

2010

the social report

te pūrongo oranga tangata



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Chief Executive's preface



The Social Report 2010 provides a picture of progress towards better social outcomes for New Zealanders. It shows how we are faring on a range of important social indicators and allows us to compare ourselves with people in other developed countries.

This year marks the 10th anniversary of the Social Report. This is an important milestone in the history of social reporting in New Zealand. Reliable information about how well New Zealanders are doing is critical to social progress.

The first edition of the Social Report was produced in 2001 by the Ministry of Social Policy. In 2002, the Ministry of Social Development undertook a review, inviting people around the country to give their views on the role of the Social Report and the things that were important to them. In the same year, the report was updated and translated into an online format for the first time. Counting the 2002 update, *The Social Report 2010* is the 10th edition and the third to be published online only. As in previous years, the report can be downloaded and printed by users who prefer to read a print copy.

In 2005, the coverage of the report was expanded to include regional council and territorial authority areas. We have continued to update and refine regional indicators each year since then.

An early challenge for those producing the Social Report was the limited range of data on social outcomes, both at a national and regional level. New social surveys have allowed us to fill some of these gaps. The latest of these is the New Zealand General Social Survey (NZGSS), a large, nationally-representative survey conducted by Statistics New Zealand. Data from this survey has been used for two new indicators in the 2010 report – voluntary work and overall life satisfaction – and to refresh several existing indicators.

The report now has a good balance between traditional, objective measures such as life expectancy and market income per person, and newer indicators that show how people feel about their lives. This approach is in line with international trends in monitoring social progress.

The high standard of the Social Report reflects the work of staff within the Ministry of Social Development as well as the support and expertise of analysts across the wider government sector. I would like to acknowledge the contribution of all of those who have been involved in producing this year's report.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Peter Hughes', written over a light grey background.

Peter Hughes
Chief Executive
Ministry of Social Development

Introduction

The Social Report 2010

The social report provides a picture of progress towards better social outcomes for New Zealanders. It uses a set of statistical indicators to monitor trends across key dimensions of people's lives at national, regional and territorial authority levels.

The Social Report 2010 builds on the social wellbeing framework established in *The Social Report 2001*. The report is updated and revised each year as new or better data becomes available. Counting the 2002 online update completed during a review of the first edition, this is the 10th edition.

This introduction outlines:

- the purpose of the social report
- what we mean by domains and social indicators
- our criteria for selecting indicators
- what's new in *The Social Report 2010*
- how we report outcomes for different groups of the population
- the timeliness of the data
- the structure of the report
- other indicator reports.

Purpose of the social report

The social report has four key aims:

- to report on social indicators that complement existing economic and environmental indicators
- to compare New Zealand with other countries on measures of wellbeing
- to contribute to better-informed public debate
- to aid planning and decision making and to help identify key areas for action.

The report shows us how people are faring in New Zealand, how this has changed over time, and how social outcomes vary for different groups in the population. It helps us to identify adverse trends at an early stage. While the report cannot always show what is driving these trends, it can point us to where there needs to be further analysis to help understand the changes and how to address them.

The trends identified in the social report are influenced by many factors. The economy, government policy, international factors, demographic changes and the decisions and choices of individuals, families, communities and businesses all affect social outcomes. The cross-cutting nature of many social issues means the social report is not a tool for evaluating the effectiveness of specific government policies.

Domains and social indicators

The Social Report 2010 presents 43 social wellbeing indicators in 10 outcome "domains" or areas of people's lives such as health, education, standard of living and safety. These are listed in Table IN1. The desired outcome statements for each domain are "ideal" outcomes, rather than specific targets.

The outcome domains are interconnected. Doing well or poorly in one domain is likely to affect performance in other domains. For example, poor educational outcomes are associated with higher levels of unemployment and lower incomes, which in turn are linked to housing affordability problems, poorer health and lower levels of life satisfaction.

Social indicators are statistical measures that can be repeated over time to illustrate changes in the quality of life or social wellbeing.

Some indicators measure change in the outcome of interest directly (eg median hourly earnings in the Paid Work domain). Others are known to be good predictors of later outcomes (eg cigarette smoking, in the Health domain, is a predictor of later health problems).

The social report indicators are a mixture of objective measures (eg obesity, assault mortality) and subjective measures that reflect how people feel about a situation (eg contact with family and friends, overall life satisfaction).

The key feature of a social indicator is that any change can be interpreted as progress towards, or a movement away from, the desired outcome. This distinguishes social indicators from other social statistics that cannot be interpreted this way. For example, while a rise in the median age of parents living with dependent children is a useful statistic for describing social change, the change itself cannot be said to be necessarily “good” or “bad”.

Criteria for selecting indicators

Our selection criteria help us to derive a balanced and manageable set of indicators from the mass of statistics available. Indicators for the social report have been selected against the following criteria:

- **relevant to the social outcome of interest** – the indicator should be the most accurate statistic for measuring both the level and extent of change in the social outcome of interest, and it should adequately reflect what it is intended to measure (ie it should be valid)
- **based on broad support** – there should be wide support for the indicators chosen so they report on a broadly shared understanding of wellbeing
- **grounded in research** – there should be sound evidence on key influences and factors affecting outcomes
- **able to be disaggregated** – ideally, it should be possible to break the data down by age, sex, socio-economic status, ethnicity, family or household type and region, so we can compare outcomes for different population groups
- **consistent over time** – the indicator should be able to be defined and measured consistently over time to enable the accurate monitoring of trends
- **statistically sound** – the indicator uses high-quality data and the method used to construct it is statistically robust
- **timely** – data should be collected and reported regularly to ensure indicators are providing up-to-date information
- **nationally significant** – the indicator reflects progress at a national level and is not confined to particular areas
- **internationally comparable** – as well as reflecting the social goals of New Zealanders, indicators should be consistent with those used in international monitoring programmes so we can make comparisons.

Trade-offs between these criteria are sometimes required. For example, it may be necessary to choose an indicator where data is produced at long intervals to ensure a consistent time series is available.

In some outcome domains, such as Health, there is an abundance of good data from which to draw appropriate indicators. In other outcome domains, such as Cultural Identity and Leisure and Recreation, there is less good-quality, relevant data available, resulting in fewer indicators in these domains.

What's new in *The Social Report 2010*

We introduce two new indicators in this report: voluntary work (in the Social Connectedness domain) and overall life satisfaction (in a new Life Satisfaction domain). A revised contact with family and friends indicator replaces the former indicator on regular contact with family and friends. These three new and revised indicators use data from the first New Zealand General Social Survey (NZGSS).

The NZGSS is the source of new information for another two indicators: perceived discrimination (personal discrimination), and voter turnout (age, ethnic group and other characteristics of voters). The telephone and internet access in the home indicator has been updated using the 2009 Household Use of Information and Communication Technology survey, while the participation in arts and cultural activities indicator is now based on a 2009 survey commissioned by Creative New Zealand.

We have deleted two indicators from this year's report: air quality and drinking-water quality. We consider they have limitations which reduce their usefulness as social indicators. Both are available in environmental indicator reports (see Other indicator reports and Appendix 1 for details). Because these were the only indicators in the Physical Environment domain, this domain is not included in the report. We will review options for environmental indicators for future reports.

A full summary of the changes to this report is provided in Appendix 1. Technical details about indicator construction and data sources are in Appendix 2.

The 43 indicators for *The Social Report 2010* are set out in Table IN1. Twenty-nine of them have new information this year and these indicators are shown in **bold** type. They include the two new indicators. For those indicators that have not been updated, it is either because they are based on surveys that are not repeated annually, or because new data was not available in time to be included in this year's report.

Table IN1 ***The Social Report 2010* outcome domains and indicators (updated indicators in bold)**

Health

Desired outcome statement

Everybody has the opportunity to enjoy a long and healthy life. Avoidable deaths, disease and injuries are prevented. Everybody has the ability to function, participate and live independently or appropriately supported in society.

Indicators

Health expectancy
Life expectancy
Suicide
Cigarette smoking (partial update)
Obesity (international comparison updated)
Potentially hazardous drinking (international comparison updated)

Knowledge and skills

Desired outcome statement

Everybody has the knowledge and skills needed to participate fully in society. Lifelong learning and education are valued and supported.

Indicators

Participation in early childhood education
School leavers with higher qualifications
Participation in tertiary education
Educational attainment of the adult population
 Adult literacy skills in English

Paid work

Desired outcome statement

Everybody has access to meaningful, rewarding and safe employment. An appropriate balance is maintained between paid work and other aspects of life.

Indicators

Unemployment
Employment
Median hourly earnings
Work-related injury claims
 Satisfaction with work-life balance

Economic standard of living

Desired outcome statement

New Zealand is a prosperous society, reflecting the value of both paid and unpaid work. Everybody has access to an adequate income and decent, affordable housing that meets their needs. With an adequate standard of living, people are well-placed to participate fully in society and to exercise choice about how to live their lives.

Indicators

Market income per person
Income inequality
Population with low incomes
Housing affordability
Household crowding

Civil and political rights

Desired outcome statement

Everybody enjoys civil and political rights. Mechanisms to regulate and arbitrate people's rights in respect of each other are trustworthy.

Indicators

Voter turnout (voter characteristics, international comparison updated)
Representation of women in government (international comparison updated)
Representation of ethnic groups in government
Perceived discrimination (now includes personal discrimination with international comparison)
Perceived corruption

Cultural identity

Desired outcome statement

New Zealanders share a strong national identity, have a sense of belonging and value cultural diversity. Everybody is able to pass their cultural traditions on to future generations. Māori culture is valued and protected.

Indicators

Local content programming on New Zealand television
Māori language speakers
Language retention

Leisure and recreation

Desired outcome statement

Everybody is satisfied with their participation in leisure and recreation activities. They have sufficient time to do what they want to do and can access an adequate range of opportunities for leisure and recreation.

Indicators

Satisfaction with leisure time
Participation in physical activity
Participation in arts and cultural activities (revised with new data source)

Safety

Desired outcome statement

Everybody enjoys physical safety and feels secure. People are free from victimisation, abuse, violence and avoidable injury.

Indicators

Assault mortality
Criminal victimisation
Fear of crime
Road casualties

Social connectedness

Desired outcome statement

People enjoy constructive relationships with others in their families, whānau, communities, iwi and workplaces. Families and communities support and nurture those in need of care. New Zealand is an inclusive society where people are able to access information and support.

Indicators

Telephone and internet access in the home
Contact with family and friends (revised with new data source)
Contact between young people and their parents
Trust in others
Loneliness
Voluntary work (new indicator)

Life satisfaction

(New domain)

Indicator

Overall life satisfaction (new indicator)

Reporting outcomes for different groups of the population

Ideally, each indicator should be able to be broken down by population characteristics such as age, sex, ethnicity, socio-economic status, disability status and by regional council and territorial authority areas. Most indicators include information by age, sex and ethnicity.

For the majority of indicators, disaggregation by socio-economic status or disability status is not possible because the indicators rely on data sources that do not collect this information, or the sample sizes are too small to allow such a breakdown. The way we present data for ethnic groups is constrained by the way it has been collected. Definitions of ethnicity are inconsistent across data sources and change over time.

Population and indicator data for regions and territorial authority boundaries is available in a regional social report section of the social report website. The regional section uses the same indicators as the national report, or aligned indicators where equivalent data is not available. Time series data is provided where possible.

Timeliness of the data

The report uses the most recent data available at the time of production. For indicators based on annual data, this is generally the most recent year. For indicators based on mortality data (suicide and assault mortality) there can be a considerable lag between the year of occurrence and the release of data because of the time it takes to establish the cause of death. A number of indicators rely on data from the five-yearly population census, either directly (eg household crowding) or indirectly (eg life expectancy for the Māori population).

Structure of the report

The social report is organised into three sections.

The first part of the report, the People section, provides background and contextual information on changes in the size and composition of the New Zealand population.

The second section is the core of the report. It is organised around the 10 outcome domains listed in Table IN1. Within each outcome domain, a set of indicators shows how well New Zealanders are doing in that area of life.

The final section, the Summary, looks across the report and reviews how social outcomes have changed since the mid-to-late 1990s, how New Zealand compares with other OECD countries, and how different population groups are faring.

Population information and indicators at the regional and territorial authority level is available separately on the website.

Other indicator reports

Government agencies publish indicator reports on a wide range of different outcomes. Many of these reports are useful complements to the social report:

Economic Development Indicators report.¹ Published jointly by the Ministry of Economic Development, The Treasury and Statistics New Zealand, this report provides a picture of New Zealand's economic performance. The fourth edition is scheduled for release in late 2010.

Environmental Health Indicators for New Zealand 2008.² Published annually by the Ministry of Health since 2004, this report focuses on air quality, water quality and border health protection, and highlights environmental health trends.

Environment New Zealand 2007.³ Published by the Ministry for the Environment for the first time in January 2008, it reports on a core set of national environmental indicators.

Measuring New Zealand's Progress Using a Sustainable Development Approach: 2008.⁴ Published by Statistics New Zealand in July 2009, this report focuses on New Zealand's environmental, economic and social progress within a sustainable development framework.

In addition to the social report, which covers the whole population, the Ministry of Social Development has published indicator reports about New Zealand's youngest and oldest populations: *Children and Young People: Indicators of wellbeing in New Zealand 2008* and *Positive Ageing Indicators 2007*.⁵ These reports rely more heavily on data from the five-yearly population census and can be updated less frequently. The next census will be held in 2011.

Feedback

We welcome your feedback and suggestions about how you think the report can best be refined.

Comments can be made to:

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The social report website address is:

www.socialreport.msd.govt.nz

The social report monitors outcomes for the New Zealand population. This section contains background information on the size and characteristics of the population to provide a context for the indicators that follow.

People

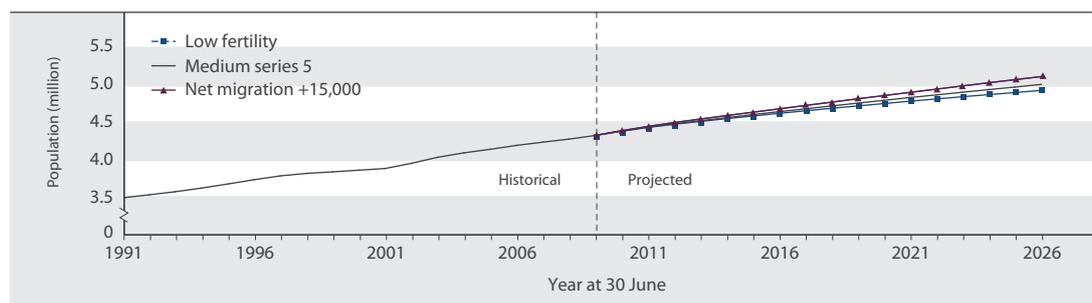
Population size and growth

New Zealand's resident population reached 4 million in 2003 and was estimated to be 4.35 million at the end of December 2009.

During 2009, the population grew by 55,600 or 1.3 percent. This was higher than the rate of growth recorded in 2008 (39,000 or 0.9 percent) and higher than the average annual increase during the decade ended December 2009 (49,600 or 1.2 percent).⁶

Under 2009-based medium population projection assumptions, the population growth rate is expected to drop from 1.3 percent in 2010 to 0.9 percent by 2013, then gradually slow to 0.7 percent a year between 2022 and 2026. Such growth rates would add around 676,100 people to the population between 2009 and 2026.⁷

Figure P1 **Estimated and projected resident population, 1991–2026**



Source: Statistics New Zealand

Note: All three projection series assume medium mortality (life expectancy at birth 85.6 years for males, 88.7 years for females by 2061). The low fertility series (total fertility rate of 1.7 births per woman by 2026) and the medium series assume a long-run annual net migration gain of 10,000 from 2013. The medium series and the high migration series assume medium fertility (total fertility rate of 1.9 births per woman by 2026).

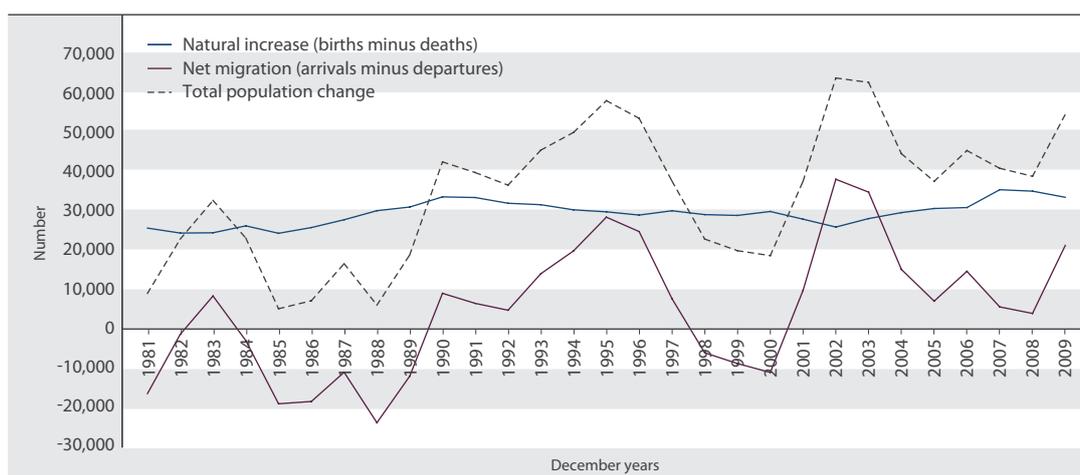
Components of population change

Changes in national population size are driven by two factors: natural increase (births minus deaths) and net external migration.

Births registered in the December 2009 year exceeded deaths registered in that year by 33,600, below the 35,200 recorded in 2008. Historically, natural increase has been the main component of population growth in New Zealand, but its contribution is set to decline gradually as the population ages and fertility remains stable. By 2026, natural increase is projected to be about 23,600 a year.

The number of people coming to live in New Zealand in 2009 exceeded those leaving the country to live elsewhere by 21,300. This was well above the net migration gain of 3,800 in 2008 and higher than the annual average of 11,900 for the December years 1990–2009. In the December 2009 year, the net gain from permanent and long-term migration accounted for 39 percent of the population growth.

Figure P2 **Components of population change, 1982–2009**



Source: Statistics New Zealand

Notes: (1) Before 1991, estimated population change was based on the de facto population concept. From 1991 onwards, population change was based on the resident population concept. (2) Net migration refers to net permanent and long-term migration.

The increased gain from net migration in 2009 was mainly due to a decline in long-term departures to Australia, from a record net outflow of 35,400 in 2008 to 18,000 in 2009.

The main contributing countries to the net migration gain in 2009 were the United Kingdom (9,100), India (6,000), China (3,800), the Philippines (2,300), and Fiji (2,200). The United Kingdom has been New Zealand's leading net source of migrants since 2004.

Over the decade to 2009, New Zealand had a net gain of 138,800 migrants. Adults aged 25–49 years contributed more than half of this gain (54 percent), with young people aged 15–19 years (25 percent) and children aged under 15 years (19 percent) accounting for most of the remainder. Among adult migrants aged 25–49 years, the sex ratio was about equal for those arriving in New Zealand over the decade, but among those leaving the country, males slightly outnumbered females.

For long-term migrants who are New Zealand citizens, there was a net outflow of 15,500 in 2009, less than half the net outflow of the previous year (37,000). Long-term departures for this group fell from 60,600 in 2008 to 41,600 in 2009. In comparison, arrivals numbered 26,100 in 2009, higher than the 23,600 recorded in 2008 and the average of 23,500 for the period 1979–2009.

Two-thirds (67 percent) of New Zealand nationals returning home in 2009 after a long-term absence came from either Australia or the United Kingdom. These two countries were also the most popular destinations for New Zealand citizens departing for a permanent or long-term absence.

There was a net inflow of 36,700 non-New Zealand citizens in 2009, down slightly from 40,900 in 2008. The net inflow of non-New Zealand citizens more than doubled between 2000 and 2002 (from 26,600 to 54,900), then fell to 32,000 in 2005 and recovered slightly to 38,200 in 2006 and 2007. The Auckland region was the destination for more than half (52 percent) of all non-New Zealand citizens who arrived in 2009 for long-term residence, followed by Canterbury (13 percent) and the Wellington region (10 percent).

People born overseas

Overseas-born people make up an increasing proportion of the New Zealand population. At the time of the 2006 Census there were 879,500 overseas-born people living in New Zealand, making up 23 percent of the country's population compared with 19 percent in 2001 and 18 percent in 1996.

The composition of New Zealand's overseas-born population is also changing, reflecting the changes in New Zealand's immigration patterns. The United Kingdom and Ireland – historically the major sources of New Zealand's immigrants – still account for the largest share of New Zealand's overseas-born population, but at 29 percent in 2006 this was considerably lower than the 1996 figure of 38 percent. Over the same period there were also falls in the proportion of overseas-born residents who were born in Australia, the Pacific Islands and the other countries of North-West Europe.

The largest growth was in the North-East Asia category. This was mainly because of an increase in the number of people born in the People's Republic of China, from 19,500 to 78,100 between 1996 and 2006. The Southern and Central Asia category also increased markedly, reflecting a more-than-threefold increase in the Indian-born population from 12,800 to 43,300. The largest proportionate increase was in the sub-Saharan Africa group, largely the result of an almost fourfold increase in the South African born population, from 11,300 to 41,700.

Table P1 **Birthplaces of the overseas-born population, 1996 and 2006**

Birthplace	Census year			
	1996		2006	
	Number	%	Number	%
Australia	54,711	9.0	62,742	7.1
Pacific Islands	99,258	16.4	135,852	15.4
United Kingdom and Ireland	230,049	38.0	251,688	28.6
North-West Europe	39,168	6.5	44,103	5.0
Southern and Eastern Europe	16,431	2.7	23,964	2.7
North Africa and the Middle East	7,245	1.2	16,533	1.9
South-East Asia	37,332	6.2	58,266	6.6
North-East Asia	61,179	10.1	135,168	15.4
Southern and Central Asia	19,410	3.2	57,699	6.6
The Americas	22,629	3.7	34,383	3.9
Sub-Saharan Africa	17,439	2.9	59,118	6.7
Total with overseas birthplace specified	604,851	100.0	879,516	100.0

Source: Statistics New Zealand (2007c) Table 7

Significant proportions of New Zealand's immigrant population are relatively recent arrivals in the country. In 2006, almost a third (32 percent) of overseas-born residents had lived here for less than five years, while a further 17 percent had lived here for between five and nine years.

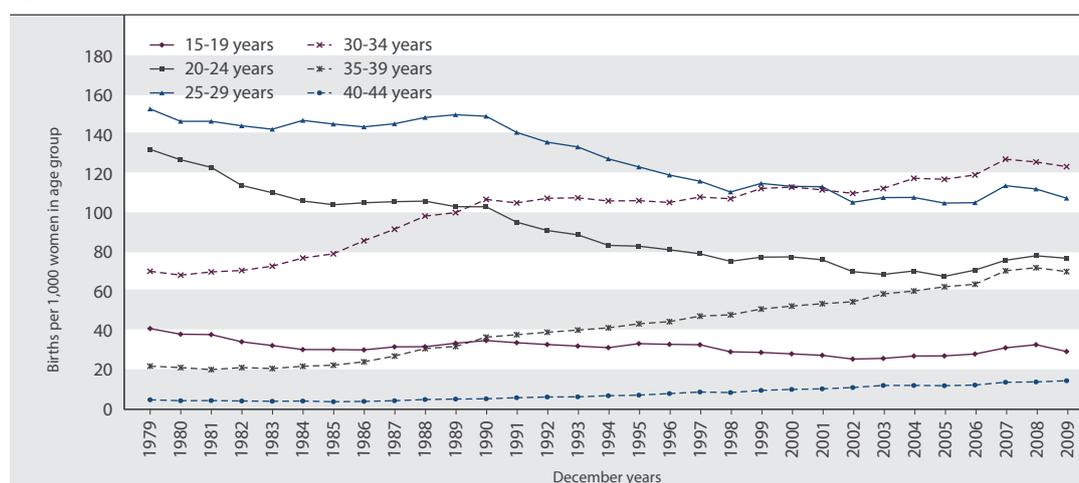
New Zealand's immigrant population is disproportionately concentrated in the Auckland region. In 2006, over half (52 percent) of the overseas-born population lived in Auckland, which was home to 32 percent of the country's total population. People born in Pacific and Asian countries had particularly high concentrations in Auckland (73 percent and 66 percent respectively). Overseas-born people were under-represented in all other regions with the exception of Wellington, which was home to 11 percent of both the overseas-born and the total populations.

Fertility

The number of live births registered in New Zealand fell from 64,300 in the December 2008 year to 62,500 in the December 2009 year. This fall ended a rising trend since 2002, when birth numbers were relatively low at 54,000.

Fertility rates increased for all age groups between 2002 and 2008 and fell for all age groups but one (the 40–44 year age group) between 2008 and 2009. At all ages below 30 years, women are less likely to give birth than their counterparts two decades ago, while women in their thirties and early forties are more likely to do so. Since 2002, women aged 30–34 years have had the highest fertility rate of all age groups.

Figure P3 Age-specific fertility rates, 1979–2009



Source: Statistics New Zealand

The median age of New Zealand women giving birth has risen from 27 years in the 1980s to around 30 years since 2002. The median age of first-time mothers was 28 years in 2009 and has been stable over the last decade. This figure is based on children of the current relationship only.

Age at childbearing varies widely by ethnicity. Māori and Pacific women giving birth tend to be younger, with a median age of 26 years and 27 years, respectively, in 2009. The median age at maternity was 30 years for Asian women and 31 years for European women.

The total fertility rate summarises the potential impact of current fertility patterns on completed family size. The total fertility rate for the December 2009 year indicates that New Zealand women averaged 2.12 births per woman. This was a decline from 2.18 births per woman in the December 2008 year but higher than the relatively low fertility year of 2002, when the total fertility rate was 1.89 births per woman. New Zealand's total fertility rate has been relatively stable over the last three decades, averaging 2.01 births per woman. During this period, the total fertility rate varied from 2.18 births per woman in 1990 and 2008 to 1.89 in 1998 and 2002.

New Zealand is one of several OECD countries that has experienced increases in fertility rates in recent years. The other countries include the United States, Ireland, Australia, England and Wales, Scotland, the Nordic countries, France and Canada. Of these, only New Zealand, the United States and Ireland reached replacement-level total fertility rates of at least 2.1 births per woman. Like New Zealand, the United States experienced a slight decline in fertility in the most recent year (from 2.12 births per woman in 2007 to 2.09 in 2008).

Table P2 Total fertility rate and teenage fertility rate, New Zealand and selected countries, latest year

Country	Year	Total fertility rate	Teenage fertility rate ⁽¹⁾
Australia	2008	1.97	17.3
Canada	2007	1.66	14.0
Denmark	2008	1.89	6.2
England and Wales	2008	1.97	26.0
Finland	2008	1.85	8.7
France	2008	2.00	7.8
Ireland	2008	2.10	17.4
Japan	2008	1.37	4.9
Netherlands	2008	1.77	3.9
New Zealand	2009	2.12	29.6
Norway	2008	1.96	9.3
Scotland	2008	1.80	26.7
Sweden	2008	1.91	6.0
Switzerland	2008	1.48	3.0
United States	2008	2.09	41.5

Source: Statistics New Zealand and national statistical organisation websites

Notes: (1) Births to females under 20 years per 1,000 females aged 15–19 years, except for the United States which includes births to 15–19 year olds only. (2) The teenage birth rate for Japan is for 2007; the rate for France is for 2005. (3) The 2008 rates for the United States and the 2008 total fertility rate for France are provisional.

New Zealand's comparatively high fertility rate reflects, in part, the higher fertility rates of Māori and Pacific women as well as the higher share of Māori and Pacific women in the female population of childbearing age. The total fertility rate for Māori women in 2009 was 2.80 births per woman, down from 2.95 in 2008. For ethnic groups other than Māori, the most recent fertility rates are for the three-year period centred on the 2006 Census. The rate for Pacific women in 2005–2007 was 2.95 births per woman. Of all live births registered in 2009, those registered to Māori women accounted for 23 percent, while those registered to Pacific women made up 12 percent.

In comparison, total fertility rates for European and Asian women in 2005–2007 were 1.92 births per woman and 1.52 births per woman, respectively. In 2009, 66 percent of all live births were registered to European women and 11 percent to Asian women. Mothers who identify with more than one ethnic group are counted once in each group reported.

Teenage fertility rates have fluctuated over the past decade. In 2009, the teenage (under 20 years) fertility rate was 29.6 births per 1,000 females aged 15–19 years, a decline from 33.1 per 1,000 in 2008. The teenage fertility rate for Māori women was 71.6 per 1,000 in 2009, down from 80.7 per 1,000 in 2008. For non-Māori women under 20 years, the rate fell from 20.3 per 1,000 in 2008 to 18.4 per 1,000 in 2009. Between 1996 and 2002, the teenage fertility rate fell from 33.3 to 25.8 births per 1,000 females aged 15–19 years, but had recovered to the 1996 level by 2008.

The birth rate for Pacific females aged 15–19 years declined from 47.4 per 1,000 in 2000–2002 to 42.5 per 1,000 in 2005–2007. Over the same period, the birth rate for Asian teens fell from 7.4 to 6.9 per 1,000 females aged 15–19 years.

New Zealand has a relatively high rate of childbearing at young ages compared with most other developed countries. At 29.6 births per 1,000 females aged 15–19 years in 2009, the New Zealand teenage birth rate is higher than the rate in England and Wales (26.0 per 1,000 in 2008), Scotland (26.7 in 2008), Ireland (17.4 in 2008), Australia (17.3 in 2008) and Canada (14.0 in 2007), but considerably lower than that of the United States (41.5 per 1,000 in 2008). Historical patterns and cultural differences in the timing of childbearing, and New Zealand's relatively high overall fertility, partly explain the differences between countries.

Distribution of the population

Over three-quarters (76 percent) of the population live in the North Island, and one-third (33 percent) lives in the Auckland region.

Population growth in the Auckland region accounted for almost half (46 percent) of New Zealand's total population growth between June 2008 and June 2009. The majority (70 percent) of the Auckland region's population growth over the year to June 2009 was attributable to natural increase.

The Māori population is heavily concentrated in the North Island (87 percent), but only 24 percent of Māori lived in the Auckland region at the 2006 Census.

The New Zealand population is highly urbanised. At the 2006 Census, 86 percent of the population was living in an urban area. This includes 72 percent living in main urban areas (population of 30,000 or more), 6 percent living in secondary urban areas (10,000–29,999) and 8 percent living in minor urban areas (1,000–9,999).

There are marked ethnic differences in urbanisation, with the vast majority of Pacific peoples, Asian and Other ethnic groups living in main urban areas and very few in rural areas.

Table P3 **Urban and rural residence (%), by ethnic group, 2006**

	European	Māori	Pacific peoples	Asian	Other	Total
Main urban area (30,000+)	69	65	92	94	91	72
Secondary urban area (10,000–29,999)	7	7	3	2	2	6
Minor urban area (1,000–9,999)	9	13	2	2	3	8
Total urban	84	84	97	98	96	86
Rural	16	16	2	2	4	14
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Statistics New Zealand, 2006 Census, unpublished data

Notes: (1) "New Zealander" is included in European. (2) Middle Eastern, Latin American and African groups are included in Other.

Ethnic composition of the population

The ethnic diversity of New Zealand's population will continue to increase, according to ethnic population projections for the period 2006–2026 released in 2010. The projections referred to here use medium assumptions about fertility, mortality and migration, and medium changes in ethnic identity over that period.⁸

While the European or Other population (which includes the category "New Zealander") will continue to grow and retain the largest share, this share is projected to fall from 77 percent in mid-2006 to 70 percent in 2026. The declining share of the European or Other population reflects a relatively low average annual growth rate of 0.4 percent.

The Asian, Pacific and Māori ethnic groups are growing faster and will increase their share of the New Zealand population. For Māori, the increase in population share will be small: from 15 percent in 2006 to 16 percent in 2026. The share of Pacific peoples is projected to increase from 7 percent of the population in 2006 to 10 percent in 2026. The Asian population is projected to have the largest relative growth, averaging 3.4 percent a year. Their share of the population will increase from 10 percent in 2006 to 16 percent in 2026. While people of all other ethnicities make up less than 1 percent of the population, since 1991 they have grown in number faster than any of the major ethnic groups.

For the Māori and Pacific ethnic groups, the projected increase in population share is mainly driven by their relatively high rates of birth and natural increase, although ethnic intermarriage also makes an important contribution. The increase in the Asian population share is largely driven by levels of net migration (a net inflow of about 250,000 migrants over the 20-year period, under medium projection assumptions). The slow growth of the European or Other population is an outcome of lower fertility and an older age structure than the other major ethnic groups, as well as of a net migration outflow of around 40,000 over the 20-year projection period.⁹

Table P4 **Ethnic share (%) of New Zealand population, by age group, 2006, 2016 and 2026**

Year / Age group (years)	European or Other (including "New Zealander")	Māori	Asian	Pacific peoples	Middle Eastern, Latin American, African
2006 (estimate at 30 June)					
0–17	72	24	10	12	1.2
18–24	67	18	17	9	1.3
25–44	74	14	12	7	1.2
45–64	82	10	7	4	0.6
65+	91	5	4	2	0.2
Total	77	15	10	7	0.9
2016 (projected)					
0–17	69	26	13	15	..
18–24	66	19	16	11	..
25–44	67	15	18	8	..
45–64	77	11	10	5	..
65+	87	6	6	3	..
Total	73	16	13	8	..
2026 (projected)					
0–17	66	27	17	17	..
18–24	64	21	18	13	..
25–44	63	15	20	9	..
45–64	72	12	14	6	..
65+	82	7	9	3	..
Total	70	16	16	10	..

Source: Statistics New Zealand

Notes: (1) People who identify with more than one ethnicity are included in each ethnic population they identify with. (2) The symbol .. means not available. (3) See Appendix 2 for projection assumptions.

Ethnic diversity varies by age: among those aged under 18 years at 30 June 2006, people with a European or Other ethnicity made up 72 percent, Māori 24 percent, Pacific peoples 12 percent, Asian peoples 10 percent, and people of all other ethnicities 1 percent. Among those aged 65 years and over, people with a European or Other ethnicity made up 91 percent, Māori 5 percent, Asian peoples 4 percent, Pacific peoples 2 percent and people of other ethnicities 0.2 percent. The 18–24 years age group, which includes people who come to New Zealand to study, had the greatest ethnic diversity, with only 67 percent of European or Other ethnicity.

The number of people who identify with more than one ethnic group is increasing. At the 2006 Census, 91 percent of the population identified with only one ethnic group, down from 96 percent in 1991. Younger people are far more likely to identify with more than one ethnic group than older people. In 2006, 18 percent of children aged under 15 years were reported as belonging to two or more ethnic groups, compared with 3 percent of people aged 65 years and over. Birth registration data for the December 2009 year shows that 25 percent of babies belonged to more than one ethnic group, compared with 13 percent of mothers. Belonging to multiple ethnic groups is most common among Māori: two-thirds of Māori children born in 2009 belonged to more than one ethnic group, compared with one-half of Pacific babies, and one-third of European and Asian babies.¹⁰

The figures for the ethnic distribution used in this section are based on the number of people identifying with each ethnicity. Because people can identify with more than one ethnicity, the total number of ethnic responses may be greater than the number of people. Elsewhere in the report, the approach to measuring ethnicity varies with the data source used.

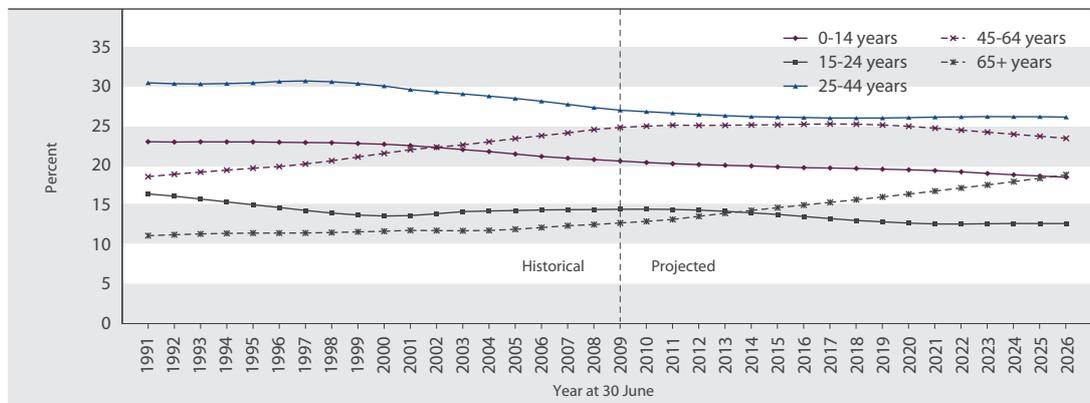
Age and sex structure of the population

Just over half of the New Zealand population is female (51 percent in 2009). Although there are more males than females born and males outnumber females among children and youth, the sex ratio changes in adulthood. For example, in the year to December 2009 there were more females than males in every age group from 25–29 years onwards. The sex ratio dropped from 105 males for every 100 females at ages 15–24 years, to 93 males per 100 females at ages 25–49 years. This reversal reflects higher mortality among males, particularly at ages 20–29 years, and sex differences in net migration at the peak migrant ages of 25–49 years. At older ages, the difference reflects higher male mortality rates.

The New Zealand population is ageing: the median age of the total population was 37 years in 2009, and it is expected to rise to 39 years in 2026.¹¹

The proportion of the population under 15 years of age has declined from 23 percent in 1991 to 21 percent in 2009 and it is expected to fall to 19 percent by 2026. The population aged 65 years and over has increased from 11 percent of the total population in 1991 to 13 percent in 2009. It is expected to reach 19 percent in 2026, the same share of the population as children.

Figure P4 **Age distribution of the population, 1991–2026**



Source: Statistics New Zealand

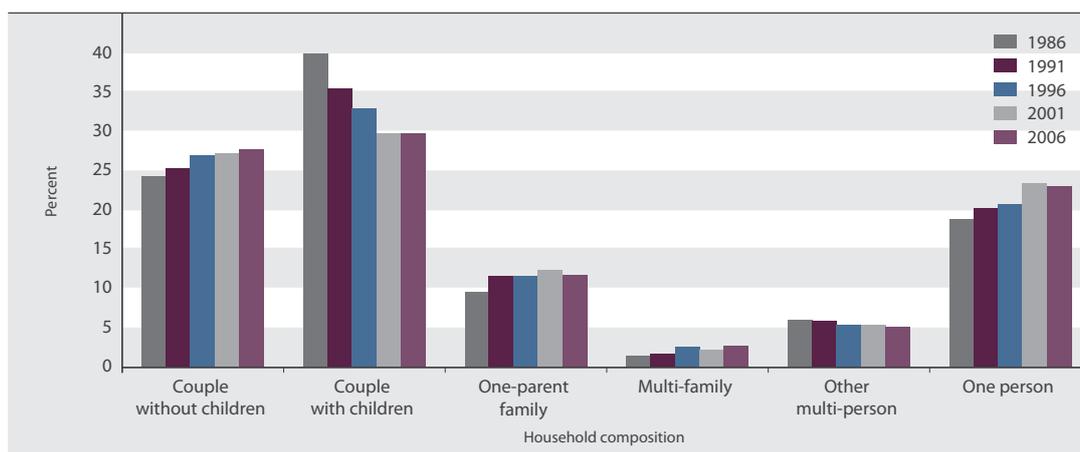
Age structure varies by ethnic group. At 30 June 2006, the European or Other population was the oldest, with a median age of 38 years, followed by the Asian population (28 years), the Māori population (23 years) and Pacific peoples (22 years). By 2026, half of all Māori are projected to be older than 25 years and half of all Pacific peoples will be older than 23 years. Over the same period, the median age of the Asian population is expected to rise to 35 years, while for the European or Other population it will rise to 42 years.¹²

Household composition

A household may contain a single person living alone, or two or more people who usually live together and share facilities, either as families (couples, parents with children) or as groups of individuals flatting together. There were 1.45 million households in New Zealand at the 2006 Census, an increase of 8 percent over the number recorded in 2001 and 34 percent higher than the number in 1986.

Twenty-eight percent of households contained couples without children in 2006, 30 percent contained two-parent families with children, 12 percent were one-parent family households, 3 percent contained more than one family, 5 percent comprised a group of individuals and 23 percent were one-person households.

Figure P5 **Distribution of households, by household composition, 1986–2006**



Source: Statistics New Zealand

Couple-only and one-person households are the fastest growing household types and are projected to increase the most over the next 15 years. Population ageing is the major factor behind both of these changes. But declining fertility and the closing gap between male and female life expectancy are also contributing to the rising number of couples without children. Delayed marriage, divorce and changing lifestyle preferences are other factors contributing to the growing number of one-person households.

Parents with dependent children living in other households

Many parents who have separated from their spouse or partner have children living in another household. Because family statistics are household based, these parent-child relationships are not counted.

The 2008 New Zealand General Social Survey showed around 240,000 respondents or their partners had children under 18 years who did not live in the same household as them. Of these people with children living in other households, the largest group (around 80,000 or 33 percent), had a partner and dependent children living in their own household. A further 29 percent lived with a partner but had no dependent children in the household, while 27 percent had neither a partner nor dependent children in the same household. The remaining 11 percent of people with children under 18 years living elsewhere comprised sole parents with dependent children living with them.

Families with dependent children

In 2006, there were 515,800 families with dependent children (aged under 18 years and not in full-time employment) living within New Zealand households. They made up 80 percent of the 641,500 families with children of any age.¹³

The number of families with dependent children increased by 8 percent in the five years to 2006, the largest increase since the census count of families began in 1976. The number of two-parent families with dependent children grew faster than the number of one-parent families (9 percent, compared with 3 percent). As a result, the proportion of families with dependent children headed by one parent fell slightly, from 29 percent in 2001 to 28 percent in 2006. By 2031, one-parent families with dependent children are projected to account for 34 percent of all families with dependent children, according to the 2006-based mid-range family projection released in 2010.

Table P5 **Families with dependent children, by family type, 1976–2006**

	1976	1981	1986	1991	1996	2001	2006
	Number						
Two-parent family	398,772	380,886	363,489	339,681	346,086	339,159	370,809
One-parent family	46,296	62,280	82,632	110,055	126,585	140,178	145,032
Mother only	39,153	52,938	71,388	92,028	107,394	117,018	120,996
Father only	7,143	9,342	11,244	18,024	19,191	23,163	24,036
Total families	445,068	443,166	446,121	449,736	472,671	479,337	515,841
	Percentage distribution						
Two-parent family	89.6	85.9	81.5	75.5	73.2	70.8	71.9
One-parent family	10.4	14.1	18.5	24.5	26.8	29.2	28.1
Mother only	8.8	11.9	16.0	20.5	22.7	24.4	23.5
Father only	1.6	2.1	2.5	4.0	4.1	4.8	4.7
Total families	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Statistics New Zealand, published and unpublished census data

Note: The census definition of child dependency has changed over time. From 1996, a dependent child is a person in a family aged less than 18 years who is not in full-time employment. For earlier years, a dependent child is a person in a family under 16 years or aged 16–18 years and still at school.

New Zealand and the United States have the highest proportion of families with children under 18 years headed by sole parents (both 28 percent in 2006).¹⁴ In the same year, the share of one-parent families was 25 percent in the United Kingdom, 22 percent in Australia and Canada, and 21 percent in Ireland.

In the mid-2000s, parents living with dependent children had an older age profile than their counterparts in the mid-1980s. In 2006, the median age of all parents living with dependent children was 41 years for fathers and 38 years for mothers, up from 38 years and 35 years, respectively, in 1986. Sole mothers tend to be younger than partnered mothers, with a median age of 37 years in 2006, compared to 39 years for mothers in two-parent families. Conversely, sole fathers tend to be a little older than partnered fathers, with a median age of 42 years in 2006, compared to 41 years for fathers in two-parent families. In same-sex couples, the median age of parents with dependent children was the same for both female couples and male couples (37 years in 1996 and 2001, 39 years in 2006).

Table P6 **Median age (in years) of parents living with dependent children, by family type, 1986–2006**

Family type	1986	1991	1996	2001	2006
Two-parent family					
Father	38	39	39	40	41
Mother	35	36	37	38	39
One-parent family					
Father	40	39	39	41	42
Mother	34	33	34	36	37
Total families					
Father	38	39	39	40	41
Mother	35	36	36	38	38

Source: Statistics New Zealand, unpublished census data

Note: The data for two-parent families refers to parents in opposite-sex couples only.

Housing tenure

Most New Zealand householders own their own homes but they are less likely to do so than in the past. The proportion of households owning their dwellings either with or without a mortgage fell from 74 percent in 1991, to 71 percent in 1996 and to 68 percent in 2001. There was a further small decline to 67 percent in 2006.¹⁵

Information on home ownership by individuals is available from a different measure: tenure holder. In 2006, just over half (53 percent) of the population aged 15 years and over owned or partly owned the dwelling they lived in, a small decline from 55 percent in 2001. Home ownership generally increases with age and in both 2001 and 2006 it was highest among people aged 55–74 years (80 percent and 79 percent, respectively). The decline in home ownership between 2001 and 2006 was most marked among those aged between 25–54 years. Over that period, the proportion of the population who owned or partly owned their own homes fell from 38 percent to 34 percent for 25–34 year olds, from 65 percent to 61 percent for 35–44 year olds, and from 76 percent to 72 percent for 45–54 year olds. The only age group to experience a significant increase in home ownership was the 85 years and over age group (from 55 percent in 2001 to 59 percent in 2006).

Home ownership varies widely by ethnic group. In 2006, Pacific people were the least likely to own the dwelling they lived in (22 percent of Pacific people aged 15 years and over). They were followed by people in the combined Middle Eastern, Latin American and African category (24 percent), Māori (30 percent) and Asian people (37 percent). Europeans and people in the Other ethnic group category (almost all of whom identified themselves as “New Zealander”), had higher than average levels of home ownership (58 percent and 65 percent, respectively).

Official languages

New Zealand has three official languages: English, Māori (from 1987) and New Zealand Sign Language (from April 2006). The 2006 Census recorded that 96 percent of people could speak English, 4 percent of people could speak Māori, and 0.6 percent could converse in New Zealand Sign Language.¹⁶

In 2006, eight out of 10 people (79 percent) spoke English as their only language while a further 17 percent spoke English along with at least one other language. Of the 4 percent of New Zealanders who could not speak English, almost half (49 percent) were children under the age of five, most of whom would still be learning to speak. Of the 2 percent of people who spoke at least one language but not English, most (80 percent) were born overseas. People born in Asian countries (17 percent) and people born in Pacific countries (12 percent) had the highest proportions who spoke at least one language but not English.

The number of people able to converse in New Zealand Sign Language was 24,000 in 2006, a decline from 27,300 in 2001. This fall of 12 percent followed an increase of 3 percent between the 1996 and 2001 censuses. In 2006, 9 percent or 2,200 of those people who were able to converse in New Zealand Sign Language indicated it was their only language. A further 89 percent were also able to converse in English, 26 percent in Māori and 25 percent in other languages (either alone or in combination).

New Zealanders experiencing disability

In 2006, an estimated 660,300 New Zealanders reported a disability, representing 17 percent of the total population.¹⁷

Disability increases with age. In 2006, the prevalence of disability ranged from 10 percent of children (0–14 years) to 45 percent of people aged 65 years and over.

For children with disabilities, conditions or health problems that existed at birth and disease or illness were the most common causes. Disease or illness, accidents or injuries and ageing were the most common causes of disability for adults.¹⁸

Table P7 **Number and prevalence (%) of people experiencing disabilities (total population residing in households and residential facilities), by age group and sex, 2006**

Age group (years)	Males		Females		Total	
	Number	Rate (%)	Number	Rate (%)	Number	Rate (%)
0–14	53,500	12	36,500	9	90,000	10
15–44	73,800	9	67,600	8	141,500	9
45–64	104,700	21	103,800	19	208,500	20
65+	95,600	43	124,700	46	220,300	45
Total	327,700	17	332,600	16	660,300	17

Source: Statistics New Zealand, 2006 Disability Survey

The total disability rate for Māori (17 percent) was higher than the disability rate for Pacific peoples (11 percent) but lower than the disability rate for Europeans (18 percent). The Asian population had the lowest disability rate (5 percent). Because the Māori and Pacific populations have a younger age structure than the European population, disability rates should be compared by age group. In every age group, Māori had a higher disability rate than other ethnic groups.

Many New Zealanders experiencing disability face barriers to full participation in society. For example, the 2006 Disability Survey found that 38 percent of disabled adults aged 25–64 years had no educational qualification, compared to 18 percent of non-disabled adults of that age. Sixty percent of 15–64 year olds with a disability were employed in 2006, compared to 80 percent of non-disabled 15–64 year olds. Thirty-nine percent of disabled adults aged 15–64 years had an annual personal income of less than \$15,000, compared to 28 percent of non-disabled 15–64 year olds. Disabled adults were less likely than those without disabilities to have the support of a partner or spouse. Two-thirds (66 percent) of disabled adults aged 25–64 years were partnered, compared to three-quarters (76 percent) of non-disabled people of the same age.¹⁹

Gay, lesbian, bisexual and transgender people

There is little population information based on sexual orientation or gender identity in New Zealand. Reliable data on the size of gay, lesbian, bisexual and transgender populations in relation to the total population is not available.

Some information about same-sex couples who share a residence has been collected in censuses since 1996. The 2006 Census recorded just over 12,300 adults living with a partner of the same sex, making up 0.7 percent of all adults living in couples. This is an increase from the 10,100 recorded in the 2001 Census when they made up 0.6 percent of all couples and the 6,500 recorded in the 1996 Census when they made up 0.4 percent of all couples. However, it is difficult to know whether the change in numbers represents a real increase in the number of same-sex couples living together, or a greater willingness on their part to report living arrangements and partnership status, or both. It is important to note that these statistics refer only to same-sex partners who live together. They do not measure sexual orientation or reflect the proportion of gay, lesbian and bisexual people in the population.

Some information on sexual orientation is available from the national youth health and wellbeing survey conducted in 2007. The 9,000 secondary school students in the survey were aged between 13 and 18 years. Most students (92 percent) reported being exclusively attracted to the opposite sex, while 4 percent reported being attracted to the same sex or both sexes. The remaining 4 percent were attracted to neither sex or were not sure of their sexual orientation. These proportions did not change markedly between the 2001 and 2007 surveys.²⁰

Desired outcomes

Everybody has the opportunity to enjoy a long and healthy life. Avoidable deaths, disease and injuries are prevented. Everybody has the ability to function, participate and live independently or appropriately supported in society.

Health

Introduction

Good health is critical to wellbeing. Without good health, people are less able to enjoy their lives to the fullest extent, their options are limited and their general levels of contentment and happiness are likely to be reduced.

Good health has two core dimensions: how long people live and the quality of their lives. The desired outcomes recognise both aspects. As well as enjoying long lives, people want to be free from the pain, suffering and incapacity that result from injury or illness.

The desired outcomes also acknowledge that not everybody can live a fully independent life. For some people, illness or disability means they need support from families, government agencies or other networks to overcome barriers to their participation in society. Getting this support is an important part of social wellbeing.

People with injuries or illness (both mental and physical) may experience barriers to participating in education, training and employment, thus reducing their economic standard of living. These barriers can also reduce people's ability to participate in other areas of life, such as family life, socialising with friends, joining community activities and taking part in recreation and leisure pursuits, which can lead to feelings of frustration and isolation.

A range of factors affect and are affected by health outcomes, including genetic predisposition, behaviour, the physical and social environment and the availability of health services. Increasing attention is being paid to the interaction between socio-economic and health outcomes. People with low incomes, poor housing and few qualifications are likely to have disproportionately poorer health.²¹

Indicators

Six indicators are used in this chapter. Together they provide a picture of the current state of the nation's health and the likely trends in the future. They cover the length and quality of life and include both physical and mental health. The indicators are: health expectancy, life expectancy, suicide, cigarette smoking, obesity and potentially hazardous drinking.

The first three indicators are relevant to the current state of the nation's health. Together, they directly measure the desired outcomes relating to long and healthy lives, and people's ability to participate in society. The last three indicators are strong predictors of future health outcomes.

Health expectancy refers to the number of years a person can expect to live independently, ie free of any disability requiring the assistance of another person or complex assistive device. This is a summary measure of a population's health integrating both fatal (life expectancy) and non-fatal (disability requiring assistance) health outcomes.

Life expectancy measures the survival experience of the population: how long people live. It is an indicator of fatal health outcomes.

The suicide death rate serves as a proxy for the mental health status and social wellbeing of the population. The indicator covers the suicide death rate for society as a whole and includes details for subsets of the population.

The links between cigarette smoking and poor health are widely recognised. For example, cigarette smoking (active and passive) is a risk factor for many cancers and respiratory and cardiovascular diseases, and has been linked with low birth weight, Sudden Infant Death Syndrome, and other adverse child health outcomes.

Obesity is linked with poor health outcomes, such as an increased risk of heart attacks, strokes, type 2 diabetes and some cancers.²²

Alcohol is the most commonly used recreational drug in New Zealand, with the majority of New Zealanders consuming alcohol at least occasionally.²³ Potentially hazardous drinking is an established pattern of alcohol consumption that carries a high risk of future damage to physical or mental health, but may not yet have resulted in significant adverse effects.²⁴ Alcohol also contributes to death and injury due to traffic accidents, drowning, suicide, assaults and domestic violence.²⁵

Health expectancy

Definition

The number of years a person could expect to live in good health if current mortality and morbidity rates persist.

The particular measure of health expectancy used here is the number of years a person could expect to live independently, ie live without any functional limitation requiring the assistance of another person or complex assistive device. Hence it is also described as independent life expectancy. The measure uses information from the 1996, 2001 and 2006 Disability Surveys to calculate disability-adjusted life expectancy estimates.

Relevance

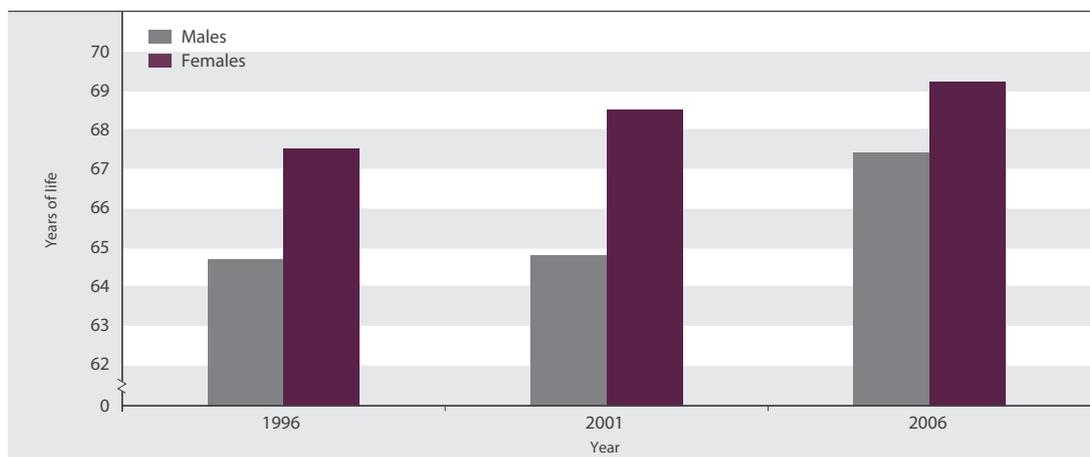
Health expectancy is a summary measure of a population's health that captures both the "quantity" and "quality" of life dimensions of health. Independent life expectancy at birth is a positive measure, capturing expectations of a life free from functional limitation that requires assistance. Improvements in health expectancy reflect changes in social and economic conditions, lifestyle changes, medical advances and better access to health services.

Current level and trends

In 2006, males and females had an independent life expectancy at birth of 67.4 years and 69.2 years respectively. The gap between males and females in independent life expectancy at birth was 1.8 years in 2006, a decrease of two years since 2001. For the total population, independent life expectancy at birth has improved since 1996 (an increase of 2.7 years for males, 1.7 years for females).

It should be noted that the 2006 Disability Survey reported a significant decline in the levels of disability to those reported in the previous survey, due to a range of methodological and other factors. Statistics New Zealand has advised caution when comparing the results of the 2006 Disability Survey with those from previous surveys.

Figure H1.1 **Independent life expectancy at birth, by sex, 1996, 2001 and 2006**



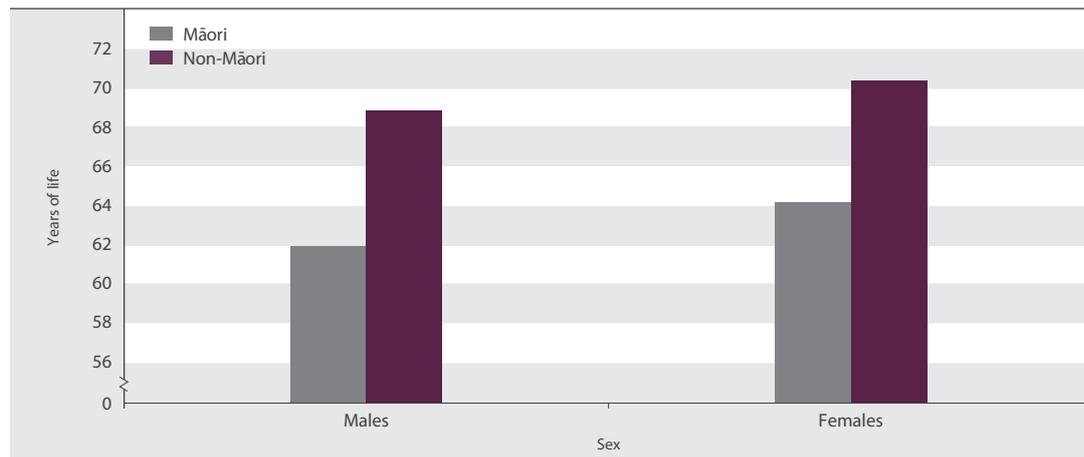
Source: Ministry of Health

Ethnic differences

Independent life expectancy for Māori was produced in the same way as for the total New Zealand population. These ethnic-specific statistics are comparable with those for the total population.

Māori males had an independent life expectancy at birth of 62.0 years in 2006. The figure for Māori females was 64.2 years, a gender gap of 2.2 years. There are large ethnic inequalities in health expectancy, despite a very rapid improvement in survivorship for Māori in recent years. In 2006, the gap in independent life expectancy at birth between Māori and non-Māori was 6.8 years for males and 6.2 years for females (the independent life expectancy at birth for non-Māori was 68.8 years and 70.4 years for males and females respectively).

Figure H1.2 **Independent life expectancy at birth, Māori and non-Māori population, by sex, 2006**



Source: Ministry of Health

Life expectancy

Definition

Life expectancy at birth indicates the total number of years a person could expect to live, based on the mortality rates of the population at each age in a given year or period.

Relevance

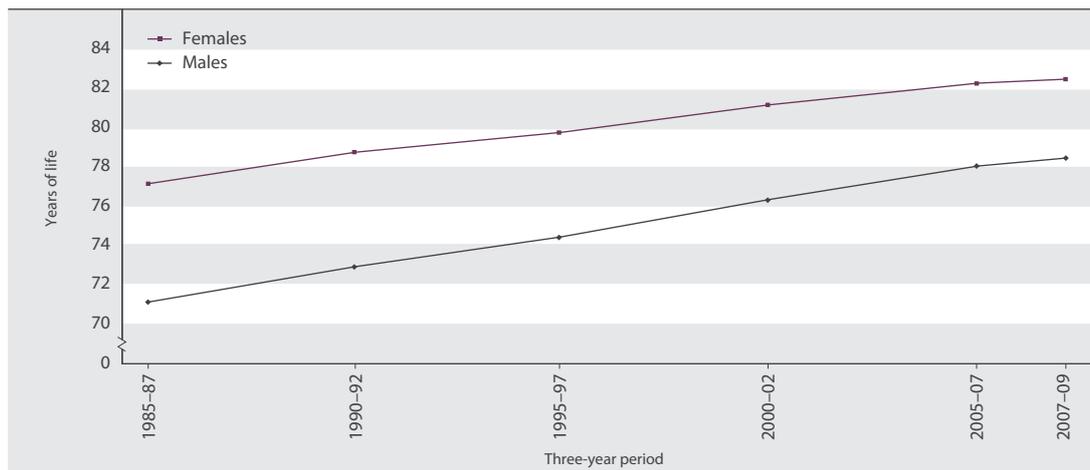
Life expectancy at birth is a key summary indicator of fatal health outcomes, ie the survival experience of the population.

Current level and trends

Based on the mortality experiences of New Zealanders in the period 2007–2009, life expectancy at birth was 78.4 years for males and 82.4 years for females. Since the mid-1980s, gains in longevity have been greater for males than for females. Between 1985–1987 and 2007–2009, life expectancy at birth increased by 7.3 years for males and 5.3 years for females. As a result, the gap between males and females in life expectancy narrowed from 6.0 years to 4.0 years over this period.

The gains in life expectancy at birth since the mid-1980s can be attributed mainly to reduced death rates for people in the late-working and retirement age groups (55–84 years). However, reduced death rates for infants (from 11.2 deaths per 1,000 live births in 1986 to 4.9 per 1,000 in 2009), for people aged 45–54 years, and for women aged 85 years and over were also significant.

Figure H2.1 **Life expectancy at birth, by sex, 1985–1987 to 2007–2009**



Source: Statistics New Zealand

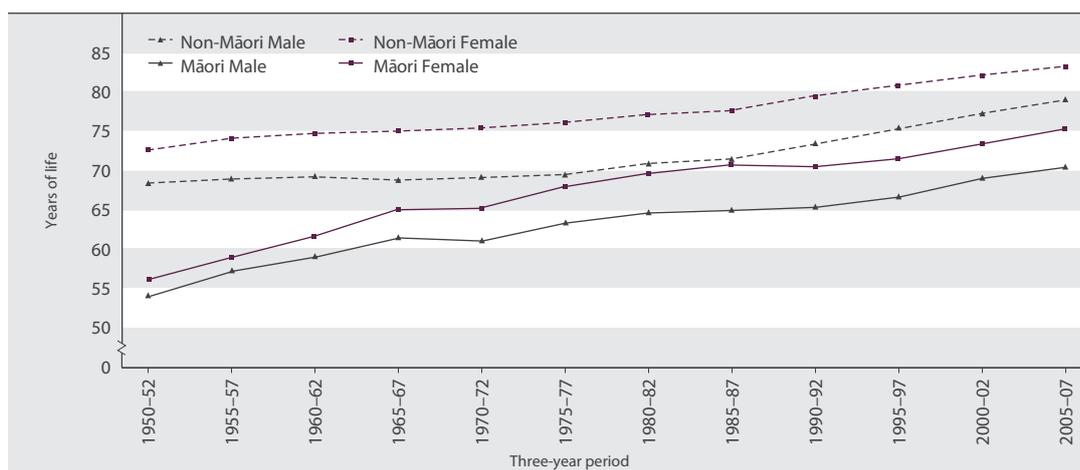
Note: The period life table data in this graph is from complete life tables for all periods up to 2005–2007 and an abridged life table for 2007–2009.

Ethnic differences

There are marked ethnic differences in life expectancy. In 2005–2007, male life expectancy at birth was 79.0 years for non-Māori and 70.4 years for Māori, a difference of 8.6 years. Female life expectancy at birth was 83.0 years for non-Māori and 75.1 years for Māori, a difference of 7.9 years.

The pace of improvement in life expectancy has varied by ethnic group. For non-Māori, there was a fairly steady increase in life expectancy at birth over the period from 1985–1987 to 2005–2007, with males gaining 7.6 years and females 5.6 years. For Māori, there was little change during the 1980s, but a substantial improvement in the 10 years to 2005–2007 (a gain of 3.8 years for both sexes). This exceeded the improvement for non-Māori over the same period (3.6 years for males and 2.4 years for females). However, the overall gain in Māori life expectancy from 1985–1987 to 2005–2007 (5.5 years for males, 4.6 years for females) was less than that for non-Māori.

Figure H2.2 **Life expectancy at birth, by ethnic group and sex, 1950–1952 to 2005–2007**



Source: Statistics New Zealand

Note: Ministry of Health data has been used for 1980–1982 to 1995–1997. It includes an adjustment for the undercount of Māori deaths relative to the Māori population by linking mortality to census records.

Socio-economic differences

There is an association between life expectancy and the level of deprivation in the area where people live. In 2005–2007, males in the least deprived 10th of small areas in New Zealand could expect to live 8.8 years longer than males in the most deprived 10th of small areas (82.1 versus 73.3 years). For females, the difference was smaller, but still substantial, at 5.9 years (84.6 versus 78.7 years). These differences illustrate the links between socio-economic status and health.

International comparison

In 2005–2007, New Zealanders' life expectancy at birth was 82.2 years for females and 78.0 years for males. This was slightly below the OECD median of 82.7 years for females and slightly above the OECD median of 77.6 years for males for the latest year up to 2008. Out of 30 OECD countries, New Zealand was ranked 21st for females and 10th equal for males. In 1960–1961, New Zealand's ranking was ninth for females and seventh equal for males. Through the 1960s, 1970s and 1980s, longevity improved faster in many other OECD countries than it did in New Zealand. Since the 1980s, faster-than-average gains in life expectancy in New Zealand, particularly for males, have improved New Zealand's relative position.

In 2007–2008, life expectancy at birth was highest for females in Japan (86.1 years) and highest for males in Switzerland (79.8 years). Compared to New Zealand, female life expectancy was higher in Australia (83.7 years) and Canada (83.0 years in 2007), similar in Ireland (82.3 years), but lower in the United Kingdom (81.8 years) and the United States (80.4 years). Male life expectancy was higher in Australia (79.2 years), similar in Canada (78.3 years), and lower in the United Kingdom (77.6 years in 2007), Ireland (77.5 years) and the United States (75.3 years in 2007).²⁶

Suicide

Definition

The number of suicide deaths per 100,000 population.

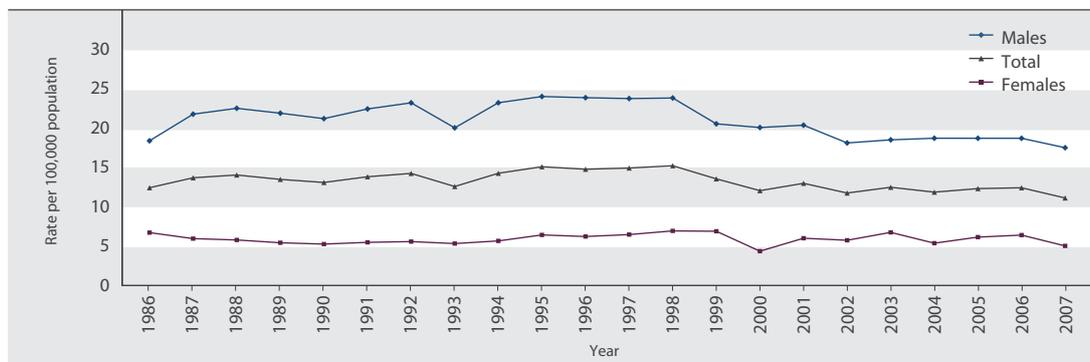
Relevance

Suicide is an indicator of the mental health of the population and a major cause of injury-related death.

Current level and trends

In 2007, 483 people died by suicide, a decrease from the 526 people who died in 2006.²⁷ The age-standardised²⁸ suicide death rate was 11.0 per 100,000 population in 2007, a decrease from 12.3 per 100,000 in 2006. Over the 1980s and 1990s there was an upward trend in the suicide death rate, which peaked at 15.1 per 100,000 in 1998. The rate has generally declined since then and in 2007 it was lower than the rate in 1986 (12.3 per 100,000).

Figure H3.1 Age-standardised suicide death rate, by sex, 1986–2007

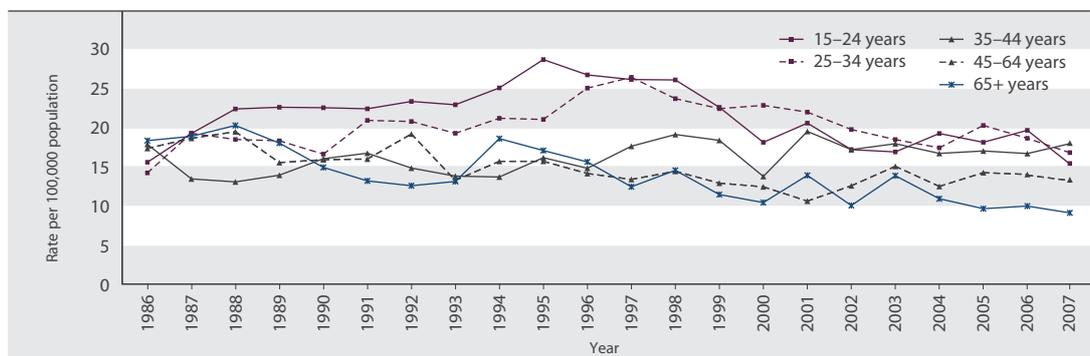


Source: Ministry of Health
Notes: (1) The 2007 figures are provisional. (2) Age-standardised to WHO standard population.

Age differences

People aged 35–44 years had the highest suicide death rate in 2007 (17.8 per 100,000 population, with 113 deaths), followed by people aged 25–34 years (16.7 per 100,000, with 91 deaths), people aged 15–24 years (15.3 per 100,000, with 94 deaths), and people aged 45–64 years (13.2 per 100,000 with 135 deaths). Older people aged 65 years and over had the lowest rate (9.1 per 100,000 with 48 deaths).

Figure H3.2 Suicide death rate, by age group, 1986–2007



Source: Ministry of Health
Note: The 2007 figures are provisional.

The youth (15–24 year olds) suicide death rate increased steeply in the late-1980s, peaking at 28.7 per 100,000 people aged 15–24 years in 1995. By 2007, it had fallen by 47 percent to 15.3 per 100,000, similar to the 1986 rate of 15.6 per 100,000. The pattern was similar for 25–34 year olds. Suicide death rates have fallen over the past two decades among people aged 45 years and over. These age patterns may reflect, in part, cohort effects.

Sex differences Males have a significantly higher rate of death by suicide than females, with an age-standardised rate of 17.4 deaths per 100,000 males in 2007, compared with 4.9 deaths per 100,000 females. The male suicide death rate increased sharply in the late-1980s, peaked at 23.9 deaths per 100,000 males in 1995, then declined after 1998. In comparison, the female rate has been relatively stable over the last 20 years. For both sexes, suicide death rates were lower in 2007 than they had been in 1986. Because of the small numbers involved, it is more reliable to consider the trend over several years.

While the suicide death rate is higher for males, more females than males are hospitalised for intentional self-harm. In 2007, the female to male rate ratio for intentional self-harm in New Zealand was 1.8 female hospitalisations to every male hospitalisation per 100,000 population. Females more commonly choose methods that are less likely to be fatal.²⁹

Ethnic differences In 2007, there were 97 Māori deaths from suicide, accounting for 20 percent of all suicide deaths in that year. The age-standardised rate of suicide deaths in 2007 was 16.1 per 100,000 population for Māori, compared to 9.9 per 100,000 for non-Māori. The suicide death rate for Māori youth (15–24 year olds) in 2007 was 28.1 per 100,000, compared with the non-Māori rate of 12.3 per 100,000. Since 1996, suicide death rates have declined for non-Māori but there is no obvious trend for Māori, although the small numbers of Māori suicide deaths make it hard to ascertain trends.

Socio-economic differences Suicide is more common in deprived neighbourhoods. In 2007, the age-standardised suicide death rate in the most deprived areas (NZDep2001 quintiles 3–5) was 13.3 per 100,000 population. This was significantly higher than the rate of 7.7 per 100,000 population in the least deprived areas (quintile 1). Rates of hospitalisation for intentional self-harm show a similar pattern.

International comparison A comparison of the latest age-standardised suicide death rates in 13 OECD countries³⁰ between 2002 and 2007 shows New Zealand's (2007) rate was the fourth highest for males (17.4 per 100,000 males) and the sixth highest for females (4.9 per 100,000 females).³¹ Finland had the highest male suicide death rate (27.4 per 100,000 in 2006), while Japan had the highest female rate (10.0 per 100,000 in 2006). Canada (15.5 in 2005) had a lower rate of male suicide deaths than New Zealand, as did the United States (16.2 in 2005) and Australia (16.0 in 2003). The United Kingdom had the lowest male suicide death rate (9.4 in 2005). Canada (4.8), Australia (4.4), the United States (4.0) and the United Kingdom (2.9) all reported lower female suicide death rates than New Zealand.

New Zealand had the second highest male youth (15–24 years) suicide death rate (after Finland), and the second highest female youth suicide death rate (after Japan).

Cigarette smoking

Definition

The proportion of the population who currently smoke cigarettes. Up to 2005, the survey population was people aged 15 years and over (ACNielsen survey). From 2006, the survey population is people aged 15–64 years (New Zealand Tobacco Use Survey, New Zealand Health Survey).

Relevance

Tobacco smoking is a well-recognised risk factor for many cancers and for respiratory and cardiovascular diseases. In addition, exposure to environmental tobacco smoke (particularly maternal smoking) is a major risk factor for Sudden Infant Death Syndrome and respiratory problems in children. Smoking has been identified as the major cause of preventable death in OECD countries.³²

Current level and trends

In 2009, 22 percent of people aged 15–64 years were current cigarette smokers, according to the New Zealand Tobacco Use Survey. This was below the smoking prevalence rate derived from the New Zealand Tobacco Use Survey conducted in 2008 (24 percent).

Note: Updated information on trends for the population aged 15 years and over, and on age, sex, ethnic and socio-economic differences, will be included following the release of the full report on the 2009 Tobacco Use Survey, planned for late 2010.

Long-term trends are available only for the population aged 15 years and over. The Ministry of Health's estimate of smoking prevalence for this population in 2008 is 21.0 percent. This is similar to the 2006/2007 New Zealand Health Survey estimate of 19.9 percent and the 2006 Census figure of 20.7 percent, but below the 24 percent derived from the ACNielsen survey for 2005. Among the population aged 15 years and over, smoking has declined from 30 percent in 1986, with most of the decline occurring between 1987 and 1991.

It is important to note there are methodological differences between these three surveys and some caution should be used when comparing figures. Ongoing monitoring in the social report will be based on the New Zealand Tobacco Use Survey, as this allows the most frequent updates.

Age and sex differences

Smoking rates for females and males have generally been similar since the mid-1980s. However, after adjusting for age, the male rate was higher than the female rate in 2008 (26 percent and 22 percent respectively).

In 2008, smoking was most prevalent among people aged 25–34 years (28 percent), followed by those aged 15–24 years (26 percent). People aged 55–64 years had a significantly lower smoking prevalence rate (17 percent) than younger age groups. Since the mid-1980s, people aged 55 years and over have experienced the greatest decline in smoking prevalence.³³

Daily smoking rates for 14–15 year olds have declined considerably since 1999. Between 1999 and 2009, the prevalence of daily smoking declined by 65 percent for boys in this age group (from 14 percent to 5 percent) and by 63 percent for girls (from 17 percent to 6 percent).

Ethnic differences

After adjusting for age, smoking prevalence is significantly higher among Māori and Pacific peoples (at around 46 percent and 31 percent respectively in 2008), than among the total population aged 15–64 years. It is significantly lower among Asian ethnic groups (13 percent in 2008). Among Māori adults, smoking prevalence is significantly higher for women than for men. The opposite is the case for other ethnic groups, particularly Asians: Asian men have a significantly higher smoking prevalence rate than Asian women.

Among 14–15 year olds, Māori girls had the highest daily smoking rate in 2009 (18 percent), but it had halved from 36 percent in 1999. The rate for Māori boys was 11 percent in 2009, down from 24 percent in 1999. For Pacific students, the daily smoking rate fell by around two-thirds over the decade (from 23 percent to 7 percent for girls and from 17 percent to 6 percent for boys).

Table H4.1

Age-standardised prevalence (%) of cigarette smoking, by sex and ethnic group, 2008

	Percentage in each ethnic group who smoke cigarettes				Total
	European/Other	Māori	Pacific peoples	Asian	
Male	23.8	41.5	35.0	21.5	25.7
Female	20.9	49.3	28.1	5.2	22.3
Total	22.3	45.7	31.4	13.1	23.9

Source: Ministry of Health (2009b)

Notes: (1) Rates are age-standardised using the WHO world standard population. (2) People who reported more than one ethnic group are counted once in each group reported.

Socio-economic differences

In 2008, the age-standardised smoking prevalence rate for 15–64 year olds in the most deprived areas (NZDep2006 deciles 9 and 10) was 2.7 times the rate in the least deprived areas (deciles 1 and 2).³⁴

Among 14–15 year olds in 2009, daily smoking rates were four times higher for girls and more than twice as high for boys at schools drawn from low socio-economic communities (school deciles 1–3) than for boys and girls at schools in more advantaged communities (school deciles 8–10).

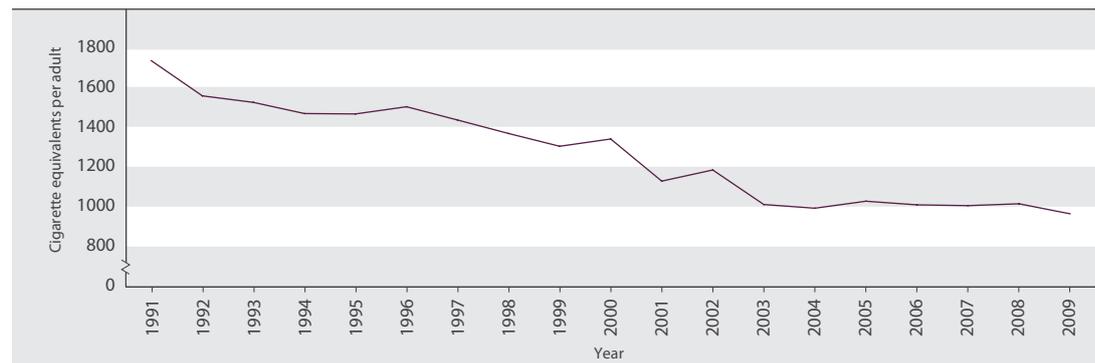
International comparison

In an OECD comparison of daily smoking rates for adults aged 15 years and over, New Zealand had a rate of 18.1 percent in 2007, compared with an OECD median of 23.2 percent.³⁵ New Zealand ranked seventh lowest out of 30 OECD countries. Smoking prevalence was highest in Greece (39.7 percent in 2008) and lowest in Sweden (14.5 percent in 2006). New Zealand's daily smoking rate was lower than the rates in Ireland (29.0 percent in 2007) and the United Kingdom (22.0 percent in 2008) and a little higher than the rates in Canada (17.5 percent in 2008), Australia (16.6 percent in 2007) and the United States (16.5 percent in 2008). The rate for New Zealand males was around two-thirds of the OECD median for males, while the rate for New Zealand females was similar to the OECD median for females.³⁶

Tobacco consumption

In 2009, tobacco consumption was 961 cigarette equivalents per person aged 15 years and over, down slightly from 1,011 in 2008. Between 1991 and 2003, tobacco consumption fell by 43 percent, but there has been little change in recent years. Since 1991, the drop in tobacco consumption has been more rapid than the drop in smoking prevalence.

Figure H4.1

Tobacco consumption, cigarette equivalents per person aged 15 years and over, 1991–2009

Source: Statistics New Zealand

Note: The data includes cigarettes and tobacco available for consumption.

Obesity

Definition

The proportion of the population aged 15 years and over who are obese, and the proportion of children aged 5–14 years who are obese.

For adults aged 18 years and over, obesity is defined as having a body mass index (BMI) greater than or equal to 30 kg/m² (for all ethnic groups).³⁷ For those aged under 18 years, internationally defined sex and age specific BMI cut-off points have been used.³⁸

Relevance

Obesity is associated with a long list of adult health conditions, including heart disease, high blood pressure and strokes, type 2 diabetes, various types of cancer, and psychological and social problems. Obese children are likely to be obese into adulthood.³⁹

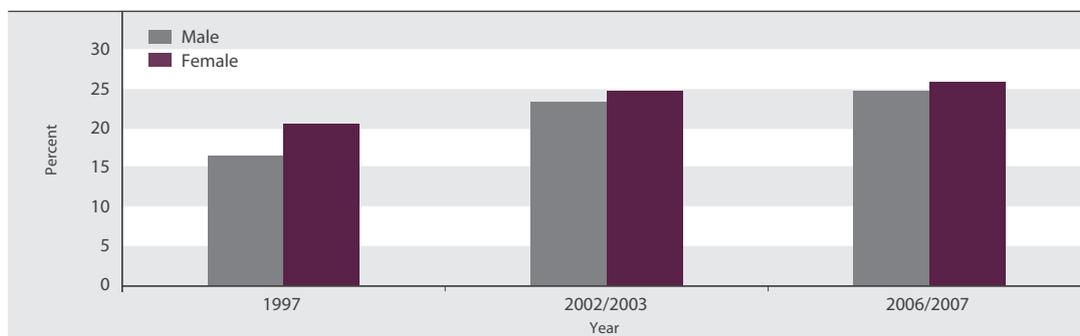
Current level and trends

In 2006/2007, the age-standardised obesity prevalence rate for the population aged 15 years and over was 25 percent. This was similar to the 2002/2003 rate of 24 percent but a significant increase from the 1997 rate of 19 percent.⁴⁰

In 2006/2007, 8 percent of children aged 5–14 years were obese, a prevalence rate similar to that of 2002 (9 percent).⁴¹

The major drivers of the increase in obesity rates have been changing dietary and physical activity patterns, reflecting an environment that promotes the over-consumption of energy-dense foods and drinks and limits the opportunities for physical activity.⁴²

Figure H5.1 **Age-standardised prevalence of obesity, total population aged 15 years and over, by sex, 1997, 2002/2003 and 2006/2007**



Source: Ministry of Health

Age and sex differences

Age-standardised prevalence rates for 2006/2007 showed no significant sex difference in the proportion of the population aged 15 years and over who were obese (males, 25 percent; females, 26 percent). This was also the case in 2002/2003. In 1997, the age-standardised rate for females was significantly higher than the rate for males.

Among children aged 5–14 years, there was no significant difference by sex or age in the prevalence of obesity, either in 2002 or in 2006/2007.

Among those aged 15 years and over in 2006/2007, the prevalence of obesity was highest in the 55–64 years age group (36 percent), followed by the 65–74 years age group.

Table H5.1 **Prevalence (%) of obesity, by age group and sex, 2006/2007**

	Age group (years)							
	5–14	15–24	25–34	35–44	45–54	55–64	65–74	75+
Males	8.1	12.7	22.2	29.9	30.8	35.9	29.9	21.7
Females	8.6	15.7	26.6	26.9	30.2	35.9	35.7	20.1
Total	8.3	14.2	24.4	28.4	30.5	35.9	32.8	20.8

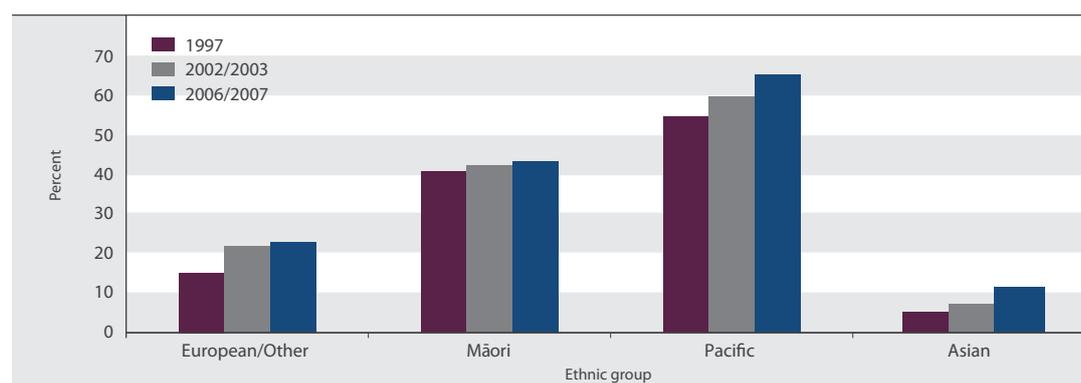
Source: Ministry of Health

Ethnic differences

There are large differences in the prevalence of obesity by ethnicity. Among the population aged 15 years and over in 2006/2007, Pacific peoples (65 percent) and Māori (43 percent) had significantly higher age-standardised obesity rates than the total population in this age group, while Asians (12 percent) had a significantly lower rate. The obesity rate of European/Other was (23 percent). For Māori, there was no significant change from 1997 to 2006/2007 in the prevalence of obesity, adjusted for age, either for men or for women. Between 2002/2003 and 2006/2007, only Asians had a statistically significant increase in obesity.

Among children aged 5–14 years in 2006/2007, the pattern of ethnic differences in the prevalence of obesity was similar to that of the population aged 15 years and over. Pacific children had the highest rate (26 percent), followed by Māori children (13 percent), Asian children (6 percent) and children of European/Other ethnic groups (5 percent).

Figure H5.2 **Age-standardised prevalence of obesity, population aged 15 years and over, by ethnic group, 1997, 2002/2003 and 2006/2007**



Source: Ministry of Health

Note: People who reported more than one ethnic group are counted once in each group reported.

Socio-economic differences

The prevalence of obesity is highest in relatively deprived neighbourhoods. In 2006/2007, 38 percent of the population aged 15 years and over living in NZDep2006 quintile 5 (the most disadvantaged fifth of neighbourhoods) were obese, compared with 26 percent of those living in quintile 4, 23 percent of those living in quintile 3 and 21 percent of those living in quintiles 1 and 2.

International comparison

International comparisons of the prevalence of obesity are difficult to make because different methods of measurement are used. For the 18 OECD countries that use the self-reporting method only, the median was 13.2 percent in 2003–2009. For the 12 countries that, like New Zealand, use actual measurements of height and weight recorded by an interviewer, the median was 23.6 percent in 2005–2008. New Zealand's unadjusted obesity rate of 26.5 percent in 2006/2007 was the third highest measured obesity rate after the United States (33.8 percent in 2008) and Mexico (30.0 percent in 2006). Other countries with measured obesity rates similar to New Zealand's include Australia (24.8 percent in 2007–2008), the United Kingdom (24.5 percent in 2008) and Canada (24.2 percent in 2008). The rate for Ireland was slightly lower (23.0 percent in 2007). Japan (3.4 percent in 2008) and Korea (3.8 percent in 2008) had the lowest measured prevalence of obesity.⁴³

Potentially hazardous drinking

Definition

The proportion of the population aged 15 years and over who drink alcohol, who scored eight or more on the Alcohol Use Disorders Identification Test (AUDIT), as measured in the New Zealand Health Surveys conducted by the Ministry of Health in 1996/1997, 2002/2003 and 2006/2007.

The AUDIT is a 10-item questionnaire covering alcohol consumption, alcohol-related problems and abnormal drinking behaviour.

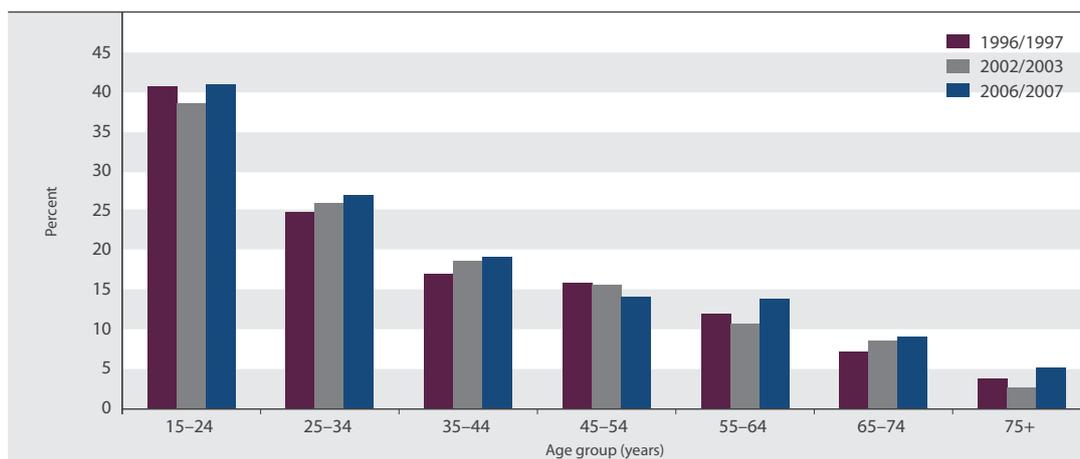
Relevance

Potentially hazardous drinking, defined by an AUDIT score of eight or more, is an established pattern of alcohol consumption that carries a high risk of future damage to physical or mental health, but may not yet have resulted in significant adverse effects.⁴⁴ Alcohol also contributes to death and injury due to traffic accidents, drowning, suicide, assaults and domestic violence.⁴⁵

Current level and trends

In 2006/2007, 22.9 percent of adult drinkers had a potentially hazardous drinking pattern, as indicated by an AUDIT score of eight or more. This was similar to the proportions recorded in the 1996/1997 and 2002/2003 surveys (22.3 percent and 22.5 percent, respectively).⁴⁶

Figure H6.1 Potentially hazardous drinking among drinkers, by age, 1996/1997, 2002/2003, 2006/2007



Source: Ministry of Health

Age and sex differences

For both males and females, the proportion of adult drinkers with a potentially hazardous drinking pattern is highest among those aged 15–24 years and declines at older ages.

In 2006/2007, male drinkers (29.2 percent) were significantly more likely than female drinkers (13.0 percent) to have a potentially hazardous drinking pattern. This was the case for all age groups and in each survey year.

Table H6.1 **Proportion (%) of adult drinkers with a potentially hazardous drinking pattern, by age group and sex, 1996/1997, 2002/2003, 2006/2007**

	Age group (years)						
	15–24	25–34	35–44	45–54	55–64	65–74	75+
1996/1997							
Male	49.8	35.7	25.5	25.2	21.1	12.6	7.3
Female	31.6	13.9	8.1	6.0	1.8	1.0	0.8
Total	40.8	24.9	17.1	16.0	12.0	7.3	3.9
2002/2003							
Male	45.8	36.1	28.0	23.5	18.1	16.4	4.4
Female	31.0	16.0	9.3	7.1	3.0	1.1	1.0
Total	38.7	26.1	18.7	15.7	10.8	8.7	2.7
2006/2007							
Male	49.2	36.2	29.0	21.1	23.1	14.7	7.9
Female	32.6	18.2	9.5	7.3	4.3	3.0	2.5
Total	41.1	27.1	19.2	14.2	14.0	9.1	5.2

Source: Ministry of Health

Ethnic differences

Māori and Pacific drinkers are significantly more likely than drinkers in the total population to have a potentially hazardous drinking pattern. Asian drinkers are significantly less likely to have such a pattern. These ethnic differences are evident for both sexes.

Table H6.2 **Age-standardised potentially hazardous drinking prevalence rate (%), for adult drinkers, by ethnic group and sex, 1996/1997, 2002/2003, 2006/2007**

	European/Other	Māori	Pacific peoples	Asian	Total 15+
1996/1997					
Male	31.0	46.1	48.2	11.6	30.9
Female	12.0	30.6	20.8	5.1	13.3
Total	21.6	38.3	38.1	9.4	22.3
2002/2003					
Male	29.9	42.4	44.1	11.5	30.6
Female	13.3	24.1	24.3	4.8	14.2
Total	21.7	32.9	36.1	8.6	22.5
2006/2007					
Male	32.1	46.8	46.6	12.9	31.2
Female	14.5	28.5	25.8	3.8	14.7
Total	23.1	37.5	37.7	8.9	22.9

Source: Ministry of Health

Notes: (1) Rates are age-standardised using the WHO world population. (2) People who reported more than one ethnic group are counted once in each group reported.

Socio-economic differences

The proportion of adult drinkers with a potentially hazardous drinking pattern in 2006/2007 was significantly higher (at 30.8 percent) in the most deprived small areas (NZDep2006 quintile 5) than in all other areas (quintiles 1–4), where proportions ranged from 19 percent to 24 percent.

International comparison

Because of the paucity of international data using the AUDIT method of identifying potentially hazardous drinking, this section uses OECD information on annual consumption of alcohol per person aged 15 years and over. New Zealand had the 12th lowest level of alcohol consumption out of 30 OECD countries in 2003–2009, at 9.3 litres per person in 2009. New Zealand's alcohol consumption per person was higher than that of the United States (8.7 litres in 2007) and Canada (8.2 litres in 2009), but lower than that of Australia (10.0 litres in 2007), the United Kingdom (10.8 litres in 2008) and Ireland (12.4 litres in 2008). The OECD median in 2003–2009 was 10.0 litres of alcohol per person.⁴⁷

Desired outcomes

Everybody has the knowledge and skills needed to participate fully in society.
Lifelong learning and education are valued and supported.

Knowledge and skills

Introduction

Knowledge and skills enhance people's ability to meet their basic needs, widen the range of options open to them in every sphere of life, and enable them to influence the direction their lives take. The skills people possess can also enhance their sense of self-worth, security and belonging.

We live in a society where access to information and proficiency with technology are becoming more important. An inclusive society will increasingly require everybody to have high levels of knowledge and skills.

Knowledge and skills include education and training, as well as abilities gained through daily life. The experiences of very young children within their families affect their acquisition and use of knowledge and skills, and influence their capacity to learn. Adults acquire skills through their work and non-work activities,— for example, parenting skills or skills relevant to recreation or leisure activities.

For many people, the acts of learning and mastering new skills are important in themselves. Possession of knowledge and skills can be integral to a person's sense of belonging and self-worth: many people define themselves by what they can "do", not only in employment but elsewhere in life.

Knowledge and skills relate directly to employment decisions and to career choices. Those with relatively few educational qualifications are more likely to be unemployed and, on average, have lower incomes when in work. This affects people's economic standard of living as well as their security and ability to make choices about their lives. Knowledge and skills are important for gaining access to services and for understanding and exercising civil and political rights.

Indicators

Five indicators are used in this chapter. Each provides a snapshot of New Zealanders' acquisition of knowledge and skills at a particular stage in their lives, from early childhood to school-leaving age to adulthood. They are: participation in early childhood education, school leavers with higher qualifications, participation in tertiary education, the educational attainment of the adult population and adult literacy skills in English. The focus of the indicators is on formal education and training. This reflects the importance of formal education and training and also the availability of data – there is little data that captures the contribution of informal, on-the-job training to acquiring knowledge and skills.

The indicators are relevant to current and future social wellbeing. Participation in early childhood education contributes significantly to a child's later development. Going to a kindergarten, kōhanga reo or some other early childhood education service prepares children for further learning, helps equip them to cope socially at school and develops their bodies and minds to better prepare them for adult life. Quality early childhood education programmes can help narrow the achievement gap between children from low-income families and children from more advantaged families.⁴⁸

Students who obtain higher qualifications at school tend to have more options for tertiary education and future employment. Those who leave school early have a greater risk of unemployment or low incomes.⁴⁹

Participation in tertiary education opens up career opportunities and improves the skills people need to participate in society. This has become more important with the growth of industries that require well-educated, highly skilled workforces. It also captures aspects of lifelong learning through participation in tertiary education.

The educational attainment of the adult population indicator provides a broad picture of New Zealanders' possession of knowledge and skills. It is influenced by factors not measured in the other indicators, such as adults gaining new qualifications and new migrants arriving with qualifications.

Literacy is a fundamental skill. A good level of literacy in English, including numeracy and the ability to understand documents and tables, is vital in the workplace and in everyday life.

Participation in early childhood education

Definition

The number of enrolments of children aged 3 and 4 years in licensed early childhood education (ECE) services as a proportion of all 3 and 4 year olds.

Over 90 percent of the enrolments of children aged 3 and 4 years are in licensed ECE services. Licensed services include kindergartens, playcentres, education and care services, te kōhanga reo, home-based services and the Correspondence School. Children enrolled in more than one ECE service will be double-counted. We include an alternative measure which avoids double counting – the proportion of new school entrants (Year 1 students) reporting regular participation in early childhood education immediately before starting school.

Relevance

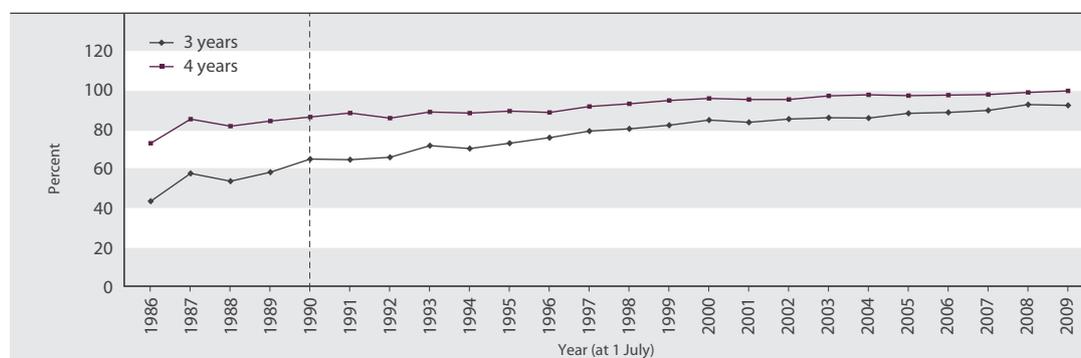
Evidence from New Zealand and international research shows that the early childhood years are vital to a child's development and to their future ability to learn.⁵⁰ Quality early childhood programmes prepare young children socially, physically and academically for entry into primary education and can help narrow the achievement gap between children from low-income families and those from more advantaged families.

1. Enrolment

Current level and trends

At 1 July 2009, the enrolment rate in licensed early childhood education services was 92 percent for 3 year olds and 100 percent for 4 year olds. These figures are similar to 2008 levels of 93 percent for 3 year olds and 99 percent for 4 year olds. Since 1990, the enrolment rate in licensed ECE services has increased by 42 percent for 3 year olds and by 15 percent for 4 year olds.

Figure K1.1 **Early childhood education enrolment rate, 3 and 4 year olds, 1986–2009**



Sources: Ministry of Education; Ministry of Social Development

Notes: (1) Rates in excess of 100 percent are possible because children can be enrolled in more than one service. (2) Includes licensed services only from 1990.

Sex differences

Enrolment in early childhood education varies slightly by sex. In 2009, the enrolment rate for 3 year old children was 94 percent for girls and 91 percent for boys. For 4 year old children, the rates were 101 percent for girls and 98 percent for boys.

Enrolment by type of early childhood education service

In 2009, education and care services (51 percent) and kindergartens (34 percent) had the largest number of enrolments of 3 and 4 year olds in early childhood education. Much smaller numbers of children were enrolled in home-based services (6 percent), playcentres (5 percent), and ngā kōhanga reo (4 percent).

2. Prior participation, Year 1 students

The prior participation rate is an alternative measure that avoids double counting. The percentage of new school entrants who had attended early childhood education services has increased from 91 percent in July 2000 to 95 percent in July 2009, but growth has slowed since 2004.

Ethnic differences

New Zealand European children are the most likely to attend an early childhood education service before entering primary school, followed by Asian children. From 2000 to 2004, the proportions of both Māori and Pacific new school entrants who had attended ECE services increased faster than the rate for New Zealand European new school entrants. Growth in the rate for Māori then slowed, and the rate for Pacific children decreased slightly. In the year to 1 July 2009, increases in early childhood education participation were greater than average for Māori and Pacific new entrants.

Table K1.1 **Early childhood education attendance (%) by Year 1 students, by ethnic group, as at 1 July, 2000–2009**

	European	Māori	Pacific peoples	Asian	Other	Total
2000	95.4	84.8	76.1	89.2	83.0	91.0
2001	96.0	85.3	76.3	89.8	84.1	91.4
2002	96.6	86.5	79.4	92.1	86.6	92.3
2003	97.4	88.4	83.4	92.4	88.9	93.6
2004	97.6	89.3	84.7	94.1	89.4	94.1
2005	97.7	89.9	84.5	95.1	89.9	94.3
2006	98.0	89.9	84.2	96.0	91.7	94.5
2007	98.2	90.6	84.0	96.0	93.6	94.7
2008	98.3	90.4	84.8	95.3	93.8	94.7
2009	98.5	91.4	85.4	95.6	94.8	95.1

Source: Ministry of Education

Note: These figures exclude cases where attendance was unknown.

Socio-economic differences

Children in low decile schools (those that draw their students from communities with the highest degree of socio-economic disadvantage) are much less likely to have attended an early childhood education service than children in high decile schools. In 2009, 82 percent of new entrants in decile 1 schools had previously attended early childhood education services, compared with 96 percent in decile 5 schools and 99 percent in decile 10 schools.

Regional differences

In 2009, the proportion of Year 1 students who had attended early childhood education services was highest in the Nelson, Canterbury and Otago regions (each 99 percent), and lowest in the Northland (90 percent) and Auckland (93 percent) regions.

School leavers with higher qualifications

Definition

The proportion of secondary school leavers who left school with a qualification at National Certificate of Educational Achievement (NCEA) Level 2 or above.

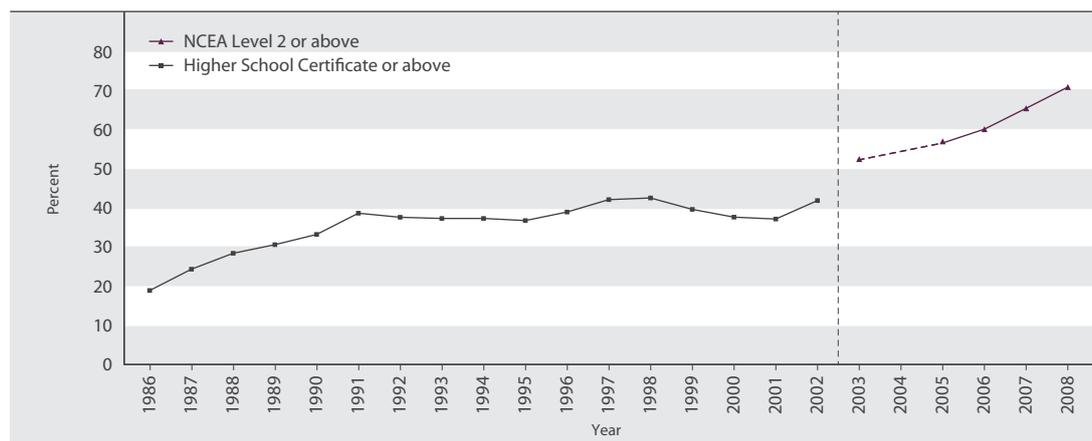
Relevance

Upper secondary school qualifications serve as the foundation for higher (post-secondary) learning and training opportunities as well as the preparation for direct entry into the labour market. Those who leave school early with few qualifications are at a much greater risk of unemployment or vulnerability in the labour force and of having low incomes.⁵¹

Current level and trends

In 2008, 71 percent of school leavers (37,000 students) left school with a qualification at NCEA Level 2 or above, an increase from the 2007 figure of 66 percent (37,000 students).⁵² Because of changes in the qualification structure, it is not possible to compare exactly the attainment of upper secondary school students who left school before 2003 with those who left school in 2003 and later. To illustrate the trend in higher school attainment over the long term, Figure K2.1 includes the proportion of school leavers who left with Higher School Certificate and above for the years 1986 to 2002.

Figure K2.1 **Proportion of school leavers with Higher School Certificate or above, 1986–2002 and NCEA Level 2 or above, 2003, 2005–2008**



Source: Ministry of Education

Notes: (1) A direct comparison cannot be made between rates up to and including 2002 with rates for 2003 on, due to the change in the qualification structure (see Appendix 2 for details). (2) Because of methodological changes, 2004 is not comparable with other years and has been omitted.

Sex differences

Female students are more likely than male students to leave school with an upper secondary school qualification. Between 2007 and 2008, the proportion of school leavers with NCEA Level 2 or above increased for both sexes but there was a slightly larger increase for females than for males. As a result, the sex difference in school attainment widened slightly between 2007 and 2008, from 9.3 percentage points to 9.7 percentage points.

Table K2.1 **Proportion (%) of school leavers with NCEA Level 2 or above, by sex, 2003, 2005–2008**

Year	Males	Females	Total
2003	47.6	57.9	52.6
2005	52.0	62.3	57.1
2006	55.8	64.5	60.2
2007	60.9	70.2	65.5
2008	66.0	75.8	70.9

Source: Ministry of Education

Note: Because of methodological changes, 2004 is not comparable with other years and has been omitted.

Ethnic differences

The proportion of school leavers with upper secondary school qualifications varies widely by ethnic group. Asian students who left school in 2008 had the highest proportion with NCEA Level 2 or above, followed by European school leavers, then Pacific and Māori school leavers. Between 2007 and 2008, there was an increase in the proportion of students leaving with a qualification at NCEA Level 2 or above for all ethnic groups. The increase was greater for Māori and Pacific students than for European and Asian students.

Table K2.2 **Proportion (%) of school leavers with NCEA Level 2 or above, by ethnic group, 2003, 2005–2008**

	European	Māori	Pacific peoples	Asian	MELAA/ Other	Total
2003	57.4	28.8	42.3	75.1	54.2	52.6
2005	63.0	32.7	45.3	79.9	55.8	57.1
2006	65.4	36.7	49.6	82.2	63.5	60.2
2007	70.6	43.9	56.0	84.2	67.0	65.5
2008	75.2	50.4	62.9	85.8	70.3	70.9

Source: Ministry of Education

Notes: (1) Because of methodological changes, 2004 is not comparable with other years and has been omitted. (2) MELAA stands for Middle Eastern, Latin American, African.

Socio-economic differences

Young people from schools that draw their students from low socio-economic communities are less likely than other young people to attain higher school qualifications. In 2008, 57 percent of school leavers from deciles 1–3 schools (in the most disadvantaged communities) attained qualifications at NCEA Level 2 or above, compared with 67 percent of those leaving deciles 4–7 schools and 82 percent of those leaving deciles 8–10 schools.

Regional differences

The Wellington region had the highest proportion (77 percent) of 2008 school leavers with qualifications at NCEA Level 2 or above, followed by Nelson and Auckland (both 76 percent) and Otago (75 percent). The West Coast had the lowest proportion (50 percent), followed by Gisborne (58 percent) and Tasman (60 percent).

Participation in tertiary education

Definition

The proportion of the population aged 15 years and over enrolled at any time during the year in formal tertiary education leading to a recognised New Zealand qualification.

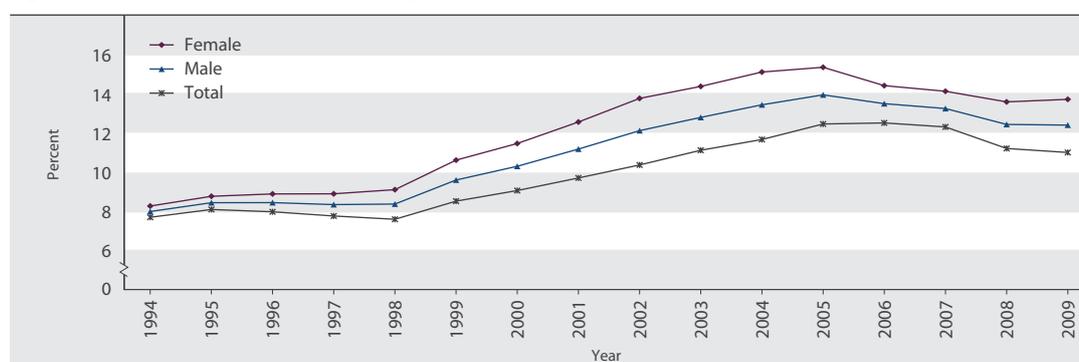
Tertiary education providers include public institutions (universities, polytechnics, wānanga) and private tertiary education providers receiving government funding or approval and registered with the New Zealand Qualifications Authority. Qualifications range from certificates and diplomas to bachelor and postgraduate degrees. Domestic students only are included. Students enrolled at more than one qualification level have been counted in each level.

Relevance The acquisition of a tertiary qualification provides individuals with additional skills and knowledge to participate in society and in the economy.

Current level and trends During 2009, 426,000 people aged 15 years and over were enrolled in formal tertiary education, an increase from 421,000 people in 2008. The age-standardised tertiary education participation rate was 12.4 percent in 2009, about the same as the rate in the previous year (12.5 percent).

Between 1998 and 2005, there was a rapid increase in tertiary education enrolments: the age-standardised participation rate rose from 8.4 percent in 1998 to a peak of 14.0 percent in 2005. Enrolments for certificate-level qualifications have largely driven trends in tertiary participation over the last decade. Participation increased from 2.5 percent in 1998 to 6.2 percent in 2005 for Levels 1–3 certificate courses and from 0.5 percent to 2.3 percent for Level 4 certificate courses. By 2009, participation at these levels had fallen to 4.4 percent and 2.0 percent, respectively. In all other levels of qualification, participation rates remained relatively unchanged between 2005 and 2009. Against the overall fall in participation between 2005 and 2009, the rate of participation in bachelor's degree courses increased slightly, from 3.4 percent to 3.6 percent.

Figure K3.1 Age-standardised tertiary education participation rate, by sex, 1994–2009

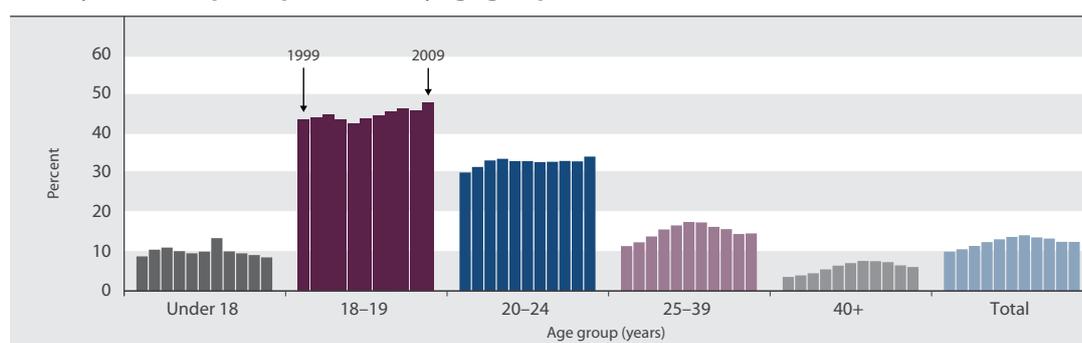


Source: Ministry of Education

Sex differences Females are more likely than males to participate in tertiary study: in 2009, the age-standardised participation rate was 13.7 percent for females and 11.0 percent for males. The sex difference widened over the decade to 2004, narrowed somewhat between 2005 and 2007 as participation fell more for females than for males over that period, then widened slightly from 2007 to 2009 as participation fell more for males. In 2009, females were much more likely than males to be studying for bachelor's degrees (4.4 percent and 2.8 percent, respectively) but there was little or no sex difference in enrolments for certificate level qualifications, the most numerous group.

Age differences Tertiary education participation is highest among 18–19 year olds (47.7 percent in 2009), followed by 20–24 year olds (34.0 percent). Between 2005 and 2008, the participation rate increased slightly for 18–19 year olds, remained steady for 20–24 year olds and declined for all other age groups. In 2009, there was a rise in the rate for 18–19 year olds and 20–24 year olds, perhaps in response to reduced job opportunities for youth following the March 2008 to March 2009 recession.

Figure K3.2 Tertiary education participation rate, by age group, 1999–2009



Source: Ministry of Education

Note: In the under 18 years age group, the figure for 2005 reflects a large number of enrolments in Levels 1–3 certificate courses at institutes of technology or polytechnics in that year.

Ethnic differences

In 2009, the age-standardised tertiary education participation rate was highest for Māori at 17.1 percent. Participation rates were similar for the Asian ethnic group (12.5 percent), Pacific peoples (12.1 percent) and Europeans (11.4 percent).

The Māori age-standardised tertiary education participation rate climbed rapidly from 7.2 percent in 1998 to just under 20 percent between 2003 and 2005. All ethnic groups experienced an increase in tertiary education participation in the first half of the 2000s and a fall in participation between 2005 and 2008, with Māori and Asian ethnic groups experiencing the greatest fall. For Māori, the fall was mainly due to fewer Māori taking certificate-level courses. Between 2008 and 2009, there was an increase in participation at bachelor's degree level for all ethnic groups.

In the peak tertiary education age group, 18–19 years, the Asian and European ethnic groups had considerably higher participation rates than Māori and Pacific peoples in 2009. In the 20–24 years age group the differences between the ethnic groups were much smaller. At older ages, Māori tertiary education participation rates were considerably higher than those of other ethnic groups.

Table K3.1 Tertiary education participation rates (%), by age and ethnic group, 2009

Age group (years)	European	Māori	Pacific peoples	Asian	Total
Under 18	7.9	11.8	7.8	3.3	8.5
18–19	47.4	36.5	42.4	50.2	47.7
20–24	34.9	30.1	28.8	32.1	34.0
25–39	12.7	21.7	15.8	13.2	14.6
40+	4.7	14.1	7.6	8.2	6.1

Source: Ministry of Education

In 2009, the Asian ethnic group had the highest age-standardised rate of participation in bachelor's degree courses (5.0 percent), followed by Europeans (3.5 percent), Māori (3.1 percent), and Pacific peoples (3.0 percent). Pacific females (4.0 percent) and Māori females (3.9 percent) were more likely than European males (2.7 percent) to be enrolled in bachelor's degree courses.

International comparison

There are no robust measures of tertiary education participation across OECD countries. Some indication of New Zealand's relative standing can be gained from the proportion of people enrolled in education at various ages. In 2007, 30 percent of 20–29 year olds (the age group usually enrolled only in tertiary education) were enrolled in education, placing New Zealand seventh out of 29 countries. This was above the OECD median of 24 percent. The New Zealand rate was higher than those of the United Kingdom (17 percent), Ireland (21 percent), the United States (23 percent) and Canada (26 percent), but below the rate for Australia (33 percent).⁵³

At older ages, New Zealand's rate of enrolment in education is much higher than the OECD median (1.6 times higher at ages 30–39 years, twice as high at age 40 years and over).

Educational attainment of the adult population

Definition

The proportion of adults aged 25–64 years with an educational attainment of (1) at least upper secondary school level, and (2) bachelor’s degree or higher.

At least upper secondary school level includes any formal qualification at NCEA Level 1 (or its predecessor, School Certificate) or higher. Bachelor’s degree or higher includes bachelor’s degrees, postgraduate certificates or diplomas, master’s degrees, and doctorates.

Relevance

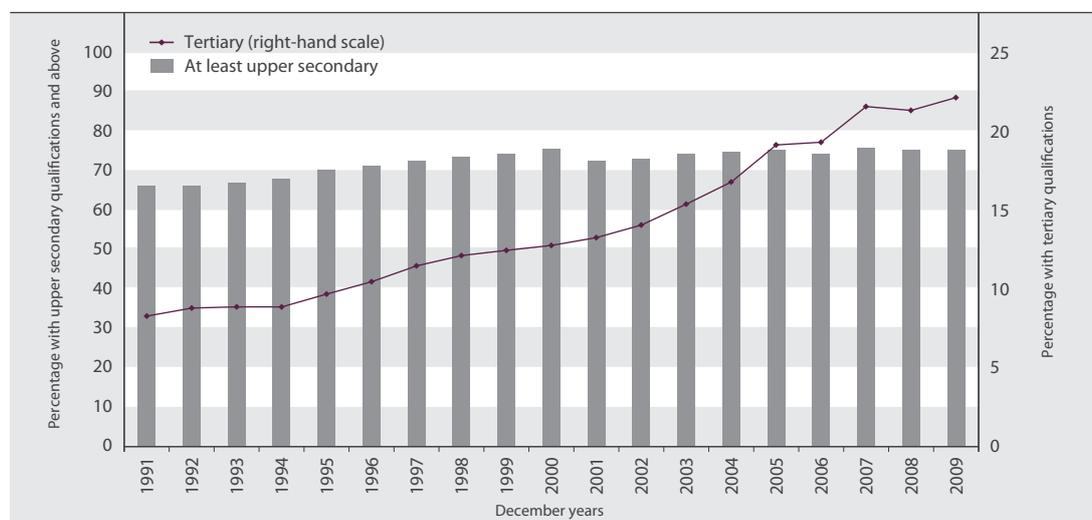
The educational attainment of the adult population is an indicator of the skills available in the economy. The level of formal educational qualifications in the population is a commonly used proxy for the stock of “human capital”, ie the skills available in the population and labour force.

Current level and trends

In the year ended December 2009, 75 percent of the population aged 25–64 years (1.68 million people) had attained an educational qualification at upper secondary school level or above. This was the same proportion as in 2008 but a substantial increase from 62 percent in 1991.

The proportion of adults with a bachelor’s degree or higher qualification rose from 8 percent in 1991 to 21 percent in 2008, and reached 22 percent in 2009 (492,000 people).

Figure K4.1 **Proportion of adults aged 25–64 years with an educational qualification of at least upper secondary level and tertiary level, 1991–2009**



Source: Statistics New Zealand, Household Labour Force Survey
 Notes: (1) Average for December years. (2) At least upper secondary equals NCEA Level 1 (or its predecessor, School Certificate) or higher; tertiary equals bachelor’s degree or higher. (3) Data for 1991–2008 revised by Statistics New Zealand.

Age and sex differences

Younger adults aged 25–34 years are much more likely to have at least upper secondary school qualifications or a bachelor’s degree or higher than adults aged 55–64 years.

Sex differences in educational attainment have narrowed over time. For younger age groups, women are more likely than men to have higher qualifications.

Table K4.1 **Proportion (%) of population aged 25–64 years with higher qualifications, by age group and sex, 2009**

	Age group (years)				Total 25–64
	25–34	35–44	45–54	55–64	
At least upper secondary					
Males	78.8	78.9	75.6	70.1	76.1
Females	82.2	78.2	74.4	61.1	74.6
Total	80.5	78.5	75.0	65.5	75.3
Tertiary					
Males	26.2	22.7	18.9	17.2	21.3
Females	32.2	25.7	18.4	12.8	22.6
Total	29.3	24.2	18.6	14.9	22.0

Source: Statistics New Zealand, Household Labour Force Survey

Notes: (1) Average for December years. (2) At least upper secondary equals NCEA Level 1 (or its predecessor, School Certificate) or higher; tertiary equals bachelor's degree or higher.

Ethnic differences

There are marked ethnic differences in adult educational attainment. In 2009, 79 percent of European adults aged 25–64 years held at least upper secondary school qualifications, compared with 65 percent of Māori adults and 52 percent of Pacific adults. The proportion was 71 percent for the combined Asian, Middle Eastern, Latin American, African and Other ethnic group category. The latter group had the highest proportion of adults with a tertiary degree at bachelor's degree level or above (37 percent), followed by European adults (22 percent), Māori adults (10 percent) and Pacific adults (8 percent). However, while the proportion of adults with a tertiary qualification at bachelor's degree level or above almost doubled in the decade to 2009, it was around two and a half times higher for Māori and Pacific adults.

Table K4.2 **Proportion (%) of population aged 25–64 years with higher qualifications, by ethnic group, selected years, 1991–2009**

	European	Māori	Pacific peoples	Asian/MELAA/Other	Total
At least upper secondary					
1991	66.2	39.0	31.5	57.3	66.1
1996	72.2	47.3	38.9	62.9	71.2
2001	76.2	58.2	52.7	67.8	72.4
2008	78.9	63.8	49.9	72.4	75.2
2009	79.3	65.4	52.0	71.0	75.3
Tertiary					
1991	8.5	1.3	2.8	19.9	8.2
1996	10.6	2.4	2.1	26.7	10.3
2001	12.9	4.8	5.6	31.5	13.1
2008	20.8	9.5	7.6	37.0	21.2
2009	21.7	10.1	8.3	36.9	22.0

Source: Statistics New Zealand, Household Labour Force Survey

Notes: (1) Average for December years. (2) At least upper secondary equals NCEA Level 1 (or its predecessor, School Certificate) or higher; tertiary equals bachelor's degree or higher. (3) Data for 1991–2008 revised by Statistics New Zealand. (4) People who reported more than one ethnic group are counted once in each group reported. (5) MELAA stands for Middle Eastern, Latin American, African. (6) From the December 2007 quarter, people responding "New Zealander" are included in the Other ethnic group. Before that quarter, they were included in European.

International comparison

In OECD figures for 2007, 72 percent of New Zealand adults had at least upper secondary level qualifications, similar to the OECD median of 73 percent. New Zealand ranked 16th highest out of 29 OECD countries. In the proportion of adults with bachelor's degrees or higher, New Zealand ranked fifth equal (with Denmark and Canada) out of 30 OECD countries, with a rate of 25 percent. This was above the OECD median of 20 percent. Countries that had higher proportions of adults with tertiary qualifications at this level included Norway (32 percent, the highest rate) and the United States (31 percent). Australia (24 percent), the United Kingdom (23 percent) and Ireland (21 percent) had lower proportions than New Zealand.

Among 25–34 year olds, New Zealand ranked fourth with 33 percent having tertiary qualifications at bachelor's degree level or higher. This was above the United States and Australia (31 percent), Ireland (30 percent) and Canada and the United Kingdom (both 29 percent).

New Zealand is among the 25 OECD countries in which females aged 25–34 years are more likely than males of that age to have tertiary qualifications at bachelor's degree level or higher.

Adult literacy skills in English

Definition

The proportion of the population aged 16–65 years with higher literacy skills in English (defined as skills at Level 3 or above), as measured in the 1996 International Adult Literacy Survey (IALS) and the 2006 Adult Literacy and Life Skills Survey (ALL).

Level 3 is a “suitable minimum for coping with the demands of everyday life and work in a complex, advanced society. It denotes roughly the skill level required for successful secondary school completion and college entry”.⁵⁴ Prose literacy is defined as the ability to read and understand continuous texts (such as news stories, editorials, brochures and instruction manuals). Document literacy is the ability to read and understand discontinuous texts (such as charts, maps, tables, job applications, payroll forms and timetables). Numeracy is the ability to read and process mathematical and numerical information in diverse situations.⁵⁵

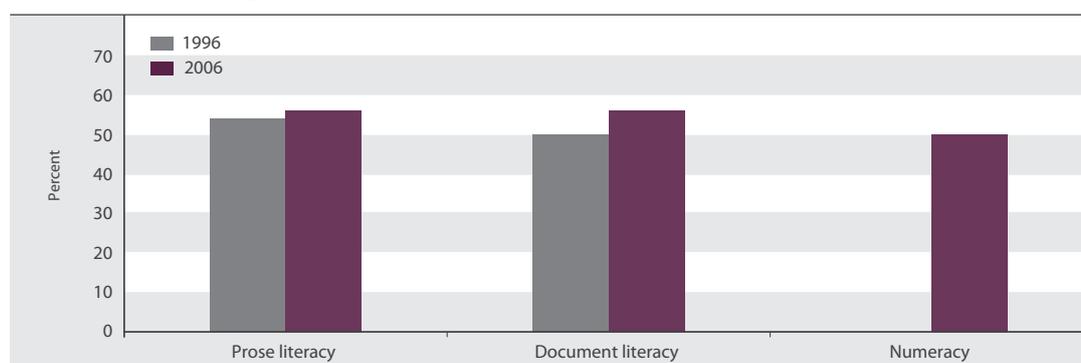
Relevance

The increasing complexity of our society and the need for a more flexible and highly skilled workforce mean individuals need to understand and apply information of varying difficulty from a range of sources to function effectively at work and in everyday life. The IALS and the ALL surveys were designed to measure adult literacy skills in English by assessing proficiency levels, using test materials derived from specific contexts within countries.

Current level and trends

Results from the second international literacy survey in 2006 showed 56 percent of New Zealand’s population aged 16–65 years had higher prose literacy skills (at Level 3 or above), 57 percent had higher document literacy skills and 49 percent had higher numeracy skills. These proportions represent an improvement since 1996, when 53 percent of adults had prose literacy skills at Level 3 and above and 49 percent had document literacy skills at these levels. There is no comparable trend data for numeracy skills.

Figure K5.1 **Proportion of adults aged 16–65 years with literacy skills at Level 3 or above, 1996, 2006**



Source: Satherley P, Lawes E and Sok S (2008b)
Note: Numeracy was measured in the 2006 survey only.

Sex differences

In 2006, males were more likely than females to have numeracy skills at Level 3 or above, but there was no significant sex difference in higher prose literacy. The picture was mixed for document literacy. Overall, there was no significant sex difference in the proportion of adults with document literacy skills at Level 3 or above. However, among young adults aged under 25 years, a larger proportion of females than of males had these skills. The pattern was reversed at ages 45 years and over, with males more likely than females to have higher document literacy skills.

All of the improvement in higher prose literacy between 1996 and 2006 was due to increases for males (from 49 percent to 54 percent). The substantial improvement in document literacy was shared by both sexes: the proportion of adults with skills at Level 3 or above increased from 49 percent to 56 percent for females, and from 50 percent to 58 percent for males.

Table K5.1 **Proportion (%) of adults with literacy skills at Level 3 or above, by age group and sex, 2006**

Age group (years)	Prose literacy		Document literacy		Numeracy	
	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males
16–24	49	44	54	49	40	45
25–34	59	56	60	61	49	57
35–44	63	56	61	62	52	60
45–54	63	61	57	62	45	58
55–65	51	52	43	53	34	51
Total	57	54	56	58	45	54

Source: Satherley P and Lawes E (2008a) Figures 4.1, 4.2, 4.3, and customised data

Age differences

The proportion of adults with literacy and numeracy skills at Level 3 or above was larger at ages 25–54 years than at younger and older ages in 2006. Improvements in higher prose and document literacy between 1996 and 2006 were entirely due to improvements for adults aged 25–65 years. Young adults aged 16–24 years in 2006 were slightly less likely than their counterparts in 1996 to have higher document literacy, and much less likely to have higher prose literacy. However, on an age cohort basis, those aged 25–34 years in 2006 had improved in prose and document literacy relative to 16–24 year olds in 1996.

Table K5.2 **Proportion (%) of adults with literacy skills at Level 3 or above, by age group, 1996, 2006**

Age group (years)	Prose literacy		Document literacy		Numeracy
	1996	2006	1996	2006	2006
16–24	56	47	55	52	43
25–34	52	57	52	60	53
35–44	59	60	54	61	55
45–54	53	62	47	60	51
55–65	42	52	31	48	43
Total	53	56	49	57	49

Sources: Satherley P and Lawes E (2008a) Figures 2.2, 2.4, 2.6; Satherley P, Lawes E and Sok S (2008b)
Note: Numeracy was measured in the 2006 survey only.

Ethnic differences

Across all three domains, a clear majority of New Zealand Europeans had literacy skills at Level 3 or above. Compared to Asian adults in 2006, Māori adults had a larger proportion with prose literacy at Level 3 or above, but a smaller proportion with higher levels of document literacy and numeracy. Pacific peoples consistently had the smallest proportions with skills at Level 3 or above. In 2006, less than one quarter of Pacific adults had prose or document literacy skills at this level and only 14 percent had higher numeracy skills. Between 1996 and 2006, the proportions of New Zealand European, Māori and Asian adults with higher prose and document literacy skills increased, while the proportions of Pacific adults with these skills declined.

Table K5.3 **Proportion (%) of adults with literacy skills at Level 3 or above, by ethnic group, 1996, 2006**

Ethnic group	Prose literacy		Document literacy		Numeracy
	1996	2006	1996	2006	2006
New Zealand European	59	64	55	64	56
Māori	35	37	30	36	25
Pacific peoples	28	21	26	24	14
Asian	28	34	33	43	39
Total	53	56	49	57	49

Source: Satherley P and Lawes E (2008c)
Note: Robust statistics are not available for Other ethnicities because of small numbers.

International comparison

Comparable information from the IALS and ALL surveys is available for New Zealand, Australia, the English-speaking part of Canada, and the United States. In 2006, New Zealand had the same proportion of adults with prose and document literacy skills in English at Level 3 or above as Australia (56 percent), a lower proportion than English-speaking Canada (60 percent), and a higher proportion than the United States (48 percent). The proportion of adults with numeracy skills at Level 3 or above was similar for New Zealand (50 percent), Australia (51 percent) and Canada (52 percent), and lower for the United States (42 percent).⁵⁶

Desired outcomes

Everybody has access to meaningful, rewarding and safe employment. An appropriate balance is maintained between paid work and other aspects of life.

Paid work

Introduction

Paid work has an important role in social wellbeing. It provides people with incomes to meet their basic needs and to contribute to their material comfort, and it gives them options for how they live their lives. Paid work is also important for the social contact and sense of self-worth or satisfaction it can give people.

The desired outcomes highlight four aspects of paid work: access to work, the financial return from work, the safety of the working environment and the balance between work and other areas of life.

For most people, income from paid work is the main factor determining their material standard of living. Wage and salary income makes up around two-thirds of the total income received by New Zealanders aged 15 years and over.⁵⁷ Income saved during their working life contributes to the standard of living of many retired people.

The social and personal dimensions of paid work are both important. Ideally, work should not only be materially rewarding but it should contribute to other aspects of wellbeing. Meeting challenges at work can contribute to a sense of satisfaction and self-worth. Paid work is more likely to be satisfying where people can find employment to match their skills and abilities.

Social contact is an important part of wellbeing. For many people, much of their social contact is through their jobs. People often gain a sense of belonging or identity from their jobs, identifying themselves and others through the organisation they work for or the type of work they do.

Conversely, unemployment can isolate people from society and cause them to lose self-confidence. Unemployment is associated with poorer mental and physical health, and lower levels of satisfaction with life.⁵⁸

The quality of work is critically important. A meaningful job can enhance people's satisfaction with their work. An unsafe job, on the other hand, places people's wellbeing at risk.

Work can also be stressful. People may be required to work longer hours than they want to or need to. The desired outcomes acknowledge that wellbeing is best served by maintaining a balance between paid work and other aspects of life including spending time with family and friends, taking part in leisure and recreational activities, and doing unpaid work such as housework and voluntary work. Where that balance lies will differ from person to person.

Indicators

Five indicators are used in this chapter. They are: the unemployment rate, the employment rate, median hourly earnings, work-related injury claims and satisfaction with work-life balance.

The unemployment rate – unemployed persons as a proportion of the labour force – is the official measure reported by Statistics New Zealand (averaged for December years). To be counted as unemployed, a person must not only be out of work, they must also be available for work in the next four weeks and have actively sought work in the past four weeks. This accords closely with the OECD standard measure, allowing international comparisons. Information about long-term unemployment is also provided.

The second indicator, the employment rate, complements the unemployment rate indicator by measuring actual engagement in work among the population aged 15–64 years. Full-time and part-time employment rates are included.

Both the unemployment and the employment rates are affected by several factors, including economic conditions and the availability of work, migration flows, people's qualifications and abilities, family responsibilities, and personal decisions.

The third indicator is median hourly earnings from waged and salaried employment. The level of financial return from paid employment, independent of the number of hours worked, is a key determinant of the standard of living that people can attain.

The fourth indicator is the rate of work-related injury claims per 1,000 full-time equivalent employees. Workplace safety is important in its own right, but may also be a proxy for the quality of employment. Jobs should not pose an unreasonable risk to people's lives, or their physical or mental wellbeing.

The final indicator is the proportion of the population in paid employment who are satisfied with their work-life balance.

Unemployment

Definition

The unemployment rate is the number of people aged 15 years and over who are not employed and who are actively seeking and available for paid work, expressed as a percentage of the total labour force, as measured by the Household Labour Force Survey.

The labour force is defined as the population aged 15 years and over who are either employed or unemployed.

Relevance

This is a key indicator of labour market outcomes and the lack of access to employment. The unemployment rate is an important reflection of overall economic conditions and it gives some sense of the ease with which people are able to move into employment.

Current level and trends

In the year ended December 2009, 6.1 percent of the labour force (or 141,500 people) were unemployed and actively seeking work, an increase from 4.2 percent (or 95,000 people) in the year ended December 2008. This reflects the lagged impact of the economic recession in New Zealand between March 2008 and March 2009.

The unemployment rate reached a peak of 10.6 percent in 1991 and 1992 (180,400 people unemployed in 1992), fell to 6.3 percent in 1996, rose to 7.7 percent in 1998, then declined steadily between 1999 and 2007. The 2009 unemployment rate was higher than the rate of 4.2 percent (70,500 people) in 1986, when the survey began.

In 2009, 23 percent of the surveyed unemployed who specified their duration of unemployment had been unemployed for a continuous period of six months or more, an increase from the record low of 15 percent in 2008. The 2009 level of long-term unemployment was the same as that recorded in 1986 (23 percent) and substantially lower than the peak of 54 percent in 1992.

Figure PW1.1 **Unemployment rate, 1986–2009**



Source: Statistics New Zealand, Household Labour Force Survey
Note: Average for December years.

Age and sex differences

Unemployment rates for different age groups have followed similar trends, but are consistently higher among youth. Between 2007 and 2009, the unemployment rate for 15–24 year olds in the labour force was four times higher than the rate for 25–64 year olds, an increase from two-to-three times higher over the previous 20 years. The youth (15–24 years) unemployment rate was higher in 2009 (16.6 percent) than it was in 1998 (15.1 percent).

Unemployment rates were similar for males and females in 2009, after being higher for females than for males between 2002 and 2007 and higher for males than for females in the peak years of unemployment in the early 1990s. There was little sex difference in the unemployment rate for youth aged 15–24 years in 2009 (16.0 percent for males and 17.2 percent for females).

Table PW1.1

Unemployment rate (%), by age group and sex, selected years, 1986–2009

Year	15–24 years	25–44 years	45–54 years	55–64 years	Males 15+	Females 15+	Total 15+
1986	8.0	3.2	2.1	1.2	3.7	4.9	4.2
1991	19.3	9.1	6.5	5.5	11.2	9.8	10.6
1992	19.1	9.3	6.5	5.9	11.4	9.7	10.6
1996	12.2	5.4	4.2	3.7	6.3	6.3	6.3
2001	12.1	4.6	3.4	3.6	5.5	5.4	5.4
2006	10.0	3.0	2.2	2.0	3.6	4.2	3.8
2007	10.0	2.8	2.1	1.5	3.4	4.0	3.7
2008	11.4	3.3	2.3	2.0	4.1	4.2	4.2
2009	16.6	4.8	3.6	3.2	6.1	6.2	6.1

Source: Statistics New Zealand, Household Labour Force Survey
Note: Average for December years.

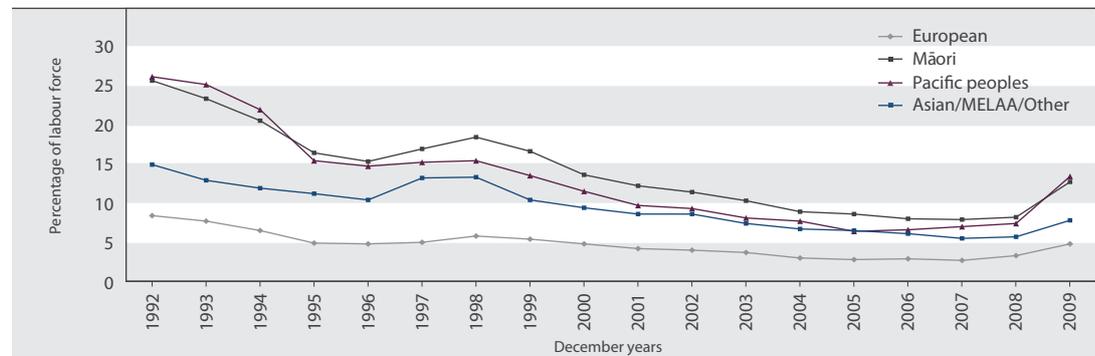
Ethnic differences

The Māori unemployment rate peaked at 25.6 percent in the year to December 1992. It fell to a record low of 7.9 percent in 2007, increased slightly to 8.2 percent in the year to December 2008, then rose to 12.7 percent in the year to December 2009. The unemployment rate for Pacific peoples was 26.1 percent in 1992, the highest rate for any ethnic group. After falling to 6.4 percent in 2005, the Pacific peoples' unemployment rate increased slightly over the following three years, then rose sharply from 7.4 percent in the year to December 2008 to 13.4 percent in the year to December 2009.

The European unemployment rate fell to a record low of 2.7 percent in 2007, then increased to 3.3 percent in 2008 and to 4.8 percent in 2009. The rate for the combined Asian, Middle Eastern/Latin American/African (MELAA) or Other ethnic group category fell to 5.5 percent in 2007, then increased to 5.7 percent in 2008 and to 7.8 percent in 2009.

In 2009, among youth aged 15–24 years, Pacific youth had the highest unemployment rate (27.8 percent), followed by Māori youth (25.7 percent). Rates were considerably lower for European youth (14.1 percent), and youth in the combined ethnic group category, Asian/MELAA/Other (17 percent).

Figure PW1.2

Unemployment rate, by ethnic group, 1992–2009

Source: Statistics New Zealand, Household Labour Force Survey

Notes: (1) Average for December years. (2) Based on the labour force aged 15 years and over. (3) People who reported more than one ethnic group are counted once in each group reported. (4) MELAA stands for Middle Eastern, Latin American, African. (5) From the December 2007 quarter, people responding "New Zealander" are included in the Other ethnic group. Before that quarter, they were included in European.

Regional differences

Northland and Gisborne/Hawke's Bay had the highest unemployment rates in the year to December 2009 (8.9 percent and 8.3 percent, respectively). Southland had the lowest rate (3.5 percent).

International comparison

In the year ended December 2009, New Zealand's harmonised (seasonally-adjusted) unemployment rate of 6.1 percent was the 11th lowest out of 30 OECD countries and lower than the OECD median of 7.7 percent. New Zealand's rate was well below those of Ireland (11.9 percent), the United States (9.3 percent), Canada (8.3 percent) and the United Kingdom (7.6 percent), but above that of Australia (5.6 percent). Since the mid-1980s, New Zealand's unemployment rate relative to other OECD countries has ranged from one of the lowest (fifth out of 19 countries in 1986 with a rate of 4.2 percent) to one of the highest (21st out of 25 countries in 1992 with a rate of 10.6 percent).⁵⁹

In 2009, New Zealand had the fourth lowest proportion of people unemployed who had been unemployed for six months or longer.⁶⁰

Employment

Definition

The employment rate is the proportion of the population aged 15–64 years who are employed for at least one hour per week, as measured by the Household Labour Force Survey.

Relevance

The employment rate is the best available indicator of the prevalence of paid employment. Like the unemployment rate, it is affected by a number of factors, including economic conditions and the availability of work, migration flows, skill levels, family responsibilities and personal decisions.

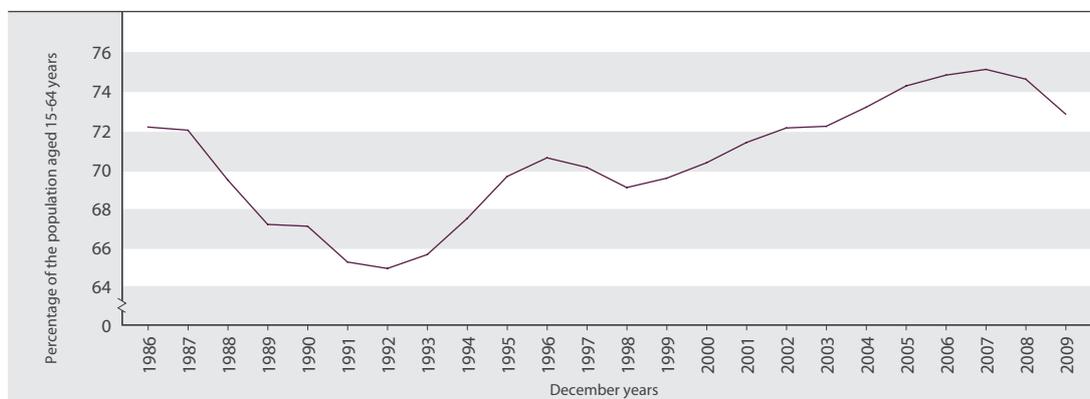
Current level and trends

In the year ended December 2009, 72.9 percent of 15–64 year olds (2.082 million people) were employed. This was a decrease from 74.7 percent in the year ended December 2008 and the record high of 75.2 percent in the year ended December 2007. The decline reflects the lagged impact of the economic recession in New Zealand between March 2008 and March 2009.

The employment rate fell from 72.2 percent in 1986 to a low of 64.9 in 1992 but has generally risen since, except during the economic downturn of 1997/1998 and the most recent recession.

The full-time employment rate for 15–64 year olds declined sharply between 1986 (60.3 percent) and 1992 (51.2 percent), and had almost recovered to the mid-1980s level by 2006 (59.3 percent) before declining in subsequent years (56.8 percent in 2009). The part-time employment rate increased from 11.9 percent in 1986 to 16.3 percent in 2007, and was 16.0 percent in 2009. Although the part-time employment rate has almost doubled for men since 1986, women continue to have a higher part-time employment rate than men (23.1 percent and 8.7 percent, respectively, in 2009).

Figure PW2.1 **Employment rate, 1986–2009**



Source: Statistics New Zealand, Household Labour Force Survey
Notes: (1) Average for December years. (2) Based on the population aged 15–64 years.

Age and sex differences

People aged 25–54 years have the highest employment rates and these changed little over the period 2007 to 2009. In contrast, the employment rate of young people aged 15–24 years fell by nearly 7 percentage points (from 58.2 percent in 2007 to 51.6 percent in 2009). Youth employment rates also fell by more than those of other age groups in the two previous economic downturns of 1987–1992 and 1997/1998. Employment rates for people aged 55–64 years have grown strongly since 1992, driven mainly by the phasing in of a higher age of eligibility for New Zealand Superannuation, rising employment among women, and an increase in the demand for labour.

Women are less likely than men to be employed. This is mainly because women spend more time on childcare and other unpaid household work, and are more likely than men to undertake some form of study or training. However, the sex difference in the employment rate more than halved between 1986 and 2009, from 24 percentage points to 11 percentage points. This is the result of female employment rates falling less than those of males during the economic downturns of the past 25 years, and increasing more than those of males between 1992 and 2007. Among youth aged 15–24 years, females (49.2 percent) were less likely than males (53.9 percent) to be employed in 2009.

Table PW2.1 **Employment rate (%), by age group and sex, selected years, 1986–2009**

Year	15–24 years	25–44 years	45–54 years	55–64 years	65+ years	Male 15–64	Female 15–64	Total 15–64
1986	68.6	79.2	79.4	48.9	8.8	84.5	60.1	72.2
1991	54.4	73.6	77.0	41.5	6.0	73.6	57.2	65.3
1992	53.0	73.4	76.9	41.4	5.4	73.0	57.1	64.9
1996	58.8	76.8	81.0	53.5	6.6	78.6	62.9	70.6
2001	55.4	77.5	82.1	60.4	8.5	78.6	64.5	71.4
2006	58.2	80.4	84.8	70.2	12.6	81.9	68.2	74.9
2007	58.2	80.7	84.4	71.8	14.1	81.9	68.7	75.2
2008	56.1	80.6	84.5	71.7	15.3	80.9	68.7	74.7
2009	51.6	79.1	83.4	72.1	15.8	78.6	67.4	72.9

Source: Statistics New Zealand, Household Labour Force Survey
 Note: Average for December years.

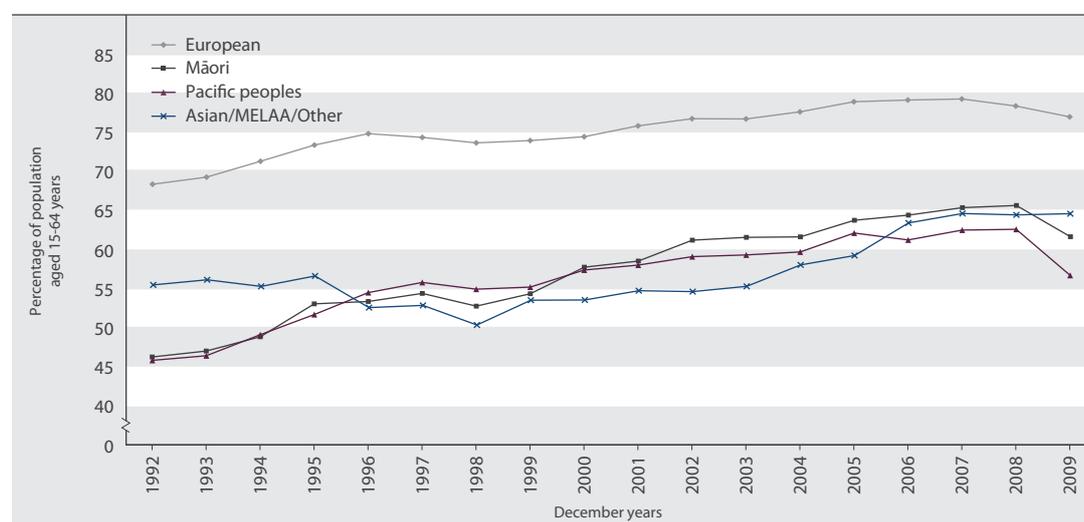
Ethnic differences

Māori and Pacific peoples had the lowest employment rates in 1992 but their rates showed the strongest recovery as economic conditions improved. The Māori employment rate peaked at 65.7 percent in the year to December 2008, then fell back to 61.7 percent in 2009, the same rate as in 2003 and 2004. The Pacific employment rate reached 62.7 in 2008, then fell to 56.8 in 2009, the lowest rate since 1999.

After declining slightly between 1996 and 1998, the European employment rate reached a record high of 79.3 percent in the year to December 2007, then fell to 78.4 percent in 2008 and to 77.0 percent in 2009. The combined Asian, Middle Eastern/Latin American/African (MELAA), Other (including “New Zealander”) ethnic group category had the lowest employment rate in the economic downturn of 1998 (50.5 percent). By 2007, the rate for this combined group had increased to 64.7 percent and was at the same level in 2009.

In 2009, among youth aged 15–24 years, employment rates varied from 57.1 percent for European youth, 42.3 percent for Māori youth, 37.4 percent for Pacific youth and 43.6 percent for youth of the combined Asian/MELAA/Other ethnic group category.

Figure PW2.2 **Employment rate, by ethnic group, 1992–2009**



Source: Statistics New Zealand, Household Labour Force Survey
 Notes: (1) Average for December years. (2) Based on the population aged 15–64 years. (3) People who reported more than one ethnic group are counted once in each group reported. (4) MELAA stands for Middle Eastern, Latin American, African. (5) From the December 2007 quarter, people responding “New Zealander” are included in the Other ethnic group. Before that quarter, they were included in European.

International comparison

In the year to December 2009, New Zealand was ranked sixth highest of 30 OECD countries with an employment rate of 72.9 percent for people aged 15–64 years. This was well above the OECD median of 67.0 percent. Switzerland had the highest employment rate in 2009 (79.2 percent). The New Zealand rate in 2009 was higher than those of Australia (72.0 percent), Canada (71.5 percent), the United Kingdom (70.6 percent), the United States (67.6 percent) and Ireland (62.5 percent). In 2009, New Zealand had a higher male and female employment rate than Australia, the United Kingdom, the United States and Ireland but had a lower female employment rate than Canada.⁶¹

Median hourly earnings

Definition

Median hourly earnings from all wages and salaries for employees aged 15 years and over earning income from wage and salary jobs, as measured by the New Zealand Income Survey, adjusted for inflation.

Relevance

Median hourly earnings from wage and salary jobs is an indicator of the financial return from paid employment, independent of the number of hours worked.

Current level and trends

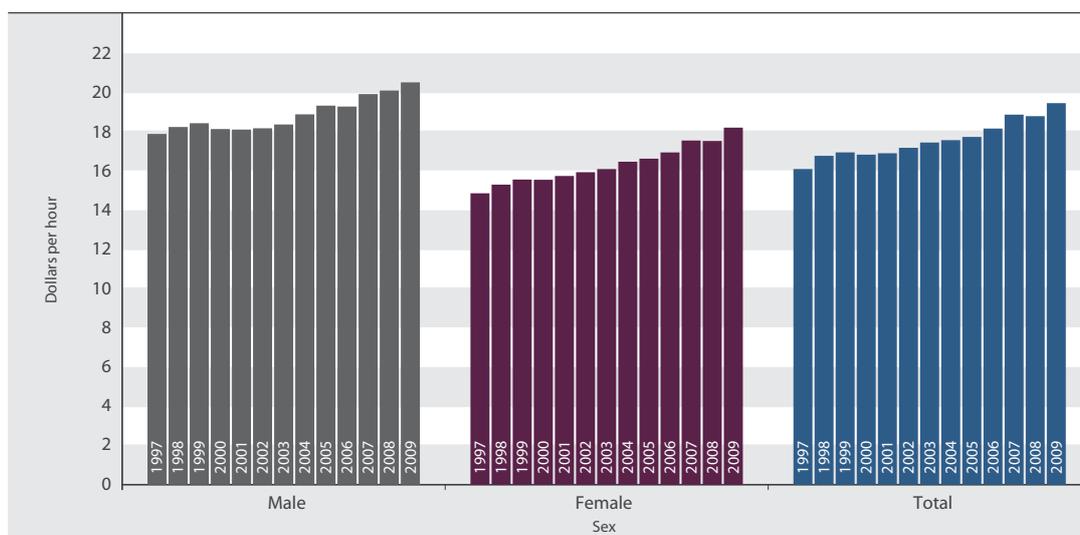
In the June 2009 quarter, half of all people employed in wage and salary jobs earned more than \$19.47 an hour. In the year to the June 2009 quarter, real (inflation-adjusted) median hourly earnings rose by 66 cents an hour or 4 percent. Over the 12 years to the June 2009 quarter, real median hourly earnings increased by \$3.36 an hour or 21 percent.

Hourly earnings are higher for full-time wage earners than for those working part-time. In the June 2009 quarter, the median hourly wage was \$20.83 for people employed full-time in wage and salary jobs and \$15.00 for part-time employees.

By qualification level, median hourly earnings ranged from \$26.56 for employees with a degree at bachelor's level or higher, to \$16.00 an hour for those with no qualifications.

Employees in professional occupations had the highest median hourly earnings, at \$27.50. This is nearly twice the median hourly earnings of service and sales workers, at \$14.00 an hour.

Figure PW3.1 **Median hourly earnings from wage and salary jobs (in June 2009 dollars), by sex, June quarters, 1997–2009**



Source: Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand Income Survey

Age differences

In 2009, median hourly earnings from wage and salary jobs were highest at ages 35–39 years (\$23.02) and 30–34 years and 40–44 years (both \$22.00). This compares with \$12.50 an hour for 15–19 year olds and \$17.54 for those aged 65 years and over.

By five-year age groups, the increase in employees' real median hourly earnings over the 12 years to 2009 was largest for those aged 15–19 years (29 percent) and smallest for those aged 20–24 years (10 percent). Across broad age groups, real median hourly earnings increased over that period by 14 percent for those aged 15–24 years, 20 percent for those aged 25–44 years, 17 percent for those aged 45–64 years and 24 percent for those aged 65 years and over.

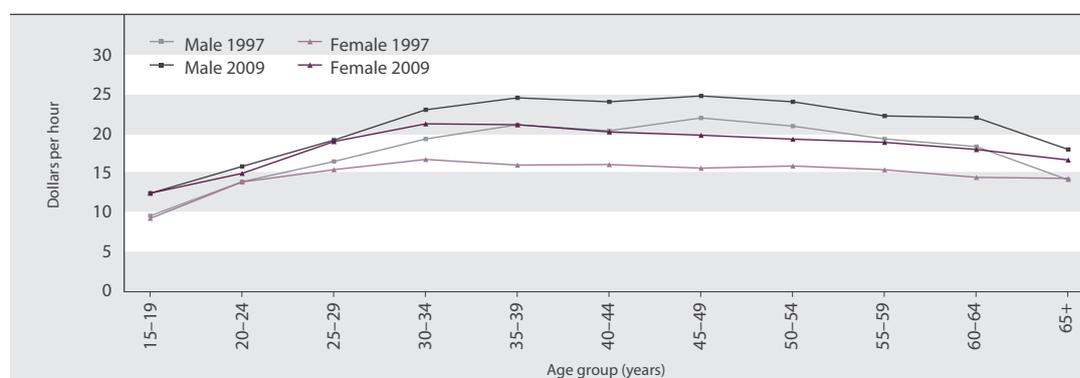
Sex differences

The median hourly wage was \$20.53 for male employees and \$18.22 for female employees in the June 2009 quarter. The increase in real median hourly earnings from 1997 to 2009 was greater for female employees (23 percent) than for male employees (15 percent). Over this period, the ratio of female to male median hourly earnings increased from 83 percent to 89 percent.

Among wage and salary earners employed full-time in the June 2009 quarter, median hourly earnings were higher for males (\$21.67) than for females (\$19.99). For part-time employees, the sex difference was reversed, with median hourly earnings higher for females (\$15.50) than for males (\$14.00). The pattern was the same in the previous year.

In 2009, there was a sex difference in median hourly earnings at all ages over 20 years. The gap was greatest for employees aged 45–54 years, where the ratio of female to male median hourly earnings was 80 percent. However, the gap has narrowed since 1997 when the ratio of female to male median hourly earnings was 71 percent for 45–49 year olds and 76 percent for 50–54 year olds. Over the 12 years since 1997, the ratio of female to male median hourly earnings increased most for the 35–39 years age group (from 76 percent to 86 percent).

Figure PW3.2 **Median hourly earnings from wage and salary jobs (in June 2009 dollars), by age group and sex, June quarters, 2007 and 2009**



Source: Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand Income Survey

Ethnic differences

In the June 2009 quarter, Europeans and the Other ethnic group (including “New Zealander”), had the highest median hourly earnings for wage and salary earners at \$20.00 an hour. They were followed by the Asian ethnic group and the combined ethnic group category of Middle Eastern, Latin American and African (MELAA), at \$18.00 an hour. The median hourly earnings of Māori were somewhat lower at \$17.50 an hour, while Pacific peoples had the lowest earnings at \$16.50 an hour. However, compared to the June 2008 quarter, Pacific peoples in wage and salary jobs had the greatest increase in real median hourly earnings, up 7 percent, compared to 5 percent for Māori and 4 percent for Europeans.

Between 2008 and 2009, the ratio of Pacific to European median hourly earnings increased from 80 percent to 83 percent, while the ratio of Māori to European median hourly earnings increased from 86 percent to 88 percent. Over the 12 years to 2009, inflation-adjusted median hourly earnings from wage and salary jobs increased by 25 percent for Māori. This was more than the increase for all earners (21 percent). Because of a change in the way ethnic statistics are collected and reported, it is not possible to measure long-term change in median hourly earnings for ethnic groups other than Māori.

Regional differences

In the June 2009 quarter, workers in Auckland and Wellington had the highest median hourly earnings. The median hourly earnings for wage and salary workers was \$20.62 in Auckland, \$20.50 in Wellington and \$19.60 in Canterbury. Median hourly earnings were lowest in the Bay of Plenty (\$17.90), Manawatu-Wanganui and Southland (both \$18.00), Gisborne/Hawke’s Bay (\$18.14) and Northland (\$18.17).

Over the period 1998–2009, real median hourly earnings increased most in Canterbury and Northland (each 24 percent). All regions experienced positive growth in real median hourly earnings over that period.

Work-related injury claims

Definition

The number of work-related accident insurance claims reported to the Accident Compensation Corporation (ACC) per 1,000 full-time equivalent employees, excluding those employees who received accident and emergency treatment only.

Relevance

Safety at work is an important contributor to wellbeing and the risk of work-related accidents or illness can be seen as one component of the quality of work. The best currently available measure of the incidence of work-related injuries comes from the database of claims made to the ACC.

Current level and trends

Provisional data for the 2008 calendar year shows 224,900 work-related injury claims had been reported to the ACC by 31 March 2009. This represents a rate of 117 work-related injury claims per 1,000 full-time equivalent employees (FTEs). This is lower than the provisional rate for 2007 based on claims reported by 31 March 2008 (122 per 1,000 FTEs).

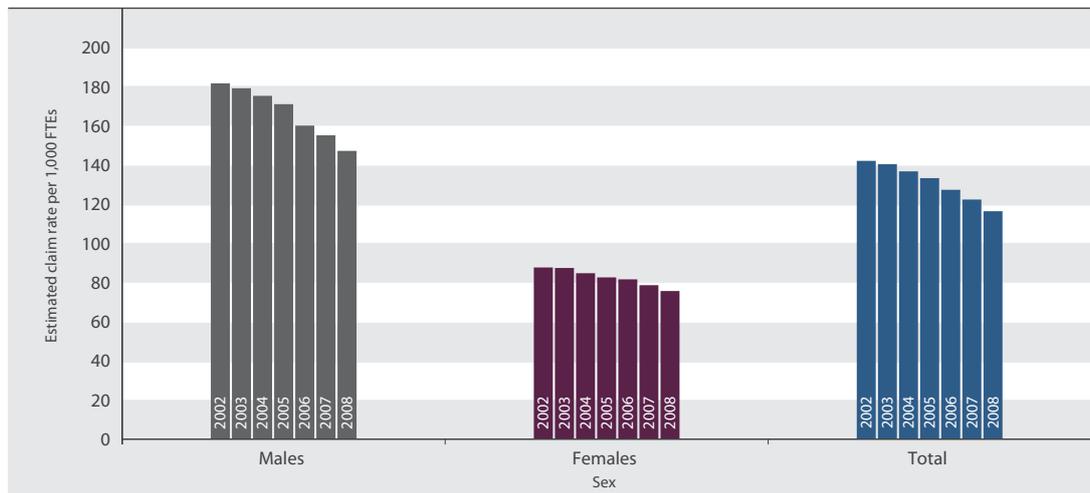
Using final data for the years 2002 to 2007, the work-related injury claim rate dropped from 143 per 1,000 to 123 per 1,000 FTEs.

In 2008, 84 percent of all work-related injury claims were for employees. The work-related injury claim rate for the self-employed (not employing others) was much higher than for the rest of the workforce (174 per 1,000 FTEs compared with 110 per 1,000 FTEs).

Injury claims for 2008 reported by March 2009 included 63 work-related fatalities. This is likely to be an underestimation of the final number of fatalities, because some workers may have died later from injuries received in the period. For example, the number of claims for fatal injuries inflicted in 2007 that were recorded by March 2008 was 67; the final number of fatal injury claims for 2007 was 89. Moreover, not all fatal work-related accidents result in a claim to the ACC.

Figure PW4.1

Estimated work-related injury claim rate per 1,000 full-time equivalent employees, by sex, 2002–2008



Source: Statistics New Zealand (2009c)

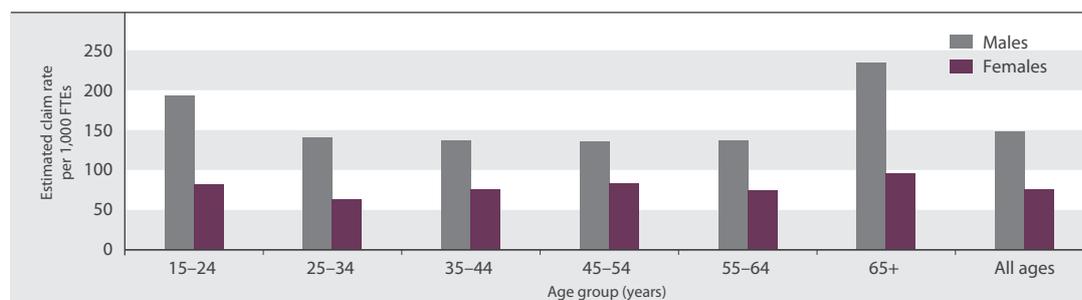
Note: The 2008 data is provisional and subject to change.

Age and sex differences

Provisional 2008 data shows males were around twice as likely as females to experience work-related injuries involving a claim to the ACC (148 per 1,000 FTEs for males compared with 76 per 1,000 FTEs for females).

Although workers aged 65 years and over made only 5 percent of the injury claims, they had the highest work-related injury claim rate (185 claims per 1,000 FTEs). The next highest work-related injury claim rate was for those aged 15–24 years (143 per 1,000 FTEs). Age differences in work-related injury claim rates for females were less pronounced than those for males.

Figure PW4.2 **Estimated work-related injury claim rate per 1,000 full-time equivalent employees, by age group and sex, 2008**



Source: Statistics New Zealand (2009c)
Note: The 2008 data is provisional and subject to change.

Ethnic differences

Work-related injury claim rates were higher for Pacific peoples than for other ethnic groups (143 per 1,000 FTEs in 2008). Injury claim rates for the Other (including Asians) and Māori ethnic groups were 128 per 1,000 FTEs and 112 per 1,000 FTEs respectively in 2008. The European ethnic group, which accounts for 73 percent of all FTEs, had the lowest work-related injury claim rate (105 per 1,000 FTEs).

Table PW4.1 **Work-related injury claims, by ethnicity, 2008**

Ethnic group	Number of claims	Rate per 1,000 FTEs
European	146.9	105
Māori	25.9	112
Pacific peoples	12.7	143
Other (including Asian)	25.4	128
Total	224.9	117

Source: Statistics New Zealand (2009c) Table 5
Notes: (1) Data is provisional. (2) Total includes ethnicity not specified.

Industry differences

The agriculture, forestry and fishing industry group had the highest work-related injury claim rate in 2008, with 152 work-related claims per 1,000 FTEs. There were also relatively high rates in the manufacturing industry (148 claims per 1,000 FTEs) and the construction industry (146 claims per 1,000 FTEs). These three industries account for almost half (48 percent) of all industry-specified work-related injury claims. The lowest work-related injury claim rate was for people working in finance and insurance (19 claims per 1,000 FTEs).

Regional differences

The highest work-related injury claim rates in 2008 were in Gisborne/Hawke's Bay, Otago/Southland and the Bay of Plenty (160, 157 and 156 claims per 1,000 FTEs, respectively). Wellington and Auckland had the lowest rate of claims per 1,000 FTEs (65 and 105, respectively). Auckland, despite its relatively low work-related injury claim rate, had the highest overall number of work-related injury claims at 62,200.

Satisfaction with work-life balance

Definition

The proportion of employed people who are “satisfied” or “very satisfied” with their work-life balance, as reported in the Quality of Life Survey.

Relevance

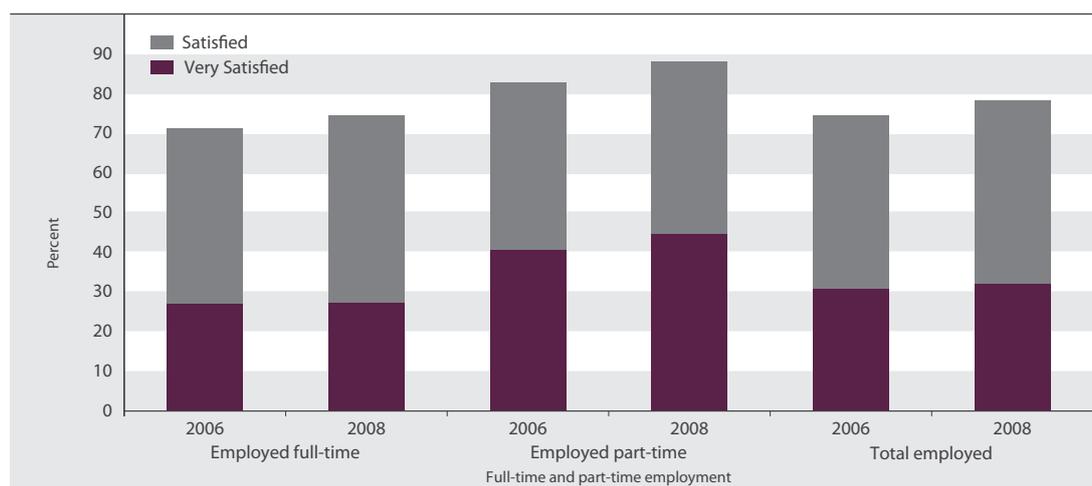
It is important that people find a balance between paid work and other aspects of their lives. When this balance is not found, people may suffer from stress or anxiety. Long working hours or non-standard working hours (eg night shifts) may compromise work-life balance.

Current level and trends

In 2008, 78 percent of employed New Zealanders were satisfied or very satisfied with their work-life balance. This was similar to the level in 2006 (75 percent).

People in part-time employment were more likely to be satisfied with their work-life balance than people in full-time employment. In 2008, 88 percent of people in part-time employment were satisfied or very satisfied with their work-life balance, compared to 74 percent of those in full-time employment. The equivalent figures for 2006 were 83 percent and 71 percent, respectively.

Figure PW5.1 **Proportion of employed people who were satisfied with their work-life balance, by full-time and part-time status, 2006 and 2008**



Sources: Quality of Life Survey 2006; Quality of Life Survey 2008

Age differences

Employed people aged 65 years and over were the most satisfied (92 percent) with their work-life balance in 2008. In all age groups, people employed part-time had higher levels of satisfaction than those employed full-time. Those least likely to be satisfied with their work-life balance were full-time employed people aged 35–44 years (71 percent) and 45–54 years (72 percent).

Table PW5.1 **Proportion (%) of employed people who were satisfied or very satisfied with their work-life balance, by full-time and part-time status and age group, 2008**

	Age group (years)					
	15–24	25–34	35–44	45–54	55–64	65+
Employed full-time	77	75	71	72	78	85
Employed part-time	85	82	88	87	92	97
Total employed	81	76	75	75	82	92

Source: Quality of Life Survey 2008

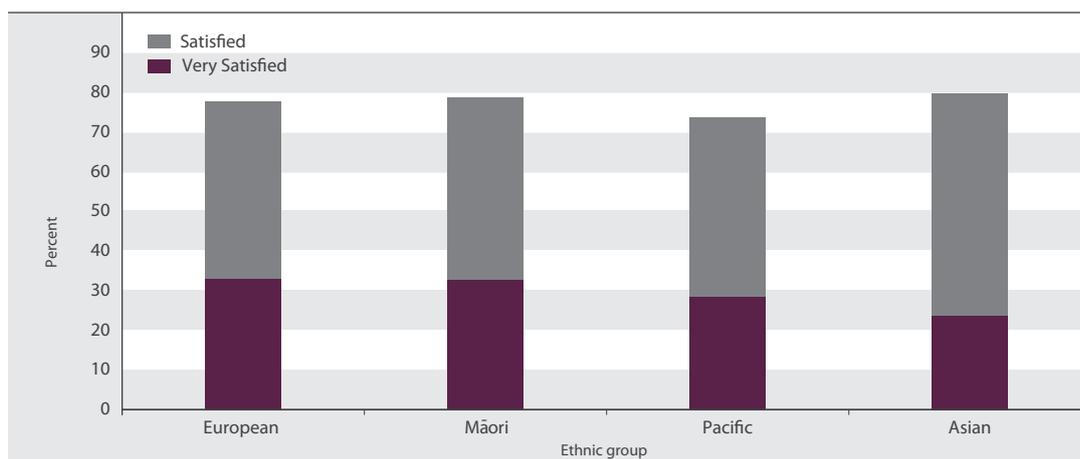
Sex differences

In 2008, employed females (79 percent) had a similar rate of satisfaction with their work-life balance to that of employed males (77 percent). There were also similar rates of satisfaction with work-life balance among male and female full-time workers (75 percent and 72 percent respectively). Satisfaction with work-life balance was highest for both male and female part-time workers (86 percent and 89 percent, respectively).

Ethnic differences

There was little difference by ethnicity in the proportion of employed people who were satisfied with their work-life balance in 2008: Asians, 80 percent; Māori, 79 percent; Europeans, 78 percent; and Pacific peoples, 74 percent.

Figure PW5.2 **Proportion of employed people who were satisfied with their work-life balance, by ethnic group, 2008**



Source: Quality of Life Survey 2008

Note: Robust statistics are not available for Other ethnicities because of small numbers.

Household type differences

Employed people who live in households with children under 18 years old have lower levels of satisfaction with their work-life balance (76 percent) than those not living with children of that age (81 percent). A lower proportion of full-time employed females who live in households with children under 18 years old were satisfied with their work-life balance (67 percent).

Socio-economic differences

Full-time employees with personal incomes of \$30,000 or less were more likely to be satisfied overall with their work-life balance (79 percent) than those on higher incomes of over \$70,000 (72 percent). Part-time employees across the personal income scale had high levels of satisfaction with their work-life balance.

Regional differences

Satisfaction with work-life balance among employed people varies across territorial authorities. In 2008, people in Tauranga (81 percent) and Manukau (80 percent) had the highest levels of satisfaction with their work-life balance, while people in Wellington had the lowest (73 percent).

Desired outcomes

New Zealand is a prosperous society, reflecting the value of both paid and unpaid work. Everybody has access to an adequate income and decent, affordable housing that meets their needs. With an adequate standard of living, people are well-placed to participate fully in society and to exercise choice about how to live their lives.

Economic standard of living

Introduction

Economic standard of living concerns the physical circumstances in which people live, the goods and services they are able to consume and the economic resources to which they have access. It is concerned with the average level of resources in New Zealand as well as the distribution of those resources across New Zealand society.

Basic necessities such as adequate food, clothing and housing are fundamental to wellbeing. The 1972 Royal Commission on Social Security agreed that a useful standard for adequacy was a level of resources that allowed individuals not just to survive but also to participate. They defined participation as meaning “no-one is ... so poor that they cannot eat the sort of food that New Zealanders usually eat, wear the same sort of clothes, [and] take a moderate part in those activities which the ordinary New Zealander takes part in as a matter of course”.⁶²

The desired outcomes statement points to the importance not only of everyone enjoying a decent standard of living, but also of our society being as prosperous as possible to enable the overall standard of living of New Zealanders to increase.

Indicators

Five indicators are used in this chapter to provide information on different aspects of economic standards of living. They are: market income per person, income inequality, the population with low incomes, housing affordability and household crowding.

The focus of the chapter is on objective measures of economic living standards. Together, the indicators provide information about overall trends in living standards, levels of hardship and how equitably resources are distributed. All are relevant to the adequacy of people's incomes and their ability to participate in society and to choose how to live their lives.

Market income per person gives an indication of the average level of income and therefore the overall material quality of life available to New Zealanders. We also provide an estimate of the economic value of unpaid work.

Income inequality is measured by comparing the incomes of higher income households (80th percentile) with the incomes of lower income households (20th percentile). High levels of inequality are associated with lower levels of social cohesion and overall life satisfaction, even when less well-off people have adequate incomes to meet their basic needs.

The proportion of the population with low incomes also provides information about how equitably resources are distributed and how many people may be experiencing difficulty in participating fully in society through a lack of income.

Housing affordability measures the proportion of the population spending more than 30 percent of their disposable income on housing. Housing costs have a major impact on overall material living standards, especially for low-income households.

The final indicator measures the proportion of the population living in crowded households. Crowded housing is a well-known health risk and this indicator provides a direct measure of the extent of this problem over time.

Market income per person

Definition

The total value of goods and services available to New Zealanders, expressed in inflation-adjusted dollars, per head of population, also known as real gross national disposable income (RGNDI) per person.

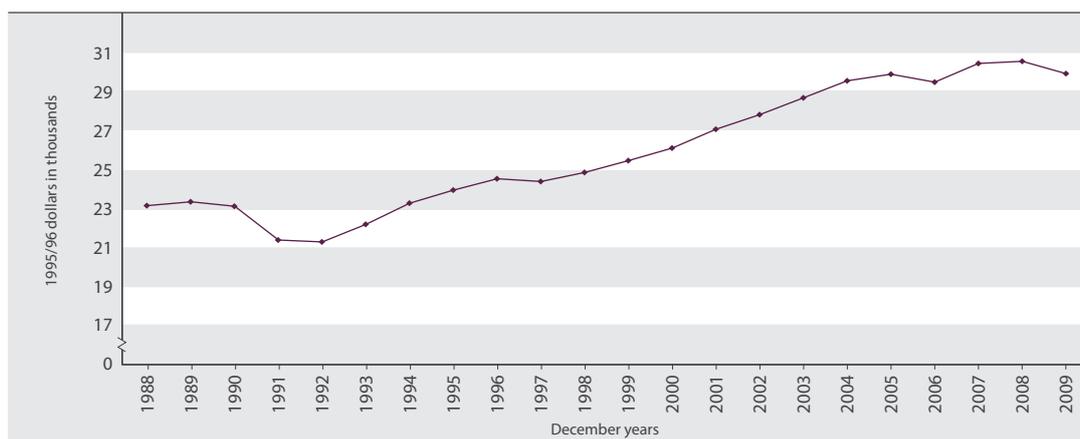
Relevance

Per person RGNDI measures the average income available to New Zealanders. A nation with a rising per person RGNDI will have a greater capacity to deliver a better quality of life and standard of living to its population.

Current level and trends

In the year ended December 2009, RGNDI per person was \$29,836 in 1995/1996 dollars. This was 2.1 percent below RGNDI per person for the year ended December 2008 (\$30,462). Between 1988 and 1990, RGNDI per person was around \$23,000. It fell sharply to \$21,457 in 1991, then reached a low of \$21,253 in 1992. From 1992, RGNDI per person grew almost continuously, until it fell slightly in 2006 (by 1.3 percent) and more sharply in 2009. The average annual growth rate over the whole period from 1988 to 2009 was 1.2 percent.

Figure EC.1.1 **Real gross national disposable income per person, 1988–2009**



Source: Statistics New Zealand
Note: Includes revised RGNDI data for 1988–2008.

International comparison

While gross domestic product (GDP) per person is the measure most commonly used to compare income levels between countries, gross national income (GNI) per person more closely corresponds to the measure used in this indicator. To facilitate comparison, both measures are expressed in US dollars at current prices and current purchasing power parities (PPPs). New Zealand was ranked 22nd out of 30 OECD countries for GDP per person in 2008⁶³ and 22nd out of 29 countries for GNI per person in 2008. Using GDP per person, New Zealand was the 18th most prosperous out of 26 countries in 1986 and the ninth most prosperous in 1970. Using GNI per person, the rankings for New Zealand were 19th in 1986 and eighth in 1970.

Between 1986 and 2008, real GDP per person (using US dollars and PPPs for the year 2000) grew by 30 percent in New Zealand compared with an OECD average of 53 percent.

**Economic value
of unpaid work**

RGNDI does not take into account the value of unpaid work such as looking after one's own children, cooking meals at home, fixing the car, doing home maintenance, or doing voluntary work in the community. Using data from the 1998/1999 Time Use Survey, the value of unpaid work in 1999 was estimated to be \$39,637 million (1998/1999 dollars), equivalent to 39 percent of GDP, or \$10,333 per person.⁶⁴

Income inequality

Definition

The extent of disparity between high income and low income households.

The measure used is the ratio of the 80th percentile to the 20th percentile of the equivalised disposable household income distribution (ie the ratio of a high household income to a low household income, after adjusting for household size and composition). The higher this ratio, the greater the level of inequality.

Relevance

The degree of income inequality is often regarded as an important aspect of the fairness of the society we live in. A high level of income inequality may also be detrimental to the level of social connectedness across society.

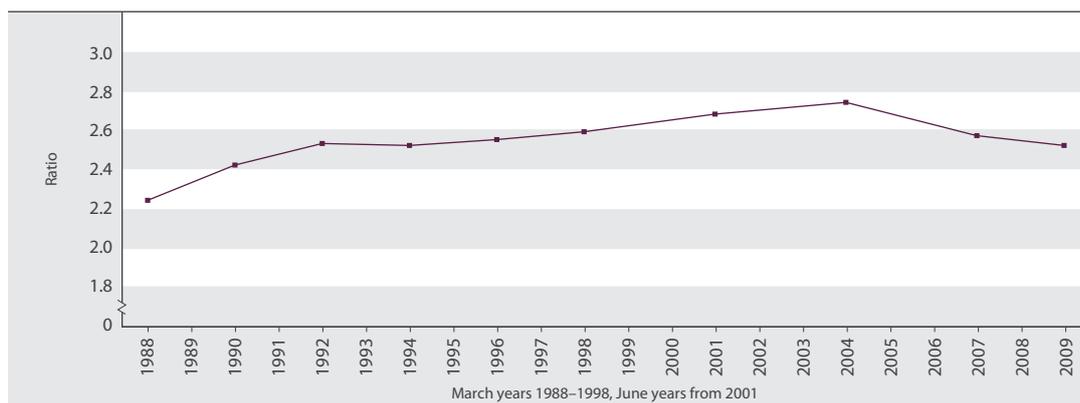
Current level and trends

In 2009, the equivalised disposable income of a household at the 80th percentile was 2.5 times larger than that of a household at the 20th percentile. This was about the same as the ratio in 2007. In 1988, the ratio was 2.2. Income inequality rose steeply between 1988 and 1991, briefly plateaued, then rose steadily from 1994 to 2004.

Most of the observed increase in income inequality between 1988 and 2004 was due to a larger overall rise in incomes for those in the top 20 percent of incomes – around a quarter once adjustments for inflation are made. In that period, incomes for those in the bottom 20 percent of incomes decreased a little. Incomes for the middle 60 percent climbed more overall for those closer to the top 20 percent than for those closer to the bottom 20 percent.

From 2004 to 2009, incomes for households in the low to middle income range rose more quickly than incomes for higher income households. Incomes for households in the lower four deciles grew by 18–25 percent, while incomes for those households above the median typically grew by around 10–12 percent. This was the only period in the last 25 years in which the incomes of low to middle income households grew more quickly than the incomes of those households above the median.⁶⁵

Figure EC2.1 **Ratio of the 80th percentile of equivalised disposable household income to the 20th percentile of equivalised disposable household income, 1988–2009**



Source: Derived from Statistics New Zealand's Household Economic Survey (1988–2009), by the Ministry of Social Development
 Notes: (1) Between 1998 and 2004, the Household Economic Survey was conducted on a three-yearly basis, rather than annually. (2) This measure adjusts for household size and composition. (3) See Appendix 2 for information on the 2008 data.

International comparison

Comparisons with other OECD countries are available using a different measure, the Gini coefficient.⁶⁶ Gini coefficients measure income inequality, with a score of 100 indicating perfect inequality and a score of 0 indicating perfect equality. The most recent OECD comparison (from 2004) gives New Zealand a score of 34, indicating higher inequality than the OECD median of 31 and a ranking of 23rd equal out of 30 countries. New Zealand's Gini score was below that of the United States (38), very close to those of the United Kingdom (34) and Ireland (33), a little above those of Canada and Japan (32), and a little further above that of Australia (30). Denmark and Sweden had the lowest income inequality with Gini scores of 23.⁶⁷ In 2007 and 2009, the Gini score for New Zealand was slightly lower, at 33.

Population with low incomes

Definition

The proportion of the population in households with equivalised disposable income net-of-housing-cost below two thresholds.

Incomes are after deducting tax and housing costs and adjusting for household size and composition. The thresholds are 50 percent and 60 percent of the 2007 household disposable income median, with 25 percent deducted to allow for average housing costs. The thresholds are adjusted for inflation to keep them fixed in real terms. (See Appendix 2 for information on the change in the reference year.)

Relevance

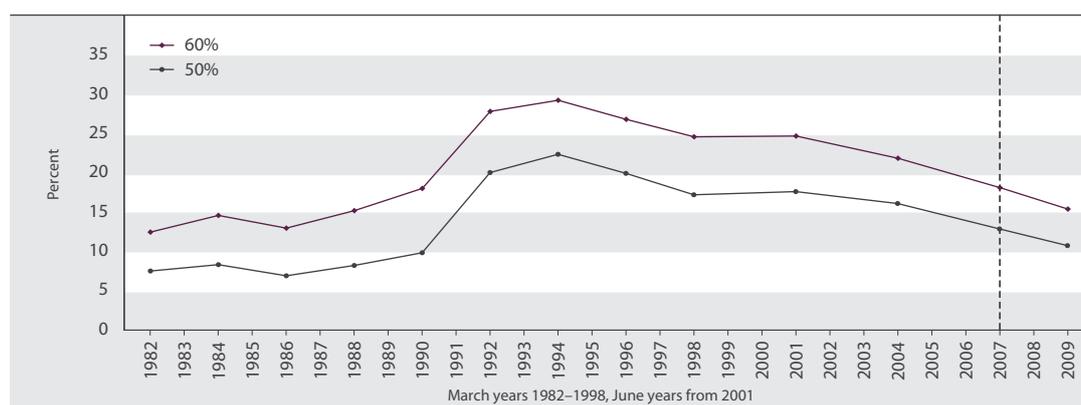
Having insufficient economic resources limits people's ability to participate in and belong to their community and wider society, and otherwise restricts their quality of life. Furthermore, long-lasting low family income in childhood is associated with negative outcomes, such as lower educational attainment and poorer health.

Current level and trends

In the year to June 2009, 15 percent of the population was living below the 60 percent threshold, down from 18 percent in 2007. The proportion of the population with low incomes rose sharply from 1990, reached a peak in the mid-1990s and has generally declined since then. In 2009, the proportion was still a little above the average level in the 1980s.

The increase in the proportion of the population with low incomes in the early-1990s is attributable to declining household incomes arising from high rates of unemployment and reduced levels of social assistance. The improvement since the mid-1990s reflects more robust economic (and income) growth, the steady decline in unemployment, the increase in housing assistance and the increase in tax credits for families with children. Rates remain a little higher in 2009 than they were in the 1980s partly because, for many groups, housing costs for low-income households have risen significantly as a proportion of their household incomes.

Figure EC3.1 **Proportion of the population with net-of-housing-cost household incomes below selected thresholds, 1982–2009**



Source: Derived from Statistics New Zealand's Household Economic Survey (1982–2009) by the Ministry of Social Development

Notes: (1) Between 1998 and 2004, the Household Economic Survey was conducted on a three-yearly basis, rather than annually. (2) See Appendix 2 for information on the 2008 data and the change in the reference year.

Age and sex differences

A lower proportion of older people than younger people are living in households with incomes below the 60 percent threshold, although the difference between younger and older people was smaller in 2009 than it was a decade earlier. The relatively low rates for New Zealanders aged 65 years and over reflect their high rate of mortgage-free home ownership and the level of publicly-provided retirement income support.

In 2009, 22 percent of dependent children were in households with incomes below the 60 percent threshold, the same proportion as in 2007. The 2009 rate was considerably lower than the peak rate of 44 percent in 1994, and was similar to the levels of the mid-1980s (19–23 percent). Since 1986, rates for females aged 15 years and over have generally been a little higher than those for males of that age.

Table EC3.1 **Proportion (%) of the population in low-income households (60 percent threshold), by age group and sex, selected years, 1986–2009**

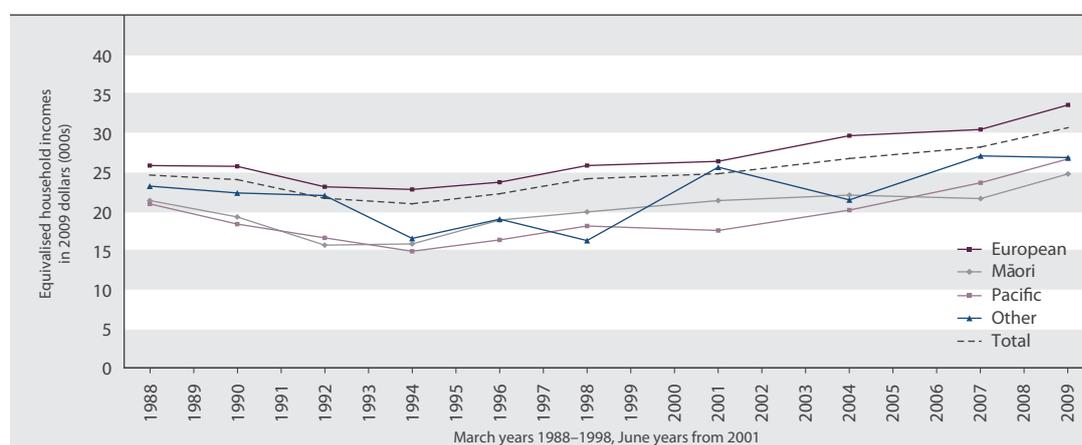
Year	Age group (years)					Sex		Total (all ages)
	Children 0–17	18–24	25–44	45–64	65+	Males 15+	Females 15+	
1986	19	8	12	8	13	10	12	13
1990	26	12	18	11	18	13	16	18
1994	44	24	28	19	16	22	26	29
1998	37	23	24	16	14	19	22	24
2001	37	27	23	17	13	18	22	25
2004	31	24	22	16	11	18	19	22
2007	22	22	17	15	14	16	18	18
2009	22	14	15	13	9	13	14	15

Source: Derived from Statistics New Zealand's Household Economic Survey (1986–2009) by the Ministry of Social Development
 Note: See Appendix 2 for information on the 2008 data and the change in the reference year.

Ethnic differences

Sample sizes in the source data are not large enough to support a reliable time series for proportions of the population living below the 60 percent threshold by ethnic group (see Appendix 2 for more details). Trends in real equivalised median household incomes are less volatile and are used to give an idea of the relativities between ethnic groups. For all ethnic groups, median incomes rose steadily from the low point in 1994 through to 2009, with some volatility evident for smaller ethnic groups.

Figure EC3.2 **Real equivalised median household incomes, by ethnic group, 1988–2009**



Source: Derived from Statistics New Zealand's Household Economic Survey (1988–2009) by the Ministry of Social Development
 Notes: (1) Household ethnicity is defined by the presence, within the household, of an adult of a particular ethnic group. (2) Between 1998 and 2004, the Household Economic Survey was conducted on a three-yearly basis, rather than annually. (3) See Appendix 2 for information on the 2008 data.

Household and family type differences

Since 2001, the proportion of people in families with dependent children living in households with incomes below the 60 percent threshold has declined. Between 2001 and 2009, the rate for those in two-parent families fell from 26 percent to 13 percent, while the rate for those in sole-parent families fell from 71 percent to 43 percent. Households with three or more children have a higher proportion living with incomes under the 60 percent threshold than those with fewer children (26 percent and 15 percent respectively in 2009). The proportion of those aged under 65 years in one-person households with incomes below the threshold increased from around 17 percent in the late-1980s to 37 percent in the mid-1990s but fell to 30 percent in 2009.

International comparison

For international comparisons, a different measure is used. The OECD measure is 50 percent of median (current year median rather than fixed line) equivalent disposable household income, which does not take into account housing costs. In 2004, 11 percent of New Zealanders were living in households with incomes below this threshold. The most recent OECD comparison (from 2004) places New Zealand 16th out of 30 OECD countries, and only just above the OECD median (10 percent). New Zealand's rate is similar to those of Germany, Canada and Australia (11–12 percent) and well below that of the United States (17 percent). Sweden and Denmark have the lowest proportions of their populations with low incomes (each 5 percent). In 2009, the New Zealand rate was 11 percent.⁶⁸

Housing affordability

Definition

The proportion of households and the proportion of people within households spending more than 30 percent of their disposable income on housing.

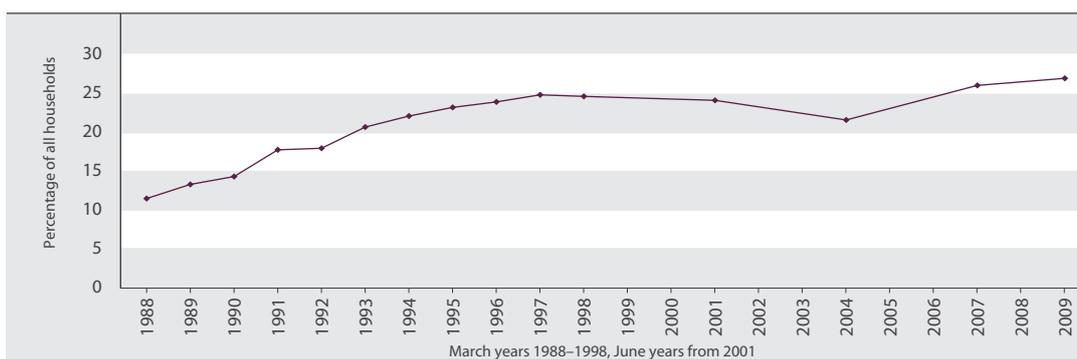
Relevance

Affordable housing is important for people's wellbeing. For lower-income households especially, high housing costs relative to income are often associated with severe financial difficulty, and can leave households with insufficient income to meet other basic needs such as food, clothing, transport, medical care and education. High outgoings-to-income ratios are not as critical for higher-income households, as there is still sufficient income left for their basic needs.

Current level and trends

In 2009, 27 percent of New Zealand households spent more than 30 percent of their disposable income on housing costs. This was around the same level as in 2007 (26 percent) but an increase on the 2004 level (21 percent). Since the late-1980s, there has been a substantial increase in the proportion of households spending more than 30 percent of their income on housing. Between 1988 and 1997, the proportion rose from 11 percent to 25 percent of households, before levelling off at 24 percent in 1998 and 2001, and falling to 21 percent in 2004.

Figure EC4.1 **Proportion of households with housing cost outgoings-to-income ratio greater than 30 percent, 1988–2009**



Source: Derived from Statistics New Zealand's Household Economic Survey (1988–2009) by the Ministry of Social Development
Note: Between 1998 and 2004, the Household Economic Survey was conducted on a three-yearly basis, rather than annually.

Socio-economic differences

High housing costs relative to household incomes are of more concern for low-income households. The proportion of households in the lowest 20 percent (lowest quintile) of the equivalised household income distribution spending more than 30 percent of their income on housing trebled between 1988 and 1994, rising from 16 percent to a peak of 48 percent. The rate levelled off at 41–42 percent over the period 1996–2001, fell to 34 percent in 2004 and remained close to that level in 2007 and 2009 (33 percent). The proportion of low-income households spending more than 30 percent of their income on housing was twice as high in 2009 as it was in 1988.

Age and sex differences

In 2009, 37 percent of children aged under 18 years lived in households with housing costs exceeding 30 percent of household disposable income, an increase from 32 percent in 2007.

In 2009, there was no difference between males and females aged 15 years and over in the proportion living in households spending more than 30 percent of their income on housing (both 25 percent).

Table EC4.1 **Proportion (%) of the population in households with housing cost outgoings-to-income ratio greater than 30 percent, selected years, 1988–2009**

	1988	1993	1998	2001	2004	2007	2009
Population aged 15+	10	19	22	21	20	24	25
Males aged 15+	10	19	21	20	20	22	25
Females aged 15+	10	19	23	22	19	25	25
Age group (years)							
Under 18	12	26	33	32	26	32	37
18–24	12	25	26	29	28	29	24
25–44	15	26	31	28	25	33	35
45–64	5	12	14	16	15	19	21
65 and over	3	4	7	7	6	9	8
Total households	11	21	25	24	21	26	27

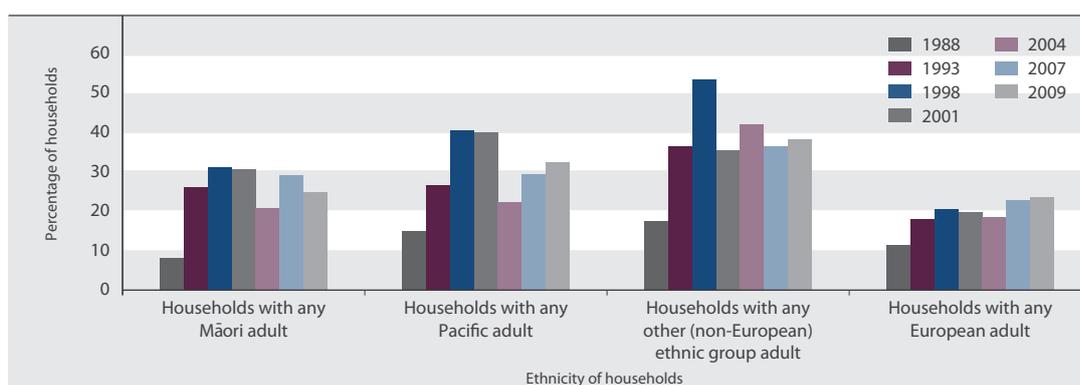
Source: Derived from Statistics New Zealand's Household Economic Survey (1988–2009) by the Ministry of Social Development
Note: Data is for March years in 1988, 1993 and 1998 and for June years from 2001.

Ethnic differences

Households with housing costs in excess of 30 percent of income are more common when they include at least one non-European adult.⁶⁹ For households with at least one Māori adult, the proportion increased from 8 percent in 1988 to a peak of 36 percent in 1997, fell to 21 percent in 2004, rose to 29 percent in 2007, then fell to 25 percent in 2009.

For households with at least one Pacific adult, the proportion increased from 15 percent in 1988 to 48 percent in 1997, fell to 23 percent in 2004, rose to 30 percent in 2007 and increased further to 33 percent in 2009.

Figure EC4.2 **Proportion of households with housing cost outgoings-to-income ratio greater than 30 percent, by ethnic group, selected years, 1988–2009**



Source: Derived from Statistics New Zealand's Household Economic Survey (1988–2009) by the Ministry of Social Development
Notes: (1) Data is for March years in 1988, 1993 and 1998 and for June years from 2001. (2) Household ethnicity is defined by the presence, within the household, of an adult of a particular ethnic group. Adults are defined as people aged 18 years and over.

Household crowding

Definition

The proportion of the population living in crowded housing (ie requiring one or more additional bedrooms, as defined by the Canadian Crowding Index).

The Canadian Crowding Index is a proxy measure to monitor the incidence of “crowding” in the population.

Relevance

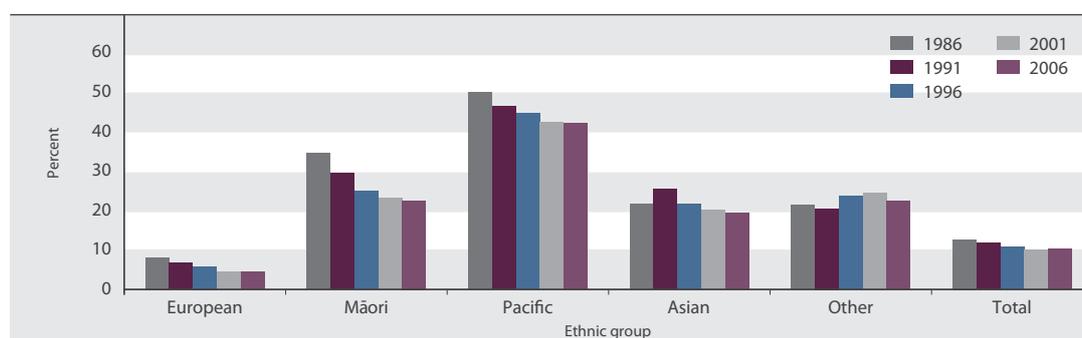
Housing space adequate to the needs and desires of a family is a core component of quality of life. National and international studies show an association between the prevalence of certain infectious diseases and crowding,⁷⁰ between crowding and poor educational attainment, and between residential crowding and psychological distress.⁷¹

Current level and trends

In 2006, 389,600 people, or 10 percent of the New Zealand resident population, lived in households requiring one or more additional bedrooms to adequately accommodate household members, based on the criteria in the Canadian Crowding Index (see Appendix 2). This was similar to the level of crowding in 2001. The proportion of people in crowded households has reduced since 1986, when 13 percent of the population were living in crowded conditions (392,700 people).

The Canadian Crowding Index also shows how many people live in houses where two or more bedrooms are required. In 2006, there were 131,100 people or 3.5 percent of the usually resident population in this situation, compared to 118,700 people (3.9 percent) in 1986.

Figure EC5.1 **Proportion of population living in households requiring at least one additional bedroom, by ethnic group, 1986–2006⁷²**



Source: Statistics New Zealand

Age and sex differences

Living in a crowded household is more likely to be experienced by younger people than by older people. In 2006, 17 percent of children under the age of 10 years lived in households requiring at least one more bedroom, compared to 15 percent of 10–14 year olds. Among the population aged 15 years and over, 9 percent lived in crowded households but this ranged from 17 percent of 15–24 year olds, to 10 percent of 25–44 year olds, 5 percent of 45–64 year olds and just 3 percent of those aged 65 years and over.

Between 1986 and 2006 there was little change in the proportion of children under the age of 15 years living in crowded households, defined either as needing one or more additional bedrooms (17 percent in both years) or as needing at least two more bedrooms (just over 5 percent in 1986 and just under 6 percent in 2006).

There is very little difference by sex in the likelihood of living in crowded households.

Ethnic differences

Pacific peoples are far more likely to be living in crowded households than other ethnic groups. In 2006, 43 percent of Pacific peoples lived in households requiring extra bedrooms. Māori and those in the Other ethnic group were the next most likely, with 23 percent of each group requiring at least one extra bedroom, followed by Asians (20 percent). Partly reflecting their older age profile, only 4 percent of European New Zealanders were living in houses that met the definition of crowding used here. The Other ethnic group was the only ethnic group to have an increased incidence of crowding between 1986 and 2006 (from 22 percent to 23 percent). One possible explanation for this trend is that recent migrants, common in this ethnic group, are more likely to live in crowded households.⁷³

The largest group of those living in households requiring at least one extra bedroom were those who identified as European (32 percent), followed by Māori (30 percent), Pacific peoples (27 percent), Asian (17 percent) and the Other ethnic group (just 2 percent).⁷⁴ Of those living in more severe crowding situations (households requiring two or more bedrooms), Pacific peoples and Māori made up the largest groups (37 percent and 32 percent, respectively).

Cultural attitudes and economic conditions are two primary factors that account for the extreme variation in crowding levels between ethnic groups. The variance in population age structures is also a factor: the Māori and Pacific peoples ethnic groups both have younger age structures than the European population.

Socio-economic differences

Unemployed people are more likely to be living in crowded households than people with full-time jobs (20 percent and 7 percent, respectively). Seventeen percent of people who receive income support were living in crowded households in 2006, up slightly from 16 percent in 2001.⁷⁵

There is a clear correlation between levels of income and levels of crowding: in 2006, 5 percent of households in the bottom quartile of equivalised household income required one or more bedrooms, compared with less than 1 percent of those in the top income quartile.

Households in rental accommodation were more likely to be crowded (10 percent) than those in dwellings owned with a mortgage (4 percent) or mortgage-free (2 percent).

Regional differences

The proportion of people living in crowded households varies considerably across the country. Manukau City has by far the highest proportion, with 25 percent of people living in households requiring one or more extra bedrooms in 2006. The next highest levels were in Opotiki District (19 percent), Kawerau District (18 percent), Porirua City and Auckland City (both 17 percent). In all of the South Island local authorities, the proportions of people living in crowded households were well below the average, with the lowest being in Waimate (2 percent).

Desired outcomes

Everybody enjoys civil and political rights. Mechanisms to regulate and arbitrate people's rights in respect of each other are trustworthy.

Civil and political rights

Introduction

The enjoyment of civil and political rights enables people to participate in decision-making, to be fairly represented, to seek redress for discrimination and to conduct business with public officials in an open and transparent manner, without fear of involvement in corrupt practices.

Civil and political rights fall into two broad categories. The first requires that people are protected from interference or abuse of power by others. The second requires that society is organised in a way that enables all people to develop to their full potential.⁷⁶

Rights are defined in various international treaties and in domestic legislation. The New Zealand Bill of Rights Act 1990 sets out many of the rights New Zealanders enjoy. These include rights to life and security, voting rights, and rights to freedom of expression, peaceful assembly, association, thought, conscience, religion and belief. They also include rights to freedom from discrimination, and various rights relating to justice and criminal procedures. Other laws, such as the Privacy Act 1993, also provide protection for specific rights.

The relationship between Māori and the Crown is guided by the Treaty of Waitangi.

New Zealand has also signed seven core United Nations treaties. These treaties cover: civil and political rights; economic, social and cultural rights; the elimination of racial discrimination; the elimination of discrimination against women; the rights of children; the rights of disabled persons, and protection against torture and other cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment and punishment.

Civil and political rights are important for wellbeing in many ways. At a fundamental level, they protect people's lives and their physical wellbeing (eg by recognising rights to freedom from torture and arbitrary arrest).

Wellbeing depends on people having choice or control over their lives, and on being reasonably able to do the things they value. This is only possible if people can exercise the many rights referred to above.⁷⁷

Indicators

New Zealand is internationally recognised as having an excellent human rights record.⁷⁸

The court system is independent and courts can enforce the rights affirmed in the New Zealand Bill of Rights Act 1990, although there is no power to strike down legislation inconsistent with the Act. Other institutions exist to protect people from government power (examples include the Privacy Commissioner and the Ombudsmen) or to help people resolve issues of unlawful discrimination (such as the Human Rights Commission and the Human Rights Review Tribunal). New Zealand regularly reports to the United Nations on its record of protecting rights.

However, the direct measurement of civil and political rights is not a simple matter.

This chapter uses five indicators to show how New Zealand's formal commitments to civil and political rights are reflected in reality. They are: voter turnout, the representation of women in government, the representation of ethnic groups in government, perceived discrimination and perceived corruption.

A fundamental right in any democracy is the right to vote. Voter turnout figures provide an indication of the confidence people have in the nation's political institutions, and the importance they attach to them. High voluntary voter turnout rates suggest that people see these institutions as relevant and meaningful to them, and they believe their individual vote is important.

An effective and relevant political system should broadly reflect the society it represents. The second and third indicators measure the proportion of women and the proportion of ethnic groups in elected positions in government.

Equality before the law and freedom from unlawful discrimination are fundamental principles of democratic societies. New Zealand law generally meets international standards for protecting the right to freedom from discrimination. Under the Human Rights Act 1993, discrimination is prohibited in New Zealand on the following grounds: sex (including pregnancy and childbirth); marital status (including civil unions); religious belief; ethical belief; colour; race; ethnic or national origin; disability; age (from age 16 years); political opinion; employment status; family status; and sexual orientation.⁷⁹ Perceived discrimination includes two subjective measures: one is of people's personal experiences of discrimination; the other is of people's views about which groups are subject to discrimination. Research suggests that many people who experience discrimination will not make a complaint.⁸⁰

Corruption undermines the democratic process and the rule of law. It is difficult to measure levels of corruption by reference to the number of prosecutions or court cases as this will be driven, to some extent, by the efficient functioning of the justice system. The fifth indicator measures the level of perceived corruption among politicians and public officials.

Voter turnout

Definition

General elections: The proportion of the estimated voting-age population (aged 18 years and over) who cast a vote in general elections.

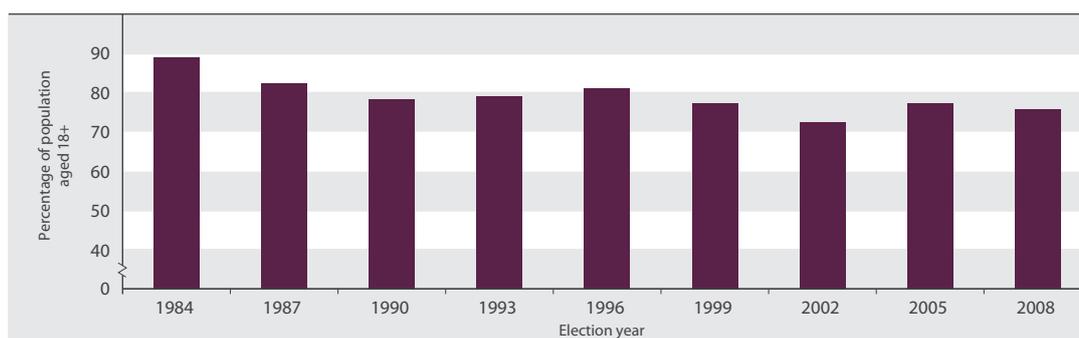
Local authority elections: The proportion of all enrolled electors (both resident and ratepayer) who cast a vote in contested local authority elections.

Relevance Voter turnout rates are an indicator of the confidence the population has in political institutions, the importance they attach to them, and the extent to which they feel their participation can make a difference.

1. General elections

Current level and trends Voter turnout of the eligible population in 2008 was 76 percent, a slight decline from 77 percent in 2005. Voter participation in general elections sharply from 89 percent in 1984 to 78 percent in 1990, increased slightly to 81 percent in 1996, then fell again to a new low of 72.5 percent in 2002.

Figure CP1.1 **Proportion of estimated voting-age population who cast votes, 1984–2008**



Sources: Electoral Commission (2002); Electoral Commission (2005); Electoral Commission (2008)
Note: The 1984, 2005 and 2008 figures are calculated by the Ministry of Social Development.

Age, sex, ethnic and socio-economic differences

In the New Zealand General Social Survey conducted between April 2008 and March 2009, 80 percent of respondents said they had voted in the last general election. People aged 65 years and over had the highest reported turnout (94 percent), followed by people aged 45–64 years (89 percent) and those aged 25–44 years (77 percent). Fewer than half of 15–24 year olds (46 percent) said they had voted, but many were not eligible to do so on age and other grounds. Significant differences in voter turnout were found between the unemployed (68 percent) and the employed (79 percent); between Asian people (61 percent) and people in the mainly European group (82 percent); and between people with personal incomes of \$30,000 or less (75 percent) and people with incomes of \$70,001 or more (89 percent). There were no significant differences by sex or region.

International comparison

Using a different definition of voter turnout (the proportion of the registered population who voted), New Zealand ranked 10th out of 30 OECD countries with a voter turnout rate of 79 percent in 2008.⁸¹ This was higher than the OECD median of 72 percent for recent elections. Voter turnout in New Zealand was lower than that of Australia, where voting is compulsory (95 percent in 2007), but higher than Canada (59 percent in 2008), the United Kingdom (65 percent in 2010) and the United States (62 percent in 2008).

2. Local authority elections

Current level and trends

Voter turnout in the 2007 local authority elections was 44 percent, down from 46 percent in 2004.⁸² This was the lowest turnout since the restructuring of local government in 1989. Voter turnout peaked at 61 percent in 1992 and has declined steadily since then, except between 1995 and 1998 when it increased from 53 percent to 55 percent.

The drop in turnout between 2004 and 2007 was relatively constant across all types of local authorities, with falls of two or three percentage points.

In 2007, there were 249 elected local authorities in New Zealand: 12 regional councils, 21 district health boards, 16 city councils, 57 district councils and 143 community boards.

Table CP1.1 **Voter turnout (%) in local authority elections, 1989–2007**

	1989	1992	1995	1998	2001	2004	2007
Regional councils	56	52	48	53	49	45	43
District health boards	–	–	–	–	50	46	43
Territorial authorities							
City councils	52	48	49	51	45	43	41
City mayors	50	48	49	51	45	43	41
District councils	67	61	59	61	57	51	49
District mayors	67	61	59	59	56	52	49
Community boards	54	49	50	50	46	42	41

Sources: Department of Internal Affairs (2006) Table 3.3; Department of Internal Affairs (2009) Table 4.3
Notes: (1) DHBs were established in 2001. (2) Trusts are not included because they are not local authorities.

The 2007 election results continued the pattern of previous local authority elections, with smaller and South Island communities tending to register a higher voter turnout across all election types. The highest voter turnout in regional council elections was for the West Coast Regional Council (57 percent), followed by Taranaki (52 percent). Turnout was lower than the regional council average of 43 percent in Waikato (37 percent) and Auckland (38 percent).

Local authority voter turnout is highest for district councils, especially those in the South Island. In the 2007 district council elections, voter turnout in the South Island was 53 percent, compared with 47 percent in the North Island. Smaller local authorities and small district health boards also attracted a higher turnout than larger local authorities. Voter turnout ranged from 54 percent for small district councils to 39 percent for large city councils.

Representation of women in government

Definition

The proportion of elected Members of Parliament (MPs) and local government bodies who are women.

Relevance

The representation of women in government can be seen as an indicator of political representation more generally. Representative political institutions engage a wide range of communities in the political process, draw on the talents and skills of the broadest group of people, and provide checks and balances on the use of political power.

1. General elections

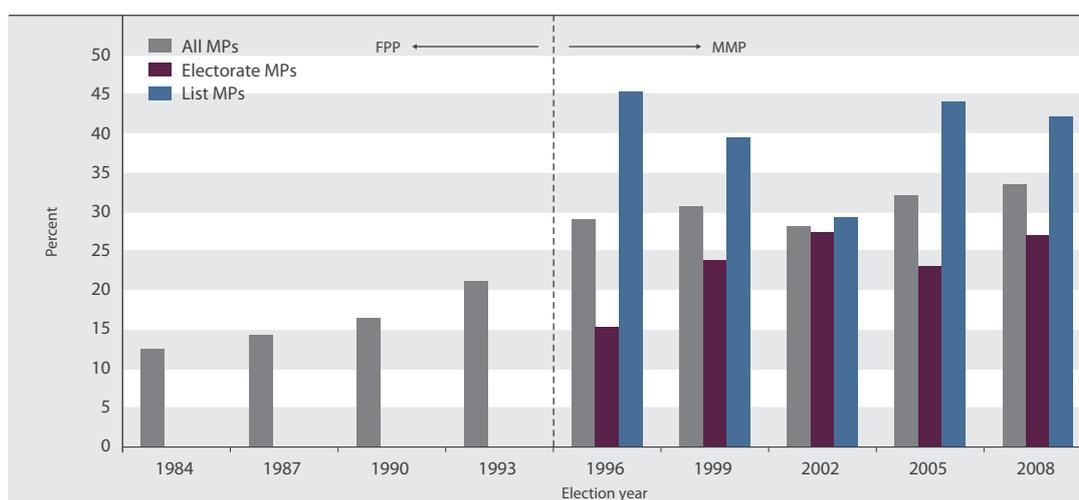
Current level and trends

As a result of the 2008 general election, women held 41 of the 122 seats in Parliament, or 34 percent. This was up from 32 percent in 2005. Under the first-past-the-post electoral system, women's representation in Parliament increased from 13 percent in 1984 to 21 percent in 1993, then rose sharply to 29 percent in the first mixed-member-proportional election held in 1996. Since then, with the exception of 2002, there have been small increases in the proportion of women in Parliament at each general election. Women were first represented in the New Zealand Parliament in 1933.

In the 2008 general election, women made up a higher proportion of list MPs (42 percent) than electorate MPs (27 percent). Female representation has been higher among list MPs than electorate MPs in each general election since 1996, except in the 2002 general election when the proportions of women in each category were similar.

The majority of women elected to Parliament in 2008 were list MPs (54 percent). List MPs have outnumbered electorate MPs among women elected to Parliament in four of the last five general elections. In contrast, the majority of men elected to Parliament are electorate MPs.

Figure CP2.1 **Women as a proportion of elected Members of Parliament, 1984–2008**



Sources: Electoral Commission (2002) p 176; Electoral Commission (2006); Wilson and Anderson (2008)

International comparison

At 34 percent in 2008, the percentage of women in New Zealand's Parliament is considerably higher than the OECD median of 24 percent in recent years. New Zealand ranks ninth out of 30 OECD countries. Sweden has the highest proportion of women MPs with 46 percent, followed by Iceland (43 percent), the Netherlands (42 percent), Finland and Norway (each 40 percent), Denmark and Belgium (each 38 percent) and Spain (37 percent). New Zealand has considerably higher female representation in national government than Australia (27 percent), Canada and the United Kingdom (each 22 percent) and the United States (17 percent).⁸³

2. Local authority elections

Current level and trends

In the 2007 local government elections, 579 women were elected to local authorities.⁸⁴ This represented 32 percent of elected members. The proportion of women elected increased from 25 percent in 1989⁸⁵ to 31 percent in 1998 and remained at around that level in the two subsequent elections. In the 1990s and early-2000s, women were more highly represented in local government than in national government, but this trend has been reversed since the 2005 general election.

Female candidates were more likely than male candidates to be elected in each election year from 1989 to 1998, but this was reversed in 2001, when 41 percent of female candidates and 44 percent of male candidates were elected. In 2004, the proportions were more even (48 percent of female and 49 percent of male candidates elected). In 2007, female candidates were again more likely than male candidates to be elected (50 percent compared with 46 percent).

In 2007, women's representation was highest on district health boards (46 percent), followed by city councils (37 percent). Between 2004 and 2007, the share of women increased in all types of local authorities except community boards and licensing and land trusts.

Table CP2.1 **Proportion (%) of members who were women, by type of local body, 1989–2007**

	1989	1992	1995	1998	2001	2004	2007
Regional councils	22	25	29	28	26	25	27
District health boards	–	–	–	–	44	42	46
City councils	35	35	33	36	39	34	37
District councils	19	23	26	27	26	26	28
Community boards	29	32	33	35	31	32	33

Source: Department of Internal Affairs (2009) Table 7.4

Notes: (1) District councils' 2001 figures revised by the Department of Internal Affairs. (2) DHBs were established in 2001. (3) Trusts are not included because they are not local authorities.

The number of women elected to city council mayoral positions has remained fairly steady at three or four since 1989. Between 2004 and 2007 the figure fell from four to three out of 16. In contrast, the number of women mayors in district councils increased rapidly from six (out of 59) in 1989 to 15 in 1998, fell sharply to eight in 2001 and rose slightly to 10 in 2004 and 2007.

Table CP2.2 **Women mayors, 1989–2007**

	1989	1992	1995	1998	2001	2004	2007
City councils	4/14	4/15	3/15	4/15	4/15	4/16	3/16
District councils ⁽¹⁾	6/59 ⁽²⁾	9/59 ⁽³⁾	12/59	15/59	8/58 ⁽⁴⁾	10/58 ⁽⁵⁾	10/57 ⁽⁶⁾

Source: Department of Internal Affairs (2009) Table 7.5

Notes: (1) Includes Chatham Islands Council. (2) Chatham Islands Council did not elect a mayor in 1989. (3) Invercargill has been a city council since 1992. (4) There was no election in Rodney District in 2001. (5) Tauranga became a city council in 2004. (6) Banks Peninsula District was abolished and included in Christchurch City in 2006.

Representation of ethnic groups in government

Definition

The proportion of elected Members of Parliament (MPs) who identify themselves as of Māori, Pacific peoples or Asian ethnicity.

Relevance

The representation of different ethnic groups in government can be seen as an indicator of political representation more generally. Representative political institutions engage a wide range of communities in the political process, draw on the talents and skills of the broadest group of people, and provide checks and balances on the use of political power.

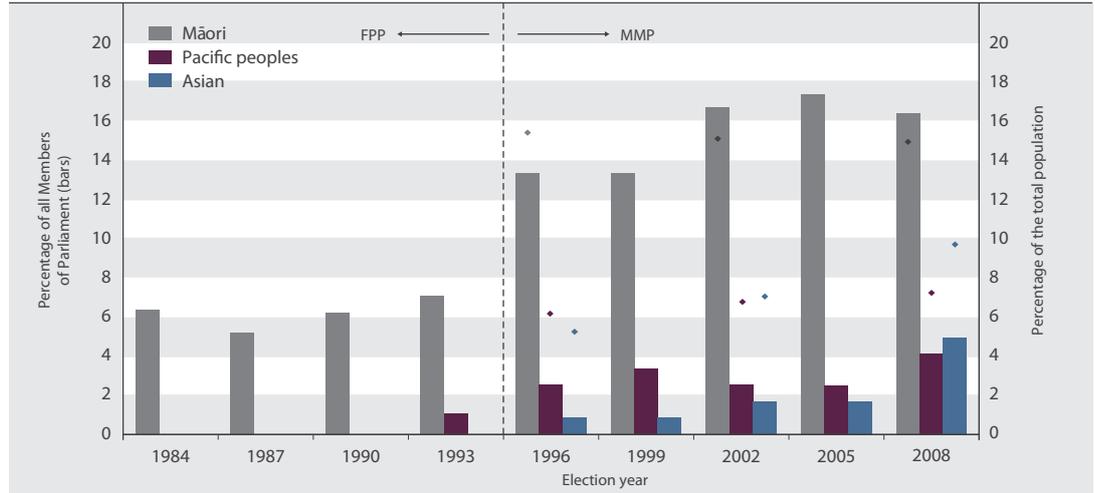
Current level and trends

Following the 2008 general election, 31 out of the 122 Members of Parliament (25 percent) self-identified as being of Māori, Pacific peoples or Asian ethnicity. This was up from 21 percent in 2005. Under the first-past-the-post electoral system, representation of these ethnic groups in Parliament increased from 6 percent in 1984 to 8 percent in 1993, then rose sharply to 17 percent in the first mixed-member-proportional election held in 1996. There was little change in 1999, but the proportion increased at each subsequent general election.

In 2008, 16 percent of MPs identified themselves as Māori, down slightly from 17 percent in 2005. The proportions of MPs identifying as Pacific peoples or Asian in 2008 (4 percent and 5 percent respectively) were the highest recorded. Pacific peoples and Asian ethnicities were first represented in Parliament in 1993 and 1996 respectively.

A similar proportion of Māori were elected to Parliament in 2008 as the Māori share of the New Zealand population (16 percent of MPs identified as Māori compared with 15 percent of the total population in 2006). The proportion of Pacific peoples in Parliament (4 percent) was smaller than their share of the population (7 percent), while the Asian ethnic group had the lowest representation (5 percent of all MPs compared with 10 percent of the population).

Figure CP3.1 **Members of Parliament identifying as Māori, Pacific peoples or Asian 1984–2008, and Māori, Pacific peoples or Asian share of the total population**



Sources: Wilson and Anderson (2008); Statistics New Zealand, *Estimated National Ethnic Population, 1996, 2001, 2006*
 Note: Ethnic group shares of the population for 2002 use 2001 ethnic population estimates; ethnic group shares for 2008 use 2006 ethnic population estimates.

The majority of Pacific MPs elected in 2008 were electorate MPs (60 percent) while the majority of Māori and Asian MPs were list MPs (55 percent and 83 percent respectively). Of the nine Māori electorate MPs, seven were elected to the Māori electorate seats.

Perceived discrimination

Definition

Personal discrimination: The proportion of people aged 15 years and over who had been treated unfairly or had had something nasty done to them because of the group they belonged to or seemed to belong to (hereafter called discriminated against) in the past 12 months, as reported in the New Zealand General Social Survey 2008.

Group discrimination: The proportion of people aged 18 years and over who perceived selected groups as being the targets of “some” or a “great deal” of discrimination, as reported in surveys commissioned by the Human Rights Commission.

Relevance Freedom from unlawful discrimination is a core principle of democratic societies. Discrimination limits people’s opportunities to participate fully in social and economic life and has negative effects on mental and physical wellbeing.

1. Personal discrimination

Current level In the 2008 New Zealand General Social Survey, 10 percent of people aged 15 years and over reported that they had been discriminated against in some way in the past 12 months.

Of these people who reported discrimination, the most common reasons given were their nationality, race or ethnic group (47 percent), or their skin colour (32 percent). Sixteen percent thought it was because of their gender while 15 percent felt it was because of their age. Other reasons cited included religious beliefs (10 percent), health issues (7 percent) and sexual orientation (3 percent).

For nearly half (45 percent) of those who reported discrimination, the discrimination had happened more than three times in the past year. The most common situations in which discrimination occurred were in public places (41 percent) and workplaces (39 percent).

Age and sex differences Younger adults were more likely than older adults to report being discriminated against. Fifteen percent of all people aged 15–24 years had experienced discrimination in the past year, compared with 12 percent of 25–44 year olds, 9 percent of 45–64 year olds and 3 percent of people aged 65 years and over. Males aged 15–24 years (20 percent) were twice as likely as females of that age (10 percent) to report being discriminated against, and this difference was statistically significant.

Although the overall rate of discrimination was similar for males and females, among those who reported they had experienced discrimination, females (23 percent) were more likely than males (10 percent) to cite gender discrimination as the reason.

Ethnic differences Asian people (23 percent), Māori (16 percent) and Pacific people (14 percent) were significantly more likely than people in the mainly European group (8 percent) to experience discrimination. Of those who had experienced discrimination, nationality, race or ethnic group was cited as a reason by 83 percent of Asian people, 63 percent of Pacific people, 56 percent of Māori, and 32 percent of people in the mainly European group.

Socio-economic and family type differences People in rented housing (16 percent) were twice as likely to experience discrimination as people in owner-occupied housing (8 percent). Unemployed people (19 percent) and people in one-parent families with dependent children (16 percent) had higher than average rates of discrimination. There was little variation by personal income level.

Regional differences

Proportions of people reporting discrimination were similar across the country: 12 percent in the combined regions of Northland, Bay of Plenty and Gisborne; 11 percent in the Auckland region and in the rest of the North Island (other than Wellington); 9 percent in Wellington and Canterbury and 7 percent in the South Island outside Canterbury. The difference between Auckland and the South Island outside Canterbury was the only statistically significant regional difference.

International comparison

In a 2009 European Commission survey, 16 percent of respondents reported personal experience of discrimination in the past year on one or more of the six grounds legally prohibited in the European Union (EU): gender, ethnic origin, religion or beliefs, age, disability and sexual orientation. New Zealand's rate of 10 percent in 2008 is similar to the EU survey's rate for Ireland (11 percent) but half the rate for the United Kingdom (20 percent). Age discrimination was the most common ground across the EU, reported by 6 percent of all respondents.⁸⁶

2. Group discrimination

Current level and trends

In December 2009, 75 percent of respondents to a Human Rights Commission survey thought Asian people were subject to a great deal or some discrimination, the highest proportion for any group. This was followed by people on welfare (70 percent), people who are overweight (65 percent) and recent immigrants (63 percent). The unemployed, included for the first time in 2009, were thought to be subject to discrimination by 60 percent of respondents.

Between 2008 and 2009, there was an increase of 4 percentage points in the proportion of respondents who saw people on welfare, Māori and women as subject to discrimination, and an increase of 3 percentage points in the proportion who saw people with disabilities, older people and children and young people as subject to discrimination.

Between December 2001 and December 2009, the proportion of people who thought that different groups were subject to some or a great deal of discrimination fell for seven of the 11 groups that had comparable data. The largest declines in perceived discrimination between 2001 and 2009 were for refugees and Pacific peoples (down by 7 percentage points), and Māori (down by 6 percentage points).

Table CP4.1 **Proportion (%) of survey respondents who perceived selected groups as being subject to a great deal or some discrimination, December 2000 to December 2009**

Group	Dec 2000	Dec 2001	Jan 2003	Jan 2004	Feb 2006	Nov 2007	Nov 2008	Dec 2009
Asians	73	73	79	78	72	68	74	75
People on welfare	75	70	68	66	63	62	66	70
People who are overweight	72	65	65	68	59	62	68	65
Recent immigrants	–	68	77	72	70	62	65	63
Refugees	–	68	72	70	63	56	61	61
Gays and lesbians	74	65	61	58	57	54	60	60
People with disabilities	61	55	53	55	53	52	57	60
Unemployed	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	60
Pacific peoples	71	65	65	57	54	51	60	58
Māori	70	62	57	53	51	48	52	56
Older people	53	48	49	46	44	46	44	47
Women	50	44	41	38	38	39	36	40
Children and young people	–	–	–	–	–	–	27	30
Men	–	–	–	–	30	29	27	26

Source: Human Rights Commission (2010)

Perceived corruption

Definition

The perceived level of corruption – defined as “the abuse of public office for private gain” – among New Zealand politicians and public officials, on a scale of 0 (highly corrupt) to 10 (highly clean).

A country’s score in the Corruption Perceptions Index is derived by Transparency International from a number of different surveys of business people and country analysts.

Relevance

Corruption undermines democracy and the rule of law and threatens domestic and international security. Corruption also has adverse social and economic consequences for a country. The Corruption Perceptions Index is a good proxy indicator of the values and norms that underpin public institutions.

Current level and trends

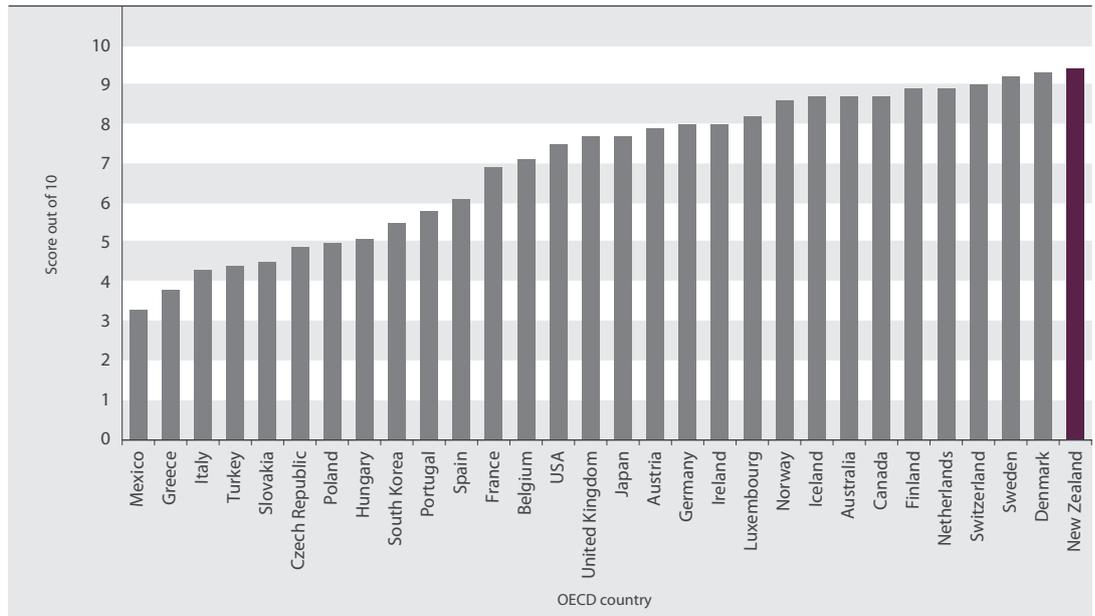
New Zealand’s score in the Corruption Perceptions Index 2009 was 9.4, similar to its scores of 9.3 in 2008, 9.4 in 2007 and 9.6 in 2004–2006. Since the index was first developed in 1995, New Zealand has consistently scored well, with more than 9 out of a possible 10 in each period reported.

International comparison

In the Corruption Perceptions Index 2009, New Zealand was ranked the least corrupt nation out of 30 OECD countries, followed by Denmark and Sweden (9.3 and 9.2 respectively). Since 1995, New Zealand has consistently been among the top four OECD nations perceived as highly clean.

New Zealand scored higher in the perceived corruption index than Australia and Canada (seventh equal, 8.7), the United Kingdom (15th, 7.7) and the United States (17th, 7.5).

Figure CP5.1 **Corruption Perceptions Index scores (0=highly corrupt, 10=highly clean), OECD countries, 2009**



Source: Transparency International (2009)

Desired outcomes

New Zealanders share a strong national identity, have a sense of belonging and value cultural diversity. Everybody is able to pass their cultural traditions on to future generations. Māori culture is valued and protected.

Cultural identity

Introduction

Culture refers to the customs, practices, languages, values and world views that define social groups such as those based on nationality, ethnicity, region or common interests. Cultural identity is important for people's sense of self and how they relate to others. A strong cultural identity can contribute to people's overall wellbeing.

Cultural identity based on ethnicity is not necessarily exclusive. People may identify themselves as New Zealanders in some circumstances and as part of a particular culture (eg Māori, Chinese or Scottish) in other circumstances. They may also identify with more than one culture.

The desired outcomes recognise the importance of a shared national identity and sense of belonging, and the value of cultural, social and ethnic diversity. They recognise New Zealand is a multicultural society, while also acknowledging that Māori culture has a unique place. For example, under the Treaty of Waitangi, the Crown has an obligation to protect the Māori language.

Defining a national identity is not simple. New Zealand is a diverse nation, made up of many cultural groups, with many different customs and traditions. While people may describe themselves as "New Zealanders", how they define their "New Zealand-ness" will vary from person to person. For example, some people might see a New Zealand identity in aspects of New Zealand's history or in New Zealander's achievements in sporting, artistic or other endeavours, while others might see it through a sense of national characteristics or traits, or through national symbols and icons. Māori culture may form one aspect of national identity, since it is both unique to New Zealand and a part of our identity in the outside world.

Cultural identity is an important contributor to people's wellbeing. Identifying with a particular culture helps people feel they belong and gives them a sense of security. An established cultural identity has also been linked with positive outcomes in areas such as health and education.⁸⁷ It provides access to social networks, which provide support and shared values and aspirations. Social networks can help to break down barriers and build a sense of trust between people, a phenomenon sometimes referred to as social capital.

However, strong cultural identity expressed in the wrong way can contribute to barriers between groups. And members of smaller cultural groups can feel excluded from society if others obstruct, or are intolerant of, their cultural practices.

Indicators

Three indicators are used in this report to provide a snapshot of the health of New Zealand's cultural identity.

The first indicator is the share of New Zealand content programming on television. Since television is the dominant cultural medium for most New Zealanders, it has a strong influence on how we see ourselves.

The second indicator measures the health of the Māori language. Language is a central component of culture and a necessary skill for full participation in Māori society.

The final indicator, the proportion of people who can speak the first language (other than English and Māori) of their ethnic group, is an indicator of the degree to which people are able to retain their culture and traditions and to pass them on to subsequent generations.

Local content programming on New Zealand television

Definition

The number of hours of local content screened on New Zealand television channels during prime-time (6pm to 10pm), as a proportion of the total prime-time schedule.

Local content is generally defined as material that is both predominantly made in New Zealand and reflective of New Zealand identity and culture. From 2005 the indicator includes information from Māori Television Service and Prime Television, in addition to the core channels of TV One, TV2 and TV3. From 2006 it also includes information from C4.

Relevance

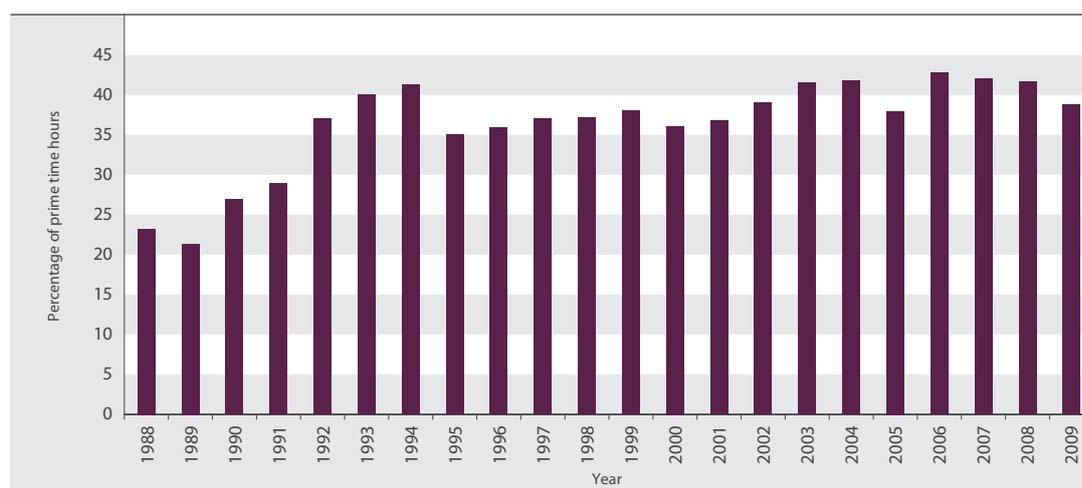
Television is the dominant cultural medium for most New Zealanders. A 2009 survey indicated that New Zealanders spend more than three hours a day watching television.⁸⁸ Ninety-eight percent of New Zealand households have at least one television set.⁸⁹ For many people, television is a major source of news, information and entertainment and it strongly influences their sense of local and national identity. A local content measure reflects the extent to which we see our culture reflected through this medium.

Current level and trends

In 2009, local content on six national free-to-air television channels made up 39 percent of the prime-time schedule. This is below the figure recorded in 2008 (42 percent). The proportion of local content on the three main free-to-air channels rose from 24 percent in 1988 to a peak of 42 percent in 1994, before dropping to 35 percent in 1995. It reached 42 percent again in 2003 and 2004. The fall to 38 percent in 2005 was mainly attributable to the inclusion of Prime Television which had a low level of local content. The subsequent addition of more local sport to Prime Television's schedule and to those of other free-to-air channels, along with the inclusion of C4's local entertainment programming, were important factors behind the increase in 2006.

The percentage of local content in prime-time transmission hours in 2009 differs across the channels: TV One: 51 percent, TV2: 20 percent, TV3: 44 percent, Prime: 13 percent, Māori Television: 54 percent, and C4: 53 percent. Between 2008 and 2009, percentages of local content in prime-time television declined for TV1, Prime, Māori Television and C4 and increased slightly for TV2 and TV3.

Figure CI1.1 **Proportion of local content on prime-time television, 1988–2009**



Source: NZ On Air

Notes: (1) Up to 2004, the figures are for prime-time (6pm–10pm) local content on TV One, TV2 and TV3 only. (2) Figures from 2005 include Prime Television and Māori Television (2005 Māori Television figure derived by the Ministry of Social Development). (3) Figures from 2006 include C4.

Four programme types accounted for over three-quarters of the total local content hours in 2009: news and current affairs (33 percent), information programmes (15 percent), sports (14 percent) and entertainment (14 percent). This was similar to the pattern in 2008.

Table CI1.1 **Percentage share of total hours of local content, by programme type, selected years, 1988–2009**

Programme type	1988	1990	1995	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
News, current affairs	26	23	21	30	33	29	32	34	31	27	27	32	33
Information	10	5	8	17	21	18	19	17	15	15	18	15	15
Sports	24	39	31	20	13	18	14	14	11	17	16	15	14
Entertainment	14	12	9	7	9	10	8	9	13	17	15	16	14
Children's	15	13	15	10	8	8	10	8	8	8	8	9	9
Drama/comedy	2	1	7	6	6	6	6	6	5	6	8	6	5
Māori	6	3	3	6	6	5	6	6	9	4	3	2	3
Documentaries	2	3	5	4	4	5	5	6	7	6	6	6	6
Total New Zealand content hours	2,112	4,249	5,018	6,185	6,190	7,201	6,526	6,423	9,306	10,255	10,784	11,600	11,418

Source: NZ On Air

Notes: (1) Information on types of local programmes in prime-time hours was not published before 2005. (2) These figures relate to a 24-hour period up to 2002; from 2003 on, figures relate to 18 hours (6am to midnight). (3) Up to 2004, the figures are for TV One, TV2 and TV3 only; figures from 2005 include Prime Television and Māori Television (2005 Māori Television figure derived by the Ministry of Social Development); figures from 2006 include C4.

International comparison

International comparisons are difficult due to the inconsistencies in measurement approaches by different countries. However, in 1999, local content accounted for 24 percent of total transmission time in New Zealand, a smaller proportion than that in 10 other surveyed countries. This was compared to the United States (90 percent), the United Kingdom (BBC only, 78 percent), Canada (60 percent), Norway (56 percent), Finland (55 percent), Australia (which mandates a local content transmission quota of 55 percent on all free-to-air commercial networks) and Ireland (RTE only, 41 percent).⁹⁰ Note this is a measure of total air-time programming rather than prime-time programming, which is the measure this indicator is based on.

Māori language speakers

Definition

The number of Māori who reported in the five-yearly population census they could hold a conversation about everyday things in the Māori language (te reo Māori), as a proportion of the Māori population.⁹¹

Relevance

Māori language is a central component of Māori culture, and an important aspect of participation and identity. It also forms part of the broader cultural identity and heritage of New Zealand. In 1987, the Māori language was recognised as an official New Zealand language.

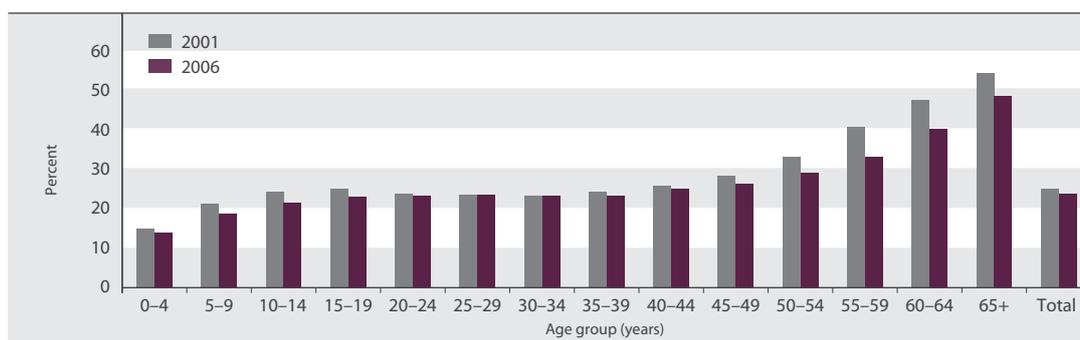
Current level and trends

Almost one-quarter of all Māori (24 percent, or 131,600 people) reported in the 2006 Census they could hold a conversation in Māori about everyday things. Of the 157,100 people (or 4 percent of the total New Zealand population) who could speak Māori in 2006, 84 percent were Māori.

The proportion of Māori who were fluent Māori speakers declined markedly over the last century, particularly following the rapid urbanisation of the Māori population in the 1950s and 1960s. The first national Māori language survey in 1973 estimated the proportion of fluent speakers had fallen to 18 percent. By the 1996 Census, the proportion of Māori who could hold a conversation in te reo Māori had risen to 25 percent and was still at that level in 2001. Although around 1,100 more Māori could speak Māori in 2006 than in 2001, the Māori population had grown by a greater number (39,000 people) and so the proportion of Māori language speakers recorded in the 2006 Census declined slightly, from 25 percent in 2001 to 24 percent in 2006.

Information is also available from the two surveys on the health of the Māori language, conducted in 2001 and 2006. These surveys show that the proportion of Māori aged 15 years and over with some level of speaking proficiency increased from 42 percent in 2001 to 51 percent in 2006. The increase was greatest at the higher proficiency levels, particularly among younger people. In 2006, 14 percent of Māori aged 15 years and over could speak Māori “well” or “very well”, up from 9 percent in 2001. The proportion of younger people (those aged 15–24 years and 25–34 years) with a high proficiency in te reo Māori more than doubled. The data is not directly comparable with census data because of differences in the way the information is collected and because the survey is designed to measure proficiency in te reo, rather than simply asking whether people can converse in the language.⁹²

Figure CI2.1 **Proportion of Māori speakers in the Māori population, by age group, 2001 and 2006**



Source: Statistics New Zealand, 2001 and 2006 censuses

Age differences

Older Māori are considerably more likely than younger Māori to be able to converse about everyday things in Māori. In the 2006 Census, almost half (49 percent) of Māori aged 65 years and over and more than one-third (36 percent) of Māori aged 55–64 years reported being able to converse in the Māori language, compared with less than one-fifth (18 percent) of Māori aged under 15 years.

The decline of te reo speakers recorded in the census between 2001 and 2006 occurred among young and older Māori but was most pronounced at ages 55–64 years.

Table CI2.1 **Proportion (%) of Māori speakers in the Māori population, by age group and sex, 2001 and 2006**

	Age group (years)						Total (all ages)
	Under 15	15–24	25–44	45–54	55–64	65+	
Males							
2001	18.9	22.9	24.5	31.7	45.2	55.3	24.6
2006	17.2	21.5	23.7	28.0	37.8	49.6	23.1
Females							
2001	21.2	26.0	23.7	29.2	42.5	53.5	25.7
2006	18.9	24.5	24.0	27.1	34.3	47.9	24.4
Total							
2001	20.0	24.5	24.1	30.4	43.8	54.3	25.2
2006	18.1	23.0	23.9	27.5	36.0	48.7	23.7

Source: Statistics New Zealand, 2001 and 2006 censuses

Sex differences

Sex differences in the proportion of Māori language speakers among Māori were also apparent, with females being slightly more likely to be able to converse in Māori than males. However, the difference varied by age. From age 45 years onwards, Māori males were more likely than Māori females to speak Māori. For those younger than 25 years, a higher proportion of females than males could speak Māori.

Ethnic differences

After Māori, Pacific peoples had the highest proportion who could speak Māori (4 percent), followed by Europeans (1.6 percent), the Other ethnic group (1.1 percent) and Asians (0.5 percent).⁹³ In contrast to Māori, the ability to speak te reo Māori was higher at younger ages than at older ages in these ethnic groups.

Regional differences

Māori who live in areas with a high proportion of Māori residents are the most likely to be Māori language speakers. In 2006, the regions with the highest proportions of people with conversational Māori skills were Gisborne (32 percent), the Bay of Plenty (31 percent), Northland (28 percent) and Waikato and Hawke's Bay (each 26 percent).

Language retention

Definition

The proportion of people who can speak the “first language” (excluding English) of their ethnic group, for ethnic groups (other than Māori) with an established resident population in New Zealand, as recorded in the 2006 Census.

The ability to speak a first language is defined as being able to hold an everyday conversation in that language. First language refers to a language associated with a given ethnicity, as opposed to the first language of a person. Sign language is not treated as a first language for the purposes of this indicator.

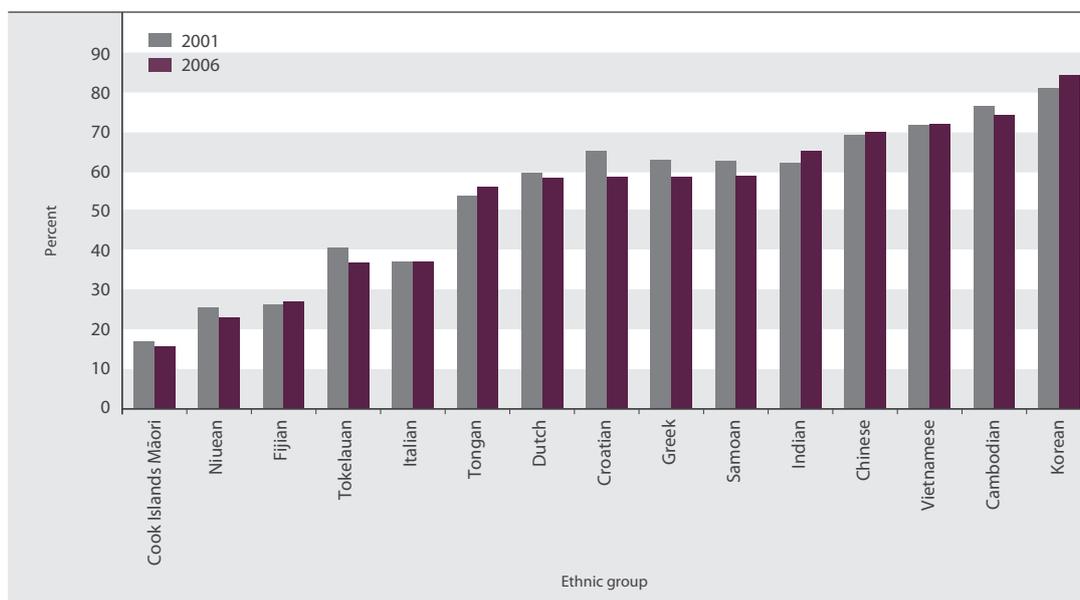
Relevance

The ability of people to speak the language of their identified ethnicity is an indicator of the ability of ethnic groups to retain and pass on their culture and traditions to future generations. Language is a central component of cultural identity.

Current level and trends

In 2006, the proportion of people who could hold an everyday conversation in the first language of their ethnic group varied widely between ethnic groups, from 16 percent of Cook Islands Māori to 84 percent of Koreans. Between 2001 and 2006, most ethnic groups experienced little change in the proportion of people who could speak their first language, although there were slight increases for the Tongan, Indian and Korean ethnic groups and slight decreases for most Pacific and European ethnic groups.

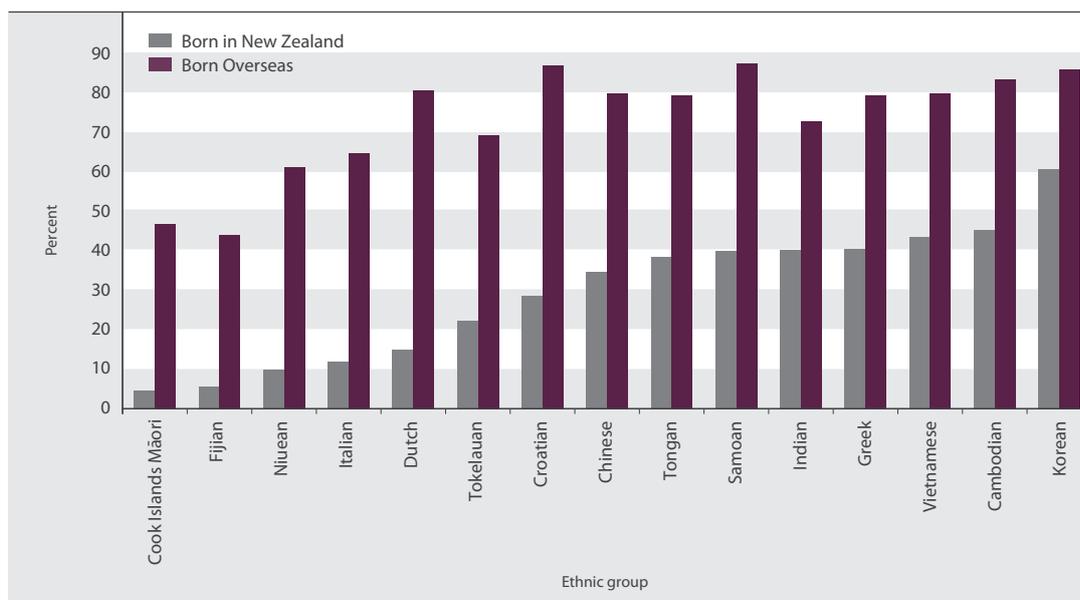
Figure CI3.1 **Proportion of people who could speak the first language of their ethnic group, 2001 and 2006**



Source: Statistics New Zealand, *Census of Population and Dwellings*, unpublished data

For all ethnic groups, those who were born in New Zealand were considerably less likely to be able to speak the first language of their ethnic group than those who were born overseas.

Figure CI3.2 **Proportion of people who could speak the first language of their ethnic group, by birthplace, 2006**



Source: Statistics New Zealand, Census of Population and Dwellings, unpublished data

Age and sex differences

In all ethnic groups, younger people were less likely than older people to be able to hold an everyday conversation in the first language of their ethnic group.

In Pacific and Asian ethnic groups, females tended to be slightly more likely than males to speak the first language of their ethnic group, but the reverse was true in most European ethnic groups.

Table CI3.1 **Proportion (%) of people in selected ethnic groups who can speak the first language of their ethnic group, by age group and sex, 2006**

Ethnic group	Age group (years)			Sex		Total
	0–24	25–49	50+	Male	Female	
Pacific						
Samoan	46	71	88	58	60	59
Cook Islands Māori	6	23	50	15	17	16
Tongan	45	69	79	55	57	56
Niuean	10	34	61	22	24	23
Tokelauan	22	53	77	35	38	37
Fijian	16	35	48	27	27	27
Asian						
Chinese	60	75	83	68	72	70
Indian	53	71	79	63	67	65
Cambodian	63	84	87	71	77	74
Vietnamese	62	80	84	68	75	72
Korean	81	87	89	83	85	84
European						
Dutch	20	62	80	58	58	58
Greek	23	66	86	59	58	58
Croatian	30	62	80	61	56	58
Italian	13	46	67	38	36	37

Source: Statistics New Zealand, Census of Population and Dwellings, unpublished data

Desired outcomes

Everybody is satisfied with their participation in leisure and recreation activities. They have sufficient time to do what they want to do and can access an adequate range of opportunities for leisure and recreation.

Leisure and recreation

Introduction

Leisure and recreation are both crucial components of a balanced and healthy lifestyle. Leisure time is a time when people can do what they want to do, away from work and other commitments.

Recreation and leisure play an important role in social wellbeing by providing people with a sense of identity and personal autonomy. Involvement in leisure-time activities adds meaning to individual and community life and contributes to people's overall quality of life. Recreation can encourage personal growth and self-expression and provide increased learning opportunities, satisfying needs not met in people's non-leisure time.

For many people, participation in leisure and recreation improves their physical and mental health. Recreation often involves a physical activity or sport. Research shows increased physical activity can lead to fewer health problems and higher productivity at work, especially when combined with a balanced diet and a healthy lifestyle.

The benefits for mental health are equally important. Several studies have demonstrated links between regular physical activity and a reduction in the symptoms of mild or moderate depression, stress and anxiety. Passive leisure also has benefits for mental health, by providing an outlet for the mind. It may provide physical rest, tension release and opportunities to enjoy nature and escape from the daily routine.

Participation in leisure and recreation activities can also have social benefits. It creates opportunities for socialisation and contributes to social cohesion by allowing people to connect and network with others. It can also contribute to family bonding when families do things together in their leisure time.

Indicators

Three indicators are used in this chapter. They are: satisfaction with leisure time, participation in physical activity and participation in arts and cultural activities. Together, these indicators present a picture of how people feel about their leisure time and how they spend it.

The first indicator is satisfaction with leisure time. This measures how people feel about both the quantity and quality of leisure time available to them.

The second indicator measures people's participation in physical activity. It tells us how active New Zealanders are. Moderate physical activity can improve a number of health outcomes.

The final indicator measures people's involvement in arts and cultural activities, either through attendance at arts events or through active participation.

Satisfaction with leisure time

Definition

The proportion of people aged 15 years and over who are “satisfied” or “very satisfied” with their leisure time as reported in the Quality of Life Survey.

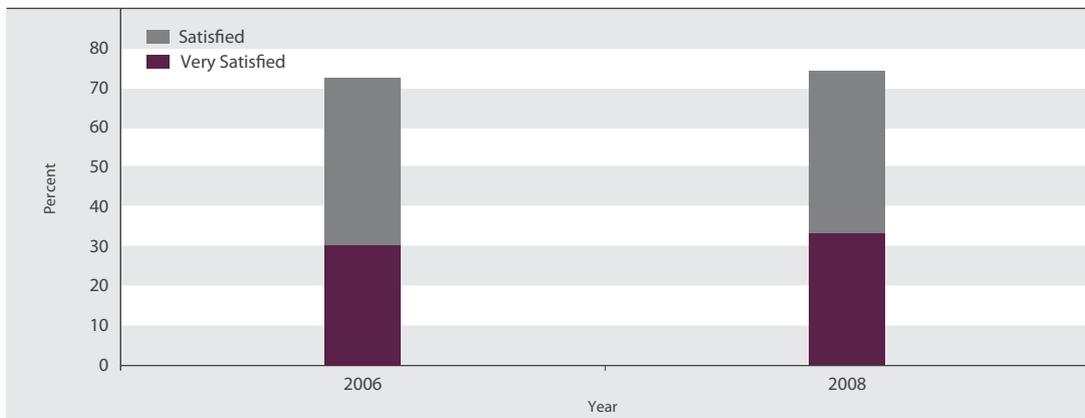
Relevance

Leisure time is a crucial component of a balanced and healthy lifestyle. It is a time when people can do what they want to, separate from work and other commitments.

Current level and trends

In 2008, three-quarters of New Zealanders (75 percent) were satisfied overall with their leisure time (41 percent were satisfied and 34 percent were very satisfied). These results are very similar to those in 2006, when 73 percent of New Zealanders were satisfied with their leisure time (42 percent satisfied and 31 percent very satisfied).

Figure L1.1 **Satisfaction with leisure time, 2006 and 2008**

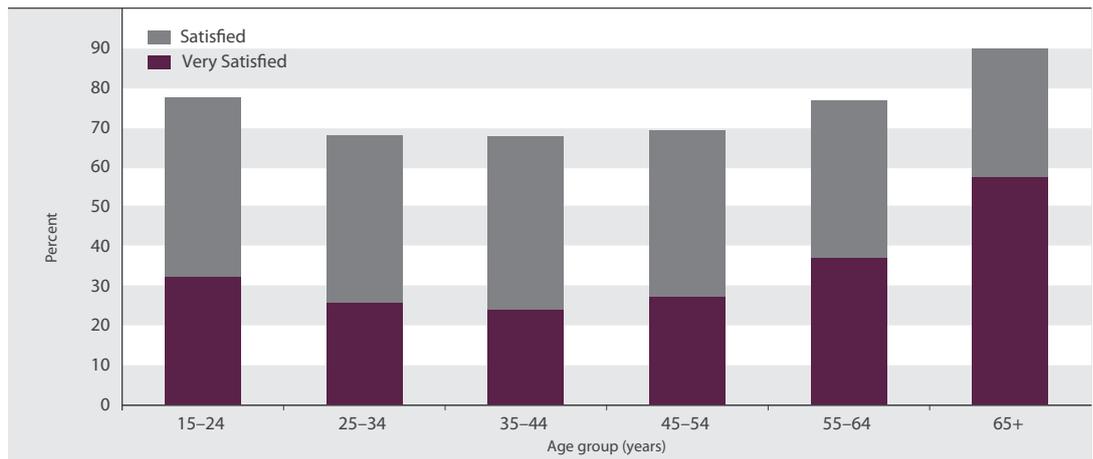


Sources: Quality of Life Survey 2006; Quality of Life Survey 2008

Age differences

While the majority of New Zealanders were satisfied with their leisure time, those aged 25–34 years (68 percent), 35–44 years (68 percent) and 45–54 years (70 percent) were less satisfied overall than other age groups. These age groups tend to have larger work and family commitments than other groups, which may impinge on the time available for leisure. In comparison, those aged 15–24 years and those aged 55–64 years were more likely to report being satisfied with their leisure time, with total satisfaction levels of 78 percent and 77 percent respectively. People aged 65 years and over reported the highest levels of overall satisfaction with their leisure time (90 percent).

Figure L1.2 **Satisfaction with leisure time, by age group, 2008**



Source: Quality of Life Survey 2008

Sex differences

There was little difference between males and females in reported satisfaction with leisure time. Seventy-four percent of men and 76 percent of women reported they were satisfied or very satisfied with their leisure time.

Ethnic differences

Most New Zealanders, regardless of their ethnicity, were satisfied with their leisure time. In 2008, the European ethnic group (76 percent), Māori (75 percent) and Pacific peoples (74 percent) had similar levels of satisfaction with their leisure time, while people of Asian ethnicity had lower levels of satisfaction (70 percent).

Household type differences

People who live in households with children aged under 18 years had lower levels of satisfaction with their leisure time (68 percent) than people in households without children of that age (80 percent).

Socio-economic differences

In 2008, satisfaction with leisure time was highest for people with an annual personal income of \$30,000 or less (79 percent). This reflects the high proportion of people aged 65 years and over and 15-24 years in this income range. People with personal incomes in all income groups above \$30,000 had similar levels of satisfaction with their leisure time (between 73 percent and 70 percent).

People employed full-time had lower levels of satisfaction with their leisure time (69 percent) than people employed part-time (80 percent), those who were unemployed (77 percent) or those not in the labour force (85 percent).

Regional differences

People who live in Porirua City had the highest level of satisfaction with their leisure time (80 percent), while people from Waitakere City (70 percent) and Hamilton City (69 percent) had the lowest levels of satisfaction with their leisure time.

Participation in physical activity

Definition

The proportion of the population aged 15 years and over who met physical activity guidelines (ie were physically active for at least 30 minutes a day on five or more days over the last week), as measured by the 2002/2003 and 2006/2007 New Zealand Health Surveys.

Relevance Participation in physical activity is a source of enjoyment and has positive benefits for people's physical and mental health. It can also contribute to personal growth and development and is a good way to meet new people.

Current level and trends In 2006/2007, 51 percent of New Zealanders aged 15 years and over met physical activity guidelines, reporting they had been physically active for at least 30 minutes a day on five or more days over the last week. In 2002/2003, the proportion was 53 percent. However, the change between 2002/2003 and 2006/2007 was not statistically significant. The rates used in this section have been adjusted for age.

Sex and age differences Males were significantly more likely than females to meet physical activity guidelines. In 2006/2007, 54 percent of males reported being physically active for at least 30 minutes a day on five or more days in the last week, compared to 47 percent of females.

Activity levels tend to decline with age. In 2006/2007, the proportion of the population who met physical activity guidelines was highest for age groups under 35 years and lowest for age groups over 65 years. Only for those aged 75 years and over were the proportions significantly lower than the rate for all ages.

Between 2002/2003 and 2006/2007, men in the 35–44 years and 45–54 years age groups recorded a decline in the proportion who met physical activity guidelines, as did women aged 55–64 years.

Table L2.1 **Proportion (%) of the population aged 15 years and over who met physical activity guidelines in the last week, by age group and sex, 2002/2003 and 2006/2007**

Age group (years)	Males		Females		Total	
	2002/2003	2006/2007	2002/2003	2006/2007	2002/2003	2006/2007
15–24	63.6	63.4	47.0	47.0	55.3	55.2
25–34	53.2	57.5	51.0	48.7	52.0	52.9
35–44	57.9	52.5	47.7	49.6	52.6	51.0
45–54	59.9	51.6	50.4	51.9	55.1	51.8
55–64	54.8	50.2	57.7	50.3	56.2	50.2
65–74	51.5	51.3	46.3	43.5	48.7	47.2
75+	36.1	40.6	29.8	26.3	32.6	32.4
Total	56.2	54.0	48.4	47.3	52.1	50.5

Source: Ministry of Health

Ethnic differences

Asians aged 15 years and over were significantly less likely than the general population in that age group to have met physical activity guidelines in the last week. In 2006/2007, the age-standardised rate for Asians was 40 percent while the rate for all New Zealanders aged 15 years and over was 51 percent. In each ethnic group other than Pacific peoples, males were significantly more likely than females to have met physical activity guidelines. These patterns were similar in 2002/2003.

Table L2.2 **Proportion (%) of the population aged 15 years and over who met physical activity guidelines in the last week, by ethnic group and sex, 2002/2003 and 2006/2007**

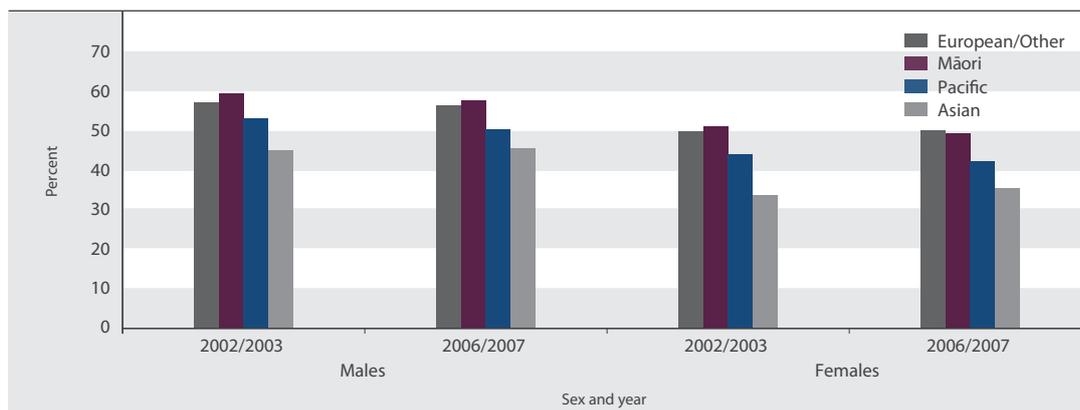
Ethnic group	Males		Females		Total	
	2002/2003	2006/2007	2002/2003	2006/2007	2002/2003	2006/2007
European/Other	57.4	56.6	49.9	50.3	53.5	53.3
Māori	59.7	57.9	51.2	49.4	55.2	53.4
Pacific peoples	53.2	50.4	44.2	42.3	48.5	46.1
Asian	45.3	45.8	33.8	35.6	39.1	40.4
Total	56.7	54.9	48.6	47.9	52.5	51.3

Source: Ministry of Health

Notes: (1) People who reported more than one ethnic group are counted once in each group reported. (2) Age-standardised using WHO world population.

Between 2002/2003 and 2006/2007, there were no significant increases in the rate at which the population aged 15 years and over met physical activity guidelines for any ethnic group.

Figure L2.1 **Proportion of the population aged 15 years and over who met physical activity guidelines in the last week, by ethnic group and sex, 2002/2003 and 2006/2007**



Source: Ministry of Health

Notes: (1) People who reported more than one ethnic group are counted once in each group reported. (2) Age-standardised using WHO world population.

Socio-economic differences

In 2006/2007, there was no association between physical activity and the level of neighbourhood deprivation (as measured by NZDep2006 quintiles).

Participation in arts and cultural activities

Definition

The proportion of the population aged 15 years and over who had attended at least one arts event or had actively participated in the arts in the previous 12 months, as measured by Creative New Zealand's survey: *New Zealanders and the arts: Attitudes, attendance and participation*.

Arts events refers to art galleries (including online galleries), exhibitions, film festivals; performances in theatre, contemporary dance and ballet, music concerts, circuses; poetry or book readings, literary festivals or events; cultural performances and festivals, and celebrations of Māori or Pacific arts. Participation is defined as being directly involved in the making or presentation of art. It does not include such activities as listening to a CD, reading a book or going to a movie.

Relevance

Arts and cultural activities are an integral part of leisure and recreation. People attend arts events or actively participate in the arts for a wide variety of reasons: for enjoyment and entertainment, as a means of creative expression, for personal growth and the pursuit of excellence, to learn new skills, to meet new people, and to celebrate cultural traditions. A shared appreciation of the arts can help to promote understanding between peoples, both within and beyond a country's borders.

Current level and trends

In 2008, 83 percent of New Zealanders aged 15 years and over had attended at least one arts event in the previous 12 months. Around one-third (34 percent) had high attendance at arts events, having been to more than 10 events in the past year. These proportions were similar to those found in the 2005 survey (84 percent and 32 percent, respectively).

Almost half of the population aged 15 years and over (48 percent) were actively participating in the arts in 2008, similar to the proportion in 2005 (50 percent). Just over one-quarter of the population (26 percent) were frequent participants in the arts, having been actively involved more than 12 times in the past year.

In 2008, two-thirds (65 percent) of New Zealanders agreed the arts were part of their everyday life, up from 57 percent in 2005. Commonly held views of what "the arts" included were the visual arts (painting, photography, sculpture and drawing); music and singing (symphony orchestra, concerts, opera); ballet and other dancing; theatre, plays, drama, comedy and live performances; carvings, sculpture and things people make or create; movies; literature, poetry, writings, readings. In both 2005 and 2008, attendance and participation rates were highest for the visual and performance arts.

Changes in technology are reflected in the arts. Almost one-quarter (23 percent) of the adult population aged 15 years and over said they had created original works of art using a computer. The proportion was highest among young adults aged 15–24 years: 43 percent had created digital art in the past 12 months.

Sex and age differences

While 86 percent of New Zealanders aged 15 years and over were involved in the arts, either by attending arts events or by participating in the arts, women were slightly more likely than men to be involved (89 percent, compared to 84 percent). People aged 70 years and over had a lower than average level of involvement in the arts, but it was still high, at 77 percent.

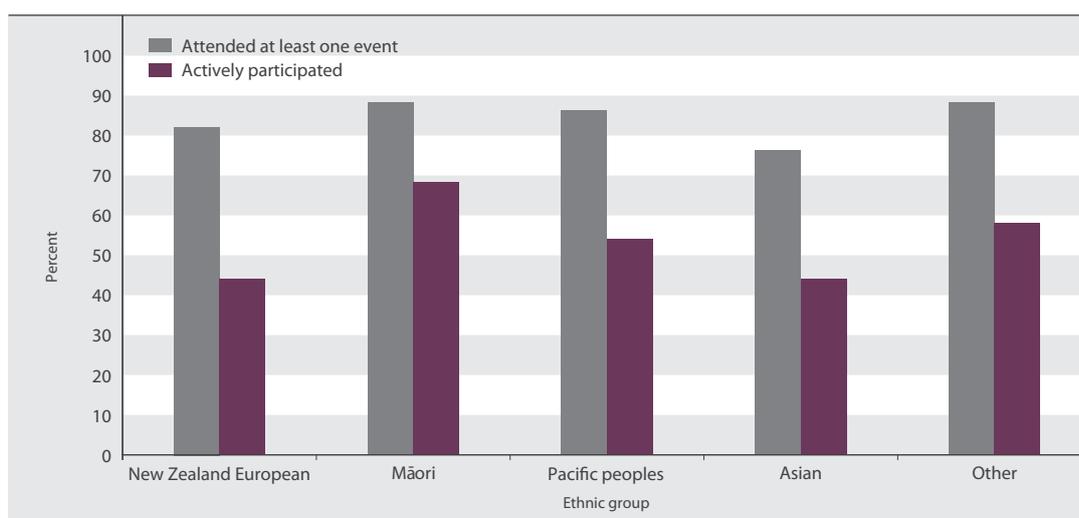
Childhood experiences of the arts influences adult attendance and participation. Of adults who were regularly taken to arts events as children, 92 percent had attended at least one arts event in the past 12 months and 62 percent were active participants in the arts.

Ethnic differences

Ideas about what the arts included tended to be broader among Māori, Pacific and Asian peoples. These ethnic groups were more likely to view crafts, cultural events and expressions or interpretations of ideas, feelings and beliefs as being part of the arts.

Māori and Pacific people had slightly higher than average attendance at arts events in 2008 (88 percent and 86 percent, respectively), compared to the national average of 83 percent. People in these two ethnic groups had much higher than average active participation in the arts (Māori 68 percent, Pacific peoples 54 percent), compared to the national average of 48 percent. Both attendance and participation rates were lower than average for Asian people, although 76 percent had attended at least one arts event in the past 12 months and 44 percent were active participants in the arts.

Figure L3.1 **Proportion of the population aged 15 years and over who attended arts events or participated in the arts, by ethnic group, 2008**



Source: Creative New Zealand (2009)

Socio-economic differences

Attendance at arts events varies by education level. In 2008, attendance ranged from 77 percent for people with no formal education beyond secondary school level, to 93 percent for those with a postgraduate degree. Active participation in the arts varied less markedly, from 43 percent for people with no more than secondary school education, to 54 percent for those with a postgraduate degree. Both the 2005 and 2008 surveys found no substantial relationship between income and participation in the arts.

International comparison

Surveys similar to those commissioned by Creative New Zealand have been conducted in Australia, England and Scotland. On attendance at arts events in the past year, New Zealand ranked highest with 83 percent in 2008, followed by Australia (72 percent in 2009), Scotland (68 percent in 2008) and England (67 percent in 2008). However, the New Zealand survey included attendances at film festivals (though not films generally), which were not counted in the Australian survey. A 2007 survey of leisure activities in 34 countries by the International Social Survey Program, which included questions on arts attendance, placed New Zealand among the “high attendance” countries (scoring 70–79 percent), alongside Austria, France, Germany, Australia and Great Britain.⁹⁴

In 2008, New Zealand had a relatively high level of creative participation in the arts (48 percent), compared to 47 percent in England and 41 percent in Australia.

Desired outcomes

Everybody enjoys physical safety and feels secure. People are free from victimisation, abuse, violence and avoidable injury.

Safety

Introduction

Safety is fundamental to wellbeing: violence and avoidable injuries, at their most extreme, threaten life itself. In other cases, they reduce the quality of life for the victim and other people in various ways.

Both safety and security are important. Safety is freedom from physical or emotional harm, while security is freedom from the threat or fear of harm or danger. The desired outcomes recognise threats come in many forms, ranging from deliberate violence to accidental injury.

Violence and injury corrode quality of life in many ways. Physical injury causes pain and incapacity, reducing victims' enjoyment of life and their ability to do things that are important to them.

Property crime, such as burglary, also affects people's wellbeing. In addition to the direct losses associated with crime of this sort, evidence suggests the threat of burglary is a more significant worry for many people than the threat of violence.⁹⁵

Psychological effects are often as important as the physical ones. Victims of violence or injury often retain emotional scars long after their physical wounds have healed. They may suffer from depression or face other mental health issues.

Crime affects not only individuals but also society as a whole. The victim's family and friends are likely to suffer grief and anger. They may have to care for someone who is temporarily or permanently incapacitated and who may lose their livelihood. Crime and the fear of crime may also reduce social cohesion within communities.

Crime may restrict people's freedom of movement. For example, they may stay away from certain areas or avoid going out because of a fear of crime.

The costs to the whole society range from the expense of hospital care and law enforcement to the loss of the victim's input into their work and community. Children who grow up surrounded by violence may themselves become violent adults, perpetuating a negative cycle.

Indicators

Four indicators are used in this chapter: assault mortality, criminal victimisation, fear of crime and road casualties. The first three indicators provide a picture of the level and impact of violence in the community.

Assault mortality provides a picture of intentional violence across society. Reducing interpersonal violence in families and communities is critical to social and personal wellbeing. This indicator measures deaths resulting from violence, the tip of the violence pyramid. Young children and youth are particularly vulnerable.

Measuring criminal victimisation from police records is difficult, as many crimes are not reported to the police. This is particularly true of domestic violence, sexual violence and child abuse. The second indicator uses survey results to give a more comprehensive picture of the level of criminal victimisation in society, including the level of violence.

The third indicator is fear of crime. Feeling unsafe harms people's quality of life by producing anxiety and reducing their options in life. However, there is some evidence fear is not necessarily linked to the actual risk of becoming a crime victim. For example, people may feel unsafe and have their quality of life reduced even when the actual likelihood of their being victimised is relatively small.

People should also be able to live in a society free from the risk of avoidable death or injury. The leading cause of avoidable injury and death is motor vehicle crashes. In economic terms, the social cost of motor vehicle crashes has been estimated at \$3.1 billion annually.⁹⁶ The final indicator is road casualties.

Assault mortality

Definition

The number of people who have died as the result of an assault, per 100,000 population.

Relevance

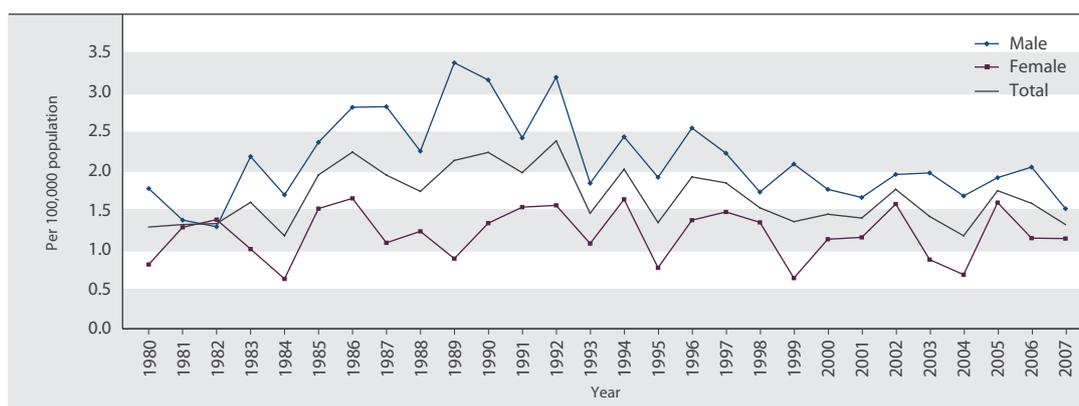
Reducing interpersonal violence in families and communities is critical to social and personal wellbeing. This indicator measures deaths resulting from violence, the tip of the violence pyramid. Young children and youth are particularly vulnerable.

Current level and trends

In the five years to 2007, 292 people died as the result of an assault. This was more than the 284 people who died from that cause in the five-year period 1998–2002, but considerably fewer than the 356 people who died from an assault in 1988–1992.

The provisional age-standardised assault mortality rate for the year 2007 was 1.3 deaths per 100,000 population, down from 1.6 per 100,000 in 2006. In the early 1980s, the assault mortality rate was around 1.5 deaths per 100,000. It increased to around 2.0 per 100,000 between 1986 and 1992, falling back to around 1.5 per 100,000 by the late 1990s. It should be noted that rates based on small numbers are volatile, and trends can be difficult to discern over the short term.

Figure SS1.1 Age-standardised assault mortality rate, by sex, 1980–2007



Source: Ministry of Health

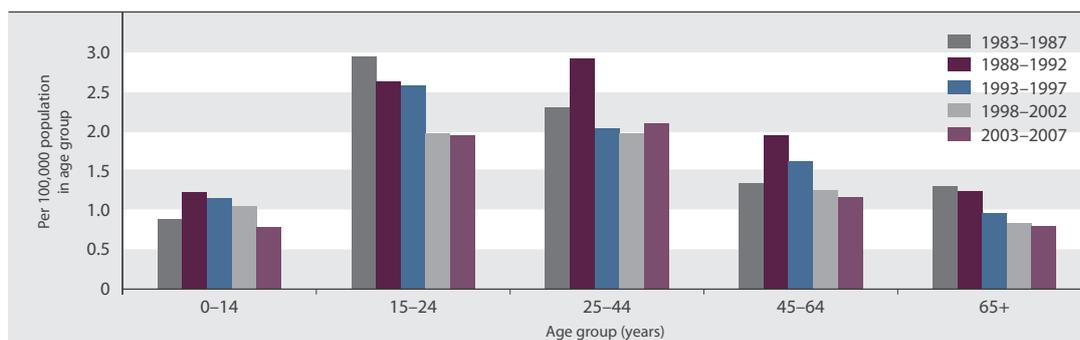
Notes: (1) The 2007 data is provisional. (2) Age-standardised to the WHO standard world population.

Age and sex differences

Five-year average annual assault death rates for the period 2003–2007 were highest among adults aged 25–44 years (2.1 deaths per 100,000), followed by youth aged 15–24 years (1.9 per 100,000) and those aged 45–64 years (1.2 per 100,000). Children under 15 years and older people aged 65 years and over had the lowest rate (each 0.8 deaths per 100,000). For children, the risk of dying from an assault is highest at younger ages. In the five years to 2007, the assault death rate for children under 5 years was 1.9 deaths per 100,000, more than six times higher than the rate for 5–14 year olds (0.3 per 100,000). In all age groups, rates were lower in the period 2003–2007 than they had been in the mid-1980s. For youth aged 15–24 years and people aged 65 years and over, assault death rates fell by more than one-third over that period.

Males are more likely than females to die from an assault. The provisional 2007 age-standardised assault death rate was 1.5 deaths per 100,000 for males, and 1.1 per 100,000 for females. The rise in the assault mortality rate in the late-1980s and early-1990s was the result of an increase in the male rate in that period.

Figure SS1.2 **Five-year average annual assault mortality rate, by age, 1983–1987 to 2003–2007**



Source: Ministry of Health
 Note: The 2007 data is provisional.

Ethnic differences

Māori are significantly more likely than non-Māori to die as the result of an assault. In 2007, the age-standardised rate for Māori was 2.8 deaths per 100,000 compared with 1.0 per 100,000 for non-Māori. The age-standardised rate for Māori males (3.4 per 100,000) was higher than the rate for Māori females (2.3 per 100,000).

In the five years from 2003 to 2007, Māori children aged under 15 years died from an assault at an average annual rate of 1.7 deaths per 100,000 children. Over the same period, non-Māori children died at an average annual rate of 0.5 per 100,000 children.

International comparison

OECD assault death rates are standardised to the 1980 OECD population and may differ from the rates shown in this indicator. The most recent data is for the years 2003–2008, for 29 OECD countries. New Zealand’s assault death rate in 2007 was 1.3 deaths per 100,000, compared to the OECD median of 0.9 per 100,000. New Zealand’s male assault death rate in 2007 was the same as the OECD median for males (1.5 deaths per 100,000 males), while our female assault death rate (1.1 deaths per 100,000 females) was considerably higher than the OECD median for females (0.6 deaths per 100,000 females). New Zealand’s male assault death rate was the same as Ireland’s, higher than Australia’s (0.8 per 100,000 males) and the United Kingdom’s (0.5 per 100,000), lower than Canada’s (2.3 deaths per 100,000) and substantially lower than the male assault death rate in the United States (9.9 per 100,000). New Zealand had a higher female assault death rate than Canada (0.9 deaths per 100,000 females), Australia (0.5 per 100,000), the United Kingdom (0.3 per 100,000) and Ireland (0.2 per 100,000), but a lower rate than the United States (2.5 deaths per 100,000).⁹⁷

International comparison information for child maltreatment deaths is not available on an annual basis. Results of a 2003 UNICEF study of child maltreatment deaths in rich countries in the 1990s showed that New Zealand had the third highest child maltreatment death rate in that period (1.2 per 100,000 children under the age of 15 years).

Criminal victimisation

Definition

The proportion of the population aged 15 years and over who had been victims of one or more incidents of criminal offending in 2005 as measured by the New Zealand Crime and Safety Survey 2006.

Relevance

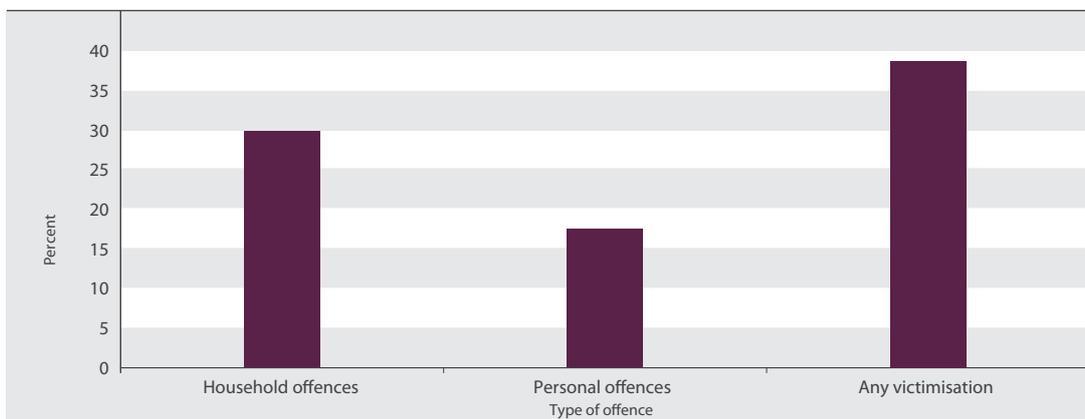
The criminal victimisation rate provides a broad measure of personal safety and wellbeing. Surveys of criminal victimisation generally provide a more comprehensive picture of victimisation than police data, as not all offending is reported to or recorded by the police.

Current level

The survey data shows 39 percent of New Zealanders aged 15 years and over experienced some form of criminal victimisation in 2005. Comparisons with data from earlier surveys are not possible owing to changes in the survey design.⁹⁸

Thirty percent of households had been victims of some kind of household crime in 2005. The most common offences were burglaries (14 percent) and vandalism to household property (9 percent). Over the same period, 18 percent of individuals had been victims of some type of personal offence, the most common being assaults and threats (both 9 percent). A relatively small number of people accounted for the majority of victimisations: just 6 percent of people had been victimised five or more times during the survey period but they experienced 51 percent of all victimisations.

Figure SS2.1 **Criminal victimisation prevalence rate, by type of victimisation, 2005**



Source: Mayhew and Reilly (2007b) Table 3.1

Age and sex differences

Young people are more likely than others to be victims of crime, and the likelihood of being victimised decreases with age. Among people in the 15–24 years age group, 55 percent were victims of either personal or household offences in 2005. This compares with 46 percent of 25–39 year olds, 37 percent of 40–59 year olds and 20 percent of those aged 60 years and over. Young people aged 15–24 years also had the highest rates of victimisation for confrontational offences: 13 percent were victims of confrontational offences committed by partners, 10 percent were victimised by people who were well known to them, and 16 percent by other offenders.

The overall rate of victimisation did not vary by sex, with 39 percent of both men and women experiencing some form of criminal victimisation in 2005. The pattern of victimisation by age was also similar for both sexes. With confrontational offences, men were as likely as women to have been victimised at least once by a partner (6 percent compared with 7 percent for women). However, women experienced more offences than men did (26 incidents per 100 women, compared with 18 incidents per 100 men).⁹⁹ Prevalence rates did not differ by sex for offences committed by people well known to the victim (5 percent for both men and women), but men were more likely than women to be victims of confrontational offences by other offenders (9 percent compared with 6 percent).

Women were around twice as likely as men to be the victims of sexual offences (4 percent compared with 2 percent), with the highest rate experienced by women aged 15–24 years (12 percent). Over a third of sexual offences were committed by the victims' current partners.

Table SS2.1 **Criminal victimisation prevalence rate (%), by age group and sex, 2005**

Age group (years)	Rate per 100 persons in each group		
	Males	Females	Total
15–24	53	56	55
25–39	44	47	46
40–59	36	37	37
60+	21	19	20
Total	39	39	39

Source: Mayhew and Reilly (2007b) Table C3

Ethnic differences

The likelihood of being a victim of crime varies by ethnicity. Among both Māori and Pacific peoples aged 15 years and over, 47 percent had experienced some form of criminal victimisation in 2005. This compared with 43 percent of Asians and 37 percent of Europeans. The high rates for Māori and Pacific peoples are likely to be due, at least in part, to these populations having a high incidence of other risk factors associated with victimisation – for instance they are more likely to be young, to be unemployed, to be sole parents and to live in more socio-economically deprived areas.

Māori had a relatively high rate of victimisation for confrontational offences: 14 percent for offences committed by partners, and 11 percent both for offences committed by people well known to them and for offences committed by other offenders. For Māori women, the risk of being assaulted or threatened by a partner was three times the average (18 percent compared with 6 percent for all respondents). Comparable figures for Pacific peoples are not reliable owing to the small size of the sample.

Other groups at risk

Other groups reporting a high level of victimisation included sole parents with children (60 percent had experienced some form of criminal victimisation in 2005), students and people living with flatmates (57 percent and 54 percent, respectively), people who were single or in de facto relationships (50 percent and 49 percent), people who rented their homes either from private landlords or public agencies (49 percent and 45 percent), those who were unemployed and/or on benefits (48 percent), and those who lived in the most deprived fifth of New Zealand areas (45 percent, compared to 35 percent of those living in the least deprived neighbourhoods). Many of these characteristics are closely inter-related.

Fear of crime

Definition

The proportion of the population aged 15 years and over who said fear of crime had a moderate or high impact on their quality of life (scoring its effect at 4 or higher on a scale from 0–10, where 0 is no effect and 10 is total effect on quality of life), as measured by the New Zealand Crime and Safety Survey 2006.

Relevance Anxiety and worries about victimisation detract from wellbeing, and may cause people to alter their behaviour to avoid being victimised. This limits people’s options and can reduce their freedom.

Current level In 2005, 40 percent of New Zealanders said that fear of crime had a moderate or high impact on their quality of life, scoring its effect at 4 or higher on a 0–10 scale. A third (33 percent) scored its effect at 4–7, while 7 percent scored it at 8–10. People who had been a victim of any crime were more likely than average to report that fear of crime affected their quality of life.

Age and sex differences Women were more likely than men to report that fear of crime had a moderate or high impact on their quality of life, with 45 percent of females and 34 percent of males scoring its effect at 4 or above on the impact scale. Thirty-seven percent of females and 28 percent of males reported a moderate impact (scoring it at 4–7), while 8 percent of females and 6 percent of males reported a high impact on their quality of life (scoring it at 8–10).

People aged 25–39 years were the most likely to report that fear of crime affected their quality of life, while people aged 60 years and over were the least likely to do so. In all age groups, women were more likely than men to say fear of crime had an impact on their quality of life.

Table SS3.1 **Proportion (%) of the population aged 15 years and over who reported that fear of crime had a moderate or high impact on their quality of life, by age group and sex, 2005**

Age group (years)	Males			Females		
	High impact (score of 8–10)	Moderate impact (score of 4–7)	Moderate or high impact (score of 4–10)	High impact (score of 8–10)	Moderate impact (score of 4–7)	Moderate or high impact (score of 4–10)
15–24	4	32	36	8	39	47
25–39	8	31	39	10	44	54
40–59	7	27	33	9	34	43
60+	4	24	29	6	31	37

Source: Mayhew and Reilly (2007a) Table B21
Note: Combined scores may not add up because of rounding.

Ethnic differences At 60 percent, Asian people were far more likely than other ethnic groups to report that fear of crime affected their quality of life, either moderately or a great deal. Europeans were the least likely to do so (36 percent), while Māori and Pacific peoples fell in the middle of the range, at 47 percent. Asians also had the largest proportion of any group rating the impact of fear of crime on their quality of life as high (18 percent). In each ethnic group, women were more likely than men to report that fear of crime affected their quality of life.

Table SS3.2

Proportion (%) of the population aged 15 years and over who reported that fear of crime had a moderate or high impact on their quality of life, by ethnic group, 2005

Ethnic group	High impact (score of 8–10)	Moderate impact (score of 4–7)	Moderate or high impact (score of 4–10)
European	5	31	36
Māori	10	37	47
Pacific peoples	13	33	47
Asian	18	43	60

Source: Mayhew and Reilly (2007a) Table B21

Note: Combined scores may not add up because of rounding.

Socio-economic differences

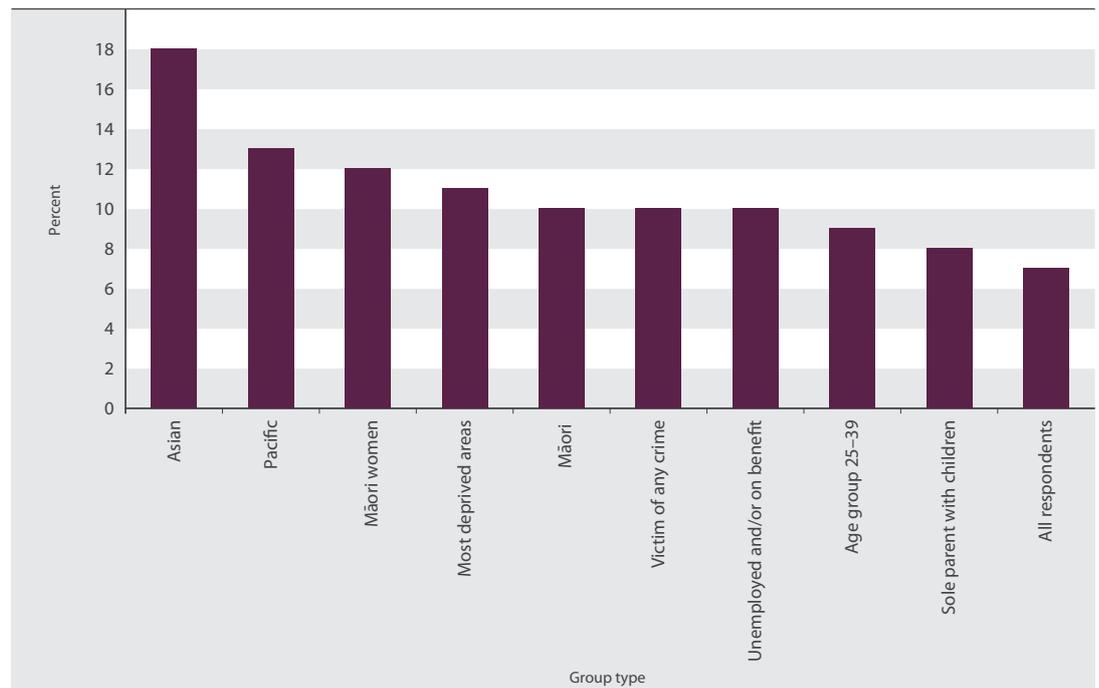
People living in the most deprived areas of New Zealand were much more likely to report that fear of crime affected their quality of life (49 percent) than those living in the least deprived areas (33 percent). People in deprived areas were more than twice as likely as those in the least deprived areas to score the effect of fear of crime on their quality of life at the high end of the scale (11 percent and 5 percent, respectively).

Differences by household composition

Among households, sole parents living with their children had the highest proportion reporting that fear of crime affected their quality of life (46 percent), followed by couples with children (44 percent). People living alone (38 percent) and couples without children (34 percent) were less likely than average to say fear of crime affected their quality of life.

Figure SS3.1

Groups whose quality of life is highly affected (score of 8–10) by fear of crime, 2005



Source: Mayhew and Reilly (2007a) Table B21

Road casualties

Definition

The number of people killed or injured in motor vehicle crashes as a proportion (per 100,000) of the total population.

Relevance

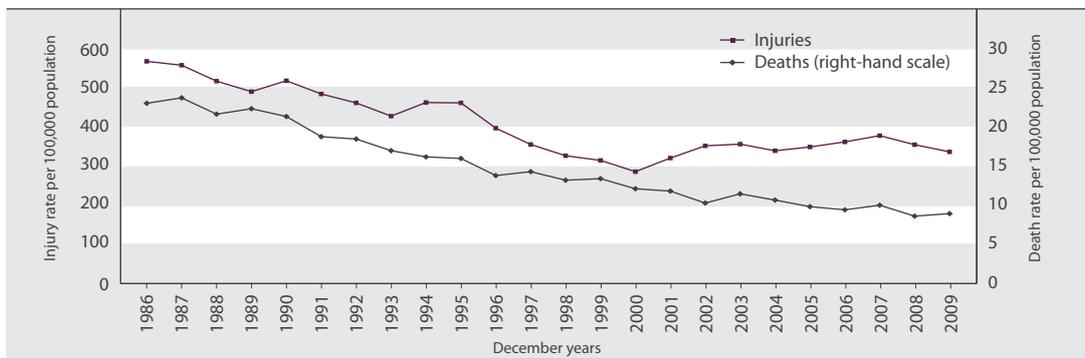
Motor vehicle crashes are a major cause of premature death, especially among younger age groups. Deaths, injuries and disability resulting from motor vehicle crashes inflict considerable pain and suffering on individuals, families and communities, as well as on other road users, emergency service providers, health workers and others.

Current level and trends

In 2009, 384 people died as a result of motor vehicle crashes, a rate of 8.9 deaths per 100,000 population. Provisional reported injury data for 2009 shows a further 14,540 people were injured, a rate of 337 injuries per 100,000 population. In 2008, the road user death rate was 8.6 per 100,000 and the road user injury rate was 356 per 100,000.¹⁰⁰ Deaths and injuries from motor vehicle crashes have declined substantially since 1986, when the rates were 23.1 and 570 per 100,000 population, respectively. The number of people killed in motor vehicle crashes was 50 percent lower in 2009 than it was in 1986. Although the number of people injured has risen since 2000 (partly because of better recording by police), there were 23 percent fewer people injured in 2009 than in 1986.

There is no conclusive evidence on the reasons for the reduction in road casualties since 1986. Better roads and better vehicles, as well as legislation, enforcement and education aimed at reducing road casualties, may all have contributed to an improvement in drivers' attitudes and behaviour.

Figure SS4.1 Road user injury and death rates, 1986–2009



Source: Ministry of Transport

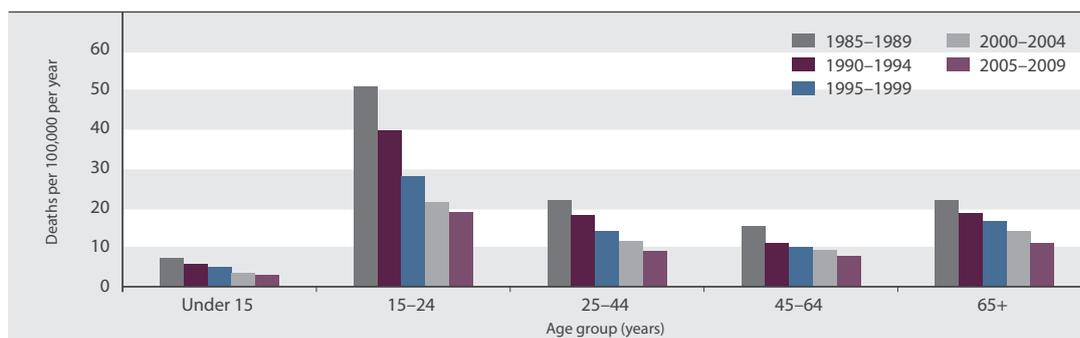
Age and sex differences

Young people aged 15–24 years are at a far higher risk of death from motor vehicle crashes than any other age group. Death rates for 15–24 year olds in the period 2005–2009 were double those of the population as a whole. The risk of dying in a crash is relatively low in middle age, then increases at older ages, partly because the very old are more fragile.

The road user death rate has fallen steadily for all age groups since the mid-1980s. The decline has been particularly marked among 15–24 year olds, who had an average annual rate of 19 deaths per 100,000 in the period 2005–2009, a big improvement on the average annual rate of 51 deaths per 100,000 in the 1985–1989 period and 28 deaths per 100,000 in the period 1995–1999.

Males are much more likely than females to be killed in motor vehicle crashes. Between 2005 and 2009, the average annual road user death rate for males was 13 deaths per 100,000 males, while the rate for females was 6 deaths per 100,000 females. For both sexes, this was less than half the average annual rate in the mid-1980s (33 deaths per 100,000 for males and 14 per 100,000 for females in 1985–1989), and around two-thirds the average annual rate in the mid-1990s (19 per 100,000 for males and 9 per 100,000 for females in 1995–1999).

Figure SS4.2 **Five-year average annual road user death rate, by age group, 1985–1989 to 2005–2009**



Source: Ministry of Transport, rates derived by the Ministry of Social Development

Ethnic differences

Māori are significantly more likely than non-Māori to die as the result of a motor vehicle accident. In 2007, the provisional age-standardised road accident death rate was 22 per 100,000 population for Māori and 9 per 100,000 for non-Māori.

Table SS4.1 **Land transport accident death rate, by ethnicity, 2000–2007**

Year	Age-standardised rate per 100,000 population		
	Māori	Non-Māori	Total
2000	22	12	13
2001	18	12	13
2002	21	11	12
2003	25	11	13
2004	21	10	12
2005	21	9	11
2006	21	8	10
2007	22	9	11

Source: Ministry of Health

Notes: (1) The injury mortality classification changed in 2000 and, as a result, data from earlier years is not comparable. (2) The 2007 data is provisional. (3) Age-standardised to the WHO standard world population.

International comparison

New Zealand was ranked 16th out of 27 OECD countries with data for the years 2005–2008, with a road user death rate of 8.6 per 100,000 people in 2008. This was higher than the OECD median of 7.8 deaths per 100,000. Iceland had the lowest road user death rate (3.8 per 100,000 in 2008), while Greece had the highest (14.4 per 100,000 in 2007). The New Zealand road user death rate was lower than those of the United States (12.3 per 100,000 in 2008) and Canada (9.2 per 100,000 in 2006), but higher than those of Ireland (7.8 per 100,000 in 2007), Australia (6.8 per 100,000 in 2008) and the United Kingdom (4.3 per 100,000 in 2008).¹⁰¹

Among the 24 OECD countries with road user death rates by age, New Zealand (with Greece and Poland) had the highest death rate for children under 15 years. At 2.6 deaths per 100,000, it was double the OECD median of 1.3. New Zealand also had the highest rate for 15–17 year olds, with 15.0 deaths per 100,000, more than double the OECD median of 7.3. For people aged 65 years and over, New Zealand’s rate of 9.3 deaths per 100,000 was just below the OECD median of 10.6.

Desired outcomes

People enjoy constructive relationships with others in their families, whānau, communities, iwi and workplaces. Families and communities support and nurture those in need of care. New Zealand is an inclusive society where people are able to access information and support.

Social connectedness

Introduction

Social connectedness refers to the relationships people have with others and the benefits these relationships can bring to the individual as well as to society.

It includes relationships with family, friends, colleagues and neighbours, as well as connections people make through paid work, sport and other leisure activities, or through voluntary work or community service.

These relationships and connections can be a source of enjoyment and support. They help people to feel they belong and have a part to play in society.¹⁰² People who feel socially connected also contribute towards building communities and society. They help to create what is sometimes called “social capital”, the networks that help society to function effectively.

Several studies have demonstrated links between social connectedness and the performance of the economy and positive outcomes for individual health and wellbeing.¹⁰³ A recent large study confirmed that people with more friends and connections are generally happier, healthier and better off, and that happiness spreads through social networks. However, the study also found that social networks can influence health behaviours both negatively and positively; for example, starting and stopping smoking.¹⁰⁴

Social connectedness is fostered when family relationships are positive, and when people have the skills and opportunities to make friends and to interact constructively with others. Good health, employment, and feeling safe and secure all increase people’s chances of developing positive social networks that help improve their lives.

Indicators

Six indicators are used to measure social connectedness in New Zealand. These are: telephone and internet access in the home, contact with family and friends, contact between young people and their parents, trust in others, loneliness, and voluntary work.

Both the telephone and the internet increase people's ability to keep in touch with family and friends, and to work or conduct their business from home. The internet in particular is becoming an increasingly important means of accessing information and applying for services, as well as a popular choice for making bookings for entertainment and travel. Through social media on the internet, people can considerably expand their social networks. However, new communications technology can also be used for antisocial purposes.

For most people, social networks centre on family and friends. The second indicator is the proportion of people aged 15 years and over who feel the amount of contact they have with friends and family who don't live with them is "about right". This new indicator uses data from the 2008 New Zealand General Social Survey. It replaces the previous indicator on regular contact with family and friends, which was based on the 2004 New Zealand Living Standards Survey.

The third indicator is also about contact with family: the proportion of young people of secondary school age who report getting enough time each week with their parents.

Trust in others, the fourth indicator, measures the extent to which people expect others to act fairly and honestly towards them. High levels of trust enhance wellbeing by facilitating co-operative behaviour among people who otherwise do not know each other.

The fifth indicator measures levels of loneliness. Feelings of isolation and loneliness undermine overall wellbeing and can be detrimental to people's physical and emotional health, resulting in stress, anxiety or depression.

The final indicator is about voluntary work done for organisations or groups. Volunteering can help to build networks of trust and mutual support that sustain people through difficult times and reinforce social cohesion.

Telephone and internet access in the home

Definition

The proportion of the population with telephone access (either landline or cellphone) and internet access in the home.

Relevance

Access to a telephone and access to communication via the internet helps to maintain social connectedness. It enables social contact with friends and family in the absence of frequent face-to-face contact. The telephone also ensures an adequate line of communication in times of need and emergency.

The internet is an important means of accessing a wide range of information and services. People who are unable to access information technologies or who are without the skills to use them run the risk of being excluded from possible social, educational, cultural and economic benefits. This may have adverse effects on their educational outcomes, employment prospects and other aspects of wellbeing.

Current level and trends

At the 2006 Census, 66 percent of people lived in households with access to the internet, a considerable increase from 43 percent in 2001.

The Household Use of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) Survey provides more recent information on access to the internet, although it is at the household level rather than at the individual level. In the December 2009 quarter, 75 percent of households had internet access in the home, an increase from 65 percent in the December 2006 quarter.

At the 2006 Census, 98 percent of people lived in households with telephones, an increase from 96 percent in 2001. The 2006 Census collected information on cellphones and landline telephones separately for the first time. It showed that 79 percent of people lived in households with cellphones available in the dwelling all or most of the time, while 92 percent lived in households with landline telephones. The Household Use of ICT Survey showed that, in the December 2009 quarter, 85 percent of the population aged 15 years and over had the personal use of a mobile phone in the previous 12 months, up from 80 percent three years earlier.

Age and sex differences

There are only minor differences by age group in the proportions of the population aged under 65 years living in households with internet access, but the rates decrease markedly at older ages. In 2006, between 68 percent and 71 percent of age groups under 65 years lived in households with internet access, compared with 50 percent of those aged 65–74 years and 26 percent of those aged 75 years and over. However, between 2001 and 2006 those aged 65 years and over experienced a greater increase in internet access than younger people. While the proportion of the population with internet access in the home increased by one and a half times for people aged under 65 years between 2001 and 2006, it more than doubled for people aged 65 years and over.

Both the 2001 and 2006 censuses showed that people aged 45 years and over were slightly more likely than younger people to have telephone access in the household. However, the difference narrowed over the five-year period.

There is little difference between the sexes in telephone or internet access in the home, although at older ages men are more likely than women to have internet access. In 2006, 45 percent of males and 35 percent of females aged 65 years and over had access to the internet at home.

Table SC1.1 **Proportion (%) of the population with telephone and internet access in the home, 2001 and 2006**

	Telephone access		Internet access	
	2001	2006	2001	2006
Age group (years)				
0–14	94.6	97.6	45.6	69.1
15–24	95.3	97.6	47.5	68.0
25–44	96.1	98.0	47.0	70.8
45–64	97.7	98.6	45.6	70.9
65–74	98.3	98.9	21.1	49.7
75 and over	98.6	99.0	10.0	25.8
Total	96.3	98.1	42.9	66.4
Sex				
Male	96.0	97.9	44.1	67.2
Female	96.5	98.3	41.8	65.5
Ethnicity				
European	98.1	98.9	45.5	70.4
Māori	88.3	94.4	25.3	46.7
Pacific peoples	87.0	95.1	20.4	37.7
Asian	97.8	98.7	61.5	77.4
Other	97.3	98.5	55.6	72.9
Family type				
One parent with dependent children	87.3	95.1	27.9	50.3
Two parents with dependent children	96.5	99.1	54.9	79.3
All families with dependent children	93.8	98.0	47.0	71.2

Source: Statistics New Zealand, *Census of Population and Dwellings, 2001 and 2006*

Ethnic differences

Access to telephones increased from 88 percent to 94 percent among Māori and from 87 percent to 95 percent among Pacific peoples between 2001 and 2006. Telephone access for the European, Asian and Other ethnic groups increased slightly over this period, reaching 99 percent in 2006. In 2006, the difference in telephone access between Māori and Pacific peoples and the total population was larger for landline telephones than for cellphones.

Between 2001 and 2006, access to the internet increased from 25 percent to 47 percent among Māori and from 20 percent to 38 percent among Pacific peoples. These levels were still well below those of Asians (77 percent), the Other ethnic group (73 percent) and Europeans (70 percent) in 2006.

Differences by family type

Among families with dependent children, 98 percent had telephone access and 71 percent had internet access in their homes in 2006. One-parent families with dependent children were less likely than two-parent families with dependent children to have access to either telephones or the internet, but they experienced greater increases in access between 2001 and 2006. In 2006, 95 percent of one-parent families and 99 percent of two-parent families had access to telephones while 50 percent of one-parent families and 79 percent of two-parent families had access to the internet.

Regional differences

The Auckland and Wellington regions had the highest proportion of households with internet access in the December 2009 quarter (both 80 percent), followed by Canterbury (78 percent). Northland (65 percent), Gisborne/Hawke's Bay and Manawatu-Wanganui (both 66 percent) had the lowest proportions of households with internet access.

International comparison

International comparisons show the proportion of households with internet access, rather than the proportion of people living in households with internet access. By this measure, New Zealand compares relatively favourably with other countries, ranking eighth out of 30 OECD countries surveyed between 2005 and 2009. With 75 percent of households having internet access in 2009, New Zealand's figure is higher than the OECD median of 66 percent. New Zealand is ranked above Australia (72 percent in 2008/2009), the United Kingdom (71 percent in 2008) and Canada (73 percent in 2007), and considerably above Ireland (63 percent in 2008) and the United States (62 percent in 2007).¹⁰⁵

Contact with family and friends

Definition

The proportion of people aged 15 years and over who said the amount of contact they have with family and friends who don't live with them is "about right", as measured by the New Zealand General Social Survey.

Contact includes face-to-face meetings as well as telephone calls, letters, emails, texting, and other forms of electronic communication.

Relevance Families and friends are key sources of social support and give people a sense of belonging. Staying in touch with family and friends who live elsewhere helps maintain social connectedness between households and across geographical boundaries.

Current level and trends In the New Zealand General Social Survey 2008, more than 80 percent of people aged 15 years and over had some sort of contact with family who don't live with them, and more than 90 percent had contact with non-resident friends, at least once in the past four weeks. Of those who had contact, one-quarter felt they had not had enough contact with their non-resident family and one-fifth reported not having enough contact with non-resident friends. A very small proportion (2 percent) felt they had too much contact with family or friends who don't live with them. This indicator refers to people who said the amount of contact they have is about right for both family and friends (ie the two groups combined).

In 2008, 60 percent of people aged 15 years and over said the amount of contact they have with family and friends who don't live with them is about right.

Age and sex differences People aged 65 years and over were the most likely (76 percent) to say the amount of contact they have with family and friends who don't live with them is about right. People in the 25–44 years age group were the least likely (54 percent) to feel the amount of contact was about right.

There were no statistically significant differences by sex, either for all people aged 15 years and over or within age groups.

Ethnic differences Māori were the least likely (52 percent) to say the amount of contact they have with family and friends who don't live with them is about right. Asians were the most likely (63 percent) to report their contact was about right. The difference between Māori and Asian peoples was the only statistically significant ethnic difference.

Table SC2.1

Proportion (%) of people aged 15 years and over whose contact with non-resident family and friends is “about right”, by population characteristics, 2008

Characteristics	Total	Males	Females
Population aged 15+	60.1	60.8	59.4
Age group			
15–24 years	57.3	58.6	56.0
25–44 years	53.7	54.5	53.0
45–64 years	60.9	62.4	59.6
65+ years	76.1	75.1	76.9
Ethnic group			
European/MELAA/Other	60.6	61.5	59.6
Māori	52.3	52.3	52.3
Pacific peoples	55.4	55.1	55.7
Asian	63.1	63.7	62.5
Labour force status			
Employed	57.3	58.9	55.4
Unemployed	51.0	46.6	54.7
Not in the labour force	67.9	68.7	67.3
Personal income (annual)			
\$30,000 and under	62.3	63.2	61.8
\$30,001–\$70,000	57.7	59.4	55.7
\$70,001 and over	57.5	58.7	54.2
Family type			
Couple without children	66.8		
Couple with dependent children	55.6		
One parent with dependent children	54.6		
Not in a family nucleus	61.8		
Region			
Auckland	64.6		
Wellington	55.9		
Northland/Bay of Plenty/Gisborne	54.0		
Rest of North Island	59.7		
Canterbury	58.2		
Rest of South Island	59.7		

Source: Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand General Social Survey

Notes: (1) MELAA stands for Middle Eastern, Latin American, African. (2) Other includes the category “New Zealander”.

Socio-economic and family type differences

Around half (51 percent) of unemployed people felt their amount of contact with non-resident family and friends was about right, compared to around two-thirds (68 percent) of those not in the labour force. Just over half (55 percent) of people living in one-parent families felt their contact was about right, compared to 67 percent of couples without children. There were no statistically significant differences by personal income; average proportions of people in each income band felt their amount of contact with family and friends who don’t live with them was about right.

Regional differences

The Auckland region had the highest proportion of people (65 percent) who felt their amount of contact with family and friends who don’t live with them was about right. The Wellington region (56 percent) and the combined Northland/Bay of Plenty/Gisborne region (54 percent) had lower than average proportions of people who felt this way.

Contact between young people and their parents

Definition

The proportion of secondary school students aged 12–18 years who said they get enough time with Mum and/or Dad (or someone who acts as Mum and/or Dad), most of the time, as reported in the Youth2000 and Youth'07 surveys.

Relevance

Healthy relationships are built through both the quantity and quality of time spent together. Having a close and caring relationship with a parent is one of the most important predictors of good health and wellbeing for young people.¹⁰⁶

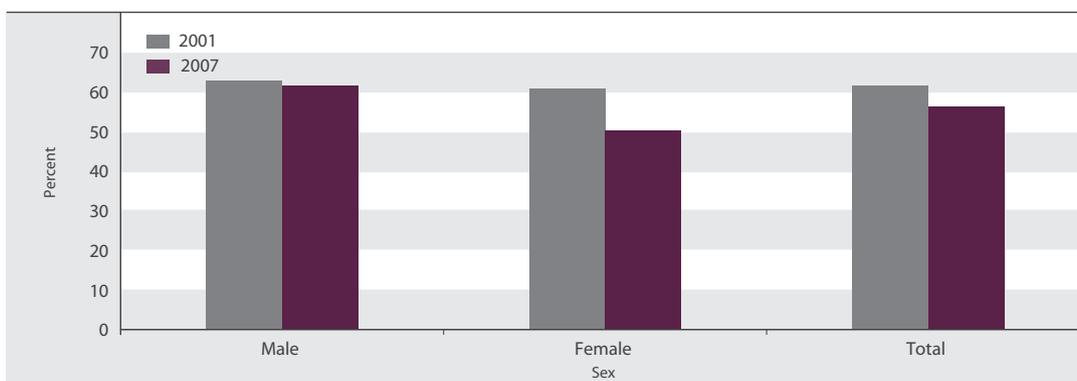
Current level and trends

In 2007, 57 percent of secondary school students reported that they get enough time with at least one parent most of the time. This was a smaller proportion than in 2001 (62 percent).¹⁰⁷

About half of the students (46 percent) felt they get enough time with their mothers most of the time, while fewer students (39 percent) felt they get enough time with their fathers.

Of those students who did not get enough time with their parents, the most common reason reported was that the parent was at work. Seventy-two percent of students who lacked time with their fathers gave this reason, as did 62 percent of students who lacked time with their mothers. Other common reasons were that the parent was busy with housework, other children or family members (particularly mothers), and that the parent was out or not living with them (particularly fathers).

Figure SC3.1 **Proportion of secondary school students who said they get enough time with their parent(s) most of the time, by sex, 2001 and 2007**



Sources: Adolescent Health Research Group (2003, 2008b)

Age differences

Younger students were more likely than older students to report that most of the time they get enough time with their Mum and most of the time they get enough time with their Dad. These differences remain after adjusting for sex, ethnicity and socio-economic differences. Across all age groups, students were more likely to report that they get enough time with their Mum than with their Dad.

Table SC3.1 **Proportion (%) of secondary school students who get enough time with their mother or father most of the time, by age, 2007 (with 95% confidence intervals below)**

Parent	Age of student					Total 12–18 years
	12–13 years	14 years	15 years	16 years	17–18 years	
Mother	48.7 46.3–51.0	47.3 44.8–49.8	47.1 44.7–49.4	42.7 39.8–45.6	44.4 42.0–46.8	46.2 44.8–47.6
Father	43.5 41.4–45.5	40.7 38.2–43.2	38.4 36.0–40.9	35.6 32.9–38.3	36.0 32.9–39.0	39.0 37.6–40.4

Source: Adolescent Health Research Group (2008b) pp 43, 45

Note: If the respective confidence intervals (in smaller font) do not overlap, the difference between rates is likely to be statistically significant.

Sex differences

In 2007, more male students (62 percent) than female students (50 percent) reported that most of the time they get enough time with at least one parent. This difference remains after adjusting for age, ethnicity and socio-economic differences. In 2001, there was no significant difference by sex.

The proportion of female students reporting they get enough time with their parents fell between 2001 and 2007 (from 61 percent to 50 percent), but there was very little change for male students over this period.

Both males and females were more likely to say they get enough time with their Mum than with their Dad.

Ethnic differences

Sixty-one percent of New Zealand European students reported that most of the time they get enough time with Mum and/or Dad. Fewer Māori students (51 percent), Pacific students (49 percent) and Asian students (51 percent) reported that most of the time they get enough time with Mum and/or Dad. These differences remain after adjusting for age, sex and socio-economic differences.

Trust in others

Definition

The proportion of the population aged 15 years and over reporting that people can “almost always” or “usually” be trusted, in the Quality of Life Survey.

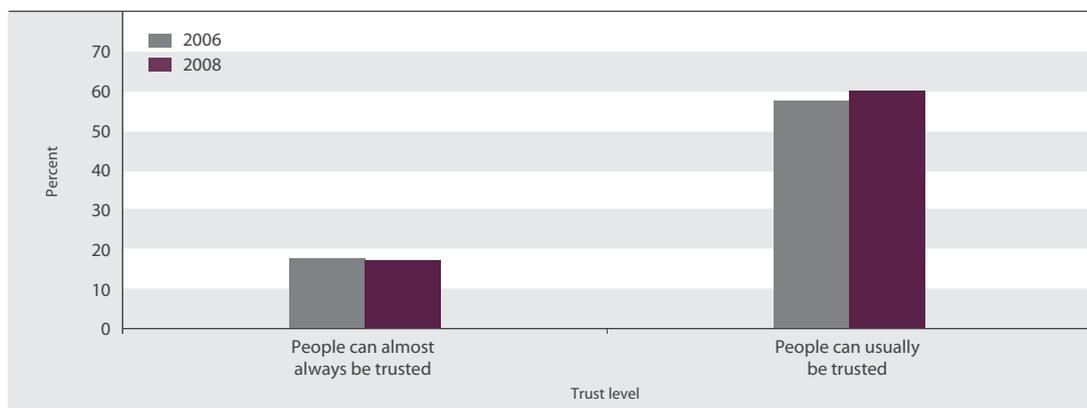
Relevance

Trust in others is an important indicator of how people feel about members of their community. High levels of trust facilitate co-operative behaviour among people and contribute to people’s ability to develop positive relationships with others.

Current level and trends

In 2008, 78 percent of New Zealanders aged 15 years and over said that people can be trusted, a similar proportion to that recorded in 2006 (76 percent). The largest group (60 percent), said that people can usually be trusted, while 17 percent said that people can almost always be trusted. The corresponding figures for 2006 were 58 percent and 18 percent, respectively.

Figure SC4.1 **Proportion of people reporting that people can be trusted, by level of trust, 2006 and 2008**



Sources: Quality of Life Survey 2006; Quality of Life Survey 2008

Age and sex differences

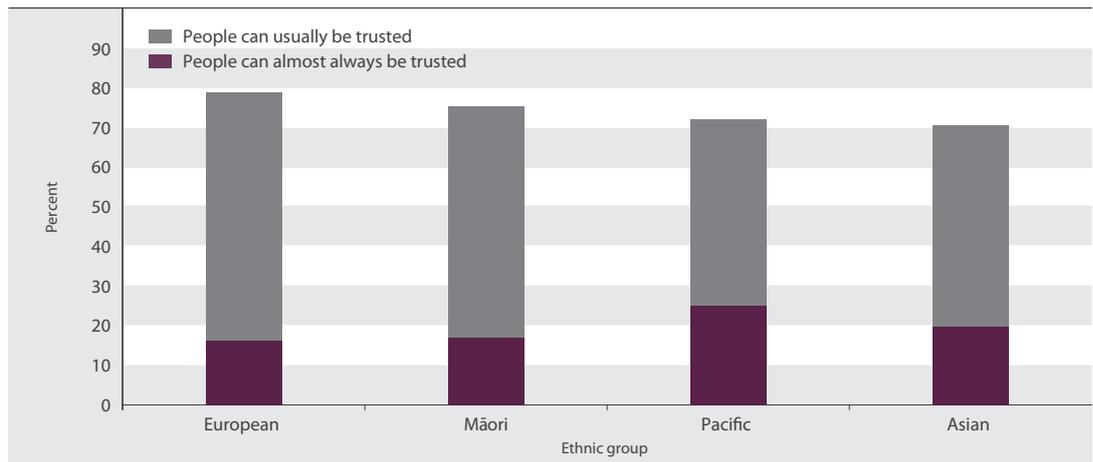
The proportion of New Zealanders aged 15 years and over reporting that people can be trusted was similar for males (78 percent) and females (77 percent). Eighteen percent of males and 17 percent of females agreed that people can almost always be trusted, while 60 percent of both males and females said that people can usually be trusted.

Young adults aged 15–24 years (74 percent) were slightly less likely than people aged 25 years and over (78 percent) to report that people can be trusted.

Ethnic differences

People of European ethnicity reported a slightly higher level of trust in people (79 percent) than Māori (75 percent). Pacific peoples (72 percent) and those of Asian ethnicity (71 percent) had the lowest proportions who said that people could be trusted.

Figure SC4.2 **Proportion of people reporting that people can be trusted, by ethnic group and level of trust, 2008**

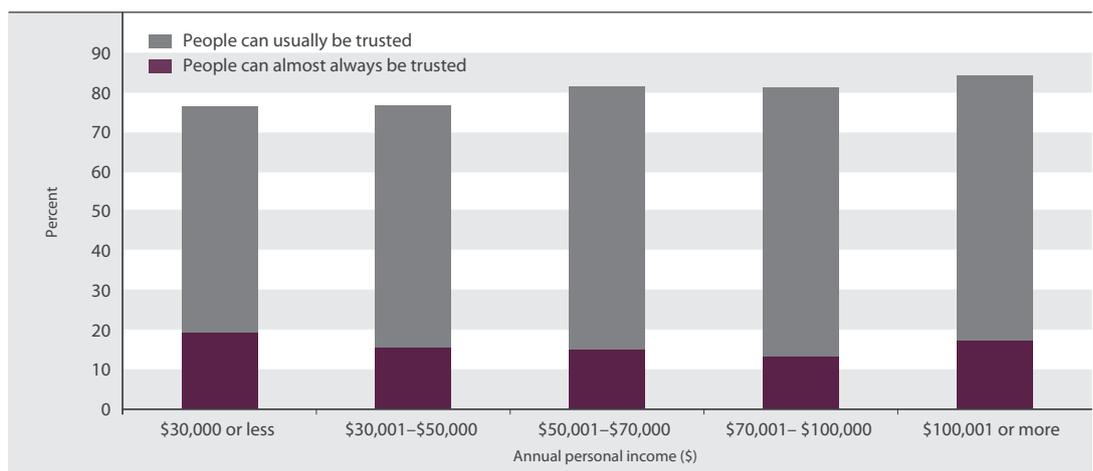


Source: Quality of Life Survey 2008

Socio-economic differences

Across all income levels, a large majority of New Zealanders indicated that people can be trusted. Overall levels of reported trust increased with personal income levels. People with incomes over \$100,000 reported the highest overall level of trust (84 percent), while people with incomes of \$30,000 or less reported the lowest level (76 percent).

Figure SC4.3 **Proportion of people reporting that people can be trusted, by personal income and level of trust, 2008**



Source: Quality of Life Survey 2008

Regional differences

Across all New Zealand’s big cities, a large majority of New Zealanders indicated that people can be trusted. Reported levels of trust were highest in Wellington (87 percent) and lowest in Manukau (68 percent).

International comparison

New Zealanders’ level of trust in other people in 2006 compared well with those of people in European Union countries in 2005, and to that of people in Canada in 2003. Out of 25 OECD countries for which there was data, New Zealand had the sixth highest reported level of trust in other people.¹⁰⁸

New Zealand’s reported level of trust in other people (76 percent in 2006) was above the median of 56 percent for these 25 OECD countries. Norway had the highest reported level of trust in people (87 percent) followed by Denmark and Sweden (both 84 percent). Canada (53 percent) and the United Kingdom (55 percent) reported lower levels of trust in other people than New Zealand.

Loneliness

Definition

The proportion of people aged 15 years and over who reported feeling isolated or lonely “sometimes”, “most of the time” or “always” during the previous 12 months, in the Quality of Life Survey.

Relevance

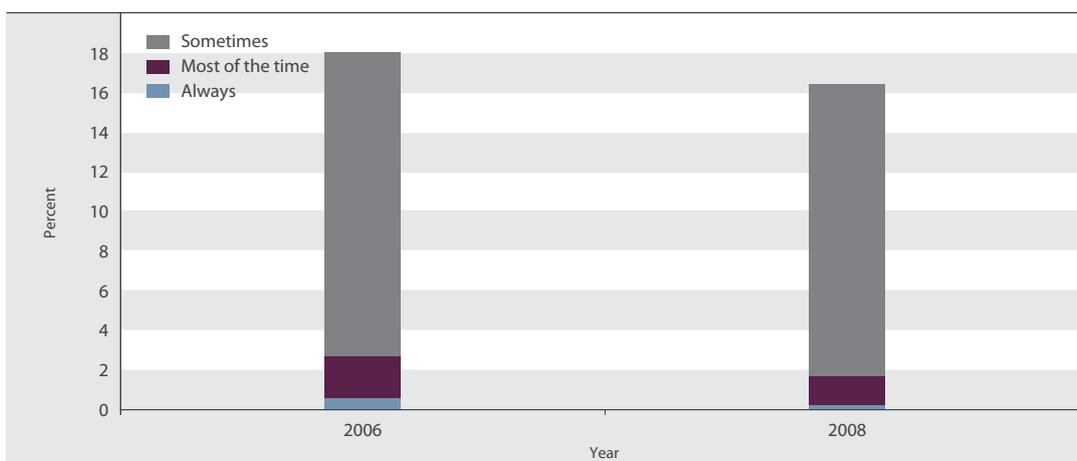
Social contact is fundamentally important to people: humans are social creatures. Self-assessed loneliness is a proxy indicator of whether people are happy with the amount and quality of social contact they have. As well as being an undesirable state in itself, loneliness may also contribute to poor outcomes in other areas, including adverse health problems such as stress, anxiety or depression.

Current level and trends

In 2008, 16 percent of New Zealanders reported feeling lonely during the last 12 months. Fifteen percent said they felt lonely sometimes, while fewer than 2 percent said they were lonely most of the time or that they always felt lonely. In 2006, 18 percent of New Zealanders reported feeling lonely, similar to the level in 2008.

Feelings of isolation or loneliness are strongly associated with self-rated health and overall life satisfaction. Those who rated their health as “excellent” or “very good” were far less likely to have felt lonely in the past 12 months (10 percent and 14 percent, respectively), than those who rated their health as “poor” (43 percent) or who were dissatisfied with their life (61 percent).

Figure SC5.1 **Proportion of people experiencing loneliness, 2006 and 2008**



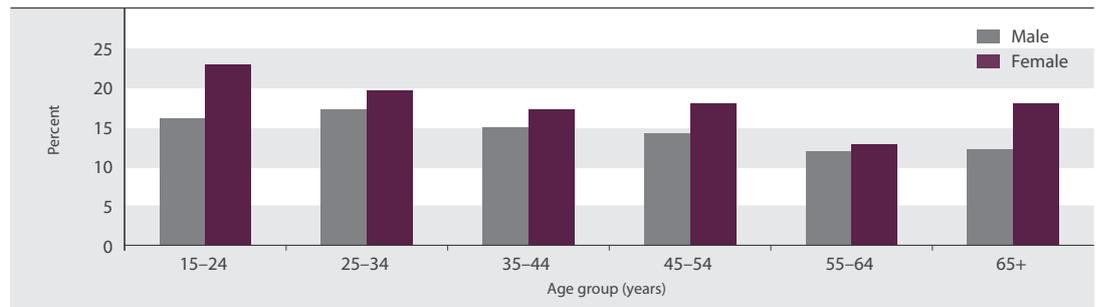
Sources: Quality of Life Survey 2006; Quality of Life Survey 2008

Age and sex differences

In 2008, females (18 percent) were more likely than males (14 percent) to have reported feeling lonely sometimes, most of the time, or always, during the last 12 months. This was the case across all age groups, particularly among people aged 15–24 years and those aged 65 years and over.

Loneliness is most prevalent among females aged 15–24 years (23 percent), followed by females aged 25–34 years (20 percent). Levels of loneliness were lowest among males aged 55–64 years, males aged 65 years and over (both 12 percent) and females aged 55–64 years (13 percent).

Figure SC5.2 **Proportion of people experiencing loneliness, by age and sex, 2008**



Source: Quality of Life Survey 2008

Ethnic differences

Europeans reported the lowest rate of loneliness with 15 percent reporting they had felt isolated or lonely in the last 12 months. In comparison, 18 percent of Māori, 23 percent of Pacific peoples and 24 percent of Asian peoples reported having felt isolated or lonely in the past year.

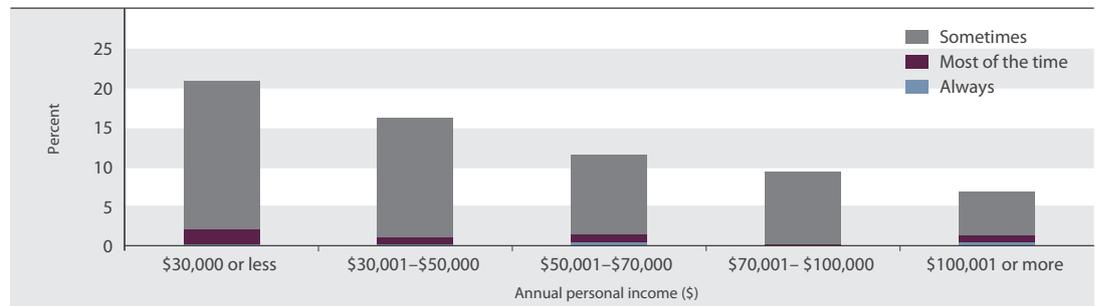
Household type differences

People who live in one-person households and one-parent-with-children (aged under 18 years) households reported higher levels of loneliness (both 30 percent) than other household types. People in couple-only households had the lowest level of loneliness among household types (9 percent).

Socio-economic differences

Reported loneliness declines as personal income rises. People with personal incomes of \$30,000 or less reported higher rates of loneliness than those with higher incomes. Twenty-one percent of people with incomes of \$30,000 or less reported having felt isolated or lonely in the past 12 months, compared with 9 percent of those with personal incomes between \$70,000 and \$100,000, and 7 percent of those with personal incomes over \$100,000.

Figure SC5.3 **Proportion of people experiencing loneliness, by personal income, 2008**



Source: Quality of Life Survey 2008

Regional differences

People living in Rodney had the lowest reported level of loneliness (12 percent). The cities of Manukau, Hamilton, Tauranga, Auckland and Waitakere had the highest levels of loneliness, with between 19 percent and 20 percent of people reporting they felt lonely sometimes, most of the time or always.

Voluntary work

Definition

The proportion of the population aged 15 years and over who reported having done voluntary work for a group or organisation in the last four weeks, in the New Zealand General Social Survey 2008.

Relevance

Voluntary work underpins a wide range of groups and organisations whose activities contribute to social wellbeing. In the fields of health, education, sports and recreation, social services, arts and culture, human rights, emergency services, the environment and conservation, animal welfare and community support and development, volunteers provide their time and skills to help others and to make a contribution. People also volunteer to meet others, to develop their skills and broaden their experience, to make contacts that may lead to employment, and to fulfil parental, social, cultural and religious obligations.

Current level

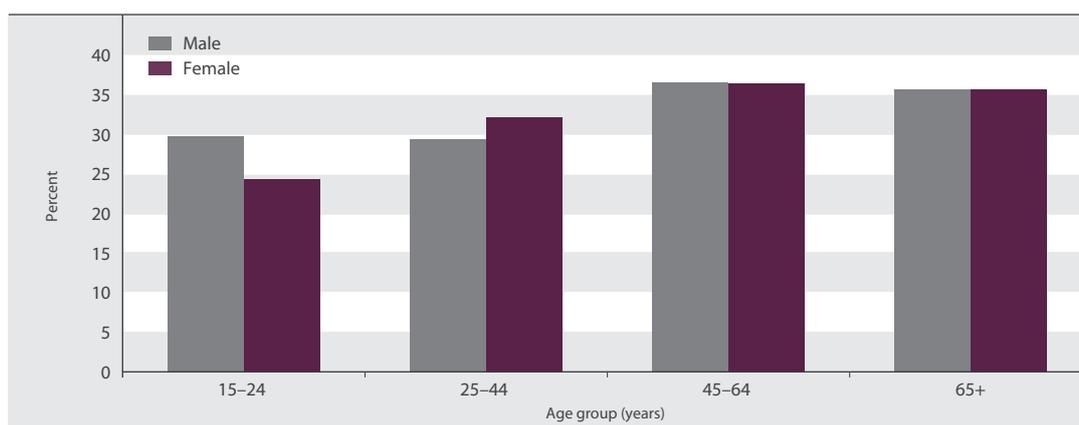
In 2008, one in three New Zealanders aged 15 years and over (33 percent) had done voluntary work for a group or organisation in the last four weeks.

Age and sex differences

Males and females were equally likely to report having done voluntary work for a group or organisation in the last four weeks.

Voluntary work was slightly more prevalent among older people, particularly for females. In 2008, females in age groups 45–64 years and 65 years and over (both 36 percent) were significantly more likely than females aged 15–24 years (24 percent) to have done voluntary work in the last four weeks. The rate for females aged 25–44 years was 32 percent. For males, the difference between younger and older age groups was less marked. Thirty percent of 15–24 year olds reported doing voluntary work in the last four weeks, as did 29 percent of 25–44 year olds, 37 percent of 45–64 year olds and 36 percent of people aged 65 years and over.

Figure SC6.1 **Proportion of people aged 15 years and over who had done voluntary work in the last four weeks, by age group and sex, 2008**



Source: Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand General Social Survey

Ethnic differences

Pacific peoples (42 percent) were significantly more likely than Asian people (28 percent) and people in the mainly European group (32 percent) to report doing voluntary work in the past four weeks. The rate for Māori was 34 percent. The difference between the rates for Māori and Pacific peoples was not statistically significant.

Socio-economic and family type differences

People with personal incomes of \$70,000 or more (39 percent) were significantly more likely to report having done voluntary work than those with incomes of \$30,000 or less (32 percent). There was little difference in volunteering by labour force status or family type.

Volunteering increased with educational level. Twenty-six percent of those with no qualifications did voluntary work in the last four weeks compared to 30 percent of those with a Level 1–4 certificate, 38 percent of people with a Level 5–6 diploma and 42 percent of those with a bachelor's degree or higher qualification.

Regional differences

Across regions, the proportions of people who had done voluntary work ranged from 31 percent in Auckland and Canterbury to 39 percent in the rest of the South Island (outside Canterbury).

International comparison

A 2006 survey of voluntary work in Australia found that 34 percent of the population aged 18 years and over had participated in voluntary work through an organisation or group in the last 12 months. While New Zealand had a similar proportion of adults aged 15 years and over volunteering in 2008 (33 percent), the period of recall was shorter (four weeks), so the two surveys are not directly comparable.¹⁰⁹

Life satisfaction

Introduction

There is an emerging international consensus on the need to go beyond gross domestic product (GDP) per capita as a proxy measure of the wellbeing and progress of societies.¹¹⁰ The OECD is developing indicators of social and environmental outcomes that can be used to complement the GDP per capita measure. These include indicators of “subjective wellbeing” – an umbrella term for measures that tap people’s own opinions and feelings about their lives.

Measures of subjective wellbeing have long been used in psychology where a number of different scales have been developed.¹¹¹ Political scientists and sociologists have used these scales in global surveys to show variations in life satisfaction or happiness between countries.¹¹² In the last decade, economists have become interested in the potential of measures of subjective wellbeing to provide insights into the determinants of wellbeing or “utility”.¹¹³ Subjective wellbeing measures challenge the conventional economics approach of using income as a proxy for wellbeing because of the choices and opportunities it provides. Another widely accepted economics approach that has received global attention recently looks at people’s capacity to meet their needs, using both objective and subjective measures.¹¹⁴

A great deal of research has been done to find out what determines life satisfaction or happiness – how it relates to demographic factors such as age and sex, or other aspects of people’s lives such as health, education, work status and income. The research has established that subjective wellbeing measures themselves are sufficiently reliable and valid for wider use, despite some shortcomings.¹¹⁵ Self-reported life satisfaction measures can provide insights into what matters to people. However, because of the human tendency to adapt to circumstances, these measures are not a reliable reflection of people’s actual conditions of life.¹¹⁶ To be meaningful for policy, measures of subjective wellbeing must go together with measures of objective conditions.

The social report has a number of subjective indicators, including satisfaction with work-life balance, satisfaction with leisure time, perceived discrimination, fear of crime, contact with family and friends, trust in others and loneliness. These measures complement the objective indicators in the report, such as life expectancy, obesity, adult literacy skills in English, market income per person, telephone and internet access in the home and assault mortality.

In this year’s report, we include a new indicator of overall life satisfaction, using data from the 2008 New Zealand General Social Survey (NZGSS). It is a measure of people’s perceived satisfaction with their lives overall. We make no claim that it sums outcomes across other domains. However, studies of subjective wellbeing have consistently found that the determinants of life satisfaction include good health, stable employment, income security and positive family and social relationships. These findings give credibility to the social report’s domain framework.

The initial picture from this new indicator is consistent with findings elsewhere: reported life satisfaction is very high overall, is slightly lower among people in late middle age, and is much lower among unemployed people and those in sole parent families. A common finding from longitudinal studies is that losses (of jobs, income, health or partners) tend to have a greater impact on life satisfaction than gains and, although people tend to bounce back from adversity, some losses have long-lasting effects.

Overall life satisfaction

Definition

The proportion of the population aged 15 years and over who reported that they were “very satisfied” or “satisfied” with their life overall, in the New Zealand General Social Survey.

Relevance

Overall life satisfaction is an indicator of subjective wellbeing. A number of circumstances may influence overall life satisfaction, such as health, education, employment, income, personality, family and social connections, civil and human rights, levels of trust and altruism, and opportunities for democratic participation.¹¹⁷

Current level

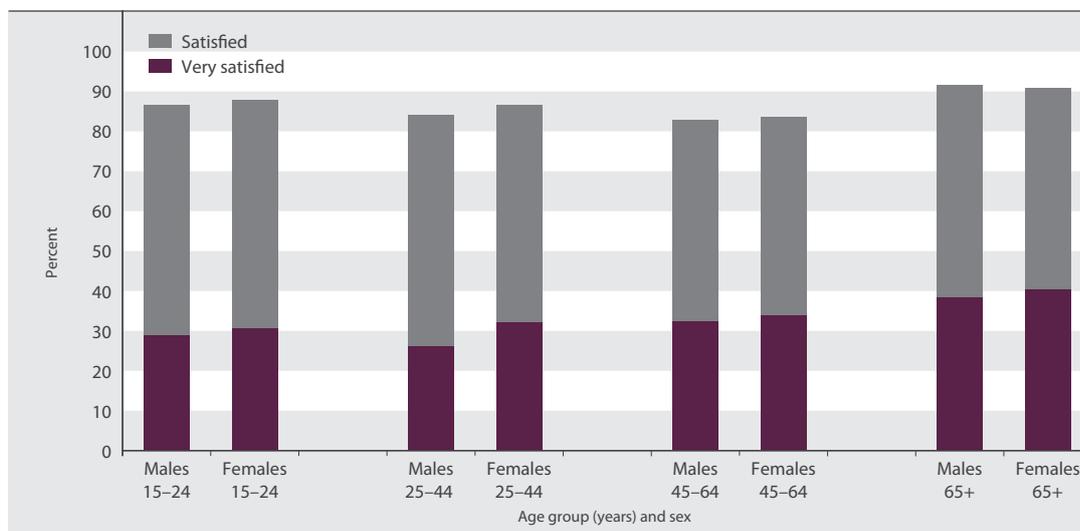
In 2008, 86 percent of New Zealanders aged 15 years and over said they were satisfied with their life overall. Almost one-third (32 percent) were very satisfied, and just over half (54 percent) were satisfied.

Age and sex differences

While the proportion of people very satisfied or satisfied with life overall was high across all age groups, people aged 65 years and over (91 percent) were more likely to be very satisfied or satisfied than people aged 45–64 years (83 percent).

Males (85 percent) and females (86 percent) reported very similar rates of overall life satisfaction. Among people aged 25–44 years, females were more likely than males to be very satisfied with their life overall (32 percent and 26 percent, respectively).

Figure LS1.1 **Proportion of people satisfied with their life overall, by age group and sex, 2008**



Source: Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand General Social Survey

Ethnic differences

While at least four in every five people in each major ethnic group were very satisfied or satisfied with life overall, Asian people, Pacific people and Māori were significantly less likely to be very satisfied than other (mainly European) people.

Table LS1.1 **Proportion (%) of people satisfied with their life overall, by ethnic group, 2008**

	European/MELAA/ Other	Māori	Pacific peoples	Asian	Total
Very satisfied	34.4	28.3	25.2	22.2	32.2
Satisfied	52.5	53.2	55.0	61.9	53.6
Total satisfied	86.9	81.5	80.3	84.1	85.8

Source: Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand General Social Survey

Notes: (1) MELAA stands for Middle Eastern, Latin American and African. (2) Other includes the category "New Zealander".

Family type differences

Across family types, people living in one-parent families were the least likely (74 percent) to be very satisfied or satisfied with life overall, followed by those not living in a family (81 percent). People not living in a family includes people living alone or with flatmates. The rates for couples with at least one dependent child (87 percent) and couples without children (90 percent) were significantly higher than those for both other family types.

Socio-economic differences

There were significant differences in overall life satisfaction between the unemployed (67 percent) and the employed (87 percent), and between people living in rented housing (79 percent) and those living in owned housing (88 percent). People with no qualifications (81 percent) had significantly lower levels of overall life satisfaction than those with a qualification: Levels 1–4 certificate, 86 percent; Levels 5–6 diploma, 87 percent; bachelor's degree or a higher qualification, 90 percent.

People with personal incomes of \$70,000 or more reported the highest levels of satisfaction with life overall (93 percent). This was significantly higher than the levels for people in the lower personal income bands of \$30,000 or less (84 percent) and \$30,001–\$70,000 (86 percent).

Regional differences

Across the regions, people reported very similar levels of overall life satisfaction, ranging from 83 percent in Northland to 87 percent in Wellington and Canterbury.

International comparison

Information on life satisfaction in OECD countries is available from the 2006 Gallup World Poll. The measure is a country's average score on an 11-point scale from 0–10 (with 0 being the lowest and 10 being the highest levels of satisfaction), derived from individual respondents' scores. Denmark topped the list with a score of 8.0. In the Gallup World Poll, New Zealand ranked sixth equal (with Australia and Canada) with a score of 7.4. This was above the median of 6.9 for 30 OECD countries. New Zealand's score was slightly above the average scores of the United States (7.3) and the United Kingdom (7.0), and well above that of Ireland (6.0). High life satisfaction is associated with higher national income and lower inequality. In high income countries (including Australia, Canada, the United States, the United Kingdom and New Zealand), life satisfaction is higher at older ages.¹¹⁸

Summary

In this section, we look at changes in social wellbeing for New Zealanders from the mid-1990s (1995–1997)¹¹⁸ to the latest available year (generally 2007–2009). We compare New Zealand's outcomes with those of other OECD countries. We also show how different population groups have fared: Māori, Pacific peoples, Asian and Other ethnicities, and we describe differences in social outcomes by sex and socio-economic group.

Twenty-five of the 43 indicators in *The Social Report 2010* have trend data from at least as far back as the mid-1990s: these indicators are shown in Figure SU1. For most of the other indicators with trend data, the series begins in the early-2000s. Indicators with new information are identified in bold type.

Changes in social wellbeing over time

Social wellbeing in New Zealand has improved since the mid-1990s

Overall, New Zealanders generally have good outcomes on the measures of social wellbeing in this report. Most of the indicators show positive trends since the mid-1990s. A small number show improvements since the mid-1990s, but little change or slight declines in the most recent years. Three indicators – obesity, housing affordability and voter turnout – show a deterioration since the mid-1990s.

Better health outcomes compared with the mid-1990s

Four of the six indicators in the Health domain show positive trends since the mid-1990s. Both health expectancy and **life expectancy** have increased, and **cigarette smoking** has declined. Fewer young people are taking up smoking: daily smoking rates for 14–15 year olds fell by almost two-thirds over the decade to 2009. The **suicide** death rate has also improved since the mid-1990s, and was lower in 2007 than it was in the mid-1980s. On the other hand, the prevalence of obesity among adults increased between 1996/1997 and 2006/2007 and there was no significant change in the prevalence of hazardous drinking among people aged 16–64 years over that time.

Progress in education participation and achievement

Trends in education participation and achievement are largely positive. **Participation in early childhood education** at ages 3 and 4 years has increased, although growth has slowed in recent years. Since the introduction of the National Certificate of Educational Achievement (NCEA) in 2002, the proportion of secondary **school leavers with higher qualifications** at NCEA Level 2 or above has increased in each year to 2008 (the latest year for which data is available). **Participation in tertiary education** was higher in 2009 than it was in the mid-1990s but it has declined since 2005, largely because of falling enrolments in certificate-level courses and among people aged 25 years and over. The **educational attainment of the adult population** has improved substantially, with the proportion of adults with a bachelor's degree or higher qualification more than doubling since the mid-1990s. Adult literacy in English (prose and document literacy skills at Level 3 or above) improved over the decade to 2006, for people aged 25–65 years.

Improved Paid Work outcomes but impact of recession showing

While all the indicators in the Paid Work domain with long-term trend data show improvement from the mid-1990s, two reflect the lagged impact of the economic recession in New Zealand between March 2008 and March 2009. The **unemployment** rate increased in the December years 2008 and 2009, although it remained lower than it was in the recession of the late 1990s. However, the youth (15–24 years) unemployment rate was higher in 2009 than it was in 1998. The **employment** rate fell slightly in both 2008 and 2009, after reaching historically high levels in 2006 and 2007. Despite the recent fall, the employment rate was considerably higher in 2009 than it was in the mid-1990s. The real **median hourly earnings** of wage and salary earners increased by 4 percent between 2008 and 2009, an improvement from no change in the previous year. Over the 12 years from 1997 to 2009, real median hourly earnings increased by 21 percent. The rate of **work-related injury claims** fell over the decade. The proportion of employed New Zealanders reporting satisfaction with their work-life balance was similar in 2006 and 2008.

Mixed outcomes in the Economic Standard of Living domain

Of the four updated indicators in the Economic Standard of Living domain, one deteriorated in the latest year, two showed little change, and one improved. **Market income per person** (the total income available to New Zealanders, averaged over the population) fell slightly in the year to December 2009, although it remained considerably higher than it was in the mid-1990s. The **income inequality** ratio changed little between 2007 and 2009 and was similar to the ratio in the mid-1990s.

The proportion of the **population with low incomes** (those in households with incomes below the low-income threshold) has improved almost continuously since the mid-1990s. For the population as a whole, the rate fell from 18 percent in 2007 to 15 percent in 2009. However, the rate for children (22 percent) did not change between 2007 and 2009 and remained higher than the rates for all other age groups. Children and adults living in sole-parent families are still significantly more likely than those living in two-parent families to be living in households with incomes below the low-income threshold (43 percent and 13 percent, respectively, in 2009). Since the mid-1990s, people aged 65 and over have had the lowest proportion in households with incomes below the low-income threshold (9 percent in 2009).

Housing affordability, measured by the proportion of households spending more than 30 percent of their disposable income on housing, changed little between 2007 and 2009 for households overall, having deteriorated since the mid-1990s. For households in the lowest 20 percent of the income distribution, housing affordability improved markedly from around half of these households in 1994 to around a third in 2004, remaining close to that level in 2007 and 2009. A relatively high proportion of children under 18 years live in households with housing costs exceeding 30 percent of their disposable income and the proportion increased between 2007 and 2009 (from 32 percent to 37 percent). Household crowding, which is based on data from the five-yearly population census, improved between 1996 and 2006.

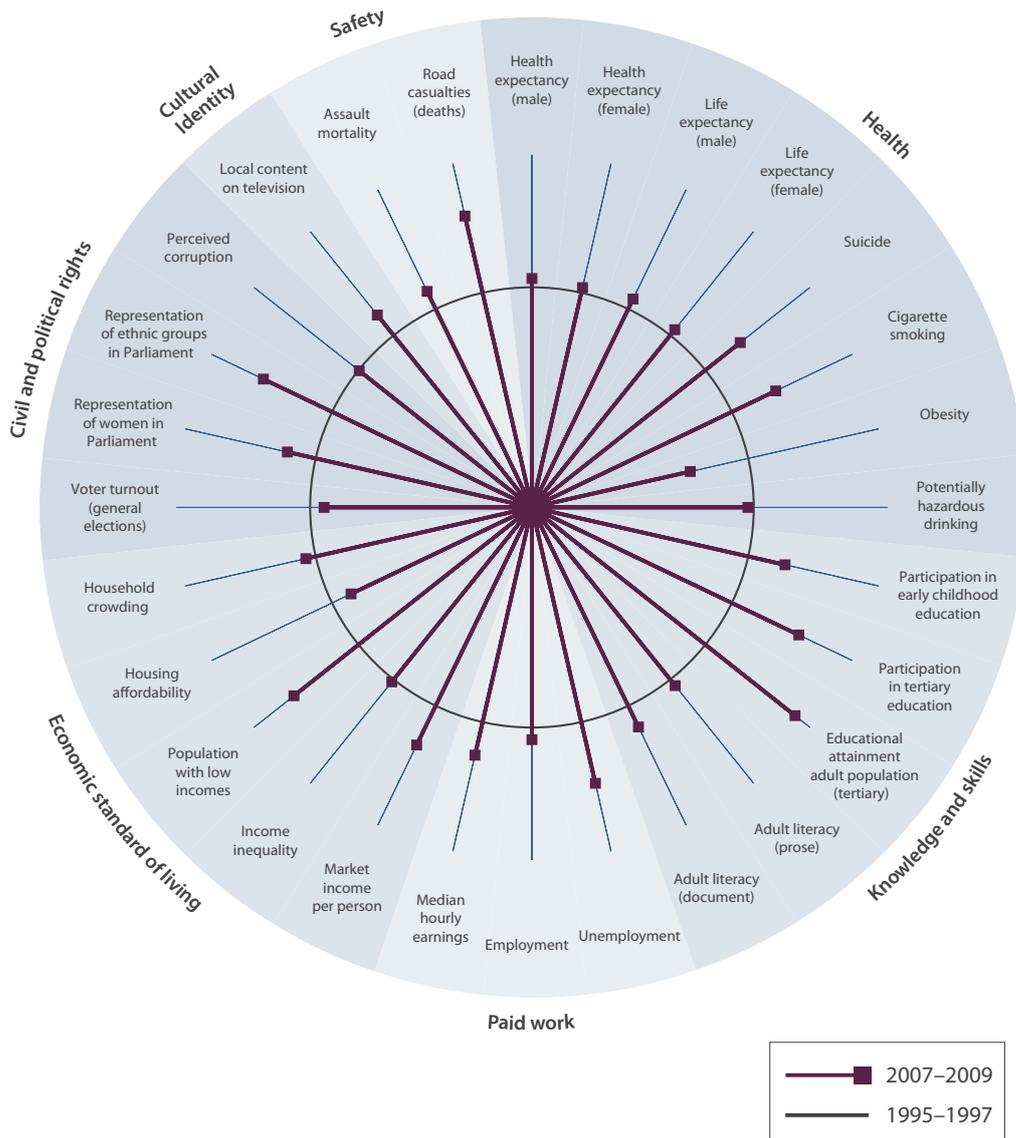
Some improvement in Civil and Political Rights outcomes

In the Civil and Political Rights domain, outcomes have generally improved or remained stable. While voter turnout in general elections has declined since the mid-1990s, there was little difference in turnout between the 2005 and 2008 elections. In the 2008 New Zealand General Social Survey (NZGSS), reported **voter turnout** in the last general election was significantly lower for the unemployed and people on low incomes than for employed people or those on higher incomes. People aged 45 and over had higher reported voter turnout than younger age groups. The outcome of the 2008 election saw further increases in the proportion of women and ethnic groups represented in Parliament.

New Zealand's score for **perceived corruption** remains highly favourable, with little change since the mid-1990s. The picture is different for the **perceived discrimination** indicator. Between 2008 and 2009, there was an increase in the proportion of people reporting that Asians, people on welfare, people with disabilities, Māori, older people, women, and children and young people were subject to discrimination. In the 2008 NZGSS, one in 10 people aged 15 years and over said they had been discriminated against in the past year, most commonly because of their nationality, race or ethnic group, or their skin colour.

Cultural Identity outcomes are mixed	<p>The proportion of local content programming on New Zealand television broadcast during prime-time hours was higher in 2009 than it was in the mid-1990s, but has fallen since 2006.</p> <p>The proportion of Māori who can speak Māori declined slightly between 2001 and 2006 although the total number of Māori who can do so increased over this period. Between 2001 and 2006, most ethnic groups experienced little change in the proportion of people who could speak the first language of their ethnic group.</p>
No change in the Leisure and Recreation domain	<p>The proportion of New Zealanders aged 15 years and over who met the guidelines for being physically active was similar in 2002/2003 and 2006/2007, at around one half. The new indicator on participation in arts and cultural activities shows that more than four in every five people aged 15 years and over attended arts and cultural events in 2008. Almost half were active participants, similar to the proportions in 2005. There was no change between 2006 and 2008 in the proportion of people who were satisfied with their leisure time.</p>
Safety outcomes have improved since the mid-1990s	<p>In the road casualties indicator, the road user death rate was slightly higher in 2009 than in 2008, but well below the rate in the mid-1990s. The road user injury rate increased between 2000 and 2007 and although it fell slightly in both 2008 and 2009, it was still higher than the rate in 2000.</p> <p>Trends in assault mortality are more difficult to discern because the rates are based on small numbers. Across all ages, the provisional assault mortality rate for 2007 was lower than the rate in 2006, and lower than the rates in the mid-1990s. The child assault death rate for the period 2003–2007 was lower than the rate for the four previous five-year periods.</p> <p>There is no trend information for criminal victimisation or fear of crime because of changes in the survey design. In 2005, 40 percent of New Zealanders aged 15 years and over said fear of crime had a moderate or high impact on their quality of life and 39 percent reported experiencing some form of criminal victimisation.</p>
There have been some improvements in the Social Connectedness domain	<p>There was a large improvement in the proportion of households with internet access in the home between 2006 and 2009 (from 65 percent to 75 percent). Over the same period, the proportion of people with the personal use of a mobile phone increased from 80 percent to 85 percent. There was no change between 2006 and 2008 in the proportion of people who said they believed people can be trusted, and in the proportion who reported having felt lonely during the past 12 months. There was a decline between 2001 and 2007 in the proportion of secondary school students who reported that most weeks they were able to spend enough time with either their Mum or their Dad.</p> <p>Two indicators in this domain, both using data from the 2008 New Zealand General Social Survey, do not yet have trend information. A majority of adults (60 percent) said they have about the right amount of contact with family and friends, and one in three adults had done voluntary work for a group or organisation in the last four weeks.</p>
New Zealanders' overall life satisfaction is high	<p>The final indicator in the report – overall life satisfaction – is a subjective indicator of how people feel about their lives as a whole. A large majority of New Zealanders – 86 percent – reported in the 2008 New Zealand General Social Survey that they were satisfied with their life overall.</p>

Figure SU1 **Changes in social wellbeing, 1995–1997 to 2007–2009**



Interpreting “Changes in social wellbeing, 1995–1997 to 2007–2009”

The circle ○ represents average outcomes for each indicator between 1995 and 1997, and the spokes —■ represent outcomes between 2007 and 2009. Where possible, the data is averaged over the three years in each period. Where a spoke extends beyond the circle, this means the outcome for this indicator has improved between the two periods. The further the spoke is outside the circle, the greater the improvement. Where a spoke falls within the circle, the outcome for this indicator has deteriorated over the decade.

The further the spoke is inside the circle, the more pronounced the deterioration. An important limitation on this style of presentation is that we cannot directly compare the size of changes for different indicators. Also, the absence of longer-term trend data for some indicators limits the number of indicators we can display. Most of the latest data is for 2007, 2008 or 2009, with the exception of suicide and assault mortality (both 2005–2007) and adult literacy (2006).

Social wellbeing in New Zealand compared to OECD countries

New Zealand compares favourably to other OECD countries

For many indicators, New Zealand compares very well with other countries. New Zealand's outcomes are better than, or similar to, the OECD median for around two-thirds of the 22 indicators for which there is internationally-comparable data.

New Zealand performs very well in the Civil and Political Rights domain. We ranked first as the least corrupt of 30 OECD countries in 2009, and we are in the top third of those countries for the proportion of women in government and for voter turnout. We have a lower rate of perceived personal discrimination than many other developed countries (10 percent in 2008, compared to a median of 16 percent across 19 European OECD countries in 2009).

Paid work is another area in which New Zealand performs strongly, with a relatively high employment rate, the sixth highest in the OECD in 2009, and a relatively low unemployment rate, the 11th lowest in 2009.

We also perform well in the Social Connectedness area, with New Zealanders having a higher level of trust in others and a higher level of households with internet access than the OECD median. New Zealand adults are as likely as Australian adults to do voluntary work for groups or organisations.

In the area of Knowledge and Skills, New Zealand is above the OECD median for the proportion of adults who have a bachelor's degree or higher qualification, and for participation in tertiary education among 20–29 year olds. The proportion of New Zealand adults with prose and document literacy and numeracy skills in English at Level 3 or above is similar to the proportions in Australia and English-speaking Canada, and higher than the proportion in the United States.

In the Leisure and Recreation domain, New Zealand adults have a relatively high level of attendance at art events, compared to a range of other developed countries.

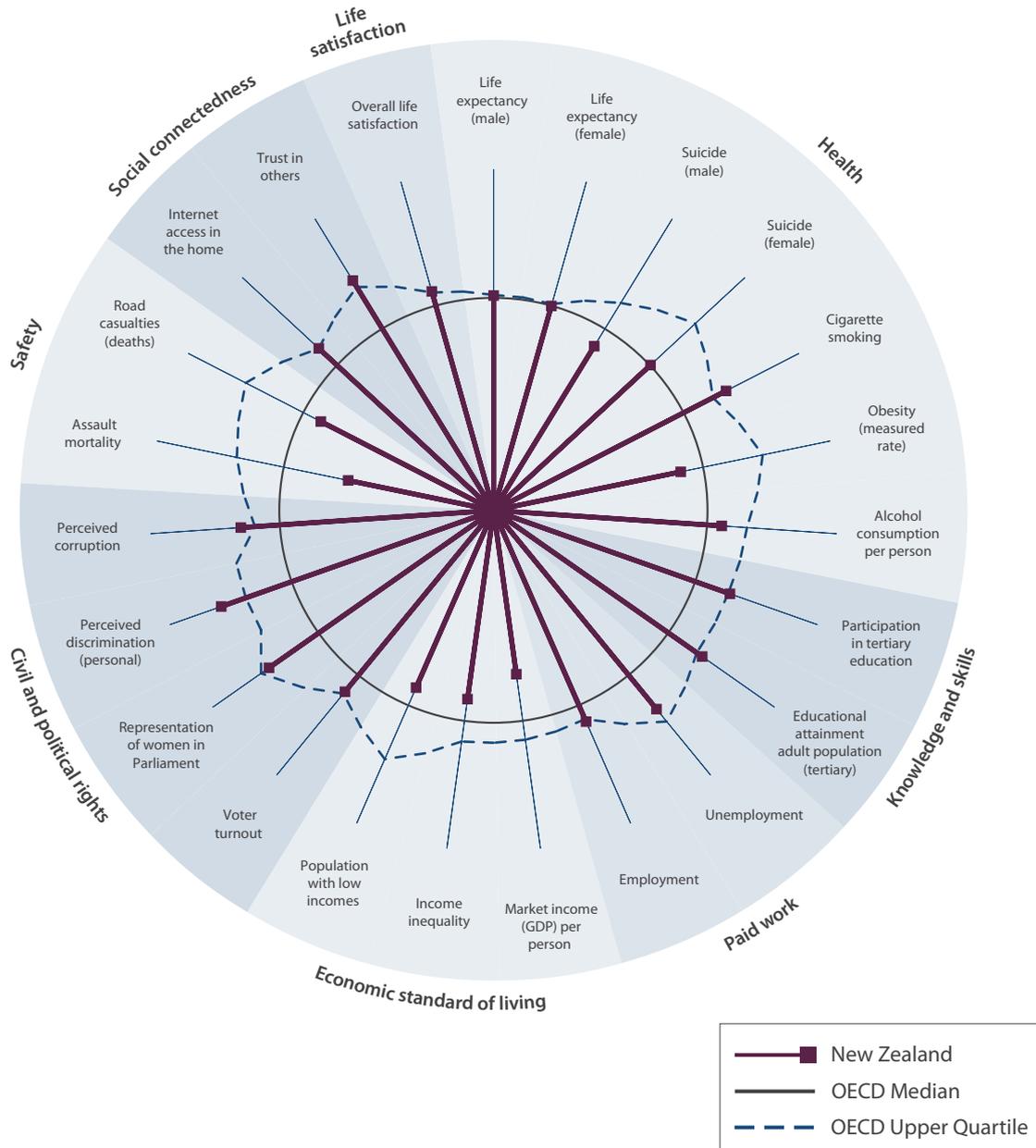
In the Health domain, New Zealand's results are mixed. Our life expectancy is similar to the OECD median, although there is a relatively narrow range of outcomes across the OECD for this indicator. New Zealand's rates of cigarette smoking and alcohol consumption are lower than the OECD median. Among the 12 countries that use actual measurements of obesity rather than self-reporting, our obesity rate is similar to those of Australia, the United Kingdom and Canada and lower than that of the United States. We have relatively high suicide death rates, particularly for youth.

New Zealand does not perform well in the Safety domain. Our road user death rate was higher than the OECD median in 2008. Our assault death rate was higher than the OECD median for 29 OECD countries with data from 2003–2008.

Our Economic Standard of Living results tend to be lower than those in many OECD countries. In 2008, New Zealand was below the OECD median for market income per person, using gross domestic product (GDP) per capita as the measure. In 2004, New Zealand was higher than the OECD median for income inequality and near the middle of the OECD for population with low incomes.

New Zealanders' overall life satisfaction was higher than the median for people in other OECD countries in 2006.

Figure SU2 **Social wellbeing in New Zealand, relative to the OECD**



Interpreting “Social wellbeing in New Zealand relative to the OECD”

This figure shows New Zealanders’ social wellbeing relative to that of people in OECD countries for 22 indicators. The circle ○ represents the OECD median for each indicator, while the spokes —■ represent New Zealand’s outcomes relative to the OECD median. Where a spoke falls outside the circle, the New Zealand outcome is better than the OECD median for that indicator. Where a spoke falls inside the circle, the New Zealand outcome is worse than the OECD median. The irregularly shaped line outside the OECD median circle - - - - represents outcomes of the OECD upper quartile relative to the OECD median. Where a spoke falls past the irregularly shaped line, the New Zealand outcome is in the top quarter of OECD outcomes. An important limitation on this style of presentation is that we cannot directly compare the size of New Zealand-OECD differences for different indicators.

For each indicator, the most recent data has been used where possible. Most of the data is for the years between 2006 and 2009, but the population with low incomes and income inequality data is for 2004 and the assault mortality data is for 2003–2005. **SOME CAUTION IS REQUIRED WITH THIS DATA:** international comparisons are difficult to interpret because of the different methods countries use to collect, classify and record social data. There were too few countries with adult literacy data to include this indicator in the figure. Perceived personal discrimination includes New Zealand and 19 OECD countries in the European Union. Obesity includes only the 12 OECD countries which use actual measurements, rather than self-reporting.

Changes in wellbeing for selected population groups

In this section, we look at changes in social outcomes over time for various population groups in New Zealand, and we compare their outcomes with those of the total New Zealand population. We focus on changes since the mid-1990s where possible, as well as on more recent changes.

It is important to note that comparisons are for population group averages: there is a lot of variation within groups. For example, the risk of poor outcomes often varies by age: younger people have higher rates of unemployment, potentially hazardous drinking, suicide death and road accident death, and they have lower incomes than people in older age groups. For Māori and Pacific peoples, poor outcomes relative to those of the total New Zealand population may be partly attributable to the younger age structure of these ethnic groups. This should be kept in mind when comparing outcomes between groups for indicators where the data has not been age standardised.

Māori

For most indicators, outcomes for Māori have improved since the mid-1990s

Most of the indicators for which we have time series data show improvements in wellbeing for Māori. In several instances, improvements have been greater for Māori than for the total population, including life expectancy, participation in tertiary education, employment and median hourly earnings. Despite improvements in these areas and others, average outcomes for Māori tend to be poorer than average outcomes for the total population.

Life expectancy at birth improved more for Māori than for non-Māori between 1995–1997 and 2005–2007. While this reduced the gap in life expectancy between Māori and non-Māori, the gap remains large.

Since 1996, suicide death rates have shown no obvious trend for Māori, although the small numbers of Māori suicide deaths make it hard to ascertain trends. The suicide death rate is higher for Māori than for non-Māori.

Smoking remains high among Māori, particularly Māori women, who have the highest cigarette smoking rate of any ethnic group in New Zealand. Among 14–15 year olds, Māori girls continue to have the highest daily smoking rate, although the rate halved between 1999 and 2009 (from 36 percent to 18 percent). The rate for Māori boys more than halved over the decade (from 24 percent to 11 percent).

In the Knowledge and Skills domain, outcomes for Māori have improved strongly in recent years. The increase in participation in early childhood education between 2000 and 2009 was greater for Māori children than for all school entrants, reducing the participation gap. Between 2003 and 2008, Māori students showed the greatest improvement in the proportion of students leaving secondary school with a qualification at NCEA Level 2 or above, but they have the lowest level of educational attainment at this level. Māori have had the highest participation rate in tertiary education of any ethnic group since 2001. Māori tertiary education participation is higher than average at older age groups and in Levels 1–3 certificate courses. The proportion of Māori adults with tertiary qualifications at bachelor's degree level or above has more than trebled since the mid-1990s. Despite this substantial improvement, Māori are around half as likely as adults in general to have tertiary qualifications at degree level. Improvements in prose and document literacy in English between 1996 and 2006 were similar for Māori adults and adults in the total population. Māori are less likely than average to have literacy or numeracy skills at Level 3 or above.

The unemployment rate for Māori has halved since the mid-1990s; it fell to a record low in the year ended December 2007 but increased slightly in 2008 and more sharply in 2009. The Māori unemployment rate was the highest of any ethnic group from 1995 to 2008 but it was similar to the rate for Pacific peoples in 2009. Māori youth had the second highest unemployment rate among youth aged 15–24 years in 2009. The employment rate for Māori increased strongly over the past decade, reaching a record high in the year ended December 2008. Although it fell in 2009, the Māori employment rate remained considerably higher than it was in the mid-1990s, but it was still well below the average for the total population.

The real median hourly earnings of Māori increased by 25 percent between June 1997 and June 2009; this was more than the increase for all earners over the period (21 percent). The ratio of Māori to European median hourly earnings was 88 percent in 2009. In 2008, the rate of work-related injury claims for Māori was similar to the average rate. Because of a break in the series for work-related injury claims by ethnicity, it is not possible to assess trends over time. Employed Māori were about as likely as employees generally to be satisfied with their work-life balance in 2008.

In the Economic Standard of Living domain, median household incomes for Māori improved over the decade to 2009. The proportion of households with at least one Māori adult spending more than 30 percent of their disposable income on housing was lower in 2009 than in 1998.

Māori representation in Parliament declined between the 2005 and 2008 general elections, but remains higher than the representation of Pacific peoples and Asian ethnic groups and is similar to the Māori share of the total population.

In the 2008 New Zealand General Social Survey, around one in six Māori aged 15 years and over said they had been discriminated against in the past year, compared to the population average of one in 10 people.

Māori attendance at arts events in 2008 was slightly higher than the average for all people aged 15 years and over, and Māori active participation in arts and cultural activities was much higher than average. The proportion of Māori who were satisfied with their leisure time was similar to the population average.

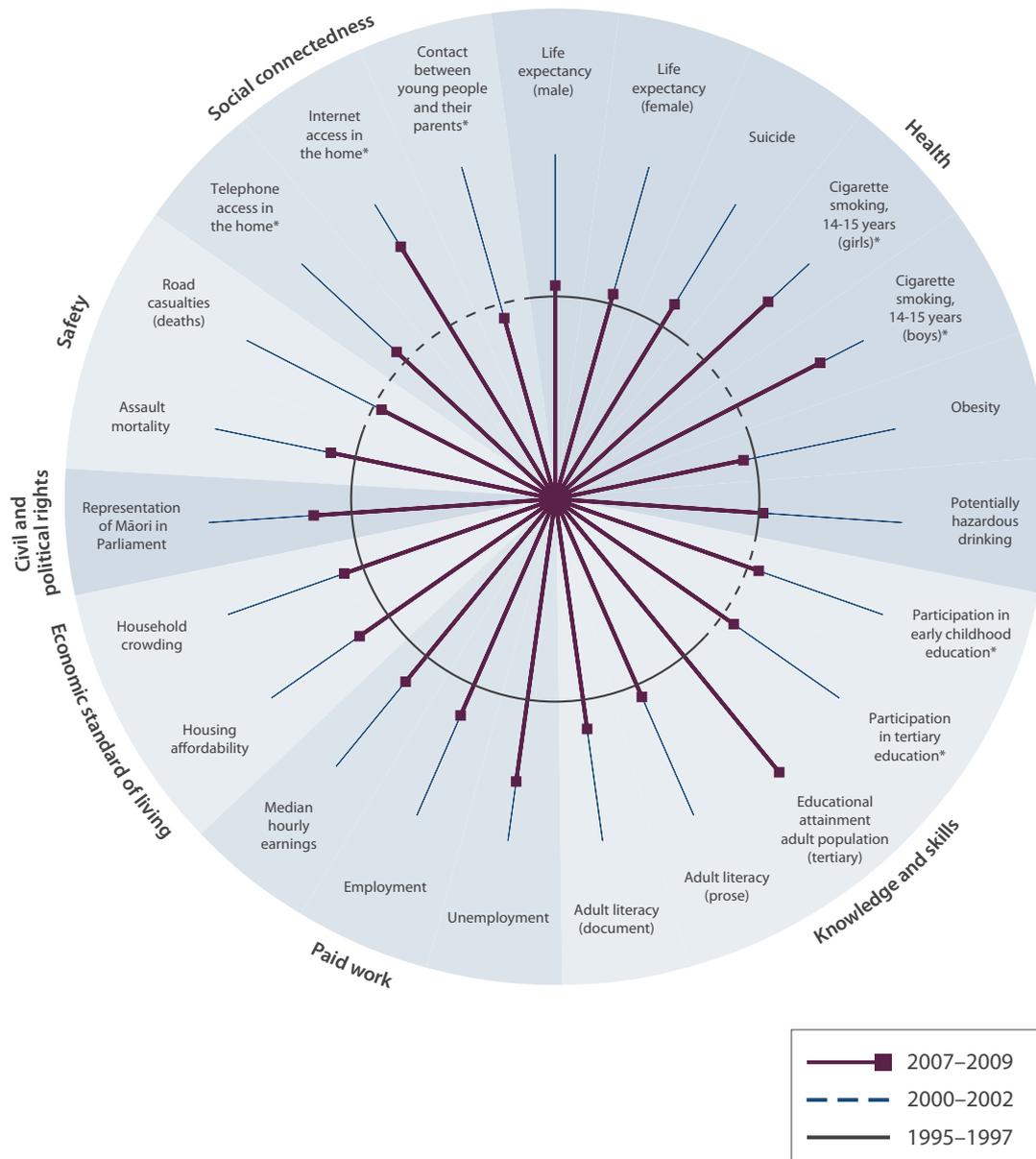
Māori continue to have poorer outcomes in the Safety domain. The assault mortality rate for Māori has fluctuated since 1996, with no clear trend. In 2007 Māori adults and Māori children remained considerably more likely than non-Māori adults and children to die from an assault or intentional injury. The rate of death from motor vehicle accidents has changed little for Māori since 2000, while the rate for non-Māori has declined. In 2007, Māori were around two and a half times as likely as non-Māori to die in motor vehicle accidents.

In 2008, Māori reported a slightly lower than average level of trust in people and a higher than average level of loneliness. In 2007, Māori secondary school students were less likely than students overall to report that most of the time they get enough time with Mum and/or Dad. In 2008, Māori adults were the least likely to feel the amount of contact they have with family and friends is about right.

In the 2008 New Zealand General Social Survey (NZGSS), the rate of voluntary work for a group or organisation was about the same for Māori as for the total population aged 15 years and over.

More than four in five Māori adults (82 percent) were satisfied with their life overall in 2008.

Figure SU.3 Social wellbeing for Māori, 1995–1997 or 2000–2002 to 2007–2009



Interpreting “Changes in social wellbeing for Māori”

The circle ○ represents average outcomes for Māori for each indicator between 1995 and 1997, or 2000 and 2002 for indicators marked with an asterisk * that do not have data for 1995–1997. The spokes —■ represent outcomes between 2007 and 2009. Where possible, the data is averaged over the three years in each period. Where a spoke falls outside the circle this means the outcome for Māori has improved between the earlier and latest period. The further the spoke is outside the circle, the greater the improvement. Where a spoke falls within the circle, the outcome for Māori

has worsened compared to the earlier period. The further the spoke is inside the circle the more pronounced this effect. An important limitation on this style of presentation is that we cannot directly compare the size of changes for different indicators. Most of the latest data is for 2007–2009, with the exception of suicide, assault mortality, road casualties and life expectancy (2005–2007) and adult literacy (2006). The earlier period for cigarette smoking at 14–15 years is 1999–2001. The measure used is the daily smoking rate.

Pacific peoples

Most indicators for Pacific peoples have improved since the mid-1990s

Pacific peoples, like Māori, have experienced gains in wellbeing since the mid-1990s. While a number of these improvements have been greater than those for the total New Zealand population, Pacific peoples' outcomes overall are poor compared to those of the total population.

A positive trend in the Health domain is the significant reduction in smoking among Pacific youth. The daily smoking rate of Pacific youth aged 14–15 years fell by around two-thirds between 1999 and 2009 (from 23 percent to 7 percent for girls, and from 17 percent to 6 percent for boys). This is the only new information on the health of Pacific peoples in this year's report. Pacific adults had the second highest cigarette smoking rate, after Māori, in 2008. They had the highest obesity rate in 2006/2007 and shared the highest potentially hazardous drinking rate with Māori in the same year.

There have been considerable gains in educational participation for Pacific peoples over the past decade. The proportion of children who attended early childhood education before starting primary school increased at a faster rate for Pacific children than for all school entrants between 2000 and 2009. However, Pacific children continue to have the lowest participation rate at this level of education. Pacific peoples also had the largest increase in tertiary education participation between 2001 and 2009. In the latest year their overall participation rate was similar to that of Europeans, although higher proportions of Pacific students were enrolled in Levels 1–3 certificate courses.

Education outcomes have also improved. The proportion of Pacific students leaving secondary school with a qualification at NCEA Level 2 or above increased strongly between 2003 and 2008 but remained the second lowest proportion. The proportion of Pacific adults with tertiary qualifications increased more than threefold between the mid-1990s and 2009. Despite this substantial improvement, Pacific peoples were less than a third as likely as adults in general to have tertiary qualifications at degree level in 2009.

The proportion of Pacific adults with prose and document literacy in English at Level 3 or above declined between 1996 and 2006, against an upward trend for the total population. Pacific adults in 2006 were around half as likely as adults in general to have prose and document literacy skills in English at Level 3 or above, and around a third as likely to have numeracy skills at these levels.

All three indicators in the Paid Work domain for which there is data for Pacific peoples show a strong improvement in outcomes since the mid-1990s, despite a deterioration in the most recent two years. The unemployment rate for Pacific peoples fell markedly from the mid-1990s to 2005. It increased slightly over the following three years, then almost doubled between the December 2008 and 2009 years. Pacific youth had the highest unemployment rate among youth aged 15–24 years in 2009. The employment rate for Pacific peoples grew fairly steadily over the decade to 2008 but fell sharply in 2009. For Pacific peoples in wage and salary jobs, real median hourly earnings increased by 7 percent between 2008 and 2009, compared to 4 percent for all wage and salary earners. Pacific peoples reported a lower than average level of satisfaction with their work-life balance in 2008. Pacific peoples had the highest rate of work-related injury claims in 2008.

Median household incomes for Pacific peoples improved over the decade to 2009. Housing affordability also improved. The proportion of households with at least one Pacific adult spending more than 30 percent of their disposable income on housing was lower in 2009 than in 1998.

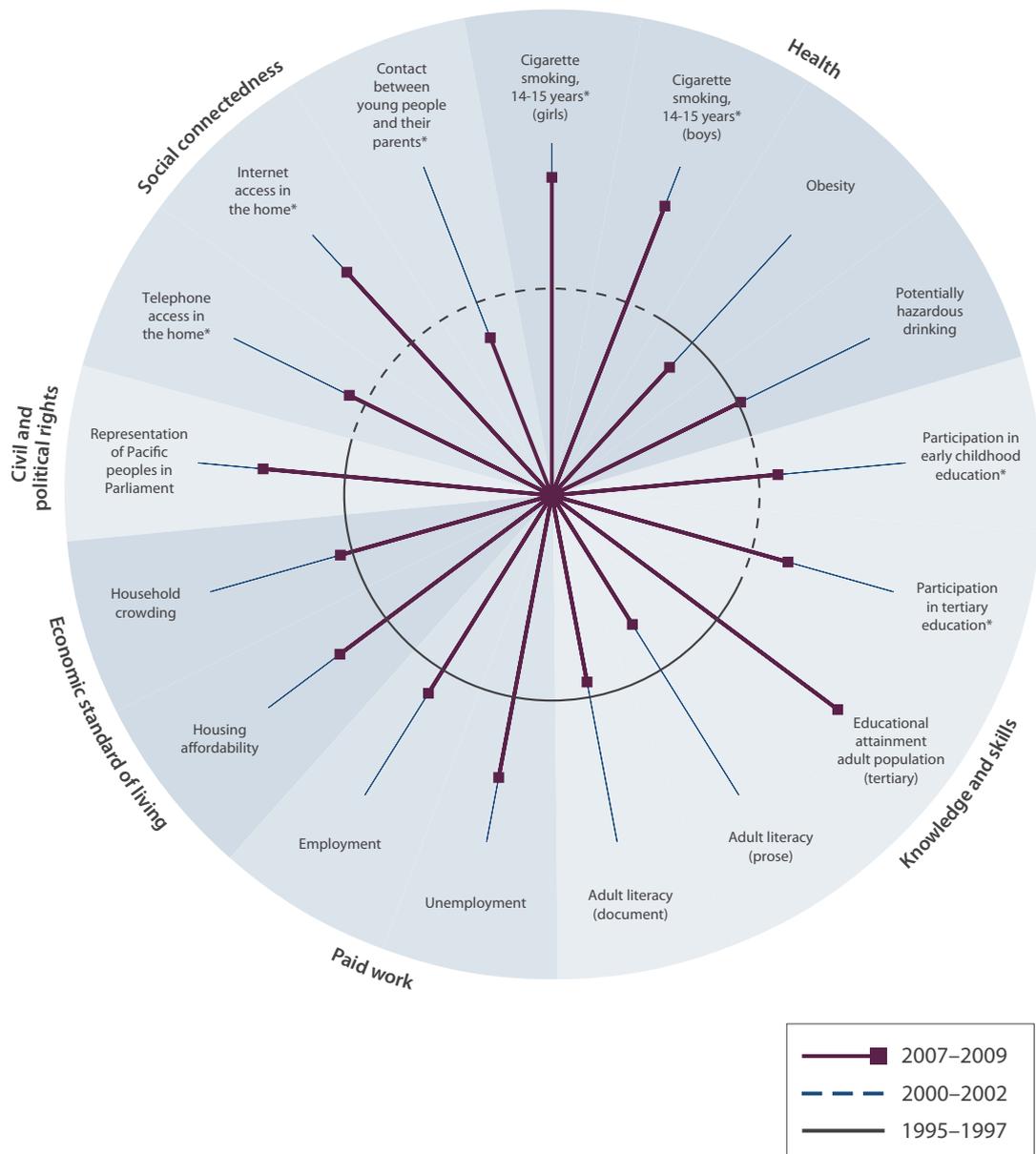
In the 2008 New Zealand General Social Survey, around one in seven Pacific people aged 15 years and over said they had been discriminated against in the past year, compared to the population average of one in 10 people.

In 2008, Pacific adults reported lower than average levels of trust in others and higher than average levels of loneliness. Pacific secondary school students were less likely than students on average to report they got enough time with one or both of their parents. In 2008, Pacific adults were about as likely as adults generally to feel the amount of contact they have with family and friends is about right.

In the 2008 New Zealand General Social Survey, Pacific peoples had the highest rate of voluntary work for a group or organisation.

Four in five Pacific adults (80 percent) were satisfied with their life overall in 2008.

Figure SU.4 **Social wellbeing for Pacific peoples, 1995–1997 or 2000–2002 to 2007–2009**



Interpreting “Changes in social wellbeing for Pacific peoples”

The circle ○ represents average outcomes for Pacific peoples for each indicator between 1995 and 1997, or 2000 and 2002 for indicators marked with an asterisk * that do not have data for 1995–1997. The spokes —■ represent outcomes between 2007 and 2009. Where possible, the data is averaged over the three years in each period. Where a spoke falls outside the circle this means the outcome for Pacific peoples has improved between the earlier and latest period. The further the spoke is outside the circle, the greater the

improvement. Where a spoke falls within the circle, the outcome for Pacific peoples has worsened compared to the earlier period. The further the spoke is inside the circle the more pronounced this effect. An important limitation on this style of presentation is that we cannot directly compare the size of changes for different indicators. The latest year for adult literacy is 2006. The earlier period for cigarette smoking at 14–15 years is 1999–2001. The measure used is the daily smoking rate.

Asian and other ethnicities

Outcomes for Asian and other ethnicities are mixed

A small number of indicators in this report include information for ethnic groups other than European, Māori and Pacific peoples. Some surveys report separate data for Asian people, and larger surveys sometimes provide a further breakdown for smaller groups, referred to collectively as the “Other” ethnic group. In other cases, data for Asian and the smaller ethnic groups are combined into a single category. For example, in the Household Labour Force Survey data used in this report, this combined group comprises Asian peoples, Middle Eastern, Latin American and African peoples (MELAA), and Other (including ‘New Zealander’). For brevity, we refer to the combined group as Asian/MELAA/Other in this section. This inconsistency between data sources should be taken into account when assessing outcomes for these population groups. The diverse and changing make-up of these ethnic group categories probably contributes to the mixed outcomes evident in the results.

In the Health domain, Asian peoples aged 15–64 years had the lowest cigarette smoking rate of all ethnic groups in 2008, around half that of the total population in that age group.

Participation in early childhood education grew faster for Asian children and children from the Other ethnic group, than for all children between 2000 and 2009. In 2009, these children were about as likely as children in general to have attended an early childhood education service before going to primary school. The proportion of Asian secondary school leavers with a qualification at NCEA Level 2 or above increased from 2003 to 2008 and was consistently the highest for all ethnic groups. For school leavers in the MELAA/Other ethnic group category, the improvement was greater but the proportion with NCEA Level 2 or above remained close to the average for all students.

Asian peoples aged 15 years and over had the second highest tertiary education participation rate in 2009 (after Māori), and the highest participation rate for degree level qualifications. Adults from Asian/MELAA/Other ethnic groups are the most likely to have tertiary qualifications at bachelor’s degree level or higher, almost double the proportion for all adults aged 25–64 years in 2009. The proportion of Asian adults with prose and document literacy skills in English at Level 3 or above increased between 1996 and 2006 but remained lower than the average for all adults. The proportion of Asian adults with numeracy skills in English at these levels was also lower than average in 2006.

The unemployment rate for the Asian/MELAA/Other ethnic group has fallen substantially since the mid-1990s but it increased in 2008 and 2009 and remains higher than the rate for the total labour force. Growth in the employment rate for this group was faster than average from the mid-1990s to 2007 but it levelled off in 2008 and 2009.

The median hourly earnings for wage and salary earners in the Asian and MELAA ethnic groups ranked second behind the median hourly earnings for Europeans in 2009. Between 2008 and 2009, the Asian and MELAA ethnic groups experienced a 5 percent increase in real median hourly earnings from wage and salary jobs, similar to the 4 percent increase for all wage and salary earners. The rate of work-related injury claims for the Other (including Asian) ethnic group in 2008 was higher than the rate for all full-time equivalent employees for that year.

Median household incomes and housing affordability for the Other (including Asian) ethnic group improved between the mid-1990s and 2009. The proportion of households with at least one adult from the Other (including Asian) ethnic group spending more than 30 percent of their disposable income on housing was lower in 2009 than in 1998.

Asian people were again the group most likely to be perceived as being subject to a great deal or some discrimination in 2009. In the 2008 New Zealand General Social Survey, more than one in five Asians aged 15 years and over said they had been discriminated against, the highest proportion of any ethnic group.

In 2008, people of the Asian ethnic group reported lower than average levels of trust in others, and were more likely than people in general to report having felt isolated or lonely in the past 12 months. In the same year, Asian adults had the highest proportion who said the amount of contact they have with family and friends is about right. But in 2007, Asian secondary school students were less likely than all secondary school students to report they got enough time with one or more of their parents.

More than four in five Asian people (84 percent) were satisfied with their life overall in 2008.

Sex differences

Outcomes are generally better for females than for males in the Health and Knowledge and Skills domains, but are mixed in other domains

Sex differences in social wellbeing vary between and within the domains in this report. Outcomes are generally better for females than for males in the Health and Knowledge and Skills domains, but are mixed in other domains such as Paid Work and Safety. In some areas, sex differences have narrowed in recent years.

For most of the indicators in the Health domain, females had better outcomes than males. On average, females live longer than males, but the sex difference in life expectancy is decreasing, reflecting greater gains for males since the mid-1980s. There is a marked sex difference in the suicide death rate: in 2007, the rate for males was more than three times that for females. The male suicide death rate increased sharply in the late-1980s but it has declined since the mid-1990s, while the female rate has been relatively stable over the last 20 years. Females have a higher rate of hospitalisation from intentional self-harm than males. There was no significant difference in obesity rates between the sexes in 2006/2007. Obesity rates have increased more for males than for females since the mid-1990s. Cigarette smoking rates for females and males have generally been similar since the mid-1980s, but in 2008 the age-standardised rate was higher for males than for females. However, among 14–15 year olds, girls continue to have higher smoking rates than boys. In 2006/2007, male drinkers were more than twice as likely as female drinkers to have a potentially hazardous drinking pattern, as they were in 1996/1997 and 2002/2003.

In the Knowledge and Skills domain, most indicators continue to show better outcomes for females than for males, although differences have narrowed in recent years. There is little sex difference in participation in early childhood education, but females are more likely than males to leave secondary school with NCEA Level 2 or above and to participate in tertiary education. The sex difference in tertiary participation widened over the decade to 2004 but it has since narrowed because the decline in enrolments over the 2005–2009 period was greater for females than for males. For the adult population aged 25–64 years, sex differences in educational attainment have narrowed over time as a result of greater improvements for females, particularly at younger ages. Since 2003, women in the 25–34 years age group have been more likely than men of that age to have a tertiary degree at bachelor's level or above. The opposite is the case in the 55–64 years age group.

In adult literacy in English, there was no significant sex difference in prose literacy at Level 3 or above in 2006 but all of the improvement in higher prose literacy over the previous decade was due to increases for males. Males were significantly more likely than females to have numeracy skills at Level 3 or above. There was no sex difference in document literacy for all adults aged 16–65 years. However, among adults aged under 25 years, a higher proportion of females than of males had higher document skills, while at ages 45 years and over the pattern was reversed.

Outcomes are mixed in the Paid Work domain. Unemployment rates were similar for males and females in the year ended December 2009, having been higher for females than for males between 2002 and 2007 and higher for males than for females during the peak years of unemployment in the early 1990s. Men are more likely to be employed than women, but the employment rate gap has narrowed. This is because female employment rates increased more than male employment rates between 2002 and 2007, and declined less than those of males between 2007 and 2009. Among wage and salary earners, males earn more, on average, than females. The ratio of female to male median hourly earnings was 89 percent in 2009, compared to 83 percent in 1997. Males are around twice as likely as females to suffer work-related injuries involving a claim to ACC. Employed males and females have similar rates of satisfaction with their work-life balance, with part-time workers of both sexes having higher levels of satisfaction than full-time workers.

Between 1998 and 2009, females were slightly more likely than males to be living in households with low incomes. The pattern over time was less clear for housing affordability. In 2009 there was no difference by sex in the proportion of people aged 15 years and over living in households that were spending more than 30 percent of their disposable income on housing. There is very little difference by sex in the likelihood of living in crowded households.

There are fewer female than male Members of Parliament, although the proportion increased in the 2008 general election. Similarly, female representation in local authorities is lower than that of males, but it increased in the 2007 elections. Women are more likely than men to be perceived as a group subject to discrimination and the proportion of people with this perception increased between 2008 and 2009. In the 2008 New Zealand General Social Survey, overall rates of personal discrimination were similar for males and females, but females were around twice as likely as males to cite gender discrimination as the reason.

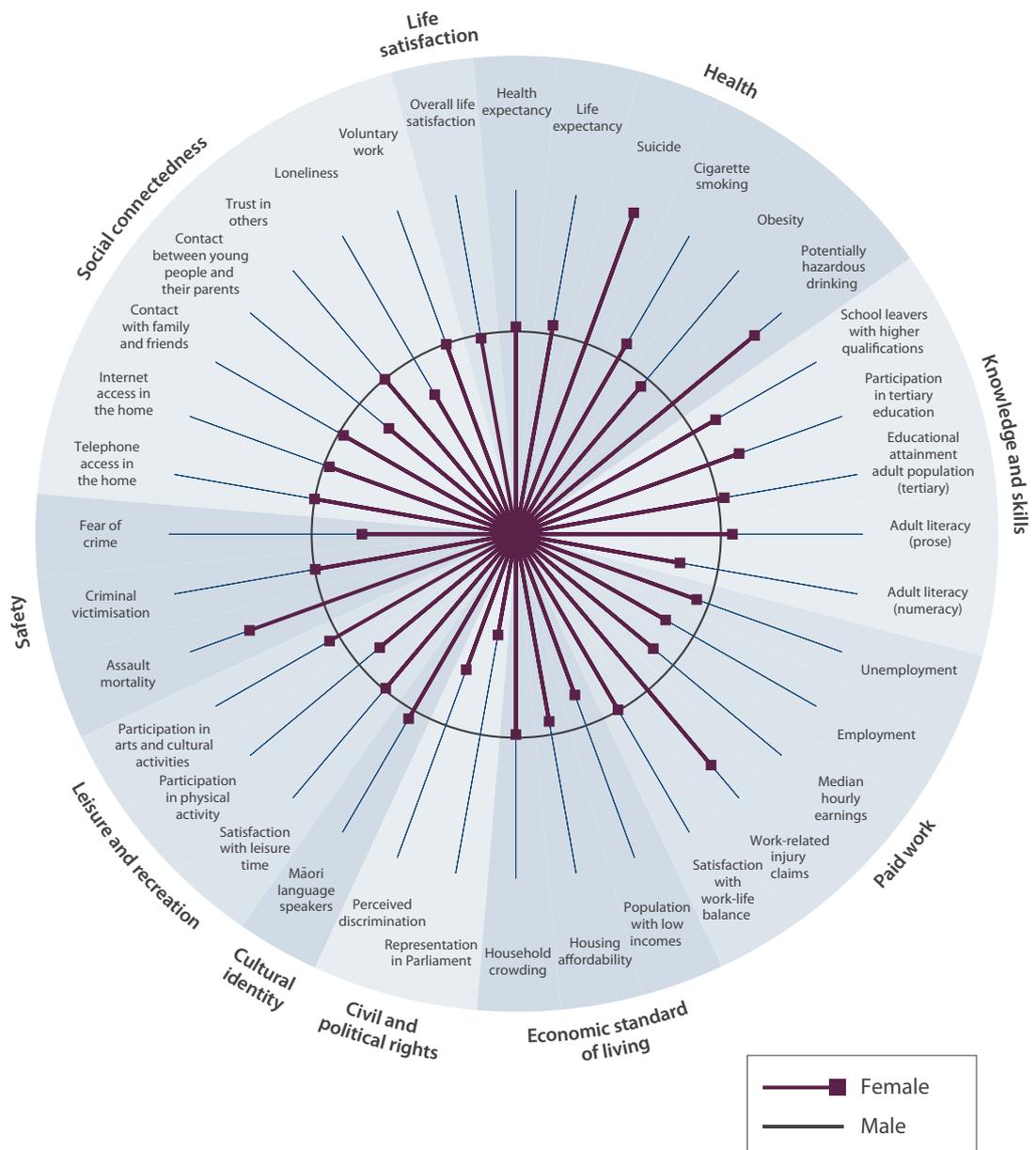
In 2006/2007, males were significantly more likely than females to meet physical activity guidelines. There was no change in physical activity levels for either sex from the previous survey in 2002/2003. In 2008, there was very little difference between the sexes in reported satisfaction with leisure time. Women and men had similar levels of attendance at arts events and participation in arts and cultural activities in 2008.

In the Safety domain, males and females were equally likely to experience some form of criminal victimisation in 2005. With confrontational offences, men were as likely as women to have been victimised at least once by a partner, but women experienced more offences than men did. Females were twice as likely as males to be the victims of sexual offences, while males were more likely to be the victims of confrontational offences by people they did not know. Women were more likely than men to report that fear of crime impacted on their quality of life. Males are more likely than females to die from an assault or intentional injury and they are more likely to be injured or killed in motor vehicle accidents. Although road accident deaths have declined substantially for both sexes, the male road user death rate remained double that for females in 2009.

In the Social Connectedness domain, men and women reported a similar level of trust in others in 2008, but women were more likely than men to have felt lonely during the past 12 months. There is little difference between men and women in having access to the internet and a telephone in their homes except at older ages, where women were less likely than men to have internet access. In 2008, there was no sex difference in the proportion of adults who felt the amount of contact they have with family and friends is about right. Among secondary school students, females were less likely than males to report that most of the time they get enough time with at least one parent, and this sex difference increased between 2001 and 2007. In the 2008 New Zealand General Social Survey, there was no difference by sex in the proportion of adults who had done voluntary work for groups or organisations in the past four weeks.

Males (85 percent) and females (86 percent) reported similarly high levels of overall life satisfaction in 2008.

Figure SU.5 Social wellbeing for females relative to males, 2007–2009



Interpreting “Social wellbeing for females relative to males, 2007–2009”

The circle ○ represents average outcomes for males. The spokes ■ represent average outcomes for females. Where a spoke falls outside the circle, the outcome for females is better than the outcome for males. The further the spoke is from the circle, the better the outcome for females relative to males. Where a spoke falls inside the circle, the outcome for females is worse than the outcome for males. An important

limitation on this style of presentation is that we cannot directly compare the size of sex differences for different indicators. Where possible, the data represents three-yearly averages. Most of the data is for the period 2007–2009 except for suicide and assault mortality (both for 2005–2007), criminal victimisation and fear of crime (both 2005) and adult literacy (2006).

Socio-economic differences

People living in deprived areas generally experience poorer outcomes, particularly in health

Seventeen indicators in this report include information on differences in wellbeing outcomes by socio-economic status. Two different area-based measures of socio-economic difference are used: the New Zealand Index of Deprivation (NZDep), and the Ministry of Education's school decile index.¹¹⁹ For some indicators, the measures of socio-economic differences are based on the distribution of individual or household incomes.

Health-related outcomes tend to worsen with rising levels of neighbourhood deprivation. Life expectancy at birth is considerably lower for people living in NZDep2006 decile 10 areas (the most deprived 10th of small areas in New Zealand) than for those living in decile 1 areas (the least deprived 10th). In 2005–2007, the difference was 8.8 years for males and 5.9 years for females.

The prevalence of cigarette smoking in 2008 was almost three times higher for people aged 15–64 years living in the most deprived fifth of areas than for those living in the least deprived fifth. Among 14–15 year olds in 2009, daily smoking rates were four times higher for girls and more than twice as high for boys at low-decile schools (those drawn from low socio-economic communities) than for boys and girls at high-decile schools. In 2006/2007, the prevalence of obesity and potentially hazardous drinking among people aged 15 years and over were both significantly higher in NZDep2006 quintile 5 areas (the most deprived fifth) than in all other areas (quintiles 1–4). On the other hand, there was no association between the proportion of people who met physical activity guidelines and the level of neighbourhood deprivation.

Year 1 students in schools drawn from low socio-economic communities are less likely to have attended early childhood education services than Year 1 students in schools drawn from high socio-economic communities. School leavers from low decile secondary schools are less likely to have a qualification at NCEA Level 2 or above than school leavers from high decile schools.

Housing affordability is an issue of particular concern for low-income households as high housing costs relative to income can mean there is insufficient income left to meet other basic needs, such as food, transport and heating in winter. In 2009, the proportion of households in the lowest 20 percent (lowest quintile) of the equivalised household income distribution spending more than 30 percent of their income on housing was 33 percent, compared to 27 percent for all New Zealand households.

In 2006, households in the lowest fifth of household incomes (adjusted for household size and composition) were five times more likely to be crowded than households in the highest fifth of household incomes.

In 2005, people living in the most deprived areas of New Zealand (NZDep quintile 5) were more likely than people living in the least deprived areas to report being victims of crime. They were also more likely to report that fear of crime affected their quality of life.

Some indicators show an association between levels of personal income and wellbeing outcomes, although there is no clear pattern. In 2008, full-time employees with personal incomes of \$30,000 or less had the highest level of satisfaction with work-life balance across the income scale. Satisfaction with leisure time was also highest for people in this income group, although in this case the proportion included people of retirement age and students. In the same year, people with personal incomes over \$100,000 reported the highest overall level of trust and the lowest level of loneliness. In the 2008 New Zealand General Social Survey, people with personal incomes of \$70,001 or more were significantly more likely to report having done voluntary work than those with incomes of \$30,000 or less. But there was little variation by income in personal experience of discrimination, and no difference by income in the proportion of adults who said the amount of contact they have with family and friends is about right. Finally, the 2008 survey on New Zealanders and the arts found no substantial relationship between income and participation in the arts.

Summary table of indicators

Indicators	Current level of updated indicators (most recent year) and the change from the previous result ☺ better ☹ same ☹ worse ☹ not updated ☹ not comparable	Longer-term change	Variation within the population	Comparison with the OECD
Health				
Health expectancy	☹ Males 67.4 years Females 69.2 years (2006)	Improved, faster for males than for females	Lower for males and Māori	No comparison available
Life expectancy	☺ Males 78.4 years Females 82.4 years (2007–2009)	Improved, faster for males than for females	Lower for males, Māori and people living in deprived areas	Similar to OECD median
Suicide	☺ 11.0 deaths per 100,000 (age-standardised rate for all ages) (2007) ☺ Youth 15–24 years, 15.3 deaths per 100,000 (2007)	Improved since 1998, below the 1986 level	Suicide deaths higher for males, youth, young adults and Māori; intentional self-harm hospitalisations higher for females	Higher than OECD median for males; relatively high for youth of both sexes
Cigarette smoking	☺ 22 percent of population aged 15–64 years (2009) ☹ 21 percent of population aged 15 years and over (2008) ☺ 6 percent of girls, 5 percent of boys aged 14–15 years (daily rate) (2009)	15–64 years population: improved from 2006 to 2009 15 years and over population: improved to 1991, steady to 2003, improved to 2007 14–15 year olds: big drop since 1999	Higher rates among younger adults, Māori, Pacific peoples and people living in deprived areas	Daily smoking rate lower than OECD median overall; much lower than OECD median for males, similar to OECD median for females
Obesity	☹ 25 percent of population aged 15 years and over (age-standardised rate) (2006/2007) 8 percent of children aged 5–14 years (2006/2007)	Increased since 1997 but no statistically significant increase in age-adjusted rate between 2002/2003 and 2006/2007 Children: Similar to rate in 2002	Higher for Pacific peoples, Māori, and people living in deprived areas	Higher than OECD median for 12 countries with measured obesity rate
Potentially hazardous drinking	☹ 22.9 percent of drinkers aged 15 years and over (2006/2007)	Similar to levels in 1996/1997 and 2002/2003	Higher among males, young people, Māori, Pacific peoples, those in deprived areas	Alcohol consumption lower than OECD median
Knowledge and skills				
Participation in early childhood education	☺ Enrolment rate in licensed services: 92 percent for 3 year olds and 100 percent for 4 year olds (2009)	Improved	Māori and Pacific rates lower than European	No robust comparison available
School leavers with higher qualifications	☺ 71 percent of school leavers with NCEA Level 2 or above (2008)	No comparable longer-term trend available	Proportions lower for males, Māori, Pacific school leavers and those at low-decile schools	No comparison available
Participation in tertiary education	☹ 12.4 percent of population aged 15 years and over enrolled in tertiary education institutions (age-standardised rate) (2009)	Improved	Lower rates for males, higher for Māori at ages under 18 years and over 25 years	No direct comparison available. Higher than OECD median for 20–29 year olds
Educational attainment of the adult population	☺ 75 percent of the population aged 25–64 years with at least an upper secondary qualification (2009) ☺ 22 percent of the population aged 25–64 years with tertiary (bachelor's degree+) qualifications (2009)	Improved	Proportions lower for people aged 55–64 years, particularly women; Māori and Pacific peoples; Asian/Other adults had the highest proportion with tertiary qualifications	Similar to OECD median for upper secondary and above; higher than OECD median for tertiary (bachelor's degree+)
Adult literacy skills in English	☹ 56 percent of 16–65 year olds with higher prose literacy skills (Level 3+) ☹ 57 percent with higher document skills ☹ 49 percent with higher numeracy skills (2006)	Improvement since 1996 for prose and document literacy; no trend data for numeracy	Proportions lower for youngest and oldest age groups and ethnic groups other than New Zealand European	Similar to Australia, Canada, higher than United States

Paid work				
Unemployment	⊕ 6.1 percent of the labour force (year ended December 2009)	Improved since 1998, but above mid-1980s levels	Higher rates for youth aged 15–24 years, Māori, Pacific peoples	Lower than OECD median
Employment	⊕ 72.9 percent of the population aged 15–64 years (year ended December 2009)	Improved since 1998, similar to mid-1980s levels	Lower rates for young people, women and ethnic groups other than European	Well above OECD median, for males and females
Median hourly earnings	⊕ \$19.47 an hour for wage and salary earners (\$20.53 for males; \$18.22 for females) (June quarter 2009)	Improved since 1997	Lower for Pacific peoples, Māori, youth and females over 20 years	No comparison available
Work-related injury claims	⊕ 117 claims per 1,000 full-time equivalent employees (2008 provisional)	Improved since 2002	Higher rates for men, ethnic groups other than European	No comparison available
Satisfaction with work-life balance	⊖ 78 percent of employed people said they were satisfied with their work-life balance (2008)	Steady	Full-time employed people and people aged 35–54 years are less likely to be satisfied with their work-life balance	No comparison available
Economic standard of living				
Market income per person	⊕ RGNDI of \$29,836 per person (in constant 1995/1996 dollars) (year ended December 2009)	Improved since the mid-1990s, higher than the late 1980s	Not measured	Well below OECD median
Income inequality	⊕ The equivalised disposable income of a household at the 80th percentile was 2.5 times larger than the income of a household at the 20th percentile (2009)	Around the same as the mid-1990s	Not relevant	Higher inequality than OECD median (around 2004)
Population with low incomes	⊕ 15 percent of population lives in households with incomes below 60 percent of the 2007 median, after adjusting for housing costs (2009)	Improved considerably since the mid-1990s	Higher rates for children, sole-parent families and large families	Slightly higher than OECD median, using a 50 percent of median measure (2004)
Housing affordability	⊕ 27 percent of all households spend more than 30 percent of income on housing (2009) ⊕ 33 percent of low-income households spend more than 30 percent of income on housing (2009)	Improved from 1998 to 2004, worsened between 2004 and 2007, steady in 2009 Low-income households: improved between 1994 and 2004, steady in 2007 and 2009	Higher proportions for low-income households, Pacific peoples and Other ethnic groups,	No comparison available
Household crowding	⊖ 10 percent of individuals live in households requiring one or more additional bedrooms (2006)	Improved	More common among families with young children, youth, people in rental housing, Māori and Pacific peoples and in Manukau City	No comparison available
Civil and political rights				
Voter turnout (general elections)	⊖ 76 percent of the population eligible to vote (2008)	Fallen	Asian people, the unemployed and people on low incomes less likely to vote	Higher than OECD median for general election
Voter turnout (local authority elections)	⊖ 44 percent of enrolled electors (2007)	Fallen		
Representation of women in government	⊖ 34 percent of seats in Parliament (2008 general election) ⊖ 32 percent of elected members (2007 local authority elections)	Improved Improved	Not relevant	Well above OECD median for women in parliament
Representation of ethnic groups in government	⊖ 25 percent of MPs identified as Māori, Pacific peoples or Asian	Improved	Pacific peoples and Asians under-represented	No comparison available
Perceived discrimination	⊕ Asians most common group perceived to be subject to discrimination (2008) (new) 10 percent of people aged 15 years and over report being discriminated against (2008)	Improved No trend available	Highest for Asians, people on welfare Higher for Asians, Māori, Pacific people, youth, unemployed, sole parents, people in rental housing	Group discrimination: no comparison available Personal discrimination: well below median for 19 European OECD countries
Perceived corruption	⊕ New Zealand ranked first as least corrupt nation with a Corruption Perceptions Index score of 9.4 (2009)	Steady	Not relevant	Well above OECD median

Cultural identity				
Local content programming on New Zealand television	⊕ 39 percent of the prime-time schedule (2009)	Improved	Not relevant	Below average (1999)
Māori language speakers	⊖ 24 percent of Māori report ability to converse in Māori (2006)	Slightly lower in 2006 than in 2001	Speakers more likely to be older	Not relevant
Language retention	⊖ Varied from 16 percent of Cook Islands Māori to 84 percent of Koreans (2006)	Little change for most ethnic groups	Not relevant	No comparison available
Leisure and recreation				
Satisfaction with leisure time	⊖ 75 percent of the population aged 15 years and over are satisfied overall with their leisure time (2008)	Steady	Those aged 25–54 years and Asians report lower satisfaction rates	No comparison available
Participation in physical activity	⊖ 51 percent of the population aged 15 years and over were physically active (age-standardised rate) (2006/2007)	Steady	Women, Asians and older people were less likely to be physically active than men and young people	No comparison available
Participation in arts and cultural activities (new data source)	83 percent of people aged 15 years and over had attended an arts event 48 percent had actively participated in arts and cultural activities	Steady	Attendance lower for Asian people, those with no qualifications; participation higher for Māori, Pacific peoples	Higher than Australia, England, Scotland
Safety				
Assault mortality	⊕ All ages: Age-standardised rate of 1.3 deaths per 100,000 people (2007, provisional) ⊕ Children under 15 years: five-year average annual rate of 0.8 deaths per 100,000 (2003–2007)	Improved since early 1990s Improved	Highest among males, youth aged 15–24 years and Māori	Higher than OECD median, especially for females; no recent comparison for children
Criminal victimisation	⊖ 39 percent of population aged 15 years and over were victims of criminal offending, either as individuals or members of households (2005)	No trend available	Young people, Māori and Pacific peoples more likely to have been a victim of crime	No reliable comparison available
Fear of crime	⊖ 40 percent of adults said that fear of crime had a moderate or high impact on their quality of life (2005)	No trend available	Fear higher among females, Asians, Māori, Pacific peoples and those in socio-economically deprived areas	No comparison available
Road casualties	⊕ 8.9 deaths per 100,000 population (2009) ⊖ 337 injuries per 100,000 population (2009, provisional)	Improved Improved since mid-1980s	High rates among men, young people, Māori and those aged 65 years and over	Road user death rate higher than the OECD median for all ages; highest of 24 OECD countries for children under 15 years and youth 15–17 years

Social connectedness				
Telephone and internet access in the home	☺ 85 percent of adults had the personal use of a mobile phone (2009) ☺ 75 percent of households had internet access (2009)	Big improvement for internet access	Access less likely among Māori and Pacific families, families with unemployed adults and sole-parent families	Well above OECD median for household internet access
Contact with family and friends (new data source)	60 percent of people aged 15 years and over said the amount of contact they have with non-resident family and friends is about right	No trend available	Māori and the unemployed less likely to report the amount of contact was about right	No comparison available
Contact between young people and their parents	☹ 57 percent of secondary school students said they spent enough time with their Mum and/or Dad (2007)	Fallen	Māori, Pacific and Asian students more likely to report not getting enough time with their Mum and/or Dad	No comparison available
Trust in others	☹ 78 percent of people aged 15 years and over reported that people can be trusted (2008)	Steady	Māori, Pacific peoples, Asians and those with incomes less than \$30,000 reported lower levels of trust	Well above the median for 25 European OECD countries
Loneliness	☹ 16 percent of people aged 15 years and over reported having felt lonely in the past 12 months (2008)	Steady	Pacific peoples, Asians, females and people who rated their health as poor reported higher levels of loneliness	No comparison available
Voluntary work	(new) 33 percent of population aged 15 years and over had done voluntary work for a group or organisation in the last four weeks	No trend available	Higher among older people, Pacific people, those with higher education and people with higher incomes	Similar to Australia
Life satisfaction				
Overall life satisfaction	(new) 86 percent of population aged 15 years and over were satisfied with their life overall (2008)	No trend available	Lower for the unemployed, sole parents, people with no qualifications, people in rented housing	Above the OECD median

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Changes to *The Social Report 2010*

Changes made to the domains and indicators used in the report are detailed in the table below.

Table AP1 **Changes to the domains and indicators in *The Social Report 2010***

Outcome domain	Change
Knowledge and skills	In the participation in early childhood education indicator, the first measure is described as the "enrolment rate" (previously "apparent participation rate") for consistency with the Ministry of Education's reporting. The measure itself has not changed.
Paid work	<p>The unemployment and employment indicators in this edition are based on December years. In the 2009 report, data for March years was presented as a temporary measure to capture the initial effect of the economic recession.</p> <p>The workplace injury claims indicator has been renamed work-related injury claims, for consistency with the Statistics New Zealand data source.</p>
Economic standard of living	The market income per person indicator is based on December years, the latest data available at the time of production.
Civil and political rights	<p>The voter turnout indicator includes new information from the New Zealand General Social Survey (NZGSS) on voter characteristics.</p> <p>The perceptions of discrimination indicator includes new information on personal experience of discrimination from the NZGSS</p>
Leisure and recreation	The participation in arts and cultural activities is now based on data from Creative New Zealand's survey, <i>New Zealanders and the arts: Attitudes, attendance and participation in 2008</i> . The content of the indicator has changed accordingly.
Physical environment	<p>The two indicators in this domain – air quality and drinking water quality – have been deleted. Both indicators focus on particular areas of New Zealand and monitoring change at the national level is therefore not feasible. For air quality, it is difficult to estimate the populations affected, and this is a key requirement for a social report. For water quality, there are different levels of monitoring for different sizes of drinking-water supply and this makes it difficult to interpret the data. These indicators fit better in environmental monitoring reports and are reported by other agencies.</p> <p>For the latest environmental health indicators report refer to Ministry of Health. 2009. <i>Environmental Health Indicators for New Zealand 2008</i>. Wellington: Ministry of Health. http://www.moh.govt.nz/moh.nsf/indexmh/environmental-health-indicators-for-nz-2008</p> <p>For the most recent <i>Annual Review of Drinking-Water Quality In New Zealand</i>, see Ministry of Health: http://www.moh.govt.nz/moh.nsf/indexmh/annual-review-drinking-water-quality-nz-2007-08</p> <p>For the most recent environmental indicator report cards for air quality see: Ministry for the Environment. 2010. <i>Environmental Report Cards</i>. http://www.mfe.govt.nz/environmental-reporting/report-cards/</p> <p>Because these two indicators have been deleted and no other suitable indicators could be found in time, there is no Physical Environment domain in this report.</p>
Social connectedness	<p>The telephone and internet access indicator has been updated with household data from the 2009 Household Use of Information and Communications Technology survey.</p> <p>The indicator on regular contact with family or friends has been replaced with data from the New Zealand General Social Survey (NZGSS) and renamed contact with family and friends. The previous measure ("had family or friends over for a meal at least once a month") has been replaced with a subjective measure – that respondents felt the amount of contact they have with friends or family is "about right".</p> <p>A new indicator on voluntary work has been included in this domain, based on NZGSS data.</p>
Life satisfaction	This is a new domain, with one new indicator on overall life satisfaction, based on NZGSS data.

Technical details

In this section we provide detailed information about the data used in the indicators.

We note any data limitations and we provide data sources. For the People section, which uses a wide range of descriptive statistics, we include data sources only. Further information on specific data issues is available in the Endnotes.

People

Data sources:

Population size and growth: Statistics New Zealand, *Estimated resident population, final data for December years (Infoshare series DPE045AA) and at 30 June (Infoshare series DAE017AA, for Figure P1); National Population Projections, 2009(base), mid-range Series 5, assuming medium fertility, medium mortality, long-term annual net migration gain of 10,000, Series 2 (low fertility), assuming medium mortality and net migration gain of 10,000, Series 6 (high migration), assuming medium fertility and mortality.*

Components of population change: Statistics New Zealand, *External Migration Information Release; Infoshare series VTB032AA (natural increase) and ITM048AA (net permanent and long-term migration), arrivals and departures by age and sex, by citizenship, by country of residence; arrivals by country of residence, citizenship and area of New Zealand.*

Overseas-born: Statistics New Zealand (2007) *QuickStats About Culture and Identity: 2006 Census, Tables 6, 7, 12, 13. Correction: In 1996, the proportion of the population born overseas was 17.52 percent, which rounds to 18 percent (incorrectly shown as 17 percent in previous reports).*

Fertility: Statistics New Zealand (2010) *Births and Deaths: December 2009 quarter; Total fertility rate (TFR) and age-specific fertility rates for the total, Māori and non-Māori populations from Infoshare and customised data; Age-specific fertility rates for the major ethnic groups, 2001 and 2006 from Births (website table). International comparison for TFR and teenage (under 20 years) fertility rate – Statistics New Zealand (2010) Demographic Trends 2009, Tables 2.12 and 2.13; Australia: Australian Bureau of Statistics (2009) Births, Australia, 2008, Table 9; Finland: Nordic Council and Nordic Council of Ministers, *Nordic Statistical Yearbook 2009*, p 38 (under 20 years fertility rate); France: Institut national de la statistique et des études économiques (INSEE) (2007) *The French Demographic Situation in 2005: Population changes, Births, Table 42, Fertility rate by mother's age group and marital status, 1960–2005 (under 20 years fertility rate), www.insee.fr (website table: http://www.insee.fr/en/themes/detail.asp?ref_id=ir-sd2005&page=irweb/sd2005/dd/sd2005_nais.htm); Switzerland: Swiss Federal Statistics Office, Live births by age of mother and total fertility rate, 1960–2008, Table T 1.2.2.2.4.2, www.bfs.admin.ch, (website table); UK: United Kingdom Office for National Statistics (2009) *Birth Statistics 2008, Series FM1 No 37, Table 3.1b; US: United States Department of Health and Human Services, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (2010) "Births: Preliminary Data for 2008", National Vital Statistics Report, Volume 58 No 16, April 2010, p 3 (TFR), p 2 (15–19 years fertility rate).***

Geographic distribution of the population: Statistics New Zealand (2002) *2001 Census: Regional Summary, Table 2; Statistics New Zealand (2006) 2006 Census: Regional Summary, Tables 1, 2. Urban/rural distribution: Statistics New Zealand, 2006 Census, unpublished data.*

Ethnic composition: Statistics New Zealand (2010) *National Ethnic Population Projections: 2006(base)–2026 update; Statistics New Zealand, 2006 Census, unpublished data; Statistics New Zealand (2010) Demographic Trends 2009; Statistics New Zealand (2010) Births and Deaths: December 2009 quarter.*

Age and sex structure of the population: Statistics New Zealand (Infoshare), *Estimated resident population by age and sex, final data for December years and at 30 June (for Figure P4); Statistics New Zealand (2009) National Population Projections: 2009(base)–2061, p 6 and Table 3; Median age: Statistics New Zealand, Projected Population Characteristics, 2006(base)–2061 (Table Builder). Median age by ethnic group: Statistics New Zealand (2010) National Ethnic Population Projections: 2006(base)–2026 update, Information Release, 22 April, Tables 3a, 3e, 3m, 3p.*

Household composition: Statistics New Zealand (1998) *1996 Census: Families and Households, Table 1; Statistics New Zealand (2002) 2001 Census of Population and Dwellings: National Summary, Table 36; Statistics New Zealand (2006) 2006 Census, Classification Counts, Table 55.*

Parents with dependent children living in other households: Statistics New Zealand, *General Social Survey 2008 (Table Builder).*

Families with dependent children: Sources for Table P4: *Families with dependent children, by family type, 1976–2006: Statistics New Zealand, 1976, 1981, 1986, unpublished census data; 1991 Census: New Zealanders at Home, Tables 16, 17; 1996 Census: Families and Households, Tables 16, 21, 26; 2001 Census: Families and Households, Tables 13, 24; 2006 Census, unpublished data. Projected share of one-parent families with dependent children: Statistics New Zealand (2010) National Family and Household Projections: 2006(base)–2031 update, p 5 (series 5B). Median age of parents: unpublished census data. International comparison for families with dependent children: UK: United Kingdom Office for National Statistics (2008) *General Social Survey 2006, Table 3.6, Family type, and marital status of lone parents: 1971 to 2006 (families with dependent children under 18); US: United States Census Bureau, Families and Living Arrangements, Historical Table FM2, Family groups with children under 18, Historical Table UC3, Opposite-sex Unmarried Partner Households with Own Children Under 18 (used to adjust 2006 figure to exclude cohabiting parents); Australia: Australian Bureau of Statistics, unpublished data from the 2006 Census (families with dependent children under 18); Canada: Statistics Canada (2007) 2006 Census, Cat. No 97-553-XCB2006022, Families with children under 18; Ireland: Central Statistical Office, Census, 2006, Volume 3: Household composition and family units, Table 34.**

Housing tenure: Statistics New Zealand (2002) *2001 Census: National Summary, Tables 20, 41; Statistics New Zealand (2006) QuickStats About New Zealand's Population and Dwellings, 2006 Census; and unpublished 2006 Census data.*

Official languages: Statistics New Zealand (2007) *QuickStats About Culture and Identity, 2006 Census, Tables 6, 15, 17, 18, 19, 22, 23.*

People with disability: Statistics New Zealand (2007) *2006 Disability Survey, Information Release, data downloaded from Table Builder on Statistics New Zealand website, www.stats.govt.nz, and unpublished customised data.*

Same-sex couples: Statistics New Zealand (2002) *2001 Census: Families and Households, Tables 7, 11; Statistics New Zealand (2006) 2006 Census: Classification Counts, Table 63. Note: The number of adults has been derived by multiplying the number of couples by two. Statistics New Zealand advises: "Care should be taken when analysing family type data for same-sex couples, as the numbers involved are small and the information provided by respondents that was used to derive this data was not always consistent and correct." Information on the sexual orientation of secondary school students from Adolescent Health Research Group (2008) *Youth'07: The Health and Wellbeing of Secondary School Students in New Zealand. Initial Findings p 28.**

Health

H1 Health expectancy

Definition/formulae: The total number of years a newborn can expect to live without any self-reported functional limitation requiring the assistance of another person or a complex assistive device.

The 2006 figures were estimated by Sullivan's method using life tables supplied by Statistics New Zealand and disability rates from the 2006 post-census Disability Survey (supplied by support need level by Statistics New Zealand).

Limitations of data: The ability to monitor health expectancy on a regular basis depends on the availability of mortality and disability data (the latter from the post-census Disability Survey). Both variables are required by narrow age group (at least 10-year age groups), sex and ethnicity, and the disability prevalence data is required by support need level. Hence both mortality and disability data is subject to smoothing before it can be used in the Sullivan life table. Comparability of the disability data over time cannot be guaranteed, even though efforts are made to ensure the comparability of the disability survey from wave to wave.

Data source: Ministry of Health.

H2 Life expectancy

Definition/formulae: The expected number of years a person would live if they were subject throughout their lives to the current age-specific mortality rates.

Note: Ethnic-specific estimates from the Ministry of Health for the period 1980–1982 to 1995–1997 have been adjusted for undercounting in the ethnic mortality statistics by linking census to mortality records. The figures differ from those published by Statistics New Zealand for the same period.

The analysis associating life expectancy with levels of deprivation is based on the NZDep2006, a small-area index of deprivation based on a principal-component analysis of nine socio-economic variables from the 2006 Census. The index has been converted to a scale ranging from 1 to 10, where 1 represents the least deprived 10 percent of small areas, and 10 represents the most deprived 10 percent. The small areas are about the size of a census meshblock and have populations of approximately 100 people.

In the international comparison section, New Zealand's ranking in 1960/1961 is based on complete period life table data for 1960–1962 (the 1961 figure in the OECD data). In addition, Canada and Italy are included in the comparison, using 1961 data. For all other countries, 1960 data is used. As a result of these changes, New Zealand's ranking is slightly different from that shown in social reports from 2004 to 2007.

Limitations of data: Available annually only for the total population. Official Māori/non-Māori data is available five-yearly only, based on a three-year period centred on census years.

Data sources: Statistics New Zealand (2010) *New Zealand Abridged Life Tables: 2007–2009*; Statistics New Zealand (2009) *New Zealand Life Tables: 2005–07, Table 2.01, and unpublished data for life expectancy by deprivation decile*; Statistics New Zealand (2010) *Births and Deaths: December 2009 quarter, Information Release*. Ministry of Health (ethnic-specific data for 1985–1987, 1990–1992); Ministry of Health (1999) *Our Health, Our Future: Hauora Pakari, Kōiora Roa, The Health of New Zealanders 1999, Chapter 2*. OECD (2010) *OECD Health Data 2010, June 2010, Life expectancy at birth*.

H3 Suicide

Definition/formulae: The number of suicide deaths per 100,000 population.

Age-standardised to the World Health Organization standard population.

Note: The figures for 2007 are provisional and subject to revision.

Limitations of data: Because suicide is a relatively rare event in statistical terms, rates of suicide death can vary markedly from year to year. Any interpretation of trends requires an examination of rates over several years. Deaths by suicide are subject to a coroner's inquiry and can only be officially deemed suicide once an inquest is complete. This means there can be a considerable delay in the publication of the final statistics.

Where populations are small, the suicide death rate can be greatly inflated by one or two deaths.

Data on intentional self-harm hospitalisations provide an incomplete picture of self-harm events. The data is available only for those admitted to hospital as inpatients or day patients for self-inflicted injury. Those cared for in hospital but not admitted and those cared for by primary or community care services are not reported. Also excluded are people re-admitted for intentional self-harm within two days of a previous such admission (Ministry of Health, 2009, p 23). As the motivation for intentional self-harm varies, hospitalisation data is not a measure of suicide attempts (Ministry of Health, 2009, p 41).

Comparability over time is affected by a change in the population concept in 1991 (from de facto to resident). Because of a change in the ethnicity classification in 1995, comparable data is available only from 1996 onwards. Ethnic-specific mortality data is subject to some uncertainty due to the differences in collection across different providers. Ethnic-specific data in New Zealand is also subject to uncertainty because of the small numbers in non-European ethnic groups. The small numbers tend to distort the rates used to compare populations.

A comparison of international trends in suicide death is problematic due to the different methods used to classify suicide. The New Zealand age-standardised rate in the international comparison data has been calculated in a manner consistent with the international figures available, and may differ slightly from the rates presented elsewhere (Ministry of Health, 2009, p 20).

Data sources: Ministry of Health (2009) *Suicide Facts: Deaths and intentional self-harm hospitalisations 2007*; Ministry of Health (unpublished tables); Ministry of Health (2006) *Suicide Facts: Provisional 2003 All-ages Statistics*. Beautrais (2000) *Restricting Access to Means of Suicide in New Zealand: A Report Prepared for the Ministry of Health on Methods of Suicide in New Zealand*. World Health Organization (2004).

H4 Cigarette smoking

Definition/formulae: The proportion of the population who currently smoke cigarettes. Up to 2005, the survey population was people aged 15 years and over (ACNielsen survey). From 2006, the survey population is people aged 15–64 years (New Zealand Tobacco Use Survey, New Zealand Health Survey).

From 2006, a current smoker is someone who has smoked more than 100 cigarettes in their lifetime and at the time of the survey was smoking at least once a month.

The historic rates are all crude rates. Up until 2005, information on smoking prevalence was collected from quarterly surveys conducted by ACNielsen Ltd and reported by the Ministry of Health. In 2006 the data came from the New Zealand Tobacco Use Survey (Nztus) which was run for the first time in the first quarter of 2006 and again in the first half of 2008 and 2009. The 2006/2007 data comes from the New Zealand Health Survey conducted by the Ministry of Health. Data presented here may differ from previous reports, as data from the 2006 Nztus and the 2006/2007 New Zealand Health Survey has been re-analysed using the same methodology.

The proportion of current smokers aged 15 years and over in 2008 has been estimated using the 2008 Nztus data for 15–64 year olds and an estimate (adjusted for gender and ethnic group) based on the 2006/2007 New Zealand Health Survey for those aged 65 years and over.

Age-standardised rates use the WHO world standard population.

Limitations of data: The international comparison is affected by differences in the collection and classification of the data.

The classification of ethnicity information changed from 1997 onwards. Therefore, ethnic-specific data before and after 1997 may not be comparable.

Data sources: Ministry of Health, media release, 1 April 2010, "Smoking rates track down"; Ministry of Health (2009) *Tobacco Trends 2008: A brief update of tobacco use in New Zealand*; Ministry of Health (2008) *A Portrait of Health 2008*. Paynter J (2010) *National Year 10 ASH Snapshot Survey, 1999–2009: Trends in tobacco use by students aged 14–15 years, Tables 3a, 4 and 6, pp 21 and 23*. OECD (2010) *OECD Health Data 2010, June 2010, Tobacco consumption: percentage of population 15+ who are daily smokers*. Statistics New Zealand (2010) *Alcohol and Tobacco Available for Consumption, Year Ended December 2009, Information Release*; Statistics New Zealand, *Infoshare series SEP012AA; estimated resident population, mean for the year ended 31 December*.

H5 Obesity

Definition/formulae: The proportion of the population aged 15 years and over who are obese, as measured in the 1997 National Nutrition Survey and the 2002/2003 and 2006/2007 New Zealand Health Survey; and the proportion of children aged 5–14 years who are obese, as measured in the 2002 National Children's Nutrition Survey and the 2006/2007 New Zealand Health Survey.

Body mass index (BMI) is a measure of weight adjusted for height, and is calculated by dividing weight in kilograms by height in metres squared (kg/m^2). For all adults aged 18 years and over, the World Health Organization defines obesity as having a BMI greater than or equal to $30 \text{ kg}/\text{m}^2$ (WHO 2000). For participants under 18 years, BMI cut-off points developed by the International Taskforce on Obesity (IOTF) have been used to define obesity (Cole et al 2000). The IOTF BMI cut-off points are sex and age-specific, and have been designed to coincide with the WHO BMI cut-off points for overweight and obesity. In compliance with international practice, the same cut-off points have been used for all ethnic groups (Ministry of Health, 2008, A Portrait of Health, pp 104, 105).

Data presented here may differ from previous reports, as data from the 1997 National Nutrition Survey and the 2002/2003 New Zealand Health Survey has been re-analysed using the same methodology. In past surveys, higher BMI cut-off points were used to classify Māori and Pacific peoples aged 18 years and over as obese (greater than or equal to $32 \text{ kg}/\text{m}^2$). When international BMI cut-off points are adopted for all adults aged 18 years and over, the proportion of Māori and Pacific adults classified as obese is approximately 11 percentage points higher, and the proportion of all adults classified as obese is 2 percentage points higher. For more information about BMI calculations using the New Zealand Health Survey, see Ministry of Health (2008) Body Size Technical Report: Measurements and classifications in the 2006/07 New Zealand Health Survey.

Limitations of data: BMI cut-offs are intended to identify populations at increased risk of poor health conditions associated with excess body fat, not to measure body fatness as such.

The data for Australia is for the population aged 18 years and over.

Data sources: Ministry of Health (2008) A Portrait of Health. Key Results of the 2006/07 New Zealand Health Survey. OECD (2010) OECD Health Data 2010, June 2010, Obese population, measured percentage of total population. Australian Bureau of Statistics (2009) National Health Survey: Summary of Results, 2007–2008 (Reissue), Data cubes, Measured Body Mass Index—2007–08 and 1995.

H6 Potentially hazardous drinking

Definition/formulae: Potentially hazardous drinking is defined as the proportion of the population aged 15 years and over who drink alcohol, who scored eight or more on the Alcohol Use Disorders Identification Test (AUDIT). AUDIT is a 10-item questionnaire covering alcohol consumption, alcohol-related problems and abnormal drinking behaviour. It was developed by the World Health Organization as a screening tool for health professionals to identify people at risk of developing alcohol problems. Each question is scored from zero to four, so the questionnaire has a maximum score of 40. Potentially hazardous drinking is defined as an established pattern of drinking that carries a high risk of future damage to physical or mental health, but has not yet resulted in significant adverse affects. It is commonly identified from an AUDIT score of eight or more.

Information on hazardous drinking is based on the 1996/1997, 2002/2003 and 2006/2007 New Zealand Health Survey.

Limitations of data: The information is self-reported and information from a sample survey is subject to sampling error. This has been minimised where possible and all differences commented on have been found to be significant using 95 percent confidence intervals. Data presented here may differ from previous reports on potentially hazardous drinking, as data from the 1996/1997 and 2002/2003 New Zealand Health Survey has been re-analysed using the same methodology as that used for the 2006/2007 New Zealand Health Survey. For further information on the analysis of the New Zealand Health Survey, see Ministry of Health (2008) Methodology report for the 2006/2007 New Zealand Health Survey.

As men and women have been assigned the same cut-off score, this may underestimate potentially hazardous drinking in women, who generally have lower alcohol tolerance than men (Alcohol Advisory Council of New Zealand 2008).

Data sources: Ministry of Health (2008) A Portrait of Health. Key Results of the 2006/07 New Zealand Health Survey. OECD (2010) OECD Health Data 2010, June 2010, Non-medical determinants of health, Alcohol consumption per capita, population aged 15 and over.

Knowledge and skills

K1 Participation in early childhood education

Definition/formulae: The number of enrolments of children aged 3 and 4 years in licensed early childhood education services as a proportion of all 3 and 4 year olds.

Over 90 percent of early childhood education (ECE) enrolments of children aged 3 and 4 years are in licensed services. Licensed services include kindergartens, playcentres, education and care services, te kōhanga reo, home-based services and the Correspondence School. Children enrolled in more than one early childhood service will be double-counted. We include an alternative measure which avoids double counting – the proportion of new school entrants (Year 1 students) reporting regular participation in early childhood education immediately before starting school.

Limitations of data: Children may be enrolled in more than one ECE service. The enrolment rates may therefore be inflated. Neither measure provides information on the length of participation or on the quality of the programmes, both of which are relevant to positive educational outcomes.

The indicator has changed to include licensed services only. This is because of inconsistencies over time in the licence-exempt data. As a result of this change, enrolment rates are slightly lower than those published in previous social reports. In 2009, 90 percent of early childhood education enrolments of children aged 3 and 4 years were in licensed services.

Data sources: Ministry of Education: *Number of Enrolments in Licensed Early Childhood Education Services by Age (1997–2009)*; *Number of Enrolments in Licensed Early Childhood Education Service by Age, Gender and Type of Service (2009)*; *Percentage of Year 1 students who attended early childhood education services, 2000–2009*; Ministry of Education (various years) *Education Statistics of New Zealand, Education Statistics News Sheet, Volume 10 No 1, March 2001*.

K2 School leavers with higher qualifications

Definition/formulae: The proportion of secondary school leavers who left school with a qualification at National Certificate of Educational Achievement (NCEA) Level 2 or above.

In Figure K2.1, the data up to 2002 includes school leavers with:

- National Certificate Level 4
- A or B Bursary / National Certificate Level 3
- Entrance Qualification / 42 or more credits
National Certificate Level 3 or above / Accelerated Christian Education Certificate or overseas award at Year 13 Level
- Higher School Certificate / 14–41 credits
National Certificate Level 3 or above
- National Certificate Level 2 / 1–13 credits
National Certificate Level 3 or above.

The data for 2003 also includes leavers who attained NCEA Level 2.

From 2005, the data includes qualifications at NCEA Level 2 or above.

Limitations of data: School leaver data collection was changed as a result of the introduction of NCEA in 2002. A direct comparison cannot be made between rates up to and including 2002 with rates for 2003 on, due to the change in the qualification structure. Previous qualifications, such as School Certificate, were awarded to students if they had completed the assessment and met attendance requirements, independent of the grade awarded. The new qualification structure is designed to award students credits when they have met achievement rather than participation criteria.

For this indicator, ethnicity is prioritised in the order of Māori, Pacific, Asian, MELAA, other groups except European, and European.

Data sources: Ministry of Education (various years) *Education Statistics of New Zealand*; Ministry of Education, Education Counts website: *Indicators, Education and Learning, Qualifications, School leavers with NCEA Level 2 or above, and Statistics, School leavers*; unpublished data from the Ministry of Education.

K3 Participation in tertiary education

Definition/formulae: Participation in tertiary education is calculated by the number of students aged 15 years and over enrolled with a tertiary education provider (see below) in formal qualifications (or programmes of study) of greater than 0.03 equivalent full-time tertiary study at any time during the year. The data excludes all non-formal learning, on-the-job industry training and private training establishments that did not receive tuition subsidies. Domestic students only are included.

Modern Apprenticeship students and other industry trainees who are doing courses that fit into the above definition are included in the statistics (typically, doing block courses at a polytechnic). If their learning is totally on the job, they will not be included.

Community education courses are excluded from the statistics.

Public tertiary education institutions include: universities, polytechnics and wānanga. Formerly, they also included colleges of education but these were disestablished between 1992 and 2006. Private tertiary education providers include: private providers receiving a tuition subsidy and private providers receiving a grant as a result of a decision by the Minister of Education.

As in the 2009 social report, age-standardised rates have been used in the current level and trends section, and the sex and ethnic group differences sections. In social reports up to 2008, age-standardised rates were reported only for ethnic group differences.

The data in this report relates to students enrolled at any time during the year (from 1994). In social reports up to 2006, it related to students enrolled at 31 July in each year.

Limitations of data: Changes in the number of institutions, the status of institutions, and the types of courses offered affect comparisons over time.

Students who were enrolled in more than one qualification level have been counted in each level. Consequently, the sum of the students in each level may not add to the total number of students.

Students who identify with more than one ethnic group have been counted in each group. Consequently, the sum of the students in each ethnic group may not add to the total number of students.

Correction: In The Social Report 2009, there was an error in the last sentence, referring to participation in tertiary education among older adults. In 2006, New Zealand's participation in education at ages 30–39 years was 1.4 times higher than the median for 29 OECD countries, and at ages 40 and over, it was 2.4 times higher than the median for 26 countries.

Data sources: Ministry of Education, Education Counts website, Statistics, Tertiary, Participation, Provider-based enrolments, Table ENR.7, Participation rates, Tables PPN.1 and PPN.14, downloaded from www.educationcounts.govt.nz on 2 June 2010, and backdated data from Ministry of Education. OECD (2009) Education at a Glance 2009, Table C1.1.

K4 Educational attainment of the adult population

Definition/formulae: The proportion of adults aged 25–64 years with an educational attainment of (1) at least upper secondary school level, and (2) bachelor's degree or higher. At least upper secondary school level includes any formal qualification at NCEA Level 1 (or its predecessor, School Certificate) or higher. Bachelor's degree or higher includes bachelor's degrees, postgraduate certificates or diplomas, master's degrees, and doctorates.

Note: This definition was introduced in the 2009 edition of the social report. It differs from the definition used in previous editions where "upper secondary school level" was defined as Level 3 and above of the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED 1997). Because of a revision to this classification, qualifications such as New Zealand's NCEA Level 1 and School Certificate are not counted as "upper secondary education" attainment in the 2008 and 2009 editions of OECD's indicator report, *Education at a Glance*, the source of data for the international differences section. As a result of the classification revision, the figure reported in *Education at a Glance 2008* for the proportion of New Zealand adults with at least upper secondary level qualifications in 2006 (69 percent) was lower than the figures reported in previous editions of *Education at a Glance* and the social report.

In this report, the data for all years up to 2008 has been revised by Statistics New Zealand and does not match that published in *The Social Report 2009*.

Limitations of data: The data is subject to periodic revision because of changes to the ISCED classification.

The international comparison of the adult population with "at least upper secondary education" should be viewed with caution. There are substantial differences in the typical duration of ISCED Level 3 programmes between countries, ranging from two to five years of secondary schooling. The tertiary-type A (bachelor's degree and above) comparison is more robust.

A major change in coding ethnicity in the Household Labour Force Survey occurred in the December 2007 quarter. In this indicator, we have used "total response" ethnicity output; people who reported more than one ethnic group are counted once in each group reported. This means that the total number of responses for all ethnic groups can be greater than the total number of people who stated their ethnicities. Ethnic group data from earlier quarters are concorded on a "best fit" basis and may not be directly comparable. People responding "New Zealander" from the December 2007 quarter are coded in Other. Before that quarter, they were coded in European.

Statistical weights used to rate sample data up to population estimates are updated every five years following each population census. This requires a revision of historical data. The latest revision was in April 2009.

Data sources: Statistics New Zealand, *Household Labour Force Survey*, unpublished tables. OECD (2009) *Education at a Glance 2009*, Tables A1.2a, A1.2b, A1.2c (at least upper secondary education) and A1.3a, A1.3b, A1.3c (tertiary-type A and advanced research programmes), downloaded 5 May 2010, via Statlink on p 38 of the online edition of *Education at a Glance 2009*.

K5 Adult literacy skills in English

Definition/formulae: The proportion of the population aged 16–65 years with higher literacy skills in English (defined as skills at Level 3 or above), as measured in the 1996 International Adult Literacy Survey (IALS) and the 2006 Adult Literacy and Life Skills Survey (ALL). Prose and document literacy were measured in both surveys; numeracy was measured in the ALL survey only.

The achievement attained in each of the literacy domains is grouped into one of five “skill levels”. Level 1 represents the lowest ability range and Level 5 the highest. Level 3 is considered a suitable minimum for coping with the demands of everyday life and work in a complex, advanced society. It denotes roughly the skill level required for successful secondary school completion and university entry. Like the higher levels, it requires the ability to integrate several sources of information and solve more complex problems.

Limitations of data: The timing of the surveys is not consistent between countries. The first international adult literacy survey was conducted in 1994/1995; the New Zealand survey took place in 1996. Not all countries participated in the ALL Survey, which was conducted in New Zealand in 2006.

Data sources: Satherley P, Lawes E and Sok S (2008) *The Adult Literacy and Life Skills (ALL) Survey: Overview and International Comparisons*; Satherley P and Lawes E (2008) *The Adult Literacy and Life Skills (ALL) Survey: Age and Literacy*; Satherley P and Lawes E (2008) *The Adult Literacy and Life Skills (ALL) Survey: Gender, Ethnicity and Literacy*; and customised unpublished data.

Paid work

PW1 Unemployment

Definition/formulae: The unemployment rate is the number of people aged 15 years and over who are not employed and who are actively seeking and available for paid work, expressed as a percentage of the total labour force, as measured by the Household Labour Force Survey.

The labour force is defined as the population aged 15 years and over who are either employed or unemployed.

The unemployed are defined in the Household Labour Force Survey as those who are without a paid job (or unpaid work in a relative’s business) and who have actively sought work in the four weeks before the survey, who are available to take work or have a new job to start within the next four weeks. “Actively seeking” includes any actions such as contacting an employer, asking friends and relatives and contacting an employment agency or Work and Income but excludes those who have only checked newspaper advertisements.

Harmonised unemployment rates used for international comparison are seasonally-adjusted rates. Harmonised unemployment rates were previously termed Standardised unemployment rates.

Limitations of data: Data is based on a sample survey and is therefore subject to sampling error. The definition of the unemployed excludes some people who regard themselves as unemployed, including the “discouraged unemployed” – those not meeting the “actively seeking work” criterion. This group is classified in the “not in the labour force” category. The unemployment rate also excludes those who have part-time employment but who are seeking to work more hours.

Statistical weights used to rate sample data up to population estimates are updated every five years following each population census, requiring a revision of historical data. In April 2009, the Household Labour Force Survey (HLFS) was revised back to the start of the survey (March 1986). As a result, some figures published in this report may not match figures published in earlier editions of the social report.

A major change in coding ethnicity in the HLFs occurred in the December 2007 quarter. In this indicator, we have used “total response” ethnicity output; people who reported more than one ethnic group are counted once in each group reported. This means that the total number of responses for all ethnic groups can be greater than the total number of people who stated their ethnicities. Ethnic group data from earlier quarters are concorded on a “best fit” basis and may not be directly comparable. People responding “New Zealander” from the December 2007 quarter are coded in Other. Before that quarter, they were coded in European.

Data sources: Statistics New Zealand, Household Labour Force Survey, customised data and downloads from Infoshare at www.stats.govt.nz. OECD Frequently Requested Statistics, Harmonised Unemployment Rate, downloaded from www.oecd.org on 30 April 2010; OECD (2010) OECD Employment Outlook 2010, Statistical Annex, Table H: Incidence of long-term unemployment, p 292.

PW2 Employment

Definition/formulae: The employment rate is the proportion of the population aged 15–64 years employed for at least one hour per week, as measured by the Household Labour Force Survey. The employed are those who worked for pay or profit for one hour or more in the week before the survey or who worked unpaid in a relative’s business or who have a job but did not work that week because of leave, sickness or industrial disputes.

The indicator relates to the population aged 15–64 years, rather than to those aged 15 years and over. As well as capturing the main working ages, restricting the subject population to ages 15–64 years helps adjust for differences in age structure between males and females, between ethnic groups, and between populations in different countries.

Limitations of data: Data is based on a sample survey and is therefore subject to sampling error. The definition of employment includes those working one hour or more a week, so this will include some people who are likely to regard their status as closer to unemployment than to employment. For example, people on the unemployment benefit and searching for work but working a few hours a week will be counted as employed.

Statistical weights used to rate sample data up to population estimates are updated every five years following each population census. This requires a revision of historical data. In April 2009, the Household Labour Force Survey (HLFS) was revised back to the start of the survey (March 1986). As a result, some figures published in this report may not match figures published in earlier editions of the social report.

Data sources: Statistics New Zealand, Household Labour Force Survey, customised data and downloads from Infoshare at www.stats.govt.nz. OECD (2010) OECD Employment Outlook 2010, Statistical Annex, Table B: Employment/population ratios, activity and unemployment rates, persons aged 15–64 years, p 271.

PW3 Median hourly earnings

Definition/formulae: Median hourly earnings from all wages and salaries for employees aged 15 years and over earning income from wage and salary jobs, as measured by the New Zealand Income Survey, adjusted for inflation.

The survey is an annual supplement to the Household Labour Force Survey.

Limitations of data: The final data set consists of approximately 28,000 valid person records including 4,000 imputed person records. Hourly earnings relate to the number of hours usually worked and the usual income rather than to the number of hours actually worked and the actual income. Proxy interviewing may be used to collect data on income under certain circumstances. Estimates from sample surveys are subject to error.

Data sources: Statistics New Zealand (2009) *New Zealand Income Survey, June 2009 quarter; June 1997 quarter to June 2009 quarter Table 10 (rebased); June 2008 quarter Table 11a (unpublished), June 2009 quarter Table 11, and unpublished data derived by the Ministry of Social Development; Statistics New Zealand, Consumer Price Index, All groups plus interest, Infoshare Table CPI017AA.*

PW4 Work-related injury claims

Definition/formulae: The number of work-related injury claims reported to the ACC per 1,000 full-time equivalent employees (one part-time employee = 0.5 full-time employee).

Full-time equivalent employee data is as estimated by Statistics New Zealand's Household Labour Force Survey.

Limitations of data: The data does not include work-related accidents where no claim was made to the ACC. Claims are included in the data under the calendar year in which the injury occurred. The final data contains claims where some costs were recorded within 15 months of the end of the calendar year. The provisional data contains claims where some costs were recorded within three months of the end of the calendar year. In some cases, there are delays between the accident happening and the claim being reported to the ACC. Claims made more than 15 months after the accident will not be included in the final data. The final figures generally increase from the provisional figures as the final figures include a longer reporting period. For example, there were 231,300 injuries reported for the 2007 calendar year by March 2008, and 235,000 for the same year by March 2009, an increase of 2 percent.

Information on work-related injuries for 2005, 2006 and 2007 is based on a new set of indicators developed by Statistics New Zealand. Comparable figures are available for 2002–2004 after the data was revised by Statistics New Zealand in 2006, but information from these years is not directly comparable with previous figures on work-related injuries.

Data sources: Statistics New Zealand (2009) *Injury Statistics – Work-related Claims: 2008, Information Release; Statistics New Zealand (2004) Injury Statistics 2003: Claims for Work-related Injuries, Information Release.*

PW5 Satisfaction with work-life balance

Definition/formulae: The proportion of employed people who are “satisfied” or “very satisfied” with their work-life balance according to the Quality of Life Survey.

The survey was commissioned by 12 of New Zealand’s cities and districts, in partnership with the Ministry of Social Development, to monitor trends in wellbeing. The total (national) sample size in the 2008 survey was 8,155, which has a maximum margin of error of +/- 1.1 percent at the 95 percent confidence interval. Interviews were conducted to meet gender, ethnicity, age and ward/region quotas to ensure the sample was representative of the New Zealand population as a whole. The response rate was 37 percent.

Limitations of data: Subjective measures of wellbeing reflect people’s perceptions of their own situation, which may differ from their objective status.

Note: Ethnicity is based on multiple responses and is sourced from unpublished tables produced by the Ministry of Social Development.

Data source: Quality of Life Project (2009).

Economic standard of living

EC1 Market income per person

Definition/formulae: Real Gross National Disposable Income (RGNDI) measures the real purchasing power of national disposable income. It takes into account changes in the terms of trade and real gains from net investment and transfer income with the rest of the world. GNDI is Gross National Income (GNI), plus net international transfers. Real Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per person (as used in the OECD comparisons) is real income produced inside the New Zealand economic boundary, excluding the international transfers included in GNDI.

Derivation of RGNDI: In the published tables, RGNDI is calculated as follows:

Chain-volume gross domestic product (production-based measure), plus
Real trading gain/loss, plus
Real total net investment income, plus
Real total net transfers.

Real trading gain/loss is defined as current price exports deflated by an imports implicit price index less the chain-volume measure of exports. Real total net investment income equals investment income credits less investment income debits, both deflated by an imports implicit price index. Real net transfers equals transfers credits less transfers debits, both deflated by an imports implicit price index.

Limitations of data: Major limitations to the use of RGNDI as an indicator of wellbeing include its failure to include non-marketed (and, therefore, non-priced) activities (barring the exception of imputed rentals on owner-occupied dwellings). RGNDI provides no information on income distribution. Finally, evidence suggests monetary measures have a very weak cross-sectional and a limited time series correlation with self-assessed measures of wellbeing.

There is a discontinuity between 1991 and 1992 due to a change of population series from de facto population to resident population.

Note: The use of real GDP for OECD comparisons may overstate New Zealand’s relative position because of New Zealand’s growing and high per capita net external debt.

Data sources: Statistics New Zealand, Rolling RGNDI per capita, customised data (available from Infoshare from 25 June 2010: SNCQ.S6RB07NZ); Statistics New Zealand (2001) *Measuring Unpaid Work in New Zealand 1999*, Table 1 p 15, Table 4 p 17. OECD, *Gross domestic product (expenditure approach)*, Table HCPC, per head at current prices and current PPPs (US dollars), and Table HVPVOB, per head at the price levels and PPPs of 2000 (US dollars), downloaded from OECD Stat on 7 August 2010; OECD (2010) *OECD Factbook 2010: Economic, Environmental and Social Statistics*, Table 37: Gross national income per capita.

EC2 Income inequality

Definition/formulae: The ratio of the 80th percentile of equivalised disposable household income to the 20th percentile of equivalised disposable household income, when individuals are ranked by their household incomes. This indicator takes into account household size and composition. For international comparisons, we have compared Gini coefficients.

Adjustment for household size and composition was made using the 1988 Revised Jensen Equivalence Scale.

Limitations of data: International comparisons have been made with data from years around 2004.

Note in relation to the income inequality, population with low incomes, and housing affordability indicators: The figures for 2008 published in The Social Report 2009 have been omitted in this 2010 report as a significant issue was discovered with the calculated disposable income variable in Statistics New Zealand's 2007/2008 Household Economic Survey (HES) Taxwell data. Initial investigations suggest the issue arose from the modelled Accommodation Supplement amounts used in calculating the household income variable. This led to household disposable incomes for that year being understated for many low-income households. Therefore the figures reported in The Social Report 2009 were inflated for the 2008 year. Statistics New Zealand and the Ministry of Social Development are working with the Treasury to address the issue so we can use 2008 HES data in the future for time series reporting. For further details, see Perry (2010) Household Incomes in New Zealand: trends in indicators of inequality and hardship, 1982 to 2009.

Data sources: Statistics New Zealand Household Economic Survey (Access to the data used in this study was provided by Statistics New Zealand under conditions designed to give effect to the confidentiality provisions of the Statistics Act 1975. The results presented in this study are the work of the Ministry of Social Development). Perry B (2010) Household incomes in New Zealand: trends in indicators of inequality and hardship, 1982 to 2009. Source for international comparisons: OECD (2008) *Growing Unequal: income distribution and poverty in OECD countries*.

EC3 Population with low incomes

Definition/formulae: The income measure used is equivalised disposable household income after deducting housing costs. Equivalised disposable household income is the total income from all sources for all individuals in the household, after deducting tax, adding tax credits and adjusting for household size and composition.

The adjustment for household size and composition is based on the 1988 Revised Jensen Equivalence Scale.

Housing costs is the sum of annualised accommodation expenditure (includes mortgage payments (principal and interest), payments to local authorities, property rent, rent of a private dwelling, boarding house and student accommodation not paid with formal fees). In this indicator the Accommodation Supplement is counted as income.

Individuals are ranked by their household's equivalised disposable income (after deducting housing costs).

The two low-income thresholds used are of the "fixed line" type, set at 50 percent and 60 percent of the 2007 median household disposable income, less 25 percent to allow for average housing costs. The two thresholds are held constant in real terms by an adjustment using the CPI. A "fixed line" measure of the proportion of the population in households with low incomes gives an indication of how low-income households are faring relative to their counterparts at other times. (See Perry (2010) for further details, especially Appendices 4 and 5.)

Individuals are grouped according to selected individual, family or household characteristics for the different analyses. For this indicator, family means one-parent or two-parent families with dependent children, whether living in a separate household or with others in a wider household.

In 2007 and 2009 the Other ethnic group includes the category "New Zealander".

The methodology used to calculate the figures used in the international comparison section follows that used by the OECD: the income concept is equivalised household disposable income; the equivalence scale is the square root scale (ie equivalence scale elasticity = 0.5); equivalent household income is attributed to all individuals in the household; individuals are ranked by their attributed equivalent disposable income to get the median for that year; the threshold is set at 50 percent of this (contemporary) median, a "moving line" approach. There is no adjustment for housing costs.

Note re Table EC3.1: The data is for March years in 1986–1998, and June years in 2001, 2004, 2007 and 2009. In this table, children refers to dependent children aged under 18 years and not in full-time employment (sourced from Perry, 2010, Tables G.2 and G.4).

Limitations of data: The equivalised disposable income measure (whether before or after deducting housing costs) is taken as an indicator of a household's access to economic resources or of its potential living standards, all else being equal. The measure is an imperfect indicator of actual living standards, which are influenced by factors other than current income and housing cost. People with the same current income level can have different standards of living as a result of their different net assets, the extent to which they receive assistance from others, and the extent to which they have atypical expenditure commitments (eg unusually high medical costs, debt repayments, transport costs and electricity costs). People who experience a lengthy period of very low income are likely to have different life outcomes to those who experience only a transient episode.

Since 1994 the trend for those of Other ethnicity has been volatile, but up to 2004 the trends for Māori and Pacific peoples have moved in the expected positive direction and were consistent with information from other data sources. Reporting by ethnicity in these circumstances was considered to be justified. The volatility of the trend for those of Other ethnicity was explained in a footnote. Analysis of the 2007 Household Economic Survey data showed a very large improvement for Pacific peoples and for those in the Other ethnic grouping compared with 2004, while for Māori there was no measurable change. These results did not align with the information sources used for a cross-check. The Ministry of Social Development considered it would be misleading to report these improvements, as the small overall sample numbers for these groups and the decreasing numbers below the low-income threshold combine to increase the sampling error to unacceptable levels. The population with low incomes indicator, therefore, does not include a breakdown by ethnicity. Instead, it includes trends in median household incomes that show less volatility while still giving an idea of the relativities between ethnic groups.

The population with low incomes indicator uses two low-income thresholds of the “fixed line” type. Previous social reports have used 1998 as the reference year with thresholds set at 50 percent and 60 percent of the 1998 median household disposable income, less 25 percent to allow for average housing costs. The two thresholds are held constant in real terms for both the following and previous years by an adjustment using the CPI. The rationale for a “fixed line” approach is to set acceptable ‘relative’ thresholds in a reference year (such as the 50 percent and 60 percent of median thresholds used in the social report), then to track changes from that time to show how those in low-income households are faring compared with their counterparts in previous years. Once the thresholds move too far from the original relative settings, the reference year needs to be changed. Median household incomes have risen much more quickly than the CPI since 1998 which means the thresholds are now well below their original 50 percent and 60 percent settings. In 2009, the 1998 based low-income thresholds were equivalent to 47 percent and 39 percent of the 2009 median respectively. With the median likely to continue rising more quickly than the CPI in the next few years, these figures will fall even further. For The Social Report 2010 and for those in the next few years, the reference year will be 2007. Changing the reference year from 1998 to 2007 systematically raises the reported proportion of the population below the two thresholds, but does not alter the trends that show whether low-income households have fared better or worse in comparison to their counterparts in earlier years. For further details, see Perry (2010) Household Incomes in New Zealand: trends in indicators of inequality and hardship, 1982 to 2009.

For note relating to 2008 data, see Technical details for the income inequality indicator.

Data sources: Statistics New Zealand Household Economic Survey (Access to the data used in this study was provided by Statistics New Zealand under conditions designed to give effect to the confidentiality provisions of the Statistics Act 1975. The results presented in this study are the work of the Ministry of Social Development). Perry B (2010) Household incomes in New Zealand: trends in indicators of inequality and hardship, 1982 to 2009, Table F.6. Source for international comparisons: OECD (2008) Growing Unequal: income distribution and poverty in OECD countries.

EC4 Housing affordability

Definition/formulae: The proportion of households and the proportion of people within households with housing cost outgoings-to-income ratio greater than 30 percent of disposable income.

Household incomes have been equivalised using the 1988 Revised Jensen Equivalence Scale.

Housing costs are the sum of annualised accommodation expenditure (includes mortgage payments (principal and interest), payments to local authorities, property rent, rent of a private dwelling, boarding house and student accommodation not paid with formal fees). In this indicator the Accommodation Supplement is counted as income.

Limitations of data: Measures of housing affordability do not shed light on the issues of housing quality, suitability or sustainability; nor do they explain why affordability problems may exist, or the extent to which inadequate housing is occupied to avoid affordability problems. Furthermore, marginally-housed families are often hidden from official statistics and are not counted among those with an affordability problem.

Household ethnicity is defined in this indicator by the presence of an adult of a particular ethnic group. The figures for households defined in this way are not mutually exclusive. In 2007 and 2009, the Other ethnic group includes the category “New Zealander”.

For note relating to 2008 data, see Technical details for the income inequality indicator.

Data source: Derived from the Statistics New Zealand Household Economic Survey by the Ministry of Social Development. Perry B (2010) *Household incomes in New Zealand: trends in indicators of inequality and hardship, 1982 to 2009*, Table C2 p 45.

EC5 Household crowding

Definition/formulae: The Canadian National Occupancy standard sets the bedroom requirements of a household according to the following compositional criteria:

- there should be no more than two people per bedroom
- parents or couples share a bedroom
- children under 5 years, either of the same or of the opposite sex, may reasonably share a bedroom
- children under 18 years of the same sex may reasonably share a bedroom
- a child aged 5–17 years should not share a bedroom with a child aged under 5 years of the opposite sex
- single adults 18 years and over and any unpaired children require a separate bedroom.

Limitations of data: There is no contemporary official statistic or index of household crowding in New Zealand. There are many frameworks or models used in many countries for analysing the incidence of crowding. It is unlikely any single measure of crowding could adequately summarise such a complex and multi-faceted issue as crowding.

There is no definitive evidence crowding leads to negative social outcomes, but there are associations between living in crowded circumstances and negative outcomes. The mechanisms by which these outcomes result are not clear.

The Canadian Crowding Index is not an objective index of crowding. The extent to which household members will perceive themselves as living in crowded circumstances is dependent on many factors including social and cultural expectations. Furthermore, it cannot be assumed households requiring one or more additional bedrooms (based on the Canadian index) will suffer negative social outcomes.

The Canadian Crowding Index is used here as it is sensitive to both household size and composition. The measure sets a bedroom requirement for households based on precise criteria.

Data sources: Statistics New Zealand (1998) *New Zealand Now: Housing*, pp 56–63; Statistics New Zealand, unpublished data from the 1986, 1991, 1996, 2001 and 2006 population censuses.

Civil and political rights

CP1 Voter turnout

Definition/formulae: The total number of votes cast is divided by the estimated number of people who would have been eligible to vote (voting-age population) on election day, and expressed as a percentage. To be eligible to vote, a person must be at least 18 years old and meet residential and certain other criteria.

Limitations of data: The voting-age population is based on population estimates that are subject to revision. The 1984 figure is based on the estimated de facto population aged 18 years and over, as at 30 June 1984.

Data sources: Electoral Commission (2008) www.electionresults.govt.nz. Department of Internal Affairs (2006) *Local Authority Election Statistics 2004, and unpublished data for 2007*. Statistics New Zealand, *New Zealand General Social Survey, 2008, customised data*. Inter-Parliamentary Union (2010a) *PARLINE Database, Last election*.

CP2 Representation of women in government

Definition/formulae: The proportion of elected members of parliament and local government bodies who are women.

Data sources: Electoral Commission (2002) *The New Zealand Electoral Compendium, 3rd edition*. Department of Internal Affairs (2006) *Local Authority Election Statistics 2004, and unpublished data for 2007*. Wilson J and Anderson G (2008) *Final Results for the 2008 New Zealand General Election*. Inter-Parliamentary Union (2010) *Women in National Parliaments, Situation as of 31 May 2010*.

CP3 Representation of ethnic groups in government

Definition/formulae: The proportion of elected Members of Parliament (MPs) who identify themselves as being of Māori, Pacific peoples or Asian ethnicity.

Data sources: Election New Zealand (2008) *Māori, Pacific and Asian MPs 1990–2005*. Wilson J and Anderson G (2008) *Final Results for the 2008 New Zealand General Election*. Statistics New Zealand (2007) *Estimated National Ethnic Population by Age and Sex at 30 June 1996, 2001 and 2006*.

CP4 Perceived discrimination

Definition/formulae:

Personal discrimination: The proportion of people aged 15 years and over who had been treated unfairly or had had something nasty done to them because of the group they belonged to or seemed to belong to (hereafter called discriminated against) in the past 12 months, as reported in the New Zealand General Social Survey 2008.

Group discrimination: The proportion of people aged 18 years and over who perceived selected groups as being the targets of “some” or a “great deal” of discrimination, as reported in surveys commissioned by the Human Rights Commission.

The first New Zealand General Social Survey was done between April 2008 and March 2009, using computer-assisted personal interviews. A total of 8,721 individuals answered the personal questionnaire and the achieved response rate was 83 percent. The purpose of the survey, set to run every two years, is to collect data not available from other sources on the social and economic outcomes of New Zealanders aged 15 years and over.

Survey respondents were asked: “In the last 12 months, have you been treated unfairly or had something nasty done to you because of the group you belong to or seem to belong to?”

Limitations of data: Both measures used in this indicator are subjective measures of discrimination. They reflect personal experiences of discrimination by individuals and perceptions of discrimination against groups, rather than instances of discrimination established in law.

Data sources: Statistics New Zealand (2009) *New Zealand General Social Survey 2008, Information Release and customised data*. Human Rights Commission (2010) *Treaty of Waitangi and Perceived Discrimination: UMR Omnibus Results, December 2009*. European Commission (2009) *Discrimination in the EU in 2009, Table Qe3*.

CP5 Perceived corruption

Definition/formulae: The perceived level of corruption – defined as “the abuse of public office for private gain” – among New Zealand politicians and public officials, on a scale of 0 (highly corrupt) to 10 (highly clean). A country’s score in the Corruption Perceptions Index is derived by Transparency International from a number of different surveys of business people and country analysts.

The Corruption Perceptions Index (CPI) gathers data from sources that span the last two years. For the CPI 2009, this includes surveys from 2009 and 2008. The CPI 2009 is calculated using data from 13 sources originated from 10 independent institutions. All sources measure the overall extent of corruption (frequency and/or size of bribes) in the public and political sectors and all sources provide a ranking of countries, ie include an assessment of multiple countries.

The New Zealand data for the CPI 2009 was drawn from six surveys: Country Risk Service and Country Forecast by the Economist Intelligence Unit (2009), Global Risk Service by IHS Global Insights (2009), World Competitiveness Report of the Institute for Management Development (2009 and 2008) and the Global Competitiveness Report of the World Economic Forum (2009 and 2008). New Zealand’s overall score of 9.4 was within a confidence range of 9.1–9.5.

Limitations of data: The Corruption Perceptions Index score is a subjective measure; there is no hard empirical data on levels of corruption that can be used for cross-country comparison. The index was not designed to provide comparisons over time, since each year the surveys included in the index vary. The index is a relative measure: New Zealand’s ranking depends not only on perceptions of corruption in New Zealand but also on perceptions of corruption in the other countries surveyed. If comparisons with earlier years are made, they should be based on a country’s score, not its rank.

Data source: Transparency International (2009) *Transparency International Corruption Perceptions Index 2009*, http://www.transparency.org/policy_research/surveys_indices/cpi

Cultural identity

CI1 Local content programming on New Zealand television

Definition/formulae: The hours of local content broadcast on TV One, TV2 and TV3 (to 2004), Prime Television and Māori Television (from 2005) and C4 (from 2006) in prime-time, expressed as a percentage of the total prime-time schedule. TV3 commenced in November 1989. New Zealand content programming includes first runs and repeats across all six channels.

Limitations of data: The number of local content hours broadcast on other free-to-air or pay channels is not included in the data presented here. Up until 2002 the hours data in Table CI1.1 was measured over 24 hours; from 2003 on it was measured over 18 hours (6am to midnight).

Data sources: NZ On Air (2010) *Local Content, New Zealand Television, 2009*; NZ On Air (1999) *Local Content and Diversity: Television in Ten Countries*.

CI2 Māori language speakers

Definition/formulae: Māori language speakers as a proportion of the Māori ethnic group. Māori language speakers are defined as those able to hold a conversation about everyday things in Māori.

Limitations of data: The data relies on self-assessment rather than on measuring the actual level of fluency in the population. The census data comes from a single question about conversational language ability. More detailed information on the level of fluency among Māori language speakers is available from two nationwide surveys done in 2001 and 2006. This data is not directly comparable with the census data because of differences in the samples and methodology. For example, the Māori language surveys used face-to-face interviews, asked a range of questions about language skill, and asked respondents to place themselves on a five-category proficiency scale.

Data sources: Statistics New Zealand (2002) *2001 Census of Population and Dwellings: National Summary, Table 13a*; Statistics New Zealand (2006) *QuickStats About New Zealand’s Population and Dwellings, National Highlights: 2006 Census, Tables 1, 9, 10*; Statistics New Zealand (2007) *QuickStats About Māori: 2006 Census, Tables 9, 10*; Statistics New Zealand (2007) *QuickStats About Culture and Identity: 2006 Census, Table 19*; and unpublished data from the 2006 Census. Te Puni Kōkiri (2001) *Provisional results of the 2001 Survey of the Health of the Māori Language*; Te Puni Kōkiri (2007) *The Māori Language Survey Fact Sheet*.

C13 Language retention

Definition/formulae: The proportion of people who can speak the “first language” (excluding English) of their ethnic group, for ethnic groups (other than Māori) with an established resident population in New Zealand, as recorded in the 2006 Census. The ability to speak a language is defined as being able to hold an everyday conversation in that language. “First language” refers to an indigenous language associated with a given ethnicity rather than the first language of an individual.

Limitations of data: While a direct link can usually be made between a language and an ethnic group, this is not always the case. Some ethnicities are associated with several languages and one language can span several ethnicities. Because both the ethnic group and language spoken census variables allow more than one response, there may be some individuals who appear in more than one ethnic group category.

Data source: Statistics New Zealand, unpublished data from the Census of Population and Dwellings, 2001, 2006.

Leisure and recreation

L1 Satisfaction with leisure time

Definition/formulae: The proportion of people aged 15 years and over who are “satisfied” or “very satisfied” with their leisure time, according to the Quality of Life Survey.

For more information about the survey, see PW5 Satisfaction with work-life balance.

Limitations of data: Subjective measures of wellbeing reflect people’s perceptions of their own situation, which may differ from their objective status.

Note: Ethnicity is based on multiple responses and is sourced from unpublished tables produced by the Ministry of Social Development.

Data source: Quality of Life Project (2009).

L2 Participation in physical activity

Definition/formulae: The proportion of the population aged 15 years and over who met physical activity guidelines (ie were physically active for at least 30 minutes a day on five or more days over the last week), as measured by the 2002/2003 and 2006/2007 New Zealand Health Survey.

Limitations of the data: Survey estimates are subject to sampling error and small differences between groups may not be statistically significant. This has been minimised where possible and all differences commented on have been found to be significant using 95 percent confidence intervals and t-tests where these overlap. Data presented here may differ from previous reports, as data from the 2002/2003 New Zealand Health Survey has been re-analysed using the same methodology as that used for the 2006/2007 New Zealand Health Survey. For further information on the analysis of the New Zealand Health Survey, see Ministry of Health (2008) Methodology report for the 2006/2007 New Zealand Health Survey.

Data source: Ministry of Health, unpublished data from the 2002/2003 and 2006/2007 New Zealand Health Survey.

L3 Participation in arts and cultural activities

Definition/formulae: The proportion of the population aged 15 years and over who had attended at least one arts event or who had actively participated in the arts in the previous 12 months, as measured by a national survey commissioned by Creative New Zealand: New Zealanders and the arts: Attitudes, attendance and participation in 2008.

The first survey was conducted in 2005. Both surveys were conducted by Colmar Brunton. For the 2008 survey, the sample of 2,099 people aged 15 years and over comprised:

- 1,022 nationwide telephone interviews
- 200 telephone interviews in four large population centres (Auckland region, Hamilton City, Wellington City, Christchurch City)
- 80 face-to-face interviews with Māori in Wellington and Auckland
- 80 face-to-face interviews with Pacific peoples in Wellington and Auckland
- 117 face-to-face interviews with Asian peoples in Wellington and Auckland.

Limitations of data: Data is based on a sample survey and is therefore subject to sampling error. The international comparison is affected by differences in the collection and classification of the data.

Data source: Creative New Zealand (2009) *New Zealanders and the arts: Attitudes, attendance and participation in 2008*. Australia Council for the Arts (2010) *More than bums on seats: Australian participation in the arts, Fact sheet: Arts participation: How does Australia compare to other countries?*

Safety

SS1 Assault mortality

Definition/formulae: The number of people who have died as a result of an assault, per 100,000 population.

The data was drawn from the following International Classification of Diseases codes: ICD-9, E960–E969 (up to 1999); ICD-10, X85–Y09 (from 2000).

Limitations of data: Because of the changes in the classification of ethnicity in death-registration data in September 1995, ethnicity data for 1996 and later years is not comparable with data from before 1996.

Data sources: Ministry of Health, *Deaths from homicide and injury purposely inflicted by other persons (Assault mortality data in ICD-10), 1948–2007*. UNICEF (2003) *“A League Table of Child Maltreatment Deaths in Rich Nations” Innocenti Report Card No 5, Table 1(a) p 4*. OECD (2009) *OECD Health Data 2009, Health Status, Mortality, Causes of Mortality, Assault, Deaths per 100,000 males/females (standardised rates)*.

SS2 Criminal victimisation

Definition/formulae: The proportion of the population aged 15 years and over who had been victims of one or more incidents of criminal offending in 2005 as measured by the New Zealand Crime and Safety Survey (NZCASS) 2006. The survey covers people in private households. It does not cover commercial victimisation, “victimless” crimes (such as drug or alcohol abuse), or crimes against people younger than 15 years.

Limitations of data: Changes in survey design limit the comparisons that can be made between NZCASS and the two earlier surveys, the 1996 and 2001 New Zealand National Survey of Crime Victims.

The overall response rate in the 2006 NZCASS was 59 percent in the main sample and 56 percent in the Māori booster sample. The respective figures in the 2001 survey were 65 percent and 57 percent and in the 1996 survey, 56 percent and 66 percent. In the authors’ view, it is difficult to say how the small drop in the response rate in the 2006 NZCASS has affected risk estimates (Mayhew and Reilly, 2007b, p 23).

Victimisation surveys are subject to a number of methodological limitations such as selective recounting and differences between groups in their willingness to report offences, particularly offences of a sexual or domestic nature where the offender is known. There are also limitations in asking people to remember victimisation incidents and to locate them accurately in time.

A victimisation survey will give a higher count of crime because it counts unreported crime. A third of all NZCASS offences became known to the police. Offences regarded as serious were more likely to be reported, but there was a wide variation between offence types, with 84 percent of vehicle thefts being reported compared with 9 percent of sexual offences (Mayhew and Reilly, 2007b, p 35).

Data source: Mayhew and Reilly (2007) *New Zealand Crime and Safety Survey 2006: Key Findings*.

SS3 Fear of crime

Definition/formulae: The proportion of people who reported that fear of crime had a moderate or high impact on their quality of life (scoring its effect at 4 or higher on a scale from 0–10, where 0 is no effect and 10 is total effect), as measured by the New Zealand Crime and Safety Survey (NZCASS) 2006.

The data comes from the survey question “How much is your own quality of life affected by fear of crime, on a scale from 0 to 10, where 0 is no effect and 10 is total effect on your quality of life?” The overall response rate in the 2006 NZCASS was 59 percent in the main sample and 56 percent in the Māori booster sample.

Limitations of data: The question elicits a subjective assessment of the extent to which fear of crime affects respondents’ quality of life, which is also subjectively defined. While the question demonstrates an ability to differentiate between groups, it is not a reliable measure of the actual status of respondents. Also, although the results reflect people’s perceptions of their own situation in a general and ongoing way, those perceptions may be influenced by significant events and subject to fluctuation over time.

Data source: Mayhew and Reilly (2007) *Community Safety: Findings from the New Zealand Crime and Safety Survey 2006*.

SS4 Road casualties

Definition/formulae: The number of deaths caused by motor vehicle crashes per 100,000 population. The number of persons injured as a result of motor vehicle crashes as reported to the police, per 100,000 population. Pedestrians or cyclists killed or injured by motor vehicles are included.

The data for land transport accident deaths are drawn from the following International Classification of Diseases codes: ICD-10, V01–V89 (from 2000).

Limitations of data: The collection of ethnicity data changed during 1995 for both mortality and hospitalisation data. For mortality data, the basis of ethnicity has changed from a biological concept to a concept of self-identification; in mid-1995 hospitalisation data recorded multiple ethnic groups, whereas previously only one ethnic group could be recorded. Consequently, a comparison of 1996 ethnic-specific data with previous years is misleading: 1996 is the start of a new time series for ethnic-specific data.

Data sources: Ministry of Transport; Ministry of Health; Statistics New Zealand. OECD/International Transport Forum, *International Road Traffic and Accident Database, IRTAD Database, November 2009 – Risk indicators: Road User Fatalities*.

Road casualty data comes from two main sources: injury data from the traffic crash reports completed by police officers who attend the fatal and injury crashes; and mortality and hospitalisation data from the Ministry of Health. Ethnic-specific rates of death or hospitalisation are only available from the Ministry of Health.

Social connectedness

SC1 Telephone and internet access in the home

Definition/formulae: The number of people living in households with access to telephones (either landlines or cellphones) and the internet, as a percentage of the total population for whom access to communications was available.

Limitations of the data: This data is collected at the household level, not at the individual or family level. The circumstances of each individual or family in a household may differ.

Data sources: Statistics New Zealand, *Census of Population and Dwellings, 2001 and 2006, unpublished data*; Statistics New Zealand, *Household Use of Information and Communication Technology 2009, Tables 1, 2, 12*. OECD (2009) *Frequently requested statistics, Key ICT Indicators, Table 6a, Households with access to the Internet, 2000–2008*, http://www.oecd.org/document/23/0,3343,en_2649_34449_33987543_1_1_1_1,00.html; Household Use of Information Technology, Australia, 2008–09 <http://abs.gov.au/ausstats/abs@.nsf/mf/8146.0/>

SC2 Contact with family and friends

Definition/formulae: The proportion of people aged 15 years and over who say the amount of contact they have with family and friends who don't live with them is "about right", as measured by the New Zealand General Social Survey. Contact includes face-to-face meetings as well as telephone calls, letters, emails, texting, and other forms of electronic communication.

The first New Zealand General Social Survey (NZGSS) was done between April 2008 and March 2009, using computer-assisted personal interviews. A total of 8,721 individuals answered the personal questionnaire and the achieved response rate was 83 percent. The purpose of the survey, set to run every two years, is to collect data not available from other sources on the social and economic outcomes of New Zealanders aged 15 years and over.

The indicator combines the responses to two survey questions, the first about contact with non-resident family, the second about contact with non-resident friends: "Think about all the types of contact you have with family [friends] [who don't live with you]. Would you say that you have too much contact, about the right amount of contact, or not enough contact with them?"

Data sources: Statistics New Zealand, *New Zealand General Social Survey, 2008, unpublished data*.

SC3 Contact between young people and their parents

Definition/formulae: The proportion of secondary school students aged 12–18 years who said they get enough time with Mum and/or Dad (or someone who acts as Mum and/or Dad), most of the time, as reported in the Youth2000 and Youth'07 surveys.

Limitations of data: Estimates from sample surveys are subject to error. The achieved sample size for the Youth'07 survey was 9,107 students, representing 3.4 percent of the total 2007 New Zealand secondary school roll.

Questions asked in Youth'07 and Youth2000 (undertaken in 2001) differ slightly. In 2001 students were asked: "Most weeks do you get to spend enough time with your Dad (or someone who acts as your Dad)?" In 2007 students were asked: "Do you spend enough time with him (your Dad or someone who acts as your Dad)?" Both surveys had the same response options.

Data sources: Adolescent Health Research Group (2008) *Youth'07: The Health and Wellbeing of Secondary School Students in New Zealand. Initial Findings*, p 15; Adolescent Health Research Group (2008) *Youth'07: The Health and Wellbeing of Secondary School Students in New Zealand. Technical Report*, tables on pp 43–46, 48.

SC4 Trust in others

Definition/formulae: The proportion of the population reporting that people can "almost always" or "usually" be trusted, in the Quality of Life Survey conducted in 2006 and 2008.

For more information on the survey, see PW5 Satisfaction with work-life balance.

Limitations of data: Subjective measures of wellbeing reflect people's perceptions of their own situation, which may differ from their objective status.

Note: Ethnicity is based on multiple responses and is sourced from unpublished tables produced by the Ministry of Social Development.

Data sources: Quality of Life Project (2009) *Quality of Life Survey 2008 (data analysis by the Ministry of Social Development)*. European Commission (2005) *Social Values, Science and Technology, Special Eurobarometer 225, QB8*, p 156. Statistics Canada (2004) *2003 General Social Survey on Social Engagement, cycle 17: an overview of findings, Table 3 p 51*.

SC5 Loneliness

Definition/formulae: The proportion of the population who are lonely “sometimes”, “most of the time”, or “always”, as reported in the Quality of Life Survey.

For more information on the survey, see PW5 Satisfaction with work-life balance.

Limitations of data: Subjective measures of wellbeing reflect people’s perceptions of their own situation, which may differ from their objective status.

Note: Ethnicity is based on multiple responses and is sourced from unpublished tables produced by the Ministry of Social Development.

Data source: Quality of Life Project (2009) Quality of Life Survey 2008 (data analysis by the Ministry of Social Development).

SC6 Voluntary work

Definition/formulae: The proportion of the population aged 15 years and over who reported having done voluntary work for a group or organisation in the last four weeks in the New Zealand General Social Survey (NZGSS) 2008.

For more information about the survey, see SC2 Contact with family and friends.

Survey respondents were asked: “In the last four weeks, did you do any voluntary work for a group or organisation?”

Limitations of the data: Voluntary work covers a wide range of activities. Participation by age, sex, ethnic group or socio-economic status may vary across different types of voluntary work in ways that are not captured at the aggregate level.

The concept of “voluntary work” has different meanings across cultures and this may affect survey responses.

The NZGSS data does not show the amount of time spent on voluntary work.

The NZGSS included separate questions on voluntary work, unpaid work and passive participation in groups. Voluntary work is defined as activities carried out for people living outside the respondent’s own household, which is done for or through an organisation or group. This differs slightly from the definitions used in the Time Use Survey and in the New Zealand Census of Population and Dwellings. The Time Use Survey collects data on three types of unpaid work: for own household, for another household (informal voluntary work) and for an organisation (formal voluntary work).

Data sources: Statistics New Zealand (2009) New Zealand General Social Survey: 2008, Information Release, 29 October; customised data. Australian Bureau of Statistics (2009) Measures of Australia’s Progress: Summary Indicators.

Life satisfaction

LS1 Overall life satisfaction

Definition/formulae: The proportion of the population aged 15 years and over who reported that they were “very satisfied” or “satisfied” with their life overall in the New Zealand General Social Survey (NZGSS) 2008.

For more information about the survey, see SC2 Contact with family and friends.

Survey respondents were asked: “How do you feel about your life as a whole right now?”

Limitations of the data: The question on overall life satisfaction was a single-item question asked at the beginning of the survey, ahead of and separate to the individual satisfaction questions asked for different life domains, such as education and health. Therefore, the single-item question on overall life satisfaction is not an aggregate of responses to these later questions.

Data sources: Statistics New Zealand (2009) New Zealand General Social Survey: 2008, Information Release, 29 October; customised data. OECD (2009) Society at a Glance 2009: OECD Social Indicators, Chapter 8, Social Cohesion Indicators, Table CO1: Life satisfaction.

Endnotes

Introduction

- 1 *Economic Development Indicators 2007* is available at: <http://www.med.govt.nz/upload/53549/Indicators-Report-2007.pdf>
 - 2 *Environmental Health Indicators for New Zealand 2008* is available at: <http://www.moh.govt.nz/moh.nsf/indexmh/environmental-health-indicators-for-nz-2008>
 - 3 *Environment New Zealand 2007* is available at: <http://www.mfe.govt.nz/publications/ser/enz07-dec07/>
 - 4 *Measuring New Zealand's Progress Using a Sustainable Development Approach: 2008* is available at: <http://www.stats.govt.nz/Publications/NationalAccounts/sustainable-development.aspx>
 - 5 *Children and Young People: Indicators of wellbeing in New Zealand 2008* is available at: <http://www.msd.govt.nz/about-msd-and-our-work/publications-resources/monitoring/children-young-indicators-wellbeing/index.html>
- Positive Ageing Indicators 2007* is available at: <http://www.msd.govt.nz/about-msd-and-our-work/publications-resources/monitoring/positive-ageing-indicators/>

People

- 6 Statistics New Zealand (2010j) and final data accessed 14 May 2010
- 7 Statistics New Zealand (2009d)
- 8 Statistics New Zealand (2010g) These figures are from 2006-based medium ethnic population projections (Series 6, updated in April 2010), assuming medium fertility, medium mortality, medium inter-ethnic mobility and medium long-term annual net migration of -3,000 for the European or Other population (from 2013), -3,000 for the Māori population (from 2012), 12,000 for the Asian population (from 2010) and 500 for Pacific peoples (from 2008). For further information on the projection assumptions, see Statistics New Zealand (2010) National Ethnic Population Projections: 2006(base)–2026 update, pp 2 and 3.
- 9 Statistics New Zealand (2010g) pp 6–8
- 10 Statistics New Zealand (2010b)

- 11 Statistics New Zealand (2009d) These figures are from 2009-based medium population projections (Series 5), assuming medium fertility, medium mortality and a long-term annual net migration gain of 10,000.
- 12 Statistics New Zealand (2010g)
- 13 The census data in this section refers to families with any dependent children usually resident in the household. A dependent child is a 'child in a family nucleus' who is under 18 years of age and who is not employed full time. Families refers to families within households. A family nucleus is defined as a couple, with or without child(ren), or one parent and their child(ren) usually resident in the same dwelling. The children do not have partners or children of their own living in the same household. People who usually live in a particular dwelling, and are members of a family nucleus in that dwelling, but who are absent on census night, are included, as long as they are reported as being absent by the reference person on the dwelling form. See Statistics New Zealand, www.stats.govt.nz, Family definitions.
- 14 The United States Census Bureau family data series used for comparison excludes cohabiting parents from 2007 onwards. In previous years, they were counted as single (ie non-married) parents. The 2006 figure reported here has been adjusted to exclude cohabiting parents for better comparison with New Zealand data (see data sources). With cohabiting parents included, the United States figure for 2006 is 33 percent, the figure reported in the last three editions of this report. For further information about the change in the United States family data, see United States Census Bureau, Current Population Survey (CPS), 2007 March CPS, America's Families and Living Arrangements, "Improvements to data collection about families in CPS 2007": <http://www.census.gov/population/www/socdemo/hh-fam.html>
- 15 Comparability between 2001 and 2006 data may be affected by a change in the census question. The 2006 Census included an additional question on whether any of the household members held the dwelling in a family trust. Where this was the case, the household would have been counted as owning the dwelling. In 2001, households in this situation were instructed to say that they did not own the dwelling and so should not have been counted as homeowners. Consequently, the actual decline in home ownership between 2001 and 2006, with family trusts included, may have been slightly greater than the census figures indicate.

- 16 More information on speakers of te reo Māori is provided in the Māori language speakers indicator.
- 17 Disability is defined as any perceived limitation in activity resulting from a long-term condition or health problem; lasting or expected to last six months or more and not completely eliminated by an assistive device. See Statistics New Zealand (2007a) p 26.
- 18 Statistics New Zealand (2007a)
- 19 All the figures in this paragraph are for people in households.
- 20 Adolescent Health Research Group (2008a) p 28

Health

- 21 Howden-Chapman and Tobias (2000)
- 22 Ministry of Health (1999b) p 351
- 23 Ministry of Health (2007)
- 24 Babor et al (2001)
- 25 Conner et al (2005)
- 26 OECD (2010c)
- 27 2006 figures have been revised; 2007 data is provisional
- 28 Age-standardised to the World Health Organization standard world population.
- 29 Ministry of Health (2006a) p 14
- 30 Ministry of Health (2009c) p 20. These countries have been selected because they are considered to have a reliable data collection process, and because they are the countries most often used in comparisons with New Zealand on health measures.
- 31 The international rates are annual rates re-calculated by the Ministry of Health to enable geographic comparisons of data collected by the World Health Organization.
- 32 Ministry of Health (1999b) p 344
- 33 Ministry of Health (2006b) Table C2 p 39
- 34 Ministry of Health (2009b) Data tables, Prevalence data, Age-standardised rates by gender and NZDep2006 quintile for current smokers.
- 35 OECD (2010c) The New Zealand rate reported by the OECD (18.1 percent) is the crude daily smoking rate. This differs from the daily smoking rate published in the Ministry of Health's report, A Portrait of Health: Key Results of the 2006/07 New Zealand Survey, which is the age-standardised rate (18.7 percent).
- 36 OECD (2010c)
- 37 The World Health Organization defines obesity as having a BMI greater than or equal to 30 kg/m² (WHO 2000). In compliance with international practice, the same cut-off points have been used for all ethnic groups (Ministry of Health, 2008c, pp 104, 105).
- 38 Cole et al (2000)
- 39 Ministry of Health (2008c) p 104
- 40 Rates for 1997 and 2002/2003 were revised by Public Health Intelligence, Ministry of Health.
- 41 The rate for 2002 was revised by Public Health Intelligence, Ministry of Health.
- 42 Ministry of Health (2004c) p 36
- 43 OECD (2010c) The 12 countries which use actual measurements to estimate the prevalence of obesity are: Australia, Canada, Czech Republic, Ireland, Japan, Korea, Luxembourg, Mexico, New Zealand, Slovak Republic, United Kingdom, United States. Some of these countries also use the self-reporting method.
- 44 Babor et al (2001)
- 45 Conner et al (2005)
- 46 Age-standardised rates have been used for comparison over time.
- 47 OECD (2010b)

Knowledge and skills

- 48 See, for example, Wylie (1999)
- 49 OECD (2007b)
- 50 Wylie (1999); Boocock (1995); Wylie et al (2001); Wylie et al (2004)
- 51 OECD (2007b)
- 52 Due to methodological changes in the allocation of attainment levels in 2004, the percentage of leavers with qualifications higher than NCEA Level 1 in 2004 is not comparable with other years and has been omitted.

- 53 OECD (2009a). The OECD data used here also includes international students. This group is not included in the analysis in this section.
- 54 Ministry of Education (2001b)
- 55 Satherley P, Lawes E and Sok S (2008b) pp 7, 9, 11
- 56 Satherley P, Lawes E and Sok S (2008b) pp 16, 18, 21

Paid work

- 57 Statistics New Zealand (2009e) p 3
- 58 Wilson (1999)
- 59 OECD (2010d) OECD Stats extract, Harmonised unemployment rate, accessed 26 May 2010
- 60 OECD (2010a) Statistical Annex, Table H, p 292
- 61 OECD (2010a) Statistical Annex, Table B, p 271

Economic standard of living

- 62 Royal Commission on Social Security in New Zealand (1972)
- 63 OECD (2010e). Between 2000 and 2004, New Zealand ranked 21st on real GDP per capita. A major revision of national accounts in Greece lifted real GDP per capita in that country, lowering New Zealand's ranking from 21st to 22nd in subsequent years. See OECD (2007a) Chapter 1.
- 64 Statistics New Zealand (2001b) Table 1 p 15, Table 4 p 17. Per person value calculated by the Ministry of Social Development.
- 65 Perry B (2010) p 53
- 66 For a description of the Gini coefficient, see Statistics New Zealand (1999) p 118.
- 67 OECD (2008b) Table 1.A2.4
- 68 OECD (2008b) Annex Table 5.A2.1
- 69 While the data is robust enough to give a general indication of relativities between ethnic groups, the relatively small sample sizes for the non-European ethnic groups can lead to some volatility in trends for each group separately. Robust data is not available for low-income households by ethnicity.
- 70 Baker et al (2000)
- 71 Evans (2003)
- 72 The trend in household crowding for the total population cannot be inferred from the trends for the ethnic groupings because some census respondents did not provide ethnicity data.

- 73 Statistics New Zealand (2003) p 33
- 74 Percentages do not add to 100 as some people identified with more than one ethnic group.
- 75 People who received income support in the 12 months before the census. Excludes those who received ACC or New Zealand Superannuation.

Civil and political rights

- 76 Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Trade (1998)
- 77 The 1988 Royal Commission on Social Policy found that New Zealanders felt wellbeing was strongly associated with the freedom to make choices for oneself and to have a voice in decisions that affect them. Royal Commission on Social Policy (1988) Volume III Part One, pp 487–488
- 78 For example, see the section on New Zealand in the United States State Department Bureau of Democracy, Human Rights and Labour (2003) Country Reports on Human Rights Practices.
- 79 Human Rights Act 1993, Part 2, section 21. Reprint as at 1 October 2008.
- 80 Marsh and Sahin-Dikmen (2002) pp 40, 41
- 81 Inter-Parliamentary Union, PARLINE database, Last election
- 82 From 1989, overall turnout data is based on mayoral election turnout only. See Department of Internal Affairs (2006) p 17.
- 83 Inter-Parliamentary Union, Women in National Parliaments
- 84 These figures exclude Trusts, which are not local authorities. See Department of Internal Affairs (2009) p 10.
- 85 The 1989 elections were the first to be held following a major restructuring of local government.
- 86 European Commission (2009)

Cultural identity

- 87 Durie et al (2002); Durie (1999)
- 88 AGB Nielsen Media Research (2010)
- 89 ACNielsen (2005)
- 90 NZ On Air (1999) p 3
- 91 All those who identified as Māori in the census are counted as part of the Māori ethnic group in this indicator.

- 92 “Very well” means being able to talk about almost anything in Māori. “Well” means being able to talk about many things in Māori. “Fairly well” refers to being able to talk about some things in Māori. “Not very well” refers to only being able to talk about simple/basic things in Māori.
- 93 The census ethnicity question is a multiple-response question and the high proportion of Pacific peoples who can speak Māori may reflect the high proportion of people who identified with both ethnic groups in the last census. This is also the case for the European ethnic group. In this section, “New Zealanders” have been included with the European ethnic group, using customised data that counts individuals once only.

Leisure and recreation

- 94 Australia Council for the Arts (2010)

Safety

- 95 Morris et al (2003) pp 222–224
- 96 National Road Safety Committee (2000)
- 97 OECD (2010c)
- 98 Mayhew and Reilly (2007b) pp 24–26
- 99 Mayhew and Reilly (2007b) p 54. The incidence figure for men for this type of offence [confrontational offences committed by partners] has a relative standard error between 15 percent and 25 percent and should be viewed with caution.
- 100 The 2008 injury rate has been revised, using final data.
- 101 OECD/International Transport Forum (2009)

Social connectedness

- 102 Spellerberg (2001)
- 103 Noll and Berger-Schmitt (2000)
- 104 Christakis and Fowler (2009)
- 105 OECD (2009c)
- 106 Adolescent Health Research Group (2008a) p 14

- 107 Questions asked in Youth’07 and Youth2000 (conducted in 2001) surveys differ slightly. In 2001 students were asked: “Most weeks do you get to spend enough time with your Dad (or someone who acts as your Dad)?” In 2007 students were asked: “Do you get to spend enough time with him (your Dad or someone who acts as your Dad)?” Both surveys had the same response options.
- 108 Statistics Canada (2004); European Commission (2005)
- 109 Australian Bureau of Statistics (2009c)

Life satisfaction

- 110 Giovannini, E., Hall, J. and Mira d’Ercole, M. (2007), p16. The “Istanbul Declaration”, signed by representatives of a number of supranational bodies at a conference in Istanbul in 2007, refers to this emerging consensus.
- 111 Diener, E. (1984). In psychology, a distinction is made between “cognitive judgements” (such as life evaluations) and “affects” (positive or negative feelings) but the distinction is often blurred and the terms life satisfaction and happiness are frequently used interchangeably in the research literature on subjective wellbeing.
- 112 For example, the World Values Survey and the Gallup World Poll.
- 113 Graham, C. (2008)
- 114 Stiglitz, J.E., Sen, A. and Fitoussi, J-P. (2009), Chapter 2; Deaton, A. (2008)
- 115 Kahneman, D. and Krueger, A.B. (2006); Stutzer, A. and Frey, B.S. (2010). Shortcomings noted in the literature include the susceptibility of self-reported measures of subjective wellbeing to mood, context and question order, and the finding that answers may reflect norms of social desirability and self-representation (people saying what they think they should). Also, the meaning of the underlying concept of “happiness” in much subjective wellbeing research is contested (Duncan, 2005).
- 116 Deaton, A. (2008); Coombes, G. (2006)
- 117 Diener, E. (1984); Graham, C. (2008); Stutzer, A. and Frey, B.S. (2010)

Summary

118 1995–1997 has been chosen for the reference period because it allows the maximum number of indicators to be compared over time, including those which use data from the 1996, 2001 and 2006 population censuses.

119 NZDep gives a deprivation score to each small area of New Zealand, using socio-economic information from the five-yearly population census. Scores range from 1–10, where 1 equals the 10th of areas with the least deprived scores and 10 equals the 10th of areas with the most deprived scores. The range of scores can also be expressed as fifths (quintiles). This index is used for several indicators in the Health and Safety domains.

<http://www.uow.otago.ac.nz/academic/dph/research/NZDep/NZDep2006%20research%20report%2004%20September%202007.pdf> (pp 8, 16)

The school decile index is based on census information about the community from which a school draws its students. Decile 1 schools are the 10th of schools with the highest proportion of students from low socio-economic communities, while decile 10 schools are the 10th of schools with the lowest proportion of students from such areas. A school's decile does not indicate the overall socio-economic mix of the school.

<http://www.minedu.govt.nz/educationSectors/Schools/SchoolOperations/Resourcing/OperationalFunding/Deciles/HowTheDecileIsCalculated.aspx>



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