia	31.1	30.9	31.0
Italy	24.6	26.1	25.4
Cyprus	24.9	25.9	25.4
Latvia	24.5	29.7	27.3
Lithuania	28.7	28.4	28.6
Luxembourg	27.4	27.1	27.2
Hungary	26.5	24.9	25.7
Malta	22.5	24.9	23.7
Netherlands	22.1	22.5	22.3
Austria	25.1	26.1	25.6
Poland	23.5	22.4	22.9
Portugal	26.0	26.8	26.4
Romania	28.9	29.6	29.3
Slovenia	23.9	25.7	24.8
Slovakia	18.7	19.3	19.0
United Kingdom	27.9	30.6	29.2
Switzerland
FYR Macedonia	24.7	24.9	24.8
Serbia	38.0	36.5	37.2
Turkey

Table A5.6 In-work at-risk-of-poverty rate for employed persons 18-64 years, per cent, 2004-15

	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Denmark	4.7	4.8	4.5	4.2	5.0	5.9	6.3	6.3	5.3	5.4	4.8	5.1
Finland	4.3	3.7	4.4	5.0	5.1	3.7	3.7	3.9	3.8	3.8	3.7	3.5
Iceland	7.0	8.0	6.6	7.2	6.9	7.8	6.8	6.7	5.4	6.2	4.7	7.0
Norway	4.5	4.5	6.1	5.9	5.4	5.6	5.2	5.5	5.1	5.8	5.2	5.7
Sweden	6.1	5.5	7.4	6.5	6.8	7.0	6.6	6.9	6.7	7.1	7.8	7.2
Belgium	4.0	3.9	4.0	4.3	4.7	4.5	4.4	4.1	4.5	4.4	4.8	4.5
Bulgaria	5.5	5.9	7.6	7.5	7.7	8.2	7.4	7.2	9.3	7.8
Czech Republic	..	3.5	3.5	3.3	3.6	3.2	3.7	4.1	4.6	4.1	3.6	4.0
Germany	..	4.8	5.5	7.4	7.1	6.8	7.1	7.7	7.7	8.6	9.9	9.6
Estonia	9.4	7.5	7.8	7.9	7.4	8.3	6.7	8.2	8.5	7.7	11.8	10.3
Ireland	6.5	5.9	6.2	5.5	6.3	4.9	5.5	5.3	5.4	4.5	5.5	..
Greece	13.0	12.7	13.7	14.1	14.2	13.7	13.9	11.9	15.1	13.0	13.2	13.4
Spain	10.8	10.6	10.1	10.2	11.3	11.7	10.8	10.9	10.8	10.6	12.6	13.2
France	5.4	6.1	6.0	6.4	6.5	6.6	6.5	7.6	8.0	7.8	8.0	7.5
Croatia	6.2	6.5	6.1	6.2	5.7	5.8
Italy	9.0	8.8	9.0	9.4	9.1	10.2	9.7	11.1	11.1	11.2	11.1	11.6
Cyprus	..	6.4	7.2	6.3	6.3	6.8	7.4	7.3	8.0	9.0	7.8	9.2
Latvia	..	9.2	11.2	9.5	10.7	11.2	9.7	9.6	8.9	9.1	8.3	9.4
Lithuania	..	10.2	10.1	8.1	9.5	10.5	12.7	9.6	7.7	9.2	8.4	10.2
Luxembourg	8.6	9.8	10.3	9.3	9.4	10.1	10.6	9.8	10.3	11.2	11.1	11.6
Hungary	..	8.8	6.9	5.8	5.8	6.2	5.4	6.2	5.7	7.0	6.7	9.3
Malta	..	4.3	4.1	4.6	5.1	5.4	5.8	6.1	5.2	5.9	5.7	5.3
Netherlands	..	5.8	4.4	4.5	4.7	5.0	5.1	5.4	4.6	4.5	5.3	5.1
Austria	7.3	6.8	6.3	6.1	8.5	8.2	7.5	7.6	8.2	7.9	7.2	7.8
Poland	..	13.8	12.8	11.7	11.5	11.0	11.5	11.2	10.4	10.8	10.7	11.3
Portugal	11.8	11.5	10.4	9.3	11.3	10.3	9.6	10.2	9.9	10.4	10.7	10.9
Romania	16.5	16.9	17.2	17.6	18.9	18.9	18.1	19.7	18.6
Slovenia	..	4.6	4.8	4.7	5.1	4.8	5.3	6.0	6.5	7.1	6.4	6.7
Slovakia	..	9.0	6.3	4.9	5.8	5.2	5.7	6.3	6.2	5.8	5.7	6.1
United Kingdom	..	8.1	7.7	7.9	8.0	6.3	6.7	7.8	8.7	8.2	8.8	8.3
Switzerland	7.7	9.2	8.1	7.5	7.6	8.5	7.6	6.2	..
Macedonia FYR	10.2	11.0	11.1	9.7	8.8
Serbia	14.6	14.9	13.3
Turkey	18.1	17.7	18.2	18.7	17.9	15.9	15.3	14.9

Table A5.7 Severe material deprivation rate, by country of birth, per cent of total population 18 years or over 2009-15

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Native born							
Denmark	1.9	2.2	1.9	2.0	3.2	2.9	2.9
Finland	2.9	2.8	2.9	2.9	2.5	2.8	2.0
Iceland	0.8	1.4	1.8	1.9	1.4	1.5	1.4
Norway	1.5	1.6	1.5	1.2	1.2	0.9	1.4
Sweden	1.2	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.4	0.4
EU-28							
Denmark	4.7	2.2	4.6	3.0	2.9	8.0	3.2
Finland	3.1	4.5	2.8	3.0	4.9	4.6	4.2
Iceland	2.8	4.2	7.9	4.4	2.7	0.4	0.6
Norway	3.7	0.7	1.8	1.2	1.4	1.5	2.6
Sweden	2.0	0.6	1.6	1.5	1.6	1.2	1.7
Non-EU-28							
Denmark	9.4	9.9	7.8	9.7	10.8	9.2	14.4
Finland	4.3	8.3	15.9	7.1	8.7	9.7	8.4
Iceland	-	4.9	2.5	4.8	4.7	-	1.6
Norway	11.3	8.0	13.3	10.8	9.2	7.2	4.6
Sweden	5.2	6.6	4.7	5.3	5.8	3.1	2.8

Table A6.1 Employment 15-64 years, Europe, per cent, 2006-16

	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Denmark	77.4	77.0	77.9	75.3	73.3	73.1	72.6	72.5	72.8	73.5	74.9
Finland	69.3	70.3	71.1	68.7	68.1	69.0	69.4	68.9	68.7	68.5	69.1
Iceland	84.6	85.1	83.6	78.3	78.2	78.5	79.7	81.1	82.9	84.7	86.6
Norway	75.4	76.8	78.0	76.4	75.3	75.3	75.7	75.4	75.2	74.8	74.3
Sweden	73.1	74.2	74.3	72.2	72.1	73.6	73.8	74.4	74.9	75.5	76.2
European Union (28 countries)	64.3	65.2	65.7	64.5	64.1	64.2	64.1	64.1	64.8	65.6	66.6
Belgium	61.0	62.0	62.4	61.6	62.0	61.9	61.8	61.8	61.9	61.8	62.3
Bulgaria	58.6	61.7	64.0	62.6	59.8	58.4	58.8	59.5	61.0	62.9	63.4
Czech Republic	65.3	66.1	66.6	65.4	65.0	65.7	66.5	67.7	69.0	70.2	72.0
Germany	67.2	69.0	70.1	70.3	71.3	72.7	73.0	73.5	73.8	74.0	74.7
Estonia	68.4	69.8	70.1	63.8	61.2	65.3	67.1	68.5	69.6	71.9	72.1
Ireland	68.7	69.2	67.4	61.9	59.6	58.9	58.8	60.5	61.7	63.3	64.8
Greece	60.6	60.9	61.4	60.8	59.1	55.1	50.8	48.8	49.4	50.8	52.0
Spain	65.0	65.8	64.5	60.0	58.8	58.0	55.8	54.8	56.0	57.8	59.5
France	63.7	64.3	64.9	64.1	64.0	63.9	64.0	64.0	64.2	64.3	64.6
Croatia	55.6	59.0	60.0	59.4	57.4	55.2	53.5	52.5	54.6	56.0	56.9
Italy	58.3	58.6	58.6	57.4	56.8	56.8	56.6	55.5	55.7	56.3	57.2
Cyprus	69.6	71.0	70.9	69.0	68.9	67.6	64.6	61.7	62.1	62.7	63.4
Latvia	65.9	68.1	68.2	60.3	58.5	60.8	63.0	65.0	66.3	68.1	68.7
Lithuania	63.6	65.0	64.4	59.9	57.6	60.2	62.0	63.7	65.7	67.2	69.4
Luxembourg	63.6	64.2	63.4	65.2	65.2	64.6	65.8	65.7	66.6	66.1	65.6
Hungary	57.4	57.0	56.4	55.0	54.9	55.4	56.7	58.1	61.8	63.9	66.5
Malta	53.9	55.0	55.5	55.3	56.2	57.9	59.1	60.8	62.4	63.9	65.7
Netherlands	74.3	76.0	77.2	77.0	74.7	74.2	74.4	73.6	73.1	74.1	74.8
Austria	68.6	69.9	70.8	70.3	70.8	71.1	71.4	71.4	71.1	71.1	71.5
Poland	54.5	57.0	59.2	59.3	58.9	59.3	59.7	60.0	61.7	62.9	64.5
Portugal	67.6	67.6	68.0	66.1	65.3	63.8	61.4	60.6	62.6	63.9	65.2
Romania	58.8	58.8	59.0	58.6	60.2	59.3	60.2	60.1	61.0	61.4	61.6
Slovenia	66.6	67.8	68.6	67.5	66.2	64.4	64.1	63.3	63.9	65.2	65.8
Slovakia	59.4	60.7	62.3	60.2	58.8	59.3	59.7	59.9	61.0	62.7	64.9
United Kingdom	71.6	71.5	71.5	69.9	69.4	69.3	69.9	70.5	71.9	72.7	73.5
Switzerland	78.6	79.3	79.4	79.6	79.8	80.2	80.8
FYR Macedonia	39.6	40.7	41.9	43.3	43.5	43.9	44.0	46.0	46.9	47.8	49.1
Turkey	44.6	44.6	44.9	44.3	46.3	48.4	48.9	49.5	49.5	50.2	50.6

Source: Eurostat (Labour Force Survey). Extracted on 15.05.2017

Since 2014, data for France including also the French overseas departments (Guadeloupe, Martinique, Guyane, La Réunion), with the exception of Mayotte is available.

To prevent a break in time series, we still use the old definition excluding these departments for the French rates.

Table A6.2a Employment 15-64 years, men, Europe, per cent, 2006-16

	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
European Union (28 countries)	71.5	72.4	72.6	70.6	70.1	70.0	69.6	69.4	70.1	70.9	71.9
Belgium	67.9	68.7	68.6	67.2	67.4	67.1	66.9	66.4	65.8	65.5	66.5
Bulgaria	62.8	66.0	68.5	66.9	63.3	61.2	61.3	62.1	63.9	65.9	66.7
Czech Republic	73.7	74.8	75.4	73.8	73.5	74.0	74.6	75.7	77.0	77.9	79.3
Denmark	81.2	80.8	81.6	78.0	75.6	75.9	75.2	75.0	75.8	76.6	77.7
Germany	72.8	74.7	75.8	75.4	76.3	77.6	77.9	78.0	78.1	78.0	78.5
Estonia	71.4	73.5	73.7	64.3	61.7	67.8	69.7	71.4	73.0	75.3	75.7
Ireland	77.9	77.5	74.5	66.5	63.5	62.6	62.7	65.1	66.9	68.7	70.2
Greece	73.9	74.2	74.4	73.0	70.3	65.4	60.1	57.9	58.0	59.3	61.0
Spain	76.1	76.1	73.3	66.5	64.8	63.4	60.3	59.2	60.7	62.9	64.8
France	69.0	69.2	69.7	68.4	68.3	68.2	68.1	67.9	67.7	67.5	68.0
Croatia	62.2	66.5	67.3	65.2	62.7	60.9	58.5	56.5	59.1	60.3	61.4
Italy	70.4	70.6	70.1	68.5	67.5	67.3	66.3	64.7	64.7	65.5	66.5
Cyprus	79.4	80.0	79.2	76.3	75.3	73.7	70.4	67.0	66.0	66.7	68.3
Latvia	70.4	72.7	71.5	60.3	57.9	61.5	64.4	66.8	68.4	69.9	70.0
Lithuania	66.4	68.2	67.2	59.3	56.5	60.1	62.2	64.7	66.5	68.0	70.0
Luxembourg	72.6	72.3	71.5	73.2	73.1	72.1	72.5	72.1	72.6	71.3	70.5
Hungary	63.9	63.7	62.7	60.7	59.9	60.7	61.6	63.7	67.8	70.3	73.0
Malta	73.6	73.5	72.9	71.9	72.5	73.8	73.8	74.1	74.9	76.2	78.3
Netherlands	80.9	82.2	83.2	82.4	80.0	79.3	79.3	78.2	78.1	79.0	79.6
Austria	74.9	76.3	76.8	75.5	76.0	76.2	76.2	76.0	75.2	75.1	75.4
Poland	60.9	63.6	66.3	66.1	65.3	66.0	66.3	66.6	68.2	69.2	71.0
Portugal	73.7	73.6	73.8	70.8	69.8	67.7	64.5	63.5	65.8	66.9	68.3
Romania	64.6	64.8	65.7	65.2	67.9	66.3	67.6	67.6	68.7	69.5	69.7
Slovenia	71.1	72.7	72.7	71.0	69.6	67.7	67.4	67.1	67.5	69.2	68.9
Slovakia	67.0	68.4	70.0	67.6	65.2	66.1	66.7	66.4	67.6	69.5	71.4
Finland	71.4	72.1	73.1	69.5	69.4	70.6	70.5	69.9	69.5	69.3	70.5
Sweden	75.5	76.5	76.7	74.2	74.6	75.8	75.6	76.3	76.5	77.0	77.5
United Kingdom	77.6	77.6	77.4	74.9	74.4	74.3	75.0	75.4	76.8	77.6	78.3
Iceland	88.1	89.1	87.3	80.0	80.1	80.3	81.5	83.2	85.4	87.1	89.4
Norway	78.4	79.5	80.5	78.3	77.3	77.1	77.6	77.3	77.0	76.5	75.7
Switzerland	84.6	85.4	85.2	84.6	84.4	84.4	84.9
FYR Macedonia	48.3	48.8	50.7	52.8	52.8	52.3	52.4	54.5	56.1	56.6	58.6
Turkey	66.9	66.8	66.6	64.5	66.7	69.2	69.2	69.5	69.5	69.8	70.0

Source: Eurostat (Labour Force Survey). Extracted on 15.05.2017

Since 2014, data for France including also the French overseas departments (Guadeloupe, Martinique, Guyane, La Réunion), with the exception of Mayotte is available.

To prevent a break in time series, we still use the old definition excluding these departments for the French rates.

Table A6.2b Employment 15-64 years, women, Europe, per cent, 2006-16

	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
European Union (28 countries)	57.2	58.1	58.9	58.4	58.2	58.4	58.6	58.8	59.6	60.4	61.4
Belgium	54.0	55.3	56.2	56.0	56.5	56.7	56.8	57.2	57.9	58.0	58.1
Bulgaria	54.6	57.6	59.5	58.3	56.2	55.6	56.3	56.8	58.2	59.8	60.0
Czech Republic	56.8	57.3	57.6	56.7	56.3	57.2	58.2	59.6	60.7	62.4	64.4
Denmark	73.4	73.2	74.1	72.7	71.1	70.4	70.0	70.0	69.8	70.4	72.0
Germany	61.5	63.2	64.3	65.2	66.2	67.8	68.1	69.0	69.5	69.9	70.8
Estonia	65.6	66.2	66.6	63.2	60.8	63.0	64.7	65.7	66.3	68.5	68.6
Ireland	59.3	60.6	60.1	57.4	55.8	55.1	55.1	55.9	56.7	57.9	59.5
Greece	47.3	47.7	48.6	48.9	48.0	45.0	41.7	39.9	41.1	42.5	43.3
Spain	53.8	55.3	55.4	53.3	52.8	52.6	51.2	50.3	51.2	52.7	54.3
France	58.6	59.6	60.3	59.9	59.8	59.7	60.1	60.4	60.9	61.1	61.4
Croatia	49.3	51.6	52.7	53.7	52.1	49.5	48.5	48.5	50.0	51.6	52.4
Italy	46.3	46.6	47.2	46.4	46.1	46.5	47.1	46.5	46.8	47.2	48.1
Cyprus	60.3	62.4	62.9	62.3	63.0	62.1	59.4	56.9	58.6	59.0	59.0
Latvia	61.8	63.9	65.2	60.4	59.0	60.2	61.7	63.4	64.3	66.4	67.6
Lithuania	61.0	62.0	61.8	60.4	58.5	60.2	61.8	62.8	64.9	66.5	68.8
Luxembourg	54.6	56.1	55.1	57.0	57.2	56.9	59.0	59.1	60.5	60.8	60.4
Hungary	51.1	50.7	50.3	49.6	50.2	50.3	51.9	52.6	55.9	57.8	60.2
Malta	33.7	36.0	37.7	38.0	39.5	41.5	44.0	47.0	49.5	51.0	52.6
Netherlands	67.7	69.6	71.1	71.5	69.3	68.9	69.4	69.0	68.1	69.2	70.1
Austria	62.2	63.5	64.8	65.2	65.7	66.1	66.7	66.9	66.9	67.1	67.7
Poland	48.2	50.6	52.4	52.8	52.6	52.7	53.1	53.4	55.2	56.6	58.1
Portugal	61.8	61.8	62.5	61.5	61.0	60.1	58.5	57.9	59.6	61.1	62.4
Romania	53.0	52.8	52.5	52.0	52.5	52.3	52.8	52.6	53.3	53.2	53.3
Slovenia	61.8	62.6	64.2	63.8	62.6	60.9	60.5	59.2	60.0	61.0	62.6
Slovakia	51.9	53.0	54.6	52.8	52.3	52.5	52.7	53.4	54.3	55.9	58.3
Finland	67.3	68.5	69.0	67.9	66.9	67.4	68.2	67.8	68.0	67.7	67.6
Sweden	70.7	71.8	71.8	70.2	69.7	71.3	71.8	72.5	73.1	74.0	74.8
United Kingdom	65.8	65.5	65.7	64.9	64.5	64.4	64.9	65.8	67.1	67.9	68.8
Iceland	80.8	80.8	79.6	76.5	76.2	76.6	77.8	79.0	80.5	82.3	83.6
Norway	72.2	74.0	75.4	74.4	73.3	73.4	73.8	73.5	73.4	73.0	72.8
Switzerland	72.5	73.3	73.6	74.4	75.1	76.0	76.7
FYR Macedonia	30.7	32.3	32.9	33.5	34.0	35.3	35.3	37.3	37.4	38.8	39.2
Turkey	22.7	22.8	23.5	24.2	26.2	27.8	28.7	29.6	29.5	30.4	31.2

Source: Eurostat (Labour Force Survey). Extracted on 15.05.2017

Since 2014, data for France including also the French overseas departments (Guadeloupe, Martinique, Guyane, La Réunion), with the exception of Mayotte is available.

To prevent a break in time series, we still use the old definition excluding these departments for the French rates.

Table A6.3a Employment 15-64 years, by country of birth, Europe, per cent, EU-28 countries except reporting country, 2006-16

	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
European Union (28 countries)	67.9	69.1	68.7	66.9	66.6	66.6	66.1	66.5	67.5	68.7	69.8
Belgium	56.2	57.8	60.8	58.7	61.2	62.1	61.5	62.1	62.6	63.2	65.2
Bulgaria
Czech Republic	57.5	65.5	64.3	64.2	67.3	65.4	63.0	66.0	69.2	68.5	72.6
Denmark	70.9	75.7	78.8	77.6	73.5	71.0	71.8	73.3	76.1	75.4	76.0
Germany
Estonia	65.5	76.2	77.2	74.0	61.4	61.9	59.2	62.6	71.7	66.8	71.8
Ireland	74.5	75.6	71.9	64.1	61.3	60.8	61.2	63.7	64.5	66.4	69.1
Greece	63.7	62.7	62.4	62.6	64.3	60.6	53.3	50.6	53.3	56.2	54.6
Spain	71.1	70.0	67.0	62.2	58.7	56.5	56.0	56.1	56.6	60.3	62.0
France	64.7	64.4	64.4	64.8	67.1	67.6	65.8	67.7	67.0	65.8	65.5
Croatia	53.2	61.4	64.8	70.8	63.9	59.5	56.2	52.9	57.1	61.0	64.5
Italy	63.1	65.3	64.5	63.9	63.8	62.7	61.8	60.1	60.1	60.8	61.0
Cyprus	65.0	67.1	71.7	69.9	72.3	71.3	68.0	64.2	65.6	65.4	67.0
Latvia	62.2	67.0	59.3	48.5	53.7	57.2	53.0	59.1	62.3	62.1	75.7
Lithuania	57.2	66.9
Luxembourg	71.0	73.0	72.2	71.1	72.2	72.5	73.6	73.6	74.0	71.8	71.7
Hungary	61.3	64.4	64.0	65.3	67.1	64.1	66.5	67.8	72.5	70.5	76.9
Malta	55.1	54.5	54.9	53.7	57.0	54.1	57.9	57.2	65.4	70.1	72.1
Netherlands	72.1	72.8	74.7	74.0	72.0	72.4	73.1	71.9	72.4	71.5	74.0
Austria	64.9	67.0	67.5	67.2	69.5	69.9	71.1	72.2	72.7	72.7	73.7
Poland	37.3	34.2	40.3	34.2	41.9	54.6	62.4	62.0	64.2	69.7	61.4
Portugal	68.2	70.8	73.9	73.0	71.6	75.6	71.3	67.2	73.8	75.1	76.7
Romania
Slovenia	62.1	65.2	66.8	66.9	63.9	57.7	60.6	59.3	56.9	60.0	59.7
Slovakia	53.7	67.4	70.8	58.8	54.3	54.7	64.2	65.7	64.4	55.5	62.3
Finland	69.5	74.7	75.9	72.9	71.6	71.9	75.5	74.0	72.4	70.1	71.2
Sweden	72.0	72.4	72.2	73.1	72.7	73.4	73.9	74.7	74.9	75.7	76.5
United Kingdom	75.5	75.9	76.8	75.5	74.6	75.5	74.7	75.9	77.9	79.1	79.2
Iceland	83.7	85.3	84.1	79.2	75.6	78.1	80.1	81.4	82.8	83.5	88.1
Norway	79.9	81.2	83.2	81.4	79.2	80.4	81.5	82.3	82.5	80.4	81.0
Switzerland	77.3	78.5	79.7	81.1	79.7	80.7	81.5	81.7	82.0	81.9	82.3
FYR Macedonia	47.7	37.0	47.0	44.4
Turkey	52.0	52.2	55.4	53.9	52.1

Source: Eurostat (Labour Force Survey). Extracted on 15.05.2017

Table A6.3b Employment 15-64 years, by country of birth, Europe, per cent, Extra-EU-28, 2006-16

	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
European Union (28 countries)	62.1	62.9	63.2	59.5	58.8	58.0	57.0	56.1	57.0	57.6	58.6
Belgium	44.9	45.2	48.1	47.1	46.5	45.8	45.4	46.0	45.7	46.2	46.8
Bulgaria	61.4	61.0	55.2	51.7	46.6	49.7	54.7	57.9	60.3	56.7	61.9
Czech Republic	67.9	71.3	71.3	69.4	69.3	71.9	73.8	75.2	75.9	74.7	75.9
Denmark	61.2	60.5	64.1	64.3	59.6	57.9	56.5	58.3	58.3	58.2	62.1
Germany
Estonia	72.6	74.3	74.9	67.6	59.3	64.3	67.6	68.8	67.6	70.5	70.3
Ireland	63.0	64.6	64.5	57.0	53.8	54.3	53.4	54.1	55.0	56.4	58.8
Greece	67.4	67.0	68.4	66.2	63.4	57.5	48.7	46.6	49.5	51.5	53.5
Spain	70.8	69.6	66.1	56.8	56.7	54.2	50.6	48.5	50.5	53.2	55.8
France	54.2	55.7	58.3	55.3	54.8	54.1	54.8	53.4	53.0	52.5	52.2
Croatia	50.8	55.4	56.8	56.7	53.6	51.4	47.8	46.6	52.5	55.8	54.3
Italy	65.9	66.1	65.3	62.1	60.8	60.8	59.2	57.2	57.6	57.6	58.4
Cyprus	75.1	75.2	73.4	70.6	70.6	69.7	69.3	67.8	70.7	69.2	62.9
Latvia	71.6	73.5	71.7	62.0	60.0	62.2	62.2	62.3	64.4	64.2	63.0
Lithuania	69.6	69.8	70.6	63.6	62.6	62.4	64.5	67.5	68.6	69.3	69.2
Luxembourg	55.5	59.9	48.5	59.9	62.9	59.9	60.9	62.0	62.4	60.3	57.5
Hungary	60.9	63.3	66.0	62.5	59.0	59.0	66.6	67.6	64.3	72.5	67.3
Malta	53.5	59.1	63.7	62.3	63.3	65.1	64.8	63.4	64.2	64.7	68.4
Netherlands	59.5	62.2	65.6	64.6	62.3	60.7	60.5	58.2	58.0	57.8	58.1
Austria	59.5	61.2	61.3	60.3	62.4	63.0	62.0	60.7	59.5	59.0	58.4
Poland	34.2	38.7	45.5	51.7	54.8	55.6	61.6	58.0	62.5	58.0	63.0
Portugal	72.5	73.4	73.9	68.8	68.0	66.5	64.9	61.1	64.2	65.5	68.1
Romania	..	62.4	64.5	74.3	69.4	61.7	53.9
Slovenia	69.5	69.2	69.0	65.7	65.8	63.4	64.9	61.0	58.6	61.7	63.2
Slovakia	..	60.9	59.5	67.9	64.2	69.3	62.5	68.2	70.3	66.7	64.9
Finland	53.3	55.8	58.3	57.9	53.5	54.1	55.9	56.3	54.0	52.7	51.2
Sweden	56.6	58.9	60.5	57.4	56.6	58.2	58.6	58.5	59.5	60.2	61.2
United Kingdom	62.9	62.8	63.5	61.9	62.3	62.0	62.4	63.4	65.0	65.5	67.1
Iceland	85.2	86.2	77.1	73.4	73.2	74.3	77.4	77.9	81.1	76.8	83.4
Norway	61.0	64.7	67.5	64.1	62.9	64.0	63.7	61.8	60.9	60.7	61.9
Switzerland	67.2	68.0	70.3	68.9	68.2	68.9	69.4	68.3	68.6	69.1	68.9
FYR Macedonia	33.6	29.9	33.3	36.2
Turkey	33.6	34.4	38.0	36.6	38.1

Source: Eurostat (Labour Force Survey). Extracted on 15.05.2017

Table A6.3c Employment 15-64 years, by country of birth, Europe, per cent, foreign country, 2006-16

	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
European Union (28 countries)	62.2	63.6	64.2	61.9	61.9	62.0	61.5	61.3	62.1	62.8	63.6
Belgium	50.1	50.9	54.0	52.2	53.0	52.6	52.0	52.7	52.8	53.3	54.1
Bulgaria	61.0	59.8	56.3	53.0	47.3	50.9	55.2	57.0	57.8	55.2	60.6
Czech Republic	60.6	67.3	66.4	65.8	68.0	67.8	67.3	69.8	71.8	71.1	74.0
Denmark	64.0	64.2	67.8	67.9	63.5	61.7	61.3	63.0	64.1	63.9	66.7
Germany	57.8	60.3	61.9	62.4	64.3	66.9	67.9	68.2	68.3	68.3	67.9
Estonia	72.1	74.4	75.0	67.9	59.4	64.1	67.2	68.4	67.9	70.2	70.4
Ireland	71.5	72.8	70.1	62.2	59.3	59.0	58.8	60.5	61.2	62.6	65.1
Greece	66.6	66.1	67.1	65.5	63.6	58.1	49.6	47.4	50.3	52.4	53.7
Spain	70.9	69.7	66.4	58.3	57.3	54.8	52.1	50.7	52.3	55.2	57.6
France	57.2	58.1	59.9	58.0	58.1	57.7	57.6	56.9	56.4	55.5	55.3
Croatia	51.0	55.8	57.6	57.9	54.5	52.4	48.8	47.4	53.0	56.3	55.5
Italy	65.1	65.9	65.0	62.7	61.8	61.4	60.0	58.1	58.4	58.6	59.2
Cyprus	71.0	71.9	72.7	70.3	71.4	70.5	68.7	66.0	68.2	67.3	65.0
Latvia	70.8	72.9	70.6	60.5	59.4	61.8	61.3	62.0	64.2	64.0	64.4
Lithuania	69.8	70.0	70.4	62.8	61.9	62.1	64.8	68.6	69.3	68.1	68.9
Luxembourg	68.9	71.1	69.0	69.3	70.7	70.3	71.3	71.5	72.0	69.5	69.0
Hungary	61.2	64.1	64.5	64.6	65.1	62.6	66.6	67.8	70.4	71.1	73.8
Malta	54.1	57.6	60.7	59.2	60.4	60.8	62.6	61.3	64.6	66.7	69.6
Netherlands	62.1	64.4	67.5	66.6	64.3	63.2	63.2	61.2	61.4	61.1	62.0
Austria	61.5	63.3	63.6	62.9	65.1	65.6	65.6	65.2	64.9	64.7	64.6
Poland	35.5	36.8	43.5	45.5	50.5	55.2	61.9	59.2	63.0	60.7	62.7
Portugal	71.5	72.9	73.9	69.7	68.8	68.5	66.3	62.6	66.7	68.0	70.3
Romania	..	63.4	62.6	72.2	78.3	..	68.5	59.6	54.7
Slovenia	66.8	67.9	68.4	66.1	65.3	61.9	63.9	60.5	58.2	61.3	62.4
Slovakia	55.2	66.0	68.1	60.6	56.5	59.4	63.7	66.4	66.1	58.4	63.2
Finland	60.5	63.8	65.4	63.8	60.5	61.1	63.8	63.4	60.7	59.2	58.4
Sweden	61.6	63.1	64.3	62.2	61.3	62.5	62.9	62.9	63.6	64.2	64.9
United Kingdom	66.4	66.7	67.6	66.0	66.1	66.3	66.5	67.5	69.4	70.5	71.8
Iceland	84.3	85.7	81.4	77.2	74.8	76.7	79.1	80.2	82.2	81.0	86.6
Norway	67.0	70.5	73.2	70.3	68.8	70.2	70.9	70.3	69.9	69.0	69.4
Switzerland	72.7	73.7	75.4	75.7	74.6	75.5	76.1	75.9	76.3	76.5	76.6
FYR Macedonia	37.0	31.7	36.7	38.1
Turkey	46.4	46.8	46.3	44.4	43.8

Source: Eurostat (Labour Force Survey). Extracted on 15.05.2017

Table A6.3d Employment 15-64 years, by country of birth, Europe, per cent, reporting country, 2006-16

	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
European Union (28 countries)	64.6	65.4	65.9	64.8	64.4	64.4	64.4	64.4	65.2	66.0	67.0
Belgium	62.7	63.5	63.8	63.2	63.6	63.7	63.8	63.6	63.8	63.6	64.1
Bulgaria	58.6	61.7	64.0	62.6	59.8	58.5	58.8	59.5	61.1	62.9	63.4
Czech Republic	65.4	66.1	66.6	65.4	64.9	65.7	66.5	67.7	68.9	70.2	71.9
Denmark	78.4	78.5	79.0	76.2	74.6	74.7	74.2	73.9	74.2	75.1	76.3
Germany	69.0	70.7	71.7	71.9	72.5	73.8	74.0	74.5	74.9	75.2	76.2
Estonia	67.8	69.0	69.3	63.2	61.5	65.5	67.1	68.5	69.8	72.1	72.3
Ireland	68.1	68.3	66.7	61.9	59.7	58.8	58.9	60.5	61.9	63.4	64.8
Greece	60.1	60.4	60.8	60.3	58.5	54.8	50.9	48.9	49.3	50.6	51.9
Spain	64.1	65.1	64.1	60.3	59.2	58.7	56.5	55.6	56.6	58.3	59.9
France	64.5	65.2	65.6	65.0	64.8	64.8	65.0	65.1	64.9	65.1	65.6
Croatia	56.2	59.4	60.3	59.6	57.7	55.5	54.0	53.1	54.7	55.9	57.1
Italy	57.8	57.9	58.0	56.8	56.2	56.2	56.2	55.2	55.3	55.9	56.9
Cyprus	69.3	70.8	70.4	68.6	68.0	66.6	63.2	60.3	60.4	61.3	62.9
Latvia	65.3	67.4	67.9	60.3	58.4	60.7	63.2	65.4	66.5	68.5	69.2
Lithuania	63.3	64.8	64.1	59.7	57.4	60.1	61.9	63.6	65.6	67.2	69.4
Luxembourg	60.0	59.2	59.4	61.9	60.7	59.5	60.7	60.3	61.5	62.6	61.8
Hungary	57.3	56.9	56.2	54.8	54.8	55.3	56.4	57.9	61.6	63.8	66.4
Malta	53.9	54.8	55.3	55.0	56.0	57.7	58.9	60.8	62.3	63.6	65.4
Netherlands	76.2	77.7	78.7	78.6	76.2	75.8	76.1	75.5	75.0	76.1	76.9
Austria	70.0	71.2	72.3	71.9	72.0	72.3	72.7	72.8	72.6	72.8	73.4
Poland	54.6	57.1	59.3	59.4	59.0	59.3	59.7	60.0	61.7	62.9	64.5
Portugal	67.3	67.2	67.5	65.7	64.9	63.4	60.9	60.4	62.2	63.5	64.7
Romania	58.8	58.8	59.0	58.6	60.2	59.3	60.2	60.1	61.0	61.4	61.6
Slovenia	66.6	67.8	68.6	67.7	66.3	64.7	64.1	63.5	64.5	65.7	66.2
Slovakia	59.5	60.7	62.2	60.2	58.8	59.3	59.7	59.8	60.9	62.8	64.9
Finland	69.7	70.5	71.3	68.9	68.5	69.4	69.6	69.2	69.2	69.2	69.8
Sweden	75.1	76.2	76.3	74.2	74.4	76.0	76.2	77.2	77.7	78.5	79.3
United Kingdom	72.3	72.2	72.1	70.5	70.0	69.8	70.6	71.1	72.4	73.2	73.9
Iceland	84.6	85.1	83.8	78.4	78.5	78.7	79.8	81.2	83.1	85.2	86.6
Norway	76.1	77.4	78.5	77.1	76.1	76.0	76.5	76.3	76.1	75.9	75.2
Switzerland	79.8	80.3	81.0	80.3	80.3	81.0	80.9	81.2	81.5	82.0	82.9
FYR Macedonia	46.3	47.4	48.2	49.4
Turkey	48.9	49.6	49.6	50.3	50.8

Source: Eurostat (Labour Force Survey). Extracted on 15.05.2017

Table A6.4 Unemployment rates 15-64 years, by country of birth, Nordic countries, per cent, 2006-16

	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
EU-28 Countries except reporting country											
<i>Denmark</i>	5.1	4.6	4.3	6.9	9.0	11.4	11.3	9.9	9.8	9.0	9.3
<i>Finland</i>	10.5	9.0	9.3	12.2	11.0	10.0	8.5	9.9	11.8	12.2	10.0
<i>Iceland</i>	10.5	14.5	11.1	10.0	8.3	8.0	8.2	5.0
<i>Norway</i>	3.4	2.7	2.6	4.0	5.2	4.9	4.7	5.1	5.7	7.3	6.7
<i>Sweden</i>	7.1	6.1	6.2	7.6	8.6	8.0	7.9	8.3	9.0	8.0	6.8
Extra-EU-28											
<i>Denmark</i>	8.4	9.5	8.0	11.2	15.9	15.9	16.6	13.6	13.8	14.0	12.8
<i>Finland</i>	20.8	19.0	15.9	17.9	21.6	19.2	18.8	18.6	20.3	21.2	22.6
<i>Iceland</i>	14.1	11.3	11.0	8.4	9.0
<i>Norway</i>	10.8	7.4	7.0	8.5	10.8	9.6	8.6	10.3	10.0	13.1	11.9
<i>Sweden</i>	16.9	15.2	15.3	19.1	19.9	19.8	19.5	19.8	19.3	19.3	19.1
Foreign country											
<i>Denmark</i>	7.4	8.1	7.0	9.9	13.8	14.5	14.7	12.3	12.3	12.1	11.5
<i>Finland</i>	15.9	14.3	12.9	15.4	17.1	15.2	14.2	14.8	16.8	17.5	17.5
<i>Iceland</i>	4.7	11.8	13.4	11.0	9.4	8.5	7.7	7.0	4.1
<i>Norway</i>	8.2	5.6	5.2	6.7	8.6	7.6	6.8	7.8	8.0	10.3	9.6
<i>Sweden</i>	13.4	12.1	12.2	15.4	16.3	16.2	16.0	16.4	16.4	16.2	15.9
Reporting country											
<i>Denmark</i>	3.7	3.4	3.1	5.7	6.9	6.9	6.8	6.5	6.0	5.4	5.5
<i>Finland</i>	7.5	6.7	6.2	8.0	8.1	7.6	7.5	8.0	8.3	9.1	8.5
<i>Iceland</i>	2.9	2.2	2.8	7.0	7.2	6.7	5.7	5.1	4.8	3.9	3.0
<i>Norway</i>	3.0	2.2	2.3	2.8	3.0	2.7	2.7	2.8	2.9	3.4	3.9
<i>Sweden</i>	6.2	5.3	5.3	7.2	7.3	6.3	6.5	6.5	6.2	5.5	4.9

Source: Eurostat (Labour Force Survey). Extracted on 01.06.2017

**Table A6.5a Marginalization, Exclusion and Disabled, unable to work, persons
20-64 years old, by country, Europe 2011-15**

	2011			2012			2013		
	Margina- lized	Ex- cluded	Disabled unable to work	Margina- lized	Ex- cluded	Disabled, unable to work	Margina- lized	Ex- cluded	Disabled, unable to work
Austria	2.8	6.4	0.7	2.7	6.3	0.9	2.9	6.5	0.8
Belgium	2.0	13.2	4.2	2.4	13.5	4.4	1.9	12.0	4.8
Bulgaria	3.5	10.6	2.2	3.4	10.7	2.5	3.7	10.7	2.8
Croatia	2.7	17.7	0.8	3.4	19.1	0.8	3.9	19.5	0.8
Cyprus	3.4	12.2	1.2	4.0	13.2	1.2	4.3	14.9	1.4
Czech republic	2.9	7.9	4.2	2.9	7.2	4.1	2.4	7.0	3.9
Denmark	1.3	1.9	3.8	2.2	1.9	3.8	2.7	2.3	4.4
Estonia	6.3	9.6	5.7	5.5	8.0	5.8	5.2	7.4	5.9
Finland	6.1	5.0	3.2	5.4	4.8	4.1	5.1	4.7	3.8
France	3.2	6.5	2.8	2.9	6.4	2.7	3.1	6.4	2.6
Greece	2.2	23.3	1.6	2.6	26.5	1.4	3.1	28.5	1.4
Hungary	4.4	9.9	7.0	4.9	9.4	7.4	4.2	9.9	5.0
Iceland	2.9	2.4	2.9	3.3	2.5	3.0	2.7	2.3	3.1
Italy	3.0	15.8	1.2	2.5	16.3	1.1	3.2	16.8	1.1
Latvia	5.4	11.9	3.9	4.1	10.9	3.5	5.1	8.3	3.7
Lithuania	5.7	11.2	6.5	4.2	7.6	6.1	4.1	7.2	6.5
Luxembourg	3.2	14.5	3.2	2.8	13.8	3.4	2.5	12.8	3.4
Malta	1.7	25.5	2.1	1.2	24.9	1.9	1.9	23.2	2.0
Netherlands	1.2	7.1	2.8	1.1	6.9	2.9	1.4	7.1	2.7
Norway	1.1	1.6	3.8	1.4	1.7	3.7	1.1	1.6	3.2
Poland	3.2	11.5	5.2	3.1	11.8	5.0	2.9	12.6	4.8
Portugal	3.0	14.6	2.6	2.3	16.6	2.5	2.9	19.0	2.3
Romania	0.5	12.3	0.9	0.2	13.0	1.0	0.3	13.5	1.0
Slovakia	2.2	7.6	3.7	2.5	7.8	3.8	2.1	9.0	4.0
Slovenia	3.2	6.6	1.0	3.1	7.2	0.6	3.4	7.7	0.6
Spain	3.9	17.5	2.5	4.5	18.9	2.7	5.8	19.1	2.8
Sweden	2.8	3.0	2.5	2.3	2.9	2.3	2.5	3.3	2.2
Switzerland	4.1	5.8	1.4	3.8	5.6	1.3	3.8	5.3	1.2
United Kingdom	1.6	11.2	4.9	1.7	12.2	6.4	2.0	12.3	5.8
Austria	2.8	6.4	0.7	2.7	6.3	0.9	2.9	6.5	0.8

Table A6.5b Marginalization, Exclusion and Disabled, unable to work, persons 20-64 years old, by country, Europe 2011-15

	2014			2015		
	Margina- lized	Ex- cluded	Disabled unable to work	Margina- lized	Ex- cluded	Disabled, unable to work
Austria	2.7	7.0	0.8	2.7	6.3	0.8
Belgium	2.2	12.8	5.5	2.1	13.2	5.1
Bulgaria	4.2	10.6	3.0	3.9	10.4	3.1
Croatia	4.3	17.9	0.8	3.4	17.9	0.8
Cyprus	5.4	15.6	1.8	5.0	16.1	2.2
Czech republic	2.3	7.0	4.0	2.3	6.5	3.7
Denmark	2.4	2.3	4.3	1.9	2.2	3.6
Estonia	3.7	6.1	5.8	4.2	5.1	5.2
Finland	5.7	5.0	3.4	6.4	5.2	3.1
France	2.8	6.9	2.7	2.9	6.8	2.6
Greece	2.8	29.3	1.4	2.8	27.6	1.5
Hungary	4.8	9.6	5.6	3.9	8.5	5.3
Iceland	2.8	2.0	2.9	2.3	1.7	2.9
Italy	3.0	17.0	1.1	2.5	17.0	1.1
Latvia	4.4	7.8	3.7	4.3	7.7	3.5
Lithuania	4.3	7.2	6.0	2.5	6.9	6.1
Luxembourg	3.0	12.0	3.2	2.6	10.4	3.1
Malta	1.6	22.3	1.8	2.3	20.8	2.4
Netherlands	2.2	7.3	3.0	2.6	7.4	3.1
Norway	1.0	1.8	3.8	1.0	1.7	3.6
Poland	3.0	12.5	4.9	2.9	12.1	4.9
Portugal	3.4	18.9	2.3	2.9	17.6	2.4
Romania	0.3	13.6	1.0	0.4	14.4	0.9
Slovakia	2.2	10.1	3.8	2.3	9.9	4.0
Slovenia	3.7	9.1	0.5	3.5	8.3	0.6
Spain	6.0	19.4	2.8	5.4	17.8	2.9
Sweden	2.3	2.8	1.7	1.7	2.4	1.2
Switzerland	3.5	4.9	1.2
United Kingdom	1.6	11.7	6.2	1.5	12.5	6.4
Austria	2.7	7.0	0.8	2.7	6.3	0.8

Table A6.6 Logistic regression, likelihood of being marginalized in the labour market, 2011-15¹

	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Denmark					
<i>Women</i>	1.02	1.49	1.51	1.67	0.77
<i>20-24 years</i>	1.34	0.53	1.62	1.27 ³	1.20
<i>25-34 years</i>	3.11 ³	1.16 ²	2.43	1.34	1.99 ³
<i>45-54 years</i>	1.15	0.64	1.04 ³	0.84	0.47 ³
<i>55-64 years</i>	0.89	0.44 ²	0.45	0.87	1.09
<i>Primary education</i>	0.96	1.67 ²	0.73 ³	1.28	0.91
<i>Upper secondary education</i>	1.14	0.95	1.14	1.53	0.49 ³
<i>Unmarried/non-cohabitant</i>	1.55	1.78 ³	1.88	1.61	1.17
<i>Born in the EU</i>	0.40	1.37	2.38 ³	1.01 ²	0.64
<i>Born outside the EU</i>	0.83	1.78	1.46	0.92	1.58
<i>Poor health</i>	1.24	2.55 ²	1.63	2.20	1.67
<i>Fair health</i>	1.60	1.44	1.04	1.38	1.28
Finland					
<i>Women</i>	1.95 ³	1.78 ³	2.33	1.77	2.14 ³
<i>20-24 years</i>	1.45 ³	1.08 ¹	1.13 ³	1.10 ³	0.88
<i>25-34 years</i>	1.50 ³	1.08 ³	1.32 ²	1.59	1.30 ³
<i>45-54 years</i>	0.64 ³	0.54 ³	0.44 ³	0.65 ³	0.42 ³
<i>55-64 years</i>	0.45 ³	0.43 ³	0.54 ³	0.57 ³	0.53 ³
<i>Primary education</i>	1.71	1.82 ³	1.66 ³	1.72 ³	2.22 ³
<i>Upper secondary education</i>	1.78 ³	1.27	1.23 ³	1.21 ³	1.24
<i>Unmarried/non-cohabitant</i>	0.98	1.10	1.14	1.14	1.06
<i>Born in the EU</i>	0.72	2.01	2.12	1.44	1.20
<i>Born outside the EU</i>	1.29	2.43	0.79 ¹	1.75	2.16 ²
<i>Poor health</i>	1.93 ²	1.92 ³	3.12	1.98	1.42
<i>Fair health</i>	1.50	1.23	1.52 ³	1.44 ²	1.49
Iceland					
<i>Women</i>	1.10	0.79	0.96	1.14	1.50
<i>20-24 years</i>	1.19	0.92	2.01	2.11	0.67
<i>25-34 years</i>	0.91	1.79 ³	1.74 ³	1.83	2.21 ³
<i>45-54 years</i>	0.65	1.24	0.59 ¹	1.79	0.97
<i>55-64 years</i>	0.36 ²	0.44 ³	0.82 ³	1.52	1.36
<i>Primary education</i>	1.38 ²	1.78 ²	1.82	1.27	3.68 ³
<i>Upper secondary education</i>	0.69 ³	1.26	1.95	1.06	1.67
<i>Unmarried/non-cohabitant</i>	1.01	1.73 ³	1.36	0.95	1.21
<i>Born in the EU</i>	1.39	2.51 ²	1.67	1.65	0.49
<i>Born outside the EU</i>	0.64	1.09	2.10	0.94	0.44
<i>Poor health</i>	2.05	4.82 ³	4.78	4.54	2.87 ²
<i>Fair health</i>	1.53	1.43	2.13 ³	3.37 ³	1.77
Norway					
<i>Women</i>	1.31	2.59 ³	3.35	1.18	2.08 ³
<i>20-24 years</i>	1.72 ²	0.85	2.10 ³	0.41	1.26
<i>25-34 years</i>	1.52 ²	1.97 ³	4.45	0.64	2.07 ³
<i>45-54 years</i>	0.61	0.76	0.76 ³	0.21	0.41 ²
<i>55-64 years</i>	0.28 ³	0.26 ³	0.41	0.38 ³	0.23 ³
<i>Primary education</i>	4.45 ³	1.86	1.95 ³	2.49	4.52 ³
<i>Upper secondary education</i>	1.62	1.19	1.34	1.90	1.70
<i>Unmarried/non-cohabitant</i>	0.89	0.60	0.87	1.04	0.82
<i>Born in the EU</i>	0.61	2.86 ²	0.37	2.21	0.84
<i>Born outside the EU</i>	1.45	1.05	1.80	<0.001 ³	1.26
<i>Poor health</i>	1.41	2.40	4.44 ²	2.53 ³	0.37 ²
<i>Fair health</i>	1.13	1.69	2.32 ³	2.18	2.28 ³

Continues

Table A6.6 Logistic regression, likelihood of being marginalized in the labour market, 2011-15¹, continued

	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Sweden					
<i>Women</i>	1.59 ³	1.01	1.19	1.39	1.27
<i>20-24 years</i>	3.02 ³	3.37 ³	4.11 ³	3.27 ³	1.57
<i>25-34 years</i>	2.55 ³	2.49 ²	2.12 ²	2.09 ²	1.64 ³
<i>45-54 years</i>	1.19	1.34	0.95 ³	0.68 ³	0.50 ³
<i>55-64 years</i>	0.95 ³	1.17 ²	0.96 ³	1.16	0.67
<i>Primary education</i>	1.96 ²	3.62 ³	3.07 ³	1.76 ³	1.42
<i>Upper secondary education</i>	1.35	2.01	1.42	2.15 ³	1.68
<i>Unmarried/non-cohabitant</i>	1.42 ²	2.09 ³	1.05	0.88	1.24
<i>Born in the EU</i>	1.29	1.35	1.45	1.50	<0.001 ³
<i>Born outside the EU</i>	1.05	1.54	3.33 ³	1.75	2.68 ³
<i>Poor health</i>	1.85	2.27 ³	1.28	2.50 ³	2.34
<i>Fair health</i>	1.45	0.71 ²	1.95 ²	0.81	1.20

1 Reference group: Non-marginalized, men, 35-44 years, higher education, married/cohabitant, good health and native-born

2 Sign at .90

3 Sign at .95

Source: EU-SILC 2011-15, User Database

Table A6.7 Logistic regression, likelihood of being excluded from the labour market, 2011-15¹

	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Denmark					
<i>Women</i>	1.44	1.00	1.20	0.91	1.08
<i>20-24 years</i>	0.22 ³	0.56	0.49	1.45	2.54
<i>25-34 years</i>	1.41 ³	1.30	1.74 ³	1.31	2.99 ²
<i>45-54 years</i>	0.69	2.45 ³	0.85	1.71	1.25
<i>55-64 years</i>	0.29 ³	0.79	0.49 ²	1.14	1.89
<i>Primary education</i>	2.92 ³	5.41 ³	5.76 ³	2.37 ³	1.96 ²
<i>Upper secondary education</i>	0.97 ²	1.98	1.87	1.12	1.34
<i>Unmarried/non-cohabitant</i>	4.12 ³	3.30 ³	1.80 ³	3.79 ³	2.61 ³
<i>Born in the EU</i>	0.48	1.58	2.50	1.16	1.06
<i>Born outside the EU</i>	1.22	0.60	2.87	2.99	1.84
<i>Poor health</i>	4.96 ³	4.51 ³	3.91 ³	8.19 ³	7.30 ³
<i>Fair health</i>	1.38	2.26	2.43	3.83	1.43 ³
Finland					
<i>Women</i>	1.48 ³	1.63 ³	1.39 ³	1.33 ³	1.16
<i>20-24 years</i>	0.68	0.61	0.85	1.18	0.39 ³
<i>25-34 years</i>	1.04	1.14 ³	1.08	1.30	1.15
<i>45-54 years</i>	0.70	0.63	0.69 ³	1.04	1.32 ³
<i>55-64 years</i>	0.83	0.71	0.91	1.00	1.12
<i>Primary education</i>	3.56 ³	4.00 ³	4.00 ³	4.58 ³	4.01 ³
<i>Upper secondary education</i>	1.79	1.86	2.11	2.12	1.92
<i>Unmarried/non-cohabitant</i>	1.48 ³	1.55 ³	1.83 ³	1.84 ³	2.70 ³
<i>Born in the EU</i>	0.96 ²	1.54	1.09	2.26	0.62 ³
<i>Born outside the EU</i>	8.10 ³	5.39 ³	4.97 ³	2.63	4.84 ³
<i>Poor health</i>	2.69 ³	2.15 ²	1.87	2.42 ²	3.36 ³
<i>Fair health</i>	1.37	1.95 ²	1.65	2.50 ³	1.65
Iceland					
<i>Women</i>	1.07	1.29	2.14 ³	2.47 ³	1.12
<i>20-24 years</i>	0.62	0.68	0.80	0.14	1.94
<i>25-34 years</i>	1.35	1.62	1.11	1.08 ³	2.87
<i>45-54 years</i>	0.60	1.23	1.02	0.37	3.69 ²
<i>55-64 years</i>	1.18	2.05 ³	0.59	0.86	2.00
<i>Primary education</i>	2.50 ²	3.53 ³	1.85	1.04	1.29
<i>Upper secondary education</i>	1.73	1.71	1.80	0.89	0.89
<i>Unmarried/non-cohabitant</i>	1.99 ³	1.46	1.83 ³	2.05 ³	1.22
<i>Born in the EU</i>	1.99	5.36 ³	1.78	1.13	0.77
<i>Born outside the EU</i>	1.11	2.74	2.56	1.14	2.43
<i>Poor health</i>	2.79 ³	1.46	2.51	5.18 ³	10.18 ³
<i>Fair health</i>	0.77	1.14	1.59	2.87	3.29

Continues

Table A6.7 Logistic regression, likelihood of being excluded from the labour market, 2011-15¹, continued

	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Norway					
<i>Women</i>	13.11	13.95 ³	23.38 ³	13.79 ³	13.44
<i>20-24 years</i>	03.92	13.39	13.02	03.76	03.90
<i>25-34 years</i>	23.02 ³	13.41	13.10	13.31 ³	03.85
<i>45-54 years</i>	03.78	03.75	03.84	03.72	03.67
<i>55-64 years</i>	03.64	03.81	03.53	03.40 ³	03.29 ³
<i>Primary education</i>	53.06 ³	33.81 ^{3 3}		63.82 ³	53.07 ³
<i>Upper secondary education</i>	13.22 ²	13.42	23.01	23.72	13.28 ²
<i>Unmarried/non-cohabitant</i>	23.03 ³	13.93 ³	13.94 ³	13.56 ²	13.29
<i>Born in the EU</i>	03.78	03.52	03.35	13.18	03.21 ²
<i>Born outside the EU</i>	43.93 ³	33.07 ³	23.55 ³	13.44	13.63 ²
<i>Poor health</i>	23.50	53.59 ³	23.20	33.68 ³	43.12 ³
<i>Fair health</i>	23.45	13.88	13.33	13.90	13.68
Sweden					
<i>Women</i>	13.23	13.80 ³	13.64 ³	13.27	13.15
<i>20-24 years</i>	23.64 ³	13.10	13.24	13.95	03.87
<i>25-34 years</i>	13.25	13.09	03.84	13.27	13.31
<i>45-54 years</i>	13.05	03.73	03.75	13.06	13.54
<i>55-64 years</i>	03.79 ³	13.09	13.14	13.77	13.64
<i>Primary education</i>	33.46 ³	33.87 ³	43.40 ³	33.14 ³	63.71 ³
<i>Upper secondary education</i>	13.28 ²	13.66	13.96	13.70 ³	33.14
<i>Unmarried/non-cohabitant</i>	13.97 ³	13.72 ³	23.33 ³	13.94 ³	23.59 ³
<i>Born in the EU</i>	03.79 ²	23.65	13.01	23.06	13.53
<i>Born outside the EU</i>	33.99 ³	53.61 ³	43.07 ³	43.48 ³	23.38 ²
<i>Poor health</i>	73.92 ³	23.27	23.42 ³	33.45 ³	43.21 ³
<i>Fair health</i>	23.60	23.14	13.69	13.47	13.71

1 Reference group: Non-marginalized, men, 35-44 years, higher education, married/cohabitant, good health and native-born

2 Sign at .90

3 Sign at .95

Source: EU-SILC 2011-15, User Database

Table A6.8 Logistic regression, likelihood of being disabled or unable to work, 2011-15¹

	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Denmark					
<i>Women</i>	2.10 ³	1.37	1.10	1.39	1.96 ³
<i>20-24 years</i>	0.30 ³	0.79 ³	0.12 ³	0.14 ³	<0.001 ³
<i>25-34 years</i>	0.42	<0.001 ³	0.26	0.43	0.14 ³
<i>45-54 years</i>	1.24	2.09 ³	2.28 ³	1.37 ³	1.06 ³
<i>55-64 years</i>	5.02 ³	4.15 ³	3.16 ³	2.27 ³	1.69 ³
<i>Primary education</i>	4.59 ³	2.73 ³	4.89 ³	4.93 ³	3.55 ³
<i>Upper secondary education</i>	1.63	0.89 ³	1.61	1.05 ³	1.18 ³
<i>Unmarried/non-cohabitant</i>	1.88 ³	2.20 ³	2.42 ³	2.46 ³	3.46 ³
<i>Born in the EU</i>	2.51 ²	1.45	1.41	1.91	0.13 ³
<i>Born outside the EU</i>	0.93	1.60	1.79	0.94	1.21
<i>Poor health</i>	39.64 ³	39.44 ³	59.82 ³	41.77 ³	39.32 ³
<i>Fair health</i>	7.10	5.20	11.98 ³	4.99	8.81
Finland					
<i>Women</i>	0.93	0.85	1.04	0.99	1.27
<i>20-24 years</i>	0.26 ³	0.47 ³	0.25 ³	0.09 ³	0.13 ³
<i>25-34 years</i>	0.89	0.64 ³	0.60	0.66	0.99
<i>45-54 years</i>	1.98 ³	1.23	1.12	0.88	1.48 ³
<i>55-64 years</i>	3.05 ³	3.40 ³	3.15 ³	1.88 ³	3.43 ³
<i>Primary education</i>	7.66 ³	6.07 ³	5.57 ³	6.24 ³	7.78 ³
<i>Upper secondary education</i>	3.36	2.78	3.16 ²	2.88	2.93
<i>Unmarried/non-cohabitant</i>	2.96 ³	2.31 ³	1.93 ³	2.91 ³	2.69 ³
<i>Born in the EU</i>	1.17 ³	2.39 ³	<0.001 ³	0.39	0.52
<i>Born outside the EU</i>	0.02 ³	0.03 ³	0.95 ³	1.30	1.04
<i>Poor health</i>	12.13 ³	18.72 ³	19.75 ³	10.07 ³	10.33 ³
<i>Fair health</i>	4.53	5.23	6.21 ³	6.18 ³	4.68 ³

Continues

Table A6.8 Logistic regression, likelihood of being disabled or unable to work, 2011-15¹, continued

	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Iceland					
<i>Women</i>	1.66	2.27 ³	1.82 ³	1.98 ³	1.76 ²
<i>20-24 years</i>	0.18 ²	0.10 ³	0.17 ³	0.11 ³	0.08 ³
<i>25-34 years</i>	0.59	0.23 ²	0.24 ³	0.39	0.61
<i>45-54 years</i>	1.33	1.38 ³	1.42 ³	2.06 ³	1.03 ²
<i>55-64 years</i>	2.46 ³	2.23 ³	1.72 ³	1.91 ³	1.03 ³
<i>Primary education</i>	3.33 ³	5.18 ³	13.05 ³	4.22 ³	4.49 ³
<i>Upper secondary education</i>	2.48	1.44	7.54 ²	2.68	2.49
<i>Unmarried/non-cohabitant</i>	2.11 ³	3.04 ³	2.25 ³	2.98 ³	2.11 ³
<i>Born in the EU</i>	2.75	1.65	1.41	<0.001 ³	<0.001 ³
<i>Born outside the EU</i>	2.10	0.75	0.76	0.78 ³	0.28 ³
<i>Poor health</i>	126.75 ³	67.19 ³	97.51 ³	136.08 ³	138.37 ³
<i>Fair health</i>	16.54	16.04 ³	14.83	12.26	20.64 ²
Norway					
<i>Women</i>	1.78 ³	1.29	1.24	1.56 ³	1.59 ³
<i>20-24 years</i>	<0.001 ³	<0.001 ³	<0.001 ³	0.04 ³	0.04 ³
<i>25-34 years</i>	0.48 ³	0.36 ³	0.60 ³	0.59	0.55
<i>45-54 years</i>	2.99 ³	1.88 ³	1.70 ³	1.41 ³	1.29 ³
<i>55-64 years</i>	6.42 ³	4.43 ³	4.49 ³	2.38 ³	2.72 ³
<i>Primary education</i>	3.77 ³	6.14 ³	6.59 ³	4.52 ³	5.46 ³
<i>Upper secondary education</i>	1.32 ²	1.77 ²	2.26	2.33	2.74
<i>Unmarried/non-cohabitant</i>	1.00	1.45 ²	1.10	1.81 ³	2.42 ³
<i>Born in the EU</i>	0.32	0.58	0.25 ²	0.52	0.75
<i>Born outside the EU</i>	0.56	1.46	1.19 ²	0.53	2.65 ³
<i>Poor health</i>	23.90 ³	17.56 ³	21.78 ³	26.97 ³	15.83 ³
<i>Fair health</i>	5.95	7.19 ³	6.66 ²	7.48 ³	5.82 ²
Sweden					
<i>Women</i>	1.22	1.43 ²	1.03	1.95 ³	2.99 ³
<i>20-24 years</i>	0.35 ³	<0.001 ³	0.31 ³	0.77	0.42
<i>25-34 years</i>	0.50 ²	0.40 ³	0.33 ²	1.17	0.34
<i>45-54 years</i>	2.42 ³	4.48 ³	2.42 ³	5.82 ³	2.38 ³
<i>55-64 years</i>	4.69 ³	6.74 ³	4.58 ³	12.15 ³	4.67 ³
<i>Primary education</i>	8.57 ³	7.32 ³	8.53 ³	3.18	3.71 ³
<i>Upper secondary education</i>	3.89	2.60	3.60	2.79 ²	2.58 ³
<i>Unmarried/non-cohabitant</i>	1.59 ³	1.95 ³	2.23 ³	2.02 ³	2.37 ³
<i>Born in the EU</i>	1.40	1.64	2.35 ³	2.23	2.21 ²
<i>Born outside the EU</i>	0.80	1.04	0.90	2.29	0.49
<i>Poor health</i>	19.75 ³	26.06 ³	24.24 ³	27.85 ³	39.37 ³
<i>Fair health</i>					

1 Reference group: Non-marginalized, men, 35-44 years, higher education, married/cohabitant, good health and native-born

2 Sign at .90

3 Sign at .95

Source: EU-SILC 2011-15, User Database

Table A6.9 Exclusion by country and age, persons 20-64 years, per cent, 2006-15

	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Denmark										
20-24 years	1.5	2.1	0.6	1.7	2.9	3.2	2.6	1.9	3.2	3.4
25-34	3.0	2.8	2.4	1.9	2.7	2.3	2.4	3.6	2.4	2.5
35-44	3.2	2.7	2.6	1.4	2.0	1.7	1.1	2.2	1.5	1.7
45-54	2.5	2.5	1.2	1.9	3.3	1.8	1.9	1.9	2.1	1.4
55-64	3.3	2.7	2.7	0.4	2.1	1.2	1.9	2.0	2.3	2.3
Finland										
20-24 years	5.5	4.6	5.5	4.6	9.1	5.2	4.7	4.6	6.4	6.2
25-34	5.4	6.3	5.1	5.4	6.1	6.8	6.6	6.3	6.5	5.7
35-44	5.0	5.1	5.2	5.1	5.5	4.7	4.8	4.2	3.8	4.3
45-54	4.4	3.5	3.2	3.1	4.1	3.1	2.6	2.9	3.3	3.4
55-64	5.6	6.3	4.6	4.8	5.1	4.9	5.1	5.2	5.6	5.9
Iceland										
20-24 years	1.0	0.3	0.3	0.8	1.9	1.5	1.8	1.7	0.3	1.5
25-34	0.9	1.1	1.4	1.3	2.6	3.7	3.3	3.3	2.9	1.8
35-44	1.7	1.1	1.3	1.9	2.3	2.3	2.0	2.6	2.0	0.9
45-54	1.8	0.8	1.2	1.2	1.7	1.7	1.8	1.9	1.6	2.1
55-64	1.8	2.1	2.3	3.5	3.1	3.2	3.9	2.2	3.0	2.0
Norway										
20-24 years	3.5	3.1	2.6	1.4	1.5	1.8	1.7	1.9	2.2	2.2
25-34	2.0	2.2	1.5	2.5	1.7	2.0	2.2	1.3	2.3	2.1
35-44	1.8	1.9	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.2	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.4
45-54	1.7	1.3	1.5	1.8	1.2	1.5	1.3	1.4	1.6	1.3
55-64	2.1	1.9	1.3	1.2	1.4	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.0	1.3
Sweden										
20-24 years	2.8	3.0	3.2	4.4	4.6	5.5	4.6	5.1	4.4	4.5
25-34	2.2	1.9	2.3	2.1	2.2	3.8	3.7	3.9	3.2	2.1
35-44	1.9	1.8	1.8	1.8	2.2	2.3	2.2	2.7	1.6	1.5
45-54	1.6	1.7	1.5	1.3	1.7	2.1	1.9	2.2	2.3	1.9
55-64	2.2	2.2	1.9	1.7	1.7	2.1	2.7	2.8	2.9	2.5

Source: EU-SILC 2011-15, User Data Base

Table A6.10a Part-time employment, percentage of total employment 15 to 64 years, men, 2006-16¹

	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Netherlands	22.1	22.5	22.8	23.6	24.2	23.9	24.6	26.0	26.1	26.5	26.2
Switzerland	12.3	12.4	12.8	13.3	14.9	15.3	15.6
Austria	5.9	6.2	7.0	7.5	8.0	7.8	8.0	9.0	9.6	9.8	10.5
Germany	8.5	8.5	8.3	8.6	8.5	8.9	8.9	9.1	9.2	9.3	9.3
Belgium	7.0	7.1	7.5	8.2	8.4	9.2	9.0	8.7	8.4	9.3	9.5
United Kingdom	9.1	9.3	9.7	10.3	11.0	10.9	11.6	11.5	11.2	11.2	11.3
Norway	12.9	12.8	13.4	14.1	14.2	13.7	14.3	14.2	13.7	14.8	14.9
Denmark	12.3	12.4	13.3	14.3	14.0	14.2	14.8	14.8	15.2	15.6	16.8
Iceland	..	8.7	9.1	11.6	11.2	9.9	10.9	10.7	11.3	11.9	12.3
Sweden	10.3	10.3	11.9	12.6	12.7	12.3	12.5	12.8	12.8	13.2	13.0
Luxembourg	2.6	2.6	2.7	4.5	3.4	4.3	4.7	5.1	4.7	5.6	6.2
Ireland	6.0	6.5	7.3	10.2	11.4	12.5	13.3	13.5	13.1	12.2	12.2
Italy	4.3	4.6	4.8	4.7	5.1	5.4	6.6	7.4	7.8	8.0	8.2
EU28	6.9	6.9	7.0	7.4	7.8	8.0	8.4	8.7	8.8	8.9	8.8
France											
(metropolitan)	5.6	5.5	5.6	5.8	6.4	6.5	6.4	6.7	7.3	7.3	7.4
Malta	4.3	3.9	4.1	4.6	4.9	5.4	5.7	6.7	7.0	6.3	5.8
Spain	4.2	3.9	4.0	4.7	5.2	5.8	6.4	7.7	7.7	7.8	7.6
Finland	8.6	8.3	7.9	8.3	8.9	9.4	9.1	8.8	9.2	9.7	10.0
Turkey	3.9	4.2	4.8	5.9	6.2	6.2	6.3	6.6	6.4	6.1	6.0
Cyprus	2.8	3.0	3.4	4.0	5.1	6.1	6.4	8.4	10.3	10.3	11.4
Greece	2.7	2.5	2.6	2.9	3.5	4.3	4.7	5.4	6.5	6.7	6.9
Estonia	3.8	3.9	3.6	6.2	6.1	5.0	5.1	5.5	5.7	6.0	6.8
Slovenia	6.0	6.5	6.2	7.4	7.4	7.1	6.3	6.5	6.8	7.0	6.0
Portugal	4.2	4.7	4.1	4.4	5.0	7.1	8.4	8.2	7.6	7.1	6.8
Latvia	4.4	4.1	4.3	6.8	7.6	7.0	6.7	5.6	4.7	4.5	6.1
Czech Republic	1.7	1.7	1.6	2.0	2.2	1.8	2.2	2.5	2.5	2.2	2.3
Poland	6.2	5.8	5.1	5.0	5.0	4.7	4.5	4.5	4.4	4.2	3.7
Lithuania	8.0	7.0	4.8	6.7	6.4	6.7	6.9	6.4	6.4	5.5	5.4
Slovakia	1.2	1.0	1.3	2.6	2.6	2.7	2.8	3.3	3.7	4.0	4.1
Romania	8.7	8.3	8.1	8.0	9.8	8.8	8.7	8.6	8.2	8.5	7.3
Croatia	5.6	4.6	4.9	4.9	5.1	5.6	4.6	4.6	4.2	4.8	4.4
Hungary	2.4	2.5	3.0	3.6	3.7	4.4	4.3	4.2	4.1	4.0	3.1
FYR Macedonia	5.7	6.1	4.4	4.5	4.7	5.5	5.6	4.2	6.3	4.1	4.3
Bulgaria	1.2	1.1	1.6	1.8	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.2	1.9	1.8

1 Since 2014, data for France including also the French overseas departments (Guadeloupe, Martinique, Guyane, La Réunion), with the exception of Mayotte is available. To prevent a break in time series, we still use the old definition excluding these departments for the French rates.

Source: Eurostat (Labour Force Survey). Extracted on 28.06.2017

Continues

Table A6.10b Part-time employment, percentage of total employment 15 to 64 years, women, 2006-16¹, continued

	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Netherlands	74.5	74.8	75.2	75.7	76.2	76.6	77.0	77.1	76.7	76.9	76.4
Switzerland	59.7	59.1	60.1	60.3	60.9	60.4	60.2
Austria	40.1	40.8	41.2	42.6	43.2	43.5	44.6	45.1	46.3	46.8	47.1
Germany	45.4	45.6	45.2	44.9	45.3	45.4	45.3	46.7	46.3	46.6	46.4
Belgium	41.0	40.5	40.8	41.4	42.1	43.3	43.5	42.5	41.2	41.4	42.1
United Kingdom	41.6	41.3	40.9	41.5	42.2	42.1	42.2	41.4	41.2	40.9	40.8
Norway	44.8	43.5	42.9	42.6	42.3	42.1	41.3	41.0	38.7	38.3	38.0
Denmark	34.9	35.1	35.6	37.2	38.1	37.0	35.8	35.3	35.0	34.7	36.9
Iceland	..	36.0	33.1	35.5	34.5	31.7	31.3	31.6	35.3	35.5	36.8
Sweden	38.3	38.0	40.8	40.5	40.3	39.3	38.6	37.7	37.2	36.3	35.6
Luxembourg	36.2	37.1	38.2	34.8	35.6	35.8	35.9	35.8	35.3	33.9	34.8
Ireland	30.8	31.7	32.0	33.6	34.4	35.2	34.9	35.0	34.4	33.8	33.2
Italy	26.3	26.8	27.7	27.8	28.8	29.1	30.9	31.7	32.1	32.4	32.7
EU28	30.5	30.5	30.4	30.8	31.3	31.5	31.9	32.4	32.2	32.1	31.9
France (metropolitan)	30.2	30.3	29.4	29.9	30.0	29.9	30.0	30.4	30.6	30.1	29.8
Malta	21.5	24.6	25.1	23.4	24.4	25.8	26.2	26.5	28.8	27.3	26.5
Spain	22.4	22.1	21.9	22.3	22.6	22.8	23.9	25.2	25.5	25.1	24.1
Finland	18.7	18.8	17.8	18.5	19.0	19.0	19.4	19.4	19.3	18.7	20.2
Turkey	16.8	18.5	19.5	23.0	23.2	24.1	23.8	24.3	22.0	20.1	18.7
Cyprus	11.3	10.4	10.8	11.5	11.8	12.1	13.1	15.6	16.8	15.8	15.7
Greece	10.0	9.9	9.8	10.2	10.3	10.1	11.8	12.6	13.0	13.1	13.7
Estonia	9.8	10.6	9.4	12.6	13.4	13.8	13.3	12.4	11.2	13.4	13.3
Slovenia	10.4	10.0	10.4	12.1	13.6	12.2	12.2	12.6	13.7	13.7	13.1
Portugal	12.8	13.7	14.1	13.2	12.4	13.8	14.2	14.0	12.6	12.5	12.1
Latvia	7.5	7.1	7.6	9.4	10.9	10.4	11.0	9.4	8.9	10.0	10.8
Czech Republic	8.0	7.9	7.8	8.5	9.1	8.5	8.6	10.0	9.5	9.3	10.0
Poland	12.2	11.7	10.9	10.9	10.9	10.5	10.6	10.4	10.3	9.9	9.7
Lithuania	12.0	10.2	8.3	9.1	8.9	9.9	10.7	10.2	10.6	9.7	8.8
Slovakia	4.5	4.3	4.1	4.5	5.2	5.6	5.5	6.2	6.8	8.0	7.9
Romania	8.5	8.9	9.3	9.1	10.0	10.3	10.0	9.6	9.5	9.2	7.7
Croatia	9.0	8.1	8.4	8.5	9.4	9.2	6.9	6.4	6.7	7.3	7.1
Hungary	5.3	5.5	5.9	7.1	7.7	8.7	9.4	9.0	8.3	7.7	6.8
FYR Macedonia	7.4	6.9	7.3	6.7	7.1	6.7	6.9	4.7	4.9	4.3	5.3
Bulgaria	2.2	1.9	2.4	2.5	2.5	2.4	2.5	3.0	2.8	2.5	2.2

1 Since 2014, data for France including also the French overseas departments (Guadeloupe, Martinique, Guyane, La Réunion), with the exception of Mayotte is available. To prevent a break in time series, we still use the old definition excluding these departments for the French rates.

Source: Eurostat (Labour Force Survey). Extracted on 28.06.2017

Continues

Table A6.10c Part-time employment, percentage of total employment 15 to 64 years, men and women, 2006-16¹, continued

	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Netherlands	45.8	46.3	46.8	47.7	48.3	48.3	49.0	49.8	49.6	50.0	49.7
Switzerland	34.0	33.8	34.5	35.1	36.3	36.5	36.6
Austria	21.5	22.0	22.7	23.9	24.4	24.5	25.2	26.0	26.9	27.3	27.8
Germany	25.2	25.4	25.1	25.3	25.6	25.9	25.8	26.6	26.5	26.8	26.7
Belgium	22.0	21.9	22.4	23.2	23.7	24.7	24.7	24.3	23.7	24.3	24.7
United Kingdom	24.2	24.1	24.1	24.9	25.6	25.5	25.9	25.6	25.3	25.1	25.2
Norway	28.0	27.4	27.4	27.7	27.6	27.2	27.2	26.9	25.6	26.0	26.0
Denmark	22.9	23.0	23.8	25.2	25.6	25.1	24.8	24.7	24.6	24.7	26.4
Iceland	..	21.1	20.1	23.0	22.4	20.5	20.7	20.8	22.9	23.3	24.0
Sweden	23.6	23.5	25.7	26.0	25.8	25.2	25.0	24.7	24.5	24.3	23.9
Luxembourg	17.1	17.8	17.9	17.6	17.4	18.0	18.5	18.7	18.4	18.4	19.2
Ireland	16.6	17.4	18.2	21.0	22.2	23.1	23.5	23.5	23.0	22.2	21.9
Italy	13.1	13.4	14.1	14.1	14.8	15.2	16.8	17.6	18.1	18.3	18.5
EU28	17.4	17.5	17.5	18.0	18.5	18.8	19.2	19.6	19.6	19.6	19.5
France											
(metropolitan)	17.1	17.2	16.8	17.2	17.6	17.6	17.7	18.1	18.5	18.3	18.2
Malta	9.7	10.6	11.1	11.0	11.6	12.6	13.2	14.2	15.5	14.5	13.9
Spain	11.6	11.4	11.6	12.4	12.9	13.5	14.4	15.7	15.8	15.6	15.1
Finland	13.5	13.4	12.7	13.3	13.8	14.1	14.1	14.0	14.1	14.1	14.9
Turkey	7.2	7.9	8.7	10.6	11.1	11.3	11.5	11.9	11.1	10.3	9.9
Cyprus	6.6	6.4	6.8	7.5	8.3	9.0	9.7	11.9	13.5	13.0	13.5
Greece	5.5	5.4	5.4	5.9	6.3	6.7	7.7	8.4	9.3	9.4	9.8
Estonia	6.8	7.1	6.4	9.4	9.8	9.3	9.2	8.9	8.3	9.5	9.9
Slovenia	8.0	8.1	8.1	9.5	10.3	9.5	9.0	9.3	10.0	10.1	9.3
Portugal	8.2	8.9	8.8	8.5	8.5	10.3	11.2	11.1	10.1	9.8	9.5
Latvia	5.9	5.6	5.9	8.2	9.3	8.8	8.9	7.5	6.8	7.2	8.5
Czech Republic	4.4	4.4	4.3	4.8	5.1	4.7	5.0	5.8	5.5	5.3	5.7
Poland	8.9	8.5	7.7	7.7	7.7	7.3	7.2	7.1	7.1	6.8	6.4
Lithuania	10.0	8.6	6.5	7.9	7.8	8.3	8.9	8.4	8.6	7.6	7.1
Slovakia	2.7	2.5	2.5	3.4	3.8	4.0	4.0	4.5	5.1	5.8	5.8
Romania	8.6	8.6	8.6	8.5	9.9	9.5	9.3	9.0	8.7	8.8	7.4
Croatia	7.1	6.1	6.5	6.5	7.0	7.2	5.6	5.4	5.3	6.0	5.6
Hungary	3.7	3.9	4.3	5.2	5.5	6.4	6.7	6.4	6.0	5.7	4.8
FYR Macedonia	6.3	6.4	5.6	5.3	5.6	6.0	6.1	4.4	5.8	4.2	4.7
Bulgaria	1.7	1.4	2.0	2.1	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.5	2.5	2.2	2.0

1 Since 2014, data for France including also the French overseas departments (Guadeloupe, Martinique, Guyane, La Réunion), with the exception of Mayotte is available. To prevent a break in time series, we still use the old definition excluding these departments for the French rates.

Source: Eurostat (Labour Force Survey). Extracted on 28.06.2017

Table A6.11 Exclusion by country and age, persons 20-64 years, per cent, 2011-15

	2011			2012			2013		
	Full-time	Part-time	Not in work	Full-time	Part-time	Not in work	Full-time	Part-time	Not in work
Denmark									
Men	68.3	6.1	25.6	75.6	8.5	15.9	67.0	9.9	23.1
<i>Born in the EU</i>	78.6	3.9	17.5	74.9	4.9	20.3	74.1	5.2	20.7
<i>Born in the country</i>	56.9	7.3	35.8	51.4	12.2	36.5	57.6	8.6	33.8
<i>Born outside the EU</i>	60.5	20.9	18.6	44.8	24.1	31.0	43.6	23.1	33.3
Women	57.4	18.9	23.7	47.3	26.1	26.6	48.2	25.8	26.1
<i>Born in the EU</i>	46.9	18.4	34.7	31.9	26.6	41.5	36.3	19.5	44.2
<i>Born in the country</i>	68.3	6.1	25.6	75.6	8.5	15.9	67.0	9.9	23.1
<i>Born outside the EU</i>	78.6	3.9	17.5	74.9	4.9	20.3	74.1	5.2	20.7
Finland									
Men	72.1	7.2	20.7	71.5	8.9	19.5	75.2	7.6	17.2
<i>Born in the EU</i>	67.6	6.2	26.2	67.1	5.8	27.1	67.7	5.9	26.4
<i>Born in the country</i>	54.9	6.8	38.4	51.4	5.6	43.1	46.3	6.8	46.9
<i>Born outside the EU</i>	53.2	10.6	36.2	51.6	16.4	32.0	53.2	18.0	28.8
Women	57.3	12.7	30.0	58.0	12.7	29.3	58.4	12.2	29.4
<i>Born in the EU</i>	33.7	9.1	57.2	33.3	12.3	54.4	36.9	10.2	52.9
<i>Born in the country</i>	72.1	7.2	20.7	71.5	8.9	19.5	75.2	7.6	17.2
<i>Born outside the EU</i>	67.6	6.2	26.2	67.1	5.8	27.1	67.7	5.9	26.4
Iceland									
Men	56.4	9.9	33.7	69.8	4.3	25.9	71.4	7.5	21.1
<i>Born in the EU</i>	70.5	5.4	24.1	71.1	5.2	23.7	73.0	5.1	21.9
<i>Born in the country</i>	70.5	7.7	21.8	69.9	3.6	26.5	68.7	7.2	24.1
<i>Born outside the EU</i>	63.0	12.0	25.0	53.1	14.3	32.7	59.2	15.9	25.0
Women	50.6	19.5	29.9	49.5	19.4	31.1	51.5	18.3	30.3
<i>Born in the EU</i>	40.4	15.8	43.9	50.4	10.3	39.3	49.2	15.8	35.0
<i>Born in the country</i>	56.4	9.9	33.7	69.8	4.3	25.9	71.4	7.5	21.1
<i>Born outside the EU</i>	70.5	5.4	24.1	71.1	5.2	23.7	73.0	5.1	21.9
Norway									
Men	79.7	8.0	12.4	87.8	6.4	5.8	84.7	5.3	10.0
<i>Born in the EU</i>	78.8	5.5	15.7	78.9	5.7	15.5	80.0	4.8	15.2
<i>Born in the country</i>	62.0	8.7	29.3	66.5	6.4	27.1	74.7	6.7	18.6
<i>Born outside the EU</i>	57.6	27.3	15.2	56.7	23.3	20.0	59.3	24.6	16.2
Women	54.3	25.0	20.7	55.7	23.3	20.9	57.4	23.5	19.0
<i>Born in the EU</i>	37.5	18.2	44.3	42.9	20.2	36.9	44.3	20.3	35.4
<i>Born in the country</i>	79.7	8.0	12.4	87.8	6.4	5.8	84.7	5.3	10.0
<i>Born outside the EU</i>	78.8	5.5	15.7	78.9	5.7	15.5	80.0	4.8	15.2
Sweden									
Men	80.2	5.5	14.3	73.2	10.1	16.7	67.9	10.7	21.4
<i>Born in the EU</i>	77.3	6.9	15.9	77.4	6.6	16.0	76.3	6.7	17.1
<i>Born in the country</i>	60.7	8.8	30.6	62.1	8.6	29.3	56.5	9.7	33.8
<i>Born outside the EU</i>	50.9	24.6	24.6	51.5	21.9	26.6	50.5	22.9	26.6
Women	53.1	28.0	18.9	56.0	26.3	17.7	55.8	25.3	18.9
<i>Born in the EU</i>	36.9	23.9	39.3	37.8	21.4	40.9	39.8	18.7	41.5
<i>Born in the country</i>	80.2	5.5	14.3	73.2	10.1	16.7	67.9	10.7	21.4
<i>Born outside the EU</i>	77.3	6.9	15.9	77.4	6.6	16.0	76.3	6.7	17.1

Source: EU-SILC 2011-15, User Data Base

Continues

Table A6.11 Exclusion by country and age, persons 20-64 years, per cent, 2011-15, continued

	2014			2015		
	Full-time	Part-time	Not in work	Full-time	Part-time	Not in work
Denmark						
Men	67.4	9.3	23.3	60.6	13.1	26.3
<i>Born in the EU</i>	73.7	5.2	21.1	75.1	6.1	18.8
<i>Born in the country</i>	50.0	14.0	36.0	62.1	12.1	25.9
<i>Born outside the EU</i>	44.2	22.1	33.8	44.6	31.3	24.1
Women	47.4	25.2	27.4	48.8	26.3	24.9
<i>Born in the EU</i>	41.4	22.1	36.5	40.2	25.0	34.8
<i>Born in the country</i>	67.4	9.3	23.3	60.6	13.1	26.3
<i>Born outside the EU</i>	73.7	5.2	21.1	75.1	6.1	18.8
Finland						
Men	71.0	6.9	22.1	71.4	7.9	20.7
<i>Born in the EU</i>	67.0	6.2	26.8	66.9	6.5	26.6
<i>Born in the country</i>	46.3	11.4	42.3	41.6	10.1	48.3
<i>Born outside the EU</i>	55.6	13.9	30.6	53.7	13.2	33.1
Women	58.3	14.3	27.4	58.8	13.2	28.0
<i>Born in the EU</i>	40.3	13.7	46.0	34.6	13.2	52.3
<i>Born in the country</i>	71.0	6.9	22.1	71.4	7.9	20.7
<i>Born outside the EU</i>	67.0	6.2	26.8	66.9	6.5	26.6
Iceland						
Men	78.0	3.4	18.6	76.2	4.0	19.8
<i>Born in the EU</i>	73.3	4.9	21.7	73.6	4.7	21.7
<i>Born in the country</i>	70.8	6.9	22.2	69.4	8.2	22.4
<i>Born outside the EU</i>	67.4	14.6	18.1	56.6	18.9	24.5
Women	51.8	18.4	29.8	52.5	19.1	28.4
<i>Born in the EU</i>	59.3	13.9	26.9	47.9	19.3	32.8
<i>Born in the country</i>	78.0	3.4	18.6	76.2	4.0	19.8
<i>Born outside the EU</i>	73.3	4.9	21.7	73.6	4.7	21.7
Norway						
Men	84.6	6.2	9.3	83.3	5.8	10.9
<i>Born in the EU</i>	77.6	5.3	17.1	77.3	5.4	17.3
<i>Born in the country</i>	64.0	10.5	25.5	67.0	6.6	26.4
<i>Born outside the EU</i>	57.1	21.0	21.9	57.8	22.9	19.3
Women	55.2	22.6	22.2	56.6	21.5	21.9
<i>Born in the EU</i>	44.1	16.7	39.3	41.0	16.4	42.7
<i>Born in the country</i>	84.6	6.2	9.3	83.3	5.8	10.9
<i>Born outside the EU</i>	77.6	5.3	17.1	77.3	5.4	17.3
Sweden						
Men	69.3	10.5	20.3	76.2	6.8	17.0
<i>Born in the EU</i>	78.0	7.0	15.0	78.1	7.0	14.9
<i>Born in the country</i>	58.2	9.5	32.3	63.9	10.1	26.0
<i>Born outside the EU</i>	50.9	20.3	28.8	59.5	16.7	23.8
Women	55.8	25.4	18.8	59.4	24.1	16.5
<i>Born in the EU</i>	42.7	19.3	38.1	43.5	19.0	37.5
<i>Born in the country</i>	69.3	10.5	20.3	76.2	6.8	17.0
<i>Born outside the EU</i>	78.0	7.0	15.0	78.1	7.0	14.9

Source: EU-SILC 2011-15, User Data Base

Table A6.12 Logistic regression, likelihood of being marginalized in the labour market 2011-15¹

	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Denmark					
<i>Women</i>	5.32 ³	6.42 ³	6.23 ³	6.87 ³	7.78 ³
<i>20-24 years</i>	1.93	2.42 ³	1.91 ³	1.30	2.63 ³
<i>25-34 years</i>	1.04	1.09	0.59 ³	0.55 ³	0.68
<i>45-54 years</i>	1.15	1.00 ³	0.76 ²	0.90	1.04
<i>55-64 years</i>	1.50	1.30	0.96	1.09	1.32
<i>Primary education</i>	0.94	1.29	1.49	1.50	1.10
<i>Upper secondary education</i>	1.11	1.32	1.34	1.27	1.21
<i>Unmarried/non-cohabitant</i>	0.83	0.77 ²	0.70 ³	1.38 ³	0.98
<i>Born in the EU</i>	0.96	0.90	2.56	2.03	1.71
<i>Born outside the EU</i>	1.49	1.87 ²	1.57	1.31	2.23 ²
<i>Poor health</i>	4.18 ³	2.72 ³	2.26 ²	1.54	4.11 ³
<i>Fair health</i>	1.37 ²	1.61	1.35	1.40	1.54
Finland					
<i>Women</i>	2.36 ³	2.54 ³	2.73 ³	3.12 ³	2.47 ³
<i>20-24 years</i>	3.98 ³	2.83 ³	4.86 ³	6.32 ³	4.13 ³
<i>25-34 years</i>	1.30	1.97 ³	2.14 ³	1.52	1.27
<i>45-54 years</i>	0.88 ³	0.79 ³	0.93 ³	0.72 ³	0.62 ³
<i>55-64 years</i>	1.45	1.85 ³	1.68	1.35	0.99 ³
<i>Primary education</i>	1.21	1.51 ³	1.55 ³	1.51 ³	1.38
<i>Upper secondary education</i>	1.13	1.05	1.21	1.28	1.13
<i>Unmarried/non-cohabitant</i>	1.13	1.06	0.96	1.01	1.19
<i>Born in the EU</i>	1.75	1.41	2.08	0.53 ³	0.70
<i>Born outside the EU</i>	2.23	0.93	2.44	1.78 ³	1.91 ³
<i>Poor health</i>	2.14 ²	3.81 ²	2.58 ³	4.13 ³	2.77 ³
<i>Fair health</i>	1.23	1.58	1.08 ³	1.56	1.48
Iceland					
<i>Women</i>	4.82 ³	6.68 ³	5.26 ³	5.64 ³	4.52 ³
<i>20-24 years</i>	2.04 ³	2.04 ³	1.83 ³	2.24 ³	3.29 ³
<i>25-34 years</i>	1.37	1.05	0.61 ³	1.14	1.18
<i>45-54 years</i>	0.89 ²	0.78 ³	0.68 ³	0.89 ³	0.92 ³
<i>55-64 years</i>	0.76 ³	0.68 ³	0.92	1.02	1.12
<i>Primary education</i>	1.84 ²	1.67	1.15	1.53	1.23
<i>Upper secondary education</i>	1.85 ³	1.75 ³	1.22	2.26 ³	1.22
<i>Unmarried/non-cohabitant</i>	0.86	0.70 ³	1.13	0.88	0.86
<i>Born in the EU</i>	0.84	0.79	0.59	0.68	0.74
<i>Born outside the EU</i>	1.26	0.34 ²	0.82	0.95	1.30
<i>Poor health</i>	1.83	4.35 ³	6.92 ³	2.20	1.79
<i>Fair health</i>	1.67	1.93	1.74	1.43	2.04
Norway					
<i>Women</i>	6.05 ³	5.27 ³	6.07 ³	5.76 ³	4.66 ³
<i>20-24 years</i>	1.37	1.03	1.87 ³	1.82 ³	1.84 ³
<i>25-34 years</i>	0.98	1.12	1.09	0.79 ³	0.99 ²
<i>45-54 years</i>	0.84 ³	0.93 ³	0.98 ³	0.87 ³	0.91 ³
<i>55-64 years</i>	1.20	1.55 ³	1.58 ³	1.23	1.66 ³
<i>Primary education</i>	2.06 ³	1.81 ³	2.05 ³	2.21 ³	2.05 ³
<i>Upper secondary education</i>	1.50	1.50	1.55	1.68	1.65
<i>Unmarried/non-cohabitant</i>	0.77 ²	0.92	0.64 ³	0.65 ³	0.98
<i>Born in the EU</i>	0.83	0.87	1.18	1.21	0.95
<i>Born outside the EU</i>	1.47	1.07	1.25	1.07	1.20
<i>Poor health</i>	4.24 ³	2.04	2.18 ³	1.95	1.95
<i>Fair health</i>	1.58	1.96 ²	1.70	2.05 ³	1.90

Continues

Table A6.12 Logistic regression, likelihood of being marginalized in the labour market 2011-15¹, continued

	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Sweden					
<i>Women</i>	6.25 ³	6.23 ³	5.42 ³	4.57 ³	5.28 ³
<i>20-24 years</i>	2.17 ³	2.07 ³	2.21 ³	2.38 ³	1.66 ³
<i>25-34 years</i>	1.08	0.82 ³	0.79 ³	0.94 ³	0.86
<i>45-54 years</i>	0.76 ³	0.74 ³	0.69 ³	0.86 ³	0.60 ³
<i>55-64 years</i>	1.15	1.22	1.05	1.29	0.96
<i>Primary education</i>	1.74 ³	1.53	2.18 ³	1.57 ²	1.62 ³
<i>Upper secondary education</i>	1.52	1.60 ³	1.68	1.41	1.30
<i>Unmarried/non-cohabitant</i>	0.91	0.91	1.08	0.76 ³	0.89
<i>Born in the EU</i>	1.12	1.07	1.14	1.31	0.62 ³
<i>Born outside the EU</i>	1.46 ²	1.30	1.37	1.57	1.24 ³
<i>Poor health</i>	2.09	1.84	1.83	1.55	1.91
<i>Fair health</i>	1.82	1.69	1.44	2.30 ²	1.93 ²

1 Reference group: Not good health, men, 35-44 years, higher education, married/cohabitant, and native born

2 Sign at .90

3 Sign at .95

Source: EU-SILC 2011-15, User Database

Table A6.13 Senior employment, per cent, persons 55-64 years old, Europe 2006-16

	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Denmark	60.7	58.9	58.4	58.2	58.4	59.5	60.8	61.7	63.2	64.7	67.8
Finland	54.5	55.0	56.5	55.5	56.2	57.0	58.2	58.5	59.1	60.0	61.4
Iceland	84.3	84.7	82.9	80.2	79.8	79.2	79.1	81.1	84.8	84.8	84.6
Norway	67.4	69.0	69.2	68.7	68.6	69.6	70.9	71.1	72.2	72.2	72.6
Sweden	69.6	70.0	70.1	70.0	70.4	72.0	73.0	73.6	74.0	74.5	75.5
European Union (28 countries)	43.3	44.5	45.5	45.9	46.2	47.2	48.7	50.1	51.8	53.3	55.3
Belgium	32.0	34.4	34.5	35.3	37.3	38.7	39.5	41.7	42.7	44.0	45.4
Bulgaria	39.6	42.6	46.0	46.1	44.9	44.6	45.7	47.4	50.0	53.0	54.5
Czech Republic	45.2	46.0	47.6	46.8	46.5	47.7	49.3	51.6	54.0	55.5	58.5
Germany	48.1	51.3	53.7	56.1	57.8	60.0	61.6	63.6	65.6	66.2	68.6
Estonia	58.4	59.9	62.3	60.3	53.8	57.5	60.5	62.6	64.0	64.5	65.2
Ireland	53.1	53.9	53.9	51.3	50.2	50.0	49.3	51.3	53.0	55.6	57.2
Greece	42.5	42.7	43.0	42.4	42.4	39.5	36.5	35.6	34.0	34.3	36.3
Spain	44.1	44.5	45.5	44.0	43.5	44.5	43.9	43.2	44.3	46.9	49.1
France	38.1	38.2	38.2	38.9	39.7	41.4	44.5	45.6	47.0	48.8	49.9
Croatia	34.1	36.6	37.1	39.4	39.1	38.2	37.5	37.8	36.2	39.2	38.1
Italy	32.4	33.7	34.3	35.6	36.5	37.8	40.3	42.7	46.2	48.2	50.3
Cyprus	53.6	55.9	54.8	55.7	56.3	54.8	50.7	49.6	46.9	48.5	52.0
Latvia	53.4	58.0	59.1	52.5	47.8	50.5	52.8	54.8	56.4	59.4	61.4
Lithuania	49.7	53.2	53.0	51.2	48.3	50.2	51.7	53.4	56.2	60.4	64.6
Luxembourg	33.2	32.0	34.1	38.2	39.6	39.3	41.0	40.5	42.5	38.4	39.6
Hungary	33.2	32.2	30.9	31.9	33.6	35.3	36.1	37.9	41.7	45.3	49.8
Malta	30.7	29.5	30.1	29.1	31.9	33.2	34.7	36.3	37.8	40.3	44.0
Netherlands	47.7	50.9	53.0	55.1	53.7	55.2	57.6	59.2	59.9	61.7	63.5
Austria	33.0	36.0	38.8	39.4	41.2	39.9	41.6	43.8	45.1	46.3	49.2
Poland	28.1	29.7	31.6	32.3	34.1	36.9	38.7	40.6	42.5	44.3	46.2
Portugal	50.1	51.0	50.7	49.7	49.5	47.8	46.5	46.9	47.8	49.9	52.1
Romania	41.7	41.4	43.1	42.6	40.7	39.9	41.6	41.8	43.1	41.1	42.8
Slovenia	32.6	33.5	32.8	35.6	35.0	31.2	32.9	33.5	35.4	36.6	38.5
Slovakia	33.1	35.6	39.2	39.5	40.5	41.3	43.1	44.0	44.8	47.0	49.0
United Kingdom	57.3	57.4	58.0	57.5	57.2	56.7	58.1	59.8	61.0	62.2	63.4
Switzerland					66.2	67.4	68.2	69.3	69.2	70.3	71.5
FYR Macedonia	27.9	28.8	31.7	34.6	34.2	35.4	35.4	37.9	38.6	40.1	40.7
Denmark	60.7	58.9	58.4	58.2	58.4	59.5	60.8	61.7	63.2	64.7	67.8

Source: Eurostat (Labour Force Survey). Extracted on 09.08.2017

Table A6.14 Percentage point difference between senior employment (55-64 years) and total employment (15-64 years), Europe 2006-16

	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Denmark	16.7	18.1	19.5	17.1	14.9	13.6	11.8	10.8	9.6	8.8	7.1
Finland	14.8	15.3	14.6	13.2	11.9	12.0	11.2	10.4	9.6	8.5	7.7
Iceland	0.3	0.4	0.7	-1.9	-1.6	-0.7	0.6	0.0	-1.9	-0.1	2.0
Norway	8.0	7.8	8.8	7.7	6.7	5.7	4.8	4.3	3.0	2.6	1.7
Sweden	3.5	4.2	4.2	2.2	1.7	1.6	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.0	0.7
European Union (28 countries)	21.0	20.7	20.2	18.6	17.9	17.0	15.4	14.0	13.0	12.3	11.3
Belgium	29.0	27.6	27.9	26.3	24.7	23.2	22.3	20.1	19.2	17.8	16.9
Bulgaria	19.0	19.1	18.0	16.5	14.9	13.8	13.1	12.1	11.0	9.9	8.9
Czech Republic	20.1	20.1	19.0	18.6	18.5	18.0	17.2	16.1	15.0	14.7	13.5
Germany	19.1	17.7	16.4	14.2	13.5	12.7	11.4	9.9	8.2	7.8	6.1
Estonia	10.0	9.9	7.8	3.5	7.4	7.8	6.6	5.9	5.6	7.4	6.9
Ireland	15.6	15.3	13.5	10.6	9.4	8.9	9.5	9.2	8.7	7.7	7.6
Greece	18.1	18.2	18.4	18.4	16.7	15.6	14.3	13.2	15.4	16.5	15.7
Spain	20.9	21.3	19.0	16.0	15.3	13.5	11.9	11.6	11.7	10.9	10.4
France	25.6	26.1	26.7	25.2	24.3	22.5	19.5	18.4	17.2	15.5	14.7
Croatia	21.5	22.4	22.9	20.0	18.3	17.0	16.0	14.7	18.4	16.8	18.8
Italy	25.9	24.9	24.3	21.8	20.3	19.0	16.3	12.8	9.5	8.1	6.9
Cyprus	16.0	15.1	16.1	13.3	12.6	12.8	13.9	12.1	15.2	14.2	11.4
Latvia	12.5	10.1	9.1	7.8	10.7	10.3	10.2	10.2	9.9	8.7	7.3
Lithuania	13.9	11.8	11.4	8.7	9.3	10.0	10.3	10.3	9.5	6.8	4.8
Luxembourg	30.4	32.2	29.3	27.0	25.6	25.3	24.8	25.2	24.1	27.7	26.0
Hungary	24.2	24.8	25.5	23.1	21.3	20.1	20.6	20.2	20.1	18.6	16.7
Malta	23.2	25.5	25.4	26.2	24.3	24.7	24.4	24.5	24.6	23.6	21.7
Netherlands	26.6	25.1	24.2	21.9	21.0	19.0	16.8	14.4	13.2	12.4	11.3
Austria	35.6	33.9	32.0	30.9	29.6	31.2	29.8	27.6	26.0	24.8	22.3
Poland	26.4	27.3	27.6	27.0	24.8	22.4	21.0	19.4	19.2	18.6	18.3
Portugal	17.5	16.6	17.3	16.4	15.8	16.0	14.9	13.7	14.8	14.0	13.1
Romania	17.1	17.4	15.9	16.0	19.5	19.4	18.6	18.3	17.9	20.3	18.8
Slovenia	34.0	34.3	35.8	31.9	31.2	33.2	31.2	29.8	28.5	28.6	27.3
Slovakia	26.3	25.1	23.1	20.7	18.3	18.0	16.6	15.9	16.2	15.7	15.9
United Kingdom	14.3	14.1	13.5	12.4	12.2	12.6	11.8	10.7	10.9	10.5	10.1
Switzerland					12.4	11.9	11.2	10.3	10.6	9.9	9.3
FYR Macedonia	11.7	11.9	10.2	8.7	9.3	8.5	8.6	8.1	8.3	7.7	8.4
Denmark	16.7	18.1	19.5	17.1	14.9	13.6	11.8	10.8	9.6	8.8	7.1

Source: Eurostat (Labour Force Survey). Extracted on 09.08.2017

**Table A6.15 Logistic regression, likelihood of being senior in work, persons
55-69 years, 2011-15¹**

	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Denmark	0.55 ³	0.54 ³	0.80	0.52 ³	0.56 ³
<i>Women</i>	0.11	0.15	0.22	0.26 ³	0.31 ³
<i>60-64 years</i>	0.01 ³	0.02 ³	0.03 ³	0.03 ³	0.03 ³
<i>65-69 years</i>	0.46 ³	0.50 ³	0.51 ³	0.46 ³	0.60 ³
<i>Primary education</i>	0.68	0.63	0.65	0.66	0.75
<i>Upper secondary education</i>	0.63 ³	0.81	0.79	0.78	0.61 ³
<i>Unmarried/non-cohabitant</i>	1.37	0.60	0.59	1.14	1.85
<i>Born in the EU</i>	0.56	0.19 ³	0.41	0.96	1.22
<i>Born outside the EU</i>	0.03 ³	0.04 ³	0.05 ³	0.07 ³	0.07 ³
<i>Poor health</i>	0.38 ³	0.32 ³	0.36 ³	0.36	0.50 ³
<i>Fair health</i>					
Finland	1.00	1.05	0.94	1.06	1.24 ²
<i>Women</i>	0.26 ³	0.22 ³	0.28 ³	0.42 ³	0.35 ³
<i>60-64 years</i>	0.03 ³	0.02 ³	0.03 ³	0.03 ³	0.03 ³
<i>65-69 years</i>	0.37 ³	0.38 ³	0.39 ³	0.41 ³	0.36 ³
<i>Primary education</i>	0.47 ³	0.48 ³	0.45 ³	0.50 ³	0.51
<i>Upper secondary education</i>	0.62 ³	0.67 ³	0.59 ³	0.52 ³	0.45 ³
<i>Unmarried/non-cohabitant</i>	0.11	0.69	3.59	2.80	1.46
<i>Born in the EU</i>	0.33	1.78	2.03	2.17	0.65
<i>Born outside the EU</i>	0.09 ³	0.07 ³	0.07 ³	0.16 ³	0.12 ³
<i>Poor health</i>	0.43 ³	0.40 ³	0.41 ³	0.43	0.42
<i>Fair health</i>					
Iceland	0.70	0.40 ³	0.62 ³	0.88	1.24 ²
<i>Women</i>	0.74 ³	1.04 ³	0.89 ³	0.87 ³	0.35 ³
<i>60-64 years</i>	0.13 ³	0.21 ³	0.12 ³	0.20 ³	0.03 ³
<i>65-69 years</i>	0.54	0.39 ³	0.48	0.62 ²	0.36 ³
<i>Primary education</i>	0.66	0.52	0.46 ²	0.91	0.51
<i>Upper secondary education</i>	0.54 ³	0.99	0.58 ³	0.61 ³	0.45 ³
<i>Unmarried/non-cohabitant</i>	0.11 ³	0.23 ²	0.49	1.12	1.46
<i>Born in the EU</i>	0.48	0.83	0.19 ²	0.54	0.65
<i>Born outside the EU</i>	0.05 ³	0.04 ³	0.02 ³	0.04 ³	0.12 ³
<i>Poor health</i>	0.31	0.31	0.36 ³	0.44 ³	0.42
<i>Fair health</i>					
Norway	0.56 ³	0.64 ³	0.81	0.69 ³	0.76 ³
<i>Women</i>	0.35 ³	0.49 ³	0.50 ³	0.42 ³	0.46 ³
<i>60-64 years</i>	0.06 ³	0.06 ³	0.07 ³	0.05 ³	0.07 ³
<i>65-69 years</i>	0.33 ³	0.40 ³	0.34 ³	0.50 ³	0.31 ³
<i>Primary education</i>	0.56	0.61	0.55	0.63	0.60
<i>Upper secondary education</i>	1.14	1.23	0.85	1.05	0.82
<i>Unmarried/non-cohabitant</i>	2.20	1.43	1.03	1.05	0.76
<i>Born in the EU</i>	2.09	0.85	1.13	1.07	0.72
<i>Born outside the EU</i>	0.07 ³	0.09 ³	0.08 ³	0.08 ³	0.08 ³
<i>Poor health</i>	0.53 ³	0.34 ³	0.27	0.31	0.34
<i>Fair health</i>					
Sweden	0.72 ³	0.69 ³	0.83	0.71 ³	0.87
<i>Women</i>	0.33 ³	0.38 ³	0.45 ³	0.39 ³	0.44 ³
<i>60-64 years</i>	0.03 ³	0.02 ³	0.03 ³	0.02 ³	0.03 ³
<i>65-69 years</i>	0.35 ³	0.30 ³	0.35 ³	0.41 ³	0.36 ³
<i>Primary education</i>	0.43 ³	0.40 ³	0.54	0.48 ²	0.48
<i>Upper secondary education</i>	0.80	0.69 ³	0.78 ²	0.59 ³	0.73 ³
<i>Unmarried/non-cohabitant</i>	1.00	0.86	0.93	0.53	0.86
<i>Born in the EU</i>	0.93	1.06	0.73	0.63	0.58
<i>Born outside the EU</i>	0.10 ³	0.17 ³	0.17 ³	0.12 ³	0.16 ³
<i>Poor health</i>	0.37	0.46	0.37	0.49	0.35
<i>Fair health</i>	0.55 ³	0.54 ³	0.80	0.52 ³	0.56 ³

1 Reference group: Not good health, men, 35-44 years, higher education, married/cohabitant, and native born

2 Sign at .90

3 Sign at .95

Source: EU-SILC 2011-15, User Database

Table A7.1 Healthy life years, men and women, 2005-15

	Men			Women		
	2005	2010	1015	2005	2010	1015
Healthy life years in absolute value at birth						
<i>European Union (27/28 countries)</i>	61.1	61.8	62.6	62.5	62.6	63.3
<i>Denmark</i>	68.4	62.3	60.4	68.4	61.4	57.6
<i>Finland</i>	51.7	58.5	59.4	52.5	57.9	56.3
<i>Iceland</i>	67.0	69.3	74.0	65.0	68.1	73.8
<i>Norway</i>	66.1	69.8	71.5	64.2	69.8	66.2
<i>Sweden</i>	64.5	67.0	71.8	63.2	66.4	68.9
Healthy life years at birth in percentage of the total life expectancy						
<i>European Union (27/28 countries)</i>	81.0	80.3	80.3	76.6	75.5	76.0
<i>Denmark</i>	90.0	80.7	76.6	85.0	75.5	69.7
<i>Finland</i>	68.4	76.1	75.5	63.6	69.3	66.7
<i>Iceland</i>	84.1	86.9	92.1	77.9	81.0	87.7
<i>Norway</i>	85.0	88.3	88.1	77.6	83.8	79.0
<i>Sweden</i>	82.1	84.2	89.1	76.2	79.5	81.8
Healthy life years in absolute value at 65						
<i>European Union (27/28 countries)</i>	8.6	8.7	9.4	8.9	8.9	9.4
<i>Denmark</i>	13.2	11.8	11.0	14.0	12.8	11.9
<i>Finland</i>	6.3	8.7	9.3	6.6	8.7	9.0
<i>Iceland</i>	12.5	13.4	15.7	12.3	14.8	16.8
<i>Norway</i>	12.5	14.5	15.5	12.3	15.7	15.1
<i>Sweden</i>	10.7	12.3	15.3	11.1	13.7	15.3
Life expectancy in absolute value at birth						
<i>European Union (27/28 countries)</i>	75.4	77.0	77.9	81.6	82.9	83.3
<i>Denmark</i>	76.0	77.2	78.8	80.5	81.4	82.7
<i>Finland</i>	75.6	76.9	78.7	82.5	83.5	84.4
<i>Iceland</i>	79.6	79.8	80.4	83.5	84.1	84.1
<i>Norway</i>	77.8	79.0	81.2	82.7	83.3	83.8
<i>Sweden</i>	78.5	79.6	80.5	82.9	83.6	84.2

Source: Eurostat, Healthy Life Years,

http://appsso.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/nui/show.do?dataset=hlth_hlye&lang=en

Table A7.2 Self-evaluated health, per cent, 2006-15

	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Denmark										
<i>Good health</i>	75	75	74	72	71	72	72	73	72	71
<i>Fair health</i>	17	17	18	20	21	20	21	21	21	22
<i>Bad health</i>	8	8	7	7	8	7	7	7	7	7
Finland										
<i>Good health</i>	69	68	69	69	69	70	68	66	71	71
<i>Fair health</i>	21	23	24	24	23	24	26	28	23	24
<i>Bad health</i>	10	8	8	7	8	7	6	6	6	5
Iceland										
<i>Good health</i>	81	79	81	80	78	77	77	76	75	75
<i>Fair health</i>	14	16	15	15	17	16	18	18	18	19
<i>Bad health</i>	5	5	4	4	5	6	5	6	7	6
Norway										
<i>Good health</i>	74	76	77	76	77	75	79	78	78	79
<i>Fair health</i>	16	15	16	16	15	17	15	15	15	15
<i>Bad health</i>	9	9	8	7	8	8	6	7	7	6
Sweden										
<i>Good health</i>	76	78	78	80	80	79	80	80	79	78
<i>Fair health</i>	18	17	16	15	15	16	15	16	17	18
<i>Bad health</i>	6	5	5	5	5	5	4	4	4	4

Source: EU-SILC, User Data Base

Table A7.3 Share reporting good health, fair health, and bad health, country background, 2006-15

	Denmark			Finland			Iceland		
	Native born	Born in EU	Born outside EU	Native born	Born in EU	Born outside EU	Native born	Born in EU	Born outside EU
2006									
<i>Good health</i>	75	76	69	69	81	68	81	86	89
<i>Fair health</i>	17	15	15	22	12	22	15	10	10
<i>Bad health</i>	7	9	16	10	7	10	5	5	2
2007									
<i>Good health</i>	76	73	67	68	78	75	79	87	89
<i>Fair health</i>	17	13	18	24	22	21	17	10	10
<i>Bad health</i>	8	14	15	8	0	5	5	3	1
2008									
<i>Good health</i>	75	68	65	68	90	77	80	86	90
<i>Fair health</i>	18	24	22	24	8	16	16	12	6
<i>Bad health</i>	7	8	12	8	1	7	4	2	4
2009									
<i>Good health</i>	73	75	64	69	82	75	80	88	89
<i>Fair health</i>	20	17	20	24	13	17	16	8	8
<i>Bad health</i>	7	8	17	7	5	8	5	3	2
2010									
<i>Good health</i>	71	79	63	69	88	83	77	87	79
<i>Fair health</i>	21	11	24	24	8	14	17	10	17
<i>Bad health</i>	8	10	14	8	5	3	5	3	5
2011									
<i>Good health</i>	73	75	62	69	84	74	77	79	85
<i>Fair health</i>	20	16	19	24	14	21	16	16	11
<i>Bad health</i>	7	9	19	7	2	5	7	5	4
2012									
<i>Good health</i>	72	81	63	68	79	66	76	85	72
<i>Fair health</i>	21	10	27	26	18	27	19	11	21
<i>Bad health</i>	7	10	10	6	3	7	5	4	6
2013									
<i>Good health</i>	73	73	69	66	81	68	76	81	74
<i>Fair health</i>	21	23	22	28	18	27	18	13	17
<i>Bad health</i>	7	5	10	6	1	5	6	6	9
2014									
<i>Good health</i>	72	76	68	70	83	75	75	83	62
<i>Fair health</i>	21	18	22	24	14	21	18	13	28
<i>Bad health</i>	7	6	10	6	3	4	7	4	10
2015									
<i>Good health</i>	71	73	69	71	75	74	75	80	69
<i>Fair health</i>	22	17	23	24	19	22	19	16	20
<i>Bad health</i>	7	11	8	5	5	4	6	4	11

Source: EU-SILC, User Data Base

Continues

Table A7.3 Share reporting good health, fair health, and bad health, country background, 2006-15, continued

	Norway			Sweden		
	Native born	Born in EU	Born out-side EU	Native born	Born in EU	Born out-side EU
2006						
<i>Good health</i>	74	77	72	77	67	69
<i>Fair health</i>	16	13	15	18	24	22
<i>Bad health</i>	9	11	13	5	10	9
2007						
<i>Good health</i>	76	78	77	79	67	71
<i>Fair health</i>	15	14	10	17	23	18
<i>Bad health</i>	8	8	13	5	10	11
2008						
<i>Good health</i>	77	76	78	80	69	71
<i>Fair health</i>	16	11	14	16	19	20
<i>Bad health</i>	8	14	8	5	12	9
2009						
<i>Good health</i>	77	79	73	80	69	77
<i>Fair health</i>	16	14	14	15	21	14
<i>Bad health</i>	7	7	13	5	10	9
2010						
<i>Good health</i>	77	78	74	81	72	76
<i>Fair health</i>	16	14	14	15	20	16
<i>Bad health</i>	8	9	13	4	8	8
2011						
<i>Good health</i>	75	75	73	80	71	75
<i>Fair health</i>	17	18	18	16	21	17
<i>Bad health</i>	8	7	9	4	8	8
2012						
<i>Good health</i>	79	84	77	81	74	80
<i>Fair health</i>	15	8	14	16	18	12
<i>Bad health</i>	6	7	10	4	8	8
2013						
<i>Good health</i>	77	80	75	81	75	76
<i>Fair health</i>	16	11	15	15	22	14
<i>Bad health</i>	7	9	10	4	3	10
2014						
<i>Good health</i>	78	80	74	79	74	75
<i>Fair health</i>	15	14	14	17	20	17
<i>Bad health</i>	7	6	12	4	6	8
2015						
<i>Good health</i>	80	82	75	79	70	76
<i>Fair health</i>	15	15	16	17	23	17
<i>Bad health</i>	6	4	9	4	6	7

Source: EU-SILC, User Data Base

Table A7.4 General health, by age group and country, 2011-15

	2015			2014			2013		
	Good Health	Fair Health	Bad Health	Good Health	Fair Health	Bad Health	Good Health	Fair Health	Bad Health
Denmark									
<i>16-19 years</i>	92	7	0	93	5	1	92	6	2
<i>20-29</i>	85	12	3	88	10	3	87	11	2
<i>30-39</i>	82	14	4	86	12	2	86	11	3
<i>40-49</i>	76	18	6	80	14	6	79	15	6
<i>50-59</i>	68	22	10	68	22	11	68	25	7
<i>60-69</i>	64	28	8	66	27	7	67	25	8
<i>70 years and over</i>	60	30	10	58	32	11	57	31	12
Finland									
<i>16-19 years</i>	89	11	.	93	7	1	89	10	0
<i>20-29</i>	87	12	1	91	8	1	84	14	2
<i>30-39</i>	85	13	2	89	10	2	83	15	2
<i>40-49</i>	82	15	3	83	14	3	76	20	3
<i>50-59</i>	69	25	6	69	25	6	62	31	7
<i>60-69</i>	63	31	6	58	34	7	54	38	8
<i>70 years and over</i>	44	44	12	38	45	17	37	48	15
Iceland									
<i>16-19 years</i>	84	12	4	89	10	1	89	10	1
<i>20-29</i>	85	12	2	85	13	2	86	11	2
<i>30-39</i>	86	10	5	87	10	3	87	10	3
<i>40-49</i>	79	15	6	80	14	6	80	13	7
<i>50-59</i>	75	18	6	71	20	9	75	18	8
<i>60-69</i>	67	24	10	63	27	10	65	26	9
<i>70 years and over</i>	56	37	8	56	32	12	52	37	11
Norway									
<i>16-19 years</i>	91	9	1	92	7	1	92	7	1
<i>20-29</i>	87	9	4	87	9	3	87	9	3
<i>30-39</i>	88	8	4	86	10	4	86	9	5
<i>40-49</i>	82	12	6	81	12	6	81	13	6
<i>50-59</i>	79	15	6	77	16	8	74	18	9
<i>60-69</i>	73	20	7	70	21	9	70	21	9
<i>70 years and over</i>	66	25	9	65	23	12	64	23	13
Sweden									
<i>16-19 years</i>	93	7	0	88	10	2	90	9	1
<i>20-29</i>	87	11	2	89	10	1	89	8	2
<i>30-39</i>	87	10	3	87	11	3	89	8	3
<i>40-49</i>	85	12	3	84	13	3	86	10	3
<i>50-59</i>	78	17	5	79	15	6	79	15	6
<i>60-69</i>	76	19	5	76	20	4	76	19	5
<i>70 years and over</i>	63	31	6	65	27	7	65	30	5

Source: EU-SILC, User Data Base

Continues

Table A7.4 General health, by age group and country, 2011-15, continued

	2012			2011		
	Good Health	Fair Health	Bad Health	Good Health	Fair Health	Bad Health
Denmark						
<i>16-19 years</i>	95	4	1	91	8	1
<i>20-29</i>	85	13	1	87	9	4
<i>30-39</i>	84	12	4	83	13	4
<i>40-49</i>	77	17	6	76	17	7
<i>50-59</i>	68	23	9	71	21	7
<i>60-69</i>	64	27	9	65	28	7
<i>70 years and over</i>	57	32	11	56	30	14
Finland						
<i>16-19 years</i>	91	9	.	90	10	0
<i>20-29</i>	86	13	1	91	7	1
<i>30-39</i>	86	12	1	90	8	1
<i>40-49</i>	76	21	4	82	15	4
<i>50-59</i>	64	28	8	67	26	7
<i>60-69</i>	57	34	9	56	35	9
<i>70 years and over</i>	38	47	15	33	48	20
Iceland						
<i>16-19 years</i>	84	13	3	88	9	3
<i>20-29</i>	87	12	1	87	11	2
<i>30-39</i>	87	11	2	88	9	4
<i>40-49</i>	83	12	5	85	11	4
<i>50-59</i>	75	19	6	76	15	9
<i>60-69</i>	67	24	10	63	26	11
<i>70 years and over</i>	51	40	9	50	37	12
Norway						
<i>16-19 years</i>	90	7	2	82	14	4
<i>20-29</i>	88	9	3	85	12	3
<i>30-39</i>	86	9	4	84	12	4
<i>40-49</i>	81	13	6	78	16	6
<i>50-59</i>	78	15	7	75	16	8
<i>60-69</i>	71	22	7	67	22	11
<i>70 years and over</i>	65	24	10	59	26	14
Sweden						
<i>16-19 years</i>	90	7	3	93	7	0
<i>20-29</i>	91	7	1	91	7	2
<i>30-39</i>	89	9	2	89	9	2
<i>40-49</i>	87	10	3	84	12	4
<i>50-59</i>	80	14	6	79	16	5
<i>60-69</i>	73	22	5	74	20	5
<i>70 years and over</i>	64	28	8	59	31	10

Source: EU-SILC, User Data Base

Table A7.5 Self-evaluated health, women and men, per cent, 2006-15

	Denmark		Finland		Iceland		Norway		Sweden	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
2006										
<i>Good health</i>	78	73	69	68	82	80	76	73	79	74
<i>Fair health</i>	16	18	22	21	14	14	16	17	17	20
<i>Bad health</i>	6	9	9	11	3	6	8	11	5	7
2007										
<i>Good health</i>	78	73	69	68	83	76	79	74	80	75
<i>Fair health</i>	16	18	24	23	14	19	14	16	15	19
<i>Bad health</i>	6	10	7	9	4	6	7	10	5	6
2008										
<i>Good health</i>	76	73	70	68	82	79	79	74	82	76
<i>Fair health</i>	18	19	23	24	14	16	15	16	14	19
<i>Bad health</i>	6	8	7	8	3	5	6	10	4	6
2009										
<i>Good health</i>	73	71	69	69	82	79	78	75	83	76
<i>Fair health</i>	21	20	23	24	14	16	15	17	13	18
<i>Bad health</i>	6	8	7	7	4	5	6	8	4	6
2010										
<i>Good health</i>	73	70	70	68	79	76	79	74	82	78
<i>Fair health</i>	20	21	22	24	16	18	14	17	14	16
<i>Bad health</i>	7	9	7	8	4	6	7	8	4	6
2011										
<i>Good health</i>	74	71	70	69	79	76	77	73	81	78
<i>Fair health</i>	19	21	23	24	16	17	16	18	15	17
<i>Bad health</i>	6	8	7	7	5	8	7	9	4	5
2012										
<i>Good health</i>	73	71	68	68	79	75	80	78	82	78
<i>Fair health</i>	21	21	26	26	17	19	14	15	14	17
<i>Bad health</i>	6	8	6	7	4	6	6	7	4	5
2013										
<i>Good health</i>	75	70	66	66	79	73	79	76	82	78
<i>Fair health</i>	19	22	28	28	17	19	15	15	14	17
<i>Bad health</i>	6	7	6	6	4	8	6	8	3	5
2014										
<i>Good health</i>	73	71	70	71	78	72	79	77	81	76
<i>Fair health</i>	20	21	24	23	17	20	15	15	15	19
<i>Bad health</i>	6	8	6	6	5	8	6	8	3	5
2015										
<i>Good health</i>	72	70	71	71	79	71	81	78	81	76
<i>Fair health</i>	21	22	24	24	17	21	14	15	16	19
<i>Bad health</i>	6	8	5	5	4	8	5	7	3	5

Source: EU-SILC, User Data Base

Table A7.6 Bad health, gender and age, 2006-15

	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Denmark										
Men										
<i>16-19 years</i>	2	1	2	1	2	1	.	2	1	.
<i>20-29</i>	2	2	2	1	2	4	1	2	2	2
<i>30-39</i>	3	3	4	4	5	3	4	3	1	2
<i>40-49</i>	6	4	6	7	7	5	5	3	3	4
<i>50-59</i>	9	9	8	8	8	6	8	7	10	8
<i>60-69</i>	7	9	8	8	10	6	8	8	7	9
<i>70 years and over</i>	16	12	12	13	10	13	10	10	10	9
Women										
<i>16-19 years</i>	1	3	0	3	4	1	2	3	2	1
<i>20-29</i>	3	3	2	2	5	3	1	2	3	4
<i>30-39</i>	5	7	3	4	5	5	4	3	3	5
<i>40-49</i>	8	10	9	9	9	9	7	9	8	7
<i>50-59</i>	12	12	11	10	9	8	11	8	11	12
<i>60-69</i>	10	11	12	9	10	8	9	7	7	8
<i>70 years and over</i>	17	16	14	16	14	14	12	13	11	10
Finland										
Men										
<i>16-19 years</i>	0	2	0	0	4	1	.	.	1	.
<i>20-29</i>	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	2
<i>30-39</i>	2	1	1	1	2	1	1	2	2	3
<i>40-49</i>	6	3	3	5	3	4	4	3	3	3
<i>50-59</i>	10	8	11	10	9	7	8	7	6	6
<i>60-69</i>	15	13	13	8	10	10	8	8	8	6
<i>70 years and over</i>	27	22	21	22	21	20	15	13	16	11
Women										
<i>16-19 years</i>	3	1	1	2	0	.	.	1	1	.
<i>20-29</i>	3	1	1	1	1	2	1	2	0	1
<i>30-39</i>	3	2	2	1	1	1	1	3	2	2
<i>40-49</i>	4	3	4	3	2	3	4	3	3	3
<i>50-59</i>	11	8	7	7	9	6	7	7	5	5
<i>60-69</i>	13	13	11	8	10	8	9	7	7	6
<i>70 years and over</i>	29	26	23	23	23	19	16	16	18	13
Iceland										
Men										
<i>16-19 years</i>	3	0	0	0	2	4	6	.	1	5
<i>20-29</i>	0	1	1	1	1	3	1	1	1	2
<i>30-39</i>	2	1	2	2	3	4	3	3	2	2
<i>40-49</i>	2	4	3	2	3	2	3	3	3	4
<i>50-59</i>	4	2	4	5	2	7	3	7	8	3
<i>60-69</i>	6	10	7	5	8	9	8	4	7	6
<i>70 years and over</i>	10	9	10	12	15	8	5	8	12	8
Women										
<i>16-19 years</i>	1	2	2	0	0	2	1	1	1	4
<i>20-29</i>	3	3	1	2	3	2	1	3	4	3
<i>30-39</i>	2	3	3	2	2	4	2	3	4	7
<i>40-49</i>	4	4	4	4	4	6	6	10	9	8
<i>50-59</i>	6	6	5	5	8	11	9	8	9	10
<i>60-69</i>	13	10	10	11	9	13	12	14	14	13
<i>70 years and over</i>	19	13	11	11	17	16	13	13	13	8

Table A7.6 Bad health, gender and age, 2006-15, continued

	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Norway										
Men										
<i>16-19 years</i>	1	1	1	0	3	4	2	.	.	.
<i>20-29</i>	4	3	2	2	4	3	3	2	3	3
<i>30-39</i>	4	5	3	4	6	4	3	4	3	3
<i>40-49</i>	8	7	5	5	6	5	5	5	5	3
<i>50-59</i>	11	10	9	8	8	9	6	7	7	6
<i>60-69</i>	10	9	11	12	10	9	7	8	8	5
<i>70 years and over</i>	15	16	9	13	11	10	11	11	12	9
Women										
<i>16-19 years</i>	3	1	0	3	1	5	2	2	2	2
<i>20-29</i>	3	5	3	2	4	4	2	4	3	6
<i>30-39</i>	6	5	5	4	3	4	6	6	5	5
<i>40-49</i>	10	8	8	8	10	8	8	7	8	8
<i>50-59</i>	13	11	12	9	9	8	8	10	9	6
<i>60-69</i>	14	14	16	12	10	13	7	11	10	9
<i>70 years and over</i>	21	18	19	15	16	18	10	15	12	9
Sweden										
Men										
<i>16-19 years</i>	1	1	1	1	0	.	2	2	4	.
<i>20-29</i>	1	1	1	2	2	1	1	2	1	3
<i>30-39</i>	2	2	1	2	1	1	2	2	2	1
<i>40-49</i>	5	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	2	2
<i>50-59</i>	7	6	5	5	4	4	5	4	5	2
<i>60-69</i>	6	6	7	7	5	5	4	6	4	4
<i>70 years and over</i>	9	12	10	10	8	11	9	4	6	6
Women										
<i>16-19 years</i>	1	1	1	1	2	1	3	1	.	1
<i>20-29</i>	3	1	1	2	2	2	2	3	1	2
<i>30-39</i>	4	2	1	5	3	3	2	4	3	5
<i>40-49</i>	8	4	4	5	6	5	4	4	4	4
<i>50-59</i>	9	6	5	9	9	6	7	8	7	8
<i>60-69</i>	7	6	7	7	4	6	6	5	5	5
<i>70 years and over</i>	12	12	10	7	11	10	7	6	8	7

Source: EU-SILC, User Data Base

Table A7.7 Self-evaluated health and level of education, per cent, 2006-15

	Denmark			Finland			Iceland		
	Primary education (or less)	Secondary education	Tertiary education	Primary education (or less)	Secondary education	Tertiary education	Primary education (or less)	Secondary education	Tertiary education
2006									
<i>Good health</i>	67	79	85	53	72	79	74	82	92
<i>Fair health</i>	22	15	11	30	19	16	18	14	6
<i>Bad health</i>	11	6	4	17	8	5	8	4	1
2007									
<i>Good health</i>	66	79	84	49	73	81	72	79	92
<i>Fair health</i>	22	15	11	35	21	16	21	17	7
<i>Bad health</i>	12	6	5	16	6	3	8	4	1
2008									
<i>Good health</i>	64	79	84	51	73	81	74	80	91
<i>Fair health</i>	25	16	12	35	21	15	21	15	8
<i>Bad health</i>	11	6	4	14	6	3	5	5	1
2009									
<i>Good health</i>	66	76	83	54	73	81	71	80	90
<i>Fair health</i>	25	19	14	34	21	16	23	16	8
<i>Bad health</i>	9	6	4	12	6	3	7	4	3
2010									
<i>Good health</i>	62	73	82	50	73	81	68	79	88
<i>Fair health</i>	27	19	15	37	21	15	24	16	9
<i>Bad health</i>	11	7	4	13	6	4	8	5	2
2011									
<i>Good health</i>	65	72	81	53	71	81	68	77	90
<i>Fair health</i>	25	22	15	35	23	16	21	18	7
<i>Bad health</i>	11	7	4	13	6	4	11	5	3
2012									
<i>Good health</i>	66	70	79	53	67	78	68	77	88
<i>Fair health</i>	25	23	16	36	27	18	24	19	10
<i>Bad health</i>	9	7	5	11	6	4	8	5	2
2013									
<i>Good health</i>	66	71	80	50	66	76	67	77	86
<i>Fair health</i>	25	22	16	39	28	21	23	18	11
<i>Bad health</i>	10	7	5	11	6	3	10	5	2
2014									
<i>Good health</i>	64	71	79	52	72	81	67	76	84
<i>Fair health</i>	26	22	16	37	23	16	22	19	13
<i>Bad health</i>	9	8	5	12	6	3	10	6	3
2015									
<i>Good health</i>	64	68	78	56	70	81	66	75	85
<i>Fair health</i>	25	24	17	35	24	17	24	19	12
<i>Bad health</i>	11	8	5	9	5	3	10	5	3

Source: EU-SILC, User Data Base

Continues

Table A7.7 Self-evaluated health and level of education, per cent, 2006-15, continued

	Norway			Sweden		
	Primary education (or less)	Secondary education	Tertiary education	Primary education (or less)	Secondary education	Tertiary education
2006	63	75	86	67	78	85
<i>Good health</i>	22	16	11	24	17	12
<i>Fair health</i>	15	9	4	9	5	3
<i>Bad health</i>						
2007	70	75	86	71	79	87
<i>Good health</i>	19	15	11	22	16	11
<i>Fair health</i>	12	9	3	7	5	2
<i>Bad health</i>						
2008	69	76	85	67	80	87
<i>Good health</i>	20	16	11	25	16	10
<i>Fair health</i>	11	8	4	8	5	3
<i>Bad health</i>						
2009	70	75	87	67	80	88
<i>Good health</i>	20	17	10	24	15	9
<i>Fair health</i>	11	8	3	9	5	3
<i>Bad health</i>						
2010	67	76	86	67	81	88
<i>Good health</i>	21	16	11	25	15	10
<i>Fair health</i>	12	8	3	9	4	2
<i>Bad health</i>						
2011	63	72	86	67	79	88
<i>Good health</i>	24	19	11	24	17	10
<i>Fair health</i>	13	9	4	8	5	2
<i>Bad health</i>						
2012	72	75	87	70	80	87
<i>Good health</i>	19	17	10	22	16	11
<i>Fair health</i>	9	7	3	7	4	3
<i>Bad health</i>						
2013	70	74	85	69	80	87
<i>Good health</i>	19	18	10	25	16	11
<i>Fair health</i>	11	8	4	7	4	2
<i>Bad health</i>						
2014	70	75	86	66	80	86
<i>Good health</i>	18	17	10	25	17	12
<i>Fair health</i>	11	8	4	8	3	3
<i>Bad health</i>						
2015	71	76	87	67	79	85
<i>Good health</i>	19	17	10	26	17	12
<i>Fair health</i>	9	6	3	7	4	3
<i>Bad health</i>	63	75	86	67	78	85

Source: EU-SILC, User Data Base

Table A7.8 Self-evaluated health and participation in the labour market, per cent, 2006-15

	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Denmark										
<i>Good health</i>	78	80	81	81	80	83	82	83	82	83
<i>Fair health</i>	63	61	66	64	65	69	65	64	66	74
<i>Bad health</i>	28	31	29	37	31	32	26	27	29	31
Finland										
<i>Good health</i>	77	79	79	78	73	75	76	76	77	76
<i>Fair health</i>	64	60	60	58	58	56	63	63	59	60
<i>Bad health</i>	31	23	31	31	26	25	25	31	33	32
Iceland										
<i>Good health</i>	84	85	84	78	77	79	77	80	79	81
<i>Fair health</i>	75	72	72	67	62	64	64	70	70	72
<i>Bad health</i>	32	35	44	26	23	27	26	23	22	21
Norway										
<i>Good health</i>	84	84	86	85	85	87	87	88	86	85
<i>Fair health</i>	68	68	74	68	67	71	70	74	70	70
<i>Bad health</i>	33	40	39	34	34	39	40	43	35	38
Sweden										
<i>Good health</i>	86	86	85	83	83	84	84	83	83	85
<i>Fair health</i>	66	70	69	67	69	71	71	68	75	71
<i>Bad health</i>	43	41	41	34	42	38	50	48	43	59

Source: EU-SILC, User Data Base

Table A7.9 Self evaluated health, total, men and women, in work, 2006-15

	Denmark			Finland			Iceland		
	Good health	Fair health	Bad health	Good health	Fair health	Bad health	Good health	Fair health	Bad health
2006									
<i>Men</i>	83	70	35	80	65	30	88	88	48
<i>Women</i>	74	56	23	74	63	32	79	63	22
<i>Total</i>	78	63	28	77	64	31	84	75	32
2007									
<i>Men</i>	84	73	40	82	59	25	89	82	42
<i>Women</i>	77	50	25	76	62	21	81	65	30
<i>Total</i>	80	61	31	79	60	23	85	72	35
2008									
<i>Men</i>	84	74	40	83	61	30	88	80	51
<i>Women</i>	78	59	22	76	59	32	80	64	38
<i>Total</i>	81	66	29	79	60	31	84	72	44
2009									
<i>Men</i>	83	66	34	80	61	29	80	74	44
<i>Women</i>	80	62	40	75	55	34	75	61	14
<i>Total</i>	81	64	37	78	58	31	78	67	26
2010									
<i>Men</i>	81	69	37	77	56	28	82	65	34
<i>Women</i>	79	60	26	69	60	23	71	60	17
<i>Total</i>	80	65	31	73	58	26	77	62	23
2011									
<i>Men</i>	86	76	36	79	58	25	82	72	25
<i>Women</i>	81	63	29	71	54	27	76	57	28
<i>Total</i>	83	69	32	75	56	25	79	64	27
2012									
<i>Men</i>	85	71	29	79	63	22	82	71	26
<i>Women</i>	79	59	23	73	62	28	72	57	26
<i>Total</i>	82	65	26	76	63	25	77	64	26
2013									
<i>Men</i>	85	65	29	79	63	32	79	63	32
<i>Women</i>	81	64	25	73	62	30	73	62	30
<i>Total</i>	83	64	27	76	63	31	80	70	23
2014									
<i>Men</i>	85	71	30	78	60	33	82	71	26
<i>Women</i>	79	61	29	75	58	33	77	69	20
<i>Total</i>	82	66	29	77	59	33	79	70	22
2015									
<i>Men</i>	86	79	34	78	62	32	84	76	22
<i>Women</i>	80	70	29	74	57	32	79	69	20
<i>Total</i>	83	74	31	76	60	32	81	72	21

Source: EU-SILC, User Data Base

Continues

Table A7.9 Self evaluated health, total, men and women, in work, 2006-15, continued

	Norway			Sweden		
	Good health	Fair health	Bad health	Good health	Fair health	Bad health
2006						
<i>Men</i>	88	71	45	88	66	49
<i>Women</i>	80	65	24	83	65	38
<i>Total</i>	84	68	33	86	66	43
2007						
<i>Men</i>	88	76	42	89	72	45
<i>Women</i>	80	61	38	84	69	39
<i>Total</i>	84	68	40	86	70	41
2008						
<i>Men</i>	89	79	44	87	69	48
<i>Women</i>	82	67	36	83	68	37
<i>Total</i>	86	74	39	85	69	41
2009						
<i>Men</i>	88	73	40	84	68	38
<i>Women</i>	83	62	29	81	67	32
<i>Total</i>	85	68	34	83	67	34
2010						
<i>Men</i>	87	73	35	86	71	38
<i>Women</i>	83	60	34	81	67	44
<i>Total</i>	85	67	34	83	69	42
2011						
<i>Men</i>	88	77	44	86	75	33
<i>Women</i>	85	64	35	82	69	41
<i>Total</i>	87	71	39	84	71	38
2012						
<i>Men</i>	88	76	44	84	75	58
<i>Women</i>	84	64	36	83	67	45
<i>Total</i>	87	70	40	84	71	50
2013						
<i>Men</i>	89	81	45	84	69	46
<i>Women</i>	86	66	42	82	67	50
<i>Total</i>	88	74	43	83	68	48
2014						
<i>Men</i>	89	78	39	86	78	46
<i>Women</i>	84	62	33	81	72	42
<i>Total</i>	86	70	35	83	75	43
2015						
<i>Men</i>	87	77	43	86	75	56
<i>Women</i>	83	62	34	84	69	60
<i>Total</i>	85	70	38	85	71	59

Source: EU-SILC, User Data Base

Table A7.10 Self evaluated health, working full-time or part-time, per cent, 2006-15

	Denmark			Finland			Iceland		
	Good health	Fair health	Bad health	Good health	Fair health	Bad health	Good health	Fair health	Bad health
2006									
<i>Full-time</i>	68	52	19	68	57	25	74	63	19
<i>Part-time</i>	10	11	9	8	7	7	9	12	13
2007									
<i>Full-time</i>	70	50	23	71	50	19	75	59	24
<i>Part-time</i>	10	11	7	8	10	4	10	14	11
2008									
<i>Full-time</i>	71	56	20	70	51	25	74	58	33
<i>Part-time</i>	10	11	10	9	9	6	10	13	10
2009									
<i>Full-time</i>	72	51	30	70	50	21	66	54	20
<i>Part-time</i>	9	13	7	7	8	10	12	14	6
2010									
<i>Full-time</i>	70	52	22	67	49	18	65	47	18
<i>Part-time</i>	10	12	10	6	9	7	11	15	5
2011									
<i>Full-time</i>	74	58	20	68	50	21	68	51	20
<i>Part-time</i>	9	10	12	7	7	5	11	13	7
2012									
<i>Full-time</i>	67	48	18	70	55	21	67	49	16
<i>Part-time</i>	15	16	8	6	7	4	10	15	9
2013									
<i>Full-time</i>	68	48	19	70	57	25	71	56	12
<i>Part-time</i>	15	16	8	6	6	5	9	13	11
2014									
<i>Full-time</i>	67	49	20	70	52	26	70	56	17
<i>Part-time</i>	15	16	10	7	7	7	9	13	6
2015									
<i>Full-time</i>	68	55	16	70	52	26	71	57	15
<i>Part-time</i>	15	19	15	6	8	7	10	15	6

Continues

Table A7.10 Self evaluated health, working full-time or part-time, per cent, 2006-15, continued

	Norway			Sweden		
	Good health	Fair health	Bad health	Good health	Fair health	Bad health
2006						
<i>Full-time</i>	74	54	26	69	44	23
<i>Part-time</i>	10	14	7	17	22	20
2007						
<i>Full-time</i>	75	57	27	69	46	22
<i>Part-time</i>	9	11	13	17	24	19
2008						
<i>Full-time</i>	78	61	30	69	44	24
<i>Part-time</i>	8	13	10	16	24	17
2009						
<i>Full-time</i>	77	53	25	66	42	20
<i>Part-time</i>	9	15	9	16	25	14
2010						
<i>Full-time</i>	76	53	23	68	48	25
<i>Part-time</i>	9	14	11	16	21	16
2011						
<i>Full-time</i>	78	58	25	67	50	22
<i>Part-time</i>	9	13	14	16	22	16
2012						
<i>Full-time</i>	79	58	31	67	50	32
<i>Part-time</i>	8	12	8	17	21	18
2013						
<i>Full-time</i>	80	61	32	67	48	30
<i>Part-time</i>	8	12	11	16	20	18
2014						
<i>Full-time</i>	77	55	27	68	48	32
<i>Part-time</i>	9	15	8	15	26	11
2015						
<i>Full-time</i>	77	55	28	71	49	39
<i>Part-time</i>	9	15	10	15	22	20

Source: EU-SILC, User Data Base

Table A7.11 Self-evaluated health, men and women, working part-time or full-time, per cent, 2006-15

	2006		2007		2008		2009		2010	
	Full-time	Part-time	Full-time	Part-time	Full-time	Part-time	Full-time	Part-time	Full-time	Part-time
Denmark										
<i>Men</i>										
Good health	80	4	81	3	81	3	79	4	77	4
Fair health	66	4	68	5	69	5	60	7	64	5
Bad health	27	8	33	7	29	12	30	5	26	11
<i>Women</i>										
Good health	56	18	59	18	61	16	66	14	62	17
Fair health	38	18	34	16	43	16	43	19	41	19
Bad health	13	9	17	8	14	8	30	9	18	8
Finland										
<i>Men</i>										
Good health	76	4	78	4	78	6	76	4	74	3
Fair health	61	5	51	8	56	5	56	5	51	5
Bad health	26	5	21	4	25	5	22	7	21	7
<i>Women</i>										
Good health	62	12	65	12	63	13	65	10	61	8
Fair health	53	9	50	12	46	12	43	12	46	14
Bad health	23	9	17	3	24	9	20	14	15	8
Iceland										
<i>Men</i>										
Good health	86	2	86	4	84	4	75	5	77	6
Fair health	82	5	78	3	73	7	69	5	55	11
Bad health	28	20	39	3	39	11	35	9	30	4
<i>Women</i>										
Good health	62	17	64	16	64	16	57	18	54	17
Fair health	43	20	43	22	44	20	39	22	41	19
Bad health	13	9	14	16	28	10	10	4	11	6
Norway										
<i>Men</i>										
Good health	85	3	86	2	87	2	86	2	84	3
Fair health	66	5	72	5	76	4	66	7	68	5
Bad health	40	5	35	7	40	3	34	6	27	8
<i>Women</i>										
Good health	62	18	63	16	67	15	67	16	68	15
Fair health	41	24	43	18	45	22	39	24	39	22
Bad health	16	9	20	18	22	14	17	12	19	14
Sweden										
<i>Men</i>										
Good health	82	6	82	6	81	6	78	6	79	6
Fair health	55	12	59	13	57	13	57	10	59	12
Bad health	32	17	33	12	34	14	27	10	29	9
<i>Women</i>										
Good health	56	27	56	28	55	28	53	29	55	26
Fair health	34	32	34	34	34	34	31	36	39	28
Bad health	16	22	15	24	17	20	16	17	23	21

Continues

Table A7.11 Self-evaluated health, men and women, working part-time or full-time, per cent, 2006-15, continued

	2011		2012		2013		2014		2015	
	Full-time	Part-time	Full-time	Part-time	Full-time	Part-time	Full-time	Part-time	Full-time	Part-time
Denmark										
<i>Men</i>										
Good health	83	3	80	5	79	5	80	5	81	5
Fair health	70	5	64	7	57	8	64	7	71	8
Bad health	25	11	21	8	24	6	23	6	22	13
<i>Women</i>										
Good health	66	16	55	24	57	24	55	24	55	25
Fair health	48	14	34	25	41	23	36	25	41	29
Bad health	17	12	15	8	15	10	17	12	12	17
Finland										
<i>Men</i>										
Good health	74	5	75	4	75	4	74	4	74	4
Fair health	54	5	60	3	60	3	56	4	56	5
Bad health	21	4	20	2	28	3	30	3	27	5
<i>Women</i>										
Good health	62	9	64	8	65	8	65	10	65	9
Fair health	45	9	50	12	52	9	46	12	47	10
Bad health	20	6	22	6	22	8	21	12	24	8
Iceland										
<i>Men</i>										
Good health	77	5	78	4	80	3	79	3	79	5
Fair health	69	3	65	6	67	8	65	6	69	6
Bad health	21	4	20	6	18	8	24	2	19	3
<i>Women</i>										
Good health	59	17	57	15	62	14	61	15	64	15
Fair health	33	23	34	24	47	18	50	19	47	22
Bad health	20	9	15	11	10	12	13	7	13	7
Norway										
<i>Men</i>										
Good health	86	2	86	2	87	2	85	3	84	4
Fair health	70	7	70	6	74	5	71	6	70	6
Bad health	29	15	41	3	38	7	32	6	38	5
<i>Women</i>										
Good health	68	17	70	14	72	14	69	15	69	14
Fair health	44	20	45	19	46	19	38	23	39	23
Bad health	21	14	23	13	27	14	24	9	22	12
Sweden										
<i>Men</i>										
Good health	80	6	78	6	78	6	79	7	80	6
Fair health	66	9	64	11	61	8	66	12	67	7
Bad health	21	11	47	11	34	12	38	8	48	8
<i>Women</i>										
Good health	55	26	56	27	57	25	57	24	61	24
Fair health	36	32	39	29	38	30	34	38	34	34
Bad health	22	19	22	22	27	22	29	13	34	25

Source: EU-SILC, User Data Base

Table A7.12 Share with chronic illness, men and women, 2006-15

	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Denmark										
<i>Men</i>	25	24	22	26	24	26	28	26	27	28
<i>Women</i>	34	31	27	31	30	31	29	31	30	32
Finland										
<i>Men</i>	40	40	38	39	38	42	43	44	42	43
<i>Women</i>	46	44	43	46	50	48	49	50	48	49
Iceland										
<i>Men</i>	22	15	24	26	26	27	26	26	27	26
<i>Women</i>	27	21	28	29	31	34	32	34	35	36
Norway										
<i>Men</i>	31	27	28	32	30	31	27	29	29	29
<i>Women</i>	36	33	36	40	38	40	34	38	38	37
Sweden										
<i>Men</i>	33	32	29	29	27	31	32	34	33	33
<i>Women</i>	37	37	37	36	34	36	38	40	41	40

Source: EU-SILC 2011-15, User Data Base

Table A7.13 Share living with limitations in activities, men and women, per cent, 2006-15

	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Denmark										
<i>Men</i>	21	23	22	20	25	25	26	28
<i>Women</i>	28	28	28	28	29	30	29	34
Finland										
<i>Men</i>	35	29	27	28	27	29	30	37	28	28
<i>Women</i>	41	33	32	33	35	33	36	44	34	36
Iceland										
<i>Men</i>	15	9	11	13	14	15	14	12	14	14
<i>Women</i>	22	15	16	17	19	20	20	22	23	24
Norway										
<i>Men</i>	18	16	12	14	14	16	11	12	12	11
<i>Women</i>	25	23	20	20	19	23	16	19	20	18
Sweden										
<i>Men</i>	17	16	14	12	12	19	14	19	10	9
<i>Women</i>	22	23	19	19	17	25	18	24	15	14

Source: EU-SILC 2011-15, User Data Base

Table A7.14 Share with chronic illness, age, 2006-15

	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Denmark										
<i>16-19 years</i>	18	15	15	19	17	15	13	16	14	14
<i>20-29</i>	16	17	16	17	17	14	17	14	16	18
<i>30-39</i>	22	18	15	19	21	21	19	18	16	21
<i>40-49</i>	27	25	21	26	27	25	25	23	24	24
<i>50-59</i>	35	36	31	31	28	29	30	30	32	32
<i>60-69</i>	36	36	33	39	36	38	35	34	34	36
<i>70 years and over</i>	46	39	36	46	38	40	41	42	38	40
Finland										
<i>16-19 years</i>	14	15	14	18	21	18	16	15	17	22
<i>20-29</i>	22	21	18	22	21	20	24	23	22	24
<i>30-39</i>	23	22	22	24	24	26	27	29	27	28
<i>40-49</i>	33	30	31	31	34	35	36	37	36	35
<i>50-59</i>	44	46	46	49	48	49	50	52	47	48
<i>60-69</i>	65	61	60	60	62	61	60	61	61	59
<i>70 years and over</i>	79	78	73	75	77	77	77	76	75	76
Iceland										
<i>16-19 years</i>	11	8	14	19	16	20	18	23	17	22
<i>20-29</i>	19	13	17	18	21	21	20	20	24	25
<i>30-39</i>	20	15	18	18	20	21	18	22	21	21
<i>40-49</i>	20	19	22	25	24	24	24	25	29	30
<i>50-59</i>	28	23	30	29	33	34	33	31	35	33
<i>60-69</i>	34	24	43	43	40	43	42	42	42	40
<i>70 years and over</i>	41	26	45	50	51	52	50	47	44	41
Norway										
<i>16-19 years</i>	20	17	23	20	21	25	22	20	22	23
<i>20-29</i>	19	17	22	27	27	28	22	25	22	26
<i>30-39</i>	21	21	25	28	24	24	24	26	25	23
<i>40-49</i>	31	27	30	33	32	33	30	29	31	29
<i>50-59</i>	37	34	36	37	36	37	32	36	34	32
<i>60-69</i>	48	42	41	47	44	42	36	40	42	41
<i>70 years and over</i>	57	51	44	52	47	50	40	47	47	46
Sweden										
<i>16-19 years</i>	19	15	17	19	12	12	19	22	19	16
<i>20-29</i>	21	19	21	17	18	18	20	21	23	23
<i>30-39</i>	25	22	20	23	21	22	24	25	24	22
<i>40-49</i>	34	32	27	26	28	29	31	32	30	28
<i>50-59</i>	40	40	38	36	35	37	38	38	37	36
<i>60-69</i>	44	48	47	44	40	43	45	45	47	46
<i>70 years and over</i>	52	54	53	54	48	50	49	53	53	56

Source: EU-SILC, User Data Base

Table A7.15 Share living with limitations in activities, age, 2006-15

	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Denmark										
<i>16-19 years</i>	17	6	17	17	17	17	12	20	15	17
<i>20-29</i>	20	10	20	17	17	17	15	16	15	20
<i>30-39</i>	19	10	19	18	21	23	21	20	18	25
<i>40-49</i>	21	14	21	24	26	24	24	24	23	25
<i>50-59</i>	29	24	29	29	26	24	30	30	31	32
<i>60-69</i>	30	21	30	31	29	26	32	31	32	35
<i>70 years and over</i>	34	24	34	38	32	31	37	36	38	40
Finland										
<i>16-19 years</i>	18	15	9	11	13	14	12	17	13	18
<i>20-29</i>	24	17	13	17	16	15	19	25	17	17
<i>30-39</i>	26	20	17	18	21	19	21	31	20	23
<i>40-49</i>	32	24	21	24	23	24	27	34	25	25
<i>50-59</i>	37	33	34	34	31	32	36	43	32	33
<i>60-69</i>	50	40	39	38	41	37	39	49	36	37
<i>70 years and over</i>	66	59	58	58	57	59	57	63	56	54
Iceland										
<i>16-19 years</i>	8	5	9	11	11	12	9	12	10	8
<i>20-29</i>	13	7	9	9	11	13	11	12	14	16
<i>30-39</i>	15	10	9	11	10	11	10	13	11	14
<i>40-49</i>	16	12	9	11	13	13	14	15	18	19
<i>50-59</i>	20	16	14	15	19	20	20	19	22	19
<i>60-69</i>	28	18	24	28	25	24	27	23	25	23
<i>70 years and over</i>	32	19	29	32	31	31	30	24	26	26
Norway										
<i>16-19 years</i>	11	9	5	7	5	12	11	6	5	6
<i>20-29</i>	10	8	8	8	10	14	7	7	8	10
<i>30-39</i>	12	13	11	12	11	11	8	10	11	10
<i>40-49</i>	21	17	15	15	16	18	13	14	16	14
<i>50-59</i>	25	23	20	18	18	19	15	19	18	16
<i>60-69</i>	32	28	21	23	23	25	15	20	21	17
<i>70 years and over</i>	39	35	27	31	24	32	21	25	23	22
Sweden										
<i>16-19 years</i>	6	8	7	8	4	10	5	14	4	6
<i>20-29</i>	10	10	7	6	6	12	8	12	5	6
<i>30-39</i>	13	12	8	9	8	13	9	14	8	7
<i>40-49</i>	21	18	12	10	13	17	14	17	9	8
<i>50-59</i>	23	22	20	19	18	24	17	24	13	13
<i>60-69</i>	24	26	24	21	18	28	21	24	14	13
<i>70 years and over</i>	32	33	33	30	27	38	27	34	22	19

Source: EU-SILC, User Data Base

Table A7.16 Logistic regression, likelihood of reporting good health, 2011-15¹

	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Denmark					
Women	0.82 ³	0.96	0.79 ³	0.85 ³	0.90
16-19 years	5.08 ³	6.97 ³	5.27 ³	7.34 ³	8.93 ³
20-24	2.30 ³	2.04 ³	2.84 ³	2.39 ³	2.90 ³
25-34	1.92 ³	1.57 ³	1.85 ³	1.40 ³	1.72 ³
45-54	0.87 ³	0.64 ³	0.68 ³	0.56 ³	0.79 ³
55-64	0.60 ³	0.47 ³	0.45 ³	0.39 ³	0.51 ³
65-74	0.55 ³	0.44 ³	0.55 ³	0.47 ³	0.59 ³
75 years +	0.43 ³	0.35 ³	0.38 ³	0.35 ³	0.50 ³
Primary education	0.39 ³	0.51 ³	0.49 ³	0.38 ³	0.40 ³
Upper secondary education	0.58	0.62 ³	0.61 ²	0.59	0.58
Unmarried/non-cohabitant	0.70 ³	0.66 ³	0.59 ³	0.67 ³	0.65 ³
Born in the EU	1.09 ²	1.45 ³	0.67	0.98	1.01
Born outside the EU	0.47 ³	0.48 ³	0.75	0.46 ³	0.60 ³
Finland					
Women	1.04	1.01	1.02	1.15 ³	1.09
16-19 years	2.76 ³	5.17 ³	5.14 ³	6.34 ³	3.78 ³
20-24	1.75 ³	2.03 ³	1.74 ³	3.92 ³	2.34 ³
25-34	1.83 ³	2.00 ³	1.60 ³	1.91 ³	1.45 ³
45-54	0.48 ³	0.58 ³	0.63 ³	0.61 ³	0.66 ³
55-64	0.23 ³	0.36 ³	0.36 ³	0.32 ³	0.39 ³
65-74	0.17 ³	0.29 ³	0.32 ³	0.26 ³	0.37 ³
75 years +	0.07 ³	0.16 ³	0.16 ³	0.12 ³	0.16 ³
Primary education	0.38 ³	0.40 ³	0.41 ³	0.37 ³	0.37 ³
Upper secondary education	0.53 ³	0.49 ³	0.55 ³	0.56	0.49 ³
Unmarried/non-cohabitant	0.72 ³	0.61 ³	0.68 ³	0.61 ³	0.67 ³
Born in the EU	0.63	0.69	0.78	0.91	0.89
Born outside the EU	0.58	0.58	0.62	0.75	0.76
Iceland					
Women	0.86	0.80 ³	0.76 ³	0.71 ³	0.66 ³
16-19 years	2.86 ³	2.38 ³	4.37 ³	3.52 ³	2.41 ³
20-24	1.96 ³	1.94 ³	2.28 ³	1.73 ³	1.69 ³
25-34	1.44 ³	1.42 ³	1.84 ³	1.50 ³	1.58 ³
45-54	0.64	0.68	0.79 ³	0.68 ³	0.66 ³
55-64	0.39 ³	0.39 ³	0.52 ³	0.46 ³	0.56 ³
65-74	0.27 ³	0.32 ³	0.40 ³	0.36 ³	0.39 ³
75 years +	0.21 ³	0.24 ³	0.28 ³	0.34 ³	0.33 ³
Primary education	0.26 ³	0.28 ³	0.31 ³	0.38 ³	0.33 ³
Upper secondary education	0.45	0.45	0.59	0.57	0.49
Unmarried/non-cohabitant	0.70 ³	0.59 ³	0.68 ³	0.72 ³	0.68 ³
Born in the EU	0.72	1.31 ³	1.11	1.07 ²	0.99
Born outside the EU	1.18	0.49 ³	0.74	0.41 ³	0.59 ²
Norway					
Women	0.85 ³	0.91 ²	0.89 ²	0.87 ³	0.83 ³
16-19 years	2.66 ³	3.96 ³	6.09 ³	6.24 ³	4.27 ³
20-24	2.31 ³	2.64 ³	2.21 ³	2.33 ³	1.85 ³
25-34	1.19 ²	1.47 ³	1.57 ³	1.77 ³	1.39 ³
45-54	0.79 ³	0.80 ³	0.81 ³	0.93 ³	0.76 ³
55-64	0.60 ³	0.61 ³	0.54 ³	0.53 ³	0.61 ³
65-74	0.52 ³	0.51 ³	0.51 ³	0.58 ³	0.51 ³
75 years +	0.41 ³	0.48 ³	0.43 ³	0.53 ³	0.43 ³
Primary education	0.27 ³	0.35 ³	0.34 ³	0.32 ³	0.34 ³
Upper secondary education	0.44 ³	0.49 ³	0.51 ³	0.53	0.52
Unmarried/non-cohabitant	0.67 ³	0.71 ³	0.66 ³	0.67 ³	0.69 ³
Born in the EU	0.75	1.30 ²	0.95	0.86	1.15
Born outside the EU	0.82	0.79 ²	0.66 ³	0.66 ³	0.78

Continues

Table A7.16 Logistic regression, likelihood of reporting good health, 2011-15¹, continued

	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Sweden					
<i>Women</i>	0.82 ³	0.80 ³	0.75 ³	0.77 ³	0.75 ³
<i>16-19 years</i>	3.92 ³	2.53 ³	2.65 ³	2.96 ³	4.49 ³
<i>20-24</i>	2.23 ³	1.96 ³	1.87 ³	2.54 ³	1.46 ³
<i>25-34</i>	1.52 ³	1.34 ³	1.20 ³	1.12	1.06
<i>45-54</i>	0.72 ³	0.72 ²	0.73 ²	0.77 ³	0.82
<i>55-64</i>	0.55 ³	0.48 ³	0.50 ³	0.64 ³	0.63 ³
<i>65-74</i>	0.47 ³	0.45 ³	0.48 ³	0.55 ³	0.50 ³
<i>75 years +</i>	0.26 ³	0.25 ³	0.27 ³	0.38 ³	0.29 ³
<i>Primary education</i>	0.37 ³	0.46 ³	0.40 ³	0.38 ³	0.45 ³
<i>Upper secondary education</i>	0.51 ³	0.60 ²	0.59	0.61	0.65
<i>Unmarried/non-cohabitant</i>	0.71 ³	0.67 ³	0.57 ³	0.63 ³	0.70 ³
<i>Born in the EU</i>	0.77	0.87	0.86	0.96	0.72
<i>Born outside the EU</i>	0.50 ³	0.62 ³	0.57 ³	0.66 ³	0.65 ²

1 Reference group: Not good health, men, 35-44 years, higher education, married/cohabitant, and native born

2 Sign at .90

3 Sign at .95

Source: EU-SILC 2011-15, User Database

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