

An aerial photograph of a city in the Netherlands. In the foreground, there is a large solar farm with rows of blue solar panels. A road curves through the solar farm. To the right, a canal runs through a residential area with houses and boats. In the background, there are more buildings and a large body of water under a cloudy sky.

**Sustainability**

**Monitor**

**of the Netherlands**

**2014**

**Indicator report**



**Sustainability**

**Monitor**

**of the Netherlands**

**2014**

**Indicator report**

## Explanation of symbols

.	Data not available
*	Provisional figure
**	Revised provisional figure (but not definite)
x	Publication prohibited (confidential figure)
-	Nil
-	(Between two figures) inclusive
0	(0.0) Less than half of unit concerned
empty cell	Not applicable
2014-2015	2014 to 2015 inclusive
2014/2015	Average for 2014 to 2015 inclusive
2014/'15	Crop year, financial year, school year, etc., beginning in 2014 and ending in 2015
2012/'13-2014/'15	Crop year, financial year, etc., 2012/'13 to 2014/'15 inclusive

Due to rounding, some totals may not correspond to the sum of the separate figures.

### *Publisher*

Statistics Netherlands  
Henri Faasdreef 312, 2492 JP The Hague  
[www.cbs.nl](http://www.cbs.nl)

Prepress: Textcetera, The Hague, Studio BCO, The Hague  
Design: Edenspiekermann

### *Information*

Telephone +31 88 570 70 70, fax +31 70 337 59 94  
Via contact form: [www.cbs.nl/information](http://www.cbs.nl/information)

### *Where to order*

[verkoop@cbs.nl](mailto:verkoop@cbs.nl)  
Fax +31 45 570 62 68  
ISBN: 978-90-357-1707-7  
ISSN: 1871-9759

Statistics Netherlands bears final responsibility for editing this report. We would like to thank the Netherlands Bureau for Economic Policy Analysis, the Netherlands Environmental Assessment agency and the Netherlands Institute for Social Research for their valuable text suggestions.

© Statistics Netherlands, The Hague/Heerlen 2015.  
Reproduction is permitted, provided Statistics Netherlands is quoted as the source.

# Foreword

This third edition of the Sustainability Monitor of the Netherlands provides insights in the state of affairs of sustainability in the Netherlands. This Monitor is the result of cooperation between Statistics Netherlands, the Netherlands Bureau for Economic Policy Analysis, the Netherlands Environmental Assessment Agency and the Netherlands Institute for Social Research. This edition of the Monitor consists of two parts: a report on indicators for which Statistics Netherlands is responsible, and an exploration for which the other institutes are responsible (Dutch only).

The Indicator report before you presents the key data on sustainability within their context, and checks to what extent the choices we make as a society result in a quality of life that can be sustained long term and not at the expense of the poorest people in the world. This issue includes environmental aspects as well as social and economic aspects.

The set of indicators in this Monitor shows the sustainable developments of the Netherlands over time and in comparison with other European countries. The figures show that quality of life in the Netherlands is high, but that this is to some extent at the expense of future generations and natural resources, especially in developing countries.

The Dutch government first commissioned the Sustainability Monitor of the Netherlands seven years ago. Green growth is high on the sustainability agenda of the current government. This report has a separate chapter on green growth to meet the demands of this current policy focus. The Exploration section of the Sustainability Monitor of the Netherlands addresses the policy aspects of green growth. The energy innovation policy is the central theme of this exploration because innovation is seen as the key to green growth.

**T.B.P.M. Tjin-A-Tsoi**  
**Director General**  
**Statistics Netherlands**

The Hague/Heerlen, March 2015



# Contents

Foreword **3**

Summary **7**

## **1. Introduction 10**

1.1 The Sustainability Monitor of the Netherlands 2014 **11**

1.2 Conceptual framework **13**

1.3 Introduction of the set of indicators **18**

## **2. Sustainability – state of affairs 21**

2.1 Major findings **23**

2.2 Quality of life **26**

2.3 Resources **29**

2.4 The Netherlands in the world **34**

## **3. Developments per social domain 40**

3.1 Well-being **44**

3.2 Climate and Energy **46**

3.3 Local environmental quality **47**

3.4 Biodiversity and landscape **49**

3.5 Health **51**

3.6 Housing and living environment **53**

3.7 Mobility **54**

3.8 Security **56**

3.9 Social participation and trust **58**

3.10 Education and knowledge **60**

3.11 Material welfare and the economy **62**

3.12 Financial sustainability **64**

3.13 Trade, aid and raw materials **65**

3.14 Inequality **67**

<b>4.</b>	<b>Green growth</b>	<b>73</b>
4.1	Introduction	74
4.2	Key indicators of Dutch green growth policy	76
4.3	Environmental and resource efficiency indicators	78
4.4	Footprint indicators	82
4.5	Indicators for the environment and biodiversity	85
Annex 1	Green growth according to the OECD framework	90
<b>Annex</b>	<b>Methodological and Statistical Explanation</b>	<b>94</b>
A.1	The selection of themes, social domains and indicators	95
A.2	Determining colours and trends	99
A.3	Statistical motivation of the set of indicators	102
B	Results	132
	References	168
	Abbreviations	171
	Acknowledgements	173

# Summary

Over the last decades people have come to realise that society needs a new compass to guide it. There is the growing conviction that quality of life is about more than material issues. Sustainability is certainly not limited to environmental aspects alone. Economic and social aspects also form an essential part of sustainability. People have also started to question whether our quality of life is sustainable in the long run, also in view of its effects elsewhere in the world.

The Sustainability Monitor of the Netherlands provides a measuring system that can function as a new compass. It systematically shows the quality of life in the Netherlands in the "here and now" and its influence on vital resources. This not only involves natural resources but also and specifically economic, human and economic capital. Depleting these resources could hamper the quality of life of future generations. The Monitor also shows to what extent choices made in the Netherlands place a burden on other countries, especially developing countries.

The main conclusion of the Indicator report is that the quality of life in the Netherlands is high, but that the way in which the quality is achieved places a relatively great burden on vital resources and to a lesser extent on human capital. There are also indications that the environmental burden of the Netherlands on the rest of the world, and specifically on developing countries, is relatively large.

There are a number of notable changes in comparison to the 2011 Monitor. *Here and now:* Compared to the previous monitor, there are more worries in the economic domain due to the economic crisis. In recent surveys, the opinions about people's own financial situations as well as long-term unemployment show up as worrisome issues. Moreover, citizens indicated that they feel less safe than in the previous surveys. Apart from these worsening situations that primarily affect the individual, there are improvements in the quality of the natural and social environment. Some progress has recently been made in the urban exposure to particulate matter and in the general trust people have in others, even if they do not know them personally.

*Later:* Natural capital is still under pressure, just like it was in 2011. The worries for the future continue to be just as great as before when it comes to climate & energy and biodiversity. The quality of ecosystems and of the atmosphere are after all of the utmost importance for the quality of life of future generations. The levels of human capital are comparable to the levels reported in the previous monitor. We see that the Netherlands does not perform as well as other EU countries in this

respect. In the most recent survey, the Netherlands has a relatively low score in the EU-28 ranking on working hours and education level. Keeping up the knowledge potential is very important for maintaining the competitive strength of the Dutch economy, especially given the low number of working hours, so that the quality of life can be secured in the long run. The greatest improvements were found in the domain of social capital. Generalised trust has increased in the Netherlands, as we mentioned earlier. Despite the economic and financial crisis in recent years, the trends in economic capital – that is physical capital, knowledge capital and the net financial position compared to the rest of the world – continues to be favourable. There is no actual depletion of resources in this domain.

*Elsewhere:* The picture emerging from the comparison of the most recent figures with those of 2011 is quite mixed. In relative terms, the Netherlands places a rather large environmental burden on the rest of the world, particularly on developing countries. This is shown primarily by the figures on the trade in emissions and mineral imports. However, the scores for development aid and financial transfers of the Netherlands to developing countries are positive, ranking the Netherlands among the European Union top.

The indicator report also links the current government objectives, that is the green growth strategy, as formulated by the current government. Therefore this report ends with a chapter on green growth.

Many of the green growth indicators are also part of the set of indicators for sustainable development. Furthermore, the green growth chapter also includes indicators that provide insight in the decoupling of economic growth and environmental damage. These are indicators selected by policymakers to monitor the green growth policy of the current government. This set of indicators is more limited than the one Statistics Netherlands usually uses in its *Green Growth* publications. In chapter 4 we compare the policy indicators with the indicators Statistics Netherlands usually uses within the internationally agreed OECD framework. This wider set of indicators provides a less favourable picture of green growth than the smaller set of policy indicators does.

The main findings about green growth are:

- The economic activities in the Netherlands cause less and less damage to the environment of the Netherlands. Greenhouse gas emissions, emissions of heavy metals into water, and the total production of waste have diminished since 2001 whereas the economy grew. This is mainly due to the improvements in the environmental efficiency of production processes. The recent slowdown in industrial production has also led to less waste, emissions and pollution. Compared to other EU countries, the Netherlands ranks in the middle as far as environmental efficiency is concerned.

- As a result of the crisis, greenhouse gas emissions have been cut in the absolute sense since 2008, but the crisis also has a negative effect on the environmental efficiency of the production processes. In other words, the amount of greenhouse gas emissions per euro of value added (the greenhouse gas intensity) has stabilised.
- Despite its lower emissions, the Netherlands has a low ranking within the EU when it comes to environmental quality and natural resources. The quality of Dutch surface water is the worst in the EU and every year green areas are turned into built-up areas. The reduction in urban exposure to particulate matter and the slight recovery of biodiversity are positives.

The chapter on green growth shows where developments can and cannot be considered positive. It is important to remember that even where developments are positive, this does not necessarily mean that long-term policy aims will be realised.

The exploration written by the Netherlands Bureau for Economic Policy Analysis, the Netherlands Environmental Assessment Agency and the Netherlands Institute for Social Research focuses on one domain in green growth, namely energy supply. The exploration shows what the challenges are for the government in shaping its energy-innovation policy for a more long-term CO<sub>2</sub> neutral energy supply.

**1.**

# Introduction

**There is a growing need for adequate information about the prosperity and well-being of the Netherlands in general and about its sustainability. Sustainable development deals with the matter of whether or not we can maintain well-being, defined as quality of life, in the future. Sustainability is high on the national and international agendas of policymakers. This introductory chapter describes the political context and the ways in which the wide-ranging complex notion of sustainability has been operationalized and can be measured. The central issue is how quality of life in the 'here and now' can be shaped in such a way that the quality of life 'elsewhere or later' is not compromised. After all, the prospects for the quality of life of future generations mainly depend on how society currently deals with its resources. If Dutch society increases its quality of life by depleting the available resources too much, it will compromise the quality of life of future generations. Furthermore, pursuing a higher quality of life in the Netherlands may negatively affect the quality of life of people elsewhere by depleting their natural resources.**

## **1.1 The Sustainability Monitor of the Netherlands 2014**

The pursuit of sustainable development focuses on the quality of life in the 'here and now' and 'elsewhere' and later'. This pursuit results in a series of difficult issues that policymakers, politicians and society must resolve. Not only because global scarcity requires compromises with regard to different goals, but also because there is not enough knowledge about the impact of our actions 'elsewhere' and 'later'. This lack of knowledge was the main reason why the 2007 Dutch government asked Statistics Netherlands, the Netherlands Bureau for Economic Policy Analysis, the Netherlands Environmental Assessment Agency and the Netherlands Institute for Social Research to publish a Sustainability Monitor of the Netherlands. The monitor was to outline whether or not there were sustainable developments in the Netherlands, and to what extent. Since then there have been two editions of the Sustainability Monitor of the Netherlands, one in 2009 and one in 2011.

In contrast with the previous editions, the current Sustainability Monitor of the Netherlands is presented in two parts. A report on indicators describing the current state of affairs in sustainability, for which Statistics Netherlands is responsible. And, parallel to this, an exploration of ways to resolve sustainability issues, for which the other institutes are responsible. The central issue is the role innovations can

play in greening the economy. This is geared toward the green growth strategy formulated by the current government.

To harmonise the Indicator report and the exploration, we have included a separate chapter on green growth in the Indicator report. Of course sustainable development and green growth are not identical concepts, but they are closely related (see box on greening the economy). The green growth indicators were selected by policymakers to monitor Dutch green growth policy. The picture provided by this set of indicators is compared with the outcomes of the *Green Growth* studies published regularly by Statistics Netherlands, which use a broader set of indicators.

However, the Sustainability Monitor of the Netherlands is not only relevant for policies in the Netherlands. During the most recent summit on sustainable development (the Rio+20 conference) the decision was made to formulate worldwide Sustainable Development Goals within the Post-2015 agenda framework. During the Rio+20 conference the importance of an international harmonised database of sustainability indicators was underlined. It is not terribly useful to formulate targets for sustainability if there is no way to verify to what extent countries follow a path that will actually lead to meeting these targets.

The *CES Recommendations on Measuring Sustainable Development* play a major role within these UN discussions about indicators. In 2009 CES (Conference of European Statisticians) initiated a task force of UNECE (United Nations Economic Commission for Europe), Eurostat (the European Statistical Bureau) and the OECD (Organisation for Economic Development and Cooperation). Statistics Netherlands headed this task force. The measuring system recommended in the CES Recommendations is identical to the indicator system used in the Sustainability Monitor of the Netherlands. Currently the *CES Recommendations*<sup>1)</sup> have been accepted by about 60 countries, and many national statistical institutes are busy implementing the recommendations, including the OECD.

<sup>1)</sup> CES Recommendations can be downloaded at: <http://www.unece.org/stats/sustainable-development.html>.

## 1.2 Conceptual framework

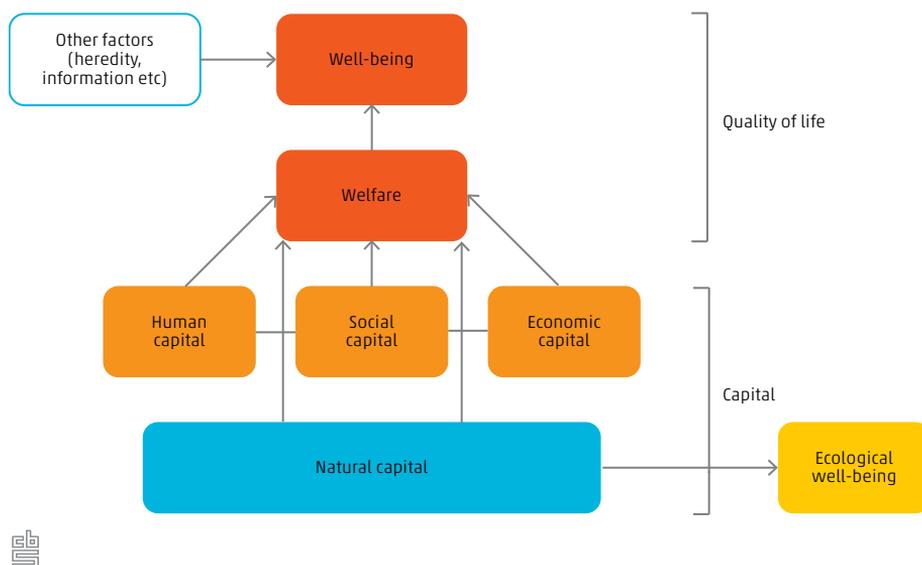
The sustainability concept originated in ecology: sustainable fishing or logging means that people do not take more fish or wood than can replenish naturally. Observing this usage of the environment means that future generations can continue to make use of nature and the environment. The 1987 report *Our Common Future* of the Brundtland Commission linked poverty and development issues (WCED, 1987). This report recognises that poverty is a practical obstacle to the sustainable use of the physical environment and that integrating the conservation of nature and economic development are necessary for sustainable development. This caused the shift from the purely ecologically inspired concept of sustainability to the more socially and economically inspired concept of sustainable development. The concepts of sustainable development and well-being in the broadest sense are similar to some extent, albeit that sustainable development emphasises the sustainability of current activities and trends, and the problems that may occur later. This monitor uses a definition that is based on the Brundtland Commission.

*Sustainable development is the development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations, both here and in other parts of the world, to meet their own needs.*

So sustainable development mainly deals with the question of whether our quality of life in the here and now does not place too great a burden on the ability to provide a sufficient quality of life for people elsewhere in the world or for future generations. The quality of life discussion and its changes over time starts with the model in 1.2.1.

Societies have a number of resources available with which they can generate prosperity and well-being: economic capital (machinery and buildings), human capital (labour, education and health), natural capital (natural resources, biodiversity and climate) and social capital (social networks and trust). These resources are necessary to maintain the quality of life of the population. Natural capital is a particular type of resource because it is a critical form of capital. People could not survive without natural capital.

## 1.2.1 Quality of life in relation to capital



### Key concepts

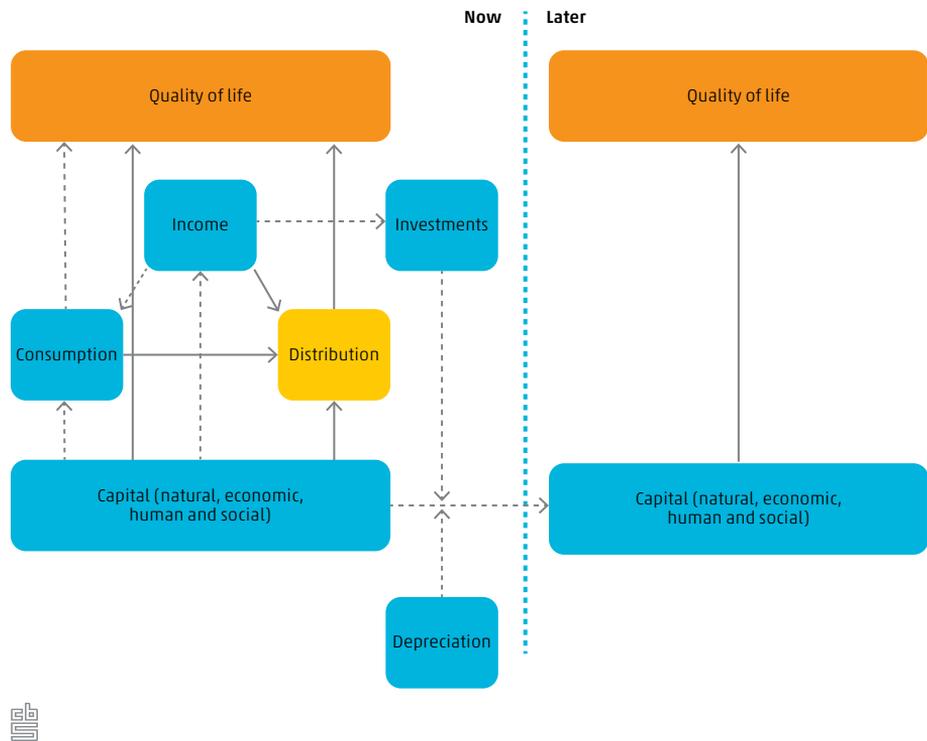
**Quality of life:** A combination of welfare and well-being.

**Well-being:** A standard of quality of life indicating how people perceive the quality of their existence. Their perception is influenced by scarce means and means that are not scarce, and by psychological and social factors.

**Welfare:** A standard of satisfying needs in so far as this requires scarce and alternative means. Economists sometimes use the term welfare in the broadest sense to indicate that this kind of welfare is not just based on market-related activities but also on non-market activities.

**Sustainable development:** A development that meets the needs of the present generation without compromising the development potential of future generations or people in other parts of the world.

## 1.2.2 The intertemporal dimension of quality of life and the underlying casual relations



1.2.2 shows that the quality of life of future generations will be determined by the capital that will be available for them. The figure also shows one of the main trade-offs mentioned in the Brundtland definition of sustainable development, that is the extent to which the current generation in its the pursuit of welfare compromises the development potential of future generations. In the context of 1.2.2 this means that the quality of life of future generations must be secured by making sure that they will have enough resources available, while the current generation can also maintain its quality of life. Societies can ensure intergenerational sustainability by investing in each type of capital and by using each more efficiently. How much remains of each kind of capital for future generations depends on their increases (investments) and decreases (consumption and depreciation).

The intergenerational perspective is of course very important within the sustainability debate. The central issue is if we, as the current generation, leave enough resources, that is capital, for future generations. The share of income that is not used for consumption is used to invest in ways to make future consumption possible. In essence this is about delayed consumption. Changes in the stocks of resources (the total volume of capital available to us) are determined by the gross investments in physical, natural, human and social capital, minus depreciation and depletion of these resources. As Stiglitz et al. (2009) correctly emphasized, the value of our stocks of resources also changes by revaluations, such as a dip in house prices during a recession or a revaluation of the shares owned by pension funds.

Implementing sustainable development within this conceptual framework requires insight in the needs and available means in the 'here and now' as well as those 'elsewhere' and 'later'. This is not without its problems.

First of all, it is not easy to determine what the conditions are that meet the needs of the present generation. Those needs are great and according to some people insatiable. A key question is to what extent which needs can be met in a finite world 'without compromising the ability of future generations both here and in other parts of the world, to meet their own needs'. Brundtland's definition of sustainable development offers room for trade-offs of the various kinds of capital people have at their disposal and which can lead to different types of satisfying needs, including the long-term need to leave future generations with enough resources. Needless to say the room for trade-offs is not endless. Within the Brundtland approach to sustainable development, turning nature in agricultural land is not by definition an unsustainable act. This is because human life on any scale would hardly be possible without agriculture, or there would only be a very low level of meeting people's needs. So clearly the precise balance between nature and agriculture in a world that could be called sustainable cannot be determined objectively.

Secondly – and closely related to the first point – there is uncertainty about future developments, including uncertainty about the needs of future generations. The size of the world population and technological progress are factors that determine to what extent the needs of future generations can be met. Statements about the development of these determinants tend to be highly speculative. This and other uncertainties about future developments partly explain the huge differences in opinion about the long-term sustainability perspectives for humanity.

How we operationalize sustainable development based on the definition by Brundtland therefore includes serious aspects of uncertainty. Because of differences in preferences and ideas about future developments, there is more than one world conceivable on which one might bestow the 'sustainability' label.

In general it is necessary to understand the targets, underpinned by critical values, in order to demonstrate if trends develop in a sustainable direction at sufficient speed. In practice these critical values are hard to determine. Some processes may be irreversible, such as the extinction of species or the destruction of historical countryside but this irreversibility does not necessarily mean that the society as a whole becomes unsustainable. Key questions are: How many species can we humans afford to lose? How much inequality breaks down society? Or: At what budget deficit do people entirely lose faith in the financial position of a country? These cannot be answered with any degree of certainty.

Sustainable development is a search in time and place – given uncertainties and costs – in order to determine how prudent a society must act in order counterbalance undesirable effects. One example is the EU aim to limit the consequences of climate change through the two degree target.

---

## Greening of the economy

**Greening of the economy (green growth) is a necessary condition for sustainable development. Essential in green growth is the combination of economic growth and the reduction of the burden on natural resources. This means that negative environmental trends will be reversed and the use of non-renewable raw materials is decreased but not at the expense of current welfare. Although greening covers many aspects so that it is a broad concept, it should not be seen as an alternative to sustainable development. Greening is a major means to realise sustainable development.**

**Since the start of the financial crisis, the greening concept has become very popular internationally. The UN has its green economy initiative (UNEP, 2011) and the green economy has received special attention during the UN conference of 2012 about Rio after 20 years. The OECD has developed a green growth strategy (OECD, 2011a) as a reaction to the crisis. Essential in both approaches is the efficient use of fossil energy and raw materials by replacing them by renewable alternatives. Innovation and putting a price on natural resources are important instruments in greening the economy. The different institutions emphasize the importance of using a broad mix of policy instruments in which putting a price on pollution and market interventions (prohibition) can be applied.**

Using natural resources more efficiently and making greater use of sustainable alternatives is one of the 'flagship projects' of the EU, that has to contribute to the realisation of the European Strategy for 2020 (EC, 2011). The big challenge is to use less fossil energy and non-renewable raw materials per unit of labour to gain more value added and contribute to prosperity in doing so. Greening of the economy not only provides opportunities for the green sectors, such as renewable energy, but also for sectors that use a relatively great deal of energy and raw materials, such as manufacturing, agriculture and construction. Chapter 4 of this monitor deals with the state of affairs of the Netherlands in terms of green growth.

---

## 1.3 Introduction of the set of indicators

The set of indicators consists of three individual dashboards that show the most fundamental aspects of the sustainable development concept. These are:

1. quality of life here and now;
2. resources, which sketches the opportunities for future generations to shape their quality of life and;
3. the Netherlands in the world, showing the influence of the Dutch pursuit of well-being on the rest of the world.

These three dashboards address the key issues of the Brundtland definition (needs here and now of the present generation, are there enough resources to continue to meet the needs and how about the distribution?) and also do justice to the recommendations that were made in the study of Stiglitz-Sen-Fitoussi (Stiglitz et al., 2009), as well as the SER advice on sustainable development (SER, 2010). It was first determined which themes had to be addressed by each of the three dashboards. Next we looked into the indicators that would best describe these themes.

### 1.3.1 The three dashboards and the corresponding themes

Quality of life (here and now)	Resources (later)	Netherlands in the world (elsewhere)
<b>Well-being and material welfare</b> well-being material welfare	<b>Natural capital</b> land natural environment climate energy soil quality water quality air quality	<b>Environment and natural resources</b> energy raw materials climate
<b>Personal characteristics</b> health housing education leisure mobility livelihood pensions	<b>Human capital</b> labour health education	<b>Trade and aid</b> aid trade
<b>Living conditions</b> safety inequality social participation and trust institutions natural environment air quality	<b>Social capital</b> social participation and trust institutions	
	<b>Economic capital</b> physical capital knowledge debt	

*Quality of life:* The quality of life of the current generation is a very broad concept. Each generation defines for itself which goals it needs to pursue and deems relevant for its quality of life, based on the prevalent preferences.

The large amount of literature on the subject provides suggestions for making a checklist of issues that are generally considered important or crucial for the quality of life. In the choice of themes in the monitor we used scientific literature and national and international datasets on the quality of life. There is a distinction in the theme selection between themes referring to the individual (such as health, education, housing, leisure and social security) and themes referring to environmental aspects (such as nature, air quality, security, social participation and trust).

The selection of the indicators is mainly inspired by the availability of high quality data. It is essential that the series for the Netherlands are available from the year 2000 onwards, so that we can gain some insight in the changes in various aspects of the quality of life in the last decade. It is the only way in which we can demonstrate how the quality of life has increased or decreased, to what extent

capital has been depleted and how much burden the Netherlands places on resources elsewhere in the world. We also always selected indicators that make comparisons with other countries of the European Union possible. If possible we give objective and subjective scores on the indicators. An objective score on an indicator shows the changes that can be observed by an outsider. A subjective score gives information about the way in which citizens perceive a situation or change.

*Resources:* As far as the well-being of the future generations is concerned we followed the same method as in the first monitor. Here too we give an outline of the intergenerational aspect of sustainable development on the basis of the capital approach. The theme selection and the indicators are fairly straightforward, especially because we can build on a rich flow of literature on capital theory. And even more important, there are already official statistical standards available or being developed for several types of capital.

The literature on capital distinguishes between economic, human, natural and social capital. For the best indicators for economic and natural capital we refer to the statistical standards of the System of National Accounts and the System of Economic and Environmental Accounts. There are no official statistics yet for human and social capital, but we followed the results of the *CES Recommendations* mentioned earlier.

*The Netherlands in the world:* The Netherlands in the world dashboard shows the relationship between the pursuit of quality of life in the Netherlands and the effects this has on the rest of the world. The internationalisation topic is an essential part of the sustainability debate – also because of its central position in the Brundtland report – but in practice this issue is barely dealt with in sustainability reports. This dashboard does not just pay attention to the environmental pressure of the Netherlands on the rest of the world. Imports of natural resources from the rest of the world constitute a pillar of the Dutch economy. Following the example of the Brundtland report, the emphasis is on the relationship with the poorest countries in the world. In order to get a more balanced picture of that relationship we also mapped the financial flows from the Netherlands to developing countries.

2.

**Sustainability –**

**state of affairs**

**This chapter deals with the extent to which developments in the Netherlands are sustainable. We distinguish three central aspects of the Brundtland definition of sustainable development:**

- 1. sufficient quality of life that;**
- 2. does not compromise the ability of future generations to meet their needs; and**
- 3. also does not negatively affect the quality of life in other countries (particularly developing countries) on balance.**

**This chapter is limited to a description of the main issues in these developments. In chapter 3 we discuss the developments in more detail by policy theme.**

Section 2.1 outlines the major findings: in what areas does the Netherlands move fast in a sustainable direction, and in what areas is the Netherlands becoming less sustainable and where does sustainability remain a far cry. We then address the various sustainability dimensions in separate sections, that is quality of life 'here and now' and 'later' and 'elsewhere'.

In section 2.2 we present the developments of the quality of life from the year 2000 to the present situation. Here a number of indicators are highlighted that say something about the various aspects of our quality of life, such as education and health. We address objective developments as well as the perceptions people have about their quality of life.

In section 2.3 we look into the issue of whether current well-being in the Netherlands does not compromise the well-being of future generations too much. This question is answered by exploring how the volume of per capita capital has developed since the start of the century. This deals with natural, human, social and economic capital. The pursuit of sustainability in this context means that we should not deplete the resources, so that future generations can meet their needs in terms of well-being and prosperity. Efficiency gains and substitutes that new technologies make available largely determine the question of whether a resource is depleted too much. Maintaining and improving knowledge contributes to sustainable development.

Section 2.4 is devoted to the third aspect of the sustainability issue: the degree to which the pursuit of well-being in one's own country compromises that pursuit in other countries. The central issue is the burden on natural resources elsewhere in the world. This includes addressing cross boundary environmental problems such as climate change.

## 2.1 Major findings<sup>1)</sup>

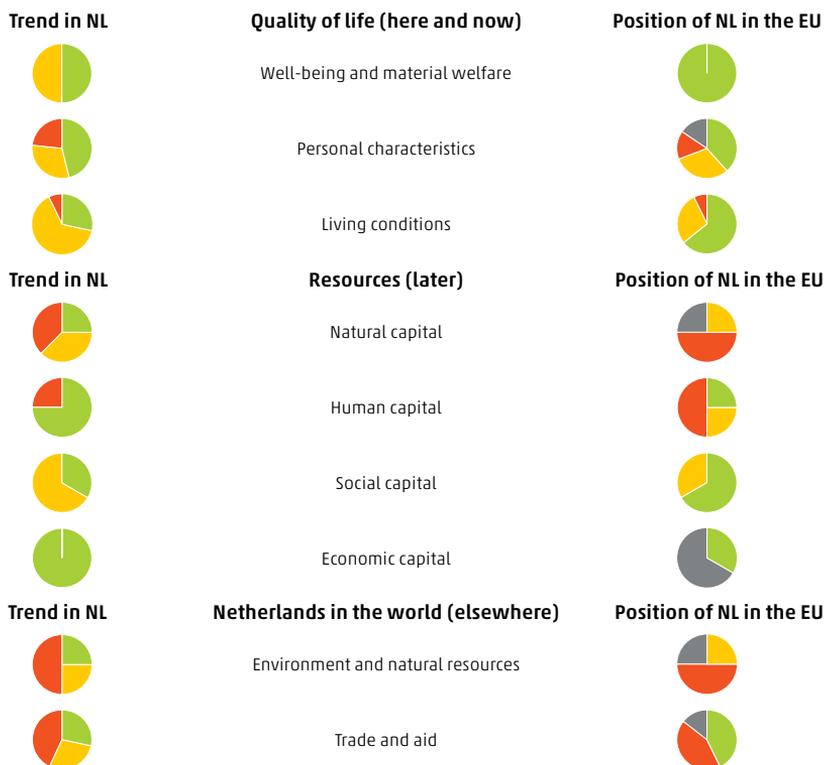
To understand the extent of sustainable development we look at the current quality of life, as well as the resources available for future generations and the consequences of our pursuit of well-being on other parts of the world. Figure 2.1.1 shows the scores on the indicators for the themes in the three sustainability aspects. Each aspect has its own breakdown into main themes. Column 1 shows circle diagrams for each theme showing which aspects of the indicators have been developing primarily in a positive direction (green) or neutrally (yellow) or negatively (red) since 2000. 'Positive' means that sustainability has increased significantly since 2000.

The third column compares the Dutch scores with those of the other 27 member states of the European Union. This way we can determine quickly how the Netherlands is ranked within the EU. Green indicates that the Netherlands ranks among the top nine EU member states, red means that the Netherlands ranks among the bottom nine EU member states, and yellow that the Netherlands is somewhere in between.<sup>2)</sup> The grey area shows that there are no international data available. The scores in 2.1.1 can be used to check in general how our quality of life 'here and now' is developing and if it comes at the expense of future generations ('later'), or other countries ('elsewhere'). The scores for 2014 are compared to the outcomes reported in the Sustainability Monitor of the Netherlands of 2011.

<sup>1)</sup> There has recently been a major revision of the national accounts figures (SNA 2010). We have used the revised figures in our time series. Unfortunately we had to use the unrevised figures for the EU-28 comparison, simply because many European countries have not yet revised their figures. In the next update we will use the revised figures in the EU comparison.

<sup>2)</sup> If there are no data available for all 28 EU countries we rank the top, middle and bottom 1/3 of the countries for which there is data available. In general we determine the trends 'green', 'red' or 'yellow' on the basis of annual series. These can be found in Annex Table B1. The Annex also includes an explanation of the methodology used to determine if the trends move significantly upwards or downwards. In some cases, mainly involving indicators in the social domain, we only have some point estimates available. In those cases we could not formally calculate the trend.

## 2.1.1 Indicator scores for the themes in the three sustainability aspects



- Trend with a negative effect on sustainability, or low international position
- Neutral or unknown effect of trend on sustainability, or medium/constant international position
- Trend with a positive effect on sustainability, or high international position
- No data available for international comparison



Note: Each circle diagram includes several indicators (see chapter 2 and Annex A). The number of indicators is not the same for all circles. Each indicator is assigned a colour: red, yellow, green or grey (see legend). The colours do not show how large the differences between countries are.

### Here and now

The Dutch quality of life is very high by European standards. It has been stable since 2000 and in terms of material welfare it has even increased a bit. Dutch people perceive the quality aspects involving themselves, such as their health and education level, as positive.

Our comparison with the 2011 sustainability study reveals that the number of indicators on personal characteristics that shifted to 'green' has increased by

one. On the other hand there were two indicators of the economic situation of individuals that shifted to 'red'. So the percentage of indicators showing a negative score from a sustainability perspective increased from 8 percent to 23 percent in the period 2011–2014.

There have also been shifts in environmental characteristics over the last three years. The number of indicators ranked green actually increased from 7 to 29 percent. The only significant deterioration within the domain concerns how safe citizens feel. The previous monitor did not yet show a clear trend over the period from 2000 onwards, but now the trend is clearly negative. People have started to feel a lot less safe over the years. The Netherlands now scores significantly higher on environmental characteristics in the European ranking. While the Netherlands had three indicators that scored in the bottom third in 2011, this is currently just one (the size of nature areas in the Netherlands).

## Later

There are indications that the quality of life here and now is created in such a way that it will make it difficult for future generations to generate welfare. Slightly less than 40 percent of the indicators for natural resources are red, for human capital this is a quarter. This shows that the stock of resources is no longer increasing or is actually decreasing in many cases. There are hardly any changes in social capital, which is considered to be at a high level. Only in the economic domain do the capital indicators show a completely positive trend. Here we must consider that the aging of the population poses a challenge. The credit crisis has put the brakes on economic growth and led to a sharp rise in government debt.

A comparison with the 2011 monitor results shows that in the category natural capital there are not only positive developments in the quality of the soil, but there is also a positive trend for air quality from the year 2000 onwards. There have hardly been changes in the trends regarding human capital since 2000, but whereas the Netherlands only had one of the lowest scores in the EU for the number of working hours per person in 2011, the Dutch education level is now also among the lowest scoring of the EU countries. There is an improvement in the social capital situation. Whereas not a single indicator was green in 2011 'generalised trust' turned out to be higher in 2012 than in 2002. Also the problem regarding perceived discrimination, on which the Netherlands scored rather low within the EU in 2011, has improved quite a bit. The Netherlands now has a score somewhere in the middle of the EU-28. The situation for economic capital has

hardly changed. There are no major shifts, either in the developments over time or in the EU ranking.

## Elsewhere

Compared to other EU countries, the Netherlands lays quite a great claim on the natural resources elsewhere in the world, especially in developing countries. This has even increased in recent decades, as we may conclude from the growing imports of biomass and raw materials. Meeting material needs in the Netherlands has negative side effects, such as the loss of biodiversity worldwide and increased emissions including greenhouse gas emissions. On the other hand, the proceeds of the exports may lead to increased welfare in the exporting countries. The Netherlands also spends a great deal of money on development cooperation.

A very mixed picture emerged when we compared the 2011 and the 2014 scores on the 'elsewhere' dimension. There is a deterioration in the trend from 2000 onwards. There was a negative trend in the 2011 emission balance, but now mineral imports are also coloured red. However, from a European perspective the Dutch performance has improved. While the Netherlands stood very low in the 2011 EU ranking for energy, mineral and biomass imports, the situation had improved somewhat by 2013. The scores on 'trade and aid' were stable between 2011 and 2013. We do have to say that the carbon footprint, that is the amount of greenhouse gas emissions abroad during the production of goods that are ultimately imported by the Netherlands, shows a negative score. Especially the amounts of carbon dioxide and methane emissions abroad on behalf of Dutch consumption have increased in recent years.

## 2.2 Quality of life

The first pillar supporting the sustainability concept is the quality of life here and now. But what exactly determines quality of life?

### Material welfare and well-being as key indicators

In the Sustainability Monitor of the Netherlands material welfare and well-being are the key indicators for measuring the quality of life here and now.

In the standard economic analyses the gross domestic product is often used as the standard for measuring material welfare. In this monitor we use consumer spending as the indicator for material welfare. The monitor uses the self-reported satisfaction of inhabitants about their lives as the indicator for well-being. It is interesting to study how the developments of material welfare and well-being are related.

## Quality of life: high and stable

The dashboard for quality of life (see 2.2.1 Dashboard 1) opens with material welfare and satisfaction of inhabitants about their lives. Compared to other European countries material welfare is at a high level and quality of life is perceived as good. Moreover the scores of many indicators are stable. Dutch people have their affairs in order in quite a few social areas, not just objectively speaking but also according to the way they perceive and experience it.

Compared to the sustainability observations of 2011 it turns out that commuting is still a problem. Travelling time has increased substantially since 2000. But two categories that were rated sufficient to good in 2011 are now rated negatively, and these are people's 'own financial situation' and 'long-term unemployment'. It is hardly surprising that these two indicators, which come under the theme 'social security' are coloured red during this recession. Also striking is that the high scores in quality of life observed in 2011 are now far less dominant. In the current study some 38 percent of the Dutch indicators are within the top of the EU-28 ranking whereas in 2011 nearly two thirds of the indicators did.

## Personal versus environmental characteristics

When we looked closely at the scores we noticed several things. The scores in trends for personal characteristics have been positive since 2000. We saw an increase in the quality of life in 46 percent of the indicators for personal characteristics and just 29 percent of the indicators in environmental characteristics. However, there has been a significant improvement in environmental characteristics. Whereas just one indicator had a green score in 2011, namely the differences in income between men and women, we now also register positive developments from a sustainability perspective in the areas of crime victims, generalised trust, and urban exposure to particulate matter, compared to 2000.

The differences are less visible in the European rankings. The Netherlands ranks within the top segment of the EU-28 in 5 of the available indicators on personal characteristics; the same is true for 9 of the 14 indicators on environmental characteristics.

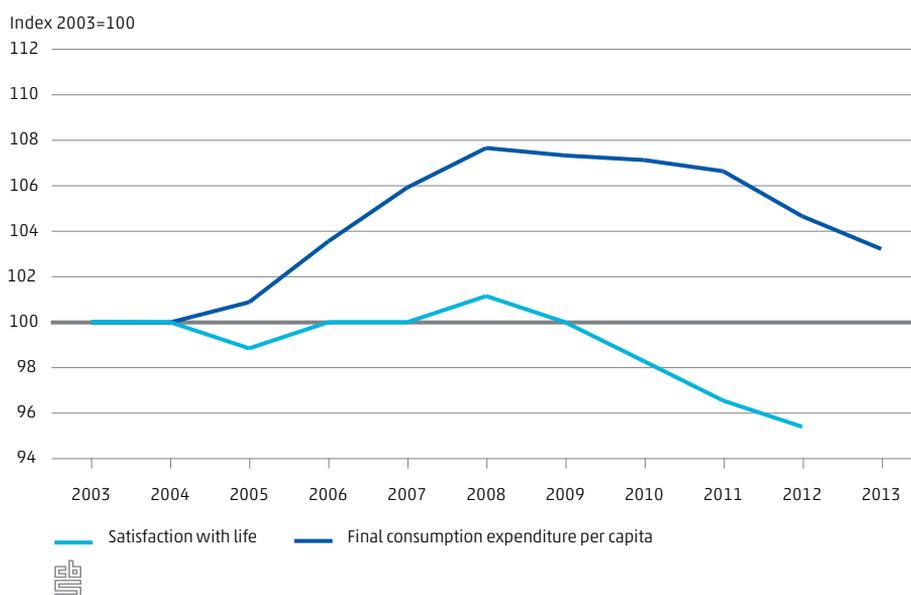
## 2.2.1 Dashboard 1 Quality of life

Theme	Indicator	Trend since 2000	Position of the Netherlands in relation to the EU
<b>Well-being and material welfare</b>			
Well-being	Satisfaction with life	yellow	green
Material welfare	Final consumption expenditure	green	green
<b>Personal characteristics</b>			
Health	Perceived health	yellow	green
	Healthy life expectancy	green	yellow
Housing	Satisfaction with housing	green	green
	Quality of housing	yellow	yellow
Education	Satisfaction with own education	green	yellow
	Education level	green	red
Leisure	Satisfaction with leisure	green	green
	Leisure time	green	grey
Mobility	Traffic jams are a personal problem	yellow	grey
	Commuting time	red	red
Livelihood	Satisfaction with own financial situation	red	yellow
	Long-term unemployment	red	green
Pensions	Pension reserves	yellow	green
<b>Living conditions</b>			
Physical safety	Not feeling safe	red	green
	Reported crime	green	yellow
Inequality	Satisfaction with income inequality	yellow	green
	Income inequality	yellow	green
	Income inequality men/women	green	yellow
Social participation and trust	Generalised trust	green	green
	Feelings of discrimination	yellow	yellow
	Contact with friends, family and colleagues	yellow	green
	Volunteer work	yellow	green
Institutions	Trust in institutions	yellow	green
	Voter turnout	yellow	green
Natural environment	Satisfaction with green areas	yellow	green
	Nature reserves	yellow	red
Air quality	Urban exposure to particulate matter	green	yellow

- trend with a negative effect on sustainability, or low international ranking
- neutral or unknown effect of trend on sustainability, or medium/constant international position
- trend with a positive effect on sustainability, or high international position
- no data available for international comparison

Graph 2.2.2 shows a slight increase in per capita consumption between 2003 and 2013 and a dip in the figures about satisfaction, especially since 2008. This confirms the idea that the extent to which people are satisfied is not directly linked to their level of consumption. Even though consumer spending is a key component in the way people experience well-being, there are clearly other factors at work that determine the subjective well-being of the population.

### 2.2.2 Satisfaction with life and final consumption expenditure



## 2.3 Resources

One crucial aspect in the sustainability debate is the inter-generational perspective. The central issue is whether or not the current generation will leave enough resources for future generations for them to generate a sufficient quality of life as well. These resources are defined in terms of capital. Originally the notion of 'capital' was interpreted in a strictly economic sense, and was limited to such things as machinery and equipment, infrastructure and buildings. This has gradually been extended to include human capital (quality of labour in terms of degree of education and health), natural capital (stocks of raw materials, ecosystems) and even more recently social capital (the quality of social cohesion). Developments of these four types of capital are essential for the prospects for future generations

to acquire prosperity and welfare. An overview of this is provided by 2.3.1 Dashboard 2.

### 2.3.1 Dashboard 2 Resources

Theme	Indicator	Trend since 2000	Position of the Netherlands in the EU
<b>Natural capital</b>			
Land	Population density	red	red
Natural environment	Biodiversity	yellow	grey
	Biodiversity footprint	yellow	grey
Climate	Historical CO <sub>2</sub> emissions	red	red
Energy	Energy reserves	red	yellow
Soil quality	Phosphorus surplus soil	green	red
Water quality	Quality of surface water	yellow	red
Air quality	Urban exposure to particulate matter	green	yellow
<b>Human capital</b>			
Labour	Labour force	green	green
	Hours worked	red	red
Health	Healthy life expectancy	green	yellow
Education	Educational level	green	red
<b>Social capital</b>			
Social participation	Generalised trust	green	green
Institutions	Feelings of discrimination	yellow	yellow
	Trust in institutions	yellow	green
<b>Economic capital</b>			
Physical capital	Capital stock	green	grey
Knowledge	R&D capital stock	green	grey
	Net financial position NL vs. other EU countries	green	green
Debt			

<span style="display:inline-block; width:15px; height:15px; background-color:orange; border:1px solid black;"></span>	trend with a negative effect on sustainability, or low international ranking
<span style="display:inline-block; width:15px; height:15px; background-color:yellow; border:1px solid black;"></span>	neutral or unknown effect of trend on sustainability, or medium/constant international position
<span style="display:inline-block; width:15px; height:15px; background-color:lightgreen; border:1px solid black;"></span>	trend with a positive effect on sustainability, or high international position
<span style="display:inline-block; width:15px; height:15px; background-color:grey; border:1px solid black;"></span>	no data available for international comparison

### Natural capital: great population density exerts pressure on the environment

Of the four types of capital, the Netherlands is in the worst shape with regards to the conservation of natural capital. Because the Netherlands is one of the most densely populated countries in the world, with a relatively high level of prosperity and relatively much livestock, cars and heavy industry, the natural resources have been significantly depleted over the years.

People have already taken up much of the land for agriculture, housing, working and infrastructure. The need for space is still increasing because of the growing population and economic expansion. This need for space exerts more pressure on the nature area and biodiversity in the Netherlands. Already 84 percent of the original biodiversity, the diversity in species ecosystems and genes in the Netherlands have been lost. The loss in biodiversity has slowed down in recent years and it is now starting to show signs of improvement.

The trends for energy and climate are mainly negative. The natural gas reserves of the Netherlands will be depleted within two decades if the current rate of exploitation continues. The share of sustainable energy in the Netherlands has been increasing fast in recent years, but it is still low compared to other European countries. Moreover Dutch CO<sub>2</sub> emissions are also high compared to other European countries. This can be explained in part by the energy-intensive structure of the Dutch economy. Dutch manufacturing is quite energy efficient compared to the European competition. The economic downturn since 2008 has certainly played its role. The downward trend in greenhouse gas emissions since 2000 is also a positive development. The indicator 'historic CO<sub>2</sub> emissions' is of course red. These figures show the total volume of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions since the start of the first industrial revolution in the Netherlands in the mid-nineteenth century. This indicator demonstrates the damage caused to the atmosphere by the process of economic growth.

We see positive trends for soil, water and air quality when we look at developments between 2000 and 2012/3. The environmental burden has been alleviated substantially for most environmental problems, improving the quality of soil, water and air. Still, despite these improvements, the quality of soil and water in the Netherlands cannot be considered good by European standards. The great population density of the Netherlands and the intensive use of the environment by agriculture, manufacturing and traffic makes that this situation is not easily remedied. Compared to the results of the Sustainability Monitor of the Netherlands 2011 we see that only the quality of the soil has improved over the years since 2000. We also observed a positive development for urban exposure to particulate matter in the 2014 figures.

## **Human capital: high participation rate, few working hours**

The developments in human capital have predominantly been positive since 2000. Only the number of hours worked and the quality of education were under

pressure in 2013. This may have a negative effect on material welfare in the long run. On the other hand, Dutch people generally have more leisure (see 2.2.1 Dashboard 1).

Life expectancy at birth has increased by 13 percent for men and by 14.4 percent for women since 1950. Life expectancy for Dutch men is one of the highest in the European Union; Dutch men live about two years longer than the average in the EU-28. On average, women in the Netherlands live a few years longer than men. However, the life expectancy for Dutch women does not exceed the EU average. Dutch people have a healthy life expectancy of 64 years.

Comparatively speaking Dutch people work few hours. The average working hours of the employed workforce fell from 31.8 hours a week in 2000 to 30.0 in 2013. The main reasons for this are the low number of working hours per full-time job and the high ratio of part-time jobs. There is no other country where so many people work part-time as in the Netherlands. The high participation rate in the labour process makes up for the reduced working hours. Nowhere is the division of work outside the home divided more equally across the population and between the sexes as in the Netherlands. This raises the *per capita* number of hours worked to the EU average. This number has been at the same level for years in the Netherlands. The number of hours worked per capita will be under pressure, though, as the population ages, just like it will be in other Western countries. Population growth has been at a standstill in recent years.

Labour productivity together with the number of hours worked per capita determine the level of material welfare. Continued growth of prosperity and welfare must come from increased labour productivity in the next few decades. Education is essential in this respect. Research shows that each year of education leads to a wage increase of between 5 and 15 percent for an individual. The wage gap is mainly a reflection of the higher productivity of highly educated people. Furthermore, there are plenty of indications that education not only has financial benefits but also non-financial ones such as better health. The education level has steadily increased in the Netherlands since the year 2000 when we look at the number of years in education. However, the growth rate in the number of people with higher secondary education has been slower in the last decade. There were many school dropouts in the Netherlands, but their number has now been reduced to 15 percent. But the quality of primary and secondary education has been falling as is shown by the scores of Dutch pupils and students in international tests.

The development of human capital is gradual. The 2014 scores were virtually the same as in 2011. The difference is that the Netherlands is not just ranked low in the

EU-28 ranking for the number of 'working hours', but now also for 'education level' (in 2011 the Netherlands still ranked in the middle).

## Social capital: 'high-trust society'

Social capital in the Netherlands has been stable since the year 2000. In some aspects it has even increased. Trust is generally high, although quite a few Dutch people feel they are being discriminated.

'Generalised trust', or the trust Dutch people have in other people who they may not know personally tends to be high in the Netherlands. The same is true for trust in social and political institutions such as the police and parliament. Together with the Scandinavian countries the Netherlands can be considered among the *high-trust societies*. On the other hand, over 7 percent of the Dutch population feel discriminated.

So in terms of social capital things are going well at the moment. Due to positive developments in recent years 'Generalised trust', was higher in 2012 than in 2002. Furthermore in terms of perceived discrimination the Netherlands is no longer ranked in the lowest regions in the EU but somewhere in the middle.

## Economic capital: mainly positive

Economic capital has been on the increase in the Netherlands from 2000 onwards. The stock of physical capital goods has continuously increased over the last decade. However, more is not necessarily better in this case. It is hard to indicate what the ideal stock is in any given year. This is determined by the relative price of capital goods in relation to the production factor labour. The price ratio is part of the optimal relationship between labour used and capital. The aging of the population is expected to lead to higher relative prices for labour. This will probably lead to increasing use of capital goods. Fixed capital formation has been around 20 percent of GDP within the last decades. The credit crisis has caused a decrease though, from 20.9 percent in 2008 to 18.5 percent in 2013.

A major factor in sustainable growth is the development of knowledge and skills. This is what underlies the growth of material wealth and is of great importance in finding alternative sources of energy and cleaner production processes. The knowledge economy has taken off immensely over the last 50 years, but after 1995 the growth rate has started to slow down somewhat. Dutch investments

in R&D are stuck at a fairly constant 1.8 percent of GDP, which comes close to the EU-28 average. The EU target for R&D expenditure was set at 3 percent of GDP in 2010. This target has not been met by a long shot. Some 60 percent of the relatively low R&D intensity of the Netherlands is explained by its economic structure: the sectors requiring a great deal of R&D are relatively small. Innovations within the services sector, for instance, are not considered R&D. Then again, there are relatively many patent applications from the Netherlands. These mainly come from multinationals located in the Netherlands.

In terms of financial sustainability, the net financial position of the Netherlands in relation to the rest of the world is important. This is calculated as the share of the receivables and debts in GDP. Debts cannot be run up endlessly whether they are government debts or debts owed to other countries. The financial basis has to be healthy and stable for a society to generate sufficient quality of life in the long run. Recently Statistics Netherlands has made a downward adjustment of net external capital for the year 2010 within the framework of the revision. This new series shows that the balance in 2000 was very negative, namely -66.5 percent. In 2009 there was a balance (0.2 percent), whereas the surplus has been growing in recent years. In 2013 the balance of receivables and debts amounted to 44.9 percent of the GDP.

From the perspective of EMU debts and EMU balance, the Dutch government finances were fine just before the credit crisis. In 2007 the Netherlands had a slight budget surplus while government debt stood at 38 percent of GDP. With these figures the Netherlands was in a favourable position within Europe: only the Scandinavian countries had healthier government finances. Then the Netherlands had to intervene in the banking sector as a result of the credit crisis, while facing diminishing revenues. The Netherlands currently meets the EMU criteria for its budget deficit again, but in 2013 government debt amounted to 73.5 percent of GDP.

## 2.4 The Netherlands in the world

The third aspect of sustainability is the influence of the Dutch pursuit of welfare on the rest of the world. This requires some reflection, as the Netherlands is closely linked to the outside world in many ways. The behaviour of Dutch producers and consumers has its effect outside the nation's borders. Of course the Netherlands is only a small country and one might argue that its contribution to sustainability

problems is therefore small. And this is true in the absolute sense. However, this is certainly not the case when we look at the per capita burden on the environment. The Netherlands then turns out to contribute quite substantially to the sustainability problems. This is mainly because of the high levels of production and consumption in the Netherlands.

### 2.4.1 Dashboard 3 Netherlands in the world

Theme	Indicator	Trend since 2000 Position of the Netherlands in relation to the EU	
<b>Environment and natural resources</b>			
Energy	Imports of energy	green	yellow
Raw materials	Imports of minerals	red	red
	Imports of biomass	yellow	red
Climate	Emission trade balance	red	grey
<b>Trade and aid</b>			
Aid	Development aid	yellow	green
	Remittances	green	green
Trade	Total imports from LDC's	green	green
	Imports of energy from LDC's	red	red
	Imports of minerals from LDC's	red	red
	Imports of biomass from LDC's	yellow	red
	Carbon footprint of Dutch consumption due to imports	red	grey

- trend with a negative effect on sustainability, or low international ranking
- neutral or unknown effect of trend on sustainability, or medium/constant international position
- trend with a positive effect on sustainability, or high international position
- no data available for international comparison

The dashboard 'The Netherlands in the world' maps out several aspects of this theme (see 2.4.1 Dashboard 3). It shows to what extent economic growth in the Netherlands is linked with an increase in the imports of natural capital in the form of minerals, energy and biomass. The dashboard also shows the extent to which Dutch imports cause greenhouse gas emissions elsewhere. This is done through the trade balance in emissions. Of course the physical flows and the emissions elsewhere caused by the Netherlands are just one side of the coin: apart from a negative effect on the natural capital elsewhere, international trade also leads to more income for the exporting country which may in turn lead to a better quality of life.

The dashboard not only has indicators for environment and raw materials, but also two indicators that provide insight in the financial transfers from the Netherlands to poor countries. These are the budget for development cooperation

and the transfers by migrants. The Netherlands tries to contribute to the process of economic development and a reduction in poverty through development aid. The aid contributes to the sustainability aspect that the Brundtland definition indicates as 'meeting the needs of the present generation'.

## The environment and raw materials

The Netherlands is among the largest importers of natural resources in terms of per capita imports within the EU-28. We also need to take a look at the exports in order to form a correct opinion. Much of the imported crude oil is exported after processing. This picture may show some nuancing in the extent to which raw materials are processed more efficiently and more sustainably in the Netherlands than in the countries to which they are exported: in this regard it would be a contribution to sustainable development. The reverse is of course also true. These major aspects of the use of natural capital have not been detailed yet in this dashboard. Still this means that imports in themselves also contribute to the exhaustion of global stocks of non-renewable resources, and are often damaging to global biodiversity. The figures of the emission trade balance show a negative trend. This means that the burden the Netherlands is adding to the environmental problems is increasingly taking place outside the national borders.

Compared to the situation in 2011, the situation for the theme 'natural capital' has worsened slightly. Apart from the trade in emissions, which also showed a negative trend in the previous study, the environmental burden on the rest of the world had increased in 2013 in imports of minerals. The performance of the Netherlands within the EU ranking has improved somewhat though. In 2011 the situation for Netherlands was very poor in terms of energy, mineral and biomass imports, ranking at the very last position. In 2014 the Netherlands is no longer among the worst performers in one of these three categories. As far as energy imports are concerned, in per capita terms of course, the Netherlands is somewhere in the middle.

## Trade and aid

The second part of the dashboard looks into the relationship of the Netherlands and developing countries, especially because the Brundtland Commission had made this into a core theme in its definition of sustainability at the time. 'Global partnership' has been central in the sustainability debate ever since. The dashboard ranges from neutral to positive when it comes to financial flows

between countries. Development aid has been stable, and high by EU standards since the year 2000. The Netherlands ranks fourth in the EU-28 in this respect. The income transfers in terms of money transferred by immigrants to their family and friends in their country or origin are also increasing. Here too we see that the amounts involved in the Netherlands are relatively high compared to the rest of the European Union. In practice these transfers also function as an efficient way of fighting poverty. Not much has changed since the 2011 study. The carbon footprint of Dutch consumption as a result from imports is now included in the system of indicators. This indication shows a negative trend over time. Dutch consumption has recently led to a greater environmental burden in the rest of the world as far as greenhouse gas emissions are concerned.

The latter aspect of the relationship between the Netherlands and developing countries is due to the robust expansion of trade. Total imports in euros by the Netherlands from this part of the world have been increasing sharply since 2000, so that the Netherlands ranks high in the EU-28. A positive aspect is that this trade generates income in developing countries that can be reinvested in the economy, in part or entirely.

There are a few things to bear in mind. Some of the growth in imports is the result of more imports of natural resources. Many African countries are highly dependent on the exports of raw materials. The proceeds from these exports are generally spent on consumption and tend to benefit a small elite. When prices for raw materials are high, more labour and capital is used in the exploitation of the natural resources. This contributes to a one-sided economic structure. In the literature this is often referred to as the 'resource curse'. It turns out that there is a strong correlation between the extent to which countries depend on natural resources for their economic growth and the degree of inequality in income, corruption and social tensions. This 'resource curse' is by no means necessary. Botswana and Chili are examples of countries where the proceeds of the exports of natural resources have benefitted large sections of the population.

---

## State of affairs in the world

**Sustainability essentially is a global issue. So far, developments in the Netherlands have been compared with the rest of the EU. In this box we look at the state of sustainability in the entire world. If we look at material welfare measured in terms of final consumer spending, we may conclude that China, India and Russia have caught up with the high income countries. While the consumption level per inhabitant in China was only 11 percent of the global average in 1995,**

this share had already risen to 23 percent by 2009. By 2013 this had gone up to 29 percent. However, many other developing countries were not able to catch up like this. The average per capita consumption there is about 7 percent of the worldwide average.

At least as important as these differences in material welfare between regions is the distribution within the regions. This is shown by the data about the number of people living on less than two dollars a day. The poverty rates presented in the Sustainability Monitor of the Netherlands of 2011 showed that the percentage of people living below the poverty line fell worldwide from 59 percent in 1995 to 47 percent in 2005. The strongest decrease occurred in China (from 70 percent to 36 percent). The share of poor people in developing countries is very high (78–85 percent). There are only updates of these figures for 2010 for very few regions. In China and Russia the share of the population living below the poverty line fell sharply in 1995–2010. There is also a decrease in India, but this is not as sharp as in the other two countries. Another indicator providing insight in social inequality is the 'Gender Inequality Index'. Inequality between men and women decreased in many parts of the world, although it remains high in India.

Life expectancy is often used as an indicator for health. This is rising worldwide, and developing countries are showing a major increase in this respect. The same is true for access to clean water. However, in the area of education, developing countries are still performing poorly. Over 16 percent of the people worldwide are illiterate. Their share fell slightly in the period 2000–2010. In developing countries the share of illiterate people is very high and at 40 percent it is more than twice the global average. We can now compare the international differences in institutional quality measured in terms of corruption. The international differences are great and persistent. There is relatively little corruption in most high income countries. In China and Russia this is not the case.

Finally we compared the international differences in energy use and CO<sub>2</sub> emissions. The figures from the Sustainability Monitor of the Netherlands of 2011 show that the volume of energy per production unit fell by 18 percent in the period 1995–2008. This is a worldwide development. In emerging economies such as China and India, energy intensity even fell by 30–40 percent. These figures indicate greater energy efficiency in production. This trend has continued in recent years. But the growing efficiency is cancelled out by the enormous growth of China. If we look at per capita CO<sub>2</sub> emissions, we see that this is becoming lower in the high income countries (though not in the Netherlands) but that greenhouse gas emissions worldwide are on the increase. This growth is primarily driven by the robust development of China.

## 2.4.2 State of the world

Theme/indicator		NL	EU	US	Japan	China	India	Russia	LDC's <sup>1)</sup>	World
Population										
population (million)	1995	15.5	484.0	266.3	125.4	1,204.9	955.8	148.1	584.8	5,698.0
	2013	16.8	506.7	316.1	127.3	1,357.4	1,252.1	143.5	898.3	7,124.5
population (% of world population)	1995	0.3	8.5	4.7	2.2	21.1	16.8	2.6	10.3	100.0
	2013	0.2	7.1	4.4	1.8	19.1	17.6	2.0	12.6	100.0
Satisfaction with life										
happiness score	1984	7.33 <sup>g)</sup>	.	7.49	6.05 <sup>l)</sup>	.	3.45 <sup>l)</sup>	6.19 <sup>l)</sup>	.	.
	2012	7.9	.	7.85 <sup>h)</sup>	6.75 <sup>h)</sup>	6.4 <sup>e)</sup>	5.51 <sup>h)</sup>	5.8	.	.
Material well-being										
final consumption expenditure (per capita in 2005 in US\$)	1995	23,527	17,865	28,631	24,344	493	351	2,302	288	4,630
	2013	28,819	22,749	37,591 <sup>d)</sup>	28,986 <sup>d)</sup>	1,799	822	5,709	387 <sup>e)</sup>	5,882 <sup>d)</sup>
Livelihood										
poverty (% population with an income < 2 PPP \$ per day)	1995	.	.	.	.	74.1	75.6 <sup>f)</sup>	9.0 <sup>g)</sup>	.	.
	2010	.	.	.	.	27.2 <sup>e)</sup>	68.8	0.1 <sup>e)</sup>	.	.
Health										
life expectancy	1995	77.4	75.8	75.6	79.5	70.3	60.2	65.2	53.5	66.4
	2012	81.1	80.5	78.7	83.1	75.2	66.2	70.5	61.1	70.8
access to clean drinking water	1995	100.0	98.7	98.6	100.0	73.7	75.5	94.1	51.4	79.2
	2012	100.0	99.9	99.2	100.0	91.9	92.6	97.0	66.6	89.3
Education										
illiteracy (% of the population)	2000	.	.	.	.	9.1	39.0 <sup>a)</sup>	0.6 <sup>c)</sup>	46.0	18.1
	2010	.	.	.	.	4.9	37.2 <sup>b)</sup>	0.3	41.3	15.7
Inequality										
Gender Inequality Index (GII)	2000	0.078	.	0.288 <sup>f)</sup>	0.136	0.572	0.621 <sup>f)</sup>	0.425	.	.
	2013	0.057	.	0.262	0.138	0.202	0.563	0.314	.	.
Institutions										
corruption (corruption perception index)	2000	8.9	.	7.8	6.4	3.1	2.8	2.1	.	.
	2011	8.9	.	7.1	8.0	3.6	3.1	2.4	.	.
Climate										
CO <sub>2</sub> intensity (kg per GDP unit) in 2005 US\$	1995	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.3	3.6	2.1	3.2	0.5	0.7
	2012	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.3	2.2	1.6	1.9	0.5	0.6
CO <sub>2</sub> emissions (ton per inhabitant)	1995	10.7	8.3	19.4	9.4	2.8	1.0	11.2	0.2	4.1
	2010	11.0	7.4	17.6	9.2	6.2	1.7	12.2	0.3	4.9
Energy										
energy intensity (kg oil equivalent per \$ 1,000 GDP in PPP 2005 in US\$)	1995	138	.	197	127	346	190	358	.	.
	2012	110	.	134	101	202 <sup>k)</sup>	126 <sup>k)</sup>	227 <sup>k)</sup>	.	.

<sup>1)</sup> LDC's stands for Least Developed Countries.

a) 2001 e) 2009 i) 1975

b) 2006 f) 2005 j) 1991

c) 2002 g) 1983 k) 2011

d) 2012 h) 2007

**3.**

**Developments**

**per social domain**

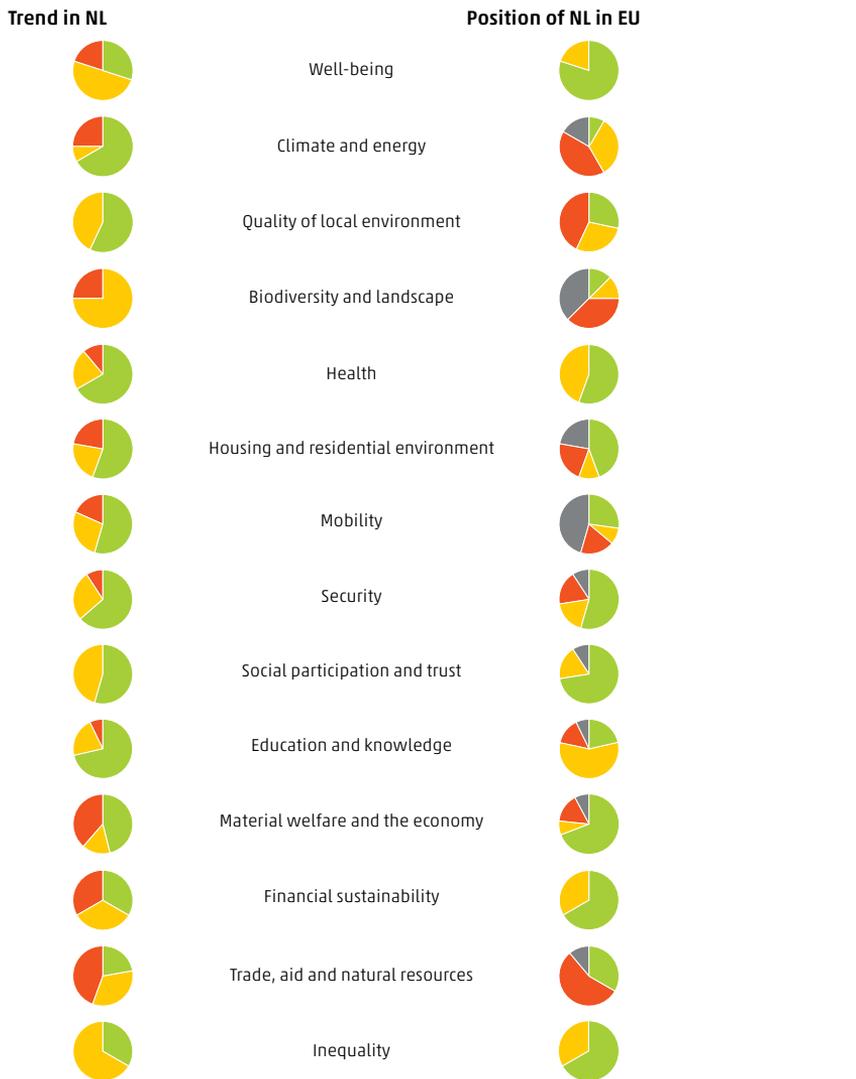
**This chapter deals in some detail with 14 different social domains that are crucial for sustainable development. These consist of one or more themes, the same themes that are included in the dashboards (see chapter 2). In 3.0.1 we present the indicators for the various social domains. In the discussion of the various policy domains in this chapter we will address these focal areas.**

The way the themes are divided across the social domains is different and more practical than their division across the dashboards. Because the individual dashboards focus on the 'here and now' and 'later' and 'elsewhere' some themes occur in several dashboards: education, for instance, is relevant now and in the future. In this chapter each theme only occurs once. Scheme 3.0.2 shows how the themes are divided across the dashboards and domains.

We use main indicators and sub-indicators to describe each social domain.<sup>1)</sup> This produces a more complete picture. The main indicators show the general state of affairs, but they cannot always be influenced by policies. In order to make any progress within a theme, the underlying matters have to be addressed. A sub-indicator usually involves matters that can be influenced by policies. Think of obesity (a sub-indicator) which can be influenced by government measures and which is important for a healthy life expectancy (the main indicator). In this chapter we will also include the policy aims in as far as these are set for any given theme. Also we will compare the Netherlands with the European Union wherever we can.

<sup>1)</sup> The Annex shows the underlying figures. Here you can see what the most recent figure is, or on the basis of which time series we calculated whether an indicator was coloured green, yellow, or red in the dashboard.

### 3.0.1 Social domains of sustainability: scores for the Netherlands

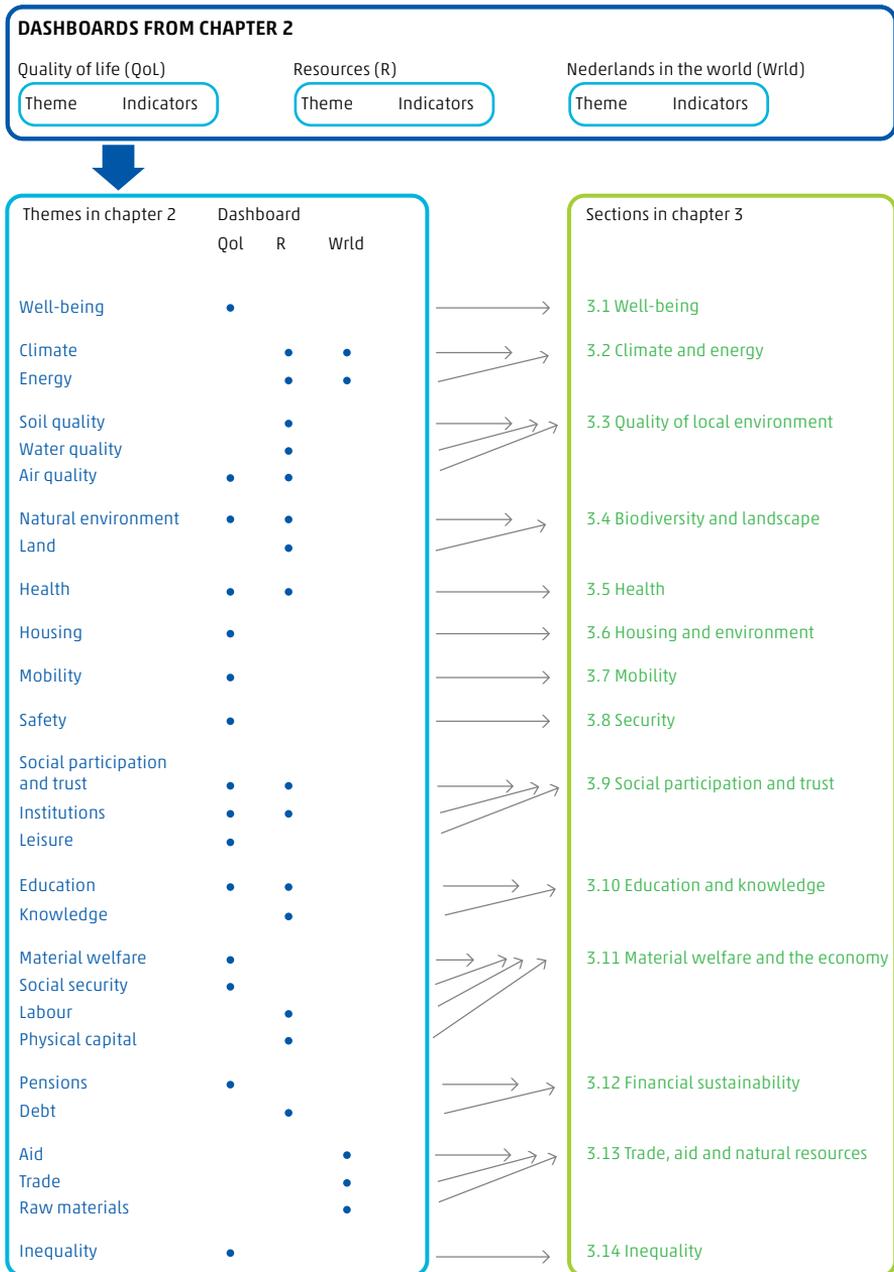


■ trend has negative effect on sustainability or low international ranking  
■ neutral or unknown effect of trend on sustainability, or average/stable position in international ranking  
■ trend has positive effect on sustainability, or high international ranking  
■ no data available for comparison with other EU-countries



Note: Each circle diagram includes several indicators (see chapter 2 and Annex A). The number of indicators is not the same for all circles. Each indicator is assigned a colour: red, yellow, green or grey (see legend). The colours do not show how large the differences between countries are.

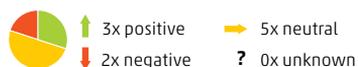
### 3.0.2 The distribution of themes over dashboards and social domains



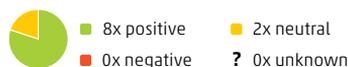
# 3.1 Well-being

## 3.1.1 Overview of the theme 'Well-being'

### Summary of development in NL



### Summary of position of NL in the EU

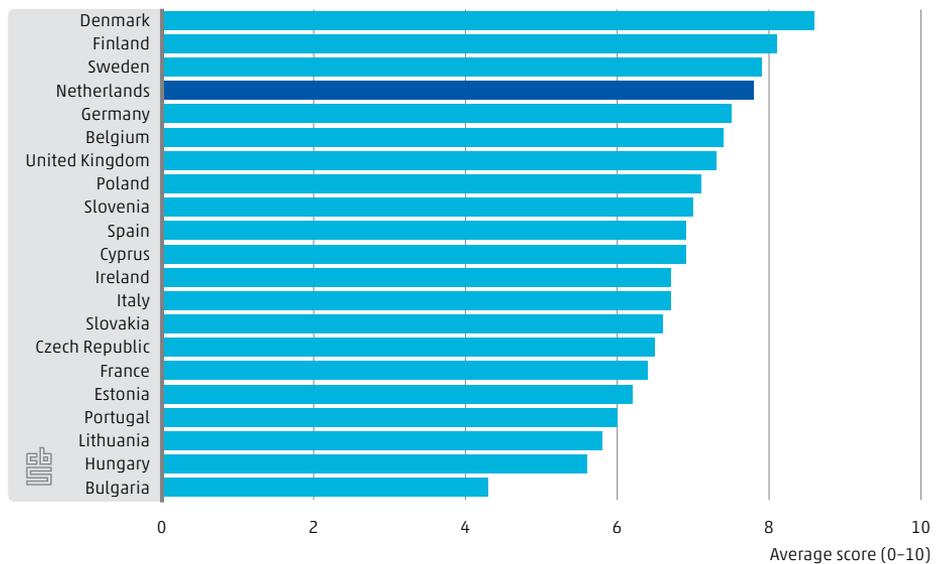


Trend in NL	Theme/indicator	Position in EU
	<b>Well-being</b>	
↔	Satisfaction with life	4 (21)
	<b>Health</b>	
↔	Self-reported health	3 (27)
	<b>Housing</b>	
↑	Satisfaction with the home	8 (28)
	<b>Education</b>	
↑	Satisfaction with education	17 (28)
	<b>Leisure</b>	
↑	Satisfaction with leisure	5 (28)
	<b>Social security</b>	
↓	Satisfaction with own financial situation	13 (28)
	<b>Security</b>	
↑	Feeling unsafe	5 (21)
	<b>Inequality</b>	
↔	Satisfaction with income inequality	2 (20)
	<b>Institutions</b>	
↔	Trust in institutions	3 (30)
	<b>Nature</b>	
↔	Satisfaction with green areas	7 (28)

- The general level of well-being in the Netherlands is high and hardly changing. Life is scored with nearly 8 out of 10 and 80 percent of the Dutch population perceive their health as good or very good. Satisfaction about several aspects of life has increased slightly over the last decade.
- Compared to other European countries the level of well-being is high in the Netherlands, ranking somewhere in the European middle when it comes to satisfaction with education and people's own financial situation. For all other indicators included here the Netherlands belongs to the top scoring countries.

- Dutch people were more negative about their own financial situation in 2013 than they were in 2000. The percentage of people satisfied with their own financial situation fell from 92 to 71 percent. Having a job is no guarantee for financial security at the moment. The current economic situation makes households less confident about keeping their jobs and income. Other factors may influence people's future financial circumstances as well. There is uncertainty about Dutch pensions, it is unclear how tax relief on mortgage interest will develop in the future, and care is becoming more and more expensive. Confidence had started to improve in the first half of 2014 but dipped again in the second half.
- The lower opinions about people's own financial situation come with a sharp fall in house prices, increasing unemployment and an almost frozen level of purchasing power. In reaction to this uncertainty about their own financial situation, Dutch households are starting to save more. By the middle of 2014 we observed an increase in house prices and a decrease in unemployment.

### 3.1.2 Satisfaction with life per country, 2012

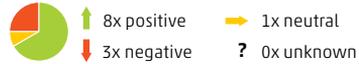


Source: ESS.

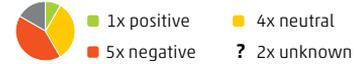
## 3.2 Climate and Energy

### 3.2.1 Overview of the theme 'Climate and Energy'

#### Summary of development in NL



#### Summary of position of NL in the EU

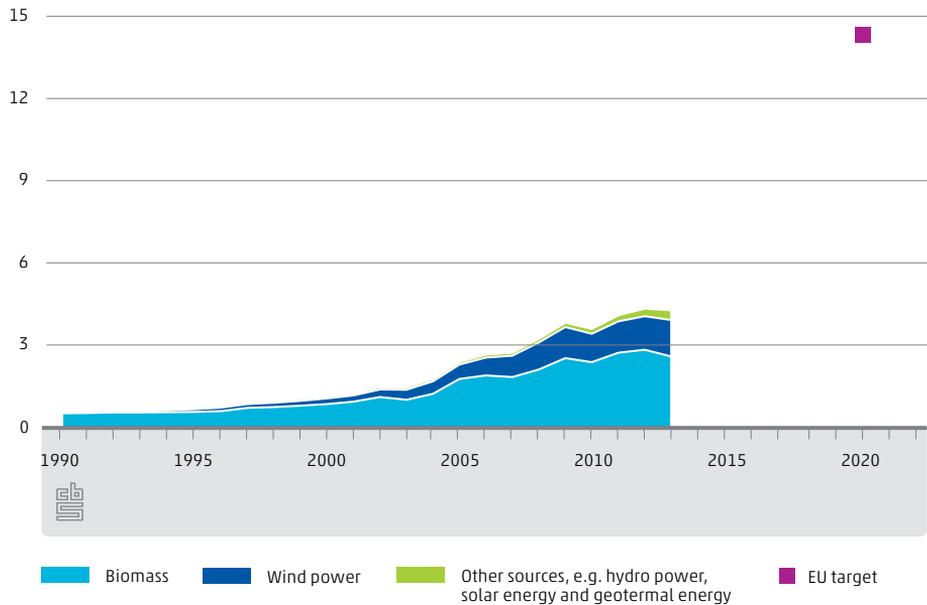


Trend in NL	Theme/indicator	Position in EU
	<b>Climate</b>	
↕	Historical CO <sub>2</sub> emissions	13 (17)
↕	Emission trade balance	?
↓	Total greenhouse gas emissions per capita	23 (28)
↓	Greenhouse gas intensity (energy use)	10 (28)
↓	CO <sub>2</sub> emissions	24 (28)
↓	Greenhouse gas intensity (economy)	8 (28)
	<b>Energy</b>	
↓	Energy reserves	6 (13)
↑	Renewable energy	25 (28)
↓	Depletion of energy stocks	?
↔	Gross domestic energy use	24 (28)
↓	Energy intensity of the economy	13 (28)
	<b>Energy international</b>	
↓	Imports of energy	14 (28)

- Greenhouse gas emissions per inhabitant are quite high in the Netherlands. The Netherlands currently occupies the 23rd position in the European ranking. Since 2005 these emissions have been cut by an average of 1.6 percent a year.
- Due to the depletion of the Netherlands' own energy stocks, the dependence of foreign countries will increase eventually unless alternative energy sources are found.
- The share of renewable energy has tripled in the Netherlands since 2000 but it is low compared to other countries. Within the European framework the Netherlands has set its target to raise its share of renewable energy to 14 percent. In 2013 the share was 4.5 percent.

### 3.2.2 Renewable energy consumption in the Netherlands

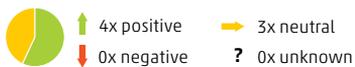
% of total energy consumption



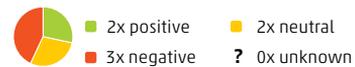
## 3.3 Local environmental quality

### 3.3.1 Overview of the thema 'Local environmental quality'

Summary of development in NL



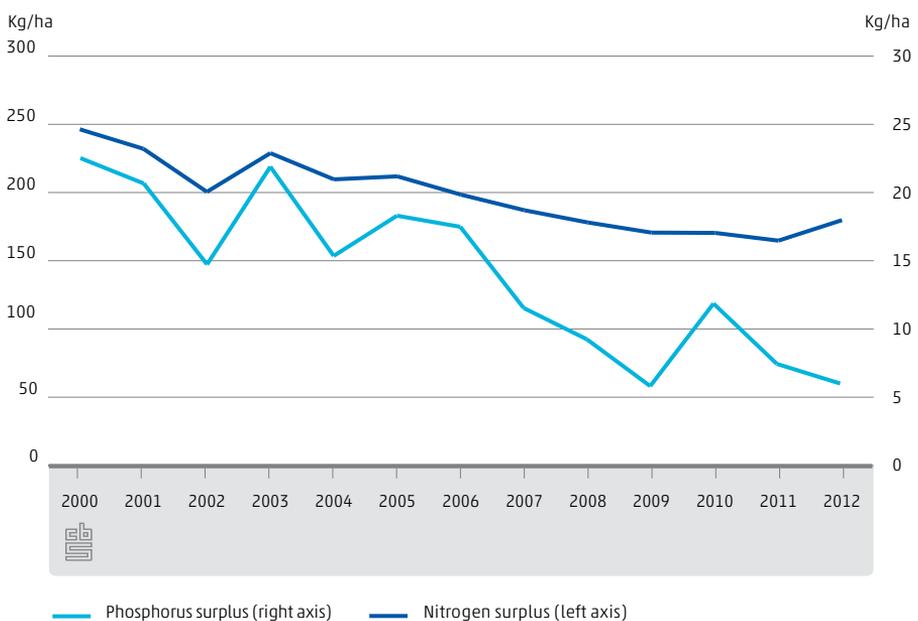
Summary of position of NL in the EU



Trend in NL	Theme/indicator	Position in EU
	<b>Soil</b>	
↓	Phosphorus surplus in the soil	24 (27)
↓	Nitrogen surplus in the soil	25 (26)
	<b>Water</b>	
↔	Surface water quality	23 (23)
↔	Surface and groundwater abstraction	9 (13)
	<b>Air</b>	
↓	Urban exposure to particulate matter	11 (24)
↔	Urban exposure to ozone	4 (24)
↓	Emissions of sulphur oxides	4 (28)

- The Dutch agricultural sector has managed to drastically reduce its nitrogen and phosphate surpluses after 1990 by limiting the imports of nutrients and by greater disposals. Between 1990 and 2010 the nitrogen surplus was cut by 45 percent and the phosphate surplus by about 80 percent (PBL, 2012).
- The Netherlands had the highest nitrogen surplus of all surrounding countries given the total land used nationally for agriculture in 2008. However, national surpluses are difficult to compare. The argumentation is that the Netherlands has a large and intensively used share of arable land whereas many other countries also have a great deal of extensively used land for agriculture. This means that they can spread their surplus over a larger area as it were (PBL, 2012).
- The urban exposure to particulate matter shows a 25–30 percent decrease between 1992 and 2012 in the urban stations. The trend in the air measured by the RIVM is in line with the emission trend in the Netherlands and North West Europe. Emissions of sulphur dioxide were cut by 81 percent between 1990 and 2012. These emissions have also been successfully cut in other countries.

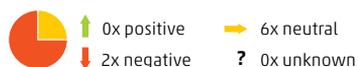
### 3.3.2 Accumulation of phosphorus and nitrogen in soil



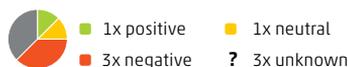
## 3.4 Biodiversity and landscape

### 3.4.1 Overview of the theme 'Biodiversity and landscape'

#### Summary of development in NL



#### Summary of position of NL in the EU

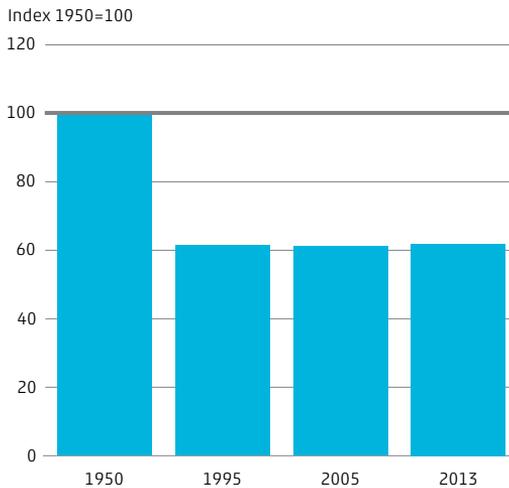


Trend in NL	Theme/indicator	Position in EU
<b>Land</b>		
↓	Surface per person	27 (28)
↔	Land used for consumption purposes	?
<b>Land/biodiversity</b>		
↔	Biodiversity footprint	?
↔	Satisfaction with green areas	7 (28)
↔	Nature areas	22 (23)
↔	State of preservation	19 (25)
↔	Red List indicator	?
↓	Farmland birds	8 (17)

- Since 1950 approximately 40 percent of the species have become endangered and were placed on the Red List. Creating a Red List is an international obligation since the Netherlands has ratified the Bern Convention. The number of non-endangered species has been stable since 1995, and has recently even improved marginally from 61 percent in 2005 to 62 percent in 2013. We must note that the aquatic species are under-represented in the Red List Index and that marine species are totally absent except for a few mammals (PBL, 2014).
- The Red List index presents the average values. If we focus on the individual groups of species we observe that the population sizes of mammals, dragonflies, breeding birds and especially plants have improved most since 1995. The population size of amphibians and butterflies is still deteriorating. At the individual species level many populations have actually dwindled after 2005 in the Red List status (PBL, 2014).
- The Red Lists include plant and animal species that are endangered or vulnerable. By definition the assumption is that species were not endangered in 1950. The number of species in the Red Lists of breeding birds, butterflies, mammals, dragonflies, reptiles, amphibians and higher plants are calculated each year. The indicator shows the opposite: the number of non-endangered species as a percentage of all species of the seven species groups together. The indicator replaces the indicator 'Population of endangered RL animal species' and 'Population non-RL animal species'. The Red List Indicator (RLI) is based on many more data than these two older indicators and includes not just animals

but also higher plants. The RLI fits the policy aims of the Ministry of Economic Affairs better. The aim is to prevent species from becoming endangered and get as high a percentage of non-endangered species as possible. The old indicators showed average national trends of species without translating this in terms of being endangered, PBL (2014).

### 3.4.2 Red List Indicator (% non-threatened species)



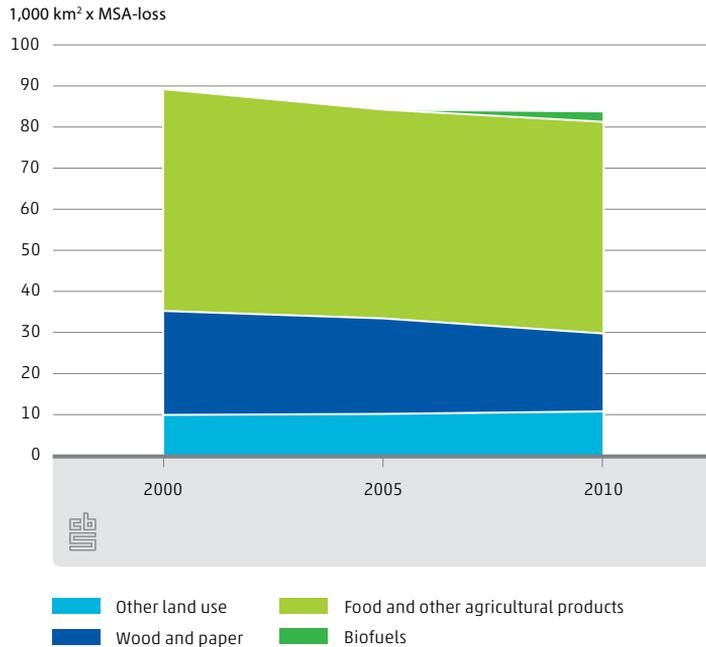
Source: NEM/CBS.



The figures show a substantial loss in biodiversity since 1950. After 1995 the share of non-endangered species has remained constant.

- The biodiversity footprint is a measure of the global loss of biodiversity as a consequence of Dutch consumption and the production required for this in the Netherlands or elsewhere (through imports). Much land is required to meet the Dutch demand for food, bio fuels, wood and paper, both within the Netherlands and elsewhere.
- The loss of biodiversity is relatively great for the production of food. Intensive agricultural methods are used in the production of food based on plants as well as animal proteins, which changes the natural landscape into production grounds. Relatively less biodiversity is lost in the production of wood and paper pulp, because the loss of the original species is not as great in managed and semi-natural woods as it is in agricultural areas.
- Since 2000 the loss of biodiversity, expressed in Mean Species Abundance (MSA), has fallen slightly, although not significantly. This development in the period 2000–2005 can mainly be attributed by the higher yield per hectare in agriculture. Between 2005 and 2010 the use of wood and paper was down because of the economic crisis.

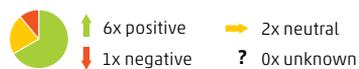
### 3.4.3 Loss of biodiversity due to Dutch consumption



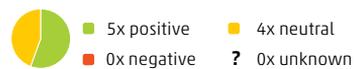
## 3.5 Health

### 3.5.1 Overview of the theme 'Health'

#### Summary of development in NL



#### Summary of position of NL in the EU

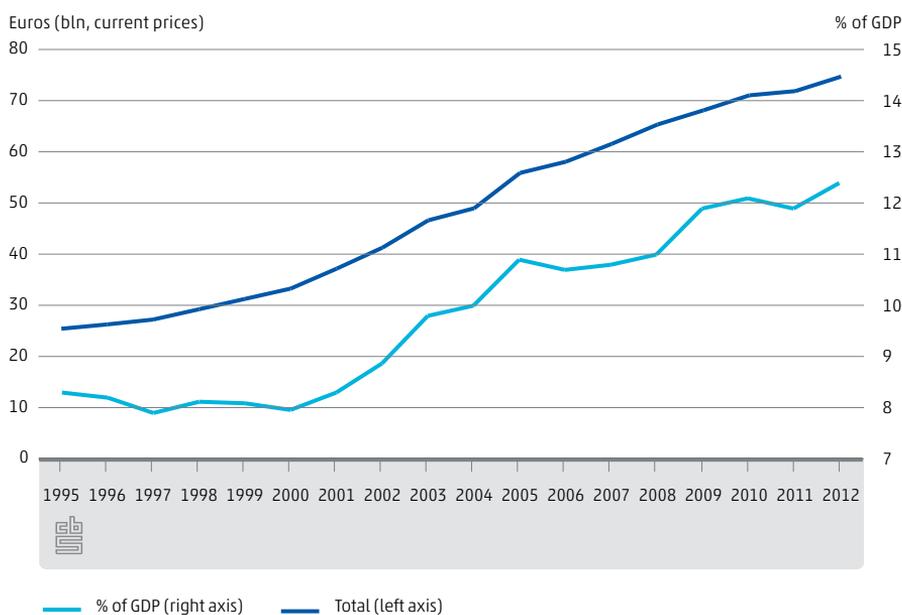


Trend in NL	Theme/indicator	Position in EU
↔	Self-reported health	3 (27)
↑	Healthy life expectancy of women	15 (28)
↑	Healthy life expectancy of men	9 (28)
↑	Life expectancy of women	13 (25)
↑	Life expectancy of men	3 (25)
↔	Mental health	8 (28)
↑	Health care expenditure	1 (28)
↑	Obesity	4 (7)
↓	Smoking	4 (9)

Life expectancy increased greatly between 2001 and 2011: slightly more for men than for women.

- Over 80 percent of the Dutch population perceives their health as good or very good. Self-reported health has been stable for years. The Netherlands remains in the European top, only Cyprus and Sweden have more people who perceive their health as good or very good.
- Health care expenditure from a sustainability perspective is considered an investment in better health. It rose from 8 percent of GDP in 2000 to 12 percent of GDP in 2012 in the Netherlands. Spending on health care in the Netherlands is the highest of the EU. This is because of the spending on long-term care. Spending on curative care in 2012 was comparable to that of other countries. Although spending shows an upward trend it is also weakening, a trend that is also visible in other countries.
- Lifestyle trends show a mixed picture. The percentage of smokers has fallen in recent decades. However, the percentage of overweight people has been increasing.

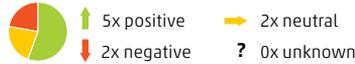
### 3.5.2 Health care expenditure



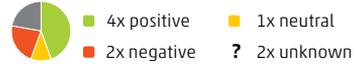
## 3.6 Housing and living environment

### 3.6.1 Overview of the theme 'Housing and living environment'

#### Summary of development in NL



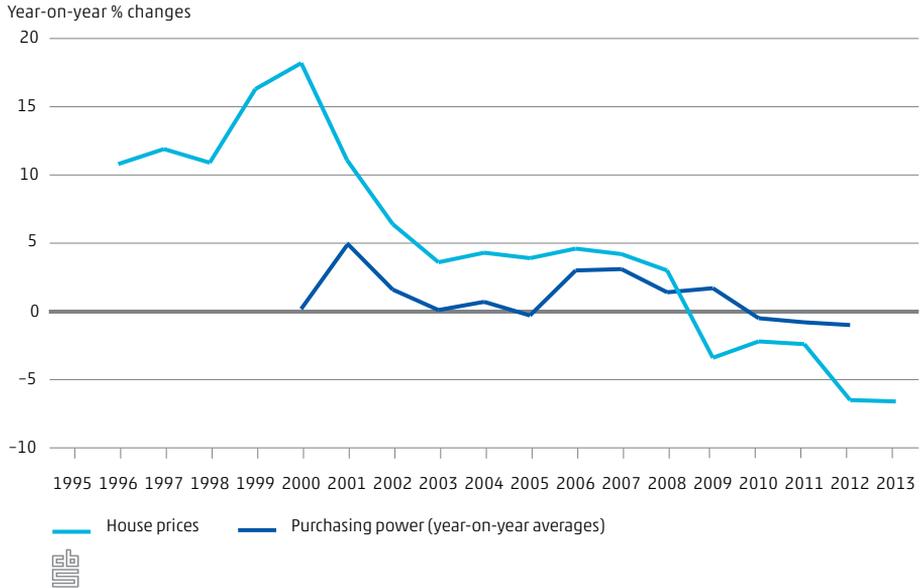
#### Summary of position of NL in the EU



Trend in NL	Theme/indicator	Position in EU
	<b>Housing and living environment</b>	
↑	Satisfaction with the home	8 (28)
↔	Housing quality	15 (27)
↓	Unpleasantness in the neighbourhood	23 (28)
↔	Cramped living space	2 (28)
↑	House price index of existing own homes	6 (26)
↑	Average residential monthly rent	?
↓	Share of housing costs in disposable household income	26 (28)
↓	Perceived burden of housing costs	3 (28)
↑	Number of available dwellings	?

- The number of available dwellings in the Netherlands has increased in comparison with 2000. Housing quality has remained about the same in recent years. The number of people living in accommodation that is too cramped has also remained constant. In comparison with other European countries the Netherlands is performing well where housing is concerned. The percentage of people living in accommodation that is too small is the second lowest in Europe while Dutch housing quality has a middle position in the EU ranking.
- The relatively positive developments in the number and the quality of residential dwellings are also reflected in the degree of satisfaction about people's homes. The extent to which people are satisfied with their homes has increased since 2000. And with an 8th position, the Netherlands scores well in the EU ranking. However, there is a critical note to be made about the living environment (measured in terms of 'Unpleasantness in the neighbourhood'). Here the quality has also increased since 2000, but the Netherlands still has a low score compared to the other 27 EU countries. The Netherlands ranks 23rd. The high population density of the in Netherlands is certainly of influence on the score.
- The Netherlands is among the European countries where people perceive their housing costs as relatively low. This is a striking result because ratio of total housing expenses and disposable household income is among the highest in the European Union.

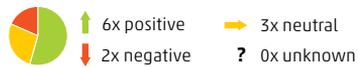
### 3.6.2 House prices and purchasing power



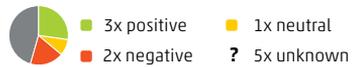
## 3.7 Mobility

### 3.7.1 Overview of the theme 'Mobility'

#### Summary of development in NL



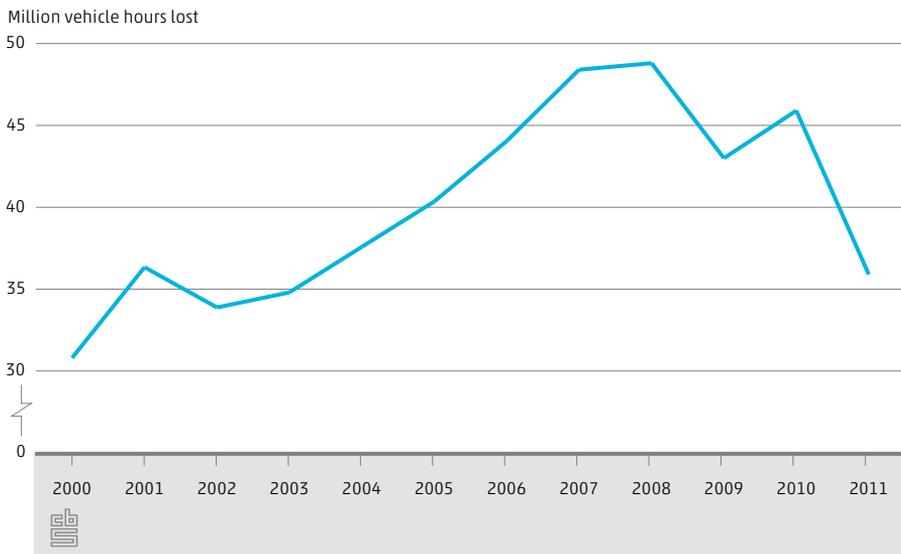
#### Summary of position of NL in the EU



Trend in NL	Theme/indicator	Position in EU
<b>Mobility</b>		
↔	Traffic jams are a personal problem	?
↑	Commuting time	19 (19)
↔	Mobility (general)	?
↑	Car ownership	9 (18)
↑	Time lost due traffic jams and delays	?
↓	Noise nuisance caused by traffic	?
↑	Bicycle ownership	?
↑	Car use	3 (28)
↔	Train use	7 (26)
↓	Traffic deaths	3 (15)
↑	Rail infrastructure	17 (17)

- On 1 January 2014 there were 7.9 million cars registered in the Netherlands. That was slightly more than in 2013. Because the size of the population grew faster than the number of cars, the number of cars per thousand inhabitants fell for the first time since 1990.
- In 2013 the Netherlands saw 570 traffic deaths, 34 per one million inhabitants. This share has been more than halved since 2000. The aim of the government is to reduce the number of traffic deaths to less than 500 by 2020.
- The use of trains in the Netherlands has been around 9 percent of the total number of kilometres travelled since 2000. In 2012 8.8 percent of the total distance travelled was travelled by train. In Europe the Netherlands ranks seventh for train use.
- Between 2000 and 2012 approximately 5 percent more travelling time was lost due to traffic jams and delays, as a result of the increases in population, the number of jobs and car ownership. Policy measures such as the construction of extra lanes and traffic management helped reduce time lost in travelling by 47 percent. However, in the period 2008 to 2012 time lost in travelling was reduced by 32 percent. The changes in population, gross domestic product, labour and car ownership have added relatively little. So the decrease in the loss of travelling time during that period is mainly due to the policy measures. The extra lanes are responsible for a 34 percent reduction and traffic management for a reduction of 3 percent.

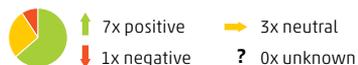
### 3.7.2 Time lost through traffic jams and delays



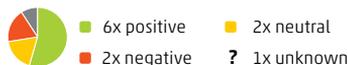
## 3.8 Security

### 3.8.1 Overview of the theme 'Security'

#### Summary of development in NL



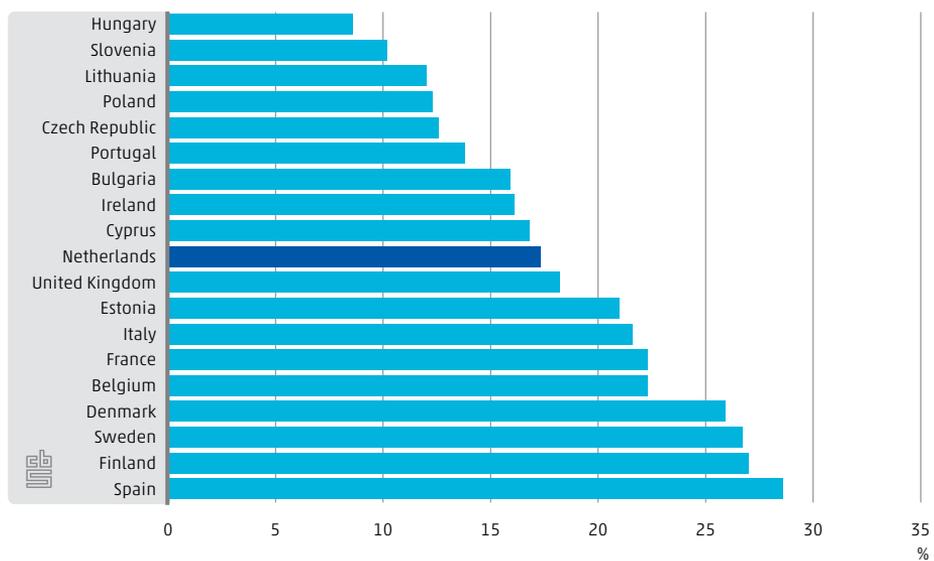
#### Summary of position of NL in the EU



Trend in NL	Theme/indicator	Position in EU
	<b>Security</b>	
↑	Feeling unsafe	5 (21)
↓	Crime victim	10 (19)
↓	Recorded crimes	?
↓	Recorded murders	7 (28)
↔	Underage suspects	17 (18)
↔	Number of detainees	7 (28)
↑	Government spending on security and justice	7 (27)
↔	Number of police	27 (28)
↑	Trust in the police	4 (21)
↑	Trust in the legal system	3 (18)
↓	Probability of a terrorist attack within the country	14 (21)

- Fewer people have been claiming to be victims of crime in recent years. However this has not led to a greater sense of security. People have started to feel less safe in recent years although Dutch people still feel safe compared to the other EU citizens.
- Trust in the police and the legal system has increased in recent years. Trust is high compared to the other European countries.
- The number of under-aged crime suspects has stayed at about the same level as in 2000. There has been a downward trend since 2007. From a European perspective the number of under-aged suspects is still high. The Netherlands occupies the 17th place in a list of 18 countries.
- There has hardly been a change in police numbers in the last decade. Within the police force, the number of uniformed police in the streets has increased since 2010. From a European perspective the Netherlands is not performing well (24th in the EU-28).

### 3.8.2 Reported crime, 2012

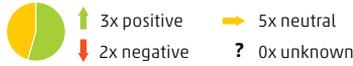


Source: ESS.

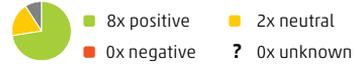
# 3.9 Social participation and trust

## 3.9.1 Overview of the theme 'Social participation and trust'

### Summary of development in NL



### Summary of position of NL in the EU

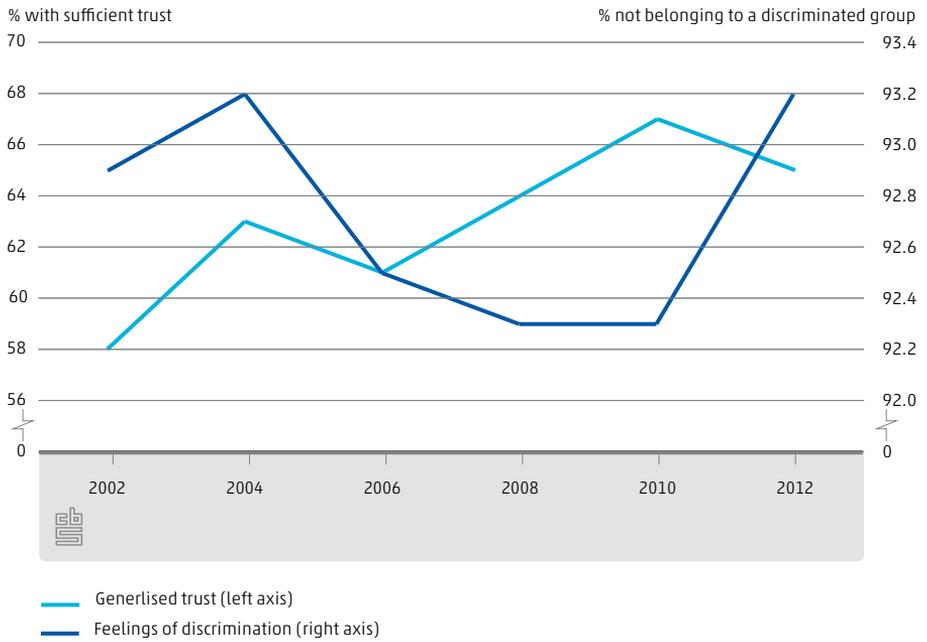


Trend in NL	Theme/indicator	Position in EU
<b>Social participation</b>		
↔	Contact with friends, family and colleagues	1 (20)
↔	Volunteer work	1 (22)
↑	Satisfaction with family life	14 (28)
↑	Satisfaction with the residential environment	2 (27)
<b>Leisure</b>		
↑	Satisfaction with leisure	5 (28)
↑	Leisure	?
<b>Feelings of discrimination</b>		
↔	Feelings of discrimination	10 (20)
↑	Generalised trust	3 (20)
↑	Opinion about immigrants	5 (20)
<b>Institutions</b>		
↔	Trust in institutions	3 (20)
↔	Voter turnout	9 (28)

- As far as social participation is concerned the Netherlands is among the top in Europe. Dutch people have more contacts with family and friends or colleagues than the inhabitants of other countries. Compared to inhabitants of the rest of the EU-28 Dutch people also do a lot of volunteer work.
- The share of Dutch people who are satisfied with their leisure time is rising slightly. Yet in 2011 some 10 percent of the Dutch people felt excessive demands were made on them.
- The percentage of Dutch people who perceive themselves as part of a group that is being discriminated has remained stable in recent years. With about 7 percent the Netherlands ranks somewhere in the European middle. The opinions about immigrants have become more positive since the start of the century, but it is still a minority of 46 percent of the Dutch people who are positive. This is among the highest percentages in Europe though.

- The level of trust is above average in the Netherlands compared to the rest of the EU-28. The trust in institutions has become a lot more volatile in recent years though. Trust in other people ('generalised trust') on the other hand has risen somewhat since the start of the century.

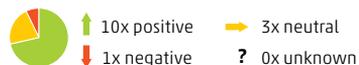
### 3.9.2 Trust in others (generalised trust) and feelings of discrimination



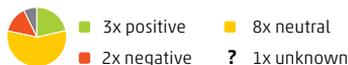
## 3.10 Education and knowledge

### 3.10.1 Overview of the theme 'Education and knowledge'

#### Summary of development in NL



#### Summary of position of NL in the EU

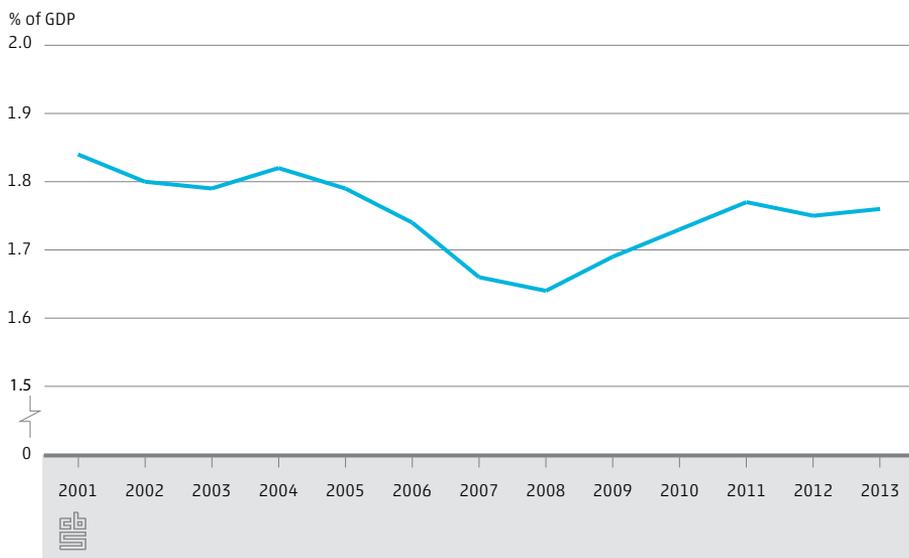


Trend in NL	Theme/indicator	Position in EU
	<b>Education</b>	
↑	Satisfaction with education	17 (28)
↑	Education level	21 (28)
↑	Highly educated population	11 (28)
↑	Education level of young people	21 (24)
↓	Early school leavers	13 (28)
↓	Math skills	1 (27)
↑	Lifelong learning	5 (28)
↑	Government spending on education	9 (26)
	<b>Knowledge</b>	
↑	R&D capital stock	?
↔	Spending on R&D	10 (27)
↑	Number of researchers	12 (28)
↑	Scientific articles	3 (27)
↔	Patents	9 (25)
↔	Knowledge networks in companies	14 (25)

- The Dutch education level has continued to rise in the last four years, but shows a mixed picture when compared with the other EU countries. The Netherlands ranks low for the average education level and the education level of young people (both in 21st position in the EU ranking). The Netherlands ranks quite a bit better as far as highly educated people are concerned (11th position), and belongs among the top in maths skills and lifelong learning. There is a question though whether the definitions for the indicators for the highly educated population and the education level of young people are identical in the various countries.
- The progress in dealing with dropouts has been remarkable. In school year 2009/2010 some 40 thousand students dropped out without starter qualification. In 2012/2013 their number had decreased to about 30 thousand.

- The PISA test scores have shown for some time that the skills of Dutch 15-year-olds in maths, languages and science are among the best in Europe. PISA is a comparative study held in 65 countries with a representative sample survey. But the average scores seem to be going down over time.
- Government spending on education as a percentage of GDP has gone up slightly in recent years. The same is true for the sum of public and private spending on Research & Development. This is influenced by the fact that the spending has been just about constant while the denominator (GDP) fell in 2012.
- The quantity and quality of the scientific articles produced in the Netherlands continues to improve. This is pretty much a worldwide phenomenon. More and more scientific fields are adopting the culture of publishing articles in English language journals. And the number of English language journals is increasing as well. Despite this, Dutch sciences are performing relatively well, publishing fairly often in journals with high impact scores.

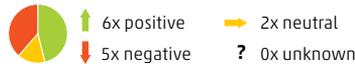
### 3.10.2 R&D expenditure



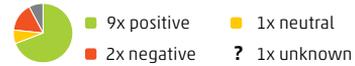
# 3.11 Material welfare and the economy

## 3.11.1 Overview of the theme 'Material welfare and the economy'

### Summary of development in NL



### Summary of position of NL in the EU

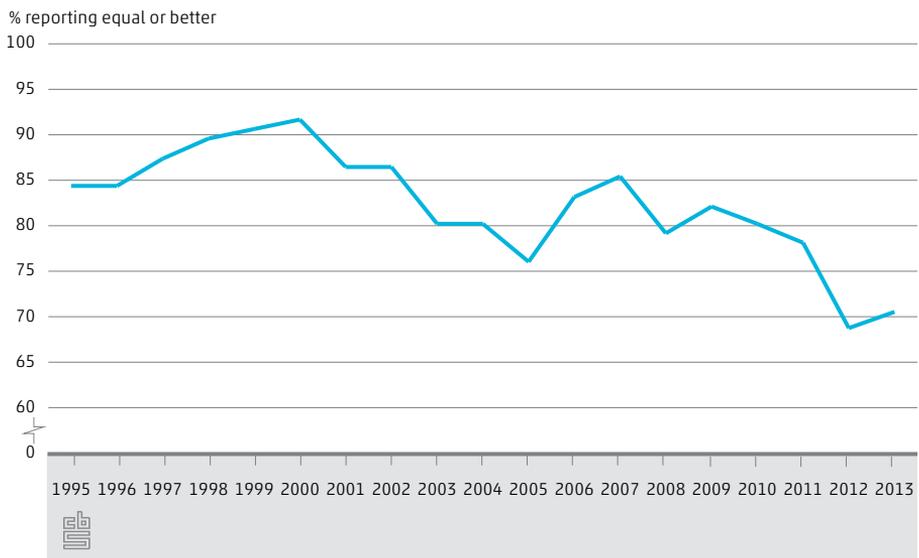


Trend in NL	Theme/indicator	Position in EU
	<b>Material welfare</b>	
↑	Consumer spending	6 (28)
↑	Gross Domestic Product	5 (28)
↑	Labour productivity	4 (25)
	<b>Labour</b>	
↓	Labour force	1 (28)
↓	Hours worked	28 (28)
↑	Duration of working life	2 (28)
↔	Labour participation rate	1 (28)
↑	Unemployment	5 (28)
	<b>Physical capital</b>	
↑	Physical capital stock	?
↓	Gross fixed capital formation	22 (27)
↔	Spending on ICT	7 (21)
	<b>Social security</b>	
↓	Satisfaction with own financial situation	13 (28)
↑	Long-term unemployment	6 (28)

- In 2013 Dutch final consumption expenditure was about 5 percent higher than in 2001. But there has been a downward trend since 2009. Compared to the economic record year of 2008 consumer spending by households has gone down by about 4 percent. Apart from the decrease in disposable income, the continued problems on the housing market and the increasing gloom about future unemployment and the financial situation of the household are major underlying factors in the drop in Dutch consumption.
- The same is true for per capita GDP in the Netherlands. The Dutch economy was hit harder than the neighbouring countries in the years after the credit crisis of 2008. The downturn was entirely due to domestic spending. Dutch household consumption and investments were considerably lower in 2012 than in 2008, with per capita GDP decreasing by nearly 3 percent. However, that level is about 12 percent higher than in 2001. Also in terms of per capita GDP the Netherlands ranks high within Europe.

- Unemployment has risen sharply in the last few years. So the economic crisis has hit the Dutch labour market hard after some delay anyway. In 2013 some 8.3 percent of the labour force was unemployed (ILO definition). That was just 3.8 percent in 2008. Dutch unemployment is still rather low within the European perspective. Also long-term unemployment (unemployed for more than a year) has increased, reaching 2.4 percent in 2013. At the start of the century this was well below 1 percent. But also long-term unemployment is low by European standards.
- The number of working hours per inhabitant reached its peak in 2006 and has been going down ever since. Nowhere in Europe do people work so few hours as in the Netherlands. The Dutch are champions in part-time work. However, labour productivity is high in comparison. This means that more value added is generated per hour worked than in most other countries. Labour productivity in the Netherlands is nearly 30 percent above the EU average.
- The share of the investments in GDP has been down by nearly 4.5 percent points since the start of the crisis. In 2013 just 18.5 percent of GDP was invested in capital goods by the Netherlands, the EU-28 average is 18.2 percent. The Netherlands has been performing worse than many other countries for a long time.

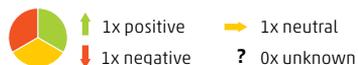
### 3.11.2 Consumer perspective on their own financial situation in the next twelve months



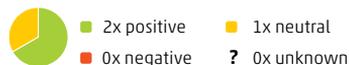
## 3.12 Financial sustainability

### 3.12.1 Overview of the theme 'Financial sustainability'

#### Summary of development in NL



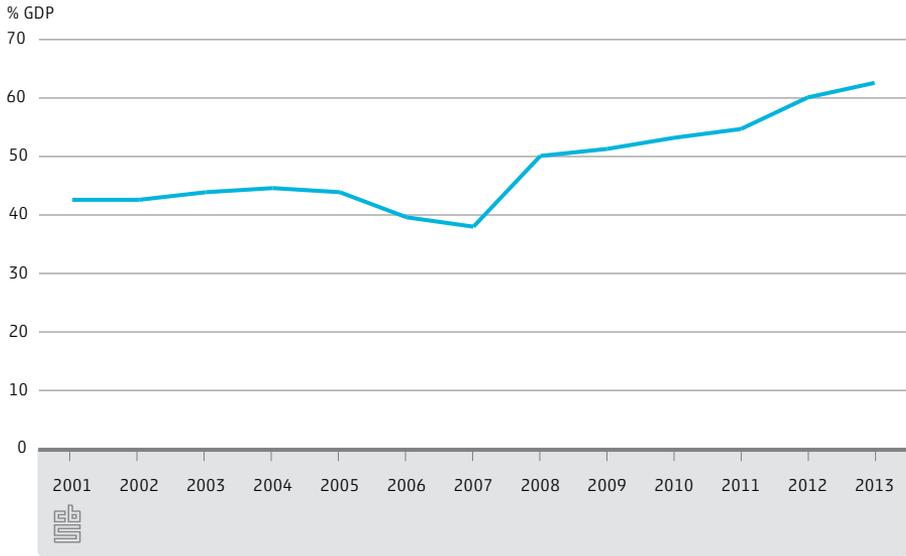
#### Summary of position of NL in the EU



Trend in NL	Theme/indicator	Position in EU
<b>Financial sustainability</b>		
↑	Net financial position compared to the rest of the world	1 (28)
↔	Pensions	2 (20)
↑	Central government debt	16 (28)

- By European standards Dutch people have saved a large pension capital. However, due to the current interest rates, the savings are insufficient to meet the ambition to adjust the pensions each year for wage and price increases.
- Gross Dutch government debt has risen considerably since the start of the economic crisis in 2008.
- Reforms and budget cuts in recent years have made it possible to financially sustain the system of collective schemes in the future.
- The Netherlands has a savings surplus, which would normally lead to strengthening its financial position with regard to the rest of the world, but remarkably the statistics show that the net financial position is strengthened only to a very limited degree. Earlier figures suggested an improvement here. But the recent revision by Statistics Netherlands shows that much of the surplus has disappeared. This 'black hole' is worrisome.

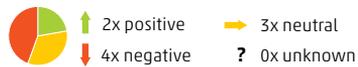
### 3.12.2 Government debt of the Netherlands (EMU debt)



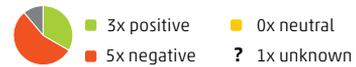
## 3.13 Trade, aid and raw materials

### 3.13.1 Overview of the theme 'Trade, aid and raw materials'

#### Summary of development in NL



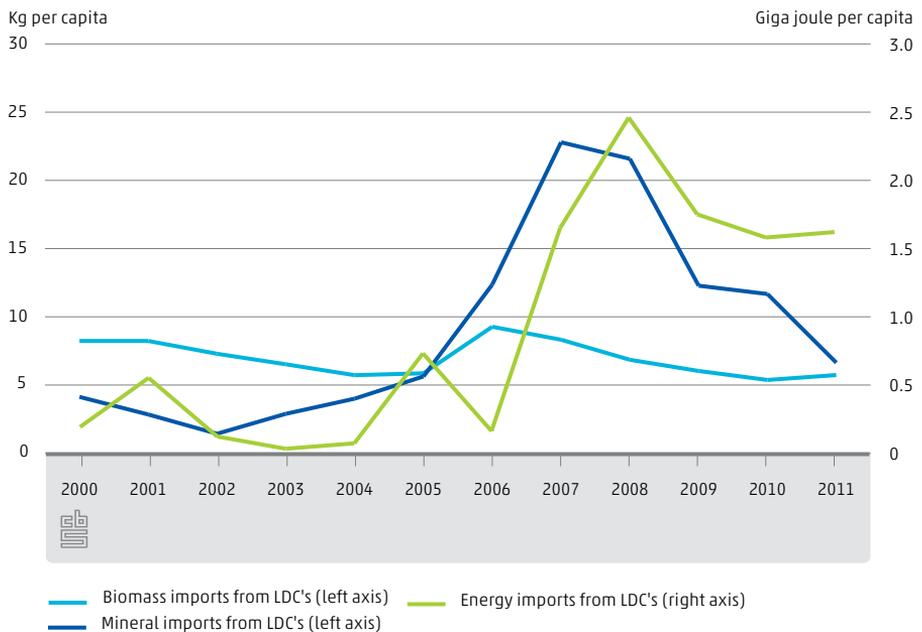
#### Summary of position of NL in the EU



Trend in NL	Theme/indicator	Position in EU
	<b>Aid</b>	
↔	Development aid	4 (27)
↑	Remittances	4 (28)
	<b>Trade and raw materials</b>	
↑	Imports of minerals	26 (28)
↔	Imports of biomass	21 (28)
↑	Total imports from LDC's	3 (28)
↑	Imports of energy from LDC's	24 (28)
↑	Imports of minerals from LDC's	20 (28)
↔	Imports of biomass from LDC's	22 (28)
↑	Carbon footprint of Dutch consumption resulting from imports	?

- The direct flows of money to the rest of the world remain relatively high. The amounts sent by Dutch migrants to family and friends in their country of origin are increasing.
- The Netherlands imports relatively many goods from developing countries. Especially when this concerns treated products and semi-manufactured goods this can generate income and contribute to a more sustainable development in the exporting countries.
- Given the open Dutch economy a relatively great quantity of raw materials is imported in comparison with other EU countries. The Netherlands is a major player in processing agro raw materials. There is no physical scarcity of many raw materials in the short term.
- A small part of the total imports of natural raw materials comes from developing countries. Mineral extraction and the production of biomass in developing countries often come with negative social-economic effects and loss of biodiversity. In per capita terms, the Netherlands imports relatively many natural resources, and mainly from the poorest countries. As far as the imports from developing countries is concerned in energy, minerals and biomass, the Netherlands ranks close to the bottom in the EU ranking. On the other hand, the Netherlands is one of the front runners in making the international trade chains more sustainable.

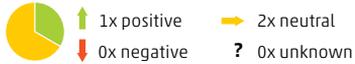
### 3.13.2 Imports of energy, biomass and minerals from LDC's



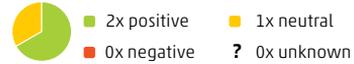
# 3.14 Inequality

## 3.14.1 Overview of the theme 'Inequality'

### Summary of development in NL



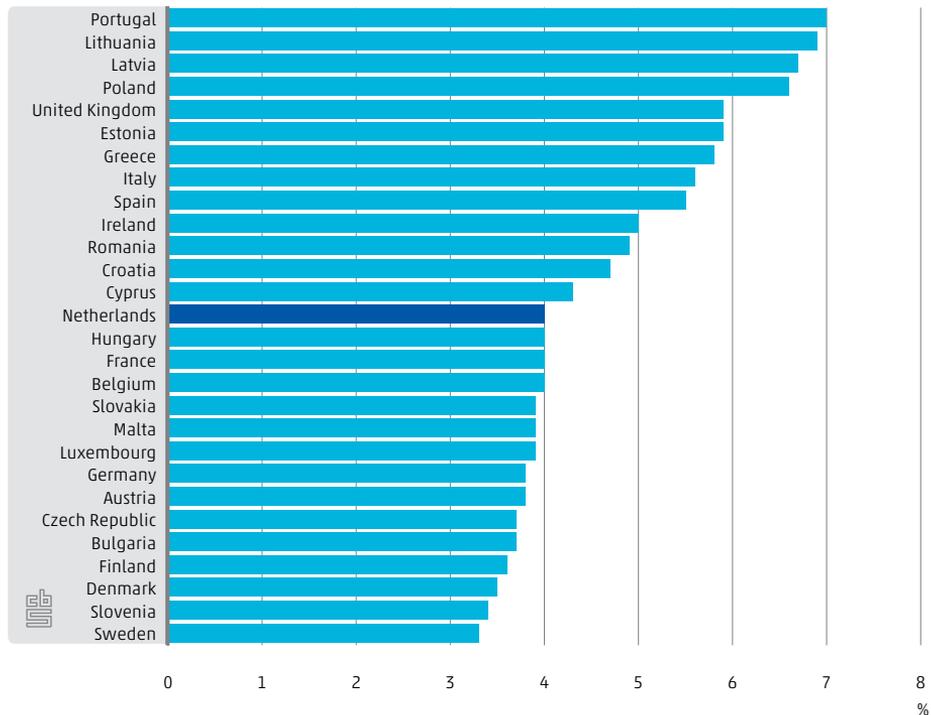
### Summary of position of NL in the EU



Trend in NL	Theme/indicator	Position in EU
<b>Inequality</b>		
↔	Satisfaction with income inequality	2 (20)
↔	Income inequality	3 (28)
↓	Income inequality men/women	18 (27)

- Income inequality in the Netherlands is low when looked at from an international perspective, and moreover rather stable. A remarkable fact is that while the Netherlands ranked 12th in terms of income inequality in 2005 in the EU ranking (graph 3.14.2), it is now ranked among the most egalitarian countries (graph 3.14.3).

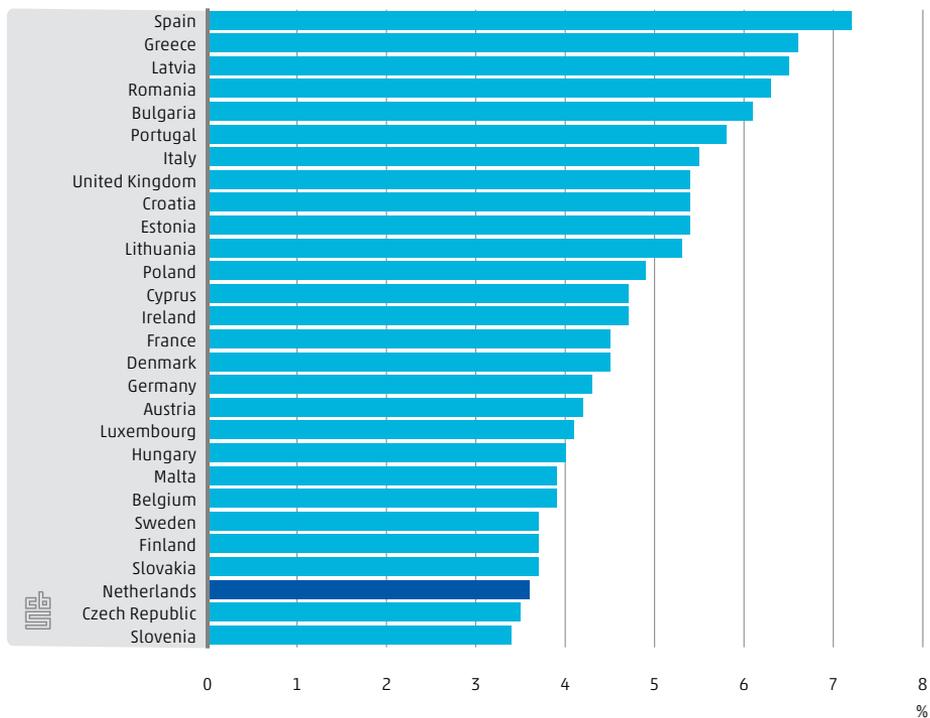
## 3.14.2 Income inequality, 2005



Source: Eurostat.

- The annual wages of women are on average lower than those of men. This is mainly because more women work part-time than men. But also when we look at the income inequality between men and women expressed as the percentage difference in *hourly wages* there is inequality. Men earned nearly 20% more per hour than women in 2012. In comparison with 2000 this inequality has diminished though.
- Satisfaction about the differences in income has not changed in the last decade. Dutch income inequality is acceptable for a large minority of the Dutch population who want to maintain it. Given the European perspective this is fairly high (2nd position in the EU ranking). The actual income distribution, as measured by the Gini-coefficient is relatively even.

### 3.14.3 Income inequality, 2012



Source: Eurostat.

Here we address the inequalities on the basis of the breakdown of the population into four categories: sex, education, ethnic origin and age.

## Inequality by gender

There are very few differences between men and women in many domains in the Netherlands. They engage in volunteer work to the same extent and are equally satisfied with their lives and housing. Their education levels are about the same. Men live two years longer in good health than women. This is remarkable because at birth women's life expectancy is four years longer than men's.

What is also remarkable is that there is so little difference in education level, because women used to lag behind until quite recently. Among the younger generations girls are no longer behind but ahead: on the whole girls outperform boys in school. Moreover in the most recent cohorts, the percentage of men whose education level is lower than that of their parents is on the increase, whereas such a development cannot be observed among women (Herweijer, 2010).

But in certain critical domains women are at a disadvantage. For instance, women earn 4.1 euros an hour less than men. This difference has not changed greatly over the years. More women are now working, but most women are now working part-time: 75 percent of the women have a job of less than 35 hours. This limits women's career prospects: as part-timers are less likely to make progress in their careers. Moreover, women are over-represented in low paying jobs (Merens en Hermans, 2009).

### 3.14.4 Inequality dashboard: Gender

Theme	Indicator	Unit	Most recent			Earlier reference period		
			year	women	men	year	women	men
Welfare	Satisfied with life	average score out of 10	2012/'13	7.9	7.7	2002	7.7	7.7
Prosperity	Income inequality	gross earnings per hour (euro)	2012	18.7	22.8	2000	12.3	16.4
Institutions	Trust in institutions	% sufficient trust	2012	59	63	2004	49	53
Security	Feeling unsafe	% unsafe	2013	47.4	29.6	2012	47.3	29.3
Soc. env./leisure	Volunteer work	% participation	2013	49	49	2012	49	52
Livelihood	Long-term unemployment	% of the labour force	2013	3.1	2.8	2001	1.3	0.8
Health	Healthy life expectancy	years	2012	62.6	64.7	2000	60.9	61.5
Education	Level of education	% with starter qualification	2012	69	70	2001	58	64
Housing	Satisfied with housing	score out of 10	2012/'13	8.3	8.1	2002	8.0	7.9
Citizenship	Generalised trust	% sufficient trust	2012	63	68	2002	57	60

## Inequality by education level

Education, and more specifically education level, plays a role in all kinds of aspects of life. A good education improves people's prospects on the labour market, in social participation, in participation in culture, political involvement and health. More generally speaking it turns out that having a good education enhances the chances of creating a good situation in life (Boelhouwer 2013).

The average education level of the Dutch population increases every year. However the inequality between highly and less well educated people is great. Just one of all the indicators we looked at in this section shows no difference: highly and less well-educated people are equally satisfied about their homes.

### 3.14.5 Inequality dashboard: Education

Theme	Indicator	Unit	Most recent			Earlier reference period		
			year	low education level	high education level	year	low education level	high education level
Well-being	Satisfied with life	<b>average score out of 10</b>	2012/'13	7.7	8.0	2002	7.6	7.9
Prosperity	Income inequality	<b>standardized yearly income (euro)</b>	2009	22,500	31,700	2005	19,800	27,000
Institutions	Trust in institutions	<b>% sufficient trust</b>	2012	50	75	2004	43	63
Security	Feeling unsafe	<b>% unsafe</b>	2013	32.0	44.5	2012	32.5	43.1
Soc. env./leisure	Volunteer work	<b>% participation</b>	2013	40	60	2012	41	62
Livelihood	Long-term unemployment	<b>% in labour force</b>	2013	6.6	2.7	2001	2.5	1.0
Health	Healthy life expectancy	<b>years (females)</b>	2012 <sup>1)</sup>	59.7	72.1	2000 <sup>2)</sup>	58.3	70.8
Education	Level of education	<b>% with starter qualification</b>	n/a					
Housing	Satisfied with housing	<b>score out of 10</b>	2012/'13	8.2	8.2	2002	7.9	8.0
Citizenship	Generalised trust	<b>% sufficient trust</b>	2012	54	78	2002	50	70

<sup>1)</sup> Average 2009/2012.

<sup>2)</sup> Average 1997/2000.

The differences among the other indicators are substantial. Trust is over 20 percentage points lower among less educated people than among the highly educated. This applies to trusting other people as well as trusting institutions. Also the percentage of people involved in volunteer work is much lower among the less educated than among the highly educated. The share of long-term unemployment among less educated people is much higher than among the highly educated. This difference has increased as a result of the crisis. In the period 2001–2013 unemployment among the highly educated increased from 1.0 to 2.5 percent, while it rose from 2.7 to 6.6 percent among the less educated. The difference in healthy life expectancy is also substantial: less educated people live a whopping 14 years less in good health than the highly educated, and the gap is increasing. If we consider all the differences we described here, the difference in satisfaction with life is actually rather modest.

#### Inequality by ethnic origin

The education level is also increasing among people of non-western origin: the youngest generations are more highly educated than the earlier generations. Yet they are lagging behind native Dutch people in education, although the differences

are gradually diminishing. People with a non-western background lag behind the most. This difference has its influences in other areas of life, as we described earlier. One example of this is long-term unemployment. The percentage of long-term unemployed people with a non-western background has been over three times higher than among native Dutch people for some time. There has been an increase in the income gap. The standardised household income (taking the household composition into account) is 7,000 euros a year lower for people with a non-western background than for native Dutch people; in the year 2000 this was 5,000 euros.

### 3.14.6 Inequality dashboard: Ethnicity

Theme	Indicator	Unit	Most recent			Earlier reference period		
			year	non-western background	Dutch background	year	non-western background	Dutch background
Well-being	Satisfied with life	<b>average score out of 10</b>	2012/'13	7.1	7.9	2002	7.4	7.6
Prosperity	Income inequality	<b>standardized yearly income (euro)</b>	2012	18,400	25,400	2000	13,300	18,500
Institutions	Trust in institutions	<b>% sufficient trust</b>	2012	60	61	2004	47	51
Security	Feeling unsafe	<b>% unsafe</b>	2013	44	37.7	2012	44.9	37.3
Soc. env./leisure	Volunteer work	<b>% participation</b>	2013	36	52	2012	41	53
Livelihood	Long-term unemployment	<b>% of the labour force</b>	2013	7.6	2.2	2001	2.8	0.8
Health	Healthy life expectancy	<b>years (females)</b>		n/a	n/a		n/a	n/a
Education	Level of education	<b>% with starter qualification</b>	2012	58	71	2001	43	63
Housing	Satisfied with housing	<b>score out of 10</b>	2012/'13	7.7	8.3		n/a	n/a
Citizenship	Generalised trust	<b>% sufficient trust</b>	2012	47	67	2002	51	64

In terms of feeling safe and of trust, the differences between people with a non-western background and native Dutch people have been rather stable over time. The differences are rather small when it comes to feeling safe and trust in institutions. The difference in trusting other people (generalised trust) is greater. Slightly less than half the people with a non-western background trust other people, compared to two thirds of native Dutch people. The trust among native Dutch people has remarkably increased in the period 2002–2012, from 64 to 67 percent whereas that share among people with a non-western background fell from 51 to 47 percent.

#### Inequality by age

The largest difference between older and young people is their level of education. Older people are significantly less well educated than young people. We have already indicated earlier that differences in education level influence many other aspects of life.

### 3.14.7 Inequality dashboard: Age

Theme	Indicator	Unit	Most recent			Earlier reference period		
			year	25-35 yrs	65 and older	year	25-35 yrs	65 and older
Well-being	Satisfied with life	<b>average score out of 10</b>	2012/'13	8.0	8.0	2002	7.7	7.8
Prosperity	Income inequality	<b>standardized yearly income (euro)</b>	2012	23,400	23,600	2000	17,700	16,800
Institutions	Trust in institutions	<b>% sufficient trust</b>	2012	62	60	2004	54	51
Security	Feeling unsafe	<b>% unsafe</b>	2013	46.2	28.9	2012	46.2	28.5
Soc. env./leisure	Volunteer work	<b>% taking part</b>	2013	47	43	2012	46	47
Livelihood	Long-term unemployment	<b>% in labour force</b>	2013	2.2	n/a	2001	0.6	n/a
Health	Healthy life expectancy	<b>years (females)</b>		n/a	n/a		n/a	n/a
Education	Level of education	<b>% with starter qualification</b>	2012	83	46	2001	75	37
Housing	Satisfied with housing	<b>score out of 10</b>	2012/'13	7.8	8.4	2002	7.6	8.2
Citizenship	Generalised trust	<b>% sufficient trust</b>	2012	62	66	2002	51	55

The difference in education level has little effect on the differences between age groups though. The differences between young and older people are generally smaller than the ones we described earlier, and fairly stable. It is striking that the standardised household income for older people is about the same as for young people: despite the fact that many older people are no longer working, their income is just as high as that of young people (most students are not included due to the age selection).

In contrast to what people usually think, older people tend to feel safer than young people. This probably has to do with the activity patterns of young people: they come in more places where crimes take place than older people do.

4.

# Green growth

**Green growth is high on the national and international agenda. In this chapter we present an outline of the key indicators selected by policymakers for monitoring Dutch green growth policy. In section 4.1 we discuss the national and international context for measuring green growth. In section 4.2 we discuss the scores of the key indicators of the green growth policies. In sections 4.3, 4.4 and 4.5 we describe the indicators for environmental pressure due to Dutch production activities, the footprint indicators and the indicators for the environment in more detail. We explain the differences between the key indicators and the monitoring according to the OECD framework in a text box.**

## 4.1 Introduction

Politicians and policymakers have been paying more attention to green growth for a while. Green growth means stimulating economic growth while reducing pollution, using raw materials more efficiently and safeguarding natural resources levels. Investments, competition and innovation in greener technologies provide new economic opportunities (OECD, 2011a). It is important that growth remains within certain limits and that no critical boundaries are exceeded, such as the concentration of greenhouse gases in the atmosphere, water extraction and loss in biodiversity (Röckström, 2009). Green economy was one of the central themes at the Rio+20 sustainability summit. International initiatives to create a green growth strategy were made by the OECD (*green growth strategy*), the European Commission (*Resource Efficient Europe*) and the UN (*green economy initiative*) (EC, 2011; OECD, 2011b; UNEP, 2011).

The OECD measurement framework describes the interactions between the economy (production and consumption activities) and the environment (natural capital). Various indicators have been agreed within this framework, divided into four themes:

1. Environmental and raw material resource efficiency;
2. Natural resources (natural capital);
3. Environmental quality of life;
4. Green policy instruments and economic opportunities.

Statistics Netherlands monitors green growth for the Netherlands according to this internationally agreed measuring framework (see Statistics Netherlands, 2011; Statistics Netherlands, 2013).

In this chapter we discuss green growth in the Netherlands on the basis of the key indicators devised for Dutch growth policy by the policymakers, which are also found in the OECD measuring framework. In a separate text box we explain the relationship between the key indicators and the indicators of the OECD measuring framework, while all results of the indicators according to the OECD measuring framework can be found in Annex 1.

### **Key indicators for Dutch green growth policy**

The 'green growth' ambition of the current government is to strengthen the Dutch economy while reducing the environmental burden and the dependency on fossil energy. The government aims to realise economic growth with the more sustainable use of energy, resources, materials and water while reducing environmentally damaging emissions into water, air and soil.

To observe the relationship between the economy (value added, production and consumption) and the environment, we present several key indicators<sup>1)</sup> selected by policymakers to monitor Dutch green growth policy. These selected indicators are in line with the ambition of the government policy and show the relationship between environmental pressure and the economy. They are also in line with the way the OECD measures green growth in its '*green growth strategy*'. We explain the conceptual measuring framework of the OECD in the methodological and statistical annex. We opted for a smaller set than the OECD set in order to communicate more easily namely through a limited set of key indicators. These include:

1. **Environmental and resource efficiency indicators (decoupling indicators):** indicators describing the relationship between the environment and the economy with regard to Dutch production activities, namely greenhouse gas emissions, nutrient surpluses, energy use, water and material use in relation to GDP;
2. **Footprint indicators:** indicators describing the relationship between domestic consumption and environmental pressures (footprint), namely the carbon footprint, raw material footprint and the biodiversity footprint; so this involves the environmental burden in the Netherlands and abroad (imports);
3. **General environmental indicators:** air quality and biodiversity.
4. **Economic indicators:** green growth aims to make economic as well as environmental progress. Employment, innovation and investments play a key role in this.

<sup>1)</sup> They were defined by the interdepartmental working group for monitoring green growth.

## 4.2 Key indicators of Dutch green growth policy

Table 4.2.1 shows the key indicators for Dutch green growth policy. These highlight the trend for the Netherlands after 2001 as well as after 2008, the last year before the economic crisis. In this section we describe the key indicators in their macro-economic context of gross domestic product (GDP), consumer spending, employment, investments and patents. There is a detailed description of the indicators in sections 4.3 to 4.5.

### 4.2.1 Key indicators of Dutch green growth policies

Theme/indicator	Trend since 2001	Trend since 2008	Position of NL in the EU
<b>Economy</b>			
GDP	green	red	green
Expenditures households	yellow	red	green
Employment	yellow	red	green
Gross fixed capital formation	red	red	red
Patents	green	red	yellow
<b>Environmental and resource efficiency indicators</b>			
Production-based GHG emissions	green	green	yellow
Nutrient surpluses	green	green	red
Net domestic energy use	yellow	green	yellow
Groundwater abstraction	green	red	green
Domestic biomass consumption	green	red	green
Domestic mineral consumption	green	green	yellow
Domestic metal consumption	green	green	yellow
<b>Footprint indicators</b>			
Carbon footprint	yellow	green	red
Water footprint	grey	grey	grey
Raw material footprint	grey	red	grey
Biodiversity footprint	green	yellow	grey
<b>General environmental indicators</b>			
Urban exposure to particulates	green	green	yellow
Farmland birds	red	red	yellow
Red List Indicator	yellow	green	yellow

- trend with a negative effect on sustainability, or low international ranking
- neutral or unknown effect of trend on sustainability, or medium/constant international position
- trend with a positive effect on sustainability, or high international position
- no data available for international comparison

The Dutch economy grew by 12 percent between 2001 and 2013. However, growth only took place between 2001 and 2008. The economy contracted as a result of the financial and economic crises. Nearly all **environmental and resource efficiency indicators** show a decrease in emissions and the use of raw materials by Dutch production activities. This means that there is absolute decoupling between environmental pressure and economic growth. Remarkably this is the case in the period from 2001 as well as from 2008 onwards. The use of biomass in the period since 2008 has decreased less than the level of GDP. Groundwater use even increased in the absolute sense. The economic downturn seems to have had little effect on the environmental efficiency of the production processes. However, if we look in more detail at greenhouse gas emissions it turns out that the emission intensity is no longer decreasing (see section 4.3). These indicators of Netherlands score somewhere in the middle of the European ranking.

Consumer spending by households in 2013 was at about the same level as in 2001. So the increase that took place between 2001 and 2008 has been cancelled out by the economic crisis. The decrease in disposable income and the problems at the housing market have scared consumers away from spending on the more expensive items. The **consumption related footprint indicators** are mixed. The carbon footprint has not increased since 2001, but the footprint for using raw materials has increased since 2008.

The **indicators for environment and biodiversity** are also mixed. Air quality has improved whereas biodiversity in the Netherlands is still under pressure.

**Employment** has not increased as fast as GDP since 2001. Employment had risen by 5 percent until 2008, but it has fallen by 3 percent since then. In 2013 the labour market situation deteriorated even further, with the number of full-time jobs falling by a whopping 112 thousand. This dip is worse than in previous years. The care sector, which had been driving job growth for years, no longer seems to be playing this role. Employment in the environmental sector stands at 130 thousand FTE or 1.8 percent of total employment. Employment has increased in the environmental sector since 2001, namely by 10 percent.

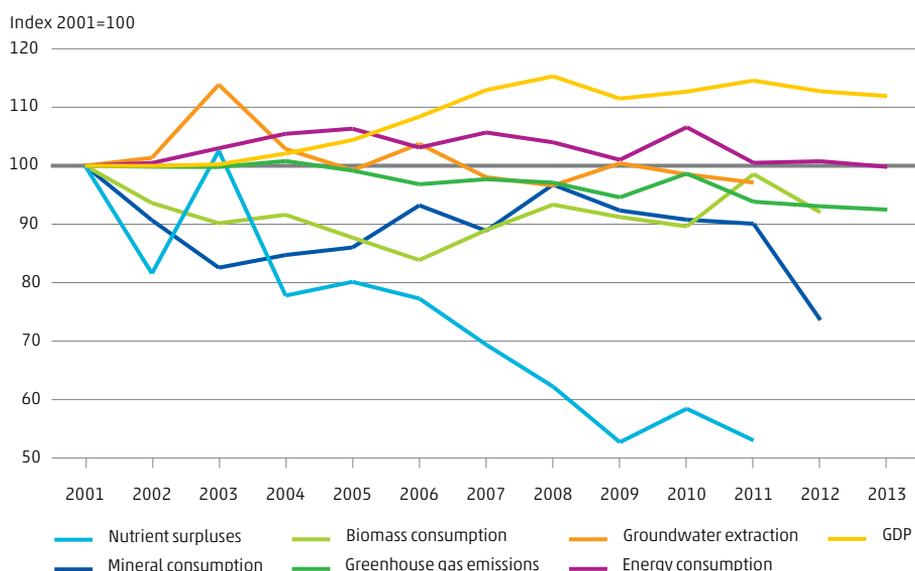
**Gross fixed capital formation** is fluctuating wildly. After a dip between 2001 and 2004 investments had flourished, but since 2008 the investments have dropped sharply due to the economic crisis. The problems in real estate in particular have led to a much sharper decrease in investments in the Netherlands than elsewhere. People also invested far less in means of transport and in machinery, equipment and installations than in 2008. In 2013 investments in fixed assets shrank by 4.0 percent, which is less than in 2012. The share of environmental investments is higher than in 2001, but there has been a downward trend in recent years.

There was an increase in the number of **patent applications** (indicator for innovation) between 2001 and 2007, but in 2008 and 2009 the number of applications fell. The Dutch patent position is highly dependent on several major parties. Therefore the decisions made by these enterprises greatly affects the total figure. A report from the Agentschap NL (RVO) shows that the decrease in the number of patents is related to business patent strategies (only ask for patents in some areas) or withdrawing from patent-intensive markets (Agentschap NL, 2013). The share and the absolute number of green patents has risen significantly since 2001. The Netherlands also has a large share of green patents from an international perspective as well.

## 4.3 Environmental and resource efficiency indicators

The environmental and resource efficiency indicators relate the emissions of harmful substances or the use of raw materials by production activities to GDP developments. A major aim of the green growth policies is to decrease the environmental burden while the economy grows, which is called absolute decoupling.

### 4.3.1 GDP and environmental pressure indicators



## **Greenhouse gases**

Greenhouse gas emissions by Dutch production activities have fallen by 8 percent since 2001 while GDP increased. So there is absolute decoupling of the greenhouse gas emissions in the Dutch economy. There has also been absolute decoupling in comparison with 2008 as greenhouse gas emissions fell by more than the economy contracted. The total greenhouse gas emissions by production activities has been falling since 2004, which is mainly due to the energy savings, greater electricity imports and the financial and the economic crises that caused these production activities to diminish. Greenhouse gas emissions fell in nearly all sectors of the economy, whereas value added in constant prices rose. In 2013 greenhouse gas emissions stayed practically the same as in 2012.

## **Nutrient surpluses**

Agricultural activities are responsible for the large nutrient emissions to the soil. The nutrient surpluses to the soil has fallen sharply in recent years. Despite further growth in agricultural production, the surplus of nitrogen and phosphorus have decreased substantially: nitrogen by 33 percent and phosphorus by 62 percent. The intensive stock breeding is the main cause of the nitrogen and phosphorus surplus in the Netherlands. Thanks to effective government measures such as the introduction of various levies and lower nutrient levels in animal feed, there has been a decrease in the nutrient surplus. Although the trend is positive – absolute decoupling – the surplus is still too high to meet the policy targets.<sup>2)</sup>

## **Energy**

Net domestic energy consumption by Dutch production activities is at almost the same level as in 2001. So there is no absolute decoupling yet between energy consumption and economic growth. However, total energy consumption has fallen faster than the economic contraction since 2008. Companies in the make industries have improved their energy management, optimised their production processes and applied more energy saving technologies. In horticulture energy efficiency has improved through the use of cogeneration installations. In 2013 energy consumption by producers fell by 1 percent. Particularly construction, energy supply and manufacturing have started to use less energy.

<sup>2)</sup> <http://www.compendiumvoordeleefomgeving.nl/indicatoren/nl0096-Stikstof--en-fosforoverschotten-in-de-landbouw.html?i=3-17>.

## **Water**

Although fresh water in itself is not scarce in the Netherlands, groundwater supplies are under pressure. This is caused by competing uses, particularly during long hot, dry spells, but also because the quality of groundwater is under pressure. Fresh groundwater extraction in 2011 was about 3 percent lower than in 2001. Manufacturing cut back its groundwater extraction by 20 percent. Water supply companies lowered their extraction by 5 percent. Groundwater use by agriculture depends greatly on the weather conditions. These caused the high extraction levels in 2003 and 2006 and also in recent years. Arable production and stock breeding have the highest water use intensity, followed by the producers of paper and paper products, the basic metal industry and the production of food, drinks and tobacco.

## **Materials**

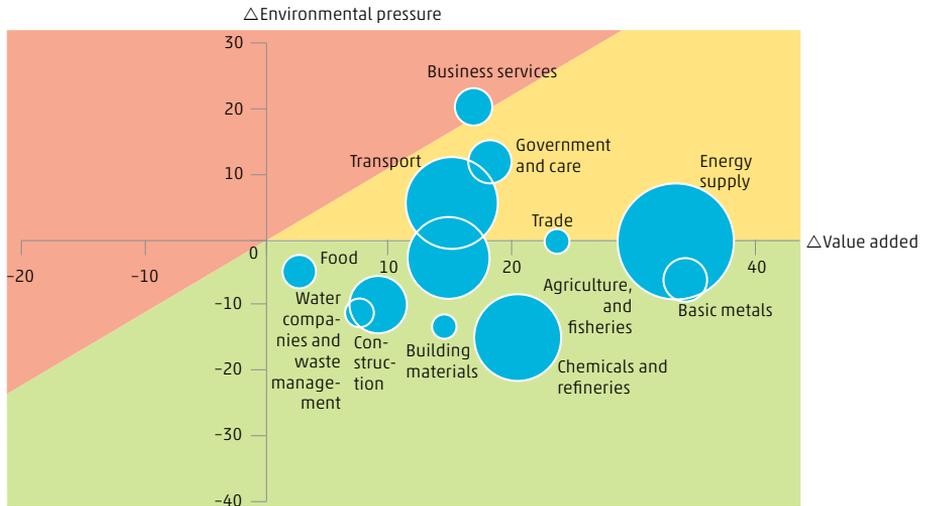
The use of materials, biomass, minerals and metals, was lower in 2012 than in 2001.<sup>3)</sup> So there has been absolute decoupling between direct use of materials and economic growth. In 2012 the use of materials fell sharply on 2011 as fewer materials were needed due to the economic crisis. The use of mineral raw materials was particularly low. The use of mineral raw material indicator does not include filling sand, whereas enormous amounts of filling sand were recently used in the construction of the Tweede Maasvlakte.

## **Relationship of the environmental burden and the economy at the sector level**

The relationship of the environmental burden on the economy has been studied at the sector level for greenhouse gas emissions. Figure 4.2.2 shows the percentage changes for value added (x-axis) and greenhouse gas emissions (y-axis) for 2001–2008. The size of the circle is the absolute environmental burden, in this case the volume of greenhouse gas emissions in 2008. Most sectors lowered their greenhouse gas emissions during this period, while value added increased. Green growth took place, and is shown in the lower right-hand green area. The same is true for most emission-intensive sectors. For example, value added of the chemical and oil processing industries rose by more than 21 percent while greenhouse gas emissions fell by 15 percent. The same goes for energy supply companies, agriculture and the basic metal industry. The environmental burden only increased in a few sectors, such as transport, government and care, but not as much as value added did. So here we see relative decoupling. These sectors are located in the yellow area. Only business services saw its greenhouse gas emissions grow faster than its value added. This sector is in the red area, and so there is no green growth.

<sup>3)</sup> This is not represented in figure 4.2.1 in order to keep the graph tidy.

### 4.3.2 Changes in greenhouse gas emissions and value added of industries, 2001-2008 <sup>1)</sup>

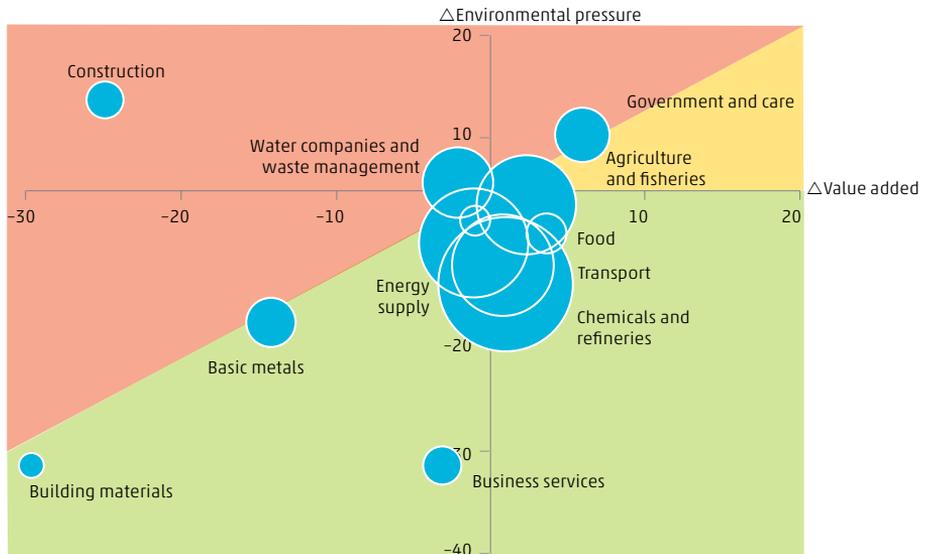


<sup>1)</sup> The size of the circle represents absolute greenhouse gas emissions. Red: no green growth, yellow: relative decoupling, green: absolute decoupling (green growth).



The value added has decreased or remained the about same during 2008-2013 for most sectors. The greenhouse gas emissions are decreasing faster for the large emission intensive industries (the chemical and oil processing industries, energy and agriculture). Construction, water supply and waste treatment, government and care and basic metals no longer exhibited any green growth for the period 2008-2013 and have landed in the red area. So the downturn in economic growth reduces the greenhouse gas emissions and this comes with improved environmental efficiency for the most emission-intensive sectors. But for the economy as a whole environmental efficiency has been stagnating since 2008.

### 4.3.3 Changes in greenhouse gas emissions and value added of industries, 2008-2013<sup>1)</sup>



<sup>1)</sup> The size of the circle represents absolute greenhouse gas emissions. Red: no green growth, yellow: relative decoupling, green: absolute decoupling (green growth).



## 4.4 Footprint indicators

A footprint indicator relates national consumption to the environmental burden it created in the entire world by looking at the environmental burden in the production chains. This means that the environmental burden caused outside the national boundaries for the production of imported goods and services for the Netherlands is taken into account, while leaving out the environmental burden caused within the Netherlands for the production of exported goods and services. In recent years various footprint indicators have been developed that are vital for sustainability policies. We discuss three of these below.<sup>4)</sup> Footprint indicators are calculated by using models. The outcomes for the footprint calculations are highly dependent on the model used (see for example Hoekstra et al. 2014). Statistics Netherlands and the Netherlands Environmental Assessment Agency are still trying to improve the models and the underlying data.

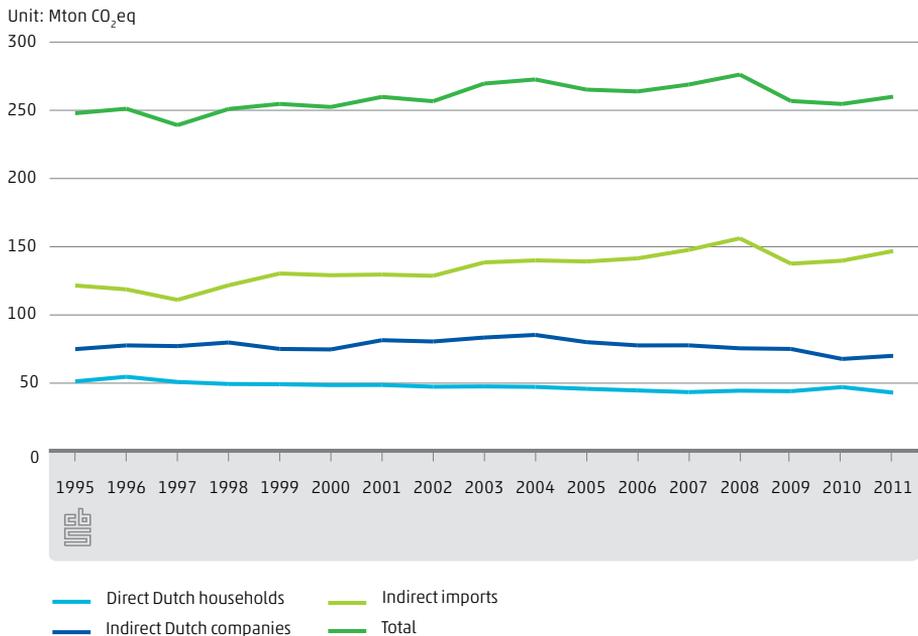
<sup>4)</sup> There is no time series available yet for the Dutch water footprint, so we cannot discuss this issue any further here.

## Carbon footprint

The carbon footprint measures the greenhouse gas emissions of carbon dioxide, methane and nitrous oxide that result from Dutch consumption.<sup>5)</sup> The direct greenhouse gas emissions caused by production activities, as presented in the previous section, consist of emissions by companies, for instance as a result of the use of fossil fuels in the make industries, the production of electricity, heating buildings, and transport. The indirect emissions consist of emissions that occur in the chain, part of which takes place in the Netherlands and part of which takes place abroad (imports).

The Dutch carbon footprint initially rose after 1995, with peaks in 2004 and 2008. But there seems to have been a shift in recent years which is probably caused by the slowdown of economic growth and consumption. Direct emissions by households clearly show a downward trend whereas import emissions clearly show an upward trend. In 2011 the Dutch footprint was about 15.4 ton CO<sub>2</sub> equivalents per capita. This is a lot lower than the footprint of Australia and the United States, but a lot higher than the global average.

### 4.4.1 Dutch carbon footprint



<sup>5)</sup> Sometimes the term carbon footprint is used for analyses involving carbon only.

## **Biodiversity footprint**

The biodiversity footprint shows the loss in global biodiversity resulting from Dutch consumption (including the required imports). The loss of biodiversity resulting from Dutch consumption has been decreasing since 2000 (see figure 3.4.3 in section 3.4). This decrease can mainly be attributed to the higher yield per hectare in agriculture, so that less land is required for food production. Although food consumption increased, the improved productivity led to less pressure on biodiversity. Between 2005 and 2010 the biodiversity footprint remained more or less constant, which had several causes. Less wood was used due to the economic crisis. The obligatory blending of biofuels for traffic led to increased land use for agricultural products, which led to a loss of biodiversity.

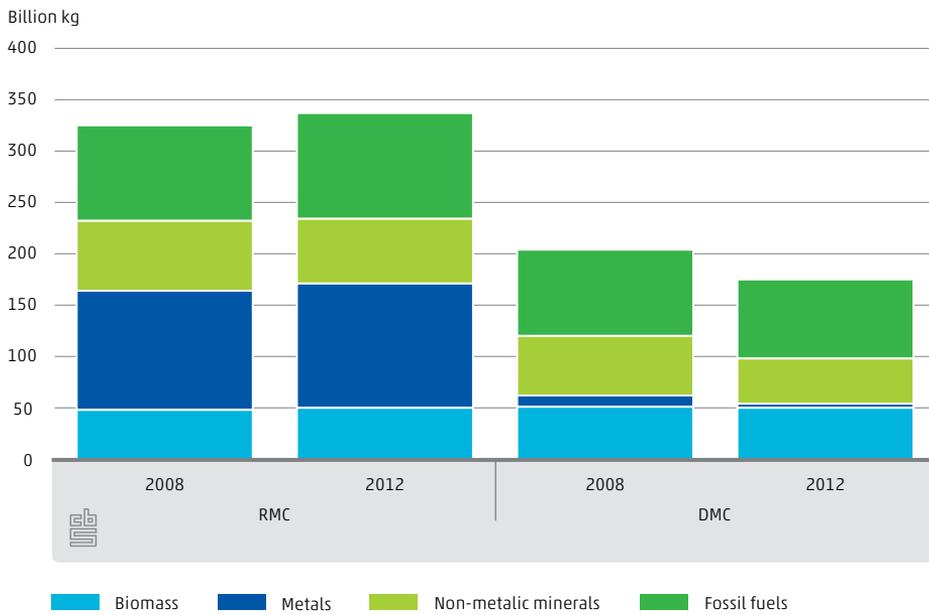
Changes in land use, such as changing nature areas, cause a direct loss of biodiversity. Also greenhouse gas emissions led to a loss of biodiversity resulting from climate changes. As this loss will only occur in the long term, it has not been included in the figure.

Major uncertainties in the biodiversity footprint are the result of a lack of good or recent data about the use of primary biomass as co-fuels in energy plants, the imports of ready-made wood products such as furniture and packaging, and about the import and export flows of semi-manufactured goods and final products from arable products. The monitoring of these categories has to be improved.

## **Raw material footprint**

The raw material footprint (or *raw material consumption* – RMC) indicates the volume of raw materials used in the world to make the products consumed in the Netherlands. The raw material footprint increased by about 4 percent between 2008 and 2012. The direct use of materials (or *domestic material consumption* – DMC) in the Netherlands, without considering the raw materials used in the production chain, fell sharply though. This is mainly because the physical trade balance has become less negative: as we cut down on the import of minerals and metals. The reason why the raw material footprint increased is that more kilograms of raw materials are required for one kilogram of imported product. This indicates a shift to where raw material intensive products are increasingly manufactured abroad.

#### 4.4.2 Raw materials footprint (RMC) versus direct domestic material consumption (DMC)



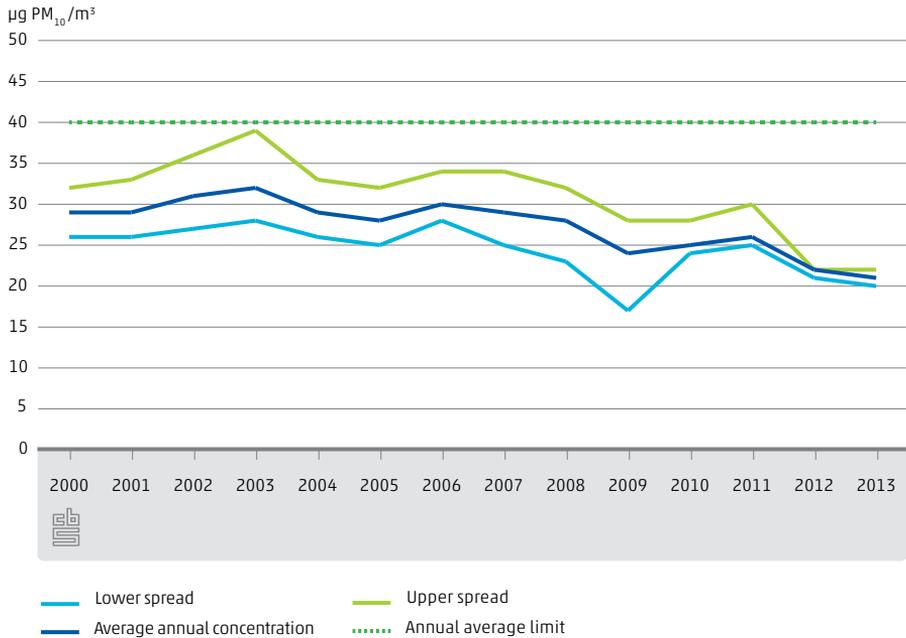
## 4.5 Indicators for the environment and biodiversity

The key indicators for the environment address two major themes, namely the developments of the local air quality and the biodiversity in the Netherlands.

### Air quality: Particulate matter (PM<sub>10</sub>)

In 2013 the European norms for particulate matter (PM<sub>10</sub>) were not exceeded in most of the measurement locations. According to model calculations, limits are exceeded locally, particularly the daily average limits (exceeding the daily average of 50 µg/m<sup>3</sup> for a maximum of 35 days a year) in areas with much bio industry. The recommended WHO threshold for particulate matter is lower than the current legal limits of the Netherlands.

### 4.5.1 Urban exposure to particulates (PM<sub>10</sub>)



Some 30 percent of the particulate matter concentration in the Netherlands is caused by foreign sources. Agriculture and traffic are the primary Dutch sources contributing to the Dutch part of the particulate matter concentrations. Urban agglomerations have a higher share of traffic and low sources such as open fires in fireplaces. The main foreign contributions come from manufacturing, energy production, traffic and refineries. From the North Sea there is the contribution from shipping in the Dutch part of the Continental Shelf. On average 75–80 percent of the constituent parts of particulate matter in the Netherlands is of anthropogenic origin. The rest is of natural origin: sea salt and soil dust blowing in the wind.

#### **Biodiversity: Red list indicator and changes in meadow birds**

Changes in land use and climate often have a negative effect on the size and spread of populations. Many policies were implemented in recent years to alleviate the environmental burden and improve the situation for all species occurring in the Netherlands, especially the most threatened species. These policy measures concern the reduction of environmentally harmful substances, increasing nature areas, and preventing over-fertilising and desiccation. The Netherlands has signed international agreements pledging to stop domestic species from becoming extinct. The length of the Red Lists of endangered species is a simple measure for the development of biodiversity.

Since 1950 the percentage of non-endangered species has diminished sharply from 100 to about 60 percent (see the previous chapter, section 3.4). By definition the assumption is that species were not threatened in 1950. This means that some 40 percent of the plant and animal species studied are currently under threat or liable to be so. After 2005 a slight improvement occurred for the first time in the share of non-endangered species. The study includes 7 main types of species: mammals (55 species), breeding birds (n=178), reptiles (n=7), amphibians (n=16), butterflies (n=71), dragonflies (n=65) and higher plant species (n=1,425). The number of species on the Red List are calculated every year. The most improved species since 1995 are mammals and dragonflies while amphibians and butterflies have deteriorated most.

As far as the total number of mammals, birds, reptiles, amphibians and fish threatened with extinction worldwide is concerned, the Netherlands ranks in the middle within the rest of Europe. The number of endangered species threatened with extinction per country worldwide depends on the wealth of species that country has.

The developments of farmland birds still show a downward trend (see the previous chapter, section 3.4). This development takes place all over Europe. The primary causes of deterioration of the birds on farmland are the intensive use of built-up land and grass land, the changes in crop choices, the increased scale in agriculture which have led to the disappearance of small landscape elements such as wooded banks and small unused bits of land. Another factor is the use of breeding habitat due to the expansion of towns and infrastructure and their intensive use. The measures taken in recent years have not been enough to prevent deterioration.

---

## Green growth monitoring according to the OECD measurement framework versus key indicators of the Dutch green growth policy

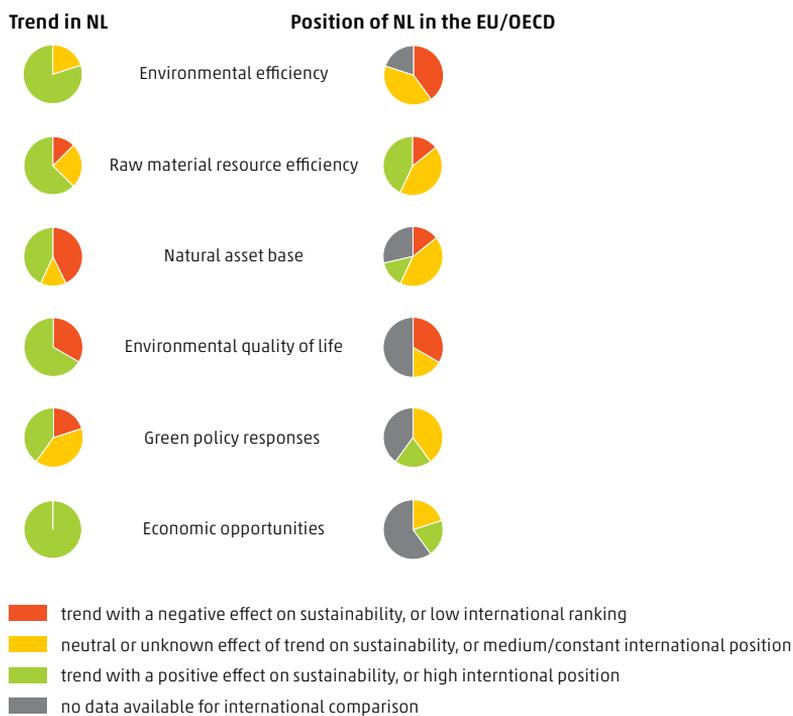
Statistics Netherlands has monitored green growth according to the internationally agreed OECD measurement framework since 2011. All indicator scores according to the OECD framework are shown in figure 4.<sup>1)</sup> Key indicators for Dutch green growth policy are derived from this framework. For example, the indicators for environmental pressure for production activities can be found in the OECD measurement framework under the theme environment and raw material efficiency. The key indicators were selected because of their relevance for current policies, but they do not describe all aspects in the internationally agreed framework on green growth. The OECD measurement framework includes various aspects of greening of the economy, such as natural resources, environmental quality of life, policy instruments and economic opportunities, aspects that are addressed to a lesser degree in the key indicators of the green growth policies. This causes a difference in the view sketched by the policy relevant key indicators described in Table 4.2.1 and the view presented based on the OECD framework, which is that the key indicators show a more positive picture.

The key indicators for green growth policies focus on indicators for the environmental and raw material resource efficiency. These indicators from the OECD framework show primarily positive trends in the Netherlands, just like the key indicators do. However things are slightly less positive than among the key indicators for the Dutch green growth policies, where six of the seven indicators are green. Internationally speaking the Netherlands scores somewhere in the middle.

Although environmental efficiency and raw material resource efficiency are on the increase, this does not mean that the economic growth is not harmful to the environment in the Netherlands or that the natural resources are used sustainably. The group of indicators for natural resources from the OECD framework shows a rather negative picture. The trend in the Netherlands shows that the natural resources are further eroded, as is the natural capacity to carry the burden. Internationally, the indicators of Netherlands score below average on this issue, mainly because of its geographical features and high population density. The indicators for environmental quality of life produce a mixed picture. This theme encompasses the direct influence of emissions to air, water and soil on the quality of life and people's perception. The urban exposure to particulate matter shows improvement, but few bodies of water meet the quality standards

of the European Water Framework Directive. The policy relevant key indicators provide a less varied picture, because three indicators address the issue.

#### 4 Summary table green growth in the Netherlands



The other themes of the OECD framework, green policy instruments and economic opportunities are not expressed in the key indicators for green growth policy. This involves the aspects described below. The indicators for green policy instruments, which show a mixed picture in which the share of environmental taxes in total tax revenues has decreased in recent years. The share of environmental subsidies in total government spending has been constant since 2005. Environmental costs as a share of GDP have been falling in recent years. Although the trend of green policy instruments has stabilised or fallen, the Netherlands has a very high score for these indicators internationally. All indicators show that the economic opportunities originating from green growth are increasing. The share and the absolute number of green patents has risen significantly since 2001. Furthermore the share of the environmental sector in value added and employment is steadily improving.

<sup>1)</sup> The results are described in some detail in appendix 1, the methodological framework is described in the annex.

## Annex 1 Green growth according to the OECD framework

All indicator scores according to the OECD framework are shown in the figure inside the text box above. Each indicator is scored with regards to the trend of the indicator in the Netherlands. This is indicated on the left-hand side of the figure. Overall the Dutch economy has become greener since 2001. However, this is a gradual development and does not pertain to all aspects of green growth. The Netherlands mostly has average international scores, see the right-hand side of the figure.

So the Dutch economy exerts less direct pressure on the environment than in 2001. Nearly all indicators for **environmental efficiency** for emissions and waste score green. This means that the environmental burden is diminishing in the absolute sense while the economy grows. For example, the emissions of greenhouse gases and the emissions to water of heavy metals have fallen since 2001. Thanks to a wide variety of environmental measures, the environmental efficiency of production processes has gained ground. But despite significant improvements in environmental efficiency, the international position of the Netherlands is still average at best compared to other EU and OECD countries. The nutrient surpluses through agricultural activities in the Netherlands are still the highest in Europe. Greenhouse gas emissions caused by consumption activities (carbon footprint) have remained about the same, in stark contrast with the decrease in greenhouse gas emissions due to Dutch production activities. The carbon footprint of the Netherlands is very high compared to other EU countries. Among other things this is caused by the high consumption level in the Netherlands and by the fact that the energy used in the Netherlands is mainly generated using fossil energy.

Most indicators for the **efficient use of raw material resources** indicate that Dutch companies use fewer raw materials and less material to create the same value added. The absolute level for metal, biomass and mineral raw materials required has fallen (absolute decoupling). Energy consumption for production activities is about the same as in 2001. Internationally the Netherlands has an average score on the efficient use of materials and energy. The raw material resource footprint increased between 2008 and 2012, so although less material is used in the Dutch economy, more raw materials are used abroad. The percentage of renewable energy is increasing, but it is very low compared to other countries.

Although environmental efficiency and raw material resource efficiency are on the increase, this does not mean that the economic growth is not harmful to the environment in the Netherlands and that natural resources are used sustainably.

The group of indicators for **natural capital** (natural asset base) show a rather negative picture. This is mainly due to the deterioration of biodiversity (index of farmland birds) and the high conversion rate of green areas into built-up areas, and to the depletion of energy reserves. The 'Red List' indicator has been showing a slight improvement in the share on non-threatened species for the first time since 2005. There is improvement in the stocks of wood and the quality of the fish stocks in the North Sea, although the fish stocks are still close to danger levels. The Netherlands scores somewhere in the middle of the European ranking for this theme. The indicators of Netherlands score above average internationally in developments in the stock of standing timber, but below average for converting land into built-up areas.

The indicators for **environmental quality of life** produce a mixed picture. This theme encompasses the direct influence of emissions to air, water and soil on the quality of life and the degree of perception. The urban exposure to particulate matter shows improvement, but few bodies of water meet the quality standards of the European Water Framework Directive. There has been some improvement in the biological water quality between 2009 and 2012, but the chemical quality has deteriorated. Although the indicators for environmental quality of life and natural resources score average or negatively, the indicators for perception and willingness to pay for the environment have nosedived. In 2012 just 40 percent of all respondents felt that the environment was strongly polluted and just 24 percent was willing to pay more for the environment.

The indicators for **green policy instruments** produce a mixed picture as well. The share of environmental taxes in total tax revenues has been falling in recent years, while the share of environmental subsidies in total government spending has been constant since 2005. Environmental costs as a share of GDP have been falling in the past few years, which means that less is spent on environmental protection. Although the trend of green policy instruments has stabilised or fallen in recent years, the Netherlands has a very high score for these indicators internationally. For instance, the Netherlands has one of the highest shares of environmental taxes and a high implicit energy tax rate.

All indicators show that the **economic opportunities** originating from green growth are increasing. The share and the absolute number of green patents have risen significantly since 2001. Seen from an international perspective, the

Netherlands has a large share of green patents as well. Furthermore the share of the environmental sector in value added and employment is steadily increasing. Employment in the sustainable energy sector (part of the environmental sector) has risen by 23 percent since 2001 whereas employment for the Netherlands as a whole rose by just 2 percent. The share of environmental investments is higher than in 2001, although there has been a downward trend since 2007.

## Scores of the green growth indicators according to the OECD framework

Theme/indicator	Trend since 2001	Position of NL in the EU/OECD
<b>Environmental efficiency</b>		
Production-based GHG emissions	green	yellow
Carbon footprint	yellow	red
Emissions to water, heavy metals	green	grey
Nutrient surpluses	green	red
Waste generation	green	yellow
<b>Raw material resource efficiency</b>		
Net domestic energy use	yellow	yellow
Renewable energy	green	red
Groundwater abstraction	green	green
Water footprint	grey	grey
Domestic metal consumption	green	yellow
Domestic mineral consumption	green	yellow
Domestic biomass consumption	green	green
Resource footprint	red	grey
Waste recycling	yellow	green
<b>Natural asset base</b>		
Stocks of standing timber	green	green
Stocks of fish	green	grey
Energy reserves	red	yellow
Farmland birds	red	yellow
Red List Indicator	yellow	yellow
Biodiversity footprint	green	grey
Land conversion into built-up land	red	red
<b>Environmental quality of life</b>		
Urban exposure to particulates	green	yellow
Chemical quality of surface water	red	red
Biological quality of surface water	green	red
Nitrate in groundwater	green	grey
Level of concern	green	grey
Willingness to pay	red	grey

## Scores of the green growth indicators according to the OECD framework (end)

Theme/indicator	Trend since 2001	Position of NL in the EU/OECD
<b>Green policy responses</b>		
Environmental taxes	red	green
Implicit tax rate for energy	green	yellow
Environmental subsidies and transfers	yellow	grey
Mitigation expenditure by government	green	grey
Environmental protection expenditure	yellow	yellow
<b>Economic opportunities</b>		
Green patents	green	green
Environmental investments	green	yellow
Employment sustainable energy sector	green	grey
Employment (EGSS)	green	grey
Value added (EGSS)	green	grey

- trend with a negative effect on sustainability, or low international ranking.
- neutral or unknown effect of trend on sustainability, or medium/constant international position.
- trend with a positive effect on sustainability, or high international position.
- no data available for international comparison.

**Annex**

**Methodological  
and Statistical  
Explanation**

In chapters 2 and 3 we presented the main and sub-indicators of the Sustainability Monitor of the Netherlands 2014 in several charts and tables. In chapter 4 we introduced the green growth indicators. The methodological, conceptual and statistical basis of the monitor that has been addressed briefly in chapter 1 will be discussed in more detail in this annex.

This annex starts with a description of the selection of themes, social domains and the indicators used in chapters 2 and 3. In section A.2 we explain how the colours in the dashboards of chapter 2 were determined. In section A.3 we discuss the quality, sources and units of the actual indicators.

## **A.1 The selection of themes, social domains and indicators**

*The operationalization of the Brundtland definition (see page 13)*

In operationalizing the set of indicators in chapter 2 we adhere to three principles:

- a. the set of indicators must be solid theoretically;
- b. the indicators selected must serve substantial social and scientific discussions;
- c. the indicators must be in line with existing and especially international statistical initiatives.

In the monitor the sustainability concept is operationalized on the basis of the Brundtland definition. This includes three well-distinguished domains:

- a. the pursuit of well-being here and now;
- b. the consequences of this pursuit for other countries (particularly developing countries);
- c. the consequences for future generations.

Just like in the previous editions of the monitor we use the broadest definition of well-being, which has a long scientific tradition in the Netherlands (Hennipman, 1945 en 1977; Heertje, 2006).

In this study we deal with intra and intergenerational aspects. The authoritative Stiglitz report recommends separating current and future aspects of the pursuit of well-being. The participating institutes all agree with this conclusion and have detailed the three dimensions in three different dashboards. This is also consistent with the CES Recommendations on Sustainable Development (CES, 2014).

These recommendations are the outcome of the Taskforce for Measuring Sustain-

able Development established in 2009 by the UNECE, Eurostat and the OECD. The taskforce was to create a single harmonised sustainability measurement framework. The CES Recommendations have been accepted by about 60 countries, and a number of countries and international organisations including the OECD have started to implement the measurement framework. The CES Report also plays a major role in the discussion about creating an international harmonised within the framework of the UN 'Sustainable Development Goals'.

The set of indicators presented in this monitor is based on the CES Recommendations. For more information about this Report, see: <http://www.unece.org/stats/sustainable-development.html>.

## **Chapter 2: Themes and indicators - quality of life**

The broad concept of well-being is an empty concept in the theoretical sense (Hennipman, 1945 en 1977). Each generation will have to define which targets of well-being it will seek to pursue. Capital and economic growth theories provide a fair amount of certainty about the sets of resources we need to create well-being and prosperity. As far as the determinants of well-being are concerned there is less empirical or theoretical certainty. Of course this does not mean that we do not have any idea about the things that are important for future generations. Food, a roof over one's head, and a healthy social and natural environment are all important for future generations as well.

The selection of the themes and the method used in this monitor are therefore pragmatic. It is a combination of scientific insights and an analysis of common themes in the sets of indicators of other countries. This has led to the following categorisation.

Well-being and material welfare

- Well-being
- Material welfare

Personal characteristics

- Health
- Housing
- Education
- Leisure
- Mobility
- Social security
- Pensions

#### Environmental factors

- Security
- Inequality
- Social participation and trust
- Institutions
- Nature
- Air quality

We selected the best indicator for each theme. We selected a subjective and an objective indicator wherever this was possible. The availability of statistical data nationally and internationally plays a major role in the selection.

### **Chapter 2: Themes and indicators - resources**

Following the first monitor we distinguished four types of capital in the resource dashboard: economic, human, natural and social capital. We determined the themes for each type of capital on the basis of scientific studies and relevant guidelines (System of National Accounts (SNA); System of Environmental and Economic Accounts (SEEA); Measuring Capital en Measuring Sustainable Development). This has led to the following themes:

#### Natural resources

- Land
- Nature
- Climate
- Energy
- Soil quality
- Surface water quality
- Air quality

#### Human capital

- Labour
- Health
- Education

#### Social capital

- Social participation and trust
- Institutions
- Economic capital
- Physical capital
- Knowledge
- Debt

## **Chapter 2: Themes and indicators - international dimension**

This part of the set of indicators is the most innovative by international standards. Several countries include development aid in their sustainability indicators but there is no broader set of indicators in this domain. Despite the enormous scientific interest in this subject there are relatively few indicators available in this area. Therefore we were forced to restrict ourselves to the themes environment and trade and aid. We plan to extend the number of indicators in the next few years. The expectation is that international projects such as WIOD (World Input-Output Database: [www.wiod.org](http://www.wiod.org)) and the Task Force for Measuring Sustainable Development will give an impulse. The following themes were decided:

The environment

- Energy
- Raw materials
- Climate

Trade and aid

- Trade
- Aid

## **Chapter 3: Social domains**

In chapter 3 we divide the themes selected in chapter 2 into social domains. This means that the conceptual classification is no longer leading but we selected what is logical from a social and policy perspective. The relationship between themes and social domains is detailed in figure 3.0.2. The sub indicators are explained at the start of chapter 3.

## **Chapter 4 Green growth**

We use the conceptual framework of the OECD (OESO, 2011b) for monitoring green growth in the Netherlands. The OECD measurement framework describes the interactions between the economy (production and consumption activities) and the environment (natural capital). Various indicators have been determined within this framework, which are divided into four themes namely:

### *1. Environmental and raw material efficiency of production processes*

Production and economic growth may harm the environment by releasing waste and emissions. Economic production and growth also depend on the availability of natural resources such as energy, water and raw materials. Indicators within this theme are monitoring the environmental and raw material efficiency of production processes, that is, developments in the environmental burden (emissions into the environment, depletion of raw materials) compared to GDP developments.

## *2. Natural resources*

In order to create green growth it is important that the burden on natural resources as a result of economic activities does not exceed the carrying capacity of the natural environment. Developments in natural resources (natural capital) can be monitored by looking at the quantitative and qualitative changes in the stocks of biological resources such as timber/wood, and non-renewable resources such as fossil energy reserves.

## *3. Environmental quality of life*

The environment is important for health and quality of life. Unsustainable production and consumption can lead to deterioration of environmental quality. This can have economic and social consequences, such as health costs or reduced agricultural production and imbalance in the ecosystems.

## *4. Green policy instruments and economic opportunities*

This category combines two types of indicators, namely indicator for policy instruments that stimulate green growth and the economic opportunities resulting from greening the economy. Governments can chose between various policy instruments such as taxes, subsidies and measures to steer in the direction of green growth. Green growth also includes stimulating investments, competition and innovation that will benefit sustainable growth and create new economic opportunities. This aspect can be monitored by looking at the indicators on green technology and innovation and the developments in the environmental sector.

# **A.2 Determining colours and trends**

Each indicator is evaluated twice if possible. The first is the position of the Netherlands from an international perspective; particularly the NL position compared to other EU countries. The second is how the Netherlands is developing, so this is an evaluation of the trend (when possible from the year 2000 on). In this section we will explain the methods we used to evaluate the NL position within the European comparison as well as the developments in the Netherlands.

### **The European comparison**

To determine the position of the Netherlands and compare it to the other member states of the European Union we chose the same method as in the previous Sustainability Monitor of the Netherlands (CBS/CPB/PBL/SCP, 2009 & 2011). The value of the indicator for the Netherlands is compared on the basis of a ranking.

To determine the colour of how 'well' or how 'poorly' the Netherlands is doing, the ranking of the Netherlands is divided by the number of EU member states for which there is data available. Next this value is compared with the following thresholds:

Green (good)	$0 \leq \text{value} \leq 1/3$
Yellow (average)	$1/3 < \text{value} \leq 2/3$
Red (poor)	$2/3 < \text{value} \leq 1$

Suppose the Netherlands ranks tenth in the European comparison and there are figures available for all 28 member states:  $10/28 = 0.36$ . Because this value is between  $1/3$  and  $2/3$  the colour is yellow. It is important to understand that a relatively small difference between the figures can lead to a change in colour.

### **Developments since 2000**

Two aspects are important in the evaluation of developments in the Netherlands. First of all a method has to be selected to determine the 'trend'. Beforehand it has to be determined whether the development of an indicator has to be considered positively or negatively in the light of the 'sustainability theory'.

#### **Trend**

We use a regression on the basis of Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) to determine developments of indicators. To calculate the trend, all data points available from the year 2000 on are used in the OLS. The result of the regression model is then tested with a 95% confidence interval. Based on these tests we determine if the coefficient of the trend line we calculated deviates significantly from '0'. When the coefficient does not deviate significantly from '0' then the development is classified as not significant (n.s.) and the colour yellow is assigned because it is unclear whether the trend is good or poor.

When there are only two data points available for an indicator then no trend line is shown in chapter 3. An arrow shows if there is an increase or a decrease. What the consequences are of an increase or a decrease for the indicator in question depends on the colour in chapter 2.

We do not show any development in chapter 3 for indicators for which just one data point is available. In chapter 2 we assign the colour yellow to these indicators for the same reason as with non-significant developments.

#### **Good or poor?**

In the first Sustainability Monitor of the Netherlands we actually presented the trends in three categories: upward, downward or the same. Many indicators show a significant increase or decrease. But how good or bad is such a development?

How do we indicate this on a scale – if we wanted to do so – from 0 ('poor') to 1 ('good')? How do we assign the labels green, yellow or red to it? In all known international examples (Eurostat, Germany, Switzerland, England, New Zealand) the interpretation of the trend of a number of indicators delivers the key message of sustainable development. This interpretation always takes the form of colours or symbols (usually three), determined often on the basis of expert opinion.

It is impossible to achieve a single colour for all sustainability issues. This is due to the indirect effects. An indicator never changes without a negative or positive impact elsewhere. A classic example is the relationship between the environment and the economy. Economic growth often comes at the expense of the environmental burden. Whether material well-being means a net improvement in terms of well-being in the broadest sense can only be determined by monetary methods which include many assumptions. This is already a very controversial point within environmental economics, not to mention what happens when we involve all the other themes of the monitor (social cohesion, inequality, health). So a general balancing model in which all direct and indirect effects are weighed is not yet attainable scientifically speaking.

When we determine the colours, we therefore limit ourselves to the direct effects of an increase or decrease. We ask ourselves whether an increase or decrease of an indicator has a direct positive effect on the quality of life or on the resources, or whether it does not, assuming that the other indicators do not change. In the tables at the end of this annex we indicate per indicator which trend is considered positive.

### **Relationship between the environment and the economy for green growth**

The scores for the indicators for environmental and raw materials efficiency are based on the relationship between environmental pressure and economic growth. There is decoupling when economic growth exceeds the increase in the environmental burden indicator in a given period. Decoupling can be absolute or relative. Absolute decoupling is when the indicator shows an absolute decrease, with relative decoupling the indicator increased but not as fast as economic growth. Absolute decoupling gets a positive score, relative decoupling gets a neutral score and no decoupling gets a negative score. The scores of the other green growth indicators are based on developments over time, the same as the scores of the indicators for sustainable development in chapters 2 and 3.

## A.3 Statistical motivation of the set of indicators

Many of the figures for the main and sub-indicators come from Dutch and international institutes. The four tables of the indicators strongly emphasize international comparability. In many cases we also used figures (sometimes estimates) collected by international organisations such as the European statistical agency (Eurostat), the OECD and the World Bank. These international institutes work hard to guarantee comparability, but they are of course dependent of the figures provided by the national statistical institutes involved. Eurostat provides 'quality profiles' for some indicators – estimating the quality and international comparability of an indicator. For this monitor we used as many of the indicators in category 'A' (the highest quality criterion) as possible.

Figures from international organisations can differ from national figures even though the same phenomenon is measured. Sometimes this has to do with definitions and in other cases the figures are adjusted because they serve a different purpose. One good example comes from the labour participation situation. In the Dutch context the figure is used for the percentage of people working in a job of at least 12 hours. In the European context the threshold is 1 hour. Apart from this change in definition Eurostat also adjusts the figures of Statistics Netherlands in other small points. When different sources are used for an indicator about the European position and developments in the Netherlands we show this in the next part of the annex.

Then there is the matter of the revision of the National Accounts which was completed in 2014. Whenever possible we used the figures from after the revision in our calculation of the NL trend (data from 2001 on; in line with the revised national accounts (ESR, 2010)). For the European comparison, however, we had to use figures from before the revision because there are no revised series available for all countries yet.

The metadata are documented in the following tables.

- Table A.1. Data sources – abbreviations and web addresses

Metadata Chapter 2

- Table A.2. Chapter 2 – codes indicators Quality of life, Resources and the Netherlands in the world
- Table A.3. Chapter 2 – codes indicators State of the Netherlands
- Table A.4. Sources and definitions of the indicators from chapter 2

Metadata Chapter 3

- Table A.5. Chapter 3 – codes indicators Social domains
- Table A.6. Sources and definitions of the indicators from chapter 3

- Table A.7. Chapter 3 – codes indicators Inequality dashboards
- Table A.8. Sources and definitions of the inequality dashboards
- Chapter 4
- Table A.9. Chapter 4 – codes indicators Green growth
- Table A.10 Sources and definitions of the indicators from chapter 4

The results are published in the following tables:

- Table B.1. Quality of life, Resources and The Netherlands in the world (NL figures)
- Table B.2. Quality of life, Resources and The Netherlands in the world (EU figures)
- Table B.3. Social domains (NL figures)
- Table B.4. Sustainability domains (EU figures)
- Table B.5. Green growth indicators (NL figures)
- Table B.6. Green growth (EU figures)

**Table A.1 Data sources - abbreviations and websites**

Source	Website
BP	<a href="http://www.bp.com/">http://www.bp.com/</a>
CBS (home)	<a href="http://www.cbs.nl/">http://www.cbs.nl/</a>
CBS (statline)	<a href="http://statline.cbs.nl/statweb/">http://statline.cbs.nl/statweb/</a>
CDIAC	<a href="http://cdiac.ornl.gov/">http://cdiac.ornl.gov/</a>
Compendium voor de leefomgeving	<a href="http://www.clo.nl/">http://www.clo.nl/</a>
EBCC	<a href="http://www.ebcc.info/">http://www.ebcc.info/</a>
EEA	<a href="http://www.eea.europa.eu/">http://www.eea.europa.eu/</a>
EQLS	<a href="http://www.eurofound.europa.eu/areas/qualityoflife/">http://www.eurofound.europa.eu/areas/qualityoflife/</a>
ESS	<a href="http://nesstar.ess.nsd.uib.no/webview/">http://nesstar.ess.nsd.uib.no/webview/</a>
Eurobarometer	<a href="http://ec.europa.eu/public_opinion/topics_en.htm">http://ec.europa.eu/public_opinion/topics_en.htm</a>
European Sourcebook	<a href="http://europeansourcebook.org/">http://europeansourcebook.org/</a>
Eurostat	<a href="http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/">http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/</a>
FAO	<a href="http://www.fao.org/">http://www.fao.org/</a>
Human Development Report	<a href="http://hdr.undp.org/">http://hdr.undp.org/</a>
ICES	<a href="http://ices.dk">http://ices.dk</a>
IDEA	<a href="http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/">http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/</a>
KiM	<a href="http://www.rijksoverheid.nl/ministeries/ienm/kennisinstituut-voor-mobiliteitsbeleid">http://www.rijksoverheid.nl/ministeries/ienm/kennisinstituut-voor-mobiliteitsbeleid</a>
NEM	<a href="http://www.netwerkecologischemonitoring.nl/">http://www.netwerkecologischemonitoring.nl/</a>
NSF	<a href="http://www.nsf.gov/">http://www.nsf.gov/</a>
OECD	<a href="http://stats.oecd.org/">http://stats.oecd.org/</a>
PBL	<a href="http://www.pbl.nl">http://www.pbl.nl</a>
Probos	<a href="http://www.probos.net">http://www.probos.net</a>
Rijkswaterstaat WVL	<a href="http://www.helpdeskwater.nl">http://www.helpdeskwater.nl</a>
RIVM	<a href="http://www.rivm.nl/">http://www.rivm.nl/</a>
SCP	<a href="http://www.scp.nl/">http://www.scp.nl/</a>
Transparency International	<a href="http://www.transparency.org/">http://www.transparency.org/</a>

**Table A.1 Data sources – abbreviations and websites (end)**

Source	Website
UNESCO	<a href="http://www.unesco.org/">http://www.unesco.org/</a>
Veenhoven	<a href="http://worlddatabaseofhappiness.eur.nl/">http://worlddatabaseofhappiness.eur.nl/</a>
United Nations	<a href="http://www.un.org/">http://www.un.org/</a>
WHO	<a href="http://www.who.int/en/">http://www.who.int/en/</a>
WIPO	<a href="http://www.wipo.int/">http://www.wipo.int/</a>
WODC	<a href="http://www.wodc.nl/">http://www.wodc.nl/</a>
World Bank	<a href="http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/">http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/</a>

### Dashboards

In Chapter 2 we present a number of dashboards. The data used for these dashboards are explained in this annex. In tables A2–A3 the dashboards are shown and a code indicates which sources are used. These codes are linked in table A4 to the metadata about the sources.

**Table A.2 Chapter 2 – codes indicators 'Quality of life', 'Resources' and 'The Netherlands in the world' dashboard**

Theme	Indicator	Effect on sustainability	Code in table A4 (NL trend)	Code in table A4 (EU comparison)
<b>Quality of life (here and now)</b>				
Well-being and material welfare	Satisfaction with life	↑	A1	A1
	Final consumption expenditure	↑	A2	A3
Personal characteristics	Perceived health	↑	A4	A5
	Healthy life expectancy of women	↑	A6	A7
	Satisfaction with housing	↑	A8	A9
	Quality of housing	↑	A10	A10
	Satisfaction with education	↑	A11	A12
	Education level	↑	A13	A13
	Satisfaction with leisure	↑	A14	A15
	Leisure	↑	A16	-
	Traffic jams are a personal problem	↓	A17	-
	Commuting time	↓	A18	A19
	Own financial situation	↑	A20	A21
	Long-term unemployment	↓	A22	A22
	Pension reserves	↑	A23	A24
Living conditions	Not feeling safe	↓	A25	A26
	Reported crime	↓	A27	A28
	Satisfaction with income inequality	↑	A29	A29
	Income inequality	↓	A30	A31
	Income inequality men/women	↓	A32	A33
	Generalised trust	↑	A34	A34
	Feelings of discrimination	↓	A35	A35
	Contact with friends, family and colleagues	↑	A36	A36

**Table A.2 Chapter 2 - codes indicators 'Quality of life', 'Resources' and 'The Netherlands in the world' dashboard (end)**

Theme	Indicator	Effect on sustianability	Code in table A4 (NL trend)	Code in table A4 (EU comparison)
	Volunteer work	↑	A37	A38
	Trust in institutions	↑	A39	A39
	Voter turnout	↑	A40	A40
	Satisfaction with green spaces	↑	A41	A42
	Nature areas	↑	A43	A44
	Urban exposure to particulate matter	↓	A45	A45
<b>Resources (later)</b>				
Natural capital	Population density	↑	B1	B1
	Biodiversity	↑	B2	-
	Biodiversity footprint	↓	B3	-
	Historical CO <sub>2</sub> emissions	↓	B4	B4
	Energy reserves	↑	B5	B6
	Phosphorus surplus soil	↓	B7	B8
	Quality of surface water	↑	B9	B10
	Urban exposure to particulate matter	↓	A45	A45
Human capital	Labour force	↑	B11	B12
	Hours worked	↑	B13	B13
	Healthy life expectancy of women	↑	A6	A7
	Education level	↑	A13	A13
Social capital	Generalised trust	↑	A34	A34
	Feelings of discrimination	↓	A35	A35
	Trust in institutions	↑	A39	A39
Economic capital	Physical capital goods	↑	B14	-
	R&D capital stock	↑	B15	-
	Net financial position compared to other countries	↑	B16	B17
<b>Netherlands in the world (elsewhere)</b>				
Environmental and natural resources	Energy imports	↓	C1	C2
	Mineral imports	↓	C3	C4
	Biomass imports	↓	C5	C6
	Emission trade balance	↓	C7	-
Trade and aid	Development aid	↑	C8	C8
	Remittances	↑	C9	C9
	Total imports from LDCs	↑	C10	C10
	Energy imports from LDCs	↓	C11	C12
	Mineral imports from LDCs	↓	C13	C14
	Biomass imports from LDCs	↓	C15	C16
	Carbon footprint of Dutch consumption as result of imports	↓	C17	-

↑ The higher, the better.

↓ The lower, the better.

**Table A.3 Chapter 2 - codes indicators State of the world**

Theme	Indicator	Code in table A4
<b>Population</b>	Population (million)	D1
	Population (% of world population)	D2
<b>Satisfaction with life</b>	Degree of happiness	D3
<b>Material welfare</b>	Final consumption expenditure (per capita in 2005 US\$)	D4
<b>Social security</b>	Poverty (% population with an income < 2 PPP \$ per day)	D5
<b>Health</b>	Life expectancy	D6
	Access to clean water	D7
<b>Education</b>	Illiteracy (% of the population)	D8
<b>Inequality</b>	Gender Inequality Index (GII)	D9
<b>Institutions</b>	Corruption (corruption perceptions index)	D10
<b>Climate</b>	CO <sub>2</sub> intensity (kg per unit GDP in 2005 US\$)	D11
	CO <sub>2</sub> emissions (ton per capita)	D12
<b>Energy</b>	Energy intensity (kg oil equivalent per 1,000 \$ GDP in PPP 2005 US\$)	D13

**Table A.4 Sources and definitions of the indicators from chapter 2**

Code	Name of indicator	Unit	Source: (institute/study)	Definition, operation, explanation
A1	Satisfaction with life	<b>average score (scale 1-10)</b>	ESS	Average score on a scale from 1 (very dissatisfied) to 10 (very satisfied) reported in answer to the question: Overall, how satisfied are you with your life in general nowadays?
A2	Consumer spending	<b>euros (prices of 2010) per capita</b>	Statistics Netherlands	Final consumption expenditure in constant prices of 2010 per capita according to the revised national accounts (ESR 2010).
A3	Consumer spending	<b>euros (prices of 2005) per capita</b>	Eurostat	Final consumption expenditure in constant prices of 2005 per capita.
A4	Self-reported health	<b>percentage</b>	Statistics Netherlands	Perceived health: percentage of the population that perceives their health as good or very good.
A5	Self-reported health	<b>percentage</b>	Eurostat	Perceived health: percentage of the population that perceives their health as good or very good.
A6	Healthy life expectancy of women	<b>years</b>	Statistics Netherlands	Healthy life expectancy at birth for women.

**Table A.4 Sources and definitions of the indicators from chapter 2 (continued)**

<b>Code</b>	<b>Name of indicator</b>	<b>Unit</b>	<b>Source: (institute/study)</b>	<b>Definition, operation, explanation</b>
A7	Healthy life expectancy of women	<b>years</b>	Eurostat	The number of years in which a woman at birth is estimated to live in good health. Good health is defined as the absence of functional limitations. The 2008 figure for NL in the European comparison is extrapolated with the developments of the Dutch series of Statistics Netherlands.
A8	Satisfaction with the home	<b>average score (scale 1-10)</b>	Statistics Netherlands	Question: How satisfied are you with your home?
A9	Satisfaction with the home	<b>average score (scale 1-10)</b>	EQLS	Satisfaction with the home among people over 18 (average score on a scale from 1 to 10).
A10	Housing quality	<b>percentage no structural defects</b>	Eurostat	Percentage of inhabitants who have 1) a leaky roof, 2) rising damp 3) rotting woodwork.
A11	Satisfaction with education	<b>average score (scale 1-10)</b>	Statistics Netherlands	Question: How satisfied are you with the education you have completed up to now?
A12	Satisfaction with education	<b>average score (scale 1-10)</b>	EQLS	Satisfaction with education on a scale from 1 to 10.
A13	Education level	<b>percentage</b>	Eurostat	Percentage of the population aged 20-24 who have completed at least secondary education.
A14	Satisfaction with leisure	<b>percentage</b>	Statistics Netherlands	Percentage of population who are satisfied or very satisfied with how they spend their leisure time.
A15	Satisfaction with leisure	<b>percentage</b>	EQLS	Percentage of population who reported that they have enough time to spend on their hobbies/interests.
A16	Leisure	<b>minutes a day</b>	Statistics Netherlands	Leisure includes activities such as sports, visiting museums, going to restaurants, walking and hiking, watching television, contact with friends, etc.
A17	Traffic jams are a personal problem	<b>percentage</b>	KiM (Mobiliteitsbalans 2010)	Percentage of population who answered yes to the question if traffic jams are a personal problem.
A18	Commuting time	<b>minutes a day</b>	KiM/CBS	Average journey time from home to work and vice versa in minutes per day.
A19	Commuting time	<b>minutes a day</b>	OECD	Average journey time from home to work and vice versa in minutes per day.
A20	Satisfaction with own financial situation	<b>percentage</b>	Statistics Netherlands	Percentage of population who expect that their own financial situation will improve or remain the same in the next 12 months.
A21	Satisfaction with own financial situation	<b>percentage</b>	Eurostat	Percentage of population who expect that their own financial situation will improve or remain the same in the next 12 months.

**Table A.4 Sources and definitions of the indicators from chapter 2 (continued)**

Code	Name of indicator	Unit	Source: (institute/study)	Definition, operation, explanation
A22	Long-term unemployment	percentage	Eurostat	Percentage of long-term unemployed (12 months or more) of the total active population.
A23	Pensions	percentage	Statistics Netherlands	Replacement percentage: the annual amount of benefits from old age pensions (AOW) and work-related pension, as a percentage of current income taxable for income tax.
A24	Pensions	ratio	OECD, Pensions at a Glance 2009	Net pension value. This is the current value of the pension flows, taking taxes and social premiums into account that retired people have to pay from their pensions. The value is measured and expressed as a multiple of the gross annual wages in the country. The reason for using the gross annual wages is to isolate the effects of taxes and social premiums paid while retired and while working.
A25	Feeling unsafe	percentage	Statistics Netherlands	Percentage of the population over 15 who feel unsafe.
A26	Feeling unsafe	percentage	ESS	Percentage who feel unsafe or very unsafe when they walk in their neighbourhood in the dark.
A27	Reported crimes	percentage	Statistics Netherlands	Percentage of the respondents (or members of the household) who have been the victims of burglary or physical violence in the last five years.
A28	Reported crimes	percentage	ESS	Percentage of the respondents (or members of the household) who have been the victims of burglary or a violent crime in the last five years.
A29	Satisfaction with income inequality	percentage	ESS	Percentage of the respondents who don't agree with the idea that government should reduce income differences.
A30	Income inequality	ratio (80/20 ratio)	Statistics Netherlands	The 80/20 ratio is calculated as the ration between the total income of the highest 20% incomes and the total income of the lowest 20% incomes. If all people have the same income the ratio 80/20 equals 1.
A31	Income inequality	ratio (80/20 ratio)	Eurostat	The 80/20 ratio is calculated as the ration between the total income of the highest 20% incomes and the total income of the lowest 20% incomes. If all people have the same income the ratio 80/20 equals 1.
A32	Income inequality men/women	percentage	Statistics Netherlands	Percentage difference in hourly wages between men and women. There is a method break for 2005-2006 in the Dutch hourly wage data. This was repaired by extrapolating the trend of 2006-2009 (almost linearly) to 2005, and then adapt the years 2000-2004 with the same difference as in (2005 (new) - 2005(old)).
A33	Income inequality men/women	percentage	Eurostat	Percentage difference in hourly wages between men and women.
A34	Generalised trust	percentage	ESS	Percentage of respondents who give a score of 6 and higher on a scale of 0 (you cannot be careful enough) to 10 (most people can be trusted).

**Table A.4 Sources and definitions of the indicators from chapter 2 (continued)**

Code	Name of indicator	Unit	Source: (institute/study)	Definition, operation, explanation
A35	Feelings of discrimination	percentage	ESS	Percentage of respondents who describe themselves as belonging to a discriminated group in the country.
A36	Contact with family, friends and colleagues	percentage	ESS	Percentage of respondents who meet family, friends or colleagues for social reasons more than once a month.
A37	Volunteer work	percentage	Statistics Netherlands	Percentage of the population over 18 who do organised volunteer work.
A38	Volunteer work	percentage	ESS	Percentage of the population over 18 who do organised volunteer work.
A39	Trust in institutions	percentage	ESS	Percentage of the population over 15 who trust (score 6 and higher on a scale from 0–10) the four institutions. For the indicator we took the average of these four percentages. The four institutions are justice, parliament, political parties and politicians.
A40	Voter turnout	percentage	IDEA	Voter turnout in national elections. In these countries voting is compulsory: Belgium, Cyprus, Greece and Luxembourg. Because voting takes place in different years in different countries we selected the most recent figure in the last five years.
A41	Satisfaction with green spaces	average score (scale 1–10)	PBL	Average score on a scale from 1 (very dissatisfied) to 10 (very satisfied).
A42	Satisfaction with green spaces	percentage	EQLS	Percentage of respondents who have many or very many reasons to complain about the lack of access to recreational or green areas, measured on a scale from 1 to 4.
A43	Nature areas	percentage	Statistics Netherlands	Woods and open nature areas as a percentage of the total surface.
A44	Nature areas	percentage	Eurostat, press release 145/2010, 4 October 2010	Forests and other woodland as a percentage of the total surface.
A45	Urban exposure to particulate matter	$\mu\text{g}_{\text{PM}}10/\text{m}^3$	Eurostat	Weighted annual average of particulate matter concentration in urban areas. Particulate matter consists of matter with a diameter of less than 10 micrometres. This matter can penetrate into the lungs and cause infections and cause the condition of people with heart and lung diseases to deteriorate.
B1	Surface per person	$\text{m}^2$ per capita	Surface: FAO; Population: Eurostat	Number of square metres per inhabitant.
B2	Biodiversity	percentage	PBL	Mean Species Abundance (MSA). This indicator includes the loss of quality and quantity. MSA is measured as a percentage of the original biodiversity.

**Table A.4 Sources and definitions of the indicators from chapter 2 (continued)**

Code	Name of indicator	Unit	Source: (institute/study)	Definition, operation, explanation
B3	Biodiversity footprint	<b>thousand km<sup>2</sup> x MSA loss</b>	PBL	The biodiversity footprint is a measure of the global loss of biodiversity as a consequence of Dutch consumption and the production required for this in the Netherlands or elsewhere (through imports). Much land is required to meet the Dutch demand for food, bio fuels, wood and paper, both within the Netherlands and elsewhere. This footprint expresses the loss in biodiversity resulting from this. Biodiversity in the production areas is expressed in the indicator Mean Species Abundance (MSA), which indicates how many of the naturally occurring species remain in an area. The area for production multiplied by (the reciprocal of) this indicator yields the unit MSA times a thousand km <sup>2</sup> . Furthermore the loss of biodiversity is included outside the direct production areas, caused for instance by N deposits or climate change. MSA loss = (1 - MSA-remaining).
B4	Historical CO <sub>2</sub> emissions (since 1860)	<b>tonnes per capita</b>	CDIAC; Eurostat	On average CO <sub>2</sub> emissions per year per capita since 1860. Population on the basis of Eurostat, and for the period for which no figures are available at Eurostat anymore, the size of the population is recalculated on the basis of data from the Maddison Historical database and data by Jan Lahmeijer's populstat.info. Missing years are interpolated
B5	Energy reserves	<b>TJ per capita</b>	Statistics Netherlands	The calorific value of energy reserves per capita. Energy reserves consist of natural gas and crude oil.
B6	Energy reserves	<b>TJ per capita</b>	BP; Population: Eurostat	The calorific value of energy reserves per capita. Energy reserves consist of natural gas and crude oil. The energy reserves are only available for countries with relatively large reserves. Furthermore energy reserves are determined on 31 December and the population on 1 January of the next year.
B7	Phosphorus surplus in the soil	<b>kg phosphorus (P) per ha</b>	Statistics Netherlands	Supply minus disposal of phosphorus in kg per hectare of agricultural land.
B8	Phosphorus surplus in the soil	<b>kg phosphorus (P) per ha</b>	Eurostat	Supply minus disposal of phosphorus in kg per hectare of agricultural land.
B9	Surface water quality	<b>percentage</b>	PBL	The percentage of surface water that is expected to meet the good quality target of the WFD. (WFD = Water Framework Directives)
B10	Surface water quality	<b>percentage</b>	Reports by member states	The percentage of surface water that is expected to meet the good quality target of the WFD. (WFD = Water Framework Directives). For many countries a large percentage of surface water has an unknown risk. The final figures are determined by a ratio of unknown, great risk and no risk.
B11	Labour force	<b>percentage</b>	Statistics Netherlands	All people (15 to 65 yrs) who: – work for 12 hours a week or more, or – report they want to work for 12 hours a week or more. The break in the time series in 2001 was solved by using the changes in the preliminary estimate for the definite NA figures on 2001 and 2000. The data are related to the total population.

**Table A.4 Sources and definitions of the indicators from chapter 2 (continued)**

<b>Code</b>	<b>Name of indicator</b>	<b>Unit</b>	<b>Source: (institute/study)</b>	<b>Definition, operation, explanation</b>
B12	Labour force	<b>percentage</b>	Eurostat	All people aged over 15 who: – working for 1 hour a week or more, or – report they want to work for 1 hour a week or more. The data are related to the total population.
B13	Hours worked	<b>hours</b>	Eurostat	Average number of weekly working hours per working person.
B14	Physical capital stock	<b>billion euros (2005)</b>	Statistics Netherlands	Capital goods are tangible or intangible assets that are used in the production process for longer than one year. Examples are buildings, machinery, means of transport, computers, software.
B15	R&D capital stock	<b>million euros (prices of 2000)</b>	Statistics Netherlands, Dutch growth accounts 2009	This concerns a calculation of Research and Development capital that is not included in the fixed capital formation mentioned above (B14). A description of the estimates can be found in Van Rooijen-Horsten et al., 2008.
B16	Net financial position compared to other countries	<b>percentage</b>	Statistics Netherlands	Government receivables and debts (external equity) as a percentage of GDP in current prices: trend in the Netherlands according to the revised national account (ESA 2010).
B17	Net financial position compared to other countries	<b>percentage</b>	Eurostat	Government receivables and debts (external equity) as a percentage of GDP in current prices. European comparison is based on data before revision.
C1	Energy imports	<b>gigajoules per capita</b>	Statistics Netherlands own calculations	Imported crude fossil fuels in GJ per capita per year (excluding re-exports, for domestic use).
C2	Energy imports	<b>gigajoules per capita</b>	Eurostat	Imported crude fossil fuels in GJ per capita per year (excluding re-exports, for domestic use).
C3	Mineral imports	<b>kg per capita</b>	Statistics Netherlands own calculations	Imported crude minerals in kg per capita per year from the rest of the world.
C4	Mineral imports	<b>kg per capita</b>	Eurostat	Imported crude minerals in kg per capita per year from the rest of the world.
C5	Biomass imports	<b>kg per capita</b>	Statistics Netherlands own calculations	Imported biomass in kg per capita per year from the rest of the world.
C6	Biomass imports	<b>kg per capita</b>	Eurostat	Imported biomass in kg per capita per year from the rest of the world.
C7	Emission trade balance	<b>mln tonnes of CO<sub>2</sub> equivalents</b>	Statistics Netherlands (Environmental accounts)	De emission trade balance is calculated as the volume of greenhouse gases emitted in the Netherlands during the production of export products minus the volume of greenhouse gases emitted abroad during the production of products and services imported by the Netherlands.
C8	Development aid	<b>percentage</b>	OECD	Government subsidies or loans with the main aim to stimulate economic development and prosperity in the receiving countries as a percentage of gross national income (before the revision).

**Table A.4 Sources and definitions of the indicators from chapter 2 (continued)**

<b>Code</b>	<b>Name of indicator</b>	<b>Unit</b>	<b>Source: (institute/study)</b>	<b>Definition, operation, explanation</b>
C9	Remittances	<b>percentage</b>	World Bank	Wages and salaries earned by non-residents as a percentage of gross domestic product in current prices (before the revision).
C10	Total imports from LDC's	<b>euros per capita</b>	Eurostat	Imported goods and services per capita per year from the Least Developed Countries (LDC's).
C11	Energy imports from LDC's	<b>gigajoules per capita</b>	Statistics Netherlands own calculations	Imported crude fossil fuels in GJ per capita per year from the Least Developed Countries (LDC's).
C12	Energy imports from LDC's	<b>gigajoules per capita</b>	Eurostat	Imported crude fossil fuels in GJ per capita per year from the Least Developed Countries (LDC's).
C13	Mineral imports from LDC's	<b>kg per capita</b>	Statistics Netherlands own calculations	Imported minerals in kg per capita per year from the Least Developed Countries (LDC's).
C14	Mineral imports from LDC's	<b>kg per capita</b>	Eurostat	Imported minerals in kg per capita per year from the Least Developed Countries (LDC's).
C15	Biomass imports from LDC's	<b>kg per capita</b>	Statistics Netherlands own calculations	Imported biomass in kg per capita per year from the Least Developed Countries (LDC's).
C16	Biomass imports from LDC's	<b>kg per capita</b>	Eurostat	Imported biomass in kg per capita per year from the Least Developed Countries (LDC's).
C17	Carbon footprint of Dutch consumption resulting from imports	<b>tonne of CO<sub>2</sub> equivalents</b>	PBL	Greenhouse gas emissions (CO <sub>2</sub> , CH <sub>4</sub> en N <sub>2</sub> O) abroad related to Dutch consumption (via imports of goods and services).
D1	Population (mln)	<b>number</b>	World Bank	The figures are annual averages. The most recent year: 2013
D2	Population (% of the world population)	<b>percentage</b>	World Bank	Population as a percentage of the world population. The most recent year: 2013
D3	Happiness score	<b>average score</b>	R. Veenhoven, World Database of Happiness	Average score of answers to the question "All things considered, how satisfied or dissatisfied are you with your life as-a-whole these days?". The answers are ranked on a scale from 'dissatisfied' (0) to 'satisfied' (10). The most recent year: VS, Japan and India 2007; China 2009; The Netherlands and Russia 2012.
D4	Final consumption expenditure	<b>US\$ (prices of 2005) per capita</b>	World Bank	Final consumption expenditure includes the final consumption expenditure by households and government. The most recent year VS, Japan and the World 2012; LDC's 2009; the Netherlands, EU, China, India and Russia 2013.
D5	Poverty	<b>percentage</b>	World Bank	Percentage of the population living on less than \$2 a day against the international prices of 2005. The most recent year: China and Russia 2009; India 2010.
D6	Life expectancy	<b>years</b>	World Bank	Life expectancy of men + women at birth. The most recent year: 2012.

**Table A.4 Sources and definitions of the indicators from chapter 2 (end)**

<b>Code</b>	<b>Name of indicator</b>	<b>Unit</b>	<b>Source: (institute/study)</b>	<b>Definition, operation, explanation</b>
D7	Access to clean water	<b>percentage</b>	World Bank	Percentage of the population with acceptable access to a reasonable amount of clean water. Acceptable access is defined as the availability of at least 20 litres per person per day, at a distance of at most 1 kilometre from the home. The most recent year 2012.
D8	Illiteracy	<b>percentage</b>	World Bank	Percentage of the population over 15 who cannot read or write a short simple sentence. The most recent year: 2010, India 2006.
D9	Gender Inequality	<b>index</b>	Human Development Report	The Gender Inequality Index (GII) is a composite indicator of inequality between men and women. Inequality is measured by the position of men and women on the job market, the degree to which they actively participate in economic and political life and have a share in decision making and their reproductive health. The most recent year: 2013.
D10	Corruption	<b>index</b>	Transparency International	The Corruption Perception Index of Transparency International measures corruption in the public sector in most countries of the world (183 countries were observed in 2011). Transparency International defines corruption as the abuse of power entrusted for private gain. The most recent year: 2011.
D11	CO <sub>2</sub> intensity	<b>kg per unit GDP</b>	World Bank	CO <sub>2</sub> emissions are caused by burning fossil fuels and the production of concrete. The intensity is calculated by dividing the emissions by GDP. GDP is expressed in US dollars in prices of 2005. The most recent year: 2012.
D12	CO <sub>2</sub> emissions	<b>(metric) tonnes per capita</b>	World Bank	CO <sub>2</sub> emissions are caused by burning fossil fuels and the production of concrete. The most recent year: 2010.
D13	Energy intensity (kg oil equivalent)	<b>kg oil equivalents per unit GDP</b>	United Nations	Gross domestic energy use in a country per 1,000\$ GDP (GDP expressed in 1,000 US\$ in PPP 2005). The gross domestic energy use equals domestic extraction + imports + decrease of stocks (or - increase of stocks) - export - bunkering (this is the supply of fuel to international air traffic and international shipping).

### **Indicators for social domains and inequality dashboards**

In Chapter 3 we presented the indicators for social domains and the inequality dashboards. The data that we used for these indicators are explained in this annex. In Tables A5 and A7 we show the indicators plus a code for the sources used. In Tables A6 and A8 these codes are linked to the metadata about these sources. If the indicators have already been included in previous dashboards the codes apply to the previous part of the annex.

**Table A.5 Chapter 3 - codes 'Social domains'**

Theme/indicator	Effect on sustainability	Code in table A6 (NL trend)	Code in table A6 (EU-comparison)
<b>Well-being</b>			
Satisfaction with life	↑	A1	A1
Perceived health	↑	A4	A5
Satisfaction with housing	↑	A8	A9
Satisfaction with education	↑	A11	A12
Satisfaction with leisure	↑	A14	A15
Satisfaction with own financial situation	↑	A20	A21
Feeling unsafe	↓	A25	A26
Satisfaction with income inequality	↑	A29	A29
Trust in institutions	↑	A39	A39
Satisfaction with green spaces	↑	A41	A42
<b>Climate and energy</b>			
Historical CO <sub>2</sub> emissions	↓	B4	B4
Emission trade balance	↓	C7	-
Total greenhouse gas emissions per capita	↓	E1	E1
Greenhouse gas intensity of energy use	↓	E2	E2
CO <sub>2</sub> emissions	↓	E3	E3
Greenhouse gas intensity of the economy	↓	E4	E4
Energy reserves	↑	B5	B6
Renewable energy	↑	E5	E6
Depletion of energy reserves	↓	E7	-
Gross domestic energy use	↓	E8	E9
Energy intensity of the economy	↓	E10	E10
Energy imports	↓	C1	C2
<b>Quality of local environment</b>			
Phosphorus surplus in soil	↓	B7	B8
Nitrogen surplus in soil	↓	E11	E12
Quality of surface water	↑	B9	B10
Surface and ground water extraction	↓	E13	E13
Urban exposure to particulate matter	↓	A45	A45
Exposure to ozone in urban areas	↓	E14	E14
Emissions of sulphur oxides	↓	E15	E15
<b>Biodiversity and landscape</b>			
Population density	↑	B1	B1
Land used for consumption purposes	↓	E16	-
Biodiversity footprint	↓	B3	-
Satisfaction with green spaces	↑	A41	A42
Nature areas	↑	A43	A44
State of preservation	↑	E17	-
Red List Indicator	↑	E18	-
Farmland Bird Index	↑	E19	E20

**Table A.5 Chapter 3 - codes 'Social domains' (continued)**

Theme/indicator	Effect on sustainability	Code in table A6 (NL trend)	Code in table A6 (EU-comparison)
<b>Health</b>			
Perceived health	↑	A4	A5
Healthy life expectancy, women	↑	A6	A7
Healthy life expectancy, men	↑	E21	E22
Life expectancy, women	↑	E23	E24
Life expectancy, men	↑	E23	E24
Mental health	↑	E25	E26
Health care expenditure	↑	E27	E27
Obesity	↓	E28	E29
Smoking	↓	E30	E31
<b>Housing and residential environment</b>			
Satisfaction with housing	↑	A8	A9
Quality of housing	↑	A10	A10
Problems in the neighbourhood	↓	E32	E32
Overcrowding rate	↓	E33	E33
House price index of existing own homes	↓	E34	E35
Average residential monthly rent	↓	E36	-
Share of housing costs in disposable household income	↓	E37	E37
Perceived burden of housing costs	↓	E38	E38
Number of available dwellings	↑	E39	-
<b>Mobility</b>			
Traffic jams are a personal problem	↓	A17	-
Commuting time	↓	A18	A19
Mobility (general)	↑	E40	-
Car ownership	↑	E41	E42
Time lost due to traffic jams and delays	↓	E43	-
Noise nuisance from traffic	↓	E44	-
Bicycle ownership	↑	E45	-
Car use	↑	E46	E46
Train use	↑	E47	E47
Traffic deaths	↓	E48	E49
Rail infrastructure	↑	E50	E50
<b>Security</b>			
Feeling unsafe	↓	A25	A26
Reported crime	↓	A27	A28
Registered crime	↓	E51	-
Registered murders	↓	E52	E52
Underage suspects	↓	E53	E54
Number of prisoners	↓	E55	E55
Security expenditure	↑	E56	E57
Number of police	↑	E58	E58
Trust in the police	↑	E59	E59
Trust in the legal system	↑	E60	E60
Fear of terrorist attacks	↓	E61	E61

**Table A.5 Chapter 3 - codes 'Social domains' (continued)**

Theme/indicator	Effect on sustainability	Code in table A6 (NL trend)	Code in table A6 (EU-comparison)
<b>Social participation and trust</b>			
Contact with friends, family and colleagues	↑	A36	A36
Volunteer work	↑	A37	A38
Satisfaction with family life	↑	E62	E62
Satisfaction with residential environment	↑	E63	E64
Satisfaction with leisure	↑	A14	A15
Leisure	↑	A16	-
Feelings of discrimination	↓	A35	A35
Generalised trust	↑	A34	A34
Opinions about immigrants	↑	E65	E65
Trust in institutions	↑	A39	A39
Voter turnout	↑	A40	A40
<b>Education and knowledge</b>			
Satisfaction with education	↑	A11	A12
Education level	↑	A13	A13
Highly educated population	↑	E66	E66
Education level of young people	↑	E67	E67
Early school leavers	↓	E68	E68
Maths skills	↑	E69	E69
Lifelong learning	↑	E70	E70
Education expenditure	↑	E71	E71
R&D capital stock	↑	B15	-
R&D expenditure	↑	E72	E73
Number of researchers	↑	E74	E74
Scientific articles	↑	E75	E75
Patents	↑	E76	E76
Knowledge networks	↑	E77	E78
<b>Material welfare and economy</b>			
Final consumption expenditure	↑	A2	A3
Gross Domestic Product	↑	E79	E80
Labour productivity	↑	E81	E81
Labour force	↑	B11	B12
Hours worked	↑	B13	B13
Duration of working life	↑	E82	E82
Labour participation rate	↑	E83	E83
Unemployment rate	↓	E84	E85
Capital stock	↑	B14	-
Gross fixed capital formation	↑	E86	E87
ICT expenditure	↑	E88	E88
Satisfaction with own financial situation	↑	A20	A21
Long-term unemployment	↓	A22	A22
<b>Financial sustainability</b>			
Net financial position NL vs. other countries	↑	B16	B17
Pension reserves	↑	A23	A24
Government debt	↓	E89	E90

**Table A.5 Chapter 3 – codes 'Social domains' (end)**

Theme/indicator	Effect on sustainability	Code in table A6 (NL trend)	Code in table A6 (EU-comparison)
<b>Trade, aid and natural resources</b>			
Development aid	↑	C8	C8
Remittances	↑	C9	C9
Mineral imports	↓	C3	C4
Biomass imports	↓	C5	C6
Total imports from LDC's	↑	C10	C10
Energy imports from LDC's	↓	C11	C12
Mineral imports from LDC's	↓	C13	C14
Biomass imports from LDC's	↓	C15	C16
Carbon footprint of Dutch consumption as result of imports	↓	C17	-
<b>Inequality</b>			
Satisfaction with income inequality	↑	A29	A29
Income inequality	↓	A30	A31
Income inequality men/women	↓	A32	A33

↑ The higher, the better.

↓ The lower, the better

**Table A.6 Sources and definitions of the indicators from chapter 3**

Code	Name of indicator	Unit	Source: (institute/study)	Definition, operation, explanation
E1	Total greenhouse gas emissions per capita	tonnes of CO <sub>2</sub> equivalents	EEA	Total greenhouse gas emissions (CO <sub>2</sub> , CH <sub>4</sub> , N <sub>2</sub> O, HFCs, PFCs and SF <sub>6</sub> ) per capita, conform the Kyoto protocol. The figures are expressed in tonnes of greenhouse gas equivalents (CO <sub>2</sub> equivalents).
E2	Greenhouse gas intensity of gross domestic energy use	tonnes of CO <sub>2</sub> equivalents per ton of oil equivalents	EEA	Greenhouse gas emissions (CO <sub>2</sub> , CH <sub>4</sub> , N <sub>2</sub> O, HFCs, PFCs and SF <sub>6</sub> ) as a result of the gross energy use within the national territory. These are emissions originating from 1) fuel combustion and 2) industrial (chemical) processes.
E3	CO <sub>2</sub> emissions	tonnes of CO <sub>2</sub> equivalents per capita	Eurostat	Tonnes of CO <sub>2</sub> equivalents per capita. Other greenhouse gases than CO <sub>2</sub> are converted into CO <sub>2</sub> equivalents.
E4	Greenhouse gas intensity of the economy	kg of CO <sub>2</sub> equivalents per euro GDP (2005 prices)	EEA	Total greenhouse gas emissions (CO <sub>2</sub> , CH <sub>4</sub> , N <sub>2</sub> O, HFCs, PFCs and SF <sub>6</sub> ) conform the Kyoto protocol per euro GDP. The GDP figures are adjusted for price changes and expressed in prices of the year 2005.
E5	Renewable energy	percentage	Statistics Netherlands	Share of sustainable (renewable) energy in gross domestic energy consumption. Sustainable (renewable) energy is energy from wind, water, sun, soil, outside air, warmth from freshly milked milk and biomass.
E6	Renewable energy	percentage	Eurostat	Share of sustainable (renewable) energy in gross domestic energy consumption. Renewable energy is energy generated from non-fossil energy sources.

**Table A.6 Sources and definitions of the indicators from chapter 3 (continued)**

<b>Code</b>	<b>Name of indicator</b>	<b>Unit</b>	<b>Source: (institute/study)</b>	<b>Definition, operation, explanation</b>
E7	Depletion of energy stocks	<b>percentage</b>	Statistics Netherlands	Annual depletion of the oil and natural gas reserves, expressed in euros, as a percentage of Dutch net national income (NNI). The calculation method has been changed since the previous Monitor and is now conform the System of Environmental Economic Accounting Central Framework (SEEA CF).
E8	Gross domestic energy use	<b>kg of oil equivalents per capita</b>	Statistics Netherlands	Kg of oil equivalents per capita. Other fuels than oil are converted into oil equivalents.
E9	Gross domestic energy use	<b>kg of oil equivalents per capita</b>	Eurostat	Kg of oil equivalents per capita. Other fuels than oil are converted into oil equivalents.
E10	Energy intensity of the economy	<b>kg of CO<sub>2</sub> equivalents per 1,000 euros GDP (2005 prices)</b>	Eurostat	Gross domestic energy use in kilogram oil equivalents per 1,000 euros GDP. The GDP figures are adjusted for price changes and expressed in prices of the year 2005.
E11	Nitrogen surplus in the soil	<b>kg nitrogen (N) per hectare</b>	Statistics Netherlands	Supply minus disposal of nitrogen in kg per hectare of agricultural land including ammonia.
E12	Nitrogen surplus in the soil	<b>kg nitrogen (N) per hectare</b>	Eurostat	Supply minus disposal of nitrogen in kg per hectare of agricultural land.
E13	Surface and ground-water abstraction	<b>m<sup>3</sup> per capita</b>	Eurostat	Total fresh water extraction (surface and groundwater) per capita.
E14	Exposure to ozone in urban areas	<b>mg per m<sup>3</sup> per day</b>	Eurostat	The ozone precursor gases are: nitrogen oxides, carbon monoxide, methane and non-methane volatile organic compounds.
E15	Emissions of sulphur oxides	<b>kg per capita</b>	Eurostat	This indicator shows the trends of man-made atmospheric emissions of sulphur oxides.
E16	Land used for consumption purposes	<b>hectare per capita</b>	PBL	The surface per person used for consumption purposes.
E17	State of preservation	<b>percentage</b>	Statistics Netherlands	Major factors in determining the state of preservation of species are population trends, the size of the populations and the natural distribution area.
E18	Red List indicator	<b>index (1950=100)</b>	NEM/Statistics Netherlands	The Red Lists include plant and animal species that are endangered or vulnerable. By definition the assumption is that species were not threatened in 1950. The number of species in the Red Lists of breeding birds, butterflies, mammals, dragonflies, reptiles, amphibians and higher plants are calculated each year. The indicator shows the opposite: the number of non-endangered species as a percentage of all species of the seven species groups together. The data for the year 2000 are interpolated on the basis of data on 1995 and 2005.
E19	Farmland birds	<b>index (2000=100)</b>	NEM/Statistics Netherlands	The Farmland Bird Index with 13 bird species for the quality of the agricultural area. The data are derived from the national breeding bird measuring network and the national farm bird measuring network from the Netwerk Ecologische Monitoring.

**Table A.6 Sources and definitions of the indicators from chapter 3 (continued)**

<b>Code</b>	<b>Name of indicator</b>	<b>Unit</b>	<b>Source: (institute/study)</b>	<b>Definition, operation, explanation</b>
E20	Farmland birds	<b>percentage</b>	EBCC	The Farmland Bird Index with 36 bird species for the quality of the agricultural area. For the European trend the data of the European Bird Census Council (EBCC) were used. In comparing the Netherlands with other European countries the changes are expressed as a % per year of the trend line.
E21	Healthy life expectancy of men	<b>years</b>	Statistics Netherlands	Healthy life expectancy of men at birth.
E22	Healthy life expectancy of men	<b>years</b>	Eurostat	The number of years in which a man at birth is estimated to live in good health. Good health is defined as the absence of functional limitations. The 2008 figure for NL in the European comparison is extrapolated with the developments of the Dutch series of Statistics Netherlands.
E23	Life expectancy	<b>years</b>	Statistics Netherlands	Life expectancy at birth.
E24	Life expectancy	<b>years</b>	Eurostat	Life expectancy at birth.
E25	Mental health	<b>MHI-5 Sum score</b>	Statistics Netherlands	Mental health is measured on the basis of the Mental Health Inventory (MHI-5) for people over 12 in which 5 questions are asked about the mental health in the preceding 4 weeks. The score results from the answers.
E26	Mental health	<b>percentage</b>	Eurobarometer	Mental health is measured on the basis 5 questions about the mental well-being (WHO-5 Well-being Index). The higher the score the better the respondent perceives his/her mental health to be.
E27	Health care expenditure	<b>percentage</b>	WHO	Spending on health care (conform the National Health Accounts) as a percentage of GDP before the revision.
E28	Obesity	<b>percentage</b>	Statistics Netherlands	Percentage of the population over 20 with a Body Mass Index of 25 or more.
E29	Obesity	<b>percentage</b>	OECD	Percentage of the population over 15 with a Body Mass Index of 25 or more.
E30	Smoking	<b>percentage</b>	Statistics Netherlands	Percentage of the population over 12 who smoke.
E31	Smoking	<b>percentage</b>	OECD	Percentage of the population over 15 who smoke.
E32	Unpleasantness in the neighbourhood	<b>percentage</b>	Eurostat	Percentage of the population who report noise nuisance caused by neighbours or people in the street, vandalism, crime or pollution, or litter and other environmental problems in their direct surroundings. Unweighted average.
E33	Cramped living space	<b>percentage</b>	Eurostat	Percentage of the populations who live in a house that does not have at least one living room, one bedroom per couple, one bedroom per person aged 18 years and older, one room per two 12–17 year-olds of the same sex (otherwise one room per person) or one room per two under 12 year-olds.

**Table A.6 Sources and definitions of the indicators from chapter 3 (continued)**

Code	Name of indicator	Unit	Source: (institute/study)	Definition, operation, explanation
E34	House price index of existing own homes	<b>index (2010=100)</b>	Statistics Netherlands	The House price index of existing own homes shows the price changes in the housing stock of existing own homes. The dwelling has to be located on Dutch soil and be sold to a private individual. The index is not adjusted for inflation.
E35	House price index of existing own homes	<b>index (2005=100)</b>	Eurostat	The House price index, adjusted for inflation, includes existing and newly built dwellings.
E36	Average residential monthly rent	<b>euros</b>	Statistics Netherlands	The average rent per month for dwellings.
E37	Share of housing costs in disposable household income	<b>percentage</b>	Eurostat	Share of total housing expenses in disposable household income. The total housing expenses include all direct costs related to housing such as the costs for water, gas and electricity and cable and insurances, sewerage charges and various taxes <i>minus</i> housing subsidies.
E38	Perceived burden of housing costs	<b>percentage</b>	Eurostat	Percentage of people who report they perceive housing costs as a heavy burden.
E39	Number of available dwellings	<b>number of dwellings per 1,000 inhabitants</b>	Statistics Netherlands	Total number of dwellings on 31 December per 1,000 inhabitants. A dwelling is a building designed for permanently housing a private household .
E40	Mobility (general)	<b>billion passenger km</b>	KiM (Mobiliteitsbalans)	Mobility via all types of transport, expressed in billion traveller km.
E41	Car ownership	<b>number of cars per 1,000 inhabitants</b>	Statistics Netherlands	Car ownership as the number of cars per 1,000 inhabitants.
E42	Car ownership	<b>number of cars per 1,000 inhabitants</b>	Eurostat	Car ownership as the number of cars per 1,000 inhabitants.
E43	Time lost due to traffic jams and delays	<b>million vehicle hours lost</b>	KiM (Mobiliteitsbalans)	Time lost as a result of traffic jams and other delays, in million vehicle hours lost.
E44	Noise nuisances caused by traffic	<b>percentage</b>	Statistics Netherlands	Percentage of the population who report noise nuisance from road, rail and air traffic.
E45	Bicycle ownership	<b>percentage</b>	Statistics Netherlands	Percentage of the population owning a bicycle.
E46	Car use	<b>percentage of total passenger kilometres</b>	Eurostat	Percentage of the total number of travelling kilometres in cars, buses and trains, travelled in cars.
E47	Train use	<b>percentage of total passenger kilometres</b>	Eurostat	Percentage of the total number of travelling kilometres in cars, buses and trains, travelled in trains.

**Table A.6 Sources and definitions of the indicators from chapter 3 (continued)**

<b>Code</b>	<b>Name of indicator</b>	<b>Unit</b>	<b>Source: (institute/study)</b>	<b>Definition, operation, explanation</b>
E48	Traffic deaths	<b>number per million inhabitants</b>	Statistics Netherlands	Number of road traffic deaths per million inhabitants includes car drivers and passengers, cyclists, motorcyclists, moped drivers and pedestrians. Rail and air traffic is not included.
E49	Traffic deaths	<b>number per million inhabitants</b>	Eurostat	Number of road traffic deaths per million inhabitants includes car drivers and passengers, cyclists, motorcyclists, moped drivers and pedestrians. Rail and air traffic is not included.
E50	Rail infrastructure	<b>km of railway per 1,000 inhabitants</b>	Eurostat	Total length of railway track in km divided by the population per 1,000 inhabitants.
E51	Registered crimes	<b>number per 1,000 inhabitants</b>	WODC/Statistics Netherlands	Recorded crimes (all crimes) per 1,000 inhabitants.
E52	Registered murders	<b>number of murders per 100,000 inhabitants</b>	Eurostat	Number of murders per 100,000 inhabitants
E53	Underage suspects	<b>percentage</b>	WODC/Statistics Netherlands	Share of underage suspects in total suspects.
E54	Underage suspects	<b>percentage</b>	European Source book	Share of underage suspects in total suspects.
E55	Number of detainees	<b>number per 100,000 inhabitants</b>	Eurostat	Number of detainees per 100,000 inhabitants.
E56	Government spending on security and justice	<b>% of GDP</b>	Statistics Netherlands	Government expenditure on security and justice (% GDP in current prices) according to the revised national account (ESA 2010).
E57	Government spending on security and justice	<b>% of GDP</b>	Eurostat	Government expenditure on security and justice (% GDP in current prices) based on data before the revision.
E58	Number of police	<b>number per 100,000 inhabitants</b>	Eurostat	Number of police officers per 100,000 inhabitants.
E59	Trust in the police	<b>percentage</b>	ESS	Percentage of the population who have at least sufficient trust in the police.
E60	Trust in the legal system	<b>percentage</b>	ESS	Percentage of the population who have at least sufficient trust in the legal system.
E61	Fear of terrorist attacks	<b>percentage</b>	ESS	Percentage of the population who think a terrorist attack in their country in the next twelve months is likely or very likely.
E62	Satisfaction with family life	<b>average score (scale 1–10)</b>	EQLS	Satisfaction with family life on a scale from 1 (very dissatisfied) to 10 (very satisfied).

**Table A.6 Sources and definitions of the indicators from chapter 3 (continued)**

<b>Code</b>	<b>Name of indicator</b>	<b>Unit</b>	<b>Source: (institute/study)</b>	<b>Definition, operation, explanation</b>
E63	Satisfaction with the residential environment	<b>average score (scale 1-10)</b>	SCP, Statistics Netherlands (POLS-SLI, Culturele Veranderingen-SLI)	Appreciation for the residential environment on a scale from 1 to 10.
E64	Satisfaction with the residential environment	<b>percentage</b>	EQLS	Percentage of the population (15 yrs and older) who report that they are satisfied or very satisfied with their residential environment.
E65	Opinion about immigrants	<b>percentage</b>	ESS	"People who have come here from other countries have made the country a worse or better place to live", on a scale from 0 (worse place to live) to 10 (better place to live). Percentage of the scores between 6 and 10 (positive scores) of all scores.
E66	Highly educated population	<b>percentage</b>	Eurostat	Percentage highly educated population (15 to 64 yrs).
E67	Education level of young people	<b>percentage</b>	Eurostat	Percentage of the population aged 20-24 who have completed at least secondary education.
E68	Early school leavers	<b>percentage</b>	Eurostat	Early leavers from education and training refers to persons aged 18 to 24 fulfilling the following two conditions: first, the highest level of education or training attained is ISCED 0, 1, 2 or 3c short, second, respondents declared not having received any education or training in the four weeks preceding the survey. They are a percentage of the total population of the same age group.
E69	Math skills	<b>PISA score</b>	OECD	PISA is an international test of knowledge and skills of 15 year-olds under auspices of the OECD. This concerns the score on math skills.
E70	Lifelong learning	<b>percentage</b>	Eurostat	Life-long learning refers to persons aged 25 to 64 who stated that they received education or training in the four weeks preceding the survey. They are a percentage the total population of the same age group, The information collected relates to all education or training whether or not relevant to the respondent's current or possible future job.
E71	Government spending on education	<b>percentage</b>	Eurostat	Government expenditure on education as a percentage of GDP in current prices: tend in the Netherlands according to the revised national account (ESA 2010). The European comparison is based on data before the revision.
E72	Spending on R&D	<b>percentage</b>	Statistics Netherlands	Expenditure on R&D as a percentage of gross domestic product in current prices according to the revised national accounts (ESA 2010). These figures are about spending by companies and government to expand knowledge and develop new applications. This involves investments from production in the Netherlands as well as imports.
E73	Spending on R&D	<b>percentage</b>	Eurostat	Expenditure on R&D as a percentage of gross domestic product in current prices before the revision.

**Table A.6 Sources and definitions of the indicators from chapter 3 (continued)**

Code	Name of indicator	Unit	Source: (institute/study)	Definition, operation, explanation
E74	Number of researchers	<b>number per million inhabitants</b>	UNESCO	Number of researchers per million inhabitants. R&D researchers are professionals who design or create new knowledge, products, processes, methods or systems and those who manage the projects involved.
E75	Scientific articles	<b>number per million inhabitants</b>	NSF	Articles about the exact sciences such as physics, biology, chemistry, maths, medicine, engineering.
E76	Patents	<b>number per million inhabitants</b>	WIPO	Patents registered via the Patent Cooperation Treaty procedure or a national patent office for the exclusive rights for an invention.
E77	Knowledge networks in companies	<b>percentage</b>	Statistics Netherlands	Number of collaborating companies with innovations as a percentage of the total number of companies with innovations. For overlapping years, averages are calculated
E78	Knowledge networks in companies	<b>percentage</b>	Eurostat	Number of collaborating companies with innovations as a percentage of the total number of companies with innovations. The annual figures are calculated as the average of the figures of three years (for example 2002 = average of 2000–2002, 2001–2003 and 2002–2004).
E79	Gross Domestic Product	<b>euros per capita</b>	Statistics Netherlands	Gross Domestic Product in constant prices of 2010 per capita according to the revised national accounts (ESA 2010). A country's GDP is the value of all income generated in that country.
E80	Gross Domestic Product	<b>euros per capita</b>	Eurostat	Gross Domestic Product in constant prices of 2005 per capita. A country's GDP is the value of all income generated in that country.
E81	Labour productivity	<b>GDP (euros, adjusted PPP) per hour worked</b>	Eurostat	Gross domestic product (GDP) per hour worked. GDP is converted to Purchasing Power Parity euros to correct for price differences between countries and annual price changes within countries.
E82	Duration of working life	<b>years</b>	Eurostat	The number of years a person aged 15 is expected to be active in the labour market throughout his/her life.
E83	Labour participation rate	<b>percentage</b>	Eurostat	Percentage of the population over 15 who are economically active. These are the people who have a job for a certain period, thus providing goods or services.
E84	Unemployment	<b>percentage</b>	Statistics Netherlands	Persons (15–65 yrs) who do not have a job or who have a job of less than 12 hours a week, who are looking for paid work of more than 12 hours a week and are available to start work. Break in the time series between 2000 and 2001, the percentages before and after the revision are comparable in 2001, the figure before the revision of 2000 is taken.
E85	Unemployment	<b>percentage</b>	Eurostat	Percentage of the labour force who do not have a job but who are looking for and are available to start work. The definitions of labour force and unemployment may differ per country.

**Table A.6 Sources and definitions of the indicators from chapter 3 (end)**

<b>Code</b>	<b>Name of indicator</b>	<b>Unit</b>	<b>Source: (institute/study)</b>	<b>Definition, operation, explanation</b>
E86	Gross fixed capital formation	percentage	Statistics Netherlands	Gross fixed capital formation as a percentage of gross domestic product in current prices according to the revised national accounts (ESA 2010).
E87	Gross fixed capital formation	percentage	World Bank	Gross fixed capital formation as a percentage of the gross domestic product in current prices before the revision.
E88	Spending on ICT	percentage	World Bank	ICT expenditure as a percentage of gross domestic product before the revision. The expenditure includes spending on computer hardware, computer software and computer services.
E89	Central government debt	percentage	Statistics Netherlands	The consolidated government debt, excluding transitory debt and debt on financial derivatives, expressed as a percentage of GDP according to the revised National accounts (ESA 2010).
E90	Central government debt	percentage	Eurostat	Consolidated gross government debt on 31 December as a percentage of gross domestic product before the revision.

**Table A.7 Chapter 3 - codes Inequality dashboard**

<b>Theme</b>	<b>Indicator</b>	<b>Code in table A8</b>
Well-being	Satisfaction with life	F1
Welfare	Income inequality	F2
Institutions	Trust in institutions	F3
Security	Not feeling safe	F4
Social participation and trust	Voluntary work	F5
Social security	Long-term unemployment	F6
Health	Healthy life expectancy	F7
Education	Education level	F8
Housing	Satisfaction with housing	F9
Social participation and trust	Generalised trust	F10

**Table A.8 Sources and definitions of the inequality dashboards**

<b>Code</b>	<b>Name of indicator</b>	<b>Unit</b>	<b>Source: (institute/study)</b>	<b>Definition, operation, explanation</b>
F1	Satisfaction with life	<b>average score</b>	Statistics Netherlands	Average score of the answers to the question "Overall, how satisfied are you with your present life in general?" Respondents can give a score between 1 (very unsatisfied) and 10 (very satisfied).
F2a	Income inequality	<b>gross hourly wages (euros)</b>	Statistics Netherlands	The average hourly wages per year are the contractual gross wages (excluding bonuses and overtime, but including the fiscal value of taxable non-monetized remunerations) per hour paid (excluding overtime and hours of leave due to vacations, general holidays and ADV reduced working hours).
F2b	Income inequality	<b>standardised annual income (euros)</b>	Statistics Netherlands	The standardised income is the disposable income adjusted for the differences in household size and composition. This adjustment takes place on the basis of equivalency factors. In the equivalency factor the benefits of scale are expressed which result from having a shared household. With the help of the equivalency factors all incomes are reduced to the income of a one person household. In this way the prosperity levels of households have been made comparable.
F3	Trust in institutions	<b>percentage who have sufficient trust</b>	SCP, based on ESS data	Percentage of the population over 15 who trust (score 6 and higher on a scale from 0–10) the four institutions. For the indicator we took the average of these four percentages. The four institutions are justice, parliament, political parties and politicians.
F4	Feeling unsafe	<b>percentage unsafe</b>	Statistics Netherlands	Percentage of the population over 15 who 'sometimes' or 'often' feel unsafe.
F5	Volunteer work	<b>percentage participation</b>	Statistics Netherlands	Percentage of the population over 15 who engage in organised volunteer work. This concerns volunteer work for organisations or clubs in the preceding 12 months. These can be managerial or other activities.
F6	Long-term unemployment	<b>percentage of the labour force</b>	Statistics Netherlands	People without work (age 15–65), or working less than 12 hours a week who are actively looking for paid work for 12 hours a week or more and who are directly available for work.  The long-term unemployed includes everyone who has been unemployed for 12 months or more.
F7	Healthy life expectancy	<b>years (women)</b>	Statistics Netherlands	Healthy life expectancy of women at birth. The categorisation by education is calculated on the basis of published data.
F8	Education level	<b>percentage with starter qualifications</b>	Statistics Netherlands	People with a starter qualification are people who have completed havo or vwo or basic vocational education (mbo-2; level 2 of the qualification structure laid down in the education act (WEB).
F9	Satisfaction with the home	<b>score</b>	Statistics Netherlands	Average score of the answers to the question 'How satisfied are you with your home?' Respondents can give a score between 1 (very unsatisfied) and 10 (very satisfied).
F10	Generalised trust	<b>percentage who have sufficient trust</b>	SCP, based on ESS data	Percentage of people stating that most people can be trusted. Score 6 and higher on a scale of 0 (you cannot be careful enough) to 10 (most people can be trusted).

**Table A.9 Chapter 4 - codes table Green growth**

Theme	Indicator	Effect on green growth	Code in table A10 (NL trend)	Code in table A10 (EU comparison)
<b>Environmental efficiency</b>				
	Production-based greenhousegas intensitiy	↓	G1	G2
	Carbon footprint	↓	G3	G4
	Emissions heavy metal to water	↓	G5	-
	Nitrogen surplus to soil	↓	G6	G7
	Waste intensitiy	↓	G8	G9
<b>Resource efficiency</b>				
	Net domestic energy use	↓	G10	G11
	Renewable energy	↑	G12	G13
	Groundwater abstraction	↓	G14	G15
	Domestic metal consumption	↓	G16	G17
	Domestic mineral consumption	↓	G18	G17
	Domestic biomass consumption	↓	G19	G20
	Raw material footprint	↓	G21	-
	Waste recycling	↑	G22	-
<b>Natural asset base</b>				
	Stocks of standing timber	↑	G23	G24
	Stocks of fish	↑	G25	-
	Energy reserves	↑	G26	G27
	Farmland birds	↑	G28	G29
	Red List indicator	↑	G30	G31
	Biodiversity footprint	↑	G32	-
	Land conversion into built-up land	↓	G33	G34
<b>Environmental quality of life</b>				
	Urban exposure to particulates	↓	G35	G36
	Chemical quality of surface water	↑	G37	-
	Biological quality of surface water	↑	G38	G39
	Nitrate in groundwater	↓	G40	-
	Level of concern	↓	G41	-
	Willingness to pay	↑	G42	-
<b>Green policy responses</b>				
	Environmental taxes	↑	G43	G44
	Implicit tax rate for energy	↑	G45	G46
	Environmental subsidies and transfers	↑	G47	-
	Mitigation expenditure by government	↑	G48	-
	Environmental protection expenditure	↑	G49	G50
<b>Economic opportunities</b>				
	Green patents	↑	G51	G52
	Environmental investments	↑	G53	G54
	Employment sustainable energy sector	↑	G55	-
	Employment (EGSS)	↑	G56	-
	Value added (EGSS)	↑	G57	-

↑ The higher, the better.

↓ The lower, the better.

**Table A.10 Sources and definitions from chapter 4**

<b>Code</b>	<b>Name of indicator</b>	<b>Unit</b>	<b>Source: (institute/study)</b>	<b>Definition, operation, explanation</b>
G1	Greenhouse gas emissions (production)	<b>index (2001=100)</b>	Statistics Netherlands	Total greenhouse gas emissions Dutch production activities/GDP (constant prices).
G2	Intensity of greenhouse gas emissions (production)	<b>CO<sub>2</sub> eq./ 1,000 euros</b>	Eurostat	Total greenhouse gas emissions production activities/GDP (constant prices).
G3	Carbon footprint	<b>1,000 kg CO<sub>2</sub>/ inhabitant</b>	PBL	Total global greenhouse gas emissions caused by Dutch consumption.
G4	Carbon footprint	<b>1,000 kg CO<sub>2</sub>/ inhabitant</b>	Statistics Netherlands own calculations	Total global greenhouse gas emissions caused by consumption.
G5	Heavy metal emissions to water	<b>index (2001=100)</b>	Statistics Netherlands	Total heavy metal emissions to water Dutch production activities/GDP (constant prices).
G6	Nutrient surplus	<b>index (2001=100)</b>	Statistics Netherlands, Compendium voor de leefomgeving	Net nitrogen (N) and phosphorus (P) emissions to soil by agricultural activities/value added agriculture (constant prices).
G7	Nitrogen surplus to soil	<b>kg nitrogen per hectare</b>	OECD	Net nitrogen (N) emissions to soil.
G8	Total waste	<b>index (2001=100)</b>	Statistics Netherlands	Total production of waste Dutch economy/GDP (constant prices).
G9	Intensity of waste production	<b>tonne/mln euros</b>	Eurostat	Production of waste/GDP.
G10	Gross domestic energy use	<b>index (2001=100)</b>	Statistics Netherlands	Total net energy use Dutch production activities/GDP (constant prices).
G11	Energy intensity of the economy	<b>ktoe per US\$</b>	OECD	Total energy use /GDP (constant prices).
G12	Renewable energy	<b>percentage</b>	Statistics Netherlands	Share of renewable energy in gross energetic final consumption.
G13	Renewable energy	<b>percentage</b>	Eurostat	Share of renewable energy in gross energetic final consumption.
G14	Groundwater extraction	<b>index (2001=100)</b>	Statistics Netherlands	Total groundwater use Dutch production activities/GDP (constant prices).
G15	Groundwater extraction	<b>m<sup>3</sup> per inhabitant</b>	Eurostat	Total groundwater use per inhabitant.
G16	Domestic use of metals	<b>index (2001=100)</b>	Statistics Netherlands	Domestic energy consumption/value added (constant prices) most relevant sectors.
G17	Domestic a-biotic material productivity	<b>US\$/kg</b>	OECD	GDP/a-biotic material use.

**Table A.10 Sources and definitions from chapter 4 (continued)**

<b>Code</b>	<b>Name of indicator</b>	<b>Unit</b>	<b>Source: (institute/study)</b>	<b>Definition, operation, explanation</b>
G18	Domestic use of minerals	<b>index (2001=100)</b>	Statistics Netherlands	Domestic mineral consumption/value added (constant prices) most relevant sectors.
G19	Domestic biomass use	<b>index (2001=100)</b>	Statistics Netherlands	Domestic biomass consumption/value added (constant prices) most relevant sectors.
G20	Domestic biomass productivity	<b>US\$/kg</b>	OECD	GDP/use of biomass.
G21	Raw materials footprint	<b>mln kg</b>	Statistics Netherlands	Mln kg raw materials.
G22	Waste recycling	<b>percentage</b>	Statistics Netherlands	Share of recycled waste.
G23	Stock of standing timber	<b>mln m3</b>	Probos	Total volume standing timber in the Netherlands.
G24	Stock of standing timber (2005–2010)	<b>percentage</b>	Eurostat	Changes in stocks of standing timber (2005–2010).
G25	Stocks of fish	<b>number</b>	ICES	Six not immediately endangered main consumption fish species in the North Sea.
G26	Energy reserves	<b>billion Sm3</b>	Statistics Netherlands	Volume of remaining energy reserves in the Netherlands.
G27	Energy reserves	<b>TJ per inhabitant</b>	BP/Eurostat	Volume of remaining energy reserves per capita.
G28	Farmland birds	<b>index (2000=100)</b>	NEM/Statistics Netherlands, Compendium voor de leefomgeving	Farm Land Bird Index (13 of the 36 European species).
G29	Farmland birds	<b>percentage change on trend line</b>	EBCC	Percentage change on trend line.
G30	Red List indicator	<b>index (1950=100)</b>	NEM/Statistics Netherlands, Compendium voor de leefomgeving	The Red Lists include plant and animal species that are endangered or vulnerable. By definition the assumption is that species were not threatened in 1950. The number of species in the Red Lists of breeding birds, butterflies, mammals, dragonflies, reptiles, amphibians and higher plants are calculated each year. The indicator shows the opposite: the number of non-endangered species as a percentage of all species of the seven species groups together. The data for the year 2000 are interpolated on the basis of data on 1995 and 2005.
G31	Red List indicator	<b>average share endangered</b>	OECD	Average number of threatened animal species per country.

**Table A.10 Sources and definitions from chapter 4 (continued)**

Code	Name of indicator	Unit	Source: (institute/study)	Definition, operation, explanation
G32	Biodiversity footprint	<b>thousand km<sup>2</sup> x MSA loss</b>	Compendium voor de leefomgeving (PBL)	The biodiversity is a measure of the global loss of biodiversity as a consequence of Dutch consumption and the production required for this in the Netherlands or elsewhere (through imports). Much land is required to meet the Dutch demand for food, bio fuels, wood and paper, both within the Netherlands and elsewhere. This footprint expresses the loss in biodiversity resulting from this. The biodiversity in the production areas is expressed in the indicator Mean Species Abundance (MSA), which indicates how many of the naturally occurring species remain in an area. The area for production multiplied by (the reciprocal of) this indicator yields the unit MSA times a thousand km <sup>2</sup> . Furthermore the loss of biodiversity is included outside the direct production areas, caused for instance by N deposits or climate change. MSA loss = (1 - MSA-remaining).
G33	Land conversion into built-up land	<b>percentage/yr</b>	Statistics Netherlands	Land area annually converted into built-up land
G34	Land conversion into built-up land	<b>percentage/yr</b>	OECD	Land area annually converted into built-up land
G35	Urban exposure to particulate matter (PM <sub>10</sub> )	<b>µg/m<sup>3</sup></b>	RIVM, Compendium voor de leefomgeving	Weighted annual average of particulate matter concentration in urban areas
G36	Urban exposure to particulate matter (PM <sub>10</sub> )	<b>µg/m<sup>3</sup></b>	EEA	Weighted annual average of particulate matter concentration in urban areas
G37	Chemical quality of surface water	<b>percentage good condition</b>	Statistics Netherlands, Compendium voor de leefomgeving	Share of water bodies meeting KRW standards
G38	Biological quality of surface water	<b>percentage good quality</b>	Statistics Netherlands, Compendium voor de leefomgeving	Share of water bodies meeting KRW standards
G39	Surface water quality	<b>percentage good condition</b>	Rijkswaterstaat WVL	Share of water bodies meeting KRW standards
G40	Concentration of nitrate in groundwater	<b>mg/l</b>	RIVM, Compendium voor de leefomgeving	Concentration of nitrate in groundwater under agricultural land
G41	Level of concern	<b>percentage</b>	Statistics Netherlands	Percentage of people who agree with the statement "Air, water and soil are very polluted"
G42	Willingness to pay	<b>percentage</b>	Statistics Netherlands	Percentage of people who agree with the statement "I am willing to pay more taxes to improve the environment".

**Table A.10 Sources and definitions from chapter 4 (end)**

<b>Code</b>	<b>Name of indicator</b>	<b>Unit</b>	<b>Source: (institute/study)</b>	<b>Definition, operation, explanation</b>
G43	Share of environmental taxes	<b>percentage</b>	Statistics Netherlands	Share of environmental taxes in total tax revenues
G44	Share of environmental taxes	<b>percentage</b>	Eurostat	Share of environmental taxes in total tax revenues
G45	Implicit tax rate for energy	<b>Euro/GJ</b>	Statistics Netherlands own calculations	The share of energy-related taxes per unit en energy consumption
G46	Implicit tax rate for energy	<b>Euro per ktoe</b>	Eurostat	The share of energy-related taxes per unit en energy consumption
G47	Share of environmental subsidies	<b>percentage</b>	Statistics Netherlands own calculations	The share of environmental subsidies in total government spending
G48	Mitigation expenditure by government	<b>mln euros</b>	Statistics Netherlands own calculations	Expenditure by the Dutch central government to prevent climate change
G49	Environmental costs	<b>percentage of GDP</b>	Statistics Netherlands	Share of total environmental costs of the Dutch economy in GDP.
G50	Environmental costs	<b>percentage of GDP</b>	Eurostat	Share of total environmental costs in GDP.
G51	Green patents	<b>percentage</b>	Statistics Netherlands own calculations	Share of green patents in total patent applications.
G52	Green patents	<b>percentage</b>	Eurostat	Share of green patents in total patent applications.
G53	Environmental investments	<b>percentage</b>	Statistics Netherlands	Share of environmental investments in total investments.
G54	Environmental investments	<b>percentage of GDP</b>	Eurostat	Share of environmental investments in GDP.
G55	Employment sustainable energy sector	<b>percentage</b>	Statistics Netherlands	Share of the renewable energy sector in total employment (see reference CBS, 2014)
G56	Employment (EGSS)	<b>percentage</b>	Statistics Netherlands	Share of the Dutch environmental sector in total employment.
G57	Value added (EGSS)	<b>percentage</b>	Statistics Netherlands	Share of value added by the Dutch environmental sector in GDP.



# B Results

**Table B.1 Quality of life, Resources and The Netherlands in the world (NL figures)**

Indicator	Unit	2000	2001	2002
<b>Quality of life (here and now)</b>				
Satisfaction with life	average score (0–10)	.	.	7.7
Final consumption expenditure	euros (in prices of 2010) per capita	.	24,790	25,177
Perceived health	% reporting good or very good	80.4	80.8	80.7
Healthy life expectancy, women	years (women)	60.9	61.6	61.9
Satisfaction with housing	average score (1–10)	7.9	.	7.9
Quality of housing	% no shortcomings	.	.	.
Satisfaction with education	average score (1–10)	7.0	.	7.2
Education level	% of population who completed upper secondary or tertiary education	66.1	66.9	67.8
Satisfaction with leisure	% reporting satisfied or very satisfied	84	85	84
Leisure	minutes per day	.	355	.
Traffic jams are a personal problem	% yes	.	.	.
Commuting time	minutes per day	51.5	52.3	51.2
Satisfaction with own financial situation	% reporting at least equal for coming year	91.7	86.5	86.5
Long-term unemployment	% unemployed for longer than 1 year	0.8	0.7	0.8
Pension reserves	replacement rate	.	.	.
Not feeling safe	% who do not feel safe	.	.	.
Reported crime	% victims	.	.	.
Satisfaction with income inequality	% who do not agree that income differences should be reduced	.	.	41.3
Income inequality	Income quintile	4.13	3.90	4.00
Income inequality men/women	% difference in hourly wage	25.3	24.0	22.9
Generalised trust	% who have sufficient trust	.	.	58.1
Feelings of discrimination	% who belong to the discriminated group	.	.	7.1
Contact with friends, family and colleagues	% who report 'several times a month'	.	.	90.8
Volunteer work	% who do volunteer work	45	43	42
Trust in institutions	% who have sufficient trust	.	.	47.9
Voter turnout	% of electorate	.	.	79.1
Satisfaction with green spaces	average score (1–10)	.	.	7.2
Nature areas	forest and other natural land as % of total area	11.6	.	.
Urban exposure to particulate matter	µg PM <sub>10</sub> /m <sup>3</sup>	31	30	32

2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
.	7.6	.	7.6	.	7.7	.	7.0	.	7.8	.
25,266	25,264	25,488	26,164	26,761	27,202	27,118	27,068	26,944	26,444	26,080
80.5	80.4	79.9	80.9	81.2	80.6	81.5	80.3	80.1	80.1	.
61.6	62.0	61.8	62.9	63.4	63.5	63.8	63.0	63.3	62.6	.
.	8.0	.	8.0	.	8.0	.	8.1	.	8.2	.
.	.	81.9	82.9	81.7	84.4	85.8	84.8	85.4	83.8	.
.	7.3	.	7.4	.	7.5	.	7.5	.	7.6	.
69.2	70.9	71.8	72.4	73.2	73.3	73.4	72.3	72.3	73.4	.
84	84	83	86	86	89	86	87	87	.	.
369	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
.	.	50	47	44	44	.	49	.	.	.
50.9	53.9	55.7	57.0	56.3	56.1	.	.	.	.	.
80.2	80.2	76.0	83.2	85.4	79.2	82.1	80.2	78.1	68.8	70.5
1.2	1.7	2.1	1.9	1.4	1.1	0.9	1.2	1.5	1.8	2.4
.	.	77	75	78	76	74	72	.	.	.
.	.	.	.	.	17.2	19.0	18.4	19.3	19.7	20.6
.	.	.	.	.	26.1	26.9	25.4	24.9	19.8	19.8
.	44.4	.	42.3	.	45.2	.	43.0	.	41.8	.
4.04	4.06	3.97	3.83	4.13	3.98	4.07	3.96	3.94	4.02	.
22.7	22.5	21.8	21.2	20.6	20.1	19.8	18.8	18.5	17.8	.
.	62.8	.	61.4	.	64.2	.	66.7	.	64.3	.
.	6.8	.	7.5	.	7.7	.	7.7	.	7.4	.
.	91.4	.	92.6	.	92.9	.	92.3	.	92.5	.
42	43	.	.	44	42	.	45	.	.	.
.	44.0	.	51.8	.	56.7	.	56.1	.	54.2	.
80.0	.	.	80.4	.	.	.	75.4	.	74.6	.
.	.	.	7.3	7.4	.	7.6	.	.	.	.
11.7	.	.	11.7	.	11.7	.	11.7	.	.	.
34	30	30	32	31	27	26	25	25	.	.

**Table B.1 Quality of life, Resources and The Netherlands in the world (NL figures) (end)**

Indicator	Unit	2000	2001	2002
<b>Resources (later)</b>				
Population density	m <sup>2</sup> per capita	2,608	2,589	2,572
Biodiversity	Mean Species Abundance (%)	13.4	12.5	13.6
Biodiversity footprint	thousand km <sup>2</sup> x MSA loss	89.24	.	.
Historical CO <sub>2</sub> emissions	tonnes per capita	6.8	6.9	6.9
Energy reserves	terajoules per capita	3.9	3.8	3.7
Phosphorus surplus soil	kg phosphorus per hectare	22.6	20.7	14.8
Quality of surface water	% 'Good' (KRW)	.	.	.
Urban exposure to particulate matter	µg PM <sub>10</sub> /m <sup>3</sup>	31	30	32
Labour force	% active/total population	44.6	44.8	45.3
Hours worked	hours per person	31.8	31.6	31.1
Healthy life expectancy	years (women)	60.9	61.6	61.9
Educational level	% highly educated population	66.1	66.9	67.8
Generalised trust	% who have sufficient trust	.	.	58.1
Feelings of discrimination	% who are part of a discriminated group	.	.	7.1
Trust in institutions	% who have sufficient trust	.	.	47.9
Capital stock	billion euros (2005)	1,531	1,564	1,589
R&D Capital stock	million euros (2000)	22,352	22,902	23,313
Net financial position NL vs. other countries	% of GDP	.	-66.5	-51.0
<b>International dimension (elsewhere)</b>				
Energy imports	gigajoules per capita	97.2	97.8	91.1
Mineral imports	kg per capita	2,247	2,329	2,250
Biomass imports	kg per capita	1,889	1,971	1,832
Emission trade balance	million tonnes of CO <sub>2</sub> equivalents	18	.	.
Development aid	% of GNI	0.8	0.8	0.8
Remittances	% of GDP	0.8	0.7	0.7
Total imports from LDC's	euros per capita	53.0	63.4	51.7
Energy imports from LDC's	gigajoules per capita	0.2	0.6	0.1
Mineral imports from LDC's	kg per capita	4.1	2.8	1.4
Biomass imports from LDC's	kg per capita	8.2	8.2	7.3
Carbon footprint of Dutch consumption as result of imports	kilotonnes of CO <sub>2</sub> equivalents	129,110	129,616	128,689

2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
2,560	2,552	2,545	2,541	2,536	2,526	2,513	2,500	2,488	2,479	.
12.8	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
.	.	84.24	.	.	.	.	83.80	.	.	.
7.0	7.0	7.1	7.1	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.3	.	.	.
3.5	3.4	3.2	3.1	3.0	2.9	3.0	2.8	2.6	2.4	2.2
21.9	15.4	18.3	17.5	11.6	9.3	5.8	11.9	7.5	6.0	.
.	.	.	.	1	.	.	.	.	.	.
34	30	30	32	31	27	26	25	25	.	.
45.4	45.6	45.7	45.9	46.7	47.5	47.5	47.1	47.6	47.8	47.8
30.9	30.8	30.7	30.9	30.8	30.8	30.6	30.6	30.5	30.3	30.0
61.6	62.0	61.8	62.9	63.4	63.5	63.8	63.0	63.3	62.6	.
69.2	70.9	71.8	72.4	73.2	73.3	73.4	72.3	72.3	73.4	.
.	62.8	.	61.4	.	64.2	.	66.7	.	64.3	.
.	6.8	.	7.5	.	7.7	.	7.7	.	7.4	.
.	44.0	.	51.8	.	56.7	.	56.1	.	54.2	.
1,612	1,630	1,651	1,678	1,709	1,742	1,760	1,772	1,789	1,800	.
23,596	23,933	24,151	24,329	24,589	.	.	.	.	.	.
-40.2	-32.1	-28.1	-23.8	-25.4	-6.4	0.2	6.4	19.8	40.8	44.9
95.2	92.6	96.6	91.8	90.3	88.9	85.7	87.2	69.0	.	.
1,916	2,184	2,105	2,146	2,339	2,465	2,493	2,788	2,648	.	.
1,738	1,773	1,735	1,714	1,819	1,880	1,754	1,905	1,932	.	.
.	.	.	.	.	.	3	.	.	.	.
0.8	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.7	.
0.8	0.8	0.6	0.6	1.1	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.3	1.4	.
49.3	46.9	73.1	68.8	129.8	188.6	125.4	146.7	182.5	185.8	.
0.0	0.1	0.7	0.2	1.7	2.5	1.8	1.6	1.6	.	.
2.9	4.0	5.6	12.4	22.8	21.6	12.3	11.7	6.6	.	.
6.5	5.7	5.9	9.3	8.3	6.8	6.0	5.4	5.7	.	.
138,510	139,976	139,202	141,481	147,690	156,140	137,587	139,759	146,828	.	.

**Table B.2 Quality of life, Resources and The Netherlands in the world (EU figures)**

Indicator	Unit	Most recent year	AT	BE	BG	HR	CY	CZ	DK	EE	FI	FR
<b>Quality of life (here and now)</b>												
Satisfaction with life	average score (0-10)	2012	.	7.4	4.3	.	6.9	6.5	8.6	6.2	8.1	6.4
Final consumption expenditure	euros (in prices of 2005) per capita	2013	23,146	22,211	3,207	6,703	13,268	7,651	28,872	6,872	23,705	22,987
Perceived health	% reporting good or very good	2012	70.0	74.3	66.6	47.2	77.1	60.4	70.8	52.4	67.1	68.1
Healthy life expectancy	years (women)	2012	62.5	65.4	65.7	64.5	64.0	64.1	61.4	57.2	56.2	63.9
Satisfaction with housing	average score (1-10)	2012	8.3	7.6	6.9	7.8	8.6	7.5	7.7	8.4	7.2	7.1
Quality of housing	% no structural defects	2012	88.2	81.6	86.2	86.8	70.0	89.5	82.1	80.6	94.0	87.2
Satisfaction with education	average score (1-10)	2012	8.0	7.5	6.7	7.0	7.5	7.3	8.1	7.0	7.6	7.0
Education level	% of the population who completed secondary or tertiary education	2013	83.1	72.8	81.8	79.7	78.5	92.8	78.3	90.6	85.9	75.1
Satisfaction with leisure	% with enough time	2007	55.5	63.6	48.7	48.4	47.4	58.3	63.5	59.8	58.7	57.2
Leisure	-	-	-	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Traffic jams are a personal problem	-	-	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Commuting time	minutes per day	2003	31.8	41.1	.	.	.	38.2	40.9	.	38.5	37.1
Satisfaction with own financial situation	% reporting at least equal for coming year	2013	89	83	66	74	47	73	94	87	93	78
Long-term unemployment	% unemployed for more than 1 year	2013	1.2	3.9	7.4	11.0	6.1	3.0	1.8	3.8	1.7	4.2
Pension reserves	pension value in number of average annual earnings (men)	2008	9.8	7.0	.	.	.	9.0	13.3	7.9	9.7	9.3
Not feeling safe	% who do not feel safe	2012	.	18.9	41.0	.	29.9	28.8	9.3	33.1	8.0	26.3
Reported crime	% victims	2012	.	22.3	15.9	.	16.8	12.6	25.9	21.0	27.0	22.3
Satisfaction with income inequality	% who do not agree that income differences should be reduced	2012	.	28.7	12.1	.	18.2	35.3	60.4	20.1	26.4	25.4
Income inequality	Income quintile	2012	4.2	3.9	6.1	5.4	4.7	3.5	4.5	5.4	3.7	4.5
Income inequality men/women	% difference in hourly wage	2012	23.4	10.0	14.7	18.0	16.2	22.0	14.9	30.0	19.4	14.8
Generalised trust	% who have a lot of trust	2012	.	45.8	17.7	.	22.4	31.4	78.4	48.4	74.4	28.0
Feelings of discrimination	% who belong to a discriminated group	2012	.	7.6	9.9	.	8.3	6.8	3.4	11.3	7.9	10.5

	DE	EL	HU	IE	IT	LV	LT	LU	MT	NL	PL	PT	RO	SK	SI	ES	SE	UK
	7.5	.	5.6	6.7	6.7	.	5.8	.	.	7.8	7.1	6.0	.	6.6	7.0	6.9	7.9	7.3
22,881	12,456	6,465	22,445	17,751	6,033	6,631	33,887	11,306	23,182	6,593	11,819	3,974	6,394	10,824	15,028	26,436	26,217	
65.3	74.8	57.6	.	68.4	47.6	44.3	73.8	73.7	75.6	57.7	48.1	70.3	65.6	63.1	74.3	81.1	74.7	
57.9	64.9	60.5	68.3	61.5	59.1	61.6	66.4	72.4	62.6	62.9	54.1	57.8	53.1	55.6	65.7	70.7	64.5	
7.9	8.3	7.6	7.0	8.2	7.6	7.0	8.2	6.6	8.1	7.9	6.9	7.4	7.8	8.2	7.7	7.7	7.9	
86.5	85.3	75.9	.	78.6	71.9	82.4	82.9	89.9	83.8	89.5	78.0	84.6	91.2	68.5	88.0	92.3	82.8	
7.5	6.4	7.0	7.1	6.8	7.1	7.2	7.3	6.9	7.0	6.4	7.6	8.2	7.0	6.8	7.5	7.4	7.2	
86.3	67.2	82.5	76.7	58.2	89.4	93.4	80.5	41.0	75.8	90.1	40.0	76.3	91.9	85.5	55.2	83.2	78.4	
65.2	43.0	58.0	56.1	50.8	53.2	57.8	64.2	46.7	61.9	59.9	54.7	38.3	58.5	52.4	58.0	56.4	61.2	
.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
45.0	40.1	45.7	42.0	34.7	.	.	39.4	.	50.7	42.2	33.4	.	44.3	.	38.1	41.7	45.4	
88	42	69	70	70	87	85	87	87	82	72	49	72	66	74	79	91	83	
2.4	18.4	5.0	7.9	6.9	5.8	5.1	1.8	2.9	2.4	4.4	9.3	3.4	10.0	5.2	13.1	1.5	2.7	
7.7	15.1	10.6	7.5	10.6	.	.	21.8	.	18.0	8.5	8.7	.	.	12.7	13.4	10.4	5.4	
21.9	.	28.2	20.3	27.8	.	44.4	.	.	14.5	16.0	24.3	.	30.3	5.1	22.1	13.8	25.1	
.	.	8.6	16.1	21.6	.	12.0	.	.	17.3	12.3	13.8	.	.	10.2	28.6	26.7	18.2	
24.8	.	14.2	22.0	16.9	.	9.6	.	.	41.8	21.9	6.4	.	.	12.9	16.6	31.1	36.6	
4.3	6.6	4.0	4.7	5.5	6.5	5.3	4.1	3.9	3.6	4.9	5.8	6.3	3.7	3.4	7.2	3.7	5.4	
22.4	.	6.7	14.4	6.7	13.8	12.6	8.6	6.1	16.9	6.4	15.7	9.7	21.5	2.5	17.8	15.9	19.1	
.	.	39.2	45.7	39.9	.	46.2	.	.	64.3	26.1	20.1	.	26.2	34.6	44.3	62.5	47.8	
4.5	.	7.6	3.8	5.6	.	10.2	.	.	7.4	5.0	4.3	.	.	2.2	6.3	7.9	11.9	

**Table B.2 Quality of life, Resources and The Netherlands in the world (EU figures)  
(continued)**

Indicator	Unit	Most recent year	AT	BE	BG	HR	CY	CZ	DK	EE	FI	FR
Contact with friends, family and colleagues	% who report 'several times a month'	2012	.	86.8	72.5	.	68.8	77.9	91.6	64.7	84.7	87.1
Volunteer work	% who do volunteer work	2008	.	18.8	3.9	6.2	1.6	10.6	28.4	8.2	13.2	19.7
Trust in institutions	% who have sufficient trust	2012	.	37.2	6.5	.	19.0	19.0	60.8	24.1	55.5	23.8
Voter turnout	% of electorate	(recent)	74.9	89.2	52.5	54.2	78.7	59.5	87.7	63.5	67.4	55.4
Satisfaction with green spaces	% of people complaining about the lack of access to green spaces	2007	10.8	13.9	28.9	14.9	17.4	9.1	4.4	6.1	0.7	14.3
Nature areas	forest and other woodland as % of total area	2009	47	26	.	.	.	38	18	55	68	32
Urban exposure to particulate matter	µg PM <sub>10</sub> /m <sup>3</sup>	2011	27.0	27.0	58.0	.	36.0	29.0	.	13.0	12.0	25.0
<b>Resources (later)</b>												
Population density	m <sup>2</sup> per capita	2012	9,953	2,762	15,195	13,262	10,707	7,505	7,708	33,761	62,522	8,393
Biodiversity	-	-	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Biodiversity footprint	thousand km <sup>2</sup> x MSA loss	-	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Historical CO <sub>2</sub> emissions	tonnes of CO <sub>2</sub> per inhabitant	2010	4.73	9.1	.	.	.	7.8	6.5	.	4.9	4.9
Energy reserves	terajoules per capita	2012	.	.	4.5	.	.	1.7	0.9	.	.	0.01
Phosphorus surplus soil	kg phosphorus per ha	2008	2	5	-4	.	21	1	7	-8	5	2
Quality of surface water	% 'Not At Risk' (WFD)	2007	36.0	20.0	69.0	.	80.4	6.8	30.0	77.8	.	49.1
Urban exposure to particulate matter	µg PM <sub>10</sub> /m <sup>3</sup>	2011	27.0	27.0	58.0	.	36.0	29.0	.	13.0	12.0	25.0
Labour force	employed population as % of total population	2013	52.6	44.5	46.6	39.7	52.4	50.4	51.5	51.7	49.4	45.9
Hours worked	hours worked per person	2013	37.2	37.2	40.7	39.8	40.5	40.5	33.6	38.8	36.9	37.5
Healthy life expectancy	years (women)	2012	62.5	65.4	65.7	64.5	64.0	64.1	61.4	57.2	56.2	63.9
Education level	% of the population who completed upper secondary or tertiary education	2013	83.1	72.8	81.8	79.7	78.5	92.8	78.3	90.6	85.9	75.1
Generalised trust	% who have sufficient trust	2012	.	45.8	17.7	.	22.4	31.4	78.4	48.4	74.4	28.0
Feelings of discrimination	% who belong to a discriminated group	2012	.	7.6	9.9	.	8.3	6.8	3.4	11.3	7.9	10.5
Trust in institutions	% who have sufficient trust	2012	.	37.2	6.5	.	19.0	19.0	60.8	24.1	55.5	23.8

DE	EL	HU	IE	IT	LV	LT	LU	MT	NL	PL	PT	RO	SK	SI	ES	SE	UK
82.7	.	46.3	72.0	84.0	.	62.7	.	.	92.5	62.2	91.1	.	.	76.3	86.5	92.1	76.4
19.9	2.4	5.8	.	.	5.7	.	.	.	34.8	6.2	2.8	7.5	7.4	16.7	4.1	21.4	15.1
34.4	.	25.4	23.8	17.4	.	16.7	.	.	54.2	11.0	8.7	.	.	11.8	15.0	50.6	30.8
71.6	62.5	64.4	70.0	75.2	59.5	35.9	91.2	93.0	74.6	48.9	58.0	41.8	59.1	65.6	68.9	84.6	65.8
4.4	29.3	18.4	29.3	33.1	13.6	25.6	11.3	26.7	6.5	17.1	16.3	17.7	10.8	7.0	13.1	1.6	6.0
34	33	23	12	33	52	37	36	.	12	33	46	.	46	63	32	66	15
23.0	.	33.0	18.0	32.0	23.0	23.0	18.0	.	25.0	39.0	27.0	39.0	34.0	31.0	23.0	17.0	21.0
4,360	11,688	9,378	15,311	4,948	31,745	21,856	4,873	765	2,479	8,114	8,708	11,183	9,069	9,855	10,947	47,313	3,852
.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
8.6	.	3.5	3.1	3.2	.	.	.	.	7.3	5.8	.	3.3	5.6	.	3.0	4.6	9.7
7.1	3.8	2.3	.	0.2	.	.	.	.	2.0	3.7	.	0.5	.	.	0.2	.	0.5
.	-3	-15	3	-4	-1	-10	1	20	10	7	3	-2	-4	7	3	1	7
20.3	.	4.4	42.6	.	50.0	84.1	67.0	43.4	1.0	65.6	50.0	67.9	30.4	12.9	64.7	.	24.0
23.0	.	33.0	18.0	32.0	23.0	23.0	18.0	.	25.0	39.0	27.0	39.0	34.0	31.0	23.0	17.0	21.0
52.6	45.2	44.9	47.0	42.1	50.8	49.5	49.0	45.3	53.9	47.5	51.3	46.9	50.2	48.9	49.8	53.8	51.7
35.3	42.1	39.5	35.4	36.9	38.8	38.1	37.1	38.4	30.0	40.7	39.4	40.1	40.7	39.6	38.0	36.3	36.5
57.9	64.9	60.5	68.3	61.5	59.1	61.6	66.4	72.4	62.6	62.9	54.1	57.8	53.1	55.6	65.7	70.7	64.5
86.3	67.2	82.5	76.7	58.2	89.4	93.4	80.5	41.0	75.8	90.1	40.0	76.3	91.9	85.5	55.2	83.2	78.4
.	.	39.2	45.7	39.9	.	46.2	.	.	64.3	26.1	20.1	.	26.2	34.6	44.3	62.5	47.8
4.5	.	7.6	3.8	5.6	.	10.2	.	.	7.4	5.0	4.3	.	.	2.2	6.3	7.9	11.9
34.4	.	25.4	23.8	17.4	.	16.7	.	.	54.2	11.0	8.7	.	.	11.9	15.0	50.6	30.8

**Table B.2 Quality of life, Resources and The Netherlands in the world (EU figures)  
(end)**

Indicator	Unit	Most recent year	AT	BE	BG	HR	CY	CZ	DK	EE	FI	FR
Capital stock	-	-	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
R&D capital stock	-	-	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Net financial position NL vs. other countries	% of GDP	2012	0.1	48.3	-81.9	-97.8	-91.9	-35.3	37.5	-55.3	10.0	-20.9
<b>International dimension (elsewhere)</b>												
Energy imports	<b>gigajoules per capita</b>	<b>2011</b>	103.2	216.3	40.5	42.0	0.2	69.6	45.8	19.6	151.1	78.9
Mineral imports	<b>kg per capita</b>	<b>2011</b>	1,880	4,660	336	569	134	1,058	1,100	1,122	1,775	618
Biomass imports	<b>kg per capita</b>	<b>2011</b>	2,905	4,420	383	697	1,588	970	2,769	1,691	2,302	930
Emission trade balance	-	-	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Development aid	% of GNI	2012	0.28	0.5	0.1	.	0.1	0.1	0.8	0.1	0.5	0.5
Remittances	% of GDP	2012	0.79	0.9	0.1	0.3	2.0	1.0	0.9	0.4	0.3	0.5
Total imports from LDC's	<b>euros per capita</b>	<b>2012</b>	9.23	280.8	1.4	16.2	8.4	7.9	78.4	6.7	40.2	81.8
Energy imports from LDC's	<b>gigajoules per capita</b>	<b>2011</b>	0.0	1.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.8	0.0	0.0	2.2
Mineral imports from LDC's	<b>kg per capita</b>	<b>2011</b>	0.0	81.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	44.4
Biomass imports from LDC's	<b>kg per capita</b>	<b>2011</b>	0.2	24.1	1.0	0.4	0.9	0.9	15.5	0.4	13.4	5.4
Carbon footprint of Dutch consumption as result of imports	<b>kilotonnes of CO<sub>2</sub> equivalents</b>	-	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Austria	(AT)	Italy	(IT)									
Belgium	(BE)	Latvia	(LV)									
Bulgaria	(BG)	Lithuania	(LT)									
Croatia	(HR)	Luxemburg	(LU)									
Cyprus	(CY)	Malta	(MT)									
Czech Republic	(CZ)	Netherlands	(NL)									
Denmark	(DK)	Poland	(PL)									
Estonia	(EE)	Portugal	(PT)									
Finland	(FI)	Romania	(RO)									
France	(FR)	Slovakia	(SK)									
Germany	(DE)	Slovenia	(SI)									
Greece	(EL)	Spain	(ES)									
Hungary	(HU)	Sweden	(SK)									
Ireland	(IE)	United Kingdom	(UK)									

Source: [http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/statistics\\_explained/index.php/Glossary:Country\\_codes/nl](http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/statistics_explained/index.php/Glossary:Country_codes/nl).

	DE	EL	HU	IE	IT	LV	LT	LU	MT	NL	PL	PT	RO	SK	SI	ES	SE	UK
	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
	30.6	-128.5	-99.3	-121.7	-23.8	-69.4	-56.8	-46.9	57.9	88.3	-67.2	-111.9	-78.2	-56.7	-46.8	-92.4	-9.3	-10.2
	116.4	80.5	59.9	86.2	103.8	30.0	169.2	4.4	0.1	69.0	34.3	67.3	11.9	121.9	24.2	87.3	94.6	78.9
	1,043	207	367	1,267	586	872	1,059	15,630	123	2,648	598	289	249	1,340	1,207	471	628	267
	1,307	692	710	1,645	1,011	1,368	1,514	2,792	1,217	1,932	759	1,545	376	1,060	2,934	927	2,177	801
	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
	0.4	0.1	0.1	0.5	0.1	0.1	0.1	1.0	0.2	0.7	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	1.0	0.6
	0.5	0.6	0.9	0.9	0.5	0.2	2.7	19.2	0.4	1.4	0.3	0.6	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.8	0.2	0.1
	56.1	14.3	1.3	46.8	58.0	1.2	17.3	28.3	4.5	185.8	8.2	229.6	5.1	9.9	31.5	85.3	47.5	66.7
	0.8	0.3	0.0	0.0	3.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.6	0.0	9.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.0	0.0	1.1
	27.9	4.8	0.0	591.6	30.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	6.6	3.2	1.5	61.8	0.0	26.3	74.5	0.0	1.7
	4.4	2.2	1.1	0.5	6.1	2.0	2.5	0.0	0.8	5.7	1.7	12.2	1.9	0.1	1.8	5.3	9.5	3.8
	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.

**Table B.3 Social domains (NL figures)**

Indicator	Unit	2000	2001	2002
<b>Well-being</b>				
Satisfaction with life	average score (1-10)	.	.	7.7
Perceived health	% reporting good or very good	80.4	80.8	80.7
Satisfaction with housing	average score (1-10)	7.9	.	7.9
Satisfaction with education	average score (1-10)	7.0	.	7.2
Satisfaction with leisure	% reporting satisfied or very satisfied	84	85	84
Satisfaction with own financial situation	% reporting at least equal for coming year	92	86	86
Not feeling safe	% who do not feel safe	.	.	.
Satisfaction with income inequality	% who do not agree that income differences should be reduced	.	.	41.3
Trust in institutions	% who have sufficient trust	.	.	47.9
Satisfaction with green spaces	average score (1-10)	.	.	7.2
<b>Climate and energy</b>				
Historical CO <sub>2</sub> emissions	tonnes per capita	6.8	6.9	6.9
Emission trade balance	mIn tonnes of CO <sub>2</sub> equivalents	18	.	.
Total greenhouse gas emissions per capita	tonnes of CO <sub>2</sub> equivalents per capita	13.4	13.4	13.2
Greenhouse gas intensity of energy use	tonnes of CO <sub>2</sub> equivalents per tonne oil equivalents	2.2	2.2	2.2
CO <sub>2</sub> emissions	tonnes of CO <sub>2</sub> emissions per inhabitant	10.7	11.0	10.9
Greenhouse gas intensity of the economy	kg CO <sub>2</sub> equivalents per euro GDP (2005 prices)	0.44	0.44	0.44
Energy reserves	Terajoules per capita	3.9	3.8	3.7
Renewable energy	% of gross final energy consumption	1.4	1.4	1.6
Depletion of energy reserves	% of net national income	.	.	.
Gross domestic energy use	kg oil equivalents per capita	4,616	4,714	4,695
Energy intensity of the economy	kg oil equivalents per 1,000 euros GDP (in prices 2005)	159.2	161.1	161.1
Imports of energy	gigajoules per capita	97.2	97.8	91.1
<b>Quality of local environment</b>				
Phosphorus surplus soil	kg phosphorus per ha	22.6	20.7	14.8
Nitrogen surplus in soil	kg nitrogen per hectare	246.3	232.1	200.5
Quality of surface water	% 'Not At Risk' (WFD)	.	.	.
Water collection from surface and ground water	m <sup>3</sup> per capita	.	558	.
Urban exposure to particulate matter	µg PM <sub>10</sub> /m <sup>3</sup>	31	30	32
Exposure to ozone in urban areas	microgram per m <sup>3</sup> a day	1,126	1,787	1,496
Emissions of sulphur oxides	kg per capita	8.7	8.7	8.2
<b>Biodiversity and landscape</b>				
Population density	m <sup>2</sup> per capita	2,608	2,589	2,572
Land use as a result of consumption	ha per inhabitant	0.68	.	.
Biodiversity footprint	thousand km <sup>2</sup> x MSA-loss	89.24	.	.
Satisfaction with green areas	average score (1-10)	.	.	7.2
Nature reserves	forest and other natural land as % of total area	11.6	.	.
State of preservation	% favourable	.	.	.
Red List indicator	index (1950 = 100)	61.3	.	.
Farmland Bird Index	index (2000 = 100)	100	95.0	90.3

2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
.	7.6	.	7.6	.	7.7	.	7.0	.	7.8	.
80.5	80.4	79.9	80.9	81.2	80.6	81.5	80.3	80.1	80.1	.
.	8.0	.	8.0	.	8.0	.	8.1	.	8.2	.
.	7.3	.	7.4	.	7.5	.	7.5	.	7.6	.
84	84	83	86	86	89	86	87	87	.	.
80	80	76	83	85	79	82	80	78	69	71
.	.	.	.	.	17.2	19.0	18.4	19.3	19.7	20.6
.	44.4	.	42.3	.	45.2	.	43.0	.	41.8	.
.	44.0	.	51.9	.	56.7	.	56.1	.	54.3	.
.	.	.	7.3	7.4	.	7.6	.	.	.	.
7.0	7.0	7.1	7.1	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.3	.	.	.
.	.	.	.	.	.	3	.	.	.	.
13.2	13.2	12.8	12.6	12.5	12.4	12.0	12.6	11.7	11.4	.
2.1	2.1	2.1	2.1	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.1	2.0	2.0	.
11.1	11.1	10.8	10.6	10.5	10.7	10.3	10.5	9.8	.	.
0.44	0.43	0.41	0.39	0.37	0.36	0.37	0.38	0.35	.	.
3.5	3.4	3.2	3.1	3.0	2.9	3.0	2.8	2.6	2.4	2.2
1.6	1.9	2.3	2.6	3.1	3.4	4.1	3.8	4.3	4.5	4.5
.	.	.	.	.	.	.	-1.7	-1.8	-2.0	-2.1
4,795	4,874	4,856	4,732	4,899	4,854	4,732	5,032	4,655	4,667	4,634
165.3	164.3	160.7	151.1	155.7	149.5	150.9	158.4	144.7	149.4	.
95.2	92.6	96.6	91.8	90.3	88.9	85.7	87.2	69.0	.	.
21.9	15.4	18.3	17.5	11.6	9.3	5.8	11.9	7.5	6.0	.
228.8	209.6	211.8	198.4	187.0	178.0	170.6	170.4	164.7	179.8	.
.	.	.	.	1.0	.	.	.	.	.	.
644	714	702	672	665	647	.	.	.	.	.
34	30	30	32	31	27	26	25	25	.	.
2,665	1,656	1,419	2,890	1,179	1,759	1,361	1,258	1,760	.	.
7.8	7.8	7.9	8.0	7.3	5.8	4.8	4.3	3.7	.	.
2,560	2,552	2,545	2,541	2,536	2,526	2,513	2,500	2,488	2,479	.
.	.	0.65	.	.	.	.	0.63	.	.	.
.	.	84.24	.	.	.	.	83.80	.	.	.
.	.	.	7.3	7.4	.	7.6	.	.	.	.
11.7	.	.	11.7	.	11.7	.	11.7	.	.	.
.	.	.	25.5	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
.	.	61.2	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	61.9
87.5	92.5	94.2	92.9	93.5	90.9	87.8	88.3	91.6	88.1	.

**Table B.3 Social domains (NL figures) (continued)**

Indicator	Unit	2000	2001	2002
<b>Health</b>				
Perceived health	% reporting good or very good	80.4	80.8	80.7
Healthy life expectancy	years (women)	60.9	61.6	61.9
Healthy life expectancy, men	years	61.5	61.8	62.0
Life expectancy, men	years	80.6	80.7	80.7
Life expectancy, women	years	75.5	75.8	76.0
Mental health	MHI-5 sum score	.	78.5	78.8
Health care expenditure	% of GDP	8.0	8.3	8.9
Overweight	% of population aged 20 years and older	44.3	44.9	45.1
Smoking	% of population aged 12 years and older	32.7	33.3	32.3
<b>Housing and residential environment</b>				
Satisfaction with housing	average score (1-10)	7.9	.	7.9
Quality of housing	% no shortcomings	.	.	.
Problems in the neighbourhood	% who experience problems	.	.	.
Overcrowding rate	% not enough space	.	.	.
Price index existing owner-occupied dwellings	price index (2010=100)	71	79	84
Average monthly rent	euros	360	369	380
Share of housing costs in disposable household income	% of disposable income	.	.	.
Financial burden of the total housing cost	% who report very high	.	.	.
Number of available dwellings	number of dwellings per 1,000 inhabitants	419	420	420
<b>Mobility</b>				
Traffic jams are a personal problem	% yes	.	.	.
Commuting time	minutes per day	51.5	52.3	51.2
Mobility (general)	billion passenger-kilometres	186.6	187.6	189.3
Car ownership	number of cars per 1,000 inhabitants	400	409	417
Time lost because of traffic jams and delays	million vehicle hours lost	30.8	36.3	33.9
Noise nuisance from traffic (road, rail, air)	% who experience noise nuisance	55	54	58
Bicycle ownership	% of population	83.0	83.5	82.8
Car use	% of total passenger-kilometres	86.0	86.0	86.4
Train use	% of total passenger-kilometres	9.4	9.4	9.3
Traffic deaths	number per million inhabitants	73.5	67.7	66.2
Rail infrastructure	km of railway per 1,000 inhabitants	0.176	0.175	0.174
<b>Security</b>				
Not feeling safe	% who do not feel safe	.	.	.
Reported crime	% victims	.	.	.
Registered crime	number per 1,000 inhabitants	.	.	.
Registered murders	number per 100,000 inhabitants	1.1	1.3	1.2
Underage suspects	% of all suspects	11.4	11.7	11.5
Number of prisoners	number per 100,000 inhabitants	80	86	88
Security expenditure	% of GDP	.	.	1.4
Number of police officers	number per 100,000 inhabitants	210	225	228
Trust in the police	% of population who have sufficient trust	.	.	62.1

2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
80.5	80.4	79.9	80.9	81.2	80.6	81.5	80.3	80.1	80.1	.
61.6	62.0	61.8	62.9	63.4	63.5	63.8	63.0	63.3	62.6	.
62.4	62.6	62.5	63.6	64.7	63.7	65.3	63.9	63.7	64.7	.
80.9	81.4	81.6	81.9	82.3	82.3	82.6	82.7	82.8	82.8	.
76.2	76.9	77.2	77.6	78.0	78.3	78.5	78.8	79.2	79.1	.
79.3	78.6	78.7	79.1	79.1	79.7	79.3	78.8	78.4	79.8	80.0
9.8	10.0	9.8	9.7	10.8	11.0	11.9	12.1	11.9	12.4	.
46.3	46.8	45.2	46.7	45.7	47.1	47.4	48.2	48.2	47.9	48.2
30.8	29.6	29.5	29.6	27.9	27.6	27.1	25.6	25.6	23.3	23.2
.	8.0	.	8.0	.	8.0	.	8.1	.	8.2	.
.	.	81.9	82.9	81.7	84.4	85.8	84.8	85.4	83.8	.
.	.	22.3	20.8	21.2	19.0	20.6	18.0	18.8	18.8	.
.	.	1.9	1.8	1.9	1.7	1.7	2.0	1.7	2.5	.
87	91	94	99	103	106	102	100	98	91	85
392	404	412	423	429	438	450	457	.	.	.
.	.	31.5	31.2	30.9	28.4	28.0	28.6	29.1	29.2	.
.	.	17.7	15.4	12.7	11.7	9.6	11.8	11.7	11.0	.
421	422	424	427	430	433	435	435	436	445	449
.	.	50	47	44	44	.	49	.	.	.
50.9	53.9	55.7	57.0	56.3	56.1	.	.	.	.	.
190.9	196.9	194.0	195.1	197.2	.	.	183.6	198.5	193.0	199.5
423	427	429	434	442	451	458	460	464	470	472
34.8	37.6	40.3	44.0	48.4	48.8	43.0	45.9	35.9	.	.
57	55	55	58	57	54	53	50	51	.	.
83.6	84.2	83.4	83.6	84.0	.	.	85.0	85.2	85.4	.
87.4	87.2	87.3	87.2	87.1	87.3	87.7	87.2	88.1	88.2	.
8.7	8.9	8.3	9.5	9.2	9.2	8.8	9.1	8.7	8.8	.
67.2	54.2	50.1	49.7	48.4	45.7	43.7	38.6	39.7	38.9	34.0
0.173	0.173	0.172	0.171	0.171	0.176	0.175	0.181	0.181	0.180	.
.	.	.	.	.	17.2	19.0	18.4	19.3	19.7	20.6
.	.	.	.	.	26.1	26.9	25.4	24.9	19.8	19.8
.	.	82.6	80.3	79.6	77.7	75.9	71.9	71.5	68.0	.
1.3	1.2	1.1	0.8	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	.
11.4	11.9	16.1	16.1	16.3	15.4	15.0	14.0	12.8	12.2	.
94	107	109	101	95	89	87	87	84	80	.
1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.7	.
228	221	216	216	216	216	221	224	230	237	.
.	65.8	.	70.8	.	73.3	.	73.6	.	76.7	.

**Table B.3 Social domains (NL figures) (continued)**

Indicator	Unit	2000	2001	2002
Trust in the justice system	% of population who have sufficient trust	.	.	52.1
Fear of terrorist attacks	% of population who think a terrorist attack in the Netherlands is likely or very likely	.	.	.
<b>Social participation and trust</b>				
Contact with friends, family and colleagues	% who report 'several times a month'	.	.	90.8
Volunteer work	% who do volunteer work	45.0	43.0	42.0
Satisfaction with family life	average score (1-10)	7.7	.	7.9
Satisfaction with residential environment	average score (1-10)	7.7	.	7.7
Satisfaction with leisure time	% reporting satisfied or very satisfied	84	85	84
Leisure time	minutes per day	.	355	.
Feelings of discrimination	% who belong to the discriminated group	.	.	7.1
Generalised trust	% who have sufficient trust	.	.	58.1
Opinions about immigrants	% positive opinion	.	.	28.4
Trust in institutions	% who have sufficient trust	.	.	47.9
Voter turnout	% of electorate	.	.	79.1
<b>Education and knowledge</b>				
Satisfaction with own education	average score (1-10)	7.0	.	7.2
Education level	% of population with completed upper secondary or tertiary education	66.1	66.9	67.8
Highly educated population	% of population (25-64 years)	24.0	24.1	25.0
Education level of young people	% of population (20-24 years)	71.9	72.7	73.1
Early school-leavers	% of population (18-24 years)	15.4	15.1	15.3
Maths skills	PISA score	.	.	.
Lifelong learning	% of population (25-64 years)	15.5	15.9	15.8
Education expenditure	% of GDP	4.7	4.8	4.9
R&D capital stock	mln euros (in prices 2000)	22,352	22,902	23,313
R&D expenditure	% of GDP	.	1.8	1.8
Number of researchers	number per mln inhabitants	2,659.9	2,858.3	2,734.3
Scientific articles	number per mln inhabitants	775.1	755.3	773.0
Patents	number per mln inhabitants	155	132	131
Knowledge networks	% collaborating companies	0.3	.	0.4
<b>Material welfare and economy</b>				
Final consumption expenditure	euros (in prices of 2010) per capita	.	24,790	25,177
Gross Domestic Product	euros (in prices of 2010) per capita	.	36,254	36,242
Labour productivity	euros GDP (adjusted PPP)/hour worked	41.3	41.6	41.8
Labour force	employed population as % of total population	44.6	44.8	45.3
Hours worked	hours worked per person	31.8	31.6	31.1
Duration of working life	years	35.5	36.1	36.7
Labour participation rate	% of population (15 years and older)	63.5	64.2	64.9
Unemployment rate	% of labour force	3.8	3.5	4.1
Capital stock	1,000 mln euros (in prices of 2005)	1,531	1,564	1,589

2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
.	56.3	.	61.0	.	63.7	.	66.9	.	66.9	.
.	.	.	44.7	.	32.6	.	.	.	.	.
.	91.4	.	92.6	.	92.9	.	92.3	.	92.5	.
42.0	43.0	.	.	44.0	42.0	.	44.7	.	.	.
.	7.9	.	8.0	.	8.0	.	8.1	.	8.0	.
.	7.6	.	7.7	.	7.8	.	7.9	.	7.9	.
84	84	83	86	86	89	86	87	87	.	.
369	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
.	6.8	.	7.5	.	7.7	.	7.7	.	7.4	.
.	62.8	.	61.4	.	64.2	.	66.7	.	64.3	.
.	34.3	.	39.2	.	40.6	.	41.6	.	45.8	.
.	44.0	.	51.9	.	56.7	.	56.1	.	54.3	.
80.0	.	.	80.4	.	.	.	75.4	.	74.6	.
.	7.3	.	7.4	.	7.5	.	7.5	.	7.6	.
69.2	70.9	71.8	72.4	73.2	73.3	73.4	72.3	72.3	73.4	75.8
27.5	29.5	30.1	30.2	30.8	32.2	32.8	31.9	32.1	32.9	33.9
75.0	75.0	75.6	74.7	76.2	76.2	76.6	77.6	78.2	79.0	78.2
14.3	14.1	13.5	12.6	11.7	11.4	10.9	10.0	9.1	8.8	9.2
537.8	.	.	530.7	.	.	526.0	.	.	523.0	.
16.4	16.4	15.9	15.6	16.6	17.0	17.0	16.6	16.7	16.5	17.4
5.2	5.2	5.2	5.1	4.9	5.1	5.6	5.6	5.5	5.5	.
23,596	23,933	24,151	24,329	24,589	.	.	.	.	.	.
1.8	1.8	1.8	1.7	1.7	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.8	1.7	1.8
2,714.4	2,983.2	2,934.8	3,245.2	3,105.0	3,073.6	2,835.4	3,232.2	3,218.1	.	.
780.2	813.5	851.3	856.1	868.0	890.3	899.7	933.4	929.1	.	.
141	134	136	133	127	147	156	152	155	142	.
.	0.4	.	0.4	.	0.4	.	0.3	.	.	.
25,266	25,264	25,488	26,164	26,761	27,202	27,118	27,068	26,944	26,444	26,080
36,339	37,014	37,847	39,294	40,944	41,795	40,416	40,849	41,528	40,870	40,573
42.4	43.8	44.7	45.5	46.2	46.2	45.1	46.0	46.1	45.6	45.8
45.4	45.6	45.7	45.9	46.7	47.5	47.5	47.1	47.6	47.8	47.8
30.9	30.8	30.7	30.9	30.8	30.8	30.6	30.6	30.5	30.3	30.0
36.9	37.2	37.5	38.0	38.7	39.4	39.8	39.0	39.1	39.6	.
64.8	64.9	64.9	65.3	66.1	66.6	66.8	65.1	64.8	65.2	65.2
5.4	6.4	6.5	5.5	4.5	3.8	4.8	5.4	5.4	6.4	8.3
1,612	1,630	1,651	1,678	1,709	1,742	1,760	1,772	1,789	1,800	.

**Table B.3 Social domains (NL figures) (end)**

Indicator	Unit	2000	2001	2002
Gross fixed capital formation	% of GDP	.	26.6	24.5
ICT expenditure	% of GDP	.	.	.
Satisfaction with own financial situation	% reporting at least equal for coming year	91.7	86.5	86.5
Long-term unemployment	% unemployed for longer than 1 year	0.8	0.7	0.8
<b>Financial sustainability</b>				
Net financial position NL vs. other countries	% of GDP	.	-66.5	-51.0
Pension reserves	replacement rate	.	.	.
Government debt	% of GDP	.	42.6	42.6
<b>Trade, aid and natural resources</b>				
Development aid	% of GNI	0.8	0.8	0.8
Remittances	% of GDP	0.8	0.7	0.7
Mineral imports	kg per capita	2,247	2,329	2,250
Biomass imports	kg per capita	1,889	1,971	1,832
Total imports from LDC's	euros per capita	53	63	52
Energy imports from LDC's	gigajoules per capita	0.2	0.6	0.1
Mineral imports from LDC's	kg per capita	4.13	2.8	1.4
Biomass imports from LDC's	kg per capita	8.23	8.2	7.3
Carbon footprint of Dutch consumption as result of import	kilotonnes of CO <sub>2</sub> equivalents	129,110	129,616	128,689
<b>Inequality</b>				
Satisfaction with income inequality	% who do not agree that income differences should be reduced	.	.	41.3
Income inequality	income quintile	4.1	3.9	4.0
Income inequality men/women	% difference in hourly wage	25.3	24.0	22.9

2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
23.5	22.7	22.5	22.7	22.8	22.9	21.4	19.7	20.5	19.3	18.5
6.8	6.8	7.1	7.2	6.7	6.3	6.2	.	.	.	.
80.2	80.2	76.0	83.2	85.4	79.2	82.1	80.2	78.1	68.8	70.5
1.2	1.7	2.1	1.9	1.4	1.1	0.9	1.2	1.5	1.8	2.4
-40.2	-32.1	-28.1	-23.8	-25.4	-6.4	0.2	6.4	19.8	40.8	44.9
.	.	77.0	75.0	78.0	76.0	74.0	72.0	.	.	.
43.9	44.6	43.9	39.6	38.0	50.1	51.3	53.2	54.7	60.1	62.6
0.8	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.7	.
0.8	0.8	0.6	0.6	1.1	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.3	1.4	.
1,916	2,184	2,105	2,146	2,339	2,465	2,493	2,788	2,648	.	.
1,738	1,773	1,735	1,714	1,819	1,880	1,754	1,905	1,932	.	.
49	47	73	69	130	189	125	147	183	186	.
0.0	0.1	0.7	0.2	1.7	2.5	1.8	1.6	1.6	.	.
2.9	4.0	5.6	12.4	22.8	21.6	12.3	11.7	6.6	.	.
6.5	5.7	5.9	9.3	8.3	6.8	6.0	5.4	5.7	.	.
138,510	139,976	139,202	141,481	147,690	156,140	137,587	139,759	146,828	.	.
.	44.4	.	42.3	.	45.2	.	43.0	.	41.8	.
4.0	4.1	4.0	3.8	4.1	4.0	4.1	4.0	3.9	4.0	.
22.7	22.5	21.8	21.2	20.6	20.1	19.8	18.8	18.5	17.8	.

**Table B.4 Social domains (EU figures)**

Indicator	Unit	Most recent year	AT	BE	BG	HR	CY	CZ	DK	EE	FI
<b>Well-being</b>											
Satisfaction with life	average score (1–10)	2012	.	7.4	4.3	.	6.9	6.5	8.6	6.2	8.1
Perceived health	% reporting good or very good	2012	70.0	74.3	66.6	47.2	77.1	60.4	70.8	52.4	67.1
Satisfaction with housing	average score (1–10)	2012	8.3	7.6	6.9	7.8	8.6	7.5	7.7	8.4	7.2
Satisfaction with own education	average score (1–10)	2012	8.0	7.5	6.7	7.0	7.5	7.3	8.1	7.0	7.6
Satisfaction with leisure time	% with enough time	2007	55.5	63.6	48.7	48.4	47.4	58.3	63.5	59.8	58.7
Satisfaction with own financial situation	% reporting at least equal for coming year	2013	89	83	66	74	47	73	94	87	93
Not feeling safe	% who do not feel safe	2012	.	18.9	41.0	.	29.9	28.8	9.3	33.1	8.0
Satisfaction with income inequality	% who do not agree that income differences should be reduced	2012	.	28.7	12.1	.	18.2	35.3	60.4	20.1	26.4
Trust in institutions	% who have sufficient trust	2012	.	37.3	6.5	.	19.0	19.0	60.8	24.1	55.5
Satisfaction with green areas	% of people complaining about the lack of access to green areas	2007	10.8	13.9	28.9	14.9	17.4	9.1	4.4	6.1	0.7
<b>Climate and energy</b>											
Historic CO <sub>2</sub> emissions	tonnes of CO <sub>2</sub> per inhabitant	2010	4.7	9.1	.	.	.	7.8	6.5	.	4.9
Emission trade balance	-	-	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Total greenhouse gas emissions per capita	tonnes of CO <sub>2</sub> equivalents per capita	2012	9.5	10.5	8.4	6.2	10.7	12.5	9.2	14.3	11.3
Greenhouse gas intensity of energy use	tonnes of CO <sub>2</sub> equivalents per tonne oil equivalents	2012	1.8	1.7	2.6	2.3	2.6	2.5	2.2	2.8	1.4
CO <sub>2</sub> emissions	tonnes of CO <sub>2</sub> emissions per inhabitant	2011	8.4	9.5	7.2	4.7	9.0	10.9	7.9	14.1	10.5
Greenhouse gas intensity of the economy	kg CO <sub>2</sub> equivalents per euro GDP (2005 prices)	2011	0.3	0.4	2.4	0.8	0.6	1.1	0.3	1.7	0.4
Energy reserves	terajoules per capita	2012	.	.	4.5	.	.	1.7	0.9	.	.
Renewable energy	% of gross final energy consumption	2012	32.1	6.8	16.3	16.8	6.8	11.2	26.0	25.8	34.3
Depletion of energy reserves	-	-	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Gross domestic energy use	kg oil equivalents per capita	2012	3,994	5,095	2,496	1,903	2,905	4,071	3,245	4,569	6,298
Energy intensity of the economy	kg oil equivalents per 1,000 euro GDP (in prices 2005)	2012	123.9	172.2	669.9	225.6	167.0	355.4	87.2	481.0	204.0
Imports of energy	gigajoules per capita	2011	103.2	216.3	40.5	42.0	0.2	69.6	45.8	19.6	151.1

FR	DE	EL	HU	IE	IT	LV	LT	LU	MT	NL	PL	PT	RO	SK	SI	ES	SE	UK
6.4	7.5	.	5.6	6.7	6.7	.	5.8	.	.	7.8	7.1	6.0	.	6.6	7.0	6.9	7.9	7.3
68.1	65.3	74.8	57.6	.	68.4	47.6	44.3	73.8	73.7	75.6	57.7	48.1	70.3	65.6	63.1	74.3	81.1	74.7
7.1	7.9	8.3	7.6	7.0	8.2	7.6	7.0	8.2	6.6	8.1	7.9	6.9	7.4	7.8	8.2	7.7	7.7	7.9
7.0	7.5	6.4	7.0	7.1	6.8	7.1	7.2	7.3	6.9	7.0	6.4	7.6	8.2	7.0	6.8	7.5	7.4	7.2
57.2	65.2	43.0	58.0	56.1	50.8	53.2	57.8	64.2	46.7	61.9	59.9	54.7	38.3	58.5	52.4	58.0	56.4	61.2
78	88	42	69	70	70	87	85	87	87	82	72	49	72	66	74	79	91	83
26.3	21.9	.	28.2	20.3	27.8	.	44.4	.	.	14.5	16.0	24.3	.	30.3	5.1	22.1	13.8	25.1
25.4	24.8	.	14.2	22.0	16.9	.	9.6	.	.	41.8	21.9	6.4	.	.	12.9	16.6	31.1	36.6
23.8	34.4	.	25.4	23.8	17.4	.	16.7	.	.	54.3	11.0	8.7	.	.	11.9	15.0	50.6	30.8
14.3	4.4	29.3	18.4	29.3	33.1	13.6	25.6	11.3	26.7	6.5	17.1	16.3	17.7	10.8	7.0	13.1	1.6	6.0
4.9	8.6	.	3.5	3.1	3.2	.	.	.	.	7.3	5.8	.	3.3	5.6	.	3.0	4.6	9.7
.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
7.5	11.5	9.8	6.2	12.8	7.6	5.4	7.2	22.3	7.5	11.4	10.4	6.5	5.6	7.9	9.2	7.4	6.1	9.2
1.4	2.5	3.1	1.9	2.7	2.3	1.6	1.7	2.4	3.4	2.0	3.3	2.2	2.3	1.8	2.2	2.1	0.8	2.4
5.5	9.8	8.4	5.0	8.2	6.8	3.9	4.6	21.5	6.4	10.0	8.6	4.9	4.1	7.0	7.9	6.2	5.2	7.4
0.3	0.4	0.6	0.7	0.3	0.3	0.9	0.9	0.4	0.5	0.4	1.2	0.4	1.3	0.9	0.6	0.4	0.2	0.3
0.01	7.1	3.8	2.3	.	0.2	.	.	.	.	2.0	3.7	.	0.5	.	.	0.2	.	0.5
13.4	12.4	13.8	9.6	7.2	13.5	35.8	21.7	3.1	1.4	4.5	11.0	24.6	22.9	10.4	20.2	14.3	51.0	4.2
.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
3,949	3,900	2,458	2,374	3,017	2,680	2,231	2,371	8,380	2,001	4,882	2,543	2,099	1,659	3,089	3,406	2,757	5,232	3,199
142.9	129.2	165.7	268.7	82.8	117.3	328.6	291.6	133.8	147.7	149.4	298.7	146.5	378.8	329.3	227.7	136.4	148.2	105.1
78.9	116.4	80.5	59.9	86.2	103.8	30.0	169.2	4.4	0.1	69.0	34.3	67.3	11.9	121.9	24.2	87.3	94.6	78.9

**Table B.4 Social domains (EU figures) (continued)**

Indicator	Unit	Most recent year	AT	BE	BG	HR	CY	CZ	DK	EE	FI
<b>Quality of local environment</b>											
Phosphorus surplus soil	kg phosphorus per ha	2008	2.0	5.0	-4.0	.	21.0	1.0	7.0	-8.0	5.0
Nitrogen surplus in soil	kg nitrogen per hectare	2008	33.0	118.0	18.0	.	122.0	86.0	95.0	29.0	54.0
Quality of surface water	% 'Not At Risk' (WFD)	2007	36.0	20.0	69.0	.	80.4	6.8	30.0	77.8	.
Water collection from surface and ground water	m <sup>3</sup> per capita	2008	.	.	841	.	203	192	127	1,197	.
Urban exposure to particulate matter	µg PM <sub>10</sub> /m <sup>3</sup>	2011	27	27	58	.	36	29	.	13	12
Exposure to ozone in urban areas	microgram per m <sup>3</sup> /day	2011	5,315	2,517	3,974	.	.	4,282	2,945	2,402	1,768
Emissions of sulphur oxides	kg per capita	2011	2.3	5.4	70.0	9.2	26.0	16.1	4.2	58.0	12.3
<b>Biodiversity and landscape</b>											
Population density	m <sup>2</sup> per capita	2012	9,953	2,762	15,195	13,262	10,707	7,505	7,708	33,761	62,522
Land use as a result of consumption	-	-	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Biodiversity footprint	thousand km <sup>2</sup> x MSA-loss	-	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Satisfaction with green areas	% of people complaining about the lack of access to green areas	2007	10.8	13.9	28.9	14.9	17.4	9.1	4.4	6.1	0.7
Nature reserves	forest and other woodland as % of total area	2009	47.0	26.0	.	.	.	38.0	18.0	55.0	68.0
State of preservation	% favourable	2006	13.7	31.6	.	.	47.4	20.7	40.7	32.4	50.6
Red List indicator	index 1950=100	-	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Farmland Bird Index	% difference in relation to the trend	2005	-1.1	-2.9	.	.	.	-1.2	-2.1	1.7	-0.3
<b>Health</b>											
Perceived health	% reporting good or very good	2012	70.0	74.3	66.6	47.2	77.1	60.4	70.8	52.4	67.1
Healthy life expectancy, women	years	2012	62.5	65.4	65.7	64.5	64.0	64.1	61.4	57.2	56.2
Healthy life expectancy, men	years	2012	60.2	64.4	62.1	62.0	63.4	62.3	60.6	53.1	57.3
Life expectancy, men	years	2012	83.6	83.1	77.9	80.6	83.4	81.2	82.1	81.6	83.7
Life expectancy, women	years	2012	78.4	77.8	70.9	73.9	78.9	75.1	78.1	71.5	77.7
Mental health	%	2012	66.3	65.0	64.4	62.0	61.2	62.2	70.1	58.1	65.6
Health care expenditure	% of GDP	2012	11.5	10.8	7.4	6.8	7.3	7.5	11.2	5.9	9.1
Overweight	% of population aged 15 years and older	2012	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	48.9	49.4
Smoking	% of population aged 15 years and older	2012	.	.	.	.	.	22.9	.	26.0	17.0

FR	DE	EL	HU	IE	IT	LV	LT	LU	MT	NL	PL	PT	RO	SK	SI	ES	SE	UK
2.0	.	-3.0	-15.0	3.0	-4.0	-1.0	-10.0	1.0	20.0	10.0	7.0	3.0	-2.0	-4.0	7.0	3.0	1.0	7.0
49.0	93.0	15.0	-18.0	50.0	33.0	16.0	36.0	.	120.0	188.0	63.0	12.0	4.0	28.0	47.0	35.0	53.0	93.0
49.1	20.3	.	4.4	42.6	.	50.0	84.1	67.0	43.4	1.0	65.6	50.0	67.9	30.4	12.9	64.7	.	24.0
.	.	.	541	.	.	.	673	.	80	647	298	.	335	.	517	717	.	.
25	23	.	33	18	32	23	23	18	.	25	39	27	39	34	31	23	17	21
4,284	3,313	.	6,066	1,027	6,802	1,806	3,057	1,539	.	1,760	3,388	3,936	2,013	7,114	6,615	4,701	2,403	1,258
5.5	7.2	38.0	3.5	5.3	5.4	3.8	13.3	3.4	53.0	3.7	23.6	6.2	15.5	12.7	5.3	26.4	6.1	7.4
8,393	4,360	11,688	9,378	15,311	4,948	31,745	21,856	4,873	765	2,479	8,114	8,708	11,183	9,069	9,855	10,947	47,313	3,852
.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
14.3	4.4	29.3	18.4	29.3	33.1	13.6	25.6	11.3	26.7	6.5	17.1	16.3	17.7	10.8	7.0	13.1	1.6	6.0
32.0	34.0	33.0	23.0	12.0	33.0	52.0	37.0	36.0	.	12.0	33.0	46.0	.	46.0	63.0	32.0	66.0	15.0
28.0	34.2	32.4	29.8	54.7	39.5	62.0	46.5	23.7	31.3	25.5	37.0	27.7	.	23.9	25.0	21.4	47.4	33.3
.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
-0.6	-2.2	.	0.6	-0.7	-4.7	.	-1.4	.	.	-1.1	-2.8	.	.	.	.	-0.5	-1.9	-0.3
68.1	65.3	74.8	57.6	.	68.4	47.6	44.3	73.8	73.7	75.6	57.7	48.1	70.3	65.6	63.1	74.3	81.1	74.7
63.9	57.9	64.9	60.5	68.3	61.5	59.1	61.6	66.4	72.4	62.6	62.9	54.1	57.8	53.1	55.6	65.7	70.7	64.5
62.6	57.4	64.8	59.2	66.1	62.1	54.8	56.6	65.8	71.8	63.5	59.2	55.6	57.7	53.4	56.5	64.7	70.9	64.5
.	83.3	83.4	78.7	83.2	.	78.9	79.6	83.8	83.0	83.0	81.1	83.6	78.2	79.9	83.3	85.4	83.6	.
.	78.6	78.0	71.6	78.7	.	68.9	68.4	79.1	78.6	79.3	72.7	0.0	71.1	72.5	77.1	79.5	79.9	.
61.1	65.7	57.6	61.1	63.8	64.2	56.4	58.4	62.9	57.6	64.5	58.9	65.5	57.4	59.4	58.5	65.4	64.2	58.6
11.7	11.3	9.3	7.8	8.1	9.2	6.0	6.7	6.9	9.1	12.4	6.7	9.4	5.1	7.8	8.8	9.6	9.6	9.4
44.4	.	.	.	.	46.0	.	.	.	.	47.9	.	.	.	.	56.9	.	47.1	.
24.1	.	.	.	.	22.1	.	.	17.0	.	18.4	.	.	.	.	20.5	.	13.1	.

**Table B.4 Social domains (EU figures) (continued)**

Indicator	Unit	Most recent year	AT	BE	BG	HR	CY	CZ	DK	EE	FI
<b>Housing and residential environment</b>											
Satisfaction with housing	average score (1–10)	2012	8.3	7.6	6.9	7.8	8.6	7.5	7.7	8.4	7.2
Quality of housing	% no shortcomings	2012	88.2	81.6	86.2	86.8	70.0	89.5	82.1	80.6	94.0
Problems in the neighbourhood	% who experience problems	2012	14.0	13.8	18.0	6.7	18.9	14.3	11.2	13.5	10.5
Overcrowding rate	% not enough space	2012	13.9	1.6	44.5	44.1	2.8	21.1	7.4	14.0	6.0
House price index of existing own homes	price index (2010=100)	2013	.	107.6	90.7	81.2	87.2	98.5	99.4	128.8	106.8
Average residential monthly rent	-	-	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Share of housing costs in disposable household income	% of disposable income	2012	18.9	22.1	24.7	12.8	12.8	23.0	30.1	19.1	17.9
Perceived burden of housing costs	% who report very high	2012	15.6	32.5	46.6	62.0	72.0	28.6	9.3	29.1	20.0
Number of available dwellings	-	-	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
<b>Mobility</b>											
Traffic jams are a personal problem	-	-	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Commuting time	minutes per day	2003	32	41	.	.	.	38	41	.	39
Mobility (general)	-	-	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Car ownership	number of cars per 1,000 inhabitants	2011	.	487	368	345	545	436	.	428	551
Time lost because of traffic jams and delays	-	-	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Noise nuisance from traffic (road, rail, air)	-	-	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Bicycle ownership	-	-	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Car use	% of total passenger kilometres	2012	78.5	80.4	80.1	85.8	81.3	74.8	80.2	83.6	84.9
Train use	% of total passenger kilometres	2012	11.5	7.1	3.0	3.5	.	8.4	10.1	1.8	5.3
Traffic deaths	number per million inhabitants	2012	63.2	.	.	91.9	59.2	70.6	29.9	.	47.2
Rail infrastructure	km of railway per 1,000 inhabitants	2012	0.7	.	0.6	.	.	0.9	.	0.7	.
<b>Security</b>											
Not feeling safe	% who do not feel safe	2012	.	18.9	41.0	.	29.9	28.8	9.3	33.1	8.0
Reported crime	% victims	2012	.	22.3	15.9	.	16.8	12.6	25.9	21.0	27.0
Registered crime	-	-	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Registered murders	number per 100,000 inhabitants	2012	1.0	1.6	1.9	2.2	2.2	0.9	1.0	5.4	1.6
Underage suspects	% of all suspects	2006	15.5	.	14.0	0.0	.	7.2	.	13.5	12.3
Number of prisoners	number per 100,000 inhabitants	2012	103.9	101.4	135.6	111.1	80.3	219.9	71.3	245.3	59.0

FR	DE	EL	HU	IE	IT	LV	LT	LU	MT	NL	PL	PT	RO	SK	SI	ES	SE	UK
7.1	7.9	8.3	7.6	7.0	8.2	7.6	7.0	8.2	6.6	8.1	7.9	6.9	7.4	7.8	8.2	7.7	7.7	7.9
87.2	86.5	85.3	75.9	.	78.6	71.9	82.4	82.9	89.9	83.8	89.5	78.0	84.6	91.2	68.5	88.0	92.3	82.8
14.3	20.3	23.7	10.8	8.2	16.5	18.1	11.0	15.1	27.3	18.8	10.5	16.5	19.5	13.6	12.6	11.0	10.1	15.4
8.1	6.6	26.5	47.2	3.2	26.2	37.3	19.0	7.0	4.3	2.5	46.3	10.1	51.6	38.4	16.6	5.6	10.9	7.0
103.2	.	76.0	90.2	77.8	92.3	120.5	107.7	113.6	101.0	86.2	93.3	86.7	80.1	96.7	90.6	71.5	108.8	104.3
.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
17.9	27.9	37.0	25.9	19.0	16.6	21.7	20.1	14.0	10.7	29.2	22.6	18.2	26.1	19.9	16.0	21.6	23.0	19.8
27.4	19.1	43.3	41.0	40.1	60.4	42.3	41.2	42.5	58.4	11.0	62.5	35.2	39.4	33.4	34.6	57.4	8.7	29.8
.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
37	45	40	46	42	35	.	.	39	.	51	42	33	.	44	.	38	42	45
.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
.	525	.	.	.	610	300	570	.	.	470	470	.	203	324	519	482	.	450
.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
85.1	85.4	81.6	67.7	82.8	78.9	76.9	91.0	83.0	82.5	88.2	84.6	89.3	82.2	77.8	86.7	80.7	84.3	86.0
9.5	9.0	0.7	10.1	2.8	6.1	4.8	0.8	4.6	.	8.8	4.8	4.1	4.9	7.1	2.3	5.6	9.1	8.2
56.0	.	.	60.9	.	.	86.6	.	64.8	.	33.6	92.7	68.1	101.6	.	.	.	.	28.4
.	0.5	.	0.7	0.4	0.3	0.9	0.6	.	.	0.2	0.5	0.2	0.5	0.7	0.6	0.3	1.2	.
26.3	21.9	.	28.2	20.3	27.8	.	44.4	.	.	14.5	16.0	24.3	.	30.3	5.1	22.1	13.8	25.1
22.3	.	.	8.6	16.1	21.6	.	12.0	.	.	17.3	12.3	13.8	.	.	10.2	28.6	26.7	18.2
.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
0.7	0.7	1.5	1.1	1.3	0.9	5.6	6.6	0.6	2.2	0.9	1.0	1.2	1.8	1.4	0.7	0.8	0.7	1.0
18.3	16.6	6.0	12.0	.	.	47.8	12.3	.	.	19.6	9.1	.	7.8	2.0	7.4	.	14.0	.
112.8	80.2	110.5	173.2	82.5	107.9	300.8	330.3	119.1	139.4	80.5	218.3	128.7	149.3	204.9	66.9	148.6	67.4	138.8

**Table B.4 Social domains (EU figures) (continued)**

Indicator	Unit	Most recent year	AT	BE	BG	HR	CY	CZ	DK	EE	FI
Security expenditure	% of GDP	2011	1.5	1.8	2.5	.	2.3	1.8	1.1	2.1	1.5
Number of police officers	number per 100,000 inhabitants	2012	329.5	423.2	385.6	500.1	609.2	364.4	192.5	330.2	148.5
Trust in the police	% of population who have sufficient trust	2012	.	66.5	22.7	.	43.6	42.5	90.0	57.8	92.7
Trust in the justice system	% of population who have sufficient trust	2012	.	43.8	10.0	.	40.3	29.6	85.6	41.7	78.5
Fear of terrorist attacks	% of population who think a terrorist attack in their country is likely or very likely	2008	.	38.8	33.9	.	11.3	17.2	43.7	16.0	11.8
<b>Social participation and trust</b>											
Contact with friends, family and colleagues	% who report 'several times a month'	2012	.	86.8	72.5	.	68.8	77.9	91.6	64.7	84.7
Volunteer work	% who do volunteer work	2008	.	18.8	3.9	6.2	1.6	10.6	28.4	8.2	13.2
Satisfaction with family life	average score (1–10)	2012	8.4	7.8	6.7	7.9	8.9	7.2	8.4	7.3	8.4
Satisfaction with residential environment	% satisfied/very satisfied	2004	84	90	80	.	88	84	90	82	95
Satisfaction with leisure time	% with enough time	2007	55.5	63.6	48.7	48.4	47.4	58.3	63.5	59.8	58.7
Leisure time	–	–	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Feelings of discrimination	% who belong to the discriminated group	2012	.	7.6	9.9	.	8.3	6.8	3.4	11.3	7.9
Generalised trust	% who have a lot of trust	2012	.	45.8	17.7	.	22.4	31.4	78.4	48.4	74.4
Opinions about immigrants	% positive opinion	2012	.	31.6	39.9	.	15.5	22.4	55.6	28.3	46.9
Trust in institutions	% who have sufficient trust	2012	.	37.3	6.5	.	19.0	19.0	60.8	24.1	55.5
Voter turnout	% of electorate	(recent)	74.9	89.2	52.5	54.2	78.7	59.5	87.7	63.5	67.4
<b>Education and knowledge</b>											
Satisfaction with own education	average score (1–10)	2012	8.0	7.5	6.7	7.0	7.5	7.3	8.1	7.0	7.6
Education level	% of the population who completed secondary or tertiary education	2013	83.1	72.8	81.8	79.7	78.5	92.8	78.3	90.6	85.9
People with high education level	% of population (25–64 years)	2013	20.7	35.5	25.6	19.4	39.3	20.5	35.4	38.4	40.5
Education level of young people	% of population (20–24 years)	2013	87.4	83.1	86.0	95.0	89.5	90.9	71.8	84.2	85.9
Early school-leavers	% of population (18–24 years)	2013	7.3	11.0	12.5	3.7	9.1	5.4	8.0	9.7	9.3
Maths skills	PISA score	2012	506	515	439	471	440	499	500	521	519
Lifelong learning	% of population (25–64 years)	2013	13.9	6.7	1.7	2.4	6.9	9.7	31.4	12.6	24.9
Education expenditure	% of GDP	2010	5.9	6.6	4.1	4.3	7.9	4.2	8.8	5.7	6.8

	FR	DE	EL	HU	IE	IT	LV	LT	LU	MT	NL	PL	PT	RO	SK	SI	ES	SE	UK	
	1.7	1.6	1.7	1.9	1.7	2.0	1.8	1.9	1.1	1.4	2.1	1.8	2.0	2.2	2.4	1.7	2.2	1.4	2.5	
	311.7	297.8	484.1	368.0	292.4	454.4	318.7	319.0	326.6	454.6	237.2	250.0	435.6	249.3	448.2	358.4	541.4	209.0	236.7	
	61.9	77.0	.	46.4	73.0	65.2	.	53.4	.	.	76.7	46.2	50.4	.	26.9	49.5	58.8	74.0	72.5	
	.	60.2	.	37.6	46.2	.	.	.	.	.	66.9	19.5	19.0	.	15.3	18.0	24.8	65.9	52.7	
	49.5	.	56.1	13.1	20.8	.	25.8	.	.	.	32.6	31.7	20.9	17.9	17.5	19.6	85.5	11.5	72.8	
	87.1	82.7	.	46.3	72.0	84.0	.	62.7	.	.	92.5	62.2	91.1	.	.	76.3	86.5	92.1	76.4	
	19.7	19.9	2.4	5.8	.	.	5.7	.	.	.	34.8	6.2	2.8	7.5	7.4	16.7	4.1	21.4	15.1	
	7.8	7.7	7.7	7.5	8.4	7.6	7.3	7.5	8.2	8.4	7.8	7.5	7.9	8.3	7.6	7.8	8.2	8.1	8.2	
	88	89	83	78	92	76	71	79	88	88	94	85	86	83	78	89	87	94	90	
	57.2	65.2	43.0	58.0	56.1	50.8	53.2	57.8	64.2	46.7	61.9	59.9	54.7	38.3	58.5	52.4	58.0	56.4	61.2	
	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
	10.5	4.5	.	7.6	3.8	5.6	.	10.2	.	.	7.4	5.0	4.3	.	.	2.2	6.3	7.9	11.9	
	28.0	.	.	39.2	45.7	39.9	.	46.2	.	.	64.3	26.1	20.1	.	26.2	34.6	44.3	62.5	47.8	
	26.0	42.7	.	23.4	45.7	30.2	.	35.8	.	.	45.8	52.1	14.5	.	.	32.0	42.6	61.0	33.2	
	23.8	34.4	.	25.4	23.8	17.4	.	16.7	.	.	54.2	11.0	8.7	.	.	11.8	15.0	50.6	30.8	
	55.4	71.6	62.5	64.4	70.0	75.2	59.5	35.9	91.2	93.0	74.6	48.9	58.0	41.8	59.1	65.6	68.9	84.6	65.8	
	7.0	7.5	6.4	7.0	7.1	6.8	7.1	7.2	7.3	6.9	7.0	6.4	7.6	8.2	7.0	6.8	7.5	7.4	7.2	
	75.1	86.3	67.2	82.5	76.7	58.2	89.4	93.4	80.5	41.0	75.8	90.1	40.0	76.3	91.9	85.5	55.2	83.2	78.4	
	32.1	28.5	27.4	22.5	41.5	16.3	31.0	35.2	40.7	18.4	33.9	25.8	19.3	15.7	19.9	27.9	33.3	37.0	39.6	
	86.4	76.8	86.5	84.3	89.4	77.9	85.7	90.0	76.9	75.8	78.2	89.7	69.9	79.7	91.2	91.5	63.8	86.2	82.9	
	9.7	9.9	10.1	11.8	8.4	17.0	9.8	6.3	6.1	20.9	9.2	5.6	19.2	17.3	6.4	3.9	23.5	7.1	12.4	
	495	514	453	477	501	485	491	479	490	.	523	518	487	445	482	501	484	478	494	
	17.7	7.8	2.9	3.0	7.3	6.2	6.5	5.7	14.4	7.7	17.4	4.3	9.8	2.0	2.9	12.4	10.9	28.1	16.1	
	5.9	5.1	.	4.9	6.5	4.5	5.0	5.4	.	6.7	6.0	5.2	5.6	3.5	4.2	5.7	5.0	7.0	6.2	

**Table B.4 Social domains (EU figures) (continued)**

Indicator	Unit	Most recent year	AT	BE	BG	HR	CY	CZ	DK	EE	FI
R&D capital stock	-	-	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
R&D expenditure	% of GDP	2012	2.8	2.2	0.6	0.8	0.5	1.9	3.0	2.2	3.6
Number of researchers	number per mln inhabitants	2011	4,397	3,679	1,623	1,584	811	2,891	6,723	3,428	7,423
Scientific articles	number per mln inhabitants	2011	608	682	88	301	248	393	1,090	384	905
Patents	number per mln inhabitants	2012	268	68	34	.	5	82	252	15	314
Knowledge networks	% collaborating companies	2010	0.5	0.4	0.2	0.3	0.6	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4
<b>Material welfare and economy</b>											
Final consumption expenditure	euros (in prices of 2005) per capita	2013	23,146	22,211	3,207	6,703	13,268	7,651	28,872	6,872	23,705
Gross Domestic Product	euros per capita	2013	32,190	29,434	3,792	8,368	16,285	11,344	37,319	9,584	30,304
Labour productivity	euros GDP (adjusted PPP)/hour worked	2013	39.9	45.9	4.9	0.0	21.6	13.1	53.4	11.2	39.7
Labour force	employed population as % of total population	2013	52.6	44.5	46.6	39.7	52.4	50.4	51.5	51.7	49.4
Hours worked	hours worked per person	2013	37.2	37.2	40.7	39.8	40.5	40.5	33.6	38.8	36.9
Duration of working life	years	2012	36.9	32.2	31.6	31.1	36.3	34.3	39.3	36.2	37.4
Labour participation rate	% of population (15 years and older)	2013	61.5	53.6	53.9	44.0	63.3	59.3	62.4	61.3	59.1
Unemployment rate	% of labour force	2013	4.9	8.4	13.0	17.2	15.9	7.0	7.0	8.6	8.2
Capital stock	-	-	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Gross fixed capital formation	% of GDP	2013	21.2	19.9	20.7	18.6	11.6	22.1	17.1	25.3	18.9
ICT expenditure	% of GDP	2009	5.4	5.2	6.4	.	.	7.9	5.1	.	6.5
Satisfaction with own financial situation	% reporting at least equal for coming year	2013	89.0	83.0	66.0	74.0	47.0	73.0	94.0	87.0	93.0
Long-term unemployment	% unemployed for longer than 1 year	2013	1.2	3.9	7.4	11.0	6.1	3.0	1.8	3.8	1.7
<b>Financial sustainability</b>											
Net financial position NL vs. other countries	% of GDP	2012	0.1	48.3	-81.9	-97.8	-91.9	-35.3	37.5	-55.3	10.0
Pension reserves	weighted average pension wealth in number of average annual individual earnings (men)	2008	9.8	7.0	.	.	.	9.0	13.3	7.9	9.7
Government debt	% of GDP	2013	74.5	101.5	18.9	67.1	111.7	46.0	44.5	10.0	57.0
<b>Trade, aid and natural resources</b>											
Development aid	% of GNI	2012	0.3	0.5	0.1	.	0.1	0.1	0.8	0.1	0.5
Remittances	% of GDP	2012	0.8	0.9	0.1	0.3	2.0	1.0	0.9	0.4	0.3
Imports of minerals	kg per capita	2011	1,880	4,660	336	569	134	1,058	1,100	1,122	1,775
Imports of biomass	kg per capita	2011	2,905	4,420	383	697	1,588	970	2,769	1,691	2,302
Total imports from LDCs	euros per capita	2012	9.2	280.8	1.4	16.2	8.4	7.9	78.4	6.7	40.2

FR	DE	EL	HU	IE	IT	LV	LT	LU	MT	NL	PL	PT	RO	SK	SI	ES	SE	UK	
2.3	2.9	.	1.3	1.7	1.3	0.7	0.9	1.5	0.8	2.1	0.9	1.5	0.4	0.8	2.8	1.3	3.4	1.7	
.	.	.	2,303	3,418	1,759	1,904	2,756	5,105	1,771	3,218	1,679	4,463	737	2,817	4,255	2,800	5,191	4,202	
487	566	401	230	696	436	99	151	393	110	929	196	435	76	.	604	497	1,002	734	
222	569	56	70	107	139	95	36	205	26	142	114	59	48	.	.	71	240	243	
0.4	.	.	0.4	0.3	0.1	0.3	0.4	.	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.2	0.4	0.1	
22,987	22,881	12,456	6,465	22,445	17,751	6,033	6,631	33,887	11,306	23,182	6,593	11,819	3,974	6,394	10,824	15,028	26,436	26,217	
27,568	30,240	14,259	8,943	36,044	22,317	7,134	8,469	62,906	13,834	32,326	8,648	14,227	4,546	9,439	14,771	20,010	35,549	30,729	
45.6	42.8	20.2	11.5	48.8	32.2	8.4	10.6	.	.	45.8	.	17.1	5.6	13.2	21.4	32.1	45.5	39.2	
45.9	52.6	45.2	44.9	47.0	42.1	50.8	49.5	49.0	45.3	53.9	47.5	51.3	46.9	50.2	48.9	49.8	53.8	51.7	
37.5	35.3	42.1	39.5	35.4	36.9	38.8	38.1	37.1	38.4	30.0	40.7	39.4	40.1	40.7	39.6	38.0	36.3	36.5	
34.6	37.5	32.0	30.4	34.1	30.5	35.0	34.0	32.5	31.6	39.6	32.1	36.9	31.9	32.8	33.6	34.7	40.6	38.1	
56.5	60.3	52.8	52.5	60.2	49.0	59.4	58.0	59.4	53.1	65.2	55.9	60.2	55.1	59.3	57.2	59.4	64.3	62.8	
10.3	5.3	27.5	10.2	13.1	12.2	11.9	11.8	5.8	6.4	6.7	10.3	16.4	7.3	14.2	10.1	26.1	8.0	7.5	
.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
19.2	17.2	12.1	18.1	.	17.3	21.1	18.3	17.6	15.1	16.1	18.4	14.9	23.6	19.1	17.9	17.7	18.4	14.0	
5.1	5.4	4.7	8.3	5.1	4.9	.	.	.	.	6.2	6.1	5.9	5.9	6.9	4.7	5.0	6.2	7.0	
78.0	88.0	42.0	69.0	70.0	70.0	87.0	85.0	87.0	87.0	82.0	72.0	49.0	72.0	66.0	74.0	79.0	91.0	83.0	
4.2	2.4	18.4	5.0	7.9	6.9	5.8	5.1	1.8	2.9	2.4	4.4	9.3	3.4	10.0	5.2	13.1	1.5	2.7	
-20.9	30.6	-128.5	-99.3	-121.7	-23.8	-69.4	-56.8	-46.9	57.9	88.3	-67.2	-111.9	-78.2	-56.7	-46.8	-92.4	-9.3	-10.2	
9.3	7.7	15.1	10.6	7.5	10.6	.	.	21.8	.	18.0	8.5	8.7	.	.	12.7	13.4	10.4	5.4	
93.5	78.4	175.1	79.2	123.7	132.6	38.1	39.4	23.1	73.0	73.5	57.0	129.0	38.4	55.4	71.7	93.9	40.6	90.6	
0.5	0.4	0.1	0.1	0.5	0.1	0.1	0.1	1.0	0.2	0.7	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	1.0	0.6	
0.5	0.5	0.6	0.9	0.9	0.5	0.2	2.7	19.2	0.4	1.4	0.3	0.6	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.8	0.2	0.1	
618	1,043	207	367	1,267	586	872	1,059	15,630	123	2,648	598	289	249	1,340	1,207	471	628	267	
930	1,307	692	710	1,645	1,011	1,368	1,514	2,792	1,217	1,932	759	1,545	376	1,060	2,934	927	2,177	801	
81.8	56.1	14.3	1.3	46.8	58.0	1.2	17.3	28.3	4.5	185.8	8.2	229.6	5.1	9.9	31.5	85.3	47.5	66.7	

**Table B.4 Social domains (EU figures) (end)**

Indicator	Unit	Most recent year	AT	BE	BG	HR	CY	CZ	DK	EE	FI
Imports of energy from LDCs	<b>gigajoules per capita</b>	<b>2011</b>	0.0	1.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.8	0.0	0.0
Imports of minerals from LDCs	<b>kg per capita</b>	<b>2011</b>	0.0	81.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0
Imports of biomass from LDCs	<b>kg per capita</b>	<b>2011</b>	0.2	24.1	1.0	0.4	0.9	0.9	15.5	0.4	13.4
Carbon footprint of Dutch consumption as result of import	<b>kilotonnes of CO<sub>2</sub> equivalents</b>	-	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
<b>Inequality</b>											
Satisfaction with income inequality	<b>% who do not agree that income differences should be reduced</b>	<b>2012</b>	.	28.7	12.1	.	18.2	35.3	60.4	20.1	26.4
Income inequality	<b>income quintile</b>	<b>2012</b>	4.2	3.9	6.1	5.4	4.7	3.5	4.5	5.4	3.7
Income inequality men/women	<b>% difference in hourly wage</b>	<b>2012</b>	23.4	10.0	14.7	18.0	16.2	22.0	14.9	30.0	19.4
Austria	(AT)	Italy	(IT)								
Belgium	(BE)	Latvia	(LV)								
Bulgaria	(BG)	Lithuania	(LT)								
Croatia	(HR)	Luxemburg	(LU)								
Cyprus	(CY)	Malta	(MT)								
Czech Republic	(CZ)	Netherlands	(NL)								
Denmark	(DK)	Poland	(PL)								
Estonia	(EE)	Portugal	(PT)								
Finland	(FI)	Romania	(RO)								
France	(FR)	Slovakia	(SK)								
Germany	(DE)	Slovenia	(SI)								
Greece	(EL)	Spain	(ES)								
Hungary	(HU)	Sweden	(SK)								
Ireland	(IE)	United Kingdom	(UK)								

Source: [http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/statistics\\_explained/index.php/Glossary:Country\\_codes/nl](http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/statistics_explained/index.php/Glossary:Country_codes/nl).

FR	DE	EL	HU	IE	IT	LV	LT	LU	MT	NL	PL	PT	RO	SK	SI	ES	SE	UK	
2.2	0.8	0.3	0.0	0.0	3.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.6	0.0	9.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.0	0.0	1.1	
44.4	27.9	4.8	0.0	591.6	30.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	6.6	3.2	1.5	61.8	0.0	26.3	74.5	0.0	1.7	
5.4	4.4	2.2	1.1	0.5	6.1	2.0	2.5	0.0	0.8	5.7	1.7	12.2	1.9	0.1	1.8	5.3	9.5	3.8	
.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
25.4	24.8	.	14.2	22.0	16.9	.	9.6	.	.	41.8	21.9	6.4	.	.	12.9	16.6	31.1	36.6	
4.5	4.3	6.6	4.0	4.7	5.5	6.5	5.3	4.1	3.9	3.6	4.9	5.8	6.3	3.7	3.4	7.2	3.7	5.4	
14.8	22.4	.	6.7	14.4	6.7	13.8	12.6	8.6	6.1	16.9	6.4	15.7	9.7	21.5	2.5	17.8	15.9	19.1	

**Table B.5 Indicators green growth (NL-figures)**

Indicator	Unit	2000	2001	2002
<b>Environmental efficiency</b>				
Production-based greenhousegas intensity	index (2001=100)	.	100.0	99.8
Carbon footprint	1,000 kg CO <sub>2</sub> per capita	.	15.9	16.3
Emissions heavy metal to water	index (2001=100)	.	100.0	103.7
Nitrogen surplus to soil	index (2001=100)	.	100.0	81.6
Waste intensity	index (2001=100)	.	100.0	100.1
<b>Resource efficiency</b>				
Net domestic energy use	index (2001=100)	.	100.0	99.9
Renewable energy	%	.	1.4	1.6
Groundwater abstraction	index (2001=100)	.	100.4	101.8
Domestic metal consumption	index (2001=100)	.	100.0	54.9
Domestic mineral consumption	index (2001=100)	.	100.0	90.7
Domestic biomass consumption	index (2001=100)	.	100.0	93.6
Raw material footprint (RMC)	mIn kg	.	.	.
Waste recycling	index (2001=100)	.	100.0	97.7
<b>Natural asset base</b>				
Stocks of standing timber	mIn m <sup>3</sup>	61.1	.	.
Stocks of fish	6 species above precaution level	4	4	3
Energy reserves	billion Sm <sup>3</sup>	.	1,738.0	1,689.0
Farmland birds	index (2000=100)	100.0	95.0	90.3
Red List indicator	index (1950 = 100)	61.3	.	.
Biodiversity footprint	1,000 km <sup>2</sup> x MSA loss	89.2	.	.
Land conversion into built-up land	%/year	0.10	.	.
<b>Environmental quality of life</b>				
Urban exposure to particulates	PM10 µ/m <sup>3</sup>	29.0	29.0	31.0
Chemical quality of surface water	% in compliance	.	.	.
Biological quality of surface water	% in compliance	.	.	.
Nitrate in groundwater	mg/l	100.5	93.6	80.6
Level of concern	%	.	.	62.0
Willingness to pay	%	.	.	44.0
<b>Green policy responses</b>				
Environmental taxes	%	.	9.5	9.3
Implicit tax rate for energy	euro/GJ	.	2.4	2.4
Environmental subsidies and transfers	% in total government expenditure	.	.	.
Mitigation expenditure by government	% of GDP	.	.	.
Environmental protection expenditure	% of GDP	.	1.7	.
<b>Economic opportunities</b>				
Green patents	%	3.9	4.6	3.7
Environmental investments	%	.	1.7	.
Employment sustainable energy sector	%	.	0.5	0.5
Employment (EGSS)	%	.	1.7	1.8
Value added (EGSS)	% of GDP	.	1.7	1.7

2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
99.8	100.8	99.2	96.8	97.7	97.1	94.6	98.7	93.8	93.1	92.5
15.9	16.6	16.8	16.3	16.2	16.4	16.8	15.6	15.4	.	.
94.7	84.5	72.6	77.7	66.5	64.1	60.3	57.9	54.4	58.4	.
102.6	77.8	80.1	77.3	69.4	62.2	52.7	58.4	53.0	.	.
99.0	99.0	96.6	97.8	99.7	101.7	94.0	92.6	.	.	.
102.2	104.3	104.6	101.7	103.1	102.8	100.4	106.4	99.5	100.2	99.8
1.6	1.9	2.3	2.7	3.1	3.4	4.1	3.8	4.3	4.5	4.5
114.4	103.3	99.7	104.2	98.5	97.1	100.9	99.0	97.5	.	.
53.5	58.7	45.6	60.0	127.0	150.5	44.0	12.8	81.9	48.4	.
82.6	84.7	86.0	93.2	88.9	96.8	92.3	90.8	90.1	73.6	.
90.2	91.6	87.7	83.9	89.0	93.3	91.2	89.6	98.6	92.0	.
.	.	.	.	.	325,010	.	.	.	337,775	.
98.7	93.6	93.5	92.7	95.3	99.3	99.7	95.6	.	.	.
.	.	64.9	.	.	.	.	70.0	.	.	.
3	4	4	4	4	5	4	4	4	5	5
1,615.0	1,572.0	1,510.0	1,439.0	1,390.0	1,364.0	1,390.0	1,304.0	1,230.0	1,130.0	1,044.0
87.5	92.5	94.2	93.0	93.5	90.9	87.8	88.3	91.6	88.1	83.8
.	.	61.2	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	61.9
.	.	84.2	.	.	.	.	83.8	.	.	.
0.11	.	.	0.09	.	0.11	.	0.08	.	.	.
32.0	29.0	28.0	30.0	29.0	28.0	24.0	25.0	26.0	22.0	21.0
.	.	.	.	.	.	74.3	.	.	53.0	.
.	.	.	.	.	.	3.0	.	.	7.0	.
70.4	69.8	66.1	62.4	70.3	78.3	62.4	44.0	.	.	.
.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	40.0	.
.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	24.3	.
9.5	9.9	10.1	10.0	9.5	9.6	10.0	9.8	9.7	9.2	9.1
2.4	2.6	2.8	3.1	2.8	3.1	3.2	3.2	3.4	3.3	3.5
.	.	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	.	.	.
.	.	.	.	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	.	.	.
1.9	.	1.7	.	1.8	.	1.7	.	1.7	.	.
3.4	3.5	3.7	5.2	7.1	8.1	9.6	8.3	.	.	.
1.9	.	2.2	.	2.9	.	2.5	.	2.5	.	.
0.5	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7
1.8	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.8	1.8	1.9	1.8	.
1.7	1.7	1.7	1.8	1.8	1.9	1.9	2.0	2.1	2.1	.

**Table B.6 Green growth (EU-figures)**

Indicator	Unit	Year	AT	BE	BG	HR	CY	CZ	DK	EE	FI	FR
<b>Environmental efficiency</b>												
Production-based greenhouse gas intensity	CO <sub>2</sub> eq./1000 euro	2011	177.4	206.0	.	.	.	609.4	316.2	1,111.4	293.6	119.4
Carbon footprint	1,000 kg CO <sub>2</sub> /capita	2009	11.3	16.3	.	.	.	9.3	11.6	9.2	13.1	8.5
Emissions heavy metal to water	-	-	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Nitrogen surplus to soil	kg nitrogen per hectare	2008	33.0	118.0	.	.	.	86.0	95.0	29.0	54.0	49.0
Waste intensity	ton/million euro	2010	121.8	175.6	.	.	.	158.5	88.7	1,326.6	583.6	183.3
<b>Resource efficiency</b>												
Energy intensity of the economy	ktoe per US\$	2011	0.1	0.2	.	.	.	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1
Renewable energy	%	2012	32.1	6.8	16.3	16.8	6.8	11.2	26.0	25.8	34.3	13.4
Use of groundwater and surface water	m <sup>3</sup> per capita	2007	.	61.2	.	.	.	37.0	104.1	184.7	.	89.7
Domestic a-biotic material productivity	US\$/kg	2008	18.2	47.2	.	.	.	19.7	30.0	-30.5	15.1	44.7
Domestic biotic material productivity	US\$/kg	2008	6.4	7.8	.	.	.	11.1	4.6	8.0	5.1	7.0
Raw material footprint	-	-	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Waste land-filled	kg per inhabitant	2010	143.0	223.0	.	.	.	333.0	53.0	.	628.0	359.0
<b>Natural asset base</b>												
Change in stocks of standing timber (2005-2010)	%	2010/2005	-2.1	15.3	.	.	.	4.6	38.9	-2.1	0.9	4.4
Stocks of fish	-	-	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Energy reserves	terajoules per capita	2011	.	.	.	.	.	1.7	1.1	.	.	0.0
Farm bird index	% change compared to trend	2005	-1.1	-2.9	.	.	.	-1.2	-2.1	1.7	-0.3	-0.6
Red List indicator	%	2000	33	25	.	.	.	38	16	.	12	15
Biodiversity footprint	-	-	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Mean annual urban land take	%	2000-2006	0.4	0.1	.	.	.	0.4	0.6	0.9	0.4	0.5
<b>Environmental quality of life</b>												
Urban exposure to PM10	PM <sub>10</sub> µ/m <sup>3</sup>	2010	26.0	27.0	.	.	.	29.0	12.0	13.0	13.0	25.0
Quality surfacewater	% 'Not at risk' (WFD)	2007	36.0	20.0	.	.	.	6.8	30.0	77.8	.	49.1
Nitrate concentration in groundwater	-	-	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Level of concern	-	-	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Willingness to pay	-	-	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.

DE	EL	HU	IE	IT	LV	LT	LU	MT	NL	PL	PT	RO	SK	SI	ES	SE	UK
256.3	374.4	392.7	163.4	197.2	.	.	165.9	.	275.4	.	237.9	.	.	477.3	.	123.5	224.8
11.7	12.3	5.7	13.2	9.0	.	.	16.0	.	12.2	.	6.7	.	.	6.8	8.1	8.8	10.7
.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
93.0	15.0	-18.0	50.0	33.0	.	.	89.0	.	188.0	.	12.0	.	.	28.0	35.0	53.0	93.0
145.6	317.0	162.9	126.6	102.2	.	.	261.6	.	202.6	.	221.8	.	.	142.5	131.1	336.2	149.6
.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	.	.	0.1	.	0.1	.	0.1	.	.	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1
12.4	13.8	9.6	7.2	13.5	35.8	21.7	3.1	1.4	4.5	11.0	24.6	22.9	10.4	20.2	14.3	51.0	4.2
70.8	326.8	51.8	49.4	.	.	.	.	.	60.0	.	.	.	.	66.4	133.4	38.0	.
42.0	21.8	95.8	1.6	33.9	.	.	27.0	.	26.0	.	444.2	.	.	22.8	20.7	35.9	46.9
10.6	11.4	6.6	3.5	11.1	.	.	22.9	.	12.6	.	9.2	.	.	7.9	9.6	6.5	8.8
.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
135.0	1,455.0	546.0	430.0	343.0	.	.	101.0	.	53.0	.	757.0	.	.	531.0	556.0	136.0	478.0
.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
3.3	-3.6	5.2	12.8	-9.7	.	.	0.2	.	8.1	.	-48.9	.	.	3.9	8.5	7.4	11.2
.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
7.0	3.7	2.3	.	0.2	.	.	.	.	2.1	.	.	.	.	.	0.2	.	0.5
-2.2	.	0.6	-0.7	-4.7	.	.	.	.	-1.1	.	.	.	.	.	-0.5	-1.9	-0.3
33	.	32	15	24	.	.	32	.	25	16	24	.	21	.	30	18	20
.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
0.4	.	0.5	2.4	0.6	.	.	0.3	.	1.3	.	1.6	.	.	0.2	2.7	0.5	.
.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
23.0	.	31.0	16.0	29.0	.	.	.	.	25.0	.	24.0	.	.	29.0	24.0	14.0	18.0
20.3	.	4.4	42.6	.	.	.	67.0	.	1.0	.	50.0	.	.	30.4	64.7	.	24.0
.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.

**Table B.6 Green growth (EU-figures) (end)**

Indicator	Unit	Year	AT	BE	BG	HR	CY	CZ	DK	EE	FI	FR
<b>Green policy responses</b>												
Share of green taxes	%	2012	5.7	4.8	.	.	.	6.7	8.0	8.6	7.0	4.1
Implicit tax rate for energy	euro per ktoe	2012	145.0	102.4	.	.	.	79.1	303.6	91.1	127.6	161.6
Environmental transfers/subsidies	-	-	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Mitigation expenditure central government	-	-	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Environmental expenditure	% of GDP	2009	3.5	2.4	.	.	.	1.9	.	3.4	1.2	2.4
<b>Economic opportunities</b>												
Green patents	% of applications	2010	8.6	4.2	.	.	.	6.1	9.1	4.5	5.4	5.5
Environmental investments	% of GDP	2009	0.5	0.4	.	.	.	0.6	.	1.1	0.3	0.5
Employment renewable energy sector	-	-	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Employment (EGSS)	-	-	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Value added (EGSS)	-	-	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Austria	(AT)	Ireland	(IE)									
Belgium	(BE)	Italy	(IT)									
Bulgaria	(BG)	Lithuania	(LT)									
Cyprus	(CY)	Luxembourg	(LU)									
Czech Republic	(CZ)	Latvia	(LV)									
Germany	(DE)	Malta	(MT)									
Denmark	(DK)	Netherlands	(NL)									
Estonia	(EE)	Poland	(PL)									
Greece	(EL)	Portugal	(PT)									
Spain	(ES)	Romania	(RO)									
Finland	(FI)	Sweden	(SE)									
France	(FR)	Slovenia	(SI)									
Croatia	(HR)	Slovakia	(SK)									
Hungary	(HU)	United Kingdom	(UK)									

Source: [http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/statistics\\_explained/index.php/Glossary:Country\\_codes/nl](http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/statistics_explained/index.php/Glossary:Country_codes/nl).

	DE	EL	HU	IE	IT	LV	LT	LU	MT	NL	PL	PT	RO	SK	SI	ES	SE	UK
	5.6	8.4	6.5	8.7	6.9	.	.	6.2	.	9.1	.	6.7	.	.	6.2	4.8	5.6	.
185.3	186.1	75.4	172.1	233.4	.	.	181.3	.	180.2	.	134.1	.	.	47.5	114.2	216.9	276.3	.
	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
1.7	.	1.3	.	2.8	.	.	.	.	2.3	.	1.4	.	.	1.0	1.7	1.2	.	
	5.6	11.3	9.7	3.2	4.7	.	.	8.7	.	6.4	.	6.2	.	.	2.4	6.3	6.4	4.3
0.4	.	0.4	.	0.5	.	.	.	.	0.5	.	0.5	.	.	0.4	0.4	0.2	.	
	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.

# References

Agentschap NL (2013), Verklarend onderzoek naar daling octrooiaanvragen vanuit Nederland bij WIPO en EPO.<sup>1)</sup>

Boelhouwer, J. (2013), 'Kwaliteit van leven: Leefsituatie en geluk', in: *Sociale Staat van Nederland*, pp. 279–306, Sociaal en Cultureel Planbureau (SCP), The Hague.

CES (2014), *Measuring Sustainable Development*, Conference of European Statistics.

EC (European Commission) (2011), A resource-efficient Europe – Flagship initiative under the Europe 2020 Strategy, Brussels.

Heertje, A. (2006), *Echte Economie. Een Verhandeling over Schaarste en Welvaart en Over het Geloof in Leermeesters en Lernen*, Nijmegen.

Hennipman, P. (1945), *Economisch Motief en Economisch Principe*, Amsterdam.

Hennipman, P. (1977), *Welvaartstheorie en Economische Politiek*, Alphen aan den Rijn.

Herweijer, L. (2010), 'Grenzen aan de opwaartse onderwijsmobiliteit', In: Van den Broek *et al.* (red.), *Wisseling van de Wacht: Generaties in Nederland*, Sociaal en Cultureel Rapport 2010. Sociaal en Cultureel Planbureau (SCP), The Hague, pp. 43–71.

Hoekstra, R. et al. (2014), Reducing the variation of environmental footprint estimates based on multiregional input-output databases, *Sustainability Accounting, Management and Policy Journal* Vol. 5 No. 3, 2014 pp. 325–345.

Merens, A. en Hermans, B. (2009), *Emancipatiemonitor 2008*, the Netherlands Institute for Social Research/Statistics Netherlands, The Hague/Heerlen.

OECD (2010), *Interim Report of the Green Growth Strategy: Implementing our commitment for a sustainable future*, Meeting of the OECD Council at Ministerial Level, Paris.

<sup>1)</sup> <http://www.rvo.nl/sites/default/files/Verklarend%20onderzoek%20naar%20daling%20octrooiaanvragen%20vanuit%20Nederland%20bij%20WIPO%20en%20EPO.pdf>.

OECD (2011a), *Towards Green Growth*, Paris.

OECD (2011b), *Monitoring Progress Towards OECD Green Growth Indicators*, C(2011)30, Paris.

PBL (2014), *Ontwikkelingen in effecten van Nederlandse consumptie op duurzaamheid*, The Hague.

RIVM (National Institute for Public Health and the Environment) (2013), *Grootschalige concentratie- en depositiekaarten Nederland, Rapportage 2013*, Bilthoven.

Röckström et al. (2009), A safe operating space for humanity, *Nature*, 461 (7263), pp. 472-475.

SCP (Sociaal en Cultureel Planbureau) (2009), *De sociale staat van Nederland*, The Hague.

SER (Sociaal- Economische raad) (2010), *Meer werk maken van duurzaamheid*, Commissie Duurzame Ontwikkeling, The Hague.

Smits, J.P.H. en Hoekstra, R. (2011), *Measuring sustainable development and societal progress: Overview and conceptual approach*, Statistics Netherlands, The Hague.

Statistics Netherlands (2011), *Green growth in the Netherlands*, The Hague/Heerlen.

Statistics Netherlands (2013), *Green growth in the Netherlands, 2012*, The Hague/Heerlen.

Statistics Netherlands (2014), *Economic Radar of the Sustainable Energy Sector in the Netherlands*, The Hague/Heerlen.

Statistics Netherlands, the Netherlands Bureau for Economic Policy Analysis, the Netherlands Environmental Assessment Agency and the Netherlands Institute for Social Research (2009), *Sustainability Monitor for the Netherlands, 2009*, The Hague/Heerlen.

Statistics Netherlands, the Netherlands Bureau for Economic Policy Analysis, the Netherlands Environmental Assessment Agency and the Netherlands Institute for Social Research (2011), *Sustainability Monitor for the Netherlands, 2011*, (only in Dutch), The Hague/Heerlen.

Stiglitz, J.E., Sen, A. en Fitoussi, J.P. (2009), *Report by the Commission on the Measurement of Economic Performance and Social Progress*, Commission on the Measurement of Economic Performance and Social Progress, Paris.

UNEP (2011), *Towards a Green Economy: Pathways to Sustainable Development and Poverty Eradication. A synthesis Report for Policy Makers*, New York.<sup>2)</sup>

Veenhoven, R. (2010), *World Database of Happiness*<sup>3)</sup>, Erasmus Universiteit, Rotterdam.

WCED (World Commission on Environment and Development) (1987), *Our Common Future*, Oxford.

<sup>2)</sup> [www.unep.org/greeneconomy](http://www.unep.org/greeneconomy).

<sup>3)</sup> <http://worlddatabaseofhappiness.eur.nl>.

# Abbreviations

BP	British Petroleum
CBS	Statistics Netherlands (Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek)
CDIAC	Carbon Dioxide Information Analysis Center
CES	Conference of European Statisticians
DMC	Domestic Material Consumption
EBCC	European Bird Census Council
EC	European Commission
EEA	European Environmental Agency
EGSS	Environmental Goods and Services Sector
EMU	European Monetary Union
EQLS	European Quality of Life Survey
ESS	European Social survey
EU	European Union
EU-28	European Union, 28 countries
Eurostat	The European Statistical Bureau
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization
FTE	Full-time equivalents (jobs)
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GGE	Greenhouse Gas Emissions
GHG	Greenhouse Gas
GII	Gender Inequality Index
GNI	Gross national income
ICES	International Council for the Exploration of the Sea
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
ILO	International Labour Organization
KiM	Netherlands Institute for Transport Policy Analysis (Kennisinstituut voor Mobiliteitsbeleid)
KRW	Kader Richtlijn Water (Water Framework Directive)
Ktoe	Kilotonne of oil equivalent (10 <sup>3</sup> tonne of oil equivalent)
LDC's	Least Developed Countries
MHI	Mental Health Inventory
MSA	Mean Species Abundance
NEM	Netwerk Ecologische Monitoring
NL	The Netherlands
NNI	Net National Income
NSF	National Sanitation Foundation
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development

PBL	Netherlands Environmental Assessment Agency (Planbureau voor de Leefomgeving)
PISA	Programme for International Student Assessment
PPP	Purchasing Power Parity
Probos	Non-profit institute for forestry, forest products and services
R&D	Research and Development
RIO+20	International sustainability Summit
RIVM	National Institute for Public Health and the Environment (Rijksinstituut voor Volksgezondheid en Milieu)
RLI	Red List Indicator
RMC	Raw Material Consumption
RVO	Netherlands Enterprise Agency (Rijksdienst voor Ondernemend Nederland)
SCP	Netherlands Institute for Social Research (Sociaal en Cultureel Planbureau)
SER	The Social and Economic Council of the Netherlands (Sociaal-Economische Raad)
UN	United Nations
UNECE	United Nations Economic Commission for Europe
UNEP	United Nations Environment Program
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
WB	World Bank
WCED	World Commission on Environment and Development
WFD	Water Framework Directive
WHO	World Health Organization
WIPO	World Intellectual Property Organization
WODC	Research and Documentation Centre of the Dutch Ministry of Security and Justice

# Acknowledgements

## Steering committee members

Hans Leeflang (chair) and Hanneke Imbens (Statistics Netherlands),  
George Gelauff (CPB), Maarten Haijer (PBL),  
Rob Bijl (SCP) and Robbert Thijssen (I&M)  
Frans Suijker (observer) (Ministry of Economic Affairs)

## Project manager

Jan-Pieter Smits (Statistics Netherlands)

## Authors

Chapters 1, 2: Jan-Pieter Smits (Statistics Netherlands)

Chapter 3: Jan-Pieter Smits (Statistics Netherlands), input by Sonja Kruitwagen (PBL), Jeroen Boelhouwer (SCP) and Johannes Bollen (CPB)

Chapter 4: Kees Baldé and Sjoerd Schenau (Statistics Netherlands), input by the Interdepartmental Working Group on Green Growth

Final editing Chapters 1-4: Statistics Netherlands

## Other contributors

Data co-ordination and editing: Anna Kulig and Karin van der Ven (Statistics Netherlands)

Website co-ordination: Anna Kulig (Statistics Netherlands)

Translation: Rita Gircour (Statistics Netherlands)

