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and
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Abstract

This paper presents an Index of Societal Well-Being based on nine domains that represent essential components of a healthy, well-functioning society: the Economy, Education, Health, the Polity, the Environment, Social Capital, Mental Health and Subjective Well-Being, Crime and Incarceration, and Mobility and Opportunity. The paper describes the placement of 20 wealthy democracies on this index and on the domains that compose it. It then presents preliminary analyses of the relationships between the political and economic structure of these countries and their Societal Well-Being Index scores. Ideal-typical examples of three economic models--social democratic, coordinated, and liberal market--are identified. Societal well-being scores of countries adhering to the social democratic model rank relatively high, while societies adhering to the liberal market economy model tend to rank at the lower end of the index, with coordinated market economies performing slightly better. There is also a strong relationship between combined strength of unions and left-wing parties, on the one hand, and overall societal well-being, on the other. As a society with a weak left that is also the purest expression of the liberal market economy model, the low ranking of the United States on the Societal Well-Being Index follows the general pattern.

Introduction

The question of what constitutes a good society has been debated since the time of Aristotle. While long the province of philosophers and political theorists, the debate about the good society has taken on renewed energy in recent decades as social scientists -- most notably, economists, psychologists, and sociologists -- have begun to systematically study issues of quality of life and societal well-being. But the level of public interest today in factors that produce a healthy society -- from governments, civil society organizations, the media, and the general public -- is truly unprecedented. So powerful has the movement become to develop measures of societal well-being as alternatives to such standard economic indicators as GDP per capita that numerous governments -- including those of France, Britain, China, and Bhutan -- have begun attempts to measure societal well-being, quality of life, and happiness (or, as the psychologists prefer to call it, "subjective well-being" or SWB).

In September 2009, the already burgeoning movement to develop measures of societal progress garnered international attention with the release of the Report by the Commission on the Measurement of Economic Performance and Social Progress. Often referred to as the Sarkozy Commission (after French President Nicolas Sarkozy, who set up the group in February 2008), the group was headed by two Nobel prize-winning economists: Joseph Stiglitz, who served as Chair, and Amartya Sen, who served as Chair Advisor. The preface to the report begins with a powerful statement on the impact of social measurement:

> What we measure affects what we do. If we have the wrong metrics, we will strive for the wrong things. In the quest to increase GDP, we may end up with a society in which citizens are worse off. (7)

GDP per capita, the Commission insists, is a totally inadequate measure of societal progress. “Our economy is supposed to increase our well-being. It … is not an end in itself.”

This paper is part of a larger work-in-progress that, in the spirit of the Sarkozy Commission, attempts to measure societal well-being and its determinants. The question of what constitutes a good society is, of course, an inherently normative one; no matter how rigorous the indicators used to measure societal well-being, there is -- and can be -- no definitive resolution to the question of what constitutes a healthy society or a high quality of life. Nonetheless, there is a surprising degree of consensus that cuts across ideological lines on some of the elements that constitute a good society; among them are a healthy and well-educated population, a decent standard of living, low rates of crime, widespread opportunity, and a salutary physical environment. Our own version of the good society owes much to the “capabilities approach” developed by Amartya Sen (1999) and Martha Nussbaum (2011), but one does not have to share this framework to agree on many of the dimensions of a good society and on the feasibility of developing indicators to measure these dimensions.

Like the capabilities approach, the framework used in this paper considers the state of the economy to be a crucial determinant of the overall health of a society, but far from the only one. Perhaps the most widely used comparative measure of societal well-being, the Human Development Index (HDI), recognizes this, and since it first appeared in 1991 has consistently included two domains in addition to the economy: health and education. But the HDI, which is designed to distinguish among countries at radically different levels of development, is not well-suited to distinguish among highly advanced

societies -- the countries that are the focus of this study. Indeed, of the 20 wealthy democratic countries analyzed in this paper, all of them without exception are ranked "very high" -- the highest of four HDI categories[1].

To develop a measure better designed to identify differences in quality of life among wealthy democratic countries, we have added six domains not included in the HDI. They are crime and incarceration, mental health and subjective well-being, the polity, social capital, the environment, and social mobility. Each of these domains constitutes an important dimension of how societies function, and each is a revealing indicator of well being. Together, we believe, these nine domains make it possible to construct a composite measure of overall societal well-being that is better suited than the HDI to serve as a metric for distinguishing among countries at the highest levels of development.

The twenty countries in the study are all democratic and have high standards of living. They overlap heavily with the countries included in the other empirical examinations of advanced industrial societies (see, for example, Pontusson, 2005, and Wilensky, 2002), and they are all members of the OECD:

- North America: Canada, United States
- Oceania: Australia, New Zealand
- Scandinavia: Denmark, Finland, Norway, Sweden
- Non-Scandinavian Europe: Austria, Belgium, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Netherlands, Spain, Switzerland, United Kingdom
- Asia: Japan

[1] The other three categories are "high," "medium," and "low."

The great majority of the countries are in Europe (15); the five outside of Europe include four that were originally British colonies (Australia, Canada, New Zealand, and the United States) as well as Japan[2].

While all of the countries in the study are capitalist in economic organization, they reflect a broad range of types of capitalism. Drawing upon a rich literature on the "varieties of capitalism," (see Esping-Anderson, 1990; Hall and Soskice, 2001; and Pontusson, 2005) we have distinguished three basic types of advanced market economies: liberal market economies, coordinated market economies, and social market economies. The liberal market economies (LMEs), which tend to have low levels of employment protection, relatively weak social safety nets, and economies based on market relations among companies, reflect one end of a continuum; the social market economies (SMEs), which tend to have high levels of employment protection, strong social safety nets, and economies based on coordination, trust-based relations among companies, and the long term, reflect the other end of the continuum; the "coordinated market economies" (CMEs) are located between the two. The LMEs are the dominant model in the English-speaking world (Australia, Canada, New Zealand, United Kingdom, United States, and now Ireland); the SMEs are the typical model in Scandinavia (Denmark, Finland, Norway, Sweden); The CMEs are most typical in continental Europe (Germany would be an archetypal example).

In an attempt to determine which of the six of the LMEs was the purest or most extreme expression of the liberal market economy, we rank ordered the countries on 18 separate dimensions. Relevant variables ranged from low redistribution and low state

[2] Three countries that would otherwise have qualified were excluded on grounds of size: Iceland, Lichtenstein, and Luxembourg, none of which have populations over 504,000. As a frame of comparison, this is less than the population of Albuquerque or Louisville.

control of enterprises to high means-tested relief and high private social spending; for a full list of the 18 variables, see Appendix A. The results of the analyses clearly demonstrated that the United States is an outlier even among the six LMEs, ranking as the purest expression of the LME model on 14 of 18 dimensions. Overall, the rank score of the United States was 1.44 (with 1.0 being the maximum score); in second place among the LMEs -- and at a considerable distance -- was the United Kingdom, with a score of 2.82 (Figure 1).

Figure 1. Degree of "Liberalism" of Liberal Market Economies

Greater "Liberalism" indicated by: High means-tested relief, Low universalism, Low benefit equality, High private social spending, Low public social spending, Low redistribution, Low poverty reduction, Low employment protection (OECD), Low employment protection (VoC), Low unemployment protection, Low product market regulation, Low state control of enterprises, Low collective bargaining, Low union density, More equity-based, Wider dispersion of control (large firms), Wider dispersion of control (medium firms), Stronger shareholder rights.

[7]

Having established that the United States is the most extreme expression of the LME model, we proceeded to do a comparative assessment of some of the defining features of its distinctive political and economic system. A key element of this system is

its weak social safety net; one indicator of this is its low level of public expenditure, which ranks 19th of 20 countries (Figure 2).

Figure 2. Public Social Expenditure as Percent of GDP (2003)

OECD Factbook 2007, p 193 [3]

One source of this weak social safety net is, in turn, a weak labor movement; in terms of union membership, the United States ranks once again second to last (Figure 3). Conversely, Sweden -- widely considered the purest expression of the social democratic model -- ranks first in both public social expenditure (at almost double the percent of GDP expended in the United States) and union membership[3].

[3] An analysis of the four SMEs designed to determine which was the purest expression of the SME model confirmed the image of Sweden as the ideal typical social democracy. The gap between Sweden and Denmark, however, was considerably less than the gap between the United States and the United Kingdom among the LMEs. In this sense, the United States is far more of an outlier than Sweden -- a finding that is consistent with the view of Lipset (1996) and others that see the United States as an "exceptional" country.

Figure 3. Union Membership (2006-7)

ICTWSS: Database on Institutional Characteristics of Trade Unions, Wage Setting, State Intervention and Social Pacts in 34 countries between1960 and 2007 [4]

Societal Well-Being in Comparative Perspective

One of the consequences of the distinctive U.S. version of the LME model is unusually high levels of inequality. In terms of income inequality, the United States is by some distance the most unequal (Figure 4). With respect to wealth, the United States also exhibits an unusually high level of inequality, though Switzerland is -- by a narrow margin -- the most unequal of the countries under examination (Figure 5).

Figure 4. Income Inequality - Gini Coefficient (2005)

World Income Inequality Database 2005 V 2.0a 5

How, then, does the United States , with its distinctive version of the liberal market economy model, rank in comparison to other countries in terms of quality of life and societal well-being? In an attempt to provide a provisional answer to this question, we present data on each of nine separate dimensions of societal health:

Economy
Health
Education
Crime and Incarceration
Polity
Mental Health and Subjective Well-Being
Social Capital
Environment
Mobility

We conclude this section by presenting a composite indicator based on the nine dimensions that attempts to provide a rough measure of the overall health of the societies under examination.

Figure 5. Wealth Inequality – Gini Coefficient (2006)

SoDavies, James B., Susanna Sandstrom, Anthony Shorrocks, and Edward N. Wolff. [6]
"The World Distribution of Household Wealth". 5 December 2006

The Domains and Indicators of Societal Well-Being

We call the nine areas of societal health "domains." Each of these nine domains is composed of some number of "indicators" which come from a wide variety of sources. Those indicators were standardized to range from 0 for the worst score to 100 for the best, and then averaged to create the domain score[4]. Below we describe the substantive content of the indicators, domains, and the ultimate composite measure of societal well-being constructed from these indicators[5]. We used data only from reputable, politically neutral sources, and sought to include a wide spectrum of the possible measures for each domain under investigation.

Economy

The first dimension of societal health we examine is the economy. We used five indicators of the economic well-being of the country to create the score for the Economy Domain: gross domestic product (GDP) per capita, median disposable income, median wealth, median income, and poverty rate after transfers and taxes. Although much has been made of the insufficiency of GDP per capita as a stand-alone measure of societal or even economic health (Wilkinson and Pickett, 2009; Stiglitz et al, 2009) it remains a necessary piece of any complete picture of economic health. In addition to having the biggest total economy of any country in our study (a data-point not included as in indicator in the Economy Domain), the United States also has the second-largest GDP per capita, as measured in 2008 Purchasing Power Parity dollars (see Figure 6).

[4] See Appendix A for more on the standardization procedure used, and the effects of alternate standardizations on the ultimate results.
[5] See Appendix B for more on the source and methodology used in creating each variable we use as an indicator.

Figure 6. GDP Per Capita (2008)

OECD in Figures 2009

The United States has the highest median income after taxes (Figure 7), but is closer to the middle of the distribution for mean wealth (6th – Table B4) and median wealth (16th –Table B3). The United States also has the highest poverty rate (after transfers and taxes, out of 19 countries) by a substantial margin – 11.4% compared with 9.5% in the next-highest-poverty-rate country (Japan) and 2.1% in Denmark, which has the lowest poverty rate (Table B5).

When these five indicators are standardized and averaged, the United States has the third-highest score on the Economy domain (Figure 8), behind Norway and Switzerland. New Zealand and Greece are at the lowest end of the distribution.

Figure 7. Median Disposable Income (2000-2004)

[9] Luxembourg Income Study Web Tabulator (www.lisproject.org/web-tabulator.htm)

Figure 8. Economy Domain

[10] Average of 5 Indicators: GDP Per Capita (2008), Median Wealth (2010), Mean Wealth (2010), Median Disposable Income (2000-2004), Poverty Rate after Transfers (2008)

Health

Health is a crucial and universally-agreed-upon component societal well-being. The Health Domain is composed of five indicators: life expectancy at birth (Figure 9), healthy life expectancy (Figure 10), disability-adjusted life years (Table B15), infant mortality (Table B14), and percent obese (Figure 11). Among countries for which data is available, the United States has the worst record on 4 of these 5 indicators (and ranks 17th out of 20 on the 5th indicator, disability-adjusted life-years). Thus, the United States is a genuine outlier in the Health Domain, having far and away the lowest score, while Japan ranks at or near the top of the distribution on the indicators for which we have data, making it the highest-scoring country in the Health Domain (Figure 12).

Figure 9. Life Expectancy At Birth (2008)

11

World Health Statistics 2010: Mortality and Burden of Disease. World Health Organization

Figure 10. Healthy Life Expectancy (2007)

12

World Health Statistics 2010: Mortality and Burden of Disease. World Health Organization

Figure 11. Percent Obese (2005 - 2009)

OECD Health Data 2010

13

Figure 12. Health Domain

Average of 5 Indicators: Healthy Life Expectancy (2007), Life Expectancy at Birth (2008), Disability-Adjusted Life Years (2000), Infant Mortality (2008), and Percent Obese (2005-09) 14

Many studies have found that the United States is outperformed in health outcomes by most other developed democracies (Murray, 2010**)**. As Wilkinson and Pickett show, this is not simply an outcome of a lack of universal health insurance or an inefficient health care system, although those are probably part of the picture; it is clear that there are also additional structural and cultural factors at work as well (Anderson, 1997).

Education

A well-functioning educational system is another widely-agreed-upon feature of any healthy society. A healthy educational system should not only produce high average levels of attainment, but also high average levels of knowledge. To reflect both outcomes of the educational system, the Education Domain is based on two indicators of knowledge, and one of average attainment.

The United States has the highest educational attainment of any included country, as indicated by averaging the total percentage of the population with at least a high-school degree or the equivalent and the percentage which has also attained a 4-year-college degree (Table B10). However, it does not score as well on knowledge measures as one might expect based on that high educational attainment. The Adult Literacy test examines adults' ability to understand and analyze texts; here, the United States ranks 15th out of our twenty countries (Figure 13). The OECD Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) tests 15-year-olds around the world in reading, mathematics, and scientific literacy. On this test, the United States falls in the middle of the project countries' score distribution (Figure 14). Thus, the United States ranks right in the middle of the Education Domain, while Japan is again at the top and Italy is at the bottom (Figure 15).

Figure 13. Program for International Student Assessment (PISA) (2009)

PISA 2009 Results: What Students Know and Can Do. OECD, 2010

Figure 14. Adult Literacy (1999)

16

Literacy in the Information Age: Final Report of the International Adult Literacy Survey. OECD.

Figure 15. Education Domain

Average of 3 Indicators: PISA Scores (2009), Adult Literacy Scores (1999), and Percent HS & College Graduates (2008) 17

Crime

High levels of crime undermine the social fabric and hence the overall health of a society. The Crime Domain is based on four indicators: two direct measures of crimes (the assault and homicide rates), a measure of subjective sense of safety, and the incarceration rate. The United States is an extreme outlier in terms of incarceration rate, with four times the incarceration rate of the next-highest country, New Zealand (Figure 16). It also has the highest homicide rate (Table B21) and the second-highest assault rate (after the United Kingdom – Figure 17).

Figure 16. Incarceration per 100,000 (2009)

Figure 17. Assaults Per 100,000 (2006)

19

How Canada Performs. Canadian Conference Board, 2008

On the other hand, the United States does better than many countries with regard to its citizens' sense of safety: it has the 6th-lowest percentage of survey respondents who report feeling unsafe on the street after dark (Table B23). On three of the four indicators, Japan is at or very near the top of the distribution, although interestingly it has the second-highest rate of people feeling unsafe at night (35% compared to 19% in the United States). Overall, the United States has the at lowest score on the Crime Domain (Figure 18).

Figure 18. Crime Domain

Crime Includes 4 Indicators: Assault Rate (2006), Homicide Rate (2004-7), Percent Feeling Unsafe (2000-5), Incarceration Rate (2009)

Polity

A well-functioning democratic system is another essential component of a healthy society, not only because democracy may be an effective means to positive social ends, but also as an intrinsic value itself (see Sen, 1999). We thus believe a good society is one where every citizen can have a voice in government, where civil liberties are guaranteed, and where government functions according to laws rather than bribery or personal whim. The Polity Domain score is the average of two scores which are themselves multi-indicator composites: the Economist Intelligence Unit's *Index of Democracy*, and the World Bank's *World Governance Indicators* Voice and Accountability score.

The Economist Intelligence Unit's score includes 60 measures, from both public and expert opinion, of electoral process and pluralism, civil liberties, the functioning of

government, political participation, and political culture. The World Bank scores are based on expert opinions from NGOs, commercial risk agencies, domestic firms, and country analysts. The United States ranks 16th on the Polity Domain combining these two scores (Figure 19), ahead only of Italy, Japan and Greece, none of which were democracies until after World War II (and, in the case of Greece, not until the 1970s). In addition to the political-historical pattern, the top-ranked countries are all SMEs.

Figure 19. Polity Domain

Average of Democracy (Economist 2008) and Voice and Accountability (World Bank 2007) scores

Mental Health and Subjective Well-Being

The mental health and emotional wellness of a population, in addition to its physical health, must also be a part of a comprehensive measure of societal well-being. While the measurement of subjective well-being is somewhat controversial, we believe it is important to consider people's own assessment of their lives; a growing body of research suggests that subjective well-being measures, especially when they ask about

overall life satisfaction rather than “happiness” are quite robust and consistent across cultures (Stiglitz et al 2009; Bok, 2010; Diener et al, 2010; Kahneman et al,1999).

We included six indicators in this domain, grouped into two sub-domains. The Mental Health sub-domain includes rates of suicide, alcohol abuse, and drug abuse as well as the percentage of the population with mental health disorders. The Subjective Well-Being sub-domain contains two measures: "life evaluation" from a poll conducted by Gallup, and "life satisfaction" from the World Values Survey. We weight the two sub-domains equally in constructing the full Mental Health & Subjective Well-Being Domain. The United States is at the bottom of the distribution for Mental Health and Well-Being (Figure 23); it has the highest rates of Mental Health disorders[6] (Figure 21) of all the countries in this study, and has among the highest rates of drug abuse (Figure 22) and alcohol abuse (Table B29). It is in the middle of the distribution of suicide rates (B26), but well below the median (14th) on both measures of subjective well-being (Figure 20 and Tables B24 & B25). Overall, the United States ranks last in mental health and subjective well-being.

[6] It is tempting to suspect that this may be due to differential levels of treatment-seeking or diagnosis in the United States; however, as described in The WHO World Mental Health Survey Consortium, 2004 (see Appendix B, table B27) these numbers are based on the evaluations of trained survey-diagnosticians, who used an assessment based on the DSM to evaluate whether randomly-selected respondents’ symptoms over the 12 months fit the criteria for any of a set of relatively common disorders.

Figure 20. Life Satisfaction (1999-2007)

World Values Survey/European Values Survey 5-Wave Aggregate File

Figure 21. Mental Health Disorders (2004)

Defined as Anxiety, Mood, Impulse-Control, or Substance Abuse Disorders.

Prevalence, Severity, and Unmet Need for Treatment of Mental Disorders. The WHO World Mental Health Survey Consortium. JAMA 2004.

Figure 22. Drug Abuse Rates (2007)

2007 World Drug Report, United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime

Figure 23. Mental Health & Subjective Well-Being Domain

Based on 6 Indicators: Life Satisfaction (1999-2007), Life Evaluation (2007), Suicide Rate (2004-8), Mental Health Disorders (2004), Drug Abuse (2007), Alcohol Abuse (2004)

Social Capital

We include measures of "social capital" as broadly defined by Putnam (2001) and others – the extent to which members of the society report trusting one another, belonging to voluntary groups, and having a supportive social network.

The Social Market Economies all fall towards the top of the distribution of scores for both the percentage of people saying "most people can be trusted" (against the alternative "you can't be too careful" on the World Values Survey – Figure 25), and the average number of group memberships (including churches, unions, social clubs, and most other kinds of formally-organized groups – Figure 24).

Figure 24. Group Memberships Per Person (1999-2004)

World Values Survey/European Values Survey 5-Wave Aggregate File

Figure 25. Agreement That Most People Can Be Trusted (2004-2007)

World Values Survey/European Values Survey 5-Wave Aggregate File

Figure 26. Social Capital Domain

Based on 3 Indicators: Percent Trusting People, Group Belonging, And Average Number of Close Friends

The United States has the highest average number of group memberships per person, in a pattern that Tocqueville noted as far back as 1830s, and is right in the middle in terms of both generalized trust and reported numbers of close friends (Table B18). Overall, the United States ranks 6th on the Social Capital Domain (Figure 26), slightly below most of the SMEs, but well ahead of most of the 20 countries in the study.

Environment

The quality of the natural environment – the air we breathe, the water we drink, and the soil where our food is grown – is an important determinant of the health and well-being of people everywhere. For the Environment Domain, we made use of a single existing score compiled by the Yale Center for Environmental Law & Policy and the Center for International Earth Science Information Network, Columbia University, in collaboration with the World Economic Forum and the Joint Research Centre of the European Commission.

This widely-used Environmental Performance Index is based on measures of air and water pollution, management of fisheries, forestry, and agriculture, as well as measures having to do with climate change and the environmental burden of disease. Belgium gets the lowest score on this index; the United States ranks 16th of the 20 countries in our study (Figure 27).

Figure 27. Environment Domain

Based on the Yale Environmental Performance Index (2008)

Mobility and Opportunity

Finally, we believe that a good society is one in which the class into which you are born is not a major determinant of your class position as an adult. This domain is in some ways the most complicated to measure well cross-nationally, as many sociologists and economists have noted. We include five measures or indicators of intergenerational economic and occupational mobility, based on studies by established scholars in the field. Because many countries were not included in enough studies, several countries did not receive a score for the Mobility & Opportunity Domain.

Surprisingly, given the image of America as the land of opportunity, the United States exhibits the least intergenerational mobility on three of our five indicators. These are: the percent of those born in the lowest income quintile who stay there (Figure 30),

Blanden's survey and recalculations of others' estimates (Figure 29), Blanden's own estimate of intergenerational earnings elasticity (Table B32),. The United States is the third-least-mobile in Corak's estimate of intergenerational earnings elasticity (Figure 28). However, in an illustration of the complexity of measuring mobility, the United States appears to have one of the *highest* mobility rates when the measure is the correlation between fathers' and sons' occupational *statuses* (the prestige scores given to their occupations) rather than incomes (Table B34). Despite the one high score in this domain, the United States still has the lowest overall score on the Mobility Domain (Figure 31).

Figure 28. Intergenerational Earnings Elasticity –Corak (1995-2002)

Corak, M. Chasing the Same Dream, Climbing Different Ladders: Economic Mobility in the United States and Canada. Economic Mobility Project, Pew Charitable Trusts

Figure 29. Intergenerational Earnings Elasticity - Blanden (2009)

Blanden, J. How Much Can We Learn from International Comparisons of Intergenerational Mobility?

Figure 30. Percent of Men Starting Life in Bottom Income Quintile Who Stay There (1990s)

Isaacs, J. International Comparisons of Economic Mobility. The Brookings Institution.

Figure 31. Mobility Domain

Based on 5 Indicators: Intergenerational Earnings Elasticity (1995-2002), Earnings Elasticity (2009), Occupational Mobility (2000), Percent Staying in Bottom 5th (1990s), Intergenerational Mobility (2005)

Index of Societal Well-Being

After calculating and comparing each country's score in each of the nine substantive domains, we averaged the results to create an *Index of Societal Well-Being*[7] (Figure 32). The United States ranks third from the bottom amongst the twenty countries studied; Greece and Spain are the two countries with lower scores. The four social-market economies and Switzerland occupy the top 5 places.

[7] Eleven countries-- Australia, Austria, Belgium, France, Greece, Ireland, Japan, The Netherlands, New Zealand, Spain, and Switzerland did not have data for enough of the indicators (the minimum for inclusion in a domain was more than 50% of indicators) to be included in the full Mobility Domain, and so their scores on the Well-Being Index are based only on the other eight Domains. Three of those countries —Belgium, Greece, and Spain—were also missing too much data to be included in the Domains, so their Societal Well-Being Index scores are based on only the remaining 7 Domains.

Figure 32. Societal Well-Being Index

Each country's Societal Well-Being Index score is the average of its scores for each of the 9 domains for which there was data on enough indicators to generate a domain score. Scores for countries missing some domains (Crime and/or Mobility) are the average of the remaining 7 or 8 domains.

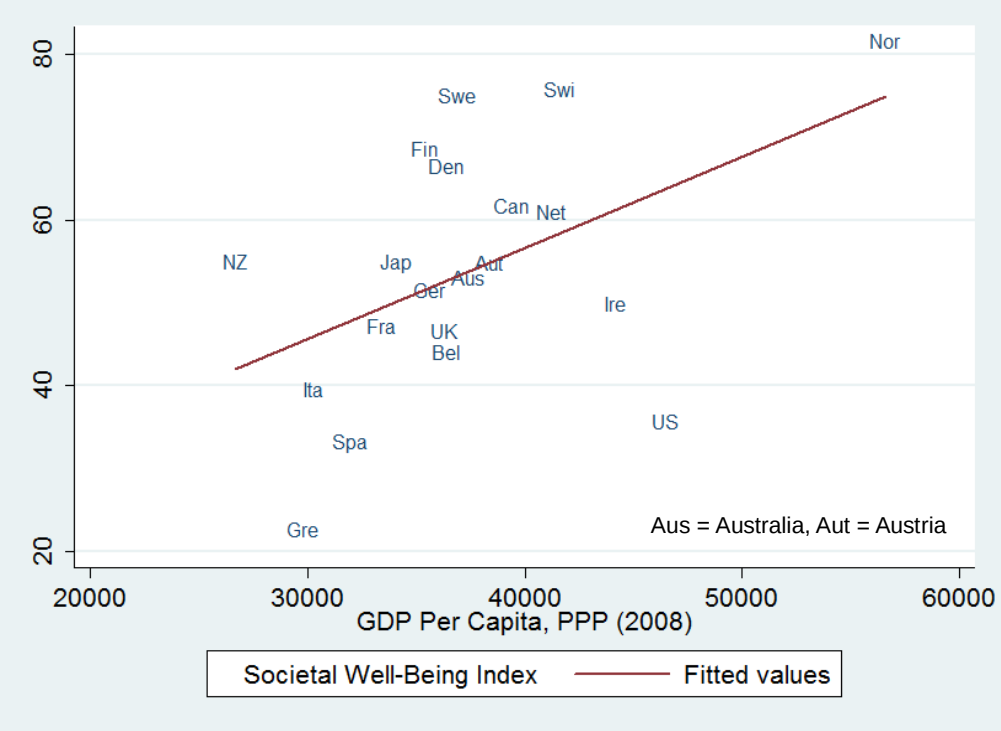
Conclusion: Varieties of Capitalism and Societal Well-Being

In *The Spirit Level*, a widely read study of the effect of inequality on the health of societies, Richard Wilkinson and Kate Pickett claim that there is essentially no relationship between GDP per capita and societal well-being in wealthy countries (Wilkinson and Pickett, 2009: 21). Our results did not replicate this finding (see Figure 33); on the contrary, we found relatively robust correlation of .48[8]. A careful examination of Figure 33 reveals, however, that the societal well-being levels of some countries are quite far from where one would expect them to be on the basis of GDP per capita, with those well above the line overperforming and those under the line underperforming. From this perspective, the greatest overperformer is Sweden, and the greatest underperformer is

[8] This correlation is not an artifact of the inclusion of GDP per capita as one of the 34 indicators which make up the Domains which in turn make up the Societal Well-Being Index; the correlation between an index constructed *without* GDP per capita is still correlated with GDP per capita at .46.

the United States. In fact, the United States is more of an outlier -- reflected in its greater distance from the line -- than any of the other 19 countries (See Appendix C). Though one should not over-interpret the pattern, it is worth noting that the leading overperformer (Sweden) is the purest expression of the SME model, and the leading underperformer (the United States) is the purest expression of the LME model.

Figure 33. Correlation Between GDP Per Capita and Societal Well-Being



A number of analysts -- among them Korpi (1978), Stephens and Huber (1982), and Pontusson (2005) have found a substantial connection between the strength of the left and the strength of the social safety net. In an analysis reported in Figure 34, we have conducted a parallel examination of the strength of the left (as measured by union density and representation of left parties in government) and overall societal well-being. The results powerfully confirm such a relationship, with a correlation of .61 (see Appendix

B). Though this is an ideologically charged finding, its political sensitivity does not negate the empirical result: that the strength of the left is positively correlated with overall societal well-being.

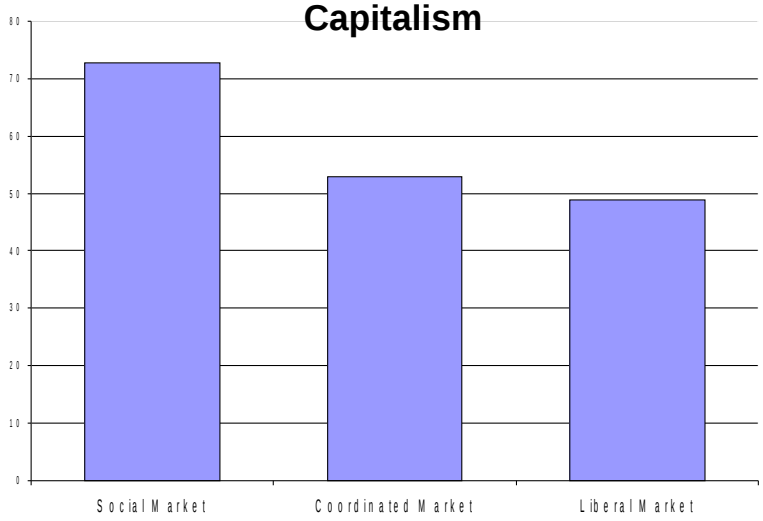
Figure 34. Correlation Between Left Strength and Societal Well-Being

Left Strength is a Combination of Union Density and the Representation of Left Parties in Government Over Time

Based on this finding, we expected a more general relationship between type of capitalism and societal well-being. This was partly confirmed by our analysis of 12 countries, with 4 each serving as embodiments of the three major varieties of capitalism: SME, CME, and LME. As anticipated, the SMEs performed very well, showing by far the highest levels of societal well-being (see Figure 35). But the performance of the liberal market economies was virtually indistinguishable from the coordinated market economies, though the latter had a very slight edge. In truth, there is quite a wide

dispersion in overall societal well-being in both LMEs and CMEs, with the former ranking from 6th to 18th and the latter 7th to 16th (see Figure 32).

Figure 35. Societal Well-Being And Three Varieties of Capitalism

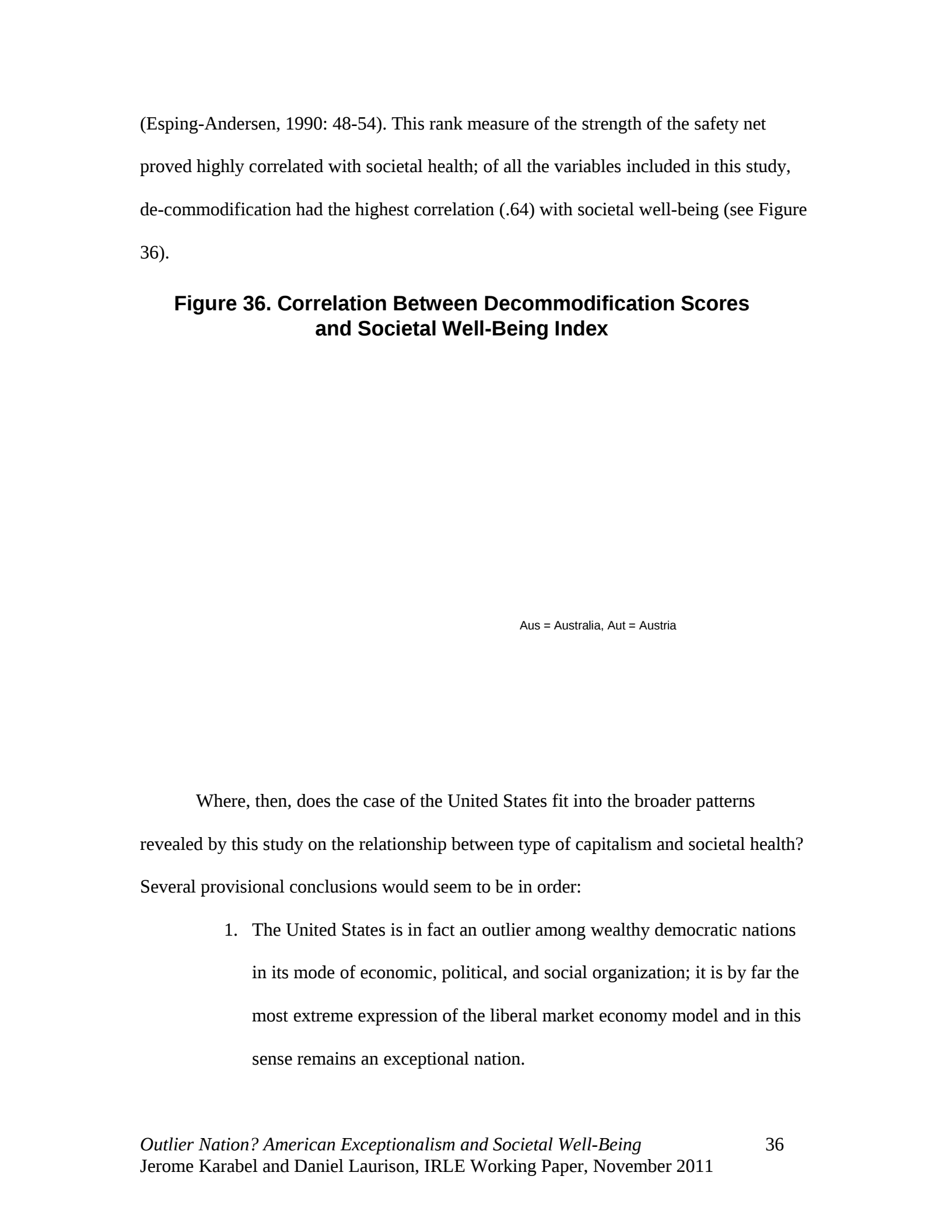


Social Market	Coordinated Market	Liberal Market
Denmark	Austria	Australia
Finland	Belgium	Canada
Norway	Germany	United States
Sweden	Netherlands	United Kingdom

One possible source of overall societal well-being is the degree of inequality; according to Wilkinson and Pickett, the relationship is causal, with high levels of inequality generating high levels of social and health problems. But Wilkinson and Pickett go beyond this to argue that it is not poverty, but inequality itself that produces bad outcomes even among the relatively privileged (Wilkinson and Pickett, 2009: 180-187). Our own hypothesis is that both inequality and poverty matter; after all, Denmark, Norway, and Finland rank relatively high in income inequality yet still enjoy high levels of societal well-being (see Figure 4 and 32). To test this hypothesis, we used Esping-Anderson's measure of "de-commodification," which rank orders welfare states in terms of the extent which pensions, sickness, and unemployment are independent of the market

(Esping-Andersen, 1990: 48-54). This rank measure of the strength of the safety net proved highly correlated with societal health; of all the variables included in this study, de-commodification had the highest correlation (.64) with societal well-being (see Figure 36).

Figure 36. Correlation Between Decommodification Scores and Societal Well-Being Index



Where, then, does the case of the United States fit into the broader patterns revealed by this study on the relationship between type of capitalism and societal health? Several provisional conclusions would seem to be in order:

1. The United States is in fact an outlier among wealthy democratic nations in its mode of economic, political, and social organization; it is by far the most extreme expression of the liberal market economy model and in this sense remains an exceptional nation.

2. While GDP per capita is a moderately strong predictor of societal well-being among wealthy democratic countries, both left strength and de-commodification are stronger still; lacking a strong left and a well-developed safety net the low overall ranking of the US in well-being sits within the broader pattern.

3. Type of capitalism does matter; a social market economy is highly correlated with positive outcomes, and at least the more extreme versions of a liberal market economy (e.g., the United States and the United Kingdom) are correlated with negative ones.

In the decades after World War II, when the debate between capitalism and socialism was at its most intense, there was a tendency -- especially pronounced on the left -- to minimize the importance of differences among capitalist societies. The results of this paper suggest that this was a mistake. For even advanced capitalist societies differ radically in societal outcomes on everything from rates of incarceration and levels of inequality to health and the quality of the physical environment. Some versions of capitalism do in fact seem to produce a substantially higher level of quality of life and societal well-being than others. As Americans engage in a historical debate about the size and role of government that may well result in the United States becoming even more of an outlier among nations, they may wish to reflect upon why the U.S. has proved unable to translate its extraordinary wealth into a high level of overall societal well-being.

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Appendix A: Standardization of Indicators

The Societal Well-Being Index is an average of nine separate component domains, each itself an average of some number of individual indicators taken from a wide variety of reputable sources. The nine domains that compose the index are: Economy, Education, Health, Polity, Social Capital, Environment, Crime/Incarceration, Mental Health & Subjective Well-Being, and Opportunity/Mobility. Each domain has a theoretical range from 0-100, and the Index is the simple average of all 9 domains—no domain was given more or less weight than any other.

To construct the individual Domains, we first looked for appropriate indicators that would cover a range of important topics related to that Domain, then standardized those indicators so that they could be averaged in a relatively meaningful way. Each indicator within each domain was standardized into a 0-100 scale, such that the minimum value was transformed into 0 and the maximum value was transformed into 100. Thus, the absolute range of the data was eliminated, but relative distances between any two countries were maintained. For example, if a pair of countries were 3 units apart on some indicator with a range (among our countries) of 30, they will be 10 units apart on the 100 point scale. All indicators were rescaled so that undesirable attributes get lower scores and desirable ones get higher scores; thus, since a high infant mortality rate is a bad thing, a score of 0 on the standardized infant mortality rate indicates that that country had the highest infant mortality, *not* that they had no infant mortality at all. The formula for each transformation of indicators where high values were desirable, then, was:

$$\frac{\text{(countryvalue – minimum countryvalue) x 100}}{\text{(maximum countryvalue – minimum countryvalue)}}$$

Where “countryvalue” is the value for the country whose index score is being calculated, and minimum and maximum countryvalue are the lowest/least desirable and highest/most desirable values, respectively, among our 20 countries. For indicators where low scores in the original data indicate desirable outcomes and high scores indicate something negative, the formula is:

$$\frac{(\text{countryvalue} - \text{minimum countryvalue}) \times -100}{(\text{maximum countryvalue} - \text{minimum countryvalue})}$$

Each domain, then, is the unweighted average of all indicators (with the exception of Mental Health/Subjective Well-Being, where indicators within each sub-domain were averaged before the two sub-domains were combined). If a given country was missing data on half or more of the indicators within a given domain, that country did not receive a score on that domain; its Societal Well-Being Index score, then, is its average across all the domains where it had sufficient data to generate a Domain score.

Appendix B: Indicator raw values, sources, and additional information

This appendix contains detailed information about each of the 34 indicators used to create the nine domains and single Index of Societal Well-Being. It should be possible based on this document, combined with Appendix A, to replicate each step of the process by which we created our Societal Well-Being Index, and to evaluate independently the credibility and appropriateness of each indicator we have included.

Each page of this Appendix is dedicated to a single indicator. For each indicator, we have included the following:

- a table of raw values ordered by rank
- source and citation information
- notes about how the indicator data were obtained, including, where relevant:
    - question wording
    - sample size
    - information on the methods used by the agency which collected the information
    - any formulas involved, etc.
- includes the variable name used in our analyses (in the upper right-hand corner).

Where indicators are themselves averages or composites of other measures, detailed descriptions are included along with, where possible, the measures used to create the indicator.

Note: All notes and other explanatory texts are directly quoted from the source material.

Domain: Economy

Table B1: GDP Per Capita, Using Current PPP, 2008

	Country	USD
1.	Norway	56 600
2.	**United States**	**46 500**
3.	Ireland	44 200
4.	Switzerland	41 600
5.	Netherlands	41 200
6.	Canada	39 400
7.	Austria	38 400
8.	Australia	37 400
9.	Sweden	36 900
10.	Belgium	36 400
11.	Denmark	36 400
12.	United Kingdom	36 300
13.	Germany	35 600
14.	Finland	35 400
15.	Japan	34 100
16.	France	33 400
17.	Spain	32 000
18.	Italy	30 300
19.	Greece	29 800
20.	New Zealand	26 700

Source: *OECD in Figures 2009.* OECD, Paris, 2009. <www.oecd.org/infigures>.

Note: Measure: Per head, US $, 2008 prices, 2008 Purchasing Power Parities

Table B2: Median Income for 2000 and 2004

	country	2000	2004	average
		26236.5	**26795.0**	**26515.7**
1	**United States**	**1**	**5**	**8**
		26100.3	26087.3	26093.8
2	Switzerland	7	8	8
		24619.9	25587.2	
3	Norway	5	5	25103.6
		21650.9	23507.2	
4	Canada	5	5	22579.1
		21678.4	23307.9	22493.2
5	Austria	8	8	3
		20915.5		20915.5
6	Germany	9		9
7	Belgium	20350		20350
		19412.9	20358.7	19885.8
8	Denmark	1	6	4
9	Finland	18460.5	19522.9	18991.7
		17461.1		18915.5
10	Sweden	5	20370	7
		18783.5		18783.5
11	France	8		8
		17010.8	19960.9	18485.8
12	United Kingdom	7	2	9
			18007.1	17913.0
13	Australia	17819	8	9
		17414.6		17414.6
14	Ireland	3		3
			15673.3	15858.4
15	Spain	16043.5	3	2
		15206.2		15219.1
16	Italy	5	15232	3
		11723.1		13082.0
17	Greece	2	14441	6

Missing: Japan, Netherlands, New Zealand

Source: Luxembourg Income Study (LIS) Web Tabulator, http://www.lisproject.org/web-tabulator.htm (accessed February, 2011).

All income variables have been converted from nominal local currency units to 2005 international dollars. Expressing income amounts in PPP terms is common in comparing incomes across countries and results in incomes that hold roughly equal purchasing power measured in international prices. The conversion was done by applying first a national price deflator to the nominal amounts to express them in terms of year 2005 prices. Those amounts were then converted to international dollars using purchasing power parities. The national deflators and PPPs were taken from the OECD when available, and from the World Development Indicators when not.

Disposable Personal Income = Gross Income (all income from all sources including social transfers, and private transfers) less payroll and income taxes.

Domain: Economy

Table B3: Median Wealth 2010

	Country	Median wealth per adult, 2010
1.	Norway	157,239
2.	Australia	124,234
3.	Italy	115,182
4.	Finland	104,615
5.	Japan	102,946
6.	Canada	94,700
7.	Belgium	92,263
8.	Ireland	90,025
9.	Austria	86,946
10.	UK	78,765
11.	Netherlands	68,522
12.	Spain	67,611
13.	France	66,521
14.	New Zealand	61,971
15.	Germany	59,077
16.	**U.S.**	**47,771**
17.	Greece	42,576
18.	Switzerland	41,547
19.	Sweden	29,211
20.	Denmark	10,900

Source: Davies, Jim. Shorrocks, Anthony. Lluberas, Rodrigo. *Global Wealth Report.* Credit Suisse Research Institute, October, 2010. <https://emagazine.credit-suisse.com/app/shop/index.cfm?fuseaction=OpenShopDetail&aoid=291481&lang=EN>

Note: The aim of the Credit Suisse Global Wealth Report is to generate the most comprehensive study of wealth globally. In this respect, we analyze all of the world's USD 200 trillion of wealth, through the lens of the Wealth Pyramid the breakdown of wealth assets on a country by- country basis and the distribution of wealth by gender. The data used in the Credit Suisse Global Wealth Report is up to date (2010) and produced by recognized independent academic authorities on global household wealth.

Our aim in this report is to provide a comprehensive global portrait covering not only the upper echelons of wealth, but the whole spectrum of wealth holdings from rich to poor. This report provides a detailed analysis of the level and pattern across countries and regions of household net worth. We define household net worth or "wealth" as the value of financial assets plus non-financial assets (principally housing) owned by individuals less their debts. The figures are obtained by applying cutting-edge techniques to data derived from a great variety of sources. In the larger Credit Suisse Wealth Databook that accompanies this shorter publication, we outline the methodology employed in more detail. Because children rarely own much wealth, the results are expressed in terms of the global population of adults, which totaled 4.4 billion.

Domain: Economy

meanwealt
h

Table B4: Mean Wealth 2010

	Country	Mean Wealth per Adult, 2010
1	Switzerland	372,692
2	Norway	326,530
3	Australia	320,909
4	France	255,156
5	Sweden	243,506
6	U.S.	**236,213**
7	UK	229,940
8	Italy	226,423
9	Canada	225,896
10	Belgium	211,013
11	Denmark	204,703
12	Japan	201,387
13	Austria	180,392
14	New Zealand	170,736
15	Germany	164,561
16	Finland	151,572
17	Netherlands	148,856
18	Ireland	144,035
19	Spain	101,799
20	Greece	99,413

Source: Davies, Jim. Shorrocks, Anthony. Lluberas, Rodrigo. *Global Wealth Report.* Credit Suisse Research Institute, October, 2010. <https://emagazine.credit-suisse.com/app/shop/index.cfm?fuseaction=OpenShopDetail&aoid=291481&lang=EN>

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Domain: Economy

Table B5: After Tax and Transfer Poverty Rate (40% of median income), Mid 2000's.

	Country	Poverty rate after taxes and transfers
1.	Denmark	2.1
2.	Sweden	2.5
3.	France	2.8
4.	Finland	2.8
5.	Belgium	3.1
6.	Austria	3.4
7.	Norway	3.5
8.	United Kingdom	3.7
9.	Netherlands	4
10.	Australia	4.6
11.	Switzerland	4.8
12.	Germany	6.3
13.	Italy	6.6
14.	Ireland	7
15.	Greece	7
16.	Canada	7
17.	Spain	8.1
18.	Japan	9.5
19.	**United States**	**11.4**

Table: C11

Missing: New Zealand

Source: *OECD Stat. Social and Welfare Statistics: Income Distribution and Poverty.* OECD, October, 2008. <http://stats.oecd.org/>

Note: The data are collected through a network of national experts, who apply common conventions and definitions to unit record data from different national data sources and supply detailed cross-tabulations to the OECD. This method of data collection allows covering a broader range of OECD countries (30, in the present volume), based on information that is both more up-to-date relative to that available through other statistical sources and better suited for assessing changes in income distribution over time. Its disadvantage is that it does not allow accessing the original micro-data, which constrains the analysis that can be performed. For more information, see: http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/55/41/41487359.pdf.

Table B6: Economist Intelligence Unit's Democracy Index: Aggregate Scores of Electoral Processes and Pluralism, Functioning of Government, Political Participation, Political Culture, and Civil Liberties

	Country	Overall Score
1.	Sweden	9.88
2.	Norway	9.68
3.	Netherlands	9.53
4.	Denmark	9.52
5.	Finland	9.25
6.	New Zealand	9.19
7.	Switzerland	9.15
8.	Australia	9.09
9.	Canada	9.07
10.	Ireland	9.01
11.	Germany	8.82
12.	Austria	8.49
13.	Spain	8.49
14.	Japan	8.25
15.	**US**	**8.22**
16.	Belgium	8.16
17.	UK	8.15
18.	Greece	8.13
19.	France	8.07
20.	Italy	7.98

Source: *Economist Intelligence Unit Index of Democracy 2008*. Economist Intelligence Unit. <http://graphics.eiu.com/PDF/Democracy%20Index%202008.pdf.>

Methodology: The Economist Intelligence Unit's index of democracy, on a 0 to 10 scale, is based on the ratings for 60 indicators grouped in five categories: electoral process and pluralism; civil liberties; the functioning of government; political participation; and political culture. Each category has a rating on a 0 to 10 scale, and the overall index of democracy is the simple average of the five category indexes.

The category indexes are based on the sum of the indicator scores in the category, converted to a 0 to 10 scale. Adjustments to the category scores are made if countries do not score a 1 in the following critical areas for democracy: 1. whether national elections are free and fair, 2. the security of voters, 3. the influence of foreign powers on government, and 4. the capability of the civil service to implement policies.

If the scores for the first three questions are 0 (or 0.5), one point (0.5 point) is deducted from the index in the relevant category (either the electoral process and pluralism or the functioning of government). If the score for 4 is 0, one point is deducted from the functioning of government category index.

Domain: Polity

Table B7: Summary of World Bank's World Governance Indicators 2007:

Voice and Accountability Aggregate Scores and Ranks

	Country	Percentile Score (0-100)
1	Denmark	100
2	Switzerland	99.5
3	Netherlands	99
4	Norway	98.6
5	Finland	97.6
6	New Zealand	97.1
7	Sweden	96.6
8	Belgium	96.2
9	Ireland	95.2
10	Germany	94.7
11	Austria	94.2
12	UK	93.8
13	Canada	93.3
14	Australia	92.8
15	France	91.3
16	Italy	86.5
17	**US**	**85.1**
18	Spain	83.2
19	Greece	76.4
20	Japan	75.5

Source: Governance Matters 2008: Worldwide Governance Indicators, 1996-2007. World Bank Institute. <http://info.worldbank.org/governance/wgi/index.asp>

Notes on study: The project identifies six key dimensions of governance: voice and accountability, political stability, government, absence of violence, rule of law and regulatory quality. The project uses perceptions data from 35 different sources, including domestic firms, country analysts, NGO's, commercial risk agencies who base their responses on global networks of correspondents who live in the country being assessed. Data from the both the Economist Intelligence Unit and Freedom House are used in the report. The researchers then use an Unobserved Components Model to aggregate information from these responses into the six broad clusters listed above. Based on the reliability of each source, researchers then construct a weighted average for the level of governance in each country, which then acts as an estimate of the level of governance for that country.

adultliteracy1999

Domain: Education

Table B8: Mean score on Adult Literacy, 1999

	Country	Score
1	Switzerland	304.27
2	Spain	294.07
3	Denmark	289.07
4	Finland	287.97
5	New Zealand	285.77
6	Germany	284.77
7	Canada	279.70
8	Belgium	277.33
9	Australia	274.47
10	**US**	272.27
11	Norway	271.67
12	UK	271.18
13	Greece	267.13
14	Italy	263.20

Missing: Austria, Ireland, France, Japan, Spain, Greece

Source: Data from http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/24/21/39437980.pdf, page 135
Literacy in the Information Age: Final Report of the International Adult Literacy Survey, OECD.
Methods from" Kirsch, Irwin. *The International Adult Literacy Survey*. Rep. Educational Testing Service, Dec. 2001. Web. <http://www.ets.org/Media/Research/pdf/RR-01-25-Kirsch.pdf>

Note: There are 33 tasks ordered along the IALS 500-point quantitative literacy scale. These tasks range in difficulty value from 225 to 409. Easy tasks on the document literacy scale tended to require readers to make a literal match on the basis of a single piece of information. Tasks further along the document scale become somewhat more varied. While some may still require a single feature match, more distracting information may be present in the document or the match may require a low textbased inference. Some tasks may require the reader to cycle through information to arrive at a correct response. Tasks that are more difficult can take on a variety of characteristics. They may still require the reader to make a match, but usually the reader has to match on multiple features or take conditional information into account. Tasks may also require the reader to integrate information from one or more documents, or cycle through a document to provide multiple responses. The most difficult tasks typically require the reader to match on multiple features, to cycle through documents, and to integrate information. Frequently, these tasks require the reader to make higher-level inferences, process conditional information, and deal with highly plausible distractors. These tasks also tend to be associated with more complex displays of information.

Domain: Education pisaavg

Table B9: PISA Average Performance in Reading, Mathematics, and Science, 2009

	Country	PISA Average
1.	Finland	543.67
2.	Japan	529.33
3.	Canada	526.67
4.	New Zealand	524.00
5.	Australia	518.67
5.	Netherlands	518.67
7.	Switzerland	517.33
8.	Germany	510.00
9.	Belgium	509.33
10.	Norway	500.33
11.	UK	500.00
12.	Denmark	499.00
13.	Ireland	497.00
13.	France	497.00
15.	**US**	**496.33**
16.	Sweden	495.33
17.	Austria	486.67
18.	Italy	486.00
19.	Greece	473.00
20.	Spain	484.00

Source: PISA 2009 Results: What Students Know and Can Do: Student Performance in Reading, Mathematics, and Science. OECD, 2010. <http://www.oecd.org/edu/pisa/2009>

Note: The PISA average above describes the average across all 3 areas – Reading, Science, and Mathematic for each country. The following are the methods through which the data was collected:

- Around 470 000 students completed the assessment in 2009, representing about 26 million 15-year-olds in the schools of the 65 participating countries and economies. Some 50 000 students took part in a second round of this assessment in 2010, representing about 2 million 15 year-olds from 9 additional partner countries and economies.
- Each participating student spent two hours carrying out pencil-and-paper tasks in reading, mathematics and science. In 20 countries, students were given additional questions via computer to assess their capacity to read digital texts.
- The assessment included tasks requiring students to construct their own answers as well as multiple-choice questions. The latter were typically organised in units based on a written passage or graphic, much like the kind of texts or figures that students might encounter in real life.

Table B10: Educational Attainment
Average of percentage with HS degrees and percentages with College Degrees, 2008

	Country	Avg % HS and College Grads	% with a college degree	% with at least HS
1	Japan	71.42	42.84	100.00
2	Canada	67.94	48.81	87.07
3	**United States**	**64.90**	**41.11**	**88.70**
4	Switzerland	60.92	33.65	88.18
5	United Kingdom	59.74	32.54	86.93
6	New Zealand	59.70	40.03	79.38
7	Finland	58.83	36.58	81.07
8	Sweden	58.52	32.01	85.04
9	Norway	58.35	35.99	80.70
10	Germany	55.37	25.40	85.33
11	Denmark	54.64	32.68	76.59
12	Australia	53.04	36.15	69.94
13	Netherlands	52.73	32.17	73.29
14	Ireland	51.24	33.47	69.02
15	Belgium	50.94	32.31	69.58
16	Austria	50.33	18.07	82.59
17	France	48.65	27.44	69.87
18	Greece	43.24	23.04	63.44
19	Spain	40.20	29.24	51.16
20	Italy	33.59	13.79	53.39

Source: Education at a Glance 2010 http://www.oecd-ilibrary.org/education/education-at-a-glance-2010_eag-2010-en

Data from link within full pdf; score is the average of two percentages: those with at least a HS degree but no 4-year college degree (those with 2-year or equivalent degrees are counted in this group) and those with at least a college degree (including those with higher degrees).

Table B11: Healthy Life Expectancy (average of male and female scores)

Country	2007
1. Japan	76
2. Switzerland	75
3. Australia	74
3. Italy	74
3. Spain	74
3. Sweden	74
7. Canada	73
7. France	73
7. Germany	73
7. Ireland	73
7. Netherlands	73
7. New Zealand	73
7. Norway	73
14. Austria	72
14. Belgium	72
14. Denmark	72
14. Finland	72
14. Greece	72
14. United Kingdom	72
20. United States	**70**

Source (year 2007): *World Health Statistics 2010*, pg. 48-54. World Health Organization. Geneva, Switzerland. 2010. <http://www.who.int/entity/whosis/whostat/EN_WHS10_Part2.pdf>

Note: Healthy life expectancy (HALE) at birth adds up expectation of life for different health states, adjusted for severity distribution making it sensitive to changes over time or differences between countries in the severity distribution of health states. The data above is an average of both male and female HALE. Since comparable health state prevalence data are not available for all countries, a four-stage method of estimation is used:

1. Data from the WHO Global Burden of Disease (GBD) study are used to estimate severity-adjusted prevalence by age and sex for all countries.
2. Data from the WHO Multi-Country Survey Study (MCSS) and World Health Survey are used to make independent estimates of severity adjusted prevalence by age and sex for survey countries.
3. Prevalence for all countries is calculated based on GBD, MCSS and WHS estimates.
4. Life tables constructed by WHO are used with Sullivan's method to compute HALE for countries.

Estimates for 2007 have been revised to take into account the Global Burden of Disease estimates for Member States for the year 2004 and may not be entirely comparable with those for 2002 published in *World Health Statistics2007*.

Domain: Health

obeseoecd2011

Table B12: Percentage Obese

	Country	% Obese
1	Switzerland	8.1
2	Italy	9.9
3	Norway	10
4	Sweden	10.2
5	France	11.2
6	Denmark	11.4
7	Netherlands	11.8
8	Austria	12.4
9	Belgium	13.8
10	Ireland	15
11	Finland	15.7
12	Canada	15.9
13	Germany	16
14	Spain	17.1
15	Greece	18.1
16	Australia	21.4
17	**United States**	**27.5**

Missing: Japan, New Zealand, United Kingdom

Source: *OECD Health Data 2010.* OECD, Paris, 2010.
< http://www.oecd.org/document/16/0,2340,en_2649_34631_2085200_1_1_1_1,00.html>

Notes: Obesity is defined as having a BMI >30 kg/m^2. The data is based on self-reports in the year 2010.

The data comes from the following years :
2005 Denmark
2006 Austria
2007 Australia Ireland Sweden Switzerland
2008 Belgium, Canada, Finland, France, Greece, Italy, Norway, USA
2009 Germany, Netherlands, Spain

Table B13: Life Expectancy at Birth

Country	Life Expectancy at Birth -WHO 2008
1. Japan	83
2. Australia	82
2. Italy	82
2. Switzerland	82
4. Canada	81
4. France	81
4. New Zealand	81
4. Norway	81
4. Spain	81
4. Sweden	81
11. Austria	80
11. Belgium	80
11. Denmark	80
11. Germany	80
11. Greece	80
11. Ireland	80
11. Netherlands	80
11. United Kingdom	80
19. Finland	**79**
20. United States	78

Source: *World Health Statistics 2010: Mortality and Burden of Disease.* World Health Organization. Geneva, Switzerland. 2010. <http://www.who.int/entity/whosis/whostat/EN_WHS10_Part2.pdf>

Note: Report includes data from 1990, 2000, and 2008.

Table B14: Infant Mortality Rate Both Sexes (death by age 1 per 1000 live births)

	Country	Infant Mortality Rate, Both Sexes WHO 2011	Infant Mortality Rate, Both Sexes WHO 2004
1.	Sweden	2	3.4
2.	Finland	3	3.8
2.	France	3	4.4
2.	Greece	3	5.4
2.	Italy	3	4.5
2.	Japan	3	3.2
2.	Norway	3	3.8
8.	Australia	4	5.2
8.	Austria	4	4.8
8.	Belgium	4	4.8
8.	Denmark	4	5.3
8.	Germany	4	4.4
8.	Ireland	4	6.2
8.	Netherlands	4	5.1
8.	Spain	4	3.9
8.	Switzerland	4	4.9
17.	Canada	5	5.3
17.	New Zealand	5	6.3
17.	United Kingdom	5	5.6
20.	**United States**	**7**	**6.9**

Source: *World Health Statistics 2010: Mortality and Burden of Disease.* World Health Organization. Geneva, Switzerland. 2010. <http://www.who.int/entity/whosis/whostat/EN_WHS10_Part2.pdf>

Note: Report includes statistics on infant mortality rates for the years 1990, 2000, and 2008 for males, females, and both sexes combined. The 2011 data has no decimal places.

Table B15: Disability Adjusted Life Years (DALYs)

Country	**DALY value**
1. Japan	74.5
2. Australia	73.2
3. France	73.1
4. Sweden	73.0
5. Spain	72.8
6. Italy	72.7
7. Greece	72.5
7. Switzerland	72.5
9. Canada	72.0
9. Netherlands	72.0
11. UK	71.7
11. Norway	71.7
13. Belgium	71.6
13. Austria	71.6
15. Finland	70.5
16. Germany	70.4
17. US	**70.0**
18. Ireland	69.6
19. Denmark	69.4
20. New Zealand	69.2

Source: Musgrove, Philip et. al. *The World Health Report, 2000: Health Systems, Improving Performance*. WHO 2000 Report Geneva, Switzerland. 2000.

Table B16: Percent Agreeing that People Can Mostly be Trusted, 2004-7

		trustpeople2004	trustpeople2007	avgtrustpeople
1	Norway		0.74	0.74
2	Sweden	0.66	0.68	0.67
3	Denmark	0.67		0.67
4	Finland	0.57	0.59	0.58
5	Netherlands	0.60	0.44	0.52
6	New Zealand		0.51	0.51
7	Switzerland		0.51	0.51
8	Australia		0.48	0.48
9	Japan	0.43	0.39	0.41
10	Canada	0.37	0.42	0.40
11	**United States**	**0.36**	**0.40**	**0.38**
12	Ireland	0.36		0.36
13	Germany	0.38	0.34	0.36
14	Austria	0.33		0.33
15	Italy	0.33	0.29	0.31
16	United Kingdom	0.29	0.30	0.30
17	Belgium	0.29		0.29
18	Spain	0.36	0.20	0.28
19	Greece	0.24		0.24
20	France	0.21	0.19	0.20

Source: WORLD VALUES SURVEY, Authors' analysis. Percentage of people agreeing that "most people can be trusted" vs. "you can't be too careful."

Domain: Social Capital

groups2004

Table B17: Average Number of Group Memberships

		1999-2004
1	**US**	**3.26**
2	Sweden	3.24
3	Netherlands	3.06
4	Canada	1.96
5	Denmark	1.91
6	Finland	1.86
7	Belgium	1.65
8	Australia	1.48
9	Greece	1.25
10	Ireland	1.13
11	Germany	0.84
12	Japan	0.84
13	Italy	0.77
14	France	0.61
15	UK	0.61
16	Spain	0.48

Missing: Austria, Norway, New Zealand, Switzerland

Source: WORLD VALUES SURVEY 1981-2008 OFFICIAL AGGREGATE v.20090901, 2009. World Values Survey Association. Aggregate File Producer: ASEP/JDS, Madrid. <http://www.worldvaluessurvey.org>

Note: The data represents the average total number of groups belonged to, including church/religious groups and unions. The data is the sum of all group-belonging variables.

Table B18: Average Total Number of Close Friends, 2004

	Country	Total Friends2004
1.	Norway	16.78662
2.	Australia	16.3037
3.	Switzerland	16.25411
4.	New Zealand	14.56598
5.	Japan	13.51716
6.	UK	13.29422
7.	**US**	**13.22697**
8.	Austria	12.19124
9.	Denmark	11.93519
10.	Germany-all	11.58621
11.	Canada	9.903367
12.	France	9.488189
13.	Italy	8.562937
14.	Finland	7.795796
15.	Spain	6.977133

Missing: Belgium, Greece, Ireland, Netherlands, Sweden

Source: International Social Survey Program, Social Networks Module; average total across responses to three questions: number of close friends at work, in neighborhood, and elsewhere (need to double-check this).

Table B19: Environmental Performance Rankings, 2008

Country	Ranking
1. Switzerland	95.5
2. Norway	93.1
2. Sweden	93.1
4. Finland	91.4
5. Austria	89.4
6. New Zealand	88.9
7. France	87.7
8. Canada	86.6
9. Germany	86.3
9. United Kingdom	86.3
11. Japan	84.5
12. Italy	84.2
13. Denmark	84.0
14. Spain	83.1
15. Ireland	82.7
16. US	**81.0**
17. Greece	80.2
18. Australia	79.8
19. Netherlands	78.7
20. Belgium	78.4

Source: Environmental Performance Index 2010. Yale Center for Environmental Law & Policy and the Center for International Earth Science Information Network, Columbia University. In collaboration with the World Economic Forum and the Joint Research Centre of the European Commission, 2008. <http://epi.yale.edu/CountryScores.>

Note: The 2008 Environmental Performance Index (EPI) ranks 149 countries on 25 indicators tracked across 10 established categories (with their weights in parentheses): Environmental Burden of Disease (25%), Air Pollution (effects on humans; 12.5%) , Air Pollution (effects on ecosystems; 4.167%), Water (effects on humans; 12.5%), Water (effects on ecosystems; 4.167%), Biodiversity and Habitat (4.167%), Forestry (4.167%), Fisheries (4.167%), Agriculture (4.167%), and Climate Change (25%). The EPI identifies broadly-accepted targets for environmental performance and measures how close each country comes to these goals. As a quantitative gauge of pollution control and natural resource management results, the Index provides a powerful tool for improving policymaking and shifting environmental decision making onto firmer analytic foundations.

Domain: Crime/Incarceration

Table B20: Assaults per 100,000 People, 2006

1	Japan	43.9
2	Italy	49.8
3	Switzerland	84
4	Germany	153.9
5	France	180.8
6	Denmark	192.2
7	Ireland	264.4
8	Norway	327.9
9	Austria	392.4
10	Netherlands	435.3
11	Finland	539
12	Belgium	597.7
13	Sweden	690.6
14	Australia	735
15	Canada	750
16	**US**	**805.2**
17	UK	1222.2

Missing: Greece, New Zealand, Spain

Source: How Canada Performs. Canadian Conference Board. 2008.
<http://sso.conferenceboard.ca/HCP/overview/default>

Note: The study, conducted by the Canadian Conference Board, measured social performance is measured using 17 indicators across three dimensions – self-sufficiency, equity, and social cohesion. The statistics on assault rates fell under the social cohesion domain. The study also includes "report cards" for the years 1980's, 1990's, and 2000's assigning the participating nations a grade of A-D. In 2000's study of assault rates the grade assigned to the U.S. is a C.

The data comes from the following years: 2006 data for Austria, Canada, Denmark, Finland, Italy, Netherlands, Norway, Sweden, Switzerland, and the United Kingdom. 2004 data for Belgium, France, Germany, and Ireland. 2003 data for Australia. 2002 data for Japan. 1999 data for the United States. Where possible, missing historical data has been interpolated between two available data points.

Original Source: United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime. *United Nations Survey of Crime Trends and the Operations of Criminal Justice Systems Database*.

Domain: Crime/Incarceration

Table B21: Homicides per 100,000 People, 2007

1	Japan	0.4
1	U.K	0.4
3	Germany	0.6
3	Norway	0.6
5	France	0.7
6	Austria	0.8
6	Denmark	0.8
6	Ireland	0.8
6	Netherlands	0.8
10	Sweden	1
10	Switzerland	1
12	Italy	1.1
13	Australia	1.3
14	Canada	1.6
15	Finland	1.8
16	**US**	**6.2**

Missing: Belgium, Greece, New Zealand, Spain

Source: How Canada Performs. Canadian Conference Board. 2008.
<http://sso.conferenceboard.ca/HCP/overview/default>

Note: The study, conducted by the Canadian Conference Board, measured social performance is measured using 17 indicators across three dimensions – self-sufficiency, equity, and social cohesion. The statistics on homicide rates fell under the social cohesion domain. The study also includes "report cards" for the years 1980's, 1990's, and 2000's assigning the participating nations a grade of A-D. In the 2000's study of homicide rates the grade assigned to the U.S. is a D.

The data comes from the following years: 2007 data for Austria, Finland, Japan, Netherlands, and the United Kingdom. 2006 data for Denmark, France, Germany, Ireland, Italy, Norway, Sweden, and Switzerland. 2005 data for the United States. 2004 data for Australia and Canada.

Original Source: OECD, *Health Data 2009*. Paris: Author, 2009.

Domain: Crime/Incarceration

Tale B22: Incarceration Rate per 100,000 people

1	Japan	61
2	Italy	67
3	Sweden	79
4	Switzerland	79
5	France	85
6	Germany	93
7	Canada	107
8	Australia	125
9	Netherlands	128
10	Spain	147
11	United Kingdom	148
12	**United States**	**750**

Missing: Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, Greece, Ireland, Norway, New Zealand

Incarceration per 100,000 population.

Source: Incarceration Rate. International Centre for Prison Studies. King's College, London. 2003. <http://www.prisonstudies.org/>

Domain: Crime/Incarceration

Table B23: Percentage of the population feeling unsafe or very unsafe on the street after dark

	Country	% feeling unsafe
1	Finland	14
1	Norway	14
3	Canada	17
3	Denmark	17
5	Netherlands	18
6	Austria	19
6	Sweden	19
6	**United States**	**19**
9	France	21
10	Switzerland	22
11	Belgium	26
12	Australia	27
12	Ireland	27
14	Germany	30
14	New Zealand	30
16	United Kingdom	32
17	Spain	33
18	Italy	35
19	Japan	35
20	Greece	42

Source: International Crime Victims Survey: http://rechten.uvt.nl/icvs/pdffiles/ICVS2004_05.pdf, page 130.
Criminal Victimisation in International Perspective: Key findings from the 2004-2005 ICVS and EU ICS, by Jan van Dijk, John van Kesteren, Paul Smit

NOTE: Most data is for 2004-5; Switzerland only is 2000.

Table B24: Life Evaluation Scores

	Country	Life Evaluation Score
1	Denmark	8.02
2	Finland	7.67
3	Switzerland	7.47
4	Netherlands	7.46
5	Norway	7.42
6	Sweden	7.38
7	Australia	7.36
8	Canada	7.33
9	New Zealand	7.31
10	Belgium	7.26
11	Spain	7.15
12	Ireland	7.14
13	Austria	7.12
14	**United States**	**7.11**
15	France	7.09
16	United Kingdom	6.98
17	Italy	6.85
18	Germany	6.62
19	Japan	6.52

Missing: Greece.

Source: Arora, Raksha. *A Well-Being Report Card for President Sarkozy.* Gallup. January 2008 <http://www.gallup.com/poll/103795/wellbeing-report-card-president-sarkozy.aspx>

Note: Survey Methods:
Results are based on telephone and face-to-face interviews conducted throughout 2005. Randomly selected sample sizes typically number 1,000 residents, aged 15 and older, in the countries polled. For results based on samples of this size, one can say with 95% confidence that the maximum error attributable to sampling and other random effects is ±3 percentage points. In addition to sampling error, question wording and practical difficulties in conducting surveys can introduce error or bias into the findings of public opinion polls.

Table B25: Mean Life Satisfaction on 10 point scale

1	Denmark	8.24
2	Ireland	8.17
3	Austria	8.02
4	Switzerland	8.01
5	Norway	7.96
6	New Zealand	7.89
7	Finland	7.84
8	Canada	7.76
9	Netherlands	7.76
10	Sweden	7.74
11	United Kingdom	7.6
12	Belgium	7.56
13	Spain	7.32
14	**United States**	**7.32**
15	Australia	7.28
16	Germany	7.13
17	Japan	6.99
18	France	6.91
19	Italy	6.89
20	Greece	6.67

Source: WORLD VALUES SURVEY 2005 OFFICIAL DATA FILE v.20090901, 2009. World Values Survey Association. < http://www.wvsevsdb.com/wvs/WVSData.jsp>

Note: Table uses values from 2005-2007, unless missing; then uses values from 1999-2004 (Denmark, Australia, and Germany data from 1999-2004).

Table B26: Suicide Deaths per 100,000

		Suicide Deaths per 100,000
1	Greece	2.6
2	Italy	4.9
3	United Kingdom	5.8
4	Spain	6.3
5	Netherlands	7.1
6	Australia	7.5
7	Ireland	9.1
8	Germany	9.1
9	Norway	9.6
10	Denmark	9.9
11	**United States**	**10.1**
12	Canada	10.2
13	Sweden	10.6
14	Austria	11.9
15	New Zealand	12.3
16	France	13.5
17	Switzerland	14.3
18	Belgium	16.3
19	Finland	17.3
20	Japan	19.4

Source: ***OECD Health Data 2010 - Selected Data.*** <***http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=HEALTH***>

Notes:
Data for each country comes from the following years:

2004- Belgium, Canada
2005- Spain, USA
2006- Australia, Denmark, Germany, New Zealand
2007- France, Italy, Netherlands, Norway, Sweden, Switzerland, UK,
2008- Austria, Finland, Greece, Ireland, Japan

Table B27: 12-Month Prevalence of Mental Health Disorders

Table 2. Twelve-Month Prevalence of World Mental Health Composite International Diagnostic Interview/*Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, Fourth Edition**

Country	% (95% Confidence Interval)				
	Anxiety	Mood	Impulse-Control	Substance	Any
Americas					
Colombia	10.0 (8.4-11.7)	6.8 (6.0-7.7)	3.9 (3.2-4.7)	2.8 (2.0-3.7)	17.8 (16.1-19.5)
Mexico	6.8 (5.6-7.9)†	4.8 (4.0-5.6)	1.3 (0.9-1.8)‖	2.5 (1.8-3.3)	12.2 (10.5-13.80)
United States	18.2 (16.9-19.5)	9.6 (8.8-10.4)	6.8 (5.9-7.8)	3.8 (3.2-4.5)	26.4 (24.7-28.0)
Europe					
Belgium	6.9 (4.5-9.4)	6.2 (4.8-7.6)§	1.0 (0.3-1.8)‖	1.2 (0.6-1.9)‡‡	12.0 (9.6-14.3)
France	12.0 (9.8-14.2)	8.5 (6.4-10.6)§	1.4 (0.7-2.0)‖	0.7 (0.3-1.2)‡‡	18.4 (15.3-21.5)
Germany	6.2 (4.7-7.6)	3.6 (2.8-4.3)§	0.3 (0.1-0.6)‖	1.1 (0.4-1.7)‡‡	9.1 (7.3-10.8)
Italy	5.8 (4.5-7.1)	3.8 (3.1-4.5)§	0.3 (0.1-0.5)‖	0.1 (0.0-0.2)‡‡	8.2 (6.7-9.7)
Netherlands	8.8 (6.6-11.0)	6.9 (4.1-9.7)§	1.3 (0.4-2.2)‖	3.0 (0.7-5.2)‡‡	14.9 (12.2-17.6)
Spain	5.9 (4.5-7.3)	4.9 (4.0-5.8)§	0.5 (0.2-0.8)‖	0.3 (0.0-0.5)‡‡	9.2 (7.8-10.6)
Ukraine	7.1 (5.6-8.6)†‡	9.1 (7.3-10.9)§	3.2 (2.4-4.0)¶#**	6.4 (4.8-8.1)‡‡	20.5 (17.7-23.2)
Middle East and Africa					
Lebanon	11.2 (8.9-13.5)	6.6 (4.9-8.2)	1.7 (0.8-2.6)¶**	1.3 (0.0-2.8)	16.9 (13.6-20.2)
Nigeria	3.3 (2.4-4.2)	0.8 (0.5-1.0)	0.0 (0.0-0.1)¶#**	0.8 (0.3-1.2)	4.7 (3.6-5.8)
Asia					
Japan	5.3 (3.5-7.0)†	3.1 (2.2-4.1)	1.0 (0.4-1.5)¶#**††	1.7 (0.3-3.0)	8.8 (6.4-11.2)
People's Republic of China					
Beijing	3.2 (1.8-4.6)†	2.5 (1.5-3.4)	2.6 (1.3-3.9)¶#**	2.6 (1.2-3.9)	9.1 (6.0-12.1)
Shanghai	2.4 (0.9-3.9)†	1.7 (0.6-2.9)	0.7 (0.4-1.1)¶#**	0.5 (0.3-0.6)	4.3 (2.7-5.9)

*Anxiety disorders include agoraphobia, generalized anxiety disorder, obsessive-compulsive disorder, panic disorder, posttraumatic stress disorder, social phobia, and specific phobia. Mood disorders include bipolar I and II disorders, dysthymia, and major depressive disorder. Impulse-control disorders include bulimia, intermittent explosive disorder, and reported persistence in the past 12 months of symptoms of 3 child-adolescent disorders (attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder, conduct disorder, and oppositional-defiant disorder). Substance disorders include alcohol or drug abuse or dependence. In the case of substance dependence, respondents who met full criteria at some time in their life and who continue to have any symptoms are considered to have 12-month dependence even if they currently do not meet full criteria for the disorder. Organic exclusions were made as specified in the *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Health Disorders, Fourth Edition*, but diagnostic hierarchy rules were not used.
†Obsessive-compulsive disorder was not assessed.
‡Specific phobia was not assessed.
§Bipolar disorders were not assessed.
‖Intermittent explosive disorder was not assessed.
¶Bulimia was not assessed.
#Attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder was not assessed.
**Oppositional-defiant disorder was not assessed.
††Conduct disorder was not assessed.
‡‡Only alcohol abuse and dependence were assessed. No assessment was made of other drug abuse or dependence.

Missing: Britain, Sweden, Norway, Denmark, Finland, New Zealand, Switzerland, Ireland, Austria, and Greece.

Source: The WHO World Mental Health Survey Consortium. Prevalence, Severity, and Unmet Need for Treatment of Mental Disorders in the World Health Organization World Mental Health Surveys. *JAMA*. 2004; 291(21): 2581-2590.
http://www.hcp.med.harvard.edu/wmh/national_sample.php http://jama.ama-assn.org/content/291/21/2581/T3.expansion.html

Note: WMH-CIDI = World Health Organization Composite International Diagnostic Interview

Table B28: Drug Abuse Rates, percent of population aged 15-64.

		Opiates	Cocaine	Cannabis	Amphetamines	Ecstasy	average, all drugs
1	Japan	0.06	0.03	0.1	0.4	0.1	0.138
2	Greece	0.3	0.1	1.7	0.04	0.2	0.468
3	Sweden	0.1	0.2	2	0.2	0.4	0.58
4	Finland	0.1	0.3	2.9	0.6	0.5	0.88
5	Norway	0.4	0.8	4.6	1.1	0.5	1.48
6	Belgium	0.4	0.9	5	0.8	1.1	1.64
7	Ireland	0.6	1.1	5.1	0.4	1.1	1.66
8	Denmark	0.5	0.8	6.2	1.3	0.5	1.86
9	Netherlands	0.3	1.1	6.1	0.6	1.5	1.92
10	Germany	0.2	1	6.9	0.9	0.8	1.96
11	France	0.4	0.6	8.6	0.2	0.5	2.06
12	Austria	0.5	0.9	7.5	0.8	0.9	2.12
13	Switzerland	0.6	1.1	9.6	0.8	0.8	2.58
14	Italy	0.8	2.1	11.2	0.4	0.4	2.98
15	United Kingdom	0.9	2.4	8.7	1.3	1.6	2.98
16	Spain	0.2	3	11.2	1	1.2	3.32
17	**United States**	**0.6**	**2.8**	**12.6**	**1.8**	**1**	**3.76**
18	New Zealand	0.5	0.5	13.4	3.4	2.2	4
19	Canada	0.3	2.3	16.8	0.8	1.1	4.26
20	Australia	0.5	1.2	13.3	3.8	4	4.56

Source: 2007 World Drug Report, United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, pp 241 – 248. <http://www.unodc.org/pdf/research/wdr07/WDR_2007.pdf >

Note: All numbers are percentage of population 15-64 who abuse each substance, except: the Opiates rate for Japan is lifetime prevalence age 15+.

Domain: Mental Health/Subjective Well-Being

Table B29: Alcohol Use Disorders (% prevalence estimate for 2004, ages 15+)

	Country	Mean, Both sexes	Male	Female
1	Italy	0.46	0.5	0.41
2	Spain	0.62	1.07	0.17
3	Japan	1.19	2.25	0.13
4	Belgium	1.44	2.03	0.84
5	Greece	2.2	3.56	0.84
6	Switzerland	2.29	3.71	0.87
7	Austria	2.39	3.88	0.9
8	Denmark	2.55	4.12	0.98
9	Germany	2.7	4.51	0.88
10	France	2.81	4.54	1.07
11	New Zealand	2.85	3.5	2.2
12	Ireland	3.02	4.84	1.19
13	Netherlands	3.05	5.29	0.81
14	Canada	3.68	5.43	1.92
15	**United States**	**3.7**	**5.48**	**1.92**
16	Finland	3.78	6.39	1.17
17	United Kingdom	3.97	6.42	1.52
18	Sweden	4.3	6.32	2.27
19	Australia	4.39	6.17	2.61
20	Norway	5.8	9.05	2.55

Source: Management of Substance Abuse – Country Profiles 2011. World Health Organization. <http://www.who.int/substance_abuse/publications/global_alcohol_report/profiles/en/index.html>

Note: AUDIT consists of 10 questions about recent alcohol use, alcohol dependence symptoms, and alcohol-related problems. Each of the questions has a set of responses to choose from, and each response has a score ranging from 0 to 4. In the interview format the interviewer enters the score corresponding to the patient's response into the box beside each question. All the response scores are then be added and recorded in the box labeled "Total". Total scores of 8 or more are recommended as indicators of hazardous and harmful alcohol use, as well as possible alcohol dependence. For more information, see http://whqlibdoc.who.int/hq/2001/WHO_MSD_MSB_01.6a.pdf.

Domain: Opportunity/Mobility

corakmobility

Table B30: Intergenerational Earnings Elasticity

rank	Country	Mobility
1	Denmark	0.15
2	Norway	0.17
3	Finland	0.18
4	Canada	0.19
5	Australia	0.26
6	Sweden	0.27
7	Germany	0.32
8	Spain	0.40
9	France	0.41
10	**United States**	**0.47**
11	Italy	0.48
12	United Kingdom	0.50

Missing: Austria, Belgium, Greece, Ireland, Japan, Netherlands, New Zealand, Switzerland

Source: Adopted and updated with information for Italy, Spain and Australia from Corak (2006), Table 1.
Taken from Economic Mobility Project: An Initiative of the Pew Charitable Projects. "Chasing the Same Dream, Climbing Different Ladders: Economic Mobility in the United States and Canada" http://www.economicmobility.org/assets/pdfs/PEW_EMP_US-CANADA.pdf

Note: "The higher the intergenerational elasticity of earnings, the more highly correlated one's income is with that of one's parents. The primary source of data for this analysis is a nationally representative sample of children who were ages 0–18 in 1968. These children and their parents have been tracked for more than 36 years through the Panel Study of Income Dynamics (PSID), allowing comparison of the children's income as adults with their family's income in childhood. Specifically, total family income of the now-grown children averaged across five recent years

(1995, 1996, 1998, 2000 and 2002) is compared with the five-year average of their parents' income in 1967–1971."

"For analysis of relative mobility, parents and children are ranked by family income and then divided into five equal-sized groups, or quintiles. The analysis then measures the extent to which families move from one quintile to another."

"The measure used is intergenerational income elasticity (IGE). This would be 0.0 in a hypothetical society where parental income has no effect on a child's economic prospects and 1.0 where there is a one-to-one correspondence between parental income and adult child income."

"The IGE measure comes from a linear regression equation estimating the relationship between children's and parents' income, with both child and parental income expressed in logarithmic measures. It measures the percentage difference in expected child income associated with a one percent difference in parental income."

Table B31: Percent of Men Who Start Life in the Bottom Income Quintile Who Stay There

	Country	%
1.	Denmark	25
2.	Sweden	26
3.	Finland	28
4.	Norway	28
5.	United Kingdom	30
6.	**United States**	**42**

Missing: Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, German, Greece, France, Japan, Ireland, Italy, Netherlands, New Zealand, Spain, Switzerland

Source: Isaacs, Julia. V. *International Comparisons of Economic Mobility.* The Brookings Institution.
<http://www.economicmobility.org/assets/pdfs/EMP_InternationalComparisons_ChapterIII.pdf>

Table B32: Father-Son Income Correlation

	Country	Father-Son Correlation
1	Canada	0.14
1	Denmark	0.14
1	Norway	0.14
1	Sweden	0.14
4	Finland	0.15
5	Germany	0.17
6	United Kingdom	0.27
7	**United States**	**0.29**

Missing: Australia, Austria, Belgium, France, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Japan, Netherlands, New Zealand, Spain, Switzerland

Source: Wilkinson, R. G., & Pickett, K. E. (2007). *Social Science & Medicine, 65*(9), 1965-1978. <http://www.equalitytrust.org.uk/docs/problems-of-relative-deprivation.pdf>

Note: Social Mobility Explained

International data on intergenerational social mobility are available for a few countries from a study by Blanden and colleagues (Blanden, Gregg, & Machin, 2005). Social mobility was measured by estimating the correlation between father's and son's incomes (when sons were close to age 30) and calculated from large, representative cohort studies in each of eight countries. Higher correlations between father's and son's incomes therefore indicate *less* social mobility.

Table B33: Preferred estimates of intergenerational earnings elasticity

	Country	Source	Elasticity
1	Denmark	Munk et al (2008)	0.14
2	Finland	Pekkarinen et al. (2006), Österbacka (2001), Averaged as in Björklund and Jäntti (2008)	0.2
3	Canada	Corak and Heisz (1999)	0.23
4	Germany	Vogel (2006)	0.24
4	Sweden	Björklund and Chadwick (2003)	0.24
6	Norway	Nilsen et al (2008)	0.25
6	Australia	Leigh (2007a) revised as in Björklund and Jäntti (2008)	0.25
8	France	Lefranc and Trannoy (2005) (scaled)	0.32
9	Italy	Piraino (2007) (scaled)	0.33
10	UK	Dearden, Machin and Reed (1997) (scaled) and averaged with Nicoletti and Ermisch (2007)	0.37
11	**US**	**Solon (1992)**	**0.41**

Missing: Austria, Belgium, Greece, Ireland, Japan, Netherlands, New Zealand, Spain, Switzerland

Note: "Estimates based on two-stage instrumental variables regressions are scaled down by 0.75 to allow a legitimate comparison to be made with those based on OLS and time averaging. This reflects the difference in these estimates found for the US in Solon (1992) and Björklund and Jäntti (1997)."

From: Table 1, page 34, CEE DP 111
How Much Can We Learn From International Comparisons Of Intergenerational Mobility?
Jo Blanden
November 2009
http://eprints.lse.ac.uk/28283/1/ceedp111.pdf

Domain: Opportunity/Mobility

Table B34: Intergenerational correlations of occupational status between fathers and sons

	Country	estimated correlation
1	Finland	0.342
2	**United States**	**0.343**
3	United Kingdom	0.351
4	Italy	0.372
5	Netherlands	0.404
6	Germany	0.419
7	Switzerland	0.474
8	Ireland	0.491
9	Austria	0.5

Source: “Intergenerational mobility of socio-economic status in comparative perspective” Anders Björklund and Markus Jäntti
http://www.samfunnsforskning.no/nor/content/download/14120/399645/file/NOPEC_2000_1%5B1%5D.pdf

Note: “The sons are 21-64 years old, and must work at least 30 hours a week to be included in the sample. The ISEI status scale is used as the measure of status. Source: Ganzeboom and Treiman (unpublished computations made available to us).”

Table C1: Ranks & Scores for Each Domain for Each Country

	Economy		Polity		Education		Health		Social Capital		Environment		Crime & Incarceration		Mental Health & Subjective Well-Being		Mobility[1]		Societal Well-Being Index	
	rank	score	rank	score	rank	score	rank	score	rank	score	rank	score	rank	score	rank	score	rank	score	rank	score
Norway	1	91.1	2	91.9	7	65.3	6	65.5	1	100.0	2	86.0	2	90.8	10	56.9	4	84.0	1	81.485
Switzerland	2	72.0	5	79.8	15	45.0	3	77.1	4	76.0	1	100.0	1	94.5	4	60.6	14	~~16.5~~	2	75.662
Sweden	15	39.5	1	93.1	6	65.8	2	77.5	2	93.2	3	86.0	9	78.6	6	59.8	5	80.7	3	74.930
Finland	9	49.1	6	76.9	2	84.5	17	43.7	9	42.8	4	76.0	10	77.9	5	60.1	2	89.0	4	67.266
Denmark	14	41.3	3	90.5	11	60.0	16	44.0	7	63.0	13	32.7	3	89.9	1	79.7	1	100.0	5	67.090
Canada	6	52.8	9	65.0	3	82.2	11	52.5	10	39.7	8	48.0	13	75.5	11	54.4	3	85.1	6	61.658
Netherlands	10	48.0	4	88.7	5	66.7	9	56.8	3	76.0	19	1.8	5	84.0	3	64.0	8	~~60.8~~	7	60.878
New Zealand	19	20.3	7	75.9	4	71.5	19	37.5	5	67.4	6	61.4	18	42.9	12	51.0			8	55.000
Japan	8	51.1	19	7.1	1	89.9	1	95.0	11	39.5	11	35.7	8	81.3	17	40.5			9	54.999
Austria	4	57.3	12	51.6	17	31.8	12	51.3	12	38.6	5	64.3	6	81.9	7	58.8	16	~~0.0~~	10	54.849
Australia	5	56.4	10	64.5	9	63.9	7	62.7	8	60.9	18	8.2	14	67.5	18	40.3	6	~~63.9~~	11	53.045
Germany	18	29.0	11	61.3	8	64.7	14	46.4	13	29.9	9	46.2	7	81.4	16	43.1	7	61.4	12	51.496
Ireland	13	41.7	8	67.3	14	49.0	15	44.4	16	26.5	15	25.1	12	76.0	2	64.0	15	~~5.7~~	13	49.912
France	11	46.2	15	34.6	16	36.9	5	69.5	19	10.1	7	54.4	4	88.7	19	37.3	11	~~29.5~~	14	47.162
United Kingdom	7	52.2	14	41.8	12	59.0	18	40.1	15	28.9	10	46.2	16	55.8	14	47.6	10	38.6	15	45.575
Belgium	12	43.7	13	47.0	13	58.4	13	49.8	14	29.4	20	0.0	17	55.1	9	57.2			16	44.260
Italy	17	33.2	18	22.4	20	9.2	4	76.7	18	15.6	12	33.9	11	77.9	13	49.3	9	38.8	17	39.560
United States	**3**	**62.5**	**17**	**25.9**	**10**	**63.2**	**20**	**3.0**	**6**	**65.7**	**16**	**15.2**	**19**	**29.4**	**20**	**34.3**	**13**	**21.6**	**18**	**35.635**
Spain	16	35.6	16	29.1	18	16.5	8	61.6	20	4.9	14	27.5	15	59.8	8	58.0	12	~~28.6~~	19	33.338
Greece	20	15.9	20	5.8	19	12.8	10	52.8	17	17.6	17	10.5	20	0.0	15	43.3			20	22.660

[1]Crossed-out scores based on less than half the available indicators and not used to calculate the well-being index

Table C2: Rank & Score for Each Domain for the United States

	rank	score
Economy	3	62.5
Polity	17	25.9
Education	10	63.2
Health	20	3.0
Social Capital	6	65.7
Environment	16	15.2
Crime & Incarceration	19	29.4
Mental Health & Subjective Well-Being	20	34.3
Mobility	13	21.6
Societal Well-Being Index	**18**	**35.635**