



**MINISTRY OF SOCIAL
DEVELOPMENT**
TE MANATŪ WHAKAHIATO ORA

The Social Report 2016

Te pūrongo oranga tangata



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Contents

List of figures	6
List of tables	11
Introduction	14
Reporting approaches used for indicators	21
Social wellbeing at a glance	22
People	24
Health	35
Life expectancy at birth	37
Health expectancy	41
Suicide	44
Self-rated health	49
Psychological distress	53
Obesity	57
Cigarette smoking	62
Potentially hazardous drinking	67
Participation in physical activity	71
Knowledge and skills	76
Participation in early childhood education	78
School leavers with higher qualifications	82
Participation in tertiary education	86
Educational attainment of the adult population	91
Adult literacy and numeracy skills	97
Paid work	101
Unemployment	103
Employment	107
Median hourly earnings	111
Work-related injury	116
Job satisfaction	120
Satisfaction with work-life balance	124
Economic standard of living	128
Market income per person	130
Income inequality	132
Population with low incomes	135
Material hardship	140
Housing affordability	143
Household crowding	147

Civil and political rights	151
Voter turnout	153
Representation of women in government	158
Representation of ethnic groups in government	161
Perceived discrimination	163
Acceptance of diversity	168
Perceived corruption	173
Cultural identity	175
Local content programming on New Zealand television	177
Māori language speakers	179
Language retention	182
Ability to be yourself in New Zealand	186
Leisure and recreation	189
Satisfaction with leisure time	190
Participation in arts and cultural activities	194
Safety	200
Criminal victimisation	202
Fear of crime	206
Assault mortality	210
Road casualties	214
Social connectedness	218
Telephone and internet access in the household	220
Contact with family and friends	224
Contact between young people and their parents	231
Trust in others	234
Loneliness	238
Voluntary work	242
Life satisfaction	246
Overall life satisfaction	247
Social wellbeing summary	252
Introduction	252
Recent-change and medium-term-change	252
Comparisons with OECD countries	256
Summary table	259
Social wellbeing of selected demographic groups	268
Introduction	268
Social wellbeing outcomes for Māori	269
Changes in social wellbeing for Māori	270

Social wellbeing outcomes for Pacific peoples	272
Changes in social wellbeing for Pacific peoples	273
Social wellbeing outcomes for the Asian ethnic group	275
Changes in social wellbeing for the Asian ethnic group	276
Social wellbeing outcomes for females relative to males	278
Sex differences in social wellbeing outcomes	279
Social wellbeing outcomes at different ages	281
Bibliography	283
Appendix 1: The Social Report framework	288
Appendix 2: Changes to <i>The Social Report 2016</i>	291
Appendix 3: Technical notes	292
Frequently asked questions (FAQs)	324
Endnotes	329

List of figures

Figure SW1.1 – Changes in measures	22
Figure SW1.2 – New Zealand relative to OECD countries	23
Figure P1.1 – Change in New Zealand population, 1937–2068	24
Figure P1.2 – Components of population change, 1992–2014	25
Figure P1.3 – Ethnic composition, 2001–2013	26
Figure P1.4 – Fertility rate, by age group, 1998–2014	28
Figure P1.5 – Family type, 2001–2013	32
Figure H1.1 – Life expectancy at birth, by sex, 1950–1952 to 2012–2014	37
Figure H1.2 – Life expectancy at birth, by ethnic group and sex, 1950–1952 to 2012–2014	39
Figure H2.1 – Health expectancy (years of life at birth free from functional limitation), by sex, 1996–2013	42
Figure H2.2 – Health expectancy (years of life at birth free from functional limitation), by ethnic group and sex, 1996–2013	43
Figure H3.1 – Suicide mortality age-standardised rates, 1972–2012	44
Figure H3.2 – Suicide mortality, numbers and age-standardised rates, by sex, 1972–2012	45
Figure H3.3 – Age-specific suicide mortality rates, by age group, 1972–2012	46
Figure H3.4 – Suicide mortality, age-standardised rates, by ethnic group, 1996–2012	47
Figure H4.1 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who rated their health as good, very good or excellent, by sex, 2006/2007–2013/2014	49
Figure H4.2 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who rated their health as good, very good or excellent, by ethnic group, 2006/2007–2013/2014	51
Figure H5.1 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who experienced psychological distress, by sex, 2006/2007–2013/2014	54
Figure H5.2 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who experienced psychological distress, by ethnic group, 2006/2007–2013/2014	56
Figure H6.1 – Proportion of population aged 2 years and over who were obese, by sex and adult/child, 2006/2007–2013/2014	58
Figure H6.2 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who were obese, by ethnic group, 2006/2007–2013/2014	60
Figure H7.1 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who were current smokers, by sex, 2006/2007–2013/2014	63
Figure H7.2 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who were current smokers, by ethnic group, 2006/2007–2013/2014	65
Figure H8.1 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who were potentially hazardous drinkers, by sex, 2006/2007–2013/2014	67
Figure H8.2 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who were potentially hazardous drinkers, by age group, 2006/2007–2013/2014	68
Figure H9.1 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who met physical activity guidelines in the last week, by sex, 2006/2007–2013/2014	72
Figure H9.2 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who met physical activity guidelines in the last week, by ethnic group, 2006/2007–2013/2014	74
Figure K1.1 – Proportion of children starting school who attended early childhood education, 2000–2014	78
Figure K1.2 – Proportion of children aged 3 and 4 attending early childhood education, by service type, 2000–2014	81

Figure K2.1 – Proportion of school leavers with NCEA Level 2 or above, or equivalent, 1997–2014	82
Figure K2.2 – Proportion of school leavers with NCEA Level 2 or above, by school decile, 2009 and 2014	85
Figure K3.1 – Age-standardised tertiary education participation rate, 1994–2014	86
Figure K3.2 – Age-standardised tertiary education participation rate, by qualification level, 2007–2014	87
Figure K3.3 – Age-standardised tertiary education participation rate, by qualification level and ethnic group, 2014	89
Figure K4.1 – Proportion of adults aged 25–64 years with an educational qualification of at least NCEA Level 2 and Bachelor's degree or higher, 1986–2014	92
Figure K4.2 – Proportion of adults aged 25–64 years with an educational qualification of at least NCEA Level 2 and Bachelor's degree or higher, by sex, 1986–2014	93
Figure K4.3 – Proportion of adults with an educational qualification of at least NCEA Level 2 and Bachelor's degree or higher, by ethnic group, selected years 1986–2014	95
Figure K5.1 – Proportion of adults aged 16–65 years with literacy and numeracy skills at Level 3 or above, 1996 and 2006	98
Figure PW1.1 – Unemployment rate, 1986–2014	104
Figure PW1.2 – Unemployment rate, by ethnic group, 1986–2014	106
Figure PW2.1 – Employment rate, 1986–2014	107
Figure PW2.2 – Employment rate, by ethnic group, 1986–2014	110
Figure PW3.1 – Real median hourly earnings from wage and salary jobs (June 2014 dollars), by sex, June quarters, 1997–2014	111
Figure PW3.2 – Real median hourly earnings from wage and salary jobs, by sex and age group, June quarter, 2014	112
Figure PW3.3 – Real median hourly earnings from wage and salary jobs, by ethnic group, June quarter, 2009–2014	114
Figure PW4.1 – Age-standardised rate of serious non-fatal work-related injury, 2002–2014	116
Figure PW4.2 – Age-specific and age-standardised rate of serious non-fatal work-related injury, by age group and sex, 2012/2014	117
Figure PW5.1 – Proportion of employed people by level of job satisfaction, 2008–2014	120
Figure PW5.2 – Proportion of employed people who were very satisfied or satisfied with their job, by personal income and Material Wellbeing Index, 2014	122
Figure PW5.3 – Proportion of employed people who were very satisfied or satisfied with their job, by family type, 2014	123
Figure PW6.1 – Proportion of employed people by level of satisfaction with work-life balance, 2008 and 2012	124
Figure PW6.2 – Proportion of employed people who were very satisfied or satisfied with their work-life balance, by ethnic group, 2012	126
Figure PW6.3 – Proportion of employed people who were very satisfied or satisfied with their work-life balance, by occupation, 2012	127
Figure EC1.1 – Real gross national disposable income (RGNDI) per person, 1991–2014	130
Figure EC1.2 – Gross national income (GNI) per person, 2013	131
Figure EC2.1 – Ratio of the 80th percentile of equivalised disposable household income (before housing costs) to the 20th percentile of equivalised disposable household income, 1982–2014	132

Figure EC2.2 – Inequality in New Zealand and the OECD using the Gini coefficient, 1982–2014	134
Figure EC3.1 – Proportion of population with net-of-housing-costs household incomes below selected thresholds, 1982–2014	136
Figure EC3.2 – Proportion of population with net-of-housing-costs household incomes below threshold using CV-07, by age group, selected years 1986–2014	137
Figure EC3.3 – Real equivalised median household incomes, by ethnic group, 1988–2014 (\$2014)	138
Figure EC4.1 – Proportion of population with material hardship, 2007–2014	140
Figure EC4.2 – Proportion of population below the less severe material hardship threshold, by age group, 2013–2014 averaged	141
Figure EC5.1 – Proportion of households with housing cost outgoings-to-income ratio greater than 30 percent, 1988–2014	143
Figure EC5.2 – Proportion of households with housing cost outgoings-to-income ratio greater than 30 percent, by income quintile (Q1-Q5), 1988–2014	145
Figure EC6.1 – Proportion of population by bedroom requirements, 1986–2013	147
Figure EC6.2 – Proportion of people needing one or more additional bedrooms, by ethnic group, 1986–2013	148
Figure EC6.3 – Proportion needing one or more bedrooms, by household tenure, 1986–2013	149
Figure CP1.1 – Proportion of estimated voting-age population who cast votes, 1984–2014	154
Figure CP1.2 – Proportion of non-voters by self-reported characteristics, 2008 and 2011 General Elections	155
Figure CP1.3 – Proportion of estimated voting-age population who cast votes in mayoral and council elections, 1989–2013	156
Figure CP2.1 – Women as a proportion of elected Members of Parliament, 1984–2014	158
Figure CP2.2 – Proportion of women candidates and elected women in local government elections, 1989–2013	159
Figure CP3.1 – Members of Parliament identifying as Māori, Pacific peoples or Asian, 1984–2014	162
Figure CP4.1 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who reported they had been discriminated against in the last 12 months, by sex and age group, 2014	164
Figure CP4.2 – Reasons given by those who had reported they had been discriminated against in the last 12 months, by ethnic group, 2014	165
Figure CP4.3 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who reported they had been discriminated against in the last 12 months, by personal income and Material Wellbeing Index, 2014	166
Figure CP5.1 – Level of comfort (very comfortable/comfortable) with having new neighbours from five selected minority groups, 2014	168
Figure CP5.2 – Proportion of population who said they would feel very comfortable or comfortable with a new neighbour from a selected minority group, by age group, 2014	170
Figure CP5.3 – Proportion of population who said they would feel very comfortable or comfortable with a new neighbour from a selected minority group, by ethnic group, 2014	171
Figure CP6.1 – Corruption Perceptions Index scores (0=highly corrupt, 100=highly clean), OECD countries, 2014	174
Figure CI1.1 – Proportion of local content on prime-time television, 2006–2014	177

Figure CI2.1 – Proportion of Māori speakers in the Māori population, by age group, 2001–2013	180
Figure CI3.1 – Proportion of people who could speak the first language of their ethnic group, 2001–2013	183
Figure CI3.2 – Proportion of people who could speak the first language of their ethnic group, by birthplace, 2013	184
Figure CI4.1 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over by how easy or difficult it was to be themselves in New Zealand, 2014	186
Figure CI4.2 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who felt it was very easy or easy to be themselves in New Zealand, by ethnic group and migrant status, 2014	187
Figure CI4.3 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who felt it was very easy or easy to be themselves in New Zealand, by personal income and Material Wellbeing Index, 2014	188
Figure L1.1 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over, by views on amount of free time in the last four weeks, 2008–2012	190
Figure L1.2 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who reported having the right amount of free time in the last four weeks, by ethnic group, 2008–2012	192
Figure L2.1 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who had attended at least one arts event or actively participated in the arts in the previous 12 months, 2005–2014	195
Figure L2.2 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who had attended at least one arts event or actively participated in the arts in the previous 12 months, by sex, 2005–2014	196
Figure L2.3 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who had attended at least one arts event or actively participated in the arts in the previous 12 months, by ethnic group, 2005–2014	198
Figure SS1.1 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who had a crime committed against them in the last 12 months, 2008–2014	202
Figure SS1.2 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who had a crime committed against them in the last 12 months, by ethnic group, 2008–2014	204
Figure SS2.1 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who felt safe or very safe doing various activities, 2014	206
Figure SS2.2 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over by feelings of safety about walking alone in their neighbourhood after dark, by ethnic group, 2014	208
Figure SS3.1 – Age-standardised assault mortality rates, 1972–2012	210
Figure SS3.2 – Age-specific assault mortality rates, by age group, 1982–2012	211
Figure SS3.3 – Number and age-specific rates of assault mortality, by sex, 1972–2012	212
Figure SS3.4 – Assault mortality rates, by ethnic group, 1996–2012	213
Figure SS4.1 – Motor vehicle traffic crash injury and death rates per 100,000 population, 1980–2014	215
Figure SS4.2 – Motor vehicle traffic crash death rates per 100,000 population, by age group, 1990–2014	216
Figure SS4.3 – Motor vehicle traffic crash mortality age-standardised rates, by ethnic group, 1996–2012	217
Figure SC1.1 – Proportion of population with landline telephone, cellphone and internet access in the household, 2001–2013	221

Figure SC2.1 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over whose contact with non-resident family was “about right”, by age group, 2008–2012	225
Figure SC2.2 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over whose contact with non-resident family was “about right”, by ethnic group, 2008–2012	226
Figure SC2.3 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over whose contact with non-resident friends was “about right”, by age group, 2008–2012	228
Figure SC2.4 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over whose contact with non-resident friends was “about right”, by ethnic group, 2008–2012	229
Figure SC3.1 – Proportion of secondary school students who said they get enough time with their parent(s) most of the time, by sex, 2001–2012	232
Figure SC4.1 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over by levels of trust in others, 2014	234
Figure SC4.2 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who said they could trust most people, by ethnic group, 2014	235
Figure SC4.3 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who said they could trust most people, by personal income and Material Wellbeing Index, 2014	236
Figure SC5.1 – Levels of loneliness experienced by the population aged 15 years and over during the last four weeks, 2014	238
Figure SC5.2 – Proportion of population who reported feeling lonely all, most or some of the time during the last four weeks, by sex and age group, 2014	239
Figure SC5.3 – Proportion of population who reported feeling lonely all, most or some of the time during the last four weeks, by personal income and Material Wellbeing Index, 2014	240
Figure SC5.4 – Proportion of population who reported feeling lonely all, most or some of the time during the last four weeks, by family type, 2014	241
Figure SC6.1 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who reported doing voluntary work in the past four weeks, 2008–2012	242
Figure SC6.2 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who reported doing voluntary work in the past four weeks, by ethnic group, 2008–2012	244
Figure LS1.1 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over by ratings of overall life satisfaction and sense of purpose, 2014	247
Figure LS1.2 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over by ratings of overall life satisfaction, by ethnic group, 2014	249
Figure SU1.1 – <i>Recent-change</i> and <i>medium-term-change</i> for social wellbeing outcomes for selected indicators	254
Figure SU1.2 – Social wellbeing in New Zealand, relative to OECD countries	257
Figure DS1.1 – Changes in social wellbeing for Māori, selected indicators, 2005–2008 to 2012–2014	270
Figure DS1.2 – Changes in social wellbeing for Pacific peoples, selected indicators, 2005–2008 to 2012–2014	273
Figure DS1.3 – Changes in social wellbeing for the Asian ethnic group, selected indicators, 2005–2008 to 2012–2014	276
Figure DS1.4 – Sex differences in social wellbeing outcomes, selected indicators, 2012–2014	279
Figure AP3.1 – Income and material hardship framework	323

List of tables

Table IN1.1 – <i>The Social Report 2016</i> selection criteria	16
Table IN1.2 – <i>The Social Report 2016</i> outcome domains, desired outcomes and headline indicators	17
Table P1.1 – Proportion of population, by age group, 1981–2013	27
Table P1.2 – Median age (years), by ethnic group, 2006 and 2013	27
Table P1.3 – Most common birthplace of overseas born, 2001–2013	29
Table P1.4 – Most common languages spoken in New Zealand, 2001–2013	30
Table P1.5 – Proportion of home ownership, by age group, 2001–2013	33
Table H2.1 – Life expectancy and health expectancy (years), by sex, 1996 and 2013	41
Table H4.1 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who rated their health as good, very good or excellent, by age group and sex, 2006/2007–2013/2014	50
Table H5.1 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who experienced psychological distress, by age group and sex, 2006/2007–2013/2014	55
Table H6.1 – Proportion of population aged 2 years and over who were obese, by age group and sex, 2006/2007–2013/2014	59
Table H7.1 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who were current smokers, by age group and sex, 2006/2007–2013/2014	64
Table H8.1 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who were potentially hazardous drinkers, by ethnic group and sex, 2006/2007–2013/2014	69
Table H9.1 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who met physical activity guidelines in the last week, by age group and sex, 2006/2007–2013/2014	73
Table K1.1 – Proportion of children starting school who attended early childhood education, by ethnic group, 2000–2014	79
Table K2.1 – Proportion of school leavers with NCEA Level 2 or above, by selected age groups and sex, 2009–2014	83
Table K2.2 – Proportion of school leavers with NCEA Level 2 or above, by ethnic group, 2009–2014	84
Table K3.1 – Tertiary education participation rate, by age group and sex, 2007–2014	88
Table K3.2 – Age-standardised tertiary education participation rate, by ethnic group, 2007–2014	90
Table K4.1 – Proportion of adults with an educational qualification of at least NCEA Level 2 and Bachelor's degree or higher, by age group and sex, selected years 1986–2014	94
Table K5.1 – Proportion of adults with literacy and numeracy skills at Level 3 or above, by age group and sex, 2006	99
Table K5.2 – Proportion of adults with literacy and numeracy skills at Level 3 or above, by age group, 1996 and 2006	99
Table K5.3 – Proportion of adults with literacy and numeracy skills at Level 3 or above, by ethnic group, 1996 and 2006	100
Table PW1.1 – Unemployment rate, by age group and sex, selected years 1986–2014	105
Table PW2.1 – Employment rate, by age group and sex, selected years 1986–2014	108
Table PW3.1 – Real median hourly earnings from wage and salary jobs, by age group and percentage change, selected years	113
Table PW4.1 – Work-related ACC injury claims and serious injuries, by ethnic group, 2014	118

Table PW5.1 – Proportion of employed people who were very satisfied or satisfied with their job, by age group and sex, 2008–2014	121
Table PW6.1 – Proportion of employed people who were very satisfied or satisfied with their work-life balance, by age group and sex, 2012	125
Table EC2.1 – The 80th percentile real equivalised disposable household income (before housing costs) and 20th percentile real equivalised disposable household income and P80/P20 ratio, 1986–2014	133
Table EC5.1 – Proportion of individuals in households with housing cost outgoings-to-income ratio greater than 30 percent, by age group, 1988–2014	144
Table EC6.1 – Proportion and number of people needing one or more additional bedrooms, by age group, 2013	148
Table CP1.1 – Proportion of estimated voting-age population who cast votes in local authority elections, 1989–2013	157
Table CP2.1 – Proportion of members who were women, by type of local authority, 1989–2013	160
Table CP2.2 – Proportion of mayors who were women, 1989–2013	160
Table CP5.1 – Level of comfort towards a new neighbour from a selected minority group, 2014	169
Table CI1.1 – Percentage share of total hours of local content, by programme type, 2006–2014	178
Table CI2.1 – Proportion of Māori speakers in the Māori population, by age group and sex, 2001–2013	181
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, 2013	185
Table L1.1 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who reported having the right amount of free time in the last four weeks, by sex and age group, 2008–2012	191
Table L2.1 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who had attended at least one arts event or actively participated in the arts in the previous 12 months, by age group, 2005–2014	197
Table SS1.1 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who had a crime committed against them in the last 12 months, by age group and sex, 2008–2014	203
Table SS2.1 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over by feelings of safety about walking alone in the neighbourhood after dark, by age group and sex, 2014	207
Table SC1.1 – Proportion of population with telephone and internet access in the household, by age group, sex, ethnic group and household composition, 2001–2013	222
Table SC2.1 – Proportion of population by amount of contact with non-resident family, 2008–2012	224
Table SC2.2 – Proportion of population by amount of contact with non-resident friends, 2008–2012	227
Table SC3.1 – Proportion of secondary school students who get enough time with their mother or father most of the time, by age of student, 2012	232
Table SC6.1 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who reported doing voluntary work in the past four weeks, by age group and sex, 2008–2012	243
Table LS1.1 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over by ratings of overall life satisfaction, by age group, 2014	248
Table LS1.2 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over by ratings of overall life satisfaction, by Material Wellbeing Index, 2014	250

Table SU1.1 – Summary table of indicators	259
Table AP2.1 – Changes to <i>The Social Report 2016</i>	291
Table AP3.1 – Size of the four MWI groupings used in this report	321

Introduction

The Social Report 2016

The Social Report can best be described as a state of the nation report. It uses statistical indicators to monitor trends across key dimensions of people's lives to provide a picture of progress towards better social outcomes for New Zealanders.

The Social Report 2016 builds on the social wellbeing framework established in *The Social Report 2001*. This is the 11th edition of the Social Report and the first one published since *The Social Report 2010*.

This introduction outlines:

- the Social Report framework
- the purpose of the Social Report
- the domains and social indicators
- the criteria for selecting indicators
- what's new in *The Social Report 2016*
- how outcomes are reported for different groups of the population
- the timeliness of the data
- the structure of the report
- other indicator reports.

Social Report framework

The Social Report framework provides the underlying structure for the Social Report and includes four main principles – transparency, openness, independence and trust.

The framework is intended to provide clarity about what the Social Report does and doesn't do, and has been used as part of consultation discussions with key stakeholders. The framework also helps demarcate the Social Report from, and align it with, other frameworks used by other agencies (eg the framework used by the Ministry for the Environment and Statistics New Zealand to develop environmental reporting; and the Treasury's Living Standards Framework, aimed at helping staff and others to think widely about the most important things for lifting living standards for New Zealanders).

More information on the Social Report framework can be found in Appendix 1.

Purpose of the Social Report

The aims of the Social Report are to:

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

The report shows 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 identify adverse trends at an early stage. While the report cannot always show what is driving these trends, it can point to the need for 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 change, 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 2016 presents 49 headline social wellbeing indicators in 10 outcome “domains” or areas of people’s lives such as health, education, economic standard of living, and safety. These are listed in Table IN1.2. The desired outcomes 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). Others are known to be good predictors of later outcomes (eg cigarette smoking 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, 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

Selection criteria help 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 nine criteria detailed in Table IN1.1 below.

Table IN1.1 – The Social Report 2016 selection criteria

Criteria	Description
Relevant to 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
Easy to interpret and understand	Indicators should be simple to interpret and what the indicator is measuring should be obvious to users
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 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. On other occasions, it may be useful to include indicators with only one data point where they provide important information that otherwise would not be reported.

In some domains, there is an abundance of good data from which to draw appropriate indicators, while in other domains, there is less good-quality or relevant data available. It is considered more important that the indicators are placed in the most appropriate domain, rather than trying to balance the number of indicators across domains.

If indicator areas (eg environment) are comprehensively covered in other reports, they have not been included in the Social Report.

What's new in *The Social Report 2016*

Given the time since the previous report (*The Social Report 2010*) was published, almost all indicators have been updated – the exception is the “Adult literacy and numeracy skills” indicator whose data source has not been updated since 2006 – and six new indicators have been added. The 49 headline indicators for *The Social Report 2016* are set out in Table IN1.2, with the new indicators highlighted.

Table IN1.2 – *The Social Report 2016* outcome domains, desired outcomes and headline indicators

Outcome domain and desired outcomes	Headline indicator
HEALTH	
Everybody enjoys a full and healthy life by living well, staying well and getting well. Avoidable deaths, disease and injuries are prevented. Everybody has the ability to function, participate and live independently or appropriately supported in society	Life expectancy Health expectancy Suicide Self-rated health Psychological distress Obesity Cigarette smoking Potentially hazardous drinking Participation in physical activity
KNOWLEDGE AND SKILLS	
Everybody has the knowledge and skills needed to participate fully in society. Lifelong learning and education are valued and supported	Participation in early childhood education School leavers with higher qualifications Participation in tertiary education Educational attainment of the adult population Adult literacy and numeracy skills
PAID WORK	
Everybody has access to meaningful, rewarding and safe employment. An appropriate balance is maintained between paid work and other aspects of life	Unemployment Employment Median hourly earnings Work-related injury Job satisfaction Satisfaction with work-life balance
ECONOMIC STANDARD OF LIVING	
New Zealand is a prosperous and equitable society, where everybody has access to an adequate income and decent, affordable housing that meets their needs. People have an adequate standard of living, and are well placed to participate fully in society and make choices about how to live their lives	Market income per person Income inequality Population with low incomes Material hardship Housing affordability Household crowding

Outcome domain and desired outcomes	Headline indicator
CIVIL AND POLITICAL RIGHTS	
<p>Everybody has civil and political rights, and actively participates in democratic society. Mechanisms to regulate and arbitrate people’s rights in respect of each other are trustworthy and without discrimination or repression</p>	<p>Voter turnout Representation of women in government Representation of ethnic groups in government Perceived discrimination Acceptance of diversity Perceived corruption</p>
CULTURAL IDENTITY	
<p>New Zealanders have a strong national identity and a sense of belonging, and value cultural diversity. Everybody is able to pass their cultural traditions on to future generations. Māori culture is valued, practised and protected</p>	<p>Local content programming on New Zealand television Māori language speakers Language retention Ability to be yourself in New Zealand</p>
LEISURE AND RECREATION	
<p>Everybody has access and sufficient time to participate in leisure and recreation activities to their satisfaction</p>	<p>Satisfaction with leisure time Participation in arts and cultural activities</p>
SAFETY	
<p>Everybody enjoys physical safety and feels secure. People are free from victimisation, abuse, violence and avoidable injury</p>	<p>Criminal victimisation Fear of crime Assault mortality Road casualties</p>
SOCIAL CONNECTEDNESS	
<p>People enjoy constructive and supportive relationships with their families, whānau, communities, iwi and friends. New Zealand is an inclusive society where people are able to access information and support</p>	<p>Telephone and internet access in the household Contact with family and friends Contact between young people and their parents Trust in others Loneliness Voluntary work</p>
LIFE SATISFACTION	
<p>Everyone is satisfied with their life as a whole</p>	<p>Overall life satisfaction</p>

Reporting outcomes for different groups of the population

Where possible, indicators have been broken down by population characteristics such as age, sex, ethnicity, socio-economic status, and regional council area. The breakdowns that can be made, though, are dependent on the level of information collected through the census/surveys or administratively.

The way ethnicity data is presented is constrained by the way it has been collected. Definitions of ethnicity are inconsistent across data sources and change over time.

Timeliness of the data

This report is based around the 2014 year. It uses the most recent data up to this point that was 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 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). Importantly, the 2014 period captures the most recent data from the biennial New Zealand General Social Survey (NZGSS).

Structure of the report

The Social Report 2016 is organised into six sections.

The first part of the report, Social wellbeing at a glance, provides a quick overview and summary of the report findings.

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

The third section is the core of the report and is organised around the outcome domains listed in Table IN1.2. Within each of the 10 domains, a set of indicators shows how well New Zealanders are doing in that area.

The fourth section contains the summary of recent and medium-term changes and compares New Zealand against other Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD¹) countries, and provides a detailed indicator summary table.

The fifth section, the demographic summaries, looks across the report and reviews how different population groups are faring.

The final section contains the bibliography, appendices and endnotes.

- The Social Report framework is detailed in Appendix 1.
- A summary of the changes to this report is provided in Appendix 2.
- Technical notes about indicator construction and data sources are in Appendix 3.

Other indicator reports

New Zealand government agencies publish indicator reports and products on a wide range of different outcomes. Many of these reports are useful complements to the Social Report including:

New Zealand's Environmental Reporting Series. Produced by the Ministry for the Environment and Statistics New Zealand, this series monitors environmental indicators for air, atmosphere and climate, fresh water, land, marine, and biodiversity.

Regional Economic Report. This report, published annually by the Ministry of Business, Innovation and Employment, presents economic data on New Zealand's 16 regions.

Families and Whānau Status Report. Published annually by the Social Policy Evaluation and Research Unit (Superu), this report presents family and whānau wellbeing indicators.

New Zealand Social Indicators. This web-based product produced by Statistics New Zealand provides a range of regularly updated social indicators.

Feedback

Feedback is welcomed on *The Social Report 2016*. Comments can be made via email to: socialreport@msd.govt.nz

Reporting approaches used for indicators

The Social Report provides analysis of changes over time to help summarise outcomes for indicators. Some indicators have more than one measure. For example, the voter turnout indicator has two measures – voter turnout in general elections and voter turnout in local authority elections.

The following approaches are used in the report:

1. **Recent-change**

The change between the two most recently available data points (up until 2014) for each measure.

2. **Medium-term-change**

The change between the most recent data point (up until 2014) and a data point in the period 2005–2008. This time period was chosen because of the availability of data from key surveys including the New Zealand Health Survey (2006/2007), the New Zealand General Social Survey (2008), the Household Economic Survey (2007), and the 2006 Census.

For a small number of indicators, *recent-change* and *medium-term-change* are the same period, owing to the nature of the data collection (eg the 2006 and 2013 Censuses reflect both *recent-change* and *medium-term-change*).

In some cases, the data is averaged over the three years to avoid problems with small sample sizes.

3. **Trend**

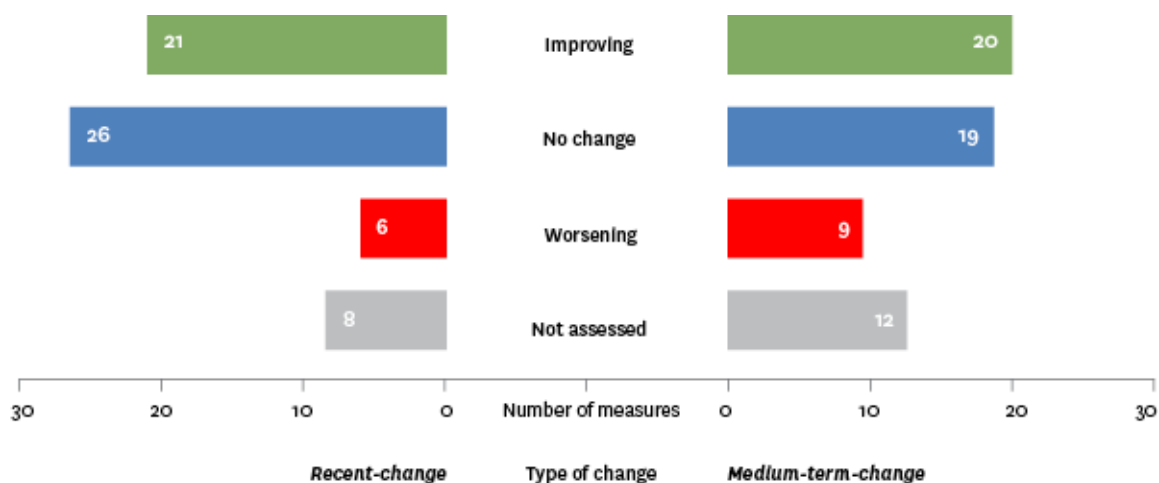
Time series analysis is provided, where available, for each indicator.

Social wellbeing at a glance

Over time, most social wellbeing outcomes for New Zealanders have improved or remained unchanged

- Outcomes have particularly improved for the Knowledge and Skills and Safety domains.
- The Health, Paid Work, Civil and Political Rights, and Leisure and Recreation domains showed a mixed picture, with some areas showing improvements and others showing no change or a worsening situation.
- Other domains, such as Economic Standard of Living and Social Connectedness, generally show a steady, unchanging picture.
- Outcomes have generally worsened for the Cultural Identity domain, though this is based on a small number of indicators.

Figure SW1.1 – Changes in measures



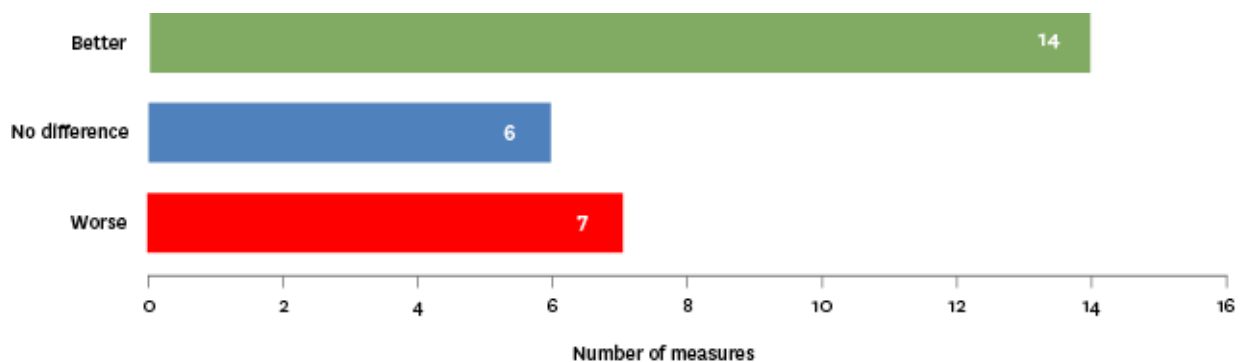
Social wellbeing outcomes are not the same for all New Zealanders

- Māori and Pacific peoples are performing less well across a number of measures, although improvements are occurring over time.
- Females continue to fall behind males in some domains such as Economic Standard of Living, while they are ahead of males in others such as Health.
- Sole-parent households consistently have poorer outcomes, particularly in the areas of Economic Standard of Living and Social Connectedness.
- Having a low income and low material wellbeing and living in an area of high deprivation result in relatively poor social wellbeing outcomes across most domains.

New Zealand is performing well against Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries

- New Zealand is performing better than the OECD median for comparable measures in the Civil and Political Rights and Social Connectedness domains.
- New Zealand is generally performing worse than the OECD median for comparable measures in the Safety domain.
- There is a mixed picture for the remainder of the domains, with some measures showing New Zealand is performing better than the OECD, some showing a worse picture and some showing there is no difference between New Zealand and the OECD median.

Figure SW1.2 – New Zealand relative to OECD countries



Data for this section can be found at: www.socialreport.msd.govt.nz/documents/2016/sw.xlsx

People

Introduction

The Social Report monitors outcomes for the New Zealand population. To provide a context for the indicators that follow, this section contains background information on the size and characteristics of the population.

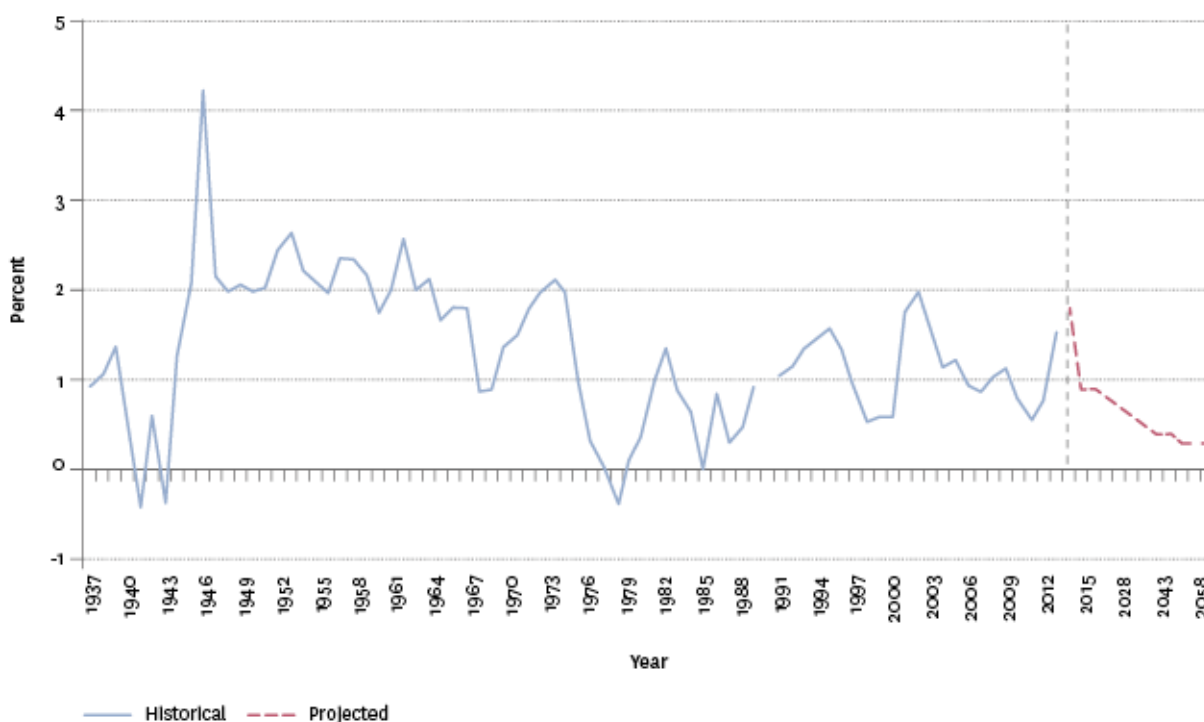
Population size and growth

New Zealand’s estimated resident population at 30 June 2014 was 4,509,900.

Between 1948 and 2014, New Zealand’s population grew by an average of 1.3 percent a year. Over this time, the growth rates slowed as fertility rates fell and the population age structure changed. Population growth averaged 2.2 percent during the 1950s, but slowed to 0.7 percent during the 1980s. In the decade ending 2014, New Zealand’s population growth averaged 1.0 percent.

It is expected that New Zealand’s population will increase to between 4.91 and 5.16 million in 2025, and to between 5.28 and 7.17 million in 2068. Annual population growth is expected to average 1.0 percent in the decade ending 2020, and then slowly decline to 0.3 percent in the decade ending 2060.

Figure P1.1 – Change in New Zealand population, 1937–2068



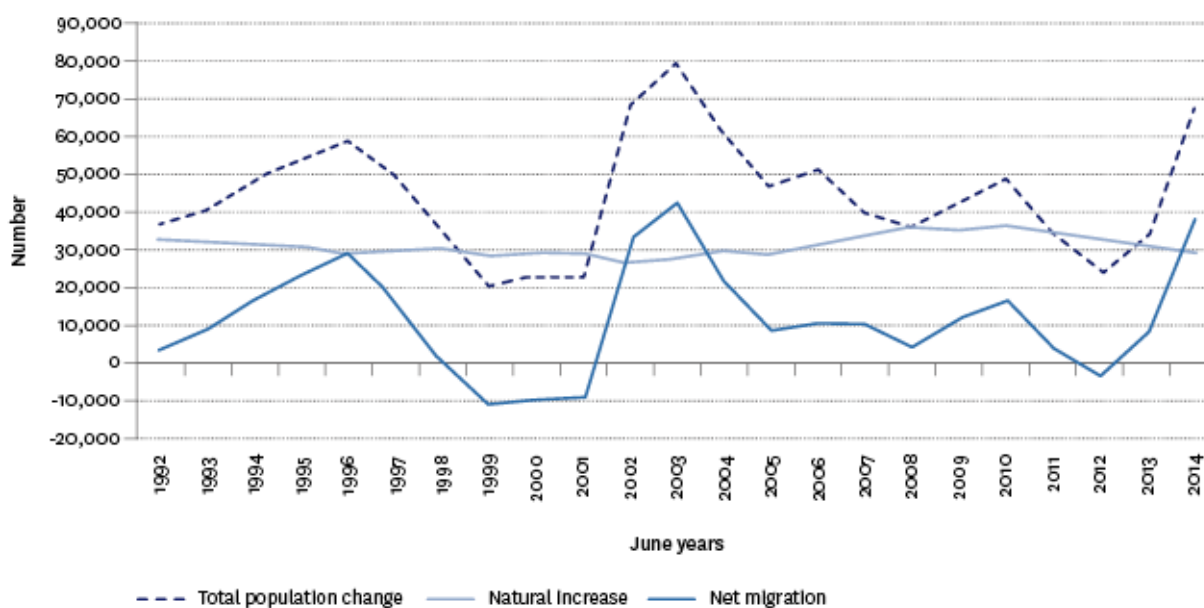
Source: Statistics New Zealand

Note: Estimates from 1991 onwards are not strictly comparable with estimates for earlier years, owing to conceptual differences.

Components of population change

New Zealand's estimated resident population grew by 67,800 (1.5 percent) in the year to June 2014, with natural increase (births minus deaths) contributing 29,500 and net migration contributing 38,300. This is the highest gain from net migration in a June year since 2003, and is more than 30,000 higher than in the previous year.

Figure P1.2 – Components of population change, 1992–2014



Source: Statistics New Zealand

In the year to June 2014, new migrants were most likely to come from Australia (22.0 percent of new migrants), the United Kingdom (13.7 percent), China (8.8 percent) and India (8.2 percent). Over time, the proportion of migrants from India has increased, while the proportion from the United Kingdom has decreased.

Looking forward, births are expected to average at least 60,000 a year. In comparison, deaths are expected to gradually increase over time as a result of population growth as more people reach the older ages where most deaths occur. Deaths will increase from 30,000 in 2015 to more than 40,000 by the late 2030s and 50,000 by the 2050s. With deaths rising faster than births, annual natural increase is likely to decrease.

The infant mortality rate (ie infant deaths (aged under one year) per 1,000 live births) declined from 24.1 in 1954 to 15.5 in 1974 and 7.0 in 1994. In 2014, the infant mortality rate was 5.7 deaths per 1,000 live births.

Ethnic composition of the population

In 2013, just under three-quarters of the population (2,969,000 or 74.0 percent) identified with one or more European ethnicities, compared with 67.6 percent in 2006. This increase is in part a result of fewer people identifying themselves as a “New Zealander” in the 2013 Census.²

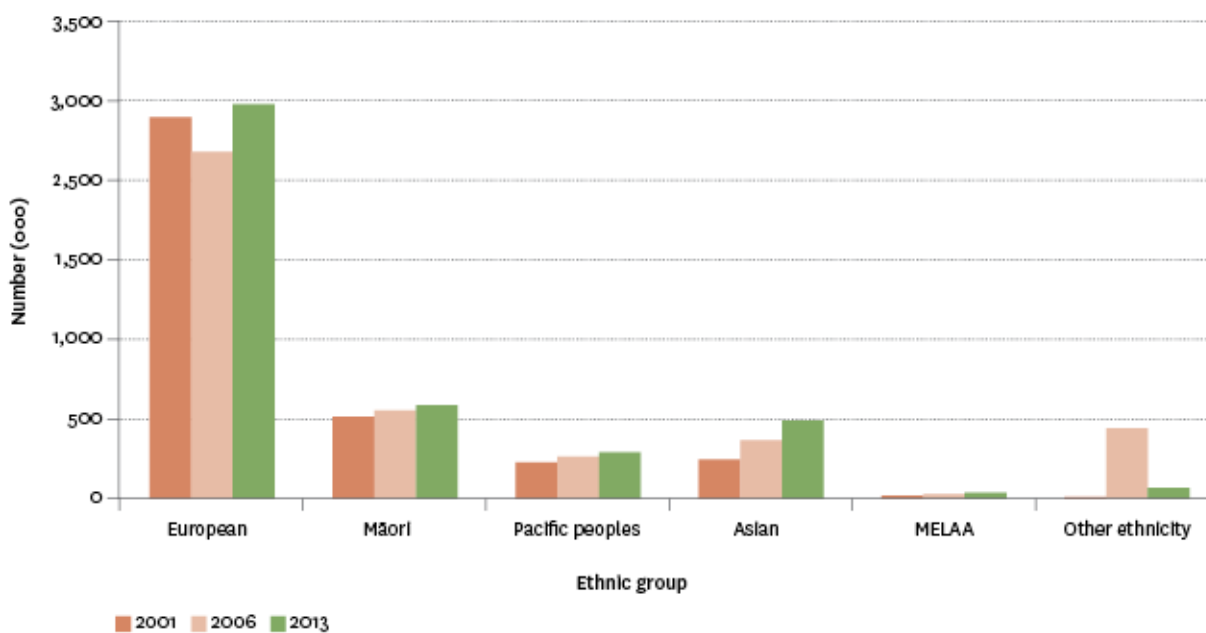
Māori were the next largest ethnic group (599,000 or 14.9 percent, up from 14.6 percent in 2006).

The third largest ethnic group was Asian (472,000 or 11.8 percent, up from 9.2 percent in 2006). Within the Asian group, Chinese contributed 36.3 percent (4.3 percent of the total New Zealand population) and Indians 32.9 percent (3.9 percent of the total New Zealand population).

A total of 7.4 percent identified as Pacific (296,000, up from 6.9 percent in 2006). Within the Pacific group, Samoans contributed 48.7 percent (3.6 percent of the total New Zealand population), followed by Cook Islands Māori (20.9 percent; 1.5 percent of the total population), Tongan (20.4 percent; 1.5 percent of the total population) and Niuean (8.1 percent; 0.6 percent of the total population).

A total of 47,000 people (1.2 percent) identified as Middle Eastern, Latin American or African (MELAA), up from 0.9 percent in 2006.

Figure P1.3 – Ethnic composition, 2001–2013



Source: Statistics New Zealand

Note: People were able to identify with more than one ethnic group.

Identifying with more than one ethnic group was common among Māori (53.5 percent) and Pacific peoples (37.2 percent), but less likely for Europeans (13.3 percent) and MELAA (16.8 percent). The proportion of people identifying with multiple ethnicities increased from 9.0 percent in 2001 to 10.4 percent in 2006 and 11.2 percent in 2013.

It is expected that the Māori, Asian and Pacific populations will continue to increase their share of the total population, and that the Asian population will exceed the Māori population from the mid-2020s.

Age and sex structure of the population

In 2014, there were 96.1 males to every 100 females.

Just over half of New Zealand's population was aged between 0 and 39 years (20.4 percent were aged between 0 and 14 years and 32.3 percent were aged between 15 and 39 years). One-third (33.0 percent) of the population was aged between 40 and 64 years, while 14.4 percent of people were 65 years or over.

Since 1986, the proportion of people in the 0–14 and 15–39 year age groups has decreased, while the proportions of people in the 40–64 year and 65 years and over age groups has increased.

Table P1.1 – Proportion of population, by age group, 1981–2013

Age group (years)	1981 Census	1986 Census	1991 Census	1996 Census	2001 Census	2006 Census	2013 Census
0–14	26.9	24.4	23.2	23.0	22.7	21.5	20.4
15–39	39.6	40.9	39.9	38.3	35.6	34.6	32.3
40–64	23.6	24.2	25.6	27.0	29.7	31.6	33.0
65–74	6.3	6.4	6.7	6.8	6.6	6.6	8.2
75 and over	3.5	4.0	4.6	4.9	5.5	5.7	6.2

Source: Statistics New Zealand

The median age of New Zealand's population increased from 25.6 years in 1970 to 37.5 years in 2014. The ageing of the population will continue, with a median age of 40 years likely to be reached in the early 2030s. This gradual ageing reflects the combined impact of people living longer and having fewer children, along with the large number of people born between 1950 and the early 1970s moving into the older ages.

The ethnic groups have different age profiles: Europeans had the median age of 41.0 years in 2013, compared with 22.1 years for Pacific peoples and 23.9 years for Māori.

Table P1.2 – Median age (years), by ethnic group, 2006 and 2013

Ethnic group	2006 Census	2013 Census
European	38.1	41.0
Asian	28.3	30.6
MELAA	26.6	28.6
Māori	22.7	23.9
Pacific peoples	21.1	22.1

Source: Statistics New Zealand

While the number of children in the population is expected to increase slowly (ie to 950,000 in the late 2030s and 970,000 in the late 2060s), the proportion of the population aged under 15 years is likely to decrease.

In comparison, the number of people aged 65 years and over is estimated to double by 2039, from 650,000 in 2014.

Fertility

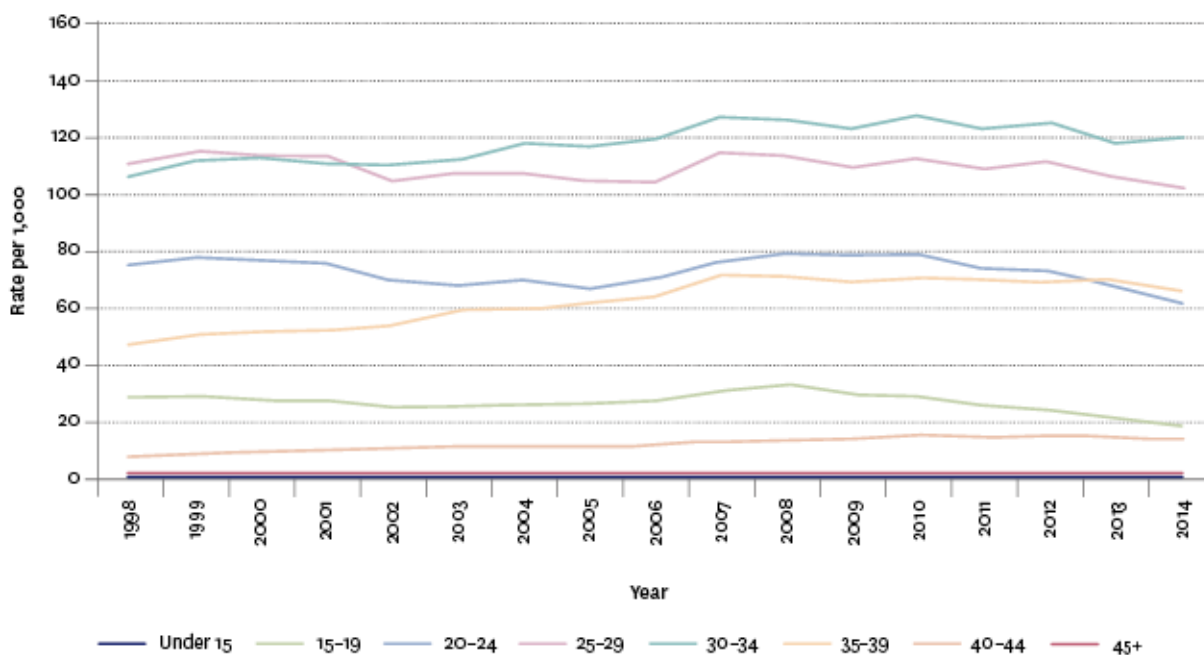
In 2014, the total fertility rate in New Zealand was 1.92 births per woman, down from 2.01 births in 2013.

New Zealand's total fertility rate has been relatively stable over the last three decades, averaging 2.03 births per woman. This is in contrast to the period from the mid-1940s to the 1960s when fertility was much higher, peaking at 4.31 births per woman in 1961.

In 2014, women aged 30–34 years had the highest age-specific fertility rate (119 births per 1,000 women), followed by women aged 25–29 years (102 births per 1,000 women). In comparison, the age-specific fertility rates for women aged 35–39 years and 20–24 years were much lower (67 births per 1,000 women and 62 births per 1,000 women respectively).

Those aged under 15 years had the lowest age-specific fertility rate of 0.2 births per 1,000 women in 2014, while the age-specific fertility rate for 15–19 year olds was 19 births per 1,000 women.

Figure P1.4 – Fertility rate, by age group, 1998–2014



Source: Statistics New Zealand

Note: The rate for those aged under 15 years is around the same level as for those 45 years and over.

In 2014, Pacific women had the highest total fertility rate of 2.73 births per woman followed by Māori women with 2.49 births per woman. European women (1.92 births per woman) and Asian women (1.69 births per woman) had lower rates.

New Zealand's total fertility rate in 2011 (2.06) was above the 2011 OECD median of 1.70, and higher than the 2011 rates for Australia (1.88), the United States (1.89) and Canada (1.61).

The median age of women giving birth in 2014 was 30.2 years. This median age has gradually increased over time – in 1962, it was 26.2 years. In addition, more women are remaining childless: in 2006, 15 percent of women aged 40–44 years were childless, compared with 12 percent of women in 1996 and 9 percent in 1981.

People born overseas

In 2013, 25.2 percent of people living in New Zealand were born overseas, a net increase of 303,159 people since the 2001 Census. The proportion of people born overseas has increased over time (it sat at 19.5 percent in 2001 and 22.9 percent in 2006).

In 2013, the most common countries of birth for people born overseas were England (21.5 percent), People's Republic of China (8.9 percent), India (6.7 percent), Australia (6.3 percent), South Africa (5.4 percent), Fiji (5.3 percent), Samoa (5.1 percent), Philippines (3.7 percent), Korea (2.7 percent) and Scotland (2.6 percent).

From 2001 to 2013, there has been an increase in the proportions of people who were born in India, South Africa, Fiji and Philippines. Conversely there were decreases in the proportions of people living in New Zealand who were born in England, Australia, Samoa and Scotland.

Table P1.3 – Most common birthplace of overseas born, 2001–2013

Birthplace	2001 Census		2006 Census		2013 Census	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
England	178,203	25.5	202,401	23.0	215,589	21.5
People's Republic of China	38,949	5.6	78,117	8.9	89,121	8.9
India	20,892	3.0	43,341	4.9	67,176	6.7
Australia	56,259	8.1	62,742	7.1	62,712	6.3
South Africa	26,061	3.7	41,676	4.7	54,276	5.4
Fiji	25,722	3.7	37,746	4.3	52,755	5.3
Samoa	47,118	6.7	50,649	5.8	50,661	5.1
Philippines	10,134	1.5	15,285	1.7	37,299	3.7
Korea	17,931	2.6	28,809	3.3	26,601	2.7
Scotland	28,680	4.1	29,016	3.3	25,953	2.6

Source: Statistics New Zealand

Auckland had the highest proportion of overseas-born people (39.1 percent in 2013, an increase from 37.0 percent in 2006). Gisborne (9.7 percent), Southland (10.2 percent) and the West Coast (11.0 percent) had the lowest proportions.

In 2013, less than half of those born in Asia and living in New Zealand had been in New Zealand for 10 years or more (47.4 percent). This compared with 67.6 percent of people who had been born in the United Kingdom/Ireland and 63.9 percent of Australian born.

In 2013, the median age for those born overseas was 41.8 years, compared with 36.2 years for people born in New Zealand.

Languages spoken

New Zealand has three “official” languages: English, Māori (from 1987) and New Zealand Sign Language (NZSL) (from April 2006).

In 2013, almost all people were able to speak English (96.1 percent) (ie could hold a conversation about everyday things). Those who could not speak English were most likely to be adults who were born overseas, identified with an Asian ethnicity, and lived in Auckland.

Much smaller proportions of New Zealanders could speak te reo Māori (3.7 percent), with one-quarter (24.6 percent) of those being children. In the 2013 Census, 21.3 percent of all Māori reported that they could hold a conversation in Māori about everyday things, a decrease from 2006 (23.7 percent) and 2001 (25.2 percent).

In 2013, less than 1 percent (0.5 percent) of the usually resident population could use NZSL. There has been a drop in the number of people who can use NZSL over time, from 28,000 in 2001 to 20,000 in 2013.

Approximately 6,000 people said they could communicate in all three of New Zealand’s official languages, a 6.3 percent drop from 2006.

After English and te reo Māori, the next most common languages spoken in New Zealand in 2013 were Samoan (2.2 percent), Hindi (1.7 percent), Northern Chinese (1.3 percent), French (1.2 percent) and Yue (1.1 percent). While the proportions of people speaking English stayed consistent over time, the proportions speaking Māori have decreased and proportions speaking Hindi and Northern Chinese have increased.

Table P1.4 – Most common languages spoken in New Zealand, 2001–2013

Languages spoken	2001 Census		2006 Census		2013 Census	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
English	3,425,301	96.1	3,673,626	95.9	3,819,972	96.1
Māori	160,527	4.5	157,110	4.1	148,395	3.7
Samoan	81,036	2.3	85,428	2.2	86,403	2.2
Hindi	22,749	0.6	44,589	1.2	66,309	1.7
Northern Chinese incl. Mandarin	26,514	0.7	41,391	1.1	52,263	1.3
French	49,722	1.4	53,757	1.4	49,125	1.2
Yue incl. Cantonese	37,140	1.0	44,151	1.2	44,625	1.1

Source: Statistics New Zealand

The number of people who could speak more than one language has increased from 15.8 percent in 2001 to 18.6 percent in 2013.

Distribution of the population

The 2006 Census showed that most people lived in an urban area (71.8 percent of people lived in a main urban area and 14.2 percent lived in other urban areas). Fourteen percent of people lived in a rural area.

In 2013, Auckland was the largest city in New Zealand (1,415,550) followed by Christchurch (341,469), Wellington (190,956), Hamilton (141,615), Dunedin (120,246) and Tauranga (114,615).

In 2013, all regional council areas either showed population growth or had steady populations, with the exception of Gisborne, which had a small decline. Auckland was the fastest-growing region, increasing its population share by 8.5 percent between 2006 and 2013 – 33.4 percent of the total population lived in the Auckland region in 2013. Nelson was the second fastest-growing region, up 8.3 percent, followed by Waikato (up 6.0 percent) – in 2013, 9.5 percent of the total population lived in the Waikato region and 1.1 percent lived in the Nelson region.

All South Island regions had higher proportions of people who identified with European ethnicities than any region in the North Island.

In 2013, Gisborne (48.9 percent) and Northland (32.4 percent) had the highest proportions of people identifying as Māori.

Auckland was the most common location for those identifying as Pacific (65.9 percent), Asian (65.1 percent) or MELAA (53.1 percent) to live in 2013.

Household and family composition

Household composition

A household may contain a single person living alone, or two or more people who usually live together and share facilities as a family (a couple, parents with children), a group of families, a family with other people, or a group of individuals living together.

The number of New Zealand households has increased by 6.6 percent since 2006. In 2013, there were 1,549,890 households, up from 1,454,175 in 2006. Over two-thirds (68.3 percent) contained one family (with or without other people), down slightly from 69.1 percent in 2006.

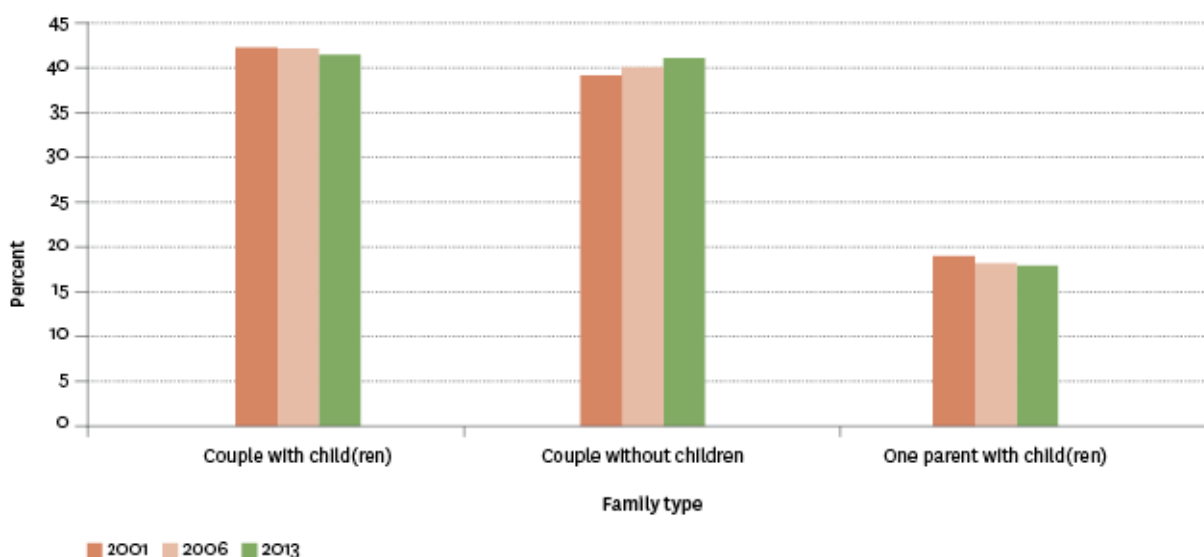
In 2013, the average household size was 2.7 people per household, the same as in 2006. The average household size is projected to gradually decrease between 2013 and 2038, with the number of one-person households projected to increase.

Family composition

A couple with children (41.3 percent) was the most common family type in 2013, though this proportion has been decreasing since 1991, when these families made up 48.0 percent of New Zealand families. Couples without children were the second most common type (40.9 percent), with this proportion increasing since 1991 (34.8 percent). It is projected that couples without children will become the most common family type by 2038.

One parent with children families has decreased slightly from 18.9 percent in 2001 to 17.8 percent in 2013.

Figure P1.5 – Family type, 2001–2013



Source: Statistics New Zealand

Around six in ten families included children. Most families with children had one child (43.5 percent) or two children (36.7 percent). One in five had more children: 13.7 percent had three children while 6.1 percent had four or more children.

Most families with children included at least one dependent child (78.4 percent or 526,269 families). This is down from 80.4 percent in 2006.

In 2013, 91,000 families included dependent young people (aged 18–24 years, not employed full-time, and living with at least one parent). Of those, just over half were in full-time study, while 6.5 percent were studying part-time. Four in ten were employed part-time.

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 2010 New Zealand General Social Survey (NZGSS) found that 225,000 parents had either some or none of their children aged under 18 years living with them (15.0 percent of those who had children aged under 18 years). This included children they may spend time with or have to stay overnight.

Of these, most parents (87.1 percent) gave some form of support (eg clothing, child support payments for their children living outside the household). Three-fifths (60.8 percent) provided support to one child, 26.4 percent supported two children, 8.7 percent supported three children, and 4.0 percent supported four or more children.

Housing tenure

Home ownership by households

Half (49.9 percent) of New Zealand households owned or partly owned houses in 2013, down from 54.5 percent in 2006.

In 2013, 453,135 households (31.2 percent of total households) rented their home, up from 388,275 in 2006. Households that rented were most likely to be either one-family households (63.3 percent) or one-person households (23.5 percent).

Home ownership by individuals

Europeans were most likely to own or partly own their home (56.8 percent), compared with 34.8 percent of people in the Asian ethnic group, 28.2 percent of Māori and 18.5 percent of Pacific peoples.

Married people were most likely to own their home (75.1 percent), while people who had never been married or never been in a civil union were the least likely to own their home (12.3 percent).

Home ownership was highest for those aged 70–74 years (77.5 percent), compared with 60.8 percent for those in their forties and 43.0 percent for those in their thirties.

Table P1.5 – Proportion of home ownership, by age group, 2001–2013

Age group (years)	2001 Census	2006 Census	2013 Census
15–19	1.5	2.3	1.7
20–24	6.2	6.7	4.7
25–29	26.4	22.9	18.4
30–34	47.7	43.6	36.0
35–39	61.0	56.6	49.6
40–44	69.1	64.8	57.9
45–49	74.3	70.5	63.8
50–54	77.9	74.8	68.4
55–59	79.3	78.0	72.1
60–64	79.3	79.1	74.9
65–69	80.2	79.3	77.3
70–74	80.6	79.5	77.5
75–79	78.7	78.4	75.9
80–84	72.6	74.5	73.1
85 and over	55.4	59.0	60.4
Total people	54.9	53.2	49.8

Source: Statistics New Zealand

Religion

In 2013, 48.9 percent of people stated that their religion was affiliated with a Christian religion, down from 55.6 percent in 2006. The largest Christian denominations were Catholic (492,000), Anglican (460,000), and Presbyterian, Congregational and Reformed (331,000). There have been large increases in people affiliating with the Sikh, Hindu and Islam religions. Between 2006 and 2013, Sikhism more than doubled, while Hinduism increased by 39.6 percent and the number of Muslims increased by 27.9 percent. Numbers affiliated with these religions remained relatively small, however.

The proportion of people indicating that they have no religion increased over time (29.6 percent in 2001; 34.6 percent in 2006; and 41.9 percent in 2013).

New Zealanders experiencing disability

In 2013, 24 percent of the New Zealand population identified as disabled, a total of 1.1 million people. Disability is defined as an impairment that has a long-term (six months or longer) limiting effect on a person's ability to carry out day-to-day activities.

People aged 65 years or over were much more likely to be disabled (59 percent), compared with those aged 15–65 years (21 percent) or children under 15 years (11 percent). Ageing has an impact on the disability rates, particularly for physical impairments.

Māori (32 percent) and Pacific peoples (26 percent) had higher-than-average disability rates, after adjusting for differences in ethnic population age profiles. Europeans (24 percent) had a slightly lower rate than Pacific peoples, while the rate for the Asian ethnic group was 17 percent.

Physical limitations were the most common type of impairment (14 percent), followed by sensory impairments (11 percent – hearing and vision loss that hearing aids and glasses do not eliminate) and psychological/psychiatric impairment (5 percent). Among children, learning difficulties were most common.

Just over half of all disabled people (53 percent) had more than one type of impairment.

The most common cause of disability for adults was disease or illness (42 percent), followed by accident/injury (34 percent) and ageing (31 percent). A condition that existed at birth was the most common cause of disability for children (49 percent), followed by other causes such as autism and developmental delay (33 percent).

Gay, lesbian, bisexual and transgender people

There is little population information based on sexual orientation or gender identity in New Zealand, and little reliable data on the size of gay, lesbian, bisexual and transgender populations.

Some information on same-sex couples who share a residence had been collected in censuses since 1996. The 2013 Census recorded 8,328 same-sex couples; 0.9 percent of all couples (3,672 were male couples and 4,656 were female couples). Most same-sex couples did not have children (6,852, compared with 1,476 who had children).

Other information is collected in the national health and wellbeing survey of secondary school students. The 2012 survey found that 92 percent of secondary students were exclusively attracted to the opposite sex, while 4 percent were attracted to the same sex or both sexes and 4 percent were not sure or were attracted to neither sex. About 1 percent of students reported that they were transgender, while 3 percent were unsure. These proportions are the same as in previous surveys in 2000 and 2007.

Data for this section can be found at: www.socialreport.msd.govt.nz/documents/2016/p.xlsx

Health

Desired outcomes

Everybody enjoys a full and healthy life by living well, staying well and getting well. Avoidable deaths, disease and injuries are prevented. Everybody has the ability to function, participate, and live independently or appropriately supported in society.

Introduction

Good health is critical to wellbeing as it enables people to participate in society and the economy. Without good health, people are less able to enjoy their lives to the fullest extent, and their options may be limited. Good health has two core dimensions: the length of time people live and the quality of their lives. As well as enjoying long lives, people want to be free from the pain, suffering and incapacity from injury or illness. However, not everybody can live a fully independent life.

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

A range of factors affect and are affected by health outcomes, including people's genetic predisposition; behaviour; physical and social environment; and awareness and availability of health services.

Indicators

Nine headline 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. The indicators are: life expectancy; health expectancy; suicide; self-rated health; psychological distress; obesity; cigarette smoking; potentially hazardous drinking; and participation in physical activity.

Some indicators directly measure the desired outcomes relating to long and healthy lives, and people's ability to participate in society. Others are predictors of future health outcomes.

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

The second indicator, health expectancy, also known as independent life 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, combining both fatal (life expectancy) and non-fatal (disability requiring assistance) 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 fourth indicator, self-rated health, is a widely used indicator of health. Being in good health means people rating their health as excellent, very good or good.

Psychological distress refers to the proportion of people with high or very high levels of psychological distress (such as anxiety, confused emotions, depression or rage), which indicates a high probability of an anxiety or depressive disorder.

The sixth indicator, obesity, is linked with poor health outcomes, such as an increased risk of heart attacks, strokes, type 2 diabetes, and some cancers.

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 adverse child health outcomes such as low birth weight and Sudden Infant Death Syndrome.

Alcohol is the most commonly used recreational drug in New Zealand. The eighth indicator, 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. Alcohol also contributes to death and injury from traffic accidents, drowning, suicide, assaults, and domestic violence.

The final indicator, participation in physical activity, tells us how active New Zealanders are. Moderate physical activity can improve a number of health and other outcomes, and lead to fewer health problems and higher productivity at work, especially when combined with a balanced diet and a healthy lifestyle.

Domain summary

Overall, the Health domain indicators show a mixed picture of improvements.

Life expectancy at birth continues to increase over time, with the gap between male and female life expectancy narrowing, but there are marked ethnic, socio-economic and regional differences. While people are living longer and living longer in “good” health, they are spending proportionally less of their total life in “good” health in 2013 compared with 1996.

The rate for people committing suicide increased in the mid-1980s before returning to pre-1987 levels in the 2000s. When looking at *recent-change* and *medium-term-change*, the proportions of people who report experiencing high levels of psychological distress have remained consistent. People rate their own health highly, with improvements in terms of *recent-change* and *medium-term-change*, and New Zealand ranked first among the OECD countries.

The rate of cigarette smoking is stable when looking at *recent-change* but improved for *medium-term-change*. The potentially hazardous drinking rate has remained steady in terms of both *recent-change* and *medium-term-change*, as has the rate of people who met physical activity guidelines. While obesity rates for adults and children are stable when looking at *recent-change*, the rates have increased since 2006/2007 with New Zealand having one of the highest adult rates in the OECD.

Life expectancy at birth

Definition

The average length of life remaining at birth, assuming people experience the age-specific death rates of a given period from birth onwards.

Relevance

Life expectancy at birth is a key summary indicator of fatal health outcomes (ie the survival experience of the population). Life expectancy at birth for the period 2012–2014 is based on death rates of that period, and takes no account of changes in death rates after that period.

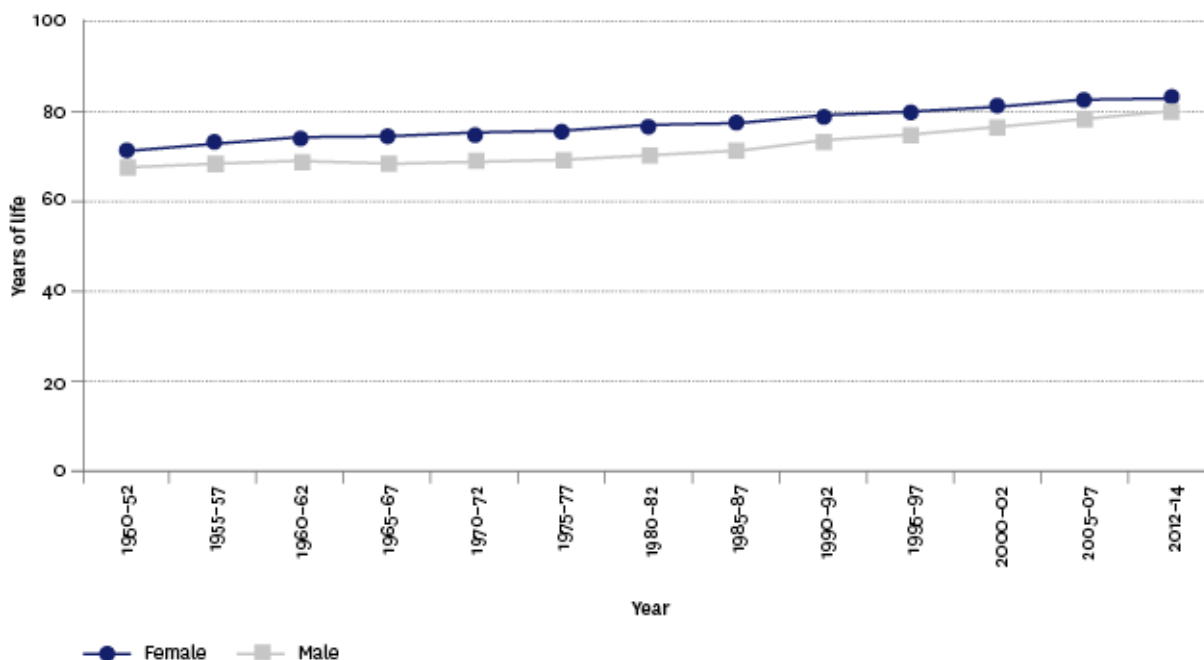
Current levels and trends

In 2012–2014, life expectancy at birth for females was 83.2 years and 79.5 years for males, as calculated by Statistics New Zealand Period Life Tables.

Since 2005–2007, life expectancy at birth has increased by 1.0 years for females and 1.5 years for males. About two-thirds of this increase was a result of reduced death rates at age 60 years and over.

The gap between male and female life expectancy has narrowed in recent decades, from the largest difference of 6.4 years in 1975–1977 to 3.7 years in 2012–2014. The narrowing is mainly because of faster reductions in male death rates at ages 50–74 years, although males still experience higher death rates than females at nearly all ages.

Figure H1.1 – Life expectancy at birth, by sex, 1950–1952 to 2012–2014



Source: Statistics New Zealand

Note: There is a seven-year gap between 2005–2007 and 2012–2014, which differs from the rest of the time series which has a five-year gap.

Ethnic differences

There are marked differences in life expectancy at birth between ethnic groups. In 2012–2014, non-Māori female life expectancy at birth was 83.9 years and non-Māori males 80.3 years, both being higher than Māori females' and Māori males' life expectancy at birth of 77.1 years and 73.0 years respectively. This difference reflects that Māori death rates are higher than non-Māori at nearly all ages, and this has to do with a number of factors including smoking rates and socio-economic factors.

In 2012–2014, life expectancy at birth was 78.7 years for Pacific females and 74.5 years for Pacific males; 84.1 years for European/Other females and 80.5 years for European/Other males; and 87.2 years for Asian females and 84.4 years for Asian males.

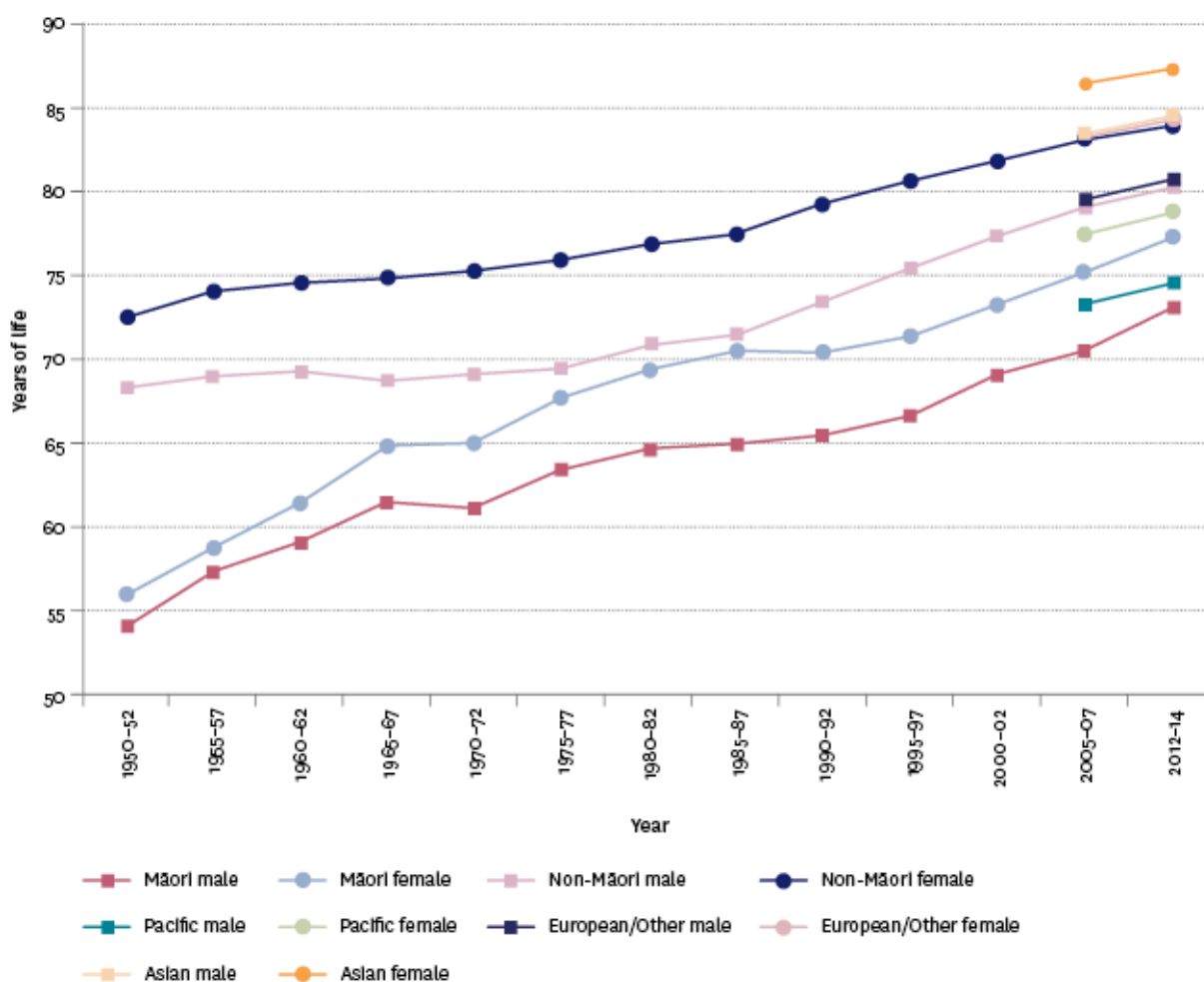
Between 2005–2007 and 2012–2014, Māori have had the highest increase in life expectancy at birth (2.6 years for Māori males and 2.0 years for Māori females). About 60 percent of the increase in Māori life expectancy at birth between 2005–2007 and 2012–2014 was owing to reduced death rates of people aged 55–84 years.

Pacific males and females had the same level of increase between 2005–2007 and 2012–2014 (1.3 years), which was largely driven by lower death rates of people aged 60–79 years. Non-Māori males had a similar increase in life expectancy to Pacific peoples (1.3 years), while non-Māori females had the lowest increase (0.9 years). People in the Asian ethnic group and European/Others had similar increases – males had an increase of 1.2 years between the two time periods, while females had a 0.8–0.9 year increase between 2005–2007 and 2012–2014.

Over time, life expectancy trends differ by ethnic group. For non-Māori from 1950–1952 to 2012–2014, there was a steady increase in life expectancy at birth with a 12-year increase for non-Māori males and an 11.5 year increase for non-Māori females over this time. Māori, on the other hand, experienced a continued improvement since the early 2000s.

The gap between Māori and non-Māori life expectancy at birth has narrowed to 7.1 years in 2012–2014, compared with 9.1 years in 1995–1997. This reduction is mainly because of lower death rates of people aged 50–79 years.

Figure H1.2 – Life expectancy at birth, by ethnic group and sex, 1950–1952 to 2012–2014



Source: Statistics New Zealand

Notes: 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. There is a seven-year gap between 2005–2007 and 2012–2014, which differs from the rest of the time series which has a five-year gap. Life expectancy breakdowns for Pacific, European/Other and Asian populations are available from 2005–2007.

Socio-economic differences

Life expectancy at birth varied according to level of deprivation (NZDep2013³). In 2012–2014, life expectancy for people living in the most deprived areas was 74.8 years for males and 79.4 years for females. In comparison, life expectancy for people living in the least deprived areas was 82.3 years for males and 85.5 years for females. This is a difference of 7.5 years for males and 6.1 years for females.

Regional differences

In 2012–2014, life expectancy at birth was highest for females in the Tasman region (84.1 years) and for males in the Auckland region (80.5 years). Life expectancy was the lowest for both sexes in the Gisborne region (80.4 years for females and 76.2 years for males). Hawke's Bay had the highest increase in life expectancy between 2005–2007 and 2002–2014, with a 1.2 year increase for females and 1.5 year increase for males.

International comparison

In 2012–2014, New Zealand males' life expectancy at birth (79.5 years) was higher than the 2013 OECD median of 78.7 years for males. New Zealand females' life expectancy at birth (83.2 years) was slightly lower than the 2013 OECD median of 83.7 years for females. In 2013, Japan had the highest life expectancy for females (86.6 years) and Switzerland for males (80.7 years) of the OECD countries, along with Spain (86.1 years for females) and Iceland (80.5 years for males). Mexico had the lowest life expectancy of the OECD countries for both sexes (77.4 years for females and 71.7 years for males).

Data for this section can be found at: www.socialreport.msd.govt.nz/documents/2016/h1.xlsx

Health expectancy

Definition

The number of years a person could expect to live in good health (ie live independently with no functional limitation that needs assistance). This is also known as Independent Life Expectancy.

Relevance

Health expectancy is a summary measure of a population's health that captures both the quantity and quality of life dimensions of health. It offers a way of assessing how many years a population has gained in life expectancy are spent in good health and free from functional limitations. It is a positive measure, capturing expectations of a life free from functional limitation that require 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

While health expectancy increased in absolute terms for both sexes, the proportion of years people lived independently relative to their total life expectancy was lower in 2013 compared with 1996: a 3.7 percent decrease for males and a 3.4 percent decrease for females. Therefore, while people are living longer, both in good and poor health, they are spending proportionally less of their total life in “good” health.

In 2013, males had a health expectancy of 65.2 years and females had a health expectancy of 66.5 years, as calculated by the Ministry of Health using the New Zealand Disability Survey and Statistics New Zealand Life Tables. Females had only a small increase in health expectancy between 1996 and 2013 (0.1 years), while males gained 1.4 years over the same time period. The 2013 gender gap (ie the difference between males and females) was 1.3 years – the closest it had been between 1996 and 2013.

Table H2.1 – Life expectancy and health expectancy (years), by sex, 1996 and 2013

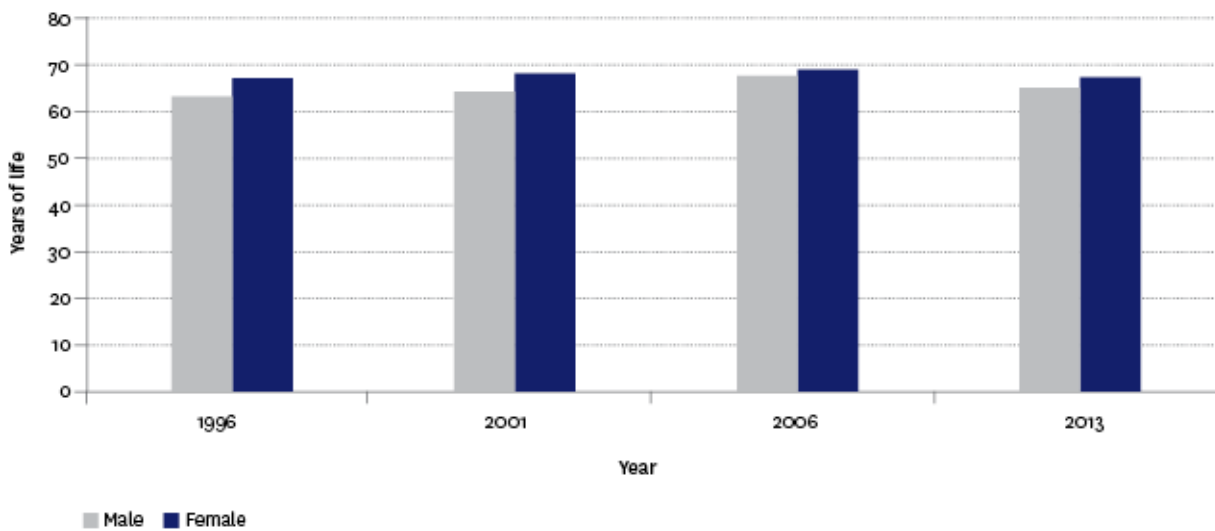
	Life expectancy (years)	Health expectancy (years)
1996		
Male	74.4	63.8
Female	79.7	66.4
Difference	5.3	2.6
2013		
Male	79.5	65.2
Female	83.2	66.5
Difference	3.7	1.3

Source: Ministry of Health

While males have a lower life expectancy, they are more likely to spend a higher proportion of their lives in good health. For example, a male can expect to live 82.0 percent of his life independently, compared with 79.9 percent of females.

This means that females are expected to live 16.7 years with a disability for which they need support – 10.7 years of non-daily assistance and 6.0 years of daily assistance. This is 2.4 years longer than males (14.3 years – 10.2 years of non-daily assistance and 4.1 years of daily assistance). Reasons for males having higher proportions of good health include males being less likely to report functional limitations, and males being more active and more likely to engage in risky behaviour that shortens their lives compared with females.

Figure H2.1 – Health expectancy (years of life at birth free from functional limitation), by sex, 1996–2013



Source: Ministry of Health

Note: Caution is advised when comparing the results of the 2006 Disability Survey with that for previous and subsequent surveys owing to a range of methodological and other factors. See the technical notes for more information.

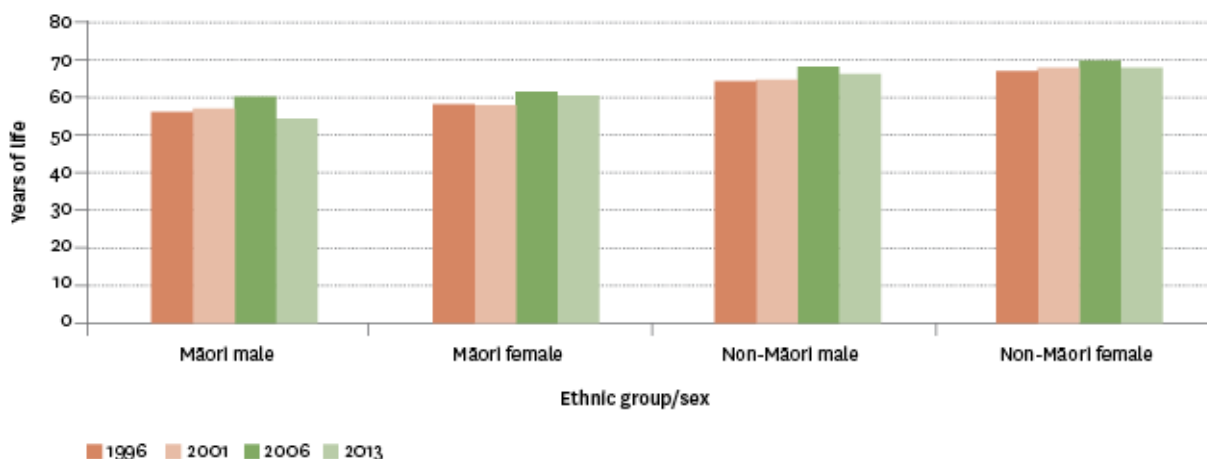
Ethnic differences

Māori can expect to live fewer years independently compared with non-Māori. In 2013, Māori males had a health expectancy of 54.3 years (74.4 percent of their lives), compared with 66.7 years for non-Māori males (83.0 percent). Māori females had a health expectancy of 60.4 years (78.4 percent), compared with 67.4 years for non-Māori females (80.4 percent).

In addition to living longer independently, non-Māori males and females had fewer years with a disability requiring assistance compared with Māori. Non-Māori males are expected to live 13.6 years with some level of disability requiring assistance (9.6 years of non-daily assistance and 4.0 years of daily assistance). In comparison, Māori males were expected to live 18.7 years with a disability (14.2 years of non-daily assistance and 4.5 years of daily assistance). Non-Māori females are expected to live 16.5 years with a disability (10.4 years of non-daily assistance and 6.1 years of daily assistance), compared with 16.7 years for Māori females (12.0 years of non-daily assistance and 4.7 years of daily assistance).

Comparing 1996 with 2013, the time spent in good health has increased for Māori females, non-Māori females and non-Māori males but decreased for Māori males (1.7 years).

Figure H2.2 – Health expectancy (years of life at birth free from functional limitation), by ethnic group and sex, 1996–2013



Source: Ministry of Health

Note: Caution is advised when comparing the results of the 2006 Disability Survey with that for previous and subsequent surveys owing to a range of methodological and other factors. See the technical notes for more information.

There are also differences when looking at the proportion of years people lived independently relative to their total life expectancy. For example, in 2013 compared with 1996, the proportion of years Māori males lived independently decreased by 9.7 percent; for Māori females, it decreased by 3.3 percent; for non-Māori males, it decreased by 2.5 percent; and for non-Māori females, it decreased by 2.7 percent.

Data for this section can be found at: www.socialreport.msd.govt.nz/documents/2016/h2.xlsx

Suicide

Definition

The number of suicide deaths per 100,000 population.

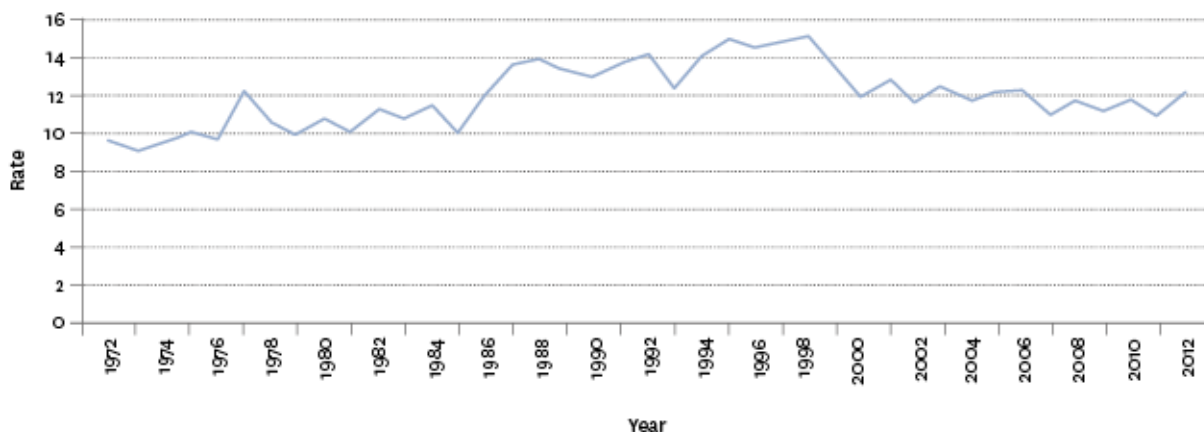
Relevance

Intentional self-harm is an indicator of the mental health of the population and a major cause of injury-related death. Death from intentional self-harm is commonly referred to as suicide.

Current level and trends

In 2012, 550 people died from suicide, an increase from the 493 people who died in 2011. The age-standardised suicide death rate was 12.1 per 100,000 population in 2012, an increase from 10.9 per 100,000 in 2011. Looking over time, the total suicide death rate increased in the mid-1980s before returning to pre-1987 levels in the 2000s.

Figure H3.1 – Suicide mortality age-standardised rates, 1972–2012



Source: Ministry of Health

Note: Rates per 100,000 population, age-standardised to the WHO World Standard population.

Sex differences

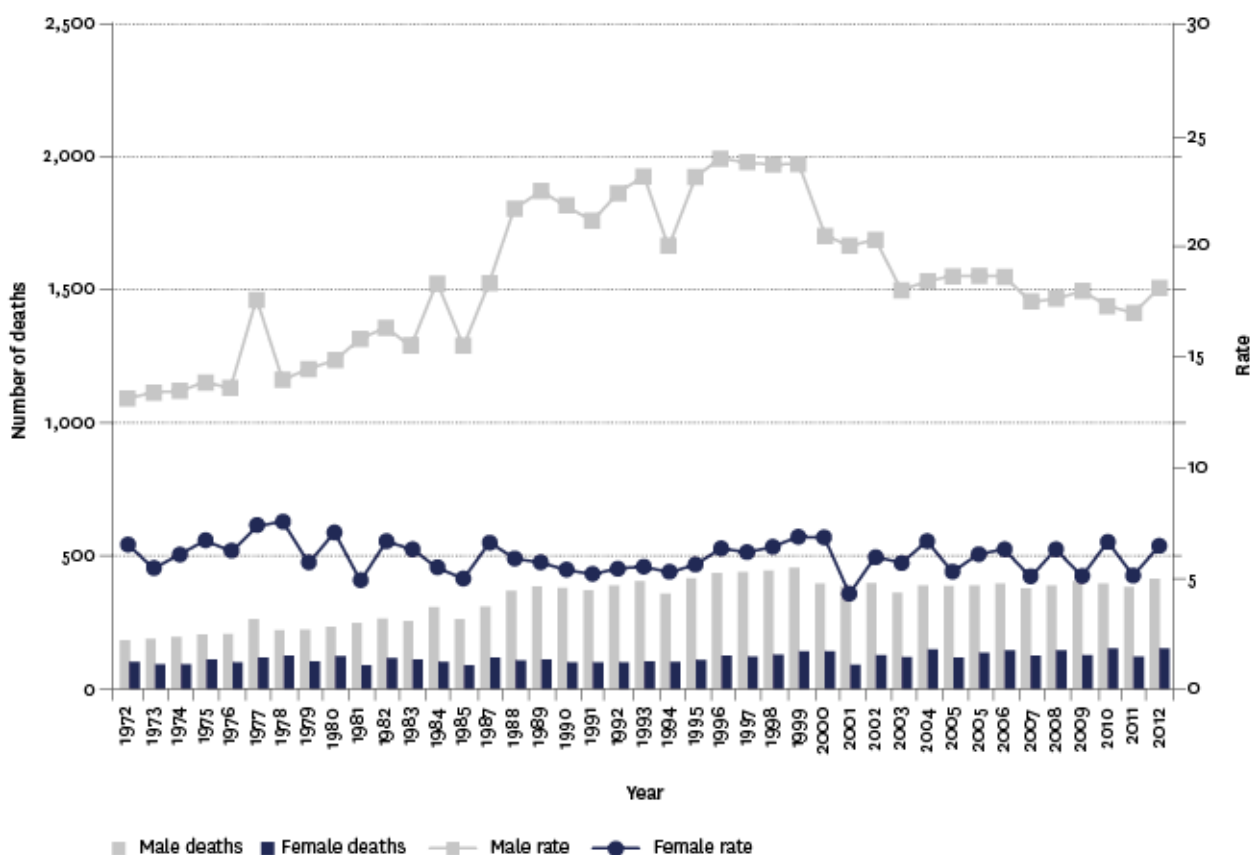
Males have a consistently higher suicide death rate than females (18.1 male deaths per 100,000 male population in 2012, against 6.4 per 100,000 females). The male suicide death rate increased sharply in the mid-1980s, peaking at 23.9 deaths per 100,000 males in 1995, before declining after 1998. In 2012, it was lower than the rate in 1984 (when it was 18.3 per 100,000).

In comparison, the female rate has been relatively stable over the last 20 years. In 2012, the female suicide mortality rate was 6.4 deaths per 100,000 female population. The female suicide mortality rate has been more consistent and has not shown the same increase as males. The female rate peaked at 7.5 deaths per 100,000 female population in 1978, and has averaged 5.8 deaths per 100,000 population a year since then.

Females, however, had a much higher rate of hospitalisation resulting from intentional self-harm or attempted suicide than males. In 2012, there were 96.1 hospitalisations for intentional self-harm per 100,000 female population, while there were 46.4 hospitalisations per 100,000 male population (2.1 female hospitalisations for every male hospitalisation). In 2002, there were 98.0 hospitalisations for intentional self-harm per 100,000 female population and 52.2 hospitalisations per 100,000 male population (1.9 female hospitalisations for every male hospitalisation).

In 2012, for every female suicide death, there were 15.0 hospitalisations for intentional self-harm, while for every male suicide death there were 2.6 hospitalisations.

Figure H3.2 – Suicide mortality, numbers and age-standardised rates, by sex, 1972–2012



Source: Ministry of Health

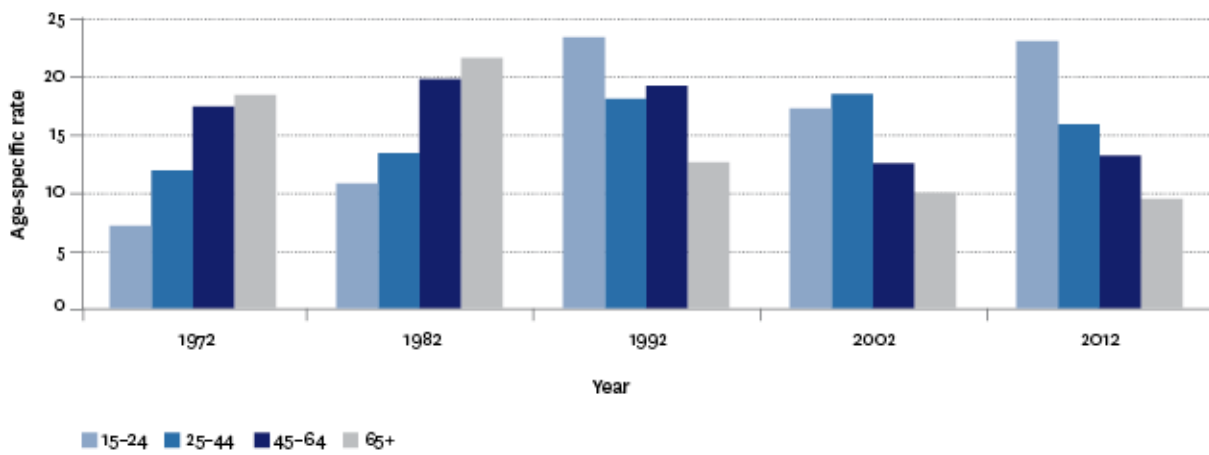
Note: Rates per 100,000 population, age-standardised to the WHO World Standard population.

Age differences

The 15–24 year age group had the highest suicide death rate in 2012 (23.0 per 100,000 population), followed by the 25–44 year age group (15.8 per 100,000).

Before the mid-1980s, the age groups with the highest suicide rates were 45–64 years and 65 years and over. However, a progressive decline in the rates for these two groups and an increase in the two younger age groups saw a swap in relative positions in the middle of the 1980s. The increase for the 15–24 year age group was especially sharp (from 10.8 deaths per 100,000 population in 1982 to 23.3 per 100,000 population by 1992). From the late 1990s, the 15–24 year age group’s suicide rate steadily declined. However, the 2012 rate (23.0 deaths per 100,000 15–24 year population) increased compared with 2011.

Figure H3.3 – Age-specific suicide mortality rates, by age group, 1972–2012



Source: Ministry of Health

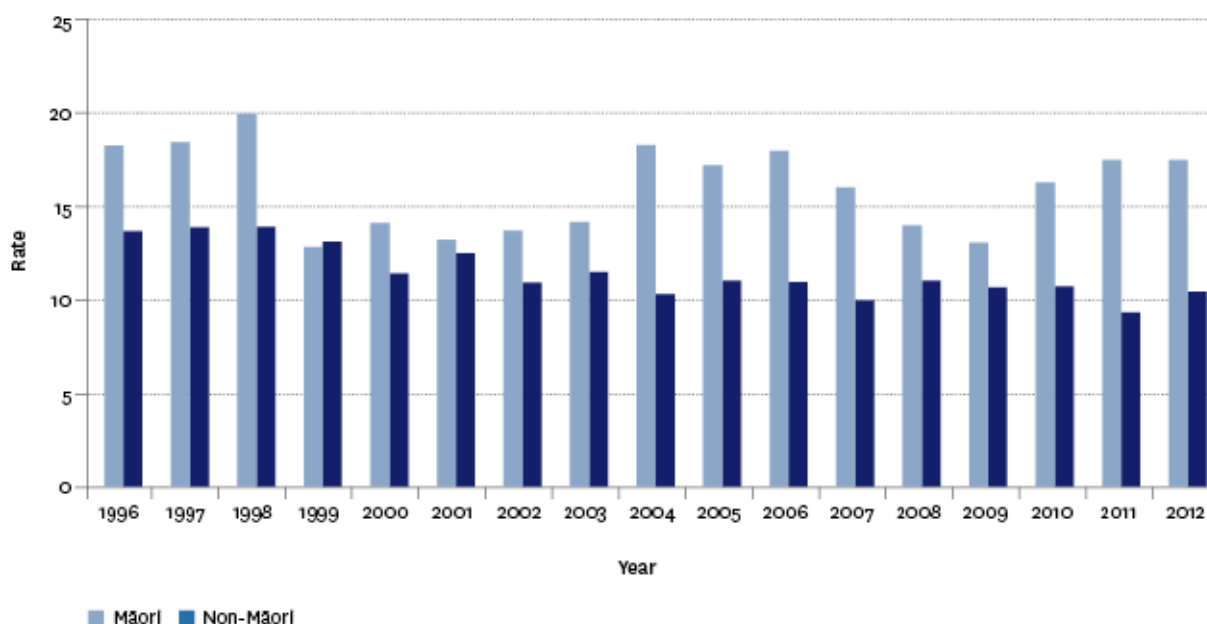
Note: Rates per 100,000 population.

Ethnic differences

In 2012, there were 119 Māori deaths from suicide, accounting for 21.6 percent of all suicide deaths in that year. The age-standardised rate of Māori suicide deaths in 2012 was 17.6 per 100,000 Māori population, compared with 10.6 per 100,000 non-Māori population.

The age-specific suicide death rate for Māori youth (15–24 years) in 2012 was 48.0 per 100,000 Māori youth population, compared with the non-Māori youth rate of 16.9 per 100,000. Since 1996, suicide death rates have generally declined for non-Māori but there is no obvious trend for Māori (although the small numbers of Māori suicide deaths tend to make the rates volatile from year to year, and so it can be hard to ascertain trends). In 10 of the 17 years from 1996 to 2012, Māori suicide death rates were significantly higher than those of non-Māori.

Figure H3.4 – Suicide mortality, age-standardised rates, by ethnic group, 1996–2012



Source: Ministry of Health

Note: Rates per 100,000 population, age-standardised to the WHO World Standard population.

Socio-economic differences

Suicide mortality was less prevalent in areas with lower levels of deprivation (ie NZDep2006 index of socio-economic deprivation). In 2012, the age-standardised suicide death rates for the least deprived areas were 6.6 per 100,000 population for quintile 1 and 9.3 per 100,000 population for quintile 2.

The age-standardised suicide death rate in the most deprived area (NZDep2006 quintile 5) was 13.8 per 100,000 population. In quintile 4, the rate was 16.2 per 100,000 population, and in quintile 3 it was 15.0 per 100,000 population.

International comparison

A comparison with international suicide death rates for 34 OECD countries during 2009 to 2012 shows that New Zealand's mortality rate was 13th highest for males and 5th highest for females. Korea had the highest male suicide mortality rate (37.1 deaths per 100,000 population) and female suicide mortality rate (16.3 deaths per 100,000). New Zealand's overall suicide rate is similar to the OECD median (11.8 deaths per 100,000).

New Zealand's youth (15–24 years) suicide rate was the highest among the 34 OECD countries, ahead of Finland for males and Korea for females.

Data for this section can be found at: www.socialreport.msd.govt.nz/documents/2016/h3.xlsx

Self-rated health

Definition

The proportion of the population aged 15 years and over who rated their health as “good”, “very good” or “excellent”.

Relevance

Self-rated health is a widely used indicator of health status. It measures a person's perception of his or her overall health, and has been shown to have a strong relationship with objective measures of health status.

Current level and trends

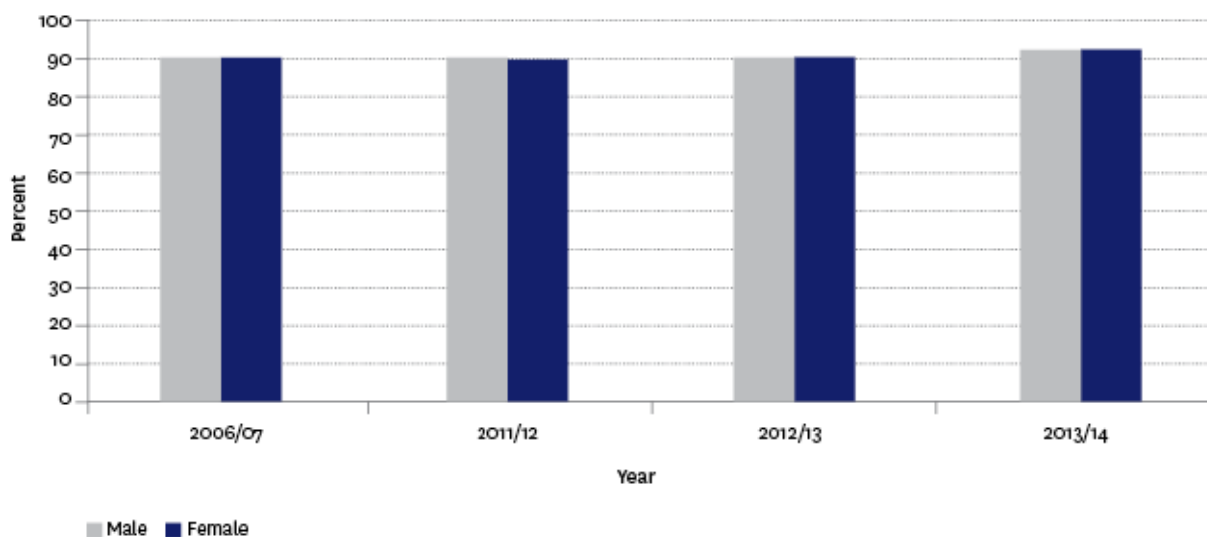
In 2013/2014, the age-standardised proportion of people stating that their health was good, very good or excellent was 92.0 percent, as measured by the New Zealand Health Survey. This is higher than previous years (90.1 percent in 2012/2013, 89.9 percent in 2011/2012 and 90.2 percent in 2006/2007).

An estimated 3,268,000 New Zealanders aged 15 years and over rated their health as good, very good or excellent in 2013/2014, an increase of 73,000 from 2012/2013.

Age and sex differences

There were no differences between males and females in terms of their self-rated health, with 92.0 percent of females and 91.9 percent of males in 2013/2014 rating their health as good, very good or excellent. This pattern is reflected across time.

Figure H4.1 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who rated their health as good, very good or excellent, by sex, 2006/2007–2013/2014



Source: Ministry of Health, New Zealand Health Survey

Note: Data has been age-standardised to the WHO World Standard population.

In 2013/2014, those in the younger age groups were more likely to state their health was good, very good or excellent (93.7 percent for those aged 15–34 years) compared with older age groups. However, a high proportion of older people still rated their health as good, very good or excellent (87.4 percent of those aged 75 years and over).

The proportion of those aged 75 years and over who stated their health was good, very good or excellent increased 7.0 percentage points from 2006/2007 to 2013/2014. Other age groups showed more modest improvements or little change.

Table H4.1 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who rated their health as good, very good or excellent, by age group and sex, 2006/2007–2013/2014

	15–24	25–34	35–44	45–54	55–64	65–74	75+
2006/07							
Male	93.2	92.1	89.6	88.6	89.2	85.3	79.6
Female	91.0	91.8	91.5	91.3	89.1	85.6	80.7
Total	92.1	92.0	90.6	90.0	89.1	85.3	80.4
2011/12							
Male	94.0	90.1	90.1	89.6	87.7	86.1	84.5
Female	92.4	90.8	89.8	90.7	87.0	85.5	80.6
Total	93.2	90.4	89.9	90.2	87.3	85.8	82.2
2012/13							
Male	92.6	90.7	90.8	89.7	87.1	88.7	80.7
Female	92.1	90.6	89.9	90.1	86.9	89.0	88.3
Total	92.3	90.6	90.3	89.9	87.0	88.8	85.0
2013/14							
Male	94.2	94.5	91.8	88.6	91.8	88.1	86.7
Female	93.2	93.0	93.7	89.6	91.1	90.0	88.0
Total	93.7	93.7	92.8	89.1	91.4	89.2	87.4

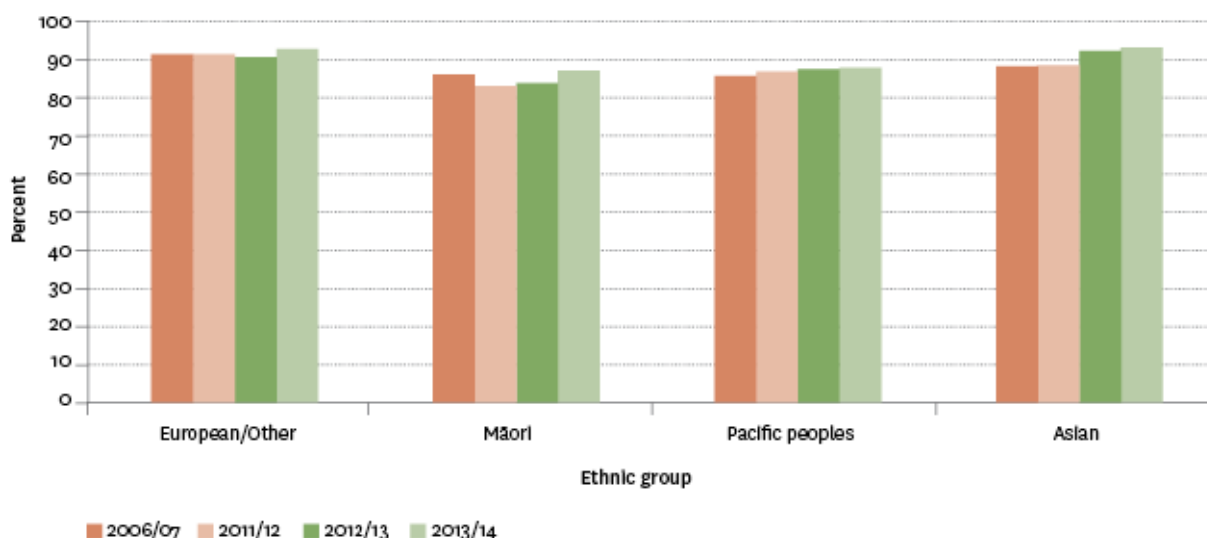
Source: Ministry of Health, New Zealand Health Survey

Note: Data has been age-standardised to the WHO World Standard population.

Ethnic differences

There was some variation in the proportion of different ethnic groups who reported their health as good, very good or excellent. In 2013/2014, 92.8 percent of people in the Asian ethnic group and 92.5 percent of European/Other, compared with 87.0 percent of Māori and 87.6 percent of Pacific peoples, rated their health as good, very good or excellent. Similar differences were found in previous surveys.

Figure H4.2 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who rated their health as good, very good or excellent, by ethnic group, 2006/2007–2013/2014



Source: Ministry of Health, New Zealand Health Survey

Note: Data has been age-standardised to the WHO World Standard population.

Socio-economic differences

In 2013/2014, a higher proportion (96.0 percent) of those living in the least deprived areas (NZDep2013 quintile level 1) stated their health was good, very good or excellent compared with 87.4 percent of those living in the most deprived areas (NZDep2013 quintile level 5).

The proportions for NZDep2013 quintile levels 2, 3 and 4 were 93.6 percent, 91.7 percent and 90.7 percent respectively.

Regional differences

In 2013/2014, Canterbury (92.3 percent), Tasman/Nelson/Marlborough/West Coast (91.9 percent) and Auckland (91.7 percent) had the highest proportion of their population rating their health as good, very good or excellent.

Those living in Gisborne/Hawke's Bay (87.5 percent) and Northland (87.9 percent) had the lowest self-ratings of good health.

International comparison

Comparisons with OECD countries showed that, in 2013 or the latest available year, New Zealand ranked first in terms of the percentage of the population rating their health as good or better (with 90 percent).

The next ranked countries were Canada (89 percent), the United States (88 percent) and Australia (85 percent). The OECD median was 71 percent of the population rating their health as good or better, with Japan (30 percent) and Korea (35 percent) having the lowest ratings.

Data for this section can be found at: www.socialreport.msd.govt.nz/documents/2016/h4.xlsx

Psychological distress

Definition

The proportion of the population aged 15 years and over who reported experiencing high or very high levels of psychological distress and had a high probability of having an anxiety or depressive disorder.

Relevance

In 2013, anxiety and depressive disorders accounted for about 6 percent of all illness, disability and premature mortality.⁴ These disorders can take a huge toll on individuals, their families, society, and the economy.

The probability of having an anxiety or depressive disorder is measured using the Kessler Psychological Distress Scale (K10). People who score 12 or more on the K10 have experienced high or very high levels of psychological distress in the past four weeks and have a high probability of having an anxiety or depressive disorder.

Current level and trends

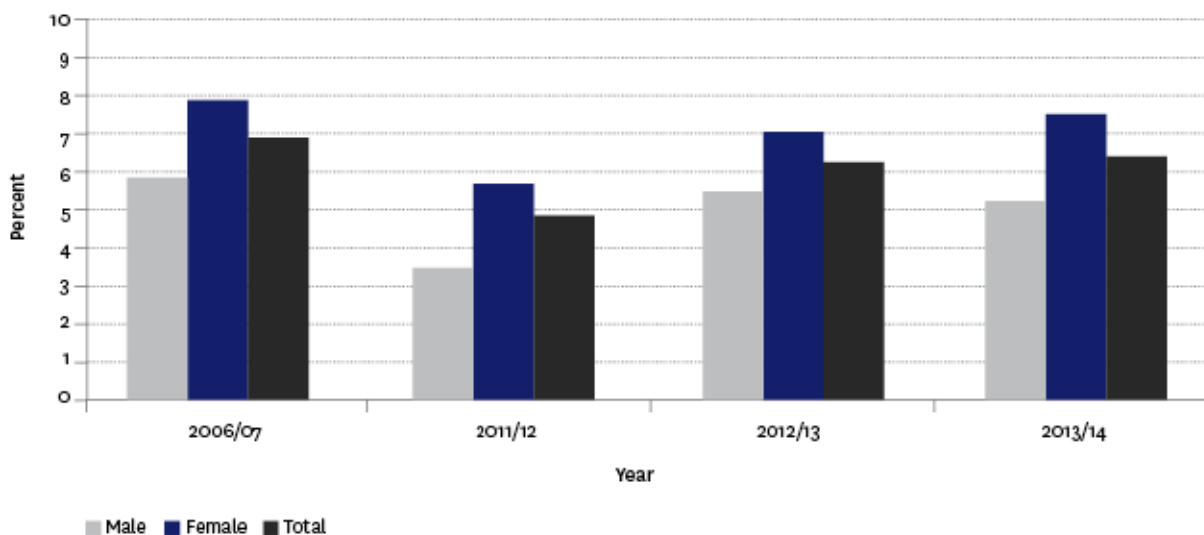
In 2013/2014, the age-standardised proportion of people experiencing high or very high levels of psychological distress was 6.4 percent, as measured by the New Zealand Health Survey. This is similar to 2012/2013 (6.3 percent) and 2006/2007 (6.8 percent), but higher than 2011/2012 (4.7 percent).

In 2013/2014, an estimated 221,000 New Zealanders aged 15 years and over reported experiencing high or very high levels of psychological distress, an increase of 3,000 from 2012/2013.

Age and sex differences

The proportion of females who reported experiencing high or very high levels of psychological distress has been consistently higher than males. In 2013/2014, 7.5 percent of females reported experiencing high or very high levels of psychological distress, compared with 5.2 percent of males.

Figure H5.1 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who experienced psychological distress, by sex, 2006/2007–2013/2014



Source: Ministry of Health, New Zealand Health Survey

Note: Data has been age-standardised to the WHO World Standard population.

In general, there were small differences between age groups. In 2013/2014, those aged 15–24 years and 45–54 years (7.2 percent each) were slightly more likely to experience psychological distress compared with other age groups. Those aged 75 years and over were least likely to experience psychological distress (4.4 percent).

Over time, there has been a decrease in the proportion of those aged 75 years and over experiencing high to very high levels of psychological distress (a 3.7 percentage point decrease from 2006/2007 to 2013/2014).

Table H5.1 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who experienced psychological distress, by age group and sex, 2006/2007–2013/2014

	15-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	65-74	75+
2006/07							
Male	7.0	6.2	5.3	5.2	4.1	5.5	6.9
Female	12.0	7.4	7.4	5.0	5.5	4.8	9.1
Total	9.5	6.9	6.4	5.1	4.8	5.2	8.1
2011/12							
Male	3.7	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.1	3.2	3.1
Female	5.8	6.7	6.0	5.4	4.6	4.2	3.9
Total	4.7	5.3	4.9	4.6	3.9	3.7	3.5
2012/13							
Male	6.0	6.5	5.0	5.5	4.6	4.2	5.3
Female	7.8	6.5	7.4	7.9	7.0	4.9	4.0
Total	6.9	6.5	6.2	6.8	5.8	4.6	4.6
2013/14							
Male	4.8	5.3	5.9	6.3	5.0	3.6	3.4
Female	9.6	7.6	6.7	8.1	5.3	6.0	5.2
Total	7.2	6.5	6.3	7.2	5.2	4.8	4.4

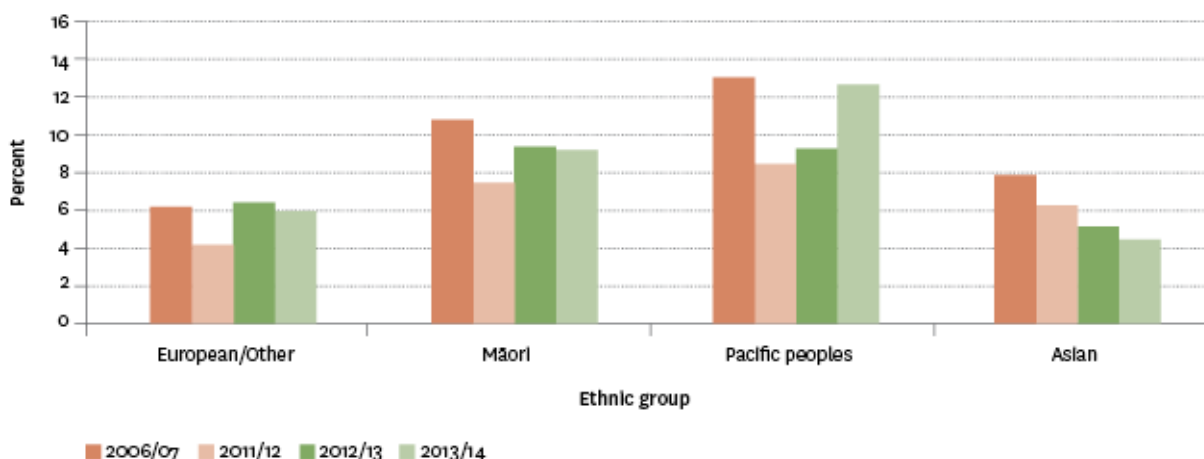
Source: Ministry of Health, New Zealand Health Survey

Note: Data has been age-standardised to the WHO World Standard population.

Ethnic differences

There are variations in the proportion of different ethnic groups who report high or very high levels of psychological distress. In 2013/2014, 12.6 percent of Pacific peoples and 9.1 percent of Māori reported experiencing high or very high levels of psychological distress, compared with 5.9 percent of European/Other and 4.4 percent of people in the Asian ethnic group.

Figure H5.2 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who experienced psychological distress, by ethnic group, 2006/2007–2013/2014



Source: Ministry of Health, New Zealand Health Survey

Note: Data has been age-standardised to the WHO World Standard population.

Socio-economic differences

A smaller proportion of those living in the least deprived areas reported high or very high levels of psychological distress, compared with those living in the most deprived areas (ie 4.0 percent of those living in the NZDep2013 quintile level 1, compared with 9.3 percent of those living in NZDep2013 quintile level 5).

The proportions for NZDep2013 quintile levels 2, 3 and 4 were 5.7 percent, 6.8 percent and 6.5 percent respectively.

Regional differences

In 2013/2014, Gisborne/Hawke's Bay had the highest proportion of people reporting high or very high levels of psychological distress (9.5 percent), whereas Manawatu-Wanganui and Tasman/Nelson/Marlborough/West Coast had the lowest proportions (4.4 percent each).

Data for this section can be found at: www.socialreport.msd.govt.nz/documents/2016/h5.xlsx

Obesity

Definition

The proportion of the adult population aged 15 years and over who were obese.

The proportion of children aged 2–14 years who were obese.

Relevance

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

High Body Mass Index (BMI) (overweight or obese) accounted for about 9 percent of all illness, disability and premature mortality in 2013, making it the leading modifiable risk to health, equal with smoking.⁵

Current level and trends

In 2013/2014, the age-standardised proportion of obesity for adults was 28.7 percent, as measured by the New Zealand Health Survey. This is similar to 2012/2013 (29.6 percent) and 2011/2012 (27.9 percent), but significantly higher than 2006/2007 (25.7 percent). A total of 1,069,000 adults were estimated to be obese, a decrease of 21,000 from 2012/2013.

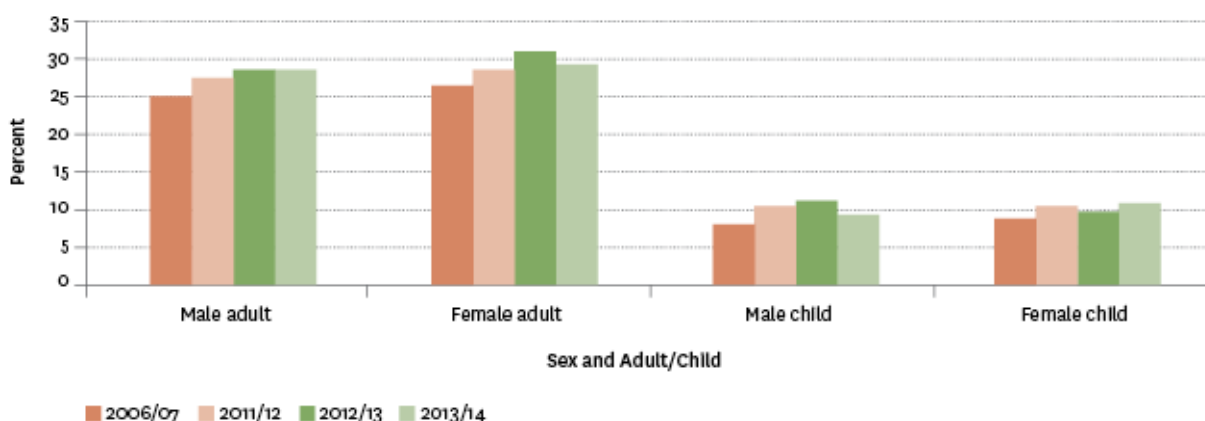
In 2013/2014, the age-standardised proportion of obesity for children aged 2–14 years was 10.1 percent, as measured by the New Zealand Health Survey. This is similar to 2012/2013 and 2011/2012 (10.5 percent), but slightly higher than 2006/2007 (8.4 percent). A total of 79,000 children aged 2–14 years was estimated to be obese, a similar number to 2012/2013.

Age and sex differences

In 2013/2014, similar proportions of male and female adults were obese (29.1 percent of females and 28.3 of males). Between 2006/2007 and 2013/2014, there was a 3.3 percentage point increase in obesity rates for males and a 2.8 percentage point increase for females.

In 2013/2014, 9.5 percent of male children and 10.8 percent of female children were obese, while in 2006/2007 the proportions were lower: 8.0 percent and 8.8 percent for male and female children aged 2–14 years respectively.

Figure H6.1 – Proportion of population aged 2 years and over who were obese, by sex and adult/child, 2006/2007–2013/2014



Source: Ministry of Health, New Zealand Health Survey

Note: Data has been age-standardised to the WHO World Standard population.

In 2013/2014, the proportion of the population who were obese increased with age, peaking in the 45–74 year age groups (between 34.9 percent and 36.1 percent). For those aged 75 years and over, the proportion who were obese was lower (28.6 percent). This pattern was consistent for all the surveys from 2006/2007 to 2013/2014.

In 2013/2014, for many of the age groups, the obesity rates were higher than in 2006/2007. Those aged 75 years and over had the biggest increase (8.0 percentage point increase between 2006/2007 and 2013/2014).

Table H6.1 – Proportion of population aged 2 years and over who were obese, by age group and sex, 2006/2007–2013/2014

	2–4	5–9	10–14	15–24	25–34	35–44	45–54	55–64	65–74	75+
2006/07										
Male	7.6	8.5	7.8	13.0	22.2	30.0	31.2	36.1	30.1	21.2
Female	9.0	8.1	9.4	15.9	26.6	27.1	30.4	36.1	35.9	20.2
Total	8.3	8.3	8.5	14.5	24.4	28.5	30.8	36.1	33.1	20.6
2011/12										
Male	10.2	10.7	10.5	18.0	24.3	33.6	31.4	34.1	34.5	22.7
Female	9.0	10.5	11.5	21.0	27.7	30.7	31.0	32.0	39.2	23.4
Total	9.6	10.6	11.0	19.5	26.0	32.1	31.2	33.0	36.9	23.1
2012/13										
Male	13.5	9.5	11.3	18.6	23.6	33.3	36.0	34.0	38.2	25.4
Female	7.3	11.9	9.2	21.9	30.0	33.1	35.1	37.9	37.1	27.4
Total	10.5	10.7	10.3	20.2	26.8	33.2	35.5	36.0	37.7	26.5
2013/14										
Male	6.7	10.6	10.1	16.6	23.8	32.0	39.2	36.7	34.0	26.5
Female	9.5	9.6	12.9	17.7	29.2	33.2	32.7	35.5	35.5	30.8
Total	8.0	10.1	11.5	17.1	26.6	32.6	35.8	36.1	34.9	28.6

Source: Ministry of Health, New Zealand Health Survey

Note: Data has been age-standardised to the WHO World Standard population.

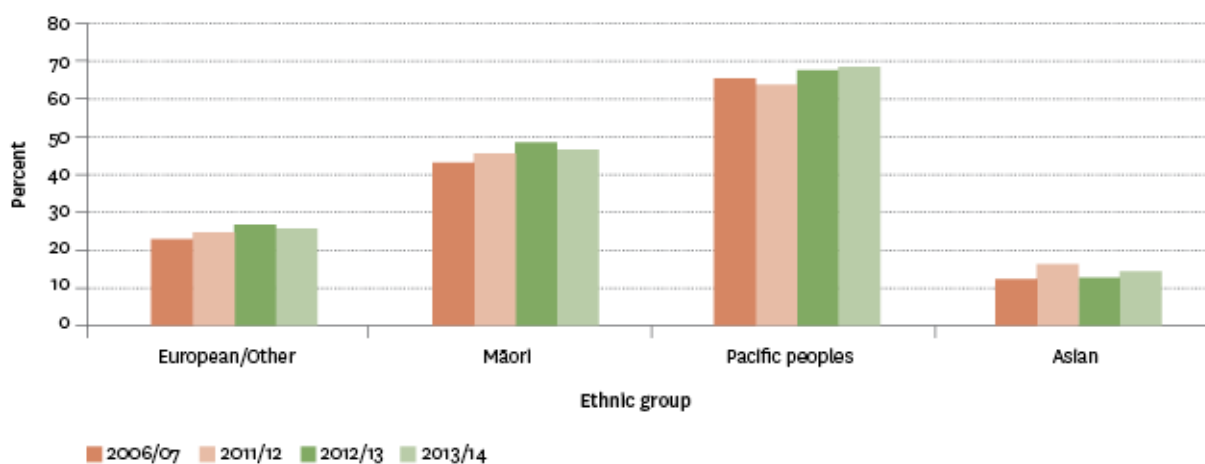
Ethnic differences

There were large differences in the prevalence of obesity across ethnic groups. In 2013/2014, 68.4 percent of Pacific adults and 46.5 percent of adult Māori were obese, compared with 25.7 percent of European/Other adults and 14.5 percent of adults in the Asian ethnic group. This pattern of differences is also evident for previous surveys.

Similarly, 26.2 percent of Pacific children and 15.7 percent of Māori children were obese, compared with 6.7 percent of European/Other children and 6.4 percent of children in the Asian ethnic group.

Compared with 2006/2007, obesity rates for adults and children in 2013/2014 were higher for all ethnic groups (ranging from a 0.5 to a 3.8 percentage point increase).

Figure H6.2 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who were obese, by ethnic group, 2006/2007–2013/2014



Source: Ministry of Health, New Zealand Health Survey

Note: Data has been age-standardised to the WHO World Standard population.

Socio-economic differences

In 2013/2014, a greater proportion of adults living in the most deprived areas were obese compared with the least deprived areas (ie 44.5 percent of those living in NZDep2013 quintile level 5 compared with 18.4 percent of those living in NZDep2013 quintile level 1 and 22.1 percent in NZDep2013 quintile level 2). The proportions of adults living in NZDep2013 quintile levels 3 and 4 areas were 27.9 percent and 30.8 percent respectively.

The same pattern was observed for children. Nearly 1 in 5 (18.7 percent) of those living in NZDep2013 quintile level 5 was obese, compared with 4.2 percent of those living in NZDep2013 quintile level 1 and 5.2 percent living in quintile level 2. For children living in NZDep2013 quintile levels 3 and 4 areas, the proportions were 6.8 percent and 13.1 percent respectively.

Regional differences

In 2013/2014, Waikato (34.4 percent), Gisborne/Hawke's Bay (33.6 percent) and Northland (33.3 percent) had the highest proportions of adults with obesity.

Auckland, Wellington, Canterbury and Tasman/Nelson/Marlborough/West Coast had the lowest rates (all around 27 percent).

International comparison

A comparison of measured adult obesity rates among 13 OECD countries for 2011 or the latest available year showed that New Zealand's reported rate of 28.4 percent was above the OECD median of 24.8 percent.

The United States had the highest obesity rate (36.5 percent), followed by Mexico (32.4 percent). Australia (28.3 percent) had a similar rate to New Zealand, while the United Kingdom's rate was lower (24.8 percent).

Data for this section can be found at: www.socialreport.msd.govt.nz/documents/2016/h6.xlsx

Cigarette smoking

Definition

The proportion of the population aged 15 years and over who currently smoked cigarettes.

Relevance

Tobacco smoking is a well-recognised risk factor for many cancers, respiratory and cardiovascular diseases, and diabetes. Smoking was one of two leading modifiable risks to health in 2013 (the other being high BMI), accounting for about 9 percent of all illness, disability and premature mortality.⁶ Smoking has been identified as the major cause of preventable death in OECD countries.

Exposure to environmental tobacco smoke (particularly maternal smoking) is a major risk factor for Sudden Infant Death Syndrome and respiratory problems in children.

Current level and trends

In 2013/2014, the age-standardised proportion of current smokers was 18.5 percent, as measured in the New Zealand Health Survey. This was similar to 2012/2013 (18.7 percent) but lower than 2011/2012 (19.8 percent) and significantly lower than 2006/2007 (21.3 percent). Between 2006/2007 and 2013/2014, the proportion of the population who were current smokers decreased 2.8 percentage points.

In 2013/2014, an estimated 615,000 New Zealanders aged 15 years and over were current smokers (ie had smoked more than 100 cigarettes in their lifetime and currently smoked at least once a month), a decrease of 11,000 from 2012/2013.

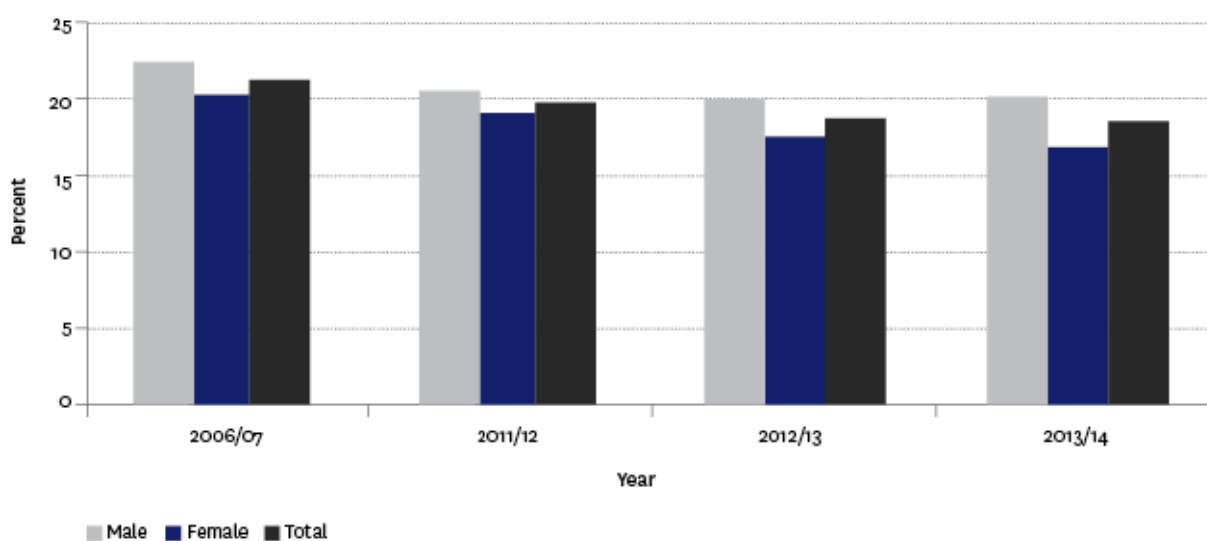
The age-standardised rate of daily smokers (ie had smoked more than 100 cigarettes in their lifetime and currently smoked at least once a day) was similar to the current smokers' rate (16.5 percent of the population).

Age and sex differences

In 2013/2014, males were more likely than females to be current smokers (20.2 percent of males compared with 16.9 percent of females).

Between 2006/2007 and 2011/2012, the proportion of male current smokers dropped from 22.4 percent to 20.6 percent and has stayed at approximately 20 percent for 2012/2013 and 2013/2014. In comparison, the proportion of female current smokers has shown a gradual decrease from 20.3 percent in 2006/2007 to 16.9 percent in 2013/2014.

Figure H7.1 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who were current smokers, by sex, 2006/2007–2013/2014



Source: Ministry of Health, New Zealand Health Survey

Note: Data has been age-standardised to the WHO World Standard population.

In 2013/2014, those aged 25–34 years were most likely to be current smokers (25.7 percent), followed by those aged 45–54 years (20.9 percent). In contrast, only 8.2 percent of those aged 65–74 years and 4.1 percent of those aged 75 years and over were current smokers. This pattern was similar for each of the four surveys' time periods.

Table H7.1 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who were current smokers, by age group and sex, 2006/2007–2013/2014

	15-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	65-74	75+
2006/07							
Male	23.4	30.9	24.1	23.1	14.3	11.2	5.4
Female	23.5	25.9	20.7	19.8	15.7	10.5	3.4
Total	23.5	28.3	22.3	21.4	15.0	10.9	4.0
2011/12							
Male	20.0	30.7	21.3	18.1	17.5	10.7	4.5
Female	23.0	24.8	22.1	15.5	12.5	7.9	4.5
Total	21.5	27.7	21.8	16.8	14.9	9.3	4.5
2012/13							
Male	19.1	27.4	23.9	19.2	15.2	8.4	4.9
Female	18.8	21.5	17.6	20.7	14.4	7.6	4.3
Total	19.0	24.4	20.6	19.9	14.8	8.0	4.5
2013/14							
Male	21.6	28.1	19.3	22.2	14.5	9.0	4.4
Female	15.7	23.5	17.7	19.6	12.7	7.4	3.7
Total	18.7	25.7	18.4	20.9	13.6	8.2	4.1

Source: Ministry of Health, New Zealand Health Survey

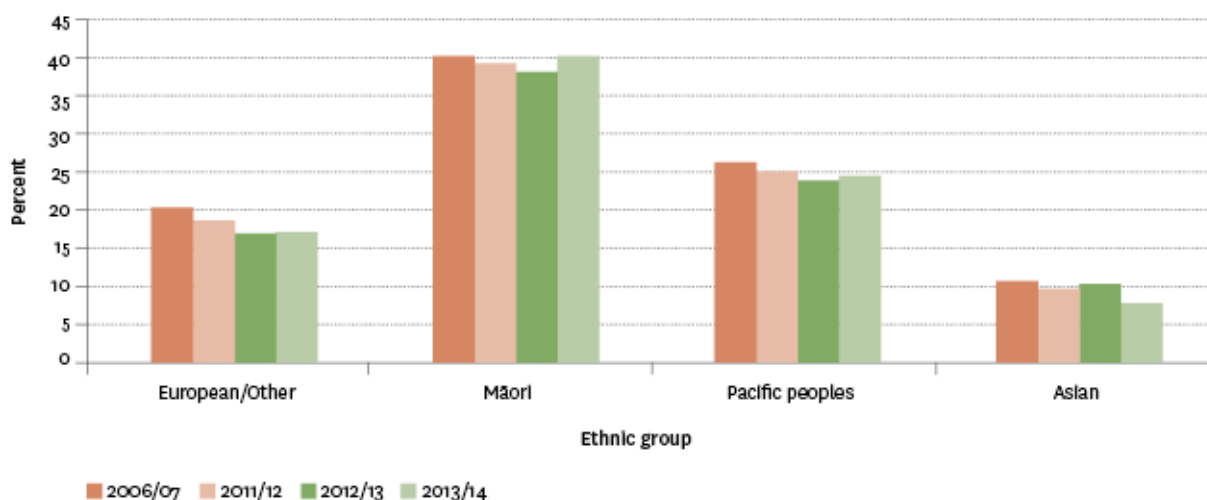
Note: Data has been age-standardised to the WHO World Standard population.

Ethnic differences

There were large differences in the prevalence of smoking for different ethnic groups. In 2013/2014, 40.2 percent of Māori adults were current smokers, compared with 24.4 percent of Pacific peoples, 17.1 percent of people in the European/Other group and 7.7 percent of people in the Asian ethnic group.

This pattern of differences between ethnic groups is also present in previous years. The proportion of current smokers who were of European/Other ethnicity was gradually decreasing over time.

Figure H7.2 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who were current smokers, by ethnic group, 2006/2007–2013/2014



Source: Ministry of Health, New Zealand Health Survey

Note: Data has been age-standardised to the WHO World Standard population.

Socio-economic differences

In 2013/2014, a greater proportion of people living in the most deprived areas were current smokers, compared with people living in the least deprived areas (ie 32.6 percent for those in NZDep2013 quintile level 5, compared with 8.0 percent for those living in NZDep2013 quintile level 1 and 13.2 percent living in NZDep2013 quintile level 2).

The proportion for NZDep2013 quintile levels 3 and 4 were 17.8 percent and 21.6 percent respectively.

Regional differences

In 2013/2014, people living in Gisborne (30.0 percent) and Northland (29.1 percent) had the highest proportion of current smokers. Those living in Auckland (15.0 percent) and Canterbury (17.0 percent) had the lowest proportion of current smokers.

International comparison

Daily smoking rates are used for international comparisons. In an OECD comparison of daily smoking rates of adults in 2011 or the nearest available year, New Zealand (16.5 percent) had a lower rate than the OECD median rate of 20.3 percent. The United States (14.8 percent), Australia (15.1 percent) and Canada (15.7 percent) had lower rates of daily smoking than New Zealand, while most of the European and Asian countries had higher rates (eg the United Kingdom had a rate of 19.6 percent and Ireland 29.0 percent).

Data for this section can be found at: www.socialreport.msd.govt.nz/documents/2016/h7.xlsx

Potentially hazardous drinking

Definition

The proportion of the population aged 15 years and over who were potentially hazardous drinkers.

Relevance

Potentially hazardous drinking is an established drinking pattern of alcohol consumption that carries a risk of harming the drinker's physical or mental health, or having harmful social effects on the drinker or others. In addition to its effect on rates of disease, alcohol contributes to death and injury through traffic accidents, drowning, suicide, assaults and domestic violence.

Alcohol accounted for about 4 percent of total health loss (ie illness, disability and premature mortality) in 2010.⁷

Current level and trends

In 2013/2014, the age-standardised proportion of potentially hazardous drinkers was 18.1 percent as measured by the New Zealand Health Survey. This was similar to 2012/2013 (17.3 percent) and 2011/2012 (16.9 percent), but slightly lower than in 2006/2007 (19.9 percent).

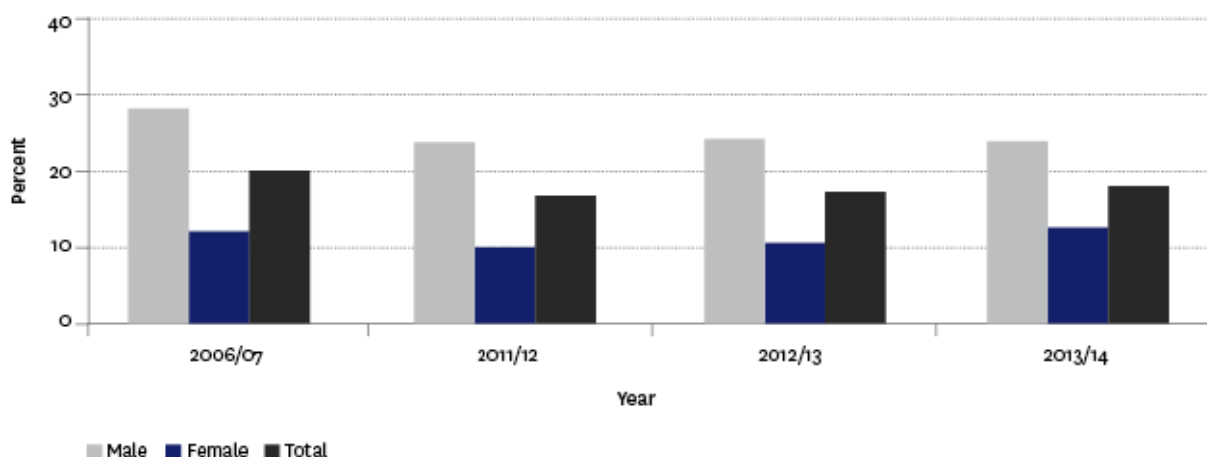
An estimated 575,000 New Zealanders aged 15 years and over were potentially hazardous drinkers in 2013/2014, an increase of 24,000 from 2012/2013.

Age and sex differences

Males were more likely than females to be classified as potentially hazardous drinkers. In 2013/2014, 23.8 percent of males were potentially hazardous drinkers, compared with 12.7 percent of females.

The proportion of males who were potentially hazardous drinkers decreased between 2006/2007 and 2011/2012 before stabilising, while the proportion of females decreased slightly between 2006/2007 and 2011/2012 and increased to 2006/2007 levels in 2013/2014.

Figure H8.1 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who were potentially hazardous drinkers, by sex, 2006/2007–2013/2014



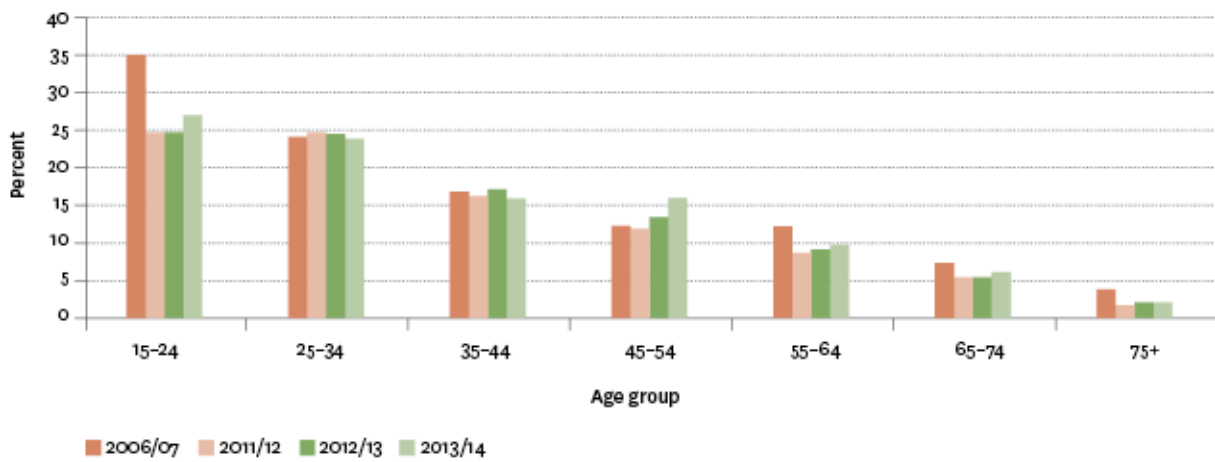
Source: Ministry of Health, New Zealand Health Survey

Note: Data has been age-standardised to the WHO World Standard population.

The proportion of the population who were potentially hazardous drinkers decreased as age increased. In 2013/2014, 26.9 percent of those aged 15–24 years were potentially hazardous drinkers, compared with 23.9 percent of those aged 25–34 years, 15.9 percent of those aged 35–44 years, and 15.7 percent of those aged 45–54 years. In comparison, only 9.7 percent of those aged 55–64 years, 5.9 percent of those aged 65–74 years and 2.0 percent of those aged 75 years and over were defined as potentially hazardous drinkers.

The proportion of potentially hazardous drinkers decreased or remained at the same level between 2006/2007 and 2013/2014 for all age groups, except for those aged 45–54 years who increased by 3.6 percentage points.

Figure H8.2 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who were potentially hazardous drinkers, by age group, 2006/2007–2013/2014



Source: Ministry of Health, New Zealand Health Survey

Note: Data has been age-standardised to the WHO World Standard population.

Ethnic differences

In 2013/2014, Māori had the highest proportion (29.5 percent) of potentially hazardous drinkers compared with all other ethnic groups. In contrast, people in the Asian ethnic group had the lowest (3.3 percent) proportion. The proportions for European/Other (19.7 percent) and Pacific peoples (18.2 percent) were similar to each other.

This pattern was also found in each of the previous surveys.

Table H8.1 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who were potentially hazardous drinkers, by ethnic group and sex, 2006/2007–2013/2014

	European/Other	Māori	Pacific peoples	Asian
2006/07				
Male	29.3	41.0	32.3	9.0
Female	12.7	22.2	12.0	1.8
Total	20.9	31.1	21.7	5.3
2011/12				
Male	25.4	35.4	28.4	6.5
Female	10.3	20.0	9.7	1.8
Total	17.8	27.4	18.4	4.1
2012/13				
Male	25.9	37.1	26.7	6.5
Female	11	22.3	7.9	1.6
Total	18.4	29.4	16.6	4.2
2013/14				
Male	26.3	35.9	27.0	4.7
Female	13.5	24.0	11.5	2.0
Total	19.7	29.5	18.2	3.3

Source: Ministry of Health, New Zealand Health Survey

Note: Data has been age-standardised to the WHO World Standard population.

Socio-economic differences

In 2013/2014, people in the most deprived areas (ie NZDep2013 quintile level 5) were more likely than those in the least deprived areas (ie NZDep2013 quintile levels 1 and 2) to be potentially hazardous drinkers (21.6 percent, compared with 15.5 percent and 16.6 percent respectively). The proportions of potentially hazardous drinkers in NZDep2013 quintile levels 3 and 4 were 19.5 percent and 17.1 percent respectively.

Regional differences

In 2013/2014, the geographical areas with the highest proportions of potentially hazardous drinkers were Gisborne/Hawke's Bay (27.5 percent) and Otago/Southland (23.2 percent).

Canterbury (12.3 percent) and Tasman/Nelson/Marlborough/West Coast (14.0 percent) had the lowest proportions of potentially hazardous drinkers.

International comparison

The indicator used by the OECD for international comparisons is an average of the annual consumption of alcohol per person aged 15 years and over.

In 2011, New Zealand's average annual consumption was 9.5 litres per person which was below the median (10.1 litres per person) for the 25 OECD countries with data available. New Zealand's average annual consumption was higher than that of the United States (8.6 litres per person) and Canada (8.0 litres per person), but lower than Australia (10.1 litres per person), the United Kingdom (10.6 litres per person) and Ireland (11.7 litres per person).

Data for this section can be found at: www.socialreport.msd.govt.nz/documents/2016/h8.xlsx

Participation in physical activity

Definition

The proportion of the population aged 15 years and over who met physical activity guidelines.

Relevance

Participation in physical activity has positive benefits for people's physical and mental health. 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. It can also contribute to personal growth and development, and is a source of social interaction (ie a good way to meet new people).

Low physical activity (which includes low or no activity) accounted for about 5 percent of all illness, disability and premature mortality in 2010.⁸

Current level and trends

In 2013/2014, the age-standardised proportion of people meeting the physical activity guidelines (reporting they have been physically active for at least 30 minutes a day on five or more days in the past week) was 51.8 percent, as measured by the New Zealand Health Survey. This was similar to previous years (52.3 percent in 2012/2013 and 52.9 percent in 2006/2007), but lower than 2011/2012 (55.3 percent).

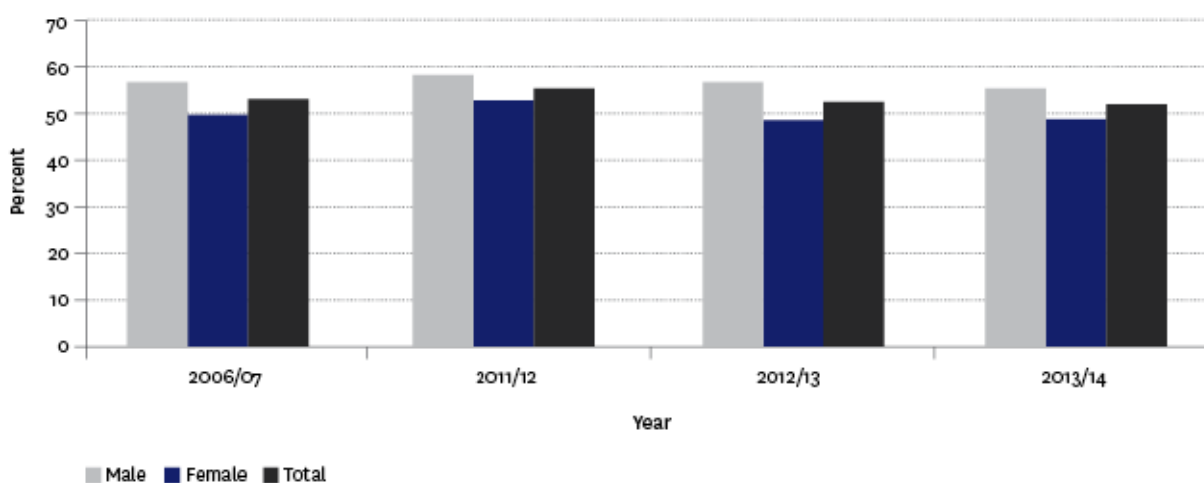
An estimated 1,839,000 New Zealanders aged 15 years and over met the physical activity guidelines in 2013/2014, which is similar to the estimated number in 2012/2013 (1,840,000).

Age and sex differences

Males were more likely than females to meet the physical activity guidelines. In 2013/2014, 55.2 percent of males reported being physically active for at least 30 minutes a day for five or more days in the last week, compared with 48.5 percent of females.

These differences have been reflected over time – in 2006/2007, 56.5 percent of males reported meeting physical activity guidelines, compared with 49.5 percent of females.

Figure H9.1 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who met physical activity guidelines in the last week, by sex, 2006/2007–2013/2014



Source: Ministry of Health, New Zealand Health Survey

Note: Data has been age-standardised to the WHO World Standard population.

Similar levels of physical activity were reported for all age groups except those aged 75 years and above. Not surprisingly, those aged 75 years and over had the lowest proportion (42.5 percent) reporting levels of physical activity that met the guidelines. However, the proportion of those aged 75 and over meeting the physical activity guidelines has been increasing (from 34.5 percent in 2006/2007).

Table H9.1 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who met physical activity guidelines in the last week, by age group and sex, 2006/2007–2013/2014

	15–24	25–34	35–44	45–54	55–64	65–74	75+
2006/07							
Male	64.6	59.8	54.3	52.1	51.8	52.6	42.3
Female	48.2	50.1	51.5	52.8	52.5	46.9	29.1
Total	56.5	54.8	52.9	52.4	52.1	49.5	34.5
2011/12							
Male	62.5	59.6	58.2	57.6	57.3	55.1	39
Female	52.4	52.8	54.9	54.4	56.9	47.2	29.3
Total	57.6	56.2	56.5	55.9	57.1	51	33.6
2012/13							
Male	61.8	58.4	55.4	55.3	54.2	49.9	41.5
Female	47.3	47.1	48.6	53.3	51.6	45.6	35.9
Total	54.8	52.7	51.9	54.2	52.9	47.8	38.4
2013/14							
Male	55.9	58.1	53.8	55.9	54.2	54.4	42.9
Female	45	48.7	51	49.9	51.2	48.2	42.2
Total	50.6	53.3	52.3	52.8	52.7	51.3	42.5

Source: Ministry of Health, New Zealand Health Survey

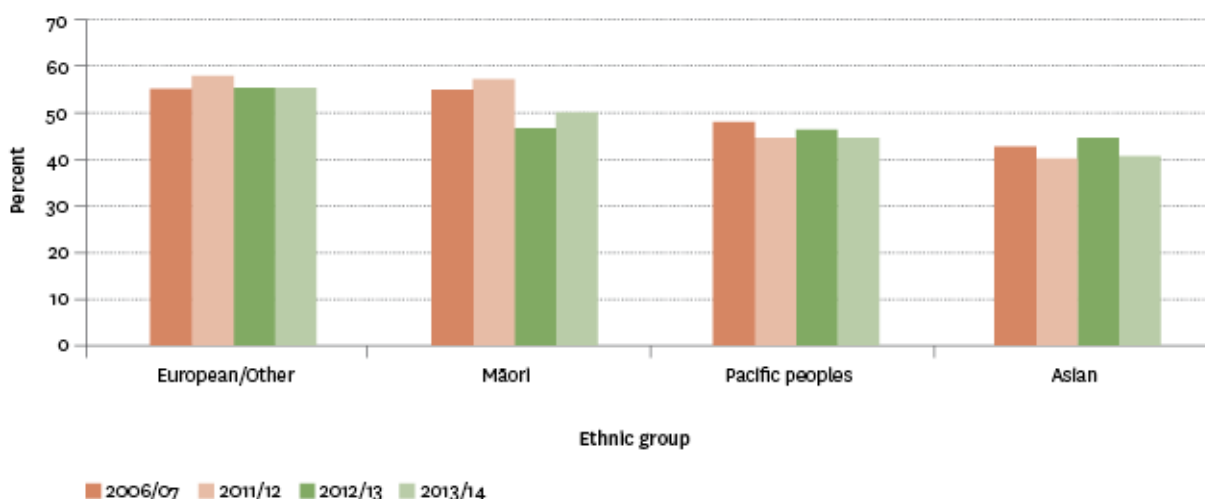
Note: Data has been age-standardised to the WHO World Standard population.

Ethnic differences

In 2013/2014, people in the Asian ethnic group (40.6 percent) and Pacific peoples (44.2 percent) were less likely to meet physical activity guidelines, compared with people in the European/Other group (55.0 percent) and Māori (49.8 percent).

Māori proportions showed the biggest decline in activity levels, from 54.8 percent in 2006/2007 to 49.8 percent in 2013/2014. There were also large differences between males and females in the Māori and Pacific peoples groups, with a 12.0 percentage point difference between Māori males and Māori females, and a 13.4 percentage point difference between Pacific males and females. There were smaller differences between males and females for the other ethnic groups.

Figure H9.2 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who met physical activity guidelines in the last week, by ethnic group, 2006/2007–2013/2014



Source: Ministry of Health, New Zealand Health Survey

Note: Data has been age-standardised to the WHO World Standard population.

Socio-economic differences

In 2013/2014, a greater proportion of people living in the least deprived areas were more likely than those living in the most deprived areas to meet physical activity guidelines (ie 51.8 percent for those living in NZDep2013 quintile level 1 and 54.0 percent in NZDep2013 quintile level 2 areas, compared with 46.1 percent for those living in NZDep2013 quintile level 5 area).

The proportions for NZDep2013 quintile levels 3 and 4 areas were 53.5 percent and 52.9 percent respectively.

Regional differences

In 2013/2014, people living in Canterbury were most likely to have met physical activity guidelines (77.0 percent), followed by Otago/Southland (72.6 percent).

Those living in Auckland (43.2 percent) and Taranaki (43.3 percent) were least likely to be physically active for at least 30 minutes on five or more days in the last week.

Data for this section can be found at: www.socialreport.msd.govt.nz/documents/2016/h9.xlsx

Knowledge and skills

Desired outcomes

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

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 headline 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 and numeracy skills. 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 informal, on-the-job training makes to acquiring knowledge and skills.

The indicators are relevant to current and future social wellbeing. The first indicator, 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 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.

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.

Participation in tertiary education, the third indicator, 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.

The final indicator, adult literacy and numeracy skills, is a fundamental skill. A good level of literacy in English and skills in numeracy is vital in the workplace and in everyday life.

Domain summary

The Knowledge and Skills domain indicators show a positive picture of improvements over time.

Participation in early childhood education continues to rise for both *recent-change* and *medium-term-change*, as does the number of school leavers with NCEA Level 2 or above and the educational attainment levels of those aged 25–64 years. There has been no new information on adult literacy rates since 2006 so results are dated and a *medium-term-change* result cannot be reported, but across the most recent periods available, there was an improvement.

Changes in participation in tertiary education are more complex to interpret, given that reductions in the provision of low-quality, certificate level courses largely account for the decline in participation for both *recent-change* and *medium-term-change*. There is no time series for adult numeracy skills.

Māori, Pacific peoples and lower socio-economic groups continue to perform less well across this domain than the population overall, but Māori and Pacific peoples are making gains on the other ethnic groups.

Participation in early childhood education

Definition

The proportion of children who participated in, or are enrolled or attending, early childhood education.

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.⁹ Quality early childhood education 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.

The headline measure uses prior participation in early childhood education (ECE) for children starting school. The second measure uses enrolment rates in early childhood education.

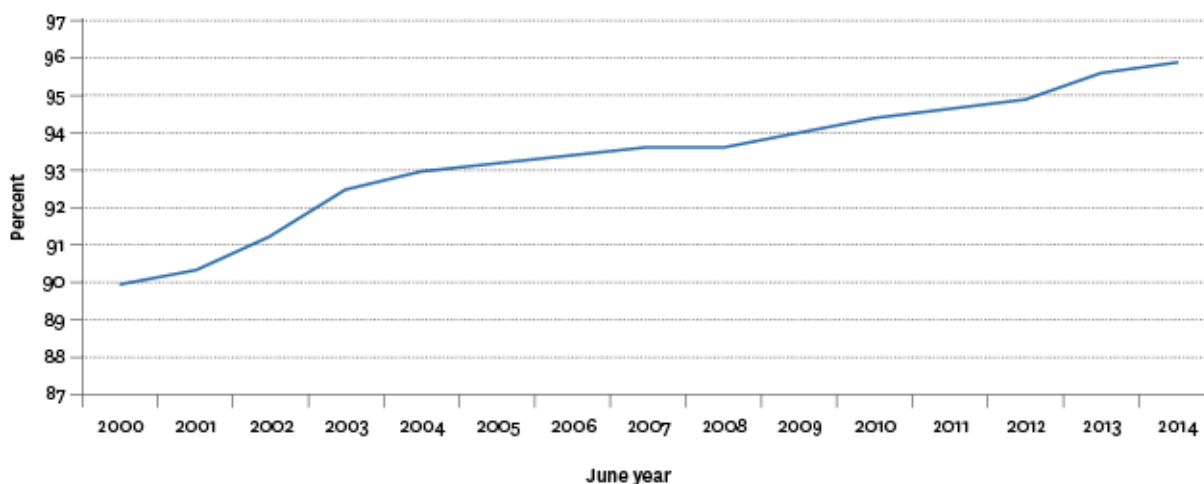
1. Prior participation of Year 1 students

Current level and trends

At June 2014, 95.9 percent of children starting school had attended early childhood education, slightly above the 2013 rate (95.6 percent).

There have been steady increases in early childhood education participation since June 2000, when the rate was 90 percent of children starting school, 5.9 percentage points lower than in June 2014.

Figure K1.1 – Proportion of children starting school who attended early childhood education, 2000–2014



Source: Ministry of Education

Sex differences

Based on prior participation figures, there were no significant differences between males and females (95.6 and 96.0 percent respectively in 2014).

Ethnic differences

In 2014, there were ethnic differences in the proportion of children starting school who had attended early childhood education. European children had the highest proportion at 98.1 percent, followed by the Asian ethnic group (97.0 percent). Pacific children had the lowest proportion at 90.3 percent, followed by Māori (92.9 percent) and Other ethnic groups (94.7 percent).

There have also been variations in changes over time by ethnicity. For the European, Asian and Other ethnic groups, substantive gains were made from 2000 to 2007, but improvements have since slowed as rates approach 100 percent. For Pacific and Māori children, there has been continued improvement including significant gains from 2000 to 2007, and further gains from 2007 to 2014 following the introduction of 20 hours free ECE in 2007.

Table K1.1 – Proportion of children starting school who attended early childhood education, by ethnic group, 2000–2014

Year	European	Māori	Pacific peoples	Asian	Other ethnic groups	Total
2000	94.2	83.1	75.8	89.2	82.2	90.0
2001	94.9	83.6	76.0	89.8	83.3	90.3
2002	95.5	84.8	79.1	92.1	85.7	91.2
2003	96.2	86.7	83.1	92.4	88.0	92.5
2004	96.4	87.5	84.4	94.1	88.5	93.0
2005	96.5	88.1	84.2	95.1	89.1	93.2
2006	96.9	88.1	83.8	96.0	90.8	93.4
2007	97.0	88.8	83.6	96.0	92.7	93.6
2008	97.2	88.7	84.4	95.3	92.9	93.6
2009	97.3	89.6	85.1	95.6	93.9	94.0
2010	97.6	89.4	85.9	95.9	95.4	94.4
2011	97.8	90.1	86.1	95.8	95.4	94.6
2012	97.9	90.9	86.7	95.8	95.4	94.9
2013	98.2	92.3	88.5	96.8	94.6	95.6
2014	98.1	92.9	90.3	97.0	94.7	95.9

Source: Ministry of Education

Note: Ethnicity is total response.

Socio-economic differences

School deciles are a measure of the socio-economic status of the community schools draw students from, and as such are a proxy measure of the socio-economic status of students, although there will be a mix of students in schools.¹⁰ Deciles range from 1 to 10, with Decile 10 schools being the least disadvantaged and Decile 1 schools the most disadvantaged. In 2014, the proportion of children starting a Decile 1 school who had attended early childhood education was 87.3 percent, this compares with 99.0 percent for Decile 10 schools.

Regional differences

In 2014, Nelson, Otago, Canterbury and Tasman performed consistently well in terms of the proportion of children starting school who had attended early childhood education (99.0, 98.4, 98.2 and 97.1 percent respectively). Three regions consistently performed less well: Northland, Auckland and Gisborne (91.0, 94.8 and 95 percent respectively).

2. Enrolments (attendances)

Current level and trends

Enrolment data allows for results to be provided by age. Changes to the method of collecting data, however, means 2014 data should not be compared with previous data, making short-term time series analysis problematic. However, data still allows for longer-term trends to be reported.

The most common ages for children to attend early childhood education is at 3 and 4 years. In 2014, 93.1 percent of 3 year olds and 97.1 percent of 4 year olds attended early childhood education (95.1 percent for 3 and 4 year olds combined). This compares with 44.2 percent of 1 year olds and 64.5 percent of 2 year olds.

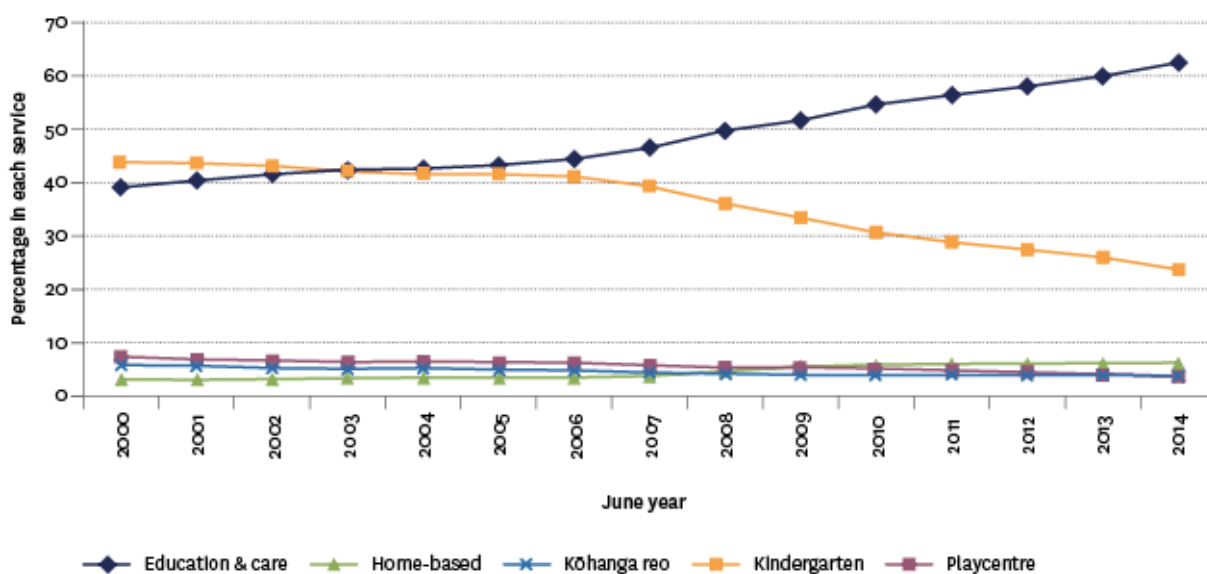
When comparing changes in early childhood education enrolments for children aged 3 and 4 years with children aged 1 and 2 years, there are marked differences. Between 2000 and 2013, there was a 14.8 percentage point increase in those aged 1 and 2 years enrolled in early childhood education. This compares with a 6.0 percentage point increase for children aged 3 and 4 years.

Further reflecting changes in early childhood education activity is the time that children aged 0–5 years spend in education per week. The average number of hours per enrolment per week rose from 13.5 hours in 2000 to 21.7 hours in 2013 (up 8.2 hours).

Enrolment by service type

The majority of children aged 3 and 4 years were enrolled in education and care services (61.9 percent in 2014), followed by kindergartens (24.0 percent). The fall in kindergarten enrolments over time was a result of the change from kindergartens having mostly sessional services to mostly all-day services, with their number of enrolments consequently falling and their average hours per enrolment rising.¹¹

Figure K1.2 – Proportion of children aged 3 and 4 attending early childhood education, by service type, 2000–2014



Source: Ministry of Education

International comparison

Using 2012 data sourced from the OECD, New Zealand ranked 12th out of 33 OECD countries for enrolment rates of 3–4 year olds (91 percent). This was above the OECD median of 86 percent, and compares with 95 percent in the United Kingdom, 52 percent in the United States and 47 percent in Australia. France and Belgium shared the top spot at 99 percent, and Turkey the lowest at 12 percent.

Data for this section can be found at: www.socialreport.msd.govt.nz/documents/2016/k1.xlsx

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

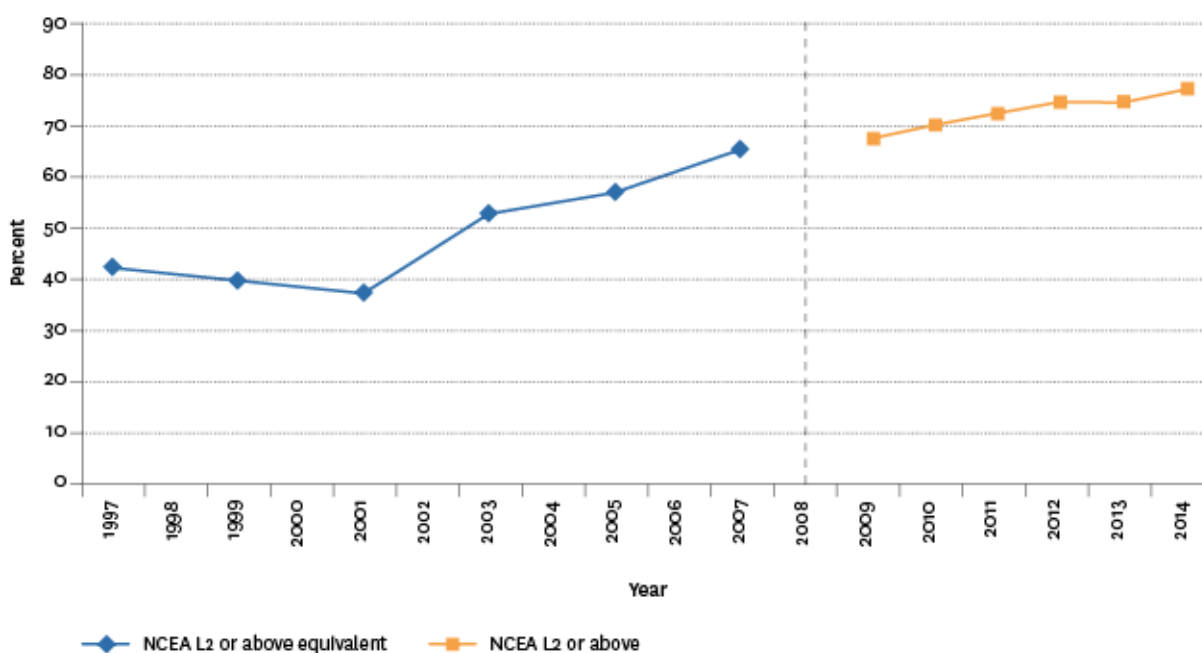
Upper secondary school qualifications serve as the foundation for higher (post-secondary) learning and training opportunities, as well as the preparation for direct entry into the labour market. Those who leave school early with few qualifications are at a much greater risk of unemployment or vulnerability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

Current level and trends

In 2014, 77.1 percent of school leavers (46,729 students) left school with a qualification at NCEA Level 2 (L2) or above. This was an increase from 2013 (74.7 percent), and follows a pattern of increases since 2009, when the rate was 67.5 percent.

Because of changes in the qualifications framework, it is not possible to exactly compare time series data prior to 2009. Data prior to 2008 is a best fit but, again, emphasises the improvement in this measure since a low point in 2001 (37.3 percent).

Figure K2.1 – Proportion of school leavers with NCEA Level 2 or above, or equivalent, 1997–2014



Source: MSD *The Social Report 2010*, Ministry of Education

Age and sex differences

The age at which students leave school has a clear impact on qualification levels gained. In 2014, 93.6 percent of 18 year olds (23,409 students) and 84.9 percent of 17 year olds (19,437 students) left school with a qualification of NCEA L2 or above, compared with 26.8 percent of 16 year olds (2,310 students).

Female students were more likely than male students to leave secondary school with a qualification of NCEA L2 or above (79.9 percent and 74.5 percent respectively). The sex difference has, however, declined since 2010, from 8.9 percentage points to 5.4 percentage points.

Table K2.1 – Proportion of school leavers with NCEA Level 2 or above, by selected age groups and sex, 2009–2014

Year	15	16	17	18	Male	Female	Total (all leavers)
2009	2.2	16.0	76.2	89.1	63.4	71.7	67.5
2010	2.3	18.9	77.9	90.6	65.9	74.8	70.2
2011	3.5	24.3	80.5	90.9	68.3	76.8	72.4
2012	2.7	21.2	82.9	93.5	70.9	78.7	74.7
2013	4.2	22.5	82.9	91.2	71.8	77.7	74.7
2014	3.7	26.8	84.9	93.6	74.5	79.9	77.1

Source: Ministry of Education

Ethnic differences

The proportion of school leavers with NCEA L2 and above varies significantly between ethnic groups. In 2014, students in the Asian ethnic groups had the highest proportion at 89.7 percent, followed by Middle Eastern/Latin American/African (MELAA) students (81.2 percent), European students (81.0 percent), Pacific students (71.9 percent) and Māori students (58.6 percent).

While starting from lower rates, Pacific and Māori students have made greater gains in the proportion leaving school with NCEA L2 or above, with increases of 15.5 and 13.0 percentage points respectively between 2009 and 2014. This compares with a percentage point gain of 9.6 percentage points for the total school leaver population over the same period.

Table K2.2 – Proportion of school leavers with NCEA Level 2 or above, by ethnic group, 2009–2014

Year	European	Māori	Pacific peoples	Asian	MELAA	Total
2009	72.8	45.6	56.4	82.8	69.5	67.5
2010	75.4	49.5	60.1	85.0	70.2	70.2
2011	77.6	52.5	63.7	85.7	77.5	72.4
2012	79.8	55.4	65.6	87.0	78.1	74.7
2013	79.2	55.8	68.2	88.1	77.3	74.7
2014	81.0	58.6	71.9	89.7	81.2	77.1

Source: Ministry of Education

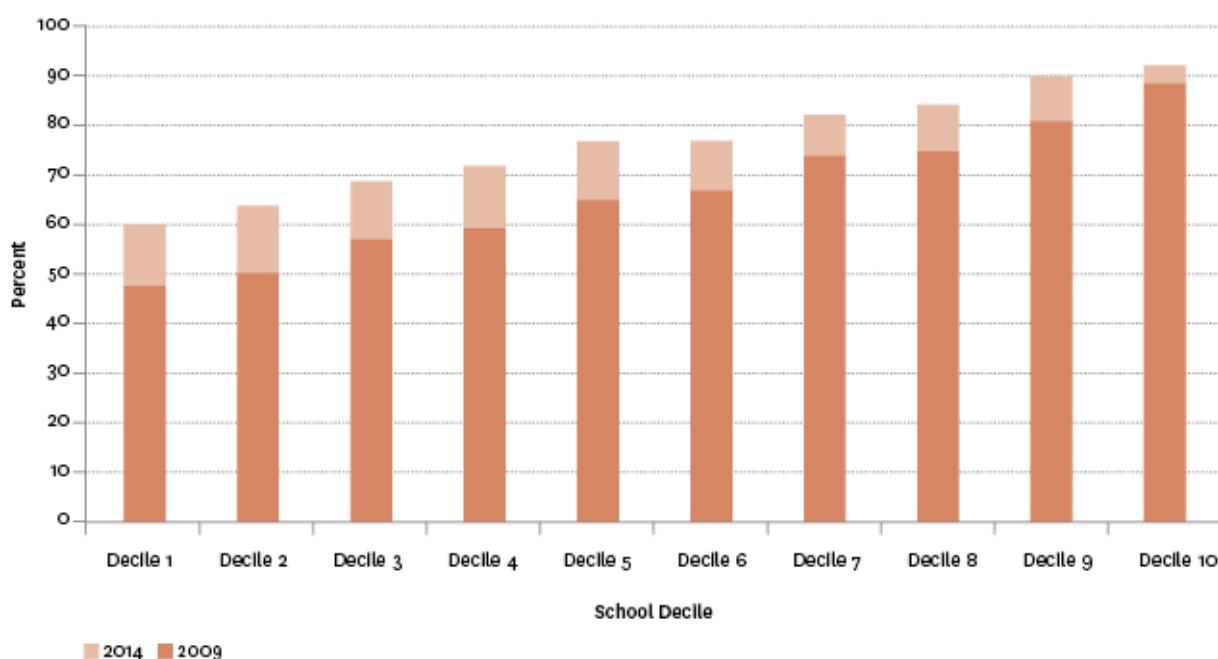
Note: Ethnic group is total response.

Socio-economic differences

The impact of socio-economic status can be clearly seen using the decile rating of the school children are attending. Deciles range from 1 to 10, with Decile 10 schools being the least disadvantaged and Decile 1 schools the most disadvantaged. Students from low-decile schools are less likely than other students to attain NCEA L2 or above. In 2014, 60.3 percent of school leavers from Decile 1 schools left with a qualification of NCEA L2 or above compared with 92.5 percent of school leavers from Decile 10 schools.

Over the period 2009–2014, the improvement in the proportion of school leavers with a qualification of NCEA L2 or above was highest for lower-decile schools, with Decile 1 schools improving by 12.5 percentage points, compared with 3.7 percentage points for Decile 10 schools.

Figure K2.2 – Proportion of school leavers with NCEA Level 2 or above, by school decile, 2009 and 2014



Source: Ministry of Education

Regional differences

There are marked differences across regions in terms of those who leave school with NCEA L2 or above. In 2014, Wellington had the highest proportion of school leavers with NCEA L2 or above (83.3 percent), followed by Auckland (81.6 percent) and Otago (81.3 percent). This compares with Northland (69.9 percent) and Taranaki (73.9 percent). While Wellington has ranked regularly as the top performer along with Otago, there are variations across time resulting in year-on-year changes to the regional rankings.

Data for this section can be found at: www.socialreport.msd.govt.nz/documents/2016/k2.xlsx

Participation in tertiary education

Definition

The proportion of the population aged 15 years and over who participated in tertiary education.

Relevance

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

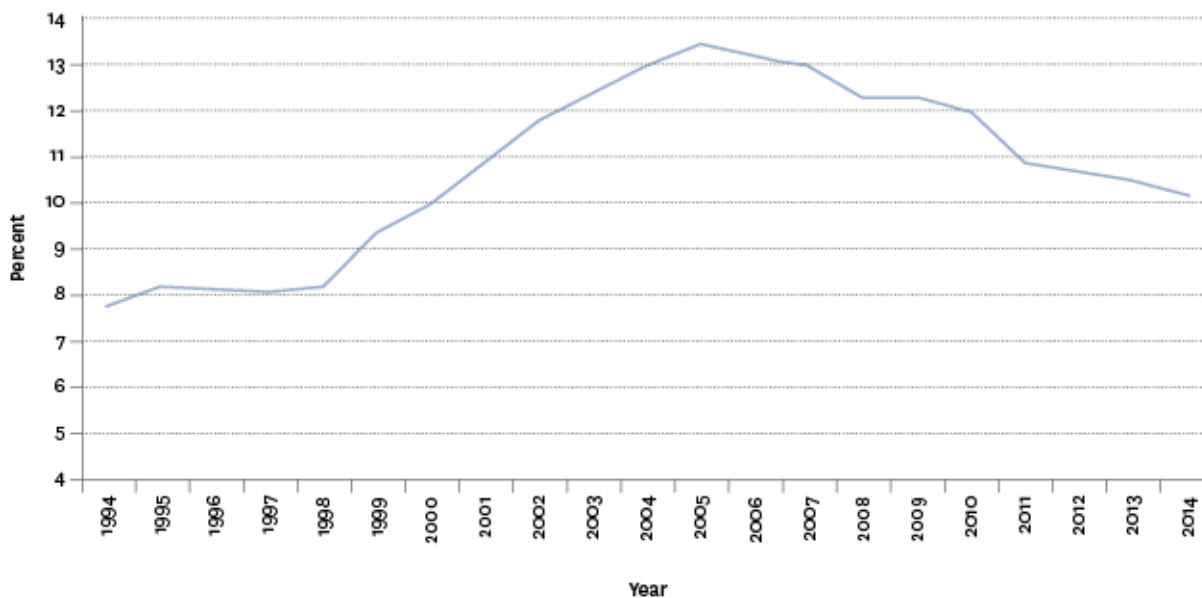
Provider-based tertiary education supports a range of approved qualifications ranging from certificate level through to Doctoral degrees, and includes universities, institutes of technology and polytechnics, wānanga, public providers and private training establishments.

Current level and trends

In 2014, the age-standardised tertiary education participation rate was 10.2 percent, a decrease from the previous year (10.5 percent). During 2014, 363,644 people aged 15 years and over were enrolled in formal tertiary education, a decrease from 369,227 people in 2013.

Between 1998 and 2005, there was a rapid rise in age-standardised tertiary participation rates, with rates increasing from 8.2 percent to 13.5 percent. Since this time, rates have declined significantly, falling to 10.2 percent in 2014, which is largely a result of declining participation in sub-degree level qualifications.

Figure K3.1 – Age-standardised tertiary education participation rate, 1994–2014

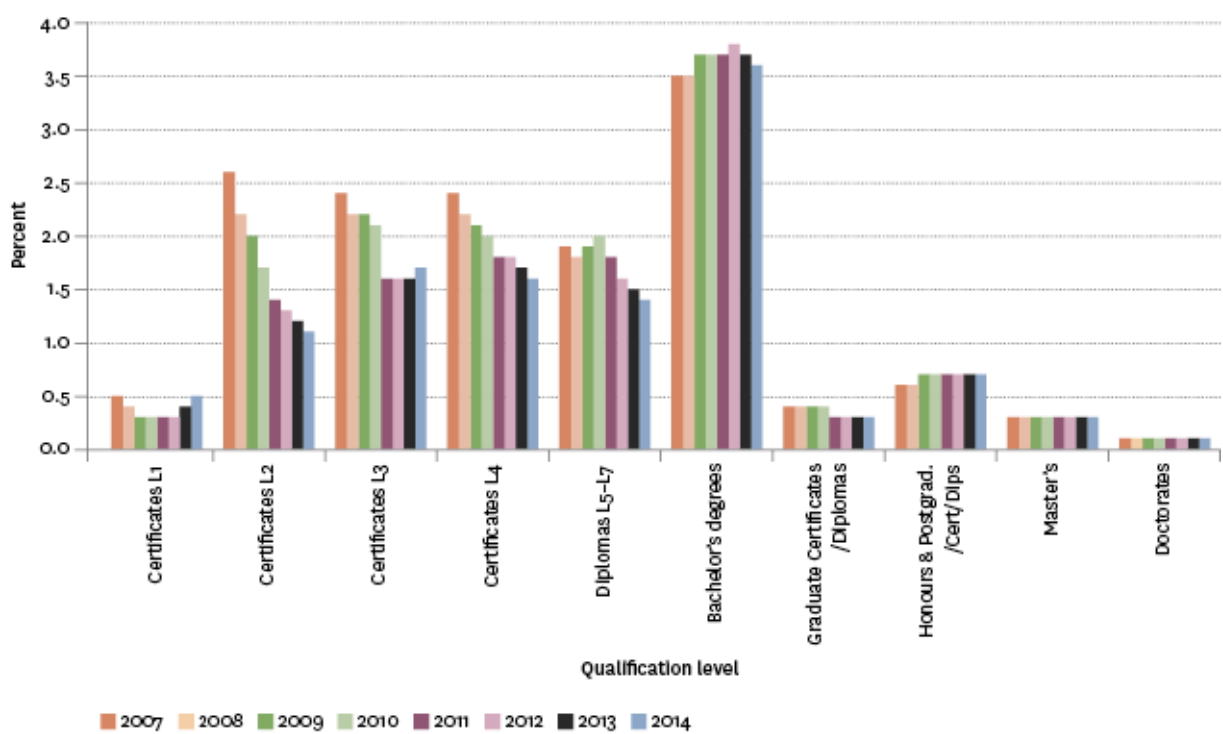


Source: Ministry of Education

The sharp decline in age-standardised participation rates at sub-degree level followed 2005 reviews of the quality and value for money of sub-degree qualifications and a subsequent emphasis on higher-level, higher-value qualifications. For example, participation in Level 2 Certificates, which provide individuals with introductory knowledge and skills for a field of study, fell by 1.5 percentage points between 2007 and 2014, from 2.6 percent to 1.1 percent.

From 2007, while tertiary participation rates for sub-degree qualifications have declined, degree level participation rates have remained relatively stable. In 2014, the participation rate for a Bachelor’s degree was 3.6 percent, compared with 3.5 percent in 2007. However, the rate has fluctuated over this period, rising to a high of 3.8 percent in 2012 before again falling.

Figure K3.2 – Age-standardised tertiary education participation rate, by qualification level, 2007-2014



Source: Ministry of Education

Age and sex differences

In 2014, the participation rate for tertiary education was highest for those aged 18–19 years (49.4 percent), followed by those aged 20–24 years (32.1 percent) and 25–39 years (11.6 percent). Rates drop off for older age groups, with 11.6 percent for those aged 25–39 years and 3.8 percent for those over 40 years of age in 2014. While rates for those aged 18–19 years remained the same between 2013 and 2014, the rates for other age groups continued a period of decline.

Females were more likely to participate in tertiary education, with a participation rate of 11.6 percent in 2014, compared with the male rate of 8.7 percent. While the participation rate is higher for females at all qualification levels, the largest difference is at Bachelor's degree level, with females having a participation rate of 4.5 percent in 2014, compared with a rate of 2.7 percent for males. Although slightly more pronounced for males, declining tertiary participation rates have been experienced by both males and females, in line with overall trends. Between 2007 and 2014, male rates dropped 3.4 percentage points, while female rates dropped 2.3 percentage points.

Table K3.1 – Tertiary education participation rate, by age group and sex, 2007–2014

Year	Under 18	18–19	20–24	25–39	40+	Male	Female	Total
2007	9.5	46.2	33.1	15.6	7.4	12.1	13.9	13.0
2008	9.1	46.3	33.4	14.4	6.5	11.1	13.5	12.3
2009	8.6	48.7	35.1	14.6	6.1	10.9	13.6	12.3
2010	8.0	49.5	35.9	14.4	5.6	10.7	13.3	12.0
2011	7.5	48.3	34.4	13.0	4.6	9.4	12.4	10.9
2012	7.4	49.3	34.1	12.5	4.3	9.1	12.1	10.7
2013	9.7	49.4	33.3	12.1	4.1	9.0	12.0	10.5
2014	9.6	49.4	32.1	11.6	3.8	8.7	11.6	10.2

Source: Ministry of Education

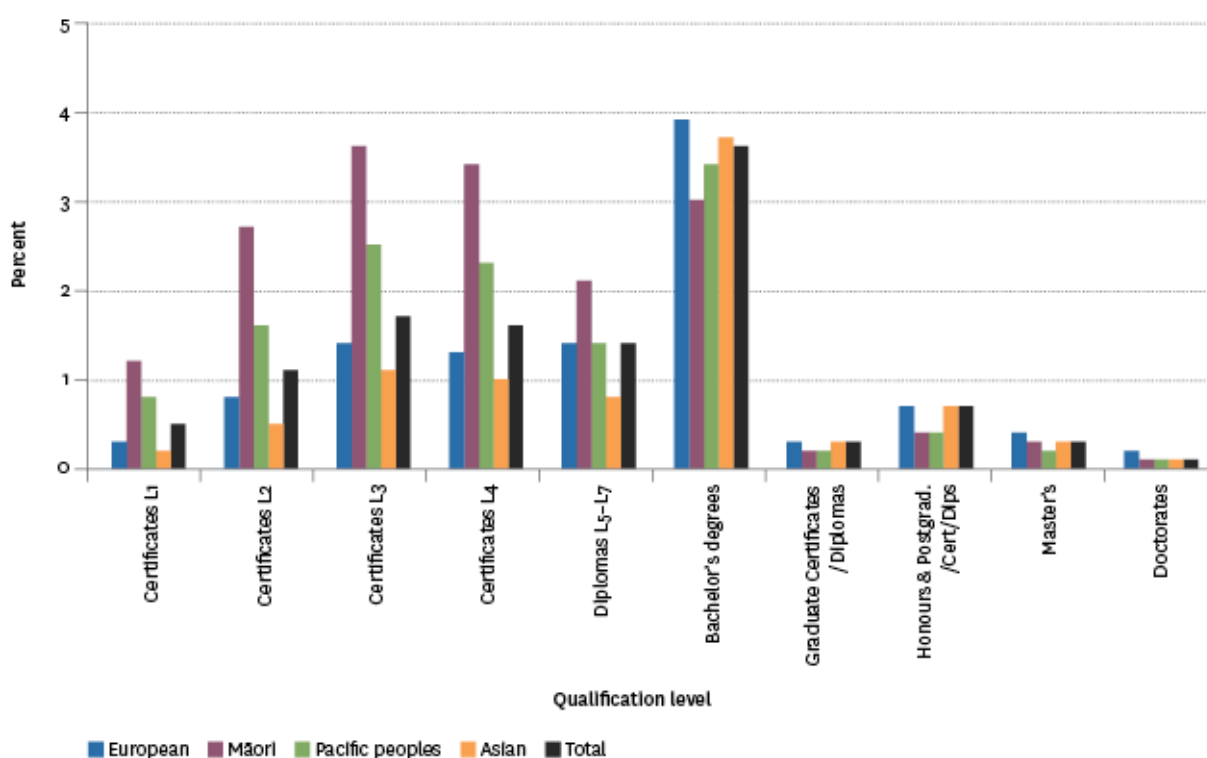
Note: Figures for males, females and the total are age standardised.

Ethnic differences

In 2014, Māori had the highest age-standardised tertiary participation rate (14.7 percent), followed by Pacific peoples (11.4 percent), Europeans (9.9 percent) and the Asian ethnic group (8.2 percent). Variations in the rate, ranking and spread of participation rates across ethnic groups in 2014, and over time, are strongly influenced by differences in the qualification level at which students are participating.

The high participation rate for Māori is a reflection of very high participation rates for certificate level qualifications. Māori have lower participation rates than other ethnic groups at Bachelor's level and above, but the difference at this level is not as pronounced as for the lower level qualifications. Pacific peoples show a similar pattern to Māori. The pattern of participation across qualification levels is most similar for the Asian and European ethnic groups, although Europeans have higher participation rates in sub-degree level qualifications.

Figure K3.3 – Age-standardised tertiary education participation rate, by qualification level and ethnic group, 2014



Source: Ministry of Education

All ethnic groups, other than Pacific peoples, experienced declines in participation rates between 2007 and 2014, largely as a result of declines in participation in certificate level qualifications. This is most apparent for the Asian ethnic group, where the rate declined by 5.8 percentage points from 14.0 percent in 2007 to 8.2 percent in 2014, mainly because of certificate level qualification declines. Rates for Pacific peoples have been more stable and they experienced the lowest decline between 2007 and 2014, declining 0.2 percentage points from 11.6 to 11.4 percent. In the case of Pacific peoples, there was a much smaller decline in certificate level participation rates and improvements in participation at Bachelor's degree level.

Table K3.2 – Age-standardised tertiary education participation rate, by ethnic group, 2007–2014

Year	European	Māori	Pacific peoples	Asian	Total
2007	12.5	17.5	11.6	14.0	13.0
2008	11.7	16.6	11.5	12.2	12.3
2009	11.7	16.9	11.8	12.0	12.3
2010	11.4	16.5	11.9	11.5	12.0
2011	10.3	15.1	11.4	10.1	10.9
2012	10.1	14.5	11.3	9.5	10.7
2013	10.2	14.7	11.9	8.9	10.5
2014	9.9	14.7	11.4	8.2	10.2

Source: Ministry of Education

Socio-economic differences

Median income has been used as a proxy for socio-economic status. Data from the New Zealand Income Survey (NZIS) showed that, in the June quarter 2014, people 15 years and over with a highest qualification of upper secondary school level had a median weekly income of \$394. This compared with a median weekly income of \$600 for those with a Level 1–3 post-school certificate, and a median weekly income of \$1,151 dollars for those with a postgraduate qualification.

International comparison

There are no internationally comparative figures to measure tertiary participation. The OECD does, however, report on enrolment rates in education for full-time and part-time students in public and private institutions at all education levels. Data is available for those aged 20–29 years – the age group usually enrolled in tertiary education. For younger age groups, it is difficult to differentiate tertiary from school level education.

In 2012, the New Zealand enrolment rate was 29 percent for those aged 20–29 years. This was below Australia (35 percent), but above the United States (27 percent), the United Kingdom (19 percent), and the OECD median measured across 28 countries (28 percent).¹² Denmark had the highest enrolment rate at 43 percent.

The OECD enrolment rate for New Zealand has been trending down and declined between 2005 and 2012 from 32 percent to 29 percent. This compares with the OECD median across 28 countries over the same period, which was trending up and increased from 25 to 28 percent.

Data for this section can be found at: www.socialreport.msd.govt.nz/documents/2016/k3.xlsx

Educational attainment of the adult population

Definition

The proportion of adults aged 25–64 years with an educational attainment of at least upper secondary school level.

The proportion of adults aged 25–64 years with an educational attainment of Bachelor's degree or higher.

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. At least upper secondary school level includes any formal qualification at NCEA Level 2 (or equivalent) or higher. Bachelor's degree or higher includes Bachelor's degrees, Postgraduate Certificates or Diplomas, Master's degrees, and Doctorates.

Current level and trends

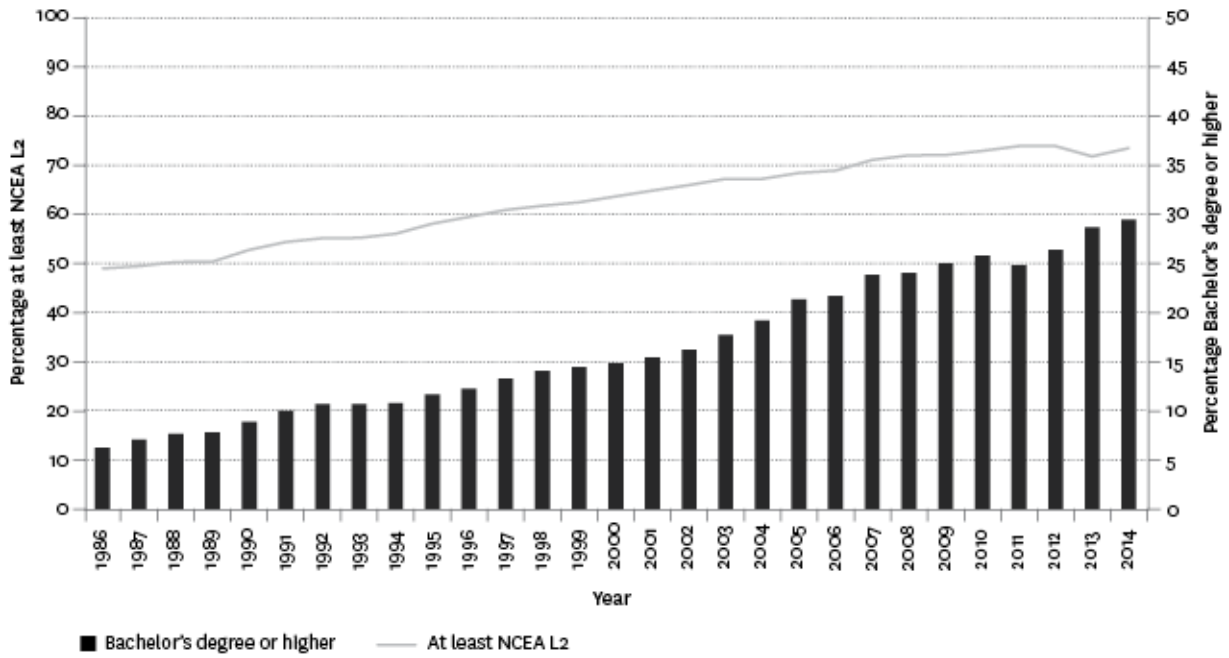
In the year ended December 2014, 74.3 percent of those aged 25–64 years (or 1,685,200 people) had a qualification of at least NCEA Level 2 (L2). The proportion with at least NCEA L2 has generally been increasing over the last 10 years.

The proportion of those aged 25–64 years who had a qualification of Bachelor's degree or higher was 29.8 percent (or 675,800 people), an increase from 29.0 percent (or 650,500 people) in the year ended December 2013. The proportion with Bachelor's degree or higher has generally been increasing over the last 10 years.

Historically, those with at least NCEA L2 reached a peak of 74.7 percent in 2011 and 2012 (1,669,000 people in 2011). The lowest proportion of those with at least NCEA L2 recorded was 49.6 percent in 1986. Coding changes in 2013 may, however, have impacted on this result.¹³

Those with a Bachelor's degree or higher reached a peak of 29.8 percent in 2014 (675,800 people). The lowest proportion of those with a Bachelor's degree or higher recorded was 6.3 percent in 1986.

Figure K4.1 – Proportion of adults aged 25–64 years with an educational qualification of at least NCEA Level 2 and Bachelor's degree or higher, 1986–2014



Source: Statistics New Zealand, Household Labour Force Survey

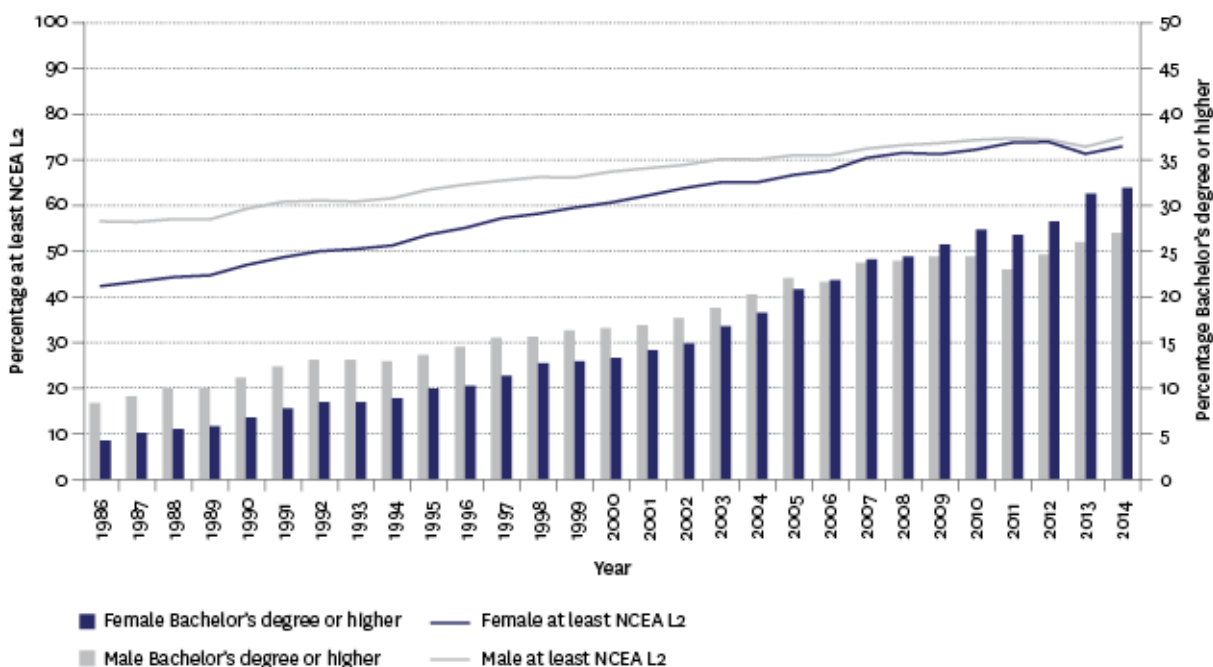
Notes: Year ended December. Qualifications and coding have changed over the years presented. The time series provided is a best fit.

Age and sex differences

In the year ended December 2014, the proportion of males aged 25–64 years with a qualification of at least NCEA L2 was 75.5 percent. This compares with 73.3 percent for females. The proportion of females with a qualification of Bachelor's degree or higher was 32.2 percent, compared with 27.2 percent for males.

Sex differences in educational attainment have narrowed over time, with females catching up to males for qualifications of at least NCEA L2. In 1986, the gap between males and females was 14.6 percentage points in favour of males, compared with 2.2 percent in 2014. Females have overtaken males for qualifications at Bachelor's degree or higher. In 1986, the gap favoured males at 4.2 percentage points, compared with a 5.0 percentage point gap in 2014 favouring females.

Figure K4.2 – Proportion of adults aged 25–64 years with an educational qualification of at least NCEA Level 2 and Bachelor's degree or higher, by sex, 1986–2014



Source: Statistics New Zealand, Household Labour Force Survey

Notes: Year ended December. Qualifications and coding have changed over the years presented. The time series provided is a best fit.

Younger adults are much more likely to have qualifications of at least NCEA L2 or Bachelor's degree or higher, reflecting ongoing educational improvements for younger cohorts. In the year ended December 2014, 81.4 percent of 25–34 year olds had at least NCEA L2, compared with 65.5 percent of 55–64 year olds. The proportion of those aged 25–34 years with a Bachelor's degree or higher was 35.9 percent, compared with 21.5 percent for 55–64 year olds.

Table K4.1 – Proportion of adults with an educational qualification of at least NCEA Level 2 and Bachelor's degree or higher, by age group and sex, selected years 1986–2014

Year	25–34	35–44	45–54	55–64	Males 25–64	Females 25–64	Total 25–64	Difference male and female
At least NCEA L2								
1986	53.4	49.7	46.4	46.2	57.0	42.4	49.6	14.6
1991	59.9	58.3	51.5	43.9	61.3	48.8	55.0	12.5
1996	65.0	64.0	56.9	48.7	65.2	55.3	60.2	9.9
2001	70.6	69.1	65.1	52.4	68.8	62.5	65.6	6.3
2006	77.8	72.6	69.0	56.4	71.6	68.0	69.7	3.6
2011	80.7	78.5	74.0	64.6	75.4	74.2	74.7	1.2
2014	81.4	78.2	71.7	65.5	75.5	73.3	74.3	2.2
Bachelor's degree or higher								
1986	7.5	7.1	5.3	4.0	8.4	4.2	6.3	4.2
1991	11.3	12.1	9.0	5.6	12.4	7.8	10.1	4.6
1996	14.5	13.7	11.5	7.3	14.6	10.3	12.4	4.3
2001	17.8	16.7	16.5	8.8	17.0	14.2	15.6	2.8
2006	28.1	23.6	19.9	14.1	21.8	22.0	21.9	-0.2
2011	32.3	27.6	22.2	18.0	23.2	27.0	25.1	-3.8
2014	35.9	35.0	26.3	21.5	27.2	32.2	29.8	-5.0

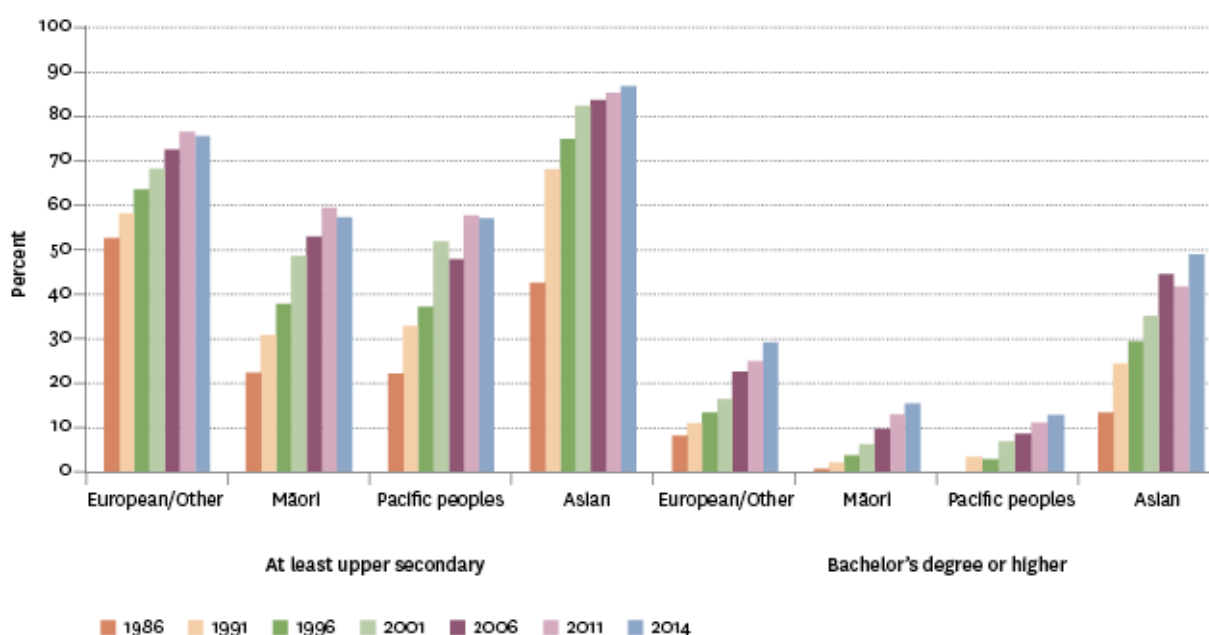
Source: Statistics New Zealand, Household Labour Force Survey

Notes: Year ended December. Qualifications and coding have changed over the years presented. The time series provided is a best fit.

Ethnic differences

While there have been improvements for all ethnic groups, marked differences in adult educational attainment remain. In the year ended December 2014, the Asian ethnic group had the highest proportion with a qualification of at least NCEA L2 (86.6 percent), followed by the European/Other ethnic group (75.4 percent), Māori (57.1 percent) and Pacific peoples (56.9 percent). Ethnic differences were even more marked for Bachelor's degree or higher. The Asian ethnic group again had the highest proportion (48.8 percent), followed by the European/Other ethnic group (29.0 percent), Māori (15.3 percent) and Pacific peoples (12.7 percent).

Figure K4.3 – Proportion of adults with an educational qualification of at least NCEA Level 2 and Bachelor's degree or higher, by ethnic group, selected years 1986–2014



Source: Statistics New Zealand, Household Labour Force Survey

Notes: Year ended December. For 2007 and earlier people are counted in only one ethnic group (ethnicities are prioritised). From 2008, people can be counted in more than one ethnic group (total response). Caution should be used when comparing the two ethnic series over time.

Regional differences

Wellington had the highest proportion with a qualification of at least NCEA L2 (79.7 percent for the year ended December 2014). Southland had the lowest proportion at 64.0 percent. Wellington also had the highest proportion with a qualification of Bachelor's degree or higher (38.1 percent). Northland had the lowest proportion at 17.3 percent.

International comparison

The OECD provides comparative data for educational attainment although cross-country comparisons can be complex.¹⁴ In 2013, the OECD reported that 71 percent of 25–64 year old New Zealanders had at least upper secondary education. This compares with an OECD median of 82 percent across 27 countries with comparable data. New Zealand ranked 23rd. For Bachelor's and above, the OECD figure for New Zealand in 2013 was 27 percent, the same as the median figure for OECD countries with comparable data, with New Zealand ranking 14th out of 28 countries.

Data for this section can be found at: www.socialreport.msd.govt.nz/documents/2016/k4.xlsx

Adult literacy and numeracy skills

Definition

The proportion of the population aged 16–65 years with higher prose literacy skills in English (defined as skills at Level 3 or above).

The proportion of the population aged 16–65 years with higher document literacy skills in English (defined as skills at Level 3 or above).

The proportion of the population aged 16–65 years with higher numeracy skills (defined as skills at Level 3 or above).

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.

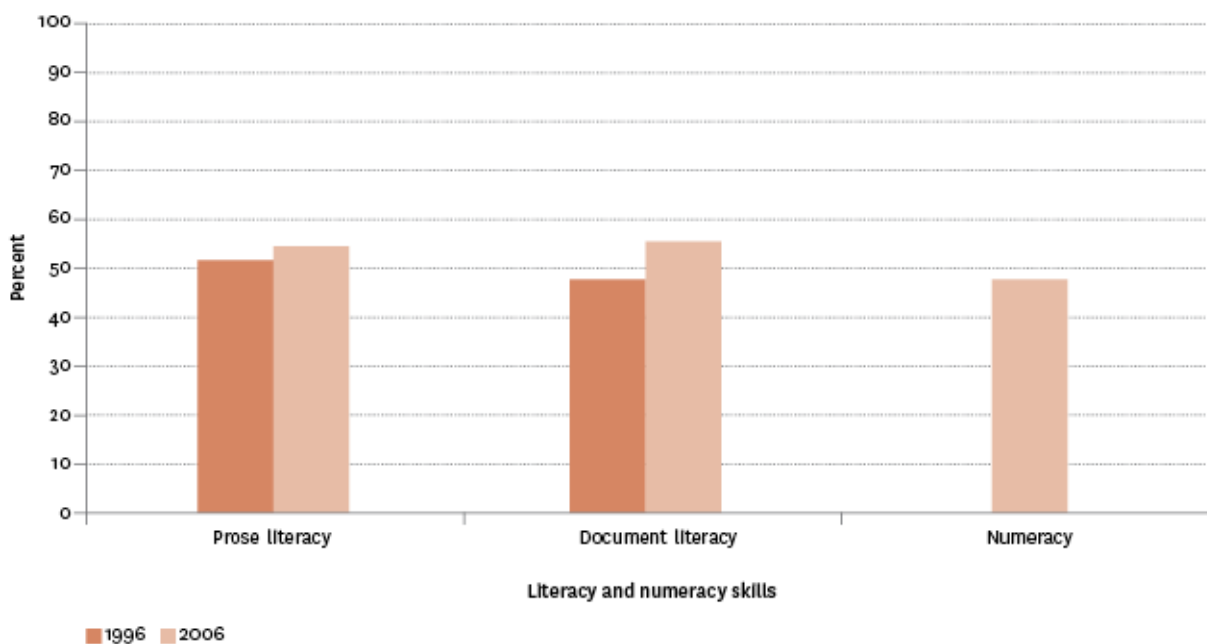
The 1996 International Adult Literacy Survey (IALS) and the 2006 Adult Literacy and Life Skills Survey (ALL) were designed to measure adult literacy skills in English by assessing proficiency levels, using test materials derived from specific contexts within countries. Prose and document literacy were measured in both surveys; numeracy was measured in the ALL survey only.

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”.¹⁵ 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.¹⁶

Current level and trends

Results from the 2006 ALL 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 the 1996 IALS, 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 and numeracy skills at Level 3 or above, 1996 and 2006



Source: Satherley, et al (2008) and customised data
 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 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 a result of 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 and numeracy skills at Level 3 or above, by age group and sex, 2006

Age group	Prose literacy		Document literacy		Numeracy	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
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 and Lawes (2008a) 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 a result of 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 and numeracy skills at Level 3 or above, by age group, 1996 and 2006

Age group	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 and Lawes (2008a) and customised data

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 with 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 and numeracy skills at Level 3 or above, by ethnic group, 1996 and 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 and Lawes (2008b)

Note: Numeracy was measured in the 2006 survey only.

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 (49 percent), Australia (51 percent) and Canada (52 percent), and lower for the United States (42 percent).

Data for this section can be found at: www.socialreport.msd.govt.nz/documents/2016/k5.xlsx

Paid work

Desired outcomes

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

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 five aspects of paid work: access to work; the financial return from work; the safety of the working environment; satisfaction with work; 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. 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.

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

Six headline indicators are used in this chapter. They are: the unemployment rate; the employment rate; median hourly earnings; work-related injury claims; job satisfaction; 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.

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.

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 fourth indicator is the rate of serious non-fatal work-related injury per 100,000 person-years at risk.

The fifth indicator is the proportion of the population in paid employment who are satisfied with their job, while the final indicator looks at people's satisfaction with their work-life balance.

Domain summary

The ongoing impacts of the 2008 Global Financial Crisis are reflected in the Paid Work domain outcomes, with some people more affected by economic events than others (ie Māori, Pacific peoples, females). For *recent-change* there is a mix of stable and improving results.

In terms of *recent-change*, there have been improvements for the unemployment and employment indicators, but the impacts of the Global Financial Crisis are still apparent for *medium-term-change*, with both indicators worsening over the latter period. While increasing for *medium-term-change* (particularly before the 2008 Global Financial Crisis), real median hourly earnings have not improved for *recent-change*, and females continue to receive lower median hourly earnings than males.

In terms of *medium-term-change*, job satisfaction and satisfaction with work-life balance are showing improvement. Job satisfaction does show a flat result for *recent-change*, but continues to remain strongly in positive territory.

In terms of work-related injury, there has been an improvement for *medium-term-change* and a flat result for *recent-change*. Males are more likely to be injured at work, as are older people and Māori.

Unemployment

Definition

The number of people aged 15 years and over who were not employed and who were actively seeking and available for paid work, expressed as a percentage of the total labour force.

Relevance

Unemployment 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

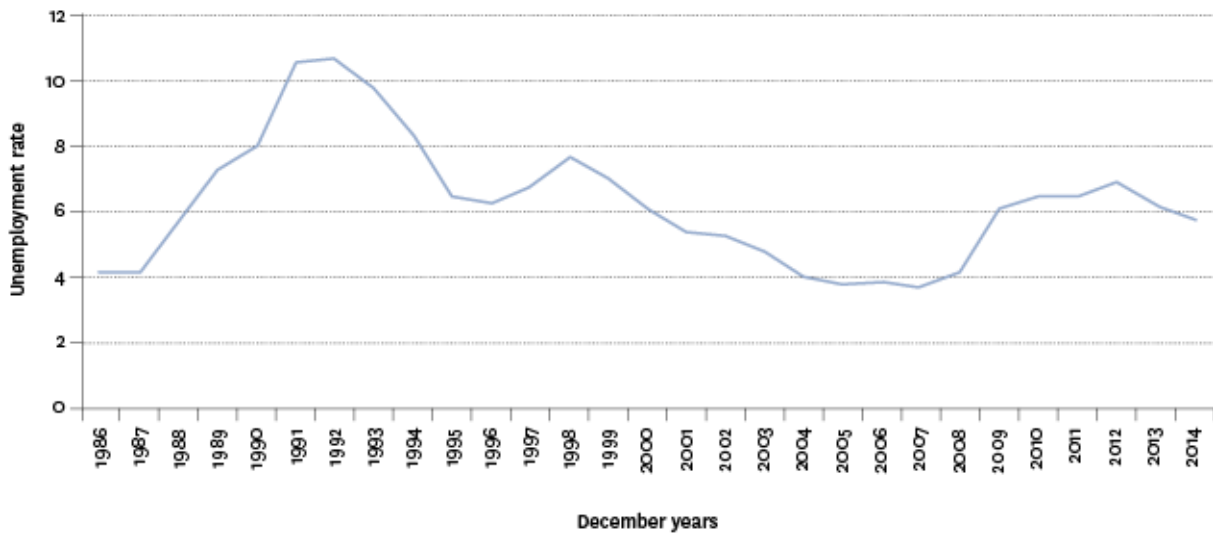
In the year ended December 2014, 5.8 percent of the labour force (or 140,800 people) were unemployed and actively seeking work, a decrease from 6.2 percent (or 148,400 people) in the year ended December 2013.

Historically, the unemployment rate reached a peak of 10.7 percent in 1992 (180,900 unemployed people). The lowest unemployment rate recorded was 3.7 percent in 2007. The impact of the 2008 Global Financial Crisis is clearly seen over the more recent period. The unemployment rate increased from 2007 to peak at 6.9 percent in 2009, before again falling.

In 2014, the duration rate (ie those unemployed for a continuous period of one year or more) was 13.6 percent (16,700 unemployed people). This was an increase compared with the previous year (12.2 percent). The duration rate peaked at 33.7 percent in 1993 (52,400 unemployed people). The lowest duration rate was 4.6 percent in 2008.

The proportion of people seeking full-time work (30 hours or more per week) in the year ended December 2014 was 4.7 percent (4.2 percent for males and 5.4 percent for females). For those seeking part-time work (less than 30 hours per week), the proportion was 9.2 percent (10.7 percent for males and 8.7 percent for females).

Figure PW1.1 – Unemployment rate, 1986–2014



Source: Statistics New Zealand, Household Labour Force Survey
 Note: Year ended December.

Age and sex differences

Unemployment rates for different age groups follow similar trends, but are consistently higher among youth. In 2014, the unemployment rate for 15–24 year olds (15.0 percent) was close to three times the rate of the next highest age group – those aged 25–34 years (5.9 percent).

Unemployment rates for males and females have followed similar trends over time, but which sex has had the higher rate has changed a number of times over the period of the survey. In 2014, females had the higher rate at 6.5 percent compared with 5.0 percent for males, a pattern that has persisted since 2006.

Table PW1.1 – Unemployment rate, by age group and sex, selected years 1986–2014

Year	15–24	25–34	35–44	45–54	55–64	Male 15+	Female 15+	Total 15+
1986	8.1	4.0	2.3	2.1	1.6	3.7	4.9	4.2
1991	19.3	11.1	7.1	6.6	5.4	11.3	9.8	10.6
1996	12.2	6.1	4.8	4.1	3.7	6.3	6.3	6.3
2001	12.1	5.0	4.3	3.3	3.6	5.5	5.4	5.4
2006	9.9	3.6	2.5	2.2	2.0	3.5	4.2	3.9
2007	10.1	3.4	2.4	2.0	1.5	3.4	4.0	3.7
2008	11.4	4.0	2.7	2.3	2.0	4.1	4.3	4.2
2009	16.8	5.7	4.1	3.7	3.2	6.1	6.2	6.1
2010	17.4	6.8	4.3	3.9	3.5	6.2	6.9	6.5
2011	17.5	6.0	4.8	4.1	3.3	6.3	6.8	6.5
2012	18.0	6.8	4.9	4.6	4.0	6.5	7.4	6.9
2013	16.2	6.2	4.5	3.9	4.0	5.6	6.9	6.2
2014	15.0	5.9	4.1	3.6	3.2	5.0	6.5	5.8

Source: Statistics New Zealand, Household Labour Force Survey

Note: Year ended December.

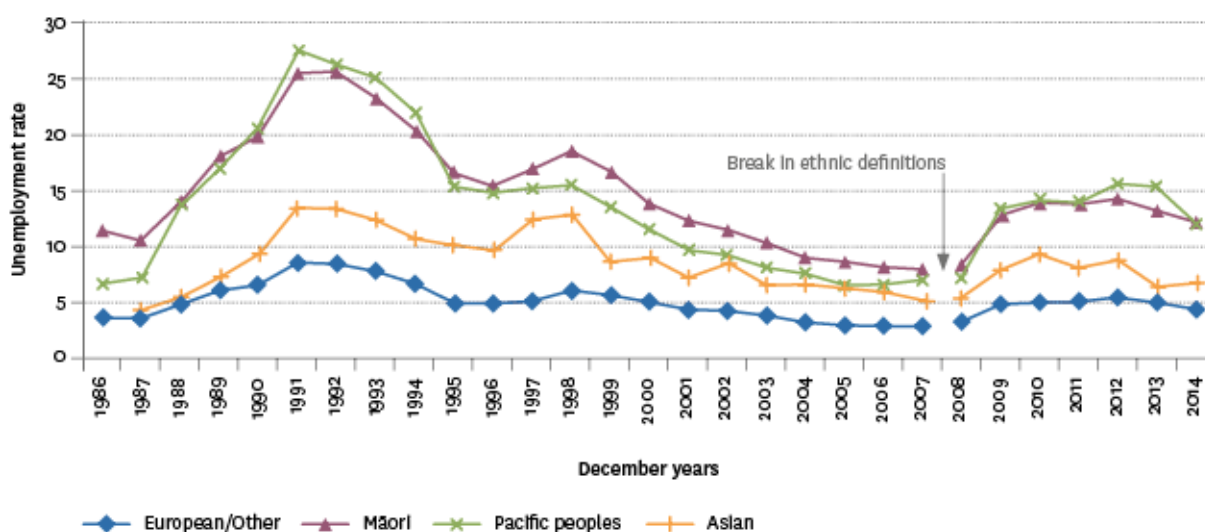
Ethnic differences

The Māori unemployment rate peaked at 25.6 percent in 1992, and reached a low of 7.9 percent in 2007. The Māori unemployment rate in 2014 was 12.3 percent, a decrease from 13.1 percent at the same time the previous year. The Pacific peoples' unemployment rate peaked at 27.5 percent in 1991 and reached a low of 6.5 percent in 2005. The Pacific peoples' unemployment rate in 2014 was 12.0 percent, a decrease from a rate of 15.3 percent at the same time the previous year. Pacific peoples and Māori consistently have higher unemployment rates than the population overall.

The European/Other unemployment rate peaked at 8.6 percent in 1991 and reached a low of 2.9 percent in 2007. The European/Other unemployment rate in 2014 was 4.4 percent, a decrease from 4.9 percent at the same time the previous year. The Asian unemployment rate peaked at 13.4 percent in 1991 and reached a low of 4.3 percent in 1987. The Asian unemployment rate in 2014 was 6.8 percent, an increase from 6.5 percent at the same time the previous year.

As noted, youth experience higher unemployment rates. This is a particular concern for Māori and Pacific peoples, who have relatively youthful populations. In 2014, for those aged 15–24 years, Pacific peoples, Māori, those in the Asian ethnic group and European/Other had unemployment rates of 25.9, 22.5, 16.0 and 12.4 percent respectively.

Figure PW1.2 – Unemployment rate, by ethnic group, 1986–2014



Source: Statistics New Zealand, Household Labour Force Survey

Notes: Year ended December. For 2007 and earlier, people are counted in only one ethnic group (ethnicities are prioritised). From 2008, people can be counted in more than one ethnic group (total response). Caution should be used when comparing the two ethnic series over time.

Asian rates are suppressed in 1986 because of small numbers.

Regional differences

Northland had the highest unemployment rate at 8.4 percent for the year ended December 2014, while Canterbury had the lowest at 3.2 percent. Auckland had the highest number of unemployed at 52,500, while Southland had the lowest at 2,000.

International comparison

In 2014, the harmonised New Zealand unemployment rate of 5.8 percent was ranked 8th lowest out of 33 OECD countries. This was lower than the OECD median of 6.9 percent and compares with a rate of 6.1 percent in Australia, and 6.2 percent in the United Kingdom and United States. Korea had the lowest unemployment rate at 3.5 percent, while Greece had the highest rate at 26.6 percent.

Over the last 10 years, New Zealand's best performance across the OECD was a 3rd ranking in 2007 when the harmonised unemployment rate was 3.7 percent.

Data for this section can be found at: www.socialreport.msd.govt.nz/documents/2016/pw1.xlsx

Employment

Definition

The proportion of the population aged 15–64 years who were employed for at least one hour per week.

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 such as undertaking full-time study.

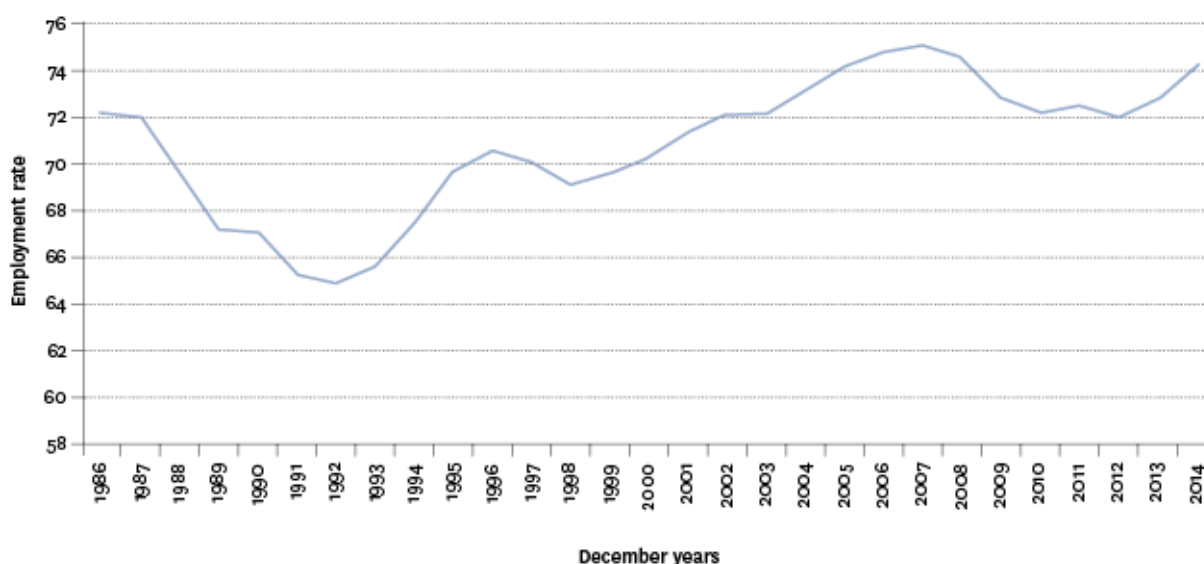
Current level and trends

In the year ended December 2014, 74.2 percent of 15–64 year olds (or 2,175,600 people) were employed, an increase from 72.8 percent (or 2,105,600 people) in the year ended December 2013.

Over the period of the survey, the employment rate reached a peak of 75.1 percent in 2007 (2,098,300 employed people). The lowest employment rate recorded was 64.9 percent in 1992. The employment rate decreased from 2007 to a low of 72.0 percent in 2012 but has since improved. The impact of the 2008 Global Financial Crisis is evident in the time series.

There has been a shift over the period of the Household Labour Force Survey (HLFS) in terms of full-time (30 hours or more per week) and part-time employment. The ratio between full-time and part-time work moved from 5.1 in 1986 to 3.7 in 2014, reflecting reducing proportions of full-time employed and increasing proportions of part-time employed. This change was most pronounced between 1986 and 1992, but has since fluctuated. In 2014, the proportion of people seeking full-time employment was 58.6 percent of the working-age population, and the proportion of people seeking part-time employment (less than 30 hours per week) was 15.7 percent.

Figure PW2.1 – Employment rate, 1986–2014



Source: Statistics New Zealand, Household Labour Force Survey

Note: Average for December years.

Age and sex differences

Those aged 45–54 years consistently had the highest employment rate (84.1 percent in 2014), followed by 35–44 year olds (82.8 percent) and 25–34 year olds (78.1 percent).

The employment rate for those aged 15–24 years and 55–64 years has remained consistently low over the period of the survey (the rates in 2014 were 51.7 and 76.2 percent respectively). The employment rate for 15–24 year olds has generally been on the decline since 1986 and was impacted the most by the Global Financial Crisis, dropping 9.4 percentage points between 2007 and 2012. In comparison, the decline between 2007 and 2012 for 15–64 year olds was 3.1 percentage points, dropping from 75.1 to 72.0 percent. While 55–64 year olds have the next lowest employment rate, their rates have increased since 1986, rising from 49.0 percent to 76.2 percent in 2014. This reflects the rise in the age of eligibility for New Zealand Superannuation during this period and changing labour market patterns. The employment rate for those aged 65–74 has also shown a steady increase, moving from 11.6 percent in 1986 to 31.1 percent in 2014.

Males have consistently had a higher employment rate than females over the period of the survey. In 2014, males again had the higher rate (79.7 percent, compared with 69.1 percent for females). 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 2014, from 24.5 percentage points to 10.6 percentage points. Over the period of the survey and ignoring the impact of economic fluctuations, male employment rates have been declining, while female rates have increased.

Table PW2.1 – Employment rate, by age group and sex, selected years 1986–2014

Year	15–24	25–34	35–44	45–54	55–64	Male 15–64	Female 15–64	Total 15–64	65–74
1986	68.5	75.2	84.0	79.3	49.0	84.5	60.0	72.2	11.6
1991	54.4	69.0	78.9	77.0	41.5	73.5	57.2	65.3	8.3
1996	58.8	74.2	79.4	81.0	53.6	78.5	62.9	70.6	9.6
2001	55.3	74.5	80.1	82.1	60.3	78.6	64.4	71.4	13.3
2006	58.0	78.2	82.0	84.7	70.0	81.9	68.0	74.8	20.7
2007	58.0	79.1	81.9	84.3	71.8	82.0	68.6	75.1	22.8
2008	55.8	79.0	81.8	84.3	71.6	80.9	68.6	74.6	24.5
2009	51.1	76.7	81.0	83.3	72.0	78.6	67.3	72.8	25.3
2010	49.4	75.0	80.8	83.2	73.2	78.2	66.5	72.2	26.5
2011	49.2	77.0	80.1	83.7	73.6	78.3	67.1	72.5	29.0
2012	48.6	75.9	80.0	82.7	73.8	77.4	66.8	72.0	30.2
2013	49.2	77.5	80.8	83.8	74.3	78.3	67.7	72.8	31.1
2014	51.7	78.1	82.8	84.1	76.2	79.7	69.1	74.2	31.1

Source: Statistics New Zealand, Household Labour Force Survey

Note: Average for December years.

In terms of full-time and part-time employment and changes over time, there are marked differences by sex. The male full-time employment rate in 2014 was 71.3 percent and the part-time rate was 8.4 percent. The female full-time employment rate was much lower at 46.5 percent and the part-time rate higher at 22.6 percent. In 1986, the ratio between full-time and part-time employment for males was 17.8 but declined significantly to 8.5 in 2014, reflecting a shift by males to part-time work. In contrast, the ratio for females remained the same at 2.1 in 1986 and 2014, reflecting that the rise in the female employment rate has impacted on both full-time and part-time employment.

Ethnic differences

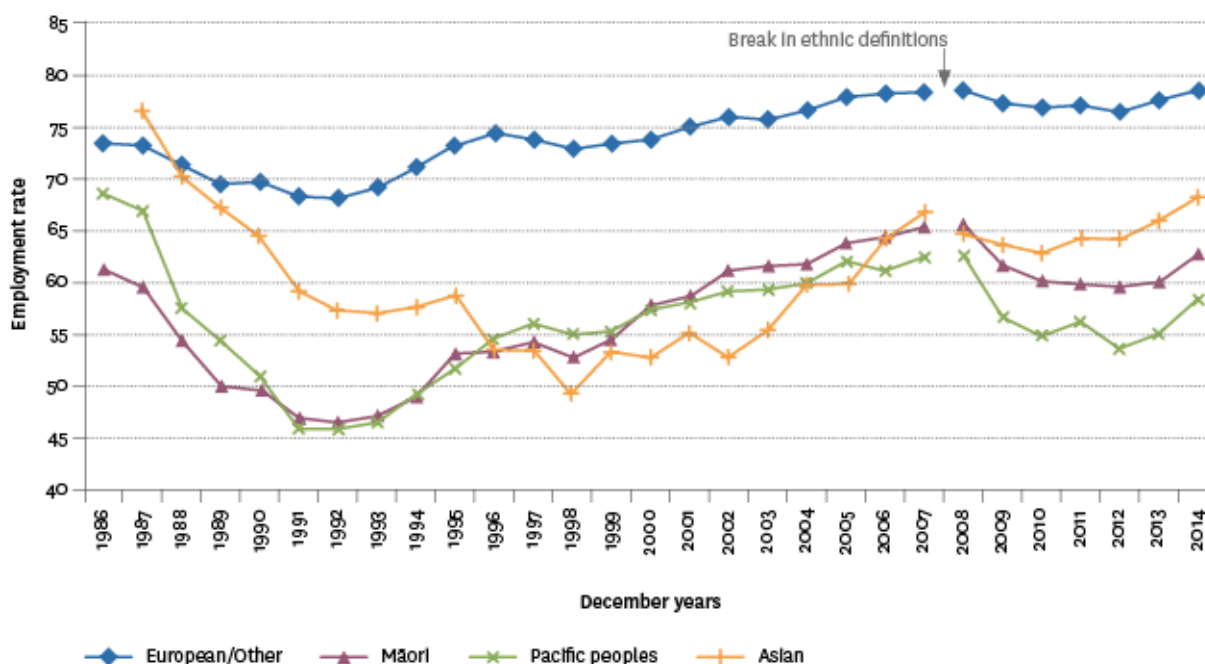
There are marked differences in employment rate by ethnicity. In 2014, the European/Other employment rate was highest at 78.5 percent, followed by the Asian ethnic group (68.1 percent), Māori (62.7 percent) and Pacific peoples (58.3 percent).

The Māori employment rate peaked at 65.6 percent in 2008 and reached a low of 46.4 percent in 1992. The Māori employment rate in 2014 was 62.7 percent, an increase from 60.1 percent at the same time the previous year. The Pacific peoples' employment rate peaked at 68.5 percent in 1986 and reached a low of 45.9 percent in 1991. The Pacific peoples' employment rate in 2014 was 58.3 percent, an increase from 55.0 percent at the same time the previous year.

The European/Other employment rate peaked at 78.5 percent in 2014 and reached a low of 68.2 percent in 1992. The European/Other employment rate in 2014 was 78.5 percent, an increase from 77.5 percent at the same time the previous year. The Asian employment rate peaked at 76.3 percent in 1987; it reached a low of 49.1 percent in 1998. The Asian employment rate in 2014 was 68.1 percent, an increase from 65.9 percent at the same time the previous year.

As noted, youth experience lower employment rates. This is a particular concern for Māori and Pacific peoples who have relatively youthful populations. In 2014, for those aged 15–24 years, Pacific peoples, Māori, people in the Asian group and European/Others had employment rates of 34.6, 45.5, 44.0 and 57.7 percent respectively.

Figure PW2.2 – Employment rate, by ethnic group, 1986–2014



Source: Statistics New Zealand, Household Labour Force Survey

Notes: Average for December years. For 2007 and earlier people are counted in only one ethnic group (ethnicities are prioritised). From 2008 people can be counted in more than one ethnic group (total response). Caution should be used when comparing the two ethnic series over time.

Regional differences

Canterbury had the highest employment rate at 80.1 percent for the year ended December 2014, while Northland had the lowest employment rate at 69.5 percent.

International comparison

In 2014, the New Zealand employment rate of 74.2 percent was ranked 5th highest out of 34 OECD countries. This was higher than the OECD median of 68.0 percent and compares with a rate of 71.6 percent in Australia, 71.9 percent in the United Kingdom, and 68.1 percent in the United States. Iceland had the highest employment rate at 81.6 percent, while Greece had the lowest at 49.4 percent.

Data for this section can be found at: www.socialreport.msd.govt.nz/documents/2016/pw2.xlsx

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, and adjusted for inflation.

Relevance

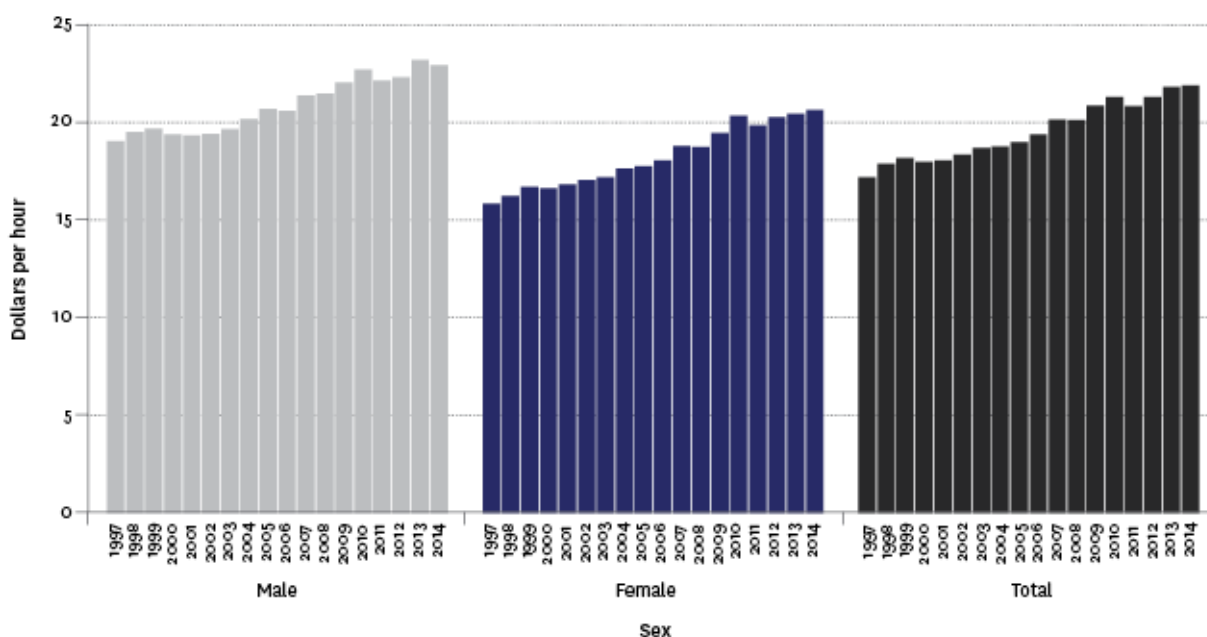
Median hourly earnings from wage and salary jobs are an indicator of the financial return from paid employment, independent of the number of hours worked.

Current level and trends

In the June 2014 quarter, half of all people employed in wage and salary jobs earned more than \$22.00 an hour. In the year to the June 2014 quarter, real (inflation-adjusted) median hourly earnings rose slightly by \$0.08 or 0 percent rounded, essentially no change.

Over the last 10 years to the June 2014 quarter, real median hourly earnings rose by \$3.15 or 17 percent. Two-thirds of this increase occurred in the first five years before the impact of the 2008 Global Financial Crisis. In the last five years to June 2014, real median hourly earnings rose by \$1.04 or 5 percent.

Figure PW3.1 – Real median hourly earnings from wage and salary jobs (June 2014 dollars), by sex, June quarters, 1997–2014



Source: Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand Income Survey

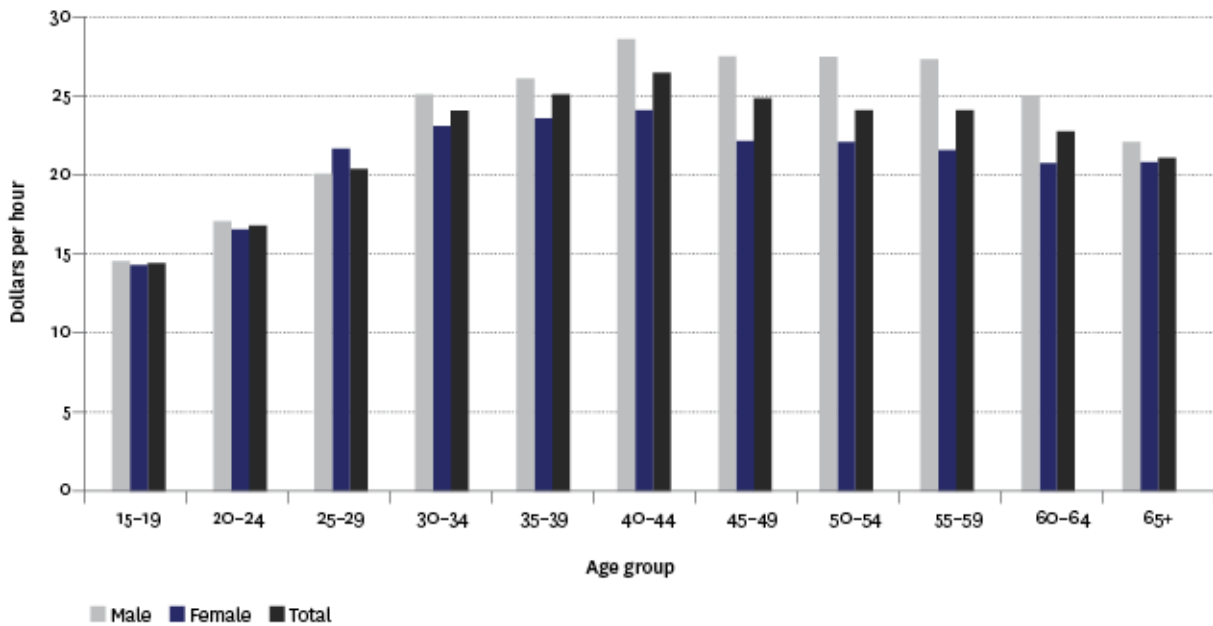
Sex differences

In the June 2014 quarter, real median hourly earnings were \$23.02 for male employees and \$20.74 for female employees. Over the last 10 years, real hourly earnings have remained lower for females than for males, although the gap has generally been narrowing.

Real median hourly earnings declined slightly for males and increased slightly for females over the year to June 2014, but again can be reported as no real change. Over the last 10 years, real median hourly earnings for females increased by \$3.02 or 17 percent and for males by \$2.75 or 14 percent. Over the last five years to June 2014, both male and female changes in real median hourly earnings have been more subdued, although growth for females was again greater than for males (\$1.20 or 6 percent and \$0.88 or 4 percent respectively).

The gap between male and female median hourly earnings differs by age, with the most pronounced difference occurring in the 45-59 year age groups (June 2014).

Figure PW3.2 – Real median hourly earnings from wage and salary jobs, by sex and age group, June quarter, 2014



Source: Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand Income Survey

Age differences

In the June 2014 quarter, real median hourly earnings were highest at ages 40–44 years (\$26.37), followed by 35–39 years (\$25.00) and 45–49 years (\$24.75). On average, over the last 10 years these age groups have ranked in the top three highest-earning age groups.

In the June 2014 quarter, real median hourly earnings were lowest at ages 15–19 years (\$14.38), followed by 20–24 years (\$16.74). These age groups have consistently ranked as the lowest-earning age groups.

While all age groups experienced increases in real median hourly earnings over the last 10 years, over the last five years the 25–29 age group experienced a small decline.

Table PW3.1 – Real median hourly earnings from wage and salary jobs, by age group and percentage change, selected years

Change	15–19	20–24	25–29	30–34	35–39	40–44	45–49	50–54	55–59	60–64	65+	15+
Ten years to 2014 \$	2.71	1.14	1.40	3.21	3.20	5.24	3.37	2.50	3.62	3.76	4.54	3.15
Ten years to 2014 %	23	7	7	15	15	25	16	12	18	20	28	17
Five years to 2014 \$	0.98	0.30	-0.07	0.39	0.32	2.79	1.33	1.38	2.44	1.24	2.15	1.04
Five years to 2014 %	7	2	0	2	1	12	6	6	11	6	11	5

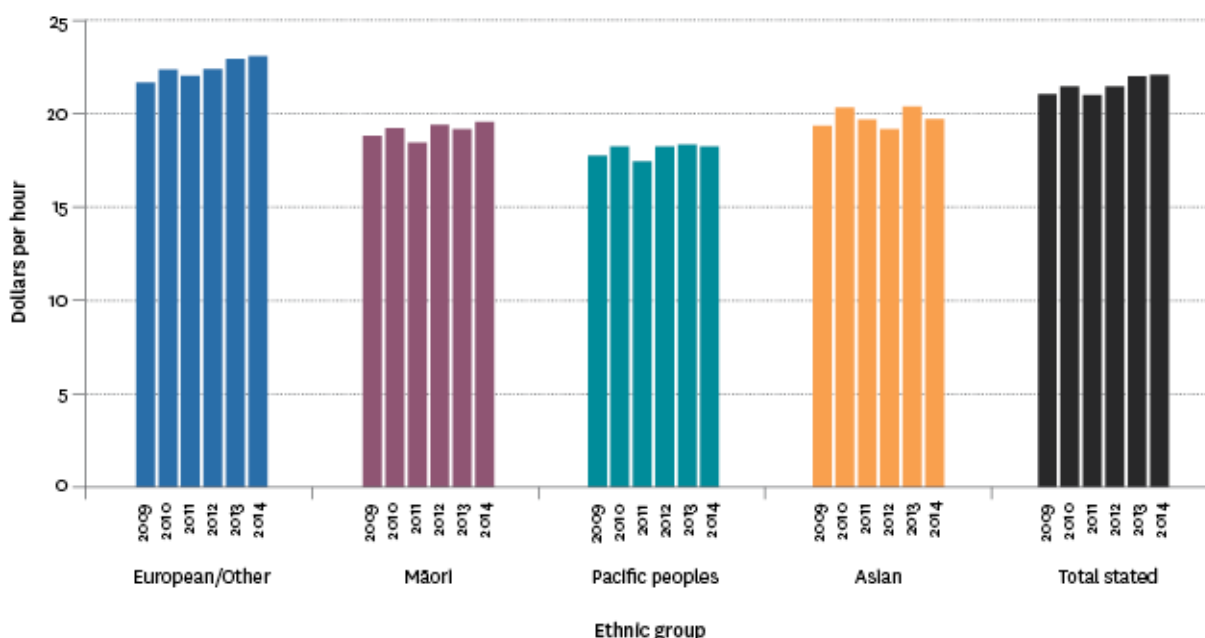
Source: Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand Income Survey

Ethnic differences

In the June 2014 quarter, the European/Other ethnic group had the highest real median hourly earnings at \$23.01. They were followed by the Asian ethnic group (\$19.66), Māori (\$19.50) and Pacific peoples (\$18.18). This ranking has remained relatively stable over the last five years, although Māori have tended to have slightly lower real hourly earnings than the Asian ethnic group over the period.

Because of changes to ethnic definitions, changes over the last 10 years should be treated with caution, but there is evidence of improvement across all ethnic groups. Over the last five years and taking into account error margins, real median hourly earnings have remained essentially unchanged for all ethnic groups, with the exception of European/Other, which showed an increase (\$1.42 or 7 percent).

Figure PW3.3 – Real median hourly earnings from wage and salary jobs, by ethnic group, June quarter, 2009–2014



Source: Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand Income Survey

Full- and part-time, qualification and occupational differences

In the June 2014 quarter, median hourly earnings were higher for full-time than part-time workers (\$23.49 and \$16.89 respectively).¹⁷ Part-time workers made up 23 percent of the workforce, and females accounted for 70 percent of part-time workers. In contrast to median hourly earnings overall, part-time median hourly earnings for females (\$17.20) were higher than for male part-time workers (\$16.00).

In the June 2014 quarter, median hourly earnings were highest for those with a postgraduate qualification (\$33.17) and Bachelor's degree (including Honours) (\$28.77). In contrast, the median hourly earnings for those with no qualification during this period was \$18.00.

In terms of occupation, professionals had the highest median hourly earnings in the June 2014 quarter at \$30.69, while labourers had the lowest at \$16.00.

Regional differences

In the June 2014 quarter, Wellington had the highest median hourly earnings (\$24.07), followed by Auckland (\$23.44) and Canterbury and Southland (\$21.58). On average, this ranking has been consistent over the last 10 years. Median hourly earnings were lowest in Gisborne/Hawke's Bay, Northland, Manawatu-Wanganui and Tasman/Nelson/Marlborough (\$20.00) and Bay of Plenty (\$20.38), although over the last 10 years Tasman/Nelson/Marlborough has been the better-performing region out of this group.

In line with national results, all regions experienced growth in real median hourly earnings over the last 10 years, but there is more fluctuation in median hourly earnings received in regions over the last five years. The outliers were Southland, which had an increase of \$2.28 or 12 percent, and Wellington, which had a \$2.09 or 10 percent increase.

Data for this section can be found at: www.socialreport.msd.govt.nz/documents/2016/pw3.xlsx

Work-related injury

Definition

The age-standardised rate of serious non-fatal work-related injury per 100,000 person-years at risk.

Relevance

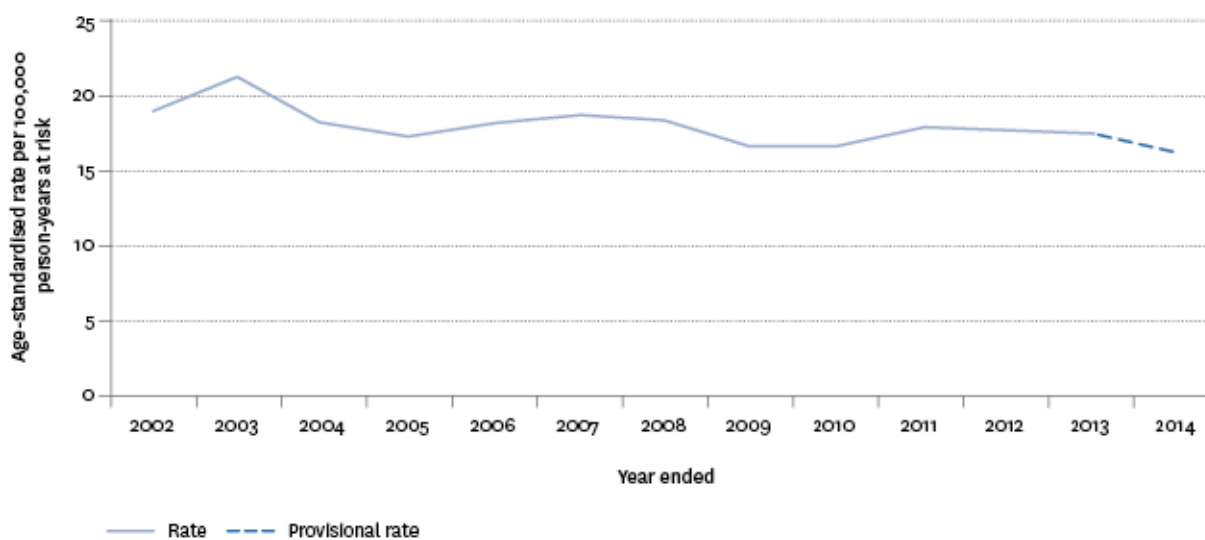
Safety at work is an important contributor to wellbeing and the risk of work-related injury or illness can be seen as one component of the quality of work. The headline measure used in this report is an official measure of injury trends in New Zealand.¹⁸ Additional information is provided using Accident Compensation Corporation (ACC) work-related claims data.

Current level and trends

Provisional data for the year ended 2014 indicates the age-standardised rate for serious non-fatal work-related injury was 16.2 per 100,000 person-years at risk, a lower rate than the previous year (17.4 per 100,000 person-years at risk). The number of seriously injured workers was estimated at 397 in 2014.

Over the last 10 years, the age-standardised rate for serious non-fatal work-related injury has generally been decreasing but has been more stable over the last five years.

Figure PW4.1 – Age-standardised rate of serious non-fatal work-related injury, 2002–2014



Source: Statistics New Zealand

Note: The 2014 data is provisional and subject to change.

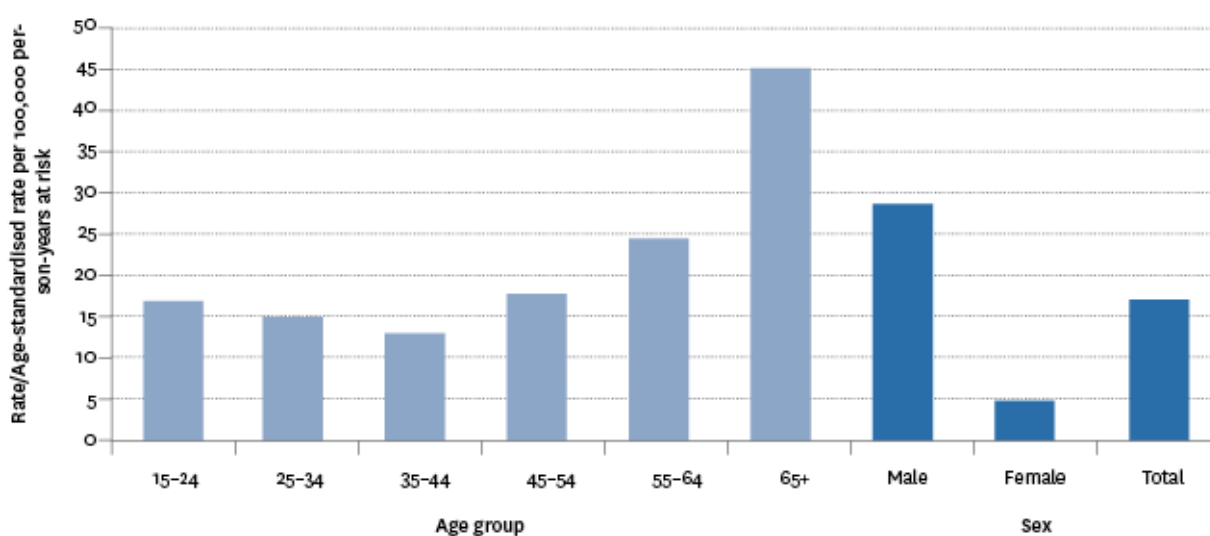
On average across the period 2012–2014, there were 52 fatal work-related injuries, a rate of 2.2 per 100,000 person-years at risk.

Age and sex differences

There has been a steady increase in the number of serious non-fatal work-related injuries for those aged 65 years and over (60 in 2014), and they consistently have the highest rate (45 per 100,000 person-years at risk on average over 2012–2014). In general, older workers 45 years of age and over have higher rates and numbers of work-related injuries.

Males are far more likely to experience serious non-fatal work-related injury. Over the period 2012–2014, the provisional male rate for serious non-fatal work-related injuries was 29.0 per 100,000 person-years at risk, compared with 5.0 per 100,000 person-years at risk for females.

Figure PW4.2 – Age-specific and age-standardised rate of serious non-fatal work-related injury, by age group and sex, 2012/2014



Source: Statistics New Zealand, Ministry of Social Development

Notes: Rates by age are age-specific; rates by sex and total are age-standardised. Rates for serious injury for age groups, sex and total used in this chart are based on a three year average for 2012/2014.

Ethnic differences

Limited ethnic data is available for serious non-fatal work-related injury because of the small numbers involved. However, available data shows Māori had a significantly higher rate than workers overall across the period 2012–2014 (22.0 and 17.1 per 100,000 workers respectively).

Larger numbers of ACC work-related injury claims provide a richer picture of ethnic outcomes and show rates were higher for the Other ethnic group and Pacific peoples in 2014 (155 and 106 per 1,000 full-time equivalents (FTEs) respectively, compared with 57 per 1,000 FTEs for the Asian ethnic group).

Table PW4.1 – Work-related ACC injury claims and serious injuries, by ethnic group, 2014

Ethnic group	Number of claims (2014)	Rate per 1,000 FTEs	Number of serious injuries (2014 – see notes)	Age-standardised rate per 100,000 person-years at risk
European	135,000	89
Māori	23,100	97	56	22.0
Pacific peoples	10,800	106
Asian	14,300	57
Other	9,200	155
Not specified	39,000
Non-Māori	203,000	113
Total	226,100	111	394	17.1

Source: Statistics New Zealand

Notes: Age-standardised rates and numbers for serious injury for Māori, non-Māori and total used in this table are based on a three-year average for 2012–2014.

Industry and occupation differences

The agriculture, forestry and fishing industry had the highest rate of work-related injury claims in 2014 (a rate of 209 per 1,000 FTEs). The arts and recreation services industry had the next highest rate, followed by the construction industry and the manufacturing industry (rates of 201, 172 and 166 per 1,000 FTEs respectively). The information media and telecommunications industry had the lowest work-related injury claim rate (a rate of 19 per 1,000 FTEs).

Agriculture and fishery workers had the highest rate of work-related injury claims in 2014 (a rate of 242 per 1,000 FTEs). Elementary occupations had the next highest rate, followed by the trades workers, and plant and machine operators and assemblers (rates of 238, 209 and 197 per 1,000 FTEs respectively). Clerks had the lowest work-related injury claim rate (a rate of 35 per 1,000 FTEs).

Regional differences

Gisborne/Hawke's Bay had the highest rate of work-related injury claims in 2014 (a rate of 159 per 1,000 FTEs). Northland had the next highest rate, followed by Manawatu-Wanganui and Tasman/Nelson/Marlborough/West Coast (rates of 141, 137 and 136 per 1,000 FTEs respectively). Wellington had the lowest work-related injury claim rate (a rate of 72 per 1,000 FTEs).

Data for this section can be found at: www.socialreport.msd.govt.nz/documents/2016/pw4.xlsx

Job satisfaction

Definition

The proportion of employed people who were “very satisfied” or “satisfied” with their job.

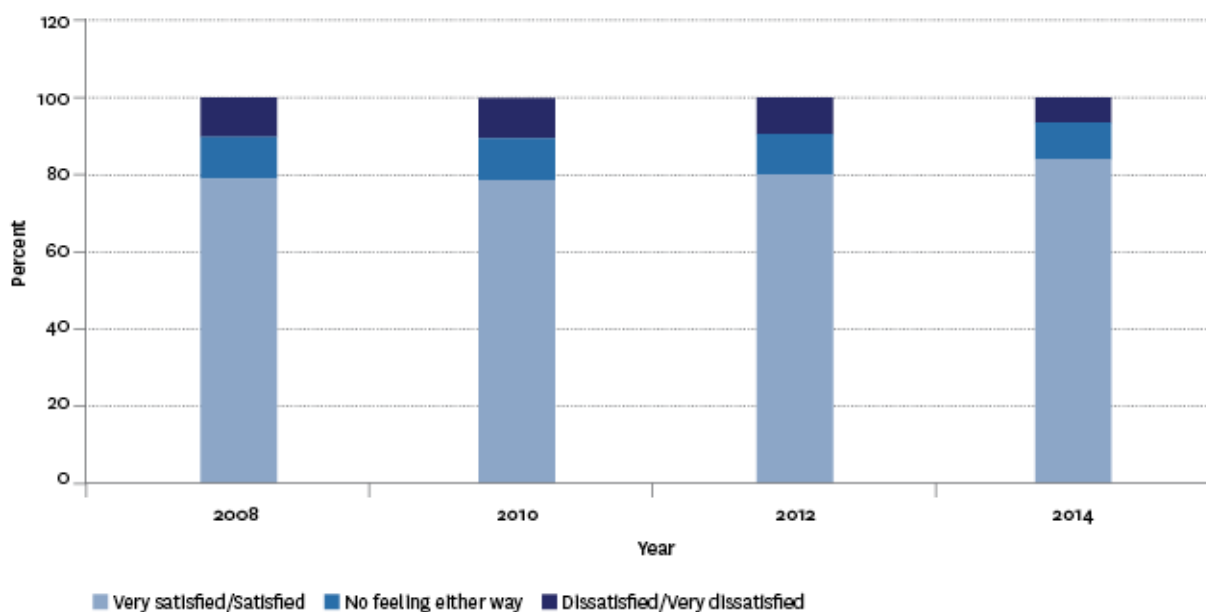
Relevance

Job satisfaction reflects how people feel about their job and encompasses a range of possible factors and influences. Job satisfaction has been associated with overall life satisfaction and provides an additional view on working life.

Current level and trends

In the 2014 New Zealand General Social Survey (NZGSS), 84.0 percent of employed people, when asked about how they felt about their job, were very satisfied or satisfied. Of these, 35.6 percent were very satisfied and 48.3 percent were satisfied. Over the four biennial NZGSS surveys conducted from 2008, statistically there has been no real change in the proportion who said they were very satisfied and satisfied but there is a clear upward trend since 2010 (78.5 percent in 2010 and 80.1 percent in 2012). There was also a significant drop in those dissatisfied or very dissatisfied, however, with the proportion moving from 10.2 percent in 2008 to 6.5 percent in 2014.

Figure PW5.1 – Proportion of employed people by level of job satisfaction, 2008–2014



Source: Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand General Social Survey

Age and sex differences

In the 2014 survey, there was little difference between males and females regarding those who were very satisfied or satisfied with their jobs (83.6 and 84.4 percent respectively). However, over the four surveys conducted, females had, on average, slightly higher proportions than males who were very satisfied or satisfied with their job.

Over the four survey periods, those in the younger age groups were proportionately less likely than older age groups to be very satisfied or satisfied with their job. In the 2014 survey, 25–34 year olds, followed by 15–24 year olds, were least likely to be very satisfied or satisfied with their job (81.6 and 82.2 percent respectively). The 65–74 year age group, followed by 55–64 year olds, were proportionately most likely to be very satisfied or satisfied with their job (88.0 and 87.2 percent respectively).

Table PW5.1 – Proportion of employed people who were very satisfied or satisfied with their job, by age group and sex, 2008–2014

Year	15–24	25–34	35–44	45–54	55–64	65–74	Male	Female	Total
2008	72.8	76.0	78.3	79.7	85.4	91.5	77.7	80.3	78.9
2010	67.5	77.1	78.4	81.2	83.9	89.1	78.0	79.1	78.5
2012	75.1	79.2	77.8	81.7	82.1	91.2	80.6	79.4	80.1
2014	82.2	81.6	84.4	82.9	87.2	88.0	83.6	84.4	84.0

Source: Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand General Social Survey

Note: The 75+ age group has been excluded because of the level of sampling error.

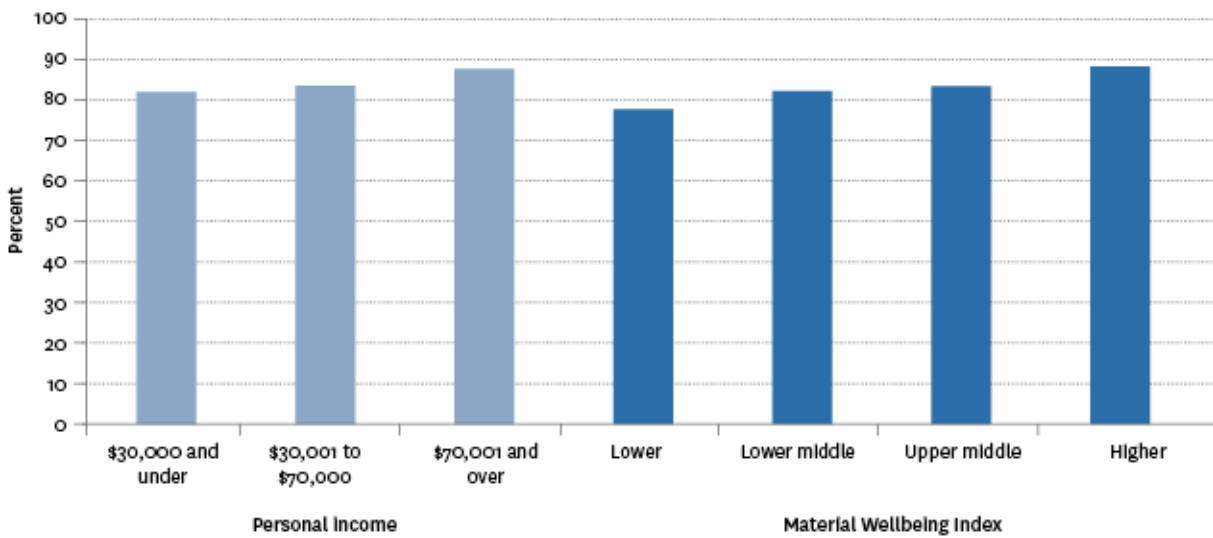
Ethnic differences

Only small differences were found between ethnic groups in terms of the proportion very satisfied or satisfied with their job.

Socio-economic differences

In terms of socio-economic factors, the proportion of those very satisfied or satisfied with their job increased as personal income increased and material wellbeing improved. In 2014, the proportion of those with a personal income over \$70,000 who were very satisfied or satisfied with their job was 87.7 percent. This compares with 81.9 percent of people who had a personal income of \$30,000 and under. The proportion of those in the higher category for material wellbeing who were very satisfied or satisfied with their job was 88.3 percent, which compares with 77.7 percent for those in the lower material wellbeing category.¹⁹

Figure PW5.2 – Proportion of employed people who were very satisfied or satisfied with their job, by personal income and Material Wellbeing Index, 2014

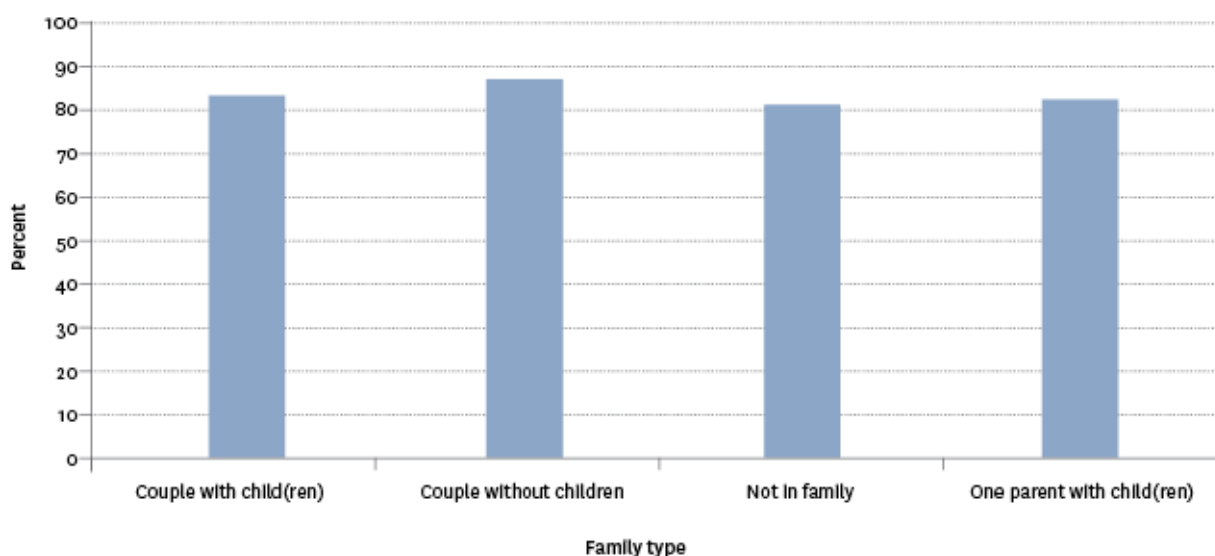


Source: Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand General Social Survey

Family type differences

There is a consistent pattern across survey periods with regard to family type. People who lived in a couple without children were proportionately most likely to be very satisfied or satisfied with their job (87.0 percent in 2014), followed by people who lived in a couple with children (83.3 percent). Those not in a family nucleus were least likely to be very satisfied or satisfied with their job (81.2 percent), followed by those in sole-parent families (82.4 percent).

Figure PW5.3 – Proportion of employed people who were very satisfied or satisfied with their job, by family type, 2014



Source: Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand General Social Survey

Regional differences

The proportion of those who are very satisfied or satisfied with their job shows little variation across regions.

International comparison

The most recent and comparable data from the OECD in 2005 showed that 80.7 percent of New Zealanders said they were completely, very or fairly satisfied with their job. This was slightly below the OECD median across 21 countries of 81.1 percent, and compares with 80.5 percent for Australia, 81.6 percent for the United Kingdom and 82.2 percent for the United States.

Data for this section can be found at: www.socialreport.msd.govt.nz/documents/2016/pw5.xlsx

Satisfaction with work-life balance

Definition

The proportion of employed people who were “very satisfied” or “satisfied” with their work-life balance.

Relevance

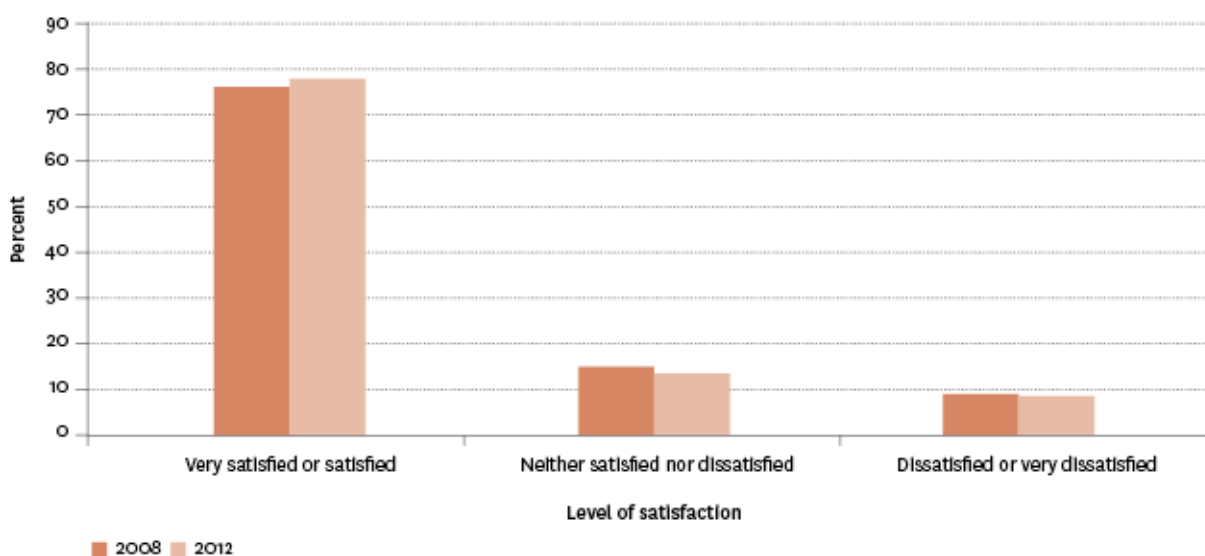
It is important that people find a balance between paid work and other aspects of their lives. When this balance is not found, people may suffer from stress or anxiety. Long working hours or non-standard working hours may compromise work-life balance. This indicator is based on information from the Survey of Working Life, a supplement to the Household Labour Force Survey run in 2008 and 2012.

Current level and trends

In 2012, 78.0 percent of employed people aged 15 years and over were very satisfied or satisfied with their work-life balance. This was slightly above the level in 2008 (76.2 percent). Fewer than one in ten (8.4 percent) employed people were dissatisfied or very dissatisfied with their work-life balance in 2012.

Those working full-time (30 hours or more per week) were less likely than those working part-time (less than 30 hours per week) to be very satisfied or satisfied with their work-life balance (75.2 percent and 86.6 percent respectively in 2012). The percentage of those who were very satisfied or satisfied with their work-life balance declined as hours worked rose, dropping from 87.9 percent for those working 0–19 hours to 60.4 percent for those working 50 hours or more.

Figure PW6.1 – Proportion of employed people by level of satisfaction with work-life balance, 2008 and 2012



Source: Statistics New Zealand, Survey of Working Life

Age and sex differences

Females were slightly more likely than males to be very satisfied or satisfied with their work-life balance in both 2008 and 2012. In 2012, 78.6 percent of females were very satisfied or satisfied with their work-life balance, compared with 77.5 percent of males. Of interest is that females were also slightly more likely than males to be dissatisfied or very dissatisfied with their work-life balance in 2012 (9.0 percent and 7.9 percent respectively). These results, in part, reflect that males were more likely than females to be neither satisfied nor dissatisfied (14.6 percent and 12.4 percent respectively).

In 2012, employed people aged 65 years and over were most likely to be very satisfied or satisfied with their work-life balance (91.3 percent), followed by those aged 15–24 years (81.3 percent). Those aged 35–44 years were least likely to be very satisfied or satisfied with their work-life balance (75.2 percent).

Table PW6.1 – Proportion of employed people who were very satisfied or satisfied with their work-life balance, by age group and sex, 2012

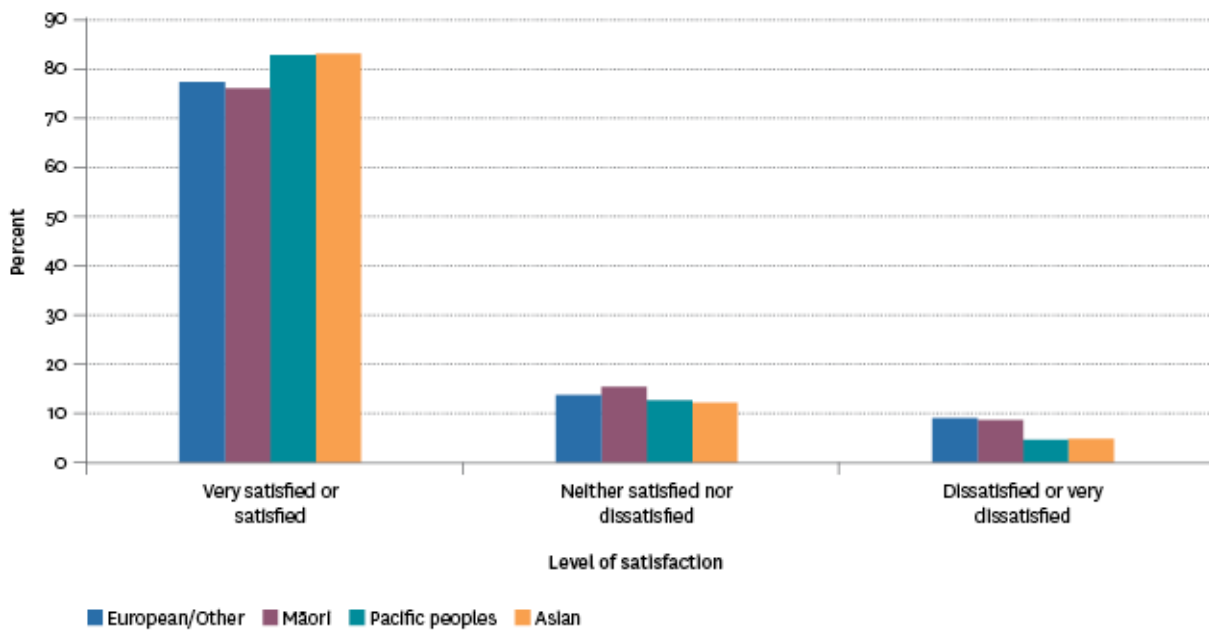
	15–24	25–34	35–44	45–54	55–64	65+	15+
Male	81.0	77.8	73.1	74.7	78.8	90.3	77.5
Female	81.7	78.3	77.5	76.2	77.9	92.9	78.6
Total	81.3	78.0	75.2	75.4	78.4	91.3	78.0

Source: Statistics New Zealand, Survey of Working Life 2012

Ethnic differences

While satisfaction with work-life balance shows a fairly similar pattern across ethnic groups, in 2012, Māori, followed by European/Other, were least likely to be very satisfied or satisfied with their work-life balance (76.0 percent and 77.3 percent respectively). The Asian ethnic group and Pacific peoples were most likely to be very satisfied or satisfied with their work-life balance (83.1 and 82.8 percent respectively). The opposite pattern is found for those dissatisfied or very dissatisfied with their work-life balance.

Figure PW6.2 – Proportion of employed people who were very satisfied or satisfied with their work-life balance, by ethnic group, 2012



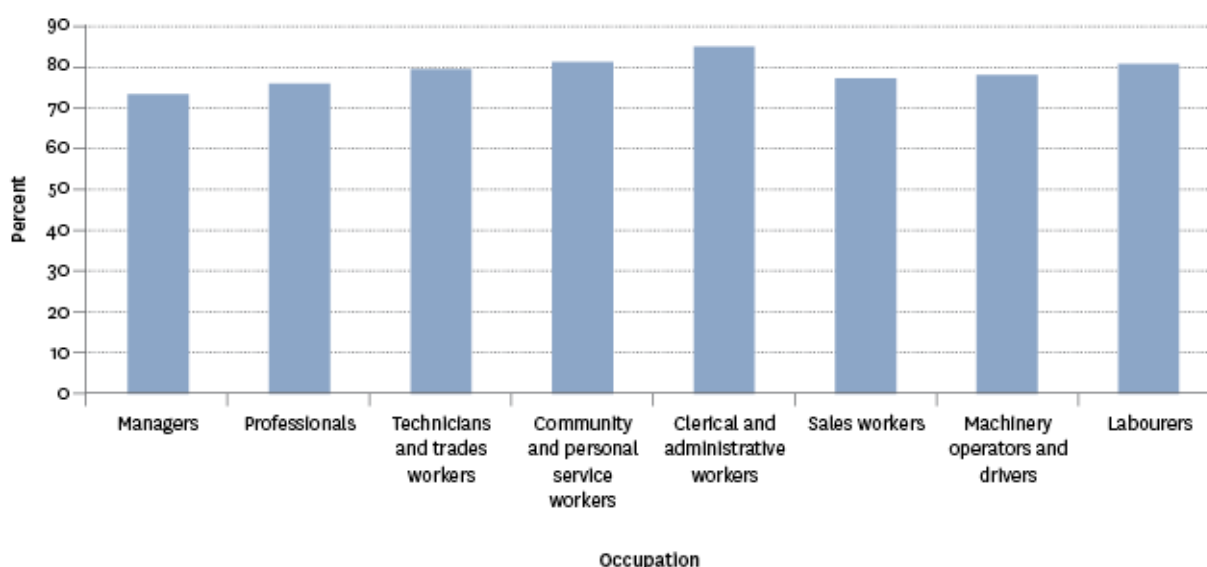
Source: Statistics New Zealand, Survey of Working Life

Occupational and employment relationship differences

In 2012, managers and professionals had the lowest proportion who were very satisfied or satisfied with their work-life balance (73.1 and 75.7 percent respectively). Clerical and administrative workers, and community and personal service workers, had the highest proportion who were very satisfied or satisfied with their work-life balance (84.8 percent and 81.0 percent respectively).

In terms of employment relationship, employers were least likely to be very satisfied or satisfied with their work-life balance (69.5 percent), while temporary employees were most likely (79.9 percent).

Figure PW6.3 – Proportion of employed people who were very satisfied or satisfied with their work-life balance, by occupation, 2012



Source: Statistics New Zealand, Survey of Working Life

Regional differences

Wellington had the lowest proportion of people very satisfied or satisfied with their work-life balance (75.4 percent), while Taranaki had the highest (80.5 percent).

International comparison

There is not a directly comparable international measure for work-life balance but the OECD does provide a measure based on working very long hours, which results in much lower levels of satisfaction with work-life balance. In 2013, 13.9 percent of New Zealand employees usually worked 50 hours or more per week, ranking New Zealand 25th highest out of 30 OECD countries. The rate for New Zealand compared with 14.0 percent in Australia, 12.7 percent for Great Britain and 11.3 percent for the United States, but was much higher than the OECD median of 6.1 percent.

Data for this section can be found at: www.socialreport.msd.govt.nz/documents/2016/pw6.xlsx

Economic standard of living

Desired outcomes

New Zealand is a prosperous and equitable society, where everybody has access to an adequate income and decent, affordable housing that meets their needs. People have an adequate standard of living, and are well placed to participate fully in society and make choices about how to live their lives.

Introduction

Economic standard of living concerns the material 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”.²⁰

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

Indicators

Six headline indicators are used in this chapter to provide information on different aspects of economic standard of living. They are: market income per person; income inequality; the population with low incomes; material hardship; 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 their ability to participate in society and to make choices about how to live their lives.

The first indicator, 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.

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.

Income is not the only measure of material wellbeing. The fourth indicator provides a non-income measure of wellbeing based on the Material Wellbeing Index (MWI) developed by the Ministry of Social Development. It is based on actual household consumption, rather than on household 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.

Domain summary

With the exception of market income and material hardship, the majority of indicators in the Economic Standard of Living domain are showing little or no change for *recent-change* and *medium-term-change*.

Market income per person is again improving following a decline after the 2008 Global Financial Crisis. However, while showing no change for *recent-change* and *medium-term-change*, income inequality remains much higher than in the 1980s.

The proportion of the population with low incomes has remained relatively stable for *recent-change* and *medium-term-change* and is lower than the highs of the mid-90s. The proportion of the population in material hardship rose during the Global Financial Crisis, but has declined since and shows improvement for *recent-change* and *medium-term-change*.

Housing affordability remains flat overall though it has declined for low income groups, while household crowding levels remain unchanged.

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. This is also known as real gross national disposable income (RGNDI) per person.

Relevance

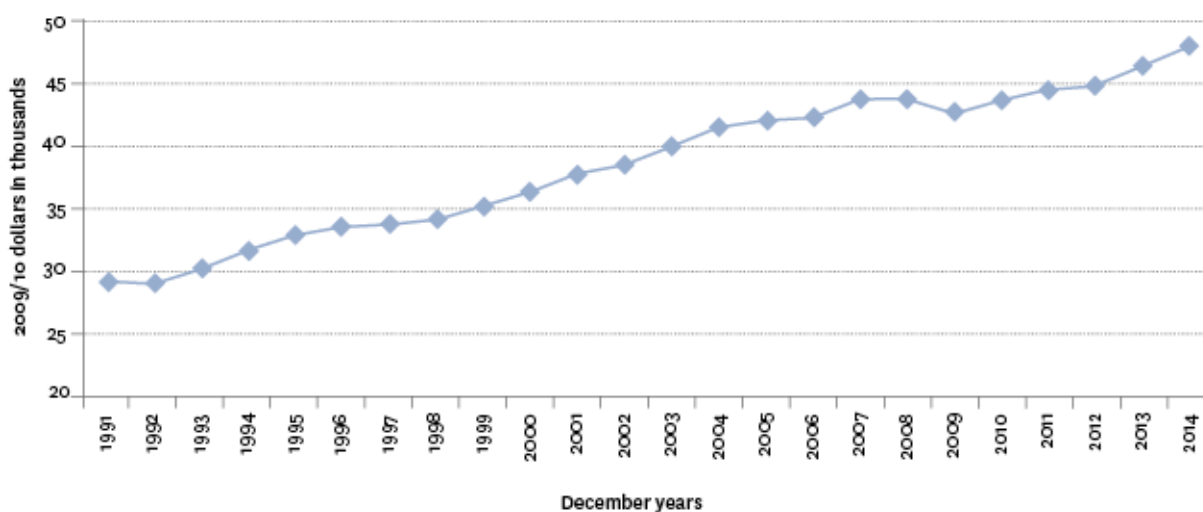
RGNDI per person measures the average income available to New Zealanders. A nation with a rising RGNDI per person will have a greater capacity to deliver a better quality of life and standard of living to its population.

Current level and trends

In the year ended December 2014, RGNDI per person was \$47,784 in 2009/2010 dollars. This was \$1,467 more than for the year ended December 2013 (\$46,317).

From 1992, there was a steady increase in RGNDI per person through to 2007, rising from \$29,058 to \$43,677. This period of growth was followed by a decline between 2007 and 2009, when RGNDI per person dropped to \$42,535, but from 2009 there have again been improvements.

Figure EC1.1 – Real gross national disposable income (RGNDI) per person, 1991–2014



Source: Statistics New Zealand

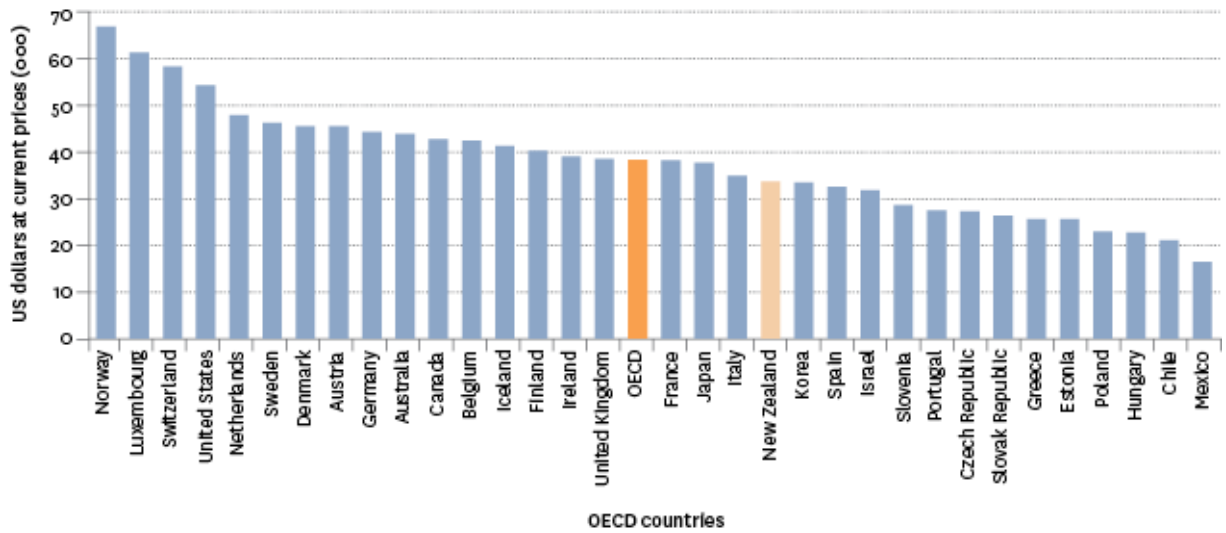
International comparison

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 comparisons, the measure is expressed in United States dollars at current prices and current purchasing power parities. The most complete cross-country comparisons for GNI per person are for 2013.

In 2013, New Zealand ranked 20th out of 32 OECD countries for GNI per person (\$33,620). This compares with a ranking of 19th out of 24 OECD countries in 1986 and 14th in 1970.²¹ In 2013, New Zealand ranked below the United States (4th), Australia (10th) and the United Kingdom (16th).

In 2013, New Zealand GNI per person expressed in US dollars per capita at current prices was below the OECD median (\$38,208). It should be emphasised that GNI per person does not tell us anything about how income and other resources are distributed, and should, therefore, be used in conjunction with other measures presented in the Social Report.

Figure EC1.2 – Gross national income (GNI) per person, 2013



Source: OECD

In terms of GDP, New Zealand was ranked 21 out of 33 OECD countries in 2013.

Data for this section can be found at: www.socialreport.msd.govt.nz/documents/2016/ec1.xlsx

Income inequality

Definition

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

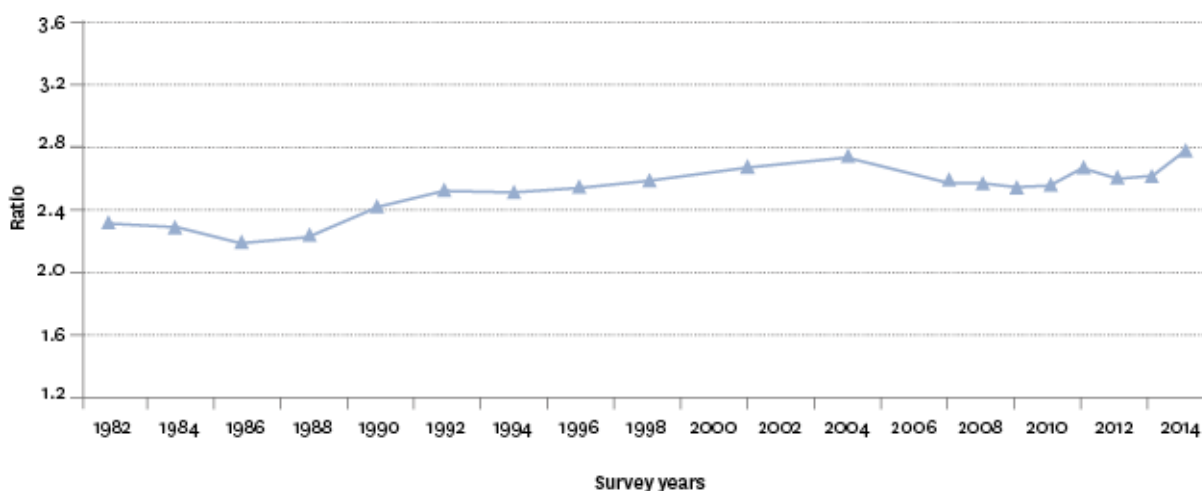
Relevance

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

Current level and trends

In 2014, the equivalised disposable income (before housing costs (BHC)) of a household at the 80th percentile was 2.8 times larger than that of a household at the 20th percentile. This was a little higher than the earlier high point in 2004 (2.7), and above the general trend level from 2007 to 2013 (2.6). Whether the 2014 figure is a statistical blip or a new steady higher level will not be clear until survey results are available for 2015 and 2016.

Figure EC2.1 – Ratio of the 80th percentile of equivalised disposable household income (before housing costs) to the 20th percentile of equivalised disposable household income, 1982–2014



Source: Perry (2015a), Ministry of Social Development, using data from Statistics New Zealand's Household Economic Survey

Note: The period between Household Economic Surveys has varied across the period shown.

Over the period of the survey, the ratio was the highest in 2014 (2.8) and lowest in 1986 (2.2). The only period of sustained declines in the ratio following significant increases from 1986 was between 2004 (2.7) and 2009 (2.6), the period preceding the impact of the Global Financial Crisis and associated economic downturn.

Table EC2.1 – The 80th percentile real equivalised disposable household income (before housing costs) and 20th percentile real equivalised disposable household income and P80/P20 ratio, 1986–2014

	1986	1990	1994	1998	2001	2004	2007	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
P80 – \$ (1,000)	39.2	42.8	38.6	44.1	45.5	48.0	50.2	53.4	52.7	53.8	55.1	55.8	59.1
P20 – \$ (1,000)	17.8	17.6	15.4	17.0	17.0	17.5	19.5	20.9	20.6	20.1	21.1	21.2	21.3
P80/P20	2.2	2.4	2.5	2.6	2.7	2.7	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.7	2.6	2.6	2.8

Source: Perry (2015a), Ministry of Social Development, using data from Statistics New Zealand's Household Economic Survey

Notes: The period between Household Economic Surveys has varied across the period shown. Results are in 2014 dollars.

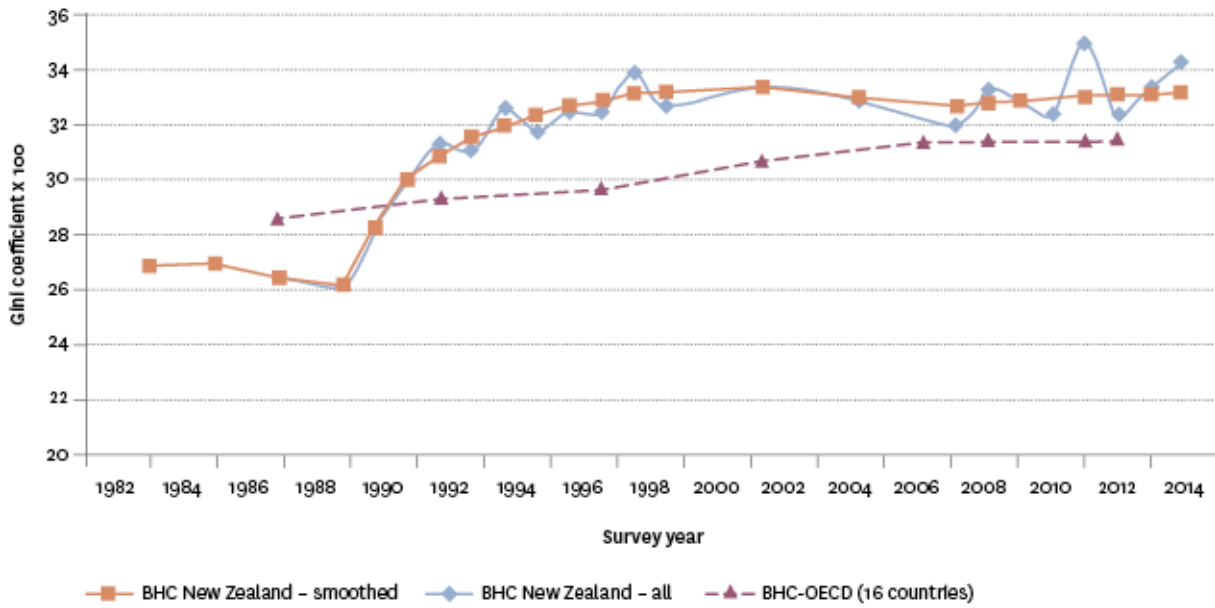
For the survey period as a whole, incomes for households in the 80th percentile had increased more than for households in the 20th percentile, and there was also a greater spread of incomes in 2014 relative to the early 1980s. Between 1986 and 2014, incomes for the 20th percentile increased by 19 percent, compared with 47 percent for the 80th percentile. Most of this occurred between 1986 and 1998.

International comparison

Comparisons with other OECD countries are most commonly reported using a different measure, the Gini coefficient.²² Gini coefficients measure income inequality taking all incomes into account, with a score of 100 indicating complete inequality (one household has all the income) and a score of 0 indicating complete equality (all households have the same income). The most recent OECD comparison (from 2012) gives New Zealand a score of 33, indicating higher inequality than the OECD median of 31. Out of 34 OECD countries, New Zealand just falls into the top third of the most unequal countries but is similar to Australia (33), lower than the United States (40) and the United Kingdom (35), and a little higher than Canada (32). Of the 34 OECD countries reported, Chile is most unequal, with a Gini of 50, and Denmark is the most equal with a Gini of 25.

From the late 1980s through to the mid-1990s, income inequality in New Zealand increased significantly. When the volatility in the most recent income inequality figures is smoothed, there is not yet any conclusive evidence of a rise in income inequality using the Gini since the mid-1990s. As with the 80:20 ratio above, the current trend will not be clear until survey results are available for 2015 and 2016.

Figure EC2.2 – Inequality in New Zealand and the OECD using the Gini coefficient, 1982–2014



Source: Perry (2015a), Ministry of Social Development, using data from Statistics New Zealand's Household Economic Survey, OECD

Notes: The period between Household Economic Surveys has varied across the period shown as has available OECD data. BHC is before housing cost. The result for the OECD captures 16 countries consistently reported over time.

Data for this section can be found at: www.socialreport.msd.govt.nz/documents/2016/ec2.xlsx

Population with low incomes

Definition

The proportion of the population in households with equivalised disposable income net-of-housing-costs.

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.

Three measures are provided to give a fuller picture of change over time. The primary measure is the proportion of people in households with equivalised disposable income net-of-housing-costs below a threshold set at 50 percent of the 2007 household disposable income median – and held fixed in real terms (the 2007 anchored or constant value measure, CV-07). This measure shows whether the incomes of low-income households are rising or falling in real terms, irrespective of what is happening to the incomes of the rest of the population. The two other measures use fully relative thresholds set at 50 and 60 percent of the current year's household disposable income median net-of-housing-costs (REL 50/60). These measures reflect how low-income households are faring relative to middle-income households.

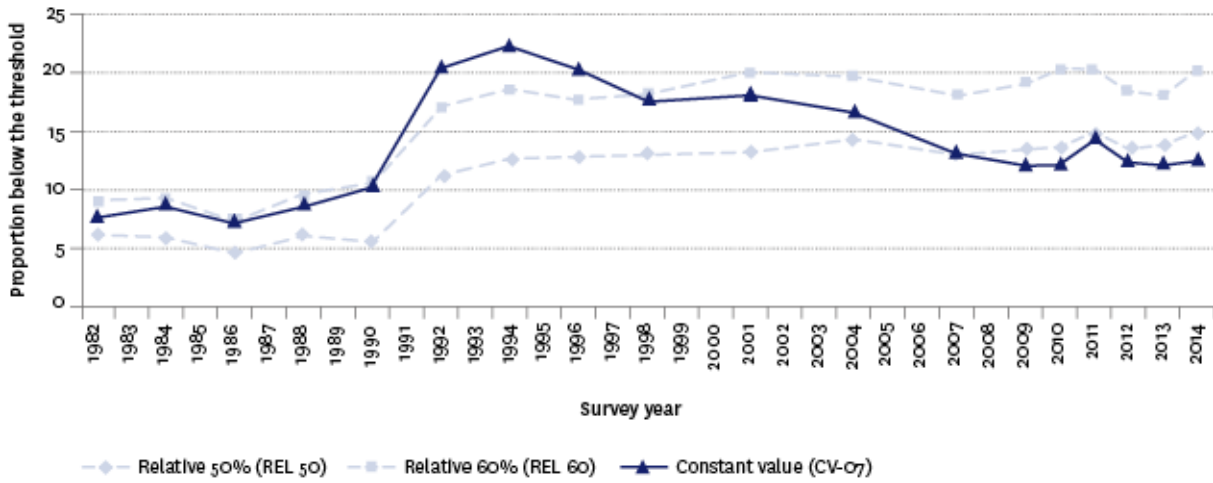
Current level and trends

In 2014, 13 percent of the population were living in households with equivalised disposable income net-of-housing-costs below 50 percent of the 2007 household disposable income median (CV-07). This was similar to 2013 (12 percent), and below the post Global Financial Crisis peak of 14 percent in 2011.

Looking at CV-07 longer term, the proportion in low-income households rose from 8 percent in 1982 to a high of 22 percent in 1994, then fell to 13 percent in 2007 before rising briefly during the Global Financial Crisis then settling at close to 13 percent in 2012–2014. The proportion of households with low incomes in 2014 (13 percent) remains higher than in 1982 (8 percent).

Looking at trends using a moving threshold (REL 50), the proportion of households with low incomes rose from 6 percent in 1982 to 13 percent in 1994, then remained relatively stable until 2007, when there was a further rise reaching 15 percent in 2011 and 2014, over twice as high as in 1982. The rise in 2014 for both the REL 50 and REL 60 measures mainly reflects the rise in the median, not changing incomes at the lower end.

Figure EC3.1 – Proportion of population with net-of-housing-costs household incomes below selected thresholds, 1982–2014



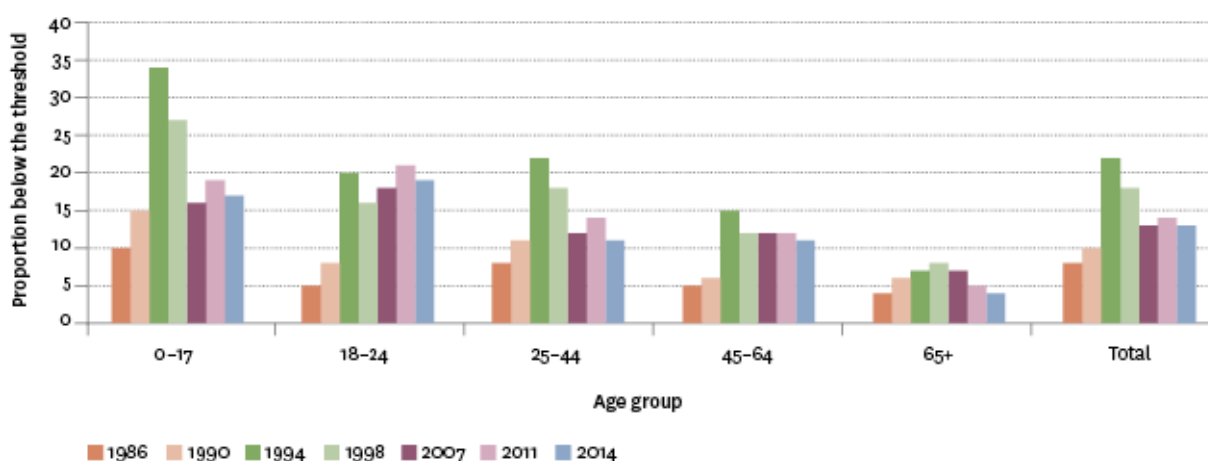
Source: Perry (2015a), Ministry of Social Development, using data from Statistics New Zealand's Household Economic Survey
 Note: The period between Household Economic Surveys has varied across the period shown.

Age and sex differences

There are distinct differences by age. The relatively small proportion in households with low incomes for those currently aged 65 years and over (4 percent in 2014 using CV-07) reflects the combined effect of a relatively high rate of mortgage-free home ownership and universal public provision retirement support. The proportion with low household incomes in 2014 was highest for those aged 18–24 years of age (19 percent), followed by children aged 0–17 years (17 percent).

Changes over the period of the survey show a broadly similar pattern, though improvements following peaks in 1994 were less pronounced for those aged 18–24 and 45–64 years. Proportionately, those aged 0–17 and 25–44 years saw declines between 1994 and 2014 of 17 and 11 percentage points respectively, in contrast to those aged 18–24 and 45–64 years, who saw much lower declines, of 1 and 4 percentage points respectively.

Figure EC3.2 – Proportion of population with net-of-housing-costs household incomes below threshold using CV-07, by age group, selected years 1986–2014



Source: Perry (2015a), Ministry of Social Development, using data from Statistics New Zealand's Household Economic Survey

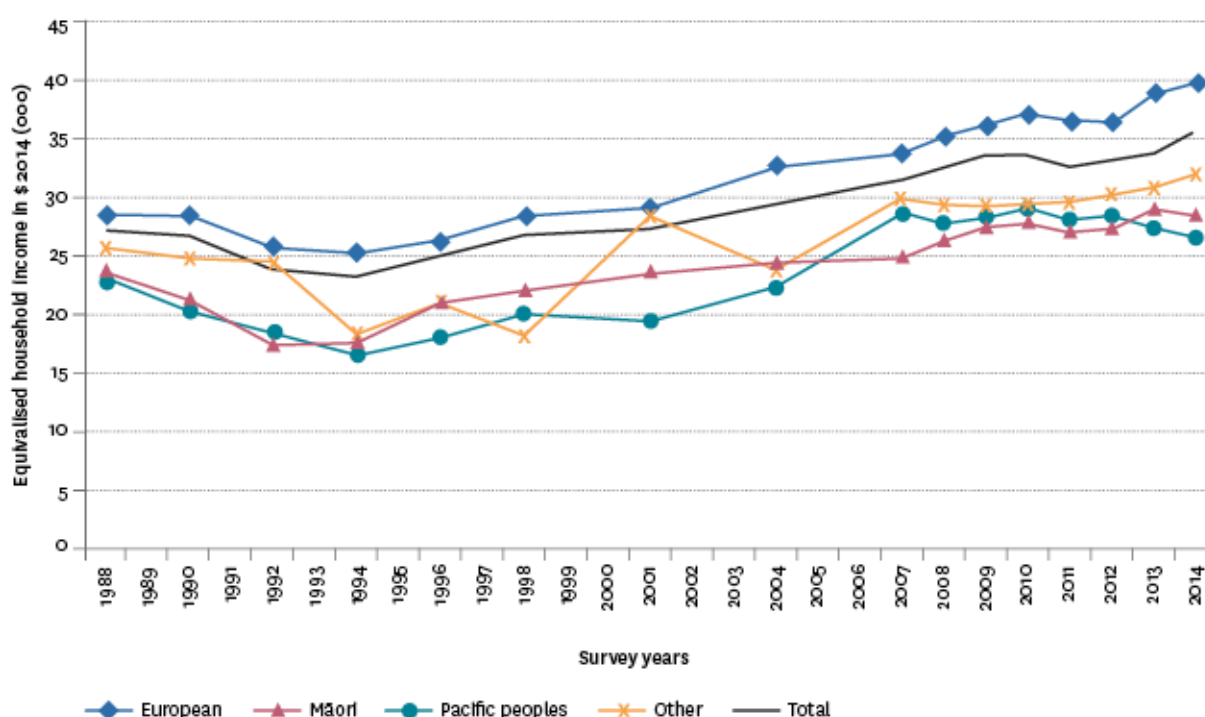
In terms of sex differences, over the period of the survey, the proportion on low incomes using CV-07 has been consistently a little higher for females than males. In 2014, for those aged 15 years and over, the proportion of females in low-income households was 12 percent, compared with 10 percent for males.

Ethnic differences

Sample sizes in the source data are not large enough to support reliable low-income time series for the population by ethnicity using CV-07. Trends in equivalised median household incomes are less volatile and are used to give relativities between ethnic groups.

For all ethnic groups, median household incomes rose steadily from the low point in 1994 through to 2007. There has been a small net increase from 2007 to 2014 for Māori and Other, and a small net decline for Pacific peoples. Over the period of the survey, equivalised median household incomes for the European group have ranked the highest of all ethnic groups, followed, on average, by the Other ethnic group, Māori and Pacific peoples.

Figure EC3.3 – Real equivalised median household incomes, by ethnic group, 1988–2014 (\$2014)



Source: Perry (2015a), Ministry of Social Development, using data from Statistics New Zealand's Household Economic Survey
 Note: Ethnicity used for this figure is prioritised not total response (each person is captured in one ethnic group only).

Household and family type differences

Sole-parent households had the highest proportion in low-income households using CV-07 (51 percent in 2014), followed by single-person households aged under 65 years (22 percent in 2014). Households with a single person or couples aged 65 years of age and older had the lowest proportion on low incomes (4 percent in 2014).

For families with dependent children, 58 percent of sole-parent families living on their own had low incomes using CV-07. This compares with sole-parent families living with others, where the proportion was lower at 20 percent in 2014, reflecting shared household resources. The proportion of two-parent families with dependent children on low household incomes was 9 percent in 2014.

International comparison

There is no comparable information for international comparisons using incomes after deducting housing costs. OECD comparisons use a 50 percent of the median household income threshold before-housing-costs (REL 50). The latest available comparisons are from 2012.²³ Out of 34 OECD countries, New Zealand comes out in the middle for both total population poverty rates (10 percent) and child poverty rates (13 percent). This compares with OECD medians of 10 and 12 percent respectively. The New Zealand total population rate of 10 percent compared with the United States (18 percent), Australia (14 percent) and the United Kingdom (11 percent). Of the countries listed, the United States, Israel and Turkey had the highest rates at 18 percent each, while Denmark and the Czech Republic shared the lowest rate at 5 percent.

Data for this section can be found at: www.socialreport.msd.govt.nz/documents/2016/ec3.xlsx

Material hardship

Definition

The proportion of the population in households with Material Wellbeing Index (MWI) scores below two thresholds.

Relevance

While household income is a very important factor in determining the material wellbeing of a household, other factors matter too. The Material Wellbeing Index (MWI)²⁴ scores reflect the impact of both household incomes and all the other factors on the material wellbeing of households.

Two thresholds, representing more severe and less severe hardship, are used.

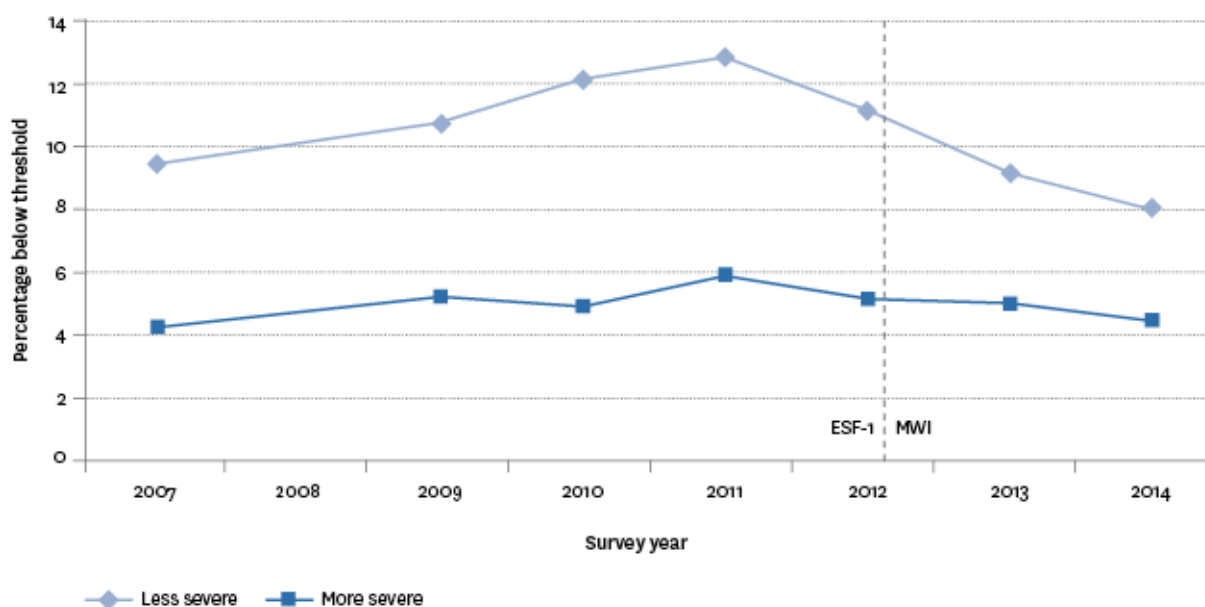
Current level and trends

In 2014, 8.0 percent of people lived in households identified as experiencing material hardship, based on the MWI less severe threshold and using data from the Household Economic Survey (HES). This was slightly lower than the result for 2013 (9.2 percent).

In 2014, 4.5 percent of people lived in households facing more severe material hardship, compared with 5.0 percent in 2013.

The time series provided suggests a peak in 2011 then subsequent declines. While some caution should be applied given that the measure for the series changed between 2012 and 2013²⁵, the rise and fall are consistent with the downturn and recovery following the Global Financial Crisis.

Figure EC4.1 – Proportion of population with material hardship, 2007–2014

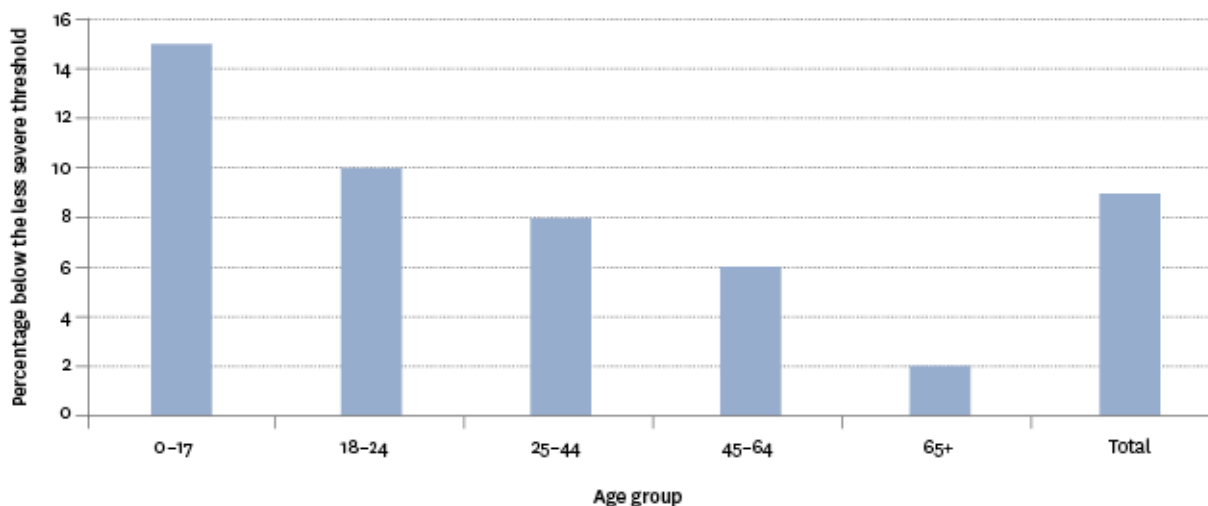


Source: Perry (2015a), Ministry of Social Development, using data from Statistics New Zealand's Household Economic Survey
 Notes: The period between Household Economic Surveys has varied across the period shown. Results for 2007 to 2012 use the Economic Living Standard Index Short Form (ESF-1) modified to match the Material Wellbeing Index (MWI) used in 2013 and 2014.

Age differences

There are clear differences in material hardship when looking at age. Using the less severe threshold averaged over 2013 and 2014, the age group with the highest proportion living in households facing material hardship was children aged 0–17 years of age (15 percent). The next highest group was those aged 18–24 years (10 percent), followed by 25–44 year olds (8 percent), 45–64 year olds (6 percent) and those aged 65 years and older (2 percent).

Figure EC4.2 – Proportion of population below the less severe material hardship threshold, by age group, 2013–2014 averaged



Source: Perry (2015a), Ministry of Social Development, using data from Statistics New Zealand's Household Economic Survey

Note: Results are averaged over the 2012/2013 and 2013/2014 survey periods.

Ethnic differences

Using the less severe threshold averaged over 2013 and 2014, the proportion of people facing material hardship was highest for Pacific peoples (35 percent), followed by Māori (20 percent), Europeans (5 percent) and the Other ethnic group (4 percent).

Household type differences

Sole-parent households with dependent children had the largest proportion of people facing material hardship, using the less severe threshold averaged over 2013 and 2014 (31 percent). This compared with 2 percent for households with people aged 65 years and older and 3 percent for couple-only households aged under 65 years. The proportion of two-parent households with dependent children living under the less severe threshold was 8 percent.

International comparison

Using a 13-item deprivation index developed by Eurostat and data from 2008 and 2009 and their “standard” threshold, New Zealand ranked well for older people aged 65 years and over (3 percent, compared with a median of 11 percent for 27 European countries). For the total New Zealand population, the rate was 11 percent, close to the European median of 13 percent. An 18 percent hardship rate for children aged 0–17 years of age was above the European median of 16 percent, and ranked New Zealand as doing less well than almost all the richer western European countries against whom New Zealand has traditionally benchmarked.

Data for this section can be found at: www.socialreport.msd.govt.nz/documents/2016/ec4.xlsx

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 (OTI) are not as critical for higher-income households, as there is still sufficient income left for their basic needs.

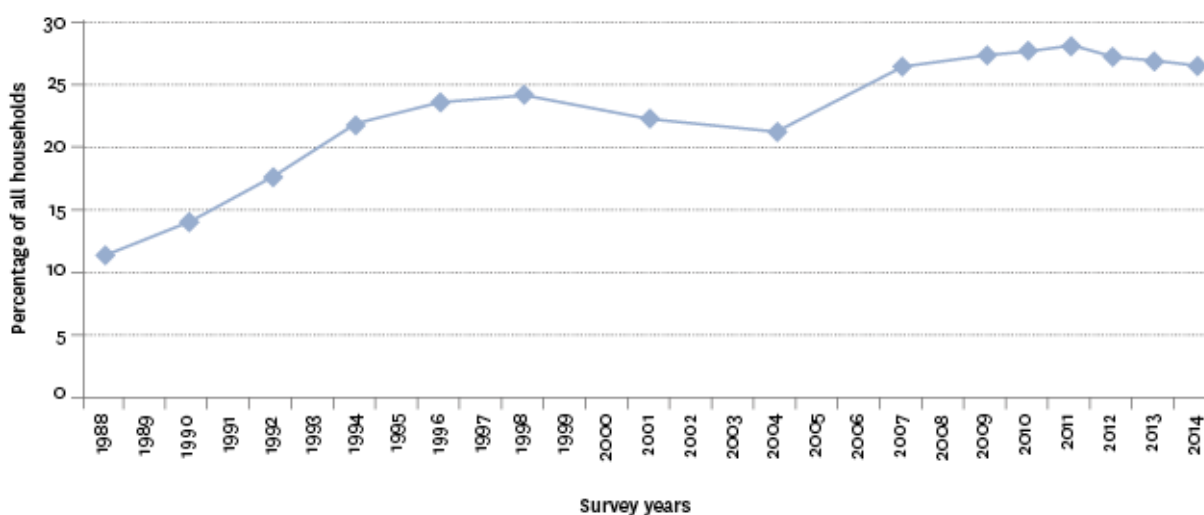
Current level and trends

In 2014, 27 percent of New Zealand households spent more than 30 percent of their disposable income on housing costs. This is a little lower than the high point in 2011 (28 percent), but higher than the level in the first half of the 2000s (21–22 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 1998, the proportion rose from 11 percent to 24 percent of households, before falling to 21 percent in 2004 then again rising.

In 2014, 15 percent of New Zealand households spent more than 40 percent of their disposable income on housing costs, and 8 percent spent more than 50 percent.

Figure EC5.1 – Proportion of households with housing cost outgoings-to-income ratio greater than 30 percent, 1988–2014



Source: Perry (2015a), Ministry of Social Development, using data from Statistics New Zealand's Household Economic Survey

Note: The period between Household Economic Surveys has varied across the period shown.

Age and sex differences

In 2014, 34 percent of children aged under 18 years lived in households that spent more than 30 percent of their disposable income on housing costs. This was the same level as in 2013, but an increase on the 2004 level (26 percent) and significantly higher than the 1988 level (12 percent). Those aged 65 years and over had the lowest proportion living in households that spent more than 30 percent of their disposable income on housing costs (11 percent in 2014).

In 2014, females were slightly more likely than males aged 15 years and over to be living in households that spent more than 30 percent of their disposable income on housing costs (26 and 24 percent respectively). This ranking has largely remained consistent over the period of the survey.

Table EC5.1 – Proportion of individuals in households with housing cost outgoings-to-income ratio greater than 30 percent, by age group, 1988–2014

Survey year	0–17	18–24	25–44	45–64	65+	Male aged 15+	Female aged 15+	Total
1988	12	12	15	5	3	10	10	11
1990	16	16	18	7	2	12	13	14
1992	22	21	24	8	3	16	16	18
1994	27	22	28	10	5	17	20	22
1996	32	24	28	14	6	19	22	24
1998	33	26	31	14	7	21	23	26
2001	32	29	28	16	7	20	22	25
2004	26	28	25	15	6	20	19	22
2007	32	33	33	20	9	23	26	27
2009	39	26	35	22	8	25	26	29
2010	35	31	34	22	10	24	26	28
2011	33	35	34	23	8	25	26	28
2012	37	32	35	20	10	25	26	28
2013	34	28	35	20	9	24	25	27
2014	34	35	32	21	11	24	26	27

Source: Perry (2015a), Ministry of Social Development, using data from Statistics New Zealand's Household Economic Survey

Note: The period between Household Economic Surveys has varied across the period shown.

Ethnic differences

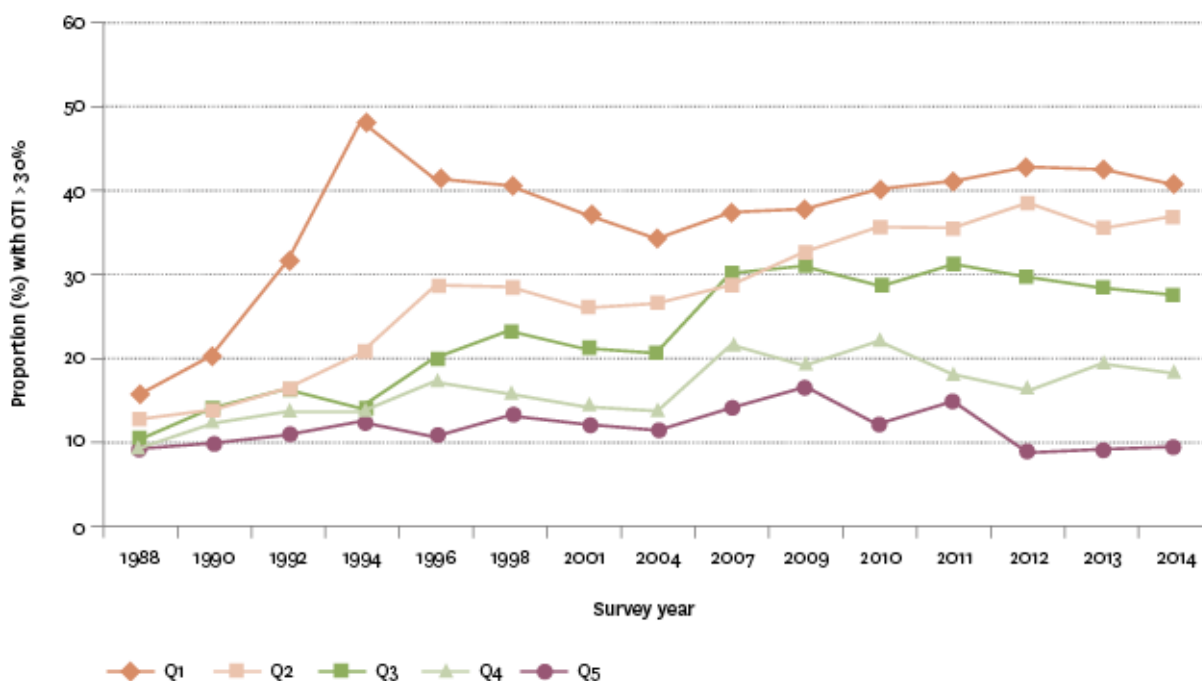
Because of small sample numbers, results by ethnicity have been averaged over the period 2011–2014, precluding reporting detailed time series results. For those who lived in households that spent more than 30 percent of their disposable income on housing costs averaged for the survey periods 2011–2014, the proportion for the Other ethnic group was 40 percent, for Pacific peoples 34 percent, for Māori 30 percent and for Europeans 23 percent. This ranking has persisted over the period of the survey.

Socio-economic differences

In 2014, 41 percent of those in the lowest household income quintile spent more than 30 percent of their disposable income on housing costs, compared with 10 percent for those in the top income quintile.

Over time, changes in results for the lowest income quintile have been more strongly influenced by economic conditions and impacted by the introduction of policies such as income related rents for Housing New Zealand Corporation clients in 2000. The trend for the lowest income quintile was a steep rise to 1994 (48 percent), then a decline to 2004 (34 percent), and a subsequent rise to 41–43 percent over the 2011 to 2014 period. For the highest income quintile, the changes have been less pronounced, with lows of 9 percent in 1988, 2012 and 2013 and a high of 17 percent in 2009. In the late 1980s to early 1990s, the ratio of the rate for the lowest income quintile relative to the highest income quintile was 2, and has since increased to 5 for the most recent period.

Figure EC5.2 – Proportion of households with housing cost outgoings-to-income ratio greater than 30 percent, by income quintile (Q1-Q5), 1988–2014



Source: Perry (2015a), Ministry of Social Development, using data from Statistics New Zealand's Household Economic Survey
 Note: The period between Household Economic Surveys has varied across the period shown.

Household type differences

Sole-parent households had the highest rate for households spending more than 30 percent of their disposable income on housing costs (63 percent).²⁶ The lowest rate was for couple-only households where the oldest person in the household was over 65 years of age (9 percent). Two-parent households with some dependent children had a rate of 30 percent.

Data for this section can be found at: www.socialreport.msd.govt.nz/documents/2016/ec5.xlsx

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).

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 crowding²⁷, between crowding and poor educational attainment, and between residential crowding and psychological distress.²⁸

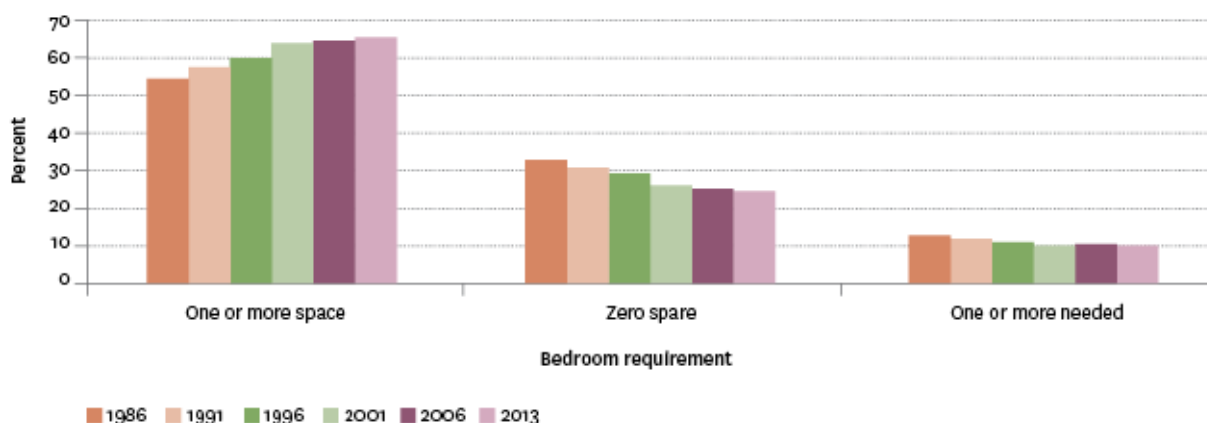
Current level and trends

In 2013, 398,295 people (10 percent of the New Zealand resident population) lived in crowded households that required one or more additional bedrooms to adequately accommodate household members, based on the Canadian Crowding Index.²⁹ The proportion of the population needing additional rooms has remained relatively stable over the last three census periods, but has improved since 1986 when 13 percent of the population lived in crowded households (392,679).

In 2013, 269,172 people (7 percent) lived in households needing one additional bedroom, while 129,123 people (3 percent) lived in households needing two or more additional bedrooms.

The proportion with one or more spare bedrooms has increased. This has resulted more from a decline in the proportion of those with no spare bedrooms, than a change in the proportion of those needing one or more additional rooms.

Figure EC6.1 – Proportion of population by bedroom requirements, 1986–2013



Source: Statistics New Zealand

Age and sex differences

Living in crowded households is more likely to be experienced by younger people and declines with age, likely reflecting life cycle and family formation patterns. In 2013, 130,995 (16 percent) of those aged 0–14 years and 93,198 (18 percent) of those aged 15–24 years lived in crowded households. For those 75 years and over, 4,128 people (2 percent) lived in crowded households.

Table EC6.1 – Proportion and number of people needing one or more additional bedrooms, by age group, 2013

	0–14	15–24	25–44	45–54	55–64	65–74	75+	Total
Number	130,995	93,198	103,641	38,223	19,359	8,745	4,128	398,295
Percent	16	18	10	7	4	3	2	10

Source: Statistics New Zealand

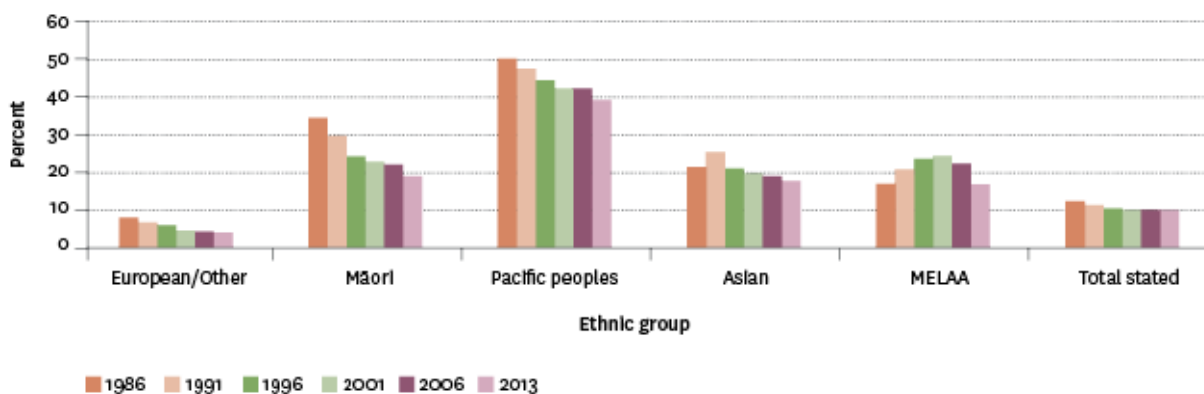
There is very little difference between the sexes in the likelihood of living in crowded households.

Ethnic differences

Pacific peoples are far more likely than other ethnic groups to be living in crowded households. In 2013, 112,800 (39 percent) of Pacific peoples lived in households needing one or more additional bedrooms. Māori (115,422 people, or 19 percent), people in the Asian ethnic group (84,477 people, or 18 percent) and the Middle Eastern/Latin American/African (MELAA) ethnic group (8,061, or 17 percent) were the next highest groups experiencing crowding. The European/Other ethnic group was least likely to experience household crowding, at 4 percent, but has the highest number in crowded households (125,133 people).³⁰

Māori, Pacific peoples and Europeans/Other all showed a decrease from 1986 in the proportion living in crowded households. Those in the Asian and MELAA ethnic groups have seen a decrease over the more recent census periods.

Figure EC6.2 – Proportion of people needing one or more additional bedrooms, by ethnic group, 1986–2013



Source: Statistics New Zealand

Household differences

In 2013, multi-family households with dependent children had the highest proportion of people living in crowded households (118,539 people, or 50 percent of multi-family households), followed by one-parent families with dependent children (78,330 people, or 21 percent). Couples with dependent children had the largest number, but a lower proportion, of people in crowded households (138,978 people, or 10 percent of couples with dependent children).

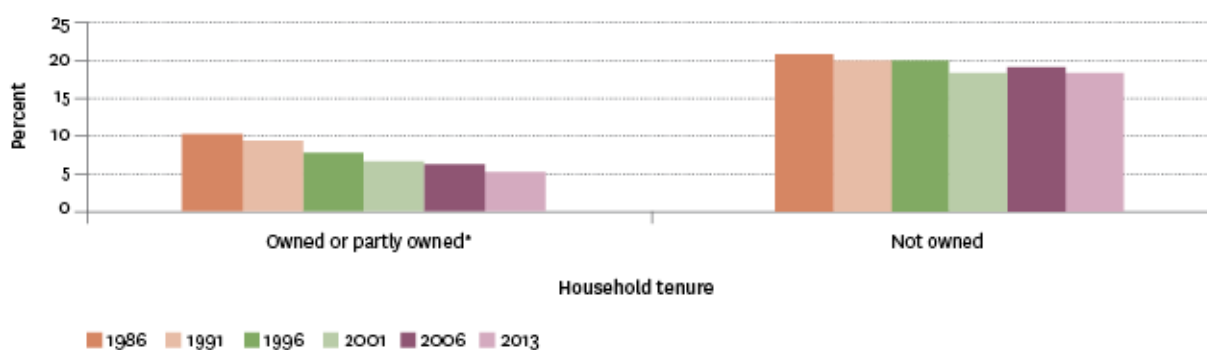
Over the last three census periods from 2001, multi-family households with dependent children have shown the most significant drop in the proportion living in crowded households (56 percent down to 50 percent). The remaining household types experienced minor changes over this period.

Tenure and income differences

There is a clear difference in the proportion of people needing one or more bedrooms when looking at tenure of the household (ie whether houses are owned). In 2013, for those living in households that were not owned, 19 percent (262,302 people) lived in crowded households. This compared with 5 percent (126,657 people) living in households that were owned or partly owned, or where the dwelling was held in a family trust.³¹

There is also a difference in the decline in household crowding over time when looking at household tenure. Over the period 1986–2013, where households were owned or were partly owned the percentage of those in crowded households fell by 4.4 percentage points, compared with a smaller drop of 2.6 percentage points for those in households not owned.

Figure EC6.3 – Proportion needing one or more bedrooms, by household tenure, 1986–2013



Source: Statistics New Zealand

Note: * "Dwelling was held in a family trust" was not asked before 2006 but, for this figure, has been added to dwellings owned or partly owned for 2006 and 2013.

There are also clear differences when looking at household income. Based on crowding by Jensen Equivalised Annual Household gross income quintiles, 91,995 (15 percent) of those in the lowest income quintile lived in crowded households, compared with 12,330 (2 percent) of those in the highest income quintile.³²

Regional differences

In 2013, Auckland had the highest proportion of people living in crowded households (203,820 people, or 16 percent), followed by Gisborne (5,913 people, or 15 percent) and Northland (13,853 people, or 10 percent). This line-up has remained relatively stable since 1986.

Otago had the lowest proportion of people in crowded households (7,659 people, or 4.1 percent), followed by the West Coast (1,047 people, or 3.7 percent).

Between 1986 and 2013, the percentage point drop in household crowding in all regions was greater than the national drop (3 percentage points), with the exception of Auckland, where the percentage point drop was 1 percent. Given Auckland's large population, the poorer Auckland result has had an impact on the overall New Zealand result.

International comparison

Because different countries use a range of measures for household crowding, international comparisons are problematic. Statistics New Zealand has provided some comparisons for 2001 which indicate the rate of household crowding was higher in New Zealand than in Australia, England or Canada.³³

Data for this section can be found at: www.socialreport.msd.govt.nz/documents/2016/ec6.xlsx

Civil and political rights

Desired outcomes

Everybody has civil and political rights, and actively participates in democratic society. Mechanisms to regulate and arbitrate people's rights in respect of each other are trustworthy and without discrimination or repression.

Introduction

The enjoyment of civil and political rights enables people to participate in decision-making, be fairly represented, seek redress for discrimination, conduct business with public officials in an open and transparent manner, and live in a tolerant society free from repression.

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.

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.

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 in a society that embraces diversity. This is only possible if people can exercise the many rights referred to above.

Indicators

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

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

This chapter uses six headline 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; acceptance of diversity; and perceived corruption.

A fundamental right in any democracy is the right to vote. The first indicator, voter turnout, provides 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. The perceived discrimination indicator measures people's subjective experience of personal discrimination. Research suggests that many people who experience discrimination will not make a complaint.

New Zealand society is increasingly diverse, and the willingness to accept such diversity helps people to become open and welcoming of different views and ways of life. The inability of people to be accepted can impact on access to education, healthcare, employment and successful participation in their community. The fifth indicator measures people's acceptance of selected minority groups.

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

Domain summary

In the Civil and Political Rights domain, outcomes are mixed.

Voter turnout in general elections has been declining over time, though turnout in the 2014 General Election was higher than in the 2011 General Election. Research shows that voter turnout for the 2011 General Election was much lower for younger age groups, the unemployed, and those on low incomes. Declining voter turnout over time has also been reported for local authority elections.

Although the proportions of women represented in central and local government have increased since the 1980s, the proportions have remained relatively unchanged in terms of *recent-change* and *medium-term-change*, and remain below the proportion of women in the total population.

Representation of Māori, Pacific and Asian Members of Parliament in central government has improved over time, although Asian ethnic groups continue to be under-represented.

In 2014, a small proportion of people reported being discriminated against in the last 12 months, with some groups much more likely to experience discrimination than others. People were less likely, in 2014, to feel comfortable with a new neighbour who has a mental illness than other selected minority groups.

New Zealand's perceived corruption score is favourable and stable, ranking second least corrupt out of 34 OECD countries in 2014.

Voter turnout

Definition

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

The proportion of all enrolled electors (both resident and ratepayer³⁴) 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

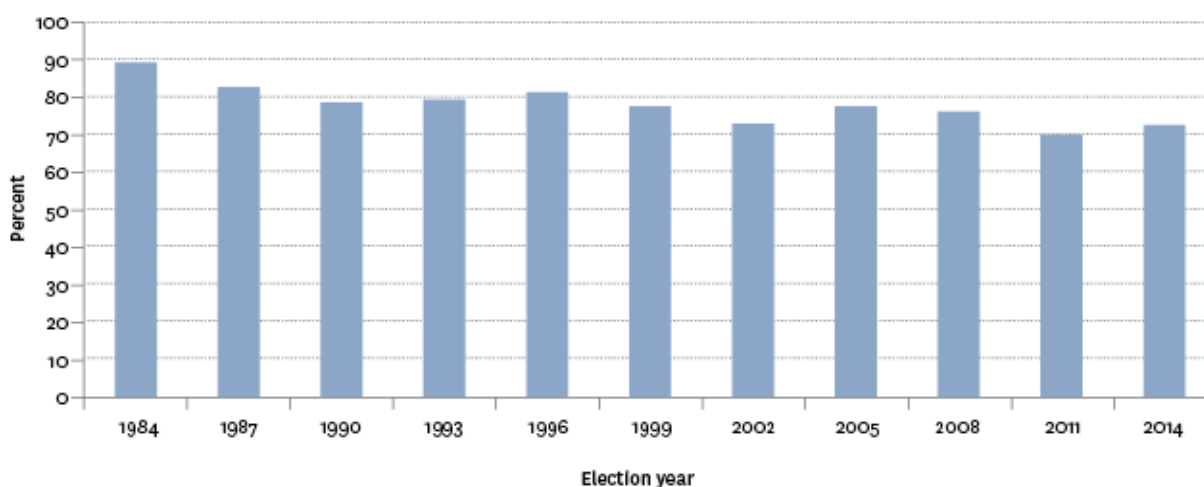
Current level and trends

General elections in New Zealand usually occur every three years, with the last election held in November 2014. Voter turnout of the eligible population in 2014 was 72 percent, an increase from 70 percent in 2011, as reported by the Electoral Commission.

In the last 30 years, voter turnout has fluctuated from a high of 89 percent in 1984 to a low of 70 percent in 2011. Overall, there has been a general decline in voter turnout over time, with the lowest percentage of people voting occurring within the last two election cycles (2011 and 2014).

The New Zealand General Social Survey (NZGSS) looked at reasons why people did not vote. The main reason people gave for not voting in the 2011 General Election was they “didn't get around to it, forgot or were not interested” (21.0 percent). Another 12.3 percent of non-voters said they did not register for the 2011 election, while 10.0 percent were “overseas or away on election day”. A further 7.1 percent of the non-voters said they did not think their vote would make a difference – a big increase from 3.9 percent in the 2008 election.

Figure CP1.1 – Proportion of estimated voting-age population who cast votes, 1984–2014



Source: Electoral Commission

Note: The 1984 figure has been calculated by the Ministry of Social Development.

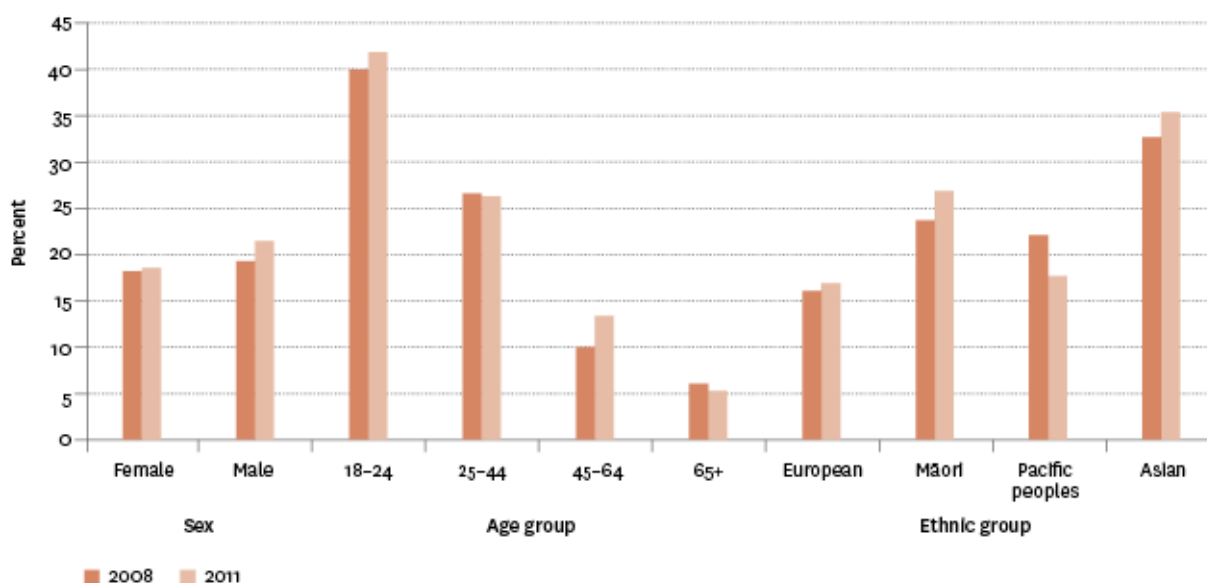
Characteristics of non-voters

The NZGSS also looked at the demographic characteristics of non-voters. In the 2011 General Election, as age increased, the proportion of non-voters decreased. There were more non-voters aged 18–24 years than in the older age groups (41.8 percent, compared with only 5.2 percent of people aged 65 years or over).

People in the Asian ethnic group were the least likely to vote (35.3 percent did not vote) compared with those who identified as Māori (26.8 percent), Pacific peoples (17.6 percent) or European (16.8 percent). However, this is because of the large migrant population from Asia, rather than the ethnicity itself. Almost 60 percent of recent migrants did not vote in the 2011 General Election; this includes people who said they were not eligible because of visa status. Long-term migrants reported very similar voting behaviour as those born in New Zealand, with 18.2 percent and 16.3 percent respectively not voting in the 2011 General Election.

Unemployed people were less likely to vote compared with employed people and those not in the labour force. In the 2011 General Election, 35.2 percent of unemployed people did not vote. This was almost double the percentage of those not in the labour force (17.8 percent) and employed people (19.9 percent). People with personal incomes of \$30,000 or less and incomes between \$30,001 and \$70,000 (22.8 percent and 20.3 percent respectively) were more likely not to vote than people with incomes above \$70,000 (9.5 percent).

Figure CP1.2 – Proportion of non-voters by self-reported characteristics, 2008 and 2011 General Elections



Source: Statistics New Zealand

International comparison

Using a different definition of voter turnout (the proportion of the registered population who voted), New Zealand was ranked 9th out of 34 OECD countries, with a voter turnout rate of 77 percent in 2014. This was higher than the OECD median of 66 percent for recent elections.

Voter turnout in New Zealand was lower than that of Australia, where voting is compulsory (93 percent in 2013), but higher than the United Kingdom (66 percent in 2015), the United States (64 percent in 2012) and Canada (61 percent in 2011). The OECD countries with the lowest voter turnout rates were Poland (2011), Switzerland (2011) and Chile (2013) who all had rates of 49 percent.

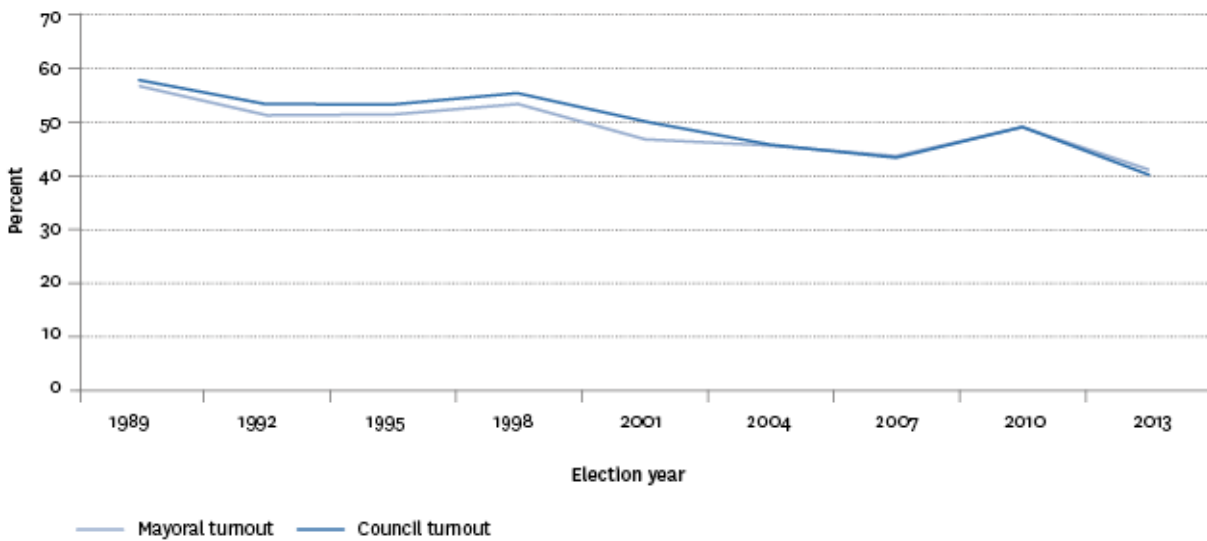
2. Local authority elections

Current level and trends

In 2013, there were 206 elected local authorities in New Zealand: 11 regional councils, 1 Auckland council (which amalgamated 8 former councils in November 2010), 12 city councils, 54 district councils³⁵, 20 district health boards³⁶ and 108 community boards.³⁷ Elections of members of local authorities are held once every three years in New Zealand.

Overall mayoral election turnout in 2013 was 41 percent, down from 49 percent in 2010. Overall council turnout showed the same decline, dropping from 49 percent in 2010 to 42 percent in 2013.³⁸ Like the general elections, there has been a gradual decline in voter turnout over time for local authority elections. Voter turnout in local authority elections in 2013 was the lowest it has been since the restructuring of local government in 1989. Prior to 2010, voter turnout in local authority elections declined with each subsequent election except 1998. Higher turnout in the 2010 elections was partly attributed to increased local voting for the first Auckland “super city” election and increased voting in Christchurch following the 2010 Canterbury earthquakes.

Figure CP1.3 – Proportion of estimated voting-age population who cast votes in mayoral and council elections, 1989–2013



Source: Department of Internal Affairs

In the 2013 local authority elections, voter turnout was highest for district councils (48 percent), followed by regional councils (43 percent) and city councils (39 percent). Rural (fewer than 20,000 people) and provincial (20,000–90,000 people) areas had higher voter turnout than metro areas (more than 90,000 people) (50 percent, 47 percent and 38 percent respectively).

The drop in turnout between 2010 and 2013 was seen across all types of local authorities, with a fall of 9 percent in community board turnout, 9 percent in district mayoral turnout and 8 percent in district health board turnout. Other types of local authorities saw falls of between 2 and 7 percent.

Table CP1.1 – Proportion of estimated voting-age population who cast votes in local authority elections, 1989–2013

	1989	1992	1995	1998	2001	2004	2007	2010	2013
Regional councils	56	52	48	53	49	45	43	47	43
District health boards	50	46	43	49	41
Territorial authorities									
City councils	52	48	49	51	45	43	41	46	39
City mayors	52	48	49	51	45	43	41	46	41
District councils	65	61	59	61	57	51	49	50	48
District mayors	67	62	59	59	56	52	49	50	41
Community boards	54	49	50	50	46	42	41	50	41
Overall mayoral turnout	57	53	53	55	50	46	44	49	41
Overall council turnout	56	51	51	53	47	46	44	49	42

Source: Department of Internal Affairs

Notes: District health boards were established in 2001. Trusts are not included because they are not local authorities.

Data for this section can be found at: www.socialreport.msd.govt.nz/documents/2016/cp1.xlsx

Representation of women in government

Definition

The proportion of elected Members of Parliament (MPs) who were women.

The proportion of women elected to local authorities.

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.

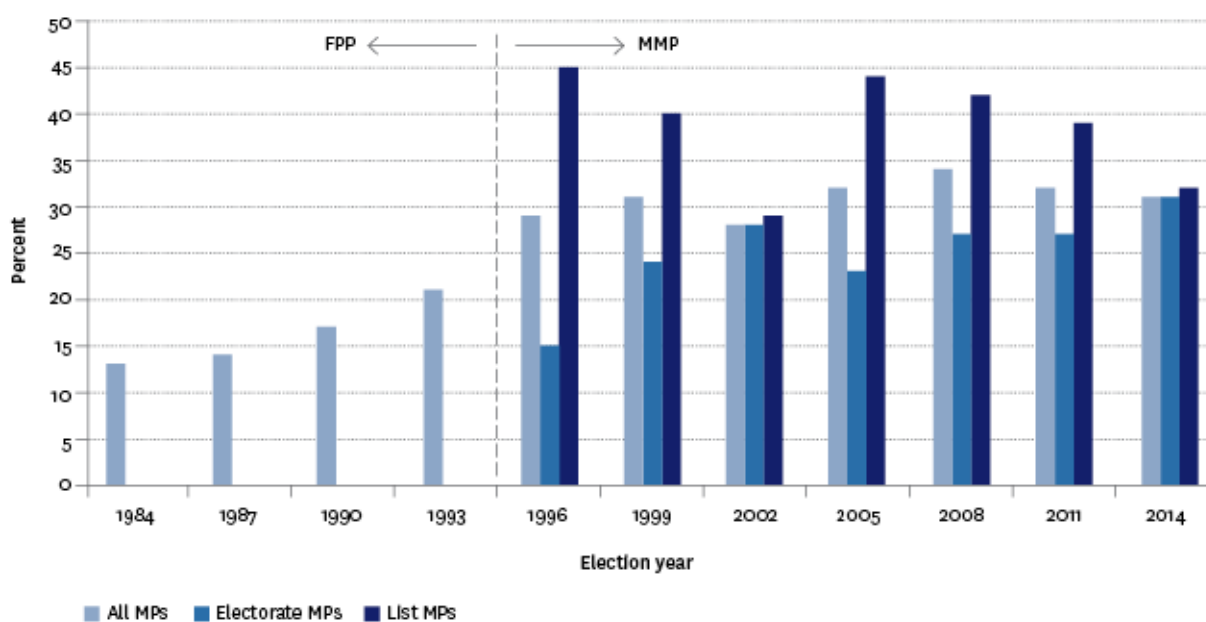
1. General elections

Current level and trends

As a result of the 2014 General Election, women held 38 of the 121 seats in Parliament, or 31 percent. This was similar to 2011 (32 percent), but below the record 41 women MPs (34 percent) elected in 2008. Under the First Past the Post (FPP) electoral system, women’s representation in Parliament increased from 13 percent in 1984 to 21 percent in 1993, and then rose sharply to 29 percent in the first Mixed Member Proportional (MMP) election held in 1996. Since then, representation of women in Parliament has been relatively stable. Women were first represented in the New Zealand Parliament in 1933.

In the 2014 General Election, women made up a similar proportion of list MPs (32 percent) and electorate MPs (31 percent). In most previous elections, however, women have been more likely to be list MPs than electorate MPs.

Figure CP2.1 – Women as a proportion of elected Members of Parliament, 1984–2014



Sources: Electoral Commission; Parliamentary Library

International comparison

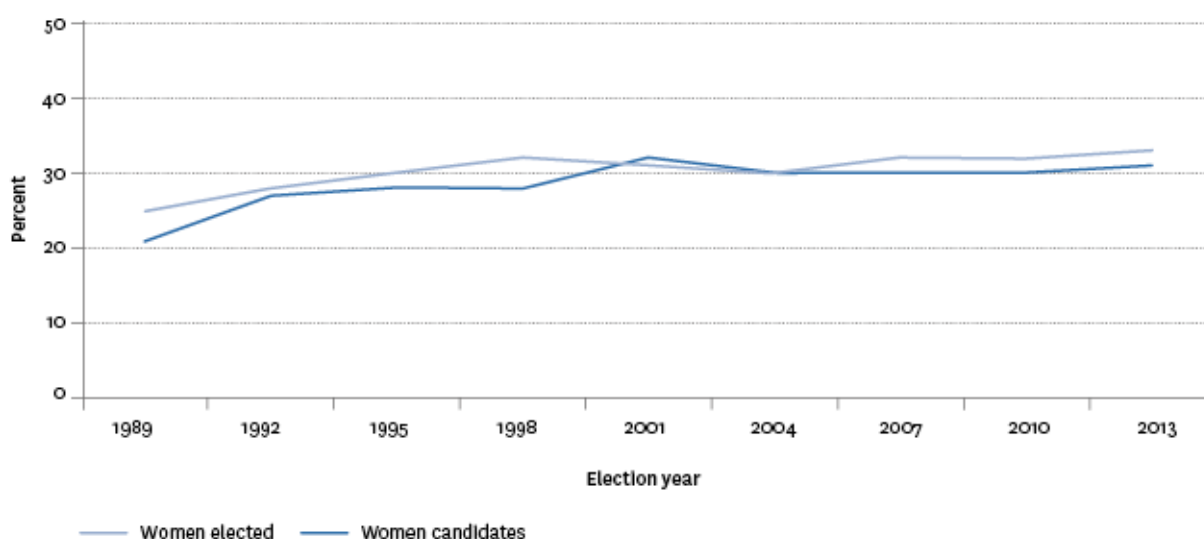
With 31 percent of women in Parliament in 2014, New Zealand was above the OECD median of 28 percent for recent elections and ranks 12th out of 34 OECD countries. Sweden has the highest proportion of women MPs with 44 percent (in 2014), followed by Finland (42 percent in 2015), Iceland and Spain (each 41 percent in 2013 and 2011 respectively) and Norway (40 percent in 2013). New Zealand has considerably higher female representation in national government than Australia (27 percent in 2013), Canada (25 percent in 2011), the United Kingdom (23 percent in 2010) and the United States (19 percent in 2014).

2. Local authority elections

Current level and trends

In the 2013 local government elections, 31 percent of candidates and 33 percent of elected members were women. The proportion of women elected to local bodies has risen from one-quarter to one-third over the last 25 years, with the number of women candidates also increasing.³⁹

Figure CP2.2 – Proportion of women candidates and elected women in local government elections, 1989–2013



Source: Department of Internal Affairs

In 2013, women's representation was highest on district health boards (47 percent), followed by community boards (37 percent). Between 2010 and 2013, the share of women members increased or remained stable for district health boards, district councils and community boards.

Table CP2.1 – Proportion of members who were women, by type of local authority, 1989–2013

	1989	1992	1995	1998	2001	2004	2007	2010	2013
Regional councils	22	25	29	28	26	25	27	24	21
District health boards	44	42	46	46	47
City councils	35	35	33	36	39	34	37	35	33
District councils	19	23	26	27	26	26	28	28	30
Community boards	29	32	33	35	31	32	33	33	37

Source: Department of Internal Affairs

Notes: District health boards were established in 2001. Trusts are not included because they are not local authorities.

While relatively few women stood as candidates for city mayoralties in 2013 (15 percent of all candidates), nearly one-third (31 percent) of city mayors were women. The proportion of women elected to city mayoral positions remained fairly steady between 1989 and 2004 at 25–29 percent, with the exception of 1995 (20 percent). The proportion of city mayors who were women fell to 19 percent in 2007, before rising over the next two elections. The number of women mayors in district councils increased rapidly from 10 percent in 1989 to 25 percent in 1998, fell sharply to 14 percent in 2001, and remained at 17 or 18 percent over the next four elections.

Table CP2.2 – Proportion of mayors who were women, 1989–2013

	1989	1992	1995	1998	2001	2004	2007	2010	2013
City mayors	29	27	20	27	27	25	19	23	31 ⁷
District mayors ¹	10 ²	15 ³	20	25	14 ⁴	17 ⁵	18 ⁶	17	17 ⁷

Source: Department of Internal Affairs

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. (7) Includes Auckland.

Data for this section can be found at: www.socialreport.msd.govt.nz/documents/2016/cp2.xlsx

Representation of ethnic groups in government

Definition

The proportion of elected Members of Parliament (MPs) who identified 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.

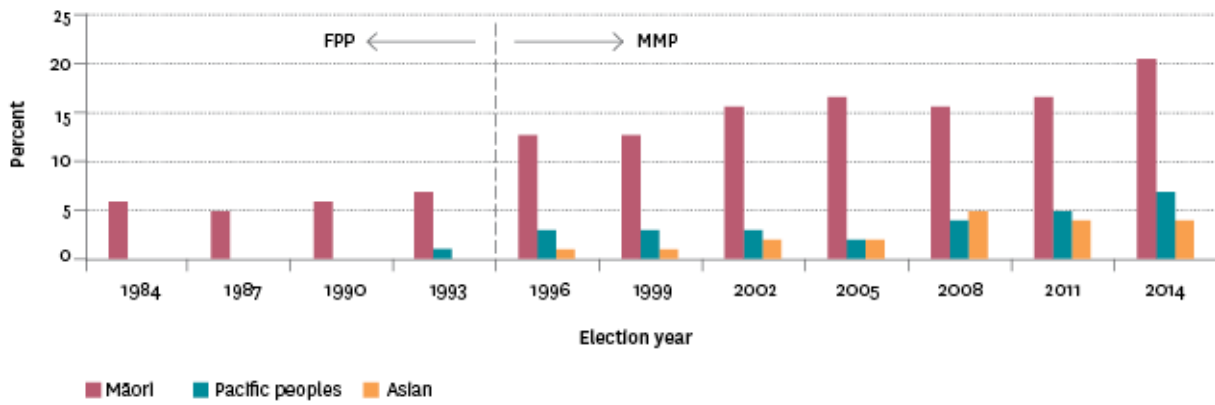
Current level and trends

Following the 2014 General Election, 32 percent of Members of Parliament (MPs) self-identified as being of Māori, Pacific peoples or Asian ethnicity, as reported in the Parliamentary Library report on the 2014 General Election. This was up from 26 percent in 2011. Under the First Past the Post (FPP) electoral system, representation of these groups in Parliament increased from 6 percent in 1984 to 8 percent in 1993. After the introduction of the Mixed Member Proportional (MMP) system in 1996, representation of ethnic groups jumped to 17 percent. Since then, the overall trend has been of increasing ethnic representation in Parliament.

In 2014, 21 percent of MPs identified themselves as Māori, up from 17 percent in 2011. A record number of MPs identified as Pacific peoples, comprising 7 percent of the Parliament, up from 5 percent in 2011; and 4 percent identified as being of Asian ethnicity, the same as in 2011. Pacific peoples and people in the Asian ethnic group were first represented in Parliament in 1993 and 1996 respectively.

The proportion of Māori elected to Parliament in 2014 exceeded the Māori share of the New Zealand population (21 percent of MPs identified as Māori, compared with 15 percent of the total population). In contrast, the proportion of MPs identifying as Asian ethnicity (4 percent) was smaller than their share of the population (12 percent). The proportion of Pacific peoples in Parliament was the same as their proportion of the New Zealand population (both 7 percent).

Figure CP3.1 – Members of Parliament identifying as Māori, Pacific peoples or Asian, 1984–2014



Source: Parliamentary Library

Data for this section can be found at: www.socialreport.msd.govt.nz/documents/2016/cp3.xlsx

Perceived discrimination

Definition

The proportion of the population aged 15 years and over who reported they had been discriminated against in the past 12 months.

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.

Current level

Based on the revised question in the 2014 New Zealand General Social Survey (NZGSS), 17.1 percent of the population aged 15 years and over reported that they had been discriminated against in some way in the past 12 months.⁴⁰

Of the people who reported being discriminated against, the most common situations in which this discrimination occurred were at work (33.5 percent) and in a public place or on the street (30.2 percent). This was followed by when in a shop or restaurant (18.3 percent), and when trying to get a job (15.0 percent).

The reasons people gave for being discriminated against included their race or ethnic group (35.5 percent), their age (19.4 percent), their skin colour (19.1 percent) or their gender (16.5 percent). Other reasons cited included their dress or appearance (13.7 percent), their disability or health issue (9.5 percent), their accent or language (9.0 percent), or their religious beliefs (6.5 percent). Only 1.9 percent of people cited their sexual orientation as a reason for the discrimination.

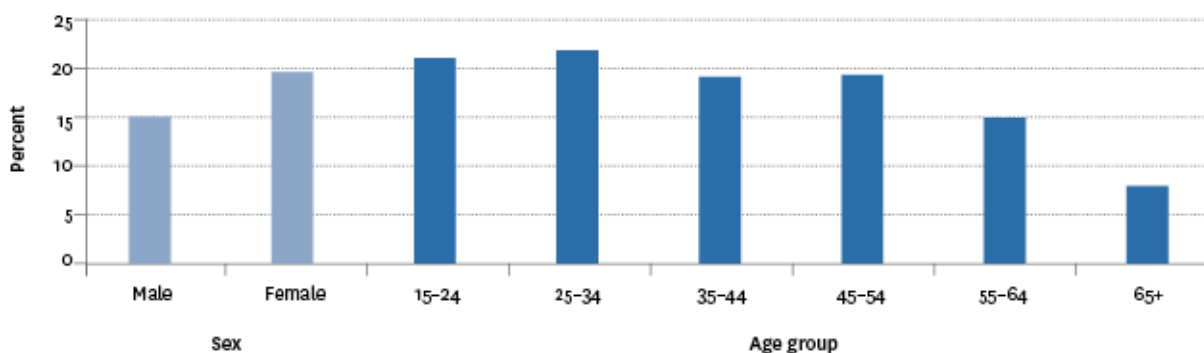
Age and sex differences

Younger people were slightly more likely than older people to report being discriminated against. Those aged 25–34 years had the highest rate of perceived discrimination (21.5 percent) followed by those aged 15–24 years (20.7 percent). This compares with 18.8 percent of 35–44 year olds, 19.0 percent of 45–54 year olds and 14.7 percent of 55–64 year olds. Those aged 65 years and over had the lowest rate of perceived discrimination (7.8 percent).

Unsurprisingly, younger people were more likely to say they were discriminated against at school (27.8 percent of those aged 15–24 years compared with less than 10 percent for all other age groups). Those aged 65–74 years were more likely to say they were discriminated against at a medical centre (15.4 percent compared with between 5.0 percent and 10.3 percent for all other age groups). Perceived discrimination at work increased with age, peaking at 42.3 percent for those aged 45–54 years, before declining again after age 54.

Females (19.3 percent) were more likely than males (14.8 percent) to report being discriminated against. Although there were not large differences about where the discrimination occurred, females were more likely than males to cite gender as a reason for the discrimination (22.8 percent of females, compared with 7.7 percent of males). Males, on the other hand, were more likely to cite skin colour (23.1 percent of males, compared with 16.1 percent of females).

Figure CP4.1 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who reported they had been discriminated against in the last 12 months, by sex and age group, 2014



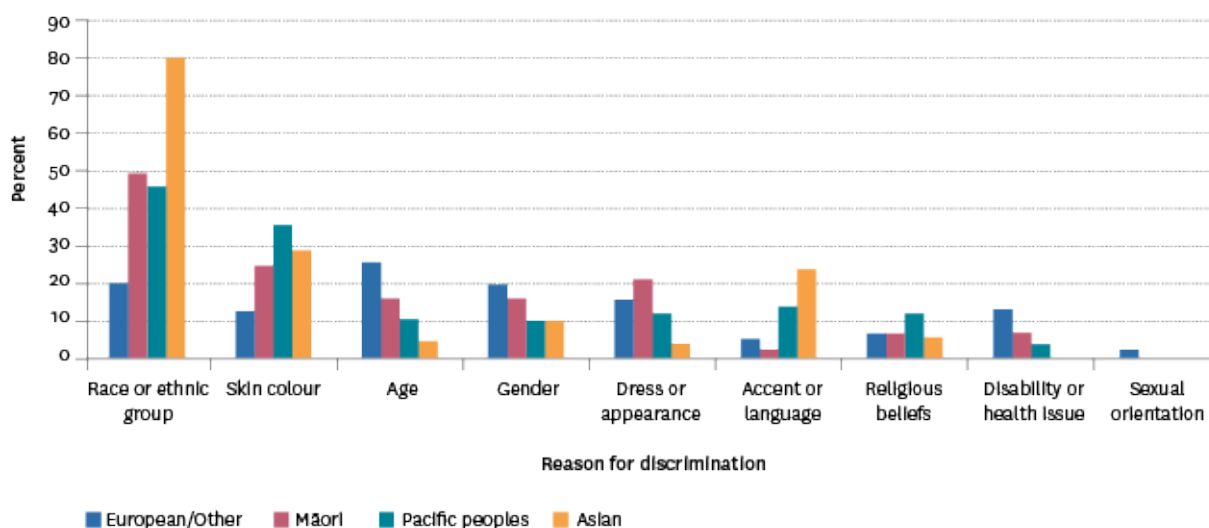
Source: Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand General Social Survey

Ethnic differences

Māori (25.8 percent) and people in the Asian ethnic group (26.6 percent) were more likely to report being discriminated against than Pacific peoples (19.9 percent) and European/Others (14.7 percent). Of those that had experienced discrimination, Pacific peoples were more likely than other ethnic groups to report being discriminated against in a public place or on the street (47.6 percent, compared with 38.7 percent of Māori, 38.0 percent of Asian people and 25.4 percent of those in the European/Other group).

Race or ethnic group was the most common reason given for discrimination by the Asian ethnic group (79.8 percent), Māori (49.0 percent) and Pacific peoples (45.5 percent), while age was the most common response from those in the European/Other group (25.4 percent).

Figure CP4.2 – Reasons given by those who had reported they had been discriminated against in the last 12 months, by ethnic group, 2014



Source: Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand General Social Survey

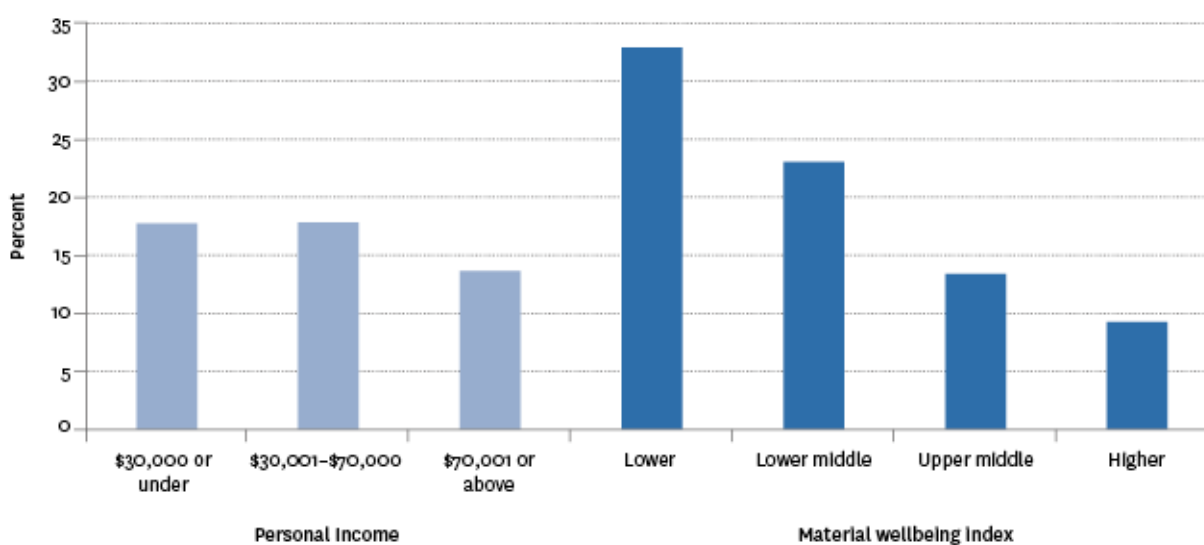
Note: The question allows multiple responses so totals do not add up to 100 percent.

Socio-economic differences

People with personal incomes of \$30,000 or less (17.7 percent) and incomes of between \$30,001 and \$70,000 (17.8 percent) were more likely than people with incomes of over \$70,000 (13.6 percent) to say they had been discriminated against.

A third (33.0 percent) of people who were in the lower material wellbeing index category reported being discriminated against, compared with just 9.2 percent of those in the higher material wellbeing index category and 13.4 percent of those in the upper middle material wellbeing index category. Those in the lower middle material wellbeing index category had a rate of 23.1 percent.

Figure CP4.3 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who reported they had been discriminated against in the last 12 months, by personal income and Material Wellbeing Index, 2014



Source: Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand General Social Survey

Labour force status differences

In 2014, unemployed people (33.8 percent) were more likely than employed people (17.5 percent) and those not in the labour force (14.0 percent) to report being discriminated against.

Family type differences

Those in sole-parent families (25.1 percent) were more than twice as likely to report being discriminated against as people living in a couple with no children (11.4 percent). The rate for people living in a couple with children family was 18.9 percent and the rate for those not in a family nucleus was 18.0 percent.

Migrant status differences

In 2014, people born in New Zealand (16.4 percent) reported similar levels of discrimination to longer-term migrants (19.0 percent) and migrants who arrived in New Zealand within the last five years (17.7 percent).

Regional differences

Northland had the highest rate of reported discrimination (25.1 percent), followed by Bay of Plenty and Manawatu-Wanganui (both 19.3 percent). Taranaki (11.4 percent) and Southland (11.5 percent) had the lowest rates.

International comparison

In the 2012 European Commission on discrimination in the European Union (EU), 17 percent of respondents reported personal experience of discrimination in the past year on one or more of the six grounds legally prohibited in the EU: gender, ethnic origin, religion or beliefs, age, disability, and sexual orientation. This is similar to New Zealand's rate of 17.1 percent. Europeans who belonged to a minority group were more likely than Europeans on average to report that they had personally experienced discrimination.

Data for this section can be found at: www.socialreport.msd.govt.nz/documents/2016/cp4.xlsx

Acceptance of diversity

Definition

The proportion of the population aged 15 years and over who reported that they would feel “very comfortable” or “comfortable” if they had a new neighbour who was a member of a selected range of minority groups.

Relevance

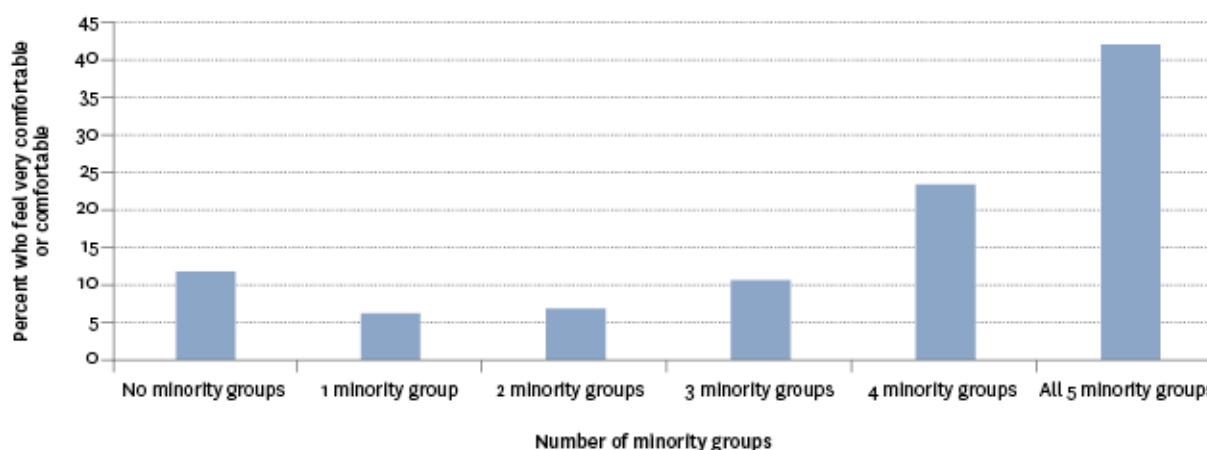
Diverse societies enrich many aspects of life but this advantage can be hindered through intolerance and the marginalisation of some groups and individuals. The inability of people to be accepted can impact on access to education, healthcare and employment, and successful participation in their community.

Current level and trends

Based on the revised question in the 2014 New Zealand General Social Survey (NZGSS), 42.1 percent of the population aged 15 years and over reported that they would feel very comfortable or comfortable with new neighbours from any one of the five selected minority groups listed in the NZGSS (a religious minority; gay, lesbian, bisexual or transgender (GLBT); a racial or ethnic minority; had a mental illness; or was a new migrant).⁴¹

A further 23.6 percent said they would feel very comfortable or comfortable with four out of the five minority groups of new neighbours; 10.4 said three out of the five groups; 6.2 percent said two out of the five groups; 5.8 percent said one out of the five groups; and 11.8 percent said that they would not feel comfortable with any of the five minority groups.

Figure CP5.1 – Level of comfort (very comfortable/comfortable) with having new neighbours from five selected minority groups, 2014



Source: Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand General Social Survey

When looking at the specific minority groups, people were equally very comfortable or comfortable with new neighbours who were new migrants (76.4 percent), from a religious minority (76.0 percent), GLBT (75.1 percent) or from a racial or ethnic minority (74.8 percent). People were less likely to say that they would feel comfortable or very comfortable with a new neighbour who had a mental illness (51.7 percent).

Table CP5.1 – Level of comfort towards a new neighbour from a selected minority group, 2014

Level of comfort	From a religious minority	Gay, lesbian, bisexual or transgender	Racial or ethnic minority	Mental illness	New migrant
Very comfortable	28.9	32.0	30.0	15.5	28.5
Comfortable	47.1	43.1	44.8	36.2	47.9
Neither comfortable nor uncomfortable	20.5	18.3	18.2	27.6	20.0
Uncomfortable	2.9	5.0	5.9	18.0	3.1
Very uncomfortable	0.5	1.6	1.1	2.7	0.4
Very comfortable/ comfortable	76.0	75.1	74.8	51.7	76.4

Source: Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand General Social Survey

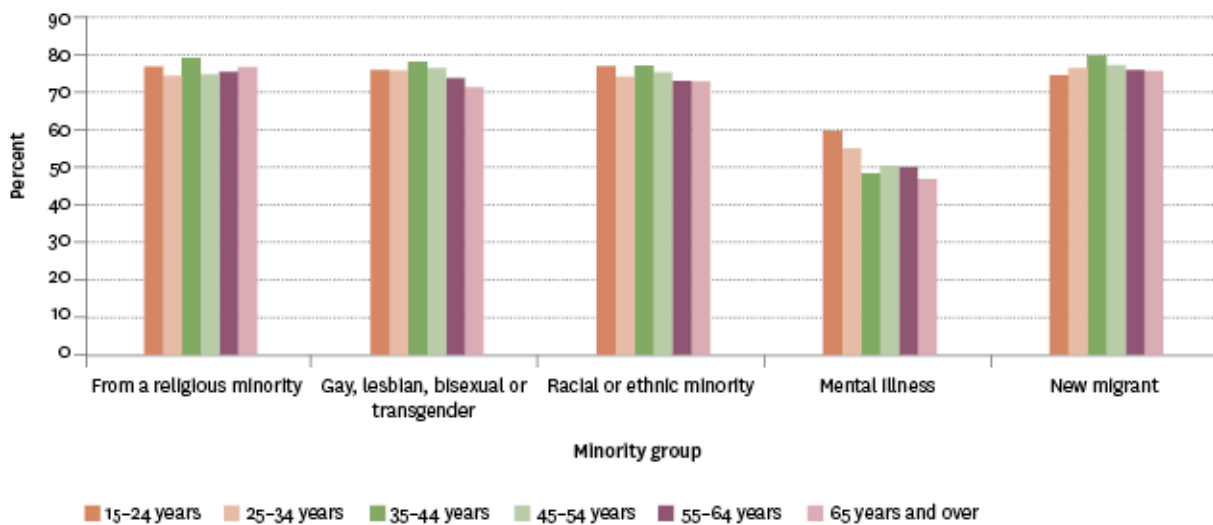
Age and sex differences

In 2014, younger people were more likely than older adults to say that they would feel very comfortable or comfortable with new neighbours from any of the selected minority groups. Nearly half (49.4 percent) of those aged 15–24 years said they would feel very comfortable or comfortable with all five groups, compared with 36.2 percent of those aged 65–74 years and 34.0 percent of those aged 75 years and over. The figures for those aged 25–64 years were between 40.1 percent and 44.7 percent.

Younger people (59.6 percent of those aged 15–24 years and 55.0 percent of those aged 25–34 years) were more likely than older age groups (between 45.5 percent and 50.3 percent of those aged 35 years and over) to say they would feel very comfortable or comfortable with a new neighbour who had a mental illness.

A similar proportion of males (43.0 percent) and females (41.3 percent) reported that they would feel very comfortable or comfortable with all five groups of new neighbours. Females (77.3 percent) were more likely than males (72.7 percent) to report that they would feel very comfortable or comfortable if they had a new neighbour who was GLBT. There were no other differences between the sexes across the other minority groups.

Figure CP5.2 – Proportion of population who said they would feel very comfortable or comfortable with a new neighbour from a selected minority group, by age group, 2014



Source: Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand General Social Survey

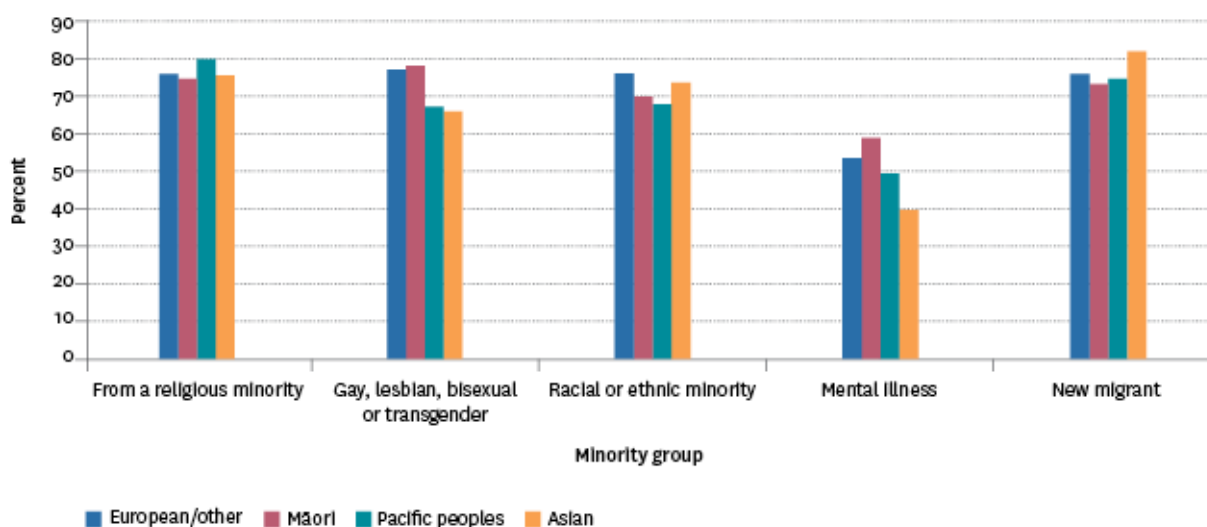
Ethnic differences

In 2014, Māori (45.7 percent) and those in the European/Other group (44.2 percent) were more likely than Pacific peoples (37.8 percent) and those in the Asian ethnic group (32.4 percent) to report that they would feel very comfortable or comfortable with all five groups of new neighbours.

Those in the European/Other group (77.1 percent) and Māori (77.9 percent) were more likely than other ethnic groups to say they would feel very comfortable or comfortable if they had a new neighbour who was GLBT. Those in the European/Other (76.3 percent) and Asian (73.6 percent) ethnic groups were more likely than other ethnic groups to say they would feel very comfortable or comfortable if they had a new neighbour who was from a racial or ethnic minority. The Asian ethnic group were the most likely of all ethnic groups to say they would feel very comfortable or comfortable if they had a new neighbour who was a new migrant (81.6 percent compared with 75.9 percent of European/Others, 74.7 percent of Pacific peoples and 73.3 percent of Māori).

Māori (59.2 percent) were more likely than other ethnic groups to say they would feel very comfortable or comfortable if they had a new neighbour who had a mental illness.

Figure CP5.3 – Proportion of population who said they would feel very comfortable or comfortable with a new neighbour from a selected minority group, by ethnic group, 2014



Source: Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand General Social Survey

Socio-economic differences

In 2014, people with personal incomes of over \$70,000 were more likely than those on lower incomes to say that they would feel very comfortable or comfortable if they had a new neighbour who was from a religious minority (79.4 percent), was GLBT (79.9 percent), was from a racial or ethnic minority (80.0 percent), or was a new migrant (81.4 percent). Proportions of those who felt very comfortable or comfortable with a new neighbour who had a mental illness were similar across the three income groups (51.9 percent of those earning over \$70,000, compared with 51.0 percent of those earning between \$30,001 and \$70,000, and 52.2 percent of those earning less than \$30,001).

When looking at material wellbeing, a similar pattern emerged; those who were in the higher and upper middle material wellbeing index categories were more likely than those in the lower middle and lower categories to say they would feel very comfortable or comfortable if they had a new neighbour from a religious minority (78.9 percent of people in the higher category and 76.1 percent of people in the upper middle category), who was GLBT (79.4 percent and 73.8 percent respectively), who was from a racial or ethnic minority (79.4 percent and 74.6 percent respectively) or who was a new migrant (80.7 percent and 75.6 percent respectively). Those in the higher material wellbeing category were more likely than the other categories to say they would feel very comfortable or comfortable with a new neighbour who had a mental illness (56.8 percent compared with around 49 percent for the other categories).

Labour force status differences

In 2014, people who were employed, unemployed or not in the labour force had similar levels of comfort towards new neighbours from selected minority groups. For example, 76.4 percent of employed people reported that they would feel very comfortable or comfortable with a new neighbour who was from a religious minority, while the proportions for those unemployed or not in the labour force were 74.2 percent and 75.4 percent respectively.

Family type differences

People living without children (either in couple family types or those not living in a family nucleus) were slightly more likely than people living with children to say they would feel very comfortable or comfortable if they had a new neighbour from a religious minority (77.4 percent of couples without children and 77.9 percent of people not in a family nucleus), who was GLBT (76.4 percent and 77.2 percent respectively), who was from a racial or ethnic minority (75.7 percent and 75.8 percent respectively), or who was a new migrant (77.3 percent and 77.1 percent respectively). All family types had similar levels of comfort towards a new neighbour who had a mental illness (between 50.5 percent and 52.8 percent said they would feel very comfortable or comfortable).

Migrant status differences

Migrants who arrived in New Zealand within the last five years (81.5 percent) were more likely than those who were born in New Zealand (75.2 percent) or who were longer-term migrants (77.4 percent) to say they would feel very comfortable or comfortable if they had a new neighbour from a religious minority. They were also more likely to say they would feel very comfortable or comfortable with a new neighbour who was also a new migrant (85.6 percent, compared with 74.1 percent of New Zealand-born people and 81.7 percent of long-term migrants). People born in New Zealand were more likely than those not born in New Zealand to say they would feel very comfortable or comfortable if they had a new neighbour who was GLBT (76.8 percent compared with 70.1 percent of long-term migrants and 74.1 percent of recent migrants).

Regional differences

In 2014, Tasman/Nelson/Marlborough/West Coast had the highest proportion of people reporting that they would feel very comfortable or comfortable with a new neighbour who was GLBT or from a racial or ethnic minority (both 79.6 percent). Manawatu-Wanganui had the lowest proportion of people reporting that they would feel comfortable with a new neighbour who was from a religious minority (68.5 percent), who was from a racial or ethnic minority (65.0 percent) or who was a new migrant (66.3 percent). Southland had the highest proportion of people reporting that they would feel very comfortable or comfortable with a new neighbour who had a mental illness (62.7 percent) or was a new migrant (82.2 percent).

Data for this section can be found at: www.socialreport.msd.govt.nz/documents/2016/cp5.xlsx

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.

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 (CPI) is a good proxy indicator of the values and norms that underpin public institutions, scoring countries on a scale of 0 (highly corrupt) to 100 (highly clean).

Current level and trends

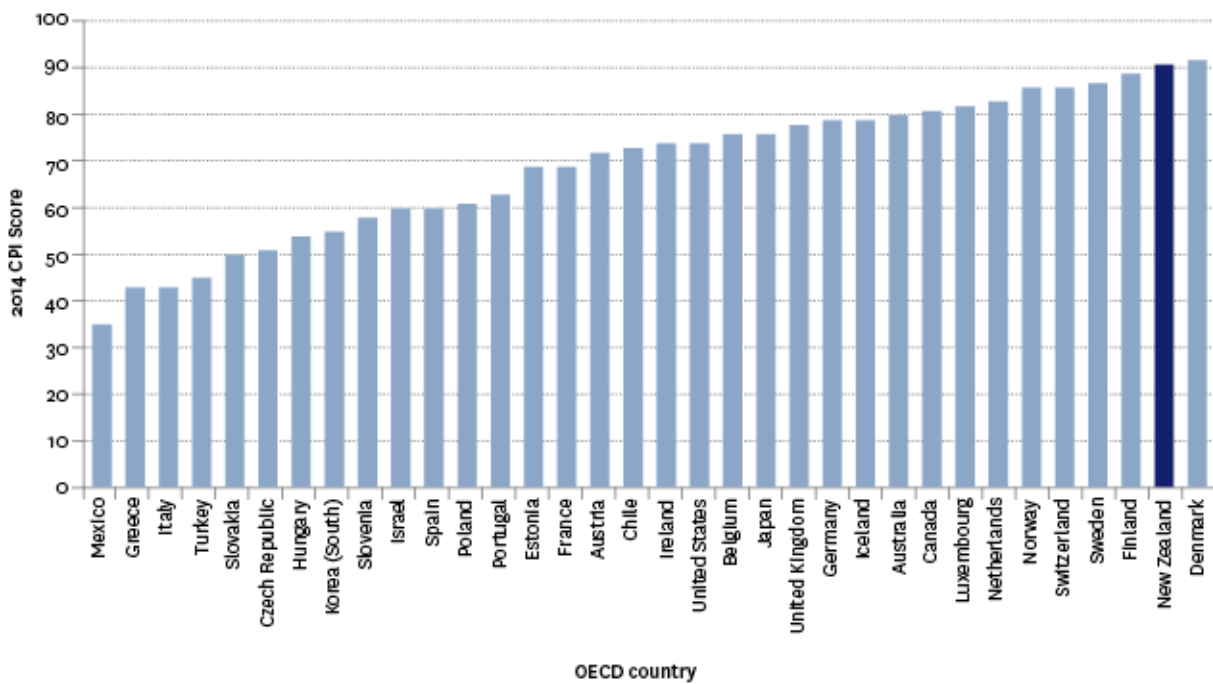
New Zealand's score in the CPI in 2014 was 91, the same as in 2013 and similar to 2012, when it was 90.
⁴²

International comparison

In the 2014 CPI, New Zealand ranked the second least corrupt nation out of 34 OECD countries. Denmark was ranked least corrupt with a score of 92, and Finland the third least corrupt with a score of 89.

New Zealand scored higher in the CPI than the other OECD countries including: Canada (9th least corrupt, with a score of 81), Australia (10th, 80), the United Kingdom (13th, 78) and the United States (16th equal, 74), and was well above the OECD median of 74.

Figure CP6.1 – Corruption Perceptions Index scores (0=highly corrupt, 100=highly clean), OECD countries, 2014



Source: Transparency International

Data for this section can be found at: www.socialreport.msd.govt.nz/documents/2016/cp6.xlsx

Cultural identity

Desired outcomes

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

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 statement recognises the importance of a shared national identity and sense of belonging, and the value of cultural, social and ethnic diversity. It recognises 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 history or in New Zealand 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 its 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. 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. Members of smaller cultural groups can feel excluded from society if others obstruct, or are intolerant of, their cultural practices.

Indicators

Four headline indicators are used in this report to provide a snapshot of the health of New Zealand's cultural identity. They are local content programming on New Zealand television; Māori language speakers; language retention; and the ability to be yourself in New Zealand.

The first indicator is the share of New Zealand content programming on free-to-air television. Since television is the dominant cultural medium for many New Zealanders, it has a strong influence on how New Zealanders see themselves.

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 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.

The final indicator measures people's ability to be themselves in New Zealand. This subjective indicator looks at the ease with which people feel they can express their own identity in New Zealand society.

Domain summary

Cultural Identity domain outcomes are generally declining.

The proportion of local content programming on New Zealand television broadcast during prime-time hours has remained stable over the last few years (*recent-change*), but has fallen since 2006 (*medium-term-change*).

The proportion of Māori who could speak te reo Māori dropped between 2001 and 2013, driven largely by a decline in Māori language speakers among the older age groups. Proportions of people who can speak the first language of their ethnic group (other than Māori) also appear to be declining since 2001, particularly for those in Pacific and European ethnic groups.

Most people found it very easy or easy to be themselves in New Zealand in 2014, though Pacific peoples, those in the Asian ethnic group, and those in lower socio-economic groups were less likely than others to say this.

Local content programming on New Zealand television

Definition

The proportion of local content on prime-time (6pm-10pm) television.

Relevance

Television is the dominant cultural medium for many New Zealanders. It is a major source of news, information and entertainment, and influences people's sense of local and national identity. A local content measure reflects the extent to which New Zealanders see their culture reflected through this medium.

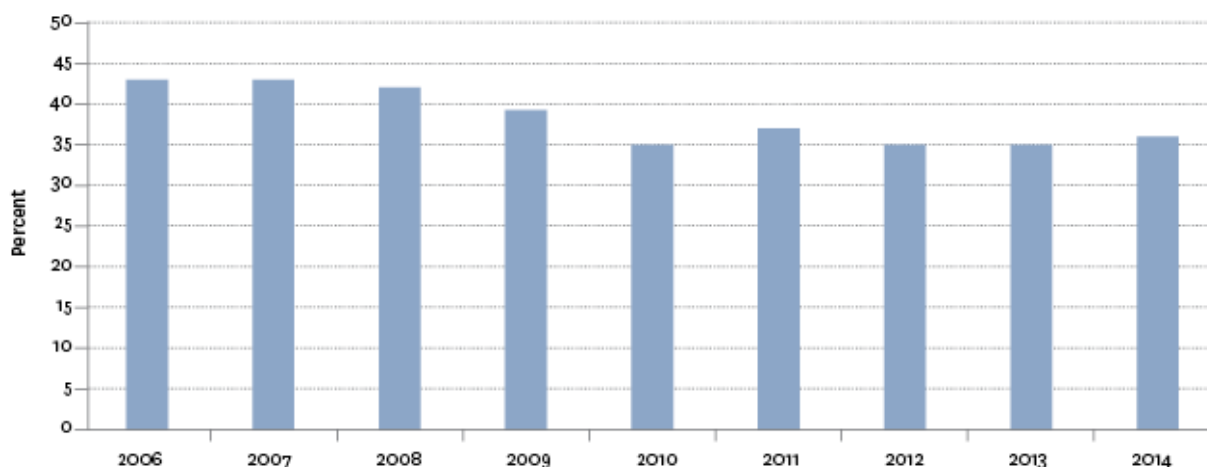
Current level and trends

In 2014, local content on the six main national free-to-air television channels⁴³ made up 36 percent of the prime-time schedule, up 1 percent from 2013, as reported by New Zealand On Air.

The proportion of local content on the main channels has shown a general decline over time, falling from 43 percent in 2006 to a low of 35 percent in 2010, 2012 and 2013. Over the last five years, the proportion of local content on prime-time television has remained steady.

Māori Television screened the most prime-time local content in 2014, with 80 percent of the channel's prime-time hours containing New Zealand programming. TV One and TV3 screened the next highest number of hours in prime-time with 53 percent and 48 percent respectively.

Figure CI1.1 – Proportion of local content on prime-time television, 2006–2014



Source: NZ On Air

Note: Figures are for prime-time (6pm-10pm) local content on TV One, TV2, TV3, Prime Television, Māori Television and FOUR.

Looking at trends by genre for local content between the hours of 6am and midnight, news and current affairs accounted for 32 percent of the total local content hours in 2014, followed by information programmes (26 percent) and sports (13 percent). This was similar to 2013, 2012 and 2011, but differed from previous years, when entertainment had a larger share of total hours of local content.

Table CI1.1 – Percentage share of total hours of local content, by programme type, 2006–2014

Programme type	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
News, current affairs	27	27	32	33	30	35	32	31	32
Information	15	18	15	15	20	18	23	26	26
Sports	17	16	15	14	15	16	16	12	13
Documentaries	6	6	6	6	6	7	7	9	8
Children's	8	8	9	9	8	9	7	8	8
Entertainment	17	15	16	14	12	7	6	7	7
Drama/Comedy	6	8	6	5	5	5	5	5	4
Māori	4	3	2	3	3	3	3	2	2
Total New Zealand content hours	10,255	10,784	11,600	11,418	10,881	11,219	12,051	12,145	12,537

Source: NZ On Air

Notes: Figures are for local content on TV One, TV2, TV3, Prime Television, Māori Television and FOUR. Hours are measured over 18 hours (6am – Midnight). For definitions of programme types (genre classifications), see NZ On Air (2014), Appendix 1, p31.

Data for this section can be found at: www.socialreport.msd.govt.nz/documents/2016/ci1.xlsx

Māori language speakers

Definition

The proportion of the population who identify as Māori and who could hold a conversation about everyday things in the Māori language (te reo Māori).⁴⁴

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

In the 2013 Census, 21.3 percent of all Māori reported that they could hold a conversation in Māori about everyday things. This was a decrease from 23.7 percent in 2006 and 25.2 percent in 2001. Of the 148,400 people (or 3.7 percent of the total New Zealand population) who could hold a conversation in Māori in 2013, 84.5 percent identified as Māori.

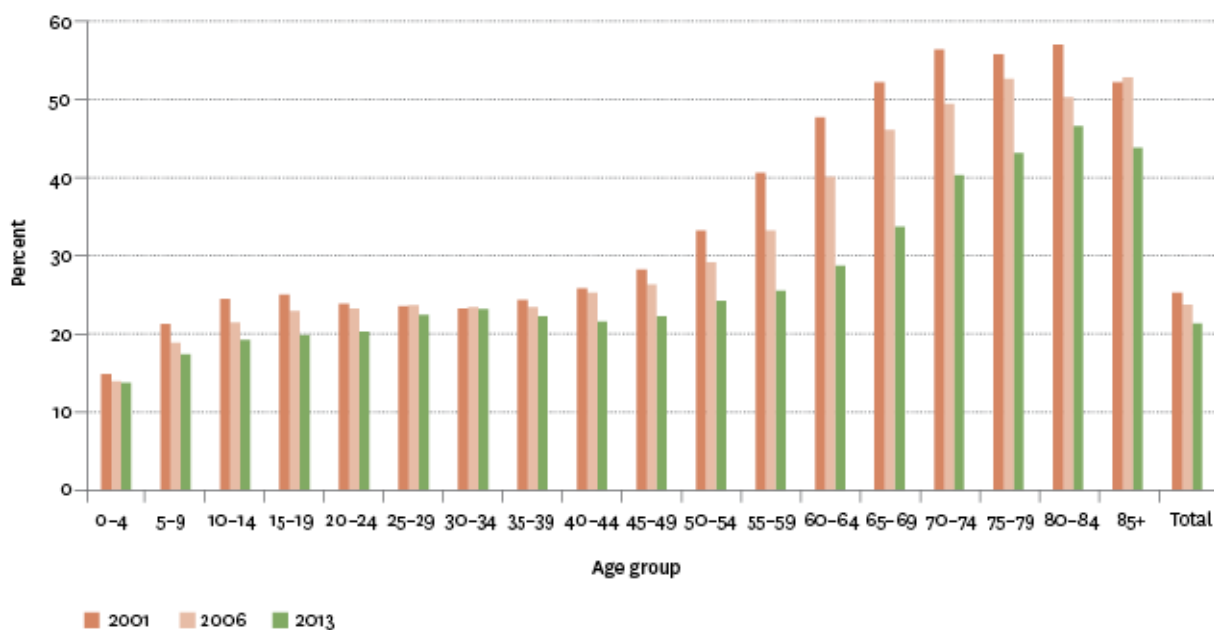
The proportion of Māori language speakers declined markedly over the last century, particularly following the rapid urbanisation of the Māori population in the 1950s and 1960s. It was not until the 1980s that major Māori language recovery initiatives began.⁴⁵

In the 1996 Census, one quarter of Māori said they could hold a conversation in Māori, and it remained at that level in 2001. Although there were around 1,100 more Māori who could hold a conversation about everyday things in Māori in 2006 than in the previous Census, the Māori population had grown by a greater number and so the proportion of Māori who could speak conversational Māori declined, from 25.2 percent to 23.7 percent. However, at the 2013 Census, the number of Māori who said they could hold a conversation in Māori had declined by 6,200 from 2006, further lowering the proportion of Māori who could speak conversational Māori to 21.3 percent.

In the Te Kupenga 2013 Survey, an estimated 257,500 (55 percent) of Māori adults reported they could speak more than a few words or phrases in te reo Māori.⁴⁶ Overall, 50,000 adults (11 percent) could speak te reo Māori very well or well, 12 percent could speak fairly well, and 32 percent could talk about simple/basic things in te reo. The remaining 45 percent could speak no more than a few words or phrases. Māori who were able to speak te reo Māori very well, well, or fairly well were more likely to use the language outside the home than inside. There is a strong relationship between te reo Māori and other aspects of culture: Māori with te reo Māori as their first language (learnt from childhood), who knew all aspects of their pepeha (Māori tribal identity), and who felt it was very important to be involved in Māori culture were more likely to speak te reo Māori very well or well.

While the census provides a consistent time series on the number of people who report they can have a conversation about everyday things in Māori, the Te Kupenga 2013 Survey provides more detailed information on the use and proficiency of the Māori language both inside and outside New Zealand homes. The Te Kupenga 2013 Survey measured a sample of the population who identified ethnically as Māori and/or as being of Māori descent. The two sources are therefore not comparable.⁴⁷

Figure C12.1 – Proportion of Māori speakers in the Māori population, by age group, 2001–2013



Source: Statistics New Zealand, Census of Population and Dwellings

Sex differences

Māori females were slightly more likely than Māori males to be able to converse in Māori. However, this difference varied with age. From age 45 years onwards, males were more likely than females to be able to speak conversational Māori. For those younger than 35 years, a higher proportion of females than males could hold a conversation in Māori.

Age differences

Older Māori are more likely than younger Māori to be able to converse about everyday things in Māori. In the 2013 Census, 36.5 percent of Māori aged 65–74 years and 44.2 percent of Māori aged 75 years and over reported they could hold a conversation about everyday things in Māori, compared with 20.0 percent of Māori aged 15–24 years and 16.7 percent of Māori children aged under 15 years. However, the decline in people who could speak conversational Māori between 2001 and 2013 was most pronounced among the older age groups.

Table CI2.1 – Proportion of Māori speakers in the Māori population, by age group and sex, 2001–2013

	Under 15	15–24	25–34	35–44	45–54	55–64	65–74	75+	Total
Male									
2001	18.9	22.9	23.6	25.5	31.7	45.3	55.3	55.1	24.6
2006	17.2	21.5	23.0	24.5	28.0	37.8	48.8	52.4	23.1
2013	15.9	18.7	20.9	21.3	23.4	27.5	38.2	44.3	20.4
Female									
2001	21.2	26.0	23.1	24.5	29.2	42.5	52.5	55.9	25.7
2006	18.9	24.5	23.9	24.1	27.1	34.3	46.2	51.8	24.4
2013	17.5	21.2	24.2	22.3	23.0	26.4	34.9	44.2	22.1
Total									
2001	20.0	24.5	23.3	25.0	30.4	43.8	53.9	55.6	25.2
2006	18.1	23.0	23.5	24.3	27.5	36.0	47.4	52.0	23.7
2013	16.7	20.0	22.7	21.8	23.2	26.9	36.5	44.2	21.3

Source: Statistics New Zealand, Census of Population and Dwellings

Regional differences

Māori who live in areas with a higher proportion of Māori residents were most likely to be able to hold an everyday conversation in the Māori language. In 2013, the regions with the highest proportions of people with conversational Māori skills were Gisborne (30.4 percent), Bay of Plenty (28.6 percent) and Northland (26.2 percent).

Data for this section can be found at: www.socialreport.msd.govt.nz/documents/2016/ci2.xlsx

Language retention

Definition

The proportion of the population who could speak the “first language” of their ethnic group, for ethnic groups (other than Māori) with an established resident population in New Zealand.

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.

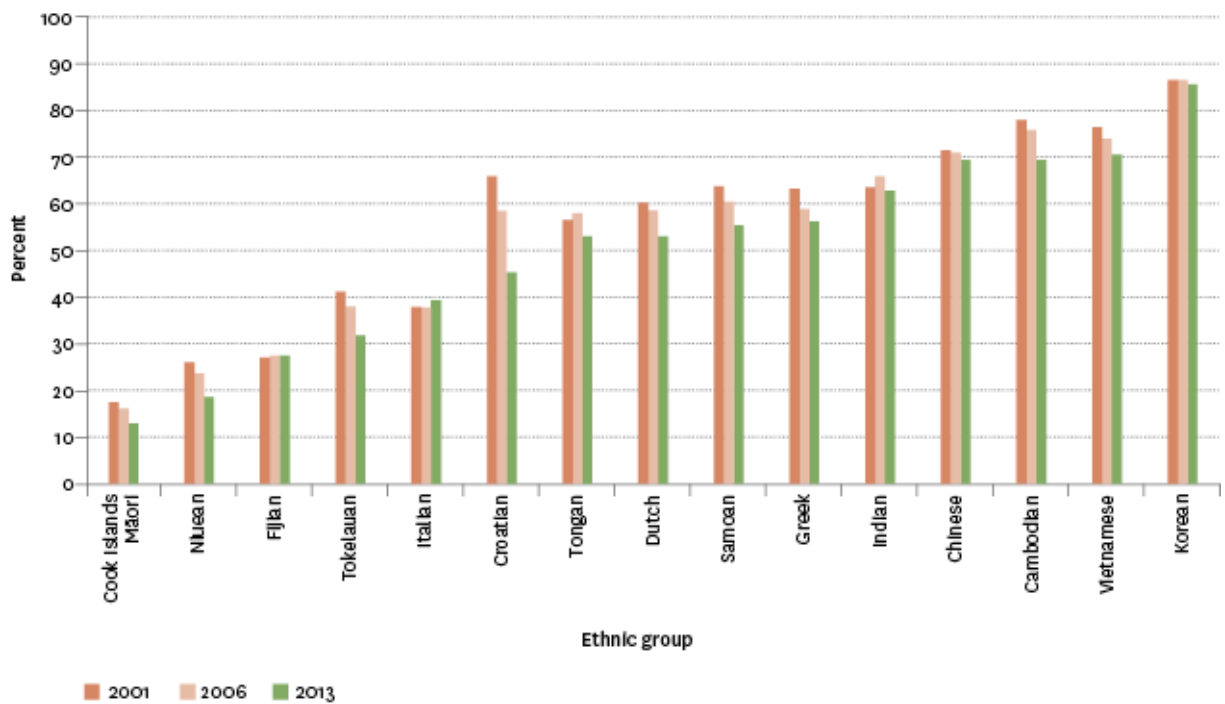
The ability to speak a first language is defined as being able to hold an everyday conversation in that language. First language refers to at least one first language associated with a given ethnicity, as opposed to the first language of a person. Sign language, English and Māori are not treated as a first language for the purpose of the indicator.

Current level and trends

In the 2013 Census, the proportion of people who could hold an everyday conversation in the first language of their ethnic group varied widely between ethnic groups, from 13.0 percent of Cook Islands Māori to 85.9 percent of Koreans.

Between 2001 and 2013, a number of ethnic groups experienced changes in the proportion of people who could speak their first language. There were decreases in the proportion of people who could speak the first language of their ethnic group among all Pacific ethnic groups except Fijian. Among the European ethnic groups, those of Croatian ethnicity experienced the largest decrease in the proportion of people who could speak their language. Asian ethnic groups, and particularly Chinese and Korean, were more likely to speak their first language, with little change in proportions over time. Small numbers for some ethnic groups and changing population sizes may impact on changes over time.

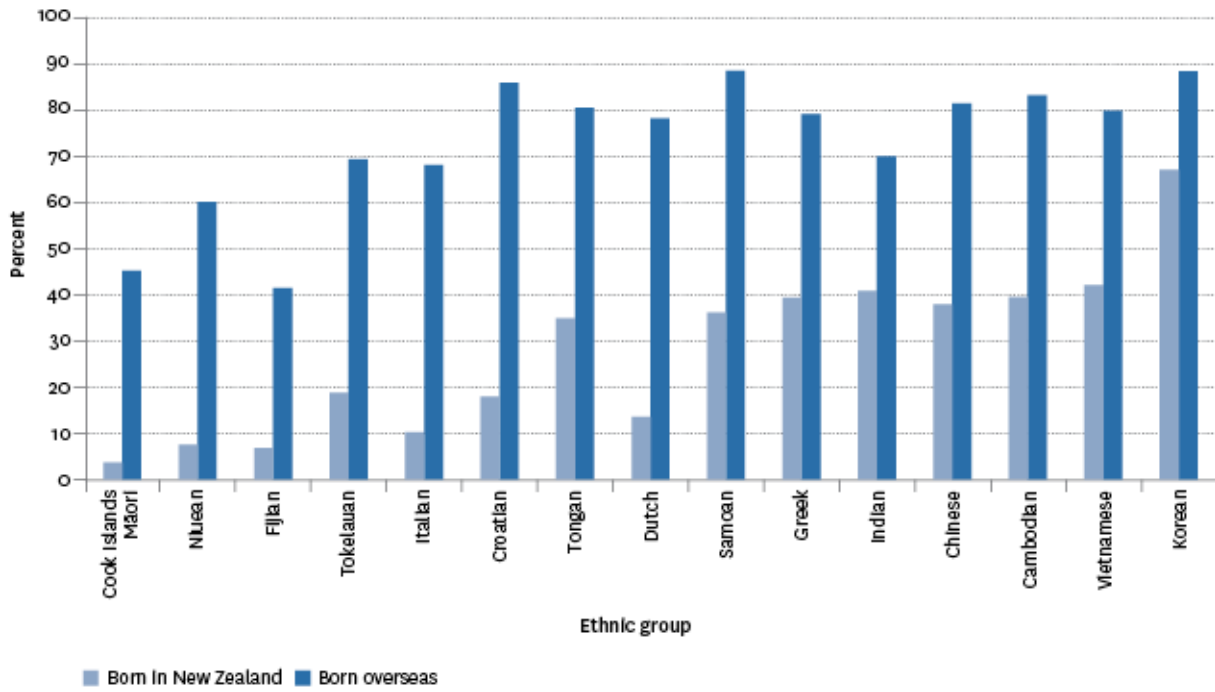
Figure C13.1 – Proportion of people who could speak the first language of their ethnic group, 2001–2013



Source: Statistics New Zealand, Census of Population and Dwellings

For all selected 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 C13.2 – Proportion of people who could speak the first language of their ethnic group, by birthplace, 2013



Source: Statistics New Zealand, Census of Population and Dwellings

Age and sex differences

In all selected 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, 2013

	Under 15	15-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	65-74	75+	Male	Female	Total
Pacific											
Samoaan	35.7	52.0	63.9	68.8	74.8	85.4	90.6	92.6	54.9	56.3	55.6
Cook Islands Māori	3.2	6.6	12.1	16.9	27.3	40.4	56.0	64.8	12.3	13.5	13.0
Tongan	35.5	50.9	64.4	68.5	77.1	76.8	83.8	85.2	52.9	53.5	53.2
Niuean	4.9	9.0	18.9	27.8	40.1	51.1	64.3	75.8	17.4	19.8	18.7
Tokelauan	14.6	23.2	38.2	44.3	64.0	70.9	77.8	76.7	30.4	33.3	31.9
Fijian	13.2	25.2	29.6	37.7	39.1	42.2	43.0	49.3	28.2	27.1	27.7
Asian											
Chinese	44.0	64.5	73.3	75.1	79.3	84.9	86.1	88.7	67.5	71.5	69.6
Indian	44.3	57.2	66.3	70.6	71.6	76.5	81.2	80.9	61.0	65.0	63.0
Cambodian	40.7	64.8	76.1	82.0	89.9	91.3	90.7	85.5	67.1	72.2	69.8
Vietnamese	46.8	68.2	74.1	79.4	87.7	87.7	85.1	93.1	68.6	72.6	70.8
Korean	74.2	85.7	84.6	88.4	92.2	91.6	94.2	94.7	84.6	87.0	85.9
European											
Dutch	15.0	21.2	38.8	61.4	64.6	72.5	80.8	78.7	52.7	53.7	53.3
Greek	20.3	27.2	42.2	67.3	76.2	81.2	88.3	93.1	56.8	56.3	56.4
Croatian	7.4	27.6	40.8	49.6	58.6	67.9	76.4	76.9	47.8	43.4	45.4
Italian	17.3	16.9	47.6	45.8	55.9	60.3	67.7	78.5	41.0	37.4	39.4

Source: Statistics New Zealand, Census of Population and Dwellings

Data for this section can be found at: www.socialreport.msd.govt.nz/documents/2016/ci3.xlsx

Ability to be yourself in New Zealand

Definition

The proportion of the population aged 15 years and over who felt it was “very easy” or “easy” to be themselves in New Zealand.

Relevance

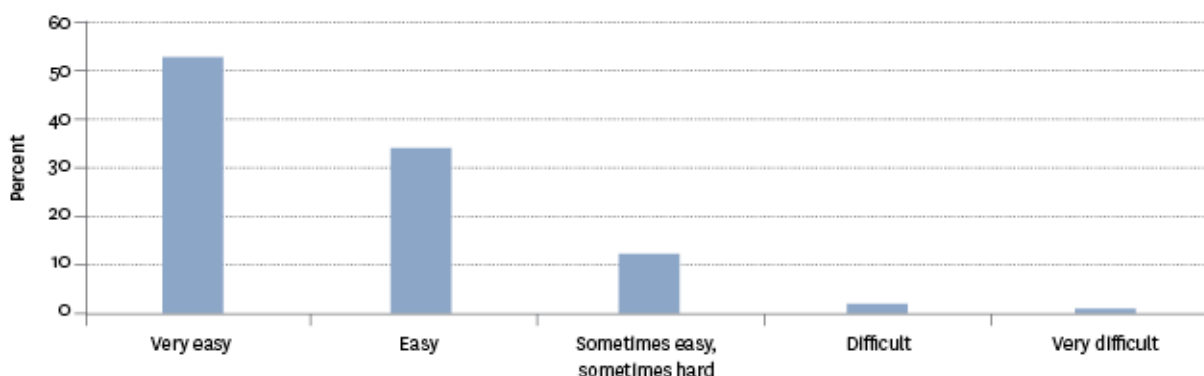
People have different lifestyles, cultures and ways of expressing their identity. Being able to express who they are is important for people’s sense of self and overall wellbeing. A society which is inclusive of differences is desirable as it enables members to participate fully in life, and gives them a sense of belonging and security.

Current level

Based on the revised question in the 2014 New Zealand General Survey (NZGSS), 86.3 percent of the population aged 15 years and over reported that it was very easy or easy to be themselves in New Zealand.⁴⁸

A further 11.8 percent said it was sometimes easy and sometimes difficult to be themselves in New Zealand, while 1.9 percent said it was difficult or very difficult to be themselves in New Zealand.

Figure C14.1 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over by how easy or difficult it was to be themselves in New Zealand, 2014



Source: Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand General Social Survey

Age and sex differences

In 2014, older people were more likely than younger people to say they felt it was very easy or easy to be themselves in New Zealand (91.9 percent of 65–74 year olds and 90.0 percent of those aged 75 years and over, compared with 83.8 percent of 25–34 year olds, 84.3 percent of 35–44 year olds and 84.8 percent of 45–54 year olds). The proportions for 15–24 year olds and 55–64 year olds were 86.2 percent and 87.4 percent respectively.

Males and females expressed similar feelings about being themselves in New Zealand (87.4 percent of males felt it was very easy or easy to be themselves, compared with 85.2 percent of females).

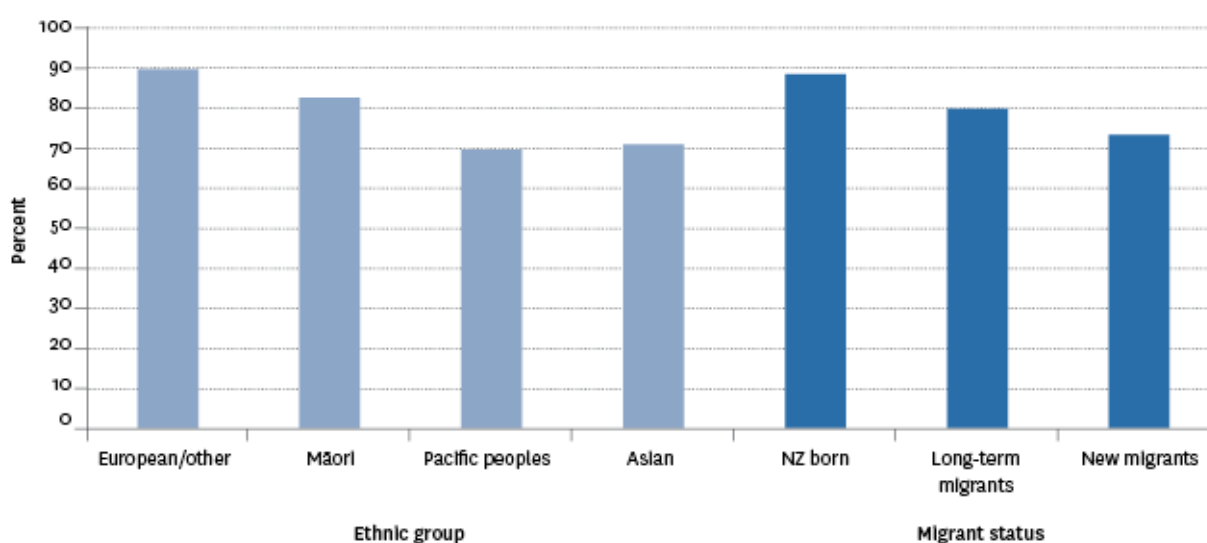
Ethnic differences

Those in the European/Other group (90.3 percent) were more likely than Pacific peoples (70.0 percent) and people in the Asian ethnic group (71.3 percent) to say they felt it was very easy or easy to be themselves in New Zealand. The rate for Māori was 83.1 percent.

Migrant status differences

In 2014, New Zealand-born people (89.0 percent) were more likely to say they felt it was very easy or easy to be themselves in New Zealand, compared with longer-term migrants (80.3 percent) and migrants who had arrived in New Zealand within the last five years (73.7 percent).

Figure C14.2 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who felt it was very easy or easy to be themselves in New Zealand, by ethnic group and migrant status, 2014



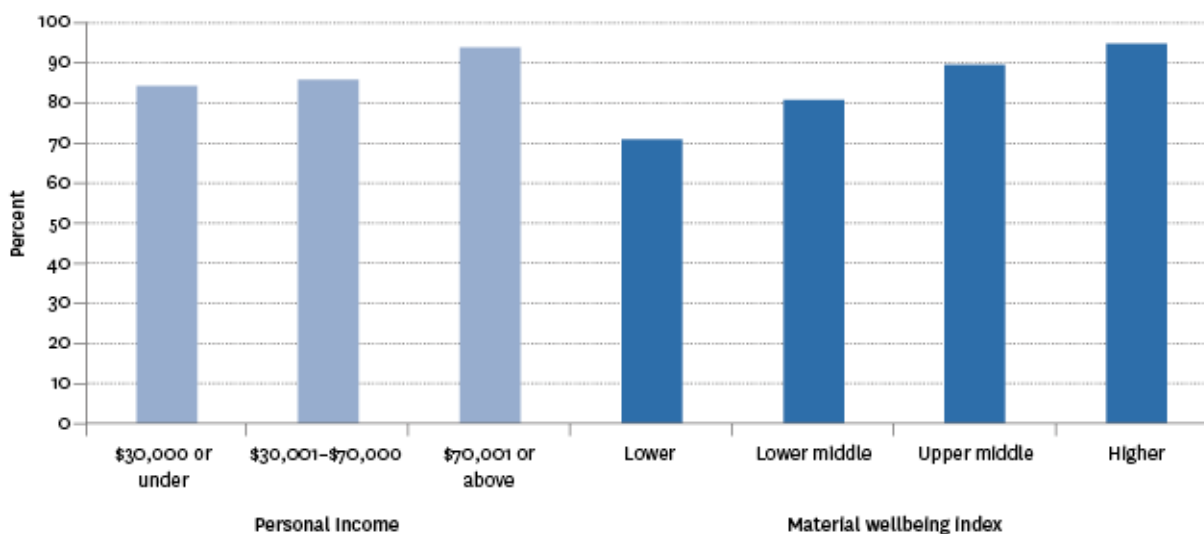
Source: Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand General Social Survey

Socio-economic differences

In 2014, people with higher personal incomes were more likely than people with lower incomes to feel it was very easy or easy to be themselves in New Zealand (93.7 percent of those with incomes over \$70,000, compared with 84.3 percent for those with incomes under \$30,001). The rate for those with personal incomes between \$30,000 and \$70,000 was 85.8 percent.

People in the higher (94.6 percent) and upper middle (89.5 percent) material wellbeing index categories were more likely than people in the lower middle (80.6 percent) and lower (70.9 percent) material wellbeing index categories to say that they felt it was very easy or easy to be themselves in New Zealand.

Figure C14.3 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who felt it was very easy or easy to be themselves in New Zealand, by personal income and Material Wellbeing Index, 2014



Source: Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand General Social Survey

Labour force status differences

Employed people (87.4 percent) and those not in the labour force (85.1 percent) were more likely than unemployed people (76.2 percent) to feel it was very easy or easy to be themselves in New Zealand.

Family type differences

The proportion of people living in a couple without children who felt it was easy or very easy to be themselves in New Zealand was 89.7 percent. The proportions for people living in a couple with children, those not in a family nucleus and sole-parent families were 85.7 percent, 84.6 percent and 81.6 percent respectively.

Regional differences

People in Taranaki (90.2 percent) and Waikato (89.4 percent) had the highest proportions of people who felt it was very easy or easy to be themselves in New Zealand. People living in Auckland (85.3 percent) and Bay of Plenty (86.6 percent) had the lowest proportions agreeing with this.

Data for this section can be found at: www.socialreport.msd.govt.nz/documents/2016/ci4.xlsx

Leisure and recreation

Desired outcomes

Everybody has access and sufficient time to participate in leisure and recreation activities to their satisfaction.

Introduction

Leisure and recreation (“free time”) 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 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 that may not be met in people’s non-leisure time.

For many people, participation in leisure and recreation improves their physical and mental health. Participation in leisure and recreation activities can also have social benefits by creating opportunities for socialisation and networking with others. It can also contribute to family bonding when families do things together in their leisure time.

Indicators

Two headline indicators are used in this chapter. They are: satisfaction with leisure time, 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 or “free time”. This measures how people feel about both the quantity and quality of free time available to them.

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

Domain summary

Overall, the Leisure and Recreation domain indicators show a mixture of improvement and stability.

The proportion of people who report having the right amount of free time has stayed steady in terms of *recent-change* and *medium-term-change*.

However, recently more people are attending and actively participating in arts and cultural activities. For *medium-term-change*, attendance at arts and cultural activities has remained stable while active participation has increased substantially.

Satisfaction with leisure time

Definition

The proportion of the population aged 15 years and over who reported having the “right amount” of free time in the last four weeks.

Relevance

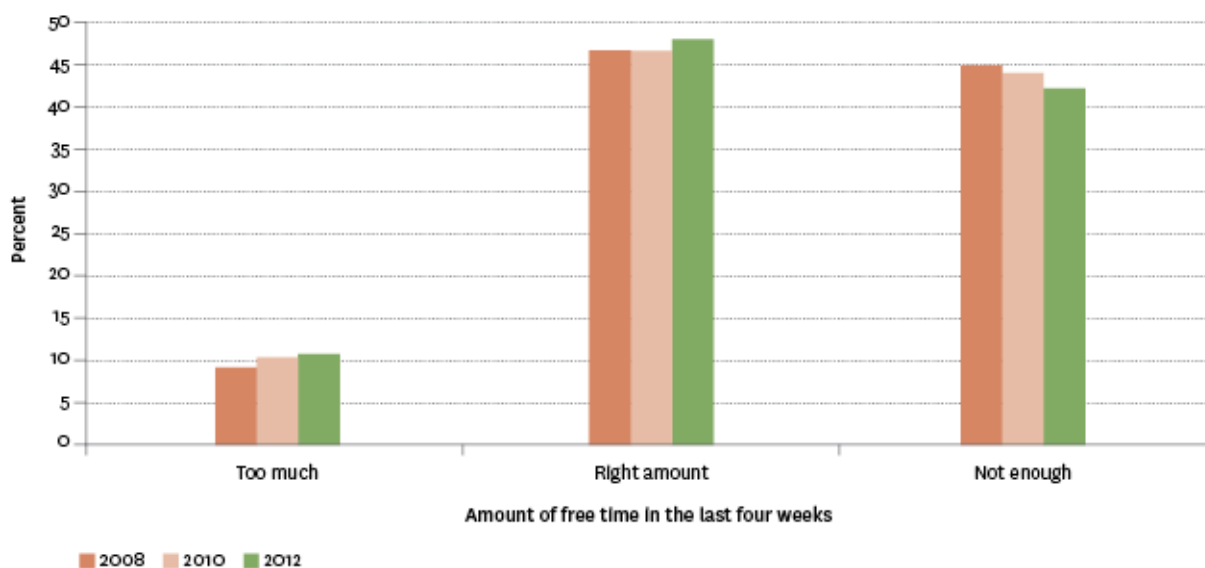
Leisure or free time is a crucial component of a balanced and healthy lifestyle. It is a time when people can do what they want to, separate from work and other commitments. Free time is defined as time where people have nothing to do, and does not include things like housework and childcare.

Current level and trends

In 2012, 47.6 percent of the population aged 15 years and over reported having the right amount of free time in the last four weeks, as measured by the New Zealand General Social Survey (NZGSS). One in ten (10.7 percent) felt that they had too much free time, while 41.8 percent felt that they did not have enough free time.

The proportion of people having the right amount of free time remained relatively constant between 2008 (46.3 percent) and 2012 (47.6 percent).⁴⁹

Figure L1.1 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over, by views on amount of free time in the last four weeks, 2008–2012



Source: Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand General Social Survey

In 2012, around half of people (51.3 percent) had free time activities or interests that they would like to have done but couldn't, while 63.3 percent had free time activities and interests they would like to do more of.

Being too busy with their jobs (46.3 percent) or their families (34.6 percent), and cost (36.9 percent) were the key reasons why people couldn't do all the activities or interests they wanted to do in their free time.

Age and sex differences

In 2012, males and females were equally likely to feel that they had the right amount of free time in the last four weeks (47.6 percent for males and 47.5 percent for females). A similar result was found in previous years.

Unsurprisingly, people in the older age groups were most likely to feel they had the right amount of free time in the last four weeks (67.7 percent for those aged 65 years and over). Those aged 35–44 years had the lowest proportion of people who felt they had the right amount of free time (34.9 percent in 2012).

These results are similar to previous years.

Table L1.1 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who reported having the right amount of free time in the last four weeks, by sex and age group, 2008 –2012

	15–24	25–34	35–44	45–54	55–64	65+
2008						
Male	51.7	37.2	37.1	40.1	47.3	69.2
Female	48.4	34.0	34.5	39.1	53.1	71.7
Total	50.1	35.5	35.7	39.6	50.2	70.5
2010						
Male	45.4	40.9	34.5	39.3	48.3	65.2
Female	49.6	39.5	32.6	39.8	52.5	72.2
Total	47.5	40.2	33.5	39.5	50.5	68.9
2012						
Male	50.6	45.5	33.8	40.7	48.6	67.1
Female	49.5	39.0	35.8	43.4	49.0	68.2
Total	50.1	42.2	34.9	42.1	48.8	67.7

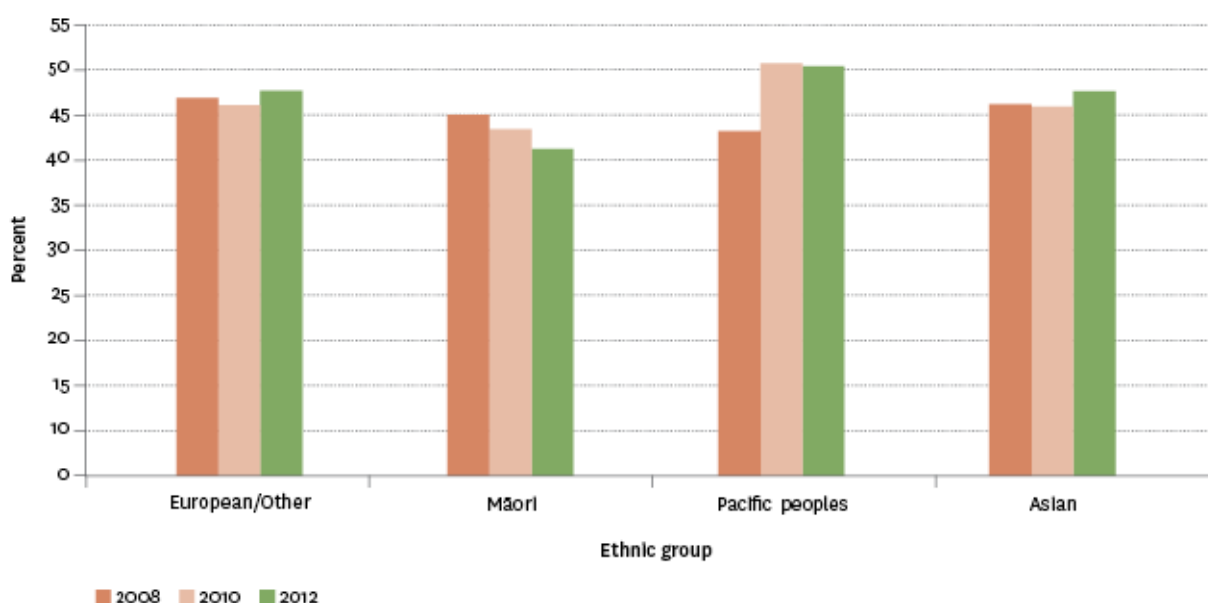
Source: Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand General Social Survey

Ethnic differences

In 2012, Pacific peoples were most likely to report they had the right amount of free time (50.7 percent) in the last four weeks, while Māori were least likely (40.5 percent). Māori, on the other hand, had the highest proportion of people saying that they had too much free time (17.4 percent, compared with 9.8 percent for European/Others).

In general, the proportion of people who reported having the right amount of free time increased slightly over time for all ethnic groups, with the exception of Māori which has shown a steady decrease. Pacific peoples had a slight decrease in 2012.

Figure L1.2 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who reported having the right amount of free time in the last four weeks, by ethnic group, 2008 –2012



Source: Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand General Social Survey

Socio-economic differences

In 2012, people with a personal income of \$30,000 or less (52.7 percent) were more likely to report having the right amount of free time in the last four weeks, compared with other income groups (42.7 percent of those with incomes between \$30,001 and \$70,000 and 41.6 percent of those with incomes of \$70,001 and over).

The proportion of people reporting they had the right amount of free time increased as their material wellbeing increased. In 2012, 53.7 percent of people in the higher material wellbeing index category reported having the right amount of free time, compared with 38.6 percent of people in the lower material wellbeing index category. The proportion of people in the lower middle and upper middle categories were 40.1 percent and 47.6 percent respectively.

Labour force status differences

In 2012, those not in the labour force (eg retired, studying, caring for others) were more likely to report having the right amount of free time in the last four weeks (57.1 percent, compared with 43.5 percent of employed people and 42.4 percent of unemployed people).

Family type differences

People without children were more likely to say they have the right amount of free time. In 2012, over half of people living in a couple without children (54.4 percent) and people not in a family nucleus (54.3 percent) had the right amount of free time, compared with 40.7 percent of people living in a couple with children and 43.7 percent of sole-parent families.

Migrant status differences

Similar levels of satisfaction with leisure time were found by migrant status. In 2012, 50.9 percent of recent migrants who arrived in New Zealand within the last five years had the right amount of free time, compared with 47.4 percent of longer-term migrants and 47.3 percent of people born in New Zealand.

Regional differences

In 2012, Auckland and Southland had the highest proportions of people who said they had the right amount of free time in the last four weeks (50.2 percent each). Northland (41.5 percent) and Waikato (43.5 percent) had the lowest proportions.

Data for this section can be found at: www.socialreport.msd.govt.nz/documents/2016/l1.xlsx

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 in the previous 12 months.

The proportion of the population aged 15 years and over who had actively participated in the arts in the previous 12 months.

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. Participation in arts and cultural activities can also help people balance the stress of work and life, build capital and community identity, and contribute to social wellbeing.

Current level and trends

Attendance

In 2014, as measured by the New Zealanders and the Arts Survey, 85 percent of the population aged 15 years and over had attended at least one arts event, with 37 percent attending more than 10 events in the previous 12 months.

The most common arts and cultural activities attended were performing arts (ie theatre, dance and music, ballet or contemporary dance performances, live theatre, concerts, musical performances or circuses), with 65 percent of the population attending at least one event in the past 12 months.

Visual arts⁵⁰ (ie attending art galleries, exhibitions, online galleries or film festivals about sculpture and painting, print-making, typography, photography and film-making) was the next most common activity, with 54 percent of the population attending one or more events in the previous 12 months. Just under one-third of the population had attended cultural performances, festivals, exhibitions or celebrations by Māori people or groups (31 percent), or cultural performances, festivals, exhibitions or celebrations by Pacific peoples or groups (28 percent).

Active participation

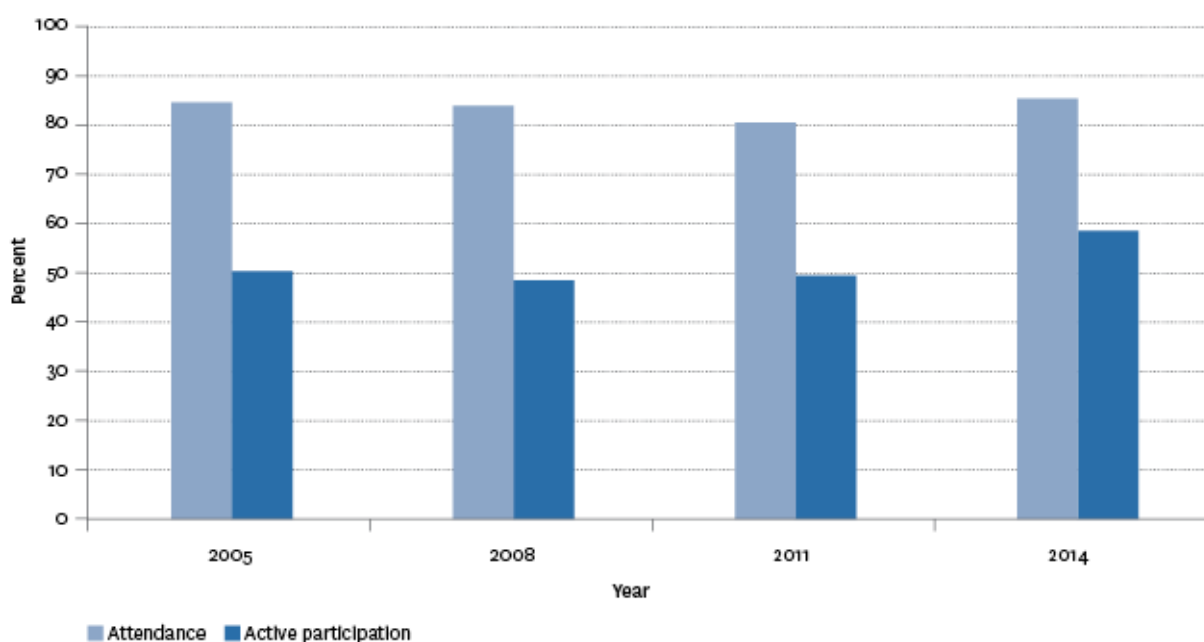
In 2014, six in ten people (58 percent) had actively participated in the arts in the previous 12 months, with 34 percent having participated more than 12 times in the previous 12 months.

Visual arts (31 percent) was the most common activity people participated in, along with craft and object arts (ie ceramics, furniture, glass, jewellery, embroidery, quilting, pottery, woodcraft, spinning and weaving, and textiles) (27 percent).

One in five (20 percent) actively participated in performing arts, 15 percent participated in Ngā toi Māori, and 9 percent participated in Pacific arts.

The 2014 results for attendance and active participation were higher than 2011 (with attendance up 5 percentage points and active participation up 9 percentage points).

Figure L2.1 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who had attended at least one arts event or actively participated in the arts in the previous 12 months, 2005–2014

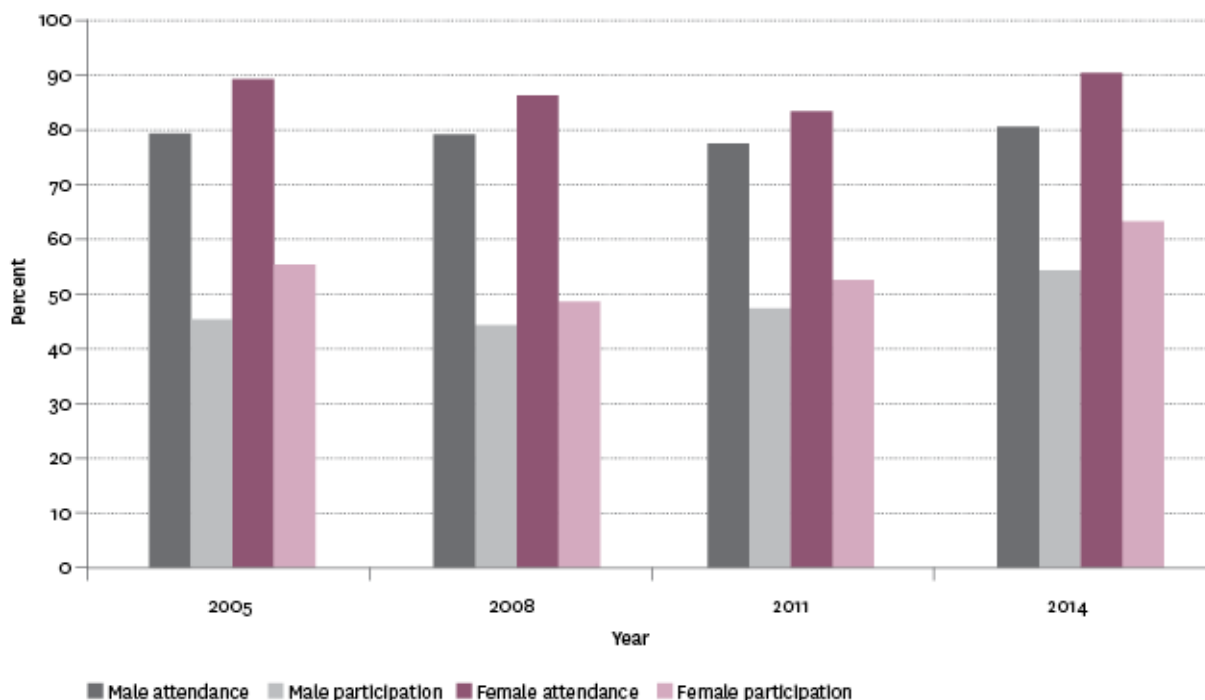


Source: Creative New Zealand

Age and sex differences

Females were more likely than males to attend and actively participate in arts events. This pattern was found across the four survey periods. Attendance at arts events for both sexes remained relatively stable from 2005 to 2011, but rose for females between 2011 and 2014 (from 83 percent to 90 percent). Active participation in the arts for both sexes has been rising since 2008.

Figure L2.2 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who had attended at least one arts event or actively participated in the arts in the previous 12 months, by sex, 2005–2014



Source: Creative New Zealand

In general, attendance and active participation in art events in the previous 12 months decreased as age increased. In 2014, 90 percent of those aged 30–39 years attended at least one arts event, compared with 80 percent of those aged 70 years and over.

A larger age difference was found for active participation in the arts, with 71 percent of those aged 15–29 years old participating, compared with 48 percent of those aged 70 years and over. Similar results were found over the other survey periods.

Table L2.1 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who had attended at least one arts event or actively participated in the arts in the previous 12 months, by age group, 2005–2014

	15–29	30–39	40–49	50–59	60–69	70+
2005						
Attendance	85	90	83	83	79	79
Participation	64	49	47	48	42	35
2008						
Attendance	84	84	88	81	78	74
Participation	61	51	45	45	39	35
2011						
Attendance	85	84	75	78	77	77
Participation	66	52	38	45	44	38
2014						
Attendance	86	90	82	88	84	80
Participation	71	60	54	55	53	48

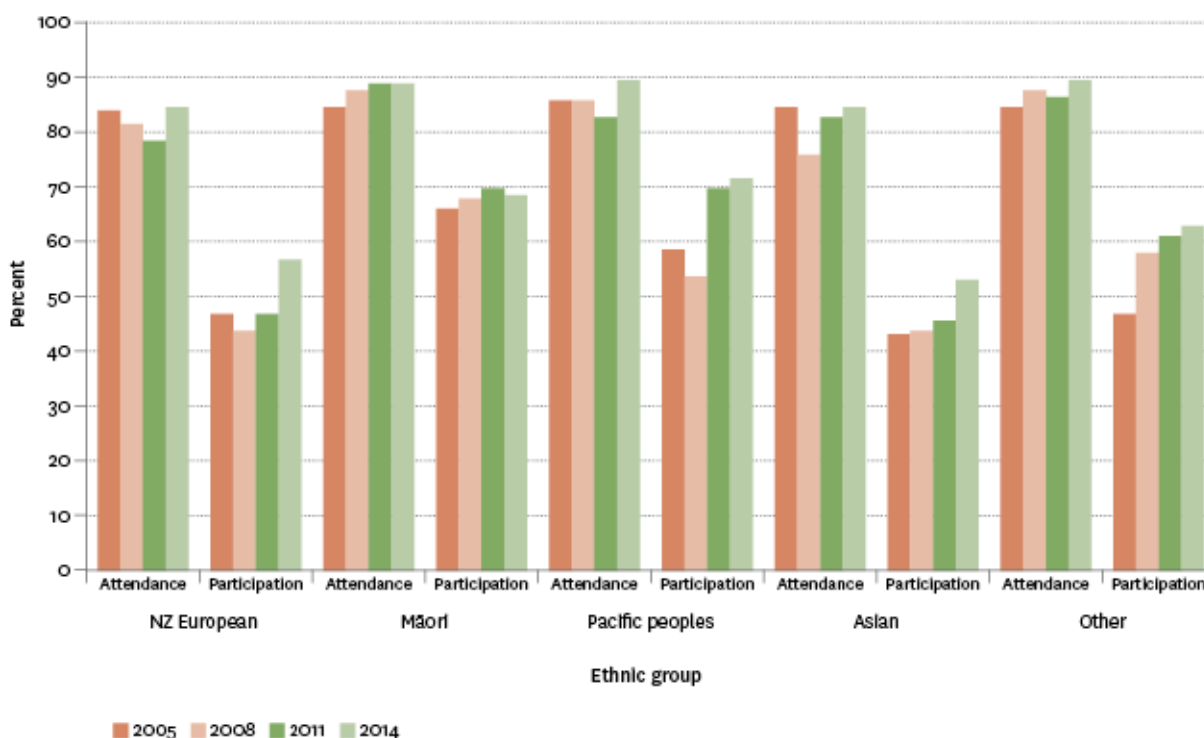
Source: Creative New Zealand

Ethnic differences

In 2014, 90 percent of Pacific peoples and 89 percent of Māori attended at least one arts event in the previous 12 months, compared with 85 percent of people in the Asian ethnic group and New Zealand Europeans.

Similarly, 72 percent of Pacific peoples and 69 percent of Māori actively participated in at least one arts event, compared with 57 percent of New Zealand Europeans and 53 percent of people in the Asian ethnic group.

Figure L2.3 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who had attended at least one arts event or actively participated in the arts in the previous 12 months, by ethnic group, 2005–2014



Source: Creative New Zealand

Socio-economic differences

In 2014, 81 percent of those with a household income up to \$30,000 attended at least one arts event in the previous 12 months, compared with 90 percent of those with a household income of \$120,000 or more.

However, a similar proportion of people in both income groups actively participated in at least one arts event (57 percent of those with a household income up to \$30,000, compared with 58 percent of those with a household income of \$120,000 or more).

International comparison

Research undertaken by the European Union in 2013 found that active involvement in artistic activities varied among European Union countries. Northern European countries were most likely to be actively involved in an artistic activity (eg Denmark at 74 percent and Sweden at 68 percent). Those from eastern and southern European countries were less likely to have personally engaged in an artistic activity (Bulgaria at 14 percent and Italy at 20 percent).

Data for this section can be found at: www.socialreport.msd.govt.nz/documents/2016/l2.xlsx

Safety

Desired outcomes

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

Introduction

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

Safety and security are both important. Safety is freedom from physical or emotional harm, while security is freedom from the threat or fear of harm or danger. 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.⁵¹

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

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 first indicator uses results from the New Zealand General Social Survey (NZGSS) to give a more comprehensive picture of the level of criminal victimisation in society.

The second indicator is fear of crime. Feeling unsafe harms people's quality of life by producing anxiety. However, people may feel unsafe and have their quality of life reduced, even when the actual likelihood of their being victimised is relatively small.

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.

The final indicator is road casualties. People should be able to live in a society free from the risk of avoidable death or injury. One of the leading causes of avoidable injury and death is motor vehicle traffic crashes. In economic terms, the social cost of all motor vehicle traffic crashes (ie the total cost of road crashes and road injuries) has been estimated at \$3.73 billion.

Domain summary

Overall, the Safety domain indicators show a generally positive picture of improvement.

The proportion of people who reported having crimes committed against them has decreased when looking at *recent-change* and *medium-term-change*. The rate of those killed or injured in motor vehicle traffic crashes has fallen steadily over time, though the death rate increased between 2013 and 2014. The rate of people who died as the result of an assault can be volatile owing to small numbers.

Many people, particularly females and those with lower material wellbeing, did not feel safe walking alone in their neighbourhoods at night in 2014.

Criminal victimisation

Definition

The proportion of the population aged 15 years and over who said they had a crime committed against them in the last 12 months.

Relevance

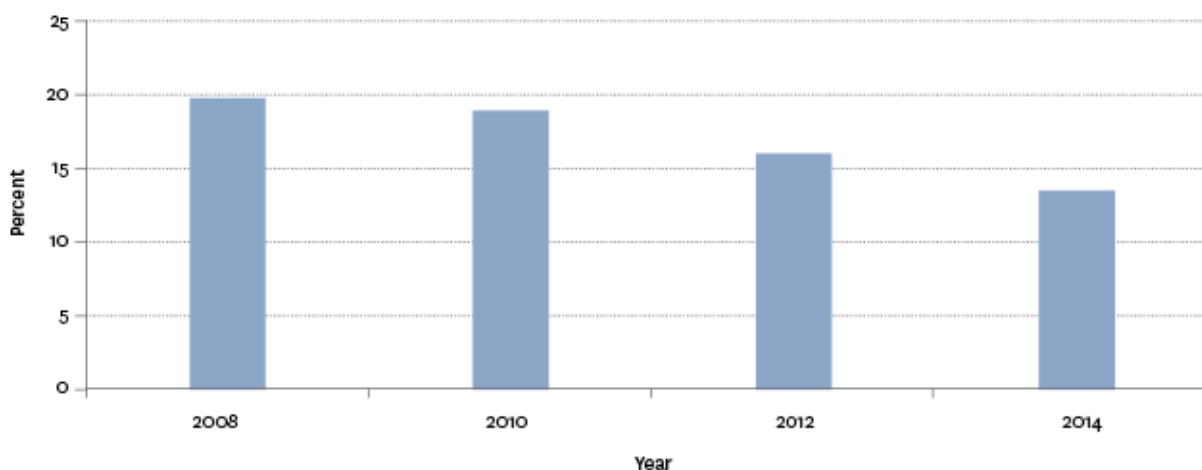
The criminal victimisation rate provides a broad measure of personal safety and wellbeing.

Current level and trends

In 2014, 13.4 percent of the population aged 15 years and over said they had a crime committed against them in the last 12 months, as measured by the New Zealand General Social Survey (NZGSS).

The proportion of people who reported that they had been a victim of a crime decreased 6.2 percentage points between 2008 and 2014.⁵²

Figure SS1.1 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who had a crime committed against them in the last 12 months, 2008–2014



Source: Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand General Social Survey

In 2012, the NZGSS looked further into those crimes committed against people. Four in ten people (39.9 percent) who had a crime committed against them had experienced multiple crimes in 12 months, while 13.1 percent of them had experienced violence. Those aged 15–24 years and Māori and Pacific peoples appeared to be more likely to experience multiple crimes and violent crime.

Those who experienced violent crime were most likely to experience emotional hurt or severe distress (48.5 percent). A physical injury or health problem (32.7 percent), or costs to cover or things to repair or replace (29.2 percent), were also commonly experienced. However, violent crime had no impact on one in five people (18.7 percent) who experienced it.

About half of those who had experienced a violent crime (49.2 percent) said that it had had no effect on their quality of life, while 13.3 percent said that it had made their quality of life better in the end.

Approximately four in ten (37.5 percent) said the violent crime had made their quality of life worse, with 8.3 percent saying it had made their quality of life significantly worse.

Age and sex differences

In 2014, males and females had similar experiences, with 14.6 percent of males reporting having had a crime committed against them in the past 12 months, compared with 12.3 percent of females. This pattern was also present in previous years.

Older people were less likely than younger people to be victims of crime – 6.7 percent of those aged 65 years and over reported this in 2014, compared with 15.9 percent of those aged 15–24 years. This relationship was also found across the other survey periods.

Table SS1.1 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who had a crime committed against them in the last 12 months, by age group and sex, 2008–2014

	15–24	25–34	35–44	45–54	55–64	65+
2008						
Male	25.9	16.9	23.7	24.6	17.3	14.5
Female	21.5	25.3	21.2	18.7	14.0	8.0
Total	23.7	21.2	22.4	21.6	15.7	11.0
2010						
Male	22.6	21.3	21.4	19.6	21.0	9.6
Female	21.2	24.2	20.1	19.4	12.1	10.7
Total	22.0	22.7	20.7	19.5	16.4	10.2
2012						
Male	21.7	22.3	15.5	14.4	14.1	11.9
Female	17.2	15.9	18.8	19.1	12.7	5.9
Total	19.5	19.0	17.2	16.8	13.4	8.7
2014						
Male	17.8	17.9	17.8	14.1	12.4	7.1
Female	14.0	15.4	13.6	14.1	10.8	6.4
Total	15.9	16.6	15.6	14.1	11.6	6.7

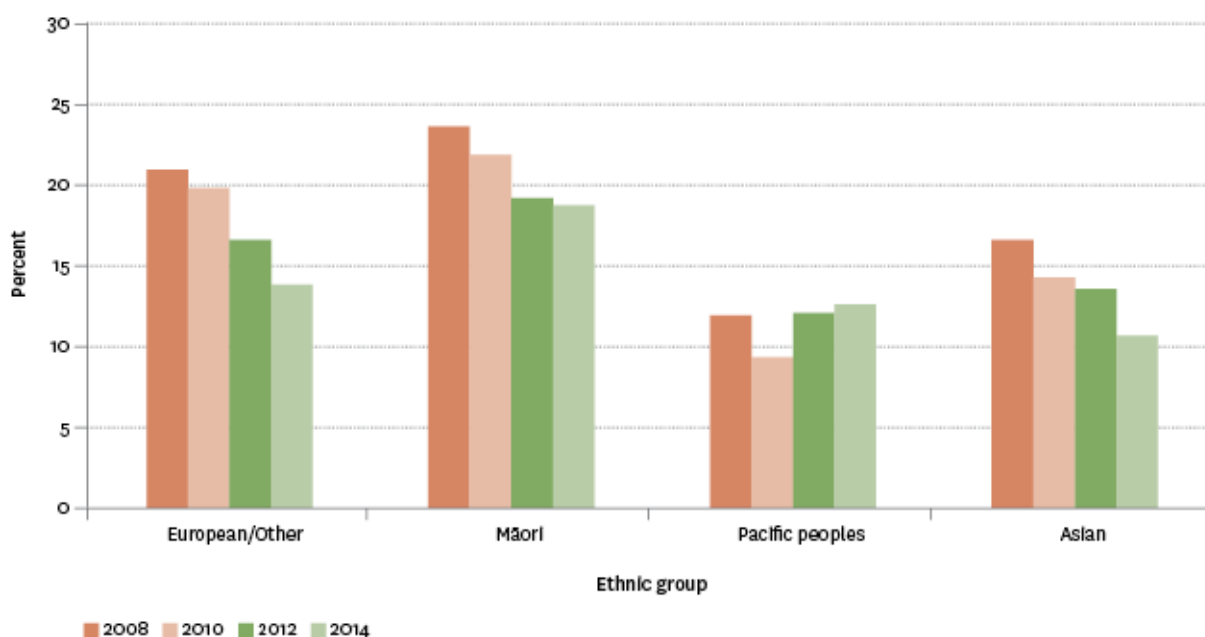
Source: Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand General Social Survey

Ethnic differences

In 2014, Māori were most likely to say they had a crime committed against them in the last 12 months (18.6 percent), followed by European/Other (13.7 percent) and Pacific peoples (12.5 percent). Those in the Asian ethnic group were least likely to report being victims of crime (10.6 percent).

All ethnic groups, except for Pacific peoples, showed a steady decrease over time in being victims of crime.

Figure SS1.2 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who had a crime committed against them in the last 12 months, by ethnic group, 2008–2014



Source: Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand General Social Survey

Socio-economic differences

The proportion of people who had a crime committed against them increased as their material wellbeing decreased. In 2014, 10.1 percent of people in the higher material wellbeing index category reported being victims of crime, compared with 21.3 percent of people in the lower material wellbeing index category. The levels for people in the lower middle material wellbeing index category and upper middle category were 15.3 percent and 11.9 percent respectively.

However, the same pattern was not found when looking at personal income levels. In 2014, there was only a small difference in experiences of crime by income level: 12.5 percent of people with a personal income of \$30,000 or less said they were a victim of crime, compared with 14.5 percent for those in the \$30,001-\$70,000 income group and 13.8 percent for those in the \$70,001 and over income group.

Labour force status differences

In 2014, those not in the labour force (eg retired, studying, caring for others) were less likely to say they were a victim of crime compared with other groups (9.7 percent, compared with 14.8 percent of employed people and 17.8 percent of unemployed people).

Family type differences

People in sole-parent families were more likely to say they had a crime committed against them, compared with other family types. In 2014, 20.4 percent of people living in sole-parent families reported being a victim of crime, compared with 13.5 percent each of people living in a couple with children and people not in a family nucleus, and 10.9 percent of people living in a couple without children.

Migrant status differences

In 2014, migrants who had arrived in New Zealand in the last five years (9.5 percent) had lower proportions experiencing crime, compared with people born in New Zealand (14.2 percent) and longer-term migrants (11.7 percent).

Regional differences

Gisborne (20.6 percent) and Northland (19.8 percent) had the highest proportions of people who reported they were a victim of crime. Taranaki (6.8 percent) and Southland (12.2 percent) had the lowest proportions.

Data for this section can be found at: www.socialreport.msd.govt.nz/documents/2016/ss1.xlsx

Fear of crime

Definition

The proportion of the population aged 15 years and over who felt “safe” or “very safe” walking alone in their neighbourhood after dark.

Relevance

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

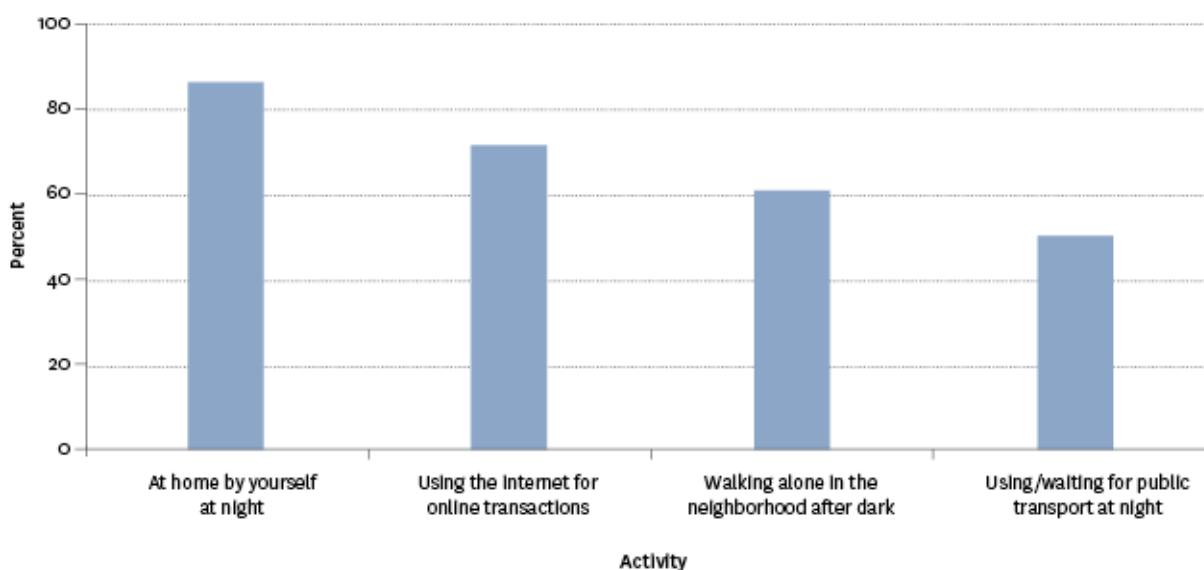
Current level

Based on the revised question in the 2014 New Zealand General Social Survey, 60.9 percent of the population aged 15 years and over felt safe or very safe walking alone in their neighbourhood after dark.

53

In comparison, a higher proportion felt safe or very safe being at home by themselves at night (86.4 percent), or when using the internet for online transactions (71.6 percent). Waiting for or using public transport such as buses and trains at night was rated the lowest, with 50.2 percent of people feeling safe or very safe doing this.

Figure SS2.1 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who felt safe or very safe doing various activities, 2014



Source: Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand General Social Survey

Age and sex differences

In 2014, females were much less likely than males to feel safe or very safe walking alone in their neighbourhoods after dark (44.1 percent of females compared with 77.8 percent of males). One-third of females (35.2 percent) reported feeling unsafe or very unsafe doing this activity compared with 9.2 percent of males.

Compared with other age groups, those aged 65 years and over were least likely to feel safe or very safe (53.6 percent) walking alone in their neighbourhood after dark. Women aged 65 years and over were particularly less likely to feel safe or very safe (32.9 percent). Those in the 45–54 year age group (66.1 percent) were most likely to feel safe or very safe doing this.

Table SS2.1 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over by feelings of safety about walking alone in the neighbourhood after dark, by age group and sex, 2014

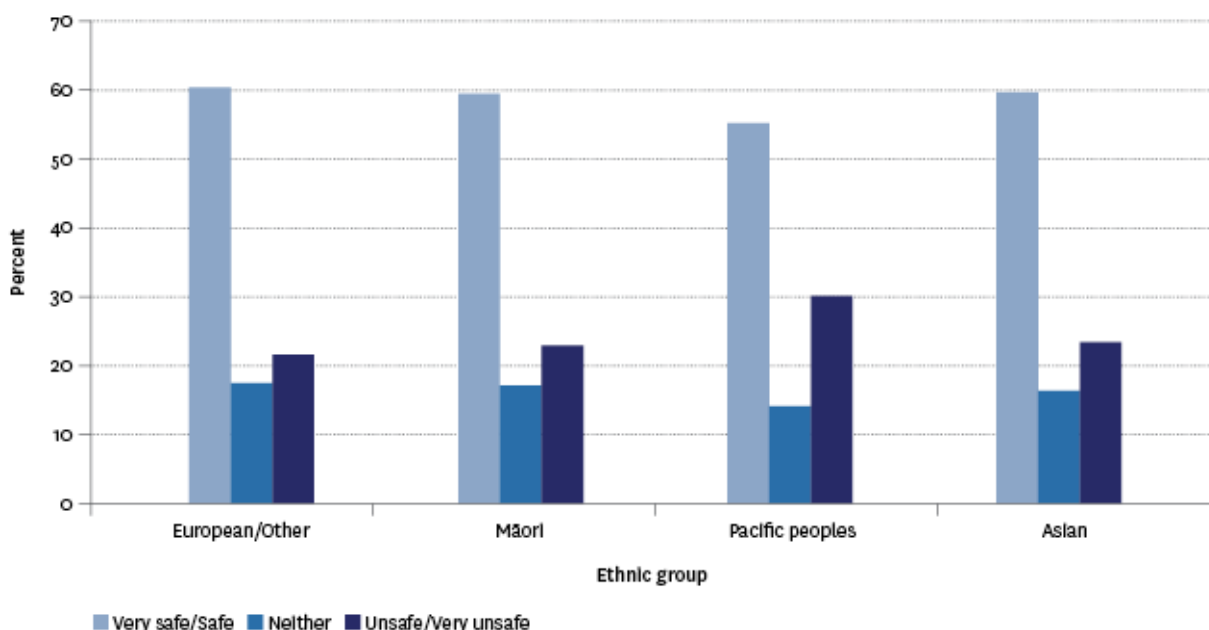
	Very safe/Safe	Neither	Unsafe/Very unsafe
Male			
15–24	77.7	12.8	9.4
25–34	76.1	14.4	9.5
35–44	76.3	14.8	8.9
45–54	84.0	9.7	6.4
55–64	79.1	11.1	9.9
65+	73.1	15.6	11.4
Female			
15–24	41.5	23.9	34.5
25–34	45.4	21.5	33.0
35–44	47.9	21.5	30.6
45–54	49.2	17.2	33.6
55–64	45.9	19.7	34.5
65+	32.9	20.7	46.4
Total			
15–24	60.4	18.2	21.5
25–34	60.7	18.0	21.3
35–44	61.7	18.3	20.1
45–54	66.1	13.5	20.4
55–64	62.4	15.4	22.2
65+	53.6	18.1	28.3

Source: Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand General Social Survey

Ethnic differences

In 2014, Pacific peoples were less likely than other ethnic groups to feel safe or very safe walking alone in the neighbourhood after dark (55.5 percent). Around 60 percent of people who identified as European/Other, Māori or as part of the Asian ethnic group felt safe or very safe.

Figure SS2.2 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over by feelings of safety about walking alone in their neighbourhood after dark, by ethnic group, 2014



Source: Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand General Social Survey

Socio-economic differences

The proportion of people feeling safe or very safe walking alone in their neighbourhood after dark increased as material wellbeing increased. In 2014, 71.3 percent of people in the higher material wellbeing index category felt safe or very safe, compared with 47.5 percent of people in the lower material wellbeing index category. The satisfaction levels for people in the lower middle material wellbeing index category and upper middle category were 54.4 percent and 61.1 percent respectively.

A similar pattern was found when looking at personal income: 77.2 percent of people with a personal income over \$70,000 felt safe or very safe walking alone in their neighbourhood after dark, compared with 53.1 percent of people with a personal income of \$30,000 and under, and 63.9 percent of people with a personal income between \$30,001 and \$70,000.

Labour force status differences

In 2014, those who were employed (65.1 percent) were more likely to feel safe or very safe walking alone in their neighbourhood after dark, compared with people who were unemployed and those not in the labour force (eg retired, studying, caring for others (51.6 percent each)).

Family type differences

People living in sole-parent families were less likely to feel safe or very safe walking alone in their neighbourhood after dark (49.0 percent), compared with other family types – people living in a couple with children family type (64.9 percent); people living in a couple with no children family type (61.0 percent); and people not in a family nucleus (58.4 percent).

Migrant status differences

In 2014, migrants who had arrived in New Zealand in the last five years (71.3 percent) were slightly more likely than longer-term migrants (62.3 percent) and people born in New Zealand (59.9 percent) to feel safe or very safe walking alone in their neighbourhood after dark.

Regional differences

Southland (75.4 percent) and Otago (71.4) had the highest proportions of people who reported feeling safe or very safe walking alone in their neighbourhood after dark. Manawatu-Wanganui (53.3 percent) and Northland (53.9 percent) had the lowest proportions.

International comparison

OECD country comparisons can be made by looking at the proportion of people who felt safe while walking alone at night in the 2012 Gallup World Poll.

New Zealand (66.5 percent) was below the OECD mean of 72.2 percent and the OECD median of 73.8 percent, and was also lower than Australia (68.0 percent), the United States (74.8 percent), and the United Kingdom (76.1 percent).

Norway had the highest proportion of people who felt safe while walking alone at night, at 88.9 percent, while Greece had the lowest proportion at 46.7 percent.

Data for this section can be found at: www.socialreport.msd.govt.nz/documents/2016/ss2.xlsx

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.⁵⁴

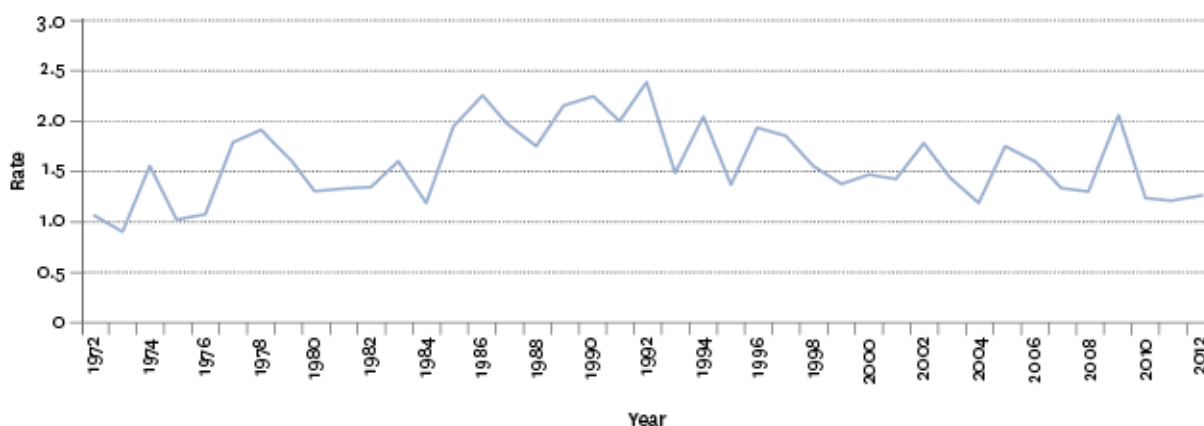
Current level and trends

From 2003 to 2012, 594 people died from an assault. This was a similar figure to the 590 people who died from an assault from 1993 to 2002, but was considerably fewer than the 649 people who died from an assault during 1983–1992.

The age-standardised assault mortality rate for the year 2012 was 1.3 deaths per 100,000, down from 1.8 per 100,000 in 2002 and 2.4 per 100,000 in 1992. The 2012 figure was, however, comparable with 1982, when there were also 1.3 assault deaths per 100,000 population.

It should be noted that rates based on small numbers can be volatile, and trends can be difficult to determine over the short term.

Figure SS3.1 – Age-standardised assault mortality rates, 1972–2012



Source: Ministry of Health

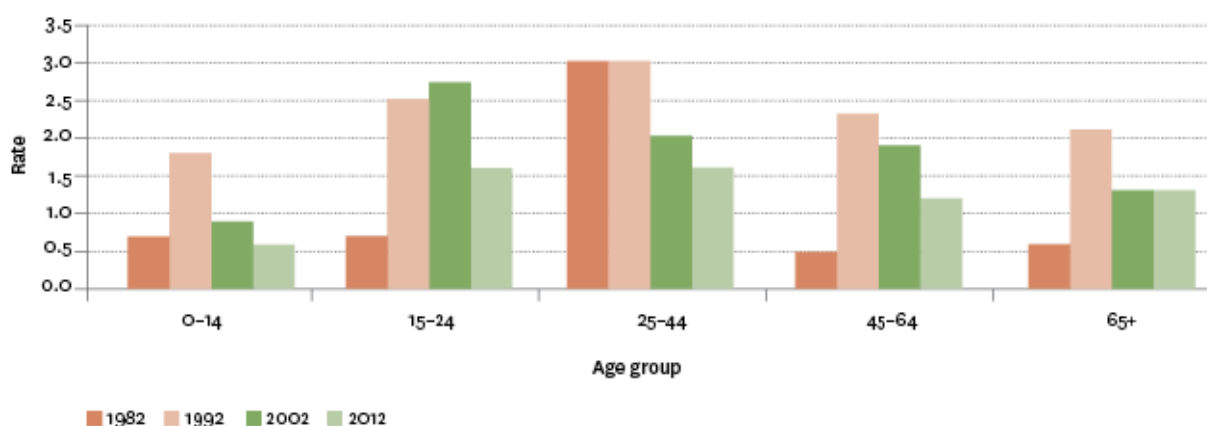
Note: Rates per 100,000 population, age-standardised to the WHO World Standard population.

Age and sex differences

In 2012, the 25–44 year age group had a similar assault mortality rate to the 15–24 year age group (1.6 deaths per 100,000 population).

Of all the age groups in 2012, the 0–14 year age group had the lowest rate of deaths from assault per 100,000 population (0.6). However, those under 5 years had an assault death rate of 1.6 per 100,000 population. This is lower than the 2002 rate (1.8 per 100,000), the 1992 rate (2.8) and the 1982 rate (2.0).

Figure SS3.2 – Age-specific assault mortality rates, by age group, 1982–2012

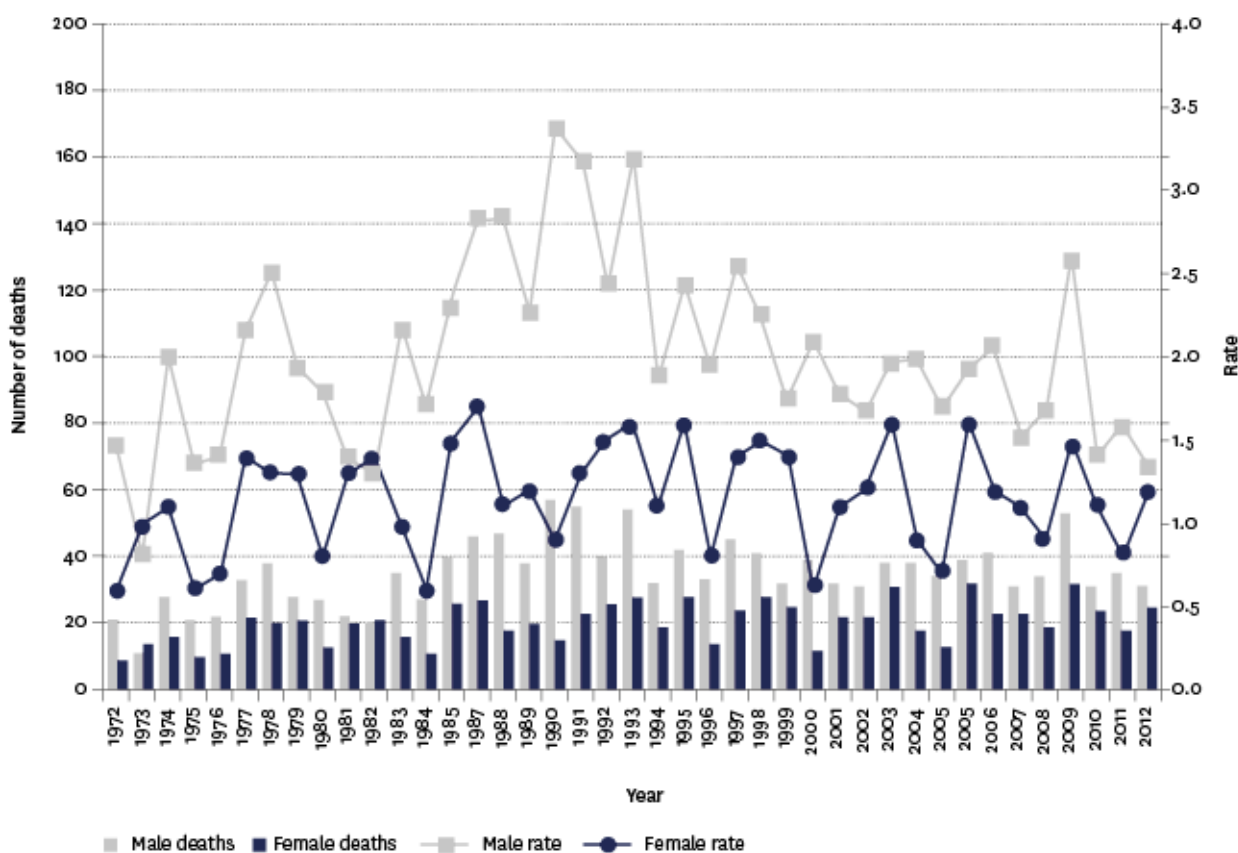


Source: Ministry of Health

Note: Rates per 100,000 population.

The rate of assault mortality for males was usually higher than that of females. In 2012, males had a slightly higher rate of assault mortality than females (1.3 per 100,000 for males; 1.2 per 100,000 for females). The male rate was also higher than the female rate in 2002 (2.0 versus 1.6) and 1992 (3.2 versus 1.6), but the female rate was slightly higher in 1982 (1.4 per 100,000 female population and 1.3 per 100,000 male population).

Figure SS3.3 – Number and age-specific rates of assault mortality, by sex, 1972–2012



Source: Ministry of Health

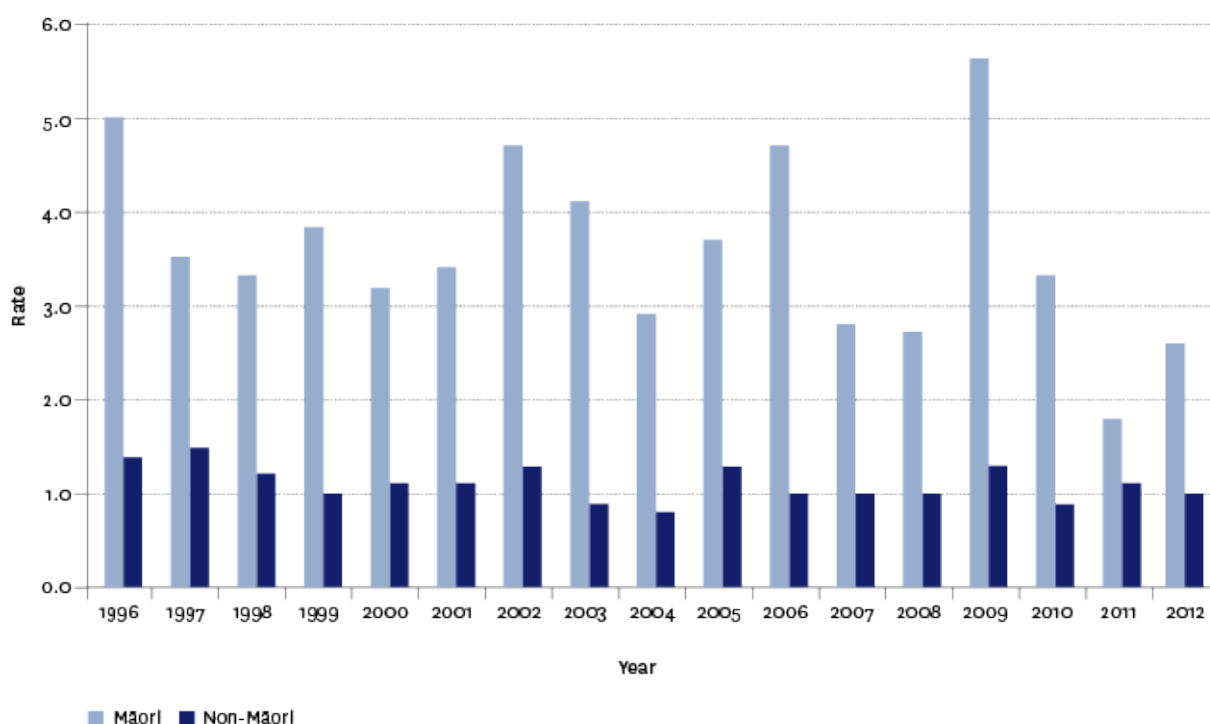
Note: Rates per 100,000 population, age-standardised to the WHO World Standard population

Ethnic differences

Since 1996, the Māori age-standardised rate of assault mortality has been higher than that of non-Māori, but the differences have not always been large. The Māori average age-standardised rate from 1996 to 2012 was 3.6 deaths per 100,000 Māori population, while the equivalent non-Māori rate was 1.1 per 100,000 non-Māori population.

In 2012, the Māori rate of assault mortality was 2.6 deaths per 100,000 population, and the non-Māori rate was 1.0. However, the assault mortality rates for both ethnic groups in 2012 was lower than that in 2002 (the Māori rate in 2002 was 4.7 deaths per 100,000 population; the non-Māori rate was 1.3 per 100,000 population).

Figure SS3.4 – Assault mortality rates, by ethnic group, 1996–2012



Source: Ministry of Health

Note: Rates per 100,000 population, age-standardised to the WHO World Standard population.

International comparison

International comparisons can be made by looking at the assault mortality rates per 100,000 population for OECD countries for 2009–2012.

New Zealand had the 10th highest rate of assault mortality (1.2). New Zealand's rate was above the OECD median of 0.9, and was also higher than that of Australia (0.8) and the United Kingdom (0.3). Mexico had the highest assault mortality rate at 23.4, while Luxembourg had the lowest at 0.2.

Data for this section can be found at: www.socialreport.msd.govt.nz/documents/2016/ss3.xlsx

Road casualties

Definition

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

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

Relevance

Motor vehicle traffic crashes are a major cause of premature death, especially among younger age groups. Deaths, injuries and disability resulting from motor vehicle traffic 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 levels and trends

In 2014, 294 people died as a result of motor vehicle traffic crashes, a rate of 6.5 deaths per 100,000 population – this compares with a rate of 5.7 deaths per 100,000 population in 2013. Reported injury data for 2014 shows a further 11,219 people were injured, a rate of 248.8 injuries per 100,000 population. In 2004, the motor vehicle traffic crash mortality rate was 10.7 per 100,000 population and the motor vehicle traffic crash injury rate was 342.0 per 100,000 population. The mortality and injury rates in 1994 were 16.2 and 464.1 per 100,000 population respectively.

The number of people killed in motor vehicle traffic crashes in 2014 was less than half what it was in 1980. The number of people injured rose from 2000 to 2007 (partly because of better recording by police), but then decreased from 2008 to 2014. There were 50 percent fewer people injured in 2014 than in 1980. The ratio of motor vehicle traffic crash injuries to deaths has increased since 1980, from 26.5 injuries for each fatality in 1980 to 38.2 injuries per fatality in 2014.

There is no conclusive evidence on the reasons for the reduction in motor vehicle traffic crashes since the mid-1980s. 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 – Motor vehicle traffic crash injury and death rates per 100,000 population, 1980–2014



Source: Land Transport Safety Authority (LTSA) Crash Analysis System

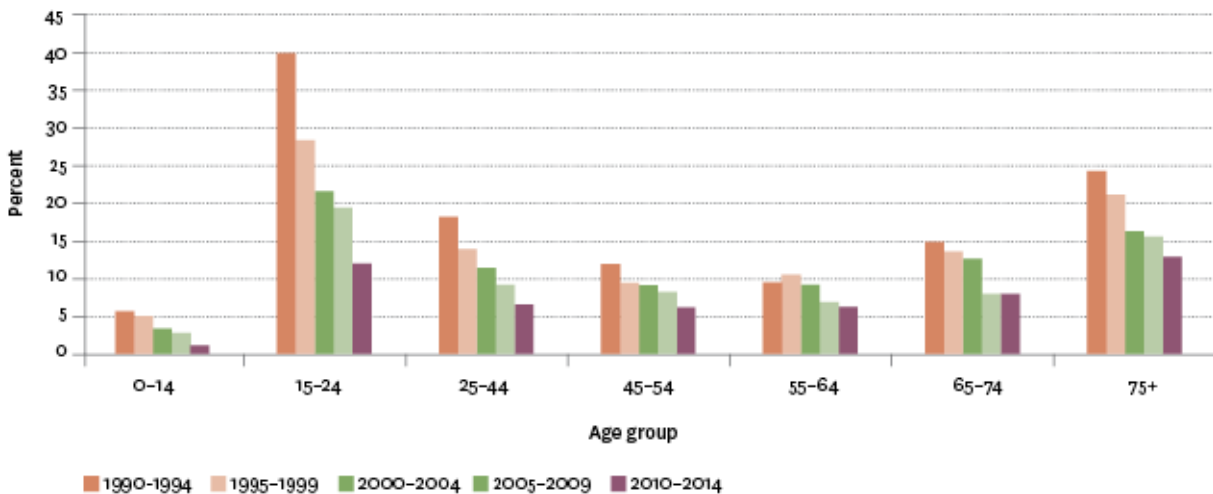
Age and sex differences

Young people aged 15–24 years are at a far higher risk of death from motor vehicle traffic crashes than any other age group except 75 years and over. The mortality rate for 15–24 years in the period 2010–2014 was 1.8 times that of the population as a whole. The risk of dying in a motor vehicle traffic crash is relatively low in middle-age, then increases at older ages, partly because the very old are frailer.⁵⁵

The motor vehicle traffic crash mortality rate has fallen steadily for all age groups since the 1990s. The decline has been particularly marked among 15–24 years, who had an average annual rate of 12.2 deaths per 100,000 in the period 2010–2014. This is a big improvement on the average annual rate of 39.8 deaths per 100,000 population in the 1990–1994 period, and 19.5 deaths per 100,000 population in the period 2005–2009.

Males are much more likely than females to be killed in motor vehicle traffic crashes. Between 2010 and 2014, the average annual motor vehicle traffic crash mortality rate for males was 9.8 deaths per 100,000 males, while the rate for females was 4.0 deaths per 100,000 females. For both sexes, this was less than half the average annual rate in the early 1990s (25.7 deaths per 100,000 for males and 10.8 per 100,000 for females in 1990–1994).

Figure SS4.2 – Motor vehicle traffic crash death rates per 100,000 population, by age group, 1990–2014

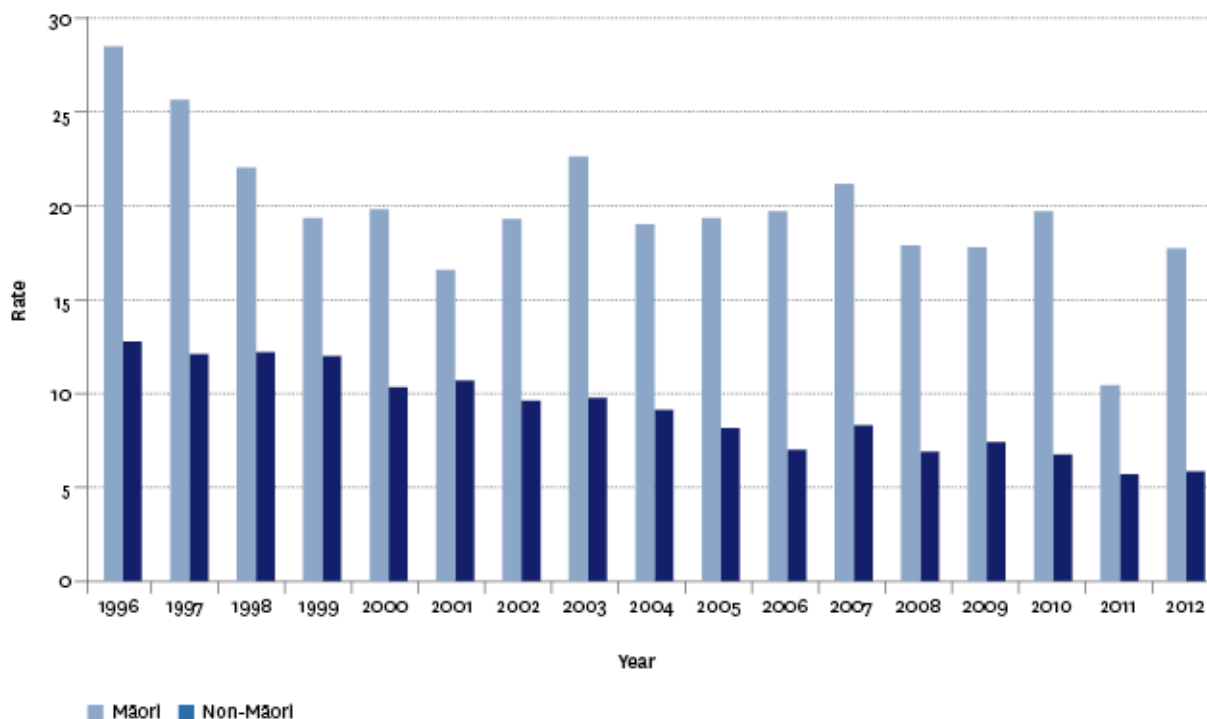


Source: LTSA Crash Analysis System

Ethnic differences

Māori are more likely than non-Māori to die as a result of a motor vehicle traffic crash. In 2012, the age-standardised motor vehicle traffic crash death rate was 17.6 per 100,000 population for Māori and 5.6 per 100,000 population for non-Māori.

Figure SS4.3 – Motor vehicle traffic crash mortality age-standardised rates, by ethnic group, 1996–2012



Source: Ministry of Health

International comparison

In 2012, New Zealand had a motor vehicle traffic crash mortality rate of 7.3 per 100,000 population (standardised to the 2010 OECD population). This was slightly higher than the 2013 OECD mean of 7.0 deaths per 100,000 population. In 2011, however, the New Zealand rate was 6.5 deaths per 100,000 population, which was less than the OECD mean of 7.6 deaths per 100,000 population. The United Kingdom had the lowest rate of motor vehicle traffic crash mortality (2.8 per 100,000 population in 2013), while Mexico had the highest (17.4 per 100,000 population in 2012). Australia had a motor vehicle traffic crash mortality rate of 6.8 deaths per 100,000 population in 2011.

Data for this section can be found at: www.socialreport.msd.govt.nz/documents/2016/ss4.xlsx

Social connectedness

Desired outcomes

People enjoy constructive and supportive relationships with their families, whānau, communities, iwi and friends. New Zealand is an inclusive society where people are able to access information and support.

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. 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. There are proven links between social connectedness and the performance of the economy, and positive outcomes for individual health and wellbeing.

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 headline indicators are used to measure social connectedness in New Zealand. These are: telephone and internet access in the household; 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, to work, or to 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, social networks can be expanded considerably. However, new communications technology can also be used for anti-social purposes.

For most people, social networks centre on family and friends. The second indicator is the proportion of people aged 15 and over who felt that the amount of contact they have with family and friends who don't live with them is “about right”.

The third indicator is also about contact with family: the proportion of young people of secondary school age who report getting enough time with their parents most of the time.

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 undertaken for organisations or groups. Volunteering can help build networks of trust and reciprocity that sustain people through difficult times and reinforce social cohesion.

Domain summary

In general, the Social Connectedness domain outcomes have remained stable in terms of *recent-change* and *medium-term-change*.

The exception is internet access, where there has been a large improvement in the proportion of households with access between 2001 and 2013. However, Māori and Pacific peoples have much lower rates than other groups.

The proportion of people who said the amount of contact they have with family and friends is “about right” remains steady when looking at *recent-change* and *medium-term-change*, as does the amount of contact between young people and their parents. However, in 2007 and 2012, female students were more likely than males to say they didn’t get enough time with their mum and/or dad.

In 2014, a small proportion of people reported feeling lonely, particularly those in younger age groups, those in sole-parent families, and those in lower socio-economic groups

The majority of people believed that most people can be trusted in 2014, though Māori, Pacific peoples, unemployed, and people in lower socio-economic groups had lower levels of trust than other groups.

The proportion of people doing voluntary work is stable in regard to both *recent-change* and *medium-term-change*, with New Zealand’s proportion of volunteers being the highest of all the OECD countries.

Telephone and internet access in the household

Definition

The proportion of the population with telephone access (landline and/or cellphone) in the household.

The proportion of the population with internet access in the household.

Relevance

Access to a telephone and the internet helps people 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, services and social media. People who are unable to access information technologies, or who do not have the skills to use them, run the risk of being excluded from possible social, educational, cultural, economic and health benefits. This may have adverse effects on their educational outcomes, employment prospects, and other aspects of wellbeing.

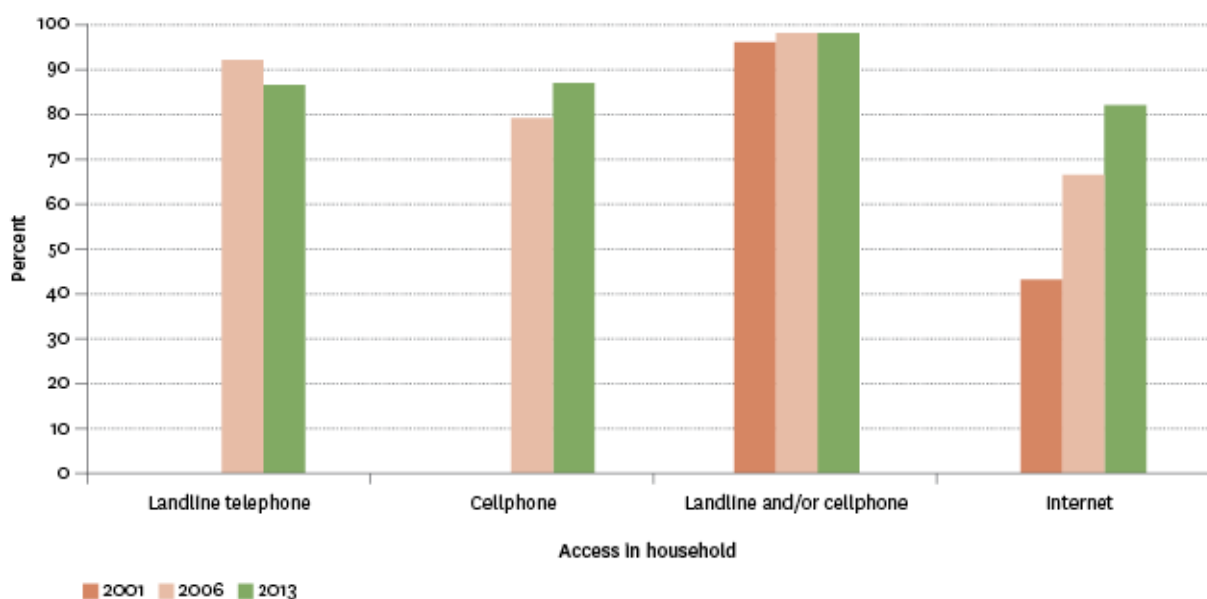
Current level and trends

At the 2013 Census, 98.1 percent of people lived in households with telephone access, either landline or cellphone. This was the same level as 2006, but an increase from 96.3 percent in 2001.⁵⁶

The 2006 Census collected information on cellphone use for the first time. Between the 2013 and 2006 Censuses, there has been a decrease in the proportion of people who lived in households with access to landline telephones, and an increase in the proportion of people who lived in households with access to a cellphone. At the 2006 Census, 92.0 percent of people lived in households with access to a landline telephone, while at the 2013 Census this percentage had dropped to 86.5 percent. The proportion of people with access to a cellphone in the household was 79.1 percent in 2006, but rose to 86.9 percent in 2013.

At the 2013 Census, 82.0 percent of people lived in households with access to the internet, a considerable increase from 66.4 percent in 2006 and 42.9 percent in 2001.

Figure SC1.1 – Proportion of population with landline telephone, cellphone and internet access in the household, 2001–2013



Source: Statistics New Zealand, Census of Population and Dwellings

Age and sex differences

People aged 65 years and over were slightly more likely than younger people to have telephone access in their household. However, the difference narrowed between censuses, and this may be attributed to the inclusion of information collected on cellphone access from 2006 onwards and the rapid uptake of this technology, particularly by young people.

Younger people were more likely than older age groups to have access to a cellphone in the household. In 2013, 89.0 percent of those aged under 65 years had access to a cellphone in the household, compared with 82.3 percent of people aged 65–74 years and 60.9 percent of those aged 75 years and over. However, between 2006 and 2013, those aged 65 years and over experienced a greater rate of increase in access to a cellphone than younger people (increases of 18.8 percentage points for those aged 64–74 years and 21.1 percentage points for those aged 75 years and over). The increase for those aged less than 65 years was 6.4 percentage points.

There were only minor differences by age in the proportion of the population aged under 65 years living in households with internet access. However, the rates decreased as age increased. In 2013, 84.8 percent of people aged under 65 years lived in households with internet access, compared with 75.2 percent of 65–74 year olds and 49.0 percent of those aged 75 years and over. However, as with cellphone use, those aged over 65 years have experienced a greater increase in internet access, compared with younger age groups. Between 2001 and 2013, the proportion of people living in households with access to the internet increased by 54.1 percentage points for those aged 65–74 years, and by 39.0 percentage points for those aged 75 years and over. The increase for those aged under 65 years was 38.5 percentage points.

There was little difference between the sexes in telephone or internet access in the household.

Table SC1.1 – Proportion of population with telephone and internet access in the household, by age group, sex, ethnic group and household composition, 2001–2013

	Telephone (landline and/or cellphone) access			Internet access		
	2001	2006	2013	2001	2006	2013
Age group						
0–14	94.6	97.6	98.3	45.6	69.1	83.8
15–24	95.3	97.6	96.6	47.5	68.0	84.0
25–44	96.1	98.0	97.7	47.0	70.8	86.2
45–64	97.7	98.6	98.6	45.6	70.9	84.7
65–74	98.3	98.9	99.1	21.1	49.7	75.2
75+	98.6	99.0	99.2	10.0	25.8	49.0
Total	96.3	98.1	98.1	42.9	66.4	82.0
Sex						
Male	96.0	97.9	97.9	44.1	67.2	82.6
Female	96.5	98.3	98.3	41.8	65.5	81.4
Ethnic group						
European/Other	98.1	98.9	98.7	45.5	70.4	84.7
Māori	88.3	94.4	96.0	25.3	46.7	67.0
Pacific peoples	87.0	95.1	96.8	20.4	37.7	65.0
Asian	97.8	98.7	98.0	61.5	77.4	90.2
Middle Eastern/Latin American/African (MELAA)	97.4	98.6	97.1	55.8	72.8	88.9
Household composition						
One parent with dependent children	89.2	94.5	96.0	28.6	49.2	66.7
Two parents with dependent children	97.5	99.0	99.1	55.7	79.2	91.1
All families with dependent children	95.5	98.0	98.5	48.6	71.4	85.5

Source: Statistics New Zealand, Census of Population and Dwellings

Ethnic differences

Access to telephones in the household remained relatively stable between 2001 and 2013 for both European/Other and Asian ethnic groups, while access increased for Māori and Pacific peoples during the same period. In 2013, 96.0 percent of Māori had access to telephones in the household, an increase from 88.3 percent in 2001 and 94.4 percent in 2006. Access to telephones in the household among Pacific peoples rose from 87.0 percent in 2001 to 95.1 percent in 2006, before reaching 96.8 percent in 2013.

Pacific peoples experienced the greatest increase in access to cellphones in the household, increasing from 72.6 percent in 2006 to 85.2 percent in 2013. All other ethnic groups experienced increases of between 7.3 and 8.6 percentage points. Access to landline telephones decreased across all ethnic groups over the same seven-year period.

Between 2001 and 2013, access to the internet in the household increased from 25.3 percent to 67.0 percent for Māori and from 20.4 percent to 65.0 percent for Pacific peoples. These levels were still well below those of the Asian ethnic group (90.2 percent), MELAA (88.9 percent) and European/Others (84.7 percent) in 2013.

Household differences

Among families with dependent children, 98.5 percent had telephone access and 85.5 percent had internet access in the household in 2013. One-parent households with dependent children were less likely than two-parent households with dependent children to have access to either telephones or the internet, although the largest difference between the household types was internet access (66.7 percent compared with 91.1 percent respectively).

Regional differences

At the 2013 Census, Wellington had the highest proportion of households with internet access (85.6 percent), followed by Auckland (84.9 percent), Canterbury (84.7 percent), Otago (84.4 percent) and Nelson (83.8 percent). Gisborne (68.3 percent) and Northland (73.0 percent) had the lowest proportions of households with internet access.

Data for this section can be found at: www.socialreport.msd.govt.nz/documents/2016/sc1.xlsx

Contact with family and friends

Definition

The proportion of the population aged 15 years and over who said the amount of contact they had with family and friends who didn't live with them was "about right".

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. Contact includes face-to-face meetings as well as telephone calls, letters, emails, texting, and other forms of electronic communication.

1. Contact with family

Current level and trends

In the 2012 New Zealand General Social Survey (NZGSS), 74.6 percent of the population aged 15 years and over said the amount of contact they had with family who didn't live with them (non-resident) was about right. This was similar to the 2008 (73.0 percent) and 2010 (72.8 percent) surveys.⁵⁷

The proportion of people who said they didn't have enough contact with family who did not live with them fell between 2008 and 2012 (from 25.0 percent to 22.9 percent), while the proportion of people who said they had too much contact with non-resident family remained stable (2.1 percent in 2008 and 2.5 percent in 2010 and 2012).

Table SC2.1 – Proportion of population by amount of contact with non-resident family, 2008–2012

Amount of contact	2008	2010	2012
Too much	2.1	2.5	2.5
About the right amount	73.0	72.8	74.6
Not enough	25.0	24.7	22.9

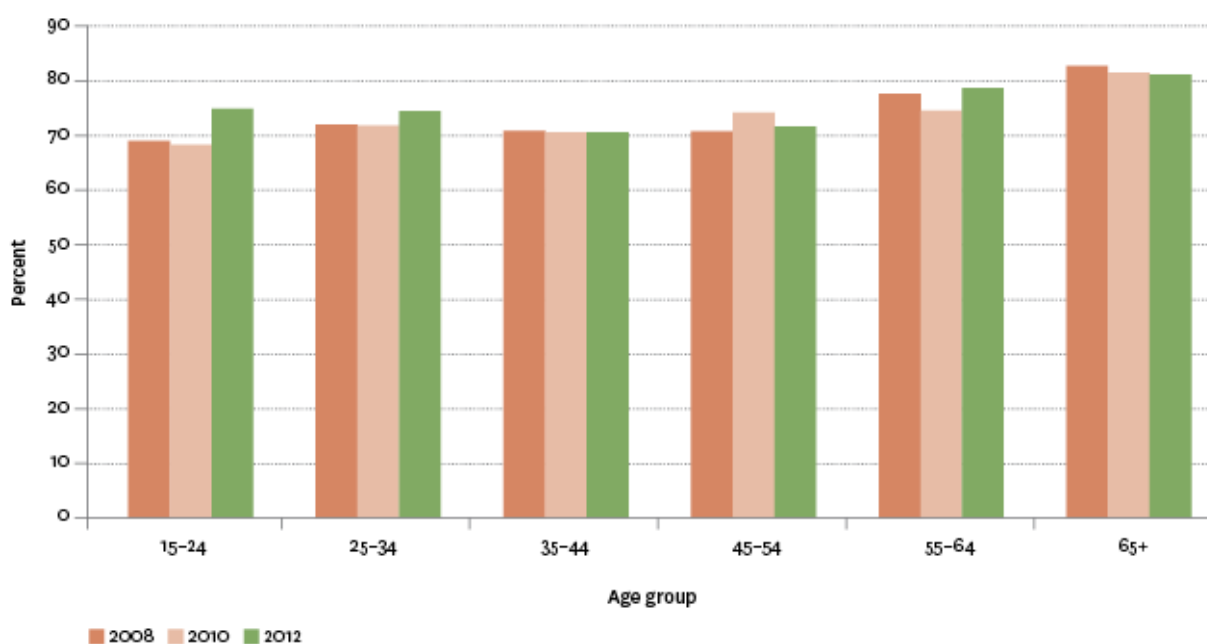
Source: Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand General Social Survey

Age and sex differences

People aged 65 years and over (80.7 percent in 2012) were most likely to say the amount of contact they had with non-resident family was about right. This was true across all three survey periods. In 2008 and 2010, people aged 15–24 years were least likely to say the amount of contact they had with non-resident family was about right, but this proportion increased from 67.8 percent in 2010 to 74.4 percent two years later. There was a similar pattern for 25–34 year olds – the proportion for this group increased from 71.6 percent in 2008 to 74.4 percent in 2012. In 2012, the 35–44 year age group was least likely to say the amount of contact they had with non-resident family was about right (70.1 percent). This proportion remained stable across the three surveys.

The proportion of males and females who said the amount of contact they had with non-resident family was “about right” was similar. In 2012, 73.8 percent of males said the amount of contact with non-resident family was about right, compared with 75.3 percent of females. In 2010, the proportions were the same for males and females (72.8 percent), while in 2008 the figures were 72.5 percent for males and 73.4 percent for females.

Figure SC2.1 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over whose contact with non-resident family was “about right”, by age group, 2008–2012

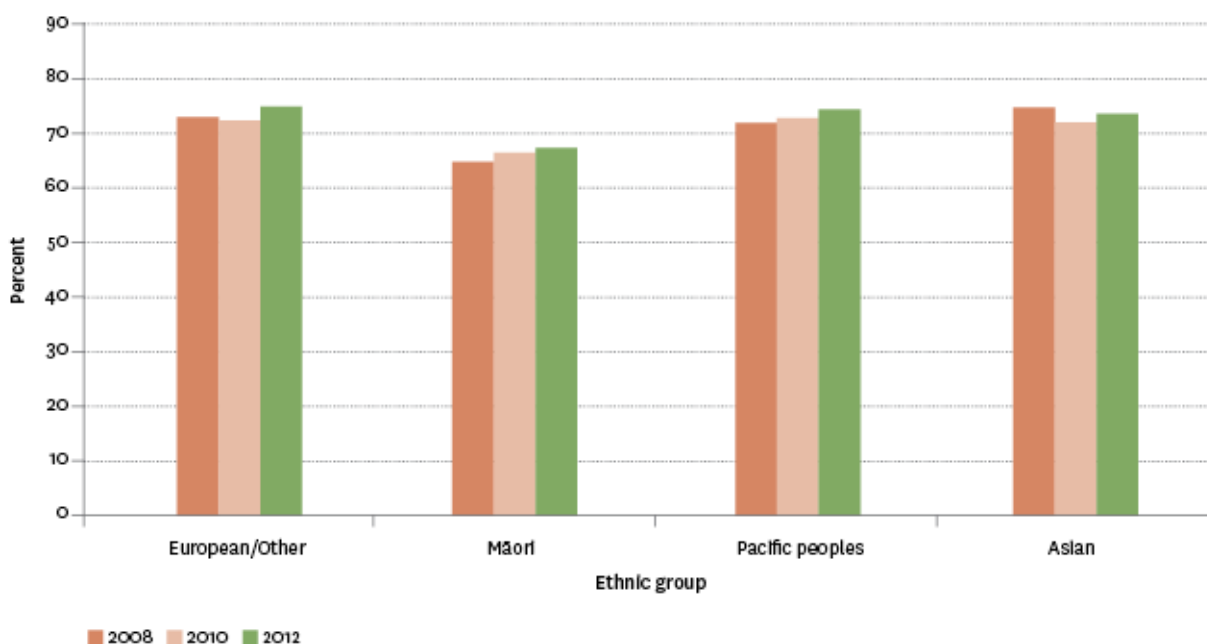


Source: Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand General Social Survey

Ethnic differences

In 2012, people in the European/Other group (75.6 percent), Pacific peoples (75.2 percent) and people in the Asian ethnic group (74.4 percent) were most likely to say the amount of contact they had with family who didn't live with them was about right. Māori were least likely to say the amount of contact they had with non-resident family was about right (68.0 percent).

Figure SC2.2 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over whose contact with non-resident family was “about right”, by ethnic group, 2008–2012



Source: Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand General Social Survey

Socio-economic differences

As material wellbeing decreases, the proportion of people who said their amount of contact with non-resident family was about right also decreases. In 2012, 80.9 percent of those in the higher material wellbeing index category said the amount of contact they had with family who didn't live with them was about right, while for those in the lower material wellbeing index category, the proportion was 62.3 percent.

There were no differences by personal income. Three-quarters (75.1 percent) of those with personal incomes of between \$30,001 and \$70,000 said the amount of contact they had with non-resident family was about right, while the figures for those who earned under \$30,001 and over \$70,000 were 74.2 percent and 74.5 percent respectively.

Family type differences

People living in sole-parent families (66.7 percent) were less likely than other family types to say the contact they had with family who didn't live with them was about right. In 2012, 73.8 percent of people living in a couple with children, 76.6 percent of people who are not living in a family nucleus and 77.1 percent of people living in a couple without children said this.

Migrant status differences

In 2012, 75.6 percent of New Zealand-born people said the amount of contact they had with non-resident family was about right. The proportions for longer-term migrants (71.7 percent) and migrants who had arrived in New Zealand within the last five years (73.7 percent) were similar.

Regional differences

In 2012, Canterbury (78.7 percent) and Bay of Plenty (77.1 percent) had the highest proportions of people who felt the amount of contact they had with non-resident family was about right. Tasman/Nelson/Marlborough/West Coast had the lowest proportion who felt this way (70.1 percent).

2. Contact with friends

Current level and trends

In the 2012 New Zealand General Social Survey (NZGSS), 77.3 percent of the population aged 15 years and over said the amount of contact they had with friends who didn't live with them (non-resident) was about right. This was similar to the 2008 (77.0 percent) and 2010 (76.5 percent) surveys.⁵⁸

The proportion of people who said they did not get enough contact with non-resident friends remained relatively consistent over the three survey periods, as did the proportion of people who said they got too much contact with friends who didn't live with them.

Table SC2.2 – Proportion of population by amount of contact with non-resident friends, 2008–2012

Amount of contact	2008	2010	2012
Too much	2.2	1.9	1.9
About the right amount	77.0	76.5	77.3
Not enough	20.8	21.6	20.7

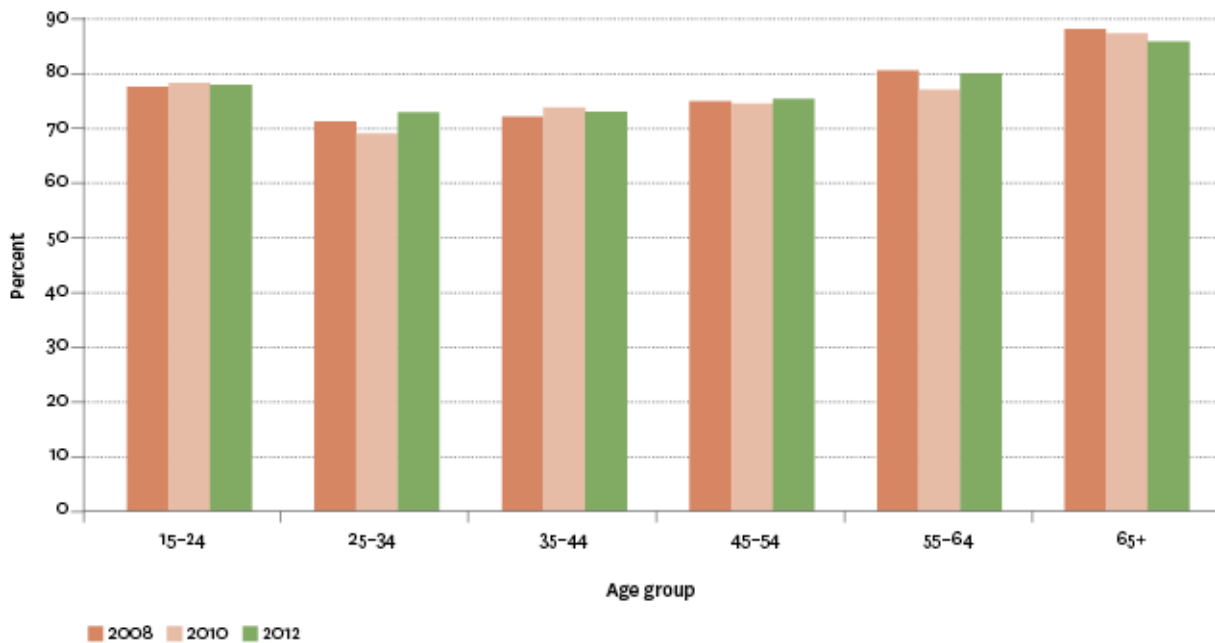
Source: Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand General Social Survey

Age and sex differences

In 2012, people aged 65 years and over (85.7 percent) were the most likely to say the amount of contact they had with friends who didn't live with them was about right. This was true across all three survey periods. Those aged between 25 and 54 years were least likely to say they felt their contact with non-resident friends was about right (between 72.9 and 75.3 percent).

The proportion of males and females who said the amount of contact they had with non-resident friends was about right was similar. In 2012, 78.1 percent of males said the amount of contact with friends who didn't live with them was about right, while 76.7 percent of females felt the same way. In 2010, the proportions were 78.3 percent and 74.8 percent respectively; and in 2008 the figures were 77.7 percent and 76.3 percent respectively.

Figure SC2.3 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over whose contact with non-resident friends was “about right”, by age group, 2008–2012

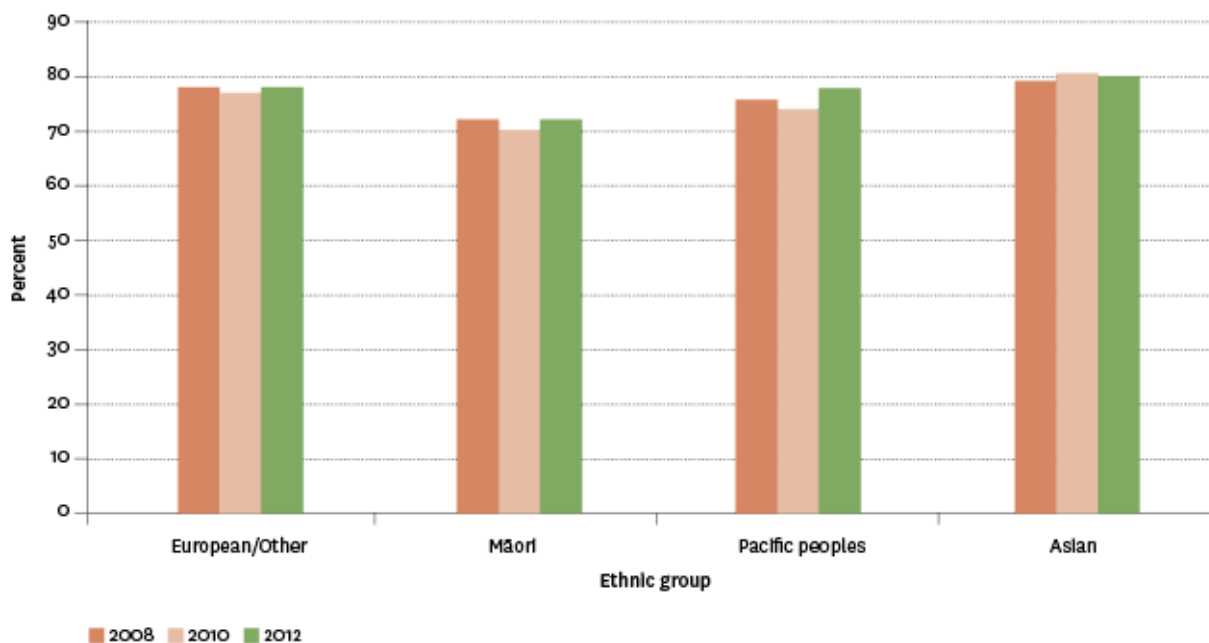


Source: Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand General Social Survey

Ethnic differences

In 2012, Māori were least likely to say the amount of contact they had with friends who didn't live with them was about right (73.6 percent). People in the Asian ethnic group were most likely to report this (80.2 percent).

Figure SC2.4 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over whose contact with non-resident friends was “about right”, by ethnic group, 2008–2012



Source: Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand General Social Survey

Socio-economic differences

As material wellbeing decreases, the proportion of people who said the amount of time with non-resident friends was about right also decreases. In 2012, 83.7 percent of those in the higher material wellbeing index category said this, compared with 67.0 percent of those in the lower material wellbeing category.

Those with lower incomes were more likely than those with higher incomes to say the amount of contact they had with non-resident friends was about right (78.8 percent of those who earned \$30,000 or under, compared with 73.9 percent of those who earned over \$70,000, in 2012).

Family type differences

In 2012, people living in families without children (79.5 percent of couples without children and 81.3 percent of those not in a family nucleus) were more likely than people living in families with children (74.7 percent of people living in a couple with children and 74.6 percent of people in sole-parent families) to say their contact with non-resident friends was about right.

Migrant status differences

In 2012, 77.0 percent of New Zealand-born people said the amount of contact they had with family who didn't live with them was about right. The figures for longer-term migrants (78.6 percent) and migrants who had arrived in New Zealand (77.0 percent) within the last five years were similar.

Regional differences

In 2012, Auckland (80.1 percent) and Southland (79.6 percent) had the highest proportion of people who felt their amount of contact with non-resident friends was about right. Otago had the lowest proportion who felt this way (72.6 percent).

Data for this section can be found at: www.socialreport.msd.govt.nz/documents/2016/sc2.xlsx

Contact between young people and their parents

Definition

The proportion of secondary school students aged 12–18 years who said they got enough time with mum and/or dad (or someone who acts as mum and/or dad) most of the time.

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.⁵⁹

Current level and trends

In 2012, as reported in the Youth'12 survey, 58 percent of secondary school students said they got enough time with at least one of their parents most of the time. This was a similar proportion to 2007 (57 percent), but smaller than in 2001 (62 percent).⁶⁰

About half of the students (49 percent) felt they got enough time with their mothers most of the time, while fewer students (37 percent) felt they got enough time with their fathers most of the time.

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-one 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, 50 percent); that the parent was out; or that the parent was not living with them (particularly fathers, 22 percent and 27 percent respectively).

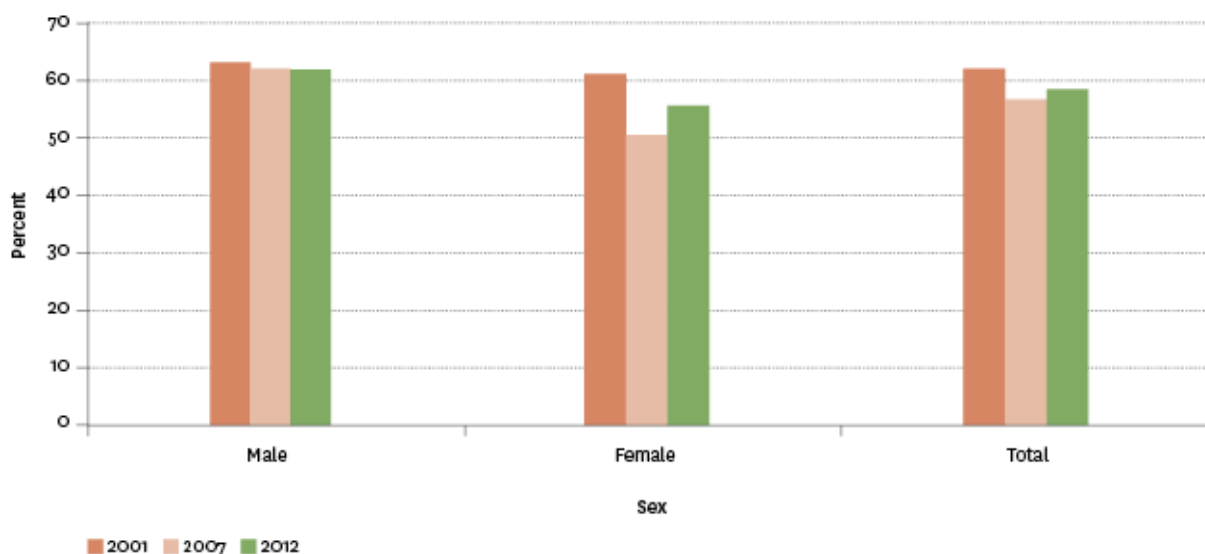
Sex differences

In 2012, more male students (62 percent) than female students (55 percent) reported that most of the time they got enough time with at least one of their parents. This difference between male and female students was also found in 2007 (62 percent and 50 percent respectively), but not in 2001.

The proportion of female students who reported that they got enough time with at least one of their parents fell between 2001 and 2007, but rose again in 2012. However, there was no real change for male students over the three survey periods.

Both male and female students were more likely to say they got enough time with their mothers than with their fathers. Females (33 percent) were less likely to report getting enough time with their fathers when compared with males (42 percent). There were no real differences between the sexes regarding time spent with mothers.

Figure SC3.1 – Proportion of secondary school students who said they get enough time with their parent(s) most of the time, by sex, 2001–2012



Source: Adolescent Health Research Group

Age differences

Younger students were slightly more likely than older students to report that most of the time they got enough time with their mother or father. Across all age groups, students were more likely to report that they got enough time with their mother than with their father.

Table SC3.1 – Proportion of secondary school students who get enough time with their mother or father most of the time, by age of student, 2012

Parent	Under 14	14	15	16	17+
Mother	52	49	49	47	48
Father	40	39	36	34	37

Source: Adolescent Health Research Group

Ethnic differences

Sixty-three percent of European students said they got enough time with at least one of their parents most of the time. Fewer Pacific (54 percent), Asian (54 percent) and Māori (53 percent) students reported this.⁶¹

Socio-economic differences

Students who were living in areas with low levels of deprivation (NZDep2006 score of 1–3) were more likely than students living in areas with medium (NZDep2006 score of 4–7) or high (NZDep2006 score of 8–10) levels of deprivation to report that most of the time they got enough time with their parents.⁶²

Fifty-three percent of students living in areas with low levels of deprivation said they got enough time with their mother most of the time, and 40 percent said they got enough time with their father most of the time. For students living in areas with medium levels of deprivation, the figures were 50 percent and 36 percent respectively; and for those living in areas of high deprivation, the figures were 43 percent and 36 percent respectively.

Data for this section can be found at: www.socialreport.msd.govt.nz/documents/2016/sc3.xlsx

Trust in others

Definition

The proportion of the population aged 15 years and over who reported that most people in New Zealand can be trusted.

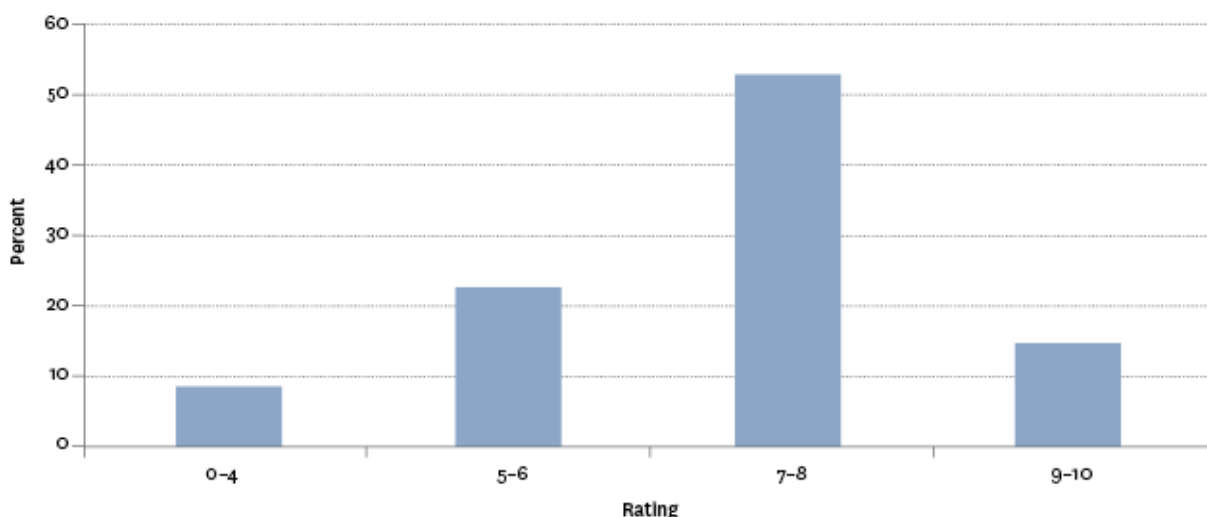
Relevance

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 the 2014 New Zealand General Social Survey (NZGSS), 68.4 percent of the population aged 15 years and over said that most people can be trusted (ie those that chose 7 or above on a scale of 0–10, where 0 is “not at all” and 10 is “completely”). A further 22.9 percent chose 5 or 6 on the scale, and 8.7 percent chose 0–4 on the scale.⁶³

Figure SC4.1 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over by levels of trust in others, 2014



Source: Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand General Social Survey

Age and sex differences

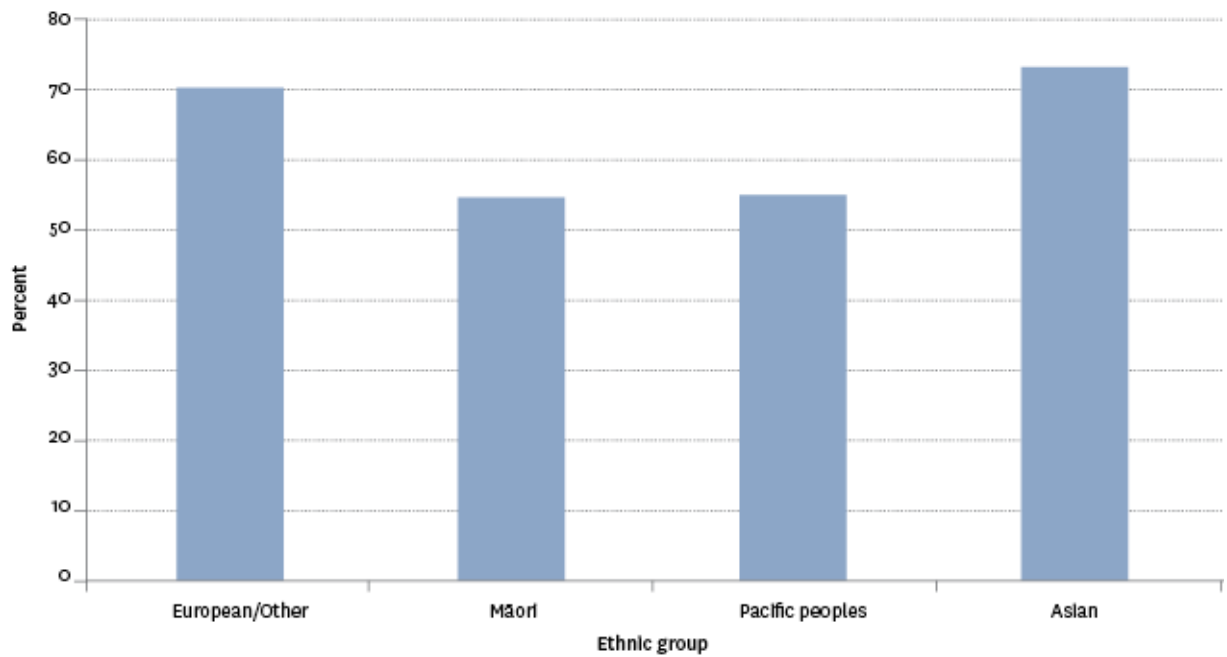
In 2014, people in the younger age groups (65.4 percent of those aged 15–24 years, and 63.5 percent of those aged 25–34 years) were less likely than people in the older age groups (73.4 percent of those aged 65 and over) to say that most people can be trusted. The rates for those aged 35–44 years, 45–54 years and 55–64 years were 69.8 percent, 68.5 percent and 69.7 percent respectively.

The proportions of people aged 15 years and over who said most people can be trusted were similar for males (69.0 percent) and females (67.8 percent).

Ethnic differences

In 2014, people in the Asian (73.2 percent) and European/Other (70.2 percent) ethnic groups reported higher levels of trust than Pacific peoples (54.9 percent) and Māori (54.6 percent).

Figure SC4.2 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who said they could trust most people, by ethnic group, 2014



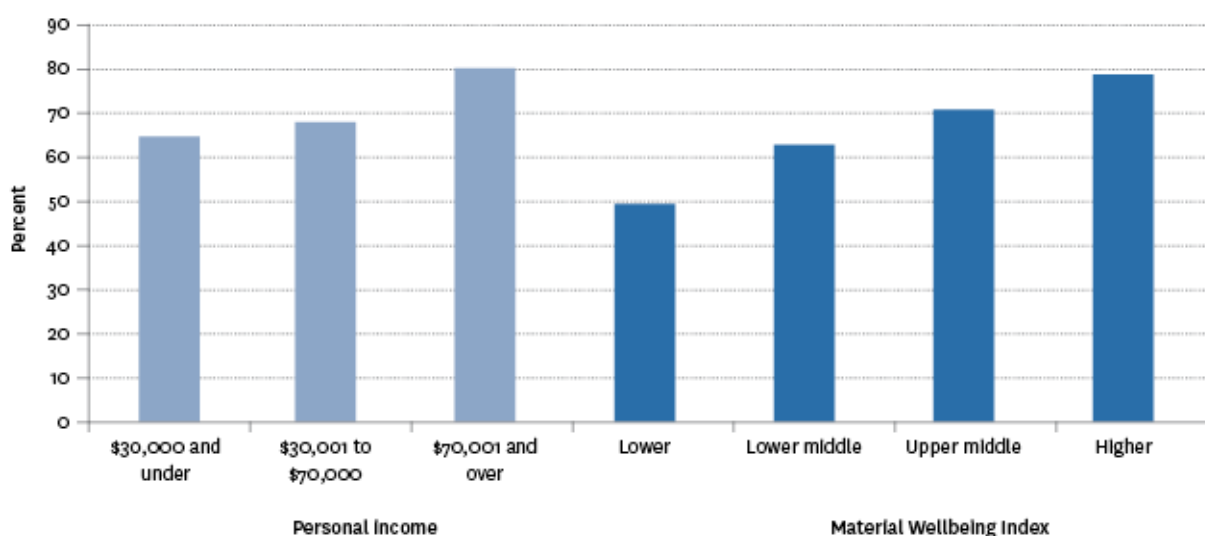
Source: Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand General Social Survey

Socio-economic differences

Levels of trust in others increase as income increases. People with personal incomes of over \$70,000 (80.3 percent) reported higher levels of trust than those on lower incomes (68.1 percent of those earning between \$30,001 and \$70,000, and 64.8 percent of those earning \$30,000 or less).

A similar pattern emerged with material wellbeing. Those in the higher material wellbeing index category (78.9 percent) had much higher levels of trust in others than people in the lower material wellbeing index category (49.4 percent). Those in the upper middle and lower middle categories had rates of 70.9 percent and 62.9 percent respectively.

Figure SC4.3 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who said they could trust most people, by personal income and Material Wellbeing Index, 2014



Source: Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand General Social Survey

Labour status differences

In 2014, unemployed people (50.1 percent) were less likely than employed people (70.1 percent) and people not in the labour force (66.9 percent) to report trusting most people.

Family type differences

People in sole-parent families (53.5 percent) were less likely than people in other family types to have trust in most people in New Zealand. People living in a couple without children (73.5 percent) and people living in a couple with children (70.3 percent) had the highest levels of trust among the different family types in 2014. Around two-thirds (64.5 percent) of people not in a family nucleus said most people could be trusted.

Migrant status differences

In 2014, people who had arrived in New Zealand within the last five years (80.5 percent) were more likely to report that most people could be trusted, compared with longer-term migrants (73.7 percent) and those born in New Zealand (65.9 percent).

Regional differences

In 2014, those living in Wellington (74.3 percent) had the highest levels of reported trust in others, followed by Southland (71.9 percent). People living in Northland (57.6 percent) and Gisborne/Hawke's Bay (59.9 percent) reported the lowest levels of trust in others.

International comparison

New Zealand's reported level of trust in other people (69 percent in 2007, using a different survey from the NZGSS) was above the median of 61 percent for 30 of the OECD countries. Denmark had the highest reported level of trust in people (89 percent in 2008), followed by Norway (88 percent in 2008), Finland (86 percent in 2008) and Sweden (84 percent in 2008). The United Kingdom reported the same level of trust as New Zealand (69 percent in 2008), while Australia (64 percent in 2007) and the United States (49 percent in 2007) reported lower levels.

Data for this section can be found at: www.socialreport.msd.govt.nz/documents/2016/sc4.xlsx

Loneliness

Definition

The proportion of the population aged 15 years and over who reported feeling lonely “all of the time”, “most of the time”, or “some of the time” in the last four weeks.

Relevance

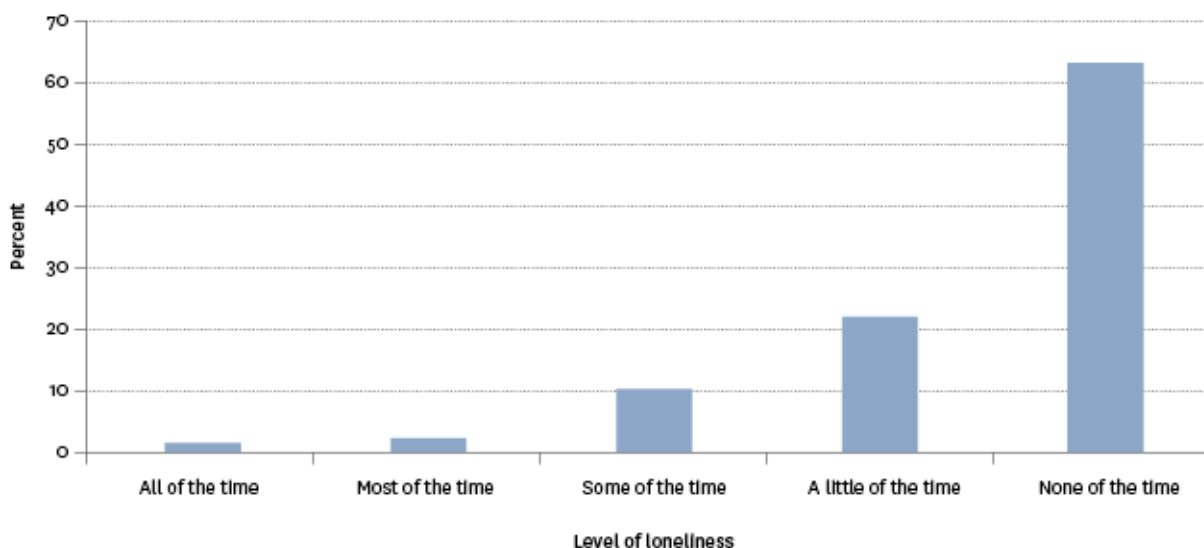
Social contact is fundamentally important to people: humans are social creatures. Self-assessed loneliness is an indicative indicator of whether people are happy with the amount and quality of social contact they have. As well as being an undesirable state in itself, loneliness may also contribute to poor outcomes in other areas including adverse health problems such as stress, anxiety or depression.

Current level

Based on the revised question in the 2014 New Zealand General Social Survey (NZGSS), 13.9 percent of the population aged 15 years and over reported feeling lonely all, most or some of the time during the last four weeks.⁶⁴

Of the people who reported feeling lonely, 1.4 percent said they were lonely all of the time, 2.2 percent said they were lonely most of the time and 10.3 percent said they were lonely some of the time. A further 22.2 percent reported feeling lonely a little of the time, while 63.9 percent said they were not lonely at all in the last four weeks.

Figure SC5.1 – Levels of loneliness experienced by the population aged 15 years and over during the last four weeks, 2014



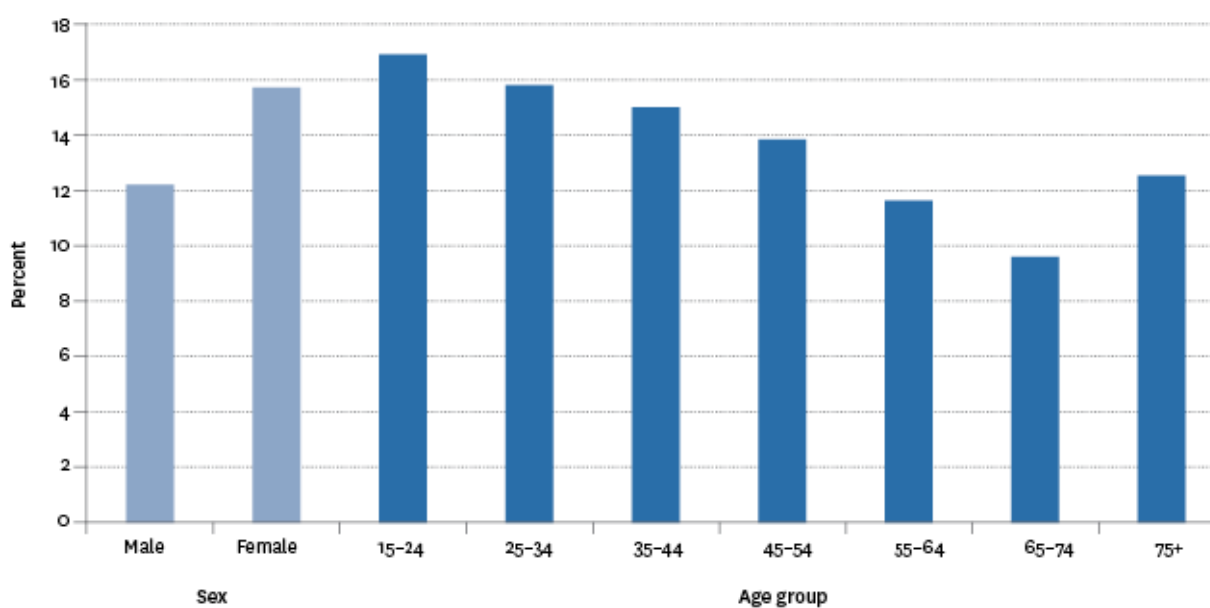
Source: Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand General Social Survey

Age and sex differences

In general, loneliness decreases as age increases. Those aged 15–24 years had the highest levels of loneliness (16.8 percent), while those aged 65–74 had the lowest levels (9.6 percent).

In 2014, females (15.6 percent) were more likely than males (12.1 percent) to report feeling lonely sometimes, most of the time, or always, during the last four weeks.

Figure SC5.2 – Proportion of population who reported feeling lonely all, most or some of the time during the last four weeks, by sex and age group, 2014



Source: Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand General Social Survey

Ethnic differences

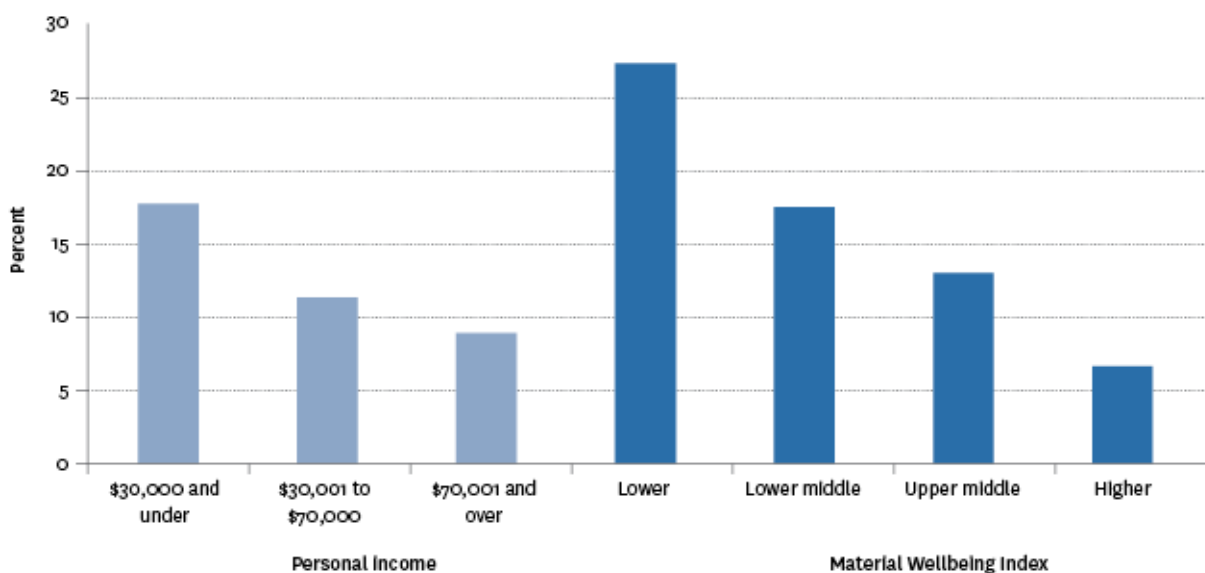
Ethnic groups reported similar rates of loneliness in 2014. Those in the European/Other group had a reported rate of 13.2 percent, which was similar to the rate for Pacific peoples (13.5 percent). The rates for Māori and those in the Asian ethnic group were 16.6 percent and 16.7 percent respectively.

Socio-economic differences

In 2014, levels of reported loneliness declined as personal income rose. People with personal incomes of \$30,000 or less (17.6 percent) had double the rate of loneliness of those with incomes over \$70,000 (8.8 percent). The rate for those with personal incomes between \$30,001 and \$70,000 was 11.3 percent.

There is a similar pattern with material wellbeing. People in the lower material wellbeing index category (27.1 percent) reported higher levels of loneliness than people in the higher material wellbeing index category (6.6 percent). Those in the upper middle and lower middle categories had rates of 12.9 percent and 17.4 percent respectively.

Figure SC5.3 – Proportion of population who reported feeling lonely all, most or some of the time during the last four weeks, by personal income and Material Wellbeing Index, 2014



Source: Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand General Social Survey

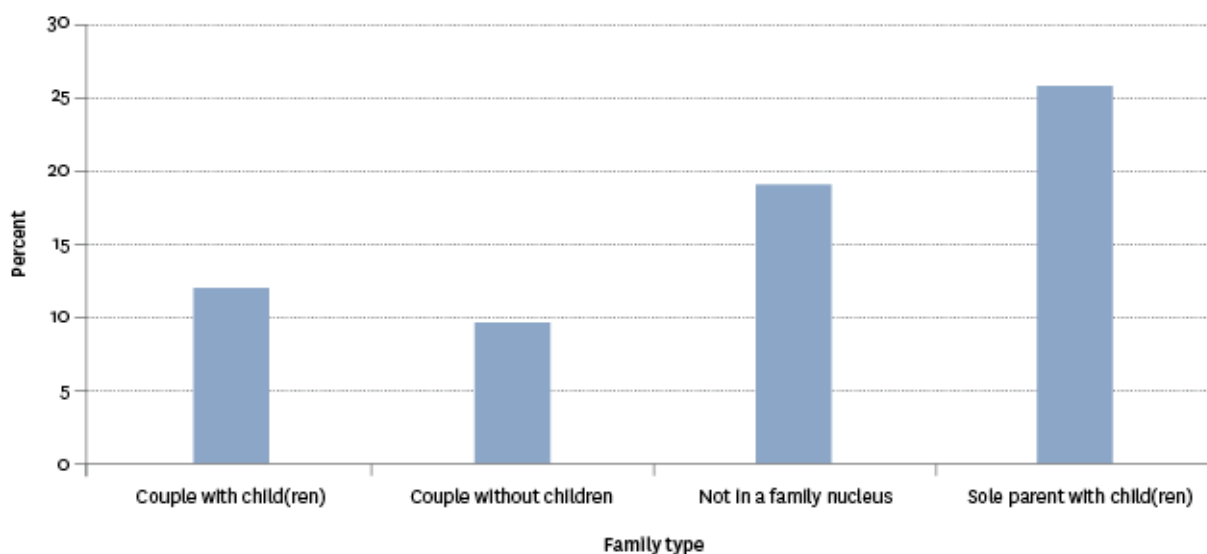
Labour force status differences

In 2014, unemployed people (22.7 percent) were more likely to report feeling lonely in the last four weeks, compared with employed people (12.1 percent) and those not in the labour force (16.9 percent).

Family type differences

People who lived in sole-parent households with one or more children (25.6 percent) were more likely to report feeling lonely in the last four weeks than people who lived as couples with or without children (11.9 percent and 9.5 percent respectively). People not living in a family nucleus (18.9 percent) were more likely than people living as couples to report feeling lonely.

Figure SC5.4 – Proportion of population who reported feeling lonely all, most or some of the time during the last four weeks, by family type, 2014



Source: Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand General Social Survey

Migrant status differences

Migrants who had arrived in New Zealand less than five years ago (16.9 percent), longer-term migrants (15.2 percent) and those born in New Zealand (13.4 percent) reported similar rates of loneliness in 2014.

Regional differences

In 2014, people living in Northland had the highest reported rates of loneliness (17.7 percent), followed by Otago (16.9 percent). There was not much variation between regions in the rest of New Zealand. People living in the Tasman/Nelson/Marlborough/West Coast region had the lowest rates of loneliness (12.7 percent), while the other regions had rates between 12.9 percent and 14.2 percent.

Data for this section can be found at: www.socialreport.msd.govt.nz/documents/2016/sc5.xlsx

Voluntary work

Definition

The proportion of the population aged 15 years and over who reported doing voluntary work for a group or organisation in the past four weeks.

Relevance

Voluntary work underpins a wide range of groups and organisations whose activities contribute to social wellbeing including 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.

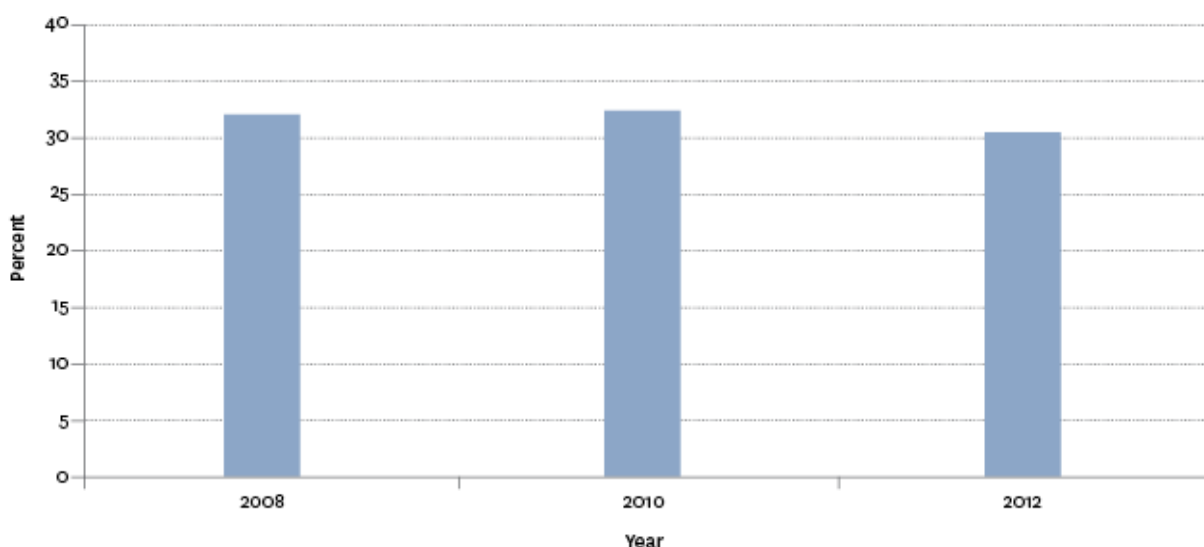
Volunteers provide their time and skills to help others and to make a contribution. People also volunteer so they can meet others, develop their skills and broaden their experiences, make contacts that may lead to employment, and fulfil parental, social, cultural and religious obligations.

Current level and trends

In 2012, 30.6 percent of people aged 15 years and over reported doing voluntary work in the past four weeks for a group or organisation, as measured by the New Zealand General Social Survey.⁶⁵ This included sports or exercise groups; hobby, recreation or social groups; ethnic or cultural groups; environmental or animal welfare groups; business, professional or union groups; political or lobby groups; health, welfare or support groups; local community or neighbourhood groups; and emergency services.

The proportion of people volunteering decreased slightly (1.6 percentage points) between 2008 and 2012.

Figure SC6.1 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who reported doing voluntary work in the past four weeks, 2008–2012



Source: Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand General Social Survey

Most people volunteered either once or twice a week (39.5 percent) or once a fortnight or less (43.2 percent). Most volunteer work involved face-to-face contact with people (92.9 percent). There were no differences in terms of frequency of face-to-face contact by sex, age group or ethnic group.

Age and sex differences

There were small differences between males and females, with females slightly more likely to have done voluntary work in the past four weeks (31.7 percent, compared with 29.5 percent for males in 2012). Small differences have also been found in 2008, while slightly more males (32.6 percent) than females (32.5 percent) reported doing voluntary work in 2010.

In 2012, people aged 65 years and over and between 45–54 years were most likely to have done voluntary work in the past four weeks (35.0 percent and 34.4 percent respectively). Those aged 15–24 years (27.8 percent) and 25–34 years (24.8 percent) were least likely to undertake voluntary work.

Lower proportions of the younger age groups (ie 15–24; 25–34 years) also undertook voluntary work in 2008 and 2010.

Table SC6.1 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who reported doing voluntary work in the past four weeks, by age group and sex, 2008–2012

	15–24	25–34	35–44	45–54	55–64	65+
2008						
Male	30.0	24.1	31.3	35.1	36.7	33.9
Female	25.5	25.9	38.6	35.1	36.8	34.3
Total	27.8	25.0	35.1	35.1	36.7	34.1
2010						
Male	29.6	25.7	35.0	35.8	37.2	33.2
Female	28.1	25.8	34.8	37.6	35.0	33.4
Total	28.8	25.8	34.9	36.7	36.1	33.3
2012						
Male	24.7	25.4	28.4	34.9	28.8	35.1
Female	31.1	24.3	32.1	33.9	34.0	35.0
Total	27.8	24.8	30.4	34.4	31.4	35.0

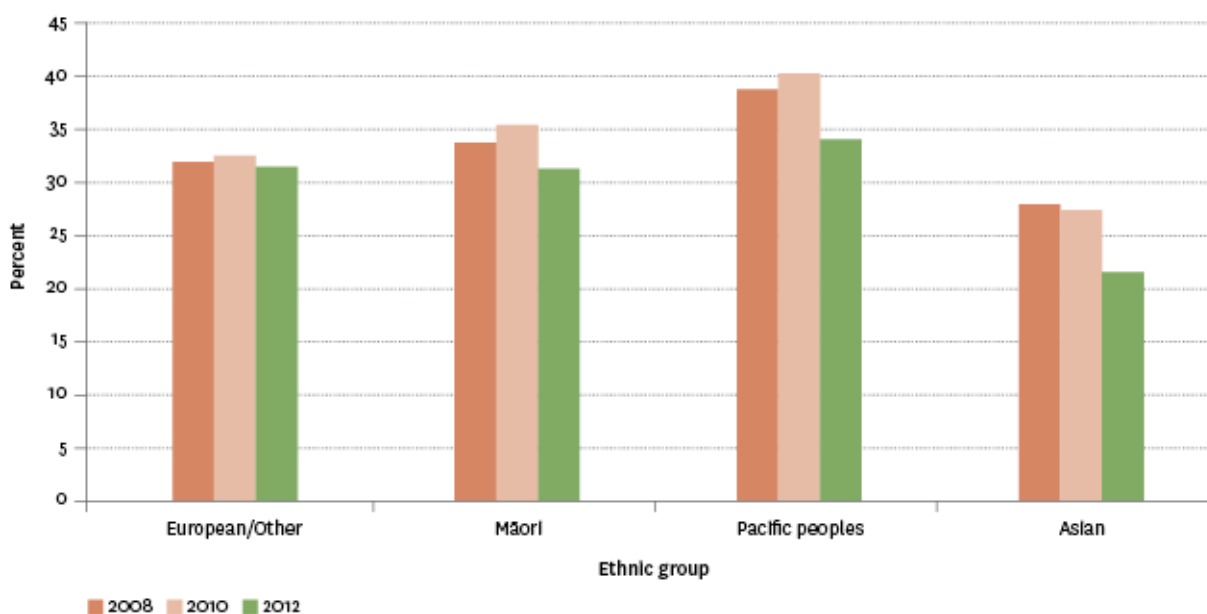
Source: Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand General Social Survey

Ethnic differences

In 2012, people who identified as European/Other were more likely than those in the Asian ethnic group to volunteer (31.5 percent compared with 21.6 percent). Pacific peoples and Māori had similar proportions of volunteering to European/Other (34.1 percent and 31.4 percent respectively).

In general, there has been a drop in volunteering for all ethnic groups between 2010 and 2012.

Figure SC6.2 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over who reported doing voluntary work in the past four weeks, by ethnic group, 2008–2012



Source: Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand General Social Survey

Socio-economic differences

In 2012, income level did not appear to affect volunteering: 29.4 percent of people with a personal income of \$30,000 or less volunteered in the last four weeks, compared with 30.7 percent of those in the \$30,001–\$70,000 income group and 34.6 percent of those in the \$70,001 and over group.

The proportion of people volunteering generally increased as people’s material wellbeing increased. In 2012, 34.2 percent of people in the higher material wellbeing index category reported volunteering in the past four weeks, compared with 24.1 percent of people living in the lower material wellbeing index category. The proportion of people in the lower middle and upper middle categories were 29.6 percent and 28.8 percent respectively.

Labour force status differences

In 2012, those unemployed were slightly more likely to volunteer in the past four weeks (34.7 percent, compared with 30.7 percent of employed people and 29.9 percent of people who were not in the labour force (eg retired, studying, caring for others)).

Family type differences

Couples, with and without children, were more likely than other groups to undertake volunteering. In 2012, 34.7 percent of people living in a couple with children and 31.4 percent of people living in a couple without children were volunteers, compared with 24.8 percent for people not in a family nucleus and 22.9 percent of sole-parent families.

Migrant status differences

In 2012, recent migrants (18.2 percent) were less likely to volunteer, compared with 32.1 percent of people born in New Zealand, and 29.1 percent of longer-term migrants. There was a 10.5 percentage point decrease in the proportion of recent migrants volunteering compared with 2008.

Regional differences

In 2012, people living in Otago (38.6 percent) and Taranaki (36.4 percent) had the highest volunteering rates. People living in Auckland (27.7 percent) and Northland (28.8 percent) had the lowest rates.

International comparison

Comparisons can be made with OECD countries by looking at the proportion of people who reported having volunteered some of their time during the previous 12 months. In 2014 or the latest available year, New Zealand had the highest proportion of people volunteering at 45 percent; Australia had 40 percent and the United States had 44 percent. The OECD mean and median were 26 percent, with Greece having the lowest proportion with 7 percent of its people volunteering some of their time during the previous 12 months.

Data for this section can be found at: www.socialreport.msd.govt.nz/documents/2016/sc6.xlsx

Life satisfaction

Desired outcomes

Everyone is satisfied with their life as a whole.

Introduction

One way of measuring wellbeing is asking about life satisfaction – a subjective measure that looks at how satisfied people are with their lives.

Life satisfaction can be used as an indicator of the quality of people's lives; to monitor social progress; and to assess the policy effects aimed at improvements in the quality of life. People's ratings of their life satisfaction can be influenced by a number of factors including health; work; economic standard of living; cultural identity; leisure and recreation; safety; and social connectedness.

Indicator

The headline indicator used in this chapter is overall life satisfaction from the New Zealand General Social Survey (NZGSS). It measures people's perceived satisfaction with their lives overall.

Domain summary

In 2014, the majority of New Zealanders rated their overall life satisfaction highly and felt that the things they did in their lives were worthwhile.

Overall life satisfaction

Definition

The proportion of the population aged 15 years and over who rated their overall life satisfaction highly.

Relevance

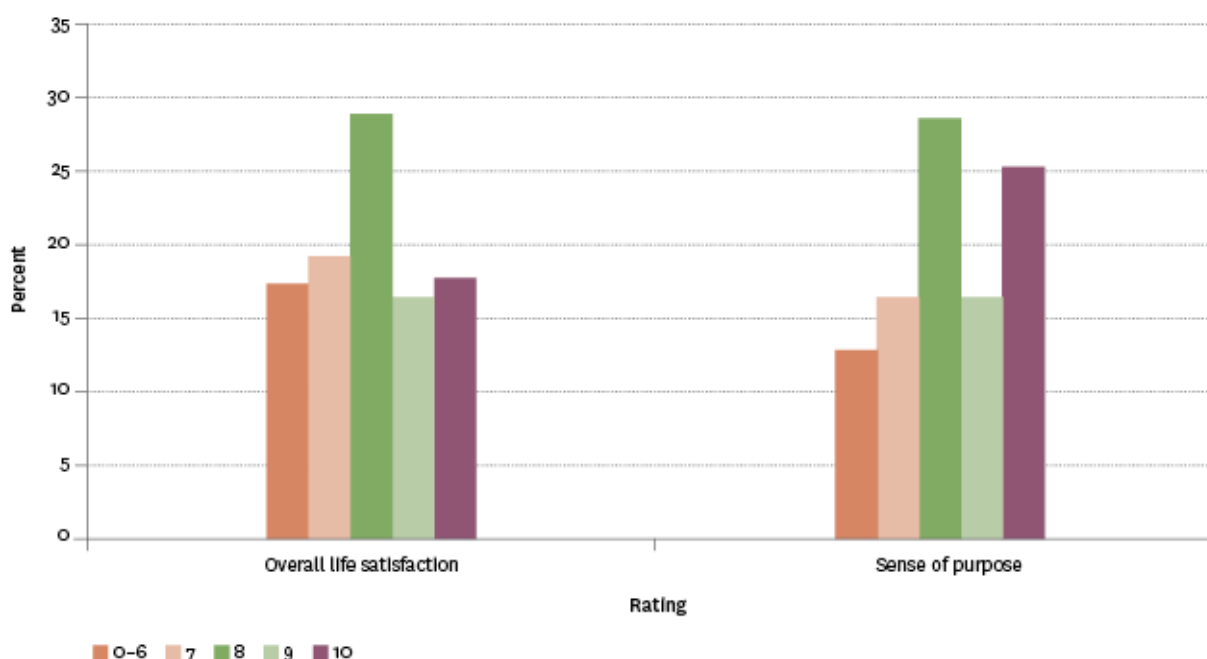
Overall life satisfaction is an indicator of subjective wellbeing. A number of circumstances may influence overall life satisfaction, such as health; education; employment; income; personality; family and social connections; civil and human rights; levels of trust and altruism; and opportunities for democratic participation.

Current level

Based on the revised question in the 2014 NZGSS, 82.6 percent of the population aged 15 years and over rated their life satisfaction highly (ie gave a rating of 7 or above on a 0–10 scale, with 0 being completely dissatisfied and 10 being completely satisfied).⁶⁶

In the survey, people were also asked about their sense of purpose: a higher proportion of the population (87.1 percent) felt that the things they did in their life were worthwhile (ie gave a rating of 7 or above on a 0–10 scale, with 0 being not at all worthwhile and 10 being completely worthwhile).

Figure LS1.1 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over by ratings of overall life satisfaction and sense of purpose, 2014



Source: Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand General Social Survey

Age and sex differences

Males and females had similar levels of life satisfaction. In 2014, 83.4 percent of males rated their life satisfaction highly, compared with 81.8 percent of females.

Those aged 65 years and over had the highest levels of life satisfaction (85.9 percent), with one-third (31.5 percent) rating their satisfaction as 10 out of 10. In comparison, those aged 45–54 years had the lowest levels of life satisfaction (80.2 percent), with only 13.1 percent of this age group rating their satisfaction as 10 out of 10.

Table LS1.1 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over by ratings of overall life satisfaction, by age group, 2014

Age group	0–6	7	8	9	10	Combined 7–10
15–24	16.7	21.6	30.3	16.4	15.0	83.3
25–34	17.9	22.5	31.4	15.6	12.5	82.1
35–44	17.7	23.2	28.4	17.5	13.1	82.3
45–54	19.8	19.0	31.1	17.0	13.1	80.2
55–64	18.5	16.9	28.7	14.7	21.1	81.5
65+	14.1	12.4	24.4	17.7	31.5	85.9
Total	17.4	19.3	29.0	16.5	17.8	82.6

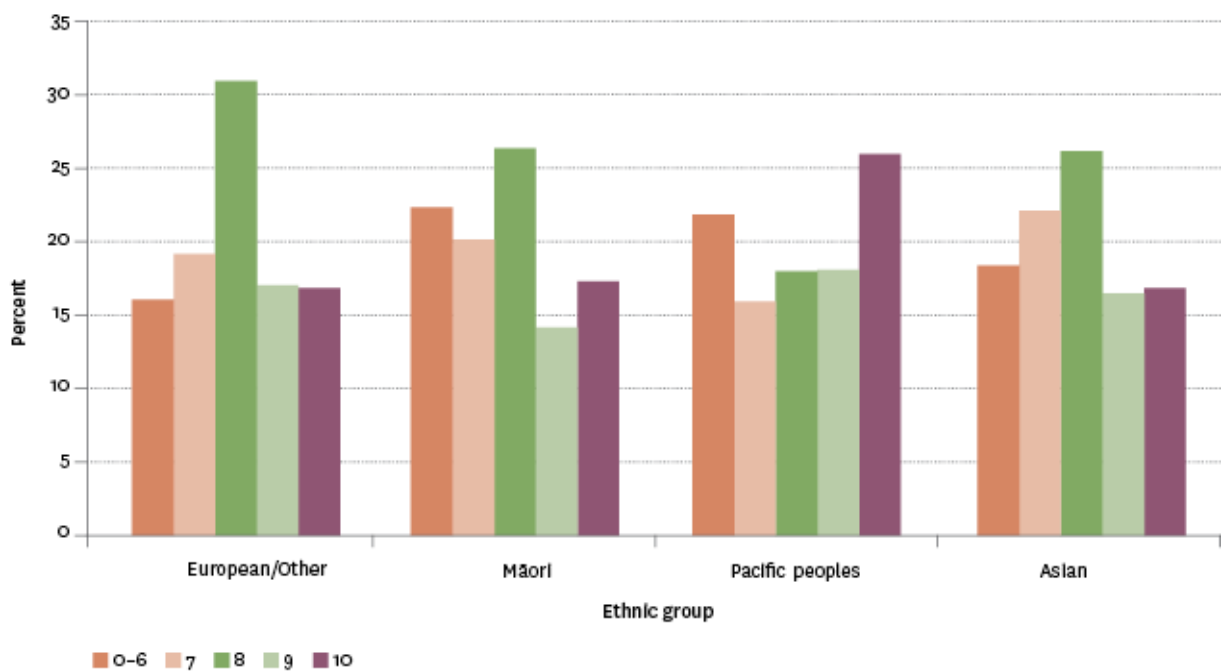
Source: Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand General Social Survey

Ethnic differences

In 2014, those who identified as European/Other had the highest reported life satisfaction (84.0 percent rating their satisfaction at 7 or above), followed by people in the Asian ethnic group (81.6 percent). Māori (77.8 percent) and Pacific peoples (78.1 percent) were slightly less likely to rate their overall life satisfaction highly.

Pacific peoples had the highest proportion of people rating their overall life satisfaction at 10 out of 10 (25.9 percent), compared with 17.3 percent of Māori and 16.9 percent each for European/Other and those in the Asian ethnic group.

Figure LS1.2 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over by ratings of overall life satisfaction, by ethnic group, 2014



Source: Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand General Social Survey

Socio-economic differences

The proportion of people who rated their overall life satisfaction highly increases as their material wellbeing increases. In 2014, 92.4 percent of people in the higher material wellbeing index category were satisfied with their lives, compared with 62.1 percent of people in the lower material wellbeing index category. The satisfaction levels for people in the lower middle material wellbeing index category and upper middle category were 78.3 percent and 85.5 percent respectively.

Table LS1.2 – Proportion of population aged 15 years and over by ratings of overall life satisfaction, by Material Wellbeing Index, 2014

MWI category	0–4	5	6	7–10
Lower	12.7	15.0	10.2	62.1
Lower middle	3.4	9.8	8.5	78.3
Upper middle	2.8	4.8	6.9	85.5
Higher	1.2	2.7	3.7	92.4
Total	4.0	6.8	6.7	82.6

Source: Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand General Social Survey

A similar pattern was found when looking at personal income: 92.5 percent of people with a personal income over \$70,000 rated their life satisfaction highly, compared with 78.3 percent of those with a personal income of \$30,000 and under, and 84.0 percent of those with a personal income between \$30,001 and \$70,000.

Labour force status differences

In 2014, those who were employed (84.4 percent) and those not in the labour force (eg retired, studying, caring for others (80.0 percent)) were more satisfied with their lives compared with those who were unemployed (70.5 percent).

Family type differences

Couples were more likely to be satisfied than other family types. In 2014, people living in a couple with children and people living in a couple without children (85.2 percent and 87.4 percent respectively) were more satisfied with their lives, compared with 76.7 percent for people not in a family nucleus and sole-parent families (69.6 percent).

Migrant status differences

In 2014, 88.2 percent of migrants who had arrived in New Zealand in the past five years rated their life satisfaction highly, compared with 82.2 percent of longer-term migrants and 82.4 percent of people born in New Zealand.

Regional differences

Taranaki (86.9 percent) and Waikato (85.0 percent) had the highest proportions of people who rated their life satisfaction highly. Manawatu-Wanganui (78.7 percent) and Northland (80.2 percent) had the lowest proportions.

International comparison

OECD comparisons can be made by looking at the average score for life satisfaction for OECD countries in 2014 or the latest available year.

New Zealand (7.3) was above the OECD median of 6.9. New Zealand had the same average score as Australia and Canada, but was higher than the United States (7.2) and the United Kingdom (6.8). Denmark, Iceland and Switzerland each had the highest score of 7.5, while Greece (4.8) and Hungary (4.9) had the lowest average scores.

Data for this section can be found at: www.socialreport.msd.govt.nz/documents/2016/ls1.xlsx

Social wellbeing summary

Introduction

This summary section has three parts.

Firstly, *recent-change* and *medium-term-change* are looked at to see if outcomes have improved or worsened for selected social wellbeing indicators.

Secondly, selected New Zealand's social wellbeing outcomes are compared with those of other Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries.

Finally, a table provides detailed summary information on each indicator.

Radial charts are used here, and in the demographic section, to visualise changes over time or variations across groups. Radial charts provide a good way of quickly presenting complex information. However, this style of presentation means that direct comparisons in the size of change for different indicators cannot be made. In addition, while a radial chart may indicate a change or difference in outcomes, the change may not be statistically significant. This will often be true for indicators that fall on, or close to, the central circle.

Recent-change and medium-term-change

In the Health domain, life expectancy at birth for males and females showed improvements in terms of *medium-term-change*, while self-rated health showed improvements for *recent-change* and *medium-term-change*. Obesity rates for adults and children were stable when looking at *recent-change*, but increased for *medium-term-change*. While the cigarette smoking rate had not changed recently, it decreased in terms of *medium-term-change*. Psychological distress, potentially hazardous drinking, suicide, and participation in physical activity showed stable results for *recent-change* and *medium-term change*.

There were improvements in *recent-change* and *medium-term-change* for many of the Knowledge and Skills indicators: participation in early childhood education; school leavers with higher qualifications; and educational attainment of adult population (NCEA and Bachelor's).

In the Paid Work domain, satisfaction with work-life balance increased in terms of *medium-term-change*. There were stable *recent-change* results for median hourly earnings, work-related injury and job satisfaction, though all showed improvements when looking at *medium-term-change*. Unemployment and employment rates improved when looking at *recent-change*, but worsened for *medium-term-change*.

Most indicators in the Economic Standard of Living domain had steady results when looking at *recent-change* and *medium-term-change*. This included income inequality, the population with low incomes, housing affordability, and household crowding. In comparison, market income per person and the proportion of households facing material hardship improved in terms of *recent-change* and *medium-term-change*.

In the Civil and Political Rights domain, representation of women in Parliament was stable for *recent-change* and *medium-term-change*. However, representation of ethnic groups in government improved in the two time periods. Voter turnout in general elections decreased when looking at *medium-term-change*, though turnout increased when looking between the most recent general elections.

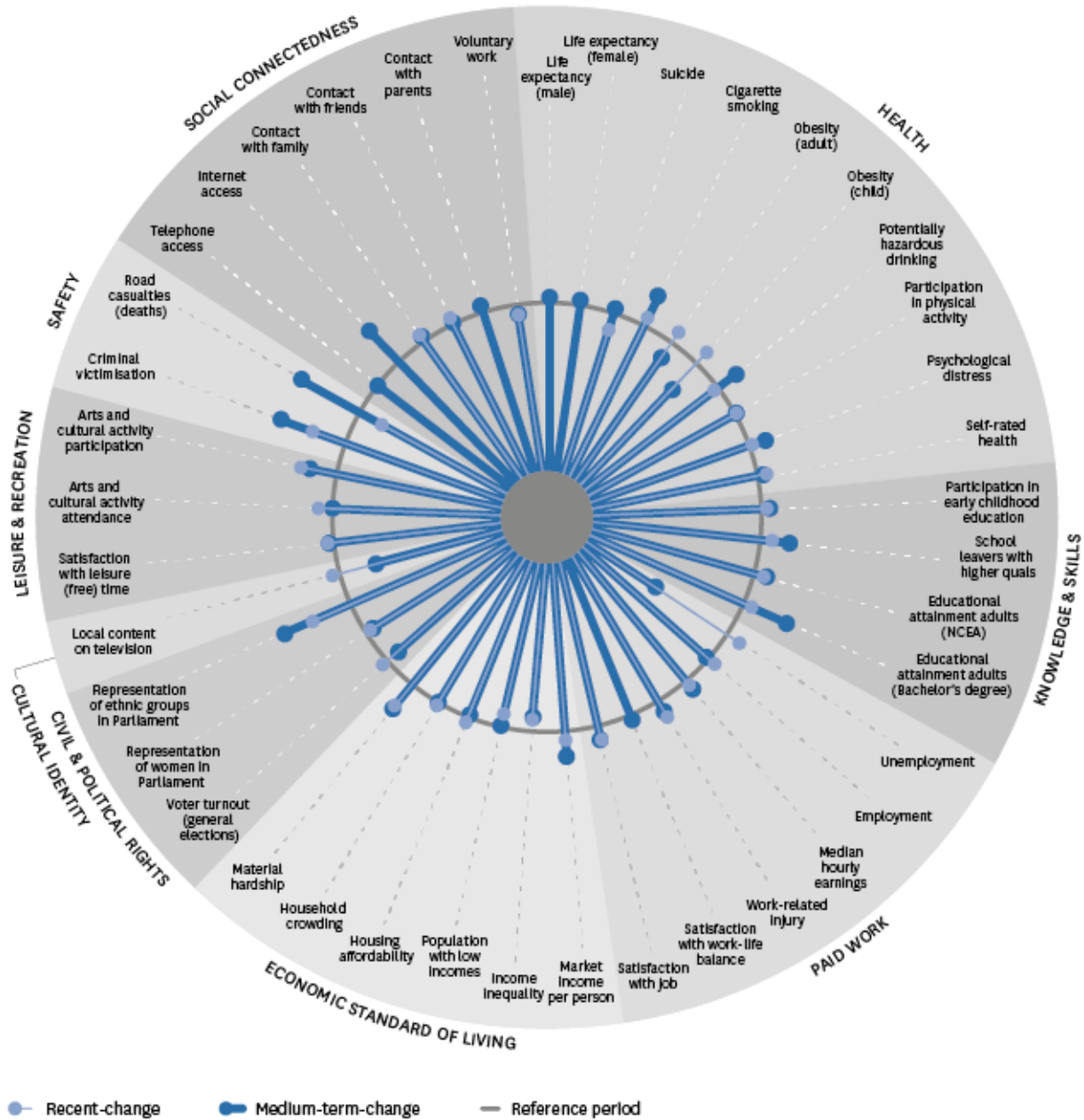
Local content programming on New Zealand television in the Cultural Identity domain showed stable results for *recent-change*, but a decrease in terms of *medium-term-change*.

In the Leisure and Recreation domain, active participation in arts and cultural activities showed improvement when looking at *recent-change* and *medium-term-change*, while attendance in arts and cultural activities had an increase in *recent-change* but there was no *medium-term-change*. People's satisfaction with leisure time was stable when looking at *recent-change* and *medium-term-change*.





The proportion of people experiencing criminal victimisation in the Safety domain decreased for both *recent-change* and *medium-term-change*. While road casualties (deaths) showed an improvement in terms of *medium-term-change*, there was an increase in death rates in *recent-change*.

In the Social Connectedness domain, results were stable in terms of *recent-change* and *medium-term-change* for contact with family and friends, and people undertaking voluntary work. Telephone access in the household and contact between young people and their families were stable in terms of *medium-term-change*. Internet access in the household, in comparison, increased for the same time period.

Figure SU1.1 – Recent-change and medium-term-change for social wellbeing outcomes for selected indicators



Interpreting “Recent-change and medium-term-change for social wellbeing outcomes for selected indicators”

- For **recent-change**, the inner circle  references outcomes for each indicator for the period directly before the most recent data points available for that indicator (2005–2013).
- For **medium-term-change**, the inner circle  references outcomes for each indicator for a period set at approximately 2005–2008.
- The light blue spokes  represent changes between the most recent period and the period directly before this.
- The dark blue spokes  represent changes between the most recent period and the set period (2005–2008).
- Where a spoke falls outside the reference circle, the outcome for this indicator has improved.
- Where a spoke falls inside the reference circle, the outcome for this indicator has worsened.

Note: In some cases for medium-term-change the data is averaged over the three years in each period. The absence of medium-term-change data for some indicators limits the number of indicators that can be displayed. For the following indicators, the recent-change and medium-term-change are the same period due to the nature of the data collection: Life expectancy, satisfaction with work-life balance, telephone and internet access in the household, contact between young people and parents (these indicators show only medium-term-change).

Limitations: This style of presentation means that direct comparisons in the size of changes for different indicators cannot be made. Users should refer to the indicator section for more information. While a radial chart may indicate a change or difference in outcomes, the change may not be statistically significant. This will often be true for indicators that fall on, or close to, the central circle.

Comparisons with OECD countries

This part looks at New Zealanders' social wellbeing relative to that of people in OECD countries. It should be noted that, in some cases, the internationally comparative measures presented may differ from the New Zealand measures used in the Social Report, and not all the international data provided in this report is presented here. This reflects the difficulty in making direct international comparisons for many indicators.

For the measures presented, New Zealand is ahead of, or close to, the OECD median for over two-thirds of comparable measures reported in Figure SU1.2.

In the Health domain, New Zealand is performing better than the OECD median for cigarette smoking and self-rated health. There are similar results for life expectancy and suicide, but obesity rates are worse than the OECD median.

In the Knowledge and Skills domain, results are slightly better than the OECD median for early childhood participation and for tertiary enrolments of 20–29 year olds. While New Zealand has similar results for attainment at Bachelor's degree level for 25–64 year olds, this age group does less well in terms of those with at least upper secondary education.

In terms of paid work, while New Zealand's long-term results are generally poorer in comparison with the OECD median, New Zealand does comparatively well for both unemployment and employment. Job satisfaction is similar to the OECD median but New Zealand is not performing well in the measure on working long hours (which reflects the headline measure of work-life balance).

New Zealand's measures in the Economic Standard of Living domain tend to be lower than or similar to the OECD median, with higher rates of income inequality, lower gross national income per person, and similar rates for the proportion of the population in households with low incomes. New Zealanders, however, do better overall for material wellbeing.

In the Civil and Political Rights domain, over time New Zealand does very well against the OECD median. In particular, New Zealand is doing better than the OECD for perceived corruption, voter turnout and representation of women in government.



For the Safety domain, the comparative picture with the OECD is less impressive, with higher rates for assault mortality and fear of crime but similar rates for road casualty deaths.

In terms of the Social Connectedness and Life Satisfaction domains, New Zealand is again doing well with better results than the OECD for trust in others, voluntary work and a similar result for overall life satisfaction.

Figure SU1.2 – Social wellbeing in New Zealand, relative to OECD countries



Interpreting “Social wellbeing in New Zealand, relative to OECD countries”

This figure shows New Zealanders’ social wellbeing relative to that of people in OECD countries for comparable indicators. The circle  represents the OECD median or mean for each indicator, while the spokes  represent New Zealand’s outcomes relative to the OECD. 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. An important limitation of 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 2005 and 2014. **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. In some cases the indicator used will differ from the headline indicator used in this report. Users should refer to the indicator section for more information about this.

Summary table

The below summary table provides detailed information on each indicator including current levels, changes over time, demographic variation within the population, and comparisons with the OECD.

Table SU1.1 – Summary table of indicators

Indicator	Current level of indicator (most recent year)	Changes over time	Variation within the population	Comparison with OECD
Health				
Life expectancy at birth	Males had a life expectancy of 79.5 years (2012–14) Females had a life expectancy of 83.2 years (2012–14)	Increasing over time	Lower for males, Māori, people living in deprived areas	Above the OECD median for males; slightly lower than the OECD median for females
Health expectancy	Males had a health expectancy of 65.2 years (2013); 3.7 percent decrease relative to total life expectancy compared with 1996 Females had a health expectancy of 66.5 years (2013); 3.4 percent decrease relative to total life expectancy decrease compared with 1996	Proportion of years lived independently relative to life expectancy lower than 1996 for both sexes	Large decrease in proportion of years lived independently relative to life expectancy for Māori males; smaller decreases for non-Māori males, Māori females and non-Māori females	No comparison available
Suicide	12.1 suicide deaths per 100,000 people (age-standardised rate for all ages) (2012)	General increase between 1970s and 1990s; decrease since late 1990s	Higher for males, youth (15–24), Māori, people living in the most deprived areas	Similar to the OECD median. Highest youth suicide rate.
Self-rated health	92.0 percent of population aged 15 years and over rated their health as at least good (2013/14)	Higher than previous years	Lower for older people, Māori, Pacific peoples, people living in most deprived neighbourhoods	Above the OECD median
Psychological distress	6.4 percent of population aged 15 years and over had experienced psychological distress (2013/14)	Similar to previous years except 2011/12	Higher for Pacific peoples, Māori, people living in the most deprived areas	No comparison available

Indicator	Current level of indicator (most recent year)	Changes over time	Variation within the population	Comparison with OECD
Obesity	28.7 percent of population aged 15 years and over were obese (2013/14)	Increase from 2006/07 but now stable	Higher for Pacific peoples, Māori, adults living in most deprived areas, younger adults	Above the OECD median
	10.1 percent of population aged 2–14 years were obese (2013/14)	Increase from 2006/07 but now stable	Higher for Pacific peoples, Māori, children living in most deprived areas, older children	No comparison available
Cigarette smoking	18.5 percent of population aged 15 years and over were current smokers (2013/14)	Gradual decline	Higher for males, people under 55 years, Māori, people living in most deprived areas	Below the OECD median for daily smokers
Potentially hazardous drinking	18.1 percent of population aged 15 years and over were potentially hazardous drinkers (2013/14)	Fluctuates but slightly lower than 2006/07	Higher for males, younger age groups, Māori, people living in most deprived areas	Below the OECD median for alcohol consumption (litres per person)
Participation in physical activity	51.8 percent of population aged 15 years and over met the physical activity guidelines (2013/14)	Similar to previous years but lower than 2006/07	Lower for females, Pacific peoples, those in the Asian ethnic group, people aged 75 years and over, people living in most deprived areas	No comparison available
Knowledge and skills				
Participation in early childhood education	95.9 percent of children starting school had attended early childhood education (2014)	Steady improvements since 2000	Lower for Māori, Pacific peoples, those attending lower-decile schools	Above the OECD median for 3–4 year old enrolment rates
School leavers with higher qualifications	77.1 percent of school leavers left school with a qualification at NCEA Level 2 or above (2014)	Sustained improvements since 2009	Lower for males, Māori, Pacific peoples, younger school leavers, those at low-decile schools	No comparison available
Participation in tertiary education	10.2 percent participated in tertiary education (age standardised rate) (2014)	Declining mainly as a result of declines in participation in lower-level non-degree qualifications	Lower rates for males; higher rates for Māori largely as a result of participation in non-degree qualifications	Above the OECD median for those aged 20–29 (enrolment rate)

Indicator	Current level of indicator (most recent year)	Changes over time	Variation within the population	Comparison with OECD
Educational attainment of the adult population	74.3 percent those aged 25–64 years had a qualification of at least NCEA L2 (year ended December 2014)	Generally increasing	Lower for Māori, Pacific peoples, older age groups	Below the OECD median for upper secondary qualifications
	29.8 percent of those aged 25–64 years had a qualification of Bachelor's degree or higher (year ended December 2014)	Generally increasing	Lower for Māori, Pacific peoples, older age groups	Similar to the OECD median for Bachelor's degree and above
Adult literacy and numeracy skills	56 percent of 16–65 year olds had higher prose literacy skills (Level 3+) (2006)	Improved between 1996 and 2006	Lower for youngest and oldest age groups, ethnic groups other than New Zealand European	No comparison available
	57 percent had higher document literacy skills (2006)	Improved between 1996 and 2006	Lower for youngest and oldest age groups, ethnic groups other than New Zealand European	No comparison available
	49 percent had higher numeracy skills (2006)	No trend data for numeracy		No comparison available
Paid work				
Unemployment	5.8 percent of the labour force were unemployed (year ended December 2014)	Recent improvements but rate remains higher than 2007	Higher for youth, women, Māori, Pacific peoples	Below the OECD harmonised median unemployment rate
Employment	74.2 percent of the labour force were employed (year ended December 2014)	Recent improvements but rates remain lower than 2007	Lower for youth, females, Māori, Pacific peoples; and big variations between males and females in terms of full-time and part-time employment	Above the OECD median
Median hourly earnings	Wage and salary earners: \$21.97 an hour (\$23.00 for males and \$20.74 for females) (June 2014 quarter)	Improved over the last 10 years but slower growth over the last five years	Lower for Pacific peoples, youth, females	No comparison available

Indicator	Current level of indicator (most recent year)	Changes over time	Variation within the population	Comparison with OECD
Work-related injury	16.2 injuries per 100,000 workers (age-standardised provisional rate for non-fatal serious injury) (2014)	Improved over the last 10 years but more stable over the last five years	Higher for males, Māori	No comparison available
Job satisfaction	84.0 percent of employed people were very satisfied or satisfied with their job (2014)	Apparent increase over the four survey periods available (2008-14)	Lower for those with lower personal incomes and material wellbeing	Slightly lower than the OECD median
Satisfaction with work-life balance	78.0 percent of employed people age 15 years and over were very satisfied or satisfied with their work-life balance (2012)	Improved slightly between 2008 and 2012	Lower for those aged 35-54 years, full-time workers	Well above the OECD median for working long hours
Economic standard of living				
Market income per person	Real gross national disposable income (RGNDI) per person was \$47,784 in 2009/10 dollars (year ended December 2014)	General increase from the 1990's until 2007 before declining until 2009 and then improving	Not relevant	Below the OECD median for per person gross national income (GNI)
Income inequality	The equivalised disposable income of households at the 80th percentile was 2.8 times higher than the income of households at the 20th percentile (2014)	Significant increase from the 1980s through to 2004, followed by a period of decline then apparent increases but some volatility from 2009	Not relevant	Above the OECD median using the Gini coefficient
Population with low incomes	13 percent of the population lived in households with incomes below 50 percent of the 2007 median, after adjusting for housing cost (2014)	Improved significantly from 1994 through to 2007, but a flat result since then, although significantly higher than in 1982	Higher rates for those aged under 25 years living in households, sole-parent households	Same as the OECD median for the total population

Indicator	Current level of indicator (most recent year)	Changes over time	Variation within the population	Comparison with OECD
Material hardship	8 percent of people lived in households with less severe hardship 5 percent lived in households with more severe hardship (2014)	Increased from 2007 through to 2011, but has since declined	Higher for children, Pacific peoples, sole-parent households	No comparison available
Housing affordability	27 percent of households spent more than 30 percent of their disposable income on housing costs (2014)	Increased from 1988 to 1998 then improved to 2004, before again rising in 2007 then flattening out (has worsened for low-income households)	Higher proportions for sole-parent households, low-income households, the Other ethnic group, Pacific peoples and younger age groups	No comparison available
Household crowding	10 percent of individuals lived in households requiring one or more bedrooms (2013)	Improved overall since 1986, but flatter results since 2001	Higher for Pacific peoples, people in multi-family and sole-parent households, younger people and those renting and with lower incomes	No comparison available
Civil and political rights				
Voter turnout (general elections)	72 percent of the eligible population voted (2014)	General decline over time	Less likely for younger people, people in the Asian ethnic group, unemployed, people with lower personal incomes	Above the OECD median for general elections
Voter turnout (local authority elections)	41 percent of enrolled electors voted for mayoral elections (2013)	General decline over time	Not relevant	No comparison available
Representation of women in government (general elections)	31 percent of elected MPs were women (2014)	Relatively stable since 1996	Not relevant	Slightly above the OECD median
Representation of women in government (local authority elections)	33 percent of elected members were women (2013)	Improved between 1989 and 1998, but steady since then	Not relevant	No comparison available

Indicator	Current level of indicator (most recent year)	Changes over time	Variation within the population	Comparison with OECD
Representation of ethnic groups in government	32 percent of elected MPs self-identified as being of Māori, Pacific peoples or Asian ethnicity (2014)	Continued improvement since 1984	Asian peoples under-represented	No comparison available
Perceived discrimination	17.1 percent of the population aged 15 years and over reported that they had been discriminated against in the past 12 months (2014)	Not relevant	More likely for females, younger age groups, Māori, the Asian ethnic group, unemployed, people with lower personal incomes, sole-parent families, people with lower material wellbeing	No comparison available
Acceptance of diversity	42.1 percent of the population aged 15 years and over reported that they would feel comfortable or very comfortable if they had a new neighbour who was from all of the five selected minority groups listed in the NZGSS	Not relevant	Less likely for older people, Pacific peoples, Asian ethnic group	No comparison available
Perceived corruption	Score of 91 and ranked 2nd (2014)	Little change. New Zealand has always ranked in the top four countries	Not relevant	Well above OECD median
Cultural identity				
Local content programming on New Zealand television	36 percent of the prime-time schedule was local content (2014)	General decline since 2006	Not relevant	No comparison available
Māori language speakers	21.3 percent of Māori reported that they could hold an everyday conversation in Māori (2013)	General decline over time	Speakers less likely to be younger	No comparison available
Language retention	Varied from 13.0 percent of Cook Islands Māori to 85.9 percent of Koreans who could speak the “first language” of their ethnic group (2013)	Looks likely that it was reducing for most ethnic groups between 2001 and 2013	Less likely for Pacific and European ethnic groups	No comparison available

Indicator	Current level of indicator (most recent year)	Changes over time	Variation within the population	Comparison with OECD
Ability to be yourself in New Zealand	86.3 percent of the population aged 15 years and over reported that it was very easy or easy to be themselves in New Zealand (2014)	Not relevant	Harder for Pacific peoples, the Asian ethnic group, unemployed, migrants who had been in NZ less than five years, people with lower personal incomes, people with lower material wellbeing	No comparison available
Leisure and recreation				
Satisfaction with leisure time	47.6 percent of the population aged 15 years and over felt they had the right amount of free time in the last four weeks (2012)	Increased only slightly between 2008 and 2012	Lower for younger age groups, Māori, people with lower personal income, people with lower material wellbeing, employed, unemployed, people with children	No comparison available
Participation in cultural and arts activities	85 percent attended an arts event in the previous 12 months (2014)	Increase on previous surveys	Lower for males, older age groups, New Zealand Europeans, those in the Asian ethnic group	No comparison available
	58 percent actively participated in the arts in the previous 12 months (2014)	Increase on previous surveys	Lower for males, older age groups, New Zealand Europeans, those in the Asian ethnic group	No comparison available
Safety				
Criminal victimisation	13.4 percent of the population aged 15 years and over reported having a crime committed against them in the last 12 months (2014)	Decrease over time	More likely for younger age groups, Māori, people with lower material wellbeing, unemployed, sole-parent families	No comparison available

Indicator	Current level of indicator (most recent year)	Changes over time	Variation within the population	Comparison with OECD
Fear of crime	60.9 percent of population aged 15 years and over felt safe walking alone in their neighbourhood after dark (2014)	Not relevant	Feelings of safety lower for females, people with lower material wellbeing, people with low personal incomes, unemployed, people not in the labour force, sole-parent families	Below the OECD median
Assault mortality	1.3 deaths by assault per 100,000 population (all ages) (2012)	Improved since early 1990s	Higher among males, youth, Māori	Above the OECD median
Road casualties	6.5 road deaths per 100,000 population (2014)	Improved	Higher for males, young people, Māori	Slightly above the OECD average for transport accident mortality rates
	248.8 road injuries per 100,000 population (2014)	General improvement		
Social connectedness				
Telephone and internet access in the household	98.1 percent lived in households with access to a landline and/or cellphone (2013)	Steady	No large variations	No comparison available
	82.0 percent lived in households with access to internet (2013)	Large improvement	Less likely among Māori and Pacific households, sole-parent households, older people	
Contact with family	74.6 percent of the population aged 15 years and over said the amount of contact they had with family who didn't live with them was about right (2012)	Little change over time	Less likely for younger people, Māori, people with lower material wellbeing, sole-parent families	No comparison available
Contact with friends	77.3 percent of the population aged 15 years and over said the amount of contact they had with friends who didn't live with them was about right (2012)	Little change over time	Less likely for working-age people, Māori, people with lower material wellbeing, people in families with children	No comparison available

Indicator	Current level of indicator (most recent year)	Changes over time	Variation within the population	Comparison with OECD
Contact between young people and their parents	58 percent of students reported that they got enough time with at least one parent most of the time (2012)	Less time than in 2001, but not much change from 2007	Less likely for Māori, Pacific peoples, people in the Asian ethnic group, female students, people in high deprivation areas	No comparison available
Trust in others	68.4 percent of the population aged 15 years and over said that most people could be trusted (2014)	Not relevant	Less likely for younger age groups, Māori, Pacific peoples, unemployed, people with lower personal incomes, sole-parent families, people born in NZ	Above the OECD median
Loneliness	13.9 percent of the population aged 15 years and over reported feeling lonely all, most or some of the time during the last four weeks (2014)	Not relevant	More likely for younger age groups, unemployed, people with lower personal incomes, people with lower material wellbeing, sole-parent families	No comparison available
Voluntary work	30.6 percent of the population aged 15 years and over reported doing voluntary work in the past four weeks for a group or organisation (2012)	A small decrease between 2008 and 2010	Lower for younger age groups, people with lower material wellbeing, those in the Asian ethnic group, sole-parent families, recent migrants	Above the OECD median
Life satisfaction				
Overall life satisfaction	82.6 percent of the population aged 15 years and over rated their overall life satisfaction highly (2014)	Not relevant	Lower for people with lower material wellbeing, people with lower personal income, sole-parent families	Above the OECD median

Data for this section can be found at: www.socialreport.msd.govt.nz/documents/2016/su.xlsx

Social wellbeing of selected demographic groups

Introduction

The indicators in the *Social Report 2016* have highlighted a number of differences in social wellbeing outcomes depending on people's demographic characteristics, such as ethnicity, sex and age.

In this section, social wellbeing outcomes for different demographic groups are summarised to provide an overall view of changes over time for selected ethnic groups, and an overview of differences between selected subgroups.

Firstly, social wellbeing outcomes are discussed for the following ethnic groups:

- Māori
- Pacific peoples – this group is made up of people with origins in the Pacific, including Samoa, Cook Islands, Tonga, Niue, Fiji and Tokelau.
- the Asian ethnic group – this group is made up of people with origins in the Asian continent, from Afghanistan in the west to Japan in the east, and from China in the north to Indonesia in the south.

Each discussion is followed by a radial chart showing changes in social wellbeing outcomes between two time periods (2005–2008 and 2012–2014).

Secondly, social wellbeing outcomes are compared for:

- females relative to males, with accompanying radial chart
- different ages.

It is important to note that comparisons are for population groups overall, and that there is much variation within 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. Looking at population subsets for many surveys and data sources increases concerns about the robustness of the data, and data is not always available for all groups.

Social wellbeing outcomes for Māori

Māori males and females have had consistently lower life expectancy than non-Māori males and females since the 1950s. However, between 2005–2007 and 2012–2014, Māori males and females had the highest increase in life expectancy at birth compared with other ethnic groups. The gap between Māori and non-Māori life expectancy has also narrowed over time.

Obesity proportions rose for both Māori adults and children between 2006/2007 and 2013/2014. Māori suicide rates were significantly higher than non-Māori rates in 2012, although small numbers make trends hard to ascertain. While cigarette smoking rates for Māori remained relatively stable between 2006/2007 and 2013/2014, the rate has not decreased like that of other ethnic groups. When compared with other ethnic groups, Māori had the highest proportion of potentially hazardous drinkers across all survey periods from 2006/2007 to 2013/2014. Over half of Māori met physical activity guidelines in 2013/2014 and, while similar to the European/Other group, the proportion has dropped since 2006/2007.

Māori have made significant gains in education in the last decade or so. There has been continued improvement in early education participation for Māori children following the introduction of 20 hours free ECE in 2007. While starting from a lower rate than other ethnic groups, Māori students have made greater gains in the proportion leaving school with NCEA L2 or above since 2009. The proportion of adults with an educational qualification of at least NCEA L2 and Bachelor's degree or higher also improved for Māori between 2009 and 2014.

The Global Financial Crisis had a significant impact on Māori. Between 2008 and 2009, there was a large jump in the Māori unemployment rate, though in recent years there has been a recovery. Similarly, the employment rate has decreased from 2008, but rose between 2013 and 2014.

Real median hourly earnings for Māori remained essentially unchanged in the last five years, partly as a result of the 2008 Global Financial Crisis. Māori have higher work-related injury rates compared with non-Māori across the period 2012–2014. The proportions of Māori living in crowded houses declined at each census since 1986.

Māori are well represented in government, with the proportion of elected Māori Members of Parliament exceeding the Māori share of the New Zealand population in 2014. This proportion has been on the increase since 1984.

In terms of language retention, the proportion of Māori who could hold an everyday conversation in te reo Māori declined between 2006 and 2013.

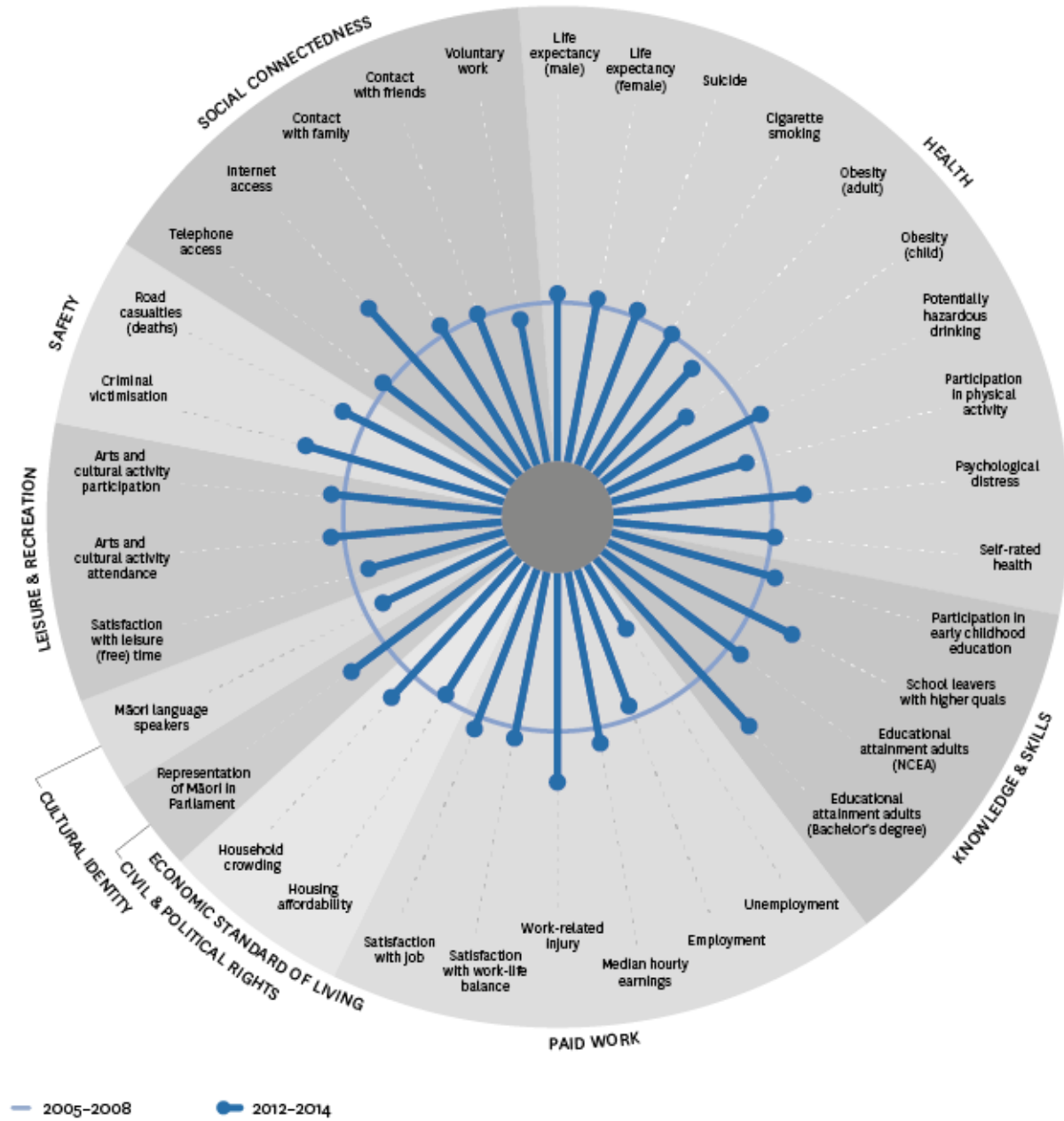
Māori were less likely to report having the right amount of free time in the last four weeks when compared with other ethnic groups, with proportions declining between 2008 and 2012. After Pacific peoples, Māori had the highest proportion of people who attended or actively participated in at least one arts event in the last 12 months. These proportions have generally increased between 2005 and 2014.

Although Māori were more likely to report having a crime committed against them in the last 12 months when compared with other ethnic groups, there has been a reduction in this proportion since 2008.



Between 2006 and 2013, there were large increases in internet access in the household for Māori and smaller gains in telephone access, although access to the internet was much lower when compared with the total population. Māori were the least likely of all ethnic groups to say the amount of contact they had with family and friends was “about right” in 2012.

Changes in social wellbeing for Māori

Figure DS1.1 – Changes in social wellbeing for Māori, selected indicators, 2005–2008 to 2012–2014



Interpreting “Changes in social wellbeing for Māori, selected indicators, 2005–2008 to 2012–2014”

- The inner circle  represents mean outcomes for Māori for each indicator between 2005 and 2008.
- The spokes  represent mean outcomes for Māori between 2012 and 2014.
- Where a spoke falls outside the circle, it means the outcome for Māori has improved compared with the earlier period.
- Where a spoke falls inside the circle, it means the outcome for Māori has worsened compared with the earlier period.

Note: *In some cases, the data is averaged over the three years in each period. Only indicators where comparisons can be made for Māori over the time periods used have been included.*

Limitations: *This style of presentation means that direct comparisons in the size of changes for different indicators cannot be made. Users should refer to the indicator section for more information. While a radial chart may indicate a change or difference in outcomes, the change may not be statistically significant. This will often be true for indicators that fall on, or close to, the central circle.*

Social wellbeing outcomes for Pacific peoples

Health outcomes show a mixed picture for Pacific peoples. Life expectancy at birth increased for Pacific females and males between 2005–2007 and 2012–2014, largely driven by lower death rates of people aged 60–79 years. While higher than for Māori, Pacific peoples' life expectancy at birth in 2012–2014 was still lower than European/Other and Asian rates.

Self-ratings of health showed small increases between 2006/2007 and 2013/2014, with Pacific peoples having a similar rate to Māori in 2013/2014. There were also declines in the proportion of Pacific peoples who smoked cigarettes and drank in potentially hazardous ways between 2006/2007 and 2013/2014. Pacific adults had the highest rates of obesity of all ethnic groups over the four health surveys, though the Pacific rates showed only small increases from 2006/2007. The proportion of Pacific adults who met physical activity guidelines declined between 2006/2007 and 2013/2014. In 2013/2014, Pacific peoples had the highest proportion, of all the ethnic groups, of people aged 15 years and over who experienced high or very high levels of psychological distress.

There have been improvements in the knowledge and skills area for Pacific peoples. The level of participation in early childhood education generally showed continual increases between 2000 and 2014, and the number of school leavers with higher qualifications increased substantially between 2009 and 2014. There were also increases in the proportion of Pacific peoples who attained NCEA Level 2 and Bachelor's degrees and above between 1986 and 2014, though they still had the lowest proportions of all ethnic groups in 2014.

In terms of paid work, Pacific peoples, along with Māori, had consistently higher unemployment rates and lower employment rates than the total population between 2009 and 2014. There was an increase in Pacific peoples' unemployment rate between 2008 and 2013, and a general decline in their employment rate between 2008 and 2012. Pacific peoples had the lowest real median hourly earnings of all ethnic groups in the June 2014 quarter, with earnings remaining essentially unchanged in the last five years.

The proportion of Pacific peoples living in crowded housing decreased between 1986 and 2013 though the proportion was still high compared with other ethnic groups in 2013. Pacific peoples had the second highest averaged rate in 2011–2014 of people living in households where more than 30 percent of disposable income was spent on housing costs. Pacific peoples were also the most likely of all ethnic groups to face material hardship (using 2013–2014 averaged data). Pacific peoples' median household income has been flat to declining since 2007.

Politically, the level of representation of Pacific peoples in government increased between 2008 and 2014. In 2014, there was a record number of MPs who identified as Pacific. In 2014, Pacific peoples had lower rates of reported discrimination compared with Māori and Asian, with Pacific peoples more likely to report discrimination in a public place or on the street than the other ethnic groups.

Pacific peoples' satisfaction with leisure time increased between 2008 and 2012, while attendance and participation in arts and cultural activities increased between 2005 and 2014. Pacific peoples had the highest proportion of all the ethnic groups for these three measures in the latest reporting period.



Looking at the safety area, Pacific peoples had the lowest rate of feeling safe while walking alone in their neighbourhood after dark in 2014. They also had lower levels of trust in people compared with people in the Asian ethnic group and European/Others.

Changes in social wellbeing for Pacific peoples

Figure DS1.2 – Changes in social wellbeing for Pacific peoples, selected indicators, 2005–2008 to 2012–2014



Interpreting “Changes in social wellbeing for Pacific peoples, selected indicators, 2005–2008 to 2012–2014”

- The inner circle  represents mean outcomes for Pacific peoples for each indicator between 2005 and 2008.
- The spokes  represent mean outcomes for Pacific peoples between 2012 and 2014.
- Where a spoke falls outside the circle, it means the outcome for Pacific peoples has improved compared with the earlier period.
- Where a spoke falls inside the circle, it means the outcome for Pacific peoples has worsened compared with the earlier period.

Note: *In some cases, the data is averaged over the three years in each period. Only indicators where comparisons can be made for Pacific peoples over the time periods used have been included.*

Limitations: *This style of presentation means that direct comparisons in the size of changes for different indicators cannot be made. Users should refer to the indicator section for more information. While a radial chart may indicate a change or difference in outcomes, the change may not be statistically significant. This will often be true for indicators that fall on, or close to, the central circle.*

Social wellbeing outcomes for the Asian ethnic group

Not all indicators in the Social Report include information for the Asian ethnic group, and in some cases the group is included in the 'Other' ethnic category. The diverse and changing nature of the Asian ethnic group also means results may not be reflective of the entire population, and comparisons should therefore be treated with caution.

Asian people generally had good health outcomes. Asian females had the highest life expectancy at birth of all ethnic groups in 2012–2014. Asian people also reported low levels of psychological distress, with proportions decreasing between 2006/2007 and 2013/2014. Obesity rates were well below those of other ethnic groups, although rates rose between 2006/2007 and 2013/2014.

Asian people also had the lowest rates of smoking and were least likely of all ethnic groups to be potentially hazardous drinkers in 2013/2014. Furthermore, these rates have been decreasing over time. The only Health indicator with less favourable outcomes when compared to the other ethnic groups was participation in physical activities – the Asian ethnic group was the least likely of all ethnic groups to meet physical activity guidelines, with rates remaining relatively stable between 2006/2007 and 2013/2014.

Those in the Asian ethnic group had high rates of early childhood education, second only to the European group in 2014. They also consistently had the highest proportion of school leavers with NCEA L2, and the highest proportion of the adult population with a qualification of at least NCEA L2 over time. Both of these proportions have been increasing over time.

The Asian unemployment rate rose following the 2008 Global Financial Crisis. The employment rate has increased since 2010, and is the second highest behind the European/Other rate, though the large gap between these groups remains. Median hourly earnings for Asian people have been relatively unchanged since 2009, and they ranked second highest along with Māori in 2014. The Asian ethnic group had the third lowest rate of household crowding in 2014, with the rate reducing since 1991.

The Asian ethnic group is included in the 'Other' ethnic group for the population with low incomes and material hardship indicators. Median household earnings for the Other group were relatively stable since 2007, and remained lower than for the European group in 2014 but higher than for Māori and Pacific peoples. Using the less severe threshold averaged over 2013 and 2014, the proportion of people facing material hardship for the Other ethnic group was considerably lower than for Pacific peoples and Māori.

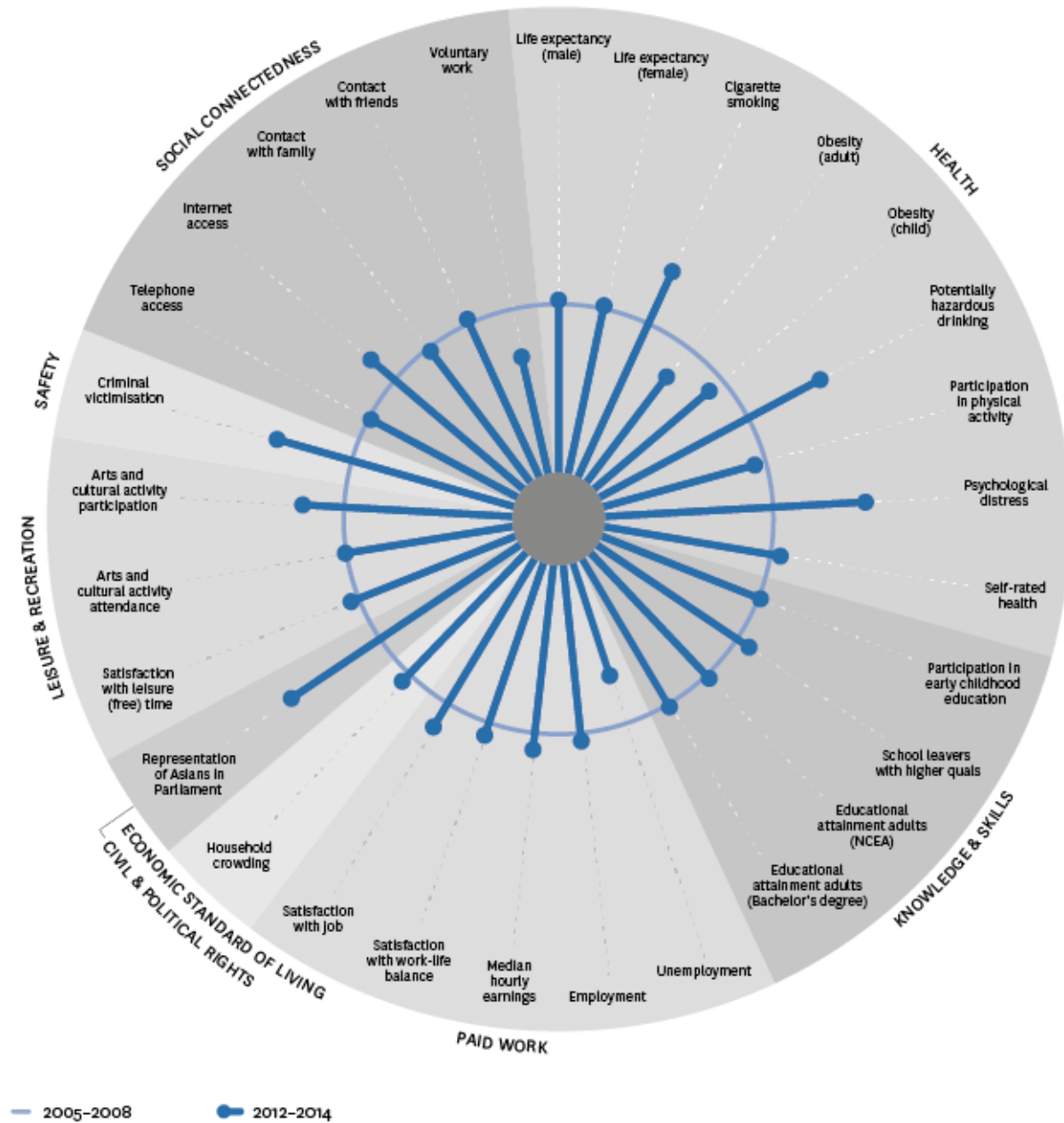
The Asian ethnic group was the least likely of all ethnic groups to vote in the 2011 General Election, but this was influenced by the large migrant population within this group. Asian people continue to be underrepresented in government, though this proportion has doubled between 2005 and 2014.

Along with Māori, those in the Asian ethnic group were more likely to say they were discriminated against, with race or ethnic group cited as the most common reason in 2014. Along with Pacific peoples, they were less likely than other ethnic groups to say it was very easy or easy to be themselves in New Zealand in 2014, and the least likely to say they would feel very comfortable or comfortable with new neighbours from any of the selected minority groups. Despite this, they had high levels of trust in others and were the least likely to report being a victim of a crime in 2014 with rates falling since 2008.



Those in the Asian ethnic group were the least likely of the ethnic groups to report volunteering across all surveys from 2008 to 2014, and the least likely to attend and actively participate in arts and cultural events, although active participation has increased since 2005. As was the case for other ethnic groups, access to the internet improved for the Asian ethnic group since 2001, and this group had the highest access rates of any ethnic group in 2013.

Changes in social wellbeing for the Asian ethnic group

Figure DS1.3 – Changes in social wellbeing for the Asian ethnic group, selected indicators, 2005–2008 to 2012–2014



Interpreting “Changes in social wellbeing for the Asian ethnic group, selected indicators, 2005–2008 to 2012–2014”

- The inner circle  represents mean outcomes for the Asian ethnic group for each indicator between 2005 and 2008.
- The spokes  represent mean outcomes for the Asian ethnic group between 2012 and 2014.
- Where a spoke falls outside the circle, it means the outcome for the Asian ethnic group has improved compared with the earlier period.
- Where a spoke falls inside the circle, it means the outcome for the Asian ethnic group has worsened compared with the earlier period.

Note: *In some cases, the data is averaged over the three years in each period. Only indicators where comparisons can be made for the Asian ethnic group over the time periods used have been included.*

Limitations: *This style of presentation means that direct comparisons in the size of changes for different indicators cannot be made. Users should refer to the indicator section for more information. While a radial chart may indicate a change or difference in outcomes, the change may not be statistically significant. This will often be true for indicators that fall on, or close to, the central circle.*

Social wellbeing outcomes for females relative to males

Overall, women had better health outcomes than males. Looking between 1950–1952 and 2012–2014, females had consistently higher life expectancy at birth compared with males, although the gap between male and female life expectancy has narrowed in recent times.

Compared with males, females had consistently lower rates of suicide between 1972 and 2012, and cigarette smoking and potentially hazardous drinking in 2013/2014. However, rates of hospitalisation for intentional self-harm or attempted suicide were much higher for females than for males (approximately double the rate in 2012). Females also had higher rates of psychological distress than males – a consistent trend between 2006/2007 and 2013/2014. They were less likely to be physically active, but had similar obesity levels to males in 2013/2014. Despite health differences, both sexes consistently rated their health at the same high levels between 2006/2007 and 2013/2014.

In the knowledge and skills area, there were higher proportions of females leaving secondary school with higher qualifications between 2009 and 2014, though the gap between females and males had declined since 2010. From 2007, there were higher proportions of females attaining Bachelor's degrees and above compared with males.

In terms of paid work, females had higher unemployment rates compared with males, a pattern that has emerged since 2006. Between 1986 and 2014, they were also less likely than males to be employed – this is mainly because females spent more time caring and doing other unpaid work, and undertaking study and training. Compared with males, in 2012–2014 females were much less likely to be seriously injured at work, probably because they were less likely to be working in high-risk industries such as agriculture, forestry and fisheries.

On average over the survey periods, females were slightly more likely than males to be satisfied with their jobs and with their work-life balance. This may, in part, be a result of more females being in part-time work as those in part-time work were more satisfied with their work-life balance. Over the last 10 years, females had lower median hourly earnings compared with males, with the gap in earnings most pronounced in the 45–59 year age group in the June 2014 quarter. This gap, though, has generally been declining.

The proportions of females living in low-income households, and in households where more than 30 percent of disposable income was spent on housing costs were consistently higher than males between the 1980s and 2014. This is mainly because females were more likely to be living in sole-parent households.

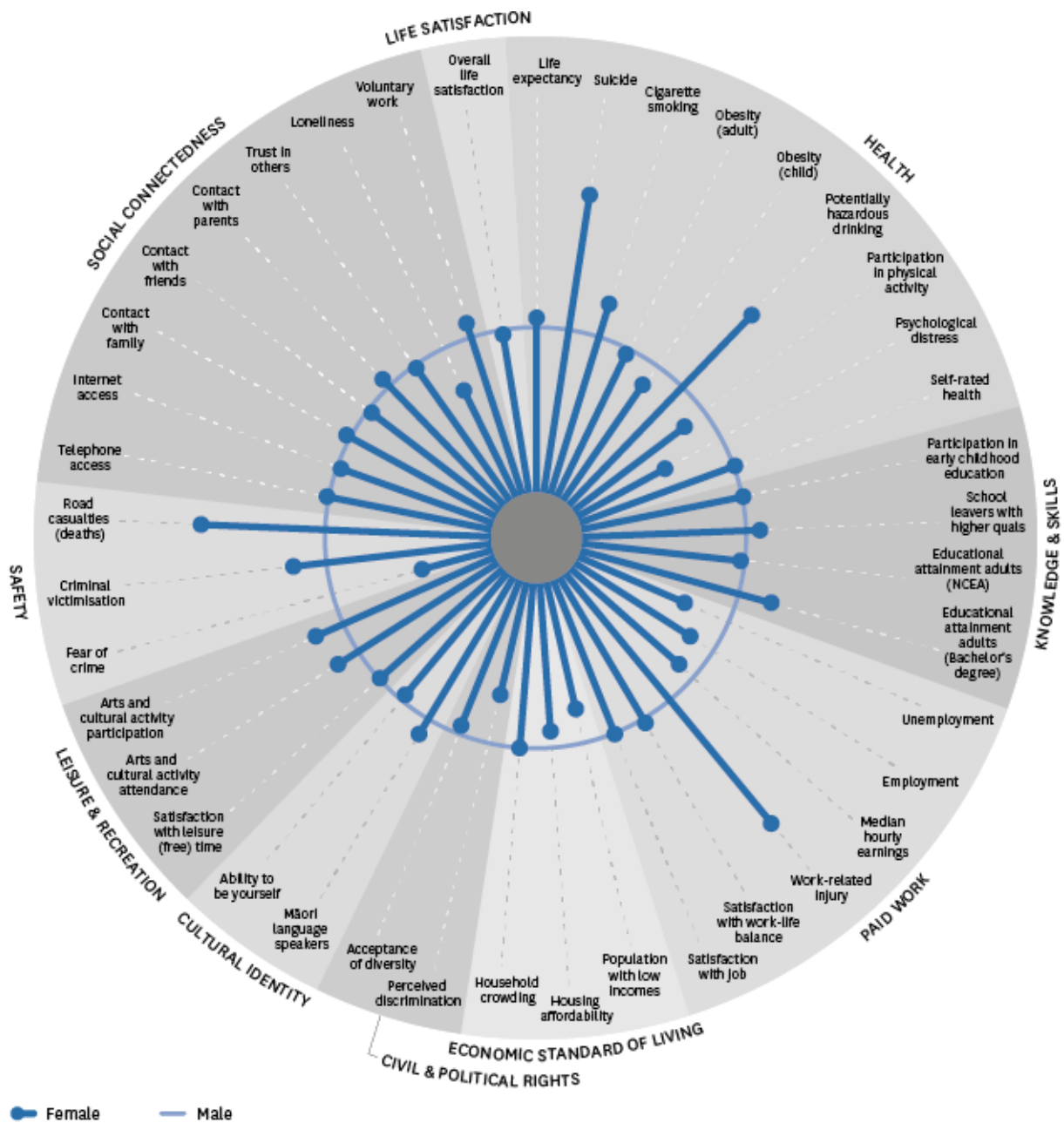
Politically, women were under-represented in government, with around one-third representation in Parliament in 2014 and a similar proportion in local government in 2013. Culturally, Pacific females tended to be slightly more likely than Pacific males to speak the first language of their ethnic group in 2013 – the reverse was true for most European ethnic groups. Females had higher attendance and participation rates for arts and cultural activities compared with males for all survey periods between 2005 and 2014.

There was a mixed picture when looking at safety. Between 2010 and 2014, females had a lower rate of being killed in motor vehicle traffic crashes (less than half the rate of males), though males experienced a larger drop in deaths over time. In 2014, females, especially those aged 65 years and over, were much more likely to feel unsafe walking alone in their neighbourhood after dark – even though females and males reported similar experiences of being victims of crime in 2014.



Females were more likely than males to say they were lonely and to report discrimination in 2014. Similarly in 2012, female high school students were less likely to report having enough time with at least one of their parents. Compared with males, females had slightly higher volunteering rates in 2012.

Sex differences in social wellbeing outcomes

Figure DS1.4 – Sex differences in social wellbeing outcomes, selected indicators, 2012–2014



Interpreting “Sex differences in social wellbeing outcomes, selected indicators, 2012–2014”

- The inner circle  represents mean outcomes for males.
- The spokes  represent mean outcomes for females.
- Where a spoke falls outside the circle, the outcome for females is better than the outcome for males. Where a spoke falls inside the circle, the outcome for females is worse than the outcome for males.

Note: *In some cases, the data is averaged over the three years in each period. Only indicators where comparisons can be made between females and males have been included.*

Limitations: *This style of presentation means that direct comparisons in the size of sex differences for different indicators cannot be made. Users should refer to the indicator section for more information. While a radial chart may indicate a change or difference in outcomes, the change may not be statistically significant. This will often be true for indicators that fall on, or close to, the central circle.*

Social wellbeing outcomes at different ages

Under 15 years

Only a small number of indicators contained information about those under 15 years.

When compared with the other age groups, the under 15 year age group had the lowest rate of obesity in 2013/2014 and deaths in motor vehicle traffic crashes in 2010–2014.

However, the 0–17 year age group had the highest proportion of people living in households facing material hardship.

In the cultural identity area, the under 15 year age group had the lowest rates of being able to converse in Māori or the first language of their ethnic group (other than Māori or European) in 2013.

They also had the lowest rates of telephone and internet access in their households compared with the other age groups in 2013.

15–24 years

This age group was more likely to undertake risky behaviours when compared with the older age groups. Those aged 15–24 years had the highest rate of potentially hazardous drinking in 2013/2014 compared with other age groups. They had the second highest rate of dying in a motor vehicle traffic crash in 2010–2014. They also had the highest suicide rate between 1972 and 2012, and the joint highest psychological distress rate in 2013/2014. However, this age group had a lower rate of obesity in 2013/2014 compared with the older age groups, though the rate was still higher than the under 15 year age group.

The 15–24 year age group is when people were more likely to be in education or training.

This age group was also more likely than other age groups to be unemployed (highest rate in 2014). In 2013/2014, it also had one of the highest rates of people living in low-income households, households facing material hardship or crowded housing, or households where more than 30 percent of disposable income was spent on housing costs.

While those aged 15–24 years had the highest rate of reported discrimination and the lowest level of trust in others compared with other age groups in 2014, they were most likely to feel comfortable having new neighbours from selected minority groups. Young people (ie 18–24 years) were less likely to vote in the 2011 General Election when compared with older people.

In terms of leisure and recreation, this age group had the second highest proportion of people who were satisfied with their leisure time in 2012 and the highest rate of people participating in arts and cultural events in 2014: this is perhaps because they were less likely to have caring and other responsibilities.

25–54 years

In the health area, those aged 45–54 years had the joint highest rate of psychological distress, and the second highest rate of potentially hazardous drinking in 2013/2014. Those aged 25–44 years had the second highest suicide rate in 2012 compared with the other age groups. They also had one of the highest rates of obesity (particularly those aged 45–54 years) and smoking (especially the 25–34 year age group). However, those aged 25–34 years had the highest rate of physical activity.

Being in the prime of their working lives, this group's employment rates and medium hourly earnings in 2014 were high. However, job satisfaction was the lowest for the 25–34 year age group in 2014, while satisfaction with work-life balance was lowest in 2012 for the 35–54 year age group, which was likely owing to their work and family responsibilities.

There was a mixed picture in the safety area. The 25–34 year age group had the highest rate of reported crime in 2012. However, they were less likely in 2014 to feel unsafe walking alone in their neighbourhood after dark compared with other age groups.

Compared with other age groups, those aged 35–54 years were more likely to volunteer in 2014, while those aged 30–39 years were more likely to attend arts and cultural events. However, those in 35–44 year age group were least likely to be satisfied with their leisure time in 2012. People in this age group were also more likely to be dissatisfied with the amount of contact with their family and friends in 2014, again likely because of their limited free time.

55 years and over

Those aged 55 years and over were least likely to undertake in risky behaviours such as smoking and potentially hazardous drinking in 2013/2014 compared with the younger age groups. They had the lowest rates of suicide in 2012 (particularly those aged 65 years and over) and psychological distress in 2013/2014. However, they had some of the highest rates of obesity (with 55–64 years having the highest rate) and the lowest rate of physical activity for those aged 75 years and over in 2013/2014 – this may be to do with mobility. The 75 years and over age group also had the highest rate of motor vehicle traffic crashes in 2010–14.

Moving towards retirement, those in the 55–64 year age group were least likely to be unemployed in 2014 but the 65–74 year age group had the lowest rates of employment. In 2014, they had the highest job satisfaction and satisfaction with work-life balance (particularly those aged 65 years and over). Those 65 years and over, however, had the highest rates of work-related injuries in 2014.

This group was more likely to be financially secure. In 2014, those aged 65 years and over were least likely to live in low-income households – this is due to the relatively high rate of mortgage-free home ownership and universal public provision retirement support. They were also least likely to live in households facing material hardship in 2013–2014, live in crowded housing in 2013, or live in households where more than 30 percent of disposable income was spent on housing costs in 2014.

Those aged 65 years and over were most likely of all age groups to vote in the 2011 General Election. In 2013, older people had the highest rates of conversing in Māori and the first language of their ethnic group. This age group was more likely than other age groups to believe it was easy to be themselves in New Zealand in 2014.

Those aged 65 years and over were most likely to be satisfied with their free time in 2012. They had the lowest rate of participation in arts and cultural events between 2005 and 2014.

In the safety area, while they were least likely to report being victims of crime between 2008 and 2014 or being discriminated against in 2014, those in the older group were also least likely of all age groups to feel safe walking alone in their neighbourhood after dark.

In 2014, those aged 65–74 years were least likely of all the age groups to feel lonely, and those 65 year and over were most likely to feel that their amount of contact with family and friends was about right in 2008–2012. However, loneliness increased for those aged 75 years and over. Their level of internet access was lower than other age groups in 2013. In 2014, they were most likely to believe most people can be trusted.

In 2014, those aged 65 years and over had the highest overall life satisfaction of all age groups.

Data for this section can be found at: www.socialreport.msd.govt.nz/documents/2016/ds.xlsx

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Appendix 1: The Social Report framework

The Social Report can best be described as a state of the nation report. It uses statistical indicators to monitor trends across key dimensions of people's lives to provide a picture of progress towards better social outcomes for New Zealanders.

The Social Report:

- reports on social indicators that complement existing economic and environmental indicators
- compares New Zealand with other countries on measures of wellbeing
- contributes to better-informed public debate and advances knowledge and understanding of social issues
- aids planning and decision-making and helps identify key areas for action.

A consultation round with key stakeholders in mid-2014 confirmed that the role and purpose of the Social Report remain strongly supported. This highlights the continued high reputation of the report and the unique position it holds in reporting on social wellbeing.

By concentrating on broader measures of wellbeing and taking an outcomes approach, the Social Report helps to understand the cumulative effect of policy interventions, rather than the impact of single intervention programmes or sector-specific issues. Pragmatically, the report focuses on individual wellbeing and concentrates on how we are doing as a nation overall.

The Social Report provides an important platform for getting information about wellbeing into the wider public domain, ensuring not only that social trends are monitored and visible, but that emerging areas of social concern are highlighted. It is the only comprehensive social wellbeing report in New Zealand.

The report is built around wellbeing domains covering all facets of social life and reports progress under these domains using national and sub-national indicators. The domains have been selected to reflect areas that contribute to social wellbeing. While the domains are regularly reviewed, they currently are:

- Health
- Knowledge and skills
- Paid work
- Economic standard of living
- Civil and political rights
- Cultural identity
- Leisure and recreation
- Safety
- Social connectedness
- Life satisfaction

The framework guides the selection of indicators that sit within these domains. Our well-established and robust selection criteria help us to derive a balanced and manageable set of indicators from the mass of statistics available.

Indicators for the Social Report are 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
- easy to interpret and understand – indicators should be simple to interpret and what the indicator is measuring should be obvious to users
- 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 there is an abundance of good data from which to draw appropriate indicators, while in other outcome domains there is less good-quality or relevant data available. The number of indicators under each domain may therefore be uneven.

Data for the indicators for the Social Report is sourced from across the social sector and more widely. The report provides comparisons across demographic groups, where available and appropriate (eg age, sex, ethnicity, socio-economic, subnational), internationally and over time. By concentrating on wellbeing it cannot cover all activities but it has been developed to align with and support other government reporting.

The Social Report

Social Outcomes

- ✓ 'State of the Nation' report
- ✓ Outcomes approach
 - Where we have come from
 - How we are doing now
- ✓ Covers all facets of social life
- ✓ Presents the cumulative effects of policy interventions
- ✗ Sets targets
- ✗ Evaluates specific interventions or programmes

Wellbeing

- ✓ Individual wellbeing focus
- ✓ Comparisons
 - Internationally
 - Across demographic groups (eg age, sex, socio-economic, subnational)
 - Over time
- ✓ Highlights areas of progress or concern
- ✓ Alignment with other government reporting
- ✗ Sector-specific issues or interest groups
- ✗ Focus on economic performance, physical environment, forecast futures

Transparency
Openness
Independence
Trust

Measurement/Monitoring

- ✓ Domains of Interest

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Health • Knowledge and skills • Paid work • Economic standard of living • Civil and political rights 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cultural identity • Leisure and recreation • Safety • Social connectedness • Life satisfaction
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- ✓ Suite of Indicators, sitting under domains

Indicators are selected against the following criteria:

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • relevant to the social outcome of interest • based on broad support • grounded in research • able to be disaggregated • consistent over 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> time • statistically sound • timely • easy to interpret and understand • internationally comparable
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Context

- ✓ Adds value
- ✓ Advances our knowledge and understanding
- ✓ Tells 'our story'
- ✓ Informs policy
- ✓ Provides a public good role
- ✓ Promotes democracy
- ✓ Accessible to a wide audience

Appendix 2: Changes to The Social Report 2016

Changes made to the domains and indicators used in *The Social Report 2016* (ie naming changes; new data sources; new indicators; domain changes) are detailed in the table below.

Table AP2.1 – Changes to *The Social Report 2016*

Area	Change
Report structure	The report has been restructured to have a summary section in the front, and domain summaries added in the introductions. A frequently asked questions (FAQ) section has been added.
Health	The desired outcomes statement has been revised. The “cigarette smoking” indicator is now based solely on information from the New Zealand Health Survey (NZHS). The “participation in physical activity” indicator has moved from the Leisure and Recreation domain. There are two new indicators: “self-rated health” and “psychological distress”.
Knowledge and skills	–
Paid work	All Household Labour Force Survey (HLFS) data has been rebased. There is a new indicator: “satisfaction with job”.
Economic standard of living	The desired outcomes statement has been revised. There is a new indicator: “material hardship”.
Civil and political rights	The desired outcomes statement has been revised. There is a new indicator: “acceptance of diversity”. The “perceived discrimination” indicator is now based solely on the New Zealand General Social Survey (NZGSS).
Cultural identity	The desired outcomes statement has been revised. There is a new indicator: “ability to be yourself in New Zealand”.
Leisure and recreation	The desired outcomes statement has been revised. The “satisfaction with leisure time” indicator data source has changed to the NZGSS.
Safety	The “criminal victimisation” indicator and “fear of crime” indicator data sources have changed to the NZGSS.
Social connectedness	The desired outcomes statement has been revised. The “trust in others” indicator and “loneliness” indicator data sources have changed to the NZGSS.
Life satisfaction	The desired outcomes statement has been provided.

Appendix 3: Technical notes

People

Data sources: Clark et al (2013), Youth'12 Overview: The Health and Wellbeing of New Zealand Secondary School Students in 2012; OECD (2014), Society at a Glance (2014): OECD Social Indicators; Statistics New Zealand (2015), Historical Population Estimates Tables; Statistics New Zealand (2015), Births and Deaths: Year Ended December 2014; Statistics New Zealand (2015), National Ethnic Population Projections: 2013(base)-2038; Statistics New Zealand (2015), Population Indicators; Statistics New Zealand (2015), Subnational Family and Household Projections: 2013(base)-2038; Statistics New Zealand (2014), 2013 Census Quick Stats about Culture and Identity; Statistics New Zealand (2014), 2013 Census Quick Stats about Families and Households; Statistics New Zealand (2014), 2013 Census Quick Stats about Housing; Statistics New Zealand (2014), 2013 Census Quick Stats about National Highlights; Statistics New Zealand (2014), Disability Survey: 2013; Statistics New Zealand (2014), National Population Estimates: At 30 June 2014; Statistics New Zealand (2014), National Population Projections: 2014(base)-2068; Statistics New Zealand (2013), 2013 Census Usually Resident Population Counts; Statistics New Zealand (2012), Parents Supporting Children Who Do Not Live with Them; Statistics New Zealand (2012), Population Mythbusters: More Women are Remaining Childless; Statistics New Zealand (n.d.), Population Mobility of Urban/Rural Profile Areas.

Health

H1 Life expectancy at birth

Definition/formulae: The average length of life remaining at birth, assuming people experience the age-specific death rates of a given period from birth onwards, as calculated by Statistics New Zealand. For example, life expectancy at birth for the period 2012-2014 is based on death rates of that period, and takes no account of changes in death rates after that period.

Analysis of deprivation is based on NZDep2013 which combines census data relating to income, home ownership, employment, qualifications, family structure, housing, and access to transport and communication to produce a score for each meshblock in New Zealand. These scores are grouped into 10 categories (deciles), where 1 represents the areas with the least deprived scores and 10 the area with the most deprived scores.

European or Other (including New Zealander) includes people who belong to the “European” or “Other” ethnicity groups. People who belong to both groups are counted only once. Almost all people in the “Other” ethnicity group belong to the New Zealander sub-group.

Limitations of data: Available annually for the total population. Pacific, European/Other and Asian ethnic group data is available only for 2005–2007 and 2012–2014.

Data sources: Statistics New Zealand (2015), New Zealand Period Life Tables: 2012–14; Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand Social Indicators website; Statistics New Zealand (2015), Subnational Period Life Tables: 2012–14.

H2 Health expectancy

Definition/formulae: The average number of years it is expected people will live independently, with no functional limitation needing assistance, as calculated by the Ministry of Health.

The figures were estimated by Sullivan's method (a method for computing health expectancies) using life tables supplied by Statistics New Zealand and disability rates from the 2013 post-census Disability Survey.

Non-Māori are defined as those respondents who identified with an ethnic group other than Māori.

Limitations of data: The information on functional limitations comes from respondents' self-reports, which are influenced by norms and expectations that differ between cultural groups and over time. An arbitrary threshold is put on disability, and so it overlooks all disability that does not meet the threshold of a functional limitation requiring some level of assistance. It also treats all disability above the threshold as the same. 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 groups (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 spreadsheet. 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.

The 2013 Disability Survey included a small over-sample for Māori only, compared with considerable oversampling of Māori and Pacific peoples which occurred in the 2006 Disability Survey. Therefore the health expectancy estimates for Māori for 2013 are less reliable given the wide confidence intervals. The

survey design for the Disability Survey has changed over time. In particular, the findings of the 2006 Disability Survey may be less comparable and should be interpreted cautiously.

Data source: Ministry of Health (2015), Independent Life Expectancy in New Zealand 2013.

H3 Suicide

Definition/formulae: The number of suicide deaths per 100,000 population, age-standardised to the World Health Organization (WHO) standard population.

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 provides 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, 2015, p3). As the motivation for intentional self-harm varies, hospitalisation data is not a measure of suicide attempts (Ministry of Health, 2015, p36).

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 September 1995 (from ancestry to self-reported), comparable data is available only from 1996 onwards. Ethnic-specific mortality data is subject to some uncertainty owing 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 owing 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, 2015, p34).

Data sources: Ministry of Health, Mortality Collection, National Minimum Dataset; Ministry of Health (2012), Suicide Facts: Deaths and Intentional Self-Harm Hospitalisations 2012; OECD (2014), OECD Factbook: Economic, Environmental and Social Science.

H4 Self-rated health

Definition/formulae: The proportion of the population aged 15 years and over who rated their health as at least good (including ratings of good, very good or excellent), as measured by the New Zealand Health Survey (NZHS). People were asked to rate their health on a 1–5 scale as either poor (1), fair (2), good (3), very good (4) or excellent (5).

This information is collected through the NZHS which is conducted by the Ministry of Health to provide timely, reliable and relevant health information. The surveys were conducted in 1992/1993, 1996/1997, 2002/2003 and 2006/2007. In addition, separate stand-alone surveys on specific subjects were conducted once every three or four years as part of the wider health survey programme. From July 2011, all the above surveys have been integrated into the single NZHS, which is now in continuous operation.

The NZHS has a multi-stage, stratified, probability-proportional-to-size (PPS) sampling design. The survey is designed to yield an annual sample size of approximately 13,000 adults and 4,500 children.

Age-standardisation (standardised to the WHO World Standard population age distribution – Ahmad et al (2000)) allows for comparisons to be made by sex, ethnic group and neighbourhood deprivation, and between surveys. If crude (unadjusted) rates are required, refer to the relevant Ministry of Health survey publications.

Analysis of deprivation is based on NZDep2013 which measures the level of socio-economic deprivation for each neighbourhood (meshblock) according to a combination of 2013 Census variables. Survey data is presented for NZDep2013 quintiles 1–5, with quintile 1 representing the 20 percent with the lowest levels of deprivation (the least deprived areas) and quintile 5 representing the 20 percent with the highest level of deprivation (the most deprived areas).

Limitations of data: Survey estimates are subject to sampling error and small differences between groups may not be statistically significant.

The survey can be used to look at associations between different factors, such as health status and neighbourhood deprivation. However, it cannot be concluded that the survey results show cause-and-effect relationships between these factors, in part because it is not known which factor occurred first. For example, if the survey finds that a particular condition is more common in people living in deprived areas, an association has been identified. This association does not necessarily mean the condition is caused by living in deprived areas.

Self-reported health measures are based on an individual's own perception of their health status and functioning. These measures provide an alternative source of data to objective measures of health. However, the survey results are likely to underestimate or overestimate some indicators owing to the nature of self-reported information. For example, people may over-report good behaviours or under-report risk behaviours based on what they consider to be socially desirable, or may not accurately recall previous events. The amount of error will vary by indicator, depending on a number of factors (including the age of the respondent).

International comparability is limited to a lack of measurement standardisation. The reference year for data in the Better Life Index 2015 is 2013 with the exception of 2012 for the United States; 2011 for Australia and the Russian federation; 2010 for Japan; 2009 for Chile; and 2006 for Mexico.

Data sources: Ministry of Health, New Zealand Health Survey 2013/2014, 2012/2013, 2011/2012, 2006/2007 customised data; OECD (2015), Better Life Index 2015 edition.

H5 Psychological distress

Definition/formulae: The proportion of the population aged 15 years and over who experienced psychological distress and had a high probability of having an anxiety or depressive disorder, as defined by the Kessler Psychological Distress Scale and measured by the New Zealand Health Survey (NZHS). The Kessler Psychological Distress Scale was developed to yield a global measure of psychosocial distress, and asks questions about levels of nervousness, agitation, psychological fatigue and depression in the past four weeks. People who score 12 or more on the Kessler Psychological Distress Scale have a high probability of having an anxiety or depressive disorder.

See “Self-rated health” indicator for information on the NZHS, age-standardisation and deprivation.

Limitations of data: See “Self-rated health” indicator for limitations.

Data sources: IHME (2015), GBD Compare; Ministry of Health (2015), New Zealand Health Survey 2013/2014, 2012/2013, 2011/2012, 2006/2007 customised data.

H6 Obesity

Definition/formulae: Obesity is defined as a body mass index (BMI) of 30 or more (or equivalent for those younger than 18 years), as measured by the New Zealand Health Survey (NZHS). 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). People had their height and weight measured by interviewers, rather than self-reported information being used. Therefore these results are more reliable than self-reported information.

See “Self-rated health” indicator for information on the NZHS, age-standardisation and deprivation.

Limitations of data: See “Self-rated health” indicator for limitations.

Data sources: IHME (2015), GBD Compare; Ministry of Health (2015), New Zealand Health Survey 2013/2014, 2012/2013, 2011/2012, 2006/2007 customised data; OECD (2014), OECD Factbook: Economic, Environmental and Social Science.

H7 Cigarette smoking

Definition/formulae: Current smokers are defined as the proportion of the population aged 15 years and over who had smoked more than 100 cigarettes in their lifetime and currently smoked at least once a month, as measured by the New Zealand Health Survey (NZHS).

Daily smokers are defined as the proportion of the population aged 15 years and over who had smoked more than 100 cigarettes in their lifetime and currently smoked at least once a day.

See “Self-rated health” indicator for information on the NZHS, age-standardisation and deprivation.

Limitations of data: See “Self-rated health” indicator for limitations.

Data sources: IHME (2015), GBD Compare; Ministry of Health (2015), New Zealand Health Survey 2013/2014, 2012/2013, 2011/2012, 2006/2007 customised data; OECD (2014), OECD Factbook: Economic, Environmental and Social Science.

H8 Potentially hazardous drinking

Definition/formulae: Potentially hazardous drinkers are defined as the proportion of the population aged 15 years and over who drank alcohol and who scored 8 or more on the Alcohol Use Disorders Identification Test (AUDIT), as measured by the New Zealand Health Survey (NZHS).

AUDIT is a 10-item questionnaire covering alcohol consumption, alcohol-related problems and abnormal drinking behaviour. It was developed by the World Health Organization (WHO) as a screening tool for health professionals to identify people at risk of developing alcohol problems. Each question is scored from 0 to 4, 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 events. It is commonly identified from an AUDIT score of 8 or more.

See “Self-rated health” indicator for information on the NZHS, age-standardisation and deprivation.

Limitations of data: As men and women have been assigned the same cut-off score, potentially hazardous drinking in women may be underestimated as they generally have lower alcohol tolerance than men. See “Self-rated health” indicator for other limitations.

Data sources: IHME (2015), GBD Compare; Ministry of Health (2015), New Zealand Health Survey 2013/2014, 2012/2013, 2011/2012, 2006/2007 customised data; OECD, “Alcohol consumption”, Health: Key Tables (accessed July 2015).

H9 Participation in physical activity

Definition/formulae: The proportion of the population aged 15 years and over who met physical activity guidelines (ie doing at least 30 minutes of exercise on five or more days in the past week), as measured by the New Zealand Health Survey (NZHS).

See “Self-rated health” indicator for information on the NZHS, age-standardisation and deprivation.

Limitations of data: See “Self-rated health” indicator for limitations.

Data sources: IHME (2015), GBD Compare; Ministry of Health (2015), New Zealand Health Survey 2013/2014, 2012/2013, 2011/2012, 2006/2007 customised data.

Knowledge and skills

K1 Participation in early childhood education

Definition/formulae: The level of participation and enrolments in early childhood education (ECE). The headline measure uses prior participation in ECE for children starting school. The second measure uses enrolment rates in ECE.

June results have been provided for both measures to ensure consistency across measures and time.

Rates calculated for enrolments use the most recent Statistics New Zealand population estimates and may differ slightly from rates published by the Ministry of Education.

Ethnicity is total response, where people who have been identified in more than one ethnic group have been counted in each ethnic group. For the New Zealand total, individuals are counted only once.

Limitations of data: In 2014, the method for data collection changed and around 40 percent of ECE services completed the annual census using the Ministry of Education's new electronic collection tool for ECE: ELI. For these services, the data shown relates to attendances in ECE licensed services, not enrolments. This is a change to the definition of the data and means that the data should not be compared with previous years.

Data sources: Ministry of Education, Education Counts website; OECD (2014), Education at a Glance 2014: OECD Indicators.

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.

From 2009, NCEA Level 2 included the total number of school leavers who attained:

- NCEA Level 2 or another Level 2 National Qualifications Framework (NQF) qualification or:
- a non-NQF award at the equivalent of NCEA Level 2, including Accelerated Christian Education (ACE), International Baccalaureate (IB) or Cambridge International Exams (CIE), or another overseas award at Year 12
- National Certificate Level 3 (NCEA Level 3) or:
- a non-NQF award at the equivalent of NCEA level 3 including ACE, IB or CIE, or another overseas award at Year 13
- Scholarship or National Certificate at Level 4 or above.

Data is as at the end of the school leaver year.

Ethnicity is total response, where people who have been identified in more than one ethnic group have been counted in each ethnic group. For the New Zealand total, individuals are counted only once.

For this indicator, European refers to people who affiliate as New Zealand European, Other European or European (not further defined). For example, this includes, but is not limited to, people who consider themselves as Australian (excluding Australian Aborigines), British and Irish, American, Spanish and Ukrainian.

Limitations of data: Changes to the qualifications framework over time have made long-term comparisons more difficult. Data from 2009 to the present is most consistent.

Data sources: Ministry of Education, Education Counts website; Historic data sourced from previous Social Report publications.

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. Only domestic students 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.

Tertiary providers include universities, institutes of technology and polytechnics, wānanga, public providers, and private training establishments who provide a range of approved qualifications.

Age-standardised rates have been used in the current level and trends section, and the sex and ethnic group differences sections.

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.

Limitations of data: Changes in the number of institutions, the status of institutions, and the types of courses offered affect comparisons over time.

Data sources: Ministry of Education, Education Counts website and customised data; OECD (2014), Education at a Glance 2014; OECD Indicators; Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand Income Survey.

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, as measured in the Household Labour Force Survey (HLFS). At least upper secondary school level includes any formal qualification at NCEA Level 2 (or equivalent) or higher. Bachelor's degree or higher includes Bachelor's degrees, postgraduate certificates or diplomas, Master's degrees, and Doctorates.

For this report, at least upper secondary is set at NCEA L2 or equivalent, and above. This benchmark is higher than previously reported (NCEA Level 1 or equivalent), but reflects the direction international reporting is heading and the reducing value of an NCEA L1 qualification. Bachelor's degree and above is as described and has not changed.

Levels of education used for OECD results for at least upper secondary correspond to the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) levels 3A, 3B, 3C long programmes, and ISCED level 4 and above. Bachelor's and above corresponds to ISCED levels 5A; and 6.

Limitations of data: Data is based on a sample survey and is therefore subject to sampling error.

A major improvement in coding post-school qualifications in the HLFS occurred in the June 2013 quarter 2013 and may have resulted in some discontinuity in reporting. Categories prior to this date are reasonably comparable at this level, but caution should be exercised in any comparison. Qualifications have also changed over the period of the survey such as the introduction of NCEA in 2002. As a result, a best fit approach is used for time series data.

The HLFS is undergoing progressive revision and past data was rebased in 2015, adding to variations in past reporting beyond changes to definitions.

A major change in coding ethnicity in the HLFS occurred in the December 2007 quarter. From 2007, “total response” is used for 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 periods is concorded on a “best fit” basis and may not be directly comparable. People responding “New Zealander” from the December 2007 quarter are coded in European/Other.

Data sources: OECD (2015), Education at a Glance Interim Report: Update of Employment and Educational Attainment Indicators; Statistics New Zealand, Household Labour Force Survey customised data.

K5 Adult literacy and numeracy skills

Definition/formulae: The proportion of the population aged 16–65 years with higher literacy and numeracy skills (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 and Lawes (2008a), The Adult Literacy and Life Skills (ALL) Survey: Age and Literacy; Satherley and Lawes (2008b), The Adult Literacy and Life Skills (ALL) Survey: Gender, Ethnicity and Literacy, and customised unpublished data; Satherley et al (2008), The Adult Literacy and Life Skills (ALL) Survey: Overview and International Comparisons.

Paid work

PW1 Unemployment

Definition/formulae: 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. The data is from the Household Labour Force Survey (HLFS).

The HLFS was introduced in October 1985. It is a continuous national survey of households which measures quarterly average levels of employment, unemployment, non-participation in the labour force, and the quarterly and annual changes in these levels. The survey collects responses from around 15,000 households every quarter, amounting to responses from approximately 30,000 individuals aged 15 and over.

The unemployed are defined in the HLFS as those 15 years and over 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 who 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 rates conform with standard International Labour Organization guidelines for comparability.

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 definition of the unemployed also excludes those who have part-time employment but who are seeking to work more hours.

The HLFS is undergoing progressive revision and past data was rebased in 2015, meaning some past results may have been revised and will differ from previously published data.

A major change in coding ethnicity in the HLFS occurred in the December 2007 quarter. From 2008, people can be counted in more than one ethnic group (total response). 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. For 2007 and earlier, people are counted in only one ethnic group (ethnicities are prioritised). Ethnic group data from earlier quarters is concorded on a "best fit" basis and may not be directly comparable. People responding "New Zealander" from the December 2007 quarter are coded in European/Other.

Data sources: OECD (2015), Harmonised Unemployment Rate (HUR) (indicator) (accessed 20 August 2015); Statistics New Zealand, Household Labour Force Survey customised and published data.

PW2 Employment

Definition/formulae: 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 (HLFS). 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.

See "Unemployment" for information on the HLFS.

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.

See “Unemployment” for HLFS limitations of data.

Data sources: OECD (2015), Employment rate (indicator) (accessed on 24 August 2015); Statistics New Zealand, Household Labour Force Survey customised and published data.

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, and adjusted for inflation using All Groups Plus Interest.

The data is from the New Zealand Income Survey (NZIS), which is an annual supplement to the Household Labour Force Survey (HLFS) and is run in the June quarter. The HLFS sample has approximately 15,000 private households, sampled randomly from rural and urban areas throughout New Zealand. Information is gathered for each household member who falls within the scope of the survey and meets the survey coverage rules. The final NZIS dataset has approximately 30,000 individuals.

As the survey is run across the June quarter, the price adjustment factor is calculated off June 2014 quarter CPI compared with the quarter concerned.

Limitations of data: Hourly earnings relate to the number of hours usually worked and 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.

Changes to the ethnic question from December 2007 preclude ethnic comparisons before this period for the ethnic groups reported.

Estimates from sample surveys are subject to error. Some data reported may differ from published data as a result of using a custom data run. Data used in this report has not been rebased using the latest HLFS population estimates; however, this has little, or no, impact on long-term trends and analysis.

Data source: Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand Income Survey customised and published data.

PW4 Work-related injury

Definition/formulae: The age-standardised rate of serious non-fatal work-related injury per 100,000 person-years at risk. Additional information is provided using Accident Compensation Corporation (ACC) work-related claims data.

Serious non-fatal work-related injury indicators are based on ACC claims and National Minimum Dataset (NMDS) linked data.

Fatal work-related injury indicators are based on ACC fatal claims and WorkSafe New Zealand fatal-harm notifications linked data.

Work-related claims measure claims accepted by ACC for work-related injuries.

Some of the rates provided are based on published data rounded for reasons of confidentiality and as a result may differ slightly from rates published by Statistics New Zealand using unrounded data.

In April 2010, leading central government agencies signed the enduring Protocol for government agency reporting on injury incidence in New Zealand. This protocol ensures that agencies use the serious injury outcome indicators to adopt consistent, high-level injury measures when reporting on injury trends.

Claims submitted by accredited employers were included in the ACC and serious injury data for the first time in 2015, affecting past reported data by increasing the number of claims.

Limitations of data: Non-fatal work-related injury rates are prone to error. Results and commentary reported here reflect 95 percent confidence levels between comparative variables.

Data source: Statistics New Zealand.

PW5 Satisfaction with job

Definition/formulae: The proportion of employed people who are satisfied or very satisfied with their job, as measured by the New Zealand General Social Survey (NZGSS).

See separate technical note for more information on the NZGSS.

Data sources: OECD (2009), Society at a Glance 2009: OECD Social Indicators; Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand General Social Survey 2008, 2010, 2012, 2014 customised data.

PW6 Satisfaction with work-life balance

Definition/formulae: The proportion of employed people who were very satisfied or satisfied with their work-life balance, as measured by the Survey of Working Life (SoWL).

The Statistics New Zealand SoWL investigates people's employment arrangements, employment conditions, and job satisfaction. The 2008 SoWL was a supplement to the Household Labour Force Survey (HLFS) in the March 2008 quarter and the 2012 SoWL was a supplement to the HLFS in the December 2012 quarter. The survey does not collect information on voluntary work or unpaid work around the house.

In 2012, 14,335 employed individuals in households responded to the SoWL. Data is based on a sample survey and so is subject to sampling error. Therefore, results should be treated with a degree of caution.

Data sources: OECD (2015), How's Life? 2015: Measuring Well-being; Statistics New Zealand, Survey of Working Life 2008 and 2012 customised and published data.

Economic standard of living

EC1 Market income per person

Definition/formulae: The total value of goods and services available to New Zealanders, expressed in inflation-adjusted dollars, per head of population. This is also known as real gross national disposable income (RGNDI) per person. RGNDI measures the total income, adjusted for inflation, that New Zealand residents receive, not only from domestic production but also from the net income flows with the rest of the world. Data is available only from 1991 onward owing to a change in methodology.

Gross national income (GNI) is defined as gross domestic product plus net receipts from abroad of wages and salaries and of property income plus net taxes and subsidies receivable from abroad.

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. There is a discontinuity between 1991 and 1992 owing to a change of population series from de facto population to resident population.

Data sources: OECD (2015), Gross national income (indicator) (accessed October 2015); Statistics New Zealand, InfoShare.

EC2 Income inequality

Definition/formulae: 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. For international comparisons, Gini coefficients have been compared.

Adjustment for household size and composition was made using the 1988 Revised Jensen Equivalence Scale.

Data sources: Perry (2015), Ministry of Social Development, using data from Statistics New Zealand's Household Economic Survey.

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 are the sum of annualised accommodation expenditure (including 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).

Incomes are incomes from all household members from all sources after deducting tax and housing costs, and are adjusted for household size and composition. Three types of threshold are used. The first uses an “anchored” threshold, set at 50 percent of the 2007 household disposable income median, with 25 percent deducted to allow for average housing costs, and held fixed in real terms. This 50 percent of 2007 median measure is equivalent to the 60 percent of 1998 median measure used in previous Social Reports. The two other indicators use fully relative thresholds set at 50 percent and 60 percent of the current year's household disposable income median, with 25 percent deducted to allow for average housing costs. The relative thresholds are adjusted each survey in line with how the median moves.

The trend using an anchored threshold shows how low incomes are changing compared with a fixed standard. The trends using the fully relative thresholds show how low incomes are changing compared with the incomes of middle-income households.

Individuals are grouped according to selected individual, family or household characteristics for the different analyses.

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.

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 from those who experience only a transient episode.

Data sources: Perry (2015), Ministry of Social Development, using data from Statistics New Zealand's Household Economic Survey; OECD (2015), Poverty Rate (indicator) (accessed 07 October 2015).

EC4 Material hardship

Definition/formulae: The proportion of the population in households with Material Wellbeing Index (MWI) scores below two thresholds.

The Ministry of Social Development's MWI is made up of 24 items that reflect the actual living conditions and consumption opportunities for households. The index ranks households by their material wellbeing. Two thresholds are used, representing more severe and less severe hardship. For 2009, these thresholds produce material hardship rates for New Zealand that are very close to those produced by the two thresholds used in the Eurostat's 13-item deprivation index for the same year (the latest comparison available).

Results for 2007–2012 use the Economic Living Standard Index Short Form (ESF-1) with thresholds chosen to mesh with the MWI used in 2013 and 2014.

Ethnicity used is prioritised, not total response (each person is captured in one ethnic group only).

Data sources: Perry (2015a), Ministry of Social Development, using data from Statistics New Zealand's Household Economic Survey.

EC5 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 (including 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.

Data sources: Perry (2015a), Ministry of Social Development, using data from Statistics New Zealand's Household Economic Survey.

EC6 Household crowding

Definition/formulae: 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 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 aged under 5 years, either of the same or of the opposite sex, may reasonably share a bedroom.
- Children aged 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.

Data sources: Ministry of Health (2014), Analysis of Household Crowding based on Census 2013 data; Statistics New Zealand, Unpublished data from the Census of Population and Dwellings 1986, 1991, 1996, 2001, 2006 and 2013.

Civil and political rights

CP1 Voter turnout

Definition/formulae: The proportion of the estimated voting-age population (aged 18 years and over) who cast a vote in general elections; the proportion of all enrolled electors (both resident and ratepayer) who cast a vote in contested local authority elections.

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 in contested wards, 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. Voter turnout for the general elections is collected by the Electoral Commission, and by the Department of Internal Affairs for local authority elections.

Ethnicity is based on the ethnic group(s) that people identify with or feel they belong to. It is a measure of cultural affiliation rather than race, ancestry, nationality or citizenship.

See separate technical note for more information on the New Zealand General Social Survey (NZGSS).

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.

Statistics New Zealand's *Non-voters in 2008 and 2011 general elections* report is based on self-reported voting behaviour, and therefore findings can be different from administrative data on voter turnout available from the Electoral Commission's website. Reasons for possible differences include:

- NZGSS collects self-reporting voting behaviour.
- The voting population used in the analysis is people aged 18 years and over in the election year who provided valid responses to the survey questions.
- The voting population used in this report includes people who were not enrolled or not eligible because of visa status, which have been classified under "other" reasons for not voting.

See the Electoral Commission's research paper: *Voter and non-voter satisfaction survey 2011 on voter turnout*.

Survey estimates are subject to sampling error and small differences between groups may not be statistically significant. Groups with small population size, such as Pacific peoples and MELAA, can potentially be vulnerable to unmeasured differences between the survey participants and the population.

Data sources: Department of Internal Affairs (2014), 2013 Local Authority Election Statistics; Electoral Commission (2015), Report of the Electoral Commission on the 2014 General Election; Electoral Commission (2012), Report of the Electoral Commission on the 2011 General Election and Referendum; International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance (2015), Voter Turnout (accessed June 2015); Statistics New Zealand (2014), Non-voters in 2008 and 2011 General Elections: Findings from the New Zealand General Social Survey; Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand General Social Survey 2008, 2010, 2012 customised data.

CP2 Representation of women in government

Definition/formulae: The proportion of elected Members of Parliament (MPs) who were women and the proportion of women elected to local authorities.

International data has been compiled by the Inter-Parliamentary Union on the basis of information provided by National Parliaments by 1 May 2015.

Data sources: Department of Internal Affairs (2014), 2013 New Zealand Local Authority Elections; Department of Internal Affairs (2011), Local Authority Election Statistics 2010; Electoral Commission (2002), The New Zealand Electoral Compendium, 3rd edition; Inter-Parliamentary Union (2015), Women in National Parliaments (accessed June 2015); Parliamentary Library (2015), The 2014 New Zealand General Election: Final Results and Voting Statistics; Parliamentary Library (2012), Final Results for the 2011 New Zealand General Election and Referendum; Parliamentary Library (2008), Final Results for the 2008 New Zealand General Election; Parliamentary Library (2005), Final Results 2005 General Election.

CP3 Representation of ethnic groups in government

Definition/formulae: The proportion of elected Members of Parliament (MPs) who identified themselves as being of Māori, Pacific peoples or Asian ethnicity.

Limitations of data: Ethnicity is self-defined.

Data sources: Parliamentary Library (2015), The 2014 New Zealand General Election: Final Results and Voting Statistics; Parliamentary Library (2012), Final Results for the 2011 New Zealand General Election and Referendum; Parliamentary Library (2008), Final Results for the 2008 New Zealand General Election; Parliamentary Library (2005), Final Results 2005 General Election; Statistics New Zealand (2014), 2013 Census Quick Stats about Culture and Identity.

CP4 Perceived discrimination

Definition/formulae: The proportion of the population aged 15 years and over who reported they had been discriminated against in the past 12 months, as measured in the 2014 New Zealand General Social Survey (NZGSS).

See the separate technical note for more information on the NZGSS.

Limitations of data: This measure is subjective and reflects personal perceptions of discrimination by individuals, rather than instances of discrimination established by law.

The question on discrimination in the 2014 NZGSS is worded differently from in previous surveys. The change in wording means that comparisons across time cannot be made.

Data sources: European Commission (2012), Discrimination in the EU in 2012; Statistics New Zealand (2015), New Zealand General Social Survey 2014 customised data.

CP5 Acceptance of diversity

Definition/formulae: The proportion of the population aged 15 years and over who reported feeling “very comfortable” or “comfortable” if they had a new neighbour who was a member of a selected range of minority groups, as measured in the 2014 New Zealand General Social Survey (NZGSS). The minority groups were: from a religious minority; gay, lesbian, bisexual or transgender (GLBT); a racial or ethnic minority; had a mental illness; or was a new migrant.

See separate technical note for more information on the NZGSS.

Limitations of data: The question about acceptance of diversity in the 2014 NZGSS is worded differently than in previous surveys. The change in wording means it is not possible to make comparisons across time.

Data source: Statistics New Zealand (2015), New Zealand General Social Survey 2014 information release and customised data.

CP6 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 1 (highly corrupt) to 100 (highly clean), as measured in the Corruption Perceptions Index (CPI) by Transparency International.

The CPI ranks countries and territories based on how corrupt their public sector is perceived to be. It is a composite index – a combination of polls – drawing on corruption-related data collected by a variety of reputable institutions. The CPI reflects the views of observers from around the world, including experts living and working in the countries and territories evaluated.

The 2014 CPI draws on data sources from independent institutions specialising in governance and business climate analysis. The sources of information used for the 2014 CPI are based on data gathered in the past 24 months. The CPI includes only sources that provide a score for a set of countries/territories and that measure perceptions of corruption in the public sector. Transparency International reviews the methodology of each data source in detail to ensure that the sources used meet Transparency International’s quality standards.

The CPI has information on 175 countries and territories in 2014, but the indicator focuses on the 34 OECD countries.

Limitations of data: The CPI is limited in scope and is a subjective measure, capturing perceptions of the extent of corruption in the public sector, from the perspective of business people and country experts. 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.

Transparency International updated the methodology used to calculate the CPI in 2012 using a new scale of 0-100 rather than scores out of 10. Using this scale, CPI scores can now be compared from one year to the next. CPI scores before 2012 are not comparable over time.

Data source: Transparency International (2014), Corruption Perceptions Index 2014.

Cultural identity

C11 Local content programming on New Zealand television

Definition/formulae: The hours of local content broadcast on TV One, TV2, TV3, Prime Television, Māori Television and FOUR in prime-time, expressed as a percentage of the total prime-time schedule. New Zealand content programming includes first runs and repeats across all main 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.

For Table C11.1, programme hours are divided into eight genre categories. Nielsen allocates programmes a description from their catalogue of more than 40 typographies, which are then automatically assigned to the eight genres measured in this report. The genres are defined in Appendix 1 of *2014 Local Content New Zealand Television*. There are some variances in the way programmes are classified by genre. NZ On Air uses the classifications allocated by Nielsen, and because NZ On Air's interest is in trends over time, it doesn't change these even if the variance may seem a bit at odds. For example, two similar programmes may appear in different genre. In 2014, weekend current affairs programme *Q+A* is classified as News/Current Affairs, but *The Nation* on TV3 is counted as Information. A full list of each programme and the genre it is allocated to is in Appendix 6 of *2014 Local Content New Zealand Television*.

In 2010, there were methodological changes. NZ On Air started using electronic Nielsen data, rather than an in-house manual recording system. Nielsen's data records changes to advertised programming, and actual rather than estimated running times. This generally means a decrease in total hours. In addition, there are some changes to the category (genre) to which a programme title might be assigned. Year-on-year genre comparisons before 2010 should be interpreted with caution.

Because of the methodological changes, and to align with NZ On Air reporting, data in the 2016 Social Report starts from 2006. This differs from previous Social Reports.

Data source: NZ On Air (2014), 2014 Local Content New Zealand Television.

C12 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, as measured by the Census of Population and Dwellings 2001, 2006 and 2013.

In 2013, Statistics New Zealand carried out Te Kupenga, its first survey of Māori wellbeing. Te Kupenga collected information on a wide range of topics to give an overall picture of the social, cultural, and economic wellbeing of Māori in New Zealand.

Limitations of data: The census data relies on self-assessment, rather than on measuring the actual level of fluency in the population. It comes from a single question about conversational language ability.

The Te Kupenga 2013 survey measured a sample of the population who identified ethnically as Māori and/or as being of Māori descent. Te Kupenga involved face-to-face interviews, in either te reo Māori or English. The census involves people completing a questionnaire on their own. Te Kupenga and census data are therefore not comparable.

For more information, see Statistics New Zealand (2014) *Measuring te reo Māori speakers: A guide to different data sources*, available from www.stats.govt.nz.

Data sources: Statistics New Zealand, Census of Population and Dwellings 2001, 2006 and 2013; Statistics New Zealand (2014), Māori language speakers (tables); Statistics New Zealand (2014), Ka māro te aho tapu, ka tau te korowai: Te reo Māori findings from Te Kupenga 2013.

CI3 Language retention

Definition/formulae: The proportion of people who could speak the “first language” of their ethnic group, as recorded in the 2013 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 the first language associated with a given ethnicity, as opposed to the first language of a person. Sign language, English and Māori are not treated as a first language for the purpose of the indicator.

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 the ethnic group 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 and 2013.

CI4 Ability to be yourself in New Zealand

Definition/formulae: The proportion of the population aged 15 years and over who felt it was “very easy” or “easy” to be themselves in New Zealand, as measured in the 2014 New Zealand General Social Survey (NZGSS).

See the separate technical note for more information on the NZGSS.

Limitations of data: The question in the 2014 NZGSS is worded differently from in previous surveys. The change in wording means comparisons across time cannot be made.

Data source: Statistics New Zealand (2015), New Zealand General Social Survey 2014 customised data.

Leisure and recreation

L1 Satisfaction with leisure time

Definition/formulae: The proportion of the population aged 15 years and over who reported having the right amount of free time in the last four weeks, as measured in the New Zealand General Social Survey (NZGSS).

See separate technical note for more information on the NZGSS.

Limitations of data: No data was collected in the 2014 NZGSS.

Data source: Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand General Social Survey 2008, 2010, 2012 customised data.

L2 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 the New Zealanders and the Arts Survey.

The New Zealanders and the Arts Survey is a major three-yearly research programme by Creative New Zealand that began in 2005. It delivers ongoing information to the arts sector about New Zealanders' level of involvement in, and attitudes towards, the arts.

There were two components of the 2014 research conducted by Colmar Brunton:

- 1,001 telephone interviews with New Zealanders aged 15 or over;
- 180 door-to-door interviews with three ethnic groups – Māori, Pacific peoples, and Asian – to provide more robust sample sizes of specific ethnic groups.

After interviewing, the two samples were merged to create a final sample size of $n=1,181$, which has a maximum margin for error of ± 2.85 percent.

To account for sample imbalances created by the sampling process and the ethnic booster samples, the final sample was weighted to match the New Zealand 15+ population as per the 2013 Census. The sample was weighted to account for the impact of household size, and to correct imbalances in terms of region, gender, age and ethnicity.

Limitations of data: Data is based on a sample survey and is therefore subject to sampling error. International comparisons are affected by differences in the collection and classification of data.

Data sources: Creative New Zealand (2015), New Zealanders and the Arts: Attitudes, Attendance and Participation in 2014 published and customised data; TNS Opinion & Social (2013), Cultural Access and Participation Report – Special Eurobarometer 399.

Safety

SS1 Criminal victimisation

Definition/formulae: The proportion of the population aged 15 years and over who reported having a crime committed against them in the last 12 months, as measured in the New Zealand General Social Survey (NZGSS).

Previously the New Zealand Crime and Safety Survey (NZCASS) was used as a data source but the NZGSS was chosen for this report as it occurs more regularly, and looks at the whole population.

See separate technical note for more information on the NZGSS.

Limitations of data: Changes in the explanation of crime given to survey respondents in 2014 mean that comparisons between 2008, 2010, 2012 and 2014 should be treated with caution.

Data sources: OECD (2014), Society at a Glance 2014: OECD Social Indicators; Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand General Social Survey 2008, 2010, 2012, 2014 customised data.

SS2 Fear of crime

Definition/formulae: The proportion of the population aged 15 years and over who felt safe or very safe walking alone in their neighbourhood after dark, as measured in the 2014 New Zealand General Social Survey (NZGSS).

See separate technical note for more information on the NZGSS.

Limitations of data: Changes to the “fear of crime” question in the NZGSS have meant no comparisons can be made over time. These changes have included changing the scale from a 4 point scale to a 5 point scale, and rewording the question.

International data comes from the Gallup World Poll (<http://www.gallup.com/services/170945/world-poll.aspx>), and caution is needed when making international comparisons because of varying sample sizes. International rates are calculated omitting “don’t know” and “refused” from the denominator.

Data sources: OECD (2014), Society at a Glance 2014: OECD Social Indicators; Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand General Social Survey 2014 information release and customised data.

SS3 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-8 and ICD-9, E960-E969 (up to 1999); ICD-10, X85-Y09 (from 2000).

Limitations of data: Because of a change in the ethnicity classification in September 1995 (from ancestry to self-reported), comparable data is available only from 1996 onwards. Rates based on small numbers can be volatile and trends can be difficult to determine over the short term.

Data sources: Ministry of Health, customised data; New Zealand Transport Agency, customised data; Statistics New Zealand, New Zealand Social Indicators website.

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 is drawn from the following International Classification of Diseases codes: ICD-10, V01-V89 (from 2000).

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 available only from the Ministry of Health.

Limitations of data: Because of a change in the ethnicity classification in September 1995 (from ancestry to self-reported), comparable data is available only from 1996 onwards.

Data sources: Ministry of Health, customised data; New Zealand Transport Agency, customised data; Statistics New Zealand; OECD (2015), Health at a Glance 2015: OECD Indicators; OECD (2013), Health at a Glance 2013: OECD Indicators; International Transport Forum, International Road Traffic and Accident Database.

Social connectedness

SC1 Telephone and internet access in the household

Definition/formulae: The number of people living in households with access to telephones (either landline and/or cellphone) and the internet, as a percentage of the total population for whom access to communications was available, as measured in the Census of Population and Dwellings 2001, 2006 and 2013.

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 source: Statistics New Zealand, Census of Population and Dwellings 2001, 2006 and 2013.

SC2 Contact with family and friends

Definition/formulae: The proportion of the population aged 15 years and over who said the amount of contact they had with family and friends who didn't live with them was "about right", as measured in the 2008, 2010 and 2012 New Zealand General Social Survey (NZGSS).

See separate technical note for more information on the NZGSS.

Limitations of data: In the 2014 NZGSS, the question on contact with family and friends was changed to draw from a different population of respondents. For this reason, comparisons cannot be made with previous survey data and 2014 data has, therefore, not been included.

Data source: Statistics New Zealand (2015), New Zealand General Social Survey 2014 customised data.

SC3 Contact between young people and their parents

Definition/formulae: The proportion of secondary school students aged 12–18 years who said they got enough time with mum and/or dad (or someone who acts as mum and/or dad) most of the time, as measured in the Youth2000, Youth'07 and Youth'12 surveys.

NZDep2006 Index is an updated version of earlier indexes of socio-economic deprivation and combines nine variables from the 2006 Census which reflect dimensions of deprivation. The NZDep2006 Index uses a scale from 1 to 10 which divides the distribution of the NZDep2006 score for the total New Zealand population into equal tenths. A decile of 1 represents areas with the least deprived scores and 10 represents areas with the most deprived scores. Students are grouped into three decile bands, indicating low (1 – 3), medium (4 – 7) and high (8 – 10) levels of deprivation. It should be noted that NZDep2006 deprivation scores apply to areas rather than individual people.

Limitations of data: Estimates from sample surveys are subject to error. The achieved sample size for the Youth'12 survey was 8,500 students, representing 3.0 percent of the total 2012 New Zealand secondary school roll.

The Youth'12 survey is a school-based survey of students who were at school on the day of the survey. Students who were not at school or who had dropped out of school are generally less healthy and experience greater health needs.

The question format and response options changed between 2001 and 2007/2012. In 2001, students were asked, "Most weeks you get enough time to spend with your mum/dad (or someone who acts as

your mum/dad)?”, whereas in 2007/2012 students were asked, “Do you [get to] spend enough time with her/him (your mum/dad or someone who acts as your mum/dad)?” In 2001, the response options were: Always, Sometimes, Hardly ever, Almost never, and Does not apply to me. In 2007/2012, the response options were: Most of the time, Sometimes, Hardly ever, and Does not apply to me.

Data sources: Adolescent Health Research Group (2013), The Health and Wellbeing of New Zealand Secondary School Students in 2012: Youth'12 Prevalence Tables; Adolescent Health Research Group (2008), Youth'07: The Health and Wellbeing of Secondary School Students in New Zealand: Technical Report.

SC4 Trust in others

Definition/formulae: The proportion of the population aged 15 years and over who reported trusting most people in New Zealand, as measured in the 2014 New Zealand General Social Survey (NZGSS).

See separate technical note for more information on the NZGSS.

OECD trust data is based on the question: “Generally speaking would you say that most people can be trusted or that you need to be very careful in dealing with people?” Data comes from two different surveys: the European Social Survey (2008 wave 4) for OECD-Europe and the International Social Survey Programme (2007 wave) for non-OECD Europe.

Limitations of data: The question about generalised trust in the 2014 New Zealand General Social Survey is a new question so no time series is available.

Data source: Statistics New Zealand (2015), New Zealand General Social Survey 2014 customised data.

SC5 Loneliness

Definition/formulae: The proportion of the population aged 15 years and over who reported feeling lonely all of the time, most of the time, or some of the time in the last four weeks, as measured in the 2014 New Zealand General Social Survey (NZGSS).

See separate technical note for more information on the NZGSS.

Limitations of data: The question about loneliness in the 2014 NZGSS is worded differently from in previous surveys. The change in question means comparisons across time cannot be made.

Data source: Statistics New Zealand (2015), New Zealand General Social Survey 2014 customised data.

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 past four weeks, as measured in the New Zealand General Social Survey (NZGSS).

Examples of groups or organisations given to survey respondents included sports or exercise groups; hobby, recreation or social groups; ethnic or cultural groups; environmental or animal welfare groups; business, professional or union groups; political or lobby groups; health, welfare or support groups; local community or neighbourhood groups; and emergency services.

See separate technical note for more information on the NZGSS.

Limitations of data: No data was collected in the 2014 NZGSS. International data comes from the Gallup World Poll, and caution is needed when making international comparisons owing to varying sample sizes.

Data sources: OECD (2015), “Women are catching up to men in volunteering, and they engage in more altruistic voluntary activities”; Statistics New Zealand (2015), New Zealand General Social Survey 2014 customised data.

Life satisfaction

LS1 Overall life satisfaction

Definition/formulae: The proportion of the population aged 15 years and over who rated their overall life satisfaction highly (ie scored 7 and over on a scale of 0–10, with 0 being completely dissatisfied and 10 being completely satisfied), as measured in the New Zealand General Social Survey (NZGSS).

International data comes from the Gallup World Poll with the reference year being 2014 for all countries with the exception of 2013 for Chile, Hungary and Iceland. The indicator considers people's evaluation of their life as a whole. It is a weighted-sum of different response categories based on people's ratings of their current life relative to the best and worst possible lives for them on a scale from 0 to 10, using the Cantril Ladder (known also as the "Self-Anchoring Striving Scale").

See separate technical note for more information on the NZGSS.

Limitations of data: Given changes to the scale in 2014, comparisons with previous NZGSS life satisfaction results cannot be made.

Data sources: OECD (2015), Better Life Index 2015; Statistics New Zealand (2015), New Zealand General Social Survey 2014 customised data.

New Zealand General Social Survey

Definition/formulae: The New Zealand General Social Survey (NZGSS) is a multi-dimensional, biennial survey that provides information on the wellbeing of New Zealanders aged 15 years and over. It covers a wide range of social and economic outcomes and shows how people are faring. In particular, the survey provides a view of how wellbeing outcomes are distributed across different groups within the New Zealand population. The NZGSS began in 2008 and has run every two years since then (ie 2010, 2012 and 2014).

The target population for the NZGSS is the usually resident population aged 15 years and over in private dwellings in the North Island, South Island, or Waiheke Island of New Zealand.

Households are selected at random using a multistage sample design.

The NZGSS is made up of two questionnaires: the household questionnaire and the personal questionnaire. One individual in the household completes the household questionnaire, which collects information about all the residents in the household (eg family relationships and household income). One individual in the household aged 15 years or over answers the personal questionnaire – that individual is randomly selected from within the eligible members of the household (a computer-generated random selection). Interviews are conducted using computer-assisted personal interviews (CAPI), lasting an average of 45 minutes. The data collection period takes place over a 12-month period from April to March.

The target response rate for the survey was 80 percent. The achieved response rate for 2014 was 80 percent, with 8,795 individuals answering the personal questionnaire. The achieved response rate is similar to previous surveys: 78 percent (2012); 81 percent (2010); and 83 percent (2008).

The “Other” group which includes “New Zealander” and “Other’ Other ethnicity” has been grouped with New Zealand European. While this differs from how the NZGSS is reported by Statistics New Zealand, it aids in comparing ethnicity across time and reflects that the Other group is closely aligned with the European group. This also follows the approach undertaken in previous Social Reports.

Recent migrant refers to a migrant who arrived in New Zealand in the last five years. Long-term migrants have lived in New Zealand for more than five years.

The Material Wellbeing Index has been used to provide information on socio-economic differences. See the technical note on socio-economic measures used in this report.

Limitations of data:

The NZGSS collects subjective self-reported information which is based on individuals’ perceptions, and some information may be under- or over-reported.

Survey estimates are subject to sampling error and small differences between groups may not be statistically significant.

Groups with small population size, such as Pacific peoples and the Middle Eastern/Latin American/ African (MELAA) group, can potentially be vulnerable to unmeasured differences between the survey participants and the population.

Changes have been made to some of the survey questions, which has affected the comparability of their results over time. Where this has occurred, it has been highlighted in the individual indicator sections.

Differences between the figures in the Social Report and Statistics New Zealand published figures occasionally occur for a variety of reasons, including the rounding of numbers, the aggregation of categories, and the use of different denominations as a result of different definitions.

Further technical information can be found on Statistics New Zealand's website:

http://www.stats.govt.nz/browse_for_stats/people_and_communities/well-being/nzgss-info-releases.aspx

Socio-economic measures used in this report

In this report we use a range of measures to report on differences in outcomes according to socio-economic status (SES). SES is usually defined in terms of a combination of income, education and occupation. The report uses several proxies for SES as outlined below:

Personal income and household income

Both are measured in dollars, but, for households, income is often equivalised to adjust for household size and composition using the 1988 Revised Jensen Equivalence Scale.⁶⁷

Material wellbeing index (MWI)

The MWI is a survey-based measure of the material living standards of households. It is a revised and updated version of the Ministry of Social Development's Economic Living Standards Index (ELSI) which was developed in 2002. Like the ELSI, the MWI ranks households by their index scores based on two perspectives:

- an enforced lack perspective in which respondents report not having basics or essentials because of the cost and need to purchase other basics (eg good meal once a day, keeping house warm, having a good bed, going to the doctor, dealing with unexpected essential expenses, and so on);
- a freedoms enjoyed perspective looking at the degrees of restriction for having or purchasing non-essentials (eg pursuing hobbies, taking overseas holidays, using the car without restriction, always being able to replace or fix appliances that break down without delay, and so on).

See Figure AP3.1.

The full MWI uses 24 items with scores ranging from 0 (very severe material hardship) to 35 (very high living standards). The MWI discriminates better in the low and middle parts of the living standards spectrum, but is useful across the full spectrum. In practice it is sensible to clump the top 20% or so into a "high living standards" group rather than try to make too much of slightly different scores at the top end. The 24 items are available in Statistics New Zealand's Household Economic Survey and the full MWI is used in the Economic Standard of Living domain in this report.

A 9-item short-form version is available and is included in Statistics New Zealand's General Social Survey. Scores range from 0-20 for this version. This 9-item version is the source for much of the SES analysis in this report. To show the social gradient across selected outcomes in this report, the population is split into four groups by the MWI score of their respective households, as shown in the table below (Table AP3.1).⁶⁸

Table AP3.1 – Size of the four MWI groupings used in this report

MWI-9 level	1	2	3	4
Label	lower	lower middle	upper middle	higher
MWI scores	0-8	9-13	14-17	18-20
GSS 2014	15%	23%	31%	32%
HES 12-13 and 13-14 (avg)	16%	24%	28%	32%

The New Zealand Deprivation Index (NZDep2013)

NZDep2013 combines nine variables from the 2013 Census which reflect eight dimensions of deprivation. The variables include household income, whether renting or living in own home, whether the accommodation is crowded or not, whether household members are employed or not or receiving a means-tested benefit, access to a car, and access to the internet. NZDep2013 provides a deprivation score for each meshblock in New Zealand. The NZDep2013 scale of deprivation from 1 to 10 divides New Zealand into tenths (deciles) but data is also reported as quintiles ranging from 1 to 5. A decile value of 10 or a quintile value of 5 indicates that the meshblock is respectively in the most deprived 10 percent or 20 percent of areas in New Zealand according to the NZDep2013 scores.⁶⁹ These scores are then used to define the level of deprivation of individuals living in respective meshblocks.

NZDep was first developed using 1991 Census data and earlier versions of the index may be used in this report.

School funding deciles

A school's decile measures the extent to which the school's students live in low-socio-economic or poorer communities. Decile 1 schools are the 10 percent of schools with the highest proportion of students from low-socio-economic communities. Decile 10 schools are the 10 percent of schools with the lowest proportion of students from these communities.

Decile ratings are based on census data for households with school-aged children in each school's catchment area. The data uses household measures such as income, parents on a benefit, occupation, education, and household crowding.

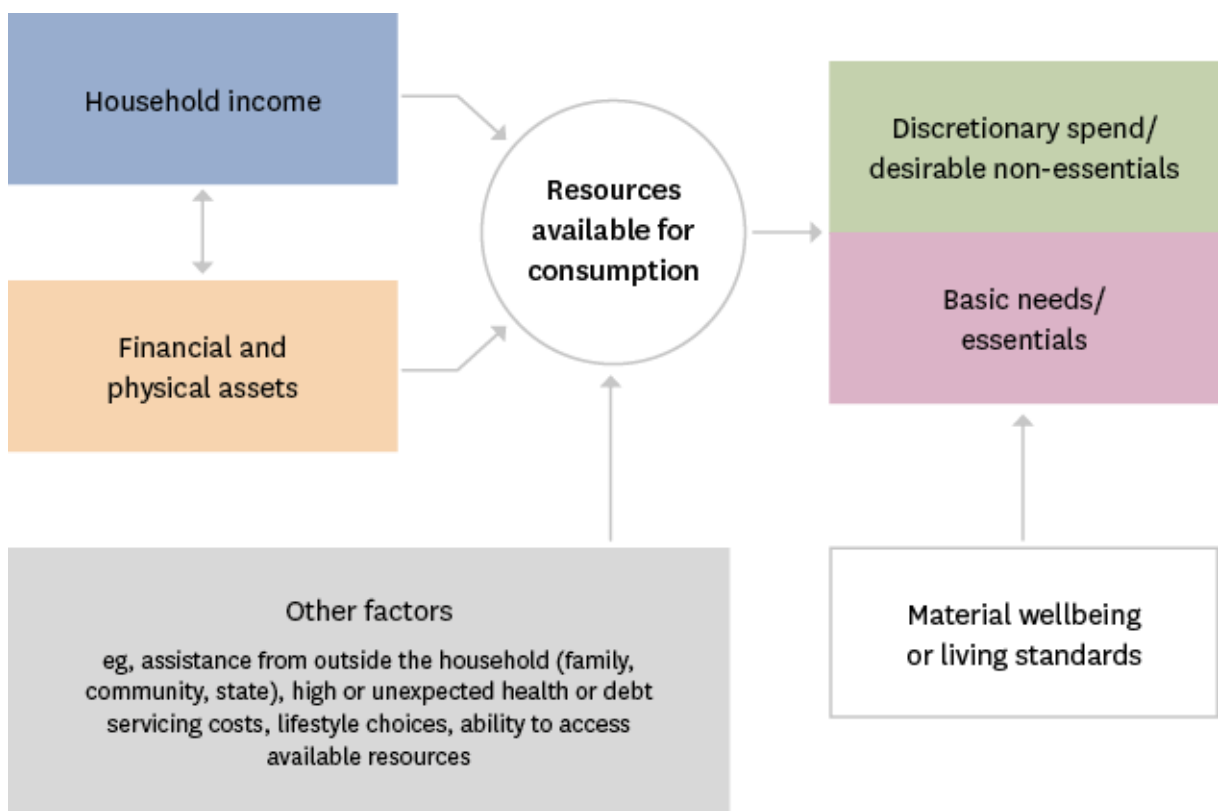
Decile ratings are for funding purposes only – they are not an indication of the performance or quality of education delivered at a school or kura. They are used in this report as a proxy for socio-economic status.

Low incomes and material hardship framework

The low incomes and hardship indicators used in this report are best understood and interpreted within an income-wealth-consumption-material wellbeing framework as outlined in Figure AP3.1.⁷⁰

The framework recognises the importance of household income as a key economic resource for determining consumption possibilities and therefore the material wellbeing of households, as well as the fact that financial and physical assets and many other factors also have an impact on material wellbeing. One consequence of this is that the overlap between those with low incomes and those with low material wellbeing is typically only 40-50 percent – not all with low incomes are in hardship and not all in hardship have low incomes.

Figure AP3.1 – Income and material hardship framework



Frequently asked questions (FAQs)

Q What is the Social Report?

A The Social Report can best be described as a state of the nation report. It uses statistical indicators to monitor trends across key dimensions of people's lives to provide a picture of progress towards better social outcomes for New Zealanders.

The aims of the Social Report are to:

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

The report shows 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 identify adverse trends at an early stage. While the report cannot always show what is driving these trends, it can point to the need for further analysis to help understand the changes and how to address them.

In *The Social Report 2016*, 49 national level indicators are presented using graphs, tables and commentary. A chapter on changes in the size and characteristics of the New Zealand population provides context, while summary sections provide analysis on the changes in social wellbeing in New Zealand.

Q Why is the Social Report produced?

A The Social Report contributes to well-informed public debate by providing an accessible overview of key social indicators. It identifies positive and adverse trends of these indicators. This is useful to local and central government agencies, and Non-Government Organisations (NGOs), to identify areas of concern, develop responses to issues, and monitor changes over time. The report cannot always illuminate what is driving these trends, but it can point to the need for further research to understand what is happening and what actions need to be taken to address them. It is also a useful resource for community groups, academics, schools, and not-for-profit organisations.

The Social Report complements indicator reports produced by other agencies, including the Ministry of Business, Innovation and Employment, the Social Policy Evaluation and Research Unit and the Ministry for the Environment.

The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) is promoting the use of indicators to measure progress within societies. The OECD also encourages the use of indicator sets to inform and promote evidence-based decision-making within and across the public, private and NGO sectors.

Many other OECD countries, such as Australia, the United Kingdom and Canada, have products similar to the Social Report which also monitor changes in social indicators over time.

Q Who uses the Social Report?

A The Social Report is used by central and local government research and policy staff, local and national politicians, NGOs, private sector organisations, the media, academics, students and others.

Q Can the Social Report be used to inform government policy?

A The Social Report shows 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 identify adverse trends at an early stage. While the report cannot always show what is driving these trends or be used to directly inform policy, it can point to the need for further analysis to help understand the changes and how to address them.

Q Does the Social Report measure government performance or specific government policies/programmes/interventions?

A The Social Report focuses on individual wellbeing and concentrates on how New Zealand is doing as a nation overall. While it helps to identify trends and to understand the effects of such trends, including policy changes, it cannot evaluate the impact of single intervention programmes or sector-specific issues.

Q Why doesn't the Social Report cover specific population groups such as people with disabilities?

A The Social Report covers the entire population and is not a measurement tool which can monitor specific issues facing every group or community. As such, it cannot easily accommodate special interests not shared by the wider population. However, the report does provide breakdowns of data, where appropriate, by certain demographic cuts (eg age, sex, ethnicity, socio-economic status, family type, etc).

Q Why are some topic areas missing from the Social Report? Eg environment, domestic violence, child abuse, etc.

A If indicator areas are comprehensively covered in other reports, they have not been included in the Social Report.

The Social Report covers the entire population and is not a measurement tool which can monitor specific issues facing every group or community. There is also a lack of robust data in some areas, such as for child abuse, which makes it difficult to develop indicators that meet the selection criteria.

Q Why is there no composite measure (ie an overall score of social wellbeing) in the Social Report?

A A composite measure is not suitable for the Social Report. In order to produce a composite index, indicators would need to be weighted and thus valued. However, in the authors' view, social wellbeing is a multi-dimensional concept and cannot be expressed in one number.

Q Will there be a regional Social Report available as in previous years?

A Yes, a regional report will be published in 2016. It will also be available on the Social Report website.

Q Why is there a gap in publication between *The Social Report 2010* and *The Social Report 2016*?

A The Social Report was published annually by the Ministry of Social Development from 2001 until 2010, at which time Cabinet rolled the report onto a three-year cycle. A report was not produced in 2013, owing in part to the impact of the postponement of the 2011 Census. In December 2013, the Minister for Social Development agreed a new edition of the Social Report would be produced.

Q Have any indicators been changed since the last Social Report?

A Given the time since the previous report (*The Social Report 2010*) was published, almost all indicators have been updated or revised and six new indicators have been added. The only indicator which has not been updated is Adult literacy and numeracy skills, as the data source has not been updated since *The Social Report 2010*.

Q Why is 2014 data used in some indicators, while other indicators use data from earlier years?

A Available data which is closest to 2014 has been used for all indicators. For some indicators, the most recent data will depend on when surveys are undertaken, for example, annually or less regularly like the New Zealand General Social Survey or census.

For indicators based on mortality statistics, such as suicide and assault mortality, there is a lag in the availability of the data because of the time it takes to establish cause of death.

Q Has any data been released since *The Social Report 2016* was finalised?

A Information and data are constantly being released by agencies as it becomes finalised. In order to allow for an extensive external review, the Social Report was completed a number of months before being published. This report is based around the 2014 year and uses the most recent data up to this point.

Q Can information in *The Social Report 2016* be compared against information in previous reports?

A Events such as the Global Financial Crisis and the Canterbury earthquakes have resulted in significant movements in the outcomes reported. As a result, it is better to look at comparisons in the latest report rather than refer back to earlier editions.

Q How reliable/accurate are the indicators?

A The Social Report uses data sourced from high-quality and reliable surveys and publications, and from reputable agencies. These include:

- Census of Population and Dwellings
- New Zealand Health Survey
- New Zealand General Social Survey
- Household Labour Force Survey
- New Zealand Income Survey
- Survey of Working Life
- Household Economic Survey
- Youth2000 Survey series
- Statistics New Zealand

- Ministry of Education
- Ministry of Health
- Ministry of Transport
- Department of Internal Affairs
- Electoral Commission
- Parliamentary Library
- NZ On Air
- Creative New Zealand
- OECD.

Although the data has been through a rigorous quality assurance process, including a review by Statistics New Zealand, there is always the chance that errors have occurred.

Q How were the indicators chosen for inclusion in *The Social Report 2016*?

- A The Social Report framework guided the selection of indicators and their data source. The well-established and robust selection criteria helped to derive a balanced and manageable set of indicators from the mass of statistics available. The criteria used are:
- *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
 - *easy to interpret and understand* – indicators should be simple to interpret and what the indicator is measuring should be obvious to users
 - *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 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. On other occasions, it may be useful to include indicators with only one data point where they provide important information that otherwise would not be reported.

Q How were the data sources chosen? Why have some data sources changed since the last report?

A The Social Report framework guided the selection of data sources used in the Social Report. Data is sourced from high-quality and reliable surveys, publications and agencies. Where indicators could be drawn from more than one data source, the selection criteria (above) were used to determine which source was more suitable.

Data sources may have changed since the last Social Report because either data is no longer available (eg the survey is no longer being run), or a more suitable source is now available. The gap since the last report means this is more likely than in previous reports.

Q Why is the Social Report organised by domains? Could some indicators sit under more than one domain?

A The use of domains gives the report structure. Some indicators do overlap between domains, but the most suitable domain has been chosen. In *The Social Report 2016*, participation in physical activity has moved from the Leisure and Recreation domain to the Health domain.

Q Has *The Social Report 2016* been independently reviewed?

A The indicators within the Social Report have been reviewed by the agencies who supplied the data for the indicator(s) or whose data was used from their publications. The entire Social Report was reviewed by Statistics New Zealand before being finalised.

Q How does the Social Report relate to the New Zealand General Social Survey?

A The New Zealand General Social Survey (NZGSS) provides data on important social and economic outcomes of New Zealanders aged 15 years and over that is not available from other sources.

The main difference between the NZGSS and the Social Report is that the NZGSS is a survey which collects specific social data, whereas the Social Report is a report which presents a wider set of information and analysis from a range of surveys, the census and administrative data collected by government agencies. *The Social Report 2016* includes 12 indicators drawn directly from the NZGSS. While some of this data is already published by Statistics New Zealand, the indicators in the Social Report provide more expansive breakdowns and information.

Q Are hard copies of *The Social Report 2016* available?

A No hard copies of *The Social Report 2016* will be published. However, the report is available on the Social Report website for printing.

Endnotes

- 1 Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development. The mission of the OECD is to promote policies that will improve the economic and social well-being of people around the world. It provides a forum in which governments can work together to share experiences and seek solutions to common problems. More information on the OECD, including current member countries, can be found at www.oecd.org
- 2 For the majority of the report, New Zealanders have been combined with the European ethnicity.
- 3 See the technical notes for a description of NZDep2013 deprivation levels.
- 4 IHME (2015).
- 5 IHME (2015).
- 6 IMME (2015).
- 7 IHME (2015).
- 8 IHME (2015).
- 9 Wylie (1999); Wylie et al (2001); Wylie et al (2004).
- 10 Funding deciles are ratings used by the Ministry of Education to determine some of the funding a school receives. It is important to understand that decile ratings are for funding purposes only – they are not an indication of the performance or quality of education delivered at a school.
- 11 Ministry of Education (2014).
- 12 The 28 OECD countries reported here are the only ones that provide consistent data across the period 2005–2012.
- 13 See technical notes.
- 14 The upper secondary indicator presented in this report is set at NCEA Level 2 whereas the indicator in the OECD 2013 data is set slightly lower than this (ISCED 3C (long programme)/3B).
- 15 Ministry of Education (2001).
- 16 Satherley et al (2008b) p 7, 9, 11.
- 17 Data for full-time and part-time work and qualifications is based on all the jobs a person has, whereas other data reported is based on the main job a person has.
- 18 See technical notes for more information on injury statistics.
- 19 See the technical notes for a definition of material wellbeing and the Material Wellbeing Index used with the New Zealand General Social Survey in this report.
- 20 Royal Commission on Social Security in New Zealand (1972).
- 21 Figures reported by the OECD for gross national income in 1970 have been revised since the 2010 Social Report was published, resulting in a change in the ranking from 8th to 14th.
- 22 For a description of the Gini coefficient, see Statistics New Zealand (1999) p 118.
- 23 International comparisons like this tell us about the different levels of income inequality in the lower half of the income distribution. They do not tell us how low-income households are actually faring in relation to basic needs. For this comparison see the Material Hardship indicator.
- 24 See technical note on the Ministry of Social Development's Material Wellbeing Index.
- 25 Results for 2007–2012 use the Economic Living Standard Index Short Form (EFS-1) with thresholds chosen to mesh with the MWI used in 2013 and 2014.
- 26 The way that results have been compiled in terms of household type means that sole-parent families will be under-represented as many sole parents live with other adults and are coded in a different household category (ie other family households with some dependent children).
- 27 Baker et al (2003) (2010).

- 28 Evans (2003).
- 29 See technical note for information about the Canadian Crowding Index.
- 30 Age-standardising this data indicates that age plays a minor role in the differences between ethnic groups with regard to household crowding.
- 31 “Dwelling was held in a family trust” was not asked before 2006 but has been added to dwellings owned or partly owned for 2006 and 2013 as noted.
- 32 See Ministry of Health (2014a). For an explanation of Jensen household income equivalisation refer to the technical note on *socio-economic measures used in this report*.
- 33 See Goodyear & Fabian (2012).
- 34 Voters living outside the electorate but eligible to vote because of property ownership within the electorate.
- 35 Department of Internal Affairs, About Local Government, www.localcouncils.govt.nz, accessed August 2015.
- 36 Ministry of Health, My DHB, www.health.govt.nz, accessed August 2015.
- 37 Local Government New Zealand, Community Boards, www.lgnz.co.nz, accessed August 2015.
- 38 Mayoral turnout includes mayors for city and district councils. Council turnout covers city, district and regional council elections.
- 39 The 1989 elections were the first to be held following a major restructuring of local government.
- 40 The question on discrimination in the 2014 New Zealand General Social Survey (NZGSS) is worded differently from in previous surveys. In 2008, 2010 and 2012, the question 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?” In 2014, this was reworded to ask whether people had been “treated unfairly or differently compared to other people?” The change in wording means that comparisons across time cannot be made.
- 41 The question about acceptance of diversity in the 2014 NZGSS is worded differently from in previous surveys. In 2008, 2010 and 2012, respondents were asked whether they agreed or not with a number of statements about whether it was good for people in New Zealand to have different values, ways of living, ethnicities and cultures. The change in question means it is not possible to make comparisons across time.
- 42 The Corruption Perceptions Index (CPI) updated the methodology used to calculate the CPI in 2012 using a new scale of 0–100 rather than scores out of 10. Using this scale, CPI scores can now be compared from one year to the next. CPI scores before 2012 are not comparable over time.
- 43 TV One, TV2, TV3, Prime Television, Māori Television and FOUR. Does not include The Edge TV (which replaced C4 on 27 June 2014), Trackside, Choice TV, Parliament TV, Cue, Te Reo, Shine TV and the three “Plus1” channels.
- 44 All those who identified as Māori in the census are counted as part of the Māori ethnic group in this indicator. People who identified as being of Māori descent are not included.
- 45 See www.nzhistory.net.nz/culture/maori-language-week/history-of-the-maori-language

- 46 Te Kupenga used a self-rated question to assess a respondent's ability to speak in te reo Māori. Respondents were asked to place themselves in one of five categories as follows:
1. Very well (I can talk about almost anything in Māori)
 2. Well (I can talk about many things in Māori)
 3. Fairly well (I can talk about some things in Māori)
 4. Not very well (I can only talk about simple/basic things in Māori)
 5. No more than a few words or phrases.
- 47 See the technical note for more information on the differences between the census and Te Kupenga for measuring Māori language speakers.
- 48 The question in the 2014 NZGSS is worded differently from in previous surveys. In 2008, 2010 and 2012, the question asked: “Here in New Zealand, how easy or difficult is it for you to express your own identity?” In 2014, this was reworded to ask: “How easy or hard is it for you to be yourself in New Zealand?” The change in wording means comparisons across time cannot be made.
- 49 No data on satisfaction with free time was collected in the 2014 NZGSS.
- 50 Craft and Object Arts is a new category added to the survey in 2014. Previously it had been measured as part of the Visual Arts category.
- 51 See 2014 New Zealand Crime and Safety Survey (NZCASS) results.
- 52 The explanation of crime changed in 2014. Prior to 2012, survey respondents were told that crimes could include anything from harassment, assault or verbal abuse to theft, vandalism or arson but did not include traffic accidents. In 2014, survey respondents were told that crimes could include damage to personal property, theft, assault and threats, and were asked to include crimes that happened in New Zealand; were committed by a stranger or someone they knew; and whether they were reported to police or not. Given this, comparisons over time should be treated with caution.
- 53 Changes to the “fear of crime” question in the New Zealand General Social Survey have meant no comparisons can be made over time. These changes have included changing the scale and phrasing.
- 54 See the Children’s Action Plan website www.childrensactionplan.govt.nz
- 55 See the NZTA website www.nzta.govt.nz
- 56 In the 2001 Census, only information on landline telephones was collected.
- 57 In the 2014 New Zealand General Social Survey, the question on contact with family and friends was changed to draw from a different population of respondents. For this reason, comparisons cannot be made with the 2014 survey data and it has not been included.
- 58 In the 2014 New Zealand General Social Survey, the question on contact with family and friends was changed to draw from a different population of respondents. For this reason, comparisons cannot be made with the 2014 survey data and it has not been included.
- 59 Adolescent Health Research Group (2008), p14.
- 60 See the technical notes for changes to the question format and response options.
- 61 Customised data from the Adolescent Health Research Group.
- 62 See the technical notes for a description of the NZDep2006 deprivation levels.
- 63 The question about generalised trust in the 2014 New Zealand General Social Survey is a new question so no time series is available.

- 64 The question about loneliness in the 2014 NZGSS is worded differently from in previous surveys. In 2008, 2010 and 2012, respondents were asked how often in the last four weeks they had felt “isolated from others”, while in 2014 the wording changed to ask how much of the time they had felt “lonely” in the last four weeks. The change in question means comparisons across time cannot be made.
- 65 No data on voluntary work was collected in the 2014 NZGSS.
- 66 Given changes to the scale in 2014, comparisons with previous New Zealand General Social Survey life satisfaction results cannot be made.
- 67 See Perry (2015a) and Appendix 3 for more information on household equivalence scales.
- 68 See Perry (2015b).
- 69 See Atkinson et al. (2014).
- 70 See Perry (2015b).